

# Overview of the Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory: Site description and selected science results from 2008-2013

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81 **Abstract**

82           The Bio-hydro-atmosphere interactions of Energy, Aerosols, Carbon, H<sub>2</sub>O, Organics &  
83 Nitrogen (BEACHON) project seeks to understand the feedbacks and inter-relationships between  
84 hydrology, biogenic emissions, carbon assimilation, aerosol properties, clouds and associated  
85 feedbacks within water-limited ecosystems. The Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory  
86 (MEFO) was established in 2008 by the National Center for Atmospheric Research to address  
87 many of the BEACHON research objectives, and it now provides a fixed field site with  
88 significant infrastructure. MEFO is a mountainous, semi-arid ponderosa pine-dominated forest  
89 site that is normally dominated by clean continental air, but is periodically influenced by  
90 anthropogenic sources from Colorado Front Range cities. This article summarizes the past and  
91 ongoing research activities at the site, and highlights some of the significant findings that have  
92 resulted from these measurements. These activities include:

- 93           • soil property measurements,
- 94           • hydrological studies,
- 95           • measurements of high-frequency turbulence parameters,
- 96           • eddy covariance flux measurements of water, energy, aerosols and carbon dioxide  
97           through the canopy,
- 98           • determination of biogenic and anthropogenic volatile organic compound  
99           emissions and their influence on regional atmospheric chemistry,
- 100           • aerosol number and mass distributions,
- 101           • chemical speciation of aerosol particles,
- 102           • characterization of ice and cloud condensation nuclei,
- 103           • trace gas measurements, and

104                   • model simulations using coupled chemistry and meteorology.

105                   In addition to various long-term continuous measurements, three focused measurement  
106 campaigns with state-of-the-art instrumentation have taken place since the site was established,  
107 and two of these studies are the subjects of this special issue: BEACHON-ROCS (Rocky  
108 Mountain Organic Carbon Study; 2010) and BEACHON-RoMBAS (Rocky Mountain Biogenic  
109 Aerosol Study; 2011).

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## 111 **1. Introduction**

### 112 1.1 Motivation

113 Development of Earth-System models is driven by the need to improve the  
114 predictability of atmospheric chemical and physical processes over time scales ranging from  
115 minutes to decades. Accurate model predictions are contingent on process-level understanding  
116 and detailed numerical descriptions of the coupling between water, energy and biogeochemical  
117 cycles across temporal and spatial scales (Denman et al., 2007, Alo and Wang 2008, Heald et al.,  
118 2009). A number of studies have discussed some of these processes and associated feedbacks  
119 (e.g. Barth et al., 2005, Carslaw et al., 2010, Mahowald et al., 2011), but more detailed  
120 observations and coordinated modeling efforts are required for improved representation in Earth-  
121 System models.

122 The Bio-hydro-atmosphere interactions of Energy, Aerosols, Carbon, H<sub>2</sub>O, Organics &  
123 Nitrogen (BEACHON) project was initiated by the National Center for Atmospheric Research  
124 (NCAR) as well as research collaborators from the university community to investigate  
125 ecosystem-atmosphere exchange of trace gases and aerosols and their potential feedbacks  
126 between biogeochemical and water cycles. BEACHON is now an ongoing component of  
127 atmospheric research sponsored by the National Science Foundation. This interdisciplinary  
128 research program integrates local and regional model simulations with remote sensing, regional  
129 network observations, and canopy- to regional-scale field measurements. BEACHON includes  
130 investigations of atmospheric, ecological and hydrological processes including concentration and  
131 flux measurements of energy, CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, volatile organic compounds, aerosols, nitrogen  
132 compounds, hydrological parameters and feedback processes that are relevant to atmospheric  
133 chemistry. Rocky Mountain ecosystems are important for providing water and other resources in

134 the western United States, but contain only a limited number of long-term monitoring sites. This  
135 region is predominantly arid or semi-arid resulting in biogeochemical cycles that are water-  
136 limited. Since the area contains some of the fastest growing population centers, water limitations  
137 (combined with a climate that is projected to be warmer and potentially drier) pose significant  
138 societal vulnerabilities (Vorosmarty et al., 2010). The region's remote complex terrain leads to  
139 highly variable ecosystem characteristics, and it is unclear how this variability affects  
140 hydrological and atmospheric processes across larger geographical areas. The need for long-  
141 term land-ecosystem-atmosphere observation networks has been identified by international  
142 research programs as a key need for advancing Earth System science (Guenther et al., 2011).

143 To address these challenges, the BEACHON project in collaboration with the United  
144 States Department of Agriculture (USDA) Forest Service established the Manitou Experimental  
145 Forest Observatory (MEFO) in 2008, in an area representative of a middle-elevation (~2000 –  
146 2500 m a.s.l.), semi-arid, ponderosa pine ecosystem that is common throughout the Rocky  
147 Mountain West, but not adequately characterized. The BEACHON project and establishment of  
148 this site were designed to meet the following objectives:

- 149 • Collect long-term measurements of meteorology, water, carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), and  
150 energy fluxes, aerosol size distributions and fluxes, trace gas and cloud condensation  
151 nuclei concentrations;
- 152 • Monitor soil moisture, precipitation, snowpack, stable water isotopes, and other  
153 hydrological variables to provide input and lateral boundary conditions for Earth-System  
154 models and as a basis for making more accurate water resource predictions for this and  
155 other semi-arid regions;

- 156 • Provide infrastructure for collaborative research among government laboratories,  
157 universities and private companies;
- 158 • Carry out intensive measurement campaigns;
- 159 • Provide training for undergraduate and graduate students and promote multidisciplinary  
160 research.

161 This article describes the Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory, presents on-going  
162 research at the site and highlights some initial findings. More specific scientific results and  
163 publications can be found in the publication list (Table S2) and within the individual articles as  
164 part of this special issue of Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics.

## 165 1.2 Site description and meteorological overview

166 The Manitou Experimental Forest (39.1006° N, 105.0942° W; Figure 1A,B), in the Front  
167 Range of the Colorado Rocky Mountains, has been managed as a research facility by the USDA  
168 Forest Service's Rocky Mountain Research Station since 1938. It contains approximately 6760  
169 ha and exemplifies the Colorado Front Range wildland-urban interface where semi-arid montane  
170 forest ecosystems are in close proximity to larger urban centers. These interface areas, which  
171 also contain a number of small residential communities, are prone to wild fires from lightning as  
172 well as human causes. Two particularly large nearby fires (the 560 km<sup>2</sup> Hayman fire in 2002 and  
173 the 74 km<sup>2</sup> Waldo Canyon Fire in 2012) were among the most ecologically and economically  
174 damaging in the state's history. Although the primary study areas were not burned, areas within  
175 several km to the south and west of the site were affected by the 2002 fire. The landscape has  
176 thus been dramatically affected in both appearance and in the vegetation's ability to slow soil  
177 erosion from surface run-off during monsoon rains. Fire-damaged portions of the forest can  
178 change aspects of the atmospheric chemistry measured at the site through changes in gas- and



179 aerosol-phase emissions from nearby fire-scarred vegetation and soil. Wildfires are ubiquitous  
180 in the semi-arid forested American West, of which this area can be considered representative.

181 This forest's elevation ranges from 2,280 to 2,840 meters above sea level, and vegetation  
182 is primarily composed of forests of ponderosa pine, Douglas-fir, mixed conifer and aspen. The  
183 forest stands surrounding the observatory are relatively young, uneven-aged stands dominated by  
184 ponderosa pine. In 2009, core samples from a survey of 38 representative ponderosa pine  
185 showed that the median tree age was 49.5 years (with average, minimum and maximum ages of  
186 62.5, 27, and 201 years respectively).

187 Soils underlying the tower site and the surrounding area are classified as deep, well-  
188 drained sandy loams and sandy gravelly loams originating from alluvial deposits weathered from  
189 underlying arkosic sandstone formations as well as nearby granite formations (Soil Conservation  
190 Service, 1992). Although numerous outcroppings of partially-weathered sandstone exist around  
191 the site, the average depth to bedrock is estimated to be between 1-1.8 m (36-60 inches) below  
192 ground surface. The soil ranges from slightly acidic to moderately alkaline (pH 6.1-7.8) with  
193 little organic matter content (1-4%) and rooting depths reported to be in excess of 1.3 m (40  
194 inches). Soil permeability on undisturbed soils is moderately rapid (approx. 50-150 mm hr<sup>-1</sup>).  
195 Rapid runoff generation and sediment transport occurs on compacted road surfaces, and other  
196 areas void of significant ground vegetation. The tower site is on an alluvial bench, formed by the  
197 erosion of underlying granite. It is situated in a broad, shallow valley approximately 1 km west  
198 of an intermittent creek, which flows towards the north. The terrain slope is asymmetric across  
199 this valley with the east side of the valley being steeper and the west side being more gradual  
200 (gradient between 3-8%).

201           The National Weather Service has been monitoring precipitation at MEF since 1940  
202 (Station Woodland Park 8 NNW, Coop ID: 059210), and U.S. Forest Service staff have been  
203 collecting meteorological data including air and soil temperature, precipitation, and wind speed  
204 since 1998. The climate is cool (mean temperature is 19°C in July and -2°C in January) and dry  
205 with an average annual precipitation for 2010-2013 of 430.5 mm (16.94 inches). Approximately  
206 50% of the precipitation falls as rain during the summer season (June – September) primarily  
207 during afternoon thunderstorms characterized by brief but intense periods of rainfall and  
208 lightning. Winter snowfall is typically light, and a persistent snowpack rarely develops.

209           Like much of Colorado, the site has a high frequency of sunny days during most of the  
210 year. During mid-day in July 2011, approximately 90% of the days had PAR values  
211 (photosynthetically active radiation between 400 and 700 nm) above the canopy that exceeded  
212  $2100 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , and part of every day reached a PAR value of at least  $2000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ .  
213 Frequent afternoon thunderstorms can temporarily reduce the solar insolation, but rarely for  
214 more than three hours. Figure 2 shows the diel cycles of net longwave and shortwave radiation,  
215 latent heat flux, sensible heat flux and net CO<sub>2</sub> flux (calculated using the eddy covariance  
216 method) from four representative months during 2011. Each point represents the 30 minute  
217 average for that time period. The net radiation is calculated from the difference between the  
218 downwelling radiation and the upwelling radiation from the radiometers at the top (28 m) of the  
219 chemistry tower. It is interesting to note the net carbon uptake in the spring (April) and autumn  
220 (October) during the day, and the large nighttime respiration flux in July.

221           Numerous studies have been conducted here by researchers from a wide range of federal  
222 agencies, academic institutions, and non-governmental organizations. Early research focused on  
223 range management, including re-vegetation of abandoned fields, grazing management in native

224 and seeded pastures, watershed management in gully control, stream sedimentation, surface  
225 runoff, bacterial pollution, and infiltration (Gary et al., 1985). Recent research is more diverse,  
226 and includes a long-term (> 30 years) study on the flammulated owl (Linkhart et al., 2006, 2007),  
227 studies assessing the impacts of forest restoration and fuel reduction techniques (Battaglia et al.,  
228 2010, Massman et al., 2010, Rhoades et al., 2012), silviculture studies (Lezberg et al., 2008), and  
229 wildfire recovery studies (Fornwalt et al., 2010). Additional information about the site  
230 (including long-term weather, tree growth data and a bibliography of publications) can be found  
231 at: <http://www.fs.usda.gov/manitou>.

### 232 1.3 Measurements at the Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory (MEFO) under the 233 auspices of BEACHON

234 In 2008, with cooperation with the USDA Forest Service, NCAR established the  
235 infrastructure at the site and named it the Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory (MEFO).  
236 The site includes four (4) mobile steel containers each having 160 ft<sup>2</sup> of laboratory floor space,  
237 numerous sampling ports, temperature-control and 20 kW power. Two research towers that  
238 extend through the canopy were constructed approximately 300 m apart (Figure 1C) and are  
239 referred to here as the micrometeorology and chemistry towers. Detailed information on these  
240 towers' measurements is listed in Table S1 in the supplementary materials section. A third  
241 (smaller) eddy-covariance measurement tower was deployed in a large clearing or 'forest gap'  
242 from 2011-2012. The purpose of this smaller tower was to make 4-way radiation measurements,  
243 surface skin temperature, and sensible and latent heat flux measurements over the grass and forb  
244 vegetation that is found beneath and in between the ponderosa pine. These measurements were  
245 taken at 1 and 3 m above ground level.

246 The micrometeorology tower (Figure 1E) is a narrow 45 m triangular tower (Rohn Products,  
247 Peroria, IL, USA; model 45G; 425 mm per side) designed to facilitate the analysis of the impact  
248 of canopy elements (needles, branches, trunks) on turbulent exchange between the surface,  
249 canopy layers, and the overlying atmosphere. The instruments on the micrometeorology tower  
250 operated nearly continuously from July 2009 until July 2012 when they were removed as a  
251 precaution due the proximity of the Waldo Canyon Fire. This tower had instruments deployed at  
252 six different levels (2, 8, 16, 22, 30, and 43 m), thus allowing several measurements within and  
253 above the canopy (average canopy height  $\approx$  16 m). The 22 m level contained a 4-component  
254 radiometer (Kipp and Zonen, The Netherlands, model CNR1) for measuring above-canopy  
255 incoming and outgoing shortwave and longwave radiation. Instrumentation on the other five  
256 levels included:

- 257 • Sonic anemometers (Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, model CSAT3) to record the  
258 three orthogonal wind velocity components and temperature fluctuations;
- 259 • NCAR-Vaisala (Vantaa, Finland) aspirated hygrometers to measure absolute  
260 temperature and relative humidity;
- 261 • Open-path infrared gas analyzers (LiCOR, Lincoln, NE, model 7500) to measure  
262 water vapor and carbon dioxide.

263 This multi-season dataset is being used to:

- 264 • Quantify the importance of canopy-induced modifications to turbulence in predicting  
265 whole-ecosystem exchange in regional and global climate models,
- 266 • Partition water fluxes into transpiration and evaporation components, and
- 267 • Investigate impacts of spatially heterogeneous canopy distributions on evapotranspiration  
268 using additional information from the chemistry and understory towers.

269 The chemistry tower is a 28 m walk-up type tower that is equipped with meteorological  
270 sensors as well as a variety of flux and gradient concentration measurements for gases and  
271 aerosols (Figure 1D). The platform on each level is 1.78 m × 1.27 m and is suitable for heavier  
272 instruments that require more space, power and maintenance. It can also support gradient  
273 sampling systems, which can move vertically along the tower. This tower is also equipped with  
274 2D and 3D sonic anemometers, temperature, and radiation probes for continuous meteorological  
275 measurements and for calculating fluxes using the closed-path eddy covariance method. Other  
276 continuous gas-phase measurements from this tower have included: CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O vapor, NO,  
277 NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>. The Waldo Canyon fire in June 2012 forced the removal of the trace gas  
278 instruments from the chemistry tower and all of the instruments from the micrometeorological  
279 tower. Fortunately, the fire did not directly affect the site, and meteorological measurements  
280 from the chemistry tower have operated continuously (see Table S1). Since the two towers had  
281 generated 3-4 years of data and some of the instruments were required for other projects and  
282 field sites, it was decided to adjust the sampling strategy. Future core measurements of trace  
283 gases (CO, O<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>) and aerosol number size distributions will be operated 4 times per  
284 year (for 4-6 weeks in duration) to capture the seasonal variability of these key species..

285 The suitability of these towers for making eddy covariance flux measurements in the  
286 surrounding landscape was analyzed by Kaser et al. (2013b). Briefly, the flux footprint was  
287 found to extend to 900 m for unstable boundary layer conditions and to 2500 m for stable  
288 conditions. However, because there is more heterogeneity in the forest composition and  
289 proximity to former burn areas inside the 2500 m radius, a practical limit of 1850 m beyond the  
290 tower was used as one of the criteria for valid flux data. A paved road ~ 500 m east of the tower  
291 site caused data to be eliminated if wind direction was from that sector.

292 The only significant woody vegetation around the observatory is ponderosa pine  
 293 Measurements from this species include leaf- and branch-level photosynthesis, respiration and  
 294 biogenic volatile organic compound (BVOC) emissions as well as sap flow using the  
 295 compensation heat pulse method as described by Burgess et al. (2001). Leaf-level gas exchange  
 296 was measured during peak sun exposure (9:00 – 14:00) on sunlit needles ~ 10m above the  
 297 ground (Table 1). Each measurement was made on 6-10 mature needles, which were defined as  
 298 needles that been on the branch through at least one winter. Gas exchange measurements were  
 299 made using an LI-6400 portable gas exchange system (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE) and  
 300 photosynthesis, stomatal conductance, and transpiration calculations were made using total leaf  
 301 area (measurement as described in Eller et al., 2013). The effects of high solar insolation, warm  
 302 temperatures, and low humidity just prior to monsoon precipitation are demonstrated by the low  
 303 stomatal conductance and photosynthesis values in July (Table 1).

304

305 Table 1: Mean values for needle-level gas exchange measured on mature *P. ponderosa* needles  
 306 at the Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory. All calculations are based on total, rather than  
 307 projected, leaf area. Values in parentheses give the range of measurement dates (2011 day of  
 308 year). Standard deviations are given in italics (n=3).

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	May (136-149)	June, July (178-185)	August (230-233)	September (263-265)
Net Phosynthesis (A) [ $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ]	2.9 <i>0.6</i>	0.9 <i>0.6</i>	3.2 <i>0.8</i>	3.5 <i>0.2</i>
Stomatal conductance( $g_s$ ) [ $\text{mmol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ]	28 <i>9</i>	7 <i>5</i>	29 <i>12</i>	30 <i>6</i>
Transpiration [ $\text{mmol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ]	0.49 <i>0.13</i>	0.35 <i>0.28</i>	1.00 <i>0.22</i>	0.64 <i>0.07</i>

310

311 A suite of hydrological measurements for total precipitation, soil moisture, leaf wetness and  
 312 snow depth have been measured nearly continuously since 2009. Aerosol measurements include

313 two years (February 2010 to January 2012) of particle size distributions from 4 nm to 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  and  
314 1 year of CCN (cloud condensation nuclei) data during March 2010 to April 2011 measured  
315 from one of the 4 mobile laboratories adjacent to the tower (Figure 1D). An additional month of  
316 CCN measurements (May 2011) was made above the canopy (25 m above ground) from the  
317 chemistry tower (Levin et al., 2012). BEACHON ROCS (Rocky Mountain Organics Study,  
318 2010) and BEACHON RoMBAS (Rocky Mountain Biogenic Aerosol Study, 2011) were two  
319 large intensive measurement campaigns that occurred at the site. Selected results from these two  
320 campaigns as well as the initial 2008 Southern Rocky Mountain (SRM) study are discussed in  
321 this article and are summarized in Section 5. A more detailed summary of measurements at  
322 MEFO can be found in Table S1 in the Supplementary Material section. Campaign data and  
323 long-term observations are available at the following web site:

324 <http://www2.acd.ucar.edu/campaigns>

325 Other long-term data is available upon request from the corresponding author.

326

#### 327 1.4 Meteorology at Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory

328 As mentioned in section 1.2, the observatory lies within a north-south drainage (draining  
329 to the north), leading to the formation of diurnal mountain-valley flows. Nighttime flow above  
330 the canopy (28 m) is dominated by drainage from the south as can be seen in Figures 3B and 3F.  
331 Winds below the canopy are often westerly or southwesterly due to drainage flow from  
332 surrounding ridgelines (Figure 3D). This height-dependent nocturnal pattern is dominant in all  
333 seasons. Daytime wind directions are much more variable. Although there is often a southerly  
334 flow during the day, other wind directions are also prevalent. Synoptic winter winds lead to a  
335 higher frequency of westerly and southwesterly flow (Figures 3A and 3E). These conditions  
336 tend to bring relatively unpolluted air to the site from the west. Stagnant high pressure

337 conditions lead to locally-induced upslope flow from either the northeast or southeast, which are  
338 consistently observed during daylight hours (Figure 3C). These periods are important in  
339 understanding the local chemistry as these flows transport air from Front Range cities (mainly  
340 Denver and Colorado Springs). Regardless of the daytime wind patterns, southerly drainage  
341 flow usually develops soon after the stable nocturnal boundary layer develops, which is often  
342 accompanied by an increase in anthropogenic pollutants. Wind measurements as well as  
343 modeling results suggest that this is often due to air from the Denver area during daytime  
344 upslope flow, which then drains towards the north and past the site at night.

345

## 346 **2. Footprint hydrology in a water-limited ecosystem**

### 347 2.1 Overview of hydrological measurements

348 Intensive hydrological measurements of total precipitation (rain and snow), soil moisture  
349 and snow depth as well as soil temperatures have been collected at MEFO since the summer of  
350 2009. These complement the vertical flux measurements of water vapor for a complete  
351 accounting of the site's water budget. The precipitation measurements also augment the long-  
352 term records maintained by the USDA Forest Service mentioned in Section 1.2. A network of 11  
353 tipping bucket rain gauges as well as an alter-shielded, weighing-type total precipitation gauge  
354 provide high time resolution, year-round precipitation measurements in a network distributed  
355 within the chemistry tower flux footprint in order to characterize the high spatial variability of  
356 precipitation. More details about these measurements are given in Table S1. The 2010-2013  
357 annual accumulation of hourly precipitation is shown in Figure 4A. These time series are bias-  
358 corrected merged data products between the site's sensors in order to cover periodic data gaps.  
359 The site's annual precipitation measurements for a given year are defined by an end date of  
360 September 30 of that year and a start date of October 1 in the preceding year. The patterns



361 observed have been fairly consistent. Periodic precipitation episodes occur throughout the  
362 principal cool season of October through May followed by a brief dry season from late May  
363 through mid-June. This is followed by a summer period of rather intense precipitation episodes  
364 associated with the regional incursion of the North American Monsoon system. Finally there is  
365 an extended dry period starting in the late summer and extending into early autumn. The average  
366 annual accumulated precipitation for 2010-2013 was 430.5 mm with a range of 392 mm (in  
367 2012) to 513 mm (in 2010). It should be noted that 2012 was among the driest years on record  
368 for most of Colorado, and the total precipitation for 2013 was similarly low. The latter year  
369 began with very low winter and spring snow fall, and stayed much drier than average until heavy  
370 September rains increased the total accumulated precipitation to about the same level observed in  
371 2012. The maximum observed hourly rainfall recorded at the site from 2009-2013 was 57.9 mm,  
372 which occurred on Aug. 4, 2010. Other thunderstorms with high rain fall rates (up to 25 mm per  
373 hour) are common during the summer monsoon.

374         Seasonally-transient snowpack is an important feature of the hydrologic cycle as the  
375 snowpack can provide a lasting water source to the site during the spring melt period and can  
376 also insulate the soil from freezing temperatures. Snow depth measurements (Jenoptik, Inc.,  
377 Jena, Germany, model SHM30 laser snow depth sensor) began during the winter of 2010-2011.  
378 Persistent patchy or complete snowpack is limited to December, January and February. Periodic  
379 snowstorms may also input appreciable moisture during the months of October, November,  
380 March and April although a snowpack rarely persists for more than 7 days.

381         Soil moisture probes (Decagon Devices, Pullman, WA, USA, model EC-5) and  
382 temperature profiles (Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, USA, model T107 thermistors) extending  
383 from the near surface to approximately 1 meter depth are made at 3 different sites within the

384 micrometeorology tower's flux footprint. The merged annual cycle of soil moisture from all  
385 sites is shown in Figure 4B, and the annual soil temperature cycle is shown in Figure 4C. The  
386 soil moisture cycle exhibits some interesting and classic features of western landscape  
387 hydrology, especially the tendency for persistent dryness and pulsed recharge of near-surface  
388 moisture, particularly in the warm season. Deeper into the soil, the moisture variability is  
389 significantly damped and there is evidence of persistent soil moisture there, regardless of  
390 extended summer dry periods. This deeper layer of persistent wet soil helps sustain some of the  
391 total evaporative flux from the ponderosa pine ecosystem during the summer. There are  
392 extended periods of winter soil temperatures several degrees below 0 °C, which extends to  
393 approximately 70 cm below the surface. These low soil temperatures indicate that significant  
394 amounts of soil water freeze (i.e., creates 'soil frost') occasionally during the winter. The  
395 presence of soil frost is further evidenced by the sharp decline in recorded soil moisture values  
396 from December through late-February. Suppressed soil moisture values corresponding with sub-  
397 zero soil temperatures is a classic measurement artifact due to the significant change in soil  
398 dielectric permittivity as water undergoes phase change from liquid to ice and back again at the  
399 freezing point. This meltwater release and periodic melting of the transient snowpack impart  
400 additional water pulses to the site. As previously mentioned, MEFO typically experiences an  
401 early summer dry period before the onset of the monsoon rains, which is highly correlated with  
402 increased CO<sub>2</sub> and BVOC fluxes. The semi-arid climate creates very low mid-day stomatal  
403 conductance in ponderosa pine during the early- and late-summer dry periods (see Table 1),  
404 which protects the trees from water stress. When the monsoon rains start, these fluxes and  
405 stomatal conductance both increase substantially.

406

407 2.2 Water manipulation effects on ponderosa pine

408 Projected water limitations and higher temperatures are expected to put additional  
409 climate-induced physiological stresses on semi-arid forest ecosystems (Allen et al., 2010). To  
410 test hypotheses related to future climates, manipulation experiments must be carefully designed  
411 to ensure that data are representative of larger ecosystems responses (Beier et al., 2012). With  
412 these considerations in mind, another study at MEFO during 2010-2011 was designed to quantify  
413 the effect of different water treatments on the photosynthesis and respiration rates as well as  
414 BVOC emissions from mature trees (at least 10 m in height). Up to 50% of the incoming  
415 precipitation (snow and rain) was systematically diverted from the root zones (10 m × 10 m area)  
416 around targeted trees using an array of troughs (see iii in Figure 1C). The intercepted water was  
417 collected into barrels and then added to nearby trees resulting in a water continuum delivered to  
418 the various trees from 0.5 to 1.5 times the total precipitation such that the total amount of water  
419 delivered to the entire plot remained constant. Physiological parameters (e.g. sapflow,  
420 photosynthesis, and BVOC emissions) were measured on all trees within the experimental plot.  
421 Similar to the speciation seen in ambient air, branch-level measurements showed that the BVOCs  
422 emitted in the highest concentrations were methanol, 2-methyl-3-buten-2-ol, and monoterpenes.  
423 Initial observations showed that seasonality in plant physiological processes and weather  
424 dynamics interact to produce complex controls over climate-dependent emissions of these  
425 compounds with a strong dependence on soil moisture and precipitation. If the climate in this  
426 region shifts to a drier summer regime, total BVOCs emitted from needles of this forest are  
427 likely to decrease, which will have implications for modeling both gas- and liquid-phase regional  
428 chemistry. Studies such as this exemplify the interdisciplinary research questions addressed by

429 the BEACHON project, and are necessary to address the ecological system processes for  
430 inclusion into Earth-System models as discussed in Section 1.1.

431

### 432 **3. Volatile organic compounds, oxidants and aerosol properties**

#### 433 3.1 Volatile organic compound observations

434 Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) at MEFO are a mixture of biogenic and  
435 anthropogenic compounds. The summertime VOC signals are dominated by biogenic emissions,  
436 primarily methanol, ethanol, acetone, monoterpenes ( $C_{10}H_{16}$ , abbreviated by MT) and 2-methyl-  
437 3-buten-2-ol ( $C_5H_{10}O$ , abbreviated by 232-MBO or MBO). Isoprene ( $C_5H_8$ ) is also observed  
438 during summer, but to a much lesser extent (~10-20% of 232-MBO concentrations).

439 Anthropogenic VOC concentrations are lower than the biogenic compounds and are typically  
440 transported into the area from the Colorado Springs or Denver metropolitan areas.

441 A variety of techniques have been used to measure VOCs from different levels on the  
442 chemistry tower, individual ponderosa pine branches, and from the ground. A quadrupole proton  
443 transfer reaction mass spectrometer (PTR-MS; Ionicon, Analytik, Innsbruck, Austria) measured  
444 a suite of selected VOCs (including methanol, acetonitrile, acetaldehyde, acetone+propanal, 232-  
445 MBO+isoprene, benzene, monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes) during portions of each of the 2008-  
446 2012 growing seasons. Under normal operating conditions, 232-MBO undergoes a dehydration  
447 reaction in the PTR-MS drift tube leading to a molecular ion of  $m/z = 69$ . This is the same ion as  
448 protonated isoprene, which is why they are reported as the sum of both species. Tower-based  
449 measurements alternated between a six point gradient system (1.6, 5, 8.5, 12, 17.7 and 25.1 m  
450 above ground) and an eddy covariance (EC) flux system at the top level (25.1 m). In addition, a  
451 time-of-flight (TOF) PTR-MS (University of Innsbruck, Austria) was deployed for EC and

452 concentration measurements above the ponderosa pine canopy in 2010 and 2011 (Kaser et al.,  
453 2013a,b). A Selective Reagent Ion (SRI) PTR-TOF-MS (Ionicon Analytik, Innsbruck, Austria)  
454 instrument was used in 2011 to selectively distinguish 232-MBO from isoprene concentrations  
455 by using  $\text{NO}^+$  as the reagent ion (Karl et al., 2012). This configuration was also used for one  
456 week in 2012 to continue these measurements for determining EC fluxes of 232 -MBO and  
457 isoprene (Karl et al., 2013). Figure 5 shows the vertical flux profiles for 232-MBO and total MT  
458 calculated from gradient measurements using the methodology described in Karl et al. (2004). It  
459 is evident that MBO emissions follow a light-dependent pattern and that the fluxes increase with  
460 height up to 12 m. MT emission patterns were vertically more uniformly distributed suggesting  
461 that the understory (forest litter, bark and trunks) also contributed to the total emissions. Using  
462 site-specific leaf cuvette measurements as model inputs, MEGAN 2.1 estimates showed good  
463 agreement with the measured average daytime 232-MBO + isoprene fluxes of  $1.84 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ .  
464 After the large rain and hail storm on August 4<sup>th</sup> 2010 (which produced 57.9 mm precipitation in  
465 an hour; Section 2.1), monoterpene fluxes increased to  $4.7 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  which is a factor 5-10  
466 higher than what is normally observed ( $0.5\text{-}1 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ) (Kaser et al., 2013b). Figure 6A shows  
467 the sum of MT and MBO+isoprene concentrations and fluxes starting on this day (August 4) and  
468 ending 1 week later (August 11). The increases in both emissions and fluxes, which continue for  
469 ~2 days after the rain event, are evident. The missing flux data on the first day (and periodically  
470 throughout the measurement period) are due to turbulence characteristics that are not amenable  
471 to EC calculations as described in section 1.3. The PTR-MS showed that ambient concentrations  
472 of several other BVOC (including cymene, camphor, nopinone, pinonaldehyde and  
473 sesquiterpenes) were also elevated after this vegetation disturbance.

474 The Trace Organic Gas Analyzer (TOGA, Apel et al., 2010) was deployed during the  
475 BEACHON ROCS campaign to measure concentrations of isoprene, 232-MBO, speciated MT  
476 and over 25 other targeted compounds. Results showed that the MT speciation is dominated by  
477  $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene and  $\Delta$ -3-carene (approximately 25% each). Other quantified monoterpenes  
478 include camphene (7%), limonene (12%), myrcene (5%) and ocimene (1%). Figure 6B(1-4)  
479 shows August 2010 ambient diel concentrations of 4 selected VOCs reported by TOGA. The  
480 concentrations of the biogenic compounds MBO and MT are much higher than those of a typical  
481 anthropogenic compound (e.g. toluene) at this site, and the concentrations have different diurnal  
482 signatures. During the day, as the boundary layer grows and OH is present, MT concentrations  
483 are diminished even though their emissions are the greatest during this time. At night, the  
484 suppressed boundary layer height combined with decreased losses from O<sub>3</sub> and OH reactions  
485 leads to elevated MT concentrations that generally increase from 18:00 to midnight and remain  
486 elevated until 06:00-07:00. MBO emissions from ponderosa pine are strongly light dependent  
487 (Harley et al 1998, Kaser et al., 2013b) resulting in maximum emissions and ambient  
488 concentrations during midday with a secondary peak in early morning associated with initiation  
489 of emissions before the morning breakup of the nocturnal boundary layer. The combination of  
490 all 3 instruments used during BEACHON ROCS provided a unique opportunity to compare  
491 VOC measurement techniques under real-world conditions. The results were encouraging as the  
492 instruments agreed within ~20% for monoterpenes and ~10% for 232-MBO + isoprene with R<sup>2</sup>  
493 values of 0.85-0.97 (Kaser et. al. 2013a).

494 Consistent with ambient concentration measurements, branch- and needle-level BVOC  
495 emission measurements confirm the dominance of MBO in the emission profile; during daylight  
496 hours, MBO typically comprises >85% of the emitted reactive BVOC mass. Similar to ambient

497 observations,  $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene,  $\Delta$ -3-carene, camphene and limonene dominate the MT  
498 emissions, but a large number of other terpenoids are also emitted, including sabinene, myrcene,  
499 ocimene,  $\alpha$ -terpinene,  $\beta$ -phellandrene, cymene, terpinolene, p-cymenene and the oxygenated  
500 monoterpenes linalool, terpineol and methyl chavicol. In many cases, especially in high light  
501 conditions, linalool was a major component of the leaf-level emissions. A number of  
502 sesquiterpenes, dominated by  $\beta$ -farnesene, also appear in emission samples. For model inputs,  
503 BVOC speciation is an important consideration as different compounds (such as MT isomers  
504 with the same chemical formula) have different reaction rate constants with OH, O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub>, so  
505 their reaction products, pathways and atmospheric lifetimes can vary considerably. Additional  
506 soil BVOC flux measurements have been made using enclosures and a micrometeorological  
507 gradient technique at the site (Greenberg et al., 2012). These results suggested that emissions  
508 from the litter were negligible, contributing less than 1% of above-canopy emissions for all  
509 BVOCs measured.

510         A newly developed Thermal desorption Aerosol Gas chromatograph - Aerosol Mass  
511 Spectrometer (TAG-AMS) was deployed and used to analyze semi-volatile VOCs (~C<sub>14</sub>-C<sub>25</sub>) on  
512 a bihourly timescale. The sample collection, thermal desorption and chromatography systems  
513 have been described previously by Zhao et al. (2013), however the 2011 BEACHON-RoMBAS  
514 campaign was one of the first to couple it to the AMS as a detector (Williams et al., 2014). More  
515 than 70 semi-volatile gas-phase species were observed and quantified in the ambient atmosphere  
516 during the campaign. Source apportionment was used to identify the origin of these gas-phase  
517 species. Some were anthropogenic compounds (such as poly-aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH),  
518 oxygenated PAH and alkanes), but 23 species were identified to be terpenoid compounds of  
519 biogenic origin from a local source determined from Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF).

520 In addition to direct VOC emissions and transported species, it is also important to  
521 consider oxidation products. These compounds can influence tropospheric ozone formation,  
522 oxidative capacity of the atmosphere, and contribute to secondary organic aerosol.  
523 Concentrations and fluxes of two important oxygenated VOCs, formaldehyde (HCHO) and  
524 glyoxal (CHOCHO), were measured during the 2010 BEACHON-ROCS campaign (DiGangi et  
525 al., 2011, 2012) using Fiber Laser-Induced Fluorescence (FILIF; Hottle et al., 2009) and Laser-  
526 Induced Phosphorescence (Huisman et al., 2008). Ambient formaldehyde concentrations ranged  
527 between a minimum of ~0.5 ppb in the early morning hours (4:00 MST), and maximum values  
528 of 2-2.5 ppb in the evening (~20:00 MST). Ambient glyoxal concentrations ranged between a  
529 minimum of ~18 ppt in the early morning hours (6:00 MST), and maximum values of 30-55 ppt  
530 in the evening (~17:00 MST). The glyoxal:formaldehyde ratio maintained a stable diurnal cycle  
531 ratio with values of ~1.5-2% in the early morning and at night, and rising to ~2.5-3% in the  
532 middle of the days. In addition, to our knowledge, these canopy-scale HCHO eddy flux  
533 measurements are the first reported for any site. These results, coupled with enclosure  
534 measurements that showed minimal direct emissions, suggest a surprisingly large HCHO  
535 production source within the canopy air space. The mid-day HCHO fluxes were positive  
536 (upward) ranging from 37 to 131  $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$  (see Figure 7b) and were correlated with temperature  
537 and radiation within the canopy. The missing HCHO source is thus consistent with oxidation of  
538 VOCs with light and temperature dependent emission profiles. The strength of HCHO fluxes  
539 cannot be accounted for by the oxidation of measured MBO and terpenes (also see section 3.2).  
540 A detailed analysis regarding HCHO sources and oxidation is discussed in DiGangi et al. (2011).

541

542 3.2 Peroxy and hydroxyl radical observations



543 Numerous studies (e.g. Stone et al., 2012) have highlighted discrepancies between  
544 modeled and measured radical concentrations in forested environments suggesting a lack of  
545 understanding of the chemical processes driving secondary pollutant formation. While most  
546 research has focused on regions dominated by isoprene emissions, results from several  
547 investigations indicate gaps in our understanding of BVOC oxidation in MBO- and  
548 monoterpene-dominated areas similar to MEFO (Kurpius and Goldstein, 2003; Day et al., 2008;  
549 Farmer and Cohen, 2008; Wolfe et al., 2011; Mao et al., 2012). Both the 2010 BEACHON-  
550 ROCS and 2011 BEACHON-ROMBAS campaigns included measurements of the hydroxyl  
551 radical (OH) and peroxy radicals (HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>; see Table S1), using the techniques described  
552 by Edwards et al. (2003), Hornbrook et al. (2011) and Mauldin et al. (2001). This provided a  
553 unique opportunity to test our understanding of the chemical reactions that link BVOC oxidation  
554 with production of ozone and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) precursors.

555 Discrepancies between modeled and measured HO<sub>x</sub> (= OH + HO<sub>2</sub>) in regions with high  
556 BVOC levels have been primarily attributed to “missing” sources of OH (Thornton et al., 2002;  
557 Lelieveld et al., 2008; Hofzumahaus et al., 2009; Peeters et al., 2009). In the boundary layer, OH  
558 is produced both via “primary” sources, such as photolysis of ozone in the presence of water  
559 vapor, and via radical cycling reactions, such as reaction of HO<sub>2</sub> with NO.



563 In a detailed analysis of OH observations, Kim et al. (2013) demonstrate that radical recycling  
564 via (R3) is likely the dominant source of OH within the MEFO canopy. A 0-D box model under-  
565 predicts HO<sub>x</sub> concentrations relative to observations, implying unidentified sources of HO<sub>2</sub>.

566 Using the same box model in a study focused on peroxy radical observations, Wolfe et al. (2013)  
567 confirm this result and identify several potential additional sources of both HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>.  
568 Notably, it is suggested that oxidation of unmeasured, highly reactive BVOC could explain a  
569 significant portion of the missing peroxy radical source. Such a source could also explain the  
570 high HCHO fluxes observed during the same campaign (DiGangi et al, 2011; see Section 3.1).  
571 Figure 7a compares the hourly-averaged measured and modeled total peroxy radical mixing  
572 ratios for BEACHON-ROCS (August 2010). As described in Wolfe et al. (2013), the difference  
573 between measured and modeled values corresponds to a total “missing” peroxy radical  
574 production rate of as much as 130 ppt/min. For comparison, Figure 7b shows measured and  
575 modeled HCHO fluxes (DiGangi et al., 2011). The additional HCHO production needed to  
576 reconcile modeled and measured formaldehyde fluxes is on the order of 65 ppt/min at midday.  
577 Uncertainties in measurements and model results contribute to a significant overall uncertainty in  
578 these production rate estimates (approximately ± 50%). Nonetheless, the similarity between  
579 these results—obtained via two essentially independent methods—supports the conclusion that  
580 VOC oxidation within the canopy is much stronger than predicted by canonical chemical  
581 mechanisms.

582         Analysis of the role of anthropogenic influence on the oxidation of BVOCs, especially  
583 via the influence of NO<sub>x</sub> on the fate of RO<sub>2</sub>, is of great current interest (Orlando and Tyndall,  
584 2012), and MEFO is well suited for such studies (see also section 4.1). Figure 8A shows the  
585 measured HO<sub>2</sub>, HO<sub>2</sub>+RO<sub>2</sub>, NO and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations during a representative day in  
586 BEACHON ROCS (August 24, 2010), and Figure 8C shows the corresponding wind speed and  
587 direction. On this day, upslope conditions (that can bring polluted urban air and are often seen at  
588 this site) were not observed, as the wind was generally out of the south or southwest where there

589 is relatively little anthropogenic influence. During the mid-morning as the boundary layer  
590 developed, an increase in  $\text{NO}_x$  (Figure 8A) can be seen, which was likely due to downward  
591 transport of a residual layer. The anthropogenic influence on the fate of  $\text{RO}_2$  is evident as the  
592 loss mechanism was initially dominated by the  $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$  channel (Figure 8B), but during mid-  
593 day as  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations decreased (due to the residual morning boundary layer breaking up  
594 and southwesterly flow to the site), the  $\text{RO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$  channel became the major loss mechanism.  
595 While the patterns of these transitions do not appreciably affect the concentrations of biogenic  
596 and anthropogenic VOCs, the changes in the role of the different reaction channels are consistent  
597 with the measured HCHO and glyoxal concentrations (DiGangi et al., 2012) and measured and  
598 modeled  $\text{HO}_2 + \text{RO}_2$  concentrations indicated in Figure 7. This competition between  $\text{NO}_x$  and  
599  $\text{HO}_2$  for reaction with the peroxy radicals ( $\text{RO}_2$ ) affects the composition of multigenerational  
600 reaction products formed during gas-phase radical cycling and thus dictates, to a large extent, the  
601 production of ozone and organic aerosol precursors.

602

### 603 3.3 Aerosol properties and composition

604 Particle size distribution measurements (covering diameters from 4 nm to 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$ ) were  
605 conducted for nearly 2 years at MEFO starting in February 2010 and ending in January 2012.

606 The instruments used for these measurements consists of the following components:

- 607 • Optical Particle Counter (200 – 2500 nm); Lasair model 1002 from Particle  
608 Measurement Systems (Boulder, CO, USA),
- 609 • Regular scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS; 30-300 nm): Custom sheath air  
610 and HV control unit combined with TSI model 3081 Differential Mobility

611 Analyzer (DMA) and TSI model 3760 Condensation Particle Counter (CPC; TSI  
612 Inc., Shoreview, MN, USA), and  
613 • Nano SMPS (4-30 nm): Custom sheath air and HV control unit combined with  
614 TSI model 3085 DMA, and TSI model 3025a CPC.

615 Particle size distributions started at midnight at exact 5 minute intervals for a total of 288  
616 size distributions per day. Frequent “small particle events” characterized by high concentrations  
617 of 4 – 20 nm particles were observed, especially during the summer season. The origin of these  
618 small particles is likely atmospheric nucleation (Kulmala et al., 2007), which is thought to be  
619 caused by reactions of gas-phase sulfuric acid with atmospheric bases such as ammonia and  
620 amines as well as oxidized organic compounds (Kirkby et al., 2011, Almeida et al., 2013). An  
621 example of three typical small particle events during July 2011 is shown in Figure 9A, where the  
622 onset of each event is seen just prior to noon (MST). These events are common at MEFO in the  
623 summer, occurring 3-5 times per week during late morning or early afternoon, and typically  
624 coincide with changes in wind speed and direction. Figure 9B shows wind speed and wind  
625 direction at the top of the chemistry tower and sulfate aerosol mass loadings measured by an  
626 aerosol mass spectrometer (described below). On each of these mornings the wind speed is  
627 fairly low (~1 m/s) at 8:00 MST with wind direction shifting from the south to a more northerly  
628 or northeasterly direction, indicating upslope transport from the Denver area. Thermal  
629 Desorption Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer (TDCIMS) measurements during these  
630 nucleation events demonstrated that sub-20 nm particles were composed of ~60% sulfate by  
631 mass whereas during non-event periods, sulfate contributed less than 40% of the mass to these  
632 small particles (Cui et al., 2014). In both event and non-event periods, the bulk aerosol mass is  
633 not significantly affected by this sulfate mass, as the majority of the total aerosol mass is

634 dominated by larger particles. The correlation with wind direction and the increase in sulfate  
635 aerosol indicates that these events are anthropogenically induced, The scarcity of particles  
636 smaller than 10 nm on July 29 suggests that nucleation is occurring away from the site, either  
637 aloft (Mirme et al., 2010, Schobesberger, et al., 2013) or in the mixed layer shortly (~60 minutes  
638 or less) upwind of the site.

639 A Fast Mobility Particle Sizer (FMPS, Model 3091, TSI Inc., Shoreview, MN, USA) was  
640 used during BEACHON-RoMBAS to measure size-dependent particle fluxes (Pryor et al., 2013).  
641 While the mean flux of both Aitken and nucleation mode particles was downwards, upward  
642 fluxes were frequently observed. Based on quadrant and time-scale analyses using the University  
643 of Helsinki Multicomponent Aerosol (UHMA) model (Korhonen et al., 2004), they found that  
644 the upward fluxes of nucleation mode (< 30 nm diameter) particles were most strongly  
645 influenced by upward transport of particle-rich air from the canopy resulting from the growth of  
646 recently nucleated particles as well as coagulation processes. Downward fluxes of the Aitken  
647 mode particles were more commonly linked to breakdown of the nocturnal inversion and  
648 entrainment of particle-depleted air from above the canopy.

649 Average particle number concentrations at this site are usually less than  $2 \times 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ,  
650 which is typical for rural continental environments, and concentrations rarely exceed  $10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ .  
651 During the August 2011 BEACHON-RoMBAS study, chemical speciation and mass loadings of  
652 non-refractory  $\text{PM}_{10}$  aerosol were measured using a high resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass  
653 spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS, Aerodyne Research, Inc., Billerica, MA; DeCarlo et al., 2006).  
654 Average mass loadings during the campaign were  $2.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Figure 10). Also included in this  
655 figure is black carbon aerosol as measured with a single particle soot photometer (Droplet  
656 Measurement Technologies, Boulder, CO, model SP2). Approximately 75% of the total  $\text{PM}_{10}$

657 aerosol mass was comprised of organic aerosol (OA), with the rest composed primarily of  
658 ammonium sulfate. Nitrate concentrations were low and were shown to be primarily composed  
659 of organic nitrates (Fry et al., 2013). Black carbon (BC) aerosol mass was of the order of a few  
660 percent of the total submicron mass and more variable, often increasing and decreasing by an  
661 order of magnitude on hourly timescales. Transport from urban areas, fires, and local traffic  
662 likely explain this variability. Figure 10b shows the size-resolved composition for the same  
663 species and time period. Ammonium and sulfate size distributions were centered at 300-400 nm,  
664 while organics and nitrate aerosol size distributions were centered at ~250 nm. The distinct size  
665 distributions of the chemical components indicate that these aerosols are not completely  
666 internally mixed. Figure 10c shows the month-long daily distributions indicating a subtle diurnal  
667 cycle in organic aerosol, peaking at night, but with considerable day-to-day variability. The peak  
668 in average sulfate (and associated ammonium) at ~16:00-19:00 is primarily due to the influence  
669 of certain days where sulfate increased during late afternoon to early evening with corresponding  
670 SO<sub>2</sub> increases (see spikes in Figure 10a). The diurnal BC trends showed two peaks. The larger  
671 of these was in the evening (~20:00) coincident with the regular prolonged impact of the urban  
672 plume in afternoon through evening and was also seen in other anthropogenic species (e.g. NO<sub>x</sub>,  
673 CO). The smaller, shorter-duration morning peak (~06:00 MST) was also correlated with NO<sub>x</sub>  
674 and CO. The reason for this morning BC increase could be due to the break-up of the shallow  
675 nocturnal boundary layer causing mixing down of more pollution-rich residual layer air, or an  
676 increase of local emission sources into a shallow morning boundary layer. It should be noted  
677 that the diameter measured from BC aerosol is the mass equivalent diameter ( $D_{me}$ ) which was  
678 obtained by assuming a density of 1.8 g cm<sup>-3</sup> as recommended by Moteki et al. (2010). The  
679 aerodynamic diameter is estimated to be at least 1.8 times larger than the  $D_{me}$  shown in Figure

680 10b and could be larger than this if the BC was internally mixed with other non-BC compounds  
681 (e.g. organic coatings), or smaller if the particles had irregular shapes (DeCarlo et al., 2004).  
682 PM<sub>2.5</sub> collection onto quartz fiber filters during the same campaign were analyzed for a  
683 variety of specific SOC (Secondary Organic Carbon) and carbon isotopic measurements as  
684 described in Geron (2011) and Lewandowski et al. (2013). These results estimated that 0.5 µgC  
685 m<sup>-3</sup> could be attributed to specific SOC (Secondary Organic Carbon) precursors. Hemiterpene  
686 precursor compounds (isoprene + MBO) represented approximately half of the observed SOC,  
687 with monoterpenes contributing nearly the same amount to the total SOC. Isotopic  
688 measurements of these same filter samples found that the <sup>14</sup>C ratio was 0.71 ± 0.11 (range 0.52 to  
689 0.88), indicating that roughly three quarters of the particulate carbon observed during  
690 BEACHON-RoMBAS was of modern, non-petrogenic origin. The fraction of modern carbon  
691 (70%) at this site is less than values observed in eastern U.S. forests. For example, Geron (2009)  
692 reported mean summer-time values of 83% and with maximum values reaching 97% for those  
693 forests. Similarly, during summer months near forests in the Eastern United States, Lewis et al.  
694 (2004) observed values between ~80-95%. Organic tracer results (including isoprene, MT, and  
695 232-MBO oxidation products) indicate that the lower fraction of contemporary carbon is  
696 primarily due to lower total biogenic emissions and lower organic mass loadings and not due to  
697 more traffic or other urban influences (Kleindienst et al., 2007). The modern carbon results from  
698 MEFO can also be compared to measurements at nine Interagency Monitoring for Protection of  
699 Visual Environments (IMPROVE) network sites. The values from the urban sites in this  
700 network averaged approximately 50% (Bench et al., 2007).

701 Gas- and aerosol-phase organic nitrate concentrations were quantified with thermal  
702 dissociation, laser-induced fluorescence (TD-LIF; Day et al., 2002, Rollins et al., 2010) during

703 summer 2011 (Fry et al., 2013). Gas-phase organic nitrate classes showed diurnal cycles  
704 peaking mid-day at ~200 ppt (total alkyl and multifunctional nitrates) ~300 ppt (total peroxy acyl  
705 nitrates) while total particle-phase organic nitrates peaked at night/early morning. Rates of  
706 formation of gas-phase organic nitrates within the shallow nocturnal boundary layer were  
707 comparable to daytime rates of formation. It was observed that total gas- and particle-phase  
708 organic nitrates had equilibrium-like responses to diurnal temperature changes, suggesting some  
709 reversible partitioning although thermodynamic modeling could not explain all of the  
710 repartitioning. Additionally, diurnal cycle of gas-particle partitioning supported modeled-  
711 predicted nighttime formation of lower volatility products, compared to daytime, from NO<sub>3</sub>  
712 radical-initiated oxidation of monoterpenes. Aerosol-phase organic nitrates were also measured  
713 by AMS and showed good agreement with TD-LIF (Fry et al., 2013).

714         Hundreds of acids in the gas and aerosol phases were quantified in real-time during  
715 summer 2011 using a newly-developed technique: the Micro-Orifice Volatilization Impactor  
716 High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer (MOVI-HRToF-CIMS;  
717 Yatavelli et al., 2012; 2014). It allowed for direct measurement of the gas-particle partitioning of  
718 individual and bulk organic acids. Comparisons to absorptive partitioning modeling  
719 demonstrated that bulk organic acids seemed to follow absorptive partitioning, responding to  
720 temperature changes on timescales of <1-2 hours, suggesting there were not major kinetic  
721 limitations to species evaporation. It was shown that species carbon number and oxygen content,  
722 together with ambient temperature, controlled the volatility of organic acids and are good  
723 predictors for partitioning. Moreover, the relationship between observed and model partitioning  
724 with carbon number and oxygen content pointed toward the likely importance of different classes  
725 of multifunctional organic acids that comprised the bulk of the acid groups (e.g. hydroxyacids,



726 hydroperoxyacids, or polyacids but not ketoacids).

727         A newly identified 232-MBO-derived organosulfate was identified in aerosol samples  
728 during BEACHON-RoMBAS, although at levels lower than reported for a previous California  
729 study (Zhang et al., 2012). The difference was tentatively attributed to the lower acidity of the  
730 pre-existing aerosol at BEACHON, as acidity is thought to greatly enhance the formation of this  
731 organosulfate. This species has the potential to be used as a tracer of SOA formation from 232-  
732 MBO.

733         Part of BEACHON-RoMBAS included the collection of time- and size-resolved  
734 biological aerosol properties. To our knowledge, this is the most extensive and comprehensive  
735 set of these measurements and data available. One key observation during the study was that  
736 rainfall events induced large increases in ambient fluorescent biological aerosol particle (FBAP)  
737 concentrations within the forest canopy (Huffman et al., 2013; Prenni et al., 2013), with  
738 concentrations remaining elevated for extended periods of time (> 12 hr) due to increased  
739 humidity and surface wetness. The largest observed increases, of more than an order of  
740 magnitude relative to dry conditions, occurred in the size range of 2-6  $\mu\text{m}$ . Microscopic  
741 observations showed that these particles were dominated by biological cells at sizes with  
742 characteristics of bacterial aggregates and fungal spores (Huffman et al., 2013). Concentration  
743 increases that occurred during the rain events likely resulted from mechanical ejection of  
744 biological particles from surfaces (Constantinidou et al. 1990; Jones and Harrison, 2004), while a  
745 second, larger mode (which occurred after the rain) was likely actively emitted from biota on  
746 vegetated surfaces near the site (Elbert et al., 2007; Huffman et al., 2013). Contrary to the  
747 expectation that large particles will be washed out during precipitation, these data showed a  
748 significant increase in concentration and net upward flux of primary, super-micron particles after

749 rain, which demonstrates a direct and important link of airborne particles to the hydrological  
750 cycle. Longer term measurements continued for ten months (July 2011 – June 2012) tracking the  
751 seasonal FBAP cycle at the site and observing trends with season, precipitation and other  
752 meteorological parameters (Schumacher et al., 2013).

753

### 754 3.4 Cloud condensation nuclei and ice nuclei

755 One of the primary goals of the BEACHON project was to determine the potential for  
756 biogenic emissions to serve as CCN and ice nuclei (IN), which can impact cloud properties and  
757 precipitation (e.g. Barth et al., 2005). It has been recently suggested that fungal spores may have  
758 large influences on SOA formation in the Amazonian forest (Pöhlker et al., 2012), and as  
759 discussed below, these biologically-influenced particles can influence both CCN and IN.  
760 Changes in cloud properties and precipitation can, in turn, influence biogenic emissions, closing  
761 the loop on a potentially important feedback between the carbon and water cycles (Pöschl et al.,  
762 2010, Morris et al., 2013).

763 To better understand the influence of biogenic secondary organic aerosol on aerosol  
764 hygroscopicity and the seasonal variability of CCN, a continuous 14 month study (March 2010 -  
765 May 2011) was performed at MEFO (Levin et al., 2012). This was followed by additional  
766 measurements during the summer 2011 BEACHON-RoMBAS intensive campaign, which  
767 allowed for direct comparison between aerosol hygroscopicity and aerosol chemical composition  
768 measurements (Levin et al., 2013). Aerosol hygroscopicity was described using the  
769 dimensionless hygroscopicity parameter,  $\kappa$  (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007), showing an annual  
770 averaged  $\kappa$  value of  $0.16 \pm 0.08$ . This value is similar to  $\kappa$  values measured in remote, forested  
771 regions, such as in Finland (Cerully et al., 2011) and the Brazilian Amazon (Gunthe et al., 2009),

772 and is lower than the commonly assumed continental value of  $\kappa = 0.3$  (Andreae and Rosenfeld,  
773 2008). Aerosol composition derived from the hygroscopicity measurements at MEFO indicated  
774 a predominance of organic species in the aerosol, leading to the low  $\kappa$  measurement values.  
775 Direct comparison of organic mass fraction measured by aerosol mass spectrometry and filter  
776 measurements (discussed in Section 3.3) during BEACHON-RoMBAS agreed well with the  
777 composition derived from the hygroscopicity measurements. Organic mass fractions were found  
778 to be largest (up to 90%) in the smallest particles (20-30 nm as measured by the TDCIMS). This  
779 fraction decreased with increasing particle diameter as measured by the AMS (Figure 10B; Levin  
780 et al., 2013), and is consistent with the smallest particles being composed primarily of oxidized  
781 organic species from forest emissions. Results from the year-long measurements showed that  $\kappa$   
782 was slightly higher during the winter months when biogenic emissions (which are strongly  
783 temperature-dependent) are suppressed. The combination of these results suggests that  
784 secondary organic aerosol derived from biogenic emissions impact aerosol hygroscopicity and  
785 CCN number concentrations throughout the year.

786 In addition to the CCN measurements, IN have also been characterized. Ice nucleating  
787 particles induce ice formation in clouds and are thought to be critical in initiating precipitation  
788 from mixed phase clouds (DeMott et al., 2010). During BEACHON-RoMBAS, IN number  
789 concentrations were characterized at temperatures between  $-34\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $-9\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . In addition, the  
790 particle sizes that induced freezing at temperatures greater than  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  were characterized via the  
791 droplet freezing technique. These particles as well as IN were both positively correlated with  
792 number concentrations of FBAP (Huffman et al., 2013; Prenni et al., 2013, Tobo et al., 2013).  
793 Similar to the precipitation-induced increases observed in biological particle concentrations, IN  
794 also increased during rain. The most dramatic example of this increase occurred on August 2,

795 2011, when a thunderstorm produced 19.6 mm of precipitation (maximum rainfall rate of 30 mm  
796 hr<sup>-1</sup>). During this storm, IN concentrations at -25 °C increased from 2 L<sup>-1</sup> to nearly 200 L<sup>-1</sup>  
797 (Prenni et al., 2013). Correlation between IN and FBAP across the temperature range, coupled  
798 with DNA analysis of a portion of the residual IN, suggests that a significant fraction of the IN  
799 near the ground surface is composed of biological particles, particularly during and after rain  
800 events (Huffman et al., 2013, Prenni et al., 2013, Tobo et al., 2013). When lofted to altitudes  
801 where mixed-phase clouds persist, these biologically-influenced IN can influence subsequent  
802 precipitation, providing yet another feedback between biogenic emissions and the hydrologic  
803 cycle, and further linking the biosphere, hydrosphere and atmosphere.

804

#### 805 **4. Atmospheric processes at an urban-rural interface**

##### 806 4.1 Atmospheric chemistry

807 As mentioned in Section 2.2, the MEFO site is primarily influenced by clean continental  
808 air, but is periodically impacted by polluted air advected from the Colorado Front Range urban  
809 areas. This makes the site a suitable location to investigate interactions between biogenic and  
810 anthropogenic emissions, and a variety of interesting questions can be addressed. For example,  
811 how are the oxidation pathways of locally emitted BVOC influenced by oxidant levels (NO<sub>3</sub>, OH  
812 and O<sub>3</sub>) during clean and polluted conditions? In addition, to what extent does the transport of  
813 SO<sub>2</sub>, oxidants and VOCs from urban areas affect particle nucleation and growth? Model  
814 simulations can be initialized and parameterized using long-term and campaign-specific  
815 measurements of aerosols, VOCs, trace gases, and meteorology. Results from these simulations  
816 can then be compared to observations. Local emissions are dominated by 232-MBO and  
817 monoterpenes, but these can be augmented by transport of anthropogenic species from the Front  
818 Range cities. Typical summertime ozone concentrations are 50-60 ppb during the afternoon, and

819 decrease to ~10-20 ppb at night. Nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) are generally dominated by NO<sub>2</sub> with  
820 typical values ~0.5 to 4.0 ppb, although occasional urban influences can cause the concentration  
821 to increase to 8-10 ppb. NO concentrations are much lower – typically less than 0.5 ppb, and  
822 rarely exceed 1.0 ppb. Since the area is relatively rural with low NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations, ozone is  
823 not titrated away at night as would typically happen in an urban environment. Average SO<sub>2</sub>  
824 concentrations are quite low year-round, averaging less than 0.2 ppb, but concentrations can  
825 occasionally spike to ~2.0 ppb. The average August 2011 CO concentration was 123 ppb  
826 (standard deviation of 27 ppb). These values increase when urban air is transported to the site,  
827 but rarely exceed 150 ppb. Periodic CO measurements at other times of year have shown similar  
828 consistent results. These direct measurements provide valuable insight into the range of  
829 atmospheric conditions that the site experiences, and can be used as initial inputs and provide  
830 constraints in modeling efforts. The relatively clean conditions combined with periodic, well-  
831 defined urban perturbations make it an ideally situated location for studying atmospheric  
832 processes at the rural-urban interface. An example of this was demonstrated in Figure 8 (adapted  
833 from DiGangi et al., 2012), which shows the ambient concentrations of HO<sub>2</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub>, NO and NO<sub>2</sub>  
834 in 8A and the corresponding wind speed and direction in 8C during a representative BEACHON-  
835 ROCS day (August 24, 2010). In the early morning, both HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> are very low (< 20 ppt),  
836 accompanied by low wind speeds. During the day, the wind speed increases and becomes south-  
837 easterly with an accompanying increase in NO (likely from the Colorado Springs area, ~40 km  
838 SE of the site). At ~10:30 AM, there is an abrupt change in wind direction with air coming from  
839 the SW (where there is little anthropogenic influence) accompanied by a sharp decrease in NO  
840 concentrations. Concentrations of HO<sub>2</sub>+RO<sub>2</sub> then reach maximum values during the early  
841 afternoon at which point the HO<sub>2</sub> concentrations become maximized and the loss mechanism for

842 RO<sub>2</sub> is through the RO<sub>2</sub>+HO<sub>2</sub> channel (Figure 8B). These observations demonstrate that the fate  
843 of RO<sub>2</sub> radicals at the site is dominated by reaction with HO<sub>2</sub> under clean-air conditions and by  
844 reaction with NO when influenced by urban air. The transitions between the two regimes can be  
845 quite sharp, making the site well-suited for studying these types of transitions.

846

#### 847 4.2 Coupled weather and chemistry modeling

848 Three-dimensional coupled meteorology and chemistry simulations of MEFO and the  
849 surrounding region have been conducted using the Weather Research and Forecasting model  
850 with chemistry (WRF-Chem; Grell et al., 2005, Fast et al., 2006). These model runs include gas-  
851 phase and aerosol chemistry as well as aerosol effects on radiation and clouds. Simulations were  
852 performed at 4 km horizontal grid spacing and compared to ground measurements during the  
853 intensive BEACHON-ROCS and BEACHON-RoMBAS measurement periods. These modeling  
854 studies focused particularly on organic aerosol (OA) formation from forest BVOC emissions,  
855 and the influence of anthropogenic pollutants transported to the site. To study OA formation, the  
856 WRF-Chem model was configured as described in Fry et al. (2013) using the SOA module based  
857 on Hodzic and Jimenez (2011) for anthropogenic precursors and Shrivastava et al. (2011) for  
858 biogenic precursors. To study the influence of anthropogenic pollution on aerosol formation, the  
859 WRF-Chem model was configured as described in Cui et al. (2014). Back-trajectory  
860 calculations based on WRF-Chem simulations confirm that these pollutants are advected from  
861 the Front Range urban area (Figure 11). Elevated concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> (and SO<sub>2</sub>, not shown)  
862 measured onsite coincide with the arrival of polluted air masses from Denver or Colorado  
863 Springs, whereas low concentrations are associated with cleaner air advected from the west. The  
864 effect of anthropogenic pollution on predicted OA composition suggests a fraction of modern

865 carbon that is of the order of that measured. Figure 12 shows that 30% or more of OA is  
866 influenced by anthropogenic species through either the formation of secondary organic aerosols  
867 by nighttime  $\text{NO}_3$  chemistry, increased OH and  $\text{O}_3$  oxidation, or the direct transport of  
868 anthropogenic OA to the site.  $\text{NO}_3$  chemistry contributes to larger SOA concentrations at night  
869 when the boundary layer is shallow (Fry et al., 2013), but the overall contribution to the actual  
870 aerosol column relevant to radiative forcing is small (a  $1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  mass concentration represents a  
871  $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-2}$  column density in a 100 m nighttime boundary layer). Daytime aerosol mass  
872 loadings contribute much more to the regional aerosol mass due to the combination of the higher  
873 mass loadings and fully developed boundary layer ( $2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  corresponds to  $4000 \mu\text{g m}^{-2}$  in a 2  
874 km daytime boundary layer; a forty-fold increase column height).

875 Small particle events (see section 3.3) were correlated with elevated  $\text{SO}_2$  concentrations.  
876 Figure 13 shows the onset and subsequent growth of particles at the site during one of these  
877 events (July 29, 2011) as observed (panel a) and the corresponding WRF-Chem simulation  
878 (panel b). Model results indicate that initial particle formation is triggered by anthropogenic  
879  $\text{SO}_2$ , whereas subsequent particle growth is driven by condensation of BVOC oxidation products  
880 (Cui et al., 2014) as discussed in section 3.3. Growth rates were calculated using the number  
881 mean diameter defined by (Matsui et al., 2011):

$$882 \quad NMD = \frac{\sum_i Dp_i \times N_i}{\sum_i N_i} \quad (1)$$

883 where  $Dp_i$  and  $N_i$  are the diameter (nm) and number concentration respectively. The model  
884 simulations estimated that the average particle growth rates during these events (from 4-40 nm  
885 mobility diameter) were  $3.4 \text{ nm hr}^{-1}$ . The observed values calculated from SMPS measurements  
886 (average =  $2.0 \text{ nm hr}^{-1}$ ) are less than the simulated values, but in reasonable agreement with other

887 reports from forested regions in Indiana, USA ( $2.5 \text{ nm hr}^{-1}$ ; Pryor et al., 2010) and Finland ( $2.9$   
888  $\text{nm hr}^{-1}$ ; Jaatinen et al., 2009). It should also be noted that there is considerable variability in  
889 reported growth rates, and this value is highly dependent upon the chosen diameter range.

890 The impact of biogenic aerosols on clouds and precipitation was also investigated as part  
891 of the BEACHON project. Figure 13c shows the effect of new particle formation on cloud  
892 condensation nuclei (CCN) concentrations at the site during 5 days in August 2011. The  
893 observed CCN concentrations are compared with the predicted values, computed with and  
894 without accounting for new particle formation in the model. These results show that modeled  
895 CCN concentration predictions (at 0.5% supersaturation) significantly under-predict the actual  
896 measured concentrations unless nucleation is taken into account. This demonstrates the  
897 importance of aerosol nucleation parameterization to accurately parameterize aerosol-cloud  
898 interactions. In future climate scenarios, it has been hypothesized that warmer temperatures (and  
899 potentially higher biogenic emissions) could have a negative climate feedback (Paasonen et al.,  
900 2013). This is because more oxidation products from BVOC emissions will be available for  
901 condensation, resulting in higher CCN concentrations and consequently increased cloud cover.  
902 Other regional modeling efforts utilizing BEACHON-ROCS and RoMBAS data are still  
903 underway to explore a variety of bio-hydro-atmosphere relationships.

904

## 905 **5. Key findings from 2008-2011 field campaigns.**

906 The Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory has hosted three multi-investigator  
907 intensive measurement campaigns, each designed to focus on specific aspects of bio-hydro-  
908 atmosphere interactions. Measurements made during the BEACHON-SRM08 (Southern Rocky



909 Mountains 2008) study provided an initial characterization of the site, provided data (specifically  
910 aerosol number and mass concentrations, CCN and hygroscopicity) for evaluation of regional-  
911 scale model simulations examining aerosol-cloud interactions, and enabled the identification of  
912 key scientific questions that could be addressed during subsequent field campaigns. The 2010  
913 BEACHON-ROCS (Rocky Mountain Organic Carbon) study focused on BVOC oxidation and  
914 associated implications for oxidant cycling and distributions. The results showed that while there  
915 are compounds in the ambient air not typically measured by standard techniques, there is  
916 evidence that missing OH sinks are associated with oxidation products of known BVOC rather  
917 than primary emissions of unknown BVOC. The study also demonstrated that considerable  
918 BVOC oxidation takes place within the canopy air space. The following year (2011) the  
919 BEACHON-RoMBAS (Rocky Mountain Biogenic Aerosol Study) took place to characterize a  
920 multitude of aerosol processes at the site and incorporate the findings from the gas-phase  
921 measurements of BEACHON-ROCS into modeling efforts. Among the many measurements  
922 performed were IN, CCN, particle size distributions, chemical speciation of bulk aerosol and  
923 small (<30 nm) particles, gas- and particle-phase partitioning, black carbon, elemental:organic  
924 carbon (EC:OC) ratios, gas-phase nitrate and NO<sub>x</sub>, and super-micron biological particles. This  
925 campaign also included many of the same gas-phase measurements from 2010 to further  
926 characterize BVOC emissions, oxidant levels and oxidation products. Many of the long-term  
927 seasonal observations (see Table S1) have been valuable in characterizing the site, and for  
928 interpreting measurements taken during the intensive measurement campaigns. Table S2 in the  
929 supplementary materials section lists the publication results from the past 5 years based on  
930 MEFO observations. Future investigations and data analysis from past measurements are  
931 expected to result in further publications, additional observations, and more collaborative

932 research. This is not intended to be an exhaustive list, but rather provide context for the research  
933 site and further information for past, present and future researchers.

## 934 **6. Conclusion**

935 Observations at the Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory have provided important  
936 data for understanding terrestrial-atmosphere interactions in a semi-arid ponderosa pine forest  
937 that is typical of the Colorado Front Range urban-rural interface. Studies of biogenic emissions  
938 and their influence on gas-phase chemistry, aerosol properties and cloud condensation nuclei  
939 have led to a number of interesting conclusions – some of which have been summarized herein.  
940 High-frequency turbulence measurements coupled with corresponding CO<sub>2</sub>, water, and energy  
941 fluxes at the site are now being incorporated into the land-surface schemes of climate models to  
942 more accurately represent canopy influences. The unique observational data are available for  
943 other model parameterization and evaluation studies. The infrastructure exists to enable  
944 additional measurements and future scientific measurement campaigns as well as for testing new  
945 instruments, measurement inter-comparisons, graduate and undergraduate student development  
946 and other studies involving terrestrial-atmospheric exchange processes. MEFO is a collaborative  
947 facility that is maintained through a cooperative agreement between NCAR and the USDA  
948 Forest Service and is available to the scientific community for training, model development and  
949 evaluation and scientific discovery.

950

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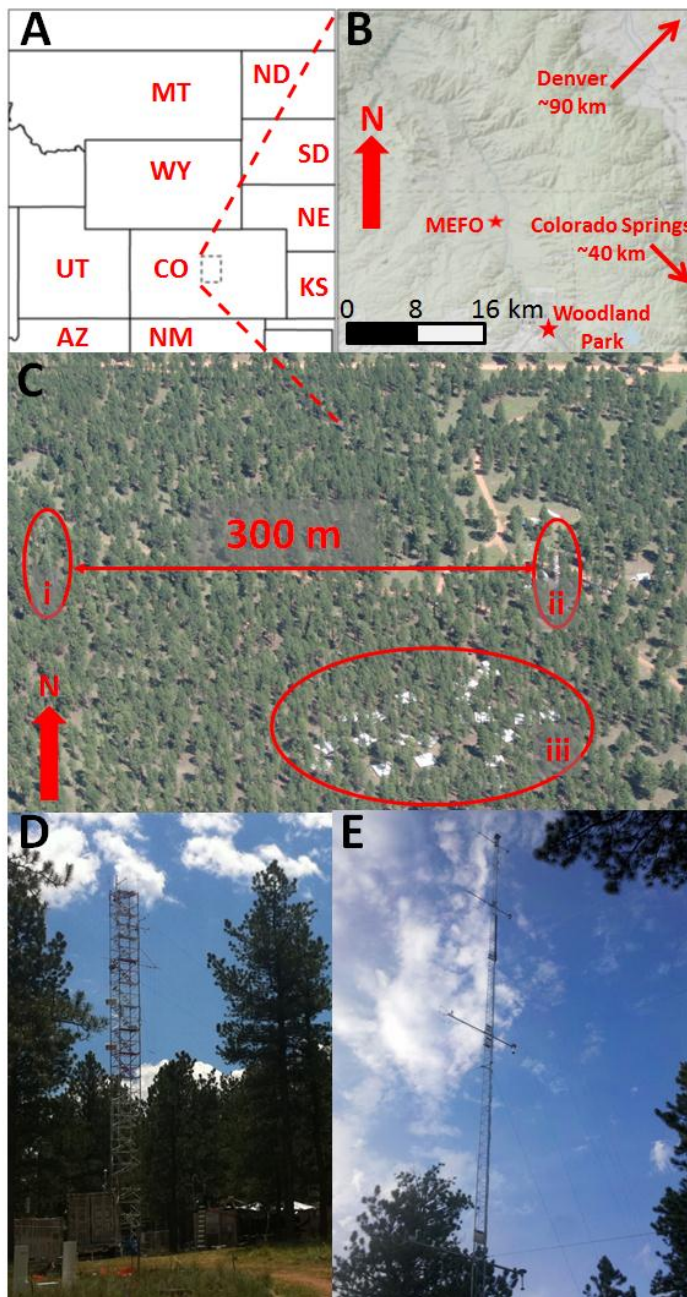
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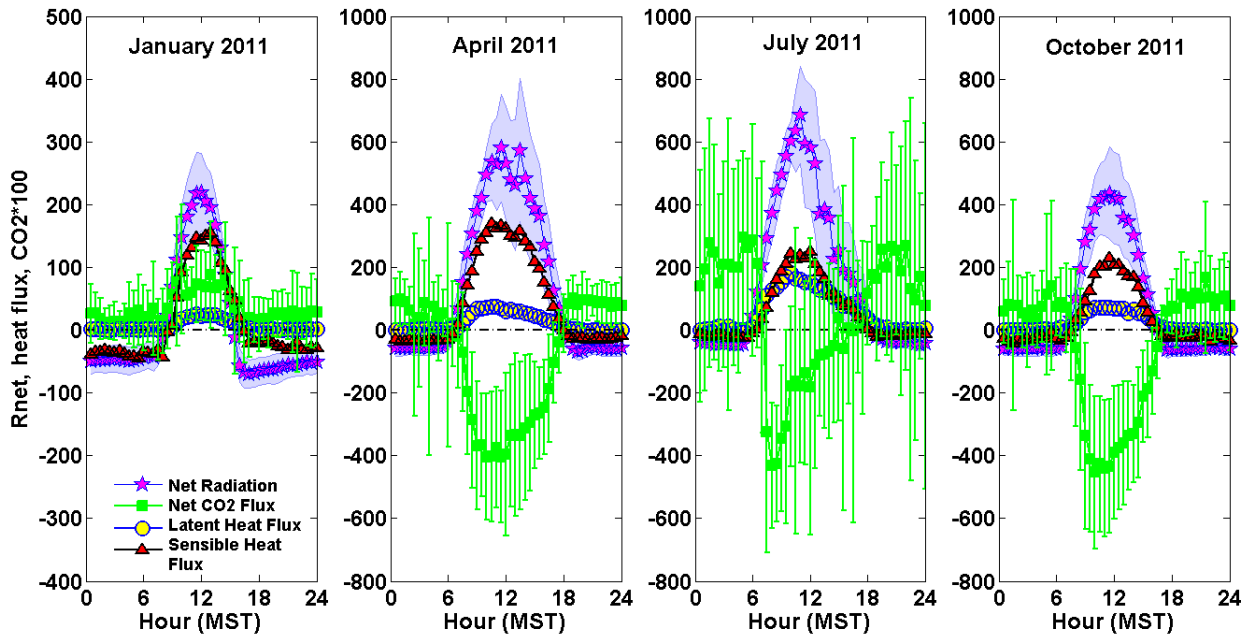
1454 Figure 1: Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory (MEFO). A. Map showing general area  
1455 within Colorado and its relationship to neighboring states. B. Site location relative to the Front  
1456 Range urban corridor including Denver and Colorado Springs. C. Close-up aerial photograph  
1457 showing the open-canopy ponderosa pine-dominated forest with the (i) micrometeorological  
1458 tower, (ii) chemistry tower, and (iii) water manipulation experiment. D. Close up picture of the  
1459 chemistry tower. E. Close of up picture of micrometeorological tower. The two towers shown  
1460 in C are approximately 300 m apart. Maps in panels A and B were produced using ArcGIS  
1461 software (ESRI Inc., Redlands, CA).



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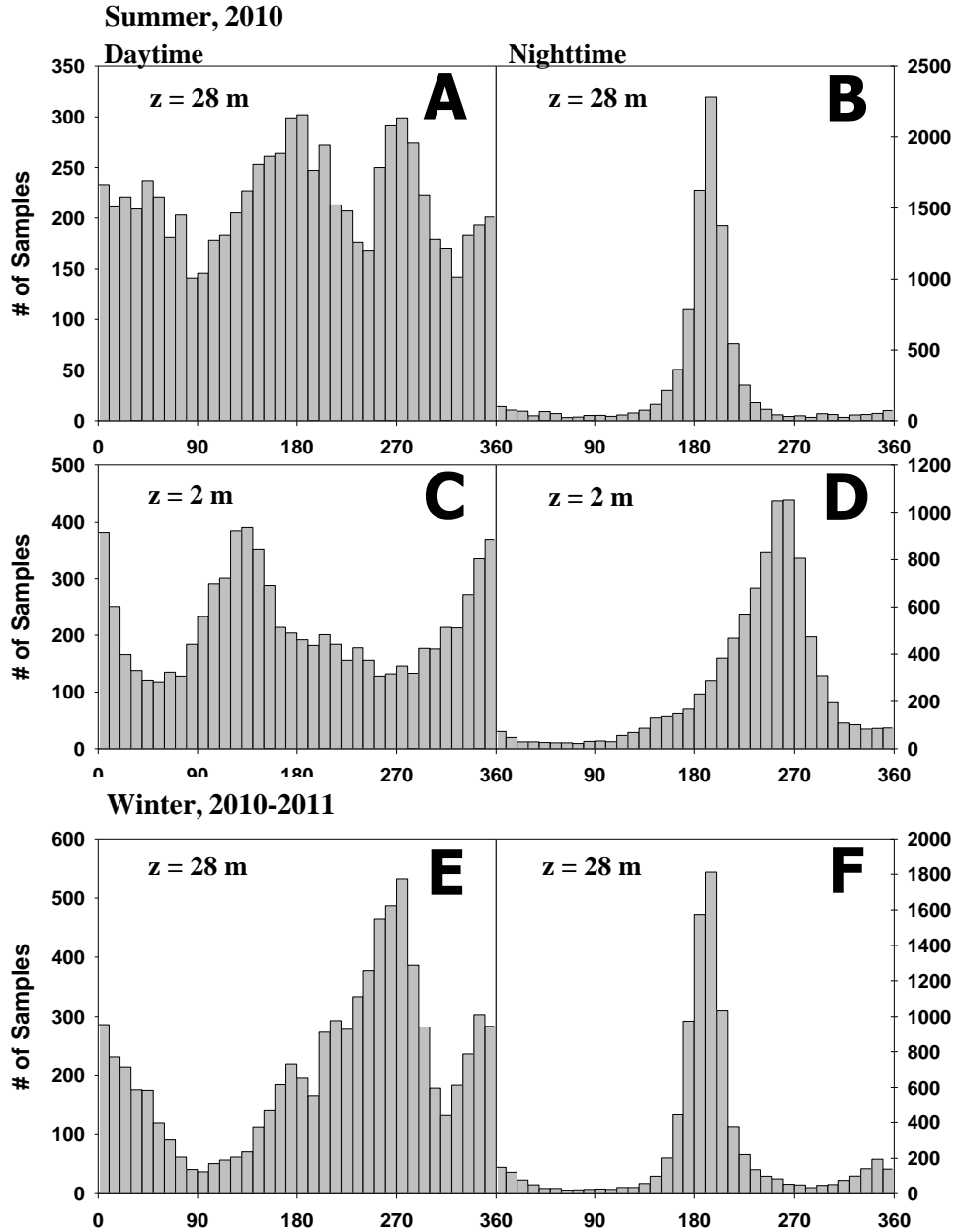
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1464 Figure 2: Average diel net radiation (downwelling minus upwelling), latent heat flux, sensible  
1465 heat flux and net CO<sub>2</sub> flux for four representative months. All properties were measured from 28  
1466 m at the top of the chemistry tower in 2011. Each data point represents a 30 minute average for  
1467 that time period. The y-axis limits are the same for each plot except for January, where the scale  
1468 is 1/2 of the other three months. The shaded area for net radiation and error bars for CO<sub>2</sub> flux  
1469 represent ± 1 standard deviation. Error bars for sensible and latent heat fluxes have been omitted  
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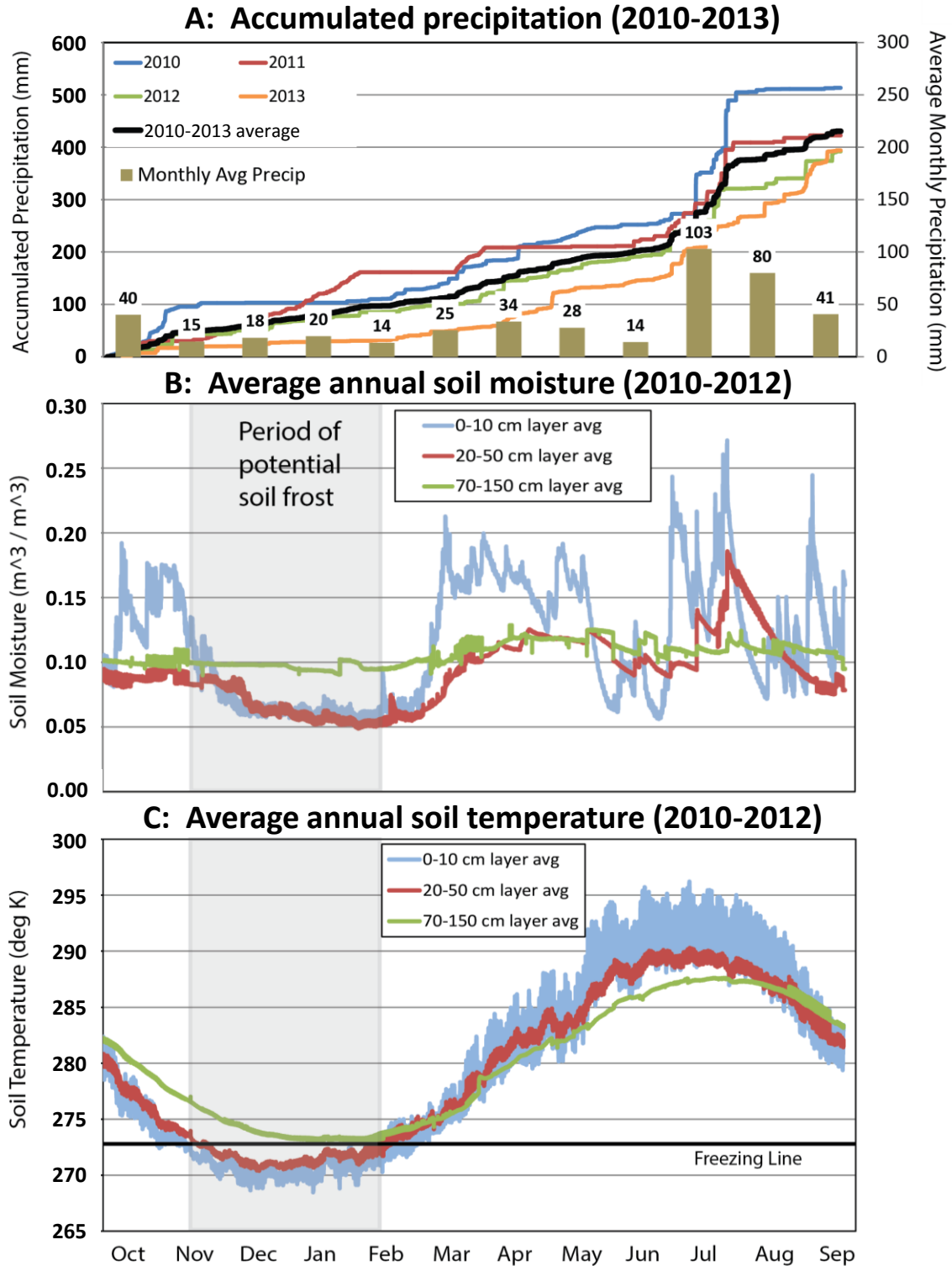
1475 Figure 3: Wind direction distributions (5-minute averages binned every 10 degrees) from the  
 1476 MEFO chemistry tower. Panels a, c and e are Daytime wind distributions (9:00-17:00 MST)  
 1477 whereas panels b, d and f are for Nighttime hours (20:00 until 5:00, MST). Summer includes  
 1478 data from June-August 2010. Winter includes data from December 2010 to February 2011.  
 1479 Measurement height is noted on the panels.



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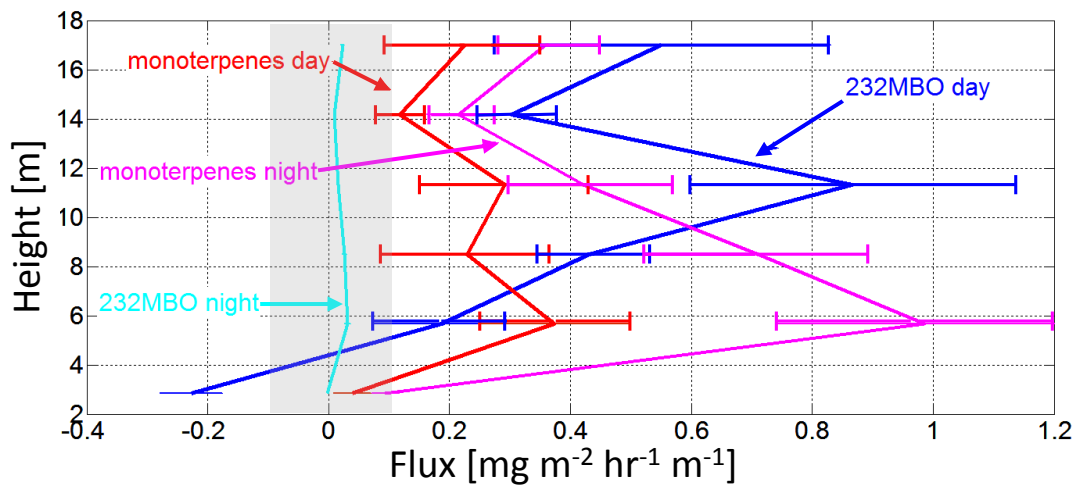
1483 Figure 4: Hydrological measurement summary at the Manitou Experimental Forest Observatory.  
 1484 Annual accumulated precipitation from rain and snow (A), soil moisture at 3 depths (B), and soil  
 1485 temperature at three different depths (C). Panel A includes data from hydrological years 2010-  
 1486 2013 whereas panels B and C include data from 2010-2012.



1487

1488 Figure 5: Average daytime and nighttime vertical fluxes of monoterpenes ( $C_{10}H_{16}$ ) and 2-  
1489 methyl-3-buten-2-ol (232MBO,  $C_5H_{10}O$ ) during August 2010. The average daytime integrated  
1490 flux ratio of MBO:Monoterpenes is 1.65. Fluxes within  $\pm 0.1 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$  are shown within  
1491 the shaded grey area to indicate the detection limit. Error bars indicate the standard deviation of  
1492 all measurements for that period and chemical species.

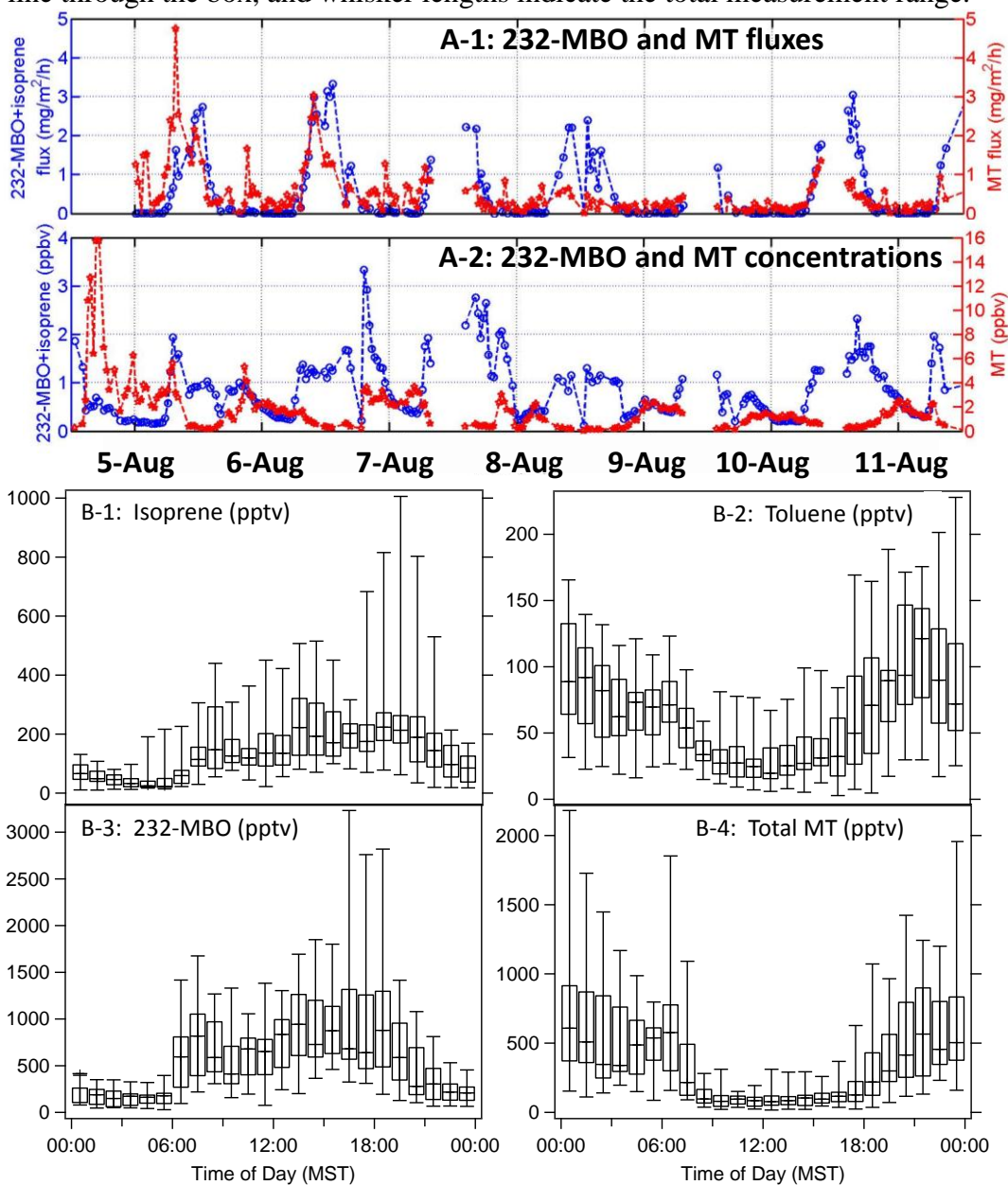
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1496 Figure 6: 6A (adapted from Kaser et al., 2013b) shows the sum of MT and MBO+isoprene  
 1497 measurements as reported by the PTR-TOF-MS from 25.1 m on the chemistry tower from  
 1498 August 4 (DOY = 216) to August 11, 2010 (DOY=223). A-1 shows the above-canopy fluxes,  
 1499 while A-2 shows the corresponding concentrations in ppbv. 6B shows diurnal profiles of (B-1)  
 1500 isoprene, (B-2) toluene, (B-3) MBO, and (B-4) sum of monoterpenes during all of August 2010  
 1501 as measured using TOGA. Box boundaries indicate inter-quartile range, median is indicated as  
 1502 the line through the box, and whisker lengths indicate the total measurement range.



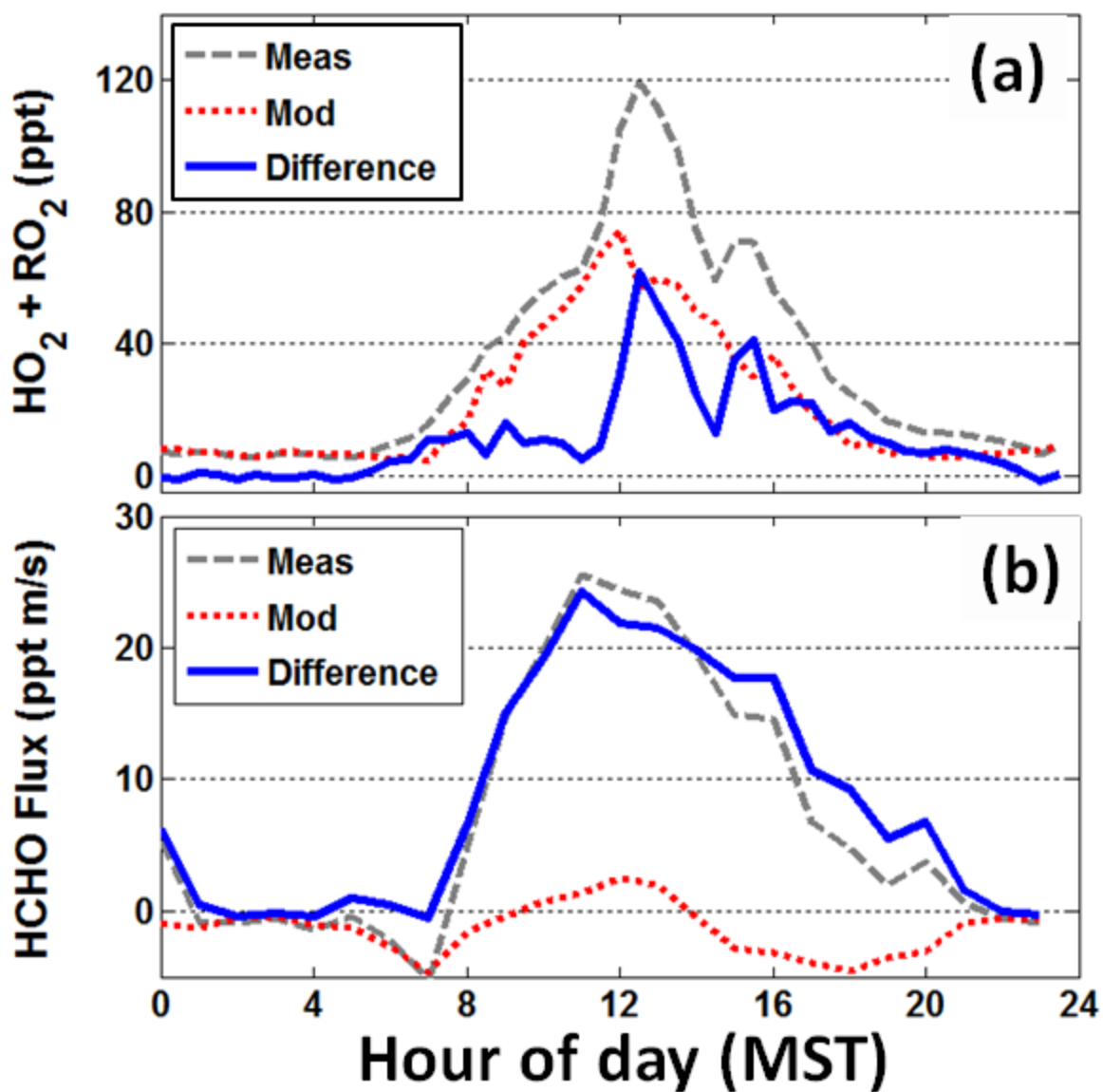
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1505 Figure 7: Average modeled and measured diurnal cycles of (a) within-canopy peroxy radical  
1506 mixing ratios, and (b) above-canopy formaldehyde fluxes. The measured and modeled results  
1507 for both compounds include the hourly averages from the August 2010 BEACHON ROCS  
1508 intensive measurement campaign. Model calculations of HCHO fluxes and peroxy radicals are  
1509 described in DiGangi et al. (2011) and Wolfe et al. (2013), respectively.

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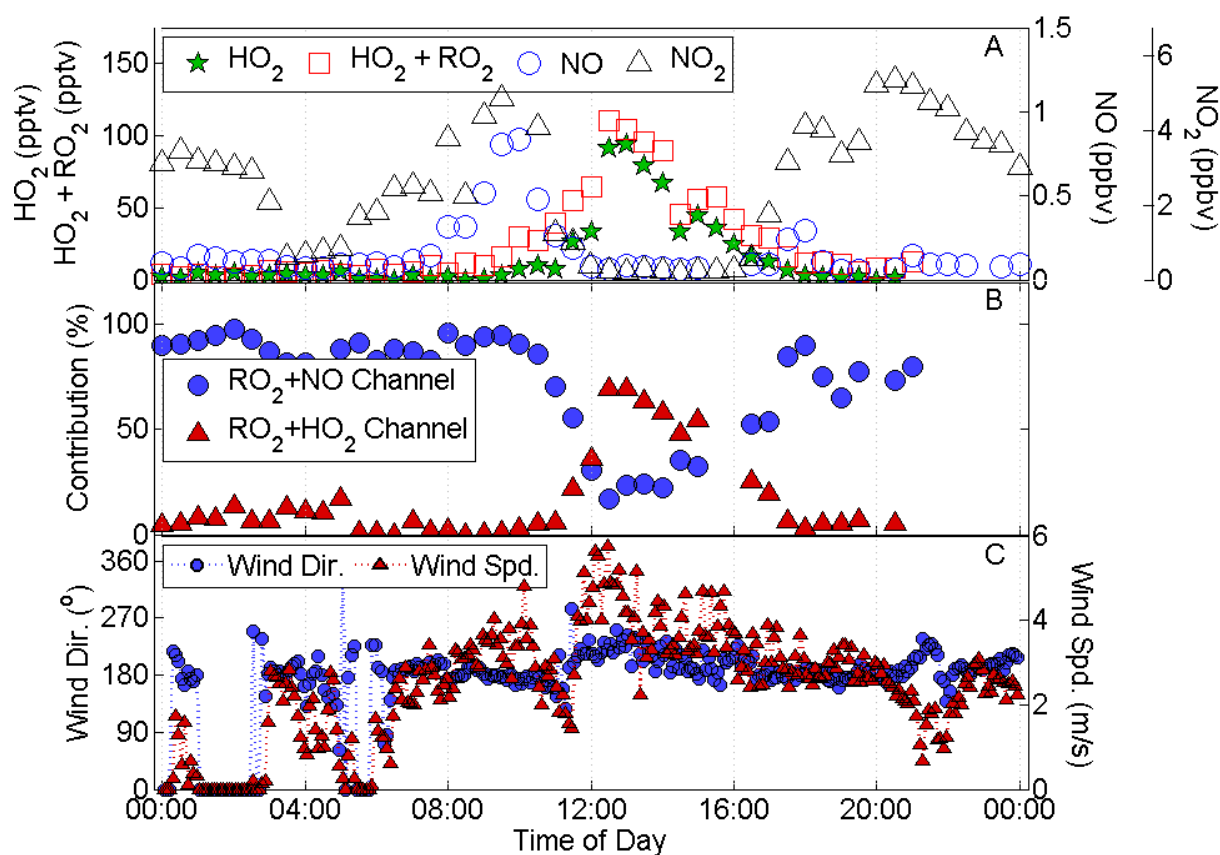


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1513 Figure 8: Examination of RO<sub>2</sub> fate and its relation to anthropogenic influence on 24 August  
 1514 2010 during BEACHON-ROCS. The first panel (A) shows median concentrations of NO, NO<sub>2</sub>,  
 1515 HO<sub>2</sub>, and HO<sub>2</sub> + RO<sub>2</sub> over the course of this day. Wind speed and direction (C) show the wind  
 1516 shifting from out of the south to out of the southeast just prior to noon indicating an  
 1517 anthropogenic-influence from the Colorado Springs area. This transition is also reflected in the  
 1518 NO increase in panel A. The middle panel (B) shows the calculated RO<sub>2</sub> loss percentage from  
 1519 reaction with NO or HO<sub>2</sub> based on measured NO and HO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and on rate constants  
 1520 obtained from the IUPAC database. Each symbol in B represents the median value from thirty  
 1521 minute time bins. Figure adapted from DiGangi et al. (2012).

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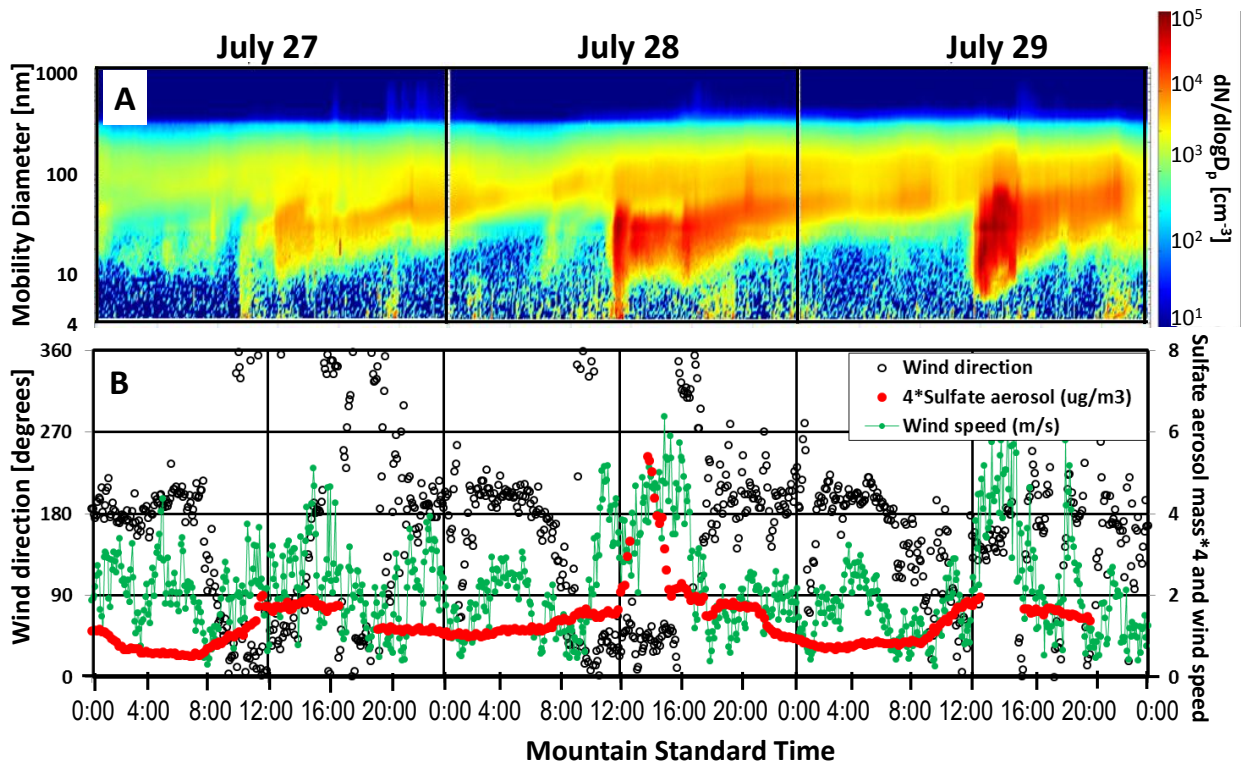


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1525 Figure 9: Three representative days of particle size distributions (a), wind speed, wind direction  
 1526 and sulfate aerosol mass (b) during July 27-29, 2011. In panel (a), the mobility diameter is on the  
 1527 y-axis, time is on the x-axis, and the color bar indicates particle number concentration  
 1528 ( $dN/d\log D_p$ ) in  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ . In panel (b), the sulfate aerosol mass is multiplied by 4 and is listed on the  
 1529 2<sup>nd</sup> y-axis along with wind speed.

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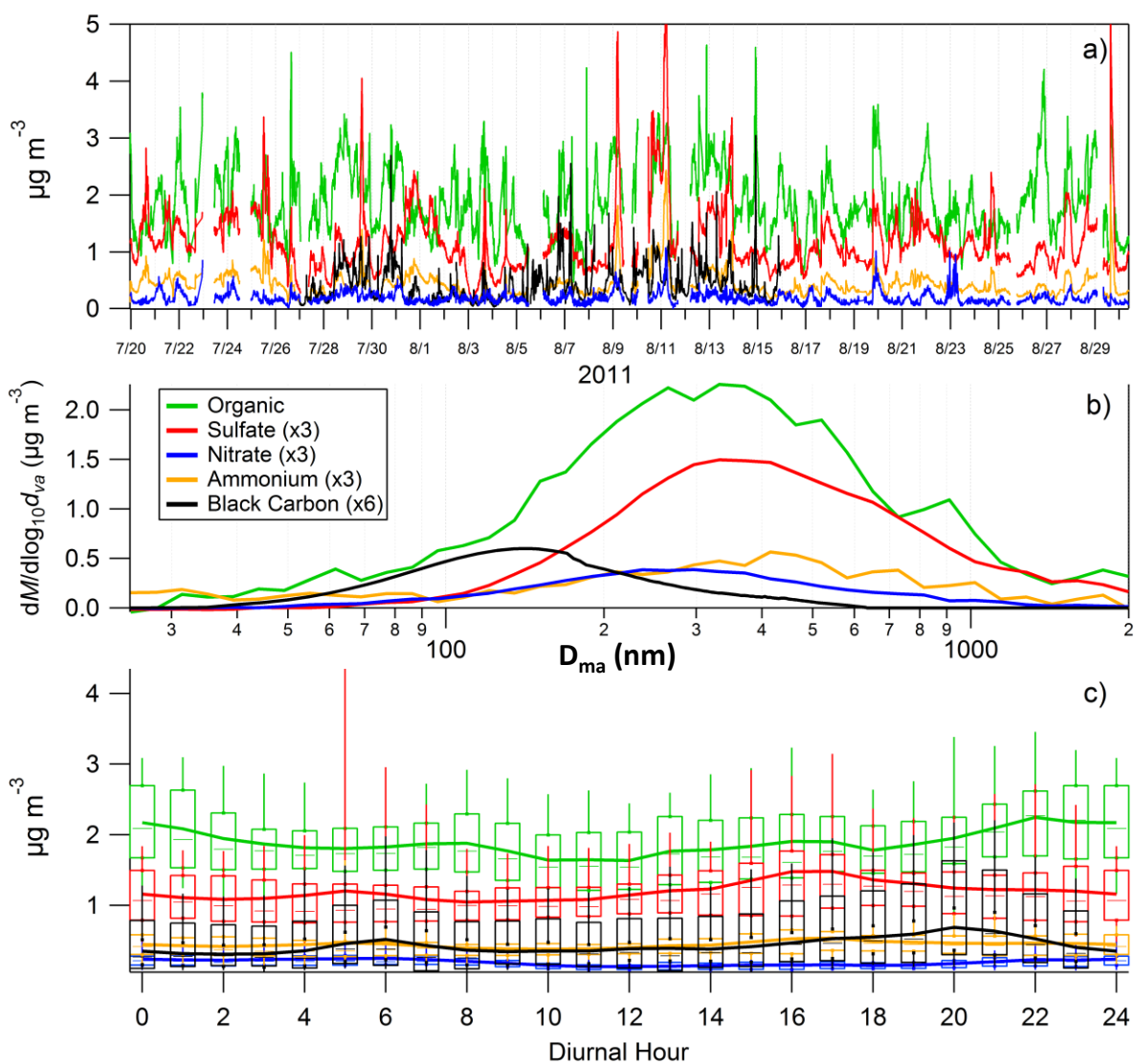
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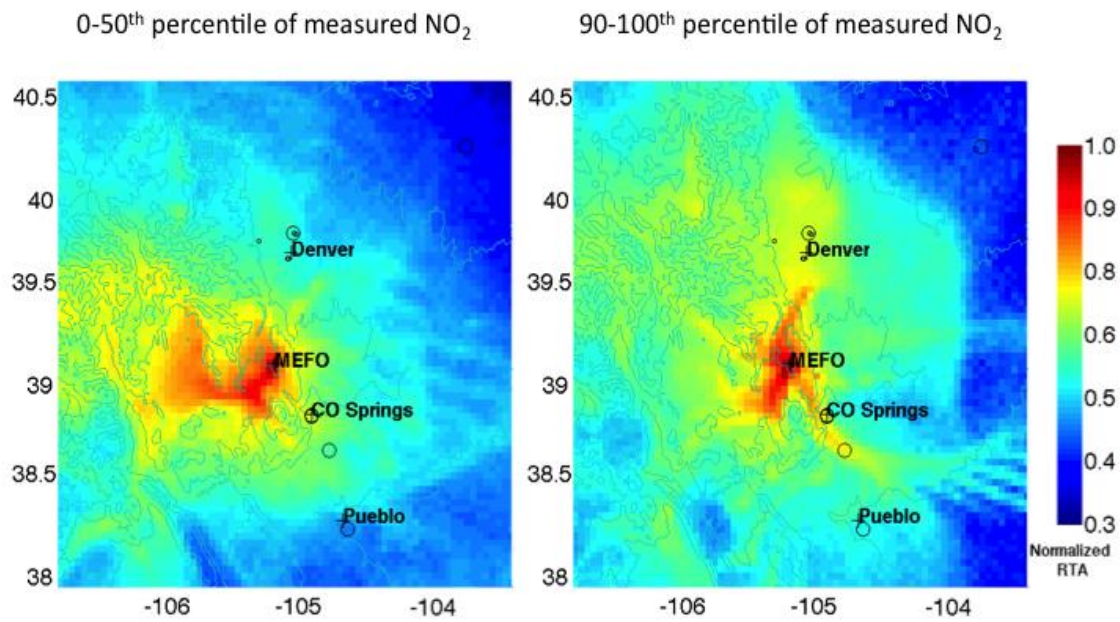
1537 Figure 10: Aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) and Single Particle Soot Photometer (SP2) results  
 1538 of bulk  $PM_{10}$  aerosol composition during July and August 2011. Black carbon (BC) is measured  
 1539 by the SP2 and all others (organics, nitrate, sulfate, and ammonium) are from the AMS. Panel a)  
 1540 shows the time series of mass loadings, panel b) shows the average size-resolved aerosol  
 1541 distributions, and panel c) shows the diurnal trends of each of the individual species averaged  
 1542 over the study period. The box plot boundaries in c) represent the standard deviations, and the  
 1543 whisker lengths indicate the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles of the measurements. The center line  
 1544 through each box indicates the median. Note that the majority of the aerosol is composed of  
 1545 organic species, and that in all panels, black carbon mass has been multiplied by 6 and the other  
 1546 (sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium) species' masses have been multiplied by 3. The diameters for  
 1547 the BC measurements are estimated using an assumed density of  $1.8 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  as indicated in the  
 1548 text (Section 3.3).



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1552 Figure 11: Residence Time Analysis (RTA) from WRF-Chem estimates the amount of time that  
1553 air masses originate from the various locations in the region. These simulations estimate 48 hour  
1554 back-trajectories at MEFO (July 27 to August 26, 2011). Three major Front Range cities  
1555 (Denver, Colorado Springs, and Pueblo), are shown, and open circles indicate the cities' primary  
1556 coal-fired power plants. The left panel indicates that the majority of the low NO<sub>2</sub> concentration  
1557 results (0-50<sup>th</sup> percentile) are from air masses that originate from the west. The right panel  
1558 shows that the highest 10% of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations originate from the Front Range cities and are  
1559 advected to the site.



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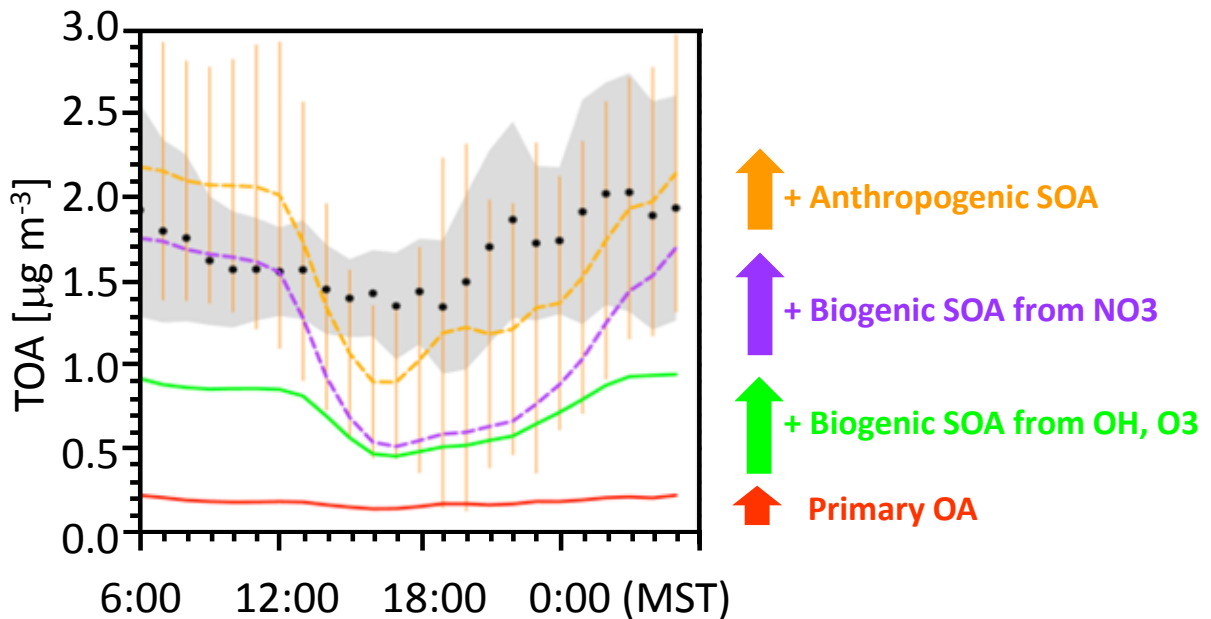
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1565 Figure 12: Modeled and measured average diurnal profiles of total organic aerosol (TOA) mass  
 1566 concentrations at MEFO during BEACHON-RoMBAS-2011. Aerosol mass spectrometry  
 1567 (AMS) observations are shown as black circles (with 1  $\sigma$  variability shown in gray). Predicted  
 1568 TOA is indicated in yellow (with variability shown by the yellow bars). The predicted TOA is  
 1569 the sum of the contributions: primary OA (red), biogenic secondary organic aerosol (SOA) from  
 1570 OH and O<sub>3</sub> chemistry (green), biogenic SOA from NO<sub>3</sub> nighttime chemistry (purple) and  
 1571 anthropogenic SOA (yellow). Each plot (starting with green) is additive (equal to that process  
 1572 plus the sum of the processes below it): e.g. the purple plot shows the contributions from  
 1573 primary OA, biogenic SOA from OH and O<sub>3</sub> and biogenic SOA + NO<sub>3</sub>. Biogenic SOA (both  
 1574 day and night) are the largest contributors to TOA, but anthropogenic species (gold) also make a  
 1575 significant contribution.

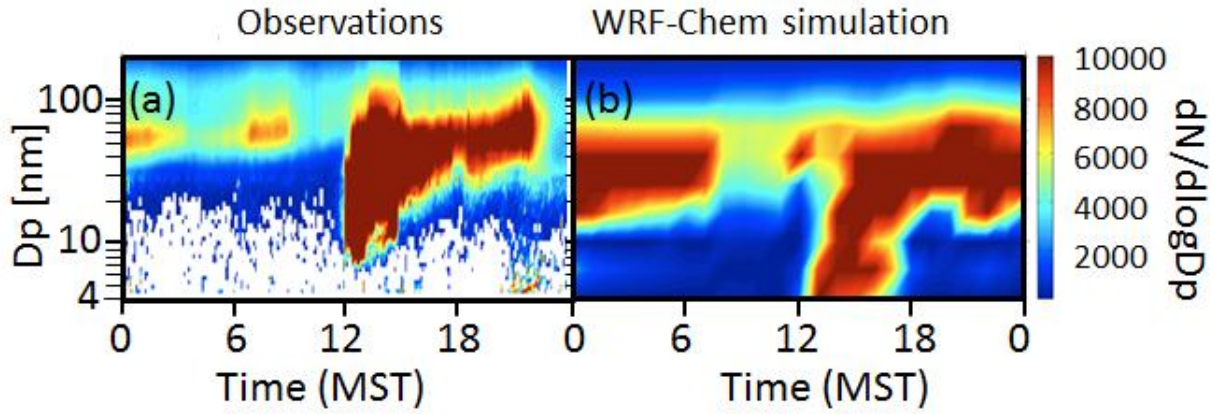
Modeled and measured total organic aerosol (TOA):  
 July 16-August 25, 2011



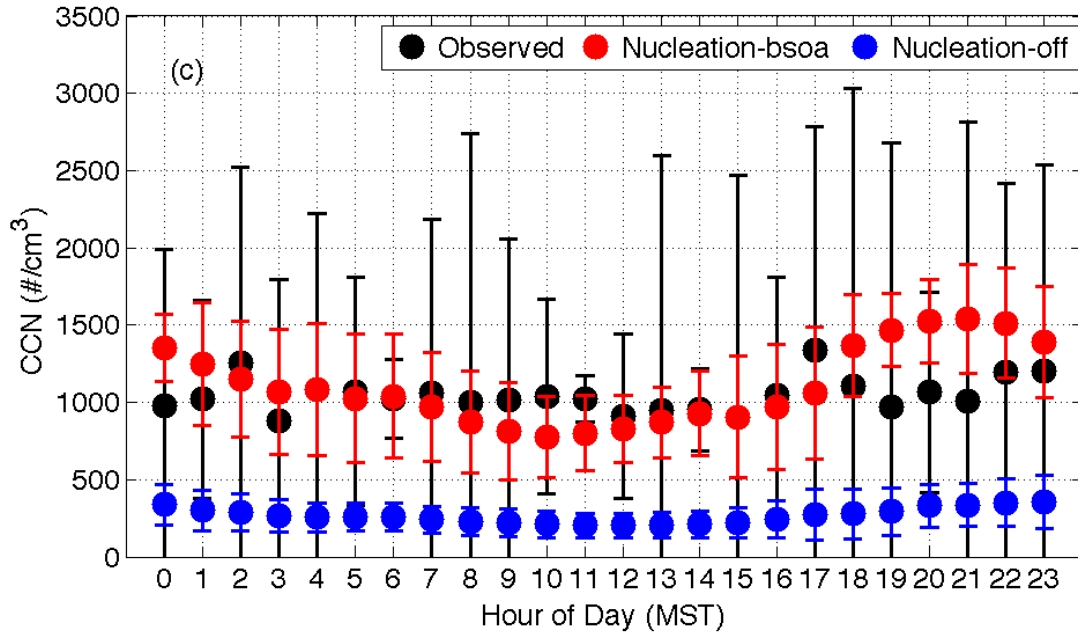
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1582 Figure 13: July 29, 2011 particle size distributions observed (a) and modeled with WRF-Chem  
 1583 (b). White areas in panel (a) indicate that no counts were observed for that diameter particle at  
 1584 that time. Panel (c) shows the observed (black) and predicted (red) CCN concentrations  
 1585 averaged over the Aug. 10-15, 2011 time period. The blue circles are the simulations when  
 1586 nucleation is not included, which demonstrates the importance of particle nucleation for CCN  
 1587 formation.



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