

1 Do hurricanes cause significant interannual variability in the air-sea CO₂ flux of the subtropical
2 North Atlantic?

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15 **1. Abstract**

16 Observations at Bermuda and in the Caribbean Sea indicate that hurricanes influence surface
17 ocean $p\text{CO}_2$ ($p\text{CO}_2^{\text{ocean}}$) and air-sea CO_2 fluxes at short time scales. We use a regional model to
18 study the biogeochemical response and to consider basin-integrated impacts on interannual
19 variability in air-sea CO_2 fluxes in the North Atlantic subtropical gyre (25-40N). Consistent with
20 observations, we find that enhanced wind speeds dominate the hurricane's effect on the flux,
21 driving CO_2 out of the ocean due to the negative air-sea gradient in $p\text{CO}_2$ ($p\text{CO}_2^{\text{atm}} < p\text{CO}_2^{\text{ocean}}$)
22 that occurs in response to high sea surface temperatures (SSTs) during hurricane season. With a
23 storm, vertical mixing causes negative SST anomalies that depress $p\text{CO}_2^{\text{ocean}}$, but not enough to
24 reverse the gradient. Though hurricanes drive a local CO_2 efflux, we find no evidence for a
25 relationship between year-to-year variability in hurricane frequency and variability in basin-
26 integrated air-sea CO_2 fluxes across the subtropical North Atlantic.

27

27 2. Introduction

28 The seasonal cycle of CO₂ exchange between the atmosphere and the subtropical North Atlantic
29 Ocean is forced primarily by changes in the sea surface temperature (SST) due to seasonal heat
30 fluxes (Takahashi et al. 2002, Bates 2007 (hereafter B07), Ullman et al. 2008). During the
31 summer, pCO₂^{ocean} rises above atmospheric pCO₂ and thus leads to an efflux of carbon dioxide to
32 the atmosphere. The high wind speeds characteristic of hurricanes and tropical storms cause a
33 rapid release of CO₂ from the ocean due to the negative summertime gradient in pCO₂ (i.e.
34 pCO₂^{atm} < pCO₂^{ocean}). A deepening of the MLD also occurs with hurricane passage, causing a
35 decrease in the SST of about 2-3°C (Bates et al. 1998 (hereafter B98), D'Asaro and McNeil
36 2007, Wanninkhof et al. 2007). Despite the sometimes-large decrease in pCO₂^{ocean} due to
37 reduced SSTs, pCO₂^{ocean} remains higher than pCO₂^{atm}, so the wind speed enhancement causes a
38 strong CO₂ efflux (B98, D'Asaro and McNeil 2007, Wanninkhof et al. 2007).

39
40 Though their local effects have been clearly illustrated, the role that hurricanes play in the annual
41 air-sea exchange of CO₂ in the subtropics is not entirely clear. Following the work of B98 who
42 estimated a net global flux up to 0.51 PgC/yr due to hurricanes, B07 estimates a global flux of
43 0.04-0.08 PgC/yr due to hurricanes. However, these fluxes could simply be a short-term
44 enhancement of the summer/fall outgassing. Would the flux have occurred anyway, albeit more
45 gradually, without hurricanes? In this paper, we consider the impacts of hurricanes on surface
46 ocean biogeochemistry near Bermuda and on the interannual variability in air-sea CO₂ fluxes in
47 the subtropical North Atlantic from 25-40N using an ocean biogeochemical model.

48

48 3. Model

49 As described by Bennington et al. (2009) and Ullman et al. (2009), the MIT Ocean General
50 Circulation Model (Marshall et al. 1997) is regionally configured for the North Atlantic between
51 20°S and 81.5°N, with a horizontal resolution of 0.5° latitude and 0.5° longitude. The model has
52 23 vertical levels with a resolution of 10m thickness at the surface increasing to 500m thickness
53 for depths greater than 2200m. Relaxation to hydrographic and biogeochemical tracers occurs
54 along regional boundaries. The model is forced with daily winds, radiative and non-radiative
55 fluxes from the NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis I (Kalnay et al. 1996) for 1992-2006 and SSTs are
56 relaxed (2 week timescale) to satellite-based estimates (Reynolds et al. 2007). Photosynthetic
57 available radiation (PAR) incident at the sea surface is estimated as 40% of the shortwave
58 radiation (Frouin and Pinker, 1995), and is attenuated in the water column by chlorophyll and
59 water. After an 81-year physical spin up, the biogeochemical model was initialized with
60 climatological DIC, alkalinity and nutrients, low values of phytoplankton and zooplankton, and
61 atmospheric pCO₂ fixed at 356 μatm (1992 Mauna Loa mean), and was run for 70 years. For the
62 main run, atmospheric pCO₂ data is interpolated from monthly Mauna Loa observations (Keeling
63 et al. 2001) and is adjusted for local surface atmospheric pressure. The biogeochemical model
64 includes carbonate chemistry and nutrient cycling using an ecosystem model of intermediate
65 complexity (Dutkiewicz et al. 2005). The flux of carbon dioxide between the ocean and
66 atmosphere is parameterized following Wanninkhof (1992), shown by McNeil and D'Asaro
67 (2007) to be appropriate when considering hurricanes. We define a positive flux to be out of the
68 ocean.

69

69 4. Results

70 4a. Local CO₂ flux response to 1995 hurricanes at Bermuda

71 For comparison to B98 we begin by asking: How well does the NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis capture
72 the hurricanes of 1995? Of the three storms, Hurricane Felix passed closest to Bermuda, coming
73 nearest on August 14-15. Figure 1a demonstrates a peak in the wind speed on these days,
74 indicating that the presence of Felix was replicated in the Reanalysis. There was a low-pressure
75 center (not shown), with the lowest pressure on August 15th 1995 at 988.4 mb. The presence of
76 Luis (September 8-9) and Marilyn (September 18-19) are also notable in the wind speeds.

77

78 In comparison to the data, modeled MLDs are reasonable across both the seasonal cycle and
79 during the hurricane season. The model responds to hurricane passage with increases in mixed
80 layer depths (MLD) of 5-20m (Figure 1b). Increased mixing causes SSTs (Figure 1c) to drop
81 during the passage of each hurricane, rebounding slowly in the following weeks (B98). pCO₂^{ocean}
82 decreases with the passage of the hurricanes (Figure 1d). In order to better understand this drop
83 in pCO₂^{ocean}, it is split into the components driven by temperature changes (pCO₂-T) and by non-
84 temperature effects (pCO₂-nonT) (Takahashi et al. 2002, see Supplementary text). With this split,
85 is clear that SST depression drives the drop in pCO₂^{ocean} (Figure 1d). With Felix, there is also a
86 small decrease in pCO₂^{ocean} due to non-temperature causes. Analysis of the surface DIC budget
87 (Section 4b and Supplementary text) a dilution by large freshwater inputs, an effect that will also
88 lower SSS and thus pCO₂. Despite the SST-driven drop, pCO₂^{ocean} is still significantly above the
89 pCO₂ of the atmosphere (pCO₂^{atm}). Thus, the wind speed enhancement drives large CO₂ efflux
90 anomalies (Figure 1e). In the days or weeks following the hurricane passage, there is a

91 depression in the CO₂ flux, coincident with the lowered SST and pCO₂^{ocean} (Wanninkhof et al.,
92 2007).

93

94 The magnitudes of modeled CO₂ fluxes during the 1995 hurricanes are similar to those described
95 by B98 for Luis and Marilyn, but substantially less for Felix. This is due in part to the model
96 being forced with daily winds, which do not fully capture a hurricane's intensity. For example,
97 Felix had maximum sustained winds of 40-45 m/s (B98), with maximum wind speeds at
98 Bermuda of 26.2 m/s (B07), while the daily maximum from NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis at
99 Bermuda is only 14.5 m/s (Figure 1a). NCEP maximum wind speeds for Luis (14.1 m/s) and
100 Marilyn (13.5 m/s) were closer to those observed at Bermuda (19.1 m/s, 19.5 m/s, respectively).
101 Modeled CO₂ fluxes during the two days of Felix, Luis, and Marilyn were 32, 18, and 15 (total
102 65) mmol/m², respectively, out of a total summer / fall efflux of 349 mmol/m² (a sum of all days,
103 with flux from ocean to atmosphere in Figure 1d). B98 used observations to calculate fluxes of
104 108, 21, and 18 (total 145) mmol/m², and estimate a total summertime efflux of 331 mmol/m².
105 Because the model underestimates the hurricane fluxes and overestimates surface ocean pCO₂ in
106 summer and fall (Bennington et al. 2008), and thus slightly overestimates the total efflux in this
107 period, the percentage of the total summertime efflux of carbon dioxide caused by the three
108 hurricanes was 19% for the model, compared to 44% estimated by B98.

109

110 Though the daily winds forcing the model do not grossly underestimate hurricane winds at
111 Bermuda, these winds do cause model-estimated hurricane-driven CO₂ fluxes to be substantially
112 too small. The quadratic dependence of gas exchange on wind speed following the Wanninkhof
113 (1992) parameterization we use is a primary reason (Wanninkhof et al. 2007). Averaging of

114 observations in both time and space in the creation of the daily NCEP Reanalysis product
115 contributes to these muted wind speeds. A model with greater horizontal and temporal resolution
116 would certainly improve our representation of the surface ocean response to hurricanes, but
117 forcing data with appropriate resolution is not available for long enough to allow simulation of
118 the interannual changes of central interest to this study – for example, QuickScat satellite winds
119 are only available from 1999. Thus, for the purpose of this study, we conclude that the model is
120 able to reasonably capture the surface ocean response to all three 1995 hurricanes near Bermuda,
121 and thus is a reasonable tool for study of the local biogeochemical response to hurricanes
122 (section 4b) and variability in basin-averaged CO₂ fluxes (section 4c,d).

123

124 4b. Hurricane impacts on the surface ocean biogeochemistry

125 Modeled phosphate (PO₄) and DIC profiles, and MLDs for one day prior to and one day post
126 hurricane passage are presented in Figure 2, along with monthly data profiles from BATS. The
127 model nutricline sits slightly too high in the water column, surface DIC is too high, and the DIC
128 vertical gradient is too weak, all consistent with low productivity and high summer pCO₂^{ocean} as
129 discussed above (see also Supplementary text), and may be due to a lack of subsurface to surface
130 nutrient transfer in unresolved mesoscale eddies (Ledwell et al., 2008). These problems with the
131 model mean state do likely degrade the representation of the biogeochemical response to
132 hurricanes.

133

134 The modeled surface DIC response to the hurricane is not consistent from storm to storm. There
135 is a large decrease in surface DIC with Felix, and moderate increases during Luis and Marilyn.
136 Detailed model analysis (see Supplementary text and figure) indicates that DIC loss during Felix

137 is due to freshwater inputs and thus dilution of DIC. During Luis and Marilyn, the net DIC gain
138 is due to vertical and horizontal advection and mixing, as well as net evaporation. For none of
139 the three hurricanes is a net loss of DIC due to the air-sea flux a dominant term in the surface
140 ocean DIC budget. Changes in the deeper (>50m) profiles of both PO₄ and DIC suggest upward
141 heaving of the seasonal thermocline in response to the hurricane (Figure 2).

142

143 Consistent with B98, storm-induced mixing in the model does not penetrate into the nutricline,
144 bring nutrients to the surface, and stimulate a biological response. However, there have been
145 satellite observations of enhanced surface ocean chlorophyll in the wake of a hurricane,
146 something this model does not capture. Mixing of the subsurface chlorophyll maximum to the
147 surface is a likely reason for this feature. The model's inability to capture this is due, at least in
148 part, to the model's low productivity in the subtropical gyre and associated weak subsurface
149 chlorophyll maximum. Additionally, model horizontal resolution is too coarse to capture the
150 mesoscale and submesoscale processes that can drive strong local upwelling and mixing.

151

152 4c. Basin-wide impact on carbon dioxide flux

153 In this section, we use our North Atlantic model to test the basin-scale extrapolations by B98 and
154 B07. They conclude that the year-to-year differences in hurricane frequency and intensity might
155 be an important mechanism for controlling interannual variability in air-sea CO₂ exchange
156 globally between 40S and 40N. Neither our study nor theirs considers impacts north of 40N,
157 where hurricanes may drive enhanced carbon uptake due to the reversed air-sea pCO₂ gradient in
158 summer. Furthermore, we focus on the subtropical region, 25-40N.

159

160 Data from National Hurricane Center (NHC) was compiled to locate hurricanes and tropical
161 storms that passed north of 25N in the North Atlantic from 1992 to 2006. The number of
162 hurricanes per year is displayed in Figure 3a. The apparent increasing trend is not well defined
163 by a linear trend, with an r^2 value of 0.36 ($p < 0.05$). However, the net North Atlantic CO_2 sink for
164 25-40N is increasing with a steady, significant trend ($r^2 = 0.65$, $p < 0.01$, Figure 3b), due primarily
165 to the anthropogenically-driven increase in $\text{pCO}_2^{\text{atm}}$ (Ullman et al. 2009). Figure 3c compares the
166 annual sum of the local CO_2 flux occurring along the path of the hurricane or tropical storm
167 (“along-track”) to the number of hurricanes. The trend is reasonably well defined by a linear
168 relationship ($r^2 = 0.56$, $p < 0.1$), as expected from the above analysis of three hurricanes from 1995
169 at Bermuda. Locally, CO_2 efflux increases with the number of hurricanes. The fact that we
170 consider only storm number suggests that it is not necessary to describe variation in storm size
171 and strength to capture the first-order effects on local CO_2 fluxes.

172

173 If we now consider the basin-integrated CO_2 flux between 25-40N, we find there is not a
174 statistically significant relationship between the number of hurricanes and the basin-integrated,
175 annual flux to the ocean ($r^2 = 0.23$, $p < 0.1$, Figure 3d). In other words, the model suggests that
176 variation in the number of North Atlantic hurricanes and tropical storms does not have a clear
177 relationship to the magnitude of the net CO_2 sink across the subtropical North Atlantic. This
178 finding is contrary to the suggestion of B98 and B07. It suggests that the large local fluxes
179 occurring during a hurricane do not drive a significant additional efflux of CO_2 from the ocean,
180 but instead only temporarily enhance the process of summer / fall outgassing already underway.

181

182 4d. Are model errors likely to impact our conclusions?

183 This model underestimates the magnitude of the local surface ocean carbon cycle response to
184 hurricanes, largely because of the use of daily-mean winds and the one-half degree resolution.
185 The model also overestimates the summertime air-sea gradient in pCO₂. These two effects
186 partially counteract each other in the calculation of the flux, but the result remains an
187 underestimate (section 4a). Could these model flaws modify our conclusion that there is a
188 negligible impact of hurricanes on interannual variability in the subtropical CO₂ sink? To test
189 this, we consider the modeled maximum annual along-track flux for all hurricanes (223 mmol
190 C/m², Figure 3c) and assume it is an underestimate by more than a factor of 2; thus we will use
191 500 mmol C/m² in our calculation. Note that this is more than 3 times the flux due to all 1995
192 hurricanes (145 mmol C/m²) estimated by B98. If we assume this annual flux applies over all of
193 a canonical 250km diameter hurricane, the largest size used by B98, the total flux is 2.95×10^{-4}
194 PgC/yr, only 0.26-0.44% of the annual net carbon flux estimate for the years 1992-2006 (-0.066
195 to -0.114 PgC/yr, Figure 3b) for the subtropical North Atlantic from 25-40N. If we add to this
196 tropical force winds extending to 750km and causing a flux of 150 mmolC/m², the total flux is
197 1.00×10^{-3} PgC/yr, or 0.87-1.5% of the total annual sink. We conclude that even if the model
198 was able to more accurately simulate the local impact of hurricanes, we would still not find them
199 to have a significant impact on year-to-year variability in the subtropical North Atlantic carbon
200 sink.

201

202 Our findings are in contrast to previous works, particularly B98, which we attribute in part to the
203 methodology used in their basin-scale extrapolation. They use very large hurricane-driven fluxes,
204 values that are generally much larger (by 100 times or more) than those estimated from
205 observations at Bermuda (see Supplementary text). Our modeled maximum annual hurricane-

206 driven flux across the North Atlantic (25-40N, 223 mmol C/m²) is only 3.4 times the maximum
207 modeled annual flux at Bermuda (65 mmol C/m², 1995, section 4a).

208

208 5. Summary
209

210 We have evaluated the impact of hurricanes on the carbon cycle of the subtropical North Atlantic
211 using an ocean biogeochemical model that successfully captures observed seasonal patterns of
212 MLD, SST and pCO₂ variations at Bermuda and also captures, to a reasonable degree, the effects
213 of hurricane passage on these quantities. Reduced pCO₂ in the wake of three 1995 hurricanes is
214 mostly due to the drop in SST that occurs with increased mixing, which supplies cool subsurface
215 waters to the surface. Though the high winds associated with the storms cause an intense,
216 temporary efflux of CO₂, this drop in SST and corresponding reduced pCO₂ in the wake of the
217 storms likely compensate for the enhanced flux during the storms. Nutrient supply to the surface
218 with vertical mixing is weak because the mixing enhancement by the storm does not reach into
219 the nutricline. Changes in DIC have little impact on surface ocean pCO₂, and the changes that do
220 occur are driven physically, not biologically. The model suggests that, at the scale of the whole
221 subtropical North Atlantic, 25-40N, the frequency of hurricanes and tropical storms is not
222 associated with significant changes in the net annual carbon sink from 1992-2006.

223

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224

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264 Figure Captions:

265 Figure 1. Modeled and observed variables at Bermuda (31N, 64W) from 15 May 1995 through
266 15 December 1995. SST and pCO₂ data from B07 and MLDs calculated from CTD profiles
267 (downloaded from <http://bats.bios.edu/>) indicated with blue asterisks. Hurricanes Felix, Luis, and
268 Marilyn are denoted by the gray bars, beginning one day before closest approach to Bermuda and
269 ending one day after: (a) NCEP reanalysis 10-meter wind speeds, (b) MLD, (c) SST, (d) Total
270 pCO₂ (thin solid bold black), pCO₂-T (thin red), pCO₂-nontT (dashed red), and pCO₂^{atm} (thin
271 black), and (e) air-sea CO₂ flux, positive to the atmosphere.

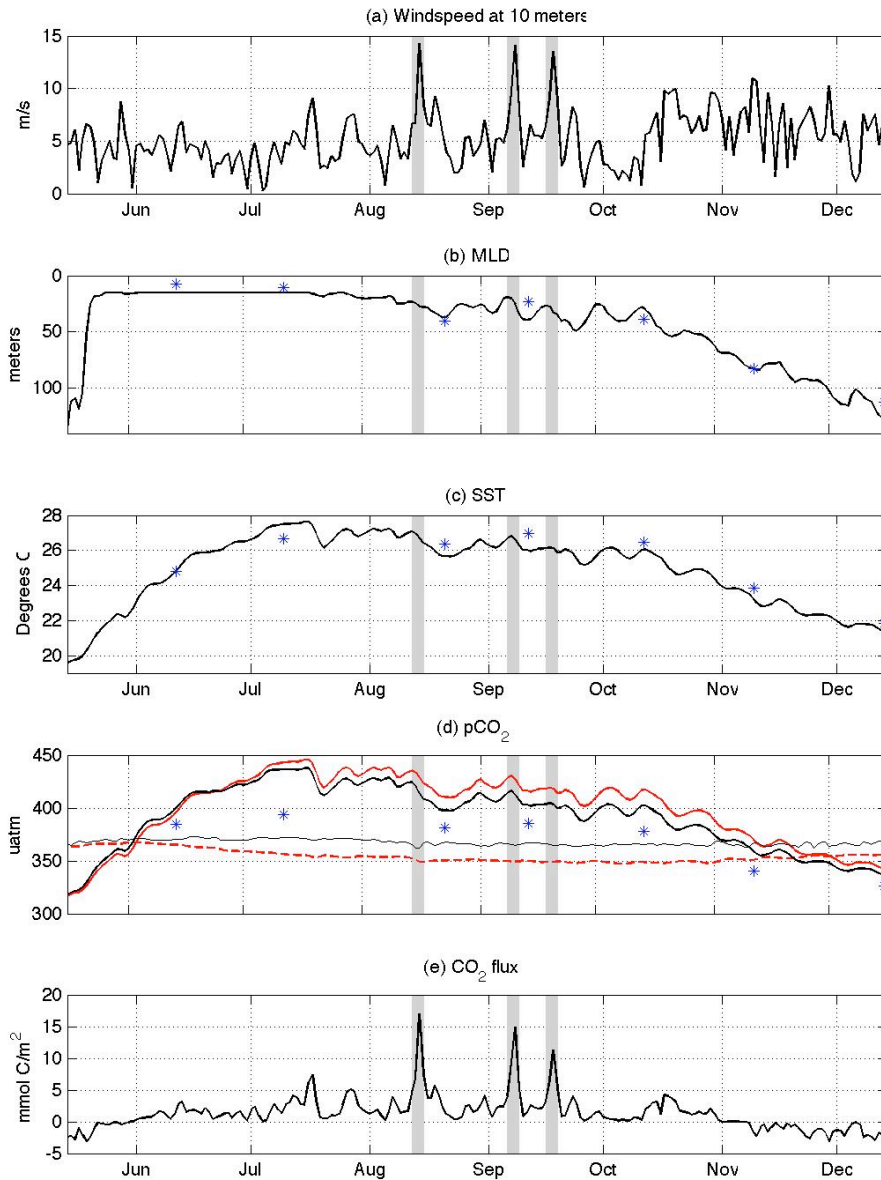
272

273 Figure 2. Profiles of (top) phosphate and (bottom) DIC concentrations from the model. Dashed
274 lines are from a day before the hurricanes passed Bermuda, solid lines from a day after. On the
275 phosphate profiles, the depth of the modeled MLDs the day before (triangle) and the day after
276 (square) the hurricane are also indicated. Asterisks indicate the observed monthly nutrient
277 profile.

278

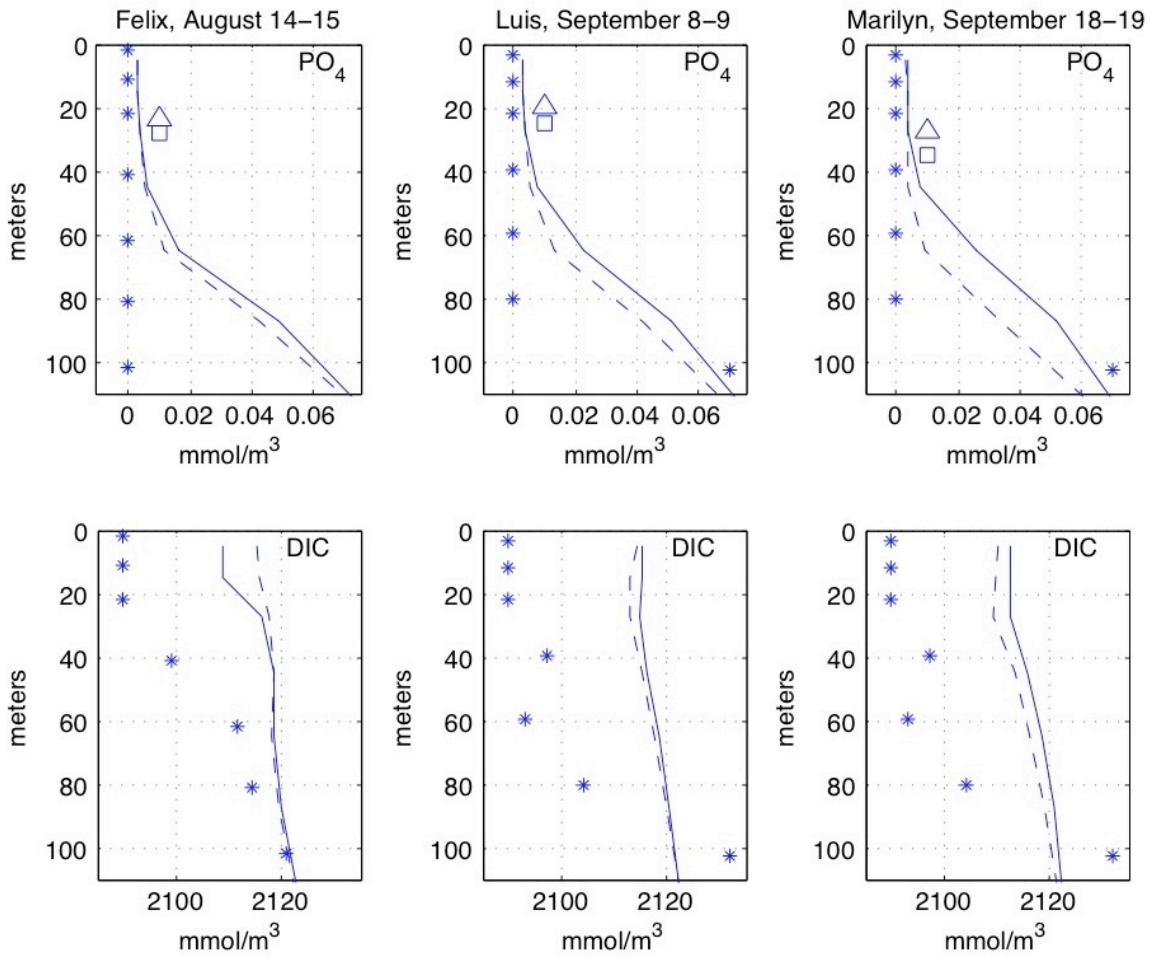
279 Figure 3. Scatter plots of year, hurricane and tropical storm (TS) frequency and modeled CO₂
280 fluxes, as well as best-fit lines when a linear trend is able to reasonably define the relationship.
281 (a) Hurricane and tropical storm frequency (NHC data) versus year, (b) annual flux (25-40N,
282 including the Gulf of Mexico and Caribbean) per year, (c) sum of the daily fluxes along
283 hurricane and tropical storm tracks (NHC data) versus number of hurricanes and tropical storms,
284 (d) basin-integrated, annual flux versus hurricane and tropical storm frequency.

285



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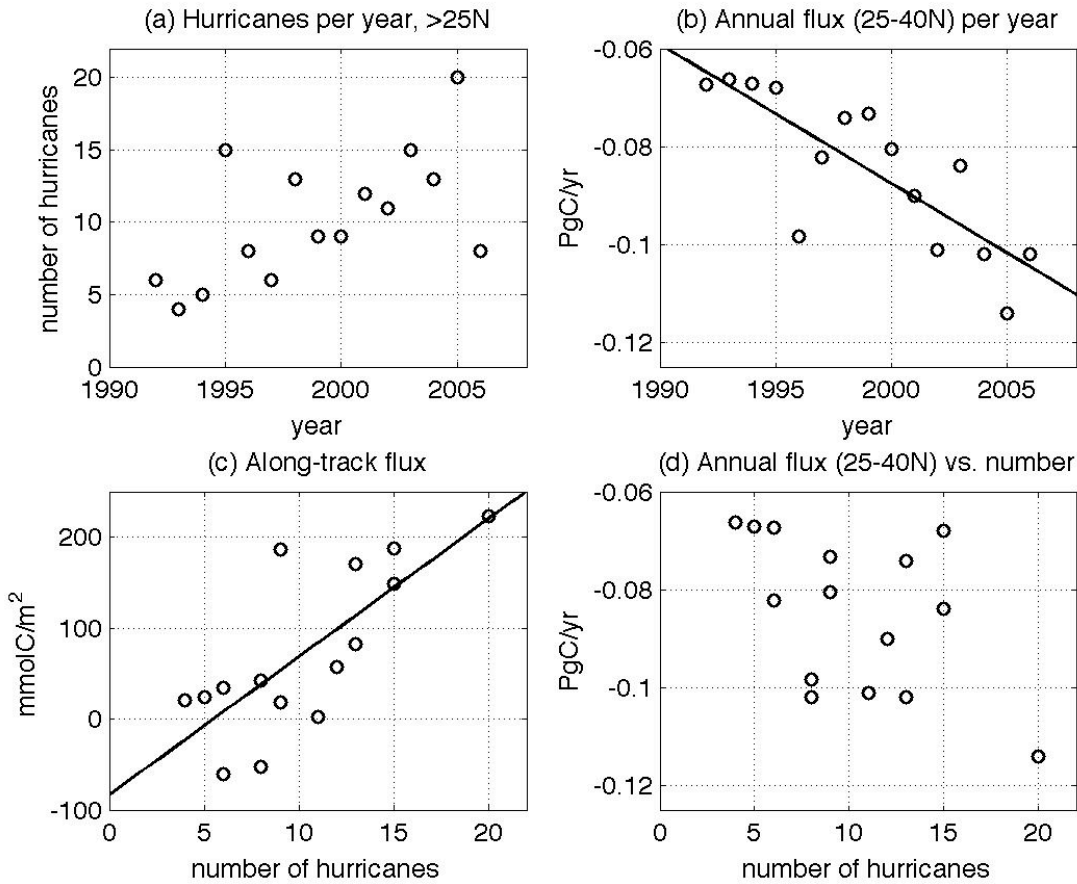
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 307 storms, (d) basin-integrated, annual flux versus hurricane and tropical storm frequency. Positive
 308 fluxes are to the atmosphere.