

Carbon dioxide in European coastal waters

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1 **Abstract**

2 We compiled from literature annually integrated air-water fluxes of carbon
3 dioxide (CO₂) computed from field measurements, in 20 coastal European
4 environments that were gathered into 3 main ecosystems: inner estuaries, upwelling
5 continental shelves and non-upwelling continental shelves. The comparison of annual
6 cycles of the partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂) in 5 contrasting continental shelves
7 provided insights into the biogeochemical drivers of the CO₂ fluxes. The latter were
8 also investigated by comparing CO₂ fluxes to net ecosystem (NEP) and net
9 community production (NCP) in 3 contrasted coastal ecosystems. Air-water CO₂
10 fluxes were scaled at European regional level and compared to fluxes of atmospheric
11 CO₂ in other aquatic and terrestrial compartments. Continental shelves are significant
12 sinks for atmospheric CO₂ at an average rate of $-1.9 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ that scaled at
13 European level corresponds to an absorption of atmospheric CO₂ of $-68.1 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1}$.
14 This sink is equivalent to the one reported for the terrestrial biosphere of -66.1 TgC
15 yr^{-1} , based on carbon-stock change models. Estuaries are significant sources of CO₂ to
16 the atmosphere at an average rate of $49.9 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ that is higher than the CO₂
17 emission to the atmosphere from rivers, streams and lakes. The scaled emission of
18 CO₂ to the atmosphere from inner estuaries of about 67.0 TgC yr^{-1} would almost fully
19 balance the sink of atmospheric CO₂ computed for continental shelves. However, the
20 scaled emission of CO₂ from estuaries to the atmosphere is inconsistent with the
21 potential emission of CO₂ based on the fate of river organic carbon during estuarine
22 transit. This discrepancy is most probably due to the poorly constrained surface area
23 estimate of inner estuaries.

24

25 **1. Introduction**

26

27 Air-water fluxes of carbon dioxide (CO₂) in coastal environments are usually
28 neglected in global carbon budgets because the coastal ocean only covers about 7% of
29 the oceanic realm (e.g. Gattuso et al., 1998; Wollast, 1998). However, due to intense
30 inputs of nutrients and carbon from land through rivers, and from the open ocean at
31 continental margins, the coastal ocean is one of the most biogeochemically active
32 regions of the biosphere. Inputs, production, degradation and export of organic matter
33 in the coastal ocean are several times higher than in the open ocean (e.g. Wollast,
34 1998). Consequently, it can be expected that the CO₂ fluxes between the atmosphere

35 and coastal environments would be disproportionately more intense than their relative
36 surface area, and significant for global carbon budgets.

37 The work of Tsunogai et al. (1999) put under the spotlight the CO₂ exchanges
38 between the atmosphere and the coastal ocean, as these authors computed a sink of
39 atmospheric CO₂ of -1.0 PgC yr⁻¹ by scaling globally the air-sea CO₂ fluxes from East
40 China Sea. Such a sink is comparable to the open ocean sink of atmospheric CO₂
41 estimated to -1.6 PgC yr⁻¹ (Takahashi et al., 2002; Takahashi, 2003). More recent
42 estimates of the global CO₂ sink over marginal seas based on scaled CO₂ fluxes
43 computed from field measurements of the partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂) or from
44 carbon mass balances range between -0.2 and -0.4 PgC yr⁻¹ (Fig. 1), nevertheless still
45 significant for the global CO₂ budget.

46 The coastal ocean is not solely composed of marginal seas and most near-
47 shore coastal environments, such as estuaries, act as sources of CO₂ to the atmosphere
48 (e.g. Frankignoulle et al., 1998; Abril and Borges, 2004) due to the degradation of
49 riverine organic carbon (e.g.; Gattuso et al., 1998; Abril et al. 2002 ; Hopkinson and
50 Smith, 2005). If the CO₂ emission of near-shore ecosystems is scaled globally then it
51 could almost fully balance the sink of CO₂ over marginal seas (Borges, 2005; Borges
52 et al., 2005). Although the scaling of CO₂ fluxes in the coastal ocean is at present time
53 prone to large uncertainties due to the scarcity of data and the unreliability of surface
54 area estimates of some if not all near-shore ecosystems, a more or less balanced
55 exchange of CO₂ between the atmosphere and the overall coastal ocean is consistent
56 with the output of the Shallow-water Ocean Carbonate Model (SOCM; Fig. 1).
57 SOCM simulates a decrease of the CO₂ emission from the coastal ocean to the
58 atmosphere since pre-industrial times and a neutral flux at present time (Andersson
59 and Mackenzie, 2004; Mackenzie et al., 2004; 2005). This evolution is due to the rise
60 of atmospheric CO₂ and the increase of net ecosystem production (NEP) related to the
61 anthropogenic inputs of nutrients. Long term monitoring (e.g. Radach et al., 1990),
62 and satellite imagery (Gregg et al., 2005) show an increase in coastal waters of
63 phytoplankton biomass (chlorophyll-a), in agreement with the increase of NEP
64 predicted by SOCM. SOCM predicts that during the next 100 yrs the coastal ocean
65 will act as a sink for atmospheric CO₂, due to the continued rise of atmospheric CO₂
66 and the increase of NEP, and to a much lesser extent to the decrease of calcium
67 carbonate (CaCO₃) production and increase of CaCO₃ diagenetic dissolution
68 (Andersson and Mackenzie, 2004; Mackenzie et al., 2004; 2005).

69 In the present paper, we discuss the biogeochemical controls of air-water CO₂
70 fluxes in European coastal environments. We also attempt a provisional scaling of
71 these fluxes that are compared to the fluxes of atmospheric CO₂ in other aquatic and
72 terrestrial compartments at European scale.

73

74 **2. Results and discussion**

75

76 2.1 Biogeochemical drivers of CO₂ dynamics

77

78 Annually integrated air-water CO₂ fluxes computed from pCO₂ field
79 measurements were compiled from literature (Table 1; Fig. 2). Data in 20 coastal
80 environments were gathered into 3 main ecosystems: inner estuaries, upwelling
81 continental shelves and non-upwelling continental shelves. Inner estuaries are
82 characterized by pCO₂ values well above atmospheric equilibrium and all the sites
83 listed in Table 1 act as sources of CO₂ to the atmosphere. Upwelling and non-
84 upwelling continental shelves act as moderate to strong sinks of atmospheric CO₂.

85

86 *2.1.1. Comparison of the pCO₂ seasonal cycle in five temperate continental shelves*

87

88 The seasonal cycle of surface water temperature, pCO₂, and pCO₂ normalized
89 to a constant temperature of 15°C (pCO₂@15°C) in 5 temperate European continental
90 shelves are compared in Figure 3. All the sites show a springtime decrease of pCO₂
91 except the Bay of Angels in the Mediterranean Sea, where the distinct increase of
92 pCO₂ from early April to mid-August follows the one of temperature. On the contrary,
93 during that period pCO₂@15°C shows a slight decrease probably due to a
94 combination of biological uptake of CO₂ and emission of CO₂ to the atmosphere.
95 Hence, the seasonal cycle of pCO₂ in the oligotrophic Mediterranean continental shelf
96 (refer to wintertime nitrate (NO₃⁻) concentrations in Table 2) is largely controlled by
97 temperature change unlike the other meso- and eutrophic continental shelves of Figure
98 3.

99

100 The Gulf of Biscay and the English Channel are characterized by a springtime
101 decrease of pCO₂ and pCO₂@15°C similar in timing and amplitude. During summer,
102 pCO₂@15°C remains relatively constant in both areas suggesting that regenerated
primary production maintains during this period the low pCO₂@15°C values attained

103 during the spring bloom (note however that $p\text{CO}_2$ increases with temperature).
104 However, in late summer and early fall, $p\text{CO}_2@15^\circ\text{C}$ further decreases in the Gulf of
105 Biscay while it increases in the English Channel. This can be related to an early fall
106 phytoplankton bloom in the Gulf of Biscay related to the input of nutrients as the
107 water column starts to de-stratify (Joint et al., 2001). In the English Channel, the
108 increase of $p\text{CO}_2@15^\circ\text{C}$ probably results from heterotrophic processes related to the
109 degradation of the organic matter accumulated during the earlier part of the seasonal
110 cycle. Unfavorable light conditions to maintain regenerated primary production are
111 probably responsible for the onset in the English Channel of this marked period of net
112 heterotrophy in fall. Note that the English Channel is permanently well-mixed due to
113 its shallowness while the Gulf of Biscay is characterized by a seasonal thermal
114 stratification. This confirms the hypothesis that permanently well mixed systems are
115 less efficient in exporting organic matter and in absorbing atmospheric CO_2 , than
116 seasonally or permanently stratified systems (Borges, 2005).

117 The seasonal amplitude and in particular the spring decrease of $p\text{CO}_2$ and
118 $p\text{CO}_2@15^\circ\text{C}$ in the Southern Bight of the North Sea is much larger than in the English
119 Channel and the Gulf of Biscay (Fig. 3, Table 2). This seems to be related to higher
120 nutrient availability due to river inputs. Indeed, the salinity in the Gulf of Biscay is
121 close to the baseline value of the adjacent North Atlantic waters, while it is
122 significantly lower in the Southern Bight of the North Sea, also characterized by
123 significantly higher wintertime NO_3^- concentrations (Table 2). Unlike the English
124 Channel and the Gulf of Biscay, there is in the Southern Bight of the North Sea a
125 sharp increase of $p\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{CO}_2@15^\circ\text{C}$ that follows closely the spring bloom,
126 suggesting a rapid remineralization of organic matter, followed by a steady increase of
127 $p\text{CO}_2@15^\circ\text{C}$ from mid-June to early December. This in turn suggests the absence in
128 the Southern Bight of the North Sea of a period of regenerated primary production
129 that maintains $p\text{CO}_2$ at low levels during summer in the English Channel and the Gulf
130 of Biscay. This is due to the strong top-down control of primary production by
131 mesozooplankton that prevents any significant phytoplankton development in the
132 Southern Bight of the North Sea, after the decline of the spring bloom (Lancelot et al.,
133 2005).

134 In the Gotland Sea, $p\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{CO}_2@15^\circ\text{C}$ sharply decrease from mid-March
135 to mid-May due to the spring bloom. After the exhaustion of inorganic nutrients, a
136 further decrease of $p\text{CO}_2@15^\circ\text{C}$ is observed in June and July that has been attributed

137 to “luxury production” and related dissolved organic carbon (DOC) release (Thomas
138 et al., 1999) and/or to N₂ fixation (Leinweber et al., 2005). This is consistent with an
139 annual amplitude of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in the Gotland Sea that is
140 similar to the one in the Southern Bight of the North Sea although the wintertime
141 NO₃⁻ values are two to ten times lower. Note also that the much higher seasonal
142 amplitude of pCO₂ and pCO₂@15°C in the Gotland Sea than in the other four
143 continental shelves is related to the higher Revelle factor due to lower salinity and
144 total alkalinity (Table 2).

145

146 *2.1.2. European coastal upwelling systems as sinks of atmospheric CO₂*

147

148 Although a relatively abundant literature reporting data on CO₂ dynamics in
149 coastal upwelling systems is available (see review by Borges (2005)), annually
150 integrated air-water CO₂ fluxes have been calculated in 3 other coastal upwelling
151 systems besides the Galician coast and the Gulf of Cadiz: off the Oman, California
152 and Vancouver Island coasts. The coastal upwelling systems off the Oman and
153 California coasts act as CO₂ sources to the atmosphere, while the coastal upwelling
154 systems off the Vancouver Island coast, the Galician coast and the Gulf of Cadiz act
155 as sinks for atmospheric CO₂. The two systems that act as CO₂ sources (Oman and
156 California coasts) are characterized by disproportionately higher upwelling indices
157 that lead to much higher inputs of upwelled DIC and NO₃⁻ than in the systems that act
158 as CO₂ sinks (Borges, 2005). This could be related to the fact that flushing rates are so
159 high and the nutrients and DIC inputs so intense that exhaustion of nutrients and
160 undersaturation of CO₂ do not occur over the continental shelf in high upwelling
161 index systems, although probably occurring in upwelling filaments. It has also been
162 hypothesized that coastal upwelling systems located at high- and mid-latitudes are
163 CO₂ sinks, while systems at low-latitudes are CO₂ sources (Cai and Dai, 2004).
164 However, more data in other systems are required to validate this hypothesis. It has
165 also been argued that the pCO₂ values of upwelled Eastern North Atlantic Central
166 Water off the North Western Iberian coast are lower (about 400 ppm) compared to
167 aged central waters of the South Atlantic, the Indian and the Pacific Ocean (Aristegui
168 et al., 2004).

169

170 *2.1.3. Relationship between air-water CO₂ fluxes and ecosystem metabolism*

171

172 Net autotrophic ecosystems, where gross primary production (GPP) exceeds
173 community respiration (CR) decrease CO₂ in the surrounding waters, and conversely
174 net heterotrophic systems (where GPP<CR) enrich the surrounding water in CO₂.
175 Nevertheless, in coastal environments the link between the exchange of CO₂ with the
176 atmosphere and the metabolic status of surface waters is not direct, as noted by
177 Gattuso et al. (1998) among others. Besides NEP, the net CO₂ flux between the water
178 column and the atmosphere will be further modulated by other factors such as:
179 additional biogeochemical processes (e.g. CaCO₃ precipitation/dissolution); exchange
180 of water with adjacent aquatic systems and the CO₂ content of the exchanged water
181 mass; residence time of the water mass within the system; decoupling of organic
182 carbon production and degradation across the water column related to the physical
183 settings of the system. An extreme example is the case of coral reefs, where NEP is
184 close to zero, but due to intense calcification rates these systems act as sources of CO₂
185 to the atmosphere. In certain shallow water temperate continental shelves,
186 calcification can also be a major driver of the air-water CO₂ fluxes. For instance,
187 Borges and Frankignoulle (2003) hypothesized that the English Channel is not a
188 significant sink for atmospheric CO₂ unlike adjacent systems such as the Gulf of
189 Biscay (Table 1) and the Southern Bight of the North Sea, due to the release of CO₂
190 from extensive brittle star populations that on an annual scale balance the CO₂
191 fixation by NEP.

192 In the course of the recent European project EUROTROPH (Nutrients Cycling
193 and the Trophic Status of Coastal Ecosystems), simultaneous and independent
194 measurements of metabolic process rates and air-water CO₂ exchanges were carried
195 out in 3 coastal ecosystems (Fig. 4). For some of the cruises and some of the sites, the
196 CO₂ fluxes and trophic status are in contradiction with the conceptual relationship
197 described above: during the second cruise in the Bay of Palma a positive NEP
198 (autotrophic status) is associated to a source of CO₂ while during the first Randers
199 Fjord cruise a negative NEP (heterotrophic status) is related to a sink of atmospheric
200 CO₂ (Fig. 4A). This can be related to the fact that the air-water CO₂ fluxes are driven
201 (at least partly) by the mixed layer metabolic processes, while NEP values reported in
202 Figure 4A are (by definition) integrated throughout the water column. The Randers
203 Fjord and the Bay of Palma are, respectively, permanently haline stratified and
204 seasonally thermally stratified systems. If the air-water CO₂ fluxes are compared to

205 net community production in the mixed layer (ML NCP), then there is an agreement
206 between the direction of the air-water CO₂ fluxes and the trophic status (Fig. 4B).
207 Nevertheless, there is a quantitative disagreement between the intensity of the
208 metabolic rates and the air-water CO₂ fluxes. In the case of the first Palma cruise, a
209 modest sink of atmospheric CO₂ of about -2 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ is associated to a ML
210 NCP of about 30 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹; conversely, the air-water CO₂ fluxes in the Scheldt
211 estuary are 6 to 7 times higher than the ML NCP. This is most probably related to the
212 residence time of the water mass, in the order of 5 d in the Bay of Palma, and ranging
213 between 60 and 90 d (for freshwater) in the Scheldt estuary. Hence, in the Bay of
214 Palma, the water mass is flushed rapidly and biological activity will have a small or
215 undetectable effect on pCO₂ and related air-sea CO₂ fluxes (Gazeau et al., 2005b). On
216 the contrary, in the Scheldt estuary the long residence time of the water mass will lead
217 to a significant built up of DIC in the water column, and large emissions of CO₂ to the
218 atmosphere.

219

220 *2.1.4. Contribution of the ventilation of riverine CO₂ to estuarine CO₂ emission*

221

222 The ventilation of riverine CO₂ can contribute to the emission of CO₂ from
223 inner estuaries and could explain the larger CO₂ emission rates than those expected
224 from ML NCP in the Scheldt estuary and the Randers Fjord. The ventilation of
225 riverine CO₂ has been estimated by Abril et al. (2000) to contribute to about 10% of
226 the overall CO₂ emission from the Scheldt inner estuary. Based on the approach given
227 by Abril et al. (2000), the relative contribution of the ventilation of riverine CO₂ to the
228 overall CO₂ emission was computed in several estuaries (Fig. 5). This contribution
229 decreases with the increase of the freshwater residence time. In estuaries with a long
230 freshwater residence time, the riverine CO₂ will be fully ventilated to the atmosphere
231 within the estuary and the overall CO₂ emission from the estuary will be mostly
232 related to ML NCP. In estuaries with very a short freshwater residence time, the
233 enrichment of DIC from ML NCP will be less pronounced than in estuaries with a
234 long freshwater residence time, and the contribution of the ventilation of riverine CO₂
235 will be larger. In the case of the Rhine estuary, the freshwater residence time is so
236 short that all the riverine CO₂ is not ventilated to the atmosphere in the estuarine zone,
237 and part of it is instead exported to the adjacent coastal ocean. Hence, the potential
238 contribution of the ventilation of riverine CO₂ is higher than the actual observed

239 emission from the estuary (Fig. 5). For the 11 estuaries in Figure 5, the median of the
240 potential emission from riverine CO₂ amounts to about 10%. Hence, about 90% of the
241 emission of CO₂ from these inner estuaries could be attributed to heterotrophic
242 activity.

243

244 *2.1.5. Conceptual frame of the biogeochemical controls of air-water CO₂ fluxes in* 245 *coastal environments*

246

247 Based on the above discussion and also based on the synthesis by Borges
248 (2005) of CO₂ dynamics and exchanges with the atmosphere in other coastal
249 environments (in particular at low latitudes), we propose a conceptual relationship of
250 CO₂ fluxes and ML NCP, that summarises the drivers of CO₂ fluxes in coastal
251 environments (Fig. 6). The trophic status of the mixed layer depends on the
252 combination of inputs of inorganic nutrients and of allochthonous organic carbon, and
253 is further modulated by light limitation and stratification. Low latitude continental
254 shelves act as sources of CO₂, unlike high and mid latitude continental shelves. This is
255 related to some extent to the background signal of oceanic waters that circulate over
256 continental shelves that are typically CO₂ oversaturated at low latitudes and CO₂
257 undersaturated at mid and high latitudes. The metabolic status of the continental shelf
258 will further modulate this baseline signal. While ML NCP is positive in mid latitude
259 continental shelves such as the North Sea (Thomas et al., 2005a; b) this is not the case
260 of low latitude continental shelves such as the South Atlantic Bight (Cai et al., 2003)
261 due to larger inputs of terrestrial organic carbon (Borges, 2005). Coastal upwelling
262 systems are net exporters of organic carbon (e.g. Álvarez-Salgado et al., 2001), but
263 the upwelling index will modulate the inputs of nutrients and DIC, and the residence
264 time of the water mass, and determine if the system acts as a source or a sink for
265 atmospheric CO₂. Microtidal estuaries due to their shorter freshwater residence time
266 and stratification are less heterotrophic and lower sources of CO₂ than macrotidal
267 estuaries. In the former the relative contribution of the ventilation of riverine CO₂ is
268 higher than the in the latter. Mangrove and saltmarsh surrounding waters are net
269 heterotrophic systems fuelled by the inputs of terrestrial intertidal vegetation and act
270 as sources of CO₂. Note that there is increasing evidence that the emission of CO₂
271 from the aquatic compartment of these systems is indirectly linked to diagenetic
272 organic carbon degradation, through the input of CO₂ rich porewater (Borges et al.,

273 2003; Bouillon et al., 2006). Calcification is partly responsible for the emission of
274 CO₂ from coral reefs to the atmosphere, as it leads to an increase of CO₂ in the
275 oceanic waters circulating over these systems that are typically CO₂ oversaturated.
276 Finally, purely thermodynamic effects related to water cooling or warming will
277 further modulate the exchange of CO₂ between coastal aquatic environments and the
278 atmosphere, at seasonal and annual timescales.

279

280 *2.2. Scaling of CO₂ fluxes in coastal environments and comparison at European scale* 281 *with other aquatic and terrestrial compartments*

282

283 Based on the air-water CO₂ fluxes from Table 1, the continental shelf surface
284 area estimates from Table 3, we scaled the CO₂ fluxes in European coastal
285 environments and compared them to CO₂ fluxes from other aquatic and terrestrial
286 compartments gathered from literature (Table 4). The values reported in table 4 were
287 estimated with very different degrees of confidence, in particular, the CO₂ fluxes from
288 lakes and rivers must be considered as first order estimates. The sink of atmospheric
289 CO₂ over the continental shelf of about -68 TgC yr⁻¹ is highly significant and for
290 instance comparable to the sink associated to the terrestrial vegetation of -66 TgC yr⁻¹
291 (sum of grasslands, croplands, peatlands and forests) based on a carbon-stock change
292 modelling approach (Janssens et al., 2005). However, the sink of CO₂ over continental
293 shelves could be almost fully balanced by the emission of CO₂ from inner estuaries of
294 about 67 TgC yr⁻¹. However, this value should be considered with caution and most
295 probably corresponds to an over-estimate. Indeed, assuming that during estuarine
296 transit 50% of river particulate organic carbon (POC) (Abril et al., 2002) and that 10%
297 of river DOC (Moran et al., 1999; Raymond and Bauer, 2000; Wiegner and
298 Seitzinger, 2001) are degraded, and that the produced CO₂ is emitted to the
299 atmosphere within the inner estuary, then the potential emission of CO₂ from estuaries
300 would be about 5.4 TgC yr⁻¹ at European scale based on the export fluxes of river
301 DOC and POC (Table 4, from Ludwig et al., 1996). This value is more than ten times
302 lower than the one scaled from the fluxes computed from pCO₂ field data (Table 4).
303 There is growing evidence that lateral inputs of DIC and organic carbon in estuaries
304 significantly contribute to overall CO₂ emission to the atmosphere (Cai and Wang,
305 1998; Cai et al., 1999; 2000; Neubauer and Anderson, 2003; Gazeau et al., 2005c). In
306 the Scheldt estuary, lateral inputs of freshwater, DIC and labile total organic carbon

307 correspond to, respectively, 10%, 22% and 41% of the riverine inputs (respectively,
308 Soetaert et al., 2006; Gazeau et al., 2005c; Vanderborght et al., 2006). In the Satilla
309 River estuary, lateral DIC inputs from the extensive saltmarshes are 12 times higher
310 than the river inputs (Cai and Wang, 1998). Hence, it seems unlikely that lateral
311 inputs can explain the large discrepancy between the scaled air-water CO₂ fluxes and
312 those computed from the fate of riverine organic carbon. This discrepancy can have
313 several other origins. For instance, pCO₂ data in inner estuaries have been mostly
314 obtained in macrotidal estuaries, and microtidal estuaries that seem to be
315 characterized by lower CO₂ emissions are under-represented in the present
316 compilation (only Randers Fjord). Most of the CO₂ flux values in inner estuaries from
317 Table 1 were derived from floating chamber measurements. This method has been
318 assumed to artificially enhance the exchange of CO₂ across the air-water interface
319 (Raymond and Cole, 2001). However, there is a growing body of evidence that this
320 method provides reasonable flux estimates (Kremer et al., 2003; Guérin et al., 2006).
321 Furthermore, it has been established that tidal currents significantly enhance gas
322 transfer velocities in inner estuaries (Zappa et al., 2003; Borges et al., 2004) compared
323 to other aquatic systems. As already noted by Abril and Borges (2004) and by Borges
324 (2005), the surface area of inner estuaries given by Woodwell et al. (1973) is most
325 probably an overestimate. For instance the surface area of the European estuaries,
326 lagoons, salt marshes and mud flats has been estimated to 25 10³ km² based on the
327 Coordination of information on the environment (CORINE) Land Cover programme
328 (Uher, 2005). The total surface area of the European coastal wetlands (that aggregates
329 lagoons, deltas, estuaries, coastal wetlands and tidal wetlands) from the Global Lakes
330 and Wetlands Database (GLWD) is 36 10³ km² (Lehner and Döll, 2004). These
331 estimates that aggregate various near-shore ecosystems are 3 to more than 4 times
332 lower than the surface area of European estuaries alone of 112 10³ km² given by
333 Woodwell et al. (1973).

334 Table 4 also shows that the emission of CO₂ to the atmosphere from
335 continental aquatic compartments (streams, rivers and lakes), could be highly
336 significant when compared to the absorption of CO₂ from the atmosphere due to
337 carbonate and silicate rock weathering, and to the export of organic carbon from
338 rivers to the coastal ocean. These high CO₂ emission rates result from net
339 heterotrophy of the aquatic compartment, fuelled by terrestrial organic carbon inputs,
340 and from the flux of dissolved CO₂ originating from soil respiration (Kling et al.,

341 1991; Jones and Mulholland, 1998; Cole and Caraco, 2001; Jones et al., 2003; Duarte
342 and Prairie 2005). Importantly, the CO₂ fluxes from continental aquatic compartments
343 are not accounted for in atmospheric CO₂ inversion models and will increase the gap
344 with estimates of the terrestrial carbon sink based on carbon-stock change models. On
345 the other hand, the export of organic matter from rivers to the coastal ocean, and the
346 CO₂ absorption from rock weathering are typically not accounted for in carbon-stock
347 change models. Table 4 shows that these fluxes could be highly significant and could
348 bridge the gap between estimates based carbon-stock change and inversion models
349 (Janssens et al., 2003; Siemens, 2003). Note, however, that a significant portion of
350 river POC export is due to freshwater phytoplankton and not soil carbon, unlike DOC.

351 Table 4 shows that the sink of atmospheric CO₂ over European continental
352 shelves is negligible compared to the anthropogenic CO₂ emission. Furthermore, the
353 flux of CO₂ based on field pCO₂ data is a mixed signal of the natural background
354 signal and the anthropogenic perturbation signal. Current estimates of the
355 anthropogenic CO₂ sink of the coastal ocean based on DIC inventory (Sabine et al.,
356 2004) or modelling (Andersson and Mackenzie, 2004) approaches are roughly
357 proportional to its relative surface area, unlike the overall atmospheric CO₂ sink that
358 is disproportionately more intense than its relative surface area.

359

360 **3. Conclusions and future challenges**

361

362 Scaled air-water CO₂ fluxes at European level show that the sink of
363 atmospheric CO₂ over continental shelves is highly significant and equivalent to the
364 carbon sink of the terrestrial biosphere. This sink of CO₂ over continental shelves
365 could be almost fully balanced by the emission of CO₂ from inner estuaries, that
366 would be 2.5 times higher than the emission for continental aquatic systems (rivers,
367 streams and lakes). However, the estimate of the potential emission of CO₂ from the
368 fate in estuaries of river POC and DOC strongly suggests that the present scaled
369 emission of CO₂ at European level is an overestimate. This is most probably related to
370 the inadequate value of the surface area of inner estuaries used in the scaling.
371 Nevertheless, the CO₂ fluxes from estuaries are significant ($49.9 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$)
372 compared to river and streams ($26.9 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and lakes ($7.6 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) at
373 European scale. The emission of CO₂ to the atmosphere from estuaries and their
374 strongly heterotrophic nature implies that a large fraction of river POC and DOC is

375 removed during estuarine transit and never reaches the adjacent continental shelf, let
376 alone the open ocean. This is consistent with the fact that little terrestrial organic
377 carbon can be accounted for in sediments or the water column of continental shelves
378 and open oceanic waters based on tracer approaches (e.g. Hedges et al., 1997). Hence,
379 an important bias is introduced in global and regional carbon models that use as
380 forcings the river carbon inputs directly into the open ocean basins.

381 Several challenges remain to better constrain the fluxes of CO₂ in coastal
382 waters at European and global scales. The surface area of inner and outer estuaries
383 could be evaluated based on satellite imagery approaches (e.g. Salisbury et al., 2004)
384 in combination with geographical information system (GIS) approaches. More CO₂
385 data are required to scale air-water CO₂ fluxes in outer estuaries, that can be
386 significant for the overall flux from estuarine systems (Borges and Frankignoulle,
387 2002b; Borges, 2005; Schiettecatte et al., 2006a). While data for other trace gases are
388 available in several coastal sites of the Mediterranean Sea (Uher, 2005; Bange, 2005),
389 CO₂ flux data have only been satisfactorily integrated at annual scale in the Bay of
390 Angels. It is most unlikely that data from this very narrow continental shelf (< 10 km)
391 are representative of wider continental shelves (off Tunisia, Alboran Sea) and
392 influenced by river inputs (Gulf of Lyons, Adriatic Sea) of the Mediterranean Sea.
393 Also, no CO₂ data are available in inner or outer Mediterranean non-tidal estuaries.
394 Similarly, air-water CO₂ fluxes in high latitude continental shelves are only available
395 for the Barents Sea, while little data have been reported in the Kara, East Siberian,
396 Laptev Seas (Semiletov, 1999). No data are available over the continental shelf of the
397 Black Sea, although influenced by the Danube, the largest European river (in terms of
398 discharge, length and drainage area). Little or no CO₂ data are available in several
399 biogeochemically important ecosystems (seagrass beds, lagoons, saltmarshes) for
400 which surface area estimates would also require a careful (re)-analysis, based on
401 satellite and/or GIS approaches. Finally, inter-annual and decadal variability of air-
402 water CO₂ fluxes is so far undocumented in any coastal environment.

403

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405

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418

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726 turbulence and the gas transfer velocity over a tidal cycle in a macro-tidal estuary.
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- 728
- 729

730 Table 1 – Range of pCO₂, air-water CO₂ fluxes, and corresponding gas transfer
 731 velocity (*k*) in European coastal environments. The numbers in parentheses
 732 correspond to site identification in Figure 2. W denotes the *k*-wind parameterization
 733 given by Wanninkhof (1992), FC denotes direct measurements with a floating
 734 chamber, and C denotes a constant *k* value. * : *k* = 8.0 cm h⁻¹; ** : *k* = 13.0 cm h⁻¹. MiT
 735 = micro-tidal; MaT = macro-tidal; RD = river dominated (*i.e.* most of the salinity
 736 mixing occurs in the outer-estuary); LUI = low Upwelling Index; SS = seasonally
 737 stratified; PS = permanently stratified; WM = permanently well-mixed.

Site (location in Fig.2)	Characteristics	°E	°N	pCO ₂ (ppm)	Air-water CO ₂ fluxes (mol C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	<i>k</i>	Ref.
Inner estuaries							
Randers Fjord (1)	MiT	10.3	56.6	220-3400	2.2	FC	1
Elbe (2)	MaT	8.8	53.9	580-1100	53.0	FC	2
Ems (3)	MaT	6.9	53.4	560-3755	67.3	FC	2
Rhine (4)	MaT; RD	4.1	52.0	545-1990	39.7	FC	2
Scheldt (5)	MaT	3.5	51.4	125-9425	63.0	FC	2
Thames (6)	MaT	0.9	51.5	505-5200	73.6	FC	2
Tamar (7)	MaT	-4.2	50.4	380-2200	74.8	C**	2
Loire (8)	MaT	-2.2	47.2	630-2910	64.4	C**	3
Gironde (9)	MaT	-1.1	45.6	465-2860	30.8	FC	2
Douro (10)	MaT; RD	-8.7	41.1	1330-2200	76.0	FC	2
Sado (11)	MaT	-8.9	38.5	575-5700	31.3	FC	2
Upwelling marginal seas							
Galician coast (12)	LUI	-9.2	42.5	265-415	-2.2	W	4
Gulf of Cadiz (13)	LUI	-7.0	37.0	125-700	-0.4	W	5
Non-upwelling marginal seas							
Barents Sea (14)	SS	30.0	75.0	168-352	-3.6	W	6
Bothnian Bay (15)	PS	21.0	63.0	150-550	+3.1	W	7
Baltic Proper (16)	PS	20.0	57.0	156-475	-0.8	W	8
North Sea (17)	SS	2.6	56.7	145-495	-1.4	W	9
English Channel (18)	WM	-1.2	50.2	200-500	0.0	W	10
Gulf of Biscay and Celtic Sea (19)	SS	-7.9	49.0	260-460	-0.8	W	11
Bay of Angels (20)	SS	7.4	43.6	315-450	-0.6	W	12

738 1: Gazeau et al. (2005a); 2: Frankignoulle et al. (1998); 3: Abril et al. (2003 ; 2004); 4: Borges and Frankignoulle
 739 (2002a); 5 :based on Huertas et al. (2005) but flux values converted to the *k* parameterization given by
 740 Wanninkhof (1992) using conversion factors determined from the Rayleigh frequency distribution from values
 741 originally computed from the *k* parameterization given by Woolf and Thorpe (1991); 6: based on data compiled
 742 from Kaltin et al. (2002) and Omar et al. (2003), using National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP)
 743 daily wind speeds for the 1993-2003 period; 7: Thomas and Schneider (1999); 8: Algesten et al. (2004); 9: based
 744 on Thomas et al. (2004) but flux values converted to the *k* parameterization given by Wanninkhof (1992) using
 745 conversion factors determined from the Rayleigh frequency distribution from values originally computed from the
 746 *k* parameterization given by Wanninkhof and McGillis (1999); 10: Borges and Frankignoulle (2003); 11: based on
 747 pCO₂ data from Frankignoulle and Borges (2001) and additional data obtained in May 2001 and 2002, and June
 748 2004, the atmospheric pCO₂ data from Mace Head, 6 hourly NCEP wind speeds from five grid points (-9.38°E
 749 50.48°N; -7.50°E 50.48°N; -9.38°E 48.57°N; -7.50°E 48.57°N; -5.63°E 48.57°N), for the 1993-2004 period; 12:
 750 based on pCO₂ data from Copin-Montégut et al. (2004) extracted for the continental shelf ([http://www.obs-
 752 vlfr.fr/cd_rom_dmtt/dyf_main.htm](http://www.obs-

 751 vlfr.fr/cd_rom_dmtt/dyf_main.htm)), the atmospheric pCO₂ data from Lampedusa Island, 6 hourly NCEP wind
 753 speeds (7.50°E 42.86°N) for the 1998-2000 period
 754

755 Table 2 – Wintertime nitrate concentration, salinity, seasonal amplitude of pCO₂, of
 756 pCO₂ normalized to a constant temperature of 15°C (pCO₂@15°C), and of DIC, range
 757 of total alkalinity and of the Revelle factor, in 5 temperate European continental
 758 shelves (Gulf of Biscay, English Channel, Southern Bight of the North Sea (SBNS),
 759 Gotland Sea (Baltic Sea), and Bay of Angels (Mediterranean Sea)).

	Gulf of Biscay	English Channel	SBNS	Gotland Sea	Bay of Angels
Wintertime NO ₃ ⁻ (μmol kg ⁻¹)	5-10 ^a	5-20 ^b	10-40 ^c	4 ^d	1 ^e
Salinity	35.4 ^f	35.1 ^g	34.6 ^h	7.0 ⁱ	38.0 ^j
pCO ₂ amplitude (ppm)	76 ^k	102 ^k	222 ^k	319 ^k	120 ^k
pCO ₂ @15°C amplitude (ppm)	167 ^k	122 ^k	283 ^k	589 ^k	68 ^k
DIC amplitude (μmol kg ⁻¹)	76 ^l	55 ^l	140 ^l	139 ^l	50 ^l
Total alkalinity (μmol kg ⁻¹)	2333-2345 ^f	2297-2334 ^g	2294-2353 ^h	1567-1593 ⁱ	2503-2550 ^m
Revelle factor	9.8-11.7 ^l	10.7-12.4 ^l	9.6-13.3 ^l	14.7-28.3 ^l	9.3-10.4 ^l

760 ^a from Wollast and Chou (2001); ^b from Pingree et al. (1977), Wafar et al. (1983), and Bentley et al. (1999); ^c from
 761 Lenhart et al. (2004); ^d from Leinweber et al. (2005); ^e from the nearby monitoring station B in the Villefranche
 762 roadstead (<http://www.obs-vlfr.fr/Rade/>); ^f from Frankignoulle and Borges (2001); ^g from Borges and
 763 Frankignoulle (2003); ^h from Schiettecatte et al. (2006b); ⁱ from Schneider and Kuss (2004); ^j from Copin-
 764 Montégut et al. (2004) extracted for the continental shelf (http://www.obs-vlfr.fr/cd_rom_dmtt/dyf_main.htm); ^k
 765 from Figure 3; ^l computed from salinity, temperature, pCO₂ and total alkalinity, using the carbonic acid
 766 dissociation constants of Mehrbach et al. (1973) refitted by Dickson and Millero (1987); ^m computed from total
 767 alkalinity versus salinity relationship for the Mediterranean Sea from Copin-Montégut (1993)

768

769

770 Table 3 – Surface area estimates of European and Russian Republic continental
 771 shelves.

	Surface area (10 ³ km ²)	Reference
East Siberian Sea	890	Chen et al. (2003)
Laptev Sea	504	Chen et al. (2003)
Kara sea	880	Chen et al. (2003)
Barents Sea	600	Chen et al. (2003)
East Greenland	200	Huthnance (2006)
Iceland	107	Huthnance (2006)
Faroes	27	Huthnance (2006)
Norway (Ålesund to Svalbard)	150	Huthnance (2006)
Cape Wrath to Ålesund	51	Huthnance (2006)
English Channel	90	Huthnance (2006)
Baltic Sea	370	Gazeau et al. (2004)
North Sea	512	Gazeau et al. (2004)
West Scottish shelf	87	Huthnance (2006)
West Irish shelf	53	Huthnance (2006)
Irish Sea, North Channel and Clyde Sea	54	Huthnance (2006)
Celtic Sea	162	Huthnance (2006)
Gulf Biscay	122	Huthnance (2006)
Cape Finisterre to Cape Sagres	21	Based on Jones et al. (1997)
Cape Sagres to Gibraltar	9	Based on Jones et al. (1997)
Mediterranean Sea	450	Gazeau et al. (2004)
Black Sea	130	Gazeau et al. (2004)

772

773

774 Table 4 – Tentative budget of exchanges of atmospheric CO₂ between aquatic, and
 775 terrestrial compartments at European scale.

	Surface area (10 ³ km ²)	Atmospheric CO ₂ exchange (TgC yr ⁻¹)
Continental shelf	3065 ^a	-68.1 ^g
Inner estuaries	112 ^b	67.0 ^h
Rivers	66 ^c	21.3 ⁱ
Lakes	167 ^d	15.2 ^j
Carbonate and silicate rock weathering	6996 ^e	-13.2 ^k
Export of POC from rivers to estuaries	6996 ^e	-8.5 ^l
Export of DOC from rivers to estuaries	6996 ^e	-11.2 ^l
Grasslands	832 ^f	-60.1 ^m
Croplands	1911 ^f	119.7 ^m
Peatlands	43 ^f	51.0 ^m
Forests	1665 ^f	-176.6 ^m
Fossil fuel emission	13172 ^e	1462.5 ⁿ

776 ^a : Sum of continental shelves in Table 3, excluding East Siberian, Laptev, Kara and Black Seas; ^b : from
 777 Woodwell et al. (1973); ^c : based on the assumption of Cole and Caraco (2001) that rivers cover 0.5% of total land
 778 (13172 10³ km² for countries listed in ^e); ^d : from Lehner and Döll (2004); ^e : total drainage area for Albania,
 779 Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland,
 780 France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Irish Republic, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Macedonia, Moldova,
 781 Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine,
 782 United Kingdom, and Yugoslavia, from International Satellite Land-Surface Climatology Project (ISLSCP -
 783 <http://islsdp2.sesda.com/>); ^f : for countries listed in ^e from Janssens et al. (2005); ^g : based on air-water CO₂ flux in
 784 Barents Sea (-3.6 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹ Table 1) scaled to East Greenland, Iceland, Faroes, Norway (Ålesund to
 785 Svalbard), and Barents Sea (1084 10³ km² Table 3), surface area weighted average of CO₂ fluxes from the Baltic
 786 Sea, North Sea, English Channel and Gulf of Biscay (-1.0 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹ Table 1) scaled to Cape Wrath to
 787 Ålesund, North Sea, Baltic Sea, West Scottish shelf, West Irish shelf, Irish Sea, North Channel, Clyde Sea, Celtic
 788 Sea, Gulf of Biscay, and English Channel (1501 10³ km² Table 3), air-water CO₂ flux off the Galician coast (-2.2
 789 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹ Table 1) scaled to region from Cape Finisterre to Cape Sagres (21 10³ km² Table 3), air-water CO₂
 790 flux in the Gulf of Cadiz (-0.4 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹ Table 1) scaled to region from Cape Sagres to Gibraltar (9 10³ km²
 791 Table 3), and air-water CO₂ flux in the Bay of Angels (-0.8 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹ Table 1) scaled to the Mediterranean
 792 Sea continental shelf (450 10³ km² Table 3); ^h : based on surface area weighted average of CO₂ fluxes in all
 793 estuaries from Table 1; ⁱ : based on CO₂ fluxes for European rivers compiled by Cole and Caraco (2001); ^j : based
 794 on average pCO₂ of 1350 ppm for European lakes from Sobek et al. (2005) and an average *k* value of 2 cm h⁻¹ for
 795 lakes given by Cole et al. (1994); ^k : based on 2°*2° gridded fluxes from Amiotte-Suchet and Probst (1995)
 796 extracted from the ISLSCP database for countries listed in ^e; ^l : based on 2°*2° gridded fluxes from Ludwig et
 797 al. (1996) extracted from the ISLSCP database for countries listed in ^e; ^m : for countries listed in ^e from Janssens et
 798 al. (2005); ⁿ : in 1995 for countries listed in ^e from Janssens et al. (2005)
 799

800 FIGURE CAPTIONS

801

802 Figure 1 – Carbon dioxide fluxes between the coastal ocean and the
803 atmosphere (PgC yr^{-1}) at global scale based on different approaches. The solid line
804 corresponds to the output of the box model of Andersson and Mackenzie (2004) that
805 accounts for organic and inorganic carbon fluxes (Shallow-water Ocean Carbonate
806 Model, SOCM); dotted line corresponds to uncertainty estimate. The open diamond
807 corresponds to mass balance computations of organic and inorganic carbon in several
808 marginal seas (Chen, 2004). The open square and open up-triangle correspond to
809 globally scaled fluxes computed from field pCO_2 measurements in, respectively, the
810 East China Sea (Tsunogai et al., 1999), and the North Sea (Thomas et al., 2004). The
811 open circle and open down-triangle correspond to globally scaled fluxes computed
812 from field pCO_2 measurements in several marginal seas, by respectively, Borges et al.
813 (2005), and Cai and Dai (2005). The full circle corresponds to globally scaled fluxes
814 computed from field pCO_2 measurements in marginal seas and near-shore ecosystems
815 (inner estuaries, saltmarsh and mangrove waters, coral reefs and coastal upwellings)
816 by Borges et al. (2005).

817 Figure 2 – Map showing the location of 20 European coastal environments
818 where air-water CO_2 fluxes have been satisfactorily integrated at annual scale.
819 Numbers indicate locations named in first column of Table 1. Light grey areas
820 correspond to the continental shelf areas, delimited by the 200 m isobath (adapted
821 from Gazeau et al. (2004) and Huthnance (2006)).

822 Figure 3 – Comparison of the seasonal cycle of temperature, pCO_2 and pCO_2
823 normalized at a temperature of 15°C ($\text{pCO}_2@15^\circ\text{C}$) in 5 temperate European
824 continental shelves. Data for the Gulf of Biscay (composite annual cycle compiled
825 from data obtained from 1994 to 2004) from Frankignoulle and Borges (2001), for the
826 English Channel (composite annual cycle compiled from data obtained from 1992 to
827 1999) from Borges and Frankignoulle (2003), for the Southern Bight of the North Sea
828 (SBNS, continuous annual cycle from June 2003 to May 2004) from Schiettecatte et
829 al. (2006b), for the Gotland Sea (Baltic Sea, continuous annual cycle from December
830 1999 to September 2001) from Schneider et al. (2003) and Kuss et al. (2004), and for
831 the Bay of Angels (dual continuous annual cycle from February 1998 to February
832 2000) from Copin-Montégut et al. (2004) extracted for the continental shelf from
833 http://www.obs-vlfr.fr/cd_rom_dmtt/dyf_main.htm

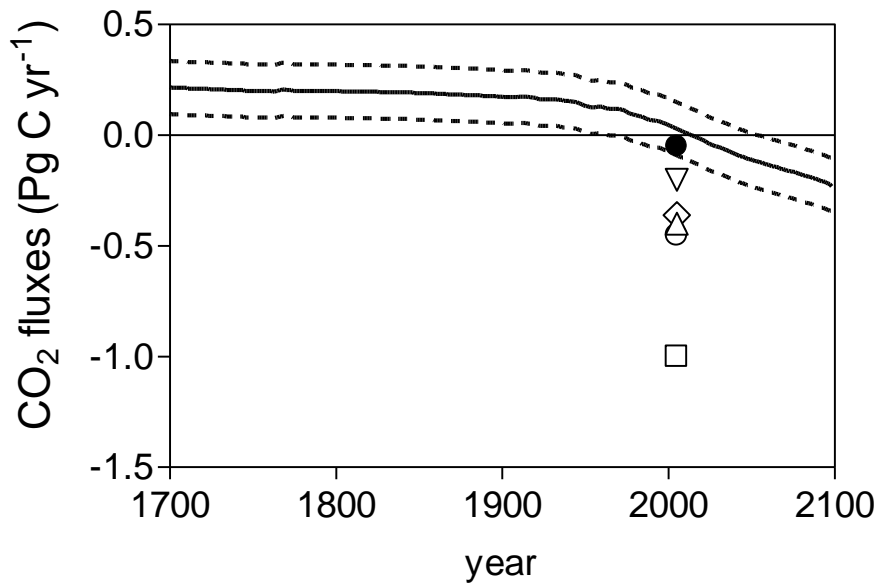
834 Figure 4 – Air-water CO₂ fluxes versus net ecosystem production (NEP) (A)
835 and net community production in the mixed layer (ML NCP) (B). Air-water CO₂
836 fluxes were computed from field measurements of pCO₂ while ecosystem metabolic
837 rates were scaled from oxygen incubations, as described in detail by Gazeau et al.
838 (2005a,b,c). Numbers correspond to the following cruises; Scheldt estuary : 1 =
839 04/11-13/11/2002; 2 = 31/03-10/04/2003; Randers Fjord : 1 = 21/04-01/05/2001; 2 =
840 20/08-30/08/2001; Bay of Palma : 1 = 01/03-12/03/2002; 2 = 17/06-27/06/2002.

841 Figure 5 – Contribution of the ventilation of river CO₂ to the overall emission
842 of CO₂ from different estuaries to the atmosphere versus average residence time of
843 freshwater, based on nine European and two US estuaries. The potential emission of
844 river CO₂ (RE in mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) was computed from ΔDIC (mmol m⁻³), average
845 freshwater discharge (Q in m³ d⁻¹) and the inner estuary surface area (S in m²),
846 according to $RE = \Delta DIC \times Q / S$, where ΔDIC is the difference between the observed
847 DIC value at zero salinity and the DIC value calculated if the sample was at
848 atmospheric equilibrium with respect to CO₂. El = Elbe; Em = Ems; Gi = Gironde ;
849 Lo = Loire ; Ra = Randers Fjord ; Rh = Rhine; Sad = Sado; Sat = Satilla; Sch =
850 Scheldt; Th = Thames; YR = York River. Data for El, Em, Gi, Lo, Rh, Sad, Sch and
851 Th from Frankignoulle et al. (1998) and Frankignoulle and Middelburg (2002); data
852 for Sat from Cai and Wang (1998); data for YR from Raymond et al. (2000).

853 Figure 6 – Conceptual diagram of the biogeochemical controls of air-water
854 CO₂ fluxes in coastal environments.

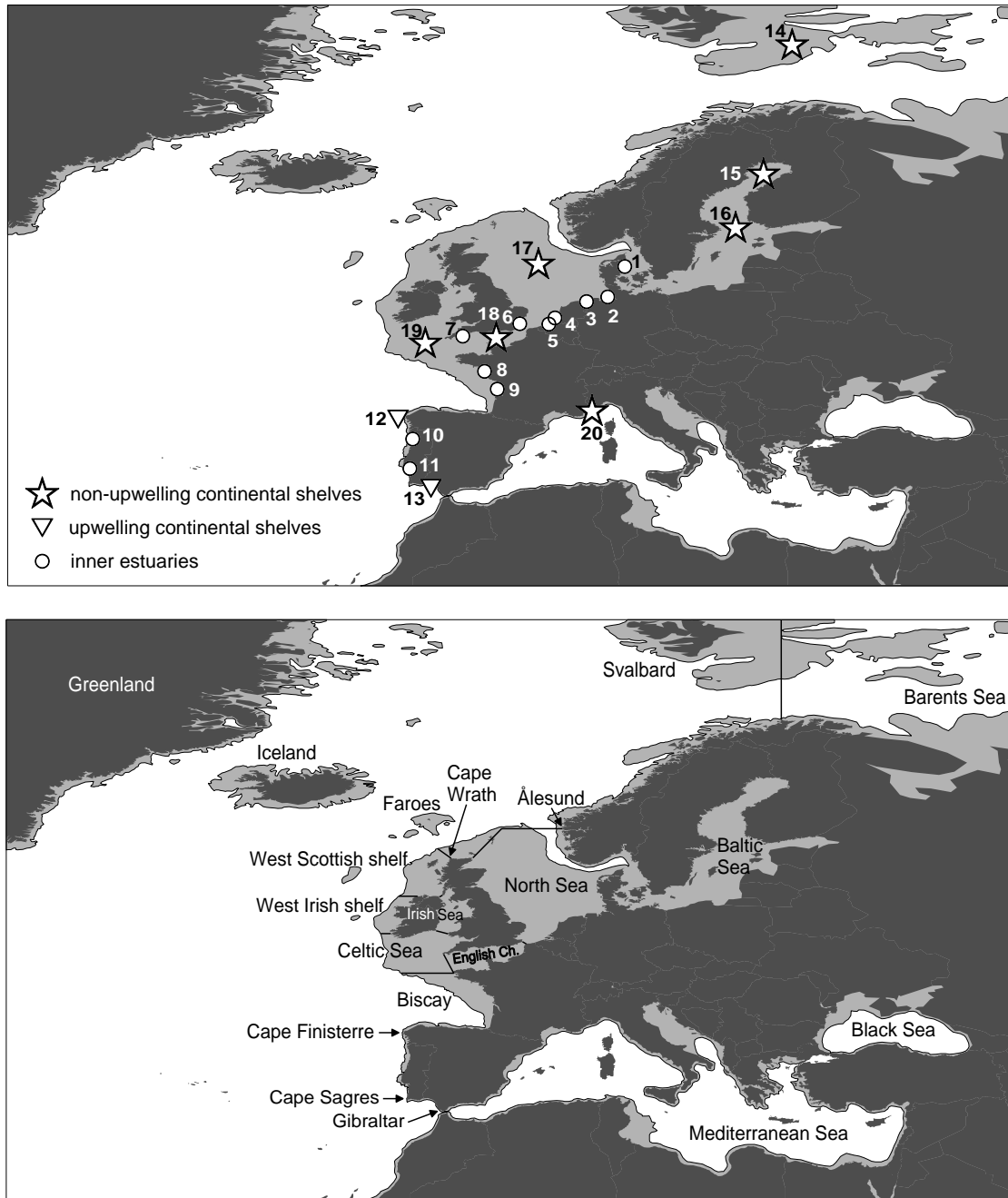
855

856 Fig. 1
857

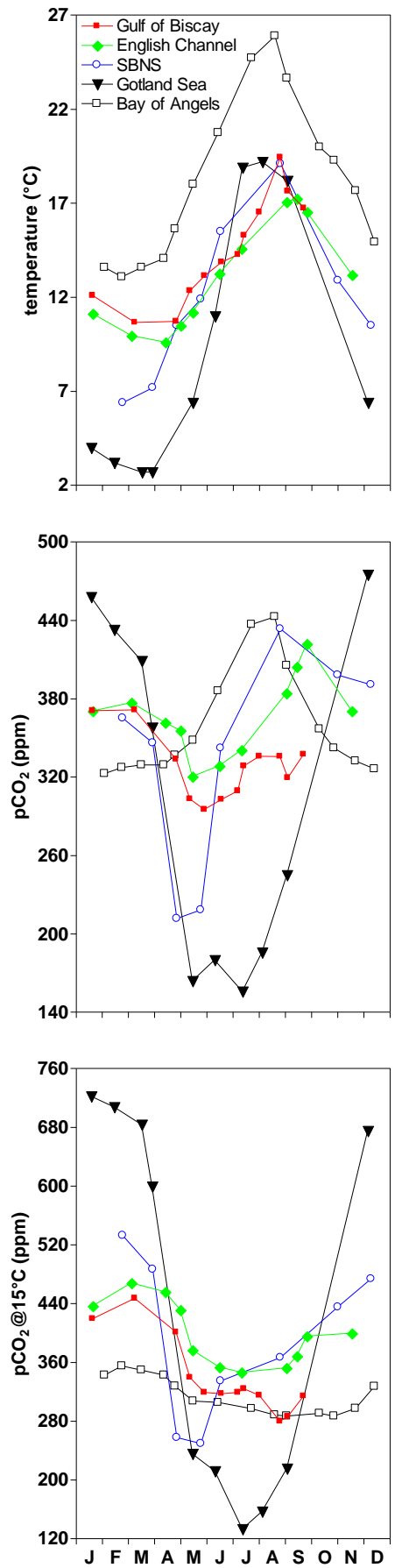


- Andersson & Mackenzie (2004)
- Borges et al. (2005) marginal seas and near-shore ecosystems
- Borges et al. (2005) marginal seas only
- ▽ Cai & Dai (2005)
- ◇ Chen (2004)
- △ Thomas et al. (2004)
- Tsunogai et al. (1999)

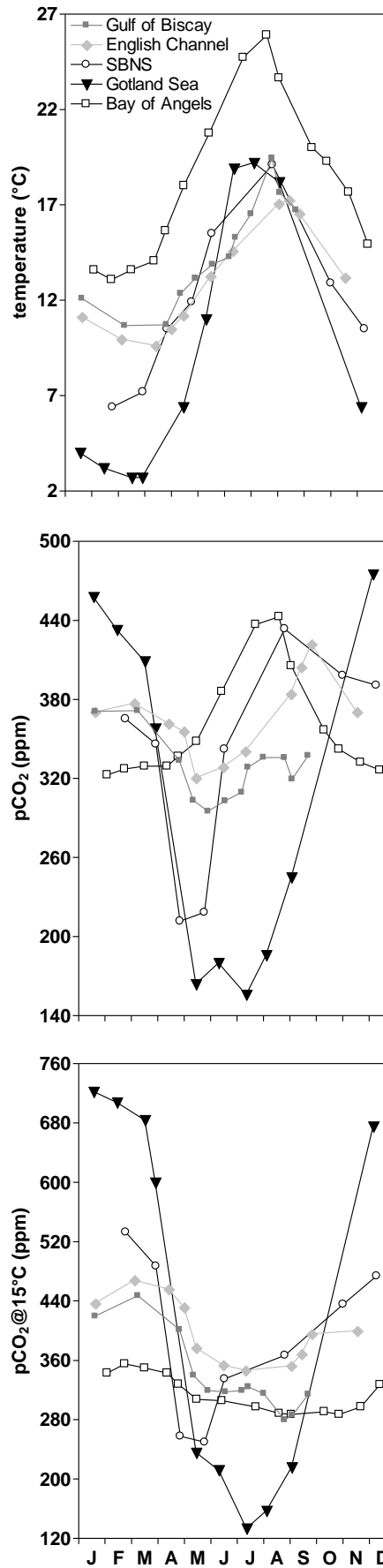
858 Fig. 2
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861 Fig. 3 – Color version for online version only
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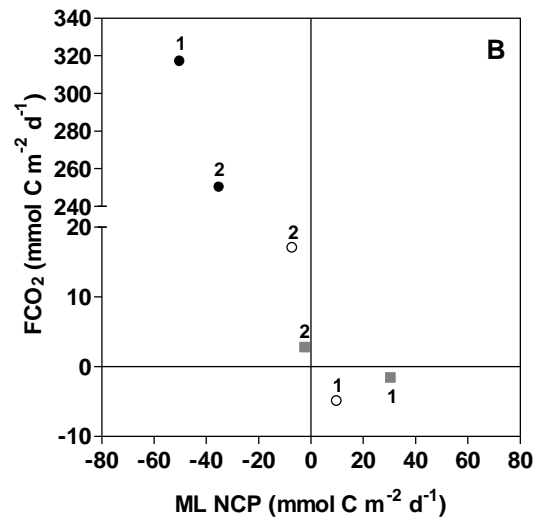
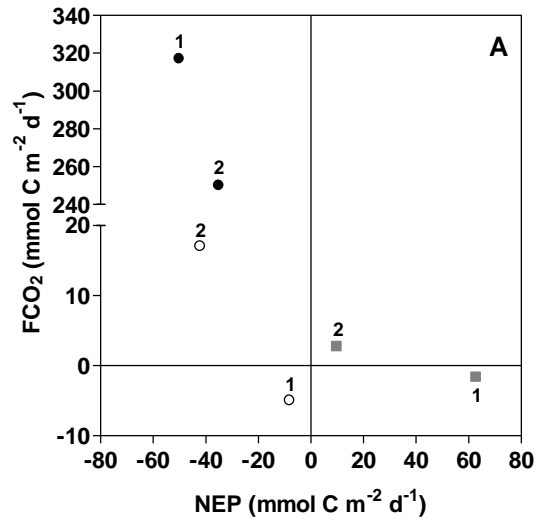


863 Fig. 3 – BW version for print version
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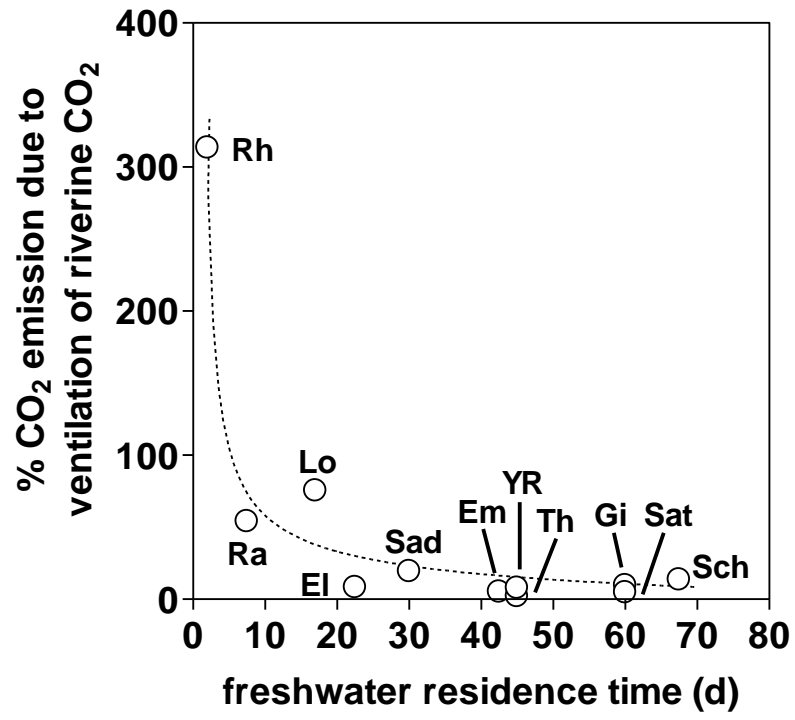


865 Fig. 4
866

● Scheldt estuary ○ Randers Fjord ■ Bay of Palma



867 Fig. 5



868 Fig. 6

