

Supplement for **Night-time NO emissions strongly suppress chlorine and nitrate radical formation during the winter in Delhi**

Sophie L. Haslett^{1,2}, David M. Bell³, Varun Kumar^{3†}, Jay G. Slowik³, Dongyu S. Wang³, Suneeti Mishra⁴, Neeraj Rastogi⁵, Atinderpal Singh^{5‡}, Dilip Ganguly⁶, Joel Thornton⁷, Feixue Zheng⁸, Yuanyuan Li⁹, Wei Nie⁹, Yongchun Liu⁸, Wei Ma⁸, Chao Yan¹⁰, Markku Kulmala^{8,9,10}, Kaspar R. Daellenbach¹⁰, David Hadden^{1,2}, Urs Baltensperger³, Andre S. H. Prevot³, Sachchida N. Tripathi⁴ and Claudia Mohr^{1,2§}

¹Department of Environmental Science, Stockholm University; Stockholm, Sweden.

²Bolin Centre for Climate Research; Stockholm, Sweden.

³Laboratory of Atmospheric Chemistry, Paul Scherrer Institute; 5232 Villigen PSI, Switzerland.

10 ⁴Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Kanpur; Kanpur, India.

⁵Geosciences Division, Physical Research Laboratory; Ahmedabad, India.

⁶Centre for Atmospheric Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology Delhi; New Delhi, India.

⁷Department of Atmospheric Sciences, University of Washington; Seattle, USA.

15 ⁸Aerosol and Haze Laboratory, Beijing Advanced Innovation Centre for Soft Matter Science and Engineering, Beijing University of Chemical Technology; Beijing, 100029, China.

⁹Joint International Research Laboratory of Atmospheric and Earth System Sciences, School of Atmospheric Sciences, Nanjing University; 210023 Nanjing, China.

¹⁰Institute for Atmospheric and Earth System Research/Physics, Faculty of Science, University of Helsinki; Helsinki, Finland.

20 *Correspondence to:* Claudia Mohr (claudia.mohr@psi.ch), Sachchida Tripathi (snt@iitk.ac.in), Sophie Haslett (sophie.haslett@aces.su.se)

[†]Now at: Institut National de l'Environnement Industriel et des Risques (INERIS), Parc Technologique ALATA, 60550 Vemeuil-en-Halatte, France.

[‡]Now at: Department of Environmental Studies, University of Delhi; Delhi 110007, India.

25 [§]Now at: Laboratory of Atmospheric Chemistry, Paul Scherrer Institute; 5232 Villigen PSI, Switzerland

1 Supplementary text

S1 Quantification of the N₂O₅ signal in the FIGAERO-CIMS

The quantification of the IN₂O₅⁻ signal at *m/z* 234.886 was established using chamber experiments, which were carried out at the Paul Scherrer Institute (PSI) using the same instrument. These will be the subject of another publication. In brief, a Teflon chamber (Platt et al., 2014, 2017; Bruns et al., 2015) was filled with zero air generated from an zero air generator (AADCO) and a series of injections of NO₂ and O₃ were performed (without lights on), allowing N₂O₅ molecules to form. The concentrations of NO, NO₂ (Thermo 42C) and O₃ (Thermo 49C) were measured independently, while the gas-phase N₂O₅ concentrations were measured using the FIGAERO-CIMS. The relative humidity in the chamber was around 80%, which is

35 comparable with values that were encountered during the field campaign in Delhi. During these measurements, polonium-210 (^{210}Po) was used as an ioniser and the IMR was set to a pressure of 100 mbar.

We used the simplified box model described below to simulate N_2O_5 formation in the chamber. In the model setup, NO , NO_2 and O_3 parameters were input to the model as known values. Lights were kept off, so there was no photolysis parameter. All
40 loss terms were combined into a single parameter, $k_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}$, which was unknown. Different values for $k_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}$ were tested. For each tested value of $k_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}$, the modelled value of N_2O_5 , averaged to 5 s intervals, was plotted against the N_2O_5 signal from the CIMS, a regression line was fitted and the r^2 parameter was found. In each case, the simulated concentrations of N_2O_5 were then used to estimate the sensitivity of the FIGAERO-CIMS according to the best fit line. This estimated sensitivity was plotted against the r^2 parameter and the sensitivity at the maximum value of r^2 was used to calibrate the N_2O_5 data. A loss term of 0.004 s^{-1}
45 was selected, as this demonstrated the best fit (Figs. S7, S8). This method yielded a sensitivity of $10.2 \text{ cps pptv}^{-1}$ per million counts of iodide.

During the Delhi campaign, an X-ray ioniser was used and the IMR pressure was set to 250 mbar. In order to increase transmission efficiency, a number of the voltages in the instrument were also changed. Using the chamber, we established a
50 conversion rate for the instrument sensitivity by swapping between the ^{210}Po ionisation source and the X-ray ioniser and changing the voltages, during periods when the quantity of NO , NO_2 , O_3 and thus N_2O_5 in the chamber were steady. This comparison yielded a conversion factor of 5.3 between the N_2O_5 signal measured using the ^{210}Po ionisation source and that using the X-ray ioniser (Fig. S9). In total, this process suggests an overall sensitivity of 54 cps pptv^{-1} for the Delhi measurements. The calibration factors for chlorine-containing compounds measured by the FIGAERO-CIMS (ClNO_2 , Cl_2 , Cl ,
55 ClONO_2 and HOCl) are assumed to be the same as for N_2O_5 , given that a number of previous studies have found very similar calibration factors between N_2O_5 and ClNO_2 (Tham et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017).

This empirically determined sensitivity was compared with the theoretical maximum sensitivity, as established by Lopez-Hilfiker et al., (2016). It has been found that the maximum sensitivity for the CIMS at the collision limit for iodide adduct
60 chemistry is 22 cps pptv^{-1} per million counts of iodide (Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2016) and an IMR pressure of 100 mbar. This figure was established using N_2O_5 , as it is known to react with I^- at the collision limit (Huey et al., 1995).

There are two routes through which N_2O_5 interacts with I^- : it either creates the iodide-adduct with the parent ion at m/z 234.886 ($\text{I-N}_2\text{O}_5^-$), or reacts to form NO_3^- , which is detected at m/z 61.988, and I-NO_2 , which is not detected by the CIMS. The value
65 of 22 cps pptv^{-1} was established using the sum of both pathways, with m/z 234.886 contributing just under a third of the total signal. This gives an estimated maximum sensitivity of approximately 7 cps pptv^{-1} from the m/z 234.886 peak alone, which is the reference case with which our instrumental setup will be compared.

The value of 22 cps pptv⁻¹ was found using ²¹⁰Po to ionise the iodide and an I⁻ flow rate of 2 lpm. Using ²¹⁰Po produced around
70 60 times more I⁻ when compared with the X-ray ioniser in our chamber experiments. In order to increase instrument sensitivity
when using the X-ray ioniser, we increased the pressure inside the IMR from 100 mbar, as was used with ²¹⁰Po as an ioniser,
to 250 mbar. In addition, the flow rate of I⁻ into the IMR when using the X-ray ioniser was reduced to 1.5 lpm.

The maximum kinetically limited sensitivity, S_{kin}^{typ} , in units of counts per second/pptv/million reagent ions (I⁻) for the CIMS
75 can be found using Eq. S1.

$$S_{kin}^{typ} = \frac{10^6 [M]_{IMR} f k_{coll} t_{IMR}}{10^{12}} \quad (S1)$$

Where $[M]_{IMR}$ represents the number density inside the IMR, f is the fraction of flow into the IMR that is made up by the
sample flow, and t_{IMR} is the residence time of ions in the IMR (Bi et al., 2021).

80 The value of f can be represented by Eq. S2

$$f = \frac{Q_{samp}}{Q_{samp} + Q_{I^-}} \quad (S2)$$

Where Q_{samp} is the sample flow rate and Q_{I^-} is the iodide reagent flow rate into the IMR (Bi et al., 2021). During our campaign,
 Q_{samp} was the same as for the reference case. However, Q_{I^-} was 25% smaller, resulting in the sample flow making up a larger
fraction of the flow into the IMR. The difference can be calculated by substituting the flow rates into Eq. S2:

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$$f^{Delhi} = \left(\frac{2 \text{ lpm}}{2+1.5 \text{ lpm}} \div \frac{2 \text{ lpm}}{2+2 \text{ lpm}} \right) f^0 = \frac{8}{7} f^0 \quad (S3)$$

Where f^0 refers to the reference case and f^{Delhi} to results presented here.

Similarly, the residence time within the IMR, t_{IMR} , is influenced by both the iodide flow rate and the pressure inside the IMR,
90 P_{IMR} , according to Eq. S4 (Bi et al., 2021):

$$t_{IMR} = \frac{V_{IMR}}{(Q_{samp} + Q_{I^-}) \frac{P_{STP}}{P_{IMR}}} \quad (S4)$$

Where V_{IMR} is the volume of the IMR and P^{STP} is standard pressure. In this case, Q_{I^-} is 25% smaller and P_{IMR} is 2.5 times larger
95 than in the reference case. Thus, the IMR residence time can be calculated from the reference case according to Eq. S5:

$$t_{IMR}^{Delhi} = \left(\frac{1}{\left(\frac{1.5+2 \text{ lpm}}{2+2 \text{ lpm}} \right)} \cdot \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{\frac{250 \text{ mbar}}{100 \text{ mbar}}} \right)} \right) t_{IMR}^0 = \frac{20}{7} t_{IMR}^0 \quad (S5)$$

From combining Eqs S1, S3 and S5, the maximum sensitivity S^{Delhi} of our setup can be calculated from the reference case
100 sensitivity (S^0) according to Eq. S6.

$$S^{Delhi} = 3.3 S^0 \tag{S6}$$

This yields an estimated maximum sensitivity of 23 cps pptv⁻¹ per million I⁻ counts for the FIGAERO-CIMS using the X-ray
105 ioniser, with an iodide flow of 1.5 lpm and an IMR pressure of 250 mbar. Previous studies indicate that the sensitivity of the
IN₂O₅⁻ signal at m/z 234.886 and the ICINO₂⁻ signal at m/z 207.867 will be influenced by the relative humidity within the
instrument (Kercher et al., 2009; Dörich et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2014). During the campaign, the IH₂O⁻ signal observed by the
FIGAERO-CIMS during gas-phase measurements was around 13% of the iodide signal. This suggests a mixing ratio of
approximately 0.69 g kg⁻¹ or a vapour pressure of 0.51 Torr within the IMR region (Dörich et al., 2021). It is therefore likely
110 that, according to the results of laboratory experiments carried out by Kercher et al. (2009), this theoretically-estimated
maximum sensitivity of 23 cps pptv⁻¹ per million I⁻ counts is around three times too low for N₂O₅. Correcting for this yields a
maximum sensitivity of 69 cps pptv⁻¹ per million I⁻ counts under our measurement conditions, which corresponds well to our
empirical estimate of 54 cps pptv⁻¹ from the chamber calculations. Here, we use the calibration value of 54 cps pptv⁻¹, including
error bars of ±15 cps pptv⁻¹.

115 **S2 Additional information on the 0-dimensional box model calculations**

a. Reaction rate calculations for VOCs

In order to establish the loss rate of NO₃ from reactions with VOCs, the reaction rate of NO₃ with individual VOCs, and the
relevant VOC's atmospheric concentration, is required. Here, reaction rates of NO₃ with different VOCs were taken from
Atkinson et al. (2006), at an assumed temperature of 298 K. Several different isomers for each molecular composition are
120 listed, each with slightly different reaction rates with NO₃. As the PTR was unable to distinguish between different isomers,
an estimate of the reaction rate for each molecular composition was established here by calculating the mean of all isomers
with the given composition. The overall loss rate per molecular composition is then calculated by averaging the product of
each isomer's reaction rate constant and its concentration in molecules cm⁻³ (R5 in table S1). The individual isomers included
in this calculation, and the calculated average reaction rate for each VOC chemical composition, are listed in Table S3.

125 **b. Wet aerosol surface area**

The SMPS provided binned measurements of dry fine aerosol number concentrations between 19 nm and 1 μm. These values
were used to establish the average aerosol surface area per time step for each bin. A simple growth factor model was applied
(Haslett et al., 2019) to calculate the wet aerosol size distribution and surface area. In brief, this involved the use of a single-
parameter approach (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007) to estimate the hygroscopic growth factor of aerosols based on the average
130 chemical composition observed by the AMS. A simple ion-pairing scheme (Gysel et al., 2007), which was expanded to include

chloride, was used to calculate the relative contributions of different neutral salts based on observed ion concentrations. Using the known densities, κ values (the single parameter that describes a particle's propensity to grow hygroscopically (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007) and calculated concentrations for each neutral salt, organics and black carbon, a single value of κ for the average aerosol particle was established. From this, the hygroscopic growth factor (HGF) could be calculated using Eqs. S7 and S8 (Haslett et al., 2019; Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007), which were solved iteratively.

$$\frac{RH}{\exp\left(\frac{A}{D_d HGF}\right)} = \frac{HGF^3 - 1}{HGF^3 - (1 - \kappa)} \quad (S7)$$

Where

$$A = \frac{4\sigma_s M_W}{RT\rho_W} \quad (S8)$$

Here, RH is the relative humidity expressed as a fraction, HGF is the hygroscopic growth factor (i.e., the multiplicative factor by which the diameter of each particle grows as a result of taking up water), D_d is the dry particle diameter (μm), $\sigma_{s/a}$ is the surface tension at the solution-air interface assumed to be the one of water (0.072 J m^2), M_W is the molar mass of water (18 g mol^{-1}), R is the universal gas constant ($8.314 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$), T is the absolute temperature in K and ρ_W is the density of water (1 g cm^{-3}).

The new wet aerosol surface area was then summed across all wet bin sizes for each time step, producing a single value of wet aerosol surface area in $\text{cm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. Given the size limits of the SMPS, this study has been unable to include heterogeneous uptake by coarse-mode particles and so the loss factors from R6, R6 and R7 are likely to present slight underestimations. Nevertheless, previous studies in the Delhi urban area suggest there is a minimal contribution towards the aerosol mass from coarse-mode particles (Srivastava and Jain, 2007). It is therefore likely that the estimate presented here is a reasonable approximation.

150 c. The aerosol uptake of N_2O_5

Molecules of N_2O_5 can be taken up by particles, where they are accommodated into the surface layer at the gas-aerosol interface (R6) (Thornton and Abbatt, 2005; Tham et al., 2018). Once in the aerosol surface layer, these molecules undergo reactions that result in either the production of nitric acid (HNO_3) or the gaseous compound nitryl chloride (ClNO_2) (Thornton and Abbatt, 2005; Tham et al., 2018). The rate at which N_2O_5 molecules are taken up at particle surfaces is governed by the uptake coefficient, $\gamma_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}$. This essentially represents the probability that any given N_2O_5 molecule will react at an aerosol surface. It is influenced by a range of factors, including the availability of aerosol surface area, the ambient relative humidity (RH), the temperature and the chemical composition of aerosol particles (Thornton and Abbatt, 2005).

The value of $\gamma_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}$ can vary dramatically depending on ambient conditions. Values are found within the range of 0.001 – 0.2 (Yan et al., 2019). The value increases when the particles contain more chloride and water, but decreases with larger quantities of NO_3^- within the particles, as well as with organic coatings (Tham et al., 2018, p.20; Riedel et al., 2012; Bertram and Thornton, 2009). Several parameterisations have been devised to calculate $\gamma_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}$ based on laboratory experiments (Bertram and Thornton, 2009; Evans and Jacob, 2005; Anttila et al., 2006). Here, we use a parameterisation that specifically takes into

account the impact of chloride on N₂O₅ uptake (Bertram and Thornton, 2009). While such parameterisations do not always capture ambient uptake coefficients perfectly and have been found in some cases to diverge from observed ambient values (Xia et al., 2019), they have often been used to provide reasonable approximations (Mielke et al., 2013). The value of $\gamma_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}$ is established here using Eq. 9 (Bertram and Thornton, 2009).

$$\gamma_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5} = \frac{4}{c_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}} \frac{V}{S_A} K_H \beta (1 - e^{-\delta[\text{H}_2\text{O}]}) \left(1 - \frac{1}{\frac{k_3[\text{H}_2\text{O}]}{k_{2b}[\text{NO}_3^-]} + 1 + \frac{k_4[\text{Cl}^-]}{k_{2b}[\text{NO}_3^-]}} \right) \quad (\text{S9})$$

Here, V represents the particle volume concentration in m³ m⁻³, which can be calculated from SMPS data. S_A is the particle surface area in m² m⁻³. K_H is the Henry's law constant for N₂O₅ (taken here to be 51 (Bertram and Thornton, 2009)) and is dimensionless. β is 1.16 × 10⁻⁶ s⁻¹ and δ is 1.3 × 10⁻¹ M⁻¹. These constants were established from laboratory experiments (Bertram and Thornton, 2009). The ratios of k_3/k_{2b} and k_4/k_{2b} are the ratios of the rate constants for NO₃⁻ with respect to water and Cl⁻, respectively. These were found to be 6.0 × 10⁻² and 29. The molecular speed for N₂O₅ is represented by $c_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}$. Square brackets represent the concentration of the given species in M: that is, moles of the substance per litre of aerosol material.

The calculated diel pattern of $\gamma_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}$ using the method outlined above falls between 0.03 in the late afternoon and 0.07 in the early mornings. This compares well with values of $\gamma_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5}$ provided in the literature, which show values between 0.001 and 0.02 in North America, compared with slightly higher values between 0.01 and 0.1 in China, where particulate loading is generally higher (Tham et al., 2018). The loss rate of N₂O₅ onto particle surfaces can then be established using the reaction rate shown for R6(Tham et al., 2018).

180 **d. Photolysis rate calculations**

The photolysis rate for a given compound is calculated using Eq. S10, where j_i is the photolysis rate for compound i , $F_i(\lambda)$ is the actinic flux (photons per unit area), $\phi_i(\lambda)$ is the quantum yield and $\sigma_i(\lambda)$ is the absorption cross section. The photolysis rate is integrated across all solar wavelengths (λ).

$$j_i = \int F_i(\lambda) \phi_i(\lambda) \sigma_i(\lambda) d\lambda \quad (\text{S10})$$

185 Values for the actinic flux and quantum yield for O₃ and NO₂ were taken from Atkinson et al. (2006) and integrated across the solar spectrum (Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000), which produced maximum photolysis rates with a solar zenith angle (SZA) of 0° of 5e-5 s⁻¹ for O₃ and 9e-3 s⁻¹ for NO₂. The recommended value of 0.206 s⁻¹ was used for the maximum photolysis rate of NO₃ (Atkinson et al., 2006). The photolysis rates at any given time of day were scaled using the observed incoming solar radiation.

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S2 Supplementary tables

Table S1: Reactions included in the simple 0-D chemical box model used to estimate N₂O₅ concentrations.

Reaction	Reaction rate	Equation
$\text{NO}_2 + \text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{NO}_3 + \text{O}_2$	$k_1 = 3.5\text{e-}17 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Atkinson et al., 2004)	R1
$\text{NO}_3 + \text{NO}_2 \rightarrow \text{N}_2\text{O}_5$	$k_2 = 1.9\text{e-}12 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Atkinson et al., 2004)	R2
$\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 \rightarrow \text{NO}_3 + \text{NO}_2$	$k_2' = 1.7\text{e-}2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Atkinson et al., 2004)	R2'
$\text{NO}_3 + \text{NO} \rightarrow 2 \text{NO}_2$	$k_3 = 2.6\text{e-}11 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Atkinson et al., 2004)	R3
$\text{NO}_3 + h\nu \rightarrow \text{NO}_2 + \text{O}$	$j_4 = 0.19 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (scaled by insolation)(Atkinson et al., 2004)	R4
$\text{NO}_3 + h\nu \rightarrow \text{NO} + \text{O}_2$	$j_4' = 0.016 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (scaled by insolation) (Atkinson et al., 2004)	R4'
$\text{NO}_3 + \text{VOC} \rightarrow \text{products}$	$k_5 = \Sigma(k_{\text{VOC},i} [\text{VOC}]_i)$	R5
$\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 \rightarrow 2\text{HNO}_3 \text{ or } \text{ClNO}_2 \text{ (het)}$	$k_6 = 0.25 c_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5} \gamma_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5} S_A$ (Yan et al., 2019)	R6
$\text{NO}_3 \rightarrow \text{products (het)}$	$k_7 = 0.25 c_{\text{NO}_3} \gamma_{\text{NO}_3} S_A$	R7

Table S2: Statistics for VOC input parameters in F0AM.

Compound	Median (ppbv)	Mean (ppbv)	Std (ppbv)
Alpha-pinene	0.0718	0.0827	0.0282
Benzene	1.4325	1.4765	0.6996
Ethyl-benzene	0.7400	1.1855	0.8347
Trimethyl-1,2,4-benzene	0.3850	0.5923	0.3879
Trimethyl-1,3,5-benzene	0.6100	0.66750	0.1678
Toluene	1.4050	2.3527	1.5213
C ₅ H ₈	0.4644	0.5664	0.2499
Phenol	0.1900	0.2079	0.0878
Cresol	0.1275	0.1373	0.4093
C ₂ H ₆	12.2450	12.3952	3.2206

C ₂ H ₄	7.6600	8.1958	3.2021
n-butane	10.0625	12.7502	6.2286
C ₃ H ₈	12.5850	14.6648	5.5893
Hexane	0.6700	0.8096	0.3069

Table S3: Isomers included in the calculation of k_s .

VOC	k (s ⁻¹)	Average k (s ⁻¹)
Benzene (C ₆ H ₆)	3.0e-17	3.0e-17
Toluene (C ₇ H ₈)	7.0e-17	7.0e-17
o-Xylene (C ₈ H ₁₀)	4.1e-16	4.4e-16
m-Xylene (C ₈ H ₁₀)	2.6e-16	
p-Xylene (C ₈ H ₁₀)	5.0e-16	
Ethylbenzene (C ₈ H ₁₀)	6.0e-16	
Isoprene (C ₅ H ₈)	7.0e-13	7.0e-13
4-ethyltoluene (C ₉ H ₁₂)	8.6e-16	1.4e-15
1,2,3-trimethylbenzene (C ₉ H ₁₂)	1.9e-15	
1,2,4-trimethylbenzene (C ₉ H ₁₂)	1.8e-15	
1,3,4-trimethylbenzene (C ₉ H ₁₂)	8.8e-16	
Camphene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	6.6e-13	3.4e-11
2-carene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	1.9e-11	
3-carene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	9.1e-12	
Limonene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	1.2e-11	
Alpha-phellandrene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	7.3e-11	
Beta-phellandrene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	8.0e-12	
Alpha-pinene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	6.2e-12	
Beta-pinene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	2.5e-12	
Sabinene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	1.0e-11	
Alpha-terpinene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	1.4e-10	
Gamma-terpinene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	2.9e-11	

Terpinolene (C ₁₀ H ₁₆)	9.7e-11	
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200 3 Supplementary figures

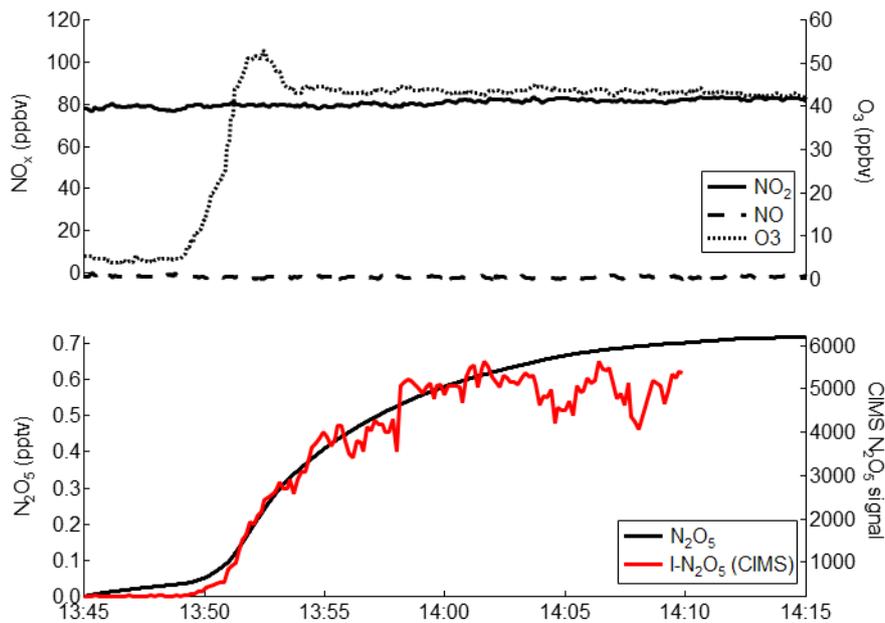
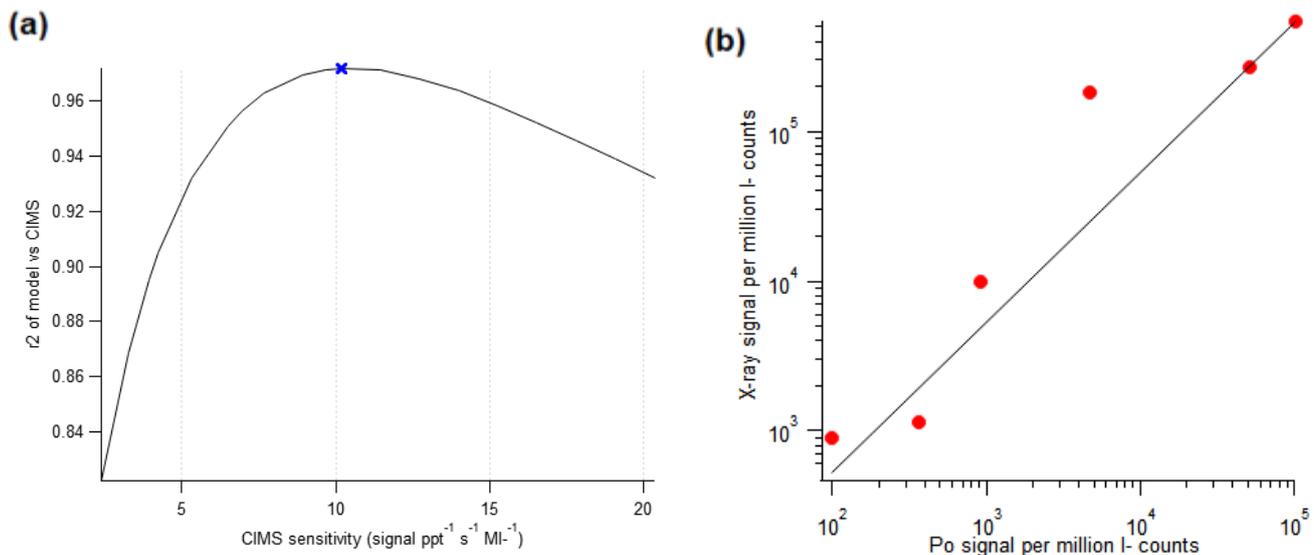
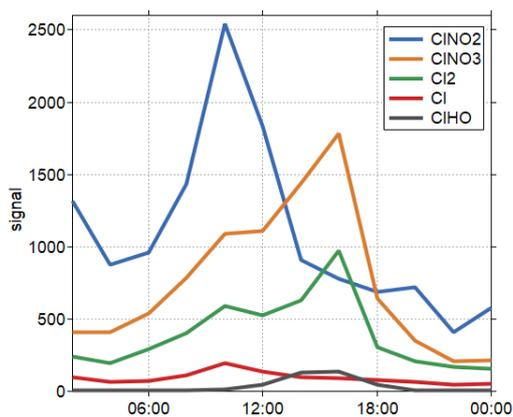


Figure S1: Results from the chamber experiment, showing measured concentrations of NO, NO₂ and O₃ (in black in the top panel), along with the N₂O₅ signal measured by the FIGAERO-CIMS (red, lower panel) and the N₂O₅ and NO₃ concentrations in pptv predicted by the box model (black, lower panel).



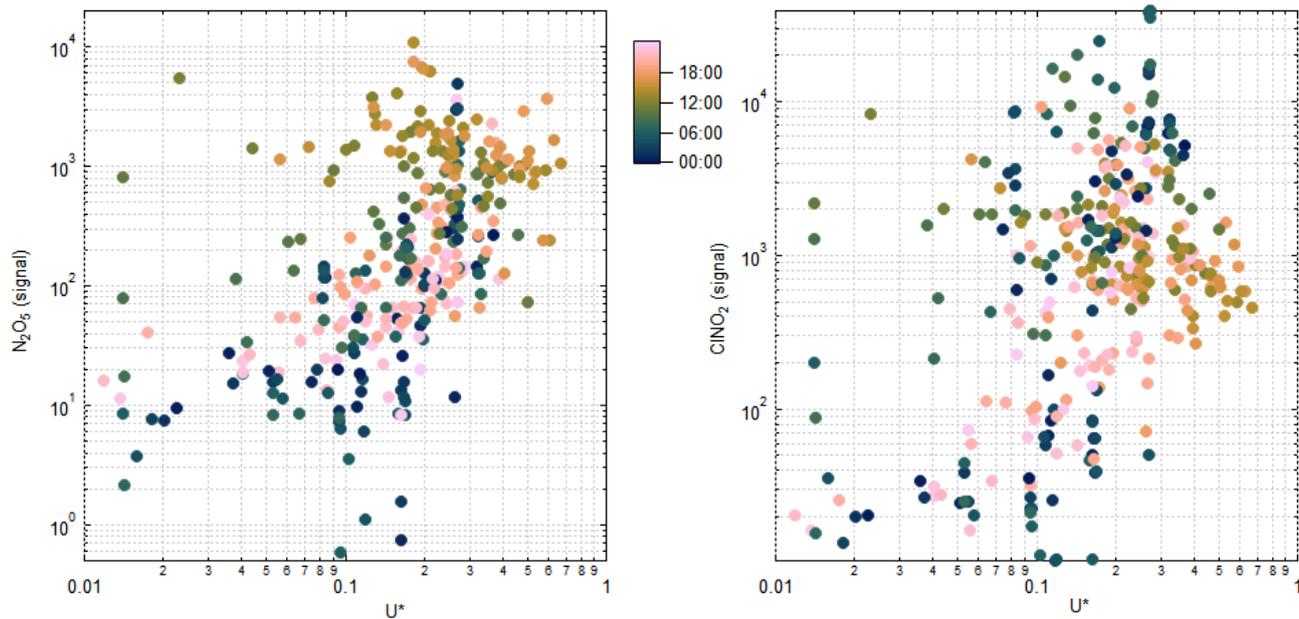
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Figure S2: An empirical estimate of the best sensitivity calibration factor to use with the FIGAERO-CIMS. (a) A plot of the regression value of the modelling results using different estimates for the CIMS sensitivity. The optimum fit is at a sensitivity of 10.2 ppt⁻¹ s⁻¹ MI⁻¹, shown here by the blue cross. (b) The relationship between the measured N₂O₅ signal using the X-ray ioniser vs the polonium ioniser.



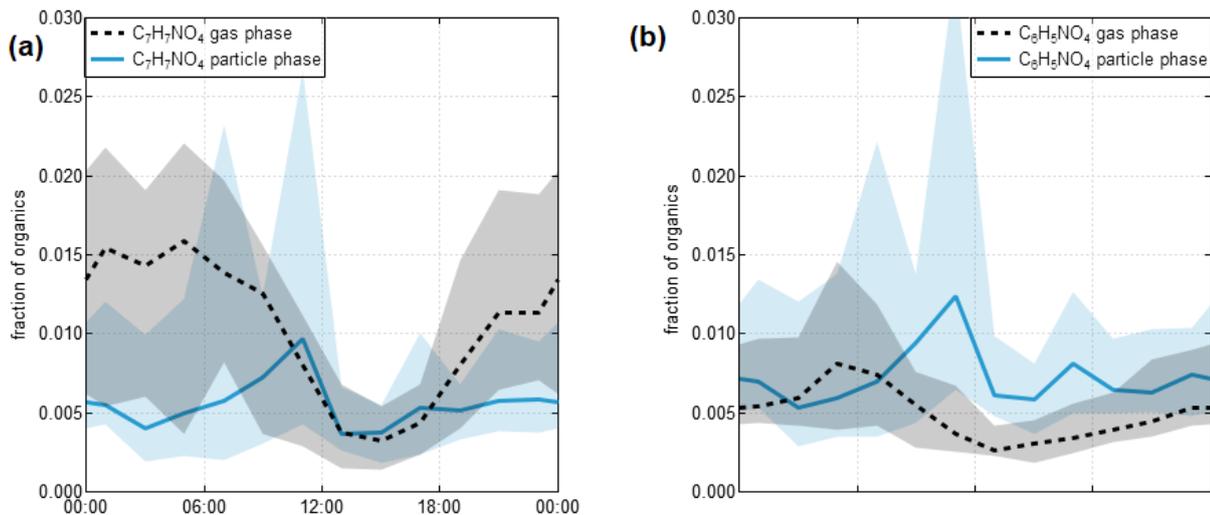
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Figure S3: A comparison of the signals observed from various chlorine-containing species. Each of these was observed with I⁻. The signal from ICl⁻ follows the ICINO₂⁻ signal extremely closely, making it likely that this is an artefact of ClNO₂ measurements. The observed ICINO₃⁻ signal is likely a combination of genuine ambient ClONO₂ and interactions between ClNO₂ and O₂ in the IMR region.



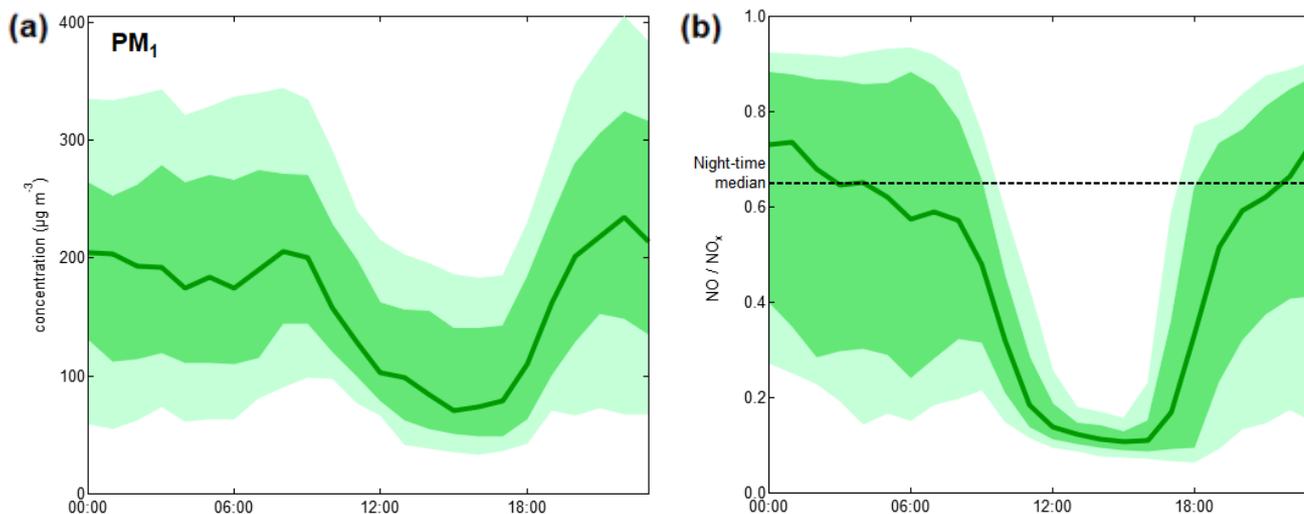
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Figure S4: A comparison of the N_2O_5 and ClNO_2 signals with friction velocity (U^*), a value used as an indicator for atmospheric mixing. The increase in signal as mixing increases is consistent with here by a hypothesised source of these species in the residual layer, above the inlet.



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Figure S5: Two examples of nitrogen-containing compounds that are often associated with biomass burning emissions. For both compounds, the contribution towards the gas phase decreases during the day, indicating that their likely emission sources are from biomass burning or other sources that have been shown to increase during the night, rather than from NO_3 oxidation.



225 **Figure S6: Diel cycles observed during the campaign. (a) The summed diel cycle of all non-refractory PM₁ species (Organic compounds, NO₃, SO₄, NH₄ and chloride) as observed by the AMS (b) The diel cycle of the ratio of NO to total NO_x. The median night-time NO fraction is around 64% of total NO_x.**

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