

Climate System II

(Winter 2021/2022)

5th lecture:

The Global Water Cycle

(water cycle, stable water isotopes, ice core records)

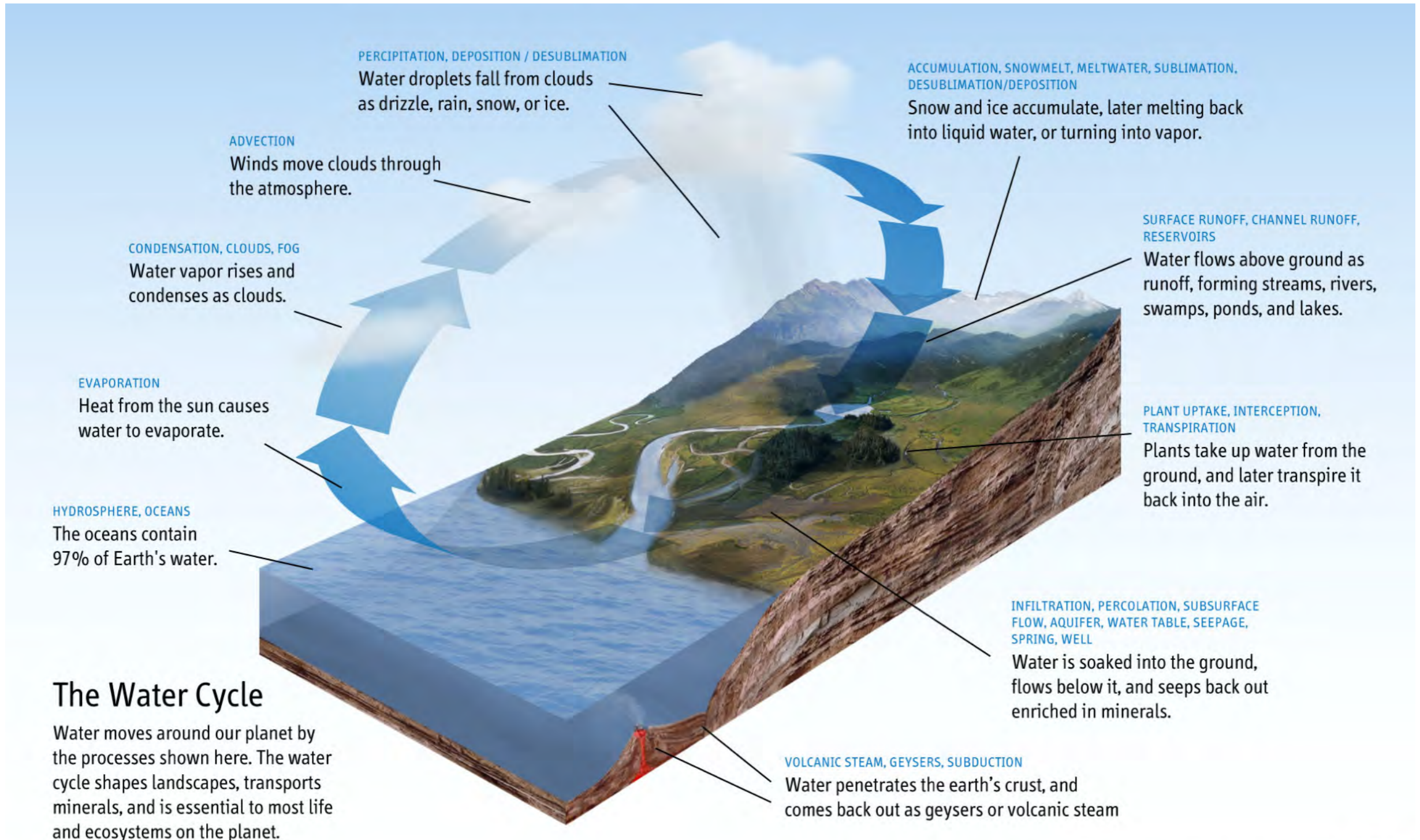
Gerrit Lohmann, Martin Werner

Tuesday, 10:00-11:45

(sometimes shorter, but then with some exercises)

https://paleodyn.uni-bremen.de/study/climate2021_22.html

The global water cycle

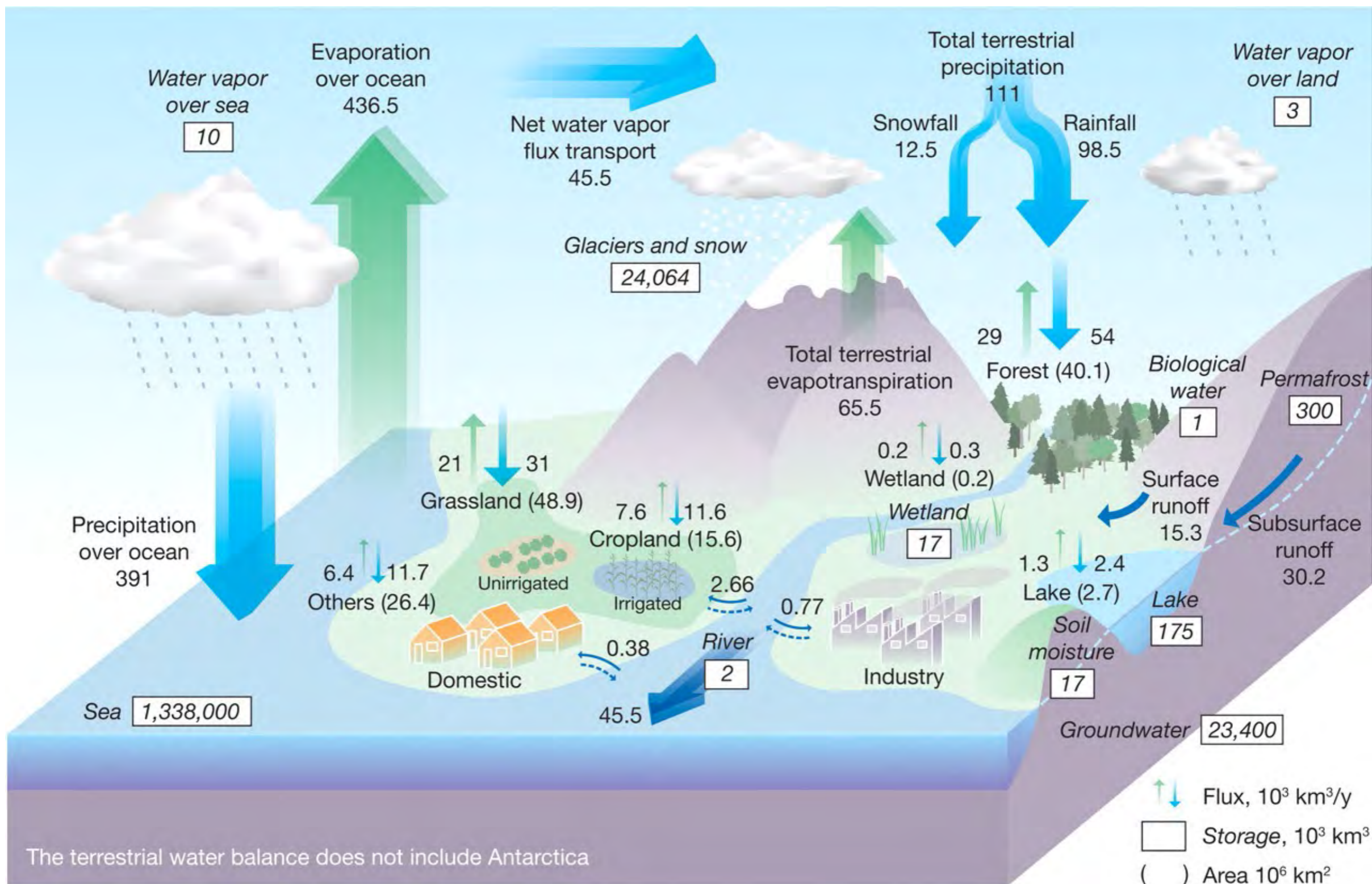


The Water Cycle

Water moves around our planet by the processes shown here. The water cycle shapes landscapes, transports minerals, and is essential to most life and ecosystems on the planet.

Water Cycle v1.11 (2018) was created by Ehud Tal. Contact info at ehudtal.com

The global water cycle

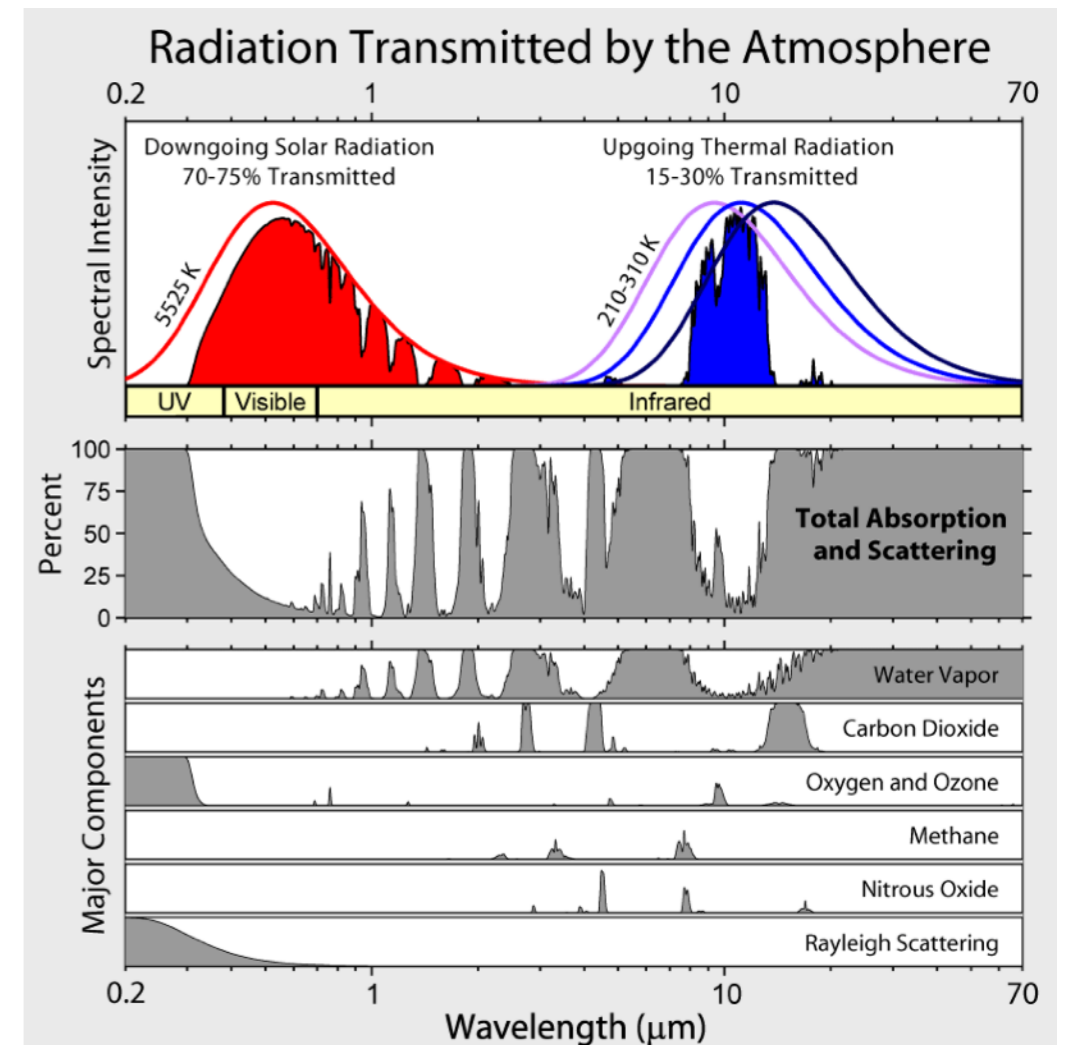


Taikan Oki, and Shinjiro Kanae Science 2006;313:1068-1072

Fig. 1. Global hydrological fluxes (1000 km³/year) and storages (1000 km³) with natural and anthropogenic cycles are synthesized from various sources (1, 3–5).

The global water cycle

- absolute water amount:
 - (i) in the atmosphere: $0.013 \cdot 10^6 \text{km}^3$
 - (ii) in the oceans: $1,338 \cdot 10^6 \text{km}^3$
- 97.3% of all available water (liquid equivalent) is stored in the oceans
- mean residence time of water molecules can range between a few days (in the atmosphere) to thousands of years (in the large glaciers and ocean)
- water is the most important greenhouse gas



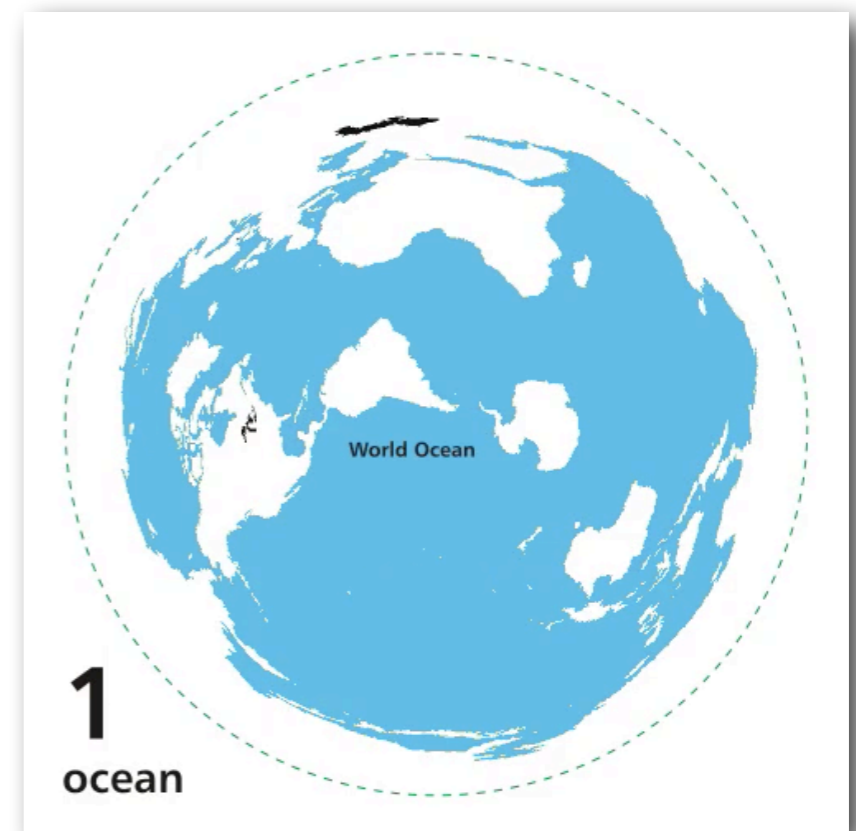
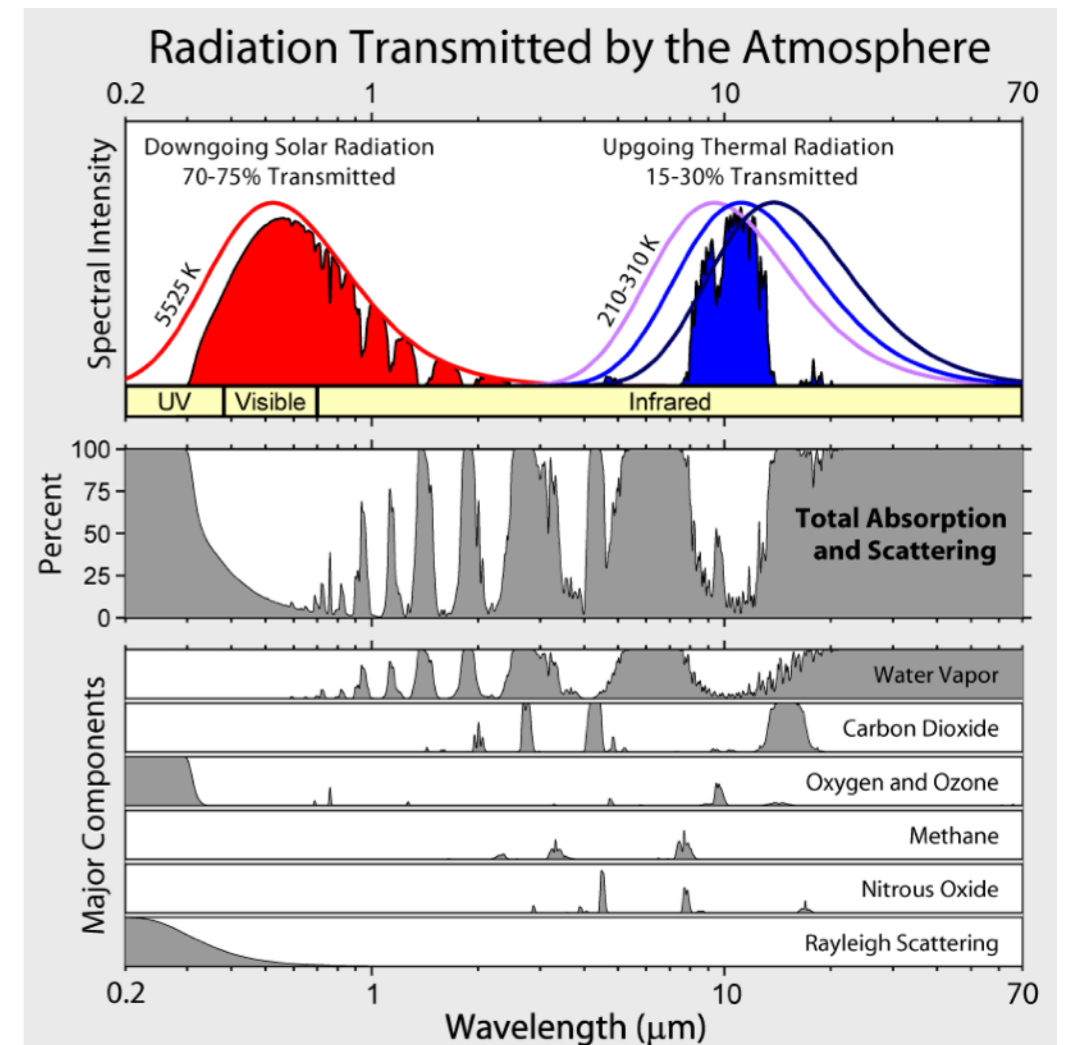
The global water cycle

Quizz - Questions #1:

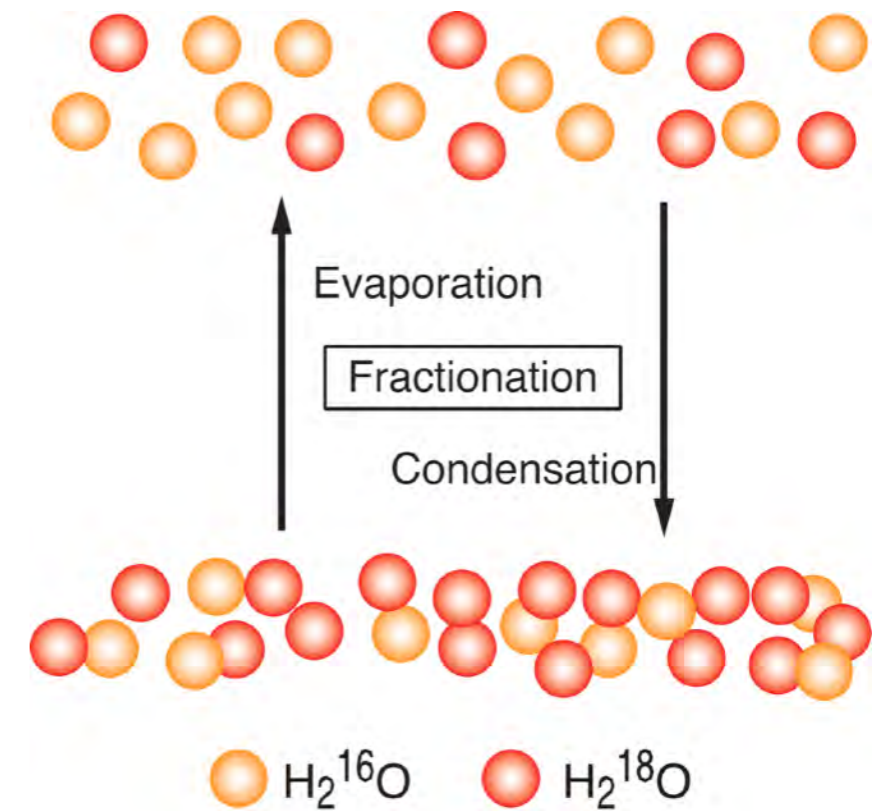
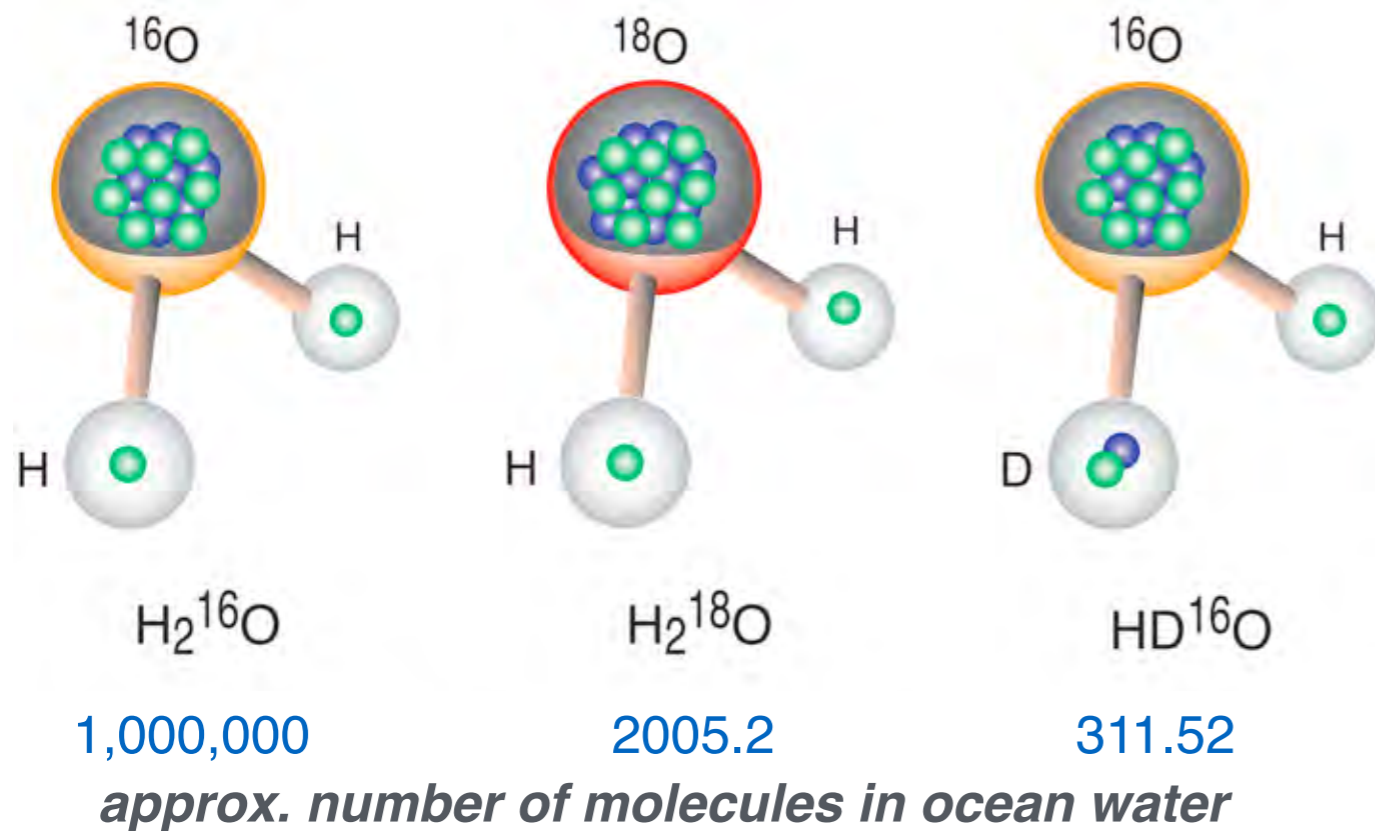
1. How many oceans do exist on Earth?
2. Assume all water vapour in the atmosphere is liquid and distributed as a water layer on the Earth's surface.
=> How high would such a water layer be?

The global water cycle

- absolute water amount:
 - (i) in the atmosphere: $0.013 \cdot 10^6 \text{km}^3$
 - (ii) in the oceans: $1,338 \cdot 10^6 \text{km}^3$
- 97.3% of all available water (liquid equivalent) is stored in the oceans
- mean residence time of water molecules can range between a few days (in the atmosphere) to thousands of years (in the large glaciers and ocean)
- water is the most important greenhouse gas
- how many oceans do exist on Earth
=> the answer depends whom you ask...
- vapour as a liquid layer: approx. 2.5cm high



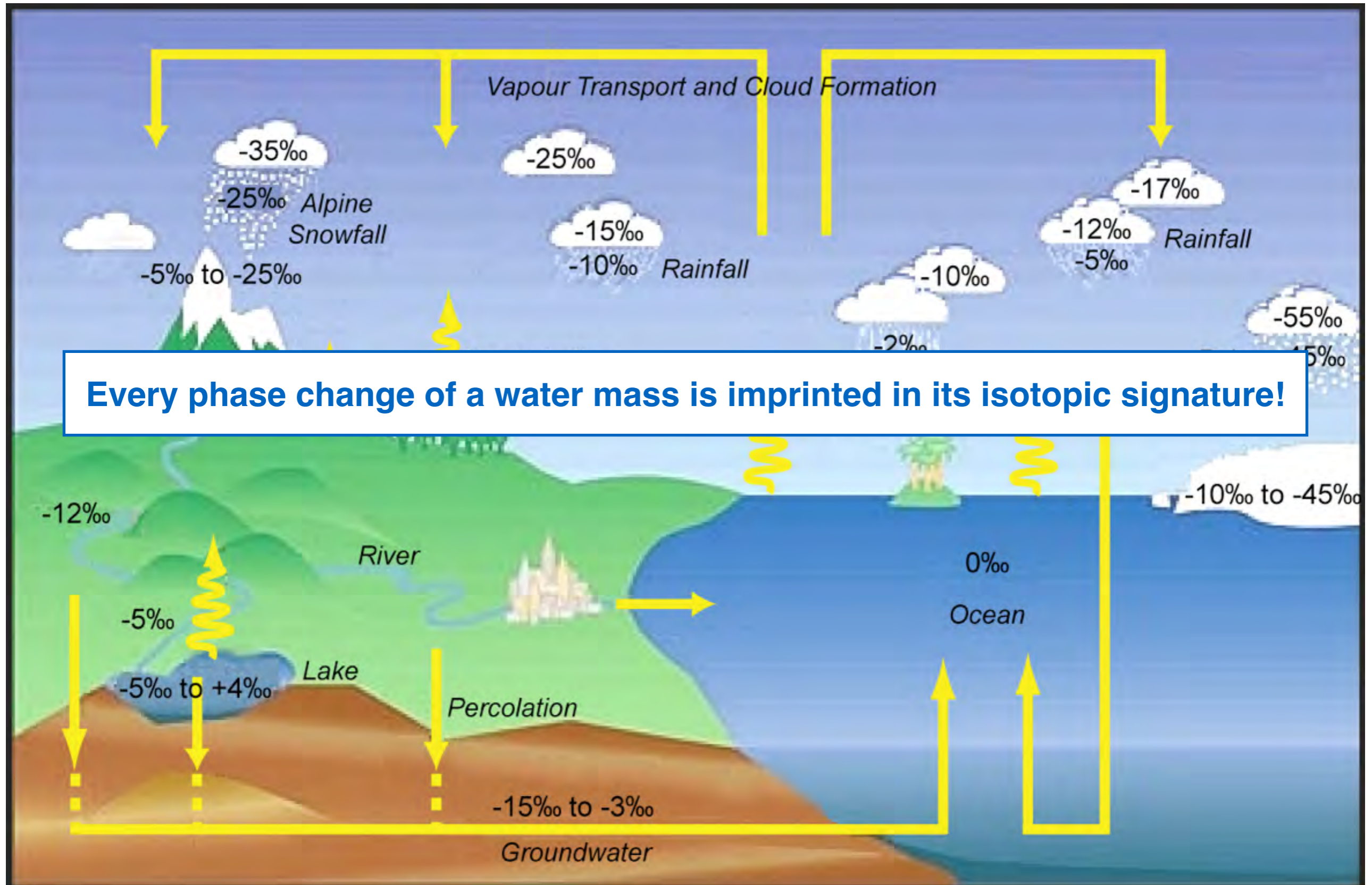
Natural abundance of stable water isotopes



- **different isotopes have a different molecular weight and a different molecular symmetry** (*both effects change the vapour pressure of the water isotopes*)
- **fractionation:** light isotopes evaporate more easily while heavy isotopes prefer to stay in the liquid (or solid) phase
- the strength of the fractionation is temperature-dependent and expressed in a **delta-notation** (typically given in ‰)

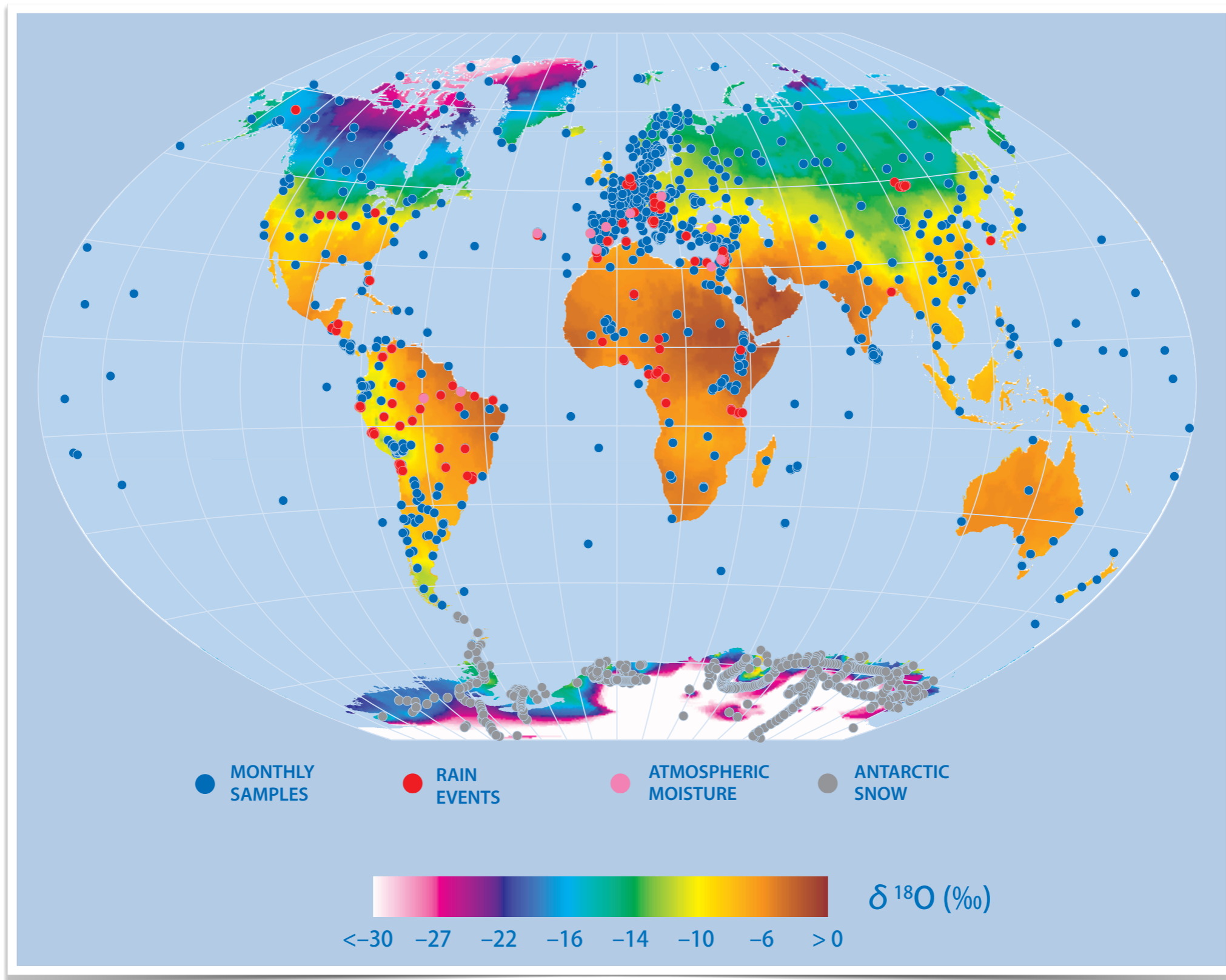
$$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sample}} = \left(\frac{\left[\frac{\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}}{\text{H}_2^{16}\text{O}} \right]_{\text{sample}}}{\left[\frac{\text{H}_2^{18}\text{O}}{\text{H}_2^{16}\text{O}} \right]_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) * 1000.$$

Global distribution of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the hydrological cycle



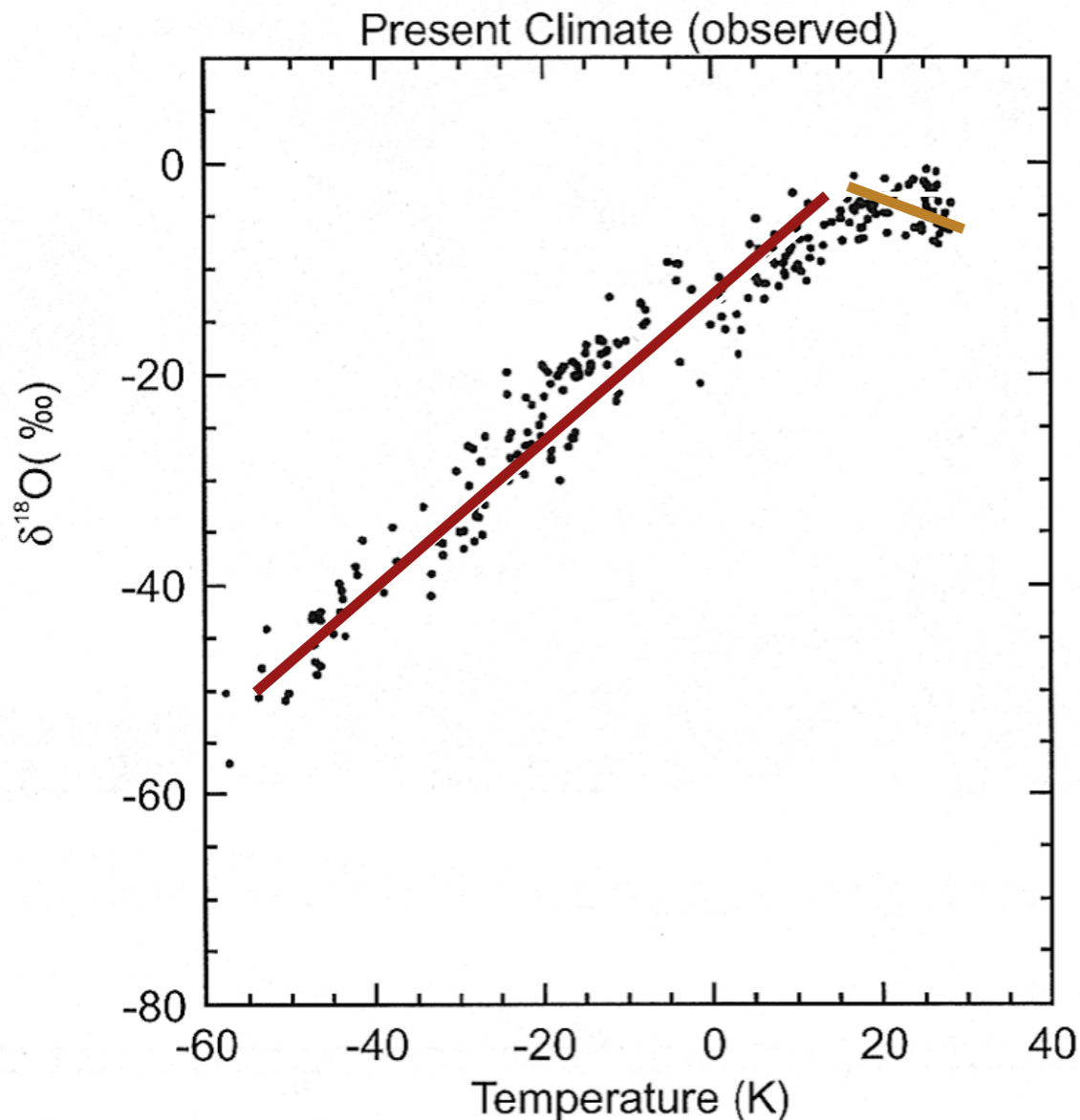
Every phase change of a water mass is imprinted in its isotopic signature!

Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP)



(GNIP brochure: http://www-naweb.iaea.org/naweb/ih/IHS_resources_gnip.html)

Stable water isotopes as a temperature or precipitation proxy



Annual $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in precipitation in relation to mean annual temperature at the same site, based on data from the International Atomic Energy Agency.

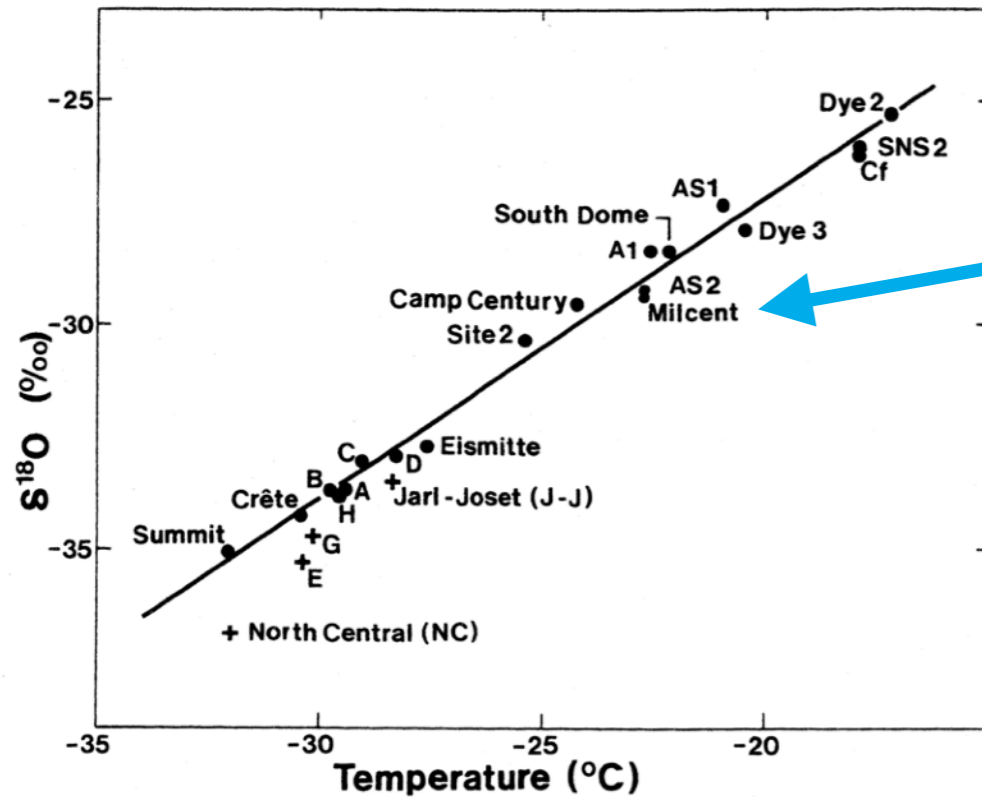
(from: Jouzel et al., 1994)

- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal is influenced by environmental conditions during evaporation and condensation
- the exact fractionation processes can be very complex to describe
- on a global scale, two effects dominate:
 - *the **temperature effect**: linear relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and surface temperature for mid- to high latitudes*
 - *the **precipitation effect**: linear relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and rainfall amount, mainly in tropical regions with strong precipitation events and (almost) constant surface temperatures*
- for paleoclimate studies, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD are used (among others) for two purposes:
 - *measurement of δ -signals in ice cores and terrestrial records are used for **temperature** or **rainfall amount** reconstructions*
 - *$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -variations in marine sediments indicate changes in **global ice volume***

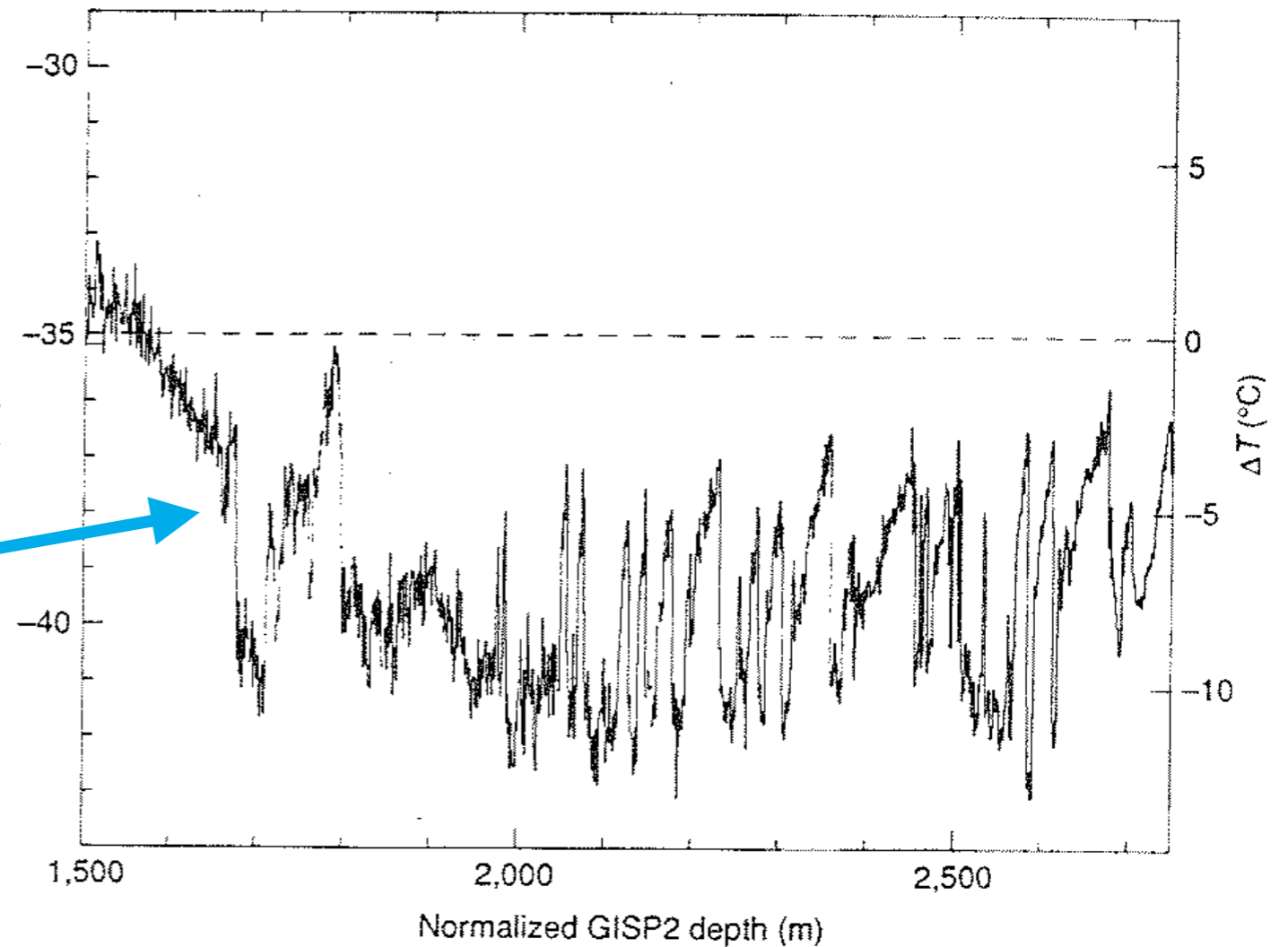
The use of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in precipitation as a temperature proxy

Modern spatial relation
between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and surface temperature
(on Greenland):

$$\delta^{18}\text{O} = 0.67 \cdot T_{\text{surf}}$$



[Johnsen et al., Tellus, 1989]



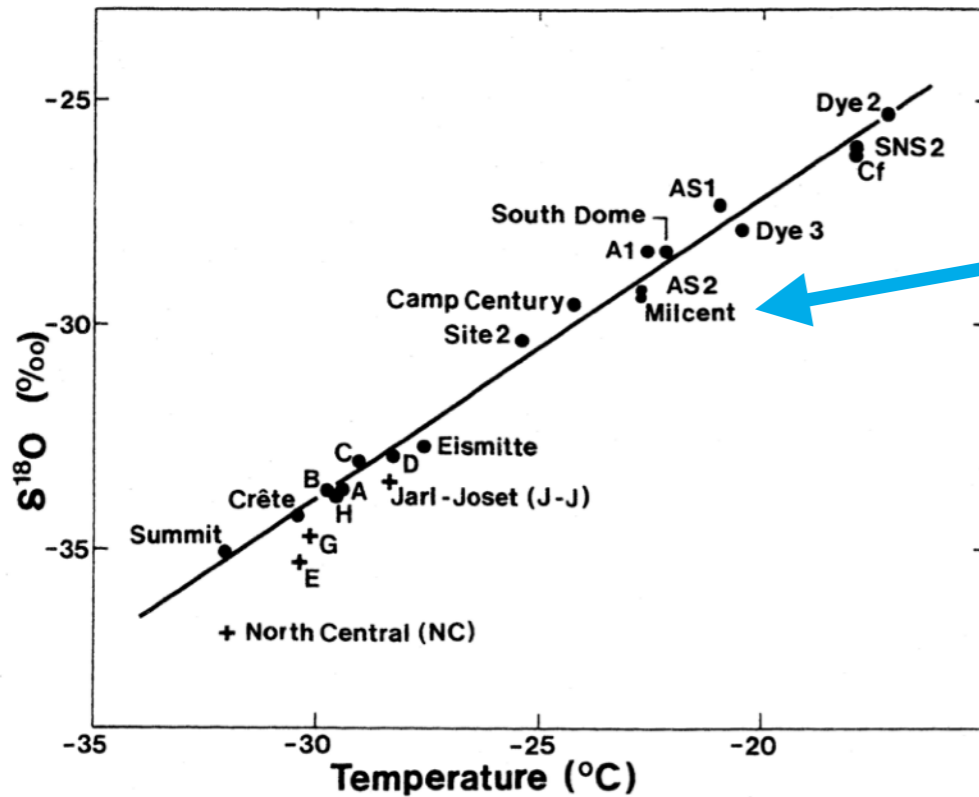
Converting temporal changes
of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ into past temperature
changes

[Grootes et al., Nature, 1993]

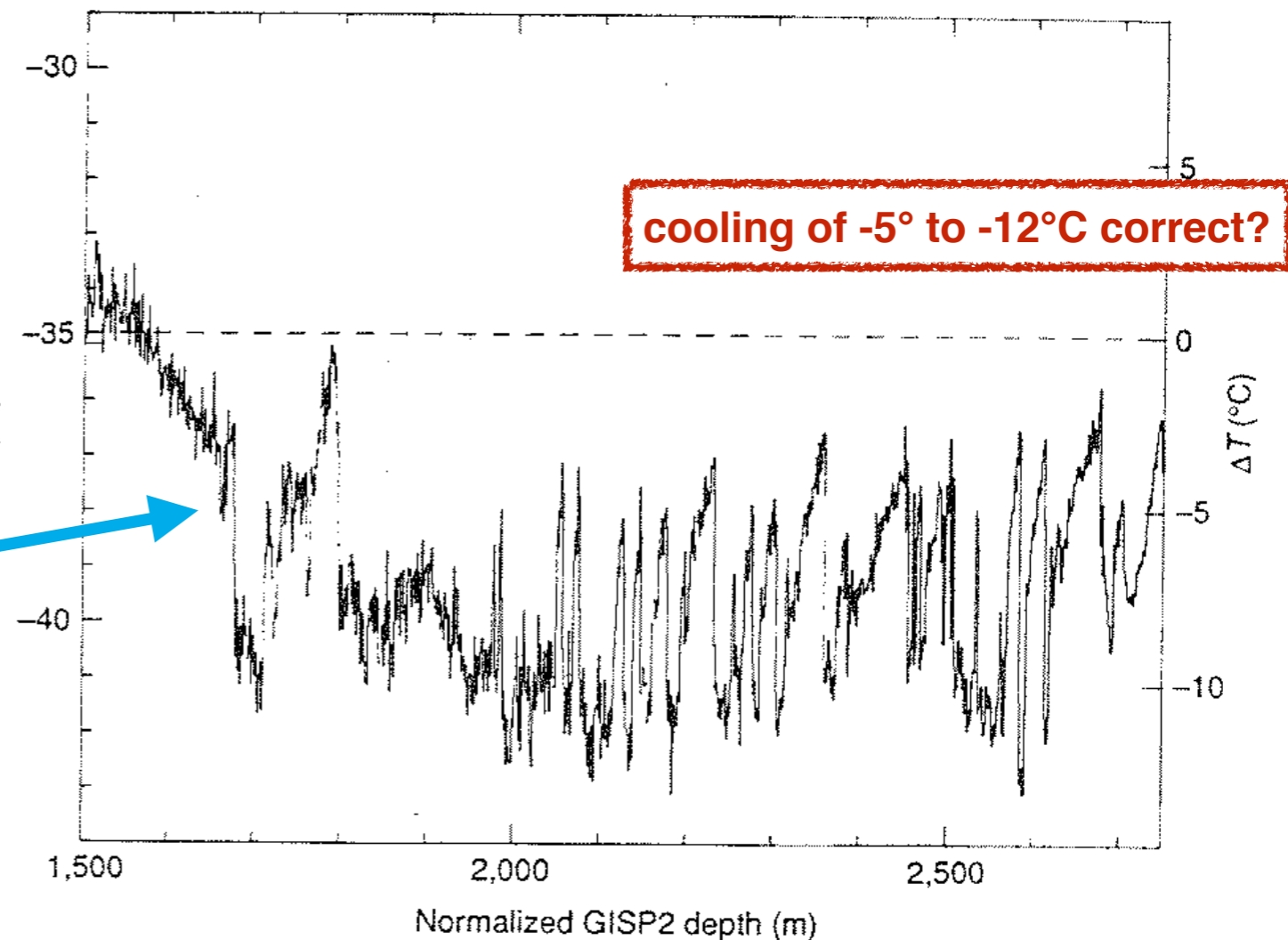
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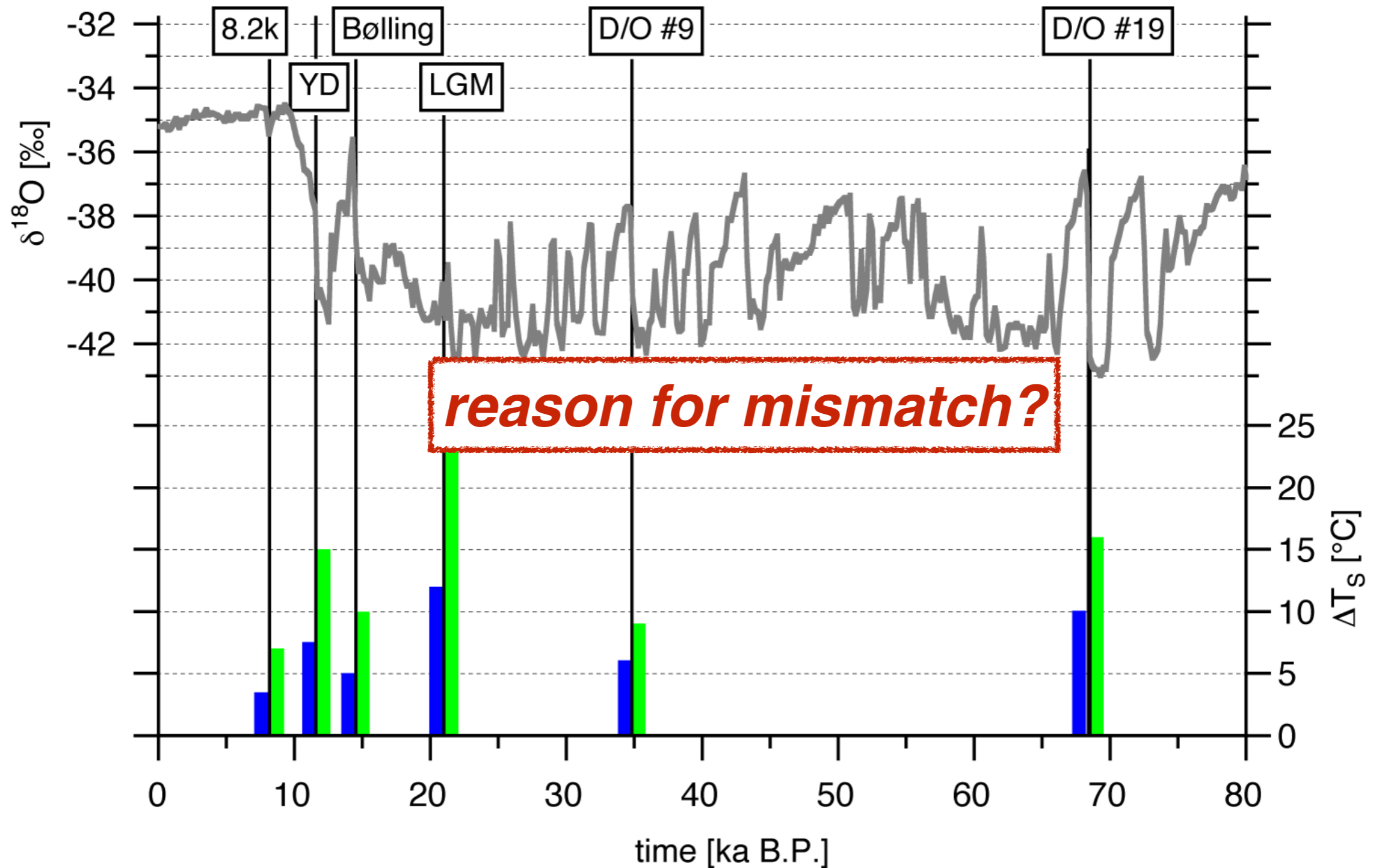
[Johnsen et al., Tellus, 1989]



Converting temporal changes
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[Grootes et al., Nature, 1993]

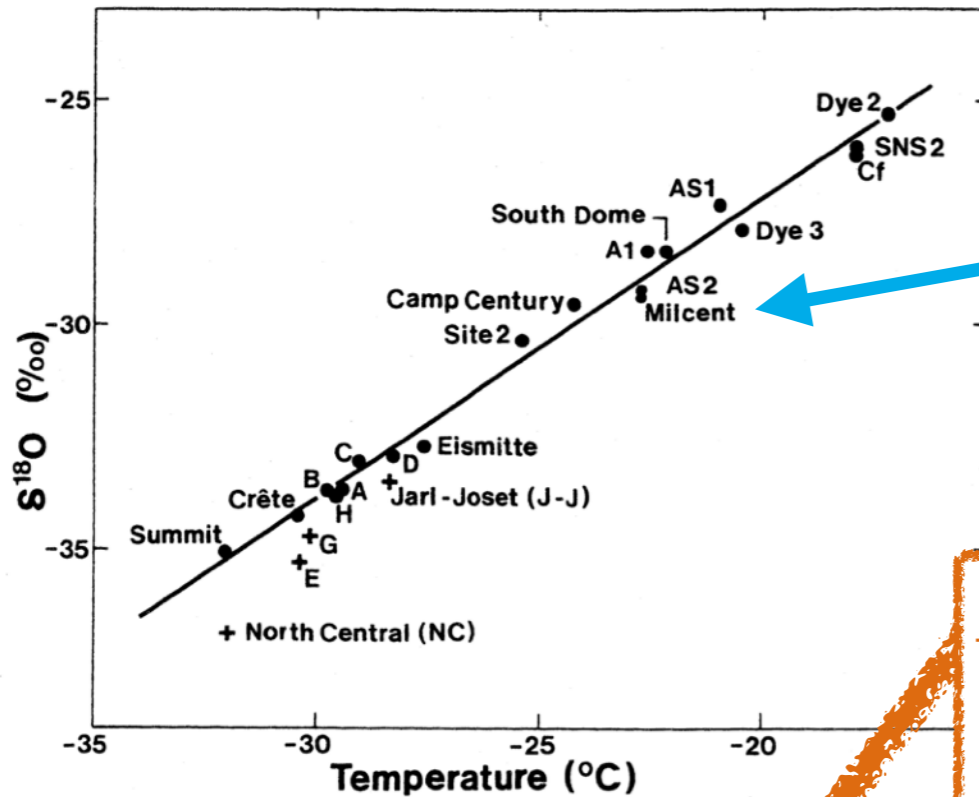
Different past temperature estimates for Greenland



The use of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in precipitation as a temperature proxy

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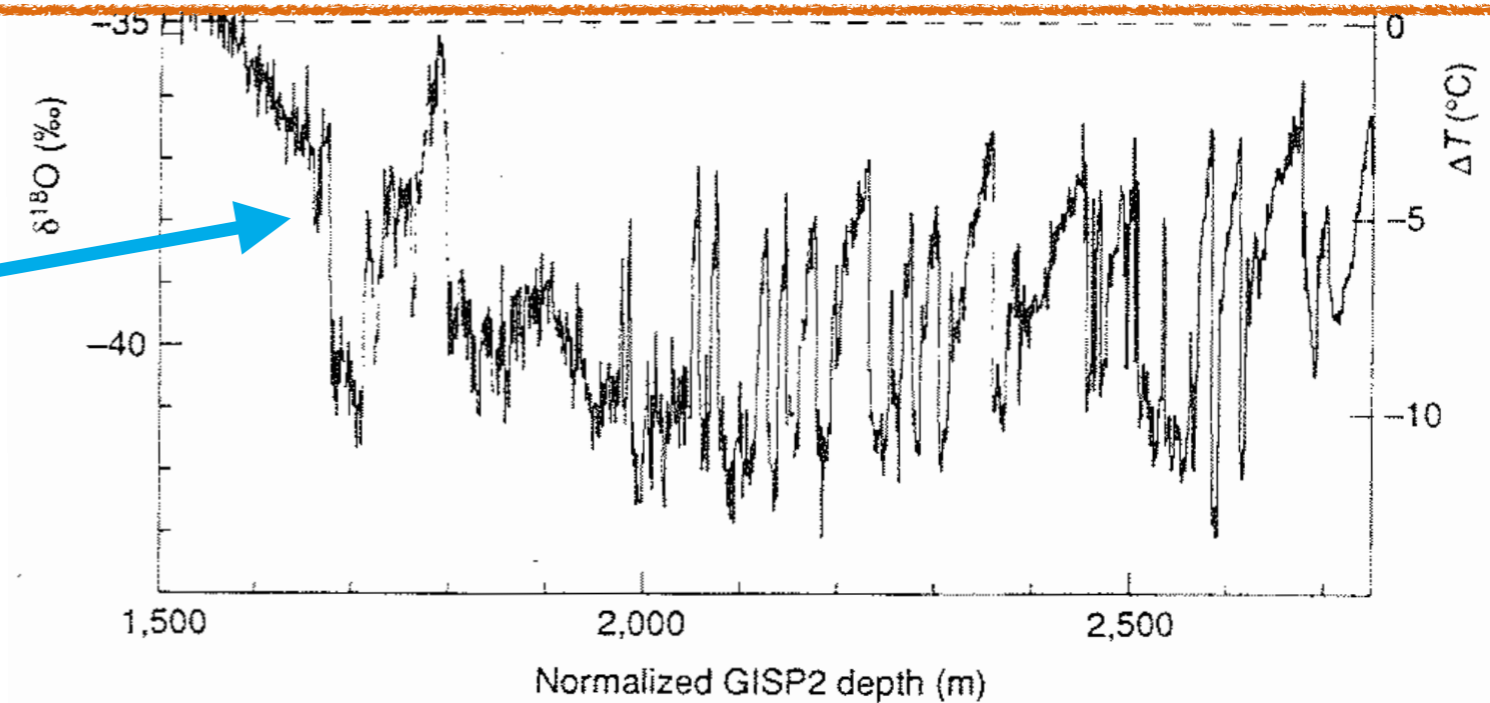


[Johnsen et al., Tellus, 1989]

a priori assumption:

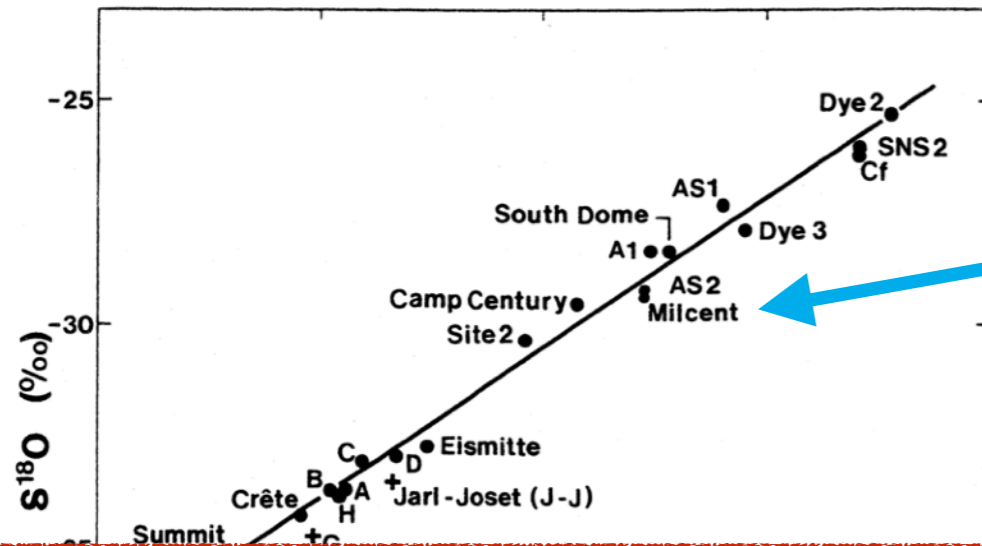
- temporal and spatial slopes are equal
- „constant characteristics“ of circulation processes

Converting temporal changes
of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ into past temperature
changes



[Grootes et al., Nature, 1993]

The use of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in precipitation as a temperature proxy

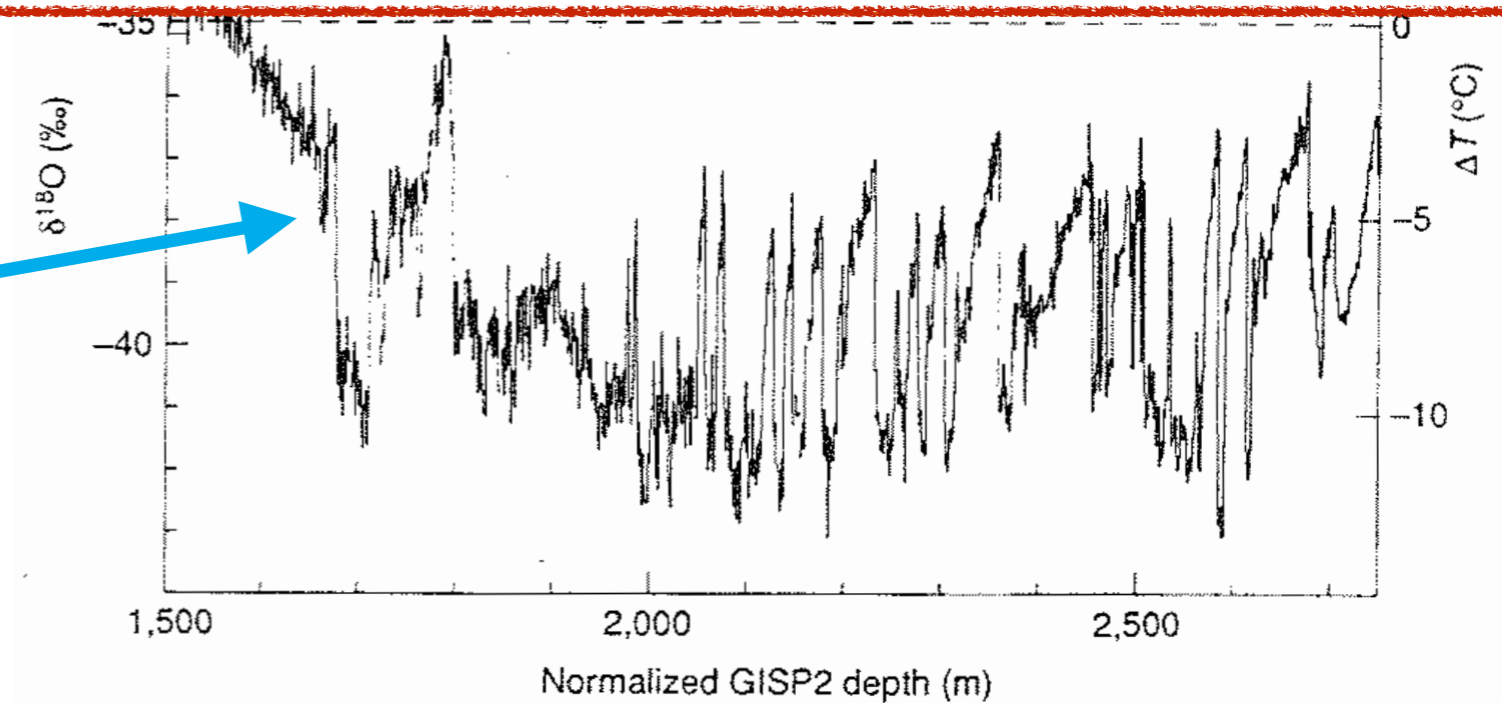


Modern spatial relation
between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and surface temperature
(on Greenland):

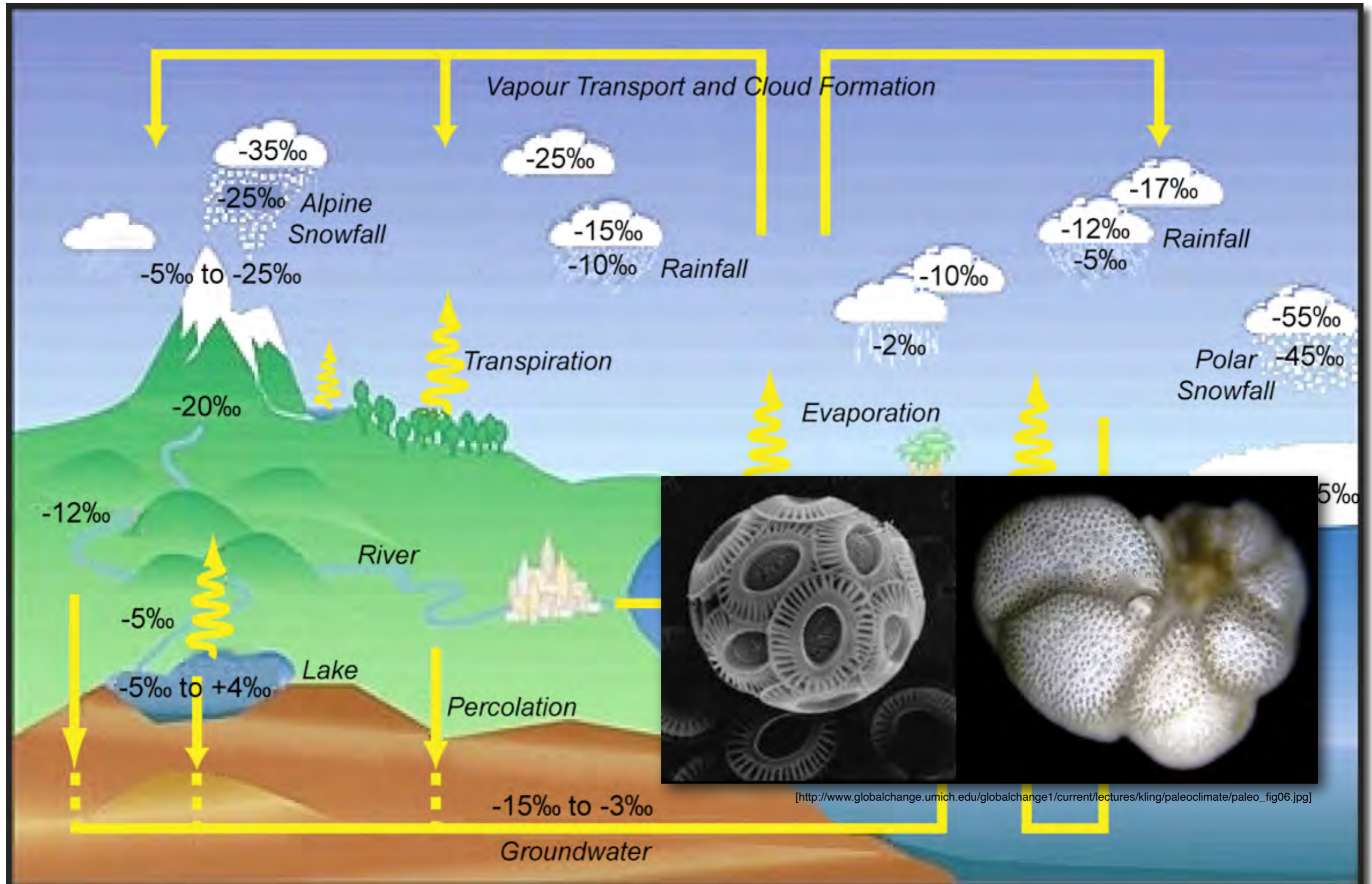
$$\delta^{18}\text{O} = 0.67 \cdot T_{\text{surf}}$$

Stable water isotopes only record climate changes for places (& periods), where (& when) it is raining (or snowing)!

Converting temporal changes
of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ into past temperature
changes



The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal in marine sediment cores



The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal in marine sediment cores

- during the formation of calcium-carbonate (CaCO_3), ^{18}O gets enriched in the carbonate
 - *this fractionation effect occurs in different marine species, e.g. foraminifera*
 - *the fractionation strength is temperature-dependent (less fractionation with warmer temperatures)*
- when large ice sheets (depleted in ^{18}O) existed in the past, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of sea water must have been enriched
 - *changes of ^{18}O of the sea water influences the ^{18}O signal in CaCO_3*
- the ^{18}O signal in CaCO_3 contains both a *local component* (temperature) and a *global component* (ice volume)
 - *an empirical global relationship was determined from a multi-core analysis:*

$$T = 16.9 - 4.2 (\delta_c - \delta_w) + 0.13 (\delta_c - \delta_w)^2$$

(with $\delta_c = \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{CaCO}_3}$ and $\delta_w = \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Ocean}}$)

The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal in marine sediment cores

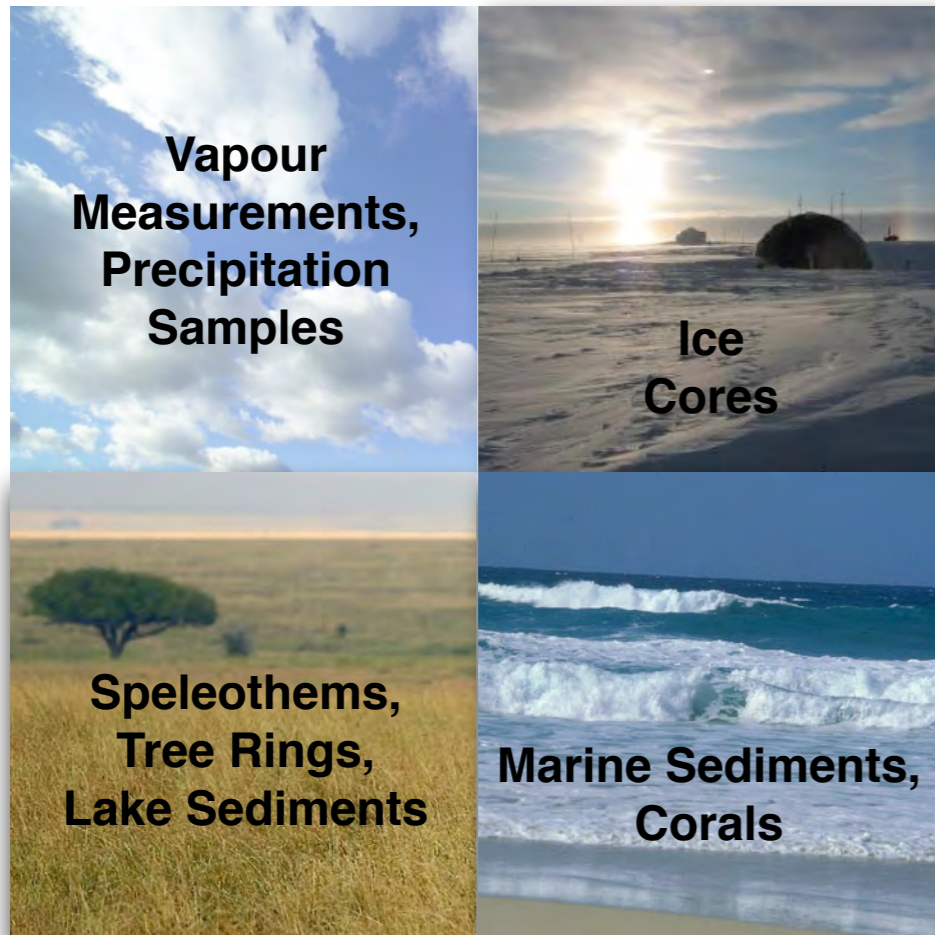
- for a correct interpretation of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal in CaCO_3 , **temperature effect** and **ice volume effect** have to be separated

$$T = 16.9 - 4.2 (\delta_c - \delta_w) + 0.13 (\delta_c - \delta_w)^2$$

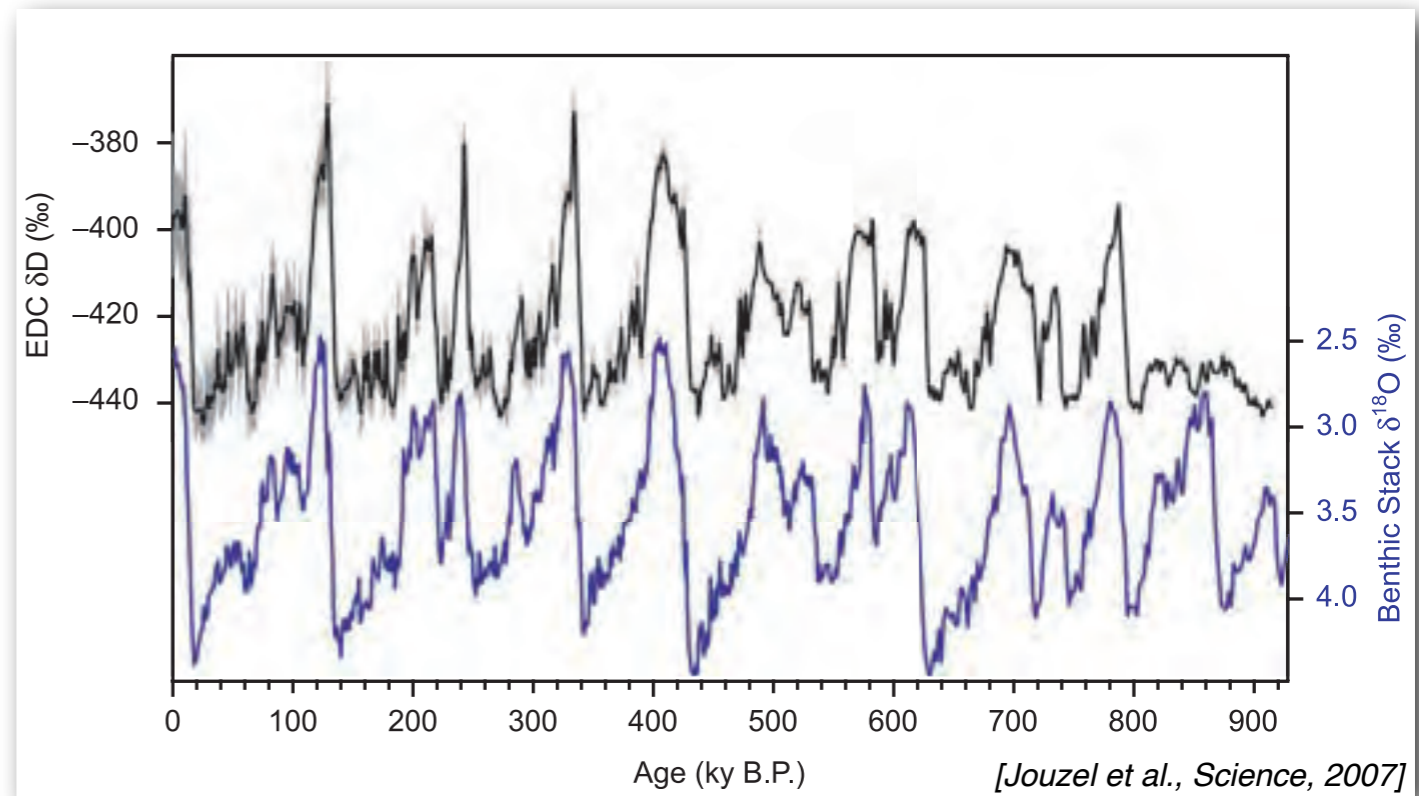
(with $\delta_c = \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{CaCO}_3}$ and $\delta_w = \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Ocean}}$)

- $\delta^{18}\text{O}_w$ might be determined by **porewater analyses** contained in the **core**
- $\delta^{18}\text{O}_c$ changes of **benthic foraminifers** living at the sea floor are mainly an **ice volume signal**
(as temperatures does not change much at the sea floor)

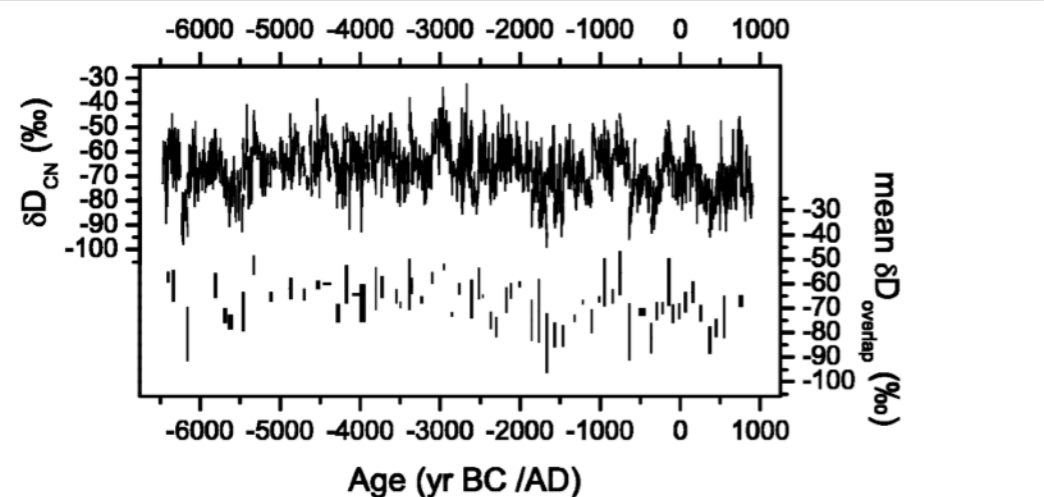
The use of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD as a climate proxy in paleo archives



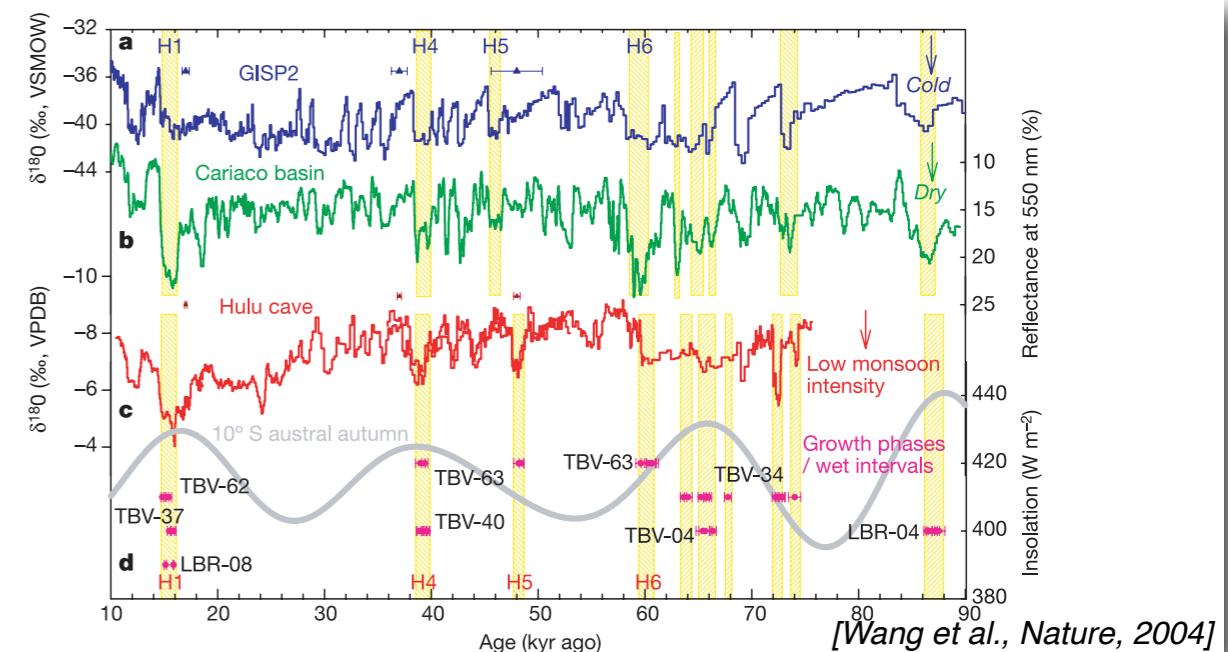
EPICA Dome C and Benthic Oxygen-18 Records



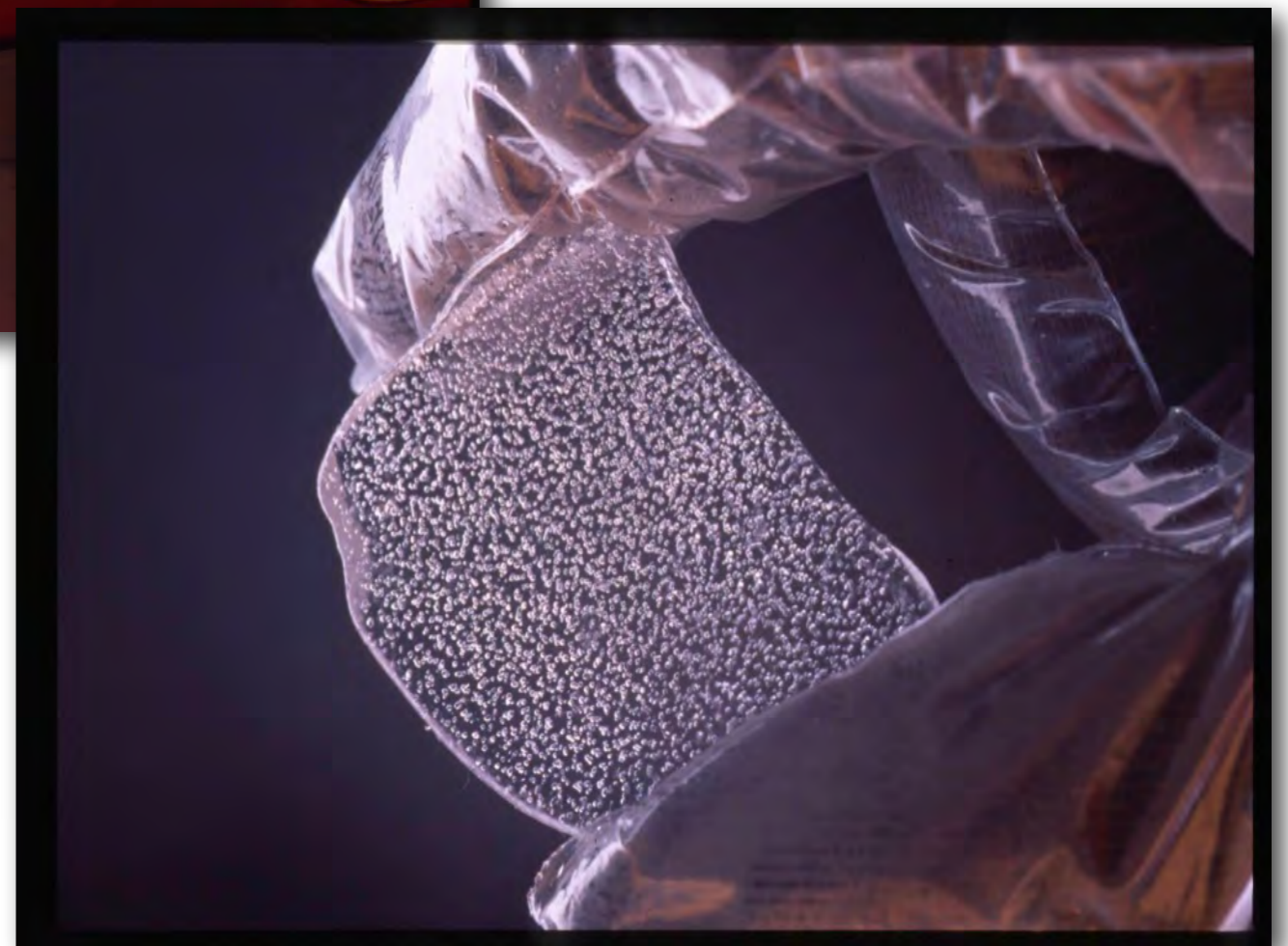
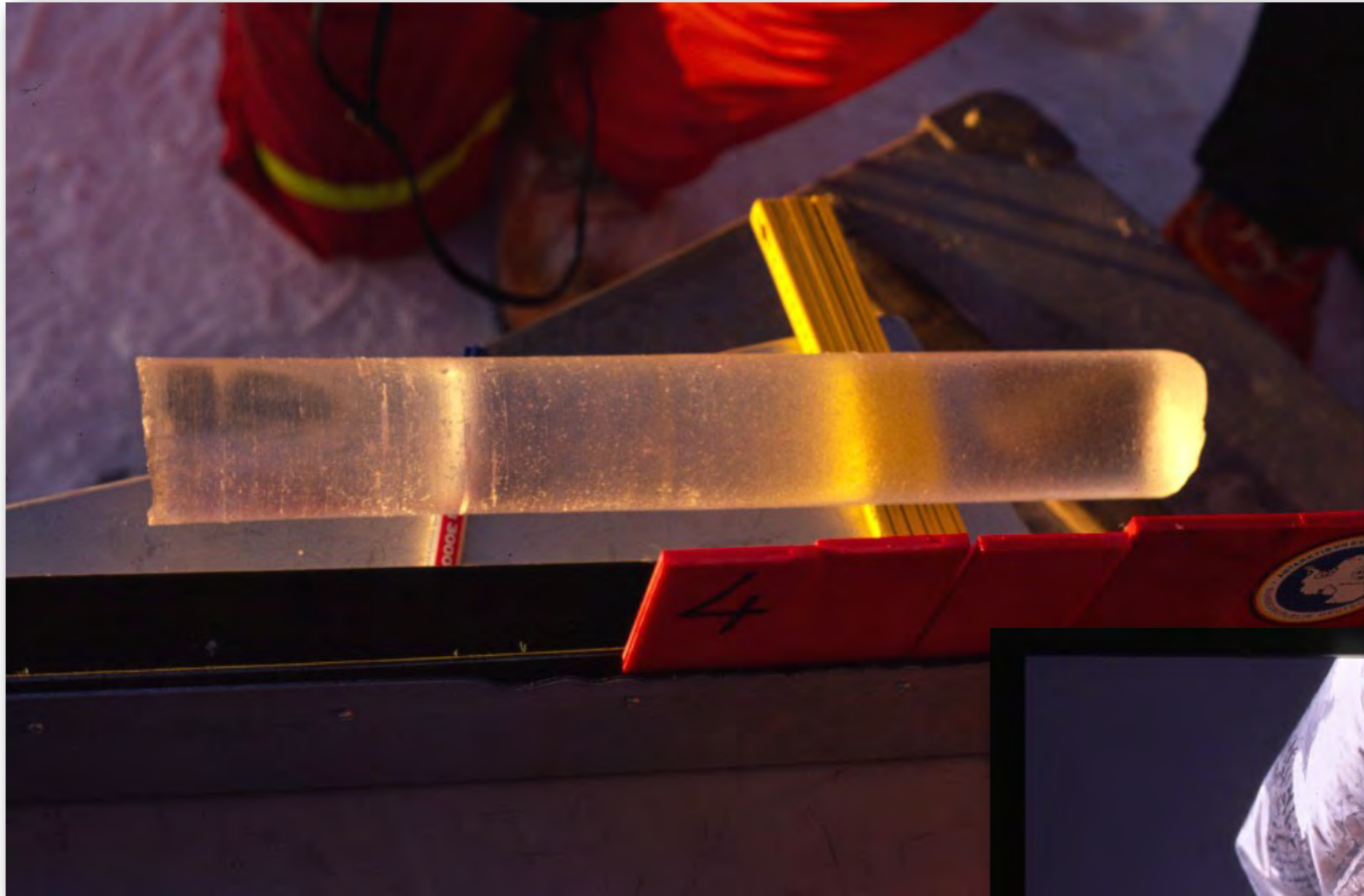
Subfossil Holocene Oaks (Southern Germany)



Speleothem Records from Eastern China and Southern Brasil



Ice cores - a key climate archive



Ice cores - a key climate archive

- ice cores
 - *where are they drilled?*
 - how are they drilled?
 - how are they dated?
- key analyses
 - temperature reconstruction by stable water isotopes
 - gas analyses - the composition of the past atmosphere

Cross section of an ice sheet

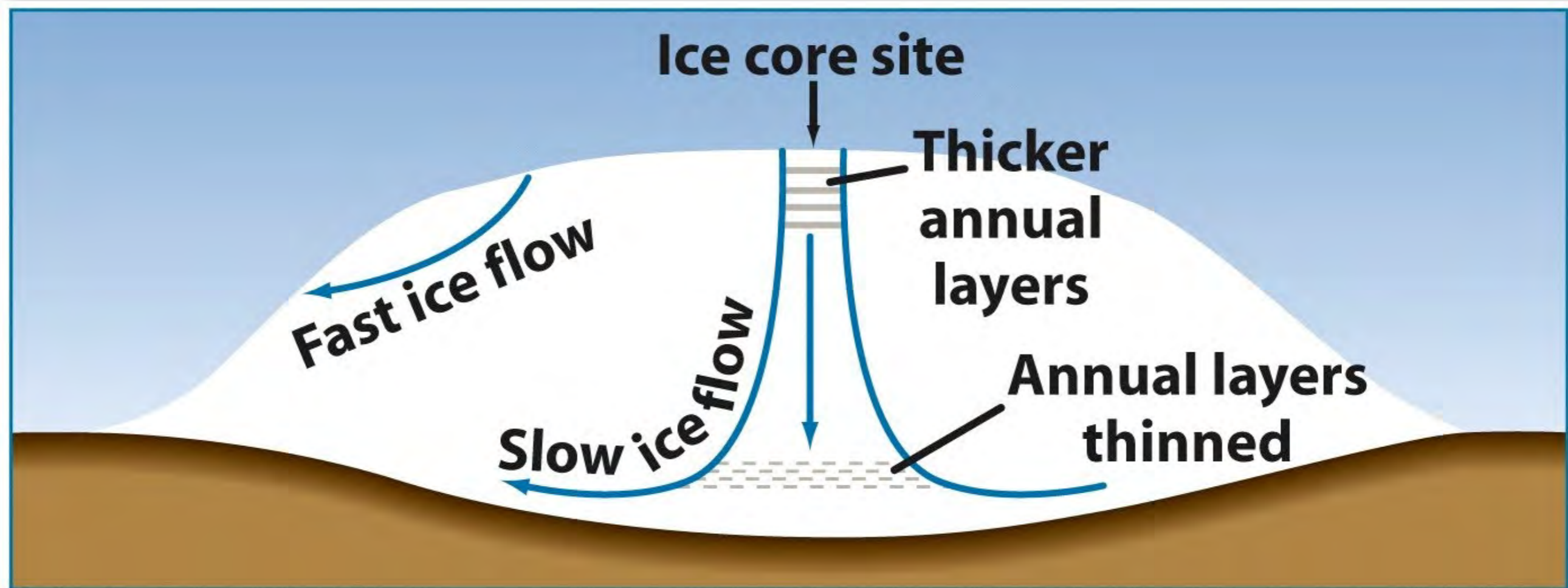
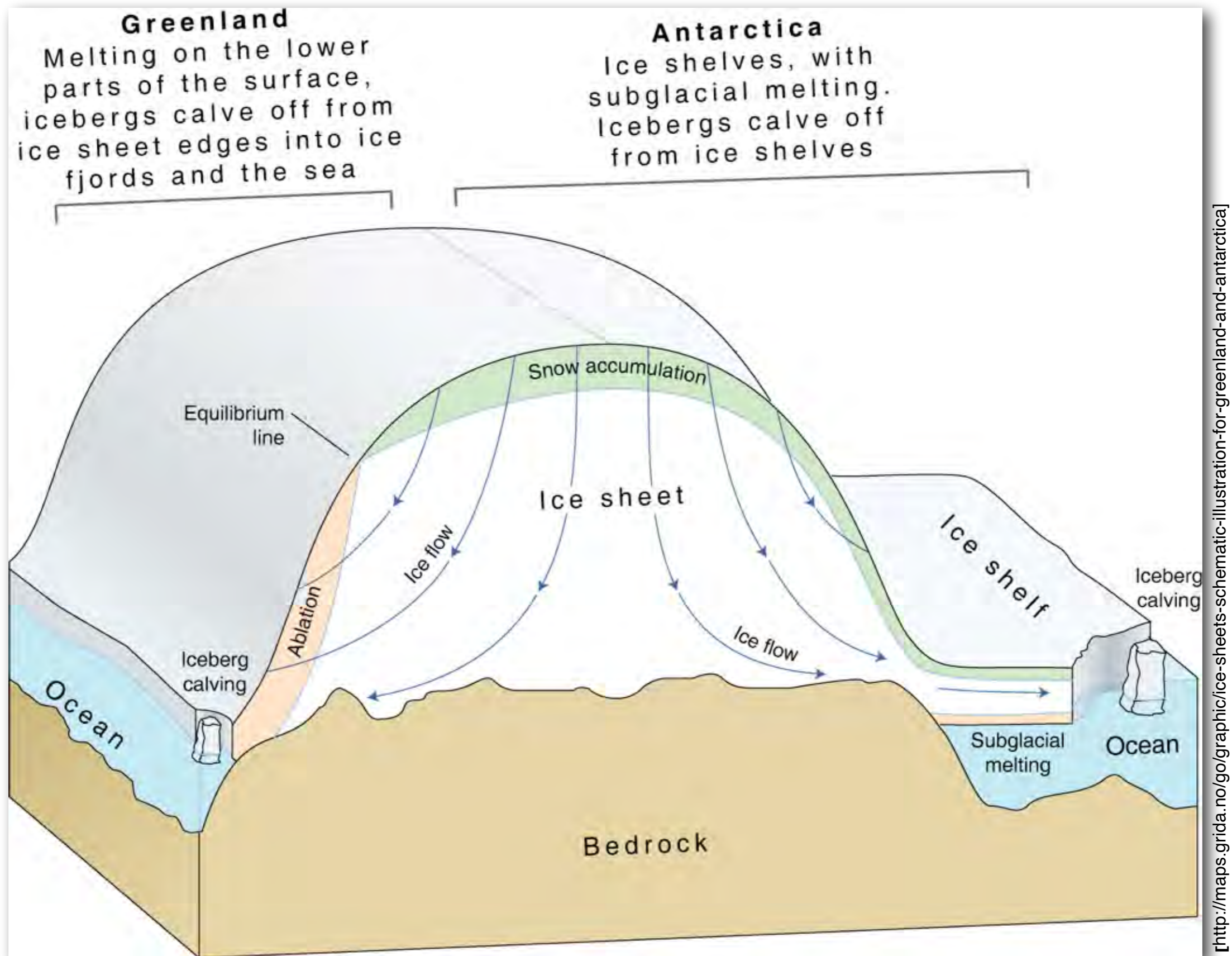
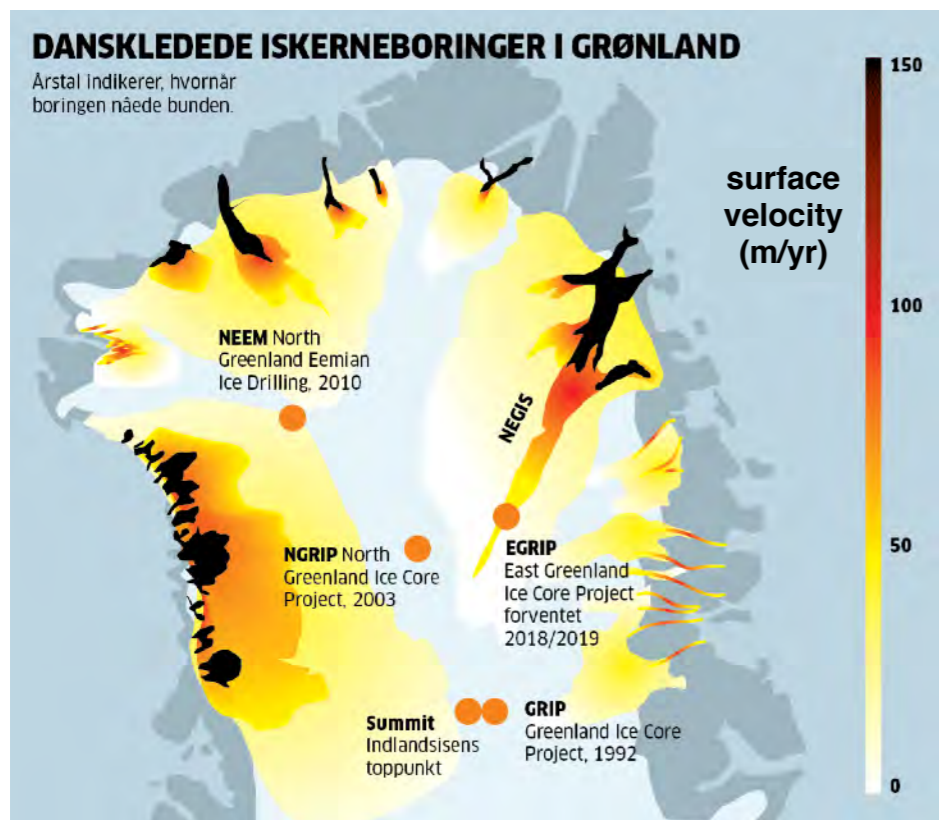


Figure 10-1
Earth's Climate: Past and Future, Second Edition
© 2008 W. H. Freeman and Company

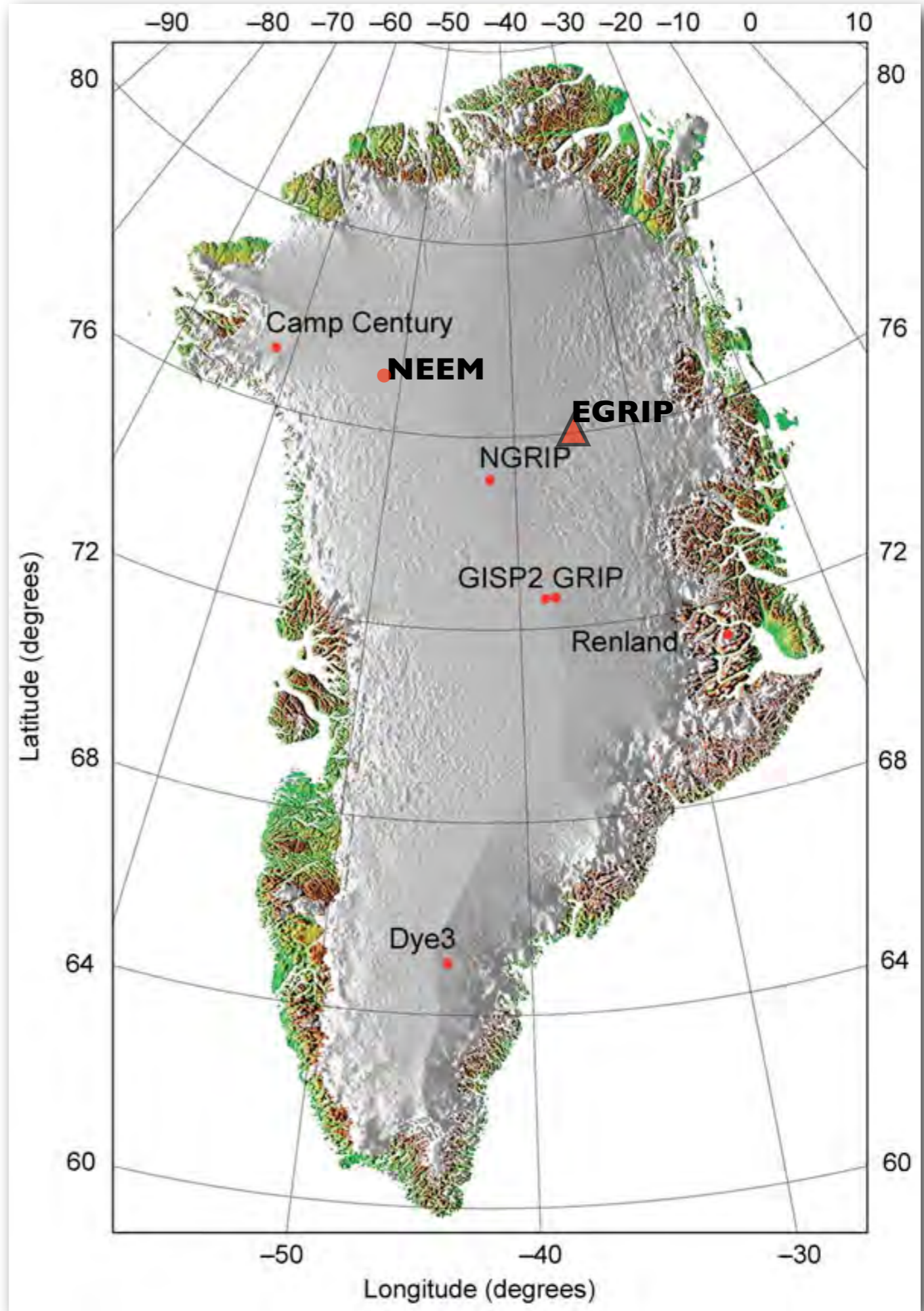
Cross section of an ice sheet



Greenland ice cores

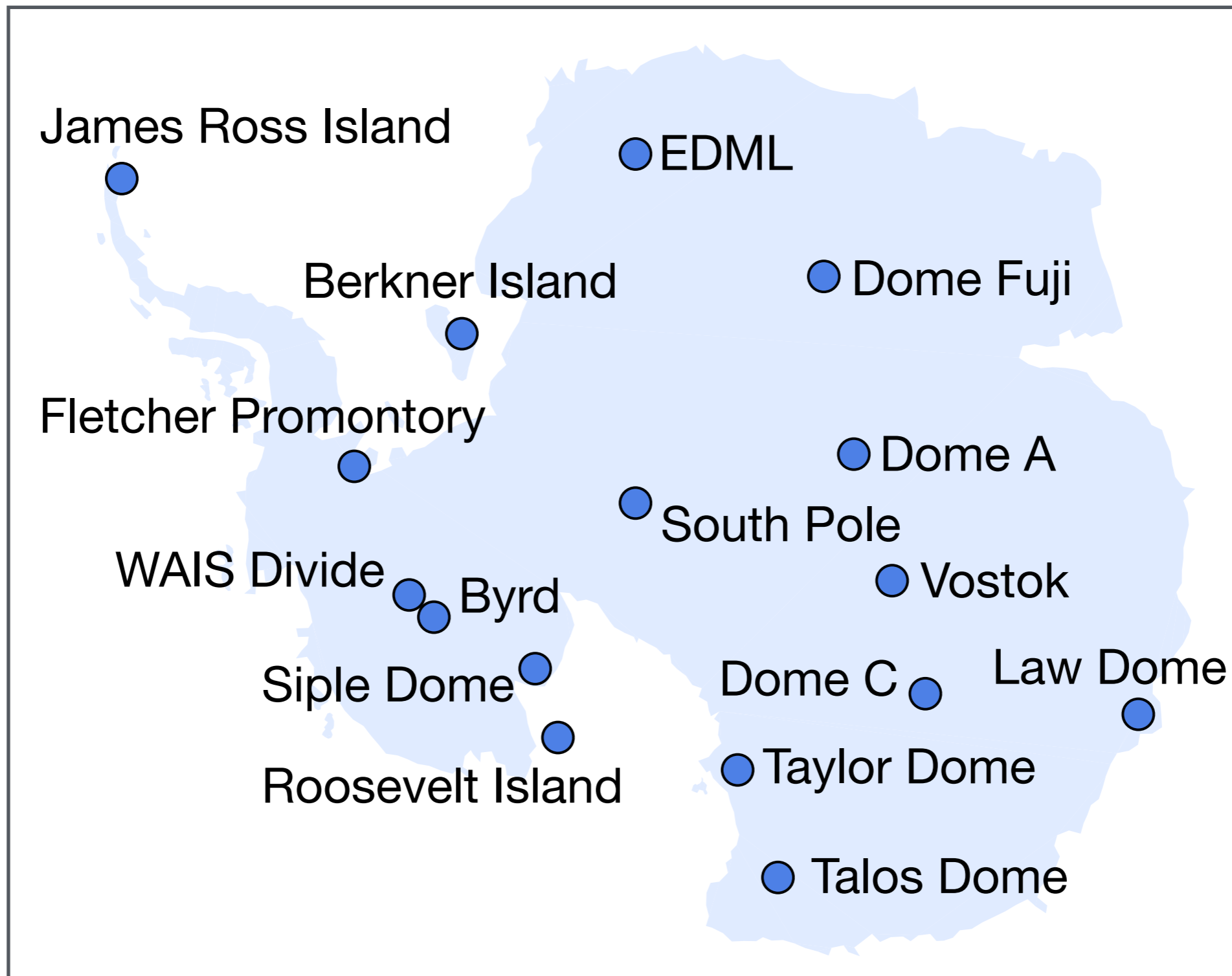


<https://ing.dk/artikel/dynamikken-gronlands-isstromme-joker-klimaet-197376>



http://www.nature.com/nature/journal/v431/n7005/fig_tab/nature02805_F1.html

Antarctic ice cores



Ice core sites in (sub)tropical regions



Location of the most important stable isotope records from tropical ice cores:

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| ❶ Chimborazo (Francou, 2000, pers. comm.) | ❷ Huascarán (Thompson et al., 1995) |
| ❸ Quelccaya (Thompson et al., 1984) | ❹ Illimani (Hoffmann et al., 2002) |
| ❺ Sajama (Thompson et al., 1998) | ❻ Kilimanjaro (Thompson et al., 2002) |
| ❼ Dasuopu (Thompson et al., 2000b) | ❽ Guliya (Thompson et al., 1997) |
| ❾ Dunde (Thompson et al., 1989). | |

(from: M. Vuille, pers. comm.)

Ice cores

Quizz - Questions #2:

1. In which region can we find the oldest ice cores?

2. How old is the oldest ice core retrieved so far?

Ice cores

Quizz - Questions #2:

1. In which region can we find the oldest ice cores?

=> **Antarctica**

(most parts of Greenland melted approx. 130-125,000 B.P.)

2. How old is the oldest ice core retrieved so far?

=> **approx. 800,000 years**

Future ice core sites in Antarctica (where to find and drill the oldest ice?)

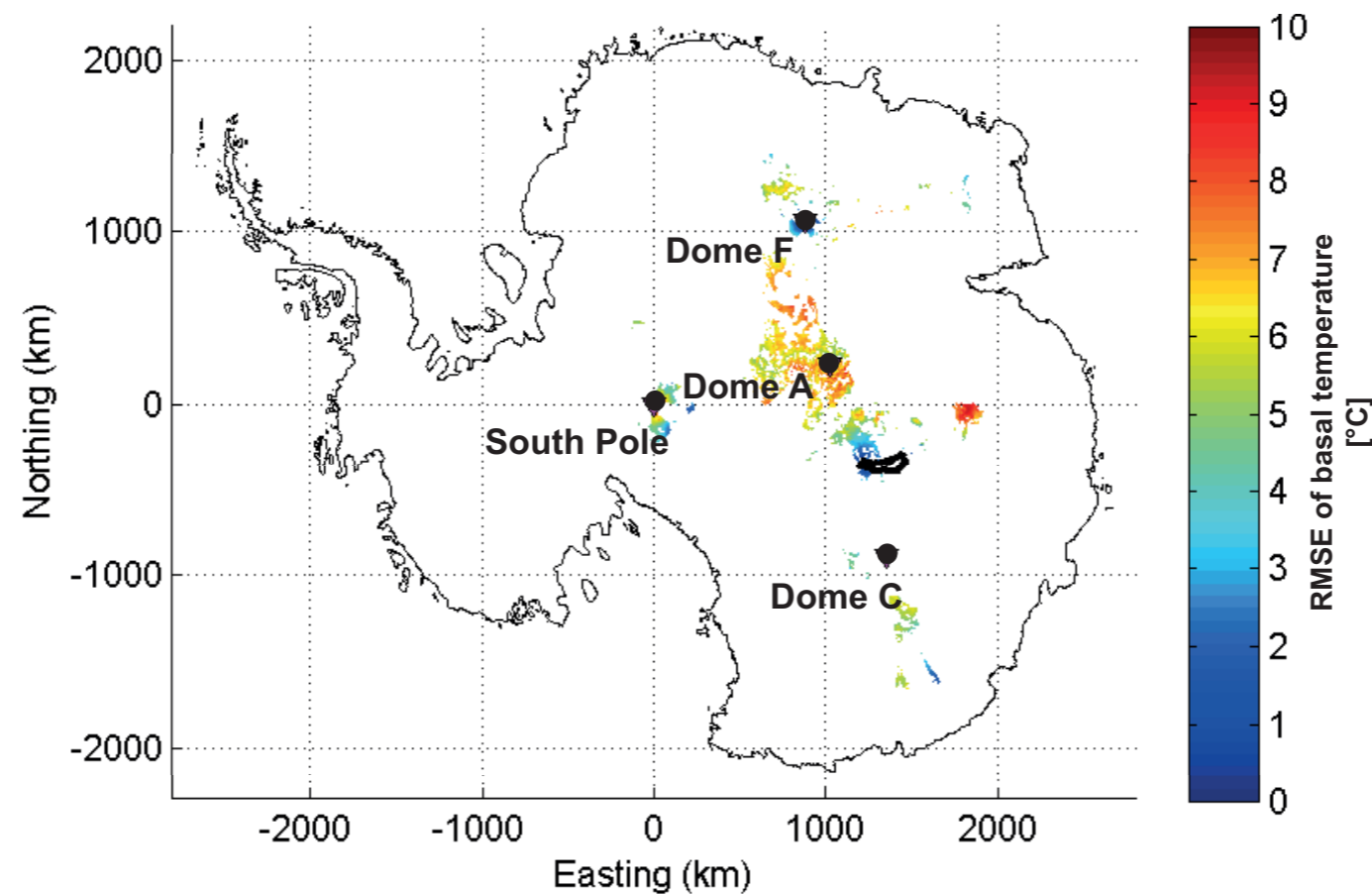


Fig. 11. Potential Oldest-Ice study areas, where horizontal flow is smaller than 2 m yr^{-1} , mean ice thickness larger than 2000 m and the bottom temperature below -5°C . The color bar indicates the root mean square error of the basal temperature derived from a mode ensemble (van Liefferinge and Pattyn, 2013).

Future ice core sites in Antarctica *(where to find and drill the oldest ice?)*



for more information: <https://www.beyondepica.eu/en/>

Ice cores - a key climate archive

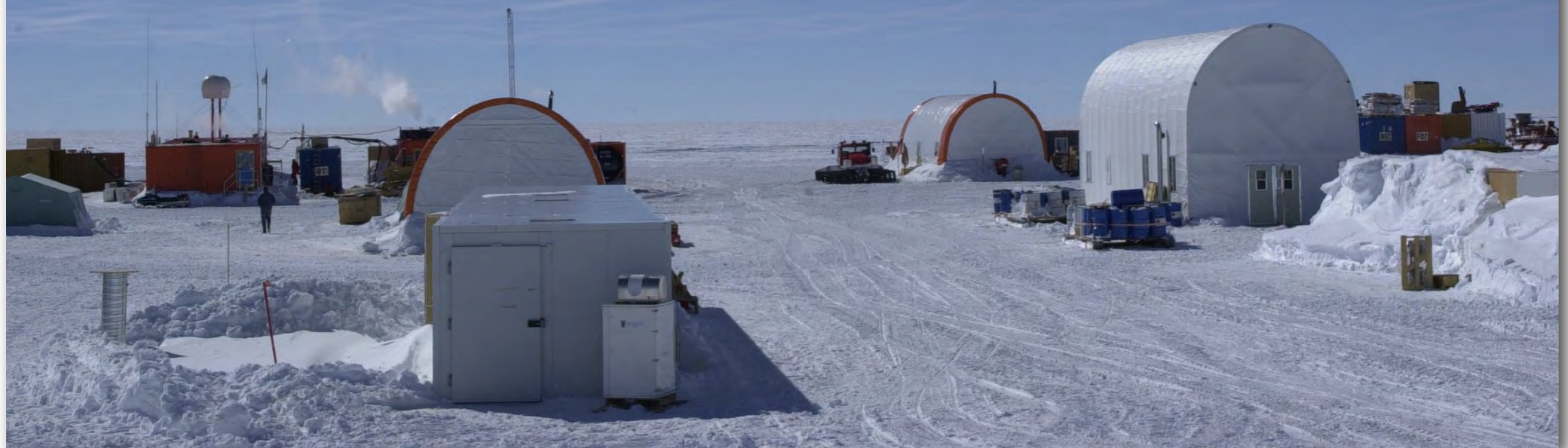
- ice cores
 - where are they drilled?
 - *how are they drilled?*
 - how are they dated?
- key analyses
 - temperature reconstruction by stable water isotopes
 - gas analyses - the composition of the past atmosphere

Ice core drilling

European Project for Ice Coring in Antarctica (EPICA)

**1996-2004:
drilling campaign at
Dome C, East Antarctica**

**ice core:
length 3270m,
age ~800,000 years**



Ice core drilling



Ice core drilling



Ice core drilling



Ice core drilling



Ice core drilling

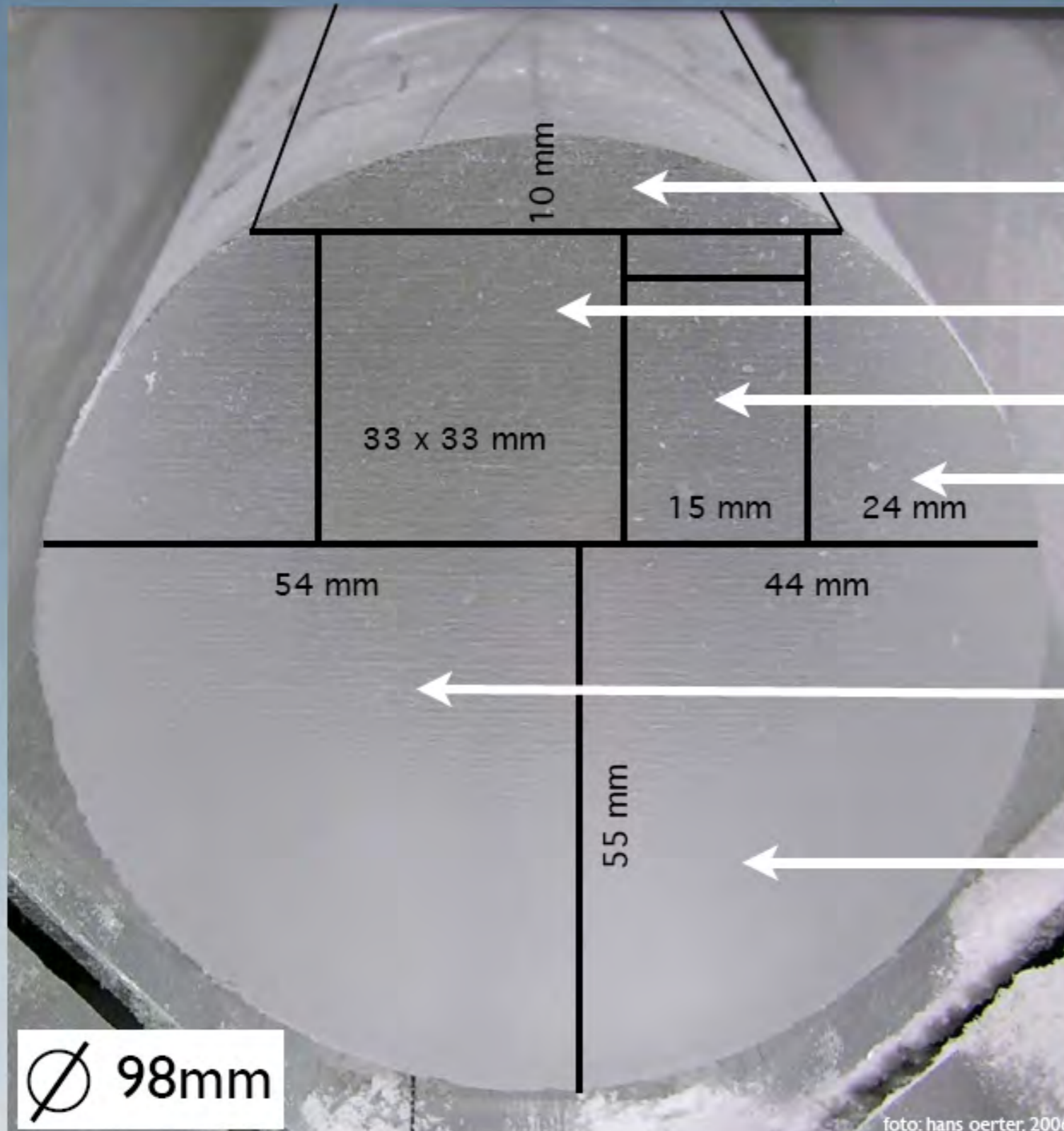


Ice core drilling



Ice Core Laboratory, AWI Bremerhaven

Ice core drilling



Optical Analyses

Chemical Analyses

$\delta^{18}\text{O}$

^{10}Be

Archive

**Gas & Dust
Analyses**

\varnothing 98mm

foto: hans oerter, 2006

Ice cores - a key climate archive

- ice cores
 - where are they drilled?
 - how are they drilled?
 - *how are they dated?*
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 - temperature reconstruction by stable water isotopes
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Dating methods

- relevance of dating methods
 - **an exact dating is the Achilles' heel of all paleoclimate data series!!**
 - even the most exact measurements and/or reconstructions of climate change (e.g., temperature change, precipitation pattern) are useless, if the **timing of the change** is not known well enough
- difference in dating methods
 - **absolute dating:**
climate events can be attributed to a specific calendar year (or duration of years)
 - **relative dating:**
the temporal order of several climate events can be determined, but not the absolute timing of these events

Dating methods

Quizz - Questions #3:

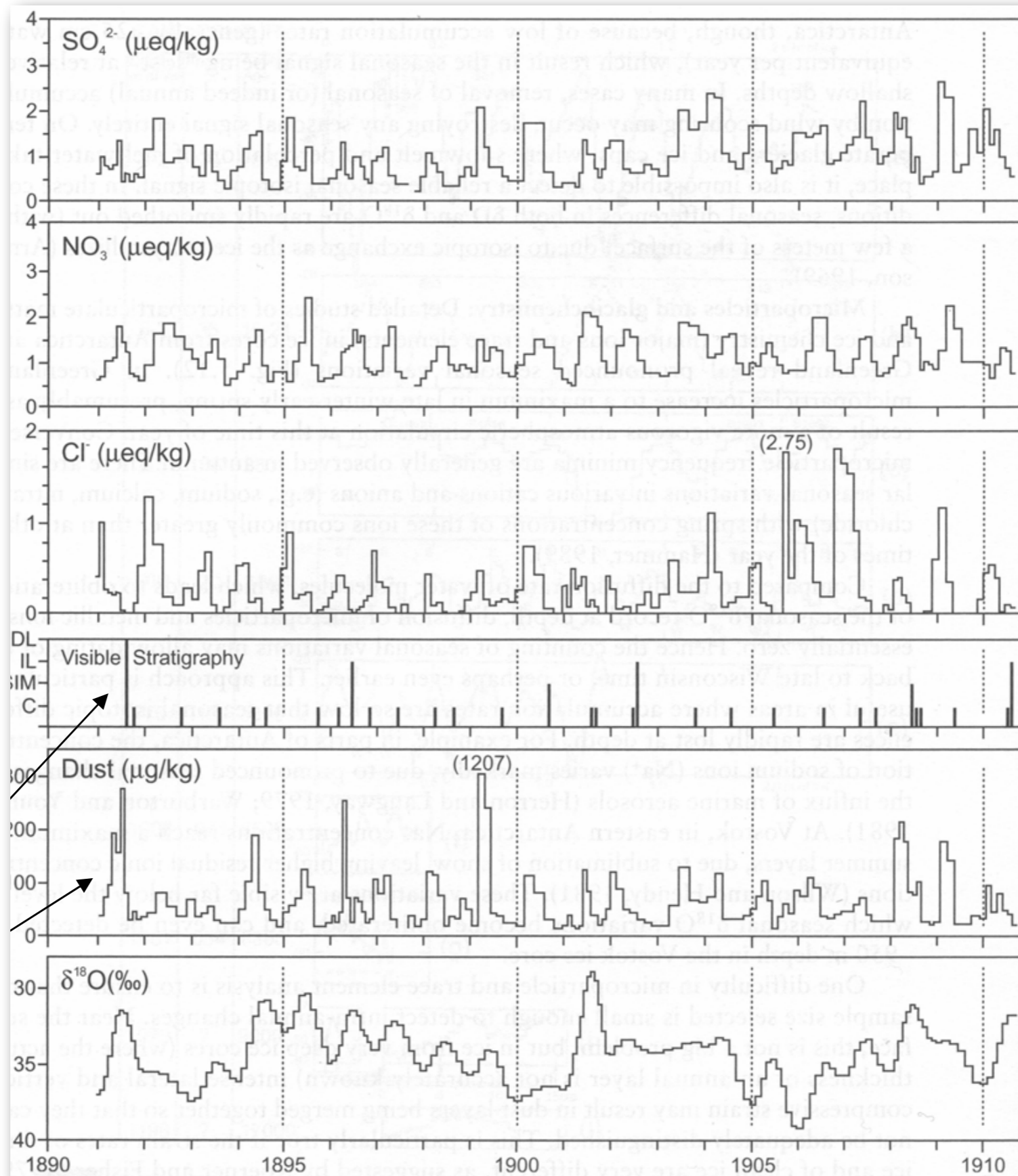
- Which **dating methods** could be used for ice cores?

Dating methods

Quizz - Questions #3:

- Which **dating methods** could be used for ice cores?
 - *counting annual layers*
 - *identifying individual time horizons (e.g. volcanic events)*
 - *radioisotope dating (but no ^{14}C dating, so far)*
 - *modelling of ice flow dynamics*
 - *synchronising different ice cores (e.g. via CH_4 concentrations) and/or synchronising ice cores with marine & terrestrial records („wiggle matching“)*

Example: dating of ice cores - annual layer counting



Example: ice core synchronising via methane records

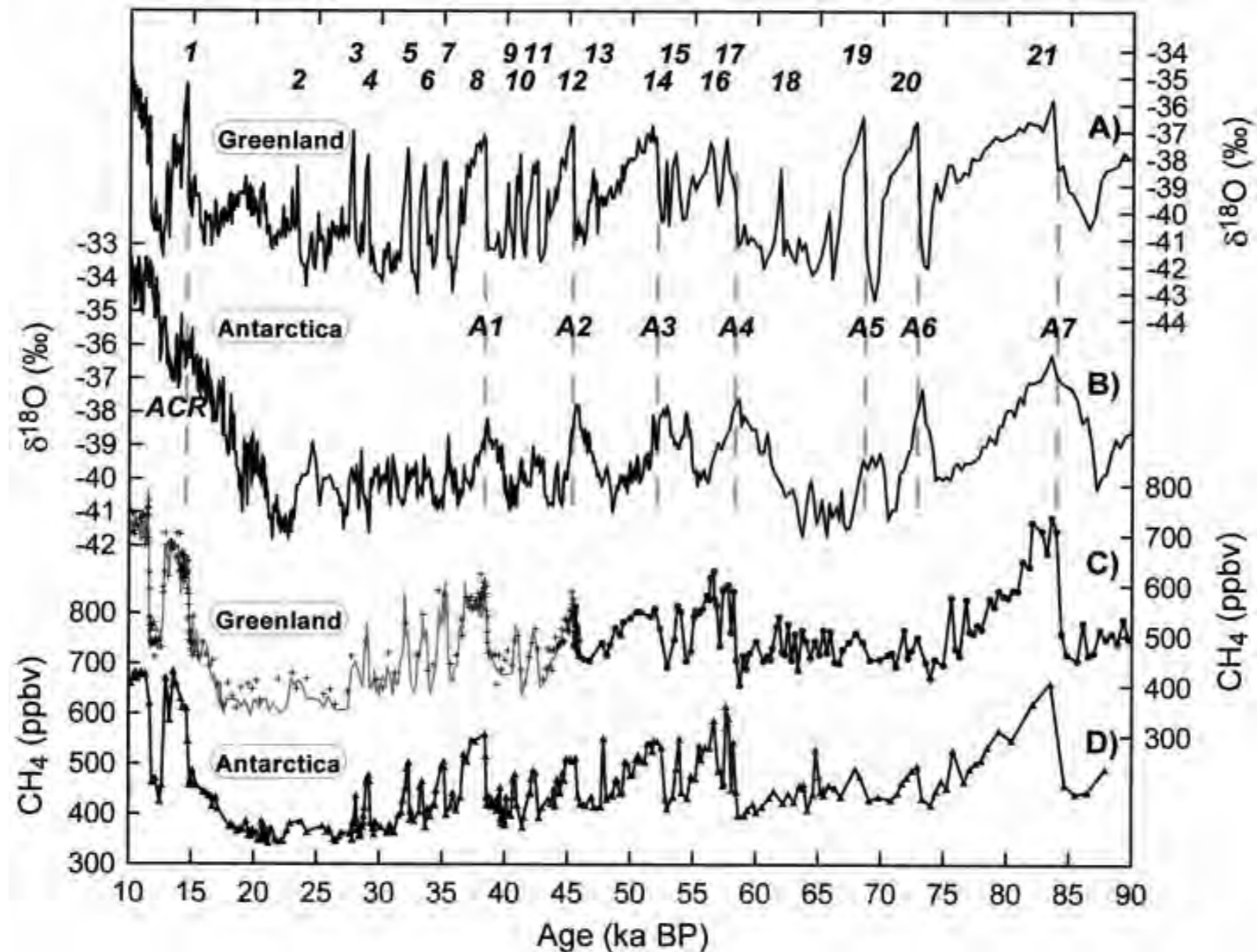


Fig. 1. Isotopic and CH_4 data from Greenland and Antarctica on the GISP2 time scale. Dashed lines indicate the onset of major D-O events. (A) $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ice}}$ from GISP2, Greenland (16). (B) $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ice}}$ from Byrd station, West Antarctica (23). (C) CH_4 data from GISP2 and GRIP. Crosses and dots are from GISP2 [(4) and new data]; the solid gray line is from GRIP (2, 8). The solid line runs through the data used for the synchronization: GISP2 (black line) up to 45.5 ka and GRIP data (gray line) from 45.5 ka to the Holocene. (D) CH_4 data from Byrd station [(2) and new data]. Data are available as supplemental information on *Science Online* (10) and at the NOAA Geophysical Data Center (5).

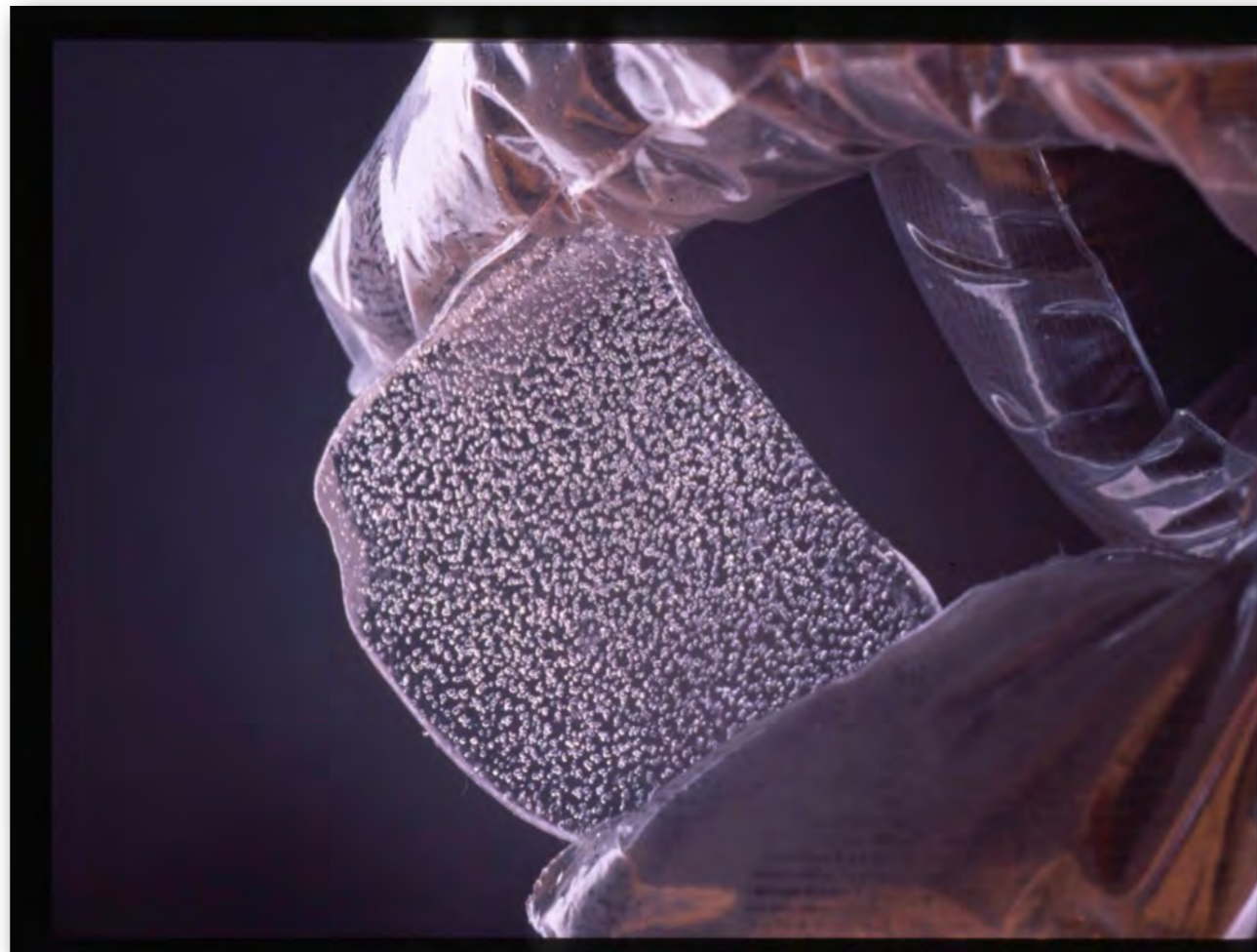
Ice cores - a key climate archive

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 - where are they drilled?
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- key analyses
 - temperature reconstruction by stable water isotopes
 - gas analyses - the composition of the past atmosphere

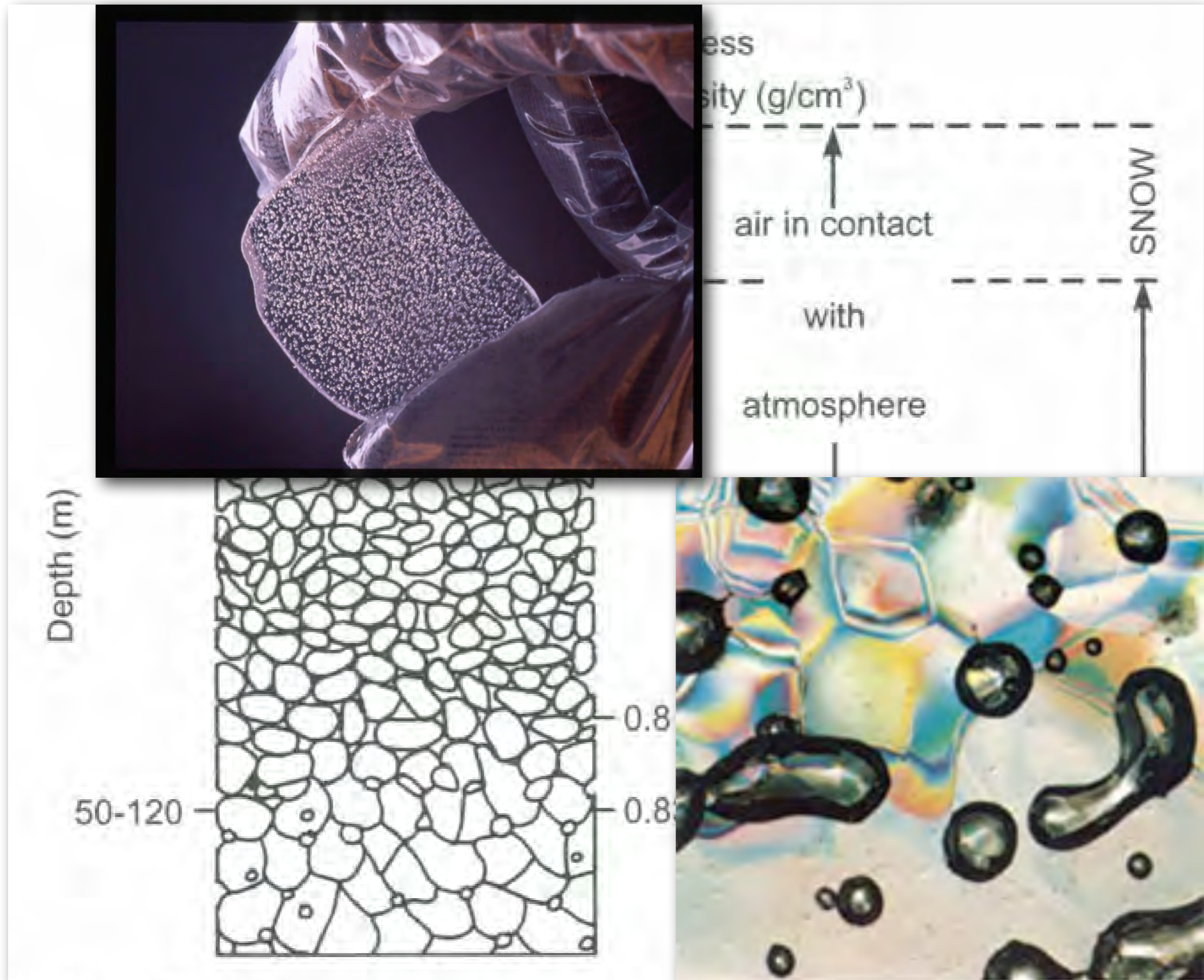
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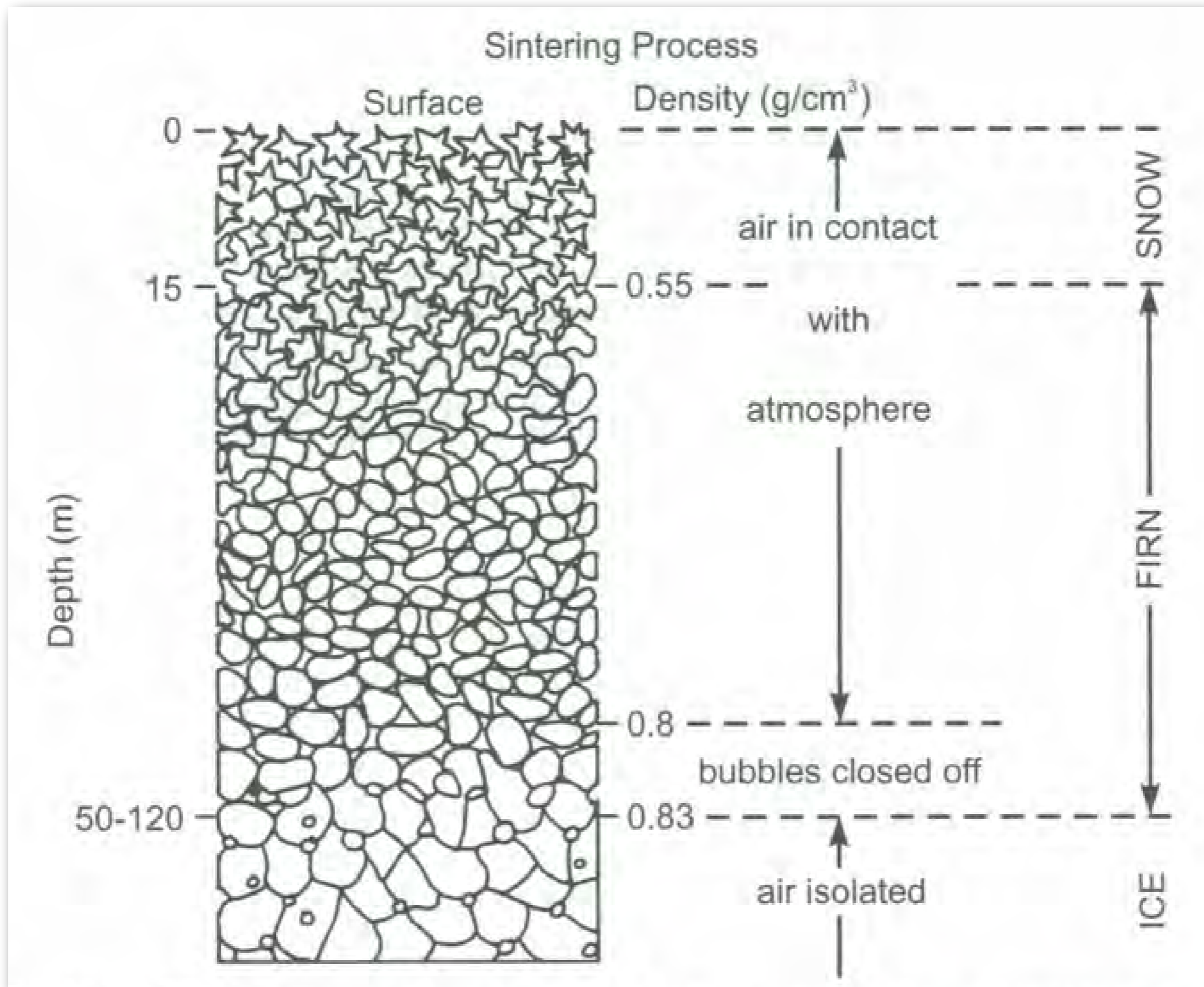
**Ice cores are currently the only archive
which allow to directly measure
the past atmospheric composition!**



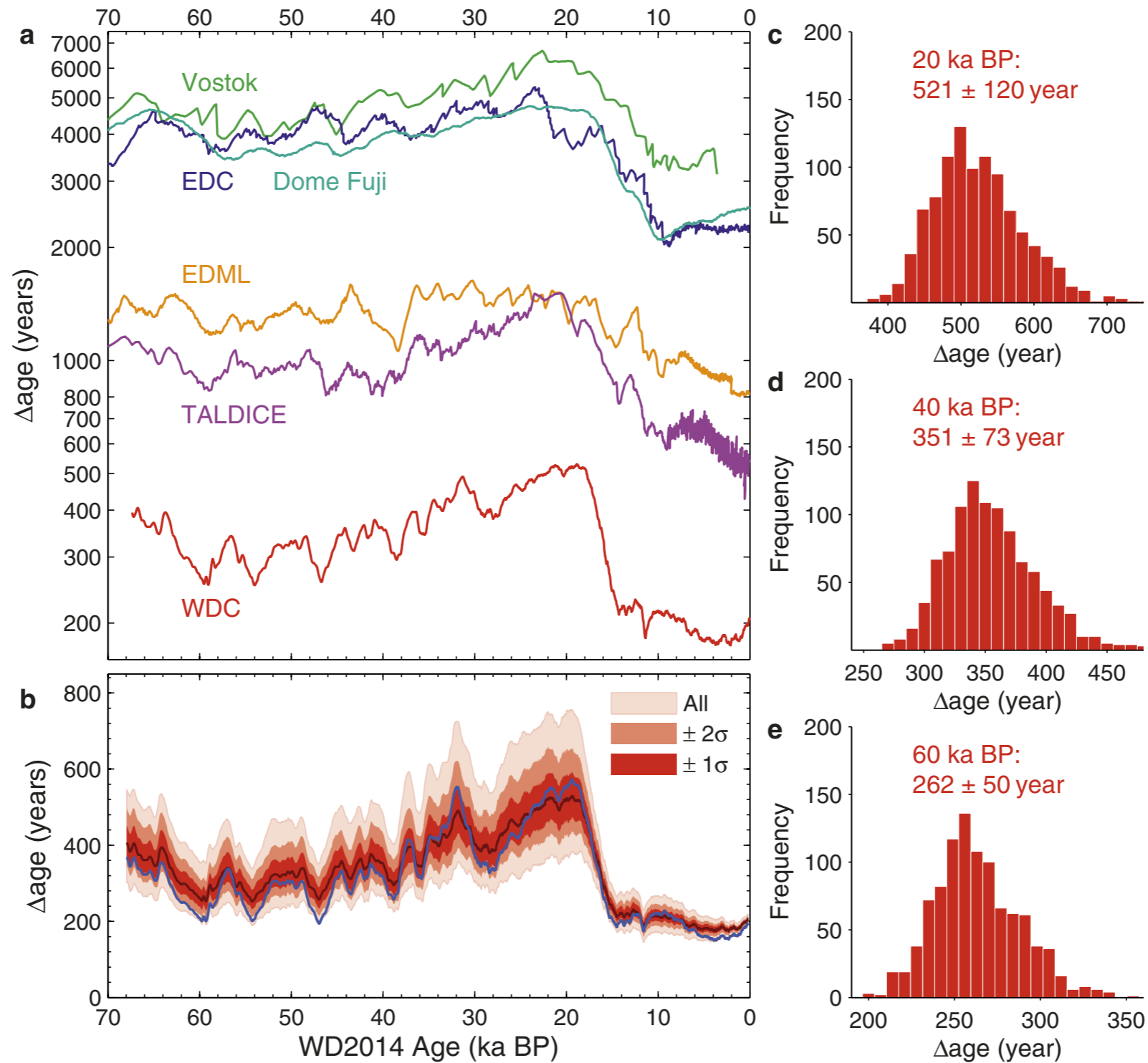
Transformation of snow to ice



Transformation of snow to ice



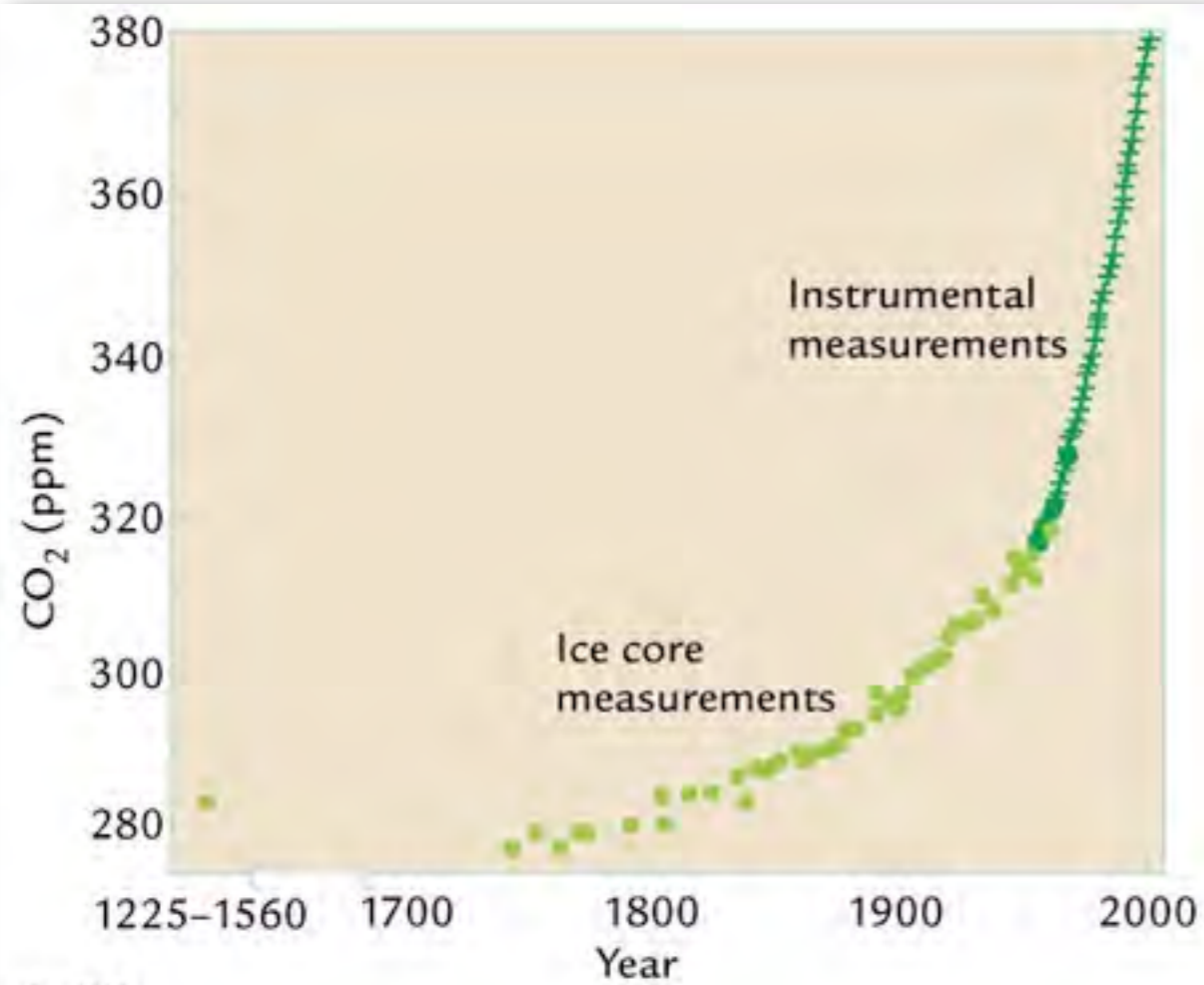
Example: difference between ice age and gas age



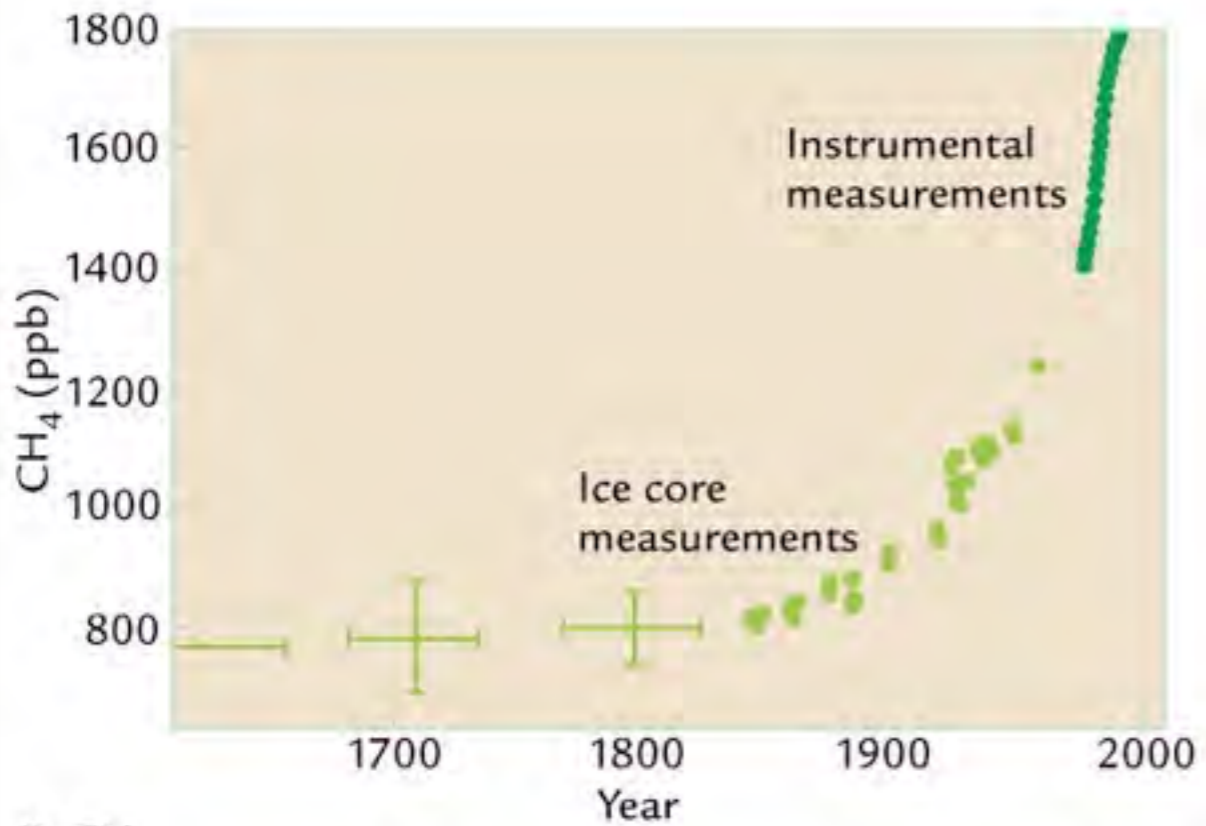
Extended Data Figure 1 | Difference between gas age and ice age (Δ age) at WAIS Divide. **a**, Comparison of WDC Δ age with other Antarctic cores. Ice core abbreviations: EDC, EPICA Dome Concordia; EDML, EPICA Dronning Maud Land; TALDICE, Talos Dome; WDC, WAIS Divide. Δ age values are taken from refs 23, 63–65. The vertical axis is on a logarithmic scale. **b**, Δ age uncertainty bounds obtained from an ensemble of 1,000 alternative Δ age

scenarios; details are given elsewhere²³. A Δ age scenario obtained with an alternative densification model (ref. 39 instead of ref. 38) is shown in blue. **c–e**, Histograms of the 1,000 Δ age scenarios at 20 kyr BP (**c**), 40 kyr BP (**d**) and 60 kyr BP (**e**); stated values give the distribution mean \pm the 2σ standard deviation.

Ice core and instrumental CO_2 and CH_4 measurements



A CO_2

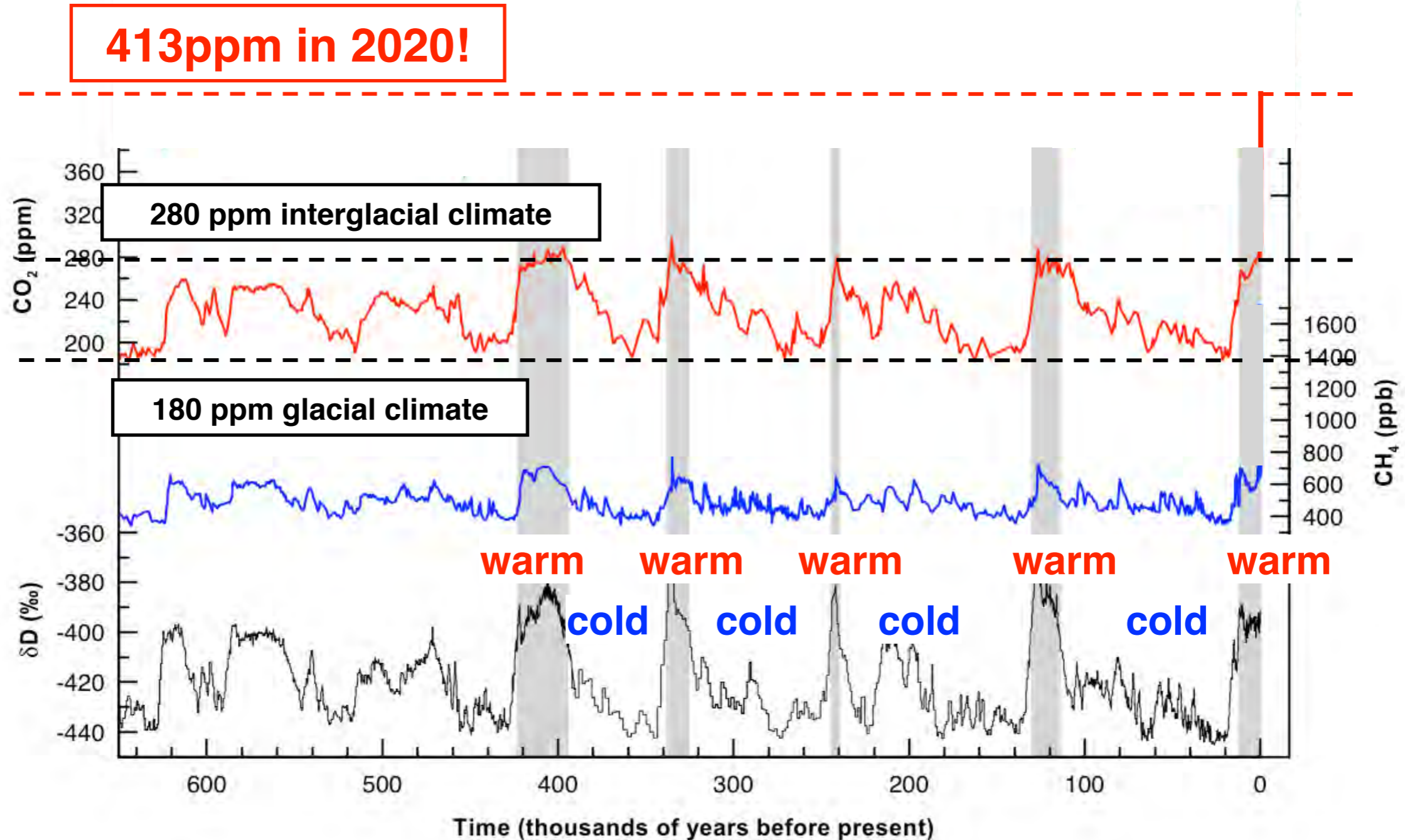


B CH_4

[from: Ruddiman, 2008]

Orbital-scale changes of greenhouse gases

Glacial-Interglacial Ice Core Data



Orbital-scale changes of greenhouse gases

- **action or reaction?**
 - **CO₂ and CH₄ go in parallel with temperature changes during the last 800,000 years**
 - no large time lags between temperature and GHG changes exist
 - it still remains open if temperature changes are leading or lagging the changes in greenhouse gas concentrations
- **where did the CO₂ go?**
 - **during glacial times, over 1000 billion tons of CO₂ must have been shifted from the atmosphere, land surface and upper ocean towards deeper ocean layers**
 - several factors may have contributed (biological pump, ocean circulation changes, increased CO₂ solubility in cold waters)

Orbital-scale changes of greenhouse gases

- action or reaction?
 - **CO₂ and CH₄ go in parallel with temperature changes during the last 800,000 years**
 - no large time lags between temperature and GHG changes exist
 - it still remains open if temperature changes are leading or lagging the changes in greenhouse gas concentrations
- where did the CO₂ go?
 - **during glacial times, over 1000 billion tons of CO₂ must have been shifted from the atmosphere, land surface and upper ocean towards deeper ocean layers**
 - several factors may have contributed (**biological pump**, ocean circulation changes, increased CO₂ solubility in cold waters)

Orbital-scale changes of greenhouse gases

- example of recent research

nature
geoscience

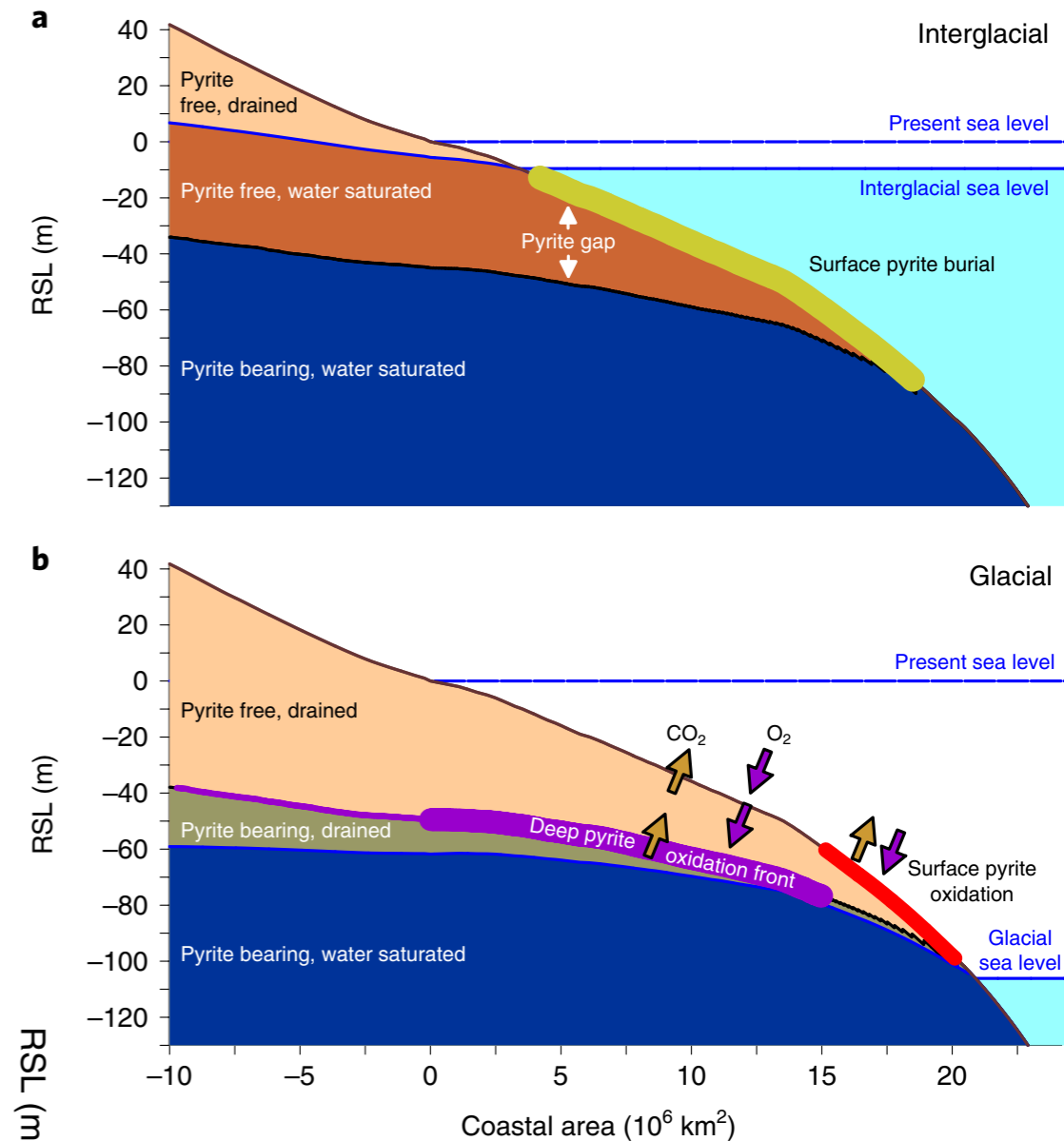
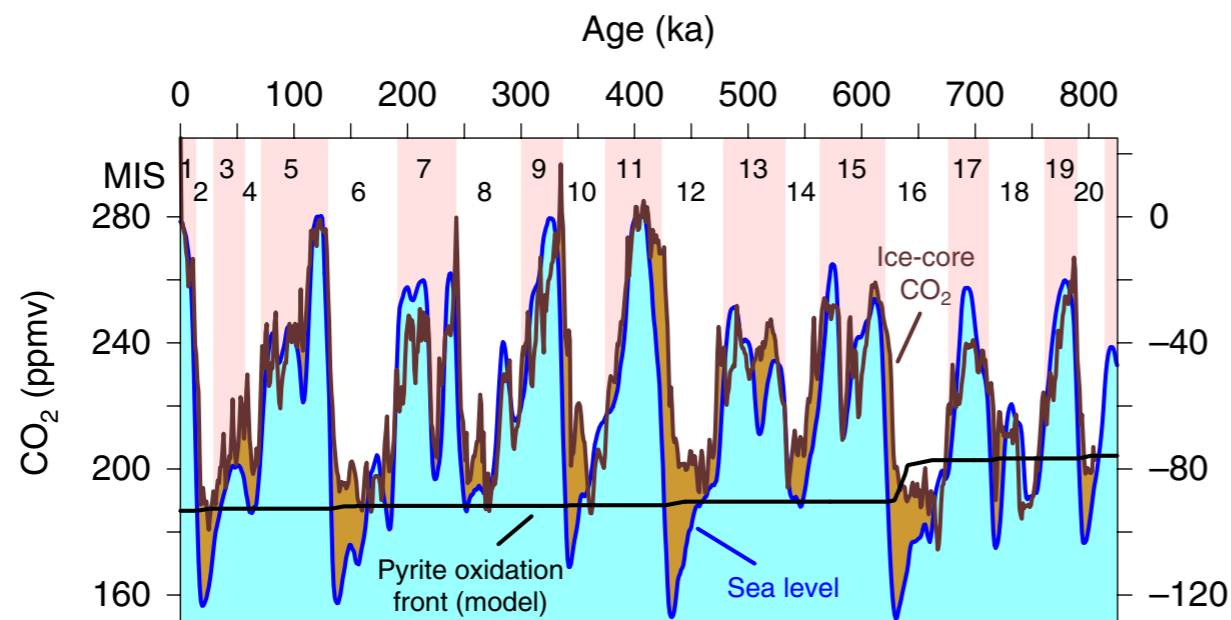
ARTICLES

<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41561-019-0465-9>

Consistent CO₂ release by pyrite oxidation on continental shelves prior to glacial terminations

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Previous evidence suggests enhanced pyrite oxidation on exposed continental shelves during glacial phases of low sea level. While pyrite oxidation directly consumes atmospheric oxygen, acid generated by this reaction should increase the release of CO₂ through carbonate dissolution. This scenario represents a climate control loop that could temper or even prevent glacials because increasing CO₂ triggers warming and rising sea level. However, the amplitudes of sea-level changes increased over the Quaternary, and CO₂ concentrations co-varied with sea level throughout most of the past 800,000 years. Only during peak glacial conditions did CO₂ levels reach an apparent lower threshold independent of falling sea level. Here we suggest that during the last nine glacial-interglacial cycles, pyrite-oxidation-driven release of CO₂ and consumption of O₂ occurred during 10 kyr to 40 kyr periods preceding glacial terminations. We demonstrate that repeated sea-level lowstands force pyrite oxidation to ever-greater depths in exposed shelf sediments and cause CO₂ release that could explain the glacial CO₂ threshold. When the duration of interglacials with high sea level is insufficient to restock the shelf pyrite inventory, this CO₂-releasing process represents a discharging 'acid capacitor'.



Orbital-scale changes of greenhouse gases

- example of recent research



Varied contribution of the Southern Ocean to deglacial atmospheric CO₂ rise

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Glacial-interglacial changes in atmospheric CO₂ are generally attributed to changes in seawater carbon chemistry in response to large-scale shifts in the ocean's biogeochemistry and general circulation. The Southern Ocean currently takes up more CO₂ than any other and it is likely to have played a crucial role in regulating past atmospheric CO₂. However, the physical, biological and chemical variables that control ocean-atmosphere CO₂ exchange during glacial-interglacial cycles are not completely understood. Here we use boron isotopes and carbon isotopes in planktonic foraminifera and an alkenone-based proxy of temperature to reconstruct seawater pH and CO₂ partial pressure in sub-Antarctic surface waters south of Tasmania over the past 25,000 years, and investigate the mechanisms that regulate seawater CO₂. The new record shows that surface waters in this region were a sink for atmospheric CO₂ during the Last Glacial Maximum. Our reconstruction suggests changes in the strength of the biological pump and the release of deep-ocean CO₂ to surface waters contributed to the last deglacial rise in atmospheric CO₂. These findings demonstrate that variations in upwelling intensity and the distribution of Southern Ocean water masses in this sector played a key role in regulating atmospheric CO₂ during the last glacial-interglacial cycle.

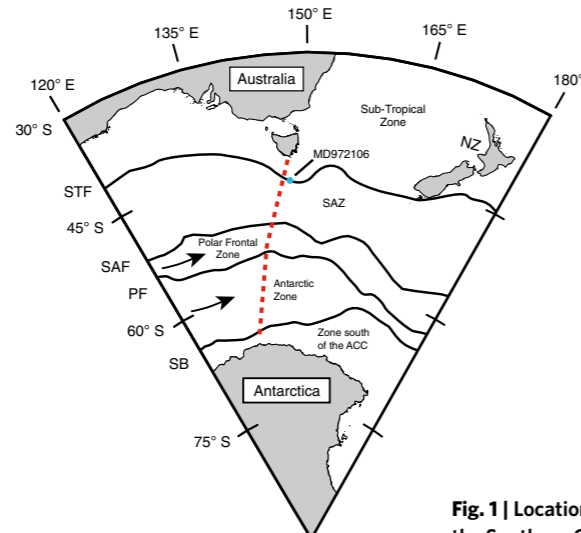


Fig. 1 | Location of sediment core MD972106 and modern positions of the Southern Ocean water masses and frc

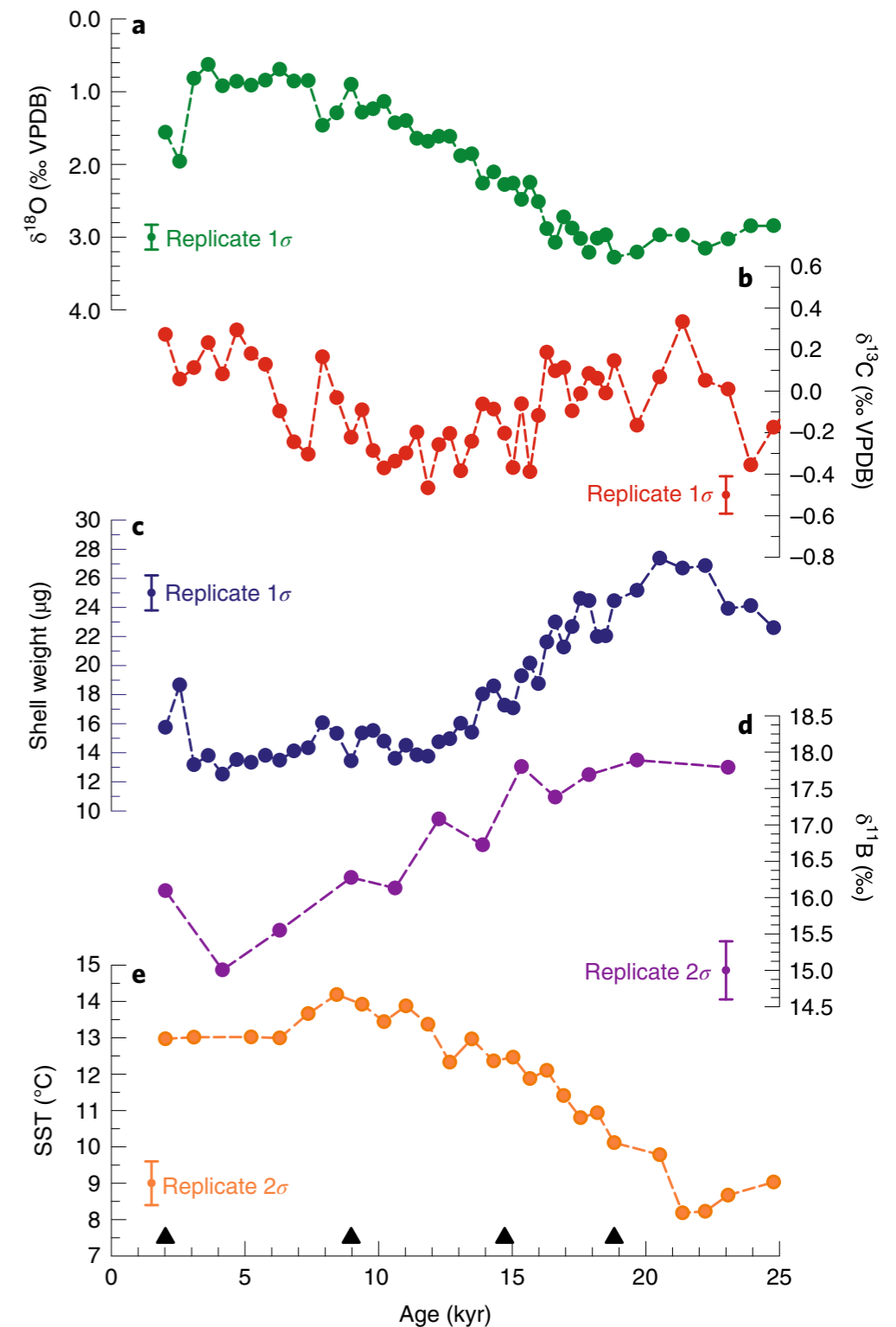
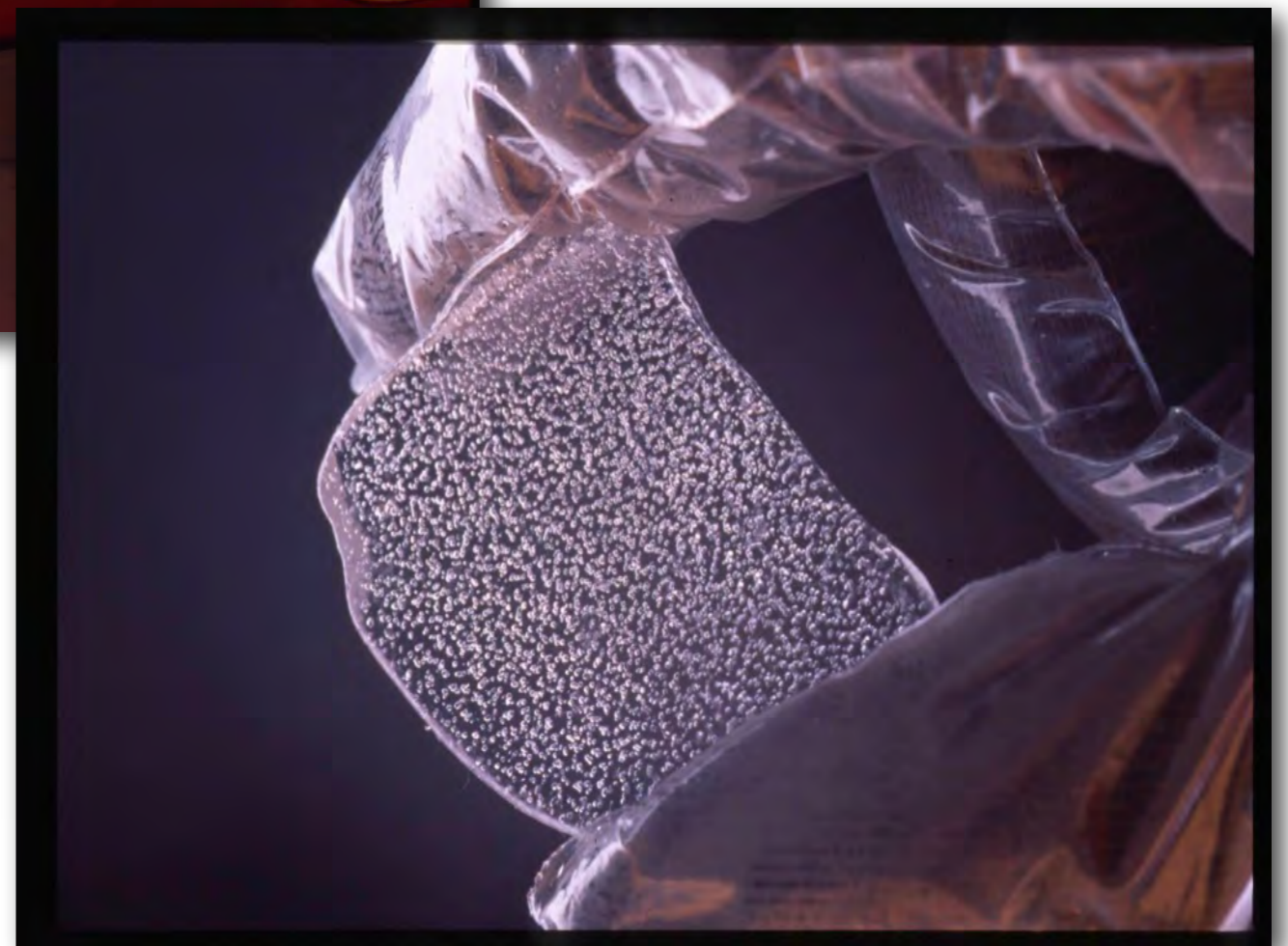
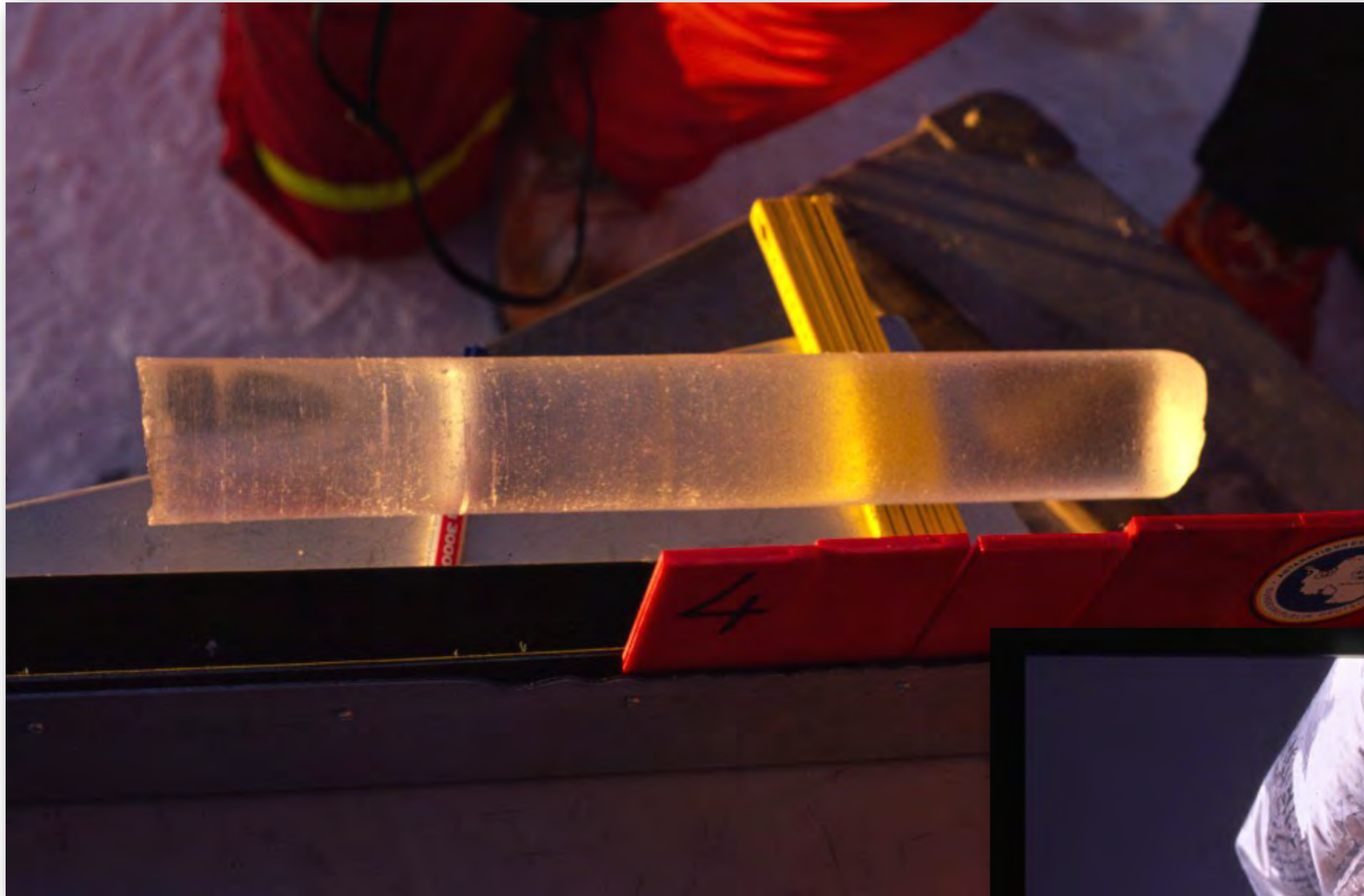


Fig. 2 | $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, shell weight and $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ for the planktonic foraminifer, *G. bulloides* and SST estimates from alkenones in sediment core MD972106.

Ice cores - a key climate archive



Climate System II

(Winter 2021/2022)

5th lecture:

The Global Water Cycle

(water cycle, stable water isotopes, ice core records)

End of lecture.

Slides available at:

https://paleodyn.uni-bremen.de/study/climate2021_22.html