- 1
- 2 Dear Editor,
- 3

4 We thank the Reviewer for her/his useful suggestions and comments to our revised manuscript. We

would like to thank also you for your careful attention in reading our manuscript and for your 5

- 6 comments and suggestions.
- Please find below our point-to-point replies (in red) to the specific comments raised by the 7

8 Reviewer and you (in italic). We believe all comments have been addressed and we followed all

9 suggested changes.

10 Modifications as respect to the original manuscript are included in the new version uploaded, and

- 11 marked with yellow color (parts added) and in red strikethrough (parts removed) in the manuscript version below.
- 12 13

14 We hope the manuscript now meets the journal's specific standards for publication.

15

16 Yours sincerely,

17 Piero Di Carlo (on behalf of all the co-authors)

18 19 **Editor:**

20 1. need for a better statement of the chemical governing equations (currently R1 - R8) including

- 21 loss processes for PNs, the approach to steady-state, and when such a steady-state is likely to
- 22 pertain in the atmosphere;
- 23 In the revised manuscript, we improved the description of the governing equations (see page 5, lines
- 24 5-15 and page 6, lines 1-4). At the same, we explained clearer that the loss processes for Σ PNs is
- 25 not included in the equations because we calculated and we are interested to see only the production
- 26 of PNs and not the net production that included the loss processes. The model calculates the latter,
- 27 whereas the production alone is something (see Rosen et al., 2004; Perring et al., 2010) that can be
- 28 calculated using the measured compounds without assumptions. We described this clearer in the
- 29 revised manuscript (see page 21, lines 4-5 and lines 7-8).
- 30 2. better sign-posting of the later sections of the manuscript at the end of the Introduction,
- 31 specifically a more precise set of aims (to be reflected in the Discussion, Conclusion and Abstract)
- 32 and brief justification for the discussion about benzoyl nitrate.
- 33 In the revised manuscript, we improved the description of the aims of the paper.
- 34 Regarding the justification of the benzoyl nitrate discussion, we reported the oxidation of
- 35 benzaldehyde and benzene as examples of the reactions schemes that produce ROONO2, since the
- 36 oxidation scheme of all the other VOC is similar to that of this compound. See Pg. 6020, line 16-20
- 37 of the original manuscript where is reported the following phrase: "The mechanism used to
- 38 calculate directly the Σ PNs and O3 production is similar for all the VOCs therefore we illustrate as
- 39 an example the production mechanism of the perbenzoyl nitrate (C7H5NO5), derived from the first-
- 40 order oxidation of the benzaldehyde (C7H6O) (Figure 7, upper panel) and the production of the PN
- 41 (C6H5NO7), generated by the second-order oxidation of the benzene (Figure 7, lower panel)".
- 42
- 3. Every attempt should be made to reduce the overall manuscript length, including cross-43
- 44 referencing other BORTAS papers for details of flight paths etc.
- 45 The revised manuscript is shorter than the previous versions, since we removed several parts referencing to previous papers. 46
- 47
- 48
- 49 **Reviewer #3**

- 1 The revised manuscript has been considerably improved. However, I have still concern a few points
- 2 described in specific comments. The manuscript will be acceptable when the authors properly
- 3 response these points.
- 4 (Specific comments)
- 5 *1.* >> The definition of the branching ratio is wrong. The authors estimate alpha using the rate
- 6 constants for reactions R3 and R4. R3 and R4 are reactions of peroxy radicals with NO2 and NO,
- 7 respectively, so that NO and NO2 concentrations influence alpha values. Moreover, the
- 8 contribution of R2 should not be neglected. If the branching ratio to R2 is large, P(O3) and P(PNs)
- 9 becomes small.
- 10 We thank the reviewer for this comment. Our purpose is only the study of the balance between the
- 11 PNs production and the O3 production, neglecting, for this analysis, the ANs production, for two
- 12 reasons: 1) The ANs contribution is negligible, at least in our observations impacted by Boreal
- biomass burning, since ANs concentrations are very low compared with the high concentrations
- 14 observed for PNs. 2) Several papers investigated the role played by the ANs in the O3 formation
- without consider in their analysis the PNs's role (for example, Rosen et al., 2004; Perring et al.,
 2010). We neglected the ANs contribution because our interest is to isolate the contribution of PNs
- 2010). We neglected the ANs contribution because our interest is to isolate the contribution of PNs
 from that of ANs, focusing the study of the impact of the PNs production on the O3 budget and,
- 18 then, we compare only these two terms. In fact, we are not showing a total investigation about the
- 19 O3 chemistry (production and loss) but only the role played by a specific specie (PNs) in the
- 20 context of the O3 production.
- 21 I found the authors are looking to the branching ratio between R3 and R4. However, the authors do
- 22 not response the first comments. "The definition of the branching ratio is wrong. The authors
- 23 estimate alpha using the rate constants for reactions R3 and R4. R3 and R4 are reactions of peroxy
- 24 radicals with NO2 and NO, respectively, so that NO and NO2 concentrations influence alpha
- 25 values.
- 26 We thank the reviewer. We did not take into account the dependence on the [NO]/[NO2] ratio, 27 because, at least for the data reported in this manuscript, does not effect the branching ratio 28 calculation. In fact, Seenfeld et al. (1997) showed the relative yield of the PAN as a function of the 29 ratio between the NO and the NO2 founding a linear dependency for the [NO]/[NO2] ratio varying 30 between 0 to 3.5 indicating that the ratio between k(RO2NO2) and k(RO+NO2) is constant. In our 31 cases, the ratio between NO and NO2 is always significantly lower than 3.5. Moreover, they 32 demonstrated that the ratio between k(RO2NO2) and k(RO+NO2) is independent from the 33 temperature and vary between ~0.04 and ~0.47 and our result, which is ~0.31, is in agreement with 34 their. We add in the paper these considerations about the alpha. We changed the manuscript 35 accordingly, to make clearer this point (see page 19, lines 25-26 and page 20, lines 1-5).
- 36
- 37 2. Many mistakes and wrong descriptions (for example, fonts) still remain in the text. The authors
- 38 should take care of the text again. For example, On page 4, P(O3), reaction (R1), (R2) etc...:
- 39 Change all the fonts of chemical formula from italic to roman.
- 40 Table 1, "2" in (Sigma)RONO2: Indicate "2" by a subscript.
- 41 Done
- 42 3. Figure 8 has poor quality. The authors should improve quality of it.
- 43 Done
- 44

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 Conditions Related to the Troposphere, J. Phys. Chem. A 1997, 101, 55-59.

1 LIST OF THE MAIN CHANGES

- 2
 3 1) We rewritten some parts of the manuscript, adding parts and reducing the abstract length and other sections.
- 5 2) We removed table 1 and table 2 since the description in those tables can be found in a perviouspaper (Palmer et al. 2013).

Production of peroxy nitrates in boreal biomass burning plumes over Canada during the BORTAS campaign

- 3
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- 22 23
- Abstract25
- The observations collected during the BORTAS campaign in summer 2011 over Canada are analysed to study the impact of forest fire emissions on the formation of ozone (O₃) and total peroxy nitrates (Σ PNs, Σ ROONO₂). The suite of measurements onboard the BAe-146 aircraft, deployed in this campaign, allows us to calculate the production of O₃ and of Σ PNs, a long lived NO_x reservoir whose concentration is supposed to be impacted by biomass burning emissions. In

fire plumes, profiles of carbon monoxide (CO), which is a well-established tracer of pyrogenic 1 emission, show concentration enhancements that are in strong correspondence with a significant 2 3 increase of Σ PNs concentrations, whereas minimal increase of the concentrations of O₃ and NO₂ are 4 observed. The Σ PNs and O₃ productions have been calculated using the rate constants of the first 5 and second order reactions of Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs) oxidation. The Σ PNs and O₃ 6 productions have also been quantified by 0-D model simulation based on the Master Chemical 7 Mechanism. Both methods show that in fire plumes the average production of ΣPNs and O_3 are 8 greater than in the background plumes, but the increase of Σ PNs production is more pronounced 9 than the O_3 production. The average Σ PNs production in fires plumes is from 7 to 12 times greater 10 than in the background, whereas the average O_3 production in fires plumes is from 2 to 5 times 11 greater than in the background. These results suggest that, at least for boreal forest fires and for the 12 measurements recorded during the BORTAS campaign, fire emissions impact both the oxidized 13 NO_y and O_3 , but: 1) ΣPNs production is amplified significantly more than O_3 production and 2) in 14 the forest fire plumes the ratio between the O_3 production and the Σ PNs production is lower than the 15 ratio evaluated in the background air masses, thus confirming that the role played by the ΣPNs 16 produced during biomass burning is significant in the O₃ budget. These observations are consistent 17 with elevated production of PAN and concurrent low production (or sometimes loss) of O3 observed 18 in some another campaigns (i.e. ARCTAS-B) focused on forest fire emissions. Moreover our 19 observations extend ARCTAS B results since PAN is one of the compounds included in the ΣPNs 20 family detected during BORTAS. The implication of these observations is that fire emissions in 21 some cases, for example Boreal forest fires and in the conditions reported here, may influence more 22 long lived precursors of O₃ than short lived pollutants, which in turn can be transported and 23 eventually diluted in a wide area. These observations provide additional indirect evidence that O₃ 24 production may be enhanced as plumes from forest fires age.

25

26 **1. Introduction**

1 Biomass burning emissions are an important atmospheric source of fine carbonaceous particles, 2 trace gases and aerosols that significantly affect the chemical composition of the atmosphere and 3 the radiation balance of the Earth-atmosphere system (Crutzen et al., 1979; Crutzen and Andreae, 4 1990; Andreae and Merlet, 2001; Bond et al., 2004; Langmann et al., 2009; Bowman et al., 2009). 5 Biomass burning generates large quantities of carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NO_x = 6 NO+NO₂) and VOCs which are the major precursors involved in the photochemical production of 7 tropospheric ozone (O₃) (Goode et al., 2000, Chan et al., 2003). Moreover, biomass burning 8 emissions include some greenhouse gases (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) that alter the climate and air quality 9 (Langmann et al., 2009; Lapina et al., 2006; Simpson et al., 2006). Quantification of the influence 10 of boreal forest fires on the Earth-atmosphere system and on the climate has become one of the key 11 topics for the scientific community.

12 Forest fires in the boreal regions of Siberia, Canada and Alaska peak during the period from May to 13 October (Lavoue et al., 2000). Some studies highlight the increase in the number of boreal forest 14 fires and the total forested area burned over Canada during the past three decades, corresponding to 15 increasing temperatures and reduced moisture in this area (Gillett et al., 2004; Rinsland 2007; 16 Marlon 2008). Wotton et al. (2010) estimate an increase of 30% in boreal forest fire occurrence by 17 2030, causing a possible growth of 30% in the emission of CO₂ and other greenhouse gases (Amiro 18 et al., 2009). The effects of boreal biomass burning emissions on the O_3 concentration has been 19 investigated by several authors with some studies showing situations where O_3 concentrations 20 increase and others where it was unaffected (e.g., Wofsy et al., 1992; Jacob et al., 1992; Mauzerall 21 et al., 1996; Wotawa and Trainer, 2000; Val Martin et al., 2006; Real et al., 2007; Leung et al., 22 2007, Jaffe and Wigder, 2012, Parrington et al., 2012). The analysis of the ARCTAS-B (NASA 23 Arctic Research of the Composition of the Troposphere from Aircraft and Satellites) aircraft 24 measurements of biomass burning plumes in central Canada in the spring and summer of 2008 25 showed consistent production of peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN), with little evidence for O₃ formation and, in some plumes, the O₃ mixing ratios measured within boreal biomass burning plumes were 26

1 indistinguishable from measurements outside of the plumes (Alvarado et al., 2010). The production 2 of ozone $P(O_3)$ measured in boreal fire plumes has been reported to be a function of the plume age 3 (Parrington et al., 2013), but with mixed, non-conclusive results. For example, boreal fire plumes 4 transported over the Azores and measured between 1 and 2 weeks after emission showed an O₃ 5 increase between 40% and 90% (Val Martin et al., 2006; Pfister et al., 2006). On the other hand, 6 observations over Siberia in 2006 of aged boreal fire plumes (up to a week) showed some plumes 7 with O_3 enhanced and others with O_3 depletion; on average, the O_3 in the fire plumes was not 8 significantly different from that in the background atmosphere (Verma et al., 2009). In earlier 9 studies of relatively fresh plumes (1-2 days), O₃ was reported to be enhanced in one third of the 10 boreal fire plumes with concentrations in the remaining plumes being unaffected (Wofsy et al. 11 1992; Mauzerall et al. 1996).

12 In the atmosphere, volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are oxidized by OH, NO₃ or O₃ producing 13 an alkyl radical R that rapidly reacts with molecular oxygen O₂ to form peroxy radicals (HO₂, RO₂) 14 (reaction R1). The RO₂, then, can proceed in different ways: 1) reacting with NO and producing a 15 molecule of alkyl nitrate (ΣANs , $\Sigma RONO_2$) (R2) or an alkoxy radical RO (R4) or 2) reacting with 16 NO₂ and producing peroxy nitrates (Σ PNs, Σ ROONO₂) (R3). Reactions (R4) and (R3) have 17 opposite effects on the O₃ budget, propagating or terminating radical cycles, respectively. Thus, 18 peroxy nitrate formation competes with the O₃ production resulting from reactions (R4)-(R8). Alkyl 19 nitrate formation via (R2) can also affect the O_3 budget. The reaction cycles that are of interest 20 when considering Nitrogen oxides (NO_x) and odd-hydrogen radicals (HO_x) (R1-R8) are illustrated

21 schematically in Figure 1 and listed below:

$$OH + RH + O_2 + M \rightarrow RO_2 + H_2O + M$$
(R1)

$$RO_2 + NO + M \rightarrow RONO_2 + M$$
 (R2)

 $\mathrm{RO}_2 + \mathrm{NO}_2 + \mathrm{M} \rightarrow \mathrm{RO}_2 \mathrm{NO}_2 + \mathrm{M}$ (R3)

$$\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{RO} + \text{NO}_2$$
 (R4)

$$RO + O_2 \rightarrow R'C(O)R'' + HO_2$$
(R5)

$$HO_2 + NO \rightarrow OH + NO_2$$
 (R6)

$$NO_2 + hv \rightarrow NO + O$$
 (R7)

$$O + O_2 + M \to O_3 + M \tag{R8}$$





Figure 1. A schematic of the atmospheric chemical system (Atkinson and Arey, 2003; Palmer et al.2013).

4 The removal processes for the Σ PNs could be: 1) thermal dissociation into NO₂; 2) UV photolysis; 5 3) reaction with OH and 4) deposition. Different investigations have been done about the PAN (MPAN, PPN) loss in different environment; for example, Roberts et al. (1998) showed that in a 6 7 marine boundary layer the likely mechanism for the PAN loss is the deposition in seawater or on 8 aerosol surface. Moreover, Cleary et al. (2007) described the PAN loss processes by thermal 9 decomposition indicating that its lifetime vary between hours (for a T > 287 K, lower troposphere) 10 to months (for a T < 263 K, mid-high latitude and free troposphere). They measured total PNs and 11 aldehydes in order to evaluate the contribution of each individual PN (PN_i) to the total PNs, 12 observing that individual PNs are in steady state with their aldehydes precursors and their loss is the thermal decomposition into NO₂ and the subsequent reaction of the peroxy radical (PA) with the 13 14 NO.

15 In July and August 2011, the BOReal forest fires on Tropospheric oxidants over the Atlantic using

16 Aircraft and Satellites (BORTAS) measurement campaign was carried out in order to quantify the

1 impact of boreal biomass burning on the composition and distribution of tropospheric oxidants. The 2 BORTAS project involved several international institutions with the support of the UK Facility for 3 Airborne Atmospheric Measurements (FAAM). The instruments were installed on board the FAAM 4 BAe146 research aircraft and the campaign was based at Halifax airport (Nova Scotia, Canada). 5 During the campaign, fifteen flights were carried out (nominally referenced as flights B618 to 6 B632) in Eastern Canada that were planned to maximize the probability of sampling air masses 7 produced from forest fires in Canada (Ontario) or the USA. More detailed information about the 8 BORTAS campaign objectives and preliminary results are presented by Palmer et al. (2013).

9 The primary aim of this study is to evaluate and understand the impact of the boreal fire emissions 10 during the BORTAS campaign on the formation of O_3 and ΣPNs within biomass burning plumes 11 Our sub-objectives include (i) identification and classification of the plumes through the pyrogenic species analysis; (ii) determination of the sources of the biomass burning plumes using back 12 13 trajectories.; (iii) understand the role played by the Σ PNs produced during biomass burning in the O_3 budget; (iv) the estimation of the balance between the production of ozone and the production of 14 15 Σ PNs in this specific environment. and, in particular, to estimate the balance between the 16 production of ozone $P(O_2)$ and the production of total peroxy nitrates $P(\Sigma PN_S)$ in this specific 17 environment.

18

19 **2. Instrumental**

A comprehensive description of the BORTAS experiment and of the overall instrumentations involved can be found in Palmer et al. (2013). Measurements included in this analysis are summarized in Table 1 Here we will describe briefly only the measurements included in this analysis. NO₂, ΣPNs and ΣANs were measured using the TD-LIF (Thermal Dissociation – Laser Induced Fluorescence) instrument developed at the University of L'Aquila (Italy) (Dari-Salisburgo et al., 2009; Di Carlo et al., 2013). Briefly, this technique permits direct measurement of NO₂ molecules excited by laser radiation. The ΣPNs and ΣANs are measured after thermal-dissociation

1	into NO ₂ by heating the air sample at 200°C and 400°C, respectively (Day et al., 2002; Di Carlo et
2	al., 2013). Nault et al. (2015) found that methyl peroxy nitrate (CH ₃ O ₂ NO ₂), which can be abundant
3	in particular conditions (very low temperature, below 240K, typical of the high atmosphere), may
4	contribute interference to high altitude NO ₂ measurements resulting from thermal decomposition
5	occurring in the sample intake system. This interference is a function of the intake system
6	temperature and increases from 280 K in which the interference is negligible up to 300 K in which
7	it can be on the order of 10%. During all the BORTAS flights analysed in this paper, the cabin
8	temperature has been kept at about 280 K and, as a consequence, the impact on the NO_2 of the
9	CH ₃ O ₂ NO ₂ dissociation is negligible. Moreover, this species is not expected to be significant in our
10	study, since the ambient temperatures of the air masses sampled during the period in analysis range
11	between 250 K and 280 K and the $CH_3O_2NO_2$ concentration is significant only for temperatures
12	lower than 240 K. The measurements of O3 were carried out with an UV absorption system Model
13	49C (Thermo environmental Corp.) (Wilson and Birks, 2006). CO was measured using a VUV
14	resonance/fluorescence system (Gerbig et al. (1999). A chemiluminescence instrument equipped
15	with a photolytic converter was also used to measure NO and NO ₂ (Lee et al. 2009; Reidmiller et al.
16	2010). VOC concentrations were measured by the University of York using a WAS (Whole Air
17	Sampling) system coupled to an offline GC-FID (Gas Chromatography with Flame Ionization
18	Detector) (Hopkins et al. 2003; Purvis et al. 2013) and by the University of East Anglia using a
19	PTR-MS (Murphy et al. 2010). Observed compounds and a complete list of the instruments on
20	board the BAe-146 aircraft during BORTAS campaign with accuracy and detection limit are
21	reported in Palmer et al. (2013).
22	
23	Table 1. Observed compounds and instruments on board the BAe-146 aircraft during BORTAS
24	campaign, used in the analysis in this paper. A complete list of the instruments with accuracy and

25 detection limit, is reported in Palmer et al. (2013).

Species	Method	Reference

CO	VUV resonance/fluorescence	Gerbig et al. (1999)
Θ_3	UV absorption	Wilson and Birks (2006)
NO_2 , $\Sigma RO_2 NO_2$, $\Sigma RONO_2$,	TD-LIF	Dari Salisburgo et al. (2008); Di
NO _y		Carlo et al. (2013)
C ₅ -C ₁₂ -VOCs	GC-MS	Purvis et al. (2013)
C ₂ -C ₇ -NMHCs, acetone	WAS-GC-FID	Hopkins et al. (2003)
CH ₃ OH		
$CH_{3}CN, C_{3}H_{6}O, C_{5}H_{8},$	PTR-MS	Murphy et al. (2010)
MVK+MACR, C4H8O,		
$C_{6}H_{6}, C_{7}H_{8}, C_{10}H_{16}$		

3. Data analysis

3.1 Geographical location and meteorological situation

Fig. 2 shows the geographic coverage of the five flights selected for our analysis. The flights were carried out between 12th July and 3rd August 2011 over Canada and, in particular, above the North Atlantic Ocean, Nova Scotia, Maine and Québec. The altitude during the flights exceeded a typical planetary boundary layer depth of 2000 m a.s.l. so that local emissions do not affect the measurements, especially those carried out in the fire plumes. Table 2 summarizes some The specific features of each flight BORTAS selected in this analysis and provides a brief description of the meteorology associated with them. Other details about the BORTAS flights can be found in Palmer et al. (2013). From these descriptions, it can be seen that the synoptic situation of the fire plume flights are similar to those of background flights. The synoptic situation of the fire plume flights analysed in this work, are similar to those of background flights (Palmer et al., 2013).





Figure 2. FAAM146 flight tracks during July 2011. The different colours are the tracks of each
different flight: during the B623 and B624 fire plumes were observed, during B619 and B630
background air was measured, whereas in the B622 flight fire plume and background air were
detected. See Table 2 for details of individual flights

Table 2. Synoptic meteorology and weather associated with the five BORTAS flights considered in this analysis.

Flight	Date	Trajectory	Flight Altitude	Synoptic meteorology
			(Max-Min-Mean)	
B619	13/07/2011	St John's-	7257	Skies mostly cloudy.
(background)		Halifax	100	
			4594	
B622	20/07/2011	Halifax—	7575	Low from surface to 500 hPa S Ungava Bay. Surface low and frontal wave
(fire plume		Québec City	1892	moving E from mouth of St Lawrence. Flight in "warm" sector Mainly
and			4699	elear to 21:00 then cloudy.
background)				
B623	20/07/2011	Québec City-	6173	Low from surface to 500 hPa S Ungava Bay. Surface low and frontal wave
(fire plume)		Halifax	1888	just N of Anticosti Island and cold front west. Showers and thundershowers
			4 451	along and in advance of front. Aircraft may have encountered showers over
				Prince Edward Island (PEI).
B624	21/07/2011	Halifax - St	2826	Low from surface to 500 hPa over extreme N Labrador. Cold front from NB
(fire plume)		John's	1743	to S of NF (Newfoundland). Weak low crossing NB late day. Cloud moved
		Halifax	2069	into flight zone from the west. Precipitation for return flight from S of NF to
				Halifax.
B630	31/07/2011	Halifax,	7616	Trough from surface through to 500 hPa along Labrador coast to low centre
(background)		Nova Scotia	5076	off south coast NF. Cooler air mass over region. Weak ridge building over
			6704	NB to W Labrador. Generally clear skies for flight route and level.

3.2 Identification of the plumes: vertical profiles and back trajectories

2 CO is a product of incomplete combustion (Crutzen et al., 1979; Andreae and Merlet, 2001; Lewis 3 et al., 2013), therefore it is one of the tracers used to classify the plumes emitted by boreal fires. 4 However, it is necessary to discriminate between anthropogenic and biomass burning CO 5 emissions; for this purpose, following Lewis et al. (2013), we defined a CO threshold of 200 ppbv 6 and we verified at the same time the presence of other pyrogenics such as furfural or camphor to 7 confirm the fire origin of the plume. In conclusion, we classify the air masses in three classes: 1) 8 those sampled within boreal biomass burning plumes ($CO \ge 200$ ppbv with significant presence of 9 other pyrogenics species such as furfural or camphor (Andreae and Merlet, 2001); 2) those 10 impacted by anthropogenic emissions ($CO \ge 200$ ppb without the presence of furfural or camphor) 11 and 3) those sampled in background conditions (CO < 200 ppb). Using the above criteria to 12 distinguish between flights where we sampled fire plumes and those when we sampled background 13 air we analysed the vertical profiles of species known to have a significant biomass burning source, 14 such as NO_2 , ΣPNs , ΣANs , CO, O_3 and some VOCs (i.e., propene, methacrolein, acetylene, benzene, 15 ethyl-benzene, toluene, o-xylene, benzaldehyde, furfural and camphor). The CO and pyrogenic 16 species analysis allows us to select five flights in which we distinguish between those where we 17 sampled boreal fire emissions (B622, B623 and B624 - labelled henceforth "plume" flights) and 18 those in which we measured background air (B619, B622 and B630 - labelled henceforth 19 "background" flights). Flight B622 is a particular case in which both conditions are met, and we 20 split this flight into two different parts: plume and background. Figure 3 shows profiles of the 21 species indicated above as a function of the altitude for the plume flights (upper panels) and for the 22 background flights (lower panels). It is possible to observe in Fig. 3 that the vertical structures are 23 different in the two conditions. In the upper panels (plume flights) the concentrations of some 24 species, especially CO, SPNs, Acetylene and Benzene, show significant and concomitant increases 25 at 3500 m above sea level (a.s.l.) and 6000 m a.s.l.. Moreover, in the plume measurements at 2000 m a.s.l. a large increase in the CO levels is measured concurrent with an increase in the ΣPNs 26

1 smaller than at the other altitudes. This suggests that the conditions of the air masses at 2000 m 2 a.s.l. are more complex and that it potentially has various origins, i.e., impacted both by 3 anthropogenic and boreal biomass burning emissions. The ΣANs concentrations are lower than the 4 ΣPNs and do not show significant structures. The O₃ profile shows little variability between 1000 5 and 7000 m of altitude with no concentration changes that coincide with variations in CO. In the 6 background flights, as expected, the concentrations of the species analysed do not show strong 7 vertical structures such as in the plume flights, with the exception of VOCs that show a peak at 8 about 4 Km



Figure 3. Vertical profiles of Benzene, Toluene, Acetylene, Methacrolein O-Xylene (panels on the
 left) and ΣANs, ΣPNs, NO₂, CO and O₃ (panels on the right) concentrations averaged for the plume
 flights (upper panels: B622, B623, B624 flights) and the background flights (lower panels: B619,
 B622, B630 flights).

5

6 To facilitate the determination of the sources of the biomass burning plumes (Tereszchuk et al., 7 2011; Parrington et al., 2012), we calculated Lagrangian back trajectories using the Hysplit model 8 (Draxler et al., 2003) to verify the origin of the air masses. The Fire Locating And Monitoring of 9 Burning Emissions (FLAMBE) archive provides fires emissions data from 2000 to the present 10 worldwide (Reid et al., 2009) incorporating active fire detection data from geostationary and polar-11 orbiting satellites. To locate the sources of the boreal biomass burning plumes measured during the 12 BORTAS campaign, the FLAMBE inventory data have been used in conjunction with the Hysplit 13 back trajectories. In Fig. 4, 8 day back-trajectories are evaluated starting from points along the flight 14 track and the corresponding fires (red asterisks) from the FLAMBE archive are shown for the 15 plume flight B619 (upper panel) and for the background flight B623 (lower panel). The same 16 analysis has been done for all the flights of the campaign, although here we report only the results 17 of flights B619 and B623 since they are representative of all the other flights. Parrington et al. 18 (2013) evaluated the photochemical age of the air masses for each flight using the ratio of log(n-1)19 *butane/ethane*) and assuming an OH concentration of 2×10^6 molecules/cm³. They found that the 20 age calculated for the air masses sampled within the boreal biomass burning emissions ranges 21 between 1 and 5 days and the background air is older than 6 days.

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Figure 4. Location of the boreal biomass burning activity during the BORTAS campaign recorded by the FLAMBE inventory (red asterisks) and air mass backward trajectory analysis starting from location along the flight trajectories. The flight B623 (lower panel) sampled multiple fire plumes, whereas the flight B619 (upper panel) was representative of background conditions.

Their results are in agreement with the back-trajectories analysis, confirming that the air masses sampled during the plume flights crossed biomass fires during the previous 8 days and, conversely, the background air masses do not overlap fires up to 8 days before. In addition, Griffin et al.(2013) investigates boreal fire plumes during the BORTAS campaign using back trajectories calculated by the Canadian Meteorological Centre (CMC) and shows that the boreal fire plume originated from forest fires is approximately 1.5 days old, which is in agreement with the age calculated for the air masses sampled within the boreal biomass burning emissions.

8

9 **3.3 Chemical signatures of plumes**

10 In Figure 5 the time series of NO₂, Σ PNs, Σ ANs, O₃, CO and furfural (when measured) for the B619 11 flight (panel a)) and the B630 flight (panel b)) are shown. During these background flights, the 12 concentrations of all the species measured remain quite stable. The Σ PNs concentrations are 13 significantly greater than the Σ ANs but lower compared to those measured in the plume flights (less 14 than 0.5 ppb). Moreover, ΣPNs do not show the significant structure that is shown in the O₃ 15 measurements. CO is substantially lower than the 200 ppb threshold with the exception of one peak 16 measured during B619 during a period spent in the airport for refueling (at ground level) where the 17 CO level is affected by anthropogenic emissions and increases, reaching a maximum of about 300 18 ppb during take off.

19 The B622 flight (Fig. 5b) shows two regimes, as indicated by the CO concentrations and by the 20 furfural measurements. In the first part of the flight (between 2000 m a.s.l. and 4000 m a.s.l., 21 highlighted by a grey box in Fig.5b) the CO levels (cyan line) exceed 150 ppb and the furfural 22 (yellow line) shows three big plumes (up to 1.2 ppb) in which the Σ PNs also increase (reaching the 23 maximum value of 3.5 ppb). On the other hand, in the second part of the flight the CO and ΣPNs 24 decrease and the furfural is below the detection limit indicating that the air sampled is not affected 25 by biomass burning. It is interesting to observe that O₃ and NO₂ concentrations are quite stable flying within or outside of the fire plume. Flight B623 (Fig. 5c) represents a case in which the air 26

1 masses sampled for most of the flight were impacted by biomass burning emissions and the 2 remaining air masses show influence from human activities. In fact, CO levels are also always 3 greater than 200 ppb and the furfural is below the detection limit during the whole flight, indicating 4 an anthropogenic origin of the air masses. The fire plumes (highlighted by grey boxes) are 5 characterized by sharp increases in the CO concentrations (maximum value of 552 ppb) and in the 6 Σ PNs concentrations (maximum value of 1.5 ppb) measured while flying at constant altitude of 7 about 4000 m a.s.l.. In the final part of flight B623 (between 00:26 and 01:00 UTC) a vertical spiral 8 was carried out flying from 2000 m a.s.l. up to 8000 m a.s.l.. In this leg, plumes originating from 9 different fires (identified analyzing the Hysplit back trajectories) were sampled. At about 4000 m 10 a.s.l., back trajectories showed that the air masses sampled had the same origin of the fires plumes 11 sampled at the same altitude in the first part of the flight. Both plumes were characterized by high 12 levels of Σ PNs (up to 1.7 ppb). At the top of the spiral (8000 m a.s.l.), an aged plume was 13 encountered with low Σ PNs and O₃ concentrations quite high (about 60 ppb). This high O₃ 14 concentration represents the highest value measured during the whole flight.

According to the back-trajectories, this air mass originated from fires in the Western States of the
U.S.A. (Oregon, Montana, Washington, Idaho, California, Nevada).

17

18





Figure 5. Time series of the ΣPNs, ΣANs, NO₂, O₃, CO, Furfural (ppbv) measured during the
flights in this analysis: the flights B619 (panel a) and B630 (panel d) were background plumes, the
flight B622 was in part impacted by fire plume and part by no-fire (panel b), the flight B623 (panel
c) was affected by fire plume. The time is reported in Coordinated Universal Time (UTC).

3.4 ΣPNs and Ozone

1 2 The connection between O_3 and ΣPNs is highlighted by the scatterplot of ozone vs ΣPNs mixing 3 ratios in Fig. 6. Two different dependences can be identified distinguishing the air masses that are 4 representative of the background environment (flights B619, part of the B622 and B630) and those 5 emitted or influenced by emissions from biomass burning (flights B623, B624 and part of B622). 6 We distinguished between the "plume" and the "background" flights as described in Sect. 3.2: that 7 is based on the CO threshold (≥ 200 ppb) and the pyrogenic species analysis. The linear fit of the 8 data influenced by biomass burning emissions has a slope of ~1.87 ppb O_3 /ppb Σ PNs compared to 9 ~203.5 for the slope of the linear fit of background data, which indicates the important role played 10 by the Σ PNs in the sequestration of ozone precursors in air masses influenced by fire emissions. 11 This can be quantified by calculating the productions of O_3 and ΣPNs , following the ΣANs 12 production schemes introduced by Atkinson (1985) and applied in other studies (Perring et al. 13 2010). This approach excludes the contribution of ANs for two reasons: 1) ANs concentrations are very low in our observations strongly impacted by biomass burning, so its contribution is 14 negligible; 2) to isolate the role of PNs from that of ANs in the O_3 that may dominate in particular 15 16 observations, like those reported here. We applied the same technique for the calculation of the PNs production defining the branching ratio for the peroxy nitrates as $\alpha = k_{R3}/(k_{R3} + k_{R4})$. Therefore, the 17 Σ PNs production is given by α (OH + RH + O₂ + NO₂ \rightarrow H₂O + RO₂NO₂) and the O₃ production 18 is described as $(1-\alpha)(RH + 4O_2 + h\nu \rightarrow H_2O + R'C(O) + 2O_3)$. In this description we made the 19 approximation of neglecting the impact of the $[NO]/[NO_2]$ in the α calculation following Seenfeld 20 et al. (1997) that showed how the relative yield (α) of the PAN has a linear dependency on the ratio 21 22 between the NO and the NO₂. This is true for the [NO]/[NO₂] varying between 0 to 3.5 indicating that the ratio between k_{R3} and k_{R4} is constant respect to this ratio. In our cases, [NO]/[NO₂] is 23 significantly lower than 3.5, therefore we can neglected the impact of $[NO]/[NO_2]$ in the α 24 calculation. Moreover, they demonstrated that the ratio between k_{R3} and k_{R4} is independent from 25

1 the temperature and vary between ~ 0.04 and ~ 0.47 and our result, ~ 0.31 (see Table 1), is in



2 agreement with their observations.

3

Figure 6. Scatter plot between measured O3 and measured ΣPNs for the flights B619, B622, B623,
B624 and B630. Straight line is best fit linear regression. Plume identification follows the
methodology and the analysis described in Sect. 3.2 and reported in the legend.

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9 The production terms can be written as:

$$P\left(\sum PNs\right) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} k_{OH+RH_{i}} \left[OH \right] VOCs \right]$$
(1)

$$P(O_{3}) = \sum_{i} 2(1 - \alpha_{i}) k_{OH + RH_{i}} [OH] [VOC] + k_{OH + CO} [OH] [CO]$$
(2)

10

where we considered the weighted sum of the contribution of each VOC to the Σ PNs and to the O₃ production. For the O₃ we take into account also the CO contribution on the $P(O_3)$ because of significant emissions associated with biomass burning.

14 In our analysis, we use two approaches to estimate the production of the Σ PNs and O₃: 1) a direct

15 calculation considering the contribution to the PNs and O₃ production of all the VOCs, among those

16 measured during BORTAS, that produce a PN species after first or second order reactions of the

1 VOCs oxidation by OH; in this case we considered only the production of Σ PNs and O₃ neglecting 2 their losses; 2) a simulation using a box-model based on the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) where all the measured VOCs are used as input compounds to evaluate in output the production of 3 PNs and O_{31} in the model simulations we considered the net production of Σ PNs and O_{3} (that is, the 4 5 **production minus the loss**). The mechanism used to calculate directly the Σ PNs and O₃ production 6 is similar for all the VOCs therefore we illustrate as an example the production mechanism of the 7 perbenzoyl nitrate (C₇H₅NO₅), derived from the first-order oxidation of the benzaldehyde (C₇H₆O) 8 (Figure 7, upper panel) and the production of the PN (C₆H₅NO₇), generated by the second-order 9 oxidation of the benzene (Figure 7, lower panel). In the first case, abstraction of the aldehydic 10 hydrogen by OH followed by O_2 addition forms an acyl peroxy radical ($C_7H_5O_3$). The acyl peroxy 11 radical can react either with NO₂ forming the perbenzoyl nitrate or with NO producing C₆H₅O₂ and 12 NO₂ (Figure 7, upper panel). In the second case, the production of PN starts with the benzene 13 oxidation by OH forming three different products: 11.8% of these reactions generate benzene-1,3,5-14 triol ($C_6H_6O_3$) and HO₂. The benzene-1,3,5-triol oxidation by OH, in turn, produces a molecule of 15 $C_6H_5O_5$ in 31% of cases, that finally, reacts with NO₂ to form the peroxy nitrate $C_6H_5NO_7$ or with 16 NO generating C₅H₅O₄ plus NO₂ (Figure 7, lower panel). For the branch of benzene oxidation that 17 produces PN it is necessary to weight the contribution of the VOC oxidation to the PN formation by 18 applying a branching ratio of 0.118 to the reaction constant for the initial benzene oxidation by OH 19 and of 0.31 for the following benzene-1,3,5-triol oxidation: hereinafter we indicate the OH reaction 20 constant weighted following this method as k^* . The same procedure has been applied also to the 21 other VOCs that do not directly produce peroxy nitrates. Table 1 summarizes all the species 22 involved in the evaluation of the Σ PNs and O₃ production during all the flights, indicating for each of them the OH reaction constant k^* and the branching ratio calculated as $\alpha = k_{R3}/(k_{R3} + k_{R4})$. 23



Figure 7. Examples of oxidation schemes that are common to all the VOCs that have as products
PNs and O₃. Upper panel: structural formula of the oxidation of benzaldehyde that produces directly
perbenzoyl nitrate (C₇H₅NO₅) and O₃. Lower panel: structural formula of the oxidation of benzene
that produce O₃ and indirectly the PN (C₆H₅NO₇).

Table 1. Species involved in the calculation of peroxy nitrate and ozone production, their weighted 9 reaction constant with OH (k^* expressed in cm³s⁻¹, see the text on how it is calculated) and the 10 Σ PNs branching ratio (α).

Species	<i>k</i> *	α
Methacrolein	1.48×10^{-11}	0.2777
Acetylene	2.37×10^{-13}	0.3084
Benzene	4.16×10^{-14}	0.3084
Ethylbenzene	1.82×10^{-13}	0.3084
Toluene	1.97×10^{-13}	0.3084
O-Xylene	7.29×10^{-12}	0.3084
Benzaldehyde	1.36×10^{-11}	0.3084
СО	2.39×10^{-13}	0

The reaction constants were extracted from the MCM model data or the references therein, and from this, the branching ratios ($\alpha = k_{R3}/(k_{R3} + k_{R4})$) were calculated. For the branching ratio of Methacrolein, the value of k_{R4} is (8.70×10⁻¹²)exp(290/T), where T is the temperature, and k_{R3} was evaluated following the MCM model procedure that takes into account the ambient pressure. For the other species, the k_{R4} reaction constant is (7.50×10⁻¹²)exp(290/T), where T is the ambient temperature, and k_{R3} was evaluated as for methacrolein.

8 The simulation to retrieve the production of ΣPNs and O_3 were carried out using a 0-D 9 Photochemical Box Model (UW Chemical Model, UWCM) that is based on the Master Chemical 10 Mechanism (MCM) version v3.2 (http://mcm.leeds.ac.uk/MCM/) into a MATLAB-based source 11 code (Wolfe and Thornton 2011). The MCM is a nearly-explicit reaction set including primary, 12 secondary and radical species and about 17000 reactions to tracks all oxidation processes and 13 products throughout the photochemical degradation of VOCs. The inorganic chemistry has been 14 also included in the simulations. The photolysis reactions constants have been estimated from the 15 TUV model (http://cprm.acd.ucar.edu/Models/TUV/). The model has been initialized using both the meteorological parameters (T, P, RH and J-values) and the chemical concentrations of NO, NO₂, 16

OH (fixed at 2 x 10⁶ molecules/cm³, as for the direct calculation), CO, O₃ and all the VOCs (see 1 2 Table 2) measured during BORTAS campaign. As no OH measurements were made during the 3 BORTAS campaign, its value was chosen to be representative of a northern mid-latitude 4 summertime OH concentration (Spivakovsky et al., 2000). This assumption was validated by Parrington et al. (2013) carrying out several tests in order to compare the photochemical ages using 5 6 different OH concentrations with the transport timescales from the emission source determined by 7 back trajectory calculations. Table 2 summarizes the mean concentrations of the VOCs and other 8 species used in the simulations, the Σ PNs and O₃ production and their ratio for each flight analysed. 9 The species highlighted with one asterisk have been used also for the direct calculation of Σ PNs and 10 O₃ production terms. The quantities highlighted with two asterisks are the production of PNs and O₃ 11 calculated directly, while those without asterisks are the Σ PNs and O₃ production retrieved from the 12 model simulations.

13

Table 2. Concentrations of each species involved in the Σ PNs and O₃ production (all reported in 14 ppt), the production terms $P(O_3)$ and $P(\sum PNs)$ (expressed in ppt/s), their ratios $P(O_3)/P(\sum PNs)$ 15 for all the flights analysed. While all the species reported in this table are used for the MCM model 16 calculation of $P(O_3)$ and $P(\sum PNs)$, those with * are species used for the direct calculation of the 17 production using the product between reaction constants and concentrations of the single species. 18 The Σ PNs and O₃ production quantified with the model simulation are signed in this table with **. 19 20 The selected flights are distinguished between the flights where we sampled boreal fire emissions (part of B622, B623 and B624 - labelled "plume" flights) and those in which we measured 21 22 background air (B619, part of B622 and B630 – labelled "background" flights).

	Parameters	B619	B622	B630	B622	B623	B624
1	Ethane	1094.0	1209.8	975.1	4705.0	2407.5	1919.6
2	Propane	225.0	270.4	186.0	1141.2	563.4	432.3

3	n-Butane	42.9	53.7	36.9	258.7	133.4	89.8
4	i-Butane	16.8	17.9	18.6	73.3	36.7	33.8
5	n-Pentane	14.5	18.7	10.1	106.2	46.1	34.7
6	i-Pentane	9.6	16.7	5.6	37.6	19.3	47.7
7	n-Hexane	11.0	8.0	6.3	49.4	21.0	12.7
8	2+3-Methylpentane	5.0	6.6	39.4	19.4	7.5	10.4
9	n-Heptane	6.0	9.9	6.8	35.1	13.5	8.8
10	n-Octane	4.8	5.4	6.2	26.0	10.3	5.1
11	Ethene	419.0	585.4	67.2	5115.2	2038.4	452.5
12	Propene	27.1	27.4	10.1	1127.6	179.8	14.7
13	1-Butene	7.7	9.1	5.3	185.0	31.4	7.3
14	Trans-2-butene	4.0	4.3	4.5	3.3	4.8	6.1
15	i-Butene	6.0	6.1	6.8	84.1	12.2	6.5
16	1-Pentene	5.3	11.4	2.6	56.7	10.0	-
17	Trans-2-pentene	2.0	4.8	4.9	16.1	3.4	-
18	1,3-Butadiene	28.3	17.1	21.4	399.1	88.9	27.5
19	Isoprene	20.5	347.5	130.4	2796.3	763.0	231.0
20	Acetylene *	256.3	208.8	156.6	2053.6	887.8	480.4
21	Benzene *	115.5	81.1	51.6	1387.0	776.0	291.4
22	Toluene *	46.4	18.7	11.6	636.2	282.0	72.6
23	O-Xylene *	12.3	7.9	43.2	68.6	22.5	10.8
24	m+p-Xylene	33.6	20.6	36.0	117.8	42.8	12.2
25	E-Benzene *	19.9	13.1	35.3	90.6	97.6	19.9
26	Benzaldheyde *	-	26.0	-	68.0	30.5	88.6
27	Acetophenone	-	51.8	-	44.0	46.2	312.3
28	Acetone	1692.1	1959.9	2144.8	5561.7	3166.5	3594.0
29	Methyl vinyl ketone	-	319.7	-	4126.0	-	62.2

30	Methacrolein *	22.5	20.4	4.0	754.5	213.3	100.6
31	Methanol	2119.0	2731.7	1549.9	6369.9	3950.8	4677.3
32	Limonene	-	15.0	-	14.3	-	14.3
33	α-Pinene	-	29.1	-	18.5	17.5	19.3
34	Furfural	-	19.4	-	157.5	46.5	14.4
35	Camphor	-	18.5	-	26.2	15.5	15.3
36	NO ₂	40.2	108.8	73.0	507.3	137.1	153.9
37	O ₃	71824.8	48217	61195	42431.0	45425	50858
38	ΣPNs (ppt)	288.5	281.9	298.2	2981.2	1543.2	407.8
39	ΣANs (ppt)	148.9	72.3	46.9	404.8	399.8	335.0
40	CO (ppt)	84887.4	119559.0	119040	984590	419000	251540
	$P(O_3)$ (ppt/s) **	0.0420	0.0593	0.0581	0.5082	0.2120	0.1379
	$P(\sum PNs) \text{ (ppt/s)}**$	2.9719*	4.6631*	2.5807*	0.0078	0.0023	0.0017
		10-4	10-4	10-4			
41	$\frac{P(O_3)}{P(\sum PNs)}^{**}$	141.3	127.2	225.0	65.0	90.3	78.9
	$P(O_3)$ (ppt/s)	0.5133	1.8446	0.5554	5.5643	0.6263	0.2432
	$P(\sum PNs)$ (ppt/s)	0.0035	0.0163	0.0053	0.1182	0.0341	0.0041
42	$\frac{P(O_3)}{P(\sum PNs)}$	145.6	113.5	105.4	47.1	18.3	58.8



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Figure 8. Average concentrations of the species involved in the O₃ and Σ PNs production. VOCs are in green, CO in red, NO₂ in blue, O₃ in magenta, Σ PNs in cyan and Σ ANs in yellow. In grey is reported the ratio between the $P(O_3)$ and $P(\sum PNs)$ evaluated using the direct calculation (see section 3.3); in teal blue is reported the ratio between the $P(O_3)$ and $P(\sum PNs)$ evaluated using the model simulation. The upper shows data measured during background flights (B619, part of B622, B630); the lower panel shows data from fire plume flights (part of B622, B623, B624). The parameters showed in Figure 8 are numbered according to Table 2.

Figure 8 shows graphically the results summarized in Table $\frac{2}{2}$. It is evident that during the 11 12 background flights both the VOC (in green) and CO (in red) concentrations are significantly lower with respect to those measured during the plume flights, as expected. At the same time, however, 13 14 the O₃ does not show significantly different concentrations in the biomass burning plumes. 15 Conversely Σ PNs concentrations in the fire plumes increase to a level three times higher than the 16 measurements in background air masses and the alkyl nitrates double. Analysing the measured 17 concentrations of O_3 and ΣPNs , we deduced that the boreal biomass burning emissions affect the 18 Σ PNs production more (on average 12 times higher in the fire plume compared with the background

1 air) than the production, which increase by only 5 times in the fire plume. Using the MCM 2 simulation we got a slightly different increase of Σ PNs production in the fire plume (on average 7 3 times), whereas the O₃ production in the fire plume on average increases 2 times. Therefore in the 4 fire plumes sampled during the BORTAS campaign, with both methods we observed more 5 production of NO_x reservoir species, which can be transported and potentially impact the O₃ 6 concentrations in other locations. Alvarado et al. (2010), using a global chemical-transport model, 7 estimated that 40% of the initial NO_x emission from boreal forest fires were converted into PAN. 8 Since PAN is one of the compounds included in Σ PNs family, our results show that more 9 production of Σ PNs in fire plumes compared with background air is plausible. Moreover, 10 calculating the ozone and peroxy nitrate production ratio (Fig. 6), we found that it is lower in the 11 fires plumes than in the background samples. This suggests that the production of peroxy nitrates 12 during the boreal biomass burning becomes a significant process compared with the ozone 13 production, at least in cold air when the thermal dissociation of Σ PNs is not efficient. For example 14 PAN, which is usually the most abundant Σ PNs, has a lifetime strongly dependent on temperature: 1 15 hr at 300 K, 2 days at 273 K and 118 days at 250 K (Isaksen, 1985). In order to understand the 16 impact of a specific category of VOCs, we calculated the contribution of each VOC species and CO 17 on the Σ PNs and O₃ production for the fire plume flights (B622, B623 and B624). We find that the 18 ozone production, as expected, is dominated by CO (with percentages exceeding 93% for all the 19 flights). Moreover, the production of peroxy nitrates is dominated by methacrolein (with 20 percentages ranging between 38% and 86%), followed by benzaldehyde (47%-7%) and o-xylene 21 (19%-3%). An unusual case, in terms of the peroxy nitrates production, is the background flight (B630) during which 75% of $P(\sum PNs)$ is derived from o-xylene and only 13% from 22 23 methacrolein, which dominates on all the other flights analysed in this study. At first look this is 24 strange because methacrolein is one of the major products of isoprene oxidation and it is expected 25 that air masses coming from boreal forests (burning or not) would be characterized by high

1 concentrations of biogenic VOCs rather than o-xylene which is an anthropogenic VOC. Lai et al. 2 (2013) found that at the Taipei International Airport (Taiwan) the most abundant VOCs produced 3 by the aircraft exhaust emissions is o-xylene. During the B630 flight the altitude was of about 7000 4 m. a.s.l. (ranging between 7500-6000 m. a.s.l.), higher than the other flights (1700-6000 m. a.s.l.), 5 and the flight track was around the eastern coast of Canada: Nova Scotia and Newfoundland Island. 6 At the flight altitude of B630 it is possible to sample air masses affected by aircraft emissions and, 7 so it is likely that the o-xylene dominance on the Σ PNs production can be explained due to 8 emissions from aircraft traffic.

9 Finally, the analysis of the O₃ and ΣPNs production in different environments (background and 10 boreal biomass burning plumes) indicates the impact on the tropospheric O₃ budget of the fire 11 emissions. In fact, the air masses influenced by biomass burning emissions show a lower (about 90 with the direct method and about 40 with the model) $P(O_3)/P(\sum PNs)$ ratio with respect to that for 12 13 the background air masses (about 180 with the direct method and about 120 with the model) 14 suggesting that the ozone production in the fire plumes is less significant than the peroxy nitrate 15 formation, on the contrary of what occurs in the background air masses. The difference between the 16 calculate ratios and the measured $O_3/\Sigma PNs$ (see Fig. 6) can be explained considering that: 1) the air masses are not fresh emissions; 2) the Σ PNs production (term at the denominator) is 17 18 underestimated, as expected since we are not considering all the possible VOCs precursors but only 19 the available for the BORTAS campaign. Moreover, the higher VOCs and Σ PNs concentrations 20 measured during the fire plume flights, associated with stable O₃ levels in the two environments, are 21 indicative of processed air masses (produced 4-5 days before) and suggest that NO₂ reservoir 22 species are produced in these plumes and transported to other regions.

23 **4.** Conclusions

In July and August 2011 the BORTAS aircraft campaign was carried out in Canada investigating
the impact of the emissions of boreal biomass burning on tropospheric chemistry. WDuring the

1 **BORTAS** aircraft campaign in Canada, we analysed the Σ PNs and O₃ production in two different 2 environments (air masses affected by fire emissions and those representative of background air) and 3 using different approaches: 1) a direct calculation in which we considered the VOCs oxidation rate 4 constant and the Σ PNs branching ratios for all the VOCs species that produce PN after the first or 5 second order reaction of their oxidation by OH; 2) using a 0-D photochemical model based on 6 MCM that includes a detailed chemistry of all the VOCs measured. Comparing the production of 7 Σ PNs and O₃ in plumes impacted by fire emissions with that in background air, we found that, on 8 average, ΣPNs production is more strongly enhanced than O₃ production: 5 - 12 times versus 2 - 7 9 times. Boreal biomass burning plumes observed during BORTAS campaign show minimal 10 enhancement of the O₃ and NO₂ concentrations and slight enhancement of the O₃ production. 11 However, they show significant enhancement in both concentration and production of Σ PNs, which 12 can act as a reservoir and enhance ozone production downwind of the plume.

13

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