Hydrography of the southern Bay of Biscay shelf-break region: Integrating the multiscale physical variability over the period 1993–2003

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The southern Bay of Biscay (NW Spain) shows a very active hydrography due to the different origins of its Central Waters, the local modifications exerted on them by continental effects and the recurrence of mesoscale processes such as slope currents, upwellings and eddies. In order to assess the role of the different sources of variability we conducted a monthly series of CTD sampling in the central Cantabrian Sea along a coastal-oceanic transect, from 1993 to 2003. We analyzed the spatial variability of the hydrographic processes over different timescales. The thermohaline properties of Central Waters varied between those typical of the subpolar mode of the Eastern North Atlantic Central Water (ENACWsp) and a local mode, the Bay of Biscay Central Water (BBCW), though there has been a clear shift toward the BBCW prevalence in the last years. The Iberian Poleward Current (IPC) conveyed subtropical Central Waters (ENACWst) into the region almost every winter. This slope current may display a double-core structure during some extreme events. The upper layers of the ocean showed a long-term trend toward increasing temperature and decreasing salinity, and accordingly density was on the decrease. These patterns suggest an enhancement of the water column stratification. Coastal upwellings are an important source of inshore variability and counteract these long-term changes on the coast. However, their intensity seems to be decreasing and their seasonal pattern changing toward a general advancement of the upwelling-favorable season.


1. Introduction

[2] Ocean margins are very rich ecosystems in terms of hydrographic diversity as they integrate the oceanic, atmospheric and continental forcing [Mann and Lazier, 1991; Holligan and Reiners, 1992]. This high hydrographic variability ultimately controls the structure of the coastal food webs [Kiørboe, 1993; Falkowski et al., 1998]. Thus any change in the strength or timing of the involved hydrographic processes could have major consequences on the biological productivity including marine renewal resources, for example, fisheries [Beaugrand et al., 2003].

[3] Much interest has recently been devoted to understanding the responses of marine systems to global change (see GLOBEC project, www.globec.org). A critical challenge is the separation of anthropogenic forcing from natural variability. To reliably detect any eventual signal of change in the dynamic coastal system, it is necessary to disentangle the different sources of hydrographic and atmospheric forcing, as well as to characterize their range of variability. Oceanographic monitoring programs, based on regular records of water column profiles, proved to be particularly valuable, for example, the Hawaii (HOT) and Bermuda (BATS) research programs [Karl and Michaels, 1996; Siegel et al., 2001]. These series have provided important background information regarding past variation as well as a quantification of the intrinsic noise associated to each hydrographic process. Data from such programs allow us, unlike what is the case with satellite-based telemetry, to look beneath the surface, and they grant an integrated view of different-scale processes.

[4] In the present study we aim at better resolving the spatial and temporal scales of hydrographic processes in the southern Bay of Biscay. To do so, we conducted a monthly
time series of CTD profiles from 1993 to 2003 consisting of three stations along a coastal-oceanic transect.

[5] The Bay of Biscay is a Large Marine Ecosystem [Sherman and Skjoldal, 2002]. It is located in an intergyre zone enclosed by the subpolar and subtropical gyres [Pollard et al., 1996]. As a result, two subtypes of Central Waters (Eastern North Atlantic Central Water, ENACW) have been defined: the subpolar (ENACWsp) and subtropical (ENACWst) modes [Pérez et al., 2001]. A third water body formed by diapycnal mixing on the Armorican-Celtic shelf [Cooper, 1949] has also been described: the Bay of Biscay Central Water (BBCW) [Fraga et al., 1982; Botas et al., 1989], first called Gulf Water (G) by Tréguer et al. [1979]. However, other authors consider that its thermohaline imprint falls within the range of variation of the ENACW and avoid the use of this name.

[6] The Iberian Poleward Current (IPC) conveys subtropical waters into the bay [Frouin et al., 1990; Haynes and Barton, 1990; Ambar and Fiuza, 1994]. This slope current, also referred to as Portugal Coastal Counter Current (PCCC) [Alvarez-Salgado et al., 2003] or Navidad [Pingree and Le Cann, 1992a, 1992b], circulates poleward along the Portuguese coast, to turn eastward and run along the Cantabrian continental shelf and slope and, eventually, reach the Armorican shelf off SW France at 47°N [Pingree and Le Cann, 1990; García-Soto et al., 2002]. The IPC appears mostly in winter [Botas et al., 1988; Gil, 2003] associated to the upwelling/downwelling regime off the western Iberian Peninsula [Alvarez-Salgado et al., 2003]. Its physical, chemical [Alvarez-Salgado et al., 2003, and references therein], and biological implications [Fernández et al., 1993; Bode et al., 2002; Huskin et al., 2003; Isla and Anadón, 2004] have been well studied. However, there is little information about the year-to-year recurrence, intensity, temporal trends and vertical structure of this phenomenon based on time series detection, except for sea surface temperature (SST) satellite images [Frouin et al., 1990; Pingree and Le Cann, 1990; García-Soto et al., 2002].

[7] Wind-driven upwelling [Molina, 1972; Botas et al., 1990; Gil et al., 2002] is another important process. During summer, it brings nutrients into the depleted upper layers of the ocean and therefore directly affects coastal primary production and food web structure.

[8] There is also the strong seasonal cycle of stratification/mixing that typically drives ocean dynamics at these latitudes. The occurrence of all these hydrographic processes in the Cantabrian Sea makes it a suitable place to study their forcing on the bay, and permits a multilayered analysis: (1) the large-scale interannual variation of Central Waters; (2) the mesoscale processes: slope currents and upwellings in relation to the atmospheric forcing; and (3) the combined effect of all these processes on the seasonal and long-term variability of temperature and salinity at different depths in the water column as well as the implications they have on seasonal stratification.

2. Data and Methods

2.1. Study Area and Sampling Scheme

[9] The Cantabrian Sea is the southernmost part of the Bay of Biscay, in the eastern North Atlantic (Figure 1). The presence of Cape Peñas is known to reinforce wind-driven upwellings to the west [Blanton et al., 1984; Botas et al., 1988].

[10] Three permanent stations situated along a transect perpendicular to the coast (Figure 1) were sampled on a
Table 1. Temperature Long-Term Trends

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Slope Seas, %</th>
<th>Percent °C yr⁻¹</th>
<th>P Value</th>
<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Slope Seas, %</th>
<th>Percent °C yr⁻¹</th>
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<tr>
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Table 2. Salinity Long-Term Trends

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<th>Depth (m)</th>
<th>Slope Seas, %</th>
<th>Percent °C yr⁻¹</th>
<th>P Value</th>
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<td>7.93</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Slope, significance (p value) and fraction of total variance (r²) at 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 75, 100, 200, and 300 m. The italicized entries correspond to those depths at which salinity trends are significant. The fraction of variance explained by the seasonal cycle (r²) is shown in bold when significant (p values <0.001 not shown) and separated from the trend. Dashes denote negligible amounts.
Table 3. Density Long-Term Trends

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Station 3</th>
<th></th>
<th>Station 2</th>
<th></th>
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<td>Seas, %</td>
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<td>P Value</td>
<td>Seas, %</td>
<td>Percent kg m⁻³ yr⁻¹</td>
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<td>10 m</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>−0.022</td>
<td>0.006</td>
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<tr>
<td>20 m</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>−0.024</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 m</td>
<td>57.7</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>−0.014</td>
<td>0.098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 m</td>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>−0.006</td>
<td>0.408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 m</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>−0.006</td>
<td>0.303</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Seasonality was highly significant in all cases (p values < 0.001, not shown). The fraction of total variance accounted by the seasonal cycle (r²) is shown in bold. Slope and significance (p value) of the long-term trend is shown for all depths and stations (either significant or not). Significant trends (p value < 0.1) are italicized, and the percentage of variance is shown for them (bold type). Dashes denote negligible amounts.

We looked for the seasonal imprint of the IPC on temperature and salinity at 200 and 300 m. Long-term processes such as warming, freshening and their combined implications in stratification were analyzed with much higher resolution, every 10 m (see Tables 1, 2 and 3). As the statistics, based on multiple regression (see statistical tools), did not require the interpolation of missing values, all results are derived from raw data.

2.4. Ekman Transport

The component of the Ekman transport along the y axis (i.e., offshore-inshore owing to the coastline orientation) was estimated according to equation (1) first described by Bakun [1973] and later adapted for the Iberian Peninsula by Lavín et al. [1991],

\[
Q_y = \frac{\tau_x}{\rho_w} = \frac{\rho_a C_d v_r |v|}{f \rho_w},
\]

where \( \tau_x \) represents the wind stress along the x axis being \( \rho_a \) the density of the air considered constant at 1.22 kg m⁻³, \( C_d \) is an empirical dimensionless drag coefficient considered constant at 0.0014 according to Hidy [1972], \( v_r \) is the east-west component of the wind, the one inducing upwelling due to the local shoreline orientation, and |v| is the module of the wind, \( f = 2\Omega \sin \Phi \) is the Coriolis parameter, approximately 9.96 \( 10^{-5} \text{s}^{-1} \) (43°N) at the time series latitude and \( \rho_w \) is the seawater density (1025 kg m⁻³). Positive values of the Ekman transport mean masses of water (in m³ s⁻¹ km⁻¹) displaced off the coast; this loss is considered to be replaced by deeper, cooler and nutrient-enriched water, i.e., upwelling [Wooster et al., 1976], unlike negative values which produce the opposed phenomenon (i.e., downwelling).

The index was calculated using local wind records. The Instituto Nacional de Meteorología supplied wind strength and direction from the nearby Asturias airport meteorological station (43°33'N, 06°01'W, 127 m asl) (Figure 1). Wind intensity values lower than 6 km h⁻¹ were not available for the whole time series so they were removed to make it fully comparable. Three upwelling index values were subsequently calculated per day from wind records taken at 7:00, 13:00 and 18:00 h and then averaged to obtain both daily (n = 12936) and monthly indices (n = 425) from 1968 to 2003.

To show the representativeness of the index, we made use of a high-frequency temperature series recorded with a continuous data logger (ONSET Computer Corporation) at Campielu (43°33'N, 06°24'W) (see Figure 1). Daily temperatures corresponding to high tide were extracted from the series.

To assess the quantitative validity of the index, we compared them with another index computed in the same way but using data winds taken by the buoy Rayo (www.puertos.es), very close to St. 3 and at sea level. The daily regression line was \( Y = 5.4X - 57.7; r^2 = 0.84 \). As the fit was quite good we used the airport series because of its much longer temporal resolution. However, the range of upwelling/downwelling values may be underestimated compared to those at sea level.

2.5. North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and Local Meteorological Variables

The NAO index is the difference between the normalized sea level pressure between Stýkkisholmur (Iceland) to represent the Iceland Low and Ponta Delgada (Azores) to represent the Azores High [Stenseth et al., 2003; Hurrell, 1995]. Here we used the monthly data provided by the Climate Prediction Center (NOAA) (ftp://ftp.cdc.noaa.gov/pub/cdc/w525g/data/indexes/tele_index_nh).

The Instituto Nacional de Meteorología supplied series of evaporation, precipitation, relative humidity and air temperature from the airport meteorological station. Series of river runoff for the Nalon River (Figure 1) were supplied by the Confederación Hidrográfica del Norte.

2.6. Statistical Tools

The time series described above can be seen as consisting of three key different components, which can be studied independently since they have different statistical and ecological meanings [Legendre and Legendre, 1998]. Typically, there is a seasonal component, a long-term trend component and a random or noise component [Chatfield, 1992]. To characterize them, we carried out dummy-variable seasonal regression as this approach enables additive seasonal adjustment to be performed as part of the trend regression model and tolerates missing values. The trend was assumed to be linear and entered into the regression model as a sequential number (expressing time position from
the first observation). The seasonal frame was built as a set of indicator (or dummy) variables and entered as independent regressors. These variables assume the values of either 0 or 1; that is, the indicator for Jan takes a value of 1 in January and 0 for the rest of the year. We used 11 monthly indicators for 11 of the 12 months. The twelfth month is reserved as a baseline for comparison and computed afterward [Draper and Smith, 1981]. Being \( \varepsilon_t \) the stochastic component, we may write the whole model as

\[
y_t = a + bt + c_1\text{Jan}_t + c_2\text{Feb}_t + \ldots + c_{11}\text{Nov}_t + \varepsilon_t, \tag{2}
\]

where \( a \) is the intercept and \( b \) is the slope of the trend while each of the \( c \) coefficients determines the effect of the month on the level of the series, i.e., the seasonal cycle. Once the series were fitted, we tested the assumptions of linear regression (linearity, independence, homoscedasticity and normality) in the residuals to check the accurateness of the coefficients. Other time series procedures such as Seasonal Decomposition (Census I) or Exponential Smoothing [Makridakis et al., 1983; Makridakis and Wheelwright, 1989; Montgomery et al., 1990], not based on regression, were also tested and provided similar values.

3. Results

3.1. Water Masses

[21] Central Waters extend from a subsurface salinity maximum at 50–100 m to a salinity minimum at around 450–500 m, beyond this depth they start mixing with the intermediate Mediterranean Sea Outflow Water (MSW) [van Aken, 2000]. The most oceanic station (St. 3), sampled down to 500 m (see map, Figure 1), allowed us to describe the interannual variability. There were periods during which the thermohaline properties were typical of the ENACWsp, like 1998, while others were clearly of the BBCW, like 2001 (Figure 2). The recurrence and prevalence of each form can be tracked through the evolution of salinity at its core, on the 27.1 isopycnal (Figure 3). The highest salinity values, which would correspond to the ENACWsp, appeared around 1993–1994 and 1998–1999 separated by two periods of low salinity (indicating BBCW); the first one was centered around 1995 while the second one stretched from 2001 toward the end of the record.

[22] Local series of evaporation, rainfall, P-E and river runoff were studied with regard to this variation, but no relation was found (not shown). However, the accumulated monthly anomalies of the NAO index showed a pattern opposed to that of salinity. There were two periods of increasing NAO which were followed by decreasing salinity (1993–1995 and 2000–mid-2001), a central period of decreasing NAO and increasing salinity (1996–1999) and a period of little variation at the end of the series (from mid-2001 onward). The whole data set showed no significant relation, probably owing to this last period. The inclusion of more values (to June 2005) made the series significantly correlate in two periods (before and after 1998). The presence of isolated peaks of salinity reflects the sudden intrusions of the ENACW subtropical mode, advected by the IPC.

3.2. The Iberian Poleward Current (IPC)

[23] In November 1999, Isla and Anadón [2004] reported the onset of an IPC off Galicia (Figure 4a). This event was also captured by our time series 5 days later (9 November). In Figure 4b, we compare our records with those from Galicia before and during the IPC flow. Its thermohaline imprint was clearly distinguishable from the previous conditions at both places.

[24] By using the same T-S approach we tracked its temporal and vertical evolution during two different winters: 1998–1999 and 2001–2002 (Figure 5), corresponding to ENACWsp and BBCW. In December 1998 (Figure 5a), the IPC showed an incipient development stage with a maximum of salinity at 86 m. In January, when it was fully developed it
Figure 4. (a) Salinity isolines (spacing 0.05) at 100 m depth off the west coast of Galicia (see Figure 1) in November 1999. The dashed line (salinity > 35.85) corresponds to the core of the IPC (modified from Isla and Anadón [2004]). The four dots are the GIGOVI-II stations shown in Figure 4b. (b) Temperature-salinity diagrams at St. 3 (crosses) and Galicia (points). October values (no IPC) are represented by gray symbols, and November 1999 (IPC flow) are represented by black symbols.

Figure 5. Temperature-salinity diagrams centered on the winters of (a) 1998–1999 and (b) 2001–2002 at Station 3. The reference lines for BBCW and ENACW (see section 2) and the 27.1 isopycnal are shown. Those months showing thermohaline properties of the IPC (ENACWst) are shown in black and the depth of the maximum of salinity, i.e., the IPC core, is indicated.
was also most shallow (46 m) to sink next month to 84 m. The presence of the BBCW in the winter of 2001–2002 made the IPC event that year was even stronger, as its core seems to have been deeper than 100 m.

Figure 6. Temperature-salinity diagrams of the most prominent IPC events documented each winter (November–February) from 1992–1993 to 2002–2003 at Station 3 (500 m). The shadowed box delimits the subtropical mode of the ENACW, i.e., the IPC events (see section 2). For those winters showing no IPC structure, January was plotted. Note that 1993 was sampled using Niskin bottles and so it is a discrete profile. February 1997 was sampled down to 200 m but detected the IPC core. Owing to lack of data at St. 3 in 1997–1998, St. 2 is shown instead (100 m); it is therefore highly likely that the IPC event that year was even stronger, as its core seems to have been deeper than 100 m.

[27] Regarding its vertical structure, another double-core event was observed in January 1996, with two peaks at 36 and 267 m. Apart from the latter and February 2002, the rest of series showed only one major core at very variable depths depending on the year (Figure 7a). Concerning the atmospheric forcing, the IPC showed no clear response to the winter NAO index of the previous year (Figure 7b) as strong IPCs developed under both positive and negative NAO indices. The averaged November–February downwelling index did not correlate with the strength either (Figure 7c). Moreover, most of the highest salinity values coincided with weak downwelling conditions. We also checked the effect of the upwelling index off Galicia (43°N,11°W from Lavin et al. [2000]), since wind direction at the source of the IPC could affect the strength of its flow in the region, but no clear relation was found (not shown).

3.3. Upwelling

[28] Winds affect hydrography on a much shorter temporal scale. This wind-driven upwelling system consists of short-lived upwellings that are efficiently captured by continuous temperature records (Figure 8). Our CTD sampling frequency is too coarse to study them but we can do it in the wind series.

[29] The daily upwelling/downwelling index (1968–2003) may, as a whole, be regarded as a very noisy series made of short positive and negative periods (Figure 9a). Neither the daily nor the average monthly series showed any long-term trend. Despite its high variability, the monthly series showed a significant seasonal component accounting for the 24.1% of total variability. This underlying seasonality resembles much the alternating wind regime of the NW coast of Iberia (i.e., upwelling versus downwelling seasons [see Álvarez-Salgado et al., 2003]). However, instead of presenting a clear positive season, the index hardly exceeds the 0 level in the central months of the year (Figure 9b).

[30] To focus on the recurrence of the positive periods, we studied variations in the number of days with upwelling and intensity of these days. First, we studied the period from March to September: The intensity showed a negative trend (slope = −2.06 m² km⁻¹ s⁻¹ yr⁻¹, p = 0.013) while the number of days slightly increased (0.41 d yr⁻¹, p = 0.048). Regarding its seasonality, the number of days showed a dome-shape pattern with a maximum in July. The intensity was higher in March and April than the rest of months which followed a similar pattern to days (Figure 10a). These smoothed cycles showed decadal variations: During the 1990s, the intensity was lower than the previous decades (Figure 10b) but the cycle structure did not vary much. The number of days showed greater decadal variation (Figure 10c), from the dome shape in the 1970s to a more irregular pattern in the 1990s, with a striking maximum in March.

[31] The upwelling season is traditionally considered to extend from April to September [Bakun, 1990; Lavin et al., 2000; Álvarez-Salgado et al., 2003]. To make our results comparable with previous studies, we reanalyzed the series excluding March (see Figure 10d). The intensity kept the decreasing trend (slope = −1.75 m² km⁻¹ s⁻¹ yr⁻¹, p = 0.021) but there was no change in the number of days (p = 0.255).
3.4. Time Series of Temperature

Figure 11 shows the seasonal cycle along the coastal-oceanic transect at 10 and 50 m. At the surface, positive deviations of temperature stretched typically from June to November (July Nov at St. 1). On the continental shelf and slope (St. 2 and St. 3), the warmest month proved to be August while on the coast (St. 1) the highest temperatures appeared in September. At 50 m, positive deviations extended from September to December. This period is 2 months lagged with regard to the surface and represents the downward transfer of heat due to mixing but also the effect of summer upwelling.

Figure 7. Relation between the maximum value of salinity recorded in the water column each winter at Station 3 (see Figure 5) and (a) the depth at which it appeared, (b) the November–December NAO index, and (c) the downwelling index for the November–January period. The shadowed area contains the strongest IPCs. The horizontal line at 36.66 (see section 2) shows the limit between the ENACWst and ENACWsp, i.e., IPC/no-IPC. Note that owing to lack of information on 1997–1998 at St. 3, St. 2 is shown instead and that this value may be misrepresenting the salinity maximum that winter as St. 2 is only sampled down to 100 m.

Figure 8. Daily surface temperature (line, see section 2) at Campiel.lu (see map in Figure 1) and the corresponding Ekman transport (bars) at Asturies airport. The arrows indicate sharp decreases of temperature after a few days of upwelling (positive values, offshore transport).
Significant trends of more than 0.05°C yr⁻¹ were detected at 10 and 20 m at the outermost station while the middle station (St. 2) presented a marginally significant trend of 0.04°C yr⁻¹ (p value = 0.067) at 10 m (Table 1). The most coastal station (St. 1) showed no significant positive trends. A strong seasonal signal was detected at every depth, being most important at the surface of the outermost station.

### 3.5. Time Series of Salinity

Salinity did not show a recognizable seasonal cycle above 200 m (Table 2) but it did at 200 and 300 m (Figure 12).

![Figure 9](image-url)

**Figure 9.** (a) Ekman transport index series calculated from daily wind records at Asturies airport meteorological station (1968–2003). Positive (negative) values indicate upwelling (downwelling) conditions. (b) Box-whisker plot showing the seasonal distribution of the monthly upwelling index. The monthly mean (straight line) and the annual mean of the series (dashed line) are overlaid.

![Figure 10](image-url)

**Figure 10.** (a) Mean value and S.E. of positive Ekman transport (upwelling intensity) and number of days of positive values (upwelling frequency) per month (the latter is referred to the right-hand axis, mean values are typed), from March–September (1969–2003). (b) Intensity of upwelling per decades: 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s. (c) Number of days with upwelling per decades: 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s. (d) Intensity (Mean and S.E.) and number of days of upwelling per year averaged from April–September values. The straight line is the linear fit for intensity.
The most saline months corresponded to November–February coinciding with the period when the IPC reaches the region. Temperature at these depths showed a similar seasonal cycle (Figure 12). Salinity decreased through the whole water column at the most oceanic station (Table 2) being more pronounced in the uppermost 50 m (from $-0.013 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ to $-0.017 \text{ yr}^{-1}$). Similar trends were detected below 10 m at the middle station and below 20 m at the coastal one.

3.6. Time Series of Density

Divergences in the long-term evolution of density at different depths can be used to infer changes in the strength of the water column stratification. Negative trends were detected as deep as 30 m at the outermost station and at the surface at St. 2 (Table 3) resembling the coastal-oceanic gradient detected in temperature.

4. Discussion

The temporal and spatial scales covered by this database grant an integrated view of the hydrographic variability in the region. Our results illustrate these processes, ranging from the interannual changes of Central Waters to the long-term trends of individual time series.

The geostrophic circulation in the Bay of Biscay is known to be weak and slow [Pingree, 1993; Bower et al., 2002]. This lack of a dominant circulation pattern makes water masses depend much more on the regional climatic conditions, i.e., rainfall, river flows, storms, etc. Local meteorology did not support a direct effect of the regional climate on Central Waters but there was a lagged effect of the North Atlantic Oscillation.

Off Galicia, Pérez et al. [2000] reported a positive correlation between the NAO index and the year-to-year variations of salinity on the 27.1 isopycnal. The authors explained it in relation to wind direction and precipitation on the intergyre region. Our results differ from this in that the correlation is negative what agrees with the lack of relation with local meteorology.

The NAO is the dominant mode of winter climate variability in the North Atlantic region. During its positive phase, increased wind speed transports heat and moisture...
over northern Europe, also increasing the number and intensity of storms (see review in work by Hurrell et al. [2003]). These conditions are likely to strongly modify the typical ENACW signature and at the same time enhance the formation of Mode Waters on the Celtic-Armorican shelf.

[40] The variability of Central Waters in the bay has been approached almost exclusively in terms of isopycnal mixing in recent literature [van Aken, 2001; Huthnance et al., 2002]. However, the winter climate anomalies at the subduction area of the ENACW seem not to fully explain the variation observed at these latitudes [González-Pola et al., 2005].

[41] The signature of the BBCW can also be found further east, around Cap Ferret [Valencia et al., 2004]. It is possible that this water body expands or contributes to the ENACW to a greater extent during some years. Further studies on a greater spatial scale will be required to adequately describe the mechanism through which Central Waters respond to the NAO forcing and the role of the BBCW. From our fixed approach we cannot properly conclude on advection but it may be more important than previously assumed.

[42] To our knowledge, this is the first time that the Iberian Poleward Current (IPC) is investigated through a time series of T-S diagrams. Our results show that the particular thermohaline background does not affect its arrival in the region. January records of SSTs have been commonly used to characterize its year-to-year intensity as it is supposed to be fully developed on that month [García-Soto et al., 2002; Álvarez-Salgado et al., 2003]. However, the IPC flow usually lasts for several months (November–February) and January does not always correspond to the maximum strength every winter. Our results showed that layers above its core are always more or less affected by desalinization and cooling. Therefore infrared satellite images (AVHRR) should not be considered a good proxy for measuring its intensity since other mechanisms than the IPC can lead to SST variations.

[43] The strong IPC years described in this work matched with those detected in the region by García-Soto et al. [2002] through AVHRR. However, in the winter of 2002–2003 a positive SST anomaly was related to a strong IPC incursion in the bay [García-Soto, 2004] which is not supported by our data. Moreover, this winter, together with 2001, proved to be the least saline winter of the series. As a possible explanation for this discrepancy we point at spatial-temporal asynchronies in the winter deep mixing between water masses on the continental shelf/slope and the deeper open waters. Thus the deeper mixing offshore could possibly lead to a stronger cooling of the whole water column unlike shallow waters (less prone to such an intense heat loss) causing this thermal structure.

[44] The IPC also showed great vertical variability. Interestingly, a marked double-core structure was seen in January 1992b, 2001, proved to be the least saline winter of the series. As a possible explanation for this discrepancy we point at spatial-temporal asynchronies in the winter deep mixing between water masses on the continental shelf/slope and the deeper open waters. Thus the deeper mixing offshore could possibly lead to a stronger cooling of the whole water column unlike shallow waters (less prone to such an intense heat loss) causing this thermal structure.

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[46] The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [1996] estimated an average warming of approximately 0.6°C at Earth’s surface during the past 100 years. Under this global warming scenario, Levitus et al. [2000] reported a net warming in the Atlantic since mid-1950s, in particular after the mid-1970s when it entered a warm state. Regional analyses of temperature time series in the Bay of Biscay revealed increasing trends since the 1970s [Valencia, 1993; Pingree, 1994; Soltechnik et al., 1998; Lavin et al., 1998; Cabanas et al., 2003; Woehrling et al., 2005] although the different statistical techniques employed renders intercomparison of slopes difficult.

[47] Koutsikopoulos et al. [1998] defined the sea surface temperature (SST) long-term and periodic components for the Bay of Biscay using a grid of data based on vessels and buoys measurements from 1972 to 1993. By using the empirical model coefficients for the area concerned we have recreated the series from 1993–2003 in order to compare both trends. The model predicted an interestingly similar positive trend (0.050°C yr−1) to that detected at the oceanic station (0.055°C yr−1).

[48] Recently, Planque et al. [2003] showed a positive trend of 0.6°C per decade in SST (from Météo-France) in the inner part of southern Bay of Biscay where the warming is known to be slightly higher. The much longer time span provided by COADS records reveals the existence of oscillations in the evolution of SSTs from 1844 to 2000 [Planque et al., 2003]. Southward and Bojach [1994] suggested the existence of natural oscillations superimposed on the anthropogenic warming. Therefore the trends reported here must be considered for the period of study and are prone to change in the future. Our results confirm that the previously detected warming in the area is developing at nearly the same rate since 1972 and report its penetration down to 20 m depth.
A decreasing density trend was detected as deep as 30 m following the coastal-oceanic gradient in a similar fashion to temperature. As density also accounts for salinity, this decreasing trend is consequence of the combined effect of the warming and freshening, both of which enhance stratification. Consequently, this could be an indication of an increasing stratification either in intensity or duration. A growing stratification will probably cause an enhancement of the oligotrophic conditions in summer, leading to a reduction in the global primary production. Moreover, it may also affect the structure of whole plankton community favoring the microbial food web at the expense of the classical food web [Legendre and Rassoulzadegan, 1995]. Eventually, upper trophic levels will be affected by any change in the upward channeling of the marine production [Beaugrand et al., 2003].

Under such an increasing temperature and stratification scenario, any change in upwelling intensity or its seasonal window could have a key effect on the regional ecology. At present, together with the more important continental influence toward the inner part of the Bay, upwellings are responsible for an E-W temperature gradient along the Cantabrian coast [Koutsikopoulos et al., 1998] which translates into an ecological gradient inshore communities [Fischer-Piette, 1957; van den Hoek, 1975; Anadón and Niell, 1981; Alcock, 2003]. From an overall perspective, upwelling/downwelling intensity has remained constant during the last 30 years. This upwelling system is characterized by many short-lived events concentrated around a favorable season rather than a nearly constant upwelling season. However, this structure is not at a standstill and seemed to have changed over decades resulting in overall advancement of the onset of the upwelling-favorable season.

A change of this nature may have important implications. Thus an upwelling event occurring in March, when the water column is completely mixed, can be of minor importance to the biological system, while an upwelling in August, under strong stratification and nutrient depletion, should trigger off a phytoplankton bloom. In addition, a change in the upwelling seasonal window would also have an effect on the inshore retention (or dispersal) of some fish larvae (sardine, mackerel, anchovy, etc.) and other coastal organisms.

Bakun [1990] postulated an intensification of the alongshore wind stress in the main upwelling systems of the world, including the western coast of the Iberian Peninsula, as consequence of global climate change. Specifically, he showed a positive trend in the 6-month (April–September) averages of monthly estimates of wind stress (1948–1979) off Galicia and Portugal. Such an increase might counteract the warming. However, decreasing trends of the upwelling season have more recently been reported off Galicia for the period 1970–2000 [Lavin et al., 2000; Cabanas et al., 2003]. Our results support the latter showing a decreasing trend in upwelling intensity since 1968. Hence upwelling intensity may have shifted from the previously increasing phase to a decreasing phase in the last 30 years.

Supposing this decrease to continue, the spatial gradient detected in the amount of noise of temperature series might get reduced. This will most likely lead to a temperature increase in the upper layers and the intensification of the oligotrophic conditions in summer. In particular, the seasonal structure at middle station will approach that displayed at the most oceanic station (St. 3) with the subsequent ecological implications. Both a decreasing upwelling intensity or a change in its seasonal structure would also modify the distribution of some seaweeds as it has been documented [Arrontes, 1993] and predicted from GCM by Alcock [2003].

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