



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

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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  $5.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$  was observed, while the OH reactivity calculated from CO, NO + NO<sub>2</sub> (NO<sub>x</sub>), ozone (O<sub>3</sub>),  
35 sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), 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. The missing OH reactivity most  
38 likely comes from VOC oxidation products of both biogenic and anthropogenic origin.

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49        **1. Introduction**

50            Total OH reactivity ( $s^{-1}$ ), the inverse of OH lifetime, is a measure of the total amount of  
51 reactive trace gases in the atmosphere in the scale of reactivity, which allow us to quantitatively  
52 evaluate our ability to constrain trace gases by comparing measurements of total OH reactivity  
53 with the OH reactivity calculated from a speciated reactive gas measurement dataset. The  
54 fraction of observed OH reactivity that cannot be reconciled by calculated OH reactivity is  
55 known as “missing OH reactivity” (Di Carlo et al., 2004; Goldstein and Galbally, 2007; Yang et  
56 al., 2016). A substantial amount of missing OH reactivity has consistently been reported in  
57 forest environments (30 - 80%). Di Carlo et al. (2004) conducted a study in a mixed forest near  
58 Pellston, Michigan where they reported missing OH reactivity larger than observational  
59 uncertainty. The authors concluded that the missing sources of reactivity were primary biogenic  
60 volatile organic compound (biogenic VOC, BVOC) emissions, as the degree of missing OH  
61 reactivity followed the temperature dependence of terpenoid emissions. In a boreal forest in  
62 Hyytiälä, Finland, Sinha et al. (2010) report a similar result with observed trace gases that  
63 account for only 50% of the measured OH reactivity. They argued that oxidation products of  
64 BVOCs alone could not account for the missing OH reactivity. Thus, they also concluded that  
65 primary emissions were more likely to be the source of missing OH reactivity and they further  
66 suggest that this could be the result of the contribution of small amounts of many reactive gases.

67            On the other hand, some studies have attributed the sources of the missing OH reactivity  
68 to unmeasured oxidation products of well-characterized BVOCs. Edwards et al. (2013)  
69 measured OH reactivity in a pristine tropical forest in the Sabah region of Borneo during the  
70 Oxidant and Particle Photochemical Processes (OP3) field campaign (Hewitt et al., 2010). This  
71 study implemented the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCMv3.2) (Saunders et al., 2003; Jenkin



72 et al., 1997) into a box model framework to quantify potential contributions from unmeasured  
73 oxidation products. The model was constrained with VOCs such as isoprene, monoterpenes, and  
74 alkanes and alkenes and other observed trace gases such as NO + NO<sub>2</sub> (NO<sub>x</sub>) and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>).  
75 The authors reported that the model simulated oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs) could contribute  
76 47.1% of the calculated OH reactivity – surpassing the contribution from isoprene, the primary  
77 emission of this ecosystem. It is notable that 30% of observed OH reactivity could not be  
78 accounted for by the box model simulations. After examining the comprehensive observational  
79 suite of VOCs, the authors determined that the most significant missing sources of OH reactivity  
80 were likely secondary multifunctional carbon compounds rather than primary BVOC emissions.  
81 Hansen et al. (2014) suggested that their observed missing OH reactivity were likely from  
82 unmeasured oxidation products during the Community Atmosphere-Biosphere INteraction  
83 EXperiment (CABINEX 2009) in Michigan. This notion was also consistent with findings  
84 reported by Kim et al. (2011) who measured OH reactivity of branch enclosures from four  
85 representative tree species in the forest canopy during the CABINEX study. They reconciled  
86 most of the measured OH reactivity of four representative tree species with well-known BVOCs,  
87 such as isoprene and monoterpenes. Finally, Nakashima et al. (2014) reported that 29.5% OH  
88 reactivity could not be reconciled by the speciated trace gas dataset during the Bio-hydro-  
89 atmosphere interactions of Energy, Aerosols, Carbon, H<sub>2</sub>O, Organics and Nitrogen-Southern  
90 Rocky Mountain 2008 (BEACHON-SMR08) field campaign (Ortega et al., 2014). The campaign  
91 took place at the Manitou Experimental Forest (MEF) in Colorado, a ponderosa pine plantation  
92 dominated by primary BVOC emissions of 2-methyl-3-butene-2-ol (232-MBO) and  
93 monoterpenes (Ortega et al., 2014). The authors also reported that the missing OH reactivity was  
94 likely from BVOC oxidation products. In the same context, Kim et al. (2010) conducted PTR-



95 MS mass spectrum analysis for both ambient air and branch enclosures at the MEF site. They  
96 reported more conspicuous unidentified signals on PTR-MS mass spectra in the ambient samples  
97 than those from branch enclosure samples at this site.

98         During the Southern Oxidant and Aerosol Study (SOAS) in 2013, Kaiser et al. (2016)  
99 used a comprehensive suite of VOC measurements at an isoprene dominant forest site in the  
100 southeastern US to examine the role of the OVOC species in missing reactive carbon. The  
101 authors used MCMv3.2 embedded in the University of Washington Chemical Box Model  
102 (UWCM) to compare OH reactivity from model-generated OVOCs to OH reactivity from  
103 measurements of OVOCs. There was no significant discrepancy between the average measured  
104 and calculated OH reactivity including observed trace gases and model calculated oxidation  
105 products of VOCs. However, it was noted that a small portion ( $1 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) of observed OH reactivity  
106 could not be reconciled by the model calculation. As this fraction was not correlated to isoprene  
107 oxidation products, it was suggested that the missing OH reactivity may be due to unmeasured  
108 primary emissions. One caveat of this analysis pointed out by the authors was that the  
109 concentrations of the modeled first-generation isoprene oxidation products (e.g. MVK, MACR,  
110 isoprene hydroxy hydroperoxides (ISOPOOH), isoprene nitrates (ISOPN), and hydroperoxy  
111 aldehydes (HPALD)) were significantly overpredicted in the afternoon. Consequently, the  
112 uncertainty of the model calculation is likely to be much higher for the multi-generation  
113 oxidation products and their contributions to the OH reactivity contributions. This result  
114 highlights the uncertainty in relying solely on box-model results to assess OH reactivity.

115         This study examines the OH reactivity observations at Taehwa Research Forest (TRF)  
116 supersite from 15 May 2016 to 7 June 2016 during the Korea United States Air Quality Study  
117 2016 (KORUS-AQ 2016) campaign. TRF (37° 18' 19.08" N 127° 19' 7.12" E, 162 m altitude) is



118 operated by Seoul National University and located in Gwangju in the Gyunggi Province in South  
119 Korea (Kim et al., 2013b). The site is about 35 km southeast from the center of Seoul and  
120 borders the greater Seoul Metropolitan Area (SMA) with its population of 25.6 million. This  
121 geographical proximity to SMA results in a significant level of anthropogenic influence,  
122 particularly in elevated  $\text{NO}_x$  (Kim et al., 2016). Additionally, occasional pollution transport  
123 events occur at regional scales. Previous studies at the site have consistently highlighted the  
124 importance of BVOC photochemistry at TRF (Kim et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2013a; Kim et al.,  
125 2015). Isoprene and monoterpenes are the dominant OH sinks at the site among observed VOCs.  
126 The elevated  $\text{NO}_x$  accelerates the photochemical processing of VOCs (Kim et al., 2015). Thus,  
127 this site is an ideal natural laboratory to study contributions towards total OH reactivity from  
128 primary trace gas emissions from both natural and anthropogenic processes and their oxidation  
129 products. This motivated us to deploy a high-resolution proton transfer reaction time-of-flight  
130 mass spectrometer (PTR-ToF-MS) to quantify trace amounts of VOCs with unknown molecular  
131 structures by taking advantage of the universal sensitivity of hydronium ion chemistry towards  
132 reactive VOCs (Graus et al., 2010; Jordan et al., 2009a). Therefore, we intend to observationally  
133 constrain the contributions of conventionally unidentified or unmeasured VOCs towards OH  
134 reactivity.

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## 136 **2. Methods**

### 137 **2.1. Field Site**

138 The Taehwa Research Forest is a Korean pine (*Pinus koraiensis*) plantation (300 m × 300  
139 m) surrounded by a deciduous forest dominated by oak trees (Kim et al., 2013b). A flux tower  
140 (40 m height) at the center of TRF has air-sampling inlets at multiple heights (4 m, 8 m, 12 m,



141 and 16 m) below the canopy top (20 m). Each inlet consists of Teflon tubing (3/8" OD) with ~ 1  
142 second of residence time. The trace gas dataset including VOCs presented is the average of  
143 concentrations measured at the inlets inside of the canopy as previous studies illustrate that there  
144 is no substantial vertical VOC gradients inside of the canopy (within 3 %, Kim et al. (2013b)).  
145 An air-conditioned instrument shack located at the base of the flux tower housed the PTR-ToF-  
146 MS for VOC measurements, a mini tunable infrared laser direct absorption spectroscopy (mini-  
147 TILDAS) instrument for HCHO, methane, and methanol measurements, and analyzers for  
148 carbon monoxide (CO), sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), and meteorological measurements. The  
149 OH reactivity and NO<sub>x</sub> analyzers were located in another nearby air-conditioned shack (3 m  
150 apart) and sampled air through an extended Teflon inlet line of 4 m (1/4" OD) from the ground  
151 with a flow rate of 4 sLpm resulting in a 0.5 second residence time. The analytical characteristics  
152 of the instrumentation suite are summarized in Table 1. A ceilometer backscattering  
153 characterized boundary layer vertical structure at the site. The ceilometer analysis described by  
154 Sullivan et al. (2019) reveals the diurnal boundary layer height evolution, indicating a maximum  
155 in the afternoon around 1-3 km and a minimum in the early morning below 500 m.

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## 157 ***2.2.OH Reactivity Measurements***

158 A chemical ionization mass spectrometer – comparative reactivity method (CIMS-CRM)  
159 instrument was used to measure OH reactivity. The UCI CIMS-CRM system includes a chemical  
160 ionization mass spectrometer with a hydronium reagent ion. The CRM method measures total  
161 OH reactivity by quantifying the relative loss of pyrrole, a highly reactive gas ( $k_{\text{OH}^+ \text{ pyrrole}} = 1.45$   
162  $\times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at 298 K) that is rarely found in the atmosphere (Sinha et al., 2008b).  
163 Nitrogen gas flows through a bubbler full of ultrapure liquid chromatography mass spectrometer



164 (LC-MS) grade water to produce water vapor. The water vapor then flows into a glass reactor  
165 where it is photolyzed into OH radicals by a mercury lamp (Pen-Ray® Light Source P/N 90-  
166 0012-01). The measurement uncertainty is 16.7% ( $1\sigma$ ) with a limit of detection of  $4.5 \text{ s}^{-1}$  over 2  
167 minutes ( $3\sigma$ ).

168 The UCI CIMS-CRM instrument has been deployed on multiple occasions, including the  
169 Megacity Air Pollution Study (MAPS)-Seoul 2015 campaign that incorporated previous  
170 measurements at the TRF ground site during September 2015 (Sanchez et al., 2018; Kim et al.,  
171 2016). During the SOAS 2013 campaign, an ambient OH reactivity intercomparison study was  
172 conducted with laser induced fluorescence (LIF) system (Sanchez et al., 2018). The instrument  
173 intercomparison showed that the OH reactivity measurements from the CRM and LIF  
174 instruments generally agreed within the analytical uncertainty. An average of 16% difference  
175 between the techniques was noted in the late afternoons where the CRM measurements were  
176 lower than those from LIF. As discussed in Sanchez et al. (2018), this is likely caused by the  
177 difference in sampling strategies, as the CRM measurements relied on a lengthy Teflon inlet (15  
178 m) while the LIF directly sampled air at the top of a walk up tower. As mentioned above, at TRF  
179 we used a shorter inlet line to minimize residence time and avoid inlet line loss.

180 An extensive intercomparison study was conducted by Fuchs et al. (2017) with various  
181 OH reactivity measurement techniques that highlighted potential analytical artifacts in the CRM  
182 technique. These artifacts have all been examined and preventive measures have been  
183 implemented in the UCI CIMS-CRM system deployed at TRF. This included a laboratory-built  
184 catalytic converter (Pt-wool at  $350 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) that minimized the interferences due to changes in air to  
185 prevent the interference from the difference in humidity for the zero air characterizations.  
186 Additionally, interference from the OH recycling reaction of  $\text{HO}_2$  with NO in the glass chamber





187 was prevented by removing OH reactivity data points that corresponded with ambient NO levels  
188 that exceeded 5 ppb to reflect results from a laboratory characterization study (Sanchez et al.,  
189 2018). Finally, we performed multi-point calibrations with a propene mixture using a NIST  
190 traceable gas standard (AirLiquide LLC, 0.847 ppm) during the field campaign to avoid any  
191 circumstances where the pseudo first-order reaction regime is not established. Detailed  
192 calibration procedures for the OH reactivity system including laboratory multi-component  
193 calibration results can be found in Sanchez et al. (2018).

194

### 195 ***2.3. PTR-ToF-MS Measurements***

196 A high-resolution PTR-TOF-MS (Ionicon Analytik GmbH) (de Gouw and Warneke,  
197 2007) (Jordan et al., 2009b) was deployed at the TRF site. The instrument was operated with a  
198 drift tube temperature of 60 °C, 560 V drift voltage, and 2.27 mbar drift tube to maintain E/N of  
199 126 Td. Background checks were manually conducted about three times a day for a 10-minute  
200 duration by scrubbing the ambient air through a catalytic convertor (Pt-wool maintained at  
201 350°C). The detectable peaks from the ambient spectra were assessed by subtracting the  
202 background spectrum. The instrument was calibrated with a gas mixture manufactured by Apel-  
203 Riemer Environmental Inc. The mixture contains ~ 1 ppmv of acetaldehyde, acetone, isoprene,  
204 methyl vinyl ketone, methacrolein, benzene, methyl ethyl ketone, toluene, o-xylene, and  $\alpha$ -  
205 pinene. The concentration of the compounds were assessed in the Blake Lab at University of  
206 California, Irvine, who also conducted the airborne VOC analysis using whole air samples  
207 during the KORUS-AQ campaign on the NASA DC-8 (Colman et al., 2001).

208 A mass range of  $m/z$  40 to  $m/z$  267 was analyzed from the recorded PTR-ToF-MS mass  
209 spectra. An automatic mass scale calibration was conducted every 5 minutes on the data



210 averaged over 30 seconds. The raw PTR-ToF-MS data were processed using the PTRwid  
211 software described by Holzinger (2015). We normalized the mass peaks by  $10^6$  reagent ion  
212 counts ( $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$ ). As the majority of the VOC mass peaks could not be directly calibrated, we  
213 determined the VOC sensitivities using equation 1 (Eq 1). We obtained a VOC mixing ratio  
214 ( $ppb_{VOC}$ ) by multiplying mass discrimination corrected normalized counts for each VOC  
215 ( $ncps_{VOC}$ ) by their proton transfer reaction rate coefficient value ( $k_{VOC}$ ) (Cappellin et al., 2012).  
216 The benzene calibration factor was used to calculate mixing ratios by applying its proton transfer  
217 reaction rate coefficient ( $k_{benzene}$ ) and sensitivity ( $ncps\text{ ppb}^{-1}$ ) for the available compounds.

218

$$219 \quad ppb_{VOC} = \frac{ncps_{VOC}}{11.94 \frac{ncps_{benzene}}{ppb}} \times \frac{k_{benzene}}{k_{VOC}} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

220

221 For the mass peaks where specific proton transfer reaction rates were unavailable, we estimated  
222 the mixing ratios by applying a proton transfer reaction rate coefficient ( $k_{\text{H}_3\text{O}^+}$ ) of  $3.00 \times 10^{-9}\text{ cm}^3$   
223  $\text{s}^{-1}$ , the default value for PTRwid calculations. The spectra had a limit of detection of tens of ppt  
224 for a 30 second average. The calibrated compounds had a range of detection limits as low as 3.7  
225 ppt for  $\alpha$ -pinene and as high as 48 ppt for toluene.

226

#### 227 **2.4. OH Reactivity Calculation**

228 OH reactivity was calculated from the concentrations of all the compounds observed by  
229 the instrumental suite described in Table 1. The original data can be found in the KORUS-AQ  
230 2016 data archive at <https://korus-aq.larc.nasa.gov/>. A total of 360 mass peaks measured by the  
231 PTR-ToF-MS were analyzed above the background ( $3\sigma$  or above) to assess their contribution to  
232 the calculated OH reactivity. Fourteen of the mass peaks were identified as VOCs commonly



233 reported for PTR-MS measurements (Table 1), leaving 346 unidentified peaks. These remaining  
234 mass peaks were grouped into three categories in order to estimate their possible OH reactivity  
235 contribution.

236 Category I included mass peaks for which the PTRwid software calculated a molecular  
237 formula. OH reaction rate coefficients for the individual peaks were obtained from the National  
238 Institute for Standards and Technology (NIST) Webbook library. If the information was  
239 unavailable from the NIST Webbook database, a structure-reactivity relationship described by  
240 Kwok and Atkinson (1995) was applied to obtain reaction rate coefficients. This is an empirical  
241 calculation system to estimate  $k_{OH}$  based upon the number of carbons and the functional groups  
242 of given VOCs. The framework is able to calculate  $k_{OH}$  within a factor of two according to a  
243 thorough assessments presented in Kwok and Atkinson (1995). However, the authors discourage  
244 the application of the framework to compounds that were not examined in the study such as  
245 halogenated compounds. Although halogenated compounds are not included in this study, one  
246 should be aware of a potentially significant uncertainty.

247 Category II included mass peaks for which the PTRwid software could not assess an  
248 exact molecular composition due to uncertainty in the data processing system. Nonetheless, this  
249 group of compounds illustrated a positive correlation with either anthropogenic (benzene,  
250 toluene) or biogenic (MVK+MACR and monoterpenes) VOCs. Category II compounds are  
251 further grouped into subcategories corresponding to these two main VOC sources.  
252 OH reaction rate constants ( $k_{OH}$ ) were estimated with equations based on the relationship  
253 between the  $m/z$  and the  $k_{OH}$  of compounds in Table 1 (Figure S1). The compounds were grouped  
254 into 5  $m/z$  bins and the average  $k_{OH}$  of each bin was calculated. The green triangles represent 5  
255  $m/z$  binned averages from these compounds plotted with their respective average  $k_{OH}$ . This



256 approach can be justified by the fact that the reaction constants of VOCs towards OH tend to  
257 increase as a function of molecular mass within functional groups (Kwok and Atkinson,  
258 1995;Atkinson, 1987). The y-intercepts of the linear regressions were assessed using the  $k_{OH}$   
259 values of the biogenic or anthropogenic compounds and their masses.

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

265

### 266 3. Results and Discussion

267 An average OH reactivity of  $30.7 \pm 5.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$  was observed from 15 May – 7 June 2016  
268 (Figure 1). This was within the range of OH reactivity observed in urban regions ( $10 - 33 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).  
269 (Kovacs et al., 2003;Ren et al., 2003;Sinha et al., 2008a;Dolgorouky et al., 2012;Whalley et al.,  
270 2016;Kim et al., 2016;Yang et al., 2017) and in the range of previously reported observations  
271 and model calculations at the TRF site ( $\sim 15 - 35 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) (Kim et al., 2016;Kim et al., 2015). The  
272 total calculated OH reactivity of  $11.8 \pm 1.0 \text{ s}^{-1}$  from the measured compounds in Table 1 resulted  
273 in 63.3% missing OH reactivity. However, an additional OH reactivity of  $6.0 \pm 2.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  was  
274 further calculated from the reactivity of the VOCs in Categories I – III. The contribution lowered  
275 the missing OH reactivity level to 42% of the measured OH reactivity. Kim et al. (2016) had  
276 previously measured an average OH reactivity of  $16.5 \text{ s}^{-1}$  at TRF during the MAPS-Seoul  
277 campaign from 1 September – 15 September 2015, a substantially lower level than what we  
278 report during this springtime study. Although small alkanes and alkenes such as ethane, ethene,



279 propane and propene were not observed on the site, we utilized the dataset from the NASA DC-8  
280 that flew at 700 m above the site, which indicates that their contribution was consistently small  
281 ( $\sim 0.7 \text{ s}^{-1}$  in average).

282 The difference can be attributed to the notably higher reactive trace gas loadings during  
283 KORUS-AQ compared to the TRF measurements during MAPS-Seoul. The  $\text{NO}_x$ , benzene, and  
284 toluene concentrations were 3 times higher during KORUS-AQ and CO was 1.4 times higher  
285 (Figure S2). Although the average isoprene concentrations were similar between the two  
286 campaigns, MVK and MACR concentrations during KORUS-AQ were  $\sim 3$  times higher,  
287 illustrating a higher oxidative environment. There was a persistently high MVK+MACR to  
288 isoprene ratio of 1.8 during the KORUS-AQ campaign at TRF. This ratio was similar to the  
289 value reported during the summer in a moderately polluted forest in the Pearl River Delta that  
290 was attributed to a strong atmospheric oxidation capacity (Gong et al., 2018). The missing OH  
291 reactivity during KORUS-AQ was generally much higher than levels reported during urban  
292 observations (up to 50% missing OH reactivity) (Kovacs et al., 2003; Ren et al., 2003; Sinha et  
293 al., 2008a; Dolgorouky et al., 2012; Whalley et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2017) and  
294 within the range of previously reported values in forest regions where as much as 80% missing  
295 OH reactivity has been reported (Kim et al., 2016; Di Carlo et al., 2004; Nolscher et al.,  
296 2012; Edwards et al., 2013; Nolscher et al., 2016; Ramasamy et al., 2018; Nakashima et al., 2014).

297 Figure 2 shows the diurnal average of measured, calculated, and missing OH reactivity  
298 from 15 May – 7 June 2016. Isoprene was the largest contributor to VOC OH reactivity in the  
299 afternoon and the early evening (36% of the calculated OH reactivity in the evening), consistent  
300 with the previous studies conducted in this site (Kim et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2013b; Kim et al.,  
301 2015). Among all the trace gases, the largest average contributor to the calculated OH reactivity



302 was  $\text{NO}_x$ , which contributed 18.2% ( $5.6 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) to the measured OH reactivity. The  $\text{NO}_x$   
303 contribution to OH reactivity is higher during the morning and evening rush hours and at a  
304 minimum in the afternoon, which has been reported consistently in previous reports conducted  
305 near megacities (Kovacs et al., 2003; Mao et al., 2010; Dolgorouky et al., 2012; Ren et al.,  
306 2003; Shirley et al., 2006). Enhanced OH reactivity during the morning or night and minimum  
307 OH reactivity during the afternoon have been reported in urban areas (Kovacs et al., 2003; Ren et  
308 al., 2006; Shirley et al., 2006; Dolgorouky et al., 2012; Mao et al., 2010; Whalley et al., 2016). On  
309 the other hand, strong light-sensitive biogenic emissions (e.g. isoprene) result in a maximum  
310 observed OH reactivity in the afternoon in forested regions (Ren et al., 2006; Sinha et al.,  
311 2012; Edwards et al., 2013; Hansen et al., 2014; Zannoni et al., 2017; Nolscher et al., 2016). One  
312 exception is an OH reactivity observation conducted in Hyytiälä, a forested site that has low  
313 isoprene levels, by Sinha et al. (2010). They attributed a flat diurnal OH reactivity variation to  
314 the interplay between high daytime emissions and low nighttime boundary layer height. In urban  
315 environments, it is mostly anthropogenic trace gases such as aromatics and OVOCs that  
316 contribute to OH reactivity. These compounds have a longer lifetime compared to the diurnal  
317 boundary layer evolution. This leads to the accumulation of such compounds in the shallow  
318 boundary layer during the night. On the other hand, strong emissions of reactive BVOCs in  
319 deciduous forest regions enhance OH reactivity during the daytime but then quickly react away.  
320 Very subtle diurnal differences observed in this study (Figure 2), therefore, can be understood as  
321 the competitive influences of both anthropogenic and biogenic compounds to the OH reactivity.

322 As described in detail in Sullivan et al. (2019) and Jeong et al. (2019), a strong regional  
323 stagnation episode occurred during the KORUS-AQ campaign between May 17 – 23. Later, the  
324 Korean Peninsula was affected by a period of continental pollution outflow between May 28 and



325 June 1. The diurnal averages of the two periods and their calculated OH reactivity are presented  
326 in Figure 3. It is notable that there is very little difference in the observed OH reactivity between  
327 the two distinct periods in terms of the amount of OH reactivity and its diurnal pattern (Figure 4).  
328 Furthermore, no significant variance of the different classes of reactive gases such as criteria air  
329 pollutants (CO, NO<sub>x</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>), OVOCs (acetone, acetaldehyde, formaldehyde,  
330 methylglyoxal, methanol, methyl ethyl ketone), aromatics (benzene, toluene, xylenes, styrene,  
331 benzaldehyde, trimethylbenzenes), and BVOCs (isoprene, monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes,  
332 MVK+MACR) was observed during the different periods (Figure 5). These different classes of  
333 reactive gases generally differed by less than 10% during the two periods from the overall  
334 campaign. This observation shows that the presence of reactive gases is mostly controlled by  
335 relatively short-lived compounds determined by local emissions and their oxidation products.

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



348           Indeed, there are both biogenic and anthropogenic contributions towards the Category I  
349 compounds, which contribute an average of  $3.8 \text{ s}^{-1}$  to the OH reactivity assessment, the largest  
350 amount among the three categories (Figure 6a). The largest contributors to Category I, which  
351 appear to be from a mixture of biogenic and anthropogenic sources, include  $m/z$  89.060, 101.06,  
352 and 101.096, and they contributed  $0.3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $0.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and  $0.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. The  $m/z$  89.060 had a  
353 molecular formula of  $\text{C}_4\text{H}_8\text{O}_2\text{H}^+$  and was correlated to the anthropogenic compounds such as  
354 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  
355 diurnal variation similar to that of MVK + MACR. This mass peak has been previously  
356 identified in laboratory (Zhao et al., 2004) and field (Williams et al., 2001) studies as the  $\text{C}_5$   
357 hydroxy carbonyl, an isoprene oxidation product. Results from an indoor chamber  
358 photooxidation experiment conducted by Lee et al. (2006) showed that  $m/z$  101 is a common  
359 fragment of unidentified oxidation products of monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, and isoprene. Lee  
360 et al. (2006) also reported that this mass peak also composed over 5% of the fragments of  
361 unidentified  $\alpha$ - humulene and linalool oxidation products. The molecular formula of this peak is  
362  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{OH}^+$ , and it has been identified in previous studies as  $\text{C}_6$  carbonyls (Koss et al., 2017) or  
363 hexanal (Brilli et al., 2014; Rinne et al., 2005). Furthermore,  $m/z$  99.044 and 113.023 were also  
364 among the highest contributors to Category I and were correlated with MVK and MACR. The  
365  $m/z$  99 was previously reported to be a fragment ion of unidentified terpene oxidation products in  
366 a chamber experiment (Lee et al., 2006). The  $m/z$  113 was observed by a PTR-MS in a  
367 Ponderosa pine forest in central California by Holzinger et al. (2005). In this case, it was formed  
368 within the canopy from the rapid oxidation of terpinolene, myrcene, and  $\alpha$ -terpinene.  
369 Furthermore,  $m/z$  113 was observed to come from the photooxidation and ozonolysis of multiple  
370 terpenes in two indoor chamber studies by Lee et al. (2006). The  $m/z$  113 composed over 5% of





371 the oxidation product fragments of myrcene and verbenone. Finally,  $m/z$  83.085 had the  
372 molecular formula of  $C_6H_{11}^+$  and was correlated to benzene. Multiple studies have identified this  
373 peak as cyclohexane, methyl-cyclopentane, or methylcyclohexane, typically found in areas rich  
374 in oil and gas (Koss et al., 2017;Gueneron et al., 2015;Yuan et al., 2014). In summary, both the  
375 gross diurnal pattern and the individual peak analyses consistently illustrates that both  
376 anthropogenic and biogenic compounds comprise Category I, the largest contributor to the  
377 previously unexplored compounds in the PTR-ToF-MS spectrum at this research site.

378 Category II contributed an average of  $0.3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  to the calculated OH reactivity, the lowest  
379 amount for the three Categories (Figure 6b). The compounds in category II appear to correlate to  
380 either BVOCs or acetone, depending on the time period. In Figure 6b, the maximum during the  
381 transport period is enhanced to about  $0.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  higher than the overall campaign and shifted about 3  
382 hours later to  $\sim 4:00$  PM. The OH reactivity calculated from Category II is strongly correlated to  
383 MVK + MACR ( $r^2 = 0.82$ ) during this period as well. On the other hand, during the stagnation  
384 period the average OH reactivity from Category II correlates more strongly with acetone ( $r^2 =$   
385  $0.62$ ) than with MVK +MACR ( $r^2 = 0.28$ ). In fact, six of the highest contributors to Category II  
386 (Figure 6b) are more strongly correlated to acetone ( $r^2 > 0.40$ ) during the stagnation period  
387 compared to the transport period. The sources of acetone can be either biogenic or  
388 anthropogenic. Biogenic sources include direct emissions from plants or their oxidation products  
389 and plant decay (Jacob et al., 2002;Seco et al., 2007). Anthropogenic sources of acetone include  
390 vehicular emissions, solvent use, and the oxidation of other anthropogenic VOCs (Jacob et al.,  
391 2002). Therefore, this illustrates that the compounds in Category II also have a complex source  
392 profile of both biogenic and anthropogenic origin.



393 Category III contributed  $1.9 \text{ s}^{-1}$  to the calculated OH reactivity (Figure 6c). The six  
394 highest contributors out of 236 mass peaks contributed a total of  $0.43 \text{ s}^{-1}$  of the calculated OH  
395 reactivity. Overall, Category III compounds had no strong correlations to isoprene,  
396 MVK+MACR, benzene, or toluene during either the stagnation or transport periods. However,  
397 Category III compounds were highly correlated to methylglyoxal ( $r^2 = 0.85, 0.82, \text{ and } 0.78$  for  
398 the stagnation, transport, and overall period, respectively), one of the measured OVOCs. A  
399 global modeling study illustrated that methylglyoxal is mainly produced from isoprene oxidation  
400 processes and the second most important source is acetone oxidation (Fu et al., 2008). In  
401 addition, aromatics and alkenes are also known to produce methylglyoxal through atmospheric  
402 oxidation processes (Henry et al., 2012). As TRF is a high aromatics and high isoprene  
403 environment, the source profile of methyl glyoxal in the region is likely complex, which can be  
404 applied to interpret the source of the Category III compounds.

405 Overall, the OH reactivity estimates from Categories I – III contributed an average of  $6.0$   
406  $\pm 2.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  to the calculated OH reactivity. In summary, there is consistency that both  
407 anthropogenic and the biogenic contributions need to be further studied in the PTR-ToF-MS  
408 spectrum. Furthermore, by adding this additional signal from Category I, II, and III, VOC  
409 contribution to calculated OH reactivity ( $11.0 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) becomes larger than that ( $6.8 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) from criteria  
410 air pollutants ( $\text{CO}, \text{NO}_x, \text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_3$ ). This should be considered when evaluating ozone  
411 production regimes (Kim et al., 2018).

412 Even with the inclusion of the additional peaks to the calculated OH reactivity, we still  
413 find a missing OH reactivity of 42%. Thus, it is important to investigate the origin of this  
414 missing fraction. A correlation can be observed between missing OH reactivity in percentage and  
415 OH reactivity from  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $R^2 = 0.5$ , Figure 7 A) but not between OH reactivity from  $\text{NO}_x$  and



416 absolute missing OH reactivity ( $s^{-1}$ ) ( $R^2 = 0.2$ , Figure 7 B). This leads us to speculate that there  
417 is a consistent presence of unquantified trace gases causing missing OH reactivity. As  $NO_x$   
418 illustrates a conspicuous temporal variation that appears to correlate with the fraction of missing  
419 OH reactivity, while observed OH reactivity and calculated OH reactivity from VOCs indicate a  
420 less pronounced diurnal difference.

421 Finally, unaccounted for uncertainty associated with the reaction rate constant  
422 estimations described in the method section should be also further explored. For example, to  
423 reconcile the averaged missing OH reactivity during the day ( $10 s^{-1}$ ), it requires  $\sim 60$  ppm of  
424 methane but only  $\sim 4$  ppb of isoprene. This clearly demonstrates the importance of rate constant  
425 estimation. Indeed, if we apply the reaction rate constant of isoprene with OH ( $k_{OH} = 1 \times 10^{-10}$   
426  $cm^3 molecule^{-1} s^{-1}$  at 298 K) to Category II and Category III compounds, then the observed OH  
427 reactivity is fully reconciled (Figure S3). Proton ion chemistry may have an intrinsic limitation to  
428 quantify highly oxidized OVOCs. Moreover, due to the different inlet configurations for OH  
429 reactivity and VOC observations, their contributions towards observed and calculated OH  
430 reactivity may not have been consistently evaluated. Therefore, a comprehensive analysis along  
431 with a dataset from other instrumentation is necessary towards reconciling missing OH reactivity  
432 with observational constraints. Finally, it is highly plausible that we may double count for  
433 fragmented molecules in the mass spectrum. Although it would not affect concentration  
434 evaluation as the intensity of ion signals from the fragmented molecules would be fully  
435 accounted for by adding parent ion and fragmented ion signals, the OH reactivity calculated from  
436 the fragmented ions is susceptible to underestimation from the assumption that  $k_{OH}$  positively  
437 correlates with molecular masses.

438



439        **4. Summary**

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

444        This study presents a detailed methodology for retrieving OH reactivity contributions from  
445 all of the peaks of the PTR-ToF-MS mass spectrum. This decreases the amount of missing OH  
446 reactivity as the majority of them have not been accounted towards calculated OH reactivity in  
447 previous studies. First, we converted the raw signals to concentrations using a constant proton  
448 transfer reaction rate ( $3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). Then, we grouped the previously unaccounted peaks into  
449 three categories to estimate reaction constants for each compound. The contributions of the  
450 unaccounted peaks in the mass spectrum account for a calculated OH reactivity of  $\sim 6 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , which  
451 decreases missing OH reactivity from 63.3 % to 42.0 %. It is noteworthy that the diurnal  
452 variations of observed OH reactivity and calculated OH reactivity from the various groups of  
453 trace gases does not have a high variability during the field campaign even though there were  
454 several synoptic meteorological configuration changes. This suggests that the reactive trace gas  
455 loading is mostly determined by local emission and oxidation processes not influenced by the  
456 synoptic meteorological conditions.

457        In conclusion, this study highlights PTR-ToF-MS as a tool for observationally constraining  
458 missing OH reactivity. Further study is required particularly towards characterizing proton  
459 reaction rate constants and reaction constants with OH for the many unknown compounds  
460 detected on PTR-ToF-MS. In addition, other mass spectrometry techniques, such as nitrate or  
461 iodine ion chemistry systems, should be utilized in future studies to complement the PTR



462 technique, which is sensitive to volatile to semi volatile VOCs, to quantify lower volatility  
463 compounds and comprehensively constrain OH reactivity contributions from VOCs.

464

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466

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470

#### 471 **Data Availability**

472

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

474

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## 743 **Tables and Figures**

744

745 Table 1. Description of instrument and measured parameters.

Instrument	Parameters	Measurement Uncertainty ( $1\sigma$ )
Chemical Ionization Spectroscopy - Comparative Reactivity Method - (CIMS-CRM)	OH reactivity	16.7%
Thermo Scien8fic 42i	NO	20%
Cavity Ring Down Spectroscopy	NO <sub>2</sub>	20%
Thermo Scientific 49i	O <sub>3</sub>	4%
Lufft 501 C	Temperature	$\pm 0.3$ °C
Thermo Scientific 48i TLE	CO	10%
Thermo Scientific 43i TLE	SO <sub>2</sub>	10%



Mini Tunable Infrared Laser Direct Absorption Spectroscopy (mini-TILDAS) Formaldehyde Monitor	HCHO, CH <sub>4</sub> , CH <sub>3</sub> OH	5%
Proton Transfer Reaction Time of Flight Mass Spectrometer (PTR-TOF-MS)	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%

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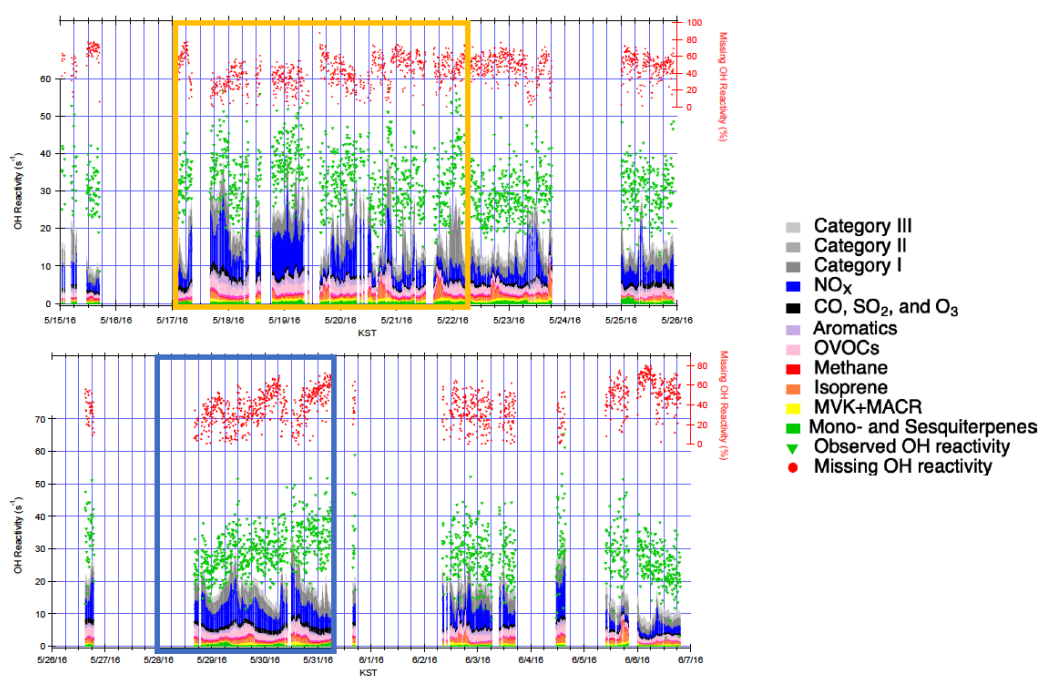
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754 Figure 1. Observed and calculated OH reactivity during KORUS-AQ 2016. The measured and  
755 calculated OH reactivity are on the left axis while the missing OH reactivity is on the right axis.

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

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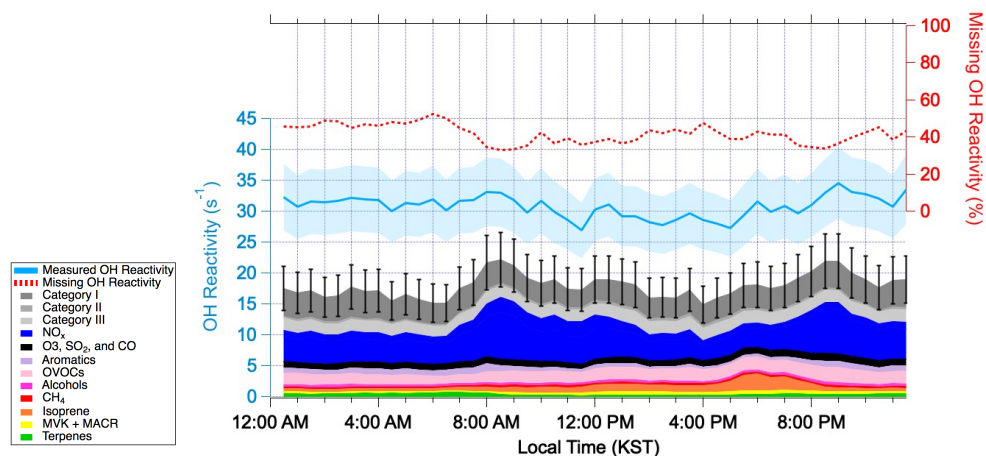




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760 Figure 2. The diurnal average of OH reactivity from 15 May 2016 – 7 June 2016. The measured  
761 and calculated OH reactivity are on the left axis. The blue shading represents uncertainty in the  
762 measured OH reactivity. The black bars represent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

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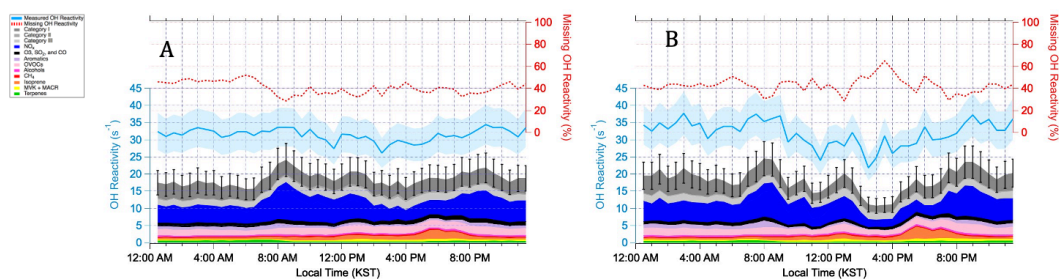
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777 Figure 3. Diurnal averages of OH reactivity during the stagnation period (A) from May 17th –  
778 May 22nd in 2016 and the transport period (B) from 28 May – 1 June 2016. The measured and  
779 calculated OH reactivity are on the left. The blue shading represents an uncertainty of 16.7% at  
780  $1\sigma$ . The black bars represent the propagated uncertainty of 20.1% at  $1\sigma$  from calculated missing  
781 OH reactivity. The percent missing OH reactivity is on the right axis.

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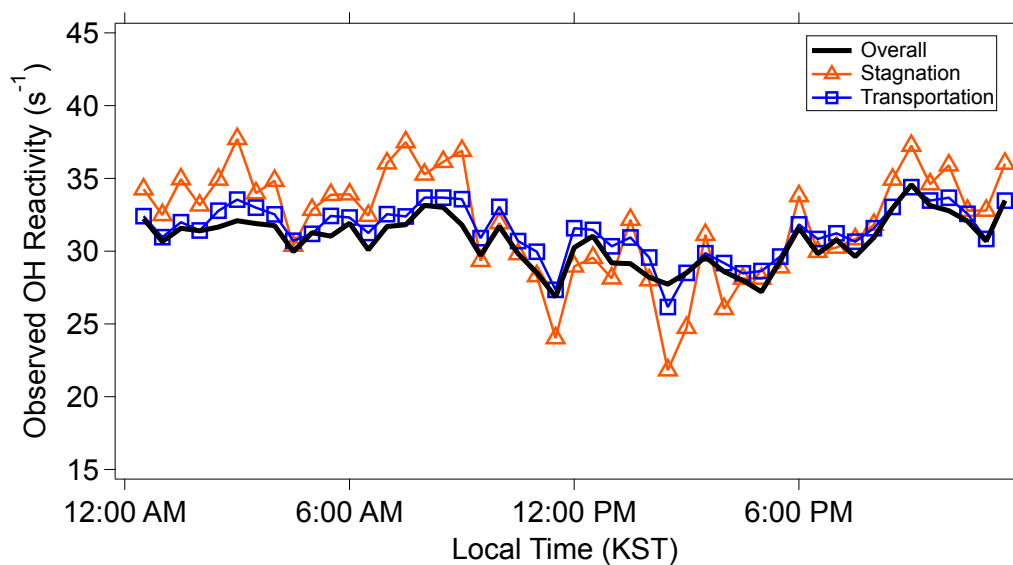
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796 Figure 4. The observed OH reactivity during the overall campaign, stagnation period, and

797 transport period.

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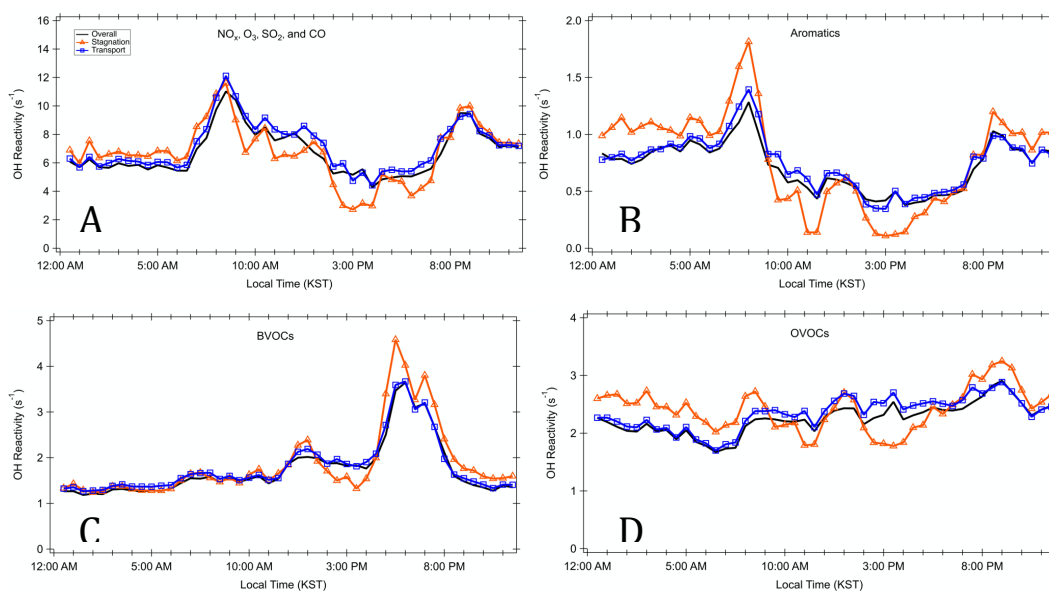
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810 Figure 5. Diurnal profiles for different classes of trace gases during the different periods. A)

811 criteria pollutants  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$ , and  $\text{CO}$  B) Aromatics, C) BVOCs, and D) OVOCs

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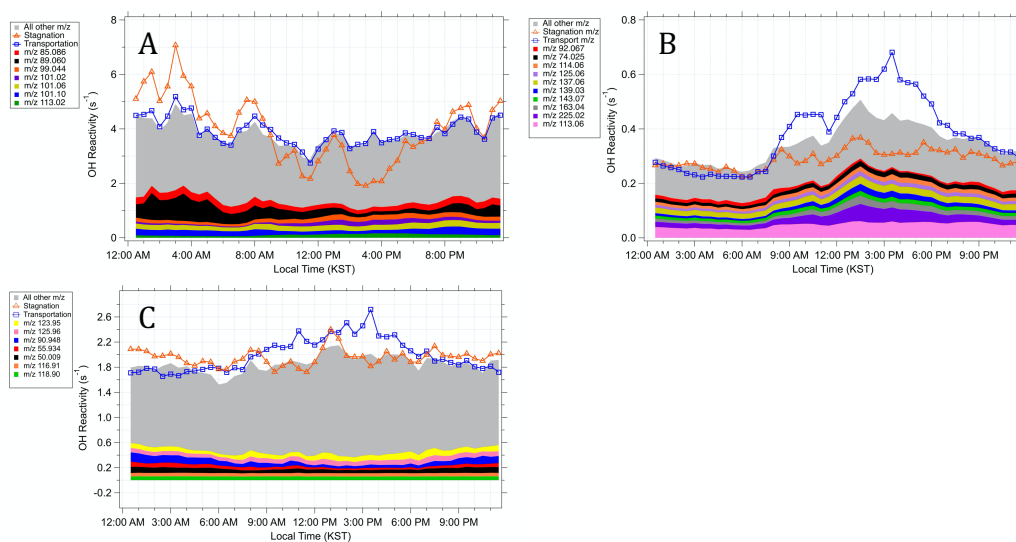


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825 Figure 6. Diurnal averages of the OH reactivity from the compounds in A) Category I, B)

826 Category II and C) Category III

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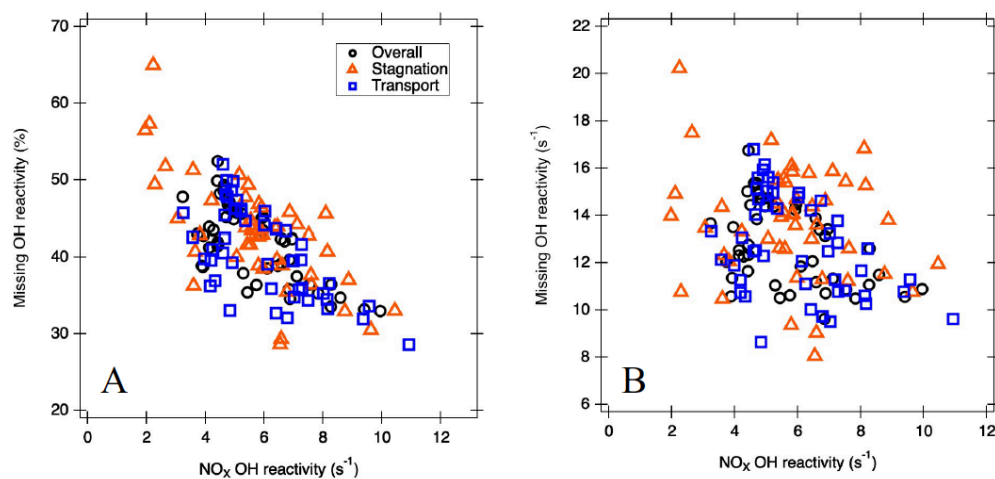
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841 Figure 7. The correlation between A) NO<sub>x</sub> OH reactivity and absolute missing OH reactivity and

842 B) percent missing OH reactivity

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