



1	The Improved Comparative Reactivity Method (ICRM):
2	measurements of OH reactivity at high-NO _X conditions in
3	ambient air
4	
5	Wenjie Wang ^{1,3#} , Jipeng Qi ^{1,2#} , Jun Zhou ^{1,2} , Bin Yuan ^{1,2*} , Yuwen Peng ^{1,2} , Sihang
6	Wang ^{1,2} , Jonathan Williams ⁴ , Vinayak Sinha ⁵ , Min Shao ^{1,2}
7	
8	¹ Institute for Environmental and Climate Research, Jinan University, Guangzhou
9	511443, China.
10	² Guangdong-Hongkong-Macau Joint Laboratory of Collaborative Innovation for
11	Environmental Quality, Guangzhou 511443, China.
12	³ Multiphase Chemistry Department, Max Planck Institute for Chemistry, Mainz 55128,
13	Germany.
14	⁴ Atmospheric Chemistry Department, Max Planck Institute for Chemistry, Mainz
15	55128, Germany.
16	⁵ Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Indian Institute of Science
17	Education and Research (IISER), Mohali 140306, India.
18	
19	
20	#W.J.W. and J.P.Q. contributed equally to this work.
21	*Correspondence to: byuan@jnu.edu.cn
22	





23 Abstract

The comparative reactivity method (CRM) has been developed more than a 24 decade to measure OH reactivity (i.e. OH loss frequency) in both laboratory and field 25 26 studies. However, accurate OH reactivity quantification remains challenging under real ambient condition, especially for OH reactivity measurements in high-NOx (e.g. >1027 ppbv) environments, as ambient NO enhance regeneration of OH radicals in the CRM 28 reactor. To resolve this problem, we design a new improved CRM reactor (ICRM) and 29 add NO into the system continuously, so that the HO₂ radical concentration is 30 suppressed. We confirmed the appropriate level of NO by determining the maximum 31 decrease in the pyrrole level caused by regenerated OH radicals from NO + HO₂. VOC-32 induced RO2 radicals in the ICRM reactor were also found to react with NO, which lead 33 to the re-generation of OH radicals thus the underestimation of OH reactivity. This 34 effect was quantified by the calibration of representative VOC species at different NO 35 36 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 37 correction by at least an order of magnitude compared to the original CRM system. 38 39 Additionally, these technological improvements also considerably reduced the systematic errors from pyrrole photolysis that exists in the original system. A new 40 operation mode was proposed for ICRM, which is able to avoid the interference 41 42 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 43 measure OH reactivity and performed well with ambient NO levels ranged from 0 to 44 45 50 ppby, which were typically observed in urban and suburban atmosphere.





46 **1 Introduction**

The hydroxyl radical (OH) is the most important oxidant in the daytime 47 troposphere. It initiates the chemically removal of primary gaseous pollutants and in 48 turn produces a host of secondary pollutants (A. Hofzumahaus, 1991; Atkinson, 2000; 49 Roger Atkinson, 2003). The OH reactivity is defined as the sum of all OH reactive trace 50 gas concentrations multiplied by their respective reaction rate coefficients with OH, as 51 shown in Eq. 1. The OH reactivity is a fundamental property of the atmosphere in that 52 53 it defines the overall loss frequency of OH radicals and hence the lifetime of OH. As 54 such it is a useful atmospheric parameter for evaluating the level of reactive pollutants 55 and it is closely related to atmospheric oxidation capacity and formation of secondary 56 pollutants including ozone and secondary aerosols (Sinha et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2016; Pfannerstill et al., 2019). 57

58
$$R_{OH} = \sum_{i}^{n} k_{VOC_{i}}[VOC_{i}] + k_{CO}[CO] + k_{NO_{2}}[NO_{2}] + k_{SO_{2}}[SO_{2}] + k_{O_{3}}[O_{3}]$$
(1)

Equation 1 defines the OH reactivity where R_{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, NO₂, SO₂, O₃, and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) species *i*, respectively. [CO], [NO], [NO₂], [SO₂], [O₃], and [VOC_{*i*}] are the concentrations of CO, NO, NO₂, SO₂, O₃, and VOCs species *i*, respectively.

Currently, two general methods are used to measure OH reactivity: (1) direct 64 measurements of OH decay rates by laser-induced fluorescence (LIF) technique; (2) 65 measuring the relative change of a reference substance with and without ambient air 66 67 present by the comparative reactivity method (CRM). The LIF based technology has 68 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; 69 70 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 71 72 deterrents to the widespread deployment for field measurements (Sinha et al., 2008). 73 Such detector systems need to be built and cannot be bought directly from a supplier.





74 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 75 absence of ambient air. The reference substance can be measured by an online 76 77 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., 78 2012a; Praplan et al., 2017a; Praplan et al., 2019b). The CRM technique has proven to 79 be a useful supplementary technique to measure the total OH reactivity in ambient air, 80 with a more economical and portable setup than the LIF-based systems. Based on inter-81 comparison between various OH reactivity techniques in the SAPHIR chamber, the LIF 82 type-instruments are generally more sensitive and less noisy than CRM instruments 83 (Fuchs et al., 2017). 84

The CRM approach has been applied to numerous field campaigns in recent years 85 to measure OH reactivity (Dolgorouky et al., 2012; Nölscher et al., 2014; Michoud et 86 87 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., 88 2019; Praplan et al., 2019a). However, this method is not suitable for the environment 89 90 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 HO₂ radicals that 91 92 may react with sampled NO to produce additional OH radicals (Sinha et al., 2008; Yang 93 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 94 certain levels (Sinha et al., 2008). This NO interference prevents the CRM method from 95 96 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 97 reactivity/low NO_X environments, including forests (Sinha et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2011; 98 Nolscher et al., 2012b; Praplan et al., 2019b; Pfannerstill et al., 2020), moderately 99 polluted cities (NO \leq 10 ppb) (Sinha et al., 2008; Praplan et al., 2017b), pristine marine 100 environments (Sinha et al., 2012; Zannoni et al., 2015), emission sources (e.g. gasoline 101 evaporation) (Wu et al., 2015), branch cuvette studies (Nölscher et al., 2013), and 102





103 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 104 reactor. However, the present technology is not able to remove NO selectively without 105 106 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 107 curve applied to adjust ambient measurements according to simultaneously measured 108 NO levels (Hansen et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2017a). However, the uncertainty of 109 measured OH reactivity due to NO correction increases with NO concentration (Hansen 110 et al., 2015; Michoud et al., 2015). Hansen et al. (2015) reported that the total 111 uncertainty increases by up to a factor of 3 at NO_x mixing ratios higher than 40 ppbv. 112 Therefore, it calls for an improvement of the traditional CRM reactor for accurately 113 quantifying OH reactivity at high NO_x conditions. In addition to the NO effect, 114 photolysis of pyrrole and VOCs, and the humidity difference between zero air and 115 116 ambient air also influence measured OH reactivity (Sinha et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 117 2015; Zannoni et al., 2015).

The main purpose of this study is to improve the original CRM system to make it 118 119 suitable for using in high-NOx conditions. We modified the structure of the original CRM glass reactor and add a certain amount of NO into the system to remove the 120 121 generated but unwanted HO2 radicals. We further characterized the improved CRM 122 (ICRM) system by quantitatively evaluating the effect of the reaction of sample VOCinduced RO₂ with NO on measured OH reactivity. Additionally, the interference of 123 pyrrole photolysis was also systematically evaluated. Finally, the ICRM system was 124 125 deployed to measure OH reactivity under high-NOx conditions (0-50 ppbv) during a field campaign in the Pearl River Delta region of China. 126

127 2 Experimental and Methodology

128 2.1 The original CRM reactor

129 The schematic of the original CRM reactor is shown in Fig. 1a. Gas-phase pyrrole 130 mixed with zero air or ambient air is introduced through arm C at a constant flow. Arm

147





(2)

A consists of a pen-ray spectral mercury lamp, 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, H₂O is photolyzed into OH and H radicals by the mercury lamp at 184.9 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., 137 2009). In C0 mode, the mercury lamp is turned off and high-purity dry nitrogen is 138 introduced into the reactor through arm B. Pyrrole is introduced into the reactor with 139 dry zero air through arm C. In C1 mode, the mercury lamp is turned on while everything 140 else remains the same as C0. Pyrrole concentration decreases during C1 mode due to 141 its photolysis reaction. In C2 mode, nitrogen flow in C1 is changed to humidified 142 nitrogen to generate OH radicals, and the pyrrole concentration decreases to C2. In the 143 144 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 (R_{OH}) is 145 calculated as Eq. 2: 146

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

148 Where k_{pyr+OH} is the rate coefficient for the reaction of pyrrole with OH radicals 149 (1.28×10⁻¹⁰ cm³·molecule⁻¹·s⁻¹ (Dillon et al., 2012)), and C1, C2, and C3 represent 150 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 O2 of zero air or ambient air to generate HO₂ radicals, as shown in R2. When NO is present in the sampled ambient air, it can recycle OH by reacting with HO₂ (R3).

155
$$H_2O \xrightarrow{184.9nm} OH + H$$
 R1

156
$$H + O_2 + M \rightarrow OH + H$$
 R2

157
$$NO + HO_2 \rightarrow OH + NO_2$$
 R3

An underlying assumption of the CRM approach is that the influence of the species in ambient air on OH radicals in the reactor is ignorable. However, the additional OH





160 radicals produced via R3 can react with pyrrole to cause an additional decrease in

161 pyrrole relative to C2 mode, thus lead to the underestimation of OH reactivity.

162 2.2 The improved CRM reactor

163 In order to remove the interference of the reaction of HO₂ radicals with NO as discussed above, we modified the pipe structure of the original CRM reactor (Fig. 1c). 164 We kept the length and volume of the glass reactor of the ICRM system similar to the 165 original CRM system, but added a branch inlet G (1/4 inch OD glass; length 3 cm) in 166 arm A to introduce steam of NO standard (Air Liquide; stated uncertainty 3%; 10.8 167 ppmv) mixed with zero air at a constant flow of 120 ml·min⁻¹. The typical flow rate 168 inside the ICRM reactor is approximately 660 ml·min⁻¹. The flow rate of nitrogen (Air 169 Liquide; 99.9995% purity) through arm B is 250 ml·min⁻¹. The input pyrrole (Linde 170 Spectra Environment Gases; stated uncertainty 5%; 5.37 ppm) flow rate is 2.5 ml min 171 ¹. The total flow rate of pyrrole and zero air (Air Liquide; 99.9995% purity) through 172 arm C is 290 ml min⁻¹. With this modified structure of arm A, the HO₂ radicals, 173 produced by the reaction of the generated H radicals near the mercury lamp and O_2 in 174 introduced zero air, were converted to OH radicals by reacting with NO in the 175 downstream of arm G. The interference induced by R3 can then be eliminated. 176

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 purpose of this 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 due to wall loss, OH radicals produced from the reaction of HO₂ radicals with NO can partially compensate for this loss.

184 **2.3 The detection of pyrrole by PTR-MS**

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⁻¹; Water: 165.2 kcal·mol⁻¹) (Sinha





188 et al., 2008), pyrrole is chemically ionized by proton transfer with H_3O^+ ions and the product ions are detected using a quadrupole mass spectrometer. As highlighted by 189 Sinha et al. (2009), the sensitivity of PTR-MS instruments toward pyrrole is dependent 190 191 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 192 (2007) was employed in this study to account for the effect of ion source and humidity 193 on the sensitivity of PTR-MS toward pyrrole (de Gouw et al., 2007). This approach 194 involves normalization of the pyrrole signal to a sum of reagent ion signals $(H_3O^++X_R)$ 195 \times H₃O⁺ • H₂O) that leads to a normalized signal for pyrrole that is independent of 196 humidity. X_R , a scaling factor for the $H_3O^+ \bullet H_2O$ signal, is determined experimentally 197 by measuring the pyrrole signal from a standard mixture under different humidity 198 conditions. In this study, a relatively higher electric field parameter of the drift tube (i.e. 199 E/N) value of 153 Td was used to measure pyrrole, which can minimize the humidity 200 201 effect from water clusters in the PTR-MS instrument. As shown in SI, the best estimate 202 for X_R parameter was determined to be zero (Fig. S1), indicating negligible role for $H_3O^+ \bullet H_2O$ in pyrrole detection by PTR-MS in this study. 203

204 **2.4 Other instruments of the ambient measurement campaign**

In order to test and validate the ICRM system for OH reactivity measurements 205 under high NO concentrations, we conducted field measurements of OH reactivity at a 206 receptor site in the Pearl River Delta (PRD) region of China (Yang et al., 2017b; Tan et 207 al., 2019). Meanwhile, non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHCs) and oxygenated volatile 208 organic compounds (OVOCs) were also measured by online gas chromatograph mass 209 210 spectrometer and flame ionization detector (GC-MS/FID) (Wang et al., 2014a) and 211 proton transfer reaction time-of-flight mass spectrometry (PTR-TOF-MS) (Yuan et al., 2017), respectively (Table S1). Inorganic trace gases, including CO, NO₂, NO, SO₂ and 212 213 O3, were measured by Thermofisher 48i CO analyzer, 2B Technologies Model 405nm NOx analyzer, Thermofisher 42i NOx analyzer, Thermofisher 43i SO2 analyzer, and 214 Thermofisher 49i O₃ analyzer, respectively. Detailed descriptions of these systems can 215 216 be found in previous studies (Wang et al., 2014b; Birks et al., 2018).





217 2.5. Zero dimensional box model

To test our understanding of the chemical processes occurring inside the ICRM 218 reactor, results from laboratory experiments were compared with simulation from zero-219 dimensional (0-D) box model. The MCM v3.3.1 (Wolfe et al., 2016) was used as 220 221 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 222 223 concentrations of OH, HO₂, pyrrole, VOCs, CO, and NO were supplied, and the time-224 dependent variations of different compounds in the reactor are simulated. The initial 225 concentrations of OH (4 ppbv), HO₂ (4 ppbv), and pyrrole (21 ppbv) are determined 226 based on results from our experiments. The residence time in the reactor was about 11 s according to the volume of the reactor (120 cm³) and the flow of introduced gases 227 (660 ml·min⁻¹). An MCM subset was extracted for inorganic reactions, and reactions 228 for propane, propene, and toluene. C₃H₅O₂ was used as a surrogate for the peroxy 229 230 radicals from pyrrole, as the degradation of pyrrole is not included in MCM.

231 **3 Results and discussion**

232 3.1 Determination of the amount of NO addition

233 In addition to HO₂ produced from the reaction of H radicals with O₂, RO₂ produced 234 from the reaction of pyrrole with OH also react with NO to recycle HO₂ and OH (R4-235 R6), and consume pyrrole. In order to eliminate the effect of HO_2 and RO_2 radicals, NO 236 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 237 the concentration of NO introduced through arm G (as described below and Fig. 2). 238 239 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 ppby, which decreased to 240 18 ppbv when the mercury lamp was turned on at 0 ppbv NO, implying that the 241 generated OH radicals depleted ~ 4 ppbv pyrrole. We varied the NO concentrations 242 mixed with the zero air entering arm G which resulted in NO concentrations in the 243 reactor ranged from 0 to 150 ppby, and found out the appropriate NO level to consume 244





245	all HO ₂ and RO ₂ produced in the glass reactor. NO was mixed with zero air rather than
246	nitrogen, as oxygen in zero air can transform H radicals in arm A to HO2 radicals.
247	Pyrrole concentration decreases with the increase of NO concentrations, reaching a
248	minimum when NO concentration is circa $40\sim 50$ ppbv, and increased again when NO
249	concentration exceeds 50 ppbv.

$$RH + OH + O_2 \rightarrow RO_2 + H_2O \qquad R4$$

251
$$RO_2 + NO + O_2 \rightarrow HO_2 + NO_2 + carbonyls$$
 R5

- $NO + HO_2 \rightarrow OH + NO_2$ R6
- 253 $RO_2 + HO_2 \rightarrow peroxide$ R7

where RH represents pyrrole in the reactor or introduced ambient VOCs into the reactor. 254 The NO addition experiments are simulated in the box model. The simulated 255 pyrrole concentrations as a function of NO concentration is consistent with laboratory 256 experiments: with pyrrole concentrations decreasing at first and then increasing (Fig. 257 S2). When NO is not present in the reactor, the self-reactions of peroxy radicals 258 (HO2+HO2, HO2+RO2) dominate the sink of HO2 and RO2 (Fig. S3). As NO is 259 introduced into the reactor, the reaction of NO with HO2 or RO2 competes with the self-260 261 reactions of peroxy radicals. With more NO introduced, the produced OH radicals from the reaction of HO_2 with NO increase, leading to the decrease of pyrrole concentration 262 263 (Fig. S3). As the NO concentration exceeds 50 ppbv, pyrrole concentrations increase 264 again, due to the large excess NO competes with pyrrole for reaction with OH radicals. The remaining NO concentration outflowing from the reactor increases with the 265 introduced NO concentrations (Fig. S2), indicating that excessive NO is needed to 266 267 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 268 introduced NO concentration at 50 ppbv. The laboratory measurements and simulated 269 results both suggest that $40 \sim 50$ ppbv is the lowest NO concentration needed to 270 transform HO₂ and RO₂ to OH to the largest extent. The higher introduced NO 271 concentration had a negligible effect on the increase in OH production from HO₂ and 272 RO2. Thus, we introduce 50 ppbv NO concentration into the ICRM reactor in the 273





experiments in this study. Under this optimized condition, the pyrrole concentration
decreased to 12.3 ppbv. 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 279 that the OH production from HO2 and pyrrole-induced RO2 will not manifest itself 280 when ambient NO is introduced through arm C. For this purpose, we compared 281 measured and true OH reactivity of NO by passing a series of NO concentrations (0 \sim 282 160 ppbv) mixed with zero air through arm C into the reactor (Figure 3). In this test, no 283 other reactive gases were introduced into the system except NO. Measured OH 284 reactivity of NO agreed well with the corresponding calculated values, indicating that 285 HO₂ radicals have been fully consumed, and pyrrole peroxy radicals were effectively 286 287 converted to carbonyls and nitrates by NO introduced through arm G.

288 **3.2 Calibration for OH reactivity of VOCs**

289 Several reactive VOC species were used to validate and calibrate the ICRM system, including propane, propene, toluene, and mixed gases including 16 VOC species 290 (acetaldehyde, methanol, ethanol, isoprene, acetone, acetonitrile, methyl vinyl ketone, 291 methyl ethyl ketone, benzene, toluene, o-xylene, α-pinene, 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene, 292 phenol, m-cresol, naphthalene). These VOC species were introduced into the system 293 through arm C at various reactivity ($0 \sim 80 \text{ s}^{-1}$). Figure 4 (a) presents the plots of the 294 measured (R_{meas} , s⁻¹) versus true OH reactivity (R_{true} , s⁻¹) of these species. R_{meas} is lower 295 296 than $R_{\rm true}$ for almost all species with the slopes of linear fittings ranging from 0.70 to 0.74. The slopes of propane, propene, toluene, and mixed gases are 0.70, 0.74, 0.72, 297 and 0.72, respectively. The OH reactivity calibration of SO2 and CO indicates that the 298 299 linear fitting slope of R_{meas} versus R_{true} is 0.33 and 0.41, respectively (Fig. 4 b), which is lower than that of VOCs. 300

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





303 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) 304 at [Pyrrole]/[OH] = 2.5 after OH had reacted to zero, versus the true reactivity. The 305 306 correction curve indicates that the calculated reactivity underestimates the true reactivity by about 5%. After considering this interference, the slope of calibration 307 shown in Fig. 4 (a) and 4(b) decreased to $0.66 \sim 0.70$ for VOCs, 0.31 for SO₂ and 0.39 308 for CO, respectively. Therefore, the deviation of pseudo-first-order conditions cannot 309 explain the calibrated slopes for VOCs, CO and SO₂ being lower than one. 310

The lower calibrated slopes for VOCs than one can be related to secondary 311 chemistry of VOC-generated RO2 radicals with NO. When more VOCs are introduced 312 into the reactor, additional RO2 radicals produced from the reaction of VOCs with OH 313 will react with excessive NO in the reactor thus increase the recycled OH (R4-R6). The 314 recycled OH from RO₂ will deplete pyrrole thus leading to a R_{meas} lower than the R_{true}. 315 316 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 317 depends on the true OH reactivity of VOCs, NO concentrations and the efficiency of 318 319 organic nitrate production (RO₂ + NO \rightarrow RONO₂) in this system. The consistency in the linear fitting slopes of different VOC species indicate that the $RO_2 + NO$ reactions 320 321 for the investigated VOCs are similar. This is in agreement with the simulated results 322 (Fig. S7). The lower fitting slope of SO₂ and CO than that of VOCs is because SO₂ and CO react with OH to produce HO_2 , which has higher efficiency to produce OH by 323 reacting with NO than RO₂ that goes through two steps (RO₂ \rightarrow HO₂, and HO₂ \rightarrow OH). 324 325 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 SO₂ (characterized by avoc, aco 326 and α_{SO2}) at ambient NO = 0 ppbv. 327

To further evaluate the performance of the ICRM system with elevated NOx 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,





332 the R'_{meas} (The R'_{meas} is defined as the corrected R_{meas} by correction coefficient αvoc) was observed to decrease with increased NO concentration (Fig. S5), and thus the 333 difference between R_{true} and R'_{meas} ($R_{\text{true}} - R'_{\text{meas}}$) increases with increased NO 334 concentrations for the four VOC standard gases (Fig. 5a and b). This is because the 335 reaction rate of RO₂ with NO increases with NO concentrations leading to enhancement 336 of the recycled OH. The linear fitting slopes of $(R_{true} - R'_{meas})$ versus NO concentrations 337 for different VOC species and different reactivity levels range from 0.10 to 0.22 s⁻¹ 338 ppbv⁻¹. Similar to VOCs, the difference between R_{true} and R'_{meas} ($R_{\text{true}} - R'_{\text{meas}}$) also 339 increases with NO concentrations for CO and SO2 with slope of 0.11 and 0.10 340 respectively (The R'_{meas} is defined as the corrected R_{meas} by correction coefficient α_{CO} 341 and aso2) (Fig. 5 c). However, the difference of NO effects between VOCs and CO (and 342 SO₂) as shown in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 has not been reported in previous studies about CRM 343 344 system.

345 Previous studies have reported that NO had a large effect on the difference between Rtrue and Rmeas in the CRM systems (Note that the Rmeas is not corrected in previous 346 347 studies) (Hansen et al., 2015; Michoud et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2017b). This NO-effect 348 is not only due to the reaction of HO₂ with NO, but also due to the reaction of pyrroleproduced and VOC-produced RO₂ with NO. Figure S6 compares the effect of NO on 349 350 $(R_{\text{true}} - R_{\text{meas}})$ in the original CRM system (reported by previous studies) with that in the 351 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 352 leads to R_{meas} lower than the R_{true} by 70 ~ 240 s⁻¹, at least an order of magnitude higher 353 354 than the NO artifact in the ICRM system, which leads to R'_{meas} lower than the R_{true} by $5 \sim 13 \text{ s}^{-1}$. This is because both HO₂ and pyrrole-induced RO₂ are fully removed by the 355 introduced NO in advance in the ICRM system, thus the remaining influencing factor 356 is the reaction of ambient VOCs-induced RO2 with NO. The uncertainty due to the NO-357 358 artifact 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 359 by removing HO₂ and pyrrole-induced RO₂. Despite the ICRM system not being able 360





- 361 to remove the NO effect entirely, it does lead to a significant decrease in the uncertainty
- 362 of the NO-artifact correction.

Due to the different behaviors of VOCs, SO₂ and CO at high NO conditions, in order to get accurate OH reactivity, it is necessary to conduct NO-correction for VOCs, SO₂, 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:

368
$$R_{meas} = R_{true \ NO+NO_2} + R_{true \ O_3} + \alpha_{CO}(R_{true \ co} - \beta_{CO}[NO]) + \alpha_{SO_2}(R_{true \ SO_2} - \beta_{CO}[NO])$$

369
$$\beta_{SO_2}[NO]) + \alpha_{VOC}(R_{true \, voc} - \beta_{VOC}[NO])$$
(3)

370
$$R_{true \, VOC} = \frac{1}{\alpha_{VOC}} \left(R_{meas} - R_{true \, NO+NO_2} - R_{true \, O_3} + \alpha_{CO} \beta_{CO} [NO] + \right)$$

371
$$\alpha_{SO_2}\beta_{SO_2}[NO] + \alpha_{VOC}\beta_{VOC}[NO] - \alpha_{CO}R_{true\ co} - \alpha_{SO_2}R_{true\ SO_2})$$
(4)

372 where R_{meas} is the measured OH reactivity by the ICRM system as defined above. The Rtrue voc is the true OH reactivity of VOCs. Ri true was calculated from measured 373 concentrations of species i (i=NO, NO₂, O₃, SO₂ and CO) multiplied by the rate 374 375 coefficient of the reaction of species *i* with OH. The *R*_{meas} and *R*_{true} of NO_X (=NO+NO₂) 376 was close to 1:1 as shown in Fig. 3 and S4. α_{CO} , α_{SO_2} , and α_{VOC} are the correction coefficients with regard to the calibration for OH reactivity of CO, SO2 and VOC at 377 ambient NO = 0 ppbv, respectively. Note that the α_{VOC} is mean slope of Fig. 4 a β_{CO} , 378 β_{SO_2} , and β_{VOC} are the correction coefficients which regard to the effect of ambient 379 NO on $(R_{\text{true}} - R'_{\text{meas}})$. Note that the β_{VOC} is mean slope of Fig. 5 a and b. After getting 380 $R_{true VOC}$, the total OH reactivity (R_{tot}) was then calculated as the summation of 381 $R_{true VOC}$, $R_{true NO+NO_2}$, $R_{true O_2}$, $R_{true SO_2}$, and $R_{true co}$: 382

383
$$R_{tot} = R_{true \, VOC} + R_{true \, NO} + R_{O_3} + R_{true \, NO2} + R_{true \, CO} + R_{true \, SO_2}$$
(5)

384 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 O₂ introduced through arm G by the mercury lamp produces O₃. Besides, the NO introduced through arm G reacts with HO₂ to generate





389 NO₂, which can also photolysis to generate NO and oxygen atoms, and subsequently O_3 . We monitored O_3 concentration through the arm F using an O_3 monitor. O_3 390 concentration flowing out of arm F was less than 5 ppbv, which has a negligible 391 392 influence on the pyrrole concentrations and the R_{meas} , considering the pyrrole+O₃ reaction rate constant $k_{O3+pyrrole} = 1.57 \times 10^{-17} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Atkinson et al., 1984) 393 is several orders of magnitude slower than the pyrrole + OH reaction rate constant 394 $(k_{\text{pyrrole+OH}} = 1.28 \times 10^{-10} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1})$. The ozone concentration was low, as excess 395 NO was introduced to the reactor and the remaining NO titrates O₃ back to NO₂. 396 In the C3 mode of the ICRM, sample ambient O₃ can react with the high-levels 397

NO in the reactor, which might interfere with R_{meas} . We characterize this interference 398 by introducing a series of O_3 concentrations into the reactor through arm C. As O_3 399 concentrations lower than 40 ppby, O₃ has a negligible effect on OH reactivity (Fig. 6). 400 Interestingly, R_{meas} first increases and then decrease with increasing O₃ concentrations. 401 402 The reaction rate coefficient of OH with NO₂ is slightly higher than with NO, which are 1.2×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ and 1.0×10^{-11} cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ at 298K, respectively 403 (Atkinson et al., 2004). With the increase of introduced O3 concentration, higher NO2 404 405 is produced, which causes an increase in R_{meas} . As NO is consumed completely by O₃, excessive O₃ can further react with NO₂ to produce NO₃ radicals, which can deplete 406 pyrrole ($k=1.80 \times 10^{-10}$ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹) (Cabanas et al., 2004) and lead to the 407 decrease in R_{meas} . Overall, OH reactivity exhibited little change (< 2 s⁻¹) with the 408 increase of O₃ concentrations ($0 \sim 160$ ppbv), indicating that the introduced O₃ plays a 409 negligible role in Rmeas. This is another advantage of ICRM compared with the original 410 411 CRM, which needs an ozone correction as the reaction of O_3 with HO₂ gives OH back (Fuchs et al., 2017). 412

According to model simulation, the produced NO₂ from the reaction of NO with HO₂ increases with introduced NO concentrations (Fig. S2). The produced NO₂ can deplete OH (OH + NO₂ \rightarrow HNO₃) and thereby lead to an increase in the pyrrole concentration. When introduced NO with a concentration of 50 ppbv, the produced NO₂ was 25 ppbv, corresponding to 6.2 s⁻¹ OH reactivity (Fig. S2). However, this process





- 418 doesn't interfere with the R_{meas} as the produced NO₂ is the same in both C2 and C3
- 419 modes leading to this effect canceling out in the two modes.

420 **3.4 Photolysis of pyrrole**

Photolysis of pyrrole in the CRM method introduces additional uncertainties and 421 complexity in the determination of OH reactivity (Sinha et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 422 2015; Michoud et al., 2015; Zannoni et al., 2015). To investigate the effect of the ICRM 423 system on the interference from photolysis, we turn the mercury lamp off and on to test 424 the variation in pyrrole concentrations under dry conditions (no humidification). 425 Compared with the condition where the mercury lamp is turned off, pyrrole 426 concentrations decreased by < 3% after the mercury lamp was turned on (Fig. S8), 427 which caused R_{meas} increase of 0.55 s⁻¹ when the R_{true} was 20 s⁻¹. This result indicates 428 that the photolysis of pyrrole is weak enough to be negligible in the ICRM system. This 429 smaller photolysis of pyrrole closely relates to the improved design of reactor structure. 430 Arm A consists of two section of glass tube with 1/2 inch OD and 1/4 inch OD, 431 respectively (Fig. 1). UV light is mostly confined in 1/2 inch OD glass tube of arm A, 432 as the glass tube is constructed with decreasing diameter following the direction of gas 433 flow. This reduces the amount of UV light getting into the main reaction part of the 434 reactor. The improved structure of arm A leads to lower OH concentrations (decreased 435 by approximately 50%) passing into reactor due to wall loss, but the OH radicals 436 produced from the reaction of HO₂ radicals with NO can partially compensate for this 437 loss. In comparison, the pen-ray mercury lamp was very close to the main body of the 438 reactor in the original CRM reactor, to maximize the OH entering the reactor by 439 440 minimizing wall loss. However, this will lead to the photolysis of pyrrole, as high as 441 25% (Sinha et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 2015). The change of the structure of arm A also ensures that the photolysis of H2O, HONO, NO2, and VOCs inside the ICRM reactor is 442 443 weaker than that in the original CRM system. In addition to our design change, previous studies have reported that the photolysis of pyrrole can be also lowered to below 5% by 444 changing the UV mercury lamp position in the setup (Michoud et al., 2015; Zannoni et 445 al., 2015). 446





447 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 448 dry N2 and zero air are used meanwhile the mercury lamp is turned on, was measured 449 every 12 h for a duration of 2 h (Sinha et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 2015). The length of 450 the duration is necessary to reach the driest conditions possible to minimize residual 451 OH in the reactor. It should be noted that this procedure can result in an underestimation 452 of C1, as it is difficult to remove all trace amounts of water molecules from surfaces 453 and in nitrogen and zero air flowing through the reactor, which is able to produce extra 454 OH by photolysis (Hansen et al., 2015; Michoud et al., 2015; Zannoni et al., 2015). The 455 underestimation of C1 will result in an overestimation of OH reactivity. The 456 significantly smaller photolysis of pyrrole for the ICRM system allows us to measure 457 the C1 mode differently. Here, the condition that N₂ and zero air are humidified while 458 the mercury lamp is turned off is regarded as C1. The new C1 mode is able to avoid the 459 460 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 461 mode in ICRM is measured every 12 h for a duration of 15 min, which also saves time 462 463 compared with C1 mode in original CRM.

464 **3.5 Humidity difference between zero air and ambient air**

The variation of humidity between the C2 (wet zero air) and C3 (ambient air) 465 measurements could result in a change in OH production rate in the CRM reactor, which 466 in turn could lead to a C2 measurement not representative of the OH production rate 467 observed during the C3 measurement (Sinha et al., 2008; Dolgorouky et al., 2012). 468 469 Although the use of a catalytic converter or dynamic humidification of zero air can help 470 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 471 472 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 473 areas with high NOx conditions (Hansen et al., 2015). 474

To investigate the influence of humidity differences between C2 and C3 on the





476 R_{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 477 $H_{3}O^{+}(H_{2}O)$ to $H_{3}O^{+}(m37/m19)$ is selected to represent the level of different humidity. 478 Figure 7 (a) presents the dependence of pyrrole concentrations on m37/m19 at mode 479 C2. Pyrrole concentrations slightly decrease with the increase in m37/m19. It must be 480 noted that this dependence is not due to the humidity dependence of the PTR-MS 481 sensitivity toward pyrrole, but the change in OH production in the reactor, as the 482 normalization procedure of pyrrole signal described in Sect. 2.3 was applied to all 483 pyrrole measurements. The maximum difference of m37/m19 between C2 mode and 484 C3 mode is about 0.01 corresponding to RH changing by \sim 30% (Fig. 7 b), which lead 485 to pyrrole changed by ~ 0.26 ppbv and thus the R_{meas} changed by ~1.9 s⁻¹ when the R_{true} 486 is 20 s⁻¹. This result indicates that the influence of humidity change on OH 487 concentrations and subsequently Rmeas cannot be ignored even though the structure of 488 489 arm A was improved to decrease the numbers of photons entering the main body of the 490 reactor. Therefore, humidity correction is needed to accurately R_{meas} . The humidity difference between C2 and C3 mode can be corrected by the function derived from the 491 492 relationship between OH reactivity and m37/m19 (as shown in Fig. 7 a).

493 **3.6 Instrument performance in ambient measurements**

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_{meas} to R_{true} (i.e. α_{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_{tot} , calculated OH reactivity (R_{cal}), and ambient NO. R_{tot} was acquired based on Eq. 5, and R_{cal} 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_{tot} for the entire campaign was 27 s⁻¹. The R_{tot} is higher than the





505 R_{cal} by 34% 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_{tot} has an obvious diurnal 506 variation with higher levels at night and morning than that in the afternoon. This is 507 508 because air pollutants from anthropogenic emissions were accumulated at night and morning due to lack of oxidative consumption, whereas were depleted rapidly during 509 the afternoon due to rising levels of oxidant, i.e. OH radicals. This diurnal pattern of 510 Rtot is similar to that of the previous measurement results in the Pearl River Delta (Lou 511 et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2017a) and Beijing (Williams et al., 2016). Overall, the diurnal 512 variation of the $R_{\rm true \ VOC}$ (calculated by Eq.4) is similar to that of the calculated OH 513 reactivity of inorganic gas (Fig. 8 b) and the concentration of NO_X (Fig. 8 c). A 514 comparison between the Rtot determined by the ICRM method and the laser-induced 515 fluorescence method will be of interest in future studies, particularly because LIF type 516 systems can also experience difficulties at high NO when OH decay rates are rapid. 517 518 Further discussions on the OH reactivity results of this campaign will be given in 519 another publication.

520 4 Conclusion

In this study, we presented an improved comparative reactivity method (ICRM) which is suitable for measuring OH reactivity under high-NO conditions. The major improvements of ICRM compared to the original CRM system are as follows:

(1) The HO₂ and RO₂ radicals produced from H radicals reacting with O₂ and OHoxidation 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 HO₂ and RO₂ from pyrrole with NO was minimized.

529 (2) The OH recycling always happens to some extent when sampled VOCs are 530 introduced into the reactor in the presence of NO, causing the measured OH reactivity 531 (R_{meas}) deviate from the true OH reactivity (R_{true}). We quantified this effect by 532 calibrating several representative VOC species, CO and SO₂ to obtain the slope of R_{meas} 533 versus R_{true} . Different VOC species produce similar slopes, which are significantly





- higher than the slopes of CO and SO₂. 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_{true} and R'_{meas} was
- 537 quantified.
- (3) Transforming the structure of the glass reactor to reduce the amount of ultraviolet 538 light generated by the mercury lamp reaching the main body of the glass reactor. This 539 effort resulted in eliminating the interference of pyrrole photolysis existed in the 540 original system. Under this condition, the new C1 mode used was able to avoid the 541 interference resulting from OH radicals produced by photolysis of residual humidity 542 and save lots of time compared with the original C1 mode. The ICRM system was 543 employed in a field campaign to measure OH reactivity and performed well even if 544 ambient NO concentrations are high. 545
- 546

547 Data availability

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

549

550 Author contributions

551 WJW and BY came up the idea for the improved CRM. JPQ built the ICRM system 552 and performed data analysis. WJW, JPQ and BY wrote the manuscript, with 553 contributions from all other authors. YWP and SHW provided the PTR-TOF-MS and 554 PAMS data.

555

556 Competing interests

557 The author declares that there is no conflict of interest.

558

559 Acknowledgment

This work was supported by Key-Area Research and Development Program of Guangdong Province (grant No. 2019B110206001), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant No. 41877302), Guangdong Natural Science Funds for





- 563 Distinguished Young Scholar (grant No. 2018B030306037), the National Key R&D
- 564 Plan of China (grant No. 2019YFE0106300, 2018YFC0213904, 2016YFC0202206),
- 565 Guangdong Soft Science Research Program (2019B101001005), and Guangdong
- 566 Innovative and Entrepreneurial Research Team Program (grant No. 2016ZT06N263).
- 567 This work was also supported by Special Fund Project for Science and Technology
- 568 Innovation Strategy of Guangdong Province (Grant No.2019B121205004).





569	References
570	A. Hofzumahaus, H. P. D., J. Callies, U. Platt and D. H. Ehhalt: Tropospheric OH concentration
571	measurements by laser long-path absorption spectroscopy, Atmospheric Environment, 25A, 2017-
572	2022, 1991.
573	Atkinson, R.: Atmospheric chemistry of VOCs and NOX, Atmospheric Environment, 36, 2063-2101,
574	2000.
575	Atkinson, R., Aschmann, S. M., Winer, A. M., and Carter, W. P. L.: Rate constants for the gas phase
576	reactions of OH radicals and O3, with pyrrole at 295 ± 1 K and atmospheric pressure, Atmospheric
577	Environment, 18, 2105-2107, 1984.
578	Atkinson, R., Baulch, D. L., Cox, R. A., Crowley, J. N., Hampson, R. F., Hynes, R. G., Jenkin, M. E.,
579	Rossi, M. J., and Troe, J.: Evaluated kinetic and photochemical data for atmospheric chemistry:
580	Volume I - gas phase reactions ofOx, HOx, NOx and SOx species, Atmospheric Chemistry and
581	Physics, 4, 1461-1738, 2004.
582	Birks, J. W., Andersen, P. C., Williford, C. J., Turnipseed, A. A., Strunk, S. E., Ennis, C. A., and Mattson,
583	E.: Folded tubular photometer for atmospheric measurements of NO2 and NO, Atmospheric
584	Measurement Techniques, 11, 2821-2835, doi: 10.5194/amt-11-2821-2018, 2018.
585	Cabanas, B., Baeza, M. T., Salgado, S., Martin, P., Taccone, R., and Martinez, E.: Oxidation of
586	heterocycles in the atmosphere: Kinetic study of their reactions with NO3 radical, J. Phys. Chem.
587	A, 108, 10818-10823, doi: 10.1021/jp046524t, 2004.
588	de Gouw, J. and Warneke, C.: Measurements of volatile organic compounds in the earth's atmosphere
589	using proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometry, Mass Spectrom Rev, 26, 223-257, doi:
590	10.1002/mas.20119, 2007.
591	Dillon, T. J., Tucceri, M. E., Dulitz, K., Horowitz, A., Vereecken, L., and Crowley, J. N.: Reaction of
592	hydroxyl radicals with C4H5N (pyrrole): temperature and pressure dependent rate coefficients, J
593	Phys Chem A, 116, 6051-6058, doi: 10.1021/jp211241x, 2012.
594	Dolgorouky, C., Gros, V., Sarda-Esteve, R., Sinha, V., Williams, J., Marchand, N., Sauvage, S., Poulain,
595	L., Sciare, J., and Bonsang, B.: Total OH reactivity measurements in Paris during the 2010
596	MEGAPOLI winter campaign, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 12, 9593-9612, doi:
597	10.5194/acp-12-9593-2012, 2012.





- 598 Fuchs, H., Novelli, A., Rolletter, M., Hofzumahaus, A., Pfannerstill, E. Y., Kessel, S., Edtbauer, A.,
- 599 Williams, J., Michoud, V., Dusanter, S., Locoge, N., Zannoni, N., Gros, V., Truong, F., Sarda-Esteve,
- 600 R., Cryer, D. R., Brumby, C. A., Whalley, L. K., Stone, D., Seakins, P. W., Heard, D. E.,
- 601 Schoemaecker, C., Blocquet, M., Coudert, S., Batut, S., Fittschen, C., Thames, A. B., Brune, W. H.,
- 602 Ernest, C., Harder, H., Muller, J. B. A., Elste, T., Kubistin, D., Andres, S., Bohn, B., Hohaus, T.,
- 603 Holland, F., Li, X., Rohrer, F., Kiendler-Scharr, A., Tillmann, R., Wegener, R., Yu, Z. J., Zou, Q.,
- and Wahner, A.: Comparison of OH reactivity measurements in the atmospheric simulation chamber
- 605 SAPHIR, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 10, 4023-4053, doi: 10.5194/amt-10-4023-2017, 2017.
- 606 Hansen, R. F., Blocquet, M., Schoemaecker, C., Léonardis, T., Locoge, N., Fittschen, C., Hanoune, B.,
- 607 Stevens, P. S., Sinha, V., and Dusanter, S.: Intercomparison of the comparative reactivity method
- 608 (CRM) and pump-probe technique for measuring total OH reactivity in an urban environment,
- 609 Atmospheric Measurement Techniques, 8, 4243-4264, doi: 10.5194/amt-8-4243-2015, 2015.
- 610 Ingham, T., Goddard, A., Whalley, L. K., Furneaux, K. L., Edwards, P. M., Seal, C. P., Self, D. E., Johnson,
- 611 G. P., Read, K. A., Lee, J. D., and Heard, D. E.: A flow-tube based laser-induced fluorescence
- 612 instrument to measure OH reactivity in the troposphere, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 2,
- 613 465-477, doi: 10.5194/amt-2-465-2009, 2009.
- 614 Kim, S., Guenther, A., Karl, T., and Greenberg, J.: Contributions of primary and secondary biogenic VOC
- 615 tototal OH reactivity during the CABINEX (Community Atmosphere-Biosphere INteractions
- Experiments)-09 field campaign, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 11, 8613-8623, doi:
 10.5194/acp-11-8613-2011, 2011.
- 618 Kim, S., Sanchez, D., Wang, M., Seco, R., Jeong, D., Hughes, S., Barletta, B., Blake, D. R., Jung, J.,
- 619 Kim, D., Lee, G., Lee, M., Ahn, J., Lee, S. D., Cho, G., Sung, M. Y., Lee, Y. H., Kim, D. B., Kim,
- 620 Y., Woo, J. H., Jo, D., Park, R., Park, J. H., Hong, Y. D., and Hong, J. H.: OH reactivity in urban
- and suburban regions in Seoul, South Korea an East Asian megacity in a rapid transition, Faraday
- 622 Discuss, 189, 231-251, doi: 10.1039/c5fd00230c, 2016.
- 623 Kovacs, T. A. and Brune, W. H.: Total OH Loss Rate Measurement, Journal of Atmospheric Chemistry,
- 624 39, 105-122, doi: 10.1023/A:1010614113786, 2001.
- 625 Kovacs, T. A., Brune, W. H., Harder, H., Martinez, M., Simpas, J. B., Frost, G. J., Williams, E., Jobson,
- 626 T., Stroud, C., Young, V., Fried, A., and Wert, B.: Direct measurements of urban OH reactivity





627	during Nashville SOS in summer 1999, J Environ Monit, 5, 68-74, doi: 10.1039/b204339d, 2003.
628	Kumar, V., Chandra, B. P., and Sinha, V.: Large unexplained suite of chemically reactive compounds
629	present in ambient air due to biomass fires, Sci Rep, 8, 626, doi: 10.1038/s41598-017-19139-3,
630	2018.
631	Kumar, V. and Sinha, V.: VOC-OHM: A new technique for rapid measurements of ambient total OH
632	reactivity and volatile organic compounds using a single proton transfer reaction mass spectrometer,
633	International Journal of Mass Spectrometry, 374, 55-63, doi: 10.1016/j.ijms.2014.10.012, 2014.
634	Lou, S., Holland, F., Rohrer, F., Lu, K., Bohn, B., Brauers, T., Chang, C. C., Fuchs, H., Häseler, R., Kita,
635	K., Kondo, Y., Li, X., Shao, M., Zeng, L., Wahner, A., Zhang, Y., Wang, W., and Hofzumahaus, A.:
636	Atmospheric OH reactivities in the Pearl River Delta - China in summer 2006: measurement and
637	model results, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 10, 11243-11260, doi: 10.5194/acp-10-11243-
638	2010, 2010.
639	Michoud, V., Hansen, R. F., Locoge, N., Stevens, P. S., and Dusanter, S.: Detailed characterizations of
640	the new Mines Douai comparative reactivity method instrument via laboratory experiments and
641	modeling, Atmospheric Measurement Techniques, 8, 3537-3553, doi: 10.5194/amt-8-3537-2015,
642	2015.
643	Nölscher, A. C., Bourtsoukidis, E., Bonn, B., Kesselmeier, J., Lelieveld, J., and Williams, J.: Seasonal
644	measurements of total OH reactivity emission rates from Norway spruce in 2011, Biogeosciences,
645	10, 4241-4257, doi: 10.5194/bg-10-4241-2013, 2013.
646	Nölscher, A. C., Butler, T., Auld, J., Veres, P., Muñoz, A., Taraborrelli, D., Vereecken, L., Lelieveld, J.,
647	and Williams, J.: Using total OH reactivity to assess isoprene photooxidation via measurement and
648	model, Atmospheric Environment, 89, 453-463, doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2014.02.024, 2014.
649	Nolscher, A. C., Sinha, V., Bockisch, S., Klupfel, T., and Williams, J.: Total OH reactivity measurements
650	using a new fast Gas Chromatographic Photo-Ionization Detector (GC-PID), Atmos. Meas. Tech.,
651	5, 2981-2992, doi: 10.5194/amt-5-2981-2012, 2012a.
652	Nolscher, A. C., Williams, J., Sinha, V., Custer, T., Song, W., Johnson, A. M., Axinte, R., Bozem, H.,
653	Fischer, H., Pouvesle, N., Phillips, G., Crowley, J. N., Rantala, P., Rinne, J., Kulmala, M., Gonzales,
654	D., Valverde-Canossa, J., Vogel, A., Hoffmann, T., Ouwersloot, H. G., de Arellano, J. V. G., and
655	Lelieveld, J.: Summertime total OH reactivity measurements from boreal forest during HUMPPA-





COPEC 2010, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 12, 8257-8270, doi: 10.5194/acp-12-8257-2012,
2012b.
Pfannerstill, E. Y., Nölscher, A. C., Yáñez-Serrano, A. M., Bourtsoukidis, E., Keßel, S., Janssen, R. H.
H., Tsokankunku, A., Wolff, S., Sörgel, M., Sá, M. O., Araújo, A., Walter, D., Lavrič, J., Dias-Júnior,
C. Q., Kesselmeier, J., and Williams, J.: Total OH Reactivity Changes Over the Amazon Rainforest
During an El Niño Event, Frontiers in Forests and Global Change, 1, doi: 10.3389/ffgc.2018.00012,
2018.
Pfannerstill, E. Y., Reijrink, N. G., Edtbauer, A., Ringsdorf, A., Zannoni, N., Araújo, A., Ditas, F.,
Holanda, B. A., Sá, M. O., Tsokanku, A., Walter, D., Wolff, S., Lavrič, J. V., Pöhlker, C., Sörgel, M.,
and Williams, J.: Total OH reactivity over the Amazon rainforest: variability with temperature, wind,
rain, altitude, time of day, season, and an overall budget closure, Atmospheric Chemistry and
Physics Discussions, doi: 10.5194/acp-2020-752, 2020. doi: 10.5194/acp-2020-752, 2020.
Pfannerstill, E. Y., Wang, N., Edtbauer, A., Bourtsoukidis, E., Crowley, J. N., Dienhart, D., Eger, P. G.,
Ernle, L., Fischer, H., Hottmann, B., Paris, JD., Stönner, C., Tadic, I., Walter, D., Lelieveld, J., and
Williams, J.: Shipborne measurements of total OH reactivity around the Arabian Peninsula and its
role in ozone chemistry, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 19, 11501-11523, doi: 10.5194/acp-
19-11501-2019, 2019.
Praplan, A. P., Pfannerstill, E. Y., Williams, J., and Hellen, H.: OH reactivity of the urban air in Helsinki,
Finland, during winter, Atmos. Environ., 169, 150-161, doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2017.09.013,
2017a.
Praplan, A. P., Pfannerstill, E. Y., Williams, J., and Hellén, H.: OH reactivity of the urban air in Helsinki,
Finland, during winter, Atmospheric Environment, 169, 150-161, doi:
10.1016/j.atmosenv.2017.09.013, 2017b.
Praplan, A. P., Tykkä, T., Chen, D., Boy, M., Taipale, D., Vakkari, V., Zhou, P., Petäjä, T., and Hellén, H.:
Long-term total OH reactivity measurements in a boreal forest, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics,
19, 14431-14453, doi: 10.5194/acp-19-14431-2019, 2019a.
Praplan, A. P., Tykka, T., Chen, D., Boy, M., Taipale, D., Vakkari, V., Zhou, P. T., Petaja, T., and Hellen,
H.: Long-term total OH reactivity measurements in a boreal forest, Atmospheric Chemistry and

684 Physics, 19, 14431-14453, doi: 10.5194/acp-19-14431-2019, 2019b.





- 685 Roger Atkinson, J. A.: Atmospheric Degradation of Volatile Organic Compounds, Chem. Rev., 103, 686 4605-4638, 2003. Sadanaga, Y., Yoshino, A., Kato, S., and Kajii, Y.: Measurements of OH Reactivity and Photochemical 687 688 Ozone Production in the Urban Atmosphere, Environ. Sci. Technol., 39, 8847-8852, doi: 689 10.1021/es049457p 2005. 690 Sadanaga, Y., Yoshino, A., Watanabe, K., Yoshioka, A., Wakazono, Y., Kanaya, Y., and Kajii, Y.: 691 Development of a measurement system of OH reactivity in the atmosphere by using a laser-induced 692 pump and probe technique, Review of Scientific Instruments, 75, 2648-2655, doi: 693 10.1063/1.1775311, 2004. Sinha, V., Custer, T. G., Kluepfel, T., and Williams, J.: The effect of relative humidity on the detection of 694 695 pyrrole by PTR-MS for OH reactivity measurements, International Journal of Mass Spectrometry, 696 282, 108-111, doi: 10.1016/j.ijms.2009.02.019, 2009. 697 Sinha, V., Williams, J., Crowley, J. N., and Lelieveld, J.: The Comparative Reactivity Method-a new tool 698 to measure total OH Reactivity in ambient air, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 8, 2213-2227, 699 doi: 10.5194/acp-8-2213-2008, 2008. 700 Sinha, V., Williams, J., Diesch, J. M., Drewnick, F., Martinez, M., Harder, H., Regelin, E., Kubistin, D., 701 Bozem, H., Hosaynali-Beygi, Z., Fischer, H., Andrés-Hernández, M. D., Kartal, D., Adame, J. A., 702 and Lelieveld, J.: Constraints on instantaneous ozone production rates and regimes during 703 DOMINO derived using in-situ OH reactivity measurements, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 704 12, 7269-7283, doi: 10.5194/acp-12-7269-2012, 2012. 705 Sinha, V., Williams, J., Lelieveld, J., Ruuskanen, T. M., Kajos, M. K., Patokoski, J., Hellen, H., Hakola, 706 H., Mogensen, D., Boy, M., Rinne, J., and Kulmala, M.: OH Reactivity Measurements within a 707 Boreal Forest: Evidence for Unknown Reactive Emissions, Environmental Science & Technology, 708 44, 6614-6620, doi: 10.1021/es101780b, 2010. 709 Tan, Z. F., Lu, K. D., Hofzumahaus, A., Fuchs, H., Bohn, B., Holland, F., Liu, Y. H., Rohrer, F., Shao, 710 M., Sun, K., Wu, Y. S., Zeng, L. M., Zhang, Y. S., Zou, Q., Kiendler-Scharr, A., Wahner, A., and 711 Zhang, Y. H.: Experimental budgets of OH, HO2, and RO2 radicals and implications for ozone 712 formation in the Pearl River Delta in China 2014, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 19, 7129-713 7150, doi: 10.5194/acp-19-7129-2019, 2019.
 - 26





714	Wang, M., Zeng, L., Lu, S., Shao, M., Liu, X., Yu, X., Chen, W., Yuan, B., Zhang, Q., Hu, M., and Zhang,
715	Z.: Development and validation of a cryogen-free automatic gas chromatograph system (GC-
716	MS/FID) for online measurements of volatile organic compounds, Anal. Methods, 6, 9424-9434,
717	doi: 10.1039/c4ay01855a, 2014a.
718	Wang, Y., Ying, Q., Hu, J., and Zhang, H.: Spatial and temporal variations of six criteria air pollutants in
719	31 provincial capital cities in China during 2013-2014, Environ Int, 73, 413-422, doi:
720	10.1016/j.envint.2014.08.016, 2014b.
721	Williams, J., Keßel, S. U., Nölscher, A. C., Yang, Y., Lee, Y., Yáñez-Serrano, A. M., Wolff, S.,
722	Kesselmeier, J., Klüpfel, T., Lelieveld, J., and Shao, M.: Opposite OH reactivity and ozone cycles
723	in the Amazon rainforest and megacity Beijing: Subversion of biospheric oxidant control by
724	anthropogenic emissions, Atmospheric Environment, 125, 112-118, doi:
725	10.1016/j.atmosenv.2015.11.007, 2016.
726	Wolfe, G. M., Marvin, M. R., Roberts, S. J., Travis, K. R., and Liao, J.: The Framework for 0-D
727	Atmospheric Modeling (F0AM) v3.1, Geoscientific Model Development, 9, 3309-3319, doi:
728	10.5194/gmd-9-3309-2016, 2016.
729	Wu, Y., Yang, Y. D., Shao, M., and Lu, S. H.: Missing in total OH reactivity of VOCs from gasoline
730	evaporation, Chin. Chem. Lett., 26, 1246-1248, doi: 10.1016/j.cclet.2015.05.047, 2015.
731	Yang, Y., Shao, M., Keßel, S., Li, Y., Lu, K., Lu, S., Williams, J., Zhang, Y., Zeng, L., Nölscher, A. C.,
732	Wu, Y., Wang, X., and Zheng, J.: How the OH reactivity affects the ozone production efficiency:
733	case studies in Beijing and Heshan, China, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 17, 7127-7142, doi:
734	10.5194/acp-17-7127-2017, 2017a.
735	Yang, Y., Shao, M., Keßel, S., Li, Y., Lu, K., Lu, S., Williams, J., Zhang, Y., Zeng, L., Nölscher, A. C.,
736	Wu, Y., Wang, X., and Zheng, J.: How the OH reactivity affects the ozone production efficiency:
737	case studies in Beijing and Heshan, China, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 17, 7127-7142, doi: 10.5194/acp-
738	17-7127-2017, 2017b.
739	Yang, Y., Shao, M., Wang, X., Nölscher, A. C., Kessel, S., Guenther, A., and Williams, J.: Towards a
740	
740	quantitative understanding of total OH reactivity: A review, Atmospheric Environment, 134, 147-
740 741	quantitative understanding of total OH reactivity: A review, Atmospheric Environment, 134, 147- 161, doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2016.03.010, 2016.

742 Yuan, B., Koss, A. R., Warneke, C., Coggon, M., Sekimoto, K., and de Gouw, J. A.: Proton-Transfer-





743	Reaction Mass Spectrometry: Applications in Atmospheric Sciences, Chem Rev, 117, 13187-13229,
744	doi: 10.1021/acs.chemrev.7b00325, 2017.
745	Zannoni, N., Dusanter, S., Gros, V., Esteve, R. S., Michoud, V., Sinha, V., Locoge, N., and Bonsang, B.:
746	Intercomparison of two comparative reactivity method instruments inf the Mediterranean basin
747	during summer 2013, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 8, 3851-3865, doi: 10.5194/amt-8-3851-2015, 2015.
748	Zannoni, N., Gros, V., Lanza, M., Sarda, R., Bonsang, B., Kalogridis, C., Preunkert, S., Legrand, M.,
749	Jambert, C., Boissard, C., and Lathiere, J.: OH reactivity and concentrations of biogenic volatile
750	organic compounds in a Mediterranean forest of downy oak trees, Atmospheric Chemistry and
751	Physics, 16, 1619-1636, doi: 10.5194/acp-16-1619-2016, 2016.
752	Zannoni, N., Gros, V., Sarda Esteve, R., Kalogridis, C., Michoud, V., Dusanter, S., Sauvage, S., Locoge,
753	N., Colomb, A., and Bonsang, B.: Summertime OH reactivity from a receptor coastal site in the
754	Mediterranean Basin, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 17, 12645-12658, doi: 10.5194/acp-17-
755	12645-2017, 2017.
756	





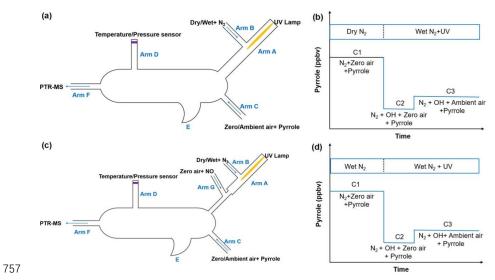


Figure 1. Schematic and work mode of the original CRM method (Sinha et al., 2008,

a and b) and the ICRM method (this study, c and d).





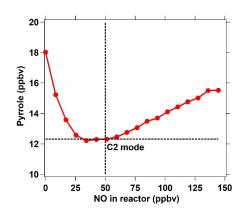


Figure 2. The response of pyrrole concentration to different NO concentrations introduced through arm G into the reactor. For the ICRM system, the C2 mode is corresponding to the pyrrole concentration = 12.31 ppbv at NO = 50 ppbv where the HO₂ radicals were removed constantly.





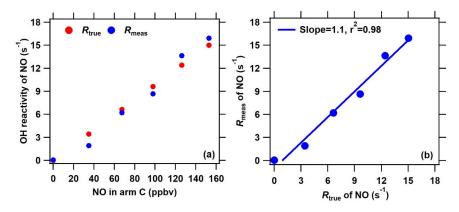


Figure 3. Comparison of measured and true OH reactivity of NO at different NO
concentrations introduced through arm C. The measured OH reactivity of NO was
calculated based on the new C2 mode shown in Fig. 2 in the ICRM system.

769





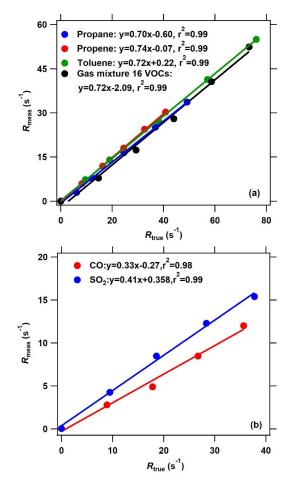


Figure 4. The OH reactivity calibration of the improved CRM system using different standard gases. (a) The calibrating results of organic species including propane, propene toluene, and mixture gases of 16 VOC species through arm C. (b) The calibrating results of inorganic species including CO and SO₂. The measured OH reactivity was calculated based on the C2 mode shown in Fig. 2 in the ICRM system.





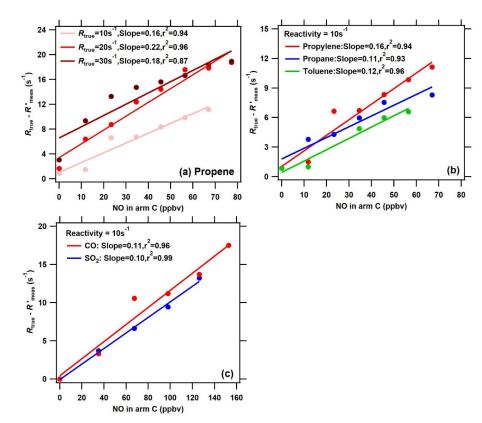
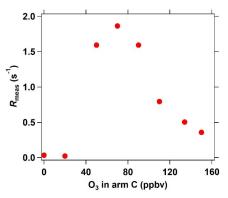


Figure 5. The difference between true OH reactivity (R_{true}) and the corrected measured OH reactivity (R'_{meas}) using the calibration factor α_1 ($R'_{meas} = (\frac{1}{\alpha_{VOC}} * R_{meas})$) as a function of NO concentrations in arm C in the conditions of (**a**) different levels of VOCs reactivity for the same species (propylene), (**b**) different VOCs species for the same OH reactivity level (10 s⁻¹), and (**c**) different inorganic species (Red: CO; Blue: SO₂) for the same OH reactivity level (10 s⁻¹). Note that NO, CO, SO₂, and VOCs were introduced into the reactor through arm C.





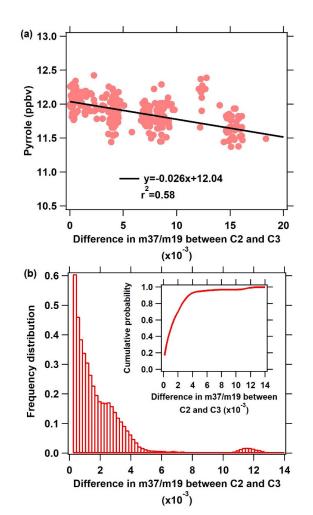


- 787 Figure 6. Interference of different O₃ concentration (introduced into the reactor through
- arm C) on measured OH reactivity in the ICRM system.





789



790

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.





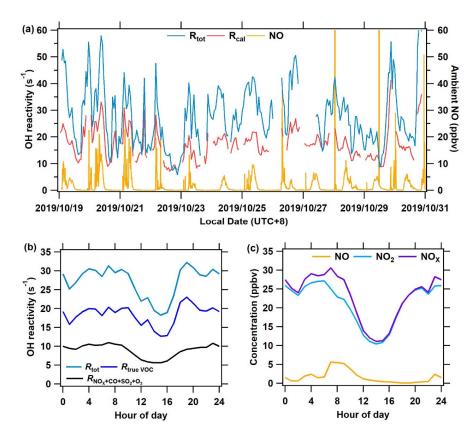


Figure 8. The measurement results of OH reactivity and ambient NO at the Heshan site from October 19 to October 31, 2019. (a) The time series of total OH reactivity (R_{tot}), calculated reactivity (R_{cal}), and ambient NO concentration; (b) Mean diurnal profile of OH reactivity of R_{true} voc, $R_{NO_X+CO+SO_2+O_3}$, and R_{tot} ; (c) Mean diurnal profiles of measured NO, NO₂, and NO_X.