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1 Supporting Information for Nighttime chemical transformation
2 in biomass burning plumes: a box model analysis initialized
3 with aircraft observations

4 *Zachary C. J. Decker^{1,2,3}, Kyle J. Zarzana^{1,2,3}, Matthew Coggon^{1,3}, Kyung-Eun Min^{1,3,†}, Ilana*
5 *Pollack^{1,††}, Thomas B. Ryerson³, Jeff Peischl^{1,3}, Pete Edwards⁴, William P. Dubé^{1,3}, Milos Z.*
6 *Markovic^{1,†††}, James M. Roberts^{1,3}, Patrick R. Veres³, Martin Graus^{1,††††}, Carsten Warneke^{1,3},*
7 *Joost de Gouw^{1,2}, Lindsay E. Hatch⁵, Kelley C. Barsanti⁵, Steven S. Brown^{2,3,*}*

8 ¹Cooperative Institute for Research in Environmental Sciences, University of Colorado, Boulder,
9 Colorado, 80309, United States. ²Department of Chemistry, University of Colorado, Boulder,
10 Colorado 80309-0215, United States. ³NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory (ESRL),
11 Chemical Sciences Division, Boulder, Colorado 80305, United States. ⁴Wolfson Atmospheric
12 Chemistry Laboratories, Department of Chemistry, University of York, York YO10 5DD, United
13 Kingdom. ⁵Department of Chemical and Environmental Engineering and College of
14 Engineering – Center for Environmental Research and Technology (CE-CERT), University of
15 California, Riverside, California 92507, United States. [†]Now at Gwangju Institute of Science and
16 Technology, School of Earth Sciences and Environmental Engineering, Gwangju, South Korea
17 61005. ^{††}Now at Colorado State University, Atmospheric Science Department, Ft. Collins, CO,
18 USA 80523-1371. ^{†††}Now at Picarro inc, Santa Clara, CA, 95054. ^{††††}Now at the Department of
19 Atmospheric and Cryospheric Sciences, University of Innsbruck, Austria 6020.

20 * steven.s.brown@noaa.gov

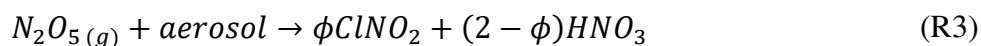
21 Abstract: Biomass burning (BB) is a large source of reactive compounds to the atmosphere. While
22 the daytime photochemistry of BB emissions has been studied in some detail, there has been little
23 focus on nighttime reactions despite the potential for substantial oxidative and heterogeneous
24 chemistry. Here we present the first analysis of nighttime aircraft intercepts of agricultural BB
25 plumes using observations from the NOAA WP-3D aircraft during the 2013 Southeast Nexus
26 (SENEX) campaign. We use these observations in conjunction with detailed chemical box
27 modeling to investigate the formation and fate of oxidants (NO_3 , N_2O_5 , O_3 , and OH) and BB
28 volatile organic compounds (BBVOCs), using emissions representative of agricultural burns (rice
29 straw) and western wildfires (ponderosa pine). Field observations suggest NO_3 production was
30 approximately 1 ppbv hr^{-1} , while NO_3 and N_2O_5 were at or below 3 pptv, indicating rapid
31 $\text{NO}_3/\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ reactivity. Model analysis shows that >99% of $\text{NO}_3/\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ loss is due to BBVOC + NO_3
32 reactions rather than aerosol uptake of N_2O_5 . Nighttime BBVOC oxidation for rice straw and
33 ponderosa pine fires is dominated by NO_3 (72, 53%, respectively) but O_3 oxidation is significant
34 (25, 43%) leading to roughly 55% overnight depletion of the most reactive BBVOCs and NO_2 .

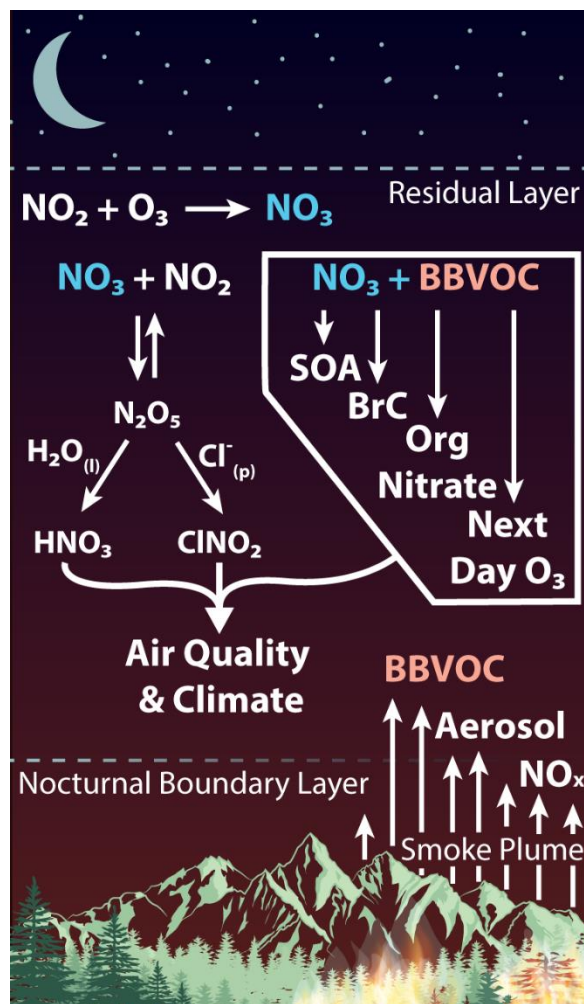
35 **Introduction**

36 Wildfire size and frequency in the Western U.S. has increased over the last 20 years, and these
37 trends are projected to continue due to factors such as forest management practices, elevated
38 summer temperatures, earlier snowmelt, and drought.^{1,2} Biomass burning (BB), including
39 wildfires, prescribed burning, and agricultural burning, represents a large, imperfectly
40 characterized and chemically complex source of reactive material to the troposphere. BB releases
41 reactive species and particulate matter that impact the radiative balance of the atmosphere, air

42 quality, and human health on local to global scales.³⁻⁷ The gas-phase components of BB plumes
43 include volatile organic compounds (BBVOCs) as well as nitrogen oxides ($\text{NO}_x = \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$ and
44 higher oxides such as peroxyacyl and alkyl nitrates), oxidants, and oxidant precursors. The air
45 quality and climate effects of BB emissions are defined in part by the oxidative processes and
46 atmospheric chemical cycles that occur as the smoke is transported, diluted, and exposed to
47 oxidants over the hours and weeks following emission.

48 The photochemistry of BB plumes has been studied previously in a number of field and
49 laboratory studies. Daytime BB plumes can have OH concentrations 5-10 times higher than
50 background air⁸ and daytime reactions of NO_x , BBVOCs, and OH involve complex pathways
51 that generally lead to O_3 formation, but in some cases to near-field O_3 titration.⁹⁻¹⁴ Much less is
52 known about nighttime BB plume oxidative processes, which are expected to be dominated by
53 nitrate radicals (NO_3) and O_3 .¹⁵ NO_3 is formed by O_3 oxidation of NO_x (R1 & Figure 1) but is
54 rapidly ($\tau < 10$ s) destroyed in the daytime by NO and photolysis.^{15,16} NO_3 is a precursor for
55 N_2O_5 (R2), a NO_x reservoir. N_2O_5 may undergo heterogeneous uptake to form ClNO_2 and HNO_3
56 (R3). The former is a daytime Cl radical precursor affecting both marine and continental
57 environments and influencing next-day O_3 production.¹⁷⁻²⁰ NO_3 can also be directly taken up
58 onto aerosol (R4).





59
 60 **Figure 1.** Schematic of nighttime NO_3 and N_2O_5 chemical processing in a biomass burning
 61 plume.

62 Mixing of background or smoke-derived¹⁴ O_3 with NO_x in a BB plume leads to the production
 63 of NO_3 , which may be rapid (>0.5 ppbv hr^{-1}). Recent laboratory measurements conducted during
 64 both the Fire Lab at Missoula Experiment (FLAME-4) and the on-going Fire Influence on
 65 Regional and Global Environments Experiment (FIREX) have provided detailed identification
 66 and quantification of emissions for a range of BBVOCs.^{4,5,21–23} Emissions inventories from these
 67 experiments indicate that the compounds emitted and their relative concentrations depend on the
 68 fuel type (e.g., pine vs. grass), combustion process (e.g., smoldering or flaming), ignition

69 procedure (fast or slow), and pyrolysis temperature (e.g., high or low).^{4,21,24,25} Generally, primary
70 BBVOC emissions include oxygenated hydrocarbons and aromatics (e.g., phenols), as well as
71 unsaturated hydrocarbons, biogenic and hetero-aromatic species.^{4,5,21} Many such compounds are
72 very reactive toward NO_3 ²⁶⁻³³ and may significantly limit its lifetime, promote secondary
73 organic aerosol formation (SOA)^{34,35}, and alter nighttime oxidative budgets.

74 The co-emission of NO_x , highly reactive VOCs, and aerosol particles leads to the potential for
75 significant nighttime chemical transformations. Despite this potential, there has been only one
76 aircraft campaign to date from which sampling of nighttime biomass burning plumes has been
77 reported.^{36,37} The Southeast Nexus (SENEX) campaign in 2013 included 20 research flights of an
78 instrumented NOAA WP-3D aircraft and one of the goals was to study the interactions between
79 anthropogenic and biogenic emissions.³⁸ A night flight on July 2-3 targeted the emissions and
80 nighttime chemistry from a power plant plume near the Mississippi river. During this flight the
81 WP-3D also targeted and intercepted agricultural BB plumes yielding the first airborne study of
82 nighttime smoke that included NO_3 and N_2O_5 measurements.³⁶ Even so there has been no
83 previous analysis of BB NO_3 chemistry using nighttime aircraft intercepts.

84 Here, we present the first analysis of nighttime smoke oxidation based on aircraft intercepts of
85 fire plumes using data from this flight. With these observations we initiate a detailed chemical
86 box model to understand the chemical evolution of oxidants (NO_3 , N_2O_5 , O_3 , and OH) and
87 BBVOCs over one night (10 hours) using emissions for rice straw to model a generic agricultural
88 burning plume. We then use this analysis to model nighttime chemistry in western wildfires
89 using emissions for a ponderosa pine fire.

90 **Field and Laboratory Measurements**

91 Field data for this study were taken from multiple instruments deployed on the NOAA WP-3D
92 aircraft during the SENEX 2013³⁸ flight on July 2-3, 2013 (20:00-03:00 CDT). Our analysis
93 utilizes data from the NOAA nitrogen oxide cavity ring-down spectrometer (CRDS) for NO₂,
94 NO₃, N₂O₅, and O₃,³⁹⁻⁴² as well as the NO_yO₃ chemiluminescence instrument (CL) for NO, NO₂,
95 O₃, and NO_y⁴³ with 1 Hz acquisition resolution. Within the plume regions we study, the
96 measurements of NO₂ and O₃ from the CRDS and CL instruments agree within 7%. We also use
97 data from an ultra-high sensitivity aerosol spectrometer (UHSAS) for aerosol size measurements
98 (1Hz)^{44,45} and a proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometer (PTR-MS) for VOC measurements
99 (1 s every 17 s)⁴⁶.

100 BB intercepts were identified by the enhancement above background of four species: black
101 carbon (BC), glyoxal (CHOCHO), CO, and acryloyl peroxyoxynitrate (APAN).^{36,47} BB identifier
102 data were provided by the NOAA airborne cavity enhanced spectrometer (ACES)⁴⁸ for glyoxal,
103 iodide chemical ionization mass spectrometer (I-CIMS) for APAN⁴⁹, single particle soot
104 photometer (SP2) for black carbon⁵⁰, and vacuum ultra-violet fluorimeter for CO⁵¹. Power plant
105 plumes were identified by above background enhancements of NO_x and N₂O₅. While CO is also
106 present in the power plant plumes, the three other BB identifiers were not. Information on
107 background and plume measurements are in the SI (Table S1 & S2).

108 Five VOCs (toluene, isoprene + furan, methylvinylketone + methacrolein (MVK+MACR), and
109 methylethylketone (MEK)) as well as acetonitrile were measured by the PTR-MS during SENEX
110 and overlap with our inventory. However, we explain in the SI that we do not use these
111 observations because we do not know the fire source, number of fires, or fuel and plume age
112 estimates are highly uncertain (Figure S5).

113 Our detailed chemical box model uses emission inventories from Hatch et al.⁵ and Koss et al.⁴
114 for the ponderosa pine and rice straw fuels. The BBVOC emissions from Hatch et al.^{5,21} were
115 measured during FLAME-4 using the following instruments: two-dimensional gas
116 chromatography–time-of-flight mass spectrometry, open-path Fourier-transform infrared
117 spectroscopy²², whole-air sampling with one-dimensional gas chromatography–mass
118 spectrometry, and PTR time-of-flight mass spectrometry (PTR-ToF)⁵². BBVOC emissions from
119 Koss et al.⁴ were measured by PTR-ToF during FIREX. Details regarding how the two
120 inventories were merged is included in the SI. In general, for compounds shared between both
121 inventories, the emission ratios (E1) agree within an order of magnitude with some exceptions
122 (Figure S6). We propagate this variability into our model results (SI).

123 **Analysis and Modeling Methods**

124 We report our emissions in the form of laboratory-derived emission ratios (ER), which is the
125 background subtracted emitted compound (x) normalized to background subtracted CO.^{4,21}

$$ER_x = \frac{x \text{ (ppbv)}}{CO \text{ (ppmv)}} \quad (\text{E1})$$

126 These emissions are integrated over the entirety of the laboratory fires and therefore contain
127 emissions from all stages of the fire.

128 The modified combustion efficiency (MCE) was calculated for each plume.

$$MCE = \frac{CO_2 - CO_{2bkg}}{(CO_2 - CO_{2bkg}) + (CO - CO_{bkg})} \quad (\text{E2})$$

129 During plume intercepts, the average MCE was $95 \pm 6\%$, which is consistent with previous
130 MCE calculations of the July 2/3 night flight.³⁶

131 Total NO₃ reactivity toward BBVOCs is given by

$$k_{NO_3}^{BBVOC} = \sum k_{NO_3+BBVOC_i} [BBVOC_i] \quad (E3)$$

132 where $k_{NO_3+BBVOC_i}$ is the bimolecular rate coefficient for $NO_3 + BBVOC_i$ and $k_{NO_3}^{BBVOC}$ is the
 133 pseudo-first order rate coefficient. The bimolecular rate coefficients for NO_3 , O_3 , or $OH +$
 134 $BBVOC$ were taken from literature where available and estimated by structure activity
 135 relationships^{31,53} or structural similarity where unavailable (SI).

136 Due to limited literature on $NO_3 + BBVOC$ rate coefficients, our inventory excludes many
 137 nitriles, amines, alkynes, acids, and other compounds whose rate coefficients were unavailable
 138 and could not be estimated. We also removed saturated hydrocarbons because they are generally
 139 unreactive toward NO_3 .²⁸ Despite this, our merged inventory retains about 87% of the total
 140 inventory carbon mass, or 96% by mass, with 235 compounds from Hatch et al.⁵ and 171
 141 compounds from Koss et al.⁴ with 103 compounds shared in both inventories for a total of 303
 142 unique compounds.

143 To calculate the observed NO_3 reactivity during SENEX BB plume intercepts we determined
 144 $BBVOC$ concentration using background corrected CO measured on the WP-3D.

$$BBVOC (ppbv) = ER_{BBVOC} (CO - CO_{bkg}) \quad (E4)$$

145 As shown below, $BBVOC$ is likely the main sink of NO_3 ; therefore, the extent of $BBVOC$
 146 oxidation by NO_3 will be limited by the $NO_x/BBVOC$ ratio as NO_x is the source for NO_3 (R1).
 147 Furthermore, the relative oxidative importance between O_3 and NO_3 depends on the
 148 $NO_x/BBVOC$ ratio as explained by Edwards et al.⁵⁴ Therefore, in contrast to the method used for
 149 calculating $BBVOC$ concentration in SENEX fire plume intercepts described above, we initiate
 150 our box model with fire emissions scaled to NO_x in order to preserve the NO_x/VOC ratio
 151 observed during the fire lab experiments.

152 To estimate the emitted NO_x at the fire source we assume that the total reactive nitrogen (NO_y ,
153 which does not include NH_3) is equivalent to the emitted NO_x . The NO_x/NO_y ratio as measured
154 during SENEX fire plume intercepts in Figure 2 was 0.84. We calculated the observed NO_y
155 emission ratio using NO_y (13.2 ± 3.1 ppbv) and CO (543.4 ± 87.7 ppbv) enhancements above
156 background. The calculated NO_y emission ratio, which we assume to be the NO_x emission ratio
157 at the fire source, was determined to be 24.3 ± 6.4 ppbv $\text{NO}_y/\text{ppmv CO}$ for the plume intercept.
158 We compared the estimated observed NO_x emission ratio to the NO_x emission ratios reported by
159 Selimovic et al. for rice straw (43.9 ppbv $\text{NO}_x/\text{ppmv CO}$) and ponderosa pine (26.9 ± 4.3 ppbv
160 $\text{NO}_x/\text{ppmv CO}$).²³ We then scaled the BBVOC emissions by this ratio (E5), effectively scaling
161 the fire emissions to the NO_x of the observed fire plume.

$$[BBVOC]^{model} = [BBVOC]^{inventory} * \frac{ER_{NO_y}^{observed}}{ER_{NO_x}^{inventory}} \quad (E5)$$

162 The NO_x emission ratio observed during the SENEX fire plume intercepts in Figure 2 was 45%
163 and 11% lower than the laboratory-derived NO_x emission ratio for rice straw and ponderosa pine
164 fires respectively. To correctly model the NO_3 oxidation of these fires we reduced our BBVOC
165 emissions by a factor of 55% for rice straw and 89% for ponderosa pine.

166 Model background and initial concentrations of NO_x , CO, and O_3 were taken from the SENEX
167 observations shown in Figure 2. We estimate the NO/NO_2 ratio at the fire source using the NO
168 and NO_2 emission ratios from FIREX for each fuel. The NO/NO_2 ratios used are 5.3 and 2.8 for
169 rice straw and ponderosa pine, respectively.²³ The background NO_2 mixing ratio was taken to be
170 0.9 ppbv. The background O_3 mixing ratio, 43.9 ppbv, was used as the starting O_3 mixing ratio
171 and is representative of the background O_3 in the region where BB plumes were intercepted
172 (Figure S3).

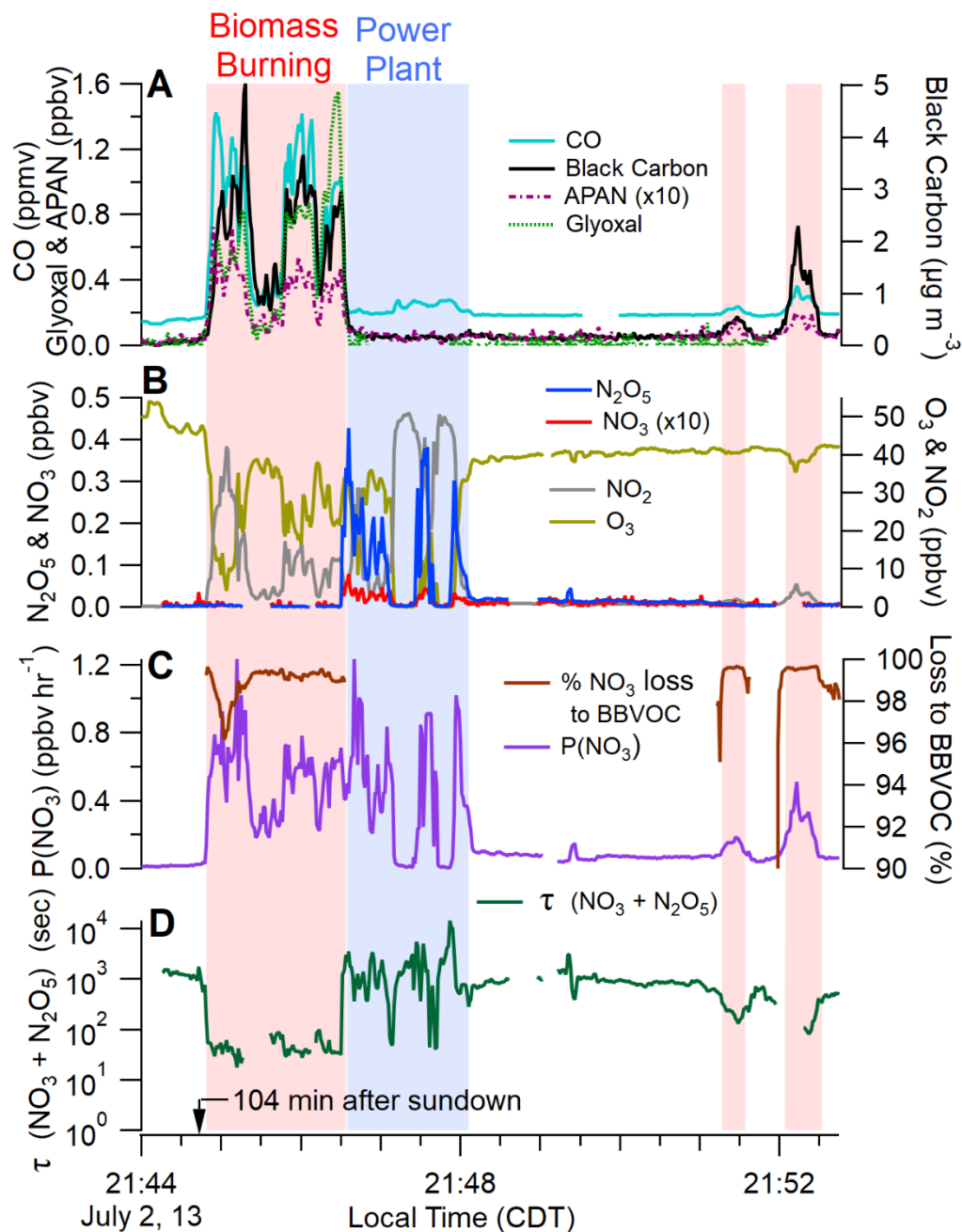
173 Box modeling was performed using the Framework for 0-D Atmospheric Modeling (F0AM)⁵⁵
174 to investigate the evolution of oxidized mass and oxidant fractions over 10 hours (the
175 approximate duration of one night in July in the Southeastern U.S.). Chemical mechanisms were
176 adopted from the MCM (v3.3.1⁵⁶⁻⁶⁰, via website: <http://mcm.york.ac.uk>) and published
177 mechanisms for methylguaiacol, syringol, *o*-guaiacol, and 3-methylfuran were added (Table
178 S4).⁶¹⁻⁶³ Compounds not included in the above references were modeled as a one-step reaction of
179 BBVOC + NO₃, BBVOC + O₃, or BBVOC + OH to form a single oxidation product.

180 All models were run at 298 K, typical experimental conditions for most published rate
181 coefficients. Temperatures during flight ranged between 288-290 K (SI). In order to account for
182 dilution processes, as well as entrainment of O₃, we apply a first order dilution of $k_{\text{dil}} = 1.16 \times 10^{-5}$
183 s⁻¹, or a 24 hour lifetime. The sensitivity of this assumption is shown in Figure S2 and discussed
184 in the SI. We report a base case model result with upper and lower bound uncertainties based on
185 the emission and rate coefficient uncertainties. Although, as discussed in the SI, the bounds do
186 not provide information on the error distribution.

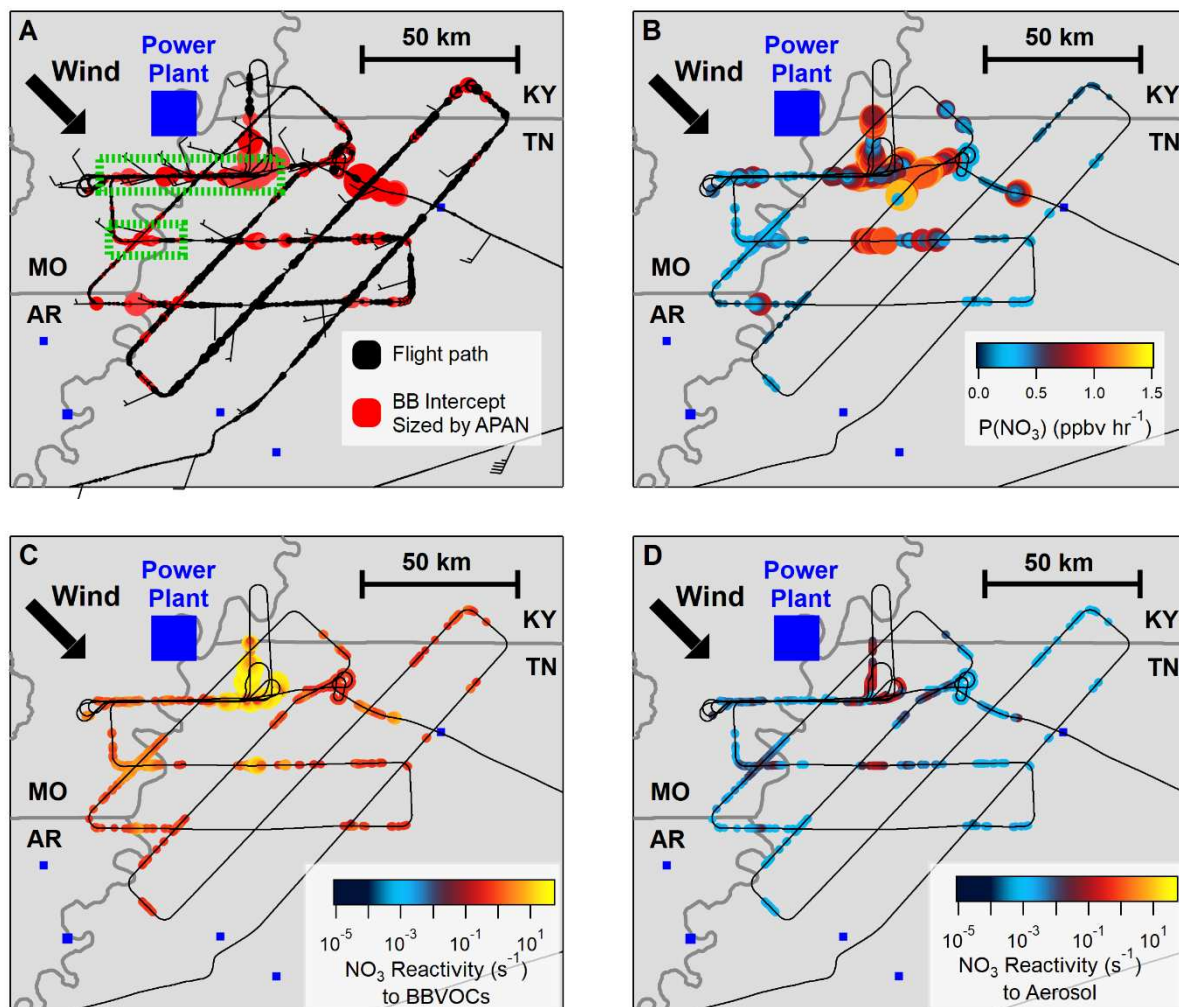
187 **Results and Discussion**

188 In panel A of Figure 2 the power plant plume intercepts (blue background) are distinguished
189 from the fire plume intercepts (red background) by CO, black carbon, APAN, and glyoxal.
190 Intercepts shown in Figure 2 were at an altitude between 700-900 meters. Relative to the BB
191 plume intercepts, the power plant plume intercepts exhibited elevated levels of NO₃ and N₂O₅
192 (Figure 2B). Figure 3A shows a flight map of the July 2-3 flight colored red during BB plume
193 intercepts and sized by the APAN mixing ratio. Roughly 97% of the indicated BB plumes do not
194 show signs of power plant plume mixing (SI). Green dashed boxes indicate sections of data
195 shown in Figure 2.

196 The flight covered the intersection of Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Arkansas at the
197 Mississippi river. According to the USDA CropScape database, this land is mainly agricultural
198 and therefore the fire plume is most likely the result of burning crop residue and stubble.^{36,64}
199 Plume intercepts occurred near winter wheat crops, and rice straw crops are situated roughly 70
200 km northwest. Still, rice straw is the best available fuel proxy for agricultural burning emissions.
201 The wind direction was roughly northwesterly with most BB plume intercepts occurring in the
202 northwest corner of Tennessee.



203
 204 **Figure 2.** Time traces during representative sections of BB (red) and power plant (blue) plume
 205 intercepts made 104 minutes after sundown ($\text{SZA}=90^\circ$). A: BB tracers, B: NO_3 , N_2O_5 , NO_2 , and
 206 O_3 mixing ratio, C: production rate of NO_3 and the percentage of NO_3 reactivity toward
 207 BBVOCs, D: lifetime of NO_3 and N_2O_5 .



208 **Figure 3.** Flight maps of the SENEX July 2-3 2013 night flight. A: BB intercepts colored by red
 209 markers, sized by APAN (0.01-0.1 ppbv), and green dashes indicate sections shown in Figure 2,
 210 B: Production rate of NO_3 , C: and D: are comparisons of NO_3 reactivity toward BBVOCs (C)
 211 and toward aerosol (D) on the same color and log scale.

212 To illustrate the NO_3 chemistry within a BB plume, we use previously published NO_3 and
 213 N_2O_5 analysis metrics. The NO_3 production rate, $P(\text{NO}_3)$, is the instantaneous source of NO_3
 214 from the reaction of NO_2 with O_3 and is given in (E6).¹⁵ The $\text{NO}_3 + \text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ lifetime (τ) is the ratio
 215 of NO_3 and N_2O_5 concentration to the NO_3 production rate (E7).⁶⁵ The summed lifetime is useful

216 because NO_3 and N_2O_5 reach an equilibrium state that is typically more rapid than the individual
217 sink reactions for either, such that they can be regarded as a sum.

$$P(\text{NO}_3) = k_{\text{NO}_3}[\text{NO}_2][\text{O}_3] \quad (\text{E6})$$

$$\tau(\text{NO}_3 + \text{N}_2\text{O}_5) = \frac{\text{NO}_3 + \text{N}_2\text{O}_5}{P(\text{NO}_3)} \quad (\text{E7})$$

218 $P(\text{NO}_3)$ was large and of similar magnitude in both the power plant plume and BB plume
219 (Figure 2C). Figure 3B is colored by NO_3 production during BB intercepts only, and shows that
220 large NO_3 production rates, near 1 ppbv hr^{-1} , were observed during multiple BB plume
221 intercepts. Despite the large NO_3 radical production, the NO_3 and N_2O_5 concentrations within the
222 BB plume were below the 3 pptv^{38} stated detection limit of the instrument (Figure 2B), yielding
223 short $\text{NO}_3 + \text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ lifetimes. Indeed, as shown in Figure 2D, τ is roughly a factor of 100 lower
224 within the BB plume as compared to the power plant plume and background air. Because the
225 NO_3 and N_2O_5 were below stated detection limits in the BB plumes, the corresponding lifetimes
226 shown in Figure 2D are upper limits, and the actual lifetimes may be considerably shorter.

227 The high production rate and short lifetime of $\text{NO}_3 + \text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ within the BB plume is evidence
228 for rapid NO_3 or N_2O_5 loss pathways. BB plumes contain large quantities of both aerosol and
229 BBVOCs, which provide two efficient $\text{NO}_3/\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ loss pathways. To understand the competition
230 between these loss processes we calculated an instantaneous NO_3 reactivity toward aerosol and
231 toward BBVOCs. The total NO_3 loss to BBVOC is calculated using the sum of BBVOC
232 reactivity normalized to CO (E3). The total NO_3 loss to aerosol uptake is given as the sum of
233 both NO_3 and N_2O_5 uptake rate coefficients. By assuming steady state⁶⁶ for both NO_3 and N_2O_5 ,
234 we estimate the total aerosol uptake, and therefore NO_3 reactivity toward aerosol, as

$$k_{\text{NO}_3}^{\text{aerosol}} = K_{\text{eq}}[\text{NO}_2]k_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5+\text{aerosol}} + k_{\text{NO}_3+\text{aerosol}} \quad (\text{E8})$$

235 where $k_{NO_3}^{aerosol}$ is a first order rate coefficient, K_{eq} is the equilibrium constant between NO_3 and
236 N_2O_5 (R2), and $k_{x+aerosol}$ is the first order rate coefficient for N_2O_5 or NO_3 aerosol uptake
237 expressed below.

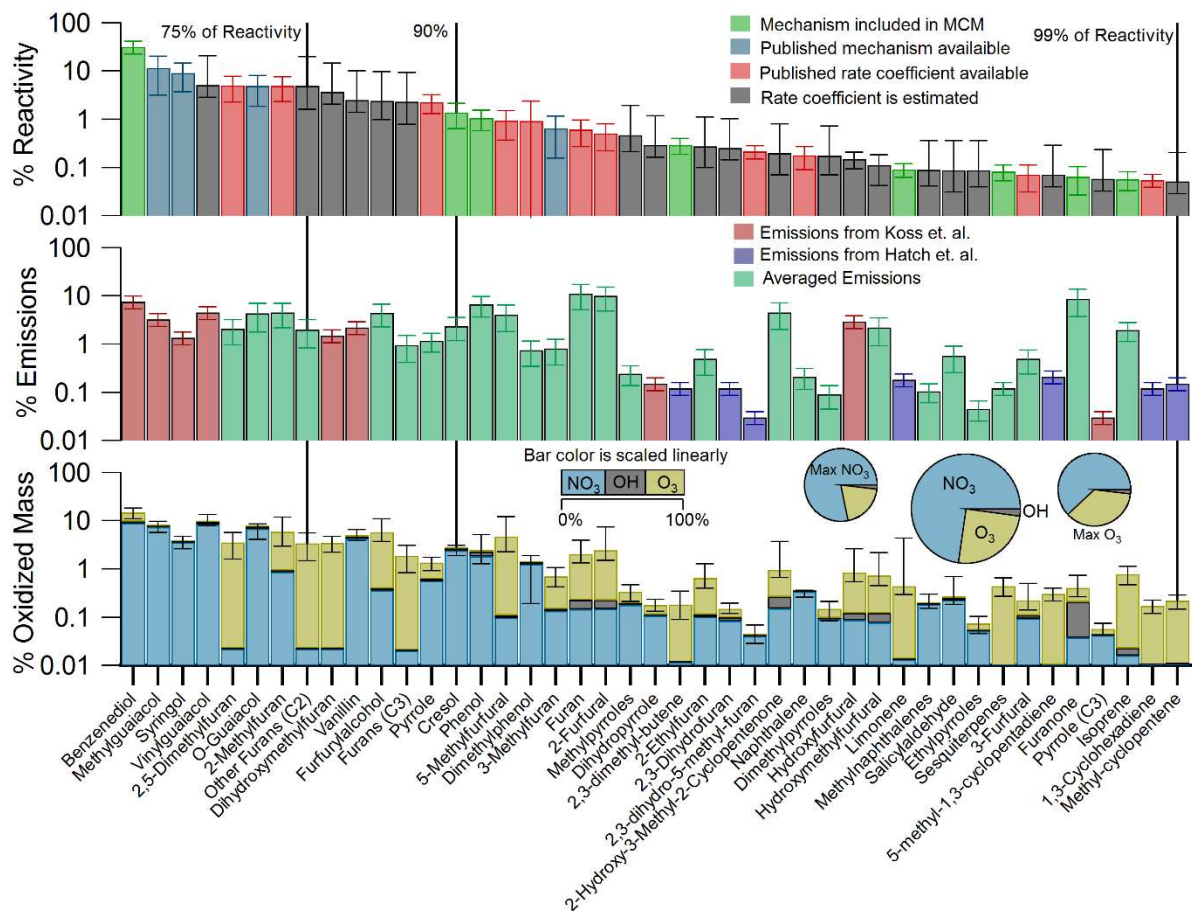
$$k_{x+aerosol} = \frac{\gamma \cdot \bar{c} \cdot SA}{4} \quad (E9)$$

238 Here, γ is the aerosol uptake coefficient, \bar{c} is the mean molecular speed, and SA is the aerosol
239 surface area. Calculations use uptake coefficients of $\gamma_{N_2O_5} = 10^{-2}$ for N_2O_5 ¹⁹ and $\gamma_{NO_3} = 10^{-3}$
240 for NO_3 . However, γ_{NO_3} values have a wide range therefore we include calculations with $\gamma_{NO_3} =$
241 1 in the SI, but find similar results.¹⁵

242 Figure 3C & D compare the NO_3 reactivity toward BBVOCs, and aerosol uptake during BB
243 plume intercepts, respectively. In all BB intercepts, the calculated NO_3 reactivity toward
244 BBVOCs is a factor of 100 - 1000 greater than aerosol uptake. Figure 2C shows the percentage
245 of NO_3 reactivity dominated by BBVOC with a median >99%.

246 To understand which BBVOCs may be responsible for the rapid initial loss of NO_3 we
247 calculated the relative NO_3 reactivity for 303 compounds in rice straw and ponderosa pine
248 burning emissions. The top panel of Figure 4 shows the ranked order of the compounds that
249 account for 99% of the rice straw initial NO_3 reactivity. Eight furan or phenol compounds are
250 responsible for 75% of the initial NO_3 reactivity. Most of, the initial NO_3 reactivity for a rice
251 straw fire is accounted for by phenols ($60_{-14}^{+20}\%$) and furans ($23_{-6}^{+20}\%$), as well as pyrroles and
252 furfurals ($8_{-3}^{+9}\%$ combined).

253



254

255 **Figure 4.** Rice Straw fuel. The top panel shows the ranked order of the compounds that account

256 for 99% of the rice straw initial NO₃ reactivity. The color scale describes the origin of the

257 mechanisms or rate coefficient used. The middle panel is the relative BBVOC emission ratio

258 normalized to the total BBVOC emission ratio and the color scale describes the origin of the

259 emissions data. The bottom panel is the relative nighttime reacted mass (10 hours) normalized to

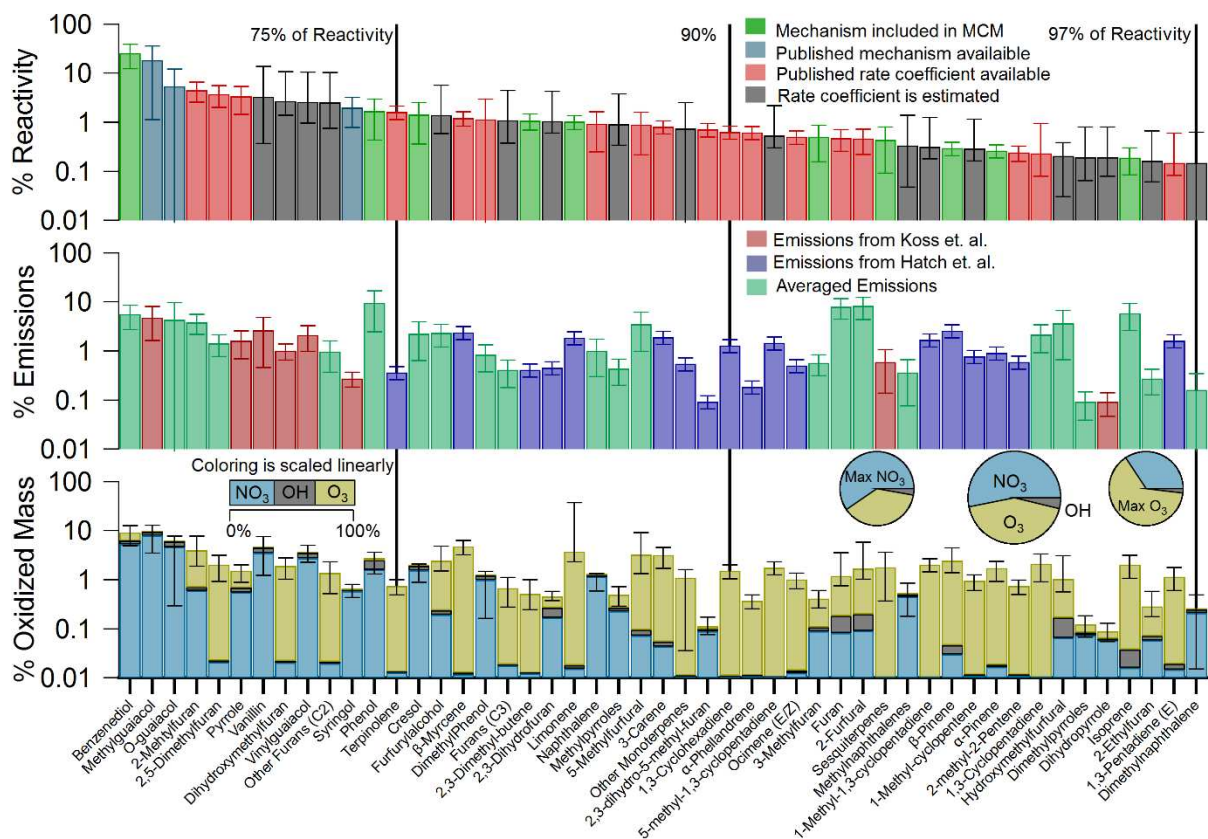
260 total reacted mass. While the bar height is on a log scale, the color scale is linear and indicates

261 the fraction of oxidation by NO₃ (blue), O₃ (gold), and OH (grey). The center pie chart shows the

262 fraction of reacted mass in the base case with the maximum NO₃ oxidation case to the left, and

263 maximum O₃ oxidation case to the right. All panels sum to 100%.

264 The top panel of Figure 5 shows the ranked order of the compounds that account for 97% of
 265 the ponderosa pine initial NO₃ reactivity. The top 75% of initial NO₃ reactivity is distributed
 266 among 13 compounds with phenols (62⁺²⁷₋₂₃%), furans (18⁺¹²₋₄%), pyrrole and furfural (8⁺⁸₋₃%
 267 combined) again dominating the total reactivity. Unlike rice straw, a ponderosa pine fire plume
 268 has significant reactivity towards terpenes (8⁺²₋₁%). The initial NO₃ reactivity towards terpenes
 269 and unsaturated hydrocarbons in a rice straw plume is <1%. These differences in reactivity are
 270 due to differences in emissions between the two fuels as explained below.⁵



271
 272 **Figure 5.** Same as Figure 4, but for the ponderosa pine fuel. In the bottom panel the bar height is
 273 on a log scale, but the color scale is linear and indicates the fraction of oxidation by NO₃ (blue),
 274 O₃ (gold), and OH (grey).

275 The middle panels of Figures 4 and 5 show the emission ratios for each compound normalized
276 to total emissions. The color indicates the origin of the emission ratio. The rice straw fire
277 emissions for compounds included in Figure 4 are mainly furans ($33\pm 8\%$), phenols ($27\pm 4\%$),
278 and furfurals ($24\pm 6\%$), while unsaturated hydrocarbon and terpene emissions account for only
279 $3\pm 1\%$. In contrast, the ponderosa pine fire emissions have a larger representation of terpenes
280 ($18\pm 4\%$) and unsaturated hydrocarbons ($10\pm 2\%$), but phenols ($33\pm 10\%$), furans ($17\pm 4\%$) and
281 furfurals ($18\pm 6\%$) are all still significant.

282 To better understand smoke plume evolution and to determine the amount of BBVOC mass
283 oxidized during one night (10 hours), we ran a 0-D box model for both rice straw and ponderosa
284 pine fire emissions. NO_3 and N_2O_5 remained below 3 pptv (Figure S1), consistent with field
285 observations (Figure 2B). Figure S1 illustrates that the summed concentrations of the most
286 reactive BBVOCs are comparable to NO_2 , suggesting there is approximately as much NO_3
287 precursor available as there is BBVOC to be oxidized. For both fuels, roughly 50-60% of NO_2
288 and the BBVOC compounds listed in Figure 4 and Figure 5 are depleted by chemistry (excluding
289 dilution) in one night. Our box-model suggests several abundant BBVOCs survive the night with
290 more than 50% of their initial starting concentration, such as phenol, furan, furfural and
291 hydroxymethylfurfural (SI).

292 HNO_3 production is complex within the model, and both maximum and minimum uncertainty
293 bounds on HNO_3 concentrations are the result of higher bound BBVOC emissions, but lower and
294 higher bound BBVOC rate coefficients, respectively. HNO_3 is the product of reactions of
295 phenolic compounds with NO_3 , which proceeds by H-abstraction. HNO_3 production is
296 dominated by catechol + NO_3 ($\sim 60\%$) within the first few hours, but as the more reactive
297 compounds are depleted, the lesser reactive compounds like methyl guaiacol, guaiacol and

298 syringol react with NO_3 and dominate in the last two hours. HNO_3 may be lost to the particle
299 phase with concurrent NH_3 emission or other nitrogen species, however this loss mechanism is
300 not included in our model.

301 For both fuels, catechol is the most reactive compound, and accounts for $32\pm 9\%$ and $26\pm 13\%$
302 of initial NO_3 reactivity at the start of the simulation for rice straw and ponderosa pine plumes,
303 respectively. However, Koss et al.⁴ were unable to distinguish between catechol and
304 methylfurfural at $m/z = 110.1$. We assume a 50/50 contribution here, which yields catechol
305 emission ratios of 2.5 ± 0.8 ppbv ppmv⁻¹ CO for rice straw and 1.5 ± 0.6 ppbv ppmv⁻¹ CO for
306 ponderosa pine. Still, the high reactivity is mainly due to the large catechol rate coefficient
307 ($9.9\cdot 10^{-11}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹)⁶⁷, which is the third greatest among the emitted compounds.
308 Catechol is known to react with NO_3 by H-abstraction, with subsequent addition of NO_2 to the
309 aromatic peroxy radical to form 4-nitrocatechol with a near-unity molar yield of 0.91 ± 0.06 .⁶⁸
310 Further, 4-nitrocatechol is expected to almost completely (96%) partition to the particle phase.⁶⁸
311 Recently, Hartikainen et al.²⁵ investigated dark oxidation of residential wood combustion and
312 found strong correlations between the depletion of phenolic compounds and the formation of
313 NO_3 -initiated SOA. In wintertime BB events, 4-nitrocatechol and other derivatives have been
314 detected in aerosol and are considered important light-absorbing components of brown carbon
315 (BrC).^{35,69-76}

316 SOA yields are a function of mass loadings.⁷⁷ Using a catechol mass loading of $300 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
317 from Finewax et al.⁶⁸ as well as a total observed aerosol plume measurement of $58.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ we
318 estimate a 4-nitrocatechol SOA mass yield of 120%. Assuming 0.6 ppbv of catechol in
319 ponderosa pine and 0.8 ppbv in rice straw (initial model conditions) with 44 ppbv O_3 , 13 ppbv of
320 NO_x and $k_{\text{dil}} = 1.16\cdot 10^{-5}$ s⁻¹, we estimate the SOA produced from catechol to be $3.8\pm 1.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$

321 in 8 hours and $4.0_{-1.0}^{+1.1} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in 8.5 hours for a rice straw and ponderosa pine plume,
322 respectively. Further, there is evidence to suggest furans and furfurals may also be a source of
323 SOA precursors.^{5,25}

324 The bottom panel of Figure 4 shows the reacted mass per compound normalized to the total
325 reacted mass. The bar height is on a log scale, but the bar color is linearly scaled and indicates
326 the fraction of nighttime oxidation by NO_3 (blue), O_3 (gold), and OH (grey) after 10 hours for
327 each compound. The center pie chart in Figure 4 and 5 represents the base case fraction of
328 reactant mass oxidized by each oxidant. The left and right pie charts show results for the
329 estimated maximum possible NO_3 and maximum possible O_3 oxidation, respectively.
330 Uncertainty in the fraction of oxidized mass is calculated from the uncertainties in individual
331 compound emissions and rate coefficients. For the compounds comprising a rice straw BB
332 plume, the majority of mass is oxidized by NO_3 ($72_{-11}^{+6}\%$). This is expected because the rice
333 straw fuel emissions are rich in oxygenated aromatic and hetero-aromatic emissions, which are
334 generally less reactive toward O_3 . Terpenes and unsaturated hydrocarbons, which are a small
335 fraction of emissions in Figure 4, are relatively more reactive toward O_3 . Even so, O_3 still has a
336 significant oxidative impact and is responsible for $26_{-6}^{+11}\%$ of oxidized BBVOC mass.

337 The relative amount of oxidized mass for ponderosa pine is shown in the bottom panel of
338 Figure 5. Almost half of the oxidized mass for compounds included in Figure 5 is due to O_3
339 ($43_{-6}^{+21}\%$) for our base case. The phenolic compounds mainly undergo NO_3 oxidation while
340 terpenes and unsaturated hydrocarbons are mainly oxidized by O_3 . Furans and the hetero-
341 aromatics are oxidized approximately evenly by O_3 and NO_3 . The increased fraction of O_3
342 oxidation is the result of the increased fraction of unsaturated hydrocarbon and terpenes in the
343 ponderosa pine emissions when compared to rice straw.

344 The nighttime chemical evolution and oxidation products of a biomass burning plume will
345 depend on the relative NO_3 and O_3 reactivity. Neglecting the small contribution from OH
346 oxidation, Edwards et al.⁵⁴ show the competition between NO_3 and O_3 oxidation of biogenic
347 VOCs (BVOC) is dependent on the NO_x/BVOC ratio. We scaled our BBVOC emissions to
348 maintain the NO_x/BBVOC ratio expected for rice straw (0.4 ± 0.1) or ponderosa pine (0.3 ± 0.1)
349 emissions. However, because fires are highly variable, the NO_x/BBVOC ratio for any given fuel
350 may vary from fire to fire. For rice straw, a factor of two increase in NO_x increases the fraction
351 of NO_3 oxidation from 72% to 84%, while a factor of two decrease in NO_x decreases relative
352 NO_3 oxidation to 55%. Similarly, for ponderosa pine, doubling NO_x increases the fraction of NO_3
353 oxidation from 53% to 66%, while halving NO_x decreases relative NO_3 oxidation to 37% and
354 increases O_3 to 57%. Furthermore, we find that a factor of two change in ambient O_3
355 concentration has little effect on the relative NO_3 and O_3 reactivity (see SI).

356 Our reactivity calculations and box-model results are most limited by a lack of kinetic and
357 mechanistic studies for O_3 , NO_3 , and OH + BBVOCs reactions. Kinetic and mechanistic studies
358 of furan, furfural, phenol, and pyrrole analogues reacting with NO_3 will be most critical to
359 understanding nighttime BB processes, which we highlight in the SI.

360 The time of day in which a fire is active will determine the fate of its emissions. This paper
361 presents the first nighttime aircraft intercepts of a BB plume combined with an inventory of 303
362 BBVOC emissions and an oxidation model to predict the lifetime and fate of BB emissions in the
363 dark. Fire emissions at times near sunset will undergo the chemistry we have detailed here,
364 which suggests a roughly 60% depletion (for both rice straw and ponderosa pine) of fire-derived
365 NO_x . We find that nighttime chemistry is likely to proceed by NO_3 , rather than N_2O_5 , further
366 slowing the loss of NO_x (R1 & R2). Our model applies to chemistry at the center of a plume and

367 does not include dispersion. Dispersion mixes NO_x with background O₃ at the edges of the plume
368 leading to faster depletion, and therefore the values we report are likely lower limits. Even so,
369 18-19% of BBVOC mass, out of the total BBVOC mass that we model, will be oxidized in one
370 night. That is roughly a 55% depletion of the BBVOCs that are reactive toward NO₃. There is
371 evidence that many of these NO₃ reactive compounds can form secondary BrC aerosol^{35,69-76},
372 suggesting nighttime oxidation may be a significant source of BB derived BrC. Furthermore,
373 future BB photochemical models should consider that these reactive phenolic-, furan- and
374 furfural-like compounds are not only reactive toward NO₃, but also O₃ and OH, thus affecting
375 next-day BB photochemistry.

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378 Supporting Information Available

379 Figure S1, box model time traces of key species, Figure S2, box model sensitivity to the dilution
380 rate coefficient, Figure S3, Correlation of O₃ and NO₂ from aircraft observations, Figure S4,
381 altitude profiles of key species and potential temperature, Figure S5, plume age estimates, Figure
382 S6, variability in emission ratios. Table S1, BB plume and background values, Table S2, Plumes
383 and background times, Table S3, List of reactions excluded from the MCM, Table S4,
384 mechanisms added to the MCM. This information is available free of charge via the Internet at
385 <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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