

# Ship-based MAX-DOAS measurements of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> in the South China and Sulu Sea



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## HIGHLIGHTS

- A profile retrieval approach to derive tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> vertical columns is applied.
- The simple geometric approximation using 15° measurements can also be used.
- Time series of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> are in good agreement in a busy shipping lane.

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## ABSTRACT

In November 2011, ship-based Multi-Axis Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (MAX-DOAS) measurements were performed within the SHIVA campaign on board RV Sonne in the South China and Sulu Sea. Spectral measurements for a total of eleven days could be used to retrieve tropospheric slant column densities (SCDs) of nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) and sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) in the marine environment. The NO<sub>2</sub> fit was performed following recommendations developed during the CINDI campaign and adapted for the ship-based measurements. We found that the inclusion of a cross section for liquid water and an empirical correction spectrum accounting for the effects of liquid water and vibrational Raman scattering (VRS) slightly improved the NO<sub>2</sub> fit quality, especially at lower elevation angles and for lower NO<sub>2</sub> levels. The conversion of SCDs into tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> vertical columns (TVC NO<sub>2</sub>) has been achieved using both a simple geometric approach and the Bremian advanced MAX-DOAS Retrieval Algorithm (BREAM), which is based on the optimal estimation method and accounts for atmospheric radiative transfer. We found good agreement between the geometric approach using the 15° measurements and BREAM, revealing that measurements at 15° elevation angle can be used for retrieving TVC NO<sub>2</sub> in tropical marine environments when SZA is smaller than 75°. As expected, the values of TVC NO<sub>2</sub> were generally low ( $<0.5 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>) when no sources of NO<sub>x</sub> were in proximity to the RV Sonne. However, we found increased values of TVC NO<sub>2</sub> ( $>2 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>) in the morning when the RV Sonne was heading along the coast of Borneo. This is in good agreement with satellite measurements. The results of the profile retrieval show that the boundary layer values of NO<sub>2</sub> are <30 pptv in the open and clean tropical marine environment. Interestingly, we also found elevated tropospheric SO<sub>2</sub> amounts for measurements taken in a busy shipping lane, consistent with the time series of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub>.

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## 1. Introduction

Nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub> = NO + NO<sub>2</sub>) are well known and significant pollutants in the troposphere. Nitric oxide (NO) in the atmosphere is readily converted into the more harmful nitrogen

dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) by reaction with ozone (O<sub>3</sub>). The reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> with the hydroxyl radical (OH) to form nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>) is the major loss process of NO<sub>x</sub> during daytime. Loss processes at night are related to the formation of nitrate ion (NO<sub>3</sub>) and dinitrogen pentoxide (N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) and the subsequent heterogeneous reactions of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> at the surface and on aerosols. The main sources of NO<sub>x</sub> are attributed to high-temperature combustion processes (e.g. fossil fuel burning, accidental and intentional biomass burning), soil microbial activity, and lightning (Lee et al., 1997).

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Sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) is a main constituent in the tropospheric sulfur cycle. Besides the natural emissions of dimethylsulfide (DMS), the anthropogenic emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> are quantitatively the most important emissions in the sulfur cycle (Berglen et al., 2004).

The amounts and distributions of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> can be retrieved from active and passive remote sensing techniques in the ultraviolet (UV) and visible regions of the electromagnetic spectrum (e.g. Brewer et al., 1973). The Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (DOAS) method (Perner and Platt, 1979), which is selected for the detection of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> in this study, is a widely used technique in the UV/visible and was initially applied to the detection of tropospheric trace gases by active remote sensing using artificial light sources. However, the DOAS method is also applicable for passive remote sensing using direct and scattered sunlight as light source (Platt and Stutz, 2008).

After successful application of the zenith scattered light DOAS method, which mainly yields stratospheric trace gas amounts (Noxon, 1975; Solomon et al., 1987; Richter et al., 1999; Wittrock et al., 2000), the development of Multi-Axis (MAX) DOAS allowed for the extension of the technique to tropospheric trace gases and aerosols by observing scattered sunlight at different viewing directions (Hönninger et al., 2004; Wagner et al., 2004; Wittrock et al., 2004).

Although MAX-DOAS is relatively simple to operate, the interpretation of the data requires detailed information about the radiation transport in the atmosphere, especially in terms of aerosol scattering (Mie scattering). For example, Wagner et al. (2004) developed a method for deriving atmospheric aerosol profiles by using MAX-DOAS measurements of the oxygen dimer (O<sub>4</sub>) under clear sky conditions. They demonstrated that the O<sub>4</sub> measurements are sensitive to the aerosol extinction close to the ground and suggested the potential to retrieve aerosol profiles by the use of radiative transfer models such as SCIATRAN (Rozanov et al., 2005) and McArtim (Deutschmann et al., 2011).

Ship-based MAX-DOAS measurements of NO<sub>2</sub> amounts have so far been focused on both remote and coastal marine environments in the Indian and Pacific Ocean to obtain boundary layer background conditions. Peters et al. (2012) reported NO<sub>2</sub> background conditions <50 pptv in the remote Western Pacific boundary layer, with tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> columns rarely exceeding the detection limit of the instrument. Higher values of up to 200 pptv were estimated from MAX-DOAS observations on board the Japanese research vessel Kaiyo in the western Pacific and Indian Ocean boundary layer (Takashima et al., 2012), presumably being influenced by anthropogenic sources. However, during the NASA Pacific Exploratory Mission (PEM) Tropics B field experiment, aircraft in-situ measurements of NO<sub>2</sub> over the clean Pacific yielded values <10 pptv in the boundary layer (Browell et al., 2001). Consequently, the detection limit of the MAX-DOAS instrument (30–50 pptv) may be too large for actual measurements of NO<sub>2</sub> background values in the boundary layer. Nevertheless, the MAX-DOAS technique has an important benefit in retrieving tropospheric profile information of trace gases (see Sect. 4.4). While the focus of these previous studies was on NO<sub>2</sub> amounts, SO<sub>2</sub> has received much less attention. However, SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the open sea are high because of the high sulfur contents in heavy fuels often used by ships in international waters (Endresen et al., 2005).

The Southeast Asian region experiences rapid environmental changes with some of the highest rates of deforestation in humid tropical forests as observed within the last two decades (Achar et al., 2002; Miettinen et al., 2011). Large areas of natural forest have been replaced by agricultural land, especially oil palm plantations. Miettinen et al. (2011) estimated the loss of the total forest area in insular Southeast Asia to be in the order of 10% between 2000 and 2010 and emphasize the continuing deforestation in this

region.

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest on studying the effect of land use changes on tropospheric chemistry in tropical regions. MacKenzie et al. (2011) observed tropospheric trace gases over a rainforest and an oil palm site on Borneo Island. The results show that NO<sub>x</sub> mixing ratios over the oil palm plantation were higher by a factor of 1.5 resulting from nitrogen fertilizer application and on-site palm oil processing. Rising concentrations of NO<sub>x</sub> and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) over these plantations have increased the concentrations of some photochemical pollutants and could eventually increase tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> levels due to further industrialization and economic development (Hewitt et al., 2009). In addition to land use changes, international shipping emissions in the South China Sea are strongly driven by the increasing Asian trade volume (De Ruyter De Wildt et al., 2012).

The purpose of this manuscript is to report on daytime tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> vertical columns (TVC NO<sub>2</sub>) and profiles as well as SO<sub>2</sub> slant columns measured by a ship-based MAX-DOAS instrument in the coastal and open waters of the South China and Sulu Sea in November 2011. TVC NO<sub>2</sub> is retrieved by the profile inversion method BREAM and compared to TVC NO<sub>2</sub> as obtained from a geometric approach and from satellite instruments.

The MAX-DOAS measurements have been performed as part of the SHIVA ship-based campaign, which is briefly introduced and described in Sect. 2. The MAX-DOAS instrument and the retrieval of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> columns and profiles are introduced in Sect. 3. The results of this study for NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> are presented in Sect. 4 and summarized in Sect. 5. The satellite-based instruments and data products as well as the HYbrid Single-Particle Lagrangian

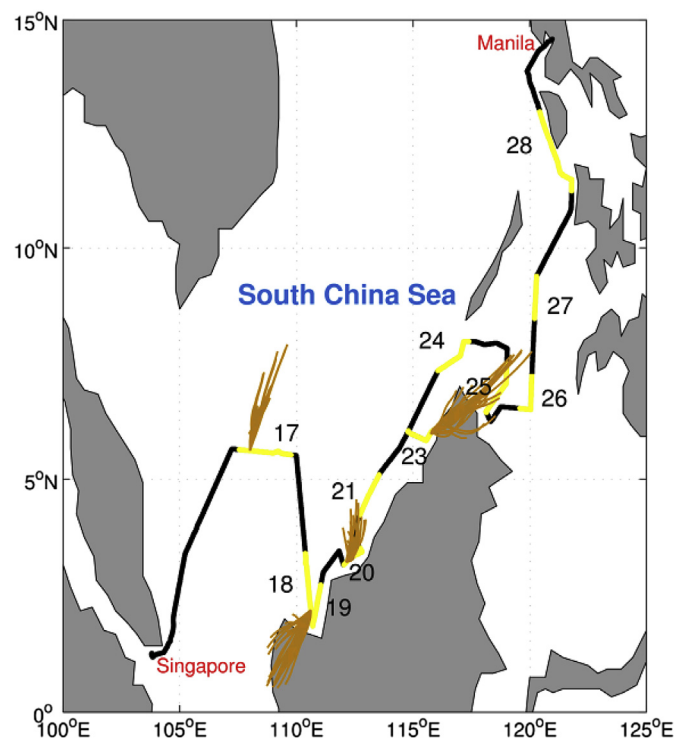


Fig. 1. Cruise track of the RV Sonne during SHIVA (black line), departing from Singapore on 15th November 2011 and arriving in Manila, Philippines on 29th November 2011. The sections of the cruise track highlighted in yellow indicate the distances traveled by the ship between the first and last daytime MAX-DOAS measurements presented in this study. The brown lines show ensembles of computed 12 h backward trajectories for selected case studies with TVC NO<sub>2</sub> > 2 × 10<sup>15</sup> molec cm<sup>-2</sup> (see Sect. 4.3). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model, which is used for determining the origin of elevated  $\text{NO}_x$  levels in the study area can be found in the [Appendix](#) (electronic supplementary material).

## 2. Ship cruise within SHIVA

The aim of SHIVA (Stratospheric ozone: Halogen Impacts in a Varying Atmosphere) was to better predict the rate, timing and climate-sensitivity of ozone-layer recovery, and to identify potential risks from the recovery. For this purpose, several land-based, ship-based, aircraft-based, and space-based measurements in the insular region of Southeast Asia were combined with sophisticated numerical models (Pfeilsticker et al., in preparation).

The ship cruise was carried out with the German research vessel (RV) Sonne as a part of the SHIVA campaign between 15th November (departure: Singapore) and 29th November (arrival: Manila, Philippines) 2011 in the South China and Sulu Sea. The measurements made during the ship cruise aimed at (i) investigating the emissions of halogenated trace gases from coastal waters of the Western Pacific and upwelling waters, (ii) characterizing the marine biota causing these emissions of halogenated very short-lived substances, and (iii) studying the atmospheric transport and transformation of halogenated gases and their transport to the stratosphere (Pfeilsticker et al., in preparation). Indeed, the concentrations of  $\text{NO}_x$  and VOCs in insular Southeast Asia have risen due to land use changes and increased shipping emissions and thus, could affect the concentrations of ground-level ozone (Hewitt et al., 2009; De Ruyter De Wildt et al., 2012).

The IUP Bremen MAX-DOAS instrument was part of the RV Sonne instrumentation during SHIVA to measure atmospheric trace gases.

The entire ship track and daytime stages indicating the period between the first and last MAX-DOAS measurements are highlighted in [Fig. 1](#). After installing and testing the instrument at the beginning of the campaign, continuous operation started in the morning of 17th November. Instrumental problems occurred in the middle of the campaign on 22nd November and therefore, no measurements are presented for this day. Overall, spectral measurements have been performed on eleven days during SHIVA, which provides a good basis for the analysis of  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  observations in the coastal and open waters of South China and Sulu Sea.

## 3. Instruments and data analysis

The DOAS technique is a widely-used remote sensing method to retrieve trace gases with narrow band absorption structures in the ultraviolet and visible part of the electromagnetic spectrum. Based on Lambert–Beer's law, this spectroscopic technique makes use of the absorption of electromagnetic radiation by matter. The DOAS principle can be applied to various ground-based, ship-based, aircraft-based, and satellite-based platforms (e.g. Platt and Stutz, 2008).

### 3.1. MAX-DOAS instrument and data retrieval

#### 3.1.1. MAX-DOAS instrument

The MAX-DOAS instrument is an advancement of the zenith scattered light DOAS (e.g. Noxon, 1975) and Off-Axis DOAS (e.g. Sanders, 1993) that allows for measurements at different viewing directions (e.g. Hönninger et al., 2004).

Briefly, our MAX-DOAS instrument consists of a telescope unit, an optical fiber bundle, and a grating spectrometer. The telescope unit of the MAX-DOAS system collects scattered sunlight at selected viewing and azimuthal directions. Once the photons enter the

entrance window of the telescope, they are focused by a lens to limit the field of view, before they move through an optical fiber bundle and reach a grating spectrometer equipped with a charge-coupled device (CCD) detector.

The telescope unit of the MAX-DOAS instrument assembled on board the RV Sonne includes a video camera (for weather and event detection) and was installed on a pan/tilt head. For measurements in the UV and visible range, grating spectrometers (Andor Shamrock 303i and Acton500, respectively) with a wavelength range of 305–373 and 392–563 nm and a spectral resolution of 0.4 and 0.8 nm, respectively, were used in combination with a CCD (Andor Newton DU940N and Roper Scientific Princeton NTE/CCD, respectively) with  $512 \times 2048$  and  $100 \times 1340$  pixels, respectively. Further characteristics of the MAX-DOAS system used within SHIVA can be found in [Peters \(2013\)](#).

During the recent CINDI (Cabauw Intercomparison campaign for Nitrogen Dioxide measuring Instruments) and TransBrom campaigns, the IUP-Bremen MAX-DOAS system was used to retrieve  $\text{NO}_2$ , formaldehyde (HCHO), and iodine monoxide (IO) (Roscoe et al., 2010; Peters et al., 2012; Piter et al., 2012; Großmann et al., 2013).

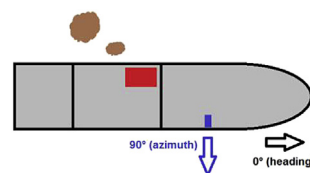
#### 3.1.2. Set-up on the ship

During the SHIVA ship cruise, the azimuthal angle of the telescope unit was kept at  $90^\circ$  relative to the heading direction of the RV Sonne ([Fig. 2](#)) and elevation angles ( $\alpha$ ) of  $1^\circ, 2^\circ, 3^\circ, 4^\circ, 5^\circ, 6^\circ, 7^\circ, 8^\circ, 9^\circ, 10^\circ, 15^\circ, 30^\circ$ , and  $90^\circ$  were included in the scanning sequence designed for the  $\text{NO}_2$  retrieval. Each scanning sequence took about 15 min. In order to avoid the influence of twilight on the spectral measurements, the MAX-DOAS instrument was set to record off-axis spectra for solar zenith angles  $<85^\circ$  (17th and 18th November) and  $<75^\circ$  (19th to 28th November).

#### 3.1.3. Data preparation and filtering

The ship's movements (heading, pitch, and roll) have been measured by the high accuracy ( $0.02^\circ$ ) Seatex MRU 5 instrumentation and downloaded from the ship's database at a time resolution of 50 ms after the campaign. The actual azimuthal direction and elevation angles of the scanning sequence have been corrected by the heading, pitch, and roll measurements afterward.

Due to the ship's movements in the sea, the elevation angles of the telescope, which are relative to the ship, are not the actual viewing directions. In order to overcome this effect, spectra were recorded with exposure times of 100 ms and ship's movements within this period were considered to be negligible. For each vertical scanning sequence, the individual 100 ms measurements were then corrected in terms of the roll angle and sorted according to the real viewing direction with a tolerance of  $\pm 0.5^\circ$ . As this tolerance together with the instrument's field of view of  $\sim 1^\circ$  could affect the quality of measurements at the  $1^\circ$  elevation angle (due to pointing into the water), the lowest viewing direction of the scanning sequence for the retrieval of tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  was selected to be



**Fig. 2.** Schematic illustration of the MAX-DOAS instrument set-up on board RV Sonne. The red rectangle indicates the ship's smoke stack and the blue rectangle depicts the position of the MAX-DOAS instrument, measuring in  $90^\circ$  azimuthal direction (blue arrow) relative to the ship's heading (black arrow). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

2°.

Finally, all of the individual measured spectra performed for each elevation angle of the scanning sequence (e.g. all 100 ms spectra obtained between 1.5° and 2.5° for  $\alpha = 2^\circ$ ) have been averaged. As a result, one average spectrum is achieved for each elevation angle of the individual scanning sequences.

Under unfavorable wind conditions, the ship's exhaust plume was potentially contaminating the measurements. As the instrument was installed in front of the ship's smoke stack (see Fig. 2), this was not a problem for most of the time when the ship was running at full speed. In order to exclude occasional influences of the ship's exhaust plume on the MAX-DOAS measurements, individual measurements taken under unfavorable wind directions (between 90° and 280°) have been discarded. The relative wind direction (blue dots) and the ship's speed (red line) are presented in Figs. 5a–7a for the individual days. In general, the ship's speed was higher than 20 km h<sup>-1</sup> when it was running at full speed. In most such cases, the recorded relative wind direction was between 90° and 280°, which rules out any influence of the ship's smoke stack on the spectral measurements. It is apparent that unfavorable relative wind directions are more frequent when the ship slowed down. The bulk of data removed by data filtering occurred when the ship was slower than 5 km h<sup>-1</sup>. However, the amount of spectral measurements after data filtering is still large enough for a reasonable analysis (>500 measured spectra per day on average). All spectral measurements within the two thresholds (90° and 280°, marked by the gray shaded area) are not included in the retrieval procedure, which is described in the following Sect. 3.1.4.

### 3.1.4. DOAS retrieval

**3.1.4.1. Tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> slant column densities.** The filtered MAX-DOAS spectral measurements are analyzed using the DOAS technique applying a nonlinear least-squares fitting algorithm. Following recommendations developed during the CINDI and TransBrom campaigns (Peters et al., 2012; Peters et al., 2012), a fitting window between 425 and 490 nm has been selected. The high resolution absorption cross-sections of O<sub>3</sub> (Bogumil et al., 2003) at 223 K, NO<sub>2</sub> (Vandaele et al., 1996) at 298 K, O<sub>4</sub> (Greenblatt et al., 1990), H<sub>2</sub>O (Rothmann et al., 2003) at 273 K, and a pseudo-cross section accounting for rotational Raman scattering as computed with SCIATRAN (Rozañov et al., 2005) have been included in the retrieval. In order to account for the influence of liquid water on the fit, we have added the liquid water absorption coefficient as measured in the laboratory by Pope and Fry (1997). Moreover, an empirical correction spectrum by Peters et al. (2014) accounting for the effects of liquid water and vibrational Raman scattering (VRS) has been included in the adapted NO<sub>2</sub> fit (see

**Table 1**

Summary of the “standard” settings used for the visible spectra to produce NO<sub>2</sub> SCDs, including a cross section for liquid water and an empirical correction spectrum (italic) for the “adapted” fit (see Sect. 4.1). The set up for fitting in the UV to produce SO<sub>2</sub> SCDs is also listed (right).

	NO <sub>2</sub> settings	SO <sub>2</sub> settings
Fitting window [nm]	425–490	307.5–328
polynomial degree	5	3
O <sub>3</sub>	Bogumil et al. (2003)	Gorshchev et al. (2014)
NO <sub>2</sub>	Vandaele et al. (1996)	Vandaele et al. (1996)
O <sub>4</sub>	Greenblatt et al. (1990)	–
H <sub>2</sub> O	Rothman et al. (2003) <sup>a</sup>	–
SO <sub>2</sub>	–	Bogumil et al. (2003)
Ring	SCIATRAN (VIS)	SCIATRAN (UV)
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>liq</sub>	Pope and Fry (1997)	–
empirical correction	Peters et al. (2014)	–

<sup>a</sup> But using HITRAN 2009.

Table 1). For the retrieval of differential slant column densities (DSCDs), the zenith observation of the same measurement sequence was used as Fraunhofer reference spectrum (FRS). We note that for simplicity, we use the term SCD instead of DSCD throughout the manuscript.

As the RV Sonne left a dense shipping lane on the 17th November, we expect interesting insights into sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) emissions from shipping. Therefore, we have also retrieved SO<sub>2</sub> from the MAX-DOAS UV measurements and will investigate the spatial distribution SO<sub>2</sub> columns and their relation to NO<sub>2</sub>. However, the main focus of this study is on the tropospheric amounts and distributions of NO<sub>2</sub>.

**3.1.4.2. Tropospheric SO<sub>2</sub> slant column densities.** The SO<sub>2</sub> fit includes high resolution absorption cross-sections of O<sub>3</sub> (Gorshchev et al., 2014; Serdyuchenko et al., 2014) at 223 and 243 K, NO<sub>2</sub> (Vandaele et al., 1996) at 298 K, SO<sub>2</sub> (Bogumil et al., 2003) at 293 K, and a pseudo-cross section accounting for rotational Raman scattering as computed with SCIATRAN (Rozañov et al., 2005). The SO<sub>2</sub> fit was performed in the spectral window between 307.5 and 328 nm (see Table 1). As the UV spectrometer covers a wavelength range of 305–373 nm, the start wavelength was restricted. In order to cover the strongly structured SO<sub>2</sub> absorption spectrum around 300 nm (e.g. Richter, 2006), we have selected a wavelength range as close to the start wavelength as possible. The end wavelength of the interval was set to 328 nm because SO<sub>2</sub> fitting errors and RMS were small and reasonable values for the SO<sub>2</sub> SCDs were obtained, compared to other tested end wavelengths (not shown). In general, the SO<sub>2</sub> settings used in our study are comparable with those used in a recent study by Wang et al. (2014). They have retrieved SO<sub>2</sub> in the spectral range of 308–325 nm by including cross sections of SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and a synthetic ring spectrum. The SO<sub>2</sub> retrieval presented in Irie et al. (2011) is performed in a slightly smaller spectral window (310–320 nm) and includes an additional cross section for HCHO.

Due to some problems with the zenith SO<sub>2</sub> measurements (e.g. unexpected high values around noon causing a strong daily cycle), we have used the 30° measurements as FRS. As mentioned in Peters (2013), similar problems also occurred during TransBrom in the tropics at small SZAs for NO<sub>2</sub> and HCHO. One possible explanation could be that direct sunlight entering the system around noon in spite of light baffles leads to saturation effects on the CCD.

### 3.1.5. Conversion to tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> vertical columns

In this study, the conversion of SCDs into TVCs is based on two different approaches:

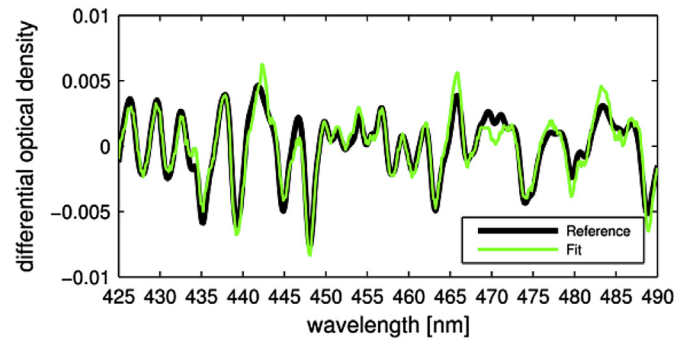
The first approach uses the geometrical approximation by simply estimating a tropospheric air mass factor (AMF) via the 1/sin( $\alpha$ ) relation (Hönninger et al., 2004), where  $\alpha$  denotes the elevation angle of the telescope unit. We have computed TVC NO<sub>2</sub> for different elevation angles and compared with TVC NO<sub>2</sub> as retrieved with the second approach.

The second approach is based on the Bremen advanced MAX-DOAS Retrieval Algorithm (BREAM), which was developed by Wittrock (2006) in order to retrieve tropospheric vertical columns and profiles of trace gases. The retrieval algorithm is motivated by the study of Wagner et al. (2004). Briefly, the measured slant columns of O<sub>4</sub> are used to retrieve aerosol information by comparing them with O<sub>4</sub> slant columns simulated with the radiative transfer model SCIATRAN (Rozañov et al., 2005). This information is essential to obtain accurate box air mass factors (BAMFs) for trace gases, such as NO<sub>2</sub>. The box air mass factors are then used to retrieve the vertical profile of the trace gas from the measured slant column densities (SCDs) at different elevation angles. As the measurements provide only limited information on the vertical trace

gas column, an optimal estimation method (Rodgers, 2000) is performed using an a priori profile. Further details about BREAM and the required a priori information can be found in Wittrock (2006) and Peters et al. (2012). A similar profiling technique, which is also based on the optimal estimation method, can be found in Frieß et al. (2011).

In this study, the BREAM computations of TVC NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> profiles are performed using all observations between 2° and 30° elevation angles within time intervals of 15 min each. The ocean surface spectral reflectance in the selected spectral window is assumed to be 0.05, and an appropriate a priori profile is used for the optimal estimation. Volume mixing ratios decreasing linearly with altitude are assumed for the a priori vertical NO<sub>2</sub> profile initially. The a priori profile is then scaled various times with scaling factors to yield a trace gas profile. The total retrieval height is 4 km with a retrieval grid size of 50 m, resulting in 80 layers. More details about the settings used for BREAM can be found in Peters et al. (2012).

As a quality criterion of TVC NO<sub>2</sub> and profiles as retrieved from BREAM, computations are only performed when the correlation coefficient between the measured and simulated O<sub>4</sub> slant columns is higher than 0.6 and when the number of elevation angles of one scanning sequence is larger than 10. The former threshold value has been selected to exclude measurements that are affected by the own ship's plume (e.g. resulting in negative SCDs). Even if the SCDs affected by an elevated exhaust plume are not negative, but obtained by using such an influenced zenith sky measurement as reference spectrum, they are not included in the retrieval of TVC NO<sub>2</sub> and vertical profiles from BREAM, as the correlation criterion will not be fulfilled. As we here focus on the comparison between the two described approaches, the values obtained from the geometrical approximation are shown using the same quality criteria as for BREAM.

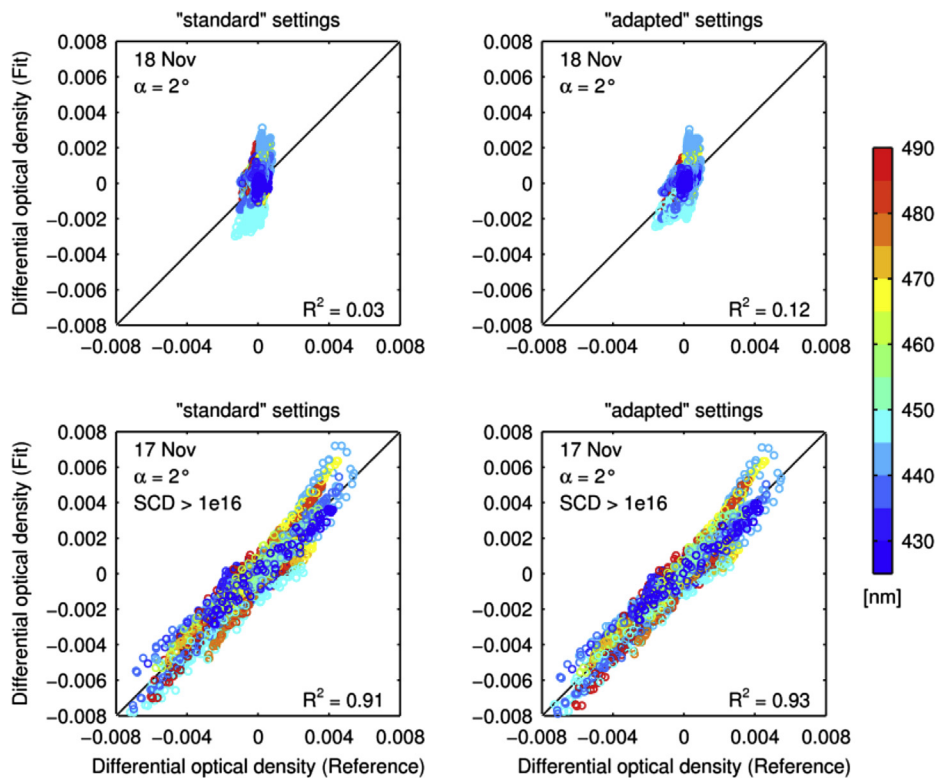


**Fig. 4.** Fit results of the NO<sub>2</sub> fit using the “adapted” settings for the morning of 17th November 2011 (23:32 UT) under elevated NO<sub>2</sub> pollution (SCD =  $3.75 \times 10^{16}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>). The RMS of the residuals is  $7.5 \times 10^{-4}$ . Here, the optical density of the reference (differential absorption cross-section, scaled by the retrieved SCD, black line) and fit (reference + residual, green line) are retrieved at 2° elevation angle and at 78.13° solar zenith angle. Further explanations and definitions are given in the text. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

## 4. Results and discussion

### 4.1. Tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> slant column densities

The “standard” set up for fitting as applied during the CINDI campaign (Roscoe et al., 2010) is compared with a fit including the absorption of liquid water (Pope and Fry, 1997) and the correction spectrum accounting for liquid water and effects of VRS (Peters et al., 2014), here referred to as “adapted” settings (see Fig. 3 and Table 1). In Fig. 3, the differential optical density of the NO<sub>2</sub> fit is plotted against the differential optical density of the NO<sub>2</sub> reference



**Fig. 3.** Scatter plots of differential optical density (Fit) vs. differential optical density (Reference) for the NO<sub>2</sub> “standard” settings (left) and “adapted” settings including the absorption of liquid water and an empirical correction spectrum for liquid water and VRS (right). Here, the scatter plots are shown for the NO<sub>2</sub> fits including only  $\alpha = 2^\circ$  measurements for an unpolluted (top) and polluted case (bottom). Further explanations and definitions are given in the text.

for an unpolluted (top) and polluted case (bottom) as a function of wavelength. Here, the reference is defined as the scaled cross section (with the slant column as scaling factor) and the fit is defined as the scaled cross section including the fit residuals. For the unpolluted case, all measurements at  $\alpha = 2^\circ$  taken on the 18th November are included in the scatter plot. The polluted case has been selected on 17th November and includes all measurements at  $\alpha = 2^\circ$  that exceed a value for the  $\text{NO}_2$  SCD of  $1 \times 10^{16}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ . The left plots in the figure represent the results using “standard” settings, whereas the right plots show the results using the “adapted” settings. There is some degree of improvement (higher  $r^2$  values) in the  $\text{NO}_2$  fit quality when including the absorption of liquid water and the empirical correction spectrum for an elevation angle of  $2^\circ$ . This is in good agreement with the recent study by Peters et al. (2014).

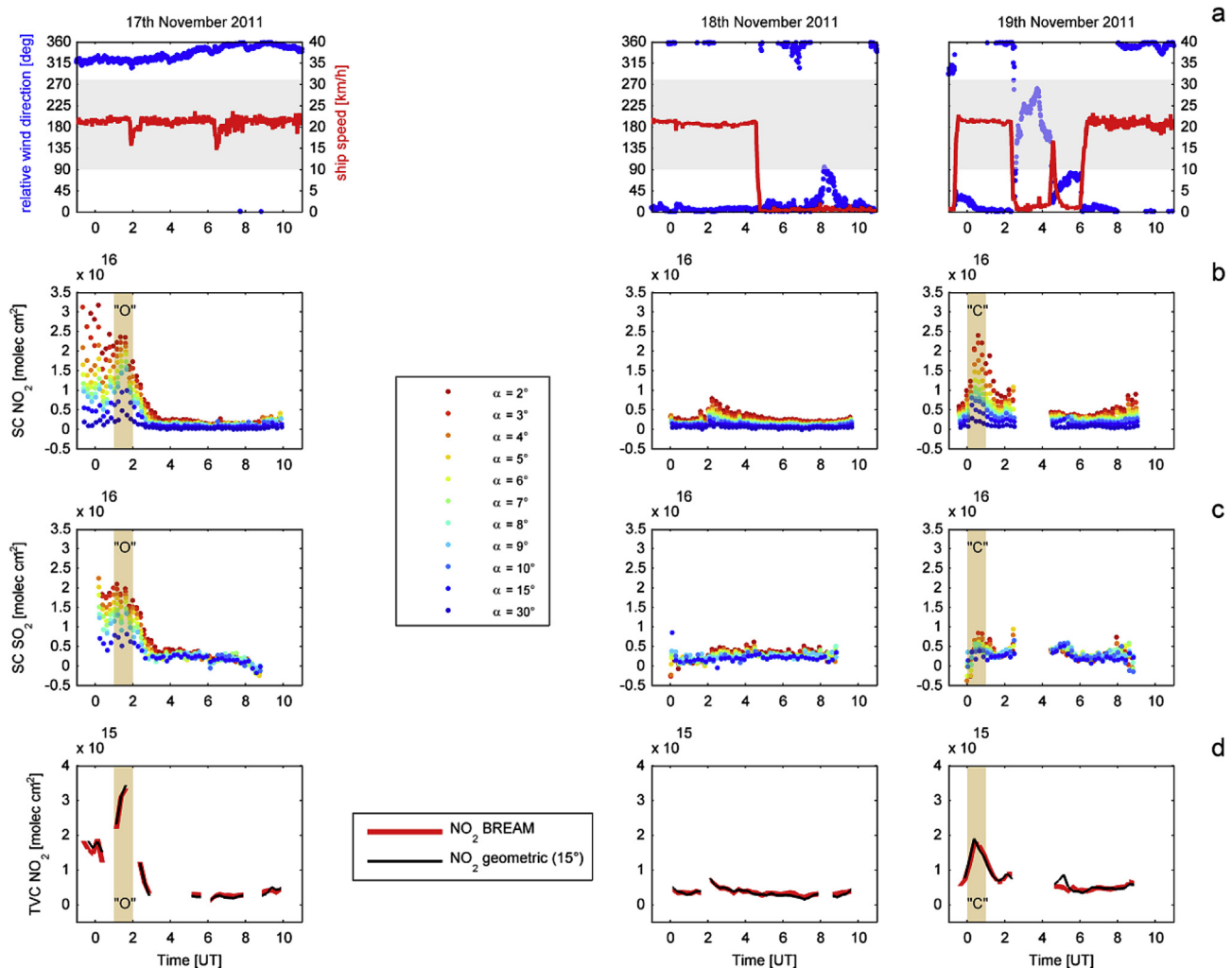
While all measurements  $\alpha = 2^\circ$  from 17th November are included in Fig. 3 (bottom), only one exemplary measurement at  $\alpha = 2^\circ$  is shown in Fig. 4 for the morning of 17th November, when the RV Sonne left the dense shipping lane connecting Singapore and East China. The measurement was taken at a solar zenith angle

of  $78.13^\circ$  and the obtained SCD is  $3.75 \times 10^{16}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  with an RMS of  $7.5 \times 10^{-4}$ . There is good correlation between the reference (black line) and the fit (green line). Compared to the standard settings, however, there is only minor improvement, which is not directly visible in the fit result (not shown).

The results of Figs. 3 and 4 suggest that the overall fit quality for cases with elevated  $\text{NO}_2$  levels is good enough to retrieve  $\text{NO}_2$  SCDs and subsequently estimate TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  via the geometric approach and BREAM.

A detection limit for  $\text{NO}_2$  slant columns from MAX-DOAS measurements in the open ocean has recently been estimated by Peters et al. (2012). RMS values from the best  $\text{NO}_2$  fits in the order of  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  were used to derive an upper detection limit of  $2 \times 10^{15}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ . As we find similar RMS values for the best fits in this study, their detection limit can also be assumed here.

The color-coded time series of the obtained  $\text{NO}_2$  SCDs are shown in Figs. 5b–7b for the individual days. Obviously, the highest values are observed at the lowest elevation angles, whereas the lowest values are found at the highest elevation angles, indicating that largest amounts of tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  are located close to the



**Fig. 5.** Time series of ship's data and tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  amounts for the days 17th, 18th, and 19th November 2011. Relative wind direction (blue dots) and ship speed (red line) as downloaded from the ship's database (a). The transparent gray area highlights the range of relative wind directions between  $90^\circ$  and  $280^\circ$ , which was used for data screening of the measured MAX-DOAS spectra. Tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  (b) and  $\text{SO}_2$  (c) SCDs as retrieved from the MAX-DOAS measurements at different elevation angles.  $\text{NO}_2$  tropospheric vertical columns (TVC  $\text{NO}_2$ ) as obtained from BREAM (red) and from the geometric approach using  $\alpha = 15^\circ$  (black) (d). The brown shaded areas in panels (b), (c), and (d) indicate the time of backward trajectory calculations ( $\pm 30$  min) as indicated in Fig. 1, where “O” and “C” denote the origin of air masses from the ocean and coast, respectively. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

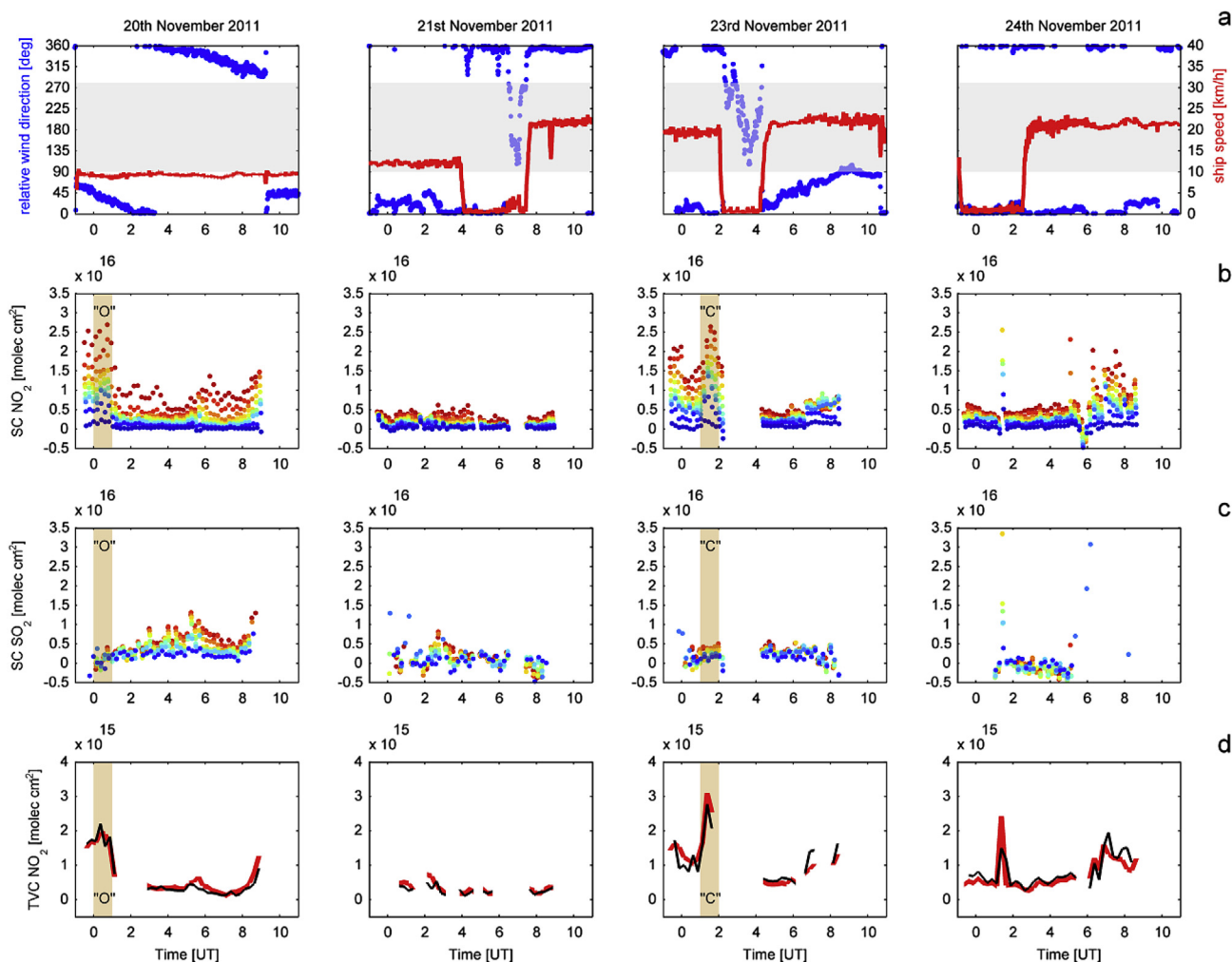


Fig. 6. Same as Fig. 5, but for the days 20th, 21st, 23rd, and 24th November 2011.

ground. The lowest  $\text{NO}_2$  SCDs are observed when the ship was far away from the coast and in a sufficiently large distance to other ships. For instance, the low values in the afternoon of 17th November and during almost the entire day of 18th November have been observed while the ship left the dense traffic lane and headed towards the coast of Borneo (see Fig. 1). On all other days, there was at least one peak in the time series of  $\text{NO}_2$  SCDs. For most of the time when higher values of  $\text{NO}_2$  SCDs are found, the ship was either in proximity to the coast or close to other vessels. Interestingly, the highest values exceeding  $2 \times 10^{16}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  at  $\alpha = 2^\circ$  were observed in the morning hours of 19th, 20th, and 23rd November. This is in good agreement with Takashima et al. (2012), as they have also highlighted a diurnal variation close to the coast with higher values in the morning.

Whether these elevated levels of  $\text{NO}_2$  are released by anthropogenic emission sources or produced by microbial activity of soils is difficult to judge. However, the sharp drop throughout the day leads to the assumption that the emission strength undergoes a daily cycle. On the other hand, photolysis of  $\text{NO}_2$  with increasing solar UV radiation could also determine the sharp drop of  $\text{NO}_2$  amounts. The fast photolysis of  $\text{NO}_2$ , which largely controls tropospheric  $\text{O}_3$  formation, is important for the production of hydroxyl (OH) radicals (Crutzen and Lelieveld, 2001). These secondary products of ozone photolysis could additionally influence the removal of tropospheric  $\text{NO}_x$  and thus, explain the sharp decrease in the morning.

We note that the negative SCDs which are occasionally observed, especially for larger elevation angles, could be attributed to unfavorable zenith measurements (influence of  $\text{NO}_2$  from an elevated plume or from the ship's smoke stack), which are used for the retrieval of the differential SCDs. However, for the computation of vertical columns and profiles with BREAM, these measurements are not included.

The ship-based MAX-DOAS measurements indicate increased tropospheric amounts of  $\text{NO}_2$  in the morning of 17th November, when the ship was leaving a busy shipping lane (see Fig. 5b). As no other sources than from international shipping can be expected in this area, these elevated  $\text{NO}_2$  levels can be clearly attributed to shipping emissions released by other vessels moving in the dense shipping lane. Moreover, air masses originating from the north brought air passing over the ship track into the instrument's field of view. When the RV Sonne left the shipping lane and moved towards the coast of Borneo, these increased  $\text{NO}_2$  amounts disappeared and concentrations in the boundary layer reached low values.

#### 4.2. Tropospheric $\text{SO}_2$ slant column densities

In order to compare the daily cycle of  $\text{NO}_2$  with another trace gas emitted from ship stacks, we have also retrieved  $\text{SO}_2$  from the MAX-DOAS measurements. As  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  both have a relatively short lifetime in the tropical boundary layer of  $<10$  h (e.g. Beirle et al., 2011) and  $>10$  h (Lee et al., 2011), respectively, one would expect

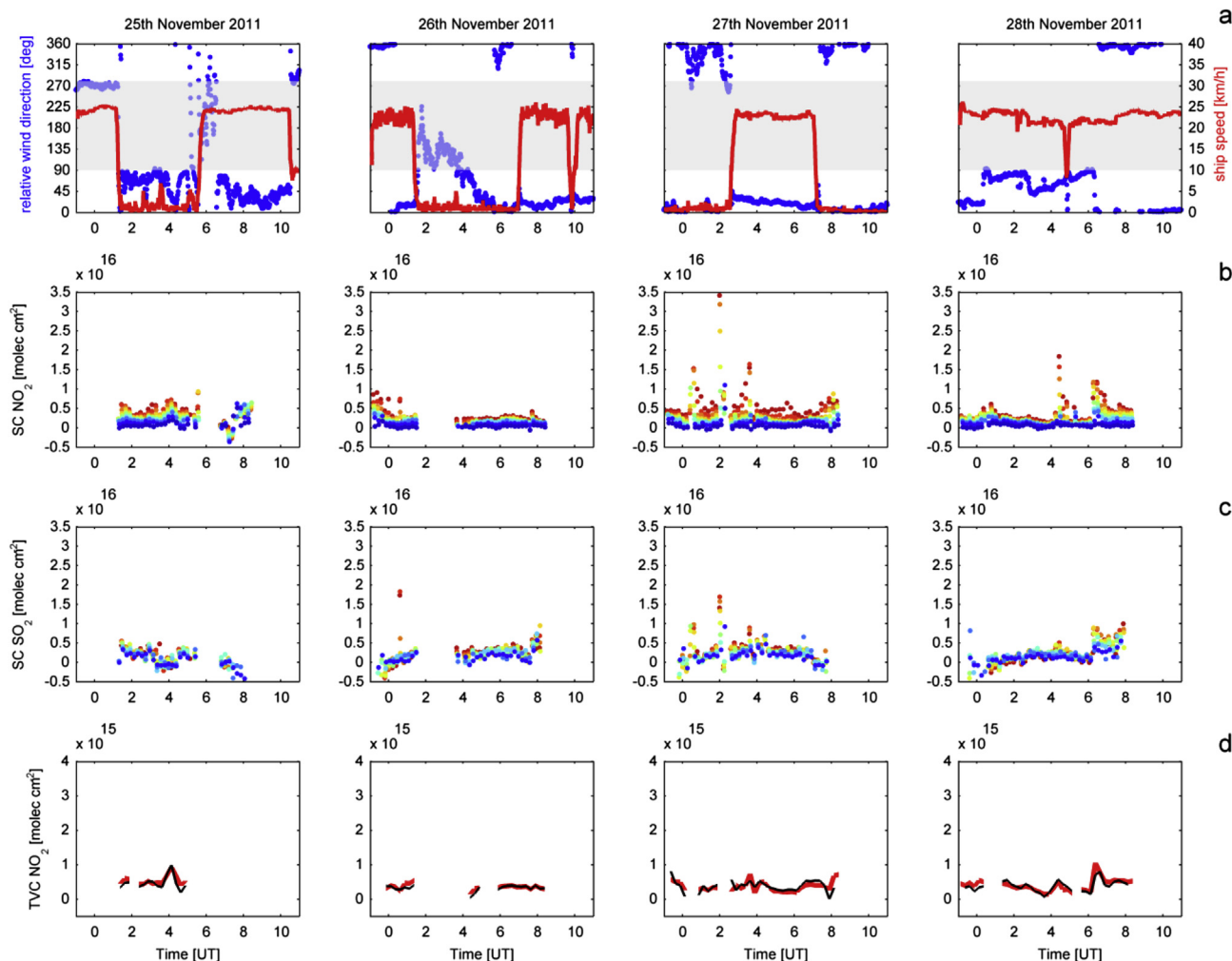


Fig. 7. Same as Fig. 5, but for the days 25th, 26th, 27th, and 28th November 2011.

high temporal correlation between the two time series of  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  for 17th November 2011.

Exemplary fit results of the  $\text{SO}_2$  fit are shown in Fig. 8. The spectral measurement was taken on 17th November at  $2^\circ$  elevation angle and  $53.33^\circ$  solar zenith angle. In general, there is a good

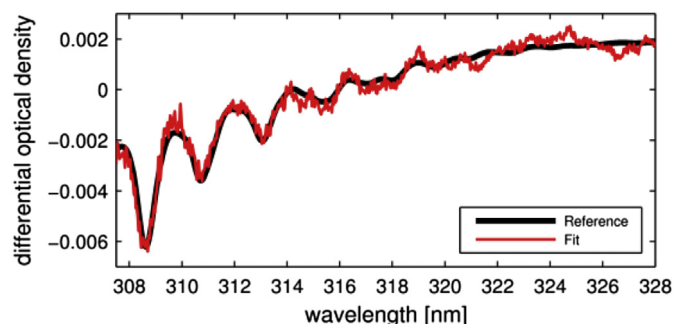


Fig. 8. Fit results of the  $\text{SO}_2$  fit for a single measured spectrum taken in the morning of 17th November 2011 (01:20 UT) under elevated  $\text{SO}_2$  pollution ( $\text{SCD} = 1.84 \times 10^{16} \text{ molec cm}^{-2}$ ). The RMS of the residuals is  $5 \times 10^{-4}$ . Here, the optical density of the reference (black line) and fit (red line) are retrieved at  $2^\circ$  elevation angle and at  $53.33^\circ$  solar zenith angle. Further explanations and definitions are given in the text. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

agreement between the reference (black line) and the fit (red line). The agreement is best for the lower wavelengths where the differential optical depth is larger. However, differences are larger for cases with lower tropospheric  $\text{SO}_2$  amounts (not shown).

For the case of  $\text{SO}_2$ , we found that RMS values for the best fits are  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  and thus, the best detection limit of  $4 \times 10^{15} \text{ molec cm}^{-2}$  is two times as large as for  $\text{NO}_2$ , which might be related to both reduced light path length and sensitivity in the UV fitting window.

The time series of tropospheric  $\text{SO}_2$  SCDs are shown in Figs. 5c–7c for all days when ship-based MAX-DOAS measurements were performed. In general, the values are rather low on most days as no larger sources are expected in this region. However, elevated values of  $\text{SO}_2$  SCDs exceeding  $2 \times 10^{16} \text{ molec cm}^{-2}$  at  $\alpha = 2^\circ$  are found in the morning of 17th November, when the ship was moving in proximity to the dense shipping lane. The values of  $\text{SO}_2$  SCDs in the lowest elevation angles are slightly lower but in general consistent with  $\text{NO}_2$  SCDs. This is in good agreement with the findings by Eyring et al. (2010) as they also report higher  $\text{NO}_2$  than  $\text{SO}_2$  from shipping emissions. DOAS measurements from an airborne platform in the Baltic Sea indicated slightly higher amounts of  $\text{SO}_2$  than  $\text{NO}_2$  from shipping emissions (Berg et al., 2012). However, these measurements were performed in the proximity to the individual ships and thus, reflected rather fresh smoke plumes having larger  $\text{NO}/\text{NO}_x$  ratio. Indeed, the  $\text{NO}_2/\text{SO}_2$  ratio could also be influenced by differences in the sulfur content of



the shipping fuels.

The sharp decrease of  $\text{SO}_2$  on 17th November around 02:00 UT is also consistent with the decline in  $\text{NO}_2$  and might be related to the separation of RV Sonne from the shipping lane (see Fig. 5b and c). In the afternoon and when the ship was moving towards the coast of Borneo, the  $\text{SO}_2$  SCDs reached very low levels, which was also found for  $\text{NO}_2$ .

Shipping emissions from a single large vessel on 24th November are also visible from the  $\text{SO}_2$  data. As shown in Fig. 6b for  $\text{NO}_2$ , there is an increased short-term signal of  $\text{SO}_2$  at the same time and of similar magnitude. Such short-term signals are also found on 27th November, which might be released from other vessel moving in proximity to the RV Sonne. However, we could not identify larger ships from the video camera's records on that day and thus, these elevated values could also originate from the own ship's plume in spite of the wind direction filtering applied to the data. Another explanation for these elevated values could be the transport of  $\text{SO}_2$  from ships that were out of sight.

On 20th November, elevated  $\text{SO}_2$  values in the afternoon could originate from flaring at offshore oil production sites that are found in this region (e.g. Nara et al., 2014). As discussed above,  $\text{NO}_2$  observations have also indicated elevated values on that day. However, the increased  $\text{NO}_2$  levels, which unlike  $\text{SO}_2$  are also found in the morning, are higher in magnitude than  $\text{SO}_2$  amounts. On 19th and 23rd November, elevated  $\text{NO}_2$  amounts in the morning could have originated from the nearby cities of Kuching and Kota Kinabalu, respectively. This speculation is supported by slightly elevated  $\text{SO}_2$  values. For example, high  $\text{NO}_2$  together with low  $\text{SO}_2$  could arise from traffic rather than from soil microbial activity.

In Fig. 9, a color-coded scatter plot of  $\text{SO}_2$  SCDs vs.  $\text{NO}_2$  SCDs for the different elevation angles is shown for all measurements taken on 17th November, when the RV Sonne left the busy shipping lane in the South China Sea. For a better comparison, we have used the  $30^\circ$  measurements as FRS also for  $\text{NO}_2$ . The solid black line is the 1:1 line and the dashed gray lines indicate the  $\pm 20\%$  bounds. As already discussed above, the higher values at lower elevation angles are linked to shipping emissions. Berg et al. (2012) found that  $\text{SO}_2$  amounts are higher than  $\text{NO}_2$  amounts in fresh plumes released from vessels in the Baltic Sea. The fact that increased  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  amounts observed in our study are in good agreement could be related to transport of polluted air masses from the North and the consequent increasing formation of  $\text{NO}_2$  within the plume. However, we also observed cases where  $\text{SO}_2$  SCDs were higher than  $\text{NO}_2$  SCDs, which could be linked to rather fresh shipping emissions

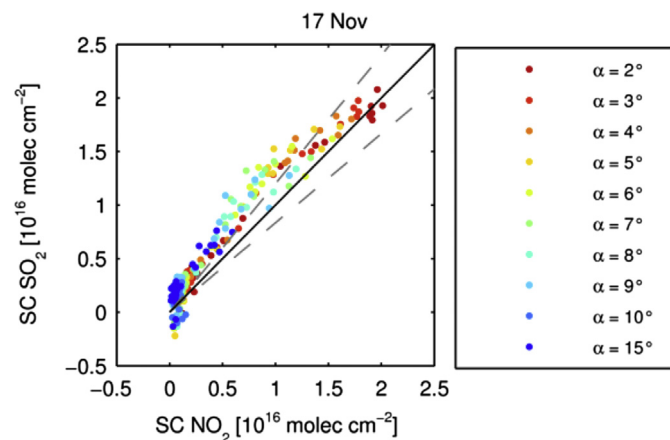


Fig. 9. Color-coded scatter plot of tropospheric  $\text{SO}_2$  SCDs vs.  $\text{NO}_2$  SCDs on 17th November. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

from vessels moving in proximity to RV Sonne. The scatter between  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  is larger for smaller trace gas amounts, which is linked to the fact that concentrations are below the estimated detection limits of  $2$  and  $4 \times 10^{15}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ , respectively.

#### 4.3. Tropospheric $\text{NO}_2$ vertical columns

In order to make the two approaches (geometric approach vs. BREAM, see Sect. 3.1.5) comparable, the TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  values obtained from the geometric approach have been interpolated to the selected BREAM time interval (15 min).

The tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  vertical columns as obtained from the geometrical approximation using the  $15^\circ$  (blue),  $10^\circ$  (green),  $5^\circ$  (red), and  $2^\circ$  (cyan) measurements are compared with TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  as computed with BREAM for all days (Fig. 10, bottom). There is a clear indication that both  $15^\circ$  and  $10^\circ$  measurements can be applied for the geometric approach when TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  exceeds  $1.5 \times 10^{15}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ . For cases when the  $\text{NO}_2$  amounts are rather low ( $< 1 \times 10^{15}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ), the agreement between the geometric approach and BREAM is less strong and differences can be larger than  $\pm 20\%$ . The decreasing match towards cases with lower  $\text{NO}_2$

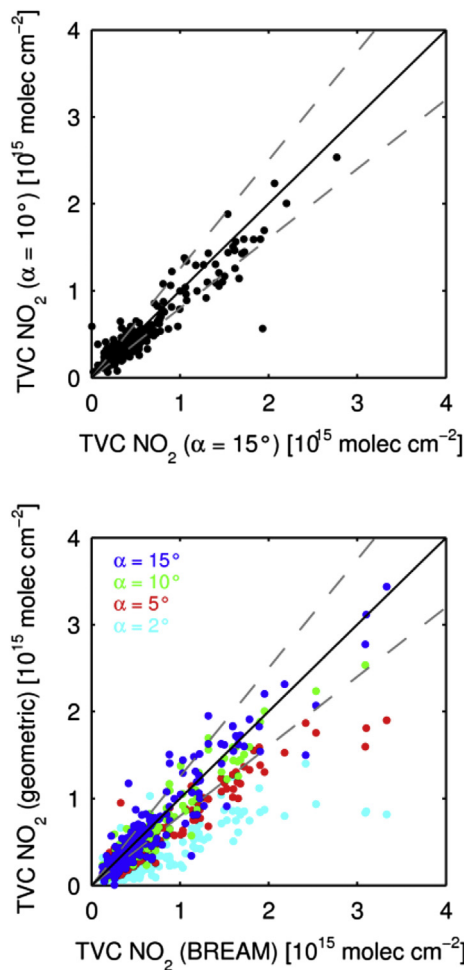


Fig. 10. Scatter plots of TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  as obtained from the geometric approach using  $\alpha = 10^\circ$  against  $\alpha = 15^\circ$  (upper) and TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  retrieved by the geometric approach against TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  computed by BREAM, where  $\alpha = 2^\circ$ ,  $\alpha = 5^\circ$ ,  $\alpha = 10^\circ$ , and  $\alpha = 15^\circ$  are shown in cyan, red, green, and blue, respectively (lower). The solid black line is the 1:1 line and the dashed gray lines denote the  $\pm 20\%$  difference. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

concentrations might be an artifact of the lower fit quality (see Fig. 3), which impacts less on BREAM which is using information from all viewing angles. We found that TVC NO<sub>2</sub> is underestimated when the 5° (red) and 2° (cyan) measurements are used for the geometric approach. This can be explained by the fact that the tropospheric light path is shorter than assumed in the geometric approximation when the last scattering point is located within the NO<sub>2</sub> layer.

In the upper panel of Fig. 10, the comparison between the geometric approach using the 15° and 10° measurements is shown. Clearly, TVC NO<sub>2</sub> as computed from both elevation angles are in good agreement, suggesting that in these viewing directions, the last scattering point is generally above the NO<sub>2</sub> layer. Recent land-based MAX-DOAS campaigns have shown that 30° elevation angles are the most appropriate measurements for the geometric approach (Brinkma et al., 2008; Halla et al., 2011). However, due to the lower boundary layer height over the sea and thus, less vertical extent of NO<sub>2</sub>, both 15° and 10° measurements seem to work well for the conversion of SCDs into TVC NO<sub>2</sub> in our data. Results from the radiosonde measurements performed during the SHIVA ship cruise indicate that the marine boundary layer height was lower than 500 m during daytime (Fuhlbrügge et al., 2014). There is a clear preference in using these measurements as the sensitivity for tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> is much larger compared to 30° as a result of the longer light path through the boundary layer.

The time series of TVC NO<sub>2</sub> as obtained from the geometric approach using the 15° (red) measurements and from BREAM calculations are shown in Figs. 5d–7d. There is overall good agreement between the two time series found for most of the days. For the TVC NO<sub>2</sub> values from BREAM, there are some data gaps, which result from the selected time interval (15 min), threshold value for the correlation between measured and simulated O<sub>4</sub> slant columns ( $r > 0.6$ ), and a minimum value for the number of elevation angles (10) within one time interval. We note that these data gaps indicate unfavorable conditions (e.g. clouds or pollution from the smoke stack in the field of view) and the TVC NO<sub>2</sub> obtained from the geometric approach yield unexpected high and negative values for some of these cases.

On 17th, 19th, 20th, and 23rd November, TVC NO<sub>2</sub> amounts of up to  $3.5 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup> were observed in the morning hours by both approaches (geometric vs. BREAM). During the previous TransBrom campaign (Peters et al., 2012), the highest values of TVC NO<sub>2</sub> (up to  $2 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>) were also observed close to the coast and are in good agreement with the values observed during SHIVA. In order to investigate the origin of these elevated levels, backward trajectories were calculated for the time of peak values. The backward trajectories for these cases are shown in Fig. 1 and indicate the origin of air masses.

For instance, air masses coming from the north crossed the track of RV Sonne in the morning of 17th November. These air masses moved through the dense shipping lane connecting Singapore and coastal cities of eastern China, which bring elevated NO<sub>2</sub> levels from shipping emissions to the proximity of RV Sonne.

Significant NO<sub>2</sub> signals from international shipping have recently been identified by the evaluation of SCIAMACHY and GOME-2 satellite measurements (Beirle et al., 2004; Richter et al., 2004, 2011). Among other shipping lanes, the dense one in the South China Sea can be clearly seen from the long-term mean tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> fields. De Ruyter De Wild et al. (2012) retrieved NO<sub>2</sub> column densities from the GOME, SCIAMACHY, OMI, and GOME-2 instruments to analyze trends over international shipping lanes. They found increasing trends of NO<sub>2</sub> between 2003 and 2008 over the major shipping lanes with annual running means of TVC NO<sub>2</sub> reaching up to  $0.7 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup> in the South China Sea. The trend reversed in 2008 as a consequence of the economic crisis

and the linked decreased trade volume. In comparison to our MAX-DOAS results, the lower values obtained from satellite instruments are probably related to the averaging over large pixels.

Backward trajectories on the 19th and 23rd November reveal that air masses originated from the coast of Borneo. In the case of 19th November, the emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> could be related to anthropogenic emissions from Kuching, which is the largest city on Borneo Island. The same is true for 23rd November, when air masses again originated from the coast and the city Kota Kinabalu.

The diurnal variation in TVC NO<sub>2</sub> shows a decrease during daytime. In addition to the enhanced photolysis of NO<sub>2</sub> with increasing solar UV radiation and faster removal of NO<sub>x</sub> due to the reaction with OH, this could also be a consequence of the increased stomata uptake of NO<sub>2</sub> by plants throughout the day. Ganguly et al. (2009) suggested an increased NO<sub>x</sub> uptake with increasing solar radiation in a tropical mangrove forest. During the night, the leaf stomata close and reduce NO<sub>x</sub> uptake. Hence, the enhanced levels in observed TVC NO<sub>2</sub> in the morning hours could emerge due to the inactive nighttime stomata. The removal of NO<sub>2</sub> within the first few hours after sunrise could thus at least in part be attributed to the stomatal activity of plants during day.

The diurnal cycle in TVC NO<sub>2</sub> can also be seen from satellite observations. Five-year averages (2007–2011) of TVC NO<sub>2</sub> retrieved from the GOME-2 (9:30 LT) and OMI (13:30 LT) instruments for November 2011 are shown in Fig. 11. The difference GOME-2 minus OMI TVC NO<sub>2</sub> underlines the fact that higher values are observed in the morning hours close to the coast, whereas no significant pattern is observed for the remote regions of the South China and Sulu Sea. In regions where the MAX-DOAS instrument on board RV Sonne observed the distinct daily NO<sub>2</sub> cycle, the differences between the two satellite data are larger than  $0.5 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>.

Differences in satellite-derived tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> over shipping lanes between morning and afternoon have previously been discussed in Franke et al. (2009). They also found higher NO<sub>2</sub> amounts in the morning observed from SCIAMACHY and relate these to the diurnal cycle of NO<sub>2</sub>, which is consistent with model simulations.

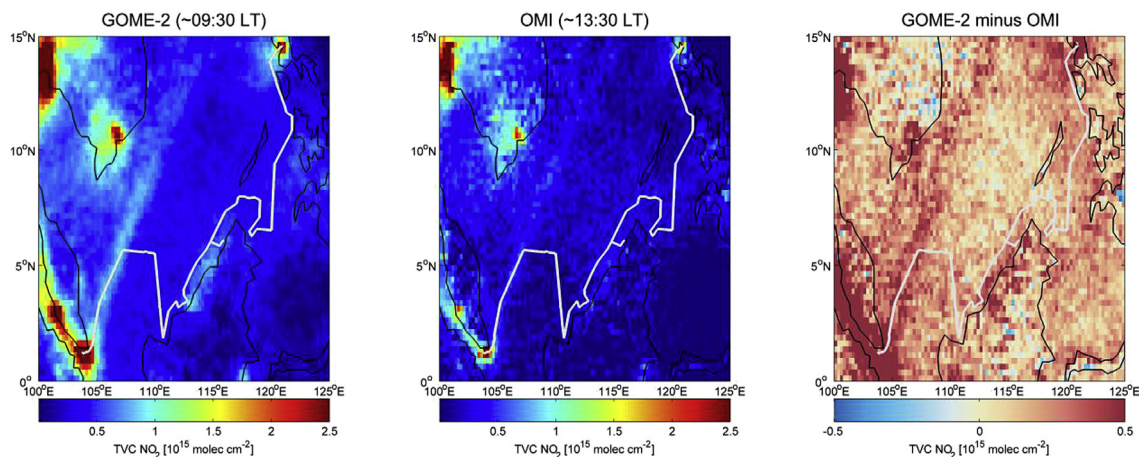
We note that the differences observed in the proximity of the coast are representative for this time of the season, where no significant sources of NO<sub>x</sub> other than anthropogenic and soil are found close to the ground. However, higher values of TVC NO<sub>2</sub> in the afternoon are expected during the biomass burning season.

In addition to the elevated TVC NO<sub>2</sub> originating from the coast, the MAX-DOAS measurements include some observations of sharp peaks in the open sea. The most striking temporary increase in TVC NO<sub>2</sub> far away from any coast was observed in the morning of 24th November (see Fig. 6d). The video camera recordings revealed that this was a large vessel in the proximity to RV Sonne (not shown).

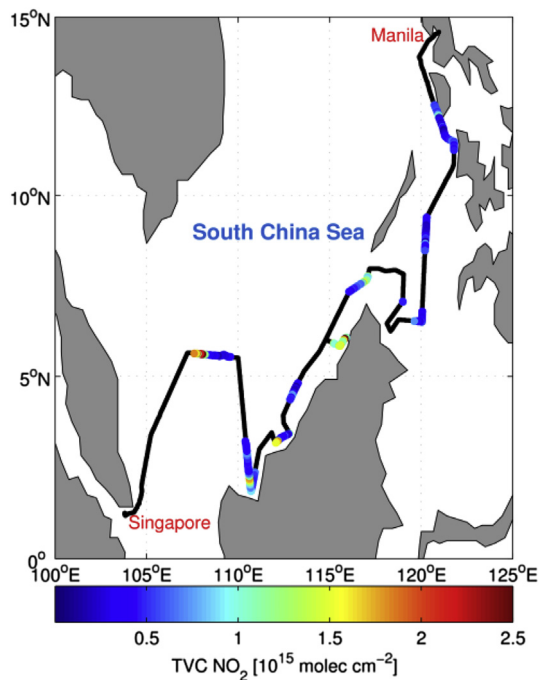
In Fig. 12, color-coded TVC NO<sub>2</sub> values as computed with BREAM are plotted along the ship track. Clearly, the lowest (highest) values are found in the open (coastal) waters of the South China and Sulu Sea. Increased NO<sub>2</sub> amounts in the open sea are the result of shipping emissions from other vessels observed by the MAX-DOAS instrument.

#### 4.4. Tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> profiles

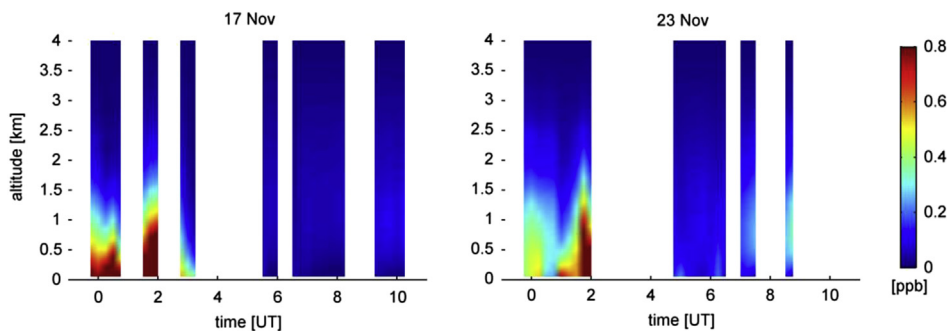
The tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> columns do not provide information about the vertical distribution of NO<sub>2</sub> and thus, a further step towards achieving this information is the retrieval of NO<sub>2</sub> profiles with BREAM (see Sect. 3.1.5). As the boundary layer height is well below 4 km in the tropics (e.g. Luo et al., 2014), the profile retrieval is expected to reflect all tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> produced from soil microbial activity and anthropogenic combustion processes. However, NO<sub>x</sub> from lightning might not be included in the obtained vertical profiles, as we expect NO<sub>x</sub> from lightning to be emitted into higher



**Fig. 11.** Monthly gridded ( $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ ) means of TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  as retrieved from GOME-2 (left) and OMI (middle) for November (2007–2011). The right panel displays the differences between TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  from GOME-2 minus TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  from OMI.



**Fig. 12.** Geographical map of color-coded TVC  $\text{NO}_2$  as obtained from BREAM. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)



**Fig. 13.** Exemplary vertical profiles of  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratios for 17th and 23rd November as obtained from BREAM.

altitudes where the sensitivity of the MAX-DOAS observations is small.

The retrieved profiles are shown in Fig. 13 for two exemplary days (17th and 23rd November). The gaps between the single profiles are the result of the limitations as already outlined in Sect. 4.2. Wittrock (2006) has shown that the errors of the volume mixing ratios in the lowermost 500 m are within 25%. The highest observed  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratios exceeding 1 ppbv are found close to the surface when the RV Sonne was moving in a dense shipping lane (17th November) or along the coast (23rd November). These elevated  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratios are in good agreement with the highest values ( $\sim 0.8$  ppbv) reported by Peters et al. (2012).

The lowest  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratios close to the ground are  $<30$ – $50$  pptv and can be as high as 100 pptv, as observed on 18th November, for instance (not shown). This is in good agreement with the former ship-based studies by Peters et al. (2012) and Takashima et al. (2012), suggesting boundary layer background mixing ratios of  $<50$  and up to 200 pptv, respectively. The explanation of the lower background values found in our study could be related to the improvements achieved using the adapted fit, which increases the signal-to-noise ratio.

## 5. Summary and conclusions

Ship-based Multi-Axis Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (MAX-DOAS) measurements performed in the South China and Sulu Sea in November 2011 have been used to retrieve tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  vertical columns (TVC  $\text{NO}_2$ ) and slant column densities (SCDs) of  $\text{SO}_2$ .

For NO<sub>2</sub>, we have used the cross-sections and the 425–490 nm fitting window as suggested in Roscoe et al. (2010) but adapted the NO<sub>2</sub> fit by including a cross-section for liquid water and an empirical correction spectrum as discussed in Peters et al. (2014). As a result, the fit quality slightly improved, especially for the lowest elevation angles and when NO<sub>2</sub> amounts are rather low.

The time series of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> slant column densities (SCDs), which have been obtained by using a zenith measurement close in time as Fraunhofer reference spectrum (FRS), indicate that the highest levels of NO<sub>2</sub> are found at the lowest elevation angles. The conversion of SCDs into the more commonly used TVC NO<sub>2</sub> is based on two different approaches.

The simple geometric approach was tested for different elevation angles and compared with TVC NO<sub>2</sub> as computed from the vertical profiles inverted with BREAM. The comparison between TVC NO<sub>2</sub> as obtained from 10° to 15° measurements for SZA <75° showed that both can be used to retrieve TVC NO<sub>2</sub> from MAX-DOAS measurements in the tropical marine environment with values comparable to what is derived by a full inversion. Geometric values from even lower elevations underestimate the true columns as the last scattering point moves into the layer of enhanced NO<sub>2</sub>.

Although the NO<sub>2</sub> amounts in the marine environment of Southeast Asia are rather low when compared to larger cities or intensive biomass burning regions, the MAX-DOAS measurements on board the RV Sonne yielded some interesting insights in the spatio-temporal patterns of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub>. We expected very low values, but occasionally identified increased NO<sub>2</sub> amounts, mostly resulting from fuel combustion and possibly also from soil microbial activity – but to a lesser proportion than from anthropogenic activities. These peaks, which predominantly occurred in the morning hours, disappeared quite soon after – most probably due to fast photolysis of NO<sub>2</sub> with increasing solar UV radiation.

The results show that the boundary layer values of NO<sub>2</sub> are well below 100 pptv and <30 pptv in the open waters of the South China and Sulu Sea. However, mixing ratios exceeded 0.8 ppbv when the RV Sonne was heading along the coast or in proximity to other vessels.

In addition to NO<sub>2</sub>, we have also retrieved SO<sub>2</sub> SCDs in a fitting window between 307.5 and 328 nm. We report increased tropospheric SO<sub>2</sub> SCDs in the lowest layers when the RV Sonne was in proximity to a dense shipping lane and thus, attribute these values to both fresh and aged plumes released from larger vessels. The values are in general agreement with NO<sub>2</sub> SCDs, indicating comparable magnitudes of shipping NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>.

From our measurements it is clear, that ship traffic has a large impact on pollutant levels in the South China Sea, at least in the vicinity of the busy shipping lanes.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2014.12.015>.

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