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# Sensitivity of simulated global ocean carbon flux estimates to forcing

<sup>4</sup> by reanalysis products

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# ABSTRACT

Reanalysis products from MERRA, NCEP2, NCEP1, and ECMWF were used to force an established ocean biogeochemical model to estimate air-sea carbon fluxes (FCO<sub>2</sub>) and partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO<sub>2</sub>) in the global oceans. Global air-sea carbon fluxes and pCO<sub>2</sub> were relatively insensitive to the choice of forcing reanalysis. All global FCO<sub>2</sub> estimates from the model forced by the four different reanalyses were within 20% of in situ estimates (MERRA and NCEP1 were within 7%), and all models exhibited statistically significant positive correlations with in situ estimates across the 12 major oceanographic basins. Global pCO<sub>2</sub> estimates were, however, substantial departures among basin estimates from the different reanalysis forcings. The high latitudes and tropics had the largest ranges in estimated fluxes among the reanalyses. Regional pCO<sub>2</sub> differences among the reanalysis forcings were muted relative to the FCO<sub>2</sub> results. No individual reanalysis was uniformly better or worse in the major oceanographic basins. The results provide information on the characterization of uncertainty in ocean carbon models due to choice of reanalysis forcings.

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# 45 1. Introduction

The oceans play a critical role in the global carbon cycle. More 46 than 90% of the active non-geological carbon pool resides in the 47 oceans (Kaufman et al., 1998). Estimates of global primary produc-48 49 tion suggest that the oceans contribute about half (Field et al., 50 1998). One quarter (Le Quéré et al., 2010) of the carbon emitted 51 by anthropogenic sources is thought to be sequestered in the oceans, annually. Understanding the role of the ocean in the global 52 carbon cycle is a driving question in modern Earth science. It 53 54 requires foremost a geographically-distributed, well-maintained observational capability. We are fortunate that such a capability 55 exists or is in development, and that global data sets of ocean car-56 bon inventories (Key et al., 2004), partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> 57 58 (Takahashi et al., 2006, 2009) and ocean-atmospheric exchange 59 (Takahashi et al., 2006, 2009) are publicly available.

Global ocean carbon models require external information to drive the ocean circulation dynamics that determine the distributions, abundances, and atmospheric exchange of carbon.

Q3 \* Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 301 614 5711; fax: +1 301 614 5644. *E-mail addresses:* watson.gregg@nasa.gov (W.W. Gregg), nancy.casey@ssaihq. com (N.W. Casey), cecile.s.rousseaux@nasa.gov (C.S. Rousseaux). Additionally, biological and chemical constituents that play important roles in the ocean carbon cycle are affected by ocean circulation. These forcing fields can be from a coupled atmosphere model or from atmospheric and ocean data. In the latter case, the data typically come from publicly available reanalysis products (e.g., Le Quéré et al., 2010; Gorgues et al., 2010; Doney et al., 2009). It is clear that different ocean models produce different estimates of air-sea fluxes (Khatiwala et al., 2013), but less effort has been given to the influences of different reanalysis products. These differences in reanalysis products and their potential effects on simulated ocean carbon distributions and trends have been cause for concern by ocean modelers (Le Quéré et al., 2010).

Here we intercompare model air-sea flux estimates and partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO<sub>2</sub>) from a model forced by four reanalysis products. These include The Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA; Rienecker et al., 2011), two from the National Center for Environmental Prediction (NCEP): NCEP2 (Kanamitsu et al., 2002) and NCEP1 (Kalnay et al., 1996), and one from the European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF; Dee et al., 2011). This study provides an opportunity to evaluate how the differences in reanalysis products propagate through the same ocean biogeochemical model to affect representations of carbon fluxes and pCO<sub>2</sub>.

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$$TA = TA S/S$$

86 This effort is potentially important not only to ocean carbon 87 modelers, but also for reanalysis developers and analysts, satellite 88 mission conceptual designers, and atmospheric scientists as well. 89 The objective of this study is to provide quantitative information on the spatial distributions of air-sea carbon fluxes and ocean 90 91 pCO<sub>2</sub> globally, regionally, and sub-regionally in a model forced by the four state-of-the-art, widely used reanalysis products listed 92 93 above. Such information can guide scientists and analysts in their selection, uses, and potential pitfalls of different reanalysis prod-94 95 ucts in the context of ocean carbon models.

## 96 2. Material and methods

#### 97 2.1. Global three-dimensional circulation model

Global ocean carbon dynamics are simulated by the NASA Ocean 98 Biogeochemical Model (NOBM; Fig. 1). It is a three-dimensional 99 representation of coupled circulation/biogeochemical/radiative 100 101 processes in the global oceans (Gregg et al., 2003; Gregg and 102 Casey, 2007). It spans the domain from 84°S to 72°N latitude in increments of 1.25° longitude by 2/3° latitude, including only open 103 ocean areas, where bottom depth > 200 m. The circulation model is 104 105 quasi-isopycnal, with 14 vertical layers, driven by the forcing fields 106 shown in Fig. 1 (Schopf and Loughe, 1995). It relaxes to sea surface 107 temperature obtained from MERRA and surface salinity obtained 108 from the National Oceanographic Data Center (NODC, Conkright 109 et al., 2002). The biogeochemical processes model contains 4 phyto-110 plankton groups, 4 nutrient groups, a single herbivore group, and 3 detrital pools. The phytoplankton groups differ in maximum 111 growth rates, sinking rates, nutrient requirements, and optical 112 113 properties. The 4 nutrients are nitrate, regenerated ammonium, sil-114 ica to regulate diatom growth, and iron. Three detrital pools provide 115 storage of organic material, sinking, and eventual remineralization.

116 Carbon cycling involves dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and 117 dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC; Fig. 2). DOC has sources from phy-118 toplankton, herbivores, and carbon detritus, and a sink to DIC. DIC 119 has sources from phytoplankton, herbivores, carbon detritus, and 120 DOC, and is allowed to exchange with the atmosphere, which can be either a source or sink. The ecosystem sink for DIC is phyto-121 plankton, through photosynthesis. This represents the biological 122 123 pump portion of the carbon dynamics. The solubility pump portion is represented by the interactions among temperature, alkalinity 124 125 (parameterized as a function of salinity), silica, and phosphate (parameterized as a function of nitrate). The alkalinity/salinity 126 parameterization utilizes the spatial variability of salinity in the 127 model adjusted to mean alkalinity 128

where TA is total alkalinity and S is salinity. The underscore represents global mean values. TA is specified as 2310  $\mu$ E kg<sup>-1</sup> (Ocean Model Intercomparison Project (OCMIP; www.ipsl.jussieu.fr/ OCMIP) and S as 34.8 PSU (global model mean). Since the model contains nitrate but not phosphate, we estimate phosphate by multiplying nitrate by 0.1. This is derived from the global mean ratio of nitrate to phosphate from NODC for their top three standard levels. The calculations for the solubility pump follow the standards set by the Ocean Model Intercomparison Project (reference above). We recognize that this approximation for alkalinity is not optimal, but the surface results compare favorably with data (see Gregg et al., 2013). The difference between the model and GLODAP global surface alkalinity is 2.7  $\mu Eq\,l^{-1}$  (=0.1%) with basin correlation of 0.95 (P < 0.05) (Gregg et al., 2013). We consider this sufficient for the present purpose of intercomparing model results from forcing by different reanalysis products.

We employ a locally-developed lookup table valid over modern ranges of DIC, salinity, temperature, and nutrients for computational efficiency, at little cost to accuracy. Air–sea CO<sub>2</sub> exchange as a function of wind uses the Wanninkhof (1992) formulation, as is common in global and regional ocean carbon models (e.g., McKinley et al., 2006). A more complete description of NOBM can be found in Gregg et al. (2013).

NOBM is spun-up for 200 years under climatological forcing 155 from each reanalysis. Initial conditions for DIC are derived from 156 the Global Data Analysis Project (GLODAP; Key et al., 2004). DOC 157 initial conditions are set to 0 µM. Subsequent tests with non-zero 158 DOC initial conditions showed negligible differences. Other initial 159 conditions are described in Gregg and Casey (2007). For MERRA 160 forcing, the first ten years of the run show a net pCO<sub>2</sub> difference 161  $\Delta pCO_2$  (year 10-year 1) of -0.982 µatm, at the first hundred years 162 the 10-year  $\Delta pCO_2$  (year 100-year 91) is 0.413 µatm, and at 163 200 years, the 10-year  $\Delta pCO_2$  (year 200-year 191) is 0.102 µatm 164 (Fig. 3). This 200-year model spinup may not be sufficient for full 165 adjustment of all variables at all depths, but appears satisfactory 166 for surface  $pCO_2$  and nutrients, which is the focus of this effort. 167 The results from the last year (year 200 of each reanalysis spinup) 168 are compared with in situ data and with one another. 169

# 2.2. Data sets 170

#### 2.2.1. Forcing data

Forcing data variables are shown in Fig. 1. Monthly climatologies are used in all cases. All are obtained from reanalysis products except soil dust (iron), ozone, clouds, and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Iron is

### NASA Ocean Biogeochemical Model (NOBM)

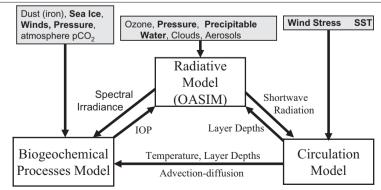


Fig. 1. Interactions among the main components of NOBM, nominal outputs, and forcing fields. IOP indicates inherent optical properties. Forcing variables are shown in the gray boxes. Reanalysis forcing variables are in bold. Surface pressure and precipitable water effects on surface irradiance play a small role in the inorganic carbon results and are ignored in this effort.

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