# **The Improved Comparative Reactivity Method (ICRM):**

# 2 measurements of OH reactivity at high-NO<sub>X</sub> conditions in

۷	measurements of OII reactivity at mgn-110% conditions in
3	ambient air
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#### **Abstract**

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The comparative reactivity method (CRM) has been developed more than a decade to measure OH reactivity (i.e. OH loss frequency) in both laboratory and field studies. However, accurate OH reactivity quantification remains challenging under real ambient condition, especially for OH reactivity measurements in high-NO<sub>X</sub> (e.g. >10 ppbv) environments, as ambient NO enhance regeneration of OH radicals in the CRM reactor. To resolve this problem, we design a new improved CRM reactor (ICRM) and add NO into the system continuously, so that the HO<sub>2</sub> radical concentration is suppressed. We confirmed the appropriate level of NO by determining the maximum decrease in the pyrrole level caused by regenerated OH radicals from NO + HO<sub>2</sub>. VOCinduced RO2 radicals in the ICRM reactor were also found to react with NO, which lead to the re-generation of OH radicals thus the underestimation of OH reactivity. This effect was quantified by the calibration of representative VOC species at different NO levels, and the correction coefficients obtained were used to correct the measured OH reactivity. All these efforts resulted in reducing the uncertainty of the NO-artifact correction by at least an order of magnitude compared to the original CRM system. Additionally, these technological improvements also considerably reduced the systematic errors from pyrrole photolysis that exists in the original system. A new operation mode was proposed for ICRM, which is able to avoid the interference resulting from OH radicals produced by photolysis of residual humidity and save time for ambient measurement. The ICRM system was employed in a field campaign to measure OH reactivity and performed well with ambient NO levels ranged from 0 to 50 ppby, which were typically observed in urban and suburban atmosphere.

# 1 Introduction

The hydroxyl radical (OH) is the most important oxidant in the daytime troposphere. It initiates the chemically removal of primary gaseous pollutants and in turn produces a host of secondary pollutants (A. Hofzumahaus, 1991; Atkinson, 2000; Roger Atkinson, 2003). The OH reactivity is defined as the sum of all OH reactive trace gas concentrations multiplied by their respective reaction rate coefficients with OH, as shown in Eq. 1. The OH reactivity is a fundamental property of the atmosphere in that it defines the overall loss frequency of OH radicals and hence the lifetime of OH. As such it is a useful atmospheric parameter for evaluating the level of reactive pollutants and it is closely related to atmospheric oxidation capacity and formation of secondary pollutants including ozone and secondary aerosols (Sinha et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2016; Pfannerstill et al., 2019).

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$$R_{OH} = k_{CO}[CO] + k_{NO}[NO] + k_{NO_2}[NO_2] + k_{SO_2}[SO_2] + k_{O_3}[O_3] + \sum_{i}^{n} k_{VOC_i}[VOC_i]$$
59 (1)

Equation 1 defines the OH reactivity where  $R_{\rm OH}$  is the total OH reactivity,  $k_{CO}$ ,  $k_{NO}$ ,  $k_{NO_2}$ ,  $k_{SO_2}$ ,  $k_{O_3}$ , and  $k_{VOC_i}$  represent the reaction rate coefficients between OH radicals and CO, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) species i, respectively. [CO], [NO], [NO<sub>2</sub>], [SO<sub>2</sub>], [O<sub>3</sub>], and [VOC $_i$ ] are the concentrations of CO, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and VOCs species i, respectively.

Currently, two general methods are used to measure OH reactivity: (1) direct measurements of OH decay rates by laser-induced fluorescence (LIF) technique; (2) measuring the relative change of a reference substance with and without ambient air present by the comparative reactivity method (CRM). The LIF based technology has been used to measure OH reactivity in a variety of different environments and has provided many new insights into the budget of OH reactivity (Kovacs et al., 2001; Kovacs et al., 2003; Sadanaga et al., 2004; Sadanaga et al., 2005; Ingham et al., 2009; Lou et al., 2010). However, the cost, complexity, and large size of LIF systems are deterrents to the widespread deployment for field measurements (Sinha et al., 2008).

Such detector systems need to be built and cannot be bought directly from a supplier. The CRM method measures OH decay rate indirectly by using the relative reaction rate of a reference substance (pyrrole) with self-generated OH radicals in the presence and absence of ambient air. The reference substance can be measured by an online instrument, such as proton transfer reaction mass spectrometry (PTR-MS) (Sinha et al., 2008; Sinha et al., 2009; Kumar et al., 2014) or a gas chromatograph (Nolscher et al., 2012a; Praplan et al., 2017a; Praplan et al., 2019b). The CRM technique has proven to be a useful supplementary technique to measure the total OH reactivity in ambient air, with a more economical and portable setup than the LIF-based systems. Based on intercomparison between various OH reactivity techniques in the SAPHIR chamber, the LIF type-instruments are generally more sensitive and less noisy than CRM instruments (Fuchs et al., 2017). The CRM approach has been applied to numerous field campaigns in recent years to measure OH reactivity (Dolgorouky et al., 2012; Nölscher et al., 2014; Michoud et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2016; Zannoni et al., 2016; Praplan et al., 2017b; Yang et al., 2017a; Zannoni et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2018; Pfannerstill et al., 2018; Pfannerstill et al., 2019; Praplan et al., 2019a). However, this method is not suitable for the environment with high-level NOx, due to the pen-ray mercury lamp used to generate OH radicals in CRM system also generates approximately equivalent amounts of HO<sub>2</sub> radicals that may react with sampled NO to produce additional OH radicals (Sinha et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2017a), which cause an enhanced consumption of pyrrole in the CRM system and result in an underestimation of OH reactivity in sampled ambient air when NO exceeds certain levels (Sinha et al., 2008). This NO interference prevents the CRM method from providing high-quality data in emission exhausts and urban areas with high NO levels. As a result, applications of the CRM method have been generally restricted to high reactivity/low NO<sub>X</sub> environments, including forests (Sinha et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2011; Nolscher et al., 2012b; Praplan et al., 2019b; Pfannerstill et al., 2020), moderately

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polluted cities (NO < 10 ppb) (Sinha et al., 2008; Praplan et al., 2017b), pristine marine

environments (Sinha et al., 2012; Zannoni et al., 2015), emission sources (e.g. gasoline

evaporation) (Wu et al., 2015), branch cuvette studies (Nölscher et al., 2013), and chamber studies (Nölscher et al., 2014) with little or no NOx present. One solution to this issue is to deliberately remove NO, before the sampled air is introduced into the reactor. However, the present technology is not able to remove NO selectively without affecting other reactive species (i.e., VOCs). The effect of NO on measured OH reactivity can be quantified by NO-correction experiments and the resulting correction curve applied to adjust ambient measurements according to simultaneously measured NO levels (Hansen et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2017a). However, the uncertainty of measured OH reactivity due to NO correction increases with NO concentration (Hansen et al., 2015; Michoud et al., 2015). Hansen et al. (2015) reported that the total uncertainty increases by up to a factor of 3 at NOx mixing ratios higher than 40 ppbv. Therefore, it calls for an improvement of the traditional CRM reactor for accurately quantifying OH reactivity at high NOx conditions. In addition to the NO effect, photolysis of pyrrole and VOCs, and the humidity difference between zero air and ambient air also influence measured OH reactivity (Sinha et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 2015; Zannoni et al., 2015).

The main purpose of this study is to improve the original CRM system to make it suitable for using in high-NO<sub>X</sub> conditions. We modified the structure of the original CRM glass reactor and add a certain amount of NO into the system to remove the generated but unwanted HO<sub>2</sub> radicals. We further characterized the improved CRM (ICRM) system by quantitatively evaluating the effect of the reaction of sample VOC-induced RO<sub>2</sub> with NO on measured OH reactivity. Additionally, the interference of pyrrole photolysis was also systematically evaluated. Finally, the ICRM system was deployed to measure OH reactivity under high-NO<sub>X</sub> conditions (0-50 ppbv) during a field campaign in the Pearl River Delta region of China.

# 2 Experimental and Methodology

## 2.1 The original CRM reactor

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The schematic of the original CRM reactor is shown in Fig. 1a. Gas-phase pyrrole

mixed with zero air or ambient air is introduced through arm C at a constant flow. Arm A consists of a pen-ray spectral mercury lamp (**Analytik Jean; 90-0012-01**), over which nitrogen (humidified or dry) is passed through arm B at a constant flow rate. When humidified nitrogen is flowing and the mercury lamp is turned on, H<sub>2</sub>O is photolyzed into OH and H radicals by the mercury lamp at 254 nm. The total air flow in the reactor exits through arm F and the concentration of pyrrole is monitored with a PTR-MS. A detailed description of the original CRM method has been reported by Sinha et al. (2008).

Figure 1(b) shows the four work modes of the original CRM method (Sinha et al., 2009). In C0 mode, the mercury lamp is turned off and high-purity dry nitrogen is introduced into the reactor through arm B. Pyrrole is introduced into the reactor with dry zero air through arm C. In C1 mode, the mercury lamp is turned on while everything else remains the same as C0. Pyrrole concentration decreases during C1 mode due to its photolysis reaction. In C2 mode, nitrogen flow in C1 is changed to humidified nitrogen to generate OH radicals, and the pyrrole concentration decreases to C2. In the final step, ambient air is introduced to the reactor through arm C in C3 mode. Based on pseudo-first-order assumptions (i.e., [pyrrole]  $\geq$  [OH]), total OH reactivity (ROH) is calculated as Eq. 2:

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$$R_{OH} = C1 \times k_{pyr+OH} \times \frac{C3-C2}{C1-C3}$$
 (2)

Where  $k_{pyr+OH}$  is the rate coefficient for the reaction of pyrrole with OH radicals  $(1.28\times10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3\cdot\text{molecule}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1} \text{ (Dillon et al., 2012))}$ , and C1, C2, and C3 represent pyrrole concentrations at the corresponding steps described above, respectively.

In C2 and C3 mode, OH radicals are produced by the photolysis of water vapor at atmospheric pressure as shown in R1. The generated H radicals from R1 reacts with O<sub>2</sub> of zero air or ambient air to generate HO<sub>2</sub> radicals, as shown in R2. When NO is present in the sampled ambient air, it can recycle OH by reacting with HO<sub>2</sub> (R3).

$$H_2O \xrightarrow{254nm} OH + H$$
 R1

$$158 H + O_2 + M \rightarrow OH + H R2$$

$$NO + HO_2 \rightarrow OH + NO_2$$
 R3

An underlying assumption of the CRM approach is that the influence of the species in ambient air on the production of OH radicals in the reactor is ignorable. The theoretical OH mixing ratio in the original CRM reactor is about  $5 \sim 20$  ppbv, which depends on the introduced pyrrole concentration to ensure the Pyrrole/OH ratio is  $2:1\sim3:1$ . However, the additional OH radicals produced via R3 can react with pyrrole to cause an additional decrease in pyrrole relative to C2 mode, thus lead to the underestimation of OH reactivity.

# 2.2 The improved CRM reactor

In order to remove the interference of the reaction of HO<sub>2</sub> radicals with NO as discussed above, we modified the pipe structure of the original CRM reactor (Fig. 1c). We kept the length and volume of the glass reactor of the ICRM system similar to the original CRM system, but added a branch inlet G (1/4 inch OD glass; length 3 cm) in arm A to introduce steam of NO standard (Air Liquide; stated uncertainty 3%; 10.8 ppmv) mixed with zero air at a constant flow of 120 ml·min<sup>-1</sup>. The typical flow rate inside the ICRM reactor is approximately 660 ml·min<sup>-1</sup>. The flow rate of nitrogen (Air Liquide; 99.9995% purity) through arm B is 250 ml·min<sup>-1</sup>. The input pyrrole (Linde Spectra Environment Gases; stated uncertainty 5%; 5.37 ppm) flow rate is 2.5 ml·min<sup>-1</sup>. The total flow rate of pyrrole and zero air (Air Liquide; 99.9995% purity) through arm C is 290 ml·min<sup>-1</sup>. With this modified structure of arm A, the HO<sub>2</sub> radicals, produced by the reaction of the generated H radicals near the mercury lamp and O<sub>2</sub> in introduced zero air, were converted to OH radicals by reacting with NO in the downstream of arm G. The interference induced by R3 can then be eliminated.

Arm A consists of one 1/2 inch OD (ID: 0.62 cm, length: 7 cm) glass tube and one 1/4 inch OD (ID: 0.32 cm, length: 5 cm) glass tube. The longer arm A is beneficial for longer reaction time of HO<sub>2</sub> with NO, but lower OH concentrations passing into the reactor due to wall loss. We chose an appropriate length of arm A (12 cm) to ensure appropriate OH concentration (4 ppbv) and reaction time of HO<sub>2</sub> with NO (~ 0.1 s). The purpose of the two-section structure is to ensure that the UV light is mostly confined within a 1/2 inch OD glass tube of arm A, as the diameter of arm A goes from

wide to slender. The new structure of arm A leads to lower OH concentrations (decreased by approximately 50%) passing into reactor compared with the original CRM system due to wall loss, but OH radicals produced from the reaction of HO<sub>2</sub> radicals with NO can partially compensate for this loss.

# 2.3 The detection of pyrrole by PTR-MS

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The accuracy of pyrrole measurement is critical in determining OH reactivity for CRM method. Here we used PTR-MS to detect pyrrole concentration. With a proton affinity greater than water (Pyrrole: 209.2 kcal·mol<sup>-1</sup>; Water: 165.2 kcal·mol<sup>-1</sup>) (Sinha et al., 2008), pyrrole is chemically ionized by proton transfer with H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> ions and the product ions are detected using a quadrupole mass spectrometer. As highlighted by Sinha et al. (2009), the sensitivity of PTR-MS instruments toward pyrrole is dependent on humidity, and the pyrrole signal must be carefully calibrated for relative humidity changes within the CRM reactor. The approach described by de Gouw and Warneke (2007) was employed in this study to account for the effect of ion source and humidity on the sensitivity of PTR-MS toward pyrrole (de Gouw et al., 2007). This approach involves normalization of the pyrrole signal to a sum of reagent ion signals (H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>+X<sub>R</sub> × H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> • H<sub>2</sub>O) that leads to a normalized signal for pyrrole that is independent of humidity. X<sub>R</sub>, a scaling factor for the H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> • H<sub>2</sub>O signal, is determined experimentally by measuring the pyrrole signal from a standard mixture under different humidity conditions. In this study, a relatively higher electric field parameter of the drift tube (i.e. E/N) value of 153 Td was used to measure pyrrole, which can minimize the humidity effect from water clusters in the PTR-MS instrument. As shown in SI, the best estimate for X<sub>R</sub> parameter was determined to be zero (Fig. S1), indicating negligible role for  $H_3O^+ - H_2O$  in pyrrole detection by PTR-MS in this study.

#### 2.4 Other instruments of the ambient measurement campaign

In order to test and validate the ICRM system for OH reactivity measurements under high NO conditions, we conducted field measurements of OH reactivity at a receptor site in the Pearl River Delta (PRD) region of China (Yang et al., 2017b; Tan et

al., 2019). Meanwhile, non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHCs) and oxygenated volatile organic compounds (OVOCs) were also measured by online gas chromatograph mass spectrometer and flame ionization detector (GC-MS/FID) (Wang et al., 2014a) and proton transfer reaction time-of-flight mass spectrometry (PTR-TOF-MS) (Yuan et al., 2017), respectively (Table S1). Inorganic trace gases, including CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>, were measured by Thermofisher 48i CO analyzer, 2B Technologies Model 405nm NO<sub>x</sub> analyzer, Thermofisher 42i NO<sub>x</sub> analyzer, Thermofisher 43i SO<sub>2</sub> analyzer, and Thermofisher 49i O<sub>3</sub> analyzer, respectively. Detailed descriptions of these instruments can be found in previous studies (Wang et al., 2014b; Birks et al., 2018).

#### 2.5. Zero dimensional box model

To test our understanding of the chemical processes occurring inside the ICRM reactor, results from laboratory experiments were compared with simulation from zero-dimensional (0-D) box model. The MCM v3.3.1 (Wolfe et al., 2016) was used as chemical mechanism in the box model. The use of the detailed mechanism aims at better representing the chemistry of peroxy radicals. In the box model, the initial concentrations of OH, HO<sub>2</sub>, pyrrole, VOCs, CO, and NO were supplied, and the time-dependent variations of different compounds in the reactor are simulated. The initial concentrations of OH (4 ppbv), HO<sub>2</sub> (4 ppbv), and pyrrole (21 ppbv) are determined based on results from our experiments. The residence time in the reactor was about 11 s according to the volume of the reactor (120 cm<sup>3</sup>) and the flow of introduced gases (660 ml·min<sup>-1</sup>). An MCM subset was extracted for inorganic reactions, and reactions for propane, propene, and toluene. C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was used as a surrogate for the peroxy radicals from pyrrole, as the degradation of pyrrole is not included in MCM.

# 3 Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Determination of the amount of NO addition

In addition to HO<sub>2</sub> produced from the reaction of H radicals with O<sub>2</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub> produced from the reaction of pyrrole with OH also react with NO to recycle HO<sub>2</sub> and OH (R4-R6), and consume pyrrole. In order to eliminate the effect of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> radicals, NO

supply with an appropriate concentration through arm G is needed. We optimized NO concentration by testing the dependence of the change of the pyrrole concentrations on the concentration of NO introduced through arm G (as described below and Fig. 2). Figure 1d shows three work modes of the ICRM method. During the experiment, the pyrrole concentration in the C1 mode (where  $N_2$  and zero air were humidified and mercury lamp is turned off) was 22 ppbv, which decreased to 18 ppbv when the mercury lamp was turned on at 0 ppbv NO, implying that the generated OH radicals depleted  $\sim$  4 ppbv pyrrole. We varied the NO concentrations mixed with the zero air entering arm G which resulted in NO concentrations in the reactor ranged from 0 to 150 ppbv, and found out the appropriate NO level to consume all HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> produced in the glass reactor. NO was mixed with zero air rather than nitrogen, as oxygen in zero air can transform H radicals in arm A to HO<sub>2</sub> radicals. Pyrrole concentration decreases with the increase of NO concentrations, reaching a minimum when NO concentration is circa  $40 \sim 50$  ppbv, and increased again when NO concentration exceeds 50 ppbv.

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$$RH + OH + O_2 \rightarrow RO_2 + H_2O$$
R4
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$$RO_2 + NO + O_2 \rightarrow HO_2 + NO_2 + carbonyls$$
R5
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$$NO + HO_2 \rightarrow OH + NO_2$$
R6
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$$RO_2 + HO_2 \rightarrow peroxide$$
R7

where RH represents pyrrole in the reactor or introduced ambient VOCs into the reactor.

R8

 $NO + OH \rightarrow HONO$ 

The NO addition experiments are simulated in the box model. The simulated pyrrole concentrations as a function of NO concentration is consistent with laboratory experiments: with pyrrole concentrations decreasing at first and then increasing (Fig. S2). When NO is not present in the reactor, the self-reactions of peroxy radicals (HO<sub>2</sub>+HO<sub>2</sub>, HO<sub>2</sub>+RO<sub>2</sub>) dominate the sink of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. S3). As NO is introduced into the reactor, the reaction of NO with HO<sub>2</sub> or RO<sub>2</sub> competes with the self-reactions of peroxy radicals. With more NO introduced, the produced OH radicals from the reaction of HO<sub>2</sub> with NO increase, leading to the decrease of pyrrole concentration (Fig. S3). As the NO concentration exceeds 50 ppbv, pyrrole concentrations increase

again, due to large excess NO competes with pyrrole for reaction with OH radicals. The remaining NO concentration outflowing from the reactor increases with the introduced NO concentrations (Fig. S2), indicating that excessive NO is needed to compete with the self-reactions of peroxy radicals. Based on laboratory measurement, the remaining NO concentration outflowing from the reactor is ~18 ppbv when the introduced NO concentration at 50 ppbv. The laboratory measurements and simulated results both suggest that  $40 \sim 50$  ppbv is the lowest NO concentration needed to transform HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> to OH to the largest extent. The higher introduced NO concentration had a negligible effect on the increase in OH production from HO2 and RO2. Thus, we introduce 50 ppbv NO concentration into the ICRM reactor in the experiments in this study. Under this optimized condition, the pyrrole concentration decreased to 12.3 ppby, indicating the total OH radical concentration including production from UV lamp and from the reaction of HO<sub>2</sub> with NO is about 10 ppbv in the ICRM system. The concentration of pyrrole in this scenario is regarded as the C2 mode for ICRM system. It worth noting that the determined NO concentration can vary slightly as OH generation performance changes (e.g. humidity change in the region of the pen-ray mercury lamp).

Under the determined optimal NO level through arm G, it is necessary to ensure that the OH production from HO<sub>2</sub> and pyrrole-induced RO<sub>2</sub> will not manifest itself when ambient NO is introduced through arm C. For this purpose, we compared measured and true OH reactivity of NO by passing a series of NO concentrations (0 ~ 700 ppbv) mixed with zero air through arm C into the reactor (Fig. 3). In this test, no other reactive gases were introduced into the system except NO. Measured OH reactivity of NO ( $k_{NO} = 9.7 \times 10^{-12}$  cm<sup>3</sup> molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> according to IUPAC lasted evaluation in November 2017) agreed well with the corresponding true values, indicating that HO<sub>2</sub> radicals have been fully consumed, and pyrrole peroxy radicals were effectively converted to carbonyls and nitrates by NO introduced through arm G.

#### 3.2 Calibration for OH reactivity of VOCs

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Several reactive VOC species were used to validate and calibrate the ICRM system,

including methane, propane, propene, toluene, and mixed gases including 16 VOC species (acetaldehyde, methanol, ethanol, isoprene, acetone, acetonitrile, methyl vinyl ketone, methyl ethyl ketone, benzene, toluene, o-xylene,  $\alpha$ -pinene, 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene, phenol, m-cresol, naphthalene). These VOC species were introduced into the system through arm C at various reactivity ( $0 \sim 200 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). Figure 4 (a) presents the plots of the measured ( $R_{\text{meas}}$ ,  $\text{s}^{-1}$ ) versus true OH reactivity ( $R_{\text{true}}$ ,  $\text{s}^{-1}$ ) of these species.  $R_{\text{meas}}$  is lower than  $R_{\text{true}}$  for almost all species with the slopes of linear fittings ranging from 0.60 to 0.72. The slopes of methane, propane, propene, toluene, and mixed gases are 0.60, 0.64, 0.64, 0.64, and 0.72, respectively. The OH reactivity calibration of SO<sub>2</sub> and CO indicates that the linear fitting slope of  $R_{\text{meas}}$  versus  $R_{\text{true}}$  is 0.35 and 0.40, respectively (Fig. 4 b), which is lower than that of VOCs. It is worth mentioning that the intercept of the line in Fig. 4 is not zero which indicates that at low OH reactivity the ICRM methods lacks sensitivity.

Equation 2 is valid only under near pseudo-first-order conditions (i.e. when [pyrrole] >> [OH]). In this study, the [pyrrole] to [OH] ratio is set at 2.5, which will cause significant systematic errors. We plot the calculated reactivity, obtained by applying Eq. 2 to the numerical simulations of the pyrrole concentration (C2 and C3) at [Pyrrole]/[OH] = 2.5 after OH had reacted to zero, versus the true reactivity. The correction curve indicates that the calculated reactivity underestimates the true reactivity by about 5%. After considering this interference, the slope of calibration shown in Fig. 4 (a) and 4 (b) decreased to  $0.57 \sim 0.68$  for VOCs, 0.38 for SO<sub>2</sub> and 0.33 for CO, respectively. Therefore, the deviation of pseudo-first-order conditions cannot explain the calibrated slopes for VOCs, CO and SO<sub>2</sub> being lower than one.

The lower calibrated slopes for VOCs than one can be related to secondary chemistry of VOC-generated RO<sub>2</sub> radicals with NO. When more VOCs are introduced into the reactor, additional RO<sub>2</sub> radicals produced from the reaction of VOCs with OH will react with excessive NO in the reactor thus increase the recycled OH (R4-R6). The recycled OH from RO<sub>2</sub> will deplete pyrrole thus leading to a  $R_{meas}$  lower than the  $R_{true}$ . We deduce that this is the reason for the linear fitting slopes in Fig. 4 lower than one.

For specific VOC species, the decrease in pyrrole concentration due to recycling OH depends on the true OH reactivity of VOCs, NO concentrations and the efficiency of organic nitrate production (RO<sub>2</sub> + NO  $\rightarrow$  RONO<sub>2</sub>) in this system. The consistency in the linear fitting slopes of different VOC species indicates that the RO<sub>2</sub> + NO reactions for the investigated VOCs are similar. This is in agreement with the simulated results (Fig. S4). Similarly, the produced HO<sub>2</sub> from the reactions of CO and SO<sub>2</sub> with OH will end up recycling OH in the excess NO environments and thus reduce the fitting slopes. The lower fitting slope of SO<sub>2</sub> and CO than that of VOCs is because SO<sub>2</sub> and CO react with OH to produce HO<sub>2</sub>, which has higher efficiency to produce OH by reacting with NO than RO<sub>2</sub> that goes through two steps (RO<sub>2</sub> $\rightarrow$ HO<sub>2</sub>, and HO<sub>2</sub> $\rightarrow$ OH). Here, we define the linear fitting slopes in Fig. 4 as correction coefficients with regard to the calibration for OH reactivity of VOC, CO and SO<sub>2</sub> (characterized by  $\alpha$ VOC,  $\alpha$ CO and  $\alpha$ SO<sub>2</sub>) at ambient NO = 0 ppbv.

To further evaluate the performance of the ICRM system with elevated NO<sub>X</sub> concentrations in ambient air, a series of NO concentrations were introduced into the reactor through arm C both with constant reactivity from different VOC species and with different reactivities provided by the same species. Of all experimental conditions, the  $R'_{\text{meas}}$  (The  $R'_{\text{meas}}$  is defined as the corrected  $R_{\text{meas}}$  by correction coefficient  $\alpha_{\text{VOC}}$ ) was observed to decrease with increased NO concentration, and thus the difference between  $R_{\text{true}}$  and  $R'_{\text{meas}}$  ( $R_{\text{true}} - R'_{\text{meas}}$ ) increases with increased NO concentrations for the four VOC standard gases (Fig. 5a and b). This is because the reaction rate of RO<sub>2</sub> with NO increases with NO concentrations leading to enhancement of the recycled OH. Similar to previous study (Michoud et al., 2015; Praplan et al., 2017b; Yang et al., 2017a), the difference between  $R_{\text{true}}$  and  $R'_{\text{meas}}$  ( $R_{\text{true}} - R'_{\text{meas}}$ ) increases with NO concentrations for different VOC species and different reactivity levels. Besides, the difference between  $R_{\text{true}}$  and  $R'_{\text{meas}}$  ( $R_{\text{true}} - R'_{\text{meas}}$ ) also increases with NO concentrations for CO and SO<sub>2</sub> with slope of 0.11 and 0.10 respectively (The  $R'_{\text{meas}}$  is defined as the corrected  $R_{\text{meas}}$  by correction coefficient  $\alpha_{\text{CO}}$  and  $\alpha_{\text{SO2}}$ ) (Fig. 5 c). However, the difference of NO effects between VOCs and CO (and SO<sub>2</sub>) as shown in Fig. 4 and Fig.

5 has not been reported in previous studies about CRM system.

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Previous studies have reported that NO had a large effect on the difference between  $R_{\text{true}}$  and  $R_{\text{meas}}$  in the CRM systems (Note that the  $R_{\text{meas}}$  is not corrected in previous studies) (Hansen et al., 2015; Michoud et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2017b). This NO-effect is not only due to the reaction of HO<sub>2</sub> with NO, but also due to the reaction of pyrroleproduced and VOC-produced RO2 with NO. Figure S5 compares the effect of NO on  $(R_{\text{true}} - R_{\text{meas}})$  in the original CRM system (reported by previous studies) with that in the ICRM system (this study). Far larger NO effects were reported in the original CRM system than in the ICRM system. For example, the presence of ambient NO at 50 ppbv leads to  $R_{\text{meas}}$  lower than the  $R_{\text{true}}$  by  $70 \sim 232 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , at least an order of magnitude higher than the NO artifact in the ICRM system, which leads to R'meas lower than the Rtrue by 8.8 s<sup>-1</sup>. This is because both HO<sub>2</sub> and pyrrole-induced RO<sub>2</sub> are fully removed by the introduced NO in advance in the ICRM system, thus the remaining influencing factor is the reaction of ambient VOCs-induced RO2 with NO. The uncertainty due to the NOartifact correction in the ICRM system was predicted to be far lower than that of the original CRM system, as the absolute change of OH reactivity caused by NO is reduced by removing HO<sub>2</sub> and pyrrole-induced RO<sub>2</sub>. Despite the ICRM system not being able to remove the NO effect entirely, it does lead to a significant decrease in the uncertainty of the NO-artifact correction.

Due to the different behaviors of VOCs, SO<sub>2</sub> and CO at high NO conditions, in order to get accurate OH reactivity, it is necessary to conduct NO-correction for VOCs, SO<sub>2</sub>, and CO individually. Note that this issue may also present in the original CRM system, but it was ignored in previous studies. For the ICRM system, we use the following formula to determine the true OH reactivity of VOCs:

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$$R_{meas} = R_{true\ NO+NO_2} + R_{true\ O_3} + \alpha_{CO}(R_{true\ co} - f_1[NO]) + \alpha_{SO_2}(R_{true\ SO_2} - f_1[NO]) + \alpha_{VOC}(R_{true\ voc} - f_2)$$
 (3)

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$$R_{true\ VOC} = \frac{1}{\alpha_{VOC}} (R_{meas} - R_{true\ NO+NO_2} - R_{true\ O_3} + \alpha_{CO} f_1[NO] +$$

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$$\alpha_{SO_2} f_1[NO] + \alpha_{VOC} f_2 - \alpha_{CO} R_{true\ CO} - \alpha_{SO_2} R_{true\ SO_2})$$
 (4)

where  $R_{\text{meas}}$  is the measured OH reactivity by the ICRM system as defined above.

The  $R_{\text{true}}$  voc is the true OH reactivity of VOCs.  $R_{i}$  true was calculated from measured concentrations of species i (i=NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and CO) multiplied by the rate coefficient of the reaction of species i with OH. The  $R_{\text{meas}}$  and  $R_{\text{true}}$  of NO<sub>x</sub> (=NO+NO<sub>2</sub>) was close to 1:1 as shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. S6.  $\alpha_{CO}$ ,  $\alpha_{SO_2}$ , and  $\alpha_{VOC}$  are the correction coefficients with regard to the calibration for OH reactivity of CO, SO<sub>2</sub> and VOC at ambient NO = 0 ppbv, respectively. Note that the  $\alpha_{VOC}$  is the mean slope of Fig. 4a.  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are the correction coefficients which regard to the effect of ambient NO on ( $R_{\text{true}} - R'_{\text{meas}}$ ). Note that the  $f_1$  is the mean value Fig. 5c, and the  $f_2$  is the fitting result both Fig. 5 a and b ( $f_1 = 0.105$ ;  $f_2 = 0.20*[\text{NO}]-4.8*10^{-4}*[\text{NO}]^2$ , as shown in Fig S5). After getting  $R_{true\ VOC}$ , the total OH reactivity ( $R_{\text{tot}}$ ) was then calculated as the summation of  $R_{true\ VOC}$ ,  $R_{true\ NO+NO_2}$ ,  $R_{true\ O_3}$ ,  $R_{true\ SO_2}$ , and  $R_{true\ CO}$ :

$$R_{tot} = R_{true\ VOC} + R_{true\ NO} + R_{O_3} + R_{true\ NO2} + R_{true\ CO} + R_{true\ SO_2}$$
 (5)

In this study, we calibrated four individual representative VOC species (methane, propane, propene, toluene). In addition, we also calibrated the mixed standard gases with 16 VOC species including representative oxygenated VOCs (acetaldehyde, methanol, ethanol, acetone, acetonitrile, methyl vinyl ketone, methyl ethyl ketone), biogenic VOCs (isoprene, α-pinene), typical aromatics (benzene, toluene, o-xylene, 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene, naphthalene, phenol, m-cresol). The calibration slope is close to those of the four individual VOC species, indicating that the RO<sub>2</sub> + NO reactions for these investigated VOCs should be similar. Nevertheless, given that there are different VOCs compositions in different environment such as forest, urban area and emission sources, calibrations for more individual VOCs species might be also needed.

#### 3.3 Additional potential interference related to NO addition

In order to assess the extent of any additional interferences due to NO addition, we further consider the following effects.

In arm A, the photolysis of O<sub>2</sub> introduced through arm G by the mercury lamp produces O<sub>3</sub>. Besides, the NO introduced through arm G reacts with HO<sub>2</sub> to generate NO<sub>2</sub>, which can also photolysis to generate NO and oxygen atoms, and subsequently

O<sub>3</sub>. We monitored O<sub>3</sub> concentration through the arm F using an O<sub>3</sub> monitor. O<sub>3</sub> concentration flowing out of arm F was less than 5 ppbv, which has a negligible influence on the pyrrole concentrations and the  $R_{\text{meas}}$ , considering the pyrrole+O<sub>3</sub> reaction rate constant  $k_{\text{O3+pyrrole}} = 1.57 \times 10^{-17} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Atkinson et al., 1984) is several orders of magnitude slower than the pyrrole + OH reaction rate constant  $(k_{\text{pyrrole+OH}} = 1.28 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1})$ . The ozone concentration was low, as excess NO was introduced to the reactor and the remaining NO titrates O<sub>3</sub> back to NO<sub>2</sub>.

In the C3 mode of the ICRM, sample ambient O3 can react with the high-levels NO in the reactor, which might interfere with  $R_{\text{meas}}$ . We characterize this interference by introducing a series of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations into the reactor through arm C. As O<sub>3</sub> concentrations lower than 40 ppby, O<sub>3</sub> has a negligible effect on OH reactivity (Fig. 6). Interestingly,  $R_{\text{meas}}$  first increases and then decrease with increasing O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The reaction rate coefficient of OH with NO<sub>2</sub> is slightly higher than with NO, which are 1.2×10<sup>-11</sup> cm<sup>3</sup> molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Atkinson et al., 2004) and 9.7×10<sup>-12</sup> cm<sup>3</sup> molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at 298K, respectively. With the increase of introduced O<sub>3</sub> concentration, higher NO<sub>2</sub> is produced, which causes an increase in  $R_{\text{meas}}$ . As NO is consumed completely by O<sub>3</sub>, excessive O<sub>3</sub> can further react with NO<sub>2</sub> to produce NO<sub>3</sub> radicals, which can deplete pyrrole ( $k=1.80 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) (Cabanas et al., 2004) and lead to the decrease in  $R_{\text{meas}}$ . Overall, OH reactivity exhibited little change (< 2 s<sup>-1</sup>) with the increase of  $O_3$  concentrations (0 ~ 160 ppbv), indicating that the introduced  $O_3$  plays a negligible role in  $R_{\text{meas}}$ . This is another advantage of ICRM compared with the original CRM, which needs an ozone correction as the reaction of O<sub>3</sub> with HO<sub>2</sub> gives OH back (Fuchs et al., 2017).

According to model simulation, the produced NO<sub>2</sub> from the reaction of NO with HO<sub>2</sub> increases with introduced NO concentrations (Fig. S2). The produced NO<sub>2</sub> can deplete OH (OH + NO<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow$  HNO<sub>3</sub>) and thereby lead to an increase in the pyrrole concentration. When introduced NO with a concentration of 50 ppbv, the produced NO<sub>2</sub> was 25 ppbv, corresponding to 6.2 s<sup>-1</sup> OH reactivity (Fig. S2). However, this process doesn't interfere with the  $R_{\text{meas}}$  as the produced NO<sub>2</sub> is the same in both C2 and C3

modes leading to this effect canceling out in the two modes.

Finally, the reaction time between HO<sub>2</sub> and NO should be noted. The initial HO<sub>2</sub> concentration is about 4 ppbv. The lifetime of HO<sub>2</sub> at 50 ppbv NO is at the time scale of 0.1 s, given that the reaction rate constant of NO+HO<sub>2</sub> is  $8.1 \times 10^{-12}$  cm<sup>3</sup> molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Sander, 2006). The rection time of NO+HO<sub>2</sub> in arm A is estimated to be around  $\sim$  0.1 s, during which most of HO<sub>2</sub> will be consumed. Hence there will be only a small fraction of HO<sub>2</sub> entering the main body of the reactor.

# 3.4 Photolysis of pyrrole

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Photolysis of pyrrole in the CRM method introduces additional uncertainties and complexity in the determination of OH reactivity (Sinha et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 2015; Michoud et al., 2015; Zannoni et al., 2015). To investigate the effect of the ICRM system on the interference from photolysis, we turn the mercury lamp off and on to test the variation in pyrrole concentrations under dry conditions (no humidification). Compared with the condition where the mercury lamp is turned off, pyrrole concentrations decreased by < 3% after the mercury lamp was turned on (Fig. S7), which caused  $R_{\text{meas}}$  increase of 0.55 s<sup>-1</sup> when the  $R_{\text{true}}$  was 20 s<sup>-1</sup>. This result indicates that the photolysis of pyrrole is weak enough to be negligible in the ICRM system. This smaller photolysis of pyrrole closely relates to the improved design of reactor structure. Arm A consists of two section of glass tube with 1/2 inch OD and 1/4 inch OD, respectively (Fig. 1c). UV light is mostly confined in 1/2 inch OD glass tube of arm A, as the glass tube is constructed with decreasing diameter following the direction of gas flow. This reduces the amount of UV light getting into the main reaction part of the reactor. The improved structure of arm A leads to lower OH concentrations (decreased by approximately 50%) passing into reactor due to wall loss, but the OH radicals produced from the reaction of HO<sub>2</sub> radicals with NO can partially compensate for this loss. In comparison, the pen-ray mercury lamp was very close to the main body of the reactor in the original CRM reactor, to maximize the OH entering the reactor by minimizing wall loss. However, this will lead to the photolysis of pyrrole, as high as 25% (Sinha et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 2015). The change of the structure of arm A also

ensures that the photolysis of H<sub>2</sub>O, HONO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and VOCs inside the ICRM reactor is weaker than that in the original CRM system. In this system, OH reacts with introduced NO or ambient NO to produce HONO, which can reproduce OH and NO by photolysis. As we have improved the structure of arm A to avoid UV light entering main body of the reactor, photolysis of HONO is expected to be low. In addition to our design change, previous studies have reported that the photolysis of pyrrole can be also lowered to below 5% by changing the UV mercury lamp position in the setup (Michoud et al., 2015; Zannoni et al., 2015).

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In the original CRM system, C1 instead of C0 is used as the initial amount of pyrrole in order to avoid the interference of pyrrole photolysis. The C1 mode, where dry N<sub>2</sub> and zero air are used meanwhile the mercury lamp is turned on, was measured every 12 h for a duration of 2 h (Sinha et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 2015). The length of the duration is necessary to reach the driest conditions possible to minimize residual OH in the reactor. It should be noted that this procedure can result in an underestimation of C1, as it is difficult to remove all trace amounts of water molecules from surfaces and in nitrogen and zero air flowing through the reactor, which is able to produce extra OH by photolysis (Hansen et al., 2015; Michoud et al., 2015; Zannoni et al., 2015). The underestimation of C1 will result in an overestimation of OH reactivity. The significantly smaller photolysis of pyrrole for the ICRM system allows us to measure the C1 mode differently. Here, the condition that N2 and zero air are humidified while the mercury lamp is turned off is regarded as C1. The new C1 mode is able to avoid the interference resulting from OH radicals produced by photolysis of residual humidity since the mercury lamp is turned off and OH will not be produced. Besides, the C1 mode in ICRM is measured every 12 h for a duration of 15 min, which also saves time compared with C1 mode in original CRM.

#### 3.5 Humidity difference between zero air and ambient air

The variation of humidity between the C2 (wet zero air) and C3 (ambient air) measurements could result in a change in OH production rate in the CRM reactor, which in turn could lead to a C2 measurement not representative of the OH production rate

observed during the C3 measurement (Sinha et al., 2008; Dolgorouky et al., 2012). Although the use of a catalytic converter or dynamic humidification of zero air can help to reduce differences in humidity between C2 and C3 modes, small differences still exist (Michoud et al., 2015). Besides, while catalytic converters can be used to generate zero air with the same humidity as ambient air, these converters cannot remove NOx species and thus are not suitable for OH reactivity measurements in urban and suburban areas with high NOx conditions (Hansen et al., 2015).

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To investigate the influence of humidity differences between C2 and C3 on the  $R_{\text{meas}}$  in the ICRM system, we test the response of pyrrole concentration to humidity by introducing zero air with different humidities through arm C at mode C2. The ratio of H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>(H<sub>2</sub>O) to H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> (m37/m19) is selected to represent the level of different humidity. Figure 7 (a) presents the dependence of pyrrole concentrations on m37/m19 at mode C2. Pyrrole concentrations slightly decrease with the increase in m37/m19. It must be noted that this dependence is not due to the humidity dependence of the PTR-MS sensitivity toward pyrrole, but the change in OH production in the reactor, as the normalization procedure of pyrrole signal described in Sect. 2.3 was applied to all pyrrole measurements. The maximum difference of m37/m19 between C2 mode and C3 mode is about 0.01 corresponding to RH changing by ~ 30% (Fig. 7 b), which lead to pyrrole changed by  $\sim 0.26$  ppbv and thus the  $R_{\text{meas}}$  changed by  $\sim 1.9 \text{ s}^{-1}$  when the  $R_{\text{true}}$ is 20 s<sup>-1</sup>. This result indicates that the influence of humidity change on OH concentrations and subsequently  $R_{\text{meas}}$  cannot be ignored even though the structure of arm A was improved to decrease the numbers of photons entering the main body of the reactor. Therefore, humidity correction is needed to accurately  $R_{\text{meas}}$ . The humidity difference between C2 and C3 mode can be corrected by the function derived from the relationship between OH reactivity and m37/m19 (as shown in Fig. 7 a).

## 3.6 Instrument performance in ambient measurements

The detection limit of ICRM was determined to be 2.3 s<sup>-1</sup> for an averaged pyrrole-to-OH ratio of 2.3 according to the method proposed by Michoud et al. (2015) (Fig S8). This means that the minimum detection limit for the reactivity of sample air would be

about 5 s<sup>-1</sup> (typically diluted in the glass reactor by a factor 2). During the measurement, daily calibration was conducted by introducing a constant concentration of various VOCs standards (propane, propene or toluene) through arm C at C2 mode and determining the ratio of  $R_{\text{meas}}$  to  $R_{\text{true}}$  (i.e.  $\alpha_{\text{VOC}}$ ). As shown in Fig. S9,  $R_{\text{meas}}$  /  $R_{\text{true}}$  is relatively stable during the measurement, ranging from 0.60 to 0.70, implying this method has high stability, despite the structural differences of the VOCs species introduced.

Figure 8 a presents a time series of  $R_{\text{tot}}$ , calculated OH reactivity ( $R_{\text{cal}}$ ), and ambient NO. Rtot was acquired based on Eq. 5, and Rcal is calculated by the sum of all measured reactive trace gas concentrations multiplied by their respective reaction rate coefficients with OH. The new system worked well even at high NO concentrations (> 20 ppbv). The average  $R_{\text{tot}}$  for the entire campaign was 27.3 s<sup>-1</sup>. The  $R_{\text{tot}}$  is higher than the  $R_{\text{cal}}$  by 27% during the campaign, with larger differences observed in the morning and at night than in the afternoon. As shown in Fig. 8 b, the  $R_{\text{tot}}$  has an obvious diurnal variation with higher levels at night and morning than that in the afternoon. This is because air pollutants from anthropogenic emissions were accumulated at night and morning due to lack of oxidative consumption, whereas were depleted rapidly during the afternoon due to rising levels of oxidant, i.e. OH radicals. This diurnal pattern of  $R_{tot}$  is similar to that of the previous measurement results in the Pearl River Delta (Lou et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2017a) and Beijing (Williams et al., 2016). Overall, the diurnal variation of the R<sub>true</sub> voc (calculated by Eq.4) is similar to that of the calculated OH reactivity of inorganic gas (Fig. 8 b) and the concentration of NO<sub>X</sub> (Fig. 8 c). A comparison between the Rtot determined by the ICRM method and the laser-induced fluorescence method will be of interest in future studies, particularly because LIF type systems can also experience difficulties at high NO when OH decay rates are rapid. Further discussions on the OH reactivity results of this campaign will be given in another publication.

## **4 Conclusion**

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In this study, we presented an improved comparative reactivity method (ICRM) which is suitable for measuring OH reactivity under high-NO<sub>X</sub> conditions. The major

improvements of ICRM compared to the original CRM system are as follows:

(1) The HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> radicals produced from H radicals reacting with O<sub>2</sub> and OH-oxidation of pyrrole, respectively, were removed continuously to the largest extent. In this study, 50 ppbv NO was inject into the ICRM reactor through an additional arm G between arm A and the reactor. Under this NO level, the interference due to the reaction

of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> from pyrrole with NO was minimized.

(2) The OH recycling always happens to some extent when sampled VOCs are introduced into the reactor in the presence of NO, causing the measured OH reactivity ( $R_{true}$ ) deviate from the true OH reactivity ( $R_{true}$ ). We quantified this effect by calibrating several representative VOC species, CO and SO<sub>2</sub> to obtain the slope of  $R_{meas}$  versus  $R_{true}$ . Different VOC species produce similar slopes, which are significantly higher than the slopes of CO and SO<sub>2</sub>. Using the average value of the derived slopes of the different species as a correction factor, we obtained the more accurate  $R_{meas}$ .

Additionally, the effect of ambient NO on the difference between  $R_{\text{true}}$  and  $R'_{\text{meas}}$  was quantified.

(3) Transforming the structure of the glass reactor to reduce the amount of ultraviolet light generated by the mercury lamp reaching the main body of the glass reactor. This effort resulted in eliminating the interference of pyrrole photolysis existed in the original system. Under this condition, the new C1 mode used was able to avoid the interference resulting from OH radicals produced by photolysis of residual humidity and save lots of time compared with the original C1 mode. The ICRM system was employed in a field campaign to measure OH reactivity and performed well even if ambient NO concentrations are high.

# Data availability

The more detailed data can be provided by contacting the corresponding author.

#### **Author contributions**

WJW and BY came up the idea for the improved CRM. JPQ built the ICRM system

and performed data analysis. WJW, JPQ and BY wrote the manuscript, with contributions from all other authors. YWP and SHW provided the PTR-TOF-MS and PAMS data. SXY helped the box model run. JW and VS revised the manuscript. MS provided the financial support.

#### **Competing interests**

The author declares that there is no conflict of interest.

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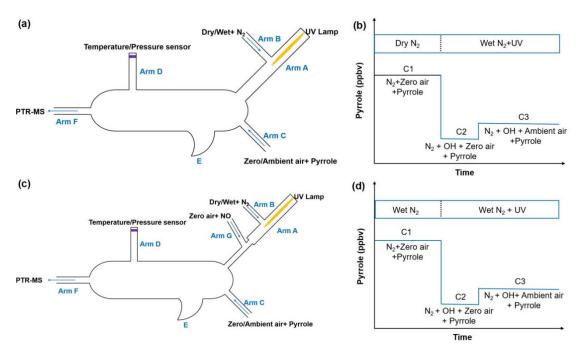
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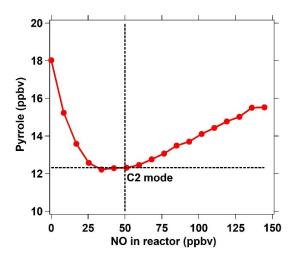
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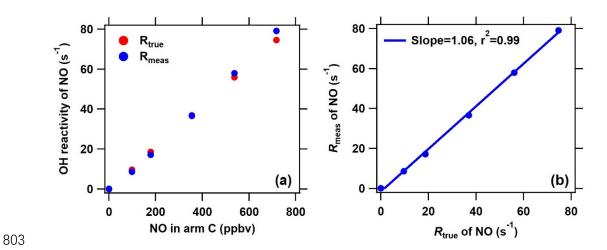
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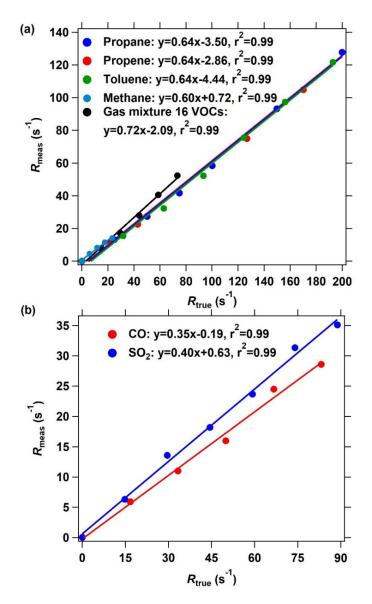
**Figure 1**. Schematic and work mode of the original CRM method (Sinha et al., 2008, a and b) and the ICRM method (this study, c and d).



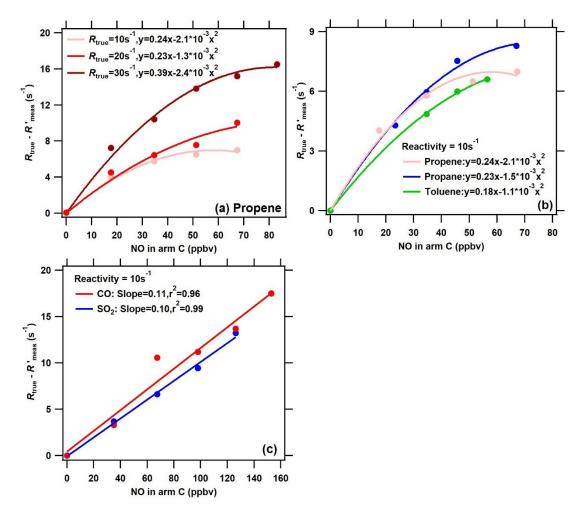
**Figure 2**. The response of pyrrole concentration to different NO concentrations introduced through arm G into the reactor. For the ICRM system, the C2 mode is corresponding to the pyrrole concentration = 12.31 ppbv at NO = 50 ppbv where the HO<sub>2</sub> radicals were removed constantly.



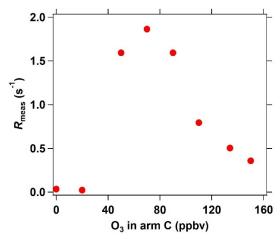
**Figure 3.** Comparison of measured and true OH reactivity of NO at different NO concentrations introduced through arm C. The measured OH reactivity of NO was calculated based on the new C2 mode shown in Fig. 2 in the ICRM system.



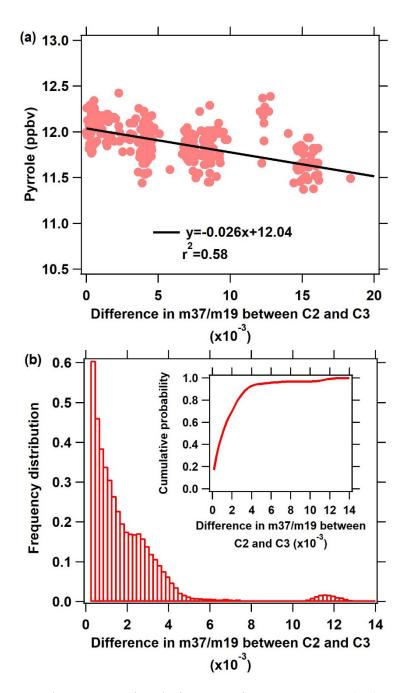
**Figure 4.** The OH reactivity calibration of the improved CRM system using different standard gases. (a) The calibrating results of organic species including methane, propane, propene, toluene, and a mixture of 16 VOC species through arm C. (b) The calibrating results of inorganic species including CO and SO<sub>2</sub>. The measured OH reactivity was calculated based on the C2 mode shown in Fig. 2 in the ICRM system.



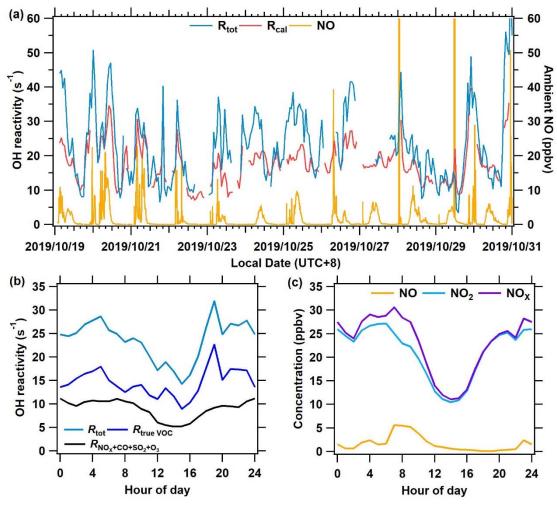
**Figure 5**. The difference between true OH reactivity ( $R_{true}$ ) and the corrected measured OH reactivity ( $R'_{meas}$ ) using the calibration factor  $\alpha_1$  ( $R'_{meas} = (\frac{1}{\alpha_{VOC}} * R_{meas})$ ) as a function of NO concentrations in arm C in the conditions of (**a**) different levels of VOCs reactivity for the same species (propylene), (**b**) different VOCs species for the same OH reactivity level ( $10 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), and (**c**) different inorganic species (Red: CO; Blue: SO<sub>2</sub>) for the same OH reactivity level ( $10 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ). Note that NO, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, and VOCs were introduced into the reactor through arm C.



**Figure 6**. Interference of different O<sub>3</sub> concentration (introduced into the reactor through arm C) on measured OH reactivity in the ICRM system.



**Figure 7**. (a) Pyrrole concentration during zero air measurements (C2) as a function of the difference in m37/m19 between C2 and C3 humidity indicator (m37/m19). (b) Frequency distribution of the difference in m37/m19 between C2 and C3 during the measurement.



**Figure 8**. The measurement results of OH reactivity and ambient NO at the Heshan site from October 19 to October 31, 2019. (a) The time series of total OH reactivity ( $R_{tot}$ ), calculated reactivity ( $R_{cal}$ ), and ambient NO concentration; (b) Mean diurnal profile of OH reactivity of  $R_{true\ VOC}$ ,  $R_{NO_X+CO+SO_2+O_3}$ , and  $R_{tot}$ ; (c) Mean diurnal profiles of measured NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub>.