



1 **Short lifetimes of organic nitrates in a sub-urban temperate forest**  
2 **indicate efficient assimilation of reactive nitrogen by the biosphere**

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## 1 Abstract

Alkyl nitrates (ANs) and peroxy-carboxylic nitric anhydrides (PANs) are important reservoirs of reactive nitrogen that contribute significantly to the rate of formation and growth of secondary organic aerosols and support the transport of reactive nitrogen from polluted areas to remote areas. It is therefore critical to understand their sources and sinks in different environments. In this study we use measurements of OH, O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub> reactivity, VOCs, ΣANs and ΣPANs during the ACROSS campaign to investigate different production and loss processes of ANs and PANs in a temperate forest. At daytime OH-initiated processes were the dominant source of ANs (69-72 %) followed by NO<sub>3</sub> (18-20 %) and O<sub>3</sub> (8-12 %). At nighttime the contribution from OH decreased to 43-53 %, and NO<sub>3</sub> increased to 26-40 % with that of O<sub>3</sub> largely unchanged. Of the measured ΣPANs, 48-78 % was modelled to be peroxyacetic nitric anhydride (PAN). Physical loss (e.g. deposition) was an important sink for both ANs and PANs and contributed significantly to the very short lifetimes of 1.5 ± 1 h for ANs and 0.08 - 1.5 h for PANs observed during the campaign.

## 2 Introduction

Approximately 1000 Tg of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) are emitted into the atmosphere annually, whereof ~50% is isoprene and ~15% are monoterpenes (Guenther et al., 2012). The oxidation of BVOCs is initiated by ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and the hydroxyl (OH) and nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>) radicals. When BVOCs are oxidized in the presence of (largely anthropogenic) NO<sub>x</sub> they lead to the formation of alkyl nitrates (RONO<sub>2</sub>, ANs) and peroxy-carboxylic nitric anhydrides (RC(O)O<sub>2</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>, PANs) as illustrated in Figure 1. ANs are produced in the daytime in a minor branch of the reaction between organic peroxy radicals (RO<sub>2</sub>) which do not have an α-carbonyl group and nitrogen oxide (NO, Lightfoot et al. (1992)) and through the reaction of unsaturated BVOCs with NO<sub>3</sub> at nighttime. Recent studies suggest that the NO<sub>3</sub>-initiated oxidation of BVOCs during the day could also be an important pathway for the formation of alkyl nitrates (Liebmann et al., 2019; Ayres et al., 2015; Liebmann et al., 2018a; Liebmann et al., 2018b; Dewald et al., 2024). PANs are formed when α-carbonyl peroxy radicals (RC(O)O<sub>2</sub>) react with nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>). The stability of PANs is highly temperature dependent resulting in boundary layer lifetimes of the order of hours at temperate mid-latitudes with respect to dissociation to RC(O)O<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> (Iupac, 2024).

The yield of alkyl nitrates in the RO<sub>2</sub> + NO reaction strongly depends on the composition of BVOCs in the atmosphere, the oxidant that initiates the degradation of the BVOC (OH, O<sub>3</sub> or NO<sub>3</sub>), and the ratio of NO to other reactants with which the RO<sub>2</sub> can react such as NO<sub>2</sub>, HO<sub>2</sub> and other RO<sub>2</sub> (Iupac, 2024; Perring et al., 2013; Wennberg et al., 2018; Hallquist et al., 1999; Fry et al., 2014). The yield of the PANs formed from the corresponding α-carbonyl peroxy radical depends only on the fraction of RC(O)O<sub>2</sub> that reacts with NO<sub>2</sub> as opposed to reacting with HO<sub>2</sub> or NO. Production and loss processes of ANs and PANs are described in detail through reaction mechanisms and equations in section 4.1-4.3 and 4.6, respectively.

The formation of ANs and PANs serves to sequester reactive nitrogen (NO<sub>x</sub> = NO + NO<sub>2</sub>) into reservoir species, which can release NO<sub>x</sub> following transport to regions remote from NO<sub>x</sub> sources; both can also be removed from the lowermost atmosphere through deposition, which thus represents a sink of NO<sub>x</sub> in the atmosphere. As NO<sub>2</sub> is formed from primary emitted NO and its photolysis drives the formation of O<sub>3</sub>, understanding the fate of NO<sub>x</sub> is critical for predicting O<sub>3</sub> levels in the troposphere. It has additionally been shown that ANs contribute



70 significantly to the rate of formation and growth of secondary organic aerosols (SOA) and thereby impacting human health and air quality (Hallquist et al., 2009; Shiraiwa et al., 2017; Kanakidou et al., 2005).

This study investigates the production and loss of PANs and ANs in an anthropogenically impacted temperate forest using field measurements of BVOCs, oxidants (OH, O<sub>3</sub>, and NO<sub>3</sub>), products (PANs and ANs), and meteorological data. The lifetimes of PANs and ANs are derived from their production rates and measured total mixing ratios.

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### 3 Methodology

#### 3.1 Site Description

80 The measurements used in this study were conducted at the Rambouillet forest site located approximately 50 km southwest of Paris, France, (48.687, 1.704) during the ACROSS (Atmospheric ChemistRy Of the Suburban foreSt) campaign between June 13<sup>th</sup> 2022 and July 25<sup>th</sup> 2022 (Cantrell and Michoud, 2022). The forest consists of approximately 70% oak, 20% pine, and small contributions from beech and chestnut. The top of the forest canopy around the site was approximately 20-25 m. A 40 m measurement tower and multiple containers with a large variation in instruments were located in a clearing (~697 m<sup>2</sup>). 48h HYSPLIT back  
85 trajectories showed that the airmasses sampled during the campaign passed either over the Atlantic Ocean or Continental regions in Europe before reaching the site (Draxler and Rolph, 2011; Andersen et al., 2024). All the instruments used in this study are described briefly below.

#### 3.2 Measurements

##### 90 3.2.1 Reactive Nitrogen and O<sub>3</sub>

NO<sub>2</sub>, total peroxy-carboxylic nitric anhydrides ( $\Sigma$ PANs), total alkyl nitrates ( $\Sigma$ ANs), NO<sub>3</sub> reactivity ( $k^{\text{NO}_3}$ ), and O<sub>3</sub> were measured by instruments inside the MPIC (Max Planck Institute for Chemistry) container with co-located inlets sampling from a high-volume-flow stainless steel tube (10 m<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>; 15 cm diameter, 0.2 s residence time) taking air from a height of 5.4 m  
95 above ground.

A 5-channel thermal dissociation cavity-ringdown spectrometer (5CH-TD-CRDS, Sobanski et al. (2016)) was used to measure NO<sub>2</sub>,  $\Sigma$ PANs, and  $\Sigma$ ANs. NO<sub>2</sub> was measured directly at 408 nm with a limit of detection (LOD) of 9.7 parts per trillion by volume (pptv) for 1 min averaging (3 $\sigma$ ).  $\Sigma$ PANs and  $\Sigma$ ANs were thermally dissociated to NO<sub>2</sub> by heating their separate  
100 inlets to 448 and 648 K, respectively, followed by detection of NO<sub>2</sub> at 408 nm. Numerical simulations were run for both  $\Sigma$ PANs and  $\Sigma$ ANs to correct for NO<sub>2</sub> loss via recombination with RO<sub>2</sub>, the reactions of peroxy radicals with ambient NO, NO oxidation to NO<sub>2</sub> by O<sub>3</sub>, and pyrolysis of O<sub>3</sub> (Thieser et al., 2016; Sobanski et al., 2016). The majority of the correction factors for both  $\Sigma$ PANs and  $\Sigma$ ANs were between 0.9 and 1.2 as shown in Figure S1, which is  
105 consistent with low NO<sub>x</sub> levels. Two additional cavities, operated at 662 nm, measured NO<sub>3</sub> and (via thermal dissociation to NO<sub>3</sub>, 373 K) N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (Sobanski et al., 2016). A timeseries of NO<sub>2</sub>,  $\Sigma$ PANs, and  $\Sigma$ ANs is shown in Figure 2.

A second CRDS-instrument was used to primarily measure the NO<sub>3</sub> reactivity towards VOCs ( $k^{\text{NO}_3}$ ) in the forest, but it also has a cavity operated at 405 nm for the measurement of NO<sub>2</sub>



110 (Liebmann et al., 2018b). The ambient  $\text{NO}_3$  reactivity is quantified by a CRDS-measurement  
(at 662 nm) of in-situ-generated  $\text{NO}_3$  after its residence in a flow-tube reactor when mixed with  
either synthetic or ambient air. A numerical simulation procedure is used to correct the  
measurements for competing reactions taking place inside the flow-tube in order to extract the  
VOC contribution to the measured  $\text{NO}_3$  consumption. A detailed analysis of the  $\text{NO}_3$  reactivity  
115 measurements is presented in Dewald et al. (2024). During the ACROSS campaign, the  
reactivity of  $\text{NO}_3$  towards organics was dominated by those of biogenic origin, so henceforth  
we refer to this as  $k^{\text{BVOC}}$ .

$\text{O}_3$  was measured with a commercial instrument (2B Technologies model 205) using UV  
absorption at  $\sim 254$  nm. The LOD is 2 ppbv for 10 s averaging time. A timeseries of  $\text{O}_3$  can be  
120 observed in Figure 2.

$\text{NO}$  was measured using a commercial chemiluminescence instrument (Ecophysics CLD 780  
TR, henceforth CLD) with an LOD of 10 pptv for 1 min averaging time. The sampling height  
for  $\text{NO}$  measurements was about 3.2 m above the ground surface and the inlet was  
approximately 17 m from the MPIC container. The  $\text{NO}$  measurements were corrected as  
125 described in (Andersen et al., 2024).

### 3.2.2 OH and $\text{XO}_2$ ( $\text{HO}_2+\text{RO}_2$ )

The OH radical was measured by its conversion (via reaction with isotopically labelled  $\text{SO}_2$ )  
to  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  which was subsequently detected using nitrate chemical ionization mass  
130 spectrometry (Eisele and Tanner, 1991). The lower limit of detection for OH radicals at signal-  
to-noise-ratio (S/N)=3 and a 15-minute integration time was  $5 \times 10^4$  molecule  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ . The sum of  
peroxy radicals,  $\text{XO}_2=\text{HO}_2+\text{RO}_2$ , was measured by their conversion to OH in the presence of  
NO. The OH calibration coefficient was determined using  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  actinometry and OH generation  
in a turbulent flow reactor by photolysis of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  or  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at 184.9 nm (Kukui et al., 2008). The  
135 calibration of  $\text{HO}_2$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{O}_2$  and other  $\text{RO}_2$  was performed by adding into the calibration reactor  
CO,  $\text{CH}_4$  (or other  $\text{RO}_2$  precursors) converting OH to  $\text{RO}_2$ . The overall estimated calibration  
accuracy ( $2\sigma$ ) for OH is about 25% and about 30% for calibrated  $\text{XO}_2$ , although the uncertainty  
of the  $\text{XO}_2$  measurements is typically higher due to variable detection efficiency (i.e. yields of  
OH) of different  $\text{XO}_2$ . The lower limit of detection for  $\text{XO}_2$  radicals at S/N=3 and a 4-minute  
140 integration time is  $2 \times 10^6$  molecule  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ . A detailed description of the instrument and  
calibration system are presented elsewhere (Kukui et al., 2008; Kukui et al., 2021). During the  
ACROSS field campaign the instrument was installed in a shipping container with the chemical  
conversion reactor fixed to the roof of the container via an interface cap covered with a  
polytetrafluorethylene (PTFE) sheet. The sampling aperture of the chemical conversion reactor  
145 (3 mm diameter) was positioned 50 cm above the roof and about 3 m above the ground surface.  
A detailed analysis of the OH measurements will be presented in a forthcoming publication.

### 3.2.3 Photolysis frequencies and meteorology

A spectral radiometer (metcon GmbH) was installed near the high-volume-flow stainless-steel  
150 tube on top of the MPIC container to measure actinic fluxes, which were converted to  
photolysis frequencies using recommended absorption spectra and quantum yields (Iupac,  
2024; Burkholder et al., 2020) as described in Meusel et al. (2016). Note that upwelling



radiation is not accounted for resulting in a potential underestimation of the photolysis frequencies of 5-10 %.

- 155 Ambient temperature was measured at four different heights on the tower; 5 m, 13 m, 21 m, and 41 m using temperature sensors from Atexis (PT1000) and Thermoest (PT100). Relative humidity was measured at 5 m using a Vaisala humidity sensor (HMP45A).

### 3.2.4 Biogenic Volatile Organic Compounds (BVOCs)

- 160 The LISA Proton Transfer Reaction Time of Flight Mass Spectrometer (PTR-ToF-MS, hereafter called PTRMS), manufactured by Kore Technology Ltd., was used for monitoring concentrations of VOCs. Air samples were drawn at a flow rate of approximately  $300 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$  through a 3 m long Silcosteel® coated stainless steel tube (2.1 mm inner diameter). Calibration was performed approximately every 3 days using VOC standards (5 – 20 ppb) from  
165 a certified National Physical Laboratory (NPL) calibration mixture with nominally 1 ppmv  $\pm 5\%$  of several trace gases including acetaldehyde, methanol, ethanol, isoprene, acetone, dimethyl sulphide, acetonitrile, 3-carene. Humidity corrections were applied for each trace-gas. Mixing ratios of non-calibrated trace gases were retrieved from reactor conditions, rate constants, fragmentations, and ion transmissions determined using the same NPL standard  
170 cylinder. The time series of acetaldehyde, isoprene and total monoterpenes ( $\Sigma\text{MT}$ ) is shown in Figure 2.

- As there were no measurements of speciated monoterpenes, due to instrumental issues with the gas chromatography instrument deployed during the campaign, different potential monoterpene mixtures were determined using the total mixing ratios measured by the PTRMS together with the measured reactivity of  $\text{NO}_3$  towards BVOCs ( $k^{\text{BVOC}}$ ) after subtracting the  
175 reactivity due to isoprene as described in Eq. (1). Here,  $k_{\text{effective}}$  is an effective rate coefficient for the reaction of  $\text{NO}_3$  with an assumed monoterpene mixture.  $k_{\text{effective}}$  was determined by adding all the fractional contributions from different monoterpenes as described in equation (2), where  $a_i$  and  $k_{\text{NO}_3+i}$  are the fractional contribution and the rate coefficient with  $\text{NO}_3$  for monoterpene  $i$ , respectively, which are listed in Table 1.  
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$$[\Sigma\text{Monoterpenes}] = \frac{k^{\text{BVOC}} - k_{\text{NO}_3+\text{isoprene}}[\text{Isoprene}]}{k_{\text{effective}}} \quad (1)$$

$$k_{\text{effective}} = \sum_i (a_i \times k_{\text{NO}_3+i}) \quad (2)$$

- Only limonene,  $\alpha$ -pinene, and  $\beta$ -pinene were used to determine potential mixtures since the box-model used (see below) contained schemes for their degradation only. By varying  
185 limonene between 10 and 30% of the sum of monoterpenes ( $\Sigma\text{MT}$ ) three potential mixtures which were consistent with the measured  $\text{NO}_3$ -reactivity were determined. Mixture 1: 30% limonene, 10%  $\beta$ -pinene, and 60%  $\alpha$ -pinene. Mixture 2: 20% limonene, 15%  $\beta$ -pinene, and 65%  $\alpha$ -pinene. Mixture 3: 10% limonene, 5%  $\beta$ -pinene, and 85%  $\alpha$ -pinene. All three scenarios are plotted together with the measured  $\Sigma\text{MT}$  over a 48-hour period in Figure 3B. Here the three scenarios can be observed to agree well with the measurements except when a temperature  
190 inversion occurred (Figure 3A). The same kind of discrepancy is observed every night with a temperature inversion, which is shown in Figure 3C, where mixture 2 is plotted against the measured  $\Sigma\text{MT}$  for the entire campaign and coloured by the difference in temperature ( $\Delta T$ ) between the top of the tower (41 m) and measurement height (5m). A significant temperature



195 inversion can result in the formation of a shallow nocturnal surface layer with weak vertical  
mixing.

As BVOCs continue to be emitted at night, weak vertical mixing leads to a strong gradient in  
monoterpene mixing ratios with higher values at low heights above ground level. As the  
gradient (both horizontally and vertically) will depend on the lifetime of each monoterpene,  
200 the mixture of monoterpenes measured by the NO<sub>3</sub>-reactivity instrument (at 5.4 m) might not  
be the same as that emitted by the vegetation at different heights. In Figure S2, the average  
derived diel profiles of the lifetime of  $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene, and limonene when taking reactions  
with OH, O<sub>3</sub>, and NO<sub>3</sub> into account using the rate coefficients in Table 1 are plotted. During  
the daytime all three monoterpenes have short lifetimes of around 0.5-1.5 hours; however, at  
205 nighttime, limonene clearly has the shortest lifetime, whereas  $\beta$ -pinene has a slightly longer  
lifetime than  $\alpha$ -pinene. On nights with  $\Delta T > 1^\circ\text{C}$ , limonene is therefore assumed not to be  
sampled by the NO<sub>3</sub>-reactivity instrument due to the slow vertical and horizontal mixing and  
the monoterpene mixture is changed to 57%  $\beta$ -pinene and 43%  $\alpha$ -pinene, which can be seen in  
Figure 3D for scenario 2. This correction aligns the calculated and measured  $\Sigma\text{MT}$  throughout  
210 the entire campaign (Figure 3E).

### 3.3 Box Model

To simulate PANs numerically, we have used the atmospheric chemistry box model  
CAABA/MECCA (Chemistry As A Boxmodel Application/Module Efficiently Calculating the  
215 Chemistry of the Atmosphere) by Sander et al. (2019). The code is based on model version  
4.7.0, and it has been adapted to simulate the ACROSS campaign. To allow for a detailed  
calculation of monoterpenes and PANs, reactions were exported from the Master Chemical  
Mechanism (MCM, <https://mcm.york.ac.uk>), including the MCM species APINENE,  
BPINENE, C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, CH<sub>3</sub>CHO, CH<sub>4</sub>, LIMONENE, and NC<sub>4</sub>H<sub>10</sub> in the marklist. This  
220 resulted in a gas-phase chemical mechanism with 1536 species and 4550 reactions. The setup  
of the individual model runs will be described in Sect. 4.7.

## 4 Results and Discussion

### 4.1 AN production from NO<sub>3</sub> reactions with BVOCs

225 NO<sub>3</sub> radicals are produced from the reaction between NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> (R1) and are usually lost  
rapidly during daytime to photolysis and reactions with unsaturated BVOCs and NO (R2-R4).  
Reactions between NO<sub>3</sub> radicals and unsaturated BVOCs lead to the formation of alkyl nitrates  
(ANs, R3a) as well as other products (R3b). At nighttime, ground-level NO<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios can  
vary greatly from < 1 pptv to > 100 pptv depending on atmospheric composition (Ng et al.,  
230 2017; Brown and Stutz, 2012), i.e. their production and loss terms. During ACROSS, the NO<sub>3</sub>  
reactivity within the canopy was generally high at nighttime due to the emission of biogenic  
volatile organic compounds (BVOCs, by vegetation) and NO (from soil) into a shallow, poorly  
mixed nocturnal surface layer (Dewald et al., 2024; Andersen et al., 2024). This led to NO<sub>3</sub>  
mixing ratios, at the ground, of < 0.5 pptv, which were generally lower than the limit of  
235 detection of instrumentation at the site.





The total production rate of ANs from the  $\text{NO}_3$ -initiated oxidation of unsaturated BVOCs can be calculated using equation (3), where  $[\text{NO}_3]_{\text{SS}}$  is the  $\text{NO}_3$  concentration at steady state and  $\alpha_i^{\text{NO}_3}$ ,  $k_i^{\text{NO}_3}$  and  $[\text{C}_i]$  are the ANs yield, the rate coefficient and BVOC concentration for compound  $i$ , respectively.  $[\text{NO}_3]_{\text{SS}}$  is determined from the production and loss terms described by reactions (R1-R4) as described in equation (4), where  $[\text{NO}]$ ,  $[\text{NO}_2]$ , and  $[\text{O}_3]$  are the concentrations of NO,  $\text{NO}_2$ , and  $\text{O}_3$ , respectively,  $k_1$  and  $k_4$  are the rate coefficients of reaction (R1) and (R4), respectively,  $k^{\text{BVOC}}$  is the first-order loss frequency for  $\text{NO}_3$  towards BVOCs, and  $J_{\text{NO}_3}$  is the photolysis frequency of  $\text{NO}_3$  radicals (Liebmann et al., 2019). This calculation ignores physical losses of  $\text{NO}_3$  (e.g. deposition) which will not compete with its reactive losses in this environment.

$$\sum \text{P}_{\text{ANs}}^{\text{OH}} = [\text{NO}_3]_{\text{SS}} \sum_i \alpha_i^{\text{NO}_3} k_i^{\text{NO}_3} [\text{C}_i] \quad (3)$$

$$[\text{NO}_3]_{\text{SS}} = \frac{k_1[\text{NO}_2][\text{O}_3]}{k^{\text{BVOC}} + J_{\text{NO}_3} + k_4[\text{NO}]} \quad (4)$$

## 255 4.2 AN production from OH reactions with BVOCs

At daytime, primary OH radicals are produced e.g. from the photolysis of  $\text{O}_3$  followed by the reaction between  $\text{O}(^1\text{D})$  and water vapour (R5-R6) with secondary production through reaction of  $\text{HO}_2$  (formed in peroxy-radical ( $\text{RO}_2$ ) reactions) with NO. In the absence of photochemistry, OH concentrations are generally lower at nighttime than at daytime, with average hourly concentrations of around  $3.5\text{-}5 \times 10^5$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  observed across the campaign. The nighttime OH results from the ozonolysis of unsaturated BVOCs (see below) in the nocturnal boundary layer, which was very shallow and stable due to temperature inversions (Andersen et al., 2024). When OH reacts with BVOCs in the presence of  $\text{O}_2$ , peroxy radicals are produced (R7), which can then react with NO to give alkyl nitrates (R8a), as well as alkoxy radicals and  $\text{NO}_2$  (R8b). Additional competing processes that lower the yield of ANs from  $\text{RO}_2$  are reactions with itself and other  $\text{RO}_2$  (R9) and reaction with  $\text{HO}_2$  (R10).





275 The total production rate of ANs from OH-initiated oxidation of BVOCs is described in equation (5), where [OH] is the OH concentration,  $\alpha_i^{\text{RO}_2}$  is the fraction of the organic peroxy radicals from BVOCs which (via R8a) forms an alkyl nitrate when reacting with NO,  $k_i^{\text{OH}}$  and  $[C_i]$  are the rate coefficient and BVOC concentration for compound  $i$ , respectively, and  $\beta$  is the fraction of peroxy radicals that reacts with NO (rather than  $\text{RO}_2$  or  $\text{HO}_2$ ) as described in equation (6) (Liebmann et al., 2019). It was calculated using the measured  $\text{XO}_2$  and NO  
280 together with a generic rate coefficient for reaction (R8),  $8 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and a combination of reactions (R9) and (R10),  $1 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Iupac, 2024).

$$\sum P_{\text{ANs}}^{\text{OH}} = [\text{OH}] \beta \sum \alpha_i^{\text{RO}_2} k_i^{\text{OH}} [C_i] \quad (5)$$

$$\beta = \frac{k_8[\text{NO}]}{k_8[\text{NO}] + k_9[\text{RO}_2] + k_{10}[\text{HO}_2]} \quad (6)$$

#### 285 4.3 AN production from $\text{O}_3$ reactions with BVOCs

Ozone ( $\text{O}_3$ ) addition to an unsaturated BVOC forms a primary ozonide (POZ, R11), which in the presence of  $\text{O}_2$  can rapidly decompose via Criegee intermediates to OH and organic peroxy radicals ( $\text{RO}_2$ ) (R12a). The POZ can also react through other processes that do not result in organic peroxy radicals (R12b). The  $\text{RO}_2$  formed in (R12a) further reacts through reactions  
290 (R8-R10) as described above.



Equation (7) describes the total production rate of ANs from the  $\text{O}_3$ -initiated oxidation of  
295 unsaturated BVOCs, where  $[\text{O}_3]$  is the  $\text{O}_3$  concentration,  $\alpha_i^{\text{O}_3}$  is the yield of  $\text{RO}_2$  from reactions (R11-R12a),  $\alpha_i^{\text{RO}_2}$  is the fraction of the organic peroxy radicals (from BVOCs) formed in (R12a) which when reacting with NO form an alkyl nitrate,  $k_i^{\text{O}_3}$  and  $[C_i]$  are the rate coefficient and BVOC concentration for compound  $i$ , respectively, and  $\beta$  is the fraction of peroxy radicals that react with NO as described in equation (6) (Liebmann et al., 2019), calculated as described in section 4.2. Here we assume that the yield of ANs from  $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$  is independent of whether  
300  $\text{RO}_2$  is formed by OH or  $\text{O}_3$ -initiated oxidation.

$$\sum P_{\text{ANs}}^{\text{O}_3} = [\text{O}_3] \beta \sum \alpha_i^{\text{O}_3} \alpha_i^{\text{RO}_2} k_i^{\text{O}_3} [C_i] \quad (7)$$

#### 305 4.4 Relative importance of OH, $\text{O}_3$ and $\text{NO}_3$ oxidation for the production of ANs

To analyse the production and loss processes of alkyl nitrates during the ACROSS campaign, the measurements have been separated into two phases: phase 1 (lower photochemical activity) from June 28<sup>th</sup> 2022 to July 7<sup>th</sup> 2022, and phase 2 (higher photochemical activity) from July 8<sup>th</sup> 2022 to July 20<sup>th</sup> 2022. Average diel profiles of  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ , NO, temperature, OH radicals, and isoprene for the two phases are plotted in Figure 4. Phase 1 is characterised by low levels of  
310 oxidants and organics and a maximum average daytime temperature around 25 degrees Celsius,





whereas phase 2 is characterised by higher levels of oxidants and organics due to generally higher temperatures (maximum average daytime temperature around 30 degrees Celsius). The average monoterpene mixtures for the two phases are displayed in Figure 5 for mixture 2 with 20% limonene, 15%  $\beta$ -pinene, and 65%  $\alpha$ -pinene. The monoterpene mixtures derived for scenario 1 and 3 are plotted in Figure S3. At daytime the average mixture reflects the percentages used for each scenario, whereas at nighttime, the mixture is dominated by  $\beta$ -pinene and  $\alpha$ -pinene during both phases, associated with temperature inversions.

The diel profile of the  $\Sigma$ ANs production rates from  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , OH-, and  $\text{O}_3$ -initiated oxidation for mixture 2 using the rate coefficients and yields in Table 1 and the monoterpene mixture in Figure 5 is shown in Figure 6A and B for phases 1 and 2, respectively. The total ANs production during phase 1 is fairly constant at 35-75 pptv  $\text{h}^{-1}$  throughout the diel profile. In contrast, phase 2 shows large variation with 80-100 pptv  $\text{h}^{-1}$  in the early morning between 01:00-05:00 UTC (03:00-07:00 LT) and 220-280 pptv  $\text{h}^{-1}$  around late morning to midday between 07:00-12:00 UTC (09:00-14:00 LT). For both phases, the variability in the  $\Sigma$ ANs production rate from  $\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -initiated oxidation of BVOCs is small. The calculated averaged  $\text{O}_3$ -initiated  $\Sigma$ ANs production rate is  $9 \pm 3$  and  $18 \pm 4$  ( $\pm 1\sigma$ ) pptv  $\text{h}^{-1}$  for phase 1 and 2, respectively, and the derived averaged  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -initiated  $\Sigma$ ANs production rate is  $12 \pm 5$  and  $41 \pm 11$  ( $\pm 1\sigma$ ) pptv  $\text{h}^{-1}$  for phase 1 and 2, respectively. The differences between the two phases are therefore caused by the OH-initiated oxidation, which is relatively stable during phase 1 at  $34 \pm 11$  ( $\pm 1\sigma$ ) pptv  $\text{h}^{-1}$  on average due to the lower daytime levels of OH and BVOCs (see Figure 4), but varies between 30-70 pptv  $\text{h}^{-1}$  at nighttime and 100-230 pptv  $\text{h}^{-1}$  at daytime during phase 2.

Figure 6C and D show the fractional contributions of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , OH-, and  $\text{O}_3$ -initiated oxidation (mixture 2) to the  $\Sigma$ ANs production rate for phase 1 and 2, respectively. OH clearly dominates at daytime (06:00-18:00 UTC) with, on average, 69-72 % for both phases, followed by  $\text{NO}_3^-$  with 18-20 % and  $\text{O}_3$  with 8-12 %. At nighttime (18:00-06:00 UTC), the picture is not as clear: During phase 1 OH-initiated oxidation is still the dominant ANs production pathway with, on average, 53 % and the remainder is close to evenly split at 21 and 26 % between  $\text{O}_3$ - and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -initiated oxidation, respectively. At nighttime during phase 2, OH- and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -initiated oxidation contributed similarly with 43 and 40 % of the total ANs production rate, respectively, leaving only 17 % for  $\text{O}_3$ -initiated processes. The differences between the two phases at nighttime can be explained by the availability of the precursors, where there is approximately double the amount of  $\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  during phase 2, leading to a higher production rate of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  radicals and thereby an increased ANs production rate from  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -initiated oxidation.

Both phases give significantly different fractions at both daytime and nighttime to those observed by Liebmann et al. (2019) in a boreal forest, where, in the absence of measurements, OH was calculated from the actinic flux, which thus resulted in zero OH at nighttime. However, both studies agree on  $\text{NO}_3^-$  oxidation being a significant source of ANs, both at daytime and nighttime. If  $[\text{NO}_3]_{\text{SS}}$  was calculated using photolysis frequencies measured above the clearing instead of inside the clearing, the contribution from  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -initiated oxidation would be reduced in the morning and evening.

#### 4.5 ANs loss and lifetime

Neglecting the role of transport, we now combine the diel profile of the total production rate of ANs (described above) with the average measured diel profile of ANs to evaluate the loss



355 processes and lifetime of the ANs using equation (8).  $P_{\text{ANs}}$  is the production rate of ANs,  $[\text{ANs}]_0$  is the average ANs mixing ratio at 00:00 UTC, and  $k_L(\text{ANs})$  is the loss rate of the ANs, which is defined as the inverse of the lifetime of the ANs ( $(\tau_{\text{ANs}})^{-1}$ ).

$$\frac{d[\text{ANs}]}{dt} = P_{\text{ANs}} - k_L(\text{ANs})[\text{ANs}]_0 \quad (8)$$

360 The ANs mixing ratio at any subsequent time to  $[\text{ANs}]_0$  can then be calculated as described in Eq. (9) with the variation of  $k_L(\text{ANs})$  to match the observed ANs mixing ratio.

$$[\text{ANs}]_t = \int_0^t \frac{d[\text{ANs}]}{dt} + [\text{ANs}]_0 \quad (9)$$

365 Figure 6E and F show the average diel profiles of the measured ANs in black for phase 1 and 2, respectively. The orange lines show how the ANs mixing ratios would have increased if there was no chemical or transport-induced loss throughout the day and the blue lines show how the diel profiles would look when applying lifetimes of 1-10 hours for the ANs. The best fit to the measured diel profile of ANs results from using an effective lifetime in the clearing of  $1.5 \pm 1$  h throughout the diel cycle for both phases despite the very different production rates described above. Table 2 gives an overview of the average daytime and nighttime loss rate frequencies and the resulting effective lifetimes. No difference was observed between daytime and nighttime during phase 1 and only a small difference within the uncertainties was observed during phase 2.

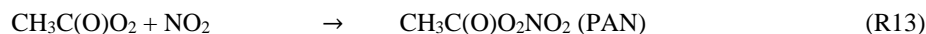
370 The total ANs production rate resulting from the three different monoterpene mixtures derived above, plotted in Figure S4A for the two phases, clearly shows that the choice of mixture does not have a significant impact on the total production rate. This means that the determined lifetime for the two phases of  $1.5 \pm 1$  h is consistent across all three mixtures, as can be observed in Figure S4C. This lifetime is similar to the  $2 \pm 3$  h estimated in a boreal forest (Liebmann et al., 2019).

380 In section 4.7, it is shown that the box model described above predicts the mixing ratio of  $\text{XO}_2$  to be up to 4 times higher than the measured  $\text{XO}_2$  depending on the day. As the origin of this model-observation discrepancy is not known we have calculated the total ANs production rate and the lifetime of ANs for the three monoterpene mixtures when applying 4 times the measured  $\text{XO}_2$ . The results (Figures S4B and S4D) show that  $\beta$  and thus  $P_{\text{ANs}}$  decrease when increasing  $\text{XO}_2$ , which results in an increase in the calculated lifetime from  $1.5 \pm 1$  h to  $2.5 \pm 1.5$  h, which remains consistent with the previous measurements conducted in a boreal forest.

385

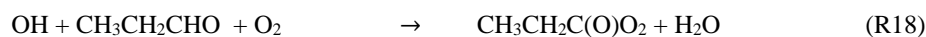
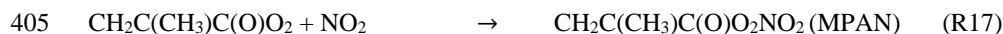
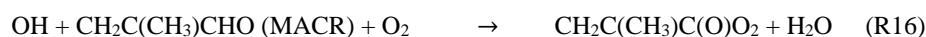
#### 4.6 PANs major production and loss processes

A dominant fraction of the measured PANs is expected to be in the form of peroxyacetic nitric anhydride ( $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ , PAN), which is formed in the reaction between the peroxyacetyl radical ( $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2$ ) and  $\text{NO}_2$  (R13). In the boundary layer,  $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2$  is produced directly from the OH-initiated oxidation of acetaldehyde ( $\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}$ , R14) and the photolysis of dicarbonyls such as methylglyoxal ( $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{CHO}$ , R15, Crowley et al. (2018)) and from the oxidation of BVOCs such as isoprene (via methacrolein ( $\text{CH}_2\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)\text{CHO}$ , MACR) and methyl vinyl ketone ( $\text{CH}_2\text{CHC}(\text{O})\text{CH}_3$ , MVK)) and  $\alpha$ -pinene after multiple reaction steps.





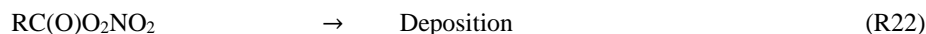
In the summertime, forested environments, where isoprene emissions are high, peroxyacetic nitric anhydride ( $\text{CH}_2\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ , MPAN), an OH-initiated oxidation product of MACR (R16-R17), is expected to make a significant contribution to the total peroxy nitrates. With an annual average propane ( $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8$ ) measurement around 507 pptv at La Tardiere, France, in 2018 (Ge et al., 2024), peroxypropionic nitric anhydride ( $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ , PPN), an OH-initiated oxidation product of propanal ( $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CHO}$ , R18-R19), is expected to be present as well.



For both PAN, MPAN, PPN and any other PANs, the production rate strongly depends on the presence of NO, hydroperoxyl radicals ( $\text{HO}_2$ ) and other peroxy radicals ( $\text{RO}_2$ ) that can lead to competing reactions (R20-R21) to (R13), (R17) and (R19).  $\text{XO}_2$  describes the sum of  $\text{HO}_2 + \text{RO}_2$ .



PANs are permanently removed through deposition (R22) and can be lost through thermal decomposition (R23) reforming  $\text{RC}(\text{O})\text{O}_2$ , which can subsequently react as described above (R20-R21). Larger and/or unsaturated PANs, such as MPAN, can also be lost through oxidation (R24).



The thermal decomposition of PANs is strongly temperature dependent resulting in lifetimes with respect to (R23) of 7.5 hours at 283 K and 40 minutes at 298 K (Iupac, 2024). The effective lifetime increases from that calculated from the thermal decomposition rate coefficient when regeneration of PANs through e.g. reaction (R13), (R17), and (R19) occurs. Thermal decomposition is thus expected to be the dominant loss process of PANs at high temperatures in the presence of NO and/or  $\text{XO}_2$ , however, at nighttime, when the temperature is lower and the mixing ratios of NO and  $\text{XO}_2$  also are lower, deposition can play an important role depending on boundary layer height, humidity and surfaces.

#### 430 4.7 Measured and modelled PANs

Figure 7A plots the mixing ratio for  $\Sigma$ PANs for which maximum daytime mixing ratios are between 100 pptv and 1600 pptv. The large variability is presumably caused by the observed



variability in temperature, concentrations of oxidants, and BVOCs. The temperature  
fluctuations measured during the campaign results in a thermal lifetime of the PANs that spans  
435 two orders of magnitude from 15 hours at 279 K and 3 minutes at 314 K (the extremes measured  
during ACROSS) as shown in Figure 7B.

Due to the many different production pathways of PANs, we used a detailed chemical box-  
model (see section 3.3 for details) to assess the contributions of various precursors and compare  
to measured  $\Sigma$ PANs. As the calculated thermal loss rate varies significantly from day to day,  
440 two single days (marked in grey in Figure 7) where measurements of OH, O<sub>3</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and  
BVOCs are available have been modelled instead of using average diel profiles like in the ANs  
analysis. One day (July 4<sup>th</sup> 2022) is in phase 1 from the ANs analysis, where the temperature  
reaches around 27°C (300 K) resulting in a thermal lifetime of 25 minutes (without considering  
recombination) and during which the mixing ratios of precursors (oxidants and BVOCs) were  
445 low. The second day (July 13<sup>th</sup> 2022) is in phase 2 from the ANs analysis, where the  
temperature has a maximum of around 39°C (312 K) resulting in a thermal lifetime of around  
5 minutes (without considering recombination) and higher precursor levels than during the first  
day.

The box model was constrained by measurements (10-minute running averages) of  
450 temperature, OH, O<sub>3</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, isoprene, and acetaldehyde (CH<sub>3</sub>CHO), and the estimated  
monoterpene mixture of  $\alpha$ -pinene,  $\beta$ -pinene, and limonene as described above for the case with  
20% limonene. Note that varying the fraction of limonene did not change the modelled  $\Sigma$ PANs  
significantly. The model was additionally initiated using average CO and pressure for the  
modelled day and 507 pptv propane (C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>), 193 pptv n-butane (n-C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>10</sub>), and 107 pptv  
455 isobutane (i-C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>10</sub>) (Ge et al., 2024). To ensure that all the trace gases not constrained in the  
model were in steady-state, a spin-up time of nine days was used. The thermal losses of PANs  
were included in the model as described above and an additional first-order loss term (physical  
losses from e.g. deposition) was varied to get satisfactory model-measurement agreement for  
 $\Sigma$ PANs during daytime (06:00-18:00 UTC) and nighttime (18:00-06:00 UTC) for the  
460 individual days. The physical loss frequencies thus derived were at daytime  $5.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  
 $2.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for the low and high precursor day, respectively, and  $1.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $1.1 \times 10^{-3}$   
 $\text{ s}^{-1}$  at nighttime. There are several potential explanations for the enhanced physical loss of PANs  
at daytime compared to nighttime. The daytime increase could be explained by a reduction in  
the surface resistance to foliar uptake when plant-stomata are open, (similar to O<sub>3</sub>, Shepson et  
465 al. (1992)) or a reduction in the transport resistance to uptake due to turbulent mixing. Rapid  
vertical mixing (venting) out of the canopy would also contribute to the net physical losses  
during daytime (Bohn, 2006) if significant concentration gradients exist. However, as effects  
of venting were not observed for alkyl nitrates (i.e. no significant difference between physical  
loss frequency during day and night was observed), we do not consider venting to be  
470 significant.

According to the model, at daytime (06:00-18:00 UTC, 08:00-20:00 LT), PAN contributes 61-  
78 % and 58-72 % of  $\Sigma$ PANs for the low and high precursor day, respectively. The nighttime  
PAN contribution to the  $\Sigma$ PANs is lower at 48-70 % and 48-60 %, respectively. The lower  
contribution of PAN to  $\Sigma$ PANs at nighttime is related to the high nighttime mixing ratios of  
475 monoterpenes (caused by the vegetation emitting BVOCs into a shallow boundary layer),  
which degrade to form larger PANs (see Table S1) compared to PAN. During the BEARPEX-  
2007 campaign in the Sierra Nevada Mountains, PAN was determined at local noon time to



contribute 70-90 % of  $\Sigma$ PANs (Wolfe et al., 2011), which is in reasonable agreement with our daytime results. A list of the modelled PANs is given in Table S1.

480 The model generated high amounts of HPAN ( $\text{HOCH}_2\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$ ) from glycolaldehyde, despite HPAN having a very short thermal lifetime (Zheng et al., 2011) and never having been detected in ambient air samples. In order to reduce the modelled contribution of HPAN to  $\Sigma$ PANs, an arbitrary loss term (10 times that of the other PANs) was included in the model.

The modelled PANs, separated into PAN and other PANs when optimized for nighttime are plotted for the low and high precursor day in Figure 8A and B together with the measured mixing ratios. Reasonable agreement between the measured and modelled  $\Sigma$ PANs can be observed for both the high and low precursor day at nighttime and from 12:00-18:00 UTC when optimizing for nighttime agreement. However, the model overestimates the measurement between 06:00 and 12:00 UTC on both days by up to a factor of 4. When optimizing for daytime agreement in the model (see Figure S5A and B) reasonable agreement can be observed between 490 06:00-18:00 for the high precursor day. For the low precursor day, the model overestimates the measurement between 06:00 and 12:00 UTC and underestimates between 12:00 and 18:00 UTC. For both days optimizing for daytime agreement by adjusting the  $\Sigma$ PANs physical loss term using a constant value for the whole day results in a significant underestimation of 495 modelled  $\Sigma$ PANs compared to the measured at nighttime. The lower nighttime physical loss results from temperature inversions and weak vertical mixing.

The loss of PAN is caused by a combination of physical losses such as deposition, and (at daytime) transport and thermal decomposition, which are plotted together in Figure 9C and D. In this case, the physical losses (modelled as a single loss frequency) were adjusted to optimize measurement-model agreement at nighttime. To calculate an effective thermal loss rate coefficient, a correction factor which takes recombination through for example reaction (R13) into account was applied. The correction factor is described in equation (10) and represents the fraction of  $\text{RC}(\text{O})\text{O}_2$  formed from the thermal decomposition that does not lead to reformation of PANs.

$$505 \quad f_{\text{NO}_2} = 1 - \left( \frac{k_{\text{RC}(\text{O})\text{O}_2+\text{NO}_2}[\text{NO}_2]}{k_{\text{RC}(\text{O})\text{O}_2+\text{NO}_2}[\text{NO}_2] + k_{20}[\text{NO}] + k_{21}[\text{XO}_2]} \right) \quad (10)$$

where  $k_i$  is the rate coefficient for reaction (R<sub>i</sub>), and  $[\text{NO}_2]$ ,  $[\text{NO}]$ , and  $[\text{XO}_2]$  are the concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}$ , and  $\text{XO}_2$  ( $\text{HO}_2+\text{RO}_2$ ). In the box model,  $\text{NO}$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  are constrained to the measurements whereas  $\text{XO}_2$  is calculated. The modelled  $\text{XO}_2$  is compared to the measured value in Figure S6 for the two chosen days. On the low precursor day, the model and measurements agree well, but on the high precursor day, the model predicts that 510  $\text{XO}_2$  should be 4 times higher than the measurements at midday. The effective thermal decomposition rate coefficient for PAN (considering recombination of  $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2$  with  $\text{NO}_2$ , see above) is therefore shown using both the measured and the modelled  $\text{XO}_2$ . If the measured  $\text{XO}_2$  is correct (and the modelled values are too high on the day during phase 2), the modelled derived physical loss frequency would be too low and would have to be incremented by the 515 difference in effective thermal decomposition frequencies (approximately  $5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).

Thermal decomposition accounts for approximately 40 % of the total loss when using modelled  $\text{XO}_2$  and optimizing for daytime agreement (see Figure S4C and D). Table 2 shows an overview of the average modelled thermal, physical, and total loss frequencies of PANs at daytime and



520 nighttime and the resulting effective lifetimes. The nighttime effective lifetime for  $\Sigma$ PANs  
during the low photochemical activity day was similar to that determined for ANs with  $1.5 \pm$   
 $0.1$  h, but the daytime effective lifetime was significantly shorter with  $0.42 \pm 0.05$  h. On the  
day with high photochemical activity, the average effective lifetime was even shorter at  $0.08 \pm$   
525  $0.01$  and  $0.24 \pm 0.02$  h for daytime and nighttime, respectively. The total loss frequency peaked  
at  $0.0038 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $0.00085 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for the high and low photochemical activity days resulting in  
effective lifetimes of around 4.4 min (0.07 h) and 20 min (0.32 h), respectively, when adjusting  
the physical loss frequency for measurement-model agreement at daytime.

## 5 Conclusion:

530 Measurements of  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{O}_3$ , BVOCs, the sum of alkyl nitrates ( $\Sigma$ ANs), and the sum of  
peroxycarboxylic nitric anhydrides ( $\Sigma$ PANs) have been used to analyse the sources, sinks and  
lifetime of ANs and PANs in a temperate forest influenced by anthropogenic emissions.

The ANs analysis has been performed for two phases. The first phase is characterised by  
relatively low temperatures, oxidants and reactant compared to the entire campaign, and the  
535 second phase was characterised by higher temperatures, oxidants and reactants. This led to  
significantly different production rates, but very similar lifetimes. The production was  
dominated by OH-initiated reactions at midday for both phases, but large differences were  
estimated at nighttime.  $\text{NO}_3$ -initiated reactions play a similarly important role as OH at  
nighttime for the second phase, however, for the first phase OH still dominates at nighttime.  
540  $\text{NO}_3$ -initiated reactions have also been shown to be important at daytime despite the rapid  
photolysis. The lifetime for both phases was short at 1-4 hours, which agrees with a previous  
study in a forest environment.

For the PANs analysis, a box model was used to simulate two individual days; one in the first  
phase of the ANs analysis and one in the second phase. Two constant physical loss terms are  
545 applied for each of the two days optimized to match the average daytime and nighttime mixing  
ratios. For the low precursor day (July 4<sup>th</sup> 2022), loss frequencies of  $5.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $1.8 \times 10^{-4}$   
 $\text{ s}^{-1}$  were used to align measurement and model for daytime and nighttime, respectively, while  
for the high precursor day (July 13<sup>th</sup> 2022)  $2.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $1.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  were used. This  
resulted in lifetimes of around 20 min and 4 min at midday for the low and high precursor day,  
550 respectively, where thermal decomposition contributed approximately 40 %. Peroxyacetic  
nitric anhydride (PAN) represents 48-78% of  $\Sigma$ PANs according to the box model, with the  
highest fractions predicted at daytime.

Lifetimes of organic nitrates in the forested environment are very short, with deposition,  
presumably to soil and foliar surfaces playing an important role in removing them from the gas  
555 phase. Through emission of reactive organic trace gases, the forest ecosystem thus captures  
essential nitrogen-containing nutrients originating from anthropogenic sources and transfers  
them to the biosphere.

## 6 Data Availability:

560 All measurements from the ACROSS campaign including  $\text{NO}_x$  (Andersen and Crowley,  
2023b; Xue et al., 2023),  $\text{O}_3$  (Crowley, 2023), organic nitrates (Andersen and Crowley, 2023a),



NO<sub>3</sub> reactivity (Dewald and Crowley, 2023), BVOCs (Michoud et al., 2024), meteorological quantities (Denjean, 2023), OH (Kukui, 2023a), and peroxy radicals (Kukui, 2023b) can be found at <https://across.aeris-data.fr/catalogue/> (last access: 31 August 2024).

565

#### 7 Author contribution:

All authors contributed with measurements. Data analysis was conducted by STA with contributions from JNC. RS did the box modelling. CC and VM organized the field campaign with contributions from the individual group leads. STA and JNC developed the manuscript with contributions from all authors.

570

#### 8 Competing Interests:

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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585

by the French national center for Atmospheric data and services AERIS.

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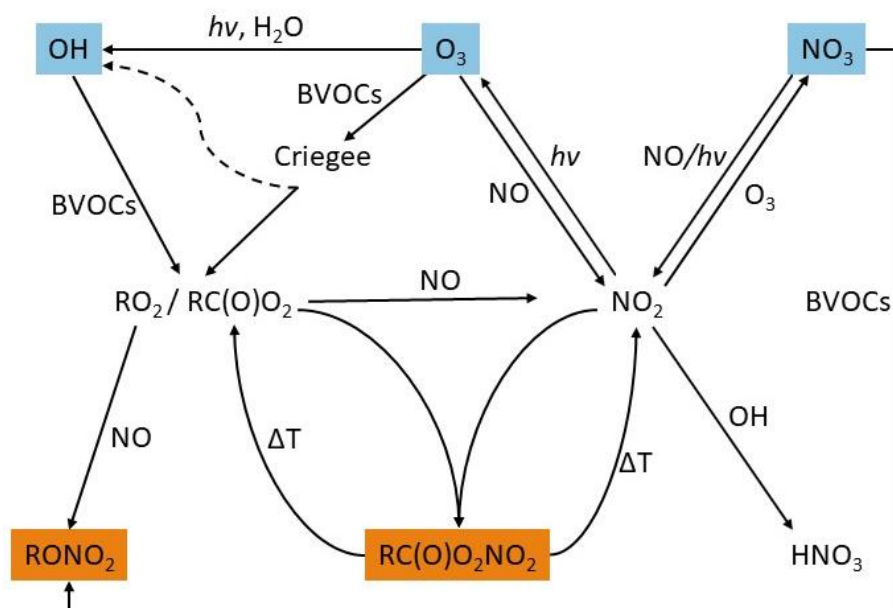
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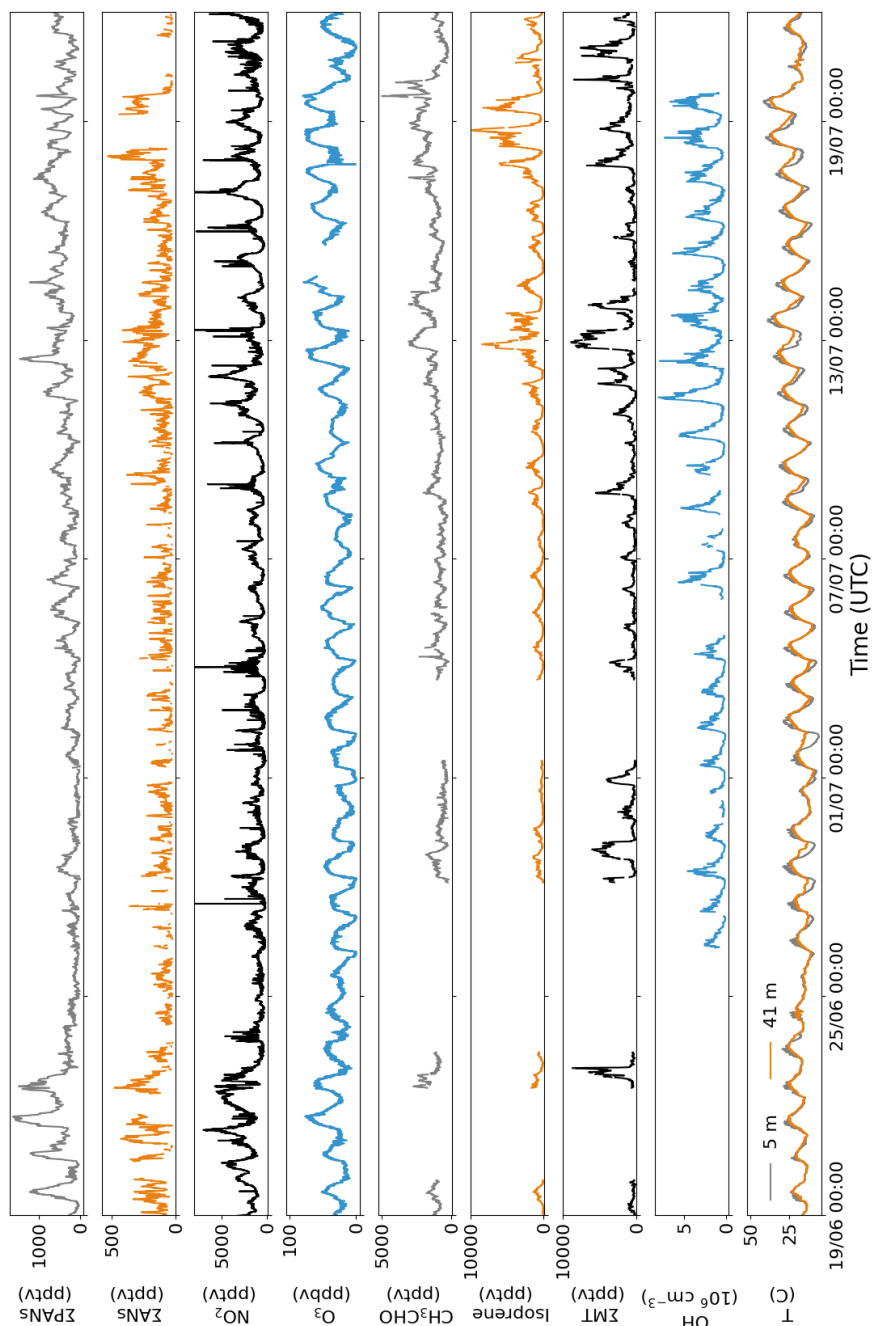


827 **11 Figures:**



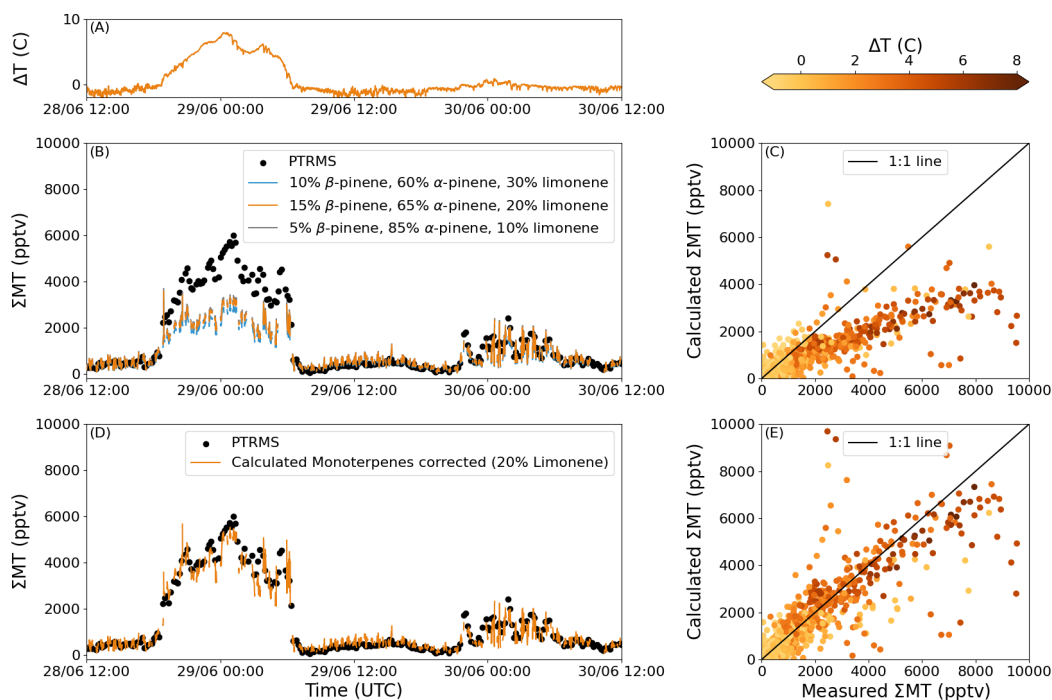
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829 Figure 1: Schematic diagram showing the formation of PANs (RC(O)O<sub>2</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>) and ANs (RONO<sub>2</sub>)  
830 from the oxidation of VOCs by OH, O<sub>3</sub>, and NO<sub>3</sub>. Reactions of RO<sub>2</sub> not relevant to the formation  
831 of RC(O)O<sub>2</sub>NO<sub>2</sub> and RONO<sub>2</sub> have been left out. Note that the scheme does not attempt to capture  
832 all formation routes of the primary oxidants, especially those of the OH-radical, which may  
833 additionally be formed in e.g. reactions of HO<sub>2</sub> with OH and photolysis of HONO.



834

835 Figure 2: Time series of 10-minute averages of  $\Sigma$ PANs,  $\Sigma$ ANs, acetaldehyde, isoprene, and sum  
836 of monoterpenes ( $\Sigma$ MT), 12-minute averages of OH radicals, and 1-minute averages of NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>,  
837 and temperature at 5 and 41 m during the ACROSS campaign.



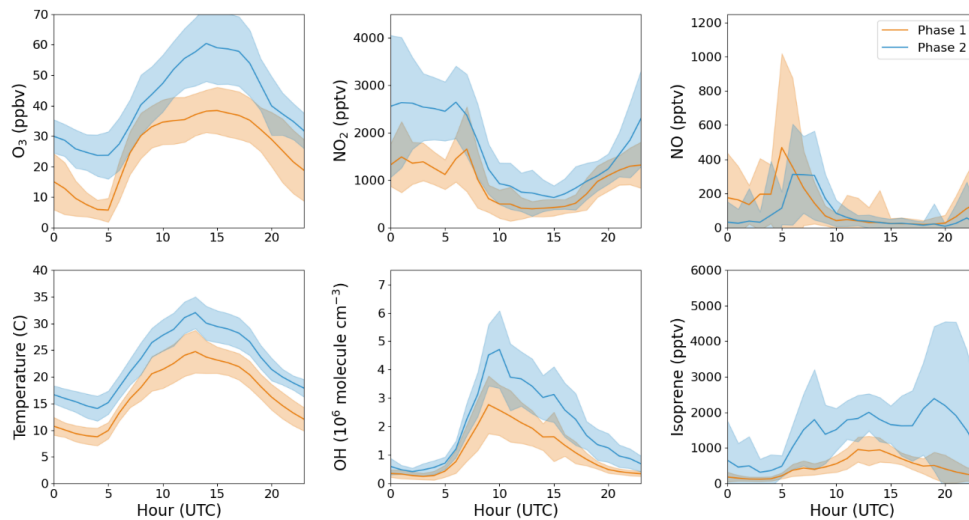
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839 Figure 3:  $\text{NO}_3$ -reactivity based estimation of monoterpene mixtures during ACROSS. Panel A  
840 shows the difference in temperature between 41 m and 5 m ( $\Delta T = T_{41\text{m}} - T_{5\text{m}}$ ) for 48 hours during  
841 ACROSS. Panel B shows the measured sum of monoterpenes ( $\Sigma\text{MT}$ ) and that calculated using eq.  
842 (1) with three different monoterpene mixtures. Panel C plots calculated against measured  $\Sigma\text{MT}$   
843 for the scenario with 20% limonene coloured by  $\Delta T$ . Panel D shows the scenario with 20%  
844 limonene from panel C using a mixture of 57%  $\beta$ -pinene and 43%  $\alpha$ -pinene when  $\Delta T > 1^\circ\text{C}$  and  
845 panel E shows the scatter plot after performing the correction for temperature inversions.



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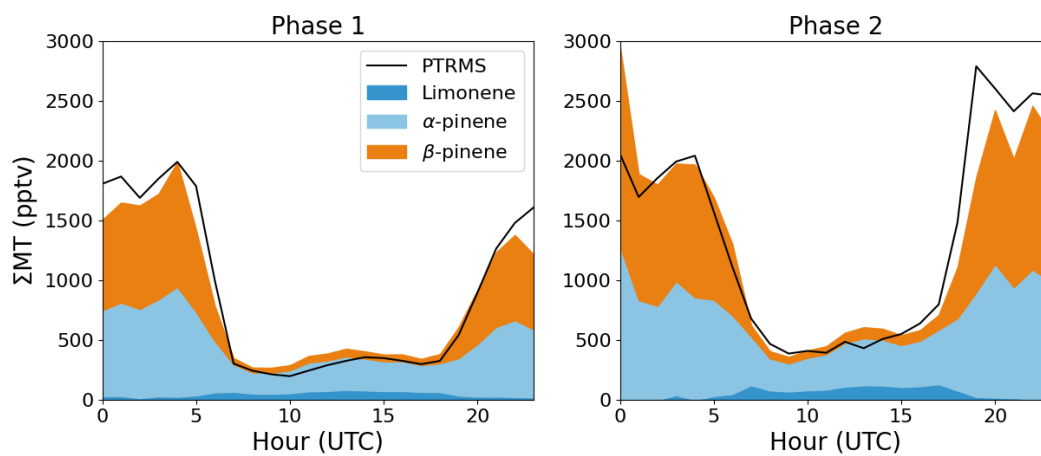
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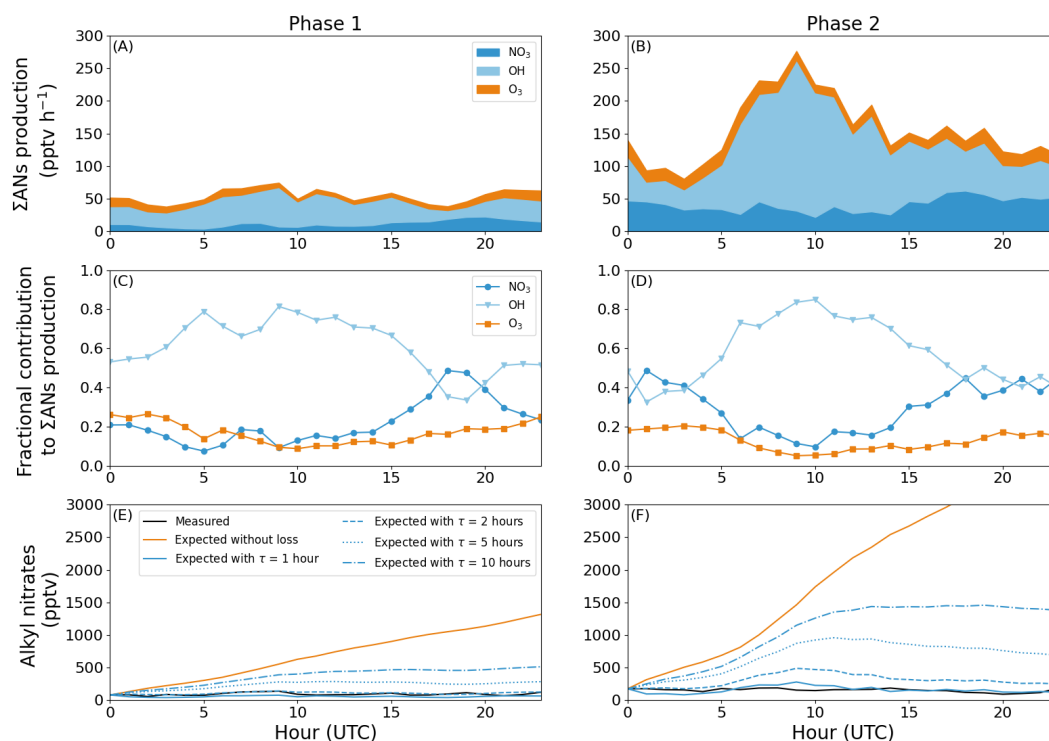
849 Figure 4: Diel profiles of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, temperature, OH, and isoprene for the two phases used to  
850 analyse organic nitrates during the ACROSS campaign; phase 1 from June 28<sup>th</sup> 2022 to July 7<sup>th</sup>  
851 2022 and phase 2 from July 8<sup>th</sup> 2022 to July 20<sup>th</sup> 2022. The shaded area is  $\pm 1\sigma$ .





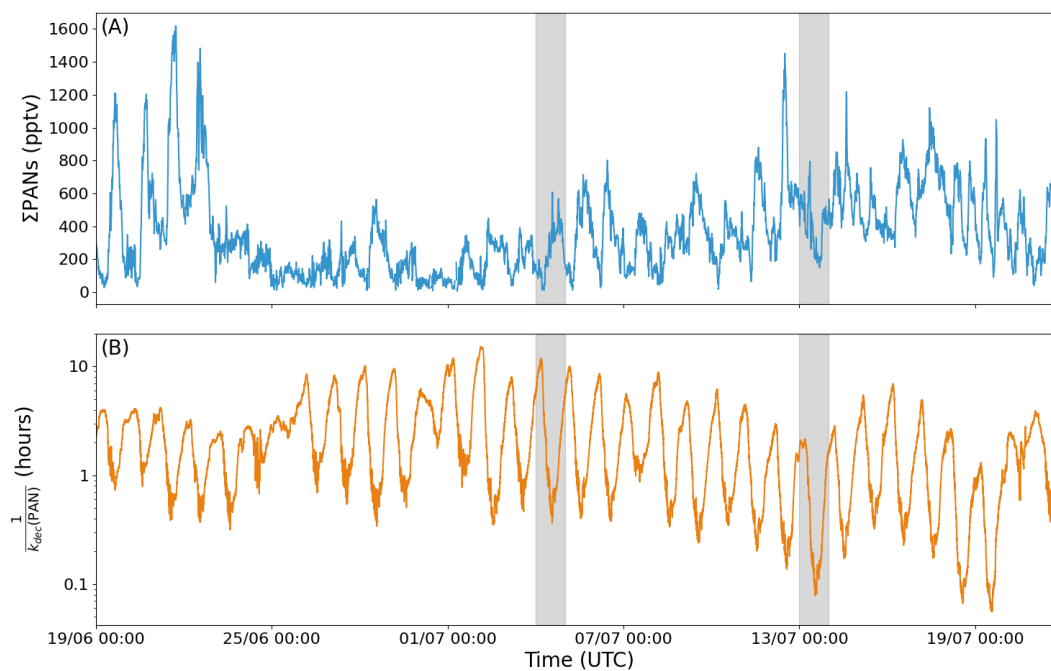
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853 Figure 5: Average diel profiles of the PTRMS measurements of the sum of monoterpenes (black)  
854 and the calculated, average mixture of limonene (dark blue),  $\alpha$ -pinene (light blue), and  $\beta$ -pinene  
855 (orange) for the scenario with 20% limonene.



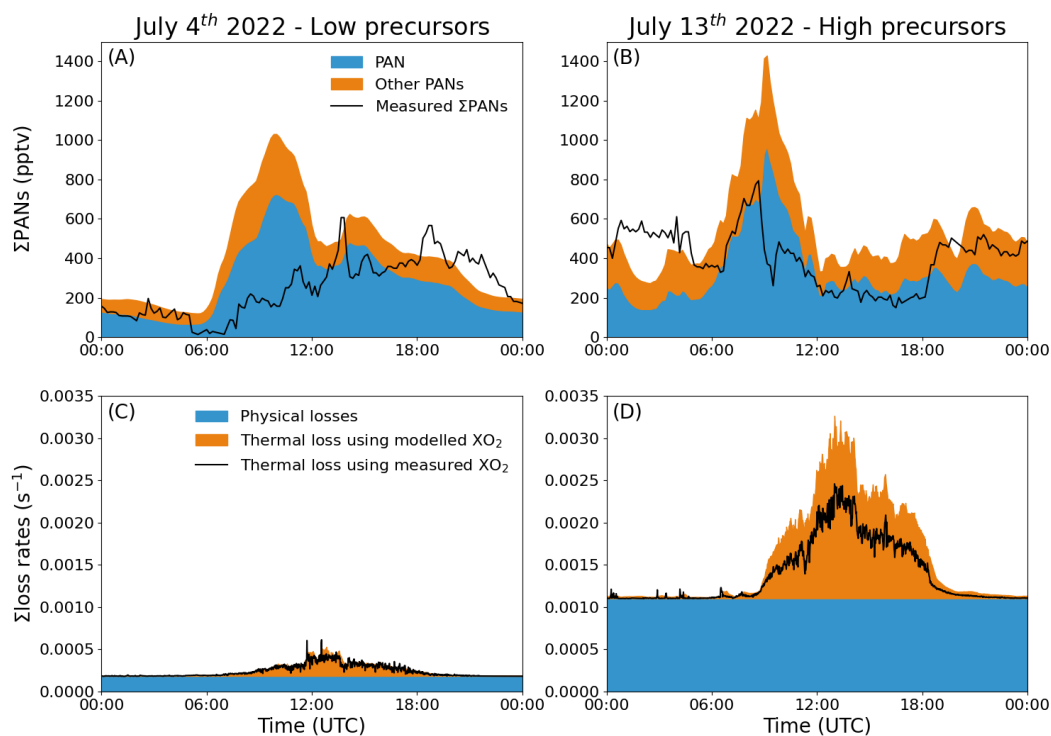
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857 Figure 6: Panel A and B show the diel profiles of the  $\Sigma$ ANs production rates from NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, OH<sup>-</sup>, and  
858 O<sub>3</sub>-initiated oxidation of a monoterpene mixture consisting of 20% limonene, 15% β-pinene, and  
859 65% α-pinene for phase 1 and 2, respectively. The fractional contribution to the  $\Sigma$ ANs for each  
860 oxidant is plotted in panel C and D. Panel E and F show the average diel profile across the two  
861 phases for the measured alkyl nitrates (black), expected alkyl nitrates with (blue) and without  
862 (orange) any losses, where the different blue lines were calculated using different effective  
863 lifetimes of the alkyl nitrates.



864

865 Figure 7: Time series of  $\Sigma$ PANs (A) and the thermal lifetime of PAN (B) during ACROSS, where  
866  $k_{dec}$  is the temperature dependent rate coefficient for the thermal decomposition of PAN using the  
867 expression preferred by the IUPAC panel (Iupac, 2024). Days marked in grey are used for analysis  
868 in Figure 8.



869

870 Figure 8: The measured and modelled when optimizing for nighttime agreement  $\Sigma$ PANs is plotted  
871 for two individual days; one with low precursors (A) and one with high precursors (B). The  
872 optimised physical loss for each day is shown in panel C and D together with the thermal  
873 decomposition when taking recombination into account using both the measured and modelled  
874 mixing ratio of  $XO_2$ .



875 **12 Tables:**

876 **Table 1: Rate coefficients and relevant yields for the calculation of  $\sum \text{PANs}$**

VOC	$k(\text{NO}_3)$ at 298 K ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	$\alpha^{\text{NO}_3}$	$k(\text{OH})$ at 298 K ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	$\alpha^{\text{RO}_2}$	$k(\text{O}_3)$ at 298 K ( $\text{cm}^3 \text{ molecules}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	$\alpha^{\text{O}_3}$ <sup>i</sup>
$\alpha$ -pinene	$6.2 \times 10^{-12}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.18 <sup>b</sup>	$5.3 \times 10^{-11}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.22 <sup>f</sup>	$9.6 \times 10^{-17}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.80 <sup>a</sup>
$\beta$ -pinene	$2.5 \times 10^{-12}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.49 <sup>c</sup>	$7.6 \times 10^{-11}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.24 <sup>g</sup>	$1.9 \times 10^{-17}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.30 <sup>a</sup>
<i>d</i> -limonene	$1.2 \times 10^{-11}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.50 <sup>d</sup>	$1.7 \times 10^{-10}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.23 <sup>g</sup>	$2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.66 <sup>a</sup>
Isoprene	$6.5 \times 10^{-13}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.77 <sup>e</sup>	$1.0 \times 10^{-10}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.13 <sup>h</sup>	$1.28 \times 10^{-17}$ <sup>a</sup>	0.26 <sup>a</sup>

877  $\alpha^{\text{NO}_3}$ : Yield of ANs from  $\text{NO}_3 + \text{BVOC}$  in air.

878  $\alpha^{\text{RO}_2}$ : Yield of ANs from  $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$  for the specific BVOC when the  $\text{RO}_2$  is formed from  $\text{BVOC} + \text{OH}$ .

879  $\alpha^{\text{O}_3}$ : Yield of  $\text{RO}_2$  from the ozonolysis of BVOC in air.

880 <sup>a</sup>Rate coefficients and yields recommended by IUPAC (Iupac, 2024; Mellouki et al., 2021; Cox et al., 2020).

881 <sup>b</sup>Average of Wängberg et al. (1997), Berndt and Böge (1997), Hallquist et al. (1999), Spittler et al. (2006), Fry et al. (2014), and Devault et al. (2022).

883 <sup>c</sup>Average of Hallquist et al. (1999), Fry et al. (2009), Fry et al. (2014), Clafin and Ziemann (2018), and Devault et al. (2022).

885 <sup>d</sup>Average of Hallquist et al. (1999), Spittler et al. (2006), Fry et al. (2011), Fry et al. (2014), and Devault et al. (2022).

886 <sup>e</sup>Average of Barnes et al. (1990), Berndt and Boge (1997), Perring et al. (2009), Kwan et al. (2012), Rollins et al. (2009), and Schwantes et al. (2015).

888 <sup>f</sup>Average of the yields given by Nozière et al. (1999) and Rindelaub et al. (2015).

889 <sup>g</sup>Perring et al. (2013).

890 <sup>h</sup>Recommended by Wennberg et al. (2018) based on multiple studies.

891 <sup>i</sup>Set equal to the OH yield of the ozonolysis since a  $\text{RO}_2$  is formed with each OH.

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895 **Table 2: Overview of the thermal, physical and total loss frequencies (and lifetimes) of ANs**  
 896 **and PANs needed to explain the measured ANs and PANs during ACROSS.**

		Phase 1 (Low photochemical activity)		Phase 2 (High photochemical activity)	
		Day	Night	Day	Night
ANs	Thermal loss frequency ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ) <sup>a</sup>	-	-	-	-
	Physical loss frequency ( $10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	$1.7 \pm 0.3$	$1.7 \pm 0.4$	$3.3 \pm 0.8$	$2.5 \pm 0.9$
	Total loss frequency ( $10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	$1.7 \pm 0.3$	$1.7 \pm 0.4$	$3.3 \pm 0.8$	$2.5 \pm 0.9$
	Total lifetime (h)	$1.7 \pm 0.2$	$1.7 \pm 0.5$	$0.9 \pm 0.2$	$1.3 \pm 0.5$
PANs	Thermal loss frequency ( $10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) <sup>a</sup>	$1.2 \pm 0.8$	$0.1 \pm 0.1$	$8.8 \pm 5.9$	$0.8 \pm 1.3$
	Physical loss frequency ( $10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	5.5	1.8	26	11
	Total loss frequency ( $10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	$6.7 \pm 0.8$	$1.9 \pm 0.1$	$34.8 \pm 5.9$	$11.8 \pm 1.3$
	Total lifetime (h)	$0.42 \pm 0.05$	$1.5 \pm 0.1$	$0.08 \pm 0.01$	$0.24 \pm 0.02$

897 <sup>a</sup>The thermal loss frequency has been corrected for the fractional recombination of  $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2$  with  $\text{NO}_2$ .

898 Day is defined as 06:00-18:00 UTC (08:00-20:00 LT). Night is defined as 18:00-06:00 UTC (20:00-08:00 LT).

899 All values except the modelled physical loss frequencies for PANs are given as the mean  $\pm 1\sigma$ . The ANs are based  
 900 on hourly averages for each phase and the PANs are based on modelled loss frequencies for one day during each  
 901 phase.  
 902