

Simulation Model of Reactive Nitrogen Species in an Urban Atmosphere using a Deep Neural Network: RNDv1.0

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Abstract

Nitrous acid (HONO), one of the reactive nitrogen oxides (NO_y), plays an important role in the formation of ozone (O₃) and fine aerosols (PM_{2.5}) in the urban atmosphere. In this study, a new simulation approach to calculate HONO mixing ratios using a deep neural technique based on measured variables was developed. The 'Reactive Nitrogen species simulation using Deep neural network' (RND) has been implemented in Python. It was trained, validated, and tested with HONO measurement data obtained in Seoul during the warm months from 2016 to 2019.

A k-fold cross validation and test results confirmed the performance of RND v1.0 with an Index Of Agreement (IOA) of 0.79 ~ 0.89 and a Mean Absolute Error (MAE) of 0.21 ~ 0.31 ppbv. The RNDV1.0 adequately represents the main characteristics of HONO and thus, RND v1.0 is proposed as a supplementary model for calculating the HONO mixing ratio in a high-NO_x environment.

1. Introduction

30

31 Surface ozone (O₃) pollution has been reported to be worsen over continental areas
32 (Arnell et al., 2019;Monks et al., 2015;Varotsos et al., 2013;IPCC, 2014). In particular, a
33 warmer climate is expected to increase surface O₃ and intensity of surface O₃ peaks in polluted
34 regions, depending on its precursor levels (IPCC 2021). As one of the short-lived climate
35 pollutants (SLCPs), O₃ also interacts with the global temperature via positive feedback
36 (Shindell et al., 2013;Myhre et al., 2017;Stevenson et al., 2013). Therefore, it is imperative to
37 accurately predict the mixing ratios and variations of surface O₃. While operational models such
38 as community multiscale air quality (CMAQ) have been used widely for this purpose,
39 uncertainties still arise from poorly understood chemical mechanisms involving reactive
40 nitrogen oxides (NO_y) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and lack of their measurements
41 (Mallet and Sportisse, 2006;Canty et al., 2015;Akimoto et al., 2019;Shareef et al., 2019;Cheng
42 et al., 2022).

43 In the urban atmosphere, NO_y typically includes NO_x (NO + NO₂), HONO, HNO₃,
44 organic nitrates (e.g., PAN), NO₃, N₂O₃, and particulate NO₃⁻. These species are produced and
45 recycled through photochemical reactions until they are removed through wet or dry deposition
46 (Liebmann et al., 2018;Brown et al., 2017;Wang et al., 2020;Li et al., 2020). NO_y play an
47 important role in critical environmental issues concerning the Earth's atmosphere, spanning
48 from local air pollution to global climate change (Sun et al., 2011;Ge et al., 2019). The oxidation
49 of NO to NO₂, and finally to HNO₃, is the backbone of the chemical mechanism producing
50 ozone (O₃) and PM_{2.5} (particulate matter of size $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$), and it determines the oxidization
51 capacity of the atmosphere. Recently, as O₃ has increased along with a decrease in NO_x emission
52 over many regions including East Asia, interest in the heterogeneous reaction of reactive
53 nitrogen oxides, which is yet to be understood, has been newly raised (Brown et al.,
54 2017;Stadtler et al., 2018). Currently, the lack of measurement of individual NO_y species
55 hindered a comprehensive understanding of the heterogeneous reactions (Anderson et al.,
56 2014;Wang et al., 2017b;Chen et al., 2018b;Akimoto and Tanimoto, 2021;Stadtler et al., 2018).

57 In particular, there are growing number of evidence for heterogeneous formation of
58 HONO in relation to high PM_{2.5} and O₃ occurrence in urban areas (e.g., (Li et al., 2021b)). As
59 an OH reservoir, HONO will expedite the photochemical reactions involving VOCs and NO_x
60 in the early morning, leading to O₃ and fine aerosol formation. Nonetheless, its formation

61 mechanism has not been elucidated clearly enough to be constrained in conventional
62 photochemical models. In addition to the reaction of NO with OH (Bloss et al., 2021), various
63 pathways of HONO formation have been suggested from laboratory experiments, field
64 measurements and model simulations: direct emissions from vehicles (e.g., (Li et al., 2021a))
65 and soil (e.g.,(Bao et al., 2022)), photolysis of particulate nitrate (e.g., (Gen et al., 2022)), and
66 heterogeneous conversion of NO₂ on various aerosol surfaces (e.g., (Jia et al., 2020)), ground
67 surface (e.g.,(Meng et al., 2022)), and microlayers of sea surface (e.g., (Gu et al., 2022)).
68 Among these, heterogeneous reaction mechanism at surface is major concern in recently HONO
69 study.

70 HONO has been measured mostly during intensive campaigns in urban areas using
71 various techniques such as a long path absorption photometer (LOPAP) (Kleffmann et al.,
72 2006;Xue et al., 2019), chemical ionization mass spectrometry (CIMS) (Levy et al.,
73 2014;Roberts et al., 2010), ion chromatography (IC) (VandenBoer et al., 2014;Gil et al.,
74 2020;Ye et al., 2016;Xu et al., 2019), and quantum cascade tunable infrared laser differential
75 absorption spectrometry (QC-TILDAS) (Lee et al., 2011;Gil et al., 2021). Of these methods,
76 QC-TILDAS has served as a reference for intercomparison of measurement data from different
77 techniques due to high time resolution and stability (Pinto et al., 2014). These studies reported
78 the maximum HONO of several ppb levels at nighttime. In comparison, the model captured at
79 most 67~90 % of the observed HONO in megacities such as Beijing (Tie et al., 2013;Liu et al.,
80 2019).

81 In recent years, Machine Learning (ML) method has been adopted in the atmospheric
82 science for pattern classification (e.g. New Particle Formation event) and forecasting and
83 spatiotemporal modelling of O₃ and PM_{2.5} (Arcomano et al., 2021;Shahriar et al.,
84 2020;Krishnamurthy et al., 2021;Cui and Wang, 2021;Joutsensaari et al., 2018;Chen et al.,
85 2018a;Kang et al., 2021). Among ML methods, the Neural Network (NN) architecture is widely
86 used owing to its powerful ability to process large amounts of data, allowing improvement in
87 the performance of conventional models through being integrated with physical equations
88 (Reichstein et al., 2019;Schultz et al., 2021). As a NN architecture, a multi-layer artificial neural
89 network, referred to as a Deep Neural Network (DNN), employs a statistical method that learn
90 non-linear relations in data and obtain the optimum solution for the target species without prior
91 information on the physicochemical processes. DNN has advantages over other NN architecture

92 such as Convolution NN (CNN) or Long-Short Term Memory (LSTM) because it works well
93 for discrete spatiotemporal data. In general, the performance of DNN is similar to or better than
94 other ML methods for small number of data as well as large data set (Baek and Jung, 2021; Dang
95 et al., 2021; Sumathi and Pugalendhi, 2021).

96 When the DNN method is applied to atmospheric chemical constituents, it requires
97 large amount of data for training and thus, the size of measurement data becomes a limiting
98 factor for trace species such as HONO, which are not routinely measured such as O₃ or PM_{2.5}.
99 In this regard, the daily average HONO mixing ratio was attempted to be estimated using
100 ensemble ML models with satellite measurements (Cui and Wang, 2021). In comparison, the
101 hourly HONO mixing ratio was calculated using a simple NN architecture with measured
102 variables, which were thought to be closely linked with HONO formation (Gil et al., 2021). The
103 accuracy of the hourly HONO estimated from input variables such as aerosol surface areas and
104 mixed layer height was better than the daily HONO estimate.

105 In this study, we aimed to construct a user-friendly ‘Reactive Nitrogen species
106 simulation using DNN’ (RND) model and estimate HONO mixing ratio using routinely
107 measured atmospheric variables in a highly polluted urban area. Finally, the model results will
108 be incorporated into operational photochemical models for air quality forecasting and improve
109 their performance. Since this is the first attempt to calculate HONO mixing ratios using a first
110 version of RND model (RNDv1.0), we describe the entire modeling process and evaluate the
111 model results by comparing them with the measurements.

112

113 **2. Model description**

114

115 The development of RNDv1.0 model follows the systematic steps similar to a general
116 machine learning model construction workflow, including collecting data, preprocessing data,
117 building the DNN, training and validating the model, and testing the performance of the model
118 (Figure 1). The RNDv1.0 was written in Python and necessary libraries to build and operate
119 RNDv1.0 are listed in Table 1. The dataset used to train-test-validation can be downloaded from
120 Gil et al., 2021.

121

122 **2.1. Collection of measurement data for model construction**

123

124 As the first step constructing the RNDv1.0, measurement data were obtained including
125 HONO, reactive gases, and meteorological parameters. **It is noteworthy that the HONO**
126 **measurement data is for model construction and is not required to run the RND model.** The
127 HONO mixing ratio was measured using a Quantum Cascade – Tunable Infrared Laser
128 Differential Absorption Spectrometer (QC-TILDAS) system in Seoul during May–June 2016,
129 June 2018, and April–June 2019 (Lee et al., 2011; Gil et al., 2021). When testing and evaluating
130 atmospheric HONO measurement methods, QC-TILDAS has been chosen as the reference
131 method for comparing ambient HONO mixing ratios measured using several different
132 techniques owing to its advantages of low detection limits (~ 0.1 ppbv) and high temporal
133 resolution (Pinto et al., 2014). More details on measurements can be found elsewhere (Gil et
134 al., 2021). HONO was measured at Olympic Park (37.52°N, 127.12°E) during the Korea-United
135 States Air Quality (KORUS-AQ) study in 2016 (Kim et al., 2020; Gil et al., 2021), at the campus
136 of Korea University in 2018 (37.59°N, 127.03°E), and at the site near the campus in 2019
137 (37.59°N, 127.08°E) (NIER, 2020) (Figure S1). Of the three sites, the Korea University campus
138 and Olympic Park have served as measurement sites representing the air quality of Seoul. In
139 fact, it has been known that O₃ and PM_{2.5} levels are strongly influenced by the synoptic
140 circulation throughout the Korean peninsula (Peterson et al., 2019; Jordan et al., 2020). In
141 addition, trace gases including O₃, NO₂, CO, and SO₂ and meteorological parameters including
142 temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS) and direction (WD) were measured.
143 **Note that HONO was not significantly correlated with any of these variables (Figure S2).** The
144 measurement statistics are presented in Table 2 and Table S1. Briefly summarizing, the 10th and
145 90th percentile mixing ratios of HONO, NO₂, and O₃ are 0.3 ppbv and 1.9 ppbv, 10.7 ppbv and
146 48.2 ppbv, and 12.0 ppbv and 80.9 ppbv, respectively for the entire experiment periods.

147

148 **2.2. Data preprocessing**

149

150 In the next step, the observation data set was prepared for RNDv1.0 model construction.
151 As input variables, hourly measurements of chemical and meteorological parameters are used,
152 including the mixing ratios of O₃, NO₂, CO, and SO₂, along with temperature (T), relative
153 humidity (RH), wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD), and solar zenith angle (SZA) to
154 estimate the target species, HONO, as the output. Wind direction in degrees were converted to
155 a cosine value for continuity. As a last step in data processing, missing values were filtered out
156 from the input dataset. Finally, 50.7 % of all available measurement data (1636) were used to
157 construct the RNDv1.0 in this study.

158 Since the measurements of these nine variables vary over a wide range in different units,
159 they were normalized to avoid bias during the calculations. Among the widely used
160 normalization methods, ‘*min-max scaling*’ method was adopted and input variables were
161 normalized against the minimum and maximum values in this study (Eq. 1):

$$162 \quad x_{\text{sca}} = \frac{x_{\text{raw}} - F_2(X)}{F_1(X)}, \quad (1)$$

164 where x_{raw} is raw data of input variable (X), x_{sca} is scaled data of X, F_1 and F_2 are scale
165 factors of X, and are given for each input variable used in Table 2.
166

167

168 **2.3. Neural network architecture and hyperparameters**

169

170 At this stage, the network is built to calculate HONO using those input variables. The
171 RNDv1.0 is composed of five hidden layers (Figure 2), which employed an exponential linear
172 unit (ELU) as an activation function (Eq. 2).

173

$$174 \quad \text{ELU: } \phi(x) = \begin{cases} e^x - 1 & (x < 0) \\ x & (x \geq 0) \end{cases}. \quad (2)$$

175

176 In a DNN, an activation function creates a nonlinear relationship between an input
 177 variable and an output variable. When constructing a DNN model, an ELU has the advantage
 178 of a fast-training process and better performance in handling negative values than other
 179 activation functions (Wang et al., 2017a;Ding et al., 2018). In addition, the mean squared error
 180 and Adam optimizer were applied as loss function and optimize function, respectively. The
 181 learning rate, epoch, and batch were set to 0.01, 100, and 32, respectively.

182

183 **2.4. Train, validation, and test**

184

185 The RNDv1.0 model was trained, validated, and tested with HONO measurements obtained
 186 during May ~ June in 2016 and 2019, in June 2018, and in April 2019, respectively (Figure 3).
 187 The number of data used for train, validation, and test were 1122, 381, and 133, respectively.

188 With the hyperparameters specified in previous section, the performance of the model was
 189 firstly validated using the k-fold cross-validation method, which is especially useful when the
 190 size of dataset is small (Bengio and Grandvalet, 2003). In the k-fold cross-validation method
 191 (Figure 3), the entire data is randomly divided into k subsets, of which k-1 sets were used for
 192 training and the rest one was used for validation. k was set to 5 in this study. The accuracy was
 193 determined by Index Of Agreement (IOA) and Mean Absolute Error (MAE) expressed by the
 194 following equation (Eq. 3, Eq. 4):

195

$$196 \quad IOA = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - P_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (|P_i - \bar{O}| + |O_i - \bar{O}|)^2}, \quad (3)$$

$$197 \quad MAE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n |O_i - P_i|}{n}, \quad (4)$$

198

199 where O_i , P_i , \bar{O} , and n are the observed value, predicted value, average of the observed
 200 values, and number of nodes, respectively. The overall accuracy of

201 As IOA and MAE vary according to the number of nodes, they were calculated for the
 202 measured (HONO_{obs}) and calculated (HONO_{mod}) mixing ratios by varying the number of nodes
 203 from 0 to 100 in each hidden layer. The best performance was found with 41 nodes, with which

204 the averaged IOA and MAE were 0.89 ± 0.01 (mean \pm standard deviation) and 0.31 ± 0.02 ppbv,
205 respectively (Figure 4). The high level of IOA and low MAE demonstrates that the performance
206 of RNDv1.0 model is adequate, and it is capable of simulating the ambient HONO mixing ratio
207 using the routinely measured chemical and meteorological parameters. In particular, MAE was
208 commensurate with the detection limit of HONO measurement.

209 After the network validation, HONO mixing ratio was calculated for May ~ June in 2016
210 and 2019, and the model results were compared with the measured values (Figure 5). The
211 average mixing ratios of measured and calculated HONO was 0.94 ppbv and 0.89 ppbv in 2016,
212 and 1.02 ppbv and 0.96 ppbv in 2019, respectively. The MAE and IOA of the measurement and
213 calculation were 0.27 ppbv and 0.90 in 2016, and 0.29 ppbv and 0.91 in 2019, respectively,
214 demonstrating the ability of the RNDv1.0 to simulate ambient HONO levels. In both cases,
215 however, the model slightly underestimated the highest and lowest HONO mixing ratios, which
216 is mainly due to the limited number of data used for training, but also related to the intrinsic
217 nature of DNN. The model calculation well captured the diurnal variation of ambient HONO
218 with a slight underestimation (Figure 6). In addition, the correlation between HONO_{mod} and
219 HONO_{obs} was better in 2019 (MAE = 0.06 ppbv) than in 2016 (MAE = 0.08 ppbv). Since the
220 MAE of the two cases was far below the detection limit of HONO measurements (~ 0.1 ppbv),
221 the RNDv1.0 is considered adequate to simulate HONO in urban areas.

222 Finally, the RND model was validated and tested against the measurement data obtained in
223 June 2018 and April 2019. The calculated HONO mixing ratios are compared with those
224 measured in Figure 7, and their MAE and IOA are listed in Table 3. The two sets of model
225 performance test showed that the model reasonably traced what was observed. As the validation
226 result of RND, the MAE and IOA of the calculated and measured in June 2018 are comparable
227 to those of 2016~2019 result. However, the MAE and IOA of the April 2019 measurements
228 were relatively poor compared to the validation results. Especially, the MAE of the April 2019
229 is about twice as high as those of validation.

230 In these two test periods, HONO levels were lower than those observed on validation days
231 (Figure 5), and the model tended to overestimate high HONO concentrations. The large
232 discrepancy in April 2019 is probably due to seasonality: the difference in meteorological and
233 chemical regime of the atmosphere. For example, the monthly average temperature, relative
234 humidity, and NO_2 mixing ratio of Seoul in 2019 were 12.1 °C, 50.9 %, and 29 ppbv in April

235 2019 and 22.5 °C, 60.6 %, and 21 ppbv in June 2019 (<https://cleanair.seoul.go.kr>;
236 <https://weather.go.kr>). Note that the RNDv1.0 model was trained with the 9 variables measured
237 in early summer (Table 2). Therefore, the more measurement data spanning a full year for
238 training, the more accurate the model estimates will be.

239

240 **2.5. Influence of input variables to HONO concentration**

241

242 Additionally, a simple bootstrapping test was conducted by setting each variable to zero
243 with keeping other variables (Kleinert et al., 2021). Then, the importance of each input variable
244 to HONO concentration was evaluated using MAE and root mean square error (RMSE). Of
245 nine input variables, NO₂ was found to have the most significant influence on HONO
246 concentration, followed by RH, temperature, and solar zenith angle (Table S2). The result of
247 bootstrap test is in good agreement with those from our previous study (Gil et al., 2021), where
248 more detailed information such as aerosol surface area and mixing layer height were
249 incorporated into the model and highlighted the role of precursor gases and heterogeneous
250 conversion in HONO formation. Therefore, these results demonstrate that the RND model
251 constructed using routinely observed variables, reasonably traced the level of HONO in urban
252 atmosphere.

253

254 **3. Operation and application of RNDv1.0**

255

256 The RNDv1.0 package is provided as an operational model, .h5 files that can be opened in
257 Python. To run the RNDv1.0, the measurement data for nine input variables are required and
258 need to be properly prepared as described in Section 2.2. A sample of preprocessed input dataset
259 is provided as a .csv file (Dataset_for_model.csv). Once the input data is ready, open the RND
260 model with input data files using the code provided in the example (Figure S3). Then, RND
261 v1.0 calculates and presents the HONO results as scaled values (x_{sca}), which will be finally
262 converted to HONO mixing ratio (ppbv) by the two scale factors in Table 2 (Eq. 5):

263

$$264 \quad \text{HONO (ppbv)} = \text{HONO}_{\text{sca}} \times F_1(\text{HONO}) + F_2(\text{HONO}). \quad (5)$$

265

266 The result of the RNDv1.0, HONO, can be applied to an urban photochemical cycle
267 simulation. It is already known that the photolysis of HONO is a major source of OH radicals
268 in the early morning when the OH level is low, and this OH affects daytime O₃ formation
269 through photochemical reactions with VOCs and NO_x, which are primarily emitted during
270 morning rush hour in urban areas. Therefore, the OH produced from HONO expedites
271 photochemical reactions, promoting O₃ formation. However, the HONO formation mechanism
272 is still poorly understood, and concentrations are not correctly simulated in conventional
273 photochemical models; therefore, the absence of HONO causes great uncertainty in O₃
274 prediction (Figure 8).

275 The 0-Dimension Atmospheric Modelling (F0AM) utilizing the MCM v3.3.1 chemical
276 reaction mechanisms (Wolfe et al., 2016), can be used to simulate the diurnal variation of O₃
277 with the measurements of several reactive gases (NO, NO₂, CO, HCHO, VOCs, and HONO).
278 Detailed information about F0AM can be found in
279 (<https://sites.google.com/site/wolfegm/models>) and in previous works published elsewhere
280 (Wolfe et al., 2016; Gil et al., 2020). When the F0AM model is run without HONO, it is not
281 able to reproduce the concentration and diel cycle of the observed O₃ (Figure 8). In comparison,
282 the model simulates the O₃ well within 2 ppbv when adding HONO, which is the product of
283 RND v1.0. This is mainly due to the missing OH produced by HONO photolysis in the early
284 morning. Its production rate is estimated to be 0.57 pptv s⁻¹, contributing approximately 2.28
285 pptv to OH budget during 06:00 ~ 11:00 (LST) (Gil et al., 2021). Given that OH is mainly
286 produced from the photolysis of O₃ under high sun, the early morning source of OH will
287 expedite the photochemical cycle involving NO_x and VOCs, promoting O₃ and secondary
288 aerosol formation. Since the presence of HONO in the photochemical model allows for accurate
289 estimation of OH radicals, the incorporation of RND into conventional models will improve
290 their overall performance.

291

292 **4. Summary and implications**

293

294 In this study, we developed the RND model to calculate the mixing ratio of NO_y in an urban
295 atmosphere using a DNN along with measurement data. The target species of RNDv1.0 is
296 HONO, and its mixing ratio is calculated using trace gases including O_3 , NO_2 , CO, and SO_2 ,
297 and meteorological variables including T, RH, WS, and WD, along with the SZA. These
298 variables are routinely measured through monitoring networks. The RNDv1.0 was trained and
299 validated using the HONO measurements obtained in Seoul by adopting a k-fold cross
300 validation method and tested with other HONO datasets measured using the same instrument.
301 The validation and test results demonstrate that RND adequately captures the characteristic
302 variation of HONO and confirms the efficacy of RND v1.0.

303 RNDv1.0 was constructed using measurements made in a high NO_x environment during
304 early summer (May–June). It is noteworthy that in this period, the HONO mixing ratio was
305 raised above 3 ppbv with the highest O_3 levels under stagnant conditions. If RND is applied to
306 areas under significant influence of outflows, the model possibly overestimates or
307 underestimate the level of HONO without detailed information such as nanoparticles. In the
308 previous study, the formation of HONO was shown to be intimately related with surface areas
309 of submicron particles (Gil et al., 2021). [Nevertheless, the HONO concentration produced from
310 RNDv1.0 with routine measurements provides the benefit of relatively inexpensive test for
311 measurement quality control, location selection, and supports the data used for traditional
312 chemistry model based on the current knowledge of the urban photochemical cycle.](#) Therefore,
313 it is reasonable to argue that RND can serve as a supplementary tool for conventional
314 photochemical models.

315

316 **5. Acknowledgements**

317

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319 Korea (2020R1A2C3014592).

320

321 **6. Code availability**

322

323 The RND model codes (.h5 files) with preprocessed sample data can be downloaded from
324 (Gil, 2021).

325

326 **7. Author contributions**

327

328 JG and ML designed the manuscript and developed the model code. JK, GL, and JA
329 provided the measurement data and validated the model. All the authors contributed to the
330 manuscript.

331

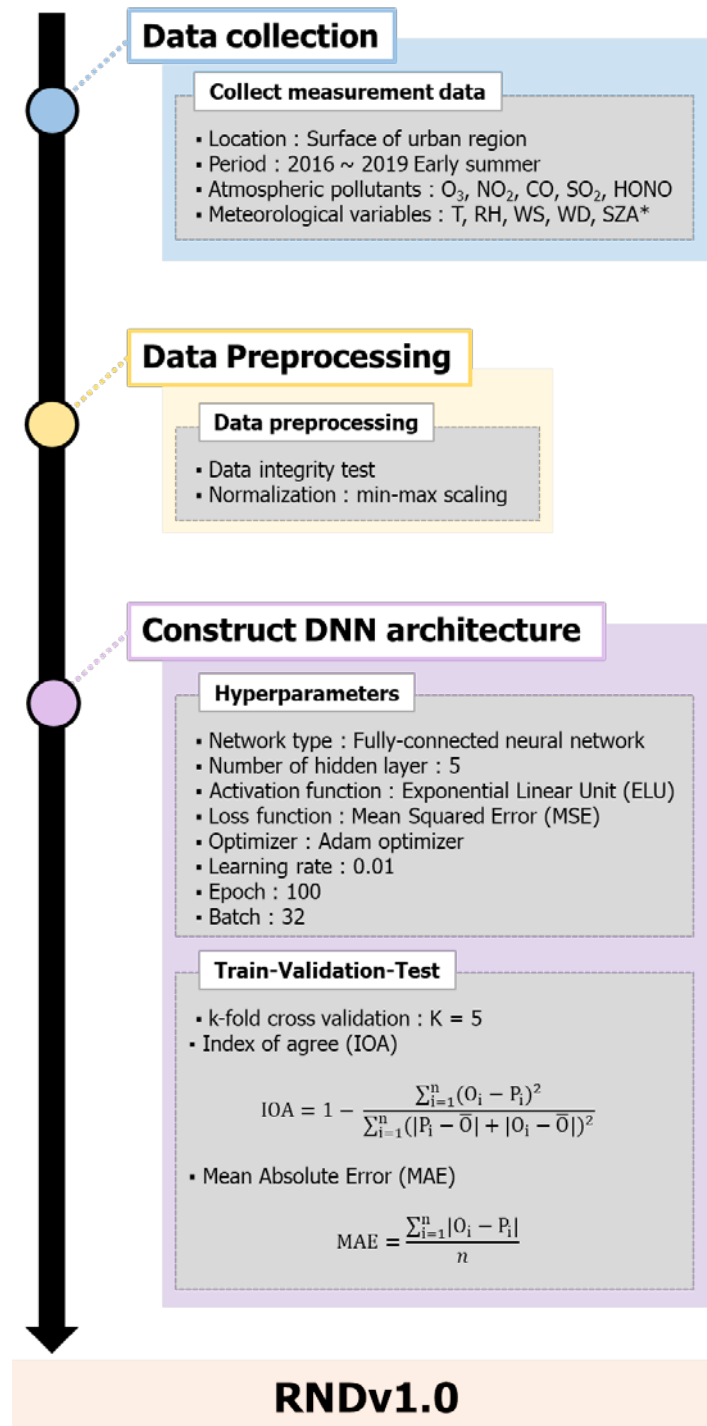
332 **8. Competing interests**

333

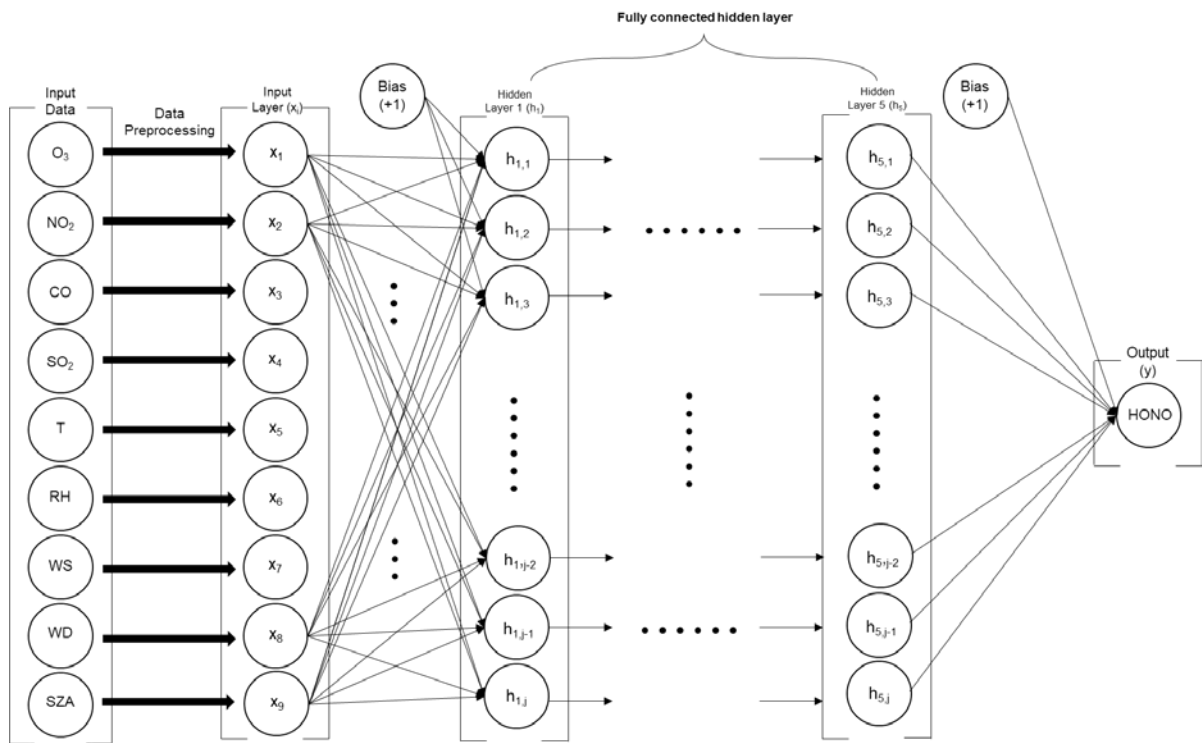
334 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

335

336



340 **Figure 1.** The main processes for configuring the RNDv1.0 (*: calculated values)

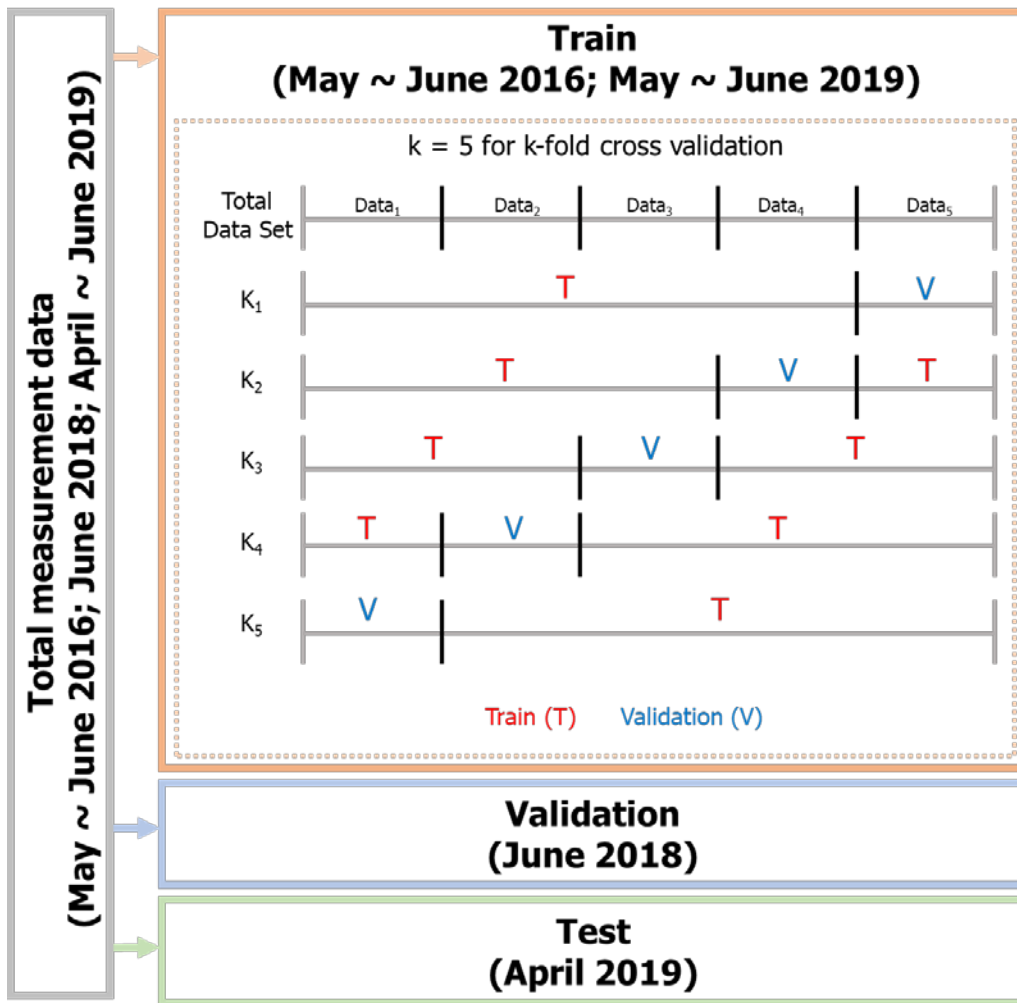


341

342 **Figure 2.** The structure of deep neural network built for RND v1.0.

343

344



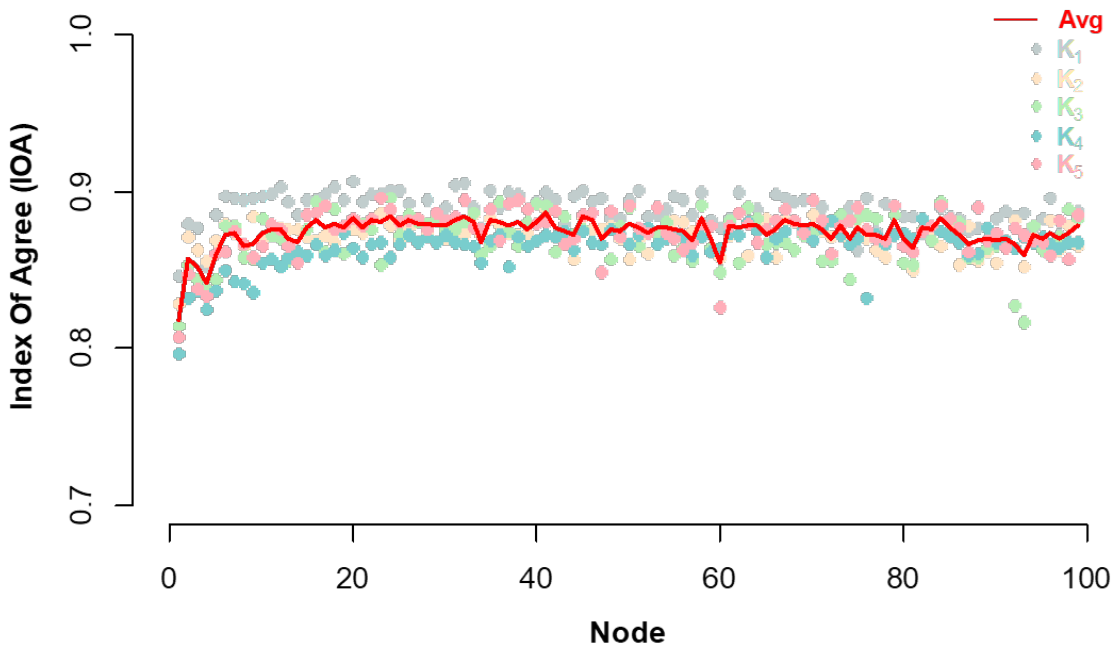
345

346 **Figure 3.** Design of training, validation, and test to build RNDv1.0 using measurement data.

347 **The k-fold cross validation were performed using randomly divided five subsets of**

348 **training data set.**

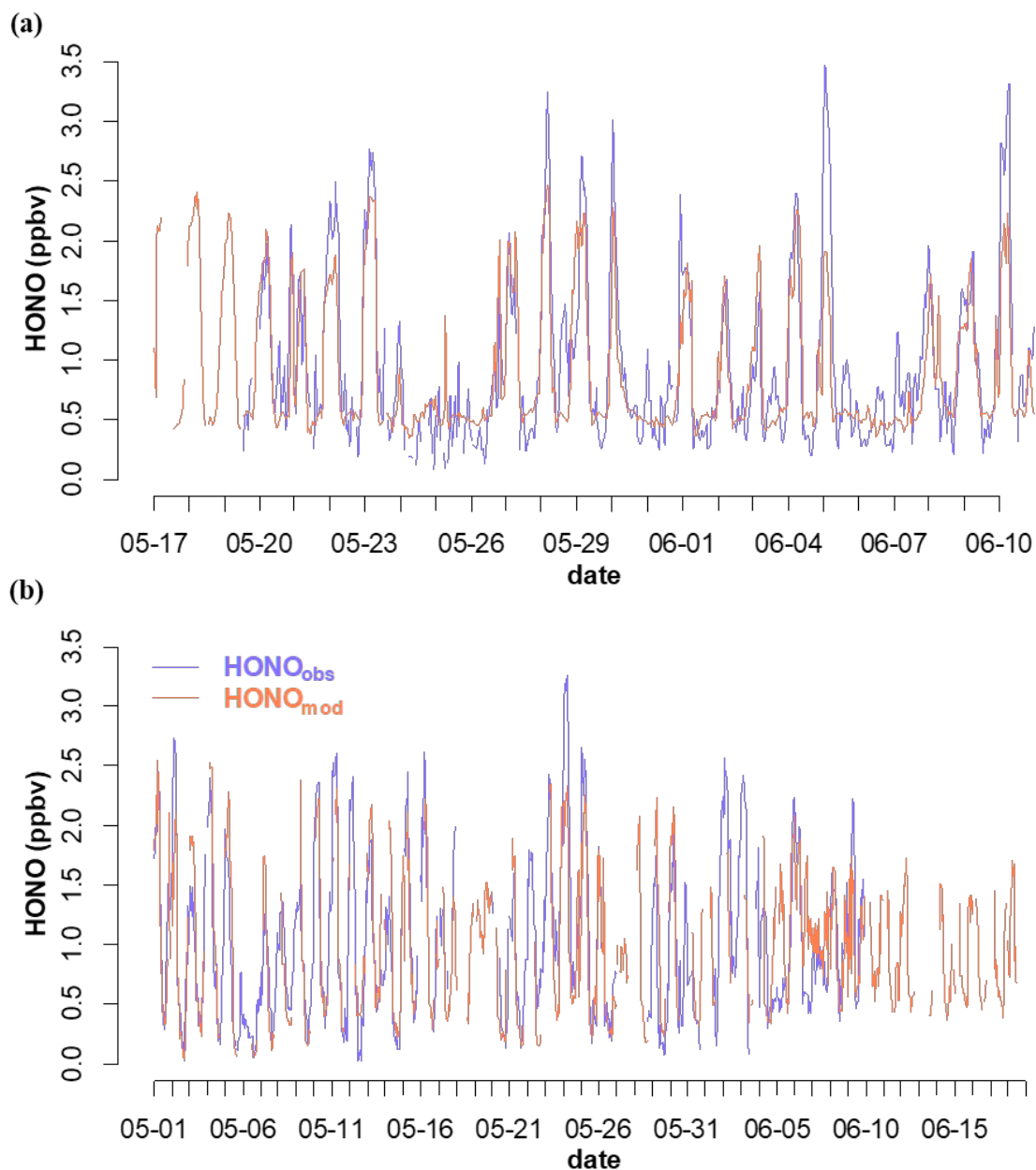
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350

351 **Figure 4.** Index Of Agreement (IOA) for k-fold cross validation. Solid circle and red line
 352 represent IOA for each validation (k=5) and the average of 5 validation sets at each node number.

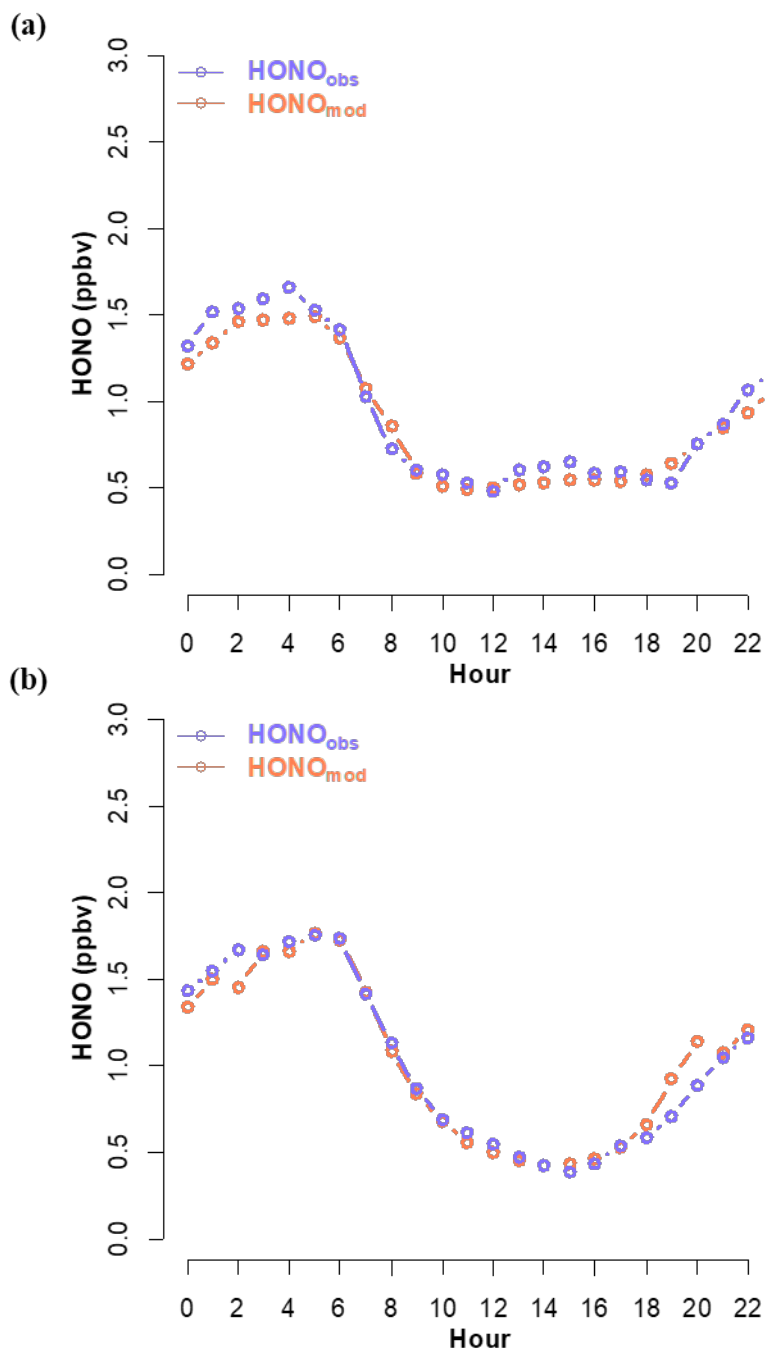
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354

355 **Figure 5.** Comparison between the measured (HONO_{obs}) and calculated (HONO_{mod}) HONO
 356 mixing ratios in Seoul during May~June in (a) 2016 and (b) 2019. The blue and red lines
 357 indicate the measured and calculated HONO mixing ratio, respectively.

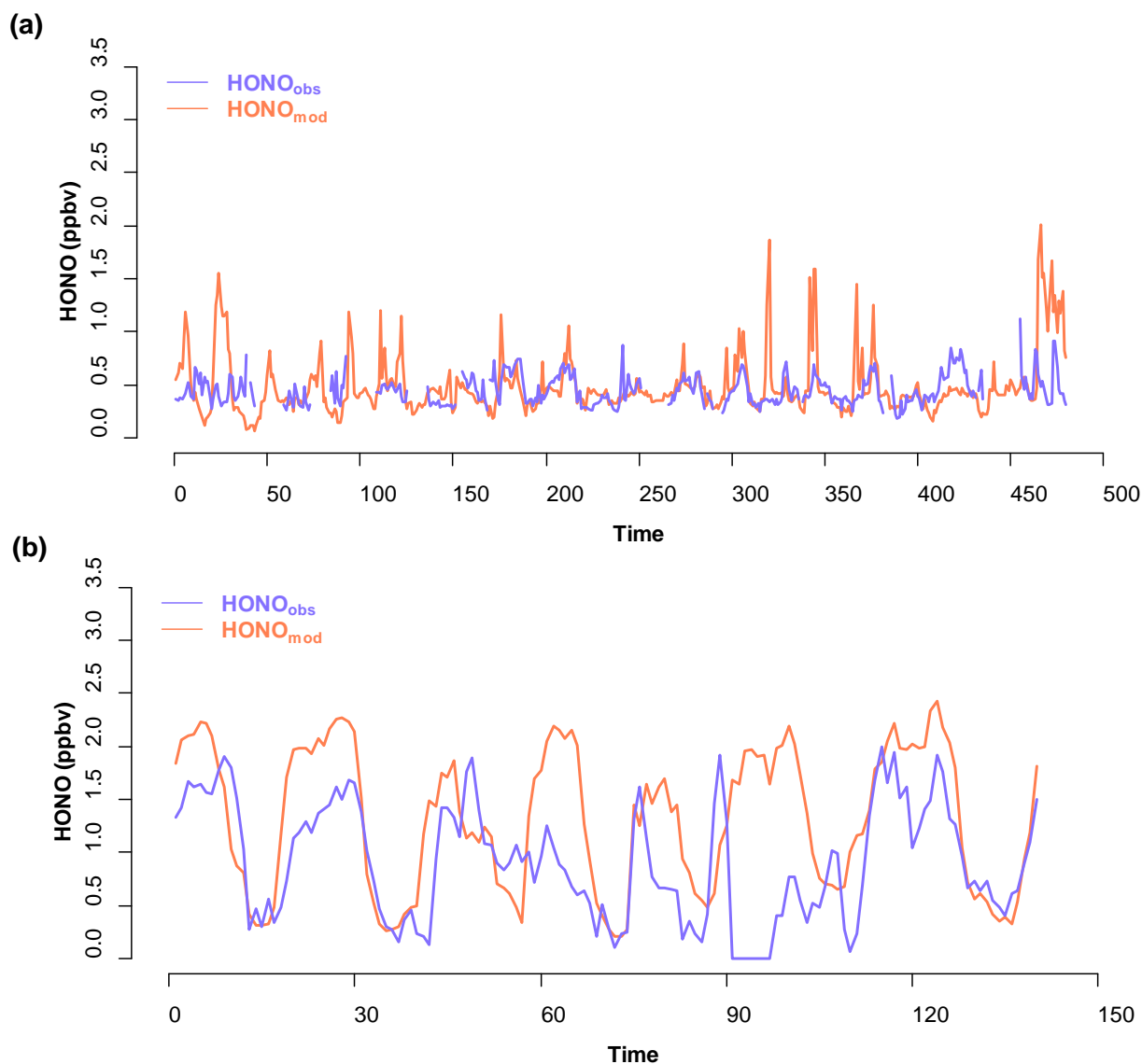
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359

360 **Figure 6.** Average diurnal variations of the measured (HONO_{obs}) and the calculated (HONO_{mod})
 361 HONO mixing ratios in Seoul during May ~ June in (a) 2016 and (b) 2019.

362

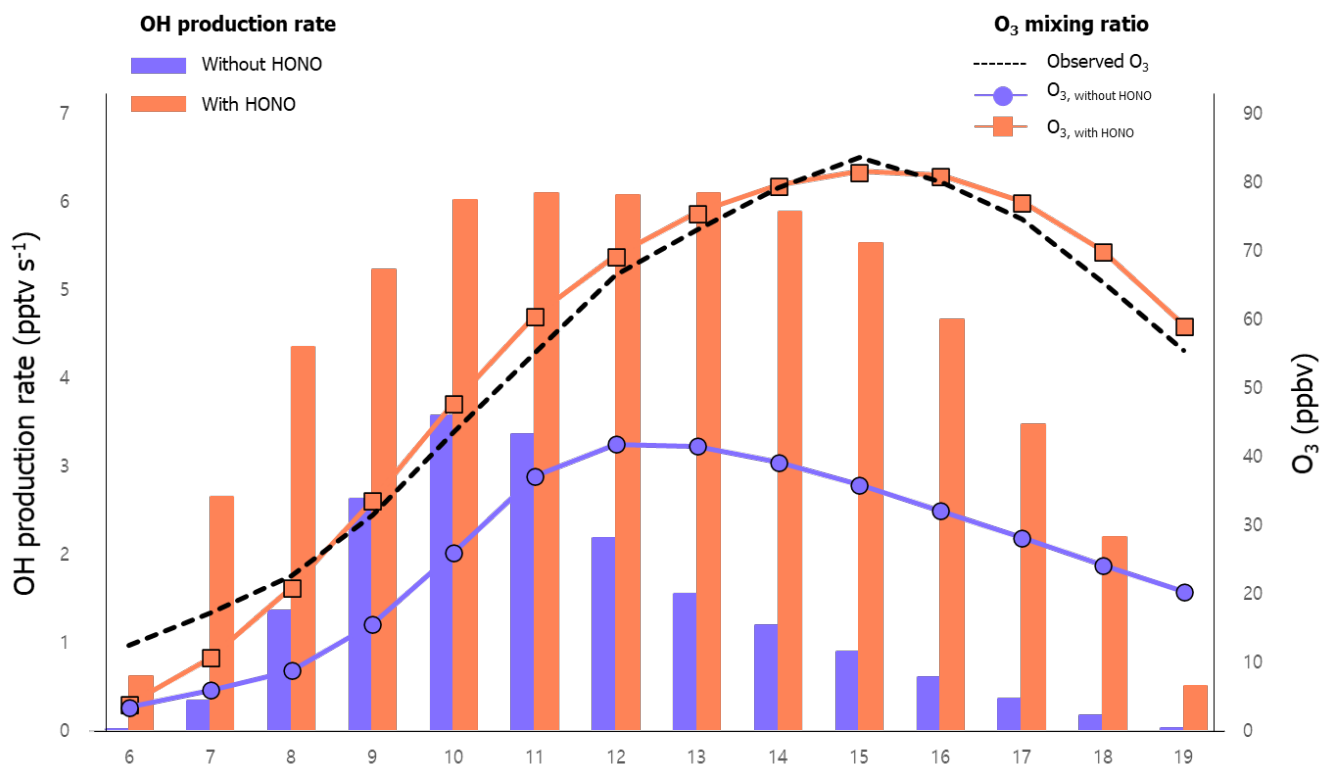


363

364 **Figure 7.** Comparison between the measured ($HONO_{obs}$) and calculated ($HONO_{mod}$) HONO
 365 mixing ratios in Seoul during (a) June 2018 and (b) April 2019. The blue and red lines indicate
 366 the measured and calculated HONO mixing ratio, respectively. The x axis indicates the hour
 367 from the beginning of the experiment, which is (a) 00:00 on 1st June 2018 and (b) 00:00 on 12th
 368 April 2019.

369

370



371

372 **Figure 8.** For June 2016, diurnal variations of O₃ (line) and OH production rate (bar) calculated
 373 from the F0AM photochemical model with (orange) and without (blue) HONO estimated from
 374 the RNDv1.0 model. The measured O₃ is compared with the calculated.

375

376 **Table 1.** Resources for constructing RND model.

	Version	Remark
Python	v3.8.3	
CUDA	v10.1	*If using GPU
CuDNN	v7.6.5	*If using GPU
Tensorflow	v2.3.0	<i>Python library</i>
Keras	v2.4.3	<i>Python library</i>
Pandas	v1.0.5	<i>Python library</i>
Numpy	v1.18.5	<i>Python library</i>

377 *GPU denotes graphic processing unit

378 **Table 2.** Input variables of the RNDv1.0 model and their ranges (10th and 90th percentile)
 379 observed in Seoul during May ~ June in 2016 and 2019.

	10 th ~90 th percentile (unit)	Coverage (%)	Scale Factor1 (F ₁)*	Scale Factor 2 (F ₂)**
Input Variables				
O ₃	12.1 ~ 90.4 (ppbv)	95.5	204.738	0.842
NO ₂	11.0 ~ 48.6 (ppbv)	80.6	79.925	2.375
CO	252 ~ 743 (ppbv)	95.1	975.248	137.253
SO ₂	1.9 ~ 6.4 (ppbv)	95.6	12.479	0.958
Solar Zenith Angle	22.7 ~ 118.4 (°)	100.0	112.317	14.195
Temperature	15.9 ~ 26.7 (°C)	99.4	24.240	8.610
Relative Humidity	29.2 ~ 79.1 (%)	99.4	88.545	10.555
Wind Speed	0.2 ~ 3.7 (m/s)	99.4	7.581	0.005
Wind Direction	45.4 ~ 287.5 (°)	99.4	359.565	0.235
Output Variables				
HONO	0.3 ~ 2.0 (ppbv)	81.1%	3.447	0.013

380 * Maximum – Minimum

381 ** Minimum value

382

383 **Table 3.** The result of validation and test of RNDv1.0 model using measurement data.

Measurement data	Validation		Test	
	MAE (ppbv)	IOA	MAE (ppbv)	IOA
May 2016*	0.26	0.93		
June 2016*	0.29	0.86		
June 2018	0.21	0.79		
April 2019			0.56	0.65
May 2019*	0.26	0.93		
June 2019*	0.36	0.76		

384 *Re-using the data already used for training

385

386 **Reference**

387

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