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Measurement and modelling of reactive halogen species over the tropical Atlantic Ocean

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Abstract

Although reactive halogen chemistry is well studied in coastal and polar environments, the presence of halogens over the open ocean environment has not been widely reported. The impacts of halogens on the tropical open ocean marine boundary layer (MBL), in particular, are not well characterised. This paper describes observations of iodine monoxide (IO) and bromine oxide (BrO) over eight months in the tropical open ocean MBL, on the north-eastern side of São Vicente (Cape Verde Islands, 16.85° N, 24.87° W). The highest BrO mixing ratio observed was 5.6±1 ppt, while the maximum observed IO mixing ratio was 3.1±0.4 ppt. The average values seen between 09:00–17:00 GMT were ~2.8 ppt for BrO and ~1.5 ppt for IO; these averages showed little variability over the entire campaign from November 2006 to June 2007. A 1-dimensional chemistry and transport model is used to study the evolution of iodine species and quantify the combined impact of iodine and bromine chemistry on the oxidising capacity of the MBL. It appears that the measured fluxes of iodocarbons are insufficient to

- account for the observed levels of IO, and that an additional I atom source is required, possibly caused by the deposition of O_3 onto the ocean surface in the presence of solar radiation. Modelling results also show that the total O_3 depletion observed at Cape Verde cannot be explained in the absence of halogen chemistry, which contributes ~45% of the total O_3 depletion at the height of measurements (10 m) during summer.
- The model also predicts that halogens decrease the hydroperoxy radical (HO₂) concentration by ~14% and increase the hydroxyl radical (OH) concentration by ~13% near the ocean surface. The oxidation of dimethyl sulphide (DMS) by BrO takes place at a comparable rate to oxidation by OH in this environment. Finally, the potential of iodine chemistry to form new particles is explored and conditions under which particle formation apuld he important in the remeter MPL are discussed.
- ²⁵ formation could be important in the remote MBL are discussed.

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1 Introduction

Catalytic cycles involving halogen radicals have been shown to deplete ozone in different regions of the atmosphere. In the 1970s, chlorine chemistry was shown to be the cause of stratospheric ozone depletion (e.g., Molina and Rowland, 1974; Stolarsky and

- ⁵ Cicerone, 1974), while over the last three decades bromine and iodine chemistry have been shown to cause O₃ depletion events (ODEs) in the polar tropospheric boundary layer (BL) in the Arctic and Antarctic (e.g., Bottenheim et al., 1986; Barrie et al., 1988; Kreher et al., 1997; Tuckermann et al., 1997; Wessel et al., 1998; Frieß et al., 2004; Jones et al., 2006; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2007a). Halogens can also affect the HO_x (i.e., [HO₂]/[OH]) and NO_x ratios (i.e., [NO₂]/[NO]). XO (where X=Br, I) radicals oxidise NO
- to NO_2 , thus increasing the NO_x ratio, while they react with HO_2 to yield HOX, which on photolysis produces OH (e.g. for HOI, the lifetime against photolysis at midday in the tropics is ~1.5 min), thus decreasing the HO_x ratio (e.g., Bloss et al., 2005; von Glasow and Crutzen, 2007). In the mid-latitude MBL, BrO has been shown to oxidise
- DMS up to an order of magnitude faster than OH (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2004; von Glasow et al., 2004). Bromine and iodine chemistry also play a central role in the oxidation of elemental mercury (Hg⁰) in the polar atmosphere (Schroeder et al., 1998; Brooks et al., 2006; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2008). Finally, in the coastal MBL, iodine oxides are also implicated in the formation of ultra-fine aerosol, although the exact mechanism is still
 not understood (e.g., O'Dowd et al., 1998; Hoffmann et al., 2001; Mäkelä et al., 2002; Jimenez et al., 2003; Burkholder et al., 2004; McFiggans et al., 2004; Saunders and Discovery and State a

Plane, 2005; Sommariva et al., 2006). The main sources of reactive halogen species can be biogenic emissions of photo-

labile halocarbons (e.g., Theiler et al., 1978; Wever et al., 1991; Carpenter et al., 1999;
Gebhardt et al., 2008) and molecular I₂ (Saiz-Lopez and Plane, 2004), emissions from sea-salt, sea-ice and the ocean surface through acid catalysed reactions or uptake of halogen nitrates (e.g., Behnke et al., 1994; Vogt et al., 1996; Sander and Crutzen, 1996; Abbatt and Nowak, 1997; Fickert et al., 1999; Wennberg, 1999), volcanic emis-

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sions (Bobrowski et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2005) and finally anthropogenic emissions (e.g., Andreae et al., 1996; Gabriel et al., 2002). Laboratory experiments have also shown that ozone deposition could play an important role in the emission of halogen compounds, especially iodine from seawater (Garland and Curtis, 1981; Mochida et al., 2000; Martino et al., 2009; Sakamoto et al., 2009).

Relatively high BrO mixing ratios (>10 ppt) are consistently reported in the springtime polar BL (e.g., Hausmann and Platt, 1994; Tuckermann et al., 1997; Richter et al., 1998; Wagner and Platt, 1998; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2007a). BrO has also been measured on a regional scale above salt lakes and in volcanic plumes (Hebestreit et al., 1999;

- Stutz et al., 2002; Bobrowski et al., 2003). In the mid-latitude MBL, BrO has been positively detected only at three coastal locations: Leser et al. (2003) observed variable levels around the Canary Islands peaking at 2.4 ppt, Saiz-Lopez et al. (2004) saw post sunrise peak levels of ~6 ppt with an average of 2 ppt over the day at Mace Head, Ireland, while Mahajan et al. (2009a) reported elevated BrO mixing ratios peaking at
- 7.5 ppt in the semi-polluted coastal environment at Roscoff, France. Modelling studies have predicted background BrO levels of 1–4 ppt (Vogt et al., 1996; von Glasow et al., 2002a). Upper limits have also been reported where BrO was not seen above the instrumental detection limit. Theys et al. (2007) reported BrO in the free troposphere (FT) around the Reunion Island with an upper limit of 0.5 ppt in the BL. Hönninger (2002) also aslaulated that BrO around Crete was less than 1.5 ppt while Determ et al.
- (2002) also calculated that BrO around Crete was less than 1.5 ppt, while Peters et al.
 (2005) reported an upper limit of 2 ppt from Lilia, on the coast of Brittany, France.

IO was first detected at Mace Head, Ireland by Alicke et al. (1999). Since then, measurements at a variety of sub-tropical and temperate coastal locations have reported IO levels up to ~27 ppt (e.g., Allan et al., 2000; Frieß et al., 2001; Saiz-Lopez and

²⁵ Plane, 2004; Zingler and Platt, 2005; Peters et al., 2005; Stutz et al., 2007; Whalley et al., 2007; Mahajan et al., 2009b). Upper limits for IO have been reported at other locations: 0.8 ppt at Crete (Hönninger, 2002), 2 ppt at Ny-Ålysund (Wittrock et al., 2000), and 2 ppt at Kuujjuarapik, Canada (Hönninger et al., 2004). In contrast, IO has been observed in excess of 20 ppt in coastal Antarctica during springtime (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2007).

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2007a), and satellite measurements have shown that IO can be detected over large areas in and around the continent (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2007b; Schönhardt et al., 2008). Observations of other iodine compounds such as I_2 and OIO are not as common as BrO or IO. OIO was first detected at Cape Grim (Tasmania) by Allan et al. (2001), while

- ⁵ the first measurement of I₂ was made by Saiz-Lopez and Plane (2004) at Mace Head. OIO has since been measured in other coastal locations (e.g., Peters et al., 2005; Stutz et al., 2007; Mahajan et al., 2009b), while positive detection of I₂ has been made at only two other locations, Malibu, California (Finley and Saltzman, 2008) and Roscoff, Brittany (Mahajan et al., 2009b).
- ¹⁰ A recent study at the Cape Verde Islands reported the presence of both BrO and IO at mixing ratios of 1–3 ppt, and indicated that the observed ozone depletion during the same campaign could not be explained in the absence of halogen compounds (Read et al., 2008). The importance of this study is that this was arguably the first measurement of these halogen radicals in the mid-ocean MBL where local biological
- ¹⁵ sources (such as macroalgae exposed at low tide) were unimportant, and hence may be representative of halogen activity over much of the open ocean (Read et al., 2008). In the present paper, we consider these halogen oxide measurements at Cape Verde in further detail, using a 1-D model to investigate the source strengths and likely vertical distributions of iodine species in the tropical Atlantic MBL. We then explore the effects
- of combined iodine and bromine chemistry on O_3 depletion, the HO_x ratio and the lifetime of DMS. Finally, we consider the potential for iodine oxides to form new particles which may grow to become cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) in this environment.

2 Experimental

DOAS measurements of BrO and IO were made at Cape Verde for a period of eight months from November 2006 to June 2007, as part of the UK Surface Ocean Lower Atmosphere Study (SOLAS) programme. During this period, the instruments were located at the Cape Verde Atmospheric Observatory (CVAO) (16.85° N, 24.87° W), on

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the north-eastern side of the island of São Vicente. Further details about the observatory and the prevalent meteorological conditions can be found elsewhere (Lee et al., 2009). The long-path DOAS instrument (LP-DOAS) was placed in a temperaturecontrolled sea freight container at the observatory. The optical path ran across the

- bay, where a retro-reflector array was placed at a distance of 6 km from the measurement site (Supporting online text Fig. S1, http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/ 9/24281/2009/acpd-9-24281-2009-supplement.pdf), resulting in a total optical path length of 12 km. The light beam was ~10 m above the ocean surface. Further details on the LP-DOAS and the deconvolution procedure used can be found elsewhere (Plane
- and Saiz-Lopez, 2006). Briefly, the recorded spectra were converted into optical densities, and the contributions of the individual absorbing species were then determined by using singular value decomposition to fit simultaneously a library of reference absorption cross-sections. For the retrieval of BrO, the 324–357 nm spectral window was used, while IO was retrieved in the 425–445 nm window. Reference spectra included in the fitting reuting for retrieving BrO (Wilmouth et al., 1000) NO. (Vendeela
- the fitting routine for retrieving BrO were: BrO (Wilmouth et al., 1999), NO₂ (Vandaele et al., 1998), O₃ (Daumont et al., 1992), HONO (Bongartz et al., 1991) and HCHO (Cantrell et al., 1990). For retrieving IO, reference spectra were: IO (Gómez Martin et al., 2005), NO₂ (Harder et al., 1997) and H₂O (Rothman et al., 2003). An example of the quality of the fits, along with averaged diurnal and annual measurements are presented elsewhere (Read et al., 2008).

During the summer of 2007 (May), an intensive campaign took place at the observatory as a part of the Reactive Halogens in the Marine Boundary Layer (RHaMBLe) project. The details of the instruments deployed during this period can be found in Lee et al. (2009), this issue. Along with other ancillary measurements, the intensive campaign also involved a research aircraft that measured composition over the site to assess how representative of the overlying BL it was and to determine any diurnal variability in BL depth. Additionally, a ship-based study measured the fluxes of halocarbons above the ocean surface around Cape Verde and over the upwelling region near Mauritania during the same period (Jones et al., 2009).

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3 Observations

BrO was detected on a total of 38 d, while IO was detected on 56 d over the length of the campaign. The maximum BrO mixing ratio observed was 5.6 ± 1 ppt (27 May 2007), while the maximum IO mixing ratio observed was 3.1 ± 0.4 ppt (15 April 2007). Figures

- ⁵ 1a and b illustrate the measured monthly-averaged diurnal profiles of BrO and IO, respectively, for the eight months of the campaign. BrO and IO were observed above the detection limit whenever the solar zenith angle was less than ~92°, i.e., twilight and full daylight conditions. Although there was considerable day-to-day variation throughout the campaign, it can be seen that the profiles exhibit a "top-hat" distribution over
- the daytime with the maximum values between 09:00–17:00 GMT. On averaging the data over the entire campaign, both species show similar diurnal profiles dependent on solar radiation, with mixing ratios below the detection limits (BrO: 0.5–0.8 ppt, IO: 0.3–0.5 ppt) at night and average peak values of ~2.8 ppt BrO and ~1.5 ppt IO during the daytime (Read et al., 2008). The monthly daytime-averaged values between 09:00 and
- 17:00 GMT, and the maximum observed mixing ratios in each month of the campaign, are shown for both species in Fig. 1c. There is clearly very little seasonal variation: although there is some hint of slightly higher values during spring (February–May), this is not significant within the variability of the observations.

The BrO and IO mixing ratios do not show a strong correlation with the origin of the air masses given by the air mass back trajectories, the wind direction or the wind speed. Figure 2 shows the variation of BrO and IO with wind speed. There is no significant correlation for either species: for [BrO] vs. wind speed, linear regression through the data has a slope of 0.21 ± 0.04 and $R^2=0.02$, while for [IO] vs. wind speed the slope was 0.12 ± 0.06 and $R^2=0.003$. In the case of BrO, all measurements were made when the wind happened to be from the prevailing north-easterly direction, and hence a correlation analysis cannot be made. In the case of IO, although the wind direction did vary, there does not appear to be clear dependence on wind direction.

Finally, the LP-DOAS was also periodically configured to measure other iodine

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species (I₂ and OIO), as well as the night-time radical NO₃. All three species were below the detection limit of the instrument throughout the campaign i.e. $[I_2] \le 15$ ppt, $[OIO] \le 10$ ppt, and $[NO_3] \le 4$ ppt.

4 Discussion and modelling

5 4.1 Bromine chemistry

The release of inorganic bromine from sea-salt aerosols and its impact on the remote MBL has been studied in some detail in previous work (Vogt et al., 1996; von Glasow et al., 2000a, b, 2004; Sander et al., 2003). Some model studies for the acid-catalvsed activation of bromine from sea-salt aerosol have predicted BrO concentrations in the MBL ranging from 1–4 ppt, with a diurnal top-hat variation (Vogt et al., 1996; Yang et al., 10 2005). This is due to the removal of BrO via the reaction with HO_2 to form HOBr, which peaks at midday and limits the build up of BrO. Box model calculations for conditions seen at Cape Verde show that to sustain an average [BrO] of ~2.8 ppt, there needs to be a total gas-phase bromine loading of ~ 10 ppt. Considering that the [Br⁻]/[Cl⁻] ratio in fresh aerosols is $\sim 1.5 \times 10^{-3}$ molmol⁻¹, reflecting the sea water ratio of 1:660 (Wil-15 son, 1975), and assuming an increased salinity of 320 gl⁻¹ due to evaporation of water from sea-salt aerosols, the maximum amount of bromide available in 20 μ m³ cm⁻³ of wet aerosol volume (Allan et al., 2009) would be ~4 ppt. Hence, continuous replenishment of aerosols and depletion of bromide from these aerosols would explain the levels of BrO seen at Cape Verde. Br- depletion in aerosols can occur through 20 acid-catalysed reactions, which are pH-dependent (Mozurkewich, 1995; Abbatt and Waschewsky, 1998; Fickert et al., 1999). Br⁻ depletion in aerosols has been reported previously (Gabriel et al., 2002; Newberg et al., 2005). Furthermore, measurements of total gaseous inorganic Br made at Cape Verde during May 2007 indicate that the total

²⁵ inorganic Br present at Cape Verde was as high as 12 ppt (A. A. P. Pszenny, University of New Hampshire and W. C. Keene, University of Virginia, personal communication,





2009), indicating that the observed BrO levels can satisfactorily be explained through emissions from sea-salt aerosol. Since the focus of the modelling study described below is iodine chemistry, we will therefore not explicitly model bromine aerosol chemistry here. Instead, the model will be constrained with the BrO observations, and then used

to explore the iodine source required to replicate the IO measurements and to study the combined impact of iodine and bromine chemistry on O₃, HO_x and DMS chemistry. [BrO] is set to peak at 2.8 ppt with a top hat profile according to observations at Cape Verde and is considered to be well mixed in the boundary layer due to the long lifetime of inorganic bromine in the gas phase, which is ~10 d in the tropics (von Glasow et al., 2004).

4.2 Iodine chemistry

Measurements and modelling studies of IO over the open ocean are rare, and the impacts of iodine chemistry on the remote oceanic environment have not been studied in detail. Although the levels of IO reported here are in accord with previous mea-¹⁵ surements along the coasts of Tenerife and Tasmania (Allan et al., 2000), no studies have been performed in the tropical remote MBL and to our knowledge these are the first measurements of reactive iodine species (RIS) over the tropical open ocean. The presence of IO above the detection limit of the instrument (0.3–0.5 ppt) at Cape Verde is surprising as the sources of iodine are assumed to be mainly biogenic. Although

- the oceans around Cape Verde are biologically active (Fallowski, 1997), there are no large macroalgal beds around São Vicente due to its steep shelf. Hence, it is probable that these waters represent a large area of increased iodine release. A recent study by Martino et al. (2009) has suggested that deposition of O₃ on the ocean surface could lead to the emission of iodocarbons in the presence of dissolved organic matter, which
- on photolysis could contribute to RIS in the MBL. Fluxes of iodocarbons measured over the open ocean close to the measurement site, as a part of the RHaMBLe campaign, confirm their presence (Jones et al., 2009) and indicate that they could indeed act as a source of RIS in the remote MBL.





The Tropospheric HAlogen chemistry MOdel (THAMO) is now employed to test whether the levels of IO seen at Cape Verde can be explained by the measured iodocarbon fluxes. Further details about THAMO can be found in Saiz-Lopez et al. (2008). Briefly, it is a 1-D chemistry transport model with 200 stacked boxes at a vertical resolution of 5m (total height 1 km). The model treats io-5 dine, bromine, O_3 , NO_y and HO_y chemistry using 210 reactions. The chemical scheme used for this study is from Saiz-Lopez et al. (2008) and is updated according to Mahajan et al. (2009b). The model is constrained with typical measured values of other chemical species: [CO]=110 ppb; [DMS]=30 ppt; $[CH_{\lambda}]=1820 \text{ ppb}$; [ethane]=925 ppt; [CH₃CHO]=970 ppt; [HCHO]=500 ppt (measured during summer by 10 the LP-DOAS at the CVAO); [isoprene]=10 ppt; [propane]=60 ppt; [propene]=20 ppt (Read et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2009, this issue; Read et al., 2009). Wind speed measurements collected at three heights (4, 10 and 30 m) were used to construct an eddy diffusion coefficient (K_z) profile (Stull, 1988), shown in the supporting online text (Fig. S2, http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/9/24281/2009/ 15 acpd-9-24281-2009-supplement.pdf). The average background aerosol surface area (ASA) used is 1×10^{-6} cm² cm⁻³, an average value estimated from Allan et al. (2009). During the RHaMBLe campaign, aircraft measurements of temperature in the BL revealed a strong temperature inversion about 1 km from the surface (Read et al., 2008), indicating that the BL at Cape Verde is decoupled from the free troposphere. 20 Hence, the K_z profile is assumed to increase up to a height of 30 m (where it peaks at 3×10^4 cm²s⁻¹), after which it decreases at a constant rate to a value of 2 cm²s⁻¹ at the top of the BL (Fig. S2, http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/9/24281/2009/ acpd-9-24281-2009-supplement.pdf). The sensitivity of the model to the K_{z} profile is discussed later. The model is used to replicate the average levels of IO seen during 25 May as there was a suite of other trace gas measurements made during this period (Lee et al., 2009), although it should be noted that there was little variability in the diurnal profiles of IO and BrO throughout the campaign (Fig. 1). The model is initialised at midnight and the evolution of iodine species, O_2 , NO_2 and HO_2 is followed for a period





of 48 h.

Initially, the injection of iodine into the model is constrained using the average sea-air iodocarbon fluxes measured over the open ocean close to Cape Verde (Jones et al., 2009): $CH_2I_2=13.0 \text{ nmolm}^{-2}d^{-1}$, $CH_2IBr=10.9 \text{ nmolm}^{-2}d^{-1}$, $CH_2ICI=16.2 \text{ nmolm}^{-2}d^{-1}$, $CH_3I=48.5 \text{ nmolm}^{-2}d^{-1}$, $C_2H_5I=4.1 \text{ nmolm}^{-2}d^{-1}$ and 1-5 $C_3H_7I=0.9$ nmolm⁻²d⁻¹. The predicted vertical profiles of the iodocarbons are shown in the supporting online text (Fig. S3, http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/9/ 24281/2009/acpd-9-24281-2009-supplement.pdf). The longer lived iodocarbons (e.g. C_2H_5I) are better mixed through the BL, but the more photo-labile iodocarbons show a strong diurnal profile and are limited to <300 m (CH₂I₂, CH₂IBr, CH₂ICI). Using these measured iodocarbon fluxes, the predicted levels of daytime IO are only ~30% of the observed values, peaking at only 0.45 ppt compared to the average observed value of around 1.5 ppt (Fig. 3). The predicted daytime O_3 depletion is only ~2.9 ppb, compared to an observed decrease of ~4.5 ppb observed at Cape Verde during May 2007 (Read et al., 2008). Additionally, the diurnal profile indicates that the IO should peak later in 15

the evening (Fig. 3) due to a slow release of I atoms resulting from the relatively long lifetime of the iodocarbons (e.g. $CH_2IBr = \sim 15 \text{ min}$, $CH_2ICI = \sim 1 \text{ h}$, $CH_3I = 23 \text{ h}$ at midday) and hence slow build-up of IO during the daytime, in contrast to the observed top-hat profile (Figs. 1 and 3).

These modelling results show that an additional flux of iodine is necessary in order to reproduce the observed levels of IO, as the iodocarbons can account for around one third of the observed IO mixing ratio. In the model, this additional source is considered to be in the form of an I₂ flux from the sea. Several laboratory studies have shown that deposition of O₃ on sea surface leads to the emission of I₂ flux of 5×10⁷ molecules cm⁻²s⁻¹ is considered, the model predicts a peak of 1.6 ppt of IO during the day time, which is in agreement with the observations. In this scenario, the model also predicts a post-sunrise pulse of ~1.4 ppt lasting for about 20 min. The best fit to the observed data is achieved by using a flux considered to

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be active only during the daytime. An I_2 flux peaking at 5.7×10^8 molecule cm⁻²s⁻¹ is needed along with the measured iodocarbon flux to reproduce the observed IO. The diurnal profile of this flux is chosen to produce the IO observations and peaks between 09:00–10:00 GMT with zero emissions during the night time (supple-

- ⁵ mentary online text Fig. S4, http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/9/24281/2009/ acpd-9-24281-2009-supplement.pdf). Figure 4 shows the predicted diurnal vertical profiles for IO, O₃, I₂ and OIO when this additional flux is included. Now, the levels of IO are in good accord with the observations at the height of measurements. The predicted vertical profile of IO shows a strong gradient with only 0.15 ppt (10%) seen at
- ¹⁰ 500 m (Figs. 4 and 5). Even with the additional I₂ flux, the I₂ and OIO levels are under the detection limit throughout the BL. The K_z profile in Fig. S2 considers that the K_z reduces with height after 30 m but the model was found to be sensitive to the height from which the K_z is considered to decrease. For an extreme condition, we assume that the K_z does not decrease with height, but stays constant after 30 m. Using such a profile, the predicted [IO] at the height of measurements (10 m) is found to be ~18%
 - lower at the peak of the I atom flux due to faster mixing.

Considering an O_3 deposition velocity of 0.05 cms^{-1} (Chang et al., 2004) and an O_3 mixing ratio of 35 ppb in the BL, the total flux of O_3 molecules into the ocean would be 4.3×10^{10} molecules cm⁻²s⁻¹. If the deposition of O_3 is responsible for the emission of I atoms from the ocean, this would mean that ~3 iodine atoms are emit-

- ²⁰ emission of I atoms from the ocean, this would mean that ~3 iodine atoms are emitted to the gas phase for every 100 molecules of O_3 that are deposited on the ocean surface. One laboratory study has suggested that 20% of the O_3 deposited to the ocean surface reacts with I⁻ ions in seawater to form molecular iodine and suggested that a significant fraction of this evaporates from the ocean surface (Garland
- and Curtis, 1980). Furthermore, the best fit of the I₂ flux to the measured IO diurnal profile requires that the emission of I atoms from the ocean surface is more active during the daytime (Fig. S4, http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/9/24281/2009/acpd-9-24281-2009-supplement.pdf), which could indicate a photochemical production of I₂ or other iodocarbons in the sea-surface micro layer, perhaps coupled with the

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deposition of O₃.

The vertical profile of iodine species is shown in Fig. 5. It can be seen that the IO mixing ratio drops to about 10% of the value at the surface in the first 500 m, so that most of the IO is confined to the lower BL. The total column abundance predicted by the model 5 is 9.7×10¹¹ molecules cm⁻², which is below the upper limit of 2×10¹² molecules cm⁻² for current satellite measurements (Schönhardt et al., 2007).

4.3 Effect of halogens on ozone

The vertical temperature profiles measured by the aircraft show a capped BL with a strong temperature inversion at about 1000 m during all the flights above Cape Verde
indicating that the BL is decoupled from the free troposphere (Read et al., 2008). Read et al. also concluded that the MBL around Cape Verde is subject to minimal diurnal variations in dynamics because the temperature and wind speed are relatively constant. Furthermore, the free tropospheric O₃ mixing ratios over Cape Verde were found to be significantly lower than in the BL (Read et al., 2008), indicating that O₃ entrainment into the BL directly above Cape Verde. O₃ entrainment into the BL actually takes place around 200 km further north-east of the measurement site, where measurements show elevated O₃ in the free troposphere (Lee et al., 2009); advection of air to Cape Verde then causes a rise in the O₃ concentrations during the night (Read et al., 2008).

- ²⁰ During the summer month of May, the average loss of O_3 is ~4.3 ppbd⁻¹, although in the absence of halogens, the model predicts a loss of only ~2.5 ppb over the entire day at the height of measurements. This calculated O_3 loss is due to HO_x chemistry and deposition to the ocean surface. If the observed levels of halogens are now included in the model (1.5 ppt IO and 2.5 ppt BrO), the total O_3 depletion at the height of mea-
- ²⁵ surements increases to ~4.5 ppbd⁻¹ (Fig. 3). The catalytic cycles involving halogens cause an increased loss of 1.6 ppbd^{-1} and the total predicted O₃ loss is now in good agreement with the observed loss. Figure 3 also shows that this observed depletion is well mixed in the BL with a maximum difference of 1.2 ppb between the surface and at

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1 km. This phenomenon is confirmed by the aircraft measurements, which showed that O_3 is well-mixed in the BL (Read et al., 2008). A point to note is the significant role that iodine chemistry plays in the O_3 depletion. At midday, the O_3 destruction rate due to iodine alone is 0.1 ppbh⁻¹, while the destruction due to bromine alone is 0.028 ppbh⁻¹. The combined impact of both halogens due to catalytic cycles involving IO and BrO (Gilles et al., 1997) destroys O_3 at a rate of 0.19 ppbh⁻¹.

4.4 Effect on HO_x

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In situ measurements of OH and HO₂ were performed at Cape Verde during the RHaM-BLe campaign using the LIF technique (Whalley et al., 2009). The measurements were made at the height of 10 m above sea level. Typical peak noon values of 0.25 ppt and 18 ppt were measured for OH and HO₂, respectively. BrO and IO react with HO₂ to form HOBr and HOI, which on photolysis reproduce OH, thus reducing the HO_x ratio (HO₂/OH) ratio. Figure 6 shows the effect of halogen chemistry on the vertical profile of OH and HO₂, for scenarios with and without halogens. At the height of the measurements, the model scenario without halogen chemistry over-predicts HO₂ by ~14% of the measured concentration, and under-predicts the OH by ~13%. Thus, the modelled HO_x ratio is 94, compared with the measured ratio of 72 (Whalley et al., 2009). When halogen chemistry is included, the calculated OH and HO₂ levels and diurnal profile are in agreement with the observations: the modelled ratio is now 76. Figure 6 also shows

that the vertical profile of OH and HO_2 are significantly different when halogens are included in the model, with the lowest predicted HO_x ratio seen closer to the surface, although at the top of the BL the effect of halogens is greatly reduced.

4.5 DMS oxidation

The role of BrO in the oxidation of DMS has been discussed previously (e.g., Toumi, 1994; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2004; von Glasow and Crutzen, 2004; von Glasow et al., 2004). In the tropical MBL, the loss of DMS is thought to take place mainly through



oxidation by OH (Turnipseed et al., 1996). However, BrO and to a lesser extent, IO can also cause the oxidation of DMS in the MBL. At the levels of BrO and IO observed at Cape Verde, the oxidation of DMS by BrO is comparable to OH but that by IO is much lower (Table 1). The oxidation of DMS by halogen oxides forms dimethyl sulfoxide
⁵ (DMSO), which is either rapidly lost to background aerosols or forms methyl sulfinic acid (MSIA) rather than SO₂ and hence H₂SO₄. The presence of halogen oxides would therefore reduce the CCN formation potential of DMS if sulphuric acid formed from OH oxidation were assumed to build up to levels at which it would participate in nucleation (von Glasow and Crutzen, 2004).

10 4.6 Iodine oxide particle (IOP) formation

There are (at least) two major unresolved questions regarding IOPs: (i) the mechanism whereby iodine oxide molecules polymerize into sub-nm IOPs and (ii) the subsequent growth of these IOPs in the presence of condensable vapours (primarily water and acids) in the marine atmosphere. In the past, the oxidation of iodine oxides by O_3 has been suggested to lead to the formation of I_2O_4 or I_2O_5 , which can then polymerise to form IOPs (Jimenez et al., 2003; Saunders and Plane, 2005). However, very recent experiments at the University of Leeds show that IOPs are also produced from IO in the absence of O_3 (Saunders et al., 2009). This indicates that the particles form from the polymerization of I_2O_3 and I_2O_4 , which are produced from the recombination of IO

- ²⁰ and OIO or the self-association of OIO, respectively (J. C. Gómez Martin, University of Leeds, personal communication, 2009). Quantum calculations, using the same basis set for atomic I described in Kaltsoyannis and Plane (2008), show that I_2O_3 does not dimerize effectively with itself, but forms a much more stable complex with I_2O_4 . I_2O_4 also forms a stable dimer with itself. Hence, I_2O_4 appears to be the key species for
- ²⁵ initiating the formation of IOPs in the MBL. In THAMO, I_2O_4 is treated as the primary polymerising species, on which I_2O_3 can condense. Both species can condense on larger polymers, which can all also coagulate with each other. These reactions are assumed to occur at their respective collision frequencies (or kernels), which is neces-



sary to model the explosive growth of IOPs observed in the laboratory (Saunders and Plane, 2006).

The total number of particles growing to diameter=2 nm are calculated using a semi-implicit, volume conserving coagulation routine as described by Jacobson (2005).
⁵ Along with growth due to coagulation, l₂O₃, l₂O₄ and IOPs are also lost to background aerosols, the rate of which is calculated according to the molecular transfer approximation (Fuchs, 1964). The THAMO model predicts that l₂O₄ formation is important only during the night at the IO mixing ratios observed at Cape Verde. This is because l₂O₄ forms from the dimerisation of OIO, and OIO photolyzes very rapidly as can be seen in Fig. 4 (Gómez Martin et al., 2009). In the MBL, IOPs can potentially grow much faster due to the uptake of acids and water vapour and there is no reason to expect that condensable vapours in the MBL would not condense onto freshly nucleated particles. Sulphuric acid concentrations in the remote MBL range between 0.01–0.03 ppt (e.g., Berresheim et al., 1993), and in the presence of sufficient ammonia (NH₃), will

- ¹⁵ condense onto any particles that are formed. Indeed recent laboratory experiments at the University of Leeds show that H_2SO_4 is taken up on humidified IOPs with a mass accommodation coefficient of 0.75 at 90% relative humidity (Saunders et al., 2009). The uptake of H_2SO_4 on ultrafine particles occurs once the particles are large enough to become "activated"; past studies on other atmospheric particles have shown that the
- ²⁰ activation size ranges between 1.5 and 3 nm (Kulmala et al., 2007). For simplicity, we do not consider a diurnal profile in the $[H_2SO_4]$ and assume that uptake of ammonia (NH_3) will keep the pH of the IOPs close to neutral, so that further uptake of H_2SO_4 is not inhibited. This assumption is valid as the background NH_3 mixing ratio in the MBL ranges between 25 and 75 ppt (Quinn et al., 1988), and aliphatic amines have been ²⁵ observed in sub- μ m particles around Cape Verde (Müller et al., 2009).

Results from the THAMO runs using this IOP formation and growth mechanism are illustrated in Fig. 7. The figure shows the number of particles at the measurement height of 10 m, which might grow large enough (taken to be >20 nm) to have a good chance of surviving to become CCN. These are the number of potential CCN formed

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at 10 m after 24 h, as a function of the mean daytime IO concentration at 10 m. The IO is changed by altering the sea-to-air flux of I_2 species in addition to the halocarbon flux as mentioned in Sect. 4.2. Two cases are illustrated in the figure to show the sensitivity to the background aerosol surface area (ASA), which is set to a typical remote MBL value of 1×10^{-6} cm² cm⁻³ or an ultra-clean value of 1×10^{-7} cm² cm⁻³.

The figure shows rather graphically that the predicted number of particles is highly sensitive to (i) the background ASA, because the loss to background aerosols through uptake is usually faster than growth by coagulation and condensation (except at high [IO]); and (ii) the IO concentration because the rates of formation of OIO and I_2O_4 depend non-linearly on [IO]. The figure also demonstrates the probability of forming 10 potential CCN at Cape Verde is vanishingly small. The model predicts a maximum of only $\sim 1 \times 10^{-25}$ particles cm⁻³ (diameter=20 nm) at the height of measurements when the ASA is 1×10^{-6} cm² cm⁻³, and $\sim 1 \times 10^{-17}$ when the ASA is 2×10^{-7} cm² cm⁻³. Thus, at the concentrations of IO seen at Cape Verde, the formation of CCN from iodine chemistry is extremely unlikely. However, the model results show that for a higher 15 [IO], formation of IOPs could be an important source of new particles in the MBL. Such bursts of new particles (diameter=3-10 nm) have been observed in coastal areas peaking at around 2.5×10^5 particles cm⁻³ (e.g., Whitehead et al., 2009). In these regions [IO] can reach values as high as ~27 ppt (e.g., Whalley et al., 2007). Similar bursts have also been observed in Antarctica, where >4000 particlescm⁻³ were observed in 20 the summer (Davison et al., 1996), when the [IO] peaks about 10 ppt (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2007).

5 Summary and conclusions

Measurements of halogen species at an open ocean site in the tropical Atlantic Ocean are presented. IO and BrO are ubiquitously detected at Cape Verde in the presence of sunlight with no apparent dependence of wind speed or direction. Both radicals display a distinct top-hat profile with the maximum values seen between 09:00–17:00 GMT and

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the annual profile of both the species shows little variation. The presence of IO and BrO above the detection limit of the DOAS instrument indicates that halogen chemistry could play a wider role in the open ocean MBL. Using the 1-D model THAMO, it is shown that the observed iodocarbon fluxes cannot explain the IO measurements,

- ⁵ suggesting that other iodine compounds must be emitted from the ocean surface. The modelling results also show that the observed O_3 depletion cannot be explained in the absence of halogen chemistry. The model is able to account for the low HO_x ratio measured at Cape Verde, indicating that halogen chemistry directly affects the oxidising capacity of the atmosphere. Bromine chemistry is shown to oxidise DMS at rates com-
- ¹⁰ parable to OH affecting the CCN formation potential of DMS. Finally, modelling results suggest that IOP formation does not occur at Cape Verde and higher IO concentrations are necessary to produce particles of a climatically important size. However, further studies are necessary in order to fully understand the potential of iodine chemistry to form CCN in other open ocean environments.
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Table 1. Rates of DMS oxidation calculated for observations at Cape Verde.

Radical	Average mixing ratio (ppt)	DMS oxidation rate $(10^{-6} s^{-1})$
OH	0.25	26.4
BrO	2.8	18.4
IO	1.5	0.74





Fig. 1. The monthly averaged diurnal profiles for IO and BrO are shown in panels **(a)** and **(b)**. Both radicals show a distinctive top-hat profile with the highest mixing ratios measured between 09:00–17:00 GMT. The average annual profile of IO and BrO along with the highest measured mixing ratio for each month is shown in panel **(c)** indicating little annual variability.



Fig. 2. Correlation between BrO and IO with wind speed at São Vicente. Panel **(a)** shows the correlation for BrO and **(b)** show a similar plot for IO. There is no significant correlation for either species: for [BrO] vs. wind speed, linear regression through the data has a slope of 0.21 ± 0.04 and $R^2=0.02$, while for [IO] vs. wind speed the slope was 0.12 ± 0.06 and $R^2=0.003$.

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Fig. 3. Observed diurnal O_3 destruction during May 2007 at Cape Verde (Read et al., 2008) compared with model predicted O_3 at the height of measurements (10 m). In the absence of halogens, the model predicts the loss of only 2.5 ppb in one day, while in the presence of halogens, this loss is ~4.4 ppb.



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Fig. 4. Predicted profiles of IO, O₃, (I₂+IBr+ICI) and OIO at Cape Verde using an extra I₂ flux in addition to measured halocarbon fluxes. The IO mixing ratios are seen to peak at 1.5 ppt at the height of measurements and are in good accord with the observed average of ~1.5 ppt. The predicted O₃ depletion is about 4.4 ppb over one day, while the predicted I₂ and OIO values are under the detection limit of the DOAS instrument ($I_2 - 15 \text{ ppt}$, OIO - 10 ppt). The model is initialised at midnight and the IO, OIO and (I₂+IBr+ICI) data from 24-30 h has been shifted by -24 h in order to illustrate the full diurnal cycle.











Fig. 6. Vertical profiles of modelled OH and modelled HO_2 at Cape Verde for two scenarios: with and without halogen chemistry. At the height of the measurements, the model scenario without halogen chemistry over-predicts HO_2 by ~14% of the measured concentration, and under-predicts the OH by ~13%.

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Fig. 7. The number of potential CCN formed at 10 m after 24 h, as a function of the mean daytime IO concentration at 10 m. The [IO] is changed by altering the sea-to-air flux of I_2 species in addition to the halocarbon flux as mentioned in Sect. 4.2. Two cases are illustrated in the figure to show the sensitivity to the background aerosol surface area (ASA), which is set to a typical remote MBL value of 1×10^{-6} cm² cm⁻³ (red) or an ultra-clean value of 1×10^{-7} cm⁻³ (blue).



