1   **Aragonite saturation states and pH in western Norway fjords:**
2   **seasonal cycles and controlling factors, 2005-2009**

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8   **Abstract:**

9   The uptake of anthropogenic CO_2 by the ocean leads to a process known as ocean

10   acidification (OA) which lowers aragonite saturation state (Ω_{Ar}) and pH, and this is poorly

11   documented in coastal environments including fjords due to lack of appropriate observations.

12   Here we use weekly underway data from Voluntary Observing Ships (VOS) covering the

13   period 2005-2009 combined with data from research cruises to estimate Ω_{Ar} and pH values in

14   several adjacent western Norwegian fjords, and to evaluate how seawater CO_2 chemistry

15   drives their variations in response to physical and biological factors.

16   The OA parameters in the surface waters of the fjords are characterized by strong seasonal

17   and spatially coherent variations. These changes are governed by the seasonal changes in

18   temperature, salinity, formation and decay of organic matter, and vertical mixing with deeper,

19   carbon rich coastal water. Annual mean pH and Ω_{Ar} values were 8.13 and 2.21, respectively.

20   The former varies from minimum values ($\approx$8.05) in late December - early January to

21   maximum values of around 8.2 during early spring (March-April) as a consequence of the

22   phytoplankton spring bloom, which reduces Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC). In the

23   following months, pH decreases in response to warming. This thermodynamic decrease in pH

24   is reinforced by the deepening of the mixed layer, which brings up carbon rich coastal water

25   to the surface, and this trend continues until the low winter values are reached again. Ω_{Ar}, on

26   the other hand, reaches its seasonal maximum (>2.5) in mid to late summer (July -Sept), when

27   the spring bloom is over and pH is decreasing. The lowest Ω_{Ar} values ($\approx$1.3-1.6) occur during

28   winter (Jan-Mar), when both pH and Sea Surface Temperature (SST) are low and DIC is

29   highest. Consequently, seasonal Ω_{Ar} variations align with those of SST and salinity

30   normalized DIC.

31   We demonstrate that underway measurements of fugacity of CO_2 in seawater (fCO$_2$), SST,

32   and SSS from VOS lines combined with high frequency observations of the complete

33 carbonate system at strategically placed fixed stations provide an approach to interpolate OA

34 parameters over large areas in the fjords of western Norway.

1. Introduction:

36 The continued emissions of carbon dioxide (CO_2) (Peters et al., 2013) are of global concern,

37 not only because they are the main drivers of anthropogenic global warming, but also because

38 of the changes in the ocean chemistry they incur (Ciais et al., 2013). The increase in the

39 atmospheric CO_2 concentration drives a net ocean CO_2 uptake, which leads to higher proton

40 (H^+) concentration i.e. lower pH, lower concentration of carbonate ion (CO_3^{2-}) and, lower

41 saturation state (Ω) for calcium carbonate in seawater. This process is known as ocean

42 acidification (OA) (e.g. Royal Society, 2005), and it has direct and indirect effects on

43 biological activity in the ocean (e.g. Gattuso and Hansson, 2011) including reported inhibition

44 of biogenic calcification by marine organisms which precipitate 0.5–2.0 Gt of carbon as

45 calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$) in the global ocean every year (Bach, 2015).

46 For the open ocean, the rate of OA has been relatively well documented and understood

47 during the last decade. Observations from time series stations and volunteer observing ships

48 in different oceanic regions consistently show systematic changes in surface ocean chemistry

49 that result from OA. Specifically, long-term negative trends of pH and saturation state for

50 aragonite (Ω_{Ar}) have been observed (e.g. Lauvset et al., 2015; Bates et al., 2014).

51 For coastal regions observed rates of pH change largely differ from those expected from

52 oceanic CO_2 uptake alone, as variations in other biogeochemical processes, related for

53 example to changes in nutrient loading and eutrophication, are important as well (Clargo et al.

54 2015; Provoost et al., 2010; Wootton et al., 2008).

55 The Norwegian west coast (Fig. 1) is dominated by fjords, narrow and deep estuaries, carved

56 by glacial processes, with a sill in the mouth where they connect to the coastal North Sea.

57 Apart from being important recreation areas and marine pathways, these fjords are important

58 ecosystems and their physics, marine life, and associated environmental pressures have been

59 relatively well studied (e.g. Matthews and Sands, 1973; Erga and Heimdal, 1984; Asplin et

60 al., 2013; Brattegard et al., 2011; Stigebrandt, 2012; and references therein).

61 However, only a few studies on the carbon cycle of Norwegian fjords exist in the literature.

62 This hampers our understanding of the natural variability and controls of seawater carbonate

63 chemistry, which is prerequisite for sound estimates of OA in these ecosystems. Generally, in

the Northern Hemisphere, high latitudes coastal regions are thought to be sinks for

atmospheric CO_2, while low-latitude regions are thought to be sources (Borges et al., 2005;

Cai et al., 2006; Chavez et al., 2007; Chen and Borges, 2009). The few existing studies of

Norwegian fjords confirm the above picture; they act as an annual net sink for atmospheric

CO_2 (Fransson et al., 2014; Omar et al., 2005).

The carbon cycle of the northern North Sea, to which the western Norway fjords are

connected, has been well studied (Thomas et al., 2004; 2005; 2007; 2008; Bozec et al., 2005;

2006; Omar et al., 2010). However, observation-based OA estimates are still scarce. Recently,

Clargo et al. (2015) observed a rapid pH decrease in the North Sea, but after accounting for

biological processes, they estimated an ocean acidification rate consistent with concurrent

atmospheric and open ocean CO_2 increases over the period they studied, 2001-2011.

OA (and generally the carbon cycle) in fjords in western Norway has not been described

previously. Filling this knowledge gap is important because the fjords are important spawning

grounds for different fish species (Salvanes and Noreide, 1993; Johannessen et al., 2014),

productions sites for pelagic calcifiers (Berge, 1962; Erga and Heimdal, 1984; Frette et al.,

2004), the home for some coral reefs (e. g. Fosså et al., 2002), and significant food sources

due to the aquaculture industry which operates there.

In this study, we present estimates of OA parameters in the surface waters of several adjacent

western Norway fjords (Fig. 1), based mainly on weekly underway data from Voluntary

Observing Ships (VOS) covering the period 2005-2009. We combine the underway data with

available station data from research cruises to facilitate a complete description of the seawater

CO_2 chemistry in accordance with the recommendations of OA core principles by

McLaughlin et al. (2015). We focus on analyses of Ω_{Ar} and pH values and evaluate their

variations in response to the physical and biological factors: summer warming and

stratification, spring phytoplankton bloom, and deep mixing during fall and winter. First we

present mean distribution across the different fjords (Korsfjord-Langenuen-Hardangerfjord) to

understand the spatiotemporal patterns, then we collapse all data into a monthly time series to

analyze the seasonal controls and resolve any interannual or multiyear temporal patterns.

1.1 The study area

The study area covers, from North to South, the interconnected Raunefjord (centered around

60.27°N; 5.17°E), the Korsfjord (centered around 60.17°N; 5.21°E), Langenuen, and southern

parts of the Hardangerfjord , which are all situated at the western coast of mainland Norway

96   (Fig. 1). The area stretches over some 60 km, but the main focus here will be on the area from

97   the Korsfjord to the Hardangerfjord from which the vast majority of the data has been

98   acquired.

99   The bathymetry and hydrographic conditions of the fjords have been described elsewhere

100 (Helle, 1978; Mathew and Sands, 1973; Bakke and Sands, 1977; Erga and Heimdal, 1984;

101 Asplin et al., 2014). In the following only a brief account, based on the above studies, is

102 given.

103 The Korsfjord is 690 m deep in its main basin and situated about 25 km south of the

104 Norway's second largest city, Bergen. To the west it is relatively well connected to the open

105 coastal ocean of the northern North Sea through a 250 m deep sill at Marsteinen. To the north

106 it connects with the Raunefjord through the 100 m deep strait Lerøysundet - between the

107 islands Sotra and Lerøy. At the eastern end it branches into the smaller and shallower fjords

108 Lysefjord and Fanafjord. To the southwest it connects with the open coast through the

109 Selbjørnsfjord, witch has a sill depth of 180 m at Selbjørn. To the south it connects to the

110 Hardangerfjord through the 25 km long and 300 m deep strait Langenuen.

111 The Hardangerfjord is a 179 km long fjord ranking as the fourth longest fjord in the world. It

112 stretches from the coastal open ocean in the southwest to the mountainous interior of Norway.

113 Our study includes the southern parts of the fjord. This is bounded by the larger islands Stord

114 and Tysnesøya in the north, the Haugaland peninsula in the south, and the smaller islands

115 Fjellbergøya and Halsnøya on the south/east side. This part of the fjord is over 300 m deep in

116 its basin (around 59.76N; 5.55E) and connects with the smaller fjords Ålfjord and Bjoafjord

117 in the south.

118 In the fjord system run-off from land mix with salty water originating from the northward

119 flowing Norwegian Coastal Current (NCC, to produce a typically salinity stratified water

120 column with a complex circulation, forced both by external and internal factors. In particular,

121 the coastal wind have a profound influence on the circulation of western Norwegian fjords

122 producing episodic renewal of the deep water that follows periods of prolonged northerly

123 winds (Svendsen, 1981; Erga and Heimdal, 1984).

124   Besides wind, the hydrography of the fjords is also influenced by winter cooling, summer

125 warming, snow melt and run-off. Thus, on seasonal time scales, the fjords are generally

126 salinity stratified during spring-summer and more homogenous during winter. Additionally,

127 Asplin et al. (2014) reported regular episodes of water exchange between Hardangerfjord and

128 the NCC that homogenized the upper 50 m of the fjord by mixing with coastal water. During

129   these events the temperature inside the Hardangerfjord regularly becomes identical with that

130   of the coastal open ocean (Asplin et al., 2014).

131   The water exchange with the NCC is important for the fjord ecosystems as it supplies

132   nutrients and oxygen (Aure and Stigebrandt, 1989). In response, the fjords enhance their

133   primary production which enables them to host rich and diverse marine life (Erga and

134   Heimdal, 1984; Erga, 1989; Salvanes and Noreide, 1993).

135   Erga and Heimdal (1984) studied the dynamics of the spring bloom in the Korsfjord and

136   estimated a total primary production of 74 g C m^{-2} during the period February – June.

137   Further, they reported light regime and water column stability to be decisive for the onset of

138   the bloom. They also pointed out that changes in the alongshore wind component are

139   important for the bloom dynamics, with persistent northerly winds inducing upwelling of

140   nutrient rich coastal water that promotes blooming while the opposite situation follows

141   persistent southerly winds. During calm periods strong stratification develops, which can

142   ultimately lead to nutrient exhaustion in the water column.

143   The study area with its adjacent waters is ecologically and economically important because it

144   covers spawning grounds for a number of different fish species (Lie et al., 1978; Johannessen

145   et al., 2014). Additionally, the largest concentration of coral reefs in western Norway is found

146   in the Langenuen strait (Fosså, 2015).

147   **2. Data and methods**

148   2.1 **Weekly underway VOS data**

149   Weekly underway measurements of of fugacity of CO2 in seawater (fCO$_2$) and SST were

150   obtained aboard the containership MS Trans Carrier (operated by Seatrans AS, Norway,

151   www.seatrans.no). During the study period, the ship sailed from Bergen to ports in

152   southwestern Norway on a weekly basis. It passed through several fjords including the

153   Korsfjord and the Hardangerfjord (Fig. 1). It then crossed the North Sea mostly along a

154   transect roughly at 5°E longitude to Amsterdam, Netherlands, and then back on the same

155   route (Omar et al., 2010). The measurement method used aboard MS Trans Carrier was

156   described in Omar et al. (2010). The instrument recorded one fCO$_2$ and SST measurement

157   about every three minutes and automatically shut off when the ship approached ports in

158   Bergen (20-30 km from port ≈60.2°N) and Amsterdam, in order to protect the inlet filter from

159   potentially polluted seawater. Between February and December 2006 the VOS line was

160   serviced by a sister ship, MS Norcliff, which was equipped with the same measurement

161   system in that period.

162   Underway data acquired between 59.74°N – 60.16°N and 5.17°E – 5.58°E (The Korsfjord,

163   Langenuen, and southern parts of the Hardangerfjord) from September 2005 to September

164   2009 are used for the current analyses. This dataset will be referred to as the UW (e.g. UW

165   fCO$_2$ and UW SST) which stands for underway. The UW data from the years 2005, 2006, and

166   2007 are available from the SOCAT database (http://www.socat.info/).

2.2 Cruise and fixed station data

168   We augment the VOS data with station data acquired during scientific cruises in the study

169   area in the period 2007-2010 and in 2015, and during regular visits (1-4 times per month) to a

170   fixed station in the Raunefjord in 2007 and 2008. Table 1 summarizes details of these three

171   datasets, which will be referred to as the CS, 2015 and RF datasets, respectively.

172   Five of the cruises were conducted in the Korsfjord and the Raunefjord (Fig. 1, Table 1)

173   onboard RV Hans Brattstrøm as part of the EU FP7 educational project CarboSchools (CS) in

174   2007-2010. The CS dataset covers mainly the spring and summer seasons reflecting the

175   somewhat opportunistic nature of the sampling campaign. The 2015 cruise took place during

176   fall (September 24) as part of the Ocean Acidification project funded by the Norwegian

177   Environment Agency, and measurements were taken at three stations in the Korsfjord,

178   Langenuen and southern Hardangerfjord (Fig.1, red squares).

179   During each of the above cruises water samples were collected for analyses of parameters

180   including DIC, total alkalinity (TA), salinity and temperature at 1-2 stations. The DIC

181   concentrations were determined by the coulometric method (e.g. Johnson et al., 1993) with a

182   precision of ± 1 µmol kg^{-1}. TA was measured by potentiometric titration with strong acid

183   (HCl), and a precision of ± 2 µmol kg^{-1}. Accuracy was checked by using Certified Reference

184   Material supplied by A. Dickson (SIO). Only surface data (depth<=4m) from within the

185   geographical rectangle 59.74-60.34°N and 5.17-5.55°E were used in the current study.

186   The Department of Biology, UoB has acquired CTD (SAIV) data from a fixed station in

187   Raunefjord (RF) during 27 days in 2007 and 35 days in 2008 as part of a monitoring program

188   close to the Marine Biological field Station at Espegrend.

2.3 In situ pH sensor data

190 In January 2012 we carried out an evaluation of two pH sensors of the type Submersible

191 Autonomous Moored Instruments (SAMI_pH, second generation) at the Marine Biological

192 field Station at the eastern shore of the Raunefjord. The sensors were suspended from a

193 wooden frame attached to the floating docks around a raft-house in the fjord –some hundred

194 meters from land. The instruments were submersed at about one meter depth in the fjord and

195 were left for 50 hours starting 24.01.2012 10:00 GMT, recording one measurement each hour.

196 A full description of the measurement method for these instruments is found at

197 http://www.sunburstsensors.com/. In addition to pH, these instruments also recorded the

198 seawater temperature. During the test, salinity was also recorded using a Seaguard RCM from

199 Aanderaa Data Instruments. These sensor data were used to assess the uncertainty in our

200 estimated pH values.

201 **2.4 Methods**

202 2.4.1 Complete seawater CO_2 chemistry from SST and fCO_2

203 A complete description of the seawater CO_2 chemistry from the UW SST and UW fCO_2 data

204 collected onboard MS Trans Carrier has been obtained through a 3-step procedure. This is

205 similar to the procedure described in Nondal et al. (2009) with the main modification being

206 that in the current study, sea surface salinity (SSS) was determined from empirical

207 relationship.

208 First, the RF dataset has been used to determine the regional SSS versus SST relationship.

209 The RF data was chosen for this purpose because it covered all seasons well, both in 2007 and

210 2008. The identified regional SSS-SST relationship allowed us to estimate a SSS value for

211 each UW SST observation from MS Trans Carrier. This step was necessary because the total

212 number of measured SSS values were less than 150 data points, while the available underway

213 SST and fCO_2 data were much more numerous (> 9900 data points), covering most of the

214 study area during the years 2005-2009. The remaining SST and SSS data (CS, and from

215 sensors) were used for evaluation to verify that SST-SSS relationship is valid for the whole

216 study area (section 3.1). Salinity values estimated from SST will be denoted as SSS(sst).

217 Second, we determined TA from SSS(sst) and SST using an algorithm we identified for the

218 region using the CS dataset. This allows us to estimate a corresponding alkalinity value for

219 each UW fCO_2 observation obtained from MS Trans Carrier. Alkalinity values estimated from

220   measured SSS and SST data will be denoted as TA(sss), whereas TA values estimated from

221   SSS(sst) and SST values will be denoted as TA(sst).

222   The UW fCO_2 together with TA (sst) and other ancillary parameters were then used to

223   characterize the full seawater CO_2 chemistry using CO2SYS (Lewis and Wallace, 1998; van

224   Heuven et al., 2011), with K1 and K2 constants from Lueker et al. (2000). The CO2SYS

225   calculation also gives DIC, pH, Ω_{Ar} and all other seawater CO_2 chemistry variables. The data

226   estimated using this three stage procedure will be denoted pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}(sst) and are the

227   main focus of this study.

228   pH and Ω_{Ar} values based on TA(sss) and fCO_2 will be denoted as pH(sss) and Ω_{Ar}(sss),

229   whereas values that are either measured or computed from measured TA and DIC will be

230   denoted as simply pH and Ω_{Ar}. An overview of the symbols used for estimated and derived

231   quantities used in this study is given in Table 2.

232   **3. Results and discussion**

233   **3.1 Correlations and validations**

234   The regional SST-SSS relationship obtained from the RF dataset is given by Eq. 1 and is

235   depicted in Fig. 2a (filled symbols). Despite a clear covariation between SST and SSS, there

236   is a lot of scatter in data and the statistics of the regression equation is not particularly strong

237   (Eq. 1). The observed correlation most probably arises from the annual cycles; during summer

238   the study area embodies warm water diluted by runoff, whereas during winter the surface

239   water is colder and saltier due to little or no runoff. The magnitude of these annual variations

240   varies with time and space and this is reflected by the high scatter in the relationship.

241   Consequently, the identified regression model is able to explain only 27% of the salinity

242   variations. Nonetheless, the independent station and sensor data (dots, squares, and stars),

243   which have been acquired from the whole study area, fits well into the relationship described

244   by Eq.1 with an RMS of 0.81 psu. Thus, these data confirm that Eq. 1 indeed is representative

245   for the whole region.

246    $$SSS = -0.142 SST + 31.09 \text{, for SSS>29; } R^2 = 0.27; n = 61; rms = 1.2 \text{ psu.} \tag{1}$$

247   As a further verification of the spatial representativeness of the RF SST dataset, we compared

248   it with the chronologically co-located UW SST that have been acquired onboard Trans Carrier

249   in the whole study area. The two datasets are found to be almost identical (Fig. 2b).

250 The relationship between TA, SSS and SST is given by Eq. 2 according to:

251

252 $TA = 30.84 SSS - 4.689 SST + 3625.4$, R^2=0.91; n=25; rms=13.0 µmolkg^{-1}.   (2)

253

254 Alkalinity is a semi-conservative parameter and is normally modelled as linear functions of

255 salinity (e.g. Millero et al., 1998; Bellerby et al., 2005; Nondal et al, 2009). However,

256 including SST as a second fit parameter improved the regression statics considerably. This is

257 probably because SST functions as indicator of the effect of nutrient cycling on TA in

258 agreement to what has been reported for the open Atlantic Ocean (Lee et al, 2006).

259 In order to assess the error introduced in pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}(sst) we compared them withvalues

260 based on the cruise and sensor data i.e. pH(sss) or pH and Ω_{Ar}(sss). First, we computed

261 pH(sss) and Ω_{Ar}(sss) by combining all available measured SSS, estimated TA(sss) from Eq. 2,

262 and co-located UW SST and UW fCO$_2$. Then we repeated the calculation, but this time we

263 replaced the measured SSS with estimated SSS(sst) from Eq. 1 to compute pH(sst) and

264 Ω_{Ar}(sst). The very strong linear relationships between the resulting values in Figs. 2c and 2d

265 (circles) confirms that the estimated pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}(sst) reproduce very well the

266 measurement-based values of pH(sss) and Ω_{Ar}(sss) for the whole study area.

267 To quantify the total error associated with the pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}(sst) estimates, we considered

268 two main sources for error. First we computed the residuals (estimated – measurement-based)

269 using the data show in Figs. 2c and 2d. The mean difference for the whole study area was

270 0.0018 +/- 0.0043 and 0.0048 +/- 0.0777 for pH and Ω_{Ar}, respectively. Thus, the maximum

271 probable error from this source is 0.0061and 0.083 for pH and Ω_{Ar}, respectively. Additionally,

272 we estimated that the computed and/or measured pH values included an error of 0.007 pH

273 units, which under the current conditions (mean TA, fCO$_2$, SST, and SSS) would give an error

274 of 0.038 in Ω_{Ar}. These two error estimates were propagated to determine the total error in our

275 estimates, which were found to be ±0.0093 and ±0.091 for pH and Ω_{Ar}, respectively. These

276 error estimates are well within maximum target uncertainties developed by the Global Ocean

277 Acidification Network (GOA-ON) and the California Current Acidification Network (C-

278 CAN) of ±0.2 for Ω_{Ar}, which is indicative for maximum uncertainty of ±0.02 in pH

279 (McLaughlin et al., 2015).

280 **3.2 Spatiotemporal variations**

281   Fig. 2 shows the data collapsed into one virtual year to present the mean distribution across

282   the different fjords and throughout the annual cycle. There is a clear seasonality in both

283   pH(sst) and Ω_{ar} (sst) (Fig. 3). The former varies between minimum values ($\approx$8.05) around

284   New Year to the maximum values of around 8.2, which occur during the late winter and/or

285   spring (March-April). This increase is due to the reduction of DIC (Fig. 3d), induced by the

286   phytoplankton spring bloom. This clearly outweighs the negative effect on pH of warming the

287   water column during this period. However, during April/May, the latter processes begins to

288   dominate and pH(sst) starts decreasing. By September SSTs starts decreasing, while pH

289   continues to drop. This is due to the effect of the fall mixing, which brings up carbon rich

290   coastal water to the surface, as mentioned in section 1, and as reflected by the increasing DIC

291   during this period (Fig. 3d).

292   The mean distribution of Ω_{Ar}(sst) also shows a significant seasonal variation. There are three

293   factors that drive this: (i) reduced concentrations of DIC by the spring bloom drives up the

294   concentration of the carbonate ion, (ii) Ω_{Ar}(sst) increases with rising temperature so that

295   warming during the summer actually reinforces the increase of Ω_{Ar} initiated by biological

296   carbon uptake, and (iii) reduced TA due to runoffs also reinforces the Ω_{Ar}(sst) increase. Thus,

297   Ω_{Ar}(sst) reaches its maximum (>2.5) in July-September, when the spring bloom is over and

298   pH has already started decreasing (Fig. 3a, c). The lowest Ω_{Ar}(sst) values ($\approx$1.3-1.6), on the

299   other hand, occur during winter (January-March) when both pH and SST are low, and TA is

300   high. The mismatch in the seasonal cycles of pH and Ω_{Ar} clearly supports the case that pH

301   alone is not an adequate measure of ocean acidification, in accordance with the C-CAN

302   recommendation that "measurements should facilitate determination of Ω_{Ar} and a complete

303   description of the carbonate system, including pH and pCO$_2$" (McLaughlin et al., 2015).

304   The above described seasonal variations in pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}(sst) are spatially more or less

305   coherent within the whole study area, except for the slight south-north gradient during May-

306   September, with highest values south of 60°N (see Fig. 3a,c). All in all, during summertime

307   the study area embody warm surface water with high Ω_{Ar}(sst) and intermediate pH(sst)

308   values. During winter, the surface water is cold with low Ω_{Ar}(sst) and pH(sst) values.

309   **3.3 Controls of seasonal variability and trends**

310   To investigate the seasonal variability more thoroughly, we arranged the data into monthly

311   averages of pH(sst), SST, Ω_{Ar} (sst), and nDIC(sst) for one composite year. Then we

312   quantified the effect of DIC, TA, SST and SSS on the monthly changes of pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}

313   (sst) in order to gain more insight into the processes governing the seasonal variations and

314   their relative importance.

315   For pH(sst) we used the decomposition method described in (Lauvset et al., 2015) to quantify

316   the importance of different parameters. The results are shown on Fig. 4 (left panels) where it

317   can be seen that DIC is the most important driver followed by SST and TA (Fig. 4), whereas

318   SSS had a negligible effect (not shown) on the seasonal pH variations. We also note that the

319   effects of SST and TA combined are nearly equal to, but opposite to that of DIC (Fig. 5c,d,e).

320   As a result, the sum of all effects is <0.06 pH units, and compares well to the observed

321   amplitudes (Fig. 5a), meaning that the decomposition model is able to account for the

322   observed seasonal changes. Note also the TA control is identical to that of SST (Fig. 5c,e).

323   The reason for this is that TA values used here are obtained from SSS(sst) and SST using Eq.

324   2, which in effect means that they are based on SST. This emphasizes the need for measured

325   SSS and TA values.

326   For Ω_{Ar}(sst) we investigated the importance of different drivers by letting one of the drivers

327   (DIC, TA, SST, SSS) to vary over its observed range, while holding all other drivers constant,

328   and re-computing Ω_{Ar}(sst). The magnitude of the standard deviation of the results is indicative

329   for the importance of the varying driver. The result of this exercise is shown on Fig. 4(right

330   panels). Evidently, the variations of SST and SSS are the least important drivers for Ω_{Ar}(sst)

331   seasonal changes, since varying these parameters induce changes that are about an order of

332   magnitude less than the observed seasonal amplitude in Ω_{Ar}(sst). On the hand, changing DIC

333   and TA (Fig. 4h,i) induce changes that are comparable to the seasonal amplitude observed in

334   Ω_{Ar}(sst) (Fig. 4a). We therefore, conclude that DIC is the most important driver for Ω_{Ar}(sst)

335   followed by TA.

336   From the above we conclude that the main drivers of Ω_{Ar}(sst) are DIC and TA, whereas for

337   pH(sst), SST also have a significant impact . In terms of processes, this means that the

338   formation and destruction of organic matter together with upwelling of carbon rich coastal

339   water, seasonal warming and cooling, and runoff, are the processes that govern most of the

340   seasonal variability of OA parameters within the study area. It then follows that interannual

341   variability in the above processes would lead to corresponding variations in pH(sst) and

342   Ω_{Ar}(sst). Such interannual changes are evident from the monthly time series (Fig. S1), where

343   the rate of seasonal changes differs between the years, both for SST and nDIC. Additionally,

344   for SST, the extreme values also change between years. These changes are in turn reflected in

345   the pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}(sst). However, the year-to-year differences were not systematic, and no

346   multiyear temporal trend was apparent from the time series.

3.4 Inference of OA parameters from VOS underway data

348   Changes in the oceanic CO_2-system variables are related through ratios called Buffer Factors.

349   Specifically, changes in Ω_{Ar} and pH in response to CO_2 variations can be quantified by partial

350   derivatives (γ_{DIC}, β_{DIC}, and ω_{DIC}), which have been defined by Egleston et al. (2010, their

351   table 1), and the slope of these relationships can be expressed mathematically by:

$$\partial \ln \Omega / \partial \ln CO2 = \gamma_{DIC} / \omega_{DIC} = \frac{DIC - Alk_C^2 / S}{DIC - Alk_C P / HCO_3^-} \qquad (3)$$

$$\partial \ln H^+ / \partial \ln CO2 = \gamma_{DIC} / \beta_{DIC} = \frac{(DIC - Alk_C^2)/S}{(DICS - Alk_C^2)/ Alk_C} \qquad (4)$$

354   where expressions for the carbonate alkalinity Alk_C and the parameters P and S are given in

355   Egleston et al. (2010) . We have evaluated the right hand sides of Eqs. 3 and 4, using the CS

356   cruise data, and the results showed that these quantities change only a few per cents (1.3 and

357   3.4 %, respectively) due to seasonal changes in the various variables. The ratio $\gamma_{DIC} / \omega_{DIC}$

358   changed by 1-6 % and ranged from -1.08 to -0.980, while $\gamma_{DIC} / \beta_{DIC}$ changed by 0.5-3 % and

359   ranged from 0.84 to 0.88. This, together with the fact that equations 4 and 5 can be defined

360   in terms of $ln(fCO_2)$ instead of $ln(CO2)$ (Egleston et al., 2010; Takahashi et al., 1993),

361   suggests that in situations where underway surface fCO_2 and SST are frequently measured,

362   while the CO_2 system is fully determined only occasionally, an easy way of interpolating the

363   seasonality in pH and $\Omega_{Ar,}$ is to predict them from fCO_2. We have implemented this

364   alternative way of estimating pH and Ω_{Ar} using the CS cruise data. For the estimation of Ω_{Ar}

365   we used fCO_{2ts}, which is fCO_2 adjusted to constant temperature and salinity (i.e. at mean SST

366   and SSS), because these normalizations improved the regression significantly. Since we were

367   interested in pH and Ω_{Ar} we plotted these parameters directly against ln (fCO_2) or $ln(fCO_{2ts})$.

368   The results are shown in Fig. 5 and conform tight relationships between computed pH and

369    $ln(fCO_2)$ values (Fig. 5a), and between computed Ω_{Ar} and $ln(fCO_{2ts})$ (Fig. 5b). Further, by

370   using linear curve fitting we determined the relationships according to:

$$pH = -0.389 \ln fCO_{2ts} + 10.354 \,,\ R^2 = 0.99;\ n = 28;\ rms = 0.0047 \qquad (5)$$

372 $$\Omega_{Ar} = \exp(-0.738 \ln fCO_{2ts} + 5.010) \ , \ R^2=0.98; \ n=28; \ rms=0.059 \qquad (6).$$

373 The magnitude of the residuals (computed – estimated) associated with pH and Ω_{Ar} values

374 obtained from the above relationships were 0.0005 +/- 0.0049 and 0.012 +/- 0.061,

375 respectively, which is comparable to the residuals associated with pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}(sst)

376 (section 3.3). An advantage of this procedure, however, is that it utilizes much tighter

377 empirical relationships and involves fewer computational steps, and thus minimizes errors

378 introduced by intermediate results such as the TA-SSS/SST regression in Eq. 2. Furthermore,

379 a direct comparison revealed that values obtained from Eqs. 5 and 6 were almost identical

380 with those of pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}(sst) (Fig. S2). However, it is important to realize that for the

381 above procedure too, a representative full description of the carbonate system is necessary for

382 up-to-date determinations of Eqs. 5 and 6. Further, this calibration data ideally should include

383 high frequency time series observations, since the slopes (i.e. Eqs. 3 and 4) change slightly

384 with the carbonate system variables (e.g. DIC and TA, see Eqs. 3 and 4), which vary on

385 multiple time scales (hours-days-years). Furthermore, the procedure is based on

386 measurements of only one of the four master parameters constituting the carbonate system

387 (i.e. fCO_2). Therefore, it only provides a way to interpolate pH and Ω_{Ar} values, but cannot

388 support the analyses of controls that have been provided in the proceeding section.

389 From Fig. 5b we note that lowest Ω_{Ar} values are associated with the highest fCO_{2ts} values,

390 which occur during late fall and winter. Monitoring of these extreme values are of special

391 interest because: (i) during late fall and early winter the upwelling of carbon rich water to the

392 surface occurs so that the surface water also reflects the deeper water properties, and (ii) the

393 rate of change at this point (lowest Ω_{Ar}, highest fCO_{2ts}) indicates the time when under-

394 saturation of calcium carbonate can be expected in these waters. To estimate this for the

395 current data we used Eq. 5 and the observation that the slope (i.e. Eq. 3) and intercept

396 decreased by about 0.0008 and 0.004 for every 1 µatm increase in mean fCO_{2ts}. We found that

397 Ω_{Ar} becomes undersaturated (<1) when mean fCO_{2ts} is about 300 µatm higher than its present

398 value. For business as usual emission scenario (RCP 8.5), this is equivalent to about year

399 2070 if we assume that the development in the ocean follows that of the atmosphere (i.e.

400 constant disequilibrium between ocean and atmosphere).

401 **4. Summary and concluding remarks:**

On the basis of four years of weekly underway fCO_2 and SST data combined with less
frequent data from research cruises, the ocean acidification parameters pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}(sst)
have been estimated and analyzed for western Norway fjords stretching over more than 60 km
from the Korsfjord, through Langenuen strait, to southern parts of the Hardangerfjord. The
errors associated with the estimated values, ±0.0093 and ±0.090 for pH and Ω_{Ar}, were an
order of magnitude less than the maximum target uncertainties developed by the Global
Ocean Acidification Network.

Strong seasonal variations, more or less spatially coherent over the whole study area, were
found for OA parameters in the surface waters of the fjords. These changes were governed
mainly by the formation and decay of organic matter, vertical mixing with deeper carbon rich
coastal water, and the seasonal changes in SST and SSS. The annual mean pH was 8.13, and
this parameter varies between minimum values (≈8.05) around January to maximum values of
around 8.2, which occur during the spring and/or late winter (March-April) as a consequence
of phytoplankton spring bloom, which reduces DIC levels. However, sometime during
April/May, the effect of warming starts to dominate, and pH(sst) starts decreasing. Later
during fall, deepening of the mixed layer brings up carbon rich coastal water to the surface,
and reinforces the decrease in pH, which continuous throughout fall until the low winter
values are reached again.

The mean value of Ω_{Ar}(sst) was found to be 2.21, and it reached its maximum (>2.5) in mid to
late summer (July to September), when the spring bloom is over and pH has started to
decrease. The lowest Ω_{Ar}(sst) values (≈1.3-1.6), on the other hand, occurred during winter
(January-March), when both pH and SST are low, and DIC is at its highest.

Within the study area, pH and Ω_{Ar} have been found to correlate strongly with fCO_2 and fCO_{2ts}
(fCO_2 adjusted to the mean temperature and salinity), respectively. These correlations
provide an approach to interpolate pH and Ω_{Ar} over large areas in the fjords of western
Norway where underway measurements of fCO_2, SST, and SSS are available. However, both
the slopes and the intercepts of these correlations vary slightly with DIC and TA. Therefore,
the most accurate interpolations will be achieved if the relationships are calibrated with high
frequency observations of the complete carbonate system, measured at few strategically
placed fixed stations.

The Ω_{Ar} - fCO_{2ts} relationship, and the rate of change of its slope and intercept with DIC, have
been used to project the time when under-saturation of calcium carbonate can be expected in

434   the study area. This is expected to occur in the year 2070, if we assume business as usual

435   emission scenario (RCP 8.5), and that oceanic development of fCO_2 follows that of the

436   atmosphere (i.e. constant disequilibrium between ocean and atmosphere).

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595 **Tables:**

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598 **Table 1:** Details about the CarboSchools (CS) and Raunefjord (RF) cruise datasets. The plus

599 sign denotes the parameters for sampling/measurement were carried out.

Datasett; area	Date(m/d/y)	Lon (E)	Lat (N)	Depth (m)	DIC	TA	SST	SSS	Reference/ originator
CarboSchools (CS); Korsfjord/Raunefjord	04/13/2007	5.19	60.34	1	+	+	+	+	I. Skjelvan
	04/13/2007	5.18	60.17	1	+	+	+	+	
	04/25/2007	5.19	60.34	1	+	+	+	+	
	04/25/2007	5.17	60.17	1	+	+	+	+	
	09/04/2008	5.18	60.33	1	+	+	+	+	
	03/12/2009	5.17	60.15	1	+	+	+	+	
	03/12/2009	5.18	60.32	1	+	+	+	+	
	03/12/2009	5.17	60.17	1	+	+	+	+	
	03/12/2009	5.18	60.33	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/25/2009	5.17	60.17	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/24/2009	5.18	60.16	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/24/2009	5.18	60.16	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/24/2009	5.19	60.34	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/25/2009	5.19	60.34	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/25/2009	5.2	60.34	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/25/2009	5.19	60.33	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/27/2009	5.19	60.33	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/27/2009	5.19	60.33	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/27/2009	5.18	60.17	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/27/2009	5.18	60.17	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/27/2009	5.18	60.17	1	+	+	+	+	
	08/27/2009	5.2	60.33	1	+	+	+	+	
	09/08/2010	5.2	60.33	1	+	+	+	+	
2015; Korsfjord	09/29/2015			5	+	+	+	+	I. Skjelvan / A. Omar
2015; Langenuen	09/29/2015			5	+	+	+	+	I. Skjelvan / A. Omar
2015; Hardangerfjord	09/29/2015			5	+	+	+	+	I. Skjelvan / A. Omar

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603   Table 1(continue)

Datasett; area	Date(m/d/y)	Lon_E	Lat_N	Depth (m)	DIC	TA	SST	SSS	Reference/ originator
RF; Raunefjord	01/03/2007			1-5				+	S. R. Erga / J. Egge
	01/23/2007			1-5				+	
	02/13/2007			1-5				+	
	02/27/2007			1-5				+	
	03/07/2007			1-5				+	
	03/13/2007			1-5				+	
	03/27/2007			1-5				+	
	04/10/2007			1-5				+	
	04/17/2007			1-5				+	
	04/23/2007			1-5				+	
	05/08/2007			1-5				+	
	05/19/2007			1-5				+	
	06/05/2007			1-5				+	
	06/12/2007			1-5				+	
	06/19/2007			1-5				+	
	08/31/2007			1-5				+	
	09/04/2007			1-5				+	
	09/11/2007			1-5				+	
	09/18/2007			1-5				+	
	09/26/2007			1-5				+	
	10/02/2007			1-5				+	
	10/09/2007			1-5				+	
	10/18/2007			1-5				+	
	10/31/2007			1-5				+	
	11/27/2007			1-5				+	
	12/11/2007			1-5				+	
	01/02/2008			1-5				+	
	02/05/2008			1-5				+	
	02/21/2008			1-5				+	
	03/05/2008			1-5				+	
	03/11/2008			1-5				+	
	03/25/2008			1-5				+	
	03/31/2008			1-5				+	
	04/08/2008			1-5				+	
	04/22/2008			1-5				+	
	04/29/2008			1-5				+	
	05/06/2008			1-5				+	
	05/13/2008			1-5				+	
	05/20/2008			1-5				+	
	05/27/2008			1-5				+	
	06/04/2008			1-5				+	
	06/11/2008			1-5				+	
	06/17/2008			1-5				+	
	06/24/2008			1-5				+	
	07/01/2008			1-5				+	
	07/08/2008			1-5				+	
	07/16/2008			1-5				+	
	08/12/2008			1-5				+	
	08/19/2008			1-5				+	

08/26/2008	1-5	+
09/02/2008	1-5	+
09/09/2008	1-5	+
09/16/2008	1-5	+
09/23/2008	1-5	+
09/30/2008	1-5	+
10/07/2008	1-5	+
10/14/2008	1-5	+
10/21/2008	1-5	+
11/04/2008	1-5	+
11/20/2008	1-5	+
12/19/2008	1-5	+

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607 **Table 3:** Overview of the symbols used for quantities estimated and/or derived from the measurement-based
608 variables SSS, SST, TA, pH, DIC, fCO_2, and Ω_{Ar}.

Symbol	Meaning
TA(sss)	TA values estimated from measured SSS and SST using Eq. 2.
pH(sss), Ω_{Ar}(sss)	pH, and Ω_{Ar} values estimated by combining TA (sss) and fCO_2.
SSS(sst)	SSS values estimated from SST using Eq. 1.
TA(sst)	TA values determined from estimated SSS(sst) and SST using Eq. 2.
pH(sst), Ω_{Ar}(sst), DIC(sst)	Values of pH, Ω_{Ar} and DIC that have been obtained by combining TA (sst), fCO_2 and ancillary variables.
fCO_{2t}	fCO_2 at the mean temperature
fCO_{2ts}	fCO_2 at the mean temperature and salinity
nDIC	DIC normalized to the mean salinity

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Figure texts:

Fig. 1: An overview map of western Norway with a detailed map of the study area showing the positions from which cruise and underway data have been acquired. The tick grey arrow indicates the approximate position of the Norwegian Coastal Current (NCC).

Fig. 2: A) RF SSS as a function of SST (filled symbols) with the regression line described by Eq.1. Sampling month is indicated by the color of the data points. The CS (dots), 2015 (squares), and sensor (stars) datasets are also shown for comparison with the regression line. **B)** Compares RF SST with chronologically co-located UW SST acquired from the whole study area during 2008 (blue) and 2007 (red). **C)** Compares pH(sst) with pH values that have been measured or computed from TA and DIC. Symbols are as in Fig. 1. **D)** Compares Ω_{Ar}(sst) with Ω_{Ar} values that have been computed from measured TA and DIC or from measured pH and UW fCO_2. Symbols are as in Fig. 1.

Fig. 3: Estimated pH(sst) and Ω_{Ar}(sst) as a function of latitude and time of the year. All data from 2005-2009 have been collapsed into one virtual year to resolve the spatial and seasonal variations.

Fig. 4: left panel: Monthly pH changes (ΔpH) as observed (**A**) and expected due to: sum of all derivers (**B**), SST changes (**C**), DIC changes (**D**) and by TA changes (**E**). **right panel:** Standard deviations in monthly mean Ω_{Ar} as a result of variations in all parameters (**F**) or only in SST (**G**) in DIC (**H**) in TA (**I**).

Fig. 5: A) and B) pH and Ω_{Ar} from CS (dots) and 2015 (red squares) cruises plotted as a function of ln(fCO_2) and ln($nfCO_{2ts}$), respectively.

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