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Revisiting the Estimate of the North Sea Air–Sea Flux of CO2 in 2001/2002: The Dominant Role of Different Wind Data Products

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**RESEARCH ARTICLE**

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**Key Points:**
- The use of the new wind product coastDat increases the earlier estimated CO₂ uptake flux in coastal areas of the North Sea (0.72 mol C·m⁻²·yr⁻¹) by 0.88 mol C·m⁻²·yr⁻¹.
- Comparisons with observations show that for coastal areas coastDat appears more suitable than ERA40.
- In the light of ongoing ocean acidification and warming a refinement of marine pCO₂ observations bears the larger potential to reduce uncertainty of the CO₂ flux estimates than further refinement of wind products.

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**Abstract**

For the North Sea, a semienclosed shelf sea in the northeastern North Atlantic, the seasonal and annual CO₂ air-sea fluxes (ASF) had been estimated for 2001 and 2002 in earlier work. The underlying observations, ∆pCO₂, salinity, and temperature had been combined with 6-hourly wind data derived from ERA40 reanalysis. In order to assess the impact of different wind data products on the computation of CO₂ ASF, we compared ERA40 wind data with coastDat data derived from the nonhydrostatic regional climate model COSMO-CLM. From the four observational months September, November, February, and May all but the May data show higher wind speeds for coastDat than for ERA40, especially off the Norwegian, UK, and continental coasts. Largest differences occur in the northern offshore areas. The comparison with observed wind data supports this feature generally: At Helgoland, an island in the German Bight, and at the Belgium pile “Westhinder” the ERA40 data underestimate both, the coastDat data and the observations. Wind observations for two Norwegian North Sea platforms were available: At the northern station “Troll” off the Norwegian coast the coastDat data overestimate the observations in winter. At “Ekofisk” in the central North Sea the ERA40 data fit the observations well, while the coastDat data slightly overestimate the observational data in all months but in May. The corresponding CO₂ ASF estimates show strongest deviations off the Norwegian coast. Using different bulk formulas for determining the net annual ASF resulted in differences due to different wind products of up to 34%.

**Plain Language Summary**

Climate change is induced by gases like carbon dioxide, which are added to the atmosphere. The increase of the concentration in the atmosphere is dampened by the uptake of this gas by land and ocean. Especially, the coastal ocean is able to efficiently absorb CO₂. To calculate the North Sea-wide uptake of CO₂, simulated wind speed data were used. The formerly used model data cover the total Earth and thus have a less fine resolution. Especially near the coast this effect becomes dominant, as wind over land is more efficiently retarded than over sea. A new wind product (coastDat) with a refined grid was established especially for coastal applications. We compare the old and the new data with observational data sets. It has shown that the coastDat data are closer to observations near the coast. The old data set significantly underestimates the observational data there. At the open sea the new data set slightly overestimates the observations. The comparison of the mean flux of CO₂ from the atmosphere into the ocean revealed an increase of 34% when using the new wind data instead of the old one.

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**1. Introduction**

Carbon fluxes in coastal and shelf seas are highly variable at various spatial and temporal scales. This high variability is caused by exchanges of matter and energy between these marine environments and the adjacent Earth system compartments land, open ocean, atmosphere, and shallow sediments. Furthermore, primary productivity in coastal and shelf seas is one of the highest of all marine environments, and consecutive respiratory processes regulate the carbon cycle at seasonal to annual time scales. The high primary productivity is fueled by both autochthonous nutrients and nutrient inputs from all the above mentioned neighboring compartments. This eventually yields high aerobic and anaerobic respiratory activity, which further is supported by allochthonous organic matter. Freshwater runoff, heat fluxes, wind, tidal dynamics, and the open ocean regulate circulation and turbulence patterns in coastal and shelf seas, the hydrodynamic foundation of the biogeochemical processes. In synergy, physical and biogeochemical processes govern the CO₂ air-sea exchange, and the interplay of these processes reveals specific characteristics for different coastal and shelf seas (Borges, 2005; Chen & Borges, 2009). As a result, it has been difficult, so far, to establish more
reliable, generalized analytical and predictive tools to describe and assess carbon fluxes in these marine environments.

The North Sea, located at the NW European shelf, has been studied extensively during the last two decades, employing both observational and modeling tools. The recent studies have been based largely on a basin-wide field data set with seasonal resolution, gathered in 2001/2002 and consecutive years (e.g., Bozec et al., 2006; Thomas et al., 2004, 2005, 2009) as well as dedicated studies in the southern North Sea (e.g., Schiettecatte et al., 2007). It has been found that, briefly spoken, the North Sea can be subdivided into two biogeochemical regimes, a shallower and permanently mixed southern part and the deeper, stratified northern part (Artioli et al., 2012; Bozec et al., 2005; Große et al., 2016; Kühn et al., 2010; Prowe et al., 2009; Thomas et al., 2004). The northern part constitutes a strong sink for atmospheric CO₂, as CO₂ is exported via the continental shelf pump (Tsunogai et al., 1999) to the deeper Atlantic Ocean (Thomas et al., 2004; Wakelin et al., 2012). In the southern part production and respiration of organic matter occur within the same compartment and their impacts largely cancel out each other, such that resulting net effects on CO₂ air-sea exchange are only moderate (Burt et al., 2016; Prowe et al., 2009; Schiettecatte et al., 2007; Thomas et al., 2004). Furthermore, in the southern part anaerobic respiration in the shallow sediments release alkalinity, which buffers respiratory CO₂ release and causes some parts of the southern North Sea to absorb CO₂ from the atmosphere (Burt et al., 2014, 2016; Thomas et al., 2009). Repeated observations in 2005, 2008, and 2011 have facilitated insights in interannual variability, which is controlled by a complex ramification of the local effects of “weather” patterns and larger-scale climatic pattern primarily governed by the North Atlantic Ocean and the North Atlantic Oscillation (Clargo et al., 2015; Lorkowski et al., 2012; Omar et al., 2010; Salt et al., 2013; Thomas et al., 2007).

Detailed seasonal investigations of CO₂ fluxes between the North Sea and the atmosphere have been reported to reflect the bifurcation of the North Sea (Thomas et al., 2004, 2005) and to be on the order of 1.38 mol CO₂·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ into the North Sea, with, as mentioned above, the northern part constituting a strong CO₂ sink and the southern part playing a minor or indifferent role with respect to the CO₂ air-sea exchange. This flux assessment has been reported with a range of uncertainty resulting from the reliance on different parametrizations of the CO₂ air-sea transfer coefficient, which overall has been estimated to contribute an approximate of 20% uncertainty to such computations (Watson et al., 2009). As summarized by Wanninkhof (2014) during the recent decade detailed studies have been carried out to further reduce the uncertainty related to the CO₂ air-sea transfer coefficient.

Even though on the global (Shutler et al., 2016), the Atlantic-wide and the regional-scale (Wrobel & Piskozub, 2016) substantial improvements toward the determination of realistic air-sea fluxes (ASF) have been achieved, flux assessments in coastal and shelf seas remain a particular challenge, as the spatial and temporal resolution of environmental data such as wind fields and heat flux data are not necessarily fully adequate to account for the high variability and complexity of these systems (Garbe et al., 2014; Winterfeldt et al., 2011). For example, substantial improvements of heat flux estimates in coastal seas have been achieved by using high-resolution refined meteorological fields (Geyer, 2014). Furthermore, as compared to the off-line integration of modeled data (streams) from different Earth system compartments, the real-time coupling of meteorological and hydrodynamic models has facilitated a more realistic description of temperature and heat flux fields in coastal seas, as, for example, reported for the North Sea by Su et al. (2014).

Largely unknown is the effect of applying refined high-resolution wind fields to the computation of CO₂ ASF in coastal areas, replacing the rather conventional data products from global meteorological fields such as National Centers for Environmental Prediction (Kalnay et al., 1996) or ERA40 by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (2005). In this study we employ high-resolution wind fields by coastDat (Geyer, 2014), compare those to observational wind data records, and recompile the CO₂ flux assessment for the North Sea by Thomas et al. (2004) using different gas-transfer velocity parameterizations (Wrobel & Piskozub, 2016) in order to investigate in depth the consequences, benefits, and improvements of employing refined high-resolution meteorological forcing when computing CO₂ fluxes in coastal areas.

2. Methods and Data

Throughout this study positive ΔpCO₂ values imply supersaturation of the ocean and negative values indicate undersaturation. Positive ASF represent oceanic uptake of CO₂ and negative fluxes stand for outgassing.
2.1. The $\Delta p_{\text{CO}_2}$ Data

Figure 1 shows the distribution of $\Delta p_{\text{CO}_2}$ for September and November 2001 and for February and May 2002 on a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid together with the corresponding cruise tracks. $\Delta p_{\text{CO}_2}$ ($\mu$atm) is the difference between marine and atmospheric partial pressure of CO$_2$. The data were collected on four different cruises with high spatial resolution representing four seasons (Thomas et al., 2004). The summer is represented by the data as the so-called “September values.” They were taken from 20 August to 10 September.

For each of the measuring months a complete North Sea-wide field of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ cells was established. The cells represent the average of the observational data falling in the respective month and cell. Each observational data is assigned to only one $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ cell. In case the position data match cell edges the northern or eastern corresponding cell is assigned. The intracell variability, expressed as standard deviation, ranged from 0.26 $\mu$atm (northern boundary, November) to 57.6 $\mu$atm (off the Danish coast, May). Cells, which could not be filled with data within a specific month, were later handled by horizontal linear interpolation between neighboring cells.

The data are deposited in the PANGAEA data base:

1. https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.610090 (September 2001)
2. https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.610091 (November 2001)
3. https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.610092 (February 2002)

Figure 1. Monthly mean $p_{\text{CO}_2}$ differences ($10^{-6}$ atm) between ocean and atmosphere on the regular $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid derived from measurements. Negative values indicate oceanic undersaturation, positive values indicate supersaturation. Black lines show the course of the cruises.
2.2. ERA40

The ERA40 reanalysis data set was established by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecast in collaboration with other institutes (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecast, 2005). From this data set we extracted 6-hourly wind components (parameters 165 and 166) and calculated 6-hourly wind speed values (m/s). The original data were interpolated from a 1.25° × 1.25° grid to a regular 1° × 1° grid using the reciprocal of the squared distance to neighboring grid cell centers of the original ERA40 grid. These data were used by Thomas et al. (2004) and in this study.

2.3. coastDat

The coastDat data sets were produced to give a consistent and homogeneous database mainly for assessing weather statistics and climate changes since 1948 for Europe, especially in data sparse regions. The principles of the early data set coastDat2 were defined in Geyer and Rockel (2013). The simulation results used in this study (coastDat3) following these principles were driven by ERAinterim data (Berrisford et al., 2011) and started in 1979. We used hourly output of the nonhydrostatic regional climate model COSMO-CLM version 5.0 for the years 2001 and 2002.

The original data with a spatial resolution of 0.11° in rotated coordinates were converted to the WGS84 regular grid with a resolution of 0.25°. The overall quality of the wind speed data was analyzed by comparison with buoy and quikSCAT data (Geyer, 2014). Especially for near coast applications the data set shows an added value in respect to wind speed statistics (Geyer et al., 2015). For this application the data were further interpolated on a 1° × 1° grid.

The data are deposited in the CERA database:
https://cera-www.dkrz.de/WDCC/ui/Entry.jsp?acronym=coastDat-3_COSMO-CLM_ERAI

2.4. CO2 Air-Sea Flux Parameterizations

In order to compare the CO2 flux uncertainty due to different wind products with the uncertainty due to different bulk air-sea flux formulas, we calculate the annual CO2 fluxes using

1. L&M 1986 (Liss & Merlivat, 1986)
2. T 1990 (Tans et al., 1990)
3. W 1992 (Wanninkhof, 1992)
6. W 2014 (Wanninkhof, 2014)

In the following W&McG 1999 was applied if not stated otherwise. The W 1992 formula is used among the others even though it is known that it is problematic (Wanninkhof, 2014). It is applied here for comparison with the results of Thomas et al. (2004).

2.5. Height Correction of Observed Wind Speed

Wind speed is corrected to a height of 10 m above the sea surface using equation (1) of Sutton et al. (2017).

\[ U_{10} = \frac{U_z}{1 + \frac{C_d 0.4}{0.4} \times \ln\left(\frac{z}{10}\right)} \]

where \( U_{10} \) is wind speed in m/s at 10 m, \( z \) is the height (m) of the wind sensor, \( U_z \) is wind speed in m/s recorded by the sensor, \( C_d 10 \) is the drag coefficient (0.0011), and 0.4 is von Karman constant.

3. Results

3.1. Comparison of Wind Data

Figure 2 shows the horizontal distributions of differences of the mean wind fields derived from ERA40 and coastDat for the months September and November 2001 and February and May 2002. For most cases the coastDat values are larger than the corresponding ERA40 values. For all months but May almost all nearshore differences are high (2 m/s or larger). In the Skagerrak highest differences (>4 m/s) appear in November and February. In May a large area in the central North Sea shows very small differences. During the other months the differences are there in the range of 0.5–1 m/s.
The spatial variability of the 1° × 1° wind fields for 4 months is shown as mean (6 hr) standard deviations ($\sigma$) in Table 1. The last column, the mean of the relative standard deviations, shows that both wind products bear more or less the same relative spatial variabilities.

To evaluate the temporal development of the different wind data, the time series of 6-hourly wind speeds derived by coastDat and ERA40 were compared for four different 1° × 1° grid cells for September 2001 (Figure 3). Table 2 gives corresponding statistical data.

Obviously, the data of the two products are in phase regarding to the variability of periods larger than 2–3 days. For all cells considered, the means and the standard deviations of the coastDat data are larger than

![Figure 2](image-url) Monthly mean wind speed difference (coastDat – ERA40; m/s) on the regular 1° × 1° grid. The black polygons indicate coastal areas with wind speed differences larger than 2 m/s at least once during the shown months.

Figure 2a - September 2001 with the positions of four cells indicated by rectangles, the position of the observational stations: Troll = triangle; Ekofisk = asterisk; Helgoland = dot; Westhinder = cross. Figure 2b - November 2001; Figure 2c - February 2002; Figure 2d - May 2002 data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(m/s)</th>
<th>September 2001</th>
<th>November 2001</th>
<th>February 2002</th>
<th>May 2002</th>
<th>$\sigma / \mu$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\mu$</td>
<td>$\sigma$</td>
<td>$\mu$</td>
<td>$\sigma$</td>
<td>$\mu$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERA40</td>
<td>6.99</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>8.41</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>9.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coastDat</td>
<td>8.34</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>9.78</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>10.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1

Monthly Means of Horizontal Wind Speed Averages ($\mu$) and Standard Deviations ($\sigma$) of the 1° × 1° Cells

Note. The last column gives the mean of the relative standard deviations.
the corresponding ERA40 data. This effect is strongest for cell 4 in the Skagerrak. A rather strong deviation can also be seen for cell 3 off the Norwegian coast.

Figure 4 displays the area-weighted North Sea-wide monthly averages of the wind speed for both sources, ERA40 and coastDat. Highest values fall in February, lowest in July, where the strongest relative deviation between the two products occur (15.1%).

In addition, we compared the two data sets with observational data from the DWD (DWD Climate Data Center, 2016) at Helgoland in the German Bight (54.175°N, 7.892°E). For comparison we used ERA40 and coastDat data of the corresponding 1 × 1° grid cell. The use of corresponding 0.25 × 0.25 grid cell of coastDat did not improve the comparison. The observational data are hourly averages of wind speed 10 m above ground, the ERA40 data represent more or less instantaneous values, and the coastDat data are recorded hourly instantaneously. We used the representation of hourly data and interpolated the ERA40 data to hourly values. Figure 5 illustrates the overall agreement in phase and amplitude. In most cases the mean and standard deviation of the ERA40 data are lower than the corresponding coastDat and observational data. This is also confirmed by the insert tables showing statistical values for the different months. The means and the standard deviations in May 2002 are significantly lower than those in the other months, whereas highest values appear in February 2002. In some cases the peak values of the coastDat data overestimate the amplitudes of the observations.

At the Westhinder platform off the Belgium coast (51.39°N, 2.44°E) 10 min wind speed averages were measured 23.85 m above ground. These data were acquired by the Meetnet Vlaamse Banken and retrieved from the AGENTSCHAP MARITIEME DIENSTVERLENING en KUST (http://www.vliz.be/vmdcdatar/midas/MVBgraph.php). From this product we calculated the hourly averaged U10 wind speed (10 m above ground; Figure 6). The comparison of these observational data with ERA40 values shows, similar to the Helgoland comparison, a general underestimation of the observations. The monthly averages of the ERA40 time series are about 2–3 m/s lower than the corresponding observational averages (insert tables). Also, the standard deviation is significantly lower. The coastDat data are much closer to the observations, but the monthly averages slightly underestimate them.

### Table 2

Means ($\mu$) and Standard Deviations ($\sigma$) of 6-Hourly Wind Data for coastDat and ERA40 at Four Cells in September 2001 and the Relative Standard Deviations ($\sigma/\mu$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(m/s)</th>
<th>Longitude</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>ERA40 $\mu$</th>
<th>coastDat $\mu$</th>
<th>ERA40 $\sigma$</th>
<th>coastDat $\sigma$</th>
<th>ERA40 $\sigma/\mu$</th>
<th>coastDat $\sigma/\mu$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cell 1</td>
<td>2.5°E</td>
<td>52.5°N</td>
<td>7.75</td>
<td>8.86</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cell 2</td>
<td>6.5°E</td>
<td>53.5°N</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>8.59</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cell 3</td>
<td>4.5°E</td>
<td>58.5°N</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td>8.53</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cell 4</td>
<td>10.5°E</td>
<td>58.5°N</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: The positions of the 1° × 1° cells identify the cell centers and are shown in Figure 2a.*
Thanks to the Norwegian Meteorological Institute it was possible to compare the two wind products with observations from two different Norwegian oil platforms (www.eklima.no). Both stations delivered 20-min averages of wind speed 10 m above ground, which was calculated to hourly averages. For the more northern platform Troll (60.64°N, 3.72°E) only data for 2002 were available. In most cases (Figure 7) phase and amplitude are coherent for all data, but in February some of the coastDat values overestimate the observations. Consequently, the monthly February mean is higher than the mean of the observational data (insert tables). The platform Ekofisk in the central North Sea (56.54°N, 3.22°E) delivered data for all four months (Figure 8). Phase and amplitude for all three data sets are in most cases coherent. For all months but May the monthly averages are overestimated by coastDat, whereas the ERA40 data are closer to observational means.

3.2. Annual ASF of CO₂

For calculating the North Sea-wide annual fluxes of CO₂ the four measurement-derived fields of ΔpCO₂ values for the months February, May, September, and November were cell-wise temporally linearly interpolated (Jiang et al., 2008). Other temporal interpolation methods and the consequences for the resulting ASF are discussed in section 4.3. The monthly values are treated as representative for both years and were used to reproduce a yearly cycle. The results were monthly ΔpCO₂ fields. Figure 9a shows the annual cycle for the four cells indicated in Figure 2a and Table 2: Only cell 1 in the south exhibits positive values. They fall in the time between July and November. All other cells show negative values indicating undersaturation of the ocean.

The summer and early fall CO₂ efflux at cell 1 is representative for parts of the southern North Sea (Figure 1). Responsible for this flux is the relative high temperature in this area, which reduces the solubility of dissolved...
gases in the water. Kühn et al. (2010) were able to discriminate the biological and the physical carbon pump of the southern North Sea on a seasonal basis (their Figure 5c). They found an overall outgassing between summer and early fall, which was mainly caused by nonbiological mechanisms and a concurrently small uptake of atmospheric CO2 due to net biological activities.

Using the bulk formulas by Wanninkhof and McGillis (1999), the monthly $\Delta$CO2 values, and the wind data, we calculated monthly means of CO2 ASF for each of the 1° × 1° cells. Figure 9b shows the annual cycle of these fluxes for the chosen cells when using ERA40 data and Figure 9c shows the corresponding fluxes under the use of coastDat data. In most cases the coastDat-driven fluxes are larger than those driven by ERA40. This is clearly induced by the generally higher wind speeds of the coastDat data set.

The seasonal cycle of the North Sea-wide net CO2 fluxes is shown in Figure 10. Largest fluxes can be found during the time when biological production dominates organic matter degradation in March to June.

Figure 6. Time series of hourly averaged wind speed at Westhinder (51.39°N, 2.44°E) for (I) September 2001, (II) November 2001, (III) February 2002, and (IV) May 2002 using simulated ERA40 and coastDat values in comparison with observations. The 6-hourly ERA40 data were linearly interpolated to hourly values. The insert tables give means and standard deviations for the different time series.

Figure 7. Time series of hourly averaged wind speed at the oil platform Troll (60.64°N, 3.72°E) for (III) February 2002, and (IV) May 2002 using simulated ERA40 and coastDat values in comparison with observations. The 6-hourly ERA40 data were linearly interpolated to hourly values.
During this time also largest absolute deviations between coastDat and ERA40 derived fluxes occur. Figure 11 shows the horizontal distribution of the flux differences. Highest differences appear off the Norwegian coast where also the differences in wind speed were largest (Figure 2).

The small deviation between the ERA40-based estimation of the annual CO2 ASF of Thomas et al., 2004 (1.38 mol·m⁻²·yr⁻¹) and of this study (1.49 mol·m⁻²·yr⁻¹) can be explained by the different interpolation methods of the \( \Delta pCO_2 \) measurements into 13 boxes (Thomas et al., 2004) and into 1° × 1° cells (this study). But even when the method by Thomas et al. (2004), who aggregated the observations into 13 large boxes, was adopted, a deviation of the overall annual flux (1.28 mol·m⁻²·yr⁻¹) remained. This is due to the fact that we used area weighted 1° × 1° cells to fill the individual large boxes.

In literature several bulk formulas for calculating the ASF of CO2 exist: Liss and Merlivat (1986) and Tans et al. (1990) prescribe a linear relationship between flux and wind speed. Quadratic relations were used by Wanninkhof (1992), Nightingale et al. (2000), and Wanninkhof (2014), while a cubic relation was used by Wanninkhof and McGillis (1999). Figure 12a shows the North Sea-wide net annual fluxes using the different bulk fluxes and the different wind products. Highest fluxes were produced by the formula by Tans et al. (1990). The strongest deviation (34%) between the fluxes driven by the different wind products is achieved by the cubic approach by Wanninkhof and McGillis (1999). When evaluating the gross annual fluxes (Figure 12b) the maximum deviation is even larger (39%). In this context gross annual fluxes are the sum of the hourly absolute values of the fluxes.

4. Summary and Discussion

4.1. Wind Data Products

The comparison of the two data sets suggests that ERA40 data are in most cases lower than the coastDat data. This is in line with the conclusions by Brodeau et al. (2010), who found that the global surface winds are underestimated by ERA40. The areas with the largest deviations between the two data sets are the continental coast, the Norwegian wider coast, and the Skagerrak. The latter two areas are also highlighted by Winterfeldt et al. (2011) and Geyer et al. (2015) as areas showing highest added values comparing the
globally simulated and the regional downscaled wind fields. Comparing observational and wind product data at Helgoland and Westhinder, the larger values of coastDat appear justified. Relative to observed wind data derived from Norwegian platforms, coastDat data reveal a moderate overestimation. Especially in the central North Sea at station Ekofisk the peak values (>15 m/s) show overshootings, while at lower wind speeds the data agree well.

4.2. Fluxes of CO₂

4.2.1. Coastal Versus Open Ocean Areas

The largest deviations between coastDat and ERA40 derived CO₂ fluxes should occur in areas where the wind speeds of the different wind products exhibit largest differences and ΔpCO₂ show highest amplitudes. Areas with largest wind differences over the year are coastal areas, which are identified by the black lines in Figure 2. This black line includes cells where the wind difference was at least once in the shown months larger than 2 m/s. The largest ΔpCO₂ amplitudes are negative and match only in May some areas with high wind differences (Figure 2). In May and September large areas with strong negative ΔpCO₂ amplitudes are situated offshore and in the central and northern part of the North Sea where biological production takes place in the upper water column and separated from the upper ocean organic matter is remineralized in
the deeper parts (Figure 2). Nevertheless, in those coastal areas where the wind speed differences were larger than 2 m/s (see Figure 2) the net uptake was 0.72 and 1.60 mol C·m$^{-2}$·yr$^{-1}$ for the application of ERA40 and coastDat, respectively. This means that in coastal areas where vertical mixing dampens strong $\Delta pCO_2$ amplitudes at the surface the choice of the wind product is still crucial.

4.2.2. Different Bulk Formulas of CO$_2$ Transfer Parameterization
Jiang et al. (2008) listed for all CO$_2$ transfer parameterizations they used the nonlinearity corrected equations for gas transfer velocities (their Table 3). In our case it is not necessary to introduce nonlinearity coefficients as the sampling rate is 6 hr for ERA40 and 1 hr for coastDat wind data. Nevertheless, Table 3 gives the equations for the gas transfer velocities used in this study.

The uncertainties related to the choice of the bulk formulas are larger than found by Watson et al. (2009). The largest net annual flux (T 2000: 2.35 mol C·m$^{-2}$·yr$^{-1}$) is 1.47 times larger than the smallest flux (L&M 1986: 1.6 mol C·m$^{-2}$·yr$^{-1}$). This results in a relative deviation of 47%, in case of gross annual fluxes it is 49%. This might have to do with the choice of the six bulk formulas in this study in comparison to the choice of (only) the three formulas used by Watson et al. (2009). Another reason for the deviation is the different study area: While Watson et al. (2009) investigated fluxes of the open North Atlantic with moderate $\Delta pCO_2$ values, the fluxes of the North Sea are more pronounced due to stronger biological activity and a stronger seasonal cycle of the sea surface temperature.

Taking the mean (2.01 mol C·m$^{-2}$·yr$^{-1}$) and standard deviation (0.31 mol C·m$^{-2}$·yr$^{-1}$) of the net annual fluxes the relative uncertainty amounts to 15.2%, which is even larger than the deviations Vandemark et al. (2011) found for their monthly fluxes when applying different transfer parameterizations (12%). This different findings can be explained by the use of L&M 1986 and T 1990 representing the minimum and maximum annual fluxes in our study.

4.3. Sensitivities of the CO$_2$ Fluxes
4.3.1. Temporal Interpolation of $\Delta pCO_2$
The observations of $\Delta pCO_2$, temperature and salinity were taken in 4 months of the year only. To calculate annual CO$_2$ fluxes, the values of the 4 months were interpolated over the year achieving 12 monthly values. For this purpose we interpolated temporally linearly. The annual cycle of $\Delta pCO_2$ is, however, governed by several processes like temperature, mixing, or biological transformations, all highly nonlinear. To investigate the sensitivity of the calculated annual fluxes on the temporal interpolation method, we conducted two additional interpolations:

1. The constant annual average ("const")
2. The stepwise, 3-month constant ("step").

The const interpolation resulted in the highest fluxes: Using coastDat wind fields and the W&Mc 1999 method, the North Sea-wide flux increased by 37%. Especially in winter these fluxes dominated those of the corresponding fluxes derived from linear temporal interpolation.

The step interpolation derived fluxes does not differ strongly from those of the linear interpolation method. Using coastDat wind fields and the W&Mc 1999 method, the North Sea-wide flux decreased by 6%.

4.3.2. Horizontal Resolution of Wind Fields
The potential of the coastDat data is based on the used refined horizontal resolution within the regional climate model COSMO-CLM compared with the corresponding model of the ERA40 data. The subordinated interpolation on a 1° × 1° grid did not change the achieved benefit drastically. This can be seen when comparing near

Figure 10. Monthly averages of the North Sea-wide net CO$_2$ fluxes for ERA40 and coastDat.

Figure 11. Horizontal distribution of differences of net annual fluxes (coastDat − ERA40).
coast station data of coastDat, which were extracted from the 1° × 1° (Figures 5 and 6) grid and from the 0.25° × 0.25° grid (Tables 4 and 5). At Helgoland (Table 4) the 1° × 1° means are about 4% larger than the corresponding 0.25° × 0.25° means. This is due to the fact that a large area of the corresponding 1° × 1° cell is situated in the outer German Bight with higher wind speeds than close to the coast (Figure 2a). As can be expected, the temporal variability (\(\sigma\)) of the high-resolution derived values is larger than the variability corresponding to the coarser grid. At Westhinder (Table 5) both the “high-resolution” monthly means and standard variations are larger than those derived from the coarse grid. All deviations are smaller than 4%, which is clearly smaller than the deviations between coastDat and ERA40 at the near coast stations Helgoland and Westhinder (Figures 5 and 6).

In an additional analysis we studied the influence of the grid resolution on annual CO₂ fluxes. In the reference calculation the \(\Delta p\) values and the wind data were interpolated into the 1° × 1° grid, followed by a second step where for each grid cell and month the annual fluxes were calculated (Figure 12). As the coastDat wind product is defined on a 0.25° × 0.25° grid it was possible to use these refined wind data together with the 1° × 1° \(\Delta p\) values to calculate North Sea-wide CO₂ fluxes. In this sensitivity study the mean wind speeds of the 1° × 1° grid cells were the same as in the reference calculation but due to the individual treatment of wind data at the 0.25° × 0.25° grid the annual fluxes increased for all flux parameterizations. The increase was largest (2.7%) for the cubic parameterization W&Mc 1999.

### 5. Conclusions

The aim of this study is to revise the earlier estimated seasonal resolved annual ASF of CO₂ in the North Sea region (Thomas et al., 2004). This revision mainly focuses on the wind fields, which are used to calculate the gas transfer velocities. The earlier flux estimates were based on 6-hourly ERA40 wind fields originally defined on a 1.25° × 1.25° grid. The new coastDat wind fields used in this study stem from a downscaling experiment of a nonhydrostatic regional model with much higher spatial and temporal resolution (usage of 1-hourly and 0.25° × 0.25°

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**Table 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gas transfer velocity (cm/h)</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(0.17 \cdot U_{10}) : (U_{10} \leq 3.6)</td>
<td>L&amp;M 1986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2.85 \cdot U_{10} - 9.66) : (3.6 &lt; U_{10} \leq 13.0)</td>
<td>T 1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5.90 \cdot U_{10} - 49.30) : (13.0 &lt; U_{10})</td>
<td>W 1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.1825 \cdot (U_{10} - 3)) : (U_{10} &gt; 3)</td>
<td>W&amp;McG 1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 : (U_{10} \leq 3)</td>
<td>N 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((0.3 \cdot U_{10}) \times \left(\frac{S_{CO2}}{\rho}\right)^{-0.5})</td>
<td>W 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((0.0280 \cdot U_{10}) \times \left(\frac{S_{CO2}}{\rho}\right)^{-0.5})</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((0.222 \cdot U_{10}^2 + 0.333 \cdot U_{10}) \times \left(\frac{S_{CO2}}{\rho}\right)^{-0.5})</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((0.251 \cdot U_{10}^2) \times \left(\frac{S_{CO2}}{\rho}\right)^{-0.5})</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. \(\rho\) [kg/l] is the density of seawater, \(S_{CO2}\) [mol/(kg·atm)] is the solubility of CO₂ in seawater, and Sc is the Schmidt number.
and From One Cell of the 0.25° × 0.25° Grid

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Helgoland (m/s)</th>
<th>Sep 2001</th>
<th>Nov 2001</th>
<th>Feb 2002</th>
<th>May 2002</th>
<th>Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>μ (1° × 1°)</td>
<td>8.44</td>
<td>9.59</td>
<td>11.12</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>95.99%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ (1° × 1°)</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>103.43%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Monthly Means (μ) and Standard Deviations (σ) of Simulated coastDat Wind Speeds at Helgoland (See Figure 5) Derived From One Cell of the 1° × 1° Grid and From One Cell of the 0.25° × 0.25° Grid

Westhinder (m/s) | Sep 2001 | Nov 2001 | Feb 2002 | May 2002 | Deviation |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>μ (1° × 1°)</td>
<td>7.98</td>
<td>8.15</td>
<td>11.90</td>
<td>6.90</td>
<td>101.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>σ (1° × 1°)</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>104.35%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For comparison with the earlier CO2 flux estimates we made the following assumptions:

1. As the earlier flux estimate used 1° × 1° cells on which the ERA40 wind fields were interpolated, in this study the coastDat wind data and the corresponding ΔpCO2 data are also interpolated onto this 1° × 1° field. It could be shown that with the use of these new wind fields the estimate of the net annual CO2 flux increased by 16–34% depending on the choice of the parameterization of the gas transfer velocity. The direct use of the originally higher resolved wind fields increased the estimated flux additionally by only up to 2.7%. For some regions it would be even possible to better resolve the ΔpCO2 data, but in this case many grid cells elsewhere would not show any pCO2 observation (Figure 1), and thus, strong interpolation assumptions would be necessary. To include also near coast or even estuary areas (with assumed substantial deviations from open North Sea ΔpCO2 values), a synoptic combination of open North Sea and coastal observations would be necessary.

2. As the sampling rate of the wind data was relatively high it was not necessary to apply nonlinearity correction coefficients (Jiang et al., 2008).

3. As each cruise (Figure 1) was conducted continuously no apparent diel variations of the ΔpCO2 observations should bias the annual flux estimates.

4. Following the argument by Jiang et al. (2008), the cool skin effect was neglected.

5. To calculate diagnostically the CO2 air-sea flux with different wind data products or different bulk formulas neglects the feedback mechanisms, which dampens overestimations or underestimations of the fluxes by the fact that the seawater stores the carbon and releases or outgasses “erroneously” calculated CO2 afterward. The implementation of these different techniques within a prognostic biogeochemical model would yield less different CO2 fluxes as the feedback mechanisms controlling the ΔpCO2 do not allow unchecked overestimated or underestimated fluxes. Therefore, the given estimated flux differences in this study hold as upper limits discriminating the different techniques and the resulting fluxes.

For most areas the coastDat wind velocities are larger than those of ERA40 (Figure 2). To take this into account, the variability analysis is based on relative standard deviations (σ/μ). While the analysis of the horizontal variability of the two wind fields (on the 1° × 1° grid) show comparable relative standard variations (Table 1), the temporal relative standard deviations (of 6-hourly data) of the more northern ERA40 data are larger than those of the coastDat data, while the southern coastal cells show comparable (relative) variabilities (Table 2).

The strongest impact of the new wind product (coastDat) on CO2 fluxes is detected in coastal areas. It increases there from 0.72 to 1.60 mol C·m⁻²·yr⁻¹. The increase at the open sea is 0.35 mol C·m⁻²·yr⁻¹. According to these numbers, the basin-wide estimate of 1.38 mol C·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ by Thomas et al. (2004) would be replaced by 1.85 mol C·m⁻²·yr⁻¹. Comparisons of the different wind products with coastal observational data clearly reveal the benefit of the coastDat data in such areas. For the open North Sea such comparisons with observations showed that coastDat wind data overestimate the observational data by 5–10%. In most cases the ERA40 data are closer to the observations. Only in May when the mean velocities are lower than in other months the coastDat wind velocities better represent the observations than ERA40 values. This
may allow the conclusion that for the open North Sea both wind products are suitable to calculate annual ASF of CO₂. In strong wind situations (~8 m/s) the ERA40 data offer a small benefit compared to the coastDat data. In coastal regions the coastDat wind data are clearly more suitable to calculate annual air-sea CO₂ fluxes than the ERA40 wind data. Ongoing acidification and ocean surface warming increase the ocean partial pressure of CO₂. This could already be shown by repeated observations in 2005 in the North Sea (Thomas et al., 2007). With our data we tested the relative deviations of annual ASF when applying the different wind fields, reduced ∆pCO₂ values (~10 μatm) and increased surface temperatures (+1 °C). For this “future scenario” the relative difference of the annual air-sea fluxes between the coastDat and the ERA40 wind applications were reduced by 2–3% in comparison to the realistic scenario for 2001/2002. This means that in the future suitable ∆pCO₂ values become more important than the further upgrade of wind data quality.

**References**


