Response to Reviewer Number 3:

We thank reviewer number 3 for his/her comments. In particular, we will focus on the data quality issues here. We also will focus on the expansion of the overall amount of data used, so as to reinforce the validity and uniqueness of this approach. We greatly appreciate all of the depth and complexity, and hope that our hard work has addressed the various suggestions improvements recommended.

The Reviewer’s comments in italics, while our specific responses are in plain text.

1. The plume height analysis entirely depends on CALIPSO extinction profiles and vertical feature mask product. However, both these two products bare uncertainties that could contaminate the results. Especially that the feature classification is based on lidar ratio which is highly uncertain. The author should provide evidence that these data are validated against ground based lidar for the region and period of interest.

We have carefully analyzed the MPL data from the Singapore station, which exists within the “Fire-Region” in this study. We find that throughout the period, the general average mean extinction height varies from 1.8km through 2.1km, which is consistent with the statistical results found using CALIPSO. Hence, we believe we have done at least as well as others, with respect to validating the variables used, over this region. We have added in Supplemental Figure 3 and the following text:

“These results are supported by the statistical values of aerosol heights measured by the MPL station in Singapore throughout the period from September 1 to November 30 (Supplemental Figure 3), which are found to range from 1.6km to 2.4km. While there were no ground-based lidar measurements available in 2006, the year 2015 was another very strong El-Nino year which impacted Singapore with severe downwind aerosols from burning sources, and closely resembled 2006.”

2. The fire region is selected according to MISR AOD. While I agree that MISR cloud screen might be better than MODIS, its sampling is rather poor over low latitudes. This means that many small scale plumes may not be captured by MISR at all. I suggest the authors compare both MODIS and MISR and maybe also OMI which is good in measuring absorbing aerosols to better determine the fire region or to confirm their defined region.

Due to the extensive spatial distribution of the fires, there are almost no visible plumes over this region. They all intermix, and effectively act as a single plume. This is clearly mentioned in the text. In previous work already cited here, we have found that MISR performs better than MODIS in this region of the world, when compared against AERONET. However, we have also used MODIS in this study, as demonstrated in Figure 2 and Supplemental Figure 2. To validate our assertion, we have found that the actual spatial area of cloud-free measurements provided by MODIS is considerably less than MISR. However, the fact that a similar conclusion is made, that the “Fire-Region” has a much higher AOD than the “Non-Fire-Region”, means that these different platforms are at least achieving a similar large-scale result.
3. The authors state that the CALIPSO statistics is based on more than 10,000 profiles. In my opinion, it is not the number of profiles that matters but the number of plumes or fire events that the sampling represents. Usually one plume or event may contain tens or even hundreds of profiles. So are these 10,000 profiles complete or representative or the entire biomass burning season?"

The CALIOP passes are as representative of the total fires as is possible. Every single measurement that intersects the geographical region of interest, is used. Additionally, due to the frequency of the passes, there is enough sampling done to account for any localized events in space or time that may not be representative of the overall fire statistics. To address the issue of representativeness in time, we have expanded the paper’s analysis to encompass the entire fire season. The paper, now using three months of measurements, from September 1st to November 30th. The fire season was found to extend from September 3rd through November 9th. And within this period as a whole, the findings are similar, with the results not significantly changing. Please see the updated results in Figure 2, Figure 3a, and Table 1.

In fact, the only observed change is that the measured heights are slightly lower when also incorporating in the data from September 3rd to September 30th and from November 1st to November 9th. This is consistent with the fact that while both September and November recorded as significant in the past work, that the difference in the measured AOD between the fire-region and non-fire region during this time was smaller than during the October peak. Again, this reinforces the robustness and inclusivity of this approach.

The first conclusion, as already mentioned in this work and previous work, it is impossible to talk about “number of plumes” or “number of fire events”. The entire region is burning, or such a significant amount of the region, that in effect, there is just a single giant plume as far as the atmosphere is concerned. The entire idea of counting individual plumes is outdated, and not really possible. In the atmosphere, due to the amount of fires, and their density, the overall distribution behaves as a “single massive plume”.

4. The conclusion that fire power is underestimated is solely based on matching the plume rise model with CALIPSO observed mid plume height. However, the model still shows quite different low and high plume heights. Given that the latter two is also related to emission power, the conclusion seems unsound."

We believe that the best fit matches with the data for other plume heights are also mentioned in the text. In fact, we specifically stated that a nearly doubling of the radiative power is required to match with the middle-upper height. We additionally talk about how there are other, higher-order and non-linear feedbacks, that impact the system, that are beyond the scope of this analysis, but are consistent with the findings here, especially for the top and bottom values. The basic point is that even a scaled plume-rise approach will not be able to accurately reproduce the top or bottom of the plume, under the conditions observed in this environment.
This is especially so in the cloudy tropics. Under such intense radiation, strongly absorbing smoke aerosol has significant impacts on the direct effect (near the bottom of the column) and the semi-direct effect (near the top of the column). Furthermore, local convection may also impact the plume rise height. This is already mentioned in the paper.

“5. I still have some problem with the claim that the result of the current paper is very different from previous studies. This is also the main issue raised by the first round of reviewers. The authors cited Tosca et al. (2011) who stated that the plumes are mostly confined within the boundary layer. The Tosca et al. results are based on the entire 2001-2009 period rather than just October 2006, therefore not directly comparable with the current study. The authors need to be more careful about their statement and conclusion and provide direct comparisons with previous research.”

First of all, the majority of fires occurring during the period from September through November, occur in this region of the world. Secondly, 2006 was specifically chosen, as it was one of the years with the most available amounts of smoke events, due to the dryness associated with El-Nino. This was also clearly mentioned in Tosca et al. (2011).

In fact, their paper also specifically pointed to October 2006 as a case study, and hence a direct comparison is indeed able to be made. This is why we have extended our analysis from September 1st to November 30th, so that we can capture the entire breadth of the fire season. In addition, other such papers have also now been cited in the latest update, including: Campbell, et al. (2013); Lee, et al. (2016); Sugimoto, et al. (2014a); and Sugimoto, et al. (2014b). It is true that there are not many papers with respect to this region, and furthermore it is true that none of the available other works have gone into the depth and clarity with how they have analyzed the data, and hence, it may not be possible to find any more closely-related work.

“6. Lines 162-163: is the resolution 10km or 1km? Also I suggest the authors change the “x” in “10kmx10km” to the real multiplication signs by inserting symbols.”

The symbol issue has been taken care of. Thank you for pointing this out. The resolution is 10km for the AOD product and 1km for the FRP and fire temperature products.

“7. Lines 183-185: please provide references that AOD and other products are validated.”

Additional references indicating AOD validation have been included.

“8. Lines 258-260: I don’t understand this sentence. Please rephrase.”

This has been re-written. Thank you.

“9. Line 289: “this work’s underlying Kalman Filter plus variance maximization inversely modeled fields”, is this used in the plume rise model? If so, please describe more specifically in the model description section.”
This is the spatial region that is used for defining the “Fire-Region” and the “non-Fire-Region”. This is now made more clear in the text.

“10. Line 325: lower temperature should correspond to “lower emission factor” rather than “higher aerosol emission factor”.”

We think it is much more complex than this, and hence disagree to making this change. Lower temperature should correspond to a lesser amount of burnt material, and hence a lower absolute emissions of total carbon to the atmosphere. However, sometimes at lower temperatures, especially in the wet tropics, the actual mass of aerosol being produced is higher. This has to do with the water content leading to less oxygen being available for combustion, and the combustion occurring at a lower temperature. In the end, this leads to more incomplete combustion, and hence more volatile species being produced, as well as BC and OC emissions. Frequently at very high temperature, these species are more highly oxidized and hence have less mass remaining in the aerosol phase. Thank you for this interesting point, as it provides a future basis upon which to continue looking more deeply into the topics raised here.

“11. Line 400-401: This statement is too strong. Given the data quality problem and model mismatch problem, I don’t think the work “comprehensively quantifies ...”.”

The suggestion has been addressed and the sentence re-worded.

“12. The paper still has many grammar mistakes, such as verbs associated with plural or single forms. Please double check”

Thank you for pointing this out. A careful review has found some additional errors and fixed them.
Response to Reviewer Number 4:

“The manuscript uses satellite-derived AOD to spatially and temporally constrain the sampling of smoke aerosols with an aim to examine the aerosol vertical distributions, measured from CALIOP, over the maritime continent during the 2006 El Nino. The observed aerosol vertical distributions were then used to compare with the results of a simple plume rise model. The study provides some insights into the aerosol signature in terms of vertical distribution during El Nino conditions and the limitations of plume rise models. But additional evidences and analysis are required to support the conclusions. Several major comments have to be addressed. Furthermore, the manuscript readability and clarity has to be improved before the publication in ACP.”

Thank you very much for your deeply reflective and insightful comments. We have carefully parsed through them and worked our hardest to address them. We have done significantly more work and analytics, as well as extending the period of the data analyzed. Overall our same conclusions are found, but they are now strengthened. By extending the analysis to the entire fire season, not just the peak of the fire season, we have more conclusively exhibited our findings, and determined that the underlying points are still the same. We still find that the vast majority of the measured aerosol is in the free troposphere. Second, that the existing plume models are biased in terms of reproducing the lower portions of the plume, and are not capable of reproducing the extremes in the plume height. Third, that the underestimation of measured FRP leads to an improvement in being able to model the central characteristics of the plume, even given the uncertainty in average boundary layer characteristics, if FRP enhancements are applied piecemeal. However, fourth, that to model some essential statistics, such as the plume distribution, or the extreme plume height values, that fundamental changes to the models themselves will need to be made. We have also spent extensive time and care to re-write the paper and make it more readable.

“1. More elaborations and descriptions are required for CALIPSO data processing. Which version and level of CALIOP product? Is each individual measurement under cloud-free conditions? If yes, which cloud mask data was used? How many samples in total? What is the threshold value of extinction form CALIOP data (please consider the daytime background solar illumination by Winker et al., 2013)? In addition, an analysis of the uncertainties of the CALIOP-derived vertical aerosol extinction, in particular over this region, is needed.”

Thank you very much for your detailed suggestions. A couple of paragraphs and sentences have been added addressing the data processing, cloud-conditions, masking data, and number of samples in total. In addition, we have thoroughly read your paper cited it, and included some specific points from it, since we believe that it strengthens the overall conclusion. We do agree with you that a deeper study of aerosol extinction over this region is warranted, and possibly can follow-up in a future, more detailed analysis. However, at the present time, we do not consider or use the extinction data from CALIOP in this work, only from MODIS and MISR.
“2. The effects of the uncertainty in boundary layer depth need to be considered. The authors simply use the 1000 m to approximate the boundary layer height. Assuming the boundary layer has \( \pm 300 \) m uncertainties during the CALIPSO overpass, which is totally possible, what are the uncertainties of the percentage of free atmosphere aerosol estimated by your method? When taking this into account, how does your result compare with previous studies?”

This is a very fair comment, especially given the uncertainty in boundary layer height in the tropics. The analysis has been expanded to include this uncertainty band, and the results have been correspondingly updated throughout the manuscript. The findings show that the elevated levels during the October maximum are more significant than the entire fire season, but that this difference is considerably smaller than between the fire-region and the non fire-region. Furthermore, the difference between the boundary layer uncertainty is also considerably smaller than between the fire-region and the non fire-region. Hence, the results have been statistically strengthened by this analysis.

**Therefore, many thanks again for this suggestion,** even though it took a considerable amount of time to properly implement.

“3. The author uses aerosol-induced in-situ stabilization as a possible explanation to the underestimation of plume height by model. But the rationale seems problematic. The model does not account for the effect of aerosol-induced stabilization which actually happens in the real atmosphere. The stabilization causes weaker buoyancy, thus lower plume height. Therefore the model that misses such stabilization should overestimate, not underestimate, the plume height.”

Actually, this is a very important point and it has been re-explained further in the text. We agree with you that, at the surface, the aerosol effect reduces the buoyancy, by reducing the incoming solar radiation. However, due to the large amount of highly absorbing aerosols, it actually increases buoyancy near the top of the plume. And this increase is further enhanced by the fact that once the aerosols are over the cloud top (as observed), that this absorption is doubled. Hence, it serves the effect of reducing the heights near the bottom, while simultaneously increasing the heights near the top. On the other hand, if the surface fire radiative power were higher, say to the extent that most of the plume were lofted to or above the cloud deck, which is what is observed, then this would not be the case. The reduced buoyancy due to the aerosol direct effect is overcome near the bottom by the additional heating. While on the other hand, the spread at the top would be increased, due to the additional heating. Hence, a bias would occur, where the top of the plume would be found to be biased slightly higher, which is what the measurements seemingly demonstrate.

“4. The comparison between model and observation is insufficient. The observation misses 3 days and the model misses 9 days with only 18 days left. This is rather a small sample. Since the fires lasts from September to November, it is worthwhile to expand the analysis to September and November. In addition, the analysis is primarily limited to the monthly averages. The authors do show the comparisons in daily basis in Figure 4, but
do not analyze them. In particular, the three special days mentioned in section 3.2 are good example cases to analyze in order to shed more light on the observation-model comparisons. Such more comprehensive analysis is very worthwhile in order to support the conclusions of how to reduce model bias which is actually not well examined or indicated in the manuscript."

The analysis has been increased to the entire time period corresponding with the increase in measurements and still constrained by the MODIS observations of being within the fire season. There are now a total of 47 days in common to be analyzed. As is expected, including the additional days has led to the mismatch between the model and the measurements to be less large, but it has not changed the statistical significance, the sign, or the overall value significantly. Details have been addressed in an updated Figure 4 and in the text. This includes some details of special days as well. As expected, the maximum and most intense part of the fire season, October, has the largest mis-match. However, the bias in the model mismatch, in particular for the median and lower plume heights, and the large majority of the plume still being measured in the lower free troposphere are still consistent across the entire fire season. Just less so over the entire fire season. This additional work has strongly enhanced the overall results of the work.

"Line 15: “measurements and modeling”. Please specify which measurement and which model.”

This has been modified and explained in more detail.

"Line 16: “underestimated” by what?”

This has been addressed.

"Line 51: Sentence not readable”

This has been addressed.

"Line 53 ~ 54: “underestimation” in “spatial, and temporal distribution”? ”

This has been made clear.

"Line 60: Change “show” to “shown” “

Done.

"Line 75: Show full name of “CALIOP” ”

Inserted at the first point CALIOP is mentioned.

"Line 77: Show full name of “SSA” ”

Inserted at the first point SSA is mentioned.
Inserted at the first point SSA is mentioned.

“Line 77: “go with each pass”. Is it scientific language?”

This has been updated to be more technical and precise.

“Line 82: grammar error”

This has been rewritten.

“Line 85: Show full name of “MISR” ”

Done.

“Line 157: Please provide the reference.”

Done.

“Line 158: delete one “are” ”

Done.

“Line 162–167: Show full name of “AERONET”, “NOAA”, “RMS”, “RCP”, “GDED” ”

Done.

“Line 167: what is R2 statistic? ”

Coefficient of determination. It relates the amount of variance observed in the response variable by the test variable. This commonly used statistic has been defined more clearly and in more depth.

“Line 204–206: Please provide new plot to show them more directly.”

Figure 4 has been both updated to demonstrate the additional days of model results, as well as being completely reformatted to make it clearer and easier to understand and interpret. Thank you for the suggestion.

“Line 218: Show full name of “BC” ”

Done.

“Line 272: add “of” after “and” ”

Done.
“Line 285~286: Why not examining the hypothesis by looking at precipitation data from ATrain?”

This has now been done in depth. One and a half paragraphs have been added to the manuscript, as well as a Supplemental figure. The results support the previous hypothesis.

“One consistent rationale is that there was large-scale precipitation event at that time, which in turn both increased aerosol removal and wetting of the surface. This in turn led to lower temperature and FRP and correspondingly higher aerosol emissions factor on these days. Overall, there is no apparent impact of day-to-day variability of measured FRP driving observed variation in measured aerosol heights, and hence only high confidence fire data is subsequently used.

To examine this hypothesis, the GPCP [Global Precipitation Climatology Project] One-Degree Daily Precipitation Data Set of global precipitation has been employed to study the amount and duration of rainfall over the fire-burning and non fire-burning regions [Huffman et al., 2012]. A spatial/temporal analysis of this dataset, over both the Fire Region and the No-Fire region confirms this hypothesis (Supplemental Figure 4) Supp. Overall, there was considerably lower rainfall over the Fire Region than the No-Fire Region, however, on all days that there was a decrease in AOD and FRP over the Fire Region, there was a heavy Rainfall at the same time, or one or two days before. The measurements have a correlation coefficient of -0.39 with a corresponding p<0.01. There is no other statistically significant correlation found over any other combination of the regions with any other combination of rainfall.”

“Line 290: Show full name of “MERRA” ”

Done. The sentence has also been re-written.

“Line 360-361: “vertical distribution” is not a parameter to be “estimated”. ”

This has been addressed.

“Figure 1: What does the color stand for? Please add a title to the colorbar.”

This has been added to the figure caption.

“Figure 4: The comparison is really not readable. Please make it more clear.”

This has been addressed in the new Figure 4.
**Vertical distribution of aerosols over the Maritime Continent during El Nino**

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**Abstract.** The vertical distribution of aerosols over Southeast Asia, a critical factor impacting aerosol lifetime, radiative forcing, and precipitation, is examined for the 2006 post El-Nino fire burning season. Combining these measurements with remotely sensed land, fire, and meteorological measurements, and fire plume modeling, we have reconfirmed that fire radiative power is underestimated over Southeast Asia by MODIS measurements. These results are derived using a significantly different approach. The horizontally constrained Maritime Continent’s fire plume median height, using the maximum variance of satellite observed Aerosol Optical Depth as the spatial and temporal constraint, is found to be 2.04 ± 1.52 km during the entirety of the 2006 El Nino fire-season, and 2.19 ± 1.50 km for October 2006. This is 0.83 km (0.98 km) higher than random sampling and all other past studies. Additionally, it is determined that 61(±6-10)% of the bottom of the smoke plume and 33(±8-11)% of the median of the smoke plume is in the free troposphere during the October maximum; while correspondingly 49%(±7-9)% and 75%(±12-13)% of the total aerosol plume and the median of the aerosol plume, are found in the free troposphere during the entire fire-season. The vastly different vertical distribution will have impacts on aerosol lifetime and dispersal. Application of a simple plume rise model using measurements of fire properties underestimates the median plume height by 0.26 km over the entire fire season and 0.34 km over the Maximum fire period. It is noted that the model underestimation over the bottom portions of the plume are much larger. The center of the plume can be reproduced when fire radiative power is increased by 20% (with other parts of the plume ranging from an increase of 0% to 60% depending on the portion of the plume and the length of the fire season considered).

However, to reduce the biases found, improvements including fire properties under cloudy conditions, representation of small scale convection, and inclusion of aerosol direct and semi-direct effects is required. The results provide the unique aerosol signature of fire under El-Nino conditions.
1. Introduction

Properly quantifying the vertical distribution of aerosols is essential to constrain their atmospheric distribution, and in turn, the atmospheric energy budget [Ming et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2008], and understand their impact on circulation, clouds and precipitation [Tao et al., 2012; Wang 2013], and human health [Burnett et al., 2014]. However, there are complicating factors including spatial and temporal heterogeneity in emissions [Cohen and Wang, 2014; Cohen, 2014; Giglio et al., 2006; Petrenko et al., 2012; Wooster et al., 2012], and uncertainties and non-linearities associated with aerosol processing and removal from the atmosphere [Tao et al., 2012; Cohen and Prinn, 2011; Cohen et al., 2011]. Furthermore, a lack of sufficiently dense measurements leads to difficulty constraining the measured distribution of aerosols over scales from hundreds to thousands of kilometers or over time frames on the decadal to longer time scales [Cohen and Wang, 2014; Delene and Ogren, 2002; Dubovik et al., 2000; Cohen et al., 2017].

Models are very poor at reproducing the actual vertical distribution of atmospheric aerosols [Cheng et al., 2012; Schuster et al., 2005; Tsigeridis et al., 2014]. They also tend to strongly underestimate the total atmospheric column loading of aerosols [Colarco et al., 2004; Leung et al., 2007]. Furthermore, vertical measurements are sparse, and in many regions do not provide adequate statistics to make informed comparisons with real world conditions. This is no more apparent than over Southeast Asia, where model studies [Tosca et al., 2011; Martin et al., 2012] have concluded that almost all aerosols are narrowly confined in the planetary boundary layer, although measurements demonstrate otherwise [Lin et al., 2014]. Presently, there are no known modeling efforts that have been able to reproduce this significant atmospheric loading and the ensuing vertical distribution.

Additionally, aerosol emissions databases in Southeast Asia are quantified using a bottom-up approach, where small samples and statistics of the activity, land-use, economics, population, and hotspots are aggregated [van der Werf, 2010; Lamarque, 2010; Bond et al., 2004]. This problem is further exacerbated by the fact that emissions from organic soils are already not well studied even in non-tropical regions (Urbanski, 2014). This generally leads to sizable bias, since there are few measurements and rapidly changing land-surface features over Southeast Asia. A recent couple of papers, using measurements and models in tandem, has quantified a significant underestimation in aerosol emissions over Southeast Asia in terms of magnitude [Cohen and Wang, 2014], as well as in terms of the spatial and temporal distribution of the emissions [Cohen, 2014], including interannual and intraannual variation from fires.

Furthermore, the vertical distribution is uncertain due to incomplete understanding of in-situ production and removal mechanisms, which are dependent on washout, which is also poorly modeled [Tao et al., 2012; Wang 2013], especially in the tropics during the dry season [Petersen and Rutledge, 2001; Ekman et al., 2012], due to the random nature of convective precipitation. Heterogeneous aerosol processing may also change the hygroscopicity and hence vertical distribution of the aerosols [Kim et al., 2008, Cohen et al., 2011]. These factors have been shown to combine such that small changes in the initial vertical distribution can lead to ultimate transport thousands of kilometers apart [Wang, 2013].
The Maritime Continent of Southeast Asia has faced widespread and ubiquitous fires the past few decades, due to expanding agriculture, urban development, economic growth, and changes in the base climatology that induce drought [Center, 2005; Dennis et al., 2005; van der Werf et al., 2008; Taylor, 2010]. These fires contribute the major fraction of the atmospheric aerosol burden during the dry season [Cohen, 2014]. However, these fires are unique: they are relatively low in radiative power and temperature, yet cover a massive net surface area, making their statistics and extent hard to characterize from remote sensing. Yet, their total emissions are very high and they dominate the aerosol optical depth (AOD) and PM$_2.5$ levels over thousands of kilometers [Field et al., 2009; Nakajima et al., 1999]. Due to their widespread nature, fires in this region are geospatially coherent in their timing and geography, although individually they burn for different lengths of time, as a function of localized precipitation and soil moisture, and global circulation patterns such as El-Nino [Cohen, 2014; Wooster et al., 2012; Hansen, 2008].

A comprehensive previous attempt to study aerosol height over Southeast Asia was performed by Lee et al. [2016]. They used the total Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP) profile, but were not specific about how they cleared or accounted for high ice clouds that frequently found in this part of the world. They also used day-time data without considering the issues of solar reflection and backscatter [Winker et al., 2011]. Furthermore, they used satellite derived single scattering albedo (SSA) approximated by each pass, although this product has been shown to be highly error-prone over Southeast Asia [Cohen et al., 2009; Hostetler, 2008]. This work did not address how the spatially-disparate individual path measurements from CALIOP, sampling both fire plume and non fire plume pixels jointly, as compared to the approach used by Cohen [2014] and Cohen et al. [2017]. While there were a few other attempts to use CALIOP over this region, there has not been any direct local validation of the CALIOP product by other Lidar related instruments [Sugimoto et al., 2014a]. The only comparisons made so far have been model-based validation studies [Campbell et al., 2013].

This work describes a new approach to comprehensively sample the vertical distribution of smoke aerosols, by first using decadal scale measurements of AOD from the Multi-angle Imaging SpectroRadiometer (MISR) satellite [Cohen, 2014], and then separating the smoke impacted regions by the magnitude of the measured variability. During the 2006 El-Nino enhanced burning, one of the 2 largest such events over the past 15-year measurement record, this approach yields a much higher vertical aerosol height than the traditional random sampling approach. A simple plume-rise model [Achtemeier et al., 2011; Briggs, 1965] using reanalysis meteorology [Kalnay et al., 1996] and measured fire properties was found to underestimate the measured heights. However, the model could be improved to match the median heights by increasing the measured fire radiative power [Sessions et al., 2011; Sofiev et al., 2012], implying that the measured fires may be underestimated in terms of their strength, or that there are missing fires. However, the top and bottom heights of the measured plume still cannot be reproduced. The data shows that an improved representation of both localized convective transport and the aerosol direct and semi-direct
2. Methods

2.1 Geography

This work is focused on the Maritime Continent, a sub region of Southeast Asia (8°S to 8°N, 95°E to 125°E) (Figure 1) that experiences wide-spread and highly emitting fires on a yearly basis during the local dry season (starting in August/September and proceeding continuously through October/November). The combined magnitude of the fires produces effectively a single massive smoke plume in the atmosphere, that covers much of the region, extending thousands of kilometers [Cohen, 2014]. These wide spread fires are due to anthropogenic clearing of rainforest and agriculture [Cohen et al., 2017; Dennis et al., 2005; van der Werf et al., 2008; Taylor, 2010; Miettinen et al., 2013; Langmann et al., 2009]. Over this region, during the dry season, the removal of aerosols is quite slow, leading to the overall properties of the plume being relatively consistent over space and time [Cohen, 2014]. Therefore, the overall properties of the smoke plume, when correctly bounded in space and time, can be robustly statistically related to the overall properties of individual fires, and daily measurements of AOD from the MISR satellite (Figure 1) [Cohen, 2014].

In 2006, the El-Nino conditions led to an enhanced drought, with subsequent fires lasting from September through November. To ensure that this event is uniquely and completely analyzed, data from September 3rd through November 9th is ultimately used (more details are given in Figure 2 and Figure 3a, which are defined later). The region in (Figure 1) with the EOF larger than 2.2 (Bjornsson and Venegas, 1997; Cohen et al., 2017), calculated from the measured MISR AOD, comprising the boundary of the source regions (over land) and downwind regions (over both land and sea). This analytically provides a holistic representation in space and time of the impact of individual fires on the large-scale structure of the aerosol plume, hence allowing a comprehensive sampling of the vertical distribution of the smoke, including all sources, both observed and obscured by clouds (very common in this region), and aged aerosols downwind from their initial sources.

2.2 Measurements

The CALIOP instrument is an active lidar, quantifying the vertically resolved atmospheric backscatter strength at 532 nm and 1064 nm (a reasonable approximation of the vertical profile of aerosols), and and polarization at 532 nm. The combination of these measurements allows additionally for an indication of particle size (large or small) and cloud or aerosol [Winker et al., 2003]. Specifically, we use the backscatter at 532nm and the vertical feature mask (vertical resolution 30m below 8.2km and 60m from 8.2km to 20.2km, horizontal resolution 1/3km) [Hostetler et al., 2006]. Clouds are identified and removed, and night time data only is used, to avoid issues of cloud contamination and solar reflectance [Winker et al., 2013]. Since the width of each pass is narrow, they are not spatially representative in general. However, given the relative consistency of the plume as a whole, samples constrained within the plume’s spatial
extent, taken on the same day, are statistically representative of the smoke plume as a whole [Cohen, 2014]. This approach is not only consistent with [Winker et al., 2013], but actually takes the results one step further, but relaxing the uniform “horizontal box size”, and instead re-focusing it in a scientifically homogenous and representative manner, consisting of a much larger number of measurements, allowing for improved statistical representation.

The extinction-weighted top (10% vertically integrated height), middle-upper (30% vertically integrated height), median (50% vertically integrated height), middle-lower (70% vertically integrated height), and bottom (90% vertically integrated height) are computed for each individual measurement, with the values retained if the aerosol is not in the stratosphere (assumed to be 15km) (Supplemental Figure 1).

The data is then aggregated first by day, and secondly by geography, either into the fire-impacted region, or non fire-impacted region, based on (Figure 1) [Cohen, 2014]. The aggregated set of measurements is used to compute probability densities and statistics, demonstrating the vast difference over the fire-impacted and non-fire impacted regions (Figures 3a, 3b). The vertical heights both significantly higher and less variable (p<0.01) over the fire region than the non-fire region, inclusively from September 3rd through November 9th.

Measurements of aerosol optical depth (AOD) [Kaufman et al., 2003], fire radiative power (FRP) and fire temperature (Tf) [Freeborn et al., 2014; Ichoku et al., 2008] are obtained from the MODIS instrument aboard both the TERRA and AQUA satellites. Version 5, level 2, swath-by-swath measurements, at daily resolution are used for AOD (best solution 0.55 micron), with a spatial resolution of 10km by 10km, and FRP/Tf, with a spatial resolution of 1km by 1km. Given the prevalence of clouds in this region, the cloud-cleared products are used, leading to a possible low bias in the FRP/Tf measurements, as well as some fires not measured at all [Cohen et al., 2017; Freeborn et al., 2014; Ichoku et al., 2008; Kahn et al., 2008; Kahn et al., 2007]. On the other hand, while some grids are contaminated, the sheer spatial distance of the plume and the fact that the overwhelming majority of atmospheric aerosols during this time of the year are due to fires, means that there is no observable bias in the overall statistics of the measured AOD [Cohen, 2014], as observed by looking at the spatially averaged MODIS AOD and statistics over the fire-constrained and non fire-constrained regions (Figure 2). The AOD is higher (p<0.01) over the fire-constrained region, from September 3rd through November 9th, making the findings consistent with the approach employing the 12 years worth of MISR measurements, as well as the results from the CALIOP observations already discussed.

In terms of MODIS retrieval uncertainties over land, especially during fire events, there are two important issues to consider. The first is that under extremely high AOD conditions (AOD>2), frequently aerosols are flagged/reclassified as clouds, which brings about a negative bias. This bias would lead to an even higher AOD over the fire plume region if it were properly handled, leading to an even larger difference between “fire region” and the “non-fire region”. The second is the error in the over-land retrieval can go as high as 15%. However, based on the results in (Figure 2 and Supplemental Figure 2), the difference between the “fire region” and the “non-fire region” is statistically sound even assuming the error...
is larger than 15%. It is also the reason why MISR was used for the initial definition of the two regions, since its ability to cloud clear is better than MODIS over this region [Kahn et al., 2010].

While there are many errors involved with using the satellite data, the errors in this case are sufficiently small as to not impact the analysis and results over Southeast Asia during the fire season (Cohen, 2014; Cohen et al., 2017). The AOD and certain surface products, when used to run models, have been found to compare in magnitude, spatial, and temporal extent, to various ground based surface and column measurements, such as from Aerosol Robotic Network [AERONET], the United States National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration surface measurement network [NOAA], and other available air pollution networks. The data-driven models have been shown to lead to a reduction in the annualized RMS error as compared with the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Representative Concentration Pathways [IPCC RCP] emissions scenarios by a factor of 2 to 8 against AERONET stations throughout Asia (Cohen and Wang, 2014). Furthermore, on a month-to-month basis, the results of the data-driven models have been shown to lead to a reduction in the RMS error by a factor of 1.8 and of an improvement in the coefficient of determination statistic $R^2$ by a value of 0.2 to 0.3, when compared against the Global Fire Emissions Database [GFED] dataset (Cohen 2014; Cohen et al. 2017). Given these findings, it is reasonable to assume that the methodology is as reliable as anything else presently available, with respect to this work.

### 2.3 Plume Rise Model

A simple model is employed to simulate the height to which a parcel of air initially at the surface over the fire will rise, based on buoyancy, vertical, and horizontal advection (Supplement). The formulation requires information about the temperature and radiative power of the fire as well as local meteorology [Achtemeier et al., 2011; Briggs, 1965], and yields an idealized height to which aerosols emitted will rise. The buoyant plume rise is a thermodynamic approximation in nature and thus not as physically realistic as a large eddy approach, which solves the atmospheric fluid dynamical equations by parameterizing turbulence at the scale of tens of meters. However, it is less computationally expensive and more generalizable in the context of approximating the thousands of fires spread geographically over hundreds of thousands of square kilometers. On the other hand, it is more physically realistic than empirical relationships from multi-angle measurements [Sofiev et al., 2012], which have also been attempted, but show poor performance in Southeast Asia.

These relationships are efficiently solved using measurements of meteorological and fire properties, allowing them to be used as rapid parameterizations within regional or global models. However, there are errors associated with reconciling the different temporal and spatial scales of reanalysis meteorology, especially convection and associated transport. Secondly, cloud-cover in this region leads to both missing fires and low-bias in measurements of fire properties [Sofiev et al., 2012; Kaufman et al., 2003]. Third, the cloud-cover also leads to a heavier contribution of model results in the reanalysis meteorology. Finally, the effects of the optically thick aerosol plume’s feedback on the radiative profile is
3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Measured Aerosol Vertical Distribution

The fire-constrained monthly aggregated daily statistics of the measured vertical aerosol height from CALIPSO [Winker et al., 2003] is given in (Figure 3a), with the aggregated statistics from the October fire-maximum time and (the entirety of the fire season) over the fire-constrained region of the bottom, middle-lower, median, middle-upper, and top heights respectively: 1.68 ± 1.55 km (1.4%), 1.58 km, 1.92 ± 1.51 km (1.76 ± 1.54 km), 2.19 ± 1.50 km (2.04 ± 1.52 km), 2.53 ± 1.51 km (2.38 ± 1.54 km), and 3.03 ± 1.52 km (2.91 ± 1.57 km) (Table 1). These results are supported by the statistical values of aerosol heights measured by the MPL station in Singapore throughout the period from September 1 to November 30, 2015 (Supplemental Figure 3), which are found to range from 1.6 km to 2.4 km. 2015 was selected to compare against ground-based lidar measurements, since there were none available from 2006, and 2015 was also a strong El-Nino year which impacted Singapore, including very large amounts of downwind aerosols arriving from burning sources. Overall, the close resemblance between these years allows inference from the results.

On the other hand, the non fire-constrained region’s aggregated statistics of the measured vertical aerosol height is quite different (Figure 3b), with the respective bottom, middle-lower, median, middle-upper, and top heights during the October maximum-fire period being: 0.65 ± 0.98 km, 0.93 ± 0.98 km, 1.21 ± 1.00 km, 1.53 ± 1.02 km, and 1.98 ± 1.08 km (Table 1). The average aerosol height over the fire-constrained region is both much higher and more variable at every vertical level as compared to the non-fire-constrained domain. This difference leads to 61±6-10% of the bottom of the smoke plume and 83±8-11% of the median of the smoke plume in the free troposphere during the October maximum; while 49±7-9% and 75±12-12% of the respective bottom and median of the aerosol loading is in the free troposphere over the entirety of the fire-season, over fire-constrained domain. On the other hand, only 17±10-9% of the median of the aerosol loading is located in the free troposphere over the non fire-constrained domain during the October maximum fire period. However, the variability is roughly constant at all levels over the fire-constrained region, while the variability increases with vertical level, over the non fire-constrained region. These results are based on more than 10,000 daily CALIOP measurements.

All three findings, higher average aerosol height, larger variance of height, and a consistent variance of height at all levels, are consistent with areas where most of the aerosol loading is due to surface fires. Firstly, the buoyancy from fires increases the expected height, with differences in buoyancy from different strength fires producing random variability in the measured heights. So long as the distribution of fire strength and meteorology do not differ too much from day-to-day, the variance in aerosol heights should also not vary much. On the other hand, over non fire-constrained regions, the major contribution to the vertical aerosol variability is convection, which is expected to increase in variability the higher one moves upwards from the surface.
Furthermore, the relatively constant variability across the heights in the fire-constrained region is consistent with a proposed radiative-stabilization effect. The extremely high measured AOD values found by MODIS [Kaufman et al., 2003] over the fire-constrained domain (from 0.5 to 2.0, with most days over 1.0), leads to observable surface cooling (Figure 2). Additionally, black carbon aerosols (BC) emitted from the fire, absorbs incoming solar radiation near the upper portion of the plume, providing a source of warming. This combination leads to additional stabilization of the atmosphere, and therefore reinforces the observed vertical aerosol distribution.

These results are thus consistent with the observed reduction in in-situ vertical processing over the regions downwind from the fire sources, but still within the fire-constrained plume region, where buoyancy from the fires and the self-stabilization effect seem to contribute more than random deep convection. However, over the non fire-constrained region, given the low AOD and lack of fires, both of these effects are not observed, and convection dominates, which is consistent with the less uniform vertical distribution. Given these clear and observed differences, only results from the fire-constrained region will be considered further.

A significant amount of aerosol mass exists in the free troposphere over this region. Assuming the measured boundary layer height can be represented by the range from 700m to 1300m, with a central value of 1000m, as observed in Singapore [Chew et al., 2013]) and applied over the domain, the resulting total loading of aerosols over the boundary layer can be computed. This value, when applied over the entire geographical domain, the amount of measurements above the boundary layer in October is found to be

\[ \text{[67.61, 80.70, 61], [91.83, 72], [96.92, 83], and [99.97, 94]} \% \], respectively of the bottom, lower-middle, median, upper-middle and top extinction. Although October is slightly more intense, the same pattern, just to a slightly lesser extent, is found throughout the entire season, with [56.49, 40]%, [72.61, 51], [87.75, 63], [96.90, 77]%, and [99.97, 93]% of the measurements respectively of the bottom, lower-middle, median, upper-middle and top extinction. This is much higher than previous studies, which indicated most of the smoke remained within the boundary layer [Tosca et al., 2011].

Analysis of the daily measured heights demonstrates 3 statistically unique days: October 11th, 15th and 22nd (Table 2). On the 11th, the top and upper-middle measurements fall within the top 15%, while the median measurements fall within the top 20% of the month’s measurements, implying that the result is consistent with a deep, single layer, extending throughout the lower and middle free-troposphere. The 15th and 22nd, while not being as high in the middle-troposphere, also have little to no aerosol in the planetary boundary layer due to being more confined in the vertical, implying a narrow layer in the middle free-troposphere. These results are consistent with the measured aerosol layer being mostly in the free troposphere, a result that is not consistent with the measured FRP or meteorology, leading to two important implications. Firstly, the aerosol lifetime on these days will be considerably longer than models typically reproduce and the radiative forcing will be considerably more warming. Secondly, that typical modeling approach that fresh aerosols are mixed from the surface to the given top of the plume height is likely not
true here, which has implications for the ability of most models to be able to correctly capture the aerosol loading.

On the remaining days, the measured heights are consistent on a daily average basis with relatively uniform emissions, meteorology, and vertical buoyant rise. Although present, intense but heterogeneous forcing impacting the vertical distribution, such as localized convection and aerosol cloud interactions are generally not observed to bias the overall plume’s properties. Only on October 11th, 15th, and 22nd, are there higher heights or a narrower vertical structure, combined with no readily available explanation to be found in the fire, AOD, or meteorological properties on these days. This combination can only be explained by either a clear change in the convection on those days, or some other phenomena not considered in or otherwise represented by the reanalysis meteorology. The robustness of this approach assures the validity of these results over the region and time period herein.

A comparison between the inverse model by Campbell et al. [2013; Supplemental Figure 6] and this work’s underlying Kalman Filter plus variance maximization modeled fields, shows that the new modeling approach performs better during the biomass burning season [Cohen, 2014; Cohen and Wang, 2014; Cohen et al., 2017]. Furthermore, the results found using the approach employed here, match well with individual measurement campaigns done by Lin Neng-Hui, et al. [2013, 2014, etc.], and the AD-Net measurement network [Sugimoto et al., 2014b], that have focused on observations from a small number of on-the-ground lidar at multiple places within the Northern portion of Southeast Asia and Greater East Asia. While the geographic regions are not identical and therefore cannot be used to directly validate the region studied here, there is a sufficient amount of similarity, that there is some likelihood of overlap in the results.

Given these factors, we present the results here as the best available for use at this time, when targeting this region of the world during the biomass burning season.

3.2 Measured Fire and Meteorological Properties

The daily aggregated measurements of fire radiative power (FRP) [Freeborn et al., 2014; Ichoku et al., 2008] indicate there are 109395 actively burning 1km x 1km pixels in October 2006. However, filtering for high confidence [Level 9] active fires, reduces this number to 6941 1km x 1km pixels. The respective measurements have 10%, median, and 90% values of FRP of [115,300,975] W/m² for all fires and [185,540,1495] W/m² for high confidence fires (Table 3). Overall, these values are much lower than FRP measured over other intensely burning regions [Giglio et al., 2006]. However, the results are consistent with the fact that fires in the Maritime Continent occur under relatively wet surface conditions, due to high levels of mineral-soil moisture, extensive peat, and intermittent localized precipitation [Couwenberg et al., 2010]. These results are based on more than 3000 daily MODIS fire hotspots and associated meteorological measurements.

There is only one day, October 2nd, with a statistically high FRP (daily mean more than monthly 90% value), for high confidence fires. Similarly, there are two days, October 28th and 30th, with an abnormally low FRP (daily mean less than monthly 15% value), for high confidence fires. None of these days have a statistically abnormal fire vertical height distribution. However, October 28th and 30th both...
show a sizable increase in AOD over the fire constrained region, with the AOD more than 2 standard deviations greater than the mean over the non fire constrained region, as compared to the period of time from the 25th through the 27th. One consistent rationale is that there was large-scale precipitation event at that time, which in turn both increased aerosol removal and wetting of the surface. This in turn led to lower temperature and FRP and correspondingly higher aerosol emissions factor on these days. Overall, there is no apparent impact of day-to-day variability of measured FRP driving observed variation in measured aerosol heights, and hence only high confidence fire data is subsequently used.

To examine this hypothesis, the GPCP [Global Precipitation Climatology Project] One-Degree Daily Precipitation Data Set of global precipitation has been employed to study the amount and duration of rainfall over the fire-burning and non fire-burning regions [Huffman et al., 2012]. A spatial/temporal analysis of this dataset, over both the Fire Region and the No-Fire region confirms this hypothesis (Supplemental Figure 4) Supp. Overall, there was considerably lower rainfall over the Fire Region than the No-Fire Region, however, on all days that there was a decrease in AOD and FRP over the Fire Region, there was a heavy Rainfall at the same time, or one or two days before. The measurements have a correlation coefficient of -0.39 with a corresponding p<0.01. There is no other statistically significant correlation found over any other combination of the regions with any other combination of rainfall.

The Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications [MERRA] [Rienecker et al., 2011] reanalysis meteorology is used for the horizontal and vertical wind, and vertical temperature profile at each location where a fire is measured (Table 3). MERRA was chosen because it is based on NASA satellite measurements, and thus should be more consistent with the measurements used here. With the exceptions of October 5th and 20th, the horizontal wind is relatively calm 6.0 ± 1.3 m/s. Also, throughout the entire month, the vertical temperature gradient is relatively stable −5.45 ± 0.16K/km, with only 7 individual fires occurring under unstable atmospheric conditions. Therefore, dynamical instability is not expected to contribute greatly to the vertical distribution [Stone and Carlson, 1979]. Also, the role played by the large-scale vertical wind is small 2.1 ± 1.6mm/s. Given the atmospheric stability and fire-controlled buoyancy conditions, the plume rise model approach should offer a reasonable approximation of the aerosol vertical distribution.

The approach used here relies upon the atmosphere being either stable or only minority non-stable. However, in general in this part of the world, there are two reasons that would contribute to most fires occurring under such conditions: firstly, that major instability would frequently lead to rain, fire suppression, and aerosol wash-out; and secondly that the induced surface cooling and atmospheric heating by the extensive aerosol layer itself would tend to increase the atmospheric stability. Such points are made clear in terms of the major unaccounted for processes in the MERRA data at this resolution, being: localized convection (due to the resolution), and the aerosol cooling and in-situ heating effects (not incorporated into MERRA’s underlying model). In theory the direct and semi-direct effect may be able to be parameterized, but this would require a higher order model. Hence, since these conditions and effects are
not considered by the plume rise model, they therefore cannot be explanations for discrepancies in the
dmodeled vertical distribution.

3.3 Modeled Aerosol Vertical Distribution

Applying the plume rise model, the aggregated daily statistics of the vertical aerosol height at the
bottom, lower-middle, median, upper-middle, and top for the October fire-maximum time and (the entirety
of the fire season) are 0.60 km (0.41 km), 1.14 km (0.88 km), 1.85 km (1.40 km), 2.87 km (2.25 km), and
4.99 km (3.95 km) respectively (Figure 4, Table 4). The mean of the daily median, lower-middle, and
bottom modeled heights are consistently lower than the respective mean of the measured heights for the
October fire-maximum time and (the entirety of the fire season) by 0.34 km (0.44 km), 0.78 km (0.88 km),
and 1.08 km (1.08 km) respectively. The day-to-day differences between show that the model generally
underestimates the measurements, with the minimum and maximum differences between the two both
ranging from 0.92 km to 1.36 km, -0.63 km to 2.70 km, and -0.19 km to 3.02 km, respectively. The upper:
middle modeled height is about equal to measurements, with a mean difference for the October fire-
maximum time and (the entirety of the fire season) of an underestimate of 0.34 km over the October
maximum to an overestimate of 0.13 km through the entire fire season. The associated day-to-day
variations are wide, but are roughly centered around zero, and vary from -1.22 km to 1.06 km. Finally, the
top modeled heights are considerably higher than measurements, with an average overestimate for the
October fire-maximum time and (the entirety of the fire season) being 1.96 km and (1.00 km) respectively.
The day-to-day difference between the model and the measurements generally overestimates the
measurements, with a value varying from -1.54 to 0.81 km.

The model underestimates the height of the median through bottom of the plume, while
simultaneously overestimating the top. First, this means that the model is not accounting for enough energy
to obtain the average rise of the plume. At the same time, the modeled vertical spread is too large, implying
other factors limit the height gain near the top of the plume while simultaneously enhance the height near
the bottom. The results are consistent with one or both of the two hypothesized effects; first, that a low bias
exists in the measured values of FRP [Kahn et al., 2007; Kahn et al., 2008], leading to insufficient
buoyancy; and second, that in-situ stabilization occurs due to aerosol radiative cooling in the lower parts of
the plume and aerosol radiative heating within the upper parts of the plume. This combination of factors is
also consistent with the observed underestimate in measured FRP to match the median height, as well as the
hypothesized complete non-detection of small fires [Kaufman et al., 2003]. There are also uncertainties in
the MERRA reanalysis products, but given the large sample size and the narrowness of the MERRA
distribution, the impact of these uncertainties is considerably smaller than changes in the FRP on the order
of 10%.

A sensitivity analysis is used to quantify the effects of a low bias in FRP, by applying a constant
multiplicative factor to the measured FRP for each fire, from 1.0 to 2.0 in steps of 0.1 (although only the
results in steps of 0.2 are given in Table 4). Although there are also uncertainties associated with measured
vertical wind and temperature structure, this is not considered (Table 3), since there is no way to couple
meteorological effects at sub-grid scale, or otherwise not included in the reanalysis meteorology. The
results are obtained by minimizing the root-mean square (RMS) difference between the daily measured and
modeled heights, for each FRP scaling factor, at each of the middle-upper, median, and middle-lower
levels. The respective best-fit enhancement factors over the October fire maximum (and the entire fire
season) are 1.0 (1.0) for middle-upper measurements, having an RMS error of 0.69km (0.66km), 1.2 (1.2)
for median measurements, having an RMS error of 0.78km (0.72km), and 1.6 (1.4) for middle-lower
measurements, having an RMS error of 0.92km (0.82km) (Figure 4).

Another source of uncertainty is due to the height of the boundary layer itself, which is also
uncertain, due to both a lack of measurements, and a poor ability of reanalysis and other global scale
products to simulate the boundary layer, especially in this part of the world. As discussed before, the model
was run in a sensitivity mode, assuming 3 different average boundary layer heights. The results for the
middle-upper, median, and middle-lower levels best fit values over the October fire maximum (and the
entirety of the fire season) are enhancements of 1.0, 1.4, and 1.8 and (1.0, 1.1, and 1.5) respectively for a
boundary layer height of 1300m and 1.0, 1.3, and 1.6 and (1.0, 1.1, and 1.4) for a boundary layer height of
700m. These results show that while this factor is highly important in terms of modulating the magnitude of
the best-fitting FRP scaling factor, that similar biases still exist, where the model is reasonably good at
reproducing the upper-middle levels of the plume, but is strongly biased in the median and middle-lower
levels of the plume. Additionally, the larger values of the RMS error at the two more extreme boundary
layer heights, lend further support to the initial supposition that overall, the boundary layer height, on
average throughout the fire region, lies within these boundaries.

Although there is no single best-fit FRP scaling factor, a reasonable fit of the model, based on
measured values from the middle-lower to the middle-upper plume levels can be obtained by using an
appropriate FRP enhancement. The results establish that current plume rise models can reproduce the
median vertical plume height over Southeast Asia by increasing the FRP by 20%, a finding consistent with
FRP generally underestimated over this region. By changing the FRP enhancement from 0% to 60%, the
central 40% of the aerosol plume’s vertical extent can be modeled, although the top and bottom heights of
the plume cannot be reproduced. Additionally, the modeled plume is widely spread as compared to the
narrowness of the measured plume. Unfortunately, rectifying these limitations will likely require the use of
a more complex modeling approach and improvement of measured fire data.

There are additional errors associated with the non-complete complexity of the models employed.
The models do not capture the contribution of atmospheric stabilization due to both the direct and semi-
direct aerosol effects. Furthermore, these models do not take into account the impacts of localized
convection. However, the majority of other works that employ regional and global models use this exact
same methodology, and hence they also neglect these same small-scale phenomena in terms of
communication between the chemistry, radiation, and the meteorology.
4. Conclusions

This work quantifies the significant present-day underestimation of the vertical distribution of aerosols over the Maritime Continent during an El-Nino influenced fire season, by introducing a new method to appropriately constrain the measurements over the geographical region of the aerosol plume. While this was a large-scale fire event, it was very special, because it occurred throughout the month of October, whereas typically the wet-season arrives sometime within the middle of the month. As such, the wetness of the soil and the large-scale meteorological flow, were both different this year from a more typical year. As a result, the measured heights over the constrained region are found to be higher than previously thought, with about 41(+6-10)% of the bottom of the aerosol layer and 83(+8-11)% of the median of the aerosol layer being in the free troposphere during the October maximum; while correspondingly 48(+7-9)% and 75(+12-12)% of the total aerosol height and the median of the aerosol plume, are found in the free troposphere during the entirety of the fire-season. In this case, they can be advected thousands of kilometers and have more influence on the atmospheric and climatic systems.

Additionally, over the fire-constrained region, the vertical variability of the plume is found to be uniform throughout its height, implying that it is controlled mostly by local forcing, such as the buoyancy released by fires, localized convection, and aerosol/radiative feedbacks, such as the direct and semi-direct effects.

Application of a plume-rise model showed that there was an overall low bias against measured heights, which is consistent with the FRP being underestimated in this region of the world due to large-scale cloud cover. It was also determined that measured vertical heights are more narrowly confined than model simulations. Applying a robust sensitivity analysis found that the middle-lower through middle-upper extent of the plume can be reproduced if an appropriate (although changing) enhancement factor is applied to the FRP ranging from 1.0*FRP to 1.6*FRP over the maximum period of the fire season, through the month of October (and from 1.0*FRP to 1.4*FRP over the fire season as a whole, for most of September, all of October, and the first third of November). Hence, the variable FRP enhancement factor approach can allow for improved modeling of the height statistics for the middle-upper to middle-lower extent of the plume.

However, it is not possible to reproduce either the top or bottom of the measured heights, the knowledge of which is important to constrain the impacts of long-range transport and aerosol-climate interactions. Nor is it possible to reproduce the narrow spread of the measured heights. The results are consistent with the general understanding of current model shortcomings, which in addition to the underestimated FRP values, will also need to be addressed. Hence, the current community-wide dependence on FRP measurements for vertical aerosol modeling may lead to flaws in our being able to successfully model the distribution.

The results have been found to be robust over a region that behaves roughly uniformly over thousands of kilometers and includes regions both near and far from the source of the fires. Since there are only a few days that have relatively unique aerosol and meteorological properties over the period studied, the results support the most important aspect of improving the aerosol heights will be newer modelling.
approaches and improvements that will be able to resolve local-scale forcing, such as deep convection, aerosol/radiation interactions, and aerosol-cloud interactions. Secondly, the biased underestimation of FRP is also an important point to improve the aerosol height modeling, especially under conditions where cloudiness occurs or the measured AOD levels are very high. These errors are exacerbated over regions where large-scale precipitation is very low or where there is substantial aerosol/cloud intermixing. In all cases, until these model and measurement improvements are made, there is expected to be a significant underestimation of the aerosol loadings and radiative forcing distribution regionally, and to some extent globally. It is hoped that in the interim, the community will adapt a variable enhancement of FRP in tandem with measurement-constrained boundaries of smoke plumes, as a way to more precisely reproduce the statistics of the vertical aerosol distribution.
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Table 1: Statistical summary of measured CALIPSO smoke plume heights in the El-Nino Season of 2006, at different percentiles of extinction height (top/Z=10%, middle-upper/ Z=50%, median/Z=50%, middle-lower/Z=70%, and bottom/Z=90%). The numbers in normal print correspond to the data during the maximum of the fire season in October, while those numbers in italics correspond to the entire fire season from September 3rd through November 9th. All data is further divided into the subset of the Maritime Continent impacted by smoke (FIRE), and not impacted by smoke (NO-FIRE) (Figure 1). “MEAN” is the average, “STD” is the standard deviation, and percentages XX% are the corresponding distribution’s percentiles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bottom [km]</th>
<th>middle-lower [km]</th>
<th>median [km]</th>
<th>middle-upper [km]</th>
<th>top [km]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FIRE 5%</td>
<td>0.18 (0.17)</td>
<td>0.35 (0.35)</td>
<td>0.56 (0.57)</td>
<td>0.85 (0.77)</td>
<td>1.27 (1.14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIRE 10%</td>
<td>0.25 (0.22)</td>
<td>0.46 (0.46)</td>
<td>0.74 (0.68)</td>
<td>1.06 (1.02)</td>
<td>1.50 (1.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIRE 15%</td>
<td>0.36 (0.26)</td>
<td>0.58 (0.52)</td>
<td>0.88 (0.77)</td>
<td>1.24 (1.13)</td>
<td>1.64 (1.60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIRE 50%</td>
<td>1.35 (0.98)</td>
<td>1.58 (1.33)</td>
<td>1.81 (1.61)</td>
<td>2.18 (2.00)</td>
<td>2.77 (2.60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIRE 85%</td>
<td>2.73 (2.59)</td>
<td>2.90 (2.73)</td>
<td>3.11 (2.91)</td>
<td>3.35 (3.13)</td>
<td>3.70 (3.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIRE 90%</td>
<td>3.14 (2.99)</td>
<td>3.29 (3.13)</td>
<td>3.44 (3.22)</td>
<td>3.66 (3.57)</td>
<td>4.00 (3.96)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIRE 95%</td>
<td>4.19 (4.25)</td>
<td>4.38 (4.48)</td>
<td>4.70 (4.62)</td>
<td>5.56 (5.56)</td>
<td>5.67 (5.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIRE MEAN</td>
<td>1.68 (1.49)</td>
<td>1.92 (1.79)</td>
<td>2.19 (2.04)</td>
<td>2.35 (2.28)</td>
<td>2.91 (2.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIRE STD</td>
<td>1.58 (1.55)</td>
<td>1.54 (1.51)</td>
<td>1.52 (1.50)</td>
<td>1.54 (1.52)</td>
<td>1.57 (1.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO-FIRE 5%</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO-FIRE 10%</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO-FIRE 15%</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO-FIRE 50%</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO-FIRE 85%</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO-FIRE 90%</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO-FIRE 95%</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO-FIRE MEAN</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO-FIRE STD</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Summary of measured (CALIPSO) smoke plume heights over the entire fire season from September 3rd to November 9th, 2006, for days that are statistical outliers. The values here correspond to having a mean value more than 85% of less than 15% in bold, or a mean value from 80% to 85% or from 15% to 20% in regular text. The levels are given as a percentile of extinction height over the subset of the Maritime Continent impacted by smoke (fire-constrained), based on the MISR observations (Figure 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Bottom (90% Extinction) [km]</th>
<th>Middle-Lower (70% Extinction) [km]</th>
<th>Median (50% Extinction) [km]</th>
<th>Middle-Upper (30% Extinction) [km]</th>
<th>Top (10% Extinction) [km]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>October 11th</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October 15th</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October 22nd</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Deleted: in October, Formatted: Superscript, Deleted: mean (>=85% or <15%) of all data, Deleted: mean (<80% or >20%) of all data*
Table 3: Statistics of measured fire properties (FRP and $T_f$), for all measured fires (ALL) and level 9 confidence fires (L9) and MERRA meteorological properties ($T_a, v, U, dT/dz$) corresponding to the geographic locations of L9. All data is constrained by the boundaries of the fire extent, and is applicable to results from the Maximum of the fire season corresponding to October 2006 (Figure 1). The distribution’s percentile is given as “XX%”, the mean and standard deviation are given as “MEAN” and “STD”. Note that there were no observed fires of L9 on the following dates: 17th, 22nd, 23rd, 24th, 25th, 26th, 27th, 28th.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5%</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>296.0</td>
<td>296.0</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>-5.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>296.4</td>
<td>296.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>-5.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15%</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>296.6</td>
<td>296.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>-5.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50%</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>535</td>
<td>685</td>
<td>298.4</td>
<td>298.4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>-5.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85%</td>
<td>775</td>
<td>1240</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>1275</td>
<td>301.1</td>
<td>301.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>-5.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90%</td>
<td>975</td>
<td>1495</td>
<td>1070</td>
<td>1525</td>
<td>301.5</td>
<td>301.5</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>-5.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95%</td>
<td>1290</td>
<td>1855</td>
<td>1335</td>
<td>1850</td>
<td>302.1</td>
<td>302.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>-5.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>920</td>
<td>702</td>
<td>1029</td>
<td>298.7</td>
<td>298.7</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>-5.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STD</td>
<td>720</td>
<td>1340</td>
<td>573</td>
<td>1057</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 4: Statistics of the modeled fire heights corresponding to the maximum fire season of October and the entire fire season. All values are computed using level 9 confidence fires (1.9 and MERRA meteorology, \(T_v, \nu, DT/dz\) at the corresponding geographic locations, with the daily average boundary layer assumed to be 1000m. Sensitivity tests are shown with their respective weighting factor (1.2, 1.4, 1.6, 1.8, or 2.0) applied to the measured FRP. The modeled heights are given by percentile from the bottom (5%) to the top (95%), while the mean and standard deviation are given as “MEAN” and “STD“. Note that the model was not run on the following days, during which there were no observed I.9 fires: September 13th, 14th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 23rd, October 17th, 22nd, 23rd, 24th, 26th, 27th, and November 22nd, 29th, 14th, 16th through 28th, 30th.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>FRP(x1.0) [km]</th>
<th>FRP(x1.2) [km]</th>
<th>FRP(x1.4) [km]</th>
<th>FRP(x1.6) [km]</th>
<th>FRP(x1.8) [km]</th>
<th>FRP(x2) [km]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0.41 (0.26)</td>
<td>0.44 (0.30)</td>
<td>0.48 (0.33)</td>
<td>0.53 (0.35)</td>
<td>0.56 (0.38)</td>
<td>0.60 (0.41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0.60 (0.41)</td>
<td>0.67 (0.45)</td>
<td>0.73 (0.49)</td>
<td>0.80 (0.53)</td>
<td>0.85 (0.57)</td>
<td>0.91 (0.61)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15%</td>
<td>0.75 (0.55)</td>
<td>0.83 (0.61)</td>
<td>0.91 (0.66)</td>
<td>0.98 (0.72)</td>
<td>1.05 (0.77)</td>
<td>1.12 (0.82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30%</td>
<td>1.14 (0.88)</td>
<td>1.28 (0.98)</td>
<td>1.40 (1.07)</td>
<td>1.52 (1.16)</td>
<td>1.63 (1.25)</td>
<td>1.74 (1.33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50%</td>
<td>1.85 (1.40)</td>
<td>2.07 (1.58)</td>
<td>2.27 (1.73)</td>
<td>2.47 (1.88)</td>
<td>2.65 (2.02)</td>
<td>2.82 (2.15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70%</td>
<td>2.87 (2.25)</td>
<td>3.23 (2.52)</td>
<td>3.54 (2.76)</td>
<td>3.84 (3.01)</td>
<td>4.12 (3.23)</td>
<td>4.38 (3.43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85%</td>
<td>4.21 (3.29)</td>
<td>4.66 (3.67)</td>
<td>5.11 (4.02)</td>
<td>5.53 (4.35)</td>
<td>5.87 (4.64)</td>
<td>6.22 (4.92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90%</td>
<td>4.99 (3.95)</td>
<td>5.54 (4.40)</td>
<td>6.08 (4.80)</td>
<td>6.58 (5.21)</td>
<td>6.97 (5.56)</td>
<td>7.41 (5.87)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95%</td>
<td>6.10 (5.25)</td>
<td>6.79 (5.86)</td>
<td>7.43 (6.39)</td>
<td>7.76 (6.83)</td>
<td>8.16 (7.22)</td>
<td>8.61 (7.57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.41 (1.94)</td>
<td>2.69 (2.17)</td>
<td>2.96 (2.38)</td>
<td>3.21 (2.58)</td>
<td>3.44 (2.77)</td>
<td>3.67 (2.95)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>StdD</td>
<td>1.98 (1.76)</td>
<td>2.21 (1.96)</td>
<td>2.42 (2.15)</td>
<td>2.62 (2.33)</td>
<td>2.81 (2.50)</td>
<td>2.99 (2.65)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1: Map of Maritime Continent. The smoke plume impacts the sub-region contained within the dashed lines, or the so-called fire-constrained region. On the other hand, the region outside of the dashed lines is the so-called non fire-constrained region. The colors on the plot correspond to the intensity of the variance, as explained in Cohen [2014]. The plot is based on a variance maximization technique applied to the measurements from all MISR overpasses from 2000 through 2014 (Cohen, 2014). Note that in this part of the world 1 degree of latitude or longitude is approximately 100km, leading to a fire-impacted region over 2500km across.
Figure 2: Time series of daily averaged measured AOD over the fire-constrained regions of the Maritime Continent [blue], and the non fire-constrained regions of the Maritime Continent [red], as given in Figure 1. Circles are computed daily mean values, while dots are computed daily standard deviation bands. Note that this figure contains the daily data from September 1, 2006 through November 30th, 2006.
Figure 3a-3b: Time series of measured CALIPSO extinction heights over the fire constrained (A) and non-fire-constrained (B) regions as given Figure 1. Note that for the fire constrained region, the analysis (and hence the data) has been extended for the period from September 3rd through November 9th. For both plots, the dots correspond to the height of the column integrated backscatter at: 10% [red] (top), 30% [dark blue], 50% [yellow], 70% [black], and 90% [light blue] (bottom). The circles are computed daily means, while dots are the computed daily standard deviation bands. There was no measurement over the region on September 7th, 8th, 9th, 11th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 21st, and October 10th, 16th, 20th, 25th, and 27th.
Figure 4: Time series of measured extinction height levels for the median heights (red circles and line) with their corresponding ±1 standard deviation range (red dotted line), and respective middle-upper (blue), and middle-lower (yellow), are given below. The best fitting modeled heights for the median daily boundary layer height of 1000m are given as black x’s, and are found to be respective FRP enhancements of 1.0, 1.2, and 1.4. The best fitting modeled heights for the low daily boundary layer height of 700m are given as black “•”, and are found to be respective FRP enhancements of 1.0, 1.1, and 1.2. The best fitting modeled heights for the high daily boundary layer height of 1300m are given as black o’s, and are found to be respective FRP enhancements of 1.0, 1.4, and 1.8.

Figure 3: Time series of daily averaged measured AOD over the fire-constrained regions of the Maritime Continent [blue], and the non fire-constrained regions of the Maritime Continent [red], as given in Figure 1. Circles are computed daily mean values, while dots are computed daily standard deviation bands. Circles are computed daily mean values, while dots are computed daily standard deviation bands.

Deleted: Figure 3: Time series of daily averaged measured AOD over the fire-constrained regions of the Maritime Continent [blue], and the non fire-constrained regions of the Maritime Continent [red], as given in Figure 1. Circles are computed daily mean values, while dots are computed daily standard deviation bands.

Deleted: measured extinction heights

Deleted: PDFs (20% and 80% values are stars and mean values are given by lines) of the

Deleted: for

Deleted: median (red),

Deleted: green

Deleted: levels

Deleted: are given as 0% FRP enhancement (solid black line) (best fit for middle-upper measurements), 20% FRP enhancement (dashed black line) (best fit for median measurements), and 100% FRP enhancement (dotted black line) (best fit for the middle-lower measurements)
Supplement:

**Detailed Methodology**

The buoyancy flux parameter \( F_b \) (Equation A1) is a function of the temperature difference between the air \( T_a \) and the fire \( T_f \), the vertical motion of air \( \nu \) and the size of the fire, \( d \) (here always measured at 1 km in this work).

\[
F_b = g \nu \frac{d^2}{4} \left( \frac{T_f - T_a}{T_a} \right)
\]  
(A1)

The buoyancy flux parameter has been found empirically to demonstrate whether the plume rise is buoyancy or momentum dominated. Under stable atmospheric conditions [Stone and Carlson, 1979], where the atmospheric lapse rate is \( L_a = \frac{dT}{dz} < -5 \), for a buoyancy dominated plume, (defined as where the difference between \( T_a \) and \( T_f \) is given in Equation A2b1), the plume rise height \( \Delta h \) is given by Equation A2b2, where \( (U) \) is the horizontal wind magnitude.

\[
\Delta h = 2.4 \left( \frac{g}{100} \right)^{1/3}
\]  
(A2b1)

Whereas, for a momentum dominated plume (where the difference between \( T_a \) and \( T_f \) is less than the right hand side of Equation A2b1), the height rise is given by Equation A2b3.

\[
\Delta h = 1.5 \left( \frac{g^2 T_f}{\nu^2} \right)^{1/3}
\]  
(A2b3)

On the other hand, under unstable atmospheric conditions (where \( L_a > -5 \)), and where the plume rise is buoyancy dominated, the plume rise height is given by either Equation A2b4 when \( F_b > 55 \) or Equations A2b5, A2b6 when \( F_b < 55 \) [Woodward, 2010].

\[
\chi' = 14 F_b \frac{\xi}{\nu}
\]  
(A2b4)

\[
\chi' = 34 F_b \frac{\xi}{\nu}
\]  
(A2b5)

\[
\Delta h = 1.6 \frac{F_b^2 \xi^2 \Delta x}{\nu}
\]  
(A2b6)
Supplemental Figure 1: PDFs (x-axis is the height in km, and the y-axis is the probability distribution) of the monthly aggregated backscatter heights of the 10% [red] (top), 30% [dark blue], 50% [yellow], 70% [light blue], and 90% [black] levels. Note that there were no measurements on the 10th, 16th, and 20th.
Supplemental Figure 2: Map of the monthly averaged MODIS AOD over the Maritime Continent. The day-to-day statistics are given in Figure 2. Regions in white have 0 valid AOD measurements throughout the entire time period, due to cloud cover.
Supplemental Figure 3: Statistical average of the aerosol heights measured by the Singapore MPL station from September 1 to November 30, 2015. This year was chosen since it is another El-Nino influenced high fire year, and has a somewhat similar physical, meteorological, and geographic aerosol extent as 2006.
Supplemental Figure 4: Time Series of Precipitation data from GPCP (dotted line) and AOD (dashed line) from MODIS, averaged on a daily-basis over both the Fire Region (Red) and the No-Fire Region (Blue), from September 1 to November 30.
The numbers in normal print correspond to the subset of the Maritime Continent impacted by smoke (FIRE), and not impacted by smoke (NO-FIRE) during the October maximum in fires, while the numbers in (italics) correspond to the impacted by smoke (FIRE) throughout the entire fire season from September 3rd through November 9th, based on MISR observations.
Monthly statistics of modeled aerosol heights
Figure 3: Time series of daily averaged measured AOD over the fire-constrained regions of the Maritime Continent [blue], and the non fire-constrained regions of the Maritime Continent [red], as given in Figure 1. Circles are computed daily mean values, while dots are computed daily standard deviation bands.