



# Day- and Night-time Formation of Organic Nitrates at a Forested Mountain-site in South West Germany

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**Abstract.** We report in-situ measurement of total peroxy-nitrates ( $\Sigma$ PNs) and total alkyl nitrates ( $\Sigma$ ANs) in a forested / urban location at the top of the Kleiner Feldberg mountain in South-West Germany. The data, obtained using Thermal Dissociation Cavity Ring Down Spectroscopy (TD-CRDS) in August-September 2011 (PARADE campaign) and July-August 2015 (NOTOMO campaign), represent the first detailed study of  $\Sigma$ PNs and  $\Sigma$ ANs over continental Europe. We find that a significant fraction of  $\text{NO}_x$  (up to 75 %) is sequestered as organics nitrates at this site. Further, we also show that the night-time production of alkyl nitrates by reaction of  $\text{NO}_3$  with biogenic hydrocarbons is comparable to that from day-time, OH-initiated oxidation pathways. The  $\Sigma$ ANs-to-ozone ratio obtained during PARADE was used to derive an approximate, average yield of organic nitrates at noon time from the OH initiated oxidation of VOCs of 7 % at this site in 2011, which is comparable with that obtained from an analysis of VOCs at the site. A much lower yield, < 2 %, was observed in 2015, which may reflect a reduction in the fraction of biogenic hydrocarbons contributing to OH reactivity in that year.

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## 1 Introduction

The gas- and aerosol-phase chemistry of the continental, tropospheric boundary layer is strongly influenced by reactive nitrogen oxides. The primary pollutants NO and  $\text{NO}_2$  (constituting the  $\text{NO}_x$  family) are mostly emitted by anthropogenic activity involving high temperature combustion or from microbial activity in soils and have a strong impact on tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$  levels. Knowing the fate of  $\text{NO}_x$  is paramount to prediction of  $\text{O}_3$  production rates and oxidation capacity on regional and global scales (Lelieveld et al., 2016). Following emission, NO undergoes a series of reaction steps that ultimately lead either to the formation of short lived trace gases that can act as sinks for  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ) or to the formation of longer lived, reservoir species that can be transported over long distances and act as a source of  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $\text{RONO}_2$  and  $\text{RC(O)OONO}_2$ ) in locations that are remote from anthropogenic emissions. In the troposphere, a significant amount of  $\text{NO}_x$  can be temporarily sequestered as  $\text{HNO}_3$  and organic nitrates. The former is produced predominantly by the oxidation of  $\text{NO}_2$  by OH whereas organic nitrates are produced by the oxidation of both NO and  $\text{NO}_2$  by organic peroxy radicals during the day (R3 and R4) or in the oxidation

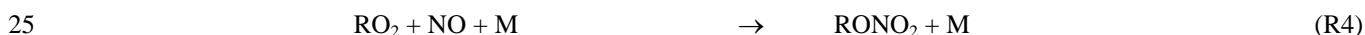
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of alkenes by  $\text{NO}_3$  during the night (R6) (see below). Organic peroxy radicals are formed in the oxidation of hydrocarbons by OH (R1 and R2) (Atkinson, 2000; Atkinson and Arey, 2003a, b).

The products of  $\text{NO}_x$  oxidation by organic radicals are peroxy nitrates ( $\text{RO}_2\text{NO}_2$ , abbreviated as PNs, R3) and alkyl nitrates ( $\text{RONO}_2$  abbreviated called ANs, R4). Based on thermal lifetimes, PNs may be divided in two families, those with a carbonyl group adjacent to the peroxy entity (i.e.  $\text{RC(O)O}_2\text{NO}_2$ ) and those without. The former are peroxyacyl nitric anhydrides, generally referred to as peroxyacyl nitrates or PANs, and have lifetimes with respect to thermal dissociation on the order of hours in the midlatitude boundary layer. Non-acyl PNs ( $\text{RO}_2\text{NO}_2$ ) such as  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{HO}_2\text{NO}_2$  thermally decompose on timescales of seconds to minutes at temperatures close to 298 K and are thus only encountered in significant concentrations in cold regions of the atmosphere (Murphy et al., 2004; Browne et al., 2011; Nault et al., 2015). Alkyl nitrates are formed with variable branching ratio in a minor channel (R4) of the reaction between organic peroxy radicals and NO, the greater fraction of this reaction leading to formation of an alkoxy radical and  $\text{NO}_2$  (R5) and thus (via  $\text{NO}_2$  photolysis) ultimately to  $\text{O}_3$ . Alkyl nitrates are also formed at night during the  $\text{NO}_3$  induced oxidation of unsaturated hydrocarbons, the first reaction step being addition of  $\text{NO}_3$  to a double bond followed by formation of a nitrooxy alkylperoxy radical (R6), the fate of which includes reaction with  $\text{HO}_2$ , other peroxy radicals,  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$  or, if available, NO so that the final products are, hydroxy-, hydroxide- and carbonyl- substituted nitrates as well as dinitrates (Schwantes et al., 2015; IUPAC, 2016). The nitrate yields (per VOC reacted) can be high, especially for biogenic VOCs including the terpenoids, and can exceed 50 % (Ng et al., 2016).

Organic nitrates have highly variable lifetimes (from seconds to days) that are mainly controlled by rates of thermal decomposition and thus temperature for PNs. For ANs, OH oxidation, photolysis and deposition or scavenging by aerosol particles all play a role (Roberts, 1990; Browne et al., 2013; Rollins et al., 2013).



The first field measurements of organic nitrates were made using low time resolution methods (gas chromatography) (Roberts et al., 1989; Blanchard et al., 1993) and focused mostly on PAN (peroxy acetyl nitrate), PPN (peroxy propyl nitrate) and MPAN (methacryloyl peroxy nitrate) (Williams et al., 1997; Williams et al., 2000) which are the most common peroxy nitrates in the continental boundary layer, and individual mono- and polyfunctional alkyl nitrates from alkane or alkene



precursors (Atlas, 1988; Flocke et al., 1991). More recently, mass spectrometry based methods have been developed to measure a wider range of organic nitrates at high time resolution (Beaver et al., 2012). Early attempts to compare speciated  $\text{NO}_y$  and total  $\text{NO}_y$  measurements (Fahey et al., 1986; Buhr et al., 1990; Ridley et al., 1990) revealed a substantial missing fraction of reactive nitrogen which was addressed by the first measurements of  $\Sigma\text{PNs}$  and  $\Sigma\text{ANs}$  by thermal dissociation coupled with laser induced fluorescence detection of  $\text{NO}_2$  (Day et al., 2003). Those and subsequent measurements (Wooldridge et al., 2010; Perring et al., 2013) indicated that, depending on environment, the interaction between  $\text{NO}_x$  and VOCs leads to a wide variety of compounds with different level of structural functionality and atmospheric lifetime which can have a variable and significant influence on the lifetime of  $\text{NO}_x$  and also aerosol particles composition (Browne et al., 2013; Ayres et al., 2015).

We present here an analysis of organic nitrates and  $\text{NO}_2$  measured using TD-CRDS during two field campaigns that took place at a forested, semi-rural mountain site in South-Western Germany. As far as we are aware, this work constitutes the first measurement and analysis of  $\Sigma\text{PNs}$  and  $\Sigma\text{ANs}$  over continental Europe. We show that the daily variations of  $\Sigma\text{ANs}$  and  $\Sigma\text{PNs}$  are both controlled by photo-chemical oxidation of VOCs, night-time production by  $\text{NO}_3$  induced oxidation of biogenic VOCs and local meteorology. We also report an estimation of the effective branching ratios of AN formation in R4 and R5 using  $\text{O}_3$  measurements and compare this with an estimation based on VOCs at the site and known, individual branching ratios.

## 2 Campaign site and meteorology

The PARADE (PArticles and RADicals: Diel observations of the impact of urban and biogenic Emissions) and NOTOMO (NOcturnal chemistry at the Taunus Observatory: insights into Mechanisms of Oxidation) campaigns took place during August-September 2011 and July-August 2015 at the Taunus Observatory (50.22 N, 8.45 E) on top of the “Kleiner Feldberg” mountain, 850 m above sea-level and 500 m above nearby urban centres in the states of Hessen and Rheinland-Pfalz in South-Western Germany. This site has been described extensively in different publications (Crowley et al., 2010; Sobanski et al., 2016b) and only a short description is given here. A few km to the NNE and SE of the station are two mountains of similar height (“Großer Feldberg” 878 m and “Altkoenig” 798 m ASL). The nearby (10s of km) environment in the complete northern sector is a partially forested, rural region. The SW-SE sector is a more densely populated, industrialized region which includes the Frankfurt-Mainz-Wiesbaden urban agglomeration. Frankfurt is situated  $\approx 20$  km to the SE and Mainz and Wiesbaden  $\approx 20 - 30$  km to the SW. A detailed land-use analysis of the surrounding area was given by Sobanski et al. (2016b).

Reactive trace-gas measurements at the site are strongly influenced by the horizontal advection of different types of air masses, both on a local scale (forest/rural vs. urban) and on regional scales (continental vs. marine). On some nights during PARADE, the instruments sampled air from a low lying residual layer which resulted in very high  $\text{NO}_3$  steady state lifetimes ( $\approx 1$ h) (Sobanski et al., 2016b). During both campaigns, the meteorological conditions were very variable and associated



with different air mass origins. The PARADE campaign can be divided in three periods (Phillips et al., 2012). The first period from the 15<sup>th</sup> to the 26<sup>th</sup> of August was influenced by air masses of continental origin and was associated with high temperature, and low humidity. A cold front arriving from the West resulted in two consecutive days of rain/fog conditions and a large decrease in temperature and ozone. The period 26<sup>th</sup> to 5<sup>th</sup> of September was influenced by advection from the Atlantic / UK region and during this period the temperature increased progressively together with ozone. A second cold front on the 5<sup>th</sup> of September again resulted in a fast temperature decrease followed by a period of low photochemical activity. The NOTOMO campaign was characterised by frequent fluctuation between cold/wet and warm/dry periods. Back trajectory calculations (48 hrs) showed that the warm/dry periods were generally associated with air masses of continental origin, the cold/wet periods with air masses coming from the West with Atlantic influence. In both campaigns, the highly variable photochemical activity and temperature strongly influenced the mixing ratios of both O<sub>3</sub> and organic nitrates, which is why this site was selected.

### 3 Instrumentation

The instruments deployed during both field campaigns have been described in Schuster et al. (2009) and Thieser et al. (2016) for PARADE and in Sobanski et al. (2016a) for NOTOMO. During the PARADE campaign, all instruments used collocated inlets of PFA piping. During the NOTOMO campaign, the instruments described here sampled from a common, high volume-flow inlet. Temperature, ozone, wind speed and wind direction data were measured by the permanent instrumentation of the state-run air pollution surveillance network (HLUG) at this site.

#### 3.1 NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub>, ΣPNs and ΣANs

**PARADE:** NO<sub>2</sub> and total organic nitrates were measured during both campaigns by Thermal Dissociation Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy (TD-CRDS). During PARADE, a two cavity TD-CRDS instrument was deployed (Thieser et al., 2016). The instrument was located in a container and sampled air from a 5 m ½" PFA tube acting as a bypass flow through which ambient air was drawn at  $\approx 40 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ (STP) min}^{-1}$ , (hereafter SLM). The Teflon coated (DuPont, FEP, TE 9568) cavities were operated at 405 and 409 nm, and both were maintained at 35 °C to improve thermal stability. One cavity sampled air from the bypass flow at ambient temperature to measure NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios, the second channel sampled alternately through two heated inlets, one held at 200 °C and the other at 450 °C to thermally dissociate PNs and ANs respectively into NO<sub>2</sub>. When sampling through the 200 °C inlet, this channel measures the sum of ambient NO<sub>2</sub> + ΣPNs. Sampling via the 450 °C inlet results in detection of NO<sub>2</sub> + ΣPNs + ANs. Mixing ratios of ΣPNs and ΣANs were obtained by the difference in NO<sub>2</sub> measured in the two cavities and applying corrections to account for conversion (to NO<sub>2</sub>) of ClNO<sub>2</sub> (measured by CIMS, Phillips et al. (2012)) and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (TD-CRDS, Sobanski et al. (2016b)) in the hot inlets and also for biases related to reactions involving peroxy radicals, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub> as outlined in detail in Thieser et al. (2016).

During PARADE, NO<sub>3</sub> was measured by the 662 nm, two channel TD-CRDS described in Schuster et al. (2009). One cavity sampled air at ambient temperature and measured NO<sub>3</sub>, the second one measured the sum of NO<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> following the



thermal dissociation of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  to  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  at 100 °C. This instrument was located on the roof top and sampled air from the centre of a bypass flow (50 SLM) through a 1 m long, 1/2-inch (12.7 mm) diameter PFA pipe. The detection limit for  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  were 2 and 30 pptv and the uncertainties 15 and 6 % respectively. As described in Thieser et al. (2016), the uncertainty associated with the  $\text{NO}_2$  measurement is 6 % + 20pptv  $\times$  RH/100 (where RH is the relative humidity in %). The detection limit and uncertainties for the organic nitrate measurements depends on  $\text{NO}_x$  levels and the reader is referred to Thieser et al. (2016) for more details.

**NOTOMO:** The 5 channel, TD-CRDS deployed during the NOTOMO campaign was recently described in detail by Sobanski et al. (2016a). This instrument has five identical cavities sampling from separate inlet lines. Two cavities operate at 662 nm for the detection of  $\text{NO}_3$ , the other three at 405 nm to detect  $\text{NO}_2$ . One 662 nm cavity samples 8 SLM from an inlet at ambient temperature to measure  $\text{NO}_3$ , the other draws 7 SLM through an inlet at 110 °C to measure the sum of  $\text{NO}_3$  +  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  following thermal dissociation of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  to  $\text{NO}_3$ . Of the three 405 nm cavities, one draws 2.5 SLM via an inlet at ambient temperature to measure  $\text{NO}_2$ , the other two each sample 2.5 SLM from inlets heated to 175 °C and 375 °C to measure  $\text{NO}_2$  +  $\Sigma\text{PNs}$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  +  $\Sigma\text{PNs}$  +  $\Sigma\text{ANs}$ , respectively. The 1/4 inch (6.35 mm) inlet line for the 662 nm cavities was attached via a T-piece to a 60 cm long 1/2 inch PFA pipe sampling air at 100 L  $\text{min}^{-1}$  from the center of a large diameter (15 cm), high-flow inlet (10  $\text{m}^3$   $\text{min}^{-1}$ ), with its opening located 8 m above the ground and 3m above the top of the container. The 405 nm channels sampled air via a 1 m long, 1/4 inch PFA tube protruding into the center of the high-flow inlet. Correction for  $\text{ClNO}_2$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  conversion to  $\text{NO}_2$  were carried out as described for the PARADE campaign, the removal of the biases related to reactions by peroxy radicals,  $\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  were carried out as described in Sobanski et al. (2016a). The detection limits were 1.5 and 60 pptv for  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_2$ , respectively, with uncertainties of 25 % for  $\text{NO}_3$  and 6.5 % for  $\text{NO}_2$  (Sobanski et al., 2016a).

### 3.2 NO during PARADE / NOTOMO

During PARADE, NO measurements were made with a modified commercial chemiluminescence detector (CLD 790 SR), the operation of which during this campaign is described by Li et al. (2015). The detection limit for this instrument is 4 pptv in 2 s with a total uncertainty of 4 %. This instrument did not participate in NOTOMO and daytime NO mixing ratios were calculated from measurements of  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{J}(\text{NO}_2)$  assuming photo stationary state:

$$[\text{NO}]_{\text{calc}} = \text{J}(\text{NO}_2) [\text{NO}_2] / k_{(\text{NO}+\text{O}_3)}[\text{O}_3] \quad (1)$$

where  $\text{J}(\text{NO}_2)$  is the photolysis frequency of  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $k_{(\text{NO}+\text{O}_3)}$  is the rate constant for reaction of NO with  $\text{O}_3$ . This expression ignores the oxidation of NO to  $\text{NO}_2$  via e.g. reactions of peroxy radicals and thus overestimates NO. However, this method of estimating [NO] resulted in satisfactory agreement (within  $\approx$  20 %) with measurements from the HLUG for periods when NO was above the detection limit ( $>$  1ppb) of their instrument. Night-time concentrations of NO during NOTOMO were



assumed to be zero, as has been shown to be the case on many nights during previous campaigns at this site (Crowley et al., 2010; Sobanski et al., 2016b).

### 3.3 VOCs measurements during PARADE

The VOC measurements have been described already by Sobanski et al. (2016b). Briefly, VOCs were measured using two  
5 gas-chromatographic instruments (1 data point per hour) with a mass spectrometer (GC-MS) and a flame ionisation detector  
(GC-FID). The GC-MS (biogenic and aromatic hydrocarbons) had a detection limit of around 1 pptv with an uncertainty of  
10–15 %. The GC-FID (non-methane hydrocarbons) had detection limits between 1 and 5 pptv, exceptions being ethane,  
ethene, propene, benzene and toluene with values of 8, 16, 9, 14 and 48 pptv respectively and a total uncertainty of 10 % (15  
% for 1-pentane). The VOCs measured during PARADE are listed in Table 1 along with their rate constants for reaction  
10 with OH and also the associated alkyl nitrate yields and production rates, P(ANs) and P(O<sub>3</sub>), for ANs and PN<sub>s</sub>, respectively  
(see Sect. 4.4).

## 4 Results and discussion

### 4.1 NO<sub>x</sub> and organic nitrates at the Taunus Observatory

The temperature, humidity, wind direction, O<sub>3</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, ΣPN<sub>s</sub> and ΣAN<sub>s</sub> for the PARADE and NOTOMO campaigns are  
15 shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2., respectively. The reactive nitrogen species are plotted at 10 min resolution, and Table 2  
summarizes selected minimum, maximum and mean values for the two datasets. The data provided by the HLUG (relative  
humidity, wind and O<sub>3</sub>) are given at 30 min intervals.

During PARADE and NOTOMO, NO<sub>2</sub> varied between ≈ 1 to 15 ppbv with the highest mixing ratios (during PARADE)  
associated with air mass originating from the south and from the south - west, corresponding approximately to the urbanized  
20 Frankfurt and Wiesbaden/Mainz sectors. The ΣPN<sub>s</sub> mixing ratio varied from below the detection limit to ≈ 3 ppbv during  
NOTOMO. Low values approaching or below the detection limit were measured during episodes of persistent fog and  
rainfall. The campaign means for ΣPN<sub>s</sub> were 505 pptv for PARADE and 677 pptv for NOTOMO, respectively. ΣAN<sub>s</sub>  
mixing ratios varied from below the detection limit to 1.2 ppbv (PARADE maximum) with campaign mean values of 297  
pptv for PARADE and 116 pptv for NOTOMO, respectively. Figures 1 and 2 show that [ΣPN<sub>s</sub>] and [ΣAN<sub>s</sub>] covary at the  
25 Taunus Observatory and also show a correlation with O<sub>3</sub> both in terms of their diel profile (see later) and day-to-day  
variability.

Measurements of individual peroxyacyl nitrates are numerous, especially of PAN which usually represents ~ 80% of all  
peroxy-nitrates in the lower troposphere (Roberts, 1990; Roberts et al., 1998). This has been shown to also be the case at the  
Taunus Observatory (Thieser et al. 2016). Our measurements of [ΣPN<sub>s</sub>] are in the range of [PAN] or the sum of individual  
30 PAN<sub>s</sub> mixing ratios observed in different urban/suburban locations (Roberts, 1990; Roberts et al., 2007; LaFranchi et al.,





2009). Measurements of individual alkyl nitrates are more sparse. Early estimates for the total alkyl nitrate burden at rural locations influenced by urban emissions up to a few hundred pptv were derived by summing the mixing ratio of individually measured alkyl nitrates (C1 up to C8) by gas chromatography technics (Flocke et al., 1991; Flocke et al., 1998; Russo et al., 2010; Worton et al., 2010). Recent developments in chemical ionisation mass spectrometry have enabled measurement of more complex, multifunctional nitrates of biogenic origin and revealed the occasional presence of ppbv levels of the sum of measured alkyl nitrates (Beaver et al., 2012). Our measurements of  $\Sigma$ PNs and  $\Sigma$ ANs can be more directly compared to those of the University of California at Berkeley, who have developed and applied the technique of TD-LIF over the last 15 years (Day et al., 2002; Wooldridge et al., 2010; Perring et al., 2013). The mixing ratios of  $\Sigma$ PNs and  $\Sigma$ ANs at the Taunus Observatory are comparable to summertime measurements of  $\Sigma$ PNs and  $\Sigma$ ANs (0 – 2 ppbv and 0 – 1 ppbv, respectively) at forested sites in California (Day et al., 2003; Murphy et al., 2006; Day et al., 2008).

#### 4.2 Sequestering of NO<sub>x</sub> as organic nitrates

In this section, we examine how much NO<sub>x</sub> is sequestered as organic nitrates at this site. As HNO<sub>3</sub> was not measured during either campaign, we cannot examine the relative efficiency of NO<sub>x</sub> conversion to organic nitrates compared to inorganic HNO<sub>3</sub>, though we expect the former to dominate in air masses in the continental boundary layer that have significant anthropogenic or biogenic emissions of hydrocarbons (Day et al., 2008).

Figure 3 shows the fraction,  $f(\text{NO}_x)$ , of NO<sub>x</sub> sequestered as organic nitrates ( $f(\text{NO}_x) = ([\Sigma\text{PNs}] + [\Sigma\text{ANs}]) / ([\Sigma\text{PNs}] + [\Sigma\text{ANs}] + [\text{NO}_x])$ ), plotted versus [NO<sub>x</sub>] and color coded for temperature. It clearly shows that  $f(\text{NO}_x)$  is higher at low NO<sub>x</sub>, and could be as high as 0.75 in air masses containing less than 2 ppbv of NO<sub>x</sub>. The lowest values of  $f(\text{NO}_x)$  measured (< 0.08) were associated with levels of NO<sub>x</sub> in excess of 10 ppbv. At this location, high values of NO<sub>2</sub> are associated with freshly emitted anthropogenic pollution originating from the nearby urban centres. The high values of  $f(\text{NO}_x)$  during periods of low NO<sub>x</sub> is the result of efficient conversion of NO<sub>x</sub> to longer lived organic nitrates in photochemically aged air masses at this site and also suggests that organic nitrate formation is not limited by NO<sub>x</sub>. For a given level of NO<sub>x</sub>,  $f(\text{NO}_x)$  is larger when temperatures are higher, reflecting stronger biogenic emissions, and more intense photochemical activity and thus conversion rates of NO<sub>x</sub> to organic nitrates (Olszyna et al., 1994; Day et al., 2008). Low temperatures also increase the rate of transfer of soluble organic nitrates to the aerosol phase, which acts on  $f(\text{NO}_x)$  in the same direction.

#### 4.3 Diel profiles: Photochemical and meteorological influences

Figure 4 shows the mean diel profiles of  $J(\text{O}^1\text{D})$ , [O<sub>3</sub>], temperature, humidity, [NO<sub>2</sub>], [ $\Sigma$ PNs] and [ $\Sigma$ ANs] for both the PARADE (red lines) and NOTOMO (black lines) campaigns. A number of factors including highly variable (temporal and spatial) local emissions, irradiance, wind-direction and the complex topography at the site all impose their influence on the diel profiles measured for the organic nitrates.



The mean, daily maxima in global radiation, temperature and O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratio were higher during NOTOMO, indicating on average warmer, sunnier and drier conditions in 2015. Lower average levels of NO<sub>2</sub> were measured during NOTOMO. The mean PARADE NO<sub>2</sub> profile shows two maxima during the day (at ~ 10:00 UTC and ~ 19:00 UTC) which correspond approximately to local rush-hour traffic increases during the working week. These NO<sub>2</sub> maxima are less clearly defined but still apparent in the averaged diel profiles in NOTOMO. A close inspection of the NOTOMO data revealed that the days can be divided into two types, those which display the rush-hour peaks in NO<sub>2</sub> (type 1, altogether seven in a total of thirty days) and those which do not (type 2). As illustrated in Fig. 5, type 1 days were associated with higher temperatures and levels of O<sub>3</sub> and local wind direction that has a large, daytime component from the South, whereas type 2 days were cooler, had less O<sub>3</sub> and the local wind had a dominant westerly component. Air masses arriving from the southerly sectors are influenced by rush-hour traffic from the nearby urban centres, whereas those arriving from the west are cleaner, with an Atlantic influence and more distant emissions of NO<sub>x</sub>. Up-slope winds, resulting from enhanced rates of heating of the mountainside during the warmer periods can also play a role in enhancing rates of transport of NO<sub>x</sub> and photochemically produced trace gases to the site compared to the cooler, cloudier days under the influence of westerly winds. During the PARADE campaign, no clear differentiation in meteorological/photo-chemical situation was possible and the diel profiles represent the entire campaign. The mean ΣPNs profiles during both campaigns (Fig. 4) indicate a growth in mixing ratio starting at about sunrise with a broad daily maxima between ≈ 12:00 and 14:00 for NOTOMO. The mean daily maximum for NOTOMO was about 1.2 ppbv, a factor of two or more than for PARADE. In contrast, during PARADE the mean daily maximum of ΣANs (≈ 0.6 ppbv) was about a factor of three larger than during NOTOMO. The ratio of the mean daily maximum of ANs to PNs, ( $[ANs]_{max} / [PNs]_{max}$ ) was thus very different for the two campaigns, with values of close to one for PARADE and ≈ 0.2 for NOTOMO.

A number of factors influence the relative concentrations of PNs and ANs. In general, higher temperatures are the result of higher levels of insolation and are thus usually related to higher O<sub>3</sub> concentrations and rates of photochemical processing of VOCs. This should lead to higher concentrations of both PNs and ANs. Higher levels of insolation will lead to higher NO to NO<sub>2</sub> ratios and elevated temperatures will reduce the lifetimes of PNs so higher temperature and more insolation both favour AN production over PN production. This is essentially the opposite to what we observe and we conclude that other factors, including the mechanism of organic nitrate production from oxidation of different VOC types and rates of depositional loss of the organic nitrates play a major role in controlling the relative abundance of ANs and PNs at this site (see later).

#### 4.4 Daytime and night-time production of alkyl nitrates

During PARADE, the diel profiles of [ΣANs] show a maximum around 12:00 UTC, similar to the maximum in global radiation which drives primary OH formation, VOCs oxidation and peroxy radical production rates. However, as indicated in Sect. 1, ANs can also be formed by the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> radicals with biogenically emitted VOCs, which can impact on their diel profile. Figure 6 shows median profiles of [ΣANs] obtained by filtering out periods with fog and rain at the site in which





NO<sub>3</sub> would have been absent due to the rapid, heterogeneous scavenging of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, with which the former is in thermal equilibrium. We also plot the mean profiles of NO<sub>3</sub> during these nights (representing 16 nights for PARADE and 13 nights for NOTOMO). The most notable changes compared to Fig. 4 are the increase in [ΣANs] during the night. Indeed, for the NOTOMO campaign, the night-time [ΣANs] represent almost 50 % of the day-time value. As described in Thieser et al. (2016) and Sobanski et al. (2016a), the potential artefact caused by thermal decomposition of either ClNO<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (present during some nights in amounts up to several hundred pptv) in the hot inlets of the TD-CRDs was accounted for by the simultaneous measurement of both of these trace gases and therefore does not contribute to the night-time signal we ascribe to ANs.

We now explore potential meteorological and chemical contributions to the night-time increases in [ΣANs]. Sobanski et al. (2016b) report occasionally extended NO<sub>3</sub> lifetimes (> 1000 s) at this site that result from sampling from a low-lying residual layer. Compared to the lowest levels, the residual layer is likely to contain higher levels of photochemically generated trace gases (e.g. ANs) which would otherwise be lost by deposition. During PARADE and NOTOMO, the majority of nights were however characterised by NO<sub>3</sub> lifetimes of the order of minutes and less, which indicate that NO<sub>3</sub> is removed by reaction with VOCs, presumably mainly reactive terpenoids with double bonds. Those nights with long NO<sub>3</sub> lifetimes during PARADE were excluded for calculating the [NO<sub>3</sub>] and [ΣANs] profiles in Fig. 6.

The reaction between NO<sub>3</sub> and unsaturated VOCs is known to produce alkyl nitrates with a higher yield than the day-time pathway through OH induced oxidation of VOCs and is a plausible explanation of the night-time maxima in ΣANs shown in Fig. 6. In order to assess this, we calculated the day and night-time production of alkyl nitrates during PARADE using measured VOCs (see Table 1). We took values from Atkinson and Arey (2003b) for the rate constants and the alkyl nitrate yields from Perring et al. (2013). For some VOCs, the alkyl nitrate yield is unknown and values were estimated based on the known yield of other, structurally similar compounds.

To estimate the night time-production of ANs, we consider the reaction between NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> to be the only NO<sub>3</sub> precursor. Of the measured VOCs, isoprene, α-pinene, myrcene and limonene account for > 95% of the NO<sub>3</sub> reactivity and have large yields of ANs. The mean night-time mixing ratios for these four compounds are ≈ 15, 30, 15 and 20 ppt, respectively. The corresponding alkyl nitrate yields are 0.7, 0.15, 0.5 and 0.67, respectively, which allows us to derive a value of 0.47 for the effective alkyl nitrate yield for this VOC mixture. In the absence of laboratory investigations, the alkyl nitrate yield from NO<sub>3</sub> + myrcene is estimated as 50 %. Assuming that each NO<sub>3</sub> generated reacts rapidly with a BVOC, (this implies no significant, indirect loss of NO<sub>3</sub> via the heterogeneous loss of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) and taking typical night-time [NO<sub>2</sub>] and [O<sub>3</sub>] mixing ratios of 2 and 40 ppbv as observed during PARADE, we calculate the production rate of ANs (Eqn. 2) to be  $P(\Sigma\text{ANs})_{\text{night}} \approx 70 \text{ pptv hr}^{-1}$  which is consistent with the increase in ANs observed in the two hours following sunset during either the PARADE or NOTOMO campaigns.

$$P(\Sigma\text{ANs})_{\text{night}} = 0.47k_{(\text{NO}_2+\text{O}_3)}[\text{NO}_2][\text{O}_3] \quad (2)$$



To compare the estimated night-time production with the maximum day-time production, it is necessary to know the OH concentration. During the PARADE campaign, OH was measured on only a few days that did not cover those used to derive our diel profiles. Following Bonn et al. (2014), who performed a detailed analysis of OH measurements and their correlation with  $J(O^1D)$  during PARADE, we calculate  $[OH] = 1.8 \times 10^{11} \times J(O^1D) \approx 3 \times 10^6$  molecule  $cm^{-3}$  for the mean  $[OH]$  between 11:00 and 13:00 UTC. For an approximate estimate of day-time ANs production, we take the campaign mean mixing ratios of each VOC between 11:00 and 13:00 UTC as listed in Table 1. Based on the rate coefficients and mean concentrations of the VOCs, we calculate that  $\approx 54$  % of production of ANs is due to terpenes, 34 % to alkenes and 7 % to alkanes.

$$P_{\Sigma ANs} = \sum_i \alpha_i k_{OH+RH_i} [OH] [RH_i] \quad (3)$$

Using equation (3) we thus obtain a total ANs production rate of  $P(ANS)_{day} \approx 68$  pptv  $hr^{-1}$  which is very similar to the estimated night-time production. The relative rates of day- and night-time generation of ANs depends on the relative levels of OH and  $NO_3$  (a factor  $\approx 200$  in favour of  $NO_3$ ), the yields of ANs (generally larger for  $NO_3$ ) and the rate constant for reaction with VOCs. The large night-time production rate from  $NO_3$  degradation of VOCs in this forested environment is largely a result of the selective reactivity of  $NO_3$  towards terpenes, which have large AN yields.

Although we calculate similar production rates of ANs during the night when  $NO_3$  is present, the daytime maximum in the ANs mixing ratio is significantly larger in both campaigns. This may be explained if the lifetime of  $\Sigma ANs$  with respect to chemical or depositional loss is longer during the day than during the night, a consequence of enhanced deposition in a stably stratified, shallow nocturnal boundary layer and the different chemical composition and volatility of the ANs generated. The addition of  $NO_3$  to the double bonds of terpenoids results in the generation of multifunctional, branched alkyl nitrates, with low volatility and a high propensity for condensation on aerosol. The reaction of  $NO_3$  with e.g. limonene results in a substantial yield of organic nitrates and a mass based, secondary organic aerosol yield of  $\approx 30$  % (Fry et al., 2011; Fry et al., 2014). As  $\approx 50$  % of OH reactivity is with non-terpenoid VOCs at this site (see above), a higher fraction of monofunctional, linear chained alkyl nitrates are formed, which have larger vapour pressures and are less likely to condense onto particles. The lower lifetime of night-time generated  $\Sigma ANs$  at this and other forested sites is thus likely to be the result of increased rate of aerosol scavenging of the low volatility ANs compared to those generated in the day, which will also be enhanced by the lower temperatures and higher relative humidities encountered at night-time. This result is consistent with ideas that the  $NO_3$  oxidation of biogenic VOCs can lead to appreciable organo-nitrate content in atmospheric particulate matter (Fry et al., 2011; Fry et al., 2014).



#### 4.5 ANs yield from OH initiated VOC oxidation.

A positive correlation between organic nitrates and  $O_3$  has been observed (Kourtidis et al., 1993; Williams et al., 1997; Roberts et al., 1998; Schrimpf et al., 1998; Day et al., 2003) and is due to the common production pathways of these trace gases. In rural and semi-rural locations, the build up of  $O_3$  during the day is related to the  $NO_x$  catalysed photo-oxidation of VOCs, including the reaction of organic peroxy radicals with  $NO_x$ . These processes also dominate the daytime production of organic nitrates. As discussed in Sect. 1, alkyl nitrates are produced via a minor branch of the reaction between NO and organic peroxy radical, while the majority of reactive collisions result in the formation of  $NO_2$  and (via its photolysis) the formation of  $O_3$  (reaction R4 to R5). Laboratory experiments have shown that the branching ratio to ANs is strongly dependent on the identity of the peroxy radical and also varies with temperature and pressure (Perring et al., 2013). As we measure total alkyl nitrates, the effective branching ratio is determined by the particular VOC mixture encountered. Following the methodology developed by the Berkeley group (Day et al., 2003; Rosen et al., 2004) the production rates of  $O_3$  ( $P_{O_3}$ ) is given by eqn. (4).

$$P_{O_3} = \sum_i \gamma_i (1 - \alpha_i) k_{(OH+RH_i)} [OH] [RH_i] \quad \text{Eq. (4)}$$

where  $\alpha$  is the branching ratio to nitrate formation in the reaction between the organic peroxy radical and NO, and  $\gamma$  is the number of  $O_3$  produced per VOC oxidized, which can be between one and three but is equal to two for many atmospherically relevant VOCs, given sufficient NO (see Table 1) (Rosen et al., 2004). This can be combined with eqn. (3) to give:

$$\frac{\Delta O_3}{\Delta \Sigma ANs} = \frac{\int (P_{O_3} - D_{O_3} + E_{O_3}) dt}{\int (P_{\Sigma ANs} - D_{\Sigma ANs} + E_{\Sigma ANs}) dt} \quad \text{Eq. (5)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta O_3}{\Delta \Sigma ANs} = \frac{2(1-\alpha)}{\alpha} \approx \frac{2}{\alpha} \quad \text{Eq. (6)}$$

In which D and E represent terms for deposition and entrainment, respectively. The ratio of  $O_3$  to  $\Sigma ANs$  after the OH oxidation of a VOC mixture has proceeded for a certain time,  $dt$ , is given by Eq. (5). At sufficiently high levels of OH, VOCs and NO, the photochemical production terms can be assumed to be larger than the loss terms and Eq. (5) simplifies to Eq. (6). In principal, a plot of  $[O_3]$  versus  $[\Sigma ANs]$  should then yield a straight line, with a slope that is proportional to an average value of the branching ratio to ANs. The values of  $\alpha$  we calculate using the measurement of  $\Sigma ANs$  and  $O_3$  is designated  $\alpha_{av}^{\Sigma ANs}$ . Alternatively, an average value of  $\alpha$  can be calculated from measurement of the VOCs that react with OH, their rate constant and the individual yield of alkyl nitrate from each reaction and the  $O_3$  yield, which we then designate  $\alpha_{av}^{VOCi}$ .

For both the PARADE and NOTOMO campaigns, we analysed the mixing ratios of ANs and  $O_3$  between 11:00 and 13:00 UTC (around the peak in OH levels) to calculate  $\alpha_{av}^{\Sigma ANs}$ . The results, displayed in Fig. 7, indicate a value of  $\alpha_{av}^{\Sigma ANs}$  (PARADE) =  $7.2 \pm 0.5$  % ( $R^2 = 0.49$ ). The intercept,  $28.6 \pm 1.2$  ppbv, is indicative of background levels of  $O_3$ . In the



NOTOMO dataset, the yield of ANs is low and the data very scattered with a poor correlation coefficient, hence no fit was carried out and we simply plot (black lines) two lines which encompass the whole dataset with corresponding values of  $\alpha$  equal to 0.5 % and 1.7 % which is significantly lower than the derived  $\alpha$  for PARADE. For NOTOMO, in which low mixing ratios of ANs were encountered, the vertical grouping of the data apparent in Fig. 7 (i.e. low resolution in concentration) is a result of the corrective procedure for extracting mixing ratios from raw data obtained in the hot and cold inlets, which involves iterative numerical simulation which converges when 1% agreement between observation and simulation is achieved (Sobanski et al., 2016a).

For the PARADE campaign, during which VOCs were measured, we derive a value of  $\alpha_{av}^{VOCi}(PARADE) = 5.9\%$  for the same period around noon (UTC) which is consistent with that derived from measured  $\Sigma ANs$  and  $[O_3]$ . Irrespective of method used to derive the branching ratio to AN formation, the high values obtained reflect the fact that a significant fraction of OH reactivity is due to biogenic VOCs (especially terpenoids including isoprene, monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes), that have large yields of alkyl nitrates.

To some extent, the agreement may be fortuitous as both methods to derive  $\alpha_{av}$  involve assumptions that may be only partially applicable. The value of  $\alpha_{av}^{VOCi}$  calculated using individual VOC measurements and their respective alkyl nitrate yields is associated with a rather large uncertainty as it assumes that all VOCs with which OH reacts were actually measured during the campaign and that their alkyl nitrate yields are well known. For example, the products of isoprene oxidation, methyl-vinyl-ketone and methacrolein have high reported  $\alpha$  values (Paulot et al., 2009) and high rate constants for reaction with OH which, if taken into account would increase the overall calculated  $\alpha$  value. Regarding the individual nitrate yields, some values used to calculate the average (see Table 1) are not precisely determined in the literature while others are estimated. For example, the reported yields of alkyl nitrates in the reaction of OH with isoprene in the presence of  $NO_x$  ranges from 4 to 15% (Perring et al., 2013). This analysis will also be biased if e.g. local emissions of biogenics are larger than those averaged over the time period over which  $O_3$  and ANs were formed (i.e. when plumes containing pollution from urban areas are transported to the site).

Likewise, neglecting terms for entrainment and deposition of ANs and  $O_3$  will introduce a variable bias into calculations of  $\alpha_{av}^{\Sigma ANs}$ . In the absence of information regarding the deposition rate of a mixture of multi-functional nitrates or  $O_3$  to the topographically complex terrain at the Taunus Observatory a more detailed analysis is however not warranted. The analysis does however make comparison with similar analyses for  $\Sigma ANs$  measurements possible, and our derived values of  $\alpha_{av}^{\Sigma ANs}$  are consistent with those summarised by Perring et al (Perring et al., 2013) who list values obtained both by observation of ANs ( $7.1\% > \alpha_{av}^{\Sigma ANs} > 0.8\%$ ) and calculated from VOC measurements ( $10.6\% > \alpha_{av}^{VOCi} > 0.1\%$ ) in various rural and urban locations.

The difference in  $\alpha_{av}^{\Sigma ANs}$  between PARADE ( $7.2 \pm 0.5\%$ ) and NOTOMO ( $< 2\%$ ) is significant. The cause for this difference may be related to a breakdown of the assumption that depositional losses and/or entrainment of ANs and  $O_3$  are negligible. Dry deposition is often regarded as a major sink of alkyl nitrates especially for those derived from biogenic VOCs, and



enhanced rates of deposition loss of ANs during NOTOMO would help explain the divergence between the results obtained. The relative humidity, an important factor influencing the deposition velocity for soluble species like isoprene derived alkyl nitrates, was very similar during both campaigns with a median humidity at noon of 60% for PARADE and 57% for NOTOMO (see Fig. 4) and therefore is unlikely to have caused different deposition rates. Likewise, rates of radiative heating for the photochemically active days during both campaigns were similar, so that boundary layer evolution is also expected to be similar. A more likely explanation for the different values of  $\alpha_{av}$  obtained is that the VOC mixture at the mountain top was different between the two years. No VOCS were measured during NOTOMO, but the recurrent damp and foggy conditions are likely to have significantly decreased emissions of BVOCs in 2015, resulting in lower rates of alkyl nitrate formation.

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#### 4. Conclusions

By measuring total organic nitrates, NO, NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub> we have shown that a significant fraction (up to 75 %) of NO<sub>x</sub> is sequestered as gas-phase organic nitrates at this forested site with urban influence. During the 2011 PARADE campaign, ΣANs and ΣPNs were measured in similar concentrations, whereas in NOTOMO (2015) formation of ΣANs was weaker, presumably due to weaker biogenic emissions associated with lower temperatures. Based on an estimate of the OH concentration and the NO<sub>3</sub> production term we show that both night-time (NO<sub>3</sub> initiated) and daytime (OH initiated) chemistry contributes to the formation of ANs, which is reflected in their diel profile. Despite the similar production rate, daytime ANs are more abundant, possibly reflecting their lower rates of loss by deposition, a result of differing night-time versus daytime boundary layer dynamics and chemical properties of the ANs formed. The effective branching ratio to ANs formation from the OH initiated oxidation of VOCs, estimated by comparing ANs and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations and also from VOC analysis, is ~ 5-7 %.

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**Table 1.** VOCs measured during the PARADE campaign by GC-MS/FID

VOC	Mean noon time mixing ratio (ppbv)	$k_{OH+VOC}$ ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$ )	$\alpha(\text{ANs})$	P(ANs) (pptv $\text{hr}^{-1}$ )	P(O <sub>3</sub> ) (pptv $\text{hr}^{-1}$ )
limonene	28	$1.71 \times 10^{-10}$	0.28	15	75
butadiene	240	$6.6 \times 10^{-11}$	0.07	12	320
1-pentene	560	$3.14 \times 10^{-11}$	0.05 <sup>b</sup>	9.5	358
myrcene	20	$2.15 \times 10^{-10}$	0.18 <sup>b</sup>	8.5	75
$\alpha$ -pinene <sup>a</sup>	49	$5.37 \times 10^{-11}$	0.18	5.3	66
<i>i</i> -pentane <sup>a</sup>	282	$3.9 \times 10^{-12}$	0.35 <sup>b</sup>	4.3	22
isoprene	85	$1.01 \times 10^{-10}$	0.044	4	178
ethylbenzene	26	$7.10 \times 10^{-11}$	0.1 <sup>b</sup>	2	36
benzene	78	$1.23 \times 10^{-11}$	0.1 <sup>b</sup>	1.1	19
<i>n</i> -Pentane <sup>a</sup>	211	$3.9 \times 10^{-12}$	0.105	1	23
<i>i</i> -Butane <sup>a</sup>	131	$2.33 \times 10^{-12}$	0.255	0.85	7
toluene	126	$6.0 \times 10^{-12}$	0.1 <sup>b</sup>	0.83	15
m-xylene	46	$1.43 \times 10^{-11}$	0.1 <sup>b</sup>	0.73	13
p-xylene	46	$1.43 \times 10^{-11}$	0.1 <sup>b</sup>	0.73	13
<i>n</i> -Butane <sup>a</sup>	265	$2.54 \times 10^{-12}$	0.077	0.6	19
hexane	56	$5.61 \times 10^{-12}$	0.141	0.48	8.3
propene	105	$2.63 \times 10^{-11}$	0.015	0.45	58
o-xylene	21	$1.37 \times 10^{-11}$	0.0086	0.33	5.8
cis-2-Butene	15	$5.6 \times 10^{-11}$	0.037 <sup>b</sup>	0.33	17
propane	330	$1.15 \times 10^{-12}$	0.036	0.15	7.9
ethane	590	$2.6 \times 10^{-13}$	0.019	0.033	3.3
p-cymene	5	$1.51 \times 10^{-11}$	0.03	0.025	1.5
ethene	246	$8.5 \times 10^{-12}$	0.0086	0.02	45
methane	$1.8 \times 10^6$	$6.9 \times 10^{-15}$	0	0	268
HCHO	1940	$8.5 \times 10^{-12}$	0	0	358
CO	$1.2 \times 10^5$	$2.4 \times 10^{-13}$	0	0	303
<b>Sum</b>				<b>68.3</b>	<b>2314.8</b>

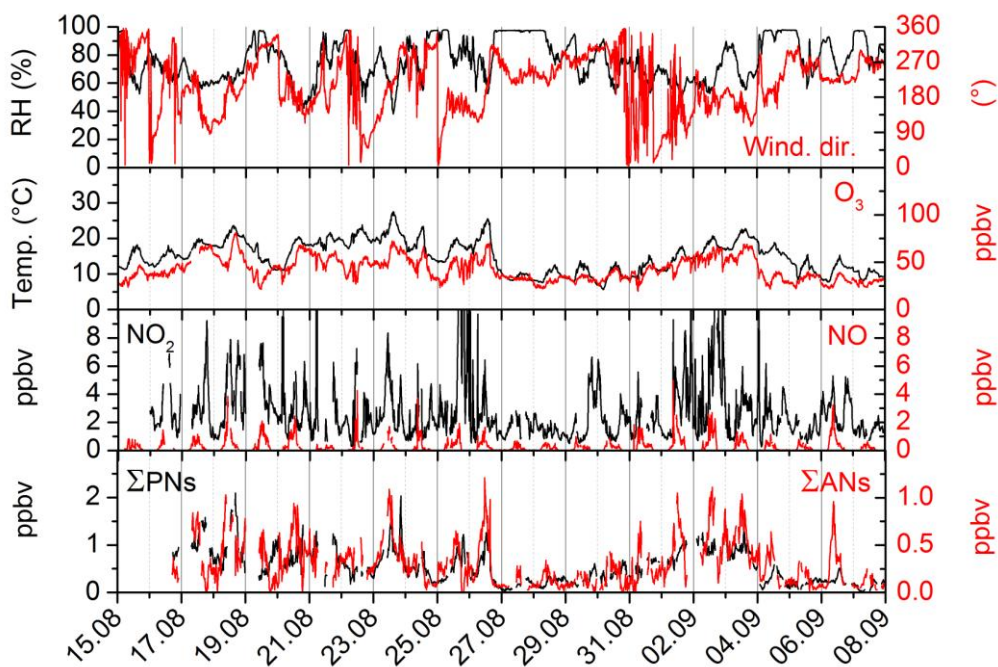
The production rate of alkyl nitrates and O<sub>3</sub> are calculated based on an OH concentration of  $3 \times 10^6 \text{ molecule cm}^{-3}$ . VOCs are sorted by decreasing production rate of alkyl nitrates. The number of ozone molecules produced per VOC oxidized is taken to be two unless otherwise designated. <sup>a</sup> 2.85 O<sub>3</sub> per VOC oxidised (Rosen et al., 2004). <sup>b</sup> the alkyl nitrate yield is estimated based on the compound structure similarity with other alkyl nitrate yield known compounds (Rosen et al., 2004).



**Table 2.** Minimum, mean and maximum values for relative humidity, temperature, ozone, NO, NO<sub>2</sub> and organic nitrates during the PARADE and NOTOMO campaign.

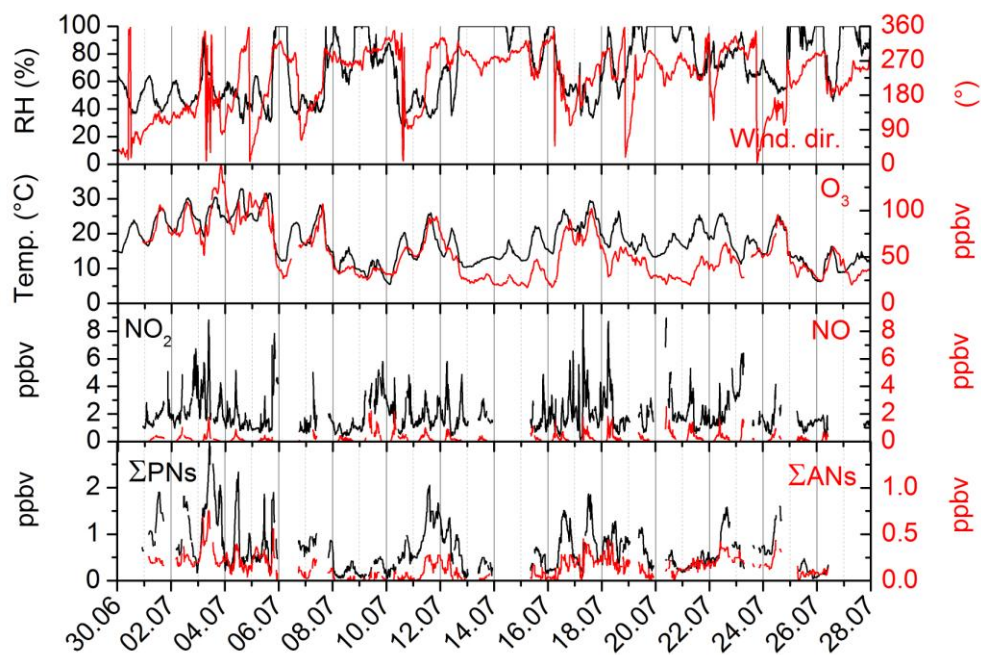
Species	PARADE (2011)			NOTOMO (2015)		
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Relative humidity (%)	38	100	77	27	100	70
Temperature (°C)	6	27	15	6	33	17
O <sub>3</sub> (ppbv)	8	81	41	17	150	48
NO <sub>2</sub> (ppbv)	0.3	21	2.7	0.1	15	2
NO (ppbv)	< LOD	5	0.3	0 <sup>a</sup>	3 <sup>a</sup>	0.3 <sup>a</sup>
ΣPNs (ppbv)	< LOD	2	0.5	< LOD	3.2	0.7
ΣANs (ppbv)	< LOD	1.2	0.3	< LOD	0.8	0.1

<sup>a</sup> calculated from photo-stationary state (see text for details).

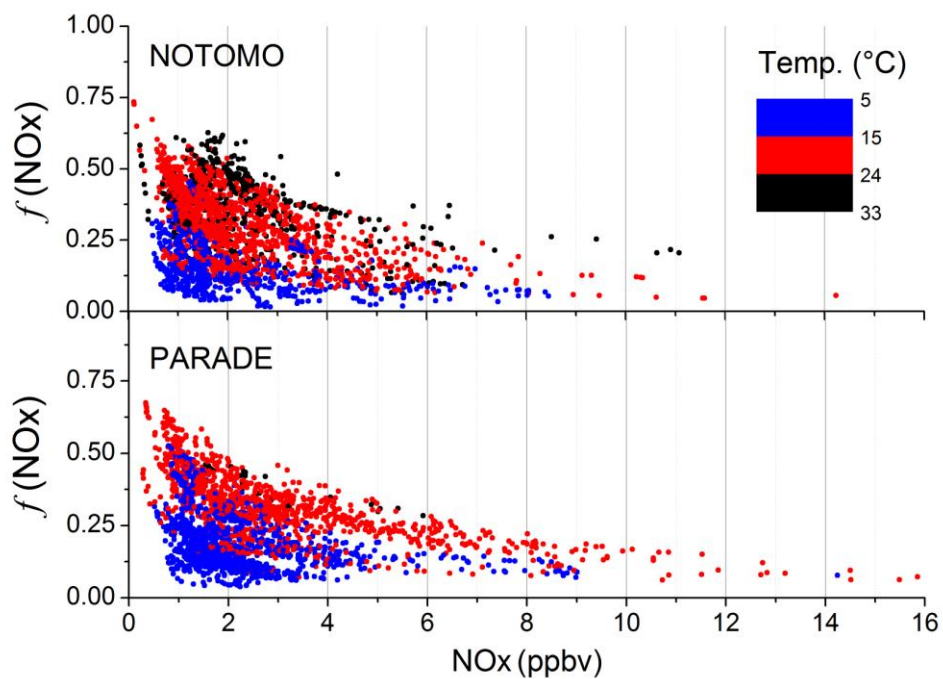


**Fig. 1.** PARADE 2011: Time-series of relative humidity (RH), wind direction, temperature, and the  $O_3$ ,  $NO_2$ ,  $NO$ ,  $\Sigma PN_s$ , and  $\Sigma AN_s$  mixing ratios.

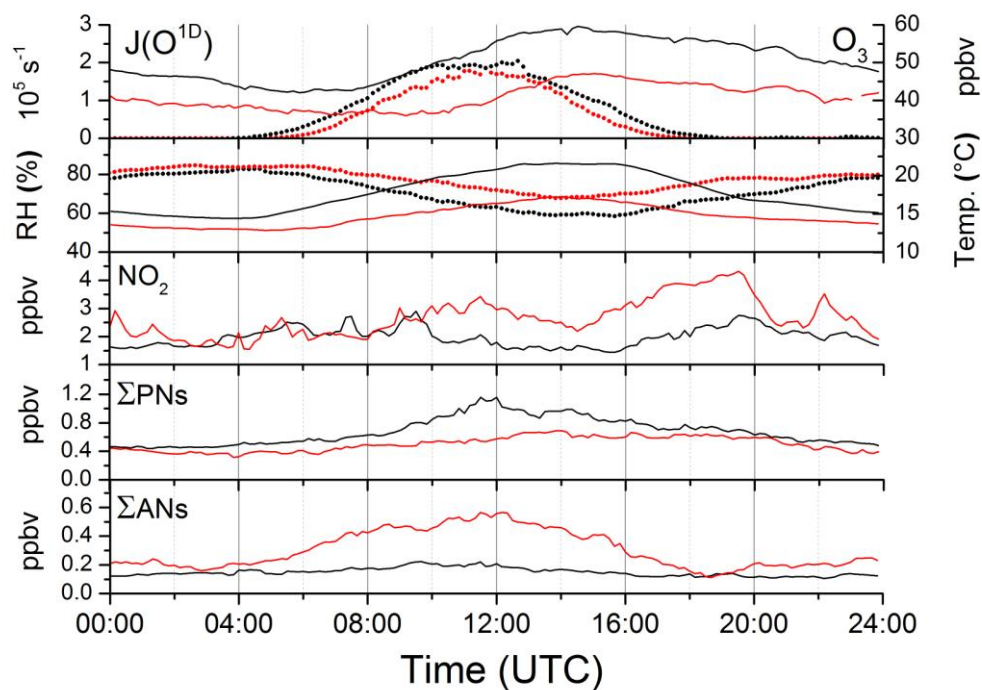




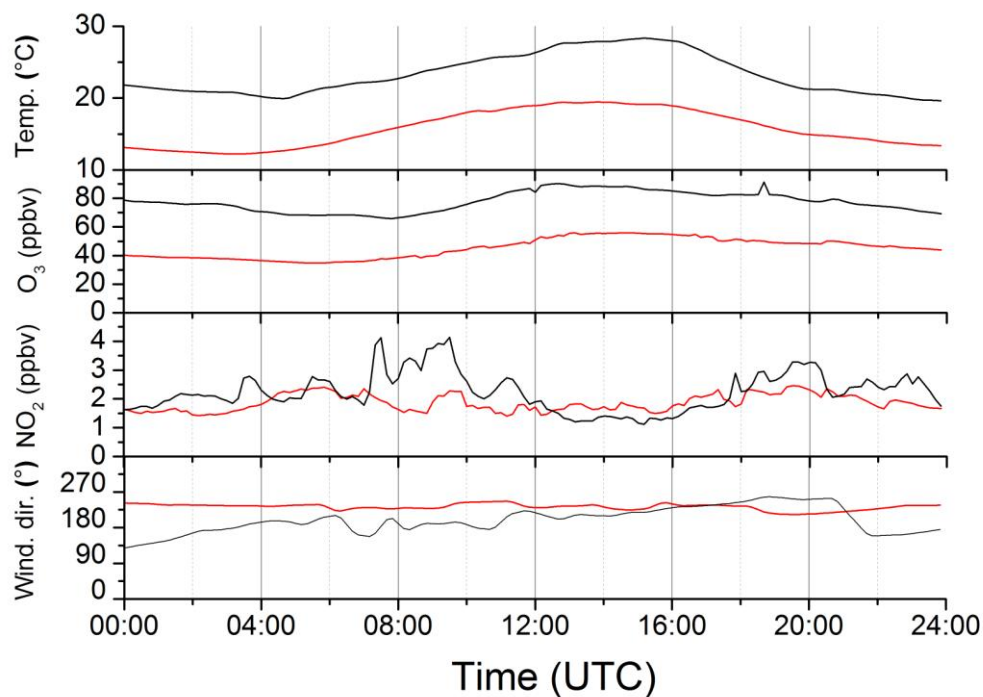
**Fig. 2.** NOTOMO 2015: Time-series of relative humidity (RH), wind direction, temperature, and the  $O_3$ ,  $NO_2$ ,  $NO$ ,  $\Sigma PN_s$ , and  $\Sigma AN_s$  mixing ratios. The  $NO$  mixing ratios were calculated assuming photo-stationary state as described in the text.



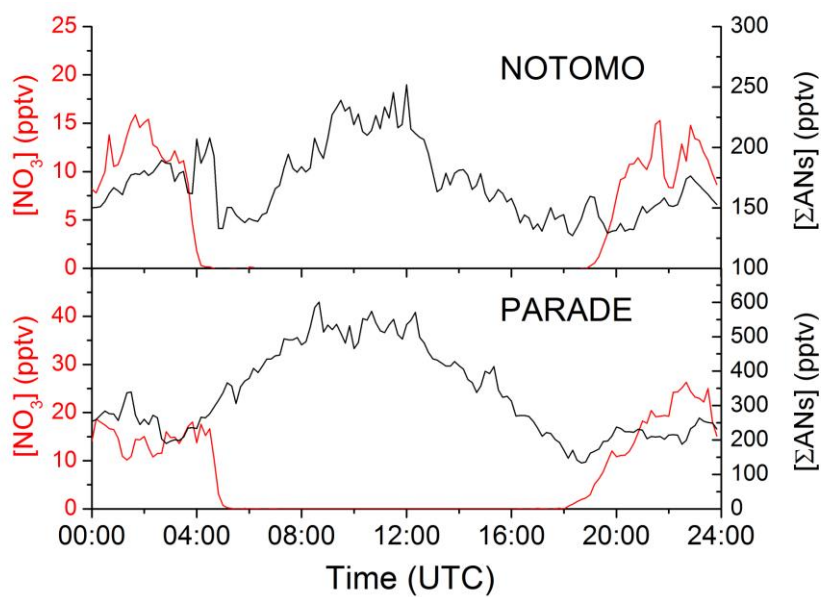
**Fig. 3.** The fraction of  $\text{NO}_x$  sequestered as organic nitrates  $f(\text{NO}_x) = \frac{[\Sigma\text{PNs}] + [\Sigma\text{ANs}]}{([\Sigma\text{PNs}] + [\Sigma\text{ANs}] + [\text{NO}_x])}$  as a function of  $\text{NO}_x$  for the NOTOMO and PARADE campaigns, both colour coded for temperature.



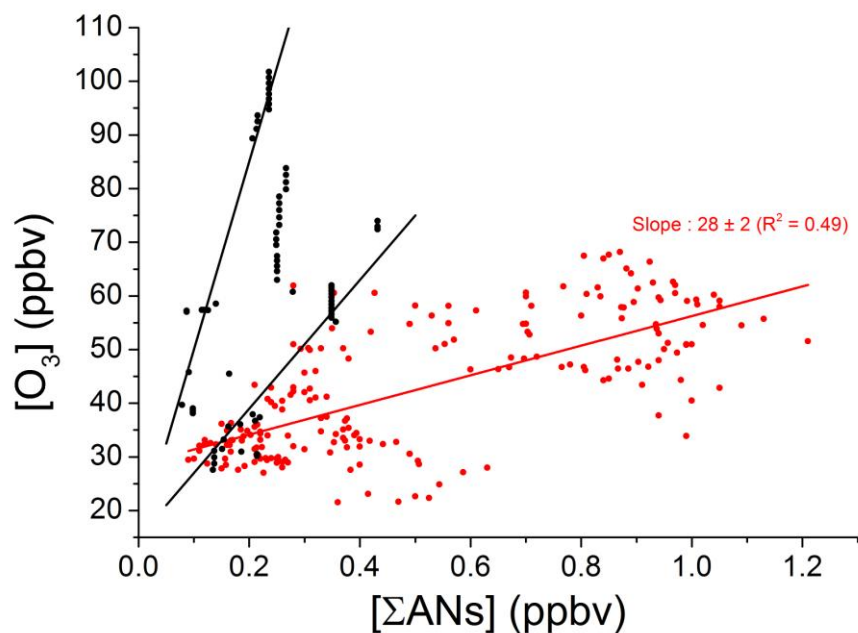
**Fig. 4.** Mean diel profiles during PARADE (red) and NOTOMO (black) of  $J(O^1D)$  and relative humidity (points) and  $[O_3]$ , temperature,  $[NO_2]$ ,  $[\Sigma PN_s]$  and  $[\Sigma AN_s]$  (lines).



**Fig. 5.** Mean daily profiles of  $[O_3]$ , temperature,  $[NO_2]$ , and wind direction for the NOTOMO campaign separated into days with a clear influence from local rush-hour traffic (black). The rest are shown in red.



**Fig. 6.** Mean daily profiles of  $[\text{NO}_3]$  (red) and  $[\Sigma\text{ANs}]$  (black) for the NOTOMO (top) and PARADE campaigns (bottom) for relative humidity < 90%.



**Fig. 7.**  $[O_3]$  versus  $[\Sigma ANs]$  measured between 11:00 and 13:00 UTC for the PARADE (red data points) and NOTOMO campaigns (black data points). The lines represent the best fit for the PARADE (red). For NOTOMO the black line are chosen to encompass all possible values of  $\alpha$  assuming a background  $O_3$  level of 15 ppbv. The apparent, poor resolution in the NOTOMO data is the result of the iterative correction procedure as described in the text.