



1 **Using observed urban NO_x sinks to constrain VOC reactivity and the ozone and radical**
2 **budget in the Seoul Metropolitan Area**

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29



30 **Abstract**

31 Ozone (O_3) is an important secondary pollutant that impacts air quality and human health. Eastern
32 Asia has high regional O_3 background due to the numerous sources and increasing and rapid
33 industrial growth, which impacts the Seoul Metropolitan Area (SMA). However, SMA has also
34 been experiencing increasing O_3 driven by decreasing NO_x emissions, highlighting the role of
35 local, in-situ O_3 production on SMA. Here, comprehensive gas-phase measurements collected on
36 the NASA DC-8 during the NIER/NASA Korea United States-Air Quality (KORUS-AQ) study
37 are used to constrain the instantaneous O_3 production rate over the SMA. The observed NO_x
38 oxidized products support the importance of non-measured peroxy nitrates (PNs) in the O_3
39 chemistry in SMA, as they accounted for ~49% of the total PNs. Using the total measured PNs
40 (Σ PNs) and alkyl and multifunctional nitrates (Σ ANs), unmeasured volatile organic compound
41 (VOC) reactivity ($R(VOC)$) is constrained and found to range from 1.4 – 2.1 s^{-1} . Combining the
42 observationally constrained $R(VOC)$ with the other measurements on the DC-8, the instantaneous
43 net O_3 production rate, which is as high as ~ 10 ppbv hr^{-1} , along with the important sinks of O_3 and
44 radical chemistry, are constrained. This analysis shows that Σ PNs play an important role in both
45 the sinks of O_3 and radical chemistry. Since Σ PNs are assumed to be in steady-state, the results
46 here highlight the role Σ PNs play in urban environments in reducing net O_3 production, but Σ PNs
47 can potentially lead to increased net O_3 production downwind due to their short lifetime (~ 1 hr).
48 The results provide guidance for future measurements to identify the missing $R(VOCs)$ and Σ PNs
49 production.



50 **Short Summary**

51 Ozone (O_3) is a pollutant formed from the reactions of gases emitted from various sources. In
52 urban areas, the density of human activities can increase the O_3 formation rate ($P(O_3)$); thus, impact
53 air quality and health. Observations collected over Seoul, South Korea, are used to constrain $P(O_3)$.
54 A high local $P(O_3)$ was found; however, local $P(O_3)$ was partly reduced due to compounds typically
55 ignored. These observations also provide constraints for unmeasured compounds that will impact
56 $P(O_3)$.



57 **1. Introduction**

58 Representing global and urban tropospheric ozone (O_3) in chemical transport models
59 (CTMs) is still challenging due to uncertainty in physical and chemical processes that control the
60 O_3 budget (Archibald et al., 2020). One area of uncertainty is underestimated urban volatile organic
61 compounds (VOCs) emissions (von Schneidemesser et al., 2023), which arise from a large number
62 of sources, including some that are very hard to quantify (e.g., cooking and chemical product)
63 (e.g., McDonald et al., 2018; Simpson et al., 2020). Intensive research is also ongoing as to why
64 O_3 is increasing in recent years in urban areas, even with reductions in combustion emissions (e.g.,
65 Lyu et al., 2017; Colombi et al., 2023). This O_3 impacts the large populations in urban areas with
66 harmful health effects, including premature mortality (e.g., Cohen et al., 2017).

67 Tropospheric O_3 production is driven by the catalytic cycling of nitrogen oxides ($NO_x =$
68 $NO + NO_2$) fueled by the photooxidation of VOCs, both of which can come from anthropogenic
69 emissions. The chemistry producing O_3 is described in R1 – R6 in Table 1. During daylight hours,
70 VOCs are oxidized by OH (or undergo photolysis) to form an organic peroxy radical (RO_2^{\cdot}) in
71 R1a (R1b). If the RO_2^{\cdot} then proceeds through R2a, at least two O_3 molecules are produced. The
72 first O_3 molecule is formed by the photolysis of NO_2 and the reaction of $O(^3P)$ with oxygen (R3 –
73 R4). The second O_3 molecule is formed through the reaction of the alkoxy radical (RO^{\cdot}) with
74 oxygen to form the hydroperoxyl radical (HO_2^{\cdot}) (R5), which goes on to react with NO to produce
75 NO_2 (R6) and the subsequent reactions described above (R3 – R4). However, some fraction of the
76 time, depending on the number of carbons and functional group (e.g., Espada and Shepson, 2005;
77 Perring et al., 2013; Yeh and Ziemann, 2014), alkyl or multifunctional nitrates ($ANs \equiv RONO_2$)
78 are formed (R2b). The fraction of reactions to form ANs is described by the branching ratio, α .
79 Reaction R2b has been shown to impact O_3 production, depending on the types of VOC emitted,



80 by reducing the fraction of NO_2 that photolyzes to form O_3 in source regions (R3 – R4) (Farmer et
81 al., 2011). As α is a function of the individual VOC's carbon backbone and functional group (e.g.,
82 Perring et al., 2013), any uncertainty related to primary VOC emissions and secondary chemistry
83 will directly impact the ability to describe urban O_3 production.

84 One important subclass of VOCs aldehydes (RCHO), which can either be directly emitted
85 or produced via photooxidation of VOCs (Mellouki et al., 2015; de Gouw et al., 2018; Yuan et al.,
86 2012; Wang et al., 2022). The photooxidation of the aldehyde (R7) in the presence of NO_x can
87 either form acyl peroxy nitrates (R8, $\text{PNs} = \text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2\text{NO}_2$) or an organic peroxy radical (RO_2^\cdot) (R9).
88 The competition between R8 to form PNs versus R9 to form RO_2^\cdot depends on the NO -to- NO_2 ratio
89 (Nihill et al., 2021). Further, R8 is in thermodynamic equilibrium due to the weak bond strength
90 between the acyl peroxy radical ($\text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2^\cdot$) and NO_2 . Thus, formation of PNs pose only a temporary
91 loss of NO_2 . Finally, it has been observed that aldehydes with longer carbon backbones (e.g., C8s
92 and C9s) from various anthropogenic activities, such as cooking (Coggon et al., 2024; Rao et al.,
93 2010), may have mixing ratios as high as aldehydes typically quantified in field experiments
94 (acetaldehyde and propaldehyde). However, there is larger uncertainty associated with these higher
95 aldehydes in their fate to produce both PNs and ANs (e.g., Hurst Bowman et al., 2003). Missing
96 both these emissions and subsequent chemistry would impact estimates of urban O_3 chemistry.

97 The fraction of RO_2^\cdot forming ANs in R2b and the fraction of $\text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2^\cdot$ forming PNs in R8
98 alter the instantaneous O_3 production ($\text{P}(\text{O}_3)$) by removing NO_2 and/or the radical species. This is
99 further shown in Figure S1, where an analytical equation to describe R1 – R6 (Farmer et al., 2011),
100 is used to explore how changes in the VOC reactivity ($\text{R}(\text{VOC})$), radical production ($\text{P}(\text{HO}_x)$), and
101 ANs production and branching ratio, α (R2b), impact the instantaneous $\text{P}(\text{O}_3)$ (see Sect. S1 for the
102 analytical equation and description). Any changes in $\text{P}(\text{HO}_x)$, $\text{R}(\text{VOC})$, and/or α will impact both



103 the instantaneous $P(O_3)$ as well as the NO_x mixing ratio corresponding to the maximum $P(O_3)$. As
104 these parameters are generally interconnected, investigating all three is important to understand
105 the sources and control of instantaneous $P(O_3)$. Further, R7 – R9 are not included in this traditional
106 description of the analytical equation, as it is assumed PNs are in steady-state (Farmer et al., 2011).
107 Thus, if PNs are not in steady-state, their role in altering $P(O_3)$ may be underestimated.

108 Increasing surface O_3 is a concern throughout East Asia, including South Korea (Colombi
109 et al., 2023; Gaudel et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2021; Yeo and Kim, 2021). The emissions associated
110 with industry and other anthropogenic activities and the associated photochemistry have impacted
111 regional air quality, leading to high O_3 backgrounds that can impact a country's ability to achieve
112 reduced O_3 exposure for new air quality standards (e.g., Colombi et al., 2023). However, local
113 emissions and photochemistry still play an important role. For example, during the Korea-United
114 States Air Quality (KORUS-AQ) campaign, it was observed between morning and afternoon in
115 the Seoul Metropolitan Area (SMA), O_3 increased by ~20 parts per billion by volume (ppbv) over
116 a background concentration of over 75 ppbv (Crawford et al., 2021). Thus, an understanding of
117 the variables highlighted in Figure S1 are necessary to control both local and regional $P(O_3)$.

118 One tool typically used to understand the role of regional O_3 and transported O_3 on local
119 O_3 and impacts of local emission controls on O_3 are CTMs. As shown in Park et al. (2021), for the
120 SMA, CTMs typically underestimate the observed O_3 and formaldehyde. While the low O_3 could
121 be partially related to underestimated transport (e.g., Seo et al., 2018) or resolution of the CTM
122 (e.g., Jo et al., 2023; Park et al., 2021), the low bias also observed for modeled formaldehyde
123 indicates overall (a) too little VOCs and thus too low $R(VOC)$ (Brune et al., 2022; H. Kim et al.,
124 2022), (b) missing photochemical products from missing VOCs, including oxygenated VOCs
125 (OVOCs) that contribute to $P(HO_x)$ (Brune et al., 2022; H. Kim et al., 2022; Lee et al., 2022; Wang



126 et al., 2022), and (c) likely missing PNs and ANs from the underestimated VOCs related to the
127 underestimated R(VOC) (Lee et al., 2022; Park et al., 2021). Missing (a) – (c) will bias the
128 instantaneous P(O₃) (Figure S1), impacting the ability to investigate what policies should be
129 implemented to reduce O₃.

130 To better understand what controls the instantaneous P(O₃) over SMA, observations
131 collected on the NASA DC-8 during KORUS-AQ are used to constrain the three variables
132 highlighted in Figure S1—R(VOC), HO_x production and loss, and ANs and PNs production.
133 Observational constraints on these three parameters provide a means to investigate the
134 instantaneous P(O₃) over SMA and the major classes of contributors to O₃ and HO_x production
135 and loss. These results are discussed and placed into the context of improving our knowledge about
136 O₃ production in an urban environment.

137

138 **2. Methods and Data Description**

139 **2.1 KORUS-AQ and DC-8 Descriptions**

140 The KORUS-AQ campaign was a multi-national project that was conducted in May – June,
141 2016, led by South Korea’s National Institute of Environmental Research (NIER) and United
142 States National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). The project was conducted in
143 South Korea and the surrounding seas with numerous airborne platforms, research vessels, and
144 ground sites (Crawford et al., 2021). The study here focuses on the observations collected on the
145 NASA DC-8.

146 The instrument payload, flights, and observations have been described in other studies
147 (Crawford et al., 2021; Schroeder et al., 2020; Brune et al., 2022; Lee et al., 2022). Briefly, the
148 DC-8 was stationed at Osan Air Force Base, Pyeongtaek, South Korea, which is approximately 60



149 km south of Seoul. A total of 20 research flights were conducted with the DC-8. Part of each
150 research flights included a stereo-route in the SMA in the morning (~09:00 local time), midday
151 (~12:00 local time), and afternoon (~15:00 local time), which included a missed approach over
152 Seoul Air Base (< 15 km from Seoul city center) and a fly-over of the Olympic Park and Taehwa
153 Forest Research sites (Figure 1). A total of 55 descents over Olympic Park and 53 spirals over
154 Taehwa Forest Research site were conducted (Crawford et al., 2021). Only observations from the
155 DC-8 after 11:00 local time are used here to ensure that the boundary layer has grown and
156 stabilized and to minimize any influence from residual layer mixing into the boundary layer and/or
157 titration of O₃ by NO (R10). We analyze data collected below 2 km and between 127.10 – 127.67°E
158 and 37.22 – 37.69°N to focus on the boundary layer in the SMA without influence from industrial
159 emissions along the western South Korean coast (Crawford et al., 2021).

160 During KORUS-AQ, four different meteorological periods, as described by Peterson et al.
161 (2019), impacted the region. These periods included a Dynamic period from 1 – 16 May, where
162 there were a series of frontal passages; a Stagnant period from 17 – 22 May, where it was dry,
163 clear, and stagnant; Transport/Haze period from 25 – 31 May, where long-range transport and hazy
164 conditions with high humidity and cloud cover prevailed; and, a Blocking period from 1 – 7 June,
165 where blocking conditions minimized transport (Peterson et al., 2019). However, as discussed in
166 Sect. 3.2, conditions did not impact the general trends and chemistry and thus the whole campaign
167 has been analyzed together.

168 The observations used for the analysis are shown in Table 2, along with the associated
169 references. The 1-min merged data from the DC-8 is used here (KORUS-AQ Science Team, 2023).
170 For data missing due to frequency of measurements (e.g., VOCs from WAS), data was filled in a
171 similar approach as Schroeder et al. (2020), in that VOCs with missing data were filled by the



172 linear relationship of that VOC with VOCs measured more frequently. This step was necessary for
173 the observations used in the diel steady-state calculations described in Sect. 2.2. Note, the TD-LIF
174 NO₂ (see Table 2) was used throughout this study and discussed in Sect. S2 and Figure S2 – S3 as
175 it generally agreed better with steady-state calculated NO₂-to-NO ratios than the
176 chemiluminescence NO₂.

177

178 **2.2 F0AM Box Model Diel Steady-State Calculations for Missing Reactivity and** 179 **Peroxynitrate Budget Analysis**

180 We use the F0AM box model (Wolfe et al., 2016) with chemistry from the MCMv3.3.1
181 (Jenkin et al., 2015) to simulate production of PNs and formaldehyde using 1-min merged data, as
182 described in Sect. 2.1. As in Schroeder et al. (2020), we simulate each aircraft observation in
183 diurnal cycle mode until the diurnal cycle for each species reaches convergence within 1%. We
184 constrain concentrations of NO, O₃, H₂O₂, HNO₃, CO, CH₄, H₂, and all measured or estimated
185 VOCs given in Table 2 and Table S1. We allow the model to freely calculate NO₂, formaldehyde,
186 and all PNs, including PAN and PPN, for when calculating the budget of PNs. However, for the
187 acyl peroxy radical mixing ratios to calculate O_x and HO_x budget (Sect. 2.3), PAN and PPN were
188 constrained by observations. We use a dilution constant of 12 hours, according to Brune et al.
189 (2022). Model evaluation is discussed in Sect. 3.4. The contribution of individual VOCs to PAN
190 was calculated by reducing precursor VOCs by 20% and multiplying the resulting impact on the
191 peroxy acetyl radical (CH₃C(O)O₂) by 5. Other acyl peroxy nitrates (higher PNs) are lumped into
192 categories based on their primary precursor species from Table S2, species currently typically



193 measured (e.g., PPN) or contributes a large fraction of the total higher PNs budget (greater than
194 >2%; e.g., PHAN and MPAN).

195

196 **2.3 Calculation of Instantaneous Ozone and HO_x Production and Loss**

197 An experimental budget for the production and loss of O_x (O_x = O₃ + NO₂) and HO_x (HO_x
198 = OH + HO₂ + RO₂[·] + R(O)O₂[·]) is described here. NO₂ and O₃ are combined to reduce any potential
199 impact from titration via O₃ reaction with NO (R10). The budget analysis includes field-measured
200 quantities (mixing ratios and photolysis rates, Table 2), results from F0AM (Sect. 2.2), estimated
201 missing R(VOC) (Sect. 3.2) and published kinetic rate constants (see Table 1 for references). The
202 rate of production or destruction is calculated with the following equations (Eq. 1 – 7) below. Note,
203 these equations differ from Schroeder et al. (2020) in that (a) ANs and PNs chemistry are explicitly
204 included and (b) the reaction of O₃ with alkenes is excluded as this reaction contributed a minor
205 loss to O₃ (< 1%).

$$206 \quad P_{O_x} = \sum_i (1 - \alpha_{\text{eff}}) k_{\text{RO}_{2,i} + \text{NO}} [\text{RO}_{2,i}^{\cdot}] [\text{NO}] + k_{\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO}} [\text{HO}_2] [\text{NO}] \quad (1)$$

$$207 \quad L_{O_x} = k_{\text{NO}_2 + \text{OH}} [\text{NO}_2] [\text{OH}] + k_{\text{O}_3 + \text{OH}} [\text{O}_3] [\text{OH}] + f \times j_{\text{O}^1\text{D}} [\text{O}_3] +$$

$$208 \quad k_{\text{HO}_2 + \text{O}_3} [\text{HO}_2] [\text{O}_3] + \text{net(PNs)} \quad (2)$$

$$209 \quad \text{net(PNs)} = \beta k_{\text{R(O)O}_2 + \text{NO}_2} [\text{R(O)O}_2^{\cdot}] [\text{NO}_2] - (1 - \beta) k_{\text{decomposition}} [\text{PNs}] \quad (3)$$

$$210 \quad \beta = \frac{k_{\text{R(O)O}_2 + \text{NO}_2} [\text{NO}_2]}{k_{\text{R(O)O}_2 + \text{NO}_2} [\text{NO}_2] + k_{\text{R(O)O}_2 + \text{NO}} [\text{NO}]} \quad (4)$$

$$211 \quad P(\text{HO}_x) = 2f \times j_{\text{O}^1\text{D}} [\text{O}_3] + 2j_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2} [\text{H}_2\text{O}_2] + 2j_{\text{CH}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H} + \text{HCO}} [\text{CH}_2\text{O}] + 2j_{\text{CHOCHO}} [\text{CHOCHO}] +$$

$$212 \quad 2j_{\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}} [\text{CH}_3\text{OOH}] + 2j_{\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}} [\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] + 2j_{\text{CH}_3\text{C(O)CH}_3} [\text{CH}_3\text{C(O)CH}_3] +$$

$$213 \quad 2j_{\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{C(O)CH}_3} [\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{C(O)CH}_2] \quad (5)$$



$$L(\text{HO}_x) = k_{\text{NO}_2+\text{OH}}[\text{NO}_2][\text{OH}] + \sum_i \alpha_{\text{eff}} k_{\text{RO}_2, i+\text{NO}}[\text{RO}_2, i][\text{NO}] + 2k_{\text{HO}_2+\text{HO}_2}[\text{HO}_2][\text{HO}_2] + 2k_{\text{RO}_2+\text{RO}_2}[\text{RO}_2][\text{RO}_2] + 2k_{\text{HO}_2+\text{RO}_2}[\text{HO}_2][\text{RO}_2] + \text{net}(\text{PNs}) \quad (6)$$

$$[\text{RO}_2] = \frac{\sum_i k_{\text{OH}+\text{VOC}, i}[\text{VOC}, i][\text{OH}]}{(1-\alpha_{\text{eff}})k_{\text{RO}_2+\text{NO}}[\text{NO}] + k_{\text{RO}_2+\text{HO}_2}[\text{HO}_2]} \quad (7)$$

Here, k is the rate constant for compound, i , with the associated compound listed, α_{eff} is the effective branching ratio for R2a and R2b for the observations (Sect. 3.2), f is the fraction that O^1D that reacts with water to form OH versus reacting with a third body molecule to form O^3P , β is the fraction the $\text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2'$ that reacts with NO_2 versus NO , and j is the measured photolysis frequency (Table 2). Note, $\text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2'$ is not included in Eq. 7 as (a) it is assumed the initial production of $\text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2'$ is captured with the reaction of OH with VOC and (b) $\text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2'$ accounts for a small fraction of the total RO_2 ($< 10\%$). Not including $\text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2'$ in Eq. 7 may lead to a small underestimation of total RO_2' . Finally, HO_2 calculated from FOAM is used in the equations to determine the O_x and HO_x budget.

226

227 3. Observational constraints on NO_x organic oxidation chemistry

In the Sect. 3.1, the detailed observations from the DC-8 during KORUS-AQ provided measurements that allow us to test our understanding of NO_x oxidation into total NO_z ($\text{NO}_z =$ higher NO_x oxides, including ΣPNs , ΣANs , HNO_3 and particulate nitrate, pNO_3), which is needed for the remainder of the analysis. Sect. 3.2 to 3.4 will focus on the organic NO_z chemistry. This is due to the chemistry and dynamics impacting the total inorganic nitrate chemistry that has been discussed recently (Travis et al., 2022; Jordan et al., 2020).

234

235 3.1 NO_x and its oxidation products



236 The average NO_x mixing ratios observed by the NASA DC-8 in the SMA below 2 km after
237 11:00 local time is shown in Figure 1. As NO_x is mainly emitted from anthropogenic activities,
238 such as combustion emissions, in an urban environment, the largest NO_x mixing ratios are
239 observed between Olympic Park and the missed approach, as this area included downtown SMA.
240 As the DC-8 flies from the missed approach toward Taehwa Research Site, the NO_x mixing ratios
241 decreases. The combination of reduced emissions, chemical reactions, and dilution and mixing
242 reduces the NO_x mixing ratios away from the city. An understanding of these processes is
243 important for urban $\text{P}(\text{O}_x)$.

244 On the DC-8, there were multiple measurements of various speciated and total family
245 contribution towards NO_z (Table 2). The comparison of the speciated and measured NO_z is
246 investigated in Figure 2 for observations over SMA. When only speciated PNs (GT) and ANs (CIT
247 + WAS) and gas-phase nitrate (HNO_3) are compared to the NO_z (NO_y (NCAR) – (NO (NCAR) +
248 NO_2 (TD-LIF)), only 46% of the NO_z can be explained. This is not completely unexpected, as
249 multiple studies have indicated that the speciated ANs measurements are typically lower than the
250 total ANs measurements (Perring et al., 2010; Fisher et al., 2016). Further, pNO_3 has been found
251 to be important for total nitrate budget in the SMA (e.g., Travis et al., 2022). Chemiluminescence
252 measurements of gas-phase NO_y have been found to efficiently measure pNO_3 , depending on the
253 sensitivity to pNO_3 enhancements or exclusions (Bourgeois et al., 2022); thus, it is expected that
254 missing ANs and pNO_3 are necessary to close the NO_z budget. Adding the measured pNO_3 to the
255 speciated PNs (GT) and ANs (CIT + WAS) and gas-phase nitric acid, 81% of NO_z can be
256 explained. This barely overlaps the combined uncertainty of the measurements (~26%). Total PNs
257 and ANs, measured by TD-LIF, are needed to close of the total NO_z budget.



258 The breakdown of the NO_z budget over the SMA as the airmasses photochemically ages
259 (decreasing NO_x contribution to total NO_y) is shown in Figure 2b. During KORUS-AQ, ~56% of
260 NO_z was inorganic (gas- and particle-phase nitrate), ranging from 52% to 62%; the remaining NO_z
261 was organic (PNs and ANs). Approximately 74% of the total ANs were not speciated (range 73%
262 to 76%). Speciated PNs species, such as PAN (peroxy acetyl nitrate), account for a mean 51% of
263 the total PNs (range 47 to 59%), much lower than typically observed in prior studies (e.g.,
264 Wooldridge et al., 2010). In these prior studies, the speciated PN species (typically PAN + PPN
265 (peroxy propionyl nitrate)) accounted for 90 – 100% of the Σ PNs, except for some select cases
266 attributed to poor inlet design (Wooldridge et al., 2010). PAN accounted for the majority of the
267 speciated PNs, with the remaining speciated PNs (PPN + PBzN (peroxy benzoyl nitrate) + APAN
268 (peroxy acryloyl nitrate)) accounting for ~1%. However, during KORUS-AQ, Lee et al. (2022)
269 observed that PAN contributed only 60% of calculated total PNs in industrial plumes near the
270 SMA. Thus, the VOC emissions in and near SMA potentially lead to PNs typically not directly
271 measured; this is explored more in Sect. 3.4

272 As NO_x decreases from ~30 ppbv to 4 ppbv, the contribution of organic NO_z increases
273 (Figure 2b). At about 4 ppbv, the contribution of organic NO_z starts to decrease. Further, the
274 contribution of the different organic NO_z species changes. For example, from ~30 ppbv to 4 ppbv,
275 the un-speciated Σ PNs contributes the majority of the organic NO_z budget (~39%). Below ~4 ppbv,
276 the contribution of un-speciated Σ PNs decreases and the PAN contribution increases. The change
277 in contribution of PNs is due to changes in the PN precursors (e.g., combination short-lived
278 precursors oxidizing to $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2^\cdot$ and thermal decomposition of the higher PNs (higher PNs =
279 Σ PNs – PAN)). On the other hand, the contribution of un-speciated Σ ANs remains relatively
280 constant with NO_x (~6% of total NO_z). However, the type of ANs is most likely changing with



281 NO_x due to the lifetime of the ANs precursors and/or the lifetime of ANs. Less is known about the
282 lifetime of ANs derived from anthropogenically emitted VOCs compared to those from biogenic
283 VOCs (González-Sánchez et al., 2023; Picquet-Varrault et al., 2020; Zare et al., 2018). On average
284 unknown ANs and PNs account for ~24% of the observed NO_z on average.

285

286 **3.2 Meteorological impact on NO_x oxidation**

287 As discussed in Sect. 2.1 and various prior studies, four different meteorological conditions
288 impacted the observations during KORUS-AQ (Peterson et al., 2019). The impact of the
289 meteorological conditions on NO_x oxidation was investigated by plotting two metrics of NO_x
290 oxidation—O_x versus ΣANs and ΣPNs versus formaldehyde (Figure 3). The implications of both
291 plots are further discussed in Sect. 3.3 and 3.4, respectively. Briefly, O_x versus ΣANs and ΣPNs
292 versus formaldehyde are competitive products from the reaction of RO₂' or R(O)O₂' with NO_x
293 (R2a versus R2b or R8 versus R9). The different meteorological periods corresponded to
294 differences in temperatures and amount of photolysis due to cloud cover (Peterson et al., 2019).
295 Thus, these different periods may impact gas-phase chemistry and/or VOC emissions. However,
296 as demonstrated in Figure 3, there are minimal systematic differences in the trends observed for
297 the two NO_x oxidation products as there is no systematic shift in the trends or scatter observed in
298 Figure 3. This suggests that the data does not have to be separated by meteorological conditions.

299

300 **3.3 Production of ANs to constrain R(VOC)**

301 Observations of un-specified ANs and PNs imply missing VOCs that impact O₃ chemistry.
302 The relationship of ANs to O_x can provide a method to investigate this source. This relationship
303 provides an estimate of the effective branching ratio, α, for the observed VOC mix (Perring et al.,



2013 and references therein). The value of this relationship stems from the reactions discussed
above (R1 – R6) in that upon the oxidation of VOCs, some fraction of the time, RO_2' reacts with
NO to form an AN molecule and the remainder of the time the reaction goes to form O_3 . This is
expressed with the following equations:

$$P_{\Sigma ANs} = \sum \alpha_i k_{OH+VOCi} [OH][VOC_i] \quad (8)$$

$$P(O_x) = \sum_i \gamma_i (1 - \alpha_i) k_{OH+VOCi} [OH][VOC_i] \quad (9)$$

Here, α is the effective branching ratio in the reaction of RO_2' with NO to form ANs versus RO_2'
(R2), k is the OH rate constant with VOC, i , and γ is the number of O_3 molecules formed per
oxidation of VOC, i . The γ , calculated for the observed and calculated compounds from F0AM
using the values from MCM (Jenkin et al., 2015), is found to be, on average, 1.53, which is lower
than the value of 2 typically assumed in prior studies (e.g., Perring et al., 2013). This lower γ is
due to the role of CO and CH_2O to the total reactivity. After the boundary layer height has
stabilized (e.g., after 11:00 am LT used here) and is near enough (e.g., less than 1 day aging) to
the VOC source to ignore deposition and entrainment, Eq. 8 and 9 can be combined to approximate
the change in O_x per molecule ΣAN formed:

$$\frac{\Delta O_x}{\Delta \Sigma ANs} \approx \frac{P_{O_x}}{P_{\Sigma ANs}} \approx \frac{1.53(1-\alpha)}{\alpha} \quad (10)$$

For this equation to be valid, α needs to be relatively small ($\alpha \ll 1$), which is true for VOCs, as
maximum α for the conditions of KORUS-AQ is expected to be 0.35 (Orlando and Tyndall, 2012;
Perring et al., 2013; Yeh and Ziemann, 2014). Note, though Eq. 10 can be used at short
photochemical ages due to minimal impact from physical loss processes, chemical loss processes
may impact the assumptions in Eq. 10 and are discussed in more detail below.

Over the SMA during KORUS-AQ, the slope between O_x and ΣANs was observed to be
 40.5 ± 1.8 (Figure 3a), with an $R^2 = 0.60$. Using Eq. 10, this translates to an effective branching



327 ratio (α_{eff}), of 0.036. For other urban locations around the world, this slope has ranged from 13 –
328 47 (Farmer et al., 2011; Kenagy et al., 2020; Perring et al., 2010; Rosen et al., 2004), leading to an
329 effective α between 0.04 and 0.15, assuming a γ of 2 instead of the calculated γ used here. Thus,
330 the α_{eff} observed over SMA during KORUS-AQ is similar to other urban locations (Houston =
331 0.05 (Rosen et al., 2004) and South Korea = 0.05 (Kenagy et al., 2021)) but much lower than
332 observed for Mexico City = 0.07 – 0.12 (Perring et al., 2010; Farmer et al., 2011) and Denver =
333 0.16 (Kenagy et al., 2020). This suggests that VOCs with low α dominate the total R(VOC) and
334 production of ANs in SMA. The VOCs in SMA that dominate R(VOCs), including OVOCs,
335 alkenes, and aromatics (Schroeder et al., 2020; Simpson et al., 2020), generally have lower α
336 (Perring et al., 2013 and references therein; Orlando and Tyndall, 2012).

337 We use the observed VOCs (Table 2) to calculate α_{eff} from this mixture to compare to the
338 calculated α_{eff} of 0.036 derived from the slope of O_x versus ΣANs in Figure 3a, as shown in Figure
339 4. The R(VOC) calculated from the observed VOCs and from the intermediates produced by the
340 F0AM model, described in Sect. 2.2, are shown in Figure 4a, and the reactivity weighted α for the
341 observations is shown in Figure 4b. As has been observed in other urban environments (e.g.,
342 Hansen et al., 2021; Whalley et al., 2016; Whalley et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2022;), measured
343 OVOCs contribute the most to the calculated R(VOC) for all NO_x mixing ratios (32 – 48%). The
344 unmeasured OVOCs (F0AM species) contributed 17 – 28% of the calculated reactivity. The F0AM
345 species reactivity ranged from 0.45 – 1.78 s^{-1} , which is a similar increase in total OH reactivity
346 observed by Brune et al. (2022) over South Korea. At higher NO_x mixing ratios, primary, more
347 reactive VOCs (e.g., alkanes, alkenes, aromatics) contribute an important fraction ($> 25\%$) of the
348 R(VOC). As there are interferences in the total OH reactivity measurement at high NO_x (Brune et
349 al., 2022), we are unable to determine the extent to which the observed and modeled reactivity



350 captures total OH reactivity in the SMA above a NO_x value of approximately 4 ppbv. At lower
351 NO_x mixing ratios, ~33% of the R(VOC) is missing (calculated R(VOC), including F0AM species,
352 $\sim 3.0 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and measured R(VOC) from Penn State—see Table 2—is 4.5 s^{-1}).

353 Numerous other urban studies have observed unmeasured OH reactivity, which is assumed
354 to be unmeasured R(VOC), as the inorganic OH reactivity is typically well covered by
355 measurements. This unmeasured R(VOC) has ranged from $\sim 3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ to $\sim 10 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (e.g., Brune et al.,
356 2022; Hansen et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2022; Tan et al., 2019; Whalley et al., 2016;
357 Whalley et al., 2021). Over the SMA, the difference between measured and calculated R(VOC)
358 was $\sim 1.5 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at low NO_x and unknown at high NO_x mixing ratios. The lower difference may be
359 related to the comparison occurring for observations at low NO_x , when the very reactive material
360 has either reacted into compounds measured on the DC-8 (e.g., formaldehyde, acetaldehyde, etc.),
361 diluted to low enough concentrations to be negligible for R(VOC), or undergone deposition or
362 partitioning to the particle-phase.

363 At higher NO_x mixing ratios, which is more representative of fresh emissions, these more
364 reactive compounds typically not measured are expected to lead to a higher difference between the
365 calculated and observed R(VOC). Prior studies with more comprehensive measurements found
366 these more reactive compounds and their secondary products contributed an important fraction
367 towards the R(VOC) (e.g., Whalley et al., 2016). Thus, to determine if these unmeasured VOCs
368 potentially contribute to the R(VOC), and thus $\text{P}(\text{O}_x)$, in SMA, another means to constrain their
369 contributions is necessary. One potential means to constrain the total R(VOC) is by using the
370 observed ΣANs and O_x and assuming the observations are from the instantaneous production of
371 both species (e.g., the assumption used for Figure 3a).



372 To estimate the unmeasured R(VOC), Eq. 10 is used without cancelling out terms and
373 expanded into the measured and unmeasured R(VOC) and α :

$$374 \quad \frac{\Delta O_x}{\Delta \sum ANs} = \frac{\gamma RVOC_m[OH] + \gamma RVOC_u[OH] - \gamma \alpha_m RVOC_m[OH] - \gamma \alpha_u RVOC_u[OH]}{\alpha_m RVOC_m[OH] + \alpha_u RVOC_u[OH]} \quad (11)$$

375 Here, $\frac{\Delta O_x}{\Delta \sum ANs}$ is the slope from Figure 3a, γ is the number of O₃ molecules formed per oxidation of
376 VOC, which is 1.53 for this study, R(VOC) is the VOC reactivity, which is its OH oxidation rate
377 constant and its concentration ($k \times [VOC]$) in units s⁻¹, α is the branching ratio for R2 (Table 1), and
378 m and u correspond to measured and unmeasured RVOC and α . The rate constants for the measured
379 VOCs are listed in Table 1, the reactivity for F0AM is taken directly from F0AM, and α is either
380 from MCM (Jenkin et al., 2015) or Perring et al. (2013) for observations or assumed to be 0.05 for
381 F0AM secondary products. The equation is rearranged and solved for $RVOC_u$, using different
382 values of α_u (e.g., 0.00 – 0.30, values typical α).

383 As discussed in Sect. S3 in the Supp. Information, there are numerous assumptions and
384 potential sources of uncertainty in the simplified version of Eq. 11. A thorough analysis and
385 discussion of these assumptions are discussed in Sect. S3. The potentially most important
386 assumption is that chemical loss is negligible in solving Eq. 11. However, due to the expected
387 relatively short lifetime of $\sum ANs$, the chemical loss of both O_x and ANs nearly cancel each other,
388 leading to similar results in considering or neglecting these loss terms in Eq. 11. Further, as $\sum ANs$
389 chemical loss has uncertainty, especially for ANs produced from anthropogenic VOC oxidation,
390 the use of Eq. 11 reduces some of these uncertainties in comparison to Eq. S9. Thus, for the
391 remainder of the paper, the values calculated from Eq. 11 will be used.

392 For the range of missing α assumed, an $\alpha = 0.10$ for the unmeasured R(VOC) provides the
393 best agreement with the observed R(VOC) (“From PSU” is the Penn State OH Reactivity with
394 inorganic reactivity subtracted out) for all observations where NO_x < 4 ppbv. Further, it is found



395 that α ranging from 0.075 – 0.125 encompasses the associated uncertainty with the observed
396 R(VOC) ($\pm 0.64 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Brune et al., 2019)). This leads to an average unmeasured R(VOC) of $1.7_{-0.4}^{+1.1}$.

397 The associated total missing R(VOC) for the assumed α of 0.10 ranges from 1.4 to 2.1 s^{-1} .
398 Assuming typical rate constants for emitted VOCs, assuming it is comparable to semi- and
399 intermediate-VOCs, and their associated secondary products ($\sim 1 - 4 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec.}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Ma et
400 al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2014)), the total missing reactivity would be equivalent to $\sim 1 - 8 \text{ ppbv}$. Zhao
401 et al. (2014) observed $\sim 12 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ of semi- and intermediate-VOCs near Los Angeles, CA, during
402 the CalNex study. Depending on the molecular weight assumed, this translates to ~ 1 to 2 ppbv .
403 Nault et al. (2018) found that $\sim 5 - 8 \text{ ppbv}$ of VOCs were needed to explain the observed secondary
404 organic aerosol production over the SMA, depending on the molecular weight assumed for the
405 VOC. Further, Kenagy et al. (2021) also found that known chemistry could only account for $\sim 33\%$
406 of the observed ANs and missing sources of lower volatility VOCs to produce anthropogenically-
407 derived ANs were necessary. Finally, Whalley et al. (2016) found that addition of unassigned
408 VOCs and their associated oxidation products led to a reactivity of $\sim 1.6 \text{ s}^{-1}$, leading to $\sim 1 - 6 \text{ ppbv}$
409 missing R(VOC). Thus, the reactivity and equivalent mixing ratios estimated here appear plausible
410 and warrant future measurements to understand this unmeasured reactivity sources.

411 One important aspect of this unmeasured R(VOC) is that it should not be considered one
412 or a couple of VOCs emitted and contributing $1 - 8 \text{ ppbv}$ of VOC in the atmosphere. Instead, it
413 will be the emitted VOCs and its oxidation products summed together to form the $1 - 8 \text{ ppbv}$ of
414 unmeasured VOCs in the atmosphere.

415 One possible missing VOC is nonanal, which is associated with cooking emissions (Rao et
416 al., 2010; Sai et al., 2012; Schauer et al., 2002) and vegetative emissions (Hurst Bowman et al.,
417 2003). Kim et al. (2018) observed cooking organic aerosols at a ground site in SMA, indicating



418 that there should be associated gas-phase emissions from cooking. Nonanal has recently been
419 suggested to be a potential interference compound with isoprene measurements on a PTR-MS
420 (Coggon et al., 2024; Wargocki et al., 2023). Comparisons of isoprene measured by the PTR-MS
421 and WAS during KORUS-AQ (Figure S5) shows at increasing NO_x mixing ratios (closer to
422 emission sources), the difference between the PTR-MS and WAS isoprene mixing ratios increases.
423 This suggests that there are potential unmeasured OVOCs and/or other C₅H₈ alkenes at high NO_x
424 ratios that cannot be easily determined by the difference between the PTR-MS and WAS.
425 Continuing to use nonanal as a surrogate for this unmeasured OVOC, nonanal has a rate constant
426 consistent with the values used above for the missing R(VOC) ($3.6 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec.}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Hurst
427 Bowman et al., 2003)). Further, nonanal has an estimated high α of ~ 0.2 (Hurst Bowman et al.,
428 2003). As typical nonanal mixing ratios have been observed or estimated to be < 500 pptv, this
429 suggests that nonanal or similar OVOCs may contribute to some of the missing reactivity (< 0.45
430 s^{-1}). Finally, nonanal may be an important higher PNs precursor (see Sect. 3.4 for more discussion
431 about un-specified higher PNs).

432 OVOC emissions are generally considered to be an important fraction of R(VOC) for urban
433 emissions (de Gouw et al., 2018; Gkatzelis et al., 2021; McDonald et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2022;
434 Simpson et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2022). However, the α for OVOC is
435 potentially smaller than alkanes, though it is highly unconstrained (Orlando and Tyndall, 2012).
436 Note, higher OVOCs have been understudied and thus may have higher α (e.g., nonanal). Thus, if
437 the missing reactivity is mainly OVOCs and it is assumed their α is low, compounds with $\alpha > 0.15$
438 will be needed for the budget closure shown here. Likely compounds with high α include alkanes,
439 cycloalkenes/alkenes, and aromatics, though the latter is also highly uncertain. Alkanes have
440 typically been a small source for the R(VOC) in urban environments (e.g., McDonald et al., 2018;



441 Simpson et al., 2020; Whalley et al., 2016). Though aromatics contribute a significant fraction of
442 R(VOC) in different Asian urban environments (Brune et al., 2022; Schroeder et al., 2020;
443 Simpson et al., 2020; Whalley et al., 2021), the majority of the aromatic R(VOC) is considered to
444 be measured by WAS over SMA during KORUS-AQ (e.g., measured aromatics account for ~81%
445 of aromatic reactivity in McDonald et al. (2018) and 98% of aromatic reactivity in Whalley et al.
446 (2016), where both studies had more complete VOC measurements). Finally, the
447 cycloalkenes/alkenes originate from numerous anthropogenic sources (e.g., McDonald et al.,
448 2018; Simpson et al., 2020). One subclass of cycloalkenes includes monoterpenes. Similar to the
449 comparison of isoprene between PTR-MS and WAS, the difference in monoterpenes between
450 these two measurements increases with increasing NO_x (Figure S6). As the interfering
451 compound(s) measured by the PTR-MS and whether they are oxygenated or not is not known,
452 only the WAS monoterpenes are used in this analysis of calculating R(VOC). Assuming the
453 limonene rate constant, the difference between the PTR-MS and WAS monoterpenes raises the
454 terpene reactivity by $0.05 - 0.30 \text{ s}^{-1}$. Though this does not include any associated photochemical
455 products from the oxidation of monoterpenes and can improve the closure, it does not explain the
456 total missing reactivity ($1.4 - 2.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$). Thus, the missing R(VOC) is most likely a combination of
457 OVOCs and cycloalkenes/alkenes.

458

459 **3.4 Sources of PNs over SMA**

460 As shown in Figure 2, ΣPNs account for a larger fraction of the total NO_z budget than
461 ΣANs . ΣPNs are known to be a temporary sink of NO_x and radicals ($\text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2$) due to their short
462 thermal lifetime ($\sim 1 \text{ hr}$). Thus, the NO_x emitted in SMA is being transported regionally, impacting
463 the $\text{P}(\text{O}_x)$.



464 In Figure 3b, Σ PNs shows some correlation with formaldehyde. Both are secondary
465 products from the photooxidation of VOCs and have short lifetimes, leading to the correlation.
466 However, above 4 ppbv formaldehyde, the correlation shifts as Σ PNs increases more rapidly than
467 formaldehyde. As shown in Figure S7, this change in the relationship between Σ PNs versus
468 formaldehyde is due to changes in the competition in the reaction of the acyl peroxy radical
469 ($R(O)O_2^{\cdot}$) between NO_2 and NO . At low NO -to- NO_2 ratios, R8 is more favorable, leading to more
470 efficient production of PNs over formaldehyde. As NO -to- NO_2 ratios increase (NO becomes
471 comparable to NO_2), R9 becomes more dominant, leading to less production of PNs.

472 To further explore the sources of both PAN and the higher Σ PNs, the F0AM model (Wolfe
473 et al., 2016) was used to predict Σ PNs, constrained by the observed VOCs precursors (Table 2).
474 F0AM shows minimal bias in the predicted formaldehyde, NO_2 , and OH (Figure S8). As discussed
475 in Sect. 3.3, though, there is missing $R(VOC)$ of $1.7_{-0.4}^{+1.1}s^{-1}$. A sensitivity analysis in adding this
476 missing reactivity to F0AM on predicted OH and formaldehyde was conducted (Sect. S4 and
477 Figure S9 – S10). Both OH and formaldehyde are found to be buffered with the addition of this
478 low amount of $R(VOC)$. Thus, though there is good agreement in these intermediate products
479 between observation and F0AM, this analysis for the sources of PAN and higher Σ PNs is expected
480 to be a lower limit. This missing $R(VOC)$ is further observed in the F0AM-predicted higher PNs
481 (Σ PNs-PAN) versus formaldehyde, as a general underestimation in the total higher PNs compared
482 to observations is observed (Figure 5a). PAN was excluded as F0AM overestimated the mixing
483 ratios of PAN by approximately a factor of 2 (Figure S8e). Note, F0AM also overpredicted the
484 PPN mixing ratios, but to a lesser extent than PAN (~50%; Figure S8f). The differences in
485 predicted versus observed PNs may be associated with assumed background, dilution, and/or
486 temperature used to reach steady-state (Schroeder et al., 2020). Thus, the results from F0AM will



487 provide qualitative insight into sources and chemistry that should be investigated to better
488 understand PN chemistry in SMA.

489 The classes of compounds producing higher PNs in FOAM are shown in Figure 5b. The
490 classes of compounds were selected from the parent VOC which was oxidized into the higher PN
491 (Table S2). Individual PNs with high contributions and/or are typically measured (PPN, PBzN,
492 and MPAN (methacryloyl peroxy nitrate)) or are a large fraction of PNs but have yet to be
493 measured in ambient conditions (PHAN) are shown without any connection to the parent VOC.
494 Further, both PHAN and PPN have numerous precursors while many of the other higher PNs
495 modeled by FOAM are generally associated with one precursor. At high NO_x mixing ratios, the
496 more reactive VOCs (aromatics, terpenes) contribute a large fraction of the higher PNs (>35% for
497 NO_x > 4 ppbv). As the air moves away from SMA (lower NO_x mixing ratios), contributions of
498 higher PNs from longer-lived compounds (e.g., alkanes) and later generation oxidation products
499 start dominating.

500 An interesting trend is observed for PPN and PHAN. Both peroxy acyl radicals for PPN
501 and PHAN (C₂H₅C(O)O₂' and CH₂(OH)C(O)O₂', respectively) are products from photooxidation
502 of many VOCs, including aromatics, alkanes, and methyl ethyl ketone (MEK). However, the
503 fractional contribution of PPN to higher PNs remains constant with decreasing NO_x while the
504 fractional contribution of PHAN increases with decreasing NO_x (Figure 5b). This stems from the
505 sources of C₂H₅C(O)O₂' versus CH₂(OH)C(O)O₂'. The MCM mechanism, which is used for
506 FOAM, produces C₂H₅C(O)O₂' from the photooxidation from both short- and long-lived species
507 (isoprene, C₈-aromatics, toluene, ethanol, MEK, propane, and C₄-alkanes) while
508 CH₂(OH)C(O)O₂' is produced from the photooxidation of isoprene and ethene. For
509 CH₂(OH)C(O)O₂', the production is through minor channels in the photooxidation of isoprene



510 (~3% yield directly from isoprene and ~20% as a secondary product (Galloway et al., 2011)).
511 Ethene is relatively long-lived, with a lifetime ~7 hrs ($\text{OH} = 5 \times 10^6 \text{ molec. cm}^{-3}$) leading to the
512 delay in the production of PHAN.

513 The results here in general indicate more speciated measurements of higher PNs are
514 needed. However, as highlighted in Figure 5, improved detection of or measurements of PBzN,
515 PHAN, and MPAN would allow for furthering our knowledge in PNs chemistry in urban
516 environments and their role in controlling O_x production.

517 A qualitative investigation of the precursors of PAN predicted by F0AM are shown in
518 Figure 5c. This provides a basis for further investigation of the sources over the SMA region for
519 PAN as (a) F0AM over-predicts PAN, as noted above, (b) ethanol is currently estimated, similar
520 to Schroeder et al. (2020), and (c) R(VOC) in F0AM is low due to missing precursors. Like the
521 higher PNs, highly reactive R(VOC) contributes a large portion of the PAN budget at high NO_x .
522 The short-lived compounds contribute ~80% of PAN over SMA at the highest NO_x mixing ratios.
523 At lower NO_x mixing ratios, moving away from SMA, longer-lived compounds, such as ethanol,
524 contribute the most towards PAN production (~70%).

525 One of the interesting contributions not typically observed for PAN is MEK, which also
526 contributes to PPN and PHAN. In prior studies, MEK mixing ratios were typically 0.5 to 2.0 ppbv
527 (Bon et al., 2011; de Gouw et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2015). Over the SMA, 1.5 ppbv of MEK was
528 observed on average with values as high as 8.3 ppbv. Due to the long lifetime of MEK (~30 hrs
529 for the average photolysis rate measured and $\text{OH} = 5 \times 10^6 \text{ molec. cm}^{-3}$), the high mixing ratios of
530 MEK are most likely due to direct emissions (e.g., de Gouw et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2015). Thus,
531 there are potentially large sources of MEK in SMA that need to be considered in properly
532 representing PAN chemistry.



533 Another potentially important compound for PAN production is ethanol. However, this
534 compound was not measured during KORUS-AQ; instead, it was estimated based on previous
535 ground-based observations, similar to Schroeder et al. (2020). Ethanol is considered to mainly
536 come from vehicle emissions (e.g., Millet et al., 2012) and potentially cleaning agents (e.g.,
537 McDonald et al., 2018). As ethanol use is predicted to increase in the future (e.g., de Gouw et al.,
538 2012) and cleaning agents and other volatile chemical products appear to scale with population
539 (Gkatzelis et al., 2021), ethanol and MEK may continue contributing towards the PAN budget in
540 the SMA in the future.

541 As a note, two other compounds potentially important for PAN production that were not
542 measured on the DC-8 during KORUS-AQ include methylglyoxal and biacetyl (LaFranchi et al.,
543 2009). In a forested environment that was partially impacted by urban outflow, these two
544 components contributed on average 25% of the PAN budget (LaFranchi et al., 2009). In urban
545 environments, methylglyoxal is believed to mainly originate from aromatic oxidation (Ling et al.,
546 2020); whereas, biacetyl is believed to come from anthropogenic emissions (Xu et al., 2023).
547 Further, as discussed in Sect. 4.3, these two compounds may potentially be important missing HO_x
548 sources, as well. Thus, measurements of these two compounds along with ethanol is necessary to
549 better understand PAN chemistry.

550

551 **4. Observational constraints of the HO_x and O_x budget over SMA**

552 As highlighted in Figure S1, the three factors impacting instantaneous P(O_x) are R(VOC),
553 P(HO_x), and NO_x loss processes. In Sect. 3, the NO_x loss processes were investigated and provided
554 a constraint for R(VOC) to improve the investigation of P(O_x). With R(VOC) constrained, the
555 RO₂ concentration can be estimated, providing a means to calculate the net P(O_x) and to



556 investigate the major reactions leading to O_x loss and total HO_x ($OH + HO_2 + RO_2 + R(O)O_2$)
557 loss. With the latter, this allows for an investigation of the major $P(HO_x)$ reactions, assuming
558 $L(HO_x)$ equals $P(HO_x)$ (see Eq. 1 – 7 in Sect. 2.3).

559

560 **4.1 Net O_x production and sources of O_x loss**

561 Using the total $R(VOC)$ from Sect. 3.3 (Figure 4a), the net $P(O_x)$ (Eq. 1 – 2) over SMA
562 during KORUS-AQ has been determined (Figure 6a). The net $P(O_x)$ peaked at $10.3 \text{ ppbv hr}^{-1}$ at
563 $\sim 8 \text{ ppbv NO}_x$. If only the measured and estimated $R(VOC)$ from F0AM secondary products is used
564 to calculate net $P(O_x)$, the value decreases to 8.8 ppbv hr^{-1} , but at the same NO_x mixing ratio. This
565 value is similar to values observed in other urban locations around the world ($\sim 2 - 20 \text{ ppbv hr}^{-1}$),
566 showing that many urban areas are still impacted by high $P(O_x)$ values (Brune et al., 2022; Griffith
567 et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2022; Ren et al., 2013; Schroeder et al., 2020; Whalley et al., 2016, 2018).

568 The NO_x distribution over SMA (Figure 1) shows a large area ($\sim 127.53^\circ E$ to $127.18^\circ E$, or
569 $\sim 39 \text{ km}$) is near the NO_x mixing ratio with the maximum $P(O_x)$ (Figure 6). Thus, a large portion
570 of the SMA will have high instantaneous $P(O_x)$ of $\sim 10 \text{ ppbv hr}^{-1}$. As the median wind speed over
571 SMA during KORUS-AQ was $\sim 5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, an air parcel would remain at the highest $P(O_x)$ for $\sim 2 \text{ hrs}$,
572 leading to $\sim 20 \text{ ppbv O}_3$ being produced (not including dilution). This agrees with the $\sim 20 \text{ ppbv}$
573 increase in O_3 observed over the Taehwa Research Forest supersite between midday and afternoon
574 overpasses by the DC-8 during KORUS-AQ (Crawford et al., 2021). Thus, though there is a
575 substantial O_3 background observed over SMA (Colombi et al., 2023; Crawford et al., 2021), a
576 large contribution of the O_3 is due to photochemical production.

577 The major reactions leading to O_x loss ($L(O_x)$) are shown in Figure 6b. The two major
578 reactions that lead to O_x loss are net R8 (light and dark red), or the net production of PNs (which



579 includes losses), and R11, reaction of NO₂ with OH (blue) (see Table 1). Note, as discussed in
580 Sect. 2.2, for the budget analysis conducted here, PAN and PPN were constrained to observations.
581 At high NO_x (near emissions, ~30 ppbv), R11 (NO₂ + OH) dominates the L(O_x) budget (> 60%),
582 with net R8 (net PAN, dark red, and higher PNs, light red) contributing ~25%, and R12 – 14
583 accounting for the remaining 15% of O_x loss. As NO_x mixing ratios decrease (moving away from
584 emissions), the net R8 reaction, producing both PAN and higher PNs, starts contributing to larger
585 total L(O_x), ranging from 30 – 40%. Furthermore, the net R8 reaction contribution towards L(O_x)
586 remains relatively constants with NO_x mixing ratios as the contribution from R11 (OH + NO₂)
587 decreases. At NO_x mixing ratios < 3 ppbv is when non-NO_x reactions (R12 – 14) contribute greater
588 than 30% of the L(O_x) budget. Thus, proper representation of PAN and higher PNs, both in
589 precursors and speciation, is important in properly understanding the O_x budget in SMA.

590

591 **4.2 HO_x loss over the SMA**

592 Similar to L(O_x), the major reactions leading to L(HO_x) over the SMA during KORUS-AQ
593 were the reactions of NO_x with HO_x, specifically NO₂ with OH (R11) and net PAN (dark red) and
594 higher PNs (light red) production (R8). Reaction R11 is most important for NO_x mixing ratios
595 greater than 15 ppbv (50 – 65%). Between 5 and 15 ppbv, R11 is comparable to the net PN
596 production (R8), where R11 comprises 35 – 50% of L(HO_x) while net R8 (sum of higher \sum PNs
597 and PAN) comprises 30 – 40% of L(HO_x). At lower NO_x mixing ratios, R11 is always smaller for
598 L(HO_x) than net R8, where R11 is about a factor of 2 lower than net R8. Production of Σ ANs
599 played a minor role due to the low α_{eff} .

600 The self-reaction of HO_x species (R15 – R16) contributes minimally to L(HO_x) (less than
601 10%) for NO_x mixing ratios greater than 8 ppbv. At lower NO_x mixing ratios, R16 starts



602 dominating $L(\text{HO}_x)$ budget, increasing from 8% at 8 ppbv to 50% of $L(\text{HO}_x)$ at NO_x mixing ratios
603 less than 2 ppbv. Reaction R15 remains relatively small for the $L(\text{HO}_x)$ budget, only reaching 7%
604 of the $L(\text{HO}_x)$ budget at NO_x mixing ratios less than 2 ppbv.

605

606 **4.3 Sources of HO_x over SMA**

607 The analysis conducted leads to the ability to constrain HO_x losses over the SMA during
608 KORUS-AQ. This is important as not all typical HO_x sources were measured on the DC-8 during
609 the project (e.g., nitrous acid, or HONO), and HO_x production rates directly impacts $P(\text{O}_x)$ (Figure
610 S1). Prior studies (e.g., Griffith et al., 2016; Tan et al., 2019; Whalley et al., 2018) have
611 demonstrated that in urban environments, sources of HO_x include photolysis of O_3 and subsequent
612 reaction with water vapor, formaldehyde photolysis, and HONO photolysis. Furthermore, recent
613 studies have highlighted the potential importance of typically non-measured OVOCs in their
614 contribution to $P(\text{HO}_x)$ and subsequent $P(\text{O}_x)$ in an urban environment (Wang et al., 2022). To
615 constrain the $P(\text{HO}_x)$ over SMA during KORUS-AQ, the $P(\text{HO}_x)$ was assumed to be equal to the
616 observationally constrained $L(\text{HO}_x)$. Then, $P(\text{HO}_x)$ was calculated for the measurements on the
617 DC-8, including photolysis of O_3 , formaldehyde, H_2O_2 , and other measured OVOCs (Table 2).

618 Comparing the calculated $P(\text{HO}_x)$ and $L(\text{HO}_x)$, $\sim 1.5 \text{ ppbv hr}^{-1} P(\text{HO}_x)$ (range 1.3 – 1.8 ppbv
619 hr^{-1}) is not accounted for, leading to $\sim 45\%$ of the necessary $L(\text{HO}_x)$ to maintain steady-state
620 (Figure 7). For the calculated $P(\text{HO}_x)$ budget, O_3 and formaldehyde photolysis contributed $\sim 50\%$
621 and 40% of the budget, respectively, with the remainder coming from photolysis of H_2O_2 and other
622 measured OVOCs. Accounting for the unobserved $P(\text{HO}_x)$, O_3 and formaldehyde photolysis
623 contributed $\sim 25\%$ and $\sim 20\%$, respectively.



624 Potential missing sources of $P(\text{HO}_x)$ are briefly speculated here. First, one potential source
625 is the photolysis of methylglyoxal. Using the F0AM predicted methylglyoxal, as it was not
626 measured on the DC-8, methylglyoxal would contribute $\sim 0.24 \text{ ppbv hr}^{-1} P(\text{HO}_x)$, or $\sim 16\%$ of the
627 unobserved $P(\text{HO}_x)$. Another OVOC not measured on the DC-8 and expected to originate from
628 anthropogenic emissions and not from chemistry is 2,3-butanedione, or biacetyl (de Gouw et al.,
629 2018; Grosjean et al., 2002; Schauer et al., 2002; Xu et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2020). Prior studies
630 observed 20 – 400 pptv of biacetyl (de Gouw et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2023), correspond to $0.04 -$
631 $0.74 \text{ ppbv hr}^{-1}$, or 3 – 49% of the unobserved $P(\text{HO}_x)$. Thus, between these two OVOCs, 19 – 66%
632 of the unobserved $P(\text{HO}_x)$ could be explained. Other unmeasured OVOCs could potentially
633 contribute to the observed $P(\text{HO}_x)$ (e.g., Wang et al., 2022); however, there is less constraints both
634 on the speciation and photolysis rates for these OVOCs (e.g., Mellouki et al., 2015). Finally,
635 HONO could contribute to this observed $P(\text{HO}_x)$. Up to 700 pptv of HONO was observed in SMA
636 during KORUS-AQ (Gil et al., 2021), though, this would quickly photolyze to the altitudes the
637 DC-8 flew over SMA (Tuite et al., 2021). Even at 50 – 100 pptv HONO, photolysis of HONO
638 would lead to $0.2 - 0.4 \text{ ppbv hr}^{-1} P(\text{HO}_x)$, or 13 – 27% of the unobserved $P(\text{HO}_x)$. Thus, between
639 methylglyoxal, biacetyl, and HONO, between 32 – 92% of the unobserved $P(\text{HO}_x)$ could be
640 accounted for. This analysis highlights the importance of measuring these HO_x sources to better
641 understand and constrain O_x chemistry in SMA and other urban environments.

642 One note about this analysis is that particulate matter collected onto the downwelling CAFS
643 optics during KORUS-AQ (see Sect. S5, Table S3, and Figure S11). Corrections of up to 20%
644 were determined, and the associated uncertainties were also increased by 20% due to the
645 corrections. Thus, the exact amount of unmeasured $P(\text{HO}_x)$ is potentially smaller than discussed.

646



647 **5. Conclusions and Implications**

648 In the Seoul Metropolitan Area (SMA), the ozone (O_3) mixing ratio often exceeds current
649 standards and is increasing. Many processes can impact the O_3 mixing ratios and exceedances.
650 Here, the processes that impact instantaneous O_3 production ($P(O_x)$, where O_x is $O_3 + NO_2$ to
651 account for possible O_3 titration) were investigated for observations collected on the NASA DC-8
652 during the 2016 NIER/NASA Korea United-States Air Quality (KORUS-AQ) study. The
653 observations indicate missing oxidized NO_x products (NO_z) that include both the short-lived
654 peroxy nitrates (ΣPNs) and alkyl and multi-functional nitrates (ΣANs). ΣPNs contributed the most
655 for the organic NO_z species. Only ~50% of the ΣPNs were speciated over SMA, which is atypical
656 as prior studies typically show closure between the speciated and total PN measurements.

657 The un-speciated ΣPNs and ΣANs were used to constrain the missing volatile organic
658 compound (VOC) reactivity ($R(VOC)$), as $R(VOC)$ is important in constraining the instantaneous
659 $P(O_3)$. The missing $R(VOC)$ was found to be 1.4 to 2.1 s^{-1} . The F0AM box model further supports
660 the role of unmeasured ΣPNs as an important temporary NO_x and radical sink over SMA. F0AM
661 predicts ~50% of the higher ΣPNs (higher $\Sigma PNs = \Sigma PNs - PAN$), indicating missing $R(VOCs)$
662 may explain the other 50%. Constraints from both the ΣPNs and ΣANs suggest that this missing
663 $R(VOC)$ would include oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs), including aldehydes such as octanal and
664 nonanal from cooking, and alkenes from anthropogenic emissions.

665 With the constraints on the $R(VOC)$, the net instantaneous $P(O_x)$ was determined for SMA.
666 It was found to peak at ~10 ppbv hr^{-1} at ~8 ppbv NO_x . A large fraction of the SMA area was, on
667 average, at this mixing ratio of NO_x , indicating high local $P(O_x)$. This supports the increase of ~20
668 ppbv of O_3 observed in a downwind site (Taehwa Research Forest supersite) from midday to
669 afternoon during KORUS-AQ.



670 With the comprehensive measurements on-board the DC-8, the F0AM model results, and
671 the observationally constrained $R(\text{VOC})$, a budget analysis on the sinks of O_3 ($L(\text{O}_x)$) and HO_x
672 ($L(\text{HO}_x)$, where $\text{HO}_x = \text{OH} + \text{HO}_2 + \text{RO}_2' + \text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2'$) was performed. Due to the high $R(\text{VOC})$,
673 type of VOC, and the NO_2 -to- NO ratio, net ΣPNs production is surprisingly a large and important
674 sink of O_x and HO_x over SMA (~25 – 40% and 15 – 40% for $L(\text{O}_x)$ and $L(\text{HO}_x)$, respectively),
675 with production of HNO_3 and radical self-reactions accounting for the other $L(\text{O}_x)$ and $L(\text{HO}_x)$
676 losses. Net ΣPNs production as an important $L(\text{O}_x)$ and $L(\text{HO}_x)$ term is significant, as ΣPNs is a
677 temporary reservoir of both NO_2 and $\text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2'$ but has not traditionally been included in these
678 calculations. Downwind locations separated from the local NO_x and VOC emissions of the SMA
679 will experience increased $P(\text{O}_x)$ due to the release of NO_2 and $\text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2'$. With the constraint of
680 $L(\text{HO}_x)$, $P(\text{HO}_x)$ was investigated, assuming steady-state, and unmeasured HONO plus
681 unmeasured OVOCs were found to be necessary to explain the missing HO_x sources. Both sources
682 of HO_x are either missing or highly uncertain in chemical transport models.

683 Though the high regional background and foreign sources of O_3 and its precursors elevate
684 the O_3 levels in SMA and potentially already causes the SMA to be in exceedance for O_3
685 concentrations, this study highlights the importance local, in-situ $P(\text{O}_x)$ to the SMA area, which
686 can further exacerbate the O_3 concentrations for SMA and the surrounding region. The results
687 support the observations of increasing O_3 with decreasing NO_x that has been observed for SMA in
688 prior studies. Further, the study highlights the important role of unmeasured VOCs and OVOCs
689 and the necessity to understand their sources and role in NO_x and O_3 chemistry. Further, the study
690 demonstrates the interplay of direct emissions or secondary production of PN precursors and its
691 role in net $P(\text{O}_x)$. Attempts at specifically reducing the sources of PN may adversely impact net
692 $P(\text{O}_x)$, as lower net PN chemistry may increase O_3 due to more NO_2 being available.



693 **Competing Interests**

694 At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of Atmospheric Chemistry and
695 Physics.

696

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713

714 **Data Availability**



715 Version R6 1-min merged data used in this analysis available at
716 DOI:10.5067/Suborbital/KORUSAQ/DATA01. The F0AM setup file, input file, and output files
717 are all available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10723227>.

718

719 **Author Contribution**

720 BAN, KRT, and JHC designed the experiment and wrote the paper. BAN and KRT analyzed the
721 data. KRT ran the F0AM model and KRT and BAN analyzed the model output. BAN, DRB, PCJ,
722 RCC, JPD, GSD, SRH, LGH, JLJ, K-EK, YL, IJS, KU, and AW collected and QA/QC the data
723 during KORUS-AQ. All authors contributed to the writing and editing of the paper.



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- 1182



1183 **Tables**

1184 **Table 1.** Reactions described in text along with associated rate constants and references for those
1185 rate constants.

	<i>Reaction</i>	<i>Reaction Rate</i>	<i>Reference</i>
R1a	$\text{VOC} + \text{OH} \xrightarrow{\text{O}_2} \text{RO}_2$	Varies	Atkinson (2003); Atkinson and Arey(2003); Atkinson et al. (2006); Bohn and Zetzsch (2012); Sprengnether et al. (2009)
R1b	$\text{VOC} + h\nu \xrightarrow{\text{O}_2} \text{RO}_2$	Varies/Measured	Shetter & Müller (1999)
R2a	$\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO} \rightarrow (1-\alpha) \text{RO} + (1-\alpha) \text{NO}_2$	$2.7 \times 10^{-11} \times \exp(390/T)$	Burkholder et al. (2020)
R2b	$\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO} \rightarrow \alpha \text{RONO}_2$	$2.7 \times 10^{-11} \times \exp(390/T)$	Burkholder et al. (2020)
R3	$\text{NO}_2 + h\nu \rightarrow \text{NO} + \text{O}(^3\text{P})$	Measured on DC-8	Shetter & Müller (1999)
R4	$\text{O}(^3\text{P}) + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O}_3$	$3.2 \times 10^{-11} \times \exp(67/T)$	Saunders et al. (2003)
R5	$\text{RO} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{R(O)} + \text{HO}_2$	Assumed Instantaneous	
R6	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{NO}_2$	$3.45 \times 10^{-12} \times \exp(270/T)$	Saunders et al. (2003)
R7	$\text{RCHO} + \text{OH} \xrightarrow{\text{O}_2} \text{R(O)O}_2$	Varies	Atkinson (2003); Atkinson and Arey(2003); Atkinson et al. (2006)
R8 ^a	$\text{R(O)O}_2 + \text{NO}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{R(O)O}_2\text{NO}_2$	F: $8.69 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3$ molec. ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ R: $4.30 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Burkholder et al. (2020)
R9	$\text{R(O)O}_2 + \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_2$	$8.1 \times 10^{-12} \times \exp(270/T)$	Burkholder et al. (2020)
R10	$\text{O}_3 + \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{NO}_2$	$2.07 \times 10^{-12} \times (-1400/T)$	Burkholder et al. (2020)
R11 ^b	$\text{OH} + \text{NO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HNO}_3$	$1.24 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec.}^{-1}$ s ⁻¹	Burkholder et al. (2020)
R12	$\text{O}_3 + h\nu \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}} 2\text{O}(^1\text{D})$	hv measured on DC-8; $2.14 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec.}^{-1}$ s ⁻¹	Shetter & Müller (1999); Saunders et al. (2003)
R13	$\text{O}_3 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 + \text{O}_2$	$1.7 \times 10^{-12} \times \exp(-940/T)$	Saunders et al. (2003)
R14	$\text{O}_3 + \text{HO}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + 2\text{O}_2$	$1.0 \times 10^{-14} \times \exp(-490/T)$	Burkholder et al. (2020)
R15 ^b	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{HO}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$	$5.06 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec.}^{-1}$ s ⁻¹	Saunders et al. (2003)
R16	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{RO}_2 \rightarrow \text{Products}$	$2.91 \times 10^{-13} \times \exp(1300/T)$	Saunders et al. (2003)
R17	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{Products}$	$4.80 \times 10^{-11} \times \exp(250/T)$	Burkholder et al. (2020)



R18 ^b	OH+NO → HONO	$7.40 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec.}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Burkholder et al. (2020)
R19	HO ₂ +R(O)O ₂ → Products	$4.30 \times 10^{-13} \times \exp(1040/T)$	Burkholder et al. (2020)

1186 ^aOnly showing forward (F) and reverse (R) rate constant at 298 K and 1013 hPa and being a
1187 termolecular reaction.

1188 ^bTermolecular reaction; only showing rate at 298 K and 1013 hPa



1189 **Table 2.** List of instruments, compounds measured, accuracy/precision, and associated references
 1190 used in this study.

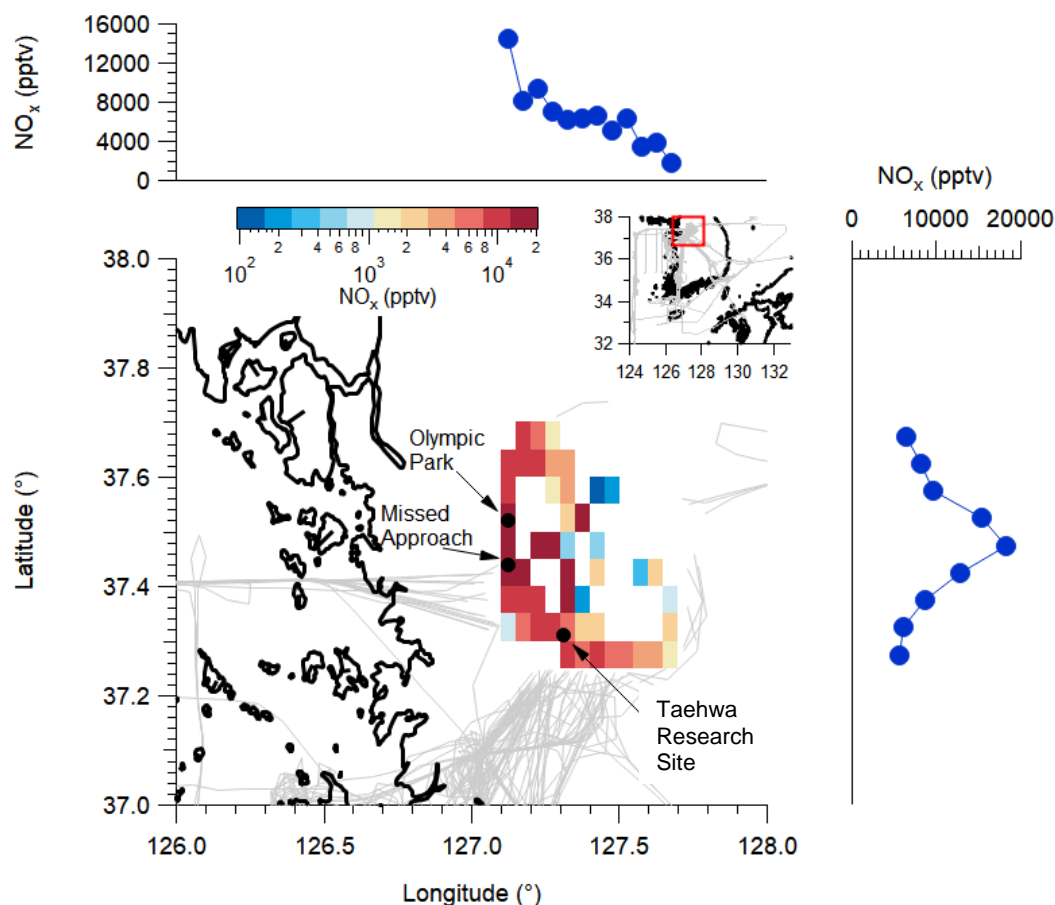
Instrument	Species	References
University of California, Irvine, Whole Air Sampler (WAS)	Ethane, Ethene, Ethyne, Propane, Propene, i-Butane, n-Butane, 1-Butene, i-Butene, trans-2-Butene, cis-2-Butene i-Pentane, n-Pentane, 1,3-Butadiene, Isoprene, n-Hexane, n-Heptane, n-Octane, n-Nonane, n-Decane, 2,3-Dimethylbutane, 2-Methylpentane, 3-Methylpentane, Cyclopentane, Methylcyclopentane, Cyclohexane, Methylcyclohexane, Benzene, Toluene, m+p-Xylene, o-Xylene, Ethylbenzene, Styrene, i-Propylbenzene, n-Propylbenzene, 3-Ethyltoluene, 4-Ethyltoluene, 2-Ethyltoluene, 1,3,5-Trimethylbenzene, 1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene, 1,2,3-Trimethylbenzene, α -Pinene, β -Pinene, Methyl nitrate, Ethyl nitrate, i-Propyl nitrate, n-Propyl nitrate, 2-Butyl nitrate, 3-Pentyl nitrate, 2-Pentyl nitrate, 3-Methyl-2-Butyl nitrate	Simpson et al. (2020)
The Pennsylvania State University Airborne Tropospheric Hydrogen Oxides Sensor (ATHOS)	OH, HO ₂ , OH Reactivity	Faloona et al. (2004), Mao et al. (2009), Brune et al. (2019)
University of California, Berkeley, Thermal Dissociation-Laser Induced Fluorescence (TD-LIF)	NO ₂ , Σ PNs, Σ ANs	Thornton et al. (2000), Day et al. (2002), Wooldridge et al. (2010)
NASA Langley Diode Laser Hygrometer (DLH)	H ₂ O	Diskin et al. (2002)
NASA Langley Diode Laser Spectrometer Measurements (DACOM)	CO, CH ₄	Sachse et al. (1987)
University of Colorado, Boulder, Compact Atmospheric Multi-species Spectrometer (CAMS)	CH ₂ O, C ₂ H ₆	Richter et al. (2015), Fried et al. (2020)
Gwangju Institute of Science and Technology Korean Airborne Cavity Enhances Spectrometer (K-ACES)	CHOCHO	Min et al. (2016), D. Kim et al. (2022)



NCAR CCD Actinic Flux Spectroradiometers (CAFS)	j-values	Shetter & Müller (1999)
Georgia Institute of Technology Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer (GT)	SO ₂ , PAN, PPN, APAN, PBzN	Kim et al. (2007), Lee et al. (2022)
University of Colorado, Boulder, High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer	pNO ₃	Nault et al. (2018), Day et al. (2022)
NCAR 4-Channel Chemiluminescence Instrument (NCAR)	NO, NO ₂ , O ₃ , NO _y	Weinheimer et al. (1994)
California Institute of Technology Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer (CIT)	Butene Hydroxynitrates, Butadiene Hydroxynitrates, Ethene Hydroxynitrates, Ethanal Nitrate, Isoprene Hydroxynitrates, Propene Hydroxynitrates, Propanal Nitrate, CH ₃ OOH, Peroxyacetic Acid, HNO ₃ , Hydroxyacetone, H ₂ O ₂	Crouse et al. (2006), Teng et al. (2015)
University of Oslo Proton Transfer Reaction Time-of-Flight Mass Spectrometer (PTR-MS)	Methanol, Acetaldehyde, Acetone+Propanal, Isoprene, MVK+MACR+ISOPOOH, Benzene, Toluene, C8-alkylbenzenes, Monoterpenes, MEK	Müller et al. (2014)
NSRC Meteorological and Geographical Data	Latitude, Longitude, Altitude, Temperature, Pressure	Crawford et al. (2021)

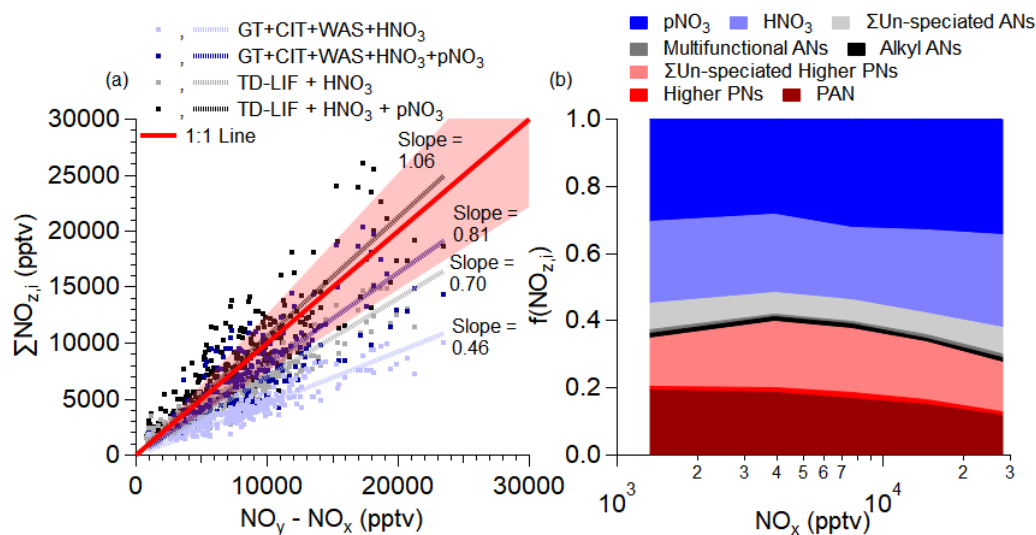


1192 **Figures**



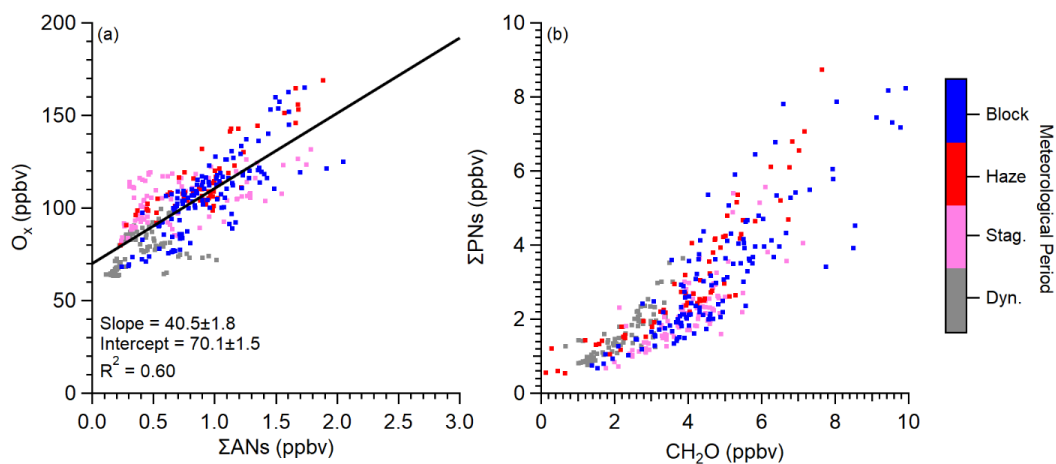
1193

1194 **Figure 1.** Binned NO_x mixing ratios observed on the NASA DC-8 during the KORUS-AQ
 1195 campaign. Note, the color bar scale is logarithmic. The binning is along the flight paths of the
 1196 NASA DC-8 for any observations collected below 2.0 km and after 11:00 local time. The rest of
 1197 the NASA DC-8 flight paths not included in the analysis are shown in grey. Three key areas from
 1198 KORUS-AQ are highlighted—the Olympic Park ground site, the airfield where the NASA DC-8
 1199 conducted routine missed approaches, and the Taehwa Research ground site. The histograms
 1200 above and to the left are the distribution of NO_x mixing ratios longitudinally and latitudinally,
 1201 respectively.



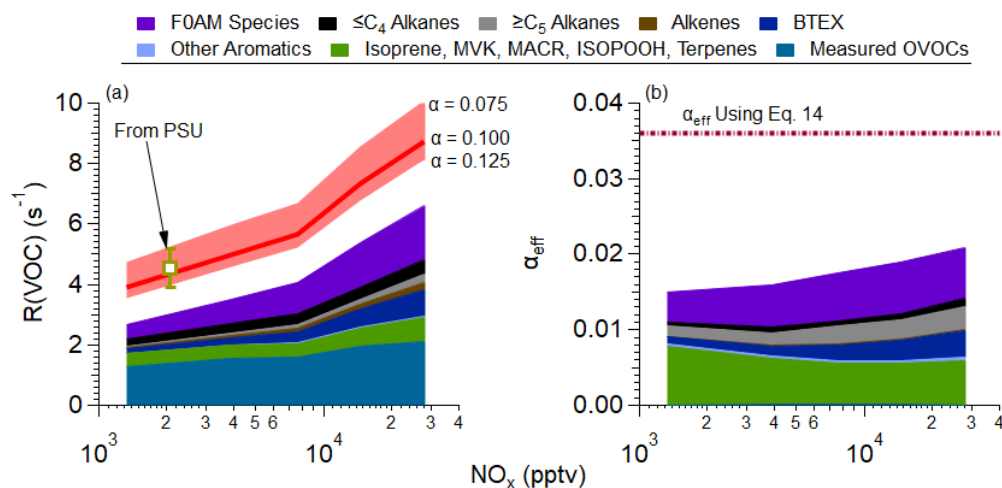
1202

1203 **Figure 2.** (a) Scatter plot of the summation of individual NO_z (NO_z is higher oxide NO_x products)
 1204 measured by GT, CIT, WAS, TD-LIF, and AMS versus NO_z measured by difference between NO_y
 1205 and NO_x (see Table 2 for compounds measured by each instrument). NO_x is NO measured by
 1206 NCAR and NO_2 measured by LIF. The observations are for when the DC-8 was over the SMA.
 1207 (b) Average contribution of measured speciated NO_z over the SMA during KORUS-AQ versus
 1208 NO_x . Higher PNs is PPN + APAN + PBZN. ΣUn -speciated PNs is total peroxy nitrates from TD-
 1209 LIF minus total measurement from GT. Alkyl RONO_2 is the total small alkyl nitrate measurements
 1210 from WAS. Multifunctional RONO_2 is the total measurements from CIT. ΣUn -speciated ANs is
 1211 the total alkyl nitrates from TD-LIF minus total RONO_2 from CIT and WAS.



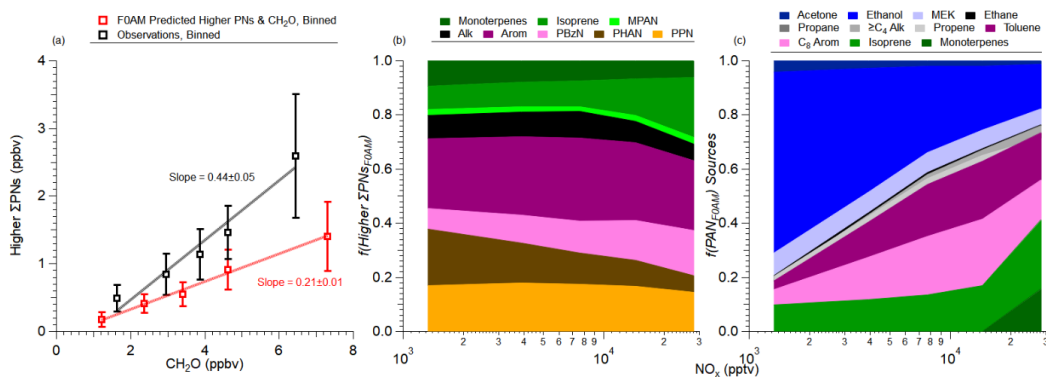
1212

1213 **Figure 3.** Scatter plot of (a) O_x versus ΣANs and (c) ΣPNs versus formaldehyde (CH_2O) over
1214 SMA (see Figure 1 for area studied). Data is colored by meteorological periods discussed in
1215 Peterson et al. (2019). Data plotted here is after 11:00 am LT to minimize impact of growing
1216 boundary layer and nocturnal residual layer mixing. The curvature in (c) is further explored in
1217 Figure S7.



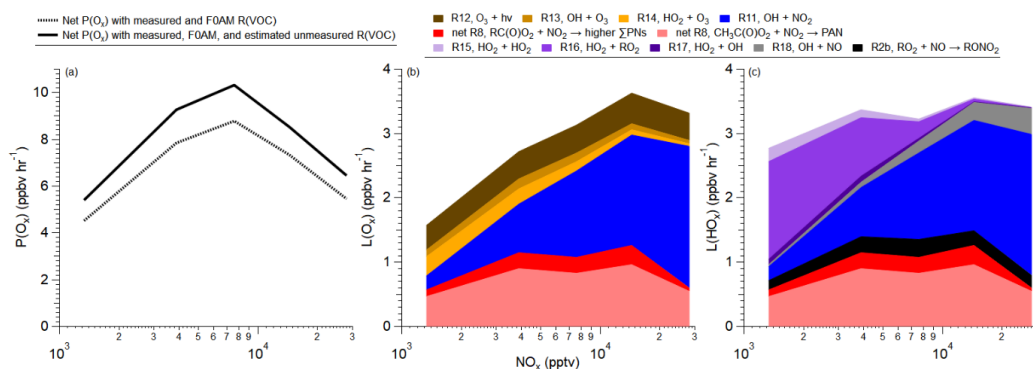
1218

1219 **Figure 4.** (a) Binned VOC reactivity versus NO_x observed over SMA during KORUS-AQ (see
 1220 Figure 1 for the area studied). The measured observed $R(\text{VOC})$, labeled as “From PSU”, where
 1221 PSU is Pennsylvania State University, is the VOC reactivity calculated from the measured total
 1222 OH reactivity with inorganic OH reactivity removed. As discussed in Brune et al. (2022), the OH
 1223 reactivity has interferences at high NO_x mixing ratios. The error bar is the uncertainty in the OH
 1224 reactivity measurement (Brune et al., 2022). The red line represents the calculated unmeasured
 1225 $R(\text{VOC})$, using Eq. 11, with an assumed $\alpha = 0.10$. The shaded area represents different calculated
 1226 unmeasured $R(\text{VOC})$, assuming different α for the unmeasured $R(\text{VOC})$ (see Eq. 11). (b) The
 1227 calculated effective α from observations versus NO_x . The dashed purple line is the effective α
 1228 estimated from Eq. 10, using the slope from Figure 3a. For both (a) and (b), the colored stacked
 1229 data is the calculated VOC reactivity (a) and weighted effective α (b). The values from (b) are
 1230 calculated using Eq. 11. Finally, for both (a) and (b), F0AM species is the reactivity for compounds
 1231 not measured on the DC-8 predicted by F0AM with an estimated $\alpha = 0.05$. The associated
 1232 uncertainty in using different α for the F0AM predicted reactivity is explored in Figure S4.



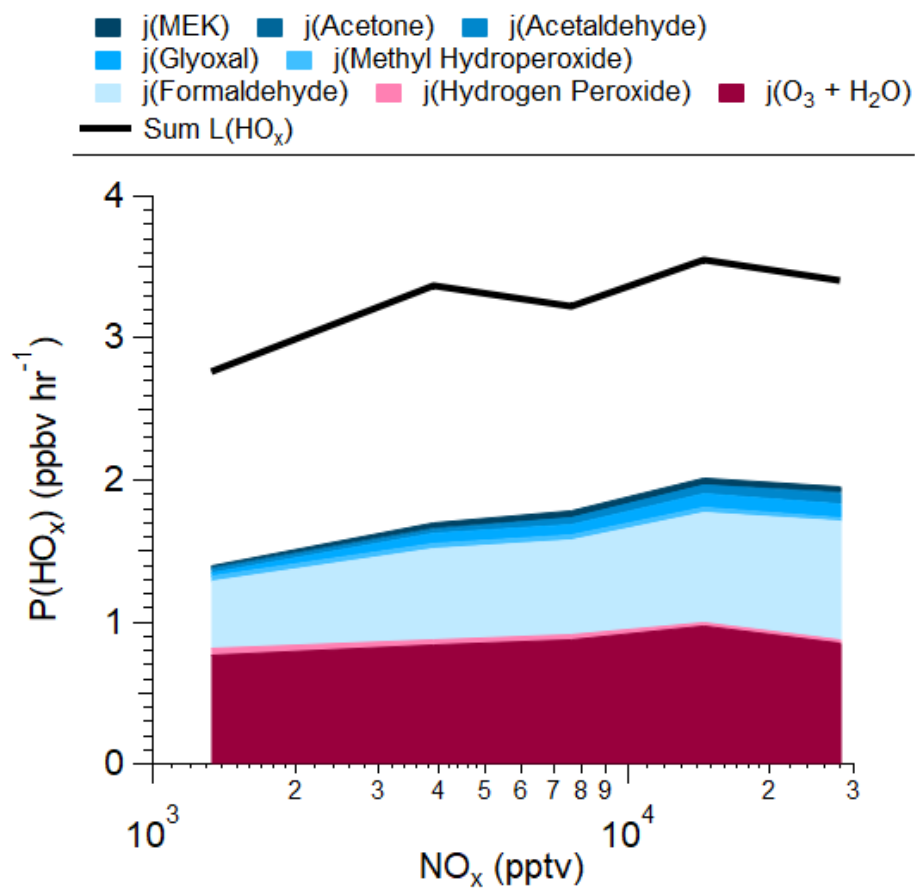
1233

1234 **Figure 5.** (a) Scatter plot of binned higher Σ PNs calculated using FOAM (red) or binned higher
 1235 Σ PNs from observations (black) versus formaldehyde (CH_2O). Slopes shown are ODR fits to the
 1236 binned data. (b) Fractional contribution of the higher PN predicted from FOAM versus NO_x . (c)
 1237 Fractional contribution of different precursors to PAN, predicted by FOAM versus NO_x . For both
 1238 (b) and (c), Alk is all alkanes, Arom is all aromatics, and $\geq\text{C}_4$ Alk is all alkanes with 4 or more
 1239 carbons. See Figure S8 for comparison of FOAM.



1240

1241 **Figure 6.** (a) Net O_x ($\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2$) production (see Eq. 1 and 2) predicted for SMA using measured
 1242 and F0AM R(VOC) (dashed) or total R(VOC) (solid), from Figure 4a, versus NO_x . (b)
 1243 Contribution of different reactions to the total O_x loss versus NO_x . (c) Contribution of different
 1244 reactions to total HO_x ($\text{HO}_x = \text{OH} + \text{HO}_2 + \text{RO}_2 + \text{R}(\text{O})\text{O}_2$) loss versus NO_x . The predicted RO_2
 1245 comes from the total VOC reactivity calculated in Figure 4a assuming steady-state (Eq. 7), and
 1246 HO_2 the acyl peroxy radicals are from F0AM results. Note for both (b) and (c), net $\text{RC}(\text{O})\text{O}_2 +$
 1247 NO_2 and net $\text{CH}_3\text{C}(\text{O})\text{O}_2 + \text{NO}_2$ are described in Eq. 3. Radical reactions contributing < 1% to the
 1248 $L(\text{O}_x)$ or $L(\text{HO}_x)$ are not included.



1249

1250 **Figure 7.** Calculated HO_x production from observations (colored stack) compared with the
1251 calculated HO_x loss from Figure 6c over the SMA during KORUS-AQ.