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PII: S1352-2310(20)30352-6

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2020.117618

Reference: AEA 117618

To appear in: Atmospheric Environment

Received Date: 20 December 2019

Revised Date: 13 May 2020

Accepted Date: 15 May 2020

Please cite this article as: Prados-Roman, C., Fernández, M., Gómez-Martín, L., Cuevas, E., Gil-Ojeda, M., Marusczak, N., Puentedura, O., Sonke, J.E., Saiz-Lopez, A., Atmospheric formaldehyde at El Teide and Pic du Midi remote high-altitude sites, *Atmospheric Environment* (2020), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2020.117618.

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Credit author statement

Cristina Prados-Roman: conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, investigation, writing – original draft– and visualization. Miguel Fernández: investigation and writing – review & editing. Laura Gómez-Martín: formal analysis and writing – original draft. Emilio Cuevas: formal analysis, writing – review & editing– and visualization. Manuel Gil-Ojeda: conceptualization, investigation, writing –review & editing– and funding acquisition. Nicolas Marusczak: investigation. Olga Puentedura: investigation and writing –review & editing. Jeroen E. Sonke: conceptualization, investigation, writig –review & editing – review & editing– and funding acquisition. Alfonso Saiz-Lopez: conceptualization, investigation, writing –review & editing, supervision and funding acquisition.

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Atmospheric formaldehyde at El Teide and Pic du Midi remote high-altitude sites

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19 ABSTRACT

20 Formaldehyde (CH₂O) is a tracer of the photochemical activity of the atmosphere. Linked to air quality, CH_2O is an ozone (O₃) precursor and serves as a proxy for natural and anthropogenic 21 22 reactive organic emissions. As a product of the photooxidation of methane (CH₄) and other hydrocarbons (e.g., isoprene), CH₂O represents an important source of radicals in the remote free 23 24 troposphere. This work aims at improving the characterization of this part of the troposphere where 25 data are scarce. In particular, this study assesses the presence of CH₂O at two high-altitude remote 26 sites: El Teide (TEI, 3570 m a.s.l., Tenerife, Canary Islands, Spain) and Pic du Midi (PDM, 2877 m 27 a.s.l., French Pyrenees). Through ground-based remote sensing measurements performed during 28 two field campaigns in July (TEI) and September (PDM) 2013, this study presents the vertical 29 distribution of CH₂O at both locations. Results at PDM show that CH₂O mixing ratios follow a decreasing vertical profile with a mean maximum of 0.5 ± 0.2 nmol mol⁻¹ (i.e., ppbv) at the 30 instruments' altitude. At TEI, observations indicate an uplifted layer of CH₂O with a mean 31 maximum of 1.3 ± 0.3 nmol mol⁻¹ at 3.8 km a.s.l. (i.e., 300 m above the instrument's altitude). At 32 both remote sites, the observed CH₂O levels are higher than expected for background methane 33 34 oxidation (a threefold increase in the case of TEI). Air mass back trajectory analysis links CH₂O

35 observations with abundant natural (e.g. forests) and/or anthropogenic isoprene emissions from the 36 region nearby PDM, while the high CH_2O levels detected at TEI indicate in-plume formation of 37 CH_2O resulting from its precursors emitted from west-African and Canadian fires. Finally, as a key 38 trace gas for O₃ and HO_x chemistries, we estimate the upper limit of bromine monoxide (BrO) in 39 the free troposphere at TEI and PDM to be 0.8 and 1.5 pmol mol⁻¹ (i.e., pptv) respectively. 40

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1. Introduction 42

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43 Formaldehyde (CH₂O) is a volatile organic compound (VOC) that plays an important role in the 44 tropospheric chemistry and budget of O_3 , HO_x (OH + HO₂) and NO_x (NO + NO₂). Ubiquitously present in the Earth's atmosphere, formaldehyde's vertical and geographical distribution is not 45 homogenous and has been the subject of investigations for decades. Kitchens et al. (1976) presented 46 a review of CH₂O in polluted environments and its related health risks, while Lowe and Schmidt 47 48 (1983) addressed the relevance and challenges of measuring CH₂O in the non-urban atmosphere. 49 Currently, CH₂O is considered one of the *Essential Climate Variables* by the WMO (GCOS, 2016) and measurements of its atmospheric abundance are a key for a better understanding of the 50 51 oxidizing mechanisms in the troposphere, for tracking CH₂O emissions and their embedded 52 hydrocarbon reactions as well as for parametrizing atmospheric chemical and transport models. 53 Although a small fraction of CH_2O (< 2%) enters the troposphere directly from biomass burning or 54 from anthropogenic or vegetation emissions (Andreae and Merlet, 2001; Olivier et al., 2003; 55 Lathière et al., 2006), most of the CH₂O in the atmosphere is a secondary product of the oxidation

of methane (60 %, with a production rate of 1600 Tg/yr) and non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHC), mainly isoprene (~ 20 %, Stavrakou et al., 2009a; Bates and Jacob, 2019). As for the CH₄ oxidation 57

58 channel, one of its intermediate products is methyl peroxy radical (CH₃O₂), which proceeds reacting

59 primarily with NO_x (NO + NO₂) in the semi- and polluted atmosphere, yielding methoxy radical

60 (CH₃O) and then CH₂O (Lowe and Schmidt 1983; Wolfe et al., 2016). In unpolluted environments

 $(NO < 20 \text{ pmol mol}^{-1})$, CH_3O_2 reacts with HO₂ forming methyl hydroperoxide (CH_3OOH), 61

62 eventually yielding CH₂O. In addition to reactions with OH and photolysis (e.g., von Kuhlmann et 63 al., 2003), CH_3OOH can be lost through heterogenous reactions, thus aerosols may indirectly 64 regulate the presence of CH₂O.

- 65 Regarding CH₂O loss processes, its main sink is photolysis at $\lambda \leq 350$ nm (Crutzen 1988), resulting in an increase of atmospheric carbon monoxide (CO) which is an ozone precursor. Also, reaction 66 67 with the hydroxyl radical (OH) and washout and dry deposition can contribute to CH₂O losses 68 (Solberg et al., 2001). As for the CH₂O lifetime, although it can span up to 2 days, in the sunlit 69 atmosphere it is only a few hours (Lowe and Schmidt, 1983; Sander et al., 2006). Due to this short 70 lifetime, CH₂O is often used as a constraint for determining direct emissions of non-methane VOC.
- 71 During the last two decades, global tropospheric columns of CH₂O have been intensively monitored
- 72 by different satellites (GOME/ERS2, SCIAMACHY/Envisat, GOME2/MetOp, OMI/Aura,
- 73 TROPOMI/S5P; e.g., Chance et al., 2000; De Smedt et al., 2018) aiming at characterizing the
- 74 tropospheric chemical processes, mainly those linked to air quality or climate change (Schroeder et

al., 2016). In fact, CH₂O is one of the very few VOC that can be detected by satellite and several studies have aimed at determining VOC emissions at a global scale using CH₂O satellite observations (Palmer et al., 2003; Stavrakou et al., 2009a, b; Bauwens et al., 2016) often assisted by numerical models. Also, by means of satellite observations of CH₂O along with chemical models, the distribution of OH in the remote troposphere can be inferred (Wolfe et al., 2019). The down-scaling effort of the satellite and model community to understand CH₂O and the oxidizing mechanisms within emission plumes makes essential the characterization of pristine areas since in

82 those regions the low signal-to-noise ratio of the satellite observations results in worse data quality
83 and the VOC inventories are scarce.

Despite all the years that CH₂O has been a scientific target, very few studies have been performed 84 85 in remote areas (Platt et al., 1979; Lowe and Schmidt, 1983; de Serves 1994; Arlander et al., 1995, 86 Riedel et al., 1999: Mahajan et al., 2010; Vigouroux et al., 2018) since determining its presence and 87 vertical distribution in the remote troposphere is indeed an instrumental challenge. Several studies 88 have addressed the budget of CH₂O in the free troposphere from airborne observations (Lowe et al., 89 1980; Arlander et a., 1995; Singh et al., 2001; Nicely et al., 2016; Anderson et al., 2017; Wolfe et al., 2019; Kluge et al., 2020) and also from measurements at high-altitude sites in The Andes (Pico 90 91 Espejo, 4765 m, Schreier et al., 2016), in Mexico (Altzomoni, 3980 m; Vigouroux et al., 2018), in 92 Reunion Island (Maïdo, 21600 m; Vigouroux et al., 2018), in the USA (Mauna Loa, 3397 m, Heikes 93 et al. 1992; Zhou et al 1996; Cantrell et al., 1996; Vigouroux et al., 2018, and Idaho Hill, 3000 m, 94 Fried et al., 1997; Cantrell et al., 1997; Harder et al, 1997), in The Alps (Jungfraujoch, 3580 nm, 95 Legreid et al., 2008; Balzani Lööv et al., 2008; Franco et al., 2015, and Zugspitze, 2962 m, 96 Leuchner et al., 2016; Schreier et al., 2016; Vigouroux et al., 2018), in the Apennines (Mt. Cimone, 97 2165 m, Fischer et al., 2003) and in the Canary Islands (Izaña-IZO, 2360 m, Fischer et al., 1998; de Reus et al., 2005; Salisbury et al., 2006; Vigouroux et al., 2018). Overall, these studies set the 98 values of CH₂O in the free troposphere between 0.1 and 1 nmol mol⁻¹, with high variability 99 depending on season (minimum in winter and maximum in summer), location and altitude, and 100 reaching up to 5 nmol mol⁻¹ in case of upslope pollution transported from the planetary boundary 101 layer (PBL). The above-mentioned studies expanding beyond the PBL into free troposphere, report 102 103 a vertical distribution of CH₂O with a decreasing profile and a weak diurnal variation in the free 104 troposphere.

105 This study aims at a better understanding of the chemical composition of the free troposphere by

106 providing observations from two different environments: from an island in the subtropical region

107 and from the Pyrenees, more exposed to European pollution. In particular, this work reports ground-

108 based remote sensing observations of CH₂O and BrO from two remote high-altitude sites: El Teide

109 (TEI, Tenerife, Canary Islands, Spain; 3570 m) and Pic du Midi (PDM, French Pyrenees; 2877 m). 110 During two field campaigns (AMISOC-TEI and Pic du Midi-PDM) in July (TEI) and September (PDM) 2013, a MAX-DOAS instrument (Multi-Axis Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy; 111 112 Hönninger et al., 2004; Wagner et al., 2004; Platt and Stutz, 2008) scanned the troposphere 113 vertically in order to gain insights regarding the atmospheric composition at the measurement 114 locations. This work first describes the field campaigns as well as the measurement sites and 115 methodology. Then, it presents the observations to, later on, discuss the presence of CH₂O at the 116 two mountain sites and address the upper limit of BrO at the sites during each field campaign.

117 2. Measurements and methods

118 This section describes the two field campaigns and observational sites referred to in this study,119 along with the measurement method during both campaigns.

120 2.1. Field campaigns and sites description

During July and September/October 2013, two different one-month field campaigns took place at 121 122 two different remote high-altitude sites (El Teide and Pic du Midi, see Fig. 1). Given the scarcity of observations in the free troposphere (i.e., above 2000 m a.s.l.; Chevalier et al., 2007), the goal of the 123 124 campaigns was to characterize the composition of that part of the atmosphere. Indeed, the 125 possibility of performing consecutive ground-based observations from El Teide and Pic du Midi 126 presented itself as a unique opportunity to investigate the free troposphere in two different 127 environments (marine and continental) and in different latitudinal locations (sub-tropics and mid-128 latitudes). In the following, each field campaign and characteristics of the observational sites are 129 described.

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Fig. 1: Mean formaldehyde tropospheric column density during 2013 as observed from space. The observational sites referred to in this work are indicated in black (El Teide-TEI and Pic du Midi-PDM). The satellite data belong to the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) on the Aura platform (http://h2co.aeronomie.be, last access 09/11/2019).

173 2.1.1. AMISOC campaign at El Teide (28.27° N, 16.64° W, 3570 m a.s.l.)

174 Within the framework of the AMISOC research project led by INTA (Spanish National Institute for 175 Aerospace Technology), a field campaign took place in July 2013 at the island of Tenerife (Canary 176 Islands, Spain) in the Atlantic Ocean. The major target of the campaign was the study of the 177 tropospheric vertical distribution of minor species related to the ozone chemistry in an oceanic 178 environment. The specific goal of team of the Spanish National Research Council (CSIC) within 179 AMISOC was to explore the presence and vertical distribution of UV-absorbing trace gases such as 180 halogen oxides (BrO) and VOCs (CH₂O) in the remote free troposphere in the sub-tropics. 181 In collaboration with INTA and the Izaña Atmospheric Research Center (IARC) from the State

182 Meteorological Agency of Spain (AEMET, Cuevas et al., 2017), the CSIC team installed a MAX-

DOAS instrument at El Teide (TEI) from 7th July until 1st August 2013. The instrument was
mounted on a hut nearby the upper cable car station of El Teide National Park, approximately 1200
m above the Izaña Observatory (IZO, IARC), and ~150 m below the summit of the volcano El
Teide.

187 TEI sits at a very dry environment under high insolation most of the year. Although TEI itself is not 188 a permanent measurement site, multiple atmospheric observations have been performed for decades 189 at IZO (i.e., ~1 km below TEI). These investigations describe IZO as free troposphere background 190 conditions. The site is usually above the temperature inversion layer, and periodically impacted by 191 the Saharan Air Layer, mainly in summer (Cuevas et al., 2013, 2017; Rodríguez et al., 2011; García 192 et al., 2014). Indeed, IZO is a well-established and characterized research center that is part of the 193 World Meteorological Organization-Global Atmospheric Watch Programme (WMO-GAW) and its 194 predecessor Background Atmospheric Pollution Monitoring Network (BAPMoN) since 1984. IZO 195 also contributes to several international research networks such, e.g., the AErosol RObotic 196 NETwork (AERONET), the Network for the Detection of Atmospheric Composition Change 197 (NDACC) or the Total Carbon Column Observing Network (TCCON) (Cuevas et al., 2015).

198 2.1.2. Pic du Midi campaign (42.93° N, 0.13° E, 2877 m a.s.l)

From 15th September until 13th October 2013, the same MAX-DOAS instrument from AMISOC 199 200 was deployed at the Pic du Midi Observatory (PDM) in the French Pyrenees. The goal of the 201 campaign, organized by the University of Toulouse, was to investigate the oxidation pathways of 202 mercury (Hg) in the free troposphere. As in AMISOC, the specific goal of the CSIC-DOAS 203 observations was to assess the presence of reactive compounds such as halogens (BrO) or aldehydes 204 (CH₂O) in the free troposphere, this time in the mid-latitudes. During the campaign, the MAX-205 DOAS measurements were performed from the facilities of the Atmospheric Research Laboratory 206 at PDM, along with observations of Hg, CO and O₃ (Marusczak et al., 2017).

207 The PDM (http://p2oa.aero.obs-mip.fr/) is part of the Observatoire Midi-Pyrénées and is a GAW 208 station since 2018, offering long-term astronomical and atmospheric observations since the 19th 209 century. From an air quality point of view, the site is defined as "mostly remote" (Henne et al. 210 2010) and, since PDM sits on top of the Pic du Midi de Bigorre and hence 1300 m above the 211 surrounding area, the location has often been used as a remote location for free-tropospheric 212 observations (Marenco et al. 1994). Under predominant westerly winds, the PDM generally 213 receives humid air masses from the Atlantic Ocean. Warming of the surrounding plains leads to up-214 slope winds during daytime, carrying pollutants (Hg, CO, black carbon) up to the PDM (Fu et al., 215 2016). During nighttime, the PDM katabatic winds bring free tropospheric air to the PDM,

providing a window into the middle and upper free troposphere (2-8 km, Marenco et al. 1994;Gheusi et al., 2011; Fu et al. 2016).

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219 2.2. Remote sensing method

220 The MAX-DOAS instrument deployed during both campaigns consisted of two units (indoor and 221 outdoor units) and it was previously described in the work of Prados-Roman et al. (2015) and 222 references therein. Thus, only a brief description is provided here. In summary, through a scanning 223 telescope and a 10 m long optic fiber bundle, the scattered skylight of the sunlit atmosphere was 224 directed from the weatherproof outdoor unit to the indoor unit. The latter consisted of a Princeton 225 CCD camera and a 0.5 m Czerny-Turner spectrometer with mobile mirrors and a 600 groove/nm 226 grating on a rotating turret. That turret was automatically moved every 25 min in order to change 227 the diffracting angle so we could gather spectra in the UV and in the Vis range. In this work, only 228 UV data will be referred to. The set-up yielded an instrumental field of view (FOV) of 0.5° and a 229 spectral resolution of 0.5 nm (FWHM). Figure 2 shows the outdoor units as deployed at each site.

230 Although the concept of the measurement routine scanning the atmosphere at discrete elevation 231 angles from the limb to the zenith was the same during both campaigns, the details were slightly 232 different depending on the location. In the case of the deployment at TEI, the instrument FOV 233 azimuth angle was fixed at 62° (0° is North) and the chosen scanning elevation angles above the 234 instrument plane were -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 30, 70 and 90 degrees (~3minutes/scan). In the case of 235 PDM set-up, the azimuth angle of the MAX-DOAS instrument was 195° while the elevation angles 236 were set to -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 20 and 90° (~2 minutes/scan). Note that in both cases, the MAX-DOAS 237 observations were performed only for solar zenith angles (SZA) lower than 70° (SZA 90° is 238 overhead sun), minimizing possible contribution of stratospheric trace gases to the retrieval of the 239 aimed tropospheric constituents.

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Fig. 2: Outdoor unit of the MAX-DOAS instrument installed at the two research sites. At Tenerife (a), the outdoor unit of the instrument was mounted on the roof of a hut at 3570 m a.s.l., just below El Teide's summit (3718 m a.s.l., shown in the photograph). At the Pyrenees (b), the instrument was placed on the roof of the Atmospheric Chemistry Platform at the PDM (2877 m a.s.l.), with the field of view towards the South (195°). In both cases, through a rotating mirror inside the outdoor unit, the atmosphere was scanned vertically from the limb to the zenith.

250 2.2.1. Spectral retrieval of trace gases

The procedure for the DOAS (Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy; Platt and Stuzt, 2008) spectral retrieval of the trace gases was the same for both datasets and the software used for the spectral retrieval in both campaigns was QDOAS (Danckaert et al., 2017). Following the settings suggested by Pinardi et al. (2013) where the authors performed a thorough comparison and validation exercise for MAX-DOAS observations, the spectral retrieval of CH_2O was performed in the 336.5-359 nm spectral window (further details are provided in Table 1). An example of the spectral fit is shown in Fig. 3.

In the case of TEI observations, due to saturation issues, the spectra acquired at elevation angles of 90° and at SZA < 20° were filtered out and not used at all (i.e., no observations between noon and 2:30 pm). As for the analysis procedure, the spectra were analyzed against the spectra with the higher elevation angle of each scan (i.e., 70° in TEI, 90° in PDM). In the case of the PDM campaign in the Pyrenees, where weather conditions were highly variable, the PDM-DOAS data were cloud-filtered. This was not needed in the cloud-free conditions of the TEI campaign. Further details on the data quality filtering are provided in the Supplementary Material.

Parameter	Specification		
Absorption cross sections			
CH_2O	Meller and Moortgat (2000)		
O_3	Bogumil et al. (2003)		
NO_2	Vandaele et al. (1996)		
BrO	Fleischmann et al. (2004)		
O_4	Thalman and Volkamer (2013)		
Ring	QDOAS (Chance and Spurr, 1997)		
Closure term	5 th order polynomial		
Wavelength calibration	Based on reference solar spectrum (Chance and Kurucz, 2010)		
Intensity offset	Linear		

266	Table 1: Summary	of the settings use	d for the spectral ret	trieval of CH ₂ O (a	fter Pinardi et al.,	2013).
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269 In addition to CH₂O, the presence of BrO in the free troposphere was also investigated at both high-270 altitude sites. Using the same absorption cross sections as those for the CH₂O spectral retrieval 271 (Table 1), the BrO DOAS analysis was performed in three different spectral windows: in the 272 classical two BrO absorption bands (346 - 359 nm) suggested by Aliwell at el. (2002), in the 336.5-273 359 nm range covering 4 bands (i.e., window of the CH₂O retrieval) and, based on the work of 274 Franco et al. (2015), also in the region of 328.5-359 nm (i.e., 6 BrO absorption bands) where the 275 correlation between the BrO and CH₂O absorption cross sections is minimum. Moreover, the BrO 276 retrieval in those windows was also tested by fixing CH₂O to the average slant column density 277 inferred at each station. Despite several tests, there was no positive spectral detection of BrO (i.e., 278 no signatures above the residual of the DOAS fit). Hence in this work only upper limits of BrO at 279 each site are reported (Sect. 3.1). Note that excluding the BrO cross section of the CH₂O spectral fit 280 decreased the CH₂O differential slant column densities (dSCD) in only 1 % (within the 15 % mean 281 error of the CH₂O dSCD, see Supplementary Material). Similarly, including the water absorption 282 (Polyansky et al., 2018) in the spectral fit of CH₂O does not affect the retrieved CH₂O dSCD (refer 283 to the Supplementary Material).

In order to invert the retrieved dSCD at the different elevation angles into the vertical distribution of the target gases, additional information regarding the light path is needed. The standard method for MAX-DOAS observations is to retrieve the O_2 - O_2 collision induced absorption (i.e., O_4 ; Thalman and Volkamer et al., 2013) since its vertical distribution is known in the atmosphere. In this work, the spectral retrieval of O_4 was performed between 339-367 nm using the same absorption cross sections as for CH₂O (Table 1).



Fig. 3: Example of the DOAS spectral fit of CH₂O. The measurement was taken on 19th July 2013 at TEI (10:30 UTC) for an elevation angle of 0°. The fit of the absorption cross sections is provided in red while the measured features are shown in black. The retrieved CH₂O dSCD correspond to $3.76 \cdot 10^{16}$ molec cm⁻² (RMS = $1.88 \cdot 10^{-4}$).

313 2.2.2. Inversion of vertical profile distribution

The inversion of the vertical profile distribution of CH_2O was performed by means of the "O₄ 314 315 method" (Wagner et al., 2004; Frieß et al., 2006) in a two-step approach: (1) the vertical profile of 316 the aerosol extinction coefficient (AEC) was first inverted from the retrieved O_4 dSCD, and (2) the 317 obtained aerosol profile is used as input in the inversion of the trace gas vertical profile distribution. 318 Note that only positive elevation angles ($\geq 0^{\circ}$) were used in the vertical profile retrievals. These 319 retrievals were performed with the Linearized Discrete Ordinate Radiative Transfer (LIDORT) 320 radiative transfer model (Spurr et al, 2008) as part of the BePRO inversion algorithm (BIRA, 321 Clémer et al. 2010), based on the Optimal Estimation Method (OEM, Rodgers, 2000). In order to 322 use this method, measurements (S_e) and a prior (S_a) covariance matrices must be provided. S_e is a 323 diagonal matrix whose diagonal terms correspond to the squared error coming from the DOAS fit. 324 Diagonal elements of S_a correspond to 100% of the a priori profile when the CH₂O profiles are 325 estimated. Diagonal values of Sa for aerosol retrieval were calculated following (Clémer et al., 326 2010), using a scaling factor (β) of 0.4. This method allows to capture large variations of the aerosol 327 concentrations, as those observed at Tenerife (Cordoba-Jabonero et al., 2016) when Saharan dust 328 intrusions take place. In both cases (CH₂O and aerosols), S_a non-diagonal elements correspond to a

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Gaussian distribution (Hendrick et al., 2004) with a correlation length of 100 m. The averaging 329 330 kernel matrix of the retrieval, as defined in Rodgers (2000), describes the sensitivity of the retrieved 331 profile to the true state. Its trace provides the degrees of freedom of the retrieval. In this work, only 332 inversions with degrees of freedom equal or higher to 1 were considered (i.e., at least a piece of 333 information of the profiles came from the measurements and not from the a priori). The atmospheric 334 characterization of TEI and PDM was obtained from the standard atmosphere (Anderson et al., 335 1986) for tropical and mid-latitudes, respectively. The considered atmospheric vertical grid consists 336 of layers 100 m thick up to 6 km, layers 500 m thick between 6 and 8 km and equal to the standard 337 atmosphere above. The surface albedo has been set to 0.07 for both stations. This value is typical of sea water for the UV-A spectral range (Chadysiene and Aloyzas, 2008) and it is also an 338 339 intermediate value between pasture (0.0243) and limestone (0.11) for the UV radiation (Turner et 340 al., 2018), corresponding to the observed scenarios at TEI and PDM respectively. In the radiative transfer model, aerosols were characterized through their phase moments and single scattering 341 342 albedo (SSA). For TEI, these parameters were obtained from available AERONET data 343 corresponding to the studied days. For PDM, there were no available AERONET data for the 344 studied period, thus several reasonable values for SSA and the asymmetry parameters (γ) were tested, finally choosing those providing the best fit between simulated and calculated dSCDs 345 (SSA=0.95, γ =0.65). Then, phase moments were calculated using Heyney-Greenstein phase 346 347 functions.

348 For the vertical profile retrieval of aerosols extinction and CH₂O volume mixing ratio (vmr) at both stations, an a priori vertical profile exponentially decreasing with altitude was considered. This 349 350 assumption is based on the fact that its photolysis (CH₂O main sink) increases with altitude as well as with the distance from the emission sources in the PBL. In addition, the concentration of OH 351 352 decreases with altitude and so does the oxidation of CH₄ (CH₂O main source in the free troposphere) (Lowe et al., 1980; Arlander et al., 1995; Singh et al., 2001; Lawrence et al., 2001; 353 354 Nicely et al., 2016). Aerosol optical depth (AOD) corresponding to the aerosol a priori profile was 0.01 and 0.005 for TEI and PDM, respectively. Vertical column density (VCD) values for the a 355 priori profiles of CH₂O were 0.7 · 10¹⁵ molec cm⁻² and 1.0 · 10¹⁵ molec cm⁻² for TEI and PDM, 356 357 respectively. These values of AOD and VCD provided the best fit between simulated and observed dSCDs of O₄ and CH₂O, respectively. The degrees of freedom of the vertical profiles retrieved in 358 this work were 1.9 \pm 0.2 and 1.6 \pm 0.2 for CH₂O at TEI and at PDM, respectively (i.e., mean \pm 359 360 standard deviation); and 2.8 ± 0.4 and 2.4 ± 0.3 for the aerosol retrieval (TEI and PDM, 361 respectively).

An example of a CH₂O vertical profile retrieved at TEI and at PDM, referred to also later on, is shown in Fig. 4. The statistics of all the CH₂O and AEC inverted vertical profiles at each site are summarized in Fig. 5.



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Fig. 4: Examples of inferred CH_2O vmr vertical profiles. The example (a) corresponds to observations performed at El Teide (8th July 2013, 9 am UTC) and (b) to observations performed at PDM on 26th September, 2013 (9.45 UTC). The dotted line on both plots indicates the average detection limit. Note that the vertical scales are different in both plots.





Fig. 5: Box charts of the vertical profiles of CH₂O vmr (left: a, c) and AEC (right: b, d) at TEI (up: a, b) and PDM (down: c, d) at each retrieval grid layer. Note the same vertical scales at each site. The a priori profiles for the inversion are provided in cyan (CH₂O) and green (AEC). Only cloud free data are considered.

378 3. Results and discussion

This section presents the vertical distribution of CH₂O and aerosol extinction coefficient retrieved at
each site. Also, this section reports the BrO upper limit and discusses CH₂O observations at each
site.

382 **3.1.** CH₂O and aerosol vertical distribution

383 The time series of the CH₂O and AEC vertical profiles during the two research campaigns are shown in Fig. 6 (TEI) and Fig. 7 (PDM). From the aerosol load point of view, both stations 384 385 presented rather clear conditions although the aerosol optical depth was generally higher at TEI where a strong intrusion of Saharan dust took place on the last day of the campaign. Overall, both 386 stations presented a mean aerosol extinction coefficient of $\sim 0.05 \text{ km}^{-1}$ at the instrument's altitude 387 (0.04 km⁻¹ at 3570 m at TEI, and 0.06 km⁻¹ at 2877 m at PDM). At PDM, most of the extinction was 388 389 located between the research site and an altitude of 4 km. However, at TEI, a higher AEC was often 390 found above the instrument's location. As for CH₂O, the median of the retrieved mixing ratio 391 vertical profiles indicated that, while the maximum vmr is at the instrument's altitude during the Pic du Midi campaign $(0.5 \pm 0.2 \text{ nmol mol}^{-1} \text{ at } 2.9 \text{ km a.s.l.})$, during AMISOC the maximum CH₂O vmr 392 was located hundreds of meters above the instrument's altitude $(0.7 \pm 0.2 \text{ nmol mol}^{-1} \text{ at TEI and } 1.3 \text{ mol}^{-1}$ 393 \pm 0.3 nmol mol⁻¹ at about 3.8 km a.s.l.). The mean CH₂O detection limit (i.e., double of the error of 394 395 the retrieval) at the instrument's altitude was between 0.1 and 0.3 nmol mol⁻¹ at both sites. Further 396 details of the vertical profile inversion at each site and its statistics are provided in the 397 Supplementary Materials.

As previously mentioned, unless ventilation from the PBL takes place, the vertical profile of CH₂O 398 399 in the troposphere is usually assumed to decrease with altitude. While in this work this is the case 400 for the vertical profiles retrieved at PDM, it is not the case for TEI observations. The unique 401 distribution of CH₂O at TEI with a maintained uplifted maximum throughout AMISOC is unlikely 402 related to upslope transport of air masses from the PBL since in summer a thick (~200 m) and 403 strong temperature inversion ($\Delta T \sim +3^{\circ}C$) associated to the top of the marine boundary layer is found 404 between 1500 and 1800 m a.s.l. (Carrillo et al., 2016), far below TEI altitude. During AMISOC, the 405 meteorological vertical profiles from the radiosondes launched at Güímar (Tenerife) showed these characteristics. As an example, Fig. 8 shows the Skew t -Log P diagram of the radiosonde 406 corresponding to the 8th July 2013 (CH₂O vertical profiles of this day are shown in Fig. 4a). On this 407 day, there was a very strong temperature inversion ($\Delta T \sim +10^{\circ}$ C) between ~ 860 m a.s.l. (base of the 408 409 temperature inversion) and ~ 1400 m a.s.l. (top of the temperature inversion), preventing ventilation from the PBL (see Supplementary Materials with the Skew t -Log P diagram plots of the 12 UTC 410

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411 WMO- 60018 radiosonde station corresponding to the period July 1 -August 3, 2013). Although 412 TEI itself is an arid site, a possible nearby emission of CH₂O (and/or its precursors) above the PBL could be the pine forest below TEI that expands from 600 m up to 2000 m a.s.l. (Cuevas et al., 413 414 2013) and could well be a source of isoprene, a biogenic VOC that produces 18% of the CH_2O 415 found globally (Bates and Jacob, 2019). However, if upslope transport of air masses takes place and 416 the origin of the CH₂O observed at TEI was solely this forest, given the high irradiation at this 417 altitude in this subtropical region, a decreasing CH₂O vertical profile would be expected with its 418 maximum located around IZO (i.e., 1.2 km bellow TEI), not 1800 m above the tree line (and over 419 300 m above TEI). Note that during similar time of the year as AMISOC, previous studies 420 performed at IZO reported on CH₂O vmr similar to the ones observed in this work at TEI's altitude (i.e., no decreasing CH₂O vertical profile between IZO and TEI). With in-situ analyzers placed at 421 IZO, de Reus et al. (2005) and Salisbury et al. (2006) reported 0.65 nmol mol⁻¹ mean CH₂O daily 422 values for non-dust conditions. Similar findings were made by Fischer et al. (1998), whose study 423 424 already pointed out the high CH₂O values observed at IZO as compared to box model results and to 425 observations at the remote site of Mauna Loa. Also, the MAX-DOAS observations do not represent 426 in-situ measurements but an average of the properties of air masses tens of kilometers away from 427 the instrument's location (Gomez et al., 2014). Thus, the CH₂O uplifted maximum detected during 428 AMISOC agrees with an advected layer around El Teide that sits at ~4 km altitude throughout July 429 2013 (i.e., just above the volcano's summit). As depicted in the 22-year study of Cuevas et al. 430 (2013), the air masses arriving at IZO during the month of July come from the west (Atlantic Ocean 431 or Canada), or from the east (from the Sahel region and the northern savannas of Africa). This is 432 also shown by the backward trajectories calculated with the HYbrid Single-Particle Lagrangian 433 Integrated Trajectory model (HYSPLIT, Stein et al., 2015, https://www.arl.noaa.gov/hysplit/, last access: 09/11/2019) at TEI during AMISOC (e.g., Fig. 9, note that the backward trajectories for 434 each day are provided in the Supplementary Material). During AMISOC, during few days (7th, 15th, 435 20th and 21st July) the air masses arriving at TEI's altitude crossed the Atlantic Ocean. However, 436 most of the time the air masses arriving at TEI originated from the northern savannas of Africa 437 (e.g., 8th July) or from the Sahel region (e.g., 22th July). In July, these two African regions are within 438 the Inter Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) influence (see Supplementary Material, Fig. S3), with 439 440 deep convection lifting air masses straight up into the free troposphere and transporting them 441 poleward (Nicholson, 2009). Measurement and models point out these northern savannas as a 442 source region of isoprene emissions (Marais et al., 2014). As shown in Fig. 10a, during July 2013 443 the Sahel and the northern savannas of Africa suffered numerous fires, known to be strong direct sources of CH₂O and its precursors. Moreover, as shown in Fig. 10b, during AMISOC absorbing 444

aerosols (related to biomass burning, dust and/or volcano activity, e.g., Torres et al., 1998) were
detected over the North Atlantic Ocean as a result of strong Canadian fires and also carbonaceous
aerosols and/or desert dust from African outflow.

448 The history of the vertical distribution of the air masses arriving at Tenerife during summertime is 449 indeed quite complex. As an example, Fig. 11 (a) shows the backward trajectories of the air masses arriving at Tenerife on 31st July, 2013. While the air masses arriving at 2.5 km altitude (~IZO 450 451 station) came from the free troposphere of the Sahel region, those arriving at 4 km (~TEI site) came 452 from isoprene-rich northern savannas of Africa (with fires), and the air masses above the Teide 453 summit came from the clean upper troposphere over the Atlantic Ocean. Note that the different air 454 masses above and below 5 km altitude for this same day were previously reported by Dyroff et al. 455 (2015). This sort of vertical stratification of the origin of the air masses reaching Tenerife, directed 456 the unique behaviour of CH₂O observed during AMISOC with maximum CH₂O observed up to 500

457 m above the instrument's altitude (e.g., Fig, 12 b).

- 458 As for the trajectories of the air masses reaching Pic du Midi, in general they come from the 459 Atlantic Ocean, from France or from Spain (e.g. Fig. 12, note that the backward trajectories for each 460 day are provided in the Supplementary Material). Regardless, the air masses arrived PDM after 461 passing over through the Pyrenees. Note that the Pyrenees and Spain are known to be strong sources 462 of isoprene from vegetation and/or pollution (Simon et al., 2001; Simpson et al., 1995, 1999; Jiang 463 et al., 2019). In addition, as shown in Fig. 13, the Iberian Peninsula suffered biomass burning during 464 the measurement period at the Pyrenees. Overall, unlike at TEI, at PDM the retrieved CH₂O 465 presented decreasing vertical profiles with a maximum value located nearby the altitude of the instrument. An example of the CH₂O retrieved at PDM is shown in Fig. 4b and the statistics of the 466 467 CH₂O retrieved at PDM are provided in Fig. 5c. Further discussion on the evolution of CH₂O at 468 both sites will be addressed in Sect. 3.2.
- 469 Regarding BrO, there was no positive detection after the DOAS retrieval and only an upper limit 470 (i.e., double of the measurement error) of the halogen compound could be set at each high-altitude 471 site. This was made using the RTM calculations made for Rayleigh conditions for the limb viewing direction (0°). Results indicate that the BrO upper limit at TEI during July is of 0.8 pmol mol⁻¹ (at 472 3.5 km a.s.l.). At PDM the BrO upper limit during September was 1.5 pmol mol⁻¹ (at 2.9 km a.s.l.). 473 474 Note that this higher upper limit at PDM relates to worse lighting conditions compared to TEI 475 campaign. Both BrO vmr upper limits in the free troposphere are consistent with previous studies 476 (Volkamer et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2015).
- 477



Fig. 6: CH_2O (a) and AEC (b) at El Teide. The horizontal scale shows the time period of the measurement campaign. The vertical scale indicates the altitude in the troposphere while the colour code depicts de CH_2O vmr (a) and the Aerosol Extinction Coefficient (b). The night periods when no observations were performed are shown in grey and values below detection limit in black.



Fig. 7: CH_2O (a) and AEC (b) at Pic du Midi. The horizontal scale shows the time period of the measurement campaign. The vertical scale indicates the altitude in the troposphere while the colour code depicts de CH2O vmr (a) and the Aerosol Extinction Coefficient (b). The night periods are shown in grey, the periods with lack of measurements due to bad weather are dashed and the values below detection limit are shown in black.



563 564 Fig. 8: Meteorological sounding corresponding to 8th July, 2013 (12 UTC, WMO- 60018 radiosonde station). Note the strong temperature inversion of $\Delta T \sim +10^{\circ}$ C between 1000 and 850 565 hPa (indicated in red). The vertical profiles of CH₂O observed this day are shown in Fig. 4a. 566 567 Horizontal dashed grey lines correspond to standard pressure levels (hPa), isotherm lines (°C) are 568 shown in right slanted dashed black, dry adiabats (°C) are given in curved brown lines, saturation 569 adiabats (°C) are shown in blue, and saturation mixing ratios (g/kg) are shown in right slanted 570 dashed blue lines. The left and right black lines represent the dewpoint (°C) and temperature (°C), 571 respectively. The wind bars are provided in green.





Fig. 9: 10-day backward trajectories at TEI for the 8th July (a) and for the 22th July (b), 2013. Red lines represent the backward trajectories arriving at 4 km altitude and blue lines at 500 m (a.s.l.).

Sumo

- 0.0



Time Averaged Map of UV Aerosol Index daily 1 deg. [OMI OMTO3d v003] over 2013-07-07 - 2013-08-01



595 596

Fig. 10: Conditions during the AMISOC 2013 campaign. (a) Fire counts during July 2013. The TEI 597 site is shown in white (Fire Information for Resource Management System, FIRMS, NASA). (b) 598 Time averaged UV Aerosol Index (Torres et al., 1998) during AMISOC 2013 (OMTO3d, NASA 599 Goddard Space Flight Center, Goddard Earth Sciences Data and Information Services Center, GES 600 DISC, https://giovanni.gsfc.nasa.gov/giovanni/, last access 02/02/2020).



Fig. 11: (a) 10-day backward trajectories of the air masses arriving at 10 UTC at TEI (green), at 4 km (blue) and at 5.5 km (red) on 31^{st} July, 2013. (b) Vertical distribution of the CH₂O mixing ratio retrieved on that day (10.30 UTC, the dot line shows the average detection limit).



Fig. 12: 3-day backward trajectories at PDM for the 15th (a) and 26th September (b), 2013. Red lines
represent the backward trajectories arriving at 3.5 km altitude and blue lines at 500 m (a.s.l.).

Jour



Fig. 13: Fire counts during the Pic du Midi campaign (September-October 2013). The PDM site isshown in green (Fire Information for Resource Management System, FIRMS, NASA).

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644 3.2. Formaldehyde at each site

645 For a better understanding of the evolution of CH₂O in the free troposphere during each campaign, 646 Fig. 14 shows the CH₂O mixing ratios retrieved at each site (as shown in Fig. 6 and Fig. 7), 647 averaged over each site's location up to 1 km higher. Thus, in Fig. 14 the CH₂O vmr are averaged 648 from TEI up to 4.5 km (mean altitude 4035 m a.s.l.) and from PDM up to 4 km (mean altitude 3438 649 m a.s.l). Note that these altitude ranges cover the location of the CH₂O maximum at each station and measurement time, simplifying therefore an overview of the CH₂O mixing ratio in the free 650 651 troposphere at each location. Additionally, Fig. 14 also includes (in red) the amount of CH₂O 652 expected from a simplified scheme where the main source of CH₂O in a pristine troposphere is the 653 oxidation of background CH_4 by OH, and the main loss processes are photolysis and oxidation by 654 OH (Equation 1-3; Platt et al., 1979):

$$CH_2O + hv \rightarrow H + HCO (1)$$
$$CH_2O + hv \rightarrow H_2 + CO (2)$$
$$CH_2O + OH \rightarrow H_2O + HCO (3)$$

655 For the steady state calculation given by

656
$$[CH_2O] = \frac{k_4[OH][CH_4]}{k_3[OH]+J_1+J_2} (4)$$

and shown in Fig. 14, the OH concentration, photolysis rates (J_1, J_2) and CH_4 oxidation rate (k_4) used are those reported by Zhou et al. (1996) for the high-altitude site of Mauna Loa (latitude 19.47° N)

in summer (TEI) and autumn (PDM) values. The coefficient rate k_3 used is based on Platt et al. 660 (1979) and the concentration of CH₄ used is of 1851 nmol mol⁻¹, mean value measured at IZO in 661 662 2013 with a standard deviation of less than 1% throughout the year (Cuevas et al., 2015). The 663 concentration of OH in the troposphere is very dependent of latitude, altitude and season (e.g., 664 Lelieveld et al., 2016; Wolfe et al., 2019). Thus, given the stability of CH_4 in a remote troposphere, 665 OH oxidation of CH₄ and CH₂O is the main uncertainty (Δ) in this simplified estimation of steady-666 state CH₂O concentration. In this sense, sensitivity tests indicate that, e.g., an overestimation of 20 667 % in the concentration of OH used in our work (which is feasible given, for instance, the OH values 668 reported for a mid-latitude mountain site of similar altitude as PDM, Fried et al. 1997), would lead 669 to an overestimation of ~14 % in the amount of CH₂O in the steady-state calculation (i.e., Δ [CH₂O] ~ 0.7 x Δ [OH]). Thus, in this case, the steady-state CH₂O values provided in Fig. 14 would 670 671 represent simplified upper limits.

Regarding the CH₂O mixing ratio, Fig. 14 shows the difference between both remote sites. While 672 the mean free tropospheric CH₂O mixing ratio in the free troposphere of the Pyrenees was $0.35 \pm$ 673 674 0.12 nmol mol⁻¹ (PDM), at the Canary Islands (TEI) it was 0.97 \pm 0.26 nmol mol⁻¹ (i.e., more than double). This difference could be due to the fact that the AMISOC campaign took place during 675 676 summer (when CH₂O typically shows its seasonal maximum) and the Pic du Midi campaign took 677 place in summer/autumn. However, the photolysis of CH₂O at TEI (i.e., in the subtropics and at 678 higher altitude) is expected to be faster than at PDM. Thus, if only local sources of CH₂O are 679 considered, the high CH₂O values observed at TEI are unexpected for a pristine high-altitude 680 location.

681 As shown in Fig. 14, overall, the observed CH₂O at both sites exceeded the values expected for a 682 pristine troposphere with background methane as main CH₂O source, which could only explain 40 683 % and 0.4 % of the observations at PDM and TEI, respectively. Moreover, the mean observed 684 CH₂O values at TEI were over 3 times higher than predicted from CH₄ oxidation. But, in addition to 685 this background CH₄, isoprene is also known to be a relevant CH₂O source producing about 20 % of 686 the global CH₂O budget (Stavrakou et al., 2009a; Bates and Jacob, 2019). Therefore, if one 687 considers not only background CH₄ but also that 20 % of the observed CH₂O could come from 688 isoprene, then both background sources (i.e., methane and isoprene) could explain the observations 689 in the Pyrenees but they could only partially explain the CH₂O values measured at TEI (51%).

690 The observations at the Pyrenees might be explained by NMHC transported from the PBL to PDM, 691 like e.g. uplifted pollution from continental Spain and/or VOC emissions from the Pyrenees 692 (Gomez and Baldasano, 1999). Indeed, Spain is a rather strong source of VOCs and particularly of 693 isoprene from vegetation and/or pollution (Jiang et al., 2019) and, in addition to the above-694 mentioned fires, in September/October a thermal low is still present over the Iberian Peninsula 695 yielding in a thick convective boundary layer (Hoinka and Castro, 2003). As for NMHC in Pic du Midi region, isoprene is emitted at a rate of 20-40 kt month⁻¹ during the summer/autumn season 696 (Simpson et al., 1995). Also, Simon et al. (2001) estimated an isoprene emission of 3.6 kt v⁻¹ and a 697 total biogenic VOC emission of 3.6 kt y⁻¹ from the Pyrenees. Thus, although at PDM observations 698 and calculation agreed when considering that 20 % of the CH₂O could derive from isoprene, that 699 700 contribution might be underestimated. Note that, to the authors' knowledge, this is the first time 701 CH₂O is reported in the Pyrenees.

702 The observations at the Canary Islands suggest an unaccounted strong uplifted source of CH₂O. The

703 isoprene emissions from the forest under the observation site could influence the values detected at

704 TEI, but cannot explain the uplifted CH₂O layer encountered at Tenerife through one whole month.

705 This uplifted layer might relate to long-range transport of CH₂O precursors (VOC emissions)

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706 mainly from Africa due to synoptic scale conditions around the ITCZ (Marais et al., 2014). Indeed, 707 after a study of the trajectories followed by the different emissions from Africa during summer, 708 Meyer-Arnek et al. (2005) concluded that African air masses could be lifted up to the mid 709 troposphere and transported at high altitudes far away from their source region. They also 710 concluded that the air masses showing CH₂O enhancement further from the source region (distance 711 of days), where those affected by biomass burning (Janicot et al., 2008). Thus, NMHC emitted from 712 the biomass burning in Africa (and in Canada) and transported at high altitude to Tenerife seems a 713 reasonable source for the detected CH₂O during AMISOC. Such an uplifted layer of CH₂O and its precursors transported from Africa and Canada is in agreement with the recent studies of Behrens et 714 al. (2019) and Alvarado et al. (2020). Further investigations with e.g. airborne observations would 715 716 be helpful to track the air masses and study the evolution and transformation of CH₂O and its 717 precursors from their source regions —such wildfires— into the free troposphere, as well as their long-range transport. Indeed, the current effort of the scientific community on recent aircraft 718 campaigns encountering fire plumes such e.g. during the DC-8 ATom 2016-2018 in remote regions, 719 720 the HALO CAFE-2018 mission over West Africa or SouthTRAC mission in Southern America in 721 fall 2019, will tackle this issue and might also assist to improve the parametrization of chemical 722 transport models (CTMs) that could be used to assess the impact of wildfires worldwide.



Fig. 14: Time series of the mean CH₂O mixing ratios observed at TEI (a) and PDM (b). The values are averaged within the first kilometre above each station (up to 4.5 km in TEI and up to 4 km in PDM). The night periods are given in grey, the periods with lack of measurements due to bad weather are dashed and the values below detection limit are shown in black. Formaldehyde yield from its steady state is marked in red. Note the same vertical scale at both sites.

4. Summary and conclusions

760 This study reports on formaldehyde (CH₂O) vertical profiles at the high-altitude sites of El Teide 761 (Canary Islands) and Pic du Midi (French Pyrenees). Using ground-based multi-axis differential 762 optical absorption spectroscopy during two field campaigns in July (TEI) and September (PDM) 2013, observations indicate a mean CH₂O maxima of 0.5 ± 0.2 nmol mol⁻¹ at 2.9 km altitude at 763 PDM, and an uplifted layer of CH₂O at 3.8 km at TEI (mean maxima of 1.3 ± 0.3 nmol mol⁻¹), 764 gradually decreasing levels towards instrumental detection limit. The PDM CH₂O levels reported 765 766 are slightly above levels expected from pristine environment, suggesting influence from natural 767 and/or anthropogenic isoprene emissions (i.e., CH₂O precursor) from the Pyrenees and/or Spain. 768 The unexpected uplifted CH₂O layer detected at TEI during the whole measurement campaign (~ 1 769 month), rather than the presence of a CH₂O source in the nearby region of El Teide, points towards 770 effective recycling and long transport (convection and advection) of hydrocarbons. In agreement 771 with recent studies, observations at TEI support the influence of wildfires (mainly African) on 772 emission and recycling of CH₂O and its source products which, in this case, are advected and 773 uplifted to TEI increasing the reactivity of the subtropical North Atlantic free troposphere during 774 the summer months. The possibility of such a long-range transport of CH₂O and/or its source 775 products should be further investigated with dedicated campaigns and CTMs. Along with 776 investigations on CH₂O, this study also reports on reactive BrO upper limits of 0.8 and 1.5 pmol mol⁻¹ at TEI and PDM, respectively. Therefore, this study contributes to broadening the knowledge 777 778 of the chemical composition of the free troposphere regarding VOCs and reactive halogens in mid-779 and sub-tropical latitudes.

780

781 Acknowledgements

The TEI campaign was funded through the AMISOC project (Atmospheric MInor Species relevant 782 to the Ozone Chemistry, Spanish National RCD Funding Agency, CGL2011-24891). The PDM 783 784 campaign was funded by the European Research Council Executive Agency under the European 785 Union's Horizon 2020 Research and innovation program (ERC-2010-STG 258537) to JES. LGM 786 would like to the MINECO support under grant VHODCA (CTM2017-83199P). The authors would 787 like to thank the assistance of the personal working at the Izaña and at the Pic du Midi 788 observatories. The authors acknowledge the NOAA Air Resources Laboratory (ARL) for the 789 provision of the HYSPLIT transport and READY website (http://www.ready.noaa.gov) used in this 790 publication. Also, we acknowledge the use of the aerosol product (AOD) from AERONET 791 (http://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/.) and the fire counts imagery from LANCE FIRMS operated by NASA's Earth Science Data and Information System (ESDIS) with funding provided by NASA
Headquarters. The UV aerosol index visualization used in this work was produced with the
Giovanni online data system, developed and maintained by the NASA GES DISC. We also
acknowledge the OMI mission scientists and associated NASA personnel for the production of the
UV aerosol index data used in this study (Bhartia P. K. 2012, OMTO3d-OMI/Aura TOMS-Like
Ozone, Aerosol Index, Cloud Radiance Fraction L3 1 day 1 degree x 1 degree V3)

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Highlights

- Vertical profiles of formaldehyde mixing ratios at two high-altitude remote sites
- Uplifted layer of formaldehyde above El Teide
- Long-range transport of wildfire emissions into the North Atlantic free troposphere
- Isoprene emissions from the Pyrenees and/or Spain reach Pic du Midi
- First reported observations of atmospheric formaldehyde in the Pyrenees

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Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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