

1 **Supplementary Material for “Large enhancements in southern hemisphere satellite-observed**  
2 **trace gases due to the 2019/2020 Australian wildfires”**

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6 **Supplementary Material (SM)-1: Satellite Observed Nitrogen Dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>)**

7 We use tropospheric column NO<sub>2</sub> (TCNO<sub>2</sub>) data from the TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument  
8 (TROPOMI) on-board the ESA’s Sentinel-5 Precursor (S5P) satellite (Veefkind et al., 2012). S5P was  
9 launched in October 2017 into a sun-synchronous polar orbit with a local overpass time of  
10 approximately 13.30. TROPOMI is a nadir-viewing instrument with spectral ranges of 270-500 nm  
11 (UV-Vis), 675-775 nm (near-infrared, NIR) and 2305-2385 nm (shortwave-infrared, SWIR). The  
12 TROPOMI retrievals represent the highest resolution of any current tropospheric trace gases sensor  
13 with a nadir horizontal resolution of 3.5 km × 7.0 km in the UV-Vis-NIR and 7.0 km × 7.0 km in the  
14 SWIR.

15 The response of TCNO<sub>2</sub> to the NDJ 2019/2020 Australian fires is less pronounced relative to the  
16 other trace gases investigated here due to the relatively short NO<sub>2</sub> lifetime of a few hours (Logan  
17 1983; Alvarado et al., 2010). In December 2018 (**Figure S1a**), there are clear TCNO<sub>2</sub> hotspots (0.5-1.5  
18 ×10<sup>15</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>) in the north-western territories which clearly overlap with GFAS FRP (**Figure 1a**  
19 of the main manuscript). Similar relationships are seen near the coast in Queensland. Clear urban  
20 signals exist such as Sydney (over 4.0 ×10<sup>15</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>), Melbourne (over 4.0 ×10<sup>15</sup>  
21 molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>) and Brisbane/Adelaide (1.0-2.0 ×10<sup>15</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>). However, in December 2019  
22 (**Figure S1b**), there was a large spatial increase in TCNO<sub>2</sub> values > 4.0 ×10<sup>15</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup> around  
23 Sydney. Again, these TCNO<sub>2</sub> hotspots are spatially correlated with fire activity (**Figure 1**) suggesting  
24 that fires have degraded the air quality in urban regions. **Figure S1c** shows the difference between  
25 December 2019 and 2018, where there are mixed TCNO<sub>2</sub> differences across the northern states,  
26 with enhancements (0.0-1.0 ×10<sup>15</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>) in the Western Australia territory and along the  
27 south-eastern coastline (2.0 ×10<sup>15</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>). To rule out other sources (e.g. urban) driving the  
28 TCNO<sub>2</sub> enhancement along the south-eastern coastline, TCNO<sub>2</sub> values have been weighted by FRP  
29 over the region (black box, **Figure S1c**) for the 2018/2019 (**Figure S1d**, red line) and 2019/2020  
30 (**Figure S1d**, blue line). The FRP-weighted TCNO<sub>2</sub> signal for both seasons highlights sizeable  
31 variability, but 2019/2020 TCNO<sub>2</sub> values are larger in the first 20 days of November (3.0-6.0 ×10<sup>15</sup>  
32 molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>), peak in early December (>7.5 ×10<sup>15</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>) and remain larger for most of  
33 December. Overall, the time period average 2018/2019 and 2019/2020 FRP-weighted TCNO<sub>2</sub> values  
34 are approximately 2.2 ×10<sup>15</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup> and 3.3 ×10<sup>15</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively. To reduce the  
35 likelihood of this fire-TCNO<sub>2</sub> signal being dominated by other sources, **Figure S1e** shows time-series  
36 where the 2019/2020 TCNO<sub>2</sub> has been weighted by the 2018/2019 FRP and the 2018/2019 TCNO<sub>2</sub>  
37 has been weighted by the 2019/2020 FRP. The 2018/2019 TCNO<sub>2</sub> time-series (red lines in **Figures**  
38 **S1d & e**) are generally similar suggesting the NO<sub>2</sub> signal is not overly dependent on fire activity.  
39 However, in the 2019/2020 season (blue lines in **Figure S1e & d**), the time-series are substantially  
40 different where the 2019/2020 TCNO<sub>2</sub> series weighted by the 2018/2019 FRP is lower (0-3 ×10<sup>15</sup>  
41 molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>). Therefore, the large 2019/2020 TCNO<sub>2</sub> values are highly likely to be driven primarily  
42 by fire activity along the south-east coastline, especially around Sydney.

43 **SM-2: Infrared and Microwave Sounding Extended Scheme**

44 The original Infrared and Microwave Sounding (IMS) scheme was developed to retrieve water  
45 vapour, temperature and stratospheric ozone profiles from the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding  
46 Interferometer (IASI), Microwave Humidity Sounder (MHS) and Advanced Microwave Sounding Unit  
47 (AMSU) on the MetOp-A satellite (Siddans et al., 2015). This was used to produce a Version 1 data  
48 set from the MetOp-A mission 2007-16 (Siddans et al., 2018), which was delivered to the ESA  
49 Climate Change Initiative (<http://cci.esa.int/watervapour>).

50 The IMS scheme uses RTTOV as the radiative transfer model (forward model, FM). The optimal  
51 estimation method (OEM) is used to infer the atmosphere / surface state which best matches the  
52 observations, taking into account prior knowledge of the state. This is achieved by minimising the  
53 cost function:

$$\chi^2 = (\mathbf{y} - F(\mathbf{x}))^T \mathbf{S}_y^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - F(\mathbf{x})) + (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{S}_a^{-1} (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{x})$$

54 **Equation 1**

55  $\mathbf{y}$  is a vector containing each measurement used by the retrieval (a subset of all the channels  
56 available);  $\mathbf{S}_y$  is a covariance matrix describing the errors on the measurements;  $F(\mathbf{x})$  represents  
57 the FM (RTTOV);  $\mathbf{S}_a$  is the *a priori* error covariance matrix, which describes the assumed errors on  
58 the *a priori* estimate of the state,  $\mathbf{a}$ . The solution state which minimises the cost function is found  
59 via the Levenberg Marquardt approach (Rodgers, 2000), using the weighting function matrix,  $\mathbf{K}$ . This  
60 contains the derivatives of the measurements with respect to each element in the state vector  
61 (evaluated by the FM at a particular estimate of the state).

62 The IMS scheme has now been extended to retrieve tropospheric ozone, CO profiles and column  
63 amounts of additional trace gases, dust and volcanic sulphuric acid aerosol. Retrieval of those  
64 constituents benefit from accurate, co-located temperature, humidity and spectral emissivity which  
65 are co-retrieved by the IMS extended scheme. The IMS extension builds on new capabilities of  
66 RTTOV12 to model atmospheric scattering. Cloud and aerosol are modelled as scattering layers and  
67 each are retrieved in terms of an optical depth and layer height. Spectral absorption features of  
68 methanol, ammonia, formic acid, sulphur dioxide and nitric acid are optically thin. Therefore, these  
69 gases are retrieved by adopting a fixed reference profile shape for each and including in the state  
70 vector a scale factor for that profile with an extremely large *a priori* uncertainty. The reference  
71 profile for each gas is a constant i.e. height independent volume mixing ratio of 1 ppbv. The  
72 retrieved scale factors correspond, therefore, to column-averaged mixing ratios in ppbv which would  
73 pertain if the assumed flat profile shape was correct.

74 Most variables in the IMS extended state vector can be modelled directly by RTTOV12 (temperature,  
75 water vapour, ozone and carbon monoxide profiles, surface spectral emissivity and mass mixing ratio  
76 profiles of aerosol components). RTTOV12 can simulate variations in these quantities and returns  
77 the weighting functions needed for their optimal estimation. Although RTTOV12 does not explicitly  
78 model other minor gases, including methanol, it can compute the derivatives of simulated spectral  
79 radiances with respect to changes in the total absorption coefficient profile. Since their absorption  
80 features are optically thin, the radiance perturbation due to each gas can be calculated and added to  
81 the directly calculated RTTOV12 radiance as follows:

$$R'(\mathbf{x}) = R(\mathbf{x}) + x_{gas} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{dR(\mathbf{x})}{dk_i} C_{gas} n_i$$

82 **Equation 2**

84 Where  $R(\mathbf{x})$  is the RTTOV12 model simulation excluding minor gases. For a given gas in layer  $i$  of the  
 85  $N$  ( $=101$ ) layers in the RTTOV12 model atmosphere,  $k_i$  is the (total) volume absorption coefficient  
 86 ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ),  $C_{gas}$  is the absorption cross section ( $\text{cm}^2$ );  $n_i$  is the number density (molecules  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ) at level  $i$   
 87 and  $x_{gas}$  is the scale factor for the gas (as included in state vector  $\mathbf{x}$ ). Vertical sensitivity (e.g.  
 88 air/surface temperature contrast, presence of cloud, optical thickness of other gases) is accounted  
 89 for through the modelling of  $\frac{dR(\mathbf{x})}{dk_i}$  by RTTOV12.

90 In total 119 IASI channels are used. Channels selected in the CO and methanol spectral ranges are  
 91 indicated in **Figure S2a** and **b**. The measurement error covariance for IASI is assumed to be diagonal  
 92 with variances as defined in the L1 file.

93 CO vertical profiles are retrieved in the extended IMS scheme in an analogous way to temperature,  
 94 water vapour and ozone profiles in the original IMS scheme. Profiles are defined by the retrieval  
 95 state vector (see below) on the 101 pressure levels on which the RTTOV12 coefficients for IASI are  
 96 given. Surface temperature and surface emissivity are also defined by the state vector. Values for 2m  
 97 temperature and 2m water vapour (also input parameters to RTTOV12) are defined by interpolating  
 98 the profiles defined by the state vector. Surface pressure is defined from European Centre for  
 99 Medium-Range Weather Forecasting (ECMWF) analysis (ERA-Interim) , adjusted to the mean altitude  
 100 within the IASI footprint assuming the logarithm of the surface pressure varies linearly with the  
 101 difference between the IASI altitude and that of the ECMWF model. This is the only parameter  
 102 defined directly from NWP data in the IMS version 1 data.

103 The IMS state-vector  $\mathbf{x}$  is defined such that there are no correlations between different retrieved  
 104 product so corresponding off-diagonal elements in the prior covariance matrix are all zero.

105 Temperature (including surface temperature), water vapour, ozone and CO profiles are internally  
 106 represented using basis functions,  $\mathbf{M}_x$ , which are the Eigenvectors of a covariance matrix which  
 107 represents the prior variability of the profile on the 101 RTTOV pressure levels. 28 vectors are fitted  
 108 for water vapour, 18 for water vapour, 10 for ozone and CO. Covariance matrices were computed  
 109 using analyses for the three days 17 April, 17 July, 17 October 2013 from ECMWF for temperature  
 110 and water vapour and the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS) for ozone and CO. The  
 111 zonal mean over all three days was computed and the covariance matrix used to define the state  
 112 vector was calculated from the differences between all the individual profiles and their zonal mean.  
 113 Global variability in CO during those days included that due to wild fires, the eigenvectors are  
 114 therefore capable of representing plumes from such sources. The zonal mean and covariances were  
 115 computed in K for temperature and  $\ln(\text{vmr})$  for water vapour, ozone and CO. The state vector  
 116 comprises the coefficients of the Eigenvectors of the covariance matrix. Temperature profiles in (K)  
 117 on the 101 RTTOV pressure levels are defined from the corresponding 28 elements of the state  
 118 vector as follows:

$$119 \quad \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{m}_T(\lambda) + \mathbf{M}_T \mathbf{x}_T$$

120 **Equation 3**

121 Where  $\mathbf{m}_T$  is the zonal mean (interpolated to the latitude of observation);  $\mathbf{M}_T$  is the matrix of  
 122 Eigenvectors and  $\mathbf{x}_T$  the temperature sub-set of the state vector.

123 Water vapour, ozone profiles and CO (in ppmv) are defined similarly (now with exponent):

$$124 \quad \mathbf{w} = e^{\mathbf{m}_w(\lambda) + \mathbf{M}_w \mathbf{x}_w}$$

125 **Equation 4**

126 In terms of the state vector representation used in the OEM, the *a priori* state vector elements for  
127 temperature, water vapour, ozone and CO are all zero (the zonal mean profile is added in the FM).  
128 The prior covariance is diagonal with variances given by the Eigenvalues of the covariance matrix.

129 In order to speed up convergence, coefficients in the first guess state are estimated from ERA-  
130 Interim analyses using the above equations. Surface spectral emissivity is represented in the state-  
131 vector by a set of eigenvectors derived from the RTTOV emissivity atlas whose eigenvalues are co-  
132 retrieved with other variables (Siddans et al., 2015).

133 For column average CO, agreement with CAMS re-analysis in multi-year time-series is generally  
134 within  $\pm \sim 10$  ppbv (**Figure S3**). Vertical sensitivity of the CO retrieval is illustrated in **Figure S4** which  
135 shows example averaging kernels as applied to the CAMS profiles for tropical land and mid-latitude  
136 sea.

137 In initial fits to IASI observations with the IMS extended scheme, systematic spectral residuals were  
138 found (below  $2000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) which are significant compared to the instrument noise. These are  
139 accounted for in the retrieval by fitting two “spectral residual patterns”, vectors  $\mathbf{b}_0$  and  $\mathbf{b}_1$  which  
140 were derived by averaging the differences between observed and simulated spectra over sea in the  
141 latitude range  $60^\circ\text{S}$  to  $60^\circ\text{N}$  (for 3 selected days in each season). These simulations adopted ECMWF  
142 analyses for temperature and water vapour and CAMS analyses for ozone and assumed no methanol  
143 to be present. The difference spectra were analysed to obtain the mean residual spectrum ( $\mathbf{b}_0$ ) and  
144 the spectrum of an additional component which varies linearly with off-nadir scan-angle ( $\mathbf{b}_1$ ). These  
145 two fixed patterns were then added into the forward model for use in subsequent analyses:

$$146 \quad F(x) = R'(x) - x_{b_0}\mathbf{b}_0 - x_{b_1}\mathbf{b}_1$$

#### Equation 5

147 Where  $x_{b_0}$  and  $x_{b_1}$  are retrieved parameters (included in the state vector, with negligible prior  
148 constraint). Vectors  $\mathbf{b}_0$  and  $\mathbf{b}_1$  are both fixed to zero in the CO fit window.

149 From **Equation 2**, it is straightforward to derive weighting function profiles,  $\mathbf{K}_{gas}$ , for each minor gas  
150 (derivative of  $F(x)$  with respect to the number density at each level). Example weighting functions  
151 for the methanol spectral feature at  $1034 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  are shown in **Figure S5**.

152 It is important to note that infrared sensitivity to methanol varies greatly with height. Above the  
153 surface, the weighting function is negative because methanol absorbs radiation emitted from the  
154 warmer surface. However, sensitivity is low near to the ground due to the very small difference  
155 between the atmospheric temperature and that of the surface. If the surface temperature is lower  
156 than the atmospheric layer above, the methanol weighting function in that layer will be positive.  
157 Because the top-of-atmosphere spectral signature of methanol is strongly dependent on the  
158 temperature profile and surface-air temperature contrast, the shape of the methanol reference  
159 profile adopted in the fit is critical to the retrieved scale factor and hence column average mixing  
160 ratio. Adopting a constant mixing ratio with height as reference profile will result in a smaller column  
161 average being retrieved than would be the case if the reference profile contained more methanol  
162 near the surface. If methanol is assumed to be near the surface, where sensitivity is weak, then a  
163 larger amount is needed to explain a given observed spectral signature than would be the case if the  
164 methanol is assumed to be at a higher, colder altitude, where the sensitivity is stronger. In order to  
165 look at geographical and temporal variations consistently it is desirable to apply a retrieval scheme  
166 uniformly across the globe. Rather than tailor the shape of the reference profile according to  
167 expectations from an emission inventory, the flat profile shape has therefore been adopted  
168 everywhere. Over emission sources, however, methanol is usually located close to the surface, so it  
169

170 is to be expected that this reference profile will lead to a lower column average being retrieved than  
 171 a realistic model would predict. This can be accounted for in model comparisons by applying  
 172 averaging kernels which characterise the sensitivity of the retrieved methanol column average to  
 173 perturbations in the true methanol *profile*:

$$174 \quad \mathbf{A}_{gas} = \mathbf{G}_{x_{gas}} \mathbf{K}_{gas}$$

175 **Equation 6**

176 Where the matrix  $\mathbf{K}_{gas}$  contains the derivatives of the measurements with respect to methanol  
 177 profile perturbations at each of the vertical levels in the FM and  $\mathbf{G}_{x_{gas}}$  is the derivative of the  
 178 retrieved methanol scale factor with respect to perturbations in the measurement vector.  $\mathbf{G}_{x_{gas}}$  is  
 179 one row of the retrieval gain matrix (containing the derivatives of each state vector element with  
 180 respect to perturbations in each measurement), given by the standard equation (Rodgers, 2000):

$$181 \quad \mathbf{G} = \langle \mathbf{K}^t \mathbf{S}_y^{-1} \mathbf{K} + \mathbf{S}_a^{-1} \rangle^{-1} \mathbf{K}^t \mathbf{S}_y^{-1}$$

182 **Equation 7**

183 Where  $\mathbf{K}$  is the weighting function matrix giving the derivative of the forward model with respect to  
 184 all elements of the state vector (including the methanol scale factor). **Figure S5** shows that because  
 185  $\mathbf{G}_{x_{gas}}$  is a vector (same dimension as the measurement vector), the methanol averaging kernel  $\mathbf{A}_{gas}$   
 186 (dimension FM levels) has practically identical shape to the methanol weighting function,  $\mathbf{K}_{gas}$   
 187 (though usually with reversed sign). Magnitudes of the elements of  $\mathbf{A}_{gas}$  depend on the assumed  
 188 reference profile shape (because the elements of  $\mathbf{K}$  corresponding to the methanol scale factor  
 189 depend on the profile shape).

190  $\mathbf{A}_{gas}$  can be used to estimate the column amount,  $x_{iso:m}$ , that the retrieval is expected to return  
 191 given a model methanol concentration profile,  $\mathbf{n}_m$ .<sup>1</sup>

$$x_{meth:m} = \mathbf{A}_{gas} \mathbf{n}_m$$

192 **Equation 8**

193 This accounts for the effects of varying vertical sensitivity and the profile shape assumed in the  
 194 retrieval. Because the reference profile shape is implicit to  $\mathbf{A}_{gas}$ , changing that will change  $x_{meth:m}$   
 195 as well as the retrieved column average, but it will not change the relative agreement between the  
 196 two. (Changing the assumed profile shape simply scales both quantities.)

197 The solution error covariance matrix for an optimal estimation retrieval is given by:

$$198 \quad \mathbf{S}_x = \left( \mathbf{S}_a^{-1} + \mathbf{K}^t \mathbf{S}_y^{-1} \mathbf{K} \right)^{-1}$$

199 **Equation 9**

200 The estimated error on the retrieved methanol column average is given by the square-root of the  
 201 diagonal element of  $\mathbf{S}_x$  which corresponds to  $x_{gas}$ .

202 The IMS extended scheme is applied to all scenes, irrespective of cloud, however the presence of  
 203 extensive, thick cloud limits retrieval quality and of course no information on minor gases such as CO  
 204 or methanol is available below optically thick cloud. A simple test is used here: the difference in  
 205 brightness temperature between the IASI observed spectral radiance at 950 cm<sup>-1</sup> and that simulated  
 206 on the basis of temperature and humidity profiles and surface temperature interpolated from

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<sup>1</sup> The prior constraint for the retrieved methanol scale factor is negligible so can be neglected in Equation 8.

207 ECMWF analyses is calculated. If this difference (observation – simulation) is outside the range of -5  
208 to 15 K, the scene is flagged as cloudy. These scenes are not used at all in the analysis reported here.

209 The scheme applied here therefore differs in a number of key respects from that applied to global  
210 methanol retrieval from IASI reported by Razavi et al. (2011). Their scheme used brightness  
211 temperature differences between three channels near the methanol Q branch peak near  $1034\text{ cm}^{-1}$   
212 and six neighbouring channels where methanol absorption is low and conversions factors to  
213 methanol column derived from optimal estimation retrievals using online line-by-line modelling.  
214 Methanol is retrieved in four layers adopting a terrestrial and a marine profile as prior with  
215 variability from a chemical-transport model as covariance matrix diagonals and a long correlation  
216 length for off-diagonals. It is also radically different from the neural net scheme employed by Franco  
217 et al. (2018).

### 218 **SM-3: Satellite Observed Methanol ( $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ )**

219 Methanol ( $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ ) infrared absorption features are much weaker than those of CO and background  
220 levels of  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$  over ocean outside fire plumes are too low to be detectable in individual soundings  
221 above IASI's level of noise-equivalent spectral radiance (NESR), so retrieved values there are zero  $\pm$   
222 NESR. At locations of temperature inversion, where methanol spectral features appear in emission  
223 above a baseline of colder surface emission, retrieved scaling factors for the methanol reference  
224 profile are negative (see SM-1). Systematic errors, due for example to insufficiently accurate  
225 handling of interference from neighbouring spectral lines, can also result in averaged  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$  being  
226 negative in these marine regions, though not significantly so in comparison to their estimated errors  
227 (see **SM-2, Figure S6**). The white region in **Figure S6** shows where we have filtered out retrievals  
228 with large errors (i.e.  $>15.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules/ $\text{cm}^2$ ). In the multi-month average (November-December  
229 2019, January 2020) there still appears to be a negative offset in the IASI retrievals. For this work, we  
230 subtracted a negative background value of  $-3.68 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  from individual retrievals used  
231 in **Figure 4** and **Figure 5** of the main manuscript. This background value was based on data between  
232 the 1<sup>st</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> January 2020 covering part of the North Pacific ( $135^\circ\text{E}$ - $115^\circ\text{W}$ ,  $0$ - $30^\circ\text{N}$ ).

233 Intercomparing the fire seasons (November-December-January, NDJ), IASI detects clear  
234 enhancements in  $\text{TCCH}_3\text{OH}$  during 2019/2020. Over Australia and South America (**Figure S7a & c**),  
235  $\text{TCCH}_3\text{OH}$  ranges between  $8.0$ - $15.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  and  $6.0$ - $10.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ , in both  
236 NDJ 2018/2019 and 2019/2020. In the 2018/2019 fire season, background values (i.e. over the  
237 central South Pacific) between  $0.0$  and  $3.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ . The Hovmöller diagram (**Figure S7b**)  
238 shows peak  $\text{TCCH}_3\text{OH}$  between  $8.0$  and  $12.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ , which generally co-locate with  
239 total-column carbon monoxide (TCCO) (**Figure 2b** of the main manuscript) for the 2018/2019 fire  
240 season. However, in the 2019/2020 fire season, while continental values remain similar, mean  
241 outflow  $\text{TCCH}_3\text{OH}$  ranges between  $3.0$  and  $8.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  (**Figure S7c**), while peaking  
242 above  $15.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  in the Hovmöller diagram (**Figure S7d**), highlighting substantial  
243 variability. In both cases, the difference plots (**Figure S7e & f**) show large-scale enhancements in  
244  $\text{TCCH}_3\text{OH}$  ( $1.5$ - $5.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules/ $\text{cm}^2$  and  $5.0$ - $10.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules/ $\text{cm}^2$  in the seasonal and daily  
245 differences, respectively) over the South Pacific propagating as far as South America (differences  
246 statistically significant at the 99% confidence level – see **Figure S7e**).

### 247 **SM-4: Satellite Observed Methane ( $\text{CH}_4$ )**

248 **Figure S8** shows example daily IASI maps of column average CO and methane mixing ratios for 2<sup>nd</sup>  
249 and 10<sup>th</sup> January 2020. On both days, there are pronounced CO plumes substantially larger than the

250 background values. For CH<sub>4</sub> the spatial coverage is sparser due to the stringent cloud filtering and  
251 other quality control needed for reliable retrieval of methane perturbations at the ~1% level.  
252 Furthermore, CH<sub>4</sub> in airmasses arriving from tropical latitudes is elevated to levels comparable to  
253 that in the fire plumes. These factors make it difficult to discriminate CH<sub>4</sub> enhancements due to the  
254 Australian fires. Although certain CH<sub>4</sub> features are co-located with the main CO plumes, their spatial  
255 extent is restricted by the stringent cloud filtering, as evident in **Figure S8c & d** where the CO plume  
256 offshoot (150-180°E, 60-40°S) is not sampled in the case of CH<sub>4</sub>. In the main manuscript (i.e. **Figure**  
257 **4**) we have therefore limited attention to the daily time-series of a spatially averaged domain and  
258 the 2-week anomaly with reference to the deseasonalised, detrended decadal January mean.

#### 259 **SM-5: Enhancement Ratio Uncertainties**

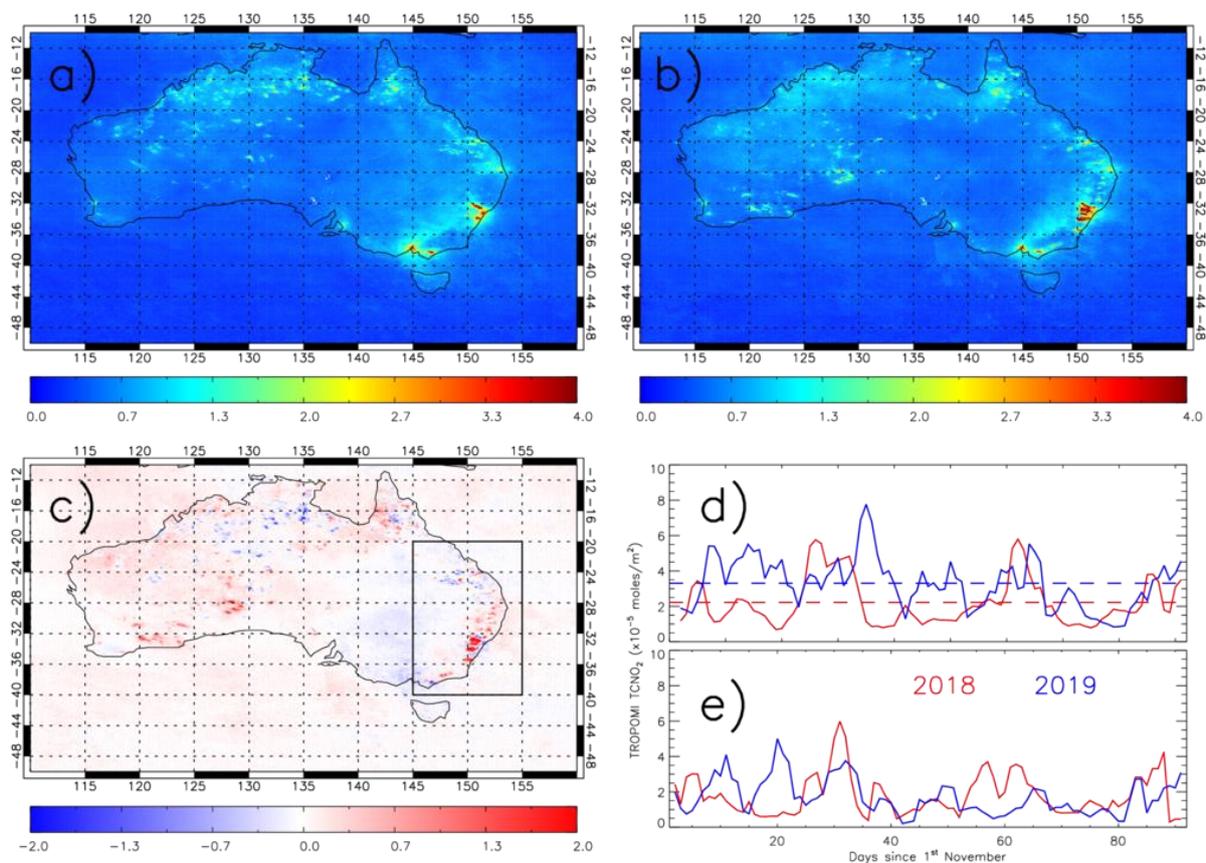
260 To test the robustness of the TCCH<sub>3</sub>OH:TCCO enhancement ratios, we moderately perturbed some  
261 of the subjective parameters used to derive these ratios. The key parameters were time length used  
262 to study the fire period, the in-plume threshold for TCCO and the in-plume threshold for TCCH<sub>3</sub>OH.  
263 The results are shown in **Table S1**, but overall we find that the derived enhancement ratios are  
264 relatively insensitive to moderate perturbations to these parameters.

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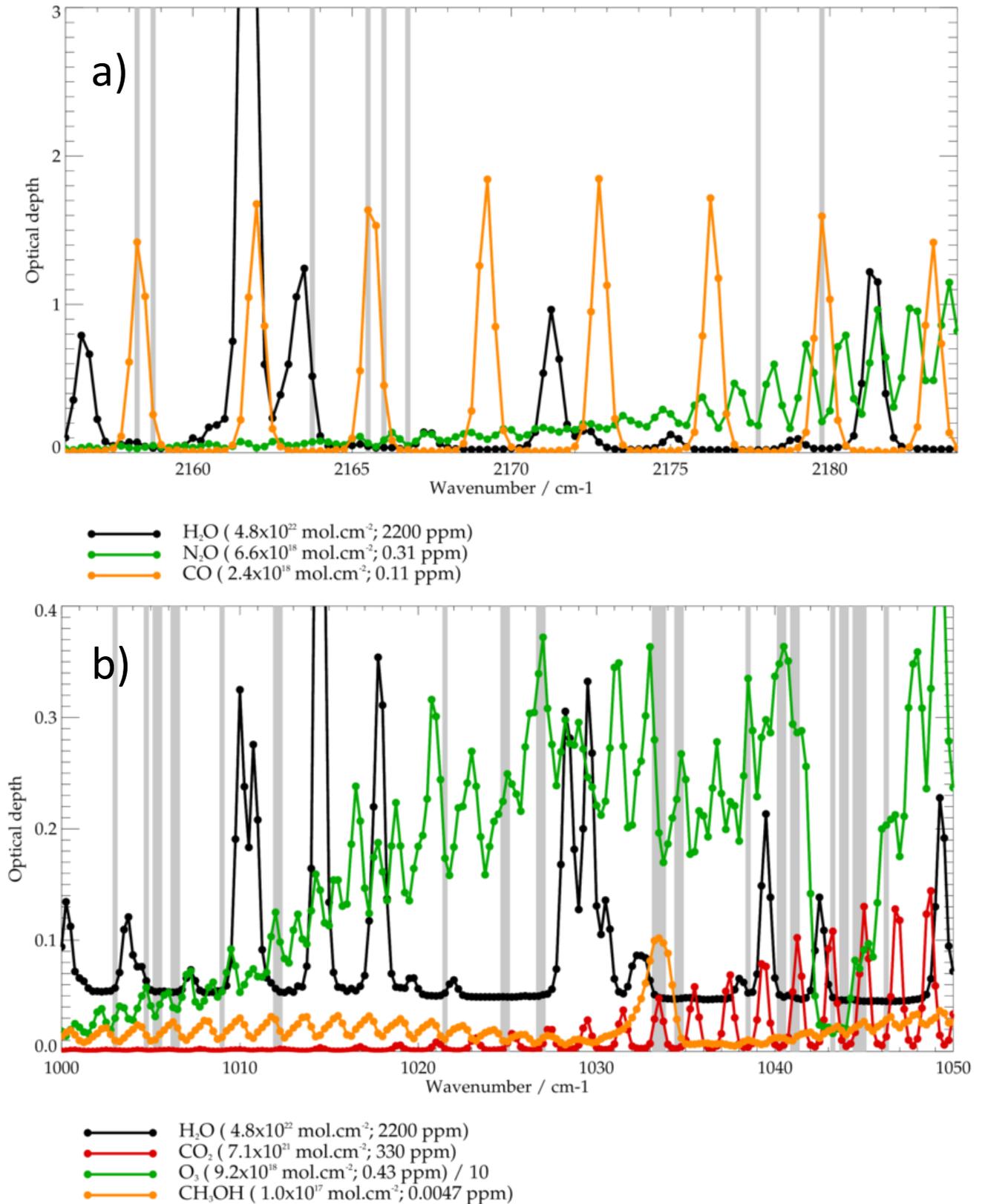
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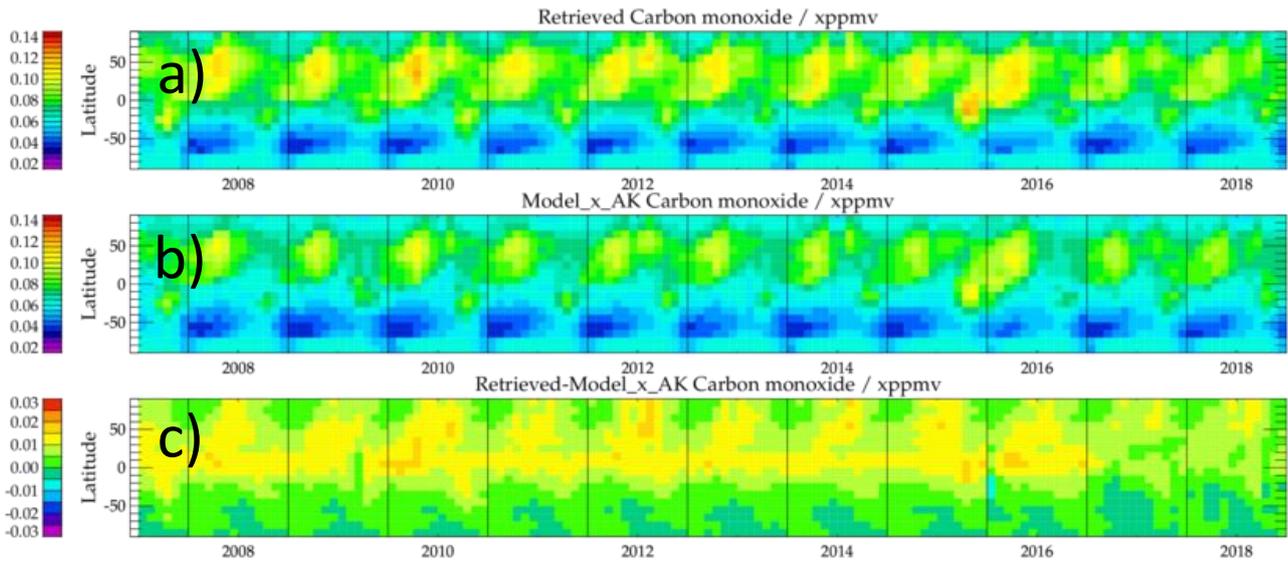
292 **Figure S1:** TROPOMI tropospheric column NO<sub>2</sub> (TCNO<sub>2</sub>, 10<sup>15</sup>  
 293 molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>) for a) December 2018, b) December 2019 and c) difference December 2019-2018.  
 294 The black box in panel c) represents the region used in panels d) and e). Panel d) shows time series  
 295 of regional NDJ TCNO<sub>2</sub> for 2018/2019 (red) and 2019/2020 (blue) weighted by regional FRP. Dashed  
 296 lines represent the 3-month average. Panel e) represents regional 2018/2019 and 2019/2020 TCNO<sub>2</sub>  
 297 weighted by 2019/2020 and 2018/2019 FRP, respectively.



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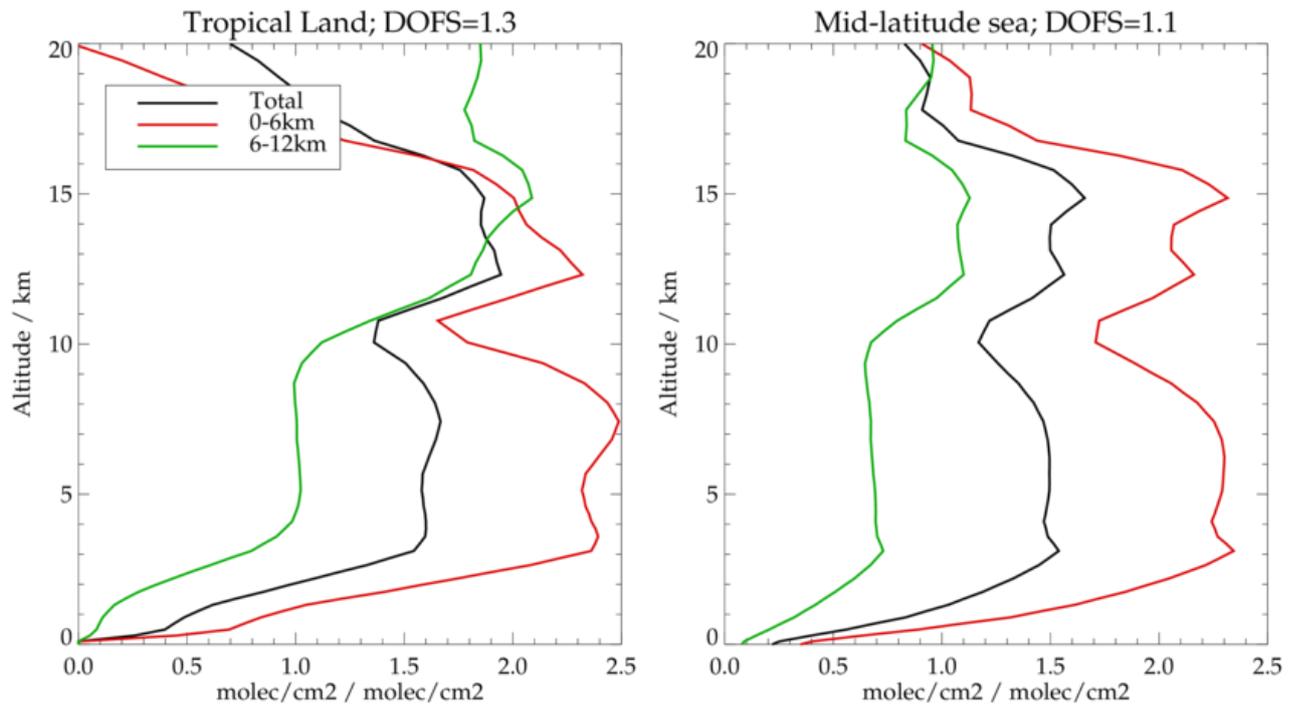
299 **Figure S2:** Optical depth spectra in the intervals used by the IMS extended scheme to target a) CO  
 300 and b) CH<sub>3</sub>OH. The black bars are IASI spectral channels used by the retrieval scheme.

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302 **Figure S3:** Column average CO volume mixing ratio retrieved from MetOp-A by the extended IMS  
 303 scheme in comparison with CAMS analyses. The plots show monthly mean values in 10° latitude bins  
 304 from retrievals sampled 1 day in 10. The CAMS analyses have been sampled at locations of individual  
 305 MetOp soundings. Panels a) represents the retrieval, b) is the CAMS with averaging kernel and *prior*  
 306 term applied (CAMS x AK) and c) is the retrieval – CAMS x AK difference.

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326 **Figure S4:** Vertical sensitivity for CO retrieval: averaging kernels are shown for the surface – 450 hPa  
 327 (0-6 km) and 450-170 hPa (~6-12 km) layers and column average for (left) tropical land and (right)  
 328 mid-latitude ocean. These are presented as the change in retrieved layer amount for a perturbation  
 329 in layer amount at each vertical level. The degrees of freedom of signal are also shown above each  
 330 panel, indicating the number of independent pieces of information on the vertical profile.

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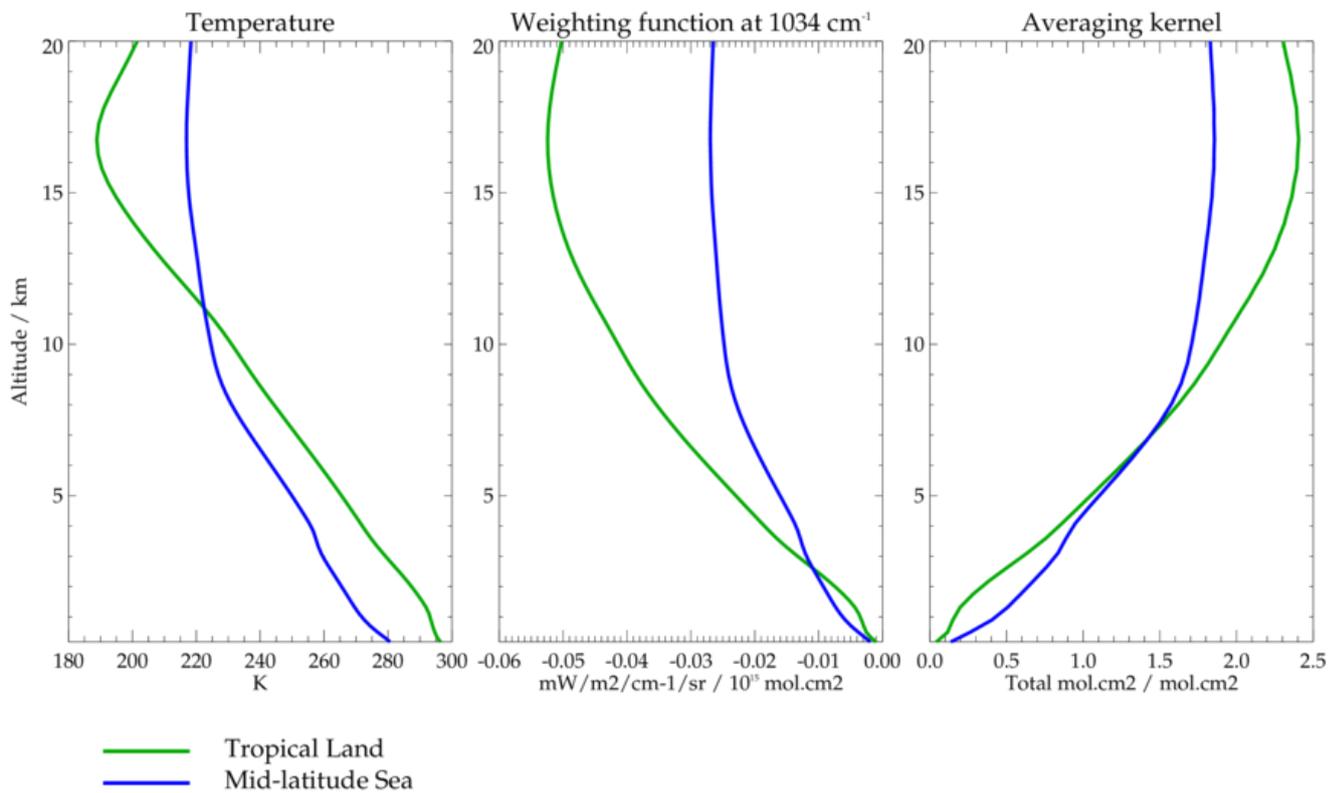
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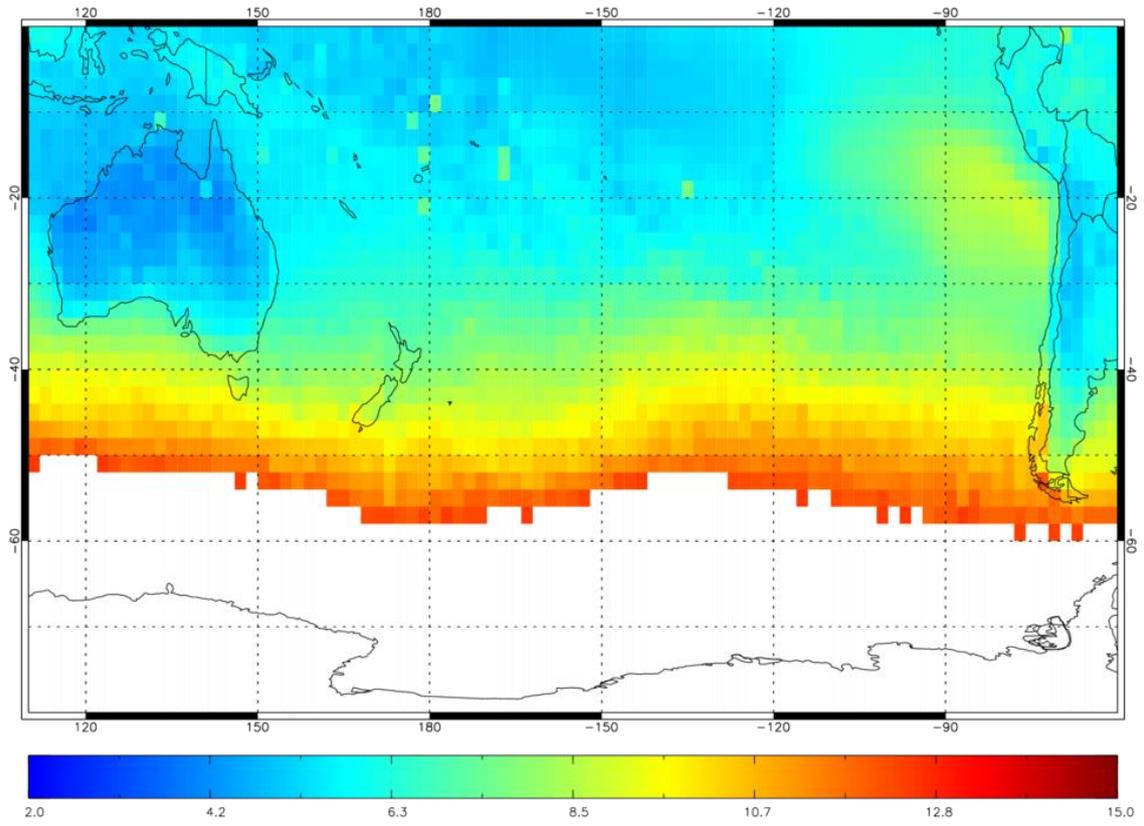


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347 **Figure S5:** Vertical sensitivity of the CH<sub>3</sub>OH retrieval: the figure shows temperature profiles for  
 348 tropical land and mid-latitude sea (left); CH<sub>3</sub>OH weighting functions at 1034 cm<sup>-1</sup> (centre) and  
 349 averaging kernels for the scale factor for the CH<sub>3</sub>OH reference profile (constant 1 ppbv at all  
 350 altitudes). These are presented as the change in total column amount for a perturbation in layer  
 351 amount at each vertical level.

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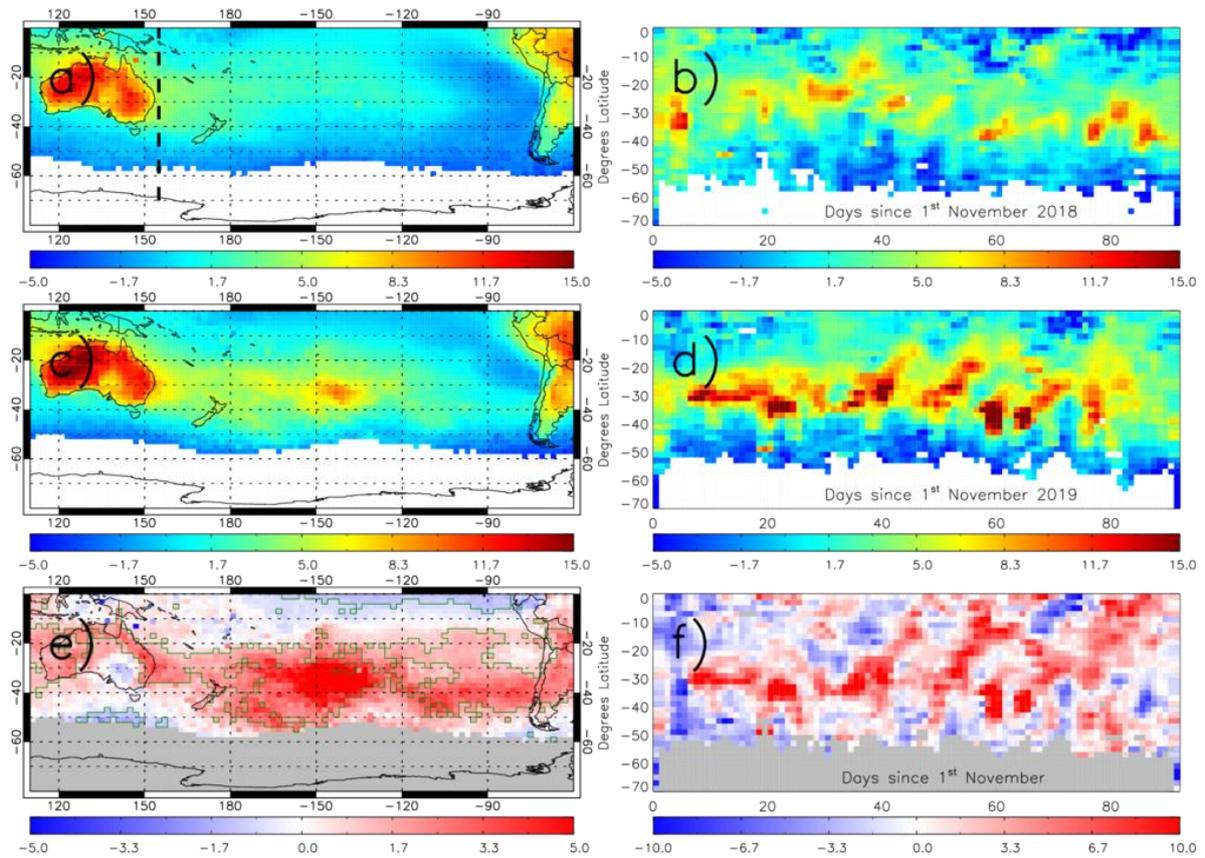
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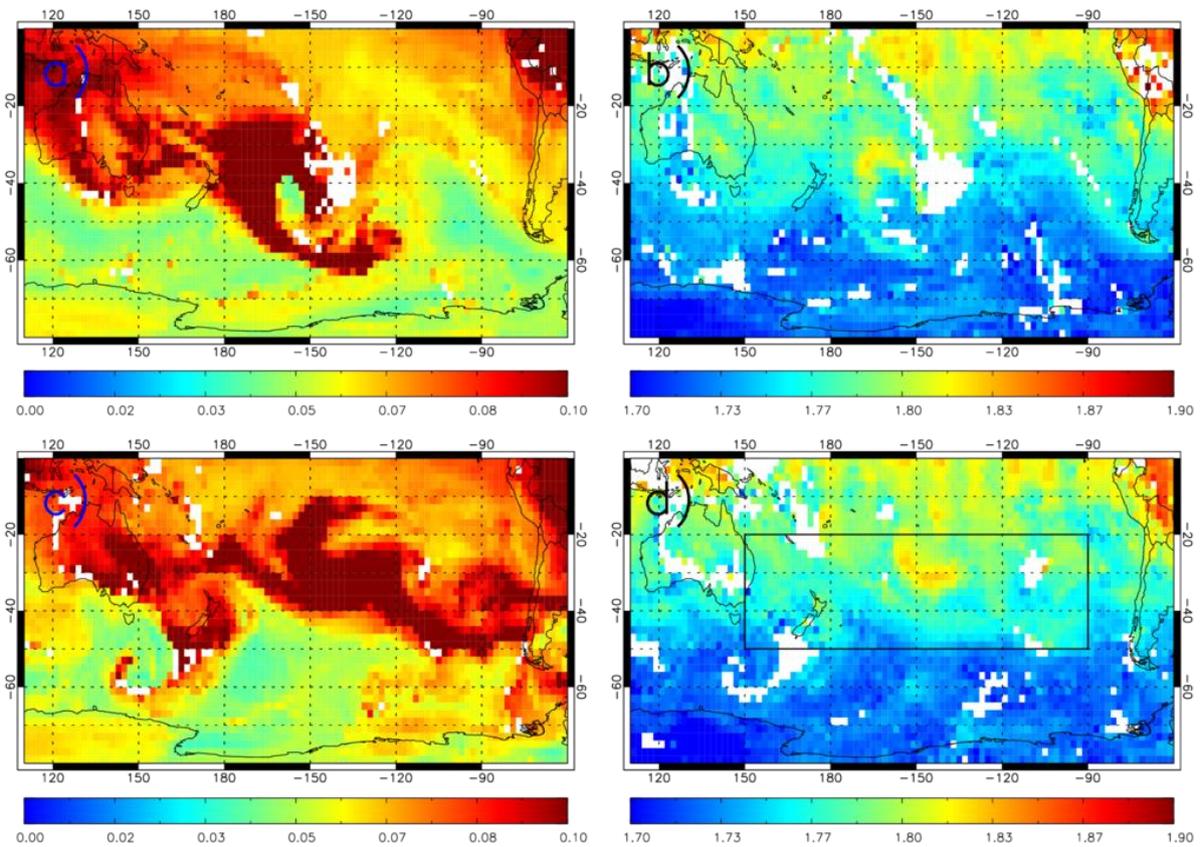
355 **Figure S6:** IASI TCCH<sub>3</sub>OH errors (10<sup>15</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>) for NDJ 2019/2020.

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358 **Figure S7:** IASI NDJ total-column methanol ( $\text{TCCH}_3\text{OH}$ ,  $10^{15}$  molecules/ $\text{cm}^2$ ) for a) 2018/2019, c)  
 359 2019/2020 and e) difference 2019/2020-2018/2019. Green polygon-outlined regions in panel e)  
 360 represent statistically significant differences between the fire seasons at the 99% confidence level  
 361 (CL, based on the Student t-Test) and where absolute differences are greater than  $1.0 \times 10^{15}$   
 362 molecules/ $\text{cm}^2$ . Panels b), d) and e) represent Hovmöller diagrams of IASI  $\text{TCCH}_3\text{OH}$  from November  
 363 – January at  $155^\circ\text{E}$ , between  $70^\circ\text{S}$ - $0^\circ\text{S}$  (black dashed line in panel a)), for 2018/2019, 2019/2020 and  
 364 the 2019/2020-2018/2019 difference, respectively. White (panels a-d) and grey (panels e & f) regions  
 365 represent missing data in the satellite record (i.e. average values with error terms  $> 15.0 \times 10^{15}$   
 366 molecules/ $\text{cm}^2$ ).



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 368 **Figure S8:** Daily maps of IASI column average carbon monoxide (ppmv) for 2<sup>nd</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> January 2020  
 369 shown in panels a) & c). Corresponding column average methane (ppmv) maps are shown in panels  
 370 b) and d). The black box in panel d) represents the region used to derived daily average CO and CH<sub>4</sub>  
 371 time series in Figure 4 of the main manuscript.

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Date	TCCO Threshold (molecules/cm <sup>2</sup> )	TCCH <sub>3</sub> OH Threshold (molecules/cm <sup>2</sup> )	Box 1	Box 2	Box 3	Box 4
1-17 Jan 2020	18 x10 <sup>17</sup>	5 x10 <sup>15</sup>	0.0036 ±5.98%	0.0059 ±3.13%	0.0091 ±1.28%	0.0081 ±1.94%
25 Dec 2019- 20 Jan 2020	18 x10 <sup>17</sup>	5 x10 <sup>15</sup>	0.0050 ±4.41%	0.0053 ±3.55%	0.0096 ±1.29%	0.0083 ±2.11%
1-17 Jan 2020	16 x10 <sup>17</sup>	5 x10 <sup>15</sup>	0.0029 ±6.15%	0.0051 ±3.96%	0.0096 ±1.29%	0.0082 ±2.07%
1-17 Jan 2020	20 x10 <sup>17</sup>	5 x10 <sup>15</sup>	0.0029 ±8.00%	0.0051 ±4.04%	0.0096 ±1.34%	0.0084 ±2.27%
1-17 Jan 2020	18 x10 <sup>17</sup>	4x10 <sup>15</sup>	0.0030 ±7.11%	0.0052 ±3.61%	0.0097 ±1.23%	0.0085 ±1.94%
1-17 Jan 2020	18 x10 <sup>17</sup>	6 x10 <sup>15</sup>	0.0028 ±7.10%	0.0049 ±4.41%	0.0094 ±1.39%	0.0081 ±2.32%

373 **Table S1:** IASI TCCH<sub>3</sub>OH:TCCO enhancement ratios for the boxes in Figure 5a of main text with  
374 perturbations to time period and TCCH<sub>3</sub>OH:TCCO in-plume thresholds.

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