



## Abstract

A portable Fourier Transform Spectrometer (FTS), model EM27/SUN, is deployed onboard the research vessel *Polarstern* to measure the column-average dry air mole fractions of carbon dioxide ( $XCO_2$ ) and methane ( $XCH_4$ ) by means of direct sunlight absorption spectrometry. We report on technical developments as well as data calibration and reduction measures required to achieve the targeted accuracy of fractions of a percent in retrieved  $XCO_2$  and  $XCH_4$  while operating the instrument under field conditions onboard the moving platform during a six week cruise through the Atlantic from Cape Town (South Africa,  $34^\circ S$ ,  $18^\circ E$ ) to Bremerhaven (Germany,  $54^\circ N$ ,  $19^\circ E$ ). We demonstrate that our solar tracker typically achieves a tracking precision of better than  $0.05^\circ$  toward the center of the sun throughout the ship cruise which facilitates accurate  $XCO_2$  and  $XCH_4$  retrievals even under harsh ambient wind conditions. We define several quality filters that screen spectra e.g. when the field-of-view is partially obstructed by ship structures or when the lines-of-sight cross the ship exhaust plume. The measurements in clean oceanic air, can be used to characterize a spurious air-mass dependency. After the campaign, deployment of the spectrometer side-by-side the TCCON (Total Carbon Column Observing Network) instrument at Karlsruhe, Germany, allows for determining a calibration factor that makes the entire campaign record traceable to World Meteorological Organization (WMO) standards. Comparisons to observations of the GOSAT satellite and concentration fields modeled by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) within the project Monitoring of Atmospheric Composition and Climate – Interim Implementation (MACC-II) demonstrate that the observational setup is well suited to provide validation opportunities above the ocean and along interhemispheric transects.

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## 1 Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) are the most important anthropogenic greenhouse gases (Stocker et al., 2013). To understand their emission and uptake processes at the Earth's surface, inverse modeling approaches exploit the observed variability of the atmospheric concentration fields (e.g. Chevallier et al., 2010; Peylin et al., 2013). Estimating surface fluxes of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in particular requires accurate and spatially and temporally dense observations of the atmospheric abundances. Such observations have been delivered for decades by ground-based in-situ monitoring stations (e.g. Masarie et al., 2014) though their coverage in remote regions is sparse. Remote sensing of column-average CO<sub>2</sub> (XCO<sub>2</sub>) and CH<sub>4</sub> (XCH<sub>4</sub>) from satellites is an emerging technique that promises improved coverage and data density but faces challenging accuracy requirements on the order of fractions of a percent (e.g. Chevallier et al., 2007; Bergamaschi et al., 2009). Therefore, XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> soundings recorded by satellites such as Scanning Imaging Absorption Spectrometer for Atmospheric Chartography (SCIAMACHY), Greenhouse Gases Observing Satellite (GOSAT) (Burrows et al., 1995; Bovensmann et al., 1999), or the recently launched Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2) require thorough validation through ground-based measurements.

To this end, the Total Carbon Column Observing Network (TCCON) has been designed, currently operating more than 20 ground-based high-resolution lab Fourier Transform Spectrometers (FTS) at stations worldwide (Wunch et al., 2011; TCCON-Wiki, 2015). These ground-based FTS collect solar absorption spectra in direct-sun view allowing for accurate knowledge of the light path through the atmosphere and thereby, avoiding one of the largest sources of error for satellite remote sensing of XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> (Rayner and O'Brien, 2001). The typical accuracy of TCCON spectrometers is reported better than 0.8 ppm (parts per million) for XCO<sub>2</sub> and 7 ppb (parts per billion) for XCH<sub>4</sub> (Wunch et al., 2010). The TCCON FTS operate at high spectral resolution and therefore, require stationary containers that can house the rather bulky

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and delicate instruments. Developments are ongoing to prove performance of smaller and more robust remote sensing instruments that can be easily deployed in remote regions, in larger numbers, and on mobile platforms (Kobayashi et al., 2010; Krings et al., 2011; Kawasaki et al., 2012; Petri et al., 2012; Gisi et al., 2012; Frey et al., 2015).

Here, we demonstrate performance of such a small and robust spectrometer for accurate observations of XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> on a mobile platform. We deploy an Bruker™ EM27/SUN FTS aboard the German research vessel (RV) *Polarstern* traveling from South Africa to Germany during a 5-week cruise in March/April 2014.

The EM27/SUN FTS is a table-top, portable instrument operating at medium spectral resolution of 0.5 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Performance of the EM27/SUN FTS in stationary configuration has been proven for XCO<sub>2</sub> by Gisi et al. (2012) using measurements side-by-side the TCCON instrument at Karlsruhe, Germany. Previously, Notholt et al. (1995) and Warneke et al. (2005) have shown that RV *Polarstern* is an excellent carrier to investigate hemispheric gradients of a large variety of atmospheric constituent including the man-made greenhouse gases. Instrumentation, however, is challenged by harsh ambient conditions. In particular, the moving platform poses a challenge for direct solar absorption spectroscopy since the solar intensity has to be fed precisely into the spectrometer's entrance aperture, regardless the movements of the platform. In the view of satellite validation, shipborne measurements are particular interesting since currently there are only a few island observatories (e.g. Geibel et al., 2010; Schneider et al., 2012) that allow for validating XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> derived from glint-mode satellite operations over the oceans.

Figure 1 illustrates the track of RV *Polarstern* starting out at Cape Town, South Africa (34° S, 18° E) on 5 March 2014, and entering port at Bremerhaven, Germany, (54° N, 19° E) on 14 April 2014. During the cruise the EM27/SUN spectrometer operated whenever cloud conditions permitted direct-sun view on 31 out of 40 days, in total collecting 5693 spectra for which XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> can be derived. Beside recording solar absorption spectra, our housekeeping infrastructures monitored ambient pressure and temperature. Further, RV *Polarstern* is equipped with a meteorological station. In addi-



the solar disk moves slowly across the sky. Under such conditions, Gisi et al. (2011) shows that tracking errors are typically less than  $0.003^\circ$  which is well below the targeted tracking accuracy of  $0.05^\circ$  needed to keep pointing-induced XCO<sub>2</sub> errors below 0.1 ppm.

5 Adapting the solar tracking system to mobile applications poses two major challenges:

- At start-up or after interruptions of the tracking operations, the solar tracker needs to find the solar disk without knowledge of the observatory's orientation. For stationary operations the attitude of the observatory is typically given at start-up (and left unchanged) and astronomical calculations provide the initial relative position of the sun.
- The PID control cycle needs to cope with the potentially fast motion of the platform in addition to the slow motion of the solar disk.

15 Basically, the tracking procedure can be split into two parts, that tackle the required adaptations: the coarse and the fine-tracking mode. The latter is a refinement of the concept proposed by Gisi et al. (2011). Both require additional or exchange of hardware.

The coarse-tracking mode relies on a  $185^\circ$  fish eye-lens (Lensation, BFM2320) mounted on a CMOS digital camera (VR-magic, model C-9+ PRO BW CMOS,  $1288 \times 1032$  pixel) observing the sky hemisphere above the instrument. The approximate position of the solar disk is identified as the brightest spot on the camera image. A lookup-table generated through lamp calibration in our laboratory translates image positions into azimuth and elevation angles of the tracking mirrors. The angular resolution of the coarse-tracking is approximately  $0.15^\circ \text{ pixel}^{-1}$  and strongly variable within the field of view. Thus, it is not accurate enough to perform the entire tracking process with the desired accuracy of  $0.05^\circ$ . But, the coarse-tracking ensures that the solar disc of about  $0.53^\circ$  diameter can be located within the Field-Of-View (FOV) of the fine-tracking camera, that is approximately  $10\text{--}15^\circ$ .

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Once the solar image is within the FOV of the fine-tracking camera (VR-magic, model C-9+ PRO BW CMOS, 1288 × 1032 pixel,  $f = 50$  mm), coarse-tracking goes idle and fine-tracking mode takes over centering the solar image on the aperture of the spectrometer through a circle fitting routine. In order to enhance the tracking velocity for a moving platform, it is essential to update the motor control parameters (position, speed or acceleration) as frequently as possible. To minimize the time lost during communication between the fine-tracking camera and the control unit (Embedded PC-System, ARK by Advantech), the camera only transmits a region of interest of approximately 200 pixel × 200 pixel out of the full camera frame of 1288 pixel × 1032 pixel via USB. Additionally each motor connects via its own RS485 connection to the control unit to enable simultaneous send and receive to/from both motors. Based on this hardware setup, our custom-built image acquisition, processing, PID and motor control software achieves control cycle durations on the order of 20–30 ms corresponding to an update frequency of 33–50 Hz. Table 1 summarizes individual contributions.

We evaluate onboard performance of the solar tracker by examining the deviations between the center of the solar image and the targeted center of the spectrometer aperture. The deviations are logged during the entire campaign on board RV *Polarstern*. While such an assessment provides an estimate of the tracking precision, it does not allow for quantifying systematic tracking errors e.g. due to a misalignment of the actual and the assumed center of the spectrometer aperture. A misalignment of the latter kind leads to a systematic pointing offset i.e. the solar tracker does not point exactly to the center of the sun but slightly to the limb. Fine-tracking camera and aperture are carefully aligned in the lab to avoid such systematic errors.

Figure 2 (left) shows the logarithmic occurrence count of tracking deviations in azimuth and elevation directions. The desired tracking accuracy of 0.05° is red encircled. 98.7% of the entire campaign data is within this tracking error regime. The record includes all kinds of interruptions such as shadowing by the ship's infrastructure or cloudy conditions. The tracking accuracy of the entire data accounts for 0.0076° (1 $\sigma$ ), which

means, that 68.3% of all data points feature an accuracy of this value or better. The origin of the star-shape pattern remains unclear.

Figure 2 (right) shows the dependency of the tracking precision on the angular acceleration for an illustrative day of the ship cruise. Because the PID-parameters had been changed along the entire cruise we focus on that representative day. To simplify the evaluation just the azimuth component is analyzed. The azimuth component is physically the most inert part of the system and serves as a conservative estimate. The elevation component, however, shows very similar behavior. Generally, the larger accelerations required to compensate ship movements, the poorer the tracking precision. The linear dependency of tracking precision on angular acceleration can be used to derive a maximum acceleration up to which our solar tracking performs within the required limits. If the angular acceleration does not exceed approximately  $6.5^\circ \text{ s}^{-2}$  the tracking precision complies with the  $0.05^\circ$  requirement.

## 2.2 Fourier Transform Spectrometer EM27/SUN

The Bruker™ EM27/SUN FTS is a table-top Fourier Transform Spectrometer of approximately 25 kg weight. It is designed in the framework of a cooperation between KIT and Bruker™ for stationary  $\text{XCO}_2$  and  $\text{XCH}_4$  measurements (Gisi et al., 2012). Here, we give a brief overview of the most important features.

The EM27/SUN is constructed as a RockSolid™ pendulum interferometer with two cube corner mirrors and a  $\text{CaF}_2$  beam splitter. The optical path difference of 1.8 cm corresponds to a spectral resolution of  $0.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . A 127 mm parabolic mirror together with the 0.6 mm aperture defines an semi-FOV of 2.36 mrad. With the solar disc as light source this FOV corresponds to approximately 51.0% of the solar diameter. The InGaAs non-cooled detector (HAMAMATSU™ G12181-010K) with a sensitive area of approximately  $0.8 \text{ mm}^2$ , has a spectral response from 5000 to  $11\,000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Typical exposure times are approximately 58 s for 10 double sided interferograms, recorded in DC-mode. Differences to the prototype device used by Gisi et al. (2012) are a slightly different focal length of 127 mm instead of 101.6 mm and a detector with a spectral

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coverage of 5000 to 11 000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  instead of 6000 to 9000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . The latter adjustment was necessary to cover the spectral range of  $\text{CH}_4$  absorption. Further, a bandpass filter (Thorlabs FB1650-12, center wavenumber: 6061  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , FWHM: 44.0  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) has been mounted in front of the internal calibration lamp in order to characterize the ghost-to-parent ratio as described in Dohe et al. (2013) or Messerschmidt et al. (2010).

Gisi et al. (2012) showed, that this instrument is highly stable against thermal influences in particular as demonstrated by observations in summer and winter in Karlsruhe. Furthermore moderate mechanical stress due to deployment and dismounting do not harm the accuracy of the instrument. This makes the instrument in particular suitable for campaign purposes.

### 3 Data reduction and evaluation

The following section guides through the data evaluation process. Section 3.1 describes the spectral retrieval of absorber total columns from the recorded solar absorption spectra. Various quality filters (Sect. 3.2) and corrections (Sect. 3.3) guarantee that quality of the estimated  $\text{XCO}_2$  and  $\text{XCH}_4$  is consistently high throughout the ship cruise.

#### 3.1 Spectral retrieval

The spectral retrieval of absorber total columns uses the software package PROFFIT v.9.6 (Hase et al., 2004). In principle, PROFFIT is capable of retrieving vertical profile information from high spectral resolution measurements of the atmospheric transmittance in direct-sun view (García et al., 2012). The medium resolution of 0.5  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  of the EM27 FTS, however, is insufficient to extract profile information from the pressure and temperature dependent absorption line shapes. Therefore, here, a configuration is chosen that retrieves a scaling parameter for the a priori absorber profiles.

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The absorber total columns to be retrieved are the ones of the targeted species CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>, and the ones of the ancillary species molecular oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) and water vapor (H<sub>2</sub>O). The latter is an interfering species. O<sub>2</sub> is used to calculate the dry air mole fraction X<sub>gas</sub> of the desired target gas via

$$X_{\text{gas}} = 0.209420 \cdot \frac{C_{\text{gas}}}{C_{\text{O}_2}} \quad (1)$$

where C<sub>gas</sub> is the gas total column in units molec m<sup>-2</sup>. Referencing the targeted gas abundance to the known O<sub>2</sub> abundance is a common approach to cancel out instrument and retrieval related errors common to the retrievals of O<sub>2</sub> and the target species.

The a priori profiles of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> are taken from a CarbonTracker model run (Peters et al., 2007) for the year 2008 and from a Tracer Model 4 (TM4) run (Meirink et al., 2006) for the year 2007, respectively. Meteorological parameters such as pressure and temperature vertical profiles are based on the monthly latitudinal mean profiles provided by CIRA-86<sup>1</sup> (Fleming et al., 1988) that reaches up to 120 km height in 77 levels. If available, these meteorological profiles are supplemented by the daily noon-time radiosonde measurements from aboard RV *Polarstern* reaching altitudes up to 30 km height (König-Langlo, 2014). If no radiosonde data available, the data from the global model reanalysis from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) (Kalnay et al., 1996) is used to supplement the initial profile up to approximately 30 km height. The NCEP-data is downloaded via the Goddard auto mailer system (Schoeberl et al., 2014). This combined profile is interpolated on a 49 layer grid from measurement height up to to 120 km.

The a priori O<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O profiles are generic profiles, that represent a typical situation.

<sup>1</sup>CIRA stands for “COSPAR International Reference Atmosphere”, whereas COSPAR stands for “Committee on SPACE Research”.

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The calculation of atmospheric gas absorption lines are based on the High resolution TRANsmission (HITRAN) database (Rothman et al., 2009) from 2008. Whereas for CH<sub>4</sub> the unchanged line list is used, the CO<sub>2</sub> line list is modified as suggested by Lamouroux et al. (2010) to take into account line-mixing effects. The line list for O<sub>2</sub> is modified according to TCCON recommendations. Finally, the H<sub>2</sub>O line list is based on HITRAN-updates from 2009.

Table 2 gives an overview of the most important retrieval parameters among the various spectral windows.

The Instrumental Line Shape (ILS) of the instrument is determined analyzing water vapor absorption lines along a light path through ambient air in our laboratory. A 50 W light bulb is collimated and positioned at ~ 4.0 m distance to the spectrometer. A data logger (MRC, MHB-382SD) provides temperature and pressure readings to calculate the appropriate absorption line shapes. Parameters defining the ILS are retrieved together with the ambient H<sub>2</sub>O abundance from absorption spectra in the spectral range at 7000–7400 cm<sup>-1</sup> using the LINEFIT software package version 14 (Hase et al., 1999). ILS retrieval parameters are 0.99594 for the modulation efficiency and  $2.83 \times 10^{-3}$  for the phase error in the post campaign retrieval. As long as no instrumental changes (e.g. accidental or intentional changes in the optical alignment) are undertaken, the inferred ILS parameters have been shown to be constant over month-long timescales (Gisi et al., 2012; Frey et al., 2015). During the RV *Polarstern* cruise, the instrument housing had to be removed which appears to have caused a slight change of the optical alignment. To monitor and mitigate changes in the ILS, we conduct a preprocessing step which retrieves the ILS parameters from O<sub>2</sub> absorption lines throughout the ship cruise. Details are given in Sect. 3.3.

The preprocessing was performed with the python routine “Calpy\_mobile” programme developed at KIT. This routine requests and downloads the meteorological profile data at the Goddard automailer system and generates the input profiles with the radiosonde data. Additionally it performs the DC-correction (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2007a)

(see Sect. 3.3) on the interferogram, the fourier transformation and finally exports it into a binary input format for PROFFIT.

### 3.2 Quality filters

The spectrometer was operated semi-automatically from morning to afternoon on deck of the RV *Polarstern* whenever outside weather conditions were not too harsh. Therefore, spectra were recorded also under unfavorable conditions e.g. when the sun was partially obscured by ship structures or when lines-of-sight crossed the exhaust plume (EP) of the ship. To exclude such measurements from the scientific data set, we apply three quality filters: The DC-filter screens strong intensity fluctuations. The O<sub>2</sub>-filter gives an estimate on the retrieval quality with the ground pressure as reference. Finally the EP-filter (Exhaust Plume) removes measurements, where the instrument's line of sight passed the ships exhaust plume.

The DC-filter is designed to sort out intensity fluctuations during the measurement. These fluctuations can for example be introduced by variable cirrus clouds or by the ship's structures obscuring the line-of-sight. We operate the EM27/SUN FTS in the DC-mode i.e. the spectrometer records the full interferogram including its smoothly varying DC part. Strong fluctuations in the DC part are indicative for varying source brightness. Affected measurements can be corrected with the low pass filtered interferogram  $I_{lp}$  (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2007b). The implementation of the low pass is a running mean on the interferogram over 61 sampling points with 5 iterations.

However, this DC-correction removes not the entire DC-effect, and especially strong variations still appear to influence the retrieval result. Based on the DC-correction, a filter criterion DC can be defined to sort out affected measurements:

$$DC = \frac{|I_{lp}|_{\max} - |I_{lp}|_{\min}}{|I_{lp}|_{\max}}. \quad (2)$$

The higher the value of the DC criterion, the stronger the effect on the retrieved trace gas. Effects of the DC filter are examined in Figs. 3 and 4 and discussed together with

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the next filter. Here, we choose a filter threshold  $DC < 0.05$  that discards 21.2 % of the recorded spectra.

The  $O_2$ -filter is based on the comparison between surface pressure calculated from the retrieved  $O_2$  column and the in-situ measured surface pressure (König-Langlo, 2014) as suggested by Wunch et al. (2011). Deviations indicate a false measurement since the  $O_2$  concentration in the atmosphere can be assumed constant. Taking into account a scaling factor of 0.9717 for calibrating the spectroscopically retrieved surface pressure  $p_{\text{retr}}$  to the in-situ measurements  $p_{\text{in-situ}}$  (Wunch et al., 2011), the ratio

$$R_{\text{psf}} = \frac{0.9717 \times p_{\text{retr}}}{p_{\text{in-situ}}} \quad (3)$$

scatters around unity. Here, we screen spectra whenever  $R_{\text{psf}}$  deviates by more than 0.3 % from unity removing 7.2 % of the DC-filtered spectra. To determine the filter thresholds for both the DC- and  $O_2$ -filter, we define a quality criterion  $Q$  for the retrieved  $XCO_2$ : we select a subset of representative days from 22 to 25 March. First, we remove diurnal variations from the record by fitting a 3rd order polynomial for each day and subtracting the polynomial from the retrieved  $XCO_2$ . The standard deviation of the residual  $XCO_2$  timeseries defines our quality criterion  $Q$  in units of ppm.

Figure 3 illustrates how the DC-filter and the  $O_2$ -filter affects the quality criterion  $Q_{XCO_2}$ . In general the stricter the filter thresholds the better the precision but the fewer data passing the quality filters. Figure 4 shows the  $XCO_2$  measurements for these four representative days and the effect of the DC- and  $O_2$  filters with the selected thresholds. The overlap of the two filters is very little, showing that they filter for independent effects.

Under the assumption, that the 3rd order polynomial removes all geophysical variability due to local surface fluxes and advective transport, this quality criterion provides a precision estimate for the EM27/SUN amounting to  $Q_{XCO_2} = 0.13$  ppm for  $XCO_2$ . Following an analogue procedure for  $XCH_4$  yields  $Q_{XCH_4} = 0.62 \times 10^{-4}$  ppb.

The third filter is the exhaust-plume filter (EP-filter). The ship's smoke pipe is located at a few ten meters distance to the spectrometer setup and rises to approximately

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12 m above deck. If the line-of-sight passes through the exhaust plume, enhancements in the observed  $XCO_2$  are to be expected. In order to screen such observations, we calculate the enhancement pattern in the  $XCO_2$  time series from our line-of-sight (los), the prevailing wind conditions and the ship's exhaust.

5 A estimated exhaust flux  $E_s$  feeds a simple plume model that calculates the  $XCO_2$  enhancement  $E_{los}$  taking into account the relative wind speed and direction between the ship-based spectrometer and the plume. We rely on the plume diffusion model used by Bovensmann et al. (2010). Defining the  $x$  coordinate as downwind direction and the  $y$  coordinate as the crosswind direction, the enhancement  $E_{los}$  along the line-of-sight  
10 can be calculated via

$$E_{los} = \int_{los} \frac{E_s}{v_{rel}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \cdot \sigma_y(x)} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{y^2}{\sigma_y(x)^2}\right) dx dy \quad (4)$$

where  $v_{rel}$  is the relative wind velocity between ship and plume, the parameter  $\sigma_y(x) = 0.104 \cdot x^{0.894}$  dilutes the plume in crosswind direction ( $y$ ). Thereby, we assume a class C for the atmospheric stability (Bovensmann et al., 2010). Here the exhaust flux  $E_s := 1$  is given in arbitrary units (AU). Relative wind velocities  $v_{rel}$  and directions are taken  
15 from the records of onboard meteorological station. The line-of-sight from instrument position up to 30 m is projected into the downwind ( $x$ ) and crosswind ( $y$ ) direction and then,  $E_{los}$  is calculated by numerically integrating Eq. (4). Figure 5 shows a day where according to the lab book the line-of-sight passed the exhaust plume as confirmed by the record of relative wind velocities and directions. Measured  $O_2$  columns and  $XCH_4$  are not affected by the ship's exhaust,  $XCO_2$ , however, is found enhanced by up to 2 ppm. Our model yields an enhancement  $E_{los}$  that is similar in temporal pattern to the  
20 observed  $XCO_2$  enhancement confirming the overall applicability of our approach.

The EP-filter threshold is set such that whenever  $E_{los}$  is larger than 0.001 the spectrum is flagged contaminated. 11.6% of the spectra are discarded by the EP-filter. Additionally, 2.8% of the spectra are rejected due to contamination by the exhaust plume after inspection by eye.

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side the Karlsruhe TCCON instrument during 4 consecutive days in May 2014 after the ship campaign. TCCON  $XCO_2$  and  $XCH_4$  are retrieved by the standard G-Fit v.0.4.4 software (Wunch et al., 2011). Retrievals from EM27/SUN measurements follow the approach outlined above including the quality filters described in Sect. 3.2 and the

5 aforementioned correction terms. Hourly means  $\langle X \rangle_h$  of the  $XCO_2$  and  $XCH_4$  are calculated and used to determine the calibration factor  $\gamma_{gas}$  according to

$$\gamma_{gas} = \left\langle \frac{\langle X_{EM27} \rangle_h}{\langle X_{wmo} \rangle_h} \right\rangle \quad (7)$$

where brackets indicate averaging over the entire dataset. The EM27/SUN measurements are then referenced to WMO via

$$10 \quad X_{gas,wmo} = \frac{X_{gas}}{\gamma_{gas}}. \quad (8)$$

Figure 8 shows the post campaign reference measurements.

We find calibration factors  $\gamma_{XCO_2} = (0.99195 \pm 0.00051)$  and  $\gamma_{XCH_4} = (0.98211 \pm 0.00146)$  where the error estimate refers to the standard deviation among the calibration data set. Note that the calibration factor for  $O_2$  (see Sect. 3.2) in the order

15 of  $\approx 2.8\%$  ( $\approx 0.972$ ) is still present in the un-referenced data and is included into the calibration factor  $\gamma_{gas}$ .

## 4 $XCO_2$ and $XCH_4$ over the Atlantic

Figure 9 shows the final  $XCO_2$  and  $XCH_4$  records measured above the Atlantic in March/April 2014 from aboard RV *Polarstern*. All corrections (see Sect. 3.3) and quality filters (see Sect. 3.2) are applied. In order to motivate the usefulness of such

20 ship deployments for satellite and model validation, Fig. 9 additionally shows satellite soundings from the Greenhouse Gas Observing Satellite (GOSAT) and  $XCO_2$  and

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XCH<sub>4</sub> modeled by the MACC-II (Monitoring Atmospheric Composition and Climate – Interim Implementation) data assimilation system (Agustí-Panareda et al., 2014; Masart et al., 2014). Satellite soundings correlated to RV *Polarstern* records with an 5° latitudinal/longitudinal radius in addition with a 4 h temporal coincidence radius (see Fig. 1). Model data is being temporally and spatially interpolated to the RV *Polarstern* measurements to avoid discontinuities.

The lower panel shows the differences of the various greenhouse gas products to the campaign record. Here averages of all EM27/SUN soundings within the coincidence criteria is subtracted from the individual satellite soundings.

For GOSAT, we discuss three different GOSAT retrieval methods, the RemoTeC-Full-Physics (FP) and RemoTeC-Proxy (Butz et al., 2011; Guerlet et al., 2013; Schepers et al., 2012) retrieval as well as the Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> Observations from Space (ACOS) approach (O'Dell et al., 2012; Crisp et al., 2012). Even though the in-orbit operations of GOSAT have been adapted to maximize the number of ocean-glint soundings during the campaign period, the number of coincident and quality-assured retrievals amounts to a few ten samples, largely varying among the retrieval approaches. The main difference between the RemoTeC-FP and the RemoTeC-Proxy algorithm is the way the lightpath through the atmosphere is estimated. While RemoTeC-FP retrieves aerosol parameters simultaneously with XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> and takes multiple scattering effects into account, the RemoTeC-Proxy approach is restricted to XCH<sub>4</sub> only and uses the retrieved CO<sub>2</sub> column together with CarbonTracker-modeled CO<sub>2</sub> as a lightpath proxy. ACOS is, as well as RemoTeC-FP, a full-physics approach i.e. simultaneously retrieving XCO<sub>2</sub> and atmospheric scattering properties. Differences between RemoTeC-FP and ACOS relate to details how aerosol and cloud scattering parameters are implemented and how the inverse problem is solved. Most importantly here, ACOS delivers many more data than RemoTeC-FP for ocean-glint soundings since RemoTeC-FP resorts to a conservative cloud and aerosol filtering scheme using the “upper edge” method (Butz et al., 2013). ACOS does not deliver XCH<sub>4</sub>.

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The MACC-II provides global operational analysis and forecast of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> in near real time. Here we have used a forecast without any data assimilation with a horizontal resolution of around 80 km and 60 vertical levels from surface to 0.1 hPa. The CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentration fields modeled by MACC-II rely on the Integrated Forecasting System (IFS) model operated by ECMWF. The IFS has a simple carbon module (Boussetta et al., 2013) to model the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake and release from vegetation. The CO<sub>2</sub> biogenic fluxes from vegetation are adjusted to correct for large-scale biases by using a climatology of optimized CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes (Agusti-Panareda et al., 2015, ECMWF Tech Memo 2015). The CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes and other CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes are prescribed by inventories and seasonally varying climatologies, including the chemical sinks for CH<sub>4</sub> in the troposphere and stratosphere. A more detailed description of the CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> forecast configuration can be found in Agustí-Panareda et al. (2014) for CO<sub>2</sub> and in Massart et al. (2014) for CH<sub>4</sub>. The plotted data stems from the “gb5b” model experiment where no assimilation is performed.

The EM27/SUN XCO<sub>2</sub> measurements from aboard RV *Polarstern*, Fig. 9 (left), show a North–South (N–S) gradient of up to 5 ppm between ~ 45° N and ~ 30° S at the end of the Northern Hemisphere dormant season. This is largely expected from previous assessments (e.g. Denning et al., 1995). Beside the N–S gradient, diurnal and day-to-day variations on the order of 1 ppm are found most likely originating from transport of far-away source/sink signals. Note that the exhaust of RV *Polarstern* itself is excluded from the data via the EP-filter (see Sect. 3.2).

For XCH<sub>4</sub>, Fig. 9 (right), the EM27/SUN soundings find a N–S gradient of roughly 0.06 ppm between ~ 45° N and ~ 30° S. Diurnal and day-to-day variability on the order of 0.01 to 0.02 ppm can be observed around 30° S 35° N. Tentatively, latitudinal variability in XCH<sub>4</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> follows similar patterns. For example, one might speculate whether XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> increasing towards the Northern tropics (~ 10° N) are related to emissions of both gases from biomass burning. Though, the inner tropics lack data to confirm that hypothesis.

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Both GOSAT XCO<sub>2</sub> retrievals, RemoTeC-FP and ACOS, generally match the EM27/SUN observations within 2 ppm. Due to sparse data coverage, RemoTeC-FP does not allow for assessing the N–S gradient. The ACOS retrievals tentatively show a weaker N–S gradient due to XCO<sub>2</sub> land-nadir soundings North of 23° being somewhat lower than the ship records. Scatter of the data, however, hinders robust conclusions.

The GOSAT RemoTeC-FP and RemoTeC-Proxy XCH<sub>4</sub> retrievals, both agree with the ship-borne records to mostly within 0.02 ppm. As for XCO<sub>2</sub>, the yield from RemoTeC-FP is too low to infer robust conclusions but overall RemoTeC-FP delivers XCH<sub>4</sub> offset by 0.01 to 0.02 ppm compared to RemoTeC-Proxy retrievals. The latter fit the validation data particularly well for the tropical ocean-glint soundings. The land-nadir soundings North of 23° N show greater differences of 0.03 to 0.04 ppm i.e. both, RemoTeC-Proxy XCH<sub>4</sub> and ACOS XCO<sub>2</sub>, reveal larger differences for the Northern mid-latitude land-nadir observations than for the low-latitude ocean-glint soundings. Given that both algorithms and both species are affected, the most likely explanation is that our coincidence criterion is too loose to assume homogeneous concentration fields in the mid-latitudes.

XCO<sub>2</sub>, modeled by MACC-II shows excellent agreement to our ship-borne records in the Northern extratropics. Even small variations, typically introduced by transport processes, can be resolved by both, model and measurement. North of the tropics model-measurement agreement is better than 1 ppm. Differences are particularly larger in the tropics where the model overestimates XCO<sub>2</sub>. The ship records lack data in the inner tropics due to persistent cloud cover. Largest discrepancies up to 2.0 ppm are found in the Southern Hemisphere showing a persistent underestimation. For our demonstrator study, we neglect effects due to the averaging kernel of the measurements. Such effects might be of relevance for the level of agreement found for XCO<sub>2</sub> in the Northern extratropics but are assumed negligible for the larger differences in the Southern Hemisphere or the inner tropics. For XCH<sub>4</sub>, model-measurement deviations are below 0.02 ppm for most of the cases. There is no systematic underestimation in the Southern Hemisphere as it is the case for XCO<sub>2</sub>.



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quality filters and correction steps. The data are filtered for intensity fluctuations during recording of the interferogram (DC-filter), spurious variations in the retrieved O<sub>2</sub> reference (O<sub>2</sub>-filter), and XCO<sub>2</sub> retrievals contaminated by the ship's local exhaust plume (EP-filter). After quality filtering, we correct for a slight change in the ILS during the campaign, a spurious SZA dependency of the retrieved concentration records, and an overall scaling factor with respect to the WMO calibration scale. Thus, the final XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> concentrations are traceable to WMO standards and show an overall precision of 0.13 ppm for XCO<sub>2</sub> and 6.2 · 10<sup>-4</sup> ppm for XCH<sub>4</sub>, respectively, as estimated from the scatter of retrieved concentrations after subtracting a polynomial background.

The campaign record of XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> shows the expected North to South gradient overlaid by regional meteorological transport effects. The quality of our ship-based records allows for comparisons to XCO<sub>2</sub> and XCH<sub>4</sub> retrieved from GOSAT or modeled concentration fields. Although, the number of satellite coincidences is low, both the ACOS/GOSAT XCO<sub>2</sub> and RemoTeC-proxy/GOSAT XCH<sub>4</sub> tend to underestimate the interhemispheric gradient due low retrieved concentrations in the Northern extra-tropics. The comparison between the MACC-II model and the ship records shows excellent agreement for XCH<sub>4</sub> and a systematic low-biased for XCO<sub>2</sub> in the Southern Hemisphere. These comparisons recommend our setup, based on the EM27/SUN FTS and a fast solar tracker, to be used for validating models and satellites e.g. through future deployments on moving platforms such as research vessels, other ships, or land-based vehicles.

The data collected during the RV *Polarstern* cruise is public available on the PANGEA archive (PANGEA, 2014).

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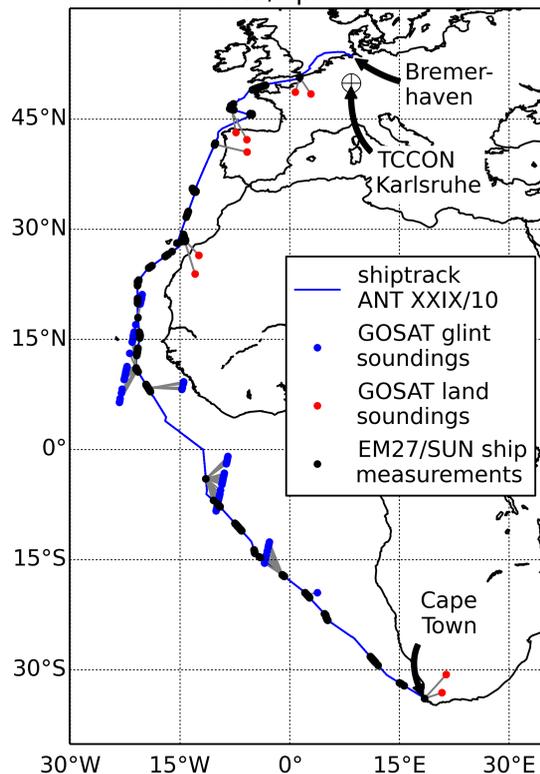
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RV-Polarstern campaign outline  
Mar/Apr 2014



**Figure 1.** The ship track of the ANT XXIX/10 RV *Polarstern* cruise (blue line). Valid data is marked black. GOSAT-soundings that coincide with ship based measurements within  $\pm 4$  h and  $5^\circ$  (lat, lon) are marked in blue (ocean) and red (land) and interconnected (gray lines).

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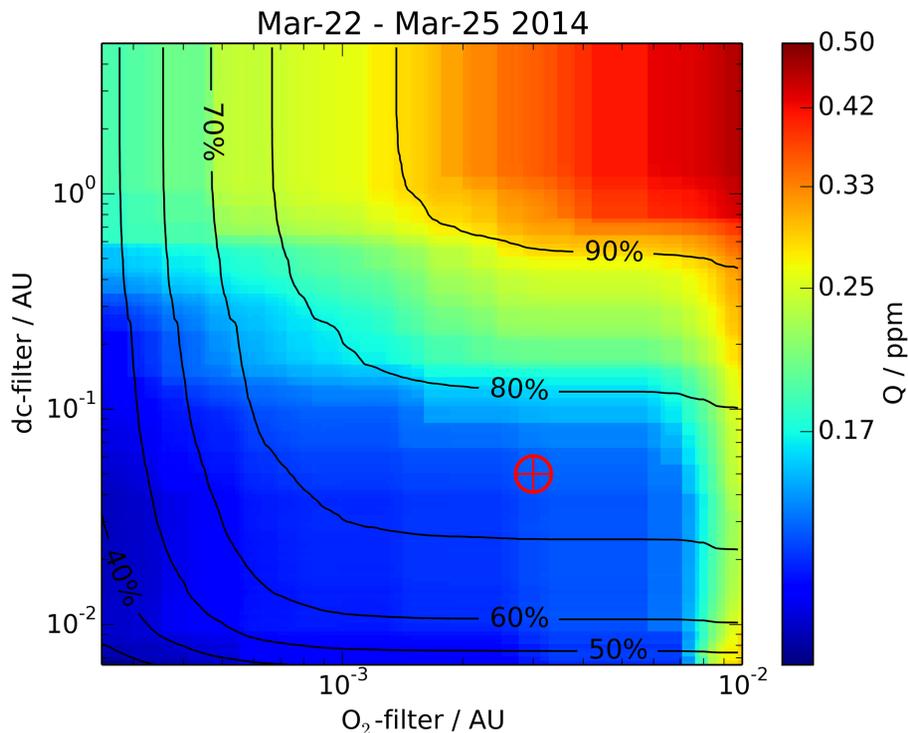
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**Figure 3.** Effect of filter threshold for the O<sub>2</sub>-filter (abscissa) and the DC-filter (ordinate) on the standard deviation of retrieved XCO<sub>2</sub> (color coded in logarithmic scale). Standard deviation of XCO<sub>2</sub> is calculated for four sample days after subtracting a 3rd order polynomial that accounts for diurnal and day-to-day variability. The data yield is overlaid as solid black contours. The finally chosen filter thresholds (5% for the DC-filter and 0.3% for the O<sub>2</sub>-filter) are marked with the red marker.

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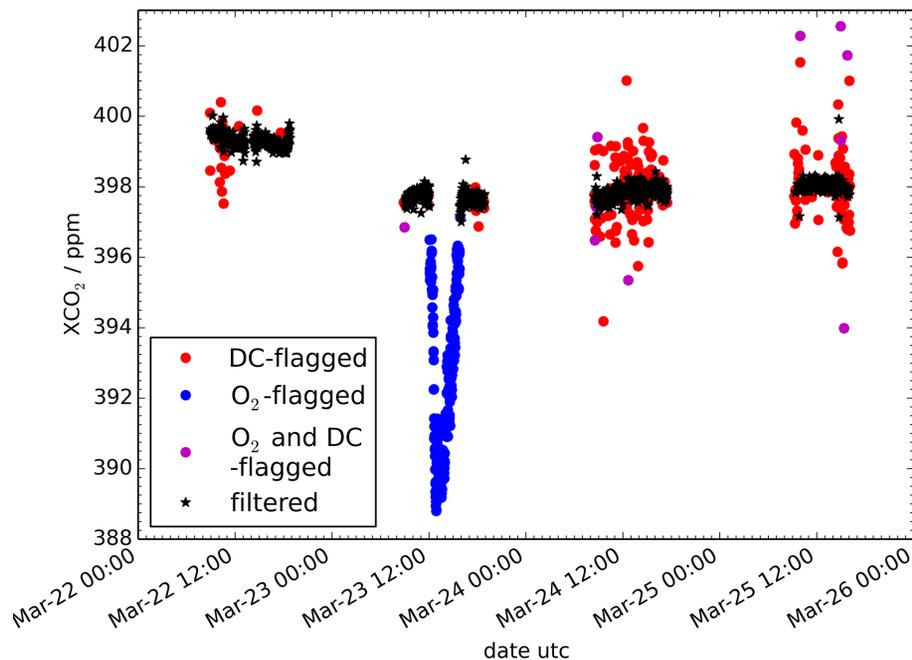
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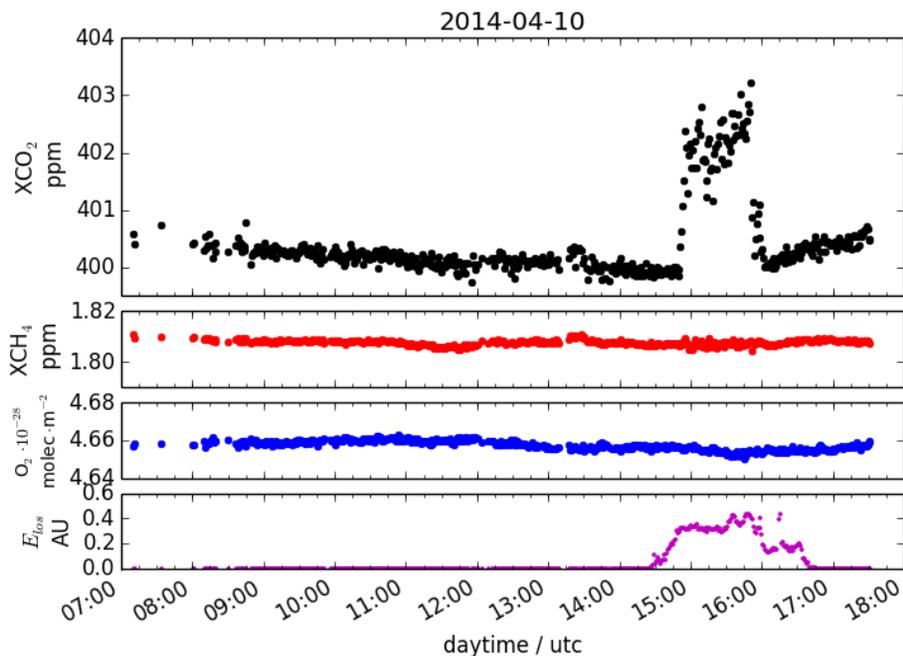


**Figure 4.** Effect of the DC-filter and the O<sub>2</sub>-filter on the retrieved XCO<sub>2</sub> for four sample days during the campaign. The outlier on 23 March that is caught by the O<sub>2</sub>-filter originates from a malfunction of the sun-tracker that caused instable pointing. The days after were affected by small but opaque clouds that disturbed some measurements which is caught by the DC-filter.

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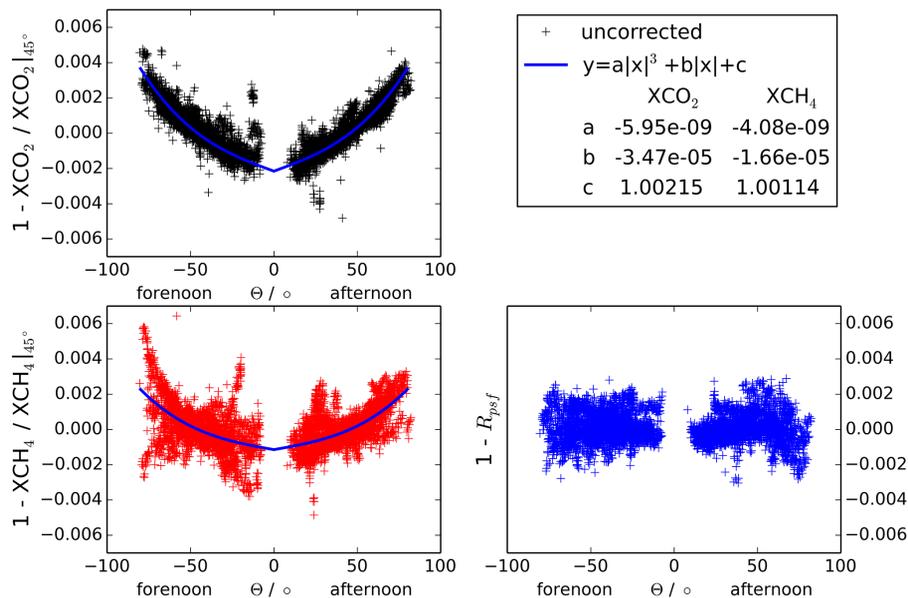
**Figure 5.** XCO<sub>2</sub> (top) record for a representative day after applying the DC and O<sub>2</sub> quality filters. The XCH<sub>4</sub> (upper middle, red) and O<sub>2</sub> (lower middle, blue) retrievals indicate no enhancements. In contrast, the XCO<sub>2</sub> enhancement of more than 2 ppm between 3–5 p.m. can be related to the lines-of-sight crossing the ship's exhaust plume. The calculated enhancement  $E_{\text{los}}$  (bottom) drives the EP-filter with a rejection threshold set at 0.001.

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**Figure 7.** SZA dependency for CO<sub>2</sub> (upper left, referenced to XCO<sub>2</sub> at forenoon/afternoon SZA = 45°), CH<sub>4</sub> (lower left, referenced to XCH<sub>4</sub> at forenoon/afternoon SZA = 45°), and O<sub>2</sub> (lower right, surface pressure referenced O<sub>2</sub> retrieval  $R_{psf}$  s. Eq. (3) as a function of SZA  $\theta$ . Solid lines show the fitted SZA correction function.

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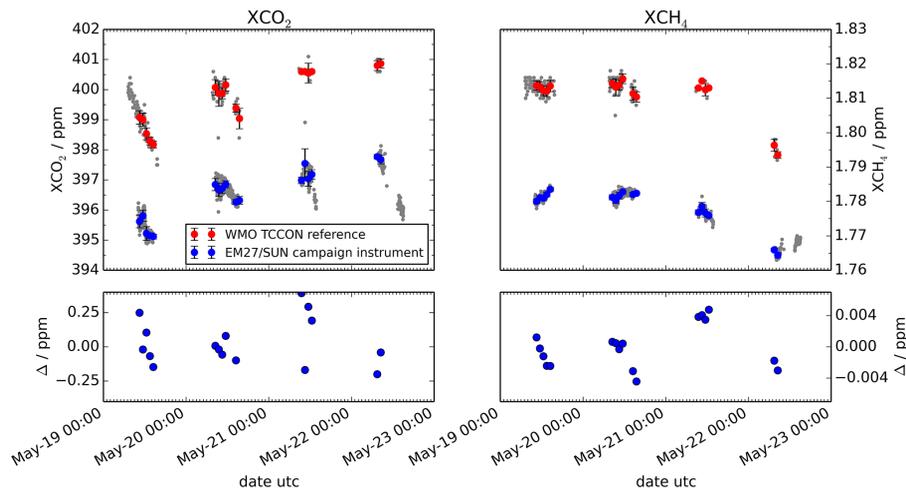
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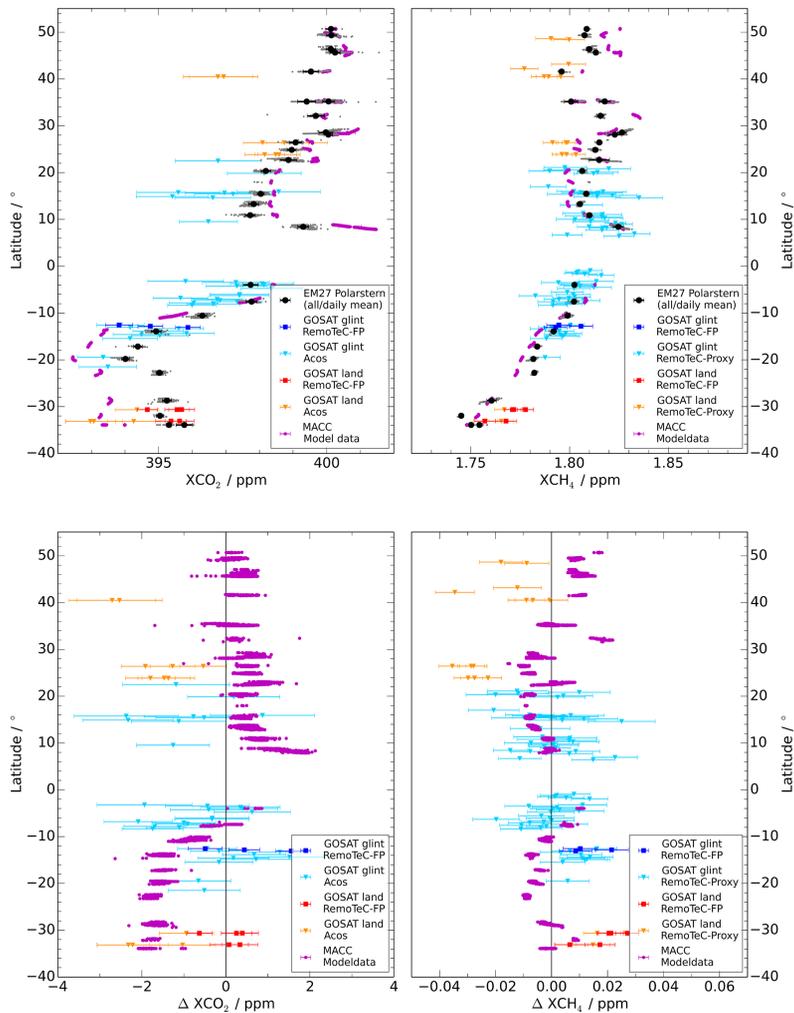
**Figure 8.** Post campaign measurements in Karlsruhe are used to retrieve the WMO-calibration factor for each gas. Hourly averages are taken for the TCCON reference (red) and the EM27/SUN measurements (blue). The calibration residual (lower panel) is defined as  $\Delta := \langle X_{\text{wmo}} \rangle_h - \langle X_{\text{gas,wmo}} \rangle_h$ .

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**Figure 9.** Latitudinal transects of  $XCO_2$  (left) and  $XCH_4$  (right) for the ship-borne EM27/SUN measurements (daily averages black dots, all data gray dots) and various correlative data sets (top) as well as differences of the latter to our ship records (bottom). For  $XCO_2$ , correlative datasets are the RemoTeC-FP retrievals from GOSAT (ocean-glint blue, land-nadir red), the ACOS retrievals from GOSAT (ocean-glint light blue, land-nadir orange), and  $XCO_2$  modeled by the MACC-II model (purple). For  $XCH_4$ , correlative datasets are the RemoTeC-FP retrievals from GOSAT (ocean-glint blue, land-nadir red), the RemoTeC-Proxy retrievals from GOSAT (ocean-glint light blue, land-nadir orange), and  $XCH_4$  modeled by the MACC-II model (purple). For GOSAT, soundings are coincident whenever they are conducted within  $5^\circ$  latitude/longitude of the ship track and within a  $\pm 4$ h time frame.  $XCO_2$  and  $XCH_4$  differences shown in the lower panels are calculated according to  $\Delta = X - \langle X_{EM27} \rangle_{4h}$  where the brackets indicate averaging over 4 h.

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