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 $2 ext{fCO}_2^{sw}$ variability in the Bay of Biscay during ECO cruises

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11 Abstract

The Bay of Biscay is part of the North Atlantic Ocean, the most important sink of CO₂, 12 13 and a subduction zone of mode waters that favours the entry of carbon to the ocean interior. To investigate the seasonal and interannual variability of CO₂ uptake, 14 15 continuous underway measurements of the partial pressure of CO₂ at sea surface were performed along a commercial route between Vigo (Spain) and St. Nazaire (France). 16 17 An unattended measuring system of CO_2 fugacity (fCO₂), with meteorological station, 18 and temperature, salinity, oxygen and fluorescence sensors, was installed on board of ships of opportunity (RO-RO L'Audace and RO-RO Surprise). 19

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The dataset collected between December 2002 and December 2004 reported a significant interannual variability; mainly for the winter season. The noticeable increase of fCO_2^{sw} during the winter mixing period of 2004 was associated to biogeochemical differences related to nutrient ratios, phytoplankton activity and atmospheric CO_2 uptake. Dividing the seasonal cycle into three periods, prebloom (October – February),

26	bloom (March - May) and postbloom (June - September), the fCO2 ^{sw} for the entire
27	seasonal cycle was correctly predicted by empirical relationships with an error lower
28	than 10 μ atm in spite of the high interannual variability. The fCO ₂ ^{sw} variability at
29	seasonal scale was mainly controlled by processes of synthesis and remineralization of
30	organic matter during prebloom and bloom periods whereas SST was the key parameter
31	during postbloom period. The surface waters of the Bay of Biscay showed a clear role
32	as atmospheric CO ₂ sink ranging from -2.7±2.8 (±0.3) to -0.08±0.41 (±0.04) molC·m ⁻
33	² ·yr ⁻¹ (mean±standard deviation (±error)) throughout each complete period although
34	CO2 release to atmosphere was also observed during short episodes of summer. Using
35	the regular wind speed sources of CO ₂ fluxes estimation ranged from -1.3 \pm 1.7 (\pm 0.1) to
36	-2.4 \pm 2.7 (\pm 0.1) molC·m ⁻² ·yr ⁻¹ at annual scale, exceeding the sink capacity of the nearby
37	regions of the North Atlantic Ocean.
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The world's oceans are currently a net sink for atmospheric CO₂ uptaking to almost 53 half of all fossil-fuel emissions (Sabine et al., 2004). The capacity of the oceans to 54 absorb the CO₂ excess plays a relevant role in the global warming mitigating the effect 55 of greenhouse gas emissions. Therefore quantification of oceanic CO₂ uptake is a key 56 for understanding the interactions and feedbacks between the carbon system and the 57 overall earth system. These interactions were the aim of multiple research programs in 58 the past decade (e.g. Tans et al., 1990; Sarmiento et al., 1995; Wallace, 1995; Gruber et 59 60 al., 1996; Brewer et al., 1997; Takahashi et al., 1997) but the exact magnitude of the 61 variability has not been completely constrained (Gruber et al., 2002; Watson et al., 1991). The disagreements between ocean models (Le Quere et al., 2000) and 62 atmospheric inversions (Peylin et al., 2005) in relation to interannual variability of the 63 CO₂ global sink also emphasize the poorly constrained variability. 64

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The knowledge of the ocean carbon cycle would improve by extending the CO_2 66 observations to larger areas for several years. Global carbon models (Sarmiento et al., 67 68 1992; Maier-Reimer and Hasselmann, 1987) need appropriate dataset for model testing or to assimilating in the new update models. To accomplish this objective, autonomous 69 CO_2 probes are increasing the frequency and spatial coverage of measurements. 70 71 Besides research vessels, ships of opportunity (Lüger et al., 2004; Padin et al., 2007 a,b), time series-stations (Gruber et al., 2002; Dore et al., 2003; Gonzalez-Davila et al., 72 73 2003) and drifter buoys (Copin-Montégut and Avril, 1993; Lévy et al., 1998; Andersen and Prieur, 2000; Hood and Merlivat, 2000) are becoming suitable platforms to develop 74 ambitious sampling strategies. Empirical algorithms are also used to extrapolate CO₂ 75

partial pressure (pCO₂) observations in relation to even retrieved parameters from
remote sensing (Tans et al., 1990; Metzl et al., 1995; Stephens et al., 1995; Goyet et al.,
1998; Lee et al., 1998; Hood et al., 1999; Nelson et al., 2001; Lefevre and Taylor, 2002;
Olsen et al., 2004).

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A large part of these measurements has been carried out in the North Atlantic Ocean 81 due to its outstanding role as CO₂ sink among oceanic regions (Takahashi et al., 2002). 82 The formation of mode waters due to seasonally deep mixing and the notable 83 phytoplankton activity yield the intense CO₂ absorption of the North Atlantic. 84 85 Following these research efforts, our project (ECO: Evolution of CO₂ increase using ships of opportunity: Galician coast and Bay of Biscay) was developed with the aim of 86 intensifying the CO₂ recordings in the Bay of Biscay. This regional sea has an 87 88 important role in the subduction of mode waters in the North Atlantic Ocean (Paillet and Mercier, 1997) and represents one of the areas with the highest accumulation of 89 anthropogenic CO₂ (Gruber, 1998). 90

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In order to improve the description of the carbon cycle in the Bay of Biscay, an unattended measuring system of CO_2 fugacity (f CO_2) was installed on board of ships of opportunity. Additionally key physical and biological parameters were monitored to evaluate their relevance in the CO_2 variability at seasonal and interannual scale. Underway measurements were performed along 150 tracks from November 2002 to December 2004. The purpose of this work is to constrain the assessment of CO_2 flux as well as to describe the role of different drivers of f CO_2 distribution during ECO cruises.

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100 MATERIALS AND METHODS

The dataset presented in this paper was collected on board of ships of opportunity from Flota Suardíaz Company (*RO-RO L'Audace* and *RO-RO Surprise*) between December 2002 and December 2004. he regular route linked Vigo (Spain) and St. Nazaire (France) with a frequency of 12 transects per month, measuring more than 150 tracks throughout two entire seasonal cycles.

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Seawater was continuously pumped from 3 meters below waterline into the ship's hull. 108 The volume of water was pumped at a high flow rate although a smaller flow was only 109 110 shunted through the analytical system in order to reduce the warming of the water on the way. Afterwards the uncontaminated seawater supply was bifurcated to pass 111 through an analytical system composed by thermosalinometer (SBE-45-MicroTSG), 112 113 oximeter (SBE-43) and fluorometer (WETLabs) and through a home made fCO₂ analyser. The underway measurements of sea surface salinity (SSS), sea surface 114 115 temperature (SST), oxygen (O₂) and chlorophyll a concentration (chl a) were recorded with CO_2 fugacity in seawater (f CO_2^{sw}) and atmosphere (f CO_2^{atm}). 116

117

The measurements of CO_2 mole fraction (xCO₂) were performed with a non-dispersive infrared gas analyser (LI-6262). This analyzer was calibrated at the beginning and end of each transit using two gases; one of CO₂-free air and one of high CO₂ standard gases with a certified concentration of ~375 ppm (Instituto Meteorológico Nacional, Izaña, Canary Islands).

123

124 xCO_2^{sw} was converted into fCO_2^{sw} in saturated water vapour pressure using the 125 atmospheric pressure measured with the analysis unit as described in DOE Handbook (1994). Subsequently fCO₂^{sw} values were corrected for the temperature shift by means
of an empirical equation (DOE, 1994), originally proposed by Takahashi et al. (1993).
The temperature difference between the seawater inlet and the equilibrator system was
typically less than 1°C.

130

During the ECO cruises atmospheric xCO_2 (xCO_2^{atm}) was measured every hour, 131 recording twenty observations within 5 minutes. Subsequently, a selection criteria was 132 applied to eliminate spurious values and to identify xCO₂^{atm} representative data. These 133 data were fitted to a seasonal curve, consisting of an annual trend plus a seasonal cycle 134 (Padin et al., 2007b). To convert xCO₂^{atm} into pCO₂^{atm} (Equation 1) water vapour 135 pressure (pH₂O, in atm) was calculated from *in situ* temperature (Tis, in °C) according 136 to Cooper et al. (1998) (Equation 2). Following Olsen et al. (2003), a decrease of 0.3% 137 from pCO_2^{atm} to fCO_2^{atm} (Weiss, 1974) was considered accurate enough. 138

139

140
$$pCO_2^{atm} = xCO_2^{atm} \cdot (patm - pH_2O)$$
(1)

141
$$pH_2O = 0.981 \cdot exp(14.32602 - (5306.83/(273.15 + Tis)))$$
 (2)

142

Discrete samples were collected at four locations along the commercial track (46±0.3°N
-4.7±0.5°W; 45.5±0.2°N -5.6±0.3°W; 45±0.2°N -6.7±0.3°W; 44.5±0.2°N -7.7±0.3°W)
(*mean±standard deviation*) to calibrate the different sensors (Fig. 1). The calibration
frequency changed during the ECO project from three per month during 2003 to one
per month during 2004.

148

Alkalinity (A_T) and pH and measurements were done to study the internal consistence of *in situ* fCO₂^{sw} measurements. Poisoned A_T samples, as the DOE handbook (DOE,

1994) recommends, were determined by automatic potentiometric titration with HCl at 151 a final pH of 4.40 (Pérez and Fraga, 1987). The electrodes were standardised using a 152 buffer of pH 4.42 made in CO₂ free seawater (Pérez et al., 2002). The method has an 153 accuracy of ±1 µmol/kg estimated using Certified Reference Material (CRM). The pH 154 samples were kept refrigerated since collection until the spectrophotometric 155 determination following Clayton and Byrne (1993). This method has a precision of 156 0.00004 and an accuracy (Clayton and Byrne, 1993) of 0.002 (DelValls and Dickson, 157 1998). The comparison between the *in situ* and the computed fCO_2^{sw} from pH and A_T 158 using the carbonic system constants of Lueker et al. (2000), showed a consistence error 159 of $\pm 6 \mu atm$ (n = 365, r² = 0.91). 160

161

Discrete oxygen samples were stored in the dark and analyzed by the Winkler method 162 163 24 hours after collection. The potentiometric end-point determination of oxygen has an estimated accuracy of $\pm 2 \ \mu mol \cdot kg^{-1}$. Oxygen saturation was calculated following 164 Benson and Krause equation (UNESCO, 1986). The underway fluorescence 165 measurements, determined with a WETLabs fluorometer, were calibrated with 166 chlorophyll extracted by 25mm Whatman GF/F filters and analyzed after 90% acetone 167 extraction in a 10,000 R Turner fluorometer (Yentsch and Menzel, 1963). The precision 168 was $\pm 0.05 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$. 169

170

Additionally, the nutrient samples were also collected in polystyrene bottles and stored in the freezer at -30° C prior to lab analysis. The concentration of nitrate (NO₃), phosphate (PO₄) and silicate (Si(OH)₄) were determined by segmented flow analysis with Alpkem autoanalyzers, following Hansen and Grasshoff (1983) with some

improvements (Mouriño and Fraga, 1985). The analytical errors are $\pm 0.05 \ \mu \text{mol·kg}^{-1}$ for NO₃, $\pm 0.05 \ \mu \text{mol·kg}^{-1}$ for Si(OH)₄ and $\pm 0.01 \ \mu \text{mol·kg}^{-1}$ for PO₄.

177

178 Air-sea CO₂ exchange

The exchange of carbon between the atmosphere and the ocean (F) was calculated withthe following equation:

181

$$F = k S (fCO_2^{sw} - fCO_2^{atm})$$
(3)

183

Seawater CO₂ solubility (S, mol·L⁻¹·atm⁻¹) was calculated from Weiss (1974) and the 184 piston velocity (k, $cm \cdot h^{-1}$) was computed from coefficients reported by Nightingale et 185 al. (2000). In spite of the several formulations of piston velocity, the Nightingale's 186 187 parameterization was pointed out as the more consistent in recent findings (Ho et al., 2006; Sweeney et al., 2007). The wind speed used in our computations was remotely 188 measured by QuikSCAT satellite with temporal and spatial resolutions of 0.25° and 12 189 hours, respectively. This dataset was collected from the Physical Oceanography Active 190 Archive Center of the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (http://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov). 191 Additionally daily mean (average of four measurements per day) of wind vector 192 product was also provided by the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis project (Kalnay et al., 1996) 193 from the web site of the NOAA-CIRES Climate Diagnostics Center, Boulder, Co, USA 194 (http://www.cdc.noaa.gov/). The wind speed from both sources was linearly 195 interpolated at temporal and spatial scale. 196

197

198 Winter mixed layer

Winter mixed layer (WML) depths were provided by the MERCATOR-OCEAN model (http://www.mercator-ocean.fr) averaging a region of the Bay of Biscay between 44° to 46°N and between 9° to 4°W. The WML depth is estimated according to the density criterion establishing the WML lower limit when the density difference is $0.05 \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$ from the surface value. This criterion was preferred to the temperature one, following Kara et al., 2000.

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206 RESULTS

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208 Biogeochemical variability

The temporal evolution of the sea surface properties in the Bay of Biscay during the ECO project showed a marked seasonality with two clear seasons, winter and summer (Borja et al., 2000a). The SST pattern (Fig. 2) showed differences between 2003 and 2004 years, with seasonal ranges of 9.1 °C and 9.5 °C, respectively. The highest SST values were reached during September 2003 (21.5°C) and August 2004 (21 °C) whereas the coldest surface waters were found in February 2003 (12.4°C) and January 2004 (11.5°C).

216

Even though SSS distribution was nearly uniform for the two years (35.617±0.024 (±0.001) psu; Fig. 2), the precipitation–evaporation balance and the meteorological conditions yielded an obvious seasonal pattern. During winter, the surface waters of the Bay of Biscay get usually saltier due to the advection of southern saline waters conveyed northward by the Iberian Poleward Current (Haynes and Barton, 1991). Besides the winter mixing with subsurface saltier waters also contributes to the higher winter SSS. The intensity of both contributions during the ECO cruises showed appreciable differences since the resulting SSS increment was more sustained during winter 2004. Contrary the lowest SSS values were measured during spring achieving absolute SSS minimum, namely, 35.56 ± 0.01 psu, during May 2003. These low SSS values coincided with the thaw period reflecting the influence of runoff from Loire and Garonne rivers that flow with a mean volume of ~2000 m³·s⁻¹. The intense evaporation during summer and the later stratification breakdown previous to the formation of WML yielded the highest SSS of 35.651 ± 0.021 (±0.004) psu in October 2003.

231

The winter convection yielded similar WML maxima during the successive years 232 233 reaching ~200 m (Fig. 3) at the middle of February and March, respectively. However winter convection during 2004 lasted for almost one more month than in winter 2003. 234 The interannual variations in surface nutrient concentrations are associated with the 235 236 different vertical mixing pattern. The nutrient maxima (NO₃, PO₄ and Si(OH)₄) were 2.00, 0.27 and 2.00 μ mol·kg⁻¹ during winter 2003 and 5.51, 0.34 and 2.20 μ mol·kg⁻¹ 237 during winter 2004. Besides the quantitative differences, the nutrient ratios were also 238 different for the two winter. The NO₃:Si(OH)₄ ratio for 2003 was 1.6 (\pm 0.2) whereas 239 during 2004 it was 3.2 (±0.2) (Table 1). The NO₃:PO₄ ratios also showed interannual 240 241 variation during the successive winter mixing events reporting 14 (\pm 3) and 18 (\pm 1), respectively. After reaching the maximum winter mixing (February 2003 and April 242 2004), the rapid shoaling of the mixed layer (Lochte et al., 1993) triggered the onset of 243 244 biological activity leading to complete NO₃ depletion (Fig. 2). On the other hand, the phytoplankton consumption did not cause a total depletion of sea surface PO₄ and 245 246 Si(OH)₄ levels (Fig. 2).

A similar temporal evolution was observed for PO₄ and Si(OH)₄ concentrations 248 throughout the sampling periods. Both nutrients were gradually reduced during year 249 2003 reaching minimum values in September. The synthesis – remineralisation balance 250 of organic matter during year 2004 showed different distribution at seasonal scale 251 reporting an intense consumption during the bloom period. The spring bloom - just at 252 the total NO₃ depletion - was extended for a few weeks from the mid February to 253 middle April. The nutrient concentrations during the bloom period kept similar ratios to 254 the prebloom ones, namely, 1.8 (\pm 0.5) and 4.1 (\pm 0.5) for NO₃:Si(OH)₄ and 13 (\pm 2) and 255 20 (\pm 2) for NO₃:PO₄ during 2003 and 2004, respectively (Table 1). 256

257

The chl a distribution reached maximum values of 2.6 and 1.2 mg·m⁻³ coinciding the more intense nutrient consumption during March 2003 and April 2004, respectively. Contrary the surface chl a concentration decreased to minimum values due to the nutrient exhaustion during the summer. The breakdown of the summer stratification provoked the upwards input of nutrients to the sea surface reactivating the phytoplankton activity in September.

264

The oxygen saturation varied from a minimum at the end of the summer period to a maximum just after the bloom periods. The highest saturation values, oversaturation of ~20%, were reached in June 2003 and July 2004 (Fig. 2).

268

269 Continuously recordings of fCO_2^{sw}

270 The seasonal evolution of fCO_2^{sw} (Fig. 2) showed an identical variability with a range 271 of 72 µatm for the two seasonal cycles. Briefly, several features are shared by both 272 annual fCO_2^{sw} cycles. During winter the Bay of Biscay displayed undersaturated

 fCO_2^{sw} level in relation to atmosphere with an homogeneous value of approximately 340 µatm for both winters. After that, minimum fCO_2^{sw} values were registered in spring probably caused by an intense phytoplankton growth. Subsequently, the summer SST increase led the fCO_2^{sw} distribution to the highest values of the seasonal cycle. Finally, during the autumn season fCO_2^{sw} diminished associated to the SST decrease.

278

However several events also showed notable differences between both seasonal cycles. 279 Thus the fCO₂^{sw} distribution during winter 2004 increased noticeably until reaching an 280 annual maximum in January 2004 (Fig. 2). This fCO2^{sw} trend closely followed the 281 282 evolution of nutrient levels and WML depth even reproducing a rise across two pulses between March and April 2004 (Fig. 2). The biological drawdown also yielded 283 differences in fCO2^{sw} reaching different undersaturation levels (73 and 85 µatm for 284 2003 and 2004, respectively). For the two seasonal cycles, the recorded spring bloom 285 presented two periods regarding the relationship between fCO_2^{sw} and chl a; one 286 corresponding to peak (February - March) and another to senescent stages (April -287 May) of phytoplankton growth. 288

289

The fCO₂^{sw} – chl a relationships during the intense CO₂ drawdown reached values of 42 (±6) and 60 (±2) μ atm·m³·mg⁻¹ during 2003 and 2004 respectively, substantially exceeded the valued registered (~17 μ atm·m³·mg⁻¹) by Watson et al. (1991) for the spring bloom in the North Atlantic during the NABE cruises. On the other hand, the photosynthetic activity for the subsequent senescent phase (Table 1) agreed with reported parameters (Watson et al., 1991; Frankignoulle et al., 1996). The thermodynamic control steered the Bay of Biscay surface waters to oversaturated levels of 371 μ atm during summer 2003. However the fCO₂^{sw} increase for summer 2004 was not so intense, not exceeding fCO₂^{atm} levels (Fig. 2).

299

The influence of the biological processes and the temperature variability on the fCO_2^{sw} distribution during the ECO cruises was evaluated estimating the variables ${}^{B}fCO_2^{sw}$ and ${}^{T}fCO_2^{sw}$, respectively, according to Takahashi et al. (2002):

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304
$${}^{B}fCO_{2}^{sw} = fCO_{2}^{sw} \exp[0.0423 (SST_{mean} - SST)]$$

305
$${}^{T}fCO_{2}^{sw} = fCO_{2}^{sw}_{mean} \exp [0.0423 (SST - SST_{mean})]$$

306

where ${}^{B}fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$ denotes the $fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$ normalized to the annual mean SST (SST_{mean}) and ${}^{T}fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$ represents the effect of SST distribution on the annual mean of $fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$ ($fCO_{2}{}^{sw}_{mean}$).

310

In other words, ^BfCO₂^{sw} is the fCO₂^{sw} distribution without the SST control, representing 311 the biological signal as well as other processes such as air-sea exchange and alkalinity 312 variations. The maximum ${}^{B}fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$ values are observed just at the end of the prebloom 313 periods nearly exceeding 403 and 437 µatm in both years. Subsequently the ${}^{B}fCO_{2}^{sw}$ is 314 drastically reduced, within a short period of time, due to the onset of phytoplankton 315 CO₂ uptake. Throughout the following months the net biological control reduces the 316 ^B fCO_2^{sw} in a similar way reaching the annual minima in midsummer, 275 and 279 µatm 317 for 2003 and 2004 respectively. After that heterotrophic processes raise ^BfCO₂^{sw} to the 318 winter values, establishing seasonal ranges of ~129 and ~159 µatm for 2003 and 2004 319 respectively. Hence, the range of ^BfCO₂^{sw} for the Bay of Biscay varies between 320 characteristic values of oligotrophic areas (~80 µatm) and typical values of productive 321

regions (~280 µatm). For the ECO cruises, 78% of the ${}^{B}fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$ variability was explained by the NO₃ distribution (${}^{B}fCO_{2}{}^{sw} = 313(\pm 4) + 55(\pm 7)\cdot NO_{3} - 7(\pm 2)\cdot NO_{3}{}^{2}$; n=48) showing the strong link between the ${}^{B}fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$ variability and the photosynthesis – respiration processes.

326

327 On the other hand, ${}^{T}fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$ distribution, meaning the SST control on $fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$ 328 distribution, yielded similar ranges, namely, 145 and 141 µatm with SST amplitude for 329 9.1 and 9.5°C for 2003 and 2004.

330

The monthly average variation of temperature control (^TfCO₂^{sw}) and biological control 331 $({}^{B}fCO_{2}^{sw})$ are shown in Figure 4b. The combined effect of both controls yields the net 332 fCO2^{sw} variability (white circles, Fig. 4b). The ^BfCO2^{sw} variation reached maximum 333 334 phytoplankton absorption of ~-46 and ~-73 µatm at the bloom periods of 2003 and 2004 respectively. The biological CO₂ uptake continued throughout the postbloom 335 periods, being clearly evident in autumn 2003 with a reduction of ~35 µatm. The sign 336 of this biological control was inverted from November to February pointing to a 337 dominance of surface heterotrophic processes or CO₂ enrichment due to entrainment of 338 339 subsurface waters, mainly, during the prebloom 2004. Regarding the variability of the temperature control, the minimum ^TfCO₂^{sw} was observed during autumn concomitant to 340 the water cooling developed in November 2003. Conversely, during warming periods 341 $^{T}\mathrm{fCO_{2}}^{\mathrm{sw}}$ showed higher values steered by SST increase. Maximum values of 58 μatm 342 were reached during both Junes. 343

344

The relative magnitude of biological and thermodynamic control was estimated as the ratio of seasonal amplitude of ${}^{B}fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$ and ${}^{T}fCO_{2}{}^{sw}$. The temperature effect played a similar role for the two years whereas the influence of the processes represented by ^B $_{\rm FCO_2^{\rm sw}}$ showed an important interannual variability. Thus the ${\rm fCO_2^{\rm sw}}$ variability associated to the biological control for 2004 was 10% stronger than the thermodynamic component of ${\rm fCO_2^{\rm sw}}$ variability.

351

The analysis of the biogeochemical control on fCO2^{sw} variability was extended 352 performing multiple linear regressions taking into account all the measured variables. 353 The variability of NO₃, PO₄, chl a, SSS and SST are good proxies of the different 354 processes that control the fCO2^{sw} variability such as thermodynamic effect, 355 356 remineralization processes and organic matter synthesis. So, the role and percentage of explained fCO_2^{sw} variability by each variable was assessed for the three periods of the 357 seasonal cycle, prebloom (October - February), bloom (March - May) and postbloom 358 359 (June - September). From here, the relationships considering only the significant variables were established (Table 2). 360

361

During the prebloom period, the fCO_2^{sw} distribution was poorly explained (~40%) with 362 a small error of ± 6.8 µatm that was associated to its homogeneous distribution from 363 October to February. Water mixing and photosynthetic activity depicted by NO3 and 364 chl a, respectively, seemed to control the fCO_2^{sw} variation explaining 15% and 21% of 365 fCO_2^{sw} variability, respectively (Table 2). During the bloom period the synthesis of 366 organic matter, represented by PO₄, explained 77% of the total fCO_2^{sw} variability 367 yielding a predicted fCO_2^{sw} error of 10 µatm. In spite of playing a weak role for the 368 other periods, SST was the main factor controlling fCO_2^{sw} trend during the postbloom 369 period explaining ~65% of the total variability. Including every significant variables, 370

the explained variability of fCO_2^{sw} reached 80%, pointing out the prevalence of physical processes during postbloom period.

373

374 Air-sea CO₂ exchange

The measurements of fCO_2^{sw} and fCO_2^{atm} (Fig. 2) in the Bay of Biscay indicated a regular absorption of atmospheric CO₂ during the ECO cruises. The fCO_2 disequilibrium between seawater and atmosphere was -29 ± 25 (±1) µatm and -36 ± 20 (±1) µatm for 2003 and 2004 respectively. The maximum undersaturation of surface waters in relation to the atmosphere was recorded during April 2004, reaching a fCO_2 gradient of ~-83 µatm. In contrast, the direction of CO₂ exchange was inverted during August 2003 with an oversaturation of ~9 µatm with respect to the atmosphere.

382

383 The air-sea CO_2 fluxes were computed according to Equation 3, using wind speeds retrieved from remote QuikSCAT sensor and Nightingale's coefficients. The amplitude 384 of daily CO₂ flux ranged from 1.2 to -20 molC·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ (not shown) and the average 385 flux was $-1.52\pm 1.89 (\pm 0.08) \text{ molC} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$ for the ECO cruises (Fig. 5). The net CO₂ 386 uptake showed small interannual variability of -1.29 ± 1.68 (±0.09) and -1.7 ± 2.0 (±0.1) 387 molC·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ for 2003 and 2004 respectively. The behaviour of the Bay of Biscay as an 388 atmospheric CO₂ sink was evident throughout every considered partition of the 389 seasonal cycle. The average CO₂ flux was stimulated during both prebloom periods due 390 to kinetic effect of intense winds (Fig. 5), reporting $-1.9\pm1.7 (\pm0.1) \text{ molC} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$. The 391 CO₂ uptake for the two bloom periods was only -2.4 \pm 2.4 (\pm 0.2) molC·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ in spite 392 of showing the maximum disequilibrium and the absolute maximum of weekly 393 absorption ~-8 molC·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ during the bloom 2004. The small fCO₂ gradient and the 394 weak wind speed during the successive postbloom periods yielded mean CO₂ 395

396 exchanges of -0.08 ± 0.41 (±0.04) and -0.58 ± 0.59 (±0.05) molC·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ for 2003 and 397 2004 respectively.

398

Wind speed is one of the main sources of uncertainty in the estimations of CO₂ 399 exchange. Therefore the CO₂ fluxes were also estimated using wind speed values from 400 NCEP/NCAR model (Olsen et al., 2003). The known lower celerity of NCEP/NCAR 401 winds (Olsen et al., 2005, Padin et al., 2007b) compared to QuikSCAT values yielded a 402 26% reduction in the annual capacity of CO₂ uptake, though keeping the interannual 403 variability. The annual mean CO₂ uptake in the Bay of Biscay, taking into account the 404 405 Nightingale's coefficients and wind speed from NCEP/NCAR and QuikSCAT, ranged from -1.3±1.7 (±0.1) molC·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ during 2003 using NCEP/NCAR wind speed and -406 $2.4\pm2.7 (\pm0.1) \text{ molC}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$ during 2004 using QuikSCAT values. 407

408

The empirical relationships developed for each period (see Table 2) were also used to 409 410 assess the CO₂ exchange in the Bay of Biscay. The disagreements between the in situ and modelled CO_2 fluxes are depicted in Figure 5. The mean difference for the entire 411 time series was -0.11 \pm 0.51 (\pm 0.02) molC·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ pointing out a slight bias of the 412 estimated algorithms towards fCO₂^{sw} underestimation. The maximum disagreement 413 $(\sim 1.81 \text{ molC} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1})$ was observed at the beginning of the postbloom 2004 and in 414 general the CO₂ flux was poorly predicted during postbloom periods. The errors 415 reported during the successive years were ~ 15 and $\sim 21\%$, respectively, though there are 416 not too significant due to the reduced CO₂ exchange. On the other hand, the best 417 predictions were achieved during prebloom periods, with an error range of 4–6 %. 418

419

420 DISCUSSION

The temporal fCO_2^{sw} distribution during the ECO cruises from November 2002 to December 2004 emphasized the biogeochemical differences at seasonal and interannual scale in the inner part of the Bay of Biscay. An abrupt increase of fCO_2^{sw} values was recorded during winter 2004 but still kept the stronger capacity of CO_2 uptake. So, the longer persistence of winter mixing in 2004 provoked a stronger nutrient fertilization that increased in 1.6 times the NO₃ concentration of the previous year and completely modified the nutrients ratios NO₃:PO₄ and NO₃:Si(OH)₄ compared to the winter 2003.

429

430 The different winter mixing conditions each year determined the development and characteristics of the following periods of the seasonal cycle. For example, the fCO_2^{sw} – 431 chl a relationship showed a significant interannual variability during the bloom periods. 432 The intercept of fCO_2^{sw} – chl a for 2003 was close to the *in situ* fCO_2^{atm} levels as 433 expected (Watson et al., 1991; Frankignouille et al., 1996) pointing out the winter air-434 435 sea equilibrium once the biological activity is removed. In contrast the intercept of fCO_2^{sw} – chl a relationship for 2004 appreciably exceeded the in situ fCO_2^{atm} level 436 probably associated with intense winter mixing conditions for the 2004 as we explained 437 below. During the 2004 spring bloom, we have observed a strong CO₂ uptake (~289 438 µatm) that does not match with the relatively low surface chl a. We suspect that the 439 lower sampling frequency during 2004 could hinder the observation of chlorophyll 440 maximum. 441

442

443 The Eastern North Atlantic Central Waters (ENACW) are formed in the Bay of Biscay 444 by subduction processes during the winter convection when these mode water 445 thermohaline properties are established (Paillet and Mercier, 1997). There is an

interannual variation in these properties as the result of variations in the winter air-sea 446 interaction, oceanic heat transport and eddy activity in the formation area. 447 Consequently the prevailing meteorological conditions were analyzed from October to 448 January for both seasonal cycles in order to investigate the reported differences during 449 the formation period of mode waters. Taking into account the water mass distribution in 450 the vicinity of the Bay of Biscay described by Harvey et al. (1982), the latitudinal 451 module of wind was accumulated throughout the winter mixing period. The results 452 (Figure 3) clearly show two different patterns even though wind speed was nearly the 453 same $(8\pm4 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1})$ for both years. The dominant wind during 2003 was characterized by 454 455 southern origin (wet and warm) whereas northerly winds (dry and cold) prevailed during the winter mixing of 2004 favouring the longer and deeper winter convection 456 (Pérez et al., 1995). However the nutrient concentrations measured during the ECO 457 458 cruises even during winter 2004 did not reach the nutrient values previously reported for this region (Treguer et al., 1979; Castro et al., 1998; Pérez et al., 2001). In any case, 459 it seems clear that the meteorological conditions during the formation of the winter 460 mixed layer influence both properties of the mixed layer and their biogeochemical 461 evolution. 462

463

The algorithms performed here to predict fCO_2^{sw} for each period fitted the observed variability with an error lower than 10 µatm. Among measured variables, PO₄ played an outstanding role in the fCO_2^{sw} control during bloom periods explaining 77% of fCO_2^{sw} variability. The photosynthetic absorption and respiration processes were adequately depicted by biological utilisation and rapid remineralization of PO₄ in the surface layer. During postbloom periods, the fCO_2^{sw} distribution was mainly led by temperature. This temperature control of 6.9 µatm·°C⁻¹ disagrees with the isochemical

ratio of ~14 μ atm·°C⁻¹ estimated from the fCO₂^{sw} variability found in the Bay of Biscay 471 (Takahashi et al., 1993). The influence of processes such as mixing waters and 472 phytoplankton uptake altered the theoretical value as previously described by Lüger et 473 al. (2004) in the Eastern North Atlantic Ocean who reported a temperature control of 474 8.7 µatm·°C⁻¹. The addition of the nutrient concentration in the assessment of the 475 fCO_2^{sw} algorithm clearly constrains its variability, increasing the fCO_2^{sw} explained 476 variability up to 30%. In fact, compared with previous manuscript where only SST 477 (Stephens et al., 1995; Cosca et al., 2003; Olsen et al., 2004; Feely et al, 2006; 478 Wanninkhof et al., 2006) and chl a (Ono et al., 2004) were considered, we have been 479 able to explain a higher percentage of the fCO₂^{sw} variability with our computed 480 algorithm. Nevertheless, the operational usefulness of the empirical algorithms 481 estimated from nutrients, unlike other computed from SST and chl a, is more limited. 482

483

In spite of this interannual variability, the air-sea fluxes reported similar CO₂ uptake 484 during successive years $-1.29\pm1.68 (\pm 0.09)$ and $-1.7\pm2.0 (\pm 0.1) \text{ molC} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$ for 2003 485 and 2004, respectively. From our dataset and using the most frequently used wind 486 speed, we have estimated a CO₂ uptake range from -1.3 ± 1.7 (±0.1) to -2.4 ± 2.7 (±0.1) 487 molC·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ including the value of -1.84 molC·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ for marginal seas between 488 32°N and 57°N (Borges et al., 2005). Extrapolating these CO₂ fluxes to the entire Bay 489 of Biscay – limited by the continental slope, 9°W meridian and 47°N parallel; $1.9 \cdot 10^{11}$ 490 m^2 – the absorbing capacity of atmospheric CO₂ varies between 3 and 5 TgC·yr⁻¹. 491 These amounts approximately represent 6% and 10% of the CO₂ drawdown estimated 492 for the North Atlantic Ocean between 45° and 55°N (Telszewski et al., 2005) in spite of 493 standing for only 5% of its area. The intense CO₂ uptake in the Bay of Biscay compared 494 to average values for the North Atlantic Ocean bears relation to the formation of 495

Eastern North Atlantic Central Water (ENACW). The subduction processes that reach 496 values of 50 -100 m·yr⁻¹ (Marshall et al., 1993) isolate CO₂ enriched water during the 497 synthesis and remineralization of organic matter from the surface. Hence the 498 subduction of newly formed ENACW vintages in the Bay of Biscay constitutes a 499 carbon flux to the ocean interior (Marhsall et al., 1993, Follows et al., 1996, Paillet and 500 Mercier, 1997). The oceanic sequestration of atmospheric CO_2 is a decisive process in 501 climatological and geochemical terms (Thiele et al., 1986) therefore its variability, 502 especially in strong sink regions as the Bay of Biscay, should be studied under every 503 climatological conditions. 504

505

506 CONCLUSIONS

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The underway measurements performed during the ECO cruises using ships of opportunity from November 2002 to December 2004 report an intense CO_2 uptake in the Bay of Biscay. The estimation of CO_2 fluxes ranged from -1.3 to -2.4 molC·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ on a yearly basis, exceeding the sink capacity of the nearby regions of the North Atlantic Ocean.

513

The fCO_2^{sw} distribution was correctly predicted from three empirical relationships during prebloom, bloom and postbloom periods reporting errors of ~6.6, ~10 and ~7.7 µatm, respectively. Nevertheless the gathered dataset showed differences in the biogeochemical distributions at seasonal and interannual scale. Thus the intense fertilization in winter 2004 was the trigger mechanism for the strong biological uptake during the following spring bloom, supporting the role of the Bay of Biscay as a CO_2 sink.

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522	Our results highlight the significant effects of physical and biological processes in the
523	uptake capacity of the Bay of Biscay probably steered by meteorological conditions. On
524	the other hand, the use of unattended fCO_2 measuring systems installed on board of
525	ships of opportunity provides valuable information for understanding the CO_2
526	distribution and the processes affecting its variability at different scales.
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Figure 1: Map of the study area showing the regular route (black line) and the four sampling stations (white circles) in the inner part of the Bay of Biscay.

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Figure 2: Mean values of the four stations during each cruise of sea surface temperature (SST; white circles), sea surface salinity (SSS; grey circles), phosphate (PO₄; white circles), silicate (Si(OH)₄; grey circles) and nitrate concentration (NO₃; dark grey circles), chlorophyll *a* concentration (chl a; white circles), oxygen (O₂; grey circles) and CO₂ fugacity in the seawater (black circles) and the atmosphere (dotted line).

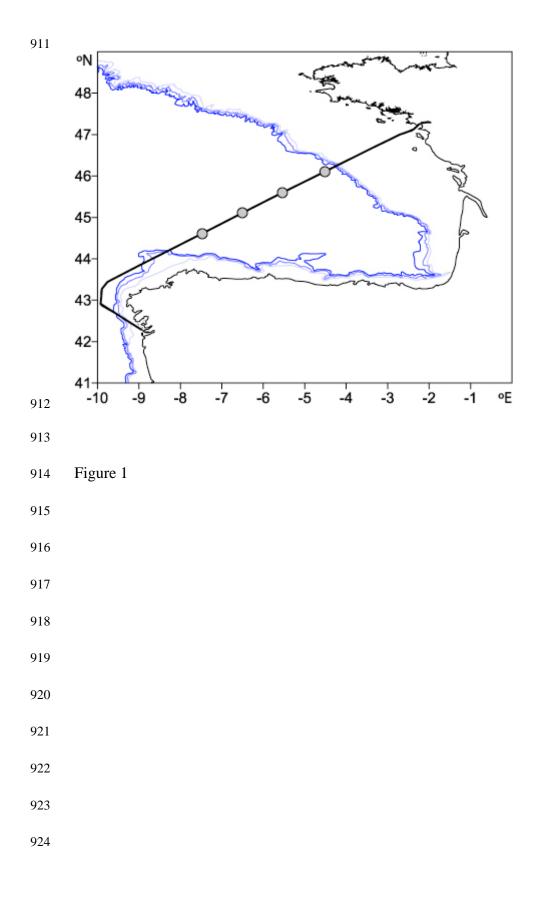
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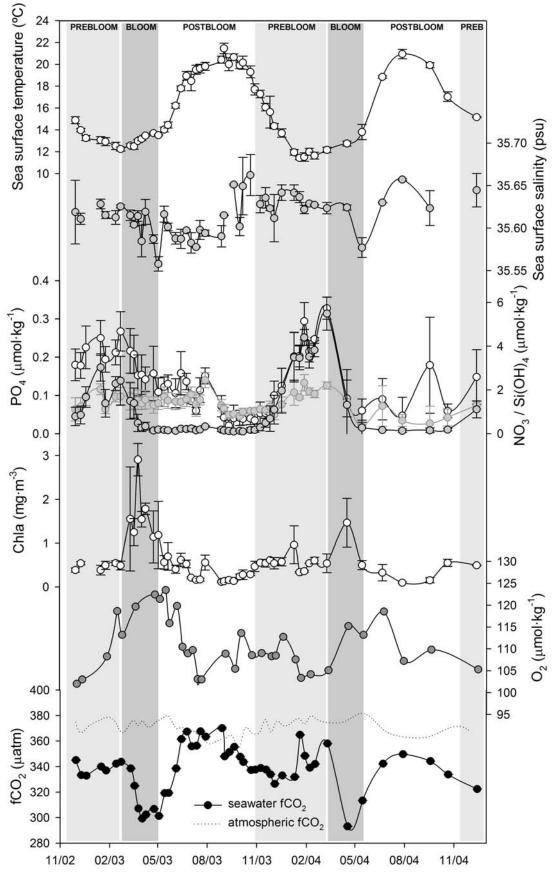
Figure 3: Mixed layer depth throughout the following 215 days from 1st October of the winter mixing period of 2003 (black line) and 2004 (grey line) estimated from MERCATOR-OCEAN model. Accumulated latitudinal component of wind speed during the same period retrieved from QuikSCAT sensor at averaged point (45°N 6°W) during 2003 (white circle) and 2004 (grey circle).

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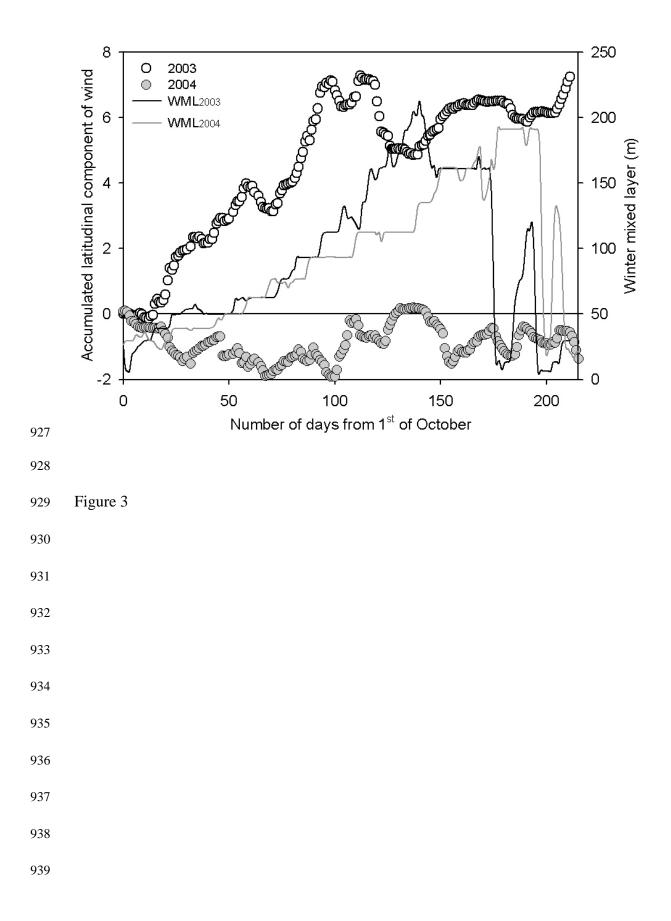
Figure 4: a) Average values of the four stations of chlorophyll *a* concentration (white circles) and the monthly distribution of fCO_2^{sw} at the mean sea surface temperature at annual scale (${}^BfCO_2^{sw}$, black circles) and the annual mean fCO_2^{sw} value corrected for changes in temperature (${}^TfCO_2^{sw}$, grey circles). b) Average values of observed fCO_2^{sw} (white circles) for each ECO transect in the Bay of Biscay and monthly variation of ${}^BfCO_2^{sw}$ meaning biological control (black bar) and ${}^TfCO_2^{sw}$ meaning temperature control (grey bar).

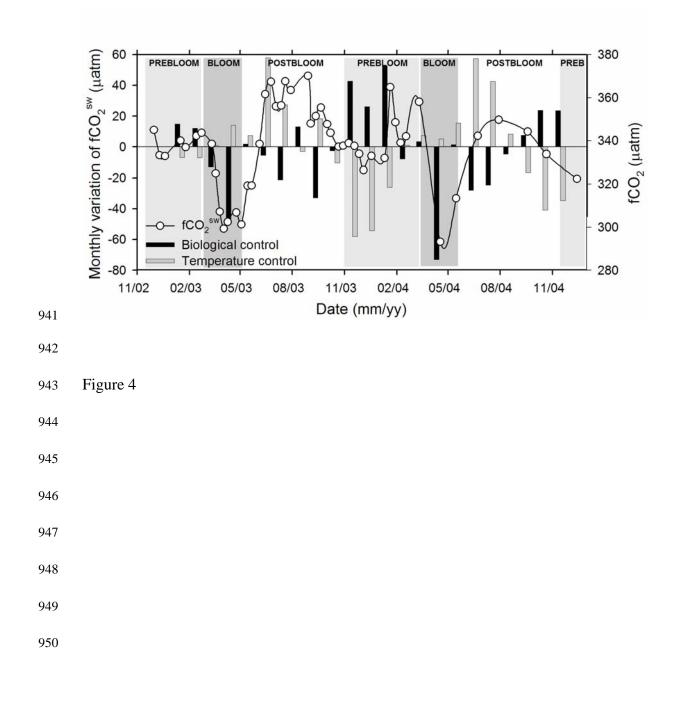
866	Figure 5: Interpolated values from weekly averages of air-sea CO ₂ flux estimated in the
867	Bay of Biscay (thick line) and of flux anomalies associated to fCO_2^{sw} estimation using
868	empirical relationships (fine line) as well as mean values for each period and for the
869	entire sampled period. Interpolated values of wind speed obtained from QuikSCAT
870	sensor (grey thick line) and NCEP/NCAR reanalysis model (grey fine line).
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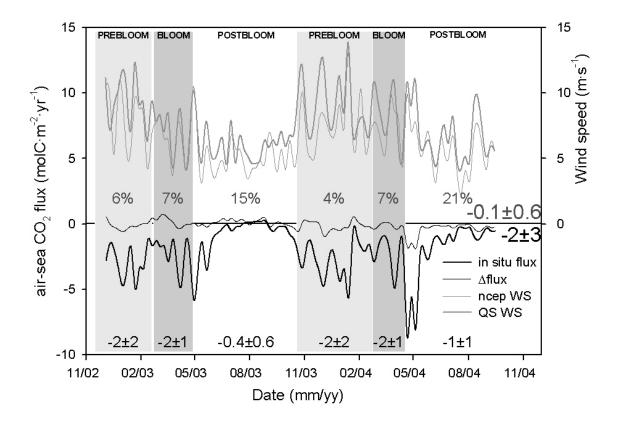




Date (mm/yy)







952 Figure 5