

Sopot, 2017-10-20

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> Dr. Marcus Reckermann, Earth System Dynamics

Dear Dr. Marcus Reckermann,

Please find enclosed our responses to the reviews as well as revised version of our manuscript entitled "Structure and functioning of the acid-base system in the Baltic Sea" by Karol Kuliński, Bernd Schneider, Beata Szymczycha and Marcin Stokowski. We attach also the marked-up manuscript version, in which you can find all changes we made in the manuscript.

We hope that the content of the revised manuscript will meet the requirements of Earth System Dynamics.

Sincerely yours

Lavol Kulins.

(on behalf of all co-authors)



We would like to thank the Reviewer for insightful and constructive comments. The Reviewer's comments are copied below (**bold**), followed by our replies.

#### Reviewer#1

Review of Kulinski et al. "Structure and functioning of the acid-base system in the Baltic Sea" (revised re-submission)

The authors have prepared a substantially revised manuscript, which addresses the issues raised by myself and another previous reviewer. This revision improves the readability and presentation greatly over the first version, and I commend the authors for their work. I still think some sections are light on citations, and I will try to indicate those places below. I also have a couple significant comments which I think should be addressed before publication, as well as a number of technical language suggestions which the authors may choose to implement or not.

**Overall Comments** 

**P2L2-11:** This section describing the difference between structure and functioning is a nice addition.

P6L10-11: why is this advisable? What are the limitations of derivation? Discuss error propagation, uncertainties in K values, alkalinity contributors.

We do not see the need to discuss here these limitations, and especially error propagation. This could confuse the reader as it would not be linked with the following text. Instead we added a citation, where the discussion of the analytical techniques is given.

### P7L21-28, P8L1-13: Other Ks are available for brackish water in addition to those of Buch, for example those of Cai and Wang 1998.

We are aware of that. Our intention writing this paragraph was to appreciate the work by Kurt Buch as it was the very first in the field. The effects of his work are even more spectacular as the limited technical capabilities that were available in 20' and 30' of the XX century are taken into account.

### **P8L14-27.** This explanation is a good addition. What temperature is used for the calculations in Figure 2c?

Thank you. 0°C

P12L4-13: This paragraph discusses pH changes mostly in terms of pCO2 in equilibrium with atmospheric pCO2, and mentions that at equilibrium AT drives pH changes. The opposite of course is also true, that at constant AT pCO2 disequilibrium drives pH change, as in Figure 5. Indeed from Figure 5 we see that pCO2 is rarely at equilibrium with atmospheric levels in the Baltic, and that the observed pH range at constant AT (about 8.1-8.5) is narrower and lower than that cited in this paragraph (7.7-8.3). So I suppose my question is, why frame this paragraph in terms of pCO2 conditions that rarely occur in the Baltic, and by the same token why present the data in Figure 5 in terms of constant AT? Figure 3 indicates that there is a fair amount of in situ AT data in the Baltic (and that AT is really variable!).

We would like to keep the structure of this paragraph as it is now. Both  $pCO_2$  and  $A_T$  are highly variable in the Baltic Sea. We present the case for the constant  $pCO_2$  to emphasize how big effect on pH has  $A_T$ . Variable  $A_T$  is something specific for the Baltic Sea. In the open ocean  $A_T$  is constant or at least much less variable. Thus, our intention was to show how big effect variable  $A_T$  can have on pH.

Figure 4: the text for "Current Range of Baltic AT" and "Current Atmospheric pCO2" is really hard to read. I'd suggest putting a white background behind this text, similar to the pH labels, to improve readability.

Done.

# P16L5-11: pKDOM is cited as 7.34, while the pKa of "organic matter (as represented as fulvics)" is below 4.5. This is a big difference! Is this <4.5 pKa only for some fulvic groups, and not for the overall DOM? Some explanation for this discrepancy should be added.

pKDOM is a bulk dissociation constant for DOM. It can be considered as a "mean" dissociation constant for all the acidic functional groups. This means that in DOM there might be very different acidic functional groups including strong ( $pK_a < 4.5$ ) but also very weak ( $pK_a > 8$ ) groups. We do not argue in the text that  $pK_a$  for fulvics is <4.5 but say only that some functional groups in fulvics (not the entire molecules) have  $pK_a < 4.5$ . Thus, in our opinion there is no discrepancy in our text. We have modified the text slightly in the revised version to make it clearer.

### Figure 5. Temperature has a big effect on pCO2 and pH. Can some discussion of temperature influence vs. other biogeochemical factors be added?

Fig. 5 present the data at *in situ* temperature.

# P19L3-4: "without distinguishing between mineralization pathways". This could be an important point: the mineralization pathway affects the relative production of CT vs. AT, right? Some more discussion of this might be useful.

We fully agree with the reviewer statement that the mineralization pathway affects the relative production of CT vs. AT. The phrase cited by the reviewer refers to the model study by Gustafsson et al. (2014a). The study was rather focused on the mass transport within the Baltic Sea carbon budget and not on the consequences different processes have for the acid-bases system. Thus, we said in the manuscript that this estimation was done "without distinguishing between mineralization pathways" to emphasize that the use of this data may be limited for the interpretation of the acid-base system functioning. We have added the sentence to the text that clarifies this.

# P21L22: This phrase "permanent stratification" seems to contradict the assertion made in P17L25 where 'deeper CO2-enriched water" is transported to the surface via mixing in autumn and winter. How can both be true?

The permanent stratification of the water column with a halocline at approx. 60-70m is very well phenomenon in the Baltic Sea – see for instance Lass and Matthäus (2008). In summer there is additionally a thermocline that separates upper approx. 20m of the water column. When mixing increases in autumn and winter it destroys the thermocline and transports  $CO_2$  from the deeper layers, but not from below the halocline. The depth of halocline is at the same time the maximum mixed layer depth in the Baltic Sea.

#### P23L5-13: a citation here would be good- perhaps the SOCAT project?

This is our own conclusion and we will not give citation here. In fact modelled and measured  $pCO_2$  is sometimes compared to each other but the reason for that is usually a quantification of the uncertainty in the modelled  $CO_2$  exchange. We promote here to do this for biogeochemical process parameterization. Having this in mind it is difficult to find a suitable citation.

# P24L27: Is sulphate reduction the dominant anerobic process in the Baltic? From the previous discussion this is not clear, as other processes (Mn reduction, denitrification, etc) are presented as more energetically favorable.

We corrected that sentence. Now it refers to all anoxic mineralization pathway of organic matter and not only to sulphate reduction.

**Technical/Language Comments P1L14: Change to ''a number''** Done P1L20: remove "we" Done

**P2L12: change to ''of atmospheric CO2''** Done

**P2L19:** "by the scientific community"- this seems like it needs some citation Done

P2L29: AT not defined Corrected

**P2L30-31: try to avoid shorthands like ''etc'' or ''and/or''** Corrected

**P2L28-30: should terrestrial inputs be included in this list of processes?** Added

**P2L31: what are the specific gaps and shortcomings?** All of them are given later in the text. There is no need to define them here.

P3L22-23: "low buffer capacity", "various anthropogenic influences"-citations needed. Specify the anthropogenic influences. Done

**P3L26:** "well characterized during the last decades"- citation(s) needed Done

P3L28-29: remove the sentence beginning "However, this was done...", not really sure what it is saying.

We suggest to leave that sentence as it is now.

#### P4L21: "BONUS PINBAL", most readers will not be familiar with this project

We added to the text the address of the project web page.

**P4L30: change to "the pH as described by a set..."** Done

P5L3: change to "of the marine CO2 system. Many biogeochemical models...". Also citations of these models are needed. Done

**P5L9: change to "for the calculation"** Done

#### **P5L8-17: another limitation is that current sensor technology is mostly focused on pH and pCO2 observ**ations

We agree, but this has no direct influence. We do not see the necessity to add this information here. It could confuse the reader.

#### P5L21-26: citations needed

The suitable citation (Lass and Matthäus, 2008) is given few lines later.

#### P6L9: change to "in brackish water"

Done

### P6L14: change to "determination of CO32-...". Also, I don't think CO32- has been previously defined.

Done. The ion defined on P3L11.

#### **P9L1: change "possibilities" to "capabilities"** Done

**P10L27: Need to state that the differences are presumed! Citations needed here.** These are not presumed differences but the measured ones. Citation: Beldowski et al. (2010) is already given in the text.

# **P10L28:** Lower alkalinity and lower buffer capacity are not necessarily the same thing. Either discuss the difference or remove the reference to buffer capacity. Removed

### P11L2: change to "This results in alkalinity..." Changed

P11L3: remove "is" Removed

P11L11: change to "characterization of the..." Changed

P11L17: change to "depends" Chenged

## **P11L20:** this section discusses AT, so there is a need to explain the connection between AT and these CT concentrations- the link is not clear between the two. Explanation added.

#### P12L8: need to provide the open ocean pH range with citations

We do not agree with the reviewer here as this sentence refers to the situation where seawater is in equilibrium with atmospheric  $CO_2$ . In this specific case more important is  $A_T$  range, which is already given in the text.

**P13L9-11: this is nicely said.** Thank you

**P13L11: change to "It also implies"** Changed

**P13L1: needs citation** There is a citation given.

#### P15L17: change to "were 27-56: lower..."

Changed

P15L20: change to "2009), because they are..." Changed

P15L23: change to "include an Aorg..." Changed

P15L27: perhaps replace "catch also Aorg" with something like "include all inorganic and organic contributors, while subsequent..."

Changed

P15L31: change to "dissociation constants" Changed

**P16L5 and throughout: change to "They also estimated..."** Changed

**P16L7: I don't really understand this sentence, please rephrase.** Changed

**P16L8: change to "They also suggested that the method..."** Changed

P16L10: change to "They also showed..." Changed

**P16L13: change to ''also found ''** Changed

P16L23: change to "the anion" Changed

P16L24: change to "means that..." Changed

P16L28: change to "for oceanic waters" Changed

P16L30-31: this is a great point P16L33: change to "Baltic Sea, where the experimentally..." Changed

**P17L4: change to ''effect of the anomaly''** Changed

P17L9: change to "In the case" Changed

**P17L10: change to "of pCO2, because the atmospheric CO2 is then the only driver..."** Changed

P17L29: change "enhances" to "raises" Changed

P17L30: change to "This assimilation also decreases..." Changed

**P18L1: is this low P concentration specific for the Baltic?** No. This is a general remark, which refers also to the Baltic Sea.

**P18L4: remove "thus"** Changed

P19L13: change to "produces CO2, and..." Changed

P19L21: add space between "Eq.8" Done

P20L6-26: It might improve readability to include the names of the reactions alongside the delta AT values, so it's obvious which reaction is which. For instance, change line 10 to "Manganese Reduction  $\Delta AT=+472$ " Done

**P21L6: change to ''sulphide or ammonia only influence the acid-base system locally''** Changed P21L12: Change to "Challenges for future research..." Changed

**P21L21: change "perfect" to "model"** Changed

**P21L29: change to "water are made available..."** Changed

P22L3: change "is" to "are" Changed

**P22L19: Aorg already defined** Corrected

**P22L24: change to "would require substantial progress in analytical techniques, as the..."** Changed

**P22L26: change to "Problems also arise..."** Changed

**P23L3: remove "potentially missing"** Removed

**P23L10: change to "Hence, agreement..."** Changed

**P23L11: change to "indication of..."** Changed

**P23L14: change to "was the focus..."** Changed

**P23L17: change to ''did not reflect''** Changed

**P23L19: change to "This meant...", also remove comma after "production"** Changed

**P23L23: change "upon" to "after"** Changed

**P24L2: change ''shown'' to ''proposed'', change ''confined to'' to ''explained by''** Changed

**P24L3: change to "and, presumably, other marginal..."** Changed

**P24L6-7: change to ''in connected catchment areas.''** Changed

**P24L11:** change to ''to the immediate effect of riverine input of acidic substances. This riverine input refers mostly..." Changed

**P24L13: change to "et al. 2014), but also to boric..."** Changed

**P24L16: remove ''(ion anomaly)''** Removed

**P24L17: change to ''mineralization also have the potential...''** Changed

P24L19: remove "." Done

**P24L20-21: change to "which reduces the alkalinity, but the abundance..."** Changed

**P24L24: remove '',which however is nothing specific for the Baltic Sea.''** Removed

P24L26 remove "," Removed

**P24L31: change to "event and do not affect..."** Changed

**P24L32: change to "do influence the..."** Changed

P24L33: remove "But" Removed

**P25L9: remove "and", change "It" to 'This"** Done

**P25L13: change "hopeless" to "impossible"** Changed

**P25L16: change to "in other coastal..."** Changed

We would like to thank the Reviewer for insightful and constructive comments. The Reviewer's comments are copied below (**bold**), followed by our replies.

#### Reviewer#2

The authors have addressed all comments and suggestions from the first revision round, and the revised manuscript has improved greatly in terms of structure, language, and readability. One of my main issues with the previous version was the lack of a concluding section. This has now been added. In my view, this manuscript is now suitable for publication after a few minor corrections.

**P4L16-17: Switch to italic font** Done

P5L5-6: Somewhat strange wording, maybe write instead "...for simulations of the marine..." Corrected

**P8L11: Strange sentence, maybe write instead something like "Exceptions are..."** Corrected

**P16L8: Correct the font of Aorg (subscript)** Corrected

P17L8: Change to "suggested also that the method" instead of "suggested also that method"

Corrected

**P18L14: "controls for pH and pCO2" instead of "controls for the pH and the pCO2"?** Changed

**P22L21: "knowledge of" instead of "knowledge on"?** Changed

**P23L31: Aorg has already been defined** Corrected

**P25L17: "catchment areas" instead of "catchments area"** Changed

**P25L22: "The latter" should be removed** Removed

**P26L10: "event are do not" – remove "do"** Removed

**P26L12: "But On" should be "But on"** Corrected

#### **P26L21: "alkalinity and together" – remove "and"** Done

### **P26L24: Change "get these" to "obtain this"?** Changed

- 1 Structure and functioning of the acid-base system in the Baltic Sea. Karol Kuliński<sup>1</sup>, Bernd Schneider<sup>2</sup>, Beata Szymczycha<sup>1</sup>, Marcin Stokowski<sup>1</sup> 2 <sup>1</sup>Institute of Oceanology, Polish Academy of Sciences, IO PAN, ul. Powstańców Warszawy 3 4 55, 81-712 Sopot, Poland 5 <sup>2</sup>Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research, IOW, Seestrasse 15 Warnemünde, D-18119 6 Rostock, Germany 7 Correspondence to: Karol Kuliński (kroll@jopan.gda.pl) 8 9 Key words: pH, total alkalinity, CO<sub>2</sub> system, borate alkalinity, organic alkalinity, dissociation
- 10 constants, biomass production, mineralization
- 11

#### 12 Abstract

The marine acid-base system is relatively well understood for oceanic waters. Its structure and 13 14 functioning is less obvious for the coastal and shelf seas due to the a number of regionally specific anomalies. In this review article we collect and integrate existing knowledge on the 15 acid-base system in the Baltic Sea. Hydrographical and biogeochemical characteristics of the 16 17 Baltic Sea, as manifested in horizontal and vertical salinity gradients, permanent stratification of the water column, eutrophication, high organic matter concentrations and high 18 anthropogenic pressure, makes the acid-base system complex. We summarize in this study the 19 general knowledge on the marine acid-base system as well as we describe the peculiarities 20 21 identified and reported for the Baltic Sea specifically. In this context we discuss issues such as: dissociation constants in brackish water, different chemical alkalinity models including 22 contributions by organic acid-base systems, long term changes of total alkalinity, anomalies of 23 borate alkalinity and the acid-base effects of biomass production and mineralization. Finally, 24 we identify research gaps and specify bottlenecks concerning the Baltic Sea acid-base system. 25

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#### 1 **1. Introduction**

2 The acid-base system controlling the seawater pH is formed by a number of chemical substances having acid-base properties (Dickson et al., 2007). The importance of each of these 3 4 substances (structure of the acid-base system) depends on both concentrations of individual constituents and their dissociation constants. The control by physical conditions (temperature, 5 salinity) and biogeochemical processes (e.g. biomass production and mineralization) as well as 6 interrelationships between individual components determine the functioning of the acid-base 7 system. The understanding of the structure and functioning of the acid-base system is necessary 8 to investigate important issues that shape the Baltic Sea ecosystem and that are of interest in 9 10 present-day chemical oceanography like: ocean acidification, calcium carbonate (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) formation/dissolution and carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) exchange through the air-sea interface. 11

12 The steady increase of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations leads to enhanced dissolution of CO<sub>2</sub> in the ocean. Since CO<sub>2</sub> dissolved in seawater forms the diprotic carbonic acid, hydrogen 13 14 ions are released. Although the major fraction of the hydrogen ions are taken up by carbonate ions (a buffering reaction), a significant fraction stays in the water column and thus causes a 15 16 decrease in pH. This phenomenon is known in the scientific literature as "ocean acidification" although seawater does not really become acidic but only moves from its alkaline character 17 towards the acidic regime (Riebesell et al., 2010). Ocean acidification has been recognized as 18 19 one of the greatest threats for marine ecosystems not only by the scientific community (e.g. Bates et al., 2014; Zeebe, 2012), but also in European Union (EU) legislation. EU Marine 20 Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD, 2008) explicitly points out that the EU Member States 21 should put more attention to ocean acidification, and emphasizes the necessity to include 22 23 measurements of pH and of the CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure (pCO<sub>2</sub>) as descriptors for the environmental status of marine regions. 24

There is a general belief that the magnitude of ocean acidification can sufficiently be quantified 25 26 from the atmospheric pCO<sub>2</sub> levels and the CO<sub>2</sub> exchange between seawater and the atmosphere (Zeebe, 2012; Riebesell et al., 2010; Caldeira and Wicket, 2003). This is approximately true 27 28 for oceanic waters. However, it is not the case for coastal seas because several other processes 29 are influencing the seawater pH such as: CaCO<sub>3</sub> formation and/or dissolution, euthrophication 30 or oligotrophication, total alkalinity (A<sub>T</sub>) consumption and/or production, weathering, contribution by organic substances and terrestrial inputs - etc. The general structure and 31 32 functioning of the acid-base system in seawater are relatively well identified, however still some aspects contain a lot of gaps and/or shortcomings, which can lead to wrong conclusions 33

and questionable predictions of the future pH development (Orr et al., 2015; Koeve and
 Oschlies, 2012; Hunt et al., 2011; Dickson et al., 2007; Cai et al; 1998).

3 Since the  $CO_2$  system is an integral part of the ocean acid-base system, it is impossible to 4 understand the CO<sub>2</sub> system and to assess processes such as the CO<sub>2</sub> gas exchange or CaCO<sub>3</sub> dissolution/formation, without a clear idea about the structure and functioning of the whole 5 acid-base system. The saturation states of calcite and aragonite are of crucial importance for 6 organisms forming their exoskeletons from CaCO<sub>3</sub>. Although pelagic calcifying organisms do 7 not occur in the Baltic Sea this aspect is still relevant as some benthic organisms can also build 8 CaCO<sub>3</sub> into their shells (Tyrrell et al., 2008). Moreover, calcifying processes not only depend 9 on the acid-base system structure but in turn can modify it by decreasing the concentration of 10 carbonate ions  $(CO_3^{2-})$  and thus the alkalinity. 11

12 Carbon dioxide is a major component of the global carbon cycle and transport of CO<sub>2</sub> links all Earth's compartments. It is believed that the world oceans absorb about 25 % of anthropogenic 13 14 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. However, there is still a debate on the role that the shelf seas play in this context (Le Quéré, 2016). The direction and magnitude of the CO<sub>2</sub> exchange through the air-sea 15 16 interface depends largely on the  $pCO_2$  difference between seawater and the atmosphere. The level of seawater pCO<sub>2</sub> is mainly controlled by the structure of the acid-base system that is 17 18 influenced by the combined effect of biological activity (biomass production vs. 19 mineralization), CO<sub>2</sub> exchange with the atmosphere and temperature (Emerson and Hedges, 2008). 20

21 In this context the Baltic Sea can be considered as a very complex ecosystem. On one hand the 22 low buffer capacity (Beldowski et al., 2010) makes the seawater vulnerable to acidification in 23 most regions of the Baltic Sea, on the other hand the sea is exposed to various anthropogenic 24 influences which have the potential to change the acid-base system and thus also seawater pH 25 and all pH-related processes. This makes the Baltic Sea different from the oceans for which the 26 CO<sub>2</sub> system as part of the acid-base system has been well characterized during the last decades (Bates et al., 2014; Riebesell et al., 2010; Dickson et al., 2007). Considerable research effort 27 28 was also undertaken in recent years to investigate the Baltic Sea CO<sub>2</sub> system and its 29 peculiarities. However, this was done from different perspectives and resulted in specific 30 problem-oriented and divers knowledge. Therefore, the goal of this review article is to collect 31 and integrate the existing knowledge on the structure and functioning of the acid-base system 32 in the Baltic Sea, to point out the research gaps and thus also to address challenges for the future research in this field. 33

1

#### 2 2. The standard acid-base model for ocean water

Four measurable variables exist to describe the acid-base system of seawater. These are: pCO<sub>2</sub>,
pH, total inorganic carbon concentration (C<sub>T</sub>, known also as DIC) and total alkalinity (A<sub>T</sub>). C<sub>T</sub>
is the total concentration of all inorganic carbon forms present in seawater (Eq. 1), where
[CO<sub>2</sub>\*] represents the sum of molecular dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> and undissociated carbonic acid
(H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>):

8 
$$C_T = [CO_2^*] + [HCO_3^-] + [CO_3^{2-}]$$
 (1)

9 Measurements of  $C_T$  are usually based on acidification of the sample and coulometric or 10 infrared detection of the extracted CO<sub>2</sub> (Dickson et al., 2007). A<sub>T</sub> is defined as the excess of 11 proton acceptors (bases formed from weak acids with a dissociation constant of K $\leq$ 10<sup>-4.5</sup> at 25 12 °C) over proton donors (acids with K>10<sup>-4.5</sup>) and expressed as the hydrogen ion equivalent in 13 one kilogram of sample (Dickson, 1981):

14 
$$A_T = [HCO_3^-] + 2[CO_3^{2-}] + [B(OH)_4^-] + [OH^-] + [HPO_4^{2-}] + 2[PO_4^{3-}] + [SiO(OH)_3^-] + [NH_3] + [NH_3] + [NH_3^-] + [NH_3^-$$

15  $[HS^-] + [minor bases] - [H^+] - [HSO_4^-] - [HF] - [H_3PO_4] - [minor acids]$  (2)

A<sub>T</sub> can be determined by open- or closed-cell acidimetric titration. For both C<sub>T</sub> and A<sub>T</sub> certified 16 reference materials are provided by the Andrew Dickson laboratory, UC San Diego, USA 17 18 (Dickson et al., 2007). pH measurements in seawater are usually calibrated against TRIS buffer. Its characteristics is well known at salinities of 20-35 (Mosley et al., 2004; DelValls and 19 20 Dickson, 1998). The efforts to improve the TRIS buffer characteristics for lower salinities are 21 ongoing within the BONUS PINBAL project (https://www.io-warnemuende.de/pinbalhome.html). The use of TRIS buffer helps to calibrate the systems for pH measurements but 22 23 does not fully guarantee the quality of the pH results as reference materials in seawater matrix still do not exist for pH measurements. In many cases pH is still measured potentiometrically 24 25 on the NBS scale although spectrophotometric measurements on the total scale (pHtot), which takes into account also HSO4<sup>-</sup> ions, are currently state of the art in the field of chemical 26 oceanography. The concentration of  $CO_2^*$  in seawater is obtained from the partial pressure of 27 CO<sub>2</sub> in air in equilibrium with seawater. According to the standard operating procedure 28 29 (Dickson et al., 2007), measurements of pCO<sub>2</sub> require continuous flow of water, which makes 30 this parameter difficult to measure in discrete samples.

All four variables are interacting and control the pH <u>as described</u> by a set of equilibrium constants and mass balance equations. In general the interrelationships between these four

1 parameters facilitate the calculation of any two variables, when the two others are known, e.g. 2 through measurements, and when the dissociation constants of the involved acid-base reactions are known for the respective temperature and salinity. This fact is used in biogeochemical 3 4 models for the simulations of the marine CO<sub>2</sub> system. All biogeochemical models are based on 5 the transport and transformations of A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub>, because these variables are independent of temperature and pressure and behave conservatively with respect to mixing (mass 6 7 conservation). Moreover, straightforward techniques for sampling and analysis for A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> 8 exist and are supported by the availability of reference materials (Dickson et al., 2007). Hence, 9 these two variables are very well suited for CO<sub>2</sub> system studies. However, the use of A<sub>T</sub> and 10  $C_T$  for the CO<sub>2</sub> system studies is not free from limitations. To obtain high accuracy for the calculation of pH and pCO<sub>2</sub> from measured or modelled A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub>, all dissociation constants 11 and total concentrations of all non-CO<sub>2</sub> components of the acid-base system must be known. 12 This requirement is approximately fulfilled with regard to ocean studies where the total 13 concentrations of non-CO<sub>2</sub> acid-base components are either negligible or can be approximated 14 as a function of salinity (Riebesell et al., 2010). However, this issue is more critical for coastal 15 and shelf regions, where the biogeochemical composition of seawater shows regional 16 peculiarities (e.g. Kuliński 2014; Hernandez-Ayon et al., 2007; Cai et al., 1998). This is the 17 18 case for the Baltic Sea, which shows various unique biogeochemical characteristics.

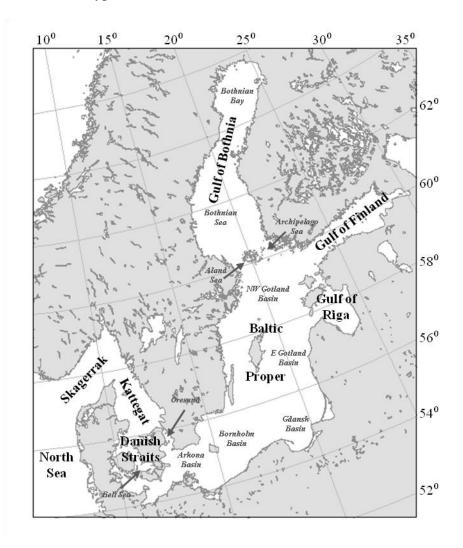
19

#### 20 **3.** Peculiarities of the Baltic Sea acid-base system

#### 21 **3.1. Hydrographic setting**

The Baltic Sea is one of the largest brackish ecosystems in the world. This is caused by both 22 23 limited inflows of saline oceanic water through the shallow and narrow Danish Straits and high river runoff. The drainage basin of the Baltic Sea is almost four times larger than the area of 24 the sea itself, while the mean annual freshwater supply (428 km<sup>3</sup>) constitutes about 2 % of the 25 Baltic Sea water volume  $(22 \cdot 10^3 \text{ km}^3)$ . The specific features of the Baltic Sea hydrology cause 26 27 clear horizontal and vertical salinity gradients. Salinity in the surface layer fluctuate from 2 in the northern Bothnian Bay to >20 observed in the Kattegat. Dense and highly saline water, 28 29 which irregularly enters the Baltic Sea, sinks and moves along the sea bottom. This deep water is separated from the brackish surface water layer by a permanent halocline located at a depth 30 of 60-70 m, which is at the same time the maximum mixed layer depth in the Baltic Sea (Lass 31 32 and Matthäus, 2008; Winsor et al., 2001). The stratification limits ventilation of the deep water

masses. Simultaneously, the deeper water layers are supplied with large amounts of particulate
organic matter that either originated from terrestrial sources or derived from the biomass
production in the surface under the influence of high nutrient concentrations (eutrophication).
Some fraction of the sedimentary organic matter mineralizes releasing CO<sub>2</sub> and consuming
oxidants, which leads to hypoxia or even anoxia in the bottom waters (HELCOM, 2009).





7 Fig. 1. Map of the Baltic Sea showing its division into natural basins and sub-basins

- 8 (modified after Kuliński and Pempkowiak, 2011).
- 9

#### 10 **3.2.** Dissociation constants in the brackish water

11 If any variables of the marine  $CO_2$  system are to be used for biogeochemical studies, it is 12 advisable to measure these directly and not to derive it from the measurements of other 13 variables of the  $CO_2$  system (Dickson et al., 2007). However, sometimes direct measurements 14 may be prevented by technical reasons or routine analytical methods do not exist. The latter refers for example to the determination <u>of</u>  $CO_3^{2-}$  ion concentrations which are important for the assessment of the state of the CaCO<sub>3</sub> saturation and thus for the dissolution or formation of CaCO<sub>3</sub> shells. In this case, calculations on the basis of other known variables such as C<sub>T</sub>, A<sub>T</sub>, pCO<sub>2</sub> or pH are indispensable and require knowledge about the equilibrium constants of the CO<sub>2</sub> system. Here we examine the availability of the necessary constants for low salinity brackish water. Three fundamental equations characterize the equilibria of the marine CO<sub>2</sub> system. The first refers to the solubility of gaseous CO<sub>2</sub> in seawater:

8 
$$[CO_2^*] = k_0 * fCO_2$$
 (3)

The solubility constant,  $k_0$ , relates the concentration of  $CO_2^*$  in seawater to the  $CO_2$  fugacity, 9 10  $fCO_2$ . In contrast to the  $CO_2$  partial pressure,  $pCO_2$ , the fugacity accounts for the non-ideal behaviour of CO<sub>2</sub> at atmospheric conditions. It differs only slightly from the pCO<sub>2</sub> and in many 11 12 cases can be replaced by the pCO<sub>2</sub>. The solubility and thus  $k_0$  decreases with increasing temperature and salinity and vice versa. Studies by Weiss (1974) that describe k<sub>0</sub> as a function 13 14 of temperature and salinity have received widespread acceptance and are almost exclusively used in chemical oceanography. The situation is somewhat more complicated for the 15 16 determination of the dissociation constants for carbonic acid because it is a diprotic acid. Using again CO<sub>2</sub>\* as variable, the two dissociation equilibria are given by: 17

18 
$$K_1 = [H^+][HCO_3^-]/[CO_2^*]$$
 (4)

19 
$$K_2 = [H^+][CO_3^{2-}]/[HCO_3^{-}]$$
 (5)

In these formulas the terms for the hydrogen ions are given in concentration units which include
HSO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> ion concentration (Dickson, 1984).

22 Systematic studies concerning the dissociation constants of carbonic acid in seawater were already performed during the twenties and thirties of the last century. One of the leading 23 24 scientists in this field was Kurt Buch from the former Finnish Institute for Marine Research, whose research was mainly related to the Baltic Sea, and whose laboratory studies on the CO<sub>2</sub> 25 system focused on brackish water with salinities down to zero. The results of his lab work and 26 of field studies performed during 1927 to 1936 are summarized in Buch (1945). The presented 27 28 dissociation constants must be considered as "hybrid" constants because the hydrogen ions are represented by the hydrogen ion activity whereas the CO<sub>2</sub> constituents refer to concentrations. 29 30 With the increasing awareness of the importance of the oceans for the uptake of anthropogenic

31 CO<sub>2</sub> and thus for climate change scenarios, large-scale measurement programmes concerning

1 the state of the marine CO<sub>2</sub> system on an oceanic scale were performed. These efforts were 2 accompanied by numerous laboratory studies aimed at the determination of improved dissociation constants. All these constants referred to the total hydrogen concentration scale 3 that includes the contribution by HSO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> (Dickson, 1984). However, the validity of most of the 4 constants was confined to salinities that are encountered in ocean water. An 5 exceptionExceptions are the constants suggested by Roy et al. (1993), which were determined 6 7 for salinities down to values of 5 and could be used accordingly for brackish water. However, 8 with regard to research in the Baltic Sea where large areas, e.g. in the Gulf of Bothnia, have 9 surface water salinities less than 5, the situation was unsatisfactory. It took until 2006 when Millero et al. (2006) published dissociation constants that covered the salinity range from 0 to 10 50 and that were consistent with the constants for fresh water. An update of these constants 11 was performed in 2010 (Millero, 2010) and since then this set of dissociation constants is state 12 of the art for CO<sub>2</sub> research in brackish waters. The salinity and the temperature dependency of 13 K<sub>1</sub> and K<sub>2</sub> are presented in Fig. 2a and 2b, respectively. 14

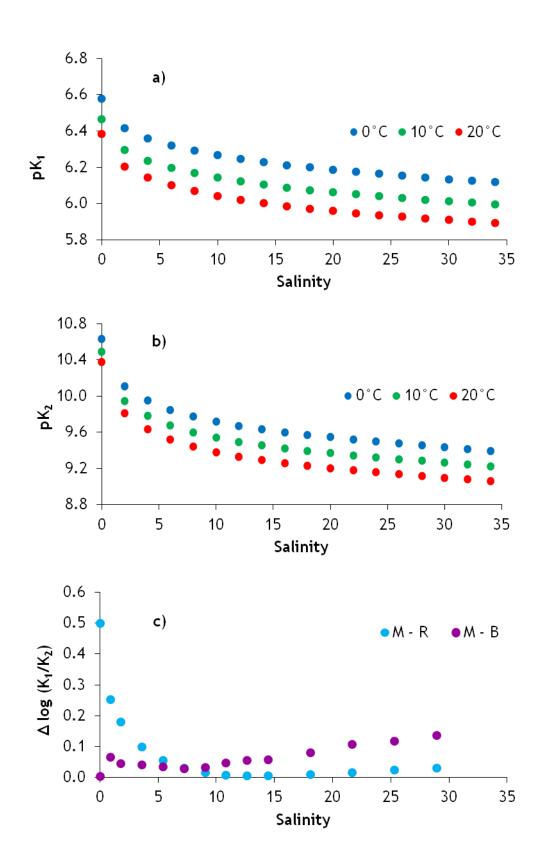
A direct comparison between the dissociation constants that were used in the past for brackish water is difficult because the constants by Buch (1945) are based on a pH scale that is based on the hydrogen ion activity. Since it is difficult to convert the activities to total hydrogen ion concentrations, we use the ratio  $K_1/K_2$  for a comparison. This ratio is obtained by dividing the equilibrium equations for the first dissociation step (Eq. 4) through that of the second dissociation step (Eq. 5):

21 
$$\frac{K_1}{K_2} = \frac{[HCO_3^-]^2}{[CO_2^*]*[CO_3^{2-}]}$$
 (6)

Eq. 6 shows that  $K_1/K_2$  is not connected to the hydrogen ion concentration and is thus not affected by the choice of the pH scale. Hence it is suited as an indicator for the quality of the early dissociation constants determined by Buch (1945). We used the logarithmic notation,  $log(K_1/K_2)$  which is equivalent to  $pK_1 - pK_2$ , for a comparison of the dissociation constants suggested by Buch (1945), Millero (2010) and Roy et al. (1993). The differences  $\Delta log(K_1/K_2)$ referring to Millero (2010) and Buch (1945), and Millero (2010) and Roy et al. (1993) indicated as M-B and M-R, respectively, are shown as a function of salinity in Fig. 2c.

At salinities >7, M-R is less than 0.03, but the differences increase rapidly at lower salinities and amount to 0.06 and 0.10 already at S = 5.4 and S = 3.6, respectively. Such differences in  $\log(K_1/K_2)$  are equivalent to a temperature change of 1 °C. The deviations of the Buch (1945) data from those of Millero (2010) (M-B in Fig. 2c) ranged below 0.10 at salinities below 20.

- 1 This is a surprisingly small difference in view of the limited technical <u>capabilities</u> possibilities
- 2 that were available to Buch and his co-workers in the twenties and thirties of the last century.
- 3



4

Fig. 2. Dissociation constants (a) pK<sub>1</sub> and (b) pK<sub>2</sub> as a function of salinity calculated according
to Millero (2010) for three different temperatures: 0, 10 and 20 °C; (c) differences in log(K<sub>1</sub>/K<sub>2</sub>)
between the dissociation constants obtained from Millero (2010) and Roy et al. (1993) (M-R,
blue dots) and between Millero (2010) and Buch (1945) (M-B, purple dots) at different
salinities.

6

7 When alkalinity is also used for the calculation of any variables of the CO<sub>2</sub> system, the contributions of non-CO<sub>2</sub> acid-base components to A<sub>T</sub> (Eq. 2), which are generally low, must 8 9 be taken into account. This requires knowledge about the concentration of the individual acid-10 base pairs and about the corresponding dissociation constants. In the deep basins of the central Baltic Sea, ammonia and sulphide anions are released during organic matter mineralization at 11 12 anoxic conditions (see Section 3.4.2). Both these constituents are strong proton acceptors forming mainly HS<sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. Since their concentrations may be on the order of several tens 13 and up to a few hundred  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> (Nausch et al., 2008), respectively, they have a strong effect 14 on alkalinity and pH. Therefore, any calculations concerning the CO<sub>2</sub> system at anoxic 15 16 conditions must account for the dissociation equilibria of H<sub>2</sub>S-HS<sup>-</sup> (Millero et al., 1988) and NH4<sup>+</sup>-NH<sub>3</sub> (Clegg and Whitfield, 1995; Johansson and Wedborg, 1980). The concentrations of 17  $S^{2-}$  at the pH of anoxic water are extremely small and can be neglected. 18

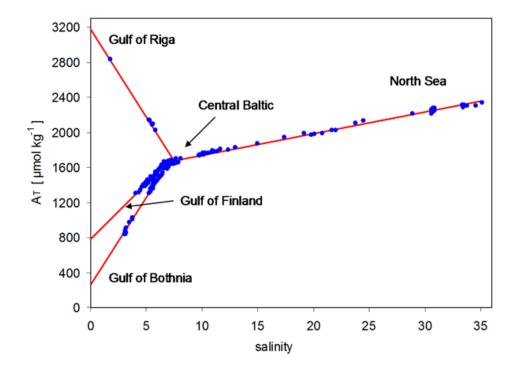
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#### 20 **3.3.** The central role of alkalinity

#### 21 3.3.1. Regional A<sub>T</sub> vs. S distribution, consequences for pH distribution pattern

There are several different A<sub>T</sub> vs. S regimes in the Baltic Sea (Fig. 3, Beldowski et al., 2010). 22 They reflect different A<sub>T</sub> concentrations in the respective rivers, which can be deduced from 23 extrapolation of regional A<sub>T</sub> vs. S relationships to zero salinity. Low alkalinities are observed 24 in rivers entering the Gulf of Bothnia whereas rivers from south-eastern part of the Baltic 25 catchment, as shown by the A<sub>T</sub> vs. S plot for the Gulf of Riga (Fig. 3), are rich in alkalinity. 26 These differences are a consequence of the geological conditions and weathering processes in 27 28 the respective catchment areas. As a result lower alkalinities (low buffer capacity) and lower mean pH are observed in the Gulf of Bothnia and Finland, whereas higher mean alkalinities 29 and thus somewhat higher pH are found in the Gulf of Riga and also in the Gdansk Bay 30 (Kulinski et al., 2014; Beldowski et al., 2010; Hjalmarsson et al., 2008). 31

- 1 The central Baltic Sea acts as a mixing chamber for the different water masses, including water
- 2 originating from the North Sea. This <u>results in causes that</u> alkalinity in the surface water of the
- Baltic Proper (salinity around 7) is of about 1600-1700  $\mu$ mol kg<sup>-1</sup>.



4

Fig. 3. Different A<sub>T</sub> vs. S regimes observed in the Baltic Sea (modified after Beldowski et al.,
2010)

7

An important, but still not well investigated, aspect of the A<sub>T</sub> supply to the Baltic Sea is the A<sub>T</sub> 8 seasonality in river water. As A<sub>T</sub> is one of the variables used in biogeochemical models to study 9 10 the CO<sub>2</sub> system, well described spatial and temporal variability of A<sub>T</sub> loads could improve the 11 characterization of the A<sub>T</sub> distribution in the Baltic Sea and thus increase the accuracy of the 12 modelled pH and pCO<sub>2</sub>. This could be achieved by evaluation of the A<sub>T</sub> monitoring data which are regularly collected by some Baltic Sea states within the framework of the HELCOM 13 monitoring program. In some countries such as Sweden the monitoring data are publicly 14 accessible, in others still some limitations exist. 15

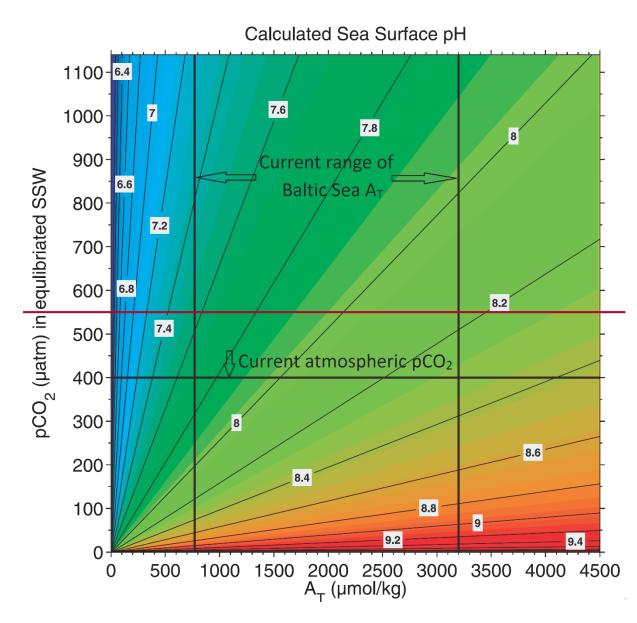
16  $A_T$  can also enter the Baltic Sea by submarine groundwater discharge (SGD). The chemical 17 composition of groundwater, as in river water, depends to some extent on the geological 18 structure of the catchment through which the water flows. Thus, SGD entering the Baltic Sea 19 along the continental part of the coast can be rich in  $A_T$ . Szymczycha et al. (2014) noticed 20 significant  $C_T$  concentrations (5400 µmol kg<sup>-1</sup> on average) in SGD seeping to the southern 1 Baltic along the Polish coast. <u>Although there might be some contribution from CO<sub>2</sub> to this high</u>

2  $\underline{C_T}$ , it is very likely This indicates that SGD can play, at least locally, an important role for the

- 3 A<sub>T</sub> budget. However, direct measurements of A<sub>T</sub> concentrations and loads in SGD have not
- 4 been reported in the Baltic Sea so far.

At equilibrium with the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, A<sub>T</sub> controls C<sub>T</sub> and thus pH. Hence, pH may be 5 depicted as a function of A<sub>T</sub> and pCO<sub>2</sub>. A sensitivity study performed by Omstedt et al., (2010) 6 7 indicates that the pH of the Baltic Sea surface water that is at equilibrium with the atmosphere (pCO<sub>2</sub> of ca. 400 µatm at 0 °C) can vary between 7.7 and 8.3 depending on the A<sub>T</sub> (Fig. 4). 8 This range is significantly higher than that observed in the open ocean, where A<sub>T</sub> oscillates 9 only in a narrow range: 2170-2460 µmol kg<sup>-1</sup> (Riebesell et al., 2010). The reason for that is the 10 high spatial variability of A<sub>T</sub> in the surface Baltic Sea waters, from low A<sub>T</sub> (below 1000 µmol 11 kg<sup>-1</sup>) observed in the Bothnian Bay to the A<sub>T</sub>-rich (more than 3000 µmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) estuaries of the 12 large continental rivers. The diagram presented in Fig. 4 also shows that higher A<sub>T</sub> reduces 13 shifts in seawater pH caused by changes in pCO<sub>2</sub>. 14

15



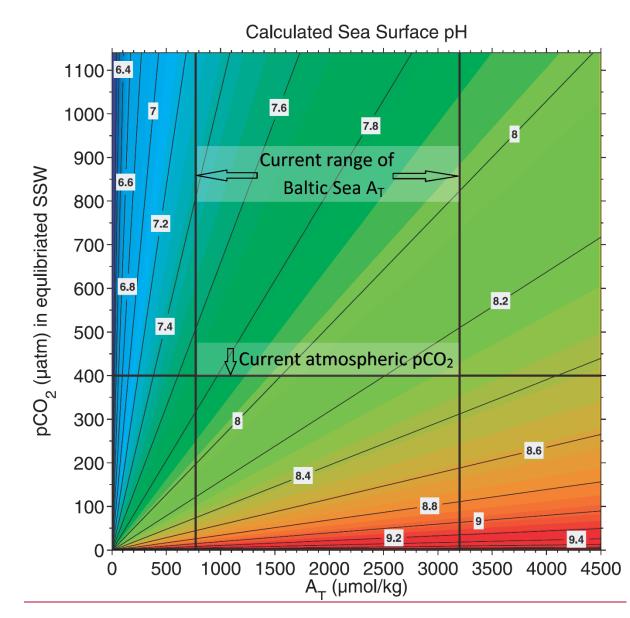


Fig. 4. Distribution of pH<sub>tot</sub> as a function of A<sub>T</sub> and pCO<sub>2</sub> at salinity of 7.5 and temperature of
0 °C (modified after Omstedt et al., 2010). The A<sub>T</sub> range represents findings by Beldowski et
al. (2010). SSW is an abbreviation for surface seawater.

5

1

#### 6 3.3.2. Long-term A<sub>T</sub> changes, consequences for ocean acidification

Long-term high resolution pH measurements at station BATS (Bermuda Atlantic Time Series)
in the sub-tropical North Atlantic have shown that ocean acidification occurs at a rate that is
thermodynamically consistent with the increase of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Bates, 2014). This
gives reason to expect that the progression of ocean acidification can be assessed on the basis
of CO<sub>2</sub> emission scenarios and the modelling of the effect on the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. It also
implies that changes in alkalinity will not occur in the future. On time scales of decades this

1 may be a reasonable assumption for the oceans which react very slowly to internal or external 2 changes. However, the situation is different for the Baltic Sea that is under the immediate influence of natural and anthropogenic processes on land. The first hints of increasing alkalinity 3 in the surface water of the central Baltic Sea were reported by Schneider et al. (2015) who 4 5 argued that this may have considerably mitigated the acidification due to increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Müller et al. (2016) took up this idea and performed a thorough and 6 7 comprehensive statistical analysis of all alkalinity data that were available since the start of CO<sub>2</sub> research in the Baltic Sea at the beginning of the last century. The authors focused on 8 high-quality data measured after 1995 and detected a distinct AT trend that showed a clear 9 regional gradient. The highest trend was found in the Gulf of Bothnia (7.0 µmol kg<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>), 10 followed by 3.4 µmol kg<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the central Baltic, whereas no trend could be detected in the 11 Kattegat. Müller et al. (2016) estimated that the changes in A<sub>T</sub> have reduced the acidification 12 effect in the central Baltic Sea by about 50 % and that the Gulf of Bothnia was not subjected 13 at all to acidification during the last 20 years. Several reasons for the increasing AT are 14 discussed by Müller et al. (2016), but a major player could not be identified and, hence, it 15 remains unclear whether the trend will continue in the future. 16

17

#### 18 **3.3.3. Effect of organic alkalinity**

The Baltic Sea water contains 3-5 times more organic matter than open ocean waters. In the 19 surface water of the open Baltic Sea, concentrations of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) range 20 from about 260 to about 480  $\mu$ mol C L<sup>-1</sup>, while those in the surface water (top 100 m) of the 21 Atlantic Ocean are much lower and range between 50 and 80  $\mu$ mol C L<sup>-1</sup> (Hoikkala et al., 2015; 22 Carlson et al., 2010). This is a result of both high inputs of terrestrial organic matter and 23 24 eutrophication driven by nutrient supply from land (Hoikkala et al., 2015; Kuliński and Pempkowiak, 2011; Kuliński et al., 2011). Organic substances contain functional groups, some 25 26 of which (carboxylic, phenolic, amines) have acidic character and can dissociate in seawater releasing protons (H<sup>+</sup>). This contributes to pH decrease. However, as most of these groups are 27 28 believed to act as weak acids (pKa>4.5), their dissociation releases also an equivalent of organic 29 anions being strong bases. This, according to Eq. 2, causes no change in A<sub>T</sub> concentration since 30 an equivalent amount of protons have been released. It affects the internal structure of A<sub>T</sub> by changing the contributions of different A<sub>T</sub> components according to their individual 31 32 dissociation constants (Cai et al., 1998; Hunt et al., 2011; Kuliński et al., 2014). The lower the  $pK_a$  of an organic acid added to the system, the greater are the shifts in the internal  $A_T$ 33

distribution. As a consequence bases forming the acid-base system are partially protonated and their concentration decreases while the concentration of the corresponding undissociated acid is increasing. In case of the carbonate alkalinity this means a reduction of  $CO_3^{2-}$  and an increase of H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and thus of the pCO<sub>2</sub>.

Kuliński et al. (2014) estimated the organic alkalinity (Aorg) in the Baltic Sea as an excess 5 alkalinity calculated from the difference between measured AT and that calculated from CT and 6 pH or pCO<sub>2</sub>. They found A<sub>org</sub> of 25-35 µmol kg<sup>-1</sup> in the surface Baltic Sea water (from the 7 Arkona Basin to the Bothnian Bay) without any clear spatial distribution pattern. This Aorg 8 contribution amounted from 1.5 % to 3.5 % of the measured A<sub>T</sub> values. Even higher values of 9 more than 50  $\mu$ mol kg<sup>-1</sup> were found by Hammer et al. (2017) in the Baltic Sea surface mixed 10 layer during the spring phytoplankton bloom. They reported also that Aorg decreases with depth 11 and approaches zero below the permanent halocline due to pH decrease. 12

In sensitivity studies Kuliński et al. (2014) showed for the Baltic Sea that calculations 13 14 concerning the CO<sub>2</sub> system that are using measured A<sub>T</sub> may lead to significant errors if A<sub>org</sub> is ignored. Highest deviations between calculated and observed values were found when AT was 15 16 used together with C<sub>T</sub> for computations of pCO<sub>2</sub> and pH. The pCO<sub>2</sub> values obtained in that way 17 were by 27-56 % lower than the measured ones, while pH was overestimated by more than 0.4 18 units. These results are especially important as this combination (A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub>) is used in 19 biogeochemical models because they are conservative variables (Edman and Omstedt, 2013; Kuznetsov and Neumann, 2013; Omstedt et al., 2012 and 2009) because they are conservative 20 variables. This means that they are independent of pressure and temperature and follow the law 21 of conservation of mass during mixing, which are prerequisites for variables transported in 22 23 models. The first attempts to include an Aorg parametrisation in biogeochemical models have been made by Gustafsson et al., (2015) and Omstedt et al. (2015). However, the sensitivity of 24 the models with regard to the inclusion/negligence of Aorg has not yet been reported. 25

26 The source of the calculation errors related to ignoring Aorg is due to the fact that measurements include all inorganic and organic contributors, catch also Aorg-while subsequent calculations 27 28 using the standard chemical A<sub>T</sub> model and respective software, interpret the measured A<sub>T</sub> only 29 as inorganic alkalinity. Including organic substances into the AT model is, however, 30 challenging as there are number of organic substances having acidic functional groups and, according to the A<sub>T</sub> definition, for each of them the information on concentration and 31 32 dissociation constants must be available. Accounting for Aorg in the chemical AT model is less important for oceanic research because the low concentrations of dissolved organic matter 33

1 (DOM) in the oceans cause only minor effects. As a first approximation of the acid-base 2 properties of DOM for the Baltic Sea water, Kuliński et al. (2014) proposed to use one single bulk dissociation constant, pK<sub>DOM</sub> and relate A<sub>org</sub> to the concentration of dissolved organic 3 carbon (DOC), a commonly measured parameter. According to their studies, slightly corrected 4 5 by Ulfsbo et al. (2015), pK<sub>DOM</sub> in the Baltic Sea amounts to 7.34. They also estimated also experimentally that 12 % of DOC acts as a carrier for acidic functional groups in the Baltic Sea 6 7 DOM. The model studies by Ulfsbo et al. (2015) showed that this experimentally derived share 8 fits to the share estimated from the hypothetical structure of the fulvic acids. They also 9 suggested also that the method proposed by Kuliński et al. (2014) is the best available approach for representing organic alkalinity in biogeochemical models at the current state of knowledge. 10 They also showed also that organic matter (as represented by the fulvic acids) contains also a 11 lot of acidicsome functional groups having pKa already below 4.5. According to the definition 12 (Dickson, 1981) they should be considered as strong acids. In experimental studies Hammer et 13 14 al. (2017) also found also that humic and/or fulvic substances are more acidic than the bulk 15 DOM naturally occurring in the Baltic Sea. This may also be a source of uncertainty in the A<sub>T</sub> measurements as the determination of the titration end-point requires to titrate the samples 16 through this pH region. 17

18

#### 19 **3.3.4.** Role of borate alkalinity

20 The carbonate system plays a central role in the marine acid-base system. Thus, studies on 21 seawater pH and buffering capacity focus usually on the carbon species. Less attention is paid 22 to boron, though borates are, after bicarbonates and carbonates, the third most abundant 23 constituent of seawater A<sub>T</sub> (Eq. 2). Boron exists in seawater in form of weak boric acid, 24 B(OH)<sub>3</sub>, and their anions, B(OH)<sub>4</sub>. The high pK<sub>a</sub> (8.60 at salinity 35 and temperature 25  $^{\circ}$ C) 25 causes means that at seawater pH of about 8 the undissociated boric acid predominates. The boron concentration, B<sub>T</sub>, in seawater is approximated as a function of salinity or, for the 26 historical data, as a function of chlorinity (S = 1.80655 \* Cl). First measurements of boron 27 concentrations in the Baltic Sea were reported by Buch (1945), who found that  $B_T [mg kg^{-1}] =$ 28 0.133 \* S. This finding was confirmed recently by Lee et al. (2010) for the oceanic waters. 29 Another relationship linking B<sub>T</sub> and S and often used in acid-base system studies is that by 30 Uppström (1974), who reported that  $B_T [mg kg^{-1}] = 0.128 * S$ . All these formulas suggest a 31 fixed B<sub>T</sub>/S ratio which is only the case if the river water that enters the Baltic Sea contains no 32 33 boron. However, the studies by Kremling (1970, 1972) indicated that this is not the case and

that a  $B_T$  concentration anomaly exists in the Baltic Sea, where. He found that the experimentally determined  $T_B-B_T$  vs. S relationship yielded a river water  $B_T$  (anomaly term) of 0.15 – 0.20 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> at S = 0. This anomaly is not included in the chemical  $A_T$  model commonly used for numerical simulations of the CO<sub>2</sub> system and, similar to the effects of ignoring  $A_{org}$ , may lead to wrong conclusions. This can be especially critical at low salinities, where the effect of the anomaly is the largest.

7

### 3.4. Modulation of the acid-base system by organic matter production/mineralization (concurrent A<sub>T</sub> and C<sub>T</sub> changes)

#### 10 3.4.1. Biomass production

In the case that pH changes refer to equilibrium with the atmosphere, it may be meaningful to 11 12 consider the pH at a given alkalinity as a function of  $pCO_{2_{a}}$  because the atmospheric  $pCO_{2}$  is 13 then the only driver for any pH changes. However, when assessing pH changes as the consequence of internal biogeochemical transformations, it is more appropriate to consider AT 14 15 and  $C_T$  as the controls for the pH and the pCO<sub>2</sub>. Biomass production primarily alters  $C_T$  because phytoplankton (but also other plants) consume CO<sub>2</sub> in the course of photosynthesis (Fig. 5). As 16 a consequence it increases the pH and lowers the pCO<sub>2</sub> in the upper water layers and causes a 17  $pCO_2$  disequilibrium between seawater and the atmosphere. This leads to  $CO_2$  uptake by the 18 seawater and thus counteracts the effect of biomass production and dampens the pH increase. 19 However, the CO<sub>2</sub> exchange through the air-sea interface is much slower than the effects of 20 21 biological processes. Therefore, the Baltic Sea water is in almost permanent pCO<sub>2</sub> disequilibrium with the atmosphere throughout the year. In spring and summer seawater is 22 23 undersaturated with respect to atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> with two characteristic pCO<sub>2</sub> minima and two pH maxima (Fig. 5) which reflect the spring bloom and the mid-summer nitrogen fixation 24 25 period. In autumn and winter the Baltic Sea surface water pCO<sub>2</sub> increases over the atmospheric 26 values as a consequence of less active production in the upper water column and transport of 27 deeper CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched water to the surface by mixing (Fig. 5; Schneider, 2011).

Another way in which biomass production influences seawater pH and pCO<sub>2</sub> is related to nitrate consumption. As phytoplankton assimilate nitrate for growth an equivalent of H<sup>+</sup> is also transported to the cells to keep the charge balance neutral. According to Eq. 2 this increases the seawater  $A_T$  and thus <u>enhances raises</u> the pH during biomass production (Brewer and Goldman, 1976). At the same time it This assimilation also decreases the pCO<sub>2</sub> and therefore reinforces the drop in pCO<sub>2</sub> by biomass production. Some small A<sub>T</sub> changes can be also
induced by phosphate consumption. However, due to low phosphate concentration the effect
is negligible (Wolf-Gladrow et al., 2007).

Biological production also may consume  $CO_3^{2-}$  ions in the calcification processes. This causes A<sub>T</sub> reduction and in consequence pCO<sub>2</sub> increase and thus-also pH decrease. However, this mechanism has been recognized as less important in the Baltic Sea. According to studies by Tyrrell et al. (2008) the Baltic Sea surface water is undersaturated in winter with respect to both aragonite and calcite which are biogenic modifications of CaCO<sub>3</sub>. This possibly prevents the growth of calcifying plankton and is the reason for the absence of coccolithophores in the Baltic Sea.

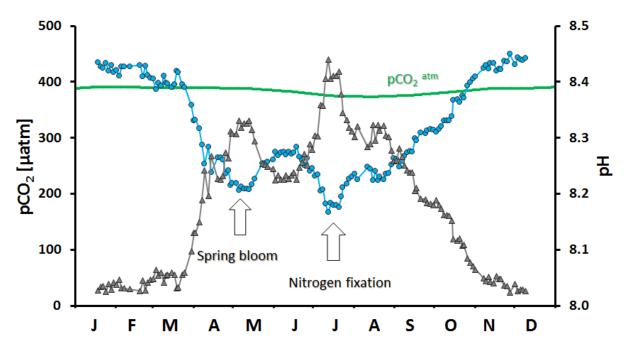


Fig. 5. Typical seasonality of pCO<sub>2</sub> in surface water (blue line) and the atmosphere (green line)
in the Eastern Gotland Sea modified after Schneider (2011) and presented together with pH
calculated from the shown pCO<sub>2</sub> data and the mean A<sub>T</sub> value.

15

11

#### 16 **3.4.2. Remineralization**

17 In contrast to biomass production,  $CO_2$  is released during the remineralization processes and 18 causes an increase in  $C_T$ . Consequently, this leads to a pH decrease and pCO<sub>2</sub> increase. Some 19 fraction of organic matter produced in situ undergoes remineralization in the upper water 20 layers. Particulate organic matter (POM) may be mineralized directly or via prior release of 21 dissolved organic matter (DOM). In the Baltic Sea terrigenous organic matter entering the sea

1 from rivers constitutes an important part of the organic matter. Kuliński and Pempkowiak 2 (2011) reported that the Baltic Sea receives annually 340 Gmol of organic carbon from land. The model studies by Gustafsson et al. (2014a) suggested that as much as 39.5% of terrigenous 3 organic carbon that enters the Baltic Sea undergoes mineralization without distinguishing 4 5 between mineralization pathways. This makes that it is difficult to estimate all the 6 consequences of that terrestrial organic carbon loss for the Baltic Sea acid-base system. The 7 incubation experiments performed by Kuliński et al. (2016) indicated that ca. 20 % of terrestrial 8 dissolved organic carbon and 34 % of DOC present in the Baltic Sea is bioavailable. It is 9 important to mention here is that the latter result refers likely to the mixture of terrestrial and 10 marine DOC.

11 Whereas the A<sub>T</sub> in surface water is mainly controlled by mixing of different water masses, the deep water A<sub>T</sub> distribution depends additionally on the organic matter transformations by 12 various redox processes (Brenner et al., 2016; Krumins et al., 2013; Thomas et al., 2009; Schulz 13 14 and Zabel, 2006). A certain fraction of the organic matter produced in the euphotic zone is 15 exported to deeper water layers and to surface sediments, where it undergoes mineralization, and produces CO<sub>2</sub>, and changes the alkalinity. The change in A<sub>T</sub> depends on the oxidant that is 16 17 required for the mineralization and may cover a wide range. Therefore, it is not possible to predict the change of pH or pCO<sub>2</sub> during the mineralization process without knowledge of the 18 19 oxidant. In the presence of oxygen, mineralization takes place according to Eq. 7 which is reversing the bulk photosynthesis reaction. However, in sediments and in deep water layers of 20 21 some basins of the central Baltic, where longer periods (years) of stagnation occur, oxygen 22 may be entirely depleted. Organic matter can then be mineralized in a certain 23 thermodynamically controlled sequence by other oxidants (Schulz and Zabel, 2006). First, 24 manganese dioxide takes over the role of oxygen (Eq. 8), followed by denitrification where nitrate acts as oxidant (Eq. 9). After nitrate is consumed, the mineralization process may be 25 continued by iron (III) oxide (Eq. 10) before sulphate oxidizes the organic matter and generates 26 27 hydrogen sulphide (Eq. 11). In the Baltic Sea these processes may take place in the water column where a pelagic redoxcline (an interface between oxic and anoxic conditions) can 28 develop during longer periods of stagnation. Only the final mineralization, that is an internal 29 30 oxidation and generates methane (methanogenesis, Eq. 12) after the sulphate concentration has approached zero, is confined to deeper sediment layers only. Except oxic mineralization, all 31 other processes are connected with a simultaneous AT increase caused either by release of 32 strong bases (S<sup>2-</sup>) or by consumption of  $H^+$  (see Eq. 2) (Ulfsbo et al., 2011; Schneider et al., 33

1 2015; Lukawska-Matuszewska, 2016). The change in  $A_T$  ( $\Delta A_T$ ) for different mineralization pathways is given in moles  $A_T$  per 106 moles of released CO<sub>2</sub> (Eqs. 7 – 12). It shows large 2 3 differences and is highest when the insoluble oxides of iron (III) and manganese (IV) are 4 reduced during the mineralization process. As a consequence of the higher A<sub>T</sub> level, the pCO<sub>2</sub> 5 increase and pH decrease by increasing C<sub>T</sub> during the mineralization is mitigated or may even 6 be reversed. In the eastern Gotland Sea these mechanisms stabilize the pH in the deep, anoxic 7 water layers at level of about 7 (Hammer et al., 2017).  $(CH_2O)_{106}(NH_3)_{16}(H_3PO_4) + 138O_2 \rightarrow 106CO_2 + 16H^+ + 16NO_3^- + 122H_2O + H_3PO_4$ 8 (7)

9 Oxic mineralization, 
$$\Delta A_T = -16$$

<u>Manganese reduction</u>,  $\Delta A_T = +472$ 

10

11 
$$(CH_2O)_{106}(NH_3)_{16}(H_3PO_4) + 236MnO_2 + 472H^+ \rightarrow$$
  
12  $236Mn^{2+} + 106CO_2 + 8N_2 + 366H_2O + H_3PO_4$ 
(8)

14

13

$$(CH_{2}O)_{106}(NH_{3})_{16}(H_{3}PO_{4}) + 84.8H^{+} + 84.8NO_{3}^{-} \rightarrow$$

$$16 \quad 106CO_{2} + 42.4N_{2} + 16NH_{3} + 148.4H_{2}O + H_{3}PO_{4} \qquad (9)$$

$$17 \quad Denitrification, \Delta A_{T} = +100.8$$

$$18$$

$$19 \quad (CH_{2}O)_{106}(NH_{3})_{16}(H_{3}PO_{4}) + 212Fe_{2}O_{3} + 848H^{+} \rightarrow$$

$$20 \quad 424Fe^{2+} + 106CO_{2} + 16NH_{3} + 530H_{2}O + H_{3}PO_{4} \qquad (10)$$

$$21 \quad Iron reduction, \Delta A_{T} = +864$$

$$22$$

$$23 \quad (CH_{2}O)_{106}(NH_{3})_{16}(H_{3}PO_{4}) + 53SO_{4}^{2-} \rightarrow$$

$$24 \quad 106CO_{2} + 16NH_{3} + 53S^{2-} + 106H_{2}O + H_{3}PO_{4} \qquad (11)$$

$$25 \quad Sulphate reduction, \Delta A_{T} = +122$$

$$26$$

$$27 \quad (CH_{2}O)_{106}(NH_{3})_{16}(H_{3}PO_{4}) \rightarrow 53CO_{2} + 53CH_{4} + 16NH_{3} + H_{3}PO_{4} \qquad (12)$$

$$28 \quad Methanogenesis, \Delta A_{T} = +16$$

21

1

2 Generally, benthic processes linked to early diagenesis of organic matter can be an important 3 source for  $A_T$  to the water column (Brenner et al., 2016). This corresponds to the findings by 4 Gustafsson et al. (2014b), who found in a model study that external sinks and sources of A<sub>T</sub> in 5 the Baltic Sea are imbalanced and cannot reproduce the observed A<sub>T</sub> inventory, and that an 6 internal A<sub>T</sub> source must exist in the Baltic Sea. However, it must be taken into account that 7 alkalinity released from sediments as sulphide and/or ammonia, only influence the acid-base 8 system only locally. Upon contact with oxic water most of the A<sub>T</sub> generating processes – except denitrification - are reversed and do not constitute a permanent A<sub>T</sub> source. Some minor increase 9 of A<sub>T</sub> can be also expected due to the burial of iron (II) minerals like pyrite or vivianite (Reed 10 11 et al., 2016).

12

#### 13 4. Challenges for the <u>future</u> research on the acid-base system in the Baltic Sea.

14 The general knowledge on of the marine acid-base system was gained mainly from the oceanic research. It has been integrated and documented in the form of a guide (Dickson et al., 2007) 15 and included in different software packages (Orr et al., 2015), that allow for computations of 16 two out of the four acid-base system parameters (pCO<sub>2</sub>, pH, A<sub>T</sub>, C<sub>T</sub>), when the other two are 17 known (e.g. by measurements). Although this works nicely for the open ocean waters, problems 18 appear when that knowledge is used for studying the acid-base system related processes in 19 20 coastal and shelf seas. This uncovers research gaps and bottlenecks but also define challenges 21 for marine biogeochemists working in these regions.

22 In this context the Baltic Sea can be considered as a perfect model experimental field, where 23 strong horizontal and vertical salinity gradients, permanent stratification of the water column, eutrophication, high organic matter concentrations and high anthropogenic pressure make the 24 25 acid-base system even more tangled. The challenges are related to analytical methods, 26 interpretation of the data and parametrization of the acid-base system related processes for the 27 use in numerical models. Great effort has recently been made to adapt spectrophotometric pH 28 measurements based on m-cresol purple to the Baltic Sea conditions. This was done by 29 Hammer et al. (2014) and was recently improved within a framework of the BONUS PINBAL 30 project. Further progress can be expected if pH reference materials for brackish water will beare made available in the future. For the pCO<sub>2</sub> measurements the state-of-the-art method that 31 32 is based on measuring the CO<sub>2</sub> content in air equilibrated with the seawater is commonly used

1 (e.g. Schneider et al., 2014). Due to a relatively long response time, this method may, however, 2 not be fast enough to resolve steep horizontal pCO<sub>2</sub> gradients in the vicinities of river mouths. The development of accurate and precise sensors for pCO<sub>2</sub>, like optodes, could improve our 3 understanding of the CO<sub>2</sub> system in the transition area from the coast to the open sea. 4 5 Additionally, it would facilitate pCO<sub>2</sub> measurements in discrete samples, which is are highly desired for investigations of the organic matter mineralization processes in the water column, 6 7 but difficult to obtain with common underway measurement techniques. The determination of A<sub>T</sub> by titration with an acid (HCl) allows a high accuracy  $(+/-2 \mu mol kg^{-1})$  for ocean water. 8 This is difficult to achieve for Baltic Sea water because the detection of the endpoint of the AT 9 titration is more difficult due to the influence of organic acid-base constituents. The studies by 10 Ulfsbo et al. (2015) showed that fulvic and humic acids, substances widely spread in the Baltic 11 Sea, have relatively high concentrations of acid-base constituents, which have pKa values close 12 to the pK<sub>a</sub> of carbonic acid and may thus impede the correct detection of the titration endpoint. 13 C<sub>T</sub> measurements are less critical since reference materials exist and the analytical procedure 14 15 is relatively straightforward. However, development of high accuracy underway methods for 16  $C_T$  (but also  $A_T$ ) would improve the horizontal coverage of the data.

17 Interpretations of the acid-base system data require appropriate parameterization of the related processes and chemical reactions. With regard to the Baltic Sea some peculiarities of the 18 composition of the acid-base system must be taken into account which are neglectable in ocean 19 20 waters. An example is the influence of DOM on the acid-base system. In the oceans it is ignored 21 due to low DOM concentrations but in the Baltic Sea organic alkalinity, Aorg, becomes a noticeable component of A<sub>T</sub> (Kuliński et al., 2014). The challenge remains to include the 22 23 contribution by DOM to the chemical A<sub>T</sub> model. The approach suggested by Kuliński et al. (2014) to use the so called bulk dissociation constant, K<sub>DOM</sub>, is only a first approximation, as 24 25 K<sub>DOM</sub> has no real thermodynamic meaning. It also does not allow for distinguishing the influence of individual substances. Respective improvements would require, however, also a 26 27 substantial progress in analytical methods-techniques, as the characterization of the structure and composition of DOM is still far from being satisfactory (Nebbioso and Piccolo, 2013). 28 29 Problems also arise also due to the ion anomalies observed in the Baltic Sea (Kremling 1970, 1972) that are not taken into account in the A<sub>T</sub> model. An example is boron, whose 30 concentration is usually approximated by the assumption of a constant boron/salinity ratio. 31 However, the function linking both these parameters does not account for river water as a 32 33 source of boron. Furthermore, common software for CO<sub>2</sub> system calculation also omits seawater constituents that are generated at anoxic conditions. These are mainly the acid-base systems:  $H_2S-HS^--S^{2-}$  and  $NH_4^+-NH_3$  which require consideration in computational models. All these shortcomings may cause uncertainties in any calculations of the CO<sub>2</sub> system including those in biogeochemical models when  $A_T$  is used as a controlling variable. It is also recommended to perform sensitivity studies in order to estimate the quantitative importance of **potentially missing or** inadequate chemical characterization of  $A_T$ .

7 Furthermore, we promote the implementation of the acid-base system (or marine  $CO_2$  system) 8 into biogeochemical models. This includes the simulation of surface water CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure,  $pCO_2$ . The  $pCO_2$  is an ideal validation variable because on the one hand it can easily 9 10 be measured with high spatiotemporal resolution (e.g. on Voluntary Observation Observing 11 Ships, VOS), and on the other hand it reflects the biogeochemical transformations such as 12 biomass production. Hence, the agreement between simulated and measured pCO<sub>2</sub> data give an indication for of the quality of the biogeochemical process parameterization. Or, vice versa, 13 14 unsatisfactory agreement gives reason to rethink the description of the respective processes in 15 the model.

16 The latter aspect was in the focus of several model studies which initially failed to reproduce 17 the observed pCO<sub>2</sub> draw down during spring and summer (Fig. 5). This indicated that the 18 traditional parameterization of the biomass production that is based on the Redfield (1963) 19 C/N/P ratios and on nutrient concentrations at the start of the productive period, does did not reflect the reality. Omstedt et al. (2009) solved the problem by including a fractional nutrient 20 release into their model. This means meant that nutrients that have been used for production, 21 are partly released from the POM and reused for new production. In another study Kuznetsov 22 et al. (2011) introduced an additional cyanobacteria group and flexible C/N/P ratios into their 23 24 model in order to achieve approximate agreement between the simulated and measured pCO<sub>2</sub>. 25 A further study by Gustafsson et al. (2014a) investigated the changes in the simulated CO<sub>2</sub> air-26 sea flux upon after including organic alkalinity and changes in external inputs of carbon, 27 alkalinity and nutrients. Modelling the CO<sub>2</sub> system was also used to simulate the vertical 28 distribution of total CO<sub>2</sub> and alkalinity in stagnant waters of the deep basins (Edman and 29 Omstedt, 2013) and to assess the importance of internal alkalinity generation (Gustafsson et al., 2014b). Finally, model calculations were used to estimate future changes in the Baltic Sea 30 31 CO<sub>2</sub> system and in particular in the development of the ocean acidification effect (Omstedt et 32 al., 2012; Kuznetzov and Neumann, 2013). Both simulations indicated that the increasing 33 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> will mainly control long-term changes in pH, of course, not taking into

account the recently reported current increase in alkalinity (see Chapter 3.3.2; Müller et al.,
 2016).

3

#### **4 5.** Summary and conclusions

5 With our review we have shown proposed that the Baltic Sea acid-base system cannot be 6 confined to explained by dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> and a minor contribution of boric acid. Whereas acid-7 base components other than CO<sub>2</sub> and borate may be ignored in ocean waters, this is not the case in the Baltic Sea and, presumably, other marginal and semi-enclosed seas, which in a 8 similar way are strongly impacted by high biomass production and natural and anthropogenic 9 processes in the connected catchments areas as well. The complexity of the Baltic Sea acid-10 base system is displayed in the formulation of the alkalinity (Eq. 2), which is the central 11 variable for the characterization of the acid-base properties of seawater. The peculiarities of 12 the Baltic Sea alkalinity system are either caused by specific internal processes related to 13 14 intense production/mineralization of organic matter, or to the immediate effect of riverine input 15 of acidic substances with acid acid base properties. The latter. This riverine input refers mostly to dissolved organic matter which may strongly affect the composition of the alkalinity in the 16 17 Baltic Sea surface water (Kuliński et al., 2014), Bbut it refers also to boric acid (borate) which in ocean water is linked to salinity by a constant ratio, but may show distinct deviations from 18 this ratio in some of the Baltic Sea estuaries because of boron input by river water (ion 19 20 anomaly).

21 Internal biogeochemical processes such as organic matter production or mineralization also 22 have also the potential to affect the acid-base system in the Baltic Sea. Alkalinity changes by 23 organic matter production caused by the removal of H<sup>+</sup> during the uptake of nitrate; are of minor importance. This may be different if the production is associated with calcification, 24 25 which that reduces the alkalinity. B, but the abundance of calcifying plankton in the Baltic Sea is restricted to the high-salinity Kattegat region. Although the effect of organic matter 26 27 production on alkalinity is minor, it is the major control for the seasonal modulation of the acid-base properties such as pH and pCO2-which however is nothing specific for the Baltic Sea. 28 29 In contrast, organic matter mineralization taking place at anoxic conditions in the Baltic Sea

deep basins, causes changes in the acid base system which are specific for marine systems with
 a pelagic redoxcline. <u>Anoxic Mm</u>ineralization of organic matter on the basis of sulphate

32 reduction generates large amounts of alkalinity by the formation of sulphide ions and the

1 release of ammonia. This reduces the increase of the pCO<sub>2</sub> in the deep water and stabilizes the 2 pH at a value close to 7. Although these processes are reversed upon re-oxidation during a deep 3 water renewal event and are do not affecting the acid-base system of the Baltic Sea as a whole, 4 they are influencing do influence the deep water redox chemistry which is partly controlled by 5 the pH. But On the other hand the existence of a pelagic redoxcline has another more farreaching importance. It is the medium for intense denitrification, which increases the alkalinity 6 7 not only locally, but may affect the alkalinity budget of the entire Baltic Sea proper (Gustafsson 8 et al., 2014).

9 Our compilation of the major features of the Baltic Sea acid-base system indicates that an exact 10 quantitative treatment of its properties is difficult to achieve. This refers to both the biogeochemical modelling and the interpretation of measured alkalinity in terms of the 11 12 calculation of individual alkalinity contributions. An example is the calculation of the carbonate alkalinity that is necessary for the full characterization of the CO<sub>2</sub> system based on 13 14 measurements of alkalinity and together with another variable. It This requires knowledge of 15 the dissociation constants and the determination of the total concentrations of the individual compounds with acid-base properties. Regarding inorganic alkalinity contributions, it may be 16 17 realistic to get these obtain this information. But in view of our limited knowledge concerning 18 the composition of the dissolved organic matter, it is currently hopeless imposible to specify 19 and characterize the contributions of individual organic acid-base compounds to the alkalinity. Hence we conclude that this is one of the greatest challenges for more adequate comprehensive 20 21 physico-chemical characterization of the acid-base system in the Baltic Sea and likely in the 22 other coastal seas. Another important bottleneck, especially for the biogeochemical modelling, 23 is also an insufficient knowledge on short and long term development of alkalinity loads from land caused by processes occurring in the catchment. 24

25

#### 26 6. Acknowledgements

The study was completed thanks to funding provided by the National Science Centre, Poland, grants no. 2015/19/B/ST10/02120 and 2014/13/D/ST10/01885. Significant financial support was provided also by BONUS and the Polish National Centre for Research and Development - sponsors of BONUS PINBAL project (grant no. BONUS-INNO-2012-03/2014). The contribution of B. Schneider to this study was supported by the Foundation for Polish Science within the Alexander von Humboldt Polish Honorary Research Scholarship. This study

- 1 comprises a part of the Baltic Earth Earth System Science for the Baltic Sea Region. <u>We</u>
- 2 thank both anonymous reviewers for insightful and constructive comments and suggestions.
- 3

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