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Opinion: Papers that shaped Tropospheric Chemistry

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Abstract

Which published papers have transformed our understanding of the chemical processes in the troposphere, and shaped the field of atmospheric chemistry? By way of expert solicitation and interactive peer-review, this paper explores the influence of the ideas in peer-reviewed articles based on the input from our community of atmospheric scientists. We explore how these papers have shaped the development of the field of atmospheric chemistry, and identify the major landmarks in the field of atmospheric chemistry through the lens of those papers' impact on science, legislation and environmental events. We also explore the ways in which one can identify the papers that have most impacted the field and discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the various approaches. Our work highlights the difficulty of creating a simple list and we explore the reasons for this difficulty. The paper also provides a history of the development of our understanding of tropospheric chemistry and points some ways for the future.

26 **1. Introduction**

27

28 Air quality and anthropogenic climate change are two environmental issues of current importance to
29 society. Atmospheric composition is central to both these issues. The atmosphere, and its
30 components, supports life on Earth. In turn, the atmosphere is affected by human population growth
31 and industrialization, as well as all the consequences of those changes. The changes in atmospheric
32 composition also influence the ecosystem on which humans rely.

33 Air pollution (née composition) and its impacts have a history stretching back to antiquity – see for
34 example the expositions in (Brimblecombe, 1987; Fuller, 2018; Jacobson, 2002; Stern, 1968; Sportisse,
35 2010; Preining and Davis, 1999; Fowler et al., 2020) and others. Changes in atmospheric composition,
36 with negative impacts particularly on human health (Lelieveld et al., 2015; Landrigan et al., 2018),
37 ecosystems (Fowler et al., 2009) and latterly climate (see for example, (Fiore et al., 2012; von
38 Schneidmesser et al., 2015)), have become primary global concerns during the latter part of the 20th
39 and the 21st centuries. As an academic subject, air pollution has mostly been systematically studied
40 only since the mid-late 20th Century. There have been several recent reviews, (e.g., (Brasseur et al.,
41 2003; Monks et al., 2009; Ravishankara et al., 2015; Ravishankara, 2003)), which have mapped the
42 growth of atmospheric chemistry, but it is not only peer-reviewed papers that provide relevant
43 overviews. It is important to note that when dealing with the development of this subject (or any
44 scientific subject for that matter), much of the baseline knowledge is embodied in textbooks, which
45 for many are the entry point to and the primary reference for the topic (e.g. (Jacob, 1999; Wayne,
46 2000; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006; Brasseur et al., 1999)).

47 Figure 1 shows the number of peer-reviewed papers by year that mentioned the phrase “atmospheric
48 chemistry” in the text, as catalogued by the Scopus bibliographic database
49 (<https://www.scopus.com/>). It shows a growth in the later 1970s from around a hundred papers a
50 year to approximately 4,000 a year currently, with a large increase especially over the past two
51 decades. Of course, many more papers discuss atmospheric chemistry, or are relevant to it, without
52 explicitly mentioning these words!

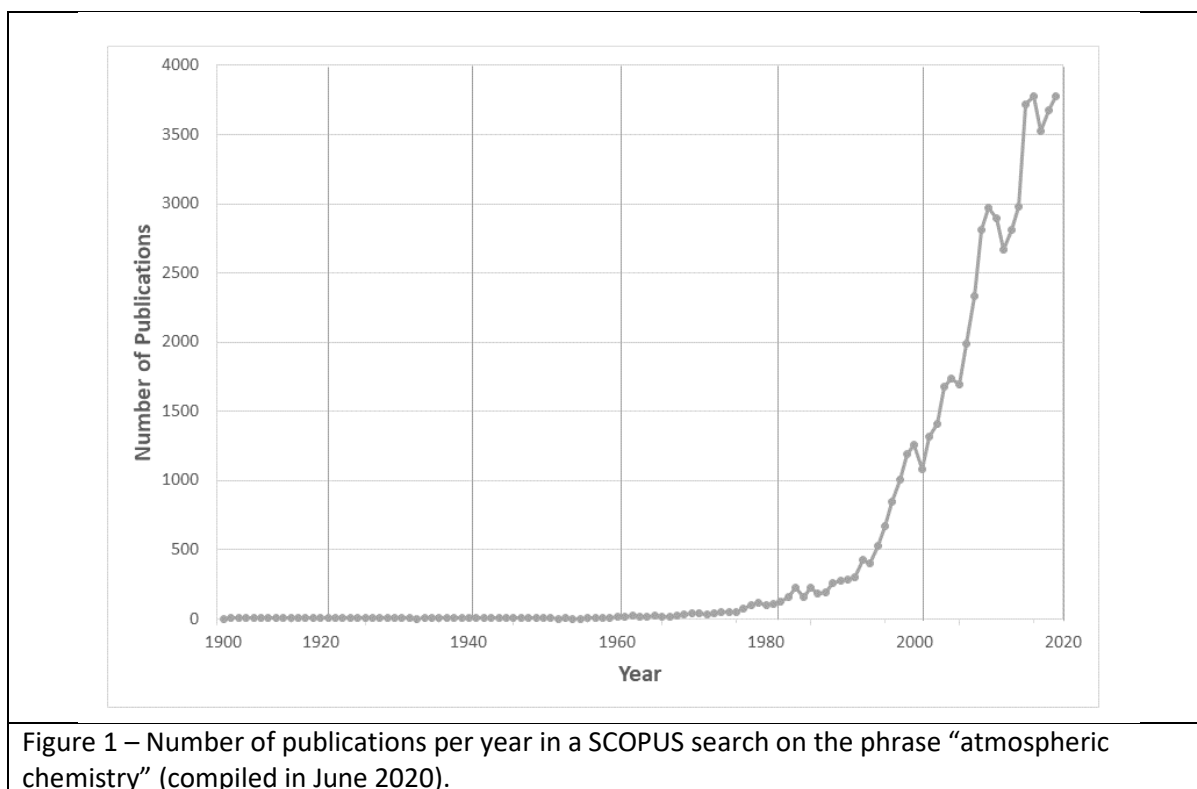


Figure 1 – Number of publications per year in a SCOPUS search on the phrase “atmospheric chemistry” (compiled in June 2020).

53

54 This paper aims to recognize and highlight some of the most influential peer-reviewed articles that
 55 have shaped this field. There were many pivotal scientific discoveries and there were many papers
 56 that spurred action and further research. What were the significant discoveries that shaped the
 57 atmospheric chemistry of today? And how do we narrow down the list contributions to highlight the
 58 most impactful ones?

59 There are many ways to choose the papers that described discoveries and influenced atmospheric
 60 composition and chemistry. Here we have assembled a compilation of influential articles. Our goal is
 61 not to show what makes a ‘great’ paper, which depends not only on the science, but also the quality
 62 of the writing, readability, structure of the written work, and the reader – all criteria that are highly
 63 subjective. Nor are we aiming only for those papers that led to policy and management actions.
 64 Instead, we try to reflect on *the papers’ science and content* and the influence of the ideas in those
 65 papers on our community of scientists and on the field’s development. Our approach is to present our
 66 thoughts – informed by the solicitation for input from colleagues in the field – and share what we
 67 think are the fundamental discoveries and developments, start a discussion, and allow others to build
 68 on, reinforce or critique our work.

69 In addition to peer-reviewed papers, and the above mentioned textbooks, we have of course other
 70 mediums through which we communicate (have communicated) with our peers. These include
 71 scientific reports, conferences, and meetings. In addition, we have scientific assessments and
 72 evaluations, which often get more scrutiny and review than the peer-reviewed papers they include.
 73 These days, other communication media, such as social media, have also become prevalent as formats
 74 for exchange both within the scientific community and with a broader audience. However, the entire
 75 community cannot attend all conferences and meetings, the scientific reports are not always
 76 accessible and often not peer-reviewed, and the assessments are often driven more by policy needs
 77 rather than by scientific discoveries. Publishing peer-reviewed papers is the closest we come to
 78 reaching the whole community. We do note that, despite its known issues, the peer-reviewed

79 literature is still considered the gold standard for quality and reliability. For these reasons, we discuss
80 only peer-reviewed papers here, although we aim to communicate the overarching scientific advances
81 that shaped the field.

82

83 *1.1. How were the papers selected?*

84 Easily measurable criteria, like the number of citations, are one metric. However, this approach
85 favours papers of a particular vintage and not necessarily the earlier or later papers. Besides, there
86 are several drawbacks to these simple and objective criteria. Citations tend to go down when
87 something is assumed to be common knowledge and makes it into textbooks or compilations. For
88 example, nobody cites Priestley for discovering oxygen or Schönbein for discovering ozone, whenever
89 atmospheric composition is mentioned. Indeed, some of the central concepts of atmospheric
90 chemistry and physics are considered to be common knowledge, and their origins are taken for
91 granted. The number of citations will also be influenced by the journal in which a paper is published,
92 and quite often (we hate to say this) also depends on who else cited them and in which journal they
93 were cited. Citations also depend on how many people are otherwise researching a particular subject.
94 Furthermore, critical assessments and expert data evaluations suppress the citation of the original
95 papers. This is particularly the case, for example, for papers on chemical kinetics and photochemistry,
96 whereby people tend to simply cite the data evaluations such as National Aeronautics and Space
97 Administration Jet Propulsion Laboratory (NASA/JPL, <https://jpldataeval.jpl.nasa.gov/>) or
98 International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC, <http://iupac.pole-ether.fr/>) panel reports.
99 Similarly, people often cite the quadrennial ozone layer depletion and Intergovernmental Panel on
100 Climate Change (IPCC) assessments, thereby obfuscating the underlying original papers. Other types
101 of papers, such as reviews, tend to get an excessive number of citations (for understandable reasons).
102 Lastly, we cannot overlook the influence of journal availability in different parts of the world. This
103 availability is exacerbated when journal costs go up, and not everybody can access new papers.
104 Nevertheless, there is still a relevance to the number of citations of a paper. We show, for example,
105 the 10 most-cited papers when we were to search on the combination of words “atmospheric and
106 chemistry” in Table 1.

107 For all the above reasons, we decided to use a different approach here. We solicited the scientific
108 community to obtain input from the experts in the field. To accomplish this, we put out a call through
109 the International Global Atmospheric Chemistry (IGAC) (Melamed et al., 2015) project to its contacts
110 and thereby engaged a broad audience. Despite the broad audience of IGAC, the vast majority of
111 responses came from scientists in North America and Europe. An initial list of influential papers was
112 established by combining the replies received from the expert solicitation to evaluate the most
113 nominated papers. In addition, a variety of perspectives were assembled for the writing team,
114 including different career stages, nationalities, and genders. Despite all these efforts, the selection
115 methods will still inevitably create bias that cannot be escaped. Therefore, in many respects, the
116 chosen papers are not supposed to be a definitive list, but rather a compilation that allows researchers
117 to discuss and reflect on what makes impactful science, and maybe ponder on the landmarks in our
118 subject. Furthermore, we hope that the end product can provide an interesting history and context to
119 those who are joining the community and document the current “perception” of what are the most
120 important papers.

121 We have noted the drawbacks in our methodology simply to present upfront some of the limitations
122 of what we did in this paper. However, we hope that others will find this work relevant and engaging.
123 Through an open and active peer-review process, we were able to obtain the perspective of a broader

124 community more reflective of the global composition of the field. To facilitate this, the paper was
125 published first as an open-access, discussion paper that included a public comment period. We hope
126 that this approach overcame some of the limitations and reservations we expressed earlier. We thank
127 all reviewers for their contributions and help in determining the final shape of this overview.

128

129 *1.2. Scope of work*

130 As with the selection method, one can debate the scope and the methodology for a work such as this.
131 Still, the boundaries we have drawn encompass studies that have shaped our understanding of the
132 atmosphere and the underlying chemical and physical processes, focusing mostly on the troposphere.
133 This includes modelling, field measurements, remote sensing, and laboratory studies (Abbatt et al.,
134 2014). We have also included atmospheric interactions with the biosphere, cryosphere, and
135 hydrosphere.

136 We selected 2010 as the cut-off year. Our rationale is that for a paper to have been influential in the
137 whole field it must be at least ten years old and thus had time to accrue recognition. We recognize
138 that important papers in newer areas of endeavour are disadvantaged by this criterion. Examples
139 include the subjects of SOA formation (Ehn et al., 2014; Crounse et al., 2013), the chemistry of Criegee
140 intermediates (Welz et al., 2012; Mauldin lii et al., 2012), galactic rays induced aerosol particle
141 nucleation (Kirkby et al., 2011), and air pollution-climate connections (Shindell et al., 2012). Influential
142 assessments such as bounding black-carbon (Bond et al., 2013) are also missed. However, these areas
143 will undoubtedly be recognized in the coming decades. The ten-year window also allows the scientific
144 community to have had extensive input on a paper's validity, i.e., meeting the criterion of "standing
145 the test of time."

146

147 The papers have been grouped into the following general categories and are presented as such in
148 Section 2.

- 149 1. *Foundations*
- 150 2. *Aerosols and Clouds*
- 151 3. *Secondary Organic Aerosols*
- 152 4. *Chemical Kinetics, Laboratory Data and Chemical Mechanisms*
- 153 5. *Heterogeneous and Multiphase Chemistry*
- 154 6. *Chemical Models*
- 155 7. *Tropospheric Ozone*
- 156 8. *Nitrogen Chemistry*
- 157 9. *HOx Chemistry*
- 158 10. *Nighttime Chemistry*
- 159 11. *Halogen Chemistry*
- 160 12. *Volatile Organic Compounds*
- 161 13. *Biogenic Emissions and Chemistry*
- 162 14. *Biomass Burning*
- 163 15. *Emissions and Deposition*
- 164 16. *Chemical Transport*
- 165 17. *Satellites and the Troposphere*
- 166 18. *Stratospheric Chemistry*
- 167 19. *Other issues that influenced tropospheric chemistry*

168

169 The groups were chosen to reflect the main areas of research or endeavour, recognizing that this
170 division could be done in several different ways. There is no assumed equivalence in these groups
171 regarding their perceived or real importance or impacts. In the following, we discuss the papers in
172 each group to show why they have been nominated and to put them in the historical context of the
173 development of atmospheric chemistry as a discipline.

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177 **2. Survey of Areas**

178

179 *2.1. Foundations*

180 Atmospheric chemistry has some long-standing and deep roots. However, it blossomed in the second
181 half of the 20th century following concerns about ozone layer depletion and various forms of
182 tropospheric pollution, such as the Los Angeles smog, London smog, and acid precipitation (Table 2).
183 Many note John Dalton's early contributions on the proportion of gases in the atmosphere (Dalton,
184 1805) and John Tyndall's Bakerian lecture on radiation and gases (Tyndall, 1861) as among the first
185 studies in this field. The work of Arrhenius "On the Influence of Carbonic Acid in the Air upon the
186 Temperature of the Ground" (Arrhenius, 1896) and the subsequent paper of Callendar, "The artificial
187 production of carbon dioxide and its influence on temperature" (Callendar, 1938), laid the groundwork
188 for the linkage between atmospheric chemistry and climate. Concerning aerosols, the seminal work
189 of John Aitken (Aitken, 1888) "On the number of dust particles in the atmosphere" details early work
190 to count the number per cubic centimeter in various indoor and outdoor environments. It is
191 interesting to note that physiologists looking at the number of live germs in the air stimulated Aitken's
192 work. The later work of Köhler (Köhler, 1936) which explored cloud droplet nucleation remains the
193 basis for later work (see the *Aerosols and Clouds* section). The start of atmospheric chemistry as a
194 distinct discipline probably arrived with Chapman's chemical theory of the stratospheric ozone layer
195 in 1930 (Chapman, 1930), which will be further discussed in the *Stratospheric Chemistry* section. This
196 study heralded the importance of atmospheric chemistry on a global scale.

197 In analyzing the influential papers on atmospheric composition, one cannot help but note the
198 relationship between these papers and the most significant contemporary environmental issues
199 (Table 2). The first of these was the Los Angeles smog, which had its European counterpart, the London
200 "Pea-Soup" (Brimblecombe, 1987). The two events, which in chemical terms have no equivalence, had
201 comparable impacts on public health and opinion. The oft recognized work of Haagen-Smit (Haagen-
202 Smit and Fox, 1954; Haagen-Smit, 1952; Haagen-Smit et al., 1953) in the early 1950s on the Los Angeles
203 smog was the first to coin the term "air pollution" in the modern era. Haagen-Smit showed that
204 automobile exhaust gases can form ozone in the air and should, therefore, be considered a definite
205 source of smog. Figure 2, redrawn from Haagen-Smit (1952), shows a schematic presentation of the
206 reactions in polluted air leading to smog. Notably, the basic features of tropospheric chemical
207 processes, as we understand them today, were already recognized in these early papers, and they
208 showed how ozone could be chemically produced in the troposphere. Brasseur has documented these
209 findings in a very thorough review (Brasseur et al., 2003).

210 It is widely recognized that both Crutzen (Crutzen, 1973a; Crutzen, 1973b) and Chameides and Walker
211 (1973) found that similar "smog reactions" oxidize methane (CH₄) and carbon monoxide (CO) to
212 produce substantial amounts of ozone in remote regions of the atmosphere. They estimated
213 chemically produced ozone to be much greater than that transported from the stratosphere, which
214 was believed to be the primary source of this chemical in the troposphere at that point. A few years
215 earlier, in 1970, Hiram Levy II suggested that the hydroxyl radical, which provides the dominant
216 oxidation mechanism in the troposphere, was formed in unpolluted air by the same mechanism that
217 had been described as occurring in polluted air (Levy, 1971). This paper by Levy (1971) is recognized
218 by many as the first description of the chemistry of the lower atmosphere involving hydroxyl radical

219 reactions of methane and carbon monoxide, hydroperoxyl radicals, and the photolysis of ozone and
 220 formaldehyde as radical sources. In particular, he recognized that the very short-lived electronically
 221 excited oxygen atom (O^1D) is a possible source of the hydroxyl radical (OH), an idea now well
 222 established.

223 Around the same time, Weinstock (1969) explained how cosmic rays lead to the production of
 224 radiocarbon dioxide ($^{14}CO_2$), which is incorporated into living plants. This process requires a rapid
 225 turnover of radiocarbon monoxide (^{14}CO), which was unexpected because the lower atmosphere was
 226 thought to be a “chemical desert”. Instead, carbon monoxide appeared to have a turnover time of
 227 about one-tenth of a year, primarily driven by hydroxyl radical oxidation. To some, this paper kicked
 228 off the research which led to our present understanding of the atmospheric chemistry of the lower
 229 atmosphere.

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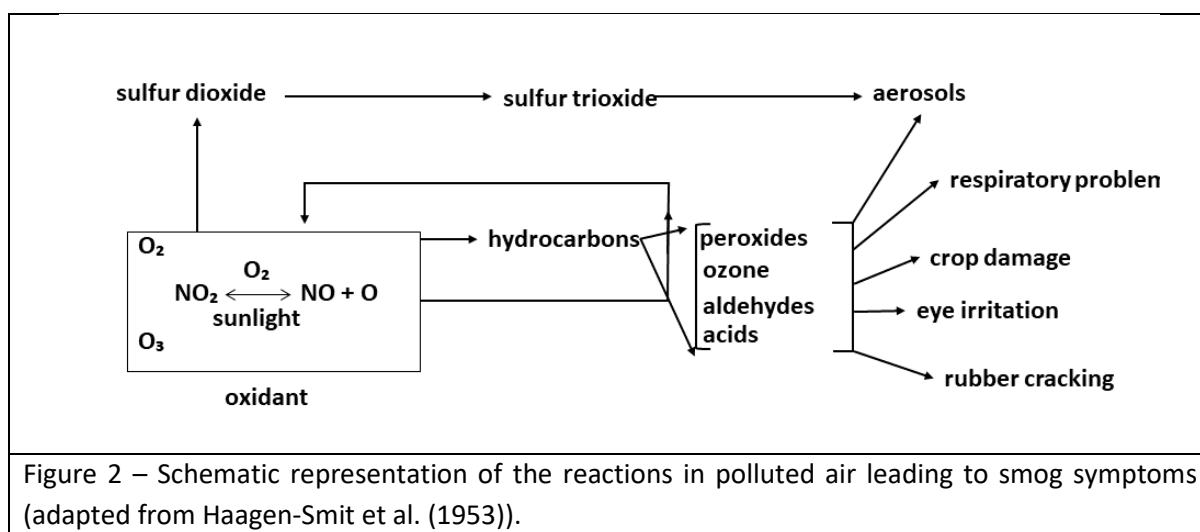


Figure 2 – Schematic representation of the reactions in polluted air leading to smog symptoms (adapted from Haagen-Smit et al. (1953)).

231

232 It has been claimed that “acid rain was one of the most important environmental issues during the
 233 last decades of the twentieth century” (Grennfelt et al., 2019) (see Table 2). One of the reasons is that
 234 acid rain first demonstrated that air quality was not merely a local issue but a regional issue and
 235 showed that the atmosphere has no definite boundaries (Fowler et al., 2020). Although the case of
 236 acid rain and its effects had been noted and reported by some earlier papers e.g., Odèn (1968), for
 237 some, it is the paper by Likens and Bormann (1974) that made this issue known to the science
 238 community at large. Other early papers (for example, from Urone and Schroeder (1969) and Penkett
 239 et al. (1979)) also recognized the vital role of liquid-phase oxidation of sulphur dioxide (SO_2) by
 240 oxidants such as hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and ozone (O_3). Current estimates suggest that roughly
 241 50% of the SO_2 oxidation in the lower troposphere occurs through liquid-phase reactions.

242 The story of lead in the atmosphere is a complex interplay between science, policy and economics
 243 (Monks and Williams, 2020), where observations in snow (Murozumi et al., 1969) underpinned the
 244 alarming growth and spread of lead pollution and latterly its demise (Boutron et al., 1991).

245 There is little doubt that one of the most impactful series of papers is that of the eponymous curve by
 246 Keeling (Keeling, 1960; Keeling et al., 1979; Pales and Keeling, 1965), showing the steady rise in carbon
 247 dioxide (CO_2) measured at Mauna Loa observatory (this work has continued uninterrupted by

248 NOAA/ESRL/CML over the past few decades). Keeling's work was built on the previously mentioned
249 work of Callendar (1938) who compared measurements of CO₂ at Kew, UK (1891-1901) with those in
250 the Eastern USA (1936-1938) and noted an increase in concentration. Although the gas in question is
251 CO₂, which is often seen only as climate gas, changes in its levels reflect the changing composition of
252 the atmosphere and the effects that it can have, and shows that the two subjects cannot be easily
253 separated. Furthermore, the increase in CO₂ is of central to ocean acidification, a topic not touched
254 upon here but nevertheless very important. The seminal paper by Ramanathan et al. (1985) that
255 highlighted the role of CH₄, chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) for climate
256 strengthened the case for the inclusion of chemistry in the climate issue. In many respects, this close-
257 coupling between atmospheric chemistry and climate change was brought to the forefront with the
258 1995 Nobel Prize being awarded to Paul Crutzen, Mario Molina and F. Sherwood Rowland "for their
259 work in atmospheric chemistry, particularly concerning the formation and decomposition on ozone"¹
260 (see *Stratospheric Chemistry* section) and, later, with the Nobel Prize to the IPCC.

261 The role of field campaigns, observations and the attendant models in shaping our understanding of
262 atmospheric chemistry should be recognised as foundational. In general, the adage that the
263 atmosphere is under-observed is still true. Every time a new instrument has been developed to detect
264 a new chemical in the atmosphere, there have been significant advances (Heard, 2006). One could
265 posit that the entire field of atmospheric science started because of detection and quantification of
266 oxygen and ozone in the Earth's atmosphere. Some recent major advances in our field has been
267 through field measurement. For example, observation of the ozone depletion (including the ozone
268 hole), aerosol particles, free radicals, and stable molecules (including ozone layer depleting
269 substances, CO and methane) fundamentally changed the course of the field. Organized systematic
270 probing of the atmosphere has been critical over the past four, or so, decades. Here again,
271 introduction of new instruments (optical, mass spectrometric, etc.) have been game-changing. It is
272 also important to note and highlight the enormous contributions of satellite observations to provide
273 global coverage. Often, as field campaigns and their impact are spread across many papers it is difficult
274 to pull out their specific contributions. Many of the early experiments, encompassing long-range
275 transport, biomass burning and aerosols, particularly using aircraft, have been detailed in (Melamed
276 et al., 2015). Assembling a large number of instruments on a large aircraft to simultaneously measure
277 an array of chemicals was pioneered by Davis (Davis, 1980) and has been a paradigm for field studies
278 ever since.

279 In addition to organized episodic field measurements, continual measurements of chemicals (often
280 called monitoring) has produced some of the most significant findings about the atmosphere. For
281 example, continual monitoring of surface ozone from Paris or similar stations going back over a
282 hundred years or more has shown the trends in tropospheric pollution due to human activities (Volz
283 and Kley, 1988). The continual monitoring of the Antarctic ozone led to the discovery of the ozone
284 hole. The continual monitoring of CO₂ is the poster-child for climate change! Much of this continual
285 monitoring has been carried out by national agencies and international partnerships. Examples include
286 the US National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Earth Systems Research Laboratory
287 (ESRL) Global Monitoring Laboratory's (GML) contributions (Montzka et al., 2007) and international
288 efforts, such as The Advanced Global Atmospheric Gases Experiment (AGAGE) network (Prinn et al.,
289 2001; Prinn et al., 1995), World Meteorological Organisation – Global Atmospheric Watch (WMO-

¹ <https://www.nobelprize.org/prizes/chemistry/1995/press-release/>

290 GAW) (WMO, 2017) and the Network for the Detection of Atmospheric Composition Change (NDACC)
291 (De Mazière et al., 2018).

292

293 2.2. Aerosols and Clouds

294 Aerosols in the atmosphere greatly influence both air quality and climate change; they are also a
295 significant media for composition change in the atmosphere. In this section we discuss three main
296 areas of research related to aerosols: (1) Understanding the mechanisms and atmospheric chemistry
297 processes that influence aerosol particle formation, nucleation, and growth, and how aerosols affect
298 composition; (2) The role of aerosols as cloud condensation nuclei and the influence that this process
299 has on climate; and (3) The impact of particulate matter on human health. These areas are, however,
300 related and there is not always a clear division. *Secondary Organic Aerosols (SOA)* and *Heterogeneous*
301 *and Multiphase Chemistry* are discussed in the corresponding sections (2.3 and 2.5).

302 The roots of modern aerosol science lie, as previously discussed (see the 2.1. *Foundations* section), in
303 the works of Aitken (1888) and Köhler (1936) on the cloud droplet. Twenty years after Köhler's
304 research, Junge (1955) provided the power-law describing aerosol particle number and identified the
305 stratospheric aerosol layer, now dubbed the 'Junge layer'. Junge concluded: "A real step forward in
306 the understanding of the basic processes in air chemistry can be gained only if aerosol particles and
307 gases are measured simultaneously but separately, and if the aerosol particles, in turn, are separated
308 according to size." This suggestion has been a clarion call for atmospheric scientists ever since.

309 Junge and Ryan (1958) attempted to elucidate the formation of particles from gas-phase reactants,
310 particularly SO₂ and ammonia (NH₃), while Fitzgerald (1974) investigated the variation in aerosol
311 particle composition with particle size. They showed that cloud droplet size distribution was
312 insensitive to the specific soluble constituents. Twomey (Twomey, 1977, 1974) suggested that air
313 pollution gives rise to the whitening of clouds and influences the planet's radiative balance. He also
314 indicated that there is a connection between pollution aerosols and cloud reflectance (albedo). This
315 concept is now often referred to as the "Twomey effect." Twomey (1977) expanded on the 1974 work,
316 exploring the balance between the scattering *versus* absorption effect on incoming solar radiation. It
317 is on this basis that much of the current research on the role of aerosols *via* their direct and indirect
318 effects on climate has been built. Bolin and Charlson (1976) estimated that anthropogenic sulphate
319 aerosol from the US and Europe would lead to a global temperature decrease of 0.03-0.06 °C. They
320 recognized early on that "we are already approaching the time when the magnitude of the indirect
321 effects of increasing use of fossil fuel may be comparable to the natural changes of the climate over
322 decades and centuries."

323 In the early 1970s, Whitby and Knutson developed an instrument to measure particle size distribution
324 in the nanometer to micrometer range (Knutson and Whitby, 1975) – the well-known aerosol particle
325 mobility analyser. They used the measurements from this instrument to introduce a new formulation
326 of the formation and growth of atmospheric aerosol particle size modes – the "Whitby diagram" which
327 is now a common text book figure and is shown in Figure 3. The outcomes of this work show the
328 importance and influence of the development of new instruments that probe the atmosphere.

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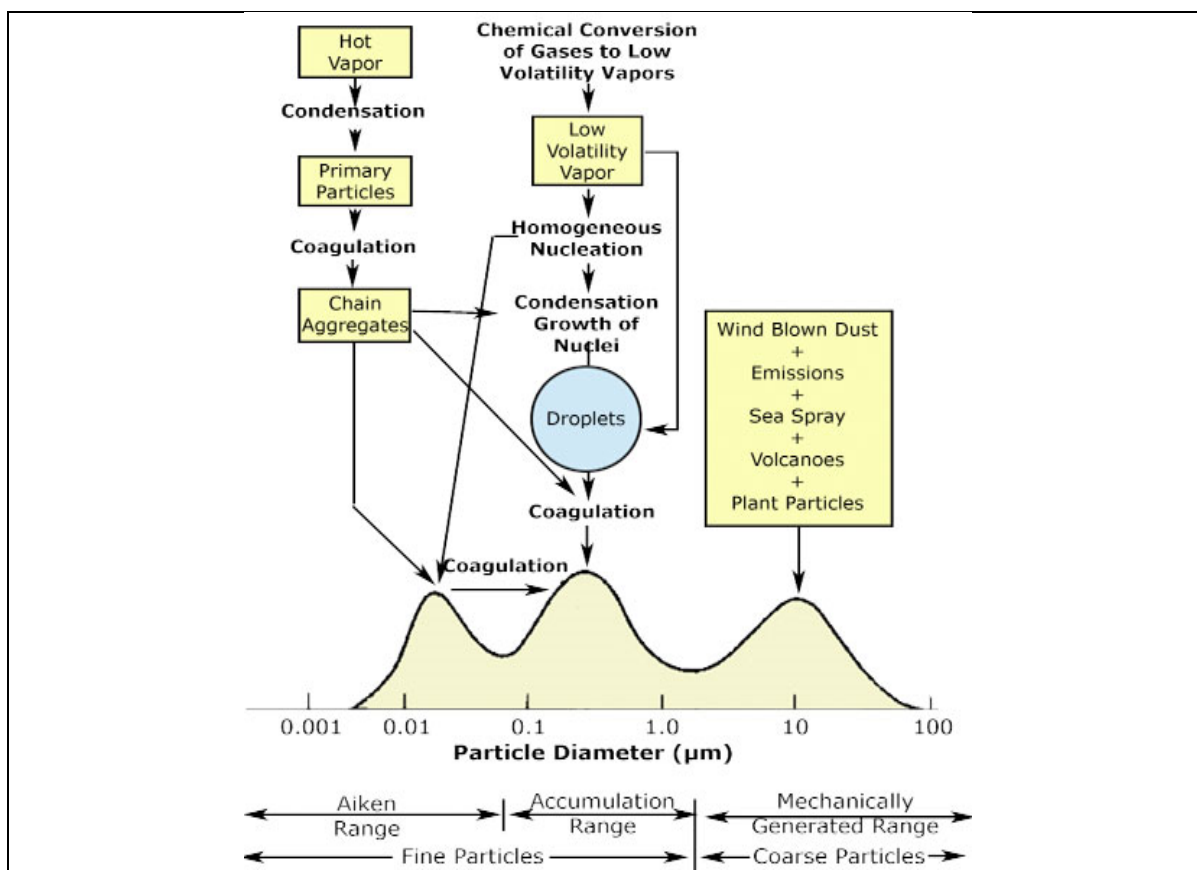


Figure 3 - Schematic of atmospheric aerosol particle size distribution showing the three modes, the main source of mass for each mode, and the principal processes involved in inserting mass to each mode along with the principal removal mechanisms (Whitby, 1978). (taken from <https://serc.carleton.edu/NAGTWorkshops/metacognition/largeclasses.html>, under CCC)

330

331 The CLAW hypothesis (the acronym taken from the surnames of the proposers Charlson, Lovelock,
 332 Andreae, and Warren) (Charlson et al., 1987) further connected aerosol science to gas-phase
 333 chemistry, specifically focused on the feedback loop between ocean ecosystems and Earth's climate.
 334 This hypothesis built on earlier work by Lovelock et al. (1972) on the oxidation of marine
 335 dimethylsulphide. Although the conclusions of Charlson et al. (1987) have been questioned (Quinn
 336 and Bates, 2011), this paper highlighted the interconnections within atmospheric sciences, and
 337 environmental sciences in general.

338 The work of Friedlander and co-workers (Stelson et al., 1979) further highlighted the role of liquid-
 339 phase chemistry leading to aerosol particles. A key milestone in our understanding of sulfate
 340 formation was the recognition that the reaction of the hydroxysulfonyl radical (HOSO₂) with oxygen
 341 (O₂) is exothermic (Calvert et al., 1978) and leads to gas-phase sulphur trioxide (SO₃), contrary to what
 342 was accepted at the time. Prior to this finding, there were major difficulties in understanding the
 343 formation of gas-phase sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄) (Davis et al., 1979) from gas-phase SO₂ oxidation, an
 344 essential step for the nucleation of new particles from the gas-phase in the atmosphere.

345 This area of research was further developed by Robbin and Damschen (1981) who investigated the
 346 role of peroxide in the liquid-phase in oxidising SO₂ which was key to understanding the phenomenon
 347 of acid rain. Graedel and Weschler (1981) reviewed the chemical transformations in atmospheric
 348 aerosol particles and raindrops and extended the idea of Martin and Damschen. Stelson and Seinfeld

349 (1982) evaluated the thermodynamics of ammonium, nitrate, and sulphate aerosols, which was a
350 significant step in understanding particle formation and growth. Pankow's 1994 work (Pankow, 1994b,
351 a) on the absorption model of gas/particle partitioning of organic compounds in the atmosphere is of
352 fundamental importance for models to calculate the amounts of particulate matter (PM) formed and
353 their growth in the urban and regional air, and in the global atmosphere.

354 Charlson et al. (Charlson et al., 1990; Charlson et al., 1991) produced the first global estimate of the
355 direct aerosol effect that subsequently had a large impact on climate modelling. The role that aerosols
356 have on cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and cloud albedo was also acknowledged, concluding that it
357 may be substantial. How substantial, however, was not quantified at that point because of a lack of
358 knowledge on the relationships involved. A few years later, Boucher and Lohmann (1995) provided an
359 estimate of the indirect effect of anthropogenic aerosols on climate. After many additional years of
360 study based on these foundations and analyses of radiative balance, the total radiative forcing by
361 anthropogenic aerosol is now estimated to be roughly -1.1 W/m^2 (IPCC, 2013), thereby solidifying the
362 importance of aerosols in climate change.

363 Building on the work of Whitby, Mäkelä et al. (1997) conducted continuous monitoring of particles at
364 a forest site in Finland. Beyond confirming the existence of three submicron particle size modes (the
365 nucleation, Aitken, and accumulation modes (see also Covert et al. (1996)), they also observed new
366 particle formation events. These events have been subsequently observed by others and are often
367 depicted in the literature using the famous "banana plots" (Figure 4).

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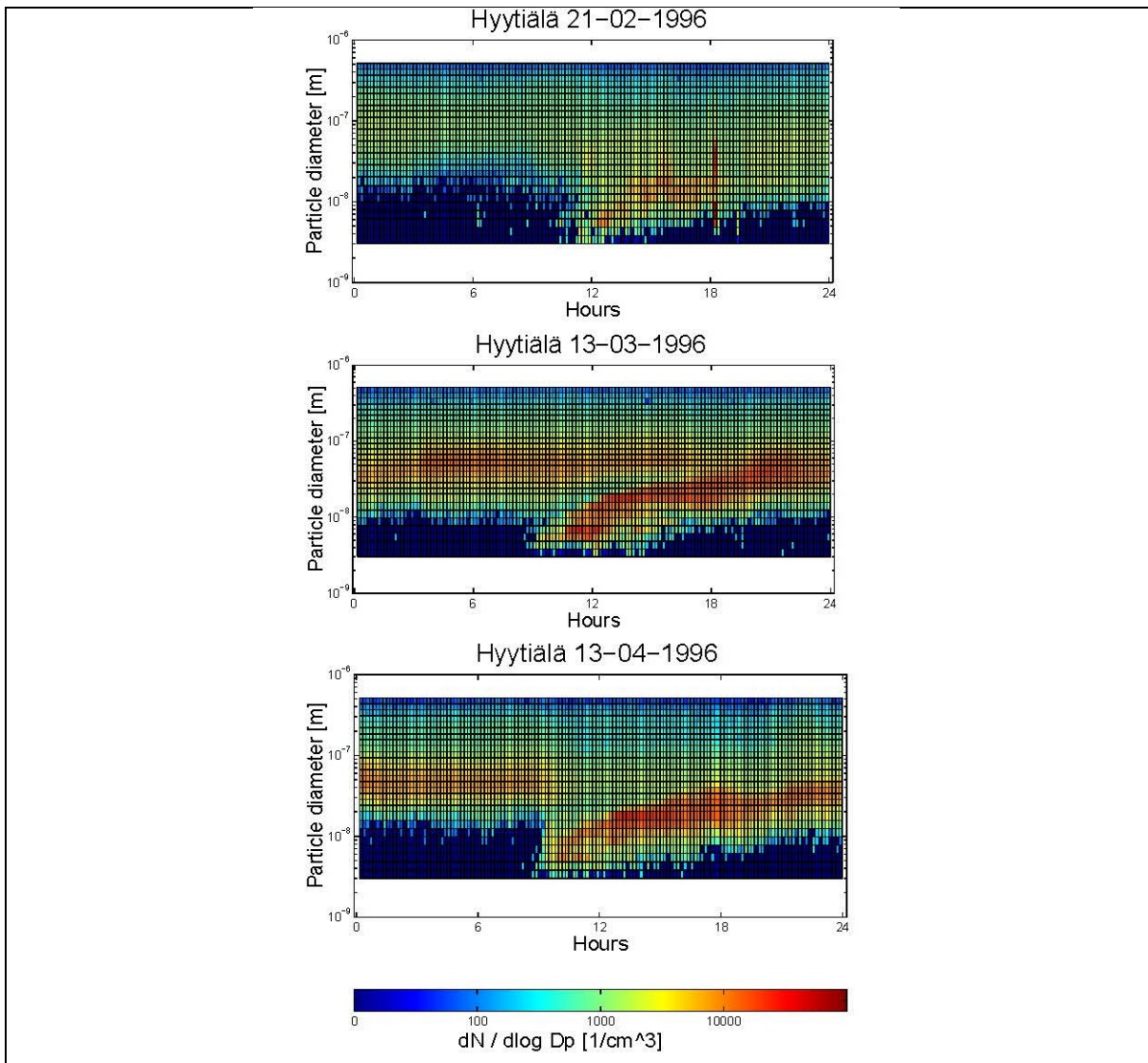


Figure 4 - Contour plots of particle formation event occurring in the morning, followed by a subsequent growing process of the nucleation mode during the afternoon. a) February 21st 1996, b) March 13th 1996 and c) April 13th 1996 (Mäkelä et al., 1997). Thought to be the origin of the “banana plot.”

369

370 There has been ample recognition for the research on process representations, such as the mole-
 371 fraction-based thermodynamic models (Clegg et al., 1998a, b) and one-parameter model for
 372 hygroscopic growth (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007) and CCN; Facchini et al. (1999) presented
 373 experimental work aimed at understanding the role of surface tension in droplet growth and the
 374 subsequent effect on cloud albedo and radiative forcing (RF), while Knipping et al. (2000) used a
 375 simplified experiment to investigate the role of reactions of gases with ions at the air-water interface.

376

377 More specifically, the role of organics in the formation and growth of aerosol particles has been a
 378 significant area of research (Kulmala et al., 2000). In addition to the natural hydrocarbons noted
 379 above, it has become clear that anthropogenic hydrocarbons such as aromatic compounds are also
 380 involved in new particle formation and their growth (Odum et al. (1997).

381

382 Jaenicke (2005) was the first to suggest, to the best of our knowledge, that biological particles are an
383 important fraction of atmospheric aerosol particles. This paper prompted the development of a new
384 and exciting field within atmospheric sciences. Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al. (2016) reviewed the role of
385 bioaerosols in health, climate and ecosystems.

386

387 2.3. Secondary Organic Aerosols

388 Since the mid-2000s, secondary organic aerosols (SOA) have been the focus of much research,
389 addressing their abundance, sources, and production pathways. One of the foundational works in this
390 area is the recognition of the role of natural and anthropogenic hydrocarbons, and in particular
391 isoprene chemistry in the formation of SOA (Claeys et al., 2004).

392

393 The chemical composition of SOA across the globe is still poorly understood (Zhang et al., 2007),
394 although ways to describe the growth of SOA have advanced significantly (Kalberer et al., 2004).
395 Donahue et al. (2006) developed an approach based on the volatility of organics, a concept termed
396 “volatility basis set.” This concept has been extended to a host of volatilities and their classifications.
397 For example, as shown in Figure 5, Robinson et al. (2007) postulated that a large amount of SOA mass
398 is unexplained by current models, and methods used to estimate SOA production do not capture what
399 is measured in the field.

400

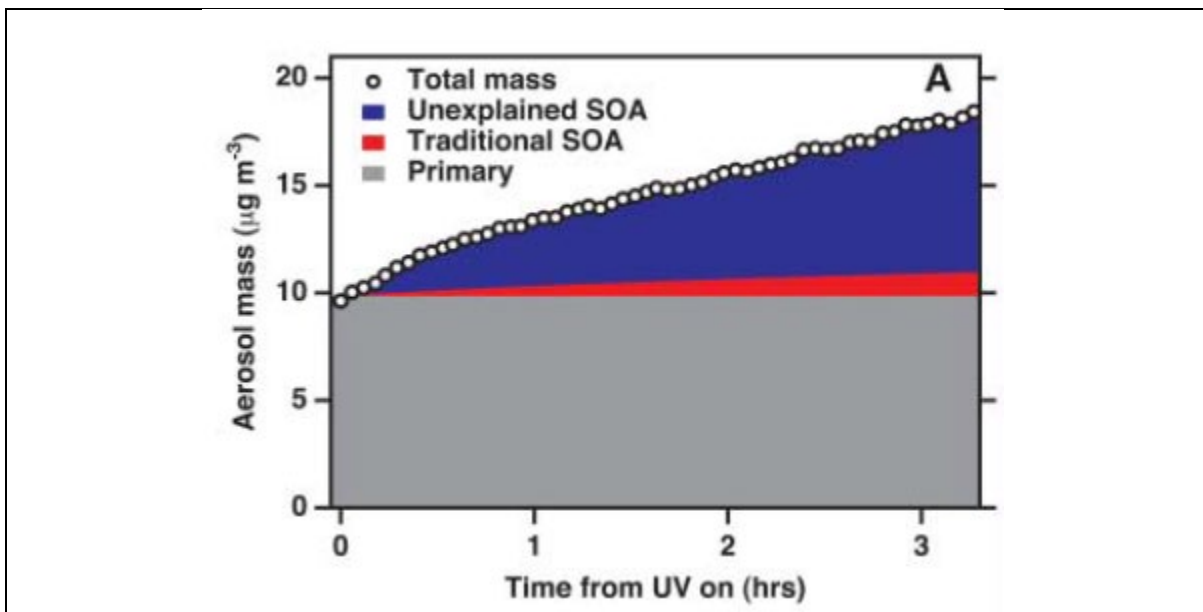


Figure 5 - Aerosol particle formation from the photochemical oxidation of diesel exhaust in an environmental chamber. The grey area indicates the primary aerosol particle (POA + other species). The red area shows the upper-bound estimate of the contribution of known SOA precursors to the suspended aerosol particle mass leaving behind a large fraction that is not accounted for (blue area) (Robinson et al., 2007).

401

402 The introduction of the aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) by Worsnop and colleagues (Canagaratna
403 et al., 2007) along with the pioneering instruments of Prather (Gard et al., 1997) and Murphy et al.

404 (2006) that built on the early work of Sinha (1984), have helped determine aerosol composition.
 405 Studies using these instruments have established that organic compounds are ubiquitous in aerosol
 406 particles. Zhang et al. (2007) and later Jimenez et al. (2009) explored the chemical composition of PM
 407 at different sites across a part of the globe (Figure 6), and their work has now been extended by a
 408 large number of groups.

409 Aimed at addressing some of the ‘missing urban SOA’ in models, Surratt et al. (2010) investigated SOA
 410 production from isoprene and Virtanen et al. (2010) showed the amorphous solid state of biogenic
 411 secondary organic aerosol particles, challenging the traditional views of the kinetics and
 412 thermodynamics of SOA formation and transformation, that assumed low viscosity, liquid-like,
 413 particles exchanged chemicals rapidly with the gas-phase.

414

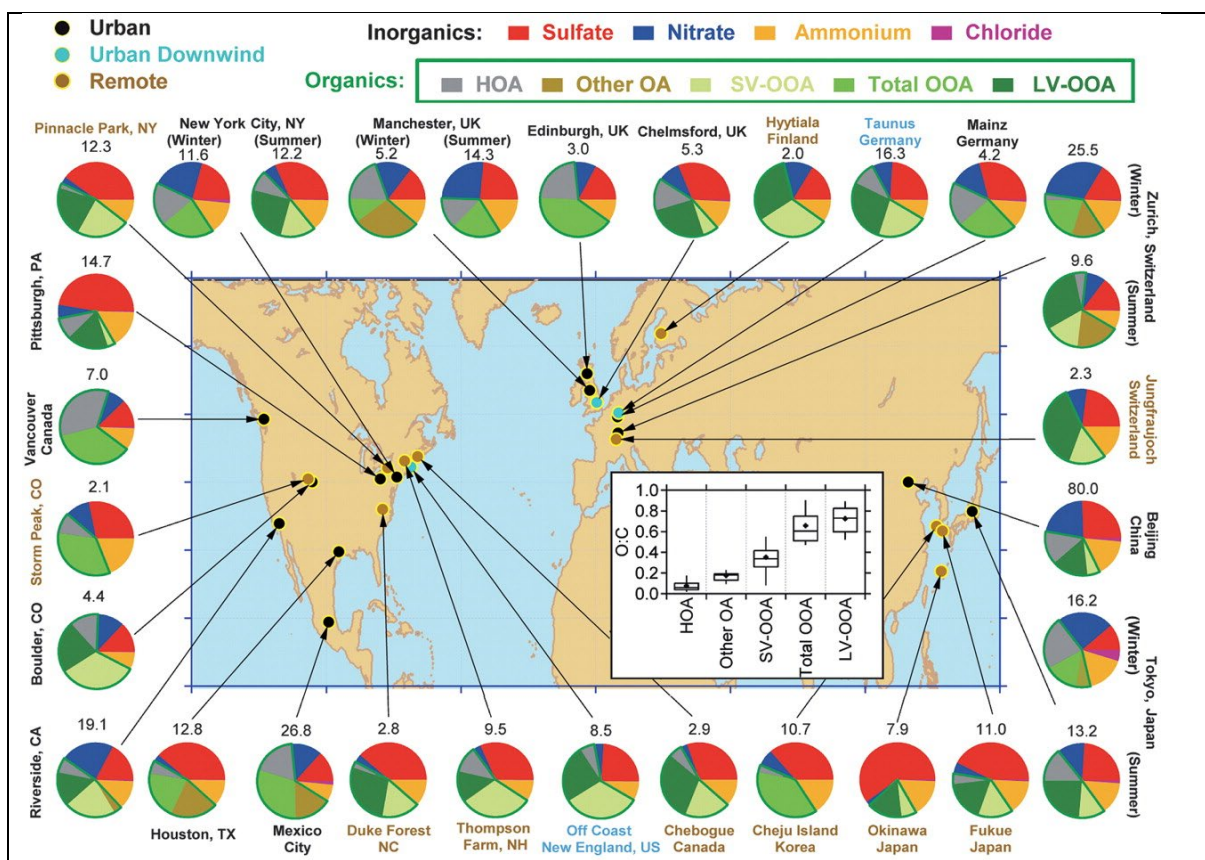


Figure 6 - Total mass concentration (in micrograms per cubic meter) and mass fractions of nonrefractory inorganic species and organic components in submicrometer aerosol particles measured with the AMS at multiple surface locations in the Northern Hemisphere at mid-latitudes. The organic components were obtained with FA-AMS methods (Zhang et al., 2007). In some studies, the FA-AMS methods identified one OOA factor, whereas in other locations, two types, SV-OOA and LV-OOA, were identified. HOA is a surrogate for urban primary OA, and Other OA includes primary OAs other than HOA that have been identified in several studies, including BBOA. Inset: distributions of O:C for the OA components identified at the different sites (Jimenez et al., 2009).

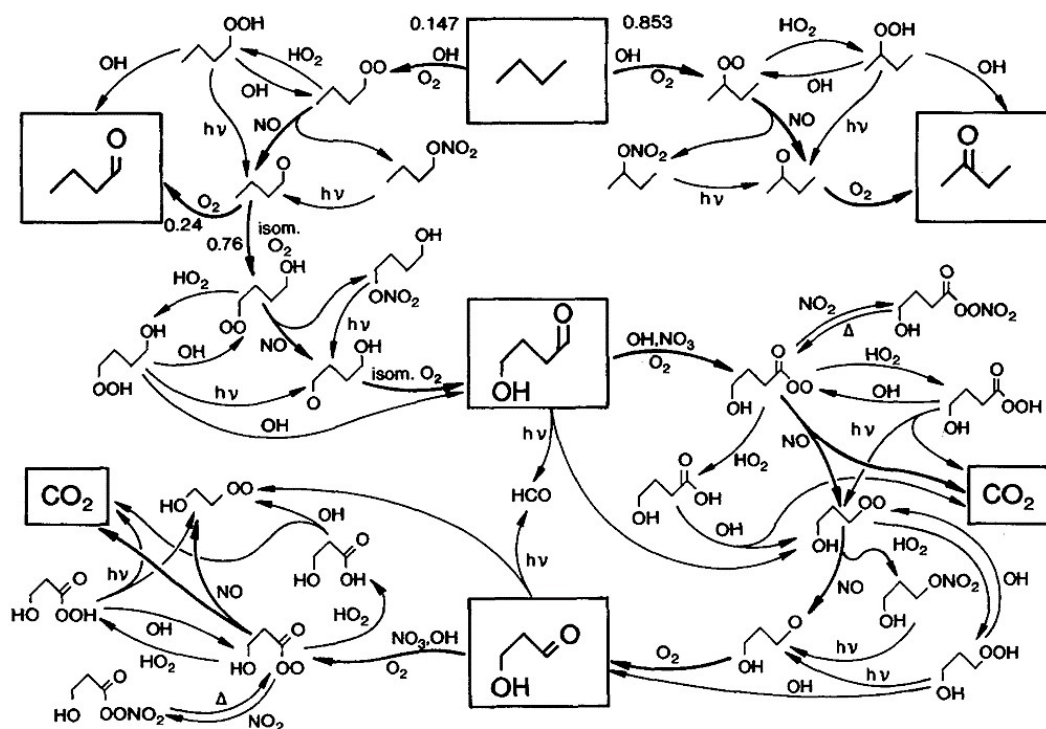
415

416 2.4. Chemical Kinetics, Laboratory Data and Chemical Mechanisms

417 Chemical kinetics is one of the foundations of atmospheric chemistry (Abbatt et al. (2014). This
418 includes a number of different areas: investigation of individual chemical reactions; theoretical
419 understanding of elementary reactions; evaluations and compilation of kinetics data; development
420 and compilation of chemical mechanisms for use in models (see the 2.6. *Chemical Models* section);
421 testing and simplification of the models for use in numerical models. Demerjian et al. (1974) is
422 considered by many in the community to be one of the cornerstones of chemical mechanism
423 development and it has been influential in a number of other research areas as well. This paper
424 provided an explicit chemical mechanism for the troposphere in which all the chemical reactions were
425 written as numerically integrated stoichiometric equations to predict photochemical ozone
426 production rates. Previously, all chemical mechanisms had been highly “reduced” (into simple
427 mechanisms) and/or parameterised, with non-stoichiometric equations. Using Demerjian’s approach,
428 many explicit atmospheric chemical mechanisms have been derived, including one of the most widely
429 used, the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM, Figure 7) (Jenkin et al., 1997; Jenkin et al.,
430 2003; Saunders et al., 2003). Currently, there are a variety of tropospheric chemistry mechanisms that
431 capture the scope of chemical reactions that are used in a number of models including the 1990 Carter
432 mechanism (Carter, 1990), the regional acid deposition model / regional atmospheric chemistry
433 mechanism (RADM/RACM) (Stockwell et al., 1997; Stockwell et al., 1990), SAPRC-07 (Carter, 2010) and
434 the Chemical Aqueous Phase Radical Mechanism (CAPRAM) (Ervens et al., 2003). One of the key
435 foundational techniques for estimating rate constants is that of structure-activity relationships (Kwok
436 and Atkinson, 1995). In the near future, calculations of rate coefficients based on ab-initio quantum
437 calculations will likely be common.

438 There is no doubt that the chemical kinetic data compilations have been the backbone of providing
439 much needed experimental data to all chemical mechanisms and models (see the 2.6. *Chemical*
440 *Models* section). The comprehensive reviews of Atkinson starting in the mid 80s (Atkinson (1986)) and
441 followed by many others, provided a consistent description of the reaction pathways of the alkyl,
442 peroxy and alkoxy radicals produced by the reactions of hydroxyl radicals with a wide range of organic
443 compounds. These papers led the way for the compilation of the IUPAC and NASA/JPL chemical kinetic
444 data evaluation of tropospheric reactions (Atkinson et al., 1989; Crowley et al., 2010; Atkinson et al.,
445 1992; Atkinson et al., 2004; Atkinson et al., 2006; DeMore et al., 1997; Burkholder et al., 2020). (Note
446 that compilation of kinetics data for stratospheric reactions dates back to mid-1970s (Hudson and
447 Reed, 1979)). These works have been the foundation for the development of all chemical mechanisms
448 and have led to the standardisation and improvement of condensed chemical mechanisms used in all
449 chemical models.

450



451

452 Figure 7. Oxidation mechanism of butane in the Master Chemical Mechanism (Jenkin et al., 1997).

453

454 The recognition of reactions with negative activation energies and the role of weakly bound adducts
 455 were other key steps in improving our understanding of chemical kinetics. When the adduct is strong,
 456 we term it an association reaction, which exhibits negative activation energies and pressure
 457 dependence. Understanding and representing these type of reactions in atmospheric chemistry has
 458 been a major step. In particular, the pioneering work of Troe and coworkers has enabled realistic and
 459 simpler representation of these reactions based on the Rice-Ramsperger-Kassel-Marcus (RRKM)
 460 theory (Troe, 1979, 1994).

461 Atmospheric chemistry is often termed atmospheric photochemistry since the initiator for many of
 462 the reactions is the production of free radicals, which are directly or indirectly the result of solar
 463 radiation. Over the decades, the representation of photochemical processes has been well
 464 established. A key element is the calculation of the "j-value" (i.e. the photolysis rate) for a
 465 photochemical process, which depends on radiative transfer to obtain the solar flux and laboratory
 466 measurements of absorption cross sections and quantum yields. The pioneering works on methods
 467 for quickly and accurately calculating j-values are those of Madronich and Flocke (1999) and of Prather
 468 and colleagues (Wild et al., 2000).

469 Moving towards individual reactions, the work of Howard and Evenson (1977) on the reaction
 470 between hydroperoxyl radical and nitric oxide, $\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO}$, has been recognised as a scrupulously
 471 careful study that overturned conventional wisdom on this key reaction in photochemical smog/ozone
 472 formation (and in stratospheric chemistry). The work of Vaghjiani and Ravishankara (1991)
 473 demonstrated the importance of operating at low $[\text{OH}]$ to reduce secondary reactions and extended
 474 measurements down to low and atmospherically relevant temperatures.

475 Three papers nearly a decade apart address the fundamental importance of robust laboratory
476 measurements to underpin model-led interpretation of experimental data. The seminal work
477 demonstrating the long-wavelength tail on the ozone photodissociation quantum yield (Ball et al.,
478 1993; Ravishankara et al., 1998) and the related work on the $O^1D + N_2/O_2$ reactions (Ravishankara et
479 al., 2002), identified key processes in the formation of OH radicals in the troposphere. Prompted by
480 the findings of Lelieveld et al. (2008) (see the 2.13. *Biogenic Emissions and Chemistry* section) and of
481 Hofzumahaus et al. (2009) (see the 2.9. *HO_x Chemistry* section), a pair of laboratory papers published
482 in 2009, about HO_x radical regeneration in the oxidation of isoprene (Peeters et al., 2009) and
483 unexpected epoxide formation in the gas-phase photooxidation of isoprene (Paulot et al., 2009) have
484 changed the way we understand the gas and aerosol products and impacts of isoprene chemistry
485 (Kleindienst, 2009). It is worth noting that Peeters et al. (2009), using theoretical electronic-structure
486 calculations, showed the major role of autoxidation chemistry (peroxy – hydroperoxy isomerization),
487 This work changed the traditional view of peroxy radical chemistry and introduced the ideas of
488 isomerization and more complex pathways to atmospheric chemistry.

489

490 2.5. *Heterogeneous and Multiphase Chemistry*

491 Earth's atmosphere contains various amounts of condensed matter suspended in air. The most visible
492 condensed matter is, of course, clouds. One can also see aerosols when the particle numbers and sizes
493 are large; examples include smog, wildfires, and volcanic eruptions. In addition to clouds, snow and
494 ice provide different mediums that can alter gas-phase chemistry.

495 Many chemical reactions occur on the surfaces of particles suspended in air, ice/snow on the ground,
496 and within liquid drops. In general, these processes catalyse reactions that would be very slow in the
497 gas-phase, such as those between closed-shell molecules, and/or can produce products that do not
498 form in the gas-phase. For these reasons, heterogeneous and multiphase reactions are of immense
499 interest, although the distinction between heterogeneous and multiphase chemistry is not always
500 clear cut (Ravishankara, 1997). Often "heterogeneous" is taken to mean reactions at surfaces and
501 "multiphase" to mean reactions involving the uptake of gases into (and reaction in) the liquid phase.

502 The unique contribution of reactions in/on condensed matter burst into the limelight owing to their
503 role in the depletion of stratospheric ozone (Solomon et al., 1986). However, such reactions had been
504 recognized to be important before the ozone hole research, for example in the oxidation of SO₂ (Urone
505 and Schroeder (1969) and Penkett et al. (1979)). Since the 1990s, the roles of heterogeneous and
506 multiphase reactions have been highlighted in many tropospheric processes, as noted here in various
507 sections (see for instance sections 2.1. *Foundations* and 2.4. *Chemical Kinetics, Laboratory Data and*
508 *Chemical Mechanisms*).

509 Chameides and Davis (1982) studied the free radical chemistry of cloud droplets and its impact upon
510 the composition of rain showing that the radical chemistry in water droplets could drive production
511 of peroxides, which have the ability to rapidly oxidise sulphur species – a strong link to acid rain. Work
512 of Akimoto et al. (1987) on the photoenhancement of nitrous acid formation in the surface reaction
513 of nitrogen dioxide and water vapour demonstrated the existence of an additional radical source in
514 smog chamber experiments. This built on the earlier work of Pitts et al. (1984) and challenged our
515 understanding of the role of such heterogeneous reactions in the atmosphere. The work of
516 Mozurkewich et al. (1987), Hanson et al. (1992) and subsequently Thornton and Abbatt (2005), on the

517 measurements of HO₂ uptake to aqueous aerosol particles was highly influential in the debate on the
518 aerosol loss of HO_x, a question that had vexed many modelling studies.

519 A pioneering paper in tropospheric cloud chemistry is the study by Jacob et al. (1986) in the San
520 Joaquin valley that used a multiphase measurements and modelling approach to study the formation
521 of acid fog. Two further papers have brought heterogeneous chemistry to the fore: Dentener et al.
522 (1996) in their original paper on the role of mineral aerosol as a reactive surface in the global
523 troposphere showed the potential role of mineral dust on sulphur oxides (SO_x), NO_y (NO_y includes
524 nitrogen oxide (NO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), as well as the compounds produced from the
525 oxidation of those) and O₃ chemistry, and Jacob (2000) who reviewed in more detail the chemistry of
526 ozone *via* HO_x and NO_y at the interface of gas phase and suspended particles (including clouds) and
527 led to a highly-cited series of recommendations for future studies.

528 Another similar area is that of chemical reactions on/in snow and ice. Such reactions were highlighted
529 by Barrie et al. (1988), specifically with regard to the production of halogens on the ice surface, and
530 hinting at the role of the cryosphere as a source of chemical species to the troposphere (see the 2.11
531 *Halogen Chemistry* section). Given the extent of the cryosphere and in particular of snow (Grannas et
532 al., 2007), findings in the late 1990s demonstrated its role in promoting heterogeneous and
533 multiphase reactions as a significant source of unusual and unexpected chemical species to the
534 atmosphere. One of the most nominated works in this area was that by Honrath et al. (1999)
535 investigating NO_x production from the illuminated snowpack. Pioneering work of Davis et al. (2001)
536 on the unexpected production of NO_x in pristine Antarctica is also worthy of note.

537

538 2.6. Chemical Models

539 Up front, we want to acknowledge that we are not doing full justice to the important role played by
540 chemical models in the understanding of and developing tropospheric chemistry, informing
541 policymaking, and deciphering field observations. We do, however, note some of the key
542 developments in modelling, which is the way we couple atmospheric motion with chemical processes.

543 Chemical models are the conduit to represent our knowledge of the chemical and physical processes
544 in the atmosphere within a mathematical (numerical) framework that allows prediction and testing
545 against observations (in the laboratory and the atmosphere). Therefore, models are the tools upon
546 which atmospheric environmental policies are developed. Indeed, the efforts in modelling are vast
547 and they are pivotal tool of tropospheric chemistry. Policies pertaining to climate, air quality, acid
548 precipitation, etc. are based on such model predictions and projections. Further, models have been
549 the tool that have enabled quantification of emissions (the quantity of most interest to policymakers),
550 identification of the sources, and evaluation of impacts. One could argue that our knowledge would
551 be incomplete without models.

552 Early, simple chemical models (with no chemical transport) were useful tools to elucidate and test the
553 basic theory of photochemical ozone formation (Levy, 1971). The recognition that one cannot treat
554 the chemical transformation without considering atmospheric transport and mixing came early. The
555 original simple 1-D models, often designed with a parameterized vertical transport in terms of an
556 "Eddy Diffusion" concept, were superseded by 2-dimensional models and have now been largely
557 replaced by complex 3-D models. 2-D models of the stratosphere (which are zonal averages with

558 latitude and height being the variable dimensions) have been extremely useful and are still used in
559 assessment activities. (See for example, Garcia and Solomon (1983) and Fleming et al. (1999)). The
560 NASA conference publication 3042 (Jackman et al., 1989) provides an excellent review of sixteen 2-D
561 and a few 3-D stratospheric models that were used in the 1980s and 1990s. Also, chemical transport
562 models (CTMs), which use analysed winds, are often used to separate transport from chemistry. Such
563 models are extremely powerful in accounting for observations, atmospheric budget calculations, and
564 deciphering the roles of various chemical processes taking place in the atmosphere. However,
565 projections and predictions in a changing climate requires coupling of chemistry to meteorological
566 prediction models. Now, free-running, on-line 3-D models, which include chemistry, have been
567 implemented, and the continued enhancements in computing capabilities have greatly improved our
568 modelling capabilities. Logan and co-authors are recognised by many contributors as providing the
569 basic model description of global tropospheric chemistry (Logan et al., 1981). Bey et al. (2001) first
570 described GEOS-Chem, a global, three-dimensional, tropospheric, chemical transport model. Though
571 not the only global tropospheric model, as an open-source model with a large user community and
572 flexibility, it has become a very influential global model. In recent years the Weather Research and
573 Forecasting (WRF)-Chem model has also been used extensively (Grell et al., 2005). There are now
574 numerous 3-D models developed by various organizations. We refer readers to two excellent articles
575 that describe the role of models and their development in detail (Brasseur (2020) and Zhang (2008)).
576 Inverse modelling especially for source and sink attribution has been shown to be a powerful tool
577 (Hein et al., 1997).

578 In addition to the global models, regional and air-shed models were critical for air quality predictions
579 and are still employed for regulatory use. A series of three papers from the Seinfeld group (Reynolds
580 et al., 1973; Reynolds et al., 1974; Roth et al., 1974) provided the earliest complete descriptions of an
581 air quality policy model. They linked together emission inventories, meteorological data, chemical
582 mechanisms, and air quality network data to evaluate model performance. All subsequent air quality
583 policy models have followed the same general approach and their basic formulation.

584 Another major use of models is to interpret large scale field measurements. One of the earliest
585 detailed tropospheric chemical modelling studies that integrated highly instrumented intensive field
586 campaign data was that of Harriss (1988) for the ABLE 2A (Amazon Boundary Layer Experiment)
587 campaign in the Amazon Boundary Layer. Now use of multiple models to interpret field data is a
588 common feature of modern tropospheric chemistry research.

589 Multi-model ensembles of the troposphere as epitomised by Stevenson et al. (2006) and Fiore et al.
590 (2009) (see the 2.16. *Chemical Transport* section) are a powerful tool for generalising the model
591 “understanding” of the atmosphere. This modelling approach makes use of many different models to
592 achieve a more accurate representation of the observations than would be possible by using only one
593 model, thus producing more reliable outcomes for assessments and policies on a global scale. In
594 addition, multiple runs of the same models with slightly different initial conditions are used to examine
595 the range of outcomes. This approach is akin to the use of multiple models and model runs in weather
596 predictions.

597

598 *2.7. Tropospheric Ozone*

599 Ozone is one of the central molecules of atmospheric chemistry and runs through much of the
600 foundations of the discipline, from its role in the stratosphere as a UV shield, to its role as a major
601 greenhouse gas, to its pivotal part in the troposphere as the start and end-product of oxidation
602 chemistry, and its detrimental influence as an air pollutant harmful to human health and ecosystems.
603 Much of the early thinking on ozone was focused on the question of whether tropospheric ozone was
604 a small subset of stratospheric ozone, see for example Galbally (1968) and Fabian and Pruchniewicz
605 (1977). The latter paper showed the value of observational networks based on standardised
606 instrumentation and calibration techniques, together with consistent siting criteria, and raised the
607 issue of seasonal variations in tropospheric ozone and the nature of the processes that drive them.
608 The vertical structure of a layer of high O₃ concentrations in the stratosphere, where O₂ could be
609 directly photolyzed to make oxygen atoms and hence ozone, and declining concentration in the
610 troposphere was indicative of a stratospheric source and a tropospheric sink and this was the
611 prevalent theory prior to the late 1970s (see also the 2.18. *Stratospheric Chemistry* section). A major
612 breakthrough were the two papers by Chameides and Walker, and Crutzen (Chameides and Walker,
613 1973;Crutzen, 1973b) that showed that ozone can be photochemically generated in the troposphere,
614 just like it is made in smog *via* the reactions involving hydrocarbons and nitrogen oxides.

615
616 The importance of ozone as a radiative gas has been known for a long time, with a significant fraction
617 of heating in the stratosphere coming from ozone photolysis followed by its reformation and thus
618 converting sunlight to heat. In 1979, Fishman et al. (Fishman et al., 1979) identified that tropospheric
619 ozone is also a greenhouse gas. Hence, a change in tropospheric ozone will perturb the radiative
620 energy budget of the Earth-atmosphere system which will in turn perturb the climate system. Ozone
621 thus became the second trace gas after carbon dioxide to be implicated in global warming and climate
622 change.

623
624 Large scale mapping of global tropospheric ozone was first undertaken by Logan (Logan, 1985) who
625 looked at seasonal behaviour and trends with a view to understanding anthropogenic influence. This
626 was later complemented by a paper exploring the photochemical origins of tropospheric, rather than
627 stratospheric, ozone in the rural United States (Logan, 1989). As the understanding of the
628 photochemistry of ozone developed, measurements at Niwot Ridge, Colorado (Liu, 1987) aimed to
629 quantify the elements of the ozone budget by season, bringing forward the concept of ozone
630 production efficiency. Lin et al. (1988) explored the non-linearity of tropospheric ozone production
631 with respect to NMHCs and NO_x. Though this chemistry had been outlined much earlier – e.g.
632 Demerjian et al. (1974) – this work explored it in the background atmosphere with models and
633 measurements. A powerful demonstration of the low-NO_x ozone destruction chemistry came from
634 measurements made at Cape Grim, Australia, a background station, where Ayers and Penkett (Ayers
635 et al., 1992) and their team(s) used measurements of ozone and peroxides (Figure 8) to show further
636 experimental proof for the photochemical control of ozone in remote locations.

637

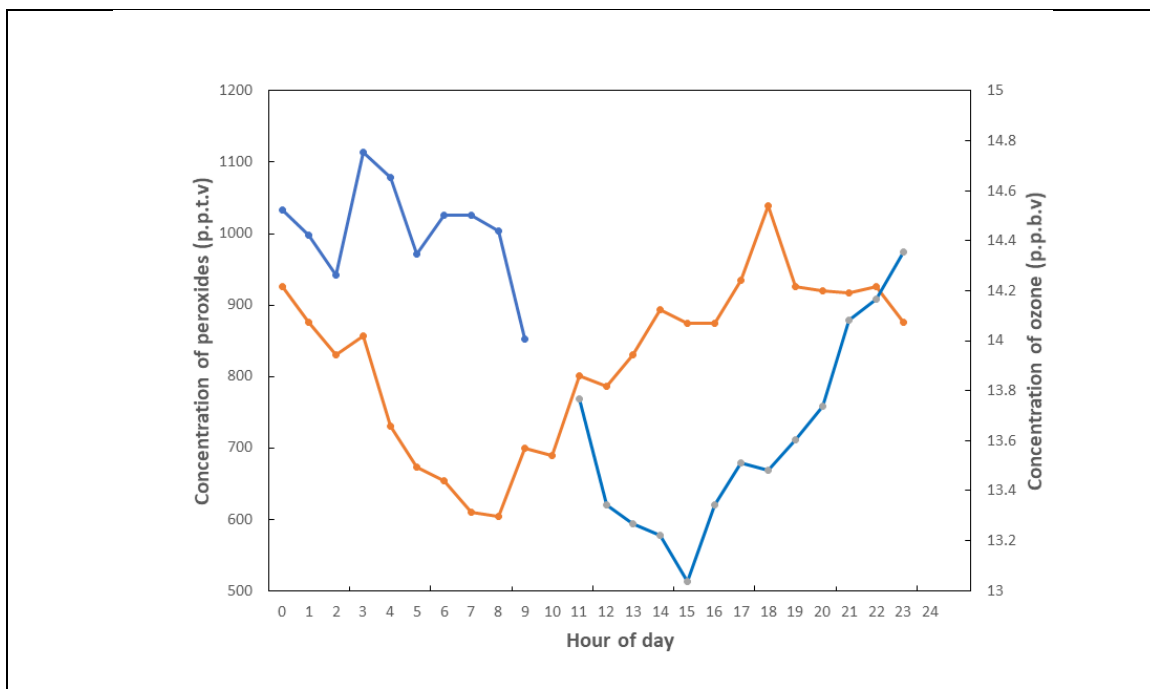
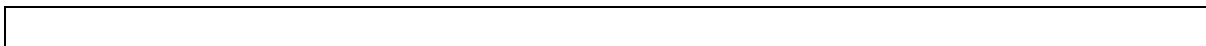


Figure 8 – Average diurnal cycles of peroxide (orange line) and ozone (blue line) in baseline (low NO_x) air at Cape Grim (Tasmania, Australia) in January 1992. Adapted from Ayers et al. (1992).

638

639 Measurements have always been a critical driver in tropospheric chemistry, and the idea to use in-
 640 service commercial aircraft as a platform for programs such as MOZAIC/IAGOS (Thouret et al., 1998)
 641 has been recognised for the enormous amount of high quality data, which would otherwise be difficult
 642 to regularly obtain from the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere. Using such measurements
 643 Newell et al. (1999) combined dynamical and chemical tracers to further delineate ozone origin and
 644 budgets. In the same year, Logan published a synthesis of ozone sonde data (Logan, 1999) which gave
 645 an unprecedented look at the seasonal and vertical distribution of ozone and became a reference
 646 point for the subject. A year later, Thompson et al. (2000) used a combination of shipboard and
 647 satellite views of a tropospheric ozone maximum to suggest the occurrence of a tropical Atlantic ozone
 648 “paradox”. The “Atlantic paradox” refers to a greater tropospheric ozone column amount over the
 649 South Atlantic than the North Atlantic during the West African biomass burning season. This
 650 phenomena was further explored using an expanded network of ozonesondes in the southern
 651 hemisphere (SHADOZ) (Thompson et al., 2003). In combination with the earlier work of Logan, these
 652 became the basis for the measurement-based description of ozone in the troposphere.

653 A decades worth of knowledge on the relationship between ozone and its precursors was pulled
 654 together by Sillman (Sillman, 1999), cementing the concepts of NO_x- and VOC-sensitive (or NO_x
 655 saturated) chemical regimes. The paper introduced a generation of researchers to isopleth diagrams
 656 (the famous Sillman plot Figure 9) and ozone production efficiencies (OPEs).



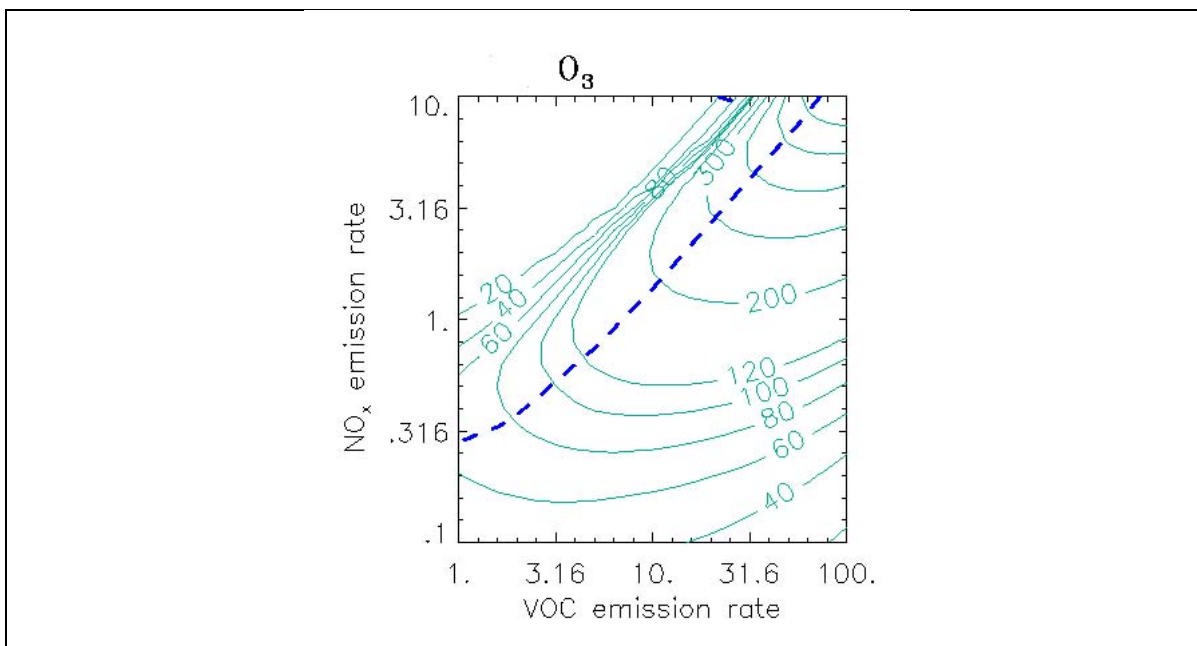


Figure 9 - . Ozone isopleths (ppb) as a function of the average emission rate for NO_x and VOC (in 10^{12} molec. $\text{cm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$) in 0-D calculations. The isopleths (solid green lines) represent conditions during the afternoon following 3-day calculations with a constant emission rate, at the hour corresponding to maximum O_3 . The short blue dashed line represents the transition from VOC-sensitive to NO_x -sensitive conditions. Adapted from Sillman and He (2002).

657

658 The power of models to explore global tropospheric ozone distributions, budgets and radiative forcing
 659 was fully demonstrated in the study by Stevenson et al. (2006), that brought together 26 atmospheric
 660 chemistry models to explore both the air quality and the climate roles of ozone (see also the 2.6.
 661 *Chemical Models* section). As discussed in the 2.16. *Chemical Transport* section, a similar approach
 662 was used by Fiore et al. (2009) to explore the relationship between inter-continental transport and
 663 ozone.

664

665 2.8. Nitrogen Chemistry

666 Nitrogen oxides are an integral part of tropospheric processes. Nitrogen oxides are released into the
 667 troposphere from a variety of biogenic and anthropogenic sources including fossil-fuel combustion,
 668 biomass burning, microbial activity in soils and lightning. The concept of the Leighton photostationary
 669 state (Leighton, 1961) between NO , NO_2 , and O_3 was well established by the mid-1990s, and early
 670 work from Singh and Hanst (1981) highlighted the potential role of peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) to be a
 671 reservoir for NO_x in the unpolluted atmosphere. The measurement of NO/NO_2 by chemiluminescence
 672 was critical to the widespread measurement of NO_x (Kley and McFarland, 1980). A landmark paper
 673 in the area of nitrogen chemistry was that of Logan (1983) that brought together global and regional
 674 budgets for the nitrogen oxides (Table 3). Later, a paper that focused more narrowly on a specific
 675 source of NO_x was that of Yienger and Levy II (1995) who produced an empirical model of global soil-
 676 biogenic NO_x emissions. Higher up in the atmosphere, the work on sources and chemistry of NO_x by
 677 Jaeglé et al. (1998) is recognised for its contribution to the understanding of the NO_x cycle in the upper
 678 troposphere.

679 HONO, somewhat a Cinderella molecule, whose photolysis can be a major OH source, especially during
680 the early morning was first identified by Perner and Platt (1979), the heterogeneous nature of which
681 has always driven much interest (Kurtenbach et al., 2001).

682 These works were complemented by a more holistic view of the nitrogen cycle and in particular the
683 concept of reactive nitrogen (Nr) by Galloway et al. (2004) that clearly showed the linkages between
684 the terrestrial ecosystem and the atmosphere and how the nitrogen budget had and would change
685 leading to the important concept of nitrogen cascade (Sutton et al., 2011). In more recent times,
686 extensive work on vehicle NO_x sources from exhaust remote sensing data (Bishop and Stedman,
687 1996), as epitomised in Carslaw (2005) should be highlighted. This paper pointed out the trends that
688 can be said to have led to the denouement of the Volkswagen emissions scandal.

689

690 *2.9. HO_x Chemistry*

691 There is no doubt that the chemistry of OH and HO₂ (known together as HO_x) has a central role in the
692 atmosphere as well as holding a certain fascination to atmospheric scientists owing to the significant
693 challenges involved in measurement and understanding its impact locally to globally. Much of the
694 history of the measurements of OH and HO₂ is covered in the review of Heard and Pilling (2003). As
695 they wrote “clearly, OH plays a central role in tropospheric chemistry. The in situ measurement of its
696 concentration has long been a goal, but its short lifetime and consequently low concentration provide
697 a serious challenge.”

698 In order to assess the global impact of OH chemistry in the absence of direct measurements, reactive
699 proxies have been used. Singh (1977) used methyl chloroform to estimate OH abundance since methyl
700 chloroform is exclusively anthropogenic and were emissions are known. This type of work provided a
701 comprehensive picture of the global distribution of OH and, hence, a first overall look at the oxidative
702 capacity of the atmosphere. It was followed, using halocarbon measurements by the AGAGE network,
703 by a global OH determination, while also introducing the atmospheric chemistry community to formal
704 inverse modelling (Prinn et al., 1995). Spivakovsky and co-workers expanded on this work to derive 3-
705 D distributions of OH and used this information to assess the wider impact on the lifetimes of
706 halocarbons, which have implications for stratospheric ozone (Spivakovsky et al., 2000). Thanks to the
707 availability of long term observations of halocarbons from the AGAGE and NOAA networks, later work
708 using a similar approach found evidence for substantial variations of atmospheric hydroxyl radicals in
709 the previous two decades (Prinn et al., 2001), thus providing a broad overview not only of the global
710 distribution but also of the temporal variability of this crucial species. Such estimates allowed for the
711 quantification of the lifetime of important chemicals such as methane and CFC-substitutes such as the
712 hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) and hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs).

713 The in-situ OH detection in the troposphere has proven elusive for a long time. The use of laser-
714 induced fluorescence provided some of the first clues to its atmosphere concentrations in the 1970s
715 and early 1980s (Davis et al., 1976; Wang et al., 1975), but many of these early measurements were
716 found to have significant artefacts. Long-path UV absorption in Germany showed the OH abundances
717 in German boundary layer to be around $1-4 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ (Perner et al., 1976b). The study by Eisele (1994)
718 at the Fritz Peak Observatory in Colorado, was the first intercomparison experiment of different
719 measurement techniques and provided much needed confidence in the observations of this key
720 molecule. Stevens et al. (1994) developed the low-pressure laser-induced-fluorescence (LIF)

721 instrument, which quickly became one of the most successful and widely used techniques for ambient
 722 measurements of OH and HO₂. As ambient observations of HO_x became available, they were found
 723 useful to test our understanding of tropospheric chemical processes, by comparing them with the
 724 results of chemical models (see the 2.6. *Chemical Models* section). Recognised as a foundational paper
 725 in this area, Ehhalt (1999) explained with clarity the role of radicals in tropospheric oxidation and what
 726 controls their concentrations, using both ambient measurements and calculated concentrations of
 727 OH. The OH radical is particularly suited to test our understanding of chemical processes and this was
 728 clearly demonstrated in 2009, when the discrepancies between observed and calculated OH and HO₂
 729 in the polluted region of Southern China led Hofzumahaus and co-workers to propose a regeneration
 730 pathway for OH, which does not involve NO_x and thus does not produce O₃ (Hofzumahaus et al., 2009).
 731 This, together with the work by Lelieveld and co-workers (Lelieveld et al. 2008), prompted a major
 732 reassessment of the isoprene oxidation mechanism by Peeters et al. (2009) who suggested that
 733 isomerisation of hydroxyperoxy radicals from isoprene oxidation could be fast enough to regenerate
 734 HO_x in highly forested, low NO_x environments (see the 2.4. *Chemical Kinetics, Laboratory Data and*
 735 *Chemical Mechanisms* section) and led to a major revision of isoprene chemistry and its role in the
 736 troposphere (see the 2.13. *Biogenic Emissions and Chemistry* section).

737 The sources and sinks of HO_x radicals have always been a major research focus (Finlayson and Pitts,
 738 1976) and the work of Paulson and Orlando (1996) on the reactions of ozone with alkenes as a source
 739 of HO_x in the boundary layer is widely recognised. Radical chemistry is highly sensitive to the levels of
 740 NO and NO₂ and Kleinman's modelling work on hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) concentrations in the
 741 boundary layer is recognised for its simple elegance in describing how the HO_x cycle chemistry is
 742 influenced by NO_x and in giving insight into the differing fates of OH and HO₂ radicals under different
 743 NO_x regimes (Kleinman, 1991) (Figure 10).

744

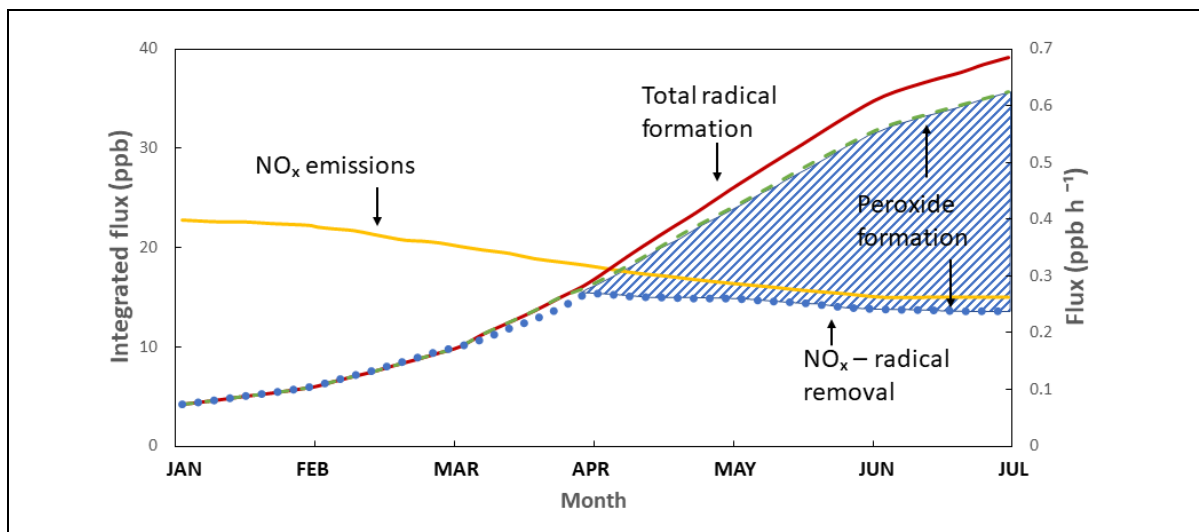


Figure 10 – Calculated seasonal variation of major radical loss processes after Kleinman (1991) showing the seasonal nature of peroxide production and its dependency on NO_x and radical formation.

745

746 The first direct measurements of OH lifetime (Di Carlo et al., 2004) provided evidence of missing
 747 reactivity, i.e., that not all sinks of the OH radical are known, which relates to earlier work by Lewis et

748 al. (2000) on unmeasured volatile organic compounds (see the 2.12. *Volatile Organic Compounds*
749 section).

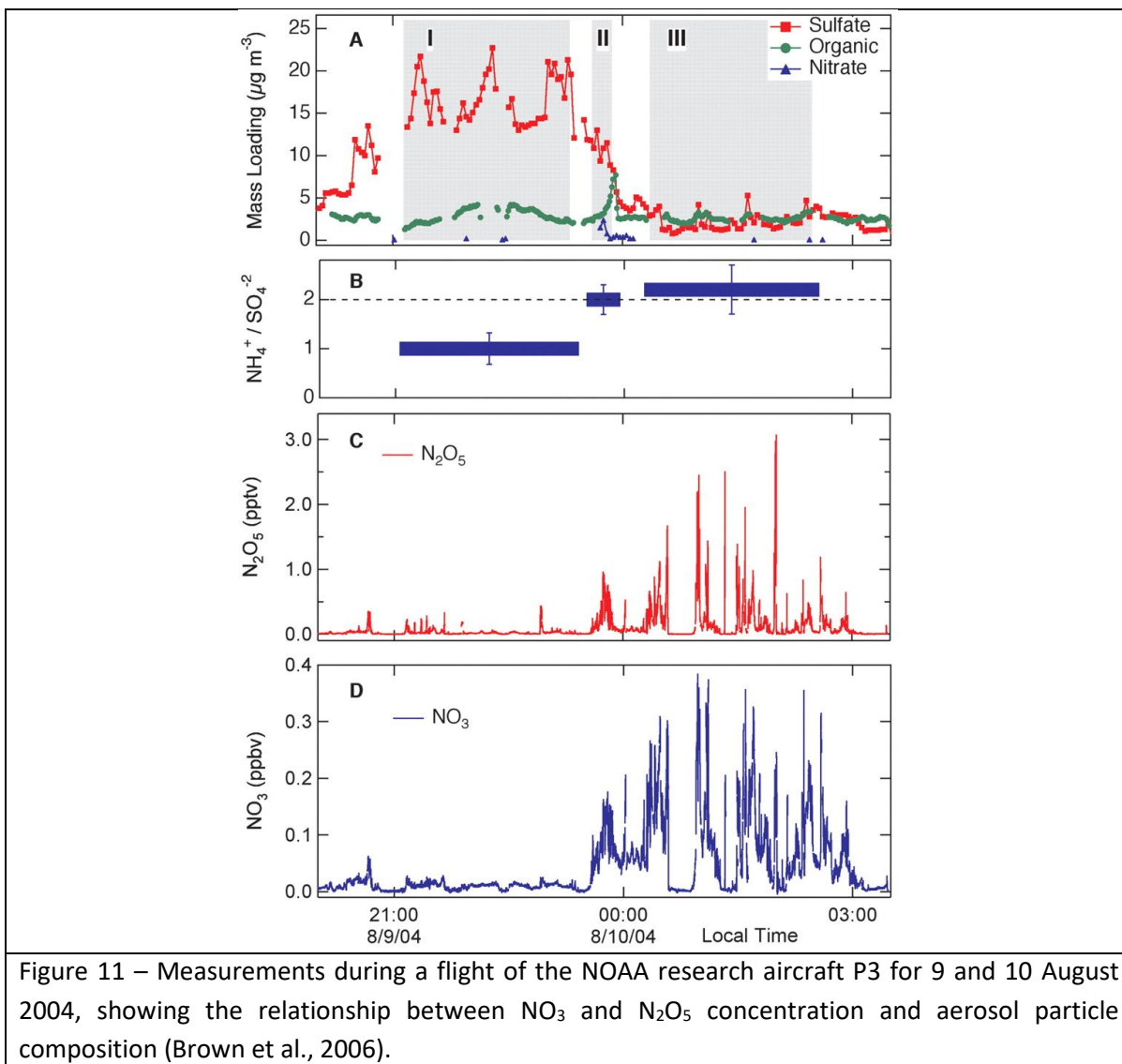
750

751 2.10. *Nighttime Chemistry*

752 There is widespread recognition that the atmosphere's oxidative chemistry is active during the night
753 as well as during the day. Evidence of nighttime chemistry driven by the nitrate radical (NO_3) and
754 ozone was first observed in the (polluted) troposphere in 1980 by Platt and co-workers (Platt et al.,
755 1980). Much of the early NO_3 work, including laboratory and field studies, is summarised in Wayne's
756 seminal review (Wayne et al., 1991). Platt and colleagues and Plane and colleagues' ground-breaking
757 work based on long-path absorption have shown the importance of NO_3 in the troposphere (Allan et
758 al., 1999; Platt et al., 1979).

759 Two papers that have been highly influential in shaping our view of nocturnal chemistry are “Nitrogen
760 oxides in the nocturnal boundary layer: Simultaneous in situ measurements of NO_3 ” (Brown et al.,
761 2003) and “Variability in Nocturnal Nitrogen Oxide Processing and Its Role in Regional Air Quality”
762 (Brown et al., 2006). Both these papers showed the power of state of the art measurements coupled
763 with models to assess the impact of nocturnal and heterogeneous chemistry on regional air quality.
764 In particular, the paper by Brown et al. (2006) was a powerful demonstration of the role of
765 heterogeneous chemistry and aerosol particle composition in controlling dinitrogen pentoxide (N_2O_5)
766 and, therefore NO_3 , concentrations (Figure 11).

767



768

769 The area of NO_3 chemistry is very active and there have been significant further studies since Brown
 770 et al. work. Another area of particular note for nighttime processes are those due to the Criegee
 771 intermediate. The role of Criegee intermediates have been known for a while. However, recent ability
 772 to isolate and measure the reactivity of this intermediate is showing the importance of this radical.

773

774 2.11. Halogen Chemistry

775 In comparison to the atmospheric chemistry in the stratosphere, where halogen chemistry has been
 776 well known and characterized for a long time (see the 2.18. *Stratospheric Chemistry* section), the
 777 recognition of the role of halogen species in the oxidative chemistry of the troposphere occurred much
 778 later. Reviews of the earlier work can be found in Cicerone (1981), Platt and Hönninger (2003), Monks
 779 (2005) and the extensive review by von Glasow and Crutzen (von Glasow and Crutzen, 2007).

780 The role of halogens in the troposphere has been discussed going back to the 1970s (e.g. (Graedel,
 781 1979)). The potential importance of iodine in the troposphere was highlighted by a seminal paper by
 782 Chameides and Davis in 1980 (Chameides and Davis, 1980). An important early paper is that from

783 Barrie in 1988 (Barrie et al., 1988) that demonstrated the dramatic impact of bromine chemistry on
784 Arctic boundary layer ozone (Figure 12). The occurrence of ozone depletion events in the polar
785 boundary layer suggested that halogens could have a significant impact on atmospheric chemistry at
786 low altitudes and not just in the stratosphere. This work brought together halogen and heterogeneous
787 chemistry and led to the discovery of bromine catalyzed ozone depletion on ice-covered surfaces (see
788 2.5. *Heterogeneous and Multiphase Chemistry*).

789

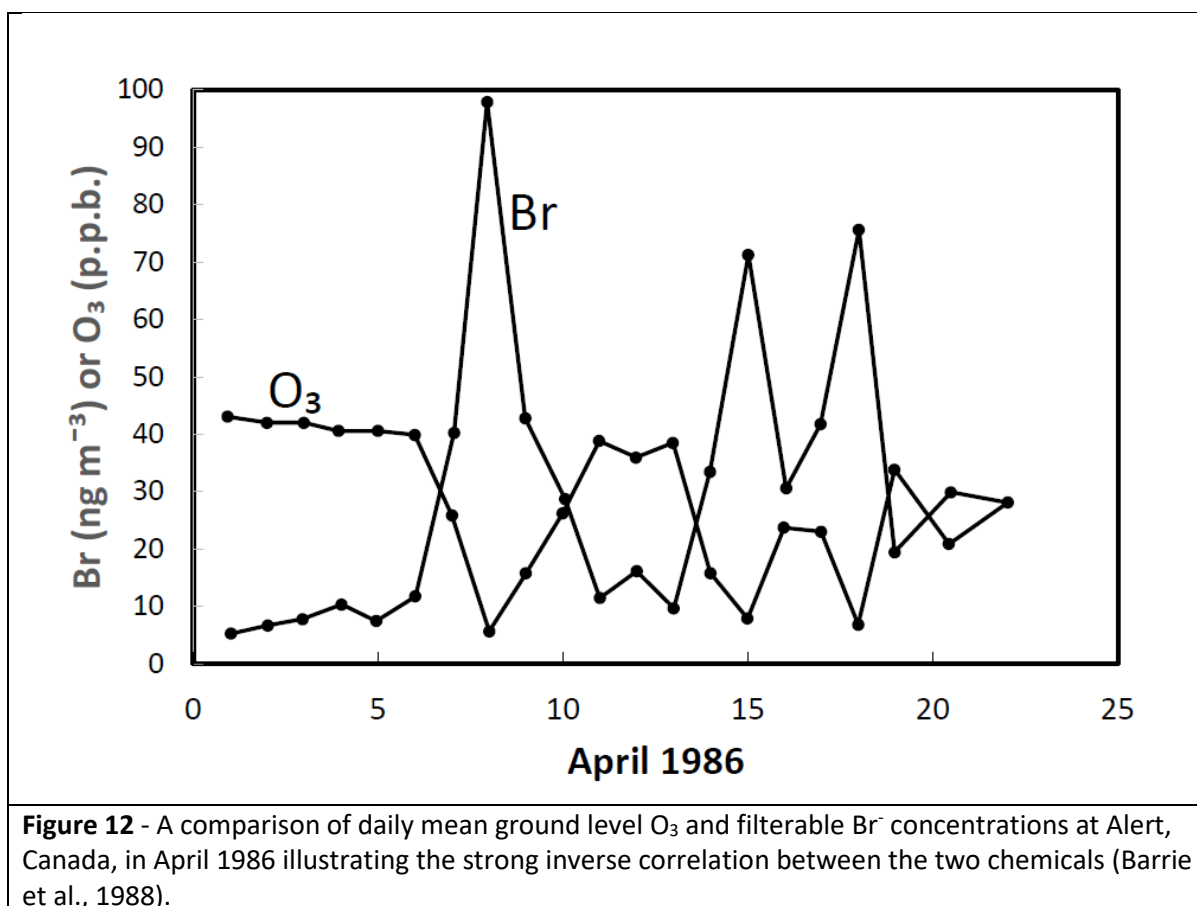


Figure 12 - A comparison of daily mean ground level O₃ and filterable Br⁻ concentrations at Alert, Canada, in April 1986 illustrating the strong inverse correlation between the two chemicals (Barrie et al., 1988).

790

791 One of the foundational papers in the area of halogen chemistry is the modelling study by Vogt et al.
792 (1996) which set the theoretical framework for the sea-salt activation mechanism for halogen release
793 and linked halogen chemistry with the sulphur cycle. While the initial research focus was on chlorine
794 and bromine, Alicke et al. (1999) reported the first iodine oxide observations in the marine boundary
795 layer at Mace Head, Ireland, and proved that iodine can also be an important player in the chemistry
796 of the troposphere. Further investigation found evidence that biogenic iodine species can be
797 responsible for the formation of marine aerosol and cloud condensation nuclei (O'Dowd et al., 2002)
798 recognizing the potential for wide scale impact of iodine chemistry in particle formation. Finlayson-
799 Pitts and her colleagues had suggested the importance of chlorine in tropospheric chemistry based
800 on laboratory data (Finlayson-Pitts et al., 1989) as has been seen earlier by Schroeder and Urone
801 (1974), but it wasn't until 2008 that Osthoff and co-workers (Osthoff et al., 2008) – and the related
802 comment “When air pollution meets sea salt” by von Glasow (2008) – brought attention to the
803 potential for nitryl chloride (ClNO₂) chemistry to impact ozone formation, nitrogen recycling and VOC

804 oxidation, with the first ambient observations of this molecule. Also in 2008, the work from Read et
805 al. (2008) clearly showed the global importance of halogens for tropospheric ozone using long-term
806 observations of iodine and bromine oxides (IO, BrO) made at the Cape Verde Atmospheric
807 Observatory. High concentrations of tropospheric Cl₂ first reported by Spicer et al. (1998) have
808 been found in other places.

809

810 2.12. Volatile Organic Compounds

811 Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) embraces a wide variety of species emitted from man-made and
812 natural sources. In many respects VOCs are the fuel of the oxidative chemistry in the atmosphere,
813 involved in many gas- and particle-phase processes.

814 Ehhalt (1974) brought together the details of the methane sources and sinks and put them into a
815 consistent framework that described the life cycle of methane. This conceptual framework has
816 subsequently been expanded to a wide range of trace organic gases. The original understanding of the
817 life cycle of methane has remained largely unchanged over the subsequent 40 years and has formed
818 the basis of the IPCC science assessments on the role of methane in global warming and climate
819 change. Methane itself has been long recognised as important for tropospheric chemistry, but also for
820 climate change as a greenhouse gas and as a source of water vapour to the stratosphere. Specifically,
821 the work of Blake and Rowland (1986) documented the global increase in methane and its implications
822 for climate change.

823 The large differences in reactivity among the individual VOCs have always been a feature of their
824 chemistry. Darnall et al. (1976) produced a reactivity scale for atmospheric hydrocarbons² based on
825 their reaction with the hydroxyl radical, an idea that is still influential to the present day. The concept
826 was further advanced by Carter and Atkinson (1989) who looked at incremental hydrocarbon
827 reactivity, where knowledge of the reactivities of organics with respect to ozone formation in the
828 atmosphere can provide a useful basis for developing appropriate control strategies to reduce
829 ambient ozone levels. It was the beginning of an approach that is often now used in regulation to
830 determine which organic compounds would have the greatest effect in reducing ozone.

831 VOC transformation can be important in a number of different atmospheric processes. One highly
832 cited early example is the work of Pitts et al. (1978) on the atmospheric reactions of polycyclic
833 aromatic hydrocarbons and their ability to form mutagenic nitro derivatives under typical atmospheric
834 conditions.

835 While measurement techniques rarely seem to get a mention as being influential, the discipline relies
836 on observations as a critical part of the oeuvre. Already mentioned was the huge impact that accurate
837 techniques to measure the OH radicals had on the development of the field (see 2.9. *HOx chemistry*).
838 Another example is the development of Proton-Transfer Reaction Mass-Spectrometry, which has
839 revolutionised the measurement, in particular, of VOCs (Lindinger et al., 1998) and the earlier work of
840 Lovelock and Lipsky (1960) on the development and application of electron capture detectors that
841 allowed the measurement of VOCs such as dimethyl sulphide and the halocarbons in the troposphere.

² Hydrocarbons, although often used interchangeably with VOC, do not describe the same group of compounds. Hydrocarbons are a subset of VOC that exclusively contain hydrogen and carbon, and thereby include none of the e.g., oxygenated VOC species.

842 Research is ongoing as to how many VOCs there are in the atmosphere and what the consequences
843 are of not being able to measure/quantify them all. The work of Lewis et al. (2000) used novel VOC
844 measurements (GC x GC) to find that there was a larger pool of ozone-forming carbon compounds in
845 urban atmospheres than previously posited (Figure 13). The later paper by Goldstein and Galbally
846 (2007) expanded on this work hypothesizing that thousands of VOCs are still unmeasured and
847 unknown, with potentially huge consequences for the carbon budget of the atmosphere.

848 Continuing work in this area, de Gouw et al. (2005) produced a landmark study that combined analysis
849 of organic carbon in both the gas- and particle-phase in the polluted atmosphere as part of the New
850 England Air Quality study by looking at the evolution of VOCs from their emission sources. The study
851 showed that most of the organic carbon in the particle-phase was formed by secondary anthropogenic
852 processes and that an increasing fraction of the total organic mass was constituted of oxygenated
853 VOCs as a result of the air masses being processed/aged.

854

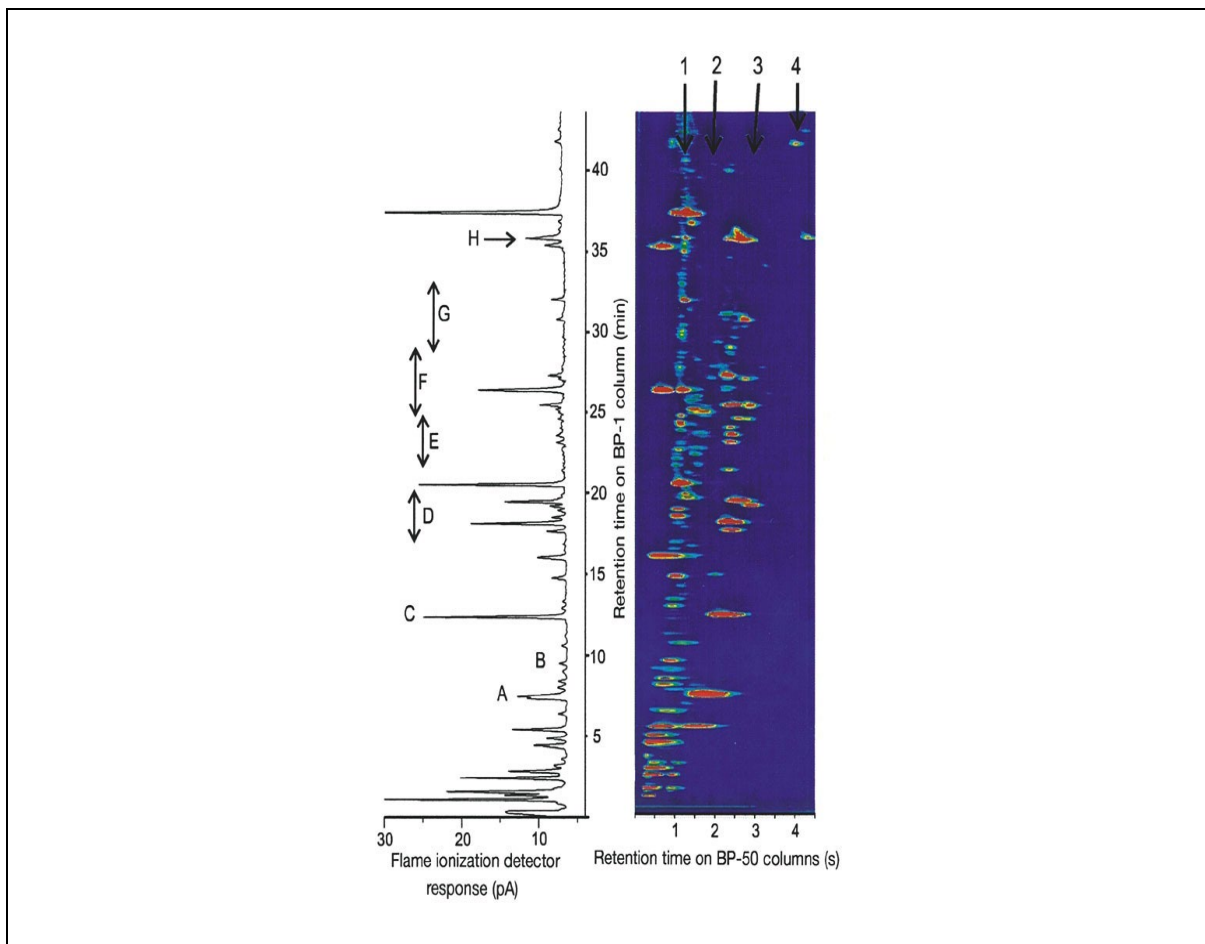


Figure 13 - Comprehensive (right) and one-dimensional (left) separations of volatile organic compounds in urban air demonstrating a greater variety and number of VOCs (Lewis et al., 2000)

855

856 2.13. Biogenic Emissions and Chemistry

857 Although it has been known for a long time that plants emit organic compounds, the relevance of
858 biogenic VOCs for atmospheric chemical processes was not immediately recognized. The first report

859 that plants emit volatile organic compounds into the atmosphere was made in 1957 by the Georgian
860 scientist Guivi Sanadze (Sanadze, 1957). Unaware of Sanadze's work in the USSR, Rasmussen and Went
861 independently discovered isoprene emissions in 1964 (Rasmussen and Went, 1964). Sanadze was also
862 the first to show that isoprene emission rates are temperature dependent (Sanadze and Kursanov,
863 1966). However, the relevance of biogenic VOC for atmospheric chemical processes was not
864 immediately recognized. Went (1960) hypothesised that "volatilisation of terpenes and other plant
865 products results in the production of, first, blue haze, then veil clouds ... ". Although Tingey (Tingey et
866 al., 1979) at the US Environmental Protection Agency did note the potential for isoprene to play a role
867 in regional air quality in 1978, this was not formalised until the ground-breaking work of Chameides
868 and colleagues in 1988 (Chameides et al., 1988) and MacKenzie and colleagues in 1991 (MacKenzie et
869 al., 1991).

870 In 1992 the seminal review of Fehsenfeld et al. (1992) brought the importance of isoprene and a wide
871 range of other VOCs of biological origin to the attention of the atmospheric chemistry community,
872 opening up an entirely new branch of atmospheric chemistry. Other influential reviews of biogenic
873 VOC emissions, include e.g., the physiology of plants (Kesselmeier and Staudt, 1999) and more
874 recently Sharkey and Monson (2017) reviewed the enigmatic nature of isoprene emissions.

875 Over time, biogenic chemistry became pivotal for major policy formulations to abate ozone pollution.
876 Underpinning the atmospheric chemistry research that Fehsenfeld et al. (1992) promoted, plant
877 physiologists began working on understanding the biological and environmental controls on biogenic
878 VOC emission rates. This work allowed the development of relatively simple functions to predict the
879 emissions of biogenic VOCs which resulted in the first spatially and temporally resolved global model
880 of biogenic emissions (Guenther et al., 1993). These soon evolved into more sophisticated high
881 resolution global models (Guenther et al., 2000; Guenther et al., 1995), allowing for the emissions of
882 biogenic compounds to be included in atmospheric chemistry models across all scales. Eventually, this
883 work took the form of the widely used MEGAN (Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from
884 Nature) model (Guenther et al., 2006) which is still used in modern Earth system models today (Table
885 1 and Figure 14).

886

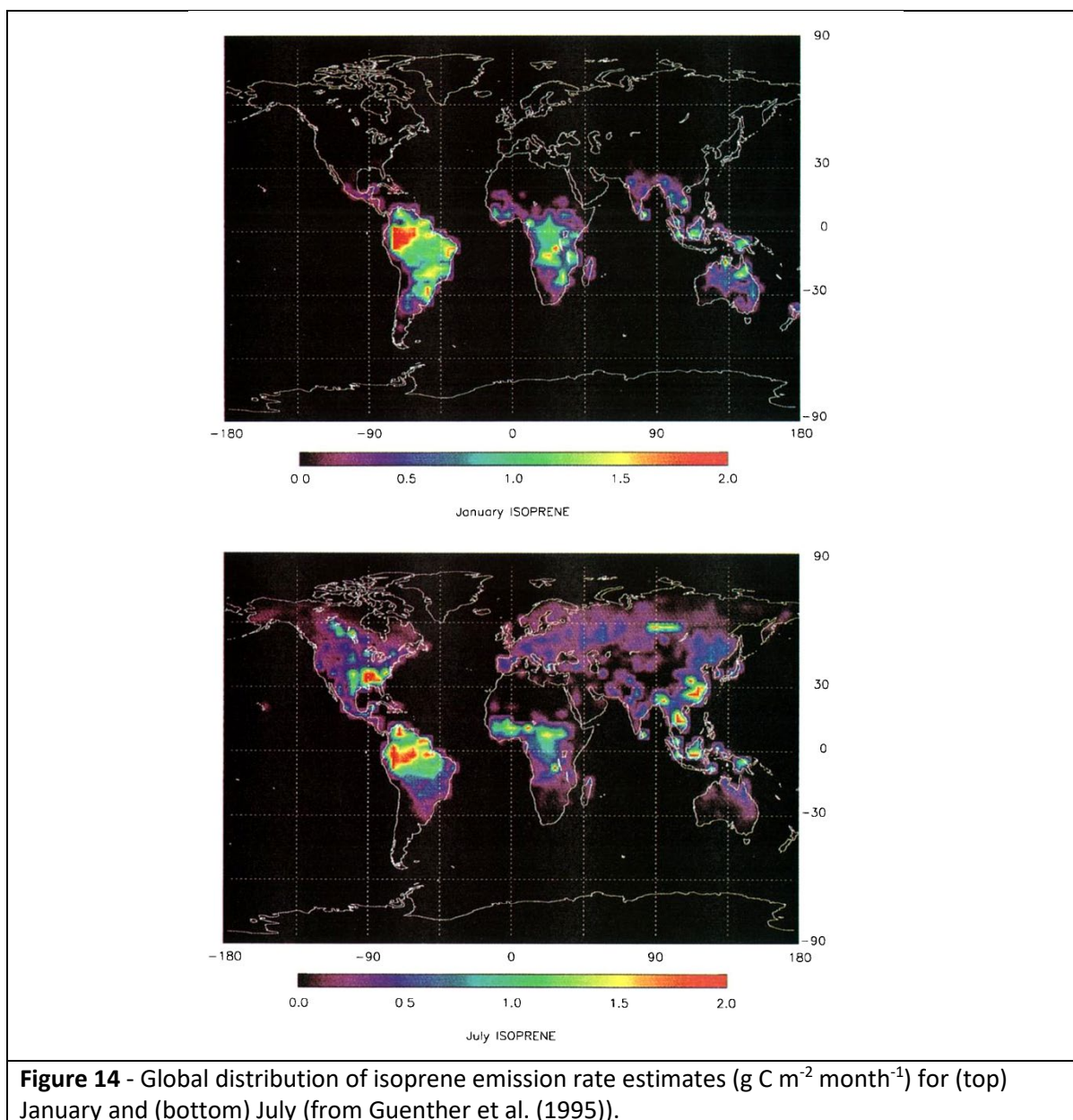


Figure 14 - Global distribution of isoprene emission rate estimates ($\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$) for (top) January and (bottom) July (from Guenther et al. (1995)).

887

888 Terrestrial vegetation is not the only source of biogenic emissions. Aneja et al. (1979) discussed the
 889 importance of biogenic sulphur compounds and their role in stratospheric chemistry, while Charlson
 890 et al. (1987) connected marine biology, atmospheric chemistry and climate into the already
 891 mentioned CLAW hypothesis (see the 2.2. *Aerosols and Clouds* section).

892 Marine aerosol formation was thought for a long time to be dominated by inorganic components,
 893 mainly sea-salt and non-sea salt sulphate, but O'Dowd and co-workers (O'Dowd et al., 2004) showed
 894 that biological activity of plankton blooms can enhance the concentration of cloud condensation
 895 nuclei, a key aspect of the chemistry-climate feedback mechanism. A similar mechanism is also active
 896 in relation to biogenic halogen compounds (O'Dowd et al., 2002) which also affects aerosol formation
 897 as well as the ozone, nitrogen, and sulphur cycles, as discussed in section 2.2. *Aerosols and Clouds*.

898 A paper that has been defined as “controversial but set off a huge amount of activity” is “Atmospheric
 899 oxidation capacity sustained by a tropical forest” by Lelieveld et al. (2008), which proposed a new

900 chemical mechanism for low NO_x, high VOC regions (such as tropical forests), based on modelling
901 studies of a field dataset. Although further studies contradicted this hypothesis, Lelieveld et al. (2008)
902 was instrumental in prompting a large amount of laboratory, theoretical and field studies in the past
903 10 years. These studies resulted in a major revision of our understanding of biogenic VOC chemistry
904 (see the sections 2.4. *Chemical Kinetics, Laboratory Data and Chemical Mechanisms* and 2.9. *HO_x*
905 *chemistry*).

906

907 2.14. *Biomass Burning*

908 Biomass burning, particularly in the tropics, affects terrestrial vegetation dynamics, soil erosion,
909 movement of organic carbon, hemispheric atmospheric composition, air quality and more broadly
910 radiative forcing *via* emissions of trace gases and aerosols (Monks et al., 2009). Crutzen (Crutzen et
911 al., 1979) was the first to highlight biomass burning in the tropics as an important source of
912 atmospheric gases, such as molecular hydrogen (H₂), CO, N₂O, NO, chloromethane (CH₃Cl) and
913 carbonyl sulphide (COS). The importance of biomass burning, based on the observations of a small set
914 of fires, and the appreciation of its potential role was a major step in our understanding of the role of
915 biomass burning in air quality, climate change, and the composition of the troposphere. It is, however,
916 the later paper “Biomass Burning in the Tropics: Impact on Atmospheric Chemistry and
917 Biogeochemical Cycles” by Crutzen and Andreae (Crutzen and Andreae, 1990), one of the top 10 most
918 cited Atmospheric Chemistry papers (Table 1), that has had the greatest impact on this research area,
919 providing quantitative estimates of the amounts of biomass burning taking place around the world
920 and the resulting emissions, recognizing the critical role of biomass burning emissions in the Tropics
921 and from activities in developing countries that were not well documented. Hao and Liu (1994) made
922 a further advance, looking at where and when biomass burning and thereby the related emissions
923 occur. They developed an improved database of the amount of biomass burned owing to
924 deforestation, shifting cultivation, savannah fires, fuel wood use, and clearing of agricultural residues,
925 focused on tropical America, Africa and Asia during the late 1970s.

926 Simoneit et al. (1999) introduced the important concept that “the monosaccharide derivatives (e.g.
927 levoglucosan) are proposed as specific indicators for cellulose in biomass burning emissions.” They
928 showed that levoglucosan is emitted at such high concentrations that it can be detected in air pollution
929 filter samples at considerable distances from the original combustion source, allowing for source
930 apportionment.

931 The 2001 paper “Emission of trace gases and aerosols from biomass burning” by Andreae and Merlet
932 (2001), which is also one of the top 10 most cited papers (Table 1 and Figure 15), pulled together
933 emission factors for a large variety of species emitted from biomass fires and is considered a key
934 reference for biomass burning emission factors. Further work in the biomass burning area was later
935 presented by Reid et al. (2005) in a review paper where they looked at measurements of smoke
936 particle size, chemistry, thermodynamic properties, and emission factors from a variety of sources,
937 including laboratory burns, in-situ experiments, remote sensing and modelling. They brought together
938 information from the ‘milieu of small pieces of the biomass-burning puzzle’ and showed that there are
939 large differences in measured particle properties and particle carbon budgets across the literature.
940 van der Werf et al. (2006) investigated interannual variability and the underlying mechanisms
941 regulating variability at continental to global scales using a time series of eight years of satellite and

942 model data. Total carbon emissions was driven by burning in forested areas, while the amount of
943 burned area was driven by savannah fires, which are influenced by different environmental and
944 human factors than forest fires.

945

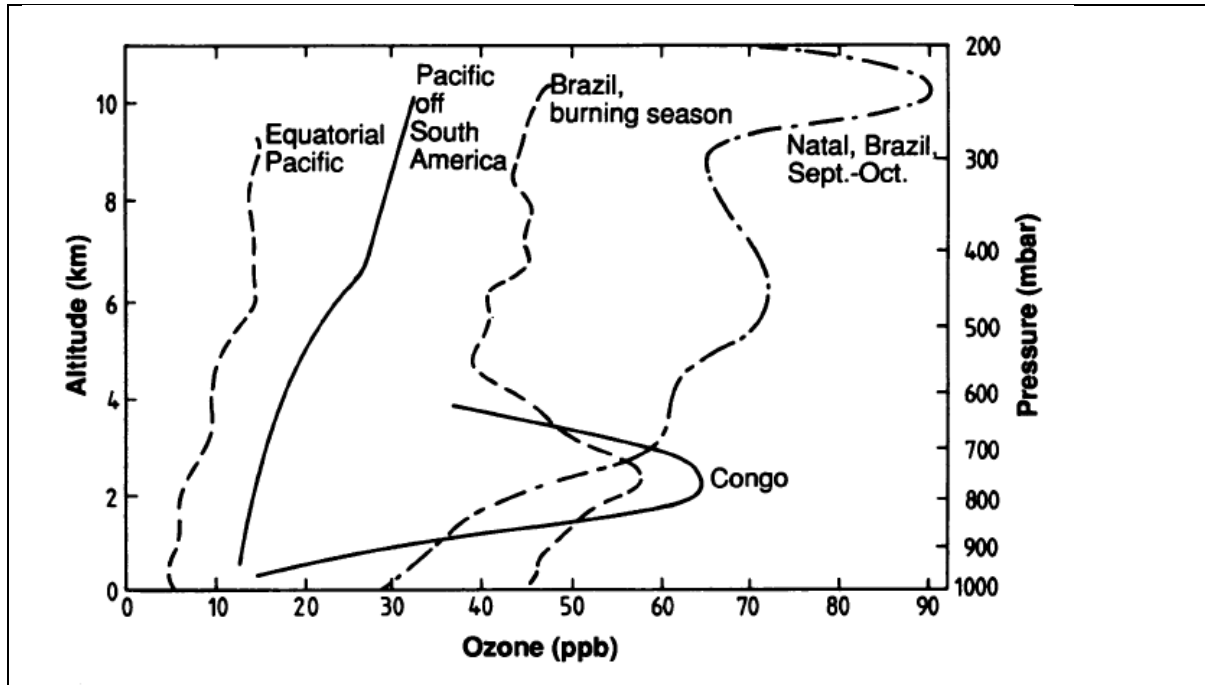


Figure 15 - Vertical profiles of O₃ in the tropical troposphere. The profile over the equatorial Pacific shows no influence from biomass burning, whereas the profile over the Pacific off South America suggests O₃ enhancement due to long-range transport from the tropical continents. The O₃ profiles over Brazil and the Congo show high O₃ concentrations at altitudes between 1 and 4 km due to photochemical production in biomass burning plumes. At higher altitudes, O₃ concentrations are also substantially enhanced, possibly also because of O₃ production by reactions in the emissions of biomass burning (Crutzen and Andreae, 1990).

946

947 2.15. Emissions and Deposition

948 Non-chemical sources and sinks of various species are critical components of atmospheric processes
949 and therefore are particularly essential for global and regional models. An early advocate for such was
950 the work of Olivier and the team that created the EDGAR (Emission Database for Global Atmospheric
951 Research) database (Olivier et al., 1994).

952 Emissions from vehicles and power plants have always been an essential aspect of air quality related
953 policies, and therefore an area where more focused inventory work was needed and done. This
954 approach was pioneered in California in the early 1990s, and the studies by Calvert et al. (1993),
955 Lawson (1993) and Singer and Harley (1996) helped define and verify the California Smog Control
956 Program, providing a solid scientific basis with reliable emissions data. Techniques such as the remote
957 monitoring of traffic generated carbon monoxide (Chaney, 1983; Bishop and Stedman, 1996) are also
958 essential to recognise for the role they played in understanding vehicle emissions.

959 Agricultural emissions (from both crop and animal production) play an important role in several
960 atmospherically mediated processes of environmental and public health concerns (Chameides et al.,

961 1999). These atmospheric reactions and processes affect local and regional environmental quality,
962 including odour, particulate matter (PM) exposure, eutrophication, acidification, exposure to toxics,
963 climate, and pathogens (Erismann et al., 2008; Aneja et al., 2009). Agricultural emissions also contribute
964 to the global problems caused by greenhouse gas emissions, specifically nitrous oxide and methane.

965 The deposition of gases and aerosol particles to the surface is another critical process in the
966 atmosphere. Chamberlain (1966) is credited with the first exposition of the resistance network
967 approach to describe the uptake of gases on surfaces and the identification of transport through the
968 atmospheric boundary layer, through the surface layer, and through the stomata on plants, as
969 important elements of surface uptake. Building upon this work, a comprehensive and widely adopted,
970 parametrization of the dry deposition process for regional and global models was presented in the
971 late 1980s by Wesely (1989). Currently, there has been renewed interest in quantifying and
972 understanding deposition processes. Yet, a systematic description based on fundamental
973 independently measurable physico-chemical parameters is lacking. A complication can arise from a
974 range of oxygenated VOC that can exhibit bi-directional exchange above vegetation (Karl et al., 2010).

975

976 2.16. *Chemical Transport*

977 Transport is an integral part of atmospheric processes and influences atmospheric composition across
978 a range of spatial scales. As early as 1975, Junge (1975) pointed out the importance of the atmospheric
979 residence time of a constituent with respect to global transport and dispersion. Prather's work
980 (Prather, 1994, 1996) provided new insights into timescales for atmospheric oxidation chemistry.

981 Stratospheric-tropospheric exchange (STE) has always been recognised as a key mechanism in
982 determining tropospheric composition. Early chemical dynamics were demonstrated by Danielsen
983 (1968) that laid the foundations for 3-dimensional modelling of chemical transport looking at
984 stratosphere-troposphere exchange based on radioactivity, ozone, and potential vorticity. Later,
985 Holton and co-authors (Holton et al., 1995) proposed an approach that placed stratosphere-
986 troposphere exchange in the framework of general circulation and helped clarify the roles of the
987 different mechanisms involved and the interplay between large and small scales, by the use of
988 dynamical tracers and potential vorticity. This work is recognised as a big step forward for the
989 understanding of the tropospheric ozone budget. Stohl and colleagues (Stohl et al., 2003) brought
990 together what has been viewed by many as the authoritative work on stratosphere-troposphere
991 exchange.

992 While the regional nature of air pollution has always been recognised, that is less the case for the
993 impact of trans-continental emissions on air quality. Jacob et al. (1999) showed that there was a need
994 for a global outlook for understanding regional air quality and meeting pollution reduction objectives.
995 This perspective spawned a decade of intense work on intercontinental air pollution and transport.
996 Well recognised in this area is the work by Stohl and colleagues (Stohl et al., 2002) who mapped out
997 the pathways and timescale of intercontinental air pollution transport and brought life to the subjects
998 of atmospheric dynamics and transport of air pollution (Figure 16). Observational studies such as
999 Merrill et al. (1985), Moody et al. (1995), Stohl and Trickl (1999) and Forster et al. (2001) showed the
1000 range of mechanisms and impact of long-range transport of air pollution.

1001

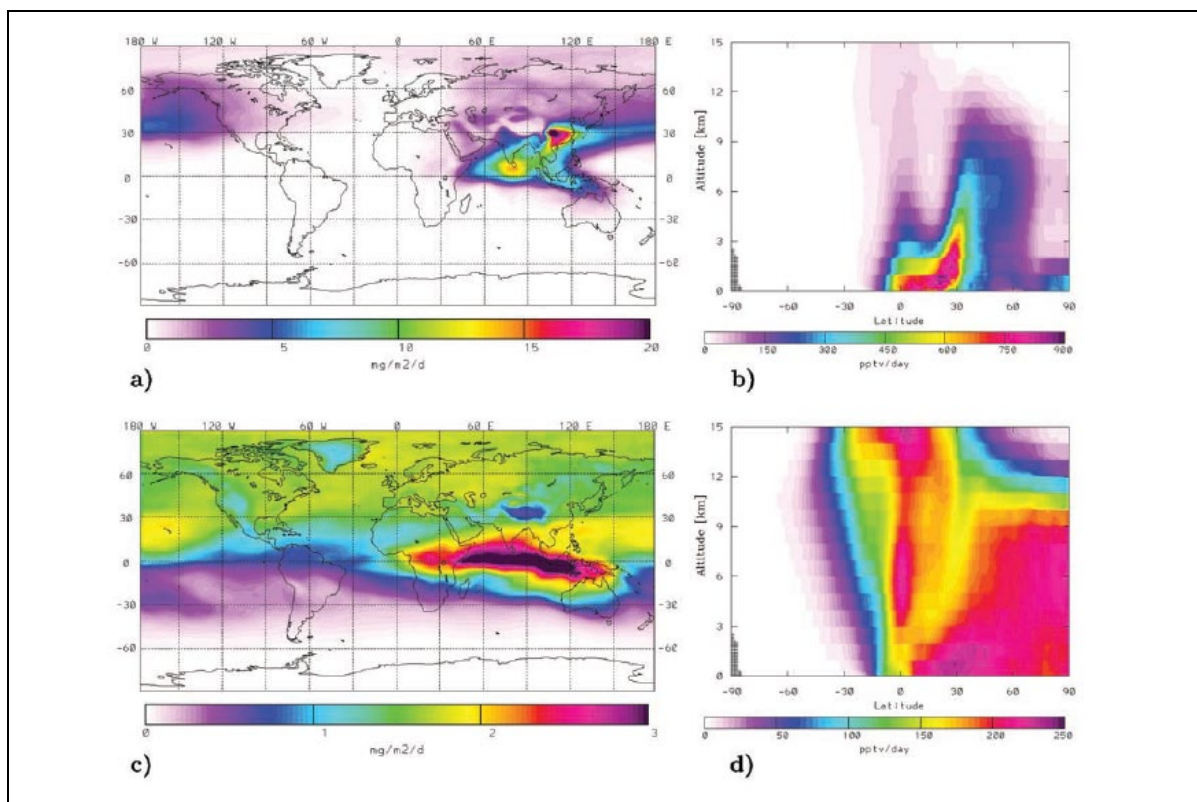


Figure 16 - Total columns (a, c) and zonally averaged mixing ratios (b, d), both divided by the respective time interval, of a Asia tracer for ages of 6 – 8 days (a, b) and 25– 30 days (c, d) during DJF. The plots shows the horizontal and vertical impact of a pollution tracer (Stohl et al., 2002).

1004 Moody et al. (1998) explored atmospheric transport history using back trajectories for the Harvard
 1005 Forest experiment demonstrating the power of trajectory methods at the regional scale. Key tools in
 1006 the development of this area were, the early simplistic isentropic trajectory methods (Merrill et al.,
 1007 1985), the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Draxler and Hess,
 1008 1998), a forerunner of various particle trajectory and dispersion models, which developed into a
 1009 widely used particle dispersion model, and the FLEXible PARTicle dispersion (FLEXPART) model, a
 1010 Lagrangian particle dispersion model designed for calculating the long-range and mesoscale dispersion
 1011 of air pollutants (Stohl et al., 2005).

1012 The ideas of intercontinental source-receptor relationships were embodied in the aforementioned
 1013 works by Jacob et al. (1999) and Stohl et al. (2002). The long-range transport concept was developed
 1014 in an effort to explore the source-transport relationships that drive observed ozone concentration in
 1015 regions farther away from the emission regions (Fiore et al., 2009) (see the 2.6. *Chemical Models*
 1016 section). This large community collaboration (Fiore et al., 2009) provided valuable insights into the
 1017 sensitivities of the hemispheric regional background of ozone and how this is controlled by emissions
 1018 from continental source regions.

1019 Another critical area for atmospheric chemistry is boundary layer dynamics and meteorology. This is
 1020 particularly important since most emissions are emitted in the boundary layer. Atmospheric dynamics
 1021 in this important region have been mostly expressed as parameterizations in numerical models (Stull,
 1022 1988). The spatial and temporal scales involved in the processes in this region cover a wide range.

1023 The understanding of this region has been mostly based on meteorological and energy/water vapour
 1024 balance points of view. However, the chemical transformation and dispersion in this region are crucial
 1025 for how much chemicals actually get out of this region to influence the regional and global
 1026 atmosphere. Furthermore, the process of dry deposition, a critical loss processes for chemicals, is
 1027 mostly limited to the boundary layer.

1028

1029 *2.17. Satellites and the Troposphere*

1030 The importance of satellites for the discipline of atmospheric chemistry centres on the ability to give
 1031 a self-consistent global view of a selected set of tropospheric trace species (Burrows et al.,
 1032 2011;Martin, 2008;Prospero et al., 2002). The beginning and first demonstration of the effective
 1033 application of these attributes for the troposphere were the data and the retrievals from the GOME
 1034 instrument (Burrows et al., 1999) on ERS-2 and SCIAMACHY on Envisat (Bovensmann et al., 1999).
 1035 Historically, the roots of these early instruments are in stratospheric chemistry, with GOME being
 1036 deployed to be able to track stratospheric ozone and its key controlling chemical species. Much effort
 1037 has flowed with measurements from instruments such as OMI, MOPITT, TES, MODIS and ACE as well
 1038 as shuttle borne instrumentation, e.g. CRISTA (Burrows et al., 2011;Martin, 2008).

1039 The most nominated paper in this area, and one that demonstrated the power of such observations
 1040 for tropospheric composition research, was “Increase in tropospheric nitrogen dioxide over China
 1041 observed from space” by Richter et al. (2005), which showed the capability of the satellites to track
 1042 the build-up of air pollution over vast regions from space (Figure 17). The importance of the work lead
 1043 by Palmer and co-workers in establishing a method to convert satellite observations to vertical
 1044 columns for comparison with e.g. models was also widely recognised (Palmer et al., 2001).

1045

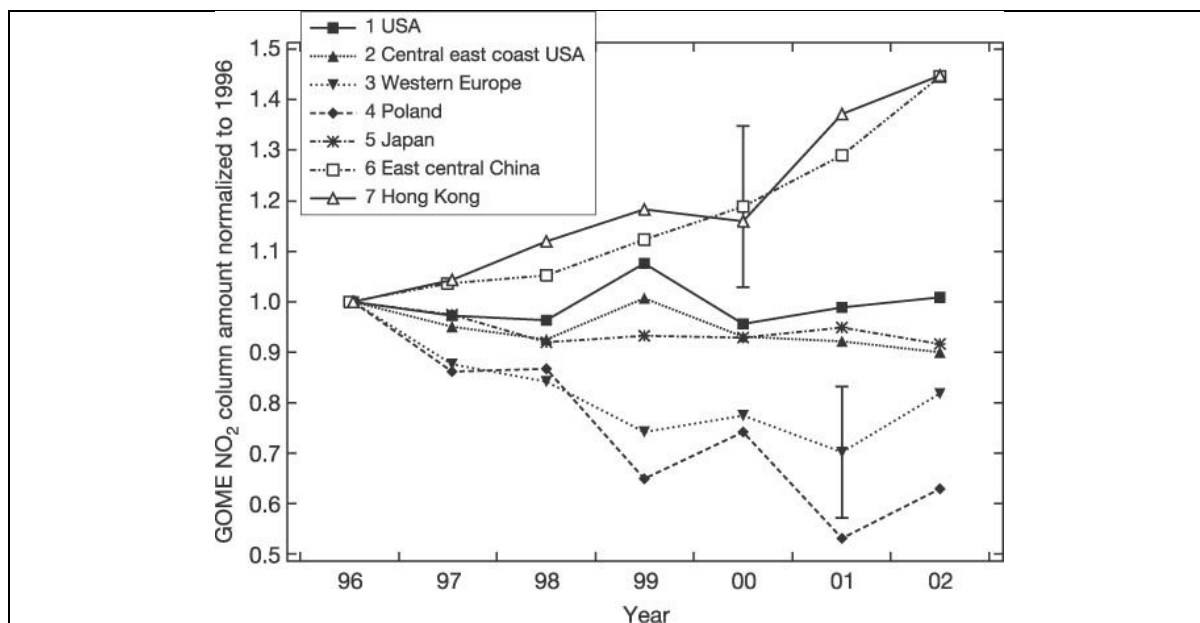


Figure 17 - The mean annual NO₂ column amount normalized to that in 1996 for the geographical regions USA, Central East Coast USA, Western Europe, Poland, Japan, East Central China, and Hong Kong showing a marked increase in NO₂ over China and decrease over Europe (Richter et al., 2005).

1046

1047 Satellite-based instrumentation can measure not only gas-phase trace species but also dust and
1048 aerosol particles; mapping of the global distribution of dust (Prospero et al., 2002), the combination
1049 of SEAWIFs and TOMS to track Asian dust events (Husar et al., 2001) and the development of the
1050 MODIS aerosol algorithm (Remer et al., 2005) provided convincing demonstrations of this capability.
1051 A step-change in this area was made with the paper Wang and Christopher (2003) “Intercomparison
1052 between satellite-derived aerosol optical thickness and PM_{2.5} mass: Implications for air quality
1053 studies” which was the first description of the derivation of surface PM_{2.5} from satellite aerosol optical
1054 depth (AOD), built on by Liu et al. (2004) for the USA. Later, a global picture was developed by van
1055 Donkelaar et al. (2006). These type of observations have been extensively used to estimate the global
1056 impact of particulate matter (both PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀) on health.

1057

1058 2.18. *Stratospheric Chemistry*

1059 Tropospheric chemistry has always been influenced by the study of stratospheric chemistry. At the
1060 same time, tropospheric chemistry has been pivotal in determining what surface emissions get to the
1061 stratosphere. As mentioned earlier (see the 2.1. *Foundations* section), the basis of stratospheric ozone
1062 chemistry was laid in the 1930s (Chapman, 1930) (for a full history see Brasseur (2019)), whereas
1063 tropospheric chemistry followed a couple of decades later. Interest in stratospheric ozone chemistry
1064 increased substantially following the works of Johnston and Crutzen on the role of nitrogen oxides in
1065 the stratosphere (Crutzen, 1970; Johnston, 1971). The impact of supersonic transport (Johnston, 1971)
1066 and of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) (Molina and Rowland, 1974) were important events for
1067 stratospheric ozone chemistry. While Crutzen (1970) showed that the nitrogen oxides in the
1068 stratosphere come mostly from the nitrous oxides from the ground, Johnson suggested that a fleet of
1069 supersonic aircraft could release large amounts of nitrogen oxides into the lower stratosphere causing
1070 substantial ozone loss (Johnston, 1971). The potential threat of supersonic transport highlighted the
1071 importance of gas-phase catalysis in the atmosphere and, in particular, of the catalytic ozone
1072 destruction by HO_x and NO_x. These works opened the world’s eyes to the potential for global
1073 environmental change from human activities. Soon after, Lovelock (1974) identified CFCs in the
1074 troposphere and showed that practically all the CFCs emitted to date were still in the atmosphere. The
1075 significant contributions of Hampson (1964), Crutzen, and Johnston, and the recognition of chlorine-
1076 catalysed ozone destruction by Stolarski and Cicerone (1974), paved the way for the seminal work of
1077 Molina and Rowland (Molina and Rowland, 1974) linking chlorofluorocarbons to ozone layer
1078 depletion. The recognition that bromine compounds can also destroy stratospheric ozone (McElroy et
1079 al., 1986) further refined the story. The potential role of iodine in stratospheric ozone depletion has
1080 also been raised (Solomon et al.1994), but it is still somewhat unsettled.

1081 The ozone hole (Farman et al., 1985) was an unanticipated shock that awoke the world to the global
1082 nature of ozone layer depletion. The origin of the ozone hole was understood in an historic set of
1083 studies over a relatively short five-year period. First was the insightful and seminal work of Solomon
1084 et al. (1986) that showed that chlorofluorocarbons and other ozone-depleting gases were the key
1085 anthropogenic ingredient for the ozone hole. The confluence of cold temperatures that lead to the
1086 formation of polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) and the winter vortex formation over Antarctica
1087 provided the opportunity for the massive ozone depletion that resulted in the ozone hole. This work
1088 confirmed the suggestion of Farman (Farman et al., 1985) that the ozone hole was due to the
1089 increasing abundances of CFCs. In particular, Solomon and co-workers (Solomon et al., 1986)

1090 recognized that stable molecules such as ClONO₂ and HCl could react on solids (and indeed liquids).
1091 Along the way, during this intense investigative period, the detection and quantification of the role of
1092 ClO as a catalyst by Anderson et al. (1991), as well as De Zafra et al. (1988), was the “smoking gun”
1093 that linked the CFCs with the ozone hole. The entire set of field measurements, from the ground,
1094 aircraft, and balloons, solidified this linkage.

1095 Less heralded, but equally important, were the laboratory studies that showed that chlorine nitrate
1096 (ClONO₂) and HCl did indeed react on PSCs (Hanson and Ravishankara, 1994; Tolbert et al., 1987; Leu,
1097 1988; Molina, 1991; Molina et al., 1987) and determined the critical rate coefficients for the self-
1098 reaction of ClO, the rate-limiting step in the unique catalytic cycles in Antarctica (Cox and Hayman,
1099 1988; Sander et al., 1989; Trolier et al., 1990). Much was learned in later years by studying the Arctic
1100 and from the continued observations over the Antarctic. It should be noted that the termolecular
1101 reaction of ClO was suggested to be important for the chlorine chemistry by Molina and Molina
1102 (Molina and Molina, 1987), and the history of this reaction goes back to Norrish’s work at Cambridge
1103 (Norrish and Neville, 1934). One of the lessons from this episode is that natural factors, in this case
1104 the formation of a vortex and the occurrence of polar stratospheric clouds, can lead to unexpected
1105 consequences when an anthropogenic ingredient (ozone-depleting chemicals) is added to the mix.

1106 The numerical modelling of the stratosphere was an important ingredient for the success of mitigating
1107 polar ozone loss, along with the theories of the ozone layer depletion and the ozone hole, the
1108 laboratory studies of key processes, and the measurements in the atmosphere. Over the years, these
1109 models have enabled a great deal of understanding of the coupling between chemistry and climate.
1110 The development of stratospheric chemical transport models (Chipperfield and Pyle, 1988) was a
1111 pivotal advancement that enabled quantitative understanding of the ozone layer depletion, including
1112 the ozone hole (see the 2.6. *Chemical Models* section).

1113 The weight of science led to the Vienna convention, the Montreal Protocol, and the Protocol’s many
1114 amendments and adjustments that are leading to the phasing out of the ozone-depleting gases. The
1115 Montreal Protocol is the first international treaty on an environmental issue to be universally ratified
1116 and is regarded as one of the most successful. That said, the ozone layer depletion story is not
1117 complete. For example, the recognition that nitrous oxide is the remaining major ozone-depleting gas
1118 emission (Ravishankara et al. 2009) has connected food production (tropospheric nitrogen cycles) to
1119 ozone layer depletion and highlighted the importance of a holistic approach to environmental issues.

1120

1121 *2.19 Other issues that influence tropospheric chemistry*

1122 Atmospheric chemistry advances have been influenced by growth in other areas. In particular, the
1123 importance of anthropogenic climate change has been instrumental in invigorating atmospheric
1124 chemistry studies because many of the major climate forcing agents are chemically active and climate
1125 change, in turn, influences tropospheric chemistry (von Schneidemesser et al., 2015). In addition to
1126 climate change, other adjacent discoveries and findings have influenced tropospheric chemistry
1127 studies.

1128 The global atmospheric and climatic consequences of nuclear war were investigated by both Crutzen
1129 and Birks (1982) and Turco et al. (1983). Using models developed for looking at the impact of volcanic
1130 eruptions, Turco et al. (1983) concluded that “enhancement of solar ultraviolet radiation due to ozone

1131 depletion, long-term exposure to cold, dark, and radioactivity could pose a serious threat to human
1132 survivors and to other species.” Similarly (Crutzen and Birks, 1982) concluded that “the screening of
1133 sunlight by the fire-produced aerosol over extended periods during the growing season would
1134 eliminate much of the food production in the Northern Hemisphere”.

1135 Air quality has an obvious direct impact on people, and this connection was recognized very early (it
1136 was in fact the primary motivation behind the fundamental work of Haagen-Smit). In 1993, Dockery
1137 et al. (1993) presented a study of six US cities showing a direct association between air pollution and
1138 mortality rates. This paper is a great example of how an adjacent field influences another, in this case
1139 atmospheric chemistry and public health. Though association between air pollution and health stretch
1140 back to the Los Angeles and London smog, the ‘Six Cities Study’ was a landmark as it demonstrated
1141 that the association between air pollution and mortality extended to much lower concentrations than
1142 those observed in the smog days.

1143

1144 **3. Discussion and Summary**

1145 A mixture of the history of the discipline and its landmark ideas emerges from this exercise of asking
1146 the community what they consider to have shaped their research field. Table 2 seeks to bring these
1147 elements together to look at the evolution of the leading scientific concepts, their relevance to the
1148 environmental legislation (in this sense, we acknowledge an Euro-/US-centric bias), and the most
1149 notable environmental events that have shaped the discipline. Atmospheric science often sits at an
1150 interesting intersection between the societal interests (e.g. acid precipitation, air quality, ozone layer
1151 depletion, and climate) and its scientific venture. Monks and Williams (2020) have recently explored
1152 how environmental events in air quality drive policy and how a scientific and societal paradigm shift
1153 occurs once the emergency phase has passed.

1154 From an overview of all the nominated papers, several general features are apparent. Ambient
1155 measurements are one of the cornerstones of atmospheric science (Abbatt et al., 2014). It is clear that
1156 the atmosphere is under-sampled, but over time we have found many ingenious ways to build
1157 different measurement strategies from the ground, ships, aircraft, balloon, sonde and satellites. With
1158 a focus on chemistry, it is clear that one needs to be able to measure with surety, sensitivity, specificity
1159 and speed in the troposphere. Many of the nominated papers reflect the importance of instrument
1160 development. Examples include the electrostatic sizers in aerosol science (Knutson and Whitby, 1975),
1161 various techniques to measure the hydroxyl radical (Eisele, 1994;Stevens et al., 1994;Perner et al.,
1162 1976a), chemiluminescence for NO/NO₂ (Kley and McFarland, 1980), the development of chemical
1163 ionization mass spectrometry (Lindinger et al., 1998), the application of the GCxGC-MS technique
1164 (Lewis et al., 2000), and aerosol mass-spectrometry measurements, e.g., Zhang et al. (2007). Often,
1165 the science underlying the development of these instruments, such as ion-molecule chemistry, is not
1166 necessarily acknowledged in the community. The paradigm for field instruments has been the
1167 development of analytical methods in the laboratory that are then adopted and/or adapted for field
1168 studies. The advances in associated fields such lasers, optics, optical detectors (e.g. camera and diode
1169 arrays), mass spectrometry (such as ion-traps and high-resolution time-of-flight mass spectrometry),
1170 separation methods (such a various chromatography methods), and meteorological instruments have
1171 fundamentally altered or understanding of atmospheric chemistry in general and tropospheric
1172 chemistry in particular. For example, the recent developments in chemical ionization mass

1173 spectrometry have led to their pervasive use in our science. It is fair to say that the ability to separate
1174 and measure constituents in the part-per-quadrillion and part-per-trillion mixing ratio range have led
1175 to the detections of miniscule amounts of chemicals and their variations. Similarly, the recent
1176 revolution in low-cost sensors coupled with the evolution in telecommunications already is and will
1177 continue to change our field in the near future. Yet another important area is the development of the
1178 details of the chemistry through observations of intermediates and products, etc. These studies have
1179 provided some of critical information regarding the details of the chemistry (Cohen and Murphy,
1180 2003).

1181 Another common theme is the critical importance and impact of long-term observations, often termed
1182 monitoring, of key atmospheric components, from CO₂ (the “Keeling” curve) to chemically active
1183 molecules such halocarbons (the Antarctic ozone hole, ozone layer depletion and climate change),
1184 methane (the changes in the global OH field, background ozone production), and NO_x (catalyst for
1185 tropospheric ozone production, vehicle emissions and acid precipitation). On the other hand, many
1186 breakthroughs in understanding the observations emerged because of basic laboratory information
1187 on kinetics and photochemistry (e.g., the reaction of HO₂ + NO, the determination of O(¹D) quantum
1188 yields, and the reactions of ClONO₂ and HCl on PSCs.) It is noteworthy that both laboratory studies and
1189 long-term observations are currently under funding stress, a situation that is already worrying the
1190 community (see, for example, the discussion in Burkholder et al. (2017)).

1191 There is no doubt that atmospheric chemistry is an integrative science: one of the recurring themes
1192 in the papers discussed here is the tight relationship between ambient observations, laboratory
1193 experiments, and modelling. The integrative power of models has been recognised from the early
1194 studies by Levy (1971) to the development of highly sophisticated global transport models by
1195 Chipperfield and Pyle (1988) and Bey et al. (2001) up to the more recent demonstrations of the power
1196 of model ensembles (Stevenson et al., 2006; Fiore et al., 2009). Much of this progress has parallels in
1197 stratospheric chemistry. It is evident in the community that models are a powerful tool to map, test,
1198 and predict the atmosphere's past, present, and future. The predictions and projections from these
1199 models play essential roles in policy, planning, and management of environmental issues.

1200 Another form of integrative or meta-analysis brings together a range of individual studies to produce
1201 a more significant outcome, such as new insights or models. There are some notable examples of this
1202 approach in the works on biomass burning by Crutzen and Andreae (1990) and more recently, by Van
1203 Der Werf et al. (2010). Similarly, the work to produce isoprene emissions models brought together
1204 several global isoprene flux measurements (Guenther et al., 1995; Guenther et al., 2006). Other
1205 examples include the work of Zhang et al. (2007) and Jimenez et al. (2009) who integrated various sets
1206 of AMS observations to give insight into land distributions of SOA.

1207 There have been developments in fields adjacent to atmospheric chemistry that have shaped
1208 atmospheric chemistry progress. Examples include developments in epidemiology (e.g., the Six Cities
1209 Study by (Dockery et al., 1993)), atmospheric dynamics (the role of transport in determining chemical
1210 composition, the role of the Antarctic vortex), ocean science (pertaining to deposition to the ocean
1211 surface and emissions from the oceans), and in biological/plant science (e.g. (Kesselmeier and Staudt,
1212 1999)). Integrating atmospheric chemistry with these adjacent fields is not only essential but also
1213 fruitful and was for many years embodied in the IGBP (Seitzinger et al., 2015), the World Climate
1214 Research Program (WCRP) and Earth-system science (now Future Earth) programs. Wider contexts,
1215 such as paleoclimate, have allowed an understanding of climate and atmospheric history over the

1216 100,000 year timescales (e.g. (Petit et al., 1999)). That work set the framework for understanding that
1217 the present-day atmospheric burdens of carbon dioxide and methane as important greenhouse gases
1218 are unprecedented during the past 420,000 years. They also allow us to estimate the composition of
1219 the troposphere in those ancient times.

1220 Similarly, there are concepts that have their roots in tropospheric chemistry and have gone on to have
1221 wider impact. The concept of the Anthropocene, most recently highlighted by Crutzen and Stoermer
1222 in 2000, indicates that we are in a new geological epoch driven by human activities. The idea was more
1223 fully expounded in Crutzen (2002) “the geology of mankind”. There is little doubt that this has been a
1224 key idea that has influenced much thinking as well as work far beyond atmospheric science (Table 2).
1225 As discussed in detail in the introductory text, we opted here to assemble this compilation of papers
1226 by reaching out to the community for nominations, rather than using the number of citations as a
1227 primary measure. We will not go into the details again here, suffice it to say that there are inherent
1228 advantages and drawbacks to any method one might consider for such a work. In that sense, we would
1229 like to acknowledge and thank all those who provided feedback during the open peer-review phase
1230 of the manuscript.

1231 We would be remiss in not noting that there remain many areas of tropospheric chemistry that are
1232 still in their infancy. The chemistry in the boundary layer and the dynamics of this region is one such.
1233 This is particularly noteworthy since humans live and emit in the boundary layer. Another such
1234 noteworthy sub-area is deposition which still largely consists of parameterizations. Developing an
1235 understanding of the fundamental steps that are independently measured and understood would be
1236 a laudable goal for atmospheric chemists. The state and development of emission inventories so key
1237 to models remains an area in need of work. New measurements will provide insights into the ever
1238 changing nature of our atmosphere across differing spatial and temporal scales.

1239 The papers highlighted capture a substantial scope of the atmospheric research endeavour over the
1240 last 60 years. The challenge now for you, the reader, is to continue to reflect on the papers included
1241 here and continue this discussion for not only tropospheric chemistry but the related areas.

1242

1243 **4. Author Contributions**

1244 PSM developed the concept and led the writing, PSM, ARR, RS, and EvS solicited input, ARR, RS, EvS
1245 contributed to writing and editing.

1246

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1248

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1251 Germany (BMBF) and the Ministry for Science, Research and Culture of the State of Brandenburg
1252 (MWFK).

1253

1254 **Table 1 – Top 10 Cited Atmospheric Chemistry Papers (Atmospheric+Chemistry)**

1255 (Scopus, 27/3/20)

#	Paper	Title	Citations
1	Guenther et al. (1995)	A global model of natural volatile organic compound emissions	2760
2	Andreae and Merlet (2001)	Emission of trace gases and aerosols from biomass burning	2350
3	Guenther et al. (2006)	Estimates of global terrestrial isoprene emissions using MEGAN (Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature)	2175
4	Jimenez et al. (2009)	Evolution of organic aerosols in the atmosphere	1909
5	Atkinson (2000)	Atmospheric chemistry of VOCs and NOx	1773
6	Crutzen and Andreae (1990)	Biomass burning in the tropics: Impact on atmospheric chemistry and biogeochemical cycles	1686
7	Van Der Werf et al. (2010)	Global fire emissions and the contribution of deforestation, savanna, forest, agricultural, and peat fires (1997-2009)	1578
8	Atkinson and Arey (2003)	Atmospheric Degradation of Volatile Organic Compounds	1502
9	Grell et al. (2005)	Fully coupled "online" chemistry within the WRF model	1436
10	Lelieveld et al. (2015)	The contribution of outdoor air pollution sources to premature mortality on a global scale	1425

1256

1257 (Web of Science, 27/3/20)

#	Paper	Title	Citations
1	Ramanathan et al. (2001)	Atmosphere - Aerosols, climate, and the hydrological cycle	2278
2	Andreae and Merlet (2001)	Emission of trace gases and aerosols from biomass burning	2168
3	Hallquist et al. (2009)	The formation, properties and impact of secondary organic aerosol: current and emerging issues	1988
4	Jimenez et al. (2009)	Evolution of organic aerosols in the atmosphere	1844
5	Crutzen and Andreae (1990)	Biomass burning in the tropics: Impact on atmospheric chemistry and biogeochemical cycles	1603
6	Atkinson (2000)	Atmospheric chemistry of VOCs and NOx	1596
7	Atkinson et al. (1992)	Evaluated Kinetic and Photochemical Data for Atmospheric Chemistry: Supplement IV. IUPAC Subcommittee on Gas Kinetic Data Evaluation for Atmospheric Chemistry	1488
8	Grell et al. (2005)	Fully coupled "online" chemistry within the WRF model	1332
9	Lelieveld et al. (2015)	The contribution of outdoor air pollution sources to premature mortality on a global scale	1292

10	Bey et al. (2001)	Global modeling of tropospheric chemistry with assimilated meteorology: Model description and evaluation	1212
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1258

1259

1260 **Table 2 – Science, Regulatory and Environmental Landmarks of the 20th and early 21st Centuries**

Decade	Science Landmark	Regulatory Landmarks ¹	Environmental Events
1930	Chapman Cycles and Stratospheric Chemistry		
1940			1943 – LA Smog
1950	Air Pollution	1956 - UK Clean Air Act	1952 – Great Smog of London
1960		1963 - US Clean Air Act	
1970	Supersonic Transport Stratospheric Chemistry Tropospheric Chemistry Air Pollution and Clouds	1978 – Ban of Lead in Petrol (USA) 1979 - CLRTAP (UNECE)	1974 – Observations of acid rain
1980	Ozone Hole Chemistry Halogen Chemistry Biogenic Chemistry	1987 - Montreal Protocol 1980 - SO ₂ directive (EU)	1985 – Observations of the ozone hole
1990	Air Pollution and Health Satellite Observations of the Troposphere Long-Range Transport of Air Pollutants	1992 – Euro 1 Emission standard 1992 - Ozone Directive (EU) 1997 - Kyoto Protocol 1999 - Goteborg Protocol 1999 – Ban of lead in petrol (EU)	1991 - Mt Pinatubo eruption
2000	SOA Concept of Anthropocene	2001 - NEC Directive (EU)	
2010	Air Pollution and Climate		2015 - Dieselgate
2020			2020 - COVID 19

1261

1262 ¹ For more details on the UK/EU perspective see (Williams, 2004; Maynard and Williams, 2018) and
 1263 for the USA perspective see (Jacobson, 2002); see also (Monks and Williams, 2020).

1264 **Table 3** - A global budget for NO_x (Logan, 1983)

		10^{12} gm N yr ⁻¹
Sources		
	Fossil fuel combustion	21 (14-28)
	Biomass Burning	12 (4-24)
	Lightning	8 (8-20)
	Microbial activity in soils	8 (4-16)
	Oxidation of ammonia	1-10
	Photolytic or biological processes in the ocean	<1
	Input from the Stratosphere	≈ 0.5
	Total	25-99
Sinks		
	Precipitation	12-42
	Dry Deposition	12-22
	Total	24-64

1265

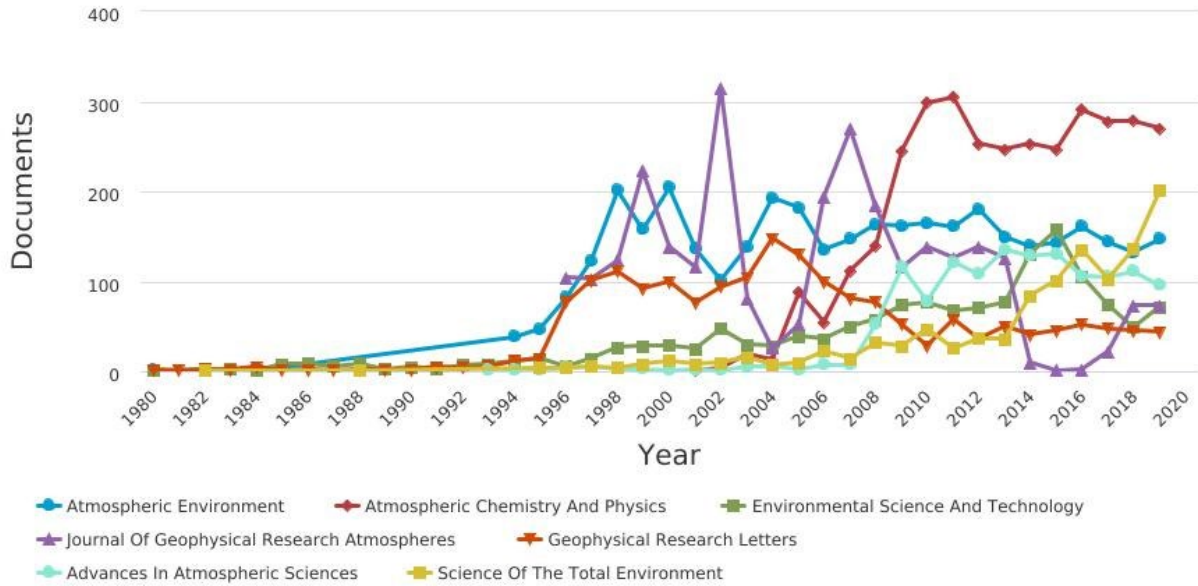
1266 Appendix 1 (Data runs to 2020 as illustrative)

1267

Documents per year by source

Scopus

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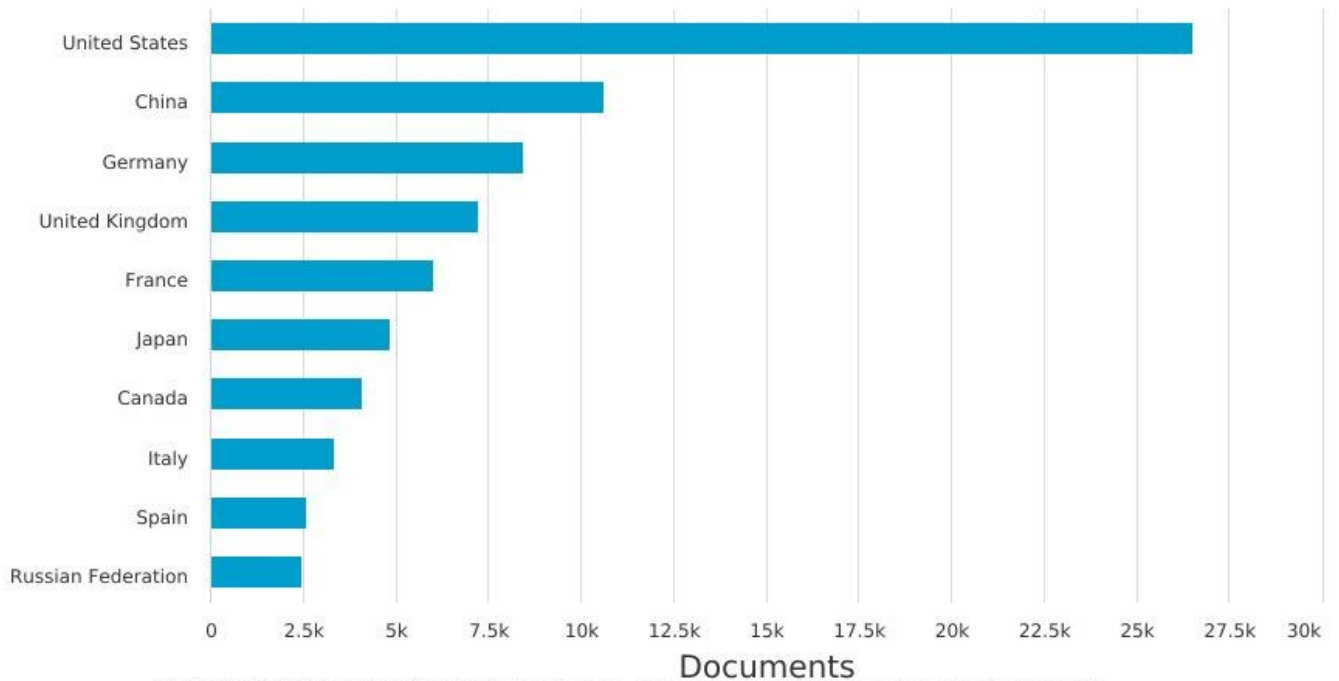
1268

1269

Documents by country or territory

Scopus

Compare the document counts for up to 15 countries/territories.



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1270

1271 **Appendix 2 - Acronyms**

ABLE	Amazon Boundary-Layer Experiment
ACE	Advanced Composition Explorer
AGAGE	Advanced Global Atmospheric Gases Experiment
AMS	Aerosol Mass Spectrometer
AOD	Aerosol Optical Depth
BBOA	Biomass-Burning Organic Aerosol
CAPRAM	Chemical Aqueous Phase Radical Mechanism
CCN	Cloud Condensation Nuclei
CFC	Chlorofluorocarbon
CLAW	Charlson-Lovelock-Andreae-Warren
CLRTAP	Convention on Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution
CRISTA	Cryogenic Infrared Spectrometers & Telescopes for the Atmosphere
CTM	Chemical Transport Model
EDGAR	Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research
EPA	United States Environmental Protection Agency
ESRL	Earth System Research Laboratory
FA-AMS	Factor Analysis of Aerosol Mass Spectrometry
FLEXPART	FLEXible PARTicle dispersion model
GC	Gas Chromatography
GC-MS	Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry
GEOS-Chem	Goddard Earth Observing System - Chemical Transport Model
GML	Global Monitoring Laboratory
GOME	Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment
HCFC	Hydrochlorofluorocarbon
HOA	Hydrocarbon-like Organic Aerosol
HYSPLIT	Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory model
IAGOS	In-service Aircraft for a Global Observing System
IGAC	International Global Atmospheric Chemistry
IGBP	International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IUPAC	International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry
JPL	NASA Jet Propulsion Laboratory
LIF	Laser Induced Fluorescence
LV-OOA	Low-volatility Oxygenated Organic Aerosol
MCM	Master Chemical Mechanism
MEGAN	Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature
MODIS	Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer
MOPITT	Measurements Of Pollution In The Troposphere

MOZAIC	Measurements of Ozone and water vapour by in-service Airbus aircraft
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NEC	National Emissions reduction Commitments
NMHC	Non-Methane Hydrocarbon
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
OA	Organic Aerosol
OMI	Ozone Monitoring Instrument
OOA	Oxygenated Organic Aerosol
OPE	Ozone Production Efficiency
PAN	Peroxyacetyl Nitrate
PM	Particulate Matter
POA	Primary Organic Aerosol
PSC	Polar Stratospheric Clouds
RACM	Regional Atmospheric Chemistry Mechanism
RADM	Regional Acid Deposition Model
RF	Radiative Forcing
RRKM	Rice-Ramsperger-Kassel-Marcus
SAPRC	Statewide Air Pollution Research Center
SCIAMACHY	SCanning Imaging Absorption spectrometer for Atmospheric Cartography
SeaWiFS	Sea-Viewing Wide Field-of-View Sensor
SHADOZ	Southern Hemisphere Additional Ozone sondes
SOA	Secondary Organic Aerosol
STE	Stratospheric-Tropospheric Exchange
SV-OOA	Semi-volatile Oxygenated Organic Aerosol
TES	Technology Experiment Satellite
TOMS	Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UV	Ultraviolet
VOC	Volatile Organic Compound
WCRP	World Climate Research Program
WRF	Weather Research and Forecasting model
WRF-Chem	Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled to Chemistry

1272

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