

1 **Investigation of High Ozone Events due to Wildfire Smoke in an**

2 **Urban Area**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Using data from the St. Luke’s site in Meridian, ID (near Boise) during 2006-2017 and a
12 2017 summer intensive campaign, we investigate enhancements in ozone (O_3) during wildfire
13 events in an urban area. We calculate a wildfire criterion based on the National Oceanic and
14 Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) National Environmental Satellite, Data, and Information
15 Service (NESDIS) Hazard Mapping System (HMS) smoke product and historically averaged
16 $PM_{2.5}$ data to determine when wildfire emissions are influencing the area (smoke vs. non-smoke
17 events). We also use a Generalized Additive Model (GAM) to investigate anomalous sources of
18 O_3 , such as wildfires, in this urban area. During the summer 2017 intensive campaign, we find
19 that peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN), reactive nitrogen (NO_y), and maximum daily 8 hour average
20 (MDA8) O_3 show significant enhancements during smoke events compared with non-smoke
21 periods (56%, 41%, and 29%, respectively). We calculate the 95% confidence interval of
22 $\Delta PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$, $\Delta NO_y/\Delta CO$, $\Delta PAN/\Delta NO_y$, and $\Delta PAN/\Delta CO$ enhancement ratios (ERs) to be 0.129
23 – 0.144 $\mu g/m^3/ppbv$, 0.018 – 0.022 $ppbv/ppbv$, 0.152 – 0.192 $ppbv/ppbv$, and 3.04 – 3.76
24 $ppbv/ppmv$, respectively, for wildfire-influenced events. We also observe an enhancement in O_3
25 production up to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations of 60-70 $\mu g/m^3$ in smoke, after which we see a reduction
26 in average MDA8 O_3 mixing ratios. We use the four highest O_3 events during summer 2017 as
27 case studies to examine the highly variable conditions due to the influence of wildfire smoke in
28 an urban area. In two cases, we investigate smoke days that show significant O_3 enhancement
29 and moderate $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. These cases suggest that ERs, such as $\Delta PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ and
30 $\Delta NO_y/\Delta CO$, are less useful in determining the influence of wildfire smoke in an urban area on
31 moderate smoke days. Another case shows reduced O_3 production during a very high, 3-day
32 smoke event ($PM_{2.5} > 70 \mu g/m^3$). After this high smoke period, a 20 $ppbv$ enhancement in

33 MDA8 O₃ is observed in moderate smoke. These results indicate that wildfire-influenced O₃
34 enhancements are highly variable in urban areas but generally increase up to around 60 μg/m³ of
35 PM_{2.5}, after which they decrease at very high smoke concentrations. This study also suggests that
36 multiple tracer measurements are needed to fully characterize wildfire plumes in urban areas.

37

38 **Keywords:** Wildfires, Biomass Burning, PAN, Generalized Additive Model, Ozone,

39 Enhancement Ratios

40 1. Introduction

41 Wildfires are a major source of pollution during the summer season in the western U.S.
42 (Baylon et al., 2015, 2016; Briggs et al., 2016; Hallar et al., 2017; Jaffe et al., 2008a, 2008b;
43 Laing et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2016; McClure and Jaffe, 2018; Singh et al., 2012; Spracklen et al.,
44 2007; Urbanski et al., 2011; Wigder et al., 2013). Wildfires emit primary pollutants (e.g.,
45 particulate matter (PM), carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NO_x [= NO + NO₂]), and
46 volatile organic compounds (VOCs)) and contribute to the formation of secondary pollutants
47 (e.g., ozone (O₃) and peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN)) (Alvarado et al., 2010; Briggs et al., 2016;
48 Jaffe and Wigder, 2012; Lu et al., 2016; Val Martin et al., 2006). It is largely agreed that in the
49 last few decades, large wildfires in the western U.S. have been increasing in frequency and
50 duration due to climatological factors and human ignition (Aldersley et al., 2011; Balch et al.,
51 2017; Dennison et al., 2014; Kitzberger et al., 2007; Littell et al., 2009; Miller and Safford, 2012;
52 Westerling, 2016; Westerling et al., 2006). Recently, it was concluded that as a result of
53 increasing wildfires, the 98th quantile of PM_{2.5} is also increasing in the northwest U.S. (McClure
54 and Jaffe, 2018). Modelling studies also suggest an increased probability of wildfires through the
55 end of the century (Moritz et al., 2012; Pechony and Shindell, 2010; Spracklen et al., 2009; Val
56 Martin et al., 2015). With the projected increase in wildfires, it is vitally important to understand
57 how these emissions affect air quality in urban environments.

58 Although pollutants like PM can be emitted directly from wildfires, O₃ is formed as a
59 secondary pollutant through the reaction of NO_x and VOCs in the presence of sunlight. Jaffe et
60 al. (2008a, 2008b) and Lu et al. (2016) show enhancements of O₃ and PM during summer in high
61 wildfire years. However, these enhancements are highly episodic and vary with plume age and
62 other factors (Alvarado et al., 2010; Jaffe and Wigder, 2012). While most O₃ mixing ratios are

63 enhanced downwind of a wildfire, some show no enhancement or a depletion in O₃ (Akagi et al.,
64 2013, 2011; Alvarado et al., 2010; Baylon et al., 2015; Honrath et al., 2004; Jaffe and Wigder,
65 2012; Pfister et al., 2006; Val Martin et al., 2006; Verma et al., 2009). This discrepancy in O₃
66 production is likely due to NO_x-limiting conditions or possibly aerosol effects enhancing or
67 reducing photochemical production (Alvarado et al., 2015; Baylon et al., 2018; Castro et al.,
68 2001; Jiang et al., 2012; Palancar et al., 2013). Within the first few hours after emission,
69 approximately 40% of NO_x within a wildfire plume can be rapidly converted to PAN as observed
70 by Alvarado et al. (2010). PAN is a reservoir species for NO_x, meaning, NO_x can be stored as
71 PAN, transported downwind, and then re-emitted as NO_x (Fischer et al., 2010). This mechanism
72 could contribute to the variability of O₃ mixing ratios seen downwind of wildfires. The primary
73 loss process for PAN is thermal decomposition. This suggests that if wildfire smoke is injected
74 higher into the atmosphere, most NO_x could be unavailable for O₃ production during transport at
75 low temperatures while being stored as PAN. However, when this plume descends into a warmer
76 region, NO_x could be released by the decomposition of PAN for a significant enhancement in O₃
77 downwind.

78 Due to its effects as an irritant and health hazard, O₃ is regulated by the Clean Air Act,
79 which requires the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to set National Ambient Air
80 Quality Standards (NAAQS) for the protection of the general public. The primary standard for
81 O₃ requires that the three-year running average of the fourth-highest maximum daily 8-hour
82 average (MDA8) of O₃ be at or below 0.070 ppmv. Kaulfus et al. (2017) found that 20% of O₃
83 exceedances days (MDA8 > 0.070 ppm) occur when smoke is overhead within the continental
84 U.S. This suggests that wildfires can be a significant contributor to NAAQS compliance for a
85 region. Camalier et al. (2007) and Gong et al. (2017) also show that Generalized Additive

86 Models (GAMs) can be used to determine unusual sources of O₃ production. These statistical
87 models use meteorological and transport variables to determine the variability of O₃. They found
88 that when the modelled O₃ values significantly diverged from the observed data (> 95th or 97.5th
89 percentile), sources of anomalous pollution (either anthropogenic or wildfire) were affecting O₃
90 production.

91 In urban areas, wildfire emissions can enhance the production of O₃ through the addition
92 of NO_x and VOCs (Akagi et al., 2013; Singh et al., 2012). However, in a NO_x-rich environment,
93 such as an urban area, O₃ production can decrease at very high NO_x mixing ratios (NO_x-titration).
94 In addition, high PM concentrations from wildfire plumes can positively or negatively affect the
95 production of O₃ (Baylon et al., 2018; Real et al., 2007; Reid et al., 2005). These factors lead to
96 an uncertainty in the effects of wildfire-influenced O₃ production in urban areas. We aim to
97 decipher the role of wildfire emission on O₃ production in an urban area routinely affected by
98 wildfire smoke (Boise, Idaho) to assist in bridging this gap in knowledge.

99 The main goal of this analysis is to investigate the role of wildfire emissions on O₃
100 production in an urban area. In order to achieve this goal, we focus on these scientific questions:
101 (1) What are the characteristic $\Delta\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$, $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$, $\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{NO}_y$, and $\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{CO}$
102 enhancement ratios (ERs) in urban areas under the influence of wildfire emissions? (2) How do
103 O₃ mixing ratios change with an increase in wildfire PM (smoke)? (3) How can PAN mixing
104 ratios and/or statistical modeling be used to investigate wildfire-influenced O₃ enhancements in
105 urban areas? To accomplish these goals, we collected PAN measurements at an established urban
106 monitoring site that was strongly affected by wildfire smoke during summer 2017 (see Section
107 2.1 for the site description). We developed a wildfire criterion (described in Section 2.4) to
108 identify when the urban area was being affected by wildfire emissions and calculated ERs for

109 “smoke” and “no-smoke” days. We also looked at the effects of PM_{2.5} on O₃ mixing ratios over
110 10+ years of data at the same site. Additionally, we used PAN measurements made during 2017
111 and the GAM results for 2007-2017 to improve our understanding of wildfire smoke effects on
112 O₃ in urban areas. 2017 was an exceptionally high wildfire year with the second highest number
113 of acres burned between 1983 and 2017 (NIFC, 2018).

114 **2. Methods**

115 *2.1 St. Luke’s Site*

116 The St. Luke’s National Core (NCore) urban monitoring site (43.601 °N, 166.348 °W,
117 824 m above sea level (asl), AQS code: 160010010) is located in Meridian, Idaho, and is
118 maintained by the Idaho Department of Environmental Quality (IDEQ). This site is located
119 directly east of the St. Luke’s Medical Center in Meridian in an empty field and is approximately
120 10 km WSW of the Boise city center. Atmospheric measurements have been collected at this site
121 since 2006. This area is strongly affected by wildfire smoke and was shown to be within the
122 highest region of increasing fine particulate matter (diameter < 2.5 μm [PM_{2.5}]) due to wildfires
123 by McClure and Jaffe (2018).

124 The most recent measurements taken at this site include (but are not limited to): CO
125 [Teledyne API T300U], O₃ [Teledyne API T400], sulfur dioxide (SO₂) [Teledyne API T100U],
126 nitrogen oxide (NO) and total reactive nitrogen oxides (NO_y [= NO + NO₂ + NO₃ + N₂O₅ +
127 HNO₃ + HONO + PAN + ...]) [Teledyne T200U], and PM_{2.5} [Met One BAM-1020]. Hourly data
128 for these pollutants were provided by the IDEQ for summer 2017. Hourly and daily data from
129 the St. Luke’s site for 2006-2017 were retrieved from the EPA Data Mart
130 (<https://www.epa.gov/outdoor-air-quality-data>). In 2017, we also measured PAN at this site from

131 August 1st through September 30th. During this period, 28 of 61 days had wildfire smoke
132 influence (as described by the daily smoke criterion in Section 2.4). All dates and times listed in
133 this text are in local standard time (Mountain Standard Time (MST), UTC-7). Further details
134 regarding measurement specifications and calibration data can be found in the supplementary
135 information (SI).

136 *2.2 PAN Measurement Description*

137 PAN was measured using a custom-built gas chromatograph (GC) and Shimadzu Mini-2
138 Electron Capture Detector (ECD). Measurements of PAN are made at five-minute time intervals
139 and averaged over an hour to compare with the hourly St. Luke's data provided during summer
140 2017. Detailed descriptions of instrument configuration and testing can be found in Fischer et al.
141 (2010), Flocke et al. (2005), and the SI Sections S2 and S3. During the field campaign, we were
142 able to achieve an average limit of detection (LOD) of 19.4 pptv and limit of quantification
143 (LOQ) of 64.5 pptv for PAN. All PAN data collected during the campaign were well above both
144 limits. Due to the inherently variable sensitivity from this type of instrument, we calibrated three
145 times (start, middle, and end) during the two-month field campaign to confirm instrument
146 stability and consistency of measured PAN. Changes in measurement sensitivity are incorporated
147 into the final calculated PAN mixing ratio to account for any variability in the instrument (see SI
148 for details).

149 *2.3 Generalized Additive Model (GAM) Description*

150 A GAM is used to describe the behavior of the MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios based on
151 meteorological and transport factors at the St. Luke's site in May through September for 2007-
152 2017 (O₃ data at St. Luke's does not start until 2007). The GAM allows us to model a response

153 variable (e.g., MDA8 O₃) based on multiple prediction variables (i.e., meteorological and back-
154 trajectory data) that can have both linear and non-linear effects (Wood, 2017). Camalier et al.
155 (2007) used a similar approach in the eastern U.S. to model O₃ based on meteorological variables
156 and found that this type of model is able to account for the observed variability of O₃ mixing
157 ratios ($r^2 = 0.56 - 0.80$). They also found that the exact function and optimal meteorological
158 parameters varied by region. Gong et al. (2017) used this approach to characterize the effect of
159 wildfire emissions on MDA8 O₃ in urban areas across the western U.S. By examining the
160 residuals (difference between observed value and model prediction), they found that these results
161 can be used to provide information on abnormal sources of O₃. In particular, they found that on
162 days with wildfire smoke influence, the residuals tend to be high, suggesting an abnormal source
163 of O₃ that cannot be predicted by meteorological or transport variables alone (Gong et al., 2017).

164 Using methodology similar to Camalier et al. (2007) and Gong et al. (2017), we use
165 GAM results to inform our discussion of wildfire smoke influence on MDA8 O₃ at St. Luke's.
166 We compile 18 meteorological and back-trajectory variables to model MDA8 O₃ using the
167 “mgcv” R package (Wood, 2018). The meteorological variables used are a combination of
168 National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Reanalysis data and sounding data from
169 Boise Airport (KBOI), while the transport variables are calculated using the Hybrid Single-
170 Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model back-trajectories. A full list of
171 variables can be found in Table S2. Details about meteorological and back-trajectory data used to
172 create variables for the GAM can be found in the SI Section S4. We use penalized cubic
173 regression splines to allow non-linearity with each input variable. We customize the variables for
174 Boise to improve our fit, while being careful not to over-fit the model by adjusting knots and
175 examining explanatory values given using the “gam.check” function. We also perform a cross-

176 validation on the GAM model to evaluate performance (see Table S3). Details about choosing
177 parameters, evaluation of overfitting, and cross-validation steps can be found in SI Section S4.4.

178 *2.4 Smoke Criterion*

179 We use the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) National
180 Environmental Satellite, Data, and Information Service (NESDIS) Hazard Mapping System
181 (HMS) smoke product and historically averaged PM_{2.5} thresholds to help identify influence of
182 wildfire smoke. The HMS smoke product uses multiple visible satellite products to identify the
183 presence of smoke at a 4 km spatial resolution one or more times a day. Kaulfus et al. (2017)
184 aggregated HMS data over multiple years and compared this data with ground-based PM_{2.5}
185 concentrations. From this, they found that PM_{2.5} concentrations on HMS-classified smoke vs.
186 non-smoke days have a statistically significant difference, but that the HMS product alone does
187 not always correlate with enhanced PM at the surface. This is because the HMS product does not
188 distinguish between smoke at the ground-level or aloft. Nonetheless, it is still a useful tool in
189 identifying days when wildfire emission might influence pollutants at the surface (Kaulfus et al.,
190 2017). Therefore, we use the HMS smoke product results directly over the St. Luke's site to help
191 determine the influence of wildfire smoke.

192 In addition to the HMS criteria, we also examine historical PM_{2.5} concentrations for
193 2006-2017 at St. Luke's. To be certain that wildfire emissions are likely affecting conditions at
194 St. Luke's, we set our PM_{2.5} criteria to the historical daily PM_{2.5} mean (averaged by month) +
195 one standard deviation (σ). Daily (24-hour averaged) PM_{2.5} concentrations are compared to these
196 monthly PM_{2.5} thresholds, which are shown in Table S4. For the hourly PM_{2.5} criterion, we use
197 averaged PM data for 11-17 MST. Figure S2 shows average diurnal PM profiles at St. Luke's for
198 2006-2017 on smoke and non-smoke days, as defined by the HMS smoke product. We find that

199 regardless of smoke designation, mobile emissions and boundary layer effects contribute to
200 increases in PM during the early morning and late evening. For this reason, we choose to average
201 PM values for 11-17 MST, when PM is less likely to be affected by changes in traffic and
202 boundary layer effects and when O₃ is typically highest. This time period also corresponds to the
203 daily HMS product, providing increased confidence in our smoke or non-smoke designation.
204 From this, the hourly PM_{2.5} criterion is calculated to be 13.6 μg/m³ (5.7 + 7.9 μg/m³) using 2006-
205 2017 data for 11-17 MST during August and September. We use these months to calculate the
206 hourly PM_{2.5} criterion to better compare with the 2017 campaign data.

207 “Smoke” days are defined when both the HMS product shows overhead smoke and the
208 PM_{2.5} concentration is above the designated (hourly or daily) PM_{2.5} criterion. “Non-smoke” days
209 are considered all other cases (only one criteria met, or none). For hourly data, each hour is
210 evaluated against the hourly PM criterion concentration. For daily data, each day is evaluated
211 against the respective daily PM criterion concentration for that particular month.

212 Because the HMS smoke product is characterized via visible imagery and compiled
213 manually, the product is advertised as a conservative estimate of smoke boundaries that can be
214 attributed to a fixed source (Rolph et al., 2009). Additionally, smoke plumes can be obscured by
215 clouds and hard to distinguish from haze and surface features. Therefore, it is likely that some
216 days show a false negative HMS designation for smoke overhead and our smoke criteria would
217 not be triggered. The calculated PM thresholds for smoke vs. non-smoke conditions may also
218 exclude some smoke days with low PM_{2.5} concentrations. Caveats to both parts of the smoke
219 criterion suggest that the days and hours with smoke present may be misclassified as “no
220 smoke”. Thus our wildfire smoke influence should be considered a lower limit. Also, the HMS
221 product does not distinguish between wildland fires and prescribed burning.

222 2.5 *Enhancement Ratios (ERs)*

223 We calculate ERs for $\Delta\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$, $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$, $\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{NO}_y$, and $\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{CO}$ using
224 hourly summer 2017 data at St. Luke's. These values are obtained by taking the reduced major
225 axis (RMA) regression of two species, with either CO or NO_y on the x-axis. Yokelson et al.
226 (2013) notes that while ERs can be powerful tools to examine different types of pollution
227 phenomena (e.g., wildfire emissions vs. anthropogenic emissions), small changes in these species
228 during mixing with background air can cause significant changes in the calculated ER. This is
229 especially problematic for measurements of plumes that have been transported for more than a
230 day or when the absolute enhancements are relatively small. Therefore, when comparing our
231 calculated ERs with literature values, we consider variability in source emissions and mixing as
232 possible contributors to uncertainty.

233 **3. Results and Discussion**

234 3.1 *Summer 2017 Summary Data*

235 Figure 1 shows a typical HMS profile over the northwest U.S. during summer 2017.
236 According to aggregate HMS product analyses done by Brey et al. (2018) and Kaulfus et al.
237 (2017), smoke is frequently seen over Boise. For 2017, Boise had 42 days (out of 61) with HMS
238 smoke overhead between August 1st and September 30th. Additionally, Boise is in an area of
239 increasing PM_{2.5} due to wildfires (McClure and Jaffe, 2018). This makes Boise an ideal location
240 for studying the effect of wildfire smoke in an urban area.

241 During the 2017 campaign, the St. Luke's site exceeded the NAAQS O₃ standard three
242 times (out of 61 days), while the White Pine site had 10 exceedance days (out of 44 days). The
243 White Pine site O₃ mixing ratios are typically enhanced compared with St. Luke's due to its

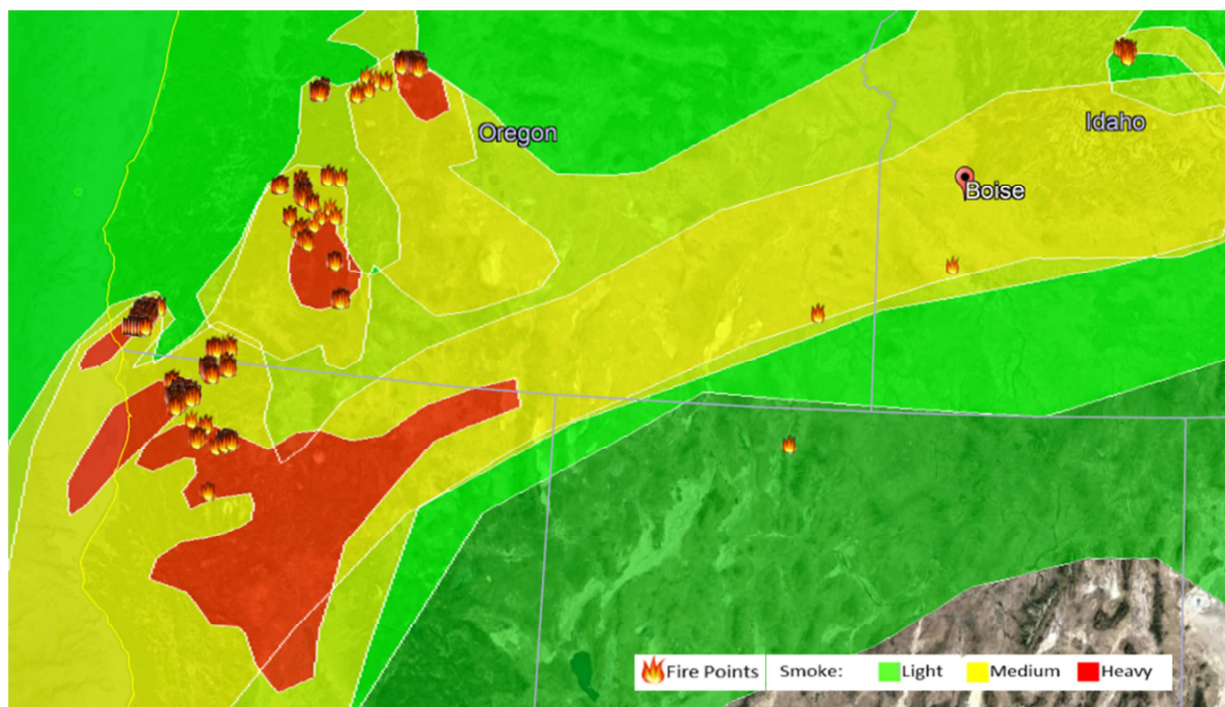


Figure 1. Typical Summer 2017 HMS Smoke Product A typical summer 2017 HMS product map (August 19th) over the northwest U.S. is shown with individual fires and smoke designation in green, yellow, and red. The designations correspond to the HMS estimated smoke densities of 5, 16, and 27 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. The St. Luke's and White Pine monitoring sites are near Boise, ID.

244 location downwind of most mobile and industrial emission sources, which emit O₃ precursors, in
 245 the Boise area (Kavouras et al., 2008). Throughout the U.S., 2017 had the second most acres
 246 burned (less than 1% difference in area burned with record year – 2015) with approximately 68%
 247 of the area burned in the western U.S. (NIFC, 2018). Due to the location of Boise, ID, we were
 248 able to sample the effect of wildfire smoke in an urban area during one of the highest fire years
 249 on record.

250 Table 1 shows summary statistics for pollutants using daytime (11-17 MST) hourly data
 251 during the 2017 summer field campaign at St. Luke's site. Summary information is split between
 252 "Non-Smoke" and "Smoke" based on the hourly wildfire criterion detailed in Section 2.4.

Smoke Criteria	PAN (ppbv)	O ₃ (ppbv)	PM _{2.5} (μg/m ³)	NO (ppbv)	NO _y (ppbv)	SO ₂ (ppbv)	CO (ppbv)	N Hours
Non-Smoke	0.739 ± 0.387	46.9 ± 13.0	8 ± 5	1.06 ± 0.99	4.1 ± 3.4	0.25 ± 0.15	208 ± 63	225
Smoke	1.220 ± 0.702	60.3 ± 11.1	34 ± 28	1.00 ± 0.93	5.8 ± 4.2	0.40 ± 0.13	405 ± 210	202

Table 1. Boise Summer 2017 Summary Data Daytime (11-17 MST) hourly averages ($\pm 1 \sigma$) for “non-smoke” vs. “smoke” periods during summer 2017 (August 1st – September 30th). The smoke designation is defined by HMS smoke on that day & hourly PM_{2.5} $\geq 13.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. For individual mixing ratios and concentrations, there were 225 “No Fire” hours and 202 “Fire” hours. Bolded values show a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) difference between smoke and non-smoke days using a 2-tailed t-test.

253 Bolded compounds show a statistically significant difference between smoke and non-smoke
254 periods (p -value < 0.05). All species are shown to be elevated during smoke hours, except for
255 NO. NO_y values are, on average, 41% higher (1.7 ppbv enhancement) during smoke hours,
256 which implies transport of species crucial for photochemistry into the urban area. PAN mixing
257 ratios are also 65% higher during smoke hours. The average 24-hour temperature during the
258 summer campaign was approximately 22 °C (maximum = 38 °C), which corresponds to an
259 average PAN lifetime of only 2.4 hours (using an average NO₂/NO ratio = 2.4 for back-reaction
260 in polluted areas [NO_x > 100 pptv]) (Roberts, 2007; Zhang et al., 2015). This suggests that PAN
261 is being transported into the area in significant amounts during smoke events and then enters the
262 warm urban photochemical environment where it will have a relatively short lifetime. O₃ mixing
263 ratios also show an enhancement of around 13 ppbv during smoke hours. Figure S3 shows the
264 full diurnal pattern for all compounds listed in Table 1, split between smoke and non-smoke
265 hours. Even though the diurnal patterns in both smoke and non-smoke cases show influence from
266 mobile emissions and boundary layer effects in the early morning/late evening, the daytime
267 enhancements due to the influence of wildfires in the smoke case are clearly visible compared
268 with the non-smoke case.

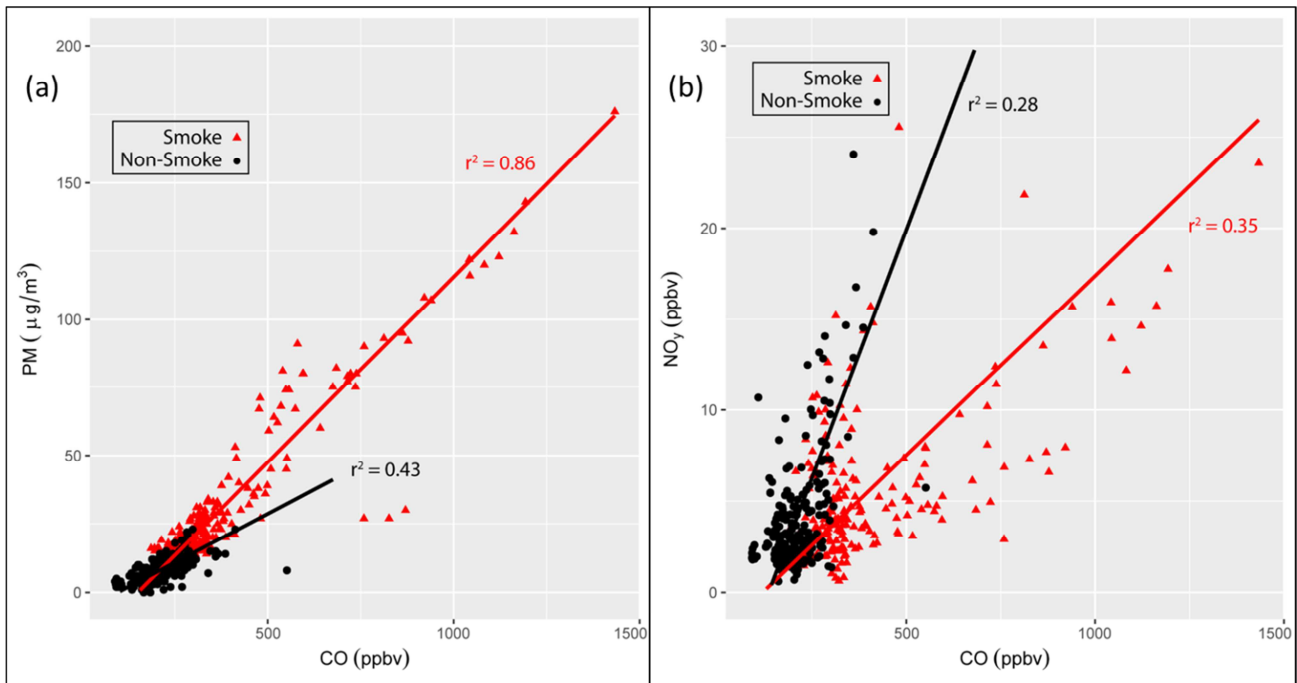


Figure 2. Enhancement Ratios $PM_{2.5}$ vs. CO is shown in plot (a) and NO_y vs. CO is shown in plot (b). Plotted points are hourly data between 11-17 MST for summer 2017 in Boise. “Smoke” hours are shown in red triangles. “Non-smoke” hours are shown in black circles. The smoke designation is defined by HMS smoke on that day & hourly $PM_{2.5} \geq 13.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. RMA regression lines are plotted for “smoke” and “non-smoke” designations. All RMA slopes are significant to $p \leq 0.05$ with r^2 values shown next to the regression lines in the representative colors. Slope values associated with these plots are shown in Table 2.

269 Figure 2 shows hourly PM vs. CO and NO_y vs. CO data during smoke and non-smoke
 270 events. RMA regressions of smoke vs. non-smoke events are used to calculate $\Delta PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ and
 271 $\Delta NO_y/\Delta CO$ ERs based on the slopes. These values can be found in Table 2. In plot (a), smoke
 272 hours for $\Delta PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ lie predominately along the smoke RMA regression line (red line). A few
 273 smoke points can be seen at low PM concentrations and high CO mixing ratios, which occurred
 274 during a short rain event. Both regressions show good correlation with few outliers, suggesting
 275 that the respective $\Delta PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ ERs characterize the smoke vs. non-smoke regimes well. It
 276 should be noted that below approximately $25 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ of $PM_{2.5}$, it is very difficult to discern which
 277 regime $\Delta PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ ERs would fall into (smoke vs. non-smoke). In plot (b), non-smoke
 278 $\Delta NO_y/\Delta CO$ values predominately fall along the non-smoke RMA regression line (black line).

Smoke Criteria	$\Delta\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$ ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3/\text{ppbv}$)	$\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$ (ppbv/ppbv)	$\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{CO}$ (ppbv/ppmv)	$\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{NO}_y$ (ppbv/ppbv)
No Smoke	0.071 ($r^2 = 0.43$) (0.064 – 0.079)	0.055 ($r^2 = 0.28$) (0.049 – 0.061)	NA ($r^2 = 0.02$)	NA ($r^2 = 0.03$)
Smoke	0.136 ($r^2 = 0.86$) (0.129 – 0.144)	0.020 ($r^2 = 0.35$) (0.018 – 0.022)	3.38 ($r^2 = 0.43$)	0.171 ($r^2 = 0.33$)
Laing et al. WF Range	0.092 – 0.164	0.045 – 0.075	NA	NA
EPA WF Range	0.096 – 0.164	0.010 – 0.048	NA	NA

Table 2. Boise Summer 2017 ERs $\Delta\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$, $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$, $\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{CO}$, and $\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{NO}_y$ ERs are calculated using hourly data between 11-17 MST for summer in Boise during 2017. 95% confidence interval ranges and/or r^2 are shown in parentheses below ERs. The smoke designation is defined by HMS smoke on that day & hourly $\text{PM}_{2.5} \geq 13.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. These ERs are calculated using RMA regressions shown in Figures 2 & 3. A NA designation is inserted when data is too variable to provide a useful ER estimate or not available. Laing et al. and EPA Wildfire ER Ranges are taken from Laing et al. (2017).

279 However, $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$ smoke points are more variable. In fact, there are a few smoke points that
280 fall predominately along the non-smoke regression line. It is also possible that some non-smoke
281 points could in fact be smoke points that might be missed by the HMS product, as discussed in
282 Section 2.4. This is likely due to high variance in NO_y values both in the plume and urban
283 background air. We agree with the conclusion by Laing et al. (2017) that $\Delta\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$ typically
284 shows a significant difference between smoke and non-smoke regimes, while $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$
285 appears to be less reliable in substantiating the influence of wildfire smoke in an urban area.

286 The $\Delta\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$ ER in Table 2 for smoke events correspond well with values calculated
287 by Laing et al. (2017) for eight urban sites across the western U.S. Our $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$ smoke ER
288 corresponds well with the EPA wildfire range. However, our values for $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$ are higher
289 than those provided by Alvarado et al. (2010), Briggs et al. (2016), and DeBell et al. (2004),

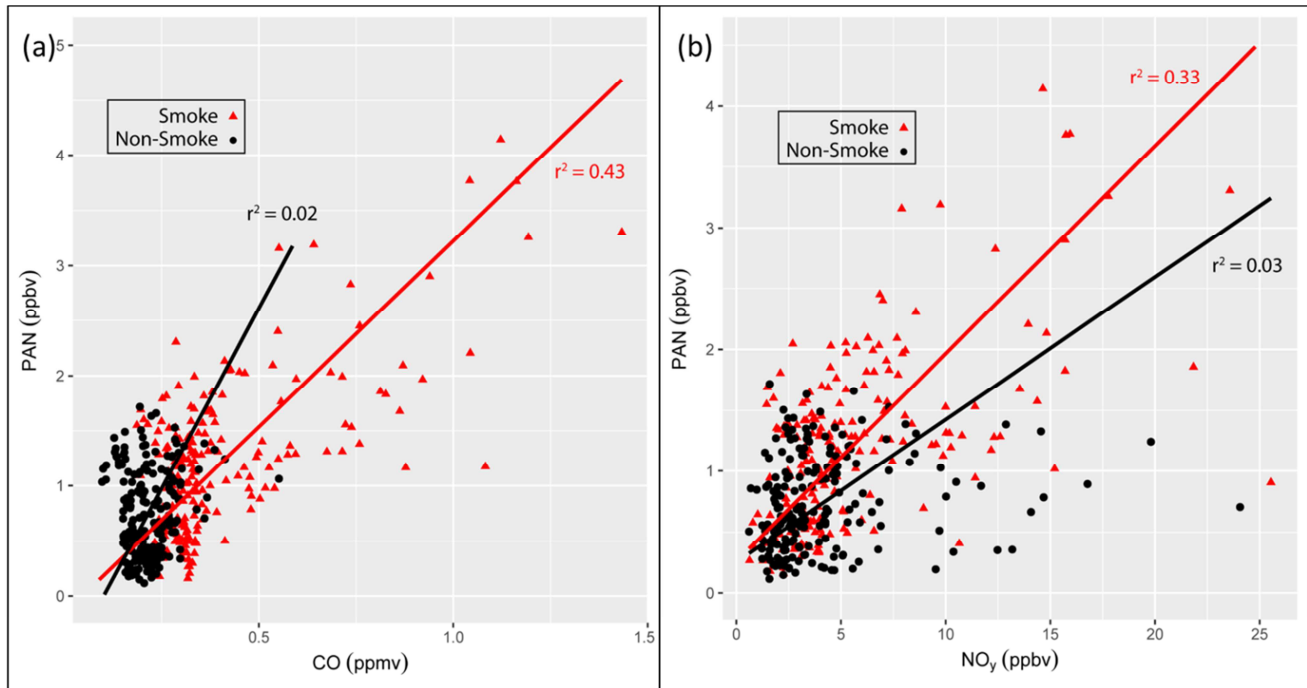


Figure 3. PAN Enhancement Ratios PAN vs. CO is shown in plot (a) and PAN vs. NO_y is shown in plot (b). Plotted points are hourly data between 11-17 MST for summer 2017 in Boise. “Smoke” hours are shown in red triangles. “Non-smoke” hours are shown in black circles. The smoke designation is defined by HMS smoke on that day & hourly $\text{PM}_{2.5} \geq 13.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. RMA regression lines are plotted for “smoke” and “non-smoke” designations. All RMA slopes show r^2 values next to the regression lines in the representative colors. Slope values associated with these plots are shown in Table 2.

290 which range from 0.003 to 0.015 ppbv/ppbv. We also suggest that background NO_y and CO
 291 values in an urban area would contribute to different $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$ ERs compared with samples
 292 taken in rural areas (i.e., Alvarado et al. 2010; Briggs et al., 2016; DeBell et al., 2004). No smoke
 293 $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$ ERs are also substantially lower than urban values from the literature (range = 0.156
 294 – 0.259 ppbv/ppbv); however, this is likely due to literature values being taken in more polluted
 295 urban areas (i.e., Houston, TX and Hong Kong) where ratios of NO_y and CO vary significantly
 296 due to different anthropogenic emission sources (Mazzuca et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2003).

297 Figure 3 shows PAN-specific ERs in the same style as Figure 2. Table 2 provides the
 298 numerical data associated with Figure 3 for $\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{CO}$ and $\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{NO}_y$ ERs. Smoke-

299 influenced Δ PAN/ Δ CO ERs are consistent with literature values given by Briggs et al. (2016)
300 (average = 3.34 ppbv/ppmv) and Alvarado et al. (2010) (range = 2.8 – 3.4 ppbv/ppmv). PAN and
301 CO are uncorrelated on non-smoke days ($r^2 = 0.02$), so an enhancement ratio cannot be derived.
302 Non-smoke Δ PAN/ Δ CO ERs cannot be used due to low r^2 . Similarly, Δ PAN/ Δ NO_y non-smoke
303 ERs show significant variance and cannot be used reliably. Smoke Δ PAN/ Δ NO_y ERs show a
304 better correlation but still show variance likely due to variable plume age and processing as it
305 enters the urban area. The overall smoke ER for Δ PAN/ Δ NO_y shown in Table 2 appears to be
306 lower on average than literature values (we estimate ~0.41 for Briggs et al. (2016)). However,
307 this value is for non-urban environments and does not reflect any influence from anthropogenic
308 combustion sources or higher temperatures at the surface. Also, the PAN and NO_y values
309 reported by Briggs et al. (2016) were significantly lower than our measurements and the PAN
310 percentage of NO_y in wildfire plumes was much higher (Briggs et al. (2016) 25-57% versus our
311 average 12.7%) leading to significantly different Δ PAN/ Δ NO_y ERs. It should be noted that while
312 we report Δ PAN/ Δ CO and Δ PAN/ Δ NO_y ERs here, these values are very different than the
313 Δ PM_{2.5}/ Δ CO and Δ NO_y/ Δ CO ERs. While Δ PM_{2.5}/ Δ CO and Δ NO_y/ Δ CO ERs can be used in most
314 cases because of their relative stability to determine wildfire or anthropogenic influence,
315 Δ PAN/ Δ CO and Δ PAN/ Δ NO_y ERs should be much more variable due to plume photochemical
316 processing, mixing of plume and urban air, and the production of PAN inherent to an urban
317 environment. We expect that Δ PAN/ Δ CO and Δ PAN/ Δ NO_y ERs could be used in some cases to
318 determine the influence of wildfire smoke but would generally be highly variable in an urban
319 environment.

320 Table 3 shows the average daily maximum PAN and MDA8 O₃ values during summer
321 2017 at St. Luke's and White Pine sorted by daily smoke criteria. Neither PAN nor PM_{2.5} are

Site	Smoke?	Average Daily Max PAN (ppbv)	Average MDA8 O ₃ (ppbv)	Min MDA8 (ppbv)	Max MDA8 (ppbv)	# of Days	# NAAQS Exceedance Days
St. Luke's	No	1.02 ± 0.36	44.4 ± 11.9	25	68	28	0
	Yes	1.71 ± 0.66	58.6 ± 9.3	37	75	33	3
White Pine	No	NA	50.9 ± 13.0	22	73	20	1
	Yes	NA	66.6 ± 6.7	55	76	24	9

Table 3. Boise Summer 2017 Daily Statistics Statistics for daily maximum PAN and MDA8 O₃ in Boise during summer 2017 are shown. Averages are shown with ± 1σ. The smoke designation is defined by HMS smoke on that day & daily PM_{2.5} ≥ the historical monthly threshold shown in Table S4. The daily designation of smoke vs. no smoke from St. Luke's was extended to White Pine because PM_{2.5} concentrations are not measured at White Pine.

322 measured at the White Pine site. To determine smoke vs. non-smoke days at White Pine, we
323 assume the same daily designation used for St. Luke's. At the St. Luke's site, daily maximum
324 PAN is 68% higher (0.69 ppbv) on smoke days compared with non-smoke days. On average,
325 MDA8 O₃ values are also enhanced by approximately 32% and 31% on smoke versus non-smoke
326 days at St. Luke's and White Pine, respectively. The highest non-smoke day does not exceed the
327 NAAQS standard for O₃ at St. Luke's, while only one non-smoke day exceeds the standard at
328 White Pine. On smoke days, the NAAQS is exceeded on three days at St. Luke's and nine days
329 at White Pine. This is consistent with the assertion by Kaulfus et al. (2017) that the influence of
330 wildfire smoke can significantly affect compliance with the O₃ standard.

331 *3.2 Particulate Matter Influence on Ozone Production*

332 Previously, it has been suggested that PM may have a significant positive or negative
333 effect on O₃ production due to the forward/backward scattering and/or absorption of solar
334 radiation (Alvarado et al., 2015; Baylon et al., 2018; Real et al., 2007; Reid et al., 2005). To
335 investigate this assertion, we use historical PM_{2.5} concentrations versus MDA8 O₃ from the St.
336 Luke's site during all months for 2007-2017. Figure 4 shows MDA8 O₃ binned by 24-hour

337 averaged $PM_{2.5}$ in the top row and daytime (11-17 MST) averaged $PM_{2.5}$ in the bottom row.
338 Days are separated based solely on the HMS designation (no smoke versus smoke overhead).
339 While this may not explicitly characterize smoke at the surface, Kaulfus et al. (2017) suggests
340 that we are able to determine when the surface is potentially affected by smoke and shows a
341 statistically significant difference in surface-level $PM_{2.5}$ between HMS smoke and non-smoke
342 days. Specifically at the St. Luke's site, $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations for May-September on HMS
343 smoke and non-smoke days are 14.3 and 7.0 $\mu g/m^3$, respectively, and these distributions are
344 statistically different (p-value < 0.01). Based on Figure 4, we determine that MDA8 O_3 generally
345 decreases with increasing $PM_{2.5}$ on non-smoke days. We suggest that this is due to NO_x -titration
346 of O_3 at high PM levels. Figure 5 shows NO binned by 24-hour and daytime average $PM_{2.5}$,
347 comparable with of Figure 4, for 2011-2017 at St. Luke's (NO data is not available before 2011).
348 These plots show that for non-smoke days, at $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations above approximately 20
349 $\mu g/m^3$, we see significant enhancements in NO mixing ratios compared with smoke days.

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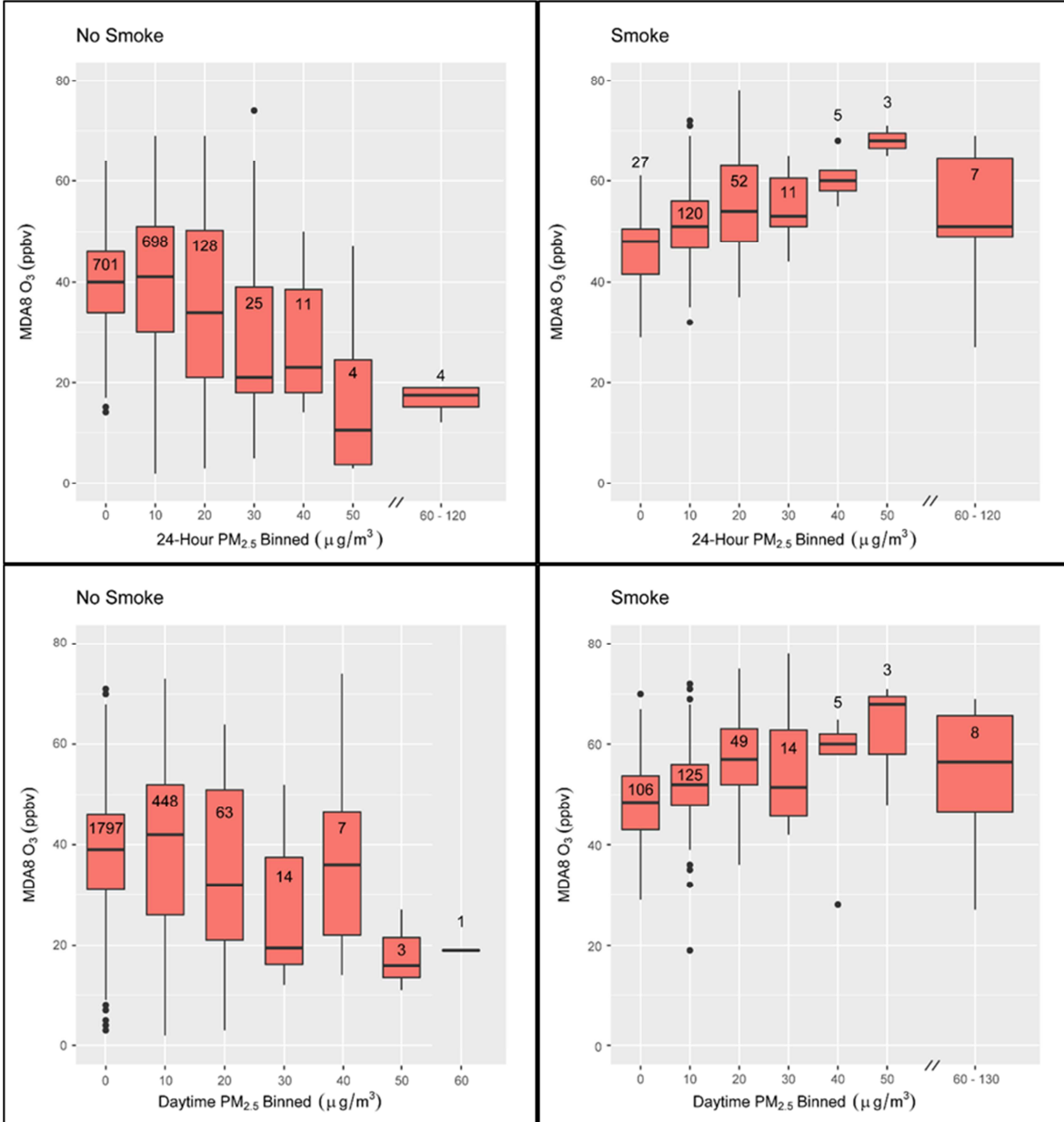


Figure 4. Box Plots of MDA8 O₃ binned by PM_{2.5} All months MDA8 O₃ data for 2007-2017 is split by HMS criteria. Plots (a) and (b) show MDA8 O₃ binned by 24-hour average PM_{2.5} (using daily data). Plots (c) and (d) show MDA8 O₃ binned by daytime (11-17 MST) average PM_{2.5} (using hourly data). Plots (a) and (c) are periods with “no smoke”; plots (b) and (d) are periods with “smoke” according to the HMS smoke product only. Each bin includes the designated PM_{2.5} values $\pm 5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

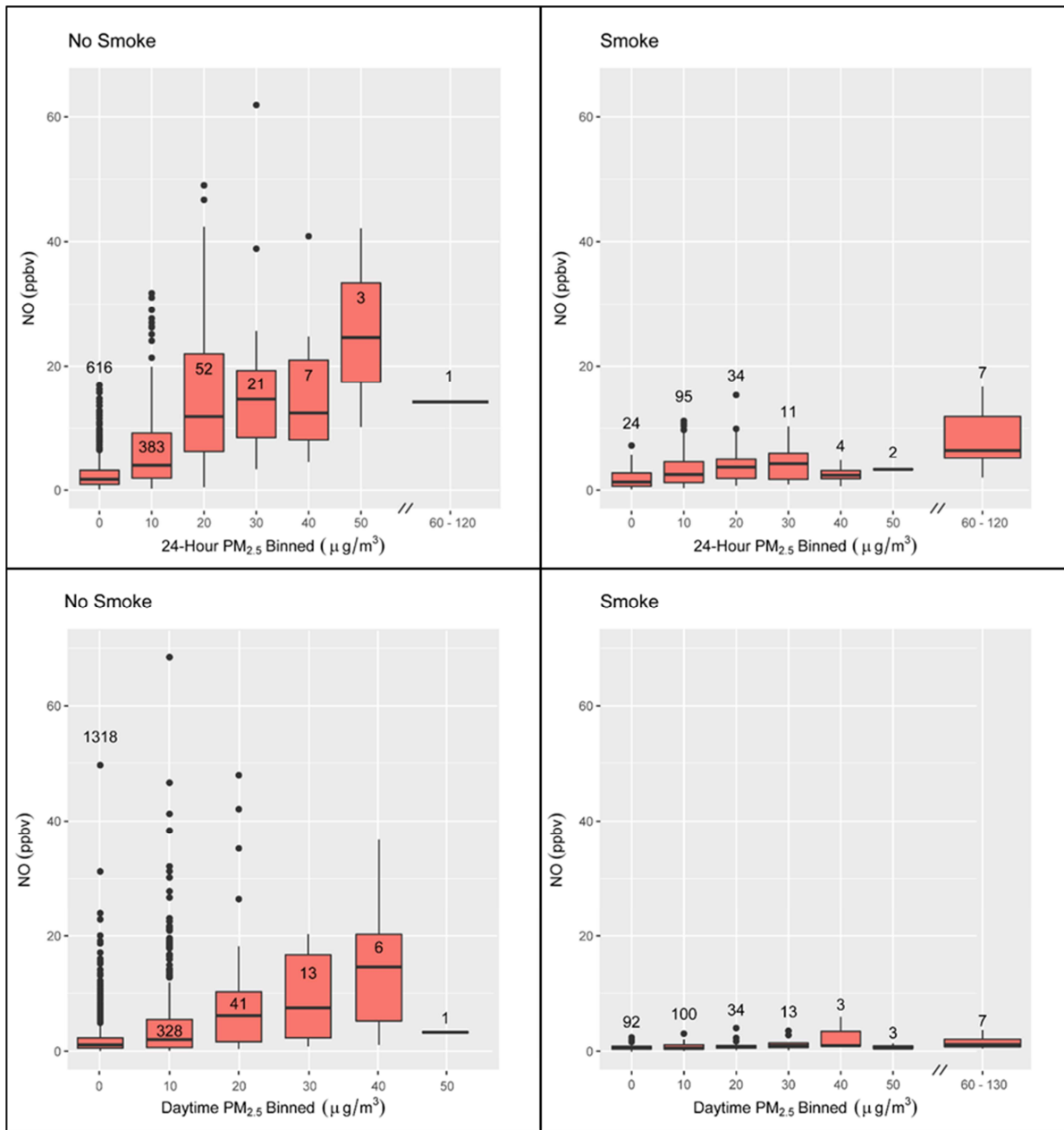


Figure 5. Box Plots of NO binned by PM_{2.5} All months NO data (2011-2017) is split by HMS criteria. Plots (a) and (b) show NO binned by 24-hour average PM_{2.5} (using daily data). Plots (c) and (d) show NO binned by daytime (11-17 MST) average PM_{2.5} (using hourly data). Plots (a) and (c) are periods with “no smoke”; plots (b) and (d) are periods with “smoke” according to the HMS smoke product only. Each bin includes the designated PM_{2.5} values $\pm 5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

353 For MDA8 O₃ on smoke days (plots (b) and (d) in Figure 4), we see MDA8 O₃ increasing
 354 with increasing PM_{2.5} up to approximately 60-70 μg/m³. After this point, MDA8 O₃ is, on

355 average, lower at very high PM_{2.5} concentrations. This suggests that at sufficiently high PM_{2.5}
 356 concentration, O₃ production can be suppressed, likely due to back-scattering of solar radiation
 357 or very young plume age. These observations extend the modelling done by Baylon et al. (2018)
 358 and Alvarado et al. (2015) to higher concentration of PM_{2.5} and provides important context for
 359 decreased O₃ production in urban areas under very high levels of smoke.

360 *3.3 St. Luke's GAM Results*

361 Table 4 shows summary statistics from the GAM simulation of MDA8 O₃ at St. Luke's
 362 during May through September for 2007-2017. We use residuals (similar to Camalier et al.
 363 (2007) and Gong et al. (2017)) to identify variations in MDA8 O₃ that cannot be predicted by the
 364 meteorological or transport variables(listed in Table S2). Overall, we see a low average and
 365 standard deviation for all residuals in addition to a moderate r² value. This

Months Used	Smoke Day Residuals (ppbv)	Non-Smoke Day Residuals (ppbv)	Residual 95 th Percentile (ppbv)	Residual 97.5 th Percentile (ppbv)	r ²	N variables
May-Sep	4.93 ± 6.89 (n = 78)	0.00 ± 5.68 (n = 872)	9.15	11.4	0.57	15

Table 4. GAM Summary Statistics GAM results are shown for the St. Luke's site during 2007-2017. Average for smoke and non-smoke day GAM MDA8 O₃ residuals are shown with ± 1σ and number of data points. The 95th and 97.5th percentiles of the residuals are calculated using non-smoke day data. The smoke designation is defined by HMS smoke on that day & daily PM_{2.5} ≥ the historical monthly threshold shown in Table S4.

366 suggests that the model was able to fit MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios reasonably well given the input
 367 variables. While only 4% of days are classified as smoke days (using the daily smoke criterion),
 368 they show significantly higher residuals than non-smoke days (residuals = 4.93 ppbv vs. 0.00
 369 ppbv, respectively), suggesting that the enhancement in O₃ on smoke days is not associated with
 370 standard meteorology or transport variables. The mean smoke day residual for St. Luke's is

371 slightly larger than the same value (3.2 ppb) determined for Boise by Gong et al. (2017) using a
372 very similar method. The most likely cause for this difference is that our values are based on the
373 non-smoke GAMs, thus this gives the full influence of smoke on the MDA8 O₃, whereas in
374 Gong's analysis, all days were included in the GAMs. Figure 6 shows Observed MDA8 O₃
375 versus GAM Fit MDA8 O₃ separated by the smoke and non-smoke criteria. Smoke values (in red
376 triangles) show a higher tendency to be well above or below the 1:1 line. We also calculate 95th
377 and 97.5th percentile residual values (9.66 ppbv & 11.7 ppbv, respectively) to help identify days
378 when outside sources (i.e., sources not included as explanatory variables in the GAM) make
379 significant contributions to MDA8 O₃. This can be used to support exceptional event
380 classification (Gong et al., 2017). Figure S4 shows the GAM smoke residuals plotted versus
381 Δ PM (defined as average monthly, "non-smoke" PM_{2.5} subtracted from the 24-hour average
382 PM_{2.5}) for May through September in 2007-2017. This figure shows a similar result compared to
383 Figure 4, with GAM residuals increasing up to PM_{2.5} concentrations of approximately 60 μ g/m³
384 then decreasing at very high Δ PM_{2.5} concentrations. Figure S5 shows the GAM residuals binned
385 by GAM Fit O₃ values. This figure shows that the average residual is approximately zero for
386 each bin. Additionally, for GAM-predicted O₃ values between 60 and 80 ppbv, we find an
387 average residual of 1.04 ± 3.90 ppbv (n = 13) and 8.12 ± 10.3 ppbv (n = 3), for non-smoke and
388 smoke days, respectively. The fact that the smoke residuals are higher at the higher mixing
389 ratios indicates a tendency for greater smoke impacts on O₃ on more photochemically active
390 days.

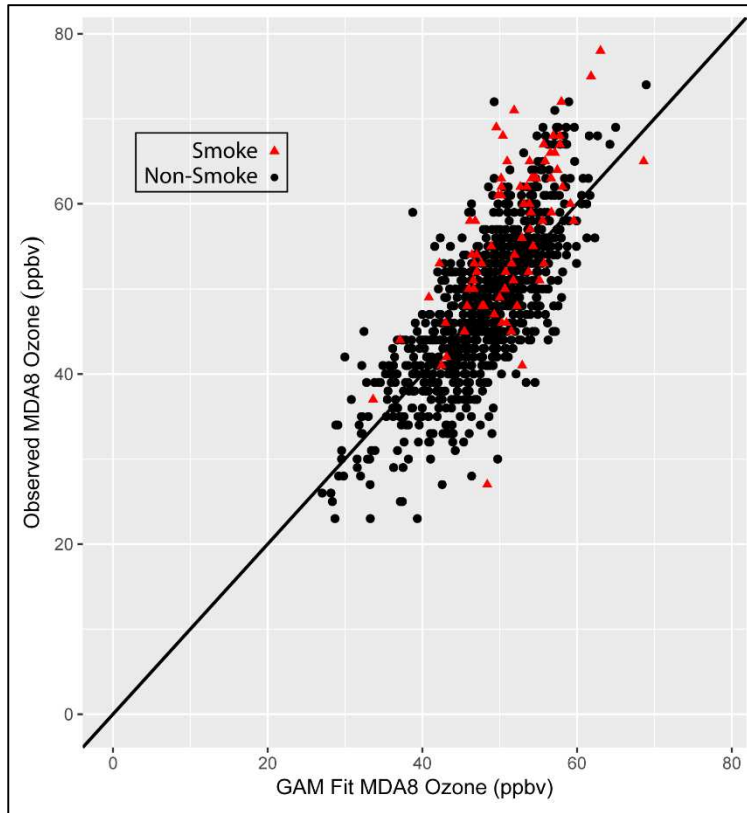


Figure 6. Boise Observed MDA8 O₃ vs. GAM Fit MDA8 O₃
 Daily May-September for 2007-2017 GAM MDA8 O₃ results are plotted versus Observed MDA8 O₃ for Boise. The smoke designation is defined by HMS smoke on that day & daily PM_{2.5} ≥ the historical monthly threshold. “Smoke” data (n = 78) is shown in red and “non-smoke” data (n = 872) is shown in black. The black line is 1:1.

391 *3.4 Wildfire Smoke Enhanced O₃ Events during Summer 2017*

392 Summary data for the four highest MDA8 O₃ events during summer 2017 (August 1st –
 393 September 30th) at St. Luke’s are listed in Table 5. All events were classified as smoke
 394 influenced by the HMS smoke product and daily PM criteria. Three of these days had MDA8 O₃
 395 values >0.07 ppm. $\Delta\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$ and $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$ values can be compared with smoke vs. non-
 396 smoke ERs in Table 2. GAM residual values should be compared with the 95th and 97.5th
 397 percentile thresholds in Table 4. Table S3 shows data for each day during summer 2017,
 398 comparable with Table 5.

Date	MDA8 O ₃ (ppbv)	24-Hr Avg. PM _{2.5} (μg/m ³)	Daily Max PAN (ppbv)	ΔPM _{2.5} /ΔCO (μg/m ³ /ppbv)	ΔNO _y /ΔCO (ppbv/ppbv)	GAM Residual (ppbv)
Aug. 2 nd	75	18	2.31	0.114 (r ² = 0.21)	0.067 (r ² = 0.67)	13.2
Aug. 6 th	69	69	2.40	0.223 (r ² = 0.96)	0.038 (r ² = 0.02)	19.4
Aug. 27 th	72	22	1.32	-0.108 (r ² = 0.00)	0.039 (r ² = 0.53)	14.0
Sept. 5 th	47	76	2.45			-2.3
Sept. 6 th	51	120	4.14	0.138	0.021	-4.2
Sept. 7 th	51	87	2.05	(r ² = 0.97)	(r ² = 0.61)	-0.8
Sept. 8 th	71	42	3.19			19.1

Table 5. Boise Summer 2017 Wildfire-Influenced Events Four of the highest O₃ events occurring in Boise during summer 2017 are shown. August 2nd, 6th, and 27th are single-day events. September 5th – 8th is a multi-day wildfire event. ΔPM_{2.5}/ΔCO and ΔNO_y/ΔCO values are calculated using data from 11-17 MST. GAM residual values are also provided for comparison with Table 4.

399 August 2nd and 27th show moderate PM_{2.5} concentrations. Figure 7 shows the event on
400 August 2nd, 2017 and enhanced O₃. Both days are designated as smoke days due to their
401 enhanced PM and HMS smoke. Figure S6 shows the event on August 27th, 2017. During these
402 events, ΔPM_{2.5}/ΔCO and ΔNO_y/ΔCO ERs exhibit a wide range of values and some are outside of
403 the typical wildfire range (as shown in Table 2). While we know that these events are influenced
404 by wildfire smoke (high PM, O₃, back-trajectories identify fires, smoke overhead, etc.), we find
405 that these ERs have a very wide range during smoke days in an urban area which likely reflects
406 mixing with urban emissions. Looking back at Figure 2 (a), it is difficult to distinguish between
407 smoke and non-smoke ΔPM_{2.5}/ΔCO ERs at PM_{2.5} concentrations below 25 μg/m³. We suggest
408 that for these events, which both have transport times of one to two days (as estimated by
409 HYSPLIT back-trajectories); enhancements of PM_{2.5} are typically low due to cloud processing or
410 deposition (Wigder et al., 2013). Additionally, Figure 2 (b) also shows that smoke vs. non-smoke

411 $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$ ERs are difficult to distinguish at low NO_y and CO mixing ratios. We suggest that as
412 wildfire smoke influence increases, ERs become more useful in determining smoke days from
413 non-smoke days.

414 For these two events, we are able to confirm the influence of wildfire smoke by using the
415 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, CO and PAN enhancements and back-trajectories. Back-trajectories for both events (see
416 Figures S7 & S8) show transport over wildfires in southwest Oregon and northern California.

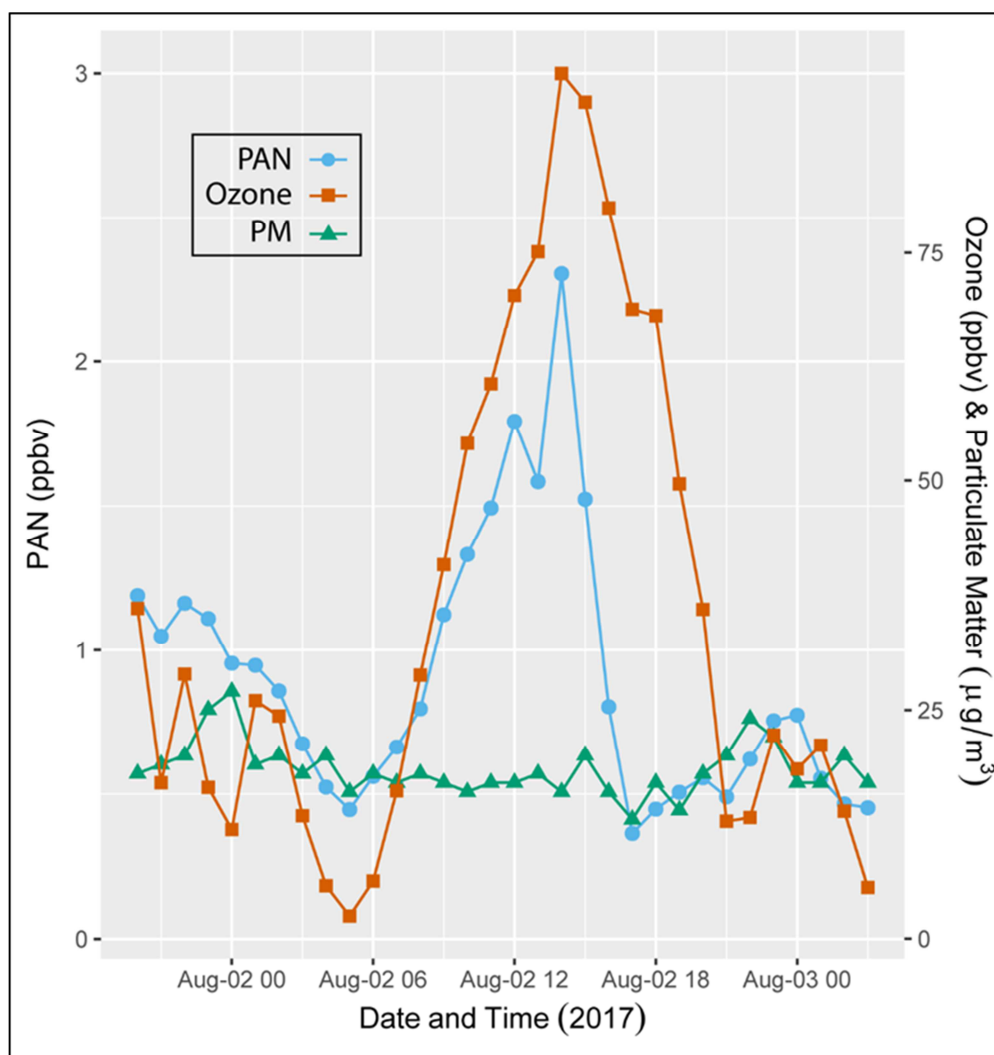


Figure 7. August 2nd, 2017 Wildfire-Influenced Event A moderate $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, high PAN and O_3 wildfire-influenced smoke day is shown. PAN, O_3 , and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ data are shown in blue, orange, and green, respectively. All values are hourly averages. Dates and times are in MST.

417 Along these back-trajectories, temperatures are low enough for the PAN lifetime to be
418 approximately 1-1.5 days (total transport time ~1.5 days). The air masses then descend into the
419 warmer boundary layer in the Boise area due to high pressure circulation. This would allow
420 storage of PAN during transport, then loss of PAN back to NO_x as the air mass enters the Boise
421 area, which could enhance O₃ production on these days. Daily maximum PAN mixing ratios are
422 also consistent with smoke day values shown in Table 1. Additionally, GAM residuals are above
423 the 95th percentile threshold for both days, suggesting an anomalous source of O₃, which we
424 attribute to the influence of wildfire smoke. At the same time, for moderate smoke days such as
425 those described, additional data or observations would help confirm the presence of wildfire
426 smoke.

427 Figure 8 shows the time series of a very high smoke event (high PM_{2.5}, O₃, PAN, and
428 CO) observed at the St. Luke's site during the period of September 6th – 8th, 2017. The HMS
429 smoke product shows the whole northwest U.S. blanketed in smoke for this entire period. During
430 the first three days of this event (September 5th – 7th), PM_{2.5} concentrations are consistently
431 above 70 µg/m³. During this time, MDA8 O₃ values do not appear to be significantly enhanced
432 and GAM residuals even show a small overestimate of the observed MDA8 O₃ (negative values).
433 However, when PM_{2.5} concentrations drop below 70 µg/m³ on the fourth day of the event (Sept.
434 8th), we see a 20 ppbv increase in MDA8 O₃. We also see a significant underestimation of
435 observed MDA8 values by the GAM model, which shows a residual of 19.1 ppbv that exceeds
436 both the 95th and 97.5th percentile thresholds. This suggests significant anomalous influences not
437 captured by the GAM model. We assert that during the first three days of the event, PM_{2.5}
438 concentrations were sufficiently high enough to impede O₃ production, consistent with the
439 conclusions drawn from Figure 4. On the fourth day, PM_{2.5} concentrations had dropped

440 somewhat so that O₃ was able to be produced efficiently. This led to an MDA8 O₃ value of 71
441 ppbv. During this event, we observe one to two day transport times via back-trajectories. It is
442 possible, however, that the low O₃ production on September 5-7th is due to the plumes being
443 fairly young. PAN values peak during the highest smoke concentrations, likely due to wildfire
444 plume transport into the area. On the fourth day, PAN and O₃ increase significantly during the
445 day due to photochemical production with PAN mixing ratios at almost two times the daily
446 smoke average. Both $\Delta\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$ and $\Delta\text{NO}_y/\Delta\text{CO}$ ERs during this multi-day event are clearly
447 indicative of wildfire smoke.

448 In contrast, August 6th shows an example of a high O₃ smoke event where the 24-hour
449 average PM_{2.5} concentration was 69 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. While Figure 4 would suggest that we might see a
450 reduction in O₃ production, we actually see an MDA8 O₃ level of 69 ppbv. This demonstrates the
451 complexity and large variability associated with O₃ production from wildfire plumes in urban
452 areas. This contrasting event suggests that the threshold for O₃ enhancement and suppression is
453 uncertain in the range of PM_{2.5} concentrations between 60 and 70 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

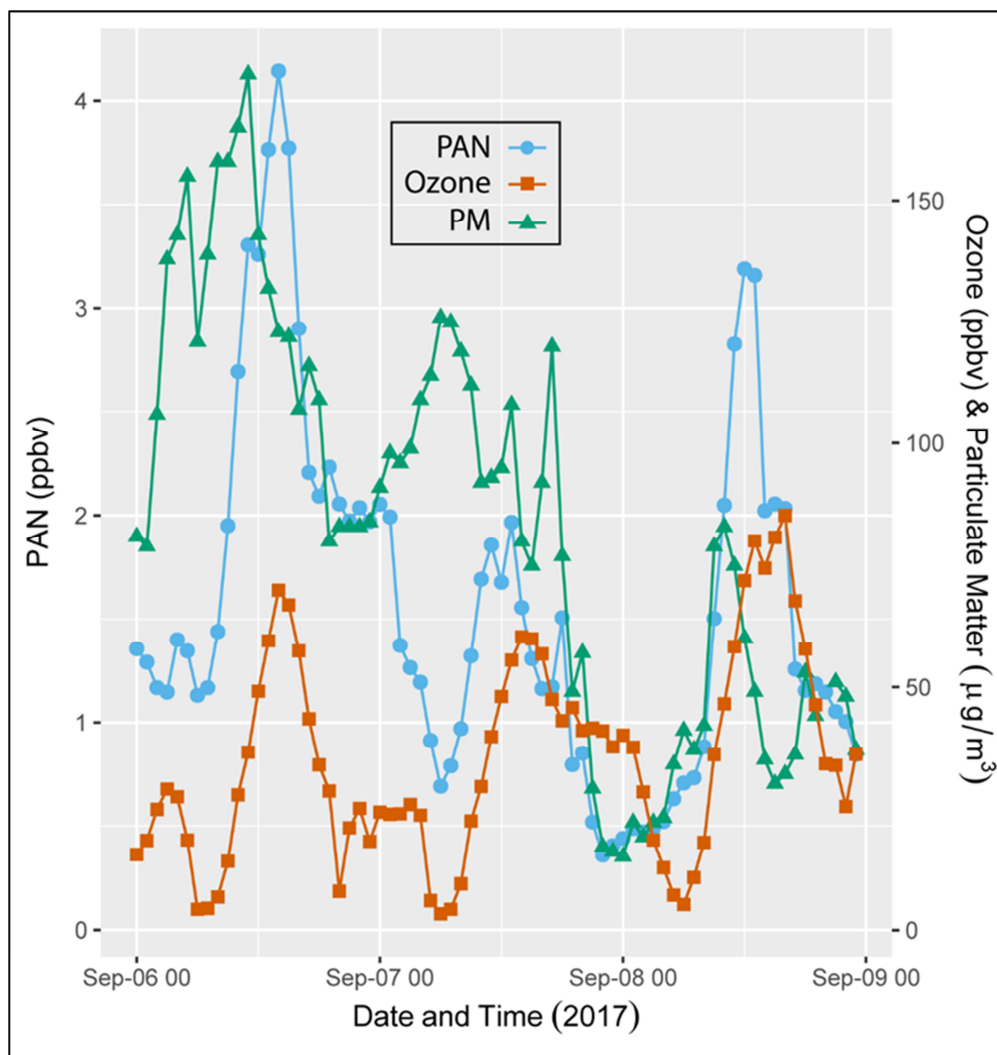


Figure 8. September 6th-8th, 2017 Wildfire-Influenced Event A multi-day high PM_{2.5}, PAN, and O₃ wildfire-influenced smoke event is shown. PAN, O₃, and PM_{2.5} data are shown in blue, orange, and green, respectively. All values are hourly averages. Dates and times are in MST.

454 **4. Conclusions**

455 During the 2017 intensive campaign at the St. Luke’s site, we determined that all
 456 individual pollutants measured were significantly enhanced during smoke days compared with
 457 non-smoke days, with the exception of NO. Additionally, we found that MDA8 O₃ and daily
 458 maximum PAN mixing ratios were 32% and 68% higher on smoke days, respectively. Using
 459 historical data from the St. Luke’s site during 2007-2017, we show that MDA8 O₃ decreases

460 with increasing $PM_{2.5}$ on non-smoke days, likely due to NO_x -titration. On smoke days, MDA8
461 O_3 increases with increasing $PM_{2.5}$ up to a threshold ($\sim 60 - 70 \mu g/m^3$), at which point MDA8 O_3
462 is (on average) lower during very high smoke events. We use GAM residual values to determine
463 anomalous sources of O_3 that cannot be predicted by meteorological or transport variables. Based
464 on these results, we find that smoke day residuals are significantly higher than non-smoke day
465 residuals. We also investigate four wildfire-influenced, high O_3 events. These cases show that
466 ERs become more useful as smoke concentrations increase, and the threshold between O_3
467 enhancement and suppression for Boise is in the range of $60 - 70 \mu g/m^3$. While we identify some
468 effects on O_3 due to wildfire emissions in an urban area, the need for improved classification of
469 smoke versus non-smoke influenced days will likely become more important throughout the
470 western U.S. as wildfire frequency and intensity are predicted to increase through the end of the
471 century.

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