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Temporal variations of mixed-layer oceanic CO₂ at JGOFS-KERFIX time-series station: Physical versus biogeochemical processes

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ABSTRACT

The seasonal and interannual variations in mixed-layer carbon dioxide in the Southern Ocean are analyzed from January 1990 to March 1995 at KERFIX time-series station (50°40S–69°25E). The temperature, salinity and chlorophyll time series are used as constraints on a simple box model to extrapolate total dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), total alkalinity (TA) and oceanic CO₂ fugacity ($f\text{CO}_2$) over the five years of the monitoring. Results of the simulation are compared to all available observations.

Both measured and simulated DIC and TA give seasonal signals of 25 $\mu\text{mol/kg}$ and 8 $\mu\text{eq/kg}$, respectively. In spite of a weak primary production about 70 $\text{gC/m}^2/\text{yr}$, the biological pump appears to play a significant role on seasonal and interannual variations in air-sea CO₂ exchanges. Its contribution varies from 10 to 45% of the total sea surface $f\text{CO}_2$ variations depending on the period. This area has been a sink for atmospheric CO₂ with annual mean values of -0.8 to -3.0 $\text{mol/m}^2/\text{yr}$ during the whole period investigated. Annually the CO₂ sink is due to the balance between biological activity and mixing processes on $f\text{CO}_2$ inducing thermodynamically mediated variations. The sink's interannual variations appear to be mainly due to the high variability of the wind speeds and hence, of the mixed-layer depth.

The impact of the anthropogenic atmospheric CO₂ increase on oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$ is also investigated. The rate of increase of oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$ (0.6 $\mu\text{atm/yr}$) was half that of atmospheric $f\text{CO}_2$ (1.2 $\mu\text{atm/yr}$). The increase of the air-sea CO₂ gradient lead to an increase of the CO₂ sink of about 0.07 $\text{mol/m}^2/\text{yr}$ (0.02 GtC/yr) over the five years investigated.

1. Introduction

Since the end of the eighteenth century, burned fossil fuel derived from industrial activity has resulted in an increase in atmospheric carbon dioxide (Keeling *et al.*, 1989). This increase may have an impact on the climate through the greenhouse effect and may ultimately result in a global temperature change. It appears from atmospheric CO₂ measurements that about half of the total fossil fuel emissions has remained in the atmosphere; the other half has been absorbed by terrestrial and oceanic compartments

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(Siegenthaler and Sarmiento, 1993). The amount of CO₂ absorbed by terrestrial and oceanic compartments as derived from direct or indirect estimates still exhibit large uncertainties (Houghton *et al.*, 1996). As long as the spatio-temporal variation of CO₂ exchanges among the three reservoirs is not known, long-term climate prediction will remain uncertain.

There are some good reasons to believe that the Antarctic Ocean (located south of the polar front) may have an important role in the air-sea CO₂ exchanges. On the one hand, it represents 12% of the global oceanic area. On the other hand, it is characterized by high wind speeds which favor gas exchange at the air-sea interface. A recent study has suggested that the future global carbon budget is mainly controlled by changes in Southern Ocean circulation (Sarmiento and Le Quéré, 1996).

The Southern Ocean is the least documented ocean. The scarcity of CO₂ data may be the cause of the wide range of estimates of the net air-sea CO₂ flux in the southern hemisphere. Atmospheric inverse models predict the Southern Ocean to be a source (see for example Tans *et al.*, 1990), whereas the oceanic data or models predict the Southern Ocean to be a sink (Sarmiento *et al.*, 1992). At the same time, *in situ* observations exhibit large spatial/temporal variabilities (Takahashi *et al.*, 1993; Poisson *et al.*, 1993). Indeed, even if most of the measurements carried out during the summer period demonstrate that this area is a net sink of CO₂ (Murphy *et al.*, 1991; Metzl *et al.*, 1995; Robertson and Watson, 1995), some source areas, such as the Kerguelen Plateau in the Indian sector, may exist (Poisson *et al.*, 1994). Only a few measurements are available for the winter period. Nonetheless, measurements in the Weddel gyre reveal some CO₂ sinks during the winter period (Hoppema *et al.*, 1995; Stoll *et al.*, 1998). Unfortunately, seasonal and shorter term variability is not very well documented for this remote area. The recent climatology of Takahashi *et al.* (1997) based on air-sea pCO₂ measurements suggests that this area is undersaturated all year round with an average of about $-8 \mu\text{atm}$.

To clearly understand the discrepancies in the various models mentioned above and to characterize the time/space resolution of the variability in the Southern Ocean, a first step could be a study of the process using the time series of atmospheric, biogeochemical and physical data. Due to the Southern Ocean distance and harshness, only a few programs have provided vital background information with respect to seasonal and interannual variability.

Now, however, a set of field measurements, including carbon parameters, has been obtained in the Southern Ocean by a five-year time series monitoring program (French JGOFS Program) called KERFIX (KERguelen island FIXe station). The KERFIX time series program, representing the open Antarctic Ocean, the so-called POOZ (Permanently Open Ocean Zone, Tréguer and Jacques, 1992) provided biogeochemical and physical data sets (Jeandel *et al.*, 1999), which may be used to evaluate the carbon budget and its temporal variability. The KERFIX site is located at 50°40S and 69°25E, southwest of Kerguelen Island and south of the Polar front (Fig. 1).

The aim of this study is to analyze the variation of air-sea CO₂ exchange at seasonal and

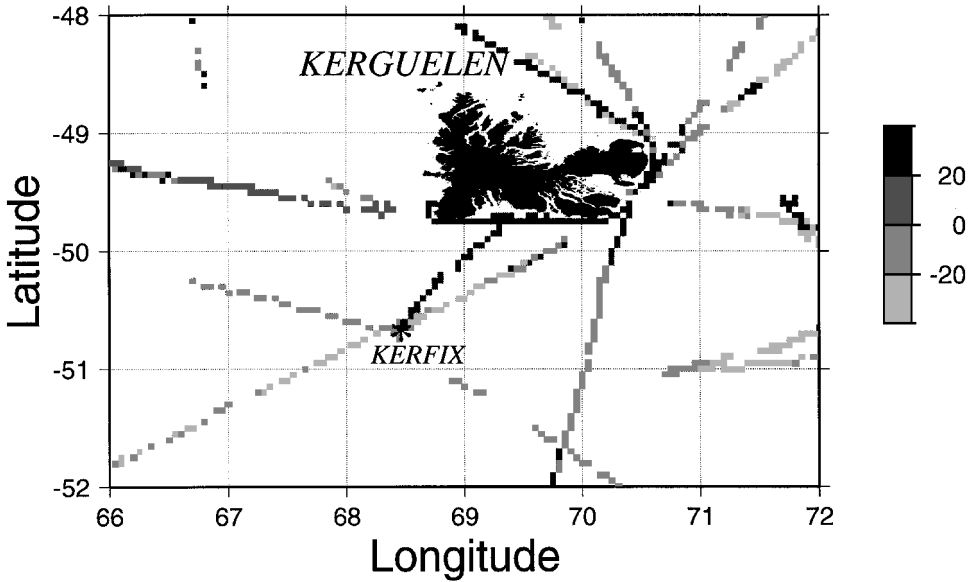


Figure 1. Location of the KERFIX time-series station. The air-sea CO₂ gradient ($\Delta f\text{CO}_2$) is expressed in μatm and shows strong variability. These data are extracted from MINERVE (Mesures à l'Interface Eau-air de la Variabilité des Echanges de CO₂) cruises, which occurred in austral summer or fall periods in 1991 or 1993 (Louanchi, 1995).

interannual time scales by using KERFIX measurements and modeling techniques. The temporal variations of physical and biogeochemical processes were studied with regard to their impacts on the oceanic surface carbon cycle.

The KERFIX data (physical and biological) for the mixed layer will be presented in the first section. These data are used to constrain a model to extrapolate KERFIX information to seasonal and interannual time scales. The simple one-dimensional biogeochemical model is briefly described in the second section. The model results in terms of CO₂ seasonal and interannual variations are discussed in the third section. The impact of the natural processes involved in the oceanic carbon cycle on the air-sea CO₂ exchanges at seasonal and interannual time scale are quantified in the fourth and fifth sections, respectively. Finally, the impact of the anthropogenic atmospheric CO₂ increase on the air-sea CO₂ exchange is investigated for the KERFIX area.

2. KERFIX data

During the five years at KERFIX, monthly profiles of temperature, salinity, chlorophyll concentrations, total dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), total alkalinity (TA) and nutrients were acquired (see Jeandel *et al.*, 1999 for a complete description of the program). This study will focus on the hydrological parameters (temperature and salinity), DIC, TA, nitrate and chlorophyll and their variability in time at the site.

The area around KERFIX presents much dynamic variability due to the Kerguelen Plateau in the eastern part and the polar front in the northern part. This variability is here illustrated by the air-sea CO_2 fugacity gradient ($\Delta f\text{CO}_2$) distribution obtained by a synthesis of available data from this area (Fig. 1). Indeed, CO_2 undersaturations as well as neutral and CO_2 supersaturations were observed. As determined from MINERVE cruises (Poisson *et al.*, 1994), the KERFIX site and surrounding region was a CO_2 sink for most of the austral summer and fall (Fig. 1), and an increase of about $10 \mu\text{atm}$ was observed from February to April (Louanchi, 1995). The Kerguelen Plateau area exhibits the largest spatial variability reaching $50 \mu\text{atm}$ and the meridional $f\text{CO}_2$ variability across the Polar front is also quite large (Poisson *et al.*, 1993). The KERFIX site location was chosen according to practical constraints but also to avoid the Kerguelen island and polar front effects.

Figure 2 shows hydrological (T, S) and biological (Chl) mean values obtained in the mixed layer at KERFIX from January 1990 until March 1995. Satellite-derived wind speeds (Boutin and Etcheto, 1996) extracted for the nearest KERFIX location (50S–70E) and mixed-layer depth are also shown. Most of these parameters show a clear and marked seasonal cycle, except the wind speeds and the salinities which are more variable at interannual time scale.

Satellite-derived wind speeds show high levels all year round (Fig. 2a). The December–May level is about 8–11 m/s and the June–November level is about 12–14 m/s. The winds are particularly intense in late winter and spring between September and November. The averaged wind speed over the five years is 11.4 m/s. These high wind speeds increase the exchange of gases at the air-sea interface, as demonstrated previously by Liss and Merlivat (1986).

The monthly mixed-layer depths (MLD) (Fig. 2b) are deduced using the maximum density gradient criterion (based on observed profiles of discrete temperature and salinity measurements, see Park *et al.*, 1999). A summer (December–February) deep mixed-layer regime with values of about 60 m is encountered in this area, except for February 92 when the mixed-layer depth reaches 30 m. In winter period (June–September), the depth of the mixed-layer goes down to 200–240 m. A great interannual variability can be observed, particularly during the winter season. The temperature distribution (Fig. 2c) shows maximal values of about 4°C in February and March. Then the temperature decreases through August following the MLD increase (Fig. 2b). The seasonal temperature amplitude is always lower than 3°C in this area. The mean mixed-layer salinity (Fig. 2d) shows seasonal variations that are always lower than 0.15. A decreasing trend of the temperature starting in 1992 is observed, associated with an increasing trend of both MLD and salinity. These latter trends are consistent with the Antarctic Circumpolar Wave (ACW) propagation in the Southern Ocean (White and Peterson, 1996) and ACW appears to mainly drive interannual variability of hydrographic parameters around the KERFIX area (Ruiz-Pino *et al.*, in prep). Chlorophyll concentrations (Fig. 2e) reveal the occurrence of blooms during the period of stratification of the mixed layer. Indeed, Chl appears to vary from minimal values during the winter to reach 1.4 mg/m^3 during the summer period following the

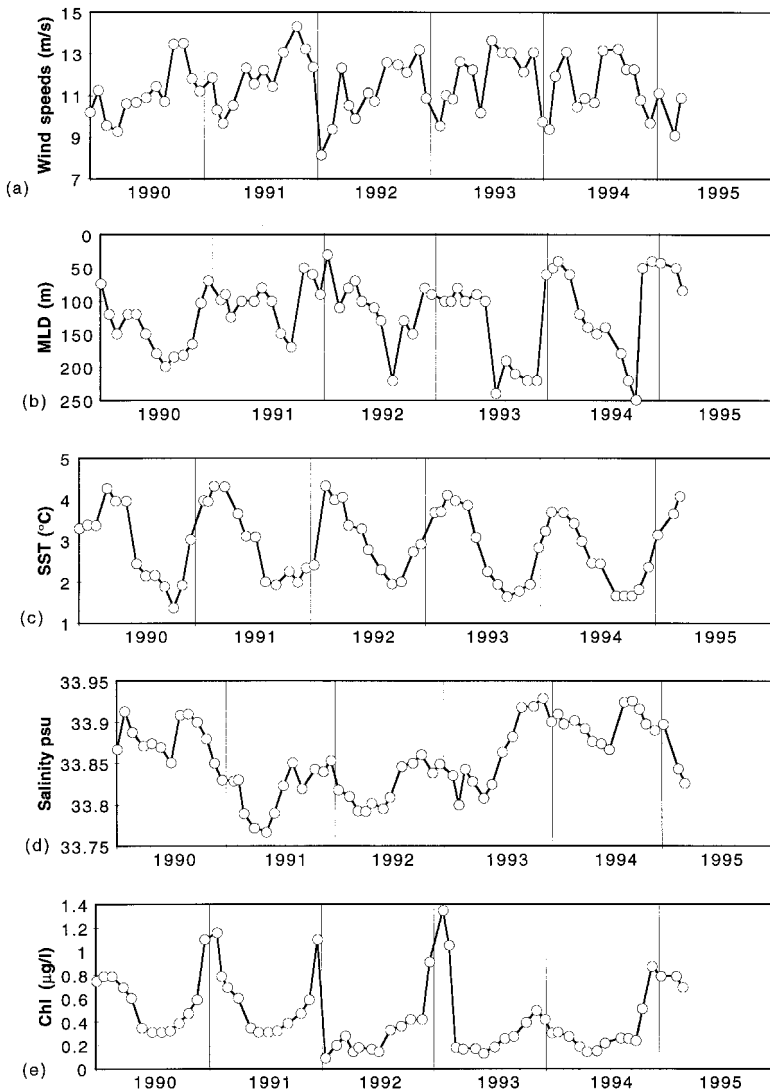


Figure 2. Distribution of monthly (a) wind speeds derived from satellite (Boutin and Etcheto, 1996), (b) Mixed-layer depth (calculated from the density profile for each period measurement) (c) temperature, (d) salinity, and (e) chlorophyll concentrations are the mean observations in the mixed-layer depth at KERFIX from 1990 to 1995.

stratification of the mixed layer. These values seem to be higher by 1 mg/m³ than previous data reported by Jacques and Minas (1981) or Tréguer and Jacques (1992) for the POOZ area which is classified as a High-Nutrient/Low-Chlorophyll (HNLC) system (Minas and Minas, 1992). Cruises in mid to late summer (February to April) missed the maximal bloom. The chlorophyll concentration also presents a strong interannual variability. While

a low level of Chl biomass was measured in January 1992, an intense bloom was reported in December 1992 through February 1993. In contrast, a low level of chlorophyll is observed during the spring period in 1993 probably due to the deep mixed layer (Fig. 2b).

Located at the well-known roaring fifties, the high wind speed encountered at KERFIX would, therefore, lead to high levels of CO_2 exchanges at the air-sea interface. Because wind speeds are higher in September-October, a higher level of surface CO_2 during late winter rather than during summer might be expected. Moreover, the mixed layer exchanges CO_2 with the atmosphere but also with subsurface layers. In the ocean, the subsurface layers are enhanced in CO_2 by biological oxidation and solubility pump processes. On the contrary, in the surface oceanic layers, photosynthetic organisms reduce the CO_2 concentrations. This CO_2 surface-subsurface gradient induces an enhancement in surface CO_2 due to entrainment when the depth of the mixed layer increases during winter time. The Chl seasonal variation suggests that the CO_2 level in the mixed layer will be lower in summer than in winter. All these processes predetermine an increase of mixed-layer total CO_2 content (DIC) from summer through late winter. However, in terms of $f\text{CO}_2$ seasonal changes, one has to take into account the influence of SST variations which act as a counter-balance on a seasonal basis. Indeed, an increase of the temperature leads to an increase of the $f\text{CO}_2$ following the thermodynamical equilibrium of the DIC species (dissolved CO_2 , carbonate and bicarbonate). A maximum $f\text{CO}_2$ level is then supposed to occur in summer period and a minimum around September. Moreover, an increase of temperature reduces the CO_2 solubility in the ocean leading to a CO_2 out-gasing under equilibrium conditions.

Less TA and DIC measurements were obtained during the five years than those obtained for hydrographical and biological properties. To analyze the air-sea CO_2 exchange at KERFIX station, it is necessary to get CO_2 information at the same time scale as the hydrographical parameters. Thus, to extrapolate the CO_2 parameters into the mixed layer, a simple biogeochemical model is used. Before the description of the one-dimensional (1D) model, the method of measurements of DIC and TA is briefly outlined below.

3. Modeling the CO_2 temporal distribution in the ocean mixed layer

a. Measurements of TA and DIC

Measurements of TA and DIC are adapted from the potentiometric method described by Edmond (1970). Samples of seawater are titrated with strong acid (HCl 0.1N) by using a burette Radiometer ABU 80 and a pHmeter Radiometer PHM80. The TA and DIC are calculated following the method of "US Department of Energy" (DOE, 1991). The acid is calibrated by using the samples prepared by Dr. Andrew Dickson (Scripps, La Jolla, California). For DIC and TA measurements, the potentiometric method gave accuracies of about $5 \mu\text{eq/kg}$ (0.3%) and $4 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ (0.2%), respectively (Poisson *et al.*, 1990) during the first period of KERFIX survey (1990–1992). Some calibration problems appeared for DIC results and the data obtained between 1990 and 1992 had to be discarded. During the year

1993, the accuracies of the measurements reach $1.4 \mu\text{eq/kg}$ for TA (0.06%) and $3.2 \mu\text{mol/kg}$ for DIC (0.14%).

b. Brief description of the model

A model is used to extrapolate the CO_2 variations over the five years of KERFIX monitoring. The model allows us to parameterize the main processes controlling the CO_2 in the oceanic mixed layer. These processes are the air-sea exchange, the carbonate chemistry, the phytoplankton uptake and release, and the exchange between surface and subsurface layers. In the model, each process contribution is calculated using the variation in wind-speed (W), mixed-layer depth (MLD), temperature (SST), salinity (S) and chlorophyll (Chl). Hence, the KERFIX data are used as constraints of the CO_2 seasonal and interannual interpolation. A direct horizontal advection parameterization is not taken into account in this model since this effect is probably weak on a monthly scale. MLD , S , SST and Chl constraints already contain some informations about the physical properties of the area. Moreover, the eastward circumpolar current partly smoothes the west-east distributions of DIC in the Antarctic Ocean. The expression of the $f\text{CO}_2$ variations with time is thus:

$$(\delta f/\delta t) = (\delta f/\delta t)_F + (\delta f/\delta t)_M + (\delta f/\delta t)_T + (\delta f/\delta t)_B \quad (1)$$

where subscript F , M , T and B represent air-sea exchange, mixing, temperature and biological effects, respectively. The equations of the model are based on month-to-month budget calculations. The contributions of the processes are added to obtain the total CO_2 fugacity variation. Each term of Eq. (1), except the thermal component, is derived from DIC and TA variations. The conversion from DIC and TA variations to $f\text{CO}_2$ variations is done by using Goyet and Poisson (1989) dissociation constants.

The CO_2 air-sea exchange is calculated according to Wanninkhof (1992) and is constrained monthly by the wind speed, the temperature and salinity and the mixed-layer depth variations. The result of this contribution is given in terms of DIC variations. Vertical mixing affects Inorganic Nitrogen (IN), DIC and TA and includes entrainment and mixing. Entrainment of subsurface properties into the surface layer is calculated at each time-step according to Peng *et al.* (1987) as a function of the mixed-layer depth. The mixing effect is constrained by the mixed-layer depth variations and is represented by an input of subsurface properties by entrainment. The thermodynamical effect on $f\text{CO}_2$ is constrained monthly by the variations of temperature and salinity. It is directly calculated using the polynomial of Goyet *et al.* (1993). The biological effect on $f\text{CO}_2$ includes both uptake and mineralization of CO_2 and will be presented as a net effect in the whole study. It is constrained by the variations of chlorophyll concentrations in the mixed layer. It contains the effect on $f\text{CO}_2$ by photosynthesis/respiration and CaCO_3 precipitation. Results of the biological effect are expressed in terms of IN variations and translated into carbon and alkalinity by using constant Redfield ratio. The equations in terms of IN, DIC and TA are

presented in the Appendix for each process (see also Louanchi *et al.*, 1996; 1999; Metzl *et al.*, 1999).

The subsurface properties are taken to be invariant. The constraints (T, S, MLD, wind speed, Chl) are linearly interpolated from one month to another because of the daily model time-step. Initial profiles of DIC, TA and IN are taken from the KERFIX 1993 observations. In this model, it is not necessary to define initial surface properties, as the system stabilizes after three years running. However, it is sensitive to subsurface property definitions as pointed out by Peng *et al.* (1987). The depth of the pycnocline is chosen as a reference level for subsurface property concentrations which are derived from 1993 observed profiles. Then the model's spin-up is realized by running it first on year 1990 until stabilization to January 1990 conditions. During the spin-up, atmospheric CO₂ concentration is kept constant at 351.9 ppm (the value observed at Palmer station on average in 1990, Conway *et al.*, 1994). The model is applied to KERFIX station data (presented in Fig. 2) from 1990 to 1995 taking into account an increase of atmospheric CO₂ by 1.2 ppm/yr. No seasonal variation of CO₂ in the atmosphere is taken into account as it is about 1–2 ppm in this area (Ramonet, 1994). Results of this application are presented below.

c. Difference between observed and simulated surface CO₂ distributions in the oceanic mixed-layer

Figure 3 presents available KERFIX DIC, TA and *f*CO₂ data over the 1990–1995 period together with the results of the model. The standard deviation on the DIC and TA data represents the variability of both parameters in the mixed layer (8 μmol/kg and 5 μeq/kg, respectively). The accuracy of the infra-red continuous method of measurements for pCO₂ is less than 1 ppm (0.3%) (Poisson *et al.*, 1993).

The seasonal DIC variations appear clearly in Figure 3a. Both observed and simulated DIC show an increase of 25 μmol from summer to winter. A difference between data and model of 0.4% is observed for the year 1993, which represents about 8 μmol/kg on average. This difference remains of the same order of magnitude as the measurement accuracy and/or the mixed-layer variability. DIC measured variations are well reproduced by the model. DIC seasonal variation reflects a Net Community Production (NCP) of about 30 gC/m²/yr, which is approximately half of the primary production at KERFIX (Pondaven *et al.*, 1998). Therefore, an *f*-ratio of about 0.5 can be derived for this area for spring–summer period and is in good agreement with earlier studies (Minas and Minas, 1992). The observed seasonal or interannual changes in alkalinity remain low (Fig. 3b), following more or less the surface salinity distributions (Fig. 2d). The range of TA values is well reproduced by the model with an amplitude of variations about 8 μmol. However, the modeled TA seasonal variations are not in phase with the observed ones. As the KERFIX area is dominated by dinoflagellates and diatoms, phytoplankton species and only a few coccolithophorids are present there, the CaCO₃ precipitation is probably overestimated in the model (see Appendix). However, TA variations are low at KERFIX and hence, have a small impact on *f*CO₂ distributions as we will see below. The oceanic simulated and

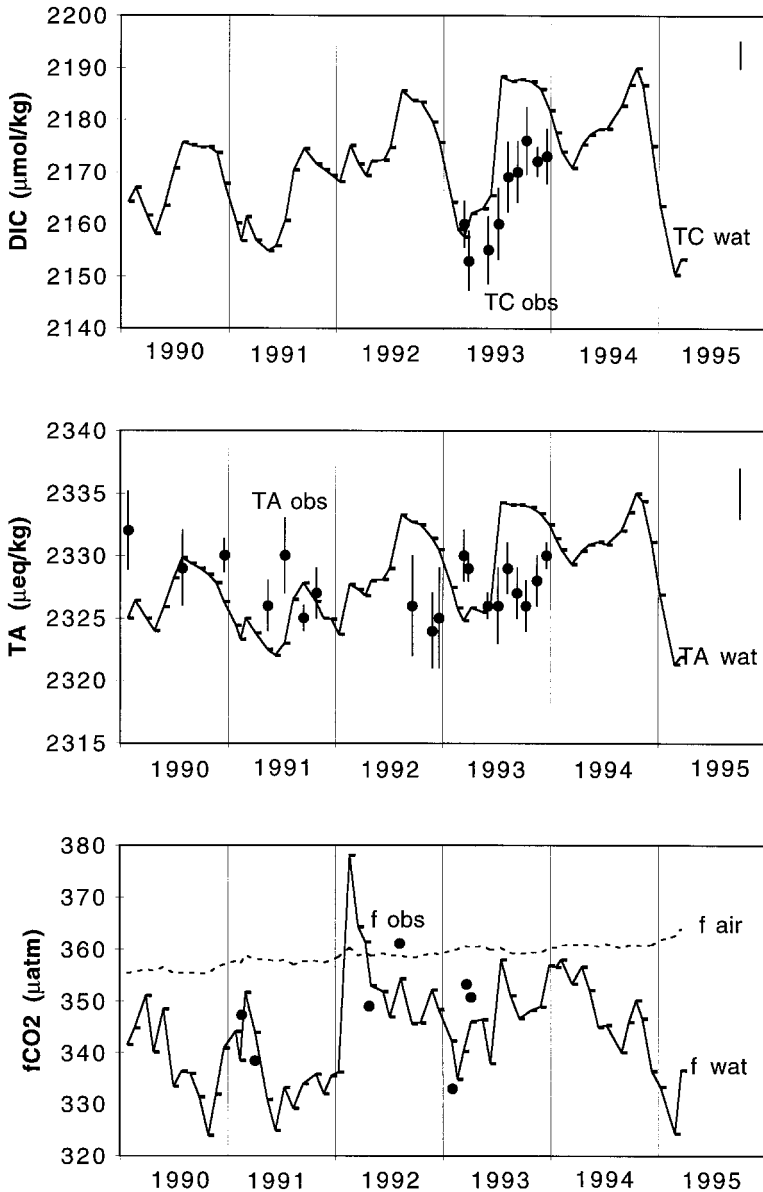


Figure 3. (a) Simulated surface DIC (line) and observed DIC (black circles) at KERFIX station for the 1990–1995 period. The error bars represent the DIC variability in the mixed-layer depth and the bar in the right-upper part of the panel the measurements accuracy. (b) Simulated surface alkalinity (line) and observed TA (black circles) same location and period. The error bars represent the TA variability in the mixed-layer depth and the bar in the upper right-part of the panel the measurements accuracy. Note that the TA variability in the mixed layer appears important because the scale is stretched. (c) Simulated sea surface $f\text{CO}_2$ (line), $f\text{CO}_2$ in the air (dotted line), and observed $f\text{CO}_2$ (black circles) from the MINERVE cruises at KERFIX between 1990–1995.

measured $f\text{CO}_2$ in the mixed layer values at the KERFIX site are presented in Figure 3c. The simulated values of $f\text{CO}_2$ are always lower than the atmospheric CO_2 level, except in February 92. This is due to the abrupt increase in the mixed-layer depth and temperature (Fig. 2b, c). KERFIX is therefore a CO_2 sink during the whole period investigated. A good agreement between sporadic $f\text{CO}_2$ data (from underlying continuous measurements, see Fig. 3 legend) and model results is obtained. Seasonal variations of $f\text{CO}_2$ are in the range of 10 to 30 μatm depending on the year considered.

Seasonal variations of DIC and TA are comparable to those reported at the HOT station in the subtropical Pacific (Winn *et al.*, 1994), and are two times lower than those observed in the subtropical Atlantic Ocean at the BATS station (Bates *et al.*, 1996). At the KERFIX site, Chl is always less than 1.4 mg/m^3 during the spring–summer period, reflecting low primary productivity. As a consequence, the gradient between surface and subsurface DIC and TA is not strong enough to induce an important increase from summer through winter following the mixed-layer depth increase. This result is similar to the situation observed at the oligotrophic site HOT (typical subtropical conditions). On the contrary, the BATS site reports higher primary production levels (about 140 $\text{gC}/\text{m}^2/\text{yr}$, Michaels *et al.*, 1994), and stronger seasonal DIC, TA and $f\text{CO}_2$ signals. In spite of the HNLC conditions prevailing at KERFIX site, it has been shown that the POOZ area is one of the major sinks for biogenic silicon (Tréguer *et al.*, 1995). This fact suggests that the biology may also be efficient in removing the surface CO_2 to the bottom layers, leading to its storage in deep waters. The quantified impact of the biological processes on the surface carbon cycle at KERFIX station is investigated in the next section.

4. Processes controlling surface oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$ seasonal changes

To evaluate the relative importance of each process involved in surface carbon variations at seasonal time scales, the results of the simulation obtained between the years 1990 and 1995 (Fig. 3) were used to calculate a climatological average of the annual cycle. The mean annual distribution of $f\text{CO}_2$ and air-sea CO_2 fluxes are presented in Figures 4a and b respectively. The effect on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations of each process involved in the CO_2 changes in the mixed layer (in %) were integrated over four seasons: summer (December through February), fall (March through May), winter (June through August) and spring (September through November). The seasonal impact of all processes (Air-Sea flux, biological activity, mixing and temperature) are shown in Figure 4c and Table 1.

$f\text{CO}_2$ increases slightly in summer time (Fig. 4a) following the temperature increase (Fig. 2c). An important biological contribution of the order of 40% is balanced by the CO_2 flux from the atmosphere as well as the temperature increase. In fall $f\text{CO}_2$ is decreasing following the decrease of the temperature. The rest of the year $f\text{CO}_2$ variations are low because during winter and spring, the contributions of the processes approximately cancel each other. The KERFIX site is a sink throughout the year with a value of about $-2 \text{ mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{yr}$ (Fig. 4b). This sink is related to the air-sea $f\text{CO}_2$ gradient ($\Delta f\text{CO}_2$) which is also negative throughout the year (Fig. 4a). The intensity of the CO_2 fluxes depends on the

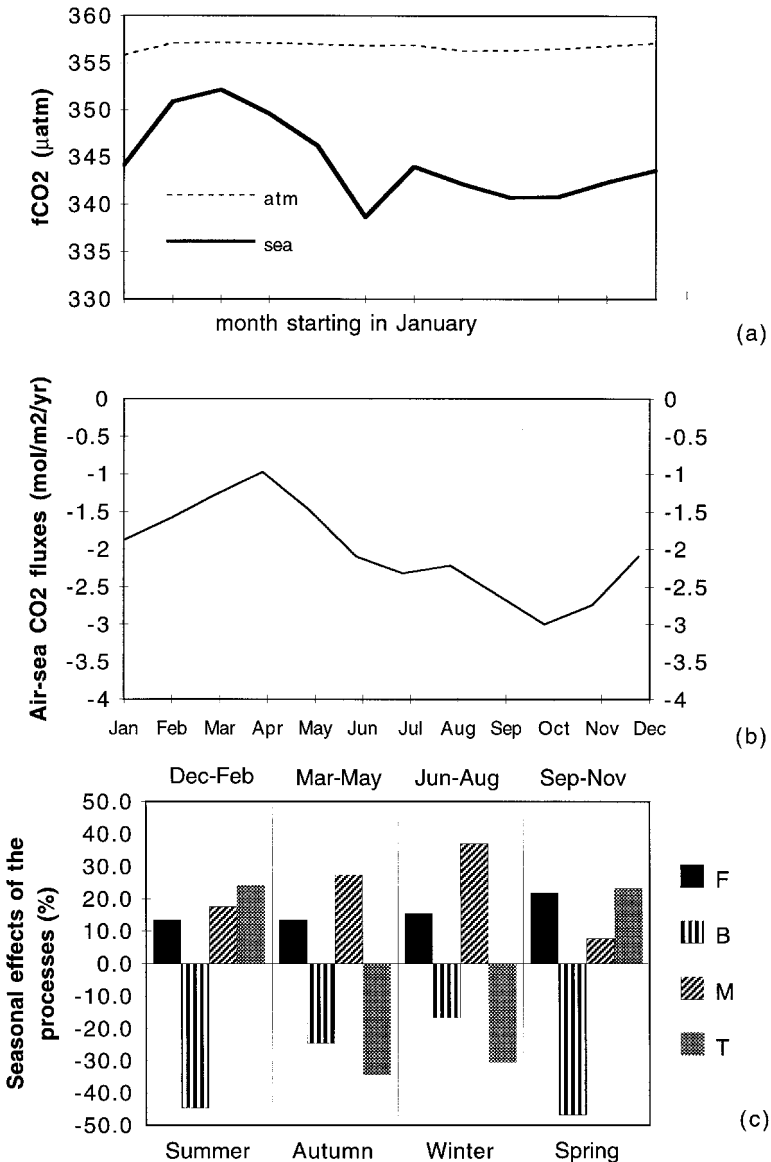


Figure 4. (a) Oceanic (black line) and atmospheric (dotted line) $f\text{CO}_2$ annual cycles obtained as the mean year for 1990–1995 simulation at KERFIX station. (b) Air-sea CO_2 fluxes annual course obtained as the mean year for 1990–1995 simulation at KERFIX station. (c) Seasonal effects of the processes on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations over the period 90–95 at KERFIX station. F is related to the air-sea CO_2 flux effect on $f\text{CO}_2$, B is related to the biological activity, M is related to both the entrainment/detrainment effect and the mixing effect, and T is related to thermodynamics.

Table 1. Effects of air-sea CO_2 fluxes (F), biological CO_2 uptake (B), mixing processes (M) and temperature (T) on $f\text{CO}_2$ integrated over four seasons: summer (Dec.–Feb.), fall (Mar.–May), winter (Jun.–Aug.) and spring (Sep.–Nov.). Absolute sum of all processes in one season represents the total variation of $f\text{CO}_2$. It is used to estimate the contribution percentage of each process on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations on a seasonal basis (see Fig. 4c).

Period	F (μatm)	B (μatm)	M (μatm)	T (μatm)
Dec.–Feb.	+12.1	–39.9	+15.9	+21.7
Mar.–May	+08.0	–14.8	+16.3	–20.5
Jun.–Aug.	+09.2	–09.9	+22.0	–18.1
Sep.–Nov.	+14.3	–30.5	+05.0	+15.8

wind-speed values, from which the calculations of the CO_2 exchange coefficient are derived. The sink is maximal around October (Fig. 4b) due to the most negative value of $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$ in early spring (Fig. 4a), and the high wind speeds observed between September and November (Fig. 2a). The lower sink is found in March–April when $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$ is the lowest (with values around $-15 \mu\text{atm}$) and the wind speeds are lower than the five year mean value of 11.4 m/s.

A striking observation is the high biological activity contribution during spring and summer (Fig. 4c), to which about 45% of the total $f\text{CO}_2$ variation can be attributed (see Table 1). The mixing effect is maximized during the winter, to which about 40% of the $f\text{CO}_2$ variations can be attributed. According to the season, the thermodynamic contribution can be either positive or negative ranging from 24 to 35% of the $f\text{CO}_2$ variation throughout the year. The level of mixed-layer DIC is low in summer and high in winter (Fig. 3a) as a result of biological uptake and low mixing, respectively. However, for the $f\text{CO}_2$ budget, the SST increase effect during spring and summer partly compensates for the biological uptake effect, whereas its decrease is strong enough to compensate for the effect of the mixing in fall (Table 1). Except during spring when wind speeds are at their peak, the air-sea exchange weakly affects $f\text{CO}_2$ variations. Summing the budgets on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations over one year shows contributions varying from 15% for the air-sea flux to 34% for the biological activity. The thermodynamical process represents 29% of $f\text{CO}_2$ variations and the mixing is in the order of 20%. Although KERFIX is a HNLC system, the biological activity plays an important role on its $f\text{CO}_2$ level.

5. Interannual surface oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$ variations

At KERFIX, at interannual time-scales, the $f\text{CO}_2$ and DIC variability can be explained by the strong variabilities of hydrological and biological parameters (used here as constraints of the model, Fig. 2). These constraints affect the physical and biogeochemical processes interannual variations.

a. Method of analysis

The impact of each process on interannual $f\text{CO}_2$ variations are quantified by performing a series of simulations. The $f\text{CO}_2$ result based on the combination of all processes is called TFBM (Temperature, Fluxes, Biology and Mixing, Fig. 5a). TFBM also includes the atmospheric CO_2 increase in the air-sea CO_2 fluxes contribution. The second $f\text{CO}_2$ result obtained without including biological activity is called TFM. In the latter run, DIC stabilizes at the subsurface concentration and the seasonal cycle in $f\text{CO}_2$ is mainly due to the temperature annual cycle. The difference between TFBM and TFM, therefore, gives the biological impact B on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations. The run called TF (Fig. 5b) includes thermodynamical and air-sea exchange effects on $f\text{CO}_2$. The impact of the mixing M on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations is thus calculated as the difference TFBM-B-TF. In this model, the mixing effect is proportional to the DIC surface-subsurface gradient. A high mixing effect is thus expected when the biological uptake of DIC is strong. When only the thermodynamical effect is used the run is called T (Fig. 5c). The impact of air-sea exchange on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations F is given by the difference TFBM-T-M-B. Finally, the thermodynamical effect is calculated as the difference TFBM-F-M-B. The annual integrated effects of each process are presented in Figure 5d and Table 2.

b. Results

The TFM simulation shows that the KERFIX site is converted into a CO_2 supersaturation of $+9 \mu\text{atm}$ when the biological activity is suppressed. This means that the biological activity causes a decrease of the $f\text{CO}_2$ signal by a mean of $18 \mu\text{atm}$ on average (Table 2). The largest differences between TFM and TFBM occurred during the summer period with values ranging from 20 to $45 \mu\text{atm}$ depending on the year (Fig. 5a). The mixing contribution varies between 10 and $55 \mu\text{atm}$ depending on the season of the year considered; its largest value occurring during autumn and winter. Because KERFIX is a sink area, the air-sea gas exchange adds CO_2 to the surface layer. Its contribution to interannual $f\text{CO}_2$ variations lies from 12 to $30 \mu\text{atm}$ depending on the year (Table 2). Finally, the thermodynamical effect decreased the CO_2 signal by a $15 \mu\text{atm}$ mean over the five years (Fig. 5c). It is worth noting that at interannual time scales biological activity plays a role as important as the thermodynamical processes on $f\text{CO}_2$ variability.

Net integrated contribution to $f\text{CO}_2$ variations by every process (in terms of percentages) are presented in Figure 5d. B decreases $f\text{CO}_2$ by 14 to 30% depending on the year. Its largest contribution, occurring in 1991, is clearly related to the highest levels of chlorophyll (Fig. 2e). M increases $f\text{CO}_2$ by 20 to 45%. The maximal value occurred in 1990 when the DIC surface-subsurface gradient was maximal (Fig. 3a). T decreases $f\text{CO}_2$ on an annual basis, with values ranging between 4 to 29%. Its most important contribution occurred in 1994 when the temperatures were the lowest. F appears to affect strongly the interannual $f\text{CO}_2$ variations with an annual mean value ranging from 17 to 35%. Quantitatively, over the five-year period, the air-sea exchange is responsible for $(+29 \pm 11)\%$ of the interannual $f\text{CO}_2$ variability, the biological pump for $(-21 \pm 4)\%$, the mixing for $(+31 \pm 6)\%$

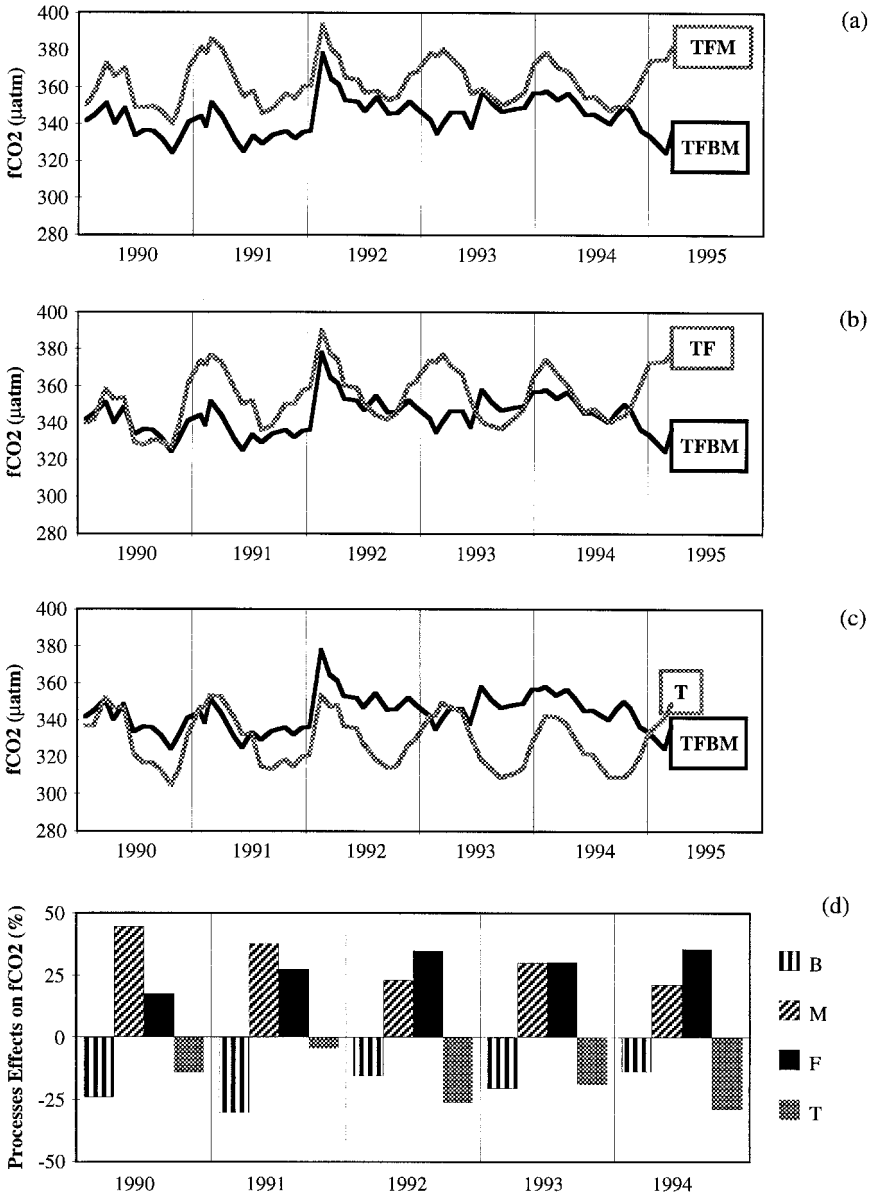


Figure 5. Simulated oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$ for several runs at KERFIX site for the 1990–1995 period: (a) TFBM is the run which includes all the processes involved in $f\text{CO}_2$ variations. In the TFM run, the biological effect is suppressed. (b) In the TF run, mixing and biological effect are suppressed. (c) In the T run, only the thermodynamical effect is acting on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations. (d) Annual impact of each process on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations (in percentage). F is related to the air-sea CO_2 flux effect on $f\text{CO}_2$, B is related to the biological activity, M is related to both the entrainment/detrainment effect and the mixing effect, and T is related to thermodynamics.

Table 2. Effects of air-sea CO_2 fluxes (F), biological CO_2 uptake (B), mixing processes (M) and temperature (T) on $f\text{CO}_2$ annually integrated. Absolute sum of all processes over one year represents the total variation of $f\text{CO}_2$. It is used to estimate the contribution percentage of each process on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations on an annual basis (see Fig. 5d).

Year	F (μatm)	B (μatm)	M (μatm)	T (μatm)
1990	+12.8	-17.6	+32.7	-10.4
1991	+25.1	-27.6	+34.5	-04.0
1992	+29.4	-13.3	+19.4	-22.3
1993	+27.5	-18.8	+27.2	-17.2
1994	+30.5	-12.0	+18.2	-24.8

and the thermodynamic process for $(-19 \pm 3)\%$. The dominating processes in interannual $f\text{CO}_2$ variabilities are the effects from the mixing and the air-sea exchange. However, a caution has to be made according to the fact that the nonlinearity of the processes and the possible feedback of one process on another are not taken into account in this way of estimating the contribution of each process on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations. Nevertheless, at this time scale the air-sea exchange contribution to the CO_2 appears to be most variable from one year to another. This interannual variability seems to be highly correlated to the high wind-speed variability (Fig. 2a) and in a lesser way to the changes in air-sea CO_2 gradients. The air-sea CO_2 exchange depends on both air-sea CO_2 gradient and wind speed variability. Thus its effect on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations contains atmospheric conditions as well as oceanic parameter changes. We will see below how the air-sea CO_2 flux is affected by natural and anthropogenic CO_2 changes.

6. Impact of atmospheric CO_2 increase on $f\text{CO}_2$ and air-sea CO_2 exchange

The monthly air-sea CO_2 fluxes between 1990 and 1994 are presented in Figure 6a. Annual integrated values always show a sink (represented by negative values). The intensity of the sink is highly variable at an estimated interannual variability of 40%. The interannual variation of the sink seems to be correlated to the wind-speed anomalies (presented on the same figure). Resulting from the most intense biological activity, the largest CO_2 sink occurred in 1991 (Figs. 5a and 5b). It is also during 1991 that the wind speed presents the most positive anomaly. The weakest CO_2 sink occurred in 1992 as a result of the big impact of the air-sea exchange on $f\text{CO}_2$ and the weak biological contribution.

To observe a trend of increase in surface $f\text{CO}_2$ due to atmospheric CO_2 increase, more DIC and/or $f\text{CO}_2$ data than those obtained at KERFIX should be necessary. To separate anthropogenic CO_2 effects from natural variability, two simulations are performed. The first simulation is the one which takes into account all the processes (TFBM) with an atmospheric CO_2 increase of 1.2 ppm/year (mean CO_2 increase at Palmer Station, Conway *et al.*, 1994). The second one includes all the processes except the atmospheric CO_2

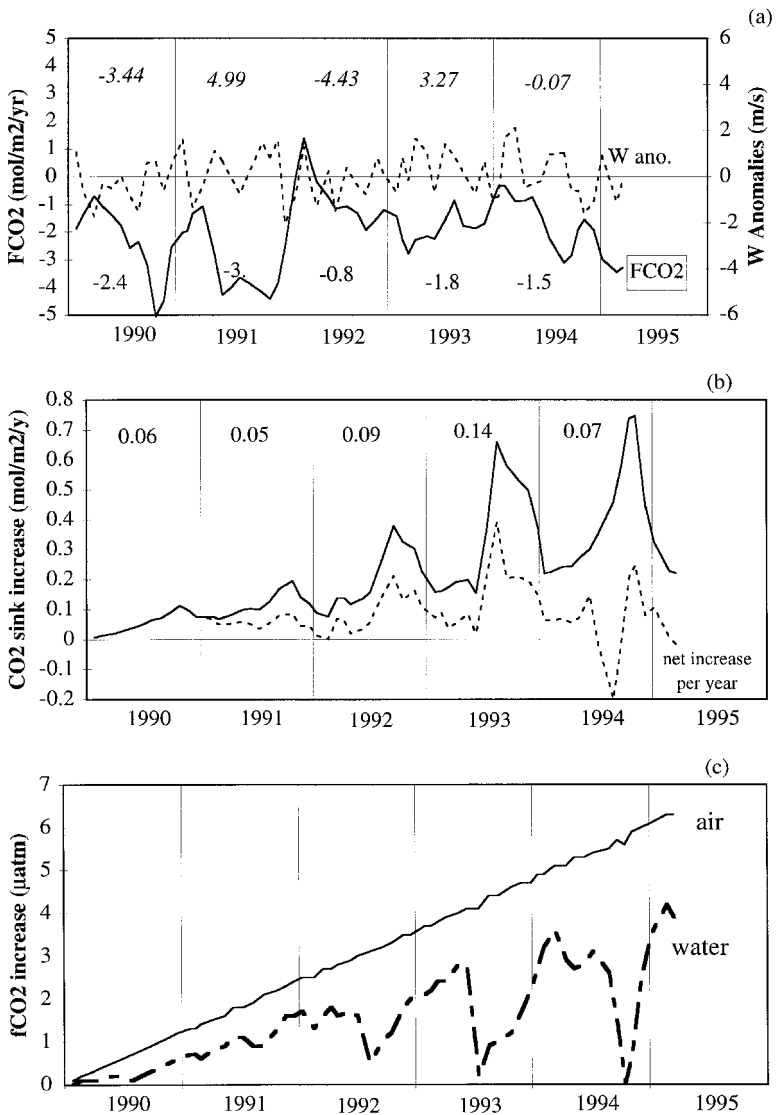


Figure 6. (a) Air-sea CO_2 fluxes over the 1990–1995 period as a result of the simulation. The values indicate the annual mean flux on each year. A negative flux indicates that the ocean is a CO_2 sink for the atmosphere. The values in the lower part of the panel for each year represent the annual accumulated CO_2 flux in $\text{mol/m}^2/\text{yr}$. The dotted line represents the anomalies of wind-speeds at KERFIX station for the 1990–1995 period. Wind-speed anomalies are referred to the wind speed five years climatology (1990–1994). The values in the upper part of the panel are the annual integration of the wind-speed anomalies. (b) Air-sea CO_2 sink increase in $\text{mol/m}^2/\text{yr}$ obtained from the difference between a steady state run of the model ($x\text{CO}_2$ in the air is a constant: 351.9 ppm) and a “perturbed” run of the model (with $x\text{CO}_2 = 351.9 \text{ ppm} + 1.2 \text{ ppm/yr}$). The increase rate of atmospheric CO_2 is obtained from Conway *et al.*, (1994). (c) $f\text{CO}_2$ increase (in μatm) obtained by the same method in surface waters (dashed line) and air (prescribed) over the same period at KERFIX station.

increase from 1990 to 1995 and is thus conducted with a constant CO_2 molar fraction of 351.9 ppm. The difference between both simulations, therefore, quantifies the impact of atmospheric CO_2 increase on sea-surface $f\text{CO}_2$ and air-sea CO_2 exchange.

This comparison shows an increase of the CO_2 sink at KERFIX from 1990 to 1995 (Fig. 6b). The total CO_2 anthropogenic uptake increases between 1990 and 1991 by about 6% and reaches 10% between 1992 and 1994. Figure 6c shows the atmospheric $f\text{CO}_2$ increase and its effect on oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$. The oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$ signal followed the atmospheric increase only during the first years of the simulation. Larger differences between atmospheric and oceanic signals appeared after 1992. Indeed, the oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$ increase was reduced from 0.70 to 0.38 $\mu\text{atm/yr}$ after 1992. The impact of the CO_2 atmospheric increase on oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$ at KERFIX differs from that observed in the NW Pacific (also a sink area) (Inoue *et al.*, 1995). In the NW Pacific the oceanic CO_2 increase rate followed the atmospheric rate. The sink increase at KERFIX can be explained as follows: due to a 6 μatm total atmospheric CO_2 increase over 5 years (i.e., 1.7%) (Fig. 6c), the oceanic $f\text{CO}_2$ increased by 2.7 μatm (0.8%) in five years (two times lower than the atmospheric increase). In other words, the increase in the surface ocean is lower than the atmospheric CO_2 increase. Consequently the air-sea CO_2 gradient increases due to the atmospheric CO_2 increase. The same result was found for the Indian Subtropical gyre (Metzler *et al.*, 1999).

Another aspect is worth pointing out. In this study, the surface layer is enhanced by CO_2 from the atmosphere because the KERFIX station is a CO_2 sink. The CO_2 enhancement of the surface layer therefore induces a decrease in the CO_2 gradient between the surface and the subsurface layers, (the latter taken to be invariant in the model). Thus, the oceanic uptake of CO_2 from the atmosphere induces a decrease in time of the mixing contribution in the model. Of course, in reality, the CO_2 pumped from the atmosphere is not all accumulating in the surface layers of the ocean, but is transferred by vertical advection and biological fluxes into the water column. If we consider that the increase of subsurface CO_2 would be less than in the surface layer, thus the effect calculated by the model would be a low estimate of the sink increase. However some uncertainties in these model results have to be underlined. In this estimate, we took Wanninkhof's (1992) relationship between piston velocity and wind speeds to calculate the air-sea gas exchange. The use of one relationship or another is still a matter of debate and induces a significant difference in the CO_2 fluxes estimates (Wanninkhof, 1992). Moreover, the effect of atmospheric pressure variability on $f\text{CO}_2$ in the air or the seasonality of the latter were not studied. Indeed, if $f\text{CO}_2$ seasonality in the air is only about 1 ppm in this area (Ramonet, 1994), atmospheric pressure present high variability at seasonal and interannual scales and may significantly change our estimate of the sink increase.

Extending this minimal effect to the entire POOZ area (approximately 25.10^6 km^2 between 50 and 60S) would induce a potential increase of the CO_2 sink by +0.02 GtC/yr. Although this impact is weak, it represents about 10% of the total Arctic sea CO_2 uptake (data based estimate, Tans *et al.*, 1990).

7. Conclusions

The five-year KERFIX time series provide for the first time insight into the seasonal and interannual evolution of hydrological and geochemical parameters in an open area of the Southern Ocean. In this region, all parameters show marked seasonal signals due to extreme weather conditions, whereas the carbon system parameters (DIC and TA) present reduced variability which can be compared to that of oligotrophic areas. The application of a 1D model gives us a better understanding of the processes controlling the seasonal and interannual variations of CO₂ in the POOZ subregion of the Southern Ocean. The seasonal evolution of CO₂ appears to be mainly affected by biological and thermodynamic changes. The interannual variability is mainly controlled by wind speeds and mixed-layer depth. The latter may be of the same magnitude as seasonal changes of the mixed-layer depth (Park *et al.*, 1999). The KERFIX site was a sink all year round over the period investigated with an average influx of 2 mol/m²/yr.

Even if the POOZ is considered as HNLC, the biological pump of CO₂ acts intensively at both seasonal and interannual time scales. This local result based on *in situ* measurement extrapolation complies with recent observations in the Weddel gyre (Hoppema *et al.*, 1995). The interannual variability in air-sea CO₂ exchange in the Southern Ocean is mainly due to the interannual changes of climatic conditions, which appear to affect the oceanic uptake by 50% yearly. The extrapolation of KERFIX air-sea CO₂ annual fluxes to the whole POOZ area results in a variation of the oceanic uptake from 0.2 GtC/yr in 1992 to 0.9 GtC/yr in 1991. This strong variability may affect the global carbon budget and could be responsible for an important part of the uncertainties of the global oceanic uptake. The model quantified an increase of oceanic *f*CO₂ about half of that observed in the atmosphere. This effect implies a potential increase of oceanic CO₂ sink by 0.07 mol/m²/yr. Moreover, extending this result to the entire POOZ area increases the oceanic CO₂ sink by 0.02 GtC/yr. This additional sink is weak compared to the large seasonal and interannual variabilities linked to natural processes in the ocean. However, one can expect that it may contribute to the decrease of the atmospheric CO₂ growth rate, as revealed from recent studies for the nineties (Conway *et al.*, 1994; Keeling *et al.*, 1995). This result complies with the recent assumptions that the ocean CO₂ uptake is increasing (Keeling *et al.*, 1995; Francey *et al.*, 1995).

To analyze the CO₂ uptake variation on longer time scales, one has to take into account the circulation changes in the Southern Ocean as revealed by the 3D-OGCM's predictions (Sarmiento and Le Quére, 1996). As a matter of fact, the changes of the circulation will induce a variation in biological uptake of CO₂ and thus in the processes of invasion of surface CO₂ into the deep oceanic layers.

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APPENDIX

Model description

a. Air-sea Exchange effect on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations

The air-sea exchange of CO_2 is calculated according to Wanninkhof (1992). At each time step the flux at the air-sea interface (F_{CO_2}) is calculated as a function of the wind speed, the temperature and the salinity and translated into a change of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC):

$$F_{\text{CO}_2} = K * S_{\text{CO}_2} * \Delta f\text{CO}_2$$

where K is the piston velocity and is a quadratic function of the wind-speed, S_{CO_2} is the CO_2 solubility computed from temperature and salinity data (Weiss, 1974) and $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$ the air-sea $f\text{CO}_2$ difference. The air-sea exchange affects only DIC in the mixed-layer depth Z and the variations of DIC are computed at each time-step as follows:

$$\delta\text{DIC}/\delta t = F_{\text{CO}_2}/Z$$

The variations of DIC associated with the air-sea CO_2 exchange is used to calculate $f\text{CO}_2$ changes expressed as $(\delta f/\delta t)_F$ in Eq. (1) by using Goyet and Poisson (1989) dissociation constants.

b. Mixing effect on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations

The mixing effect is estimated as the entrainment described in Peng *et al.* (1987) and the input of subsurface properties into the surface layer by the general Southern Ocean upwelling. These processes affect inorganic nitrogen (IN), total alkalinity (TA) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and are dependent on the mixed-layer depth and the surface-subsurface gradient of the geochemical properties. Changes due to the mixing effect are calculated according to:

$$\delta G/\delta t = \delta Z/\delta t * (G_b - G_s)/Z + w * (G_b - G_s)/Z$$

where G is the geochemical property, G_b and G_s are the concentrations of G in the subsurface and surface boxes, respectively, Z is the mixed-layer depth and w is the vertical velocity (taken at 40 m/yr according to Gordon and Huber, 1990). Subsurface concentrations are taken from KERFIX data and are 2215 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{kg}$ for DIC, 2340 $\mu\text{eq}/\text{kg}$ for TA and 30 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{kg}$ for IN. It represents the concentrations of the species at the pycnocline depth. The variations of TA and DIC according to the vertical mixing processes give $f\text{CO}_2$ changes expressed as $(\delta f/\delta t)_M$ in Eq. (1).

c. *Biological effect on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations*

The biological impact on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations in the model is developed with sensitivity tests in Louanchi *et al.* (1996). Here, the main equations showing the chlorophyll constraints on the biological activity are presented. Most of the parametrizations are adapted from Taylor *et al.* (1991). The variation of chlorophyll biomass is expressed as

$$\delta\text{Chl}/\delta t = (U - Q) * \text{Chl}$$

where U is the growth of the phytoplankton and is expressed as a Michaelis-Menten function of the nutrient IN : $U = U_m * (IN/(IN + K_m))$. In this expression U_m is the maximal growth rate of 0.52 d^{-1} (according to Minas and Minas, 1992) and K_m is the half-saturation constant of the growth on IN ($0.2 \mu\text{mol/kg}$). U is calculated at each time-step. Q represents the total loss (as grazing, mortality or respiration). In this model, it is deduced from U and Chl changes in the surface layer following the equation:

$$Q = U - \delta \ln(\text{Chl})/\delta t.$$

Part of the production is regenerated in the mixed layer. Finally the variation of IN with time is

$$\delta IN/\delta t = -(U - R_s * Q) * \text{Chl} * N/\text{Chl}.$$

In the latter expression, R_s represents the removal factor in the surface layer taken at 0.5 according to Olson (1980) and Minas and Minas (1992) for the Indian sector of the Southern Ocean. N/Chl is the nitrogen chlorophyll ratio (7.5 in this study).

The exported production is expressed in carbon units as:

$$P_{\text{exp}} = (1 - R_s) * Q * \text{Chl} * C/\text{Chl}$$

where $C:\text{Chl}$ is the Carbon to chlorophyll constant ratio of 45. We consider that 20% of the exported production is CaCO_3 (1 inorganic particulate matter vs. 4 organic particulate matter, Broecker and Peng, 1982). Finally the total biological effect on DIC and TA is:

$$(\delta\text{DIC}/\delta t)_B = (\delta IN/\delta t) * (6/1) - 0.2 * P_{\text{exp}}$$

$$(\delta\text{TA}/\delta t)_B = -(\delta IN/\delta t) * (1/1) - 2 * (0.2 * P_{\text{exp}})$$

These variations give the $f\text{CO}_2$ changes at each time-step expressed as $(\delta f/\delta t)_B$ in Eq. (1).

d. *Thermodynamical effect on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations*

Finally the thermodynamical effect on $f\text{CO}_2$ variations is directly computed at each time step following the polynomial of Goyet *et al.* (1993). This calculation gives $(\delta f/\delta t)_T$ in Eq. (1).

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