5.5. ATMOSPHERIC OXYGEN CONCENTRATIONS AT ALERT STATION IN RELATION TO THE GLOBAL CARBON CYCLE

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With the development of the interferometric oxygen analyzer [Keeling, 1988a, 1988b] in the late 1980's, it became possible to measure atmospheric O2 concentrations with sufficient precision to detect changes in the background atmosphere. At that time, a flask air-sampling program was initiated under the direction of one of us (R.K.) to sample air globally and document spatial and temporal trends in O2 concentration. Among the primary goals was to use measurements of atmospheric O2 in conjunction with measurements of atmospheric CO2 to better determine the magnitude of ocean and land biotic sinks for CO2 at the global and hemispheric scales and to improve our understanding of the rates of biological productivity in the oceans [Keeling and Shertz, 1992; Keeling et al., 1993, Bender et al., 1996].

Alert station was selected as the first remote baseline site in that program, and a cooperative program was initiated with Atmospheric Environment Service of Environment Canada to collect flask air samples at regular bi-weekly intervals and to ship the samples to the O2 analysis laboratory (then at the National Center for Atmospheric Research, in Boulder, Colorado but which moved to Scripps in Jan., 1993) for analysis of O2 and CO2 concentrations. Air sampling procedures used at Alert and the laboratory analysis procedures for O2 and CO2 have been described previously in Keeling (1988a) and Keeling et al. (1998). The Alert collaborative program has continued up to the present, and the O2 record from this site is now more than seven years in length. The Alert data, shown in Figure 1, reveal a pronounced seasonal cycle superimposed on an irregular interannual decrease. These features, as well as differences between Alert and other stations, have been discussed in four publications [Keeling and Shertz, 1992, Keeling et al., 1996; Keeling et al., 1998; Stephens et al., 1998], as described further below.

As background, the geochemistry of atmospheric O2 is closely tied to that of CO2 through chemical reactions that create or destroy organic carbon, respiration. photosynthesis, as such combustion. Typical O2:C ratios vary between 1.0 and 1.2 for photosynthesis and respiration of land biota [Severinghaus, 1995], ~1.1 to 1.2 for coal combustion, 1.4 to 1.5 for liquid fuels, and 1.9 to 2.0 for natural gas combustion [Keeling, 1988b]. If only these processes were operating, atmospheric CO2 increases would always be coupled with O2 decreases and vice versa. Complicating this simple coupling are exchanges of O2 and CO2 with the oceans. Dissolved O2 and CO2 are both influenced by temperature-induced solubility changes in seawater and by marine photosynthesis and respiration, which typically occurs with an O2:C ratio of ~1.4.

Dissolved CO₂ is additionally influenced by inorganic chemical reactions involving carbonate and bicarbonate ions and involving the precipitation and dissolution of calcium carbonate. These inorganic reactions cause the oceans to have an unusually large storage capacity and an unusually slow equilibration time with the atmosphere for CO₂ as compared with other gases such as O₂ [Keeling and Shertz, 1992; Keeling et al., 1993].

Atmospheric O₂ measurements can improve our ability to determine the magnitude of land biotic sinks for CO₂ largely as a consequence of the very different capacities of the oceans for storing O₂ and CO₂. Globally, fossil fuel burning adds CO₂ to the atmosphere and removes O₂ from the atmosphere at relatively well known rates. Superimposed on the global atmospheric CO₂ increase are changes caused by CO₂ exchanges with land biota and the oceans. The oceans take up excess CO₂ largely by inorganic reactions in seawater, which have no influence on O₂. An estimate of the influence of land biota on atmospheric O₂ can thus be derived from the

residual year-to-year change in atmospheric O2 not accounted for by fossil-fuel combustion. This effectively determines the net land biotic effect on CO₂ because of the close O₂:C coupling in land biotic exchanges, and also determines the net oceanic effect on CO2 from the residual changes in atmospheric CO₂ content that are not accounted for by fossil-fuel burning or land biota. One complication with this method, however, is the possibility that O2 may be exchanged with the oceans on interannual time scales by processes unrelated to inorganic reactions, such as changes subsurface O2 concentrations caused by variations in ocean mixing [Bender et al., 1996; Keeling et al., 1993, 1996]. Interannual air-sea O2 exchanges must be independently determined in order to use the O2 budget to provide rigorous estimates of land and ocean carbon fluxes.

Atmospheric O₂ provides a new window for studying marine photosynthesis, respiration, and

vertical watermass exchanges largely as a result of the rapid equilibration rate of O2 between the upper ocean and the atmosphere. The seasonal spring and summer growth of phytoplankton in surface waters produces O2 which is largely degassed into the overlying air. Comparable amounts of O2 are removed from the air in the fall and winter when phytoplankton growth rates are slower and when O2-depleted deeper waters are mixed to the surface. These O2 exchanges are closely linked to the rates at which organic carbon is produced and exported seasonally from surface waters into the ocean interior. The plankton growth/mixing cycle also produces changes in dissolved CO2 in the water, but the buffering effect of the inorganic carbon reactions effectively suppresses the air-sea gas exchange of CO2 on seasonal and shorter time scales [Keeling and Shertz, 1992; Keeling et al., 1993].

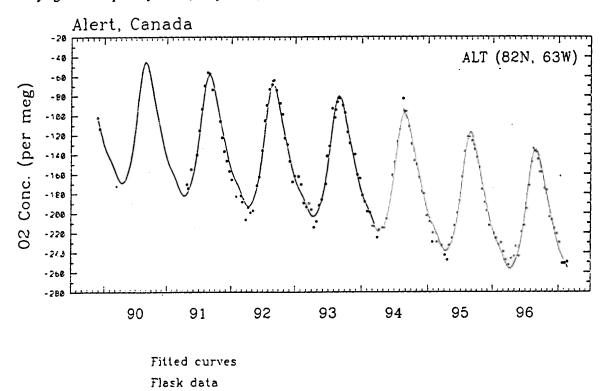


Figure 1. Time series from 1989 to 1997 of atmospheric oxygen concentration measured in flask samples collected at Alert Station. Points are averages of flask replicates collected on a given date. The curve is a least-squares fit consisting of a four-harmonic fit to the seasonal cycle plus a stiff spline fit to the interannual trend. Note that small interannual variations in the shape and amplitude of the seasonal cycle are not captured by the fit. Concentrations are expressed as changes in the O₂/N₂ ratio, such that a change of 1 per meg is defined to equal a change of 10⁻⁶ in the normalized ratio (O₂/N₂)_{sample}/(O₂/N₂)_{reference} (see also Keeling et al., 1998). In these units, adding 1 mole of O₂ to a mole of dry air would induce a change of +4.8 per meg.

The first full year of the Alert O2 record was presented in Keeling and Shertz [1992], where the data were used along with data from La Jolla, California and Cape Grim, Tasmania, to derive global estimates of the rates of photosynthetic organic carbon production in surface oceans based on the amplitude of the seasonal O2 cycles. These cycles are caused partly by exchanges with land biota, and partly by O2 exchanges with the oceans. The land biotic contribution can be estimated from concurrent observations of the seasonal CO2 cycle, which is predominately caused by land biotic exchanges due to the slow exchange with the oceans, and which therefore can be related to the land biotic component of the O2 cycle based on the known O2:C exchange ratio with land biota. At Alert, for example, about half of the O2 cycle is caused by land biota, and the other half of the cycle is caused by oceanic exchanges. Of this oceanic component, about 15% is caused by thermal degassing and ingassing of O2 and N2 due to solubility changes, and the remainder is caused by the oceanic cycle of biological production and vertical mixing. Keeling and Shertz concluded that the non-thermal oceanic component to the cycle required that global organic carbon production (i.e., "new" production) in the oceans must be around 19 Pg C/yr, which was considerably higher than most earlier estimates.

Four years (1991-1994) of the concurrent O2 and CO2 records from Alert were presented in Keeling et al., [1996] along with results from La Jolla and Cape Grim. These data were used to estimate global interannual O2 and CO2 trends and to resolve gradients in annually averaged O2 and CO2 concentrations between the northern and southern hemispheres. The interannual trends showed that, from 1991 through 1994, the oceans and land biota each removed from the air an amount of CO2 comparable to roughly 30% of fossil-fuel emission. The gradients provided evidence that the land biotic CO2 uptake was concentrated in the northern middle or high latitudes, as opposed to the tropics. The Alert data was critical for this analysis by defining trends in the northern hemisphere and the differences in average concentration from the Southern Hemisphere.

The interpretation of the combined O₂ and CO₂ gradients was explored in more detail in *Stephens et al.* [1998], where more than six years of Alert data were combined with records from eight additional stations. The emphasis in this study was on the average differences in concentration between stations along a north-south transect and

their relation to exchanges of O2 and CO2 with the oceans. The O2 and CO2 data were combined to derive a novel tracer, "potential oxygen", which is effectively equal to the sum of O2 and CO2 and which is in principle is not changed by photosynthesis and respiration of land biota. The observations show a large deficit in potential oxygen in the northern hemisphere relative to the southern hemisphere, with Alert station showing the lowest concentrations globally. The observed north-south gradients in annual-average potential oxygen were compared with model simulations incorporating O2 and CO2 fluxes across the air-sea interface derived from three different ocean carbon cycle models and incorporating O2 and CO2 fluxes from fossil fuel burning. These fluxes were imposed at the surface of an atmospheric transport model to produce simulated atmospheric concentration fields. A striking result of this study was that the model simulations failed to account for the full magnitude of the northern deficit in potential oxygen. Stephens et al argued that a likely cause for at least part of the discrepancy is difficulties in the ocean models' representation of large-scale water-mass transports, particularly as they relate to meridional heat transports. Evidently all three ocean models tested may share similar deficiencies. The inability of the simulations to potential oxygen the low for account concentrations at Alert, for example, may imply that the ocean models underestimate the transport of heat to high northern latitudes.

Finally, another application for O2 measurements, involving placing constraints on the kinetics of airsea gas exchange, was explored in Keeling et al., [1998]. Here, the oceanic components of the seasonal cycles in O2 were examined at nine stations, including Alert. The observed cycles were compared with model simulations using an atmospheric tracer transport model with seasonal air-sea O2 fluxes derived from a climatology of O2 saturation anomalies in the oceans [Najjar and Keeling, 1997] and N2 fluxes computed indirectly from the net air-sea heat flux. Effectively, the only free parameter in the model is the air-sea gas exchange velocity, which relates the saturation anomaly to the air-sea flux. This parameter is tightly constrained by the ocean and atmospheric observations. The results showed that the constraint on large-scale average gas exchange velocity required by the seasonal cycles in O2 agrees well with the constraints on gas exchange velocity derived some years ago based on mass balance of radiocarbon in the oceans [Broecker and Peng, 1974; Broecker et al., 1985, 1986).

Such constraints are important because they suggest the appropriate transfer velocities for computing large-scale air-sea fluxes, such as uptake of anthropogenic CO₂ by the oceans or sources of other trace gases by the oceans.

In summary, the O2 data from Alert have played an important role in improving our understanding of several aspects of the global carbon cycle, including constraining rates of uptake of CO2 by land biota and the oceans, and constraining the natural processes affecting carbon cycling in the oceans, including rates of photosynthesis, rates of gas exchange, and rates of watermass exchange. The Alert O2 record is the longest from a clean baseline site in the northern hemisphere, and the length of this time series makes the record pivotal for documenting long-term trends in O2 globally. Relative to stations further south, Alert is also a key station for constraining O2 and CO2 exchanges throughout the northern high latitudes because of its strategic location for sampling arctic air masses free of local influences.

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