

Interpreting the seasonal cycles of atmospheric oxygen and carbon dioxide concentrations at American Samoa Observatory

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[1] We present seven years of atmospheric O₂/N₂ ratio and CO₂ concentration data measured from flask samples collected at American Samoa. These data are unusual, exhibiting higher short-term variability, and seasonal cycles not in phase with other sampling stations. The unique nature of atmospheric data from Samoa has been noted previously from measurements of CO₂, methyl chloroform, and ozone. With our O₂ data, we observe greater magnitude in the short-term variability, but, in contrast, no clear seasonal pattern to this variability. This we attribute to significant regional sources and sinks existing for O₂ in both hemispheres, and a dependence on both the latitudinal and altitudinal origins of air masses. We also hypothesize that some samples exhibit a component of “older” air, demonstrating recirculation of air within the tropics. Our findings could be used to help constrain atmospheric transport models which are not well characterized in tropical regions. **INDEX TERMS:** 1615 Global Change: Biogeochemical processes (4805); 3319 Meteorology and Atmospheric Dynamics: General circulation; 1610 Global Change: Atmosphere (0315, 0325). **Citation:** Manning, A. C., R. F. Keeling, L. E. Katz, W. J. Paplawsky, and E. M. McEvoy, Interpreting the seasonal cycles of atmospheric oxygen and carbon dioxide concentrations at American Samoa Observatory, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 30(6), 1333, doi:10.1029/2001GL014312, 2003.

1. Introduction

[2] We present O₂/N₂ ratio and CO₂ concentration data from flask samples collected at Cape Matatula, American Samoa (see Figure 1) from June 1993 to January 2001 and discuss unusual features present in these data. The unique climatological conditions at Samoa and their impact on concentrations of atmospheric constituents have been noted previously. Following the wind climatology at Samoa presented by *Bortniak* [1981] and from an analysis of air mass backward trajectories, *Halter et al.* [1988] were able to show that the air arriving at Samoa came from one of three broadly-defined source regions centered on anticyclones named A_{NP}, A_{SP}, and A_{ANZ} (Figure 1), representing the north Pacific tropical anticyclone, the southeast Pacific tropical anticyclone, and the Australia-New Zealand anticyclone respectively.

[3] By analyzing three years of CO₂ data from 1979–1981, *Halter et al.* [1988] demonstrated that the observed Samoa CO₂ seasonal cycle was a superposition of three distinct seasonal cycles originating from each of these three air mass source regions. *Halter et al.* [1988] then showed that the seasonal dependence of the CO₂ variability observed at Samoa arises from an interplay between the seasonally varying interhemispheric gradient in CO₂ concentration, and of the seasonally varying frequency of occurrence of A_{NP} air arriving at Samoa, which is sensitive to the position and strength of the ITCZ and the SPCZ, shown in Figure 1. This interplay results in greater CO₂ variability during austral summer and autumn and accounts for an offset between the timing of the maximum in the interhemispheric gradient and the timing of the maximum variability.

[4] *Prinn et al.* [1992] and *Hartley and Black* [1995] found relatively high short-term variability in methyl chloroform concentrations measured at Samoa during austral summers, but only in non-El Niño years. *Hartley and Black* [1995] showed that these observations could be explained by changes in large-scale atmospheric circulation patterns at Samoa similar to the seasonal changes described by *Halter et al.* [1988] and *Bortniak* [1981]. They demonstrated that the frequency of occurrence of air originating from the A_{NP} anticyclone was significantly reduced during El Niño years, explaining the lack of methyl chloroform variability in these years.

[5] *Harris and Oltmans* [1997] observed variability in tropospheric ozone concentrations at Samoa approximately six months out of phase with the variability in CO₂ described by *Halter et al.* [1988]. They attributed these observations to not to variations in the latitudinal origin of the air masses arriving at Samoa, but to variations in the altitudinal origin which impact the relative strengths of ozone sources and sinks.

[6] For our flask samples, collection, analysis, and calibration gas procedures are described in detail in *Keeling et al.* [1998]. The external imprecision of individual flask analyses is estimated to be ±3.3 per meg and ±0.2 ppm for O₂/N₂ ratios and CO₂ concentrations respectively [*Keeling et al.*, 1998]. Flasks are typically collected in triplicate, resulting in a standard error for a given sample date of ±1.9 per meg in O₂/N₂ ratio and ±0.12 ppm in CO₂ concentration.

2. Seasonal Trends in O₂/N₂ Ratios and CO₂ Concentrations

[7] Similarly to methyl chloroform data [*Hartley and Black*, 1995] our CO₂ data show significantly reduced

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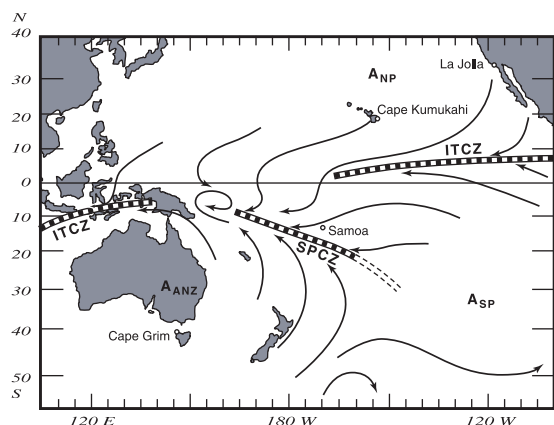


Figure 1. Average surface air circulation patterns in the region of American Samoa (14°S, 171°W), shown for austral summer. This figure is after *Bortniak* [1981] and *Halter et al.* [1988]. Lines labeled ITCZ and SPCZ are the axes of the Intertropical Convergence Zone and the South Pacific Convergence Zone respectively. In austral winter the ITCZ extends further westwards and the SPCZ shifts northwards, resulting in a lower frequency of occurrence of air from the anticyclone, A_{NP} , arriving at Samoa, and a higher frequency of air from anticyclone, A_{ANZ} .

variability during the austral summer of the strong 1997–1998 El Niño, when compared to other years. The figure shows the expected secular increase in CO₂ concentrations and decrease in O₂/N₂ ratios. These trends result from fossil fuel combustion, but are attenuated by net growth of the land biosphere and, in the case of CO₂, oceanic uptake. The CO₂ data in Figure 2b support the conclusion of *Hartley and Black* [1995], showing that during the strong 1997–1998 El Niño, CO₂ variability during the austral summer is significantly reduced compared to other years. Figure 2 shows a small seasonal cycle in CO₂, and a much larger-amplitude cycle in O₂/N₂. Seasonal variability in CO₂ is generally attributed to seasonality in photosynthesis and respiration processes on land. In the case of Samoa the seasonal cycle can also be influenced by long-range atmospheric transport as discussed below. Seasonality in atmospheric O₂/N₂ is generally caused by seasonality in photosynthesis and respiration of both land and marine biota and thus exhibits a much greater amplitude than CO₂ at Samoa.

[8] The unusual seasonality observed at Samoa is illustrated in Figure 3, which shows the four-harmonic seasonal component of the O₂/N₂ and CO₂ curve fits in Figure 2. In Figure 3a the maximum O₂/N₂ ratio at Samoa occurs in April, approximately two months later than the maximum at Cape Grim. The minimum O₂/N₂ ratio at Samoa occurs in late August or early September, a few weeks earlier than Cape Grim. There is some evidence of a weak second maximum in late December at Samoa. CO₂ data in Figure 3b show an even larger contrast to typical southern hemisphere patterns. Maximum CO₂ at Samoa occurs in February in contrast to September for Cape Grim, whereas the minimum occurs in May at Samoa and April at Cape Grim. CO₂ also exhibits a clearer second maxima and minima at Samoa. The La Jolla curves show that Samoa O₂/N₂ ratios

and CO₂ concentrations are also not in phase with northern hemisphere cycles.

3. Land and Ocean Partitioning of Air Mass Influences at Samoa

[9] With our O₂/N₂ ratio measurements, to a good approximation, we are able to distinguish between land and ocean processes affecting the air masses arriving at Samoa. We do this by defining a tracer, Atmospheric Potential Oxygen (APO), defined in *Stephens et al.* [1998]. Variations in APO on seasonal and shorter time-scales can only be caused by air-sea exchanges of O₂, N₂, and CO₂ [*Stephens et al.*, 1998]. In contrast to APO, variations in CO₂ on these time-scales are mainly caused by land biotic exchanges, and not by the oceans owing to chemical buffering of CO₂ changes in the oceans.

[10] In Figure 4 we show plots of APO and CO₂ concentrations representing oceanic and land influences respectively. The symbols on each plot show all flask samples collected at Samoa where all samples have been collapsed into one calendar year. All data and curves in Figure 4 have been interannually detrended by removing the interannual spline component of the Cape Grim curve fit.

[11] Samoa CO₂ data in Figure 4b agree very well with the earlier, shorter record presented by *Halter et al.* [1988], showing greater variability in the austral summer and autumn. An additional feature, however, emerges from

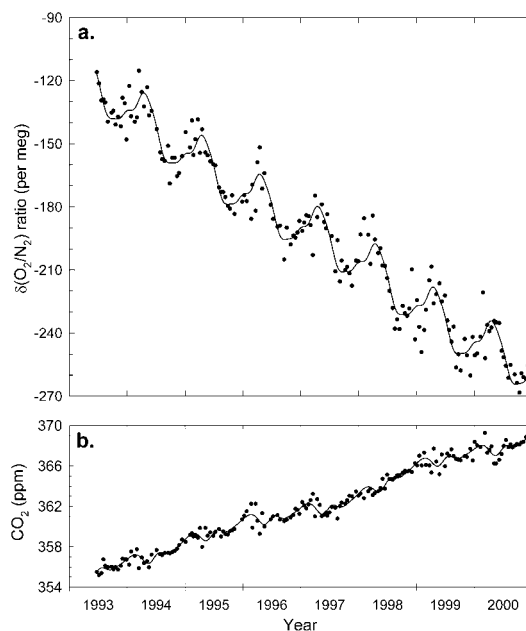


Figure 2. O₂/N₂ ratios (a) and CO₂ concentrations (b) measured from flask samples collected at Cape Matatula, American Samoa. The y axes of plots a and b have been scaled so that changes in O₂ and CO₂ can be compared visually on a mole to mole basis (and also for Figures 3, 4, and 5). 1 per meg is equivalent to 0.001 per mil. For comparison purposes, a change in O₂/N₂ ratio of 4.8 per meg corresponds to a change of 1 ppm in CO₂. Curve fits are least squares fits to the sum of a four harmonic seasonal cycle and a stiff spline.

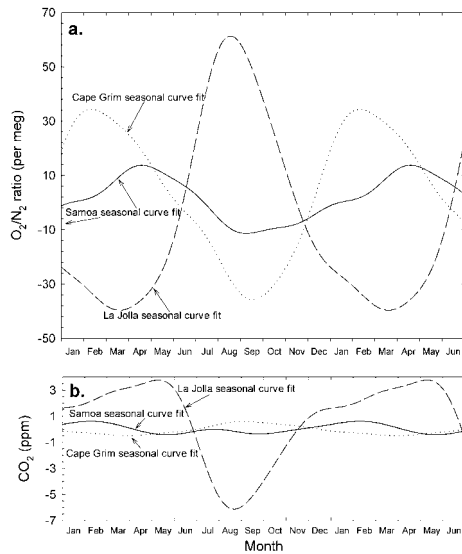


Figure 3. Four-harmonic seasonal components of the curve fits in Figure 2, showing O₂/N₂ ratios (a) and CO₂ concentrations (b). The curves shown are the average seasonal cycles calculated from all data over the 7.5 year record. Also shown for comparison are similar seasonal curve fits calculated from data collected at our sampling stations at Cape Grim, Tasmania, and La Jolla, California (labeled in Figure 1), which we assume are broadly representative of mid-latitudes of the southern and northern hemisphere respectively.

Figure 4b which was not discussed by *Halter et al.* [1988]. For the period from August to October, Samoa CO₂ data exhibit persistently higher concentrations than present in air masses either to the north or to the south (represented by curve fits to Cape Kumukahi and Cape Grim data respectively). A similar feature is seen in the APO data during May and June. A simple explanation for these features is that the air at Samoa includes a component not recently originating from the north or south, but from the tropics at some point in the past. Simulations of the seasonal cycles in APO with extra-tropical sources in an atmospheric tracer transport model account well for the phasing of the APO seasonal cycle at Samoa, as well as in stations to the north and south, showing that the APO cycle can be simply accounted for based on the finite time scale for transport from higher latitudes into the tropics and the finite residence time of air within the tropics [*Garcia and Keeling, 2001*].

[12] In Figures 5a to 5d we analyze the monthly variability in APO and CO₂ data and compare these monthly values to the monthly values of the absolute north-south interhemispheric gradient in APO and CO₂. Our Samoa CO₂ data (Figures 5c and 5d) show that the minimum variance in CO₂ is roughly synchronous with the time of minimum CO₂ gradient (July–November), whereas the time of maximum CO₂ variance (March–April) is offset from the time of maximum CO₂ gradient (April–May), both features being consistent with the findings of *Halter et al.* [1988], as discussed earlier. Both features can be explained assuming the CO₂ variability is tied to the interhemispheric gradient in CO₂, with the gradient exhibiting greater or

lesser influence depending on the frequency of occurrence of the A_{NP} air mass.

[13] A corresponding comparison of variance and gradients in APO is complicated (Figures 5a and 5b), however, because APO variance at Samoa has less clear seasonality. The only pronounced feature is the minimum in variance during May–June, which is roughly synchronous with one (of two) minima in the APO gradient. The other minimum in the APO gradient (November–December) is not aligned with a clear minimum in variance. The difference is most likely explained by seasonal variations in the homogeneity of southern hemisphere air masses. In particular, the southern hemisphere is likely to be less homogenous in APO during the November–December period due to strong sources of atmospheric O₂ associated with marine biological production. These strong sources lead to the steep seasonal rise observed in APO at Cape Grim at this time of year, which can be contrasted with the more gradual decrease later in the season [*Bender et al., 1996*]. This interpretation is also consistent with the fact that the variability at Cape Grim also shows an apparently clear minimum during the May–June period, as shown also in Figure 5a. The results thus suggest that much of the APO variability at Samoa is tied to inhomogeneities in air masses within the southern hemisphere as opposed to inhomogeneities between the northern and southern hemispheres, as is evidently the case for CO₂.

[14] A further indication of the role played by southern hemisphere air mass inhomogeneities can be seen in the contrasting variability in CO₂ and APO at Cape Grim. Whereas the APO variability at Cape Grim is similar to that at Samoa throughout the year, the CO₂ variability at

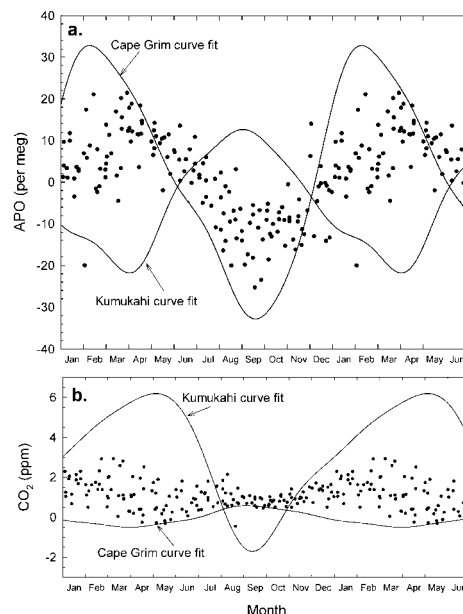


Figure 4. Oceanic (a) and land biotic (b) influences on the air masses arriving at Samoa. The seasonal component of all Samoa flask samples are shown, as well as seasonal curve fits from Cape Grim, Tasmania, and Cape Kumukahi, Hawaii, representing the nearest stations from which we have data in the southern and northern hemisphere respectively.

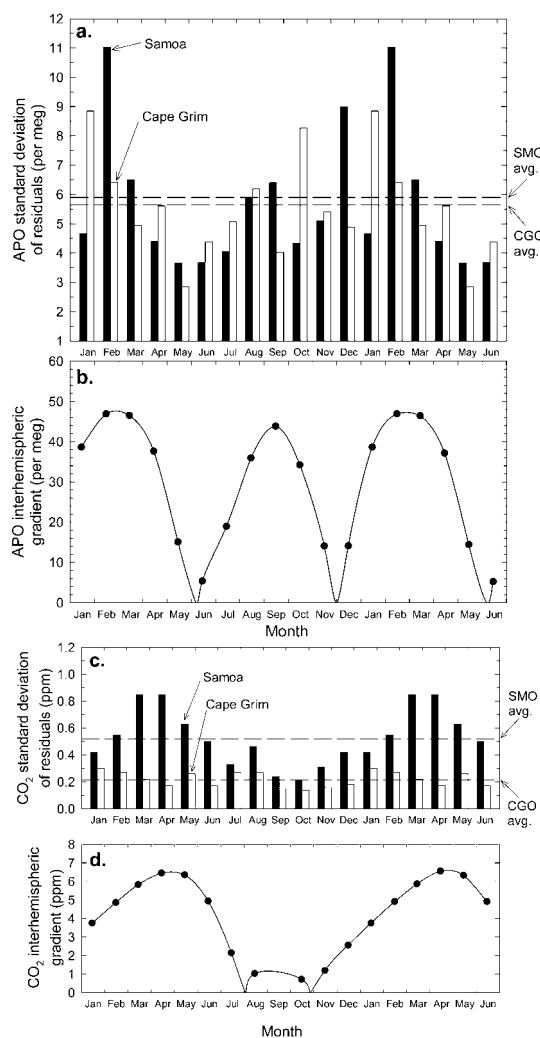


Figure 5. APO (a) and CO₂ (c) monthly standard deviations of the residuals of flask data from curve fits for Samoa and Cape Grim. The annual average residual at each station is shown by horizontal dashed lines. To provide a comparison with Samoa, Cape Grim monthly variabilities are also calculated. (b) and (d) show the absolute magnitude of the north-south interhemispheric gradient for APO and CO₂ respectively, calculated each month, and using Cape Grim and Cape Kumukahi data as representative of the southern and northern hemisphere respectively.

Cape Grim is consistently less than that at Samoa, and does not show the seasonality observed at Samoa. The lack of strong sources of CO₂ at higher southern latitudes allows CO₂ to become homogenized so that variations in air mass origin within the southern hemisphere have much less impact on CO₂ variability than APO variability. In addition,

the backward wind trajectory analyses of *Harris and Oltmans* [1997] showed that air masses originating from the southern hemispheric A_{ANZ} anticyclone arriving at Samoa were more variable in their originating altitude than air masses arriving from A_{NP} or A_{SP}. Because the source and sink mechanisms for APO occur via air-sea gas exchange at the sea surface, this altitudinal variability in air mass origin will contribute further to the variability observed in the APO signal.

[15] In summary, APO seasonal variability at Samoa is a function of the interhemispheric gradient, the frequency of occurrence of air masses originating from the northern hemisphere, and of the strength of O₂ exchange and mixing within the southern hemisphere. Of these three effects it is the latter which accounts for the difference in the patterns of variability in APO versus CO₂. These contrasting findings of APO and CO₂ could be used to better constrain atmospheric transport models which are not well characterized in tropical regions.

[16] **Acknowledgments.** We thank the dedicated NOAA/CMDL staff who collected our flask samples at Cape Matatula. The paper was improved by the helpful comments of two anonymous reviewers. This work was supported by the National Science Foundation under ATM-872037, ATM-9309765, ATM-9612518, and ATM-0000923; by the Environmental Protection Agency under IAG#DW49935603-01-2; and by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration under NA77RJ0453.

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