

Leseurre, C., Lo Monaco, C., Reverdin, G., Metzl, N., Fin, J., Olafsdottir, S., and Racapé, V.: Ocean carbonate system variability in the North Atlantic Subpolar surface water (1993–2017), Biogeosciences Discuss., <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-2019-119>, in review, 2019.

1) New responses to comments on responses to major issues 1-10 in initial review:

10 “I thank Leseurre et al for providing the revised manuscript. While clearly improved, there are still some issues that needs to be dealt with before I can recommend that the manuscript is accepted for publication.”

We thank again Are Olsen for his fast-new review and comments that will be considered when revising the manuscript. Below we list our responses before preparing a revised manuscript.

15 “1. Testing the scheme to reconstruct February and July data.

I proposed to test this scheme using the high frequency SST and SSS data collected by the TSG. This has not been done. While a figure showing the trends in higher frequency TSG SST and SSS data have been added to the manuscript (Fig 3), this does not constitute an actual test of the reconstruction scheme. Please add and discuss a side-by-side comparison of trends in SST and SSS as measured by the TSG in February and July, vs. those shown in Fig 4 based on a mixture of measured and reconstructed data. This could be in the form of a figure or a table.

25 I see that there are clear discrepancies between the SST and SSS trends in Fig 3 and 4 for some of the time periods. The 1993-1997 period, the data in Fig 3 shows increasing SST and SSS, while for the corresponding period in Fig 4, SST has no trend and SSS is decreasing. The winter SST trends for the second period (2001-2007) are also different (increasing in Fig 3 decreasing in Fig 4).”

30 **Response:** We had thoroughly tested the scheme to reconstruct February and July data using the high frequency SST and SSS data collected by the TSG, but this was indeed not included in the new version of the article. We suggest adding a slide-by-side comparison of the reconstructed data and trends added with SST and SSS measured by the TSG as a supplement (cf attached figure S1-1-2 and table S1).

“2. Comparison with trends in mapped products.

35 I asked for a comparison with SST trends from the NOAA objectively analysed product; this would shed light on how representative the data (in Fig. 4) are of large-scale interannual phenomena. In their response the authors states this will be included: “We will also use SST reanalysis to confirm the trends for the selected periods”. This has not been included (i.e. comparison to regional SST trends from NOAA OI SST product (<https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data/sst-data-noaaoptimal-interpolation-oi-sst-analysis-version-2-oisstv2-1x1>)).

40 Overall, for comment 1 & 2. I would recommend to add a subsection in the Results section, between current 3.1 and 3.2, that compares the SST and SSS trends as presented in Fig 4, with those from higher frequency TSG data and also regional SST trends from the NOAA OI product. This would, before anything else, inform readers about how accurate the trends shown in Fig 4 are, and the extent to which they represent larger scale interannual variations.”

Response: Actually, we omitted to include a comparison of our SST trends with SST trends from the NOAA objectively analysed product. We are sorry for this oversight, which will be corrected by supplementary material in the revised manuscript. We will present the mapped regional SST trends (from NOAA OI SST product) for the three periods (winter and summer, corresponding to February and July; cf attached figure S2-a-b). All together, they are rather similar (along the track) to the ones from the high-frequency SST analyses along the track that were presented on figure 3, and provide some idea of spatial coherence of these SST trends.

On the other hand, there are some larger differences between the SST trends of Figure 3 or from NOAA OI-SST V2 product and the ones constructed with the data in this paper. This is particularly the case for short periods such as in 1993-1996 (or 1994-1997), as is expected, in particular for SST, due to aliasing in Suratlant data of the rather large higher frequency variability, such as between successive months. Also, it does not overwhelm the longer-term variability for the two other periods, such as the cooling in both seasons during the last period. As was commented in Reverdin et al. (2018), this sampling-induced error on the trend is less of an issue for surface salinity.

“3. pCO₂ driver decomposition

It is good to see that a decomposition of the drivers of pCO₂ and pH trends have now been included. However, please include citations for the equation (e.g. Keeling et al (2004) and Fröb et al. (2019)). Also, it is not clear what parts the columns for DIC/sDIC and TA/sTA in Fig 5 show. Specifically, is DIC the total DIC driver while sDIC is the part of the DIC driver not related to salinity? Please specify this in the caption.”

Response: Again, we thank you for your insightful comments. We will include citations of Keeling et al. (2004) and Fröb et al. (2019) for equation (2).

In Fig. 5, DIC (or TA) is the total DIC (or TA) driver and sDIC (or sTA) is the part of DIC (or TA) driver not related to salinity. We are aware that this point is not very clear, and will rewrite Fig. 5 caption.

“6. Uncertainties

Please explain in the methods section how the uncertainty of the trends presented in Fig 4 was determined.

Response: This will be added in section 2.2 and explained as: “The uncertainty of the trends presented in Fig. 4 was determined in two ways. For the measured parameters (SST, SSS, DIC, TA) the uncertainties represent the standard deviations associated with the means. For the calculated parameters, the uncertainties consider the errors associated with each measurement of the calculation parameters (Orr et al., 2018).”

“7. Trend 2001-2008 and reconstructed data

OK, would be worthwhile to mention this”

Response: We summarize the last discussion on this subject and we are agreeing to mention this test in the revised manuscript.

[Are Olsen: “I am in particular concerned with the fact that the large summer fCO₂ increase in region B 2001-2008 are basically caused by the ‘reconstructed’ data of 2001 and 2008. The actual observations are pretty steady. How confident are you in these reconstructed values?”

Leseurre et al.: “The large summer fCO₂ increase in 2001-2008 is observed in all boxes. Reviewer is correct that starting (2001) and ending (2007) points were reconstructed for July from data obtained in August (for both boxes B and CDE). If we don’t standardize the data to July, the “summer” (June+July+August) trend in Box B would be +6.8 μatm/yr (instead of 8.5 when normalizing to July).
5 The same test for box CDE leads to fCO₂ increase of +11.2 μatm/yr (instead of 11.5 when normalizing to July). We should note that for August 2007, TA data were doubtful and we used reconstructed TA from salinity for this specific cruise. Overall, we are confident that in 2001-2007 surface fCO₂ increased much faster than in the atmosphere.”]

10 This will be rewritten as: “Despite having reconstructed July from the data obtained in August (for boxes B and CDE) both for the starting (2001) and ending (2007) years, this result is fairly robust. Indeed, if we do not normalize summer to July, but directly include the June / July / August data, we also observe a rapid increase in fCO₂ of +6.2 μatm yr⁻¹.”

15 2) Responses to new comments about this second version

Page 1 line 16: ‘the trend of ...CO₂...is slightly less than the atmospheric....and the pH decrease.’ Odd sentence, please revise.

20 **Response:** This will be reformulated as: ‘Over the full period (1993-2017) pH decreases (-0.0017 yr⁻¹) and fugacity of CO₂ (fCO₂) increases (+1.70 μatm yr⁻¹). The trend of fCO₂ in surface water is slightly less than the atmospheric rate (+1.96 μatm yr⁻¹).’

Page 1 line 28: Consider using ‘multiannual’ instead of ‘pluriannual’

25 **Response:** This will be corrected. Thank you!

Page 2 line 3: replace ‘indices’ with ‘values’

Response: This will be corrected.

30 Page 2 line 33-43: The paper by Goris et al: Constraining projection-based estimates of the future North Atlantic carbon uptake, Journal of Climate, 31, 3959-3978, 2018, shows clearly that many ESM struggle to represent mixing correctly in the NASPG, which render them unable to reproduce the actual trends.

35 **Response:** We will rewrite those lines as: “Such signal is not captured by current ESM CMIP5 models (Tjiputra et al., 2014; Lebehot et al., 2019) likely due to inadequate representation of biogeochemical cycles (here DIC and/or TA) and in part to bad representation of mixing leading to pCO₂ seasonality that is opposed to observations (Goris et al., 2018). This leads to uncertainties on the evolution of the oceanic CO₂ uptake in the North Atlantic in the future (Lebehot et al., 2019). A better knowledge of DIC and TA trends (not only fCO₂) is needed to correct and validate biogeochemical representation in ESM 35 models.”

40 Page 3 line 7-9: It is not so much the shoaling of the lysocline that is the problem, but that these northern surface waters have initially low CaCO₃ saturation because of high natural (preindustrial) DIC concentrations because of low temperatures giving high CO₂ solubility. Please revise.

Response: Thank you for this comment. This will be corrected.

Page 3 line 35: Replace ‘conducts’ with ‘conduits’

Response: This will be corrected.

Page 5, line 5: State the pressure used, i.e. 1013.25 hPa.

5 **Response:** This will be added.

Page 5: Please add a subsection on how uncertainties were determined: the uncertainties of the trend slopes, the uncertainties of the driver decomposition (i.e. the 1000 random perturbations) and any other uncertainty calculation. For the uncertainties in the trend regression, how did you deal with the uncertainty of each point in the y direction (e.g. the SST values for each year has a standard deviation associated with them shown as error bars in Fig 4(a), how was this accounted for when calculating the regression and its uncertainty? As far as I know this is not straightforward).

Response: We are going to add a comment concerning the uncertainty in each of the following cases: uncertainties of annual means, trends and driver decomposition.

15 The annual means for measured parameters (SST, SSS, DIC and TA; Fig. 4a to 4f) was determined with standard deviation associated with the averaging of the individual data available. For the calculated parameters (pH, fCO₂, Ω_{Ar}; Fig. 4d to 4j), the uncertainties consider the errors associated with each measurement of the calculation parameters (Orr et al., 2018). The uncertainty on the trends is linked to the discrete sampling of spatio-temporal variability within the season that we wish to analyze. The uncertainty on the trends is linked either to first, the discrete sampling of a spatial-temporal variability within the season analyzed, or second, to the interannual variability (real or linked to insufficient sampling). If the uncertainty associated with the annual averages is low, then the trend uncertainty will be low and will correspond to the first part. On the other hand, in the case where the interannual (real) variability is high, the uncertainty will correspond to the second part which will decrease the trend significance.

The uncertainty on the driver decomposition, was evaluated by performing 1000 random perturbations within the range of the standard deviation of the observed trends in SST, SSS, TA and DIC.

Page 6 line 5: You used the seasonal climatology to adjust data from January/March and June/August to February and July, not ‘to complement winter and summer’. Please state here the typical magnitude of these adjustments.

30 **Response:** We should have used "to adjust" rather than "to complement". This will be reformulated as “When no data are available in February or July, we adjust the representative winter and summer data based on the deviations from the seasonal cycle observed in January or March (for winter) and June or August (for summer).”

We were thinking about writing an equation in the revised manuscript in order to have a better understanding on how the data were reconstructed. For example, this equation would be:

$$SST_{month(A)}^{year} = SST_{month(A)}^{clim} + (SST_{month(B)}^{year} - SST_{month(B)}^{clim})$$

40 Here, month(A) corresponds to February or July, month(B) to January or March (for winter), June or August (for summer) and clim to climatology.

Page 6 line 16-17: Salinity is also low in the green box, but DIC is not correspondingly lower. I.e. the low DIC in the southern (red) box are not only a result of the low salinities, please explain more.

Response: That is right. Temperature is also a factor that (indirectly) impacts DIC. In fact, atmospheric CO₂ dissolves less in warmer regions. This will be corrected.

Page 6 line 30: ‘Section (3.3)’ should be ‘Section 2.3’

5 **Response:** This will be corrected.

Page 6: It would be good to include the uncertainty of the trends that are stated.

10 **Response:** This will be added as: “Using data over 24 years (and all seasons) they estimate an increase in DIC of +0.77 (+/- 0.11) $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$, a fCO₂ trend of +1.95 (+/-0.12) $\mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$ and a pH decrease of -0.0021 (+/- 0.0001) yr^{-1} .”

15 Page 7: Use of TrOCA method. The TrOCA method has issues and it is not very accurate. See for example <https://www.biogeosciences.net/7/723/2010/bg-7-723-2010.pdf>. Some cautionary remarks would be appropriate, for example that you believe it is robust enough to determine Cant trends even if the absolute values are questionable.

20 **Response:** We are aware that the TrOCA method, as other data-based methods, does not always reproduce well the absolute values (e.g. Vazquez-Rodriguez et al., 2009 for a comparison including the North Atlantic). However, as stated by Are Olsen, we think that they can be used to estimate the trend: is it 0.1 $\mu\text{mol/kg/yr}$ or 3 $\mu\text{mol/kg/yr}$? Our calculations suggest a trend of nearly 0.6 $\mu\text{mol/kg/yr}$ at subsurface, an evaluation performed before the publication by Gruber et al (2019). Interestingly, for 1994-2007, we find a trend coherent with Gruber et al for the same region. For this paper, we think that presenting these results (TrOCA and Gruber) is sufficient to separate natural versus anthropogenic signal in our pH and fCO₂ trend analysis.

25 Page 7 line 7: The DIC trend of 0.9 from GLODAPv2 – was this something you calculated. What were the lat/lon bounds.

Response:

30 Yes, we calculate the subsurface (150-200m) trend for both DIC and Cant (with TrOCA) using the same Glodapv2 stations selected in the region 54°N-64°N / 40°W-20°W. We also looked at O₂, Nutrients and TALK trends but that were not significant.

Page 7 line 7: GLODAPv2, not GLODAP-V2

Response: This will be corrected. Sorry for this mistake.

35 Page 7 line 16: replace ‘very homogeneous’ with ‘a’

Response: This will be corrected.

40 Page 7 lines 11-18. I don’t understand some of these numbers. From Gruber et al., 2019 you find a Cant increase between 1994 and 2007 of 8.5 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$. This gives a trend of 0.65 $\mu\text{mol/kg yr}$. You assume this applies for the surface as well, to give a total increase of 10.1 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ for 1994-2007. But why the change? if the subsurface trend from Gruber applies in the surface layer, this would give 8.5 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ there as well, not 10.1 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$.

My sense is that the Cant increase from Gruber et al (0.65 $\mu\text{mol/kg yr}^{-1}$) is similar to the one you estimate using TrOCA (0.6 $\mu\text{mol/kg yr}$), but both of these are lower than the observed DIC increase in SURATLANT (0.7-0.9 $\mu\text{mol/kg yr}$) and estimate from GLODAPv2 (0.9 $\mu\text{mol/kg yr}$). So altogether, the DIC is increasing slightly faster than explained by Cant alone. Please revise and simplify.

5 **Response:** Thank you to highlight this point. We understand the confusion this raised and we need to reformulate the discussion. The TrOCA method is not suitable to evaluate Cant in surface layers and we can only conclude that the subsurface trend is of +0.6 $\mu\text{mol/kg/yr}$. We then compared this value with the independent estimate from Gruber (2019) in the same layer and region, who found the very close trend of 0.65 $\mu\text{mol/kg/yr}$. This similarity is reassuring. Now, because we are interested in comparing the surface trend of DIC from Suratlant with Cant trend at the surface, we will assume that the results from Gruber (2019) are also valid at the surface. In their products, Gruber et al 2019 also offer results for the surface layer and we used their results in the layer 0-50m in our region to evaluate the mean Cant accumulation of 10.1 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ between 1994 and 2007: here at the surface this leads to Cant trend of +0.8 $\mu\text{mol/kg/yr}$, i.e. slightly higher than in the layer restricted to 150-200m. The Cant surface trend from Gruber is within the range of DIC trend from Suratlant (range 0.7 to 0.9 $\mu\text{mol/kg/yr}$ for long-term analysis). Overall, these comparisons (TroCA, Gruber, etc..) suggest that Cant explains a significant part of the observed DIC surface trend and similarly for pH (as presented in Figure 6 for long-term 1993-2017).

20 Page 8 line 11: Please simplify to: “Because interannual variability is more pronounced in summer than in winter because of the added influence of biological activity.”

Response: This will be corrected.

25 Page 8 line 14-15: Please include citations to these studies that have evaluated trends in different seasons.

Response: They will be added as: “Only few observational studies conducted at high latitudes (Olafsson et al., 2009; Munro et al., 2015; Wakita et al 2017) showed that the trends of DIC, fCO₂ and pH are seasonally different and thus driven by different processes not yet fully explained.”

30 Page 9 line 16: Mention the source of these independent pCO₂ observations (ship, principal investigators, cite any papers by PIs that describe the data).

Response: The pCO₂ observations we refer to in this section were listed in Metzl et al (2010). We don't think it is useful to recall them here.

35 Page 10 line 14: ‘last decade, 2001-2017...’, better with ‘last period, 2008-2017 for summer and 2008-2015 for winter’.

Response: This will be corrected.

40 Page 10 line 29-30: The case for low primary production in 1996, is very weak. 1996 was characterized by very negative NAO index. Another year with very low NAO index was 2010, and in that year primary production was exceptionally high. So, if anything – by analogy – I would expect strong primary production in 1996.

Response:

Yes, you are right. We have attempted to test this high productivity assumption, but we lack data for 1996. Indeed, we have no SURATLANT nutrient data for summer 1996; and there are no satellite observations before 1998. We also tried to check the high DIC and fCO₂ for 1996 with GLODAPv2 and SOCAT but there are no data available for this period to compare with SURATLANT in the same locations. On the other hand, a study by Martinez et al (2016) based on CPR data and focused in the NASPG (50°N-60°N) suggests negative anomalies of Chl-a around 1996-1997. However, we notice that the regions selected by these authors are not exactly those we are selecting (our Boxes) and it is difficult to clearly identify if Chl-a decreased in 1996. In order to confirm the results presented by Martinez et al, we recently requested (22/3/20) Phytoplankton Color Index (PCI) data from CPR (monthly mean in CPR boxes) in the Suratlant regions (<https://www.cprsurvey.org/data/our-data/>). As shown in Figure R1, one observes low PCI in 1996 compared to several high PCI recorded in 1994-1995; that would suggest less production occurring in 1996 and might explain the higher DIC concentrations discussed in our paper. Such preliminary view based on monthly mean PCI calls for deeper investigations using original CPR data but beyond the scope of our present analysis; this would require to reprocess the original CPR data along the Suratlant lines (not only monthly mean products as presented in Fig R1), an analysis to share with colleagues familiar with CPR data to interpret the results.

Regarding your comment, we will add the reference to Martinez et al and change the text following:

“We notice that in 1993-1996 NAO changed from a positive to negative phase and AMO progressively increased in the nineties (Fig. 3c) but no particular anomalies were revealed in the winter observations. Thus, we have no straight explanation for the fast DIC, fCO₂ and pH changes observed during the summers 1993-1996, except that relatively higher DIC in 1996 might have resulted from a decrease in primary production compared with to previous years. This is rather speculative as we have no other information on nutrients or on the biological activity (e.g. no nutrient data for the summer 1996 and not input from remote sensing data at the beginning of the nineties). However, using CPR data over 1960-2010 in both western and eastern NASPG regions, Martinez et al. (2016) identified negative anomalies of Chl-a around 1996-1997 after a sharp increase of Chl-a during over 1986–1995.”

Page 11 line 2-4: Attribution of summer 2005 - 2007 high fCO₂ values. Low productivity and/or deep (winter) mixing suggested. This can and should be checked with satellite Chl and Argo MLD data. For the record, Fröb et al., 2016 (Irminger Sea deep convection injects oxygen and anthropogenic carbon to the ocean interior, Nature Communications, 7:13244, 2016) shows that winter mixing was not deep in these years in the central-west Irminger Sea. Therefore, primary production is the more likely candidate.

Response: It is true that the amount of chlorophyll-a seen by satellite is less important over the period 2004-2007 in the northern region of the SURATLANT transect. This is shown on Figure R2 during the period 2002-2010. North of 58°N, the chlorophyll-a content is lower over the 2004-2007 period than after 2007.

Page 11, line 18-20. This is cherry picking, what about the earlier time periods when the discrete data does not reflect the trends in higher frequency TSG data (such as winter 1993-1998 noted earlier in this review)? The extent to which these discrete samples reflect larger scale variations should be investigated using a systematic approach – not an ad hoc as is currently done.

Response: This will be corrected as: “During 2008-2017, the progressive cooling in the NASPG, found here in both winter and summer data (Fig. 4a) is a large-scale signal (Fig. 3a, Robson et al., 2016; Reverdin et al., 2018a)”.

Page 11 line 31. Write as GLODAPv2.2019

Response: This will be corrected.

5 Page 12 line 32-33. This is also related to the way models do/don't represent winter mixing, see earlier cited Goris et al paper.

Response: We will take it into account.

Page 13 line 10. Last sentence needs revision.

10 **Response:** "However, the length of this period is short to interpret trends highly sensitive to the starting and ending years" will be revised as: "However, the length of the period is short and trend results are very sensitive to interannual anomalies, especially in the first and last years".

Page 14 lines 1-10. The 2010 primary production event is nicely discussed in Henson et al, Unusual subpolar North Atlantic phytoplankton bloom in 2010, JGR, 2013.

15 **Response:** Thank you. This will be added as "Indeed, Henson et al. (2013) showed that the physical forcing caused by the very negative NAO recorded in winter 2009-2010 stimulated spring blooms and not the eruption of the volcano Eyjafjallajökull in Iceland which erupted in spring 2010, depositing large amounts of iron in the North Atlantic Subpolar."

20 Page 14 line 23-24. Please name ship (Skogafoss) and principal investigator (Wanninkhof NOAA/AOML) of these data (it is always nice to give specific and concrete credit to the correct people)

Response: We agree. This will be added.

25 We fully agree that it is important to credit data providers, which is not always the case in many papers, especially when using SOCAT data for global investigations. Note that these cruises were specifically used by Reverdin et al. (2018) to compare calculated and measured fCO₂ (see Fig A1 in Reverdin 2018), but we did not recall these results in the present manuscript and just refer to expocodes.

30 Page 14-15, "Such large changes in pH trends ... would not have been resolved when using fCO₂ data and TA/S relation instead of TA measurements". I am not convinced this is actually the case. pH determined from fCO₂ and TA is not very sensitive to TA, but depends most on fCO₂, which in itself reflects underlying DIC/TA changes; pH and fCO₂ are strongly correlated. I think such large changes could be visible in pH determined from fCO₂ and TA (from TA-S relationship). You may want to check with a simple calculation before making such a statement. (i.e. combine the calculated fCO₂ with TA from TA-S relationship and calculate pH trends.)

35 **Response:** We were referring to calculating pH from observations of fCO₂ and TA reconstructed from salinity. Obviously, if we couple calculated fCO₂ (from measured TA and DIC) and reconstructed TA, the changes in pH observed with the TA / DIC pair will also be observed (see Table R1). Unfortunately, we don't use observations of oceanic fCO₂ on SURATLANT. Thus, we choose to delete this sentence in the conclusion.

40

Page 15, line 11 You state 'indirect methods' but refer to only one, Denvil-Sommer et al., 2019. This generalization does not seem correct unless you compare with other mapped pCO₂/flux products.

Response: The figure S5h in Denvil-Sommer et al., 2019 compares several (four) indirect methods.

Reference added:

- 5 Goris, N., Tjiputra, J. F., Olsen, A., Schwinger, J., Lauvset, S. K. and Jeansson, E.: Constraining projection-based estimates of the future North Atlantic carbon uptake, *Journal of Climate*, 31, 3959-3978, doi:10.1175/JCLI-D-17-0564.1, 2018.
- 10 Henson, S. A., Painter, S. C., Holliday, N. P., Stinchcombe, M. C., and Giering, S. L. C.: Unusual subpolar NorthAtlantic phytoplankton bloom in 2010: Volcanic fertilization or North Atlantic Oscillation?, *J. Geophys. Res. Oceans*, 118, 4771–4780, doi:10.1002/jgrc.20363, 2013.
- Martinez, E., Raitzos, D. E., and Antoine, D.: Warmer, deeper, and greener mixed layers in the North Atlantic subpolar gyre over the last 50 years. *Glob. Chang. Biol.* 22, 604–612. doi:10.1111/gcb.13100, 2016.
- 15 Munro, D. R., N. S. Lovenduski, T. Takahashi, B. B. Stephens, T. Newberger, and C. Sweeney.: Recent evidence for a strengthening CO₂ sink in the Southern Ocean from carbonate system measurements in the Drake Passage (2002–2015), *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 42, doi:10.1002/2015GL065194, 2015.

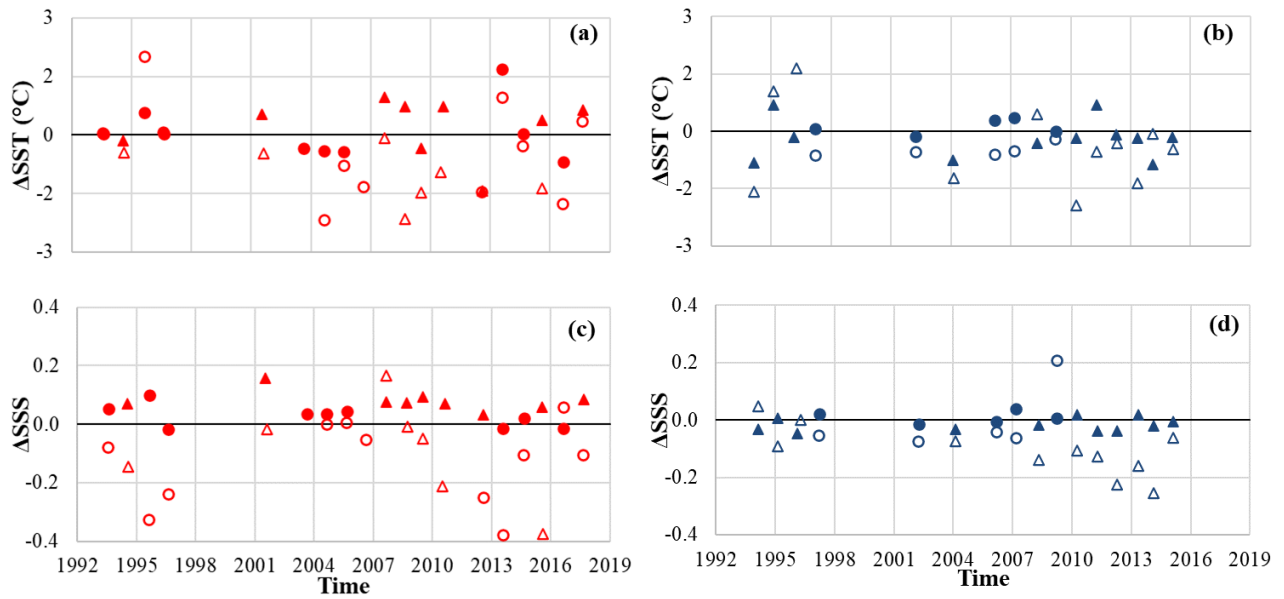


Figure S1. Difference of SST (a,b) and SSS (c,d) between Suratlant discrete data and data based on the Binned products constructed by Reverdin et al. (2018a) and updated data available at <https://doi.org/10.6096/SSS-BIN-NASG>, last access 25/03/2020. Data obtained between 1993 and 2017 during summer (in red, a-c) and 1994 and 2015 during winter (in blue, b-d) in box B (open symbols) and by combining all data in boxes C, D, E (filled symbols). Data from February and July are indicated with circles and the reconstructed data are depicted with triangles.

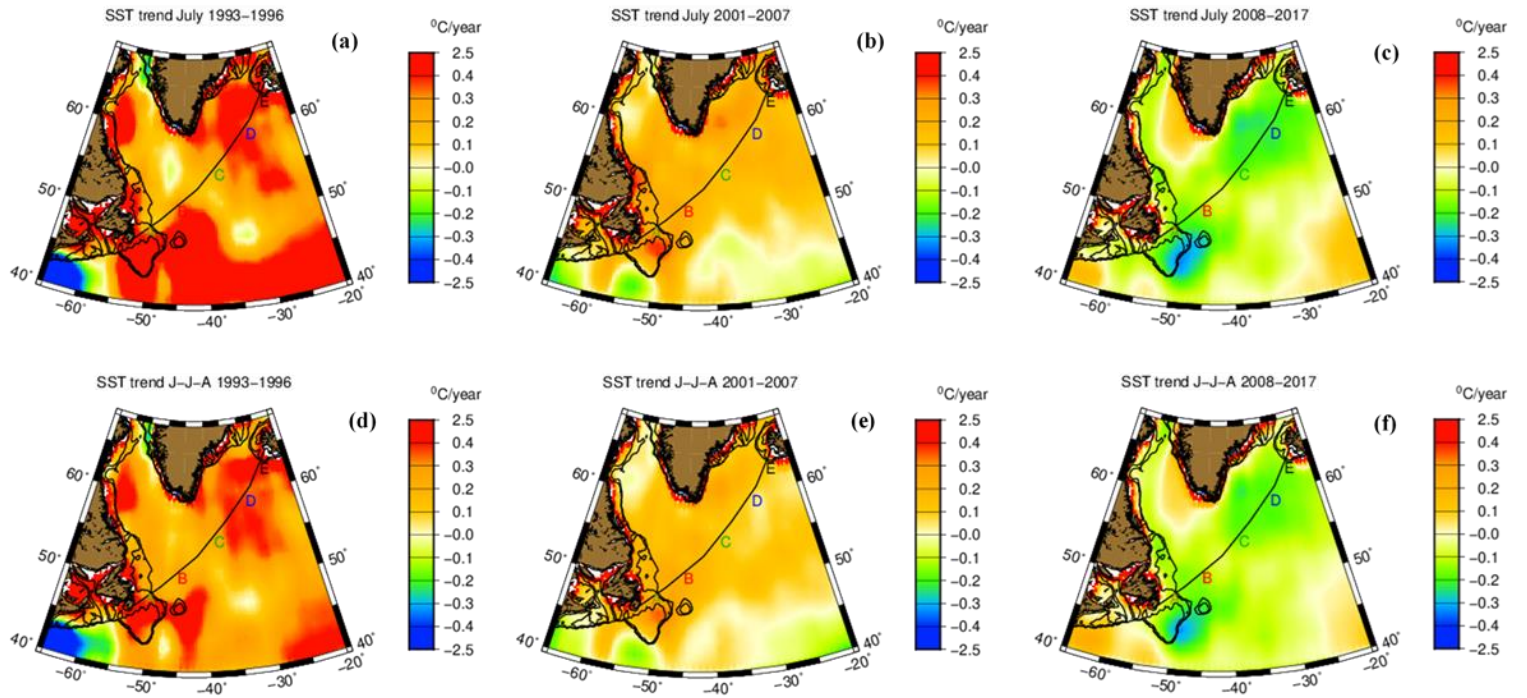


Figure S2-1. Regional SST trends maps from NOAA OI.v2 SST products available in ASCII at <http://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds277.0/>, last access 6/03/2020; for the three periods during summer, corresponding to July for a), b), c) and mean of June, July, August for d), e), f).

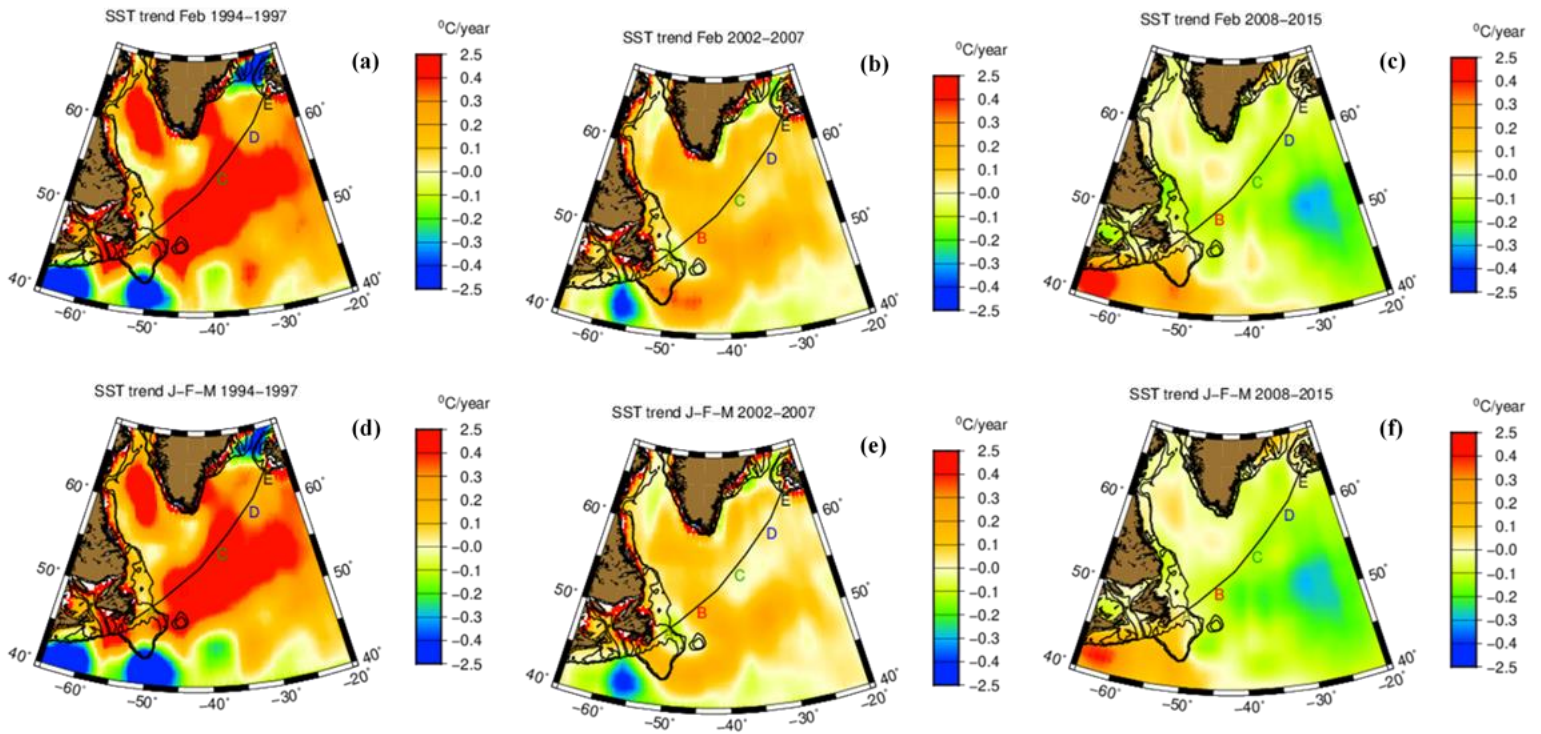


Figure S2-2. Regional SST trends maps from NOAA OI.v2 SST products available in ASCII at <http://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds277.0/>, last access 6/03/2020; for the three periods during winter, corresponding to February for a), b), c) and mean of January, February, March for d), e), f).

Table S1. SST and SSS trends based on Suratlant data (Table 2) and on the Binned products constructed by Reverdin et al. (2018a) available at <https://doi.org/10.6096/SSS-BIN-NASG>, last access 25/03/2020. In bold are represented the significant trends (Student test).

period	season	box	SST °C (yr ⁻¹)		SSS (yr ⁻¹)	
			Suratlant	Binned	Suratlant	Binned
1993-2017	summer	B	0.05 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.02	-0.003 ± 0.000	-0.003 ± 0.005
		C.D.E	0.03 ± 0.00	0.04 ± 0.02	0.003 ± 0.000	0.001 ± 0.003
	winter	B	0.02 ± 0.00	-0.02 ± 0.02	0.003 ± 0.000	-0.003 ± 0.005
		C.D.E	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.02	0.005 ± 0.000	0.005 ± 0.002
1993-1997	summer	B	-0.09 ± 0.02	0.16 ± 0.36	0.042 ± 0.001	-0.025 ± 0.083
		C.D.E	0.60 ± 0.01	0.77 ± 0.19	0.004 ± 0.001	-0.012 ± 0.012
	winter	B	-0.19 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.29	0.045 ± 0.001	0.024 ± 0.063
		C.D.E	0.00 ± 0.01	0.24 ± 0.09	-0.018 ± 0.001	0.001 ± 0.040
2001-2007	summer	B	0.04 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.07	-0.027 ± 0.000	-0.017 ± 0.013
		C. D. E	-0.01 ± 0.00	0.07 ± 0.08	0.013 ± 0.000	0.005 ± 0.013
	winter	B	0.04 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.05	-0.019 ± 0.001	-0.013 ± 0.022
		C. D. E	-0.05 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.07	-0.002 ± 0.000	0.013 ± 0.008
2008-2017	summer	B	-0.09 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.06	-0.013 ± 0.000	-0.001 ± 0.018
		C. D. E	-0.11 ± 0.00	-0.11 ± 0.06	-0.013 ± 0.000	-0.018 ± 0.008
	winter	B	0.02 ± 0.01	-0.03 ± 0.07	-0.004 ± 0.000	-0.028 ± 0.018
		C. D. E	-0.05 ± 0.00	-0.11 ± 0.05	-0.006 ± 0.000	-0.007 ± 0.005

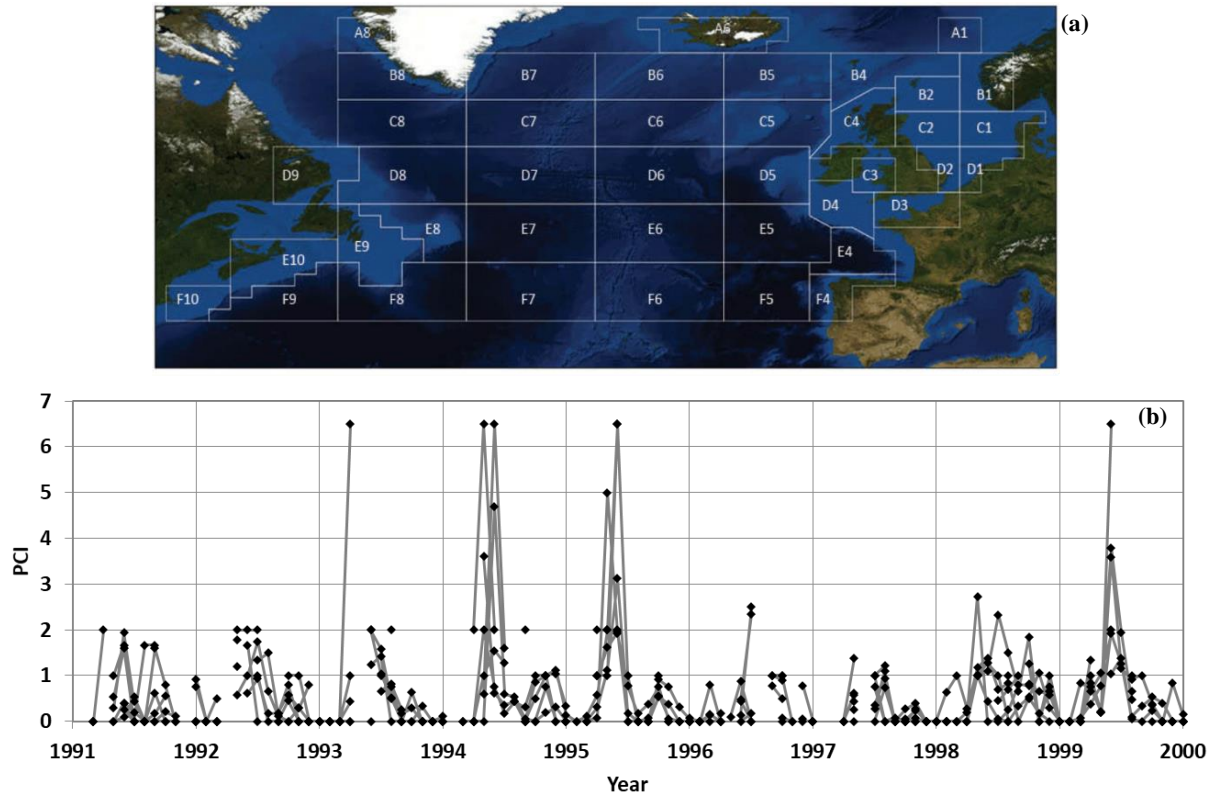


Figure R1. (a) Map of the North Atlantic regionalization of CPR data available at <https://www.cprsurvey.org/data/our-data/>, last access 20/03/2020. (b) Monthly mean Phytoplankton Color Index (PCI) for boxes B6, B7, C6, C7, D6, D7, D8 over the period 1991-2000.

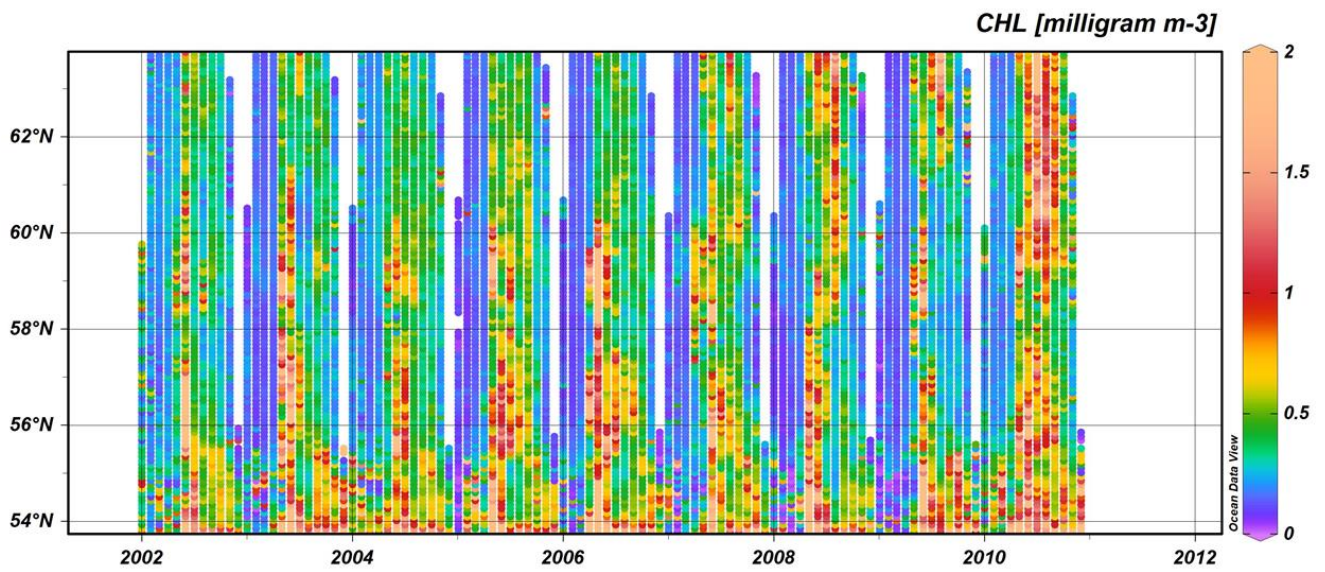
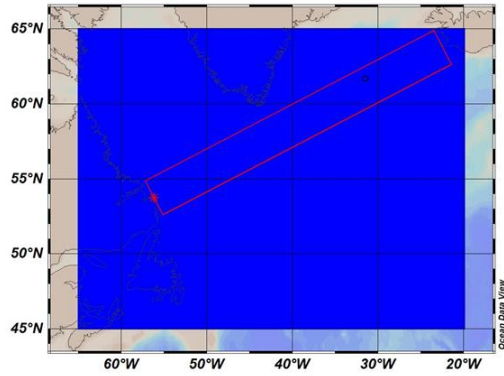


Figure R2. Variability of chlorophyll-a seen by satellite over the period 2002-2010 for the Suratlant tracks. Data used: dataset-oc-glo-bio-multi-l4-chl_4km_monthly-rep, available on <http://marine.copernicus.eu>, last access 13/03/2020.

Table R1. pH trends (per year) calculated by two ways: from TA and DIC measurements or from TA reconstructed with measured salinity and calculated fCO₂ (from TA and DIC). In bold are represented the significant trends (Student test).

period	season	box	pH (TA/DIC measurements) (yr ⁻¹)	pH (TA reconstructed / fCO ₂ calculated) (yr ⁻¹)
1993-2017	summer	B	-0.0017 ±0.0001	-0.0017 ±0.0003
		C.D.E	-0.0019 ±0.0001	-0.0018 ±0.0002
	winter	B	-0.0016 ±0.0002	-0.0016 ±0.0003
		C.D.E	-0.0016 ±0.0001	-0.0016 ±0.0001
1993-1997	summer	B	-0.0146 ±0.0015	-0.0146 ±0.0031
		C.D.E	-0.0166 ±0.001	-0.0147 ±0.0005
	winter	B	0.0076 ±0.0024	0.0076 ±0.0037
		C.D.E	0.0006 ±0.0012	0.0007 ±0.0010
2001-2007	summer	B	-0.0105 ±0.0008	-0.0100 ±0.0012
		C. D. E	-0.0133 ±0.0005	-0.0130 ±0.0013
	winter	B	-0.0061 ±0.0018	-0.0062 ±0.0014
		C. D. E	-0.0076 ±0.0007	-0.0073 ±0.0008
2008-2017	summer	B	0.0052 ±0.0004	0.0048 ±0.0012
		C. D. E	0.0026 ±0.0003	0.0023 ±0.0009
	winter	B	-0.0024 ±0.0008	-0.0025 ±0.0012
		C. D. E	-0.0009 ±0.0004	-0.0010 ±0.0005

Ocean carbonate system variability in the North Atlantic Subpolar surface water (1993-2017)

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Abstract. The North Atlantic is one of the major ocean sinks for natural and anthropogenic atmospheric CO₂. Given the variability of the circulation, convective processes or warming/cooling recognized in the high latitudes in this region, a better understanding of the CO₂ sink temporal variability and associated acidification needs a close inspection of seasonal, interannual to multidecadal observations. In this study, we investigate the evolution of CO₂ uptake and ocean acidification in the North Atlantic Subpolar Gyre (50°N-64°N) using repeated observations collected over the last three decades in the framework of the long-term monitoring program SURATLANT (SURveillance de l'ATLANTique). Over the full period (1993-2017) ~~the trend of pH decreases (-0.0017 yr⁻¹) and fugacity of CO₂ (fCO₂) in surface waters increases (+1.70 μatm yr⁻¹).~~ The trend of fCO₂ in surface water is slightly less than the atmospheric rate (+1.96 μatm yr⁻¹) and the pH decrease (-0.0017 yr⁻¹). This is mainly due to dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) increase associated with the anthropogenic signal. However, over shorter periods (4-10 years) and depending on the season we detect significant variability investigated in more detail in this study. Data obtained between 1993 and 1997 suggest ~~an important reduction in the capacity of the ocean to absorb CO₂ from the atmosphere during summer, due to~~ a rapid increase in fCO₂ (7 times faster than the increase in the atmosphere). ~~This was associated with a decrease in pH (of the order of -0.016~~ summer (up to +14 μatm yr⁻¹) ~~and that~~ was ~~mainly~~ driven by a significant warming and an increase in DIC for a short period. Similar fCO₂ trends are observed between 2001 and 2007 during both summer and winter but, without significant warming detected, these trends are mainly explained by an increase in DIC and a decrease in alkalinity. This also leads to a pH decrease but with contrasting trends depending on the region and season (between -0.006 yr⁻¹ and -0.013 yr⁻¹). On the opposite, data obtained during the last decade (2008-2017) in summer show a cooling of surface waters and an increase in alkalinity, leading to a strong decrease of surface fCO₂ (between -4.4 and -2.3 μatm yr⁻¹; i.e. the ocean CO₂ sink increases). Surprisingly, during summer, pH increases up to +0.0052 yr⁻¹ in the southern subpolar gyre. Overall, our results show that, in addition to the accumulation of anthropogenic CO₂, the temporal changes of the uptake of CO₂ and ocean acidification in the North Atlantic Subpolar Gyre present significant ~~pluriannual~~ multiannual variability, not clearly directly associated with the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO). With such variability it is uncertain to predict the near-future evolution of air-sea CO₂ fluxes and pH in this region. Thus, it is highly recommended to maintain long-term observations to monitor these properties in the next decade.

1 Introduction

The ocean plays an important role in climate regulation by absorbing between one quarter and one third of anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) emitted to the atmosphere (Le Quéré et al., 2018; Gruber et al., 2019). The North Atlantic (NA) is one of the strongest ocean sinks for natural (Takahashi et al., 2009) and anthropogenic atmospheric CO₂ (Khatiwala et al., 2013; Sabine et al., 2004; Perez et al., 2008). Although many observational studies were conducted in the NA to evaluate how the CO₂ sink varies from seasonal to multi-decadal scales and modeling studies attempted to reproduce the observed changes, there are still open questions regarding the processes that control the contemporary CO₂ sink variability in this region (e.g. Schuster et al., 2013, for a synthesis). The uptake of CO₂ in the NA is mainly due to extensive biological activity

during spring-summer and considerable heat loss during winter, both processes being subject to significant spatio-temporal variability related to climate mode such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and the Atlantic Multidecadal Variability (AMV), also called Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO). The recent decades have indeed witnessed large variations of the NAO index (Hurrell index, 2013) which displayed strong positive ~~indices values~~ in the early 1990s, then from 1996 to the early 2000 tended to be positive, and has then been more neutral, albeit with extreme anomalies, such as the negative 2010 event, until again witnessing large positive anomalies in the mid-2010s. The NA has also being at the core of large decadal to multi-decadal variability of the AMV with a positive peak by the mid-~~2000-2000s~~ and a decrease since then (Robson et al., 2018). In the North Atlantic Subpolar Gyre (NASPG, around 50-60°N) where the oceanic CO₂ sink is particularly strong (e.g. Watson et al., 2009), recent years in the mid-2010s have also witnessed particularly large negative surface temperature anomalies (Josey et al., 2018) and an extreme freshening (Holliday et al., ~~2019~~2020). Associated changes in the ocean circulation and water masses in the NASPG are for example presented in Chafik et al. (2014, 2019); Desbruyères et al. (2015); Nigam et al. (2018). These physical processes linked to NAO and/or AMV directly impact the sea surface fCO₂ and air-sea CO₂ fluxes through warming/cooling or deeper convection as this has been observed in the NASPG for specific periods (Corbière et al., 2007; Fröb et al., 2019). However, a direct link of the CO₂ uptake variability with the NAO depends on the period investigated and this is not always clearly revealed from observations (Metzl et al., 2010; Schuster et al., 2013).

Ocean models and Earth System Models (ESM) can help to understand the link between NAO and biogeochemical cycles, but results from models in the NA are still controversial (Thomas et al., 2008; Ullman et al., 2009; Keller et al., 2012; Tjiputra et al., 2012). Keller et al. (2012) investigated simulations from 6 ESMs and found that the inter-annual variability of the CO₂ sink in the North Atlantic is the largest in the subpolar gyre. They also conclude that for winter (i.e. not the productive season) on-site entrainment in the NASPG (mixing and upwelling) is the main driver of carbon sink variability as opposed to advection (Thomas et al., 2008), but the magnitude and responses of the carbon uptake to the NAO significantly differ between the ESM models (Keller et al., 2012). Thomas et al. (2008) suggest that negative or neutral NAO conditions result in a substantial decline of the CO₂ uptake for the years 1997-2004 along the North Atlantic Current region (NAC) and in the eastern subpolar gyre. On the opposite Ullman et al. (2009) conclude that the CO₂ uptake increased over 1992-2006. During the transition of NAO (from positive to neutral), their model simulates a decline of the convection and vertical DIC supply to the surface in the subpolar region, counteracting the increase of pCO₂ due to warming. This leads to a relatively small pCO₂ increase compared with the atmospheric CO₂ trend and an increasing CO₂ sink, while observations in 1993-2003 suggest a reduced CO₂ sink in the NASPG after the NAO shift in the mid-90s (Corbière et al., 2007).

For longer timescales, two decades or more, observations in the NASPG show a gradual fCO₂ increase slightly smaller or indistinguishable from trends in atmospheric CO₂ and that the long-term oceanic fCO₂ trend is not correlated with NAO (Takahashi et al., 2009; McKinley et al., 2011; Fay and McKinley, 2013). On decadal scale the link between AMO and fCO₂ variability in the NASPG appears more robust (Breedon and McKinley, 2016; Landschützer et al., 2019). When AMO enters in a positive phase these studies indicate a reduction of DIC in the NASPG due to reduced mixing, a process that dominates the effect of warming on fCO₂ (Breedon and McKinley, 2016). ~~Consequently since the mid-1990s the fCO₂ long-term trend lagged the one in the atmosphere and the CO₂ uptake is increasing in this region. Such signal is not captured by current ESM CMIP5 models (Tjiputra et al., 2014; Lebehot et al., 2019) likely due to inadequate representation of biogeochemical cycles (here DIC and/or TA). This leads to uncertainties regarding the evolution of the oceanic CO₂ uptake in the North Atlantic in the future (Lebehot et al., 2019). A better knowledge of DIC and TA trends (not only fCO₂) is needed to correct and validate biogeochemical representation in ESM~~ Consequently, since the mid-1990s the fCO₂ long-term trend lagged the one in the atmosphere and the CO₂ uptake is increasing in this region. Such signal is not captured by current ESM CMIP5 models (Tjiputra et al., 2014; Lebehot et al., 2019) likely due to inadequate representation of biogeochemical cycles (here DIC and/or TA) and in part to bad representation of mixing leading to pCO₂ seasonality that is opposed to observations (Goris et al., 2018). This leads to uncertainties on the evolution of the oceanic CO₂ uptake in the North Atlantic in the future (Lebehot et al., 2019). A better knowledge of DIC and TA trends (not only fCO₂) is needed to correct and validate biogeochemical representation in ESM 35 models.

The ~~responses~~ of the marine biological processes to NAO and AMO are much less studied than their physical counterpart. However, and somehow, as for $f\text{CO}_2$, the biology link seems also better identified with AMO than with NAO. Based on the biomass variability detected from SeaWiFS over 1998-2007 in the North Atlantic and supported by biogeochemical simulations McKinley et al. (2018) conclude that “nowhere is the NAO correlated with biomass variability”. The same is true, i.e. no correlation with NAO, when analyzing long-term in-situ observations of marine species in the NA since the 60s (Beaugrand et al., 2013; Rivero-Calle et al., 2015). However, these authors detect significant increase of calcifying species (coccolithophores, foraminifera) associated to the warming in the NA since the mid-90s and correlated with AMO. This increase in calcification would impact the DIC and TA concentrations in summer and thus the $f\text{CO}_2$ trend and carbon uptake in the NA. On the other hand, this also suggests that these phytoplanktonic groups are not yet altered by acidification, a phenomenon known as the other CO_2 problem (Doney et al., 2009). Indeed, the accumulation of anthropogenic CO_2 in the ocean has led to a decrease in pH in surface waters by 0.1 unit since the industrial revolution (IPCC, 2013 - Hartmann et al., 2013). It is projected that surface pH would be reduced by 0.2 to 0.4 unit by the end of the century depending on the anthropogenic emission scenario (Orr et al., 2005; Doney et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2019). This would be associated with a dramatic ~~shoaling~~ reduction of the aragonite saturation horizon at high latitudes, from 2000 m at present up to 100 m by 2100 in the North Atlantic (north of 50°N) ~~due to deep penetration of high concentrations of anthropogenic CO_2~~ . Indeed, these northern surface waters (north of 50°N) have initially low CaCO_3 saturation because of high natural (preindustrial) DIC concentrations due to low temperatures giving high CO_2 solubility. Such fast lysocline shoaling based on a simulation (Orr et al., 2005) is started to be observed in this region (e.g. Vázquez-Rodríguez et al., 2012). Due to the potential threat on marine life, the decrease in pH is now recognized as a true indicator of global change, similarly to warming and sea level rise (World Meteorological Organization, 2018). The urgent need to document and understand changes in oceanic pH and its impact on marine life has motivated more studies in recent years. Among them, the data syntheses from Lauvset et al. (2015) and Bates et al. (2014) indicated that pH is decreasing in most of the surface ocean as a result of the increase in oceanic CO_2 . In the North Atlantic they reported a decrease of pH ranging between -0.001 yr^{-1} in the subtropical region and -0.0026 yr^{-1} in the Irminger Sea. These results have been confirmed at a regional scale. Based on 12 cruises conducted in summer between 1991 and 2015 in the Irminger and Iceland basins, García-Ibáñez et al. (2016) identified a pH decrease in all water masses, with largest change in surface and intermediate waters of between -0.0016 to -0.0018 unit yr^{-1} and conclude that it is mainly due to anthropogenic CO_2 and modulated by change in alkalinity. Recently Omar et al. (2019) analyzed regular surface observations during 2004-2015 in the North Sea; when selecting winter data in the North Atlantic surface waters they found significant long-term trends of $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH of $+2.4 \mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$ and -0.0024 yr^{-1} , consistent with results obtained in the subpolar North Atlantic (Bates et al., 2014; Lauvset and Gruber, 2014). A driver analysis indicates that $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH trends are almost entirely explained by increasing DIC due to anthropogenic CO_2 uptake (Omar et al., 2019).

As anthropogenic CO_2 accumulates each year in the surface and interior ocean with direct impact on both air-sea CO_2 exchange and pH, it is important to conduct and maintain regular observations to follow the evolution of the ocean carbonate system properties and interpret how they vary from inter-annual to multi-decadal scales in relation with physical and biological changes. The aim of this study is to document the recent evolution of the surface CO_2 system parameters in the NASPG and to evaluate the drivers for the evolution of surface $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH for winter and summer. We mostly use Total Alkalinity (TA) and Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC) discrete observations, while other studies are based on observations of partial pressure of CO_2 ($p\text{CO}_2$) and TA/Salinity relations (Lauvset and Gruber, 2014; Lauvset et al., 2015). The observations were collected in 1993-2017 between Iceland and Newfoundland and this extends previous analyses based on winter SURATLANT observations in 1993-2008 to both summer and winter time (Corbière et al., 2007; Metzl et al., 2010).

The NASPG as defined here extends from the east coast of Canada (65°W) to the west of Northern Europe (5°W) mostly north of 45°N (Figure 1). It consists mostly of the Labrador, Irminger and Iceland basins, and the Rockall Plateau and Trough. The NASPG is a region of mixing between subtropical, subpolar and polar surface waters. The inflow of these surface waters is dominated by three surface currents: The North Atlantic Current (NAC), also known in this sector as the North Atlantic Drift, mostly of ~~tropical~~ subtropical origin, the East Greenland Current

(EGC) and the Labrador Current (LC) which are the ~~conducts~~conduits that bring waters from further north and the Arctic (Fig. 1). The North Atlantic Drift delimits the NASPG in the south and transports warm (8°C to 15°C) and salty (35 to 36) ~~tropical~~subtropical surface waters to the north. These waters are then cooled as they circulate in the NASPG due to a loss of heat to the atmosphere, while they become less salty due to excess local precipitation and freshwater inputs from the Arctic and the ice sheet. The East Greenland Current (EGC) and Labrador Current (LC) are the western branches of the NASPG and carry cold (<4°C) and fresh (<34.6) waters of polar origin. The study area is mostly in the central part of the NASPG between Iceland and Newfoundland.

2 Material and Methods

2.1 Data collection and measurements

This study is based on observations collected in the framework of the long-term monitoring program SURATLANT (SURveillance de l'ATLANTique) initiated in 1993. The main objective of this program is to monitor hydrological and biogeochemical properties in surface waters of the NASPG, notably Sea Surface Salinity (SSS) to improve the understanding of the role of salinity on the variability and predictability of climate as well as the water cycle (Reverdin et al., 2018a; Holliday et al., ~~2019~~2020). To this end, two to four cruises per year are conducted between Reykjavik (Iceland) and Newfoundland (Canada) on board merchant ships. Seawater samples are collected every three to four hours from a pumping system (at approximately 5m deep) in order to measure salinity, as well as alkalinity (measured since 2001), DIC, silicate, nitrate and phosphate concentrations.

Underway measurements of Sea Surface Temperature (SST) are obtained using a Seabird Thermosalinograph, with a precision of $\pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$. SSS values in this paper are from sample measurements of conductivity using a Guidline AUTOSAL salinometer done since 1997 at the Marine and Freshwater Research Institute (MFRI) in Reykjavik (the associated error is estimated at ± 0.005). For TA and DIC, the 500 ml glass bottles are rinsed three times before introducing seawater (avoiding introducing air bubbles) with an overflow in order to remove the water in contact with air during filling. The samples are then poisoned with mercuric chloride and stored in a cool, dark place. Since 2001, these samples are measured within three months of collection at the SNAPO-CO₂ (Service National d'Analyse des Paramètres Océaniques du CO₂) located at the Laboratory LOCEAN in Paris. The accuracy is ~~ofon~~ the order of $\pm 3 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ for both DIC and TA based on CRMs analysis and occasional intercomparisons as explained by Reverdin et al. (2018b). Samples for the analysis of nutrients concentrations are frozen just after sampling. Spring or summer samples are filtered before analysis. The ~~measurement is~~measurements are carried out by the MFRI team in Reykjavik according to the standard colorimetric method described by Ólafsson et al. (2010) with an accuracy of $\pm 0.2 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ for nitrate and silicate and $\pm 0.03 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ for phosphate. Details of the sampling and analyses for all properties are provided in Reverdin et al. (2018b). The SURATLANT dataset is freely available and is accessible at <http://www.seanoe.org/data/00434/54517/>. In the SURATALANT data file, each sample and data is associated with a quality flag (based on WOCE flag criteria, i.e. same as used in GLODAP data-base, Olsen et al. (2016). In this study we use only data qualified with flag 2 (acceptable data).

2.2 Calculations of the carbonate system parameters and contributions

Carbonate system parameters such as pH, the fugacity of CO₂ (fCO₂) and the saturation states for the calcium carbonate minerals calcite (Ω_{Ca}) and aragonite (Ω_{Ar}) are calculated using SST, SSS, TA, DIC, silicate and phosphate data described by Reverdin et al. (2018b). For the latter two, we used monthly climatological values derived from the SURATLANT data over the period 1993-2017 because nutrients inter-annual variability does not have a significant impact on the carbonate system parameters calculations (and because nutrients were missing for some cruises). The calculation program used is CO2SYS originally developed by Lewis et al. (1998) available in MATLAB version (van Heuven et al., 2011) that now includes error propagation (Orr et al., 2018). The constants of the thermodynamic equilibrium of CO₂ in seawater used are: K₁ (for the dissociation of carbonic acid) and K₂ (for the bicarbonate ion) defined by Mehrbach et al. (1973), refitted by Dickson and Millero (1987). The

total boron value is calculated according to Uppström (1974) and the KHSO_4 dissociation constant is from Dickson (1990). The adopted pH scale is total scale.

When TA was not measured (notably before 2001), it was calculated from salinity data. The correlation between sea surface alkalinity and salinity in the open ocean can be described with an empirical linear relationship (Millero et al., 1998; Friis et al., 2003). For the NASPG, the original TA/SSS relation used to analyze fCO_2 variability and trend in 1993-2007 (e.g. Corbière et al., 2007; Metzl et al., 2010; McKinley et al., 2011) was revisited by Reverdin et al. (2018b) based on SURATLANT data over the period 2001-2016 (Eq. 1). This equation was obtained for samples collected north of 50°N with $\text{SSS} > 34$.

$$TA = 45.5337 \times \text{SSS} + 713.58, \quad (1)$$

To evaluate the air-sea CO_2 difference (ΔfCO_2) for each sample we used atmospheric fCO_2 values for the period 1993-2017 calculated from the molar fraction ($x\text{CO}_2$) data at Mace Head provided by the Cooperative Global Atmospheric Data Integration Project (Dlugokencky et al., 2018). The $x\text{CO}_2$ data are available at <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/dv/iadv/> last access 06/03/2019). $x\text{CO}_2$ data were converted to fCO_2 at 100% humidity following Weiss and Price (1980), with standard atmospheric pressure- (i.e. 1013.25 hPa).

The trends in sea surface pH, fCO_2 , and Ω are driven by changes in SST, SSS, TA and DIC- (Keeling et al., 2004; Fröb et al., 2019). For DIC, this includes anthropogenic CO_2 concentration (Cant) and the DIC natural component (DIC-nat = DIC-Cant). The contribution of each term for a specific period and season is evaluated by allowing a change in only one parameter according to their observed trend, while setting the other parameters to their climatological seasonal values (Eq. 2). The uncertainty on the contributions was evaluated by performing 1000 random perturbations within the range of the standard deviation of the observed trends in SST, SSS, TA and DIC. The same method was applied when separating the effect of DIC-nat and anthropogenic CO_2 (Cant).

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \frac{\partial X}{\partial \text{SST}} \frac{d\text{SST}}{dt} + \frac{\partial X}{\partial \text{SSS}} \frac{d\text{SSS}}{dt} + \frac{\partial X}{\partial \text{DIC}} \left(\frac{\overline{s\text{DIC}}}{\overline{\text{SSS}_0}} \frac{d\text{SSS}}{dt} + \overline{\text{SSS}} \frac{ds\text{DIC}}{dt} \right) + \frac{\partial X}{\partial \text{TA}} \left(\frac{\overline{s\text{TA}}}{\overline{\text{SSS}_0}} \frac{d\text{SSS}}{dt} + \overline{\text{SSS}} \frac{ds\text{TA}}{dt} \right) \quad (2)$$

Here, X corresponds to pH, fCO_2 , and Ω . SSS_0 is the reference salinity, which is set to 35 (Normal Standard Seawater, Millero et al., 2008) and very close to the mean salinity observed in the NASPG ($\text{SSS} = 34.84$). $s\text{DIC}$ and $s\text{TA}$ were computed by normalizing DIC and TA to a salinity of 35 and assuming a nonzero freshwater end-member DIC and TA concentration (Friis et al., 2003; Reverdin et al., 2018b). The trends (dX/dt) were estimated for each season, each boxes and periods; and $\overline{\text{SST}}$, $\overline{\text{SSS}}$, $\overline{\text{TA}}$, $\overline{\text{DIC}}$ correspond to their climatological values calculated over the same period.

The annual means for measured parameters (SST, SSS, DIC and TA; Fig. 4a to 4f) was determined with standard deviation associated with the averaging of the individual data available. For the calculated parameters (pH, fCO_2 , Ω_{AF} ; Fig. 4d to 4j), the uncertainties consider the errors associated with each measurement of the calculation parameters (Orr et al., 2018). The uncertainty on the trends is linked to the discrete sampling of spatio-temporal variability within the season that we wish to analyze. The uncertainty on the trends is linked either to first, the discrete sampling of a spatial-temporal variability within the season analyzed, or second, to the interannual variability (real or linked to insufficient sampling). If the uncertainty associated with the annual averages is low, then the trend uncertainty will be low and will correspond to the first part. On the other hand, in the case where the interannual (real) variability is high, the uncertainty will correspond to the second part which will decrease the trend significance.

2.3 Data selection-: regions and seasons

The sampled region was separated into five 4° latitude boxes, from 46°N to 64°N (Fig. 1) according to Reverdin et al. (2018b). The southern box (box A: 46°N-50°N) covers the shelf and continental margin of North America and is excluded in the present long-term trend analysis because of insufficient sampling and large inter-annual variations due to fresh waters inputs from continental runoff. Box B (50°N-54°N) incorporates only samples where SSS is between 34 and 35 (to avoid including continental shelf or NAC waters). Thus, whereas over 470 samples with DIC data are found in Box-B for 1993-2017, only 399 data in the salinity range 34-35 are considered (we excluded 38 data for S<34 and 33 data for S>35). For boxes C (54°N-58°N), D (58°N-62°N) and E (62°N-64°N) we used all available data.

The trend analysis and contributions calculations (Eq. 2) was first performed for each box but results of trends and drivers for boxes C, D, E were found quasi identical. Therefore, we present and discuss the results by combining the data collected north of 54°N (i.e., boxes C, D and E). The trends in box B are evaluated separately because properties and their trends (SST, SSS, DIC, TA) differ significantly from the other three boxes. We separate seasons, and the trends for winter (January to March) and summer (June to August) are analyzed separately as they correspond to seasonal extrema of surface carbonate properties (described below in Section 3.1) and these seasons were more regularly sampled along the SURATLANT line (Table 1). Finally, we choose February and July as a reference for winter and summer, respectively. When February or July data were missing for a specific year, the data collected in January or March (for winter) and in June or August (for summer) were used after correcting the observed seasonal anomalies from the climatological cycles described in the next section (3.1). [We tested this reconstruction for February and July data using SST and SSS data based on the Binned products from Reverdin et al 2018a and averaging the bins in the same Boxes \(B and CDE\) used for discrete sampling \(see Supp. Figure S1 and Table S1\). As expected, the differences for SST and SSS are most pronounced for summer and box B \(Fig. S1 a,c\) due to higher variability observed during this season, both in time and at small-scale. For winter the reconstruction based on discrete sampling appears more robust when compared to the Binned products, especially for box CDE \(Fig. S1, b,c\). To interpret our results, we thus are more confident with the trends based on winter data than summer and for box CDE.](#) No attempt to reconstruct data was performed when the SURATLANT line was not sampled for at least 3 months (e.g. winter 2016 and 2017 not included in this analysis and trends limited to 1993-2015 for this season).

3 Results

3.1 Seasonal cycle

As mentioned above, the SURATLANT sampling is not available each year for the reference months of February and July selected for the summer and winter trend analysis (Table 1). [We first constructed a monthly](#) ~~We first constructed a monthly~~ [When no data are available in February or July, we adjust the representative winter and summer data based on the deviations from the seasonal cycle observed in January or March \(for winter\) and June or August \(for summer\) according to equation \(3\).](#)

$$SST_{month(A)}^{year} = SST_{month(A)}^{clim} + (SST_{month(B)}^{year} - SST_{month(B)}^{clim})$$

(3)

[Here, month\(A\) corresponds to February or July, month\(B\) to January or March \(for winter\), June or August \(for summer\) and clim to climatology for each property and each box and used this climatology to complement summer and winter for some years when sampling was missing.](#)

The mean seasonal cycles constructed from data collected over the period 1993-2017 (only 2001-2017 for TA) are portrayed in Figure 2. For nutrients (not shown here) the seasonal cycle was described by Reverdin et al. (2018b). The seasonal cycles deduced here from the SURATLANT data represent classical variability observed in the North Atlantic north of 50°N and are coherent with other climatology of the oceanic carbonate system constructed from different data and methods (Lee et al., 2006; Takahashi et al., 2009, 2014; Becker et al., 2018). Except for salinity and

TA, all properties show a marked seasonality in all regions with maxima and minima identified at the same period for boxes B, C, D and E. For the northern box E (62°N-64°N, black lines in Figure 2), we note some short time variability during summer for salinity and TA (minimum in July) that impact the $f\text{CO}_2$, pH and Ω cycles in this region.

5 The mean monthly DIC concentration (Fig. 2d) is maximum in winter due to deep vertical mixing, presents a steep decline from April to May when phytoplankton blooms start to occur, and a minimum at the end of summer. The mean DIC concentrations are very similar each month north of 54°N (boxes C, D, E) and significantly lower in the southern region (box B, red line in Figure 2) because salinity is also lower [and the temperature higher from June to November](#) in the south. The seasonal DIC amplitude of around 70-80 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ in the north is slightly more pronounced in the south of around 90 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$. Given the variability from year to year, the mean seasonal cycles of $f\text{CO}_2$, pH and Ω_{Ar} (Fig. 10 2e,f,g) show fairly similar variations in all boxes. As the alkalinity seasonality is low, the seasonal changes in $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH are anti-correlated and the seasonal variability of Ω is relatively similar to that of pH.

Although the temperature is +3°C to +6 °C warmer in summer compared to winter (Fig. 2a), the seasonal $f\text{CO}_2$ variability is mainly driven by DIC, i.e. the biological production in spring-summer dominates the effect of warming and deep mixing in winter dominates the cooling effect. 15 The seasonal amplitude of $f\text{CO}_2$ that vary between 50 and 70 μatm (Fig. 4e) is much larger than in the atmosphere (around 14 μatm at these latitudes). Consequently, in a climatological view, the NASPG is near equilibrium in winter and a strong CO_2 sink in summer. How and why this CO_2 sink is changing over 1993-2017 will be investigated in the next sections.

3.2 Long-term trend and [anthropogenic anthropogenic](#) CO_2

When describing the SURATLANT data-set for 1993-2017, Reverdin et al. (2018b) evaluated the long-term trend of properties over a broad region (50°N-63°N). Using data over 24 years (and all seasons) they estimate an increase in DIC of +0.77 ([±0.11](#)) $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$, a $f\text{CO}_2$ trend of +1.995 ([±0.12](#)) $\mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$ and a pH decrease of -0.0021 ([±0.0001](#)) yr^{-1} . Here we re-evaluate these trends in each box (B, CDE merged) and only for summer (July) or winter (February) using observations and reconstructed data as described in section ([3.2.3](#)). The trends for 1993-2017 in each box and season are listed in Table 2 (first lines). The DIC increasing rate ranges between +0.5 to +0.9 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ depending on the season and region. For $f\text{CO}_2$ we evaluate trends ranging between +1.5 and +1.7 $\mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$ and for pH between -0.0016 and -0.0019 yr^{-1} . Not 25 surprisingly, because the same original data are used, the summer and winter trends for each box (B, CDE) are consistent with preliminary results from Reverdin et al. (2018b). From 1993 to 2017, we also observed a warming, most pronounced in summer (up to +0.05 °C yr^{-1} , Table 2), but the $f\text{CO}_2$ increase and pH decrease are mainly explained by DIC increase. The long-term $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH changes are thus mainly attributed to anthropogenic CO_2 uptake. This is also supported by a decrease in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ (Suess effect) along SURATLANT track but for a shorter period, 2005-2017 (Reverdin et al., 2018b), a signal observed at depth in the Irminger Basin between 1981 and 2006 and linked to anthropogenic CO_2 30 (Racapé et al., 2013).

To gain insight in the DIC trends and separate natural versus anthropogenic contributions to the $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH trends, we evaluate the anthropogenic DIC (hereafter noted C-ant) in the NASPG region. Here we use the TrOCA method (Tracer combining Oxygen, inorganic Carbon and total Alkalinity, Touratier et al., 2007) applied to data available in the [GLODAP-V2GLODAPv2](#) data-base (Key et al., 2015; Olsen et al., 35 2016). In the NASPG, repeated observations since 1997 were mostly conducted during summer (13 cruises in June-September). Because indirect methods such as TrOCA are not suitable to evaluate C-ant concentrations in surface waters (due to biological activity and gas exchange) we calculate C-ant in the layer 150-200m only. For the period 1997-2010, we estimate a C-ant trend of +0.6 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ in the NASPG. The anthropogenic signal would explain 65% of the DIC trend of +0.9 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ observed in [GLODAP-V2GLODAPv2](#) subsurface data for the same period [in the region 54°N-64°N / 40°W-20°W](#). Note that we obtain similar results when selecting different periods (C-ant = +0.53 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ for 1997-2007 whereas it is +0.58 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ when restricted to 2001-2007). 40

Recently, a new data-based method, eMLR(C*), developed by Clement and Gruber, (2018) was used to evaluate the accumulation of C-ant from 1994 to 2007 in the global ocean (Gruber et al., 2019a). To compare with our estimates based on TrOCA, we explore the C-ant concentrations from eMLR(C*) in the NASPG (data extracted from Gruber et al., 2019b). Along the SURATLANT line, the accumulated C-ant between 1994 and 2007 is +8.5 (± 1.7) $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ in the layer 150-200m. This would correspond to a C-ant trend of +0.65 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ close to our C-ant estimate based on [GLODAP-V2GLODAPv2](#) and TrOCA method in the same layer. This is not surprising as Gruber et al. (2019a,b) used [GLODAP-V2GLODAPv2](#) data as well. ~~If we assume that the subsurface C-ant trend is also valid for~~In the surface layer, the eMLR(C*) method leads to ~~very homogeneous~~ C-ant accumulation in the layer 0-50m along the SURATLANT line (55°N-64°N), of +10.1 (± 0.8) $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ between 1994 and 2007, i.e. about +0.8 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$. Again, this is in the range of the long-term (1993-2017) DIC surface trends that we report (Table 2) between +0.7 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ and +0.9 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ in boxes CDE (depending on the season). Interestingly, in the region 55°N-64°N winter DIC from SURATLANT averaged 2134.1 (± 2.8) $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ in 1994 and 2145.1 (± 2.1) $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ in 2007, i.e. an increase of + 11 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ almost equal to the C-ant accumulation deduced from eMLR(C*) over the same period. These independent estimates confirm that in the NASPG the observed long-term DIC trend and derived trends for fCO₂ and pH -in surface waters (Table 2, 1993-2017) are mostly linked with anthropogenic CO₂ uptake. The same conclusion was drawn for the subpolar mode waters found in subsurface layers in the NASPG (Vázquez-Rodríguez et al., 2012; García-Ibáñez et al., 2016; Fröb et al., 2018). For example, based on data collected in 1981-2008, Vázquez-Rodríguez et al. (2012) estimated that 75% of the observed pH decrease (-0.0019 yr^{-1}) in the Subarctic intermediate waters (SAIW) in the Irminger Basin is due to anthropogenic DIC. García-Ibáñez et al. (2016) incorporating 4 additional cruises (2010-2015) estimated a pH decrease of around -0.0018 yr^{-1} over 1991-2015 in the subpolar mode waters (SPMW) found around 200-300m in the Irminger basin. They also conclude that in the SPMW the pH decrease is dominated by DIC increase (+0.82 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$) though anthropogenic CO₂ (C-ant trend of +0.9 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$) but this is modulated by a pH increase over time due to an increase in alkalinity (about +0.11 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$). From the SURATLANT time series (1993-2017) we also observe a small increase in TA during winter (+0.1 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$, Table 2) coherent with the TA signal observed in the SPMW layer from data collected in summer (García-Ibáñez et al., 2016). The TA increase in the SPMW layer in the Irminger basin is directly linked with salinity increase (García-Ibáñez et al., 2016) attributed to advection of higher salinity of subtropical origin and also associated with the contraction of the subpolar gyre since the mid-90s (Häkkinen and Rhines, 2004). However, we observed much stronger TA increase in surface water during summer, up to +0.4 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ in the northern region (Table 2, box CDE). Such TA increase would lead to a pH change of around +0.0009 yr^{-1} , counteracting the impact of DIC increase. In addition, when TA is normalized in salinity, we evaluate summer sTA trends of +0.2 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ in the north and +0.3 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ in the south (Table 2) suggesting that the TA changes are not solely linked to salinity and advective process.

At high latitudes in the open ocean such long-term positive TA trend was only observed (to our knowledge) in the Pacific Western Subarctic Gyre (Wakita et al., 2013, 2017). There, in the winter mixed-layer, Wakita et al. (2017) estimate positive TA and sTA trends of +0.4 and +0.34 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ over 1999-2015. This leads to a long-term pH decrease in this region (-0.0008 yr^{-1}) much slower than observed in other open ocean times-series stations (Bates et al., 2014) and in the NASPG for 1993-2017 (Table 2). The TA increase also leads to slow fCO₂ increase +0.9 $\mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$ (Wakita et al., 2017). Wakita et al. (2017) suggested the TA increase might be due to weakened calcification (but this process was not quantified). Therefore, in addition to advection or convective processes, biological process such as calcification cannot be ruled out to explain TA and sTA long-term positive trends observed during summer in the NASPG (Table 2). At the high latitudes of the North Atlantic blooms of the coccolithophorid (*Emiliania huxleyi*) are well captured from space (Brown and Yoder, 1994) and there is indication that these blooms were more pronounced in the 1990s compared to the last two decades, 2000-2017 (Loveday and Smyth, 2018). Thus, in addition to DIC and anthropogenic CO₂, a better knowledge of temporal TA dynamics is relevant for an understanding of fCO₂ and pH changes. It is worth noting that Ocean BioGeochemical Model (OBGM) used to quantify the carbon cycle at large scale are not able to fully capture TA variability when calcifying phytoplankton is not explicitly included (Ullman et al., 2009, who used 1993-2005 SURATLANT data for model comparison). When multiple phytoplankton functional groups including coccolithophores are explicitly parameterized in ecosystem carbon models, the

seasonal cycle of both DIC and TA are better represented in the NASPG (Signorini et al., 2012). The same is likely true to interpret inter-annual to decadal TA variability and explain the drivers of observed fCO₂ and pH trends along SURATLANT line.

Because ~~the interannual variability in summer is much more pronounced at high latitudes due to low stratification and primary production often encountered at meso-scale, in summer than in winter because of the added influence of biological activity~~ most studies focused on winter to analyze and interpret the decadal trends of the carbonate system in surface waters (Olafsson et al., 2009; Metzl et al., 2010; Fröb et al., 2019; Omar et al., 2019). Only few observational studies conducted at high latitudes (Olafsson et al., 2009; Munro et al., 2015; Wakita et al., 2017) showed that the trends of DIC, fCO₂ and pH are seasonally different -and thus driven by different processes not yet fully explained. In a global context, taking into account a seasonal view for the trend analysis is also relevant to better understand the strengthening of fCO₂ seasonality observed over the last 3 decades (Landschützer et al., 2018) and how this would change the degree of acidification in the future (Kwiatkowski and Orr, 2018). Note that the observed trend of fCO₂ seasonality (winter minus summer) in the North Atlantic appears less pronounced than in other regions with significant sub-decadal variability (see Fig. 1b and Fig. 4a in Landschützer et al., 2018). In this context we now investigate the observed trends for winter and summer in more detail and over specific periods to quantify the effect of temperature, salinity, DIC, TA that drive the fCO₂ and pH variations in the NASPG.

The periods 1993-1997, 2001-2007 and 2008-2017 are selected for several reasons. First, as the trends and quantification of drivers are sensitive to the data selection, we only select periods when time series for carbonates data were conducted (e.g. no DIC and TA data available in 1998-2000, see Table 1). This is in contrast with previous work where trends based on SURATLANT data were evaluated over 1993-2003 (Corbière et al., 2007; Metzl et al., 2010). ~~Second, we use a new binned products based on more regular SST and SSS observations (Reverdin et al., 2018a)~~ Second, we use a new binned products based on more regular SST and SSS observations (Reverdin et al., 2018a) to separate periods that present significant inter-annual variability and different trends in temperature and salinity (Fig. 3a,b). The three selected periods present also contrasting SST trends well identified at regional scale in the North Atlantic, at monthly or seasonal scales (Supp. Figure S2). Finally, in the NASPG it is well recognized that decadal and ~~multidecadal~~ multi-decadal variability in temperature, salinity, winter convection and large-scale gyre circulation are associated with the phase of NAO or AMO (Fig. 3c).

During the first observational period 1993-1997 (rather short), NAO shifted from a positive to negative phase while AMO was in a transitional stage and regularly increased during the nineties (Fig. 3c). During the positive NAO in the early 90s, the NASPG experienced deep convection regime in the western subpolar gyre (Pickart et al., 2003). During the second period 2001-2007, NAO was negative or neutral and AMO reached a high index. The convection in the western NASPG was relatively shallow during this period and the ocean surface warmed (Fig. 3a). In the last decade, 2008-2017, NAO was highly variable compared to previous periods, with lowest phase in 2010 and highest phase in 2015 (Fig. 3c). On the opposite, AMO strongly decreases since the late-2000s. During this period, both SST and SSS anomalies present clear negative trends: the NASPG becomes colder and fresher (Fig. 3a,b) during this period also associated with several deep convection events occurring in the western subpolar gyre during the winters 2008, 2012 and 2015 (Våge et al., 2008; de Jong and de Steur, 2016; Fröb et al., 2016; Piron et al., 2017).

3.3 Winter trends ~~at~~ for different periods

The trends and drivers in winter are identified in blue symbols in Figures 4 and 5. During the first period, 1993-1997, the results are contrasted between the southern and northern regions. The strongest change occurs in the south (box B), where we observe a rapid cooling over 4 years (-0.19 °C yr⁻¹), an increase in salinity (+0.045 yr⁻¹) and an increase of TA (+2 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹) that is directly linked to salinity (recall that for 1993-1997 TA was not measured and the TA values are based on Salinity, Eq. 1). Over this short period, this leads to a strong decrease of fCO₂ (-7 μatm yr⁻¹) and an increase in pH both attributed to the cooling and TA changes (Fig. 5a,d), the effect of DIC being minor. In the north (boxes

CDE), we do not observe any significant trend of winter properties in 1993-1997 for SST, sTA, sDIC, pH and fCO₂. As a result, in the NASPG (all region), the oceanic fCO₂ trend does not follow the atmospheric CO₂ increase and the air-sea disequilibrium increases, i.e. the region was a CO₂ source in winter 1994 and reached near-equilibrium afterwards (Fig. 4h).

5 As opposed to the nineties, data collected in winter during the second period (2002-2007) show a gradual DIC increase in the two regions (+1.7 and +2.1 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹, Table 2) higher than expected from anthropogenic CO₂ increase. A decrease in TA is also observed in the northern region but not directly related to salinity. This leads to significant pH decrease (-0.006 to -0.008 yr⁻¹) and fast fCO₂ increase (+6 to +7 μatm yr⁻¹). For this period, the DIC increase explains the temporal changes of pH and fCO₂ in box B, whereas both DIC and TA drive these changes in box CDE (Fig. 5b,e). In contrast to 1993-1997, the winter oceanic CO₂ source increases during 2002-2007. It is near equilibrium in 2002 and a source in 2004-2007 (Fig. 4h) a result previously confirmed with independent sea surface fCO₂ observations (Metzl et al., 2010). At the end of this period, in winter 2007, oceanic fCO₂ was higher than 400 μatm and pH was low, near 8.04.

The last period, 2008-2015, was not investigated in previous studies (Corbière et al., 2007; Metzl et al., 2010). During 2008-2015, the DIC concentrations in winter continue to rise (+1.0 to +1.3 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹, Table 2) but at a slower pace compared to previous years and still higher ~~that than~~ the anthropogenic DIC trend. ~~As opposed~~ Contrary to 2001-2007, we do not observe large changes in TA. In the northern region (box CDE) the sea surface cools (-0.05 °C yr⁻¹), which is not found in the southern region, inducing different fCO₂ and pH trends in the southern and northern sectors. In the north, the low fCO₂ and pH trends are due to DIC increase compensated by cooling and a small TA increase, whereas in the south the fCO₂ trend (+2.5 μatm yr⁻¹) and pH trend (-0.0024 yr⁻¹) are mainly driven by DIC increase (Fig. 5c,f). These trends deviate from the ones in 2001-2007 with different processes possibly related to NAO presenting much more variability during the last period (Fig. 3c). At the end of our time-series and in both regions fCO₂ in winter 2015 reaches the highest value (410 μatm) recorded since 1993, pH the lowest values (8.03) and the same for Ω_{Ar} (1.7). This is mainly explained by DIC concentrations approaching 2160 μmol kg⁻¹ in February 2015 (Fig. 4e). These high DIC concentrations observed in winter 2015 correspond to a high positive NAO phase (Fig. 3c) and ~~correspond~~ to negative SST anomalies (Fig. 3a). It was also associated with strengthening of fresh water coming from ~~of~~ the western NASPG (Holliday et al., ~~2019~~2020), and likely resulted in increased vertical mixing over the Reykjanes Ridge (De Boisséson et al., 2012). The high DIC and sDIC concentrations observed in winter 2015 are not unique to the Irminger Sea. Recently, based on sea surface fCO₂ measurements conducted in winter 2004-2017 and DIC calculated from fCO₂ data and reconstructed TA (using adapted TA/SSS relation), Fröb et al. (2019) report average winter sDIC concentrations of around 2160 μmol kg⁻¹ in 2012 and 2014. These authors also observed high sDIC concentrations in winter 2017, above 2165 μmol kg⁻¹. Unfortunately, we cannot compare these values as we have no winter data after 2015 along the SURATLANT line (Table 1). Although the periods are not exactly the same and methods to evaluate trends are different, the sDIC trends reported by Fröb et al. (2019) are in the same range as here: between +1.3 to + 1.75 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for the period 2004-2017, when ~~our results in the north we find~~ (i.e. boxes CDE including the eastern Irminger Sea) ~~lead to~~ a sDIC trend of + 1.8 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for 2001-2007 and +1.3 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for 2008-2015 (Table 2). Both results show a clear increase of sDIC in the NASPG or Irminger Sea since 2001 (or 2004), and the differences in trends might be also modulated by inter-annual variability.

35 During 2008-2015, we also observe significant inter-annual variability in winter, with marked DIC minima in 2010 and 2013 also ~~seen~~ found in sDIC concentrations as well as in TA and sTA (Fig. 4c,d,e,f). Interestingly, Fröb et al. (2019) also report lower sDIC concentrations in 2010 and 2013 in the Irminger Sea. In 2010, NAO shifted to a negative phase (Fig. 3c) supporting relatively shallow convection in the NASPG and inducing positive SST anomalies (Fig. 3a); the absence of deep mixed layers during these years would explain the relatively low DIC and TA concentrations observed in winter (i.e. less input of high DIC and TA from subsurface layers). In 2013, although the NAO was neutral we also observed lower DIC and TA in winter. It is suggested that mixing was relatively shallow in the Irminger Sea and near the Reykjanes Ridge in 2013, which could drive less renewal of the surface layers by the enriched sDIC deeper waters, and thus negative winter DIC and TA anomalies for this particular year. However, as both DIC and TA decrease, fCO₂ and pH are not strongly changing for these particular years (2010 and

2013) and associated air-sea CO₂ disequilibrium remains stable (Fig. 4h). The strong negative DIC anomalies observed in 2010 and 2013 nonetheless influence the DIC trend for the period 2008-2015: not including those two years increases the trend in boxes CDE from +1.0 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹ to +1.3 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹. However, this is still lower compared to 2002-2007 (+1.7 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and thus much slower trend for fCO₂ and pH are estimated in recent years. As a result, in 2008-2015 we interpret the fCO₂ and pH winter changes equally due to the contribution of anthropogenic CO₂ (C-ant) and the natural component (DIC-nat), whereas in 2001-2007 the natural component dominates attributed to the dynamics in the NASPG (Fig. 6c,d).

3.4 Summer trends ~~at~~for different periods

We examine the trends and drivers in summer over the same periods selected for winter (except for the last ~~decade-period, with~~ 2001-2017 in summer and 2002-2015 ~~for~~in winter). Results for summer are identified by red symbols in Figures 4 and 5. As mentioned ~~above-earlier, a~~ trend analysis in summer was not performed in previous work based on SURATLANT data (Metzl et al., 2010). Here we attempt for the first time to detect trends and processes occurring during this season and how they impact fCO₂, air-sea CO₂ equilibrium and pH changes. Not surprisingly, the temporal variability of the carbonate properties is much more pronounced during summer when biological processes generally starting in spring imprint large DIC variations at seasonal scale (Fig. 2). The biological bloom and its timing may also lead to significant inter-annual variability but as we use July as a reference for summer, we expect to record each year the low DIC concentrations due to accumulated carbon uptake though production occurring in spring-summer.

During the first period, 1993-1996, the most remarkable feature is a very rapid increase of DIC in the northern and southern sectors (+4 and +9 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹). This contrasts with the DIC trends in winter over 1994-1997 (Table 2). Because the northern box (CDE) also experienced a sharp warming of +0.6 °C yr⁻¹, there the fCO₂ increase (+12 to +14 μatm yr⁻¹) and pH decrease (-0.015 to -0.017 yr⁻¹) are particularly fast ~~but~~ ~~we admit.~~ ~~However,~~ the period is too short to clearly interpret which are the main processes at play and derive any conclusion on the trends. We notice that ~~the~~in 1993-1996, NAO changed from a positive to negative phase ~~in 1993-1996~~ and AMO progressively increased in the nineties (Fig. 3c) but no particular anomalies were revealed in the winter observations. Thus, we have no straight explanation for the fast DIC, fCO₂ and pH changes observed during the summers 1993-1996, except that relatively higher DIC in 1996 might have resulted from a decrease in primary production compared ~~to~~with previous years. This is rather speculative as we have no other information on ~~nutrients or on the~~ biological ~~component~~activity (e.g. ~~from~~no nutrient data for summer 1996 and no remote sensing ~~data~~ at the beginning of the nineties). ~~However, using CPR data over 1960-2010 in both western and eastern NASPG regions, Martinez et al. (2016) identified negative anomalies of Chl-a around 1996-1997 after a sharp increase of Chl-a during 1986-1995.~~ The fCO₂ data show that the region was a large CO₂ sink in summer 1993-1995 but abruptly ~~raised~~rised to near-equilibrium values in 1996 (Fig. 4h). In the northern region (box CDE), the mean delta-fCO₂ value in summer 1996 was close to 0 μatm, i.e. about the same as observed during the winter 1996-1997.

The SURATANT regular sampling for DIC, TA and nutrients was restarted in June 2001 (Table 1). During 2001-2007, and as in summer 1993-1996, we observe a rapid increase of fCO₂ (+8 to +12 μatm yr⁻¹) and pH decrease (-0.010 to -0.013 yr⁻¹). ~~Despite having reconstructed July from the data obtained in August (for boxes B and CDE) both for the starting (2001) and ending (2007) years, this result is fairly robust. Indeed, if we do not normalize summer to July, but directly include the June / July / August data, we also observe a rapid increase in fCO₂ of +6.2 μatm yr⁻¹.~~ The summer DIC and TA trends in the northern and southern areas have the same sign (similar as during winter), positive for DIC and negative for TA but not directly related to salinity (Table 2). However, the DIC increasing and TA decreasing rates are regionally significantly different. The DIC increase is most pronounced in the north (+5 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and the TA decrease more pronounced in the south (-3.9 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Although the fCO₂ and pH trends are similar in the two areas, this suggests different drivers for boxes B and CDE (Fig. 5b,e). In the north, DIC explains most of the fCO₂ and pH change, whereas in the south ~~it is~~the TA contribution ~~that~~dominates. In both regions, as in winter, temperature and salinity changes have a small effect for this period (Fig. 5b,e). The rapid oceanic fCO₂ increase strongly impacts the variations of air-sea CO₂ disequilibrium (Fig. 4h). In the north, the region was a sink in 2001-2004 but reaches equilibrium in 2005 and 2007 (no data in

July 2006 in the north). In July 2007, temperature was relatively low (around 10°C) and the high fCO₂ at that period was mainly due to high DIC concentrations either linked to low productivity that year ~~or linked to deeper mixing that occurred that year when NAO moved to a positive phase (Fig. 3c).~~

5 For the last period, 2008-2017, results in summer are very different compared with previous decades as we now observe a decrease of fCO₂ and an increase of pH in both regions (Fig. 4g,i; Table 2). This also contrasts with the winter trends in 2008-2015. The variation of fCO₂ leads to a strong ocean CO₂ sink with low delta-fCO₂ in 2010-2017 (-40 to -80 µatm, Fig. 4h). During the summers 2008-2017 sea surface properties are very variable that might be related to the NAO variability in this period (Fig. 3c), but also to changes in the ship's route in some years or to productivity occurring at meso-scale. This was the case in July 2013 where the sampling took place further north-west (Fig. 1), impacting SST (colder, Fig. 4a) and DIC (stronger, Fig. 4 e,f). However, these anomalies are less ~~noticeable~~noticeable on fCO₂ and pH (Fig. 4g, i) because the effects of SST and DIC partially compensate. Thus, we chose to not consider July 2013 for calculating trends and drivers.

15 Although the inter-annual variability is large in summer, the trends are evaluated over the period 2008-2017 using all available data (except July 2013). For this period all terms (SST, DIC and TA) contribute to the fCO₂ and pH changes (Fig. 5c,f). The DIC increase is only revealed in the north (box CDE, +1.2 µmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹); this is slightly higher than in winter (+1.0 µmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and thus higher than anthropogenic signal (around +0.6 µmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹). However, as the surface ocean cools (-0.11 °C yr⁻¹) and TA increase (+1.7 µmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹), the net effect is a decrease of fCO₂ (-2.3 µatm yr⁻¹) and pH increase (+0.0026 yr⁻¹). During 2008-2017, the progressive cooling in the NASPG, ~~reflected here in both winter and summer data (Fig. 4a) is a large scale signal (Fig. 3a, Robson et al., 2016; Reverdin et al., 2018a), suggesting that our discrete sampling for DIC and TA records relevant changes of biogeochemical properties in this region. An intriguing signal in 2008-2017 is the increase of TA (Fig. 4c) opposed to the decrease of salinity (Fig. 3e, Fig. 4b); this leads to positive sTA trend opposite to summer 2001-2007. Therefore~~found here in both winter and summer data (Fig. 4a) is a large-scale signal (Fig. 3a, Robson et al., 2016; Reverdin et al., 2018a). An intriguing signal in 2008-2017 is the increase of TA (Fig. 4c) opposed to the decrease of salinity (Fig. 3e, Fig. 4b); this leads to positive sTA trend opposite to summer 2001-2007. Therefore, we cannot interpret the observed TA increase directly linked to salinity. The shift of the sTA trend, negative in 2001-2007 and positive in 2008-2017, is an important signal that drives opposite trends for fCO₂ and pH between the two periods (Fig. 5b,c,e,f).

This contrasting TA signal in summer cannot be attributed to error or drift in laboratory analyses as the measurements were performed using the same ~~technics over years~~methods for the whole time series (Reverdin et al., 2018b) and no such signal is identified for winter cruises in 2008-2015. In addition, during OVIDE cruises conducted in summer 2006-2014 in the North Atlantic (e.g. García-Ibáñez et al., 2016), we performed regular TA and DIC inter-comparisons with the ICM/CSIC group in Vigo (F. Pérez) and certified our results to within around ±4 µmol kg⁻¹ both for TA and DIC. Results based on the surface TA samples measured at LOCEAN for the OVIDE cruises in summer 2006-2018 (data in Metzler et al., 2018) also suggest that sTA increases in the NASPG at a rate of around +1.5 µmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹.

35 To support these results, we have evaluated sTA trends in the NASPG from independent data available in the most recent ~~GLODAP-v2019~~GLODAPv2.2019 version (Olsen et al., 2019). For this we selected the data in the layer 0-20m for all cruises conducted in June-August in 1997-2014. We found a significant difference of sTA trends during this period: -0.52 µmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 1997-2006 against +0.54 µmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 2006-2014. Although the periods are not exactly the same and sTA trends from ~~GLODAP-v2019~~GLODAPv2.2019 are smaller than those deduced from the SURATLANT time-series, the changing sTA trends from negative to positive in recent years also features in that dataset. We are thus confident with TA data over time and need to find a process that explains why the sTA trend was negative in summer 2001-2007 (-1.9 µmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and positive in summer 2008-2017 (+2.3 µmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹).

The variability of calcification through the production of calcifying species (e.g. coccolithophores, foraminifera) is a possible mechanism that would impact ~~on~~ TA trends as suggested by Wakita et al. (2017) in the Pacific Western Subarctic Gyre. In the North-East Atlantic, long-term in-situ CPR observations (Continuous Plankton Recorder) showed a significant increase of the calcifying species starting in the mid-90s (Beaugrand et al., 2013). These authors suggest that the temperature (a warming) was the main driver of the positive trend of calcifying plankton. In addition they show that no correlation was identified between the NAO and species variability but that positive trend of the calcifying species ~~were~~ was correlated with AMO, a result also confirmed by Rivero-Calle et al. (2015). The TA decrease in summer we observe during the period 2001-2007 after the AMO moved to its positive state (Fig. 3c), might be explained by the increase of calcifying species as identified from in-situ CPR observations in the North Atlantic (Beaugrand et al., 2013; Rivero-Calle et al., 2015). Unfortunately, we don't have yet direct in-situ observational evidence of a reduced calcifying species after 2010. However, if one follows the proposed scenario for 2001-2017, the TA increase in summer 2008-2017 during the cooling phase in the NASPG could be linked to a weakening of calcification. In this region, this seems supported by the absence of coccolithophores blooms in recent years (2010-2017) as identified from remote-sensing reflectance records (Loveday and Smyth, 2018).

4 Discussion

Our observations collected over the last three decades show an abrupt change in the evolution of hydrological and biogeochemical properties in the NASPG around the year 2007 (Fig. 4) when AMO reached a maximum and NAO was around neutral (Fig. 3c). Following a warming since the mid-90s, the region experienced a large cooling and freshening after 2005 (Fig 3a,b; Robson et al., 2016; Holliday et al., 2019,2020). This change is associated with an increase in the size of the gyre and increased currents along the gyre southern rim (Chafik et al., 2014, 2019; Desbruyères et al., 2015), as well as by a very large heat loss during positive NAO years particularly in 2015 (Fig 3c, Josey et al., 2018). Indeed, NAO was previously recognized as a possible cause of the rapid fCO₂ increase when NAO shifted from positive to negative phase in 1995-1996 (Fig. 3c; Corbière et al., 2007). However, this was not confirmed for the period 2001-2007 when NAO did not vary so much around a neutral value (Fig. 3c; Metzl et al., 2010). For the whole NA, Schuster et al. (2009) synthesized fCO₂ observations over 1990-2006, i.e. before 2007 when we observe abrupt changes in property trends. North of 45°N, Schuster et al. (2009) evaluate a trend of fCO₂ exceeding +3 µatm yr⁻¹ and a significant decrease of the CO₂ sink in the NA by over 50% between 1990 and 2006. They also predict an increasing sink in the subpolar regions following the increasing NAO index in 2007. Although the impact of the climatic modes (NAO and/or AMO) on the oceanic physical properties and circulation has been well established, their effects, if any on the fCO₂ and pH trends need to be clarified.

Whatever the NAO variability, the long term fCO₂ and pH trends we evaluate over 1993-2017 in the NASPG for summer or winter are mainly explained by the increase in DIC associated with the uptake of anthropogenic CO₂ (Fig. 6), that is the DIC or sDIC trends (Table 2) are not significantly different from the anthropogenic DIC trend estimated between 1994 and 2007 in this region (Gruber et al., 2019a). For fCO₂, here calculated from DIC/TA pairs, the long-term trends between +1.5 to +1.7 µatm yr⁻¹ in the NASPG (Table 2) are slightly higher than the mean trend of +1.47 (±0.06) µatm yr⁻¹ evaluated for 1992-2014 in the whole NA (Lebehot et al., 2019) based on monthly reconstructed fCO₂ using a Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) approach and SOCAT-v4 fCO₂ data (Bakker et al., 2016). Lebehot et al. (2019) show that the fCO₂ trends based on observations are much lower than those derived from 19 ESM CMIP5 models, +1.90 (±0.09) µatm yr⁻¹. By performing several sensitivity test analyses on the ocean ESM models, Lebehot et al. (2019) conclude that the discrepancy between observed and simulated fCO₂ trends originates mainly in model's biogeochemistry, e.g. biases in simulated TA- and also related to the way ESM models do or do not represent winter mixing (Goris et al., 2018). This might be especially relevant for the NA subpolar region where some ESM models project faster change of ocean fCO₂ in the future (2061-2100) with 60% due to the DIC increase and up to 29% due to the TA changes (Tjiputra et al., 2014). We also suspect that ESM models used to predict future change of the oceanic CO₂ sink and ocean acidification would produce faster pH trends than what we observed.

If the long-term fCO₂ and pH trends could be mainly explained by anthropogenic CO₂ uptake in the NASPG, at shorter time scales (4-10 years) the trends are very different (Table 2). Indeed, the gradual changes of fCO₂ and pH caused each year by the uptake of anthropogenic CO₂ can be significantly masked by the natural variability of DIC (DIC-nat), temperature and/or TA. To better identify when and why the DIC-nat dominates we separately compute the impact of anthropogenic CO₂ (C-ant) and DIC-nat on pH and fCO₂ trends for each season and periods.

5 The results for pH are ~~synthesized~~presented in Figure 6. The same results are obtained for fCO₂ (not shown), with an opposite sign for each bar plotted on Figure 6. For C-ant we adopt a value of +0.6 μmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹ as described in section 3.2.

For all sub-periods and both seasons, the effect of DIC-nat on pH trend is significant and with similar or higher magnitude than the effect of C-ant (Fig. 6). Occasionally it opposes C-ant, i.e. DIC-nat decreases with a positive effect on pH trend (Box B, 2008-2017 in summer, Fig. 6a and
10 Box CDE, 1994-1997 in winter, Fig. 6d). Over 1993-1997 the DIC-nat effect on pH trends for this short period is opposed in summer and winter, suggesting that this is not linked to changes in regional circulation, e.g. less or more input of DIC from different water masses. For 1993-1997 the largest DIC-nat effect being observed in summer (in the northern and southern boxes), one might suggest that it is linked to primary productivity; unfortunately, prior to SeaWiFS in 1998, we have no direct or indirect information on biological changes to explain why DIC-nat increased in summer 1993-1997. However, the length of ~~this~~the period is short ~~to interpret trends highly and trend results are very~~ sensitive to
15 interannual anomalies, especially in the starting first and ending last years.

Apart for the first short period (1993-1997) the largest effect of DIC-nat is observed in summer 2001-2007 in the northern region (Fig 6b). This period includes a decade (1995-2005) where the strength of the subpolar gyre circulation decreased (Häkkinen and Rhines, 2004, 2009; Häkkinen et al., 2011, 2013) suggesting that more water of subtropical origin penetrates in the NASPG. This would have decreased the DIC
20 surface concentrations (and increase TA as well), but for 2001-2007 we observed the opposite, including in winter (Table 2). We thus eliminate the effect of advection to interpret the DIC-nat increase in the NASPG that impacts significantly on pH trend. As mixed-layer depths are not deeper than 30-40m in summer and present no significant inter-annual changes (~~analyses done using according to~~ the dataset Armor which presents the same variations as the data of product Global Reanalysis PHY 001 030 ~~present on~~ <http://marine.copernicus.eu/>), distributed on
25 <http://marine.copernicus.eu/>), the variation of the vertical mixing during this season is not a likely candidate to explain the changes of DIC-nat. A possible explanation for the large contribution DIC-nat on pH (and fCO₂) trend in 2001-2007 could be a decline in biomass ~~as~~ identified in SeaWiFS data in the eastern subpolar region for years 1998-2007 although the trends for net primary productivity (NPP) appears not statistically significant over 10 years (McKinley et al., 2018). For the NPP subject to high frequency variability the evaluation of trends over nearly 10 years is challenging. Annual biomass anomalies (based on SeaWiFS and MODIS sensors) ~~moved~~changed from positive values in 1998-2004 to negative ones in 2005-2009 (McKinley et al., 2018). To explain the biomass decline McKinley et al. (2018) used a coupled physical
30 biogeochemical ocean model (OBGM) to reproduce these changes and found that nutrient concentrations decline significantly in the region north of 50°N due to reduced physical supply through horizontal and vertical fluxes; their model suggests that enhanced phosphate and silicate limitation over time dominates the light limitation in this region.

Due to limited sampling months and the high variability of nutrients in spring-summer we have not been able to detect such mechanism from
35 the SURATLANT nutrient data. However, the reduced productivity due to nutrient limitations (McKinley et al., 2018) is supported by independent observations of silicate concentrations ~~synthesized in the subpolar NA over 25 years. Hátún et al. (2017) in the subpolar NA over 25 years (McKinley et al., 2018). They~~ showed a decline in pre-bloom silicate concentrations in the winter mixed layer since the 1990s until 2010 and attributed the remarkable silicates changes it to the decrease in winter convection depth and the weakening of the NASPG. This decline of silicates observed over 25 years would negatively impact diatom blooms in spring and favor coccolithophore blooms occurring in summer.
40 Such scenario is coherent with the increase in calcifying species since the mid-90s as observed from the CPR data in the NA during a warm period associated to the AMO (Beaugrand et al., 2013; Rivero-Calle et al., 2015). The shift of phytoplankton species and local or regional intensified calcification might also explain the low sTA concentrations occasionally observed in 2003 and 2005, i.e. lower than for summer 2001

and also for winter (Fig. 4d). The inter-annual variability of TA of around $\pm 8 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ in 2001-2007 is twice the TA change of $\pm 4 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ due to coccolithophores in a biological model applied at 60°N - 30°W (Signorini et al., 2012). The TA and sTA negative trends observed in 2001-2007 (Table 2) contribute less to pH and $f\text{CO}_2$ trends than with DIC (Fig. 5b,e), but nearly the same magnitude compared to the contribution of C-ant. This is not the case after 2007.

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During the last decade, 2008-2017, observations were obtained during a strong negative NAO in 2010 and a positive NAO phase in 2015 (Fig. 3c). NAO presents large inter-annual variation compared to 1995-2007 (Fig. 3c) and a decline in AMO index after 2010 (Fig. 3c). The 2010 event was associated with a warming and freshening (Fig. 4a,b) found in both SURATLANT discrete sampling (in August 2010) and monthly reconstructed Binned products (Reverdin et al., 2018a). In August 2010 the DIC concentrations were very low in the north ($< 2070 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$) compared ~~to all~~with other years since 1993 (Fig. 4e). This was not associated with particular signals in TA but ~~to~~with high $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ as reported in Racapé et al. (2014) and also ~~to~~with higher Chl-a concentration identified from MODIS data (McKinley et al., 2018). [Indeed, Henson et al. \(2013\) showed that the physical forcing caused by the very negative NAO recorded in winter 2009-2010 stimulated spring blooms and not the eruption of the volcano Eyjafjallajökull in Iceland which erupted in spring 2010, depositing large amounts of iron in the North Atlantic Subpolar.](#) The effect of the higher productivity in summer 2010 is to lower $f\text{CO}_2$ and increase pH compared to previous summers. ~~Consequently~~Thus, there ~~is~~was a rapid drop in $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$ in 2009-2010, ~~such that~~ summer 2010 was a strong CO_2 sink. In 2015, when NAO was in a positive phase, the SST anomaly was ~~around~~on the order of -1°C (Fig. 3a): for that year, DIC was high in winter, close to the maximum observed in winter in our time series (Fig 4 e, f). As the temperature also lowers $f\text{CO}_2$, the $f\text{CO}_2$ values (and pH) were not so different from other winters, illustrating the competing effects of cooling and deeper vertical mixing on $f\text{CO}_2$. Although significant changes are observed on DIC variability during NAO events in 2010 and 2015, ~~this seems~~they seem to have a small impact on the trends. After 2007 the positive DIC trends are less important than in 2001-2007 (Table 2) and the contributions of the natural and anthropogenic parts of DIC have a similar magnitude in summer and winter (Fig. 6). This result alone does not explain the decrease ~~of~~in $f\text{CO}_2$ and the increase ~~of~~in pH observed during the last period in summer. Indeed, there is also a significant impact of cooling and as opposed to 2001-2007, an intriguing increase in TA, both leading to decreasing $f\text{CO}_2$ and increasing pH trends (Fig. 4; Fig. 5).

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5 Conclusion and perspectives

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Based on sea surface observations of DIC and TA collected in the NASPG over 1993-2017 we have analyzed the variability and trends of the carbonate system properties including $f\text{CO}_2$, pH, Ω_{Ar} and Ω_{Ca} calculated from the DIC/TA pairs. This study extends to summer and for pH and Ω_{Ar} previous work based on winter data (Corbière et al., 2007; Metzl et al., 2010). It also extends the analysis for the last decade, 2008-2017, after the AMO reached a maximum and then decline and when the NAO was highly variable.

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In the last decade we observed a continuous surface DIC increase in winter in the northern and southern NASPG. In February 2015 when the NAO was in a positive state, DIC ~~reaches~~reached a maximum concentration ($\text{DIC} > 2150 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$, i.e. more than $+20 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ higher than in the 90s). In 2015 pH was at minimum (8.03) and $f\text{CO}_2$ ~~was at maximum above~~exceeded $400 \mu\text{atm}$ and close to the atmospheric $f\text{CO}_2$. Such high $f\text{CO}_2$ was also observed in the NASPG in Jan-Feb 2015 from direct underway measurements (range 405 - $415 \mu\text{atm}$ for cruises AGFO20150115 and AGFO20150212 [\(measured by Wanninkhof NOAA/AOML on the M/V Skogafoss\)](#) in SOCAT-V5, Bakker et al., 2016).

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As opposed to the wintertime DIC continuous increase observed since the 90s, the TA decadal variability is not uniform. In 2001-2007 the decreasing of TA, added to the DIC changes, reinforced a rapid $f\text{CO}_2$ increase in up to $+7 \mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$ and a strong pH decline of around -0.007 yr^{-1} confirming previous studies (Metzl et al., 2010). On the opposite, in 2008-2015 the increasing TA and the cooling in the northern NASPG compensated the effect of DIC increase, leading to much smaller winter trends for $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH, on the order of $+1 \mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$ and -0.001 yr^{-1} respectively.

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~~During~~ summer, the inter-annual variability of all properties is much more pronounced due to active primary productivity in the NASPG in spring-summer and shallow mixed-layers. Consequently, the decadal trends of the carbonate system properties in summer are more difficult to detect compared with winter or other oceanic regions such as the subtropics (Bates et al., 2014; Ono et al., 2019). In addition, primary production often occurs at small spatio/temporal scales and the DIC/TA heterogeneous sampling may have occasionally missed planktonic blooms. In 2001-2007 the summer trends of SST, DIC and TA has the same sign as in winter. This confirms the fast increase of $f\text{CO}_2$ and the strong decline of pH observed during this period. The natural variability of DIC dominates the effect of the anthropogenic uptake on $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH trends, especially in the northern region (Fig. 6). The DIC increase in summer is likely due to a reduced productivity during this period (Tilstone et al., 2014; McKinley et al., 2018). After 2007, the $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH trends for summer are drastically different from the previous decade. In both southern and northern parts of the transect, the $f\text{CO}_2$ trend becomes negative while the pH trend is positive (up to $+0.0160052 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in the south). This is driven by a complex interplay of cooling ($-0.1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$), DIC increase and significant increase of TA more pronounced in summer than in winter. ~~Such large changes in pH trends from one decade to another would not have been resolved when using $f\text{CO}_2$ data and TA/S relation instead of TA measurements, and support the need to couple DIC and TA measurements in time series.~~

Before 2007, we evaluate a rapid $f\text{CO}_2$ increase faster than in the atmosphere. ~~Consequently~~As a result, the ocean CO_2 uptake decreased in the NASPG from 1993 to 2007 ~~coherent, in agreement~~ with other studies (Schuster et al., 2009; Landschützer et al., 2013). However, at larger scale, here for the NA-SPSS regional biome (Fay and McKinley, 2014), the decreasing CO_2 sink in the NASPG for this period is not always resolved from $f\text{CO}_2$ data-based methods that evaluate an increasing CO_2 sink in the North Atlantic Subpolar region (Rödenbeck et al., 2015; Denvil-Sommer et al., 2019). This disagreement might be in part due to missing $f\text{CO}_2$ data for the period 1994-2003 in the NASPG (Bakker et al., 2016) and need to be investigated in further studies. After 2007, our results show that winter $f\text{CO}_2$ ~~increases~~increased at a lower rate than in the atmosphere whereas in summer we observe a decrease ~~of in~~ $f\text{CO}_2$. Thus, the ocean CO_2 sink increases over 2008-2017 (Fig. 4h). For this period this is coherent with the results derived from data-based methods in the NA-SPSS biome but only for 2007-2013. Indeed after 2013 the indirect methods produce either an increasing CO_2 sink or a decreasing CO_2 sink and with a very high variability noticeable in 2015 when the NAO was positive (~~Fig-four indirect methods present on Fig. S5h~~ in Denvil-Sommer et al., 2019).

The observed change of all sea surface properties around ~~year~~ 2007 in the NASPG, as well as a decreasing CO_2 sink before 2007 and an increasing CO_2 sink after 2008 (Fig. 4h) seems rather linked to the AMO than directly to NAO (Fig. 3c) as also suggested from data-based reconstructed $f\text{CO}_2$ fields in the North Atlantic (Landschützer et al., 2019).

The temporal change of $f\text{CO}_2$ and CO_2 uptake around 2007 that we deduce from SST, DIC and TA, is also clearly observed in pH variability. In summer, the rapid pH decline in 2001-2007 is followed by a significant pH increase in 2008-2017. This is due to a changing trend in TA that was negative before 2007 and positive after 2008, a signal observed in both seasons. This unexpected decadal change in TA, also observed in the North-Western Subpolar Pacific might be linked to changes in calcification processes (Wakita et al., 2017). Indeed, it has been recognized that calcifying species in the North Atlantic present significant variations since the mid-90s (Beaugrand et al., 2013). To quantify how this process impacts $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH variability deserves further studies to investigate the coupling of chemical measurements with species observations such as obtained from CPR in the NASPG.

Although we identified significant inter-annual to decadal variability in surface carbonate system properties over the full time-series (1993-2017) the long-term trends of $f\text{CO}_2$ and pH in winter and summer are almost entirely explained by the DIC increase and anthropogenic CO_2 uptake (Fig. 6). The long-term trend of $f\text{CO}_2$ in the NASPG (between $+1.5$ and $+1.7 \mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$) is slightly higher than the mean ~~value~~trend for 1992-2014 ($+1.47 \mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$) evaluated ~~for 1992-2014~~ at large scale in the NA (Lebehot et al., 2019). Our results now extended to 2017 confirm the $f\text{CO}_2$ trends evaluated by McKinley et al. (2011) for the period 1981-2009, and our new estimate for 1993-2017 in summer ($+1.7 \mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$) is not significantly different from the trend of $+1.8 \mu\text{atm yr}^{-1}$ estimated for 1981-2002 based on a few observations in August (Corbière et al.,

2007). However, it is worth noting that in other NA sectors and periods, such fCO₂ increase is not always observed. In a recent study focused in the mid-latitude NA (40-50°N), Macovei et al. (2019) showed that fCO₂ is highly variable with a small trend of +0.37 (±0.22) μatm yr⁻¹ in 2002-2016 implying a significant increase of the CO₂ uptake in this region especially after 2010 when we also observed a sudden drop of fCO₂ in summer in the NASPG (Fig. 4g,h). Our results added to those from Macovei et al. (2019) suggest the ocean CO₂ sink increased in the North Atlantic (north of 40°N) at least since 2007 and until 2017, contributing to the increase of the global ocean CO₂ sink (Friedlingstein et al., 2019). At the NA basin scale this is consistent with results deduced from fCO₂ reconstructed data-based methods (Denvil-Sommer et al., 2019; Gregor et al., 2019) but opposed to the ocean CO₂ sink variability generated by current ESM models ~~implying~~suggesting uncertainties ~~to predict~~for predicting the evolution of the NA CO₂ sink in the future (Lebehot et al., 2019).

For pH the long-term trend in the NASPG of -0.0017 yr⁻¹ is in the range of what is observed in other oceanic regions but we note some differences. This trend is equal to the trend estimated at BATS station but is lower than in the Irminger Sea and higher than in the Iceland Sea (Bates et al., 2014). It is also lower than the pH trend of -0.0020 yr⁻¹ estimated in the North Atlantic Subpolar region in 1991-2011 (Lauvset et al., 2015) and -0.0024 yr⁻¹ recently observed in the NA waters in the North Sea in 2004-2015 (Omar et al., 2019).

Given the large differences of fCO₂ and pH trends at regional scale ~~as~~-listed above, our results among many others highlight the need for acquiring sustained time series of ocean carbonates system ~~time series observation~~ in different regions ~~and if possible over long period as it as~~ has been strongly recommended at the recent Ocean-Obs19 conference (Tilbrook et al., 2019; Wanninkhof et al., 2019).

An understanding of these differences also calls for a comprehensive analysis including a synthesis of all DIC and TA sea surface observations collected in different regions. This should be achieved at an international level as is done for sea surface fCO₂ in the frame of SOCAT (Bakker et al., 2016) or for CLIVAR/GO-SHIP cruises assembled in GLODAP (Olsen et al., 2019). In addition to ship-based observations, the analysis of data from BGC-Argo floats equipped with pH sensors (together with temperature and salinity sensors, from which TA, DIC and fCO₂ can be estimated, e.g. Williams et al., 2017) will help to better constrain spatial, seasonal and inter-annual variability. Such data synthesis would also help to validate ocean and earth system models that at present do not represent correctly the temporal change of marine biogeochemistry as demonstrated by Lebehot et al. (2019) for the North Atlantic.

Data availability. The data set is freely available and is accessible at <http://www.seanoe.org/data/00434/54517/> (<http://doi.org/10.17882/54517>, Reverdin et al. (2018b)).

Author contributions. CL produced the data analyses and wrote the manuscript with inputs from NM, GR and CLM. GR, NM and VR produced the data synthesis. SO provided the nutrients data. JF provided the DIC and TA data.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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