Global atmospheric budget of acetaldehyde: 3D model analysis and 1 constraints from in-situ and satellite observations 2 3 Dylan B. Millet¹, Alex Guenther², David A. Siegel³, Norman B. Nelson³, Hanwant B. Singh⁴, 4 Joost A. de Gouw⁵, Carsten Warneke⁵, Jonathan Williams⁶, Gunter Eerdekens⁶, Vinayak Sinha⁶, 5 Thomas Karl², Frank Flocke², Eric Apel², Daniel D. Riemer⁷, Paul I. Palmer⁸, and Michael 6 7 Barklev⁸ 8 ¹ University of Minnesota, Department of Soil, Water and Climate, St. Paul, Minnesota, USA 9 10 ² NCAR, Atmospheric Chemistry Division, Boulder, Colorado, USA 11 12 13 ³ UC Santa Barbara, Institute for Computational Earth System Science, Santa Barbara, 14 California, USA 15 ⁴ NASA Ames Research Center, Moffett Field, California, USA 16 17 ⁵ NOAA ESRL, Boulder, Colorado, USA 18 19 ⁶ Max Planck Institute for Chemistry, Mainz, Germany 20 21 ⁷ University of Miami, Rosenstiel School of Marine and Atmospheric Science, Miami, Florida, 22 23 USA 24 ⁸ University of Edinburgh, School of GeoSciences, Edinburgh, UK 25 26 27 28 Correspondence to: D.B. Millet (dbm@umn.edu) 29 30 31 32 **Supplemental Information** 33 34 1 MEGANv2.1 details 35 36 The MEGANv2.1 acetaldehyde emission parameterizations are primarily based on whole-canopy 37 flux measurements. The exceptions are the light dependence and soil moisture response, which 38 are based on enclosure measurements due to a lack of canopy-scale observations. Surfaceatmosphere exchange of acetaldehyde has been measured using tower-based flux systems 39 40 deployed in ten ecosystems including tropical forest (Karl et al., 2004; Karl et al., 2007), warm 41 conifer forest (Karl et al., 2005), cool temperate conifer forest (Schade and Goldstein, 2001; Karl et al., 2002), temperate broadleaf forest and plantation (Karl et al., 2003; Jardine et al., 2008), 42 boreal forest (Rinne et al., 2007), and cropland/grassland (Warneke et al., 2002; Schade and 43 Custer, 2004). Nearly all of these studies used proton-transfer reaction mass spectrometry (PTR-44 MS) and the eddy covariance, or disjunct eddy covariance, approach (see Karl et al., 2002). The 45

46 only exception is Schade and Goldstein (2001) who used an automated relaxed eddy

- 47 accumulation system with on-line gas chromatography/flame ionization detector (GC-FID). The
- 48 daytime fluxes observed at these sites for warm, sunny conditions range from no emission (or a
- 49 net uptake) to an emission of about 350 µg m⁻² h⁻¹. The observed temperature response factor (β)
- ranges from 0.05 to 0.19. The fluxes for the two cropland/grassland sites are both on the lower end of the emission range, but conifer and broadleaf forests cover the entire range of reported
- 52 emission and so are grouped together. The MEGANv2.1 acetaldehvde emission factors are
- based on the median values from the above studies: $200 \ \mu g \ m^{-2} \ h^{-1}$ for forests and $20 \ \mu g \ m^{-2} \ h^{-1}$
- for herbaceous landscapes. The median temperature response ($\beta = 0.13$) reported for these
- 55 studies is used for all ecosystems. The MEGANv2.1 LDF and LAI dependence is based on the
- 56 Jardine et al. (2008) analysis of leaf level observations and a comparison of above-canopy fluxes
- 57 at three temperate forests. The leaf level acetaldehyde emissions reported by Holzinger et al.
- (2000), Kreuzwieser et al. (2000), and Rottenberger et al. (2008) provided the basis for the
 MEGANv2.1 soil moisture response algorithm.
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Due to the marginal ability of PTR-MS systems to quantify ethanol, there are relatively few
 observations of ethanol emissions from vegetation. Of the ten above-canopy studies used to

63 characterize acetaldehyde fluxes, only one study (Schade and Goldstein, 2001) reports ethanol

64 emissions. They observed ethanol emissions that were about a factor of 2 higher than

65 acetaldehyde. The temperature response for ethanol at this site was similar to that observed for

acetaldehyde. Additional field measurements of ethanol emissions (Fukui and Doskey, 1998;

67 Kirstine et al., 1998) have used enclosure techniques and also observed ethanol emissions that

are somewhat higher but of the same magnitude as acetaldehyde fluxes. As a starting point for

69 introducing ethanol emissions in MEGANv2.1, we have used the parameterization developed for

- acetaldehyde to also represent ethanol emissions. As a result, these ethanol emission estimates
 are relatively uncertain; more observations of ethanol fluxes are needed to improve this initial
- 72 approach.
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74 2 Air-sea flux calculation75

We compute the flux of acetaldehyde across the air-sea interface using the Liss and Slater (1974)
two-layer model:

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$$F = K_L \left(\frac{C_G}{H^*} - C_L \right), \quad (1)$$

where the flux *F* is determined by the acetaldehyde concentrations in the gas and liquid phase (C_G , C_L), the total transfer resistance ($1/K_L$), and the dimensionless Henry's law coefficient for acetaldehyde H^* . In the aqueous phase acetaldehyde is partially present in the hydrated form

 $CH_3CH(OH)_2$, so that H^* is actually the apparent Henry's law coefficient defined as the

equilibrium ratio of the concentration in air to the sum of hydrated plus unhydrated aldehyde in

the aqueous phase (Betterton and Hoffmann, 1988). The overall transfer resistance is the sum of

those in the individual phases,

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$$\frac{1}{K_L} = \frac{1}{\alpha k_l} + \frac{1}{H^* k_g}.$$
 (2)

87 We derive k_l and k_g using the wind-speed dependent parameterizations of Nightingale et al.

- 88 (2000) and Asher (1997), respectively. The enhancement factor α reflects the extent to which
- acetaldehyde hydration increases the rate of aqueous diffusion; here $\alpha = 2.0$ following Zhou and
- 90 Mopper (1997).

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Fig. S1. Global weighted emission factor distribution ($\Sigma \varepsilon_{i\chi_i}$, see Equation 1 of the main text) for acetaldehyde and ethanol used in MEGANv2.1, gridded to $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$. Biogenic emissions of the two compounds are computed using the same vegetation-specific emission factors ε_i as described in SI Section 1 shows

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164 in SI Section 1 above.

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180 μ g m⁻² h⁻¹