

Meteorological constraints on oceanic halocarbons above the Peruvian Upwelling

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Response to Referee #1

General Comments:

Referee #1:

This paper presents a new dataset of halocarbon observations along the Peruvian coast and the upwelling region nearby. The observations add to a scant dataset of halocarbons and helps in completing the global picture in addition to explaining some local differences. Additionally the fluxes calculated will undoubtedly be useful to modelling groups, which have been struggling with getting a complete emission inventory for several of the compounds measured here. I recommend the manuscript is published in ACP, after the authors have addressed a few points that are detailed below.

Author's response:

We first would like to thank the reviewer 1 for reviewing the manuscript and for the overall positive evaluation of the paper, which she/he describes as helpful in completing the global picture of halocarbons observations and useful to modelling groups with getting a complete emission inventory. Below you find our point-by-point answers to your comments (*highlighted in italic*).

Major comments:

1) Although the authors mention that the fluxes are different to the other locations, such as the Mauritanian upwelling, there isn't much discussion about the reasons for this. One reason that is mentioned is the difference in the wind speed and the ocean atmosphere gradient. Why do the authors rule out biological processes? Maybe some light can be shed on this using ocean colour data, and/or phytoplankton speciation data.

We agree with the reviewer that biological processes in the oceans often play an important role for the concentration distribution of brominated and iodinated VSLS, and therefore also for their concentration gradient, being a major driver for their sea-to-air fluxes. The analysis of biological parameters was not part and scope of this manuscript. The relation of pigments, phytoplankton groups, dissolved organic matter and bacteria to the halogenated VSLS are covered in an accompanying manuscript by Hepach et al. (submitted January 2016). For further discussion on the distribution of the oceanic halocarbons and biological processes, see Hepach et al. (2016, submitted).

Fluxes for CH₃I were much higher in the Peruvian upwelling (M91 cruise) than in the Mauritanian upwelling (DRIVE cruise), because of the higher oceanic concentrations. This can be probably linked to biological production, as high correlations with Chl *a* and diatoms were found, in contrast to lower concentrations of CH₃I in surface waters of the Mauritanian upwelling during June 2010, linked to photochemical production (Hepach et al., 2014). Production of bromocarbons was seemingly much lower in the Peruvian upwelling than in the Mauritanian upwelling, although biological parameters as total chlorophyll concentrations were similar in both regions. As iodinated compounds were much higher in the Peruvian upwelling, different production mechanisms for bromocarbons and iodocarbons can be hypothesized. Ambient conditions and different phytoplankton species in the Peruvian upwelling may have favoured production of iodocarbons rather than of bromocarbons during the time (December 2012) and in the region of the M91 cruise. The lower concentrations of bromocarbons and lower wind speeds both reduce the sea to air fluxes via both the concentration gradient and k_w leading to much lower sea-to-air fluxes in the Peruvian upwelling than in the Mauritanian upwelling.

2) The authors have mentioned that the transport paths might explain the elevated IO observed by Schönhardt et al. However, the transport paths take about 5-8 days, which is much longer than the lifetime of CH₃I and hence its contribution should not be as high. Very low concentrations of IO have also been observed at the Galapagos Islands, although higher CH₃I was observed. Closer analysis of the CH₃I data had indicated a local source rather than transport from the Peruvian upwelling region (Gomez-Martin et al., 2013).

We agree with the reviewer that the lifetime of methyl iodide is too short to be transported from the cruise track towards the equatorial East Pacific and Galapagos Islands before being degraded and that therefore local sources appear likely. However, the observed elevated methyl iodide mixing ratios during the cruise could explain part of the elevated IO above the Peruvian upwelling (Hepach et al., 2016, submitted) as was also observed by Schönhardt et al. (2008). We clarified this in the manuscript now by writing:

“A contribution of oceanic emissions from the Peruvian Upwelling to the free troposphere is only achieved in the inner tropics after a transport time of 5 – 8 days, where the VLSL abundances are transported into higher altitudes. Since the lifetime of methyl iodide is only 4 days in the MABL a significant contribution of methyl iodide from the Peruvian upwelling to

the observations made by Yokouchi et al. (2008) at San Cristobal, Galapagos is not to be expected. However, it can partly explain the elevated IO observed above the Peruvian upwelling (Hepach et al., 2016, submitted; Schönhardt et al., 2008).”

3) The quantitative analysis of the dependence of the flux is only limited to doing Spearman correlations and the dependence between boundary layer and concentrations is shown in a figure. Considering the low spearman's coefficients and high P values (0.05), I suggest that the authors conduct a two dimensional principal component analysis of the dataset considering all the different parameters measured. This will help in better understanding the major driving factors, rather than doing simple correlation coefficient calculations, especially, which do not have a high significance (<0.01). Several of the measured parameters could correlate, but that does not necessarily show any causality as evidenced in table 3.

According to the reviewers suggestion we conducted a two-dimensional principle component analysis (PCA). However, a PCA transforms a number of correlated variables into a number of uncorrelated variables. Thus considering all the different parameters measured with their relatively low correlation coefficients a PCA in this case appears unnecessary. Nevertheless we performed a PCA on the relative humidity, wind speed, sea surface temperature (SST), surface air temperature (SAT), MABL height and atmospheric mixing ratios of CHBr_3 , CH_2Br_2 and CH_3I , which are correlated to each other. The according ‘loadings plot’ (Figure A) reveals two cluster. The first cluster includes the atmospheric VSLs mixing ratios of CH_3I , CHBr_3 and CH_2Br_2 and the relative humidity. The second cluster includes the MABL height, SST and SAT. These two clusters are forming, since the variables in one cluster are negatively correlated to the variables in the opposite cluster. However, the wind speed with its low spearman correlation coefficients reveals to be no driving factor of the remaining variables. We will add this to the manuscript:

“A principle component analysis of the parameters in Table 3 furthermore revealed a distinct relation between SAT, SST, MABL height, relative humidity and atmospheric mixing ratios of CHBr_3 and CH_2Br_2 (not shown here).”

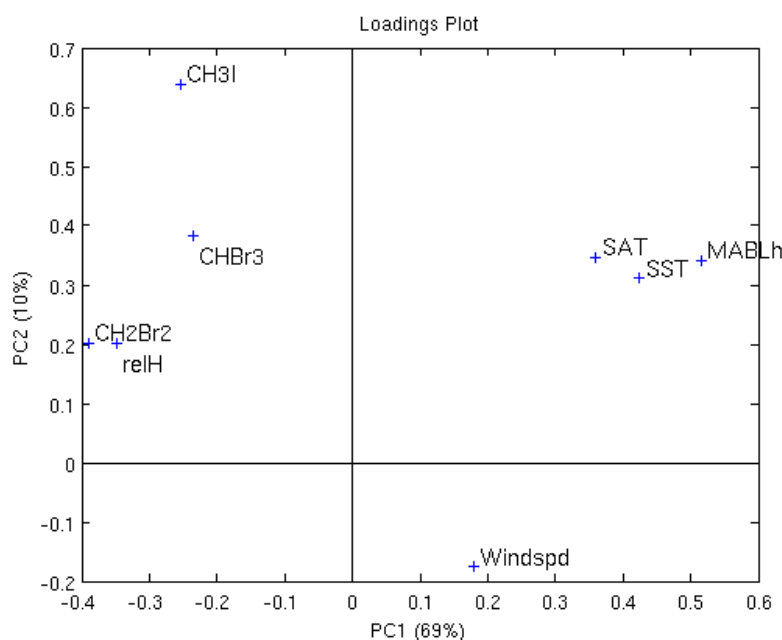


Figure A: Loadings plot of 1st and 2nd principle component (PC). Two clusters form: 1. CHBr₃, CH₂Br₂ and relative humidity (relH). 2. SAT, SST and MABL height (MABLh).

Minor comments:

1) Please mention the *P* values for the correlation coefficients in section 3.5

Done.: “Indeed, we also find significant ($p < 0.05$) high correlations [...]”

2) The Martin et al 2013 reference should be Gomez-Martin et al, 2013

Done.

References

- Hepach, H., Quack, B., Ziska, F., Fuhlbrügge, S., Atlas, E., Krüger, K., Peeken, I., and Wallace, D. W. R.: Drivers of diel and regional variations of halocarbon emissions from the tropical North East Atlantic, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 14, 10.5194/acp-14-1255-2014, 2014.
- Hepach, H., Quack, B., Tegtmeier, S., Engel, A., Bracher, A., Fuhlbrügge, S., L., G., Atlas, E., Lampel, J., Frieß, U., and Krüger, K.: Biogenic halocarbons from the Peruvian upwelling region as tropospheric halogen source, to be submitted, 2016.
- Schönhardt, A., Richter, A., Wittrock, F., Kirk, H., Oetjen, H., Roscoe, H., and Burrows, J.: Observations of iodine monoxide columns from satellite, *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 8, 637-653, 10.5194/acp-8-637-2008, 2008.

Yokouchi, Y., Osada, K., Wada, M., Hasebe, F., Agama, M., Murakami, R., Mukai, H., Nojiri, Y., Inuzuka, Y., Toom-Sauntry, D., and Fraser, P.: Global distribution and seasonal concentration change of methyl iodide in the atmosphere, *Journal of Geophysical Research-Atmospheres*, 113, 10.1029/2008JD009861, 2008.

Response to Referee #2

We would like to thank reviewer 2 for reviewing the manuscript. Below you find our point-by-point answers to your comments (*highlighted in italic*).

General Comments:

Referee #2:

The manuscript is reasonably well written but at times a little difficult to follow, owing in part to acronyms and repeated recitation of numbers, but also to text that seems to ramble without a clear focus in some places.

Author's response:

We have carefully revised the text taking your suggestions into account. Thus, we changed in particular Sections 3.2-3.5, 4 and 5, reduced the acronyms and repeated numbers, which are already listed in the tables. Further details can be found in our answers to your specific comments below.

The sampling approach appears sound, the data look to be good, and the approach is interesting. I'm wondering, however, if the authors are not letting the "trees get in the way of seeing the forest", in that in some places the detail is killing the main message.

Using a largely meteorological approach, the authors make the case that the ocean makes only a small contribution to the amount of gas in the boundary layer immediately above it. While that may be true for any of the 400 m² boxes they use, I'm not so certain it is true for Peruvian upwelling altogether. At least, that has not been made clear to me. The point is made that most of the halocarbons over a given area are advected in, but it belies the possibility (probability?) that any elevation of concentration in a particular box coming from upwind portions of the upwelling zone contains air that has already been impacted by oceanic emissions. One could walk away from this paper thinking that the emissions of short lived halocarbons in upwelling regions like Peru are not that significant when, based on comparison with boundary layer burdens over the open ocean, it seems that they are. This is not to say that the analysis in this paper is not useful, but it does need to be put in perspective. The authors also need to discuss the tenuous nature of their assumption of steady state in a dynamic boundary layer and its implications to their conclusions.

We agree with the reviewer that the paper should avoid the impression, that the emissions of short lived halocarbons in upwelling regions like Peru are not that significant when, based on comparison with boundary layer burdens over the open ocean, it seems that they are. We also agree with the reviewer that the boundary layer burdens over the upwelling are much more significant than over the open ocean which is generally due to elevated oceanic concentrations and emissions in conjunction with stable layers in the atmosphere above upwelling regions. However during M91, the oceanic emissions, which were calculated along the cruise, are indeed generally not sufficient to explain the observed elevated atmospheric mixing ratios in the MABL, which therefore need advection. We add a more detailed description of the observed atmospheric phenomena and methodological constraints in the answer to the reviewer (below) and in the manuscript and therewith hope to better clarify our observations and interpretations of them.

Figure 3e of the manuscript shows that the observed atmospheric mixing ratios of all compounds show background concentrations of around 0.6 ppt for CH_3I , 1 ppt for CH_2Br_2 and 2 ppt for CHBr_3 along the whole cruise with varying elevations in the upwelling regions. The mixing ratios for CH_2Br_2 and CHBr_3 generally double (increase by 1 or 2 ppt above the direct Peruvian upwelling), while CH_3I is 3 to 4 times higher. The observed mean fluxes during the cruise can explain around 0.6 ppt for methyl iodide for an average MABL height of 300 m using a mean residence time of 7hr (derived from our FLEXPART trajectories), and 1.2 ppt under the average trade wind inversion of 1000 m using a mean residence time of 48 hrs. For the low fluxes of CH_2Br_2 and CHBr_3 the contribution to the MABL box is only between 0.1 and 0.3 ppt. Thus, while CH_3I -emissions can explain the local background, CH_2Br_2 and CHBr_3 fluxes cannot. Therefore, we believe that the bromocarbon background mixing ratios of 1 to 2 ppt in the MABL have to be advected, with the southerly low level flow parallel to the coast and below the trade inversion before the air masses reach the well-defined isolated MABL above the Peruvian upwelling. We also agree that a different emissions scenario before the cruise and in waters close to the cruise track may partly explain the discrepancy. However, we believe that during the time of the cruise a representative area of the Peruvian upwelling from 6 °S to 16 °S and 10 nm to 90 nm away from the coast was investigated. Surprisingly high sea surface concentrations and emissions in the upwelling waters different to those measured during the cruise appear unlikely to us. Next to this we even derive from observations that the ocean was mainly a sink for CHBr_3 between Dec 21 and 25. Also possible elevated emissions from coastal sources, not measured during the cruise, likely add to the atmospheric mixing ratios. Indeed elevated coastal emissions could

explain the threefold increase of CHBr_3 atmospheric mixing ratios on December 25 with SE wind from the coast (Figure 3), in contrast to Dec 17 when the ship passed the same coastal position but revealing lower VMR and a southern flow. Additionally, direct above the upwelling regions the MABL can be as low as 10 m and shows a mean of 100 m (Figure 4c). Thus local emissions mix into a much lower boundary. As an example an emission of $1000 \text{ pmol m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ explain an atmospheric mixing ratio increase of 1.75 ppt during a residence time of 7 hr and a MABL height of 100 m. These relatively high emissions have occasionally been observed during the cruise for methyl iodide and the resulting increase in mixing ratios can be even higher in lower MABLs. These high emissions have however barely been observed for CHBr_3 and CH_2Br_2 and are also unlikely due to the low water concentrations and low wind speeds observed during the cruise. Thus, we conclude that coastal contributions with highly elevated emissions of e.g. macro algae are very likely as additional sources for the bromocarbons.

Overall we conclude that the variable and elevated atmospheric mixing ratios observed above the East Pacific and the Peruvian upwelling region, including both open and coastal ocean, can be explained by a mix of oceanic sources and atmospheric phenomena.

In addition the mechanism and concept of the air-sea exchange contribution could be different in the coastal upwelling, e.g. the stable low MABL, which leads to suppressed vertical mixing of surface air, could lead to a gradient of the near surface VSLs with height. Thus, the surface VSLs observations may therefore only be representative for the low and not for the entire MABL column. Next to these considerations, the very low MABL events above the cold, near-coastal waters, which theoretically increase the oceanic contribution to the atmosphere could often not be taken into account in the source/loss estimates due to the low resolved topography in ERA-Interim affecting the trajectory modelling (see manuscript: Section 2.5, Figure 3d). Finally, we also agree that our steady state assumption for the individual box model calculations in the MABL could also be affected by dynamical meteorological fluctuations (e.g. wind and MABL changes). These fluctuations were however quite rare during the time of our ship cruise. Overall, we think that follow-up studies are needed for the East Pacific regime including more marine observations also resolving MABL gradients and high resolution transport modelling including the coast lines.

We add this discussion to Section 4 and an outlook in Section 5 to better address these issues and to put our Peruvian Upwelling analysis in a broader perspective.

Finally, while the authors do address the uncertainties of ocean concentrations and atmospheric mixing ratios, I'm concerned about the uncertainties introduced by the modeled components, e.g., advection, degradation, air-sea exchange, and how they might impact the authors' conclusions. These seem to be ignored. The authors should at least discuss this, if not address it quantitatively.

We agree and will include a discussion of the method uncertainties into the existing discussion in Section 4:

“Uncertainties may result from the applied method, which accounts for a 400 m² box around a measurement point assuming steady state. The cruise track covered a significantly large area of the Peruvian Upwelling between 5° S and 16° S and higher elevated seas surface concentrations and emissions are not to be expected during these rather stable meteorological conditions. Additional uncertainties in our source-loss estimate may arise from deficiencies in the meteorological input fields from ERA-Interim reanalysis as well as from the air mass transport simulated by FLEXPART. Both could lead to either a shorter or longer residence time of the surface air masses within the MABL or below the trade inversion and thus influence the COL term. In particular very close to the coast, where the source-loss estimate could not be applied due to the trajectory analysis gaps (Section 2.5), the ODRs of the compounds might be different. Here potential high coastal emissions in combination with stable atmospheric stratification leading to slow vertical transport into the free troposphere, could significantly increase the oceanic contribution to the MABL and to the atmosphere below the trade inversion and explain the elevated atmospheric mixing ratios. In addition, different parameterizations for the wind-based transfer coefficient k_w , as discussed in Lennartz et al. (2015) and Fuhlbrügge et al (2015) in more detail, can impact the air-sea gas exchange and thus the ODRs. Applying the k_w parameterizations of Liss and Merlivat (1986) as well as Wanninkhof and McGillis (1999) lead both to mean ODRs in the MABL of 0.02 (bromoform), 0.07 (dibromomethane) and 0.21 (methyl iodide) and below the trade inversion of 0.08 / 0.08 (bromoform), 0.25 / 0.26 (dibromomethane) and 0.69 / 0.75 (methyl iodide) and thus an even lower oceanic contribution to the atmosphere in this region. Further uncertainties may arise from variations of the MABL VSLs lifetimes and thus the chemical degradation of the compounds we use in this study. This would affect the computed advection (ADR) and not the oceanic contribution.”

Specific Comments:

1. The repeated use of similar acronyms requires that the reader keep looking back at the text. This could be helped considerably with a labeled diagram of the boundary layer box and its fluxes over the 400 m² ocean surface.

We agree and add this diagram of the processes into the manuscript:

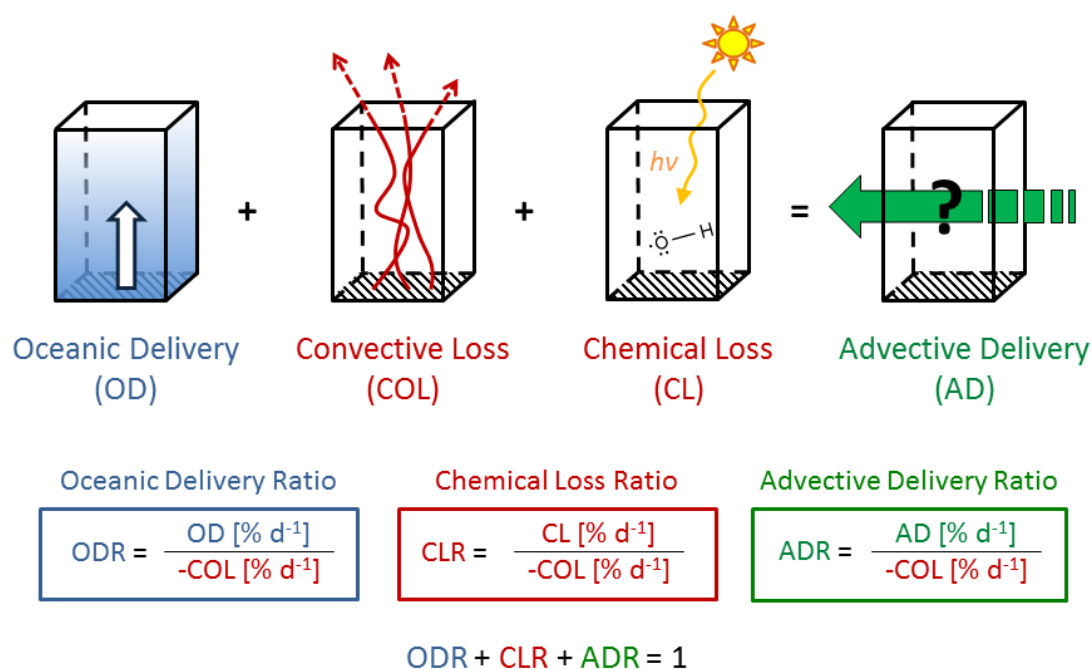


Figure 1: Schematic summary of the components of the applied mass-balance concept: Oceanic Delivery (OD), the Convective Loss (COL), the Chemical Loss (CL), the Advective Delivery (AD), the Oceanic Delivery Ratio (ODR), the Chemical Loss Ratio (CLR) and the Advective Delivery Ratio (ADR). The shaded area reflects an area of 400 m².

2. P. 20599, line 1, replace “more” with “other”

Done.

3. P. 20600, line 13-14, delete “respectively”

Done.

4. P. 20600, lines 15-19, delete all

Since this part gives an overview of the manuscript structure we would like to keep this part.

5. P. 20600, line 23, replace “ships” with “ship”

Done.

6. P. 20601, line 21, replace “from” with “near”

Done.

7. P. 20603, line 3, how high is the 5th superstructure, what obstacles surround it, etc.?

The 5th superstructure deck on R/V METEOR is found at about 20m above sea level. A smaller 6th superstructure deck with additional masts is found above it. More information can be found at: <https://www.lfd.uni-hamburg.de/en/meteor/technisches.html>.

A jib was used to sample the VSLs freely about 5 – 6 m portside, to avoid any ship influences on the measurements. We added this to the manuscript.

8. P. 20603, line 11, define “moon pool”

A moon pool (hydrographic shaft) is an opening in the base of the ship hull that gives access to the water below, providing protection for the sampling instruments. We added this information to the manuscript:

“102 water samples were taken 3 hourly at a depth of 6.8 m from a continuously working water pump in the hydrographic shaft, an opening in the base of the ship hull of R/V Meteor, after December 9, 2012.”

9. P. 20604, lines 10,11, remove sentence, place refs at end of previous sentence.

Done.

10. P. 20604 lines 22, 23, move “from the ocean surface to right after “launched”; make “positions” singular.

Done.

11. P. 20606, line 1, replace “relating” with “ratioing”; replace “receive” with “estimate”.

Done.

12. P. 20606, line 3, delete “respectively”

Done.

13. P. 20606, lines 1-5. This part is confusing and a good place where the diagram could be put to use.

We will insert the new diagram at this point.

14. P. 20606, line 23, how much of a temperature drop was it to get to 18 degrees?

This depends on the region. Generally outside the upwelling area, the SST ranges between 19 and 22 °C. We added this information to the manuscript:

“The most intense upwelling is observed for several times near the coast where both, SST and SAT rapidly drop from 19 – 22 °C to less than 18 °C (Figure 3a).”

15. P. 20607, lines 1-10, Could this be reduced to a simple sentence?

We think that the relation between absolute and relative humidity and their indication of different air masses might not be trivial for all readers and thus like to keep this part in the manuscript.

16. P. 20607, lines 12-18, Is this paragraph necessary? Similarly, is the next one necessary? Can the authors simply make a few statements about the meaning of these concentrations, how they relate to other areas, and how they might be useful to support their conclusions? Numbers are best placed in tables so the authors can refer to them and keep the text focused on the issues at hand.

We agree with the reviewer and shortened the first and second paragraph accordingly. We also cut out repeated numbers and refer to the responding tables.

“Surface bromoform concentrations in the Peruvian upwelling are generally lower during the cruise compared to the Mauritanian upwelling while dibromomethane surface water concentrations are comparable. However, methyl iodide concentrations are almost 8 times higher than in the Mauritanian upwelling (Figure 3d, Table 1, Hepach et al., 2014). Samples taken in the upwelling areas show elevated concentrations compared to the open ocean for all compounds. For further discussion on the distribution of the oceanic halocarbons, see Hepach et al. (2016, submitted to ACPD).

Atmospheric mixing ratios of CHBr_3 are on average 2.91 ± 0.68 ppt (Table 1). CH_2Br_2 mixing ratios of 1.25 ± 0.26 ppt are low and show a similar temporal pattern with bromoform (Table 3). Mixing ratios of both compounds are significantly lower above the Peruvian upwelling compared to observations above the Mauritanian upwelling, while CH_3I mixing ratios are comparable (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013). Elevated mixing ratios for all three compounds are generally found above intense cold oceanic upwelling regions close to the Peruvian coast (Figure 3e). While the bromocarbons double above the upwelling, methyl iodide mixing ratios increase up to 5-fold, showing its stronger accumulation in the low boundary layer.

The concentration ratio of dibromomethane and bromoform can be used as an indicator of fresh bromocarbon sources along coastal areas. Low ratios of about 0.1 have been observed at coastal source regions and are interpreted as the emission ratios of macro algae (Yokouchi et al., 2005; Carpenter et al., 2003). The applied shorter mean lifetime of bromoform (15 days) in contrast to dibromomethane (94 days) in the boundary layer after Carpenter et al. (2014) leads to an increase of the ratio during transport as long as the air mass is not enriched with fresh bromoform. A general decrease of the concentration ratio is found from the North to the South during the cruise (Figure 3f), implying relatively remote air masses in the North and an intensification of fresh sources towards the South, which is also reflected by elevated water

concentrations towards the South. Atmospheric methyl iodide measurements along the cruise track reveal a mean mixing ratio of 1.54 ± 0.49 ppt, which, similar to the two bromocarbons, maximizes over the coastal upwelling regions (Figure 3e).”

17. P. 20608, lines 23-25, This is a strange statement in that it is obvious. MBL concentrations are always a function of air-sea differences, in situ loss, and advection. The sentence after this is equally unnecessary.

We agree and removed the sentences.

18. P. 20609, all, This tutorial discussion could be condensed to a few sentences, in my mind. If the authors are trying to explain the 15-16 December anomaly, they should focus on that, not ramble through all the rest.

In this part we describe the overall atmospheric conditions (not only 15-16 December), which significantly influence surface VSLS abundances in this region, and the methodology to explain how the missing MABL heights were calculated. Although we think this part is necessary we shortened the section according to the reviewer’s suggestion and rewrote this section to:

“3.3 Lower atmospheric conditions

The relative humidity shows a strong vertical gradient from over 75 % to less than 50 % at ~1 km height (Figure 4a) which indicates an increase of the atmospheric stability with height due to suppressed mixing. This convective barrier, known as the trade inversion (Riehl, 1954, 1979; Höflich, 1972), is also reflected in the meridional wind (Figure 4b). Below ~1 km altitude the Southeast trade winds create a strong positive meridional wind component, also visible in the forward trajectories (Figure 2c-d). The flow of air masses in the Hadley Cell back to the subtropics causes a predominantly northerly wind above ~1 km height. The intense increase of θ_v in combination with the relative humidity decrease and the wind shear at ~1 km height identifies this level as a strong vertical transport barrier (Figure 4c). Above the cold upwelling water, temperature inversions create additional stable layers above the surface, leading to very low MABL heights of < 100 m, e.g., on December 03, 08 or 17, 2012 and to a reduced vertical transport of surface air. The mean MABL height from the

radiosonde observations is 370 ± 170 m (ERA-Interim 376 ± 169 m). The relative humidity, SAT, SST and wind speed are good indicators for the MABL conditions in this oceanic region and these meteorological parameters show significant correlations with the observed MABL height (Table 3). Thus, we use a multiple linear regression based on these parameters to estimate the MABL height above the coastal upwelling (Section 2.2.2). The regressed MABL heights above the cold upwelling regions are 158 ± 79 m and go down to even 10 m as was previously observed above the Mauritanian Upwelling (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013). With the regressed MABL heights, the mean MABL height during the cruise decreases to 307 ± 177 m. The stable atmospheric conditions from the surface to the trade inversion lead to strong transport barriers and to a suppressed transport of surface and MABL air into the free troposphere (Figure 4d).”

19. P. 20610, lines 9-16, This is good and relevant.

Thank you.

20. P. 20610, lines 25 ff, This is where the authors need to insert some perspective as discussed under General Comments. Also, how much of the discussion on the following page is relevant to their main point?

We included the following sentences on page 20611, line 2:

“Generally, the low ODRs along the cruise track are caused by the relatively low oceanic emissions. Since the observed atmospheric concentrations cannot be explained by the local oceanic emissions advection leads to the background concentrations of CH_2Br_2 and CHBr_3 . According to the backward trajectories, potential source regions may be found closer to the coast and to the South. The elevations of the atmospheric mixing ratios above the cold coastal upwelling can partly be explained by accumulation of local oceanic emissions in the stable low MABL. However, as the emissions appear generally not strong enough, except for methyl iodide, to explain the mixing ratios, the contribution of coastal sources is very likely (Figure 2b).”

And on page 20611, line 13:

“These numbers imply that observed VSLS concentrations are advected below the trade inversion in the more open ocean regions during the cruise. An overall discussion is given in Section 4.”

The remaining sentences of section 3.4 are removed (line 13-20).

A more detailed discussion of the phenomena is given within the general comments to the Reviewer 2 above and in the detailed discussion in Section 4 of the manuscript.

21. P. 20611-12, Section 3.5. Numbers are getting in the way of the points the authors need to make. There is a table of correlation coefficients. The authors should make the important points and simply refer to the table.

We agree and removed the numbers from the text referring to the Table 3, thus the text in the manuscript reduces to:

“Fuhlbrügge et al. (2013) identified the influence of meteorological conditions, in particular of MABL height variations on VSLS abundances in the tropical Northeast Atlantic above the Mauritanian Upwelling, and suggested a general correlation of MABL conditions and VSLS abundances over oceanic upwelling regions. Indeed, we also find significant high correlations between meteorological parameters and the abundances of bromoform, dibromomethane and methyl iodide (Table 3) along the Peruvian coast. The predominantly moderate winds during the cruise are negatively correlated with the atmospheric VSLS and positively correlated with the MABL height. This shows that VSLS abundances tend to be elevated during periods of lower wind speeds which occur also lead to reduced mixing of surface air and therefore to lower MABL heights, in particular above the coastal upwelling events on December 11, 15-17 and 24, 2012, where local sources could accumulate even more. SAT and SST both are negatively correlated with atmospheric VSLS, since elevated atmospheric VSLS mixing ratios are generally found close to the oceanic upwelling regions with low SATs and SSTs. In these regions the decrease of the SATs leads to an increase of the relative humidity (section 3.1), resulting in a significantly high correlation between the surface relative humidity and the VSLS. Since SAT and SST impact the MABL, which affects the relative humidity, these correlation coefficients are co-correlated with each other. Correlation coefficients between the MABL height and the VSLS are slightly lower (Table 3). A principle component analysis of the parameters in Table 3 furthermore underlined a strong connection between SAT, SST,

MABL height, relative humidity and atmospheric mixing ratios of CHBr_3 and CH_2Br_2 (not shown here).

The results reveal that the MABL properties (height and stability) during M91 influence the VSLs abundances at the marine surface, although not as distinct as above the Mauritanian Upwelling during the DRIVE campaign (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013). A comparison between the observations from this campaign and DRIVE (Figure 5) shows that the lower variance of observations during M91 may explain the lower correlation. Generally higher emissions and occasional lower and even more stable MABL-heights during DRIVE can explain up to 100% of the atmospheric abundances (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013; Hepach et al., 2014), while during M91 the observed elevations could only partly be explained by the local oceanic emissions.”

22. P. 20612-20614, Section 4.0, This is where an overall perspective of upwelling contributions and an understanding of overall uncertainties would really help. The authors make some good points here; I'd just like to see them better substantiated.

We agree and will therefore - in addition to the above discussed method uncertainties (reviewer comment 2) - include the following discussion on page 20614, line 5:

“The contribution of oceanic emissions to the atmospheric mixing ratios in the MABL of the Peruvian upwelling reveals to be rather low in its more open ocean area under the given meteorological conditions. While the cruise track covered a representative area of the Peruvian upwelling elevated oceanic VSLs emissions that could explain the generally high atmospheric VSLs were only observed for methyl iodide. Bromocarbon emissions would have to be two magnitudes larger to explain the observed VMR in the more open ocean regions and a magnitude larger in the direct coastal upwelling regions with low MABL heights. These observations of the brominated compounds need to include upwind advection of elevated sources from the South, and higher elevated coastal emissions not measured during the cruise, while dynamical fluctuations in emissions scenarios close to the cruise time and place may also have to be considered.”

23. *P. 20614-20616, too many numbers here. This should be a summary of the main points the authors are trying to make with their data, where the gaps in our understanding still are, what should be done to remedy those gaps, and why. The summary should be much shorter.*

We agree and shortened the summary accordingly by i.e. removing most numbers and concentrating on the main points:

“This study investigated the contribution of oceanic emissions to VSLS abundances in the lowermost atmosphere as well as meteorological constraints on this contribution above both, coastal upwelling and open ocean along the Peruvian coast during December 2012. Meteorological data were obtained on R/V METEOR near the ocean surface and by radiosondes up to the stratosphere. Oceanic VSLS emissions along the cruise track were determined from air and surface water data. The transport of air masses was determined with FLEXPART trajectories.

Oceanic upwelling was observed close to the Peruvian coast. On average a low, stable MABL height of 307 ± 177 m was encountered during the cruise, decreasing to on average 100 m above the upwelling. A distinct trade inversion at 1.1 ± 0.3 km height evolved as the dominant transport barrier for MABL air into the free troposphere during the cruise. The halogenated VSLS bromoform and dibromomethane showed low oceanic emissions of 117 ± 492 pmol m⁻² hr⁻¹ for bromoform and 245 ± 299 pmol m⁻² hr⁻¹ for dibromomethane, while methyl iodide emissions were elevated with 856 ± 623 pmol m⁻² hr⁻¹. The atmospheric mixing ratios of the compounds were elevated with 2.9 ± 0.7 ppt (bromoform), 1.3 ± 0.3 ppt (dibromomethane) and 1.5 ± 0.5 ppt (methyl iodide). The oceanic emissions along the cruise track explained on average only 3 % (-8 to 33 %) of bromoform, 10 % (-5 to 45 %) of dibromomethane, and 28 % (3 to 80 %) of methyl iodide abundances in the MABL. Thus, the expected significant contribution of local oceanic VSLS emissions from the Peruvian upwelling to the overlying atmosphere was not captured during the time and location of the cruise. The elevated atmospheric VSLS mixing ratios above the Peruvian upwelling therefore appear largely advected and enriched along the Peruvian coast before reaching the ship. Additional potential source regions must exist closer to the coast and also further South of the cruise track along the coast line. Nevertheless, significant correlations between the MABL height and marine atmospheric abundances of the VSLS reveal an impact of the oceanic emissions on the atmospheric VSLS mixing ratio variations.

Our study confirms that MABL height and stability are generally related with atmospheric VSLS abundances above oceanic upwelling regions. Additionally, a widespread trade

inversion can lead to a near-surface accumulation of the VSLS and thus also impact oceanic emissions. Despite the observed elevated atmospheric concentrations during the cruise, a significant contribution of oceanic emissions to the atmosphere, in particular of the bromocarbons CHBr_3 and CH_2Br_2 , was not identified in the observed area during the time of the cruise. Further studies are necessary to clearly uncover the source regions of the elevated atmospheric VSLS in the Peruvian upwelling. Also the double transport barrier phenomena should be investigated in future studies of other oceanic upwelling regions as well. “

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Relevant changes made in the manuscript:

- Section 3.2, 3.3, 3.5 and 5 have been revised, shortened and streamlined
- In Section 3.4 an explanation for the ODR results has been added
- An uncertainty discussion regarding our method has been added to Section 4
- Updating our results with most current lifetime estimates of bromoform, dibromomethane and methyl iodide from the WMO, 2014.
- Air-sea fluxes in the manuscript have been recalculated using the wind speed at 10m height instead of 25 m for the wind based transfer coefficient k_w .
- Figures:
 - Figure 1 is new
 - Figure 2 is now Figure 3
 - Figure 3 is now Figure 4
 - Figure 4 is now Figure 5, in addition we revised the colours and legend.

All changes are marked-up (**red: removed**, **blue: rewritten/new**) in the following:

Meteorological constraints on oceanic halocarbons above the Peruvian Upwelling

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Abstract

Halogenated very short lived substances (VSLS) are naturally produced in the ocean and emitted to the atmosphere. Recently, oceanic upwelling regions in the tropical East Atlantic were identified as strong sources of brominated halocarbons to the atmosphere. During a cruise of R/V METEOR in December 2012 the oceanic sources and emissions of various halogenated trace gases and their mixing ratios in the marine atmospheric boundary layer (MABL) were investigated above the Peruvian Upwelling for the first time. This study presents novel observations of the three VSLS bromoform, dibromomethane and methyl iodide together with high resolution meteorological measurements and Lagrangian transport modelling. Although relatively low oceanic emissions were observed, except for methyl iodide, surface atmospheric abundances were elevated. Radiosonde launches during the cruise revealed a low, stable MABL and a distinct trade inversion above acting both as strong barriers for convection and trace gas transport in this region. Significant correlations between observed atmospheric VSLS abundances, sea surface temperature, relative humidity and MABL height were found. We used a simple source-loss estimate to identify the contribution of oceanic emissions to observed atmospheric concentrations which revealed that the observed marine VSLS abundances were dominated by horizontal advection below the trade inversion. The observed VSLS variations can be explained by the low emissions and their accumulation under different MABL and trade inversion conditions. This study confirms the importance of oceanic upwelling and trade wind systems on creating effective transport

barriers in the lower atmosphere controlling the distribution of VSLS abundances above ocean upwelling regions.

1. Introduction

Short-lived halocarbons from the oceans contribute to reactive atmospheric halogens, which are involved in tropospheric and stratospheric ozone depletion, aerosol formation, and ~~more~~ other chemical cycles, influencing the fate of pollutants and climate (McGivern et al., 2000; Saiz-Lopez and von Glasow, 2012; Simpson et al., 2015). Recent studies have identified open ocean upwelling areas in the Atlantic as large source regions for a number of brominated and iodinated oceanic trace gases (Quack et al., 2004; Quack et al., 2007; O'Brien et al., 2009; Raimund et al., 2011; Hepach et al., 2015a). Their sources are related to biological and chemical processes in the productive waters of the upwelling. The compounds are emitted from the ocean and are horizontally transported and vertically mixed in the marine atmospheric boundary layer (MABL) (Carpenter et al., 2010). In the Mauritanian upwelling, it was found that besides oceanic sources meteorological conditions strongly influenced the atmospheric mixing ratio of the marine compounds bromoform (CHBr_3), dibromomethane (CH_2Br_2) and also methyl iodide (CH_3I) (Hepach et al., 2014). Especially the combination of a pronounced low MABL above cold upwelling waters with high concentrations and emissions of the compounds caused elevated atmospheric mixing ratios. In return, these atmospheric mixing ratios also reduce the marine emissions through a decrease of the sea-air concentration gradient (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013). Similar relationships would be expected for other oceanic upwelling areas, where not only the oceanic emissions, but also meteorological conditions in the lowermost atmosphere, i.e., the height, type and structure of the boundary layer and trade inversion, determine the VSLS contribution to atmospheric chemical processes. The intense oceanic upwelling in the Southeast Pacific off the coast of Peru transports large amounts of subsurface waters to the ocean surface and creates one of the highest productive oceanic regions worldwide (Codispoti et al., 1982). The Peruvian Upwelling is therefore a potentially intense source region for halogenated VSLS, e.g. bromoform (~~CHBr_3~~), dibromomethane (~~CH_2Br_2~~) and methyl iodide (~~CH_3I~~) (Yokouchi et al., 1999; Butler et al., 2007; Carpenter et al., 2009). Indeed, Schönhardt et al. (2008) detected elevated IO columns during September and November 2005 along the Peruvian coast with the SCIAMACHY satellite instrument and implied elevated iodine source gases from the Peruvian Upwelling.

Although, recent studies investigated halocarbons in the East Pacific (Yokouchi et al., 2008; Mahajan et al., 2012; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2012; Gómez Martín et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013) few studies concentrated on the Peruvian Upwelling in the Southeast Pacific. Only measurements of methyl iodide exist in this region, revealing atmospheric abundances of 7 ppt (Rasmussen et al., 1982). Observations of bromocarbons above the Peruvian Upwelling are lacking.

In this study we present a high resolution dataset of meteorological parameters, oceanic concentrations, emissions and atmospheric abundances of VSLS along the Peruvian coast and in the Upwelling. Not much is known of the oceanic source strength of the VSLS and the meteorological influence on the marine trace gas distribution and abundances in this region. The goal of this study is to assess the influence of oceanic upwelling and meteorological conditions on the atmospheric VSLS abundances above the Peruvian Upwelling, and the contribution of the local oceanic emissions to, respectively the MABL mixing ratios, and to free tropospheric VSLS concentrations.

The paper is structured as following. Chapter 2 gives an overview of the data and methods we use in this study. Chapter 3 presents the results from our atmospheric and oceanic observations and analyses the contribution from oceanic VSLS emissions to the MABL, as well as meteorological constraints on the observations. Chapter 4 discusses the results, before the study is summarized in Chapter 5.

2. Data and Methods

The cruise M91 on R/V METEOR from December 01 to 26, 2012 started and ended in Lima, Peru (Figure 1a). The ship reached the most northern position during the cruise on December 03, 2012 at 5° S. In the following three weeks the ship headed southward and reached its southern most position at 16° S on December 21, 2012. During this time the track alternated between open ocean sections and sections very close to the Peruvian coast in the cold upwelling waters to collect coastal as well as open ocean data. Diurnal variations were observed during 6 stations along the cruise track (Figure 2).

2.1 Meteorological observations

Meteorological measurements of surface air temperature (SAT), sea surface temperature (SST), relative humidity, air pressure, wind speed and direction were taken every second at about 25 m height on R/V METEOR and averaged to 10 minute intervals for our investigations. Atmospheric profiles of temperature, wind and humidity were obtained by

radiosonde launches at standard UTC time (0, 6, 12, 18 UTC) and additionally 3 hourly during the diurnal stations along the cruise track, using Vaisala RS92 radiosondes. Due to permission limitations, radiosondes could not be launched within 12 nautical miles of the Peruvian coast. The collected radiosonde data was integrated in near real time into the Global Telecommunication System (GTS) to improve meteorological reanalysis (e.g. ERA-Interim) and operational European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecast models (opECMWF).

2.2 MABL height

The radiosonde data are used to identify the height of the MABL, which is the atmospheric surface layer above the ocean in which trace gas emissions are mixed horizontally on a short time scale of an hour or less by convection and turbulence (Stull, 1988). Two different kinds of MABL can be distinguished, the convective and the stable MABL, which can be characterized by the gradient of the virtual potential temperature θ_v . A negative or neutral gradient reveals an unstable convective layer, while a positive gradient reveals a stable atmospheric layer. In case of an increase of the virtual potential temperature ~~from~~ near the surface, mixing in the MABL is suppressed. The upper limit of the convective MABL is set by a *stable layer*, e.g., a temperature inversion or a significant reduction in air moisture and is typically found above open ocean regions between 100 m and 3 km height (Stull, 1988; Seibert et al., 2000). For the determination of this *stable layer* above the convective MABL, we use the practical approach described in Seibert et al. (2000) and compute the virtual potential temperature during the radiosonde ascent whose increase with altitude indicates the base of a *stable layer*. In this study the base of this *stable layer* increased by half of this *stable layer* depth is the definition for the MABL height. Over oceanic upwelling regions this stable layer can even descend to the ocean surface (e.g. Höflich et al., 1972 and Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013).

2.2.1 Relative humidity

Estimates for atmospheric surface stability and MABL conditions in oceanic upwelling region can also be obtained from variations of the surface humidity. While the absolute humidity determines the amount of water in a specific volume of air, the relative humidity is the ratio of the partial pressure of water vapour to the equilibrium vapour pressure at the observed temperature. Variations of the SAT therefore directly influence the relative humidity at the surface. A decrease of the SAT due to cold upwelling water leads to an increase of the relative humidity, while the absolute humidity stays constant or even

decreases due to condensation of water vapour once the relative humidity reaches 100 % and the air is saturated with water vapour. An elevated relative humidity in this oceanic region therefore points to stable layers with suppressed mixing of surface air and to a low and stable MABL height.

2.2.2 Estimation of MABL height above the upwelling

To estimate the MABL height above upwelling areas close to the coast, where radiosonde launches were permitted (Section 2.1) a multiple linear regression was applied. Using observed meteorological parameters revealing significant correlations (see Section 3.5) with the observed MABL height, relative humidity (x_1), SAT (x_2), SST (x_3) and wind speed (x_4), along the cruise we obtained the following Eq. 1:

$$\text{MABL height} = b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + b_4x_4 \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

with $b_1 = -0.0117$; $b_2 = 0.0202$; $b_3 = 0.0467$; $b_4 = 0.0089$

2.3 Atmospheric VSLs measurements

A total of 198 air samples were collected 3 hourly during the cruise at about 20 m height on the 5th superstructure deck of R/V METEOR using a portside jib of 5 – 6 m. The air samples were pressurized to 2 atm in pre-cleaned stainless steel canisters with a metal bellows pump and were analyzed-analysed at the Rosenstiel School for Marine and Atmospheric Sciences (RSMAS, Miami, Florida) within 6 months after the cruise. Details about the analysis, the instrumental precision and the preparation of the samples are described in Schaufliet al. (1999) and Fuhlbrügge et al. (2013). The atmospheric mixing ratios were calculated with a NOAA standard (SX3573) from GEOMAR.

2.4 Oceanic concentrations and sea – air flux

102 water samples were taken ~~in-situ on a~~ 3 hourly at a depth of 6.8 m from a continuously working water pump in the hydrographic shaft, ~~basis from the moon pool~~ an opening in the base of the ship hull of R/V Meteor, ~~at a depth of 6.8 m from a continuously working water pump~~ after December 9, 2012. The samples were then analysed for bromoform, dibromomethane and methyl iodide and other halogenated trace gases by a purge and trap system, attached to a gas chromatograph combined with an ECD (electron capture detector)

with a precision of 10 % determined from duplicates. The approach is described in detail by Hepach et al. (2014).

2.4.1 Sea – air flux

The sea – air flux (F) of bromoform, dibromomethane and methyl iodide is calculated with k_w as transfer coefficient and Δc as concentration gradient between the water and equilibrium water concentration determined from the atmospheric concentrations (Eq. 2). The transfer coefficient was determined by the air – sea gas exchange parameterization of Nightingale et al. (2000) after a Schmidt number (Sc) correction for the three gases (Eq. 3).

$$F = k_w \cdot \Delta c \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

$$k_w = k_{CO_2} \cdot \frac{Sc^{-\frac{1}{2}}}{600} \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

Details on deriving the air – sea concentration gradient and emissions are further described in Hepach et al. (2014) and references therein.

2.5 Trajectory calculations

The Lagrangian Particle Dispersion Model FLEXPART of the Norwegian Institute for Air Research in the Department of Atmospheric and Climate Research (Stohl et al., 2005) was used to analyse the air mass origins and the transport of surface air masses along the cruise track to the free troposphere. ~~FLEXPART has been evaluated in previous studies~~ (Stohl et al., 1998; Stohl and Trickl, 1999). The model includes moist convection and turbulence parameterizations in the atmospheric boundary layer and free troposphere (Stohl and Thomson, 1999; Forster et al., 2007). We use the ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) reanalysis product ERA-Interim (Dee et al., 2011) with a horizontal resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ and 60 vertical model levels as meteorological input fields, providing air temperature, horizontal and vertical winds, boundary layer height, specific humidity, as well as convective and large scale precipitation with a 6 hourly temporal resolution. Due to the spatial resolution of ERA-Interim data along the Peruvian coast defining the land-sea mask of our trajectory calculations, 98 out of 140 release points for the forward and backward trajectory calculations were analysed along the cruise track. At each these release points 10,000 forward and 50 backward trajectories were launched from the

ocean surface within ± 30 minutes and ~ 20 m distance to the ship positions ~~from the ocean surface~~. Time and position of the release events are synchronized with air samples taken on R/V METEOR (Section 2.3~~2.3~~).

2.6 Oceanic contribution to MABL VSLS abundances

To obtain an estimate of the contribution of local oceanic sources to the atmospheric mixing ratios in the lowermost atmosphere above the Peruvian upwelling we apply a mass balance concept to the oceanic emissions, to the time scales of air mass transport and to the chemical loss (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2015). First we define a box above each release event with a size of $\sim 400 \text{ m}^2$ around the measurement location and the height of the MABL and assume a steady-state observed VSLS mixing ratio within the box (Figure 1). During each trajectory release event we assume the specific sea-air flux to be constant and the emissions to be homogeneously mixed within the box. Then the contribution of the sea-air flux is computed as the ratio of the VSLS flux from the ocean into the MABL (in mol per day) and the total amount of VSLS in the box (in mol) and is defined as the Oceanic Delivery (OD) and OD is given in percentage per day. In addition to the delivery of oceanic VSLS to the box, the loss of VSLS out of the box into the free troposphere is defined as the CONvective Loss (COL) and is derived from the mean residence time derived from the FLEXPART trajectories in the box during each release event. Since this process is a loss process, COL is given as a negative quantity and in percentage per day. The chemical degradation of VSLS by OH and photolysis in the MABL is considered by the chemical lifetime of each compound in the MABL. We use lifetimes of 16 days for bromoform and 60 days for dibromomethane (Hossaini et al., 2010) and 3 days for methyl iodide (R. Hossaini, personal communication), representative for the tropical boundary layer. The Chemical Loss (CL) acts as loss process as well and is given as a negative quantity in percentage per day. We further assume a steady state in the box. OD, COL and CL must therefore be balanced by an advective transport of air masses in and out of the box. The change of the VSLS through advective transport is defined as Advective Delivery (AD) and given in percentage per day.

By ~~relating-ratioing~~ OD to COL, we ~~receive-estimate~~ an Oceanic Delivery Ratio (ODR) (Eq. 4):

$$ODR = \frac{OD [\%d^{-1}]}{-COL [\%d^{-1}]} = \frac{Sea-Air \text{ flux contribution } [\%d^{-1}]}{Loss \text{ of box air to the FT } [\%d^{-1}]} \quad (\text{Eq. 4})$$

Similarly, the Chemical Loss in the box (CL) and ~~respectively~~, the change in VSLs due to advection (AD) are related to COL to get the Chemical Loss Ratio (CLR) and the Advective Delivery Ratio (ADR) with $ADR = 1 - CLR - ODR$. Since CL, OD and AD are divided by $-COL$, ratios for source processes are positive and negative for loss processes (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2015).

3. Observations on R/V METEOR

3.1. Meteorological observations

The Peruvian coast is dominated by the southern hemisphere trade wind regime with predominantly southeast winds (Figure 2Figure-1). The Andes, which are known to act as a barrier to zonal wind in this region, affect the horizontal air mass transport along the coast (Figure 2Figure-1b-d). The steeply sloping mountains at the coast form strong winds parallel to the South American coastline (Garreaud and Munoz, 2005), leading to distinct wind-driven oceanic upwelling of cold water along the coast. The 10-day backward trajectories reveal predominantly near-shore air masses with coastal influence and marine air masses (Figure 2Figure-1). The average wind direction observed on R/V Meteor during the cruise is $160^\circ \pm 34^\circ$ (mean $\pm \sigma$) with a moderate average wind speed of $6.2 \pm 2.2 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ (Figure 3Figure-2b). ERA-Interim reveals similar winds along the cruise track with a mean wind speed of $5.6 \pm 1.8 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ and a mean wind direction of $168^\circ \pm 21^\circ$ (not shown here). The divergence of the wind driven Ekman transport along the Peruvian coast leads to the observed oceanic upwelling of cold waters. The most intense upwelling is observed for several times near the coast where both, SST and SAT rapidly drop from $19 - 22^\circ\text{C}$ to less than 18°C (Figure 3a). This upwelling is observed for several times near the coast where both, SST and SAT rapidly drop to less than 18°C (Figure 2a). The impact of the cold upwelling water on the observed air masses is also visible in the observed humidity fields (Figure 3Figure-2c). Here, the decreasing SAT reduces the amount of water vapour that the surface air is able to contain, leading to an increase of the relative humidity. The decreasing SAT and increasing relative humidity above the oceanic upwelling indicate a stable atmospheric surface layer with ~~in~~ whichsuppressed vertical mixing ~~is suppressed~~. The absolute humidity stays constant or even decreases above the oceanic upwelling due to condensation of water vapour when surface air cools and becomes saturated, which coincides with fog observations on the ship above the upwelling regions. A decrease of the absolute humidity outside the upwelling points to a change in advected air masses for example between December 9 and 11, but also on December 19, 2012 (Figure 3Figure-2c).

3.2. VLS observations and oceanic emissions

Surface bromoform concentrations in the Peruvian upwelling ~~ocean surface~~ are generally lower during the cruise compared to the Mauritanian upwelling while dibromomethane surface water concentrations are comparable ~~range from 0.2—21.5 pmol L⁻¹ with a mean of 6.6 ± 5.5 (1σ) pmol L⁻¹ during the cruise (Figure 2d, Table 1).~~ However methyl iodide concentrations are almost 8 times higher than in the Mauritanian upwelling (Figure 3d, Table 1, Hepach et al., 2014). ~~Dibromomethane concentrations range from 0.2—12.7 pmol L⁻¹ with a mean of 4.3 ± 3.4 pmol L⁻¹ and methyl iodide concentrations range from 1.1—35.4 pmol L⁻¹ with a mean of 9.8 ± 6.3 pmol L⁻¹.~~ Samples taken in the upwelling areas show elevated concentrations compared to the open ocean for all compounds. For further discussion on the distribution of the oceanic halocarbons, see Hepach et al. (2016, submitted to ACPD).

~~Mixing—~~Atmospheric mixing ratios of ~~atmospheric~~ bromoform ~~range from 1.53—5.85 ppt during the cruise with an overall moderate mean of~~ are on average 2.91 ± 0.68 ppt (Table 1). ~~Elevated mixing ratios of >3 ppt are generally found above the oceanic upwelling areas close to the Peruvian coast, while these concentrations are hardly measured outside the oceanic upwelling (Figure 2e). Highest bromoform mixing ratios (> 4 ppt) are observed on December 23 and 24, 2012 at 15.3° S and 75.4° W. Dibromomethane mixing ratios range between 0.82 ppt and 2.04 ppt with an mixing ratios of overall low mean of 1.25 ± 0.26 ppt ppt are low and show a similar temporal pattern with bromoform (.~~ The atmospheric bromocarbons correlate with each other with $R = 0.79$ (Table 3Table 3). Like bromoform, also dibromomethane ~~mixing ratios are elevated above the oceanic upwelling areas, except for December 8, 2012, where an increase is also found outside the upwelling.~~ Mixing ratios of both compounds are significantly lower above the Peruvian upwelling compared to observations above the Mauritanian upwelling, while methyl iodide mixing ratios are comparable (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013). Elevated mixing ratios for all three compounds are generally found above intense cold oceanic upwelling regions close to the Peruvian coast (Figure 3e). While the bromocarbons double above the upwelling, methyl iodide mixing ratios increase up to 5-fold, showing its stronger accumulation in the low boundary layer.

The concentration ratio of dibromomethane and bromoform can be used as an indicator of fresh bromocarbon sources along coastal areas ~~for the age of bromocarbon sources along the coast.~~ Low ratios of about 0.1 have been observed at coastal source regions and are interpreted as the emission ratios of macro algae (Yokouchi et al., 2005; Carpenter et al., 2003). The applied shorter mean ~~boundary layer~~ lifetime of bromoform (~~16–15~~ days) in

contrast to dibromomethane (60–94 days) in the boundary layer after Hossaini et al. (2010) Carpenter et al. (2014) leads to an increase of the ratio during transport as long as the air mass is not enriched with fresh bromoform. A general decrease of the concentration ratio is found from the North to the South during the cruise (Figure 3f), implying relatively remote air masses in the North and an intensification of fresh sources towards the south, which is also reflected by the elevated water concentrations. ~~During the cruise the concentration ratio shows a gradient from the North to the South, with a mean of 0.44 ± 0.07 (Figure 2f). Thus, we find relatively remote air masses in the North with a concentration ratio of 0.70 on December 5 and lowest ratios down to 0.31 on December 24, 2012, which implies an intensification of fresh sources towards the South that is also reflected by elevated water concentrations.~~ Atmospheric methyl iodide measurements along the cruise track ~~ranges between 0.61 ppt and 3.21 ppt with an overall elevated~~ reveal a mean mixing ratio of 1.54 ± 0.49 ppt, which, similar to the two bromocarbons, ~~generally~~ maximizes over the ~~oceanic~~ coastal upwelling regions (Figure 3Figure 2e). ~~Correlations of methyl iodide with the bromocarbons result in $R = 0.79$ for bromoform and $R = 0.66$ for dibromomethane (Table 3).~~ Oceanic emissions during the cruise were calculated from the synchronized measurements of sea water concentrations and atmospheric mixing ratios, sea surface temperatures and wind speeds, measured on R/V METEOR (Section 2.4.1). Oceanic concentrations and atmospheric mixing ratios of each compound are weakly or not at all correlated ($R_{\text{bromoform}} = 0.00$, $R_{\text{dibromomethane}} = 0.29$ and $R_{\text{methyl iodide}} = 0.34$). Mean sea-air fluxes of the bromocarbons during the cruise are very low with ~~$130-117 \pm 554-492$ pmol m⁻² hr⁻¹ (for bromoform), and $273-245 \pm 334-299$ pmol m⁻² hr⁻¹ (for dibromomethane), and~~ but for methyl iodide the fluxes are elevated with 856 ± 623 pmol m⁻² h⁻¹ ~~954 ± 697 pmol m⁻² hr⁻¹ (methyl iodide)~~ (Figure 3Figure 2g, Table 1). ~~The low bromocarbon emissions are probably caused by the observed elevated VSLs atmospheric concentrations, relatively low oceanic VSLs concentrations and low wind speeds and SSTs. On the other site, the high concentrations of methyl iodide in the surface waters lead to high oceanic emissions and elevated atmospheric mixing ratios.~~ Further investigations of the distributions and sources of iodinated compounds during this cruise are carried out by Hepach et al. (2015b).

3.3. Lower atmosphere conditions

The relative humidity shows a strong vertical gradient from over 75 % to less than 50 % at ~1 km height (Figure 4a) which indicates an increase of the atmospheric stability with height due to suppressed mixing. This convective barrier, known as the trade inversion (Riehl, 1954,

1979;Höflich, 1972), is also reflected in the meridional wind (Figure 4b). Below ~1 km altitude the Southeast trade winds create a strong positive meridional wind component, also visible in the forward trajectories (Figure 2c-d). The flow of air masses in the Hadley Cell back to the subtropics causes a predominantly northerly wind above ~1 km height. The intense increase of θ_v in combination with the relative humidity decrease and the wind shear at ~1 km height identifies this level as a strong vertical transport barrier (Figure 4c). Above the cold upwelling water, temperature inversions create additional stable layers above the surface, leading to very low MABL heights of < 100 m, e.g., on December 03, 08 or 17, 2012 and to a reduced vertical transport of surface air. The mean MABL height from the radiosonde observations is 370 ± 170 m (ERA-Interim 376 ± 169 m). The relative humidity, SAT, SST and wind speed are good indicators for the MABL conditions in this oceanic region and these meteorological parameters show significant correlations with the observed MABL height (Table 3). Thus, we use a multiple linear regression based on these parameters to estimate the MABL height above the coastal upwelling (Section 2.2.2). The regressed MABL heights above the cold upwelling regions are 158 ± 79 m and go down to even 10 m as was previously observed above the Mauritanian Upwelling (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013). With the regressed MABL heights, the mean MABL height during the cruise decreases to 307 ± 177 m. The stable atmospheric conditions from the surface to the trade inversion lead to strong transport barriers and to a suppressed transport of surface and MABL air into the free troposphere (Figure 4d).

~~The atmospheric conditions in the lower troposphere, in particular the stability of the lowermost atmosphere and the height of the MABL, are obtained from radiosonde data launched along the cruise track. The relative humidity shows a strong vertical gradient at ~1 km height (Figure 3a). At this altitude, the relative humidity drops rapidly from over 75 % to less than 50 % which indicates a decrease in total humidity and/or an increase in air temperature due to suppressed mixing. The barrier for convective activity in this height, known as the trade inversion (Riehl, 1954, 1979;Höflich, 1972), is typically found over the eastern side of tropical oceans within the lower 3 km above the surface and caused by the large scale descending of air masses in the Hadley Cell (Riehl, 1954, 1979). This trade inversion is also reflected in the meridional wind observed by the radiosondes (Figure 3b). Air masses below ~1 km altitude have a strong positive meridional wind component due to the Southeast trade winds in this region, which is also visible in the forward trajectories (Figure 1c-d). The back flow of the trade winds in the Hadley Cell to the subtropics causes a predominantly Northerly wind above ~1 km height. The intense increase of θ_v in combination with the relative humidity decrease and the wind shear at ~1 km height identifies this level as~~

~~a strong vertical transport barrier (Figure 3c). However, the low SAT above the cold upwelling water creates additional stable layers below the trade inversion. In particular above the upwelling, these stable layers can reach the surface and lead to very low MABL heights, e.g., on December 03, 08 or 17, 2012 and a reduction in vertical surface air exchange. Meteorological observers on board the ship witnessed fog coinciding with the elevated relative humidity above upwelling regions lasting for almost 20 hours on December 15–16, 2012, confirming the suppressed mixing within the MABL. The mean MABL height from the radiosonde observations is 370 ± 170 m (ERA Interim 376 ± 169 m). Since the relative humidity, SAT, SST and wind speed are good indicators for the MABL conditions in this oceanic region and these meteorological parameters show significant correlations with the observed MABL height (Table 3), we use a multiple linear regression based on these parameters to estimate the MABL height above the upwelling (Section 2.2.2). With the regressed MABL heights above the upwelling, the mean MABL height during the cruise decreases to 307 ± 177 m and reveals the expected low mean MABL heights above cold upwelling regions of 158 ± 79 m and down to even 10 m as was previously observed above the Mauritanian Upwelling (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013). A 12 hourly ERA-Interim MABL height revealed an average height of 376 ± 169 m along the cruise track. The effects of the MABL and trade inversions transport barriers result in suppressed transport to the free troposphere (Figure 3d).~~

We interpret the observations as the following. In the region of the Peruvian Upwelling, compounds emitted from the ocean and observed at the marine surface are first homogeneously distributed within the MABL during a couple of hours, before advection transport them further within the second transport barrier of the lowermost atmosphere the trade wind inversion. For air masses above or close to oceanic upwelling regions, the MABL height is the first weak transport barrier on short time scales (hours), while the trade inversions acts as the second more pronounced barrier for vertical transport on long time scales (days).

3.4. Contribution of oceanic emissions to observed VSLS abundances in the MABL

We estimate the contribution of oceanic emissions to mixing ratios within the MABL and below the trade inversion with a VSLS source-loss estimate (Table 2). The loss of VSLS out of the MABL box is ~~-341~~^{351.7}~~0~~ % d⁻¹ and equal for all compounds, since it is computed

from the loss of trajectories out of the box. The loss is based on a mean residence time of the FLEXPART trajectories of 7 hours in the observed MABL height during the cruise. The ratio of the OD of each compound and the COL results in the particular ODR. The ODR reveals that on average only 3 % of the observed atmospheric bromoform in the MABL origins from nearby oceanic emissions and that 97–99 % are advected. Local oceanic emissions of dibromomethane contribute about 44–10 % of the observed abundances in the MABL, while methyl iodide emissions contribute with 34–28 %, which is far less compared to observations in other source regions with high convection as in the South China and Sulu Seas (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2015). Generally, the low ODRs along the cruise track are caused by the relatively low oceanic emissions. Since the observed atmospheric concentrations cannot be explained by the local oceanic emissions advection leads to the background concentrations of bromoform and methyl iodide. According to the backward trajectories, potential source regions may be found closer to the coast and to the South. The elevations of the atmospheric mixing ratios above the cold coastal upwelling can partly be explained by accumulation of local oceanic emissions in the stable low MABL. However, as the emissions appear generally not strong enough, except for methyl iodide, to explain the mixing ratios, the contribution of coastal sources is very likely (Figure 2b). While the surface air masses can leave the MABL within hours, they are suppressed from entering the free troposphere through the trade inversion barrier. Adapting an average trade inversion height of 1.1 km as the transport barrier for surface air masses into the free troposphere reveals an average residence time of the FLEXPART trajectories of 44–48 hrs below this trade inversion height. The atmospheric VSLs below the trade inversion originate to 42–11 % from oceanic emissions (ODR) for bromoform, to 37–33 % for dibromomethane and to 103–92 % for methyl iodide. The increased residence time of air masses below the trade inversion, reflected by the FLEXPART trajectories, leads to a stronger enrichment of air masses with VSLs from the oceanic emissions, reflected by OD, compared to the MABL box. However, the low sea-air fluxes of bromoform and dibromomethane are by far not strong enough to lead to the observed mixing ratios. These numbers imply that observed VSLs concentrations are advected below the trade inversion in the more open ocean regions during the cruise. An overall discussion is given in Section 4. ~~Oceanic emissions of methyl iodide could explain the atmospheric mixing ratios below the trade inversion (ODR), but the chemical degradation can destroy up to 72 % (CLR) of the observed amount within the residence time of the air masses below the trade inversion. Since the oceanic delivery is very low for the bromocarbons and the elevated oceanic delivery of methyl iodide is nearly compensated by the chemical~~

~~degradation, observed VSLS abundances of all three compounds are mostly advected during the cruise, which is reflected by high ADRs within the MABL and below the trade inversion (Table 2).~~

3.5. Meteorological constrains on atmospheric VSLS in the MABL

Fuhlbrügge et al. (2013) identified the influence of meteorological conditions, in particular of MABL height variations on VSLS abundances in the tropical Northeast Atlantic above the Mauritanian Upwelling, and suggested a general correlation of MABL conditions and VSLS abundances over oceanic upwelling regions. Indeed, we also find significant high correlations between meteorological parameters and the abundances of bromoform, dibromomethane and methyl iodide (Table 3) along the Peruvian coast. The predominantly moderate winds during the cruise are negatively correlated with the atmospheric VSLS and positively correlated with the MABL height. This shows that VSLS abundances tend to be elevated during periods of lower wind speeds which occur also lead to reduced mixing of surface air and therefore to lower MABL heights, in particular above the coastal upwelling events on December 11, 15-17 and 24, 2012, where local sources could accumulate even more. SAT and SST both are negatively correlated with atmospheric VSLS, since elevated atmospheric VSLS mixing ratios are generally found close to the oceanic upwelling regions with low SATs and SSTs. In these regions the decrease of the SATs leads to an increase of the relative humidity (section 3.1), resulting in a significantly high correlation between the surface relative humidity and the VSLS. Since SAT and SST impact the MABL, which affects the relative humidity, these correlation coefficients are co-correlated with each other. Correlation coefficients between the MABL height and the VSLS are slightly lower (Table 3). A principle component analysis of the parameters in Table 3 furthermore underlined a strong connection between SAT, SST, MABL height, relative humidity and atmospheric mixing ratios of bromoform and dibromomethane (not shown here).

The results reveal that the MABL properties (height and stability) during M91 influence the VSLS abundances at the marine surface, although not as distinct as above the Mauritanian Upwelling during the DRIVE campaign (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013). A comparison between the observations from this campaign and DRIVE (Figure 5) shows that the lower variance of observations during M91 may explain the lower correlation. Generally higher emissions and occasional lower and even more stable MABL-heights during DRIVE can explain up to 100% of the atmospheric abundances (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013; Hepach et al., 2014), while

during M91 the observed elevations could only partly be explained by the local oceanic emissions. et al. (2013) identified the influence of meteorological conditions, in particular of MABL height variations on VSLS abundances in the tropical Northeast Atlantic above the Mauritanian Upwelling, and suggested a general correlation of MABL conditions and VSLS abundances over oceanic upwelling regions. Indeed, we also find significant high correlations between meteorological parameters and the abundances of bromoform, dibromomethane and methyl iodide (Table 3) along the Peruvian coast. The predominantly moderate winds during the cruise are negatively correlated with the atmospheric VSLS (bromoform $R = -0.38$, dibromomethane $R = -0.53$, and methyl iodide $R = -0.33$) and positively correlated with the MABL height ($R = 0.44$) implying that VSLS abundances tend to be elevated during periods of lower wind speeds, which in return lead to less mixing of surface air and therefore to lower MABL heights, in particular on December 11, 15–17 and 24, 2012. SAT and SST both correlate with atmospheric VSLS. Bromoform correlates with SAT and SST with $R = -0.50$, respectively $R = -0.57$. Correlation coefficients between methyl iodide, SAT and SST are slightly lower with $R = -0.37$ and $R = -0.42$, while dibromomethane has the strongest negative correlation to SAT ($R = -0.78$) and SST ($R = -0.81$). Generally high correlations between a meteorological parameter and the VSLS are found for the relative humidity with $R = 0.74$, $R = 0.77$ and $R = 0.67$ (bromoform, dibromomethane and methyl iodide). Correlation coefficients between the MABL height and the VSLS are slightly lower with $R = 0.55$, $R = 0.61$, respectively $R = 0.45$. Since SAT and SST impact the MABL, which affects the relative humidity, these correlation coefficients are co-correlated with each other. The results reveal that the MABL properties (height and character) influence the VSLS abundances at the marine surface, although not as distinct as above the Mauritanian Upwelling (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013). A comparison between the observations from the Peruvian Upwelling and the Mauritanian Upwelling (Figure 4) shows that the variance of the former may explain the lower correlation. Reasons for this are discussed in the following.

4. Discussion

The observations reveal a significant correlation between the MABL height and atmospheric VSLS abundances above the Peruvian Upwelling. However, the correlation coefficients between the determined MABL height and the atmospheric VSLS are not as high as above the Mauritanian Upwelling during the DRIVE campaign (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013). Reasons might be the large area of the investigated region in the Northeast Atlantic Ocean during the

DRIVE campaign (25 ° latitude x 10 ° longitude) in contrast to this study along the Peruvian coast (12 ° latitude x 2 ° longitude). M91 observations therefore involve less variability of covered oceanic regimes of open ocean and coastal upwelling, VSLs concentrations and meteorological parameters, in particular of the MABL height, than the DRIVE observations. The Andes along South America lead to predominantly Southerly winds along the West coast line with minor continental influence, while the Mauritanian Upwelling is influenced by both, maritime and continental air masses. The latter can lead to strong surface inversions above the Mauritanian Upwelling and strongly suppressed mixing of surface air. Although our investigations revealed low MABL heights close to the Peruvian coast, the distinct surface inversions as observed above the Mauritanian Upwelling are not present in the available radiosonde data for this Peruvian Upwelling region. In addition, the relatively low sea-air fluxes of bromoform and dibromomethane, caused by moderate winds and small concentration gradients between the surface ocean and the surface atmosphere, as well as the short lifetime of methyl iodide lead to an insufficient enrichment of VSLs in the atmosphere. The observed air masses therefore contain VSLs mixing ratios which are predominantly advected. This is confirmed by our computed ADR (Section 3.4). The backward trajectories reveal air masses originating from the open ocean, which are transported along the coast for about 5 days until they reach the ship. In combination with the distinct trade inversion acting as strong barrier to the vertical mixing of trace gases, air-masses along the coast travel close to the surface where they can be enriched with local emissions before they are observed on-board. In addition, the in-situ observed oceanic emissions along the cruise track of R/V METEOR therefore cause small variations to the accumulated background mixing ratios of the advected air masses. This leads to lower correlation coefficients between the MABL height and the VSLs abundances compared to the Mauritanian Upwelling. Although the oceanic emissions are already well mixed within days below the trade inversion, methyl iodide mixing ratios indicate a positive correlation with the trade inversion height, which is unexpected. The correlation coefficient might be artificial, as we observe elevated methyl iodide above the upwelling, where trade wind inversion heights are missing but can be assumed to be low (Riehl, 1954), which is also indicated by the correlation coefficients with SAT and SST. Nevertheless, this circumstance should be taken into account in future studies.

The contribution of oceanic emissions to the atmospheric mixing ratios in the MABL of the Peruvian upwelling reveals to be rather low in its more open ocean area under the given meteorological conditions. While the cruise track covered a representative area of the

Peruvian upwelling elevated oceanic VSLs emissions that could explain the generally high atmospheric VSLs were only observed for methyl iodide. Bromocarbon emissions would have to be two magnitudes larger to explain the observed VMR in the more open ocean regions and a magnitude larger in the direct coastal upwelling regions with low MABL heights. These observations of the brominated compounds need to include upwind advection of elevated sources from the South, and higher elevated coastal emissions not measured during the cruise, while dynamical fluctuations in emissions scenarios close to the cruise time and place may also have to be considered.

Uncertainties may result from the applied method, which accounts for a 400 m² box around a measurement point assuming steady state. The cruise track covered a significantly large area of the Peruvian Upwelling between 5° S and 16° S and higher elevated seas surface concentrations and emissions are not to be expected during these rather stable meteorological conditions. Additional uncertainties in our source-loss estimate may arise from deficiencies in the meteorological input fields from ERA-Interim reanalysis as well as from the air mass transport simulated by FLEXPART. Both could lead to either a shorter or longer residence time of the surface air masses within the MABL or below the trade inversion and thus influence the COL term. In particular very close to the coast, where the source-loss estimate could not be applied due to the trajectory analysis gaps (Section 2.5), the ODRs of the compounds might be different. Here potential high coastal emissions in combination with stable atmospheric stratification leading to slow vertical transport into the free troposphere, could significantly increase the oceanic contribution to the MABL and to the atmosphere below the trade inversion and explain the elevated atmospheric mixing ratios. In addition, different parameterizations for the wind-based transfer coefficient k_w , as discussed in Lennartz et al. (2015) and Fuhlbrügge et al (2015) in more detail, can impact the air-sea gas exchange and thus the ODRs. Applying the k_w parameterizations of Liss and Merlivat (1986) as well as Wanninkhof and McGillis (1999) lead both to mean ODRs in the MABL of 0.02 (bromoform), 0.07 (dibromomethane) and 0.21 (methyl iodide) and below the trade inversion of 0.08 / 0.08 (bromoform), 0.25 / 0.26 (dibromomethane) and 0.69 / 0.75 (methyl iodide) and thus an even lower oceanic contribution to the atmosphere in this region. Further uncertainties may arise from variations of the MABL VSLs lifetimes and thus the chemical degradation of the compounds we use in this study. This would affect the computed advection (ADR) and not the oceanic contribution.

After the air masses are observed on R/V METEOR, the 10 day FLEXPART forward trajectories reveal a near-surface transport towards the equator (Figure 2Figure 1c-d). These

trajectories predominantly stay below 1 km altitude due to the horizontal extent of the trade inversion. The contribution of oceanic VSLs emissions from the Peruvian Upwelling to the free troposphere above this region is therefore strongly suppressed by the trade inversion (Figure 4Figure 3d). A contribution of oceanic emissions from the Peruvian Upwelling to the free troposphere is only achieved in the inner tropics after a transport time of 5 – 8 days, where the VSLs abundances are transported into higher altitudes. Since the lifetime of methyl iodide is only 4 days in the MABL a significant contribution of methyl iodide from the Peruvian upwelling to observations made by Yokouchi et al. (2008) at San Cristobal, Galapagos is not to be expected. However, it can partly explain the elevated IO observed above the Peruvian upwelling (Hepach et al., 2016, to be submitted; Schönhardt et al., 2008). ~~A contribution of oceanic emissions from the Peruvian Upwelling to the free troposphere is only achieved in the ITCZ after a transport time of 5 – 8 days, where the VSLs abundances are transported into higher altitudes. These transport paths may also explain the elevated methyl iodide observed by Yokouchi et al. (2008) at San Cristobal, Galapagos and the elevated IO of Schönhardt et al. (2008) and Dix et al. (2013) in the tropical East Pacific.~~ The elevated mixing ratios of methyl iodide is further investigated by Hepach et al. (2015b). It has to be noted that the determined low contribution of oceanic emissions and boundary layer air to the free troposphere in this region is only representative for normal El Niño Southern Oscillation conditions as it was observed in December 2012 (http://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/analysis_monitoring/enso_disc_nov2012/ensodisc.pdf). Since the Walker Circulation is reversed during El Niño, upwelling along the Peruvian coast is known to be suppressed and convective activity enhanced (Philander, 1989).

5. Summary

This study investigated the contribution of oceanic ~~VSLs~~ emissions to ~~their~~ VSLs abundances in the lowermost atmosphere as well as meteorological constraints on this contribution above both, ~~oceanic-coastal~~ upwelling ~~regions~~ and open ocean along the Peruvian coast during December 2012. Meteorological data were ~~measured~~ obtained on R/V METEOR near the ocean surface and by radiosondes ~~launched~~ up to the stratosphere. Oceanic VSLs emissions along the cruise track were determined from air and ~~water samples taken near the ocean surface~~ surface water data. ~~To investigate the transport of the observed air masses, FLEXPART forward and backward trajectories were computed~~ The transport of air masses was determined with FLEXPART trajectories.

Oceanic upwelling was observed close to the Peruvian coast ~~by SST decreases to 15 °C~~
~~caused by the wind driven Ekman transport along the coast line with observed moderate wind~~
~~speeds of $6.2 \pm 2.2 \text{ ms}^{-1}$. The oceanic upwelling coincided with elevated relative humidity~~
~~including the formation of low level fog.~~ On average a low, stable MABL height of $307 \pm$
 177 m was ~~determined from radiosonde launches and multiple linear regressions~~ encountered
 during the cruise, decreasing to on average 100 m above the upwelling. ~~A decrease of the~~
~~MABL height from the open ocean towards the coast was observed. The radiosonde launches~~
~~also revealed a~~ distinct trade inversion at $1.1 \pm 0.3 \text{ km}$ height evolved as the dominant
 transport barrier for MABL air into the free troposphere during the cruise. ~~This study~~
~~concentrates on the three~~ The halogenated VSLS: bromoform, ~~and~~ dibromomethane ~~and~~
 methyl iodide. ~~Except for methyl iodide, showed low oceanic emissions were low with of 130~~
 $117 \pm 554\text{--}492 \text{ pmol m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ for bromoform, ~~and~~ $273\text{--}245 \pm 334\text{--}299 \text{ pmol m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ for
 dibromomethane, ~~and while methyl iodide emissions were elevated with~~ $954\text{--}856 \pm 697\text{--}623$
 $\text{pmol m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ ~~for methyl iodide. Despite the low oceanic emissions, t~~ The atmospheric mixing
 ratios of the compounds were elevated with $2.9 \pm 0.7 \text{ ppt}$ (bromoform), $1.3 \pm 0.3 \text{ ppt}$
 (dibromomethane) and $1.5 \pm 0.5 \text{ ppt}$ (methyl iodide). ~~According to our FLEXPART ERA-~~
~~Interim trajectory calculations, the average residence time of surface air masses in the~~
~~observed MABL was 7 hours. Once these air masses left the MABL, they were suppressed in~~
~~their vertical movement by the trade inversion, which was reflected by an average residence~~
~~time of 41 hours below the trade inversion. This additional distinct inversion layer evolved as~~
~~the dominant transport barrier for MABL air into the free troposphere and led to an~~
~~accumulation of air masses and the VSLS abundances therein observed during the cruise.~~
~~With a simple source loss estimate we computed the ratio between the contribution of~~
~~oceanic emissions and advection to the loss of air into the free troposphere.~~ The oceanic
 emissions along the cruise track explained on average only ~~12 %~~ 3 % (-8 to 33 %) ~~for of~~
 bromoform, ~~and 37 %~~ 10 % (-5 to 45 %) ~~for of~~ dibromomethane, ~~but and 103 %~~ 28 % (3 to
 80 %) ~~for of~~ methyl iodide ~~of the observed VSLS abundances. Considering the chemical~~
~~degradation of the compounds during the residence time of the trajectories below the trade~~
~~inversion in the MABL. Thus, the expected significant contribution of local oceanic VSLS~~
 emissions from the Peruvian upwelling to the overlying atmosphere was not captured during
 the time and location of the cruise, ~~a residual advective transport of 104 % (bromoform), 68~~
~~% (dibromomethane) and 69 % (methyl iodide) was necessary to explain the observed~~
~~atmospheric VSLS mixing ratios.~~ The elevated atmospheric VSLS ~~observed on R/V~~
~~METEOR were~~ mixing ratios above the Peruvian upwelling therefore appear largely

advected and enriched along the Peruvian coast before reaching the ship. –Additional
 potential source regions must exist closer to the coast and also further South of the cruise
 track along the coast line. Nevertheless, significant correlation ~~coefficients~~ between the
 MABL height and marine atmospheric abundances of bromoform ($R = 0.55$),
 dibromomethane ($R = 0.61$), respectively methyl iodide ($R = 0.45$) the VSLs reveal an
 impact of the low-oceanic emissions on the atmospheric VSLs abundances. The lower
 correlation between the MABL height and the atmospheric VSLs in this oceanic region
 compared to the Mauritanian Upwelling was identified to be caused by less variability of
 oceanic regimes and more stable atmospheric regimes during this cruise mixing ratio
 variations.
 Our study confirms that MABL height and characteristics stability is are generally related
 with atmospheric VSLs abundances above oceanic upwelling regions. Additionally, a
 widespread trade inversion can lead to a near-surface accumulation of the VSLs which
 impacts oceanic emissions and therefore feedback on VSLs concentrations in the lower
 atmosphere. The and thus also impact oceanic emissions. Despite the observed elevated
 atmospheric concentrations during the cruise, a significant contribution of oceanic emissions
 to the atmosphere, in particular of the bromocarbons bromoform and dibromomethane, was
 not identified in the observed area during the time of the cruise. Further studies are necessary
 to clearly uncover the source regions of the elevated atmospheric VSLs in the Peruvian
 upwelling. Also the double transport barrier phenomena should be investigated in future
 studies of other oceanic upwelling regions as well.

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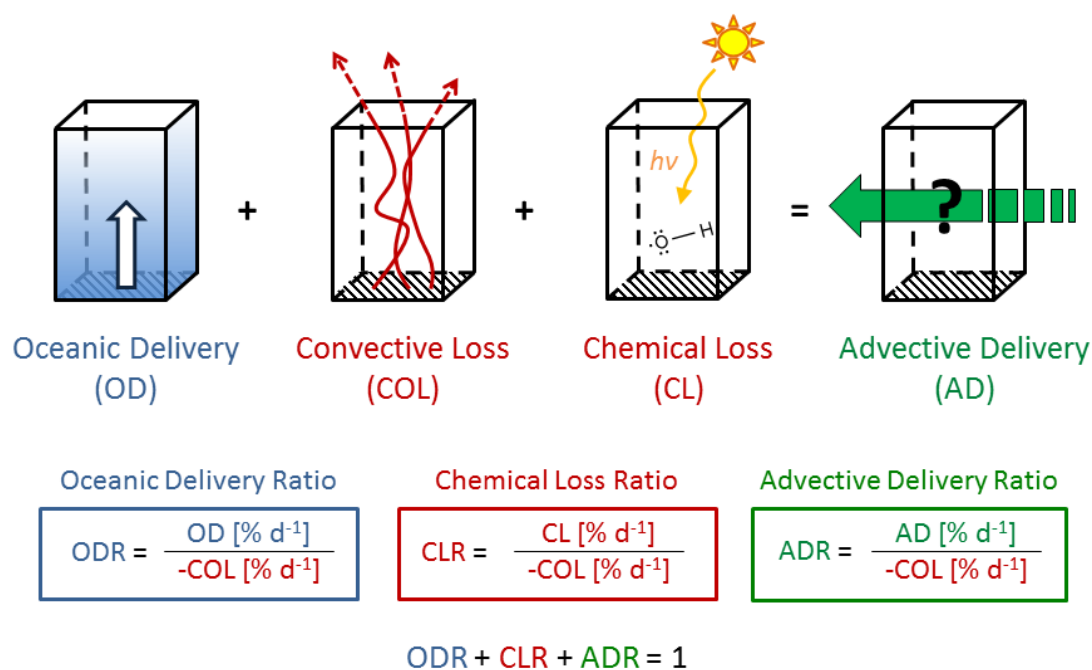
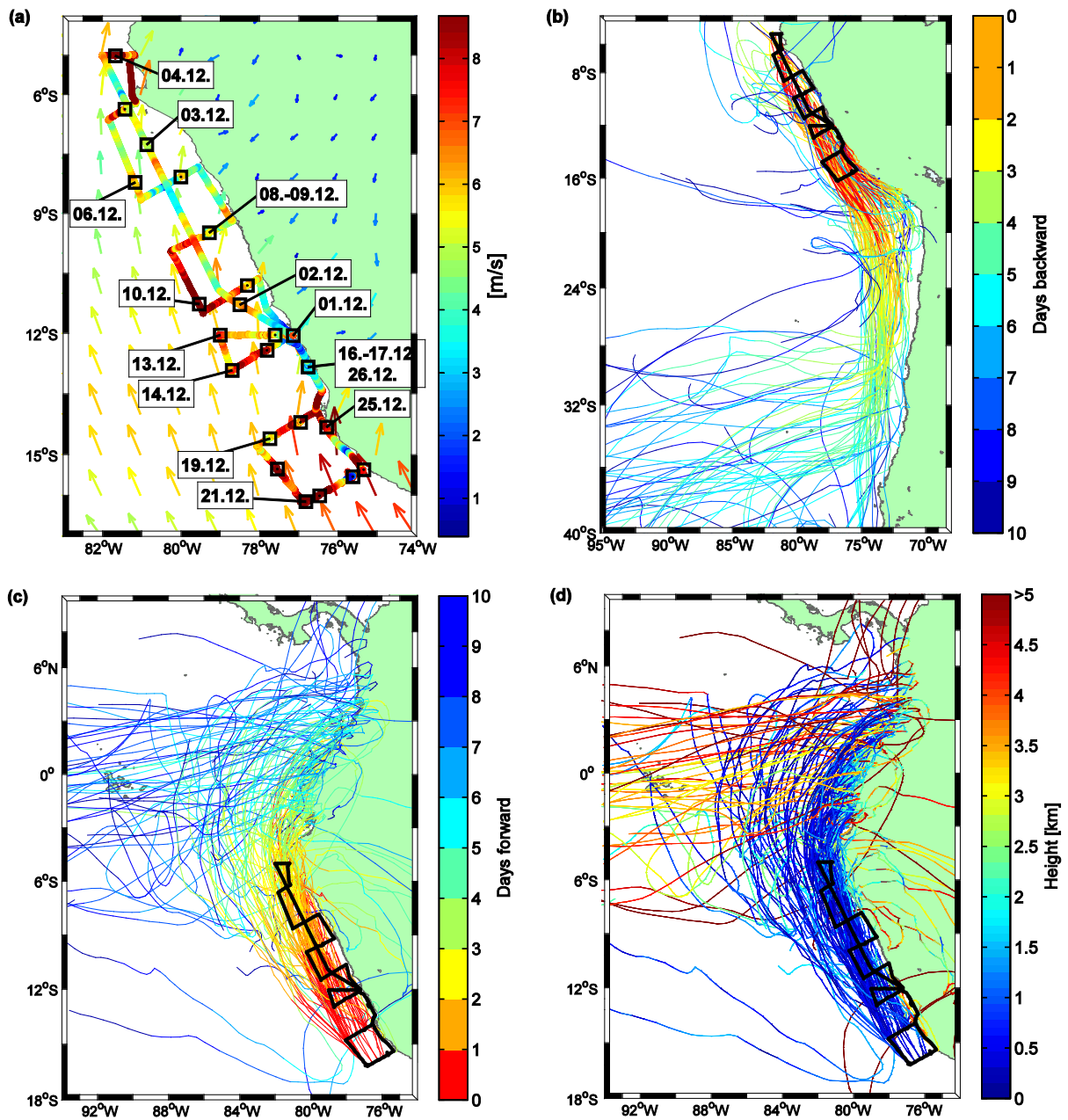
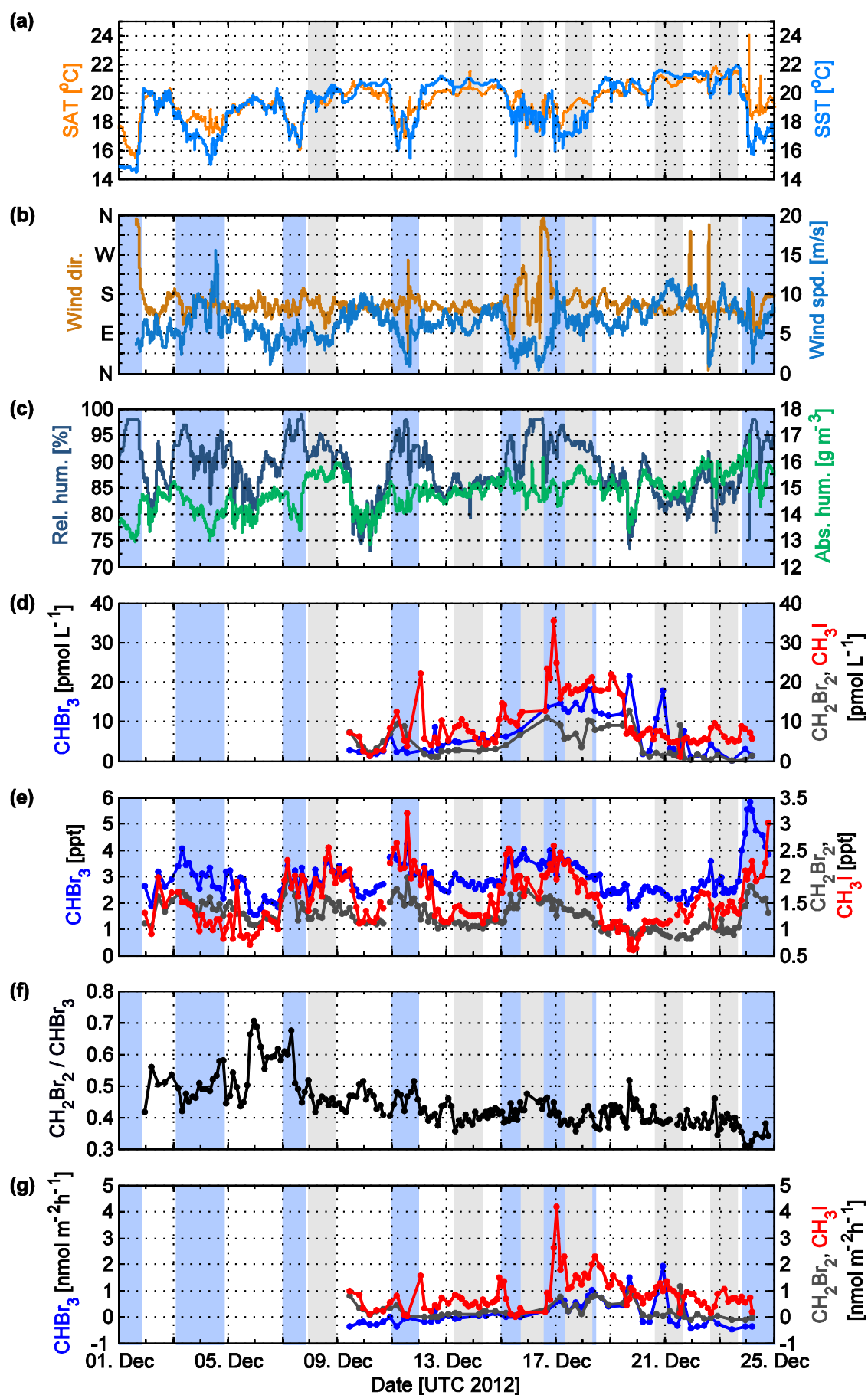


Figure 1: Schematic summary of the components of the applied mass-balance concept from Fuhlbrügge et al. (2015): Oceanic Delivery (OD), the Convective Loss (COL), the Chemical Loss (CL), the Advective Delivery (AD), the Oceanic Delivery Ratio (ODR), the Chemical Loss Ratio (CLR) and the Advective Delivery Ratio (ADR). The shaded area reflects an area of 400 m².



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667 Figure 2a-d: (a) 10 minute mean of wind speed observed on R/V METEOR displayed along
 668 the cruise track; monthly mean (December 2012) of 10 m wind speed and direction from
 669 ERA-Interim displayed as arrows. (b) Extract from 10-day FLEXPART backward trajectories
 670 coloured according to the time until they reach the specific ship position on the cruise track of
 671 R/V METEOR (black). (c) Extract from 10-day FLEXPART forward trajectories coloured
 672 according to the time since they were released. (d) same as c) coloured according to the
 673 height (km) of the trajectories.

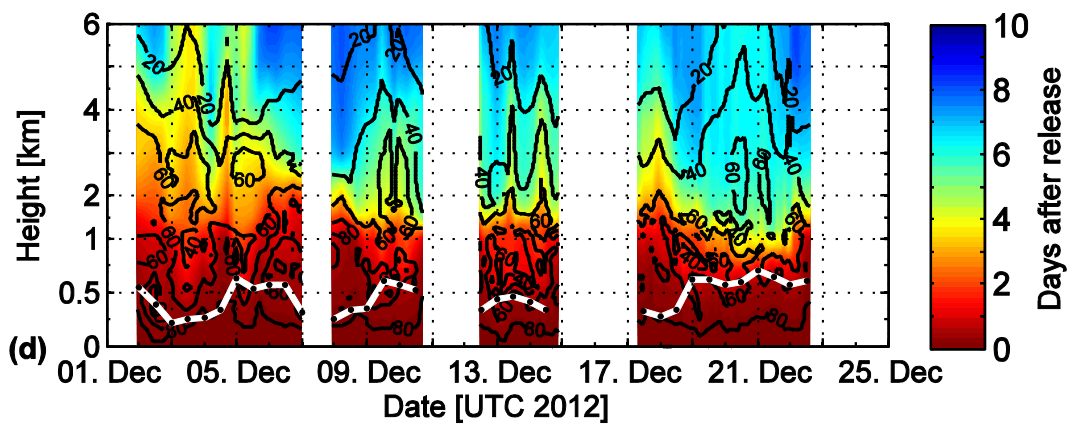
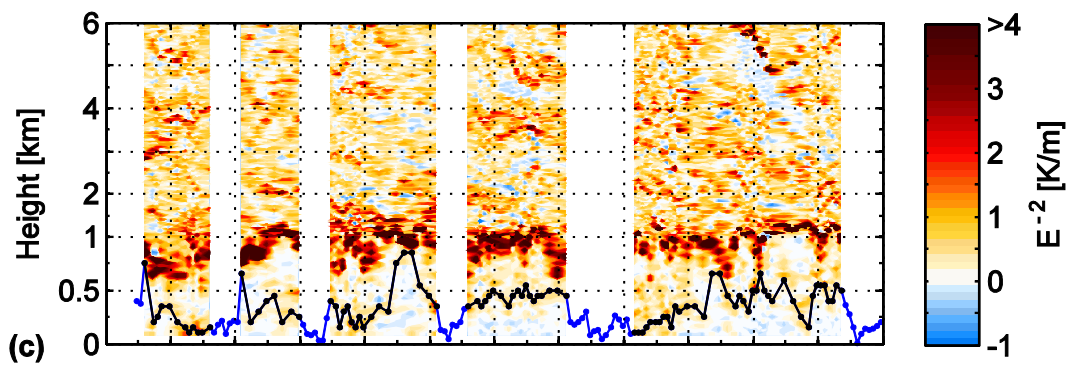
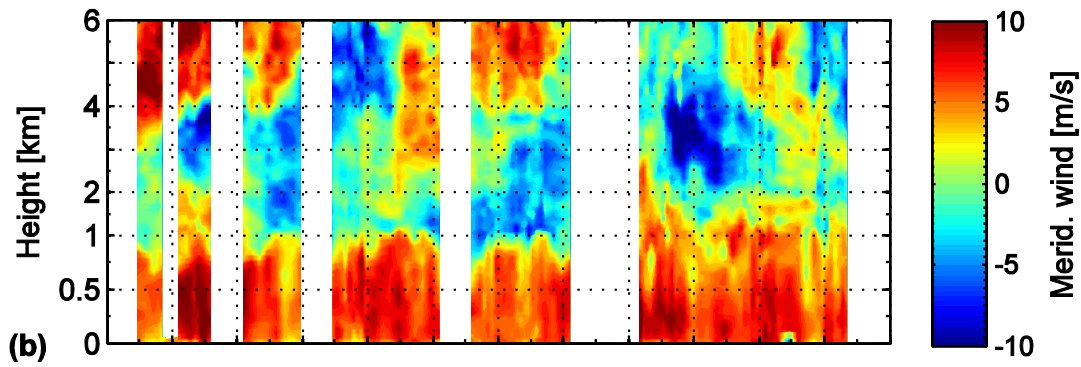
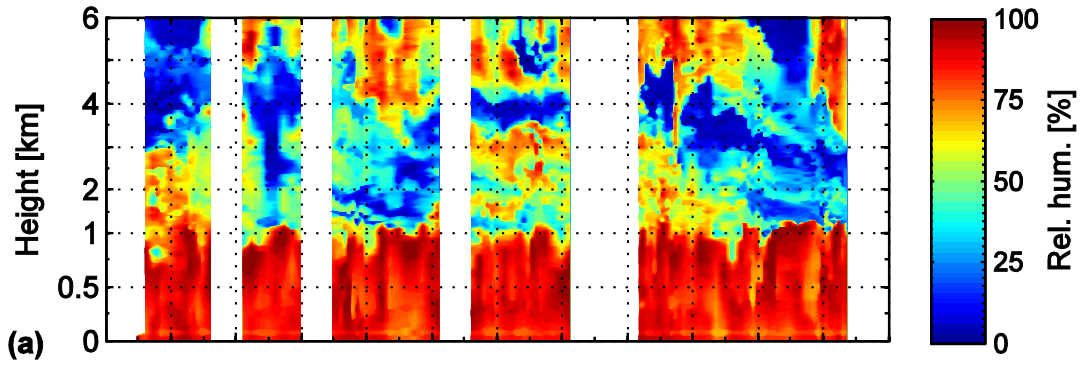


675 Figure 3a-e: Observations during December 1 – 25, 2012 on R/V METEOR. Diurnal stations
 676 are indicated by grey background shades. (a) 10 minute mean of the SAT (orange) and the
 677 SST (blue) in °C. According to SST decrease, upwelling regions are marked with a light blue
 678 background shade in ~~Figure 3~~ ~~Figure 2~~ b-e. (b) 10 minute mean of wind direction in cardinal
 679 directions (ocher) and wind speed in m/s (blue). (c) 10 minute mean of relative humidity in %
 680 (dark blue) and absolute humidity in gm^{-3} (green). (d) Oceanic surface concentrations of
 681 bromoform (CHBr_3 , blue), dibromomethane (CH_2Br_2 , dark grey) and methyl iodide (CH_3I ,
 682 red) in pmol L^{-1} . (e) Atmospheric mixing ratios of bromoform, dibromomethane and methyl
 683 iodide in ppt. (f) Concentration ratio of dibromomethane and bromoform. (g) Sea-air flux for
 684 bromoform, dibromomethane and methyl iodide in $\text{pmol m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$.

685 Table 1: Oceanic concentrations, atmospheric mixing ratios and sea-air fluxes of bromoform
686 (CHBr_3), dibromomethane (CH_2Br_2), the concentration ratio of bromoform and
687 dibromomethane and methyl iodide (CH_3I) observed during the cruise. Values are given in
688 mean $\pm 1\sigma$ [range].

	CHBr_3	CH_2Br_2	$\text{CH}_2\text{Br}_2 / \text{CHBr}_3$	CH_3I
Oceanic concentration [pmol L^{-1}]	6.6 ± 5.5 [0.2 – 21.5]	4.3 ± 3.4 [0.2 – 12.7]	0.9 ± 0.8 [0.1 – 4.2]	9.8 ± 6.3 [1.1 – 35.4]
Atmospheric mixing ratio [ppt]	2.9 ± 0.7 [1.5 – 5.9]	1.3 ± 0.3 [0.8 – 2.0]	0.4 ± 0.1 [0.3 – 0.7]	1.5 ± 0.5 [0.6 – 3.2]
Sea-air flux [$\text{pmol m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$]	130 117 \pm 554 492 [- 550 477 – 220 1916]	273 245 \pm 334 299 [- 128 112 – 132 1169]	0.4 ± 8.6 [-24.5 – 48.9]	954 856 \pm 697 623 [21 18 – 4687 4179]

689



694 Figure 4: (a-c) Radiosonde observations of the lower 6 km of the atmosphere between
695 December 2 and 24, 2012 on R/V Meteor. Shown are (a) the relative humidity in %, (b) the
696 meridional wind in m/s and (c) the gradient of the virtual potential temperature in E^{-2} K/m in
697 combination with the determined MABL height (black) and the complimented MABL height
698 above the oceanic upwelling from the multiple linear regressions (blue). (d) Distribution of
699 10-day FLEXPART forward trajectories. The black contour lines give the amount of
700 trajectories in percentage that reach a specific altitude within the 10 days. The elapsed time in
701 days until these trajectories reach this height is reflected by the colour shading. The white line
702 shows the ERA-Interim MABL height at the ship position. Trajectory analyses gaps close to
703 the coast are whitened (Section 2.5). The y-axes are non-linear.

Table 2: Mean $\pm 1\sigma$ of Oceanic Delivery (OD), Advective Delivery (AD), Chemical Loss (CL), CONvective Loss (COL), Oceanic Delivery Ratio (ODR), Advective Delivery Ratio (ADR) and Chemical Loss Ratio (CLR) of bromoform (CHBr_3), dibromomethane (CH_2Br_2) and methyl iodide (CH_3I). Parameters have been computed for a box with the vertical extension of the MABL height (MABLH) and a mean trade inversion height of 1.1 km (TIH).

		OD [% d ⁻¹]	AD [% d ⁻¹]	CL [% d ⁻¹]	COL [% d ⁻¹]	ODR	ADR	CLR
CHBr_3	MABLH	109.21 \pm 3128.20	347349.50 \pm 114113.34	-67.61	- 341351.70 \pm 118109.24	0.03 \pm 0.0908	0.99 \pm 0.0908	-0.02 \pm 0.01
	TIH	43.49 \pm 1312.60	5253.32 \pm 2423.32	-67.61	-5850.50 \pm 2718.4	0.1211 \pm 0.45	1.0406 \pm 0.4439	- 0.1617 \pm 0.07
CH_2Br_2	MABLH	3632.01 \pm 4338.57	317320.01 \pm 117115.26	-1.82	- 341351.70 \pm 118109.24	0.1110 \pm 0.1211	0.90 \pm 0.1211	- 0.0100 \pm 0.00
	TIH	1513.38 \pm 1816.65	3637.54 \pm 2725.49	-1.82	-5850.50 \pm 2718.4	0.3733 \pm 0.6154	0.67 \pm 0.6154	- 0.0403 \pm 0.0201
CH_3I	MABLH	8896.29 \pm 5348.71	276286.21 \pm 122119.67	- 3024.70	- 341351.70 \pm 118109.24	0.3128 \pm 0.1817	0.7980 \pm 0.1716	- 0.1008 \pm 0.034
	TIH	4136.18 \pm 2320.05	3937.52 \pm 3432.21	- 3024.70	-5850.50 \pm 2718.4	10.0392 \pm 0.7869	0.6964 \pm 0.6655	- 0.7256 \pm 0.3124

Table 3: Spearman correlation coefficients (R) of meteorological parameters, MABL height and trade inversion height correlated with atmospheric bromoform (CHBr₃), dibromomethane (CH₂Br₂) and methyl iodide (CH₃I). MABL height* is the determined MABL height from the radiosonde launches, complimented by the regressed MABL height (Section 3.3). Bold coefficients have a p-value of < 0.05.

	MABL height	MABL height*	Trade inversion	CHBr ₃	CH ₂ Br ₂	CH ₃ I
Wind speed	0.35	0.44	-0.06	-0.38	-0.53	-0.33
SAT	0.65	0.79	0.24	-0.50	-0.78	-0.37
SST	0.66	0.80	0.23	-0.57	-0.81	-0.42
SAT – SST	-0.39	-0.47	-0.11	0.38	0.48	0.30
Rel. humidity	-0.77	-0.81	-0.06	0.74	0.77	0.67
MABL height*	-	-	0.08	-0.55	-0.61	-0.45
CHBr ₃	-0.55	-0.60	-0.03	-	0.79	0.79
CH ₂ Br ₂	-0.61	-0.72	-0.02	0.79	-	0.66
CH ₃ I	-0.45	-0.50	0.30	0.79	0.66	-

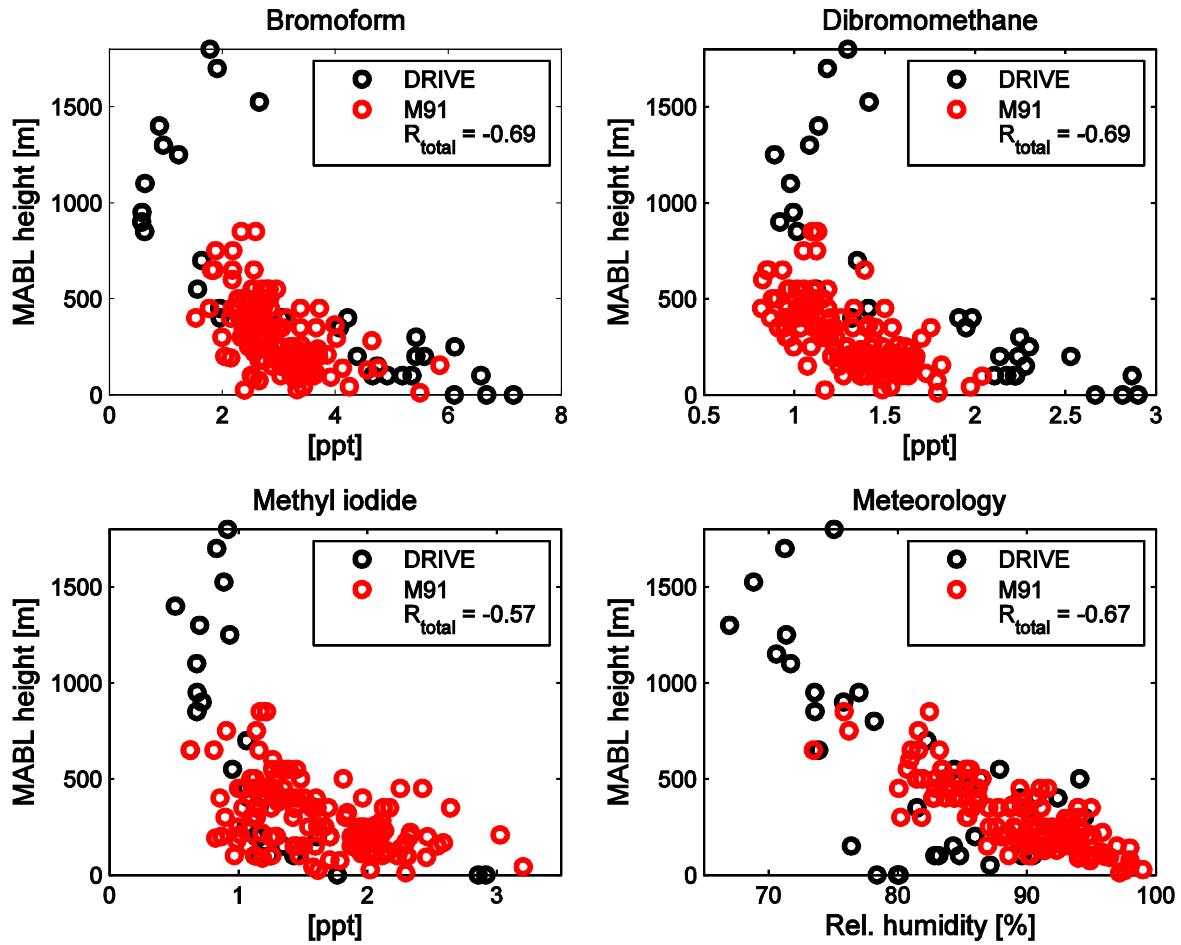


Figure 5: Scatter plots of atmospheric mixing ratios of bromoform, dibromomethane, methyl iodide and relative humidity vs. MABL height. ~~Blue-Black~~ circles reflect observations from the ~~DRIVE~~ campaign in the Mauritanian Upwelling (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2013) and ~~black-red~~ circles from this study (M91). R_{total} gives the Spearman correlation coefficients for both data sets together.

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