

Anonymous Referee #1

General comments:

5 *This manuscript by Hepach et al. reported their observations on a series of bromo- and*
iodocarbons from surface ocean as well as subsurface waters in the Peruvian upwelling zone.
The authors further investigated into possible sources of the halocarbons and the contribution
of organoiodine to stratosphere iodine loading. This manuscript is relatively well written and
discussed drivers for the production of the halocarbons and transport of iodinated species, in
addition to reporting data. I believe it is a new contribution to the scientific community. The
10 *authors also proposed directions for future studies for addressing the halocarbon budgets. I*
believe this manuscript is suitable for publication in ACP with minor revisions. Please see
specific comments suggested below.

We thank referee #1 for the review. We will address the specific comments in the following.
15 All corrections according to referee #1 will be marked in **blue** in the manuscript.
Further changes are marked in **green**.

Specific comments

20 *Page 2 Line 2: delete “halogenated short-chained hydrocarbons” for “halocarbons” is clear*
enough for this definition.

Done.

Page 2 Line 6: should read “Peruvian upwelling zone (or regions)”.

We added “zone”.

25 *Page 2 Line 23: perhaps use “very short-lived substances (VLS)” following the WMO*
terminology?

Since we use “halocarbons” as terminology throughout the manuscript, we decide to keep it.
The terminology is used in the oceanographic and lower troposphere community, while VLS
30 also include compounds without halogens, thus we decided to be more specific with this term.
To avoid confusion, we delete “organic compounds” and write “halocarbons” instead.

Page 3 Line 16: please clarify this sentence by adding “in seawater” after “for both
compounds”.

We added “in the surface ocean” to clarify the location for which this is valid.

Page 3 Line 29: should read “the main sinks for both CH₂I₂ and CH₂ClI are”

Since it is only one sink, this should be singular. But we agree that it may be written a bit
5 confusing, so we rewrite it as “The main sink for both CH₂I₂ and CH₂ClI is photolytical
breakdown [...]”.

*Page 4 Line 14: replace “the latter two compounds” with “CH₂ClI and CH₂I₂” to avoid
confusion.*

10 Done.

Page 5 Line 2: it is a bit confusing here, is it “every 3 hours”?

Yes, we clarified this sentence. See also changes with respect to referee #2.

15 *Page 5 Line 6 and 7: were purge efficiency measured for these gases?*

Purge efficiencies were determined in previous laboratory experiments. We purge 50 mL of
water at 70 °C with a stream of helium of 30 mL min⁻¹ for 50 min. With these conditions, we
achieve a purge efficiency of larger than 98 % for all five compounds. We add a short
sentence with these specifications.

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Page 5 Line 11: please specified how the gas samples were stored – stainless steel canisters?

Yes, the gas samples were taken in pre-cleaned stainless steel canisters. This is described in
Fuhlbrügge et al. (2015) in more detail, but we also add this to this part of the manuscript.

25 *Page 5 Line 25: Cyanobacteria may pass through the GF/F filters at the initial filtering (i.e.
before the filter pore size decreased as materials accumulated), which may affect the
quantification of the cyanobacteria marker pigments. Did the authors estimate such a
biomass lost?*

The referee is correct that concern has been raised that filtering through GF/F filters may
30 sometimes cause very small cyanobacteria, mainly prochlorophytes, to pass through the filter.
The smallest prokaryotic algae are probably not measured with the same accuracy as all other
phytoplankton cells above 0.7 µm by this technique (Dickson and Wheeler 1993). However,
Chavez et al. (1995) compared HPLC results from GF/F 0.7 µm and membrane 0.2 µm filters,

and clearly showed that GF/F filters can be used to accurately measure pigments also from very small phytoplankton. Less than 1 % of prochlorophytes pass through the GF/F filters.

We believe that the error caused by some of the smallest prokaryotic algae passing through the filter and not being accurately accounted for, is very low for our cruise.

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Page 5 Lines 28 to Page 6 Lines 1 to 7: The DOM samples were collected from 20 cm and the gases were collected from about 6 to 7 m, which were not exactly parallel samples. Some DOM can be recycled relatively fast. In addition, DOM at surface ocean may be degraded via photolysis. I suggest the authors to also report the mix layer depth and possible residence times for the DOM compounds they measured, such that a valid argument can be made about those DOM were well mixed within the mixed layer and hence the depth difference would not affect the data analysis and interpretation.

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The mixed layer depths during M91 were rather shallow, usually between 6 and 25 m. We assume that this very upper layer was well mixed, so samples for both components were taken from the same water masses. Unpublished data from a recent cruise (ASTRA-OMZ, SO243 onboard the RV *Sonne*) show that our halocarbon measurements from the first meter are in good agreement with measurements from the hydrographic shaft if the mixed layer is not shallower than the shaft depth. High molecular weight dissolved combined carbohydrates, such as determined during this study, have been considered as labile to semi-labile with turn-over times of several days to months (Engel et al. 2011; Hansell, 2013), suggesting that the mixing time in the upper water is faster than the turn-over of the combined sugars, which will also be added to the manuscript.

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We add in the methods section: “Very-well mixed layers at these measurement locations reach down to between 6 and 25 m, and DOM turn-over times for the respective compounds has been reported to be several days to months (Engel et al., 2011; Hansell, 2013).”

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Page 8 Lines 1 to 15: I suggest move this to before the FLEXPART model simulation.

Done.

Page 9 Line 2: change “correlated very well” to “significantly correlated”.

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Done.

Page 11 Line 11: I suggest the authors also include the depth profile of the bromocarbons.

We added the bromocarbons to Fig. 4. The text in the manuscript is changed accordingly (section 4.2 and the figure caption).

Page 11 Lines 22 to 24: this sentence is a bit confusing, please rephrase.

- 5 We agree and rewrite as “CH₂I₂ was hardly detected in deeper water in the northern part of our measurements (Figure 4, upper panel).”

- 10 *Page 12 Line 22: Liu et al., 2015 tested a series of carbohydrates, and found that these DOM moieties were not fast reacting substrates for CHBr₃, which seems to be consistent with findings in this study. In addition, bromocarbon formations via HOBr reaction are potentially DOM moiety specific. In Liu et al., 2013, no correlations were observed between the bromocarbons and total dissolved organic carbon.*

- 15 Thank you for this suggestion. We include this hypothesis in the manuscript and write: “Bromocarbon production from DOM has also been suggested to be slow (Liu et al. 2015), which could shift larger bromocarbon concentrations to later times after our cruise.”

Page 13 Line 12: the bulk DOM may correlate better with total biomass (estimated from TChla).

- 20 This is certainly a reasonable assumption. However, we tested the data and correlations are not much better. This may be due to the fact that the main part of the total biomass is made up of diatoms. Hence, the correlations between the total biomass and DOM are mainly regulated by diatom abundance, which leads to similar correlations for biomass and DOM vs diatoms and DOM.

- 25 *Page 13 Lines 13 to 15: I suggest change “is determined by the phytoplankton species” to “is determined by ecosystem compositions”, because DOM contribution is not governed by phytoplankton species alone.*

Done.

- 30 *Page 13 Line 21: Please also cite Lin and Manley 2012, who also tested bromocarbon formations using different molecular weight natural DOM as substrates.*

Done.

Page 13 Lines 24 to 27: The authors depicted possible abiotic sources of HOI and HOBr in Fig 5. I would suggest the authors also put the abiotic sources of HOI and HOBr into this context (see Carpenter et al., 2005).

We included this in the figure, but only schematically, since we focus on the biotic formation in our manuscript.

Page 14 Line 6: I suggest remove “In conclusion” here.

Done.

Page 31 Fig 5: The conception model figure is a bit confusing on the CH₃I part via methyltransferase, for it is an intracellular enzyme. Thus the reaction is likely occurring inside the cell. However, figure seems to depict an extracellular reaction.

We agree, and it was actually intended as such. Thus, we make this clearer in the figure now.

References

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Anonymous Referee #2

General Comments

5 *This manuscript by Hepach and co-authors presents gas-phase and oceanic observations of halogenated VOCs, including CHBr₃, CH₂Br₂, CH₂Cl₂, CH₃I, and CH₂I₂ from a ship cruise in the eastern tropical Pacific Ocean. In addition to the concentrations and sea-air flux calculations, the analysis includes correlations to phytoplankton groups measured in the surface water along the cruise path. The paper is reasonably well written and the many of the data presented are new observations. The paper should be published in ACP after addressing*
10 *the following minor corrections.*

We thank referee #2 for this review. We will address the specific comments in the following. All corrections with respect to the suggestions by referee #2 will be marked in **red** in the manuscript.

15 Further changes are marked in **green**.

Specific Comments

Page 5, line 2 – Three hourly is not explicit – every three hours, or three samples per hour? And was this day and night? What were the samples taken in? I would like to see a little more detail, even though the system was described in another paper.
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Samples were taken every three hours throughout the whole day, hence both during day and night, adding up to in total eight samples. Water was sampled in amber glass bottles. We added respective details in the manuscript. See also our changes with respect to referee #1.

25 *Page 5, line 7 – replace “lay” with “was”.*

Done.

Page 5, line 9 – “set up problems” sounds odd. Perhaps “instrument issues?”

We replace this with the suggestion of the referee.

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Page 5, line 10 – 20 m “above sea level?” How were these samples stored? Stainless canisters? Glass flasks?

We added “above sea level” to the section. For the second issue, please see our answer to referee #1.

Page 5, line 11 – “starting on December 1”

Done.

5 Page 5, line 23 – replace “build up” with “comprise”

Done.

Page 5, line 26 – “a” should be italicized.

Agreed.

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Page 7, line 20 – The authors explain that they do not include detailed tropospheric iodine chemistry, and specify what they, explicit removal of HOI, HI, IONO₂, and IxO_y through scavenging or 20 heterogeneous recycling of HOI, IONO₂, and IONO₂ on aerosols, and then reference Saiz-Lopez et al., 2014. It should be made clear whether or not Saiz-Lopez did or
15 did not omit iodine removal . I.e., “we didn’t do x, y and z (reference)” - is the reference an example where x, y and z were omitted, or not omitted?

Thanks for pointing this out. Since the Saiz-Lopez et al., 2014 study includes detailed tropospheric iodine chemistry and removal, it is not an appropriate reference in this sentence and has been removed in the current version of the manuscript.

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Page 8 – section 2.6 and section 2.5 should be swapped (i.e., measurement methods before model description.)

We agree. See changes according to referee #1.

25 Page 10, lines 1-4 – The suggestion that the observations from this work “compare well” with observations from Liu et al. (2013) needs to be backed up with something more quantitative. CHBr₃ seems to have a similar range, but the CH₂Br₂ range from Liu et al. are about half the values from the current work. Can you be more specific about the region covered by Liu et al., i.e. where the observed maxima were located?

30 The campaign covered a large region between Punta Arenas, Chile and Seattle, USA. The coastal region covered by Liu et al. (2013) was south of 40° S, while we investigated a region between 5° S and 16° S, where the data of Liu et al. (2013) only consist of open ocean data, which could explain the difference in the ranges between our study and theirs. Unfortunately, not much more data exist for the coastal tropical East Pacific. However, Liu et al. (2013)

measured about 20 pmol L⁻¹ of CHBr₃ and around 6 pmol L⁻¹ of CH₂Br₂, showing that also the more southern part of the South American coast is characterized by concentrations in our range. We will specify this in the manuscript.

5 *Page 11, line 11 – “during a large part“*

Done.

Page 11, lines 18-21 – I have a bit of an issue with this interpretation. In Figure 4, we see that there were four subsurface measurements made between the surface and a depth of 25 m, and one single subsurface maxima is shown at a depth of about 20. First, it would be helpful to see the measurement uncertainties on this plot, as the data aren’t super convincingly supportive of a maximum. Second, to suggest that there was “no subsurface maxima” in Figure 4(c) when only two measurements were made between the surface and the 25 m depth suggests that it is entirely possible that there is a subsurface maxima that just wasn’t observed because no 20 m depth was measured. This needs to be included in the discussion.

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The measurement error is estimated to be around 10 % for all halocarbon measurements in seawater. The maximum concentrations shown are well outside of this 10 % range.

We agree that there could be a maximum at 20 m. We do not preclude a subsurface maximum per se at this particular profile, we merely state that we observed it considerably often in the mentioned upwelling region. This profile was chosen, because the mentioned features could be observed for all iodocarbons. We clarify this in the manuscript.

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Page 16, lines 18-20 – it would be nice to see a consideration of the daytime/nighttime differences in the correlations – if, as the authors are suggesting, there is atmospheric accumulation during the night, one might expect a better correlation during the night than during the day.

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Thank you for this suggestion. We tested this hypothesis by dividing the data into “day” and “night” by assuming “night” was when there was no radiation at all. Then, we correlated the data again. The shorter the lifetime of the compound, the better is the correlations between the oceanic and atmospheric halocarbons. Considering only data points when there is light, oceanic and atmospheric CH₂ClI correlate significantly with $r = 0.5$, during the night, this correlation is stronger with $r = 0.68$. This observation is even clearer for CH₂I₂, which correlates not significantly during the “day” with $r = 0.4$, owing to the very few data points during light hours, and very strongly during the night with $r = 0.92$. This supports our

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hypothesis that atmospheric CH₂ClI and CH₂I₂ build up during the night, and are degraded during the day. We include this separation in the discussion, and add a figure depicting this (new Fig. 7).

5 *Page 17, line 29 – “in the latter case.”*

Done.

Page 21, line 21 – are there really no units for salinity?

Salinity measurements here are based on the conductivity ratio, which is dimensionless. The
10 use of the commonly applied unit “PSU” (Practical Salinity Unit) is not recommended anymore, hence, no units are used here. For more information see Millero (2010).

Page 29, line 2 – “note the colorbar in”

Changed.

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Page 29, line 5 – I don’t think “Global” is necessarily the right adjective of the observed radiation. Also, for this plot (Figure 3) and Figure 6, it would be better to change either the black or blue dots to a slightly different color, because they look very similar. Perhaps change the symbols, too, so that they’re not all circles.

20 “Global radiation” is a parameter measured onboard by a pyranometer and refers to the total short-wave radiation, which includes both the direct solar radiation and the diffuse radiation. Hence, the adjective hereby is part of the parameter name. This is made clearer in the figure description now.

The blue symbols were changed to a lighter color and the line style was changed for better
25 distinction.

References

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Biogenic halocarbons from the Peruvian upwelling region as tropospheric halogen source

H. Hepach¹, B. Quack¹, S. Tegtmeier¹, A. Engel¹, A. Bracher², S. Fuhlbrügge¹, L.
5 Galgani^{1,7}, E. L. Atlas³, J. Lampel^{4,5}, U. Frieß⁴, and K. Krüger⁶

Correspondence to: H. Hepach (hhepach@geomar.de)

[1] GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel, Germany

[2] Alfred Wegener Institute (AWI), Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research

10 Bremerhaven, Germany and Institute of Environmental Physics, University of Bremen,
Germany

[3] Rosenstiel School of Marine and Atmospheric Science (RSMAS), University of Miami,
USA

[4] Institute of Environmental Physics, University of Heidelberg, Germany

15 [5] now at Max Planck Institute for Chemistry, Mainz, Germany

[6] Department of Geosciences, University of Oslo, Oslo, Norway

**[7] now at Department of Biotechnology, Chemistry and Pharmacy, University of Siena,
Italy**

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Abstract

Halocarbons, ~~halogenated short-chained hydrocarbons~~, are produced naturally in the oceans by biological and chemical processes. They are emitted from surface seawater into the atmosphere, where they take part in numerous chemical processes such as ozone destruction and the oxidation of mercury and dimethyl sulfide. Here we present oceanic and atmospheric halocarbon data for the Peruvian upwelling ~~zone~~ obtained during the M91 cruise onboard the research vessel *Meteor* in December 2012. Surface waters during the cruise were characterized by moderate concentrations of bromoform (CHBr_3) and dibromomethane (CH_2Br_2) correlating with diatom biomass derived from marker pigment concentrations, which suggests this phytoplankton group as likely source. Concentrations measured for the iodinated compounds methyl iodide (CH_3I) of up to 35.4 pmol L^{-1} , chloriodomethane (CH_2ClI) of up to 58.1 pmol L^{-1} and diiodomethane (CH_2I_2) of up to 32.4 pmol L^{-1} in water samples were much higher than previously reported for the tropical Atlantic upwelling systems. Iodocarbons also correlated with the diatom biomass and even more significantly with dissolved organic matter (DOM) components measured in the surface water. Our results suggest a biological source of these compounds as significant driving factor for the observed large iodocarbon concentrations. Elevated atmospheric mixing ratios of CH_3I (up to 3.2 ppt), CH_2ClI (up to 2.5 ppt) and CH_2I_2 (3.3 ppt) above the upwelling were correlated with seawater concentrations and high sea-to-air fluxes. The enhanced iodocarbon production in the Peruvian upwelling contributed significantly to tropospheric iodine levels.

1 Introduction

Brominated and iodinated short-lived ~~halocarbons organic compounds (halocarbons)~~ from the oceans contribute to tropospheric and stratospheric chemistry (von Glasow et al., 2004; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2012b; Carpenter and Reimann, 2014). They are significant carriers of iodine and bromine into the marine atmospheric boundary layer (Salawitch, 2006; Jones et al., 2010; Yokouchi et al., 2011; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2012b), where they and their degradation products may also be involved in aerosol and ultra-fine particle formation (O'Dowd et al., 2002; Burkholder et al., 2004). Furthermore, ~~the short-lived organic compounds are a source for bromine and iodine in the free troposphere, and thus they~~ play an important role for ozone chemistry and other processes such as the oxidation of several atmospheric constituents ~~in the troposphere~~ (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2012a). Numerous modelling studies over the last years have shown that brominated short-lived compounds and their degradation products can be entrained into the stratosphere and enhance the halogen-driven ozone

destruction (Carpenter and Reimann, 2014; Hossaini et al., 2015). Recently, it was suggested that also oceanic iodine in organic or inorganic form can contribute to the stratospheric halogen loading, however only in small amounts due to its strong degradation (Tegtmeier et al., 2013; Saiz-Lopez et al., 2015).

5 While different source and sink processes determine the distribution of halocarbons in the oceanic surface water, the underlying mechanisms are largely unresolved. Biological activity plays a role for the production of bromoform (CHBr_3), dibromomethane (CH_2Br_2), methyl iodide (CH_3I), chloriodomethane (CH_2ClI) and diiodomethane (CH_2I_2) (Gschwend et al., 1985; Tokarczyk and Moore, 1994; Moore et al., 1996), while CH_3I also originates from
10 photochemical reactions with dissolved organic matter (DOM) (Moore and Zafiriou, 1994; Bell et al., 2002; Shi et al., 2014).

Biologically mediated halogenation of DOM (Lin and Manley, 2012; Liu et al., 2015) and bromination of compounds such as β -diketones via enzymes ~~such as~~ like bromoperoxidase (BPO) within or outside the algal cells (Theiler et al., 1978) are among the potentially
15 important production processes of CHBr_3 and CH_2Br_2 . Air-sea gas exchange into the atmosphere is the most important sink for both compounds **in the surface ocean** (Quack and Wallace, 2003; Hepach et al., 2015).

The biological formation of CH_3I has been investigated during laboratory and field studies (Scarratt and Moore, 1998; Amachi et al., 2001; Fuse et al., 2003; Smythe-Wright et al., 2006;
20 Brownell et al., 2010; Hughes et al., 2011) identifying phyto- and bacterioplankton as producers, revealing large variability in biological production rates. However, biogeochemical modelling studies suggest that photochemistry may be more important for global CH_3I production (Stemmler et al., 2014). Due to their much shorter lifetime in surface water and the atmosphere, fewer studies investigated production processes of CH_2I_2 and CH_2ClI . CH_2I_2 has
25 been suggested to be produced both by phytoplankton (Moore et al., 1996) and bacteria (Fuse et al., 2003; Amachi, 2008). The main source for CH_2ClI is likely its production during the photolysis of CH_2I_2 with a yield of 35 % based on a laboratory study (Jones and Carpenter, 2005). CH_2ClI has also been detected in phytoplankton cultures (Tokarczyk and Moore, 1994) where it may originate from direct production or also from CH_2I_2 conversion. The main sink
30 for both CH_2I_2 and CH_2ClI is **their photolytical breakdown destruction** in the surface ocean resulting in lifetimes of less than 10 min (CH_2I_2) and 9 h (CH_2ClI), respectively, in the tropical ocean (Jones and Carpenter, 2005; Martino et al., 2006). Other sinks for these three iodocarbons are air-sea gas exchange and chloride substitution. The latter may play an

important role for CH₃I in low latitudes at low wind speeds (Zafirou, 1975; Jones and Carpenter, 2007).

Oceanic measurements of natural halocarbons are sparse (Ziska et al., 2013), but reveal that especially tropical and subtropical upwelling systems are potentially important source regions (Quack et al., 2007a; Raimund et al., 2011). Previously observed high tropospheric iodine monoxide (IO) levels in the tropical East Pacific have been related to short-lived iodinated compounds in surface waters (Schönhardt et al., 2008; Dix et al., 2013). However, iodocarbon fluxes have not been considered high enough to explain observed IO concentrations (Jones et al., 2010; Mahajan et al., 2010; Grossmann et al., 2013; Lawler et al., 2014), and recent global modelling studies suggested abiotic sources contributing on average about 75 % to the IO budget (Prados-Roman et al., 2015). Such abiotic sources could be emissions of hypoiodous acid (HOI) and molecular iodine (I₂) as recently confirmed by a laboratory study (Carpenter et al., 2013).

This paper characterizes the Peruvian upwelling region between 5.0° S, 82.0° W and 16.2° S, 76.8° W with regard to the two brominated compounds CHBr₃ and CH₂Br₂ and the iodinated compounds CH₃I, CH₂ClI and CH₂I₂ in water and atmosphere. ~~CH₂ClI and CH₂I₂ The latter two compounds~~ were measured for the first time in this region. Possible oceanic sources based on the analysis of phytoplankton species composition and different DOM components were evaluated and identified. Sea-to-air fluxes of these halogenated compounds were derived and their contribution to the tropospheric iodine loading above the tropical East Pacific ~~were estimated~~ by combining halocarbon, ~~and~~ IO measurements and model calculations ~~were estimated~~.

2 Methods

The M91 cruise of the RV *Meteor* from December 1 to 26, 2012 investigated the surface ocean and atmosphere of the Peruvian upwelling region (Bange, 2013). From the northernmost location of the cruise at 5.0° S and 82.0° W, the ship moved to the southernmost position at 16.2° S and 76.8° W with several transects perpendicular to the coast, alternating between open ocean and coastal upwelling (Fig. 1). All underway measurements were taken from a continuously operating pump in the ship's hydrographic shaft from a depth of 6.8 m. Sea surface temperature (SST) and sea surface salinity (SSS) were measured continuously with a SeaCAT thermosalinograph from Seabird Electronics (SBE). Deep samples were taken from 4 to 10 depths between 1 and 2000 m from 12 L Niskin bottles attached to a 24-bottle-rosette sampler equipped with a CTD and an oxygen sensor from SBE.

Halocarbon samples were collected at 24 of the total 98 casts. The uppermost sample from the depth profiles (between 1 and 10 m) was included in the surface water measurements.

2.1 Analysis of halocarbon samples

Halocarbon samples were taken ~~three hourly~~ every three hours throughout the whole day from sea surface water and air. Water was sampled bubble free in 300 mL amber glass bottles. Surface water samples were analyzed on board with a purge and trap system attached to a GC-MS (combined gas chromatography and mass spectrometry) described in more detail in Hepach et al. (2014). The depth profile samples were analyzed with a similar setup: a purge and trap system was attached to a GC equipped with an ECD (electron capture detector). The precision of the measurements lay was within 10 % for all five halocarbons determined from duplicates and both systems were calibrated using the same liquid standards in methanol. The purge efficiency for all compounds in both set ups was larger than 98 % with a sample volume of 50 mL, a purging temperature of 70 °C, and a purge stream of 30 mL min⁻¹. Halocarbon measurements in seawater started only on December 9 due to ~~set-up problems~~ instrument issues. Atmospheric halocarbon samples were taken in pre-cleaned stainless steel canisters on the monkey deck at a height of 20 m above sea level using a metal bellows pump ~~from starting on~~ December 1, and were analyzed at the Rosenstiel School of Marine and Atmospheric Science (RSMAS) as described in Schauffler et al. (1998). For further details of atmospheric measurements see Fuhlbrügge et al. (2015a). Quantification was achieved using the NOAA standard SX3573 from GEOMAR.

2.2 Biological parameters

Phytoplankton composition was derived from pigment concentrations. Samples were taken in parallel with the halocarbon samples in the sea surface and up to six samples in depths between 3 and 200 m. Water was filtered with through GF/F filters, which were stored at -80 °C until analysis after shock-freezing in liquid nitrogen. Pigments as described in Taylor et al. (2011) were analyzed using a HPLC technique according to Barlow et al. (1997). We used the diagnostic pigment analysis by Vidussi et al. (2001), subsequently refined by Uitz et al. (2006) by introducing pigment specific weight coefficients, to determine the chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) concentration of seven groups of phytoplankton which are assumed to ~~build-up~~ comprise the entire phytoplankton community in ocean waters. Identified phytoplankton groups include diatoms, chlorophytes, dinoflagellates, haptophytes, cyanobacteria, cryptophytes and chrysophytes. Total chlorophyll *a* (TChl *a*) concentrations were calculated

from the sum of the pigment concentrations of monovinyl Chl *a*, divinyl Chl *a* and chlorophyllide *a*.

Samples for the identification of DOM components were taken at 37 stations from a rubber boat from subsurface water at approximately 20 cm (~~further called “subsurface”~~).

Very-well mixed layers at these measurement locations reach down to between 6 and 25 m, and DOM turn-over times for the respective compounds has been reported to be several days to months (Engel et al., 2011; Hansell, 2013). All samples were processed onboard and analyzed back in the home laboratory. Samples were analyzed for dissolved and total organic carbon (DOC and TOC), total dissolved nitrogen (TDN) and total nitrogen (TN) by a high-temperature catalytic oxidation method using a TOC analyzer (TOC-V_{CSH}) from Shimadzu. Total, dissolved and particulate high molecular weight (HMW, >1kDa) combined carbohydrates (TCCHO, DCCHO and PCCHO) ~~applying a high-temperature catalytic oxidation method using a TOC analyzer (TOC-V_{CSH}) from Shimadzu~~, as well as total, dissolved and particulate combined HMW uronic acids (TURA, DURA and PURA), i.e. galacturonic acid and glucuronic acid. ~~These~~ were analyzed by High Performance Anion Exchange Chromatography coupled with Pulsed Amperometric Detection (HPAEC-PAD) after Engel and Händel (2011). For a more detailed description of both the sampling method and analysis see Engel and Galgani (20156).

2.3 Correlation analysis

Correlation analyses between all halocarbons, biological proxies and ambient parameters were carried out using Matlab® for all collocated surface and depth samples. All datasets were tested for normal distribution using the Lilliefors-test. Since most of the data were not distributed normally, Spearman’s rank correlation (hereinafter called r_s) was used. All correlations with a significance level of smaller than 5 % ($p < 0.05$) were regarded as significant.

2.4 Calculation of sea-to-air fluxes

Sea-to-air fluxes F of halocarbons were calculated according to equation 1 with k_w as the gas exchange coefficient parameterized according to Nightingale et al. (2000), c_w the water concentrations from the halocarbon underway measurements, c_{atm} from the simultaneous atmospheric measurements and H as the Henry’s law constant to derive the equilibrium concentration.

$$F = k_w \cdot (c_w - \frac{c_{atm}}{H}) \quad (1)$$

The gas exchange coefficient usually applied to derive carbon dioxide fluxes was adjusted for halocarbons using Schmidt number corrections as calculated in Quack and Wallace (2003), and Henry's law coefficients as reported for each of the compounds by Moore et al. (1995) were applied. Wind speed and air pressure were averaged to 10 min intervals for the calculation of the instantaneous fluxes.

2.5 MAX-DOAS Measurements of IO

Multi-AXis Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (MAX-DOAS) (Hönninger, 2002; Platt and Stutz, 2008) observations were conducted continuously at daytime from November 30 to December 25 2012 in order to quantify tropospheric abundances of IO, BrO, HCHO, Glyoxal, NO₂ and HONO along the cruise track, and for aerosol profiles also of O₄. The MAX-DOAS instrument and the measurement procedure are described in Grossmann et al. (2013) and Lampel et al. (2015).

The primary quantity derived from MAX-DOAS measurements is the differential slant column density (dSCD), which represents the difference in path-integrated concentrations between two measurements in off-axis and zenith direction. From the MAX-DOAS observations of O₄ dSCD aerosol extinction profiles to estimate the quality of visibility were inferred using an optimal estimation approach described in Frieß et al. (2006) and Yilmaz (2012) after applying a correction factor of 1.25 to the O₄ dSCDs (Clémer et al., 2010). IO was analyzed in the spectral range from 418 – 438 nm following the settings in Lampel et al. (2015). IO was found up to 6 times above the detection limit (twice the measurement error).

2.6 FLEXPART simulations of tropospheric iodine

The atmospheric transport of the iodocarbons from the oceanic surface into the Marine Atmospheric Boundary Layer (MABL) was simulated with the Lagrangian particle dispersion model FLEXPART (Stohl et al., 2005) which has been used extensively in studies of long-range and mesoscale transport (Stohl and Trickl, 1999). FLEXPART is an off-line model driven by external meteorological fields. It includes parameterizations for moist convection, turbulence in the boundary layer, dry deposition, scavenging, and the simulation of chemical decay. We simulate trajectories of a multitude of air parcels describing transport and chemical decay of the emitted oceanic iodocarbons. For each data point of the observed sea-to-air flux,

100000 air parcels were released over the duration of the M91 cruise from a $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ grid box at the ocean surface centered at the measurement location. We used FLEXPART version 9.2 and the runs are driven by the ECMWF reanalysis product ERA-Interim (Dee et al., 2011) given at a horizontal resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ on 60 model levels. Transport, dispersion and convection of the air parcels are calculated from the 6-hourly fields of horizontal and vertical wind, temperature, specific humidity, convective and large scale precipitation and others. The chemical decay of the iodocarbons was prescribed by their atmospheric lifetime which was set to 4 days, 9 hours and 10 min for CH_3I , CH_2ClI , and CH_2I_2 , respectively, according to current estimates (Jones and Carpenter, 2005; Martino et al., 2006; Carpenter and Reimann, 2014). After degradation of the iodocarbons, the released iodine was simulated as inorganic iodine (I_y) tracer with a prescribed lifetime in the marine boundary layer with two days (personal communication R. von Glasow). Thus we did not include detailed tropospheric iodine chemistry, explicit removal of HOI , HI , IONO_2 , and I_xO_y through scavenging or heterogeneous recycling of HOI , IONO_2 , and INO_2 on aerosols (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2014). In order to estimate the uncertainties arising from this simplification, we conducted two additional simulations, one with a very short lifetime of one day and one with a longer lifetime of three days. Following model simulations of halogen chemistry for air masses from different oceanic regions in Sommariva and von Glasow (2012), IO corresponds to 20 % of the I_y budget in the marine boundary layer on a daytime average. The IO to I_y ratio shows moderate changes with daytime resulting in highest IO proportion at sunrise ($\sim 30\%$) and lowest IO proportion around noon ($\sim 15\%$) (see Fig. S6 in Sommariva and von Glasow (2012)). The ratio shows only very small variations for different air mass origins and thus the chemical conditions such as ozone and nitrogen species concentrations. Additionally, the ratio does not change much with altitude within the marine boundary layer. Based on the above estimates from Sommariva and von Glasow (2012), we used the IO to I_y ratio as a function of daytime to estimate IO from I_y every 3 hours. Daily averages of the IO abundance were compared to the MAX-DOAS IO measurements on board described in the next previous section.

3 The tropical East Pacific – general description and state during M91

The tropical East Pacific is characterized by one of the strongest and most productive all-year-prevailing eastern boundary upwelling systems of the world (Bakun and Weeks, 2008). Temperatures drop to less than 16°C when cold water from the Humboldt current is transported to the surface due to Ekman transport caused by strong equatorward winds

(Tomczak and Godfrey, 2005), which is also connected ~~with~~ to an upward transport of nutrients (Chavez et al., 2008). As a consequence of the enhanced nutrient supply and the high solar insolation, phytoplankton blooms, indicated by high Chl *a* values, can be observed at the surface especially in the boreal winter months (Echevin et al., 2008). A strong oxygen
5 minimum zone (OMZ) is formed due to enhanced primary production, sinking particles and weak circulation (Karstensen et al., 2008).

Low SSTs of mean (min – max) 19.4 (15.0 – 22.4) °C and high TChl *a* values of on average 1.80 (0.06 – 12.65) µg L⁻¹ (Table 1, Fig. 1) were measured during our cruise. Diatoms were dominating the TChl *a* concentration in the surface water with a mean of 1.66 (0.00 – 10.47)
10 µg Chl *a* L⁻¹, followed by haptophytes (mean: 0.25 µg Chl *a* L⁻¹), chlorophytes (mean: 0.19 µg Chl *a* L⁻¹), cyanobacteria (mean: 0.09 µg Chl *a* L⁻¹), dinoflagellates (mean: 0.08 µg Chl *a* L⁻¹), cryptophytes (mean: 0.03 µg Chl *a* L⁻¹), and finally chrysophytes (mean: 0.03 µg Chl *a* L⁻¹). Diatoms were observed at all stations with concentrations above 0.5 µg Chl *a* L⁻¹ ~~to~~
contributing more than 50 % of the algal biomass. They ~~correlated very well were~~
15 **significantly correlated** with TChl *a* (Table 2) and with cryptophytes, which were elevated in very similar regions. Abundance of these phytoplankton groups was strongly anticorrelated with SST and SSS, indicating a close conjunction with the colder and more saline upwelling waters. Nutrients (nitrate, nitrite, ammonium and phosphate) were also measured during the cruise (see Czeschel et al. (2015) for further information). A weak anticorrelation of
20 phytoplankton **group** with the ratio of dissolved inorganic nitrogen and phosphate (sum of nitrate, nitrite and ammonium divided by phosphate, DIN:DIP) (Table 2) indicated that diatoms and cryptophytes were more abundant in aged upwelling, where nutrients were already slightly depleted or used up. The TChl *a* maximum was generally found in the surface ocean except for four stations with overall low TChl *a* (< 0.5 µg L⁻¹) where a subsurface
25 maximum around 30 and 50 m was identified.

All regions with SSTs below the mean of 19.4 °C are considered as upwelling in the following sections for identifying different significant regions for halocarbon production. Based on this criterion, four upwelling regions (I – IV) close to the coast were classified (Fig. 1). The most intense upwelling (lowest SSTs, high nutrient concentrations) appeared in the
30 northernmost region of the cruise track, region I, while higher TChl *a* and lower nutrients indicate a fully developed bloom in the southern part of the cruise (upwelling regions III and IV). Upwelling region II was characterized by a lower DIN:DIP ratio in contrast to region I. SSS with a mean of 34.95 (34.10 and 35.50) is lowest in upwelling region IV, which is likely influenced by local river input such as the rivers Pisco, Cañete and Matagente, and may

explain the observed low salinities due to enhanced fresh water input in boreal winter (Bruland et al., 2005).

4 Halocarbons in the surface water and depth profiles during M91

5 4.1 Halocarbon distribution in surface water

Measurements of halocarbons in the tropical East Pacific are very sparse and no data were available for the Peruvian upwelling system before our campaign. Sea surface concentrations of CHBr_3 with a mean of 6.6 (0.2 – 21.5) and of CH_2Br_2 of 4.3 (0.2 – 12.7) pmol L^{-1} were measured during M91 (Table 1, Fig. 2). These values are low in comparison to 44.7 pmol L^{-1} CHBr_3 in tropical upwelling systems in the Atlantic, while our measurements of CH_2Br_2 compare better to these upwelling systems, from which maximum concentrations of 9.4 pmol L^{-1} were reported (Quack et al., 2007a; Carpenter et al., 2009; Hepach et al., 2014; Hepach et al., 2015). CHBr_3 (0.2– 20.7 pmol L^{-1}) and CH_2Br_2 (0.7 – 6.5 pmol L^{-1}) concentrations in the tropical East Pacific open ocean and Chilean coastal waters during a cruise from Punta Arenas, Chile to Seattle, USA in April 2010 (Liu et al., 2013) compare well to our data. **The most elevated concentrations measured at the Chilean coast agree with our elevated northern coastal data.** Some measurements also exist for the tropical West Pacific with on average 0.5 to 3 times ~~the our~~ CHBr_3 and 0.2 to 1 times ~~the our~~ CH_2Br_2 ~~during our cruise~~ with the high average originating from a campaign close to the coast with macroalgal and anthropogenic sources (Krüger and Quack, 2013; Fuhlbrügge et al., 2015b). CHBr_3 and CH_2Br_2 have been proposed to have similar sources (Moore et al., 1996; Quack et al., 2007b). However, during our cruise, the correlation between the two compounds was comparatively weak ($r_s = 0.56$), consistent with the findings of Liu et al. (2013), who ascribed the weaker correlation of these two compounds to formation in a common ecosystem rather than to the exact same biological sources. Maxima of CH_2Br_2 were observed in both upwelling regions III and IV, while CHBr_3 was highest in the most southerly upwelling IV (Fig. 2).

While we found the Peruvian upwelling and the adjacent waters to be only a moderate source region for bromocarbons, iodocarbons were observed in high concentration of 10.9 (0.4 – 58.1) for CH_2I_2 , 9.8 (1.1 – 35.4) for CH_3I and 7.7 (0.2 – 32.4) pmol L^{-1} for CH_2I_2 (Table 1, Fig. 3a). These concentrations identify the Peruvian upwelling as a significant source region of iodocarbons, especially considering the very short lifetimes of CH_2I_2 (10 min) and CH_2I_2 (9 h) in tropical surface water (Jones and Carpenter, 2005). Hot spots were upwelling regions III and even more the less fresh upwelling of region IV (Fig. 2 and 3).

The occurrence of CH₃I in the tropical oceans (up to 36.5 pmol L⁻¹) has previously been attributed to a predominantly photochemical source (Richter and Wallace, 2004; Jones et al., 2010), explaining its global hot spots in the subtropical gyres and close to the tropical western boundaries of the continents (Ziska et al., 2013; Stemmler et al., 2014). Previous
5 ~~measurements campaigns~~ in the East Pacific obtained concentrations of up to 21.7 and ~~of~~ up to 8.8 pmol L⁻¹ (Butler et al., 2007), but not directly in the upwelling.

No oceanic observations of CH₂ClI and CH₂I₂ have been published so far for the tropical East Pacific. Concentrations of CH₂ClI of up to 24.5 pmol L⁻¹ were measured in the tropical and subtropical Atlantic ocean (Abrahamsson et al., 2004; Chuck et al., 2005; Jones et al., 2010)
10 and up to 17.1 pmol L⁻¹ for CH₂I₂ (Jones et al., 2010; Hepach et al., 2015), which is lower but in the range of our measurements from the Peruvian upwelling.

Correlations between the compounds indicate similar sources for all measured halocarbons, except for CH₂Br₂, with upwelling region IV as hot spot area (Fig. 2). The strongest correlation was found for CH₃I with CH₂ClI ($r_s = 0.83$). ~~While~~ CH₂I₂ and CH₂ClI are often
15 found to ~~also~~-correlate very well with each other (Tokarczyk and Moore, 1994; Moore et al., 1996; Archer et al., 2007), ~~mostly usually~~ attributed to the formation of CH₂ClI during photolysis of CH₂I₂. In comparison, the weaker correlation between CH₂ClI and CH₂I₂ ($r_s = 0.59$) during our cruise may be the result of additional sources for CH₂ClI (see also section 5).

4.2 Halocarbon distribution in depth profiles

20 Depth profiles of halocarbons reveal maxima at the surface and around the Chl *a* maximum, usually attributed to biological production of these compounds. CHBr₃ and CH₂Br₂ profiles (~~not shown Fig. 4a – b~~) showed distinct maxima in the deeper Chl *a* maximum during ~~a~~ large part of the cruise, while some profiles were characterized by elevated concentrations in the surface usually associated with upwelling water. Both kinds of profiles are consistent with
25 previous studies finding maxima in the deeper water column in the open ocean and surface maxima in upwelling regions (Yamamoto et al., 2001; Quack et al., 2004; Hepach et al., 2015). During the northern part of M91 (upwelling III), CH₂Br₂ in the water column was more elevated than CHBr₃ (Fig. 4a), while during the remaining part of the cruise, CHBr₃ was usually higher (Fig. 4b).

30 Though most of the stations were characterized by subsurface maxima of iodocarbons, which were mostly located between 10 and 50 m (see example in Fig. 4, upper panel), surface maxima were often observed in upwelling region IV (see example in Fig. 4, lower panel), the region with highest iodocarbon concentrations. Profiles with surface maxima were generally

characterized by much higher concentrations of these compounds, **although we cannot completely preclude subsurface maxima at these locations owing to the sampling interval.** **CH₂I₂ was hardly detected in deeper water in the northern part of our measurements (Fig. 4, upper panel).** ~~Similarly to very low CH₂I₂ concentrations in the surface in the northern part of the measurements, it was also hardly detected in the deeper water in this region (Fig. 4, upper panel).~~ Surface maxima in depth profiles of CH₃I and CH₂ClI were connected to surface maxima of several phytoplankton species, mainly diatoms ($r_s = 0.57$ and 0.62). Direct and indirect biological and photochemical formation account as possible sources for these maxima. CH₂I₂ was usually strongly depleted in the surface in contrast to the deeper layers due to its rapid photolysis, which may also have been a source for surface CH₂ClI. Subsurface maxima occurred both below and within the mixed layer (see the example in Fig. 4d indicated by the temperature-, salinity- and density profiles). Maxima in the mixed layer probably appear because of very fast production (Hepach et al., 2015), while maxima below the mixed layer are supported by accumulation due to reduced mixing.

All five halocarbons were strongly depleted in waters below 50 m. These deeper layers were also characterized by very low oxygen values, known as strong OMZ below the biologically active layers (Karstensen et al., 2008). A possible reason for the strong depletion of the halocarbons is their bacterial mediated reductive dehalogenation occurring under anaerobic conditions (Bouwer et al., 1981; Tanhua et al., 1996).

5 Relationship of surface halocarbons to environmental parameters

Physical and chemical parameters as well as biological proxies such as TChl *a* and phytoplankton group composition were investigated using correlation analysis in order to **investigate examine** marine sources of halocarbons.

5.1 Potential bromocarbon sources

Bromocarbons were weakly, but significantly anticorrelated with SSS and SST (r_s between -0.29 and -0.57), indicating sources in the upwelled water (Table 2). They showed a positive correlation with diatoms ($r_s = 0.58$ for both compounds), the dominant phytoplankton group in the region. Diatoms have already been found to be involved in bromocarbon production in several laboratory and field studies (Tokarczyk and Moore, 1994; Moore et al., 1996; Quack et al., 2007b; Hughes et al., 2013). Thus, these findings are in agreement with current assumptions that **diatoms this group** may contribute directly or indirectly to bromocarbon

production. During M91, CH₂Br₂ was more abundant in cooler, nutrient-rich water than CHBr₃, leading to a stronger correlation with TChl *a* and SST, indicating an additional source associated with fresh upwelling. No significant correlations were found for bromocarbons with polysaccharidic DOM (Table 3), implying that DOM components analyzed during the cruise were not involved in bromocarbon production, at least not in the upper water column.

Bromocarbon production from DOM has also been suggested to be slow (Liu et al. 2015), which could shift larger bromocarbon concentrations to later times after our cruise.

5.2 Iodinated compounds and phytoplankton

In general, the iodocarbons correlated stronger with biological parameters than the bromocarbons. Diatoms were found to correlate very strongly with all three iodocarbons ($r_s = 0.73$ with CH₃I, $r_s = 0.79$ with CH₂ClI and $r_s = 0.72$). Weak but significant anticorrelations with DIN:DIP and SST suggest that iodocarbons were associated with cool and slightly DIN depleted water. The occurrence of large amounts of iodocarbons seemed to be associated with an established diatom bloom. The production of CH₃I, CH₂ClI and CH₂I₂ by a number of diatom species has been observed in several studies before (Moore et al., 1996; Manley and de la Cuesta, 1997), consistent with our findings. The very high correlation of cryptophytes with iodocarbons was likely based on the co-occurrence of these species with diatoms (Table 2 and description in section 3).

5.3 Iodinated compounds and DOM

Correlations of the three iodinated compounds to polysaccharidic DOM components in subsurface water revealed a strong relationship of the iodocarbon abundance with polysaccharides and in particular uronic acids (Table 3). CH₃I and CH₂ClI showed strong correlations with particulate uronic acids (both $r_s = 0.84$), total uronic acids ($r_s = 0.83$ and 0.88) and dissolved polysaccharides ($r_s = 0.82$ and 0.90). The correlations of CH₂I₂ with polysaccharides were less strong, but significant ($r_s = 0.68$ with particulate, $r_s = 0.66$ with total and $r_s = 0.55$ with dissolved). The above listed DOM components were also significantly correlated to diatoms ($r_s = 0.68$ with polysaccharides and $r_s = 0.75$ with uronic acids), which were a potential source for the accumulated organic matter in the subsurface. The exact composition of surface water DOM is determined by ~~the phytoplankton species ecosystem compositions producing the DOM~~. Polysaccharides with uronic acids as an important

constituent have for example been shown to contribute largely to the DOM pool in a diatom rich region (Engel et al., 2012).

Hill and Manley (2009) tested several diatom species for their production of halocarbons in a laboratory study, and suggested that a major formation pathway for polyhalogenated compounds may actually not be from direct algal production, but rather indirectly through their release of hypiodous (HOI) and hypobromous acid (HOBr), which then react with the present DOM (Lin and Manley, 2012; Liu et al., 2015). The formation of HOI and HOBr within the algae is enzymatic with possible chloroperoxidase (CPO), BPO and iodoperoxidase (IPO) involvement. While CPO and BPO may produce both HOBr and HOI, IPO only leads to HOI. Moore et al. (1996) suggested that the occurrence of BPO and IPO in the phytoplankton cells may be highly species dependent. This leads to the assumption that diatoms abundant in the Peruvian upwelling contained more IPO than BPO, which could explain the higher abundance of iodocarbons relative to bromocarbons during M91.

The formation of CH_3I through DOM may be different than the production of CH_2ClI and CH_2I_2 . While CH_2I_2 is suggested to be formed via haloform-type reactions (Carpenter et al., 2005), CH_3I is produced using a methyl-radical source (White, 1982). The relationship of CH_3I with DOM can be the result of both photochemical and biological production pathways: DOM, which was observed in high concentrations in the biologically productive waters, can act as the methyl-radical source during photochemical production of CH_3I (Bell et al., 2002).

A second possible biological pathway of methyl iodide production takes place via bacteria and micro algae, which can utilize methyl transferases in their cells. HOI plays a significant role in this production pathway by providing the iodine to the methyl group (Yokouchi et al., 2014).

~~In conclusion,~~ The Peruvian upwelling was a strong source for the iodocarbons CH_3I , CH_2ClI and CH_2I_2 , and a weaker source for the bromocarbons CHBr_3 and CH_2Br_2 . We propose a formation mechanism for this region as described in Fig. 5 based on measurements of short-lived halocarbons and biological parameters during M91. Diatoms, which can contain the necessary enzymes for halocarbon formation, were identified as important source based on their strong correlations with the bromo- and iodocarbons and with polysaccharidic DOM. The very good correlations of iodocarbons with polysaccharides and uronic acids are a hint that these DOM components may have been important substrates for iodocarbon production potentially produced from the present diatoms. The higher iodocarbon concentrations can likely be explained by phytoplankton species containing more IPO than BPO, leading to a stronger production of iodocarbons. Additionally, the particular type of DOM may also have

regulated the production of specific halocarbons (Liu et al., 2015), in this case CH_3I , CH_2CII and CH_2I_2 .

One interesting feature of our analysis is the fact that CH_2I_2 when compared to the other two iodocarbons showed weaker correlations with the polysaccharides possibly due to its shorter surface water lifetime. Moreover, CH_2I_2 and CH_2CII showed weaker correlations in the Peruvian upwelling than during other cruises in the tropical Atlantic, namely MSM18/3 (Hepach et al., 2015) and DRIVE (Hepach et al., 2014). Combining the two arguments of a short CH_2I_2 lifetime and only a weak correlation between CH_2I_2 and CH_2CII , this may indicate an additional source for CH_2CII similar to CH_3I , explaining why CH_3I and CH_2CII correlate much better with each other than with CH_2I_2 .

6 From the ocean to the atmosphere

6.1 Sea-to-air fluxes of iodocarbons

Due to high oceanic iodocarbon concentrations measured in sea surface water of the Peruvian upwelling and despite the moderate prevailing wind speeds of $6.17 (0.42 - 15.47) \text{ m s}^{-1}$, high iodocarbon sea-to-air fluxes were calculated in contrast to the rather low bromocarbon emissions during ~~this M91~~ our cruise (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2015a). The highest average fluxes of the three iodocarbons of 954 (21 – 4686) were calculated for CH_3I , followed by 834 (-24 – 5652) for CH_2CII , and finally 504 (-126 – 2546) $\text{pmol m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for CH_2I_2 (Table 1). These were on average 4 to 7 times higher than CHBr_3 and 2 to 4 times higher than the CH_2Br_2 sea-to-air fluxes during the cruise.

Our estimated fluxes of CH_3I are in the range of emissions calculated for the tropical and subtropical Atlantic of 625 to 2154 $\text{pmol m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (Chuck et al., 2005; Jones et al., 2010). Moore and Groszko (1999), who performed a study between 40° N and 40° S close to our investigation region but not covering the Peruvian upwelling, calculated on average 666 $\text{pmol m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$, which is 0.7 times our flux. Sea-to-air fluxes of CH_2CII from the same studies were reported to range on average between 250 and 1138 $\text{pmol m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ with the largest fluxes originating from the Mauritanian upwelling region. These are 0.3 to 1.4 times the fluxes we calculated, showing that the Peruvian upwelling region is at the top end of oceanic CH_2CII emissions. We are only aware of two studies focusing on emissions of CH_2I_2 from the Atlantic tropical ocean (Jones et al., 2010; Hepach et al., 2015) which are on average 0.2, respectively 1.4 times the fluxes from the tropical East Pacific. The larger sea-to-air fluxes reported in Hepach et al. (2015) from the equatorial Atlantic cold tongue are mainly a result

of much lower atmospheric mixing ratios there, increasing the concentration gradient, and additionally higher wind speeds, increasing the exchange coefficient k_w .

Summarizing this section, the large production of iodocarbons in the Peruvian upwelling led to enhanced emissions of these compounds to the troposphere despite very low wind speeds.

- 5 An additional factor influencing halocarbon emissions is the low height and insolation of the MABL, where halocarbons accumulate above the air-sea interface. The large sea-to-air fluxes and low wind speeds should result in high tropospheric iodocarbons, which was indeed observed and is discussed in the following section.

6.2 Atmospheric iodocarbons

- 10 Atmospheric mixing ratios of the three iodocarbons were elevated during M91 with up to 3.2 ppt for CH_3I , up to 2.5 ppt for CH_2ClI and up to 3.3 ppt for CH_2I_2 (Table 1), likely a result of the strong production and emissions of these compounds.

- CH_3I data were generally elevated in comparison to other eastern Pacific measurements of up to 2.1 ppt CH_3I (Butler et al., 2007), but lower than in the tropical central and East Atlantic around the equator, characterized by higher atmospheric CH_3I of over 5 ppt (Ziska et al., 2013). Both CH_2ClI and CH_2I_2 were also elevated in comparison to previous oceanic measurements, where e.g. 0.01 to 0.99 ppt CH_2ClI were measured for remote locations in the Atlantic and Pacific (Chuck et al., 2005; Varner et al., 2008) and only up to 0.07 ppt were reported for CH_2I_2 at a remote site in the Pacific (Yokouchi et al., 2011). Coastal areas with high macroalgal abundance were characterized by high CH_2ClI of up to 3.4 ppt (Varner et al., 2008) and up to 3.1 ppt CH_2I_2 (Carpenter et al., 1999; Peters et al., 2005), while 19.8 ppt (Peters et al., 2005) were measured at Mace Head, Ireland and Lilia, Brittany in the North Atlantic.

- The different atmospheric lifetimes of the three iodocarbons, ranging between 4 d (CH_3I), 9 h (CH_2ClI) and 10 min (CH_2I_2) (Carpenter and Reimann, 2014), partly explain the observed differences in their distributions. Although atmospheric CH_3I was generally elevated in regions of high oceanic CH_3I (Fig. 3) in upwelling regions III and IV, the atmospheric and oceanic data did not show a significant correlation. The CH_3I lifetime of several days allows atmospheric CH_3I to mix within the MABL, possibly masking a correlation between local source regions and elevated mixing ratios.

The two shorter-lived iodinated compounds CH_2ClI and CH_2I_2 generally showed a stronger influence of local marine sources. Both species correlate significantly with their oceanic concentrations with $r_s = 0.60$ (CH_2ClI) and $r_s = 0.64$ (CH_2I_2). Oceanic CH_2ClI and CH_2I_2 were

emitted into the boundary layer where they could accumulate during night (see comparison with global radiation in Fig. 3b), and were rapidly degraded during day time via photolysis, which is their main sink in the troposphere (Carpenter and Reimann, 2014). **This accumulation is especially apparent when the data is separated into “day” and “night” according to global radiation measurements assuming that no radiation implies complete darkness. During the day, oceanic CH₂CH and CH₂I₂ correlate weakly with $r = 0.5$ for CH₂CH and no significant correlation for CH₂I₂ ($r = 0.4$), also owing to the fact that hardly any CH₂I₂ was measured during daylight. However, oceanic CH₂CH and CH₂I₂ correlate significantly with their atmospheric counterparts with $r = 0.68$ and 0.92 in the night hours (Fig. 7).** Moderate average wind speeds in the upwelling regions (Fig. 6) and stable atmospheric boundary layer conditions (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2015a) supported the accumulation of these compounds.

The Peruvian upwelling was in general characterized by elevated atmospheric iodocarbons as a result of their large sea-to-air fluxes caused by strong biological production. The upwelling could sustain elevated atmospheric levels of e.g. CH₃I, ~~could~~ trapped iodocarbons and their degradation products in a stable MABL, and may have therefore contributed significantly to the tropospheric inorganic iodine budget, which is discussed in the following.

6.3 Contributions to tropospheric iodine

After their emission from the ocean and their chemical degradation in the marine boundary layer, iodocarbons contribute to the atmospheric inorganic iodine budget, I_y. The importance of this contribution compared to abiotic sources is currently under debate and analyzed for various oceanic environments (Mahajan et al., 2010; Grossmann et al., 2013; Prados-Roman et al., 2015). So far, no correlations of IO with ~~the~~ organic iodine precursor species have been observed (Grossmann et al., 2013) and correlations between IO and Chl *a* were often found to be negative (Mahajan et al., 2012; Gómez Martín et al., 2013). Chemical modelling studies, undertaken to explain the contributions of organic and inorganic oceanic iodine sources, simulated that only a small fraction of the atmospheric IO stems from the organic precursors with estimates of about 25 % on a global average (Prados-Roman et al., 2015). Both arguments, the missing correlations and the small contributions, indicate that the organic source gas emissions play a minor role for the atmospheric iodine budget. Given the special conditions of the Peruvian upwelling with cold nutrient rich waters, the strong iodocarbon sources, and a stable MABL and trade inversion, it is of interest to analyze the local

contributions to the atmosphere in this region and to compare with estimates from other oceanic environments.

We focus our analysis on the section of the cruise where MAX-DOAS measurements of IO and simultaneous iodocarbon measurements in the surface water and atmosphere were made (roughly south of 10° S). Tropospheric VCDs of IO in the range of $2.5 - 6.0 \times 10^{12}$ molec cm⁻² were inferred from the MAX-DOAS measurements. Similar VCDs of IO were reported by Schönhardt et al. (2008) based on remote satellite measurements from SCIAMACHY. Volume mixing ratios of IO along the cruise track (Fig. 8a) derived from the MAX-DOAS measurements show a pronounced variability and maxima close to upwelling regions II and IV. Daytime averaged IO volume mixing ratios are displayed in Fig. 8b and range between 0.8 ppt (on December 12 and December 22) and 1.5 ppt (on December 26). Overall the daytime IO abundance in the MABL above the Peruvian upwelling was relatively high compared to measurements from the nearby Galapagos islands (~ 0.4 ppt) (Gómez Martín et al., 2013) and from other tropical oceans such as the Malaspina 2010 circumnavigation (0.4 – 1 ppt) (Prados-Roman et al., 2015). Other measurement campaigns such as the Cape Verde measurements (Read et al., 2008) or the TransBrom Sonne in the West Pacific (Grossmann et al., 2013) found similar IO mixing ratios with values above 1 ppt, but significantly lower IO VCDs ~~in case of the latter in the latter case~~.

The M91 cruise track crisscrossed the waters between the coast and 200 km offshore multiple times, providing a comprehensive set of measurements over a confined area (see Fig. 8a) and allowing us to analyze the relation between IO and organic precursors. Assuming constant emissions over the cruise period we can link the oceanic sources with atmospheric IO observations at locations reached after hours to days of atmospheric transport. Therefore, we released FLEXPART trajectories from all sea surface measurement locations continuously over the whole measurement time period from December 8 to December 26 loaded with the oceanic **organic** iodine as prescribed by the observed iodocarbon emissions. Based on the simulations of transport and chemical decay described in Section 2.5, we derived organic and inorganic iodine mixing ratios individually for each air parcel. Mixing with air parcels impacted by other source regions was not taken into account. FLEXPART-based IO originating from organic precursors was derived as mean values over all air parcels in the MABL coinciding with the MAX-DOAS measurement locations within an area of 5 km x 5 km. Simplifying assumptions of a prescribed inorganic iodine lifetime (2 days) and IO to I_y ratio (0.15 to 0.3) were made to derive the IO mixing ratios. Uncertainties were estimated based on additional runs with varying atmospheric lifetime of inorganic iodine (1 – 3 days).

For the first part of the cruise from December 8 to December 18, FLEXPART-derived IO mixing ratio estimates at the MAX-DOAS measurement locations (red line in Fig. 8b and c) explain between 40 and 70 % (55 % on average) of the measured IO assuming a lifetime for inorganic iodine of 2 days. As a consequence, about 0.5 ppt of IO is expected to originate from other, likely inorganic, iodine sources. For the scenario of a shorter I_y lifetime (one day), we find that the organic sources explain about 30 % of the IO and for a relatively long lifetime (three days), 80 % can be explained. In general, the air masses were transported along the coast in northwest direction and organic sources contribute to the IO budget along this transport path. Most of the IO results from CH_2ClI (Fig. 8c) which was transported some hours northwestwards (lifetime of 9 hours) before contributing to the atmospheric inorganic iodine budget.

For the second part of the cruise from December 19 to December 26, the amount of IO estimated from organic precursors was much smaller and often close to zero. This very small organic contribution was caused by two facts. First, the instantaneous sources during the last part of the cruise were much smaller (Fig. 6b – d) and second, further southward situated sources, which also influence the iodine abundance in the cruise track region were not analyzed and thus not included in the simulations. Because of missing information on the source strength and distribution southwards of the cruise track, a proper comparison is only

possible for the first part of the cruise before December 19. However, given that the MAX-DOAS measurements of IO remained relatively high during the second part of the cruise, it is likely that additional significant organic iodine sources existed further southwards. This assumption is also supported by the fact that atmospheric CH₃I mixing ratios remained relatively high during the second part of the cruise (50 % compared to the earlier part, see Fig. 3b) while the water concentrations were close to zero. Consequently, a source region of CH₃I must have existed further southwards contributing to the observed mixing ratios of CH₃I and IO after some hours to days of atmospheric transport.

While the contribution of organic iodine to IO during the first part of the cruise is considerably higher than found in other regions, the amount of inorganic iodine precursors of 0.5 ppt necessary to explain total IO is very similar to the one derived in other studies (Prados-Roman et al., 2015). The higher organic contribution was consistent with the fact that there was an overall higher IO abundance compared to most other campaigns. Instantaneous IO and organic source gas emissions during M91 were not directly correlated. However, taking the transport within the first hours and days into account enables us to explain a considerable part of the atmospheric IO variations with the variability of the oceanic organic sources (Fig. 8b). Overall, we conclude that for the Peruvian upwelling region with special conditions in the ocean and atmosphere, higher iodocarbon sources lead to larger IO abundances while the absolute inorganic contribution is similar to other regions.

7 Conclusions

The Peruvian upwelling at the west coast of South America was characterized for halocarbons for the first time during the M91 cruise. We measured moderate concentrations of the bromocarbons CHBr₃ and CH₂Br₂, while we observed exceptionally high concentrations of the iodocarbons CH₃I, CH₂ClI and CH₂I₂ in the surface seawater.

CHBr₃ and CH₂Br₂ were significantly correlated with TChl *a* and diatoms, suggesting biological formation of these compounds. Higher correlations of diatoms were found with the three iodocarbons, and even stronger correlations of the iodocarbons with the DOM components polysaccharides and uronic acids were observed. The polyhalogenated compounds CH₂ClI and CH₂I₂ were potentially formed via these DOM components with the likely involvement of diatoms. CH₃I may have been formed via photochemistry from the large pool of observed DOM and/or biologically via methyl transferases in micro algae and bacteria. The production of iodocarbons from DOM via the proposed mechanisms seems to

have exceeded the bromocarbon production in the region in contrast to several previous studies in tropical Atlantic upwelling regions (Hepach et al., 2014; Hepach et al., 2015).

Depth profiles showed subsurface maxima, common in the open ocean, and very pronounced and elevated surface maxima in regions of highest underway iodocarbon concentrations. The surface water was always depleted in CH_2I_2 with respect to the underlying water column due to its very rapid photolysis. The OMZ at depth was strongly depleted in all five measured halocarbons, suggesting an effective sink in the oxygen depleted waters.

The high oceanic iodocarbon concentrations and elevated emissions also led to elevated atmospheric mixing ratios in the marine boundary layer. Atmospheric CH_2ClI and CH_2I_2 showed clear diurnal cycles, accumulating during night and decreasing rapidly during day time. Despite previous suggestions that the tropospheric iodine loading is mainly a product from direct emission of HOI and I_2 , we calculated important contributions of iodocarbons to the observed IO levels. Using FLEXPART, we estimated a contribution of combined iodocarbon fluxes to IO of 30 to 80 % assuming an inorganic iodine lifetime between 1 and 3 days. This contribution of organoiodine is much higher than previously assumed (Prados-Roman et al., 2015), suggesting that iodocarbons therefore may contribute significantly to tropospheric iodine levels in regions of strong iodocarbon production mediated by phytoplankton (diatoms) and bacteria.

Our observations reveal several uncertainties which need to be addressed in the future to better constrain the halocarbon budget and understand its role in a changing climate. Further studies of upwelling regions need to be performed in different seasons and years, since these regions are impacted by synoptic and climatic conditions, which are expected to have an impact on the strength of halocarbon emissions. A regular monitoring and better knowledge of halocarbon sources and emissions is severely needed, since these have numerous implications for atmospheric processes such as ozone chemistry and aerosol formation, which have been investigated in several atmospheric modeling studies. These studies have mostly applied Chl *a* as proxy for halocarbon emissions. However, the potential involvement of DOM in the production of both iodo- and bromocarbons and the often weak correlation to Chl *a* in the field raises the question whether Chl *a* is a suitable parameter to estimate halocarbon concentrations. Laboratory studies are therefore crucial to help identifying more adequate parameters for predicting halocarbons in the ocean. Associated with the involvement of DOM in iodocarbon production is the occurrence of the relevant DOM components in large concentrations in the sea surface microlayer (SML) (Engel and Galgani, 2015). The SML has been shown to cover a wide range of oceanic regions (Wurl et al., 2011), which could

represent a significant additional source to atmospheric iodocarbons. The potential of the SML to produce CH_2I_2 has been previously suggested by Martino et al. (2009), who proposed that HOI converted from iodide in the SML may react with the present DOM, which may apply to CH_2ClI and CH_3I as well. Furthermore, the SML is in direct contact to the atmosphere, and the direct exposure to light may enhance halocarbon emissions (see also Fig. 5). The influence of these halocarbon emissions on the tropospheric halogen loading is still very much under debate, and our results underline the importance to constrain the actual contribution of these compounds to tropospheric halogen chemistry.

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Figures

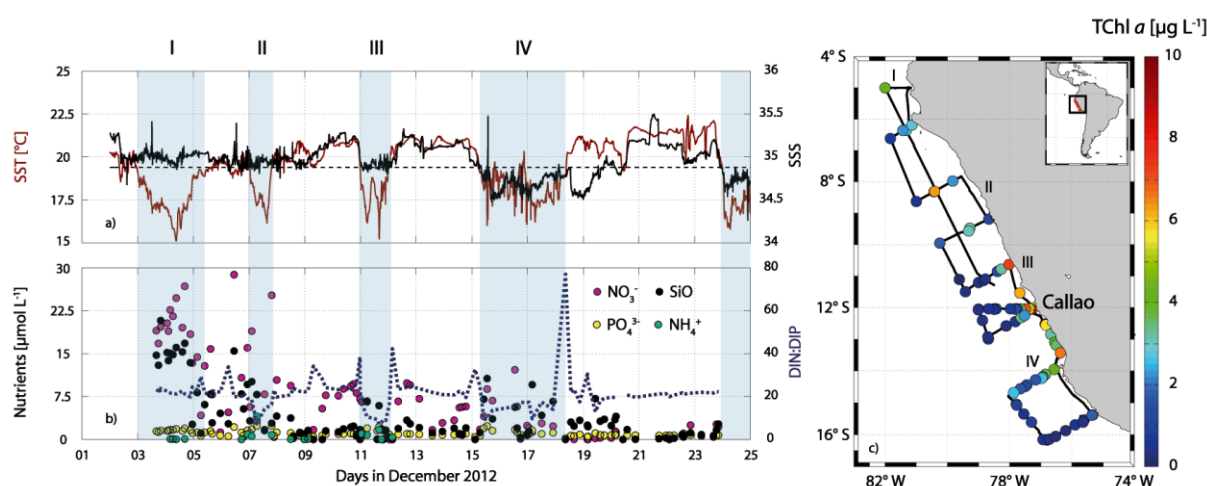


Figure 1. Ambient parameters during the M91 cruise: SST (dark red) and sea surface salinity (SSS) (black) in a) with the dashed line as the mean SST. Nutrients (purple is nitrate – NO_3^- , yellow is phosphate – PO_4^{3-} , black is silicate – SiO_2 , light cyan is ammonium – NH_4^+) with the N to P ratio (dark blue dashed line) are shown in b). Total chlorophyll *a* (Tchl *a*) is shown in the map in c). The light blue shaded areas stand for the regions where SST is below the mean, indicating upwelling of cold water.

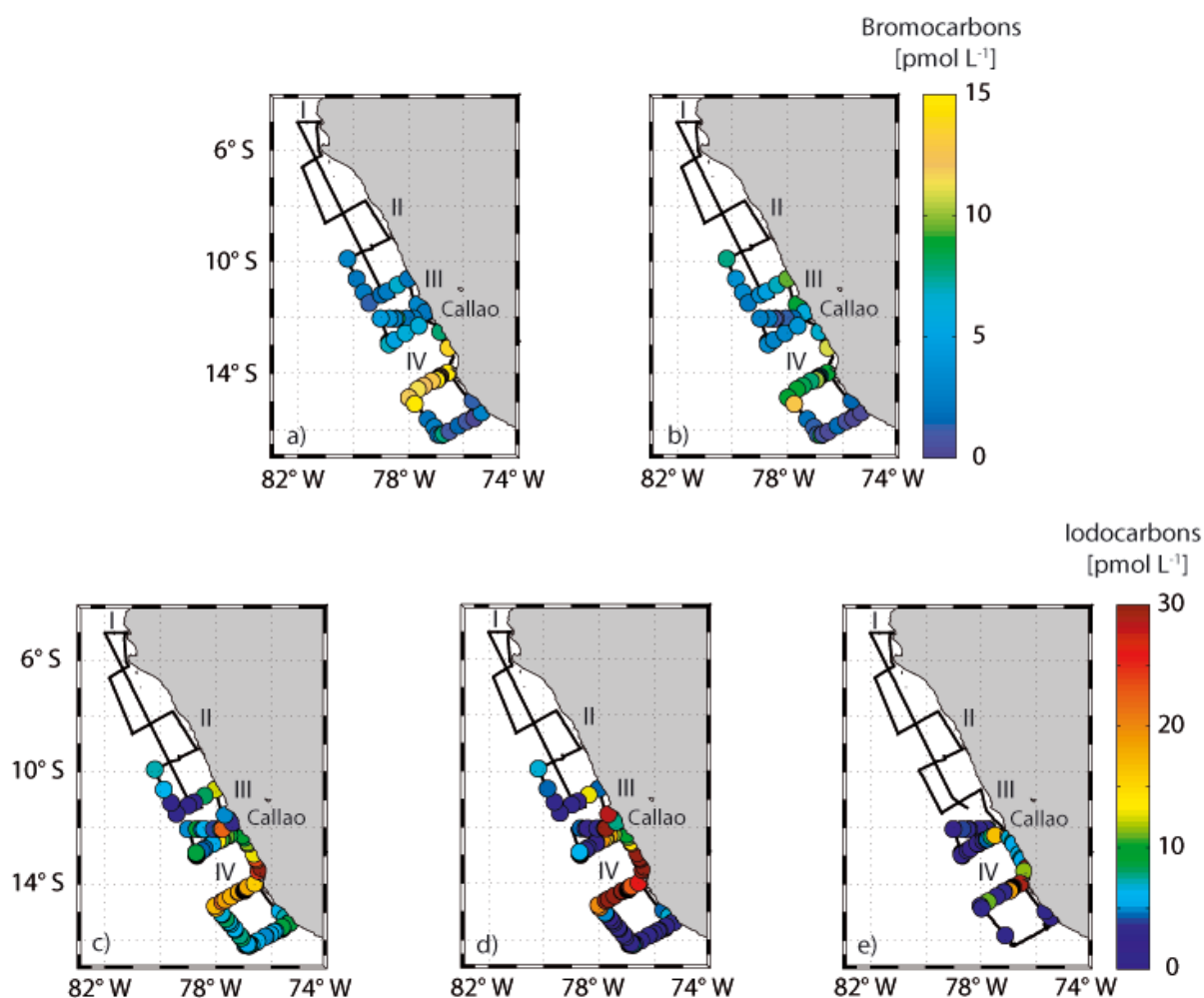


Figure 2. Halocarbon surface water measurements are shown in a) and b) for the bromocarbons (note the colorbar in the upper panel) with a – CHBr_3 and b – CH_2Br_2 . Iodocarbons can be found in c) – e) (note the colorbar in the lower panel) with c – CH_3I , d – CH_2ClI and e – CH_2I_2 .

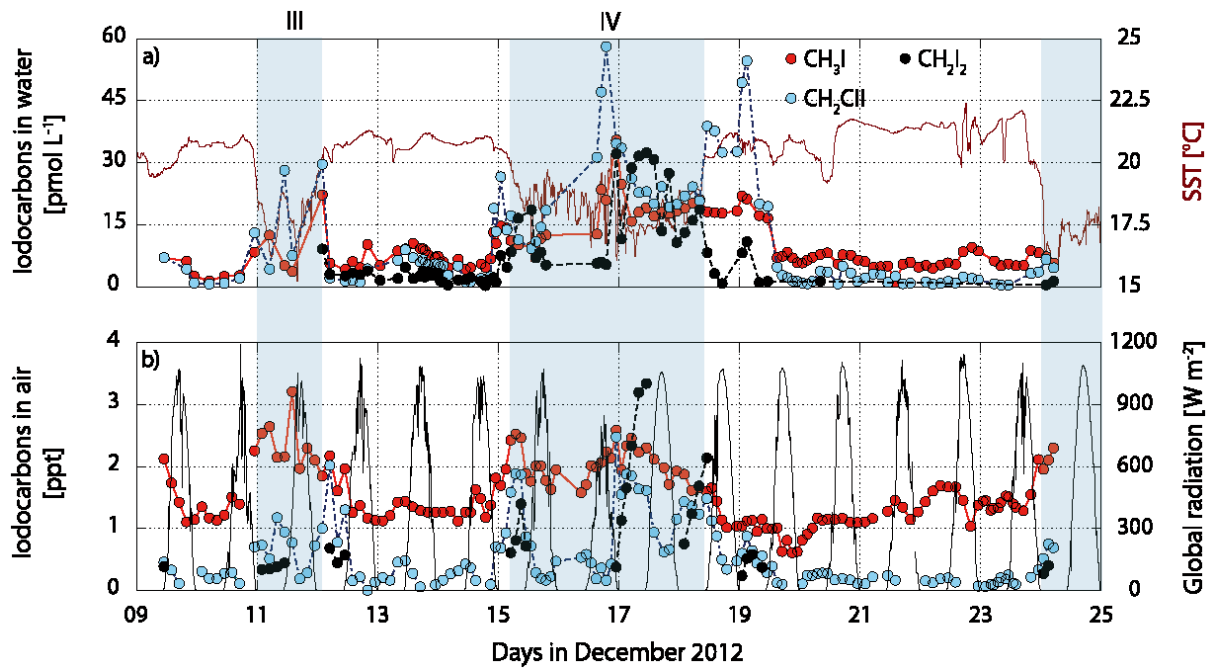


Figure 3. Surface water measurements of iodocarbons are presented in a) with CH_3I in red, CH_2ClI in blue and CH_2I_2 in black on the left side along with SST (dark red) on the right side. Additionally, atmospheric mixing ratios of CH_3I (red), CH_2ClI (blue) and CH_2I_2 (grey) on the left side together with global radiation (black, taken from pyranometer measurements referring to total short-wave radiation) on the right side are depicted in b). Note that all times are in UTC.

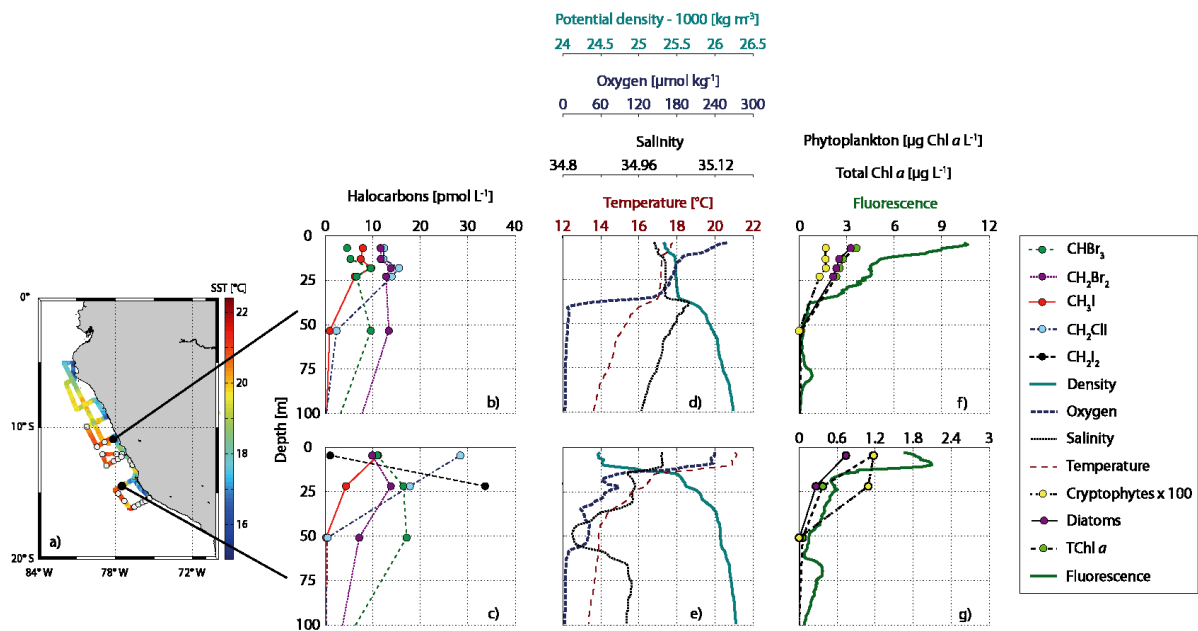


Figure 4. A cruise map including all CTD stations and SST is shown in a), while selected depth profiles of iodocarbons and bromocarbons can be seen in a) – b), together with

ambient parameters such as potential density (cyan), oxygen (dark blue), salinity (black) and temperature (dark red) in d – e), as well as phytoplankton groups (cryptophytes and diatoms), total chlorophyll *a* and fluorescence in f) – g). CH₂I₂ was undetectable at the first station (see also consistence with surface data).

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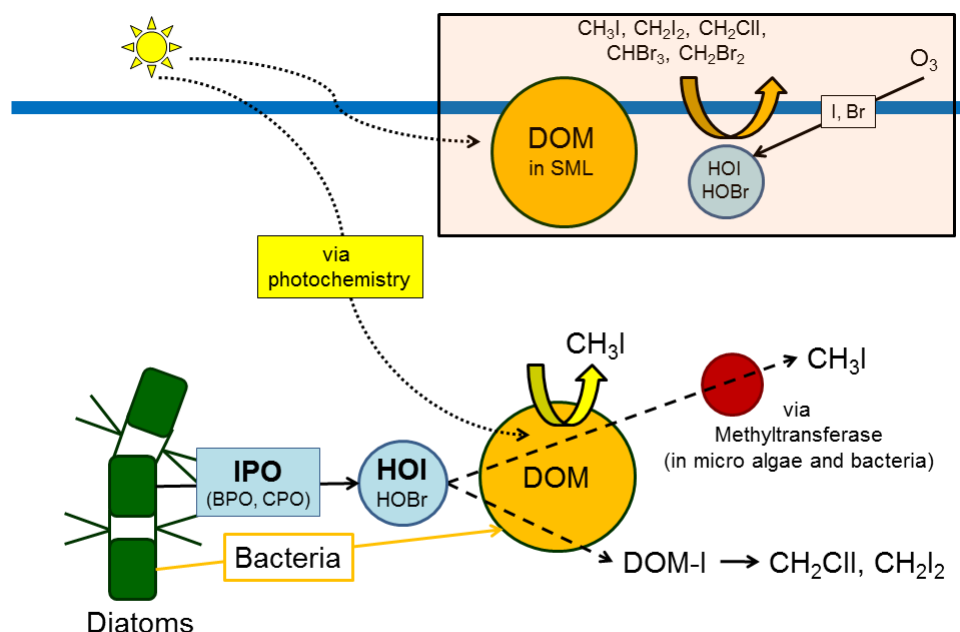


Figure 5. Proposed mechanisms for formation of iodocarbons – release of HOI with the help of iodoperoxidases (IPO), followed by reaction with DOM (dissolved organic matter (DOM) via iodine binding to DOM (DOM-I) to form CH₂CII and CH₂I₂. CH₃I forms via photochemistry and/or biological formation via methyltransferases. The box indicates potential formation of halocarbons from DOM in the sea surface microlayer SML. For more information on the inorganic iodine chemistry in the SML, please refer to Carpenter et al. (2013).

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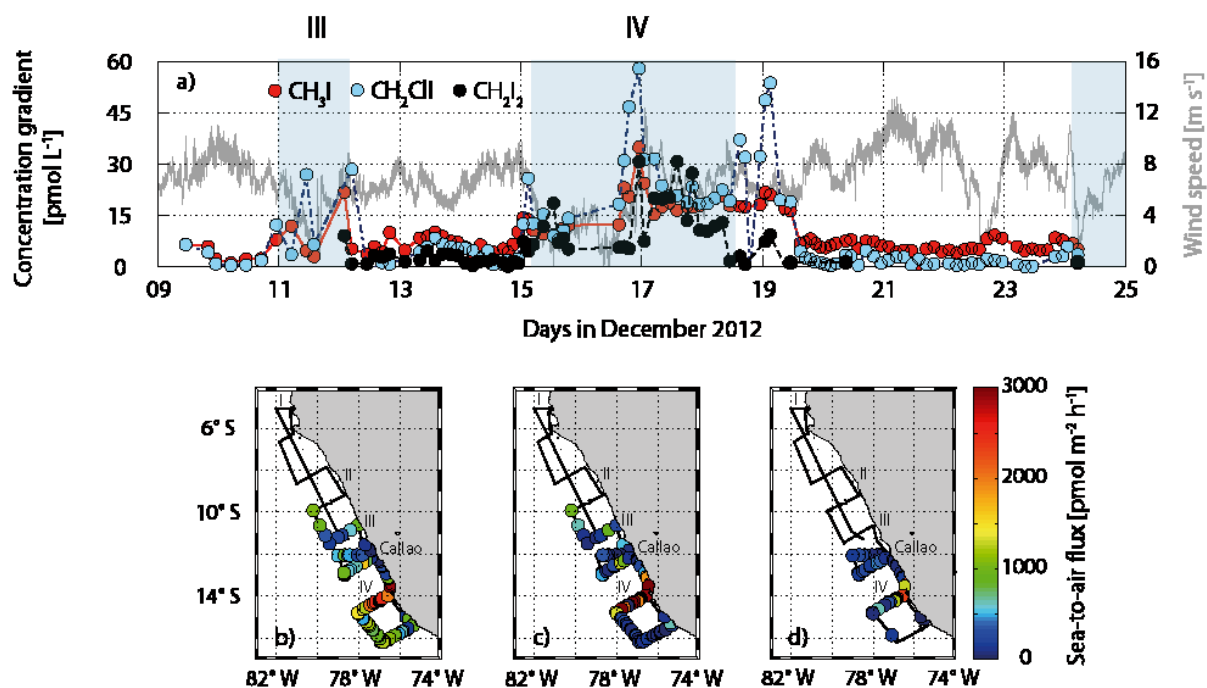


Figure 6. The concentration gradient of CH₃I, CH₂ClI and CH₂I₂ along with wind speed (grey) is shown in a), while the sea-to-air flux is depicted in b) for CH₃I, c) for CH₂ClI and d) for CH₂I₂. Note the color bar on the right.

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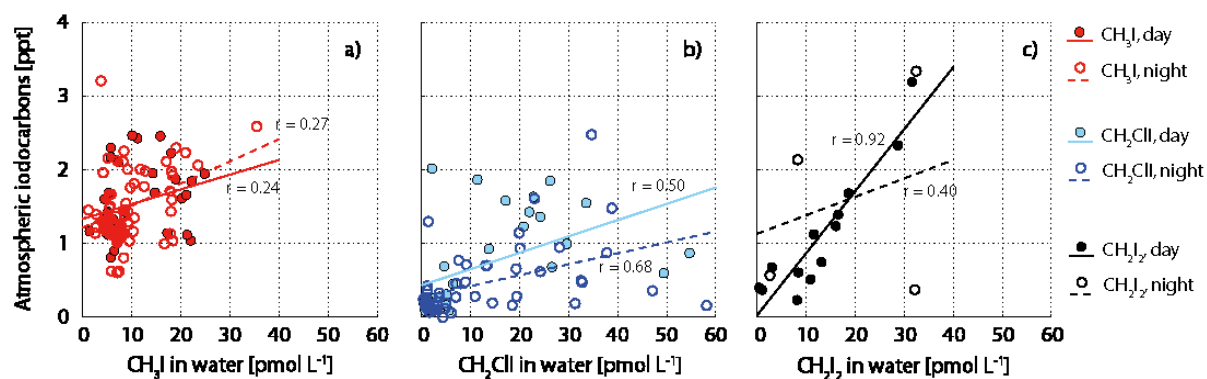


Figure 7. Atmospheric iodocarbons vs oceanic iodocarbons for CH₃I in a), CH₂ClI in b) and CH₂I₂ in c) with the filled circles representing data obtained during the day and open circles night time data, including least square lines (solid for day, dashed for night).

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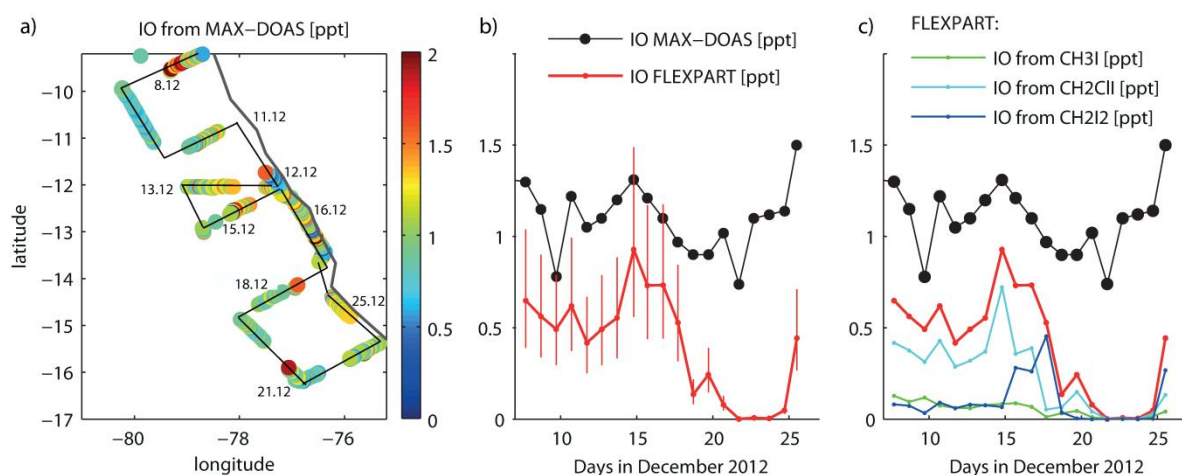


Figure 8. MAX-DOAS measurements of IO during the M91 campaign along the cruise track are shown a). Daytime averaged IO values from MAX-DOAS and coincident FLEXPART values are provided in b). The vertical bars correspond to uncertainties associated with the inorganic iodine lifetime in the MABL (1 – 3 days) and the daytime fraction of IO to I_y (0.15 to 0.3). Contributions of the three oceanic iodocarbon sources to the modelled FLEXPART IO are also given in c).

Tables

Table 1. Environmental parameters, as well as halocarbons in water, air and sea-to-air fluxes during the cruise. Means of sea surface temperature (SST), sea surface salinity (SSS) and wind speed are for 10-min-averages.

Parameter		Unit	Mean (min - max)
SST		°C	19.4 (15.0 - 22.4)
SSS			34.95 (34.10 - 35.50)
TChl <i>a</i>		µg L ⁻¹	1.80 (0.06 - 12.65)
Wind speed		m s ⁻¹	6.17 (0.42 - 15.47)
CHBr ₃	Water	pmol L ⁻¹	6.6 (0.2 - 21.5)
	Air	ppt	2.9 (1.5 - 5.9)
	Sea-to-air flux	pmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹	130 (-550 - 2201)
CH ₂ Br ₂	Water	pmol L ⁻¹	4.3 (0.2 - 12.7)
	Air	ppt	1.3 (0.8 - 2.0)
	Sea-to-air flux	pmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹	273 (-128 - 1321)
CH ₃ I	Water	pmol L ⁻¹	9.8 (1.1 - 35.4)
	Air	ppt	1.5 (0.6 - 3.2)

CH ₂ ClI	Sea-to-air flux	pmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹	954 (21 - 4686)
	Water	pmol L ⁻¹	10.9 (0.4 - 58.1)
	Air	ppt	0.4 (0 - 2.5)
	Sea-to-air flux	pmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹	834 (-28 - 5652)
CH ₂ I ₂	Water	pmol L ⁻¹	7.7 (0.2 - 32.4)
	Air	ppt	0.2 (0 - 3.3)
	Sea-to-air flux	pmol m ⁻² h ⁻¹	504 (-126 - 2546)

Table 2. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients of correlations of **all** halocarbon **surface data** with several ambient parameters, as well as biological proxies. Bold numbers indicate correlations that are significant with $p < 0.05$ with a sample number of 107 for all environmental data and 46 for all phytoplankton and nutrient data considering all collocated surface data.

	CHBr ₃	CH ₂ Br ₂	CH ₃ I	CH ₂ ClI	CH ₂ I ₂	SST	SSS	Global radiation	Diatoms	Crypto-phytes	Dino-flagellates	TChl <i>a</i>
DIN:DIP	-0.26	-0.34	-0.38	-0.30	-0.32	0.00	0.41	0.13	-0.18	-0.17	-0.10	-0.08
TChl <i>a</i>	0.48	0.56	0.73	0.74	0.70	-0.82	-0.77	-0.20	0.93	0.85	0.33	
Dino-flagellates	0.15	0.28	0.15	0.17	0.21	-0.23	-0.22	-0.01	0.38	0.26		
Crypto-phytes	0.38	0.54	0.61	0.61	0.64	-0.74	-0.79	-0.18	0.73			
Diatoms	0.58	0.58	0.73	0.79	0.72	-0.76	-0.72	-0.18				
Global radiation	0.14	-0.10	-0.22	-0.03	-0.08	0.20	0.12					
SSS	-0.44	-0.48	-0.75	-0.69	-0.45	0.68						
SST	-0.29	-0.57	-0.52	-0.62	-0.58							
CH ₂ I ₂	0.60	0.43	0.66	0.59								

CH_2ClI	0.64	0.70	0.83
CH_3I	0.66	0.46	
CH_2Br_2	0.56		

Table 3. Correlations of halocarbons with combined high molecular weight (HMW) carbohydrates (CCHO) and uronic acids (URA) from subsurface samples (T – total, d – dissolved, P – particulate) with a sample number of 29 for each variable.

	CHBr ₃	CH ₂ Br ₂	CH ₃ I	CH ₂ ClI	CH ₂ I ₂
TCCHO	0.15	0.28	0.78	0.82	0.66
dCCHO	0.39	0.48	0.82	0.90	0.55
PCCHO	-0.06	-0.10	0.61	0.64	0.68
TURA	0.31	0.34	0.83	0.88	0.52
dURA	-0.18	0.42	0.48	0.79	0.50
PURA	0.37	0.22	0.84	0.84	0.54