

1 **An Ocean Implementation Plan for the U.S. Carbon**
2 **Cycle Science Program (CCSP-Oceans)**

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1 Summary

The ocean carbon cycle is a key component of the global climate system, regulating on annual to millennial time-scale the uptake, storage, and release to the atmosphere of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and other climate relevant chemical species. Currently about 30% of the anthropogenic carbon emitted to the atmosphere by fossil-fuel burning is removed by oceanic uptake, but the future behavior of this important carbon sink is quite uncertain because of potential climate change impacts on ocean circulation, biogeochemical cycling, and ecosystem dynamics. A coordinated observational, experimental and modeling research effort is required to address the scope of these ocean carbon problems and their connections to physical climate and other aspects of the global carbon cycle. We present an integrated, multi-agency implementation plan for oceanic monitoring and research aimed at determining how much carbon dioxide is being taken up by the ocean at the present time and how climate change will affect the future behavior of the carbon sink. This plan is the ocean component of the U.S. Carbon Cycle Science Program, **CCSP-Oceans**. It builds on the extensive set of U.S. and international community planning workshops and reports completed over the last several years.

Within the broader goals outlined by the U.S. CCSP, we highlight four fundamental science questions:

1. What is the global inventory, geographic distribution, and temporal evolution of **anthropogenic CO₂** in the oceans?
2. What is the magnitude, spatial pattern, and variability of **air-sea CO₂ flux**?
3. What are the major physical, chemical, and biological **feedback mechanisms** and **climate sensitivities** for ocean carbon storage?
4. What is the scientific basis for ocean carbon **mitigation strategies**?

The implementation strategy consists of the following coordinated elements:

- Enhancing the **global ocean carbon observing network** based on global carbon hydrographic surveys, surface water observations, time-series, satellite remote sensing, and a North American coastal observing system.
- Conducting targeted, **multi-disciplinary process studies** on the response of upper ecosystems and air-sea CO₂ flux to inter-annual climate variability, biogeochemical cycling in the mesopelagic zone, continental margin carbon dynamics, air-sea gas exchange, and Southern Ocean dynamics.
- Integrating field observations, **data synthesis and numerical modeling** through forward prognostic models as well as inverse and data assimilation techniques.
- Accelerating **enabling activities** such as technology development, data management and accessibility, international cooperation, workshops, education and outreach, contributions to national carbon assessments, and ongoing scientific oversight and coordination.

A phased, basin-by-basin approach is proposed for a 10 year program broken into two 5 year components. In phase 1 (beginning in 2003 ramping up to the full program in 2005-2009) emphasis will be placed on the North Atlantic and Pacific in conjunction with the

1 North American Carbon Program. Southern Ocean synthesis and pilot studies are also
2 proposed for phase 1 followed by a full Southern Ocean field effort in phase 2 (2010-
3 2014). Particular emphasis is placed in phase 1 on accelerating technology development
4 and field testing for new biogeochemical techniques, in situ manipulation experimental
5 approaches, remote sensing algorithms, data assimilation, and autonomous sensors and
6 platforms that have the opportunity to revolutionize how ocean carbon cycle research is
7 conducted and will provide the capability to measure important properties over large
8 sections of the ocean on an almost continual basis.

9
10 Anticipated scientific products and payoffs from CCSP-Oceans are summarized as
11 follows:

- 12
- 13 • Temporal evolution and lateral transport of ocean natural and anthropogenic CO₂,
14 nutrients, oxygen, DOM, and trace metals (e.g., constrain basin-scale decadal
15 changes of anthropogenic carbon inventory to +/- 20%)
16
- 17 • Air-sea CO₂ flux basin-scale to global patterns, seasonal to inter-annual
18 variability, and climate sensitivity (e.g., constrain North Atlantic and North
19 Pacific fluxes to +/-0.2 Pg C/y)
20
- 21 • Seasonal to interannual variability and secular trends for upper ocean carbon
22 cycling, ecosystem structure, primary and export production, and subsurface
23 carbon dynamics
24
- 25 • North American coastal ocean and continental margin air-sea CO₂ fluxes, land-
26 ocean and coastal open ocean carbon exchange, and biogeochemical cycling
27
- 28 • Physical, chemical, and biological controls on present and future marine
29 ecosystems and ocean carbon cycle including biogeochemical responses to and
30 feedbacks on climate change
31
- 32 • New suite of tested in situ, remote sensing and numerical tools for observing and
33 studying the ocean carbon system
34
- 35 • Communication of research findings and decision support tools to stakeholders
36 (scientific community, policy makers, resource managers, students, general
37 public)

1

2 **2 Introduction**

3 Over the last two centuries, the composition of the Earth's atmosphere has been
4 altered substantially by human activities, including fossil fuel burning, agriculture,
5 deforestation and industrial emissions. The levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂),
6 an important greenhouse gas that modulates Earth's radiative balance and climate, have
7 increased from a preindustrial value of 280 ppm to about 370 ppm at present (equivalent
8 to an increase of ~180 Pg of carbon; 1 Pg = 10¹⁵g). A definitive anthropogenic origin for
9 the excess carbon dioxide can be assigned based on contemporaneous changes in carbon
10 isotopes and by the fact that the atmospheric carbon dioxide levels for the preceding
11 several millennia of the Holocene had hovered within plus or minus 5 ppm of the
12 preindustrial value (Prentice et al., 2001). 'Business as usual' economic and climate
13 scenarios project values as high as 700 to 800 ppm by the end of the twenty-first century,
14 levels not experienced on Earth for the past several million years (Pearson and Palmer,
15 2000).

16
17 These human perturbations occur on top of a large, natural carbon cycle background,
18 a complex system involving the ocean, atmosphere and land domains as well as the
19 fluxes between them. The ocean is the largest labile reservoir for carbon on decadal to
20 millennial time scales, acting as a variable sink for atmospheric CO₂ and other climate-
21 relevant trace gases (e.g., Siegenthaler and Sarmiento, 1993), and it will serve as the
22 ultimate sink for about 90% of the anthropogenic carbon released to the atmosphere
23 (Archer et al., 1998). Recent estimates suggest that only about half of the CO₂ released by
24 human activity during the last two decades has remained in the atmosphere; on average,
25 about 30% of the CO₂ emissions or ~2 Pg C/y has been taken up by the ocean (Quay et
26 al., 1992; Takahashi et al., 1999). The future behavior of this ocean carbon sink is
27 uncertain, however, because of possible feedbacks among climate change, ocean
28 circulation, marine biota, and the ocean carbon cycle (e.g., Joos et al., 1999; Bopp et al.,
29 2001).

30
31 The U.S. Carbon Cycle Science Plan (Sarmiento and Wofsy, 1999) identifies five
32 overall scientific goals, three of which have significant ocean components:

- 33
- Goal 1: Understanding the Northern Hemisphere land sink;
 - 34 • Goal 2: Understanding the ocean carbon sink;
 - 35 • Goal 4: Improving projections of future atmospheric CO₂.

36 Goal 1 requires improved estimates of riverine transport, biogeochemical cycling, and
37 air-sea CO₂ fluxes in adjacent coastal waters and open North Atlantic and North Pacific
38 basins. Goal 2 is intended to establish accurate estimates of the oceanic carbon sink,
39 including interannual variability, spatial distribution, sensitivity to change in climate, and
40 underlying mechanisms. Goal 4 has related objectives that require a mechanistic
41 understanding of biological, chemical, and physical processes that lead to carbon cycle-
42 climate feedbacks. Achieving these goals requires an integrated oceanic program

1 involving strategies for observations over a wide range of temporal and spatial scales
2 combined with experimental studies and model development.

3
4 The objective of this white paper is to outline an implementation strategy for the
5 ocean component of the U.S. Carbon Cycle Science Program, *CCSP-Oceans*. An Interim
6 Implementation Group was formed in July, 2002 by the U.S. CCSP Scientific Steering
7 Group and Inter-agency Working Group. The specific charge to this group is to develop
8 integrated, cross-agency implementation ideas; facilitate implementation and
9 coordination of existing and emerging U.S. ocean carbon cycle research; and maintain
10 links to other components of the U.S. CCSP, climate and ocean physics, and international
11 programs.

12
13 This white paper draws heavily on a series of U.S. and international ocean carbon
14 cycle community meetings, workshops and planning reports completed over the last
15 several years. These include in particular: OCTET-Ocean Carbon Transport, Exchanges
16 and Transformation (Lee et al., 2000); EDOCC-Ecological Determinants of the Ocean
17 Carbon Cycle (reference, 2000); U.S. SOLAS-Surface Ocean Lower Atmosphere Study
18 (Wanninkhof, 2002); LSCOP-Large-scale CO₂ Observing Plan (Bender et al., 2002); an
19 international GOOS-Global Ocean Observing System report on ocean carbon (Doney and
20 Hood, 2002); the RioMar report (McKee et al., 2003); and a series of U.S. JGOFS
21 Synthesis and Modeling Project workshops and reports. The reports document in detail
22 the current state of our understanding of the ocean carbon cycle, the critical knowledge
23 gaps and outstanding research questions, and the rationale for a coordinated research
24 program. Here we focus on presenting the corresponding implementation structure.

25
26 The global carbon cycle is a single system with multi-faceted aspects cutting across
27 the three major domains: the ocean, land, and atmosphere. Many of the most important
28 advances in the field over the last decade involve combining data sets and models for the
29 different reservoirs in new ways because results from one domain often place invaluable
30 constraints on the workings of the other two. For example, the complexity and variability
31 of carbon storage and uptake on land suggests that the long-standing approach of
32 separately determining storage and fluxes in the ocean and atmosphere and evaluating
33 regional and global behavior of the terrestrial biosphere by difference will likely be
34 required well into the future. This report acknowledges the global nature of the carbon
35 cycle but addresses only the ocean component and relevant ocean-atmosphere and land-
36 ocean interactions. The recommendations, however, have been coordinated closely with
37 the implementation documents for the U.S. CCSP North American Carbon Program
38 (NCAP) (Wofsy and Harriss, 2001; Wofsy et al., 2003) and the Carbon Data Assimilation
39 initiative (Fung et al., 2003).

41 **3 Science Background**

42 The fossil fuel carbon source and growth of atmospheric CO₂ are reasonably well
43 known based on economic reconstructions and atmospheric monitoring (Prentice et al.,
44 2001). A number of complementary, albeit indirect, means have been proposed for
45 partitioning the long-term net carbon sink between ocean and land reservoirs, producing

1 generally similar results for the global net ocean uptake of ~ 2 Pg C/y. These include
2 global ^{13}C budgets for CO_2 (Quay et al., 1992; Tans et al., 1993; Heimann and Maier
3 Reimer, 1996; Quay et al., 2003) data based estimates of anthropogenic CO_2 inventories
4 in the ocean (Gruber et al., 1996, Sabine et al., 1999, Sabine et al., 2002), ocean forward
5 and inverse models (Sarmiento et al., 2001; Gloor et al., 2002), and combined use of
6 atmospheric oxygen and CO_2 records (Keeling and Shertz, 1992, Keeling et al., 1996).
7 Given the significant uncertainties that are associated with each of these indirect
8 methods, it is imperative to document the time evolution of the oceanic carbon inventory
9 directly through repeat measurements. The regional air-sea flux patterns are less well
10 known, with significant disagreement among atmospheric inversions, ocean surface pCO_2
11 flux estimates and ocean numerical models particularly for the North Atlantic and
12 Southern Ocean (Takahashi et al., 2002; Gurney et al., 2002). The 1990's WOCE/JGOFS
13 global survey provides a high quality/precision baseline estimate of the ocean dissolved
14 inorganic carbon (DIC) distribution, and preliminary direct estimates of the ocean DIC
15 temporal evolution and horizontal ocean DIC transport are being developed (Wallace,
16 2001).

17
18 The net ocean uptake of anthropogenic carbon appears to be controlled over the
19 historical period and at present by ocean physics, namely the ventilation and exchange of
20 surface waters with the thermocline and intermediate/ deep waters (Sarmiento and
21 Gruber, 2002). This uptake, however, is superimposed upon the large background
22 inventory and spatial and temporal gradients of DIC within the ocean driven by the
23 natural marine carbon cycle. These patterns include substantial net CO_2 outgassing at the
24 equator and ingassing at high latitudes governed by the physical solubility pump and the
25 particulate organic and inorganic and dissolved organic matter biological pumps
26 (Takahashi et al., 2002). At high latitudes the solubility of CO_2 in water, as well as the
27 density of seawater, increases due to decreasing temperatures. As the cooled surface
28 water sinks to depth it enhances the storage of CO_2 in deep ocean waters, the so-called
29 solubility pump. Alternatively, the biological pump refers to the processes that convert
30 CO_2 to organic and inorganic matter by photosynthesis and remove the carbon to depth
31 (where it is respired or remineralized) via sinking particles, diffusion, physical mixing,
32 and active transport. In many ocean regions the biological pump can have a stronger
33 control on the distribution of CO_2 than the solubility pump. Furthermore, present models
34 predict that without a biological pump the atmospheric CO_2 concentration would rise to
35 levels of ~ 680 ppm, about 400 ppm above pre-industrial levels.

36
37 Intensive field research over the last two decades (Fasham et al., 2001) and recent
38 availability of satellite ocean color measurements (McClain et al., 1998; 2002) have
39 greatly improved our understanding on the seasonal and geographical patterns of
40 particulate carbon export flux from the upper ocean, phytoplankton standing stock, and
41 marine primary productivity. There is also a growing appreciation of the complexity of
42 factors governing the ocean biological pumps (e.g., iron limitation, nitrogen fixation,
43 calcification, community structure, mesoscale physical-biological interaction, subsurface
44 remineralization).

45

1 The limited number of long-term ocean time series stations show significant
2 biogeochemical variability from sub-diurnal to decadal timescales. Changes in large-scale
3 ocean-atmosphere patterns such as ENSO, the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), and the
4 North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) appear to drive much of the inter-annual variability,
5 and this variability is expressed on regional (several hundred-to-thousands of kilometers)
6 rather than basin-to-global scales. Large inter-annual variability in the partial pressure of
7 surface water CO₂ (pCO₂) and CO₂ fluxes in the Equatorial Pacific are well documented
8 (Feely et al., 1999b; 2002). Mid-latitude variability signals are less clear (LeQuere et al,
9 2000; in press). But at the Bermuda Atlantic Time-Series Station (BATS), a clear
10 correlation has been demonstrated between NAO and ocean hydrographic and
11 biogeochemical variables such as temperature, mixed layer depth, primary production,
12 and total DIC, suggesting that the North Atlantic is likely responding in a coordinated,
13 basin-wide manner to interannual variability (Bates, 2001; Gruber et al. 2002; Bates et
14 al., 2002). This is in agreement with modeling studies (Williams et al., 2000; McKinley
15 et al., 2000), which also found that variations in heat fluxes and wind stirring leading to
16 variations in winter time mixed layer depths are the main drivers for inter-annual
17 variability in export production and seasonal oxygen fluxes.

18
19 The slower, decadal time-scale ocean responses (e.g., changes in nutrient stocks and
20 community structure) are not as well characterized as the interannual response, though
21 there is tantalizing evidence for large-scale biogeochemical regime shifts (or perhaps
22 secular trends) (Karl, 1999) and changes in nutrient distributions (Emerson et al., 2001).
23 Distinguishing a human-induced, climate-change signal from natural decadal variability
24 on this time-scale is often singularly difficult, particularly given the relatively short
25 duration of most oceanographic data records. But model projections suggest that
26 anthropogenic impacts are accelerating and become more evident in the near future.

27
28 Under future greenhouse warming climate scenarios, the physical uptake of
29 anthropogenic carbon by the ocean is expected to decline because of surface warming,
30 increased vertical stratification, and slowed thermohaline circulation (Sarmiento et al.,
31 1998; Matear and Hirst, 1999). In coupled simulations with simple biogeochemical
32 models, these physical effects are partly compensated by increased uptake from changes
33 in the strength of the natural biological carbon pump. The biogeochemical response is
34 governed by two opposing factors, a reduction in the upward nutrient supply due to the
35 increased stratification, which leads to decreased export production of organic matter and
36 carbon dioxide uptake, and a decrease in the upward vertical flux of dissolved inorganic
37 carbon. The latter factor generally dominates in the present simulations, so that the effect
38 of altered biogeochemistry is a net positive carbon dioxide uptake. Given the low level of
39 biological sophistication used in these early simulations, such projections must be
40 considered preliminary, demonstrating the potential sensitivity of the system and posing
41 important questions to be addressed through future research.

42
43 A wide variety of other mechanisms have been identified that could conceivably alter
44 ocean carbon uptake, but in many cases even the sign of the biogeochemical response, let
45 alone the quantitative magnitude, is uncertain (Denman *et al.*, 1996; Doney and
46 Sarmiento, 1999). Potential effects include:

- 1 • decreased calcification from lower pH and CO₃ ion concentrations resulting from
2 anthropogenic CO₂ uptake (Kleypas et al., 1999; Riesebell et al., 2000);
- 3 • decreased vertical nutrient supply and in some regions enhanced, effective-
4 surface-layer light supply leading to often opposing regional changes in primary
5 productivity (Bopp et al., 2001);
- 6 • alterations in the spatial patterns and community composition of marine biomes
7 due to changes in stratification (Boyd and Doney, 2002);
- 8 • modifications in dust deposition and iron fertilization affecting the high nitrate-
9 low chlorophyll (HNLC) regions such as the Southern Ocean and possibly
10 subtropical nitrogen fixation;
- 11 • decoupling of carbon and macronutrient cycling because of shifts in the elemental
12 stoichiometry of surface export and differential subsurface remineralization.

13 Accounting for such hypotheses in future climate projections is presently problematic
14 given our current understanding and modeling tools (Doney, 1999; Falkowski et al.,
15 2000).

16
17 A number of technological strategies have been proposed for mitigation of
18 atmospheric CO₂ build-up via deliberate carbon sequestration. One marine approach
19 involves capturing fossil-fuel carbon locally at production or combustion sites and then
20 injecting it directly into the deep-ocean (e.g., Brewer et al., 1999). Other methods involve
21 enhancing biological carbon uptake and storage from ocean ecosystems through
22 deliberate nutrient fertilization. The most commonly proposed approach is based on the
23 assertion that phytoplankton in the surface layer of high-nitrate low chlorophyll (HNLC)
24 regions are iron limited (e.g., Coale et al., 1996). In considering mitigation strategies,
25 societies must assess the desired atmospheric CO₂ targets, the economic trade-offs
26 between reducing fossil-fuel use versus deliberate sequestration, the feasibility of the
27 sequestration strategy, the environmental consequences, and the capability to maintain
28 such efforts over long time periods (Dilling et al., submitted).

29
30 Many basic aspects of the ocean carbon system are inadequately understood, directly
31 impacting our ability to make realistic future projections and or assess potential carbon
32 management scenarios. Areas requiring particular focus include the mechanistic controls
33 on upper ocean ecosystem structure and the elemental composition of export fluxes; the
34 dynamics of organic and inorganic transport and remineralization in the mesopelagic
35 zone; land-ocean exchange and carbon cycling in the coastal ocean and along continental
36 margins; and the mechanisms of air-sea gas exchange. Recent advances on new
37 biogeochemical techniques (e.g., molecular probes, eddy correlation CO₂ fluxes) and
38 large-scale ocean experimental manipulation (e.g., iron fertilization) suggest that an
39 opportunity exists at present to make rapid progress in these areas. Technological
40 developments involving autonomous instruments, remote sensing and numerical
41 modeling also give us for the first time a real prospect that we will be able to measure
42 important properties over large sections of the ocean on an almost continual basis.

1 Therefore the acceleration of the development and field validation of such instruments
2 and techniques is highlighted as a key program element in the proposed phase 1 of
3 CCSP-Oceans.
4

5 **4 Objectives and Implementation Strategy**

6
7 While the overarching CCSP goals described in section 2 (Sarmiento and Wofsy,
8 1999) provide general guidance for the development of a CCSP-Oceans program, more
9 focused scientific questions must be articulated in order to design a research
10 implementation plan. A major common theme that runs through community ocean carbon
11 planning documents is constraining the past, present and future net oceanic uptake rate of
12 CO₂. To accomplish this task, one must have a good quantitative description of the
13 modern carbon cycle (inventory, air-sea fluxes, and internal cycling) and be able to
14 quantify and attribute historical perturbations. Further, one must have a good mechanistic
15 understanding of the main physical, chemical, and biological mediated processes
16 governing carbon cycling and how those processes would respond to warming,
17 stratification and other climate change factors as well as the potential for direct carbon
18 mitigation. Climate sensitivity can be expressed in terms of changes in the ocean's
19 capacity to absorb atmospheric CO₂, providing a common framework for examining a
20 wide range of processes regulating carbon fluxes in the oceans and leading directly to
21 more reliable projections of the future trajectory of atmospheric CO₂. This vision is
22 outlined below in more detail through a set of four fundamental questions that guide the
23 development of the implementation strategy.
24

25 **1) What is the global inventory, geographic distribution, and temporal evolution of** 26 **anthropogenic CO₂ in the oceans?**

27 The WOCE/JGOFS global CO₂ survey results provide the first global snapshot of the
28 ocean inorganic carbon inventory and partitioning into pre-industrial and anthropogenic
29 components. Major tasks now include observing directly the temporal evolution of the
30 fields of inorganic carbon and other biogeochemically relevant species (e.g., nutrients,
31 oxygen, trace metals, dissolved organic matter); measuring the response of those fields to
32 increased warming, stratification, and slowed thermohaline circulation; and reconciling
33 net carbon uptake estimates and spatial patterns derived from different methods (e.g.,
34 empirical in-situ techniques; air-sea fluxes; temporal evolution; atmospheric CO₂ and
35 O₂/N₂ constraints; δ¹³C isotopic composition; existing and new transient tracer proxies;
36 and forward and inverse models).
37

38 **2) What is the magnitude, spatial pattern, and variability of air-sea CO₂ flux?**

39 A general picture of the large-scale, climatological pattern and seasonal cycle of air-
40 sea CO₂ flux can be derived at present from historical surface water pCO₂ transect data
41 and empirical wind speed gas exchange relationships. The current major challenges are
42 improving the understanding of the biological and physical processes driving air-sea
43 fluxes; quantifying the interannual to decadal variability; assessing the significant
44 regional differences (e.g., Southern Ocean) between in-situ and atmospheric inverse
45 derived fluxes; estimating air-sea fluxes over the continental margins and their imprint on

1 atmospheric CO₂ over the continents; and reducing the large (+/- 50%) uncertainty in air-
2 sea gas exchange parameterizations by characterizing at a basic, mechanistic level the
3 physical, chemical and biological controls on air-sea gas exchange.
4

5 **3) What are the major feedback mechanisms and climate sensitivities for ocean** 6 **carbon storage?**

7 Climate projections over the next several centuries show substantial ocean surface
8 warming, enhanced vertical stratification, and altered physical circulation, all of which
9 suggest reduced ocean carbon uptake. Significant changes in the areal extent and
10 community composition of marine biomes are also suggested, and the structure of marine
11 ecosystems directly influences the flow of carbon between trophic levels and, ultimately,
12 the partitioning of CO₂ between the atmosphere and the deep sea. Also relevant are
13 global change factors such as changes in the carbonate system (reduced ocean pH and
14 carbonate ion) and alterations in atmospheric dust deposition. Marine biogeochemical
15 responses and feedbacks to such perturbations, however, are poorly characterized at
16 present, and basic, mechanistic research is needed on the climate sensitivities and
17 feedbacks to atmospheric CO₂ of, for example: efficiency of surface water nutrient
18 utilization; nitrogen fixation, denitrification, and the oceanic inventory of fixed nitrogen;
19 elemental ratios (e.g., C/N/P) and carbonate to organic carbon ratio of exported biogenic
20 material; regeneration length scales and differential elemental remineralization for
21 biogenic material; and community allocation of fixed carbon into particulate versus
22 dissolved organic matter pools. Specific research questions include delineating the
23 physical, chemical and biological factors governing present biogeochemical cycling and
24 future responses.
25

26 **4) What is the scientific basis for ocean carbon mitigation strategies?**

27 A number of oceanic carbon mitigation approaches for enhancing ocean carbon
28 sequestration have been proposed including direct CO₂ injection and ecosystem
29 manipulations such as iron fertilization of high-nitrate low chlorophyll zones or nitrogen
30 fixing subtropical gyres. The scientific bases for these technological strategies, however,
31 are not fully developed, and more through understanding of the feasibility, overall
32 climate effectiveness, environmental impacts, stability and sequestration time scales are
33 needed.
34

35 The overall implementation strategy described in the following sections involves a
36 coordinated program for:

- 37 • Enhancing the **global ocean carbon observing network** based on global carbon
38 hydrographic surveys, surface water transects, time-series, satellite remote
39 sensing, and a North American coastal observing system.
- 40 • Conducting targeted, **multi-disciplinary process studies** on the response of upper
41 ecosystems and air-sea CO₂ flux to inter-annual climate variability,
42 biogeochemical cycling in the mesopelagic zone, coastal ocean carbon dynamics,
43 air-sea gas exchange, and Southern Ocean dynamics.
- 44 • Integrating **field observations, data synthesis and numerical modeling** through
45 forward prognostic models as well as inverse and data assimilation techniques.

- Accelerating **enabling activities** such as technology development, data management and accessibility, international cooperation, workshops, education and outreach, contributions to national carbon assessments, and ongoing scientific oversight and coordination.

A phased, basin-by-basin approach is proposed for a 10 year program broken into two 5 year components. In phase 1 (beginning 2003 ramping up to the full program in 2005-2009) emphasis will be placed on the North Atlantic and Pacific in conjunction with the North American Carbon Program. Southern Ocean synthesis and pilot studies are also proposed for phase 1 followed by a full Southern Ocean field effort in phase 2 (2010-2014).

A number of the observing system components have recently been funded and are already underway. The prioritization for implementing other specific elements of the program is based on an assessment of the expected impact of particular processes on ocean carbon storage, the relative uncertainty and limits of current understanding, the ability to leverage and build on ongoing and emerging field components, and the readiness of the technology and scientific infrastructure. Wherever possible, sample design is developed using quantitative metrics. Each of the following implementation sections includes brief background and rationale, overview of existing and planned field/modeling components, specific recommendations for new research on the near to mid-term (CCSP-Oceans phase 1), and requirements for national and international integration and coordination.

5 Ocean Carbon Observing System

The development of a unified, global ocean carbon observing system is fundamental to addressing the four CCSP-Oceans science questions detailed in Section 4. With a few exceptions (e.g., WOCE/JGOFS global carbon survey; JGOFS HOT and BATS time-series stations), most past ocean carbon sampling efforts have been conducted in a research mode characterized by a small number of principal investigators, limited scope and duration. This independent research path provides many of the scientific insights and advances in ocean carbon research and will continue as an important element of CCSP-Oceans (Section 6). Ocean observing systems are emerging in a number of oceanographic contexts (Fine et al., 2001; Doney and Hood, 2002; Bender et al., 2002), and the key attributes that distinguish such systems include: basin to global extent; decadal or longer temporal duration; careful attention to internal data consistency and long-term biases; timely public release of data products; and coordination at national and international levels (see Section 8 on enabling activities).

No single measurement technique or approach can encompass the wide range of relevant time and space scales and processes of the ocean carbon cycle. A major challenge in observing system design, therefore, is to integrate the diverse suite of ship based, autonomous, and remote sensing observations detailed below. While data synthesis and numerical modeling will play an important role (Section 7), careful consideration of the various different, but complementary, measurement approaches is needed from the start. The observing system described below attempts to take advantage of synergies across the different components (e.g., tying repeat hydrographic lines into a

1 long-term time-series network) and stresses the utilization of common standards,
2 reference materials, uniform measurement techniques, and inter-comparison exercises
3 wherever possible.

4
5 Traditional shipboard oceanographic surveys remain a key necessary element of the
6 proposed sampling strategy, providing continuity with historical data and the capability
7 for full-water-column sampling, accurate high-precision laboratory measurements, and
8 detailed, intensive process studies. Clearly, however, this method is insufficient for the
9 high spatial and temporal sampling frequencies required for many ocean carbon issues.
10 Following the lead of the physical oceanographic community, marine biogeochemists
11 need to capitalize on emerging *in situ* autonomous measurement / sampling technologies
12 in order to sample the ocean chemical and biological state over the appropriate range of
13 scales (Section 8.1). The rapid evolution and eventual outcome of these technological
14 developments, however, are difficult to foresee. The detailed planning and optimization
15 of the global monitoring system must include enough flexibility to account for the fact
16 that many revolutionary techniques may be developed in the coming years. The vantage
17 point of space-borne sensors provides almost optimal conditions for monitoring. It also
18 offers a data density that is well suited to force, constrain, and assimilate into models.
19 Efforts should also be made to improving the understanding and parameterization of key
20 processes within the carbon cycle. There exist clear limitations to remote sensing, such as
21 resolution and the suite of measurable variables, but at the very least, the present set of
22 earth-viewing sensors provides oceanographic and atmospheric context, which will
23 improve as new sensors are launched, such as sea surface salinity and total atmospheric
24 column CO₂.

25 26 **Ocean Carbon Observing System Elements**

- 27
28 ○ A series of repeat ocean transects, involving reoccupation of selected meridional and
29 zonal WOCE lines, in which CO₂ system properties will be measured along with
30 hydrographic properties, nutrients, transient tracers, and trace metals. Water samples
31 will be collected for post-cruise analyses of pigment concentrations, dissolved
32 organic carbon (DOC), and ¹³C of inorganic carbon. Programs using AC-9
33 transmissometers will provide estimates of particulate organic stocks and distribution.
34
- 35 ○ A comprehensive observing system of pCO₂ distributions and air-sea CO₂ fluxes
36 onboard research and volunteering observing ships (VOS) to extend our
37 understanding of the interannual variability of carbon fluxes and its anthropogenic
38 perturbations. These measurements can be made using autonomous systems requiring
39 little crew support. Bottle samples should be collected for selected properties (e.g.
40 DIC-13C, nitrate) and other underway measurements (e.g., fluorometry) should be
41 conducted where possible.
42
- 43 ○ Time series stations which are occupied at monthly to seasonal timescales. The
44 measurement suite would include the same properties as those of the repeat ocean
45 transects, plus other measurements which are not easily accommodated on the
46 transects, e.g., primary production.

- 1
- 2 ○ Coastal time series stations and seasonal surveys to determine the amounts and
- 3 pathways of carbon sources and sinks in the continental shelf regions of North
- 4 America.
- 5
- 6 ○ Remote sensing observations of the global patterns and time/space variability of
- 7 apparent and inherent optical properties, surface water particulate organic and
- 8 inorganic carbon content, bulk and skin SST, wind speed and gas exchange rates, and
- 9 aerosol optical properties. The effort will focus on algorithm development for
- 10 constraining air-sea CO₂ flux and biological state variables and rates and application
- 11 of existing and planned satellite measurements as well as additional aircraft
- 12 observations.
- 13
- 14 ○ Concurrent and historical compilation of variables accessible by remote sensing for
- 15 existing time series stations, VOS lines, and transects to provide large scale spatio-
- 16 temporal context and expand the measurement suite. Compilation of global maps of
- 17 variables accessible by remote sensing, both concurrent and historical to understand
- 18 and document modes of variability.
- 19

20 **Anticipated Scientific Advances**

21 We expect the results of the CCSP-Oceans ocean carbon observing system to provide
22 the following information and scientific products:

- 23
- 24 • The evolving distribution of both natural and anthropogenic CO₂ and
- 25 biogeochemically relevant species (nutrients, oxygen, trace metals) in the ocean
- 26 interior and a more accurate inventory of the DOM pool. Meridional ocean sections,
- 27 supplemented by zonal lines and time series, will give this information. The evolving
- 28 time-dependent CO₂ distribution reflects the sum of oceanic processes and is
- 29 therefore a first order constraint on models used to predict ocean CO₂ uptake.
- 30
- 31 • Transport of carbon including inorganic and organic carbon and biogeochemically
- 32 relevant species in the ocean interior. Zonal lines provide the primary constraints on
- 33 meridional transport of natural and anthropogenic CO₂. Patterns of transport reflect
- 34 processes of uptake and redistribution.
- 35
- 36 • Interannual and decadal variability in the oceanic distribution of CO₂, primary
- 37 production, and biogeochemically relevant species. There is evidence that oceanic
- 38 ventilation and rates of biogeochemical processes vary during events such as the
- 39 Pacific Decadal Oscillation, the North Atlantic Oscillation, and the El Niño-Southern
- 40 Oscillation. Understanding these variations will allow us to document the influence
- 41 of interannual and decadal variability on ocean uptake of fossil CO₂, and the
- 42 governing processes.
- 43
- 44 • Improved constraints on global air-sea CO₂ fluxes and temporal variability of the
- 45 fluxes. The interior CO₂ fluxes depend, in part, on basin scale uptake rates of
- 46 anthropogenic CO₂. The data thus give a rate that can be compared with air-sea CO₂

1 fluxes measured by sea surface studies. They also give a critical independent
2 constraint for inverse calculations of CO₂ uptake by the land biosphere.

- 3
- 4 • Improved estimates of terrestrial carbon fluxes onto the continental shelves,
5 production of organic carbon within margin systems, and the ultimate fate of this
6 carbon (e.g., deposition, exchange with the open ocean, remineralization to CO₂ and
7 loss to the atmosphere). It has been suggested that a significant fraction of the
8 terrestrial flux may be unaccounted for in current carbon budgets.
- 9
- 10 • Improved constraints on coupled ocean circulation-biogeochemical models. The
11 information listed above is critical for the validation of ocean biogeochemical models
12 used for predicting future carbon distributions and fluxes, and for reconciling inverse
13 model estimates of sources and sinks with the coupled process models.
- 14

15 **5.1 Large Scale Ocean Repeat Hydrographic Survey**

16 The overarching goal of the repeat survey is to determine the large-scale decadal
17 evolution of the anthropogenic CO₂ inventory to within 20% on a global and basin scale
18 (Bender et al., 2002). This goal is greatly aided by the fact that, for the first time, we have
19 a global, high-quality baseline data set of ocean tracer and carbon system observations in
20 the 1990s as part of the World Ocean Circulation Experiment/Joint Global Ocean Flux
21 Study (WOCE/JGOFS). Dissolved inorganic carbon data sets accurate to 2 to 3 μmol/kg,
22 which are equivalent to 2 to 3 years' uptake of anthropogenic CO₂ in near-surface waters,
23 are now available for hydrographic transects representing most of the world's ocean
24 (Gruber et al., 1996; Gruber, 1998; Feely et al., 1999; 2001; Sabine et al., 1999; 2002;
25 Wanninkhof et al., 1999). These high-quality data, when compared with older data of
26 much lesser quantity and quality such as those obtained during the GEOSECS program,
27 have already yielded substantial insight into the carbon inventory changes over time. For
28 example, Sabine et al. (1999) and Peng et al. (1999) reported significant changes in the
29 carbon inventory in the Indian Ocean over the ~18 year interval between GEOSECS and
30 WOCE and were also able to show that these changes agreed well with the expected
31 changes on the basis of ocean ventilation and the rate of increase in atmospheric CO₂.
32 Because of the much higher precision and accuracy of the new carbon data and the fact
33 that atmospheric CO₂ continues to increase rapidly, it is now possible to detect long-term
34 changes in the carbon inventories over time-scales of 10 years and even less.

35

36 Methodological advances in DOC analyses over the past 10 years have resulted in an
37 analytical precision of 1 μmol/kg. This improved precision together with the use of DOC
38 reference materials helps to assure detection of long-term trends in temporal and spatial
39 variability of oceanic DOC stocks. For example, small (14 μmol C/kg) but systematic
40 large-scale water column differences have been measured between the Atlantic and
41 Pacific Oceans (Hansell and Carlson, 1998). These data point to differences in DOC
42 input, storage and remineralization patterns in the interior of the respective ocean basins.
43 However, these observations were based on a limited DOC data set and DOC global scale
44 distribution remains weakly resolved. The repeat hydrographic survey will serve to

1 improve our understanding of DOC inventories, large-scale DOC production and
 2 remineralization patterns, and its potential contribution to CO₂ variability in the ocean.

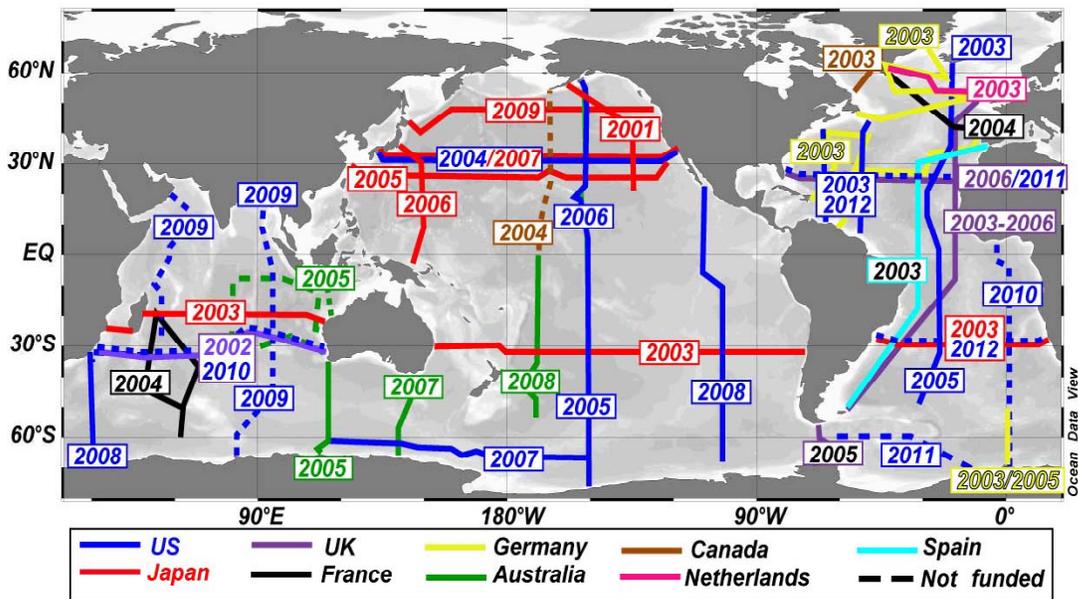
3
 4 **Table 1. Provisional CO₂ CLIVAR Repeat Hydrography Schedule, US Lines**

5

Year	Year of Project	Cruise	Days	Ports	Dates	Contact/Chief Scientist
Overall Coordinator: Jim Swift, SIO						
2003	1	A16N	42	Reykjavik-Fortaleza	6/2/03-7/31/03	Bullister, PMEL
2003	2	A20	29	WHOI - Port Of Spain	9/27/03-10/23/03	Toole, WHOI
2003	2	A22	21	Port Of Spain - WHOI	10/26/03-11/22/03	Joyce, WHOI
2004	2	P2	66	San Diego-Honolulu-Yokohama	Summer 2004	
2005	3	A16S	44	Montevideo-Fortaleza Brazil	Austral summer 2005	
2005	3	P16S	40	Wellington-Tahiti	Austral summer 2005	
2006	4	P16N	57	Tahiti-Alaska		
2007	5	S4P	51	Wellington-Perth		
2008	6	P18	32	Punta Arenas-Easter Island		
2008	6		35	Easter Island- San Diego		
2008	6	I6S	42	Cape Town		
2009	7	I7N	47			
2009	7	I8S	38			
2009	7	I9N	34			

6
 7 The NSF/NOAA-sponsored Repeat Hydrography Program has been funded for the period
 8 2003-2008. The program includes a set of the hydrographic sections (shown in Table 1
 9 and Fig. 1), most of them repeats of WOCE Hydrographic Program sections, which will
 10 be reoccupied at time intervals of between 5 and 12 years to provide broad-scale global
 11 coverage. The measurement suite will include dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), total
 12 alkalinity (TA) and, on some lines, include the two other CO₂-system parameters, pH and
 13 pCO₂ to assure internal consistency. Other measurements will include ¹³C (not currently
 14 supported), TOC (total organic carbon) and total organic nitrogen (TON). Standards will
 15 be used for measurement of all parameters. In addition to the hydrographic (including:
 16 temperature, salinity, oxygen, nutrients, LADCP) and carbon system parameters (DIC,
 17 pCO₂ Talk, pH, TOC and TON), transient tracers (i.e., ³H/³He, ¹⁴C, ¹³C/¹²C, CFCs, CCl₄
 18 and HFCs) will be measured on these sections to estimate transport fluxes, provide water
 19 mass ages, and document changes in these anthropogenic tracers. These measurements
 20 are critical to interpret to natural and anthropogenic changes to ocean carbon

1 concentrations. Some of these tracers reveal mixing over the critical longer time scales;
 2 and some help identify current short-term invasion rates for comparison with older data.
 3 Trace metals, including Fe and Zn, and bio-optical parameters will also be measured in
 4 the upper water column. Station spacing on the proposed sections will be eddy-resolving
 5 to avoid aliasing of eddies and other variability into the climate signal. By compiling
 6 historical and remote sensing data along the section lines, we will be able to enhance our
 7 understanding of the spatial and temporal context under which the shipboard
 8 measurements are being made. By compiling historical remote sensing data along the
 9 sections, we can optimize sampling design. Likewise obtaining real-time snapshots from
 10 space during the section enhances our understanding of the spatial and temporal context
 11 under which the ship-based measurements are being made. An intensive coordination of
 12 satellite and in situ approaches is instrumental to improve our understanding of the
 13 patterns and variability of oceanographic and carbon cycle variables.
 14



15
 16
 17 Figure 1: Proposed national and international Repeat Hydrography sections for the FY 2003-2012
 18 period.
 19

20 **5.2 Volunteer-Observing-Ship (VOS) pCO₂ Surveys**

21 The goal of the VOS program is to build an observing system of appropriate spatial
 22 and temporal resolution to constrain regional fluxes to $\pm 0.2 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ (Bender et al.,
 23 2002). One of the major objectives of the Carbon Cycle Science Program (CCSP) is to
 24 better characterize the spatial and temporal variability of air-sea fluxes of CO₂ in the
 25 North Pacific and North Atlantic. Currently we have a reasonably good understanding of
 26 the global scale sources and sinks of CO₂ in the oceans based on the sea-surface pCO₂
 27 climatology developed by Takahashi et al (2002). However, there is still very little
 28 information on temporal variations of CO₂ sources and sinks. The underway CO₂
 29 measurements will improve this constraint for the NACP and global efforts and also help
 30 place the NACP results into more of a global context by monitoring changes in air-sea

1 CO₂ gradients in the North Atlantic, North Pacific and adjacent coastal regions for North
2 America that correlate with observed seasonal and interannual changes in the net North
3 American uptake. The scientific objectives will be: a) add to the data acquired during the
4 project to the extensive database spanning the past 40 years to improve the climatological
5 distribution of surface water pCO₂ (Takahashi et al., 2002); b) in conjunction with the
6 CARINA (Carbon in the Atlantic) and PICES groups provide seasonal maps of pCO₂ in
7 the North Atlantic and North Pacific; and c) determine seasonal trends of pCO₂ across the
8 Atlantic and Pacific and assess the effect of large-scale climate reorganizations on surface
9 water pCO₂. Decorrelation length scale analysis (Bender et al, 2002) has shown that, on
10 average, surface water pCO₂ measurements should be taken on 1000 km length scale and
11 monthly time scales to constrain basinwide air-sea CO₂ fluxes to $\pm 0.1 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$.

12 **Recommendations**

13 A US VOS pCO₂ Survey program has been funded for 2002-2008 by NOAA and
14 includes the continuation of existing lines and the development of new lines. The
15 seawater and atmospheric pCO₂ measurements will occur 3-4 times per hour, providing
16 sample spacing approximately every 10 km along the trackline. The lines will be
17 occupied approximately 6-8 times a year. Temperature and salinity will be measured
18 continuously. A suite of auxiliary measurements (e.g., NO₃, chlorophyll, DIC-¹³C,
19 surface tension, O₂) will also be made though the exact composition of that suite is still
20 under consideration. Additional funding may be required to expand the number of lines
21 (e.g., more intensive measurement of North Pacific and North Atlantic for NACP) or for
22 an expanded measurement suite. As currently planned and funded, the US VOS pCO₂
23 Survey will cover the following lines:
24

25 Atlantic Ocean

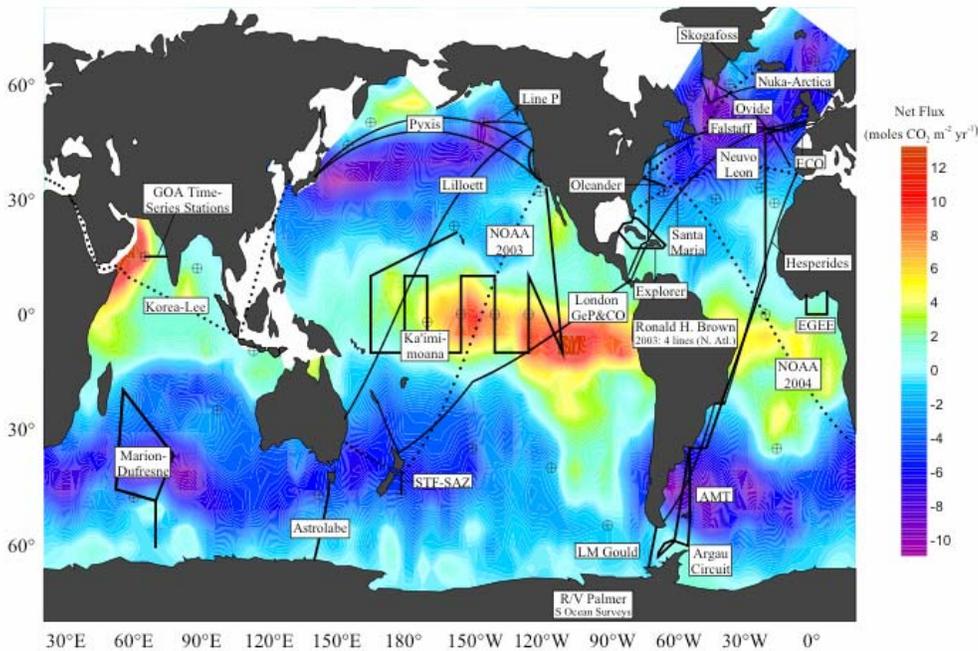
26 *Miami to Spain* This line is a critical component of the North Atlantic observations as it
27 covers a large region of the subtropical gyre that has shown to be a large CO₂ sink
28 through much of the year (Fig. 2).
29

30 *New York to South Africa* The high density XBT line between, currently on the M/V
31 Maersk California, is a key observational line to study interhemispheric atmospheric
32 gradients between the America and Europe/Africa (Fig. 2). The line will therefore be
33 outfitted with atmospheric sampling equipment in the near future.
34

35 *Newark to Bermuda* The line on the M/V *Oleander* (Fig. 2), a container ship, operated by
36 Bermuda Container Lines (president and CEO; Geoffrey Frith), operates between New
37 Jersey and Bermuda each week. Repeat collection of pCO₂ data from this ship will allow
38 us to evaluate the spatio-temporal patterns of seawater pCO₂ and the air-sea flux of CO₂
39 across these regions.
40

41 *Iceland to Norfolk* Ports of call of the M/V *Skogafoss* are Norfolk, Reykjavik, St Johns,
42 Halifax, and Boston, with round trip duration of approximately 3 weeks (Fig. 2). The
43 current modest sampling effort will benefit from simultaneous pCO₂ measurements as the
44 high latitude coverage spans the northern edge of the Intermediate Mode Water formation
45

1 region. The higher latitude regions experience large excursions in pCO₂ along with high
 2 wind speeds, making for large air-sea fluxes.
 3



4
 5 Figure 2: The pCO₂ VOS lines currently maintained by US and International partnerships in the
 6 world oceans. The Atlantic partners will coordinate their efforts through the Global Carbon
 7 Project and CAVASSOO and the Pacific partners will coordinate their activities through the
 8 activities of Global Carbon Project and PICES Working Group 17. The locations of present and
 9 planned time-series stations are also shown.

10
 11 Pacific Ocean

12 *Los Angeles to New Zealand* This line with ports of call: Los Angeles, Auckland,
 13 Brisbane, Melbourne, Sidney, Hawaii (Fig. 2). This line will provide both atmospheric
 14 and oceanic pCO₂ measurements along a transect from the eastern North Pacific across
 15 the equator to the western South Pacific. The line will include extensive atmospheric
 16 CO₂ and isotopic measurements by CMDL of NOAA and high precision salinity and
 17 temperature measurements by the ship observation team (SOT) of the Joint Technical
 18 commission for Oceanographic and Marine Meteorology (JCOMM). It spans more than
 19 five separate water masses along its path and complements the proposed Japanese line
 20 from Japan to South America and the east-west line onboard M/S *Skaugran*, servicing
 21 between Canada/US west coast and Japan. The NIES VOS program has recently
 22 changed VOS ships to the car carrier M/S *Pyxis* sailing between Toyohashi, Japan and
 23 Long Beach. US and Japanese scientists are presently making arrangements for
 24 international data exchanges between investigators and data management centers.

1
2 *Equatorial Pacific* The *Ka'imimoana* will service the TAO and CO₂ moorings in the
3 eastern equatorial Pacific and will provide pCO₂ measurements for in the tropical and
4 subtropical North Pacific (Fig. 2).

5
6 The *Ronald H. Brown* will spend half the season in the Atlantic with focus on Western
7 Boundary current cruises and about half in the Eastern Pacific. The cruises will therefore
8 provide a key observational data in support of the North American Carbon Plan with
9 focus on constraining the CO₂ fluxes from the adjacent seas.

10 *Southern Ocean*

11 *RVIB Palmer* The LDEO group is presently running a surface water pCO₂ program
12 aboard the *RVIB Palmer*, which operates most of a year in the Southern Ocean. Once or
13 twice a year, she sails back to a US west coast port (e. g. Port Huenimi, CA, in 2002).
14 The data sets obtained since 1998 include repeated transects between New Zealand and
15 Ross Sea, across the Drake Passage and into the Weddell Sea. In addition, four long
16 meridional transects between southern Chile and Seattle, WA, and between New Zealand
17 and Hawaii have been obtained during the transit legs.

18
19
20 Instrument and support are also needed for routine underway pCO₂ measurements on all
21 of the UNOLS Class 1 research ships. The sampling coverage of the UNOLS research
22 vessels is distinctly different in character to that of the VOS survey, providing
23 measurements in regions outside regular shipping lanes and resupply transects and higher
24 resolution surveys of specific regions. It also will provide an infrastructure for intensive
25 chemical and biological process studies.

26 27 **5.3 Open Ocean Time-series Measurements**

28 Time-series records are key to characterizing the natural variability and secular trends
29 in the ocean carbon cycle and for determining the physical and biological mechanisms
30 controlling the system. Year-to-year variations in physics (e.g., upwelling, winter mixing,
31 lateral advection), bulk biological production, and ecological shifts (e.g., community
32 structure) can drive significant changes in surface pCO₂ (and thus air-sea flux) and
33 surface nutrient fields. The biological and chemical responses to natural perturbations
34 (e.g., ENSO, dust deposition events) are particularly important with regard to evaluating
35 potential climate responses and for evaluating the prognostic models used in future
36 climate projections. Time-series stations (particularly when accompanied by moorings)
37 are also invaluable for developing and testing autonomous sensors and as focal points for
38 process studies.

39
40 Ship-based time-series measurements are impractical for routinely measuring variability
41 over intervals from a week to a month; they cannot be made during storms or high-sea
42 conditions; and they are too expensive for remote locations. Instrumental advances over
43 the past 15 years have lead to autonomous moorings capable of sampling properties of
44 chemical, biological, and physical interest with resolution as good as a minute and a duty
45 cycle of a year or more (e.g., Dickey, 1991; Chavez et al., 1999; Dickey and Falkowski,

1 2001) (Section 8.1). This work has provided a growing body of evidence that episodic
2 phenomena are extremely important causes of variability in CO₂ and related
3 biogeochemical properties and processes. Therefore, we emphasize supplementing
4 existing ship-based stations with autonomous sampling technology and implementing
5 new sites as moorings with autonomous instrumentation wherever possible. Likewise the
6 compilation of concurrent and historical remote sensing measurements are invaluable to
7 complement ship-, and mooring-based and autonomous measuring systems.

8 9 **Recommendations**

- 10 • Continued support and augmentation to include autonomous platforms and
11 instruments for the three current American time series stations at Bermuda (BATS),
12 Hawaii (HOT) and equatorial Pacific (EqPac). The data for these three sites will
13 provide critical information on changes in the composition of the interior ocean
14 waters due to circulation and ecosystem changes resulting from ENSO and extra-
15 tropical climate variability, such as the Pacific Decadal Oscillation and the North
16 Atlantic Oscillation.
- 17
18 • Addition of CO₂ system measurements to existing time-series sites in critical high-
19 latitudes regions of the North Atlantic and North Pacific be augmented. For the
20 North Pacific, we recommend continuation and augmentation of the Canadian JGOFS
21 time-series at station Papa in collaboration with Canadian scientists to document the
22 influence of the Pacific Decadal Oscillation. In particular, this study will show how
23 the recently observed change in thermocline oxygen concentrations will evolve and
24 how they are connected with variations in carbon storage. Because this station is
25 regularly serviced by research ships from Canada, optimal synergisms with ship-
26 based observations can be exploited. We also recommend support and
27 encouragement for interaction with the Japanese time-series studies in the
28 northwestern Pacific. In the North Atlantic, we recommend continuation and
29 augmentation of the Labrador Sea time-series site Bravo and of the Norwegian Sea
30 time-series site Mike, where previous studies revealed large seasonal variations (e.g.,
31 Takahashi et al., 1993). These sites are optimally placed to study the impact of the
32 North Atlantic Oscillation on upper ocean and thermocline variability in physics,
33 chemistry and biology.
- 34
35 • Extending the existing set of time-series stations into the Southern Ocean, where
36 model simulations clearly indicate that long-term changes in response to global
37 climate change will be most strongly manifested. Better routine observational
38 capabilities in this sensitive area are extremely important because relatively small
39 changes in thermohaline circulation and biogeochemistry can result in large regional
40 changes in CO₂ fluxes and ocean storage. In addition, we recommend that time-series
41 stations in the tropical and subtropical South Atlantic and South Pacific. We envision
42 that several of these new time-series sites will be maintained by our international
43 collaborators and will only require specific augmentation with autonomous sensors
44 (Table 2).

1
2
3

Table 2: Proposed time-series stations as part of this program

Location	Motivation	Activity
S/BATS/BTM, Bermuda/US	NAO, Bermuda testbed mooring	Add autonomous instrumentation to ongoing time-series activity/Priority 1A
HOT Hawaii/US	PDO, ENSO, testbed mooring	Add autonomous instrumentation to ongoing time-series activity/ Priority 1A
Eq. Pacific, including 0°, 155°W; 2°S, 170°W; 0°, 140°W; 0°, 125°W /US	ENSO variability, testbed mooring	Add autonomous instrumentation to TAO moorings/ Priority 1A
Station Papa NE Pacific/Canada	PDO	Add autonomous sampling platform/Priority 1B
Bravo Labrador Sea/Canada	NAO, subarctic response	Add autonomous sampling platform/Priority 1B
Mike Norwegian Sea/Norway	NAO, subarctic response	Add autonomous sampling platform/Priority 1B
Pacific sector of the Southern Ocean/Australia	Global warming, Antarctic Circumpolar Wave, ENSO connection	Add autonomous sampling platform/ Priority 2A
Atlantic sector of the Southern Ocean/?	Global warming, Antarctic Circumpolar Wave, THC changes	Add autonomous sampling platform/ Priority 2A
Western and eastern equatorial Pacific /US	ENSO	Add autonomous instrumentation to TAO mooring/ Priority 2B
Eastern equatorial North Atlantic (Pirata Moorings)/US	Tropical Atlantic Dipole	Add autonomous instrumentation to Pirata mooring/ Priority 2B
Western and eastern subtropical South Pacific/Australia/US	Southern Hemisphere subtropical gyre, extremely low Fe environment	Add mooring/ Priority 2B
Western and eastern subtropical South Atlantic/US	Southern Hemisphere subtropical gyre,	Add mooring/ Priority 2B

4 1A = 1st priority 1st 5-yr period; 1B = 2nd priority 1st 5-yr period; 2A = 2nd priority; 2nd 5-yr period; 2B = 2nd
5 priority 2nd 5-yr period.
6

7 **5.4 North American Coastal Observing Network**

8 The continental margins of the United States, Canada and Mexico are particularly
9 important for the CCSP and NACP. Although the area of the coastal oceans is relatively
10 small, they are the active interface among the terrestrial, atmospheric, and marine
11 environments. The coastal environments directly interact with terrestrial air masses and
12 because of their sensitivity to changes in wind, river runoff and anthropogenic inputs of
13 nutrients, are likely to be very sensitive to climate change. Carbon cycling on the

1 continental margins is poorly understood and is under sampled to the point that it is
 2 uncertain whether these regions are a net sink or net source of CO₂ to the atmosphere.
 3 Specific objectives of new ocean margins studies are better estimates of air-sea fluxes of
 4 CO₂, exchange rates of organic and inorganic carbon between shelf waters and
 5 intermediate and deep waters of the adjacent open ocean, carbon burial rates, elucidation
 6 of factors controlling the efficiency of the solubility and biological pumps in coastal
 7 environments, quantification of the influence of margin biogeochemical processes on the
 8 chemical composition of open ocean surface waters, and the development of coupled
 9 physical-biogeochemical models for different types of continental margins. River-
 10 dominated margins and coastal upwelling regions merit special attention due to their
 11 dominant role in coastal carbon budgets.

12
 13 Only a few studies have been conducted on pCO₂ distributions and CO₂ fluxes in the
 14 coastal waters of North America. The present database consists of a limited number of
 15 coastal surveys and time-series measurements at selected locations, mostly in U.S. coastal
 16 waters. While they indicate a high degree of temporal and spatial variability, some
 17 consistent patterns emerge from the limited data sets. First, regions of high biological
 18 activity lead to strong CO₂ sinks in spring and summer. The largest CO₂ sinks are
 19 apparently in the high productivity waters of the Bering Sea Shelf where nutrient inputs
 20 from Unimak Pass, coastal rivers and sediments in spring and summer are large and
 21 variable. The resulting high productivity in both the shelf and open-ocean regions of the
 22 Bering Sea causes a large and steady CO₂ drawdown (Table 3).

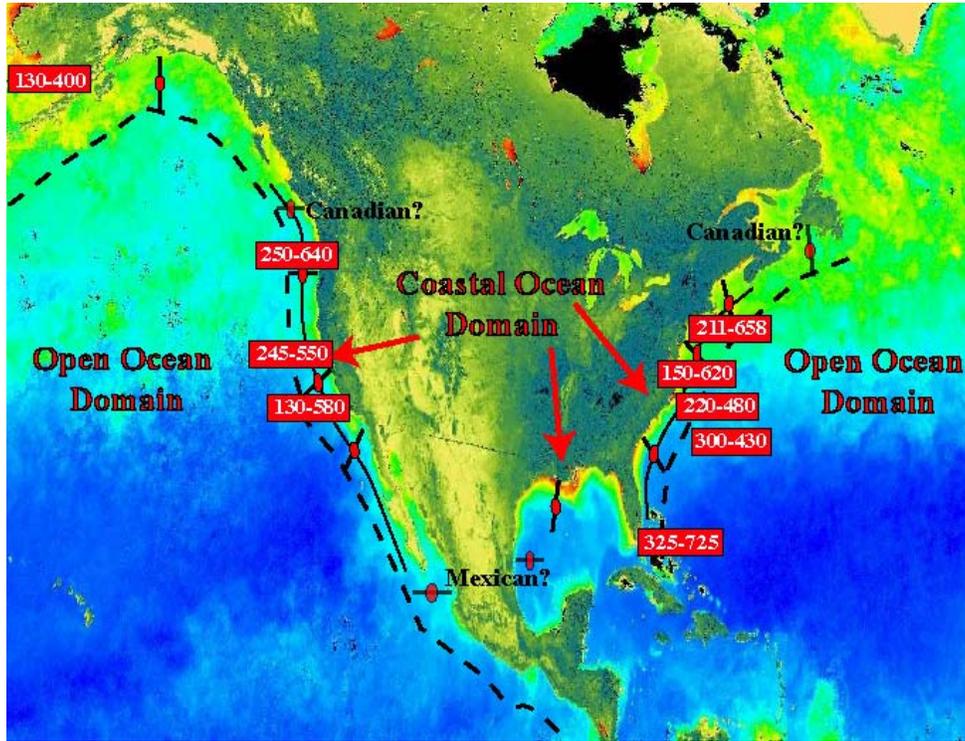
23
 24 **Table 3: Variability of CO₂ distributions and fluxes in the U.S. coastal waters from**
 25 **regional surveys and moored measurements**

Location	Surface Seawater pCO ₂ (µatm)	Instantaneous CO ₂ Flux (mol/m ² /yr)	Annual Average (mol/m ² /yr)	Sampling Method	Reference
New Jersey Coast	211 - 658	-17 to +12	-0.65	Regional survey	Boehme et al. (1997)
Cape Hatteras, North Carolina	ND*	-1.0 to 1.2	ND	Moored measurements	DeGrandpre et al. (1997)
Middle Atlantic Bight - inner shelf	150 - 620	ND	-0.9	Regional survey	DeGrandpre et al. (2002)
Middle Atlantic Bight - middle shelf	220 - 480	ND	-1.6	Regional survey	DeGrandpre et al. (2002)
Middle Atlantic Bight - outer shelf	300 - 430	ND	-0.7	Regional survey	DeGrandpre et al. (2002)
Florida Bay, Florida	325 - 725	ND	ND	Regional survey	Millero et al. (2001)
Southern California Coastal Fronts	130 - 580	ND	ND	Regional survey	Simpson (1985)
Coastal Calif. (M-1; Monterey Bay)	245 - 550	-8 to 50	1997-98: -1.0; 1998-99: +1.1	Moored measurements	Friederich et al. (2002)
Oregon Coast	250 - 640	ND	ND	Regional survey	A. van Geen et al. (2000)
Bering Sea Shelf in spring (Apr. - June)	130 - 400	-8 to -12	-8	Regional survey	Codispoti et al. (1986)
Bering Sea (Aug. - Sep.)	192 - 400	ND	ND	Regional survey	Park et al. (1974)

26 *ND= no data
 27 Note: Area of Continental Shelf between 20° and 65° including Hudson Bay = 4.06*10⁶km²
 Note: Area of Continental Shelf between 20° and 65° excluding Hudson Bay = 3.00*10⁶km²

28 Similar conditions may exist in the coastal waters of the Gulf of Alaska, off the
 29 Columbia River in the Pacific Northwest, in the Gulf of Mexico near the Mississippi
 30 River outflow, and in the coastal regions of the Mid-Atlantic Bight (Fig. 3). Smaller river
 31 systems also lead to coastal carbon sinks, as can be seen in the near-shore regions off the
 32 Oregon coast (van Geen et al. 2001). Second, regions of strong coastal up-welling lead to
 33 strong localized CO₂ sources (Friederich et al., 2002). The associated up-welled nutrients
 34 lead to a drawdown of CO₂ due to biological productivity downstream of the upwelling
 35 zone. This coastal up-welling of CO₂ and nutrient-rich waters can be observed in the
 36 coastal areas of California, in Monterey Bay and near Cape Hatteras among others. These
 37 upwelling systems are susceptible to large-scale oscillations (i.e., ENSO, PDO, NAO,
 38 etc.) in the climate system and, consequently, can turn on or shut down depending on

1 their phase. Other regions, such as the South Atlantic Bight, are significant sources of
2 CO₂ to the atmosphere and export inorganic carbon to the adjacent open ocean
3 presumably supplied by the export of carbon from terrestrial sources. Accurate
4 assessment of the net uptake of CO₂ by the terrestrial system will require an accurate
5 understanding of these coastal fluxes.
6



7
8
9 Figure 3: Range of pCO₂ values from selected coastal regions in North America. The
10 sources for these data are given in Table 3 above. The recommended coastal time series
11 and survey locations are also shown in the map.
12

13 It is unrealistic to use the limited amount of data on coastal CO₂ fluxes in Table 3
14 to obtain a meaningful annual flux of CO₂ from North American coastal waters.
15 However, we can use a couple of different approaches to get a sense of the potential
16 magnitude of the fluxes. Global-scale model results suggest that the uptake of carbon in
17 coastal regions ranges from 0.6 – 0.8 Pg C yr⁻¹, and scaling by the area ratio of North
18 American to global continental shelf (~18%) leads to an estimated uptake of 0.10 – 0.14
19 Pg C yr⁻¹. A second approach to constrain upper and lower bounds involves simply
20 scaling the extremes in Table 3. Taking the area of the North American continental shelf
21 region between 20° N and 65°N (~4 x 10⁶ km²) which includes Hudson Bay and the
22 range of CO₂ fluxes (–8 to 1.1 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹), the possible range is –0.4 to 0.05 Pg C yr⁻¹.
23 At the low end, a 0.4 Pg C sink for CO₂ is potentially significant. However, the regions
24 were long-term coastal productivity as high as is observed in the Bering Sea are probably
25 limited to regions near large river mouths. At the high end, coastal upwelling CO₂ source
26 regions are also probably limited by temporal and spatial constraints. The problem is we

1 just do not have enough long-term CO₂ flux data for coastal regions to be able to
2 constrain these estimates much further.

3 **Recommendations**

4 The continental margins are an area of overlap between the CCSP-Oceans and the
5 NACP (Wofsy et al., 2003), and the proposed coastal ocean implementation plans have
6 been developed parallel. Overall, the effort will include: (1) long-term observations
7 using coastal transects and buoys with autonomous sensors (described here); and (2)
8 intensive process studies of the controls on the cycling and sources and sinks of carbon
9 and other bioactive elements (see Section 6.3). The long-term observations will be
10 coordinated with the anticipated location of the process studies as well as with the NACP
11 aircraft profiles and coastal terrestrial study sites to provide the most complete picture
12 possible. Given the complexity and variability of the coastal ocean and estuarine systems,
13 however, it is important to develop a customized sampling strategy that adequately
14 addresses the regional conditions and leverages coastal projects that currently exist or are
15 planned. For example, given that the footprint of the aircraft profiles and tall tower
16 measurements is approximately 1000 km, it would be advantageous for the coastal sites
17 to be co-located with the coastal atmospheric sampling network to help interpret the
18 atmospheric signals obtained from these locations. Co-location of riverine studies and
19 cross-shelf transects can provide better constraints on the ultimate fate of river borne
20 products.

- 21
- 22 • Implement a backbone network of about dozen sampling sites (Fig. 3) along the
23 eastern, western coasts of North America and the Gulf of Mexico, to be outfitted with
24 surface moorings making time-series measurements needed for air-sea CO₂ fluxes,
25 including high-quality atmospheric and ocean pCO₂ measurements. The moored
26 platforms should also be instrumented to make marine boundary layer atmospheric
27 measurements to compliment the aircraft profile and tall tower data.
- 28
- 29 • Conduct ship-based cross-shelf surveys past the mooring locations at monthly
30 intervals to assess on-shore/off-shore variability and annual or seasonal survey cruises
31 along the continental margins connecting the mooring sites to put the time-series
32 measurements in a larger spatial context.
- 33
- 34 • Combine *in situ* observations with remote sensing to characterize regional
35 environmental conditions at the relevant time and space scales over the margins.
36 Satellite remote sensing data will provide routine regional estimates of key
37 parameters. Current satellite measurements from MODIS and SeaWiFS are not yet
38 optimized for turbid coastal waters and must be augmented with low altitude aircraft
39 data, which can provide not only measurements for validation and algorithm
40 development and information on carbon related parameters that cannot be derived
41 from existing satellite systems, e.g., pulse and probe fluorometry.
- 42
- 43 • Carry out pilot coastal studies to evaluate *in situ* measurement accuracies, sampling
44 strategies, and remote sensing algorithm performance need to be performed as part of
45 the NACP intensive field activities.
- 46

1 Given the complexity and variability of the coastal ocean and estuarine systems, it is
2 important to develop a sampling strategy that can adequately characterize the carbon
3 fluxes into and out of these systems. A customized sampling strategy needs to be
4 developed for each coastal region that leverages coastal projects that currently exist or are
5 being planned by various agencies (e.g. NASA's coastal program) and uses a
6 combination of in situ and remote sensing observations to characterize the unique
7 environmental conditions of that region.

8 **5.5 Remote Sensing**

9 Satellite measurements will have a major role in CCSP-Oceans because of their
10 quasi-global and synoptic temporal and spatial coverage. Satellite data are well suited for
11 estimating the scales of variability of physical and bio-optical properties of the ocean
12 surface (e.g., Doney et al., 2003), serving to constrain models of physical and
13 biogeochemical processes (e.g., Moore et al. 2002). Table 4 outlines the basic set of
14 remote sensing observables and sensors. Survey, time-series, and process cruises will
15 offer opportunities to collect the basic observations needed for satellite algorithm
16 development and product validation. The in situ measurement suite and sampling
17 strategy will vary between the open ocean and coastal programs, with the spatial
18 variability scales, and the observational platform, e.g., dedicated cruise, research ship of
19 opportunity, VOS, mooring, float, etc. Not all satellite measurements are of adequate
20 resolution for coastal observations, e.g., satellite salinity measurements at the 100 km
21 scale resolution would not be useful for the coastal program.

22
23 In addition to long-standing techniques to estimate phytoplankton biomass and
24 primary production from ocean color data, several emerging ideas warrant further testing
25 and development, such as the methods based on remote sensing to derive gas exchange
26 coefficients (Glover et al., 2001; Carr et al., 2002), CO₂ fluxes (Le Quéré and Gruber,
27 2002), and nutrient utilization (Carr et al., 1999). Related studies should determine if
28 these effects are sufficiently large, and the relationships sufficiently robust, to serve as a
29 basis for designing future process studies. Preliminary work along these lines has already
30 been initiated (Le Quéré et al., 2002), but additional variables and additional relationships
31 need to be tested.

32 33 **Recommendations**

- 34 • Continue algorithm development, validation, and analysis of ocean color and related
35 remotely sensed biooptical properties. With the exception of VIIRS, all the ocean
36 color sensors listed in Table 1 are presently in orbit. VIIRS on NPP is presently
37 scheduled for launch in 2007 and will provide operational ocean color coverage for
38 the NPOESS. Thereafter, VIIRS will be the primary source of ocean color data for
39 the carbon observing system. However, VIIRS does not have the MODIS
40 fluorescence bands and will not have a SeaWiFS-like lunar calibration capability, i.e.,
41 lunar spacecraft maneuvers such as what SeaWiFS executes monthly are unlikely for
42 the NPOESS platforms. Much effort has been invested in the baseline ocean color
43 products (water-leaving radiances and chlorophyll-a) and these have been validated to
44 a large degree. While primary production and calcite are operational products, more
45 extensive validation and algorithm refinements are needed. Other ocean color

1 products in the table will also need substantial algorithm development and validation.
 2 These and other new capabilities (e.g., UV observations) would be requirements for a
 3 new exploratory mission.
 4

5 **Table 4. Ocean carbon cycle remote sensing observations.**

Geophysical Quantity	Remote Sensing Platform	Status*	Coverage
Chlorophyll-a	SeaWiFS, MODIS, MERIS, GLI, POLDER, VIIRS) (Ocean color satellite sensors)	Operational ¹	Global*
Primary Production	Ocean color satellites	Operational	Global
Photosynthetic Efficiency	MODIS (passive fluorescence) Aircraft (lidar & passive fluorescence)	Developmental ² Developmental	Global Local [#]
CDOM	Ocean color satellite sensors	Developmental	Global (Regional [!])
DOC	Ocean color satellite sensors	Conceptual ³	Global (Regional)
POC	Ocean color satellite sensors	Developmental	Global (Regional)
Calcite	Ocean color satellite sensors	Operational	Global
Bicarbonate	Shipboard laser	Conceptual	Local
SST	AVHRR, MODIS, MERIS, GLI, VIIRS)	Operational	Global
Surface Wind Speed	SSM/I (passive microwave) QuikScat, SeaWinds (scatterometry)	Operational	Open Ocean
Sea Level	TOPEX, JASON	Operational	Open Ocean
SSS	Aircraft (passive microwave) Aquarius (passive microwave)	Operational Developmental	Local Open Ocean

6 ¹Operational: currently produced by existing systems

7 ²Developmental: feasibility has been demonstrated

8 ³Conceptual: preliminary assessments underway

9 * Global: open ocean, coastal, and large estuaries (e.g., Chesapeake Bay)

10 # Local means limited areal sampling

11 ! Regional: algorithm must be developed for specific biogeochemical provinces.

12

- 1 • Evaluate and implement remote sensing based techniques for constraining seasonal
2 air-sea CO₂ flux variability. CO₂ fluxes are typically estimated from the air-water
3 CO₂ partial pressure difference ($\Delta p\text{CO}_2$), sea surface temperature SST (for solubility),
4 and a gas transfer velocity, which is a function of surface turbulence/wind speed
5 (Wanninkhof, 1992). Strategies have been developed to obtain global flux coverage
6 on seasonal time scale through a combination of in situ observations, measurements
7 from space, data assimilation and modeling. Improved high resolution winds from
8 SeaWinds and SST and ocean color from MODIS and VIIRS should allow more
9 accurate flux estimates. An alternative approach that is under investigation is basing
10 the gas transfer formulation on radar backscatter rather than wind speed (Glover et
11 al., 2001). Also, it is hoped that the Aquarius mission, if given final approval, will
12 provide salinity data with sufficient accuracy to further improve estimates of pCO₂.
13 Sea level data for certain areas such as the equatorial Pacific can be used to infer
14 thermocline depth, integrated heat content, and new production.

15
16 The development of a robust, remote sensing air-sea CO₂ flux parameterization will
17 require a combination of coordinated mechanistic laboratory/tank and process studies
18 (see also Section 6.4), multi-sensor/multi-platform satellite data analysis, data
19 collection and retrospective analysis of in situ data, and dedicated field validation
20 efforts. The determination of the pCO₂ fields, though perhaps initially derived from
21 empirical considerations, will likely be best obtained via data-assimilation models.
22

23 **6 North Atlantic and North Pacific Process Studies**

24 While our understanding of the oceanic carbon cycle has improved dramatically in
25 the last decade, a complete mechanistic description of the physical, chemical, and
26 biological processes controlling the natural carbon cycle and variability has not been
27 attained. This directly limits our ability to estimate the large-scale air-sea CO₂ flux
28 patterns from either existing or future observation networks. The problems are more
29 serious if one wants to predict the probable response of oceanic carbon biogeochemistry
30 to climate change induced by rising atmospheric CO₂. A critical aspect of CCSP-Oceans,
31 therefore, will be a series of directed process studies to better understand and quantify the
32 biological, chemical, and physical processes that control the current and future oceanic
33 and, ultimately, atmospheric CO₂ levels including processes that are only weakly active
34 at present.
35

36 Most oceanographic process studies are necessarily limited to the time and space
37 scales of one or more research cruises or expeditions. However, we know that
38 biogeochemical processes are forced and manifested over a wide range of time and space
39 scales. It is important to embed new process studies, where and when possible, in the
40 context of existing or new time-series observatories (attended and/or autonomous), basin-
41 scale surveys and remote sensing. Conversely, the results from these process studies will
42 be also crucial for the further planning, development and optimization of the full
43 monitoring system, in particular defining what to observe and the scales (and perhaps
44 locations) over which to observe.

1 **6.1 Upper Water Column Processes**

2 The surface layer of the oceans (0-100 m) plays a key role in the development of the
3 vertical and regional gradients of CO₂ in the marine environment due to its direct contact
4 with the atmosphere and land margins and because the biological activity within it is
5 largely responsible for the transformation of CO₂ into particulate matter. The biological
6 pump serves to spatially separate organic matter production from remineralization. The
7 more efficient the biological pump, the greater the physical separation between organic
8 matter production and remineralization (i.e the greater the remineralization length scale).
9 Michaels and Silver (1988) and Peinert et al. (1989) hypothesized that ecosystem
10 structure and its associated processes play an important role in determining the efficiency
11 of the biological pump and thus the magnitude of organic carbon exported from or
12 recycled in the surface waters. However, the mechanisms driving its efficiency and its
13 evolution in response to long-term environmental changes are poorly constrained.
14

15 The underlying physical / chemical make up of any given system has a direct effect
16 on the ecosystem structure. For example, systems that experience deep convective
17 overturn and large nutrient entrainment generally support larger phytoplankton species
18 (diatoms, haptophytes) and grazers compared to thermally stratified systems dominated
19 by picoplankton. As the underlying physical and chemical parameters respond to climate
20 change it will likely have an affect on the ecosystem structure and in turn the magnitude
21 of carbon exported from the surface ocean. At present, modeled scenarios of past,
22 present, and future atmospheric CO₂ concentrations assume no significant alterations in
23 the ecosystem structure that drives the oceanic biological pump, limiting the extent to
24 which feedback mechanisms can be built into our predictive models. Hence, our
25 restricted ability to predict ecosystem changes in the water column represents a major
26 limitation in our capacity to model future changes in the biological pump efficiency and
27 project future atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and global warming (Doney and Boyd,
28 2002).
29

30 **Identified research needs**

- 31
- 32 • *Biological pump efficiency:* The efficiency of the marine biological pump will be
33 driven primarily by the imbalance in time and space between photosynthesis (organic
34 carbon production) and respiration (organic carbon destruction). The development of
35 a mechanistic understanding of this uncoupling may be achieved by 1) identifying the
36 environmental factors that control the variability in plankton community structure and
37 the magnitude of pelagic primary productivity and export, 2) understanding how these
38 underlying environmental factors affect the community structure and in turn the
39 partitioning of carbon into different pools, such as particulate and dissolved, organic
40 and inorganic, and 3) characterizing the response of the heterotrophic microbial
41 community in different regions of the water column and benthos to changes in
42 organic matter production.
43
 - 44 • *Controls on the stoichiometry of organic matter production and export.* Our present
45 conceptual models assume that net plant growth is limited by nutrient availability,
46 mostly as fixed inorganic nitrogen or iron, and that carbon cycles within an ecosystem

1 are tightly coupled to the cycle of other bio-elements through closely constrained
2 elemental stoichiometries. For example, carbon cycling is often derived by a
3 mathematical scaling of the nitrogen fluxes by 6.6 (moles carbon per mole of
4 nitrogen). Over long time-scales (annual to decadal) carbon production exported into
5 the ocean's interior is proportional to new production. However, in this scenario the
6 capacity of the biological pump for carbon sequestration over longer time-scales is
7 restricted. As organic matter is remineralized it not only generates nutrients that can
8 fuel marine primary production, but also releases CO₂. Hence, waters rich in
9 nutrients due to the decomposition of organic matter also tend to be supersaturated
10 with respect to CO₂ and, upon their contact with the atmosphere, become a CO₂
11 source rather than a sink.

12
13 Theoretically the long-term efficiency of the biological pump can be modified via
14 several mechanisms including: 1) alteration in the availability of limiting nutrients
15 due to changes in fluvial and aeolian transport of iron, phosphate and fixed forms of
16 nitrogen, which may lead to a transient increase of carbon sequestration from the
17 upper marine layer through biological activity, and 2) changes in the utilization
18 efficiency of limiting nutrients that can effect the C:N:P stoichiometry in key food
19 web components and alter significantly biogeochemical cycles at the ecosystem level
20 (Elser and Urabe, 1999).

21
22 In addition the efficiency of the biological pump may also be affected by changes in
23 the balance between its soft and hard tissue components. The biological pump
24 removes carbon from surface waters in organic ("soft tissue pump") and inorganic
25 ("hard tissue pump") forms. Although both pumps have for net effect the removal of
26 carbon from the surface of the ocean, their effect in the partitioning of CO₂ between
27 the atmosphere and the ocean is different. While the hard tissue pump decreases the
28 ability of the upper ocean to absorb atmospheric CO₂ by increasing pCO₂ (the
29 production of CaCO₃ results in one mole of CaCO₃ and one mole of CO₂ per 2 moles
30 of HCO₃ assimilated), the soft tissue pump has the opposite effect. For these reasons,
31 changes in the carbon export ratio between the hard and soft tissue pump may have
32 major consequences in the upper ocean pCO₂ and air-sea CO₂ flux. Furthermore,
33 only the soft tissue pump is directly coupled to the biological uptake of nitrogen,
34 phosphorus, and iron. As stated earlier, the basic chemical and biological processes
35 driving both biological pumps are known. However, there is still poor understanding
36 regarding the environmental factor that may vary the ratio between both pumps.

- 37
38 • *Temporal variability in ecosystem structure and elemental cycles:* In order to assess
39 the response of the marine biota to changes in climate and their effect in carbon
40 sequestration, it is necessary to study time scales of perturbation encompassing a
41 range of natural, as well as human induced perturbations. Changes in environmental
42 climate may involve changes in the baseline conditions (i.e. increase sea surface
43 temperature and water column stratification or shift in the timing of the spring
44 transition), changes in the intensity of mesoscale perturbations (i.e. increase in storm
45 intensity or upwelling events) or changes in the rate of perturbation events (i.e.
46 increase frequency in hurricane, eddy activity and ENSO events). Each one of these

1 perturbations may generate significant changes in the ecosystem structure and
2 associated biogeochemical cycles.

- 3
- 4 • *Partitioning of exported carbon between DOC and POC.* Food web structure must be
5 considered as a key determinant of elemental cycles, playing a major role in the
6 transformation and partitioning of carbon among the various oceanic reservoirs.
7 However, the fate of these carbon pools will also be affected by physical processes.
8 For example, the removal of suspended and dissolved organic matter from the ocean
9 surface to its interior via convective overturn has been shown to be a potentially
10 important contributor to the biological pump in some ocean regions (Carlson et al.,
11 1994; Ducklow et al., 1995; Hansell and Carlson, 2001). Annual global export of
12 DOC is estimated to be $20\% \pm 10\%$ of total export from the surface ocean. DOC
13 contributes to about 30- 40% of apparent oxygen utilization (AOU) in the upper
14 mesopelagic and $< 10\%$ in the deep ocean. However, little is known about the factors
15 regulating the partitioning of exported carbon between DOC and POC, nor is the
16 sensitivity of these factors to changes in environmental conditions known. Future
17 studies must assess the factors regulating the partitioning of exported carbon between
18 POC and DOC, its regional variability, and its sensitivity to changes in environmental
19 conditions.
20

21 **6.2 Mesopelagic Processes**

22

23 Oceanic dissolved organic matter (DOM) represents one of the largest exchangeable
24 carbon reservoirs on earth. The global dissolved organic carbon (DOC) pool is estimated
25 to be 685 Pg C (Hansell and Carlson, 1998), a value comparable to the mass of inorganic
26 C in the atmosphere (MacKenzie, 1981; Fasham et al., 2001). Small perturbations in the
27 production or sink terms of the oceanic DOC pool could strongly impact the balance
28 between oceanic and atmospheric CO₂. Thus, processes that control DOM production,
29 consumption and distribution are biogeochemically significant with regard to carbon
30 export (Carlson et al., 1994; Ducklow et al., 1995; Hansell and Carlson, 2001) and carbon
31 storage in the ocean interior (Hansell and Carlson, 1998; Hansell et al., 2001).
32

33 The transfer of organic carbon from the surface ocean to the deep sea is one of the
34 primary factors regulating the CO₂ content of the atmosphere. Roughly 90% of the
35 organic carbon exported from the surface ocean is respired in the mesopelagic zone
36 (approximately 100 to 1000m; Fig. 4), corresponding to the thermocline in much of the
37 world's ocean. The thermocline is ventilated on time scales of decades, roughly an order
38 of magnitude faster than the ventilation of the deep sea. Consequently, carbon
39 regenerated in the deep sea remains isolated from contact with the atmosphere much
40 longer than does carbon regenerated in the mesopelagic zone. Other things held constant,
41 the larger the fraction of organic matter exported from the surface layer that survives
42 transport through the mesopelagic zone to be respired in the deep sea, the lower will be
43 the CO₂ content of the atmosphere. A complex array of physical and biological processes
44 within the mesopelagic zone control the efficiency of organic matter regeneration, and

1 the sensitivity of these processes to changes in environmental conditions represents a
2 potential source of significant feedback to climate change.

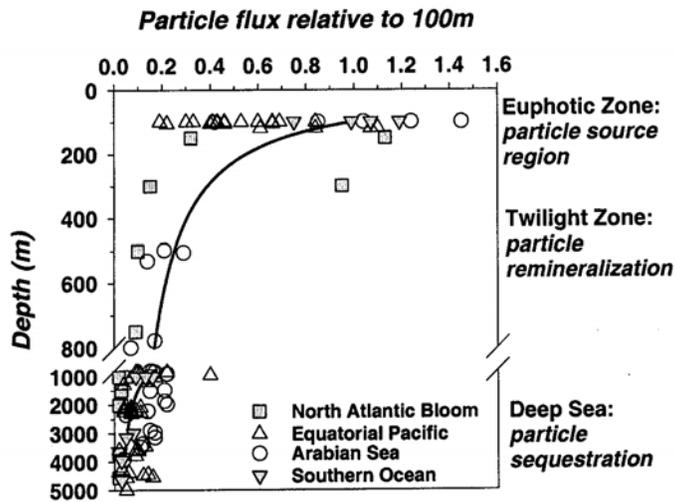


Figure 4: A compilation of all particle flux vs. depth data available from the last decade of JGOFS studies redrawn from (Berelson, 2001). Solid line is Martin curve for POC flux with $b = -0.858$. These data are plotted as fluxes relative to 100m to facilitate comparisons between basins.

4
5 Much was learned during the JGOFS program about the regional and seasonal
6 variability in the export of organic matter from the surface ocean. In addition, JGOFS
7 findings indicated that the time and depth scales of organic matter regeneration vary
8 regionally. However, the study of the mesopelagic zone was not one of the principal foci
9 of JGOFS, so a comprehensive understanding of the spatial variability of regeneration
10 rates, of the factors regulating the time and depth scales of regeneration, and of the
11 sensitivity of these factors to climate change remain undetermined. These variables
12 represent critical parameters in models used to predict future trends in atmospheric CO_2
13 concentrations. Consequently, the oceanographic community has identified the factors
14 regulating organic matter regeneration in the mesopelagic zone as a high priority for the
15 next generation of ocean carbon research (described in many recent planning documents;
16 e.g., OCTET, EDOCC, OCEANS, etc.).

17
18 The depth scale for remineralization of particulate organic carbon within the
19 mesopelagic zone is regulated by the interplay between the sinking rate of particulate
20 matter and the factors that control its conversion to a suspended or dissolved phase.
21 Aggregation, disaggregation, dissolution, and remineralization are all factors that
22 influence the size, composition, density and sinking rate of organic and inorganic
23 particles. Organisms play an active role in these processes. For example, zooplankton,
24 which are prevalent in the mesopelagic zone, can change particle size and flux as well as
25 particle composition by physically breaking up particles via swimming and feeding or by
26 converting POC to DOC via excretion. Coccolithophores are recorded among stomach
27 contents of copepods because their calcareous scales resist digestion. Harris (1994),
28 however, found that less than 50% of the calcite of coccolithophores occurred in the fecal
29 pellets of the copepod, suggesting it had been subjected to acid digestion." Alternatively,
30 zooplankton can increase the sinking rate of POC by repackaging suspended material into
31 fecal pellets. Microbes reduce particle flux by converting POC to DOC via production of
32 hydrolytic enzymes and by remineralizing organic matter that enters the mesopelagic
33 zone

1
2 The composition of particulate organic matter changes systematically with depth.
3 Particles in surface waters contain abundant organic compounds found in plankton,
4 whereas with increasing depth one finds a greater abundance of compounds produced by
5 heterotrophic decomposition, and eventually a composition dominated by a microbial
6 signal. Uncharacterizable organic matter also forms an increasing fraction of particulate
7 organic matter with increase in water depth. Heterotrophic organisms recycle different
8 organic compounds at different rates; thus, the chemical composition of organic matter
9 affects the regeneration rate and may help control the composition of community of
10 organisms responsible for organic matter regeneration. For example microbes that
11 colonize aggregates are genetically distinct from free-living forms. Phylogenetic diversity
12 of free-living microbes also varies vertically, with communities in the upper mesopelagic
13 region being considerably different than in the euphotic zone. These specialized
14 microbial communities may take advantage of vertical gradients in nutrient and energy
15 availability.

16
17 Changes in organic matter composition from characterizable to non-characterizable
18 forms may, in part, be due to physical protection from biogenic and lithogenic minerals
19 (Lee et al. 2000; Hedges et al., 2001). Ballasting by these minerals may provide a
20 protection / packaging mechanism that allow organic / inorganic aggregates to reach the
21 deep ocean more efficiently (Armstrong et al. 2002). Empirical observations from the US
22 JGOFS program have demonstrated that the flux of organic matter below 1800 m is
23 quantitatively proportional to the flux of ballast minerals. Thus better understanding of
24 the controls on ballast mineral flux as well as POC flux are needed better predict C flux
25 at any given depth (Armstrong et al. 2002).

26 27 **Identified research needs**

- 28
- 29 • *Regeneration length scales.* Empirical power-law fits to a composite of shallow
30 floating sediment trap data (Fig. 4; e.g., Martin et al., 1987) are often used to describe
31 remineralization length-scales and export to the deep ocean. However, the
32 parameters used to fit these empirical relationships are found to vary from site to site,
33 indicating that these parameters are sensitive to changes in local conditions.
34 Predictive models must be mechanistic in nature and account for factors that
35 influence the power-law relationship, such as climatic change, episodic bloom events,
36 mineral ballasting, food web structure, etc. A high priority for future research is to
37 characterize the spatial and temporal variability of these parameters, as well as their
38 sensitivity to changes in environmental conditions.
 - 39
40 • *Particle dynamics.* Particle size, mass and composition are all factors that determine
41 particle sinking and degradation rates. For example, both the intrinsic lability of
42 organic matter and the matrix in which it is packaged influence degradation rates.
43 Both size and density can influence sinking rates; organic and mineral composition
44 determine particle density. Future studies must examine the mechanisms by which
45 microbial and zooplankton processes influence both particle dynamics and the

1 regeneration of particulate organic material, as these together regulate regeneration
2 length scales.

- 3
- 4 • *Ecosystem structure.* Recent discoveries illustrate the need for more information
5 concerning the organisms responsible for organic matter regeneration. For example,
6 the abundance of Archaea was established only in the past few years, and their
7 contribution to organic matter regeneration has yet to be determined. Focused
8 exploration may reveal additional taxa that contribute significantly to the transport,
9 transformation and fate of organic matter in the mesopelagic zone.
- 10
- 11 • *Improved mass budgets.* Current mass budgets for organic and inorganic matter in
12 the mesopelagic zone fail to achieve a balance between sources and sinks. For
13 example, estimated rates of respiration by microbes and by zooplankton can each
14 independently account for the total rate of respiration thought to occur in the
15 mesopelagic zone. Either one or both individual respiration rates has been
16 overestimated, or the total rate of respiration, which must equal the divergence of
17 organic carbon flux within the mesopelagic zone, has been underestimated. Future
18 studies must quantify better both the total rate of respiration within the mesopelagic
19 zone, as well as the respiration rates of individual components of the food web. The
20 sensitivity of these rates to changes in environmental conditions must be determined,
21 as well.
- 22
- 23 • *CaCO₃ dissolution:* The partitioning of CO₂ into the ocean is a result of both direct
24 sequestration and from positive feedbacks associated with the ocean's alkalinity
25 budget. An increase in the depth of organic matter regeneration lowers the saturation
26 state of deep waters with respect to CaCO₃ solubility. That, in turn, increases the
27 dissolution of CaCO₃, and eventually leads to an increase in the alkalinity of the
28 oceans in order to maintain a balance between supply of alkalinity from continental
29 weathering and burial as CaCO₃. An increase in ocean alkalinity causes lower
30 atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. The reverse of this situation applies as well. The
31 sensitivity of CaCO₃ dissolution rates to changes in environmental conditions must be
32 determined.

33

34 **Strategies for the study of upper water column and mesopelagic processes**

35
36 *Improved technologies that are now available or are being developed that could be*
37 *implemented in either or both the upper ocean and mesopelagic process study include:*

- 38
- 39 • *New molecular approaches to assess changes in community structure.* New
40 molecular tools such as polymerase chain reaction (PCR) based technologies and
41 fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) probes can be used in combination with
42 traditional biomass and rate measurements to provide qualitative and quantitative
43 information about how prokaryotes and eukaryotes respond to various environmental
44 factors. Understanding how the microbial community structure responds to changes
45 in the availability and quality of inorganic and organic substrates will provide insight

1 to how upper water column carbon is partitioned and the processes that control the
2 efficiency of its use in the mesopelagic layer.

- 3
- 4 • *Improved moored monitoring devices.* Although continuous in-situ monitoring of
5 meteorological and water column physical parameters has a long history, the
6 technology to monitor chemical and biological parameter at similar temporal scales is
7 still being developed. The availability of nutrient and gas sensors is improving
8 rapidly as well as that of automated techniques to monitor biological diversity using
9 molecular probes. Furthermore, optical and fluorescence techniques permit the
10 monitoring of algal assemblages and photosynthetic activity in the upper water
11 column.
- 12
- 13 • *Improved autonomous monitoring of carbon flux.* Bishop and colleagues have
14 developed the "Carbon Explorer" a faster derivative of the ARGO-style float that is
15 equipped to measure POC via optical instrumentation. These floats have recently
16 demonstrated the ability to provide an unbroken 8-month data stream of
17 approximately 400 POC profiles of the surface 1000 m. The Moored Profiler
18 (Doherty et al. 1999) is an autonomous device, capable of propelling itself repeatedly
19 along a conventional subsurface mooring line carrying oceanographic sensors through
20 the water column. Adaptation of these systems to include optical POC measurements
21 would provide important time-series data at selected study sites.
- 22
- 23 • *New biomarkers as indicators of transformation processes.* Organic compounds,
24 radionuclides, and metals can all be used to indicate the bioavailability of organic
25 matter, and how detrital material is processed by various components of the food
26 web. Recent progress in the development of these biomarkers and in statistical
27 approaches to their use has greatly improved our abilities in this area.
- 28
- 29 • *Improved sediment trap devices.* Hydrodynamic biases associated with surface
30 tethered sediment traps have made accurate estimates of particle flux troublesome.
31 Several groups (Buesseler et al, 2000; Gust et al., 2000) are working on neutrally
32 buoyant sediment traps that reduce horizontal shear. These traps reduce the entry of
33 "swimmers", provide a better assessment of particle quality, and estimate a higher
34 POC flux than tethered traps (Stanely et al. submitted).
- 35
- 36 • *Naturally-occurring radionuclides.* Radioactive disequilibrium between ^{238}U and
37 ^{234}Th has been used for more than a decade to evaluate the flux of particulate organic
38 carbon exported from the surface ocean. New radioisotope approaches using longer-
39 lived isotopes like ^{210}Po may extend the application of radionuclide-based flux
40 estimates to greater depths. Multiple thorium isotopes can be used simultaneously to
41 derive particle aggregation and disaggregation rates, as well as particle sinking rates.
42 The principal limitation with these methods is the ability to determine the appropriate
43 particulate carbon/nuclide ratio to use in evaluating carbon flux (Moran et al., 2003).
44 The application of these approaches throughout the mesopelagic zone will provide
45 more accurate estimates of particle transport efficiency through this depth horizon.
- 46

- 1 • *Improved methods to measure biological activity.* Tracers of microbial metabolic
2 activity (adenine, thymidine, leucine, electron transport system measurements)
3 already exist; however, rate measurements within the mesopelagic zone are sparse.
4 Methodology used to investigate aggregated remineralization have been revised to
5 simulate flow of water past a particle as it sinks (e.g., Ploug and Grossart, 1999).
6 These methods would help to resolve questions about particle solubilization vs
7 respiration rates. Another approach is to look at the products of particle
8 decomposition (i.e., AOU). The distribution of bioactive tracers in the twilight zone
9 constrains rates of respiration and the composition of metabolized organic matter. In
10 addition, the development of in situ respiratory chambers would help constrain
11 respiration on time scales more appropriate to assess specific mechanisms.
12

13 **Recommendations**

14 *Technologies and approaches.*

15 The large range of temporal scales of perturbation and response of marine pelagic
16 ecosystems requires a multiplatform approach in their studies. In addition to ship-based
17 sampling and observation, improved physical, chemical and biological sensors and
18 deployment platforms, such as moorings, autonomous underwater vehicles, gliders,
19 drifters, satellites and cabled systems, permit the continuous monitoring of key
20 parameters reflecting changes in ecosystem structure and elemental fluxes. Deployments
21 and maintenance of these platforms serves to develop long-term water column datasets in
22 key oceanic regions. The resulting observations are critical in the generation of novel
23 hypotheses linking long-term changes in carbon fluxes to environmental variability. In
24 order to test these hypotheses, ship and laboratory-based process oriented observations
25 and experimental manipulation are required.
26

27 The combination of a multi-disciplinary and multi-platform approach with new
28 technological developments provides promise in resolving some of the issues listed in the
29 previous section. Time-series programs will provide the opportunity for the refinement,
30 integration and implementation of some of these technologies. However, it is the design
31 and implementation of a process study or studies using these technologies, which should
32 include mesocosms and mesoscale field perturbation experiments, that will provide an
33 improved mechanistic understanding of the variability in the net biological production of
34 inorganic particulate and organic carbon pools in the upper water column, and in the
35 remineralization length scales of these pools in the mesopelagic region. The continued
36 development of other new technologies is clearly needed. Specifically, funds should be
37 made available for the development of better biomarkers, diagenetic indicators and
38 sensors that measure parameters such as respiratory gasses (in-situ respiratory chamber),
39 nutrients, transformation processes, and organism stocks. In addition it is essential that
40 simultaneous measurements of microbial and zooplankton processes are conducted to
41 determine how carbon is partitioned and remineralized.
42

43 In summary, we recommend: 1) the implementation and maintenance of Time-series
44 monitoring programs in key oceanic regions (as outlined in section 5) 2) the development
45 of process studies aimed to develop the mechanistic understanding for modeling purposes
46 of how temporal physical and ecosystem changes in these regions affect carbon cycles,

1 and 3) the development and implementation of novel technologies aimed to characterize
2 ecosystem structure and quantify physical and biological transport and transformation
3 rates of carbon pools.

4 5 *Study sites.*

6 Ideally, upper-ocean and mesopelagic process studies should be coordinated wherever
7 possible. These process studies should be conducted in several biogeographic provinces
8 spanning a range of environmental conditions to help identify factors that regulate production
9 and export of organic matter in the upper water column and its subsequent regeneration in the
10 mesopelagic zone, as well as the sensitivity of these factors to changing environmental
11 conditions (e.g., climate change). Over the past 20 years, programs such as JGOFS,
12 GLOBEC, CalCoFi, LTER, and LMER have provided extremely valuable insights regarding
13 a large range of biogeochemical and ecosystem dynamics covering coastal and open ocean
14 upwelling, oligotrophic, and high nutrient low chlorophyll (HNLC) regimes, in high and low
15 latitude regions. New monitoring and process studies aimed to improve our understanding
16 regarding the role of upper water column ecosystems and the mesopelagic in the oceanic
17 carbon cycle and their response to climate change should be built upon hypotheses generated
18 by these programs. In section 5 a map of proposed and existing time series study sites (figure
19 4) is presented. We recommend coordination and implementation of the upper water column
20 and mesopelagic process studies at a subset of the proposed North Atlantic and North Pacific
21 time series study sites (Table 2). We propose using an end-member approach, covering at
22 least an oligotrophic gyre, an upwelling, and a high latitude site.

23 24 • *Oligotrophic Sites*

25 The current U.S. time-series sites at Bermuda and Hawaii offer both rich biogeochemical
26 context and mooring and deep trap infrastructure and are recommended as initial starting
27 points for implementation of upper ocean and mesopelagic process studies within the first
28 five years of the program. Although these existing sites are in tropical and subtropical ocean
29 systems there are significant ecological and biogeochemical differences observed between
30 the North Atlantic and North Pacific subtropical gyre that have generated relevant hypotheses
31 that could be tested through process studies; thus, we recommend that process studies in both
32 regions be implemented.

33 34 • *High Latitude sites*

35 The weather stations Papa (NE Pacific) and Mike (Norwegian Sea) are examples of time
36 series sites that provide valuable context and infrastructure in high latitudes affected by
37 climatic changes associated with PDO and NAO respectively. We recommend that as
38 autonomous sampling platforms are added to these stations (see section 5) at least one be
39 chosen for the implementation of the upper water column and mesopelagic process studies in
40 the first 5 years of the program. Furthermore, the large present uncertainty in the role of the
41 southern ocean in the global carbon cycle requires the development of monitoring and
42 process studies in this region (see section 7). As autonomous sampling platforms are added
43 to the sites in the Pacific and Atlantic Sectors of the Southern Ocean (see section 5) we
44 recommend accompanying upper water column and mesopelagic processes studies be
45 implemented at a minimum of one site within the second 5 years of the program.

46

1 • *Upwelling sites*

2 Detailed discussions of the role of ocean margins in the Global Carbon Cycle can be
3 found in section 5.4 and 6.3. Of particular interest for process studies are areas of coastal
4 upwelling, which sustain high rates of organic matter production in the upper water
5 column and high decomposing rates at depth. Some of these areas may be characterized
6 by sub-oxic or anoxic regions in the mesopelagic or benthic environment supporting
7 important biochemical processes. Over long temporal scales, these processes can alter the
8 biochemical cycle of carbon at a basin scale. As pointed in section 6.3, process studies in
9 these regions should be implemented in a subset of the NACP network sites.

10
11 *Estimated costs*

12 Although process studies in different oceanic regions may have different infrastructure
13 and field sampling requirements, we envision these studies to be multi-year programs that
14 occupy a selected site multiple times within a given year. Supporting costs will be in the
15 range of \$2-3/process study/yr with the potential for 2-3 process studies going on
16 concurrently.

17
18 **6.3 Continental Margin Biogeochemistry**

19 **Rationale**

20 Solubility pump and biological pump processes that are focused at and unique to
21 continental margins may account for a major portion of the total oceanic uptake of CO₂
22 (Tsunogai et al. 1999, Yool and Fasham, 2001). Tsunogai et al. (1999) delineated several
23 mechanisms that may act to pump CO₂ from continental shelf regions into intermediate
24 and deep oceanic waters (Fig. 5) and estimated that this “continental shelf pump” could
25 be responsible for as much as a 1 Pg C sink annually on a global basis. Follow-up and
26 global circulation modeling studies support this possibility (Wang, 2002; Vlahos et al.
27 2002, Yool and Fasham, 2001). Importantly, at some locations, rivers and groundwaters
28 may supply much of the carbon transported off the shelf. This implies that assessment of
29 air-sea exchange may not be sufficient to quantify the oceanic CO₂ sink and that
30 terrestrial and oceanic carbon pools may be tightly linked through coastal transport
31 processes. Additionally, nutrient upwelling and recycling near coasts support extremely
32 high rates of primary biological production relative to the open ocean. Sea floor and
33 water column-based estimates of the particulate organic carbon flux suggest that nearly
34 1/2 of the total biological pump transfer of carbon to deep waters occurs adjacent to the
35 continents (Jahnke, 1996; Schlitzer, 2000).

36
37 Many of the lessons learned from open ocean studies cannot be applied directly to
38 continental margin systems. Among the characteristics that differentiate margins from
39 open ocean systems include: riverine and groundwater inputs, organic and inorganic
40 nutrient and carbon inputs from land, altered input ratios of inorganic N, P and Si
41 nutrients, interactions with bottom sediments, strong and direct anthropogenic impacts,
42 high spatial and temporal variability, enhanced water column mixing due to friction with
43 sea floor, focused and intense wind-driven upwelling, close coupling between benthic
44 and pelagic ecosystems, elevated atmospheric inputs of dust and concentrated carbon
45 sources associated with gas hydrates. Additionally, studies at margin sites that are likely

1 candidates for the sequestration of carbon via direct injection are required to evaluate the
2 applicability of this potential technology.

3
4 One conclusion of the recent RiOMAR workshop (McKee et al., 2003) is that major
5 rivers, define “major rivers” as rivers with large inputs of dissolved and/or particulate
6 material that is delivered directly to the ocean margin, have a disproportionately
7 important role in biogeochemical cycles. Major river-ocean margins are potentially
8 strong sinks for atmospheric CO₂ because of strong onshore air-flow patterns in many
9 case and the high productivity of these regions. The large direct inputs of terrestrially-
10 derived atmospheric C and mineral matter via runoff combine with this direct
11 atmospheric uptake to make these systems potentially important focal points for
12 sequestration of anthropogenic CO₂.

13 14 **Identified Research Needs**

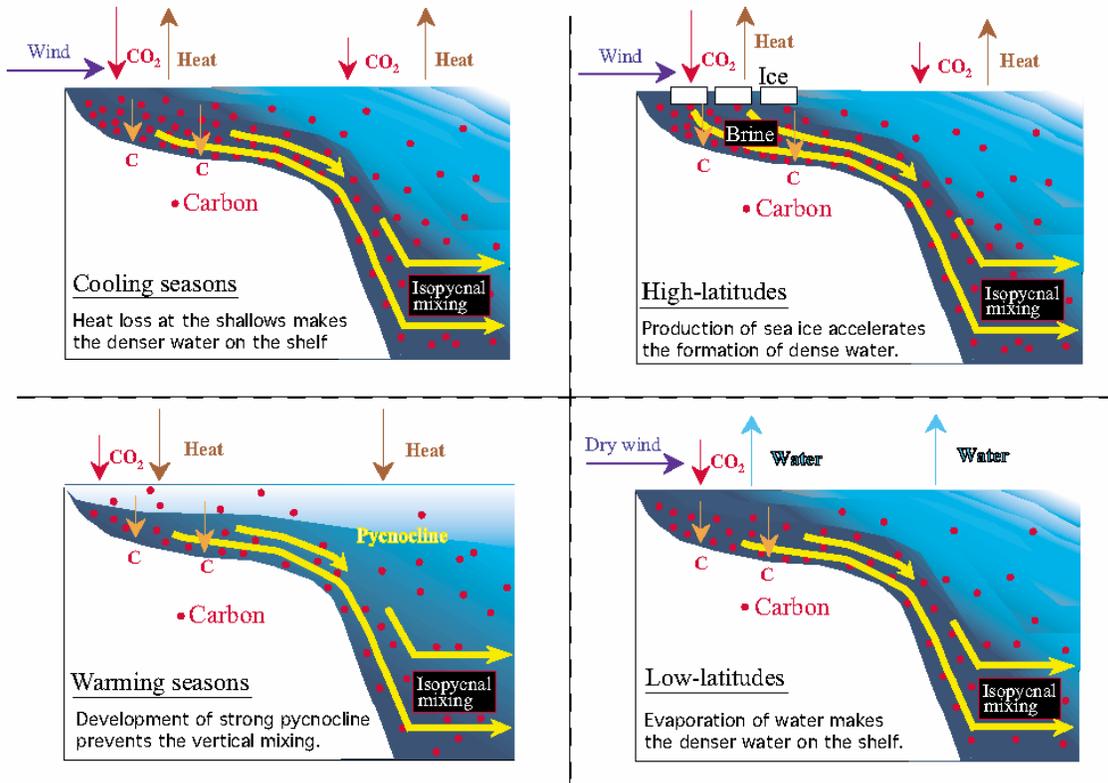
15 To assess the contribution of margins to the total oceanic uptake of CO₂ the transport
16 of CO₂ between the important terrestrial coastal and oceanic pools must be quantified
17 while predictions of future carbon uptake requires detailed knowledge of individual
18 processes and mechanisms. Given the diversity of biological, chemical and physical
19 processes that influence carbon cycling in continental margin systems and the spectrum
20 of space and time scales over which these processes interact, a full mechanistic
21 understanding represents a significant research challenge. Future studies must balance
22 the need to quantify critical carbon transfers while continuing to work toward a
23 fundamental and mechanistic understanding of the carbon cycle.

24
25 Near margins, carbon can be exchanged amongst many important reservoirs such as
26 coastal terrestrial biomass and soils, shelf waters and sediments, the coastal atmosphere
27 and shallow, intermediate and deep oceanic waters. Each of these pools is characterized
28 by different residence times and therefore a range of carbon sequestration time scales.
29 Specific examples of important, poorly constrained fluxes, include: riverine and
30 groundwater inputs, coastal air - sea exchange and shelf edge exchange processes such as
31 interactions with oceanic boundary currents and eddies. In addition to transport,
32 numerous processes within coastal systems determine the form and cycling of carbon and
33 related biogenic elements at margins, thereby controlling transfer amongst the pools.
34 Basic balances between coastal primary production and respiration are not well
35 understood. The sensitivity of margin ecosystems to variations in the relative abundance
36 of macro and micro nutrients is unknown. This is particularly important in coastal
37 settings because benthic denitrification, sedimentary dissolution of iron and opal, and
38 anthropogenic sources may significantly uncouple individual nutrient inputs.

39
40 Additionally, many of the sources of carbon and nutrients to the margin systems are
41 sensitive to changing global conditions and to human activities. Examples include
42 changing discharge rates from rivers and groundwaters and changing upwelling rates due
43 to shifts in wind regimes and strengths. N inputs from land have increased 2-5 times
44 since the early 1900's (Seitzinger and Kroeze, 1998). Furthermore, a significant amount
45 of the riverine flux of particulate and dissolved organic and inorganic carbon represent
46 carbon removed from the atmosphere via terrestrial fixation. Understanding the fate of

1 this carbon in margin systems is critical to evaluating net exchange with the atmosphere.
 2 Many of these exchanges will be altered through anthropogenically-driven changes to
 3 climate, terrestrial ecosystems, and the coastal environment.

4



5

6 Figure 5. Schematic diagram of various mechanisms for offshore transport of carbon
 7 from continental shelf regions (after Tsunogai et al., 1999).

8

9 **Recommendations**

10 Differences in margin bathymetry, forcing processes such as wind, boundary currents,
 11 ice cover or freshwater runoff, and anthropogenic inputs result in varied and diverse
 12 pathways and magnitudes of carbon cycling and sequestration in different coastal
 13 regimes. Even preliminary estimates of carbon uptake will require studies in contrasting
 14 margin environments. Recent advances which will facilitate regional scale carbon
 15 studies, including improved models tuned to specific coastal regimes, synoptic and higher
 16 resolution coverage with remote sensing, and time-series sensor measurements.
 17 Additionally, significant advancements in the understanding of the coastal carbon budget
 18 can be made by integrative studies where processes can be clearly delineated, and longer
 19 duration studies and mapping where temporal and spatial variability can be adequately
 20 captured. One promising approach would be to perform studies in a Lagrangian frame by
 21 marking water masses. Specific recommendations for transport and process studies are
 22 provided below.

23

24 *Sites:* Margin types that should be examined include those characterized by high
 25 latitudes and seasonal ice dynamics, wind-driven upwelling, river-discharge and

1 buoyancy, boundary current - shelf interactions and anthropogenic inputs. Examples of
2 these locations would include: the Bering Sea, west coast of the US, Louisiana/Texas
3 margin influenced by the Mississippi River discharge, South Atlantic Bight and Middle
4 Atlantic Bight. Initial studies must focus on establishing total fluxes, eventually
5 developing into mechanistic studies of processes such as photosynthesis, nutrient cycling,
6 and carbon chemistry (organic and inorganic). These studies should be conducted in
7 conjunction with the seasonal pCO₂ transects proposed in section 5.4. Because the
8 differences in these types of margin systems are profound, each must be studied. With
9 some overlap in the field programs, it should be possible to conduct multi-year field
10 studies of each of these regions within a decadal program.

11
12 *Transport Studies:* Because margin systems have not previously been the focus of
13 large interdisciplinary studies of carbon cycling, fundamental transports are unquantified.
14 Initial studies need to assign a high priority to establishing the overall distribution and
15 transport of carbon at each location. Given the high probability of significant interannual
16 variability, detailed field observations and sampling will need to be at least 3 years in
17 duration and should be linked to long-term observatory measurements and modeling.

18
19 *Process Measurements:* Intensive coastal process studies should be conducted to
20 better understand the ecosystem and carbon cycle dynamics of each region. Integrative,
21 process studies are needed in several areas to develop a predictive understanding of the
22 importance of margins in the global carbon budget. Emphasis should be placed on
23 examining processes that are expected to be sensitive to change and which may
24 significantly alter net carbon transport. Because of the temporal variability expected, it is
25 anticipated that continuous monitoring with in situ and remote instrumentation will be an
26 important component of these studies. The short spatial scales associated with many
27 coastal features will require high resolution techniques to be an important component of
28 the remote sensing strategy. This may require the use of geostationary satellites and
29 greater use of aircraft-based sensors. Furthermore, because many of the linkages between
30 hydrographic, biogeochemical and ecological processes have been hypothesized but not
31 identified and constrained, detailed process studies will remain an important strategy for
32 margin studies. These studies should include high-resolution hydrographic
33 measurements, such as those obtained utilizing an undulating towed instrument,
34 extending from the near shore zone to well past the shelf break. Cross shelf and along
35 shore transects should be conducted to examine the three dimensional complexity of
36 dynamics and transports and repeated at an appropriate frequency to quantify major
37 temporal variations. Many potentially important transport processes such as offshore
38 advective filaments, particulate layers at specific density surfaces, and subducted,
39 advective plumes may extend seaward hundreds of kilometers from the shelf/slope
40 region. These studies must include this spatial domain.

41
42 Sea floor benthic flux (productivity, respiration, N dynamics) and deep-water tracer
43 distributions must also be determined to assess boundary layer metabolic and nitrogen
44 dynamics as well as deep particulate and dissolved organic carbon export. Biological
45 measurements of metabolic rates and models of trophic controls of carbon transfers are

1 critical to understanding present-day cycling and sequestration of carbon and for
2 improving predictions of future conditions.

3
4 *Integration of Margin Studies:* Margins are the intersection of the land and ocean
5 domains. As a reactive interface, many processes responsible for transporting and
6 cycling carbon are accelerated within margins expanding the range of space and time
7 scales that must be observed to provide quantitative assessments. This challenging
8 environment, therefore, also requires multiple observational approaches, each of which
9 may be suited for a narrower range of temporal or spatial variability. Thus, it is critical
10 that studies of carbon cycling at margins integrate ship-board measurements and
11 samplings, in situ and remote sensor measurements, and models. Achieving this level of
12 integration will require coordination with other research programs.

14 **6.4 Air-Sea gas exchange**

15 **Rationale**

16 On seasonal to interannual timescales the ocean carbon sink can be quantified by
17 constraining the CO₂ flux across the air-sea interface (F). Research over the last decade
18 has shown that this flux can be estimated through measurement of the partial pressure
19 difference of CO₂ between water and air ($\Delta p\text{CO}_2$) and by determining the gas transfer
20 velocity (k), which is a function of surface turbulence/wind speed. This can be expressed
21 in mathematical form as $F = k_s \Delta p\text{CO}_2$. Strategies are being developed to obtain global
22 coverage of ($\Delta p\text{CO}_2$), CO₂ solubility (s) (which is a known function of surface
23 temperature and salinity), and transfer velocity on seasonal time scale through a
24 combination of in situ observations, measurements from space, data assimilation and
25 modeling. Significant quantitative and qualitative uncertainties exist regarding gas
26 exchange parameterizations, hampering our ability to accurately calculate CO₂ fluxes
27 from air-sea pCO₂ differences. Therefore, process studies need to be carried out to
28 improve parameterizations of gas transfer velocities in terms of environmental forcing

29
30 Until recently, the gas transfer velocity was determined exclusively from indirect
31 measurements based on mass balance techniques in the surface mixed layer. The
32 techniques utilized natural or deliberate tracers that yielded gas transfer velocities
33 averaged over periods of days to weeks (Lapitan *et al.*, 1999; Nightingale *et al.*, 2000).
34 The successful improvement of direct flux techniques now makes it possible to measure
35 the flux and determine gas transfer velocity from collocated $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ measurements, on
36 the timescale of the variability of the forcing (on the order of 1 hour).

37
38 Algorithms relating gas exchange to wind speed have been developed either from
39 compilations of field data (Nightingale *et al.*, 2000), controlled studies at a single field or
40 laboratory site (Watson *et al.*, 1991), or a combination of field and laboratory data (Liss
41 and Merlivat, 1986). Several recent gas exchange models are constrained by budgets of
42 radiocarbon in the ocean (Wanninkhof, 1992; Wanninkhof and McGillis, 1999).
43 Radiocarbon is also used as a constraint or validation of global ocean biogeochemistry
44 models so that such parameterizations facilitate consistent observation and model-based
45 results. Data from past field experiments are insufficient for deriving authoritative

1 parameterizations of gas transfer velocities. Part of the problem is that measurements and
2 forcing scales are not aligned.

3
4 Fairall *et al.* (2000) demonstrated important technical improvements that now allow
5 direct flux measurements of CO₂ over the ocean, alleviating previous shortcomings as
6 described in Broecker *et al.* (1986). Advances in direct flux measurement techniques, and
7 airside gradient and covariance measurements, have decreased the temporal scale to
8 hours and spatial scale to below 1 kilometer. Successful examples include the ocean-
9 atmosphere direct covariance method for CO₂ (McGillis *et al.*, 2001a; McGillis *et al.*,
10 2001b) and the gradient method for DMS (dimethylsulfide) (Dacey *et al.*, 1999; McGillis
11 *et al.*, 2001b). The ability to measure transfer velocity locally in the field now provides
12 the tools to properly relate the gas transfer to the appropriate forcing function. However,
13 wind parameterizations will continue to be used extensively in the near future, both
14 because wind is an important driver of surface turbulence controlling gas transfer, and
15 because synoptic measurements and assimilation products of wind speed are readily
16 available. Improvements in these parameterizations, especially in our ability to apply the
17 relationships over appropriate time and space scales, will improve flux estimates.

18
19 Future work must be geared toward concurrent quantification of the flux with
20 measurements characterizing the near surface turbulence that controls gas transfer. For
21 example, capillary waves are closely related to turbulence, and transfer velocity is
22 strongly affected by these waves (Bock *et al.*, 1999). Moreover, capillary waves generate
23 a large radar backscatter return on altimeters and scatterometers that are in orbit to
24 measure sea surface height and global winds on monthly and daily timescales,
25 respectively. Another promising research avenue is to relate gas transfer to microscale
26 breaking as manifested by perturbation of the cool skin measured by (IR) radiometer
27 measurements (Zappa *et al.*, 2002).

28 29 **Recommendations**

30 Most of the studies recommended should be performed synergistically with studies
31 proposed in other programs such as SOLAS, focusing on gas transfer dynamics of other
32 climate relevant compounds, and CLIVAR, focusing on heat and momentum exchange.
33 The cost estimates listed below do not account for the economies of scale of joint
34 implementation. The recommendations are presented in order of priority.

35
36 *Dedicated gas exchange process studies:* The two recently completed NOAA efforts,
37 the GasEx 1998 and 2001 studies, have shown the feasibility of the direct flux
38 measurements and have provided initial results on parameterization with forcing. Future
39 studies should have a greater focus on parameterization using remotely sensed products,
40 cross-validation of with independent flux techniques, and coordination with the intensive
41 basin observations of $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ and time-series stations. Two areas for immediate focus
42 are process studies of the high wind speed, bubble dominated regime and coastal waters,
43 where surfactants, more limited fetch and other processes may lead to different gas
44 exchange relationships than in the open ocean. A process study should include detailed
45 measurements of the physico-chemical properties and environmental forcing (e.g.,
46 surfactants, surface wave field, near surface turbulence) as well as the implementation of

1 direct air-sea flux measurements of CO₂ and other gases, employment of proxies such as
2 mass balance approaches of radon and deliberate tracers. The cost of these campaign type
3 studies is \$2-3 M excluding shiptime
4

5 *Longer-term CO₂ flux observations:* Direct flux measurements must be performed for
6 periods of a month to several years to determine whether we can derive unique
7 parameterizations for the gas transfer velocity, and to assess the impacts of episodic
8 events such as storms on fluxes. Observations from fixed platforms and opportunistic
9 research ship voyages are cost-effective. Initially, one or more easily accessible coastal
10 observatories should be equipped, but eventually an open-ocean site should be selected to
11 measure a range of fluxes. Possibilities include proposed the large spar buoys as part of
12 the NSF NSF Ocean Observatory Initiative (OOI). Research ships often perform direct
13 flux measurements of heat and momentum that require the same equipment used to
14 determine small-scale velocity fluctuations. These cruises should be augmented to
15 measure CO₂ fluxes as well provided they fulfill the stringent measurement criteria
16 necessary for direct CO₂ flux work. Aside from measuring fluxes, accurate
17 measurements should be taken of environmental forcing, such as friction velocity, wave
18 slope, and surface turbulence parameters. Incorporating a remote-sensing component
19 such as shipboard scatterometry is highly desirable. The cost for long term flux
20 observations done in the proposed piggy-back mode is \$1 -2 M/yr
21

22 *Development of remote sensing algorithms:* In order to optimally exploit remote
23 sensing measurements with the objective of quantifying the air-sea flux of CO₂, we
24 recommend the coordination of pertinent process studies, retrospective analysis, and data
25 collection of in situ measurements. The ultimate goal is to obtain the air-sea CO₂
26 exchange from remote sensing platforms, which because of their nature provide the only
27 means to obtain global quasi-synoptic fields because of the rapidly changing forcing
28 functions. The cost is approximately \$300K per study
29 The research effort will span a continuum from laboratory process studies to long term in
30 situ and remote sensing observations. The process studies will be designed to improve
31 our understanding of the factors determining air-sea exchange kinetics and the patterns
32 and variability of oceanic pCO₂. Independent constraints should be used to determine
33 whether regional air-sea gas fluxes are consistent with atmospheric measurements of
34 O₂/N₂, ¹³C/¹²C, and ¹³C disequilibrium measurements between water and air.
35

36 **7 Southern Ocean Pilot Studies**

37 **Rationale**

38 Models currently suggest that processes in the Southern Ocean may play a critical
39 role in regulating the partitioning of CO₂ between the atmosphere and the ocean.
40 Geostrophic balance within the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) brings deep water
41 masses to the surface where they exchange CO₂ and other gases with the atmosphere.
42 Deep waters exposed for the first time to an atmosphere laden with anthropogenic CO₂
43 have a greater potential for uptake of CO₂ than do surface waters elsewhere, which are
44 already partly equilibrated with rising levels of atmospheric CO₂. Consequently, the
45 Southern Ocean is a region of substantial ocean uptake of CO₂, as revealed both by in situ

1 observations (e.g., Takahashi et al. 2002) and by ocean carbon models, which indicate
2 that about 40% of the ocean uptake of anthropogenic CO₂ occurs south of 35°S. Further,
3 nutrients brought to the surface by wind-driven upwelling are utilized incompletely by
4 phytoplankton in the Southern Ocean. Thus the “biological pump” is working at only
5 about half its maximum efficiency with respect to potential CO₂ sequestration (e.g.,
6 Falkowski et al.1998).

7
8 Both the physical processes responsible for ventilation of deep water masses and the
9 biogeochemical factors regulating the efficiency of the biological pump are sensitive to
10 changing environmental conditions. For example, exposure of deep waters to the
11 atmosphere is sensitive to changes in freshwater fluxes, which affects stratification and
12 meridional overturning circulation. The efficiency of nutrient utilization in surface
13 waters is also sensitive to changes in stratification, which influences both the light
14 conditions within the mixed layer and the rate of nutrient supply. Nutrient utilization
15 efficiency is sensitive, as well, to changes in chemical conditions; for example, the
16 availability of micronutrients such as iron.

17
18 Consequently, climate-related changes in the physical and chemical environment of
19 the Southern Ocean hold the potential to alter substantially both the physical uptake of
20 CO₂ and its biological utilization. These effects represent some of the greatest potential
21 perturbations of the ocean carbon cycle that may be induced by rising atmospheric CO₂
22 levels and global warming. Furthermore, these perturbations represent potentially
23 significant feedbacks influencing future levels of CO₂ in the atmosphere. For these
24 reasons, the sensitivity to climate change of the physical, chemical and biological factors
25 regulating carbon fluxes in the Southern Ocean have been identified as a high priority for
26 study within the US CCSP.

27
28 During the past decade, JGOFS, WOCE and related programs have generated new
29 data from the Southern Ocean with unprecedented spatial and temporal coverage.
30 Studies of the inorganic carbon system have revealed, for the first time: (1) the high
31 uptake rate of anthropogenic CO₂ in the Southern Ocean, (2) the northward transport of
32 anthropogenic CO₂ by wind-driven surface circulation, and (3) the relatively large
33 inventories of anthropogenic CO₂ stored in regions of surface water convergence north of
34 the ACC. Contemporary biogeochemical studies have revealed the complex interactions
35 among physical, chemical and biological factors that regulate the efficiency of nutrient
36 utilization and the export of organic carbon from surface waters.

37 38 **Identified research needs**

39 Our quantitative understanding of carbon fluxes in the Southern Ocean has improved
40 tremendously thanks to these studies. However, the sensitivity of important processes
41 that control CO₂ transfers to climate change has yet to be investigated. In order to predict
42 future concentrations of CO₂ in the atmosphere (Goal 4 of the CCSP), it will be necessary
43 to model accurately the factors regulating carbon fluxes in the Southern Ocean, and the
44 sensitivity of these factors to climate change. Therefore, long-term objectives for future
45 studies are to determine:

46

- 1 • The sensitivity of deep convection and meridional overturning circulation to
2 anticipated warming and increased stratification of the Southern Ocean, as well as the
3 impact of these changes on the rate of CO₂ uptake by the Southern Ocean's
4 "solubility pump"; and
5
- 6 • The sensitivity of Southern Ocean ecosystems to the anticipated warming and
7 increased stratification of surface waters, and the impact of these changes on the
8 ocean's uptake of CO₂ through altered nutrient utilization efficiency and/or ecosystem
9 structure.

10
11 While the long-range objectives above are well established, it is premature to plan at
12 this time an intensive field program in the Southern Ocean. Results of recently-
13 completed studies (e.g., JGOFS, WOCE) are still being synthesized, and these synthesis
14 activities must be completed to contribute to the design of the next generation field
15 program. Furthermore, future programs will benefit from technological developments
16 that will permit continuous observations to be made in the remote harsh environment of
17 the Southern Ocean, and further development of models will increase the reliability of
18 their simulations. Therefore, during phase 1 of CCSP-Oceans, it is recommended that
19 these synthesis activities be completed, that pilot studies be implemented and new
20 observational systems developed, and that improvements be made to the models used to
21 simulate the ocean carbon cycle. This effort will lay the ground work for a more intensive
22 Southern Ocean field effort in phase 2 of CCSP-Oceans.

23 24 **Recommendations**

25 *Synthesis of historical data:* Many aspects of the synthesis of JGOFS and WOCE data
26 are already well underway. For example, uptake, transport and storage of anthropogenic
27 CO₂ are being evaluated. Rates and mechanisms of deep and intermediate water
28 formation are being investigated, and distributions of transient tracers (e.g.,
29 chlorofluorocarbons) are being used to test the accuracy of model simulations of those
30 processes (Dutay et al., 2002; Doney and Hecht, 2002). Other tracers (e.g., ¹⁴C, ³He, Si)
31 are being used to constrain the rates and pathways of deep water transport and ventilation
32 in the Southern Ocean. Results of individual biogeochemical process studies are being
33 combined to produce vertical carbon budgets throughout the water column, as well as
34 new insights into the flow of carbon and nutrients through the marine food web. Work in
35 these areas should continue.

36
37 New synthesis efforts should be initiated to investigate interannual variability of
38 carbon fluxes in the Southern Ocean and of the factors regulating these fluxes. Regular
39 patterns of interannual variability associated with coupled modes of ocean and
40 atmospheric circulation have been identified in the Southern Ocean. The Antarctic
41 Circumpolar Wave (ACW) propagates around the Southern Ocean with a period of about
42 eight years and a wave number of two. Sea ice extent (SIE), sea surface temperature
43 (SST), sea surface height (SSH), sea level pressure (SLP), and wind stress all vary
44 systematically with the phase of the ACW (White and Peterson, 1996). The Antarctic
45 Dipole (ADP) is a quasi-stationary wave that is characterized by an out-of-phase
46 relationship between sea ice and temperature anomalies in the Atlantic and Pacific sectors

1 of the Southern Ocean (Yuan and Martinson, 2001). Both the ACW and the ADP have
2 strong statistical relationships to ENSO. The Southern Hemisphere Annular Mode
3 (SAM) is characterized by an out-of-phase relationship between surface air pressure at
4 the pole and the pressure at mid latitudes (Thompson and Wallace, 2000) The intensity of
5 the Southern Hemisphere westerlies depends on this pressure gradient and, in turn,
6 influences surface ocean circulation, sea ice extent, and meridional heat transport (Hall
7 and Visbeck, 2002).

8
9 Future field programs may exploit the quasi-regular variability of these natural
10 oscillations to investigate the sensitivity to changes in environmental conditions of the
11 factors regulating carbon fluxes in the Southern Ocean. To assess the feasibility of such
12 an experimental strategy, remote sensing data should be analyzed to determine if
13 correlations exist between the phase of these oscillations and derivable parameters
14 relevant to ocean carbon fluxes.

15
16 Completing the synthesis of historical data will also provide a context in which to
17 interpret the results of process studies conducted by various national JGOFS programs.
18 Individual process studies were of a duration of no more than one year, and some were
19 much shorter. Consequently, the extent to which the results of these studies represent
20 climatological mean conditions is unknown. The analysis of historical data will place
21 each process study into a larger context of the mean and variability of the local conditions
22 that influence carbon fluxes, such as wind stress, sea surface temperature, sea ice extent,
23 etc.

24
25 *Pilot Studies and Technological Developments:* Technology development in support
26 of future ocean carbon studies is described in Section 8.1, and the instrumentation of
27 Volunteer Observing Ships (VOS) for pCO₂ surveys is covered in Section 5.2. All of
28 these activities are of importance in preparation for future studies in the Southern Ocean,
29 where the remote location and harsh operating conditions make it both difficult and
30 expensive to conduct shipboard operations. Remote sensing, both from space and from
31 in situ observational networks, will necessarily play a large role in future Southern Ocean
32 studies. During the next five years, a few activities can be noted as being of high priority.

33
34 Autonomous pCO₂ systems have been installed aboard the RVIB Nathaniel B. Palmer
35 and the ARSV Laurence M. Gould, the two principal U.S. ships supporting
36 oceanographic research around Antarctica. This program must be maintained, and it
37 should be expanded, as well. For example, pCO₂ systems could be installed aboard Coast
38 Guard ice breakers, aboard ships supplying research bases (both U.S. and foreign), and
39 aboard cruise ships that frequent certain regions of Antarctica. With further development
40 of pCO₂ sensors, sensor-bearing drifters can be deployed from ships transiting the
41 Southern Ocean, thereby increasing the capacity for in situ observations. Developing a
42 large data base of repeated pCO₂ surveys on VOS, supplemented by sensor data from
43 drifters, will provide essential information with which to evaluate the interannual
44 variability of air-sea CO₂ fluxes in the Southern Ocean. Integrating the CO₂ data with
45 remote sensing of environmental parameters (SST, SLP, SSH, SIE, winds, etc.) that
46 characterize the modes of variability described above (ACW, ADP, SAM) will lead to a

1 first assessment of the response of air-sea CO₂ fluxes to surface forcing associated with
2 these modes of variability. Assessing the interannual variability of CO₂ fluxes, and any
3 relationships between this variability and regular patterns of surface forcing, will provide
4 an informed basis for designing future field programs in the Southern Ocean.

5
6 Model simulations of CO₂-induced global warming predict increased stratification
7 and reduced overturning circulation in the Southern Ocean caused by an enhancement of
8 the hydrological cycle. Model simulations also predict that one of the first detectable
9 consequences of increased stratification would be a reduction of the concentration of
10 dissolved oxygen at intermediate depths (roughly 350 to 1000m). An analysis of
11 historical data suggests that these predicted changes are already underway (Matear et al.,
12 2000). However, the historical data with which to detect climate-related changes in
13 ventilation of the Southern Ocean are limited. A high priority for future research in the
14 Southern Ocean is an early warning system that would detect predicted changes
15 associated with global warming, such as decreasing concentrations of dissolved oxygen at
16 intermediate depths. Ideally, this system would involve moored oxygen sensors deployed
17 at strategic locations around the Southern Ocean. However, oxygen sensors presently
18 lack the stability required for long-term deployments (Section 8.2). Designing an early
19 warning system to detect climate-related changes in circulation and ventilation of the
20 Southern Ocean is a powerful incentive to develop oxygen sensors capable of long-term
21 stability. Until sensor-based monitoring of oxygen concentrations becomes feasible,
22 ships of opportunity should be exploited to expand the measurements of oxygen
23 concentrations in intermediate waters.

24
25 *Model Development:* The comparison of ocean carbon cycle models by OCMIP
26 revealed some important features about the Southern Ocean, as well as some issues in
27 need of attention. Ocean carbon models generally show the greatest uptake of
28 anthropogenic CO₂ south of 50°S, in part due to the exposure to the atmosphere of old
29 deep waters that have never before been exposed to anthropogenic CO₂. For this reason,
30 models also show the Southern Ocean becoming increasingly important as a sink for
31 anthropogenic CO₂ during the next century. Whereas there is agreement among ocean
32 models that the Southern Ocean is a site of substantial uptake of anthropogenic CO₂, the
33 Southern Ocean is also the region in which the greatest disagreement exists among
34 models in terms of absolute uptake rates, with results varying by as much as a factor of
35 three among models. The source of these inconsistencies must be determined.

36
37 Large discrepancies exist between the ocean's uptake of CO₂ at high southern latitudes
38 inferred from ocean observations and those obtained from atmospheric models.
39 Interpretation of atmospheric data point toward a smaller Southern Ocean sink than
40 would be estimated from ocean observations or from ocean models. The source of these
41 inconsistencies must be determined.

43 **8 Synthesis and Numerical Modeling**

44 **Rationale**

45 Despite near-term advances in in-situ measurements and remote sensing, ocean and

1 atmosphere carbon observations alone will remain too sparse to fully characterize the
2 relevant time-space variability of the marine carbon cycle and the net air-sea carbon
3 fluxes with the atmosphere. Numerical modeling, including data assimilation, therefore,
4 will play a pivotal role in the synthesis and interpretation of carbon cycle data. Modeling
5 considerations also should be incorporated from the beginning in the development of a
6 global observational strategy and process studies, with particular focus on sampling
7 network design, timely public access to data, and field data to address known model
8 deficiencies. The overall CCSP focus on "what will be the future atmospheric CO₂
9 concentration," can only be answered with prognostic models, the improvement of which
10 must therefore be a central goal of ocean carbon cycle research over the next decade.

11
12 More specifically, numerical models that incorporate the relevant carbon cycle
13 processes are necessary for the following tasks: designing optimal observing strategies
14 especially in the context of a changing climate and circulation; inferring regional carbon
15 sources/sinks consistent with atmospheric CO₂ variations using diagnostic "inversion"
16 techniques; synthesizing diverse ocean/atmosphere/land observations into a coherent
17 internally-consistent framework; scaling-up knowledge gained from local process studies;
18 testing mechanistic hypotheses about the varying sources and sinks of CO₂;
19 "hindcasting" historical variability on seasonal to decadal time-scales as a measure for
20 evaluating model skill; providing high resolution physical circulation and biogeochemical
21 context for regional campaign and process style experiments; and projecting future
22 responses and feedbacks to climate change on centennial timescales.

23 24 **Research Strategy**

25 Three activities are envisioned here as a direct part of CCSP-Oceans:

- 26 • Prognostic (forward) oceanic circulation/biogeochemistry models,
- 27 • Diagnostic (inverse and data assimilation) versions for the same ocean models,
- 28 • Reconciliation of ocean/atmosphere air-sea CO₂ flux estimates

29 The carbon cycle is embedded in the physical climate system, and close collaboration
30 with the weather, physical oceanographic and climate observational and modeling
31 communities is imperative, and will be synergistic and mutually beneficial.

32
33 *Prognostic Modeling:* Focused research on improving forward or prognostic models
34 is also required in order to improve future climate projections and to develop a better
35 fundamental understanding of the ocean carbon cycle at a mechanistic level (Doney,
36 1999). This work can often occur hand in hand with diagnostic modeling. The IGBP-
37 GAIM Ocean Carbon Model Intercomparison Project (OCMIP) has laid out a basic
38 framework for comparing global-scale ocean carbon models against observations in terms
39 of their physical circulation (simulated hydrography and transient tracer distributions)
40 and basic carbon system parameters. An expansion of this effort to ecosystem
41 components is needed. This will require the development of standard experiments and
42 evaluation of data sets as well as close collaboration among ocean modeling, field and
43 remote sensing communities. In addition to replicating the large-scale geographic
44 patterns of the mean state and seasonal cycle, particular emphasis should be placed on
45 evaluating the ability of prognostic models to hindcast the ocean carbon cycle and
46 biogeochemical responses to interannual to decadal natural variability (e.g., climate

1 modes like ENSO, NAO; the North Pacific regime shift, etc.).

2
3 *Diagnostic Modeling:* Diagnostic modeling (inverse models up to full data
4 assimilation systems) provides a means to generate complete, dynamically consistent
5 ocean carbon fields that incorporate data when and where they are available, and that give
6 rigorous estimates of uncertainties on the inferred quantities. These model-generated
7 products provide the input needed for scientific and political assessments of the state of
8 the ocean and its role in the global carbon cycle. These products can also provide initial
9 conditions for short-term and long-term predictions using prognostic models. Inverse
10 models also offer a formal method for designing optimal observational networks,
11 evaluating the quality of observational data, assessing the adequacy of model
12 parameterizations and parameter sets, and investigating the overall quality of model
13 structure. Diagnostic modeling therefore provides a natural framework for integrating the
14 different elements of ocean carbon cycle research: *in situ* observations, satellite remote
15 sensing, process studies and prognostic modeling.

16
17 The two main components of the proposed diagnostic modeling framework are ocean
18 carbon data centers and ocean carbon data assimilation systems. The ocean carbon data
19 centers act as the collection points for the various types and levels of data streams. For
20 many types of data, particularly for those collected on space-borne platforms, such
21 centers are already in existence. However, for many other data streams, for example,
22 those associated with the rapidly increasing number of underway pCO₂ data, such data
23 centers need to be established and supported. The data synthesis efforts at these data
24 centers should also include quality control procedures that extend beyond the initial
25 quality control done at the level of the individual observations. This includes, for
26 example, investigation of the internal consistency of the data as well as testing for long-
27 term precision and accuracy of the data. High priority should also be given to fully
28 documenting the various data products and streams (metadata). Diagnostic mathematical
29 methods have only very recently begun to be used in global carbon cycle research. These
30 models can range in their spatial coverage from regional to global and can be of various
31 complexities in both their mathematical approach as well as in their biogeochemical
32 representation.

33
34 The main products will be an optimal estimation of the current sources and sinks of
35 CO₂ in the ocean and of the state of the ocean carbon cycle in general (e.g., primary
36 productivity). Three main groups of users can be identified: the oceanographic,
37 atmospheric and terrestrial research community; the scientific assessment and policy
38 communities; and commercial fisheries and fishery managers. However, at present,
39 availability of existing expertise and experience to judge which method to apply to a
40 particular biogeochemical problem is scarce. It is therefore imperative that resources be
41 allocated to develop and test different schemes on a variety of temporal and spatial
42 scales, making use of a large variety of data.

43
44 The exact nature and structure of an ocean carbon diagnostic modeling framework is
45 an open question that requires fundamental research. Data assimilation in physical
46 oceanography, while not as advanced as in the weather forecasting community, has made

1 significant progress over the last several years. Several programs have been initiated at
2 the international level such as GODAE (Global Ocean Data Assimilation Experiment;
3 <http://www.bom.gov.au/bmrc/mrlr/nrs/oopc/godae/homepage.html>) and at national
4 levels, e.g. ECCO (Estimating the Circulation and Climate of the Ocean;
5 <http://www.ecco.ucsd.edu>) within the United States or MERCATOR in France. The
6 fundamental objective of GODAE is a practical demonstration of real-time global ocean
7 data assimilation in order to provide a regular complete depiction of the ocean state at
8 time scales of a few days, space scales of several tens of kilometers, and consistent with a
9 suite of remote and direct measurements and appropriate dynamical and physical
10 constraints. One of the associated objectives includes a description of the ocean
11 circulation and physics upon which ocean carbon models can be developed and tested.
12 Interactions and synergies with these ongoing and future activities must therefore be
13 established as soon as possible and supported into the future.

14
15 *Ocean-Atmosphere Reconciliation:* Uncertainties associated with determining
16 regional- to basin-scale oceanic CO₂ fluxes are such that comparing different approaches
17 is critical. These include interior and surface ocean measurements, atmospheric
18 measurements, and global mass-balance. Oceanic and “top-down” atmospheric carbon
19 cycle estimates have been compared in the past with generally consistent agreement on
20 global to hemispheric, and decadal, scales [e.g. Houghton et al., 1995; Prentice et al.,
21 2001]. However, comparisons on basin/continental and interannual scales show
22 considerable disagreement [e.g. Gurney et al., 2002; Le Quere et al., 2000]. Direct
23 integrations have primarily consisted of applying oceanic flux estimates and their
24 uncertainties as prior constraints in synthesis inversions of atmospheric data [e.g. Gurney
25 et al., 2002; Fan et al., 1998]. Because of data and model limitations, the basin-scale
26 ocean fluxes, the within-basin flux patterns, or both are fixed by prior assumptions and
27 not allowed to change, leading to potentially large biases in the calculated fluxes.

28
29 In many cases, the *a priori* ocean fluxes are set by the Takahashi et al. [1997] 30-year
30 climatology of surface pCO₂ measurements and the Wanninkhof et al. [1992]
31 parameterization of air-sea gas exchange. Of particular relevance to top-down flux
32 calculations are how uncertainties in applying such estimates to represent the basin-scale
33 fluxes or their patterns in any particular month propagate through an inversion. In
34 planning for a focused study such as the North American Carbon Program [Wofsy et al.,
35 2002], it is important to consider specifically how uncertainties in oceanic values will
36 affect the top-down terrestrial estimates. For example, given a north-south distribution of
37 atmospheric CO₂ the currently large uncertainties in the wind-speed dependence of
38 gas-exchange could translate directly into uncertainties in the latitudinal distribution of
39 sources on land. Presently, because the uncertainties associated with undersampling and
40 model biases over continents are relatively large compared to the constraints placed by
41 marine boundary layer atmospheric CO₂ measurements, reducing the *a priori*
42 uncertainties on ocean fluxes does not significantly improve inverse calculations (Law et
43 al., 2002; Gurney et al., 2002; Bender et al., 2002). Nonetheless, as atmospheric
44 observations expand, particularly over the continents, the uncertainties on ocean flux
45 estimates will become more important to inverse calculations. Future calculations will

1 require air-sea flux estimates from concurrent measurements rather than a climatology,
2 and a data-assimilation technique rather than a synthesis inversion.

3
4 Furthermore, even if the total flux for an ocean basin is known, large errors can be
5 introduced to atmospheric inversions if the spatial patterns of those fluxes are uncertain
6 [Kaminski et al., 2001; Engelen et al., 2002; Gloor et al., 1999]. These “aggregation
7 errors” are predicted to have large effects on flux estimates for the local region, and to
8 also affect neighboring regions. Engelen et al. [2002] estimated that reasonable
9 uncertainty in terrestrial carbon flux patterns would lead to 20-30% uncertainties in North
10 Pacific and North Atlantic fluxes. Also, basin-scale fluxes and within-basin flux patterns
11 vary interannually. The largest interannual variations in ocean CO₂ fluxes appear to be
12 associated with El Niño events, with on the order of 0.7 PgCyr⁻¹ less CO₂ entering the
13 atmosphere from the eastern equatorial Pacific [Feely et al., 1999b; Chavez et al., 1999,
14 Le Quéré et al., 2000]. Other significant sources of interannual ocean carbon cycle
15 variability include the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and Antarctic Circumpolar
16 Waves [Le Quéré et al., 2000; Russell et al., submitted to GBC 2003]. Errors in these
17 variations, or assuming fluxes or patterns fixed in time, can lead to biases in the
18 attribution of interannual carbon cycle variability using top-down approaches. For
19 example, with insufficient ocean observations the distinct regional responses to NAO
20 within the North Atlantic identified by LeQuéré et al. [2000] could look to the
21 atmosphere like variations in terrestrial fluxes from North America and Eurasia.

22
23 All independent approaches to constraining the global carbon cycle have unique
24 advantages and limitations, and the best estimates will likely ultimately come from a
25 synthesis of all available measurements in a data-assimilation scheme. Yet, atmospheric,
26 terrestrial, and oceanic observations, and carbon modeling and data-assimilation
27 approaches are still in a state of evolution. Without knowing the details of these
28 developments, we can anticipate a continued important role for direct comparisons
29 between oceanic and top-down estimates. Targets for uncertainties on top-down
30 atmospheric constraints are on the order of +/- 0.2 PgCyr⁻¹ for individual months and
31 regions, with additional information on the subregional spatial distribution of these fluxes
32 [Sarmiento and Wofsy, 1999; Wofsy and Harriss, 2002; Bender et al., 2002]. It is
33 important that our ocean observations evolve in parallel with atmospheric and terrestrial
34 observations so that independent estimates of these fluxes can be made at the same
35 resolution, and erroneous results and/or models be identified.

36 37 **Recommendations**

38 The synthesis and modeling component should include the following components:

- 39
40 • Augmented/new carbon data centers to undertake or coordinate the compilation,
41 quality control and distribution of in-situ and remote sensing data relevant to the
42 ocean carbon cycle, as well as derived synthesis products (e.g., surface fluxes;
43 assimilation fields);

44

- 1 • Process and inverse modeling studies to design optimal sampling networks and assess
2 the utility and trade-offs among existing and emerging measurement and platform
3 technologies;
- 4
- 5 • Ongoing development, improvement, and data-based evaluation of ocean
6 circulation/biogeochemical models used to diagnose carbon sources and sinks and
7 attribute observed changes in ocean carbon storage to variations in circulation,
8 biology, and chemistry.
- 9
- 10 • Comparison and reconciliation of independent estimates of global and regional air-sea
11 CO₂ fluxes from direct observations, atmospheric inversions, and oceanic forward
12 model solutions and inversions.
- 13
- 14 • Hindcast simulations (prognostic) and data synthesis of the ocean carbon cycle
15 variability over the recent historical period (1950s--present) using atmospheric
16 reanalysis products and ocean state estimations;
- 17
- 18 • Pilot data assimilation studies to investigate the methods, data needs, and general
19 feasibility of ocean carbon data assimilation systems. In the longer term, the
20 synthesis and modeling component must migrate to full data assimilation systems in
21 order to provide ongoing evaluations of carbon sources and sinks and the underlying
22 mechanisms.
- 23
- 24 • Prognostic ocean carbon and coupled climate-carbon model development and
25 simulations to improve and refine projections of the future evolution of the carbon
26 cycle under various scenarios for emissions, land-use etc.
- 27
- 28 • Model tools to support national and international carbon cycle and climate
29 assessments and to characterize the efficacy and environmental impacts of ocean
30 carbon management/mitigation strategies.
- 31

32 *Relationship to other program elements:* Numerical modeling is synergistic in one
33 manner or another with all of the other implementation elements. For example, data
34 assimilation will produce a representation of the past and present state of the ocean
35 carbon cycle that is optimally consistent with all available data-hydrography, pCO₂
36 surveys, time-series, remote sensing, and floats/drifter-maximizing the utility of these
37 datasets. Models will allow observing system simulation exercises to guide the optimal
38 implementation of the observing system and will incorporate the results of these process
39 studies, thereby extrapolating their impacts and feedbacks to regional to global, and
40 decadal to centennial scales. Process studies will also be targeted to provide data to
41 address major model uncertainties, which will be critical for discriminating among and
42 improving models. The success of ocean carbon data assimilation for various types of
43 measurements (in situ and remote, real and pseudo) will provide important guidance for
44 technology development of new sensors and platforms. The modeling work will make
45 use of the synthesized data products from the data center(s) and will return model
46 products to be distributed. In the past, synthesis and modeling work has been conducted

1 in a highly international collaborative framework (e.g. Gurney et al., 2002) and this work
2 will encourage similar linkages by making the data freely available to international
3 collaborators for their modeling work. A number of workshops should be conducted to
4 advance the modeling and synthesis program elements. The products of the modeling
5 and synthesis will be very useful to policy makers and educators.
6

7 **9 Enabling Activities**

8 **9.1 Sensor and Platform Development**

9 This section addresses technological developments that will enhance our ability to
10 study the surface and subsurface structure of all interacting carbon components on key
11 time and space scales. Some of these developments are operational, others are in
12 development, and others are anticipated through continued research. This section focuses
13 on autonomous in-situ ocean carbon cycle measurements; but to quantify, understand,
14 model, and predict CO₂ variability of the atmosphere-ocean system will also require
15 complementary measurements of meteorological and surface ocean variables. These
16 needs are met not only by field programs, but also by excellent real-time satellite and
17 weather prediction model products such as wind, irradiance, aerosols, and biomass
18 assessments. Autonomous instrumented platforms are necessary given that many of the
19 oceans biologically dynamic realms are under-observed because they lie in areas of
20 almost perpetual cloud cover (Bishop and Rossow, 1991) or beyond the reach of satellite
21 remote sensing.
22

23 **Platforms**

24 *High powered systems: deep-sea and coastal moorings, cabled observatories, and*
25 *AUV's:* Moorings are the most mature technology available to support autonomous CO₂
26 measurements and have proven invaluable in testing and development of new complex
27 sensors and seawater sampling systems. Fixed and profiling sensor/sampling packages
28 are now capable of season-long deployment from deep-sea moorings or from the bottom
29 platforms on continental shelves. Opportunities are emerging for adapting
30 biogeochemical instrumentation developed for moorings into deep-sea and continental
31 shelf cabled observatories, which offer the potential for high speed, real-time two
32 communication capabilities (Glen and Dickey, 2002). Self-propelled high-powered
33 Autonomous Underwater Vehicles (AUV's) capable of navigation over 1000 km
34 distances and several week durations are now being proven at sea. AUV technology
35 would be best applied in high-resolution studies of smaller ocean areas, such as in coastal
36 observatories like LEO-15, rather than in sustained monitoring activities. The strength of
37 high-powered systems is their ability to sustain complex sensor and sampling systems.
38 The high cost of such systems, however, dictates a limited and careful deployment in the
39 world oceans (Section 5.3).
40

41 *Low powered systems: drifters, profiling floats, gliders.* The attraction of the low
42 power systems is their low deployment cost (about one to two days of ship operating
43 costs), simplicity and ruggedness, which permits wide-scale deployment on global scales.

1 In both profiling floats and gliders, accuracy of sensor data can be verified by sampling
2 deep water.

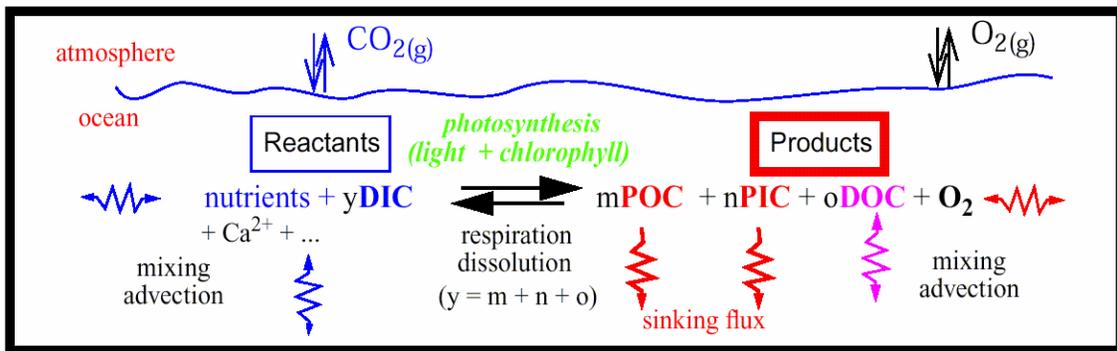
3
4 *Drifters*: Drifters were developed to track ocean currents and ocean temperature in
5 support of the WOCE program. Drifters typically last about three months, and because
6 they provide a unique Lagrangian perspective on biogeochemical processes, they can
7 clearly enhance shiptime science during process studies by tracking features of interest.
8 Data are relayed in real time via ARGOS satellite system. However, drifters provide no
9 information on the ocean interior and only limited meteorological information. Platforms
10 with a larger instrument suite required for chemical monitoring have not been extensively
11 tested, and their long-term survivability in the surface ocean is an open question,
12 although the CARIOCA buoys (CARbon Interface Ocean Atmosphere) (Hood et al.,
13 1999; Bakker et al., 2001; Hood et al., 2001a,b) have proven successful, and WOCE- style
14 drifters enhanced with passive radiance and irradiance sensors have been successfully
15 deployed by the Oregon State University remote sensing optics team.

16
17 *Profiling Lagrangian floats*: Thousands of floats are now being deployed globally as
18 part of the international program *Argo* (*Argo* Science Team, 1998; Roemmich et al.,
19 1999), which aims to provide widespread temperature and salinity profiles and
20 information on mid-depth circulation for investigation of the climate of the ocean. These
21 buoyancy driven systems are pre-programmed to profile to the surface from kilometer
22 depths once every ten days over five years; at each surfacing data is transmitted to the
23 ARGOS satellite system. The fast telemetry speeds via ORBCOMM reduce the time
24 required for data transmission; e.g. for *Argo* floats, from days to tens of minutes. This
25 not only saves energy (which can be used to power additional sensors), but also reduces
26 euphotic zone time and the need for anti-biofouling requirements. Coverage of
27 ORBCOMM satellites falls off strongly poleward of 55°N and 55°S; development of a
28 'smarter' success-driven communications protocol will enhance data throughput at higher
29 latitudes. IRRIDIUM data transmission methodology, which is currently under
30 development and testing, will not suffer from lack of coverage in polar regions.

31
32 The advent of fast (20-50 times faster) bidirectional data telemetry via the
33 ORBCOMM and IRRIDIUM satellites has enabled a significant expansion of the sensor
34 suite that can be carried on an *Argo*-style profiler, including carbon sensors. Six of these
35 outfitted profilers ("Carbon Explorers"; two in at Station PAPA in the North Pacific, and
36 four in the Southern Ocean) have been deployed and operated successfully over the past
37 two years, and have proven to be capable of sustained, high-frequency observations of
38 carbon biomass variability in the ocean for the greater part of one year. These greatly
39 increase the probability of directly observing biological responses to episodic events such
40 as storms and dust inputs (Bishop et al., 2002). The 10 day *Argo* profiling frequency is a
41 poor match for upper water column carbon cycle processes. However, instruments
42 capable of determining the variability of carbon sedimentation would be perfectly
43 compatible with the *Argo* floats as they are now operated. Future designs need to
44 consider matching platform capabilities, sensor stability, with timescales that are useful
45 for carbon cycle research. The Station PAPA floats, for example, combined a variety of

1 profiling depths and frequencies that captured the diurnal cycle in the upper water
 2 column as well as the longer-term variability of waters to kilometer depths.

3
 4 *Gliders:* Gliders are steerable profiling floats capable of self navigation at speeds of
 5 0.2 m sec^{-1} . "Slocum" (WEB Research); "Spray" (named after Slocum's boat; SIO); and
 6 "Seaglider" (APL) are examples of gliders that are now being proven in both coastal and
 7 open ocean environments. Gliders are capable of sustained operations to depths as great
 8 as 2000 m and for time periods of seasons. Operation farther than 20 km from shore
 9 requires bidirectional ORBCOMM or IRRIDIUM satellite telemetry. Gliders are more
 10 expensive than floats (\$35-50k versus \$15-20k), but they are also more easily recovered
 11 since they can be commanded to navigate to a recovery point. Mechanical integration of
 12 sensors on gliders is more problematic than on profiling floats because sensors must not
 13 compromise hydrodynamic performance.



15
 16
 17 **Figure 6.2.1** A simplified representation of the transformations of the carbon system
 18 components in seawater. In the presence of light, marine plants fix nutrients and
 19 dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) species into particulate organic carbon (POC,
 20 biomass), particulate inorganic carbon (PIC, as calcium carbonate shells, or liths), and
 21 dissolved organic carbon (DOC) pools. The DIC pool (or ΣCO_2), is comprised of
 22 aqueous CO_2 , H_2CO_3 , HCO_3^- , CO_3^{2-} components. In surface waters, DIC dominates all
 23 forms of carbon in seawater and is present at concentrations of $\sim 2000 \mu\text{M}$. Next in
 24 importance is the DOC pool at $\sim 70\text{-}100 \mu\text{M}$. The POC and PIC (CaCO_3 : as calcite and
 25 aragonite minerals) pools rarely add up to more 10 and $2 \mu\text{M}$, respectively. PIC is
 26 important because it forms the 'ballasting' of marine aggregates and thus influences the
 27 vertical transport efficiency of sedimented POC. In surface waters, the dynamic range of
 28 these parameters is in opposite order: 10% (DIC), $\sim 30\%$ (DOC), and factors of 10 to 100
 29 for both POC and PIC. This is why diurnal variability in particulate matter
 30 concentrations is easily detected even in oligotrophic waters, whereas diurnal variability
 31 of DIC or DOC are smaller than measurement error.

32
 33 **Carbon, oxygen and nutrient sensors**

34 Progress on sensor development was recently reviewed by Johnson et al. (2000).
 35 Below we highlight sensors with near term prospects for deployment across all
 36 autonomous platforms. We recommend aggressive investment to bring an integrated suite
 37 of carbon system sensors to operational status over then next several years. Issues that

1 must be addressed in the near term include long term sensor accuracy and stability: e.g.
2 limitations by biofouling, and in some cases, supply of reagents.

3 *pCO₂*: Autonomous shipboard pCO₂ systems have been successfully reengineered
4 and deployed on surface drifters and moorings. A time series of □pCO₂ measurements
5 on TAO/TRITON moorings in the equatorial Pacific (Chavez et al., 1999) now extends
6 over two years, which indicates the growing maturity of the technology. These
7 autonomous pCO₂ systems, which are based on infrared analyzers, work well in the
8 surface ocean, but are not easily adaptable to depth profiling. On the other hand, systems
9 such as Differential Gas Tension (DGT) devices with CO₂ specific chemical absorbers
10 show great promise for in-situ pCO₂ measurement (e.g. DeGrandpre, U. Montana; L.
11 Merlivat, LODYC), as they are low power and have no inherent depth limitation.
12 Adaptation of this system for deployment on low payload platforms will require a
13 reduction in size and in the time constant for measurement from minutes to tens of
14 seconds.

15 *DIC*: The components of dissolved inorganic carbon can be determined by
16 measurement of two independent carbon dioxide parameters (DIC, TA, pH, pCO₂).
17 Currently, these can only be determined with required precision and accuracy using
18 shipboard and laboratory methodology (see section 5.1). Seawater pH has been measured
19 using spectrophotometric procedures similar to those used for pCO₂ sensors, and methods
20 for autonomous determination of total dissolved inorganic carbon (C_T) and total alkalinity
21 (TA) have been proposed and are in initial stages of development. However, all DIC
22 component sensor strategies need engineering investment to decrease time constant from
23 minutes to seconds in order to meet profiling applications.
24

25 *DOC*: Measurements of dissolved organic carbon must be made from ships. There is
26 an excellent opportunity to exploit recent advances in microelectronics / biotechnology to
27 develop robust and stable sensors capable of autonomous assessment of DOC in the sea.
28 Directed investment would yield an operational sensor within several years.
29

30 *POC*: Beam attenuation coefficient (measured using a transmissometer at 660 nm) is
31 now accepted as a precise measure of POC concentration in the ocean. The
32 instrumentation is commercially available and is being increasingly applied across all
33 ocean platforms. To date, there are now over 4 float-years of experience (2000 profiles
34 to depths of 1000 m) with transmissometer based POC sensors. Biofouling degradation of
35 the untreated optical surfaces of the POC sensors deployed on Carbon Explorers has been
36 0.5 to 1% transmission loss per month over one year. Precision of POC sensors has been
37 improved, with beam attenuation coefficient precision better than 0.001 m⁻¹ (POC
38 precision of better than 0.02 μM).
39

40 Operational wide-scale deployment of POC sensors as part of a carbon observing
41 system requires (1) standardization of optical specifics of these instruments across
42 manufacturers (e.g. receiver acceptance angle) and a (2) calibration protocol that
43 guarantees accuracy on first time deployment (current state of the art is 0.01 m⁻¹; desired
44 <0.001 m⁻¹). Improved accuracy and precision is critical in studies in the mesopelagic

1 zone, where POC concentrations are low. Although there is no doubt of the usefulness of
2 optical determination of POC and therefore a strong justification for operational
3 deployment of transmissometers now as operational part of an ocean observing system,
4 the community would be well served by a dedicated at-sea intercomparison of shipboard
5 POC sampling methods and optical sensors.

6
7 *PIC:* A sensor for particulate inorganic carbon (PIC) with an operational range of
8 $<0.01 \mu\text{M}$ to $>30 \mu\text{M}$ is reaching near operational and commercialized status. The
9 instrument detects the birefringent signal from calcium carbonate particles. Current
10 uncertainties are the absolute calibration accuracy of the PIC sensor and its long term
11 stability. The present uncertainties can only be resolved through comparisons between
12 optically measured PIC and sampled PIC distributions at sea and through deployment on
13 autonomous platforms such as the Carbon Explorer. The time scale for operational status
14 is 2004.

15
16 *POC and PIC flux:* Optical methods for assessment of POC and PIC flux can be
17 developed to exploit profiling floats and gliders. Profiling floats in particular spend much
18 of their time drifting at depth. Such systems would operate during these times and have
19 the potential to record carbon flux variability on timescales as fast as it occurs. Initial
20 prototype systems are under development. Proof of such systems requires calibration
21 against neutrally buoyant sediment trap systems capable of returning samples (Section
22 6.2 IV).

23
24 *Dissolved O₂ sensors:* Measurements of dissolved O₂ contain a wealth of information
25 on marine biological and physical processes [e.g. Redfield, 1948; Levitus, 1994]. Over
26 the past century, millions of discrete O₂ measurements have been made in the world
27 oceans, using the Winkler titration method, and these data have been particularly useful
28 in constraining seasonal productivity and air-sea gas exchange on hemispheric scales
29 [e.g. Najjar and Keeling, 2000; Keeling et al. 1998]. Unfortunately, these analyses are
30 labor intensive, and data coverage remains sparse in winter and at high southern latitudes.
31 Existing *in situ* dissolved O₂ sensors tend to require frequent recalibration (electrolyte
32 exposed to the water across a permeable membrane), or are expensive (gas-tension based
33 sensor). Gas equilibrators, such as those used for measuring pCO₂, are less suited for
34 ΔO_2 because of its lower solubility. A recent advance in the gas tension technology has
35 been that of an ultra-stable dissolved pO₂/pN₂ sensor. This sensor is capable of operation
36 at any depth and thus a profiling mode. DGT technology would benefit from effort to
37 reduce response time (minutes to 10's of seconds) and size to permit this approach to be
38 applied across all platforms.

39
40 *Nutrient substrates:* A reagentless NO₃⁻ analyser has just been commercialized and
41 shows promise for profiling applications. This ISUS instrument optically detects nitrate
42 concentrations without reagents or laboratory testing, and efforts to down-power and
43 miniaturize this system will benefit all platforms. Sensors for nitrogen components other
44 than NO₃ either have high power requirements or have slow response times which would
45 preclude most profiling applications. No technology exists for autonomous
46 determination of dissolved Si or P in profiling mode.

1 *Reactive micronutrients:* There is no means to assess Fe directly in the water column,
2 particularly at the required precision of < 0.1 nM. However, iron limitation may be
3 inferred indirectly via bio-optical measurements of photosynthetic competency (Fv/Fm).
4 Optical instruments of this kind have found widespread use on ships and occasionally on
5 moorings. Directed investment should be made to enable adaptation of such instrumentation
6 to profiling applications across all platforms.

7 8 **Other Platform Issues**

9 *Autonomous, underway pCO₂ systems:* Underway pCO₂ measurement systems are a
10 mature technology and the surface VOS network, along with the existing time series
11 stations, will form the backbone of the initial carbon observing system. At present,
12 however, these systems lack a set of best practices and standards for intercomparisons,
13 and are not autonomous and must be monitored by a qualified scientist or technician.
14 The Japanese have recently developed a system that can be operated by a trained member
15 of the ship's crew rather than employing a separate technician specifically to operate and
16 maintain the underway system. This is an important step that has greatly reduced the
17 operational costs, and will undoubtedly lead to an enhanced use of this monitoring
18 technique.

19
20 *Ship infrastructure:* Future shipboard carbon cycle process studies require a
21 significant upgrading of shore to ship telemetry of such data. Fast and uninterrupted ship
22 to satellite links are also required for process studies which utilize autonomous vehicles.
23

24 **9.2 Data Management and Data Availability**

25 Data management within CCSP-oceans requires policies and infrastructure to: obtain
26 the data; quality control incoming data sets; provide timely access to data; and ensure its
27 long-term archival. The main elements of such a plan include establishing a data policy
28 that requires investigators to submit data sets within a defined period of time, and
29 providing the personnel and data systems necessary to provide quality data from
30 acquisition through archival.

31
32 The types of data proposed within this CCSP-oceans plan include a wide variety of
33 data (from standard hydrographic to biological processes) collected over a broad range of
34 spatial and temporal scales (Table 5). Although this approach is essential for scaling
35 from small spatial and temporal scales to regional/global and interannual scales, it
36 presents significant challenges to data management.

37
38 Similar concerns were addressed at a recent data management planning meeting for
39 LSCOP, which includes the repeat hydrography and VOS pCO₂ surveys (sections 4.1
40 and 4.2 of this document). This meeting produced a data management plan to establish a
41 standardized scheme for data collection, quality control, rapid access, and archival (Feely
42 and Sabine 2002), which was largely built on the experience gained from previous ocean
43 data programs such as U.S. JGOFS and WOCE. The LSCOP plan provides firm

1 groundwork for an ocean carbon cycle science data management plan, which can be
2 modified to incorporate additional data from process studies and remote sensing.

4 **Recommendations**

5 The recommended components of a data management system include:

6
7 *CO₂ Science Team.* A committee of scientists and data managers should be established
8 for developing standards for collection (both manual and automated), reporting and
9 quality control of data from both field programs and automated sensors.

10
11 *Data Management Group.* This group is responsible for maintaining quality controlled
12 data sets and providing timely access to data, preferably with internet-based public
13 access. Ideally, the group will include representatives from a variety of institutions with
14 experience at handling automated data acquisition and quality control, development of
15 data acquisition systems, and long-term data archival.

16
17 *Data Acquisition System.* This primarily includes hardware and software for acquiring,
18 storing, and delivering data in a variety of formats, and from a variety of sources.

19
20 Each of these components is necessary to facilitate timely access to quality data for
21 data analysis, modeling and data assimilation. This is particularly important in the
22 context of the North American Carbon Program, where there is a strong desire to
23 integrate data from ocean, atmosphere and terrestrial studies. This calls for early
24 collaboration with the atmospheric and terrestrial programs to establish data structure and
25 metadata requirements, and other arrangements for streamlining data integration from
26 these varied sources.

27
28 Details of a data management system can be derived from experience gained through
29 the WOCE and US JGOFS programs (Glover et al., 2003). For example, the U.S. JGOFS
30 program requires that data generated within the field programs (process study cruises) as
31 well as within the synthesis and modeling phase of the study be submitted in a timely
32 fashion (~12 months post-cruise), under specific guidelines of a data management policy.
33 The U.S. JGOFS Data Management Office also maintains a data distribution system that
34 incorporates many of the desired characteristics outlined in the CRP Strategic Plan (Nov.
35 2002 draft). The system allows access to data via the internet-based distributed data
36 network, DODS/OPeNDAP (Distributed Oceanographic Data System; Open source
37 Project for a Network Data Access Protocol). The data management plan within IOOS
38 (Integrated Ocean Observing System), which is the U.S. component of GOOS (Global
39 Ocean Observing System), is also based on OPeNDAP, which will ease the integration of
40 oceanographic data from CCSP-oceans into IOOS. The U.S. JGOFS data system
41 provides data visualization, data sub-setting, and data downloading in a variety of formats
42 via a Live Access Server (LAS). Until recently, LAS-served data were restricted to
43 gridded data. Due to combined efforts of the U.S. JGOFS Data Management Office,
44 NOAA/PMEL, and the University of Washington through a grant provided within the
45 U.S. JGOFS SMP, the U.S. JGOFS LAS now includes the capabilities to display and
46 extract from discrete data (e.g. individual measurements) as well. Users of this system

1 can display, subset, and download both discrete and gridded data, and have increased
 2 options for examining and downloading data from a variety of sources and formats.

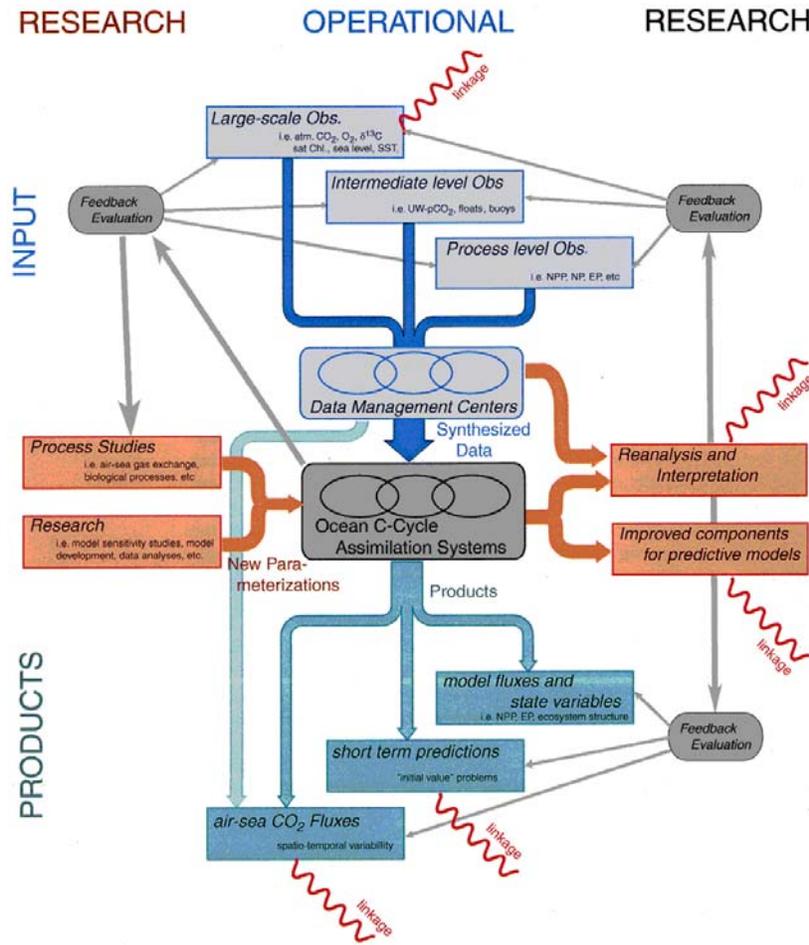
3
 4 **Table 5. Temporal and spatial scales of various types of data included in this**
 5 **planning document.**

6

Measurement	Spatial Resolution	Temporal Resolution (years)	Parameters
Repeat Hydrography	50 km profiles spaced every 50 km along discrete lines profiles typically sampled every 1–200 m depth	5–10 y	hydrographic parameters carbon system parameters various tracers, trace elements
VOS pCO ₂ lines	5 km surface sampled every 5 km along discrete lines	0.125–0.2 y	Air and sea pCO ₂
Process Studies	5–10 km profiles every 5–20 km along discrete lines	Varies typically one-time samples but can obtain higher frequency measurements while onsite	hydrographic parameters biological parameters (e.g. chlorophyll, zooplankton biomass) processes (e.g. particle flux, primary production)
Time Series	N/A discrete stations	0.083 y can obtain higher-frequency measurements while onsite	hydrographic parameters biological parameters (e.g. chlorophyll, zooplankton biomass) processes (e.g. particle flux, primary production)
Remote Sensing	1–100 km	0.003–0.083 y	See table 4 of Section 5.5
Drifters, floats, gliders, etc.	Varies	varies	hydrographic carbon system parameters biological parameters

7
 8 Maintaining high quality from the CCSP-oceans field program will require strong
 9 oversight by the Data Management Team. Much of the success of the previous ocean
 10 program is due to the efforts by data managers to track data from start to finish; i.e., from
 11 data collection, submission to the data system, quality control, distribution and archival.
 12 Every step of this process requires significant manpower, and continuous dialog between
 13 scientists and data managers (Figure 7).

1



2
3
4
5

Figure 7: Data management schematic

6 **9.3 International Cooperation and Linkages**

7 The appropriate scale for investigation of the carbon cycle is global, and no single
8 country can describe or quantify carbon cycling within its national boundaries without
9 considering global processes occurring in the atmosphere and oceans. The vast majority
10 of the ocean is a global commons, and its sheer size and often distant, inhospitable
11 regions require nations to work together to develop a unified view of the ocean carbon
12 cycle over a range of space and time scales.

13
14 While we have begun to develop the capacity to monitor ocean carbon and to share
15 this information with similar efforts in other countries, we are far from having a
16 coordinated research or observation system, or aggregated data products on basin and
17 global scales. A number of efforts are underway to establish international strategies for
18 ocean carbon research and observations, and to identify mechanisms for the necessary
19 communication and coordination among national and regional programmes.

20

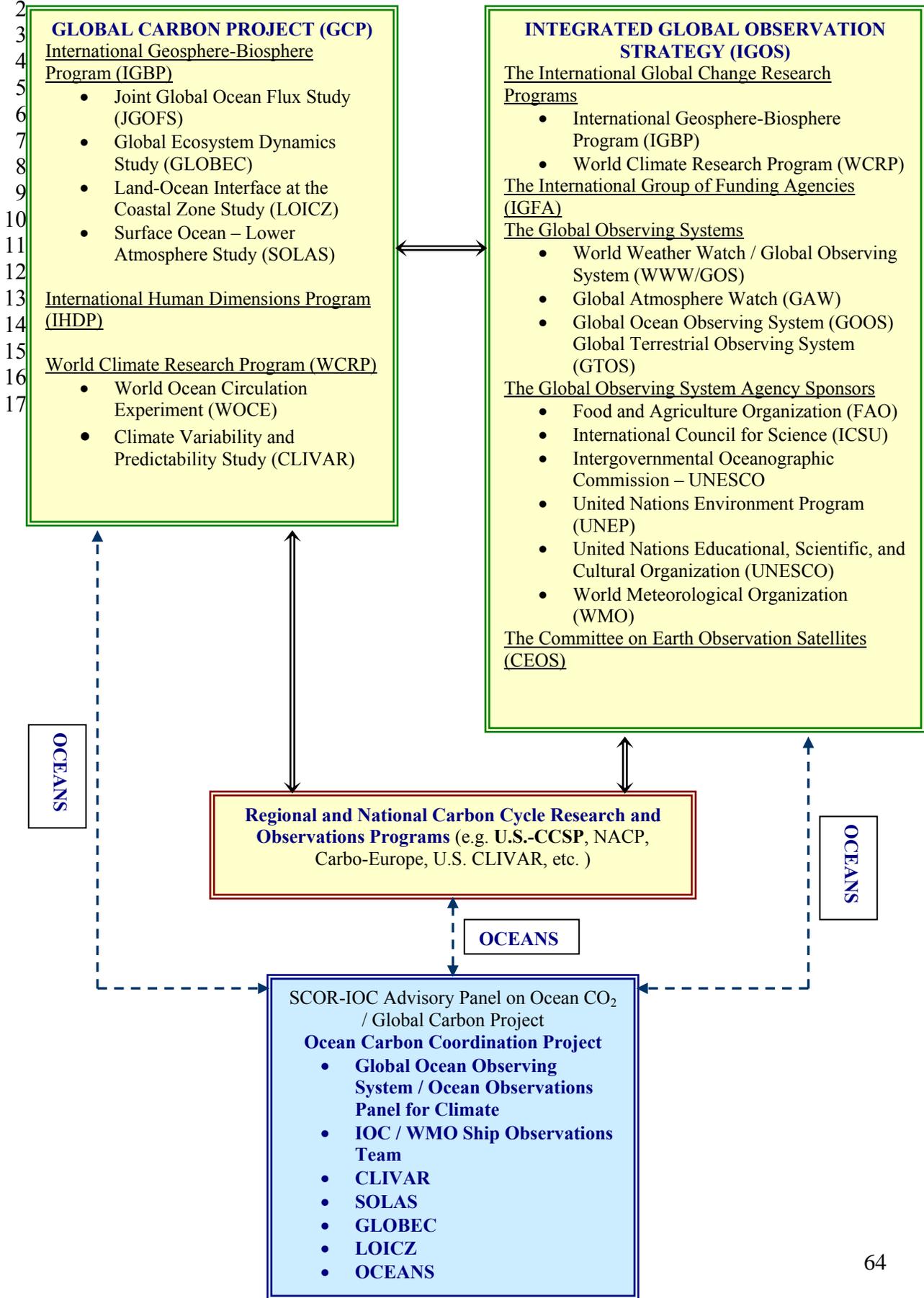
1 The International Geosphere – Biosphere Program (IGBP), the International Human
2 Dimensions Program (IHDP), and the World Climate Research Program (WCRP) have
3 jointly developed the Global Carbon Project (GCP) to develop a framework for carbon
4 cycle research that provides a comprehensive picture of the global carbon cycle,
5 including both its biophysical and human dimensions, together with the interactions and
6 feedbacks between them. (www.globalcarbonproject.org) The GCP will develop
7 integrated core activities to identify and develop the key methods, models, knowledge of
8 processes and interactions necessary to treat the global carbon cycle as a coupled human-
9 natural system. These activities will focus on broad themes such as Patterns and
10 Variability; Processes, Controls and Interactions; and Future Dynamics of the Global
11 Carbon Cycle. Within these broad themes, the ocean carbon cycle will play a major role,
12 and the GCP science framework highlights the research needed to eventually achieve this
13 integrated understanding. The GCP will not develop discipline-level mechanisms to
14 coordinate research and observations, but will instead seek partnerships with existing
15 programmes.

16
17 In close collaboration with the GCP, the Integrated Global Observing Strategy
18 (IGOS) Partnership (www.igospartners.org) has initiated the development of an
19 Integrated Global Carbon Observation (IGCO) Strategy to provide an integrated plan for
20 global carbon observations from satellite and earth-based systems. The IGOS Partnership
21 (figure x) brings together the international global research programs, the global observing
22 systems and their sponsor agencies, and national space agencies to develop thematic
23 strategies that provide a framework for international cooperation and resource allocation.
24 The IGCO strategy will provide a blueprint for an integrated global carbon observing
25 system that will serve as a complement to the GCP research strategy.

26
27 These two international strategy groups, focusing both on integrated carbon research
28 and observations, provides a framework for international cooperation to set research and
29 observation priorities and to implement programs to meet these goals. To ensure
30 compatibility and complementarity between the research and observation components,
31 these two groups are working closely together. At the discipline-level (e.g., oceans, land,
32 atmosphere) there are few international coordination mechanisms, and these two
33 framework programs are working to develop the necessary partnerships to facilitate
34 communication and coordination internationally. One of the first pilot projects of the
35 GCP for international coordination activities will be a collaborative effort with the
36 SCOR-IOC Advisory Panel on Ocean CO₂ (<http://ioc.unesco.org/iocweb/co2panel>) to
37 provide a coordination forum for current and planned ocean carbon cycle studies and
38 observations from a wide range of national, regional, and international programs. The
39 SCOR – IOC Advisory Panel also serves as the ocean carbon advisory group for GOOS,
40 the lead agency for the ocean component of the IGOS Partners' IGCO strategy.

41

Diagram of international framework for ocean carbon research and observations:



1 There is an immediate need for global-scale coordination of ocean carbon research
2 and observations, since many national ocean programs for global carbon cycle research
3 (including reoccupation of WOCE sections and new pCO₂ systems for a network of
4 surface observations on ships of opportunity) have already begun or will be starting in the
5 next couple of years. This pilot project will collate and build upon the existing web
6 information and establish a model for coordination activities including periodic
7 workshops to facilitate international collaborations. This is a difficult task that will
8 require active solicitation for updates on the latest national plans and constant vigilance
9 to find programs that have possible conflicts or potential for better collaboration. The
10 potential benefit to the global community however is significant. The first workshop of
11 the OCCP will be held in January 2003, focusing on planning coordination of underway
12 carbon measurements made from ships of opportunity and on carbon and tracer
13 measurements made on the repeat hydrographic sections of CLIVAR.
14

15 **9.4 Workshops and Educational Outreach**

16 Workshops are integral at every stage of the CCSP-oceans plan, from planning of
17 field experiments, to analysis of results and dissemination of information. Workshops
18 will be essential in planning not only field studies, but also for putting in place long-term
19 plans for data management; communication and interaction with other carbon cycle
20 science groups (both national and international); and mechanisms for communicating
21 with policymakers, educators, and the general public. Data analysis workshops will be
22 designed to bring observationalists and modelers together to address specific problems.
23 As discoveries are brought to light, additional workshops will be required to tackle new
24 scientific challenges.
25

26 The draft CCSP Strategic Plan identifies four major needs that fall under the broad
27 category of Reporting and Outreach (Chapter 13): 1) inventory of existing agency
28 activities; 2) reporting and outreach for decisionmakers; 3) reporting and outreach for the
29 public; and 4) outreach for K-12 education. The first of these constitutes the need to
30 coordinate the various reporting and outreach activities of individual agencies, to
31 eliminate duplicate efforts, and to focus on those efforts that are most effective. The
32 second of these - reporting and outreach for decisionmakers - is an extremely important
33 aspect of the CCSP because it influences policy making at regional, national and
34 international scales. CCSP-oceans will provide research results to the Global Change
35 Research Information Office for further dissemination to policymakers, and will
36 participate in CCSP initiatives that facilitate reporting to both governmental and
37 nongovernmental agencies.
38

39 Disseminating research findings to the public and to K-12 educators is recognized as
40 a growing responsibility of carbon cycle research. As public awareness about climate
41 change increases, so does demand for up-to-date information. There are several avenues
42 for informing the community, including the media, the internet, and published materials.
43 The oceanographic community has typically utilized all three modes, and improving
44 communication to these groups will require using strategies specific to the target
45 audience.

1
2 The media provides the most direct link between scientists and the community, but
3 the effectiveness of how well the media conveys important scientific findings to the
4 public is generally no better than how well the scientists communicate with the media.
5 One way to improve this important link is to train scientists to be better communicators
6 themselves. CCSP-oceans workshops will stress this aspect, perhaps by including a
7 media liaison at meetings, providing guidelines on how to communicate results,
8 composing fact sheets or press releases, and by closing workshops with a discussion of
9 how best to communicate scientific results to not only the scientific community, but to
10 the public in general.

11
12 Web-based education has become increasingly popular in K-12 classrooms. In
13 concert with the call in the draft CCSP plan to coordinate and streamline outreach
14 activities across the various agencies, CCSP-oceans will first research existing sites on
15 the internet for the most effective sites, and will identify both duplicated efforts and gaps
16 in what is currently available to K-12 educators. CCSP-oceans will work within the
17 overall CCSP to maximize input within the streamlined K-12 outreach activities, by
18 identifying new ideas that can be developed as new web sites, or incorporated into
19 existing web sites. Finally, training of new scientists (PhD candidates and postdoctoral
20 researchers) in ocean carbon cycle science will be promoted by reserving a certain
21 percentage of slots at meetings and workshops for young scientists, and by encouraging
22 their participation in nearly every aspect of the carbon cycle science plan.

24 **9.5 Management Framework**

25 The research components of the CCSP-Oceans program are synergistic and the
26 ultimate success of the program in addressing the four overarching objectives detailed in
27 section 4 depends upon the close coordination of the individual observational, process,
28 and numerical studies. Past experiences with programs such as JGOFS and WOCE
29 suggest that such integration requires explicit mechanisms be put in place at a variety of
30 levels from the inception of the program. Because of the changing nature of technology
31 and scientific understanding, the structure of the CCSP-Oceans program should remain
32 flexible, with a mixture of research projects ranging in scope from individual PIs to mid-
33 to large-scale multi-investigator observational networks and field expeditions. The
34 modeling, remote sensing, and field components should proceed hand and hand,
35 facilitated by requiring the formulation of multi-PI, interdisciplinary teams including
36 scientists working on models and satellite data for the larger projects, particularly the
37 process studies. An annual PI meeting series should be initiated to facilitate the
38 interactions among researchers, and program planning and data management offices
39 should be established. Finally, the overall scientific oversight and guidance of the
40 program should be under the direction of a scientific steering committee representing the
41 diversity of the multi-agency nature of the program.

42
43 The planning efforts for different aspects of ocean carbon research have progressed at
44 different rates, as illustrated by the maturity (and funded projects) for some of the
45 observational components (Repeat Hydrography; VOS pCO₂ survey) relative to other

1 elements described above. A key next step will be to refine the specific planning for the
2 implementation of the coastal observing network (in conjunction with the NACP) and the
3 North Atlantic and North Pacific process studies.

4
5 During the phase I period of CCSP-Oceans (2005-2009), a variety of other national
6 and international oceanographic programs will carry out relevant studies in the North
7 Atlantic, North Pacific and Southern Ocean. The CCSP-Oceans should maintain ties
8 with these programs (e.g., CLIVAR, RIOMAR) to ensure that the program capitalizes on
9 potential leverage opportunities in planning CCSP-Oceans field efforts. For example, the
10 Southern Ocean CLIVAR subcommittee has recommended a program in the Southern
11 Ocean to better constrain momentum, heat, moisture and gas transfer rates in regions of
12 very high wind speed. At the time of this writing, at least two proposals to study marine
13 ecosystems and the ocean carbon cycle are being prepared for submission to the
14 European Framework 6. One of those proposals focuses specifically on the Southern
15 Ocean whereas another is global in extent, but with a clear interest in the Southern
16 Ocean. Although it is too early to say if either of these programs will be funded, CCSP-
17 Oceans must take account of those efforts in designing any future US program to study
18 the carbon cycle in the Southern Ocean.

19 20 **Recommendations**

- 21 • An open ocean carbon cycle science workshop should be held in the Fall/Winter of
22 2003/2004 to: bring together currently funded PIs from the repeat hydrography, VOS
23 pCO₂, and HOT and BATS time-series; build broad community support for the
24 proposed CCSP-Oceans program; refine the program elements, specific
25 recommendations and cost estimate; and develop more comprehensive plans for the
26 individual process study components.
- 27
28 • The CCSP-Oceans interim implementation committee should be transitioned into a
29 more formal scientific steering committee with oversight of the ocean carbon
30 components of the CCSP. The committee should include representation from both
31 active CCSP-Oceans PIs and the scientists from broader research community and
32 should report to the CCSP Scientific Steering Group and Interagency Working Group.
- 33
34 • Centralized planning and data management offices should be established for the
35 CCSP-Oceans program to coordinate and facilitate community activities.
- 36

37 **10 Scientific Products and Payoffs**

38 Anticipated scientific products and payoffs from CCSP-Oceans are summarized in
39 Table 6 along with a list of program elements that would contribute to each product. As
40 shown in the table, each of the major products and payoffs of CCSP-Oceans are
41 achievable only by combining results from two or more implementation elements. The
42 specific recommendations and rough cost estimates for Phase-1 of the CCSP-Oceans
43 program are summarized in Table 7.

Table 6 CCSP-Oceans: Products, Payoffs, and Program Elements

<i>-Temporal evolution and lateral transport of ocean natural and anthropogenic CO₂, nutrients, oxygen, DOM, and trace metals (e.g., constrain basin-scale decadal changes of anthropogenic carbon inventory to +/- 20%)</i>	
Repeat hydrography surveys	(section 5.1)
Open-ocean time-series	(section 5.3)
Numerical Modeling	(section 8)
<i>-Air-sea CO₂ flux basin-scale to global patterns, seasonal to inter-annual variability, and climate sensitivity (e.g., constrain North Atlantic and North Pacific fluxes to +/-0.2 Pg C/y)</i>	
VOS pCO ₂ surveys	(section 5.2)
Open-ocean time-series	(section 5.3)
Remote sensing	(section 5.5)
Gas exchange process studies	(section 6.3)
Data assimilation and hindcast modeling	(section 8)
<i>-Seasonal to interannual variability and secular trends for upper ocean carbon cycling, ecosystem structure, primary and export production, and subsurface carbon dynamics.</i>	
Open-ocean time-series	(section 5.3)
Remote sensing	(section 5.5)
Upper water column process studies	(section 6.1)
Mesopelagic process studies	(section 6.2)
Data assimilation and hindcast modeling	(section 8)
<i>-North American coastal ocean and continental margin air-sea CO₂ fluxes, land-ocean and coastal open ocean carbon exchange, and biogeochemical cycling</i>	
VOS pCO ₂ surveys	(section 5.2)
North American coastal observing network	(section 5.4)
Continental margin process studies	(section 6.3)
Gas exchange process studies	(section 6.4)
<i>-Physical, chemical, and biological controls on present and future marine ecosystems and ocean carbon cycle including biogeochemical responses to and feedbacks on climate change</i>	
Upper water column process studies	(section 6.1)
Mesopelagic process studies	(section 6.2)
Continental margin biogeochemistry	(section 6.3)
Numerical modeling	(section 8)
<i>-New suite of tested in situ, remote sensing and numerical tools for observing and studying the ocean carbon system</i>	
Remote sensing	(section 5.5)
Air-sea gas exchange	(section 6.3)
Numerical modeling	(section 8)
Sensor and platform development	(section 9.1)
<i>-Communication of research findings and decision support tools to stakeholders (scientific community, policy makers, resource managers, students, general public)</i>	
Data management	(section 9.2)
International coordination and linkage	(section 9.3)
Workshops and education outreach	(section 9.4)
Scientific oversight and management	(section 9.5)

**Table 7 Specific Recommendations and Cost Estimates for
CCSP-Oceans Phase-1 (2005-2009)**

<i>Repeat Hydrography (section 5.1)</i>	[\$3.5-4 M/yr]
base program [funded NSF/NOAA; 2003-2008]	
collection and post-cruise analysis of other species (e.g. ¹⁴ C)	\$2.0 M/yr
<i>VOS pCO₂ Survey (section 5.2)</i>	[\$1-2 M/yr]
base program [funded NOAA; 2003-2005]	
additional VOS lines, sampling & underway pCO ₂ on UNOLS vessels	\$1.3 M/yr
<i>Open-ocean time-series (Section 5.3)</i>	\$3.0 M/yr
continuation/augmentation of BATS, HOT, and EqPac carbon measurements at North Pacific and Atlantic sites	
<i>North American coastal observing network (section 5.4)</i>	\$3-4 M/yr
coastal mooring and CO ₂ flux sites	
ship-based transects	
coastal remote sensing algorithms development/validation	
<i>Remote sensing (section 5.5)</i>	\$3-4 M/yr
ocean color and new bioptical products development and validation	
evaluation of techniques for seasonal air-sea CO ₂ flux	
synthesis and analysis of remote sensing data	
<i>Upper-water column (section 6.1) and Mesopelagic (section 6.2)</i>	\$6-9 M/yr
targeted field and laboratory programs	
time-series continuation and augmentation	
development/testing of new biogeochemical/ecosystem techniques	
<i>Continental margin biogeochemistry (section 6.3)</i>	\$2-3 M/yr
intensive process field programs at coastal mooring sites	
coastal/open ocean transport studies	
land-margin-open ocean integration	
<i>Air-Sea gas exchange (section 6.4)</i>	\$2-3 M/yr
gas exchange process studies	
long-term CO ₂ flux observations	
remote sensing algorithm development	
<i>Southern Ocean synthesis and pilot studies (section 7)</i>	\$2-3 M/yr
historical data synthesis	
underway pCO ₂ and moored O ₂	
model development and intercomparison	
<i>Synthesis and numerical modeling (section 8)</i>	\$3-4 M/yr
carbon data centers (w/ data management)	
network design studies	
regional and global ocean biogeochemical models	
reconciliation of ocean and atmosphere CO ₂ flux estimates	
hindcast simulations (1950s to present)	
pilot data assimilation studies	
prognostic ocean carbon and carbon-climate projections	
model tools for assessments and ocean carbon management	

1

**Table 7 Specific Recommendations and Cost Estimates for
CCSP-Oceans Phase-1 (2005-2009) (cont.)**

<i>Sensor and platform development (section 9.1)</i>	\$3-4 M/yr
<i>in situ</i> carbon system sensors	
integration with autonomous platforms	
reference standards	
<i>Data Management (section 9.2)</i>	\$1-1.5 M/yr
data processing and quality control	
distribution and archival	
data Integration at International level	
<i>International coordination and linkages (section 9.3)</i>	\$0.25 M/y
<i>Workshops and educations outreach (section 9.4)</i>	\$0.5 M/yr
<i>Management framework (section 9.5)</i>	\$0.5 M/yr
planning office and steering committee	

Note: budget estimates provided for existing and phase 1 (2005-2009) elements of the CCSP-oceans program. Ongoing and recently funded elements of the program are marked accordingly in brackets [\$ M/yr].

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4 **12 Acronyms and Glossary**

5		
6	Aquarius	NASA ocean salinity mission selected for further development in 2002
7		under the Earth System Science Pathfinder (ESSP) program
8	AVHRR	Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (NOAA)
9	GLI	Global Imager (Japan.ADEOS-II)
10	MERIS	Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (Europe, Envisat)
11	MODIS	Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (US, Terra & Aqua)
12	NPOESS	National Polar-orbiting Operational Environmental Satellite System
13	NPP	NPOESS Preparatory Project
14	SeaWiFS	Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-View Sensor (NASA & ORBIMAGE)
15	SeaWinds	Scatterometer on ADEOS-II
16	POLDER	Polarization & Directionality of the Earth's Reflectance (France,
17		ADEOS-II)
18	QuikScat	Scatterometer mission (US)
19	VIIRS	Visible and Infrared Imaging Suite (US, NPP and NPOESS)
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