

A variable and decreasing sink for atmospheric CO₂ in the North Atlantic

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Abstract

A time series of observations from merchant ships between the UK and the Caribbean is used to establish the variability of sea surface pCO₂ and air-to-sea flux from the mid-1990s to early 2000s. We show that the sink for atmospheric CO₂ exhibits important inter-annual variability, which is in phase across large regions from year to year.

Additionally, there has been an inter-decadal decline, evident throughout the study region but especially significant in the northeast of the area covered, with the sink reducing >50% from the mid-nineties to the period 2002-2005. A review of available observations suggests a large region of decrease covering much of the North Atlantic but excluding the western subtropical areas. We estimate that the uptake of the region between 20° and 65°N declined by ~0.24 Pg C yr⁻¹ from 1994/1995 to 2002-2005. Declining rates of winter-time mixing and ventilation between surface and subsurface waters due to increasing stratification, linked to variation in the North Atlantic Oscillation, are suggested as the main cause of the change. These are exacerbated by a contribution from the changing buffer capacity of the ocean water, as the carbon content of surface waters increases.

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1 **Introduction**

2 The world's oceans are an important sink for atmospheric CO₂. Currently they absorb 25-
3 30% of the fossil fuel source, and they have taken up almost half of accumulated
4 emissions since the industrial revolution [*Sabine et al.*, 2004]. The air-to-sea surface flux
5 of CO₂ is driven by $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$, the difference between atmospheric and sea surface partial
6 pressures of carbon dioxide ($p\text{CO}_2$). Sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ is affected by factors such as
7 change of sea surface temperature (SST), mixing with deeper waters that have higher
8 carbon content, and consumption by marine biota linked to the availability of surface
9 nutrients. Models [*Orr, et al.*, 2001] and data compilations [*Takahashi, et al.*, 2002]
10 suggest atmospheric CO₂ uptake is highest in temperate and subpolar waters where
11 seasonal deep mixing and sub-surface water formation allow surface water renewal, and
12 slower in the subtropical gyres where water is trapped at the surface for long periods. The
13 North Atlantic is a particularly strong CO₂ sink region [*Takahashi, et al.*, 2002], which is
14 due both to the vertical circulation whereby water moves poleward at the surface, cooling
15 and taking up atmospheric CO₂ before mixing and sinking to depth in winter-time, and to
16 efficient biological uptake of nutrients and carbon.

17

18 There are indications of substantial variability in the uptake of CO₂ by the North Atlantic,
19 both spatially [*Watson, et al.*, 1991] and temporally [*Gruber, et al.*, 2002], but few
20 observations covering large areas and multiple years. Ocean models suggest that the
21 interannual variability in the global sink is relatively small [*Le Quéré, et al.*, 2000], while
22 atmospheric inversions [*Bousquet, et al.*, 2000; *Patra, et al.*, 2005; *Rayner, et al.*, 1999]
23 indicate year-to-year variability that is a substantial fraction of the total sink. Projections

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1 suggest that the sink should increase as atmospheric CO₂ continues to rise, but that under
2 anthropogenically-induced climate change, increasing stratification and a slowing
3 overturning circulation decrease rates of ventilation and tend to slow the uptake [*Fung, et*
4 *al.*, 2005; *Sarmiento and Le Quéré*, 1996]. Though time series of measurements have
5 been established at a few locations, there are as yet few observations of surface carbon
6 parameters covering large areas and multiple years with which to test these predictions.

7 8 **Methods**

9 **The measurements**

10 Direct, quasi-continuous autonomous measurements of SST and pCO₂ in the sea surface
11 and overlying atmosphere, were collected between the UK and Caribbean approximately
12 every month (Figure 1). Between the UK and Jamaica they were collected from June
13 1994 to August 1995 on board *MV Prince of Seas* ([*Cooper, et al.*, 1998]; these data are
14 available on the CDIAC web site at <http://cdiac.esd.ornl.gov/>). In December 2001
15 measurements were re-started on *MV Santa Lucia* and continue today on board *MV Santa*
16 *Maria*, between the UK and Martinique or the Dominican Republic. Data collected from
17 February 2002 to February 2005 are used in this study, consisting of more than 180,000
18 point measurements. The design of the system installed on board *MV Santa Lucia* and
19 now on board *MV Santa Maria* is based on the instrument on *MV Prince of Seas*
20 previously described by [*Cooper, et al.*, 1998]. The system consists of three parts: a
21 flowing seawater module in the engine room, an electronics/detector module in the
22 engine control room, and a GPS/air inlet module on the port bridge wing. The flowing
23 seawater unit has an equilibrator (a percolating packed bed type, as described by Cooper

1 et al), located near the seawater inlet at the port sea chest, 3 to 5 m below water level,
2 depending on cargo loading.

3

4 Some differences from the system of Cooper et al have since been incorporated, as
5 follows: A peristaltic pump now regulates the seawater flow to the equilibrator at
6 approximately 3 litres min⁻¹. The in situ seawater temperature is now measured by a
7 different sensor (C/T model 3210, Aanderaa Instruments, Norway, that also measures
8 salinity), located immediately at the sea chest. The in situ seawater temperature sensor is
9 regularly re-calibrated by the manufacturer. The equilibrator temperature however
10 continues to be measured by platinum resistance thermometers, the calibrations of which
11 are checked against the in-situ sensor once per month. As in the installation of Cooper et
12 al., all pipes and sensor housings between the seawater inlet and the equilibrator are
13 thermally insulated, keeping the temperature increase between them below 0.5 °C. The
14 control room where the electronics/detector module is now located (due to lack of space
15 in the engine room) is three decks up from the equilibrator. Power is supplied via an
16 uninterrupted power supply which also filters out spikes in the ship's power. The sample
17 gas is now partially dried by passing through a cold trap at ~ 5°C prior to the infra-red
18 detector to avoid condensation in the detector (Li7000, LiCor Inc., USA; a Li6262 was
19 used in 1994 and 1995). The greater distance between the equilibrator in the engine room
20 and the detector in the control room requires a longer flushing time to ensure newly-
21 equilibrated gas reaches the detector. Using a 1/8 inch outer diameter tubing between the
22 equilibrator and detector (approximately 40 m length for the return circuit), gives
23 approximately 300 cm³ volume; a 30 min flushing time at approximately 100 ml min⁻¹ is

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1 used to ensure newly equilibrated gas reaches the detector, and only measurements taken
2 at the end of this flushing period were used in this study. This still provides >9000 data
3 points and more-than-adequate spatial and temporal resolution. Secondary gas standards
4 used for the calibration of the detector were run every 3 hours. They are calibrated in the
5 laboratory before and after usage against primary standards from NOAA-CMD-CCGG
6 (<http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/index.html>). All raw data are recorded with
7 coinciding position and time, provided by the GPS module.

8
9 Routine measurement of CO₂ in marine air is also carried out, using an air line from the
10 outside of the port bridge wing. Periods in which the standard deviation of these
11 measurements rose above 0.7 ppm were examined for possible contamination from the
12 ship and excluded if there was any doubt as to their quality. The air measurements
13 provide an important check on the operation of the system, but in this study, the air
14 measurements were not used to calculate air-sea pCO₂ differences. Instead the air-side
15 pCO₂ was derived from monthly averages of mixing ratios from [*GLOBALVIEW CO₂*,
16 2006] for both the 1994/95 period and the 2002/05 periods, as described in more detail
17 below. We took the view that these large-area background estimates are more appropriate
18 for the calculation than our instantaneous measurements, though there was in practice
19 very little difference in the results using either source of atmospheric pCO₂.

20

21 **Data reduction**

22 Calculation of sea surface pCO₂ values from raw measurements followed the previously
23 published procedure [*Cooper, et al.*, 1998]. The initial measure of CO₂ in the equilibrated

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1 gas was $x\text{CO}_2$, the mole fraction of CO_2 in the detector cell recorded after correction for
2 band broadening by the detector software. A dilution correction for water vapor was first
3 made to this to yield the $x\text{CO}_2$ in dry air, since a Li7000, used since 2002, does not
4 internally correct for water vapor dilution. True $x\text{CO}_2$ was calculated by correcting this
5 for detector drift, applying a linear interpolation between secondary gas standard
6 concentrations. Equilibrator $p\text{CO}_2$ was found by correcting the true $x\text{CO}_2$ to 100%
7 humidity at equilibrator temperature and pressure, using the saturated water vapour
8 pressure appropriate to sea water given by [Cooper, *et al.*, 1998]:

9 $pH_2O = 0.981 \exp(14.32602 - 5306.83 / (SST [Kelvin]))$. The in situ sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$
10 was then calculated by correcting the equilibrator $p\text{CO}_2$ for the difference ΔT between in
11 situ and equilibrator temperature, applying the relationship given by [Takahashi, *et al.*,
12 1993]: $p\text{CO}_2(\text{insitu}) = p\text{CO}_2(\text{equ}) \exp(-0.0423 \Delta T)$.

13

14 To examine trends in the open ocean, we first excluded data south of 22°N , west of 70°W ,
15 east of 5°W , and north of 50°N to avoid coastal influences. Sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ and SST
16 from each voyage were averaged into 1° latitude by 1° longitude bins. Individual
17 measurements separated by such short scales are very highly correlated, and this step
18 yields values with uniform area weighting, while discarding information only on
19 variability at the finest scales, which are not the focus of this study. Averages of these
20 values falling within a 10° wide latitude band centered on the line shown in Figure 1 were
21 then calculated. The selected data were then 2-D interpolated by Delaunay triangulation
22 onto a grid of 1 month by 5° longitude along the line (or 2.15° latitude, since latitude and
23 longitude are linearly related along the line). Each grid point therefore yields a value for

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1 the respective grid box in Figure 1 for each month of measurement. Use of a relatively
2 broad band of 10° width allows the inclusion of the largest possible number of data and
3 ensures that any trends detected are applicable to a large area, but it is wide enough that
4 systematic changes in the latitudes of routes, occurring between periods being compared,
5 might lead to biases. We investigated this possibility (see Auxiliary Material
6 2006JC003941_fs03ab) by repeating the analysis with a narrower, 5° wide band centered
7 on the line. This results in better co-location of the data but at the cost of excluding a
8 substantial proportion of the observations. The results shown in the Auxiliary Material
9 remained essentially unchanged from those with the 10° band discussed below, and we
10 conclude that use of the latter is justified.

11
12 Atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ values were calculated from the monthly, latitudinal atmospheric
13 $x\text{CO}_2$ values given by [*GLOBALVIEW-CO₂*, 2006]. These were selected for the
14 appropriate month, latitude-interpolated onto the same time-space grid as our sea surface
15 data, and converted into atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ values by using NCEP/NCAR re-analysis
16 estimates of barometric pressure and SST (6-hourly and $2.5^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ resolution, [*Kalnay,*
17 *et al.*, 1996], also averaged onto the same time- space grid). The $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ was then
18 calculated as atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ minus sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ (note a positive $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ therefore
19 depicts an uptake of CO_2 by the ocean surface). A Hovmüller plot of the gridded $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$
20 is shown in Figure 2, together with the color-coded values and position of the $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ -
21 binned data. Similar plots for SST and sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ are included in the Auxiliary
22 Material (Figures 2006JC003941_fs01 and 2006JC003941_fs02). The gridded sea
23 surface $p\text{CO}_2$ and $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ were then further averaged into two regions:

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1 temperate/subpolar from, 39°N - 50°N and 30°W- 5°W, and subtropical/tropical from
 2 22°N - 39°N, 70°W-30°W, the Azores front making the approximate boundary between
 3 these regions. Figure 3A shows the annual average sea surface pCO₂ along the route for
 4 the different periods, while Figures 3B and 3C show the annual pCO₂ cycle in the
 5 temperate/ subpolar region and the subtropical/tropical region respectively. Figures 4A,
 6 B, C show the equivalent plots for ΔpCO₂.

7

8 **Flux calculations.**

9 Air-to-sea fluxes of CO₂ were calculated from the ΔpCO₂ values obtained above, using
 10 the time and area averaged gas exchange equation [Wanninkhof, *et al.*, 2002; Watson and
 11 Orr, 2003]:

$$12 \quad \overline{K \times s \times \Delta pCO_2}$$

13 where \overline{K} and \overline{s} are the mean gas transfer velocity and solubility for each grid box and
 14 month, calculated from NCEP/NCAR, 2.5° x 2.5° x 6-hourly re-analysis data [Kalnay, *et*
 15 *al.*, 1996], averaged onto the same time- space grid as ΔpCO₂. The Wanninkhof gas
 16 transfer parameterization for short-term winds [Wanninkhof, 1992] was

17 used, $K = 0.31 \left(\frac{Sc}{660} \right)^{-0.5} U^2$, where U is the wind speed at 10m height, and Sc the

18 Schmidt number for CO₂ in sea water. $\overline{\Delta pCO_2}$ is the value for that grid box and month
 19 obtained by the interpolation techniques described above. Using this time- and area-
 20 averaged gas exchange equation ignores small biases that may occur due to covariance of
 21 K , s and ΔpCO_2 . However, the use of wind data from the whole grid box and time period
 22 is superior to alternatives using only monthly mean wind speeds, or only wind speeds

1 measured when the ship was actually transiting the grid box [Lüger, *et al.*, 2006;
2 Wanninkhof, *et al.*, 2002], because it more correctly accounts for the large non-linearity
3 in the gas transfer velocity K , due to episodic high winds. Annually averaged air-to-sea
4 fluxes versus latitude for July 1994 to June 1995 and for March to February in
5 2002/2003, 2003/2004, and 2004/2005 are shown in Figure 5A.

6

7 **Results and Discussion**

8 Sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ (Figure 3) increased from the mid-1990s to the 2000s everywhere
9 along the route between the Caribbean and the UK. The annual mean sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$
10 increased by $37 \mu\text{atm}$ from $328 \mu\text{atm}$ in 1994/95 to $365 \mu\text{atm}$ in 2002/05, a mean increase
11 of $4.4 \mu\text{atm year}^{-1}$ if a linear trend is assumed. The seasonal cycle of sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$
12 also changed in both the temperate/subpolar region (Figure 3B), and the
13 tropical/subtropical region (Figure 3C). In the former, seawater $p\text{CO}_2$ showed a strong
14 minimum in spring and summer in the mid-nineties, due to biological carbon uptake
15 reducing sea-surface $p\text{CO}_2$, a pattern expected in temperate seas [Takahashi, *et al.*, 1993].
16 This seasonal cycle was however much reduced in the more recent measurements. The
17 seasonal cycle in the subtropical/tropical regions (Figure 3C) has the reverse phase, with
18 a maximum in summer and a minimum in winter. In these strongly stratified waters, there
19 is less deep mixing in winter to bring nutrients to the surface to fuel biological activity,
20 while the summer increase in temperature drives up sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$. Here too, the
21 amplitude of the seasonal cycle decreased from the mid-nineties to the recent past.

22

1 The effect of changes in SST (shown in Auxiliary Material 2006JC003941_fs04) was
2 investigated as a possible cause of the pCO₂ trends, as follows. Assuming no change in
3 salinity, alkalinity, and total CO₂ concentration, sea-surface pCO₂ increases by 4.23% °C⁻¹
4 [Takahashi, *et al.*, 1993]. In Figure 3 (thin lines with open circles) we include the effect
5 of re-calculating the mid-nineties sea surface pCO₂, accounting for the difference in
6 temperature from 1994/95 to 2002/05 according to this relationship. On the annual
7 average (Figure 3A), the effect of SST has a significant effect only in the
8 temperate/subpolar region, where it is able to account for about 20 % of the difference in
9 sea surface pCO₂ between the mid-nineties and the recent data. Most of this effect is
10 concentrated in mid-late summer (Figure 3B). In the tropical/subtropical region (Figure
11 3C), the thermodynamic effect of SST change is barely significant.

12
13 Atmospheric pCO₂ also increased from the mid-1990s to the early 2000s, by a mean of
14 1.8 μatm year⁻¹ between 20 and 50° N [GLOVALVIEW-CO₂, 2006]. The resulting ΔpCO₂
15 (atmospheric pCO₂ – sea surface pCO₂, Figure 4A) reduced by 21 μatm, from 26 μatm in
16 the mid-1990s to 5 μatm in the early 2000s, or by 2.5 μatm year⁻¹ if a linear trend is
17 assumed. The seasonal cycles of ΔpCO₂ also changed, with the seasonal amplitude being
18 reduced in both the temperate/subpolar region (Figure 4B) and the tropical/subtropical
19 region (Figure 4C).

20
21 The calculated uptake of CO₂ from the atmosphere is lower across the entire route in the
22 recent years than in the mid-nineties (Figure 5). On average, the uptake decreased by 1.2
23 mol m⁻² year⁻¹ (range from 0.54 to 2.1 mol m⁻² year⁻¹) from the mid-nineties to 2002/05.

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1 A statistical analysis of the significance of this decrease was made as follows. In each 10°
2 $\times 5^\circ$ grid box, air-to-sea flux and $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ were used to test the null hypothesis that the
3 1994-1995 data are from the same population as sampled by the three years of 2002-2005
4 data (thus $n = 4$), using a two-tailed t-test. Considering annual averages, the hypothesis is
5 rejected at $p = 0.1$ for fluxes and at 0.2 for $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ everywhere on the band. At $p = 0.05$, it
6 is rejected at all longitudes east of 55°W and accepted at the remaining grid boxes for
7 fluxes; it is rejected at all longitudes east of 35°W , and half of those west of it, for
8 $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$. Thus in the temperate/subpolar region, the mid-nineties $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ and fluxes both
9 fall outside the populations sampled by the 2002-2005 data with 95% confidence. Over
10 the route as a whole, this statement holds with 90% confidence for fluxes and with 80%
11 confidence for $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$. Hence we conclude there is inter-decadal decline in addition to
12 the inter-annual variability sampled to date by the early 2000s data, and that this is
13 particularly significant in the temperate/subpolar region of the route. As another
14 illustration of the statistical significance of the inter-decadal change, the mean decrease in
15 flux across the region ($1.23 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) is 6.5 times the average of the standard
16 deviations of the annual fluxes in 2002/5.

17

18 The inter-annual variability tends to be in phase across the region, with for instance,
19 fluxes and $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ lowest at all locations in 2002/3 and increasing monotonically at most
20 locations through the subsequent two years. This observation, and the inter-decadal
21 decline, both point to the control of the air-sea flux by large-scale effects with multi-
22 annual time scales, such as the North Atlantic Oscillation and similar climate indices.

23

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1 The effects of changes in SST and surface wind speeds on the fluxes were investigated as
 2 possible causes of the trends observed. In the temperate/subpolar region in particular,
 3 there has been an increase in SST between the two periods being considered. In Figures 4
 4 and 5B we include the effect of re-calculating the mid-nineties $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ and fluxes after
 5 adjusting surface $p\text{CO}_2$ for the difference in temperature from 1994/95 to 2002/05 as
 6 described above for Figure 3. The thermodynamic effect of temperature on $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$, and
 7 hence on fluxes, accounts for $\sim 30\%$ of the difference between the mid-nineties and the
 8 recent data in the temperate/subpolar region, but has much less effect in the subtropical
 9 region.

10

11 To estimate the effect of changes in wind speed (shown in Auxiliary Material
 12 2006JC003941_fs05), we re-calculated the 2002/05 fluxes by using the 2002/05 $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$
 13 and 2002/05 SST with the 1994/95 wind speeds. The gas transfer velocities K_j were those
 14 calculated in the equivalent month for the year 1994-95. Thus each point is given by

15 $\frac{1}{36} \sum_1^{n=36} K_j \times s_i \times \overline{\Delta p\text{CO}_{2i}}$ where i runs from 1 to 36 while j runs 1-12, 1-12:1-12. The

16 results, indicated as a thin black line with diamonds in Figure 5B, show little effect on the
 17 annually averaged air-to-sea fluxes. Also shown for comparison, in Figure 5Aa (black
 18 squares) are the fluxes from the $p\text{CO}_2$ climatology of [Takahashi *et al.* 2002] referenced
 19 to 1995 (the data used were obtained from <http://www.ldeo.columbia.edu/res/pi/CO2/> and
 20 supersede those in the original paper). Each of these points was calculated by averaging
 21 points in the 4-by-5 degrees grid of Takahashi that fell within each of our grid boxes
 22 shown in Figure 1. The agreement with our 1994/95 data is good, but since our

1 1994/1995 observations are included in the climatological data base, these two estimates
2 are not fully independent.

3

4 To estimate the effect of changes in barometric pressure (shown in Auxiliary Material
5 2006JC003941_fs06), we re-calculated the 1994/95 fluxes by using the 1994/95 SST,
6 1994/95 wind speed, and $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ resulting from 1994/95 sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ minus
7 atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ calculated using the 2002/05 barometric pressure. Barometric pressure
8 changes from the mid-1990s to the early 2000s were within the interannual variability,
9 i.e. not significant, except in spring in the subtropical/tropical region (Auxiliary Material
10 2006JC003941_fs06). The effect in the 1994/95 fluxes is small and not significant
11 (results not shown).

12

13 Our observations can be compared with other sources of information on the secular
14 variation of sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$. In the North Atlantic subpolar gyre, [Lefèvre, *et al.*, 2004]
15 observed a mean increase of $1.8 \mu\text{atm year}^{-1}$ between 1982 and 1998. In the eastern
16 subpolar gyre, [Omar and Olsen, 2006] reconstructed a mean increase of $3.0 \mu\text{atm year}^{-1}$
17 between 1972 and 1989, whilst in the western subpolar gyre, utilizing a shipping route
18 from Iceland to Newfoundland [Corbière, *et al.*, 2007] calculate, from DIC and alkalinity
19 data, an increase winter-time sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ of $3.0 \mu\text{atm year}^{-1}$ between 1994 and
20 2003, which they relate predominantly to increasing SST. In the temperate/subpolar
21 regions, a year of measurements during 2002 on a commercial vessel operating between
22 Europe and New York, compared with climatology referenced to 1995, showed a mean
23 rate of sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ increase of $3.6 \mu\text{atm year}^{-1}$ from 1995 to 2002 in the east, but a

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1 change approximately tracking the atmosphere ($1.7 \mu\text{atm year}^{-1}$) in the west [Lüger, et
2 al., 2004; Lüger, et al., 2006]. Measurements at the Bermuda Atlantic Time Series
3 (BATS) station at $31^{\circ}40'N$, $64^{\circ}E$, also show surface $p\text{CO}_2$ increasing in parallel the
4 atmosphere in the long term average [Bates, et al., 1996], but inter-annual changes there
5 have been correlated to the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) [Gruber, et al., 2002].
6 These authors speculated that the entire North Atlantic sink might vary in concert with
7 the NAO. Observations in the North Pacific also suggest a link between climate indices
8 and CO_2 uptake. For the North Pacific as a whole [Takahashi, et al., 2006] report a mean
9 rate of $p\text{CO}_2$ increase of $1.3 \pm 0.2 \mu\text{atm year}^{-1}$ for the 35-year period 1970-2004,
10 indistinguishable from the rate of increase in atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$. However, near Station
11 ALOHA, [Keeling, et al., 2004] observed an increase of sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ of 1.4 ± 0.2
12 $\mu\text{atm year}^{-1}$ from 1988 to 1996, but a higher increase of $3.2 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{atm year}^{-1}$ from 1997
13 to 2002 probably related to changes in the Pacific Decadal Oscillation.
14
15 Figure 6 summarizes changes from the mid-1990s to early 2000s in the North Atlantic
16 along five sections of shipping routes and at the BATS station (locations are shown in
17 Figure 6a). Figure 6b plots the change between these two periods of annual average sea
18 surface $p\text{CO}_2$ against change in SST, while Figure 6c shows change in estimated air-to-
19 sea flux against the same variable. Data sources are: (1) and (2) this paper; (3) [Corbière,
20 et al., 2007]; (4) and (5) [Lüger, et al., 2004 ; 2006]; (6): [Gruber, et al., 2002].
21 Measurements in the early 2000s were made in the following periods: (1) and (2)
22 2002/05; (3) 2002/03; (4) and (5) 2002, and (6) 2000/01. Earlier reference times are for
23 the year 1994/1995. No earlier measurements are available on the route of Lüger et al., so

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1 (4) and (5) are referred to climatological fluxes [Takahashi, *et al.*, 2002]. The thick black
2 line in the inset map marks the approximate boundary between the region of decline and
3 that of no change or some increase in the flux. SST changes have been derived from
4 NCEP/NCAR re-analysis averages over the appropriate periods.

5
6 While no clear relationship emerges that is applicable across the whole region to relate
7 either sea surface pCO₂ or fluxes to SST anomalies, these comparisons confirm a
8 concerted change across large sub-regions. Sea surface pCO₂ increased and air-to-sea
9 fluxes declined from the mid-1990s to early 2000s in all the northern/eastern regions and
10 in the western tropics (points 1 to 4 in Figure 6) whilst pCO₂ tracked the atmosphere and
11 there was no change or a somewhat opposite trend in the north-western subtropics (points
12 5 and 6 in Figure 6).

13
14 The NAO has an effect on SST, wind speed and winter mixed layer depth [Marshall, *et*
15 *al.*, 2001]. A fall in NAO index is associated with positive temperature anomalies,
16 reduced storm activity and hence a weaker seasonal cycle in mixed layer depth in the
17 subpolar gyre, and might be expected to decrease the CO₂ uptake from the atmosphere in
18 those regions and weaken the seasonal cycle of CO₂ fluxes. In the north-western
19 subtropical North Atlantic, a fall in NAO index is associated with negative anomalies in
20 SST, where the Gulf Stream shifts northward in response to a positive NAO [Marshall, *et*
21 *al.*, 2001], and might be expected to correlate with anomalies in the CO₂ uptake in the
22 opposite sense there. Though the records plotted in Figure 6 are too short to rigorously
23 test the hypothesis of NAO control of the sink, the winter-time NAO index declined

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1 markedly from the early 1990s to the 2002-2005
2 (<http://www.cru.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/nao.htm>), so a connection between positive NAO and
3 higher uptake is consistent. Such a trend seems to be observable in the atmospheric
4 inverse analyses of [Patra, *et al.*, 2005], covering the period 1988-2001. These authors
5 calculated a flux into the northern North Atlantic with a strong positive correlation to the
6 wintertime NAO ($r=0.71$), for the region north of 50°N . The correlation was much
7 weaker ($r=0.14$) in the latitude band south of this, but this may reflect the fact that the in-
8 situ observations indicate that only the eastern part of this region is varying in phase with
9 the NAO. The general decline in the North Atlantic sink in this region does not seem to
10 be evident in their atmospherically-derived fluxes however, though a direct comparison is
11 difficult because their analysis finishes in the year 2002. Also, the strongest correlation
12 Patra *et al.* find of the flux with the NAO in a region between 30°N - 50°N is a negative
13 one, when the flux is lagged by 7 months from the wintertime NAO, and this also does
14 not seem to be supported by the in-situ data summarized in Figure 6.

15

16 The annual decrease of the North Atlantic uptake of atmospheric CO_2 , estimated from
17 results plotted in Figure 6c is $\sim 1.1 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from the mid-nineties to 2002-2004. This
18 applies to an area of $1.8 \times 10^{13} \text{ m}^2$ of the North Atlantic between 20°N and 65°N ,
19 excluding the western subtropics. This equates with a reduction of $\sim 0.24 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ in the
20 uptake, a value on which we can assign an error bar of $\pm 0.1 \text{ Pg yr}^{-1}$ if we take the
21 standard deviation of points 1-4 in Figure 6 as indicative of the uncertainty. For
22 comparison, climatological data [Takahashi, *et al.*, 2002] give an integrated sink for this
23 region of $\sim 0.4 \text{ Pg yr}^{-1}$. For the whole North Atlantic, atmospheric inversion models

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1 suggest large variations (up to 0.4 Pg yr^{-1} , [Bousquet, *et al.*, 1999]) but with large
2 uncertainties, while extrapolation of the inter-annual variation at the BATS site [Gruber,
3 *et al.*, 2002] was used to suggest variability of 0.3 Pg yr^{-1} . By contrast, “ocean-only”
4 carbon models [Buitenhuis, *et al.*, 2006; Le Quéré, *et al.*, 2000] currently model an
5 *increasing* sink through this period due to the increasing atmospheric CO_2 , with
6 interannual variability considerably less than 0.1 Pg C yr^{-1} .

7

8 During the last decade there has been a sharp decrease in the intensity of the sub-polar
9 gyre circulation [Häkkinen and Rhine, 2004], indicative of decreased formation of dense
10 water in winter in northern regions, with ongoing freshening and warming of waters in
11 the northern North Atlantic [Curry, *et al.*, 2003; Dickson, *et al.*, 2002] that would
12 enhance the degree of stratification seen there. The decrease in the polar gyre is tied to
13 reduced heat loss in the northern North Atlantic [Curry, *et al.*, 2003; Dickson, *et al.*,
14 2002], itself part of the pattern of declining NAO index during this period. There is a
15 direct proportionality between rates of heat loss of the North Atlantic and the major
16 component of the CO_2 uptake by the region [Watson, *et al.*, 1995], so we might predict
17 from first principles that this would be accompanied by a decrease in CO_2 uptake. There
18 are also tentative indications of a slowing of the meridional overturning circulation
19 [Bryden, *et al.*, 2005] which, if correct, would further tend to decrease the uptake of CO_2
20 [Sarmiento and LeQuéré, 1996].

21

22 Reduction in the activity of the subpolar gyre led to its contraction from the mid-nineties
23 onwards, with expansion northward of the temperate and subtropical waters especially on

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1 the eastern side of the Atlantic [*Hátún et al., 2005*]. As a result, we might expect much of
2 our study region to become more dominated by recirculated temperate and subtropical
3 waters than was the case in 1994/95. This recirculated water has resided for a
4 comparatively long period at the surface and is more equilibrated with the atmosphere
5 than during the periods of stronger subpolar gyre activity. The substantial rise in sea
6 surface pCO₂ we observe also means that the Revelle buffer factor for the surface water
7 will have increased (for instance by about 5% for a 40 µatm increase such as we observe,
8 if the alkalinity remains constant), helping to reduce the capacity of the water to take up
9 CO₂ from the atmosphere. Finally, as [*Olsen et al., 2006*] discuss, in a region such as the
10 North Atlantic in which the buffer factor increases as water is transported to the north and
11 where the atmospheric CO₂ is rising, an uptake sufficient for the surface to track the
12 atmospheric rise at southerly latitudes will cause pCO₂ to rise faster than the atmosphere
13 further to the north. In conjunction with changes in transport and ventilation acting in the
14 same direction, it may further amplify the increase observed, at least in the temperate and
15 subpolar part of the study region.

16

17 Therefore, we conclude that the observed changes in surface temperature and ventilation
18 of the North Atlantic offer a probable explanation for the reduction in the CO₂ sink now
19 being observed there, exacerbated by changes in the buffer capacity of the surface water.
20 Though these changes are in the same direction as those seen in coupled models of
21 anthropogenically forced climate change and probably include a component due to this
22 cause, they are probably also related to natural, decadal-to-century length variations of

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1 the North Atlantic general circulation, coupled to variation in atmospheric forcings as
2 embodied in the NAO index.

3

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13

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9

10

11

1 **Figure captions**

2

3 Figure 1: Map showing the locations of ship tracks used in this study. Blue lines: ship
4 tracks in 1994/1995; red lines: tracks in 2002-2005. The thick black line is the centre of
5 the band from which data were selected, and the grid along it marks the $10^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ areas
6 used for averaging data. The thick green line depicts the border between the northeast
7 temperate/subpolar and the southwest tropical/subtropical region.

8

9 Figure 2: Hovmüller plots of $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ [μatm] (defined as the atmosphere minus sea
10 surface), for 1994/95 (top) and 2002/05 (bottom), calculated as described in the text.

11

12 Figure 3: Annual and monthly mean sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ [μatm]. Annual means versus
13 latitude or longitude of each grid box shown in Figure 1 (A), and monthly means
14 averaged over the temperate/subpolar region (B) and the tropical/subtropical region (C).
15 For the annual averages (A), the thick black line indicates averages of 1994/95, the thick
16 grey line averages of 2002/05. The thin line with circles are the 1994/95 averages
17 recalculated assuming constant alkalinity and total CO_2 content, but accounting for the
18 change in SST between 1994/95 and 2002/05. The thin lines with other markers give the
19 average for individual years (from March – February, diamonds for 2002/03, stars for
20 2003/04, squares for 2004/05). The horizontal arrows to the left of A indicate the annual
21 means for 1994/95 at $328 \mu\text{atm}$ and for 2002/05 at $365 \mu\text{atm}$. For the monthly means in
22 the temperate/subpolar region (B; grid boxes east of 30°W), the thick black line, the thick
23 grey line, and the thin line with circles are the same as in A); diamonds are monthly

1 means for 2002, stars for 2003, squares for 2004, and crosses for 2005. For the monthly
2 mean in the tropical/subtropical region (C, grid boxes west of 30°W), patterns are the
3 same as for the temperate/subpolar region.

4

5 Figure 4: Annual and monthly mean $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ [μatm]. Annual means versus latitude and
6 longitude of each grid box shown in Figure 1 (A), and monthly means averaged over the
7 temperate/subpolar region (B) and the tropical/subtropical region (C). Regions and
8 color/symbol coding is the same as for Figure 3. The horizontal arrows to the left of A
9 indicate the annual means for 1994/95 at 26 μatm and for 2002/05 at 5 μatm .

10

11 Figure 5: Annually mean air-to-sea fluxes [$\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$] versus latitude and longitude for
12 each grid box shown in Figure 1. Line patterns in A (left) is according to Figure 3A and
13 4A, with the addition of the black squares indicating fluxes calculated from the 1995
14 climatology of [Takahashi, et al., 2002] obtained from
15 <http://www.ldeo.columbia.edu/res/pi/CO2/>. In B, the annual averages of 1994/95 and
16 2002/05 are repeated, compared with 2002/05 fluxes re-calculated using 1994/95 wind
17 speeds to calculate the gas transfer velocities as outlined in the text (thin black line with
18 diamonds); and the 1994/95 fluxes with $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ adjusted to account for SST change from
19 1994.95 to 2002/05 (thin black lines with circles).

20

21 Figure 6: Summary of changes in annual sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ [μatm] and calculated fluxes
22 [$\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$], versus change in annual mean SST, from mid 1990s to early 2000s. Figure
23 6a shows the locations of the studies, along five sections of shipping routes and at the

1 BATS station. Data sources are: (1) and (2) this paper; (3) [*Corbière et al., 2007*]; (4) and
2 (5) [*Lüger et al., 2004, 2006*]; (6) [*Gruber et al., 2002*]. Temperature change was
3 calculated using NCEP-NCAR re-analysis averages for the appropriate periods. CO₂
4 measurements in the early 2000s were made: (1) and (2) 2002/05; (3) 2002/03; (4) and
5 (5) 2002; (6) 2000/01. Earlier reference times are for the year 1994/1995; measurements
6 were not being made by Lüger et al., during that earlier period, so (4) and (5) are referred
7 to climatological fluxes (Takahashi et al., 2002). The change in air-to-sea flux and SST
8 are those observed from the mid-1990s to the earlier 2000s for each study; a positive
9 change in air-to-sea flux depicts an increase in the uptake of CO₂ by the sea surface, and
10 a positive change in SST depicts a warming. The thick black line in the inset map marks
11 the approximate boundary between the region of decline in flux and that of no change or
12 some increase in the flux.











