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Contributions to OH reactivity from unexplored volatile organic compounds measured by PTR-ToF-MS– A case study in a suburban forest of the Seoul Metropolitan Area during KORUS-AQ 2016

Dianne Sanchez,¹ Roger Seco,^{1*} Dasa Gu,¹ Alex Guenther,¹ John Mak,² Youngjae Lee,³ Danbi Kim,³ Joonyoung Ahn,³ Don Blake,⁴ Scott Herndon,⁵ Daun Jeong,¹ John T. Sullivan,⁶ Thomas Mcgee,⁶ and Saewung Kim^{1*}

1. Department of Earth System Science, University of California, Irvine, Irvine CA 92697, U.S.A.

2. School of Marine and Atmospheric Sciences, Stony Brooke University, Stony Brook, NY 11794, U.S.A.

3. National Institute of Environmental Research, Inchoen 22689, South Korea

4. Department of Chemistry, University of California, Irvine, Irvine CA 92697, U.S.A.

5. Aerodyne Research Inc., Billerica MA 01821, U.S.A.

6. NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Chemistry and Dynamics Laboratory, Greenbelt, MD 20771, U.S.A.

* Now at: Terrestrial Ecology Section, Department of Biology, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark and Center for Permafrost (CENPERM), Department of Geosciences and Natural Resource Management, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark

Corresponding author: saewung.kim@uci.edu, tel 1-949-824-4531

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26 **Abstract**

27

28 We report OH reactivity observations by a chemical ionization mass spectrometer –
29 comparative reactivity method (CIMS-CRM) instrument in a suburban forest of the Seoul
30 Metropolitan Area (SMA) during Korea US Air Quality Study (KORUS-AQ 2016) from mid-
31 May to mid-June of 2016. A comprehensive observational suite was deployed to quantify
32 reactive trace gases inside of the forest canopy including a high-resolution proton transfer
33 reaction time of flight mass spectrometer (PTR-ToF-MS). An average OH reactivity of $30.7 \pm$
34 5.1 s^{-1} was observed, while the OH reactivity calculated from CO, NO + NO₂ (NO_x), ozone (O₃),
35 sulfur dioxide (SO₂), and 14 volatile organic compounds (VOCs) was $11.8 \pm 1.0 \text{ s}^{-1}$. An analysis
36 of 346 peaks from the PTR-ToF-MS accounted for an additional $6.0 \pm 2.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ of the total
37 measured OH reactivity, leaving 42.0 % missing OH reactivity. A series of analyses indicates
38 that the missing OH reactivity most likely comes from VOC oxidation products of both biogenic
39 and anthropogenic origin.

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50 **1. Introduction**

51 Total OH reactivity (s^{-1}), the inverse of OH lifetime, is a measure of the total amount of
52 reactive trace gases in the atmosphere in the scale of reactivity, which allow us to quantitatively
53 evaluate our ability to constrain trace gases by comparing measurements of total OH reactivity
54 with the OH reactivity calculated from a speciated reactive gas measurement dataset. The
55 fraction of observed OH reactivity that cannot be reconciled by calculated OH reactivity is
56 known as “missing OH reactivity” (Di Carlo et al., 2004;Goldstein and Galbally, 2007;Yang et
57 al., 2016). A substantial amount of missing OH reactivity has consistently been reported in
58 forest environments (30 - 80%). Di Carlo et al. (2004) conducted a study in a mixed forest near
59 Pellston, Michigan where they reported missing OH reactivity ($\sim 30\%$) larger than observational
60 uncertainty. The authors concluded that the missing sources of reactivity were primary biogenic
61 volatile organic compound (biogenic VOC, BVOC) emissions, as the degree of missing OH
62 reactivity followed the temperature dependence of terpenoid emissions. In a boreal forest in
63 Hyttiälä, Finland, Sinha et al. (2010) report a similar result with observed trace gases that
64 account for only 50% of the measured OH reactivity. They argued that oxidation products of
65 BVOCs alone could not account for the missing OH reactivity. Thus, they also concluded that
66 primary emissions were more likely to be the source of missing OH reactivity and they further
67 suggest that this could be the result of the contribution of small amounts of many reactive gases.
68 Follow up studies (Nolscher et al., 2012;Praplan et al., 2019) at the same site have presented a
69 consistent conclusion. Nolscher et al. (2012) observed the highest level of missing OH reactivity
70 during a heat wave episode, possibly inducing a stress emission response from the local forest. A
71 comprehensive analysis by Praplan et al. (2019) using a long-term observation dataset and a

72 photochemical model framework with the Master Chemical Mechanism illustrates that the model
73 simulated oxidation compound contribution can only contribute 7 % of missing OH reactivity.

74 On the other hand, some studies have attributed the sources of the missing OH reactivity
75 to unmeasured oxidation products of well-characterized BVOCs. Edwards et al. (2013)
76 measured OH reactivity in a pristine tropical forest in the Sabah region of Borneo during the
77 Oxidant and Particle Photochemical Processes (OP3) field campaign (Hewitt et al., 2010). This
78 study implemented the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCMv3.2) (Saunders et al., 2003; Jenkin
79 et al., 1997) into a box model framework to quantify potential contributions from unmeasured
80 oxidation products. The model was constrained with VOCs such as isoprene, monoterpenes, and
81 alkanes and alkenes and other observed trace gases such as $\text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$ (NO_x) and ozone (O_3).
82 The authors reported that the model simulated oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs) could contribute
83 47.1% of the calculated OH reactivity – surpassing the contribution from isoprene, the primary
84 emission of this ecosystem. It is notable that 30% of observed OH reactivity could not be
85 accounted for by the box model simulations. After examining the comprehensive observational
86 suite of VOCs, the authors determined that the most significant missing sources of OH reactivity
87 were likely secondary multifunctional carbon compounds rather than primary BVOC emissions.
88 Hansen et al. (2014) suggested that their observed missing OH reactivity were likely from
89 unmeasured oxidation products during the Community Atmosphere-Biosphere Interaction
90 Experiment (CABINEX 2009) in Michigan. This notion was also consistent with findings
91 reported by Kim et al. (2011) who measured OH reactivity of branch enclosures from four
92 representative tree species in the forest canopy during the CABINEX study. They reconciled
93 most of the measured OH reactivity of four representative tree species with well-known BVOCs,
94 such as isoprene and monoterpenes. Finally, Nakashima et al. (2014) reported that 29.5% OH

95 reactivity could not be reconciled by the speciated trace gas dataset during the Bio-hydro-
96 atmosphere interactions of Energy, Aerosols, Carbon, H₂O, Organics and Nitrogen-Southern
97 Rocky Mountain 2008 (BEACHON-SMR08) field campaign (Ortega et al., 2014). The campaign
98 took place at the Manitou Experimental Forest (MEF) in Colorado, a ponderosa pine plantation
99 dominated by primary BVOC emissions of 2-methyl-3-butene-2-ol (232-MBO) and
100 monoterpenes (Ortega et al., 2014). The authors also reported that the missing OH reactivity was
101 likely from BVOC oxidation products. In the same context, Kim et al. (2010) conducted PTR-
102 MS mass spectrum analysis for both ambient air and branch enclosures at the MEF site. They
103 reported more conspicuous unidentified signals on PTR-MS mass spectra in the ambient samples
104 than those from branch enclosure samples at this site.

105 During the Southern Oxidant and Aerosol Study (SOAS) in 2013, Kaiser et al. (2016)
106 used a comprehensive suite of VOC measurements at an isoprene dominant forest site in the
107 southeastern US to examine the role of the OVOC species in missing reactive carbon. The
108 authors used MCMv3.2 embedded in the University of Washington Chemical Box Model
109 (UWCM) to compare OH reactivity from model-generated OVOCs to OH reactivity from
110 measurements of OVOCs. There was no significant discrepancy between the average measured
111 and calculated OH reactivity including observed trace gases and model calculated oxidation
112 products of VOCs. However, it was noted that a small portion (1 s^{-1}) of observed OH reactivity
113 could not be reconciled by the model calculation. As this fraction was not correlated to isoprene
114 oxidation products, it was suggested that the missing OH reactivity may be due to unmeasured
115 primary emissions. One caveat of this analysis pointed out by the authors was that the
116 concentrations of the modeled first-generation isoprene oxidation products (e.g. MVK, MACR,
117 isoprene hydroxy hydroperoxides (ISOPOOH), isoprene nitrates (ISOPN), and hydroperoxy

118 aldehydes (HPALD)) were significantly overpredicted in the afternoon. Consequently, the
119 uncertainty of the model calculation is likely to be much higher for the multi-generation
120 oxidation products and their contributions to the OH reactivity contributions. This result
121 highlights the uncertainty in relying solely on box-model results to assess OH reactivity. This
122 *status quo* urges us to take a convergent approach by effectively integrating observational results
123 from novel instrumentation and model outcomes.

124 This study examines the OH reactivity observations at Taehwa Research Forest (TRF)
125 supersite from 15 May 2016 to 7 June 2016 during the Korea United States Air Quality Study
126 2016 (KORUS-AQ 2016) campaign. TRF (37° 18' 19.08" N 127° 19' 7.12" E, 162 m altitude) is
127 operated by Seoul National University and located in Gwangju in the Gyunggi Province in South
128 Korea (Kim et al., 2013b). The site is about 35 km southeast from the center of Seoul and
129 borders the greater Seoul Metropolitan Area (SMA) with its population of 25.6 million. This
130 geographical proximity to SMA results in a significant level of anthropogenic influence,
131 particularly in elevated NO_x (Kim et al., 2016). Additionally, occasional pollution transport
132 events occur at regional scales. Previous studies at the site have consistently highlighted the
133 importance of BVOC photochemistry at TRF (Kim et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2013a; Kim et al.,
134 2015). Isoprene and monoterpenes are the dominant OH sinks at the site among observed VOCs.
135 The elevated NO_x accelerates the photochemical processing of VOCs (Kim et al., 2015). Thus,
136 this site is an ideal natural laboratory to study contributions towards total OH reactivity from
137 primary trace gas emissions from both natural and anthropogenic processes and their oxidation
138 products. This motivated us to deploy a high-resolution proton transfer reaction time-of-flight
139 mass spectrometer (PTR-ToF-MS) to quantify trace amounts of VOCs with unknown molecular
140 structures by taking advantage of the universal sensitivity of hydronium ion chemistry towards

141 reactive VOCs (Graus et al., 2010; Jordan et al., 2009a). Therefore, we intend to observationally
142 constrain the contributions of conventionally unidentified or unmeasured VOCs towards OH
143 reactivity.

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145 **2. Methods**

146 **2.1. Field Site**

147 The Taehwa Research Forest is a Korean pine (*Pinus koraiensis*) plantation (300 m × 300
148 m) surrounded by a deciduous forest dominated by oak trees (Kim et al., 2013b). A flux tower
149 (40 m height) at the center of TRF has air-sampling inlets at multiple heights (4 m, 8 m 12 m,
150 and 16 m) below the canopy top (20 m). Each inlet consists of Teflon tubing (3/8" OD) with ~ 1
151 second of residence time. The trace gas dataset including VOCs presented is the average of
152 concentrations measured at the inlets inside of the canopy as previous studies illustrate that there
153 is no substantial vertical VOC gradients inside of the canopy (within 3 %, Kim et al. (2013b)).
154 An air-conditioned instrument shack located at the base of the flux tower housed the PTR-ToF-
155 MS for VOC measurements, a mini tunable infrared laser direct absorption spectroscopy (mini-
156 TILDAS) instrument for HCHO, methane, and methanol measurements, and analyzers for
157 carbon monoxide (CO), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), ozone (O₃), and meteorological measurements. The
158 OH reactivity and NO_x analyzers were located in another nearby air-conditioned shack (3 m
159 apart) and sampled air through an extended Teflon inlet line of 4 m (1/4" OD) from the ground
160 with a flow rate of 4 sLpm resulting in a 0.5 second residence time. The height of the ambient air
161 intake was 3.5 m. The analytical characteristics of the instrumentation suite are summarized in
162 Table 1. A ceilometer backscattering characterized boundary layer vertical structure at the site.
163 The ceilometer analysis described by Sullivan et al. (2019) reveals the diurnal boundary layer

164 height evolution, indicating a maximum in the afternoon around 1-3 km and a minimum in the
165 early morning below 500 m.

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167 ***2.2.OH Reactivity Measurements***

168 A chemical ionization mass spectrometer – comparative reactivity method (CIMS-CRM)
169 instrument was used to measure OH reactivity. The UCI CIMS-CRM system includes a chemical
170 ionization mass spectrometer with a hydronium reagent ion. The CRM method measures total
171 OH reactivity by quantifying the relative loss of pyrrole, a highly reactive gas ($k_{\text{OH}^+ \text{pyrrole}} = 1.07$
172 $\times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 298 K (Dillon et al., 2012)) that is rarely found in the atmosphere
173 (Sinha et al., 2008b). Nitrogen gas flows through a bubbler full of ultrapure liquid
174 chromatography mass spectrometer (LC-MS) grade water to produce water vapor. The water
175 vapor then flows into a glass reactor where it is photolyzed into OH radicals by a mercury lamp
176 (Pen-Ray® Light Source P/N 90-0012-01). The measurement uncertainty is 16.7% (1σ) with a
177 limit of detection of 4.5 s^{-1} over 2 minutes (3σ).

178 The UCI CIMS-CRM instrument has been deployed on multiple occasions, including the
179 Megacity Air Pollution Study (MAPS)-Seoul 2015 campaign that incorporated previous
180 measurements at the TRF ground site during September 2015 (Sanchez et al., 2018; Kim et al.,
181 2016). During the SOAS 2013 campaign, an ambient OH reactivity intercomparison study was
182 conducted with laser induced fluorescence (LIF) system (Sanchez et al., 2018). The instrument
183 intercomparison showed that the OH reactivity measurements from the CRM and LIF
184 instruments generally agreed within the analytical uncertainty. An average of 16% difference
185 between the techniques was noted in the late afternoons where the CRM measurements were
186 lower than those from LIF. As discussed in Sanchez et al. (2018), this is likely caused by the

187 difference in sampling strategies, as the CRM measurements relied on a lengthy Teflon inlet (15
188 m) while the LIF directly sampled air at the top of a walk up tower. As mentioned above, at TRF
189 we used a shorter inlet line to minimize residence time and avoid inlet line loss.

190 An extensive intercomparison study was conducted by Fuchs et al. (2017) with various
191 OH reactivity measurement techniques that highlighted potential analytical artifacts in the CRM
192 technique. These artifacts have all been examined and preventive measures have been
193 implemented in the UCI CIMS-CRM system deployed at TRF. This included a laboratory-built
194 catalytic converter (Pt-wool at 350 °C) that minimized the interferences due to changes in air to
195 prevent the interference from the difference in humidity for the zero air characterizations.
196 Hansen et al. (2015) illustrated that NO_x may be generated from the catalytic converter. To
197 prevent potential NO_x interferences, they used a scrubber with Purafil and activated charcoal,
198 which will modulate the humidity in the sample. Our approach to this type of interference has
199 been to determine the maximum NO level, noticeably interfering with the calibration regression
200 line shown in Sanchez et al. (2018). Laboratory tests indicate that the statistical agreement
201 started to veer off when the NO level is 5 ppb in 1 σ of the linear regression between instrument
202 response (unitless) and OH reactivity (s⁻¹) as the slope for the calibration curve has changed from
203 0.238 to 0.246. In addition, Kim et al. (2016) achieved an OH reactivity budget closure in high
204 NO₂ condition, which implies no significant interferences from NO₂. However, in response to the
205 Fuchs et al. (2017) observation that various CRM configurations suffer from different levels of
206 NO_x interferences, we plan to conduct more systematic NO_x interference tests to more
207 accurately characterize this system. In conclusion, one should note that our reported OH
208 reactivity could potentially underestimate actual ambient OH reactivity as much as the
209 contributions from those from ambient NO₂.

210 We consistently kept the pyrrole to OH ratio at 3:1 and so did not achieve a pseudo first
211 order relationship. Even in the field environment with various relative humidity, we have not
212 observed noticeable changes in this ratio as we flow bulk humidified nitrogen (150 standard cc
213 per minute) to the reactor with the total flow of 240 cc, which result in dampening the temporal
214 ambient relative humidity variations. Therefore, we performed multi-point calibrations (5 s^{-1} to
215 30 s^{-1}) with a propene mixture using a NIST traceable gas standard (AirLiquide LLC, 0.847
216 ppm) during the field campaign to avoid any circumstances where the pseudo first-order reaction
217 regime is not established. Detailed calibration procedures for the OH reactivity system including
218 laboratory multi-component calibration results can be found in Sanchez et al. (2018).

219 In addition, Fuchs et al. (2017) also described a potential interference from ambient O_3 in
220 some CRM systems. In the 2015 field campaigns conducted in Seoul South Korea (Kim et al.,
221 2016), we conducted a standard addition experiment for the propene standard for additional ~ 30
222 s^{-1} in two different ozone environment 65 ppb and 123 ppb. The outcome illustrates an
223 agreement between two additions within the analytical uncertainty although a systematic
224 laboratory study will warrant an accurate uncertainty assessment from ozone. Again, as the CRM
225 method is a relatively new technique, one should keep in mind that the future studies may find
226 potential artifacts that we do not report in this study.

227

228 ***2.3. PTR-ToF-MS Measurements***

229 A high-resolution PTR-TOF-MS (Ionicon Analytik GmbH) (de Gouw and Warneke,
230 2007b) (Jordan et al., 2009b) was deployed at the TRF site. The instrument was operated with a
231 drift tube temperature of $60 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, 560 V drift voltage, and 2.27 mbar drift tube to maintain E/N of
232 126 Td. Background checks were manually conducted about three times a day for a 10-minute

233 duration by scrubbing the ambient air through a catalytic convertor (Pt-wool maintained at
234 350°C). The detectable peaks from the ambient spectra were assessed by subtracting the
235 background spectrum. The instrument was calibrated with a gas mixture manufactured by Apel-
236 Riemer Environmental Inc. The mixture contains ~ 1 ppmv of acetaldehyde, acetone, isoprene,
237 methyl vinyl ketone, methacrolein, benzene, methyl ethyl ketone, toluene, o-xylene, and α -
238 pinene. This standard mixture was only used for the PTR-ToF-MS calibration and not the CRM-
239 CIMS calibration. The concentration of the compounds were assessed in the Blake Lab at
240 University of California, Irvine, who also conducted the airborne VOC analysis using whole air
241 samples during the KORUS-AQ campaign on the NASA DC-8 (Colman et al., 2001).

242 A mass range of m/z 40 to m/z 267 was analyzed from the recorded PTR-ToF-MS mass
243 spectra. An automatic mass scale calibration was conducted every 5 minutes on the data
244 averaged over 30 seconds. The raw PTR-ToF-MS data were processed using the PTRwid
245 software described by Holzinger (2015). We normalized the mass peaks by 10^6 reagent ion
246 counts (H_3O^+). As the majority of the VOC mass peaks could not be directly calibrated, we
247 determined the VOC sensitivities using equation 1 (Eq 1). This method has been employed by a
248 number of previous studies such as Cappellin et al. (2012). The benzene calibration factor was
249 used to calculate mixing ratios by applying its proton transfer reaction rate coefficient (k_{benzene}
250 $\text{cm}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) and sensitivity (S_{benzene} , ncps ppb $^{-1}$) for the available compounds. The application of this
251 equation can be justified since PTRwid provides the mass discrimination corrected counts as a
252 final computational product.

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$$255 \chi_{\text{VOC}} = c_{\text{VOC}} \times \frac{k_{\text{benzene}}}{k_{\text{VOC}}} \times \frac{1}{S_{\text{benzene}}} \text{ Eq. 1}$$

256

257 where, χ_{VOC} is the mixing ratio of an analyte.
258 $S_{benzene}$ is the assessed sensitivity of benzene (11.94 ncps ppb⁻¹).
259 c_{VOC} is the mass discrimination corrected normalized count for an analyte.
260 $k_{benzene}$ is the proton transfer reaction rate constant for benzene.
261 k_{VOC} is the proton transfer reaction rate constant for an analyte.
262
263

264 For the mass peaks where specific proton transfer reaction rates were unavailable, we
265 estimated the mixing ratios by applying a proton transfer reaction rate coefficient ($k_{H_3O^+}$) of 3.00
266 $\times 10^{-9}$ cm³ s⁻¹, the default value for PTRwid calculations. The spectra had a limit of detection of
267 tens of ppt for a 30 second average. The calibrated compounds had a range of detection limits as
268 low as 3.7 ppt for α -pinene and as high as 48 ppt for toluene.

269

270 **2.4. OH Reactivity Calculation**

271 OH reactivity was calculated from the concentrations of all the compounds observed by
272 the instrumental suite described in Table 1. The original data can be found in the KORUS-AQ
273 2016 data archive at <https://korus-aq.larc.nasa.gov/>. A total of 360 mass peaks measured by the
274 PTR-ToF-MS were analyzed above the background (3 σ or above) to assess their contribution to
275 the calculated OH reactivity. Fourteen of the mass peaks were identified as VOCs commonly
276 reported for PTR-MS measurements (Table 1), leaving 346 unidentified peaks. These remaining
277 mass peaks were grouped into three categories in order to estimate their possible OH reactivity
278 contribution.

279 Category I (81 peaks) included mass peaks for which the PTRwid software calculated a
280 molecular formula. OH reaction rate coefficients for the individual peaks were obtained from the
281 National Institute for Standards and Technology (NIST) Webbook library. As the only
282 information we have is the molecular composition, we identified multiple isomers with different

283 functional groups and thus different reactivity. We have extensively reviewed previous
284 publications (Williams et al., 2001;De Gouw et al., 2003;de Gouw and Warneke, 2007a;Jordan et
285 al., 2009a;Ruuskanen et al., 2011;Muller et al., 2012;Koss et al., 2017a) identifying ambient
286 VOCs using PTR-MS with both quadrupole and time-of-flight systems to identify possible
287 compounds. For example, for the m/z of 75.043, there are four possible compounds including
288 hydroxy acetone, propionic acid, methyl acetate, and ethyl formate. We used the median reaction
289 constant for the set of possible compounds. The detailed description of the OH reaction constant
290 determination process for the Category I peaks is described in Sanchez (2019). If the information
291 was unavailable from the NIST Webbook database, a structure-reactivity relationship described
292 by Kwok and Atkinson (1995) was applied to obtain reaction rate coefficients. This is an
293 empirical calculation system to estimate k_{OH} based upon the number of carbons and the
294 functional groups of given VOCs. The framework is able to calculate k_{OH} within a factor of two
295 according to a thorough assessments presented in Kwok and Atkinson (1995). However, the
296 authors discourage the application of the framework to compounds that were not examined in the
297 study such as halogenated compounds. Although halogenated compounds are not included in this
298 study, one should be aware of a potentially significant uncertainty.

299 Category II (28 peaks) included mass peaks for which the PTRwid software could not
300 assess an exact molecular composition due to uncertainty in the data processing system.
301 Nonetheless, this group of compounds illustrated a positive correlation ($R^2 = 0.19$ to 0.88) with
302 either anthropogenic (benzene, toluene) or biogenic (MVK+MACR and monoterpenes) VOCs.
303 Category II compounds are further grouped into subcategories corresponding to these two main
304 VOC sources. OH reaction rate constants (k_{OH}) were estimated with equations based on the
305 relationship between the m/z and the k_{OH} of compounds in Table 1 (Figure S1). More

306 specifically, we assume that k_{OH} is linearly correlated with m/z . To apply this linear relationship,
307 the compounds with known k_{OH} were grouped into 5 m/z bins and the average k_{OH} of each bin
308 was calculated. The green triangles represent 5 m/z binned averages from these compounds
309 plotted with their respective average k_{OH} . This approach can be justified by the fact that the
310 reaction constants of VOCs towards OH tend to increase as a function of molecular mass within
311 functional groups (Kwok and Atkinson, 1995; Atkinson, 1987). The y-intercepts of the linear
312 regressions were assessed using the k_{OH} values of the biogenic or anthropogenic compounds and
313 their masses.

314 Category III (237 peaks) included mass peaks with very low mixing ratios (average = 4.8
315 ppt \pm 19.5 ppt) that were above the limit of detection. We applied a k_{OH} corresponding to the dark
316 green best-fit line in Figure S1 to these peaks. The y-intercept of the dark green line was based
317 on that of acetaldehyde, as it was the lowest mass compound used for the OH reactivity
318 calculations in this study.

319 There are two components that need to be considered for the assessment of uncertainty
320 associated with calculated OH reactivity: the concentration and the reaction constants with OH.
321 The uncertainty of the observed trace gases is in the range of 5 % to 20 % as shown in Table 1
322 and is associated with the rate constants from laboratory experiments (Atkinson et al., 2006).
323 Combining 15 % uncertainty from reaction constants and 13.5 % from trace gas observations
324 results in 20 % of uncertainty in calculated OH reactivity. This should be considered as a
325 conservative estimate as most VOC concentrations and associated rate constants are empirically
326 estimated.

327

328 3. Results and Discussion

329 An average OH reactivity of $30.7 \pm 5.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$ was observed from 15 May – 7 June 2016
330 (Figure 1). This was within the range of OH reactivity observed in urban regions (10 - 33 s^{-1}).
331 (Kovacs et al., 2003;Ren et al., 2003;Sinha et al., 2008a;Dolgorouky et al., 2012;Whalley et al.,
332 2016;Kim et al., 2016;Yang et al., 2017) and in the range of previously reported observations
333 and model calculations at the TRF site ($\sim 15 - 35 \text{ s}^{-1}$) (Kim et al., 2016;Kim et al., 2015). The
334 total calculated OH reactivity of $11.8 \pm 1.0 \text{ s}^{-1}$ from the measured compounds in Table 1 resulted
335 in 63.3% missing OH reactivity. Again, the potential underestimation in ambient OH reactivity
336 as much as the contributions from ambient NO_2 , presented in the method section, should be well
337 noted. However, an additional OH reactivity of $6.0 \pm 2.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ was further calculated from the
338 reactivity of the VOCs in Categories I – III. The contribution lowered the missing OH reactivity
339 level to 42% of the measured OH reactivity. Kim et al. (2016) had previously measured an
340 average OH reactivity of 16.5 s^{-1} at TRF during the MAPS-Seoul campaign from 1 September –
341 15 September 2015, a substantially lower level than what we report during this springtime study.
342 Although small alkanes and alkenes such as ethane, ethene, propane and propene were not
343 observed on the site, we utilized the dataset from the NASA DC-8 that flew at 700 m above the
344 site, which indicates that their contribution was consistently small ($\sim 0.7 \text{ s}^{-1}$ in average). In this
345 suburban forest, we do not think there is any substantial emission sources of these relatively
346 long-lived VOCs.

347 The difference can be attributed to the notably higher reactive trace gas loadings during
348 KORUS-AQ compared to the TRF measurements during MAPS-Seoul. The NO_x , benzene, and
349 toluene concentrations were 3 times higher during KORUS-AQ and CO was 1.4 times higher
350 (Figure S2). Although the average isoprene concentrations were similar between the two
351 campaigns, MVK and MACR concentrations during KORUS-AQ were ~ 3 times higher,

352 illustrating a higher oxidative environment. There was a persistently high MVK+MACR to
353 isoprene ratio of 1.8 during the KORUS-AQ campaign at TRF. This ratio was similar to the
354 value reported during the summer in a moderately polluted forest in the Pearl River Delta that
355 was attributed to a strong atmospheric oxidation capacity (Gong et al., 2018). The missing OH
356 reactivity during KORUS-AQ was generally much higher than levels reported during urban
357 observations (up to 50% missing OH reactivity) (Kovacs et al., 2003;Ren et al., 2003;Sinha et
358 al., 2008a;Dolgorouky et al., 2012;Whalley et al., 2016;Kim et al., 2016;Yang et al., 2017) and
359 within the range of previously reported values in forest regions where as much as 80% missing
360 OH reactivity has been reported (Kim et al., 2016;Di Carlo et al., 2004;Nolscher et al.,
361 2012;Edwards et al., 2013;Nolscher et al., 2016;Ramasamy et al., 2018;Nakashima et al., 2014).

362 Figure 2 shows the diurnal average of measured, calculated, and missing OH reactivity
363 from 15 May – 7 June 2016. Isoprene was the largest contributor to VOC OH reactivity in the
364 afternoon and the early evening (36% of the calculated OH reactivity in the evening), consistent
365 with the previous studies conducted in this site (Kim et al., 2016;Kim et al., 2013b;Kim et al.,
366 2015). Among all the trace gases, the largest average contributor to the calculated OH reactivity
367 was NO_x, which contributed 18.2% (5.6 s⁻¹) to the measured OH reactivity. The NO_x
368 contribution to OH reactivity is higher during the morning and evening rush hours and at a
369 minimum in the afternoon, which has been reported consistently in previous reports conducted
370 near megacities (Kovacs et al., 2003;Mao et al., 2010;Dolgorouky et al., 2012;Ren et al.,
371 2003;Shirley et al., 2006). Enhanced OH reactivity during the morning or night and minimum
372 OH reactivity during the afternoon have been reported in urban areas (Kovacs et al., 2003;Ren et
373 al., 2006;Shirley et al., 2006;Dolgorouky et al., 2012;Mao et al., 2010;Whalley et al., 2016). On
374 the other hand, strong light-sensitive biogenic emissions (e.g. isoprene) result in a maximum

375 observed OH reactivity in the afternoon in forested regions (Ren et al., 2006;Sinha et al.,
376 2012;Edwards et al., 2013;Hansen et al., 2014;Zannoni et al., 2017;Nolscher et al., 2016) . One
377 exception is an OH reactivity observation conducted in Hyytiälä, a forested site that has low
378 isoprene levels, by Sinha et al. (2010). They attributed a flat diurnal OH reactivity variation to
379 the interplay between high daytime emissions and low nighttime boundary layer height. In urban
380 environments, it is mostly anthropogenic trace gases such as aromatics and OVOCs that
381 contribute to OH reactivity. These compounds have a longer lifetime compared to the diurnal
382 boundary layer evolution. This leads to the accumulation of such compounds in the shallow
383 boundary layer during the night. On the other hand, strong emissions of reactive BVOCs in
384 deciduous forest regions enhance OH reactivity during the daytime but then quickly react away.
385 Very subtle diurnal differences observed in this study (Figure 2), therefore, can be understood as
386 the competitive influences of both anthropogenic and biogenic compounds to the OH reactivity.

387 As described in detail in Sullivan et al. (2019) and Jeong et al. (2019), a strong regional
388 stagnation episode occurred during the KORUS-AQ campaign between May 17 – 23. Later, the
389 Korean Peninsula was affected by a period of continental pollution outflow between May 28 and
390 June 1. The diurnal averages of the two periods and their calculated OH reactivity are presented
391 in Figure 3. It is notable that there is very little difference in the observed OH reactivity between
392 the two distinct periods in terms of the amount of OH reactivity and its diurnal pattern (Figure 4).
393 Furthermore, no significant variance of the different classes of reactive gases such as criteria air
394 pollutants (CO, NO_x, O₃, and SO₂), mostly contributed by NO_x, OVOCs (acetone, acetaldehyde,
395 formaldehyde, methylglyoxal, methanol, methyl ethyl ketone), aromatics (benzene, toluene,
396 xylenes, styrene, benzaldehyde, trimethylbenzenes), and BVOCs (isoprene, monoterpenes,
397 sesquiterpenes, MVK+MACR) was observed during the different periods (Figure 5). These

398 different classes of reactive gases generally differed by less than 10% during the two periods
399 from the overall campaign. This observation shows that the presence of reactive gases is mostly
400 controlled by relatively short-lived compounds determined by local emissions and their oxidation
401 products.

402 The diurnal variation behavior of each chemical class reflects the chemical lifetime of the
403 compounds (e.g. aromatics vs BVOCs). The calculated OH reactivity from OVOCs does not
404 show a strong diurnal variation. This reflects the fact that OVOCs are mostly generated or
405 emitted during the daytime and their lifetime is generally longer than their precursors, which
406 allows nocturnal accumulation due to the absence of OH. The differences in the diurnal variation
407 of different classes of reactive gases can also be used to interpret the origin of the compounds in
408 Categories I-III as presented in Figure 6. The diurnal variations of Category I resemble those of
409 relatively long-lived chemical species with a distinct nocturnal accumulation pattern. This
410 diurnal pattern has been previously reported for both anthropogenic VOCs such as toluene and
411 benzene and temperature dependent monoterpenes such as α -pinene. It is notable that the diurnal
412 pattern is enhanced during the stagnation period during early morning hours. This enhancement
413 is also seen in the aromatic trace gases particularly during the stagnation period (Figure 5b).

414 Indeed, there are both biogenic and anthropogenic contributions towards the Category I
415 compounds, which contribute an average of 3.8 s^{-1} to the OH reactivity assessment, the largest
416 amount among the three categories (Figure 6a). The largest contributors to Category I, which
417 appear to be from a mixture of biogenic and anthropogenic sources, include m/z 89.060, 101.06,
418 and 101.096, and they contributed 0.3 s^{-1} , 0.2 s^{-1} , and 0.2 s^{-1} , respectively. The m/z 89.060 had a
419 molecular formula of $\text{C}_4\text{H}_8\text{O}_2\text{H}^+$ and was correlated to the anthropogenic compounds such as
420 benzene and toluene. The m/z 101.06 peak had the molecular formula of $\text{C}_5\text{H}_8\text{O}_2\text{H}^+$ and had a

421 diurnal variation similar to that of MVK + MACR. This mass peak has been previously
422 identified in laboratory (Zhao et al., 2004) and field (Williams et al., 2001) studies as the C₅
423 hydroxy carbonyl, an isoprene oxidation product. Results from an indoor chamber
424 photooxidation experiment conducted by Lee et al. (2006) showed that *m/z* 101 is a common
425 fragment of unidentified oxidation products of monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, and isoprene. Lee
426 et al. (2006) also reported that this mass peak also composed over 5% of the fragments of
427 unidentified α - humulene and linalool oxidation products. The molecular formula of this peak is
428 C₆H₁₂OH⁺, and it has been identified in previous studies as C₆ carbonyls (Koss et al., 2017b) or
429 hexanal (Brilli et al., 2014; Rinne et al., 2005). Furthermore, *m/z* 99.044 and 113.023 were also
430 among the highest contributors to Category I and were correlated with MVK and MACR. The
431 *m/z* 99 was previously reported to be a fragment ion of unidentified terpene oxidation products in
432 a chamber experiment (Lee et al., 2006). The *m/z* 113 was observed by a PTR-MS in a
433 Ponderosa pine forest in central California by Holzinger et al. (2005). In this case, it was formed
434 within the canopy from the rapid oxidation of terpinolene, myrcene, and α -terpinene.
435 Furthermore, *m/z* 113 was observed to come from the photooxidation and ozonolysis of multiple
436 terpenes in two indoor chamber studies by Lee et al. (2006). The *m/z* 113 composed over 5% of
437 the oxidation product fragments of myrcene and verbenone. Finally, *m/z* 83.085 had the
438 molecular formula of C₆H₁₁⁺ and was correlated to benzene. Multiple studies have identified this
439 peak as cyclohexane, methyl-cyclopentane, or methylcyclohexane, typically found in areas rich
440 in oil and gas (Koss et al., 2017b; Gueneron et al., 2015; Yuan et al., 2014). In summary, both the
441 gross diurnal pattern and the individual peak analyses consistently illustrates that both
442 anthropogenic and biogenic compounds comprise Category I, the largest contributor to the
443 previously unexplored compounds in the PTR-ToF-MS spectrum at this research site.

444 Category II contributed an average of 0.3 s^{-1} to the calculated OH reactivity, the lowest
445 amount for the three Categories (Figure 6b). The compounds in category II appear to correlate to
446 either BVOCs or acetone, depending on the time period. In Figure 6b, the maximum during the
447 transport period is enhanced to about 0.2 s^{-1} higher than the overall campaign and shifted about 3
448 hours later to ~4:00 PM. The OH reactivity calculated from Category II is strongly correlated to
449 MVK + MACR ($r^2 = 0.82$) during this period as well. On the other hand, during the stagnation
450 period the average OH reactivity from Category II correlates more strongly with acetone ($r^2 =$
451 0.62) than with MVK +MACR ($r^2 = 0.28$). In fact, six of the highest contributors to Category II
452 (Figure 6b) are more strongly correlated to acetone ($r^2 > 0.40$) during the stagnation period
453 compared to the transport period. The sources of acetone can be either biogenic or
454 anthropogenic. Biogenic sources include direct emissions from plants or their oxidation products
455 and plant decay (Jacob et al., 2002;Seco et al., 2007). Anthropogenic sources of acetone include
456 vehicular emissions, solvent use, and the oxidation of other anthropogenic VOCs (Jacob et al.,
457 2002). Therefore, this illustrates that the compounds in Category II also have a complex source
458 profile of both biogenic and anthropogenic origin.

459 Category III contributed 1.9 s^{-1} to the calculated OH reactivity (Figure 6c). The six
460 highest contributors out of 236 mass peaks contributed a total of 0.43 s^{-1} of the calculated OH
461 reactivity. Overall, Category III compounds had no strong correlations to isoprene,
462 MVK+MACR, benzene, or toluene during either the stagnation or transport periods. However,
463 Category III compounds were highly correlated to methylglyoxal ($r^2 = 0.85, 0.82, \text{ and } 0.78$ for
464 the stagnation, transport, and overall period, respectively), one of the measured OVOCs. A
465 global modeling study illustrated that methylglyoxal is mainly produced from isoprene oxidation
466 processes and the second most important source is acetone oxidation (Fu et al., 2008). In

467 addition, aromatics and alkenes are also known to produce methylglyoxal through atmospheric
468 oxidation processes (Henry et al., 2012). As TRF is a high aromatics and high isoprene
469 environment, the source profile of methyl glyoxal in the region is likely complex, which can be
470 applied to interpret the source of the Category III compounds.

471 Overall, the OH reactivity estimates from Categories I – III contributed an average of 6.0
472 $\pm 2.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ to the calculated OH reactivity. In summary, there is consistency that both
473 anthropogenic and the biogenic contributions need to be further studied in the PTR-ToF-MS
474 spectrum. Furthermore, by adding this additional signal from Category I, II, and III, VOC
475 contribution to calculated OH reactivity (11.0 s^{-1}) becomes larger than that (6.8 s^{-1}) from criteria
476 air pollutants (CO, NO_x, SO₂ and O₃). This should be considered when evaluating ozone
477 production regimes (Kim et al., 2018).

478 Even with the inclusion of the additional peaks to the calculated OH reactivity, we still
479 find a missing OH reactivity of 42%. Thus, it is important to investigate the origin of this
480 missing fraction. A correlation can be observed between missing OH reactivity in percentage and
481 OH reactivity from NO_x ($R^2 = 0.5$, Figure 7 A) but not between OH reactivity from NO_x and
482 absolute missing OH reactivity (s^{-1}) ($R^2 = 0.2$, Figure 7 B). This leads us to speculate that there
483 is a consistent presence of unquantified trace gases, likely oxidation products of both
484 anthropogenic and biogenic VOCs as we explored the origin of the unexplored peaks causing
485 missing OH reactivity. In other words, NO_x is relatively well measured with a highly pronounced
486 temporal variation that determines the percentage of missing OH reactivity.

487 Finally, unaccounted for uncertainty associated with the reaction rate constant
488 estimations described in the method section should be also further explored. For example, to
489 reconcile the averaged missing OH reactivity during the day (10 s^{-1}), it requires $\sim 60 \text{ ppm}$ of

490 methane but only ~ 4 ppb of isoprene. This clearly demonstrates the importance of rate constant
491 estimation. Indeed, if we apply the reaction rate constant of isoprene with OH ($k_{\text{OH}} = 1 \times 10^{-10}$
492 $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at 298 K) to Category II and Category III compounds, then the observed OH
493 reactivity is fully reconciled (Figure S3). Proton ion chemistry may have an intrinsic limitation to
494 quantify highly oxidized OVOCs. Moreover, due to the different inlet configurations for OH
495 reactivity and VOC observations, their contributions towards observed and calculated OH
496 reactivity may not have been consistently evaluated (e.g. Sanchez et al. (2018)). Therefore, a
497 comprehensive analysis along with a dataset from other instrumentation is necessary towards
498 reconciling missing OH reactivity with observational constraints. Finally, it is highly plausible
499 that we may double count for fragmented molecules in the mass spectrum. Although it would not
500 affect concentration evaluation as the intensity of ion signals from the fragmented molecules
501 would be fully accounted for by adding parent ion and fragmented ion signals, the OH reactivity
502 calculated from the fragmented ions is susceptible to underestimation from the assumption that
503 k_{OH} positively correlates with molecular masses.

504

505 **4. Summary**

506 We present OH reactivity observations at a suburban forest site during the KORUS-AQ field
507 campaign. A comprehensive trace gas dataset including 14 VOCs quantified by PTR-ToF-MS is
508 used to calculate OH reactivity, which only accounts for 36.7 % of the averaged observed OH
509 reactivity.

510 This study presents a detailed methodology for retrieving OH reactivity contributions from
511 all of the peaks of the PTR-ToF-MS mass spectrum. This decreases the amount of missing OH
512 reactivity as the majority of them have not been accounted towards calculated OH reactivity in

513 previous studies. First, we converted the raw signals to concentrations using a constant proton
514 transfer reaction rate ($3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$). Then, we grouped the previously unaccounted peaks into
515 three categories to estimate reaction constants for each compound. The contributions of the
516 unaccounted peaks in the mass spectrum account for a calculated OH reactivity of $\sim 6 \text{ s}^{-1}$, which
517 decreases missing OH reactivity from 63.3 % to 42.0 %. It is noteworthy that the diurnal
518 variations of observed OH reactivity and calculated OH reactivity from the various groups of
519 trace gases does not have a high variability during the field campaign even though there were
520 several synoptic meteorological configuration changes. This suggests that the reactive trace gas
521 loading is mostly determined by local emission and oxidation processes not influenced by the
522 synoptic meteorological conditions.

523 In conclusion, this study highlights PTR-ToF-MS as a tool for observationally constraining
524 missing OH reactivity. Further study is required particularly towards characterizing proton
525 reaction rate constants and reaction constants with OH for the many unknown compounds
526 detected on PTR-ToF-MS. In addition, other mass spectrometry techniques, such as nitrate or
527 iodine ion chemistry systems, should be utilized in future studies to complement the PTR
528 technique, which is sensitive to volatile to semi volatile VOCs, to quantify lower volatility
529 compounds and comprehensively constrain OH reactivity contributions from VOCs.

530

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532

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538

539 **Data Availability**

540

541 Data is available at: <https://korus-aq.larc.nasa.gov/>

542

543 **References**

544

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870 **Tables and Figures**

871

872 Table 1. Description of instrument and measured parameters.

Instrument	Parameters	Measurement Uncertainty (1σ) and lower level of detection limit
Chemical Ionization Spectroscopy - Comparative Reactivity Method (CIMS-CRM)	OH reactivity	16.7% (5 sec-1)
Thermo Scientific 42i	NO	20% (100 ppt)
Cavity Ring Down Spectroscopy	NO ₂	20% (50 ppt)
Thermo Scientific 49i	O ₃	4% (1 ppb)
Lufft 501 C	Temperature	±0.3 °C (NA)
Thermo Scientific 48i TLE	CO	10% (50 ppb)

Thermo Scientific 43i TLE	SO ₂	10% (100 ppt)
Mini Tunable Infrared Laser Direct Absorption Spectroscopy (mini-TILDAS) Formaldehyde Monitor(Herndon et al., 2005) (Aerodyne Research, Inc)	HCHO, CH ₄ , CH ₃ OH	5% (few tens ppt)
Proton Transfer Reaction Time of Flight Mass Spectrometer (PTR-TOF-MS 8000, IONICON Analytik, GmbH)	Acetaldehyde, Ethanol, Acetone, Isoprene, MVK + MACR, Methyl ethyl ketone, Benzene, Monoterpenes, Toluene, Furfural, Benzaldehyde, Xylenes, Trimethylbenzenes, Sesquiterpenes	Isoprene 9.8% Benzene 6.9% Toluene 6.5% Monoterpenes 9.2% Xylenes 4.0% Other 16.5% (tens ppt)

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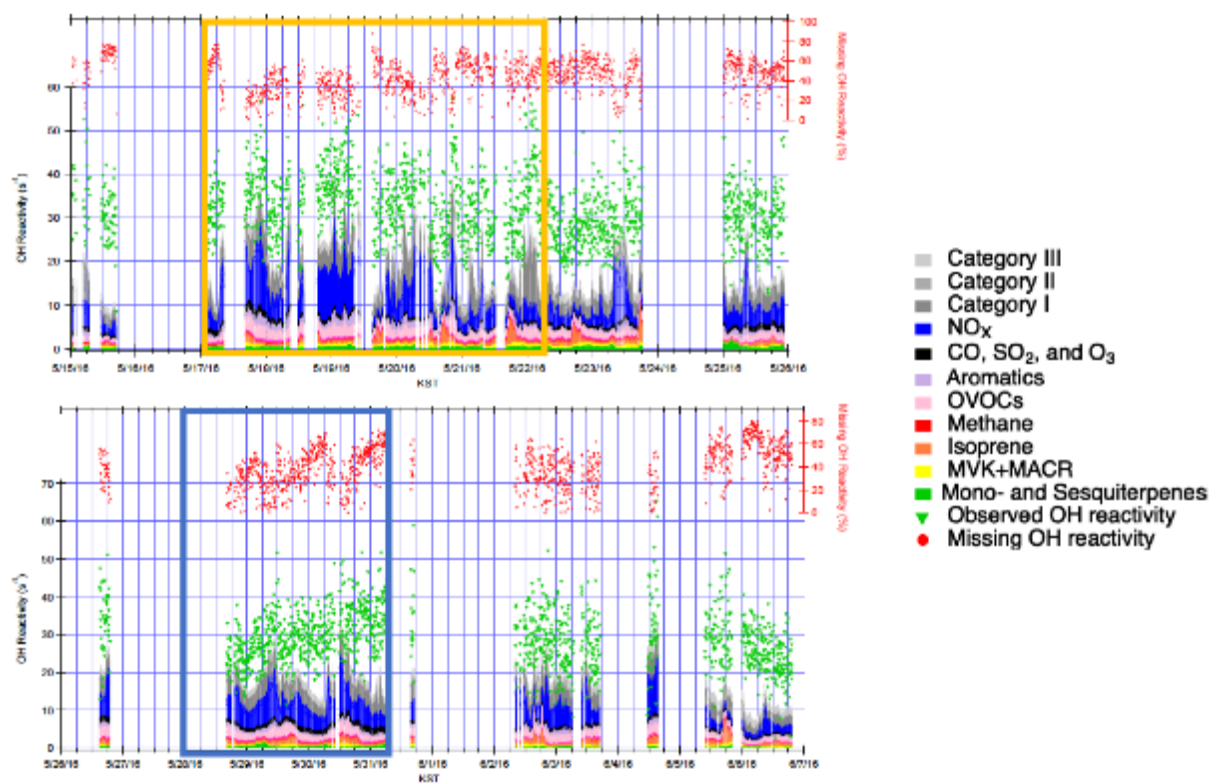
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879 Figure 1. Observed and calculated OH reactivity during KORUS-AQ 2016. The measured and
880 calculated OH reactivity are on the left axis while the missing OH reactivity is on the right axis.

881 The yellow box represents the stagnation period and the blue box represents the transport period.

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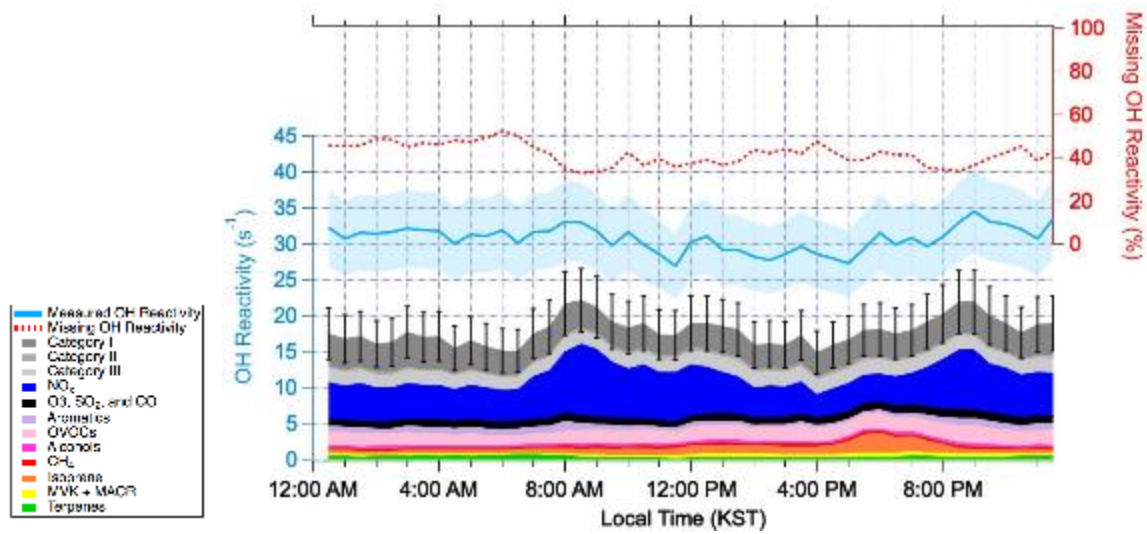


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885 Figure 2. The diurnal average of OH reactivity from 15 May 2016 – 7 June 2016. The measured
886 and calculated OH reactivity are on the left axis. The blue shading represents uncertainty in the
887 measured OH reactivity. The black bars represent the propagated uncertainty of calculated OH
888 reactivity. The missing OH Reactivity in the percentage scale can be read using the right axis.

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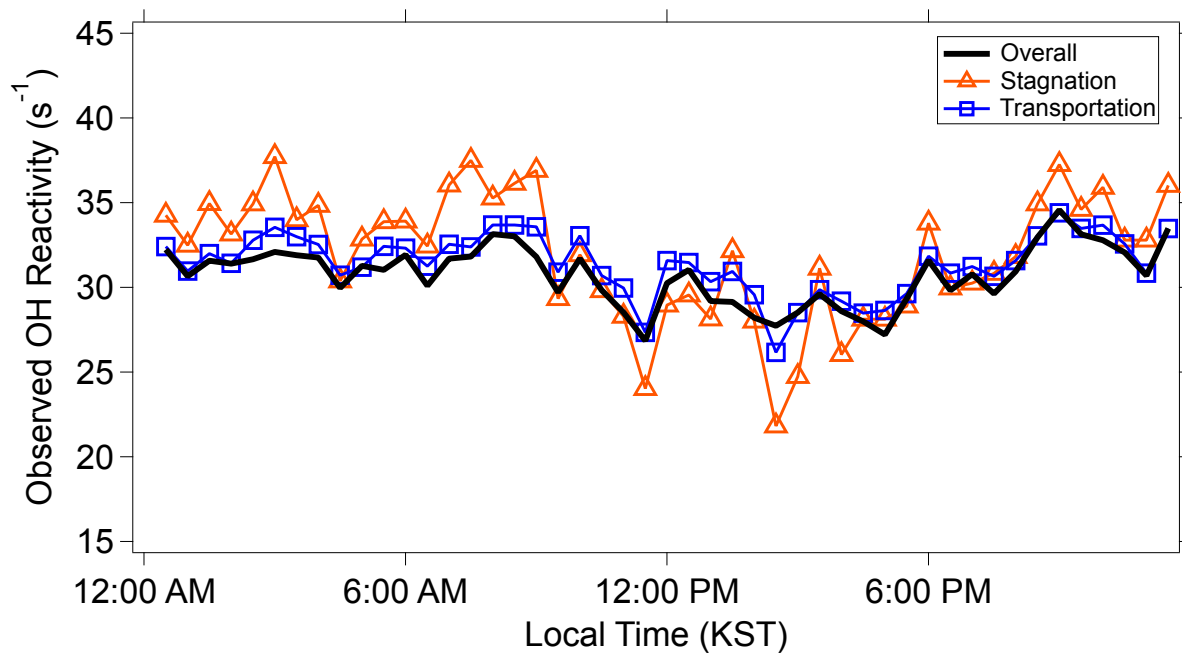
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921 Figure 4. The observed OH reactivity during the overall campaign, stagnation period, and

922 transport period.

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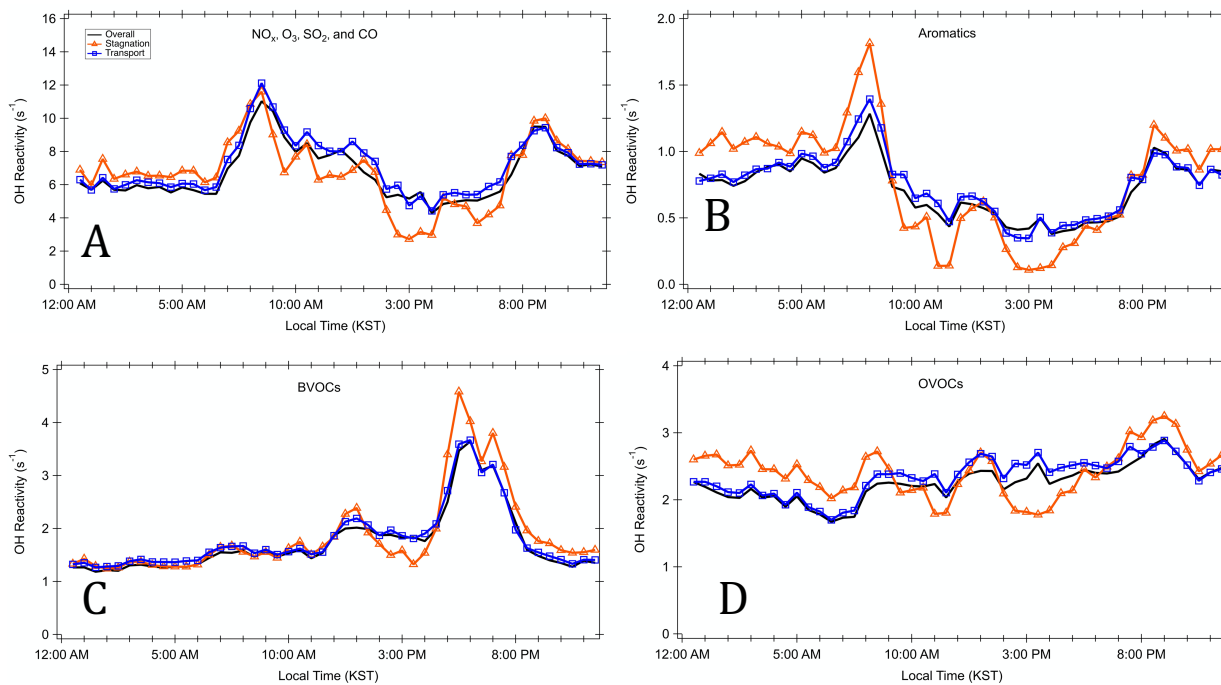
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935 Figure 5. Diurnal profiles for different classes of trace gases during the different periods. A)

936 criteria pollutants NO_x , O_3 , SO_2 , and CO B) Aromatics, C) BVOCs, and D) OVOCs

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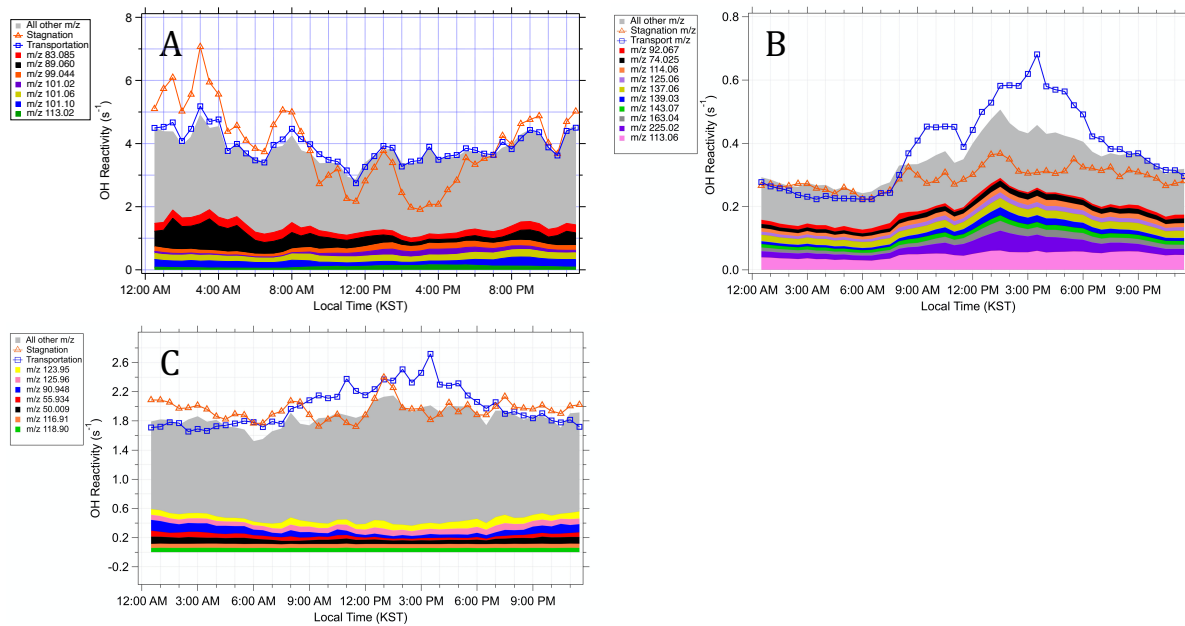
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949 Figure 6. Diurnal averages of the OH reactivity from the compounds in A) Category I, B)
950 Category II and C) Category III

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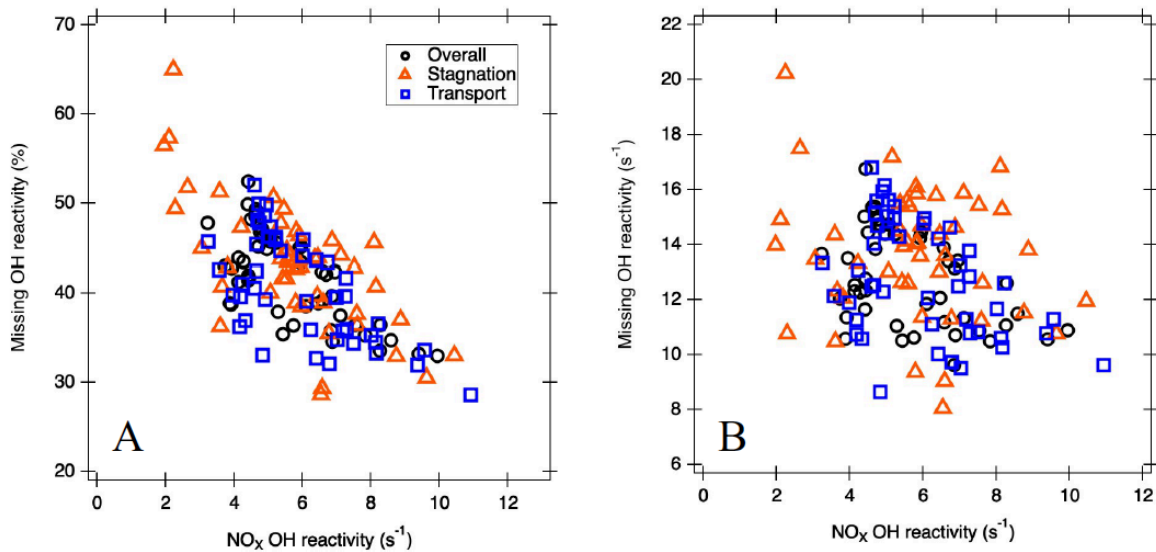
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965 Figure 7. The correlation between A) NO_x OH reactivity and absolute missing OH reactivity and
966 B) percent missing OH reactivity

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