# On the understanding of tropospheric fast photochemistry: airborne Airborne observations of peroxy radicals during the EMeRGe-campaign in Europe campaign

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**Abstract.** In this study, airborne measurements of the sum of hydroperoxyl (HO<sub>2</sub>) and organic peroxy (RO<sub>2</sub>) radicals that react with <u>nitrogen monoxide nitrogen monoxide</u>, (NO)<sub>5</sub> -to produce <u>nitrogen dioxide</u>, <u>nitrogen dio(NO<sub>2</sub>)<sub>7</sub> i.e. RO<sub>2</sub>\*</u>, coupled with actinometry and other key trace gases measurements, have been used to test the current understanding of the fast photochemistry in the outflow of major population centres (MPCs). <u>TheAll</u> measurements were made during the airborne campaign of the EMeRGe (Effect of Megacities on the transport and transformation of pollutants on the Regional to Global scales) project in Europe onboard the High Altitude Long range research aircraft (HALO). The <u>on board</u> measurements of RO<sub>2</sub>\* <u>on HALO</u> were made using the in-situ instrument Peroxy Radical Chemical Enhancement and Absorption Spectrometer (PeRCEAS). <u>RO<sub>2</sub>\* is to a good approximation the sum of peroxy radicals reacting with NO to produce NO<sub>2</sub>. RO<sub>2</sub>\* mixing ratios up to 120 pptv were observed in air masses of different origins and composition under different local actinometrical conditions during seven HALO research flights in July 2017 over Europe.</u>

The range and variability of the RO<sub>2</sub>\* measurements agree reasonably well with Radical production rates were estimated using knowledge of the photolysis frequencies and the RO<sub>2</sub>\* precursor concentrations measured on-board, as well as the relevant rate coefficients. Generally, high RO<sub>2</sub>\* were measured in air masses with high production rates. In the airmasses investigated RO<sub>2</sub>\* is primarily produced following by the photolysis of ozone (O<sub>3</sub>)reaction of O¹D with water vapour, and the photolysis of nitrous acid (HONO,-) and of the oxigoentated volatile organic compounds, (OVOC £, e.g., formaldehyde (HCHO), and glyoxal (CHOCHO)<sub>2</sub>, and nitrous acid (HONO) in the airmasses investigated. Due to their short lifetime in most environments, the RO<sub>2</sub>\* concentrations are expected to be in a photostationary steady state (PSS), i.e., it is assumed a balance between production and loss rates. The RO<sub>2</sub>\* production and loss rates and the suitability of photostationary steady state (PSS) assumptions to estimate the RO<sub>2</sub>\* mixing ratios and the-variability of RO<sub>2</sub>\*-during the airborne observations—is are investigated discussed. The PSS assumption freor RO<sub>2</sub>\* is considered robust enough to calculate RO<sub>2</sub>\* mixing rations for most conditions encountered in the air masses measured. The similarities and discrepancies between measured and PSS calculated RO<sub>2</sub>\* mixing ratios are discussed analysed stepwise. The parameters, which predominantly control the RO<sub>2</sub>\* mixing ratios under different chemical and physical regimes, are identified during the analysis. The dominant removal terminating processes foref RO<sub>2</sub>\* in the airmasses pollution plumes measured up to 2000 m are the formation of nitrites and nitrates from radical reactions loss of OH and RO through the reaction with NO<sub>x</sub> during the radical interconversion. Above 2000 m, HO<sub>2</sub> – HO<sub>2</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub> – RO<sub>2</sub> reactions dominate the RO<sub>2</sub>\* loss reactions removal. RO<sub>2</sub>\*

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calculations underestimated (< 20 %) the measurements-by the <u>PSS</u> analytical expression inside the pollution plumes probed <u>often</u> underestimated the measurements. The underestimation is attributed to the limitations of the PSS <u>assumption that RO2\* is in</u> <u>PSS</u>nalysis equation used for the analysis. In particular, <u>Tthis expression to take does not into</u> account <u>-for</u> the <u>production yields</u> of  $RO_2^*$  from the through-oxidation and photolysis of <u>volatile organic compounds</u>, <u>VOCs</u>, and the OVOCs not other than measured during the EMeRGe in Europe research flights in Europe. In air masses with NO mixing ratios  $\le 50$  pptv and low VOC/NO ratios, the overestimation of the  $RO_2^*$  measured observed may be caused by the formation of  $H_2O$  and  $O_2$  from OH and  $HO_2$ , being about 4 times faster than the rate of the OH oxidation reaction of the dominant OVOCs considered.

### 1. Introduction

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- Hydroperoxyl (HO<sub>2</sub>) and organic peroxy (RO<sub>2</sub>, where R stands for any organic group) radicals are reactive species that play a key role in the chemistry of the troposphere. In combination with the hydroxyl (OH) radical, HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> take part in rapid chemical processes that control the lifetime of many key trace constituents in the troposphere. Examples of key tropospheric processes involving HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> are as follows:
  - the catalytic cycles, which produce and destroy ozone (O<sub>3</sub>)
  - the generation of key\_inorganic acids, which are precursors of aerosol (e.g. sulphuric acid, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) and important chemical constituents (e.g. nitric acid, HNO<sub>3</sub>) in both summer and winter smog
  - the generation of organic acids; the production of hygroscopic hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) and organic peroxides (ROOH),
     which enter aerosol and cloud droplets
  - the generation of organic peroxy nitrates (RO<sub>2</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>), peroxyacetyl nitrate (CH<sub>3</sub>COO<sub>2</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>, PAN) and other summer smog constituents.

The abundance of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> in the free troposphere has a non-linear and complex dependency on photochemistry, initiated by solar actinic radiation, and on the concentration of the precursors, such as carbon monoxide (CO), volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and peroxides. It also strongly depends on the amounts of nitrogen monoxide (NO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) due to the gas-phase reactions of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> with the OH and organic oxy (RO) radicals formed during the radical interconversion. The main production and loss processes of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> in the troposphere are summarised as follows:

a) Production processes of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> through photolysis and oxidation by OH formed through photolysis

$$O_3 + hv (\lambda < 320 \text{ nm}) \rightarrow O(^1D) + O_2$$
 (R1)

$$O(^{1}D) + H_{2}O \rightarrow 2OH \tag{R2a}$$

$$O(^{1}D) + N_{2} \rightarrow O(^{3}P) + N_{2}$$
 (R2b)

$$O(^{1}D) + O_{2} \rightarrow O(^{3}P) + O_{2}$$
 (R2c)

$$HONO + hv (\lambda \le 400 \text{ nm}) \rightarrow OH + NO$$
 (R3)

$$H_2O_2 + hv \rightarrow 2OH$$
 (R4)

$$OH + O_3 \rightarrow HO_2 + O_2 \tag{R5}$$

$$OH + CO + O_2 \rightarrow HO_2 + CO_2 \tag{R6}$$

75 (\*)OH + CH<sub>4</sub> + O<sub>2</sub> 
$$\rightarrow$$
 CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O (R7)

(\*\*)HCHO + hv (
$$\lambda$$
 < 340 nm) + 2O<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  2HO<sub>2</sub> + CO (R8)

(\*)(\*\*)CH<sub>3</sub>CHO + hv (
$$\lambda$$
 < 340 nm) + 2O<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> + HO<sub>2</sub> + CO (R9)

(\*\*) 
$$CH_3C(O)CH_3 + hv (\lambda < 340 \text{ nm}) + 2O_2 \rightarrow 2 CH_3O_2 + CO$$
 (R10)

(\*\*)CHOCHO + hv + 
$$2O_2 \xrightarrow{M} 2HO_2 + 2CO$$
 (R11)

(\*) The CH<sub>3</sub> produced from the oxidation of CH<sub>4</sub> or the photolysis of VOCs further reacts with O<sub>2</sub> to form CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The net or overall reaction is used written, because since the formation of CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is much faster than the CH<sub>3</sub> formation due to the high amount of O<sub>2</sub> present in the atmosphere.

(\*\*) H and CHO formed through the VOC photolysis further react with O<sub>2</sub> to form HO<sub>2</sub>. The net reaction is used, written because since the formation of HO<sub>2</sub> is much faster than the H and CHO formation due to the high amount of O<sub>2</sub> present in the atmosphere.

$$VOCs + OH \rightarrow OH + HO_2 + RO_2$$
 and other oxidation products (R12)

alkenes + 
$$O_3 \rightarrow OH + RO_2 + other oxidation products$$
 (R13)

b) Loss processes of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>

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$$HO_2 + HO_2 \rightarrow H_2O_2 + O_2 \tag{R14}$$

$$HO_2 + RO_2 \rightarrow ROOH + O_2$$
 (R15)

$$RO_2 + RO_2 \rightarrow ROOH + R_{C-1}CHO + O_2$$
 (R16a)

$$OH + HO_2 \rightarrow H_2O + O_2 \tag{R17}$$

$$OH + OH \xrightarrow{M} H_2O_2 \tag{R18}$$

$$OH + NO \xrightarrow{M} HONO$$
 (R19)

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$$OH + NO_2 \xrightarrow{M} HNO_3$$
 (R20)

$$OH + HONO \rightarrow H_2O + NO_2$$
 (R21)

$$RO + NO \xrightarrow{M} RONO$$
 (R22)

In addition, HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> undergo-participate in radical interconversion processes reactions through the following reactions such as:

$$100 RO2 + RO2 \rightarrow RO + RO + O2 (R16b)$$

$$HO_2 + NO \rightarrow OH + NO_2$$
 (R23)

$$HO_2 + O_3 \rightarrow OH + 2O_2 \tag{R24}$$

$$RO_2 + NO \rightarrow RO + NO_2$$
 (R25)

$$RO + O_2 \rightarrow R_{H-1}O + HO_2 \tag{R26}$$

R23 and R25 is are one two of the most important reactions in the troposphere as it they leads to O<sub>3</sub> formation via the reactions through R27 and R28. The rate of R22 in the atmosphere compared to that of R26 is negligible.

Provided that there is sufficient insolation to ensure rapid photochemical processing and all <u>key</u> species involved are <u>measuredknown</u>, The sum of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> that react with NO to produce NO<sub>2</sub> can be estimated <u>by assuming that the interconversion of NO to NO<sub>2</sub> reaches from a photochemical photostationary steady-state (PSS)<sub>a</sub> assumption in which production and loss are to a good approximation equalmechanisms are equally important. The HO<sub>2</sub> + RO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and mixing ratios are estimated using the PSS assumption for NO<sub>2</sub> assuming the following by considering the following chemical mechanisms:</u>

The PSS assumption for [NO<sub>2</sub>] in the following mechanism (R23 to R29) leads to Eq. 1

$$HO_2 + NO \rightarrow OH + NO_2$$
 (R23)

$$RO_2 + NO + O_2 \rightarrow R_{H-1}O + NO_2 + HO_2$$
 (R25 + R26)

$$NO_2 + hv (\lambda < 400 \text{ nm}) \rightarrow NO + O$$
 (R27)

$$O + O_2 \xrightarrow{M} O_3 \tag{R28}$$

$$NO + O_3 \rightarrow NO_2 + O_2 \tag{R29}$$

Assuming a PSS for [NO2,], this then leads to Eq. 1

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$$[HO_2 + RO_2]_{PSS} = \frac{k_{NO+O_3}}{k_{NO+(HO_2+RO_2)}} \left( \frac{j_{NO_2}[NO_2]}{k_{NO+O_3}[NO]} - [O_3] \right)$$
 (Eq.1)

where-  $j_{NO_2}$  is the photolysis frequency of  $NO_2$ ;  $k_{NO+O_3}$  (1.9×10<sup>-14</sup> cm³ molecules<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at 298K and 1 atm.) is the rate coefficient of the reaction of NO with  $O_3$  and- $k_{NO+(HO_2+RO_2)}$  is usually estimated for the most abundant peroxy radicals  $HO_2$  and  $CH_3O_2$  by assuming a 1:1  $HO_2$  to  $CH_3O_2$  ratio and averaging the  $k_{NO+HO_2}$  (8.2×10<sup>-12</sup> cm³ molecules<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at 298K and 1 atm.) and  $k_{NO+CH_3O_2}$  (7.7×10<sup>-12</sup> cm³ molecules<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at 298K and 1 atm.) rate coefficients the weighted average rate coefficient assumed for the reactions of peroxy radicals with NO. As noted by Parrish et al. (1986), the PSS assumption requires conditions with sufficient and stable solar irradiation, ensuring  $NO_2$  stable photolysis rates ( $j_{NO_2}$ ).

The PSS radical calculation made on the assumption of the NO<sub>2</sub> steady state is very sensitive to the accuracy of the NO<sub>2</sub> to NO ratio and the O<sub>3</sub> measurements. The comparison of [HO<sub>2</sub> + RO<sub>2</sub>]<sub>PSS</sub> calculated using -Eq.1 with ground-based (e.g. Ridley et al., 1992; Cantrell et al., 1997; Carpenter et al., 1998; Volz-Thomas et al., 2003), and airborne measurements, has shown in the past different degrees of agreement. The underestimations and overestimations found in air masses with different chemical compositions are not well understood. For In the case of airborne measurements, the PSS calculation generally overestimates that measured peroxy radicals (Cantrell et al., 2003a, 2003b). The differences observed could not be attributed to systematic changes in NO, altitude, water vapour and temperature, although these variables are often correlated.

Ground-based (Mihelcic et al., 2003; Kanaya et al., 2007, 2012; Elshorbany et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2012, 2013; Tan et al., 2017, 2018; Whalley et al., 2018, 2021; Lew et al., 2020) and airborne (Crawford et al., 1999; Tan et al., 2001; Cantrell et al., 2003b) measurements have also been compared with model simulations of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>. The discrepancies encountered depend upon the chemical composition of the air mass and the chemical mechanisms and constraints used in the model simulations. Tan et al., 2019 and Whalley et al., 2021 reported experimental radical budget calculations <u>usingbased on</u> the published reaction rate coefficients of <u>the fundamental</u> reactions (R1 to R26), <u>which</u> control<del>ling</del> OH, HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> in the lower troposphere, <u>and the and</u> ground-based measurements of all relevant reactants and photolysis frequencies.

In this study, a similar approach has been used to calculate the amount of peroxy radicals in the air masses measured on-board of the High Altitude Long range (HALO) research aircraft over Europe during the first campaign of the EMeRGe (Effect of Megacities on the transport and transformation of pollutants on the Regional to Global scales) project. The available on-board measurements of  $RO_2^*$  are defined as the total sum of OH, RO and peroxy radicals reacting with NO to produce  $NO_2$  (i.e.,  $RO_2^* = OH + \sum RO + HO_2 + \sum RO_2$ , where  $RO_2$  are the organic peroxy radicals reacting producing  $NO_2$  in their reaction with NO to produce  $NO_2$ ). AsSince the amount of OH and RO is much smaller,  $RO_2^*$  to a good approximation is the sum of  $HO_2$  and those  $RO_2$  radicals that react with NO to produce  $NO_2$ . For the calculation,  $RO_2^*$  is assumed to be in PSS, and an analytical expression is developed with a manageable degree of complexity to estimate the concentration and mixing ratios of  $RO_2^*$ . The simultaneous on-board measurements of trace gases and photolysis frequencies are used to constrain the estimate of the  $RO_2^*$  concentration.

In contrast to other experimental deployments, the concentrations and/or mixing ratios of the majority of the key species involved in reactions R1 to R26 were continuously measured on-board HALO during the EMeRGe campaign. This enables the use of a large number of measurements to constrain the minimises the number of assumptions required for the PSS calculations of RO<sub>2</sub>\*. Consequently, this data set provides an excellent opportunity to gain a deeper insight into the source and sink reactions of RO<sub>2</sub>\* and the applicability of the PSS assumption for the different pollution regimes and related weather conditions in the free troposphere.

### 2. EMeRGe field campaign in Europe

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The overarching objective of the EMeRGe project is to test and improve the current understanding of the photochemical and heterogeneous processing of pollution outflows from major population centres (MPCs) and their impact on the atmosphere. Two intensive observational periods (IOP) were carried out to investigate selected European and Asian MPC outflows. The European IOP took place from 10 to 28 July 2017 (<a href="http://www.iup.uni-bremen.de/emerge/home/home.html">http://www.iup.uni-bremen.de/emerge/home/home.html</a>). An extensive set of in-situ and remote-sensing airborne measurements of trace gases and aerosol particles were made on-board the HALO aircraft (see <a href="https://www.halo-spp.de">www.halo-spp.de</a>) along flight tracks in the lower layers of the troposphere from northwest Europe to the Mediterranean region.

During EMeRGe in Europe, HALO made carried out a total of 53 flight hours distributed over seven flights to investigate the chemical composition of the outflows from the target MPCs: London, Paris, Benelux/ Ruhr metropolitan area, Po Valley, and urban agglomerations such as Rome, Madrid, and Barcelona. The flight tracks are shown in Fig. 1. All HALO flights started from the HALO base at the DLR in Oberpfaffenhofen, southwest of Munich, Germany. To achieve the scientific goals, 60 % of the flights flew at altitudes were carried out below 3000 m. Vertical profiles of trace constituents were typically made by keeping the HALO altitude constant at different at in three stable flight levels upwind and downwind of the target MPCs. The flights are named E-EU-FN, where E stands for EMeRGe, EU for Europe, and FN is the two-digit flight number. More details about the EMeRGe

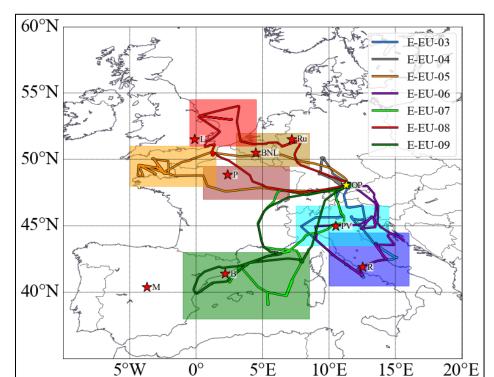


Figure 1: The research flight tracks made by HALO during the EMeRGe-Europe campaign on 11, 13, 17, 20, 24, 26 and 28 July 2017 (E-EU-03 to E-EU-09, respectively, colour coded). MPC target areas are colour coded by shading, and the targeted locations/regions are marked with red stars, M: Madrid, B: Barcelona, P: Paris, L: London; BNL: BeNeLux; Ru: Ruhr area; PV: Po Valley, R: Rome. The location of the HALO base at the DLR in Oberpfaffenhofen, Germany (OP) is indicated by a yellow star.

### 3. PeRCEAS and other instruments on-board HALO during EMeRGe

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The  $RO_2^*$  measurements on-board the HALO research aircraft during EMeRGe were made using the **Per**oxy **R**adical Chemical Enhancement and **A**bsorption **S**pectrometer (PeRCEAS). PeRCEAS combines the **Per**oxy **R**adical Chemical Amplification (PeRCA) and **C**avity **R**ing-**D**own **S**pectroscopy (CRDS) techniques in a dual-channel instrument. Each channel has a separate chemical reactor and detector, which operate alternatively in both background and amplification modes  $_{x}$ -i.e. without and with the addition of CO, to account for the rapid background variations during airborne measurements. In both modes NO is continuously added to the air sampled at the reactor, while CO is only added in the amplification mode to initiate the chain conversion of  $RO_2^*$ -into  $NO_2$ . In the amplification mode, the sum of the  $NO_2$  produced from ambient  $RO_2^*$  through the chain reaction, the ambient  $RO_2^*$  through the chain reaction, the ambient  $RO_2^*$  through the chain reaction and other sources (e.g. thermal decomposition of PAN) is measured. In the background mode, the sum of the ambient  $RO_2^*$  the  $RO_2^*$  produced from the ambient  $RO_2^*$  to  $RO_2^*$  to

The two chemical reactors for sampling the ambient air are part of the **DU**al channel Airborne peroxy radical Chemical Amplifier (DUALER) inlet installed inside a pylon located on the outside of the HALO fuselage. During the EMeRGe campaign in Europe, a reagent gas mixing ratio of 30 ppmv NO ([NO] =  $1.46 \times 10^{14}$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup> at 296 K, 200 mbar) and of 9 % CO ([CO] = 4.4

 $\times 10^{17}$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup> at 296 K, 200 mbar) were added to the sample flow for the chemical conversion of RO<sub>2</sub>\* to NO<sub>2</sub>. The DUALER inlet was operated at an internal pressure of 200 mbar to achieve stable chemical conversion. The HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> detection sensitivity depends on the rates of loss of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> by the R19 and R22 reactions. The latter depend on the concentration of the reagent gas NO added concentration due to and the reactions rate coefficients, where  $k_{22}$  of reaction R22 being larger than that for  $k_{19}$ . The average eCL for a 1:1 HO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> mixture under these-the DUALER conditions during the campaign in Europe was determined to be 50 ± 8 from laboratory calibrations, where the error is the  $\pm 1\sigma$  standard deviation estimated from the reproducibility of the experimental determinations. For the measurement conditions used during the IOP in Europe, tLikewise, the ratio  $\alpha = eCL_{CH_3O_2}/eCL_{HO_2}$  is was determined to be 65% for the measurement conditions (George et al., 2020). The values obtained from calibrations before and after the campaign agreed within their experimental errors.

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Although the DUALER pressure is kept constant below the ambient pressure, variations in dynamical pressure > 10 mbar during the flight ean-change the residence time and induce turbulences inside the inlet (Kartal et al., 2010; George et al., 2020). These may lead to different physical losses of radicals before amplification and affect the eCL. In the measurements presented in this study, variations in dynamical pressure of this magnitude were only encountered during flight level changes of the aircraft. When used during the analysis, these data sets are either excluded or flagged (P\_flag). The effect of the ambient air humidity on eCL (Mihele and Hastie, 1998; Mihele et al., 1999; Reichert et al., 2003) has been accounted for by a calibration procedure reported in George et al. (2020). The [H<sub>2</sub>O] in the DUALER inlet was lower than  $1 \times 10^{17}$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup> for 60 % of measurements during EMeRGe in Europe, for which the eCL<sub>wet</sub> = 76 % of eCL<sub>dry</sub>. At the highest humidity observed during the campaign, i.e., [H<sub>2</sub>O]<sub>inlet</sub> =  $2 \times 10^{17}$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>, the eCL<sub>wet</sub> is 55 % of eCL<sub>dry</sub> (see Fig. S1 in the supplementary information).

In addition to the measurement of RO2\* from PeRCEAS, other in-situ and remote-sensing measurements and basic aircraft data from HALO are used in this study. Details of the corresponding instruments are summarised in Table 1. The remote sensing instruments used on HALO during EMeRGe were the mini Differential Optical Absorption (minDOAS) and the Heidelberg Airborne Imaging DOAS Instrument (HAIDI). Concerning the data obtained by the remote sensing instruments, The miniDOAS observes the atmosphere using six telescopes: two being optimised for the ultraviolet, two for the visible, and two for the near infrared. Three telescopes observe in nadir viewing and three in limb viewing. The three limb scanning telescopes point to the starboard side perpendicular to the aircraft fuselage axis. They are rotated to compensate for roll relative to the horizon. A variant of the DOAS retrieval technique uses least square fitting of the measured and radiative transfer modelled absorption along the line of sight to retrieve the miniDOAS retrieves the differential Slant Column Density (dSCD) of the target gas and a scaling reference gas. The latter is the dimer of molecular oxygen (O<sub>4</sub>). As the vertical profile of the concentrations of O<sub>2</sub> and thus O<sub>4</sub> are known then the mixing ratios of the target gas at the flight altitude is obtained from the target gas and O<sub>4</sub> dSCDs towards the horizon at the flight altitude. From this, mixing ratios of the targeted gas within the line of sight is estimated using RT modelling (for more details see Stutz et al., 2017; Hüneke et al., 2017; Kluge et al., 2020; Rotermund et al., 2021). The HAIDI instrument nadir observations are used to retrieves dSCDs below the aircraft. The dSCDs from HAIDI are then converted to mixing ratios using knowledge of the aircraft altitude and the corresponding geometric Air Mass Factor (AMF), calculated by a radiative transfer model under a well-mixed NO<sub>2</sub> layer assumption. As a result of this assumption, the calculated mixing ratios for HAIDI -target gases are lower limits and close similar to the actual values while flying within and close to a well-mixed boundary layer. In spite of Despite the differences in sampling volume and temporal and spatial resolution in the between the in-situ and remote sensing measurement techniques, the concentration of the gas HCHO measured by both techniques were in good agreement and the concentrations of the NO2 (remote sensing) and NOy (in situ) were consistent common and related species obtained are in reasonable agreement (for more details see Schumann, 2020).

Table 1: List of the airborne measurements and instrumentation used in this study. PeRCA: Peroxy Radical Chemical Amplification; CRDS: Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy; PTR-MS: Proton-Transfer-Reaction Mass Spectrometer; AT-BS: Adsorption Tube and Bag air Sampler; TD-GC-MS: Thermal Desorption Gas Chromatography and Mass Spectrometry; DOAS: Differential Optical Absorption Spectrometry; Univ: University; KIT: Karlsruher Institut für Technologie; DLR: Deutsches Zentrum für Luft- und Raumfahrt; IPA: Institut für Physik der Atmosphäre; FZ: Forschungszentrum; FX: Flugexperimente.

Trace gas-in situ measurements							
Species/parameters	Acronym	Institution	Technique/Instrument	Reference			
$RO_2^* = HO_2 + \sum RO_2$	PeRCEAS	Univ. Bremen	PeRCA + CRDS	George et al., 2020			
OVOC	HKMS	KIT Karlsruhe	PTR-MS	Brito and Zahr 2011			
O <sub>3</sub>	FAIRO	KIT Karlsruhe	UV-Photometry/ Chemiluminescence	Zahn et al., 2012			
O <sub>3</sub> , CO	AMTEX	DLR-IPA	UV-Photometry/ VUV-Fluorimetry	Gerbig et al., 1996			
NO, NO <sub>y</sub>	AENEAS	DLR-IPA	Chemiluminescence/ Gold converter	Ziereis et al., 2004			
CO <sub>2</sub> , CH <sub>4</sub>	CATS	DLR-IPA	CRDS	Chen et al., 2010			
Trace gas- remote sensing measurements							
Species/parameters	Acronym	Institution	Technique/Instrument	Reference			
NO <sub>2</sub> , HONO, CH <sub>2</sub> O, C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> , C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>4</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	miniDOAS	Univ. Heidelberg	DOAS / UV-nIR; 2D optical spectrometer	Hüneke et al., 2017			
NO <sub>2</sub>	HAIDI	Univ. Heidelberg	DOAS / 3x2D-imaging spectrometers	General et al., 2014			
Other parameters							
Species/parameters	Acronym	Institution	Technique/Instrument	Reference			
Spectral actinic flux density (up/down) Photolysis frequencies	HALO-SR	FZ Jülich	CCD spectro- radiometry	Bohn and Lohse, 2017			
Basic aircraft data	BAHAMAS	DLR-FX	various	Mallaun et al., 2015			

# 4. Results and discussion

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# 4.1. Airborne RO<sub>2</sub>\* measurements during EMeRGe in Europe

RO<sub>2</sub>\* mixing ratios up to 120 pptv were measured during the campaign, as shown in Fig. 2. Typically, the highest RO<sub>2</sub>\* mixing ratios were observed below 3000 m over Southern Europe. This is attributed to the higher insolation and temperatures favouring the rapid production of RO<sub>2</sub>\* from the photochemical oxidations of CO and VOCs.

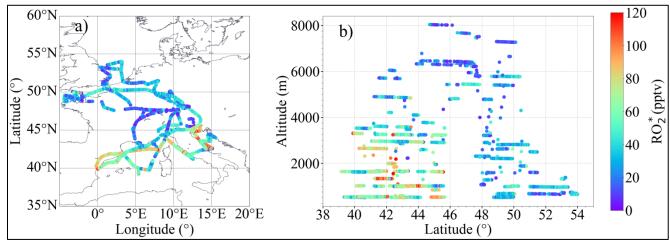
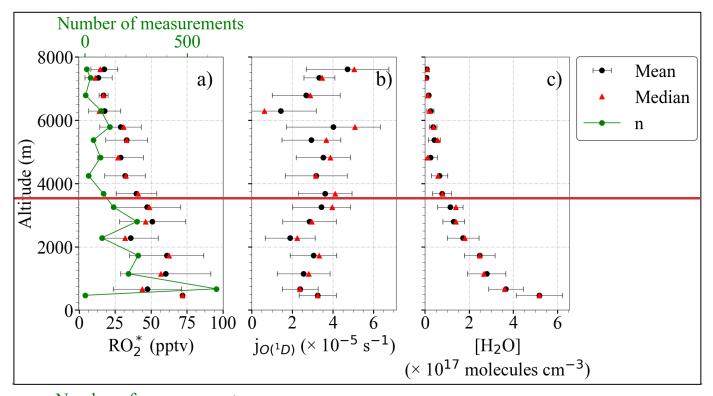


Figure 2: RO<sub>2</sub>\* measured during EMeRGe-Europe: a) as a function of longitude and latitude, b) as a function of latitude and altitude.

The origin and thus the composition of the air sampled during the seven flights over Europe were different and heterogeneous. Typically, the air masses measured were influenced by emissions from MPCs and their surroundings, and sometimes by biomass burning transported over short or long distances. The concentration and mixing ratio of RO<sub>2</sub>\* rather depends on the insolation and the chemical composition of the air masses probed, particularly on the abundance of RO<sub>2</sub>\* precursors, than on the origin of the air masses. Provided that insolation conditions and a sufficient number of key participating precursors are comparable, the air mass origin is irrelevant for calculating RO<sub>2</sub>\* concentrations and mixing ratios. This is because the Since RO<sub>2</sub>\* concentration is are controlled by fast chemical and photochemical processes, the air mass origin and trajectory are not used in the calculation of RO<sub>2</sub>\* concentrations and mixing ratios but are of interest as the source of . RO<sub>2</sub>\* precursors. Thus, the RO<sub>2</sub>\* variability and its production rates provide valuable insight into the photochemical activity of the air masses probed.

Changes in  $RO_2^*$  as a function of latitude and altitude, as shown in Fig. 2, confirm the heterogeneity of the photochemical activity in the air masses probed. Figure 3 shows the  $RO_2^*$  vertical profiles averaged for the EMeRGe flights over Europe in 500 m altitude bins. The error bars are standard errors (i.e.  $\pm 1\sigma$  standard deviation of each bin). The vertical profiles may be biased as the higher altitudes have fewer measurements than those below 3000 m, as mentioned in section 2. The vertical profiles are a composite from averaging different-flights with legs carried out at different longitude and latitudes, and are only shown to summarise the variability in the composition of the air masses measured during the campaign.



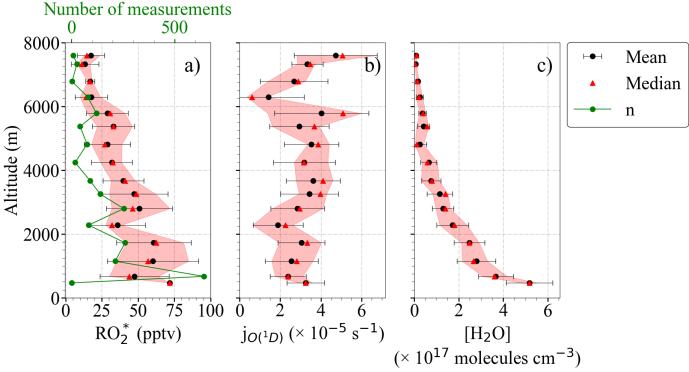


Figure 3: Composite average vertical profiles of a)  $RO_2^*$ , b)  $j_{O(^1D)}$  and c)  $[H_2O]$  observations. The measurements are binned over 500 m altitude. The error bars are the standard errors (i.e.  $\pm 1\sigma$  standard deviation of each bin). Median values (red triangles) the interquartile 25-75% range (red-shaded area) and the number of individual measurements, n, for each bin (in green) are additionally plotted.

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Differences between mean and median values indicate less RO<sub>2</sub>\* variability in the air masses probed above 3000 m. Most of the EMeRGe measurements below 2000 m were carried out in the outflow of MPCs, which are expected to contain significant amounts of RO<sub>2</sub>\* precursors. HALO flew at the lowest altitudes <u>during flight legs</u> over the English Channel, the Mediterranean and the

North Sea. The  $H_2O$  concentration in the air masses decreases steadily with altitude as expected. The higher relative variability in  $H_2O$  observed at 3000 m and the increase at 5000 m is associated with measurements under stormy conditions, often over the Alps.

# **4.2.** RO<sub>2</sub>\* production rates

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The\_total\_rate of\_production rate of\_OH and  $RO_2^*$  ( $P_{OH+HO_2+RO_2}$ ) can be estimated from the reactions R1 to R13 as follows is given by:

$$P_{RO_{2}^{*-}} = 2jO_{D}^{1}[O_{3}] \frac{k_{O_{D}^{1} + H_{2}O}[H_{2}O]}{k_{O_{D}^{1} + H_{2}O}[H_{2}O] + k_{O_{D}^{1} + O_{2}}[O_{2}] + k_{O_{D}^{1} + N_{2}}[N_{2}]} + j_{HONO}[HONO] + 2j_{H_{2}O_{2}}[H_{2}O_{2}] + 2\sum_{i} j_{i} [OVOC_{i}] + \sum_{i} k_{OH+VOC_{i}}[OH][VOC_{i}] + \sum_{i} k_{O_{3}+alkenes_{k}}[O_{3}][alkenes_{k}]$$
(Eq. 2)

where OVOC stands for oxygenated volatile organic compounds.

In this workstudy, Eq. 2 has been applied to the measurements taken within the EMeRGe campaign in Europe. There were no H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> measurements available for EMeRGe. However, from the results reported by Tan et al. (2001), indicate that the rate of OH production from the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> photolysis is not become significant except when at low NO<sub>x</sub> conditions is low. To be more precise, for conditions having NO < 50 ppt, the partitioning of HO<sub>x</sub> is strongly shifted to HO<sub>2</sub>. HO<sub>2</sub> then predominantly reacts with itself or RO<sub>2</sub> to form peroxides, which can in turn photolyse. For conditions with NO > 50 pptv the rates of reactions of HO<sub>x</sub> with NO<sub>x</sub> are faster than those of HO<sub>2</sub> with HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>. As the NO mixing ratio was higher than 50 pptv in 75 % of the air masses probed in EuropeSince the [NO<sub>x</sub>] > 8 × 10<sup>12</sup> molecules cm<sup>-3</sup> for 60 % of the measurements during the IOP, as a first approximation, the production rate of OH from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> of the photolysis of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is was as a first approximation assumed not to be negligible significant source of OH for the EMeRGe dataset considered in this study.

Formaldehyde (HCHO), acetaldehyde (CH<sub>3</sub>CHO), acetone, (CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)CH<sub>3</sub>), and glyoxal (CHOCHO) were the OVOCs measured in EMeRGe forming directly radicals through photolysis. They are produced in the photolysis and oxidation of VOCs and are likely the Similarly, the VOC photolysis was assumed to dominate the RO<sub>2</sub>\* production over the oxidation by OH and ozonolysis of alkenes. The most abundant and reactive oxygenated volatile organic compounds (OVOCs) present. measured have been taken. In this study they were assumed to be the dominant as a surrogate for the sum of VOCs; in the air masses probed.

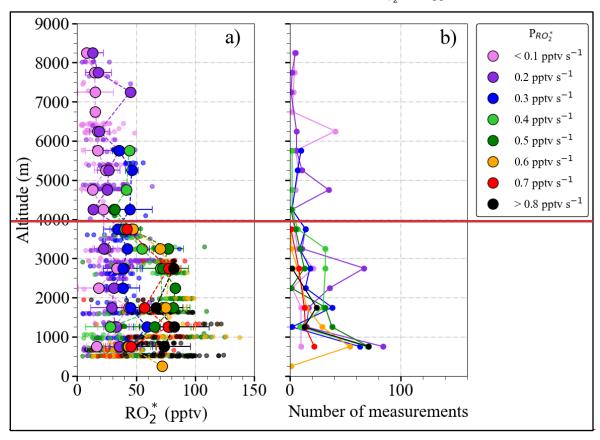
There were no measurements of alkenes provided in EMeRGe. Consequently the ozonolyis term in Eq. 2 was not included in the analysis.

The <u>abovese</u> assumptions lead to Eq. 3, which <u>estimates calculates</u> the  $RO_2^*$  production rate  $(P_{RO_2^*})$  <u>for the EMeRGe measurements</u> as <u>follows</u>:

$$\begin{split} P_{RO_{2}^{*}} &= \ 2j_{O(^{1}D)}[O_{3}] \frac{k_{O_{D}^{1}+H_{2}O}^{}[H_{2}O]}{k_{O_{D}^{1}+H_{2}O}^{}[H_{2}O]+k_{O_{D}^{1}+N_{2}}^{}[N_{2}]} + j_{HONO} \left[ HONO \right] + \ 2j_{HCHO} \left[ HCHO \right] + 2j_{CH_{3}CHO} \left[ CH_{3}CHO \right] + \\ 2j_{CH_{3}C(O)CH_{3}} \left[ \ CH_{3}C(O)CH_{3} \right] + \ 2j_{CHOCHO} \left[ CHOCHO \right] \end{split} \tag{Eq.3}$$

Eq. 3 yields the rate of production of RO<sub>2</sub>\* molecules. The production rate of RO<sub>2</sub>\* molecules can be expressed in units of mixing ratio of RO<sub>2</sub>\* by dividing with the air concentration at each altitude, estimated calculated from the pressure and temperature measurements (for the vertical profile and the latitudinal distribution of P<sub>RO</sub>\*, see Fig. S2 and S3 in the supplementary information.—).

Figure 4 shows the composite averaged vertical profile of all measured  $RO_2^*$  mixing ratios colour-coded with the estimated calculated  $P_{RO_2^*}$ . Small circles show the 1 minute measurements binned for  $P_{RO_2^*}$  up to 0.8 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> in 0.1 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> intervals. The production rates above 0.8 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> are binned to the 0.8 pptv s<sup>-1</sup>-bin. Larger circles in the figure result from further binning the small circles over 500 m altitude steps. The error bars are the standard errors for each altitude bin. For the sake of representativeness and comparability, the number of measurements in each altitude bin is shown in Fig. 4b. The Hhigher  $RO_2^*$  mixing ratios observed below 4000 m are typically associated with  $P_{RO_2^*} \ge 0.4$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup>. Above 4000 m both  $P_{RO_2^*}$  and  $RO_2^*$  start to decrease with altitude, as expected. This is related to the decrease in  $H_2O$  and other radical precursor concentrations with altitude, as detailed in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6. In previous airborne campaigns at various parts of the world,  $RO_2^*$  vertical distributions showed a local maximum between 1500 and 4000 m, as reported by Tan et al. (2001), Cantrell et al. (2003a, 2003b), and Andrés-Hernández et al. (2009). In the present work, this local maximum is more evident for measurements with  $P_{RO_2^*} \ge 0.5$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup>.



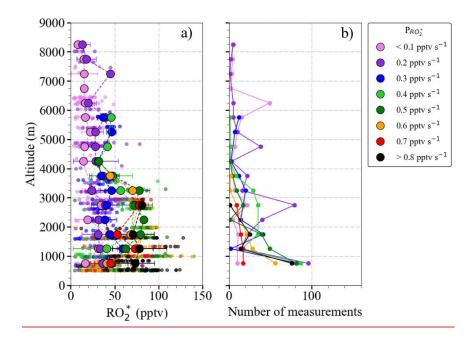


Figure 4: a) Composite averaged vertical distribution of measured  $RO_2^*$  colour-coded according to the value of  $P_{RO_2^*}$ , b) the number of measurements in each altitude bin. Small circles are 1-minute individual measurements binned with  $P_{RO_2^*}$  values in 0.1 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> intervals. Larger circles result from a further binning over 500 m altitude steps. All the production rates below 0.1 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> and above 0.8 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> are binned to 0.1 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> and 0.8 pptv s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The error bars are the standard deviation for each altitude bin.

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Figure 5 shows the fractional contribution of the production rate from each radical precursor reaction included in Eq. 3 as a function of altitude. The data are classified into three groups according to the rate of change of -production of the  $RO_2^*$  mixing ratio  $P_{RO_2^*} < 0.07$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup> (5a),  $0.07 < P_{RO_2^*} < 0.8$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup> (5b), and  $P_{RO_2^*} > 0.8$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup> (5c) to show the lowest, most common, and highest ranges, respectively, encountered during the  $\frac{IOP_{campaign}}{IOP_{campaign}}$ . For 89 % of the measurements,  $0.07 < P_{RO_2^*} < 0.8$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup> applies, while the rest of the data are equally distributed in the other two  $P_{RO_2^*}$  ranges. The data in each group are always binned over 500 m when available.

Typically, the high amount of  $H_2O$  in the air masses probed results in the  $O_3$  photolysis and subsequent leads to the reaction of  $O^1D$  with  $H_2O$  (R1-R2a) and isbeing the highest  $RO_2^*$  radical production rate ( $\geq 50$  %) below 4000 m. As the amount of  $H_2O$  reduces with altitude, the relative contribution from  $O_3$  photolysis decreases. Above 4000 m, HCHO, HONO, and CHOCHO photolysis contributions range between 20 % to 40 %, 2.5 % to 30 %, and 5 % to 25 %, respectively. The HCHO contribution increases up to 80% during measurements above 6000 m. The contributions of  $CH_3CHO$  and  $CH_3C(O)CH_3$  photolysis are, in contrast, practically negligible (< 5 %).

-The vertical changes of the precursor mixing ratios and photolysis frequencies used to calculate  $P_{RO_2^*}$  in Fig. 5 are shown in Fig. 6a to 6f.  $P_{RO_2^*} < 0.07$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup> is associated with measurements under cloudy conditions, towards sunset where the photolysis frequencies are low, or at altitudes above 5000 m in air masses with a low amount of  $RO_2^*$  precursors.  $P_{RO_2^*} > 0.8$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup> are found for air masses, measured below 2000 m in the outflow of MPCs over the sea, for conditions having sufficient insolation ( $j_{O(^1D)} > 3 \times 10^{-5}$  S<sup>-1</sup>) and a high content of  $RO_2^*$  precursors (HCHO > 1000 pptv and HONO >100 pptv). The increase in the photolysis frequencies as a function of altitude is concurrent with decreases in precursor concentrations. As a result, the  $P_{RO_2^*}$  do not significantly vary with altitude in the air masses investigated.

In previous airborne campaigns, Tan et al. (2001) and Cantrell et al. (2003b) reported a reduction of the fractional contribution of the reaction of  $O(^1D)$  with  $H_2O$  as the  $P_{RO_2^*}$  value decreases. At very low  $P_{RO_2^*}$  values (< 0.03 pptv s<sup>-1</sup>), the sum of all other production terms exceeded the fraction from the  $O(^1D) + H_2O$  term. For these conditions,  $H_2O_2$  and VOCs photolysis dominated the  $P_{RO_2^*}$ . For In the case of the EMeRGe data set in Europe, only 6 % of-  $P_{RO_2^*}$  are below 0.06 pptv s<sup>-1</sup>.

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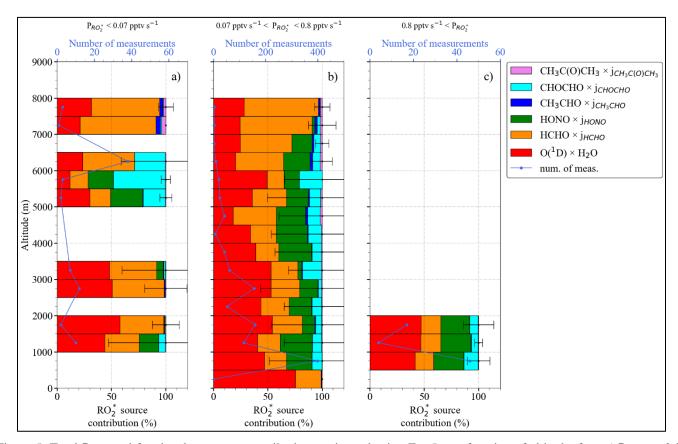
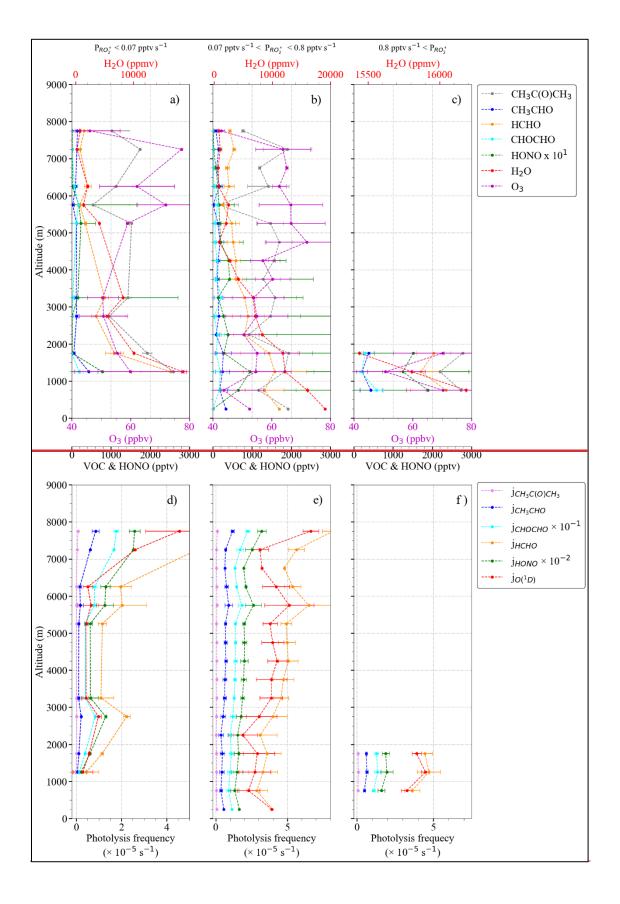


Figure 5: Total  $P_{RO_2^*}$  and fractional precursor contributions estimated using Eq. 5 as a function of altitude, for:- a)  $P_{RO_2^*} \sim 0.07$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup>, b) 0.07 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> <  $P_{RO_2^*} < 0.8$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup>, and c)  $P_{RO_2^*} > 0.8$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup>. Note the different scales in the number of measurements.



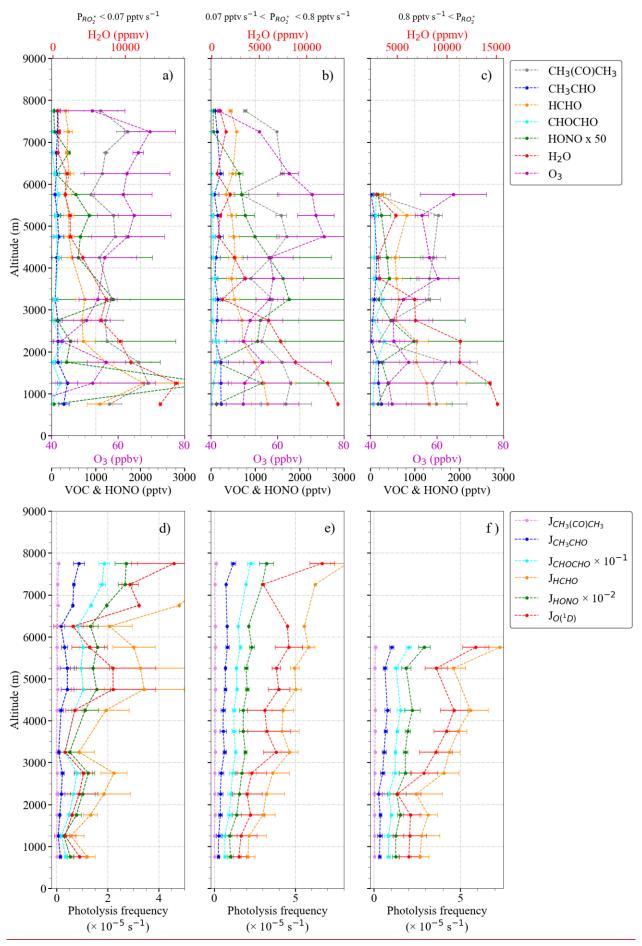


Figure 6:- Vertical distribution and variation of a) to c) precursor mixing ratios; d) to f) photolysis frequencies for the  $P_{RO_2^*}$  bins as in Fig. 5. Note the different scales in the  $H_2O$  concentration

# 4.3. PSS estimation of the-RO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios

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Under most ambient conditions in the troposphere, the RO<sub>2</sub>\*, which to a first approximation is the sum of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>, which react with NO to produce an RO<sub>2</sub>- are short-lived, and the chemical lifetime of RO<sub>2</sub>\* is much shorter than the chemical transport time into and out of an air mass being probed. Consequently, pseudo-steady-state conditions prevail, and the radical production and loss destruction rates are balanced:

$$P_{HO_2+RO_2*} = LD_{HO_2+RO_2*}$$
 (Eq.4)

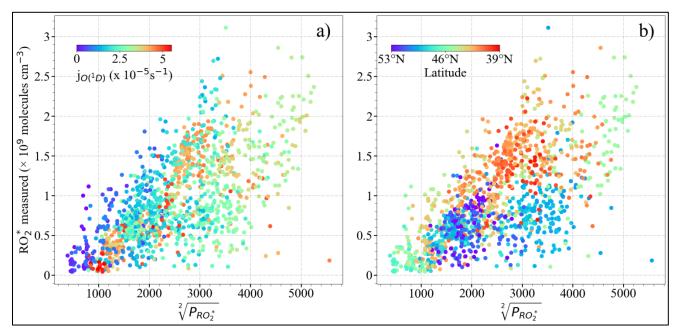
If the interconversion reactions between OH, RO, HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> The (R5 to R7, R12, R16b, and R23 to R26) are interconversion reactions between OH, RO, HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> and do consequently occur without radical losses, then the radical number densities concentrations are calculated by solving Eq. 4. Solving Eq. 4 leads to Eq. 5 if the RO<sub>2</sub>\* – RO<sub>2</sub>\* reactions are assumed to be the dominant radical loss-terminating processes, Eq. 4 leads to Eq. 5.

$$2j_{O(^{1}D)}[O_{3}]\frac{k_{O_{D}^{1}+H_{2}O}[H_{2}O]}{k_{O_{D}^{1}+H_{2}O}[H_{2}O]+k_{O_{D}^{1}+O_{2}}[O_{2}]+k_{O_{D}^{1}+N_{2}}[N_{2}]}+j_{HONO}[HONO]+2j_{HCHO}[HCHO]+2j_{CH_{3}CHO}[CH_{3}CHO]\\ +2j_{CH_{3}C(O)CH_{3}}[CH_{3}C(O)CH_{3}]+2j_{CHOCHO}[CHOCHO]=k_{RO_{2}^{*}+RO_{2}^{*}}[RO_{2}^{*}]^{2}$$
 (Eq. 5)

where  $j_{HCHO}$ ,  $j_{CH_3C(O)CH_3}$   $j_{CHOCHO}$  are respectively  $j_8$ ,  $j_9$ ,  $j_{10a,b}$  and  $j_{11}$ , as in Table 1 in the supplementary information. and  $k_{RO_2^*+RO_2^*}$  represents is the an effective  $RO_2^*$  self-reaction rate coefficient, which is defined as the weighted average rate comprising coefficient between  $HO_2 - HO_2$ ,  $HO_2 - RO_2$  and  $RO_2 - RO_2$  reaction rates.

Consequently, the RO<sub>2</sub>\* concentrations are expected to correlate with the square root of the P<sub>RO</sub><sub>2</sub>\*.

Figure 7 shows the relationship between the measured [RO<sub>2</sub>\*] and the estimated calculated  $\sqrt[2]{P_{RO_2^*}}$ . Generally, both [RO<sub>2</sub>\*] and  $\sqrt[2]{P_{RO_2^*}}$  increase with the photolysis frequency of O<sub>3</sub> ( $j_{O(^1D)}$ ). The Measurements in which [RO<sub>2</sub>\*] —were less than 0.5 × 10<sup>12</sup> molecules cm<sup>-3</sup> and  $\sqrt[2]{P_{RO_2^*}}$  «less than 1000 and with  $j_{O(^1D)} > 5 \times 10^{-5}$  belong to the measurementswere made above 6000 m, where the amount of RO<sub>2</sub>\* precursors is low. The relatively weak correlation observed between [RO<sub>2</sub>\*] and  $\sqrt[2]{P_{RO_2^*}}$  indicates the presence necessity of other radical loss terminating processes and/or missing production radical formation terms in the  $P_{RO_2^*}$  calculation. Apart from this, the spread in the diagram confirms that the effective RO<sub>2</sub>\* self-reaction rate  $k_{RO_2^*+RO_2^*}$  [RO<sub>2</sub>\*] varies widely in the air masses probed likely due to the effect of changes in HO<sub>2</sub> and  $\sum RO_2$  concentrations in the individual loss reaction rate coefficients. As mentioned in section 4.1, Pphotochemical processing was is expected to be enhanced over Southern Europe due to the prevailing conditions of high insolation and temperatures during the measurementsEMeRGe flights, which might lead to the rapid production of RO<sub>2</sub>\* from the photochemical oxidations of CO and VOCs. This is also reflected in the higher  $P_{RO_2^*}$  and [RO<sub>2</sub>\*] observed in Southern Europe as compared to those in Northern Europe (Fig. 7b).



 $\label{eq:Figure 7: Plot of the Mmeasured [RO_2^*] versus } \frac{\text{estimated -}_{calculated}}{\sqrt[2]{P_{RO_2^*}}} \text{ colour-coded for values of a)-} \\ \text{$j_{O(^1D)}$ and b) latitude. }$ 

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The correlation between  $[RO_2^*]$  and  $\sqrt[2]{P_{RO_2^*}}$  improves when the measurements south and north of 47°N are separately analysed (Fig. 8). For a given  $[RO_2^*]$ , the  $P_{RO_2^*}$  calculated is higher for the measurements north of 47°N than south of 47°N. The lowest  $[RO_2^*]$  to  $\sqrt[2]{P_{RO_2^*}}$  ratios are associated with higher  $NO_x$  (NO + NO<sub>2</sub>), especially north of 47°N, indicating the urban character and higher amounts of the content in  $RO_2^*$  precursors of the air probed (Fig. 8d). Please nNote that these results are only valid for the data set acquired over Europe during EMeRGe flights and do not yield a relationship between  $[RO_2^*]$  and  $\sqrt[2]{P_{RO_2^*}}$ , which is generally applicable under all conditions for these two latitude windows.

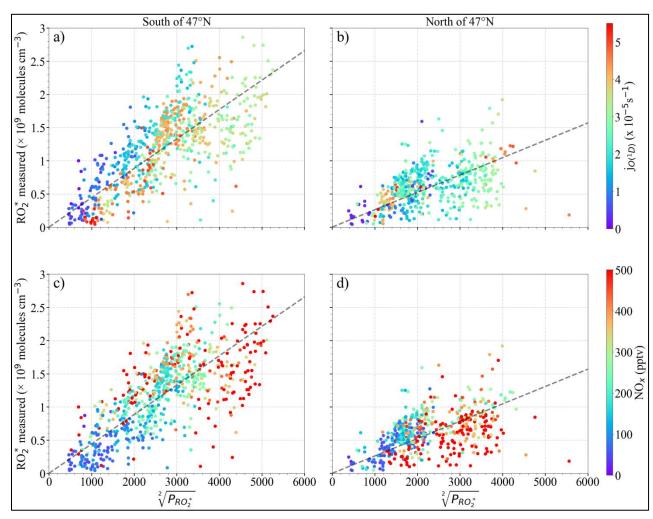


Figure 8: Plots of the Mmeasured [RO<sub>2</sub>\*] vs  $\sqrt[3]{P_{RO_2^*}}$  for the following latitudes: a) and c) south of 47°N; b) and d) north of 47°N. Note that a) and b) are colour-coded with  $j_{O(^1D)}$ ; c) and d) are colour-coded by NO<sub>x</sub> mixing ratio. The dashed lines indicate the linear fit for visual support.

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The relationship between  $RO_2^*$  and  $P_{RO_2^*}$  is further investigated to identify the dominant  $RO_2^*$  loss process in the air masses considered in this study. As stated in section 3,  $HO_2$  and  $RO_2$  are not speciated but retrieved as  $RO_2^*$  by the PeRCEAS instrument. Because not all peroxy radicals are detected equally by the instrument, the comparison of measured and calculated  $RO_2^*$  values is complicated. To investigate this So, the effect of changes in the  $HO_2$  to the total  $RO_2^*$  ratios, represented have been taken into consideration by  $\delta$ , i.e.,  $[HO_2] = \delta[RO_2^*]$  and  $[CH_3O_2] = (1-\delta)[RO_2^*]$ , is investigated in the analysis. As a first approach,  $RO_2$  is assumed to consist only of  $CH_3O_2$  reactions are taken as a surrogate for all  $RO_2$  reactions to reduce the complexity of the calculations by considering only  $CH_3O_2$  reaction rate constants. Moreover, in a previous study the ratio  $\alpha = eCL_{CH_3O_2}/eCL_{HO_2}$  was determined to be 65% for the measurement conditions (George et al., 2020).

Furthermore, The Eq. 5 is additionally extended to include RO<sub>2</sub>\* production effective yields from VOC oxidation, radical conversion reactions between oxy and peroxy radicals and OH and RO radical losses through HONO, HNO<sub>3</sub>, and organic nitrate formation.: Consequently, Eq. 5 is accordingly modified:

$$(2j_{1}[O_{3}]\beta + j_{3}[HONO])(1 - \rho) + 2j_{8}[HCHO] + 2j_{9}[CH_{3}CHO] + 2(j_{10a} + j_{10b})[CH_{3}C(0)CH_{3}] + 2j_{11}[CHOCHO] =$$

$$\delta[RO_{2}^{*}](k_{23}[NO] + k_{24}[O_{3}])\rho + \frac{\left(2k_{16b}\left((1 - \delta)[RO_{2}^{*}]\right)^{2} + k_{25}(1 - \delta)[RO_{2}^{*}][NO]\right)\left(\frac{k_{22}[NO]}{(k_{22}[NO] + k_{26}[O_{2}])}\right) + 2k_{15}\delta(1 - \delta)[RO_{2}^{*}]^{2} + 2k_{16a}\left((1 - \delta)[RO_{2}^{*}]\right)^{2} + 2k_{14}(\delta[RO_{2}^{*}])^{2}$$

$$(Eq. 6)$$

where  $\beta$  is the effective yield of OH production in the reaction of O(<sup>1</sup>D) with H<sub>2</sub>O given by:

$$\beta = \bigg(\!\frac{k_{2a}[\text{H}_2\text{O}]}{k_{2a}[\text{H}_2\text{O}] \!+ k_{2b}[\text{O}_2] \!+ k_{2c}[\text{N}_2]}\!\bigg)\!,$$

On the left hand side of Eq. 6, 1- $\rho$  accounts for the effective yield of HO<sub>2</sub>+RO<sub>2</sub> through the radical initiation reactions R2a and R3 and reactions R5 to R7 and R12. As the calculation is constrained with on-board measurements, only the reactions of measured VOCs were considered in R12. Similarly,  $\rho$  accounts for the effective yield of HONO, HNO<sub>3</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O formation through reactions R19 to R21 and the HO<sub>2</sub> + NO and HO<sub>2</sub> + O<sub>3</sub> reactions (R23 and R24 respectively) on the right hand side of Eq. 6.

Consequently, ρ is given by:

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$$\rho = \frac{(k_{19}[N0] + k_{20}[N0_{2}] + k_{21}[H0N0])}{(k_{5}[0_{3}] + k_{6}[C0] + k_{7}[CH_{4}] + k_{12a}[HCH0] + k_{12b}[CH_{3}CH0] + k_{12c}[CH_{3}C(0)CH_{3}] + k_{12d}[CH_{3}OH] + k_{12e}[CH0CH0] + k_{17}[H0_{2}] + k_{19}[N0] + k_{20}[N0_{2}] + k_{21}[H0N0])}$$

Measurements of CH<sub>4</sub>, HCHO, CH<sub>3</sub>CHO, CHOCHO, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, and CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)CH<sub>3</sub> on-board HALO are available and implemented in Eq. 6. These comprise the most abundant and reactive OVOCs and are considered to be a representative the surrogate for the VOCs, which that act as RO<sub>2</sub>\* precursors through oxidation and photolysis. During the EMeRGe IOP campaign in Europe,  $k_{12a} \times HCHO$  and  $k_{12b} \times CH_3CHO$  have the highest contribution to the  $1 - \rho$  from all the OVOC measured. HCHO and CH<sub>3</sub>CHO are the dominant radical precursors from the OVOC oxidations. Their impact on the rate of pridteion of RO<sub>2</sub>\* and the RO<sub>2</sub>\* budget is found to be similar because their respective concentrations compensate the difference in the rate coefficients of their reactions with OH ( $k_{OH12a+HCHO} = 8.5 \times 10^{-12}$  cm<sup>3</sup> molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and  $k_{OH+CH<sub>3</sub>CHO12b} = 1.5 \times 10^{-11}$  cm<sup>3</sup> molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at 298K and 1 atm.). Despite its high mixing ratios measured, CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)CH<sub>3</sub> is a less important source of RO<sub>2</sub>\* in the 1 – ρ term. This is because the rate coefficient  $k(T)_{12c}$  is significantly slower than  $k_{OH+CH<sub>3</sub>CHO12b}$  (see Table S1 in the supplement). Similarly, the contribution of CHOCHO and CH<sub>3</sub>OH is an order of magnitude lower than that of HCHO and CH<sub>3</sub>CHO.

Concerning the term  $\delta[RO_2^*](k_{23}[NO] + k_{24}[O_3])\rho$  on the right hand side of Eq.6, the HO<sub>2</sub> reaction with O<sub>3</sub> has a negligible effect As—as  $k_{HO_2+O_324}$  is almost four orders of magnitude smaller than  $k_{HO_2+NO_23}$  and the NO concentrations remained about three orders of magnitude smaller than the O<sub>3</sub> measured during the campaign, the HO<sub>2</sub> reaction with O<sub>3</sub> has a negligible effect in Eq. 6.

The impact of the methylglyoxal (CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)C(O)H) photolysis was also investigated by using the CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)C(O)H\* measurements provided by the miniDOAS instrument. The CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)C(O)H\* measured is the sum of CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)C(O)H, and a fraction of other substituted dicarbonyls (mainly 2,3-butanedione,  $C_3H_6O_2$ ), with similar visible absorption spectra. For the calculation, CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)C(O)H was assumed to be half of CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)C(O)H\* as recommended by Zarzana et al. (2017) and Kluge et al. (2020). The  $RO_2^*$  calculated by including CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)C(O)H photolysis systematically overestimated the measurements. As the adequacy of the recommended factor of 0.5 varies with the actual air mass composition, CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)C(O)H was not included in the calculations.

Figure 9 shows the fractional contribution of the destruction rate  $(D_{RO_2^*})$  calculated for a 1:1 mixture of  $HO_2$  and  $CH_3O_2$  using the reactions included in Eq. 6 as a function of altitude. The data are classified into three groups according to the rate of destruction of  $RO_2^*$  mixing ratio  $D_{RO_2^*} < 0.01$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup> (a),  $0.01 < D_{RO_2^*} < 0.9$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup> (b), and  $D_{RO_2^*} > 0.9$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup> (c) to show the lowest, most common, and highest ranges, respectively, encountered during the EMeRGe campaign. For 90 % of the measurements,  $0.01 < D_{RO_2^*} < 0.9$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup> applies, while the rest of the data are equally distributed in the other two  $D_{RO_2^*}$  ranges. The data in each group are always binned over 500 m when available.

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As can be seen in Fig. 9, the  $\pm 1\sigma$  standard deviation of the obtained bins is very high. In spite of this, the HO<sub>2</sub> – CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub> – HO<sub>2</sub> reactions seem to dominate the radical destruction processes in the air masses probed. Their combined contribution is > 70 % in all the cases except in the 1000 m bin of  $D_{RO_2^*} > 0.9$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup>. Other significant radical losses occur through the HONO and HNO<sub>3</sub> formation. The contribution of the CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> + CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> reaction to the total RO<sub>2</sub>\* destruction rate is < 5 %.".

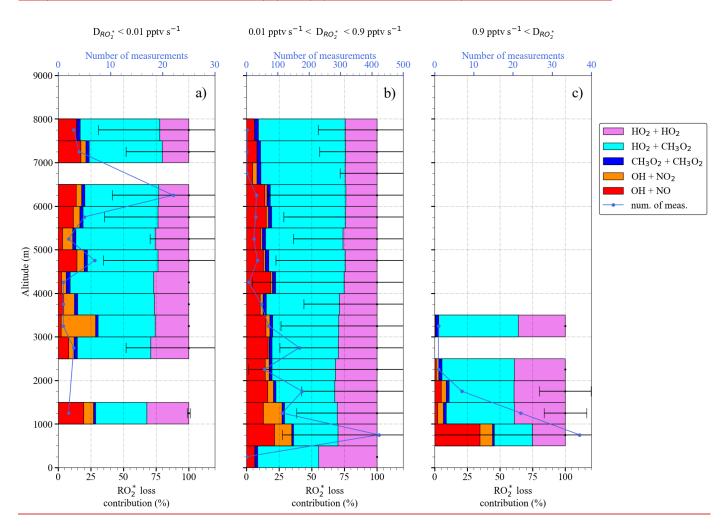


Figure 9:  $RO_2^*$  destruction rate  $D_{RO_2^*}$  and fractional contributions from loss reactions in Eq.6 as a function of altitude, for: a)  $D_{RO_2^*} < 0.01$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup>, b) 0.01 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> <  $D_{RO_2^*} < 0.9$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup>, and c)  $D_{RO_2^*} > 0.9$  pptv s<sup>-1</sup>. Note the different scales in the number of measurements."

Since Eq. 6, is quadratic in [RO<sub>2</sub>\*] it can be solved for ean be calculated as [RO<sub>2</sub>\*]<sub>c</sub> where c stands for calculated, as:

$$\frac{[RO_2^*][RO_2^*]_c}{2(-2k_{RO_2^*})} = \frac{-(-L_{RO_2^*})^{-2}\sqrt{L_{RO_2^*}^2 - 4(-2k_{RO_2^*})P_{RO_2^*}}}{2(-2k_{RO_2^*})}$$
(Eq. 79)

where

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$$k_{RO_2^*} = \left( \frac{k_{160} \left( \frac{k_{22}[NO]}{(k_{22}[NO] + k_{26}[O_2])} + k_{16a} \right)}{(k_{22}[NO] + k_{26}[O_2])} + k_{16a} \right) k_{16a} (1 - \delta)^2 + k_{15} \delta (1 - \delta) + k_{14} \delta^2 \right)$$

$$L_{RO_2^*} = \left(\delta(k_{23}[NO] + k_{24}[O_3])\rho + \frac{k_{22}[NO]}{(k_{22}[NO] + k_{26}[O_2])} k_{25}(1 - \delta)[NO]\right)$$

$$P_{\mathsf{g}RO_2^*} = \ (2j_1[0_3]\beta + j_3[\mathsf{HONO}])(1-\rho) + \ 2j_8[\mathsf{HCHO}] + \ 2j_9[\mathsf{CH}_3\mathsf{CHO}] + 2(j_{10a} + \ j_{10b})[\mathsf{CH}_3\mathsf{C}(0)\mathsf{CH}_3] + 2j_{11}[\mathsf{CHOCHO}]$$

where  $k_{RO_2^*}$  is a weighed rate coefficient of  $RO_2^*$  self reactions for a 1:1 mixture of  $HO_2$  and  $CH_3O_2$ ,  $L_{RO2^*}$  comprises the formation of HONO and HNO<sub>3</sub> and  $Pg_{RO2^*}$  is the gross production of  $RO_2^*$ .

The second solution of the quadratic equation gives negative values for  $[RO_2^*]_c[RO_2^*]$ , therefore is assumed to have has no physical meaning. A more detailed derivation of Eq. 6 and Eq. 7 are given in the supplementary information.

Figure 10 shows the measured RO<sub>2</sub>\* (hereinafter referred to as RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub>) mixing ratio versus the calculated RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> mixing ratio using Eq. 7. RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> are the measured and calculated RO<sub>2</sub>\* respectively for  $\delta = 1$ , i.e. RO<sub>2</sub>\* = HO<sub>2</sub> and  $\delta = 0.5$ , i.e. HO<sub>2</sub> = RO<sub>2</sub>Applying Eq. 9Eq. 7 to the measured dataset reduces the overestimation of RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> by RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> at NO mixing ratios higher than 250 pptv (Fig. 10Fig. 9), especially for RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> < 40 pptv but does not introduce significant changes in the overall correlations (Table 2). The eCL corresponding to  $\delta = 1$  and  $\delta = 0.5$  used for the RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> retrievals were determined in laboratory experiments, as reported by George et al. (2020). The small circles represent 1-minute RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub>, whereas the large circles are the mean of the RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> binned over 10 pptv RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> intervals. As in Fig. 9, plots of the 1 minute RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> and the average of RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> binned over 10 pptv RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> intervals versus RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> are depicted for  $\delta = 1$  and  $\delta = 0.5$  in Fig. 10. The RO<sub>2</sub>\* data are colour-coded with the on-board NO measurements. The linear regression slopes are around 0.7 (R<sup>2</sup>= 0.96), indicating an overall 25 – 30 % underestimation of the RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub>. However, the RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> are mostly overestimated 4000 m under low insolation and underestimated in polluted plumes measured below 2000 m with NO mixing ratios approximately above 50 pptv (see Fig. 11Fig. 10 for  $\delta = 0.5$ ). The y-axis intercept is below the instrumental detection limit for most measurement conditions.

Table 2: Linear regression parameters from RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> versus RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> using Eq. 7 and Eq. 9 from Fig. 9 and Fig. 10, respectively.

Formula used to calculate RO <sub>2</sub> *	δ	slope	y-intercept (pptv)	$\mathbb{R}^2$
	1.00	0.71	5	0.96
<u>Eq. 7</u>	0.50	0.74	6	0.97

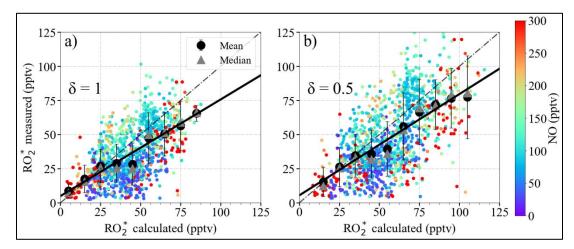
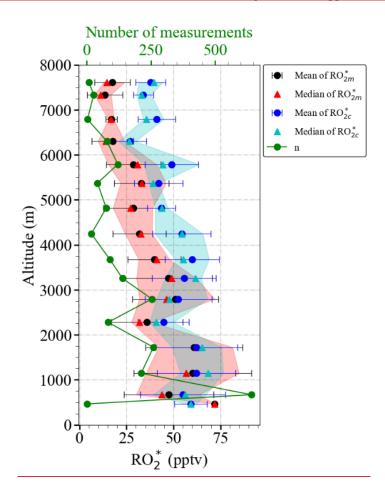


Figure 10:  $RO_{2\ m}^*$  versus  $RO_{2\ c}^*$  ealeulated using Eq. 9Eq. 7 for a)  $\delta = 1$  and b)  $\delta = 0.5$ . The data are colour-coded with the measured NO mixing ratios. The 1-minute (small circles), the mean of the binned  $RO_{2\ m}^*$  over 10 pptv  $RO_{2\ c}^*$  intervals (large circles), and the median of each bin (grey triangles) are shown. The error bars indicate  $\pm 1\sigma$  standard deviation the standard error of each bin. The linear regression for the binned values (solid line) and the 1:1 relation (dashed line) are also depicted for reference.

Figure 11 shows the vertical profiles of  $RO_2^*_m$  and  $RO_2^*_c$  mixing ratios calculated for  $\delta = 0.5$ , averaged for the EMeRGe flights over Europe in 500 m altitude bins.  $RO_2^*_c$  seems to overestimate  $RO_2^*_m$  for altitudes above 4000 m. As mentioned in Sect. 4.1, the vertical profiles are a composite from averaging flights with legs carried out at different longitude and latitudes. Therefore, the differences between  $RO_2^*_m$  and  $RO_2^*_c$  have been studied in more detail respect to the composition of the individual air masses (see the  $RO_2^*_m$  and  $RO_2^*_c$  mixing ratios as a function of latitude and altitude in Fig. S4 in the supplementary information).



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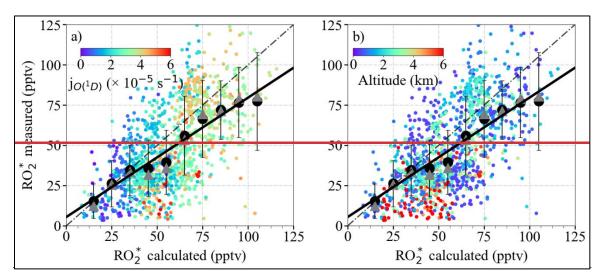


Figure 11:  $RO_2^*_{m}$  versus  $RO_2^*_{e}$  calculated using Eq. 9 for  $\delta = 0.5$ . The data points are colour coded for a) photolysis frequency of  $O_2$ ; b) altitude. The 1 minute (small circles), the mean of the binned  $RO_2^*_{m}$  over 10 pptv  $RO_2^*_{e}$  intervals (large circles), and the median of each bin (grey triangles) are shown. The error bars indicate the standard error of each bin. The linear regression for the binned values (solid line) and the 1:1 relation (dashed line) are also depicted for reference.

Figure 12 shows the data for  $\delta = 0.5$  colour-coded with NO, NO<sub>x</sub>, the sum of HCHO, CH<sub>3</sub>CHO, CHOCHO, CH<sub>3</sub>OH, and CH<sub>3</sub>C(O)CH<sub>3</sub> (from now on referred to as  $\Sigma$ VOCs), as a surrogate for the amount of OVOCs acting as RO<sub>2</sub>\* precursors, and the  $\Sigma$ VOCs to NO ratio. The largest differences between RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> is-are observed for the bins around 50 pptv. The RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>C</sub> overestimate the RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> mostly for The RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> < 25 pptv observed above  $\approx$ 4000 m<sub>c</sub> are overestimated for These air masses are characterised by with low insolation, i.e.  $j_{Q^2D_3} < 2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 11 Fig. 10), NO < 50 pptv,  $\Sigma$ VOCs typically below 4 ppbv, and high  $\Sigma$ VOCs/NO ratios ( > 50), and -low insolation conditions , i.e.  $j_{Q^1D_2} < 2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (see Fig. S5 in the supplementary information). Under these insolation conditions, the radical production rate is expected to be low, and the RO<sub>2</sub>\* - RO<sub>2</sub>\* reactions are expected to dominate the RO<sub>2</sub>\* loss processes. - As Since-OH and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> were not measured during the EMeRGe campaign in Europe, Eq. 9Eq. 7 does not include the loss reactions R17 and R18, which might be significant under such conditions (Tan et al., 2001) and explain the RO<sub>2</sub>\*-overestimation of RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub>. This is also the case for the overestimations observed below 40 pptv RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> at other altitudes, where NO < 50 pptv but the  $\Sigma$ VOCs/NO ratios remain low. The overestimation may therefore be independent of the  $\Sigma$ VOCs/NO ratios. For NO  $\leq$  50 pptv, NO<sub>2</sub>  $\leq$  100 pptv, RO<sub>2</sub>\*  $\leq$  40 pptv and HCHO  $\leq$  1 ppbv, the rate of reaction R18R17, which forms H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>2</sub> from OH and HO<sub>2</sub>, is about 4 times faster than the rate of the OH oxidation reaction of the dominant OVOCs (R12) considered in this study or the rate of formation of HONO (R19).

 $RO_{2\ m}^*$  is systematically both underestimated and overestimated for  $\Sigma VOCs$  mixing ratios greater than 7 ppbv. The composition of these air masses is quite-very different, as reflected by the  $\Sigma VOCs/NO$  ratios. This implies that Eq. 9Eq. 7 does not capture the peroxy radical production-yields adequately from the measured VOCs and OVOC in these cases. The underestimation differences of between  $RO_{2\ m}^*$  and  $RO_{2\ m}^*$  may be explained in part by a) changes in OH yields due to recycling through additional VOC

Figure 12:  $RO_{2\ m}^*$  versus  $RO_{2\ c}^*$  using Eq. 9Eq. 7 for  $\delta = 0.5$  colour-coded with the measured a) NO mixing ratio, b)  $NO_x$  mixing ratio, c)  $\Sigma VOCs$  mixing ratio, where  $\Sigma VOCs = HCHO + CH_3CHO + (CHO)_2 + CH_3OH_2 + CH_3C(O)CH_3$ , and d)  $\Sigma VOCs/NO$  ratio. The 1-minute (small circles), the mean of the binned  $RO_{2\ m}^*$  over 10 pptv  $RO_{2\ c}^*$  intervals (large circles), and the median of each bin (triangles) are shown. The error bars represent the  $\pm 1\sigma$  standard error-deviation of each bin. The linear regression for the binned values (solid line) and the 1:1 relationship (dashed line) are plotted for reference.

Although considered small, the sSpatial and temporal differences in the in-situ measurements of the key trace gases (O<sub>3</sub>, NO, H<sub>2</sub>O, CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, VOCs) as compared to those of the with respect to remote sensing observations (NO<sub>2</sub> and HONO) used in Eq. 9Eq. 7 may also contribute to the overall spread observed in Fig. 12. Although the temporal evolution and the amount of the trace gases measured using in-situ and remote sensing instruments agree reasonably well, as shown for HCHO in Fig. 13, the remote sensing instruments have, in general, larger air sampling volumes compared to that of in-situ instruments. This may occasionally lead to significant differences depending on the location of the pollutant layers with respect to HALO. In addition, PTR-MS measurements of HCHO might include interferences from molecular fragments of other compounds in the sample air (Inomata et al., 2008). Further details about the accuracy and comparability of the instrumentation on-board during the campaign can be found elsewhere (Schumann, 2020).

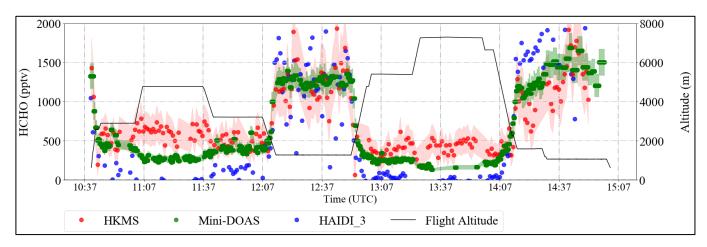


Figure 13: An example of the time series of the measured HCHO mixing ratios retrieved from the remote sensing (HAIDI in blue and miniDOAS in green) and in-situ (HKMS in red) instruments during the E-EU-04 flight on 14.07.2017. The shaded region shows  $\pm$  1 $\sigma$  uncertainties of the HKMS and miniDOAS instruments. The flight altitude is depicted in black.

In summary, <u>apart from the inaccuracies in the reaction rate coefficients</u>, the differences between RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> might be caused by a combined effect of the limitations of the analytical expression to simulate complex non-linear chemistry and the measurement uncertainties arising from the spatial heterogeneity of the plume for the remote sensing instruments. Consequently, <u>the quantification of limiting factors in Eq. 7 require the individual</u> analysis of the pollution events encountered along the flights <u>individually</u> is required to quantify limiting factors in Eq. 9Eq. 7.

The ratio of  $RO_{2\ m}^*$  to  $RO_{2\ m}^*$  ( $RO_{2\ m}^*/RO_{2\ c}^*$ ) has been used to assess the applicability of Eq. 9Eq. 7 for the calculation of  $RO_{2\ m}^*$  in the air masses probed (Fig. 14). In Fig. 14, the data are colour-coded with respect to  $RO_{2\ m}^*/RO_{2\ c}^*$ ,  $H_2O$ ,  $\Sigma VOCs$ , and  $NO_x$ . The air masses probed at altitudes above 2000 m are close to the PSS assumptions used to develop Eq. 9Eq. 7, and consequently, the  $RO_{2\ m}^*/RO_{2\ c}^*$  remains  $\leq 1$ . In contrast,  $RO_{2\ m}^*/RO_{2\ c}^*$  is at its highest value below 2000 m, reaching up to 3. At these altitudes, most of the flights in Europe were carried out in pollution plumes, in which both the amount of  $NO_x$  and  $RO_2^*$  precursors are high. The analytical expression does not capture the  $RO_2^*$  variations resulting from fast non-linear photochemistry present in these pollution plumes. This is the case for the measurements made between 42°N and 46°N in the outflow of Po Valley and Rome.  $\Sigma VOCs > 7$  ppbv and  $NO_x$  mixing ratios > 500 pptv indicate high radical precursor loading and relatively fresh emissions. The  $RO_{2\ m}^*/RO_{2\ c}^*$  is also > 2 in the measurements over the English Channel (between  $50\ N$  and  $52\ N$ ) with  $\Sigma VOCs$  and  $NO_x$  mixing ratio > 7 ppbv and 1000 pptv, respectively.

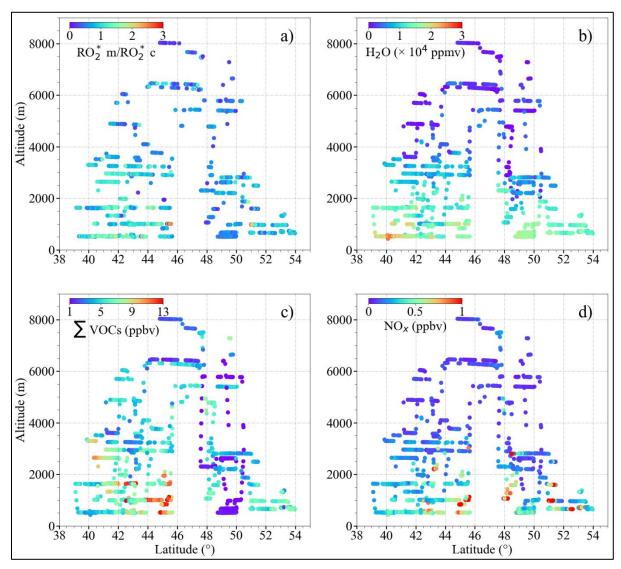


Figure 14: Plots of a) the ratio of  $RO_{2m}^*$  to  $RO_{2m}^*$  ( $RO_{2m}^*$ / $RO_{2c}^*$ ) assuming that  $\delta = 0.5$ ; b)  $H_2O$ ; c)  $\Sigma VOCs$ ; d)  $NO_x$  as a function of latitude and altitude for the EMeRGe measurements in Europe.

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The applicability of Eq. 9Eq. 7 for calculating the in-flight measurements of RO<sub>2</sub>\* along the track of the E-EU-03 flight on 11 July 2017 is shown in Fig. 16Fig. 14was studied in more detail. The E-EU-03 flight investigated the outflow of selected MPCs in Italy (i.e., Po Valley and Rome). Consequently, the flight track was routed along the western coast of Italy and included vertical profiling over the Tyrrhenian Sea upwind of Rome (see Fig. 15S6 in the supplementary information). As indicated by can be seen in  $j_{O(^1D)}$ , in Fig. 15, cloudless conditions dominated throughout the flight track. The RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> agree reasonably well with RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> throughout this period except in the pollution plume measured from 12:05 to 12:25 UTC. In this plume, CO, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, HONO, NO<sub>y</sub>, and HCHO were reached 100 ppby, 180 ppty, 150 ppty, 120 ppty, 1ppby and 2 ppby, respectively. The RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> RO<sub>2</sub>\*-measurements are approximately 20 % underestimated by RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> during this period. Backward trajectories calculated using FLEXTRA indicate the transport of pollution through the Mediterranean mixed with dust plumes originating from Tunisia. The NO mixing ratios observed indicate the proximity to emission sources.

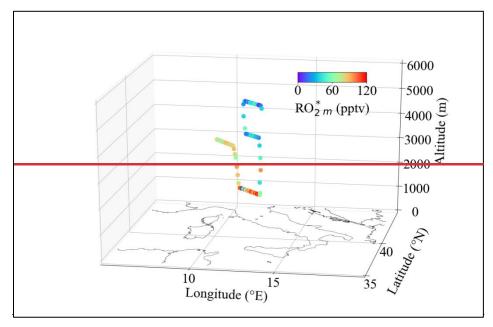
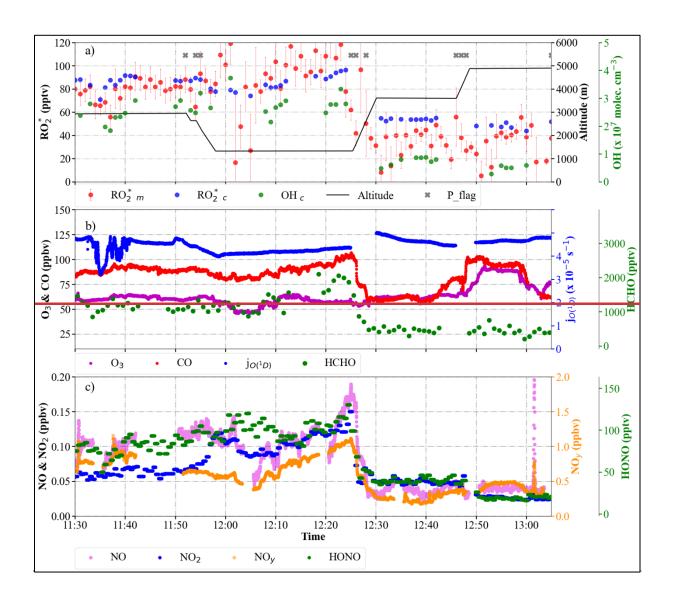


Figure 15: Maps of the flight track of E EU 03 11 July 2017 along the western coast of Italy over the Tyrrhenian Sea colour coded with  $RO_2^*$ -measurements.

The measurements of VOCs used in Eq. 9Eq. 7 may not be representative of the actual complex VOC composition in the plume measured from 12:05 to 12:25 UTC. Consequently, the RO<sub>2</sub> to HO<sub>2</sub> ratio and the RO intermediates involved in the radical interconversion processes, the branching ratios and effective rate coefficients for RO<sub>2</sub>\* – RO<sub>2</sub>\* reactions might not be well represented in Eq. 9Eq. 7. Taking CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as a surrogate for all RO<sub>2</sub> might lead to uncertainties in the RO<sub>2</sub>\* calculations in the presence of OVOCs with larger organic chains. On the experimental side, changes in the HO<sub>2</sub> to RO<sub>2</sub> ratio affect the accuracy of the PeRCEAS retrieval of the total sum of radicals. As noted in section 3, in this study RO<sub>2</sub>\* = HO<sub>2</sub> + 0.65 × RO<sub>2</sub>, and the eCL is determined for a 1:1 mixture of HO<sub>2</sub>:CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, i.e.  $\delta$  = 0.5 is used for the RO<sub>2</sub>\* retrieval. However, the HO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub> ratio is not expected to remain constant in all the air masses probed. For a 3:1 ratio of HO<sub>2</sub>:RO<sub>2</sub>, the RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> would decrease by 10 %. Similarly, a HO<sub>2</sub>:RO<sub>2</sub> ratio of 1:3 would lead to an increase of 10 % in the reported RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub>. This uncertainty is well below the in-flight uncertainty of the PeRCEAS instrument indicated by the error bars in Fig. 16-14 (George et al., 2020), and cannot account for the overall 20 % underestimations. However, it might reduce the differences observed between RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>m</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>\*<sub>c</sub> in particular cases. A complete explanation of the variability of RO<sub>2</sub>\* in the pollution plumes measured within the IOP campaign in Europe is beyond the scope of this analysis and requires an investigation by high-resolution chemical models.



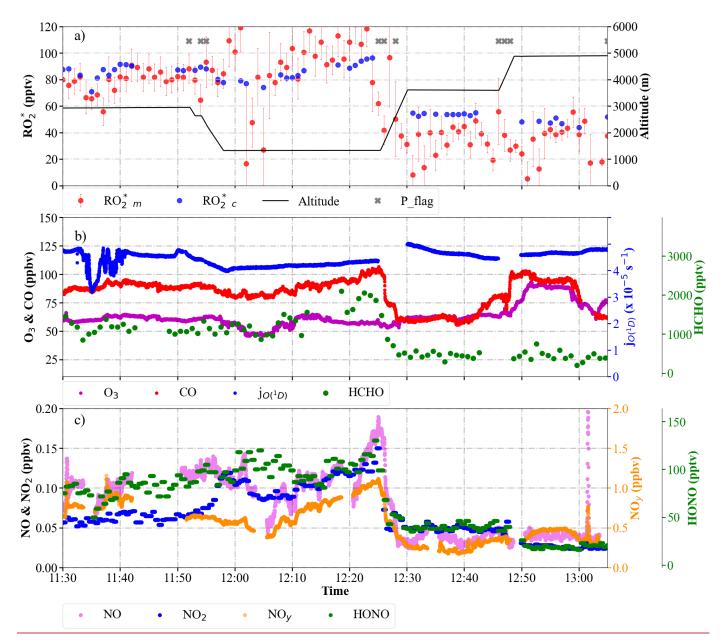


Figure  $\underline{15}$ : Temporal variation of  $RO_{2m}^*$  and  $RO_{2m}^*$ , selected radical precursors and  $j_{O(^1D)}$  along the E-EU-03 flight track: a)  $RO_{2m}^*$ ,  $RO_{2m}^*$  and calculated OH (OH<sub>e</sub>)-mixing ratios. The flight altitude is indicated in black. The P\_flag indicates  $RO_{2m}^*$  measurements affected by dynamical pressure variation in the inlet; b)  $O_3$ , CO, HCHO mixing ratios, and  $j_{O(^1D)}^*$ ; c) NO,  $NO_2$ ,  $NO_y$ , and HONO mixing ratios.

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The OH concentrations in Fig. 16Fig. 15 are upper limits calculated by assuming pseudo-steady-state for the OH production (R1-R3, R24 and R26) and loss (R4 to R6, R13 and R15 to R19) reactions as described by Eq. 10Eq. 8:

$$\frac{2j_{1}[O_{3}]\beta+j_{3}[HONO]+k_{23}[HO_{2}][NO]+k_{24}[HO_{2}][O_{3}]=[OH](k_{5}[O_{3}]+k_{6}[CO]+k_{7}[CH_{4}]+k_{123}[HCHO]+k_{126}[CH_{3}CHO]+k_{126}[CH_{3}OH]+k_{126}[CHOCHO]+k_{17}[HO_{2}]+k_{19}[NO]+k_{20}[NO_{2}]+k_{21}[HONO])-2(k_{183}+k_{186})[OH]^{2}-(Eq.\ 10Eq.\ 8)$$

The OH calculated from Eq. 10Eq. 8 assuming  $\delta = 0.5$  is much higher than the OH concentration reported in the previous airborne (Crawfor et al., 1999'; Tan et al. 2001) and ground based measurements (Mihelcic et al., 2003; Kanaya et al., 2007, 2012; Hofzumahaus et al., 2009; Elshorbany et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2012, 2013; Tan et al., 2017, 2018; Whalley et al., 2018, 2021; Michelle et al., 2020) in different urban environments. This indicated that the limited number of OVOCs measurements available

for the EMeRGe data set is insufficient to calculate the OH reactivity. The overestimation of OH agrees with the underestimation of  $RO_2^*$  in airmasses with a high amount of OVOCs ( $\Sigma VOCs > 7$  ppbv ) as the missing OH — OVOCs reactions in Eq. 8Eq. 6 should reduce  $\rho$  (the OH loss during the OH —  $RO_2^*$  interconversion) and thereby increase the  $RO_2^*$ . Due to the direct reaction of OH with most of the gases emitted in the atmosphere, OH budget calculations in airmasses of complex chemistry are challenging and require the experimental determination of the OH reactivity, as described by Tan et al. 2019 and Whalley et al., 2021.

# 4.4. Comparison of results with other studies

# 4.4.1 RO<sub>2</sub>\* production rate

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Cantrell et al. (2003b) proposed that the production of  $RO_2^*$ ,  $P_{RO_2^*}$ , is equal to to be equal to the sum of two terms representing  $RO_2^* - RO_2^*$  reactions and the  $RO_2^* - NO_x$  reactions in the troposphere. As a result of this assumption, the se authors describe the relationship between  $HO_2$ ,  $RO_2$ ,  $P_{RO_2^*}$  and  $NO_x$  is described by as Eq.11:

$$P_{RO_{2}^{*}} = k_{RR} [HO_{2} + RO_{2}]^{2} + k_{RN} [HO_{2} + RO_{2}] [NO_{x}]$$
 (Eq. 11 Eq. 9)

where  $k_{RR}$  and  $k_{RN}$  refer to effective rate coefficients for  $RO_2^* - RO_2^*$  and  $RO_2^* - NO_x$  reactions, and are calculated as fit parameters. Solving Eq. 11Eq. 9 for  $[HO_2 + RO_2]^2$  leads to:

$$[HO_2 + RO_2] = \sqrt[2]{A + B^2} - B$$
 (Eq. 12Eq. 10)

where  $A = \frac{P_{RO_2^*}}{k_{RR}}$  and  $B = \frac{k_{RN}[NO_x]}{2 k_{RR}}$ . For low NO<sub>x</sub> and/or high  $P_{RO_2^*}$ , B becomes negligible compared to A. Then  $[HO_2 + RO_2]$  approaches  $\sqrt[2]{A}$  and is independent of NO<sub>x</sub>. For high NO<sub>x</sub> and /or low  $P_{RO_2^*}$ ,  $[HO_2 + RO_2]$  approaches zero.

The least square fitting in Eq. 12 is applied to The  $RO_2^*_m$  and  $RO_2^*_c$  -forfrom the EMeRGe measurements observations in Europe observations, binned in 0.1 pptv  $s^{-1}$   $P_{RO_2^*}$  intervals, arewere fitted according to the procedure of Cantrel et al. (2003b) and the results are -as-shown in Fig. 1716. The fitobtained fit parameters  $\frac{k_{RR}}{k_{RR}}$  and  $\frac{k_{RN}}{k_{RN}}$  were fitted, and for Fig. 17a 16a and Fig. 18b 16b are  $k_{RR}$  =  $7 \times 10^{-5}$ ;  $k_{RN} = 9 \times 10^{-6}$ . The  $RO_2^*$  calculated by  $\frac{Eq. 9Eq. 7}{k_{RN}}$  appears to be close to the linear function of the  $NO_x$  measured. Similar to the results of the study of Cantrell et al. (2003b), a decrease of  $RO_2^*$  with  $NO_x$  is identified for  $NO_x > 1000$  pptv, although only for  $P_{RO_2^*} < 0.7$  pptv  $s^{-1}$ . In the study of Cantrell et al. (2003b),  $P_{RO_2^*}$  only reached values up to 0.275 pptv  $s^{-1}$ .

Despite the low agreement of the fitted lines with the  $RO_2^*_m$ , a decrease of the  $RO_2^*_m$  as a function of  $NO_x$  is still observed. The disagreement between the  $RO_2^*_m$  and the curves estimated using Eq. 12Eq. 10 implies that the simplified Eq. 11Eq. 9 from Cantrell et al.(2003b), is insufficient to adequately describe the chemical and physical processes occurring in the troposphereair masses probed. Part of the disagreement might arise from missing terms in the  $P_{RO_2^*}$  calculation or inaccuracies related to the NO to  $NO_2$  ratio in the air mass, which are more evident at higher  $P_{RO_2^*}$ . As expected, the ratio of calculated  $[RO_2^*_c]$  to  $\sqrt[2]{P_{RO_2^*}}$  -has a negative linear dependency dependence on the measured  $[NO_x]$  (see Fig. 17e16c). The comparable plot relationship of  $[RO_2^*_m]$  to  $\sqrt[2]{P_{RO_2^*}}$  to  $[NO_x]$  is not linear for  $NO_x < 100$  pptv approximately (see Fig. 16d). This indicates that the simplified approach of Cantrell et al. (2003b) is not applicable to the more complex non-linear processes are-involved in the air masses investigated than those considered in Eq. 11 (see Fig.17d) within EMeRGe.

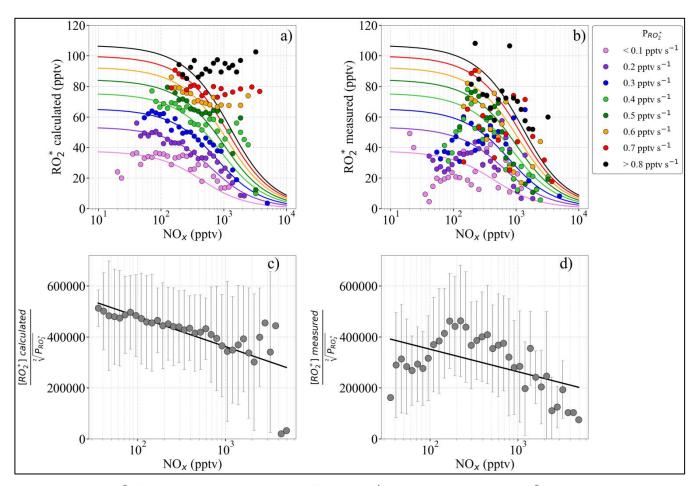


Figure  $\frac{1716}{10}$ : a)  $RO_2^*$  binned into with  $P_{RO_2^*}$  intervals of 0.1 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> versus binned  $NO_2$ ; b)  $RO_2^*$  binned into  $P_{RO_2^*}$  intervals of 0.1 pptv s<sup>-1</sup> versus binned  $NO_2$  binned with  $P_{RO_2^*}$ ; c) ratio of  $P_{RO_2^*}$  versus  $P_{RO_2^*}$  versus  $P_{RO_2^*}$  versus  $P_{RO_2^*}$  ratio versus  $P_{RO_2^*}$  versus  $P_{RO_2^*}$  ratio  $P_{RO_2^*}$  ratio versus  $P_{RO_2^*}$  ratio

### 4.4.2 O<sub>3</sub> production rate

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The  $O_3$  production rate ( $P_{O_3}$ ) is calculated from the EMeRGe Europe dataset using the reaction of  $RO_2^*$  with NO in a similar manner to that used in previous studies of photochemical processes in urban environments (e.g. Kleinman et al., 1995; Volz-Thomas et al., 2003; Mihelcic et al., 2003; Cantrell et al., 2003b; and references herein).

$$P_{O_3} = k_{RO_2^* + NO}[RO_2^*][NO]$$
 (Eq. 13Eq. 11)

where  $k_{RO_2^*+NO}$  is taken as the average of  $k_{HO_2+NO}$  and  $k_{CH_3O_2+NO}$ .

Figure 18-17 shows plots of the mean  $P_{0_3}$  calculated using Eq. 13Eq. 11 from the  $RO_{2m}^*$  and  $RO_{2c}^*$  as a function of NO. The measurements are binned into 50 NO mixing ratio bins. The bin size increases with NO to keep the points equidistant on the logarithmic scale. The calculated- $P_{0_3}$  forusing the  $RO_{2m}^*$  and  $RO_{2c}^*$  agree well within the standard deviation of the bins.

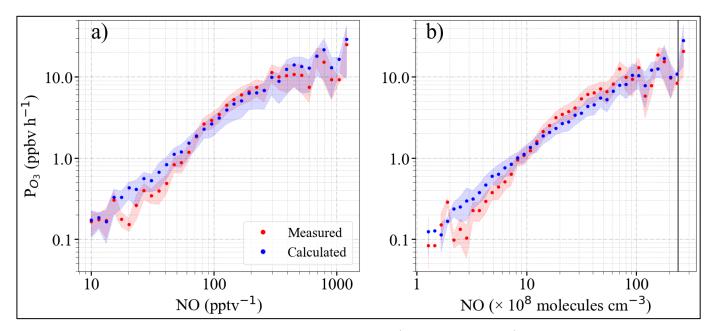


Figure  $\frac{1817}{15}$ : Calculated  $O_3$  production rate  $(P_{O_3})$  determined using  $RO_2^*_m$  (red dots) and  $RO_2^*_c$  (blue dots) as a function of: a) NO mixing ratio; b) NO number density concentration. The 1-minute measurements are binned into 50 bins of ver-NO equidistant onim the logarithmic scale for panel a) from 10 to 10000 pptv and for panel b) from and from  $5 \times 10^7$  to  $3.5 \times 10^{10}$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup> in  $\frac{15a}{45}$  and  $\frac{15b}{45}$ , respectively. The shaded area shows the standard error(i.e. where  $\sigma$  is one  $\frac{1}{2}$  1 $\sigma$  standard deviation of each bin. To facilitate For comparison with ground-based measurements, the black line plotted in panel b) is the number density eon contration corresponding to 1 ppbv NO at 1000 mbar and  $25^{\circ}$ C-has been marked by the solid black line in plot b).

Similar  $P_{O_3}$ -values have been reported for ground-based measurements in polluted areas such as Wangdu (Tan et al., 2017) and Beijing (Whalley et al., 2021) and similar ranges of peroxy radicals and NO mixing ratios. In previous work, Whalley et al. (2018) calculated- $P_{O_3}$  to be about an order of magnitude lower than that found in this study from observations in central London for about an order of magnitude lower amount of  $HO_2 + RO_2$ . For NO > 1 ppbv, the  $P_{O_3}$  estimated from the measurement of  $HO_2$  and  $RO_2$ , or from the assumptions of an  $HO_2$  to  $RO_2$  ratio were underestimated by the models in other studies in the urban atmosphere (e.g. Martinez et al., 2003; Ren et al., 2003; Kanaya et al., 2008; Mao et al., 2010; Kanaya et al., 2012; Ren et al., 2013; Brune et al., 2016; Griffith et al., 2016). This behaviour is generally attributed to an underestimateing of large  $RO_2$  concentrations, which likely undergo multiple bimolecular reactions with NO before forming an  $HO_2$  radical.

During the EMeRGe <u>IOP campaign</u> in Europe, the NO mixing ratios were < 1 ppbv (approximately  $< 3 \times 10^{10}$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>). The ozone production rates obtained for both  $\underline{\text{RO}_{2^{+}\text{m}}}$  and  $\underline{\text{RO}_{2^{+}\text{c}}}$  measured and calculated  $\underline{\text{RO}_{2}}$  are in reasonable agreement with other modelling studies in urban environments where the mixing ratio of NO is < 1 ppbv<sub>-</sub> (Tan et al., 2017; Whalley et al., 2021)

### 5. Summary and conclusions

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This study exploits the airborne measurements of various atmospheric constituents on-board the HALO research aircraft over Europe in summer 2017 to investigate radical photochemistry in the probed airmasses.  $RO_2^*$  are calculated by assuming a photostationary steady-state (PSS) of  $RO_2^*$  and compared with the actual measurements. The calculation is constrained by the simultaneous airborne measurements of radical precursors, photolysis frequencies and reactants of  $RO_2^*$  such as  $NO_x$  and  $O_3$ . The calculated radical production rates  $P_{RO_2^*}$  do not significantly vary with altitude in the air masses investigated as the increase in the photolysis frequencies as a function of altitude is concurrent with decreases in precursor concentrations.

The significance and the importance of selected production and loss initiating and terminating processes in the RO<sub>2</sub>\* chemistry are investigated by gradually increasing the complexity of the analytical expression. The agreement of the calculations with the measurements over a wide range of chemical composition and insolation conditions improves when the analytical expression is extended to account for effective oxy peroxy radical vields-from VOC oxidation and radical losses through nitrates and nitrites formation, interconversion reactions and subsequent loss of OH and RO during the interconversion. The RO<sub>2</sub>\* measured is usually overestimated when NO is < 50 pptv in the air probed. This behavior might be explained by is attributed to RO<sub>2</sub>\* loss processes involving reactions with OH<sub>2</sub>, which are not considered in the analytical expression(e.g. the reaction of HO<sub>2</sub> with OH, but possibly to a lesser extent the three body reaction of OH with itself to make H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>).—These reactions may become significant RO<sub>2</sub>\* loss processes at low NO concentrations as measured during the campaign but The reactions are excluded from the analytical expression, which is to constrained by it with on-board measurements. These reactions may become significant RO<sub>2</sub>\* loss processes at low NO concentrations.

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The  $\underline{RO_2}^*$  calculated under assumption of a phototstationary state of results indicate that the steady state calculations mostly underestimated the  $RO_2^*$  resulted in estimated which lower than the  $RO_2^*$  measured ments in polluted plumes of urban origin at altitudes below 2000 m. Changes in the  $HO_2$  to  $RO_2$  ratios in different plumes can partly account for the disagreement in particular cases. In pollution plumes with the sum of the -OVOCs measured mixing ratios being higher than 7 ppbv approximately, the underestimation of the measurements can reach up to 80 %. In these plumes, the oxidation and/or photolysis of non-measured VOCs, which were not measured, and the ozonolysis of alkenes might be significant sources of  $RO_2^*$ , limiting the accuracy of the analytical expression. The high values for overestimation of the OH concentration calculated using based on the measured reactants also that VOC and indicates missing oxy peroxy radical interconversion reactions are missing in the analytical PSS expression. More information about peroxy radical speciation and VOC partitioning is required to better describe the fast photochemistry in these pollution plumes.

However, tThe analytical expression developed is robust enough to simulate the radical chemistry in most of the conditions in the free troposphere encountered during EMeRGe HOP in Europe. Speciated radical and VOC measurements in future campaigns would facilitate the estimation of radical loss reactions in air masses having with NO < 50 pptv and improve radical production rates estimations in pollution plumes having with a high amount of VOCs, where non-linear complex chemistry is involved. Comparing RO<sub>2</sub>\* measurements with RO<sub>2</sub>\* calculations from the analytical expression helps to identify different chemical and physical regimes, which can be used to constrain future model studies.

The calculated  $O_3$  production rates for NO < 1 ppbv are in the same order of magnitude as those previously reported for urban environments. This indicates that the selected  $RO_2^*$  production and loss processes and observations of the radical precursors onboard are, to a good approximation, adequate for the estimation of the  $O_3$  production in the measured airmasses in the free troposphere over Europe.

Disclaimer. Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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### 710 Author contribution:

MG, VN, and YL undertook the RO<sub>2</sub>\* measurements, flying as key scientists on-board HALO. VN led the deployment of PeRCEAS in the HALO aircraft. MG led the analysis of the PeCEAS measurements and prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors. MDAH and JPB initiated the EMeRGe research project and consortium, acted as co-principal and principal investigators, and participated in the measurement campaigns. They developed the overarching EMeRGe scientific objectives and the required measurement portfolio, directed the EMeRGe research campaigns, and participated in the data analysis presented. AZ, BB, BS, EF, FO, FK, HS, HZ, KB, KP, and TH have contributed by providing their measurements made on-board HALO during the campaign and participated in the discussion of results.

### **Competing interests:**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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