Reply to Reviewer's comments

General Comments

Although the figure quality has improaved, the language still needs to be improved substantially before final publication.

Response: Appreciate your further comments. Figures and sentences have been updated again and wish it would help.

Detailed Comments:

1. Further model detail needs to be provided in the manuscript itself. The reader shouldn't have to refer to the author's responses for details on the boundary layer height assumed.

Response: Thanks for the advice. The sentence was added in the end of section 2.3.1. The boundary layer height was set as constant as 1000 m in the model due to the lack in measurements. This was similar to model setups in Lu et al (2013) and field measurement results in Guo et al (2016).

2. The authors suggest that they have run the model for different spin up times and report a difference within 10%, but no detail on the different spin up times tested is provided!

Response: Appreciate the suggestion. There was also one more sentence in section 2.3.1 in the latest version of manuscript. Different scenarios with 1 day, 2 days and 3 days spin-up time have been tried while the differences were within 10%.

3. I still think it is important to include a time-series of measured, calculated and modelled reactivity somewhere in the manuscript. If there is missing data for the Beijing campaign, just leave gaps in the time-series rather than interpolate. The pie-charts generated from the campaign averages hide a lot of detail - e.g. diurnal variation and day to day variability.

Response: Thanks for the suggestion. The missing data really caused a lot of problems for the data evaluation. However, we follow the suggestion from the reviewers and revised Fig 5a and Fig 5b as in the latest version. However, this suggestion was an important one, especially for the last sentence: the averages hide a lot of details.

4. Paris is still not included in figure 10b (and has now been removed from fig. 10a, but is still discussed in section 4.1).

Response: Thanks for the suggestion. The sentence including Paris information were deleted in the latest version. Sorry for the careless mistake. The figures remained as in the last version.

5. Mention that the NOAA 2005 dataset was from Beijing in the manuscript. Include a comment on the sensitivity of OPE to the species chosen to represent the missing reactivity in section 4.4.

Response: Appreciate the suggestion. For the first one, we add "Beijing" in the first same sentence referring to NOAA measurements in 2005. For the second one, we rephrased the sentence in section 4.4 as follows:

When the four branched-alkenes were included in the OPE calculation, the OPE results would be 4% higher than the OPE constrained by calculated reactivity, but still far from the OPE constrained by measured reactivity.

This suggestion was very good, which connected both the results in section 4.2 and section 4.4.

How does the OH reactivity affect the ozone production efficiency: case studies in Beijing and Heshan, China

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Abstract

Total OH reactivity measurements were conducted on the Peking University campus, Beijing in August 2013 and in Heshan, Guangdong Province from October to November 2014. The daily median OH reactivity were 20 ± 11 s^{-1} in Beijing and 31 ± 20 s^{-1} in Heshan respectively. The data in Beijing showed a distinct diurnal pattern with the maxima over 27 s^{-1} in early morning and minima below 16 s^{-1} in the afternoon. The diurnal pattern in Heshan was not as evident as in Beijing. Missing reactivity, defined as the difference between measured and calculated OH reactivity, was observed at both sites, with 21% missing in Beijing and 32% missing in Heshan. Unmeasured primary species, such as branched-alkenes could contribute to missing reactivity in Beijing, especially in morning rush hours. An observation-based model with the RACM-2 (Regional Atmospheric Chemical Mechanism version 2) was used to understand the daytime missing reactivity in Beijing by adding unmeasured oxygenated volatile organic compounds and simulated intermediates of the degradation from primary VOCs. However, the model could not find the convincing

explanation for the missing in Heshan, where the ambient air was found to be more aged, and the missing reactivity was presumably attributed to oxidized species, such as unmeasured aldehydes, acids and di-carbonyls. The ozone production efficiency was 21% higher in Beijing and 30% higher in Heshan when the model was constrained by the measured reactivity, compared to the calculations with measured and modeled species included, indicating the importance of quantifying the OH reactivity for better understanding ozone chemistry.

1. Introduction

Studies on total OH reactivity in the atmosphere have been of increasing interest over the last two decades. The instantaneous total OH reactivity, is defined as

$$k_{OH} = \sum_i k_{OH+X_i}[X_i] \quad (1\text{-}1)$$

where X represents a reactive species (CO, NO_2 etc.) and k_{OH+X_i} is the rate coefficient for the reaction between X and OH radicals. Total OH reactivity is an index for evaluating the amounts of reductive pollutants in terms of ambient OH loss and hence their roles in atmospheric oxidation (Williams, 2008; Williams and Brune, 2015; Yang et al., 2016). It also provides a constraint for OH budget calculation in both field campaigns and laboratory studies (Stone et al., 2012; Fuchs et al., 2013).

Total OH reactivity measuring techniques, e.g., two laser-induced-fluorescence (LIF) based techniques (Calpini, et al., 1999; Kovacs and Brune, 2001) and one proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometry (PTR-MS) based technique, comparative reactivity method (CRM) (Sinha et al., 2008) were developed in recent years. A brief comparison of these techniques and their interferences were summarized (Yang et al., 2016). By deploying these measuring techniques, total OH reactivity measurements have been intensively conducted in urban and suburban areas. Details of these campaigns were listed in Table 1 and Table 2. Most of the campaigns exhibited similar diel features with higher reactivity in dawn and rush hours of early morning, and lower levels in the afternoon, which could be explained by the change in

boundary layer height, emissions and oxidation processes. Anthropogenic volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and inorganics, such as CO and NO_x ($NO + NO_2$) are major known OH sinks in urban areas.

However, a substantial difference between measured and calculated or modelled OH reactivity, termed as the missing reactivity, was revealed in most field campaigns. Compared to the high percentages of missing reactivity in forested areas (Sinha et al., 2010; Nölscher et al., 2012; 2016; Edwards et al., 2013, Williams et al., 2016), most campaigns in urban and suburban areas gave relatively lower percentages of missing reactivity except for the 75% missing reactivity in Paris in MEGAPOLI under the influences of continental air masses (Dolgorouky et al, 2012).

Various methods were used in exploring the origins of missing reactivity. Unmeasured primary species are important candidates. Sheehy et al. (2010) discovered a higher percentage of missing reactivity in morning rush hours and found that the unmeasured primary species, including organics with semi and low-volatility, could contribute up to 10% of total reactivity. Direct measurements on reactivity of anthropogenic emission sources were conducted, such as vehicle exhaust and gasoline evaporation. An average of 17.5% missing reactivity was found in vehicle exhaust measurements (Nakashima et al., 2010). For gasoline evaporation, a study showed that if primary emitted branched-chained alkenes were considered, the measured and calculated reactivity then agreed (Wu et al., 2015). Besides primary emitted species, unknown secondary species were not negligible. Yoshino et al. (2006) found a good correlation between missing reactivity and measured oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs) in three seasons except for winter, assuming that the unmeasured OVOCs could be major contributors of missing reactivity, in one case the OVOCs could increase reactivity by over 50% (Lou et al., 2010). The observation-based model (OBM) was widely used to evaluate the measured reactivity (Lee et al., 2010; Lou et al., 2010; Whalley et al., 2016), confirming the important contribution from OVOCs and undetected intermediate compounds,.

Ground-level ozone pollution has been of increasing concerns in China. While the ozone concentration exceeds Grade II of China National Ambient Air Quality

Standards (2012) (93 ppbV) frequently in summer in Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei area and Pearl River Delta (PRD) region (Wang et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2008), it appears there is an increasing trend for ozone in Beijing and other area recent years (Zhao et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2014). Comparing to traditional empirical kinetic model approach (EKMA) (Dodge et al., 1977), the OH reactivity due to VOCs (termed as VOCs reactivity) rather than VOCs mixing ratio was used in the calculation of ozone production rate (Geddes et al., 2009; LaFranchi et al., 2011; Sinha et al, 2012; Zhang et al., 2014). Due to the limitation of current measurement techniques, some VOCs species which could not be quantified so far, and therefore cannot be integrated into current chemical mechanisms of model run, could laid a great uncertainty in ozone production prediction. By directly measuring the total OH reactivity, VOCs reactivity can be obtained by deducting the inorganic reactivity from the total OH reactivity, which provides a constrain for evaluating the roles of reactive VOCs in air chemistry (Sadanaga et al, 2005; Sinha et al, 2012; Yang et al., 2016).

This paper presents field data in China from two intensive observation conducted in August 2013 in Beijing, and October to November 2014 in Heshan, Guangdong, focusing on OH reactivity and related species. The variations of total OH reactivity at both sites were compared with similar observations in urban and suburban areas worldwide. Thereafter, a zero dimensional box model based on Regional Atmospheric Chemical Mechanism 2 (RACM2) was employed for OH reactivity simulations. The possible missing reactivity and its importance for the ozone production calculation are discussed.

2. Methods

2.1 Total OH reactivity measurements

2.1.1 Measurement principles

Total OH reactivity was measured by the comparative reactivity method (CRM) first developed at Max Planck Institute for Chemistry (Sinha et al., 2008). The CRM system was built accordingly in Peking University, which consisted of 3 major components: inlet and calibration system, reactor, and measuring system as shown in

Fig 1. Ambient air was sampled after a teflon filter and then pumped through a 14.9m Teflon 3/8 inch (outer diameter) inlet at about 7 L·min^{-1} rate, with a 5 - 6 s residence time.

In this method, pyrrole (C_4H_5N) was used as the reference substance and was quantified by a quadrupole PTR-MS (Ionicon Analytic, Austria). There are 4 working modes for measuring procedure: In the C0 mode, pyrrole (Air Liquid Ltd, U.S.) is introduced into the reactor with dry synthetic air (99.99%, Chengweixin Gas Ltd, China). A mercury lamp (185nm, used for OH radicals generation) is turned off and high-pure dry nitrogen (99.99%, Chengweixin Gas Ltd, China), is mixed into the reactor through a second arm. In this mode, the highest signals of m/z 68 (protonated mass of pyrrole) c0 are obtained. Then in the C1 mode, the nitrogen and synthetic air is still dry but the mercury lamp is turned on. The mixing ratio of pyrrole decreased to c1. The difference between c0 and c1 is mainly due to the photolysis of pyrrole (Sinha et al., 2008). C2 mode is the "zero air" mode in which synthetic air and nitrogen are humidified before being introduced into the reactor. The photolysis of water vapor generates OH radicals which react with pyrrole in the reactor to c2 level. Then C3 mode is the measuring mode in which the automatic valve switches from synthetic air to ambient air. The ambient air is pumped into the reactor to react with OH radicals, competing with pyrrole molecules. The mixing ratio of pyrrole is detected as c3. Total OH reactivity is calculated as below, based on equations from Sinha et al. (2008):

$$k_{OH} = c1 \times k_{Pyr+OH} \times \frac{c3-c2}{c1-c3} \quad (2\text{-}1)$$

Ambient air or synthetic air was introduced at 160 -170 ml min^{-1} with the total flow 320 – 350 ml min^{-1}(The typical dilution factor was about 2-2.15 depending on the situation). The residence time of air inside the reactor was less than 30 s before they were pumped by the Teflon pump. The typical c1 mixing ratio for pyrrole in Beijing and Heshan measurements were about 60 ppbV and 55 ppbV, while the mixing ratios of OH radicals generated by mercury lamp were about 35 ppbV and 28 ppbV. The mixing ratios were quite consistent for either of the campaigns, respectively. Corrections about pseudo-first order kinetics were conducted for both

measurements, based on the methods in Sinha et al (2008). The typical correction factors could be presented as

$$R_{true} = 0.0008 * (R_{mea})^2 + 0.78 * R_{mea} - 0.042 \quad (2\text{-}2)$$

$$R_{true} = -0.0004 * (R_{mea})^2 + 0.81 * R_{mea} - 0.017 \quad (2\text{-}3)$$

2.1.2 Calibrations and tests

We performed two calibrations for the measurements. First, PTR-MS was calibrated by diluted dry pyrrole standard gas ranging from less than 10 ppbV to over 160 ppbV (presented in Fig S1). Additionally, we conducted an inter-comparison with humidified pyrrole dilution gas. The sensitivity was about 3% to 5% higher than dry calibration, which was considered for later calculation (Sinha et al., 2009). The tests of the CRM system were done by using both the single standard gas, such as CO, propane, propene (Huayuan Gas Ltd, China) and a standard of the mixture of 56 non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHCs) (SpecialGas Ltd, U.S.). The results of the calibrations and tests were presented in Fig 2. Measured and calculated OH reactivity agreed well within the uncertainty for all calibrations.

A key factor influencing the measurement results is the stability of OH radical generator. One major interference could be the difference in relative humidity between C2 mode and C3 mode. During the experiment, we used one single needle valve to control the flow rate of synthetic air going through the bubbler, so that the relative humidity during C2 mode could be adjusted to match humidity during ambient sampling (C3 mode). Meanwhile, the remaining minor difference could be corrected by factors derived from the OH reactivity-humidity correction experiment. The details of the OH-correction experiment and the data were presented in the supporting information (Fig. S1 and S2).

The other interference might be caused by ambient NO, which produces additional OH radicals via recycling of HO_2 radicals (Sinha et al., 2008; Dolgorouky et al., 2012; Michoud et al., 2015). The amount of OH radical through this pathway is hard to be quantified. In the morning rush hours or on polluted cloudy days, NO levels could rise to over 30 ppbV in both Beijing and Heshan, which could then potentially introduce high uncertainties for measurements. The NO-correction

experiments were conducted by introducing given amounts of VOCs standard gases into the reactor. When the stable concentrations for c2 were reached, different levels of NO were injected into the reactor and the "measured" reactivity decreased as the NO mixing ratio increased. Then a correction curve was fitted between the differences in reactivity and NO mixing ratios. Several standard gases and different levels of base reactivity (from less than $30s^{-1}$ to over $180s^{-1}$) have been tried and the curve was quite consistent for all tested gases, as shown in Fig 3. The correction derived from the curve was used later to correct ambient measurements according to simultaneous detected NO levels. The correction was necessary when NO mixing ratio was larger than 5 ppbV, which was quite often observed in the morning time as well as cloudy days in Beijing and Heshan. The relative change for reactivity results could be over 100 s^{-1} when NO mixing ratio was about 30 ppbV.

A further potential interference comes from nitrous acid (HONO). The photolysis of HONO in the reactor could generate the same amount of OH radicals and NO molecules, as shown in R1. The additional OH radicals and NO molecules can be both interferences with the reactivity measurements. Similar correction experiments were conducted as the NO correction experiment. HONO were added stepwise in several mixing ratios (1-10 ppbV), generated by a HONO generator (Liu et al., 2016) and thus introduced into the reactor. A curve was fitted between the differences in reactivity and HONO mixing ratios, as presented in Fig 4. The correction associated with this curve was also applied later in the ambient measurements.

$$\mathrm{HONO} \xrightarrow{h\gamma} \mathrm{OH+NO} \qquad \text{(R1)}$$

To make sure the production of OH radicals was stable during the experiments, C1 mode was measured for 1-2 hour every other day and C2 mode was measured for 20-30 minutes every two hours. With above calibrations and tests into consideration, the detection limits of CRM methods in two campaigns was around 5 s^{-1} (2σ). The total uncertainty of the method was about 20% (1σ), due to rate coefficient of pyrrole reactions (15%), flow fluctuation (3%), instrument precision (6% when measured reactivity > 15 s^{-1}), standard gases (5%) and corrections for relative humidity (5%).

2.2 Field measurements

2.2.1 Measuring sites and periods

The urban measurements started from August 10th to August 27th, 2013 at Peking University (PKU) Site (116.18°E, 39.99°N), which was set on the roof of a 6-floor building. The site is about 300 m from the 6-lanes road to the east and 500 m to the 8 -lanes road to the south. This site is an urban site used for intensive field measurements of air quality in Beijing for long. Detailed information about this site can be found elsewhere (Yuan et al., 2012).

Suburban measurements were conducted from October 20th to November 22nd 2014 at Heshan (HS) site, Guangdong (112.93°E, 22.73°N). The site is located on top of a small hill (60 m above ground) in Jiangmen, which is 50km from a medium size city Foshan (with a population of about 7 million) and 80 km from a megacity Guangzhou. This is the super-site for measurements of air quality trends by Guangdong provincial government, detailed information about which can also be found in Fang et al (2016).

2.2.2 Simultaneous measurements

During both intensive campaigns, fundamental meteorological parameters and trace gases were measured simultaneously. Meteorological parameters, such as temperature, relative humidity, pressure, wind speed, wind direction were measured. NO and NO_x mixing ratios were measured by chemi-luminescence (model 42i, Thermo Fischer Inc, U.S.), and O_3 was measured by UV absorption (model 49i, Thermo Fischer Inc, U.S.). CO was measured by Gas Filter Correlation (model 48i, Thermo Fischer Inc, U.S.), and SO_2 was measured by pulsed fluorescence (model 43C, Thermo Fischer Inc, U.S.). The photolysis frequencies were measured by a spectral radiometer (SR) including 8 photolysis parameters. These parameters were all averaged into 1-minute resolution. The performances of these instruments were presented in Table S1 and Table S2.

VOCs were measured by a cryogen-free online GC-MSD/FID system, developed by Peking University (Yuan et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014a). The time resolution is 1

hour but the sampling time starts from the 5th minute to 10th minute every hour. The system was calibrated by two sets of standard gases: 56 NMHCs including 28 alkanes, 13 alkenes and alkynes, 15 aromatics; EPA TO-15 standards (http://www.epa.gov/ttnamti1/les/ambient/airtox/to-15r.pdf), including additional OVOCs and halocarbons. The detection limits ranged from 10ppt-50ppt, depending on the species. Formaldehyde was measured by the Hantzsch method with time resolution of 1 minute. Detailed information about this instrument is described in one previous paper (Li et al., 2014).

2.3 Model description

2.3.1 Box model

A zero-dimensional box model was applied to produce the unmeasured secondary products and OH reactivity for both field observations. The chemical mechanism employed in the model was RACM2 (Stockwell et al., 1997, Goliff et al., 2013), with implementation of Mainz Isoprene Mechanism (MIM, Pöschl et al., 2000) and update versions by Geiger et al. (2003) and Karl et al. (2006) for isoprene reactions. The model was constrained by measured photolysis frequencies, ancillary meteorology and inorganic gases measurements, as well as VOCs data. Mixing ratios of methane and H_2 were set to be 1.8 ppmV and 550 ppbV. The model was calculated in a time-dependent mode with 5-min time resolution. Each model run started with 3 days spin-up time to reach steady-state conditions for long-lived species. Different scenarios with 1 day, 2 days and 3 days spin-up time have been tried while the differences were within 10%. Additional loss by dry deposition was assumed to have a corresponding lifetime of 24 hours to avoid the accumulation of secondary productions. The boundary layer height was set as constant as 1000 m in the model due to the lack in measurements. This was similar to model setups in Lu et al (2013) and field measurement results in Guo et al (2016).

2.3.2 Ozone production efficiency

Ozone production efficiency (OPE) is defined as the number of molecules of total oxidants produced photochemically when a molecule of NO_x was oxidized (Kleinman, 2002, Chou et al., 2011). It helps to evaluate the impacts of VOCs

reactivity on ozone production in various NO_x regimes. In this work, the OPE was expressed as the ratio of ozone production rate (i.e. $P(O_3)$) to NO_x consumption rate (i.e. $D(NO_x)$). NO_z, calculated as the difference between NO_y (sum of all odd-nitrogen compounds) and NO_x, was assumed to be the oxidation products of NOx. Thus the OPE could be also calculated as $P(O_3)/P(NO_z)$. The ozone production rate is obtained as 2-2, and the $P(NO_z)$ is approximately as production rate of HNO_3 as well as the production rate of organic nitrate, which is given as 2-3.

$$P(O_3) = k_{HO_2+NO}\,[HO_2][NO] + \sum_i k_{RO_{2_i}+NO}\,[RO_{2_i}][NO] \qquad (2\text{-}2)$$

$$P(NO_z) = k_{NO_2+OH}\,[NO_2][OH] + \sum_i k_{RO_i+NO_2}\,[RO_i][NO_2] \qquad (2\text{-}3)$$

3. Results

3.1 Time series of meteorology and trace gases

The time series of selected meteorological parameters and inorganic trace gases were presented in 5 minute averages (Fig 5). The median values of the inorganic trace gases were 0.715 ± 0.335 ppmV for CO, 6.3 ± 5.75 ppbV for NO and 36.5 ± 21.3 ppbV for NO_2, 57 ± 44 ppbV for O_3 in Beijing. In Heshan, the median results were 0.635 ± 0.355 ppmV for CO, 9.7 ± 6.95 ppbV for NO, 29.6 ± 12.6 ppbV for NO_2, and 55.7 ± 34.9 ppbV for O_3. Both results were within the range of data from literatures (Zhang et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2014). However, daytime averaged O_3 mixing ratio in Beijing 2013 was a little lower than the medium results (about 60 ppbV) in normal years (Zhang et al., 2014). This could be due to higher frequencies of cloudy and rainy days, which accounted for about 1/3 of our measurement duration. The measured maximum photolysis rates in cloudy/rainy days were about half of peak values of J (O^1D) on sunny days. Even under this circumstances, ozone levels from the campaign remained high, the pollution episodes with ozone exceeding Grade II of China National Ambient Air Quality Standards (93 ppbV) occurred quite often, and the percentage of exceedance were 40% in Beijing and 20% in Heshan.

The mixing ratios of VOCs in both campaigns were presented in Table S3 and Table S4. In summer Beijing, alkanes accounted for over 60% of the summed VOCs

mixing ratios during most of the time, while in Heshan the contribution from aromatics was 6% higher than that in Beijing. This could be explained by stronger emissions from solvent use and paint industry in the PRD region (Zheng et al., 2009). The ratio of toluene to benzene, which is typically used qualitatively as an indicator for aromatics emission sources also supported this assumption. While this ratio in Beijing was close to 2, similar to vehicle emissions (Barletta et al., 2005), the ratio in Heshan was higher than 3 due to strict control of benzene in solvent usage these days (Barletta et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2008). In the ozone polluted episode in Fig 5, the mixing ratios of most species were about twice to three times higher than the daily average results.

The diurnal variations of NO_x, O_3 and photochemical age from Beijing and Heshan site were compared in Fig 6 and Fig 7. Both sites presented similar diurnal patterns for O_3 and NO. However, the highest 1-hour average O_3 value at PKU site came in the afternoon and stayed at high level till the dawn. While O_3 pattern at Heshan site did not stay high in the afternoon. An additional similarity was that the NO peaks occurred at similar times for both sites. But NO decreased at a slower rate in Heshan till even 12:00 p.m. This was likely explained by the facts that the NO observed at PKU site was mainly from local vehicle emissions while NO_x at Heshan site was significantly influenced by long-range transported of air masses.

VOCs measurements provided us chance to evaluate the oxidation state at two sites. Based on the OH exposure calculation methods (de Gouw et al., 2005), we chose a pair of VOCs species: m,p-xylene and ethylbenzene to calculate the photochemical age:

$$[\mathrm{OH}]\Delta t = [\ln(\frac{[E]}{[X]})_t - \ln(\frac{[E]}{[X]})_0]/(k_E - k_x) \quad (3\text{-}1)$$

Here, [E] and [X] represents the mixing ratios of ethylbenzene and m,p-xylene, k_E and k_X means the OH reaction rate coefficient of ethylbenzene and m,p-xylene. As presented in Fig 7, we chose 1.15 ppbV $ppbV^{-1}$ and 2.3 ppbV $ppbV^{-1}$ as emission ratios of ethylbenzene to m,p-xylene in Beijing and Heshan, as they were the largest ratios in diurnal variations for the campaign. The largest OH exposure in Beijing 2013

was calculated as 0.71×10^{11} molecule s cm^{-3} in 13:00 LTC, while the largest OH exposure in Heshan 2014 was calculated to be 1.69×10^{11} molecule s cm^{-3} in 14:00 LTC. The results in Beijing were comparable to previous reports (Yuan et al., 2012). Assuming the daytime average ambient OH concentration was 5.2×10^{6} molecule cm^{-3} (Lu et al., 2013), the photochemical age in Beijing was estimated to be not more than 3.5 h. With measured daytime average OH concentration as 7.5×10^{6} molecule cm^{-3} in Heshan (Tan et al., in preparation), the photochemical age in Heshan was about 6 h to 7 h, which was about twice the photochemical age of the Beijing observations, indicating a more aged atmospheric environment in Heshan. However, the assumed OH radical concentrations' influence on the photochemical age results should not be neglected.

3.2 Measured reactivity

Total OH reactivity ranged from less than 10 s^{-1} to over 100 s^{-1} in Beijing (Fig 5a). The daily median value was 20 ± 11 s^{-1}. The diurnal patterns changed significantly from day to day (Fig 8). The averaged diurnal pattern showed that the total OH reactivity was higher from dawn to morning rush hours with a peak hourly mean of 27 s^{-1}, and decreased to a lower value, median value of 17 s^{-1} in the afternoon. This diurnal pattern was similar to the variations of NO_x mixing ratios (Williams et al., 2016).

Meanwhile, measured total OH reactivity in Heshan was higher in median but the diel variation was less evident. The daily median value was 31 ± 20 s^{-1}. The OH reactivity was much less variable in the daily variation. This could possibly due to the more aged air masses in Heshan, as presented in 3.1. The other probable explanation could be the two periods of clean air we encountered, during which ground-level ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were rather low, each of the cases lasted for about 5 days during our measurements. And 2 pollution episodes were identified between October 24th to 27th and November 14th to 17th, 2014. Both episodes showed accumulation of ozone and $PM_{2.5}$. The total OH reactivity level also built up significantly (Fig 5b).

3.3 Variations in missing reactivity

Significant differences were found between the measured reactivity and calculated reactivity which derived from mixing ratios of different species multiplied by their rate coefficients with OH radicals, as presented in Fig 5a for Beijing and Fig 5b for Heshan. Taking all measured species into consideration, NO_x and NMHCs showed the largest contribution, 45%-55% of total OH reactivity (Fig 9). The OVOCs had also significant contribution, and measured OVOCs had a sharing of 10% in total reactivity in Beijing while 7% in Heshan.

The Missing reactivity was on average over 4 s^{-1}, 21 ± 17 % of the total OH reactivity in Beijing and 10 s^{-1}, 32 ± 21% in Heshan. The missing reactivity presented different temporal patterns. In Beijing, the missing reactivities were high during pollution episodes, especially in the morning rush hours. The percentage of missing reactivity could reach over 50%. For the Heshan site, the missing reactivity was more or less stable during the entire campaign. Even in clean days with reactivity levels lower than 20 s^{-1}, 20%-30% of missing reactivity still existed.

4. Discussion

4.1 Reactivity levels in Beijing and Heshan

The measured VOCs reactivity (obtained by subtracting inorganic reactivity from total OH reactivity), 11.2 s^{-1} in Beijing and 18.3 s^{-1} in Heshan (Fig 10), was actually not at high end comparing with the levels from literatures. Tokyo presented a similar level of VOCs reactivity (Yoshino et al., 2006). The measured NMHCs levels (obtained by adding all hydrocarbon mixing ratios together) were also not very high, with Beijing 2013 being around 20 ppbV and Heshan 2014 higher than 35 ppbV. The relative VOCs reactivity, defined by the ratio of the VOCs reactivity to the measured NMHCs levels, the values for both Beijing and Heshan were very high.

One possible explanation is the higher content of reactive hydrocarbons in China. Compared to other campaigns, both sites had higher loading of alkenes and aromatics (Yuan et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014b). The other probable reason is the contribution from OVOCs. In Beijing and Heshan, ambient formaldehyde could accumulate to over 10 ppbV, which was significantly higher than levels found in other observations

(Li et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014). Another possible explanation is unmeasured species, either primary hydrocarbons or secondary products, which will be discussed in later sessions.

4.2 Contributions to the missing reactivity: primary VOCs

As missing reactivity was observed at Beijing and Heshan site, the species possibly causing these missing were examined. Throughout the whole campaign at the PKU site, missing reactivity was normally found in the morning, as for an example in August 16th and 17th 2013 in (Fig 11). Between 5 a.m. to 10 a.m., local vehicle-related sources were strong, and the chemical reactions were not active yet, and the oxidants levels thus the secondary VOC species remained low. We assumed that the unmeasured primary VOCs species could most likely be the major contributors to missing reactivity. Special attention was paid to the unmeasured branched-alkenes for their high reactivity and was previously observed from vehicle exhaust (Nakashima et al., 2010) and gasoline evaporation emissions (Wu et al., 2015). We found only one dataset of branched alkenes measurements in Beijing, 2005 measured by NOAA (Liu et al., 2009). We chose the diurnal patterns of missing reactivity in Beijing in 2013 and compared to the diel cycles of four measured branched-alkenes in 2005. The correlations were found as presented in Fig 11. Considering the contribution of the 4 branched alkenes, the VOCs reactivity could be enhanced by 2.3 s^{-1}. This could only partially explain the missing VOCs reactivity which was around 10 s^{-1}. With observed decreasing trends in mixing ratios of most NMHCs species in Beijing (Zhang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015), the branched-alkenes were insufficient to tell the full story of the missing reactivity. Unmeasured semi-volatile organic compounds (SVOCs) and intermediate volatile organic compounds (IVOCs), such as alkanes between C12 to C30, and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) could be also important. Sheehy (2010) found SVOCs and IVOCs contributed to about 10% in morning time in Mexico City. Future studies with a wider range of reactive VOCs measurement for total OH reactivity closure is needed.

4.3 Contributions to the missing reactivity: secondary VOCs

Due to limitations in chemistry mechanisms as well as measuring techniques,

secondary products are not fully quantified in ambient air and could probably contribute significantly to the observed missing reactivity, especially in the urban or suburban sites receiving chemically complex aged air masses.

Besides the large missing reactivity during the morning rush hour, there was about 25% difference between measured and calculated reactivity from August 16th to 18th, 2013 at PKU site. Considering high levels of oxidants in daytime, the mixing ratios of branched-alkenes could be lower than 0.1 ppbV, which could not explain the observed missing reactivity. A box model was deployed to investigate the role of secondary species in variation of VOCs reactivity. The model, constrained by measured parameters (meteorology, inorganic gases, VOCs including measured carbonyls), gave the results of VOCs reactivity which agreed well with the measured reactivity in most of the daytime (Fig 11). Major contributors from modeled species were unmeasured aldehydes, glyoxal and methyl glyoxal. Average values of major secondary contributors to modelled reactivity were provided in Table S5. However, the missing in morning hours remain unsolved: In the model run, the higher secondary contribution on August 17th 2013 morning was owing to isoprene oxidation products, by using 1.5 ppbv of isoprene levels as model input, the missing reactivity kept over 40% around 7:00 and 8:00 a. m.

The similar model was applied for the Heshan observation (Fig 12). During the polluted episode between October 24th and 27th 2014, a 30% missing reactivity existed for most time. Unfortunately, the modeled reactivity was only 10-20% higher than calculated reactivity, and not enough to explain the measured reactivity. The major contributors among modeled species were also unmeasured aldehydes, glyoxal, methyl glyoxal and other secondary products, as shown in Table S6. Due to strong emissions of aromatics from solvent use and petroleum industry in PRD region (Zheng et al., 2009), high levels of glyoxal and methyl glyoxal in this region were observed from satellite measurement (Liu et al., 2012) and ground measurements (Li et al., 2013). Compared to the 2006 measurements in Back garden, a semi-rural site in PRD region, the modeled glyoxal was twice as high as around 0.8 ppbV (Li et al., 2013). This difference possibly resulted from higher levels of precursors in 2014

measurements, where the measured reactivity was about 50% higher than the results in Backgarden 2006 (Lou et al., 2010).

4.4 Implications for ozone production efficiency

The investigating of missing in VOCs reactivity is expected to better understand the ozone formation processes. To evaluate this contribution, we employed the box model to calculate the influence of VOCs reactivity on OPE. We set two scenarios for the model run: 1) The base run was constrained with measured species, including all inorganic compounds, PAMS 56 hydrocarbons, TO-15 OVOCs and formaldehyde. This is how we obtained the modelled reactivity as presented above, and the intermediates and oxidation products were reproduced as well. 2) The other scenario used measured reactivity as a constraint. Due to the difference between measured and modeled reactivity, we allocated the missing reactivity into several groups. For the primary species, we assumed the ratio between total chain-alkenes and branched-alkenes were the same in Beijing 2013 and in Heshan 2014 as the ratio in Beijing 2005, so we got the assumed mixing ratios of branched-alkenes at both sites. For secondary species, we allocated the remaining missing reactivity into different intermediates or products based on weights obtained in the model base run. Under both assumptions, we ran the OBM and calculated the OPE, as presented in Fig 13.

For both sites, the OPE constrained by measured reactivity were significantly higher than the OPE we calculated from modeled reactivity. In Beijing, the OPE from measured reactivity was about 21% higher on average. The value was 30% higher at Heshan site under similar assumptions. This percentage was close to the percentage of missing reactivity, indicating the ignorance of unmeasured or unknown organic species can cause significant underestimation in ozone production calculation. When the four branched-alkenes were included in the OPE calculation, the OPE results would be 4% higher than the OPE constrained by calculated reactivity, but still far from the OPE constrained by measured reactivity.

Compared to other similar calculations worldwide, the OPE results for Beijing and Heshan were significantly higher (Fig 14). The comparison was made for NO_x = 20 ppbV which was in the range of most observation results. For urban measurements,

only the results from Mexico City in MCMA-03 were close to the Beijing results in basic model run (Lei et al., 2008). For suburban measurements, the OPE in Heshan 2014 was higher than all other three campaigns, even including the results from Shangdianzi station in CAREBEIJING-2008 campaigns (Ge et al., 2012). While taking missing reactivity into consideration, the OPE results were even higher, indicating more ozone was produced by the reactions of the same quantity of NO_x molecules.

5. Conclusions

In this study, total OH reactivity measurements employing CRM system were conducted at PKU site in Beijing 2013, and Heshan site 2014 in PRD region. Comparisons between measured and calculated, as well as modelled reactivity were made and possible reasons for the missing reactivity have been investigated. The contribution of missing reactivity to ozone production efficiency was evaluated.

In Beijing 2013, daily median result for measured total OH reactivity was 20 ± 11 s^{-1}. Similar diurnal variation with other urban measurements was found with peaks over 25 s^{-1} during the morning rush hour and lower reactivity than 16 s^{-1} in the afternoon. In Heshan 2014, total OH reactivity was 31 ± 20 s^{-1} on daily median result. The diurnal variation was not significant. Both sites have experienced OH reactivity over 80 s^{-1} during polluted episodes.

Missing reactivity was found at both sites. While in Beijing the missing reactivity made up 21% of measured reactivity, some periods even reached a higher missing percentage as 40%-50%. In Heshan, missing reactivity's contribution to total OH reactivity was 32% on average and quite stable for the whole day. Unmeasured primary species, such as branched-alkenes could be important contributor to the missing reactivity in Beijing, especially in morning rush hour, but they were not enough to explain Aug 17th morning's event. With the help of RACM2, unmeasured secondary products were calculated and thus the modelled reactivity could agree with measured reactivity in Beijing in the noontime. However, they were still not enough to explain the missing reactivity in Heshan, even in daytime. This was probably

because of the relatively higher oxidation stage in Heshan than in Beijing.

Missing reactivity could impact the estimation of atmospheric ozone production efficiency. Compared to modeled reactivity from base run, ozone production efficiency would rise 21% and 30% in Beijing and Heshan with measured reactivity applied. Both results were significantly higher than similar observations worldwide, indicating the relatively faster ozone production at both sites.

However, in order to further explore the OH reactivity in both regions, more efforts should be paid in both OH reactivity measurements and speciated measurements, as well as modeling to close the total OH reactivity budget. Moreover, a thorough way with more detailed mechanisms should be established to connect the missing reactivity to the evaluation of ozone production.

Acknowledgement

This study was funded by the National Key Research and Development Plan (grant no. 2016YFC020200), Natural Science Foundation for Outstanding Young Scholars (grant no. 41125018) and a Natural Science Foundation key project (grant no.411330635). The research was also supported by the European Commission Partnership with China on Space Data (PANDA project). Special thanks to Jing Zheng, Mei Li, Yuhan Liu from Peking University and Tao Zhang from Guangdong Environmental Monitoring Center for the help, thanks for William. C. Kuster from NOAA . Earth System Research Laboratory for the branched-alkenes data in 2005.

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913 Table 1 Total OH reactivity measurements in urban areas

Campaign	Site	Year	method	$k_{OH(measured)}$ (s^{-1}) [a]	$k_{OH\ (calculated)}$ (s^{-1} if it is a value) [b]	Measured species [c]	Reference
SOS	Nashville, US	summer, 1999	LIF-flow tube	11.3	7.2	SFO	Kovacs et al., 2001; 2003;
PMTACS-NY 2001	NY, US	summer, 2001	LIF-flow tube	15~25	within 10%	SFO	Ren et al., 2003
PMTACS-NY 2004	NY, US	winter, 2004	LIF-flow tube	18-35	statistically lower	SF	Ren et al., 2006a
MCMA-2003	Mexico City, Mexico	spring, 2003	LIF-flow tube	10~120	30% less than	-[d]	Shirley et al., 2006
TexAQS	Houston, US	summer, 2000	LIF-flow tube	7~12	agree well	SFO	Mao et al., 2010
TRAMP2006	Houston, US	summer, 2006	LIF-flow tube	9-22	agree well	SFOB	Mao et al., 2010
	Tokyo, Japan	2003-2004	LP-LIF	10~100	30% less than	SFOB	Sadanaga et al., 2004; Yoshino et al., 2006
	Tokyo, Japan	summer, 2006	LP-LIF	10~55	30% less than	SFOB	Chatani et al., 2009
	Tokyo, Japan	spring, 2009	LP-LIF	10~35	22% less than	SFOB	Kato et al., 2011
	Tokyo, Japan	winter, 2007, autumn, 2009	LP-LIF	10~80	10~15 less than	SFOB	Yoshino et al., 2012

Table 1 Total OH reactivity measurements in urban areas (continued)

	Mainz, German	summer, 2005	CRM	10.4		-	Sinha et al.,2008
MEGAPOLI	Paris, France	winter, 2010	CRM	10~130	10~54% less than	SO	Dolgorouky et al., 2012
ClearfLo	London, England	summer, 2012	LP-LIF	10-116	20~40%	SFOB	Whalley et al., 2016
	Lille, France	autumn , 2012	CRM, LP-LIF	~70	Reasonable agreement	SFO	Hansen et al., 2015
	Dunkirk, France	summer, 2014	CRM	10-130		-	Michoud et al., 2015

a. For sources from different studies, the measured reactivity was presented as the averaged results, or ranges of diurnal variations, or the ranges of the whole campaign.

b. For sources of different studies, the calculated reactivity was presented within an uncertainty range, as a percentage reduction or s^{-1} reduction.

c. Measured species that have been used for the calculated reactivity (following Lou et al., 2010): S = inorganic compounds (CO, NO_x, SO_2 etc) plus hydrocarbons (including isoprene); F = formaldehyde; O = OVOCs other than formaldehyde; B = BVOCs other than isoprene;

d. "-" means a lack of information regarding what has been measured or how long it has been measured.

Table2 Total OH reactivity measurements in suburban and surrounding areas

Campaign	Site	Year	method	$k_{OH(measured)}$ (s^{-1})	$k_{OH\ (calculated)}$ (s^{-1} if it is a value)	Measured Species	Reference
	Central Pennsylvania, US	spring, 2002	LIF-flow tube	6.1		-	Ren et al., 2005
PMTACS-NY2002	Whiteface Mountain, US	summer, 2002	LIF-flow tube	5.6	within 10%	-	Ren et al., 2006b
TORCH-2	Weybourne, England	spring, 2004	LIF-flow tube	4.85	2.95	SFO	Ingham et al., 2009 Lee et al., 2010
CareBeijing-2006	Yufa, China	summer, 2006	LP-LIF	10-30	agree well	S	Lu et al., 2010; 2013
PRIDE-PRD	Backgarden, China	summer, 2006	LP-LIF	10~120	50% less than	S	Lou et al., 2010
DOMINO	El Arenosillo, Spain	winter, 2008	CRM	6.3~85		SF	Sinha et al., 2012
		spring, 2013	CRM	53	23	SFOB	Kumar & Sinha., 2014

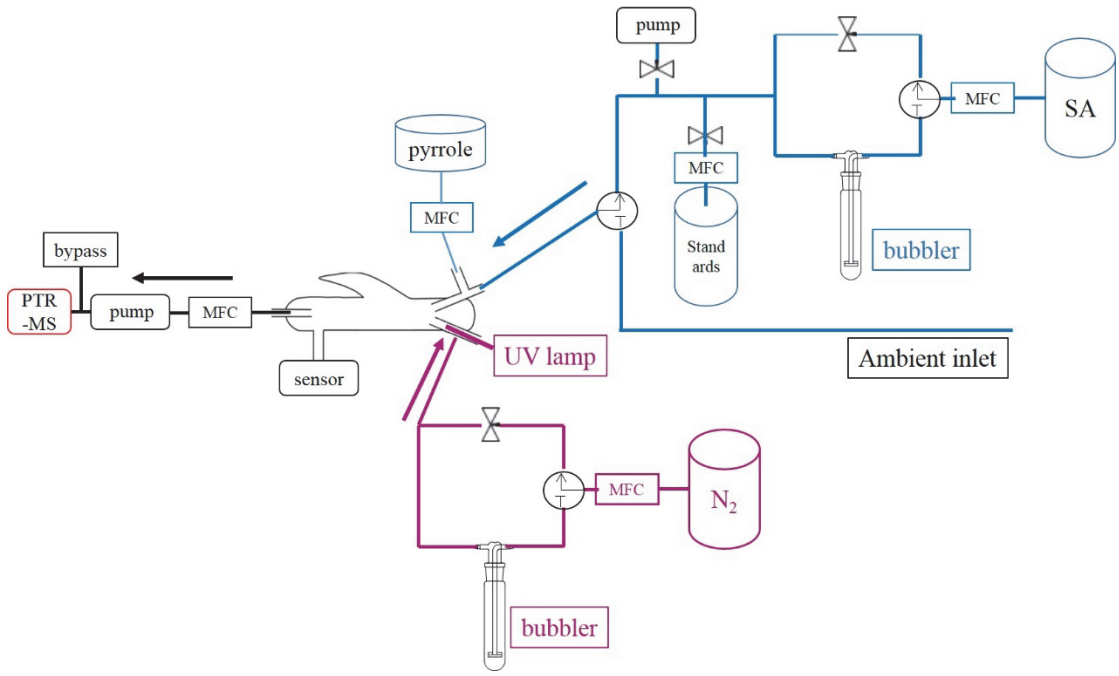


Fig 1 Schematic figures of CRM system in Beijing and Heshan observations. Blue color represents ambient air or synthetic air injection system, purple color represents OH generating system, black color represents the detection system. Pressure is measured by the sensor connected to the glass reaction.

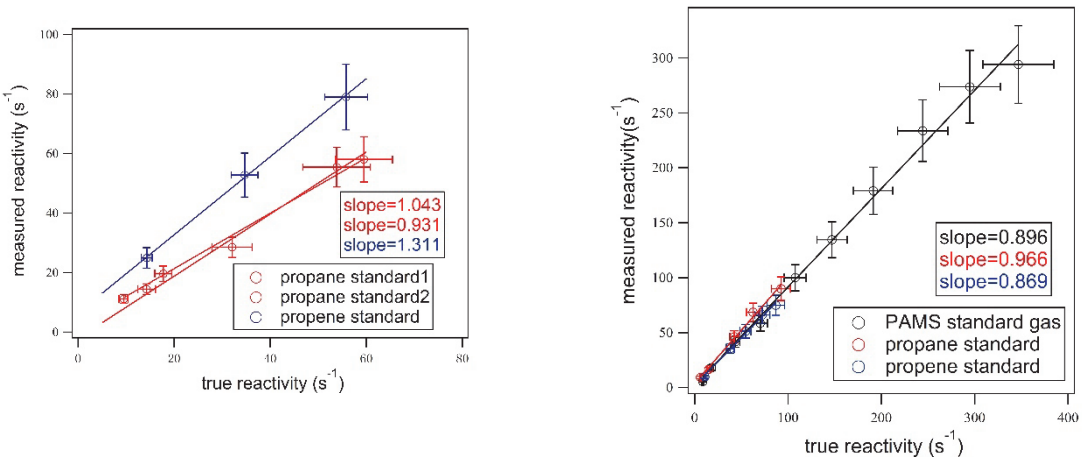


Fig 2 OH reactivity calibration in Beijing (left) and Heshan (right).

Left: Calibration in Beijing used two single standards: propane, propene;

Right: Calibration in Heshan used three standards: propane, propene, mixed PAMS 56 NMHCs.

Error bars stand for estimated uncertainty on the measured and true reactivity.

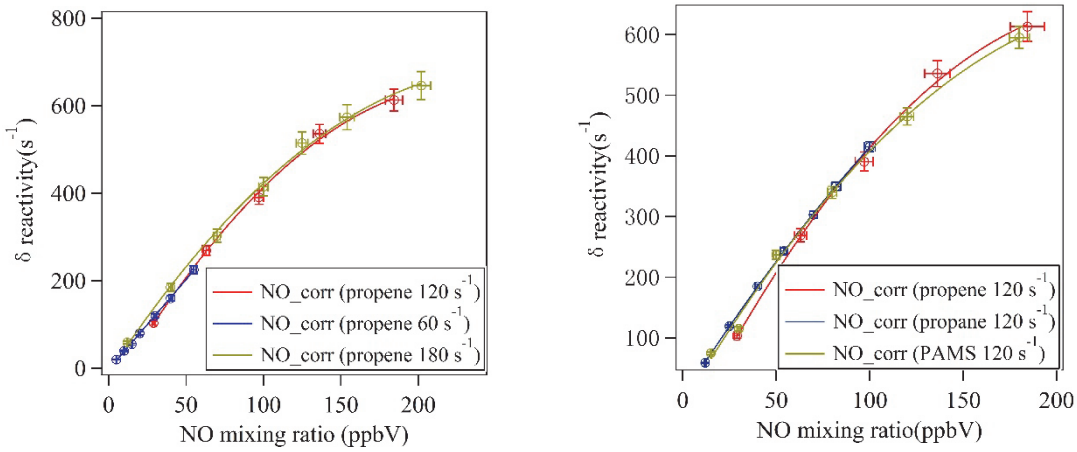


Fig 3 NO-correction experiments and fitting curves in Heshan 2014.

Left: NO-correction experiments with different mixing ratios of propene standard gas;

Right: NO-correction experiments with different standard gases at the same reactivity level: 120 s^{-1}.

Error bars stand for estimated uncertainty on the NO mixing ratios and difference in reactivity.

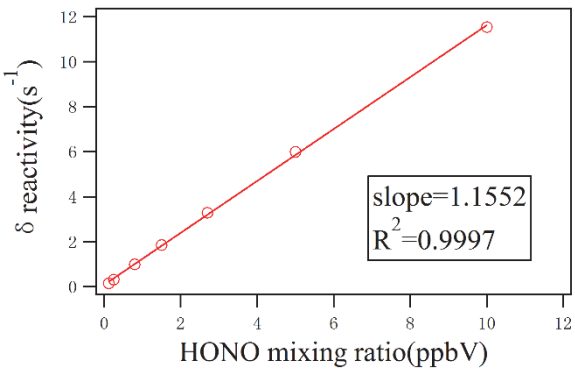


Fig 4 HONO-correction experiments and the fitting curve in Heshan 2014.

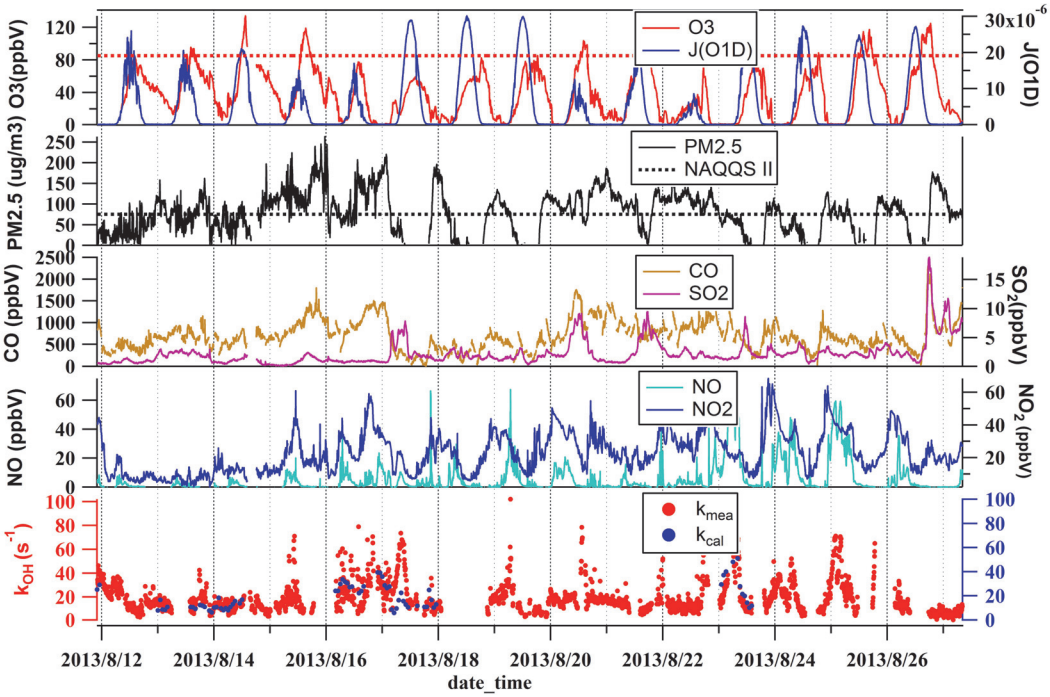


Fig 5-a Time series of meteorological parameters and inorganic trace gases during August 2013 in Beijing.

Red and black dashed lines are Grade II of National Ambient Air Quality Standard.

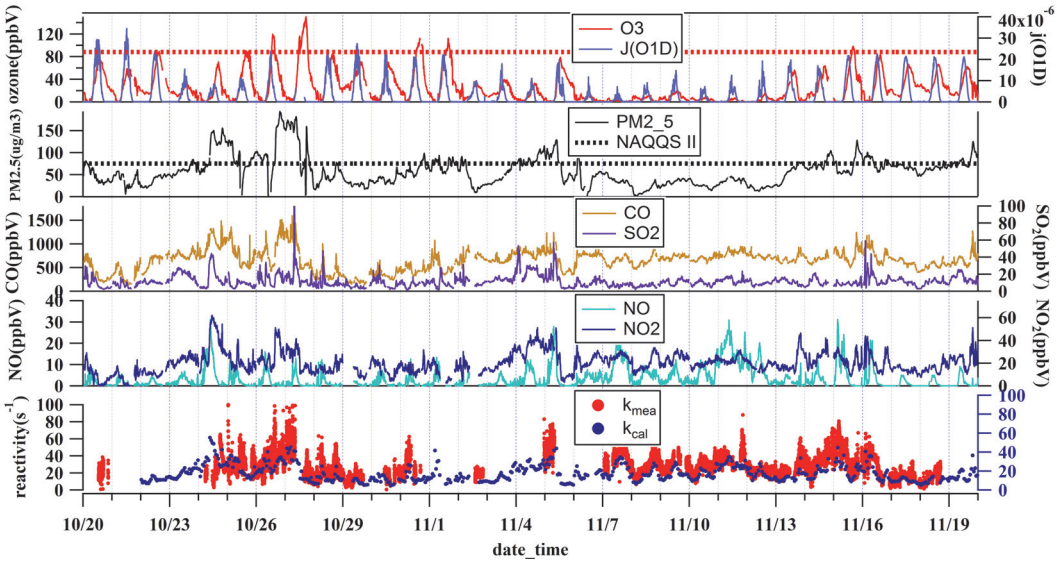


Fig 5-b Time series of meteorological parameters and inorganic trace gases during October-November, 2014 in Heshan.

Red and black dashed lines are Grade II of National Ambient Air Quality Standard.

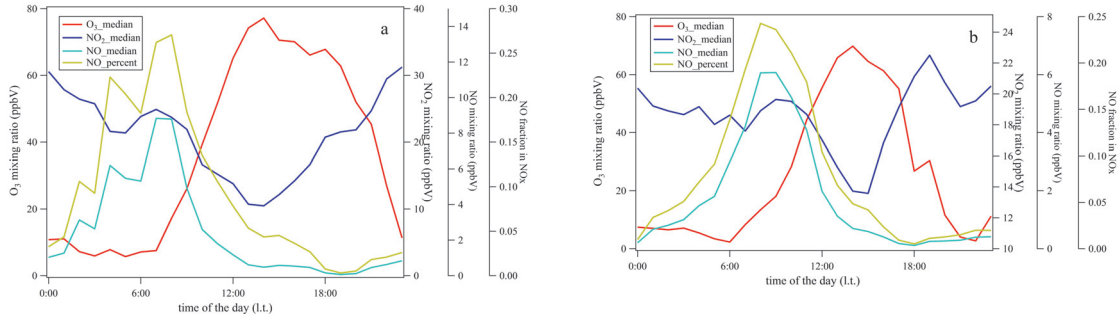


Fig 6 Diurnal variations of O_3, NO, NO_2 and relative contribution of NO to NO_x in Beijing 2013 (a) and Heshan 2014 (b)

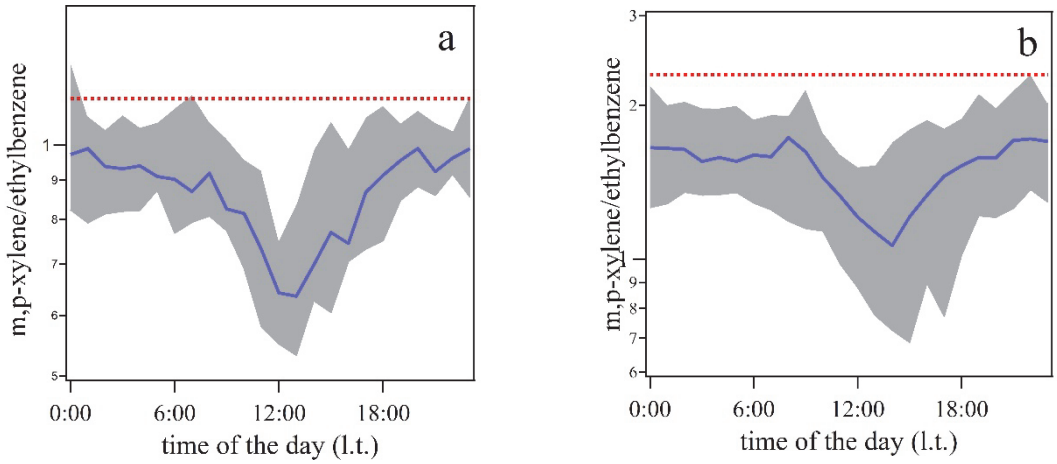


Fig 7 Ratios of m,p-xylene to ethylbenzene in Beijing 2013 (a) and Heshan 2014 (b)
Red dots line: the highest m,p-xylene to ethylbenzene ratio, assumed as emission ratios of m,p-xylene to ethylbenzene, 1.15 ppbV $ppbV^{-1}$ in Beijing 2013 (a) and 2.3 ppbV $ppbV^{-1}$ in Heshan 2014 (b).
Shaded regions: Standard deviation for the ratios during the campaign average.

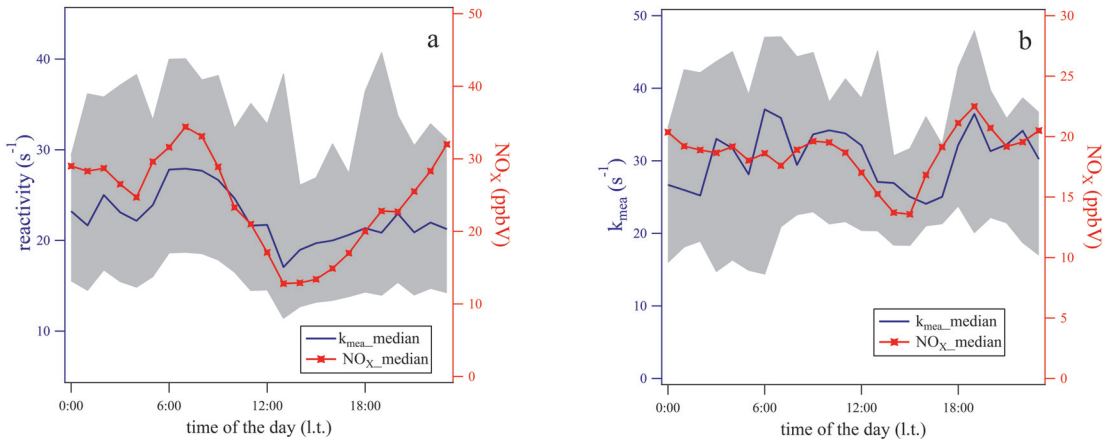


Fig 8 Diurnal variation of hourly median results of measured OH reactivity and NO_x mixing ratios in Beijing (a) and Heshan (b)

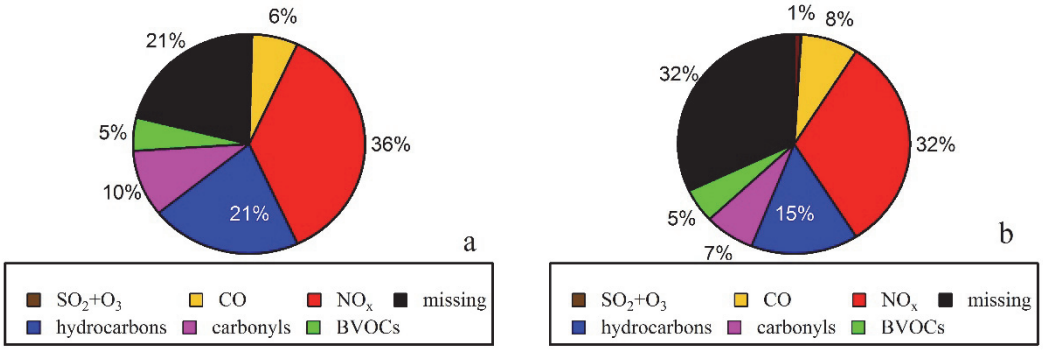


Fig 9 Composition of measured reactivity in Beijing (a) and Heshan (b)

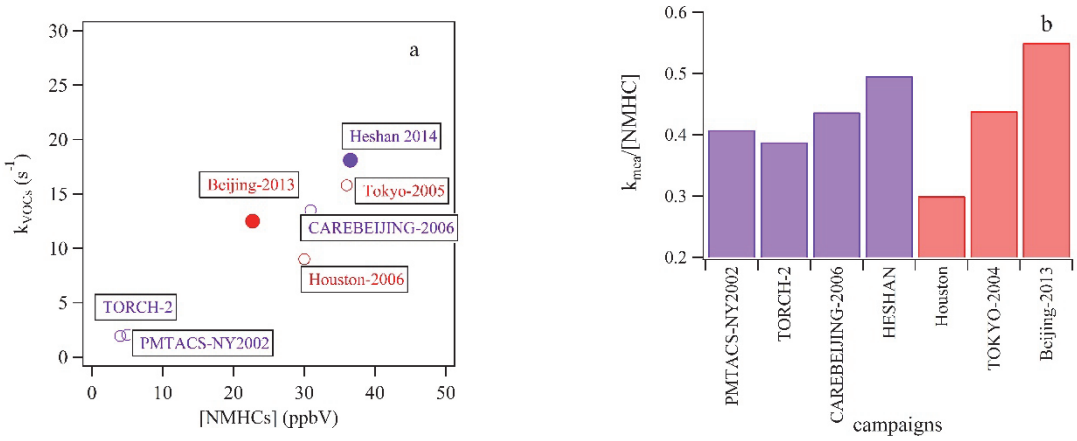


Fig 10 a: Comparison of VOCs reactivity and measured NMHCs in urban and suburban observations.

b: Comparison of the ratio between VOCs reactivity and measured NMHCs in urban and suburban observations

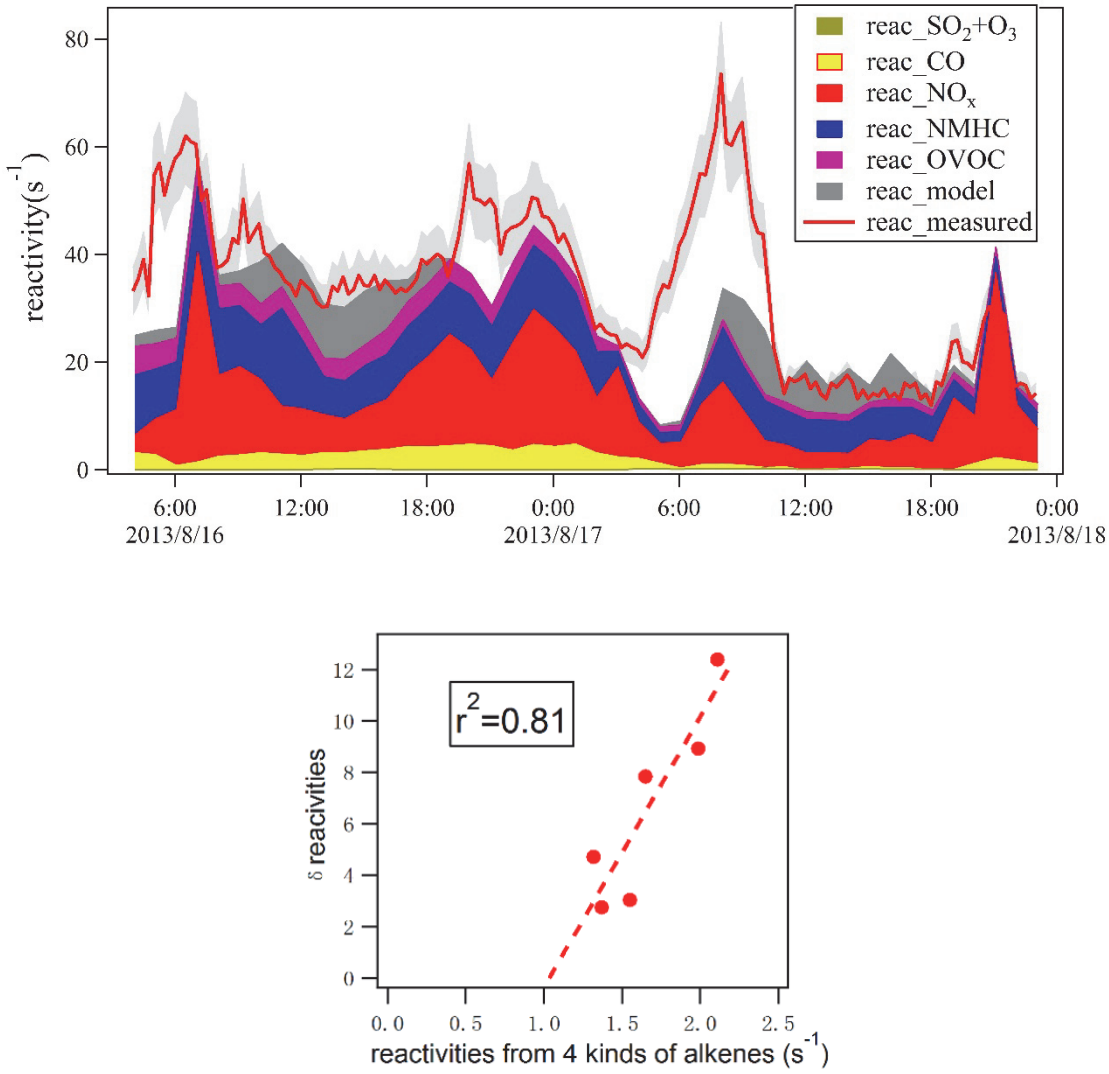


Fig 11 Upper panel: Comparison between measured and calculated reactivity in Beijing August 16th to 18th 2013.

Shallow shaded region: uncertainty of measured reactivity. The same shallow shaded region in Fig 12 represents the same.

Lower panel: Correlation between missing reactivity measured in 2013 and reactivity assumed from branched-chain alkenes from 2005 in diurnal patterns. The 4 branched-alkenes are iso-butene, 2-methyl-1-butene, 3-methyl-1-butene and 2-methyl-2-butene.

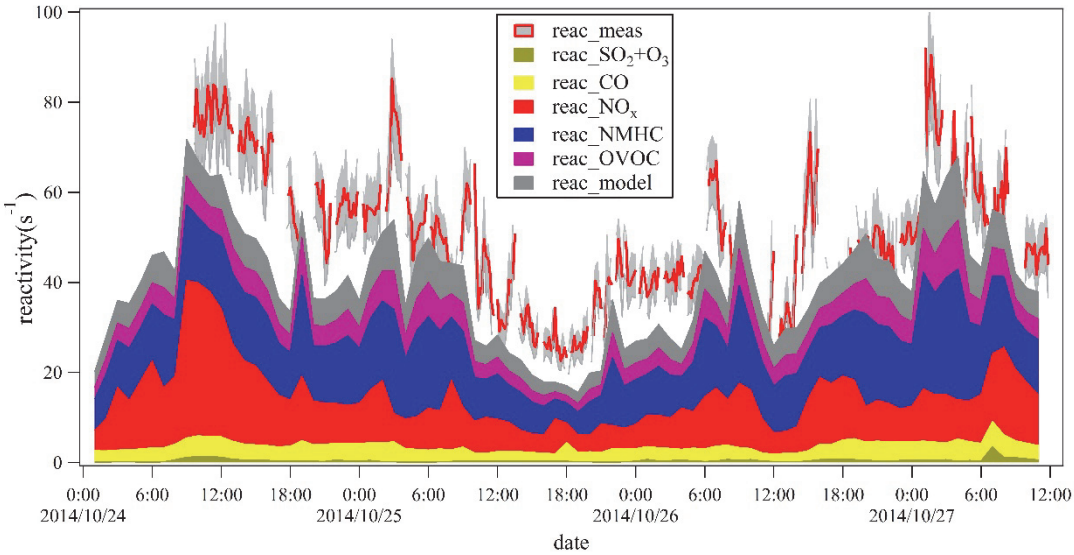
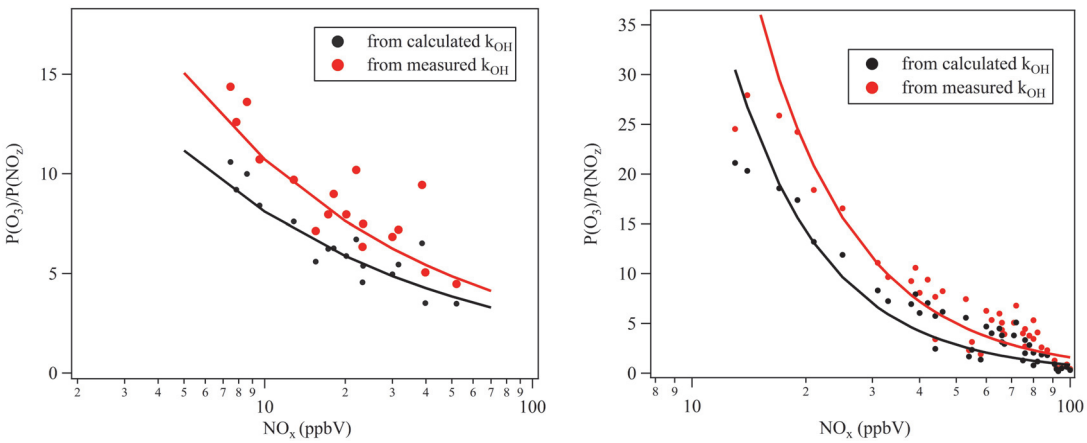


Fig 12 Comparison between measured reactivity and calculated reactivity as well as modelled reactivity in Heshan between October 24th and 27th 2014.



a b

Fig 13 Comparison between OPE calculated from measured reactivity and calculated reactivity in Beijing (a) and Heshan (b).

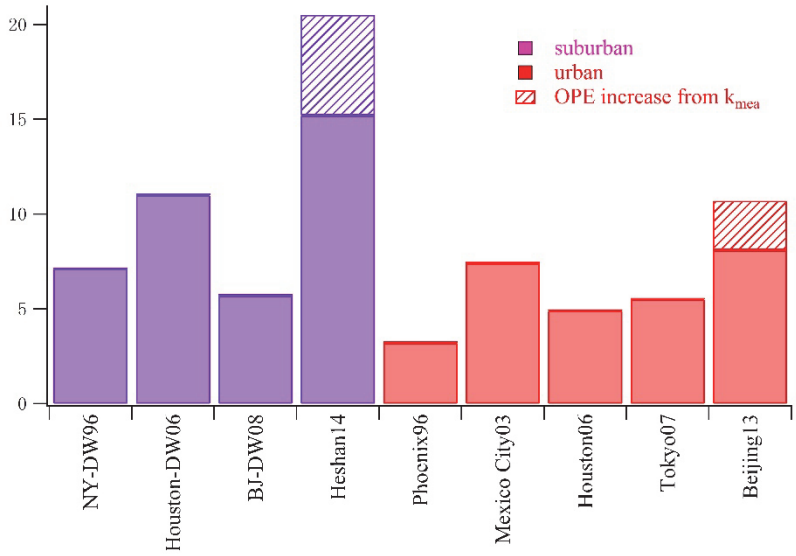


Fig 14 Comparison between the OPE results in this study and other results from literatures. The comparison is made with the NO_x = 20 ppbV. "DW" is in abbreviation of downwind.