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atmospheric budget
of total organic
bromine

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Deriving an atmospheric budget of total organic bromine using airborne in-situ measurements from the Western Pacific during SHIVA

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Abstract

During the SHIVA (Stratospheric Ozone: Halogen Impacts in a Varying Atmosphere) project an extensive dataset of all halogen species relevant for the atmospheric budget of total organic bromine has been collected in the West Pacific region using the FALCON aircraft operated by the German Aerospace agency DLR (Deutsches Zentrum für Luft- und Raumfahrt) covering a vertical range from the planetary boundary layer up to the ceiling altitude of the aircraft of 13 km. In total, more than 700 measurements were performed with the newly developed fully-automated in-situ instrument GHOST-MS (Gas chromatograph for the Observation of Tracers – coupled with a Mass Spectrometer) by the Goethe University of Frankfurt (GUF) and with the onboard whole-air sampler WASP with subsequent ground based state-of-the-art GC/MS analysis by the University of East Anglia (UEA). Both instruments yield good agreement for all major (CHBr_3 and CH_2Br_2) and minor (CHBrCl , CHBrCl_2 and CHBr_2Cl) VSLs (very short-lived substances), at least at the level of their 2σ measurement uncertainties. In contrast to the suggestion that the Western Pacific could be a major source region for VSLs (Pyle et al., 2011), we found only slightly enhanced mixing ratios of brominated halogen source gases relative to the levels reported in Montzka et al. (2011) for other tropical regions. A budget for total organic bromine, including all four halons, CH_3Br and the VSLs, is derived for the upper troposphere, the input region for the TTL and thus also for the stratosphere, compiled from the SHIVA dataset. With exception of the two minor VSLs CHBrCl_2 and CHBr_2Cl , excellent agreement with the values reported in Montzka et al. (2011) is found, while being slightly higher than previous studies from our group based on balloon-borne measurements.

1 Introduction

Bromine atoms are very efficient catalysts in destroying stratospheric ozone. In particular bromine atoms are more effective than chlorine atoms by a factor of about 60

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(see e.g. Sinnhuber et al., 2009). Therefore, even small amounts of bromine play an important role in stratospheric ozone chemistry. In contrast to chlorine, the sources of bromine to the stratosphere are to a large part of natural origin (e.g. Montzka et al., 2011). The contribution of the so called very short lived species (VLS), having atmospheric lifetimes of less than half a year, as sources gases (SG) for stratospheric bromine is significant. However, source gas observations of long-lived bromine compounds (Newland et al., 2013; Fraser et al., 1999) and VLS (Laube et al., 2008; Brinckmann et al., 2012; Montzka et al., 2011) have so far not been able to explain the amount of bromine derived in the stratosphere from observations of BrO and modeling of the ratio of BrO to total bromine (e.g. Dorf et al., 2006; Montzka et al., 2011). Due to the short lifetimes and the high atmospheric variability, the representativeness of the available observations of VLS source gases remains unclear, as these may vary with region and display seasonal variability.

The major bromine VLS are dibromomethane (CH_2Br_2) and bromoform (CHBr_3), both having mainly oceanic sources (Carpenter et al., 2003), in particular in coastal regions (Quack and Wallace, 2004). In addition there are three mixed bromochlorocarbons contributing to stratospheric bromine: CH_2BrCl , CHBr_2Cl and CHBr_2Cl . The mixing ratios of all of these bromine carrying compounds in the atmosphere are well correlated, with the exception of CH_2BrCl . The sources of these compounds to the atmosphere are thus expected to be very similar and mainly of marine origin. Due to the short lifetimes these species have a high atmospheric variability and in addition they are partly destroyed in the troposphere during the transport through the tropical tropopause layer (TTL) into the stratosphere. The fate of the product gases (PG) from the loss reactions in the upper tropical troposphere and TTL is still largely unknown as so far no observations of these are available in the atmosphere. The contribution of PG (so called PGI, product gas injection) to stratospheric bromine thus needs to be determined either from modeling studies or from observations of SG using specific assumptions on the transport into the stratosphere and chemical reactions and washout during this transport process. In contrast to the long lived source gases, the obser-

coupled with a Mass Spectrometer) and was deployed for the first time during SHIVA (Stratospheric Ozone: Halogen Impacts in a Varying Atmosphere). The measurements were performed in the West Pacific using the Falcon aircraft operated by the German Aerospace agency DLR (Deutsches Zentrum für Luft- und Raumfahrt) as part of the SHIVA project. Measurements flights were conducted from Miri in Northern Borneo and sampled a wide geographical range, different geophysical conditions and altitudes from the planetary boundary layer to the ceiling altitude of the aircraft of 13 km. The paper is organized as follows. First, we briefly present the SHIVA aircraft campaign in the West Pacific, the instruments used for the observations and the measurement flights performed during SHIVA. We then discuss the data retrieval for the in-situ GC/MS instrument GHOST-MS and the whole air sampling system WASP. Finally, we present the data, compare these to other observations, derive a bromine budget for the West Pacific and derive an estimate of the amount of bromine from VLSLs reaching the stratosphere.

2 Origin of data

2.1 The SHIVA – campaign

One scientific aim of SHIVA was to improve the understanding of the influence of VLSLs on the stratospheric halogen budget at the present and in the future under the aspect of a changing climate. As part of this project a field campaign in the Western Pacific was conducted in fall 2011. One focus of the campaign was the determination of the oceanic emission strength and the atmospheric mixing ratio of long- and very short-lived brominated substances. Also the atmospheric transport from the boundary layer to the upper troposphere as well as decay processes during this transport was investigated. The field campaign combined a variety of ground, air, ship and satellite based measurements. In this paper we focus on the measurements carried out with the German research aircraft FALCON.

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weight and power consumption of the instrument and the automation of the necessary pre-concentration of ambient air samples.

The principle of the analysis of ambient air is as follows: ambient air is drawn with a two-stage setup of three KNF N 86 KNDCB diaphragm pumps (two in parallel and one in serial) from outside the aircraft, compressed and passed through a chemical drying agent (magnesium perchlorate) in order to remove water vapor without affecting the analytes. Afterwards the air flows through a cooled sample loop at -80°C , filled with an adsorption material (HayesepD), in order to trap all condensable trace gases on that loop. After a sufficient amount of air (150 mL) is passed through the sample loop, the loop is flash heated and the condensed species are desorbed with a carrier gas on to the separation columns. After the chromatographic separation of the different species on the MXT-1 pre column (7.5 m) and the GS-GasPro main column (22.5 m), the trace species are quantified using a mass spectrometer. To achieve a good temporal resolution, the pre-concentration on the sample loop and the chromatographic separation have to be optimized for speed.

This optimization is realized by several novel approaches during the development of the instrument. To avoid the use of liquid nitrogen or other cryogenics, which would have made the operation of the instrument onboard an aircraft much more complicated, we implemented a free piston Stirling cooler for the cooling of the sample loop. This is a very compact (15 cm \times 15 cm \times 30 cm), lightweight (3 kg) and efficient cooler (TD08, Twinbird Co.), which provides cooling temperatures down to -100°C with an electrical power consumption of only 80 W. To our knowledge, Stirling coolers have never been operated before onboard an aircraft in order to be used as cooling agents for sample loops. To achieve fast heating and cooling rates of the separation column, we used a so called LTM-Module ("Lightweight Thermal Mass-Module", Agilent Technologies), which allows realizing heating rates of well over 100 K per minute. This is also a novel in airborne gas chromatography for the analysis of halogenated hydrocarbons.

The mass spectrometer (Agilent MSD 5975) is operated in negative ion chemical ionization (NICI) mode (e.g. Worton et al., 2008) and we can quantify 16 chlorinated, 10

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brominated and one iodinated halocarbon in a sample of ambient air within a sample cycle of 4.3 min and a chromatographic runtime of 2.9 min. In this work only the brominated substances will be discussed, a chromatogram of the 10 identified brominated substances is shown in Fig. 1.

In addition to the time resolution, good detection limits, reproducibility and accuracy are necessary in order to resolve the atmospheric variability of the target compounds. The detection limit is calculated via the signal-to-noise ratio for each substance separately. The operation of the mass spectrometer in NICI-model allows the achievement of very low detection limits down to 1 ppq in a sample of 150 mL of air. The precision is determined via repeat measurements of a single calibration gas over a period of several hours. Applying no correction for temporal drifts, the standard deviation of those measurements is a conservative measure for the precision of the instrument. Most of the species are reported relative to the NOAA-ESRL calibration scales (e.g. Hall et al., 2013). For the two halons H-2402 and H-1202 the calibrations are based on intercalibration experiments with the University of East Anglia (UEA). For the short-lived mixed bromochlorocarbons the data are based on a preliminary scale by NOAA, transferred from UEA measurements during the measurement campaign in Borneo. The scale origin for the different substances is given in Table 2 together with the reproducibility and detection limits achieved with GHOST-MS. Note that the accuracy for the calibration gas given in Table 2 is a measure of the precision with which our calibration gases can be linked to absolute calibration scales of NOAA and UEA.

Data processing, e.g. the integration of the signal peaks for the determination of area and height of a peak is performed with self-written software called IAU_Chrom. The advantage of this software compared to commercially available chromatography software is the sophisticated peak fitting algorithm which fits a probability distribution (Gaussian or Gumble function) to a peak in the predefined peak window. This is a very stable and reproducible method, especially for signal peaks with small signal-to-noise ratios or overlapping peaks.

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2.2.2 Whole Air Sample Pack (WASP)

The WASP consists of thirty pyrex tubes (5 cm diameter, 35 cm long, approximately 700 mL) with 6 mm inlet and outlet tubes. The tubes are connected via PFA unions and tubing to two 1/8" (approx. 3.2 mm) Valco STF 16-way flow-through valves.

Inlet air was compressed with a KNF AN18 series diaphragm pump with a PTFE diaphragm and a needle valve on the WASP vent was used to regulate the fill pressure. The final fill pressure was typically 40 psi (approx. 2800 hPa), although this was reduced at high altitudes due to the limitation of the pump. The sample tube was continually being flushed at elevated pressure until it was isolated by moving the Valco valve to a new position when a new sample flask was exposed and flushed. The flow rate of the flushing air was altitude dependent and so the averaging time for the flask sample being < 20 s at sea level up to 180 s at 4 km.

Between flights the WASPs were cleaned by a series of evacuation/fill/flush cycles (using zero grade nitrogen) and left at atmospheric pressure. Occasional blanks were performed on random sample flasks after cleaning with no problems found.

Samples were analyzed on a Dual-MS GC/MS system. Analytes were separated with a temperature programmed 105 m RTX-502.2 column (0.32 mm id, 1 μm film) at constant flow, which allowed the separation of all five bromomethanes. The column effluent was split using a silco-treated Valco 1/32" (approx. 0.8 mm) Y-connector in a 50 : 50 ratio into two Agilent 5973N mass spectrometers, one in electron ionization (EI) mode and one in negative ion chemical ionization (NICI) mode. Bromomethanes, other halocarbons and alkyl nitrates were measured on the negative ion channel, whilst a limited range of hydrocarbons and a range of additional halocarbons were measured on the EI channel. Carbon tetrachloride, bromoform and CFC-113 were analyzed on both channels, and no significant differences in measured mole fractions were observed between the two channels.

1200 mL samples, dried with a 72" counter-flow nafion dryer, were pre-concentrated prior to injection onto the GC column with a Markes Unity thermal desorption system

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using a carbographB/carboxen 1003 sample trap held at -10°C . Injection from the trap was performed by heating the trap to 250°C for 15 min. Working standards were analyzed after every 5 samples, and a helium blank run once per day. Analytical precision, determined from 7 consecutive measurements of the standard, was typically 3% (1σ) for the bromomethanes and organic nitrates, and around 10% (1σ) for hydrocarbons. Limits of detection (based on analytical precision and blanks) varied between compounds, but for bromomethanes, most halocarbons and organic nitrates they were typically < 0.01 ppt.

Full details of the use of the Markes Unity system coupled to negative ion GCMS can be found in Worton et al. (2008).

2.3 Data correction

The chromatographic system of the GHOST-MS cannot resolve the two substances CH_2Br_2 and CHBrCl_2 within a regular chromatographic run as used on the aircraft, as these substances coelute on the separation column of the GC/MS system due to their very similar boiling point. For the further data analysis, e.g. for the calculation of the budget of total organic bromine, it is necessary to know the fraction each of the two species contributes to the total peak area. While this can be done easily for the calibration gas using a slower temperature programming in the laboratory and thus separating the two peaks, it is not possible for ambient air measurements due to the limited amount of time available for the separation. The fractions of the peak area determined by this experiment for our calibration gas are $C_{\text{CH}_2\text{Br}_2} = 0.6494 \pm 0.0097$ and $C_{\text{CHBrCl}_2} = 0.3506 \pm 0.0097$. The corresponding mixing ratio in the calibration gas for these peak fractions are (3.25 ± 0.11) ppt for CH_2Br_2 and (2.08 ± 0.07) ppt for CHBrCl_2 .

For the separation of the contribution of both substances to ambient air observations, we assume that a linear relationship exists between the mixing ratios of CH_2Br_2 and CHBrCl_2 as described e.g. in Yokouchi et al. (2005), Brinckmann et al. (2012). The relationship used for the SHIVA observations is based on simultaneous measurements performed by the UEA on glass flasks sampled onboard the FALCON and analyzed

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The data given in Montzka et al. (2011) for the upper tropical troposphere cover an altitude range of 10 to 12 km (Table 1–7 in Montzka et al., 2011) and originate from a variety of measurement campaigns which are listed in detail in Montzka et al. (2011). The measurements of the upper troposphere during SHIVA cover an altitude range from 10 km to the maximum cruise altitude of the FALCON aircraft of approximately 13 km.

The altitude range of 2 to 10 km covers the so called free troposphere. This interval is used for the data reported in Montzka et al. (2011) as well as for the SHIVA data.

The data for the marine boundary layer used in Montzka et al. (2011) are adapted from Law and Sturges et al. (2007) for the marine boundary layer, which include all data below 1 km. These data originate from a variety of measurement campaigns with samples taken in the entire Pacific, as well as the Atlantic and the Indian Ocean (see Law and Sturges et al., 2007 for details).

The diverse spatial sources and the variety of the instruments and calibrations scales contributing to the data in Montzka et al. (2011) have to be taken into account when comparing those data with the measurements presented here. See e.g. Hall et al. (2013) for an intercomparison of different halocarbon measurement scales.

To determine the altitude of the boundary layer during SHIVA, the profiles of potential temperature, relative humidity and wind speed are used to calculate an average value (S. Fuhlbrügge, IFM Geomar, Kiel, Germany, personal communication, 2013). At the transition between boundary layer and free troposphere, potential temperature increases with altitude, whereas relative humidity and wind speed mostly decrease (Roedel, 2011). The three meteorological parameters are obtained from the basic instrumentation of the FALCON as well as from frequent radiosonde launches from the RV SONNE. The data from the FALCON result in an average boundary layer height of 450 m, which is a rough estimate for the whole flight track, because the transition between the boundary layer and the free troposphere is only determined during takeoff and landing, when passing the boundary layer. The radiosonde launches give information about the boundary layer altitude, which is somewhat away in space and time

from the different flight tracks. The average value of 300–500 m from these radiosonde releases is in a good agreement with the altitude of 450 m calculated from the FALCON measurements (S. Fuhlbrügge, IFM Geomar, Kiel, Germany, personal communication, 2013).

For the interpretation of the results we distinguish between different variables. The mean value in a given altitude interval is the arithmetic mean of all data points in that interval. The corresponding absolute standard deviation, or scatter, is determined by two factors: the measurement precision of the instrument and the atmospheric variability. These two variables are statistically not linked with each other and can therefore be combined via Gaussian error propagation.

$$\text{scatter} = \sqrt{\text{precision}^2 + \text{variability}^2} \quad (2)$$

and therefore

$$\text{variability} = \sqrt{\text{scatter}^2 - \text{precision}^2} \quad (3)$$

For further considerations, the atmospheric variability is used as specified by the calculated value given in Eq. (3). The measurement precision of the instrument is taken from Table 2.

3 Results

3.1 Altitude profiles of VSLs

In this chapter, we present the altitude profiles for the five VSLs measured by the in-situ GC/MS instrument GHOST-MS from GUF and by the ground-based GC/MS instrument from the UEA analyzing the WASP canisters. Both instruments were flown in parallel on board of the FALCON aircraft. In order to derive the total organic bromine budget, we further take into account the longer-lived bromine species, i.e. halons and

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mixing ratio is 0.90 ppt with an atmospheric variability of $\pm 13\%$. The decay between PBL and UT is 24 % – only for the GHOST data. In the following sections, the analysis between PBL, FT and UT mixing ratios will be done for reason of consistency only with the GHOST dataset.

5 With a typical free tropospheric lifetime of 123 days (Montzka et al., 2011), CH_2Br_2 is one of the longer lived VSLS. Therefore, it is expected that this substance has a relatively homogenous distribution above the PBL. Within the FT, the mean mixing ratio as well as the atmospheric variability show the lowest values of all VSLS with a mean
10 mixing ratio of 0.88 ppt and a variability of $\pm 8\%$, respectively. It is clear to see that the flight 20111119a, blue data points in Fig. 2, shows exceptionally high mixing ratios in the free troposphere. For this reason the CH_2Br_2 (as well as for CH_2BrCl and CHBrCl_2) mixing ratios from this flight have been excluded from calculation of the mean values shown in Table 4.

15 A possible explanation for the lower mixing ratios and lower atmospheric variability in the free troposphere compared to the upper troposphere is that the FT is less affected by direct convective outflow than the UT. Deep convection in the tropics can transport air masses with high mixing ratios from the lowest atmospheric layers within a relatively short timescale to the upper layers of the troposphere. The region of main convective outflow is located at altitudes between about 10 and 13 km (see e.g. the discussion in
20 Gettelman and Forster, 2002).

25 Two flights performed towards the end of the campaign (20111211a and b) probed the outflow from several large convective cells at an altitude of approximately 11 km. Both of these flights show a slightly enhanced mean mixing ratio in the altitude interval between 10 and 11 km as indicated by the olive green line in Fig. 2. The altitude profile can also provide information on the level of entrainment, which describes the part of the atmosphere in which air is mixed into the convective cells. The mixing ratios measured in the FT between 2 km and 10 km are, except for flight 20111119a, lower than the highest mixing ratios observed in the UT. This suggests that the entrainment of air masses into convective cells occurs mainly below 2 km, where higher mixing ratios

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can be found. This will be discussed in more detail with respect to the observations of CHBr_3 .

With a free tropospheric lifetime of about 24 days (Montzka et al., 2011), CHBr_3 has the shortest atmospheric lifetime of all brominated VSLS. The altitude profile observed during SHIVA is shown in Fig. 3. CHBr_3 features larger variations than CH_2Br_2 at all altitude intervals. The mean mixing ratio in the PBL is 1.43 ppt for the GHOST and 1.9 ppt for the WASP dataset with corresponding atmospheric variability of $\pm 37\%$ and $\pm 28\%$. As discussed above, the mean values in the PBL are just in the range of the uncertainties. Part of the difference could also be explained due to both instruments not always sampling the same air. In the lower FT, where WASP data are still available, the median and the variability for both instruments agree quite well inside the uncertainties. The highest mixing ratios of CHBr_3 were found to be 3.42 ppt (measured by GHOST-MS, near Miri) and 3.78 ppt (measured by WASP, Strait of Malacca) respectively. In the free troposphere the mean mixing ratio decreases to 0.56 ppt and at the same time the atmospheric variability decreases to $\pm 28\%$, much less pronounced than in the PBL. The altitude profile of CHBr_3 shows a much stronger vertical gradient than the profile of the longer lived substance CH_2Br_2 . The decrease in the mean mixing ratio between PBL and FT for CHBr_3 is 61% and thus, as expected, significantly higher than for CH_2Br_2 , for which the mean mixing ratio decreases by only 26%. At altitudes between 10 km and 13 km (Box A in Fig. 3) both, the mean mixing ratio (0.61 ppt) and the atmospheric variability ($\pm 33\%$), increase again in the upper troposphere compared to the free troposphere. The decay in mixing ratio between PBL and UT is 57% for CHBr_3 in contrast to only 24% observed for CH_2Br_2 .

In contrast to the profile of CH_2Br_2 , the profile of CHBr_3 shows a region in the upper part of the free troposphere with enhanced mixing ratios compared to the lower part of the free troposphere. This region is marked with the Box B in Fig. 3 and is located at an altitude of 8–9.5 km. For the complete free troposphere (2–10 km), we found a mean mixing ratio of 0.56 ppt with an atmospheric variability of $\pm 28\%$. The measurements in the altitude range marked with Box B also show an enhanced mean mixing ratio

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15 % (GUF) and 9 % (UEA) (see also Tables 2 and 3), the mean values given in Table 4 as well as the median in Fig. 4 matches. However, the WASP data set from UEA seems to have substantially higher variability in the PBL and the lower FT.

The relatively small decrease between the PBL and the free and upper troposphere can be explained by the relatively long lifetime, which leads to a rather homogeneous distribution of CH_2BrCl in the observed altitudes. Another explanation for the low and rather homogeneous mixing ratios in the boundary layer could be that the measurements – except for flight 20111119a – have not probed air masses close to the source regions of CH_2BrCl . The atmospheric variability in the PBL is $\pm 21\%$ for the GHOST and 33% for the WASP dataset, $\pm 8\%$ in the FT and $\pm 15\%$ in the UT (only GHOST data). The vertical distribution and the atmospheric variability in the three compartments are comparable to those of CH_2Br_2 in agreement with the very similar lifetimes of both species.

The mean mixing ratio of CHBrCl_2 , which has a free tropospheric lifetime of 78 days, shows a decrease with altitude from 0.34 ppt in the PBL to 0.24 ppt in the UT, which corresponds to a percental decrease of 26 %. The atmospheric variability is $\pm 20\%$ and $\pm 16\%$, respectively, in the free and upper troposphere, which is slightly larger than the variability of the longer lived species CH_2Br_2 and CH_2BrCl but smaller than for the two shorter lived species CHBr_2Cl and CHBr_3 .

As for CH_2Br_2 , the agreement is excellent between the CHBrCl_2 observations in the PBL from UEA and GUF during SHIVA as can be seen in Fig. 5 and Table 4. This is partly related to the fact that the mixing ratios of CHBrCl_2 for GHOST rely on its linear relation with CH_2Br_2 (see Eq. 1) derived from the UEA observations during SHIVA, as both species cannot be chromatographically separated by the GHOST instrument.

CHBr_2Cl has a lifetime of less than two month in the free troposphere. The mean mixing ratios in the PBL are 0.32 ppt for GHOST, and 0.33 ppt for WASP data. The decrease in the mixing ratio of 41 % between the PBL and the upper troposphere, as well as the atmospheric variability with $\pm 34\%$ (PBL) and $\pm 21\%$ (UT) is already quite pronounced. While the mixing ratio in the UT is the second lowest of all species

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discussed here, the effect on stratospheric bromine depletion is probably in the range as the sum of the two longer lived minor VLSLs CHBrCl_2 and CH_2BrCl that has together about twice the mixing ratio of CHBr_2Cl in the UT, but carries only one bromine atom.

3.4 Long lived bromine source gases: halons and CH_3Br

Due to their long atmospheric lifetime, it is expected that the mixing ratios of the halons are very homogeneous in the troposphere and no vertical gradient between the PBL and the UT is expected in the absence of tropospheric sinks. We note that this is the case for H-1301 with a tropospheric lifetime of more than 10 000 yr (Newland et al., 2013). H-1211 and H-2402 have small photolytic sinks in the troposphere with lifetimes of 25 and 41 yr respectively (Newland et al., 2013). H-1202 is the only halon with a comparatively low tropospheric lifetime of about 3 yr (Newland et al., 2013) and thus has a significant sink in the troposphere due to photolysis. The observed vertical distributions of the four halons are shown in Fig. 7, the corresponding mixing ratios are listed in Table 5.

The mean mixing ratio for H-1301 (see Fig. 7a) is 3.19 ppt in the PBL and 3.28 ppt in the upper troposphere. For H-1301, the standard deviation of the atmospheric measurements is less than the measurement precision shown in Table 2. Consequently, no physically reasonable atmospheric variability can be calculated, because the value in the radicand in Eq. (3) becomes negative. It can therefore be assumed that the measured atmospheric variability is obscured by the measurement precision of the instrument. We note that while H-1301 is also widely used as fire extinguishing agent onboard passenger aircraft in fixed installations, no enhancement of this compound was observed at any of the rather small airports used for the refueling stops. The difference between the PBL and the UT values is not significant within our uncertainties.

In the upper troposphere, H-1211 (see Fig. 7b) has a mean mixing ratio of 4.16 ppt with an atmospheric variability of $\pm 3\%$. The mean mixing ratio in the PBL is 4.29 ppt with an atmospheric variability of $\pm 9\%$. Some of the measurements conducted at the ground show significantly higher values than the mean value. The highest mixing ratio

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measured at the ground level is 6.88 ppt of H-1211. All observations of significantly enhanced H-1211 levels were made during refueling stops of the aircraft at airports in Malaysia (e.g. Tawau). During the refueling process on the runway the measurements were continued. H-1211 was mainly used as a fire suppressant in portable fire extinguishers in aircrafts (see e.g. HTOC, 2011). It is very likely, that small leakages in those fire extinguishers lead to the observed locally enhanced mixing ratios at the airports.

H-2402 (see Fig. 7d) has an overall mean atmospheric mixing ratio of 0.43 ppt, with no observable difference between the PBL and the UT. Also the atmospheric variability with a value of $\pm 3\%$ is quite low. As this compound is used nearly exclusively in the states of the former Soviet Union (Newland et al., 2013) and the observations in Malaysia are far from the source region, no direct sources are expected even at airports.

H-1202 (see Fig. 7c) is the substance with the most pronounced atmospheric variability of all halons. With a mean mixing ratio of 0.028 ppt in the PBL, the variability is $\pm 17\%$. In the upper troposphere, the mean mixing ratio decreases down to 0.026 ppt, still showing an atmospheric variability of $\pm 8\%$. This behavior is expected compared to the other halons as H-1202 is the shortest lived of the four substances. The rather short tropospheric lifetime of about 3 yr is thus obviously not sufficient to lead to a significant vertical gradient but it is reflected in an enhanced variability with respect to the other halons.

CH_3Br is the most abundant brominated substance in the atmosphere with a tropospheric lifetime of 0.8 yr. The altitude profile of the measurements is shown in Fig. 8, the mixing ratios in the different altitude intervals are listed in Table 5. A mean mixing ratio of 8.79 ppt in the PBL was observed with an atmospheric variability of $\pm 38\%$. Within the PBL, some very high mixing ratios have been observed. The highest value was 28.77 ppt. These high values, as well as the pronounced variability, could be explained by measurements near to sources of CH_3Br . In the upper troposphere, the mean mixing ratio decreases by 16 % down to 7.35 ppt, the atmospheric variability is $\pm 7\%$, thus significantly lower than in the planetary boundary layer.

CHBrCl_2 and (0.15 ± 0.08) ppt for CHBr_2Cl reported by Wisher et al. (2013) derived from CARIBIC air samples. The discrepancy for these two minor VLSs given in Montzka et al. (2011) is not well understood. It might be due to calibration uncertainties as well as due to natural variability in the different sampling regions and seasons.

The ratio between the values measured in the upper troposphere and the boundary layer, which is the source region for the TTL, is a measure, of the chemical decay between both reservoirs. This ratio is shown in Table 8 for the values compiled in Montzka et al. (2011) and our observations during SHIVA. In general, it is expected that the decay is stronger for shorter lived compounds. Overall, the observed gradient in the mixing ratios of the VLSs between the two altitude intervals is weaker during SHIVA. The greatest discrepancy between the two datasets is found for CH_2BrCl . The decline of this substance given by Montzka et al. (2011) is more than four times larger than derived from the SHIVA observations. A decay of the same order as observed for CH_2Br_2 and a significantly smaller decay than observed for the shorter lived CHBr_3 would be expected for CH_2BrCl due to its lifetime. Two other substances presented in Montzka et al. (2011), CHBrCl_2 and CHBr_2Cl , also feature a surprisingly strong negative vertical gradient.

The best estimate of the typical free tropospheric lifetime of the VLSs is in the range from 137 days (CH_2BrCl) to 24 days (CHBr_3). Due to this rather narrow range of tropospheric lifetimes the different substances should display rather similar decay rates. In the SHIVA dataset, the decay is in the range of 20–30 % for all substances except for the two shortest lived species, CHBr_2Cl and CHBr_3 . This may be due to the different chemical degradation processes. Both species have significant photochemical loss and in the case of CHBr_3 photolysis, which is mostly independent of altitude, is the dominant loss process. The chemical degradation via the OH-radical is dominant for the other VLSs. However, the rate constants for the reaction with the OH-radical show a strong temperature dependence (Hossaini et al., 2010; Orkin et al., 2013) and this loss process is thus much less efficient at higher altitudes due to decreasing temperature. The decay rates based on the data compiled in Montzka et al. (2011) show

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a much more inhomogeneous pattern. In particular, no relationship between the decay between PBL and UT and the lifetime is observed for the data compiled in Montzka et al. (2011), while our observations clearly show that for the VSLS the vertical gradient between both reservoirs is anti-correlated to their lifetime.

5 These large differences in the degradation rates for the WMO data are most probably caused by inconsistent calibration gas scales and the combination of observations from different regions and periods. In particular for the mixed bromochlorocarbons CH_2BrCl , CHBrCl_2 and CHBr_2Cl no consistent and internationally intercompared calibration scale exist. This is so far only available to a certain degree for CH_2Br_2 and
10 CHBr_3 (Hall et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2011). In contrast the SHIVA data derived from GUF with the GHOST instrument presented here rely on the same calibration gas scale for the different altitude regions and are from one period and region. This emphasizes the need for a consistent scale for VSLS species and for vertically resolved observations from different regions and during different seasons.

15 Table 9 shows the mixing ratios of the long-lived halons and CH_3Br obtained during SHIVA and compared with calculated tropospheric mean values for the end of 2011. The global tropospheric mean values are derived from different ground based measurements at remote locations from the NOAA-ESRL network (Montzka et al., 2003). For the comparison, we use our data from the free and upper troposphere, since it
20 can be assumed, that these air masses are not influenced by local sources from the boundary layer. In addition, the changes in mixing ratio between the boundary layer and the free troposphere are insignificant for these long-lived substances compared to the VSLS. Therefore, the long-lived substances are not significantly affected by convective transport from the boundary layer in the free and upper troposphere.

25 The mixing ratios for the long-lived substances show an overall very good agreement with the H-1301, H-1211, H-2402 and CH_3Br data published by Montzka et al. (2003), (updated) and the H-1202 data published by Newland et al. (2013). H-1211 and H-1202 show slightly higher mixing ratios during SHIVA, but they still agree within the 2σ uncertainty. For the remaining three substances we find a match within the 1σ measurement

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organic bromine found during SHIVA and reported by Montzka et al. (2011) is still in the range of 1σ uncertainty, especially the partitioning between the three substance classes is nearly the same. The altitude profile of total organic bromine is shown in Fig. 9.

3.7 Budget of total organic bromine at the LZRH

In order to obtain information about the quantity of total organic bromine entering the stratosphere, we consider the budget at the Level of Zero Radiative Heating (LZRH), in a similar way as suggested in Montzka et al. (2011). Air masses reaching this level are expected to enter the stratosphere. Under this condition, it is assumed that also product gases released from source gases above this level are transported into the stratosphere. According to Gettelman et al. (2004) the LZRH is located between 15 km and 15.6 km, an altitude which could not be reached during SHIVA. The maximum altitude reached during the SHIVA campaign was about 13 km. To obtain information about the mixing ratios of the substances and therefore a bromine budget at the LZRH, we make the following assumptions: (i) for the long lived halons as well as for CH_3Br we assume, that there is no change in the mixing ratio between the upper troposphere and the LZRH and (ii) for the substance class of VSLS, we estimate that the degradation between these two altitude intervals derived from the data presented in Montzka and Reimann et al. (2011) is representative for our observations too. Therefore, we compare the values given for the individual substances in Montzka et al. (2011) for the upper troposphere and the LZRH (Tables 1–7 in Montzka et al. (2011) and calculate a percental degradation rate. With these assumptions, we can use our measurements in the upper troposphere to estimate values for the LZRH during the SHIVA campaign. The results for these calculations are shown in Table 11.

The values for CH_2BrCl given in Montzka et al. (2011) for the different altitude intervals originate from different campaigns. This may explain the – physically not very meaningful – increase in mixing ratio by 11 % between the UT and the LZRH. Therefore, the mixing ratio of CH_2BrCl is assumed to be constant between these two levels

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for the SHIVA dataset. For the remaining VSLs a decline between the UT and the LZRH is observed in the data compiled in Montzka et al. (2011), which is most pronounced for CHBr_3 with a value of 56 %.

In analogy to the bromine budget for the UT presented in Sect. 3.6, we calculate a budget of the total organic bromine at the LZRH using the calculated values given in Table 11. The results of this LZRH bromine budget are presented in the Table 12 and compared with different data published in the literature. Within their degree of measurement uncertainty, the values of the different substance classes and the overall amount of total organic bromine calculated for the SHIVA campaign agree with the data given in Montzka et al. (2011).

We also compare our calculated data for SHIVA with the results of two measurement campaigns using balloon borne whole air samplers, which were carried out by the Goethe University Frankfurt (GUF). These two campaigns were carried out in 2005 (Laube et al., 2008) and 2008 (Brinckmann et al., 2012) in Teresina, Brazil (5°S). Using a cryogenic whole air sampler (e.g. Engel et al., 1997), samples at an altitude of 15.20 km (year 2005) and 14.85 km (year 2008) have been taken during these campaigns and analyzed afterwards using a GC/MS system in the laboratory in Frankfurt. The analysis for a broad variety of halocarbons was done half a year (2005) and two months (2008) after the samples were taken. For the long-lived substances very good agreement is achieved between the data calculated for SHIVA and observed mixing ratios during the Teresina campaigns. For the substance class of VSLs, Brinckmann et al. (2012) found a lower value at the LZRH, which is still in agreement within its measurement uncertainty with the value of (2.88 ± 0.60) ppt calculated from the SHIVA data. The mixing ratio of VSLs at the LZRH found by Laube et al. (2008) is substantially lower (1.25 ppt) than expected by other studies and our calculations. This low mixing ratio is most probably due to the long period which elapsed between sampling and analysis of the air samples. As shown by Laube (2008) and verified by Brinckmann (2011), a decomposition of short-lived substances can occur in the stainless steel sampling canisters. The decrease cannot be quantified, as it is – among other things –

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a function of water vapor content, sample pressure and the surface conditions of the individual sample canister. These things are highly variable and therefore difficult to characterize. Another aspect may be due to the slightly higher sampling altitude (and therefore longer transport time of the air mass into this region) of the measurement from the year 2005.

4 Conclusions

During the measurement campaign in Malaysia, which took place in November and December 2011, more than 500 samples of ambient air have been measured with the in-situ GHOST-MS instrument of GUF and about 215 air samples have been collected with the WASP instrument onboard the research aircraft FALCON and analyzed afterwards with a state-of-the art GC/MS system by the UEA. In total 16 scientific flights have been performed in the boundary layer as well as in the free and upper troposphere. From these air samples, mixing ratios of four long-lived halons, methyl bromide and five very short-lived substances, including the two major VSLS dibromomethane and bromoform have been determined.

The independent observations of VSLS derived from UEA and GUF show very good agreement inside the 2σ measurement uncertainty over the whole overlapping vertical range of both instruments (see Figs. 2–5).

The atmospheric variability in the different altitude intervals increases with decreasing lifetime of a VSLS, Also the decrease in mixing ratio between PBL and FT and PBL and UT is stronger the shorter the lifetime of a VSLS is, which leads to a very pronounced altitude profile for the shortest lived VSLS. Within the boundary layer, the highest mixing ratios of VSLS have been found.

Using the mean mixing ratios in the upper troposphere, a budget of the total organic bromine was determined by multiplying the mixing ratio of each substance with the number of their bromine atoms. The calculated values of the total organic bromine in the upper troposphere is (20.01 ± 1.77) ppt and the total amount from VSLS is $(4.35 \pm$

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0.59) ppt. Both values are higher than the ones reported by Montzka et al. (2011), but only the latter is slightly outside the range of 1σ uncertainty.

Regarding the entry of bromine in the stratosphere, the estimation of the bromine content at the LZRH gives a value of (18.54 ± 1.78) ppt and a value of (2.88 ± 0.60) ppt from VLSL, reflecting a fraction of 16% of the total bromine budget. The amount of total organic bromine from VLSL at the LZRH is only 0.18 ppt higher than the value published in Montzka et al. (2011), while being slightly higher than previous estimates from our group based on balloon-borne measurements over Teresina/Brazil.

When comparing the data obtained during SHIVA with those published in Montzka et al. (2011), which are mainly from measurement campaigns in the central and eastern Pacific, generally a good agreement in the mixing ratios is found, with our measurements showing slightly enhanced total organic bromine. The main exceptions to the good agreement are the CH_2BrCl in the boundary layer, where we find much lower values and CHBrCl_2 in the upper troposphere, where our measurements suggest higher mixing ratio. Slightly higher mixing ratios of short-lived bromine species for the upper troposphere of the West Pacific have recently also been suggested by Wisher et al. (2013) in comparison to observation carried out over Central America and Africa. As noted e.g. by Ashfold et al. (2012) natural variability like e.g. the phase of the ENSO and seasonality may affect the sources and sinks of VLSL and the transport into the UT. Altogether, this shows that the West Pacific may be a preferred region for VLSL transport to the stratosphere. However, the total organic bromine and the total amount of VLSL at the LZRH calculated from the SHIVA dataset give only a weak indication of enhanced source gas injection of organic bromine into the stratosphere. More vertically resolved observations are crucially needed to sample the entire range of natural variability and to confirm this possible role of the Western Pacific as a source region for stratospheric halogens from short-lived species.

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Table 3. Overview of detection limits and the measurement precision of WASP and the origin and the accuracy of the used calibration gas scale for the different brominated substances. The accuracies are updated from Wisher et al. (2013).

substance	detection limit [ppq]	average precision of measurements	accuracy of calibration gas	calibration scale origin
CH ₂ BrCl	5	6 %	9 %	NOAA, prel.
CH ₂ Br ₂	1	3 %	7.8 %	NOAA, 2004
CHBrCl ₂	0.8	3 %	9.9 %	NOAA, prel.
CHBr ₂ Cl	1	3 %	6.7 %	NOAA, prel.
CHBr ₃	1	3 %	6 %	NOAA, 2003

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Table 5. Overview over the mean mixing ratios of the long-lived halons and CH₃Br in the planetary boundary layer and the upper troposphere as observed during SHIVA. The scatter is the absolute standard deviation of all measurements around the given mean value. The atmospheric variability is calculated as given in Eq. (3). For H-1301, no meaningful variability can be calculated (noted by n/a), as the scatter of the atmospheric measurements is smaller than the measurement precision of the instrument during the flight that can only be estimated in the laboratory (see Sect. 2.2). Lifetimes for the halons are adapted from Newland et al. (2013) and the lifetime of CH₃Br is taken from Montzka et al. (2011).

substance	tropospheric lifetime [years]	upper troposphere		planetary boundary layer	
		mean ± scatter [ppt]	atmospheric variability	mean ± scatter [ppt]	atmospheric variability
H-1301	> 10000	3.28 ± 0.13	n/a	3.19 ± 0.14	n/a
H-1211	25	4.16 ± 0.14	±3%	4.29 ± 0.40	±9%
H-1202	3	0.026 ± 0.002	±8%	0.028 ± 0.005	±17%
H-2402	41	0.43 ± 0.02	±3%	0.43 ± 0.02	±3%
CH ₃ Br	0.8	7.35 ± 0.86	±7%	8.79 ± 3.39	±38%

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Table 7. Comparison of the upper troposphere measurements during SHIVA from GHOST with data compiled in Montzka et al. (2011) and data published in Wisher et al. (2013) from South East Asia (0–15° N). The measurement uncertainty (1σ) given for the SHIVA data is the sum of scale accuracy and instrumental measurement precision, excluding atmospheric variability. The range for the SHIVA data represents the 2.5 to 97.5 percentiles of the observed distribution.

substance	WMO upper troposphere (10–12 km)		SHIVA upper troposphere (10–13 km)		CARIBIC upper troposphere (> 10 km)	
	mean	range	mean \pm uncertainty	range	mean \pm uncertainty	full range
	[ppt]	[ppt]	[ppt]	[ppt]	[ppt]	[ppt]
CH ₂ BrCl	0.09	0.03–0.16	0.09 \pm 0.02	0.06–0.26	0.12 \pm 0.01	0.09–0.14
CH ₂ Br ₂	0.86	0.63–1.21	0.90 \pm 0.12	0.71–1.22	0.92 \pm 0.08	0.74–1.00
CHBrCl ₂	0.11	0.02–0.28	0.25 \pm 0.04	0.19–0.35	0.21 \pm 0.03	0.16–0.31
CHBr ₂ Cl	0.11	0.01–0.36	0.19 \pm 0.04	0.12–0.27	0.16 \pm 0.02	0.08–0.19
CHBr ₃	0.50	0.12–1.21	0.61 \pm 0.11	0.28–1.01	0.56 \pm 0.12	0.15–0.81

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Table 10. Comparison of the total organic bromine in the upper troposphere between SHIVA and WMO data. The data given for the global average of H-1301, H-1211, H-2402 and CH₃Br is an update of Montzka et al. (2003), H-1202 is taken from Newland et al. (2013) and the VSLs data is from Montzka et al. (2011). For the calculation of the total organic bromine, the mean mixing ratio (given in Table 7 and Table 9) of an individual substances is multiplied by its number of bromine atoms. The measurement uncertainty is the sum of scale accuracy and instrumental measurement precision.

substance class	global average, year 2011		SHIVA, year 2011	
	Br _{org} [ppt]	percentage of total Br _{org}	Br _{org} ± measurement uncertainty [ppt]	percentage of total Br _{org}
Halons	8.10	43 %	8.31 ± 0.58	(42 ± 3) %
CH ₃ Br	6.96	37 %	7.35 ± 0.60	(37 ± 3) %
VSLs	3.64	20 %	4.35 ± 0.60	(21 ± 3) %
ΣBr _{org}	18.70	100 %	20.01 ± 1.78	100 %

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Table 12. Budget of total organic bromine at the LZRH with the contribution of different substance classes. The VSLS value for the SHIVA campaign is calculated from the estimate described in Table 8 using the decay in mixing ratio between UT and LZRH. The values given for SHIVA are (mean mixing ratio \pm measurement uncertainty). The measurement uncertainty is the sum of scale accuracy and instrumental measurement precision. The global average values (see also Table 7 and Table 9) are from Montzka et al. (2003)¹ (updated) and Newland et al. (2013)² (for H-1202), and Montzka et al. (2011)³. The values given for Teresina are from Brinckmann et al. (2012)⁴ and Laube et al. (2008)⁵.

substance class	SHIVA, Malaysia 2011 (calculated)	global average 2011	Teresina, Brazil 2008 ⁴	Teresina, Brazil 2005 ⁵
Halons	(8.31 \pm 0.58) ppt	8.10 ppt ^{1,2}	8.17 ppt	8.29 ppt
CH ₃ Br	(7.35 \pm 0.60) ppt	6.96 ppt ¹	7.40 ppt	6.68 ppt
VSLS	(2.88 \pm 0.60) ppt	2.70 ppt ³	2.25 ppt	1.25 ppt
Σ_{Br}	(18.54 \pm 1.78) ppt	17.76 ppt	(17.82 \pm 0.66) ppt	(16.22 \pm 1.10) ppt

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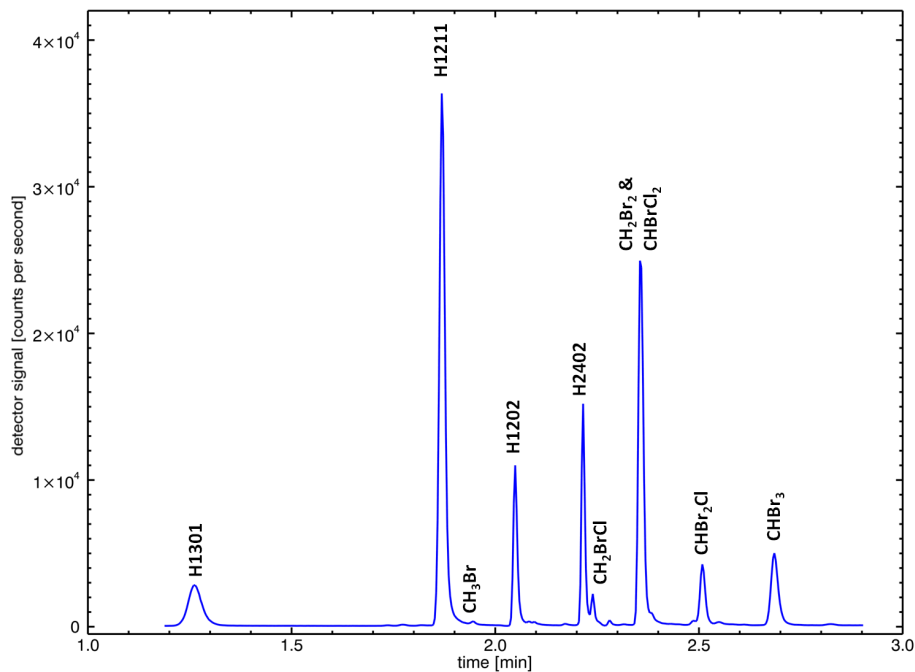


Fig. 1. NICI – Chromatogramm (m/z 79) of GHOST-MS.

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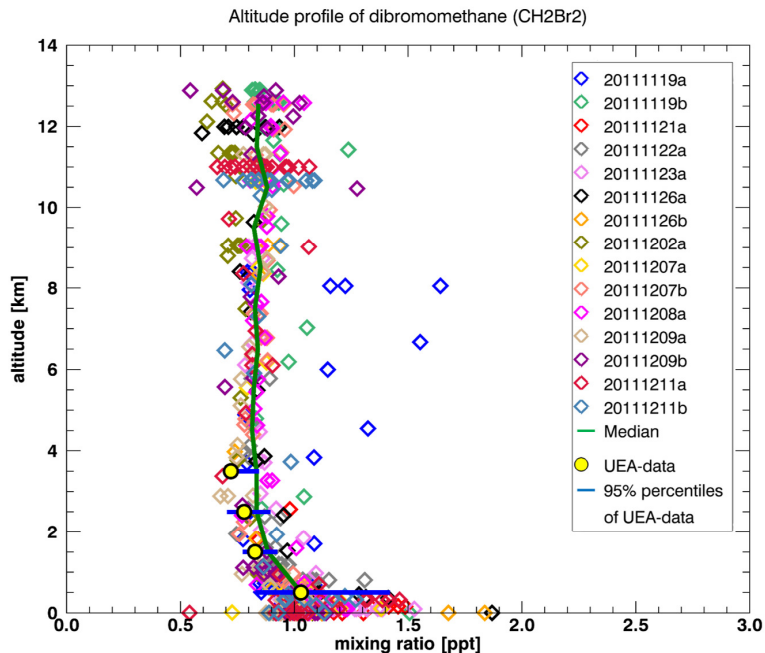


Fig. 2. Illustration of the mixing ratio of CH₂Br₂ vs. the flight altitude in which the particular air sample was taken. The color coding indicates the different flights and the corresponding numbering is the date of the flight in the format year (YYYY), month (MM), day (DD) and a letter, whether it is the first (a) or the second (b) flight of a day. The green line marks the median of the GHOST-MS data binned in 1 km altitude intervals. The yellow filled circles are the median of the WASP data for the same intervals and the blue bars show the related 95 % percentiles. For better visualization, no error bars for the individual points of the GHOST-MS measurements are shown. The measurement uncertainty for the particular substance is listed in Table 2.

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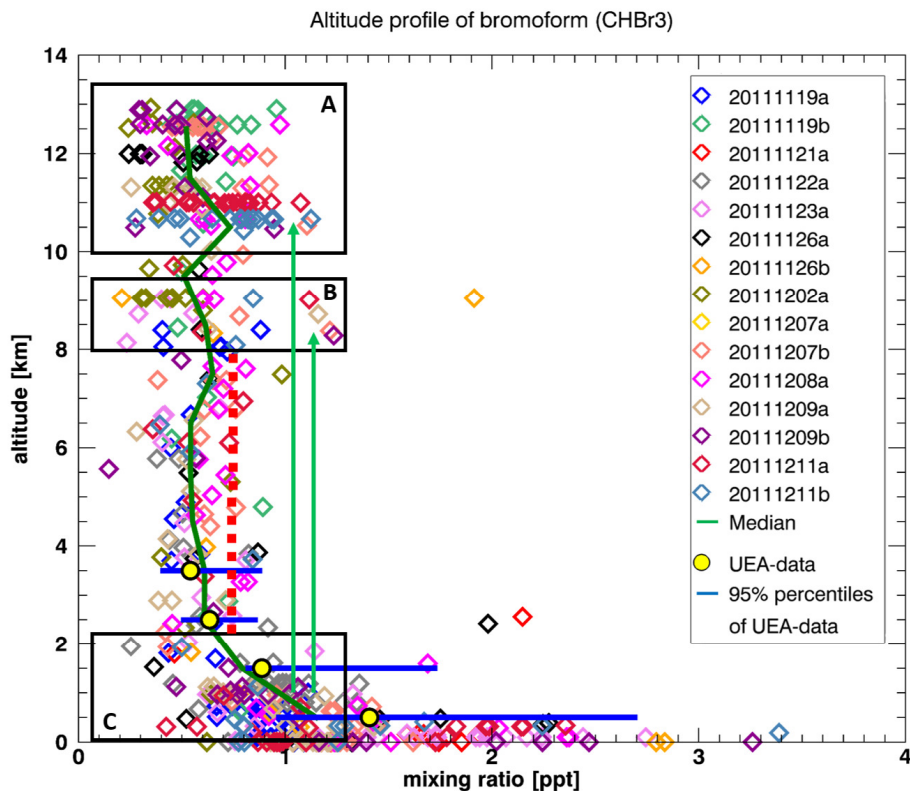


Fig. 3. As Fig. 2, for CHBr₃. The boxes marked with A and B show regions in the upper troposphere (10–13 km and 8–9.5 km), where during some flights higher mixing ratios than in the free troposphere (2–8 km) occur. The red dotted line shows the mean value of CHBr₃ plus 1 σ atmospheric variability in the free troposphere (see also Table 4). The green arrows show possible transport pathways for air masses with higher mixing ratios from the planetary boundary layer (box C) into the upper regions of the atmosphere (boxes B and C).

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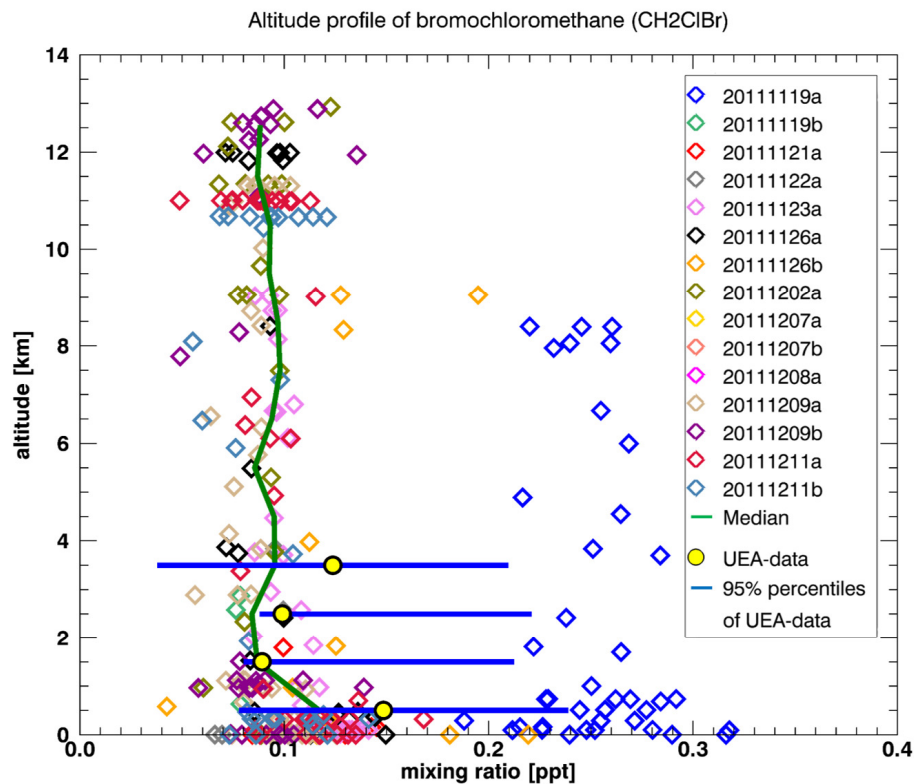
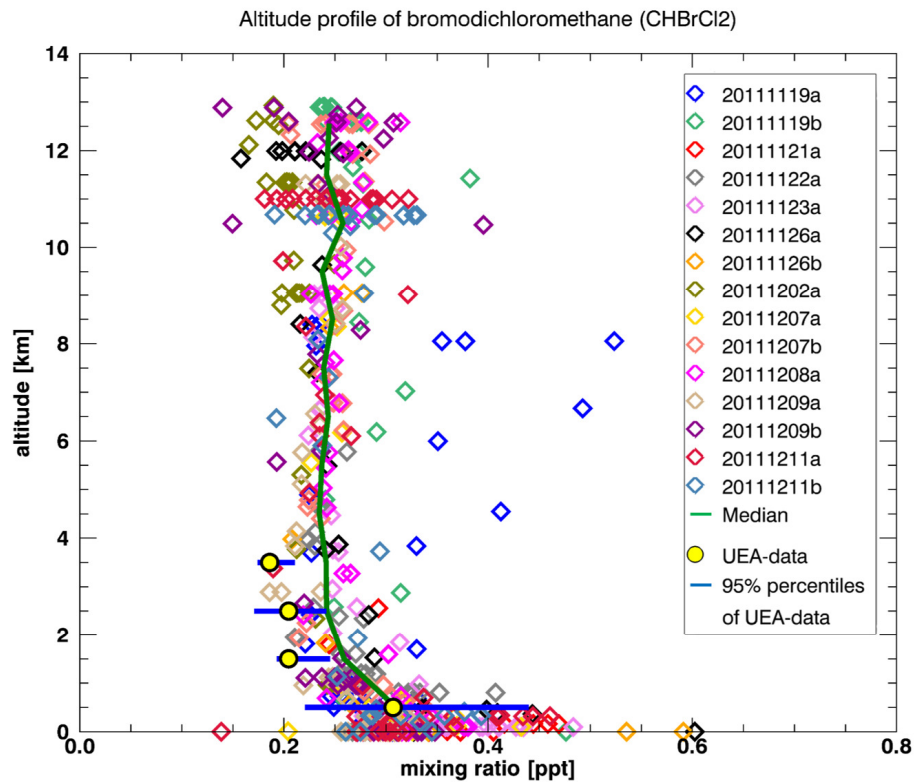


Fig. 4. As Fig. 2, for CH_2ClBr .

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Fig. 5. As Fig. 2, for CHBrCl₂.[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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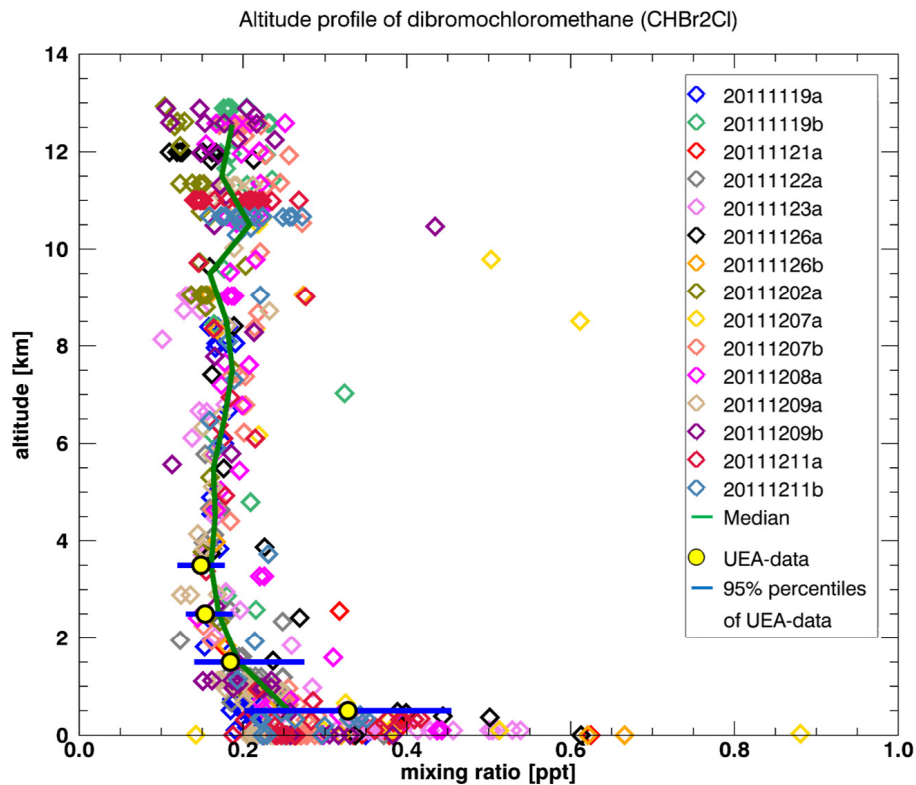


Fig. 6. As Fig. 2, for CHBr₂Cl.

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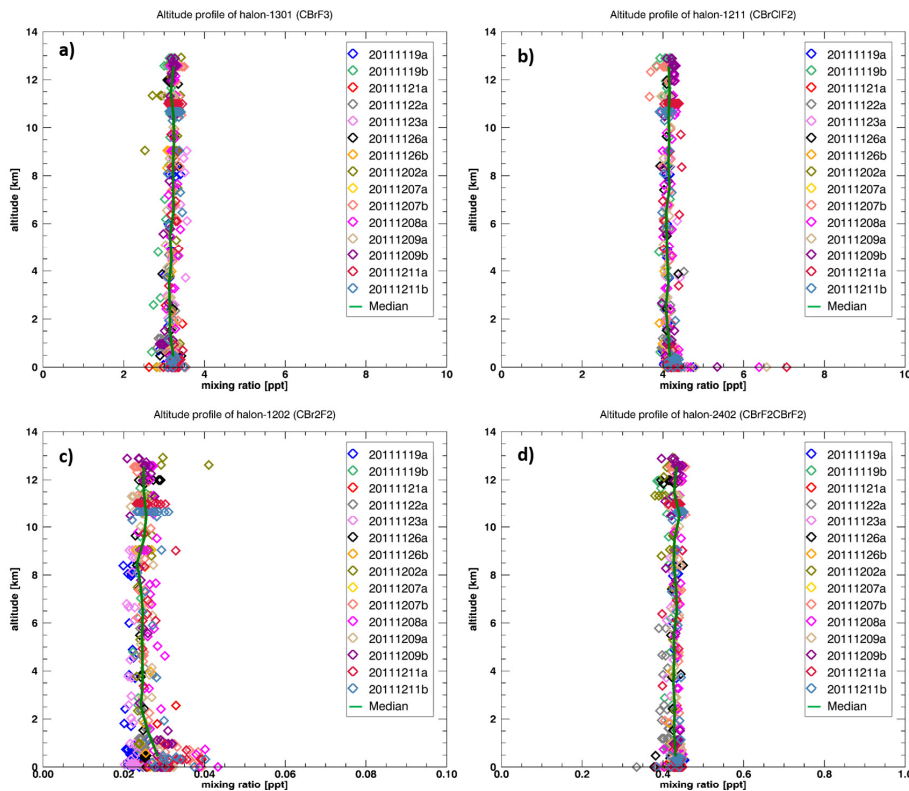


Fig. 7. As Fig. 2, for H-1301 (a), H-1211 (b), H-1202 (c) and H-2402 (d).

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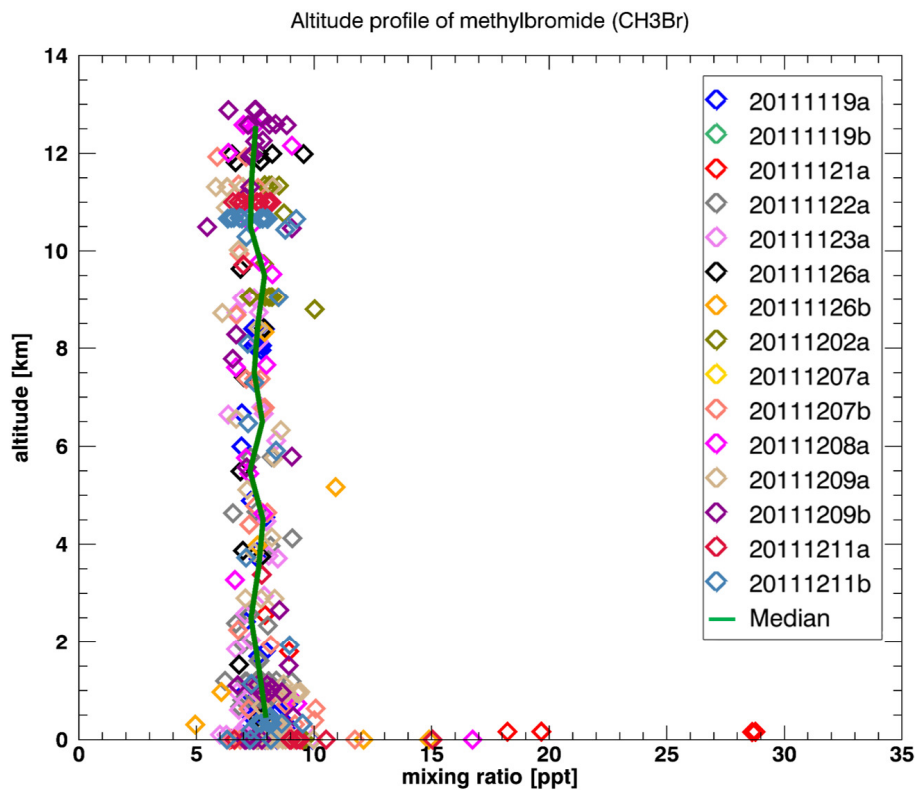


Fig. 8. As Fig. 2, for CH₃Br.

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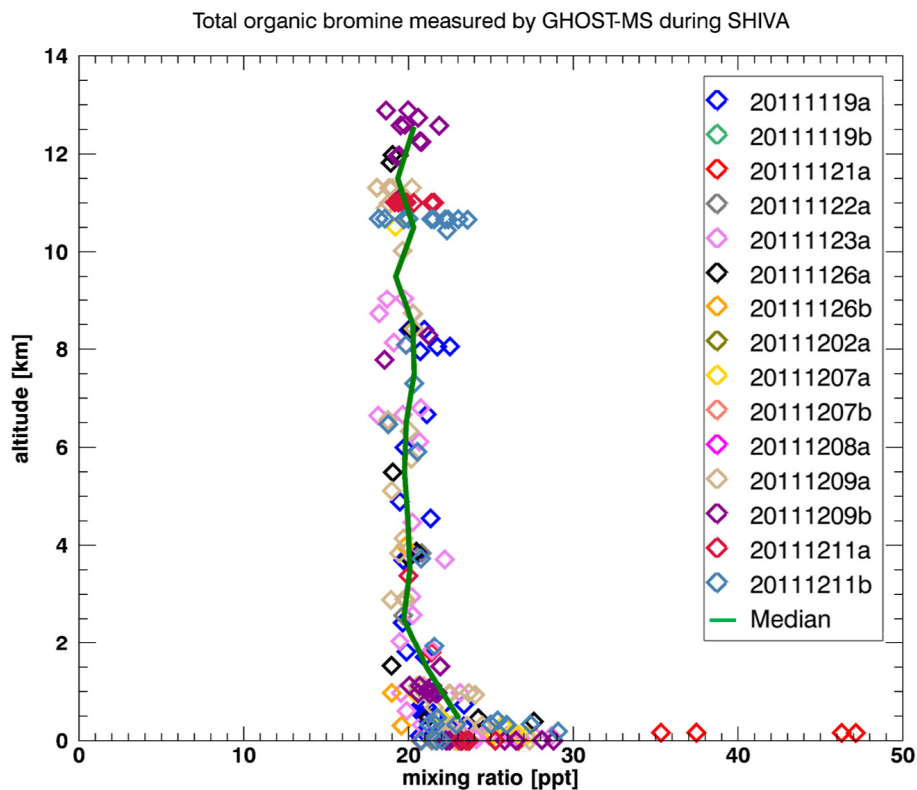


Fig. 9. As Fig. 2, for the total organic bromine. For the calculation, only datapoints are used, where data for every substance is available.

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