

1 **Synergistic aircraft and ground observations of transported wildfire smoke**
2 **and its impact on air quality in New York City during the summer 2018**
3 **LISTOS campaign**

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20 **ABSTRACT** Air pollution associated with wildfire smoke transport during the summer can significantly
21 affect ozone (O₃) and particulate matter (PM) concentrations, even in heavily populated areas like New
22 York City (NYC). Here, we use observations from aircraft, ground-based lidar, in-situ analyzers and
23 satellite to study and assess wildfire smoke transport, vertical distribution, optical properties, and
24 potential impact on air quality in the NYC urban and coastal areas during the summer 2018 Long Island
25 Sound Tropospheric Ozone Study (LISTOS). We investigate an episode of dense smoke transported and
26 mixed into the planetary boundary layer (PBL) on August 15-17, 2018. The horizontal advection of the
27 smoke is shown to be characterized with the prevailing northwest winds in the PBL (velocity > 10 m/s)
28 based on Doppler wind lidar measurements. The wildfire sources and smoke transport paths from the
29 northwest US/Canada to northeast US are identified from the NOAA hazard mapping system (HMS) fires
30 and smoke product and NOAA-Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT)
31 backward trajectory analysis. The smoke particles are distinguished from the urban aerosols by showing
32 larger lidar-ratio (70-sr at 532-nm) and smaller depolarization ratio (0.02) at 1064-nm using the NASA
33 High Altitude Lidar Observatory (HALO) airborne high-spectral resolution lidar (HSRL) measurements.
34 The extinction-related angstrom exponents in the near-infrared (IR at 1020-1640 nm) and Ultraviolet (UV
35 at 340-440 nm) from NASA-Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) product show a reverse variation

36 trend along the smoke loadings, and their absolute differences indicate strong correlation with the smoke-
37 Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) ($R > 0.94$). We show that the aloft smoke plumes can contribute as much as
38 60~70% to the column AOD and that concurrent high-loadings of O_3 , carbon monoxide (CO), and black
39 carbon (BC) were found in the elevated smoke layers from the University of Maryland (UMD) aircraft in-
40 situ observations. Meanwhile, the surface $PM_{2.5}$ (PM with diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu m$), organic carbon (OC) and
41 CO measurements show coincident and sharp increase (e.g., $PM_{2.5}$ from $5 \mu g/m^3$ before the plume
42 intrusion to $\sim 30 \mu g/m^3$) with the onset of the plume intrusions into the PBL along with hourly O_3
43 exceedances in the NYC region. We further evaluate the NOAA- National Air Quality Forecasting
44 Capability (NAQFC) model PBL-height, $PM_{2.5}$, and O_3 with the observations and demonstrate good
45 consistency near the ground during the convective PBL period, but significant bias at other times. The
46 aloft smoke layers are sometimes missed by the model.

47 **Key words:** Wildfire smoke, ozone, $PM_{2.5}$, black carbon, organic carbon, optical properties

48 **1. Introduction**

49 The frequency and intensity of wildfire events in the western United States (US) and Canada are
50 expected to increase because of global changes in temperature, humidity, wind and rain patterns caused
51 by climate change (Dennison et al., 2014; Schoennagel et al., 2017). This is critical for air quality since
52 wildfires can emit large amounts of particulate matter (PM) and gaseous compounds, i.e. OC, BC, CO,
53 carbon dioxide (CO_2), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), and volatile organic compounds (VOCs), etc. (Andreae et
54 al., 1988; Crutzen et al., 1979; Liu et al., 2014). The emissions of smoke particles and O_3 precursors can
55 result in $PM_{2.5}$ (PM with diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu m$) and O_3 exceedance of the national ambient air quality
56 standard (NAAQS) in down-wind areas (Colarco et al., 2004; Dreessen et al., 2016; Jaffe et al., 2012,
57 2013; Sapkota et al., 2005; Taubman et al., 2004). Most importantly, during long-range transport of
58 wildfire smoke, the plume can change its chemical composition and potentially affects air quality on local
59 and regional scales when entrained down into the planetary boundary layer (PBL).

60 Satellite remote sensing has been extensively used to identify these wildfires source and track smoke
61 transport, but this tool is generally limited to column or altitude-integrated total amounts (Hoff et al.,
62 2009). Meanwhile, routine air quality monitoring by U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) or
63 associated state agencies is mostly deployed at the near-ground and these monitoring networks are

64 generally sparse due to costs involved. Unfortunately, there is distinct difficulty in attempting to correlate
65 and interpret satellite column measurement with EPA surface-level routine monitoring, i.e., vertical
66 distribution and aerosol type (Crawford et al., 2014; Hoff et al., 2009). For instance, aloft aerosol plumes
67 might contribute to total AOD measured from satellite sensors, but have no connection with ground
68 $PM_{2.5}$. In addition, different type of aerosols show different optical properties that affect AOD
69 dramatically, but may have similar mass concentration. For smoke particles in general, another gap is the
70 optical-mass conversion between satellite retrieved AOD and surface $PM_{2.5}$ concentration, which is
71 related to aerosol microphysics and chemical properties. Thus, vertical distributions and spatiotemporal
72 variations of aerosols and their types (optical properties) are critical to satellite remote sensing application
73 to air quality (Hoff et al., 2009, Han et al., 2015, Li et al., 2016, Lin et al., 2015, Liu et al., 2011, Zhang et
74 al., 2015).

75 On the other hand, Chemical Transport Models (CTM) and air quality models such as the
76 Community Multiscale Air Quality modeling (CMAQ) have been extensively used to evaluate smoke
77 impacts (Dreessen et al., 2016), but there are large uncertainties on wildfire emission inventories and fire
78 magnitude, fuel type and complex meteorology-chemistry processes (National Research Council, 2009).
79 In addition, the injection height of the smoke plumes is also critical to predict the range-resolved transport
80 of the smoke that also can affect the potential mixing down into PBL and near ground. Thus, smoke from
81 wildfires or biomass burning may cause uncertainty in air quality model forecast except the influences
82 from meteorological factors and emission inventories. Many efforts have been made to improve modeling
83 the impacts of wildfire emissions on air quality (Lee et al., 2016).

84 It is generally difficult in validation studies to quantify smoke contribution to air quality (e.g.,
85 ground-level $PM_{2.5}$) via long-distance transport because of the resultant unavoidable mixture of smoke
86 with other air mass. It is also a challenge to distinguish the transported wildfire smoke from local urban
87 aerosols in the PBL based on their size information since both are fine-mode dominated and mixed. The
88 wildfire smoke transport may result in the “exceptional” events of more severe air quality exceedances,
89 which is beyond local air quality management and emission control (Jaffe et al., 2013; Dreessen et al.,

90 2016; Wu et al., 2017, 2018). The episodes of wildfire smoke transport and aerosol vertical distribution
91 have been observed from CCNY-lidar in the NYC area (Chillrud et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2012, 2016 and
92 2018), but there is a lack of regional-scale and gaseous compounds observations, specifically their vertical
93 distribution, smoke discrimination from the urban aerosols, and potential effects on O₃ exceedance of
94 NAAQS to interpret these events properly.

95 While we have focused on PM_{2.5}, the formation and transport of O₃ within these plumes is an
96 additional air quality factor that is critical to human health. Ozone exceedance of the NAAQS (70 ppb
97 daily maximum 8-hr mean) and haze events frequently occur during the summer in NYC and its
98 downwind coastal areas such as the Long Island Sound (Miller, et al., 2017). Such pollution episodes are
99 generally related to urban emissions of pollutants, photochemical and chemical transformation, smoke
100 plume transport, and urban-coast meteorology. However, there is lack of observations of vertical
101 distribution of O₃, PM_{2.5} and their precursors, and meteorological parameters for better understanding the
102 high O₃ formation - and model forecast performance. To address this important issue, the Long Island
103 Sound Tropospheric Ozone Study (LISTOS) campaign was launched in the summer of 2018 to observe
104 and understand the regional-scale high O₃ events in Long Island Sound (Miller, 2017,
105 <https://www.nescaum.org/documents/listos>). The measurements were made from ground-based sites,
106 research aircraft, marine vessels, and satellite observations in Long Island Sound where a land-sea breeze
107 feature often leads to high O₃ concentrations along the Connecticut shoreline (see more logistic
108 information in Karambelas (2020)).

109 During the LISTOS campaign, an opportunity of synergistic measurements occurs to better
110 understand wildfire smoke optical properties from remote sensing observations and its impact to the air
111 quality. In this study, we present wildfires smoke optical characteristics, time-height distribution, and
112 potential impact on the air quality in NYC and Long Island Sound during August 15-17, 2018. The
113 observations include the NASA HALO, a combined Differential Absorption Lidar (DIAL) and HSRL, the
114 UMD aircraft in-situ samplers, ground-based wind, aerosol and O₃ lidars and the surface samplers by the
115 New York State Department of Environment Conservation (NYSDEC). The NOAA-NAQFC model

116 forecast products were assessed during the 2018 LISTOS summer campaign. The goals of this study are
117 to 1) characterize regional-scale smoke vertical distribution, optical properties, gaseous compounds, and
118 the smoke particles discrimination from urban aerosols; 2) assess smoke impacts on local air quality; and
119 3) assess model forecast product of PBL-height (PBLH), ground $PM_{2.5}$ and O_3 . To allow us to separate the
120 different aerosol layers throughout the troposphere, the time-height distribution of aerosol optical
121 properties are presented to identify the intrusions of smoke plumes and mixing into the PBL, and
122 distinguish the smoke particles from local urban aerosols. Regional-scale vertical distribution of smoke-
123 associated particles and gaseous compounds are demonstrated from the NASA HALO instrument and
124 UMD aircraft observations. The temporal variations and the correlation analysis of ground $PM_{2.5}$, OC,
125 BC, CO and O_3 are analyzed to evaluate the smoke impacts. Finally, using the remote sensing and in-situ
126 data, we evaluate the NAQFC product of O_3 , $PM_{2.5}$ and PBLH. This paper is organized as follows. In
127 Section 2, the observation methods and data are described. In Section 3, the results and discussions on the
128 smoke aerosols, as well as the variations of ground $PM_{2.5}$ and chemical species are presented. Finally,
129 Section 4 summarizes the conclusions.

130 **2. Observation Methodology and Data**

131 **2.1 Ground-based observation**

132 Table-1 lists the ground-site coordinates and the data used in this study. At the City College of New
133 York (CCNY)-site (40.820° N, 73.949° W), the remote sensing instrument suite includes a 3-wavelength
134 elastic (Mie)-Raman lidar, a ceilometer (Vaisala CL-51), an AERONET (Aerosol Robotic Network)
135 Cimel sun/sky radiometer, and a coherent Doppler wind lidar (Leosphere Windcube 200S). Meanwhile, a
136 standard surface air quality monitoring station is operated by the NYSDEC on the CCNY campus for
137 $PM_{2.5}$, O_3 and CO measurements. There is another AERONET site at Brookhaven National Laboratory
138 (BNL, 40.866° N, 72.885° W) in Upton, NY (~90 km to the southeast of the CCNY-site). Figure 1 shows
139 the locations of select ground stations used in this study.

140 The CCNY-lidar transmits three wavelengths (1064-, 532- and 355-nm) and uses a receiver
141 telescope ($\varnothing 50$ -cm) collecting three elastic scattering and two Raman-scattering returns by nitrogen and

142 water vapor molecules excited by the 355-nm laser output (Wu et al., 2009). It is generally operated
143 during daytime on weekdays with an observer due to the eye-safety concerns. The multi-wavelength
144 configuration can be used to obtain extinction-related Angstrom exponent (EAE) that help distinguish
145 fine mode (smoke and industrial aerosol) from coarse mode particles (dust, sea salt and cloud). Generally,
146 fine mode particles show larger EAE while coarse mode particles indicate smaller EAE (Eck et al., 1999).
147 The strong signal-to-noise ratios (SNR) of the lidar allow us to measure aloft aerosol plumes and retrieve
148 aerosol extinction and backscatter profiles in the troposphere (Su et al., 2013, 2014). In addition, the
149 ceilometer (Vaisala CL-51) measures aerosol backscatter at a laser wavelength of 910 nm with a vertical
150 range resolution of 10 m (Gan et al., 2011). The measured attenuated backscatter coefficient profiles can
151 be used to determine PBLH and residual layer height. According to Stull (1988), a convective boundary
152 layer (CBL) that occurs during the daytime is usually referred to as a mixing layer; during this period, the
153 mixing layer height (MLH) represents PBLH. After the sunset, the surface cooling creates a stable
154 (nocturnal) boundary layer, above which is a residual layer, leftover from the daytime mixed layer. The
155 PBLH or MLH can be detected from the ceilometer and lidar based on vertical gradient variation of
156 aerosol backscatter profiles (Menut et al., 1999; Davis et al. 2000, Brook et al. 2003, Haeffelin et al.,
157 2012, Scarino et al. 2014). In this study, a wavelet analysis technique is used to locate the absolute
158 maximum negative gradient of attenuated backscatter profile that is defined as the PBLH (Gan et al.,
159 2011). Furthermore, a quality control of the PBLH estimate is performed which includes cloud screening,
160 temporal continuity, and screening of an aloft or residual layer during the night and early-morning. Thus,
161 one can obtain boundary layer information as well as residual-layer height, aerosol-cloud discrimination,
162 and optical properties of aerosols and clouds from the CCNY-lidar measurement (Wu et al., 2009, 2018).
163 On the other hand, the CIMEL sunphotometers (part of the NASA AERONET) at CCNY and BNL
164 provide column aerosol optical depth (AOD), extinction Angstrom exponent (EAE), and microphysical
165 parameters (volume size distribution, refractive index and single-scattering albedo (SSA)) (Holben et al.,
166 1998). The sunphotometer-measured AOD is used to constrain the lidar-ratio or aerosol extinction-to-
167 backscatter ratio for retrieving aerosol extinction and backscatter profiles in the free troposphere (Wu et

168 al., 2012); and its value depends on aerosol optical properties and can help classify aerosol types (Burton
169 et al., 2013). Absorbing Angstrom exponent (AAE) can be simulated from the AERONET inversions that
170 indicates the light absorbing component of OC known as “brown carbon” (BrC) for smoke (Mok et al.,
171 2016).

172 In addition, a coherent Doppler Wind Lidar (Leosphere WindCube 100s) was deployed to measure
173 wind profiles in Bronx (Lehman College, 40.873° N, 73.894° W, 7.5 km to the NE of CCNY) as part of
174 the NYS-Mesonet (Brotzge et al., 2020). The wind lidar uses a vertically-pointing eye-safe laser
175 (wavelength 1.54 μm with a repetition rate of 10 kHz) to estimate wind velocities, and a scanning
176 sequence (Doppler beam swinging with elevation angle 75 deg at North, East, South and West) to obtain
177 horizontal wind velocity and direction. All data are collected, quality-controlled, and archived. The lidar
178 has a range-gate spacing of 25-50 m and time resolution less than 10 seconds. Intensity of the turbulence
179 can be characterized by variance of vertical velocity ‘ w ’ at an interval of a few minutes (Tucker et al.,
180 2009). The turbulence-based PBLH or MLH can be calculated from variance of vertical velocity with a
181 threshold method (e.g. 0.15 m/s^2 in this study) (Schween et al., 2014).

182 The NASA Langley Mobile Ozone Lidar (LMOL) is a ground-based tropospheric profiling ozone
183 lidar system, housed in a mobile trailer, and has participated in air quality studies since 2014 and is part of
184 the NASA-sponsored Tropospheric Ozone Lidar Net-work ([http://www](http://www.air.larc.nasa.gov/missions/TOLNet/)
185 [air.larc.nasa.gov/missions/TOLNet/](http://www.air.larc.nasa.gov/missions/TOLNet/)). The technical details and detection precision are given in multiple
186 references (Young et al., 2017, Gronoff et al., 2019, Farris et al., 2019). LMOL was deployed at
187 Sherwood Island Park, Westport, CT (73.337° W, 41.118° N, 2.5-meter ASL) to measure ozone vertical
188 profiles using a differential absorption principle at the UV wavelength pair of 287 and 292 nm. Ozone
189 cross sections along with pressure and temperature information are used as part of the process to extract
190 ozone mixing ratio as a function of altitude. The process is repeated for each new profile on a 5–10 min
191 temporally averaged basis, to provide a continuous curtain display on the evolution of ozone vertical
192 distribution during the course of a day. Estimation of uncertainties follow the standardized procedure

193 described in Leblanc et al (2018) and optimization of vertical resolution with altitude follows Gronoff et
194 al (2019).

195 NYSDEC operates monitoring sites to measure O₃, NO_x, PM_{2.5} and PM_{2.5} speciation at the urban,
196 suburban and rural sites in New York (Rattigan et al., 2010, 2016). The locations of ground monitoring
197 stations are shown in Fig.1. Co-located at the CCNY campus, PM_{2.5}, O₃, and CO are reported with 1-
198 minute average during the LISTOS campaign. The sites at Queens College (QC, 40.736° N, 73.822° W in
199 the borough of Queens) and IS-52 (located in borough of Bronx) are two Chemical Speciation Network
200 (CSN) trends sites in New York State, where there is an extensive set of ambient monitoring equipment
201 for gaseous and aerosol sampling (e.g. O₃, NO₂, NO, SO₂, CO, PM_{2.5} and its speciation). Hourly OC and
202 EC of PM_{2.5} are measured at QC-site, using a Sunset OC/EC field analyzer (Sunset Lab, Inc.) (Rattigan et
203 al., 2010, 2016). Meanwhile, a two-wavelength Aethalometer (Magee Scientific model AE-21, $\lambda=880$ nm
204 and 370 nm) measures BC at the QC-site (Rattigan et al., 2013). The BC measured at the two
205 wavelengths, BC_{UV} (370) and BC_{IR} (880), can help distinguish the BC sources (e.g. biomass burning vs.
206 vehicles) because their difference defined as delta-C (BC_{UV} - BC_{IR}) is large for the organic absorption
207 particles, e.g. biomass burning aerosols (Wang et al., 2012). OC is generally emitted from combustion
208 activities or produced from secondary processes such as gas-to-particle formation. EC, also known as
209 light absorbing carbon or BC, is emitted directly from combustion sources. With the prevailing western
210 and northwest winds, the site at Newburgh (41.499° N, 74.099° W, 83-km away in the north of CCNY)
211 located in the northwest NYC generally represent the upwind rural area of NYC, where the hourly PM_{2.5},
212 CO and BC are observed. The correlation of the pollutants in the urban and upwind rural areas can be an
213 indicator of regional transport (Lall et al., 2006). Further details about these sites can be found at the
214 website (<http://www.dec.ny.gov/chemical/8406.html>).

215 **2.2 NASA and University of Maryland (UMD) Aircraft observations**

216 The NASA airborne HALO includes a HSRL and H₂O or CH₄- DIAL (Nehrir et al., 2017, 2018). This
217 study uses the HALO airborne HSRL measurements of aerosol extinction at 532 nm and aerosol

218 backscatter and depolarization at 532 and 1064 nm (Hair et al. 2008, Burton et al., 2013, 2014 and 2015).
219 The spectral dependence of particle depolarization ratio can help classify aerosol types while the lidar-
220 ratio at 532-nm can be directly measured by independently deriving aerosol extinction and backscatter
221 coefficients (Hair et al. 2008, Burton et al., 2015, Haarig et al., 2018). The power of polarization lidar in
222 isolating different particles is that the particle depolarization ratio (PDR) from lidar is a strong indicator
223 of non-spherical particles and is sensitive to the fraction of non-spherical particles and their size.
224 Generally, PDR is smaller for smoke and anthropogenic aerosol due to its spherical shape, but larger for
225 dust particle attributed to its non-spherical shape. Both observations and numerical simulations indicate
226 that smoke particles show larger PDRs at short-wavelength (355, 532 nm) than those at 1064 nm, which
227 might be explained by the presence of coated soot aggregates and smaller particles (Burton et al., 2015,
228 Mishchenko et al., 2016, Haarig et al., 2018). The technical details on the NASA-HSRL measurement
229 approach can be found in Hair et al. (2008).

230 In addition, the UMD Cessna research aircraft was deployed in the field campaign to measure
231 aerosol optical properties (total scattering and absorption), BC and trace gases (O_3 , CO, CO_2 , CH_4 , NO_x ,
232 Formaldehyde (HCHO), etc.). Aerosol scattering and absorption coefficients were measured by a 3-
233 wavelength Nephelometer (TSI3563) and a Particle Soot/Absorption Photometer (PSAP), respectively.
234 The aerosol single-scattering-albedo (SSA), a ratio of aerosol total scattering coefficient to the extinction,
235 can be directly estimated from the aircraft observations, which is critical in the aerosol radiative effect.
236 The BC is measured by a 7-wavelength Aethalometer (Magee Scientific AE33, $\lambda=370-950$ nm) that
237 provides information of spectral contribution of absorbing aerosol and distinguish BC from BrC
238 (Mok et al., 2016). The data products provide a good opportunity to assess multiple gaseous compounds
239 (O_3 and its precursors), black carbon, aerosol scattering and absorption, and their vertical distribution for
240 this wildfire smoke event in Long Island Sound. The technical details on the instruments and observations
241 can be found in the literatures (Taubman et al., 2004, Castellanos et al., 2011; Ren et al., 2018, 2019).

242 **2.3 NOAA Satellite and model products**

243 The NOAA Hazard Mapping System (HMS) was developed in 2001 by the National Environmental
244 Satellite and Data Information Service (NESDIS) as an interactive tool to identify fires and smoke
245 emissions over North America in an operational environment (Ruminski et al., 2006). The system utilizes
246 two geostationary and five polar orbiting environmental satellites. The result is a quality-controlled
247 display of the locations of fires and significant smoke plumes. HMS's smoke analysis is based on visual
248 classification of plumes using satellite imagery available during the sunlit part of the orbit. The smoke
249 density information is qualitatively described using thin, medium, and thick labels that are assigned based
250 on the apparent thickness (opacity) of the smoke in the satellite imagery. HMS has a number of detection
251 limitations such as clouds hindering detections, no vertical structure information, no quantitative amount
252 or density of smoke, and the approach is only available during daylight. In addition, the NOAA-
253 HYSPLIT model is used to compute air parcel trajectories and model the dispersion and the route of
254 airborne particles (Draxler et al., 1997) and can be used either in a back-trajectory mode to identify
255 sources or in forecast mode. In this study, the HYSPLIT ensemble backward trajectories were generated
256 with the meteorological field from the North American Regional Reanalysis (NARR, 32 km resolution)
257 model that shows substantial improvements in the accuracy of temperature, winds and precipitation
258 compared to the NCEP-DOE Global Reanalysis-2.

259 The NAQFC was established by NOAA in partnership with the EPA to provide O₃ and PM_{2.5}
260 forecasts. The NOAA Air Resources Laboratory (ARL) and the NCEP develop upgrades for the NAQFC
261 forecasting system, and conduct and evaluate pre-implementation testing (Lee et al., 2016; Huang et al.,
262 2017). The NAQFC consists of the NOAA-NCEP regional operational weather forecasting model, North
263 America Model (NAM) and EPA-CMAQ model. It is designed to provide 2-day model forecasts of O₃
264 and PM_{2.5} twice per day at the 06 and 12 UTC cycles. For this study, products with spatial resolution of
265 12 km at the 06 UTC cycle are used. The NAQFC performs incremental tests and evaluations against the
266 U.S. EPA AIRNow surface monitoring network. A modified version of the U. S. EPA CMAQ v5.0.2
267 (Foley et al., 2010), is run at 12-km horizontal grid spacing with a Lambert Conformal Conic (LCC) map
268 projection for the product used in this study. The emissions from wildfires, prescribed agricultural burns,

269 and land clearing fires were computed using the dynamic fire emission modeling U.S. Forest Service
270 BlueSky smoke emission package (O'Neill et al., 2009) and the NOAA-HMS for fire locations and
271 strength.

272 The NAQFC CMAQv5.0.2 follows largely the U.S. EPA Aero4 module and the related emission
273 and removal processes found in the U.S. EPA-CMAQ version 5.0.2. Gas to particle conversion,
274 heterogeneous reactions, depositional growth, and coagulation are included (Kelly et al., 2009). The
275 Mellor Yamada Janjic (MYJ) PBL scheme (Janjie et al., 2001) is used in this version of NAM. The
276 detailed configuration for NAQFC simulations can be found in Lee et al. (2016).

277 **3. Results and Discussion**

278 **3.1 Wildfire smoke sources and transports**

279 Figure 2 shows the wildfire sources and smoke transport from the NOAA-HMS product on
280 Aug.16, 2018. The wildfires occurred in the Northwest U.S. and Western Canada; the continental
281 transport of wildfire smoke (color shading in Fig.2 (a)) can be clearly seen. In Fig.2 (a), the color
282 shadings qualitatively represent the smoke density information. The green shadings correspond to thin
283 density smoke, the yellow shadings to medium density smoke, and the red shadings to thick density
284 smoke. The HYSPLIT ensemble backward trajectories ending at 3-km altitude (plume height from
285 CCNY-lidar observation in Fig.3 (a)) at 15:00 UTC of Aug.16 indicate that these plumes were transported
286 from the wildfire regions in the Northwest U.S. and western Canada. The air traveled for 168-hr (7-day)
287 long from the Pacific Northwest to NYC area, and the air parcel heights are generally above the PBL (>2-
288 km). In addition, high AOD measured by the Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS)
289 instrument on Suomi-NPP and JPSS-1 indicates heavy loadings of aerosol particles and the transport path
290 to the northeastern US (Fig.2(b)). More optical properties of the plumes will be given in the following
291 Section that can help classify aerosol type. However, an open question is whether these plumes affect the
292 air quality along the transport path. This depends on plume altitudes and how efficiently they mix down
293 into the PBL and reach the surface air.

294 **3.2 Time-height distribution, optical properties of smoke and mixing into the PBL**

295 To address the issue in Section 3.1, Figure 3 gives the time-height distribution of aerosol plumes and
296 PBLH in NYC from the CCNY-lidar and ceilometer measurements. The aloft plume was first observed
297 over NYC in the free troposphere on Aug.15, and the plume heights gradually descended and mixed into
298 the PBL at 17:00 in the afternoon of Aug.15. On the following day (Aug.16), there were multiple layers
299 of dense aerosols between 1-km and 5-km altitude, with the plumes mixed into the PBL at around 15:00
300 assisted by the simultaneous increase in PBL-height. Some low broken clouds appeared in the PBL-top in
301 the afternoon of Aug.16 marking a haze layer transition. This was further confirmed by the continuous
302 observations from the ceilometer (CL-51). Following this episode through, the enhanced aerosol
303 backscatter intensities in the near surface and PBL are clearly demonstrated during Aug.15-17, 2018. The
304 low PBL-heights in the morning and night of Aug.16 and 17 trap more aerosols near-surface thus
305 showing stronger backscatter intensity. The aerosol plumes are indicated below 2-km before 7:00 on
306 Aug.16 and Aug. 17, which might be entrained into PBL after sunrise when the PBL vertical mixing
307 become stronger.

308 The horizontal and vertical wind measurements near the CCNY-site are shown in Fig.4. Strong
309 northwest winds (velocity $V > 10$ m/s) were indicated to drive the smoke transport in the PBL and free
310 troposphere on Aug.15 and 16. The horizontal wind velocity in the PBL became lighter from the
311 afternoon of Aug.16 to the morning of Aug.17. Strong vertical convection or turbulence is indicated by
312 the large variance of vertical velocity at noon-time and early afternoon. The mixing-layer-heights (MLHs)
313 are estimated, and the results indicate good correlation with the ceilometer-measured MLHs ($R=0.74$). In
314 addition, Hung et al. (2020) indicate that PBL entrainment and vertical mixing provide favorable
315 meteorological conditions for the aloft smoke mixing in the PBL in NYC area.

316 The time-height distribution of aerosol optical properties from the CCNY-lidar retrievals is given
317 in Fig.5. The aerosol extinction coefficients and lidar-ratios are constrained with the co-located
318 AERONET AOD data when the sky is sufficiently cloud free. The AOD from the aloft plumes, PBL

319 aerosols and total aerosols (< 8 km altitude) can be segmented from the lidar-derived aerosol extinction
320 profile when the aloft plume can be isolated from the PBL. We assume that the aerosols above 8-km
321 altitude can be ignored to the total AOD. First, the aerosol extinction coefficients indicate the aloft dense
322 smoke above 1-km altitude and mixing into the PBL at noon. High Angstrom exponent (>1.5) indicates
323 the fine-mode dominant aerosols in the plume layer in Fig.5 (b). In particular, the AOD from the aloft
324 smoke plume, PBL and total aerosols are estimated at 11:00-16:00 when the aloft plume layers can be
325 isolated from the PBL. In this case, the ratios of plume-AOD to total-AOD indicate that the aloft plume
326 contributes up to 70% of the total AOD. However, this method is difficult to estimate the smoke
327 contribution when the plumes mix into PBL or mix with anthropogenic aerosols during the transport
328 process. The column-average lidar-ratios are 78.5 ± 6.4 sr at 532-nm and 56.9 ± 7.5 sr at 1064-nm,
329 respectively, which are typical values for the smoke aerosols (Burton et al., 2013).

330 Meanwhile, to get a better sense of other potential high O₃ formation process besides normal PBL
331 chemistry leading to high O₃ surface levels, the vertical distribution of O₃ presented in Fig.6 was
332 measured by the NASA LMOL O₃ lidar system located at Westport, CT, a coastal site along Long Island
333 Sound. Remarkably, concurrent high concentrations of O₃ were observed in the aloft plume layers,
334 showing the values above 70 ppb from the morning to the afternoon on Aug.15 and 16. A similar
335 descending trend of aloft O₃ layer height was shown on Aug.16, along some dispersion or turbulent
336 mixing into the PBL. At altitude below 1.5 km, the O₃ concentrations show a dramatic increase from 40
337 ppb on Aug.15 to 60 ppb on Aug.16. Such an O₃ increment is likely associated with transported smoke
338 and the local chemical production. We note that there were some low and high clouds on Aug.15-16 as
339 shown in Fig.3. There are no O₃ retrievals below 0.25 km altitude on this particular day due to a
340 temporary instrument issue with the lidar, nor in the low clouds and above 4.5 km in the day due to
341 reduced SNR.

342 Figure 7 gives the total AOD and Angstrom exponents (AE) at the different wavelength pairs (IR,
343 VIS, and UV) from the AERONET measurements at the CCNY and BNL sites. First, on Aug.15, the
344 AOD shows an increase trend from 0.2 to 0.6 at 532 nm while the AE at VIS (440-870 nm) indicates

345 large value but slightly temporal variation. However, the AE at the IR pair (1020-1640 nm) indicates a
346 dramatic increase trend whereas the AE at the UV pair (340-440 nm) shows a decrease trend from Aug.15
347 to Aug.16. Such different variation trends of AE at the IR and UV bands are consistent at two sites; this is
348 associated with smaller particle size and absorption differences at the UV-IR band that are demonstrated
349 with the Mie-scattering simulations. Furthermore, the correlation between the increments of AOD
350 (comparing to the AOD before the smoke intrusion on Aug.15) and AE difference at IR-UV is given in
351 Fig.8. Strong linear correlation ($R > 0.9$ and linear slope at 1.8-2.0) was observed at both two sites, which
352 means that it may be possible to derive a quantitative measure of smoke-AOD from the AE difference at
353 the IR-UV band.

354 In addition to the ground profilers, the NASA airborne HALO lidar made flight measurements on
355 Aug.15-16 in the NYC area. Fig. 9 shows the aerosol optical thickness (AOT), time-height distribution,
356 and optical properties of aerosols along the flight tracks on Aug.16, 2018. Multiple aerosol layers can be
357 observed below 5-km altitude as indicated by strong aerosol backscatters, and some low-level plumes
358 mixed down into the PBL by showing enhanced backscatter coefficients that are consistent with the
359 ground CCNY-lidar observations. Importantly, the aloft plumes indicate smaller particle depolarization
360 ratio (PDR) at 1064-nm than those in the PBL (<1.5 km altitude); but the PDRs at 532-nm are similar for
361 the aloft dense plumes at 2.0-4.0 km and the aerosols in the PBL with the value at 0.055-0.08. Such
362 spectral differences of PDRs for the smoke aerosols are related to fine-mode dominant particle size, near-
363 spherical shape, and their coatings (Mishchenko et al., 2016; Gialitaki et al., 2020). In addition, the lidar-
364 ratios at 532-nm are higher for the aloft plumes than those in the PBL. According to the aerosol extinction
365 profiles measured from the HALO, the aloft smoke above the PBL contribute 70~80% of the total AOD
366 in the NYC area. To further explore the optical differences of aerosols at the different altitudes, their
367 histograms at the near surface (<0.5 km), PBL or mixing zone (0.5-1.5 km) and aloft plume layer (2.5-4.7
368 km) are plotted in Fig. 10, respectively, as well as for the near-surface data before the plume intrusion in
369 the morning of Aug.15. It can be seen that the PDRs at 1064-nm on Aug.16 have much lower values
370 (<0.03) for the aloft smoke particles but show larger values (~ 0.06) for the near surface aerosols.

371 Logically, the overlap region between 0.5-1.5 km altitude indicates the mixture of smoke particles with
372 the urban aerosols in the PBL. Meanwhile, the histograms of lidar-ratios indicate the peak value at 70-sr
373 for the aloft plume but at 50-sr for the near surface aerosols. Again, the overlap histograms for the data at
374 0.5-1.5 km indicate the mixture of the smoke with local urban aerosols. From the histograms of the near-
375 surface aerosols (“surf” vs. “surf_bg” in the morning of Aug.15) in Fig.10 (a-b), the PDR and lidar-ratio
376 also indicate distinct differences before and after the smoke intrusion. The further information of aerosol
377 optical properties in the morning of Aug.15 (before the dense plume intrusion) is given in Fig. S1-S2 (see
378 the Supporting Document). Overall, the smoke particles show different optical properties from local
379 urban aerosols that can help classify them.

380 Critical to our study, the UMD Cessna aircraft also made vertical distribution measurements of
381 the aerosol and trace gases on Aug. 16 on the south-shore of Long Island. Fig.11 shows the flight tracks
382 and the vertical distribution of aerosol and gaseous compounds. Concurrent strong aerosol scattering and
383 CO concentration indicate two-layers of smoke-like plumes at 2.3-3.2 km and in the PBL. The strong
384 wavelength dependence of the Aethalometer reading (nominally BC) indicated brown carbon (BrC) in the
385 plume aloft (See Fig.S3 in the Supporting Document). Moreover, the O₃ and BC also show high values in
386 the elevated smoke layers. The single scattering albedos (SSA) of aerosols are generally in the range of
387 0.70-0.93 at 565-nm, and the smoke layers indicate the lower SSA of 0.80 ± 0.05 . In addition, the NO_x
388 (NO₂ + NO) measurement indicates local maxima at 2.5-3.5 km altitude whereas there are high loadings
389 of CH₄ and formaldehyde (HCHO) at 1.0-2.5 km altitude. In contrast, Fig.S4 (see the Supporting
390 Document) shows the vertical profiles of aerosol and gaseous compounds in the PBL at noon of Aug.15
391 near the NYC area, before the dense smoke intrusions in the PBL. Overall, the aircraft in-situ
392 measurements indicate high-loadings of CO, O₃, BC, BrC, CH₄ and HCHO in the elevated smoke layers
393 that were transported from the Pacific Northwest and Canada. We further make the inter-comparisons of
394 aerosol optical properties and their vertical distribution among the NASA-HALO, UMD aircraft and
395 CCNY-lidar, with the summary Fig.12 indicating their good agreement. The comparison of ozone profiles

396 between the NASA-LMOL and UMD aircraft measurement shows good consistence as shown in Fig.S5
397 (see the Supporting Document).

398

399 **3.3 Impacts on the air quality in NYC**

400 The ground-level PM_{2.5} and its species of OC and BC in NYC area are shown in Fig.13. First, PM_{2.5}
401 increased significantly from 5 to 30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ on Aug. 15, and these high values were persistent through the
402 episode on Aug. 16-17. The consistently high PM_{2.5} in the NYC urban and upwind rural site at Newburgh
403 indicate similar regional sources of aerosols associated with the smoke transport. Meanwhile, the OC
404 showed similar increase trends (from 4 to 11 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) along with the BC increase as shown in Fig.13 (b).
405 The delta-C (BC_{UV}-BC_{IR} in Fig.13(c)) increased by three times on Aug.16-17 in comparison to the values
406 on the other days. The hourly O₃ in Fig.13(d) shows higher values (reaching hourly averages > 70 ppb) on
407 Aug.16-17 in NYC area, while the CO indicated dramatic enhancements (not shown here). We further
408 investigate the connection between the increments of OC and PM_{2.5}, CO and PM_{2.5}, respectively. As
409 shown in Fig.14, they indicate strong correlation with the linear correlation coefficient R=0.9~0.95. These
410 concurrent high-loadings of OC, CO, BC and delta-C indicate the strength and overall consistency of
411 wildfire smoke-associated impacts.

412 **3.4 Evaluation of NAQFC model forecast**

413 Using these comprehensive measurements, we made a comparison to the NOAA NAQFC predictions of
414 PM_{2.5}, O₃ and PBLH, as well as their vertical distributions of PM_{2.5} and O₃. Initially, the ground O₃ and
415 PBLH show similar diurnal variation between the model and observation, but the model showed
416 systematic underestimates of O₃ during the daytime (Fig.15(b)). The ground PM_{2.5} showed consistency
417 between the predictions and observations on Aug.15, but was overestimated by the model in the mornings
418 of Aug.16 and 17 in Fig.15 (a). The PBLHs agreed well in terms of their diurnal variation whereas the
419 overestimate by the model can be seen in the early morning in Fig.15(c), which may affect the vertical
420 mixing of PM_{2.5} and O₃ near the surface. We note the different definitions for the PBLH between the

421 model and lidar observation. The model PBLH is based on Richardson number threshold while the lidar-
422 ceilometer measured PBLH is estimated from the vertical gradient of aerosol distribution, this may also
423 bring bias for their comparison. Further, we compare the vertical distribution of aerosol and O₃ between
424 the model and lidar observations. As shown in Fig.16, the model product generally missed the dense
425 smoke layer below 4-km altitude but captured the thin plumes above 4-km (Fig.16 a-b). Furthermore, the
426 observed high-level ozone in the aloft smoke layer (Fig.6b) were also missed by the model as shown in
427 Fig.16(c) since the current NAQFC does not include gas-phase emissions from wildfire smoke. Such
428 large bias for the smoke plume aloft in the current model product is probably related to the smoke
429 emission, injection height and intensity in the wildfire source region, meteorology-relevant transport and
430 complex chemical process, which need further analysis and investigation.

431 **3.5 Discussions**

432 Differentiating aged smoke particles from local urban aerosols is important to quantify the smoke
433 impacts on air quality and to evaluate modeling results. Chemical composition often provides direct
434 elemental measurement of aerosol compounds but the method requires air sampling and/or traditional lab
435 analysis techniques. Thus, the need to supplement with the optical remote sensing methods is critical for a
436 comprehensive interpretation. In this study, we show the dramatic differences of aerosol depolarization
437 ratio at 1064-nm and lidar-ratio at 532-nm between the smoke particles and urban aerosols from the
438 NASA-HALO measurements. Meanwhile, the mixture of smoke with urban aerosols can be indicated
439 from the variations of optical parameters at different altitudes. Previous numerical simulations with T-
440 Matrix method by Mishchenko (2016) and Gialitaki (2020) indicate that the spectral differences of smoke
441 aerosol depolarization ratios at 532-1064 nm mainly depend on the particle size and near-spherical shape
442 with an axial ratio ($a/b=0.9-1.2$). The smoke particle depolarization ratios at 1064-nm are generally
443 smaller than those at 532-nm. On the other hand, the smoke aerosols show larger lidar-ratio than urban
444 aerosols due to stronger absorption and smaller backscatter coefficient associated with the size variation
445 of aerosols, which are consistent with other observations (Burton et al., 2013, 2015).

446 In addition, the Angstrom exponent (AE) at the IR and UV bands show different variation trend
447 along the dense smoke intrusions, their absolute differences show strong correlation with the smoke-AOD
448 at both CCNY and BNL sites. Such correlation indicates that the smoke fraction in the total AOD can be
449 potentially derived from the difference of AEs at IR and UV band. With the aerosol size distribution and
450 refractive index retrieved by AERONET, we further analyzed the variation of AE at IR-UV using the
451 Mie-scattering simulation (not shown here), and the results are consistent with the directly-measured AE
452 spectral dependence in Fig.7-8. In addition, Eck et al. (1999) found that for the biomass burning aerosols,
453 the AE show smaller values at 380-440 nm than those at 675-870 nm. A good correlation between the AE
454 and fine-mode fraction of aerosols have been reported (O'Neill et al., 2003, Anderson et al., 2005).

455 Unfortunately, it is still difficult to quantify the smoke transport contribution to the total $PM_{2.5}$ at
456 the ground level due to their mixture with local aerosols. Some biomarkers can be used to identify the
457 smoke particles, such as delta-C and potassium iron, PAHs etc. (Dreessen et al., 2016, Wang et al., 2012).
458 In this study, we observed that the delta-C values increased by three times compared to that of non-smoke
459 days. In addition, the high correlation of $PM_{2.5}$ in the NYC urban and upwind rural area indicates the
460 transport and regional scope of these smoke effects. Other measurements can also provide suitable
461 diagnostic markers such as the strong correlations between the CO and smoke scattering coefficients, and
462 the increments of OC and $PM_{2.5}$. These dramatic enhancements of carbonaceous aerosols are strongly
463 associated with the transported wildfire smoke. In addition, we also see the enhancements of CO, BC,
464 NO_x , CH_4 , and HCHO in the elevated smoke layers, which can produce increased O_3 through
465 photochemical processes. We also observed that the vertical and horizontal transport or dispersion from
466 the aloft O_3 layers affect the surface O_3 . Dramatic enhancements of O_3 in the PBL were observed along
467 the dense smoke intrusion on Aug.16 in comparison to the data on Aug.15. From a local pollution
468 perspective, even with the long-range transport from the Pacific Northwest to the northeast US, there are
469 still high levels of BC observed in the aloft smoke layer. In addition, Huang et al (2020) and Rogers et al
470 (2020) indicated the increase of surface-level $PM_{2.5}$ for this event in the upstate of NYS and NYC-

471 Connecticut coastal region. The synoptic subsidence, strong PBL entrainment and vertical mixing resulted
472 in the aloft smoke mixing into PBL on Aug.16 (Huang et al., 2020).

473 Finally, our comparisons between the model product and observations indicate consistency of the
474 diurnal variation of PBL-height and O₃ with some exceptions. These include the overestimate of PM_{2.5} by
475 the model in the morning and night. The high O₃ concentrations clearly appeared in the elevated smoke
476 layer from both ground lidar (Fig. 16) and aircraft measurements (Fig. 11). Such high O₃ can be vertically
477 dispersed and transported to the near ground during the period of convective PBL. On the other hand, the
478 systematic underestimate of O₃ by the model during the daytime may be more indicative of
479 underestimates of chemical precursors of O₃ from the smoke transport (Dreessen et al., 2016). For the
480 ground PM_{2.5}, the dramatic bias occurs in the early morning and night (i.e. weak convective PBL period)
481 when the vertical mixing may play a major role. This might be improved by considering the urban
482 canopy, urban Building Energy Model and Parameterization (BEM/BEP) that drive vertical mixing and
483 transport near the surface (Gutiérrez and González, 2015).

484 **4. Conclusions**

485 In this work, we presented synergistic remote sensing and in-situ observations to study the transported
486 dense wildfire smoke and its impact on air quality in the New York City and Long Island Sound areas
487 during the LISTOS 2018 summer campaign. The time-height distribution, optical properties and gaseous
488 compounds of smoke plumes were investigated from the aircraft, ground-based lidars and in-situ sensors
489 on August 15-17, 2018. Vertical profiles of aerosol and O₃ along with the winds indicate that the smoke
490 plumes affected the air quality through PBL advection, vertical mixing and subsidence. The comparisons
491 among the different observations and retrievals of aerosol and ozone profiles show consistency.

492 Concurrent high loadings of aerosols, CO, O₃, BC, BrC, and NO_x were observed in the elevated
493 smoke layers transported from the Pacific Northwest. In particular, O₃ concentrations were above 70-ppb
494 (NAAQS value) in the plume layers while CO and aerosol extinctions showed a strong correlation; CH₄
495 and HCHO also showed enhancements in the PBL.

496 The smoke aerosols showed different spectral behavior of particle depolarization ratio at 1064 nm
497 and lidar-ratio at 532-nm from the urban aerosols. The observations from the Aethalometer showed a
498 strong wavelength dependence in the elevated smoke plume, but not in the PBL indicating the dominance
499 of BrC in the plume encountered between 2.5 and 3.0 km altitude and the dominance of BC between the
500 surface and 1.5 km. Smoke particles can be discriminated from the urban aerosols by showing lower
501 depolarization ratio (0.02) at 1064-nm and larger lidar-ratio (~70 sr at 532 nm). Their histogram
502 distributions at different altitudes indicate the mixture of smoke with the local urban aerosols in the PBL
503 and near surface. In addition, the extinction-related Angstrom Exponents at IR (1020-1640 nm) and UV
504 (340-440nm) from AERONET observations show reverse variation trend along the smoke loadings, and
505 their absolute differences indicate strong correlation with the smoke-AOD.

506 With the wildfire smoke intrusions, the ground-level $PM_{2.5}$, OC and CO show consistent and
507 quick increase on August 15-17, 2018. The near-surface $PM_{2.5}$ increases from 5 to 30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ with the
508 dominant contribution from the organic matter (~45%) in the NYC area. The increments of OC, CO, and
509 $PM_{2.5}$ show strongly linear correlation with R greater than 0.9. As a biomarker of wood combustion, the
510 delta-C increase by a factor of three. The $PM_{2.5}$ in NYC urban area show a good linear correlation (R=0.9)
511 with those in the upwind rural area, indicating the impact of regional transport.

512 Compared to the observations, the NOAA NAQFC modeling forecast product shows consistent
513 PBLH and $PM_{2.5}$ in the convective period of PBL, but lower O_3 at ground level, which is reasonable since
514 the current NAQFC does not include gas-phase emissions from wildfire smoke. The large biases for the
515 modeled PBLH and ground $PM_{2.5}$ mainly occurred in the morning and night when vertical mixing and
516 convection were weak.

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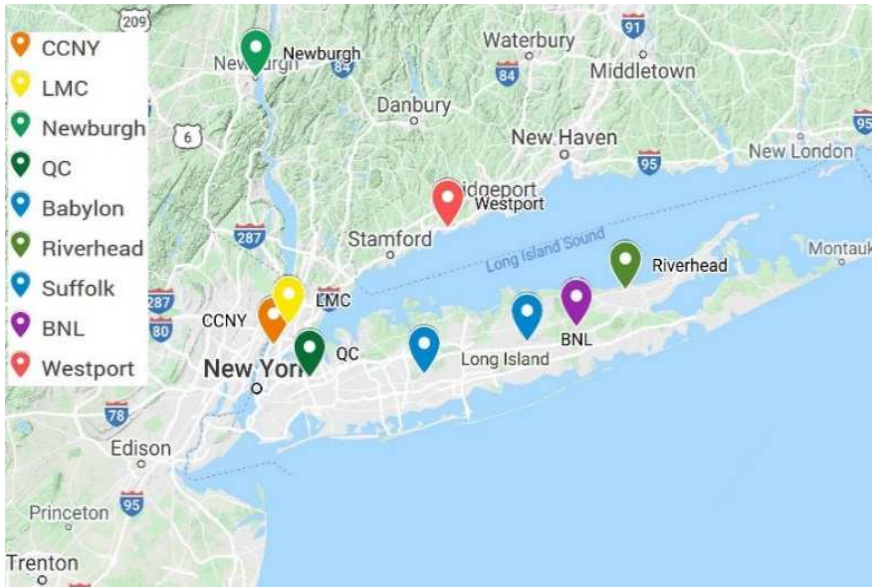
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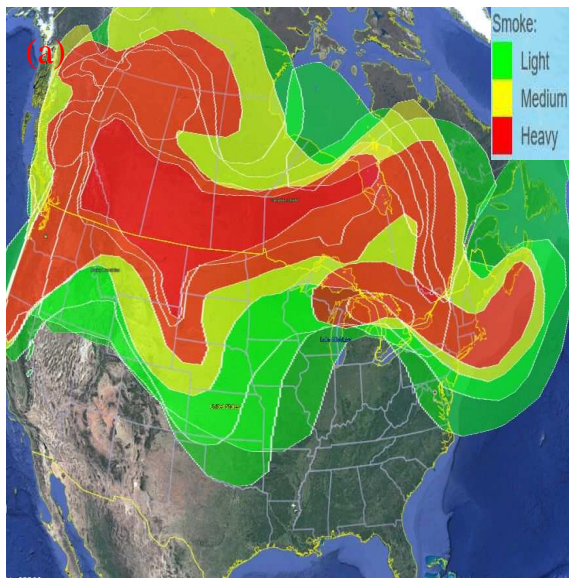


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781 Fig.1 Ground-site map in the NYC and Long Island area (See the latitude and longitude in Table-1).

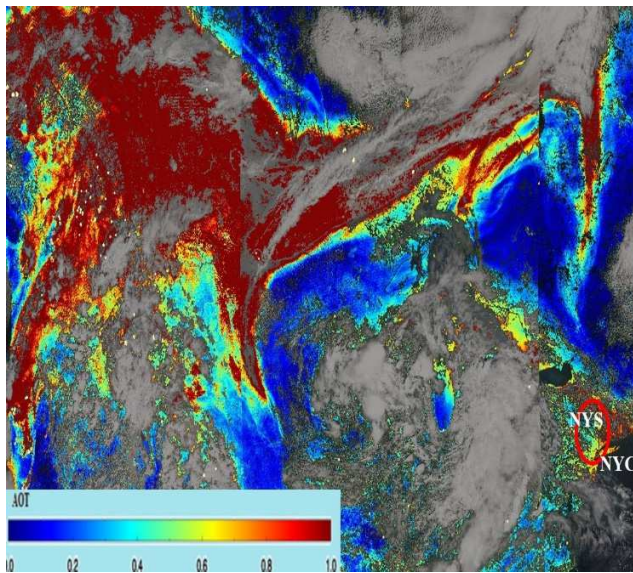
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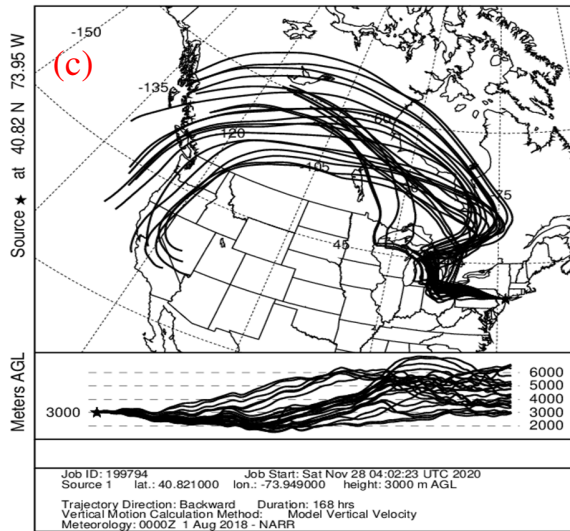
(b)

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NOAA HYSPLIT MODEL
 Backward trajectories ending at 1500 UTC 16 Aug 18
 NARR Meteorological Data

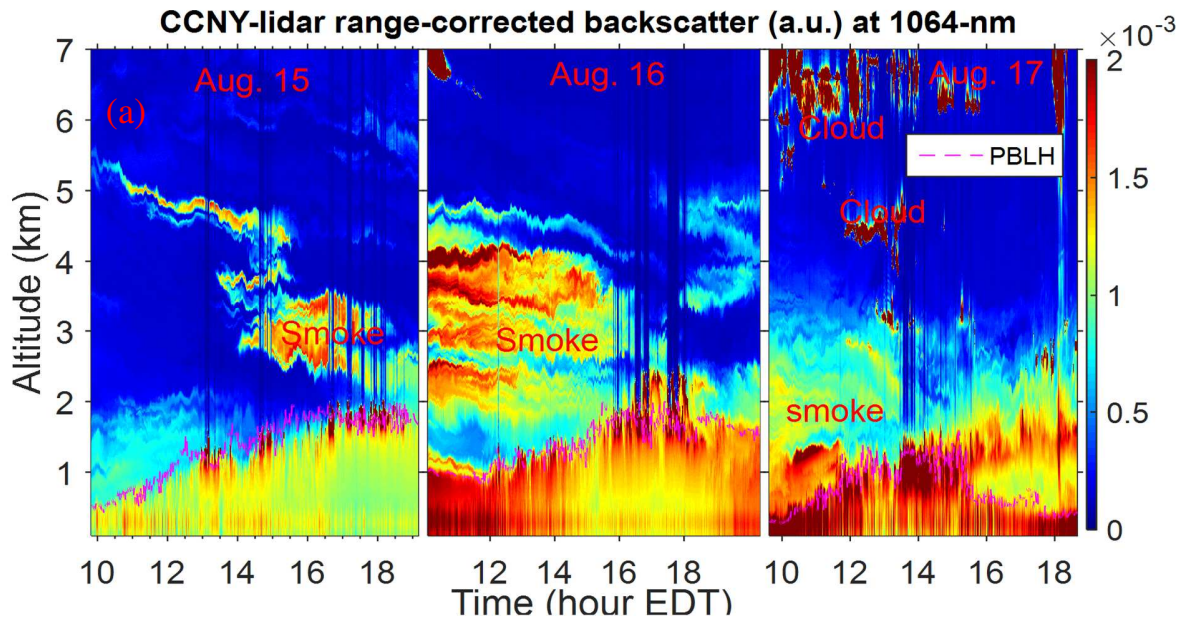


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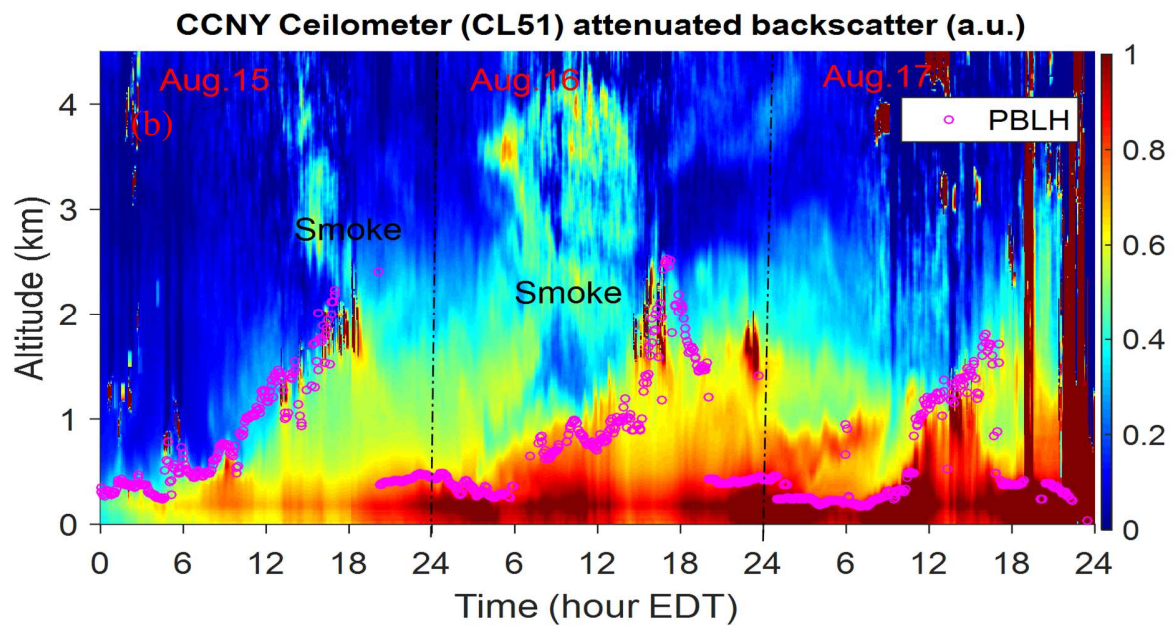
787 Fig.2 Wildfires smoke (color) from NOAA-HMS product (a), aerosol optical depth (AOD) at 550-nm
 788 from the VIIRS satellite (red circle for NYS area) (b), and HYSPLIT ensemble backward trajectories (7-
 789 day travel time) ending at 3-km altitude at CCNY at 15:00 UTC (c) on Aug.16, 2018.

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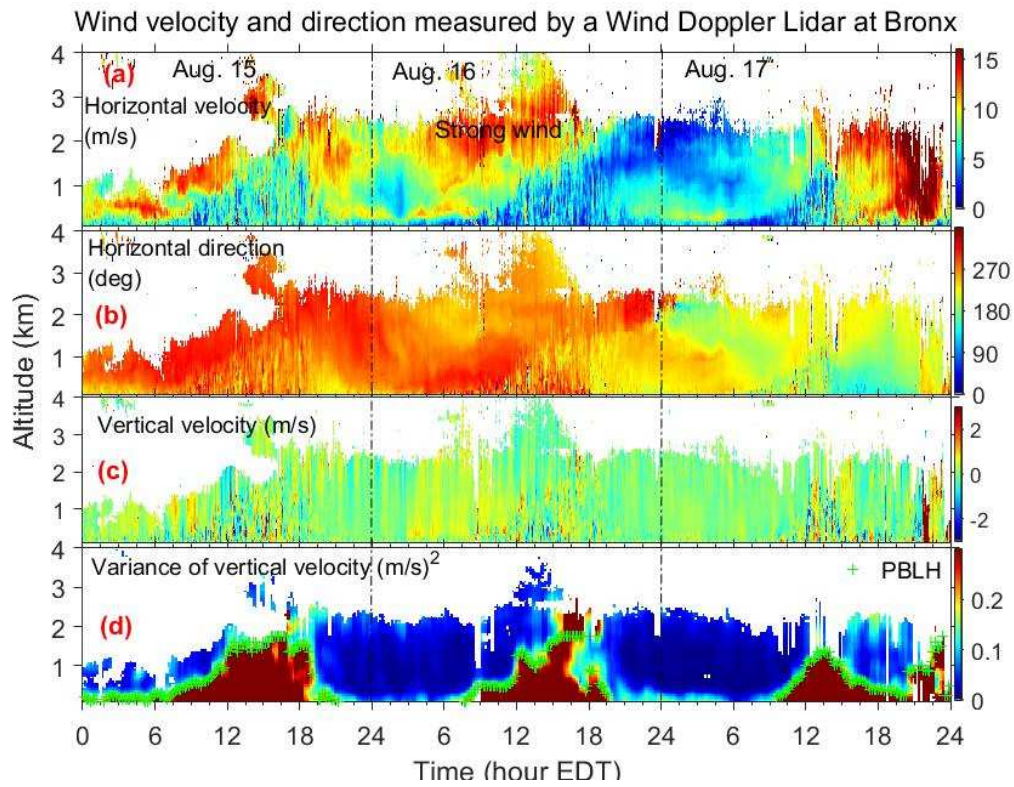
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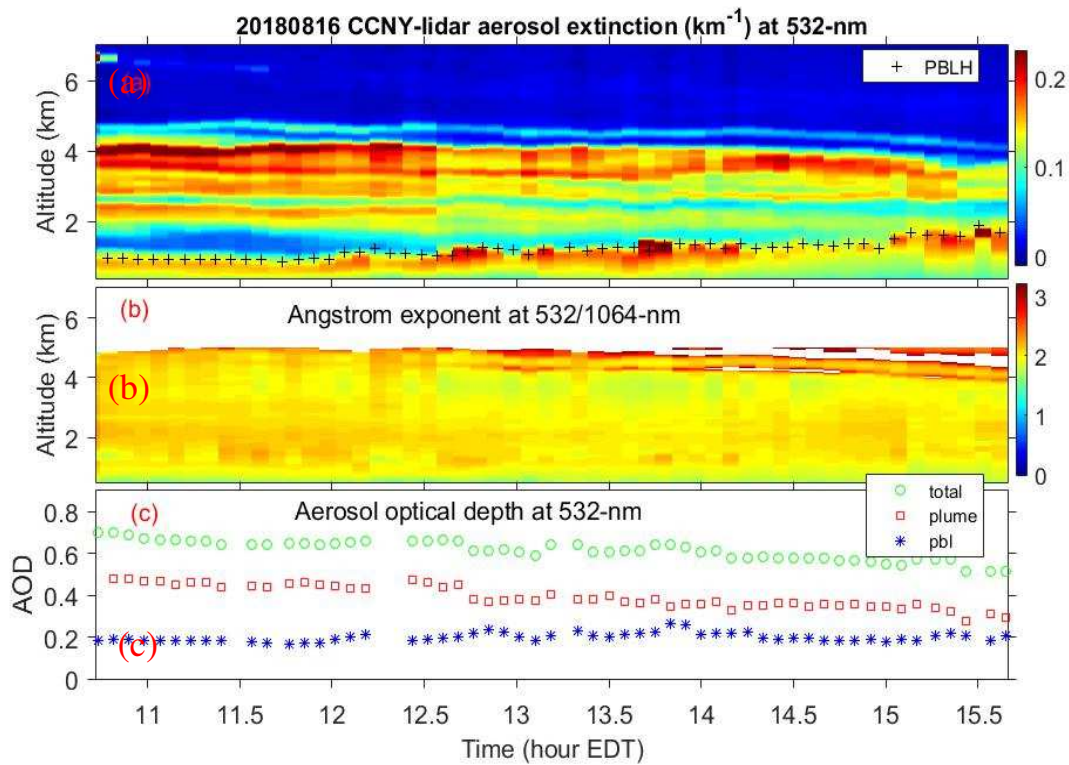
Fig.3 Time-height distribution of lidar (a) and ceilometer attenuated backscatter and PBLH (b) at CCNY on Aug.15-17, 2018



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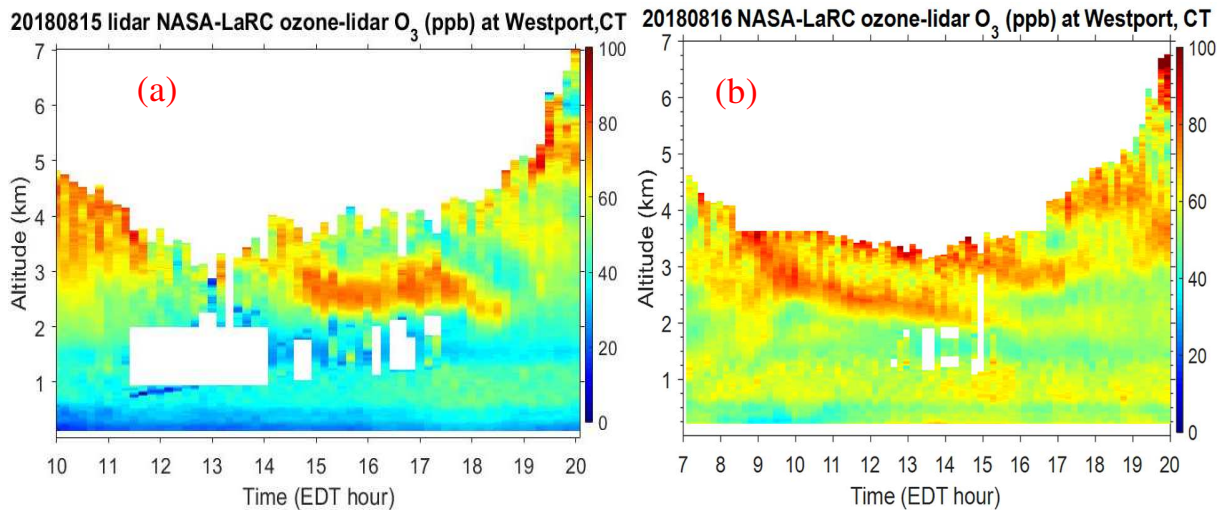
798 Fig.4 Horizontal wind velocity (a) and wind direction (b), vertical wind velocity (+ updraft, - downdraft)
 799 (c), and variance of vertical wind velocity and inferred PBLH (d) from a Wind Doppler Lidar on Aug.15-
 800 17, 2018. Strong horizontal winds at 1-3 km at 6:00-18:00 EDT on Aug.16 corresponding to the plume
 801 layer; large variance of vertical velocity at 12:00-18:00 indicate strong turbulent mixing.

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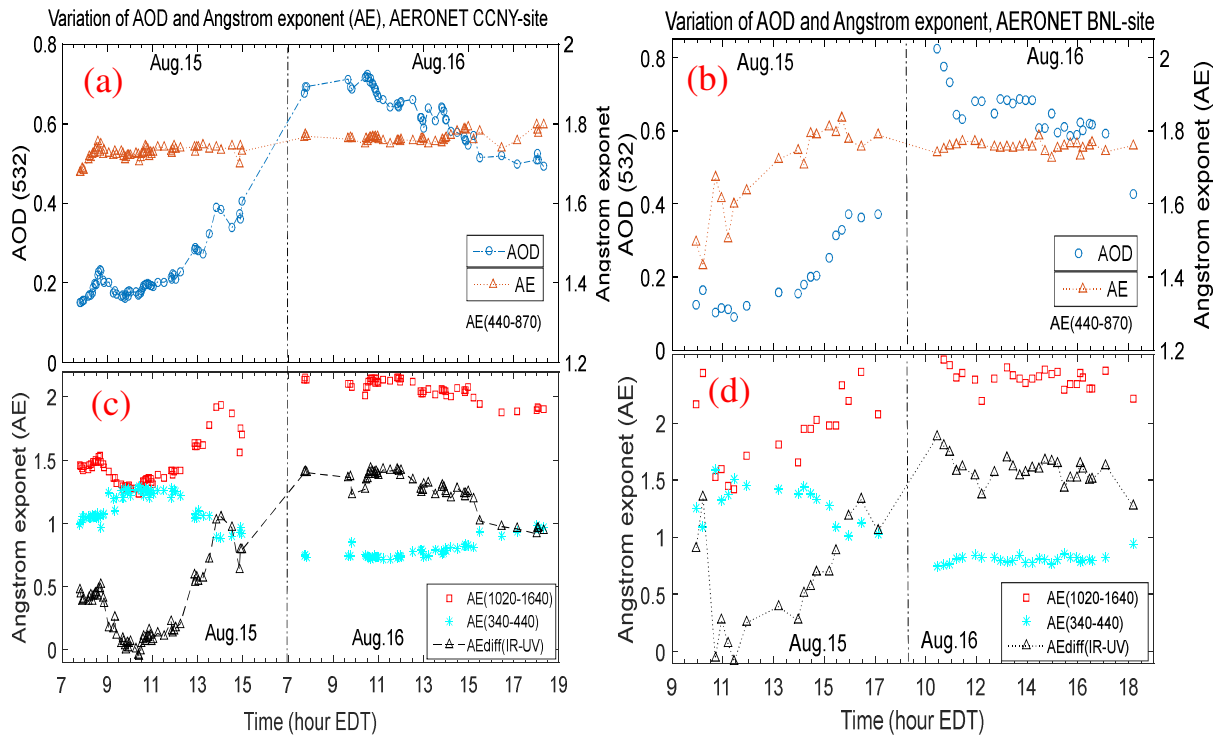


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 804 Fig.5 Aerosol extinction coefficient (a), Angstrom exponent (b) and aloft AOD (c) in 5-min average
 805 under the clear sky on Aug.16, 2018

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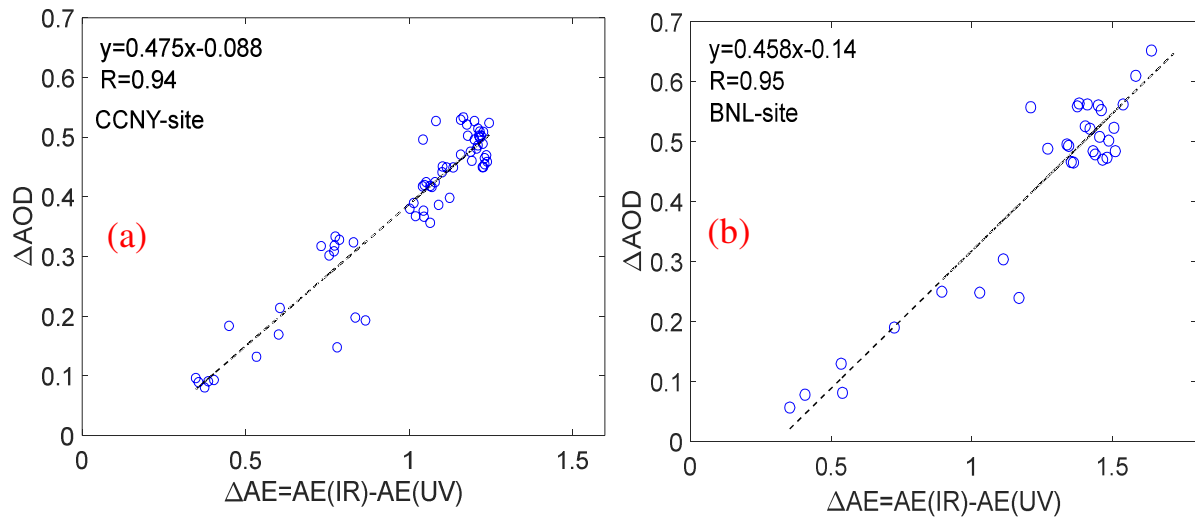


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 808 Fig.6 Vertical distribution of ozone concentrations measured by NASA LaRC ozone lidar on Aug.15 (a)
 809 and Aug.16 (b), 2018 in Westport, CT. (No retrieval made in the clouds and above 4.5 km altitude in the
 810 daytime due to the low SNR)



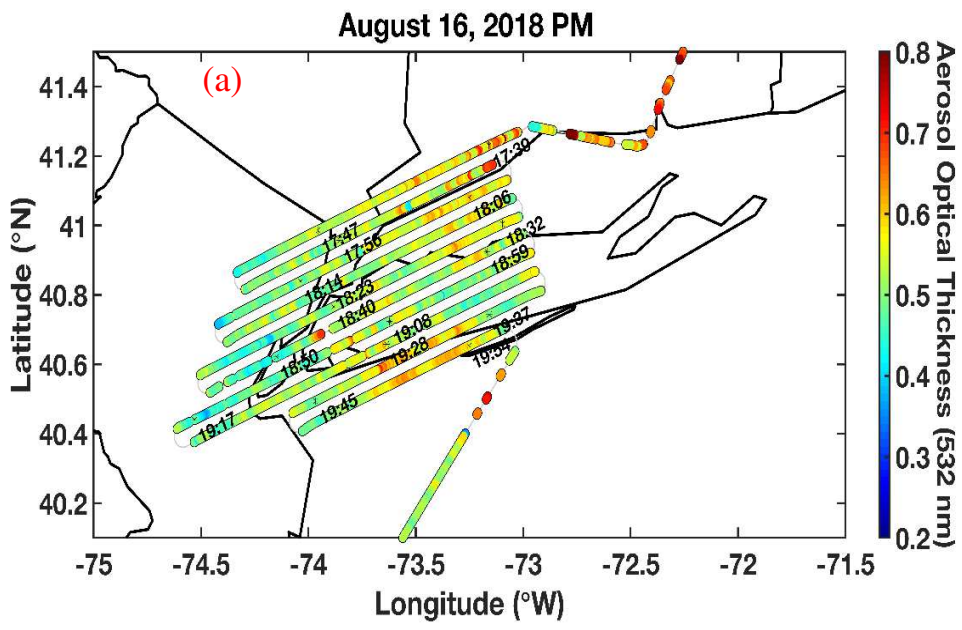
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 812 Fig.7 Aerosol optical depth (AOD) and Angstrom exponent (AE) measured by AERONET at the CCNY
 813 ((a) and (c)) and BNL ((b) and (d)) sites on Aug. 15-16, 2018

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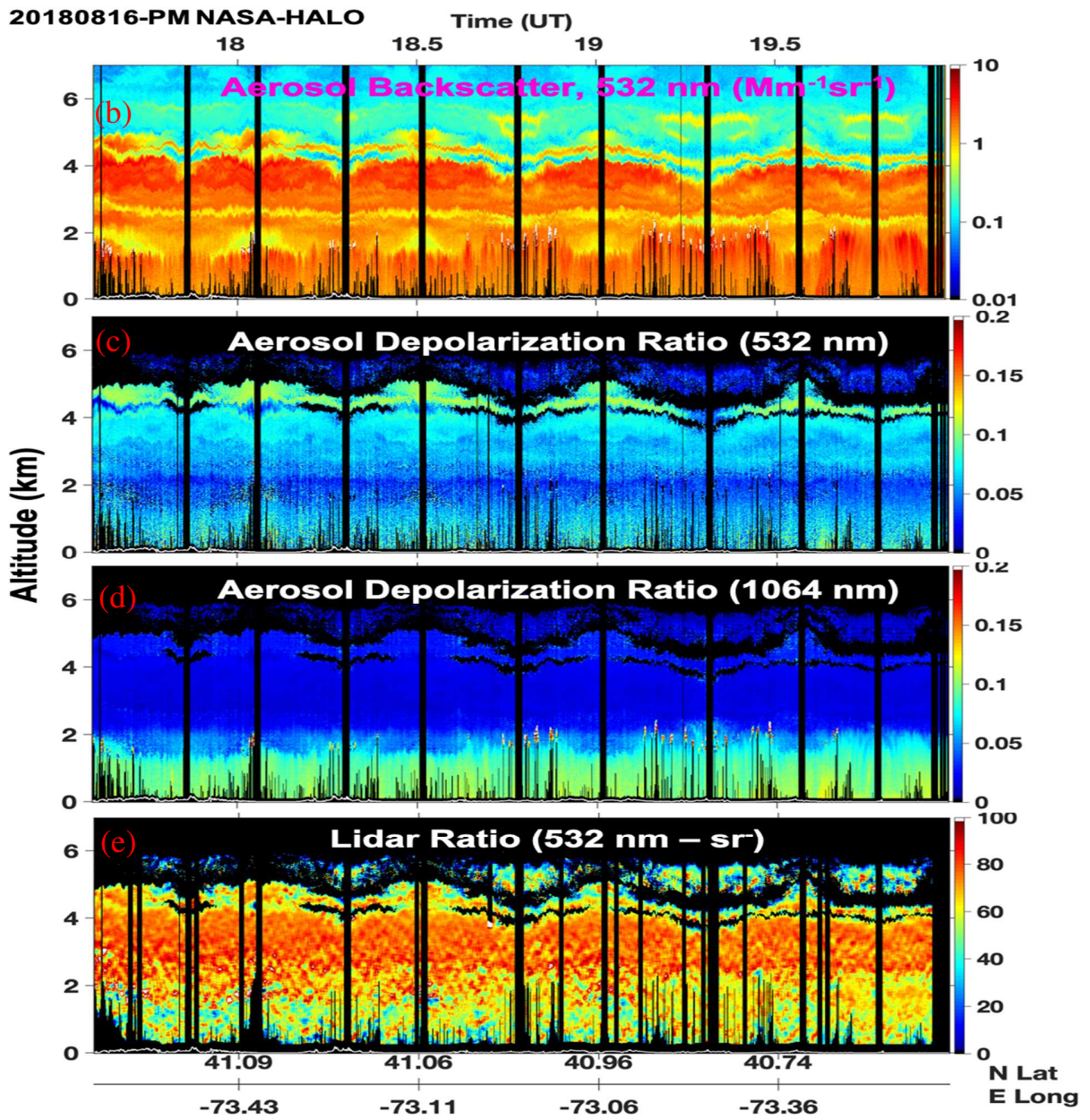
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 816 Fig.8 Correlation of Angstrom exponent difference (ΔAE) and smoke-AOD (ΔAOD) at the CCNY (a)
 817 and BNL (b) sites on Aug. 15-16, 2018

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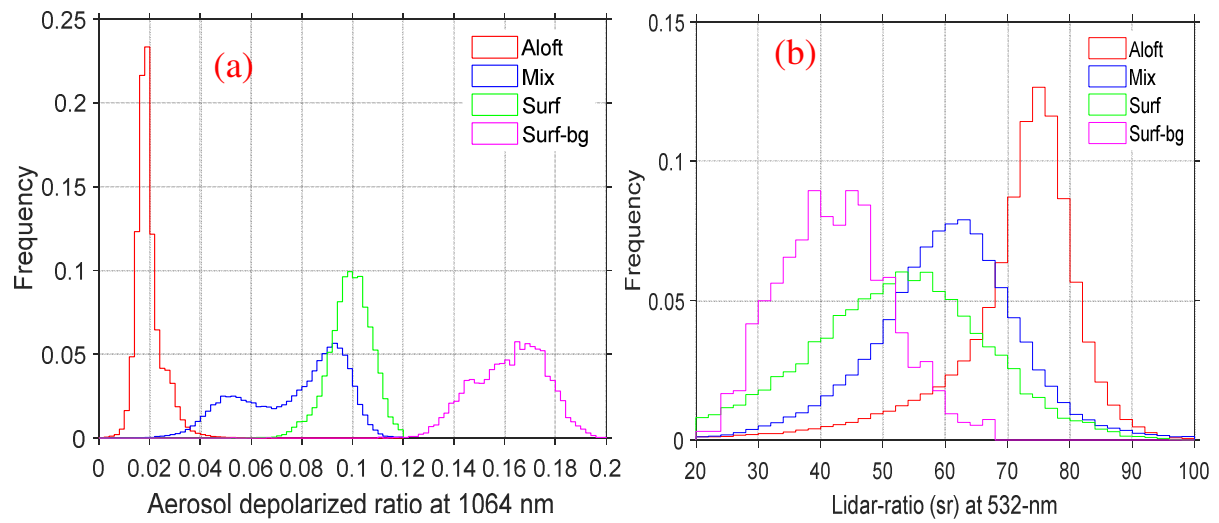
820 Fig.9 (a) NASA-airborne HALO-measured AOT along the flight tracks on Aug.16, 2018



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822 Fig.9 NASA-airborne HALO-measured aerosol backscatter coefficient (b), depolarization ratio (c-d) and
 823 lidar-ratio (e) on Aug.16, 2018 in the NYC and Long Island Sound area.

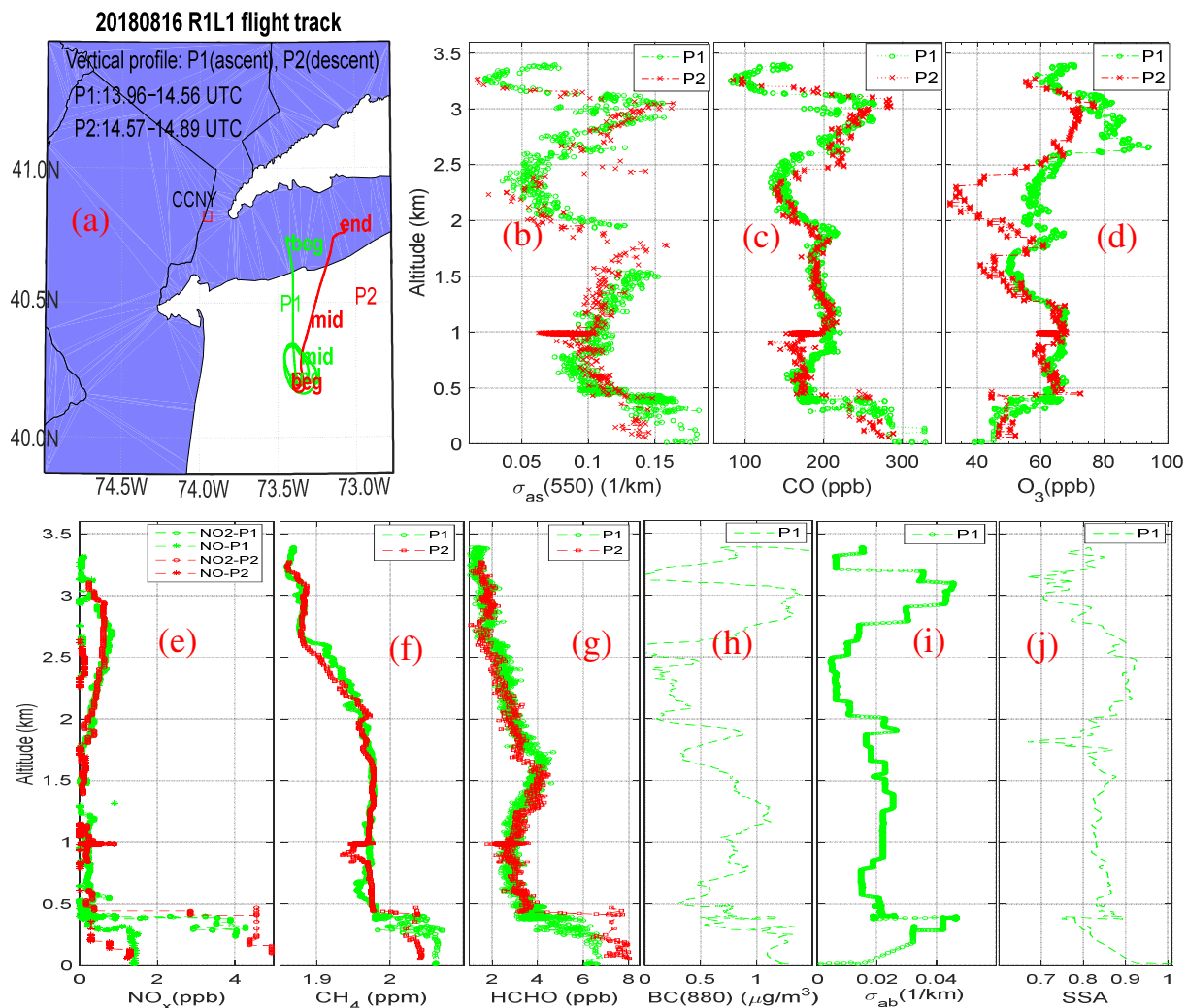
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826 Fig.10 Histograms of aerosol depolarization ratio at 1064 nm (a) and lidar-ratio at 532-nm (b) at the
 827 different altitudes measured by NASA airborne HALO on Aug.16, 2018 in NYC and Long Island Sound
 828 area. Aloft: 2.5 – 4.7 km altitude; Mix: 0.5-1.5 km; Surf :< 0.5 km. Surf-bg: surface-background data
 829 before the smoke intrusion at 9:00-11:00 EDT on Aug.15, 2018.

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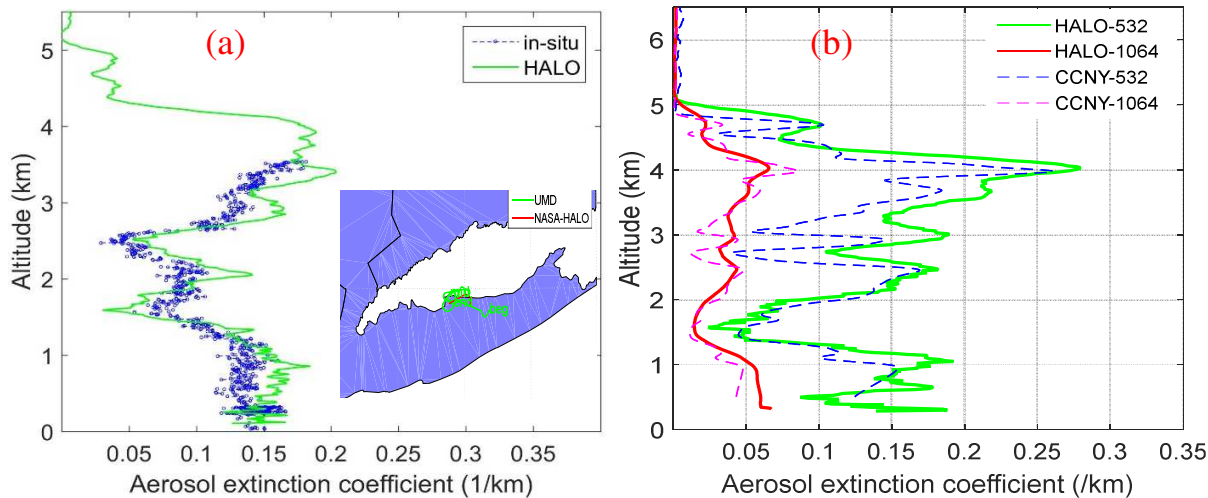


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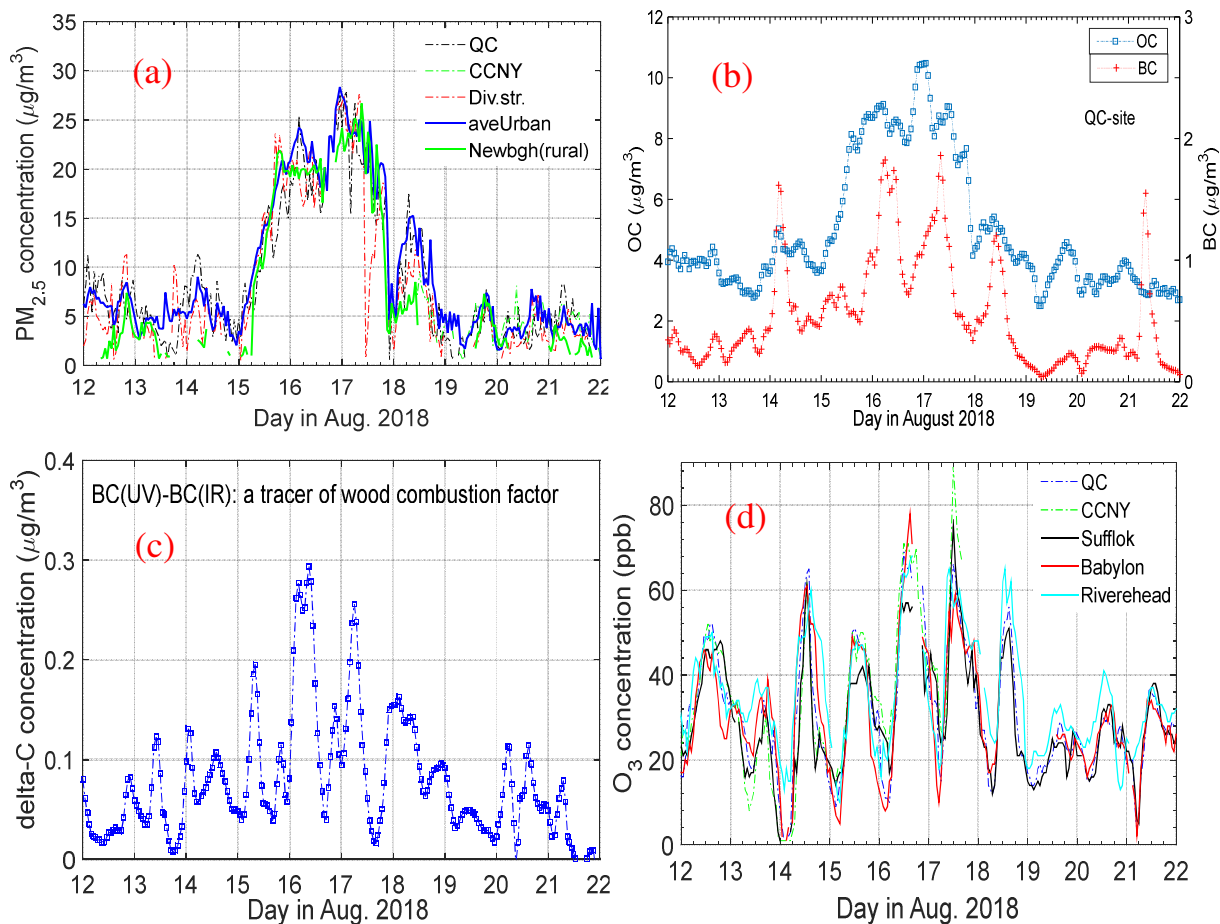
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833 Fig.11. UMD aircraft flight tracks (a) and vertical distribution of aerosol total scattering (σ_{as}) (b),
834 CO (c), O₃ (d), NO_x (e), CH₄ (f), HCHO (g), BC (h), aerosol absorption (σ_{ab}) (i), and SSA (j) on Aug.16, 2018
835 (Vertical profile P1: Time=13.96-14.56 UTC or 9:58-10:34 EDT, Ascent; P2: Time=14.57-14.89 UTC or
836 10:34-10:53 EDT during the descent)

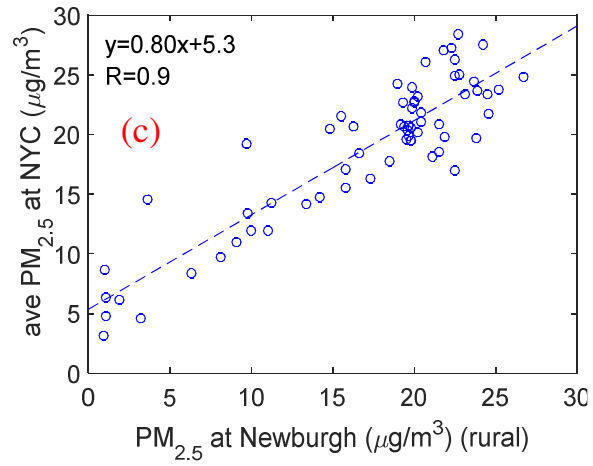
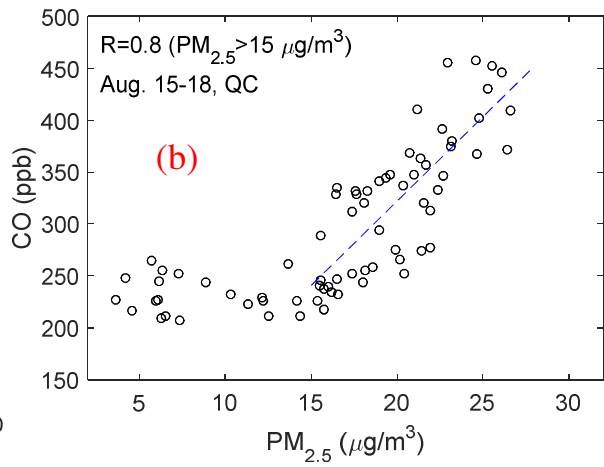
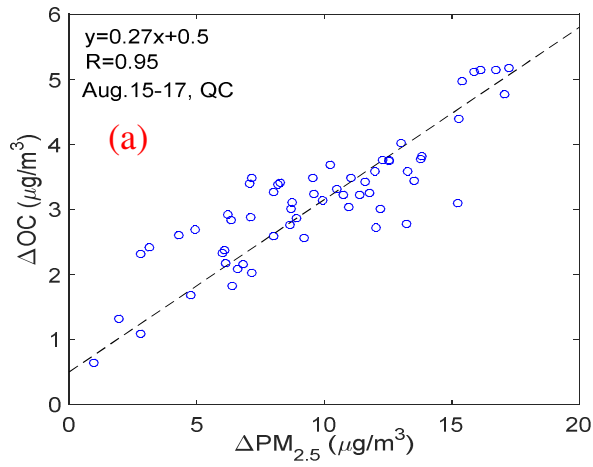
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 839 Fig. 12 Comparison of aerosol extinction profiles on Aug.16, 2018. (a) NASA-HALO vs. UMD aircraft
 840 in-situ at 19:56-20:23 UTC (15:56-16:23 EDT); (b) CCNY-lidar vs. HALO (HALO data <12 km from
 841 CCNY-site and CCNY-data within the 5-min from HALO overpass)



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 843
 844 Fig.13 Temporal variation of ground $PM_{2.5}$ (a), OC and BC (b), delta-C (c) and O_3 (d) in the NYC area
 845 during Aug. 12-22, 2018.

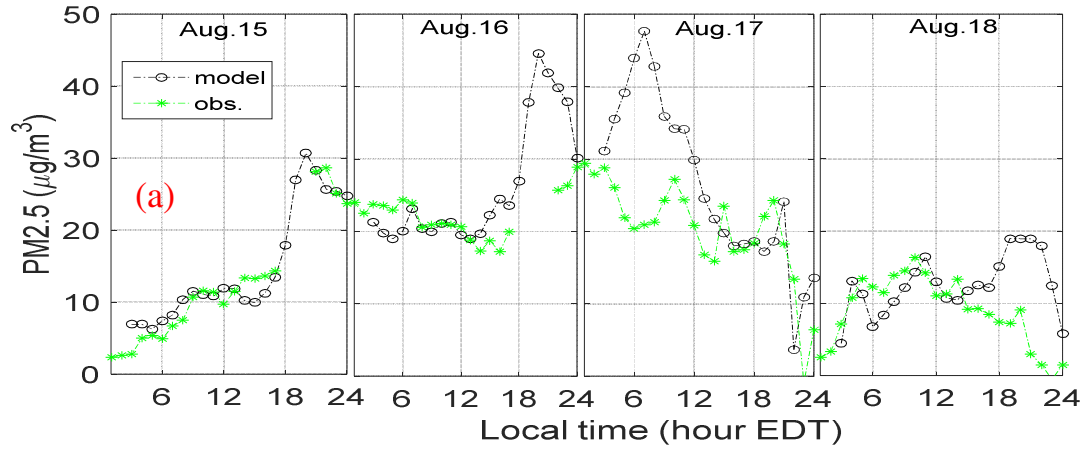


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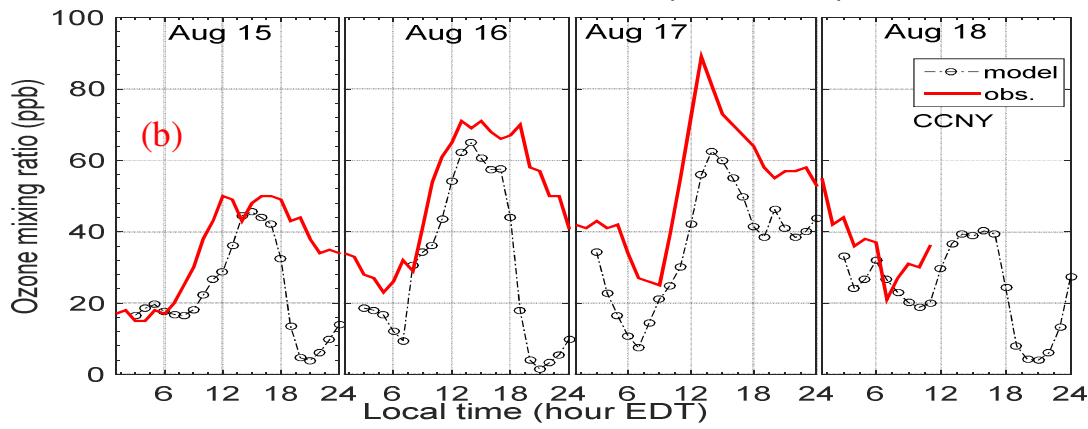
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848 Fig.14 Correlation between the increment of OC and PM_{2.5} (a), CO and PM_{2.5} at QC-site (b), and PM_{2.5}
 849 correlation at NYC urban and rural area (c) on Aug. 15-17, 2018.

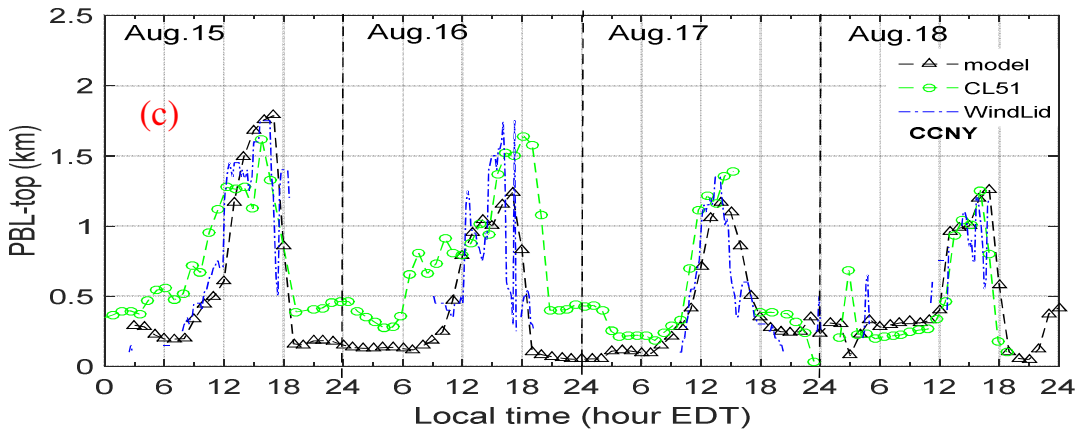
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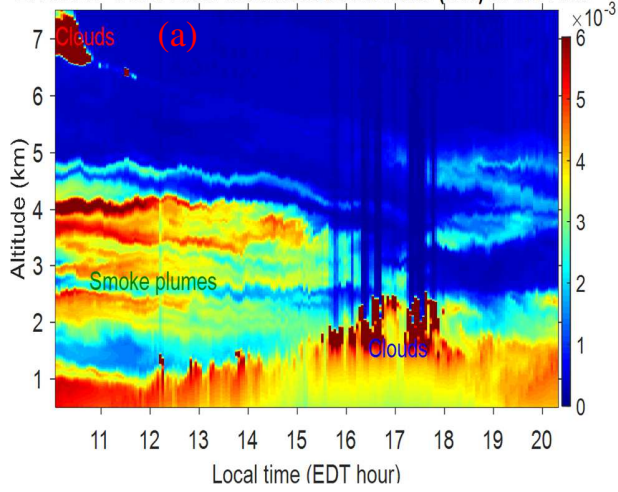


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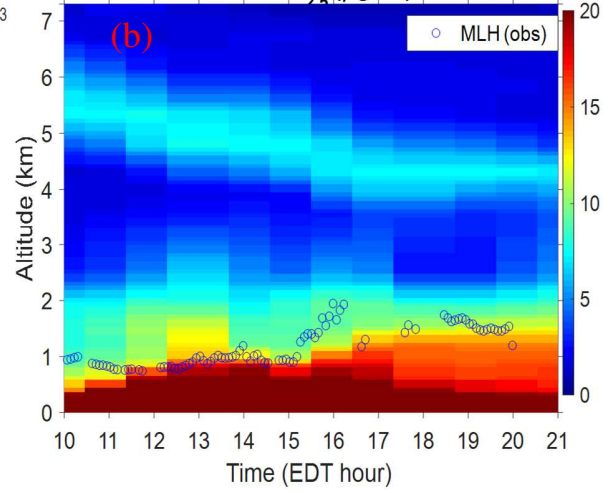
854 Fig.15 Comparison of ground PM_{2.5} (a), O₃ (b) and PBLH (c) between the observations and model
855 product.

856

20180816 CCNY-Lidar attenuated backscatter (a.u.) at 1064-nm

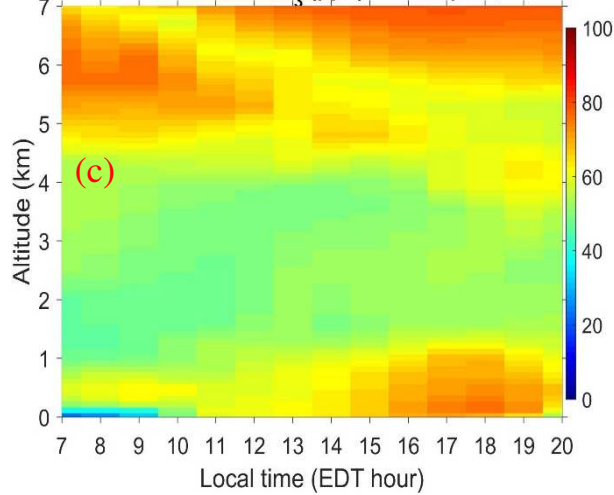


20180816 model $PM_{2.5}$ ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) at CCNY



857

20180816 model O_3 (ppb) at Westport, CT



858

859 Fig. 16 Comparisons of aerosol ((a) and (b)) and O_3 (c) time-height cross-section between the
860 observations and the NOAA-NAQFC simulations on Aug.16, 2018.

861

862 **Table-1. Ground site locations and the data used in this study ***

Site-name	Latitude (north,deg)	Longitude (west,deg)	Data used	Operator
NYBG	40.868	73.878	O ₃	NYSDEC-AQS
IS-52	40.816	73.902	O ₃	NYSDEC-AQS
CCNY	40.820	73.949	O ₃ ,PM _{2.5} ,CO, PBLH, aerosol extinction profile, AOD, Angstrom exponent	NYSDEC+CCNY
Division Street	40.715	73.995	PM _{2.5}	NYSDEC-AQS
Queens College (QC)	40.736	73.822	O ₃ ,CO,PM _{2.5} , OC, BC	NYSDEC-AQS
Babylon	40.745	73.419	O ₃	NYSDEC-AQS
Suffolk County	40.828	73.058	O ₃	NYSDEC-AQS
Riverhead	40.961	72.712	O ₃	NYSDEC-AQS
Newburgh	41.499	74.009	PM _{2.5}	NYSDEC-AQS
West Port	41.118	73.337	O ₃ profile	NASA-LMOL
LMC(Bronx)	40.873	73.894	Wind profile	NYS-Mesonet
BNL	40.866	72.885	AOD, Angstrom exponent	AERONET-BNL

863 *The acronyms in Table-1 are spelled with full names in the contexts.

- Dense wildfire smoke mixing into PBL, and concurrent high ozone (>70 ppb) and CO in the plume layers.
- Smoke particles and urban aerosols show different spectral behavior (particle depolarization ratio at 1064 nm and lidar-ratio). Distinguish smoke particles from urban aerosols and identify their mixture in the PBL.

