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Climate impacts on multidecadal $p\text{CO}_2$ variability in the North Atlantic: 1948–2009

M. L. Breeden and G. A. McKinley

Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, University of Wisconsin – Madison, Wisconsin, USA

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Correspondence to: M. L. Breeden (mbreeden@wisc.edu)

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Ullman et al., 2009; Thomas et al., 2008). However, data are sparse, processes are complex and the timescales for studies have differed, and this has complicated a clear elucidation of the mechanisms of North Atlantic carbon cycle variations.

Schuster et al. (2009) analyzed in situ $p\text{CO}_2$ measurements, and suggested a substantial decline in North Atlantic carbon uptake from the mid-1990s to the mid-2000s. LeQuéré et al. (2010) also interpreted observations and models to conclude that there had been a decline in the North Atlantic sink from 1981–2007 due to changing wind patterns and increasing SST. Metzl et al. (2010) focused on subpolar surface ocean carbon cycle changes between 1993–2008, and also concluded that there had been a reduction in carbon uptake. In situ $p\text{CO}_2$ measurements have also been synthesized to illustrate the strong sensitivities of such changes to the locations and timeframe for the analyses (Fay and McKinley, 2013; McKinley et al., 2011). The substantial spatial heterogeneity and temporal variability in the North Atlantic complicates efforts to use sparse observations to quantify carbon uptake. Thus, the magnitude and mechanisms of North Atlantic carbon cycle variability remains loosely constrained. The present study takes advantage of the full spatial and temporal coverage of a regional numerical model to gain new insights into the mechanisms of variability of North Atlantic $p\text{CO}_2$.

As shown by Ullman et al. (2009) in a 15 yr simulation (1992–2006), internal variability in the North Atlantic is partially obscured by the large, quasilinear trend of CO_2 flux into the ocean that is driven by increasing CO_2 emissions. To examine the carbon sink variability that is partially masked by this large carbon influx, we use a hindcast model from 1948–2009 forced with the preindustrial atmospheric CO_2 concentration and realistic climate. As described below, we find that the basin-average SST is associated with the leading mode of surface ocean $p\text{CO}_2$ variability. This SST signal, in turn, includes an upward trend due to greenhouse gas emissions and a signal of internal variability characterized by the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO, Kerr, 2000).

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2 Methodology

2.1 Physical-biogeochemical-ecosystem model

The MIT Ocean General Circulation Model (Marshall et al., 1997a,b) has been regionally configured for the North Atlantic between 20° S and 81.5° N (Bennington et al., 2009; Ullman et al., 2009). The model has a horizontal resolution of 0.5° latitude and 0.5° longitude and 23 vertical levels beginning with a resolution of 10 m thickness at the surface and increasing to 500 m thickness at depths greater than 2200 m. The Gent-McWilliams (Gent and McWilliams, 1990) eddy parameterization and the KPP boundary layer mixing scheme (Large et al., 1994) were employed to model sub-grid-scale processes. Daily fields from NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis I force the model from 1948–2009 (Kalnay et al., 1996). SST and SSS are relaxed to monthly historical SST (Had1SSTv1.0, Rayner et al., 2003) and climatological SSS (Antonov et al., 2006) observations, respectively. For tracers, a sponge layer was included along regional boundaries. The pelagic ecosystem is parameterized using one zooplankton class and two phytoplankton classes (diatoms and “small” phytoplankton) as described previously (Dutkiewicz et al., 2005; Bennington et al., 2009; Ullman et al., 2009). Carbon (inorganic and dissolved and particulate organic), alkalinity (ALK), phosphorus, silica and iron cycling are explicitly included in the biogeochemical model. Carbonate chemistry is modeled as in Follows et al. (2006). The objective of this simulation is to identify climate impacts on the natural carbon cycle without the complication of the large CO₂ flux into the ocean that is observed. Thus, atmospheric *p*CO₂ is fixed at a constant, preindustrial level of 278 ppmv.

The physical model was spun up for 100 yr. Following the physical spinup, the biogeochemical model was initialized using preindustrial estimates for DIC and ALK climatology from the GLODAP database (Key et al., 2004). The biogeochemical model was then spun up for an additional 60 yr, long enough to eliminate drift in the biogeochemical parameters. The model was then run with NCEP/NCAR daily forcing fields for 1948–2009.

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Model physics across the North Atlantic, as well as $p\text{CO}_2$, DIC and ALK at the Bermuda Atlantic Time Series (Bates, 2007) and in the subpolar North Atlantic have been compared to results from a previous simulation using with this same model forced with observed atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ for 1992–2006 (Ullman et al., 2009). These comparisons show that the model is capable of robustly simulating seasonality and trends in carbon biogeochemistry, and gives confidence in this pre-industrial simulation for which direct comparisons to carbon observations are not possible. Mikaloff-Fletcher et al. (2007) estimated the pre-industrial, or “natural”, air-to-sea CO_2 flux in the North Atlantic with an ocean inversion that incorporated climatological circulations estimated from 10 ocean circulation models. For the North Atlantic from 0 to 75° N, they find an uptake of $0.27 \pm 0.07 \text{ PgCyr}^{-1}$. The mean natural CO_2 flux averaged over the same spatial domain in our simulation is consistent, 0.23 PgCyr^{-1} .

2.2 Post-processing

CO_2 flux into the ocean is proportional to the partial pressure difference between the atmosphere and ocean surface: $\Delta p\text{CO}_2 = p\text{CO}_2^{\text{atm}} - p\text{CO}_2^{\text{ocn}}$. In this analysis, we can directly relate higher $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{ocn}}$ to a reduction in CO_2 flux, since atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ is fixed. $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ variability sets the sign and magnitude of flux changes on both seasonal and interannual timescales (Takahashi et al., 2009; Watson et al., 2009; LeQuéré et al., 2010). $p\text{CO}_2$ is decomposed into contributions from temperature and chemical effects using model output and the full carbonate equations (Follows et al., 2006). As in Ullman et al. (2009), $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST is found by allowing only SST to vary in the full carbonate equations for $p\text{CO}_2$, i.e. all other variables (DIC, ALK, SSS, phosphate, silica) are held constant at their long-term mean values; $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem is found by holding SST constant and allowing the rest of the input variables to vary; for $p\text{CO}_2$ -DIC, only DIC varies.

Model diagnostics for DIC are the monthly mean tendency terms (in $\text{mmol m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) due to individual modeled processes and are calculated at each time step during the

model simulation (Ullman et al., 2009). Monthly mean diagnostics for the surface layer DIC change due to horizontal and vertical advection and diffusion, net biological processes (primary production and respiration), freshwater input/removal, and air–sea CO₂ flux are used.

5 The AMO index for the model is calculated using modeled SST and observed global Had1SSTv1.0 (Rayner et al., 2003) using the approach of Wang and Dong (2010). This approach regresses the area-weighted global mean Had1SST time series onto area-weighted basin-wide mean North Atlantic SST time series (NASST). This regressed index is subtracted from the total NASST to define the AMO. The combined SST signal
10 is, thus, decomposed into contributions from globally increasing SST (SST trend) and the internal variability of the AMO (Fig. 1d). In order to focus on the decadal timescale variability, all timeseries are smoothed with a standardized 121 month box smoother.

3 Results

3.1 Multidecadal variability

15 To determine the leading mode of variability in surface ocean $p\text{CO}_2$, principle component analysis is employed. The first empirical orthogonal function (EOF1) patterns and smoothed principle components (PCs) for monthly, 13 month smoothed total $p\text{CO}_2$ and the SST contribution to $p\text{CO}_2$ ($p\text{CO}_2\text{-SST}$) are shown in Fig. 1a–c. To determine the change in $p\text{CO}_2$ anomalies described by EOF1 at a specific point in time, the value of the PC1 at that time can be multiplied by the EOF1 pattern. The percent of variance in the total field explained by the EOF1 pattern is 18 and 38 % for $p\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{CO}_2\text{-SST}$, respectively. In both cases, the EOF1 patterns are statistically distinct from their EOF2 patterns, which are discussed in Sect. 4. This EOF analysis unveils the basin-scale coherent variability. There is remaining variability in coherent secondary large-scale
20 modes (e.g. EOF2) or at scales smaller than the whole basin. That large-scale modes of climatic variability tend to capture 10–40 % of variance has been documented across

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many climate variables, including global SST and tropospheric winds (von Storch and Zwiers, 1999), Southern Ocean geopotential heights (Thomson and Wallace, 2000), and $p\text{CO}_2$ throughout the Pacific (McKinley et al., 2004, 2006). That $p\text{CO}_2$ EOF1 captures the patterns of multi-decadal large-scale change is further evidenced by plots of 20 yr anomalies of $p\text{CO}_2$ (Fig. S1).

The correlation between PC1- $p\text{CO}_2$ and the area-weighted basin-averaged SST is 0.88 (Fig. 1c, Table S1). An increase in temperature increases $p\text{CO}_2$ by reducing solubility, which is illustrated by the $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST EOF1 pattern. As expected, PC1- $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST is highly correlated ($r = 1.0$) with SST itself (Fig. 1c, Table S1).

PC1- $p\text{CO}_2$ and PC1- $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST are highly correlated (Fig. 1c, $r = 0.91$), but have distinct EOF1 patterns, particularly in the subpolar gyre (Fig. 1a and b). This is because $p\text{CO}_2$ in the subpolar gyre is also significantly impacted by DIC variability that, in turn, is associated with the AMO. EOF1 for $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem and $p\text{CO}_2$ -DIC explain 32 and 25 % of the variance, respectively (Fig. 2a and b), and their PC1's are highly correlated with the AMO, $r = 0.99$, 0.96, respectively (Fig. 2c, Table S1). The AMO, an index of internal North Atlantic SST variability, declines (cools) until 1975 and rises thereafter (Fig. 1d). Taking the last half of the timeseries as an example, increasingly positive AMO corresponds to a decrease in $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem, with the strongest declines in the subpolar gyre and driven by reduced $p\text{CO}_2$ -DIC (Fig. 2). This occurs in opposition to the direct effect on $p\text{CO}_2$ of warmer NASST (Fig. 1b and c), driven jointly by the increasingly positive AMO and the warming trend (Fig. 1d). SST and chemical terms vary inversely because higher SST enhances stratification, leading to a shoaling of mixed layer depths over most of the gyre (Fig. S2). This shoaling in turn limits the amount of deep, carbon-rich water that is mixed to the surface, reducing $p\text{CO}_2$ -DIC and $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem (Ullman et al., 2009). The correlation of PC1- $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem and PC1- $p\text{CO}_2$ -DIC with PC1- $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST are 0.90 and 0.91, respectively (Table S1). Mechanisms of AMO impacts on $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem in the subpolar gyre will be explored further below.

3.2 Regression analysis

Regression of the AMO, SST trend, and total SST (Fig. 1d) onto monthly $p\text{CO}_2$, $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST and $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem further illustrates that temperature and chemical responses tend to act in opposition to one another, damping total $p\text{CO}_2$ responses across the basin (Fig. 3). Previous studies with observations and models have shown that the $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem dominates the seasonality of $p\text{CO}_2$ in the subpolar gyre, via strong vertical supply of DIC in winter that drives up $p\text{CO}_2$ and biological DIC drawdown in summer that drives $p\text{CO}_2$ down. Temperature impacts oppose these seasonal oscillations, but are of weaker amplitude (Kortzinger et al., 2008; Takahashi et al., 2002). Models have shown similar opposing influences with respect to interannual variability (Ullman et al., 2009; McKinley et al., 2004). These regressions illustrate that positive AMO leads to higher $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST throughout the basin (Fig. 3b). The response is strongest north of 35°N with a clear maximum to the east of Newfoundland. Simultaneously, positive AMO is associated with a reduction in $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem (Fig. 3c). The $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem signal is also strongest to the north. The overall effect is a decrease in total $p\text{CO}_2$ north of 45°N and a slight increase in $p\text{CO}_2$ in the eastern subtropical gyre (Fig. 3a).

When responding to the global SST trend, $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST more heavily controls the response of the total $p\text{CO}_2$ field (Fig. 3d and e). The $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST response is strongest along the Gulf Stream and east of Newfoundland, and also increases somewhat off the coast of Europe and Africa. $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem exhibits some decline in the Gulf Stream region, and has a small response elsewhere (Fig. 3f).

Regression with the total NASST timeseries (Fig. 1) illustrates the combined effects of the AMO and trend signals (Fig. 3g-i). A positive anomaly of NASST depresses total $p\text{CO}_2$ in the subpolar gyre, consistent with the AMO impact found above. Positive NASST also increases total $p\text{CO}_2$ off North Africa, consistent with the impact of the SST trend. $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST increases both off Africa and has a strong maximum in the Gulf Stream region east of Newfoundland with positive NASST anomalies. The $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem response is slightly weaker in the subpolar gyre than for the AMO alone (Fig. 3a and i).

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3.3 DIC diagnostics

To further investigate the chemical term response to the AMO, model diagnostics for the DIC field are regressed upon the AMO index. Diagnostics are modeled rates of change in DIC due to one of five processes that have been saved at every model time-step. Physical processes are separated into horizontal advection and diffusion (DIC-horz), and vertical advection and diffusion (DIC-vert). DIC-phys is the sum of vertical and horizontal transport, showing the net effect of physical transport on DIC (Fig. 4). The rate of DIC supply is also affected by biological processes involving DIC deposition and remineralization (DIC-bio), net precipitation/evaporation that dilutes or concentrates DIC (DIC-fresh) and the air–sea flux of CO₂ (DIC-flx) (Fig. 5). The focus on DIC is justified by the fact that $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem change has the same pattern and is highly correlated with $p\text{CO}_2$ -DIC change (Fig. 2). The focus on the AMO is justified by its strong imprint on $p\text{CO}_2$ through $p\text{CO}_2$ -chem (Figs. 2 and 3).

For the long-term average, vertical advection and diffusion are positive along the Gulf Stream and in the subpolar gyre due to deep winter mixed layer depths (MLD) that mix up high-DIC water from below (Fig. 4a). Horizontal DIC advection and mixing removes this vertically supplied DIC along the Gulf Stream and in the western subpolar gyre (Fig. 4b). While the vertical and horizontal components tend to have opposing influences, the net effect is a positive DIC supply to the subpolar gyre, as shown by mean DIC-phys (Fig. 4c). With positive AMO, vertical advective and diffusive fluxes of DIC decrease in the Irminger Sea and Iceland basin, while they increase in the Labrador Sea and east of Newfoundland (Fig. 4d). These changes are consistent with AMO-related MLD changes outside of the Labrador Sea (Fig. S2) and change in the basin-scale barotropic streamfunction indicating a weakened subpolar gyre (Fig. S3). The effect of this is to shift the central DIC-vert maximum to the west. With positive AMO, horizontal advection and diffusion largely respond to changes in vertical advection and diffusion, with less horizontal divergence (a positive change) in regions where the vertical supply is reduced (Fig. 4e). The net effect shown by DIC-phys reveals an overall reduction in

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DIC supply (Fig. 4f), consistent with a weaker subpolar gyre circulation and shallower MLDs that reduce the vertical supply of DIC. Hakkinen and Rhines (2009) illustrate and increased penetration of subtropical waters into the subpolar region from the 1990s to the 2000s, consistent with a weaker subpolar gyre circulation.

5 Mean DIC impacts from physics, biological processes, freshwater and air–sea flux are shown in Fig. 5a–e. The net impact of biology is to remove DIC from the surface of most of the region, with the most intense removal along the Gulf Stream (Fig. 5a). The smaller impact of evaporation and precipitation is to concentrate DIC in the subtropics and to dilute it in the subpolar gyre (Fig. 5b). The air–sea CO₂ flux term is also small, positive north of about 35° N and negative to the south (Fig. 5c). AMO-related change in the biological removal of DIC indicates additional removal (negative anomaly) occurring in the same region where horizontal flux increases, consistent with biological stimulation through an increased supply nutrients from the subtropical sub-surface along the “nutrient stream” (Williams et al., 2006). There is reduced biological productivity, and thus a reduction of DIC loss (a positive DIC anomaly), in other parts of the basin that are consistent with satellite observations from the late 1990s to the mid-2000s (Behrenfeld et al., 2006). Changes in surface ocean DIC content due to freshwater fluxes and air–sea CO₂ flux with the AMO are small. Across the basin, the net DIC change associated with AMO is negative, with the strongest negative changes occurring in the subpolar gyre (Figs. 2b and 3c).

4 Discussion and conclusions

In this North Atlantic regional model forced with pre-industrial $p\text{CO}_2$ and realistic climate from 1948–2009, SST is the dominant driver of $p\text{CO}_2$ variability, with both long-term anthropogenic warming and the AMO playing important roles. The AMO is strongly associated with chemical change, which in turn is mostly driven by DIC. DIC changes, in turn, are due primarily to changes in vertical and horizontal advection and mixing. Changing biology has the most important secondary effect, and largely damps

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a weaker subpolar gyre circulation, both associated with warmer SSTs (positive AMO). In the subtropics, the SST impact is stronger and thus $p\text{CO}_2$ is increased under the influence of positive AMO and positive SST trend.

These findings are consistent with observed relationships between trends in surface ocean $p\text{CO}_2$ and trends in atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ since the 1980s (Fay and McKinley, 2013). In the North Atlantic subpolar gyre, trends in surface ocean $p\text{CO}_2$ lagged the trend in atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ from the early to mid 1990s to the late 2000s, which is consistent with the AMO and the SST trend reducing DIC supply to the subpolar gyre as found in this study. On smaller spatial scales and shorter timeframes, trends in ocean $p\text{CO}_2$ can differ (Fay and McKinley, 2013; Metzl, 2010; Watson et al., 2009; Schuster et al., 2009), which can be reasonably attributed to shorter-term and smaller spatial scale variability. We also find that warming has contributed to the observed $p\text{CO}_2$ increase from the 1980–1990s through the 2000s throughout the basin. These model results allow a mechanistic attribution of these observed changes in North Atlantic $p\text{CO}_2$ to the combined effect of the AMO and a positive SST trend due to anthropogenic climate change.

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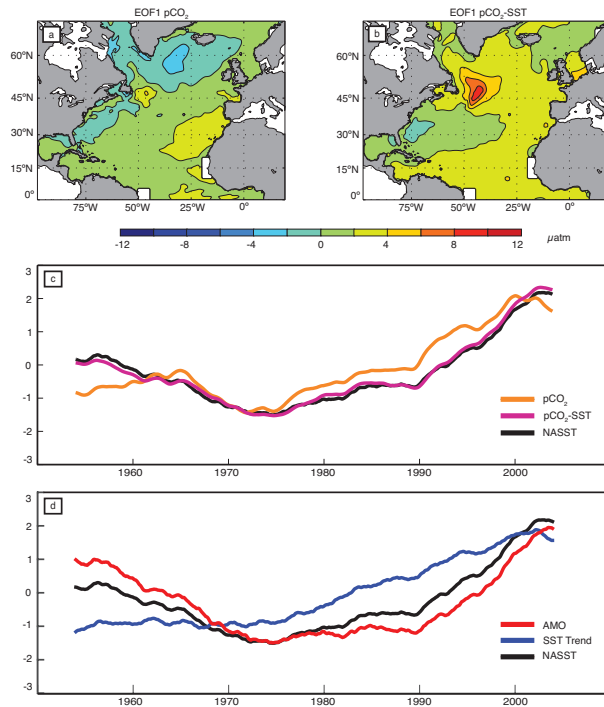


Figure 1. (a) EOF1 of total $p\text{CO}_2$ (μatm), (b) EOF1 of $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST (μatm), explaining 18 and 38 % of total variance, respectively. (c) PC1- $p\text{CO}_2$ (orange), PC1- $p\text{CO}_2$ -SST (pink) and area-weighted, basin-averaged standardized North Atlantic SST time series (black), (d) Area-weighted, basin-averaged (0–70° N, 98° W–19.5° E) North Atlantic SST from Had1SST (black), global area-weighted SST regressed onto North Atlantic SST (blue), and AMO index created by subtracting the global regression from the North Atlantic SST (red). All indices are standardized by 1 sigma. Timeseries smoothed with a 121 month box smoother. Two small coastal areas off Africa and South America were excluded in (a) and (b) due to the presence of localized, anomalously strong upwelling in the early 1960's that precluded elucidation of the large-scale pattern.

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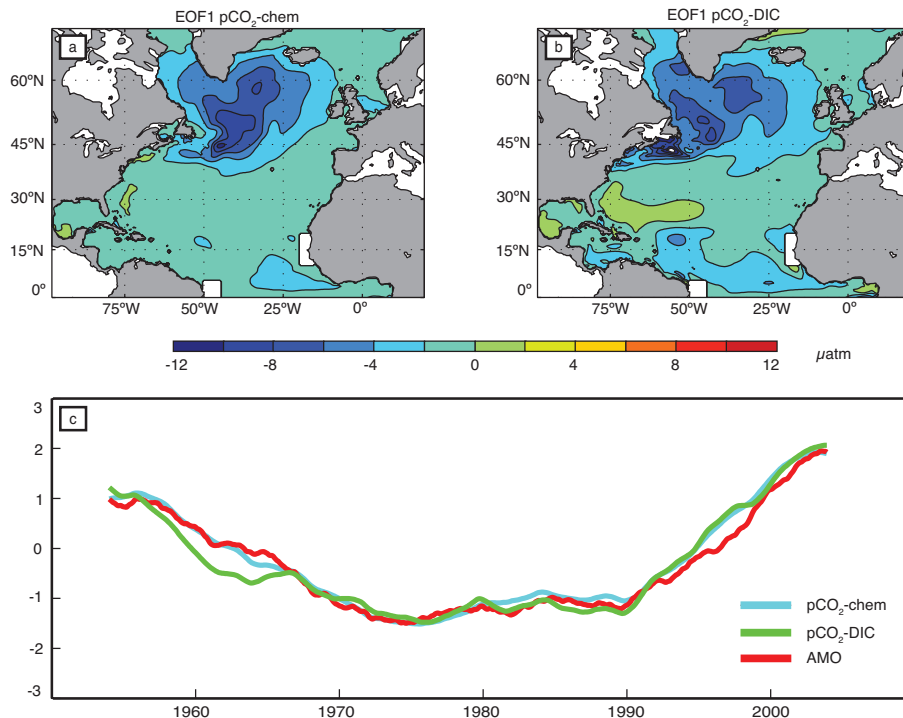


Figure 2. (a) EOF1 $p\text{CO}_2\text{-chem}$ (μatm), (b) EOF1 $p\text{CO}_2\text{-DIC}$ (μatm), explaining 32 and 25 % of total variance, respectively, (c) PC1- $p\text{CO}_2\text{-chem}$ (cyan), PC1- $p\text{CO}_2\text{-DIC}$ (green) and AMO index (red), all standardized. Timeseries smoothed with a 121 month box smoother.

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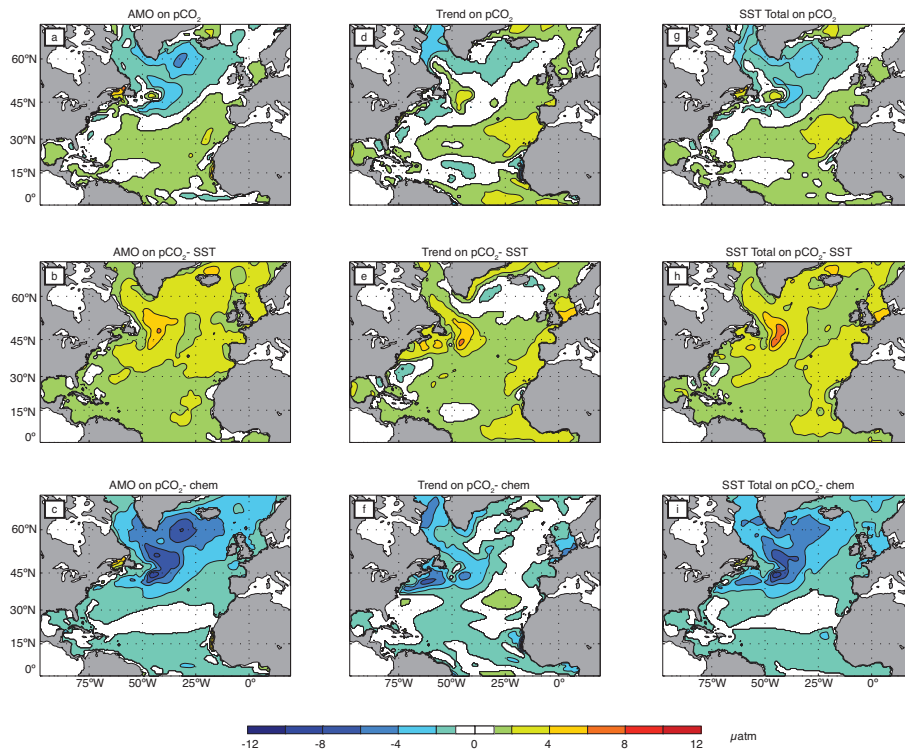
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Figure 3. 121 month box-smoothed AMO regressed onto unsmoothed, monthly (a) $p\text{CO}_2$, (b) $p\text{CO}_2\text{-SST}$, (c) $p\text{CO}_2\text{-chem}$. SST Trend regressed onto (d) $p\text{CO}_2$, (e) $p\text{CO}_2\text{-SST}$, (f) $p\text{CO}_2\text{-chem}$. NASST (AMO + SST Trend) regressed onto (g) $p\text{CO}_2$, (h) $p\text{CO}_2\text{-SST}$, (i) $p\text{CO}_2\text{-chem}$. Regressions calculated from 1953 through 2005. Values < 0.5 and $> -0.5 \mu\text{atm}$ are whitened out to highlight regions experiencing the most substantial changes.

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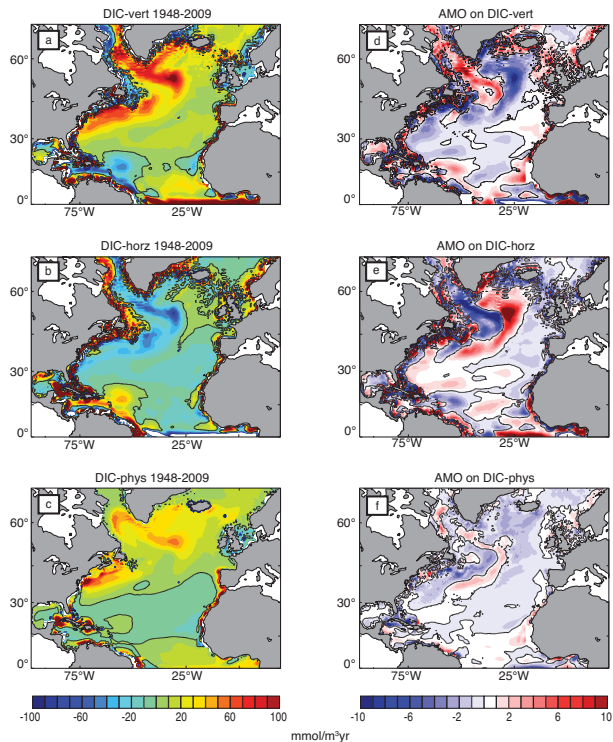


Figure 4. DIC diagnostics. Left column: 1948–2009 Mean **(a)** DIC-vertical, **(b)** DIC-horizontal, **(c)** DIC-physical where DIC-physical is the sum of DIC-vertical and DIC-horizontal. Right column: AMO regressed onto **(d)** DIC-vertical, **(e)** DIC-horizontal, **(f)** DIC-physical. Unit: $\text{mmol m}^{-3} \text{yr}^{-1}$.

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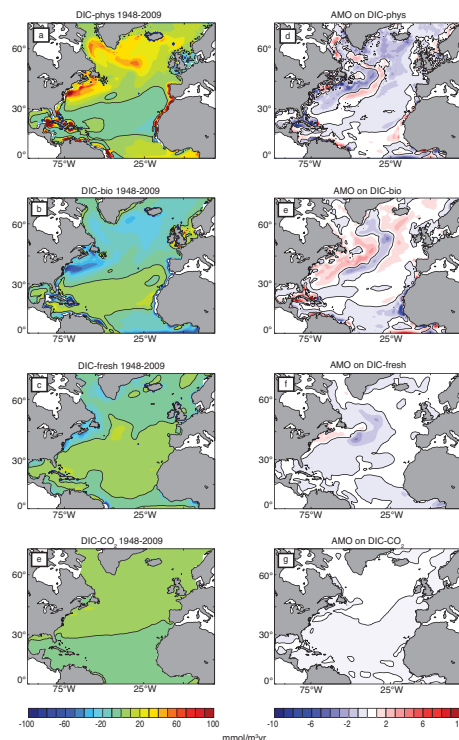


Figure 5. DIC diagnostics. Left column: 1948–2009 Mean **(a)** DIC-physical, **(b)** DIC-bio, **(c)** DIC-fresh, **(d)** DIC- CO_2 flux. Right column: AMO regressed onto **(e)** DIC-physical, **(f)** DIC-bio, **(g)** DIC-fresh, **(h)** DIC- CO_2 flux. Unit: $\text{mmol m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

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