investigations within the METRO project is much improved, and the data can ultimately be integrated in regional geological and ecological studies of deep-sea environments. Within the METRO project, the methane concentrations and fluxes in the sediments and into the ocean from such sites through controlled degassing studies of autoclave cores, through gas desorption experiments, and through geochemical flux measurements will be studied in future cruises. These findings can then be integrated with the results of geoacoustic mapping of the cold seep sites in order to derive better regional methane flux estimates.

#### Acknowledgments

This is publication GEOTECH-189 of the research and development program Geotechnologien funded by the German Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) and the German Research Foundation (DFG), projects OMEGA (grant 03G0566A) and METRO (grant 03G0604A).

#### References

Aloisi, G., M. Drews, K. Wallmann, and G. Bohrmann (2004), Fluid expulsion from the Dvurechenskii mud volcano (Black Sea): Part I. Fluid sources and relevance to Li, B, Sr, I and dissolved inorganic nitrogen cycles, *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.*, 225, 347–363.

Boetius, A., K. Ravenschlag, C. J. Schubert, D. Rickert, F. Widdel, A. Giesecke, R. Amann, B. B. Jorgensen, U. Witte, and O. Pfannkuche (2000), A marine microbial consortium apparently mediating anaerobic oxidation of methane. *Nature*, 407, 623–626.

De Beukelaer, S. M., I. R. MacDonald, N. L. Guinasso Jr., and J. A. Murray (2003), Distinct side-scan sonar, RADARSAT SAR, and acoustic profiler signatures of gas and oil seeps on the Gulf of Mexico slope, *Geo Mar. Lett.*, 23, 177–186.

Dickens, G. R. (1999), The blast in the past, *Nature*, 401, 752–755.

Egorov, V. N., G. G. Polikarpov, S. B. Gulin, Y. G. Artemov, N. A. Stokozov, and S. K. Kostova (2003), Present-day views on the environment-forming and ecological role of the Black Sea methane gas seeps (in Russian). *Mar. Ecol. J.*, 2(3), 5–26.

sian), Mar. Ecol. J., 2(3), 5–26. Greinert, J., and B. Nützel (2004), Hydroacoustic experiments to establish a method for the determination of methane bubble fluxes at cold seeps, Geo Mar. Lett.. 24, 75–85.

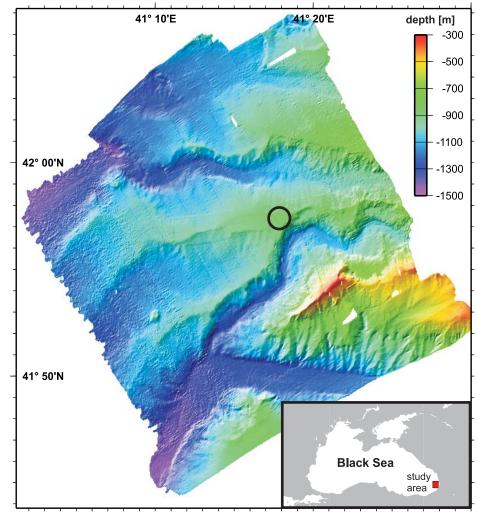


Fig. 2. Bathymetric grid of the area offshore Georgia studied during the METRO project. Data have been acquired with a portable ELAC Bottomchart Mk.II (Mark II) multibeam system working at 50 kHz. Grid cell size is 50 meters. Circle shows the location of seeps shown in Figure 1.

Merewether, R., M. S. Olsson, and P. Lonsdale (1985), Acoustically detected hydrocarbon plumes rising from 2-km depths in Guaymas Basin, Gulf of California, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *90*(B4), 3075–3085. Ritger, S., B. Carson, and E. Suess (1987), Methane-

derived authigenic carbonates formed by subduction-induced pore-water expulsion along the Oregon-Washington margin, *Geol. Soc. Am. Bull.*, 98, 147–156.

#### Author Information

Ingo Klaucke and Wilhelm Weinrebe, IFM-GEO-MAR, Kiel, Germany; Heiko Sahling and Gerhard Bohrmann, Research Center Ocean Margins, Bremen, Germany; and Dietmar Bürk, Kiel University, Germany

# Modeling Past Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>: Results of a Challenge

PAGES 341, 345

The models and concepts used to predict future climate are based on physical laws and information obtained from observations of the past. New paleoclimate records are crucial for a test of our current understanding.

The Vostok ice core record [Petit et al., 1999] showed that over the past 420 kyr (1 kyr = 1000

By E. Wolff, C. Kull, J. Chappellaz, H. Fischer, H. Miller, T. F. Stocker, Andrew J. Watson B. Flower, F. Joos, P. Köhler, K. Matsumoto, E. Monnin, M. Mudelsee, D. Paillard, and N. Shackleton years), Antarctic climate and concentrations of the greenhouse gases carbon dioxide ( $\mathrm{CO_2}$ ) and methane ( $\mathrm{CH_4}$ ) were tightly coupled. In particular,  $\mathrm{CO_2}$  seemed to be confined between bounds of about 180 ppmv (parts per million by volume) in glacial periods and 280 ppmv in interglacials; both gases rose and fell with climate as the Earth passed through four glacial/interglacial cycles.

During 2004, new Antarctic temperature and dust records from the European Programme for Ice Coring in Antarctica (EPICA) Dome C (EDC) ice core were published extending back to 740 kyr [EPICA Community Members, 2004]. The early part of the record shows a changed

behavior, with much weaker but longer interglacials. The imminent appearance of an ice core record of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> covering the same period prompted a challenge issued in an *Eos* article at the end of last year [*Wolff et al.*, 2004] for the modeling community to predict, based on current knowledge, what the greenhouse gas records will look like.

This article describes the submissions to the challenge. Several groups took up this "EPICA challenge," using models, concepts, and correlations; their predictions were presented as posters at the 2004 AGU Fall Meeting.

Although different approaches were used, most of the teams effectively assume that Southern Ocean processes are the main control on atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Most of them expect that the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration will look very similar to Antarctic temperature throughout the extended time period, with no overall

trend in concentration. This means that they make a prediction that will be tested when the measured data are published: that interglacials in the pre-Vostok period, which were cooler than recent interglacials, will also have a  $\rm CO_2$  concentration substantially below 280 ppmv.

Eight teams sent detailed results and agreed that they could be presented together in this article (Figure 1). Two of the teams (Monnin and Joos) are in one of the laboratories that is making the  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  analysis of the EDC ice. However, the approaches presented here are independent of any new data, and they use only published data from other sources. For reasons of brevity, only the first author of each group has been listed.

Also, the focus is on the amplitude and frequency of changes in  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  concentration, rather than on the exact phasing in time: timing mismatches between entries may arise from response times in the Earth system, but may also arise from uncertainties in the timescales of the paleodata underlying some of the entries.

No group made a proposition about the past evolution of  $\mathrm{CH_4}$  prior to 420 kyr (the Vostok period). The entries for  $\mathrm{CO_2}$  range from simple correlations using existing paleodata through to complete biogeochemical carbon cycle models. Each entry can be seen as testing a particular hypothesis, whose validity may be judged when the extended data set from EDC is published.

#### Correlations with Ice Core Data

Two entries involve a correlation with ice core data only, using Vostok, or the shallow part of EDC, as a training set. The first of these (Mudelsee) finds the best linear relationship between  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  from Vostok and deuterium (the temperature proxy) from EDC to 414 kyr, allowing a small time lag [Mudelsee, 2001]. The entry then extends the record to 740 kyr using deuterium from EDC. This predicts that  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  minima in the earlier period are around 200 ppmy, with maxima around 250–260 ppmy, significantly lower than during the Vostok era. This prediction can be seen as a test of whether Antarctic (and, by implication, Southern Ocean) temperature is the major control on global atmospheric  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  content

Monnin's entry relates CO<sub>2</sub> concentration to EDC data for deuterium (linear) and dust concentration (logarithmic) for only the last 22 kyr [Monnin et al., 2001] and extends the relationship between CO<sub>2</sub> and these variables back in time. Given the limited calibration period, this leads to a surprisingly good correlation with existing Vostok CO2 data. Monnin's entry predicts minima in the pre-Vostok era (420-740 kyr) similar to those afterward (180–200 ppmv), with maxima of only 250–260 ppmv (compare 280-300 ppmv in the Vostok era). The underlying assumption is that the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is controlled by Southern Ocean factors such as sea ice extent and sea surface temperature (with deuterium as their proxy) and iron supply (with dust as its proxy).

## Correlations with Marine Sediment Data

Two entries involve a correlation with marine sediment data. One of them (Shackleton)

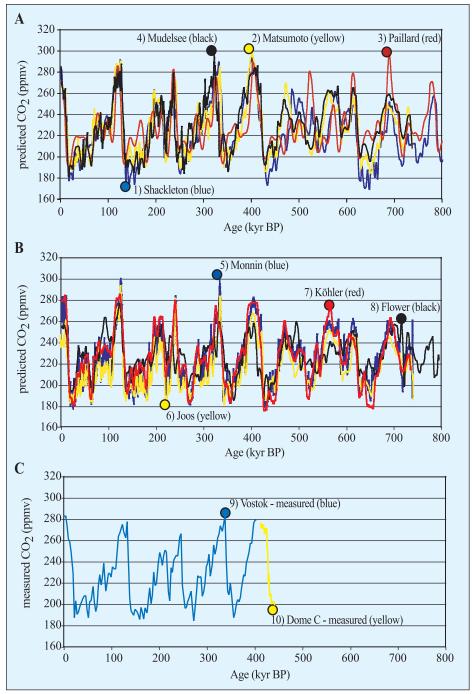


Fig. 1. (a and b) Predictions of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration over the past 740 kyr, labeled with the name of the respective lead author. (c) CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations measured in ice cores. The Vostok data are on the timescale known as GT4 [Petit et al., 1999]; the small amount of additional data published so far from the EPICA Dome C core (EDC2 timescale) are included [EPICA Community Members, 2004]. The two timescales have a small mismatch at the period of overlap between the two records, but this presentation allows the changes in CO<sub>2</sub> occurring at the glacial/interglacial transition known as Termination V, about 430 kyr B.P., to be seen.

uses only the benthic oxygen isotope record, after subtracting the part that appears to be linearly related (with appropriate time lags) to orbital forcing [Shackleton, 2000]. The entry is based on a hypothesis that CO<sub>2</sub> is the key player in transmitting and amplifying the ice age cycles, and that it ultimately plays a large role in controlling factors such as deepwater temperature and ice volume (which are recorded in the benthic record). Thus, CO<sub>2</sub> can be inverted from the benthic data. This method also gives a surprisingly good agreement with

 $\mbox{Vostok CO}_2 \mbox{ and, in common with many other} \mbox{entries, suggests pre-Vostok interglacial values} \mbox{ of around } 250\mbox{--}260 \mbox{ ppmv}.$ 

Flower's entry, which also involves a correlation with marine sediment data, supposes that chemical stratification and associated carbonate compensation is an important means of sequestering  $CO_2$  in the deep ocean [Flower et al., 2000] and that it therefore controls atmospheric  $CO_2$ . The gradient of the carbon isotopic composition ( $\delta^{13}C$ ) between intermediate and deep waters in the Atlantic is used, with

the constant of proportionality between  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  and this gradient determined from Vostok data. In this entry, the prediction has a different pattern: pre-Vostok minima around 200–210 ppmv and maxima around 250–260 ppmv. Although the maxima numbers are low, they are similar to this model's prediction for each interglacial prior to the last one.

### Other Approaches

One entry (Joos) looks at the problem from a different perspective. It assumes that irrespective of the cause of CO2 variations, lowfrequency variations in Antarctic temperature (represented by deuterium) are determined by radiative forcing from three main components: CO<sub>2</sub>, aerosol (represented by ice core dust), and ice sheet extent (represented by marine benthic oxygen isotope content  $(\delta^{18}O)$ ). The equations can be inverted to determine the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. Parameters for the strength of forcing from each factor are chosen to match the Vostok record. In practice, this uses correlations similar to some of the other entries and finds reduced interglacial values (240-250 ppmv) in the pre-Vostok era.

This entry demonstrates the difficulty of separating out cause and effect in simple correlative approaches, because Antarctic temperature forces  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  change in several entries, and  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  forces temperature in this entry; Antarctic dust acts as a proxy for aerosol forcing of Antarctic temperature (Joos) and as a proxy for iron-fertilization-induced  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  changes (Monnin).

One entry uses even more inputs in a multiple linear regression model (Matsumoto): Vostok CO<sub>2</sub> data are fitted to a combination of Vostok deuterium and dust, paleoceanographic proxies for deep ocean carbonate dissolution, North Atlantic deepwater formation and ice volume, and calculated insolation at various latitudes. Using the EDC deuterium and dust data in place of the equivalent Vostok data, this model predicts reduced pre-Vostok interglacial CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, in common with many of the other models. In practice, the ice core deuterium record explains much of the variance in the CO<sub>2</sub> record in the multiple linear regression model.

Another entry (Köhler) uses an oceanatmosphere-biosphere box model [Köhler et al., 2005] of the carbon cycle (including isotopes of carbon), in which many of the important processes are physically parameterized. The model is forced by ice core and marine data sets, and it represents the most complete attempt in this exercise. This model predicts higher CO<sub>2</sub> values than many of the entries in pre-Vostok interglacials (up to 270 ppmv in marine isotope stage 15). It does a reasonable job of simulating Vostok data, and it has the advantage that ice core and marine  $\delta^{13} C$  data can be used as additional constraints on the outcome. On the basis of this modeling exercise, deep stratification of the Southern Ocean, changes in sedimentation/dissolution rates of calcium carbonate, and iron fertilization all contribute significantly to the glacial/interglacial  $CO_2$  cycles.

Finally, one entry (Paillard) uses a conceptual model that predicts global ice volume and CO<sub>2</sub> using only the insolation forcing as input and a set of threshold rules [Paillard and Parrenin, 2004]. The hypothesis is that deglaciations are triggered by glacial maxima, through a mechanism that involves atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. When the Antarctic ice sheet reaches its maximum extent, deep ocean stratification breaks down, leading to a rapid increase in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. In contrast to most of the other entries, this model predicts no significant difference between the pre-Vostok and Vostok eras.

In summary, most entrants predict lower  $CO_2$  concentrations in pre-Vostok interglacials, in line with lower Antarctic temperatures. No entry expects any overall trend in  $CO_2$  concentration to be seen. Most of them implicitly assume that processes in the Southern Ocean control changes in atmospheric  $CO_2$  and that  $CO_2$  and Antarctic temperature will remain very tightly coupled through the entire period.

When the  $\mathrm{CO_2}$  data from the EPICA ice core itself appear, they will show if these simple conclusions in these models are confirmed. The similar results from different approaches used here might appear surprising, but this should not be interpreted as meaning that there is a good common understanding of the dynamics of past changes in atmospheric  $\mathrm{CO_2}$ . Because most of the entries used a correlative approach, and all used other paleoclimatic time series, the comparison with the data will address only the more limited question of whether we have an understanding of the relationship between  $\mathrm{CO_2}$  and other aspects of climate.

The similar results reflect the fact that most climate variables respond together at major glacial/interglacial transitions. Between transitions, different processes sometimes act in isolation, and differences in detail of the model outputs should be helpful in assessing the importance of each process. The timing of change may also be diagnostic; this will require increased certainty in the synchronization of timescales between ice core gas records, ice core climate records, marine records, and absolute age

(determining orbital changes).

The EDC  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  and  $\mathrm{CH}_4$  records back to 650 kyr are expected to be published during 2005. They are likely to become new iconic curves, and targets for all who wish to understand the Earth system well enough to predict its future evolution.

#### References

EPICA Community Members (2004), Eight glacial cycles from an Antarctic ice core, *Nature*, 429(6992), 623–628.

Flower, B. P., D. W. Oppo, J. F. McManus, K. A. Venz, D. A. Hodell, and J. L. Cullen (2000), North Atlantic intermediate to deep water circulation and chemical stratification during the past 1 Myr, *Paleoceanography*, 15(4), 388–403.

Köhler, P., H. Fischer, and R. E. Zeebe (2005), Quantitative interpretation of atmospheric carbon records over the last glacial termination, *Global Biogeochem. Cycles*, doi:10.1029/2004GB002345, in press. Monnin, E., et al. (2001), Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over the last glacial termination, *Science*,

291(5501), 112–114.

Mudelsee, M. (2001), The phase relations among atmospheric  $CO_2$  content, temperature and global ice volume over the past 420 ka, *Quat. Sci. Rev.*, 20(4), 583–589.

Paillard, D., and F. Parrenin (2004), The Antarctic ice sheet and the triggering of deglaciations, *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.*, 227(3-4), 263–271.

Petit, J. R., et al. (1999), Climate and atmospheric history of the past 420,000 years from the Vostok ice core, Antarctica, *Nature*, 399, 429–436.

Shackleton, N.J. (2000), The 100,000-year ice-age cycle identified and found to lag temperature, carbon dioxide, and orbital eccentricity, *Science*, 289(5486), 1897–1902.

Wolff, E. W., J. Chappellaz, H. Fischer, C. Kull, H. Miller, T. F. Stocker, and A. J. Watson (2004), The EPICA challenge to the Earth system modeling community, Eos Trans. AGU, 85(38), 363.

#### Author Information

Authors issuing the EPICA Challenge: Eric Wolff, British Antarctic Survey, Cambridge, U.K.; Christoph Kull, Past Global Changes (PAGES) International Project Office, Bern, Switzerland; Jerome Chappellaz, Laboratoire de Glaciologie et Geophysique de l'Environnement, Grenoble, France; Hubertus Fischer and Heinz Miller, Alfred Wegener Institute, Bremerhaven, Germany; Thomas F.Stocker, University of Bern, Switzerland; Andrew J. Watson, University of East Anglia, Norwich, U.K. EPICA Challenge Entrants: Benjamin Flower, University of South Florida, Tampa; Fortunat Joos, University of Bern, Switzerland; Peter Köhler, Alfred Wegener Institute, Bremerhaven, Germany; Katsumi Matsumoto, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis; Eric Monnin, University of Bern, Switzerland; Manfred Mudelsee, University of Leipzig, Germany: Didier Paillard, Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et l'Environnement, Gif-sur-Yvette, France; and Nick Shackleton, University of Cambridge, U.K.