

Comments to modifications

The presentation of results has considerably improved and at least the online source of the model and the urban data are now presented. Wording is also better but still problematic in parts, particularly towards the end of the manuscript, therefore, I am now more specific in my detailed comments (see below). I still think that the 'urban-rural part' of the title is misleading although this is not a major point since I can follow the argumentation of the authors. Similarly, I agree that the merging of results and discussion is not uncommon for ACP although the chapter gets very long. However, at least the headline should be changed from 'results' into 'results and discussion'.

[We appreciate the anonymous reviewer's constructive comments. We revised the previously submitted manuscript to reflect the reviewer's comments. Here, we respond the comments line by line.](#)

The diurnal cycle of the monoterpene concentrations and the obvious difference to isoprene concentration is still not explained or sufficiently discussed. I also pity the opinion of the authors that suggested literature is not relevant to discuss while the manuscript still presents discussion parts that seem not to be essential. Spaulding et al. 2003 is still missing in the reference list and uncertainties in the measurements are still not shown. The term KST has to be explained at first appearance (Fig. 1 not 2).

[In the last revision, we considered what would be the optimal level of discussion on the observed diurnal variations of isoprene and monoterpenes. As the main discussion of this paper is about uncertainty in the radical distribution from incomplete understanding in isoprene oxidation chemistry, we feel a detailed discussion on the diurnal variations may distract the intended point of discussion considering an effort to adapt an 1-D model could easily result in an additional paper worth of discussion \(e.g. Bryan et al., 2012\). In addition, as we noted in the revised manuscript, we are preparing a separate manuscript to describe the characteristics of observed trace gas temporal variations. Therefore, detailed discussion will be included in the upcoming publication. We appreciate the careful review of the references by the reviewer and we have double-checked the revised manuscript to match references in the manuscript in the reference list along with all the abbreviations that we used in the manuscript.](#)

Some more specific comments

Line 116: An 'evolution of thought' cannot be derived from only one previous statement.

[We corrected it as "\(Spaulding et al. \(2003\) and references therein\)" so that it can reflect the status quo of isoprene oxidation chemistry at that time.](#)

Line 125: missing 'at' before low

[We corrected it as suggested](#)

Line 131: 'for' instead of 'in'

We corrected it as suggested.

L132: 'regarding' or similar instead of 'in'

We corrected it as suggested.

L142: replace 'alarming' by 'underlined' or similar

We corrected it and it now reads

“The could become especially a serious issue”

L166-168: not 'Methods'

We relocated the sentence to the introduction section.

L252: What specific parameters are listed where?

We corrected it and it now reads

The specific parameters, constrained by observations are described in section 2.1 and 2.2.

L278-285: I don't see the context of these lines (delete?)

We have retained this because we believe this is a valuable discussion.

Two previous studies, Kim et al. (2012) and Na and Kim (2002), presented contrasting results in VOC distributions in Seoul, South Korea. Therefore, we believe that the discussion helps to reconcile the two contrasting previous reports.

L298: The MT is not highest during night but in the morning (sunset?) this could hardly be explained by the planetary boundary layer.

The MT level was observed in the highest at 7 am local time when the sunrise happened (Figure 1). We also do not intend to explain the diurnal variation solely by the boundary layer dynamics. Again, this observation of the MT diurnal variation is not an outlier from previous observations conducted in the forest canopy as described in the revised manuscript.

L299/300: repetition

We deleted the sentence in the revised manuscript

L301/302: I don't see how branch enclosure measures that were only done around midday could indicate how the emissions develop throughout the day.

We did not fully describe the extent of the branch enclosure sampling method and have now added this description to the manuscript. The data presented in Table 2 are all from sampling during the mid day. In addition, we conducted 3 consecutive days worth diurnal variation analysis to explore the diurnal variations of BVOC emissions. The statement is from the observational data. We made it clear about this point in the revised manuscript.

L311: replace 'suppresses' with 'masks' or similar

- We replaced the word with 'may prevent' in the revised manuscript.
L313-315: So what? (delete?)
We think that we explained why this can be significant in the following sentences.
- L321/322: Neither done nor shown (delete)
We deleted the sentence in the revised manuscript.
- L327-331: Rather introduction than discussion. Is any of the investigated oaks relevant here? (if not delete?)
We think that it is relevant since isoprene has been observed in high levels and is the dominant OH chemical sink at the observational site. Since isoprene is not directly emitted from the forest immediately surrounding the observational site, it is necessary to discuss the potential origins of isoprene and its importance in the regional scale.
- L334: delete 'observed'
We edited it as suggested in the revised manuscript
- L338: does MEK count as AVOC?
It has both anthropogenic (industrial solvent) and biogenic (primarily from wounded and otherwise stressed plants) sources.
- L356/357: More investigations are always required. If this statement is considered important, please specify specifically why and what for!
We assume this is about the discussion on HONO. We have described the importance of HONO thoroughly and have suggested specific research directions to apply new analytical techniques.
- L372/373: Introduction
We are not sure what the reviewer is referring to.
- L374-378: Repetition and not modeling results (delete)
We edited the paragraph to minimize repetition. However, we intentionally left the discussion about observed NO since it is a critical factor determining radical recycling, which is the main discussion for the section.
- L381: insert 'simulations with' (or similar) before 'observed'
We could not find the word 'observed' in line 381.
- L383-385: the mechanism is constrained by scenarios? (new wording)
We agreed that the wording is confusion and so we reworded the sentences so that we can convey our intention of highlighting roles of HONO in radical chemistry.

L388: 2.6 what? (new wording!)

[We corrected it in the revised manuscript.](#)

L395: 6 (not 5) Scenarios are shown in Fig. 3! (5 are shown in Fig. 3 top row)

[We corrected it in the revised manuscript.](#)

L412: delete 'is'

[We corrected as suggested in the revised manuscript.](#)

L414: delete 'Most', add 'in the' before 'model'

[We corrected as suggested in the revised manuscript.](#)

L419-421: This sentence is unclear and I don't see the logic in it. It also sounds as a conclusion, not a discussion point (delete)

[We rephrased the sentence for clarity. We think it should be regarded as discussion so we did not delete the argument.](#)

L423: bold letters

[We corrected as suggested in the revised manuscript.](#)

L437-439: unclear (new wording!)

[We rephrased the sentence in the revised manuscript.](#)

L448: replace 'conspicuous' by 'apparent' or similar

[We corrected it in the revised manuscript as suggested](#)

L458: R7, not R6

[We corrected the typo.](#)

L472-484: This paragraph makes a lengthy statement about relatively well known facts ending in the conclusion that isoprene is important for ozone formation – what has also been shown in previous studies. In my opinion this should be radically shortened or deleted at all.

[We shortened the paragraph as suggested in the revised manuscript.](#)

L498: delete 'evaluation'

[We deleted the word as suggested.](#)

L500: If ozone formation is always VOC limited, why is it then obvious to investigate the radical chemistry to determine ozone production – at least in this case? Please refine argumentation.

[We revised the manuscript to clearly convey the argument, which is that the level of VOC reduction should be adjusted depending on the degree of VOC limited regimes.](#)

L504-507: No, this paper doesn't address the difficulties of policy implementation at all (delete or reformulate considerably).

We agree that we are not addressing any of policy implications but we do think that we provide the quantitative analysis of potential uncertainty in ozone production regimes from uncertainty surrounding isoprene-OH interactions. We edited the paragraph to reflect this point.

L514/517: 'Most' studies are all presented in 'Sinha et al. 2010'? (check)

We included one more study (Nakashima et al., 2014) from the Manitou forest site, a conifer forest.

L519: replace 'as' by 'are the'

We corrected it as suggested.

L523: Paragraph end after compounds? Where is the link between the sentences?

We started a new paragraph after the sentence in the revised manuscript.

L543-545: SOA formation is not discussed previously and is not the topic here. Thus conclusions about this are misplaced (delete).

We were clear about our discussion point limited to uncertainty in OVOC formation. From there, we expanded the discussion to potential uncertainty in SOA formation, as OVOCs are precursors for SOA. We think we are clear about this in the manuscript.

L547: The summary should be in the abstract (stay with conclusions)

We believe that having a summary section in research papers especially submitted to ACP is a common practice. However, We also agree with the referee's concerns that the summary and conclusions section should not be just a repetition of the abstract. We edited this section so that the summary is better integrated with conclusions.

L556: Again, I don't see any indication of aerosol formation from aged pollution in this paper.

We corrected the sentence accordingly in the revised manuscript.

L565: replace 'twice' by 'twofold'

We corrected as suggested.

L569: What is meant by 'indicate contrary results'?

We corrected the sentence to avoid any confusion

L572-574: More studies are always required. If this statement is considered important, please specify specifically why and what for!

We think we are clear about the specifics of required studies, characterizing existing available analytical techniques.

L582: R7, not R6

We corrected as suggested in the revised manuscript.

L590: What is meant by 'morning and afternoon show a very strong contrast with morning'?

We separate this sentence into two sentences for clarity in the revised manuscript.

L593-596: No, these results don't indicate that uncertainties in photochemistry propagate policy making processes. It is even quite uncertain if they should. Do you want to argue that NO_x should be reduced because then trees would be less damaged by ozone? Since this is a strongly VOC limited regime measures would have to be unrealistically severe. (delete or strongly reword)

We edited this sentence to cautiously convey the importance of scientific understanding in radical chemistry in providing a scientific basis for policy decision making processes.

Fig. 1: KST not explained. Please give also weather information (at least temperature, possibly radiation and wind speed). Please show uncertainty ranges or explain why this is not possible.

KST stands for Korean Standard Time (GMT+9). We added the temperature diurnal variation since it was used for the model calculation input. We notated uncertainty in the manuscript and intentionally did not show in the plot because it makes the plot very hard to read.

Fig. 2: Put xylene at the top of the panel to match the order of compounds in the figure

We corrected as suggested in the revised manuscript.

Fig. 6: needs better indication of a) and b). Such a differentiation should be applied for figures 3 and 4 too.

We corrected as suggested in the revised manuscript. We updated Figure 3 as suggested in the revised manuscript. For Figure 4, we clearly annotated each figures with the each scenario number.

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Urban-rural interactions in a South Korean forest in ozone
and oxygenated volatile organic compound formation
perspectives

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To be submitted to Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics “East Asian Megacity”
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46 **Abstract**

47 Rapid urbanization and economic development in East Asia in past decades has
48 led to photochemical air pollution problems such as excess photochemical ozone and
49 aerosol formation. Asian megacities such as Seoul, Tokyo, Shanghai, Gangzhou, and
50 Beijing are surrounded by densely forested areas and recent research has consistently
51 demonstrated the importance of biogenic volatile organic compounds (VOCs) from
52 vegetation in determining oxidation capacity in the suburban Asian megacity regions.
53 Uncertainties in constraining tropospheric oxidation capacity, dominated by hydroxyl
54 radical, undermine our ability to assess regional photochemical air pollution problems.
55 We present an observational dataset of CO, NO_x, SO₂, ozone, HONO, and VOCs
56 (anthropogenic and biogenic) from Taehwa Research Forest (TRF) near the Seoul
57 Metropolitan Area (SMA) in early June 2012. The data show that TRF is influenced both
58 by aged pollution and fresh BVOC emissions. With the dataset, we diagnose HO_x (OH,
59 HO₂, and RO₂) distributions calculated using the University of Washington Chemical
60 Box Model (UWCM v 2.1) with near-explicit VOC oxidation mechanisms from MCM
61 3.2 (The Master Chemical Mechanism). Uncertainty from unconstrained HONO sources
62 and radical recycling processes highlighted in recent studies is examined using multiple
63 model simulations with different model constraints. The results suggest that 1) different
64 model simulation scenarios cause systematic differences in HO_x distributions especially
65 OH levels (up to 2.5 times) and 2) radical destruction (HO₂+HO₂ or HO₂+RO₂) could be
66 more efficient than radical recycling (HO₂+NO) especially in the afternoon. Implications
67 of the uncertainties in radical chemistry are discussed with respect to ozone-VOC-NO_x
68 sensitivity and VOC oxidation product formation rates. Overall, the VOC limited regime

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70 in ozone photochemistry is assessed but the degree of sensitivity can significantly vary
71 depending on the model scenarios. The model results also suggest that RO₂ levels are
72 positively correlated with oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs) production that is not routinely
73 constrained by observations. These unconstrained OVOCs can cause higher than
74 expected OH loss rates (missing OH reactivity) and secondary organic aerosol formation.
75 The series of modeling experiments constrained by observations strongly urge
76 observational constraint of the radical pool to enable precise understanding of regional
77 photochemical pollution problems in the East Asian megacity region.

78 **1. Introduction**

79 NO_x (NO+NO₂) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are two important
80 precursors that drive HO_x radical cycles (Levy, 1971). In the presence of NO_x, VOC
81 oxidation processes recycle OH and produce photochemical oxidation products such as
82 ozone and oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs). This reaction cycle is highly non-linear. For
83 example, excess NO₂ may expedite nitric acid formation (R1), limiting ozone production.
84 In the same context, excess VOCs may expedite peroxy radical production (R2), which
85 limits OH regeneration from peroxy radicals.

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90 The non-linearity in tropospheric photochemistry has been relatively well studied
91 in the urban regions of developed countries and applied in ozone reduction policy. The
92 Los Angeles Metropolitan Area has accomplished significant ozone reduction by
93 implementing aggressive emission reductions of both NO_x and VOC especially from
94 mobile sources (Ryerson et al., 2013). The remarkable ozone abatement was possible due
95 to the fact that there is no significant pollution transport from other metropolitan areas
96 and no significant natural emission sources especially volatile organic compounds from
97 vegetation (BVOCs; biogenic volatile organic compounds) compared with anthropogenic
98 VOC mostly from mobile sources (Pollack et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2013). In the late 80s,
99 Trainer et al. (1987) first demonstrated the importance of isoprene (C₅H₈) as a peroxy
100 radical source that can contribute significant ozone production in rural areas. The

101 importance of isoprene in ozone production in urban areas has also been highlighted, e.g.
102 in the Atlanta Metropolitan Area (Chameides et al., 1988).

103 Isoprene is a hemiterpenoid species and is the globally dominant VOC emission
104 from vegetation (Arneth et al., 2011;Guenther, 2013). Arguably, isoprene is the most
105 frequently studied BVOC from the perspective of atmospheric oxidation processes and
106 their implications for ozone and aerosol formation. However, significant uncertainty
107 hinders assessing the roles of isoprene in regional and global photochemistry in three
108 fronts. First, there is still significant uncertainty in estimating emission rates from each
109 individual plant species on regional scales (Guenther, 2013). Second, limited isoprene
110 inter-comparison results (Barket et al., 2001) suggest that there are large systematic
111 biases among different analytical techniques. Lastly, recent laboratory, theoretical and
112 field observations suggest significant uncertainty in tropospheric isoprene oxidation
113 processes initiated by OH. Until early 2000, it was thought that three first generation
114 isoprene oxidation products (methyl vinyl ketone, methacrolein, and formaldehyde) from
115 OH oxidation were enough to constrain isoprene tropospheric oxidation processes for
116 modeling purposes (e.g. Spaulding et al. (2003) [and references therein](#)). This is an
117 interesting evolution of thoughts considering that Paulson and Seinfeld (1992), one of
118 pioneering works describing isoprene oxidation, clearly claimed that 22 % of first
119 generation isoprene oxidation products from the reaction with OH was not identified and
120 likely included multifunctional C5 compounds. Recent advances in analytical techniques
121 (Kim et al., 2013a) have shown that indeed significant C5-hydroxy carbonyl (e.g.
122 isoprene hydroperxyenals, HPALD) and peroxide compounds are produced as first
123 generation isoprene oxidation products (Crouse et al., 2011;Paulot et al., 2009;Wolfe et

124 al., 2012;Zhao and Zhang, 2004). The product yields appeared to be a strong function of
125 NO concentrations (Peeters and Muller, 2010). In general, at low to intermediate NO
126 levels (~ 100 pptv or lower), the yields of C5-hydroxy carbonyl compounds become
127 higher. These new findings in the isoprene oxidation process are also closely related with
128 recent findings in unexpectedly high OH concentrations (Hofzumahaus et al.,
129 2009;Lelieveld et al., 2008) and substantial missing OH sinks also known as
130 unexpectedly high OH reactivity in high isoprene environments (Di Carlo et al.,
131 2004;Edwards et al., 2013;Kim et al., 2011;Lou et al., 2010).

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132 These new findings have significant implications for regional air quality
133 especially regarding photochemical ozone and SOA production. Despite the strong
134 anthropogenic pollutant emissions in East Asia (China, Japan and South Korea), recent
135 research has shown that isoprene accounts for a major OH chemical sink in suburban
136 areas near Beijing (Ran et al., 2011), the Pearl River Delta region (Lu et al., 2012), Taipei,
137 Taiwan (Chang et al., 2014) and Seoul (Kim et al., 2013d;Kim et al., 2013b).

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138 Consequently, modeling studies also clearly show that isoprene contributes significantly
139 to ozone formation in Asian megacity regions. Kim et al. (2013d) reported that simulated
140 ozone levels with isoprene chemistry are up to 30 % higher than ozone simulation
141 without isoprene chemistry using the WRF-Chem model, indicating an urgent need to
142 implement improved isoprene chemistry schemes in these models in order to simulate the
143 unexpected higher levels of OH in isoprene rich environments. This could become, an
144 especially serious issue as Hofzumahaus et al. (2009) reported significantly higher (~ 2.6
145 times at noon) than expected OH levels in the Pearl River Delta region in China.

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146 Therefore, the current assessments based on the conventional OH photochemistry could

154 significantly misdiagnose regional air-quality status and mislead policy implementation
155 to reduce photochemical air pollution in the East Asian region. Furthermore, as the
156 importance of BVOC in regional air-quality issues in ozone and SOA formation has been
157 also highlighted in Europe and North America, the uncertainty in isoprene
158 photochemistry has significant implications in urban and suburban air quality in general
159 (Zhang et al., 2008a; Sartelet et al., 2012).

160 We present atmospheric observations of NO_x, CO, VOCs, ozone, and HONO in
161 the Taehwa Research Forest (TRF) in the Seoul Metropolitan Area (SMA), South Korea.

162 We use observed data from June, 2013 to conduct observationally constrained box model
163 (University of Washington Chemical Box Model; UWCM) calculations to estimate OH,
164 HO₂ and RO₂ concentrations with different sets of observational parameters. We discuss
165 current uncertainty in OH-isoprene photochemistry with perspectives of constraining
166 photochemical ozone production and OVOCs precursors of secondary organic aerosols.

167

168 2. Methods

169 The Taehwa Research Forest (TRF) is located ~ 35 km from the center of Seoul,
170 South Korea. The TRF is located at the southeastern edge of the Seoul metropolitan Area
171 (SMA, population of ~ 23 million). TRF has a sampling tower located in the middle of a
172 coniferous tree plantation (200 m by 200 m) with the canopy height of 18 m (*Pinus*

173 *koriensis*) surrounded by a deciduous forest mostly composed by oak. The TRF
174 instrumentation has previously been described by Kim et al. (2013d) along with the
175 previous trace gas observational results. Therefore, just brief descriptions of analytical
176 techniques are given in this paper.

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Moved (insertion) [1]

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Deleted: Kim et al. (2013d) reported CO, NO_x, SO₂, ozone, and VOC observation results along with WRF-Chem assessments of ozone forming potential of isoprene photochemistry. The report found that isoprene was the most dominant OH chemical sink during daytime among the observed trace gases and explained up to 30 % of ozone production. We

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Moved up [1]: Kim et al. (2013d) reported CO, NO_x, SO₂, ozone, and VOC observation results along with WRF-Chem assessments of ozone forming potential of isoprene photochemistry. The report found that isoprene was the most dominant OH chemical sink during daytime among the observed trace gases and explained up to 30 % of ozone production.

195

196 **2.1. CO, NO_x, SO₂, ozone, VOCs, and meteorological parameters**

197 Thermo Fisher Scientific Enhanced Trace Level Gas Analyzers are used for CO,
198 NO_x, SO₂, and ozone observations as summarized Table 1. VOC observations are
199 conducted by a High-Sensitivity Proton Transfer Reaction-Mass Spectrometer (PTR-MS,
200 Ionicon GmbH). The atmospheric application of this technique is thoroughly reviewed by
201 de Gouw and Warneke (2007). In addition, the instrument suite at TRF is thoroughly
202 described in (Kim et al., 2013d). PTR-MS can quantify atmospheric VOCs that have
203 higher proton affinity than the proton affinity of H₂O (691 kJ mol⁻¹). Most alkanes have
204 lower proton affinity than water but alkene, aromatic and some OVOCs have higher
205 proton affinity and are suitable for quantification using PTR-MS (Blake et al., 2009).
206 These compounds are more reactive than alkane compounds so PTR-MS has capability to
207 observe reactive atmospheric compounds. The TRF PTR-MS system was set to measure
208 acetaldehyde, acetone, acetic acid, isoprene, methylvinylketone (MVK) + methacrolein
209 (MACR), MEK, benzene, xylene (*p*, *m*, and *o*), and monoterpenes (MT). Each compound
210 was set to be monitored for 1 second each resulting in a sample cycle of 15 seconds.
211 Lower detection limits for the observed VOCs are estimated to be 20 ppt for a 5 second
212 integration with sensitivity of 70 counts ppb⁻¹ (2 σ). The uncertainty is estimated as 12 %
213 (2 σ) for the same integration time. Meteorological parameters such as temperature and
214 humidity are monitored by LSI LASTEM Meteorological Sensors. All the presented data
215 is from the 15 m (the canopy height is 18 m) sampling line and meteorological sensors
216 collocated at this height too.

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218 PTR-MS with a quadrupole mass filter has an intrinsic limitation that isobaric
219 compounds are all collectively quantified with the same channel (m/z) with a resolution
220 of unit mass. This limitation particularly becomes an issue for investigating the roles of
221 different isomers of MT and sesquiterpenes (SQTs) in photochemistry. For this reason,
222 we also occasionally collect sorbent cartridge samples to analyze MT and SQT speciation
223 in both ambient air and branch enclosure emissions near the sampling tower. As
224 described in (Kim et al., 2013d), Tenax GR and Carbotrap 5TD packed sorbent cartridges
225 (Markes Int, Llanstrisant, UK) were used for sampling. The sampled cartridges were
226 shipped to National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR), Boulder CO, USA for
227 gas chromatography-mass spectrometer (GC-MS) analysis. An Agilent 7890 GC/5975 C
228 Electron Impact Mass Spectrometer (GC-MS/FID) in conjunction with a MARKES
229 Unity1/Ultra thermal desorption system optimized for terpenoid analysis quantifies
230 speciated MT and SQT in the sorbent samples. Cartridge samples are both collected from
231 ambient and branch enclosure air. Ambient samples were collected in the mid-day to
232 early afternoon with a volume of 6 L. Ozone in the ambient air was removed using a
233 Na₂SO₃ filter. Branch enclosure samples were also collected, mostly in the mid-day time
234 frame, with a volume of 1 L without an ozone filter as zero air was introduced to the
235 branch enclosure. To explore the diurnal differences in BVOC emissions, some branch
236 enclosure sampling was conducted continuously for three consecutive days in mid June
237 of 2013. We present these analytical results from GC-MS analysis limited to the
238 qualification purpose to examine MT and SQT speciation.

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240 2.2 HONO quantification

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245 HONO was measured with an ion chromatography (IC) coupled with diffusion
246 scrubber. Air was introduced to diffusion scrubber (Lab solutions Inc., IL, USA) through
247 a 2 m PFA tubing (1/4" i.d.) at 1.5 L m⁻¹ using a filtered orifice restrictor (F-950, air
248 logic, WI, USA). Air flowing through diffusion scrubber interfaced with deionized water,
249 into which HONO was extracted. 50 µL of solution was injected into the IC system
250 through a PEEK loop (Rheodyne, WA, USA) and 6-way valve (EV750-100, Rheodyne,
251 WA, USA). Eluent was a mixture of Na₂CO₃ and NaHCO₃, which was pumped by a
252 HPLC pump (DX-100, Dionex, CA, USA) into a guard column (Ionpax® AG 14,
253 4x50mm, Dionex, CA, USA) and then analytical column (Ionpax® AS 14, 4x250mm,
254 Dionex, CA, USA). The column effluent passed through a suppressor (ASRS 300,
255 Dionex, CA, USA) and HONO was detected as nitrite ion in conductivity detector (550,
256 Alltech, IL, USA). The entire measurement processes of sampling, chemical analysis, and
257 data acquisition were controlled by a digital timer and data acquisition software
258 (DSchrom-n, DS science, Korea), by which we obtained two measurements every hour.
259 The system was calibrated using a NO₂⁻ standard solution (Kanto chemical Co., Inc.,
260 Tokyo, Japan) whenever reagents were replaced. The detection limit was 0.15 ppb
261 estimated from 3σ of the lowest working standard. Specific analytical characteristics are
262 described in Simon and Dasgupta (1995) and Takeuchi et al. (2004).

263

264 **2.3 UWCM box model**

265 UWCM 2.1 is an open source box model coded by MATLAB (MathWorks®).
266 The model platform can be downloaded from a website
267 (<http://sites.google.com/site/wolfegm/code-archive>). The box model is embedded its own

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269 HO_x (OH+RO₂)-RO_x (peroxyradical and alkoxy radical)-NO_x coupling chemical
270 mechanism. UWCM utilizes Master Chemical Mechanism version 3.2 (MCM 3.2)
271 (Jenkins et al., 1997; Saunders et al., 2003) for near-explicit VOC photo-oxidation
272 schemes. A more detailed model description can be found in Wolfe and Thornton (2011).
273 To minimize uncertainty from the parameterizations of transport and emission, we
274 constrained relatively long-lived trace gases presented in Figure 1. This box modeling
275 technique has been commonly used for examination of OH levels that can be justified by
276 the short chemical lifetime of OH (Kim et al., 2014;Kim et al., 2013c;Mao et al.,
277 2012;Mao et al., 2010). Recently developed isoprene photo-oxidation mechanisms
278 shown in Archibald et al. (2010) are also incorporated in the model. In addition, Kim et al.
279 (2013c) and Wolfe et al. (2013) applied the model in the identical fashion as used for this
280 study to probe radical distributions using comprehensive observational datasets. This
281 study used the UWCM to simulate the diurnal variations of radical pool (OH+HO₂+RO₂)
282 distributions as observational parameters such as CO, NO_x, ozone, and VOCs are
283 constrained. To fully account for roles of OVOCs in the box model as radical sources, we
284 simulated three consecutive days and presented diurnal variations from the third day. The
285 specific parameters, constrained by observations are [described in section 2.1 and 2.2](#).

286

287 3. Results

288 3.1. Observational Results

289 Diurnal averages of observed trace gases (June 1st 2012 to June 6th 2012) are
290 shown in Figure 1. The TRF observatory is in continuous operation and we choose this
291 six day period because a regional high-pressure system caused a stagnant air pollution

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293 event in this period. In the center of Seoul (the real-time data available at
294 <http://www.airkorea.or.kr>), carbon monoxide was observed in the similar levels during
295 the focused period (June 1st to June 6th, 2012). On the other hand, the NO₂ level observed
296 in central Seoul was much higher (20-50 ppb) compared with observed levels at TRF.
297 The reason can be attributed to differences between the chemical lifetime of CO (~a
298 month) and NO₂ (~a few hours to a day). The observations clearly indicate that the TRF
299 is not directly influenced by fresh SMA pollution plumes although the TRF is very close
300 to the center of Seoul (30 km away from the city center) ~~as~~ a regional modeling study
301 shows most of CO and NO_x sources are located in the city center (Ryu et al., 2013).
302 Similar observations were also reported for other East Asian megacities such as Beijing
303 (Ma et al., 2012), where ~ 30 ppb and ~ 15 ppb of NO₂ were observed at noon in the
304 urban and the adjacent rural sites, respectively. In contrast, there were no noticeable
305 differences in CO levels between the urban and rural sites (~ 1-2 ppm). The observed
306 CO, NO_x and SO₂ levels in TRF were much lower than those observed in the suburban
307 regions of Chinese megacities such as Beijing (Ma et al., 2012), Shanghai (Tie et al.,
308 2013), and the Pearl River Delta Region (Lu et al., 2012) and similar with the observed
309 levels in Tokyo, Japan (Yoshino et al., 2012).

310 Previous VOC observations in the SMA consistently have shown that toluene is
311 the dominant anthropogenic VOC followed by other aromatic compounds such as xylene
312 and benzene (Kim et al., 2012; Na and Kim, 2001). Na and Kim (2001) reported high
313 concentrations of propane from house hold fuel use. However, recent observation results
314 from the photochemical pollution observational network managed by National Institute of
315 Environmental Research (NIER) of South Korea in the SMA clearly indicate that propane

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318 levels have declined and are now much lower than the levels previously observed (NIER,
319 2010). This is probably caused by the implementation of a policy changing household
320 fuel sources from propane to methane. Kim et al. (2012) presented detailed aromatic
321 VOC distributions in the SMA from four different urban observational sites. In average,
322 toluene concentrations were observed ~ 7 times higher than the observed levels of xylene
323 and benzene. At the TRF, a similar anthropogenic VOC speciation distribution was
324 observed as shown in Figure 1. The observed toluene and MEK (methyl ethyl ketone)
325 mixing-ratios were much higher than benzene and xylene. MEK is detected in m/z of 73^+
326 by PTR-MS. Although methyl glyoxal, an atmospheric VOC oxidation product, is also
327 detected on the same mass, we assumed that 73^+ of m/z signals are mostly from MEK, an
328 anthropogenic VOC, since the temporal variation follows that of anthropogenic VOC
329 such as toluene and xylene. In addition, atmospheric lifetime of methyl glyoxal is much
330 shorter than MEK.

331 As the observation facility is located in the middle of a pine tree plantation (*Pinus*
332 *koraiensis*), monoterpenes (MT) are consistently observed. The temporal variation of
333 monoterpenes is affected by the planetary boundary layer evolution with a pattern of
334 higher MT levels during night than those of mid-day as has been often reported in other
335 forest environments (Bryan et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2010) This can be explained by
336 interplays between boundary layer evolution and temperature dependent MT emission. It
337 should also be noted that the continuous branch enclosure BVOC emission observations
338 indicate that the daily maxima of MT and SQT emissions were observed in the midday
339 (between noon to 2 pm in the local time). The observed MT and SQT speciation
340 information in the midday is summarized in Table 2. Table 2a summarizes branch

341 enclosure sample analysis results and ambient sample analysis results are summarized in
342 Table 2b. In general, observed MT and SQT in the ambient air are consistent with
343 previously observed distributions (Kim et al., 2013d). α -pinene and β -pinene were the
344 dominant monoterpene and longifolene was the only detected SQT species. In contrast,
345 the branch enclosure observation results, reflecting BVOC emission, indicate high
346 emission of very reactive MT and SQT species such as β -myrcene, α -caryophyllene, and
347 β -caryophyllene. The fast oxidation of these highly reactive terpenoid species [is expected](#)
348 [to limit](#) the atmospheric presence of the compounds. Therefore, photochemical oxidation
349 processes of these compounds may have been neglected. Investigating emissions and
350 photochemistry of these reactive terpenoid compounds can constrain potential missing
351 OH reactivity and SOA production from highly oxidized reaction products.

352 Isoprene is produced from carbon recently fixed through photosynthesis resulting
353 in higher emissions and atmospheric concentrations during the daytime. The temporal
354 variation shown in Figure 1 reveals an isoprene concentration maximum between 17:00
355 to 20:00. In addition, the ratios of MVK+MACR, major isoprene oxidation products and
356 isoprene at this period, are significantly lower than those of late morning to early
357 afternoon. [The enhanced isoprene levels in the late afternoon or early evening have been](#)
358 also reported in previous studies (Apel et al., 2002; Bryan et al., 2012). The branch
359 enclosure observations demonstrate that isoprene is not emitted from the pine plantation
360 but rather transported from surrounding broadleaf forests as right outside of the pine
361 plantation (200 m \times 200 m) is a forested area dominated by oak trees. Oak comprises 85 %
362 of broadleaf trees in South Korea (Lim et al., 2011). Lim et al. (2011) quantified isoprene
363 emission rates for five representative oak species in South Korea and report a wide

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371 emission range from oaks that are negligible isoprene emitters ($<0.004 \mu\text{gC dw}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$;
372 standard emission rates) to others with very high isoprene emission rates of $130 \mu\text{gC dw}^{-1}$
373 h^{-1} .

374 Contributions from each trace gas species towards ambient OH reactivity are
375 shown in Figure 2. This is calculated as the product of the observed species concentration
376 and its rate constant for reaction with OH. Observed OH reactivity from VOCs are much
377 higher than from other trace gases such as CO, NO_x, SO₂, and ozone. Among the
378 observed VOC species, BVOCs such as isoprene, α -pinene and β -pinene accounted for
379 significantly higher OH reactivity in comparison with the observed AVOCs such as
380 toluene, benzene, xylene and MEK. Isoprene accounts the highest OH reactivity
381 especially during the daytime. This analysis is consistent with reports from other
382 suburban observations from East Asian megacities such as Beijing (Ran et al., 2011), the
383 PRD region, China (Lou et al., 2010), and the Kinki region Japan (Bao et al., 2010).

384 HONO levels up to 1 ppb were observed in the early morning and were
385 consistently higher than 0.5 ppb during the daytime. These observed levels are
386 substantially higher than reported observations from forest environments in North
387 America (Ren et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2011), where NO_x (~ 1 ppb) is substantially lower
388 than the level observed at TRF. Ren et al. (2011) reported 30 – 60 ppt of HONO at the
389 Blodgett Forest Research Station in the western foothills of the Sierra Nevada Mountains
390 in the late summer of 2007. Zhou et al. (2011) also reported the similar levels of HONO
391 (below 100 ppt) from the PROPHET forest, a mixed hardwood forest in northern
392 Michigan (Pellston, MI). However, significantly higher HONO levels (~ 200 ppt to ~ 2
393 ppb) were reported by Li et al. (2012) from a rural observational site in the Pearl River

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396 Delta region near Guangzhou, where comparable NO₂ levels with TRF were observed.
397 The high HONO levels (a few hundred ppt) especially during the daytime have been
398 consistently reported near Eastern Asian megacities such as Beijing (Li et al., 2012),
399 Shanghai (Hao et al., 2006), and Seoul (Song et al., 2009). Still these are limited datasets
400 and further comprehensive analysis, especially more extensive observation is required.
401 However, two recently proposed HONO production mechanisms may be able to explain
402 the higher levels in the Eastern Asian megacity region. One is HONO production from
403 NO₂ photo-excitation (Wong et al., 2012) as the region usually has high NO₂
404 concentrations and the other is HONO emission from soil bacteria (Oswald et al., 2013).
405 Oswald et al. (2013) found differences as much as two orders of magnitude in HONO
406 emissions from soil samples from different environments (e.g. pH and nutrient contents).
407 In addition, as most of observations in the East Asia regions were conducted with ion
408 chromatography based methods, more direct HONO quantification techniques such as a
409 chemical ionization mass spectrometry technique (Roberts et al., 2010) need to be used to
410 characterize any potential interferences such a high NO_x environment (e.g. N₂O₅).

411

412 **3.2 HO_x Model calculations with different isoprene photo-oxidation scenarios and** 413 **the roles of unconstrained HONO sources in HO_x model evaluations.**

414 The presented observational results are used to constrain the UWCM box model.
415 We evaluate uncertainties in the tropospheric oxidation capacity and how it affects our
416 ability to constrain ozone and OVOCs production. The observational results clearly
417 indicate that isoprene is the most dominant OH sink among the observed VOCs. In
418 addition, NO concentrations were higher in the 600 to 800 ppt range in the morning. On

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420 the other hand, afternoon levels were substantially lower in the 50 to 100 ppt range. The
421 environment provides a unique opportunity to examine implications of isoprene
422 photochemistry in various NO conditions.

423 We conducted model simulation under six different scenarios. Each scenario is
424 described in Table 3. The quantitative assessments of the impacts to radical
425 concentrations (OH, HO₂, and RO₂) from unknown HONO sources are evaluated by
426 examining the model outcomes of the scenarios with and without observed HONO. To
427 evaluate the impacts of hydroperoxy-methyl-butanal (HPALD) photolysis and isoprene
428 peroxy radical recycling in the radical pool, each chemical mechanism is selectively
429 constrained by different scenarios. For HPALD chemistry, we adapted two different
430 HPALD formation rate constants published by Peeters and Muller (2010) and Crouse et
431 al. (2011). The formation rates from Peeters and Muller (2010) is about 40 times faster
432 than those from Crouse et al. (2011) in 298 K. Finally, we applied the OH yield of 2.6
433 from isoprene peroxy radical and HO₂ reactions for the evaluation (Wolfe et al., 2011).
434 Although, Liu et al. (2013) demonstrated significantly lower OH recycling contributions
435 from HO₂ + isoprene peroxy radical reactions than those argued by Wolfe et al. (2011) by
436 interpreting chamber experiment results, the high recycling rate from Wolfe et al. (2011)
437 is applied in the model calculations to explore upper limit of uncertainty in radical
438 estimations.

439 Modeled OH, HO₂, and RO₂ from the six different model scenarios are shown in
440 Figure 3. A summary of averaged OH, HO₂, and RO₂ concentrations in the morning
441 (08:00 – 11:00) and the afternoon (13:00 – 16:00) from each simulation is shown in
442 Table 4. With respect to the base run results (Scenario I), Scenario III with the lower

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448 HPALD formation rate does not cause noticeable differences in radical concentrations.
449 Adapting higher HPALD formation rates (Scenario II) cause significant differences in
450 radical distribution especially in RO₂. This difference is likely caused by the fact that
451 significant isoprene peroxy radical is converted to HPALD. The higher levels of
452 discrepancy is found in RO₂ between Scenario I and Scenario II in the afternoon when
453 low NO concentrations are observed, which efficiently facilitates HPALD formation.
454 Adding HO₂+ isoprene peroxy radical reactions as OH recycling processes (Scenario IV
455 and V) results in significant enhancements in OH and HO₂ with respect to the base run
456 (Scenario I). RO₂ concentrations are calculated in significantly different levels between
457 Scenario IV and V. This can be again accounted by the applications of different HPALD
458 formation rates in the two different model scenarios. The higher level of OH from the
459 additional recycling process causes substantially higher RO₂ formation rates than those
460 from the scenarios without the additional recycling process. The faster
461 HPALD formation in Scenario IV appeared to cause faster loss of RO₂
462 resulting in low RO₂ concentrations.

463 Striking differences can be found in the model simulation results with or without
464 constraining observed HONO as shown in Figure 3. Model calculation results from
465 Scenario VI indicate significantly smaller OH, HO₂, and RO₂ concentrations than the
466 concentrations calculated from the counter part (Scenario IV), which contains identical
467 constraints and isoprene photochemistry except constraining observed HONO. Again,
468 this clearly indicates that more thorough evaluations of the impacts of HONO on air
469 quality are needed to precisely constrain photochemical processes in the region along
470 with evaluations of the currently available analytical techniques as argued in section 3.1.

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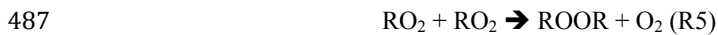
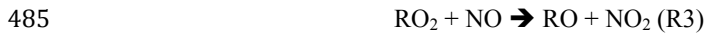
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481 **3.3 Implications of uncertainty in HO_x model calculations in assessing**
482 **photochemical ozone and OVOC production.**

483 Two competing chemical reactions (R3 vs. R4,5,6) determine radical distribution
484 regimes.



489

490 When the rate of R3 gets much faster than the sum of reaction rates of R4, R5,
491 and R6 then radical recycling processes become more efficient than radical destruction
492 processes. In this radical recycling regime, OH, a universal tropospheric oxidant, is well
493 buffered to maintain the elevated OH levels. On the other hand, the radical destruction
494 regime can be defined when the radical recycling rates (R3) are slower than the radical
495 destruction reaction rates (R4+R5+R6). Although some recent findings (e.g. Lelieveld et

496 al. (2008)) suggest that we may need to reconsider R4 as a radical recycling process
497 rather than a radical destruction process, in this study, we follow the conventional
498 classification of radical chemistry regimes. The temporal variations of radical-radical

499 reaction rates from the model simulation scenarios are shown in Figure 4. In general, the
500 radical reaction rates are elevated as much as twice once observed HONO is constrained
501 in the model calculations (e.g. Scenario VI). This is because unaccounted HONO in the
502 model calculations cause significant underestimations in the radical pool (OH+HO₂+RO₂)

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512 size with respect to the constrained HONO scenarios as shown in Figure 4. In addition, as
513 we include recently developed isoprene radical chemistry, the RO₂+HO₂ reaction rates,
514 known for a radical destruction pathway becomes more faster. This ~~becomes~~ more
515 obvious in the afternoon when NO concentration becomes lower. The RO₂ + HO₂
516 reaction rates get higher than those of RO₂ + NO in the afternoon for the Scenario IV and
517 V. This is surprising, as the radical destruction regime is usually associated with low
518 NO_x conditions. Suburban regions of megacities including the TRF in general show high
519 NO_x conditions. However, radical recycling rates are determined by concentrations of
520 NO. The fraction of NO in the NO_x pool is determined by competing reactions between
521 NO₂ photolysis and oxidation reactions of NO by ozone, HO₂, and RO₂ radicals. Once we
522 assume the pseudo-steady state of NO, then NO in NO_x pool can be expressed as

523

524
$$[\text{NO}] = J_{\text{NO}_2}[\text{NO}_2]/(k_{\text{NO}+\text{O}_3}[\text{O}_3] + k_{\text{NO}+\text{HO}_2}[\text{HO}_2] + k_{\text{NO}+\text{RO}_2}[\text{RO}_2]) \quad (\text{R7})$$

525

526 This mathematical expression clearly shows that NO levels are dependent on NO_x
527 mostly composed of NO₂. At the same time, the fraction of NO in NO_x is anti-correlated
528 with ozone, HO₂, and RO₂ concentrations. Therefore, the size of the radical pool
529 composed of HO₂ and RO₂ is relevant for determining the fractions of NO in given NO_x
530 levels. High HO₂ and RO₂ are likely observed in high VOC regions such as forested areas.
531 This could cause a smaller fraction of NO in the given NO_x pool so radical recycling gets
532 relatively weaker compared with radical destruction reaction pathways. More quantitative
533 approaches are required to categorize radical reaction pathways rather than qualitative
534 categorization such as high or low NO_x regimes.

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538 | Conventionally, efficient ozone production can be achieved by the balance
539 | between nitric acid production rates (P_{HNO_3} , $\text{OH} + \text{NO}_2$) and peroxide production rates
540 | (P_{ROOH} , $\text{HO}_2 + \text{RO}_2$ or $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}$, $\text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2$) (Sillman and He, 2002). The imbalance will cause
541 | ozone production sensitivity towards either NO_x or VOCs. A comprehensive
542 | photochemical model analysis (Tonnesen and Dennis, 2000a, b) demonstrated that in a
543 | wider range of ozone concentrations, the VOC and NO_x limited regimes can be
544 | determined by the ratios of $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}$ and P_{HNO_3} . The ratio range ($P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$) of 0.35 is
545 | regarded as the border range. In the VOC limited regime ($P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3} < 0.35$), ozone
546 | production is expected to decrease with increasing NO_x and increase with increasing
547 | VOCs. In the NO_x limited regime ($P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3} > 0.35$), ozone production gets efficient
548 | with increasing NO_x and is insensitive to changes in VOCs (Sillman and He, 2002). This
549 | categorization has guided policy-making processes whether NO_x or VOC controls will be
550 | more effective in ozone reduction. A series of modeling studies have been conducted to
551 | characterize ozone production regimes in the suburban regions of East Asian megacities
552 | and have consistently concluded that the role of isoprene is important in ozone
553 | production. However, most of these studies have concluded that East Asian megacity
554 | regions are mostly in the VOC limited regime (Tseng et al., 2009; Zhang et al.,
555 | 2008b; Lim et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2010; Shao et al., 2009a; Shao et al., 2009b; Xing et
556 | al., 2011). Recently, however, a modeling study by Li et al. (2013) in the Pearl River
557 | Delta region in China demonstrated the time dependence of ozone production regimes.
558 | Specifically, with high NO_x emissions in the morning, the regional ozone production
559 | regime is categorized as VOC limited. In contrast, in the afternoon when the highest
560 | ozone concentrations are observed, a NO_x limited regime is often found. The obvious

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570 issue to be addressed is that all of the above studies neglected how the uncertainty in
571 hydroxyl radical chemistry would affect the ozone production regime. Moreover, HONO
572 has been rarely constrained by observations in the previous modeling studies. Figure 5
573 shows the temporal variations of $P_{H_2O_2}/P_{HNO_3}$ from the all six different model scenarios.
574 The VOC limited ozone formation regime was observed regardless of the HO_x
575 simulation scenarios. Differences among the scenarios are not noticeable in the morning
576 when NO is high but noticeable differences can be found in the afternoon which may
577 cause uncertainty in assessing the optimal level of NO_x and VOC emission
578 controls from a policy perspective. In general, the model calculation results with
579 faster HPALD formation rates indicate higher $P(H_2O_2)/P(HNO_3)$ in the afternoon. This
580 analysis indicates that it is difficult to determine an effective policy implementation for
581 NO_x or VOC controls to achieve ozone abatement around Asian megacities where
582 isoprene is a significant OH sink, without accurate understanding of radical isoprene
583 interactions (e.g. Kim et al. (2013b)).

584 Another unresolved uncertainty in understanding tropospheric OH is its chemical
585 loss rates. The limited observations of OH reactivity in BVOC dominant environments
586 show consistent unaccounted OH chemical loss with observational datasets (Di Carlo et
587 al., 2004; Edwards et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2011; Lou et al., 2010; Nolscher et al.,
588 2012; Nakashima et al., 2014; Sinha et al., 2010). Two different processes are speculated
589 to cause unaccounted OH loss known as missing OH reactivity: 1) primary emissions of
590 unmeasured or unknown compounds and 2) oxidation products of well-known BVOCs
591 especially isoprene. Most studies conducted in coniferous forests where monoterpenes
592 are dominant primary BVOC emissions have concluded that unmeasured or unknown

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603 primary BVOC emissions caused missing OH reactivity (Sinha et al., 2010; Nakashima et
604 al., 2014). On the other hand, studies conducted in isoprene dominant environments in
605 mostly broadleaf or mixed forests have concluded that the main cause of missing OH
606 reactivity is the oxidation products of isoprene (Edwards et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2011).
607 Edwards et al. (2013) presented a thorough analysis on potential impacts of isoprene
608 oxidation products that are not routinely constrained by observations. The authors found
609 significant contributions from secondary oxidation products such as multi-functional
610 oxygenated compounds.

611 Figure 6a shows the temporal variations of total OH reactivity calculated from
612 five different model scenarios (I through V). The highest and the lowest OH reactivity
613 levels were predicted from model calculations of Scenario V and Scenario II, respectively.
614 This observation is directly correlated with calculated RO₂ levels as the lowest and
615 highest RO₂ levels were calculated from Scenario II and Scenario V, respectively. Since
616 VOC precursors and trace gases were all constrained by observations in the model
617 calculations, the differences in model calculated OH reactivity should be mainly caused
618 by the oxidation products of VOCs. This can be confirmed by the comparisons of model
619 calculated formaldehyde concentrations from Scenario II and V as formaldehyde is a
620 dominant oxidation product of isoprene (Figure 6b). The differences in formaldehyde
621 levels suggest differences in OH reactivity levels from OVOCs in each model simulation.
622 In summary, uncertainty in radical distributions especially RO₂ levels is directly
623 propagated into uncertainty in OVOC formation.

624 These calculated results provide an upper limit of potential contributions from the
625 oxidation products of the constrained VOC precursors considering that the box-model

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630 does not consider dry-deposition processes as Karl et al. (2010) and Edwards et al. (2013)
631 suggested that there is significant uncertainty associated with the parameterizations of dry
632 deposition especially OVOCs. Still, this analysis suggests that significant missing OH
633 reactivity (~ up to factor of two to three) can be found without constraining OVOCs.
634 OVOCs, especially multi-functional highly oxidized compounds are precursors for
635 secondary organic aerosols (VOAs). Therefore, uncertainty surrounding missing OH
636 reactivity significantly undermines our ability to constrain SOA formation and aerosol
637 growth.

638

639 | 4. Summary and conclusions

640 We presented trace gas observation results from the TRF near the center of
641 Seoul, South Korea. The dataset provides important constraints to evaluate the HO_x
642 pool at the site where both anthropogenic and biogenic influences become important
643 factors in determining oxidation capacity. Although the site is in the vicinity of a
644 megacity with 25 million people, isoprene accounted for most of the OH loss from
645 observed atmospheric hydrocarbon species during the 6-day focus period in early June
646 2012 during a regional pollution episode. In addition, observed NO_x levels were
647 substantially lower than observed values in the center of the SMA. These observations
648 | indicate that impacts of ~~megacity pollution on suburban~~ BVOC photochemistry can be
649 observed at the TRF.

650 Six different model scenarios are employed to investigate the radical (OH, HO₂,
651 and RO₂) distributions using the UWCM box-model. The observed trace gas data were
652 constrained and the photochemical mechanisms (MCM 3.2) of seven VOC species with

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657 high levels at the TRF were integrated. The uncertainty in isoprene peroxy radical
658 chemistry results in a wider range of OH, HO₂, and RO₂ distributions. Unconstrained
659 HONO sources also cause a quite high level of underestimation in a radical pool
660 (OH+HO₂+RO₂). OH simulation from the different model scenarios indicates much
661 larger discrepancies (up to three times) than simulations for HO₂ and RO₂ (up to twofold).
662 OH is simulated in much higher levels with the consideration of an additional OH
663 recycling channel from isoprene peroxy radical + HO₂ reactions and fast HPALD
664 formation chemistry Peeters and Muller (2010). On the other hand, the RO₂ simulations
665 result in lower levels, as HPALD formation depletes the RO₂ pool, which mostly
666 composed by isoprene peroxy radicals. These results suggest that HO₂ and RO₂
667 observations can provide pivotal information about radical recycling and isoprene peroxy
668 radical chemistry (Kim et al., 2013c; Wolfe et al., 2013). More studies on characterizing
669 existing techniques to quantify HO₂ (Fuchs et al., 2011) and developing new techniques
670 (Horstjann et al., 2013) are needed. In addition, the simulations with recently developed
671 isoprene photo-oxidation chemistry show that radical termination processes (e.g.
672 peroxide formation) get more efficient than radical recycling processes in the afternoon.
673 This may come as a surprise as in general we expect the high NO_x conditions in the
674 suburban regions of a megacity to have effective radical recycling. However, the critical
675 factor determining competing reaction channels of recycling and peroxide formation is
676 NO concentrations. Ratios of NO to NO₂ are not only correlated with NO₂ concentrations
677 and photolysis constants but also anti-correlated with RO₂, HO₂ and ozone concentrations
678 and relevant kinetic constants as shown in (R7). Therefore, a semi-quantitative term such

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682 as the high 'NO_x' regime is not a proper term to define radical recycle regimes especially
683 in high radical environments (e.g. HO₂ and RO₂) such as forest environments.

684 These uncertainties in estimating the radical pool size and distribution directly
685 affect our ability for constraining photochemical ozone and OVOC production. The non-
686 linear response of ozone production to NO_x and VOC abundances are determined by OH,
687 HO₂, RO₂ and NO₂ concentrations. Regardless of which model calculation scenario we
688 adapt, the TRF photochemical state appears to be a VOC limited ozone production
689 regime. However, morning and afternoon show a very strong contrast. The morning
690 conditions indicate a stronger degree of VOC limitation. In addition, a noticeable range
691 of VOC sensitivity was calculated from the six different model scenarios, especially in
692 the afternoon. These analysis results, therefore, suggest that an accurate scientific
693 understanding of isoprene-OH interactions should form the basis for an effective policy
694 implementation to reduce photochemical pollution in the suburbs of Seoul and similar
695 East Asian megacities. In addition, OVOC production is predicted to significantly vary
696 depending on the model simulation scenarios. The fate of these OVOCs is uncertain and
697 can include deposition, photolysis, or condensation. Our limited understanding of
698 OVOCs contributes substantially to the overall uncertainty in radical photochemistry and
699 should be addressed by studies that quantify the processes controlling OVOC production
700 and loss.

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702 **Acknowledgements**

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1045 Table 1. Analytical characteristics of trace gas analyzers at TRF

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Chemical Species	Manufacturer and Model Number	Uncertainty	Lower Limit of Detection
CO	Thermo Scientific 48i TLE	10%	40 ppb
NO_x	Thermo Scientific 42i-TL	15%	50 ppt
SO₂	Thermo Scientific 43i-TLE	10%	50 ppt
ozone	Thermo Scientific 49i	5%	< 1 ppb

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1050 Table 2. Terpenoid speciation analysis results from GC-MS a) branch enclosure and b)
1051 ambient air samples.

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1053 a)

Terpenoids	*Composition(%)	Speciation	*Composition(%)
Isoprene	0.5		
Monoterpenes	92.9	α -pinene	36.7
		camphene	13.1
		β -pinene	12.0
		β -myrcene	27.7
		α -terpinolene	1.9
		d-limonene	8.6
Sesquiterpenes	6.6	β -caryophyllene	53.2
		α -caryophyllene	46.8

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1055 b)

Terpenoids	*Composition(%)	Speciation	*Composition(%)
Monoterpenes	98.6	α -pinene	38.8
		β -pinene	36.5
		camphene	13.5
		d-limonene	11
Sesquiterpenes	1.4	longifolene	100

1056 *Composition is calculated based on the mixing ratio scale

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Table 3. A summary of critical differences in input parameters for four different model simulation scenarios presented in this study

	HPALD chemistry	* α	Observational Constraints
Scenario I	No	0	~All
Scenario II	#Peeters and Muller (2010)	0	~All
Scenario III	+Crouse et al. (2011)	0	~All
Scenario IV	#Peeters and Muller (2010)	2.6	~All
Scenario V	+Crouse et al. (2011)	2.6	~All
Scenario VI	#Peeters and Muller (2010)	2.6	~All but HONO

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* α is an OH yield from reactions between an isoprene peroxy radical and HO₂, #k298 = ~ 0.08 for isoprene peroxy radical isomerization rate leading to produce HPALD, +k298 = 0.002 for isoprene peroxy radical isomerization rate, ~All the observed diurnal variations, appeared in Figure 1 are constrained in the model along with ambient pressure and humidity.

1087 Table 4 A summary for radical distributions from the observationally constrained box-
 1088 model simulation results
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	OH		HO ₂		RO ₂		Constraints
Local Time	8:00-12:00	13:00-16:00	8:00-12:00	13:00-16:00	8:00-12:00	13:00-16:00	
Scenario I	3.85×10 ⁶	3.08×10 ⁶	4.10×10 ⁸	7.02×10 ⁸	3.65×10 ⁸	1.14×10 ⁹	All
Scenario II	3.99×10 ⁶	3.69×10 ⁶	3.99×10 ⁸	7.86×10 ⁸	3.51×10 ⁸	9.62×10 ⁸	All
Scenario III	3.86×10 ⁶	3.13×10 ⁶	4.09×10 ⁸	7.09×10 ⁸	3.64×10 ⁸	1.12×10 ⁹	All
Scenario IV	4.27×10 ⁶	4.49×10 ⁶	4.29×10 ⁸	8.70×10 ⁸	3.66×10 ⁸	1.06×10 ⁹	All
Scenario V	4.21×10 ⁶	4.52×10 ⁶	4.55×10 ⁸	8.55×10 ⁸	3.86×10 ⁸	1.28×10 ⁹	All
Scenario VI	1.61×10 ⁶	1.61×10 ⁶	1.95×10 ⁸	4.82×10 ⁸	1.75×10 ⁸	7.25×10 ⁸	All but HONO
Scenario VII	1.82×10 ⁶	2.55×10 ⁶	2.09×10 ⁸	6.07×10 ⁸	1.80×10 ⁸	7.00×10 ⁸	All but HONO

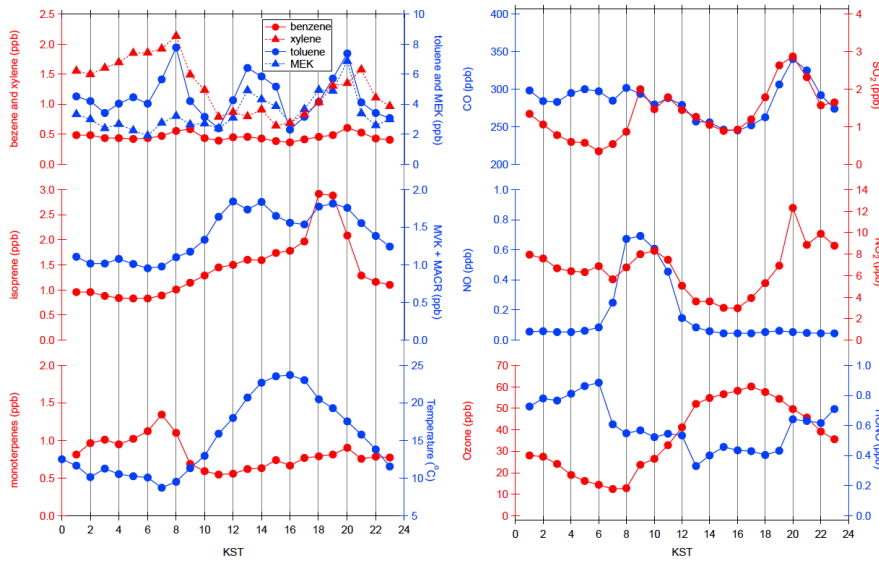
1090 unit: molecules cm⁻³

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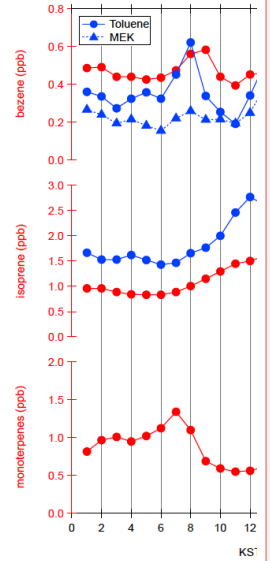
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Figure 1. Averaged temporal variations observed trace gases and ambient temperature at TRF (June 1st to June 6th, 2012, KST stands for Korean Standard Time GMT+9). The uncertainty for each observable is listed in the main text.



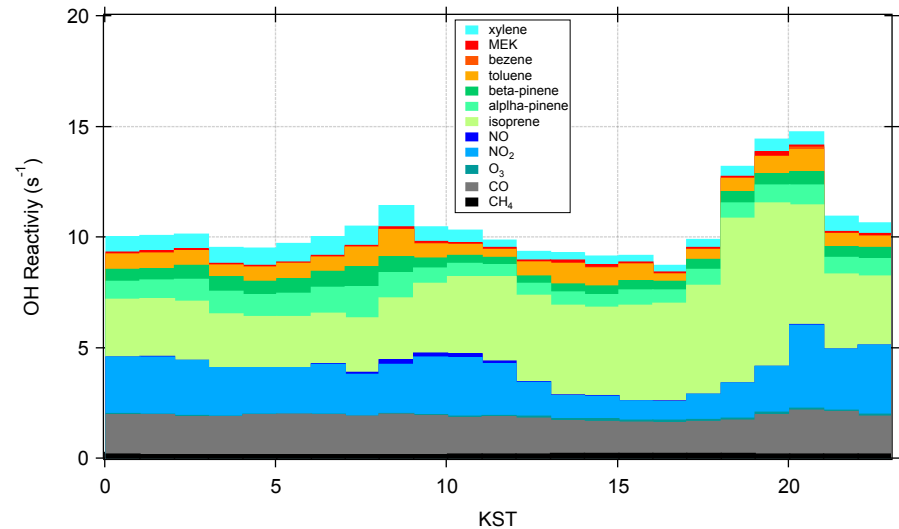
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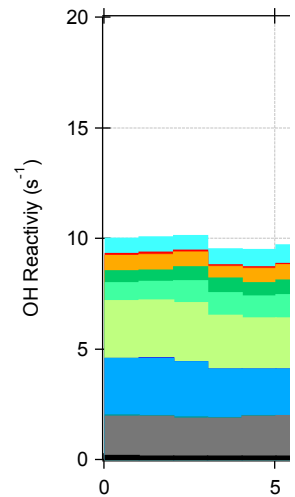
1102 Figure 2. The temporal variations of OH reactivity calculated from the observed dataset
1103 at TRF (Figure 1).
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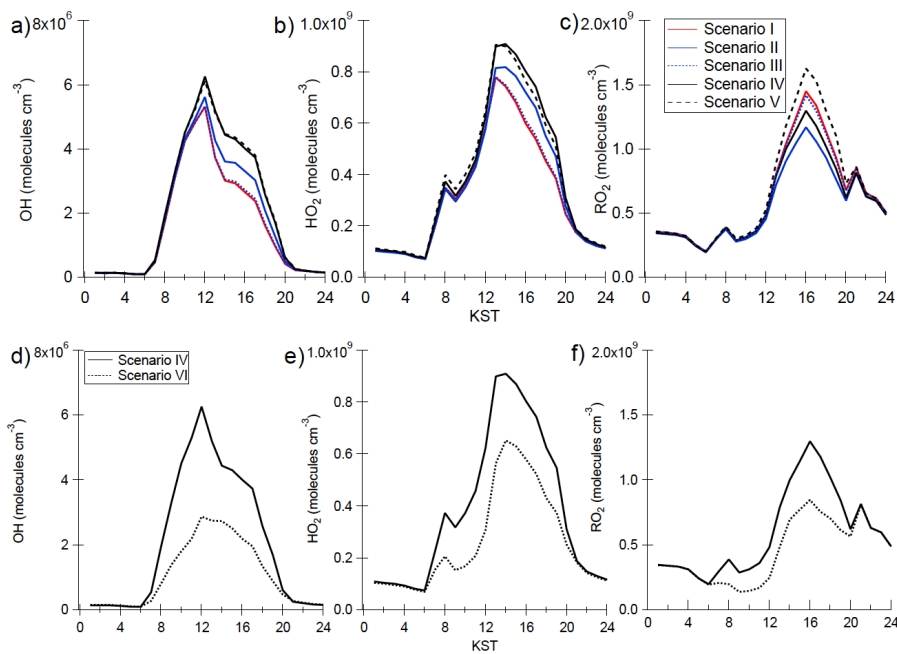
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1113 | Figure 3. The temporal variations of OH (a) and d), HO₂ (b) and e), and RO₂ (c) and f)
1114 | calculated by six different observationally constrained UWCM box model scenarios.
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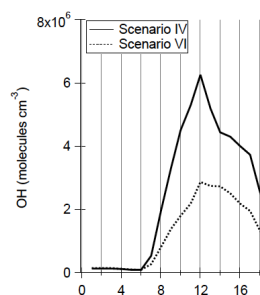
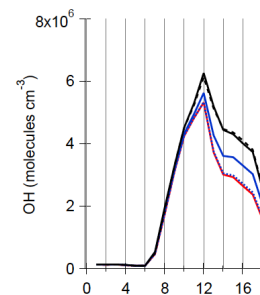
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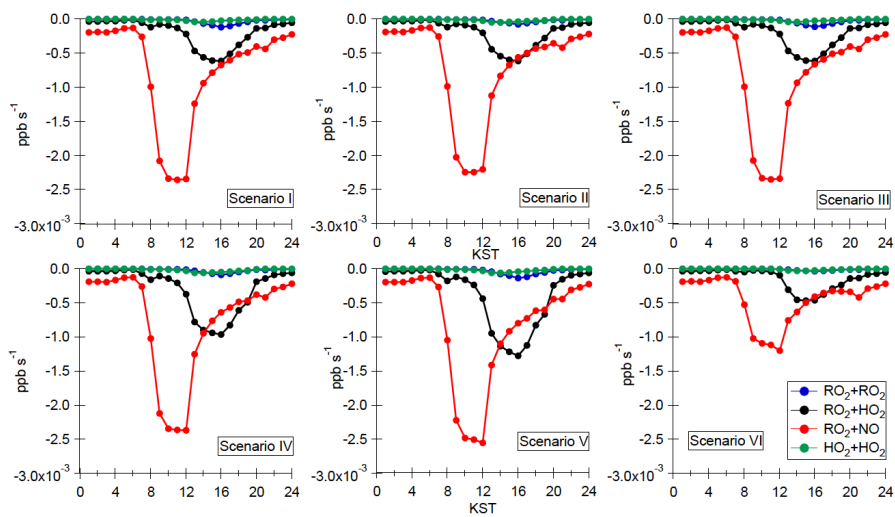
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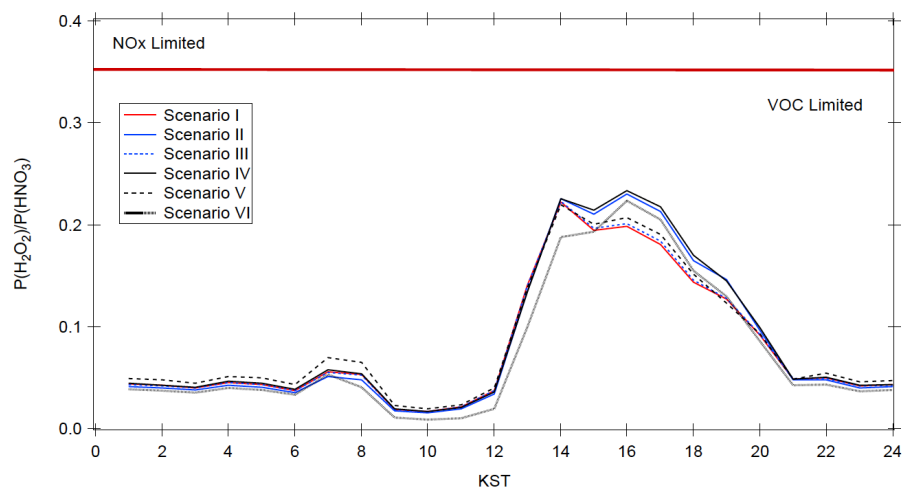
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Figure 4 The temporal variations of radical recycling (red) and destruction (blue, black and green) rates calculated using the UWCM box model for different model scenarios



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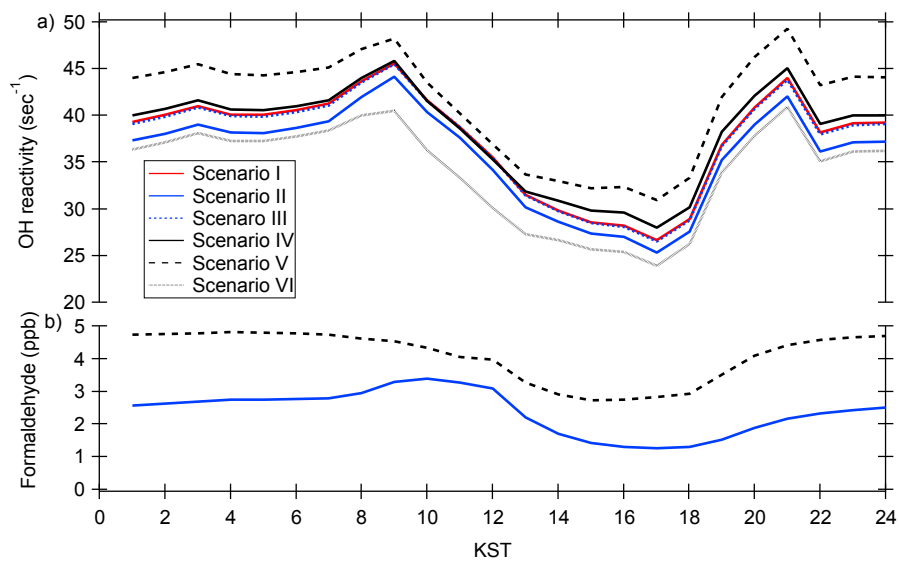
1130 Figure 5. The temporal variations of $P_{H_2O_2}/P_{HNO_3}$ calculated from the UWCM box model
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1137 | Figure 6. The temporal distributions of UWCM calculated OH reactivity (a) and
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