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3 4	Technical note: Large offsets between different datasets of seawater isotopic composition:
5	an illustration of the need to reinforce intercalibration efforts
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8	Gilles Reverdin ¹ , Claire Waelbroeck ¹ , Antje H. L. Voelker ^{2, 3} , Hanno Meyer ⁴
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12 13	¹ Laboratoire LOCEAN/IPSL, Sorbonne Université-CNRS-IRD-MNHN, Paris, 75005, France
14	² Instituto Português do Mar e da Atmosfera (IPMA), Algés, Portugal
15	³ Center of Marine Sciences (CCMAR), Universidade do Algarve, Faro, Portugal
16	⁴ Alfred Wegener Institute Potsdam, 14473 Potsdam, Germany
17	
18 19	Corresponding author: Gilles Reverdin gilles.reverdin@locean.ipsl.fr

20 Abstract

21 We illustrate offsets in surface seawater isotopic composition between recent, public 22 datasets from the Atlantic Ocean and the subtropical southeastern Indian Ocean. The 23 observed offsets between datasets often exceed 0.10‰ in δ^{18} O and 0.50‰ in δ^{2} H. They might in part originate from different sampling of seasonal, interannual or spatial 24 25 variability. However, they likely mostly originate from different instrumentations and 26 protocols used to measure the water samples. Estimation of the systematic offsets is 27 required before merging the different datasets in order to investigate spatio-temporal 28 variability of isotopic composition in the world ocean surface waters. This highlights the 29 need to actively share seawater isotopic composition samples dedicated to specific intercomparison of data produced in the different laboratories and to promote best 30 practices, a task to be addressed by the new SCOR working group 171. 31

34 1. Introduction

35 Seawater isotopic composition ($^{18}O/^{16}O$ and $^{2}H/^{1}H$ ratios expressed as $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{2}H$ in % in the VSMOW/SLAP scale) is classified as an Essential Ocean/Climate Variable 36 37 (EOV/ECV) in international programs such as GEOTRACES and GO-SHIP. Stable seawater isotopes (δ^{18} O, δ^{2} H) are used to trace sources of freshwater (precipitation, 38 39 evaporation, runoff, melting glaciers, sea ice formation and melting), both at the ocean 40 surface and in the ocean interior (Schmidt et al., 2007; Hilaire-Marcel et al., 2021). Except for fractionation during phase changes, the water isotopic composition is nearly 41 42 conservative in the ocean.

A major emphasis is on high latitude oceanography. There, continental (or iceberg)

glacial melt, formation or melt of sea ice, and high-latitude river inputs (for the Arctic) 44 45 leave imprints on the surface ocean isotopic composition, as well as below the surface 46 down to 800 m close to ice shelves in the Southern Ocean (Randall-Goodwin et al., 2015; 47 Biddle et al., 2019, Hennig et al., 2024). In contrast, few studies have been performed on 48 the isotopic signature in the deep ocean (e.g., Prasanna et al., 2015; Voelker et al., 2015). 49 Seawater isotopes in the upper ocean at low latitudes are often vital for paleoclimatic 50 studies, as they are needed to calibrate proxies of past ocean variability in marine 51 carbonate records such as corals and foraminifera (e.g., PAGES CoralHydro2k working 52 group; Konecky et al., 2020). Seawater isotopes are also important tracers in the coastal 53 ocean, with emphasis on upwelling (Conroy et al., 2014, 2017; Kubota et al., 2022; Lao et 54 al., 2022), and river discharges (e.g., Amazon) (Karr and Showers, 2001). Surface ocean 55 seawater isotopes are also used to characterize evaporation rates and air-sea 56 interactions (Benetti et al., 2017).

57 The isotopic signatures of these different processes are evolving in our warming world,

58 which will imprint on the seawater isotopic composition (Oppo et al., 2007).

59 Additionally, seawater isotope data provide model boundary conditions and allow the

assessment of model performance in isotope-enabled Earth system models (e.g. Schmidt

et al., 2007; Brady et al., 2019; Cauquoin et al., 2019), thereby improving climate model

62 projections of the future.

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63 Stable seawater isotope data have thus been massively produced in the last decades by a variety of methods. For example, most data compiled in the "GISS Global Seawater 64 65 Oxygen-18 Database -V1.21" for stable seawater isotopes (LeGrande and Schmidt, 2006) originate from Isotope-ratio Mass Spectrometry (IRMS). They were mostly measured in 66 67 earlier decades by dual-inlet technology (highest precision), whereas, more recently, the 68 continuous-flow method (lower precision) became widespread for seawater isotope 69 analysis. In the last decade, cavity ring-down spectroscopy (CRDS) turned into another 70 commonly used method as it allows parallel measurement of δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H, but with 71 often lower precision, at least early on (e.g., Voelker et al., 2015).

Reverdin et al. (2022) recently compiled a mix of data produced by IRMS and CRDS at

73 LOCEAN (<u>https://www.seanoe.org/data/00600/71186/</u>). As CRDS and other laser

techniques (Glaubke et al., 2024; hereafter GWS2024) have become more prevalent

recently, they contribute a significant part of the new data produced and thus also to the

soon to be released CoralHydro2k seawater database for δ^{18} O (δ^{2} H) with a focus on the

77 tropics (35°N-35°S) (Atwood et al., 2024).

78 There are potential differences between the data produced by the two methods. 79 Typically, CO₂-water or H₂-water equilibration was used for the IRMS measurements and yields measurements of the activity of water, which decreases with increasing 80 81 salinity. Furthermore, concentration of divalent cations like Mg⁺⁺ are responsible 82 for slight changes in fractionation factors. On the other hand, the laser methods such as 83 CRDS evaporate the entire sample. If the samples have not been distilled beforehand, 84 there is an issue of salt deposition and of resulting absorption or desorption of water 85 with fractionation effects. In the LOCEAN database (Reverdin et al., 2022), an attempt 86 was made to adjust the data, based on the analysis of Benetti et al (2017b). This was also 87 adopted by at least one other group (Haumann et al., 2022), but overall, there is the possibility of an offset of these data with respect to the ones of other groups using CRDS. 88 89 However, it should be noted that some studies reporting unadjusted δ^{18} O measurements 90 from CRDS and IRMS technique with CO₂-water equilibration provide data that were 91 undistinguishable within instrumental precision (Walker et al., 2016; Hennig et al., 92 2024).

93 It is actually quite common when using water isotope data in studies involving more 94 than one dataset, to first evaluate whether there are possible offsets. Intercomparison 95 with earlier data or reference materials was a prerequisite for GEOTRACES sampling campaigns, although for the water isotopes this was, unfortunately, seldomly followed 96 97 (e.g., Voelker et al., 2015). These intercomparisons often outline systematic differences 98 which could result from the issue outlined above, or from other issues, such as 99 uncertainties in reference materials used, analysis protocols, or isotopic changes in the 100 samples during their handling and storage (Benetti et al., 2017a; Akhoudas et al., 2019; 101 Hennig et al., 2024). In other cases, this was not done, either because the data stood by 102 themselves (Bonne et al., 2019, for δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H data), or there was no comparison data 103 available in the same region (GWS2024, for δ^{18} O data). The possible offsets can however 104 become an issue, when these data are placed in a larger context. For example, GWS2024 105 identify a large difference in the S- δ^{18} O relationship in the subtropical Indian Ocean 106 between their data in the southeastern part and other data in the southwestern Indian 107 Ocean. They also discuss and question differences in the deep water-masses isotopic 108 values between separate datasets, but as these might also be explained by large 109 uncertainties in these data, we will not address them further.

Using these two examples (Bonne et al., 2019; GWS 2024), the aim of this note is to point
out the interest when producing a new dataset, of exchanging collected samples to carry
a direct comparison, or, if this was not done, to compare the data with other published
data and evaluate potential systematic differences.

114 2. Comparisons

115 For identifying possible offsets, we consider surface ocean subsets of the LOCEAN data 116 base in specific regions for roughly the same years as the other data collected. The data 117 extracted are from the same regions as in the datasets of the two studies and are 118 gathered in S- δ^{18} O space as well as in S- δ^{2} H space (only presented for the Bonne et al 119 (2019) dataset), where S is reported as a practical salinity with the practical salinity 120 scale of 1978. The assumption done here as in many papers is that the S- δ^{18} O relationship holds on fairly large scales in the surface layer (for the eastern subtropical 121 North Atlantic, see for example, the discussion in Voelker et al (2015) and in Benetti et 122 123 al. (2017a)). Obviously, this has limitations, such as in areas influenced by more than

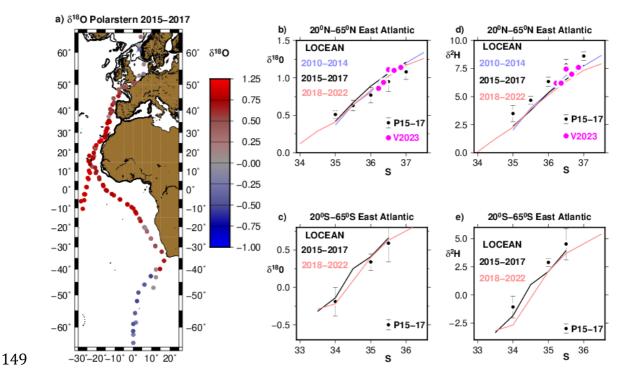
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one water mass or by multiple freshwater end-members (meteoric, continental run-off,sea ice melt or formation, evaporation).

126 2.1 Daily surface data collected from R.V. Polarstern

127 The surface seawater samples originated from daily collection during two years on 128 board RV Polarstern in 2015-2017 (Bonne et al., 2019). There is no salinity provided with the data, and here we chose to associate them with the simultaneously collected 129 130 thermosalinograph (TSG) data collected on board the RV Polarstern and available from 131 PANGAEA (for each cruise, an indexed file with title starting by 'Continuous 132 thermosalinograh oceanography along Polarstern' is included in PANGAEA: for example, 133 TSG data for the first cruise (PS90) associated with the isotopic seawater data are found at <u>https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.858885</u>). The water samples were not collected 134 135 from the same water line and pumping depth as the TSG data, which can result in 136 differences. This is however likely to be small in most circumstances away from large 137 freshwater input at the sea surface, such as from melting sea ice, intense rainfall and 138 river estuaries (Boutin et al., 2016). We also applied an adjustment of +0.25‰ to the 139 δ^{18} O data of Bonne et al. (2019), based on post-analysis identification of a bias in an 140 internal reference material.

141 We then estimate averages of all the data as a function of salinity in two domains 142 extending poleward of the subtropical salinity maximum toward the higher latitudes in 143 the eastern part of the Atlantic Ocean (thus, 20°N to 65°N and the same in the southern 144 hemisphere). This is done by sorting out the data by salinity classes of 0.5. The LOCEAN 145 data until 2016 in the North and tropical Atlantic were presented by Benetti et al (2017a), showing the tightness of the S- δ^{18} O and S- δ^{2} H relationships in vast domains of 146 147 the eastern Atlantic. In the North Atlantic, LOCEAN data have been continuously 148 collected since 2011, and south of 10°S in the eastern Atlantic mostly since 2017.



150 Figure 1: Comparison of the LOCEAN and Bonne et al. (2019) datasets. (a) map of RV 151 Polarstern dataset points east of 30°W in the eastern Atlantic Ocean. (b), (c), (d), (e) 152 Water isotopes-S scatter diagrams averaged as a function of salinity in 0.5 practical 153 salinity bins ((b) and (c) for δ^{18} O; (d) and (e) for δ^{2} H), top for the northern hemisphere 154 and bottom for the southern hemisphere, east of 30°W and outside of [20°N, 20°S]. The 155 black dots are the binned averages of the Bonne et al. (2019) RV Polarstern data in 156 2015-2017 (after adjustment of +0.25‰ to δ^{18} O) (P15-17), with the root mean square 157 of the variance reported as error bars. Five individual surface points from Voelker et al 158 (2023) (V2023) are also plotted (magenta dots). The colored lines represent average 159 relationships of water isotopes in the LOCEAN data base in the same regions as a 160 function of practical salinity for three different period ranges.

161 The average relationships found in the LOCEAN dataset for three periods overlay well in 162 particular in the northern hemisphere. Uncertainties on individual curves (not shown) 163 are estimated based on the scatter of individual data in each salinity bin. They are 164 typically on the order of 0.01-0.02 (0.05-0.10) % for δ^{18} O (δ^{2} H) respectively in the northern hemisphere (top panel), and a little larger for the less sampled southern 165 166 hemisphere curves in 2015-2017. Sampling is usually also insufficient at the low end of 167 the salinity range, to reliably estimate an uncertainty. Thus, these different curves nearly overlay within the sampling uncertainty. Five surface samples that were collected in the 168

Northeast Atlantic during the same years within the same salinity range (Voelker et al., 169 170 2023), also fit well on the North Atlantic curves. The adjusted δ^{18} O data from Bonne et 171 al. (2019) are slightly shifted downward with respect to the curves (Fig. 1b, c), with the 172 plotted standard deviation of individual data around the average not overlapping the 173 LOCEAN data average curves in most cases for the same years 2015-2017. The situation 174 is opposite for the 35-salinity bin in the northern hemisphere, with the adjusted δ^{18} O 175 data from Bonne et al. (2019) being above the three LOCEAN average curves, which 176 might be due to samples collected uniquely in the English Channel and North Sea by RV 177 Polarstern in this salinity range, whereas sampling is more geographically-spread in the 178 LOCEAN data base.

179 Altogether, the average δ^{18} O offset is small, with the LOCEAN data being higher by 0.02 ± 180 0.01 ‰ than the δ^{18} O from Bonne et al. (2019), which is not significantly different from 181 0 based on the interannual differences witnessed in the LOCEAN curves and the 182 scatter/uncertainty in the RV Polarstern data. A systematic difference is, however, found 183 for δ^{2} H, with LOCEAN data been lower than δ^{2} H from Bonne et al. (2019) by 0.99 ± 184 0.07‰ (Fig. 1d, e).

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186 2.2 Southern subtropical Indian Ocean

187 GWS2024 describe a synthesis of water isotope data in the southern Indian Ocean 188 combining their data collected in 2018 in the southeastern Indian Ocean (CROCCA-2S) 189 with earlier data in the southwestern Indian Ocean, in particular from LOCEAN, as well 190 as data from the southern Australian shelf collected mostly in 2010 (Richardson et al., 191 2019), and in the equatorial Indian Ocean (Kim et al., 2021). In the most recent version 192 of the LOCEAN dataset, in addition to data included by GWS2024 and collected mostly 193 west of 80°E, there are two transects with surface data through the southeastern Indian 194 Ocean, one collected in February 2017, and the other in March 2024, thus in mid to late 195 austral summer. These transects cross the region covered by the CROCCA-2S dataset, 196 albeit not close to western Australia, as well as the area of the Richardson et al. (2019) 197 dataset, south of Australia. The LOCEAN dataset also contains surface data south of 198 Tasmania (in 2017, as well as in 2020 to 2024). All these data correspond to samples

analyzed on a CRDS Picarro L2130 at LOCEAN, and with the protocols discussed by
Reverdin et al. (2022). The bottles in which the samples were stored were the same ones
for most of the samples, and time between collection and analysis varied, but was mostly
on the order of 6 months or less. Thus, this is a homogeneously produced set of data for
the years 2016-2024, which spatially and temporally overlaps with the data used by
GWS2024 collected south of Australia and in the southeastern Indian Ocean (Fig. 2).

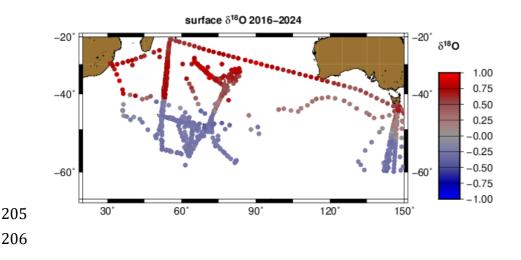


Figure 2: Map of δ^{18} O surface data in the LOCEAN archive for 2016-2024, north of 60°S. All data are associated with S and δ^{2} H measurements.

209 The LOCEAN data distribution plotted in the S δ^{18} O space presents a wide δ^{18} O range at a 210 given salinity in the southwestern Indian Ocean (Fig. 3a) for S between 35 and 36. For 211 this range which covers a large part of the surface water of the southwestern Indian 212 Ocean's subtropical gyre, we establish a regression line for the LOCEAN δ^{18} O as a 213 function of S, which can be seen as a mixing line. Above this line, there are no data points 214 for lower S (Fig. 3a), with data at higher S found north of 28°S as well as in the far 215 southwestern Indian Ocean, but with some remnants found all the way to the core of the 216 subtropical gyre near 75°E/35°S (Fig. 3b). Data below the regression line contain most 217 of the data east of 60°E for latitudes south of 28°S and connect the salinity maximum 218 region with the lower salinity south of the Subtropical Front and down to the region 219 south of the Polar Front (Fig. 3c). These subtropical lower isotopic values in S- δ^{18} O 220 space, which already appear in part of the repeated (1998-2024) French OISO cruises 221 data at 50°E, dominate east of 60°E.

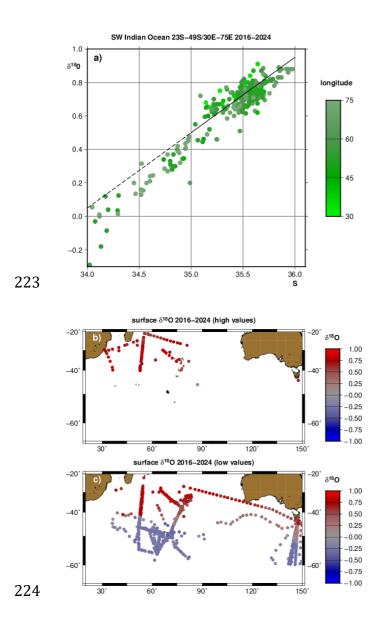
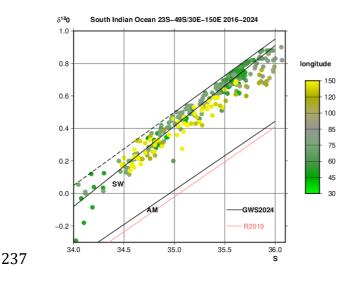


Figure 3: (a) S- δ^{18} O scatter diagram of 0-30m LOCEAN data within the southwestern region (30-75°E/23-49°S) coloured as a function of longitude, with the regression line (black line) of the data in S- δ^{18} O space for the 35-36 range in practical salinity. The spatial distributions of the LOCEAN data with higher and lower δ^{18} O relative to that regression line in the whole Indian Ocean north of 60°S are shown on panels (b) and (c), respectively.

- 231 We will now focus on the lower part of the distribution in S- δ^{18} O space (Fig. 3c), which
- overlaps with the location of the data from CROCCA-2S and the near-Australia data from
- 233 GWS2024 (the higher values in Fig. 3c do not). For salinities above 35 one observes a

- lowering of δ^{18} O at given salinity from 50°E in the western Indian Ocean to at least
- 235 100°E (Fig. 4) with more stable values further east. This lowering is on the order of 0.15
- at most, even for the higher salinities (35.5 or more) for which it is strongest.



238 Figure 4: S- δ^{18} O scatter plot of 0-30m LOCEAN Indian Ocean data as shown in Fig. 3c, 239 color-coded as a function of longitude, below the partially stippled regression line for 240 the SW Indian Ocean (reproduced from Fig. 3a). The two black lines correspond to the 241 two linear relationships (GWS2024) for the 0-100m layer between 23°S and 49°S for the 242 south-west Indian Ocean (SW) and for the Australian margin south of Australia (AM) (we use the original relation of δ^{18} O = 0.4231 * S - 14.7876, instead of the rounded-up 243 relation reported in the paper; R. H. Glaubke, pers. comm., 2024), and the pink line is the 244 earlier linear relationship for the 0-600m layer along the Australian margin by 245 246 Richardson et al. (2019) (R2019).

247 Thus, besides some gradual and smaller changes, we do not observe in the LOCEAN 248 surface dataset a large sudden change in the S- δ^{18} O distribution near 75°E or 85°E 249 between the southeastern and southwestern Indian Ocean, nor a further strong change 250 closer to the Australian coastal margin, as suggested by figures 6 and 7 of GWS2024. 251 Most of the LOCEAN S- δ^{18} O data south of 28°S correspond to the mixing of a low salinity 252 end-member characteristic of the fresh waters of the Southern Ocean (at S < 34) with 253 waters which are imprinted by air-sea exchange in the subtropical gyre at higher 254 salinities up to 36 and more, as discussed by GWS2024. These LOCEAN (S, δ^{18} O) values 255 are significantly above the linear relationships proposed by GWS2024 (based on their 256 figures 5a, 6 and 7). This positive offset at given S seems to be about 0.05-0.10 ‰ in the

southwestern Indian Ocean, but close to 0.50 % for the Australian coastal margins, 257 258 although we could not access the individual data of R2019 for that latter region. These 259 offsets are much larger than the spread in the LOCEAN data, which is on the order of 260 0.10 %. Furthermore, the LOCEAN data support the presence of a secondary low 261 salinity end member at S < 35 with heavier isotopic composition, contributing to the 262 water-mass properties in the far southwestern Indian Ocean as well as for the area 263 sampled between 20°S and 28°S north of the subtropical salinity maximum. This could 264 be a contribution of the Indonesian Through Flow and tropical western Indian Ocean 265 surface waters, as discussed by Kim et al. (2021) and GWS2024. We could not carry out 266 a comparable comparison for δ^2 H which is not presented by GWS2024, and which 267 exhibits a too large spread in the CROCCA-2S dataset to reach a firm conclusion.

268 3. Discussion

269 In the two intercomparisons of surface data presented in this note, we find significant

270 differences between datasets. Do these differences originate from spatio-temporal

271 variability or from systematic offsets between the different datasets?

272 In the case of the RV Polarstern dataset (Bonne et al., 2019), an error in a specified 273 reference material value was found after the publication, and the adjusted data present 274 only a small, non-significant δ^{18} O negative offset, but a significant positive δ^2 H offset 275 with respect to LOCEAN data. Differences might arise from spatial differences. For 276 example, in the northern hemisphere, values at salinity close to 35 mostly originate from 277 the North Sea and English Channel in the RV Polarstern dataset, thus with more mid-278 latitude continental influence than for most of the LOCEAN data in the same salinity 279 range which have a contribution of more depleted subpolar and polar freshwater. One 280 expects a larger isotopic range in the South Atlantic for salinities less than 35, due to 281 intermittent presence of sea ice or iceberg melt, and at higher salinities due to the 282 presence of different water masses originating from the South Atlantic and southeastern 283 Indian Ocean. However, the current dataset is not sufficient to estimate it.

Furthermore, different seasons were sampled in the two datasets. In the northeastern
Atlantic sector, Bonne et al. (2019) surface data east of 30°W were collected in April and
November north of 10°S and in November south of 10°S in the southeastern Atlantic.

These data do not suggest large seasonal differences in the Northeast Atlantic, concurring with the LOCEAN S- δ^{18} O data in the tropics to mid-latitudes (20 to 50°N), which are tightly distributed along a mean S- δ^{18} O relationship, and thus with low seasonal variability of this relationship (Benetti et al., 2017a; Voelker et al., 2015). The LOCEAN data are not numerous enough in the southeastern Atlantic to further evaluate whether the offset is constant throughout the dataset, or presents a component related to geographical temporal or spatial variability.

294 To investigate the South Indian Ocean seawater isotopic composition, GWS2024

295 combined datasets that were processed in different laboratories. Potential offsets

between those could thus cause apparent spatial variability. In particular, GWS2024

297 outline large spatial contrasts in the S- δ^{18} O relationship across the surface subtropical

Indian Ocean and southern Australia that are at least a factor two smaller in the recentversion of the LOCEAN dataset.

300 Seasonal or interannual variability might contribute to the differences shown on Fig. 3, 301 as the data in the southeastern Indian Ocean from GWS2024 were collected in 302 November-December, whereas the data in the LOCEAN database in this region are 303 mostly from February-March. However, at least south of Tasmania, where the LOCEAN 304 dataset also contains December data, it does not seem that the seasonal cycle causes 305 changes larger than 0.05 % at the same salinity. A difference due to seasonality would 306 thus be barely identifiable in that case, noting the possible presence of interannual 307 variability and that the long-term accuracy in the analyses in some centers, such as AWI 308 Potsdam and LOCEAN, is 0.05 ‰. Richardson et al. (2019) also commented that south of 309 Australia there was little difference between a southern winter cruise and late summer 310 (March) data. Further west, near 55-70°E, earlier surface data in the OISO surveys, as 311 well as the vertical upper profiles of OISO station data also suggest a rather modest seasonal variability on the order of 0.10 ‰. Changes could also arise from interannual 312 313 variability, but the range of interannual variability in the LOCEAN data base is smaller 314 than the difference between the GWS2024 curves for the southeastern Indian Ocean and 315 south of Australia and the corresponding LOCEAN data. Thus, a likely cause of the large 316 differences between the South Indian Ocean/Australia margin data combined in the 317 GWS2024 study is the existence of systematic offsets between the data produced by different institutes. 318

319 4. Conclusions

320 What these two comparisons suggest is that offsets are present between different recent 321 published datasets, which exceed 0.10 % in δ^{18} O and 0.50 % in δ^{2} H, thus larger than 322 the target long-term accuracy of analyses in individual isotopic laboratories. Moreover, 323 errors in reference material values are always possible and require post-analysis 324 intercomparisons, such as the one that led to the correction of the RV Polarstern dataset 325 (Bonne et al., 2019). Furthermore, one contribution to a systematic difference between 326 the LOCEAN dataset and data from other institutes is that the LOCEAN data are reported 327 in 'freshwater' concentration scale (Benetti et al., 2017b). The use of this concentration 328 scale corrects possible effects of salt in the water activity measured by IRMS with CO₂-329 equilibration and the effect of salt accumulation during evaporation in laser 330 spectroscopy, which both can lead to fractionation, possibly of similar magnitude 331 (Walker et al., 2016). Different comparisons based on duplicates collected during cruises 332 suggest that this is a main cause of difference between LOCEAN data and other datasets 333 (LOCEAN δ^{18} O data being more positive). Poor conservation of the samples during 334 storage, analytical protocols, or uncertainties in the specified values of reference 335 material are other sources of differences between data produced in different institutes.

Different methods have been used for intercomparing and detecting systematic offsets
between different datasets. One common approach is to compare values obtained in
specific water masses, for which we expect little variability of the water isotopic
composition. This is often attempted, but data density is often limited, and the resulting
uncertainties are difficult to assess. Datasets with intermediate and deep data in the
Southern Ocean might be valuable to systematically test this approach, and model-based
reconstructions of isotopic composition of sea water could also be incorporated.

An alternative, in particular for the surface data, is to develop approaches based on the systematic comparison of nearby data in space and time. In some ways, the assumption behind this and what was done in the mapping by LeGrande and Schmidt (2006), that is that the bulk of the variability is from large scale relationships of water isotopes and salinity. This is also what has been done by crossover analyses in major geochemical databases, such as GLODAP, with an attempt to adjust offsets for δ^{13} C-DIC with a similar low-density data distribution in the North Atlantic (Becker et al., 2016). The comparison

351 presented here (Fig. 1) of the S-water isotopes surface distribution in the North and 352 South Atlantic of the LOCEAN and the RV Polarstern (Bonne et al., 2019) datasets 353 suggests that this can be used to estimate offsets. Required improvements, in particular 354 for estimating uncertainties would be to take into account estimates of seasonal, 355 interannual and spatial variability in these relationships. However, this requires that 356 there are enough overlapping data within regions of relatively homogeneous water 357 masses, or some independent estimates on these signals, for example from model 358 simulations.

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As the spatial and temporal data density is often reduced, we expect that the
uncertainties in estimated offsets will be large. This could reduce the usefulness of the
isotopic data for different oceanographic and climate studies, with large uncertainties in
estimated S-δ¹⁸O (or S-δ²H) relationships to validate proxies used for paleo-climate
reconstructions, or for identifying emerging climate-change related signals.

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366 Scientific Committee of Oceanic Research (SCOR) working group 171 MASIS (Towards 367 best practices for Measuring and Archiving Stable Isotopes in Seawater) has recently 368 been established to contribute tackling these issues, both for water isotopes and the 369 isotopic composition of inorganic carbon in sea water, δ^{13} C-DIC. For that, it aims to 370 actively involve the international community in establishing guidelines for data 371 production (collection, storage, measurement) and quality control, as well as for validating the data and comparing well-documented archived data originating from 372 373 different laboratories. It will review the methods to estimate errors and offsets between 374 the different datasets. An important step for this effort is to directly intercompare 375 measurements by the different laboratories of shared well-preserved water samples 376 distributed quickly, as had earlier been done for δ^{13} C-DIC (Cheng et al., 2019). This, 377 together with enhancing interaction within the scientific community needs to be actively 378 pursued, in order to reduce the errors when merging different datasets and increase the 379 potential use of the water isotope data.

380

381 Data availability

382 The LOCEAN data are available at <u>https://www.seanoe.org/data/00600/71186/.</u>

383	The isotopic data of the Bonne et al. (2019) are available as indicated in the paper, with
384	here S added from the PANGAEA archive, as described in the text. The GWS2024 data
385	are available as described in the paper. However, among the data used in this paper, we
386	could not access the data from the Richardson et al. (2019) paper.
387	
388	Author contribution: GR initiated the study and prepared the manuscript with
389	contributions from all coauthors. AV initiated the intercomparison effort, and AV, CW,
390	and HM contributed to editing the paper. HM was also responsible from producing the
391	data in the Bonne et al. (2019) paper.
392	
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394	
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