

Atmospheric turbulence observed during a fuel-bed-scale low intensity surface fire

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1 **Abstract.** The ambient atmospheric environment affects the growth and spread of wildland fires,
2 whereas heat and moisture release from the fires and the reduction of the surface drag in the
3 burned areas can significantly alter local atmospheric conditions. Observational studies on fire-
4 atmosphere interactions have used instrumented towers to collect data during prescribed fires,
5 but a few towers in an operational scale burn plot (usually $> 10^3 \text{ m}^2$) have made it extremely
6 challenging to capture the myriad of factors controlling fire-atmosphere interactions, many of
7 which exhibit strong spatial variability. Here, we present analyses of atmospheric turbulence data
8 collected using a 4×4 array of fast-response sonic anemometers during a fire experiment on a 10
9 $\text{m} \times 10 \text{ m}$ burn plot. In addition to confirming some of the previous findings on atmospheric
10 turbulence associated with low-intensity surface fires, our results revealed substantial
11 heterogeneity in turbulent intensity and heat and momentum fluxes just above the combustion
12 zone. Despite the small plot (100 m^2), fire-induced atmospheric turbulence exhibited strong
13 dependence on the downwind distance from the initial line fire and the relative position specific
14 to the fire front as the surface fire spread through the burn plot. This result highlights the
15 necessity for coupled atmosphere-fire behavior models to have 1-2 m grid spacing to resolve
16 heterogeneities in fire-atmosphere interactions that operate on spatiotemporal scales relevant to
17 atmospheric turbulence. The findings here have important implications for modeling smoke
18 dispersion, as atmospheric dispersion characteristics in the vicinity of a wildland fire are directly
19 affected by fire-induced turbulence.

20

21

22 **1 Introduction**

23 Wildland fires are fundamentally linked to atmospheric conditions, with macroscale
24 (thousands of kilometers, weeks to months) factors, such as prolonged periods without
25 substantial precipitation, high temperature, and low humidity, contribute to the drying and pre-
26 heating of fuels, setting the stage for large wildland fire episodes (Potter, 1996; 2012; Finney *et*
27 *al.*, 2015; Littell *et al.*, 2016; Kitzberger *et al.*, 2017). Once ignited, microscale (< 1000 m, < 1 h)
28 conditions, such as local topography and wind speed and direction, take precedence in shaping
29 fire behavior characteristics like burn intensity, ember production, spotting, fire whirls and the
30 rate of spread. Most wildland fires tend to spread in the direction the wind blows, with stronger
31 wind speeds corresponding to faster fire spread (Carrier *et al.*, 1991; Clark *et al.*, 1996).

32 An essential microscale factor influencing fire behavior is atmospheric turbulence,
33 characterized by irregular microscale air motions in the form of eddies superimposed on mean
34 atmospheric motions (Stull, 1988). Turbulent eddies affect fire behavior as well as the transfer
35 of gaseous and particulate emissions from the fires to the surrounding atmosphere (Clements *et*
36 *al.*, 2008; Seto *et al.*, 2014; Viegas and Neto, 1991; Heilman *et al.*, 2015; Heilman, 2021).
37 Turbulence in the atmosphere is generated primarily by wind shear as a result of changes in wind
38 speed and/or direction, known as mechanical turbulence, and by convection, referred to as
39 thermal turbulence. Mechanical turbulence is often generated when air flow encounters surface
40 drag, rough terrain or other natural or man-made obstacles and boundaries separating different
41 air masses (e.g., weather fronts), different land cover types (e.g., grass vs. forested land) or land
42 use types (e.g., agriculture vs. urban). Thermal turbulence is produced when heated surface air
43 rises in the atmosphere, a process known as convection, commonly occurring during daytime
44 when incoming solar radiation exceeds outgoing terrestrial radiation. Fire-induced turbulence, a

45 type of thermal turbulence, results from heat released by combustion, producing buoyant plumes
46 that rise from the combustion zone.

47 Atmospheric turbulence is a pivotal factor influencing fire behavior and the complex
48 exchange of momentum and scalars (e.g., heat, moisture, carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, and
49 particulate matter) between the combustion zone and the surrounding atmosphere. Existing
50 literature on fire-induced turbulence predominantly draws from data gathered in either
51 management-scale burns, encompassing plots ranging from several to hundreds of hectares, or
52 fine-scale laboratory experiments conducted in burn chambers or wind tunnels under controlled
53 conditions. Notably, a discernible gap exists in observations that seamlessly bridge these two
54 scales (Skowronski, *et al.*, 2021). This study aims to fill this knowledge void by presenting a
55 comprehensive analysis of turbulent data collected from a densely instrumented small-scale (10
56 m x 10 m) burn plot situated in a pitch and loblolly pine plantation. Through this investigation,
57 we seek to augment our understanding of how surface fires modify turbulence and contribute to
58 the dynamic exchange of momentum and scalars between the fire and the surrounding
59 atmosphere.

60 Comprehensive observations of atmosphere turbulence in the presence of wildland fires
61 have only become available in recent decades. For instance, the FireFlux experiment conducted
62 on February 23, 2006 over a 40-hectare plot of native tall-grass prairie in Galveston, Texas
63 represented a significant large-scale field experiment where comprehensive turbulence data were
64 collected above and in the vicinity of a wildland fire front (Clements *et al.*, 2007; 2008). The
65 experiment utilized fast-response three-dimensional (3D) sonic anemometers mounted at
66 multiple levels on a tall (43 m) and a short (10 m) tower within the burn plot. This
67 groundbreaking experiment revealed a fivefold increase in turbulence kinetic energy and a

68 threefold increase in surface stress during the fire-front passage, with a rapid return of turbulence
69 to the ambient level behind the fire front. A subsequent field experiment, FireFlux-II, took place
70 at the same site in 2013, aiming to fill gaps in the original FireFlux experiment and provide
71 additional insight on fire–atmosphere interactions and fire-induced turbulence regimes (Clements
72 *et al.*, 2019).

73 While these experiments in Texas provided direct turbulence measurements during
74 intense grass fires, other wildland fire experiments in the New Jersey Pine Barrens provided
75 information on fire-induced turbulence during low-intensity forest understory fires (Heilman *et*
76 *al.*, 2015, 2017, 2019, 2021; Mueller *et al.*, 2017, 2019; Clark *et al.*, 2020). Conducted between
77 2010 and 2021, these forest fire experiments covered burn plots ranging from approximately 5 to
78 100 hectares, with turbulence data collected using 3D sonic anemometers and thermocouples
79 mounted on 3-, 10-, 20- and 30-m micrometeorological flux towers. The data revealed
80 substantial variations in turbulence intensity, stress, and fluxes across the canopy layer,
81 complicating the understanding of local turbulence regimes and their interaction with the
82 spreading fires. Notably, fire-induced increases in turbulent kinetic energy are considerably
83 larger near the top of the forest canopy layer than within it, suggesting a substantial vertical
84 mixing or transport of fire emissions near the canopy top (Heilman *et al.*, 2015). The
85 observations also highlighted the persistence of an anisotropic turbulence regime throughout the
86 vertical extent of overstory canopy layers, even within highly buoyant plumes during the passage
87 of fire fronts. The results suggested that spreading line fires could significantly affect the
88 skewness of daytime velocity distributions typically found inside forest vegetation layers, and
89 the contributions to turbulence production and evolution from mechanical shear production and
90 diffusion could differ markedly in the pre-fire and post-fire environments (Heilman *et al.*, 2017).

91 The data from both the TX grass fires and NJ forest understory fires have also provided
92 insight into the turbulent momentum and heat transfer processes during fires. Enhanced
93 turbulence updrafts and downdrafts during fires facilitate the transfer of warmer air (or lower
94 momentum air) upward and colder air (or higher momentum air) downward, known as “ejection”
95 and “sweep”, respectively (Heilman *et al.*, 2021). Analyses suggested that wildland fires in grass
96 or forest environments could substantially alter the relative importance of sweep and ejection
97 processes in redistributing momentum, heat and other scalars in the lower atmosphere (Heilman
98 *et al.*, 2021). Sweep events dominate momentum transfer at the fire front, regardless of fire type,
99 despite the stronger updrafts than downdrafts at the front. However, the effect of fires on
100 turbulent heat transfer differ between heading intense grass fires and backing low-intensity
101 forest-understory fires. The former tended to be dominated by ejection events, while in the latter
102 case ejection and sweep events are equally important (Heilman *et al.*, 2021).

103 The TX and NJ wildland fire experiments were conducted over burn plots on relatively flat
104 terrain. However, wildland fire behaviors can be significantly influenced by topography (Werth
105 *et al.*, 2011; Sharples, 2009; Sharples *et al.*, 2012), as topography exerts a strong impact on both
106 weather and fuel conditions (Bennie *et al.*, 2008; Ebel, 2013; Billmire *et al.*, 2014; Calviño-
107 Cancela *et al.*, 2017; Povak *et al.*, 2018). In California, a series of prescribed burn experiments
108 between 2008 and 2012 were conducted in complex terrain with burn plots on a simple slope
109 (Seto and Clements *et al.*, 2011; Seto *et al.*, 2013; Clements and Seto, 2015; Amaya and
110 Clements, 2020) or in a narrow valley (Seto and Clements, 2011), ranging from 2 to 15 hectares
111 in size. Although all burn plots were dominated by grass fuels, data from these experiments
112 provided unique information on the interactions between terrain-induced circulations and fire-
113 induced flows. Results indicated that terrain-induced slope flows and valley winds can interact

114 with fire-induced flows, enhancing horizontal and vertical wind shears that subsequently
115 contribute to turbulence production. Interactions of fire-induced flows with slope winds also
116 produce local convergence or divergence with strong updrafts and downdrafts. Turbulence
117 regimes tend to be anisotropic immediately above fire fronts, transitioning towards isotropic
118 conditions higher up (Seto *et al.*, 2013, Clements and Seto, 2015; Amaya and Clements, 2020).
119 Data from these studies also revealed an increase in turbulent energy in both velocity and
120 temperature spectra at higher frequencies, attributed to small eddies shed by fire fronts, and an
121 increase at lower frequencies related to the strengths of the cross-stream wind component
122 generated by the fire and enhanced by topography (Seto *et al.*, 2013).

123 The aforementioned field experiments were conducted on operational-scale (or
124 management-scale) burn plots, ranging from several to 100 hectares, making it unfeasible to
125 cover such large burn plots with just a few micrometeorological towers. Consequently, the
126 measurement strategy of these experiments was centered around tall towers placed at couple of
127 key spots in the burn plot to provide information on vertical variations of fire-atmosphere
128 interactions. However, the lack of spatial coverage of the complex fuel and atmospheric
129 conditions at these large burn sites makes interpretation of limited observations challenging.
130 Laboratory studies (e.g., Forthofer and Goodrick, 2011; Campbell-Lochrine *et al.*, 2021; Di
131 Cristina *et al.*, 2022) have the advantage of monitoring fires using densely spaced instruments.
132 Nevertheless, laboratory studies are often conducted under controlled conditions that may not be
133 representative of the real fuel and atmospheric environments encountered in outdoor wildland
134 fires. There exists an apparent gap in the observations of fire-atmosphere interactions between
135 operational-scale burns and fine-scale laboratory experiments.

136 In this context, we present analyses of turbulent data collected during a small-scale (10 m
137 ×10 m) experimental burn, which was densely instrumented for the purpose of bridging the gap
138 in our knowledge about fire-atmosphere interactions between operational-scale ($\geq 10^3 \text{ m}^2$) and
139 laboratory-scale ($< 10^1 \text{ m}^2$) fire experiments. The primary question we aim to address is how a
140 low-intensity surface fire may modify turbulence in the atmosphere just above the combustion
141 zone. Specifically, our analyses will explore questions such as: How does the surface fire alter
142 turbulence intensity and turbulent heat and momentum exchanges between the combustion zone
143 and the atmosphere above? Whether and how would the fire change the partitioning of the heat
144 and momentum fluxes into different types of events (both event number and event contribution)?
145 How do the modifications of the fire on turbulence vary spatially across the burn plot? Answers
146 to these questions could prove useful for predicting fire-atmosphere interactions, particularly the
147 momentum and scalar exchanges between the fire and the atmosphere. Moreover, insights into
148 spatial variability could guide the determination of horizontal grid spacing in coupled
149 atmosphere-fire behavior models necessary to capture horizontal variability in near-surface
150 atmospheric turbulence during the presence of surface fires.

151

152 **2 Method**

153

154 **2.1 Experiment and Instrumentation**

155 The experimental burn that this study focuses on occurred May 20, 2019 in a pitch and
156 loblolly pine plantation at the Silas Little Experimental Forest in New Lisbon, New Jersey. This
157 particular burn was part of broader series of 35, densely instrumented, low-intensity surface fire
158 experiments on 100 m^2 (10 m x 10 m) plots in this plantation conducted between March 2018
159 and June 2019 by a research project funded by the Department of Defense's Strategic

160 Environmental Research and Development Program (SERDP). The overall goal of this research
161 project was to collect data using laboratory-scale (10^0 - 10^1 m²) experiments, intermediate or fuel-
162 bed-scale (10^2 m²) burns, and management-scale (10^{3-4} m²) prescribed fires to improve the
163 understanding of combustion processes and fire-atmosphere interactions across scales (Gallagher
164 *et al.*, 2022; Skowronski, *et al.*, 2021).

165 As shown in Figure 1, the 100 m² burn plot was densely monitored by instruments
166 mounted on four parallel east-west-oriented trusses (A, B, C, D). On each truss, four 3D fast-
167 response sonic anemometers (R.M. Young 81000V, Traverse City, MI, USA) were mounted at
168 2.5 m above the ground level (AGL) to collect the east-west (u), north-south (v) and vertical (w)
169 velocity components and temperature at a sampling rate of 10 Hz (Clark *et al.*, 2022a).
170 Additional 10-Hz temperature data were also obtained using fine-wire thermocouples (Omega
171 SSRTC-GG-K-36, Omega Engineering, Inc., Stamford, CT, USA) mounted at a range of heights
172 (0, 5, 10, 20, 30, 50, 100 cm) below the two inner trusses (B and C) (Clark *et al.*, 2022b). A
173 radiometer/visible spectrum camera pair was mounted adjacent to each sonic anemometer to
174 measure radiative heat fluxes and flame arrival times and persistence (Kremens *et al.*, 2022).
175 Spatially explicit fire spread data were derived from infrared data collected by an infrared video-
176 camera (A655SC, FOL6 100.0-650.0 C lens, FLIR Systems Inc., Wilsonville, OR, USA)
177 mounted on top of a 10-m tower in the center of the plot (Skowronski *et al.*, 2022a). A custom
178 field calorimetry hood (labeled TACO next to B2) with an inlet oriented over a portion of the
179 fuel bed was used to sample O₂, CO₂, and CO concentrations in buoyant plumes (Campbell-
180 Lochrie *et al.*, 2021; 2022). Gas concentrations were measured at 1 Hz using an Infrared gas
181 analyzer (Crestline NDIR 7911, Crestline, Livermore, CA, USA).

182 The analyses here focused only on the data from the 4×4 sonic anemometer array. All
183 sonic anemometer data underwent a quality assurance and control process to remove spurious
184 values (Clark *et al.*, 2022a). Initially, data that were collected prior to a designated common start
185 time was removed, providing a starting point for the observations for the burn period. Next, the
186 data from sonic anemometers include a self-reporting diagnostic column where any non-zero
187 number is considered an invalid measurement, so any measurement that reported a non-zero
188 diagnostic code was removed. Following these initial steps, data that fell outside the sonic
189 anemometer operating parameters (wind speed: ± 40 m/s; temperature: ± 50 °C) were also
190 removed.

191 The horizontal wind velocities were rotated into a streamwise coordinate system where
192 the *u*-component (streamwise component) is aligned with the prevailing wind direction, and the
193 *v*-component (cross-stream component) is perpendicular to the prevailing wind direction pointing
194 to the left. Vertical winds were not corrected for tilt because of the short (<30 min) observational
195 period and because the burn plot was on level ground and each sonic anemometer was carefully
196 mounted and leveled so that the wind sensors were very close to true horizontal and vertical
197 planes. The results (presented below) indeed suggested that the contamination of vertical
198 velocity by horizontal velocities were negligibly small as the average vertical wind component
199 during the pre-burn period was nearly zero.

200

201 **2.2 Fuel and ambient atmospheric conditions**

202 The primary fuel for this burn was pitch pine needles (*Pinus rigida* Mill.). Based on
203 biometric and terrestrial laser scan measurements collected pre- and post-burn, the fuel mass was

204 estimated to be about 0.5 kg m^{-2} and fuel moisture content about 5.5% (Skowronski *et al.*,
205 2022b).

206 The ambient atmospheric conditions on the day of the burn is indicated using the data
207 from a surface weather station located approximately 200 m northeast of the burn plot that has
208 similar type of land cover as the burn plot (Figure 2). Ambient winds were very weak in the
209 morning, varying in direction between south and west. Wind speeds increased in midday to about
210 5 m s^{-1} along with a direction shift to southwest and west. This wind speed increase was likely
211 due to the mixing of higher winds from above to the surface as the mixing layer grew higher
212 during the day. The growth of the mixing layer was a result of increased turbulent mixing
213 associated with surface heating, as indicated by an increase in surface temperatures from about
214 $20 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the morning to slightly above $30 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ around 1400 Local Standard Time (LST) and a
215 corresponding decrease in relative humidity from over 80% in the morning to less than 40% in
216 the early afternoon.

217

218 **2.3 Fire spread**

219 The experiment started around 14:25 LST when a single 10-meter cotton cord was
220 soaked in accelerant, ignited and then dropped on the fuel bed to produce a single, near linear
221 ignition across the western border of the plot. Infrared imagery data (Figure 3) captured by the
222 overhead infrared camera is used to evaluate the changes in temperature from just before ignition
223 (Figure 3a), immediately after ignition (Figure 3b), and through the period following the ignition
224 as the line fire spread with winds across the plot (Figure 3c-f). The average fire spread rate
225 throughout the burn was estimated from these data to be approximately 5.4 cm s^{-1} . The ignition
226 produced a line fire parallel to the western boundary of the plot (Figure 3b). The line fire spread

227 in the direction of the west-southwesterly background wind towards the east-northeast over the
228 next few minutes (Figure 3c, d). The initial spread was faster on the northern portion of the
229 domain, as expected from the south-southwesterly wind direction. As the fire burned through the
230 northern portion of the plot, the fire front caught up in the southern portion (Figure 3e). The fire
231 ended at around 14:32:16 LST as the fire front reached the eastern boundary of the plot and ran
232 out of fuel to continue (Figure 3f).

233

234 **2.4 Data Analysis**

235 The quality-controlled 10-Hz wind and temperature data from the 3D sonic anemometers are
236 used to calculate turbulent perturbations defined as the differences between the instantaneous
237 observations and the mean values:

$$238 \quad \varphi' = \varphi - \bar{\varphi} \quad (1)$$

239 where $\bar{\varphi}$ is the mean value that is estimated by block-averages

$$240 \quad \bar{\varphi} = \sum_{n=1}^N \varphi_n \quad (2)$$

242

243 Here, N is the number of samples over the averaging period or the time block and the mean
244 values represent the mean state of the atmospheric flow. In traditional turbulence studies, mean
245 state is usually determined by averaging the data over a period of a few minutes up to 1 hour,
246 depending on atmospheric stability and the scale of interest. However, the block-averaged values
247 during the period of active burning are likely to be contaminated by the fire and therefore poorly
248 represent the mean background flow. To resolve this issue, Seto *et al.* (2013) and Heilman *et al.*
249 (2015) proposed that the block-averaged means for the fire period be replaced by block-averaged
250 means calculated during the pre-burn period. In order to adopt this approach, the observational

251 period is divided into three periods representing pre-burn, burn and post-burn, which are
252 described in detail below.

253 The arrival of the fire front at most locations in the sonic anemometer array was clearly
254 marked by a sharp rise in temperature (Figure 4). However, the magnitudes of the temperature
255 increase and the rates of increase vary with the location of the sonic anemometers because the
256 shape of the flame front was irregular (Figure 3). Note that the sonic temperatures are limited to
257 50 °C, which is the operational range for the instruments beyond which data are deemed
258 unreliable. Based on the temperature time series and the time when the fire was ignited along the
259 western boundary (14:25 LST), the 10-min period from 14:15:13 through 14:25:12 LST is
260 defined as the pre-burn period over which the mean values for u , v , S (horizontal wind speed), w ,
261 and T are calculated, and these values are used for computing perturbations for the entire
262 experiment. The definition of the burn period, however, is complicated by the fact that the fire
263 front reaches/leaves each sonic anemometer at a different time and consequently the true burn
264 period across the plot varies somewhat depending on the location of each sonic anemometer.

265 To create a robust definition of the burn period that can be applied to all the sonic
266 anemometers in the 4×4 array, and eventually to other burns in the broader burn series, the
267 sharp rise in sonic temperatures associated with fire front is measured using integer (n) multiples
268 of the standard deviation (denoted using σ) of the average temperature over the pre-burn period.
269 A threshold value that is too small (e.g., 1 or 2 times standard deviation) may not distinguish the
270 increase in temperature associated with the fire front from normal temperature fluctuations
271 during the day, but a value that is too large (e.g., 10 time standard deviation) may fail to detect
272 the fire front associated with a small or moderate temperature increase. Figure 5 shows the
273 number of sonic anemometers whose temperatures exceed $n \times \sigma$ as n increases from 1 to 35, and

274 the length of the exceedance period. As n increases from 1 to 8 or the threshold value for fire-
275 induced temperature increase changes from 1σ to 8σ , the number of sonic anemometers drops
276 from 16 to 13 and the period drops sharply from just under 60 min to about 6 min. Continued
277 increases in the threshold values from 8σ to 25σ result in no change in the number of
278 anemometers and very little change in the length of the period (less than 1 min). This analysis
279 suggests that 8σ could be used as the threshold for temperature increases associated with fire
280 front. Thresholds lower than 8σ would imply a burn period of 30- to 60-min long that, according
281 to the time series in Figure 4, would include periods of no fire and therefore de-emphasize the
282 effects of the fire in the resulting analyses. Applying this criterion to all the sonic anemometers
283 and defining the burn period as between the first and last sonic temperature at or above the
284 threshold leads to the selection of the burn period as 14:26:13 to 14:32:29 LST. Finally, the 10
285 min following the burn period (14:32:30 to 14:42:29 LST) is defined as the post-burn period.

286 Following the establishment of the three periods, wind and temperature perturbations are
287 calculated using equations (1) and (2), where the pre-burn averaged values are used as means for
288 the burn and post-burn periods. Strictly speaking, the perturbations calculated for the burn and
289 post-burn periods are not classical turbulent perturbations; to differentiate the features from
290 classical turbulence, they should be interpreted as being primarily fire-induced turbulent
291 perturbations.

292 As noted above, horizontal wind velocity is rotated into a streamwise coordinate where
293 the x -component (streamwise component, u) is aligned with the prevailing wind direction and the
294 y -component (cross-stream component, v) is perpendicular and pointing to the left of the
295 prevailing wind. The prevailing wind direction for the rotation is determined by the 10-min pre-
296 burn period average of wind directions across all 16 sonic anemometers. The average wind

297 directions during the pre-burn period vary slightly across the 16 sonic anemometers, with mean
298 and median wind directions of 225 and 226 degrees, respectively. The subtle variations in wind
299 directions is possibly due to slight error in sensor alignment, rather than actual flow
300 heterogeneity. The 226 degrees is used as the prevailing wind direction for the purpose of
301 coordinate rotation.

302 The quality controlled, coordinate rotated data from the sonic anemometers are analyzed
303 to determine fire-induced changes to turbulence intensity, vertical heat fluxes and vertical fluxes
304 of horizontal momentum also known as shear stress just above the combustion zone by
305 comparing values between the pre-burn and the burn periods. The values are also compared
306 between the pre-burn and post-burn periods to determine how quickly the effects of fire dissipate
307 or how fast the atmosphere returns to the ambient state.

308 Turbulence intensity is measured by the turbulent kinetic energy (*TKE*) defined as the
309 sum of the variance of the three velocity components:

310
311
$$TKE = (\overline{u'^2} + \overline{v'^2} + \overline{w'^2}) / 2 \quad (3)$$

312
313 Turbulent shear stress is commonly measured by shear velocity or friction velocity denoted by
314 u_* and the square of friction velocity is related to the magnitude of the kinematic vertical flux of
315 horizontal momentum:

316
$$u_*^2 = \left(\overline{u'w'}^2 + \overline{v'w'}^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (4)$$

317 where $u'w'$ and $v'w'$ are the vertical fluxes of streamwise and cross-stream momentum flux,
318 respectively and the overbar denotes time average. The average period is 1 min for this analysis
319 to be consistent with previous studies on fire-induced turbulence (Seto *et al.*, 2013; Heilman *et*

320 *al.* 2021). Vertical kinematic heat flux is calculated as $\overline{T'w'}$ and the averaging period is also 1
321 min.

322 For the analyses of vertical turbulent fluxes of heat and horizontal momentum, a quadrant
323 analysis technique (Katul *et al.*, 1997, 2006; Heilman *et al.*, 2021) is utilized to delineate the
324 contributions to the turbulent heat or momentum transfer from four types of processes
325 corresponding to the four quadrants of a w' (horizontal) and φ' (vertical) coordinate, where the w'
326 denotes vertical velocity perturbation and φ' denotes perturbations of temperature (T') or
327 horizontal wind speed (S') in heat or momentum flux calculations, respectively. The four
328 quadrants are: Q1: $\varphi'w' > 0, \varphi' > 0, w' > 0$; Q2: $\varphi'w' < 0, \varphi' > 0, w' < 0$; Q3: $\varphi'w' > 0, \varphi' <$
329 $0, w' < 0$; Q4: $\varphi'w' < 0, \varphi' < 0, w' > 0$. Note that the perturbation in horizontal wind speed
330 (S'), rather than the streamwise or cross-wind components (u' or v'), are used for computing
331 momentum flux following Heilman *et al.*, (2021):

$$332 \quad S' = S - \bar{S} \quad (5)$$

$$333 \quad S = \sqrt{u^2 + v^2} \quad (6)$$

334 The quadrant analysis is also known as sweep-ejection analysis (Heilman *et al.*, 2021)
335 which associates each quadrant with a specific type of vertical turbulent transfer events. The
336 names of the events and the associated quadrant designations, which are different for turbulent
337 heat and momentum fluxes, are given in Table 1.

338 Based on the definition in Table 1, ejection (Q1) and sweep (Q3) events contribute to
339 positive vertical turbulent heat flux through the upward transfer of warmer air from below
340 (ejection) or the downward transfer of cooler air from above (sweep), while inward interaction
341 (Q2) and outward interaction (Q4) events contribute to negative turbulent heat flux through the

342 downward transfer of warmer air from above (inward interaction) or the upward transfer of
 343 cooler air from below (outward interaction). For vertical flux of horizontal momentum, inward
 344 interaction and outward interaction events contribute to positive flux through the upward transfer
 345 of faster moving air (outward interaction) or the downward transfer of slower moving air (inward
 346 interaction), while sweep and ejection events contribute to negative momentum flux through the
 347 downward transfer of faster moving air (sweep) or the upward transfer of slower moving air
 348 (ejection). Note that the warmer/cooler or faster/slower air is relative to the air in the adjacent
 349 layers.

350 The sweep-ejection analysis calculates the proportion of a given type of events by simply
 351 counting the number of events or the data points in the 10 Hz time series that fall within the
 352 given quadrant. The contributions of the given type of events to the average turbulent fluxes over
 353 a given time period (T_p) are calculated, following Heilman *et al.* (2021), by the integral

354

$$355 \quad \overline{\varphi'w'}_Q = \frac{1}{T_p} \int_0^{T_p} \varphi'(\tau)w'(\tau)\varepsilon_Q d\tau \quad (7)$$

356

357 where ε_Q is 1 for the given quadrant and zero otherwise, τ is time and φ' is temperature or
 358 horizontal wind speed perturbation for heat or momentum fluxes, respectively.

359

360 **3 Results and Discussion**

361

362 **3.1 Fire-Induced Perturbations to Wind and Temperature**

363 Before we examine fire-induced changes to turbulence in ambient atmosphere, we first
 364 take a look at the response of the instantaneous temperature and wind to the surface line fire

365 recorded by the 16 sonic anemometers as the fire spread from west to east across the 10 m × 10 m
366 burn plot (Figure 6). Note that perturbation temperatures (T' , see Eq. 1), instead of actual
367 temperatures, are shown to accommodate the magnitude difference between temperature and
368 wind, facilitating a more coherent visualization of the joint effects of the fire on temperature and
369 wind.

370 The natural or non-fire fluctuation recorded during the pre-burn period are small, with
371 magnitudes generally less than 2.5 m s⁻¹ for u , 1 m s⁻¹ for v and 2.5 °C for T' . The fire impinging
372 upon the sonic anemometers is marked by a sharp increase in T' , but the magnitude of the
373 temperature changes depend heavily on location, from very little change on the western side (A1,
374 B1, C1, D1) of the burn plot where the fire was ignited, to a nearly 20°C increase on the eastern
375 side (A4, B4, C4, D4). This spatial heterogeneity in T' is consistent with the pattern of the fire
376 spread from the western boundary toward the east and northeast by the southwesterly ambient
377 wind (Figure 4). During the burn period, the u fluctuations decreased slightly while the v
378 fluctuations increased. The v -component no longer fluctuated around zero, as in the pre-burn
379 period, but rather it was dominated by negative values, indicating a systematic shift in wind
380 direction. There was a tendency for u and T' to return towards the pre-burn conditions after the
381 burn, but the v component remained negative during the post-burn period.

382 The observed changes in the distribution of wind and temperature values associated with
383 the fire at all 16 sonics are summarized by the box-whisker plots in Figure 7. The pre-burn mean
384 is 1.7 m s⁻¹ for the streamwise wind component u and near zero (-0.04 m s⁻¹) for the cross-stream
385 component v . The pre-burn vertical velocity distribution also has near zero mean, which
386 confirms that the sonic anemometers were well-leveled. During the burn period, the mean of u
387 dropped in magnitude from 1.7 to 1.05 m s⁻¹ while the mean of v increased in magnitude from -

388 0.04 to -0.65 m s^{-1} , indicating an overall shift in wind direction from southwesterly to west-
389 southwesterly. This change in the horizontal wind components suggests that ambient air was
390 drawn towards the fire producing convergence at the fire front. There is also a fire-induced
391 widening of the distributions of the horizontal wind components, particularly the v component,
392 and an increase in the number of outliers with magnitudes that nearly doubled the pre-fire
393 magnitude. The large negative values in v during the burn period reinforce the suggestion of
394 convergence in the vicinity of the fire.

395 Interestingly, there is little evident change in the overall distribution of w during the burn
396 period, except that more and larger outliers are indicated. The maximum updrafts (downdrafts)
397 during the burn period reach speeds of nearly 6 m s^{-1} (-5 m s^{-1}), which is more than double those
398 of the pre- and post-burn periods, suggesting that intermittent turbulent eddies associated with
399 the fire could have a strong impact on vertical velocity just above the fuel bed. The T'
400 distribution also widens substantially during the burn period ($\sigma=4.24 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) compared to the pre-
401 burn period ($\sigma=0.48 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$), with the maximum temperature perturbation reaching nearly 20°C .

402 The influence of the fire on the horizontal wind components continues into the post-burn
403 period, as the post-burn distributions of u and v fall between those of the pre-burn and burn
404 periods. In contrast, the post-burn w distribution returns to a distribution very close to that of the
405 pre-burn period. Similarly, the T' distribution during the post-burn period is very similar to that
406 of the pre-burn period. The similarities between the w' and T' distributions suggest that the two
407 variables are closely related to each other, with large updrafts during the burn period being
408 generated primarily by heating. This result suggests that the fire-induced circulation exhibits
409 behavior more consistent with a buoyant plume than mechanically forced rising motion resulting
410 from converging surface air.

411

412 **3.2 Intensity of Fire-Induced Turbulence**

413 We now explore the modifications of the fire to atmospheric turbulence properties just
414 above the combustion zone. The first question to address is how turbulence intensity quantified
415 by *TKE* in Eq. (3) is modified by the fire and how the modification may vary with location in the
416 burn plot. Figure 8 shows time series of 1-minute averaged *TKE* and its three components (the
417 variance of the three velocity components) for each of the sonic anemometers. The time series
418 indicate lower *TKE* values in the pre-burn period, larger values during the burn period, and
419 values remaining high in the post-burn period. The burn period *TKE* is primarily driven by an
420 increase in horizontal velocity variance, $\overline{u'^2}$ and $\overline{v'^2}$, particularly the cross-stream component
421 $\overline{v'^2}$. The *TKE* values remain high into the post-burn period and, at several sonic anemometers
422 (D3 and C4), the post-burn *TKE* peaks are comparable with or higher than the peaks observed
423 during the burn period.

424 The box-whisker plots in Figure 9 depict the fire-induced changes to the distribution of
425 turbulence intensity as observed by all 16 sonic anemometers. Averaging across all the
426 instruments, the burn period mean *TKE* is $1.25 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$, which is roughly double the pre-burn mean
427 of $0.697 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$. The interquartile range of the burn period *TKE* is nearly three times the pre-burn
428 period range. Despite the increase in the mean and the interquartile range of the *TKE* from the
429 pre-burn to the burn period, the mean *TKE* values are still below $3 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$, which is a threshold
430 sometimes used as an indicator for substantial boundary-layer turbulence (Stull, 1988; Heilman
431 and Bian, 2013), suggesting that this low-intensity surface line fire fails to produce a
432 substantially turbulent environment at the levels just above the fuel bed. The mean *TKE* in the

433 post-burn period does not return to that of the pre-burn period and remains elevated ($1.21 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$).
434 While the $\overline{w'^2}$ returns to the pre-burn conditions, the horizontal components remain elevated.

435 More specifically, $\overline{u'^2}$ and $\overline{v'^2}$ make up 53.0% and 38.5% of the average pre-burn *TKE*,
436 respectively. During the burn period, the contribution to *TKE* from $\overline{u'^2}$ decreases slightly to
437 49.1% and the contribution from $\overline{v'^2}$ increases substantially to 43.3%. As noted earlier (Figures 6
438 and 7), the burn period also exhibits a larger range of horizontal and vertical wind components,
439 which is consistent with the larger range of *TKE* values in Figure 9.

440 In the post-burn period, the distribution of vertical velocity variance returns to the pre-
441 burn distribution. However, the range of values in the horizontal components are smaller during
442 the post-burn period than the burn period, but still larger than during the pre-burn period. The
443 medians of the horizontal *TKE* components are higher in the post-burn period than in either of
444 the other periods. While the $\overline{u'^2}$ outliers (above the 99.3rd percentile) decrease, the $\overline{v'^2}$ outliers
445 increase in magnitude. As was previously discussed, post-burn average wind directions differ
446 slightly from the pre-burn, accompanied by increases in the magnitude of the horizontal winds
447 (Figures 6 and 7). This result is consistent with elevated *TKE* values persisting into the period
448 after the end of the fire.

449 Additional analysis of the variance of the three velocity components enables an
450 assessment of turbulence anisotropy indicated by the ratio of $\overline{w'^2}$ to $2 \times \text{TKE}$. When this ratio
451 approaches 1/3 for a given time period, the period can be said to experience an isotropic
452 turbulent regime (Heilman *et al.*, 2015). The mean $\overline{w'^2}$ for all the sonic anemometers is 0.0597
453 m^2s^{-2} for the pre-burn period, $0.0931 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$ for the burn period, and $0.052 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-2}$ for the post-burn
454 period, which yields an anisotropy ratio of 0.042, 0.036, 0.021 for the pre-burn, burn and post-

455 burn periods, respectively. As the anisotropy ratios are well below 1/3 in all three periods, the
456 turbulence regime just above the combustion zone remains anisotropic at all time. It is worth
457 noting that in contrary to the belief that the increase in vertical velocity variance in response to
458 the surface heating during the burn should act to move turbulence towards a more isotropic
459 regime, the ratio here is slightly smaller during the burn period than the pre burn period largely
460 because the fire-induced increase in the cross-stream velocity variance is larger than the increase
461 in the vertical velocity variance. Heilman et al. (2015) calculated the anisotropy ratios at 3 m
462 above ground for two forest understory fires. The ratio decreased from 0.118 to 0.0718 from pre-
463 burn to burn in one experiment but increased from 0.089 pre-burn to 0.13 in another experiment.
464 Since the sonic anemometers located on the western and southern sides of the burn plot show no
465 clear increase in $\overline{w'^2}$, the anisotropy ratio is also calculated for each sonic to verify that the mean
466 values did not mask anisotropy variations at individual locations in the burn plot. No individual
467 sonic anemometer reaches a ratio of 1/3, and the highest individual ratio (0.133) is found at sonic
468 anemometer A4 during the burn period. This result indicates that overall, the *TKE* just above the
469 combustion zone is highly anisotropic and is dominated by the horizontal components for this
470 burn. This result is not surprising as the sonic anemometers are located only 2.5 m above ground
471 where horizontal turbulence would be expected to dominate over vertical turbulence (Heilman *et*
472 *al.*, 2015).

473

474 **3.3 Fire-Induced Shear Stress**

475 To address the question on how surface fires alter turbulent momentum transfer between
476 the combustion zone and the atmosphere above, we next explore fire-induced changes to
477 turbulent momentum fluxes or shear stress measured by friction velocity described in Eq. (4).

478 Figure 10 shows time series of 1-minute averaged u_*^2 and the streamwise $\overline{u'w'}$ and cross-
479 stream $\overline{v'w'}$ stress components (the momentum flux), measured by each of the sonic
480 anemometers for the three periods. Kinematic momentum fluxes and u_*^2 are similar across all
481 the sonic anemometers during the pre-burn period, although three of the northernmost
482 instruments (A2, A3, and A4) indicate a negative spike in $\overline{u'w'}$ just before the start of the burn
483 period. These spikes contribute to an increase in u_*^2 during this time as well. It is unclear what
484 caused these features, but candidates include an anomalous burst of wind along the northern edge
485 of the burn plot and possible contamination of the wind data by activities of the burn managers
486 as they prepared to ignite the fire.

487 During the burn period, the values of $\overline{u'w'}$ and $\overline{v'w'}$ increase somewhat, leading to
488 increases in the u_*^2 values. The fire-induced changes generally increase in magnitude from west
489 (left) to east (right) and south to north, consistent with the fire-spread pattern. The largest
490 increase occur at the easternmost (right) locations, particularly A4 and C4 where u_*^2 values
491 nearly doubled. The smallest increases are not found at the westernmost locations, but at C2 and
492 D2. With a few exceptions, $\overline{u'w'}$ and $\overline{v'w'}$ are negative in the beginning of the burn period,
493 turning positive later in the period. The $\overline{u'w'}$ values exhibit the largest burn period variation at
494 A4, followed by B4, and similar patterns are observed for $\overline{v'w'}$. Overall, variations in u_*^2 suggest
495 an increase in shear stress magnitude in the burn period compared to the pre-burn period, with
496 the easternmost sonic anemometers recording 1-minute averaged values that are far greater than
497 the westernmost sonic anemometers.

498 During the post-burn period, some sonic anemometers (A2, B2, C1, C2, D2) recorded
499 higher u_*^2 than during the burn period, while others (A1, B1, B3, C2, C3, D3) recorded values

500 similar to the burn period. In either case, the average values are larger than during the pre-burn
501 period. The maximum post-burn values among all the sonic anemometers occur at A2 for u_*^2
502 and $\overline{v'w'}$ and C1 for $\overline{u'w'}$, both of which are larger than their burn-period peaks.

503 The overall distributions of u_*^2 , $\overline{u'w'}$, and $\overline{v'w'}$ from all 16 sonic anemometers are
504 depicted in Figure 11. During the pre-burn period, $\overline{u'w'}$ is negative, with a mean value of -0.015
505 $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$, indicating an overall downward transfer of higher streamwise momentum air, which is
506 expected as wind speed usually increases with height. The mean of the cross-stream momentum
507 flux $\overline{v'w'}$ is near zero ($0.007 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$). However, the spread of the two components is similar, with
508 standard deviations of $0.057 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ and $0.046 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ for $\overline{u'w'}$ and $\overline{v'w'}$, respectively. The pre-burn
509 stress u_*^2 of $0.061 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ ($u_* = 0.25 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$) is typical for daytime surface layers.

510 An increase in the downward (upward) transfer of higher streamwise (cross-stream)
511 momentum is observed during the burn period as the median values become more negative for
512 $\overline{u'w'}$ and more positive for $\overline{v'w'}$. However, the mean values change little from the pre-burn
513 period. The spread is doubled from a standard deviation of 0.046 to $0.098 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ for $\overline{u'w'}$ and
514 nearly tripled from 0.05 to $0.124 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ for $\overline{v'w'}$. The stronger upward transfer of cross-stream
515 momentum is consistent with the generation of cross-stream wind and updrafts in the vicinity of
516 the surface fire. Despite this overall fire-induced increase in $\overline{v'w'}$, the distribution of the cross-
517 stream momentum is negatively skewed by large negative outliers, suggesting occasional transfer
518 of higher cross-stream momentum by downdrafts near the vicinity of the fire. Both the mean and
519 standard deviation of u_*^2 values are doubled to $0.13 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ and $0.086 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$, respectively, over the
520 pre-burn values. The peak 1-min averaged values of u_*^2 exceed $0.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-2}$ (or a friction velocity
521 of 0.6 m s^{-1}), which is 2.5 times larger than the pre-burn values. Clements *et al.* (2008) also

522 observed a three-fold increase in friction velocity in their experiment involving a high intensity
523 grass fire, although the absolute values of the friction velocity in their experiment were five
524 times larger (1 and 3 m s⁻¹ before and during the fire) than the current experiment.

525 The mean post-burn u_*^2 value (0.10 m²s⁻²) is lower than that of the burn period but still
526 higher than the pre-burn value, driven primarily by the cross-stream component. The values of
527 the $\overline{v'w'}$ (0.0471 m² s⁻²) in the post-burn period is more than six times the pre-burn average
528 (0.0072 m²s⁻²), with a standard deviation (0.069 m²s⁻²) that is between the pre-burn period
529 (0.046) and burn period (0.096) values. The mean friction velocity therefore does not return to
530 the pre-burn average, although it is lower than the average during the burn period. Other
531 experiments (e.g. Clements *et al*, 2008; Heilman, *et al*. 2019) noted a return of friction velocity
532 to pre-burn values soon after the passage of the fire front, during a period when smoldering was
533 occurring. The results of this analysis suggest that friction velocities do not quickly return to pre-
534 burn values on all fires.

535

536 **3.4 Fire-Induced Turbulent Heat Flux**

537 We proceed to examine the impact of the fire on turbulent heat flux. Time series of 1-
538 minute average kinematic turbulence sensible heat flux $\overline{T'w'}$ for each sonic anemometer are
539 shown in Figure 12 for the three periods, which also shows the overall distribution of heat fluxes
540 for all the sonic anemometers. In the pre-burn period, the sonic anemometers recorded
541 background $\overline{T'w'}$ values that averaged around 5.25×10^{-2} °C m s⁻¹ (or 52.7 W m⁻² after multiplying
542 by the density and heat capacity of air), with a standard deviation of 3.41×10^{-2} °C m s⁻¹ (34 W m⁻
543 ²). During the burn period, a fire-induced increase in $\overline{T'w'}$ is evident at all but the westernmost

544 sonic anemometers (A1, B1, C1, and D1), with larger increases appearing at the easternmost
545 locations. The largest $\overline{T'w'}$ values generally occur early in the burn period, with the A4 sonic
546 having the largest $\overline{T'w'}$ value of $2.13 \text{ }^\circ\text{C m s}^{-1}$ (2.138 kW m^{-2}). Based on the IR imaging (Figure
547 4), after the first three minutes of the burn period there is a slight shift in the burn direction
548 towards the southeastern side of the plot. This shift in direction is apparent in the time series for
549 the D4 sonic anemometer, which is located on the southeastern corner of the burn plot, where
550 elevated $\overline{T'w'}$ values are recorded late in the burn period, at a time when the values have
551 dropped at most of the other sonic anemometers. The overall distribution of the burn-period $\overline{T'w'}$
552 is skewed by larger values since the plot mean was 0.268 K m s^{-1} (269 W m^{-2}) but the median
553 was just $0.0974 \text{ }^\circ\text{C m s}^{-1}$ (98 W m^{-2}).

554 Values of $\overline{T'w'}$ during the post-burn period quickly drop back to just slightly above the
555 pre-burn values, with a mean of $6.35 \times 10^{-2} \text{ }^\circ\text{C m s}^{-1}$ (64 W m^{-2}) and a standard deviation of
556 $3.76 \times 10^{-2} \text{ }^\circ\text{C m s}^{-1}$ (38 W m^{-2}). However, the post-burn period contains several outliers (above the
557 99.3% percentile), indicating the influence of smoldering on some of the sonic anemometers
558 even after the fire has exited the burn plot. A specific example of the smoldering effect is the D4
559 sonic anemometer, where the post-burn $\overline{T'w'}$ ($0.126 \text{ }^\circ\text{C m s}^{-1}$ or 126 W m^{-2}) is about twice the
560 pre-burn value. The overall modest increase of $\overline{T'w'}$ in the post-burn period compared to the pre-
561 burn period was also observed in the two wildland fire experiments described in Heilman *et al.*
562 (2019).

563

564 **3.5 Quadrant Analyses**

565 **3.5.1 Turbulent heat fluxes**

566 The analysis above provided a quantitative assessment of fire-induced changes to the
567 turbulent heat and momentum fluxes through comparisons of flux values between the pre-burn
568 and the burn periods. However, such analysis cannot reveal what types of heat or momentum
569 transfer events are mostly affected by the fire. We apply the quadrant analysis method (also
570 known as sweep-ejection analysis) described earlier (Table 1) to the observed turbulent fluxes to
571 provide additional insight into how the fire changes the composition of heat and momentum
572 fluxes. By partitioning the total heat and momentum fluxes into four quadrants representing
573 different types of flux events, the quadrant or sweep-ejection analysis allows for the delineation
574 of the fire influence on specific types of turbulent heat and momentum transfer processes.

575 Figure 13 shows the relative contributions and the proportional number of occurrence of
576 the different heat-flux events (i.e., sweeps, ejections, outward interactions and inward
577 interactions) during each period, observed by each of the 16 sonic anemometers. During the pre-
578 burn period, the partitioning among the four types of events (see Table 1) by contribution and
579 proportion exhibits little variation across the 16 sonic anemometers. At all locations, the ejection
580 and sweep events dominate, accounting for over 60% of the total events, with sweep being
581 slightly larger. The rest is split between outward interaction and inward interaction events, with
582 the former slightly outnumbering (20-23%) the latter (14-19%). A similar partitioning is
583 observed for the event contributions for the heat fluxes, but the ejection events, despite being
584 slightly less frequent, contribute more to the heat flux than do the sweep events. This apparent
585 inconsistency between the partitioning of the event number and the event contribution suggests
586 that ejection events likely involve larger eddies and stronger heat transfer compared to sweep
587 events. This pre-burn period partitioning is similar to previous ambient daytime measurements
588 observed in other studies (e.g., Heilman *et al.*, 2021).

589 The burn period is marked by substantial heterogeneity across the 16 sonic anemometers.
590 Despite differences in the magnitudes of contributions to the heat fluxes amongst the sonic
591 anemometers, the increases in the overall positive mean heat flux during the burn period can be
592 largely attributed to increases of ejection events that contribute to positive heat fluxes through
593 upward transfer of warmer air from the combustion zone to the atmosphere above. There is also
594 an increase in the negative contribution from inward interaction events, which represents the
595 downward transfer of warmer air from the atmosphere to the combustion zone. The contributions
596 to the overall mean heat flux by the other two types of events, sweep and outward interaction,
597 show little change from the pre-burn to the burn periods, which suggests that the turbulent heat
598 transfer processes represented by these types of events, namely downward transfer of colder air
599 from above to the surface or upward transfer of colder air from the combustion zone to the
600 atmosphere, are not very sensitive to the presence of a low-intensity fuel-bed-scale surface fire.

601 Compared to the partitioning in event contribution, the fire-induced changes to the
602 partitioning in event number are less clear. In general, the sonic anemometers that show an
603 increase in the contribution by inward interaction events also exhibit an increase in the number
604 of inward interaction events from the pre-burn to the burn periods. However, an increased
605 contribution to the overall mean heat flux by ejection events does not correspond to an increase
606 in the number of the ejection events. The increased number of sweep events are in agreement
607 with the increased sweep contributions at several sonics (A2-A4 and B2-B4), although the sweep
608 contributions are overwhelmed by that of the ejection contributions at these sonic anemometers.

609 A key finding from this heat flux sweep-ejection analysis is that turbulent heat fluxes
610 during the burn period are overwhelmingly dominated by ejection events, but there is usually a
611 small or no increase in the number of ejection events. This suggests that the presence of a low-

612 intensity fuel-bed-scale fire does not necessarily produce more upward turbulent heat transfer
613 events, but instead, it produces stronger events that quickly transfer and diffuse the sensible heat
614 generated by combustion into the ambient atmosphere above.

615 During the post-burn period, most sonic anemometers show vertical heat flux values that
616 are smaller than the burn period but still larger than the pre-burn period. The largest contribution
617 to the overall mean heat flux is usually from sweep events, accompanied also by an increase in
618 the number of the events, indicating the occurrence of many events where cold air is transferred
619 downward. The post-burn period also exhibits an increase in the heat-flux contributions from
620 outward interaction events, which represent downward transfer of warm air. Similar to the burn
621 period, inward interaction events, both in contribution and number, vary considerably across the
622 sonic array.

623 Figure 14 shows the partitioning of both the event number and the event contribution to
624 turbulent heat fluxes using data from all 16 sonic anemometers, which highlights more clearly
625 how the fire modifies the overall heat flux regime. Similar to the heat flux quadrant analysis for
626 individual sonic anemometers, the heat flux events averaged across the sonic anemometer array
627 for the pre-burn period is dominated by sweep (32%) and ejection (28%) events. Inward
628 interaction events occur with the least proportion (17%), followed by outward interaction events
629 (23%). The sweep and ejection events, which contribute to positive heat fluxes, are much larger
630 in magnitude than the negative heat flux contributions from the inward and outward interaction
631 events. The dominance of sweep and ejection events for the turbulent heat fluxes during the pre-
632 burn period follows observations made in previous studies (Heilman *et al.*, 2021).

633 The combined proportions of sweep and ejection events (both contributing to positive
634 heat fluxes) and the outward and inward interaction events (both contributing to negative heat

635 fluxes) remain similar between the burn and the pre-burn period. However, between the two
636 types of events in each group, one (sweep, inward interaction) increases and the other (ejection,
637 outward interaction) decreases in proportion. Previous fire experiments also reported an increase
638 in sweep events and a generally proportional decrease in ejection events (Heilman *et al.*, 2021),
639 but the magnitudes of the changes are larger than what is observed here, likely because the
640 previous fires were more intense. Additionally, modest changes in the partitioning of the event
641 number and contributions for this fire could be a byproduct of combining data from sonic
642 anemometers that are not strongly affected by the fire front (i.e. the westernmost sonic
643 anemometers) with those that experience more substantial changes.

644 The large changes in the contributions of the heat flux events during the burn period
645 suggest that this fire has greater impacts on the event contributions to the mean turbulent heat
646 fluxes than on the event number. Specifically, ejection event contributions dominate in the burn
647 period, making up 70.4% of the total contribution, while sweep and outward interaction
648 contributions decrease by a third and a sixth, respectively, compared to their contributions during
649 the pre-burn period. The magnitude of the contribution from inward interaction events increases
650 slightly but is quite similar to the contribution during the pre-burn period.

651 Heat flux events in the post-burn period more closely resemble the pre-burn period than
652 the burn period, but the event contributions and the event number do not return entirely to their
653 pre-burn values. As noted in the analyses of *TKE* and kinematic heat flux (Figures 9 and 11), this
654 result is consistent with smoldering occurring in the burn plot during the post-burn period. The
655 sweep event contribution during the post-burn period is 1.5 times higher than during the pre-burn
656 period and 1.3 times higher than during the burn period. Compared to the pre-burn values, the
657 post-burn period event contributions are slightly higher for outward interaction events and

658 slightly lower for ejection and inward interaction events. Overall, the post-burn period is
659 dominated by contributions from sweep events (37.7%), which is followed by ejection events
660 (25.3%) although lower than pre-burn values. These results differ somewhat from the Heilman *et*
661 *al.* (2021) in that they reported both sweep and ejection events returning to pre-burn values,
662 while only ejection events return to pre-burn values for this fire.

663

664 **3.5.2 Turbulent momentum fluxes**

665 Quadrant analysis is also applied to partition the vertical turbulent kinematic flux of
666 horizontal momentum $\overline{S'w'}$ into four different types and the results for each of the 16 sonic
667 anemometers are shown in Figure 15. During the pre-burn period, the overall mean momentum
668 fluxes are negative at all but two sonic anemometers (C1, C2) where the flux is slightly positive.
669 Between the two types of events that contribute to negative momentum fluxes, the sweep events
670 (downward transfer of higher horizontal momentum air from the atmosphere to the combustion
671 zone) contribute more than the ejection events (upward transfer of lower horizontal momentum
672 air from the combustion zone to the atmosphere above), which is consistent with the slightly
673 higher number of sweep events than ejection events. Between the two types of events that
674 contribute to positive momentum fluxes, the outward interaction events (upward transfer of
675 higher horizontal momentum air from the combustion zone to the atmosphere above) contribute
676 more than the inward interaction events (downward transfer of lower horizontal momentum air
677 from the atmosphere to the combustion zone), although the number of the inward and outward
678 interaction events is similar.

679 The changes from the pre-burn period to the burn period vary substantially by location,
680 but the sign of the overall mean momentum fluxes remains unchanged at most locations. The
681 most pronounced and consistent change across the anemometer array is a substantial increase in
682 the proportional number of inward interaction events and, to a lesser degree, the contribution
683 from these events. The ejection events also exhibit an increase in the number and the
684 contribution at most of the sonic anemometer locations. There is a general decrease in the
685 number of sweep and outward interaction events, but the contributions are not consistent, with
686 some sonic anemometers showing an increase while others experience a decrease in contribution.

687 An exception to the above general observations between the pre-burn and burn periods is
688 B4, where the overall momentum flux shifts from negative to positive due to an increase in
689 outward interaction contribution by as much as 5 times the pre-burn magnitude. The amount of
690 increase in the contribution from the outward interaction events, however, does not match the
691 small increase (approximately 10%) in the event number, which suggests that the increase in the
692 overall momentum flux magnitude at this location is likely due to a small number of extremely
693 strong events of upward transfer of higher horizontal momentum air associated with large,
694 energetic eddies generated by the surface fire.

695 The large heterogeneity in the event contribution values for the momentum fluxes across
696 the sonic anemometer array during the burn period dissipated substantially into the post-burn
697 period. The event contribution and event number distributions once again become less dependent
698 on the locations of the sonic anemometers. Despite this tendency to return to the pre-burn
699 distribution, the post-burn period experiences larger contributions from, and higher number of
700 ejection and inward interaction events than sweep and outward interaction events, which is
701 opposite to the pre-burn period and similar to the burn period.

702 Figure 16 shows a quadrant analysis that combines data from all the sonic anemometers,
703 which allows for an assessment of how the fire modified the momentum flux turbulence regime
704 for the entire burn plot. Overall, sweep (31.9%) and outward interaction (26.6%) events
705 dominate the momentum flux contributions in the pre-burn period. The increases in the
706 proportion of inward interaction and ejection events from the pre-burn to the burn periods make
707 the contributions more balanced across the four quadrants, suggesting that the different event
708 contributions are more similar to each other during the burn than the pre-burn period. In the post-
709 fire period, inward interaction events contribute more to the mean momentum flux (25.7%) than
710 during the pre-fire period (18.1%). The event number distributions in the combined analysis
711 echoes the results from the individual sonic anemometers, with the pre-burn period showing
712 similar values for all four quadrants, a sharp increase in inward interaction events and decrease in
713 outward interaction events during the burn period, and fewer inward interaction events during the
714 post-burn period than during the burn period but more numerous than during the pre-burn period.

715 The results of the quadrant analysis of momentum fluxes presented above are somewhat
716 different from those of previous studies involving operational-scale prescribed burns. Heilman *et*
717 *al.* (2021) showed that during an intense grass fire and two low-intensity forest understory fires,
718 there can be substantial increase in the number and contribution of sweep and outward
719 interaction events and that the increase in the positive momentum flux from outward interaction
720 events largely offset the increase in the negative flux associated with sweep events. Whereas in
721 the small fuel-bed scale burn here, inward interactions occur most frequently, followed by
722 ejection events. However, the ejection event contributions to the mean momentum flux are larger
723 (32.3%), with the inward interaction event contributions (24.2%) more similar to the outward
724 interaction (23.4%) contributions. The feature of increased frequency of inward interaction

725 events and their increased contribution to the mean momentum flux compared to previous burns
726 is further observed in the post-burn period.

727 The event number and event contributions during the post-burn period also differ with
728 increased ejection and inward interactions events, 32.8% and 20.6%, while the large-scale burns
729 in Heilman *et al.* (2021) showed a closer return to pre-fire periods, with sweep and ejection
730 events making up the majority of event number and contributions. The contributions from sweep,
731 inward interaction, and ejection events remain elevated during the post-burn period, while the
732 contributions from outward interaction decrease during post-burn to values lower than the values
733 of the pre-burn period.

734

735 **4. Summary**

736 This study presents the atmospheric turbulence dynamics observed through a 4×4 array
737 of fast-response 3D sonic anemometers during a low-intensity fire experiment on a 10 m x 10 m
738 burn plot in the Silas Little Experimental Forest in New Jersey, USA. The density of turbulence
739 measurements is unprecedented for fire experiments, allowing for a deeper analysis of
740 heterogeneities as the surface line-fire spread through the burn plot than was previously possible.
741 The analysis focuses on assessments of the fire impacts on turbulence intensity, as measured by
742 *TKE*, turbulent momentum flux or shear stress as measured by friction velocity, and turbulent
743 heat flux.

744 The influence of the low-intensity surface line-fire on the atmosphere above the
745 combustion zone is evidenced by an increase in temperature up to 20 °C, the generation of strong
746 updrafts up to 6 m s^{-1} and downdrafts up to -5 m s^{-1} and a decrease in the streamwise velocity

747 coupled with an increase in the cross-stream velocity indicating horizontal convergence in the
748 vicinity of the fire front. The observed fire exhibited behavior more consistent with a buoyant
749 plume than mechanically forced rising motion resulting from converging surface air. The
750 influence of the fire on horizontal velocity components persisted longer after fire front passage
751 while the influence on vertical velocity subsided rapidly behind the fire front.

752 The fire modified turbulence characteristics at the fuel bed-atmosphere interface. There
753 was an increase in the turbulence intensity, with *TKE* values 2-3 times higher than the ambient
754 environment, due primarily to the increase in cross-stream velocity variance and, to a lesser
755 degree, the increase in the vertical velocity and streamwise velocity variance. Heilman *et al.*
756 (2017) also reported two to threefold increases in *TKE* values during two operational-scale low-
757 intensity forest understory prescribed fires. It is interesting to note that this increase in *TKE* is
758 only slightly smaller than what was observed during the intense grass fire during FireFlux
759 (Clements *et al.*, 2007), although the magnitude of *TKE* of the intense grass fire is substantially
760 larger than that of the low-intensity fires. Despite this increase in *TKE*, the value of *TKE* was still
761 smaller than what is expected in an environment of substantial turbulence. Additionally, despite
762 the increase in the vertical velocity variance during the fire, the *TKE* was still dominated by the
763 horizontal velocity variance, indicating that the turbulence regime remained anisotropic
764 (anisotropic ratio $\ll 1/3$) above the combustion zone of this low-intensity fuel-bed-scale surface
765 fire.

766 The fire enhanced upward sensible heat fluxes substantially by as much as 40 times the
767 flux in the ambient atmosphere (from 50 W m^{-2} to 2 kW m^{-2}). This change in the sensible heat
768 flux is largely attributable to an increased contribution of upward transfer by turbulent eddies of
769 warmer air from the combustion zone to the atmosphere above, which is also known as ejection

770 events for vertical turbulent heat transfer. This increase in the contribution of the ejection events
771 to turbulent heat fluxes was not caused by a corresponding increase in the number of ejection
772 events that changed little from the pre-burn to burn periods. This mismatch between the ejection
773 event contribution and event number suggests that the presence of a low-intensity fuel-bed-scale
774 fire may not necessarily produce more upward turbulent heat transfer events, but rather, it can
775 produce strong ejection events associated with large, energetic eddies. The warmer air
776 transported upward by the ejection events can also be transported downward by inward
777 interaction events, which also increased somewhat during the fire.

778 Compared to the turbulent heat flux, the impact of the fire on turbulent momentum flux
779 or shear stress was less pronounced. In general, an increase in momentum fluxes was observed
780 during the burn, with friction velocity, a measure of total shear stress on horizontal wind, 2-3
781 times the ambient value (from $\sim 0.25 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ to 0.6 ms^{-1}). Previous studies of operational-scale
782 grass fire or forest understory fires also found up to a three-fold increase in friction velocity,
783 despite that the scale of this fire is much smaller than the previous fires and that the absolute
784 values of friction velocity during the intense grass fire were five times higher than the low-
785 intensity fire here (Clements *et al.*, 2007; Heilman *et al.*, 2017; 2021). The fire was accompanied
786 by an increase in the downward transfer of lower horizontal momentum air, also known as
787 inward interaction events, along with a smaller increase in the upward transfer of lower
788 horizontal momentum air referred to as ejection events. This finding differs from previous
789 observations during an operational-scale forest understory fire where an increase in sweep
790 (downward transfer of higher horizontal momentum air) and outward interaction (upward
791 transfer of higher horizontal momentum air) contributions to the mean momentum fluxes were
792 detected (Heilman *et al.*, 2021).

793 These findings directly address the initial research inquiries: How does the surface fire
794 impact turbulence intensity and the exchanges of turbulent heat and momentum between the
795 combustion zone and the atmosphere above? Additionally, the investigation delves into how the
796 presence of fire alters the distribution of heat and momentum fluxes into different event types,
797 considering both event number and contribution.

798 Perhaps the most significant finding from this study is the large variations in the observed
799 fire-induced perturbations across the sonic anemometer array in the burn plot. This directly
800 corresponds to the third question raised in the introduction: How do the fire-induced
801 modifications on turbulence vary spatially across the burn plot? The anemometers on the western
802 side of the burn plot where a surface line-fire was ignited picked up very weak or no signals of
803 the fire despite the proximity to the initial fire line. In contrast, the sonic anemometers in the
804 center or eastern side of the burn plot picked up clear fire signals. Although the features of fire-
805 induced turbulence regime (e.g., anisotropy, sweep-ejection dynamics) revealed by the sonic
806 anemometers are similar, the magnitudes vary with downwind distance and the relative position
807 of the sonic anemometers to the impinging fire front. Considering the size of the burn plot (10 m
808 x 10 m) and the homogeneity of consumed fuels, this finding suggests that considerable care
809 should be taken when comparing, contrasting, and combining data from multiple fires or from
810 multiple instruments on the same fire to ensure that significant fire signals are not being over- or
811 under-represented in the analyses that inform the conclusions of the studies. This also calls into
812 question of using numerical simulations from coupled atmosphere-fire behavior models with
813 horizontal grid spacing ≥ 10 m. The results presented here suggest that 1-2 m grid spacing is
814 necessary for model simulations to capture atmospheric turbulent circulations that have
815 spatiotemporal scales similar to the scales associated with flame dynamics in the combustion

816 zone. It is however, impractical for operational applications to use such fine resolution.
817 Operational models, with resolutions ranging from tens to hundreds of meters, often fall within
818 the so called 'gray zone' where turbulence is partially resolved and existing turbulence closure
819 schemes designed to parameterize all turbulent motions are inadequate. Advancements in
820 computing technology have brought this zone to the forefront of operational model simulations.
821 Developing turbulence closure schemes for this scale is an active area of research. Large-eddy
822 simulation (LES) models, validated using laboratory data, are instrumental in this endeavor. The
823 experiments described in this study, capturing fire-induced turbulence on a 10 m x 10 m plot, can
824 play a crucial role in developing turbulence parameterizations for the gray zone when combined
825 with LES models.

826 Future work will compare results from this case with those of other burns in the SERDP
827 10 m x 10 m fuel-bed-scale burn series to delineate the effect of fuel and ambient atmospheric
828 conditions on fire-atmosphere interactions and with results from other prescribed-fire
829 experiments to help scale up or scale down the results between small-scale and operational scale
830 fires. Future work will also include the reanalysis of 10 Hz sonic anemometer data from other
831 fire experiments using some or all of the methodologies employed here, which could contribute
832 to the identification and documentation of a series of steps, protocols, standards, and
833 methodologies by which 10-Hz sonic anemometer data collected during fire experiments can be
834 compared and contextualized. Additionally, forthcoming analyses will integrate data collected
835 from other instruments deployed during these fuel-bed-scale fire experiments. For instance,
836 examining the high-frequency thermocouple vertical profile (0, 5, 10, 20, 30, 50, 100 cm) in
837 conjunction with infrared data can offer significant insights into the vertical variation of
838 temperature between the combustion zone and the atmosphere immediately above. Finally yet

839 importantly, employing spectral and co-spectral analyses will be essential in revealing the
840 temporal and spatial scale of turbulence regimes at the fuel-bed and atmosphere interface. These
841 analyses will simultaneously enable a holistic exploration of the oscillatory behavior tied to line
842 fires.

843 Another facet to delve into in future research involves the generation of vorticity, a
844 consequential byproduct of fires that significantly influences fire behavior. Estimating fire-
845 induced vorticity from field observations presents a formidable challenge, necessitating a
846 carefully designed instrument array capable of capturing both horizontal and vertical variations
847 in wind velocity. Despite these challenges, the utilization of the 4x4 sonic anemometer array in
848 the 10m x 10m burn plot provides a distinctive opportunity. This array captures horizontal
849 variations in wind velocity as the line fire spreads through the plot, offering a unique opportunity
850 for estimating vertical vorticity associated with line fires. However, it is important to note that
851 estimating horizontal vorticity is not feasible due to the sonic anemometer array's velocity
852 measurement on a single vertical level (2.5 m), which does not capture the necessary vertical
853 variations of velocity for horizontal vorticity calculation. Future experiments will require
854 deploying a densely spaced sonic anemometer similar to the current one but at multiple vertical
855 levels to comprehensively evaluate vorticity associated with fires.

856 Finally, it is worth mentioning that because the burn period was chosen to be between the
857 time when the first and the last sonic anemometers have temperatures satisfying the threshold
858 value (eight standard deviations in these analyses), the burn period included time after the fire
859 has passed the sonic anemometer location, which likely yielded an underestimation of the fire
860 effect. Similarly, the inclusion of all 16 sonic anemometers in the analysis, including those that
861 registered little fire signal, likely contributed to an underestimation. Consequently, fire-induced

862 turbulent circulations and the associated turbulent heat and momentum fluxes are likely to be
863 stronger than what has been reported here.

864

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872 anonymous reviewers for their insightful and constructive comments, which have undeniably
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874

875 **Code and Data Availability**

876 Python language was used for all analyses and data management, with the Pandas package
877 (<https://zenodo.org/record/7037953#.Yw-at3bMIp4>) used for data processing, NumPy package
878 (<https://numpy.org/>) used for most statistical calculations and Matplotlib visualization package
879 (<https://matplotlib.org/>) used for plotting, all of which are open-source packages in the Python
880 environment.

881 Documents and data used in this study are available via the USFS Data Archive at
882 <https://www.fs.usda.gov/rds/archive/catalog/RDS-2022-0079/>

883

884 **Author Contributions**

885 All authors contributed to the research design. K.C., N.S., M.G., M.P., R.H. and E.M. conducted
886 the fire experiment and collected the data. J.C. and M.P., with assistance from K.C., did the
887 initial process and formatting of the data. J.S., with assistance and guidance from J.J.C. and
888 discussions and feedback from S.Z., W.H., X.B. M.K., performed the data analysis and produced
889 all the plots. S.Z. wrote the manuscript and was responsible for the revision. M.G., W.H., K.C.
890 and N.S. edited the initial manuscript.

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Table 1. Vertical turbulent transfer events and the associated quadrat designations.

Q	$\phi'w'$	ϕ'	w'	Heat flux	Momentum flux
1	>0	>0	>0	Ejection: upward flux of warmer air	Outward Interaction: upward flux of lower horizontal momentum air
2	<0	<0	>0	Inward Interaction: downward flux of warmer air	Sweep: downward flux of higher horizontal momentum air
3	>0	<0	<0	Sweep: downward flux of cooler air	Inward Interaction: downward flux of lower horizontal momentum air
4	<0	<0	>0	Outward Interaction: upward flux of cooler air	Ejection: upward flux of higher horizontal momentum air

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Figure 1. Sketch of the burn plot and the instruments deployed to the plot. The four capital letters (A, B, C and D) denote the four trusses and the four numbers (1, 2, 3, 4) refer to the 3D sonic anemometers on the trusses. Posts hanging on trusses B and C show the heights and location of thermocouples. The center post indicates the position of the infrared camera. The boxes next to the sonic anemometers indicate the radiometer/spectral camera pairs. The rectangular box on the ground indicates fuel cells for fuel loading estimation. The symbol near B2 indicates the TACO for emission data collection.

Figure 2. Surface meteorological condition on May 20, 2019, the day of the experimental burn, observed by the weather station approximately 200 m northeast of the burn plot.

Figure 3. Infrared images taken at 10 m above the center of the burn plot showing fuel bed temperature before a), near b) and after c-f) ignition. The green arrow indicates the direction of background wind.

Figure 4. Time series of 10-Hz observations of temperature (T), horizontal wind speed (S) and vertical wind component (w) observed by the 16 sonic anemometers.

Figure 5. The number of sonic anemometers that recorded temperatures at or above a given threshold value (left) and the length of period over which the threshold was reached or exceeded (right). The symbol σ denotes pre-burn period temperature standard deviation.

Figure 6. Time series of 10 Hz streamwise (u , blue) and cross-stream (v , green) wind velocity components and temperature perturbations (T' , red) recorded by each sonic anemometer at 2.5 m above the ground. The vertical dashed black lines indicate the burn period determined by the first and last occurrence of $T' \geq 8\sigma$. Time is the minutes since the start of the pre-burn period.

Figure 7. Distributions of 10 Hz streamwise (u), cross-stream (v), and vertical (w) wind velocity components, and temperature perturbations (T') from all 16 sonic anemometers during pre-burn, burn and post-burn periods. The box represents the 25th and 75th percentile of the data, with data inside the whiskers representing 99.3% of the data. The orange line in the boxes is the median value, the green triangle is the mean, and the blue shading is the density of values of the data.

Figure 8. Time series of 1-minute averaged turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) (red) for each sonic anemometer and the three components of velocity variance, $u'^2/2$ (yellow), $v'^2/2$ (blue) and $w'^2/2$ (green), that make up the TKE . The vertical dashed black lines indicate the burn period determined by the first and last occurrence of $T' \geq 8\sigma$. Time is the minutes since the start of the pre-burn period.

Figure 9. Distributions of turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) and the three components of velocity variance ($u'^2/2$, $v'^2/2$ and $w'^2/2$) that make up the TKE from all 16 sonic anemometers during the

pre-burn, burn and post-burn periods. The box represents the 25th and 75th percentile of the data, with data inside the whiskers representing 99.3% of the data. The orange line in the boxes is the median value, the green triangle is the mean, and the blue shading is the density of values of the data.

Figure 10. Time series of 1-minute averaged friction velocity squared (u_*^2 , pink pluses) and its two components, the streamwise kinematic momentum flux, $\overline{u'w'}$ (yellow circle) and the cross-stream kinematic momentum flux, $\overline{v'w'}$ (blue diamonds), for each of the 16 sonic anemometers. The vertical dashed black lines indicate the burn period determined by the first and last occurrence of $T' \geq 8\sigma$. Time is the minutes since the start of the pre-burn period.

Figure 11. Distributions of friction velocity squared (u_*^2) and its two components ($\overline{u'w'}$ and $\overline{v'w'}$) from all 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods. The box represents the 25th and 75th percentile of the data, with data inside the whiskers representing 99.3% of the data. The orange line in the boxes is the median value, the green triangle is the mean, and the blue shading is the density of values of the data.

Figure 12. Time series of 1-minute averaged heat flux for each of the 16 sonic anemometers (left) and the distribution of heat fluxes from all 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods (right). The box represents the 25th and 75th percentile of the data, with data inside the whiskers representing 99.3% of the data. The orange line in the boxes is the median value, the green triangle is the mean, and the blue shading is the density of values of the data.

Figure 13. Quadrant analysis of the instantaneous vertical kinematic turbulent heat fluxes showing the contributions to the total flux from (top row), and the percent of (bottom row) the four types of events: outward interaction (green), ejection (red), inward interaction (blue), and sweep (orange) for each of the 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods. The black diamonds in the top row indicate the total heat flux values. The sonic anemometers are arranged from west to east roughly following the fire spread across the burn plot.

Figure 14. Quadrant analysis of the instantaneous vertical kinematic turbulent heat fluxes showing the contributions to the total flux from (top row), and the percent of (bottom row) the four types of events: outward interaction (green), ejection (red), inward interaction (blue), and sweep (orange) for all 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods. The black diamonds in the top row indicate the total heat flux values. The sonic anemometers are arranged from west to east roughly following the fire spread across the burn plot.

Figure 15. Quadrant analysis of the instantaneous vertical kinematic turbulent fluxes of horizontal momentum showing the contributions to the total flux from (top row), and the percent of (bottom row) the four types of events: outward interaction (red), sweep (green), inward interaction (orange), and ejection (blue) for each of the 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods. The black diamonds in the top row indicate the total flux

values. The sonic anemometers are arranged from west to east roughly following the fire spread across the burn plot.

Figure 16. Quadrant analysis of the instantaneous vertical kinematic turbulent fluxes of horizontal momentum showing the contributions to the total flux from (top row), and the percent of (bottom row) the four types of events: outward interaction (red), sweep (green), inward interaction (orange), and ejection (blue) for all 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods. The black diamonds in the top row indicate the total flux values. The sonic anemometers are arranged from west to east roughly following the fire spread across the burn plot.

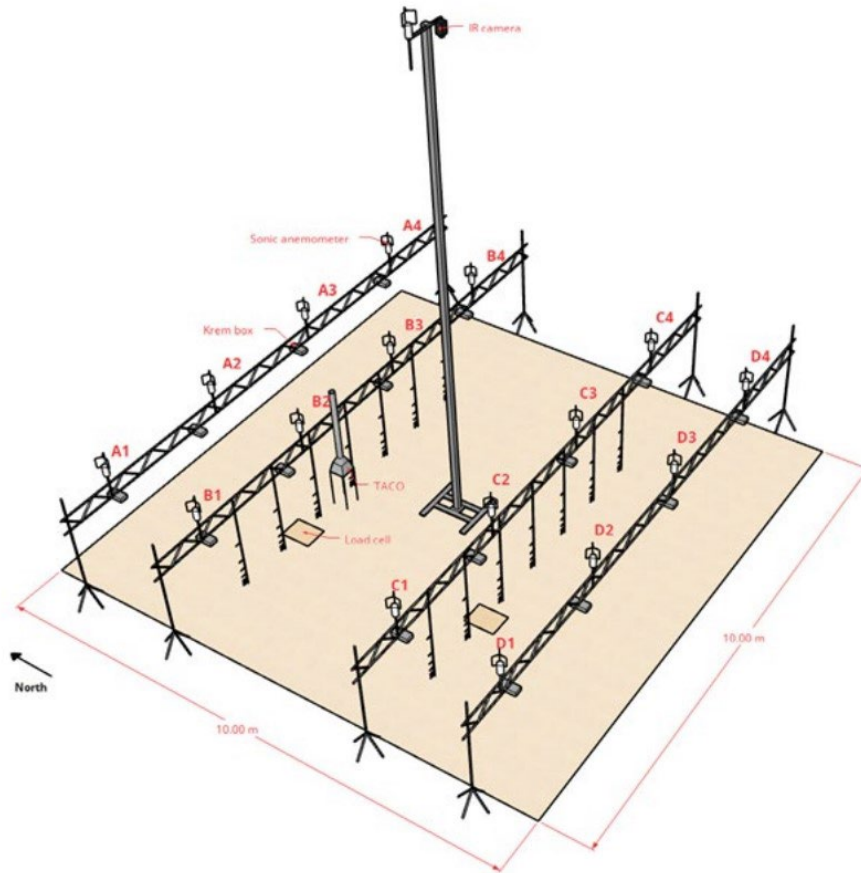


Figure 1. Sketch of the burn plot and the instruments deployed to the plot. The four capital letters (A, B, C and D) denote the four trusses and the four numbers (1, 2, 3, 4) refer to the 3D sonic anemometers on the trusses. Posts hanging on trusses B and C show the heights and location of thermocouples. The center post indicates the position of the infrared camera. The boxes next to the sonic anemometers indicate the radiometer/spectral camera pairs. The rectangular box on the ground indicates fuel cells for fuel loading estimation. The symbol near B2 indicates the TACO for emission data collection

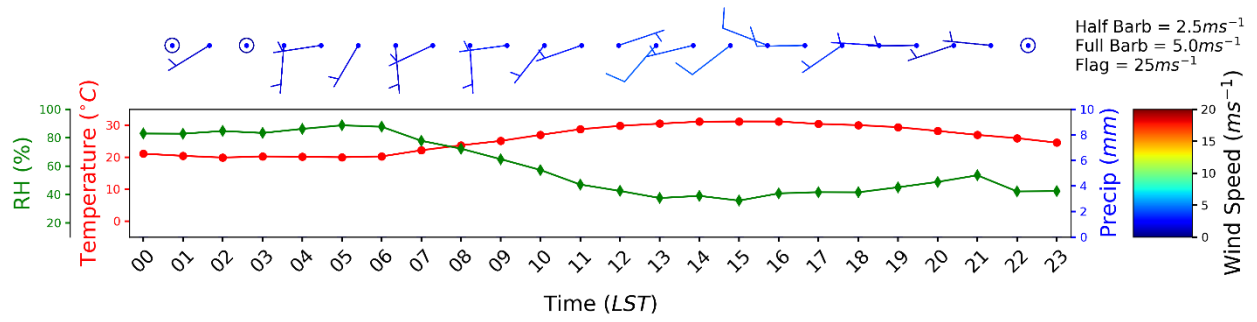


Figure 2. Surface meteorological condition on May 20, 2019, the day of the experimental burn, observed by the weather station approximately 200 m northeast of the burn plot.

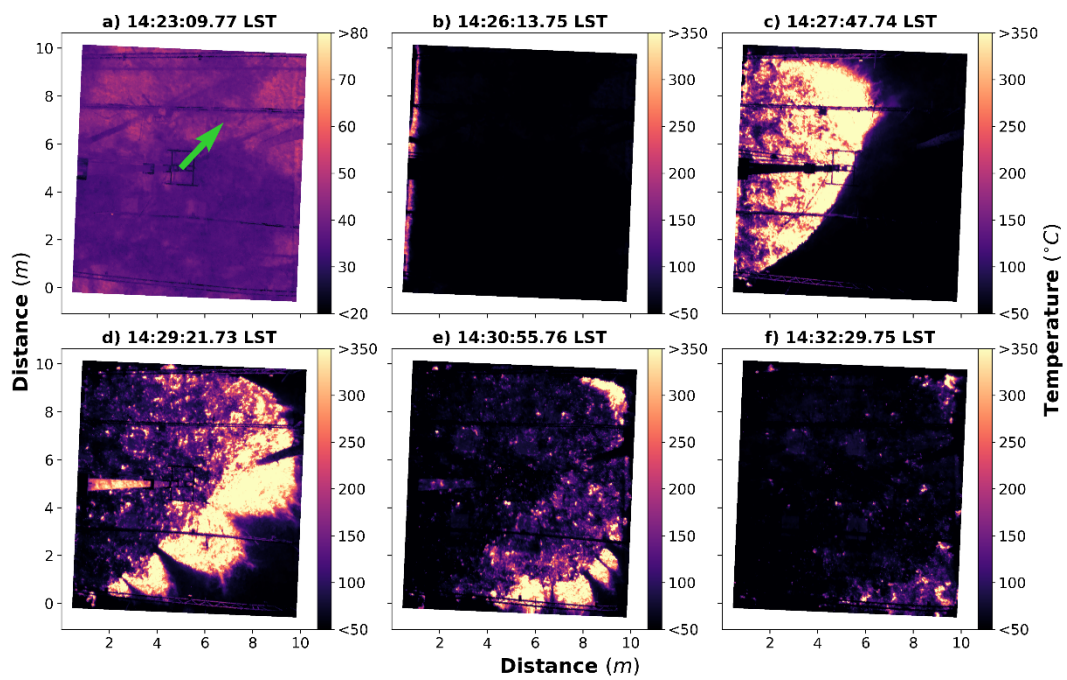


Figure 3. Infrared images taken at 10 m above the center of the burn plot showing fuel bed temperature before a), near b) and after c-f) ignition. The green arrow indicates the direction of background wind.

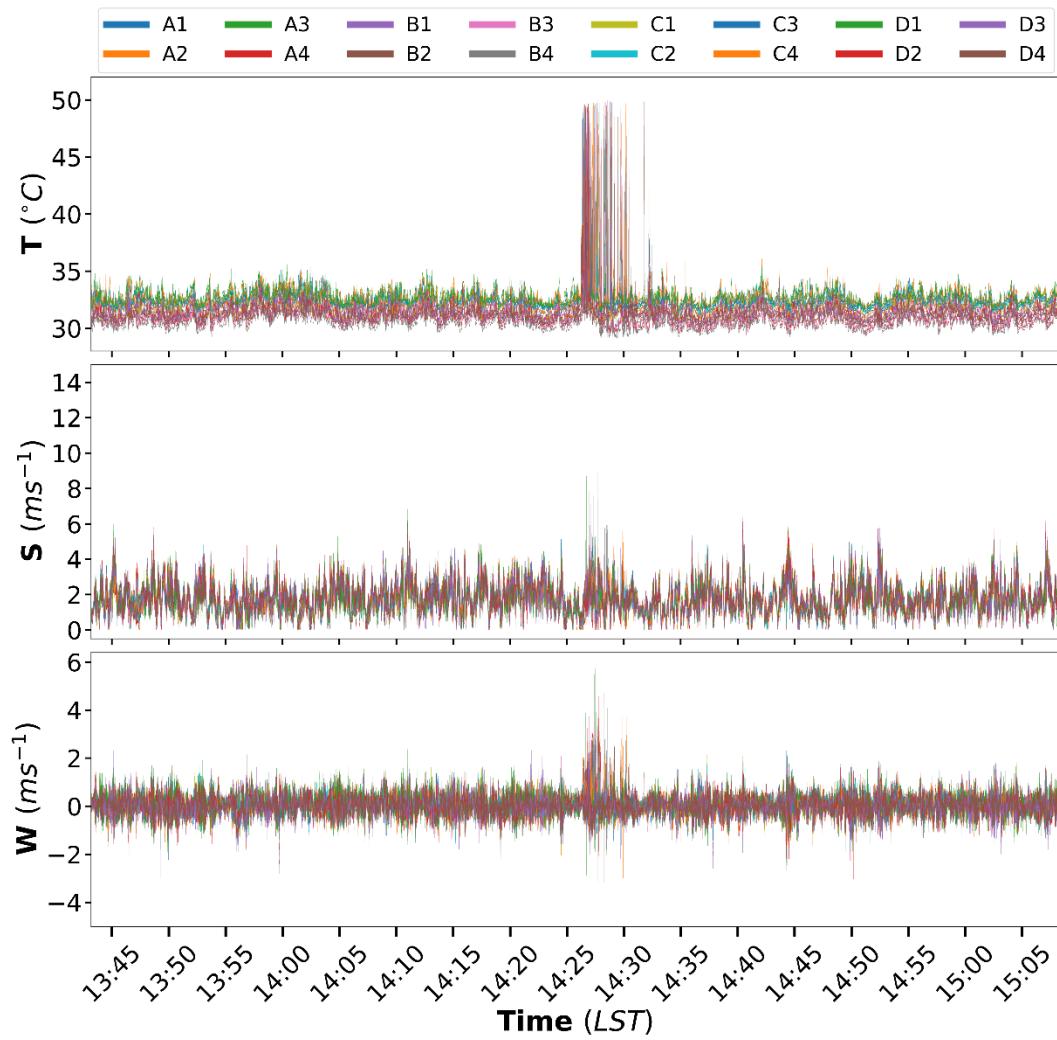


Figure 4. Time series of 10-Hz observations of temperature (T), horizontal wind speed (S) and vertical wind component (w) observed by the 16 sonic anemometers.

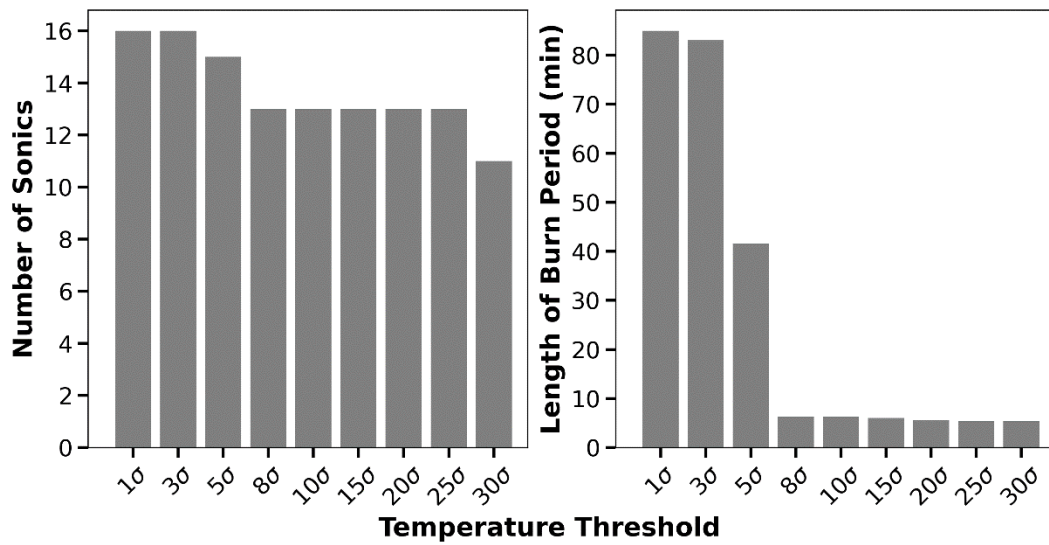


Figure 5. The number of sonic anemometers that recorded temperatures at or above a given threshold value (left) and the length of period over which the threshold was reached or exceeded (right). The symbol σ denotes pre-burn period temperature standard deviation.

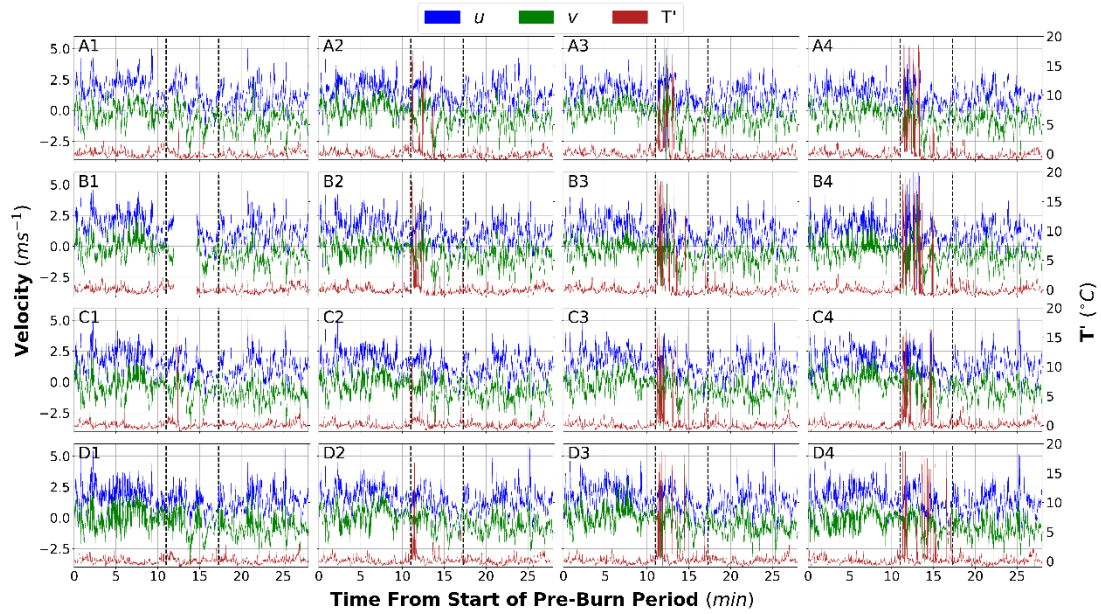


Figure 6. Time series of 10 Hz streamwise (u , blue) and cross-stream (v , green) wind velocity components and temperature perturbations (T' , red) recorded by each sonic anemometer at 2.5 m above the ground. The vertical dashed black lines indicate the burn period determined by the first and last occurrence of $T' \geq 8\sigma$. Time is the minutes since the start of the pre-burn period.

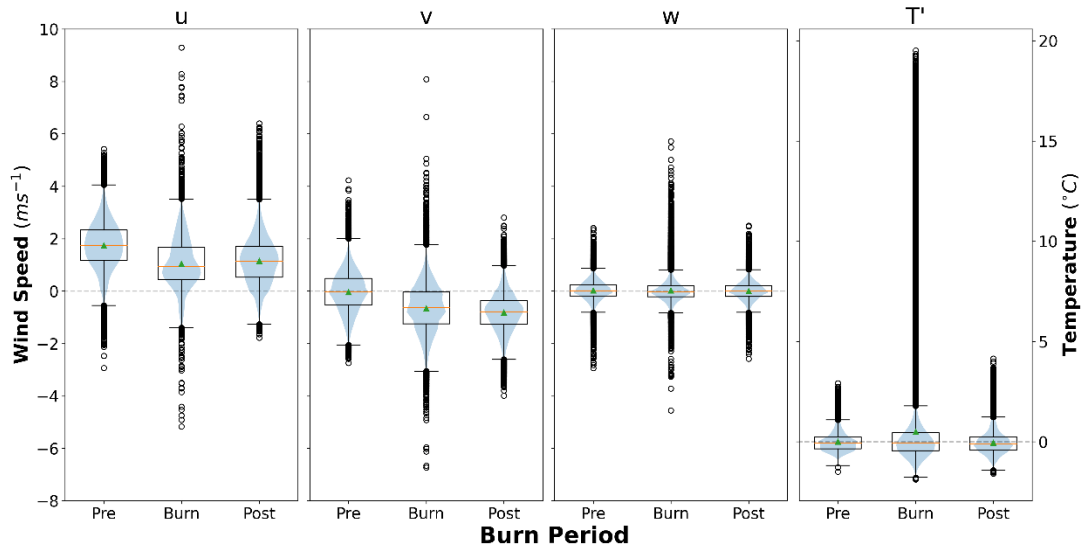


Figure 7. Distributions of 10 Hz streamwise (u), cross-stream (v), and vertical (w) wind velocity components, and temperature perturbations (T') from all 16 sonic anemometers during pre-burn, burn and post-burn periods. The box represents the 25th and 75th percentile of the data, with data inside the whiskers representing 99.3% of the data. The orange line in the boxes is the median value, the green triangle is the mean, and the blue shading is the density of values of the data.

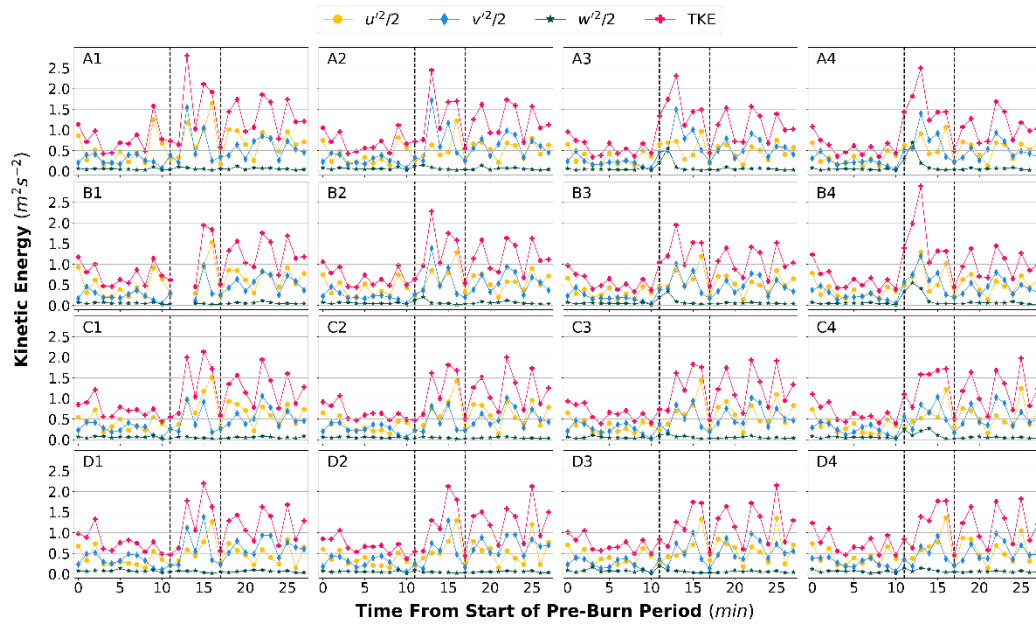


Figure 8. Time series of 1-minute averaged turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) (red) for each sonic anemometer and the three components of velocity variance, $u'^2/2$ (yellow), $v'^2/2$ (blue) and $w'^2/2$ (green), that make up the TKE . The vertical dashed black lines indicate the burn period determined by the first and last occurrence of $T' \geq \delta\sigma$. Time is the minutes since the start of the pre-burn period

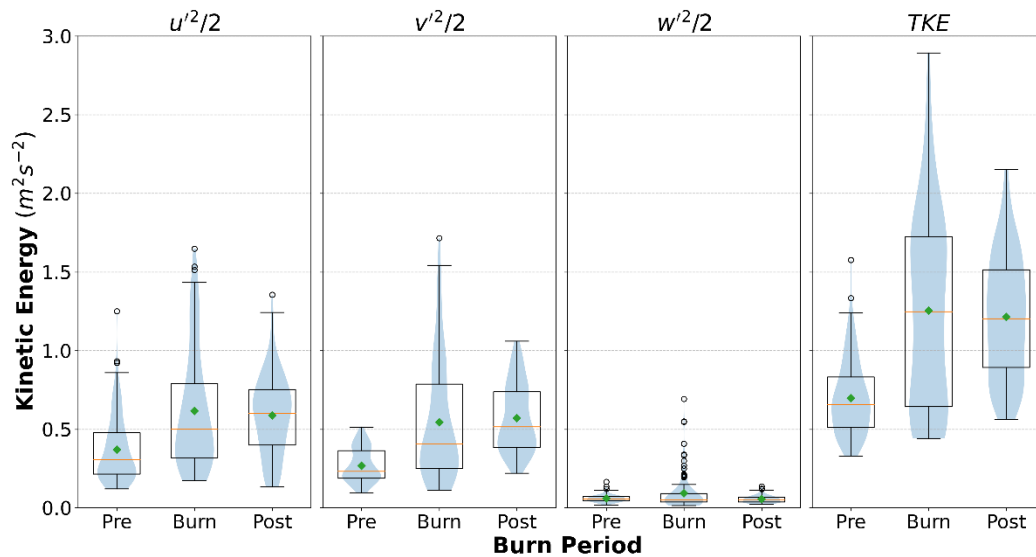


Figure 9. Distributions of turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) and the three components of velocity variance ($u'^2/2$, $v'^2/2$ and $w'^2/2$) that make up the TKE from all 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn and post-burn periods. The box represents the 25th and 75th percentile of the data, with data inside the whiskers representing 99.3% of the data. The orange line in the boxes is the median value, the green triangle is the mean, and the blue shading is the density of values of the data.

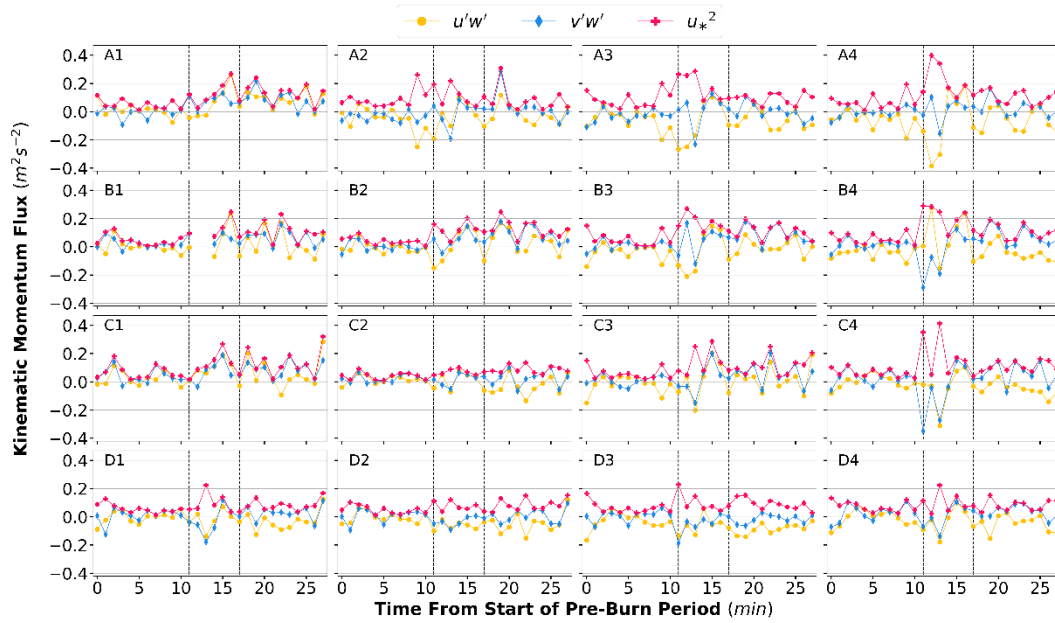


Figure 10. Time series of 1-minute averaged friction velocity squared (u_*^2 , pink pluses) and its two components, the streamwise kinematic momentum flux, $\overline{u'w'}$ (yellow circle) and the cross-stream kinematic momentum flux, $\overline{v'w'}$ (blue diamonds), for each of the 16 sonic anemometers. The vertical dashed black lines indicate the burn period determined by the first and last occurrence of $T' \geq 8\sigma$. Time is the minutes since the start of the pre-burn period.

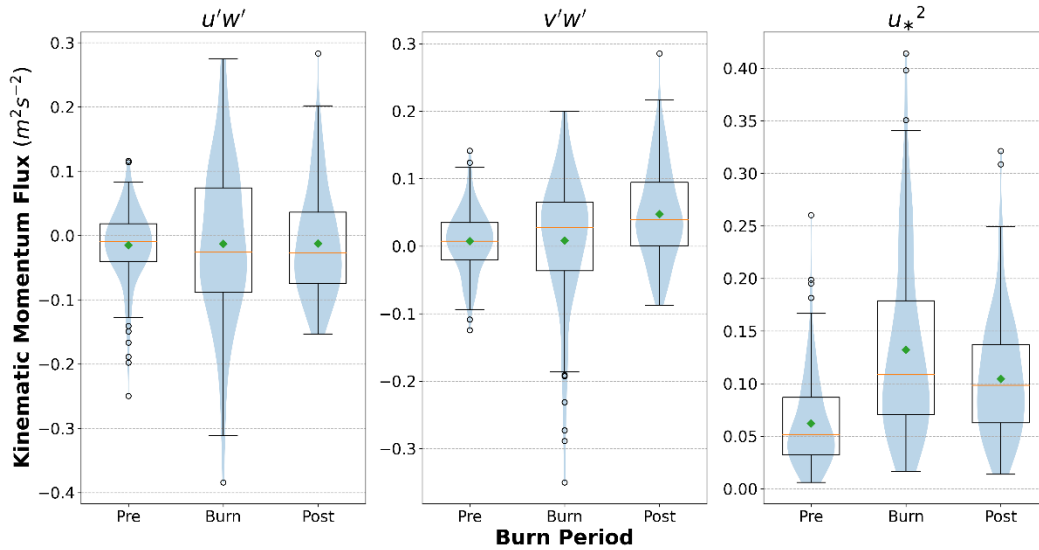


Figure 11. Distributions of friction velocity squared (u_*^2) and its two components ($\overline{u'w'}$ and $\overline{v'w'}$) from all 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods. The box represents the 25th and 75th percentile of the data, with data inside the whiskers representing 99.3% of the data. The orange line in the boxes is the median value, the green triangle is the mean, and the blue shading is the density of values of the data.

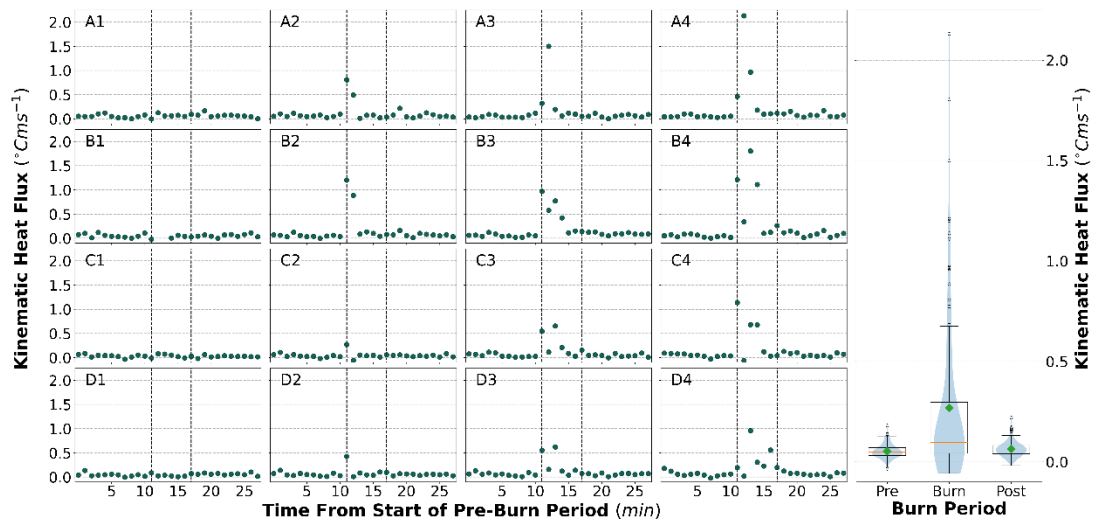


Figure 12. Time series of 1-minute averaged heat flux for each of the 16 sonic anemometers (left) and the distribution of heat fluxes from all 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods (right). The box represents the 25th and 75th percentile of the data, with data inside the whiskers representing 99.3% of the data. The orange line in the boxes is the median value, the green triangle is the mean, and the blue shading is the density of values of the data.

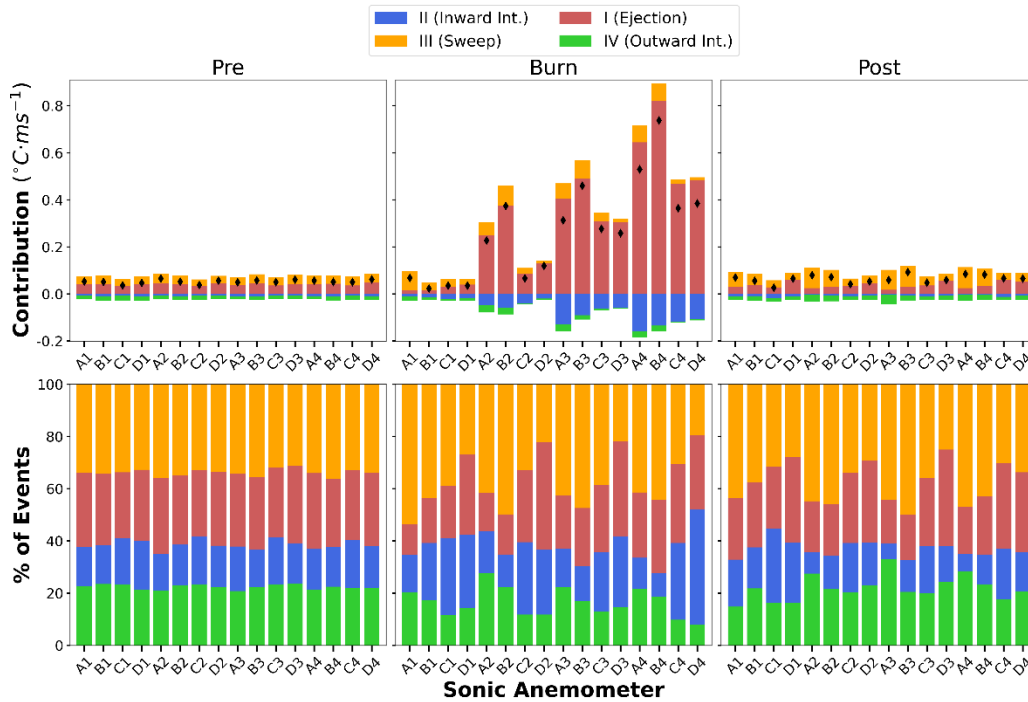


Figure 13. Quadrant analysis of the instantaneous vertical kinematic turbulent heat fluxes showing the contributions to the total flux from (top row), and the percent of (bottom row) the four types of events: outward interaction (green), ejection (red), inward interaction (blue), and sweep (orange) for each of the 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods. The black diamonds in the top row indicate the total heat flux values. The sonic anemometers are arranged from west to east roughly following the fire spread across the burn plot.

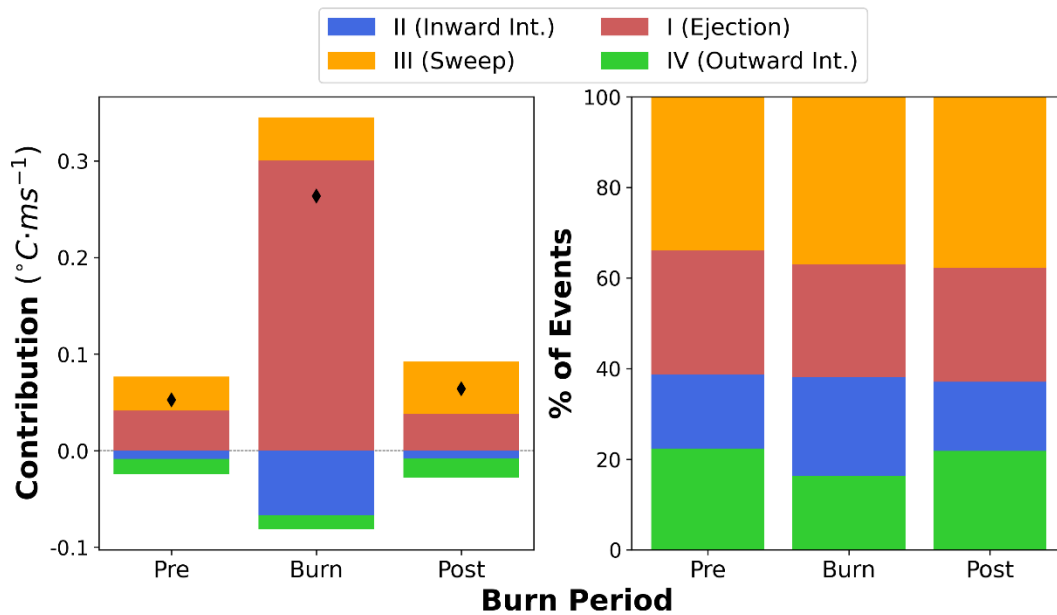


Figure 14. Quadrant analysis of the instantaneous vertical kinematic turbulent heat fluxes showing the contributions to the total flux from (top row), and the percent of (bottom row) the four types of events: outward interaction (green), ejection (red), inward interaction (blue), and sweep (orange) for all 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods. The black diamonds in the top row indicate the total heat flux values. The sonic anemometers are arranged from west to east roughly following the fire spread across the burn plot.

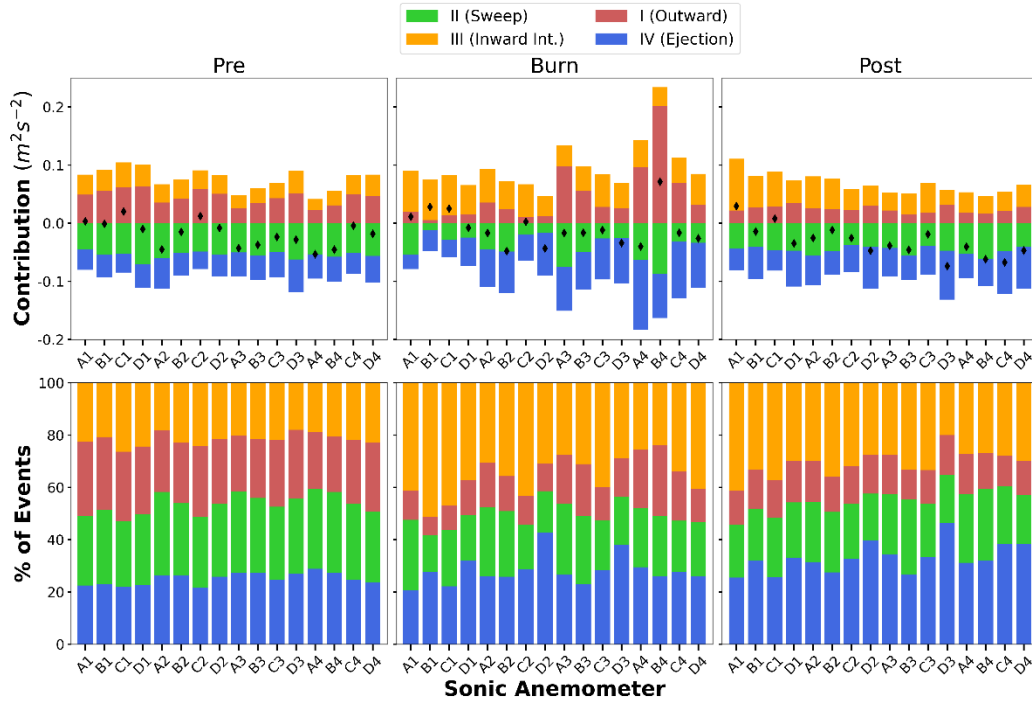


Figure 15. Quadrant analysis of the instantaneous vertical kinematic turbulent fluxes of horizontal momentum showing the contributions to the total flux from (top row), and the percent of (bottom row) the four types of events: outward interaction (red), sweep (green), inward interaction (orange), and ejection (blue) for each of the 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods. The black diamonds in the top row indicate the total flux values. The sonic anemometers are arranged from west to east roughly following the fire spread across the burn plot.

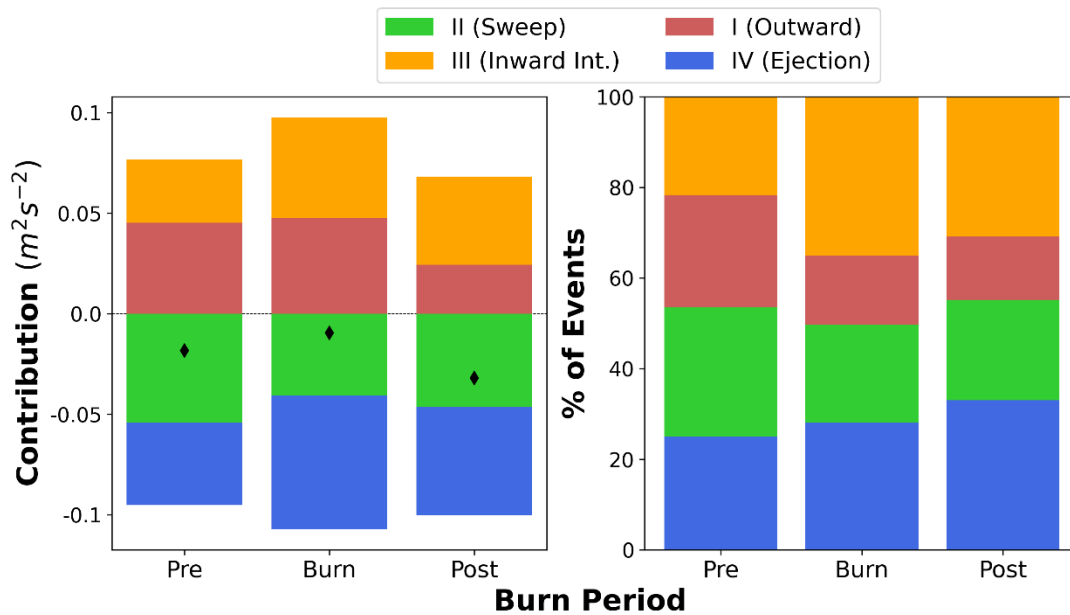


Figure 16. Quadrant analysis of the instantaneous vertical kinematic turbulent fluxes of horizontal momentum showing the contributions to the total flux from (top row), and the percent of (bottom row) the four types of events: outward interaction (red), sweep (green), inward interaction (orange), and ejection (blue) for all 16 sonic anemometers during the pre-burn, burn, and post-burn periods. The black diamonds in the top row indicate the total flux values. The sonic anemometers are arranged from west to east roughly following the fire spread across the burn plot.