

4 **Modeling $p\text{CO}_2$ Variability in the Gulf of Mexico**
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Abstract

A three-dimensional coupled physical-biogeochemical model was used to simulate and quantify temporal and spatial variability of sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ in the Gulf of Mexico (GoM). The model was driven by realistic atmospheric forcing, open boundary conditions from a data-assimilative global ocean circulation model, and observed freshwater and terrestrial nutrient and carbon input from major rivers. A seven-year model hindcast (2004–2010) was performed and validated against ship measurements. Model results revealed clear seasonality in surface $p\text{CO}_2$ and were used to compute carbon budgets in the Gulf. On average, the GoM was found to be a CO_2 sink with a flux of $1.11 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol C yr}^{-1}$, which, together with the enormous fluvial carbon input, was balanced by the carbon export through the Loop Current. Two sensitivity model experiments were performed: one without biological sources and sinks and the other using river input from the 1904–1910 period as simulated by the Dynamic Terrestrial Ecosystem Model (DLEM). It was found that biological uptake was the primary driver making GoM an overall CO_2 sink and that the sub-regional carbon budget was susceptible to changes in river forcing. When the 1904–1910 river conditions were applied, the northern GoM became a CO_2 source instead.

1. Introduction

Human consumption of fossil fuels has resulted in continuously increasing levels of atmospheric CO₂ since the Industrial Revolution began around 1750. If the increasing trend continues, the projected $p\text{CO}_2$ by the end of the 21st century (970 ppm, in A1F1 scenario, [Stocker et al., 2014](#)) could be nearly triple the present level. In face of different climate scenarios, a better understanding of the oceans' role in regulating the global carbon cycle is crucial, because oceans not only act as receivers of the enormous carbon loading from coastal rivers ([Cai et al., 2011a](#); [Bauer et al. 2013](#)), but also as vast carbon reservoirs via the “carbon pump” mechanism ([Sabine et al., 2004](#); [Sabine and Tanhua, 2010](#)). On regional scales, the marine carbon cycle tends to be more complicated and shows contrasting behaviors in different areas (coastal vs. open ocean, low latitude vs. high latitude, etc.) and during different seasons (e.g., [Lohrenz et al., 2010](#) for the northern Gulf of Mexico; [Jiang et al., 2008](#) for the South Atlantic Bight; [Signorini et al., 2013](#) for the North American east coast; [Tsunogai et al., 1999](#) for the East China Sea). Quantifying the ocean carbon budget is therefore a difficult task. Coupled physical and biological models are useful tools for understanding complex biogeochemical processes and estimating carbon and nutrient fluxes in coastal oceans where spatial and temporal heterogeneities are high and data are sparse (e.g. [Fennel and Wilkin, 2009](#); [Fennel 2010](#); [Fennel et al., 2011](#); and [He et al., 2011](#)).

Our study focuses on the carbon cycle in the Gulf of Mexico (GoM). One unique feature of the gulf environment is that it receives enormous riverine nutrient and carbon inputs, the majority of which are from the Mississippi-Atchafalaya River system. Excessive nutrient and carbon loading causes coastal eutrophication, which triggers not

only the well-known hypoxia phenomenon (a.k.a. the “Dead Zone”, [Rabalais et al., 2002](#)), but also a newly revealed coastal ocean acidification problem ([Cai et al., 2011b](#)). However, the carbon budget associated with such enormous terrestrial carbon and nutrient inputs remains unclear: on the one hand extensive riverine carbon input results in CO₂ over-saturation in coastal waters, which serve as a CO₂ source to the atmosphere (e.g. [Lohrenz et al., 2010](#); [Guo et al., 2012](#)); on the other hand, although the Mississippi River Plume region is an overall heterotrophic system that breaks down organic carbon ([Murrell et al., 2013](#)), enhanced primary production in the river plume due to significant inputs of inorganic nutrients induce a net influx of CO₂. Further offshore, the circulation in the GoM is largely influenced by the energetic Loop Current. Large anticyclonic eddies aperiodically pinch off from the Loop Current ([Sturges and Leben, 2000](#)), which, along with the wind-driven cross-shelf circulation and other meso-scale and sub-mesoscale processes, enhance material exchanges between the eutrophic coastal waters and oligotrophic deep-ocean waters (e.g., [Toner et al., 2003](#)). Indeed, a recent observational study suggested a significant dissolved inorganic carbon export (DIC, $\sim 3.30 \times 10^{12}$ mol C yr⁻¹) from the GoM shelves to the Loop Current waters ([Wang et al., 2013](#)).

While global inorganic carbon budgets have been made available through joint seawater CO₂ observations (e.g. World Ocean Circulation Experiment and Joint Global Ocean Flux study, [Sabine et al., 2004](#); [Feely et al., 2004](#); [Orr et al., 2005](#)), they are too coarse to represent CO₂ variability in the GoM ([Gledhill et al., 2008](#)). Other recent efforts were able to provide GoM sub-regional carbon assessments based on limited in situ observations (e.g. [Cai et al., 2003](#), [Lohrenz et al., 2010](#), [Huang et al., 2013, 2015a](#) and

2015b focused on the Mississippi River plume and the Louisiana Shelf; Wang et al., 2013 covered three cross-shelf transects in the northeastern GoM but only for one summer). Significant uncertainties exist in such budget estimations due to large temporal and spatial gaps presented in the observations (e.g. Coble et al., 2010; Hofmann et al., 2011; Robbins et al., 2014). In this regard, coupled physical-biogeochemical models are capable of representing the biogeochemical cycle with realistic physical settings (e.g., ocean mixing and advection) and providing an alternative means for a gulf-wide carbon budget assessment.

Here we present a GoM $p\text{CO}_2$ analysis based on the results of a coupled physical-biogeochemical model simulation. Our objective is to quantify the $p\text{CO}_2$ flux at the air-sea interface (which at present is based on observational analyses alone and subject to large uncertainty), as well as its variability in relationship with river plume dynamics and dominant oceanic processes in different regions of the GoM.

2. Method

Our analysis uses solutions from a coupled physical-biogeochemical model covering the GoM and South Atlantic Bight waters (Xue et al., 2013, model domain see Fig.1). The circulation component of the coupled model is the Regional Ocean Modeling System (ROMS, Haidvogel et al. 2008, Shchepetkin and McWilliams, 2005; Hyun and He, 2010) and is coupled with the biogeochemical module described in Fennel et al. (2006, 2008, and 2011). A seven-year (January 1, 2004–December 31, 2010) model hindcast was performed, driven by realistic atmospheric forcing (North America Regional Reanalysis, www.cdc.noaa.gov), open boundary conditions from a data-

assimilative global ocean circulation model (HYCOM/NCODA, [Chassignet et al., 2007](#)), and observed freshwater and terrestrial nutrient input from 63 major rivers ([Aulenbach et al., 2007](#); [Milliman and Farnsworth, 2011](#); [Fuentes-Yaco et al., 2001](#); and [Nixon, 1996](#)). Model validations (physics, nutrients and chlorophyll) and a nitrogen budget have been reported in [Xue et al. \(2013\)](#).

In this study we focus on the carbon cycle in the GoM. As in [Xue et al. \(2013\)](#), we considered the first year of the simulation (2004) as model spin-up; all results presented here are for model output from 2005 to 2010. The carbonate chemistry of the coupled model is based on the standard defined by the Ocean Carbon Cycle Model Intercomparison Project Phase 2 ([Orr et al., 2000](#)). There are two active tracers, DIC and alkalinity, to determine the other four variables of the carbonate system (i.e. $p\text{CO}_2$, carbonate ion concentration, bicarbonate ion concentration, and pH; [Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001](#)). Details of the formulas used in simulation are provided in the supplementary materials S1.

Similar to the results reported by [Hofmann et al. \(2011\)](#), we found the model-simulated DIC concentration in the water column were very sensitive to the initial conditions. Although there are many historical measurements in the GoM, these data are limited in the northern GoM shelf regions and thus are insufficient to initialize the model. Instead, we tested model sensitivity using three sets of initial and open boundary conditions, which were derived using the empirical salinity-temperature-DIC-alkalinity relationships described in [Lee et al. \(2000 and 2006\)](#), [Cai et al. \(2011a\)](#), and [Wang et al. \(2013\)](#), respectively. Among them, the initial condition prescribed following [Lee et al. \(2000 and 2006, Fig.2\)](#) provided the best model-data comparison. For the open boundary

condition, we found simulated surface $p\text{CO}_2$ exhibited very limited variance (<5%) regardless which conditions were applied. To be consistent with the setup of the initial condition, the results presented here were driven by boundary conditions derived from Lee et al., (2000 and 2006).

The carbon cycle parameterizations used in this study followed the same approach and values as in Fennel et al. (2008), Fennel and Wilkin (2009), and Fennel (2010). For gas exchange calculation we followed the formulas in Wanninkhof (1992, details see supplementary materials S2). For air $p\text{CO}_2$, we utilized the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS, 2008) monthly gridded observation dataset and averaged them over the study area. We applied the curve-fitting method using a C language program named CCGCRV (<http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/mb1/crvfit/crvfit.html>, Fig.3), and the air $p\text{CO}_2$ in the gas exchange calculation was prescribed as:

$$p\text{CO}_{2\text{air}} = D0 + D1*t + D2*(t^2) + D3*\sin(\pi/2*t) + D4*\cos(\pi/2*t) + D5*\sin(\pi/2*2*t) + D6*\cos(\pi/2*2*t) \quad (1)$$

where $p\text{CO}_{2\text{air}}$ represents the monthly air $p\text{CO}_2$; t represents the number of months since January 2004 divided by 12, $\pi/2$ is a constant set to 6.28, $D0=375.96$, $D1=2.23$, $D2=-0.007$, $D3=1.31$, $D4=-0.64$, $D5=-0.13$, $D6=0.21$, and $D7=0.09$. Due to the relative low horizontal resolution of the AIRS data (2.5*2 degree), air $p\text{CO}_2$ was set to be spatially uniform.

To account for riverine inputs, we constructed climatological monthly alkalinity time series by averaging all available U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) observations for each major river. Because direct riverine DIC measurements were not available, we

approximated riverine DIC inputs using the corresponding alkalinity value plus 50, following Guo et al. (2012). The fluvial DIC input to the GoM was estimated as $\sim 2.18 \times 10^{12}$ mol C yr⁻¹, the majority of which was delivered by the Mississippi-Atchafalaya River ($\sim 1.80 \times 10^{12}$ mol C yr⁻¹, Fig.4, comparable with the estimation in Cai et al., 2003).

The results of three model experiments covering the period of 2004-2010 are presented in this study. Experiment 1 (Exp1): Control run, with observed riverine inputs from USGS and biological sources and sinks of DIC and alkalinity in the water column; Experiment 2 (Exp2): No-biology run, where all biological sources and sinks of DIC and alkalinity were disabled, similar to the experiment described in Fennel and Wilkin (2009); Experiment 3 (Exp3): the same set up as Exp1, but the riverine inputs (water, nutrients, and carbon of the Mississippi-Atchafalaya river) were taken from the Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model (DLEM, Tian et al., 2015) simulation for the period of 1904-1910 (Fig. 4). Also in Exp2 the air $p\text{CO}_2$ was set to the 1904-1910 condition derived by formula (1). The purpose of Exp2 is to examine roles of biological processes in regulating regional $p\text{CO}_2$ variability, whereas Exp3 is to connect variability of coastal carbon dynamics with historical climate and land-use changes within the Mississippi watershed.

3. Validation of the control run

We utilized the ship-based sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ database composed by the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory (LDEO Version 2014, >180,000 data points in the Gulf over 2005-2010, Takahashi et al., 2015) and Huang et al. (2015a and b) for model validation (see locations of ship measurements in Fig.5). The ship measurements by Huang et al. (2015a and b) were taken in October 2005; April, June, August 2006; May, August 2007;

January, April, July, November 2009; and March 2010, respectively and contains > 78,000 data points. To alleviate the spatial and temporal mismatches associated with these in-situ measurements, we computed their temporal and spatial mean using a 10-day temporal window, and then compared them with model-simulated $p\text{CO}_2$ time series (Fig.6). To facilitate our analysis, the GoM was divided into five sub-regions: 1) Mexico Shelf (MX Shelf), 2) West Gulf of Mexico Shelf (WGoM Shelf), 3) Northern Gulf of Mexico Shelf (NGoM Shelf), 4) West Florida Shelf (WF Shelf), and 5) the open ocean, which is > 200m water depth (regional definitions followed Benway and Coble, 2014, maps of sub-regions see Fig.1).

On the NGoM Shelf, the model simulation was able to capture the measured $p\text{CO}_2$ in 21 out of the 26 data groups (the mean value of in-situ measurements fell in one standard deviation of the model mean). Specifically, agreement between model and observations was better during spring, fall, and winter, than during summer. The model overestimated $p\text{CO}_2$ in June 2006, August 2007, and July 2009. These discrepancies will be discussed in later sections. On the Gulf-wide scale, the control run reproduced the observed seasonality. Decent model-data agreements were found in 24 out of the 26 data groups. These sub-regional and Gulf-wide comparisons indicate that the coupled physical-biogeochemical model is generally capable of resolving temporal and spatial variations in observed $p\text{CO}_2$, allowing us to use this seven-year hindcast to further characterize the air-sea CO_2 flux.

4. Results

In this section, we present model-simulated sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ and air-sea CO_2 flux in the five sub-regions. Because large $p\text{CO}_2$ gradients were found in both in-situ measurements and model in shallow waters, areas that are 10m deep and shallower were excluded from our analysis.

4.1 Temporal variability of Sea Surface $p\text{CO}_2$

Spatially averaged model-simulated $p\text{CO}_2$ on the NGoM Shelf exhibited clear seasonality, with large values (~ 500 ppm) around August and smallest values (~ 300 ppm) around February (Fig.6a). Notably, spatial averaged $p\text{CO}_2$ on the NGoM Shelf were not coincident with high river carbon and nutrient inputs (Fig.3). Simulated $p\text{CO}_2$ peaks were generally two to three months later than maximum river input in a year. The maximum riverine input during 2005-2010 was observed in June 2008 when a major flood occurred (Fig. 4a), yet no significant elevation of $p\text{CO}_2$ was seen in the model simulation. Gulf-wide spatially averaged $p\text{CO}_2$ (Fig.4b) had a temporal pattern similar to that on the NGoM Shelf, with high $p\text{CO}_2$ values (~ 425 ppm) in August and low values (~ 350 ppm) in February. Averaged $p\text{CO}_2$ on the NGoM Shelf was generally 50 ppm higher than that in the entire gulf.

4.2 Air-Sea CO_2 flux

The carbon flux was calculated based on a multi-year model mean (2005-2010). We found the GoM overall was a CO_2 sink with a mean flux rate of $0.71 \text{ mol C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ($\sim 1.11 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol C yr}^{-1}$, Table 1 and Fig.7). Examining region by region, we found that

the open ocean, occupying ~ 65% of the GoM in area, acted as a CO₂ sink (1.04 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹ of C) during most of the year except in summer. The greatest carbon uptake occurred in winter (2.44 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹). It is evident that waters around the Loop Current act as a sink throughout the year, whereas the western part of the open ocean waters shifted from acting as a CO₂ source in summer and fall to a sink in winter and spring.

Compared with the open ocean, air-sea flux on the continental shelf was more location-dependent and varied from season to season. Among the four shelf sub-regions, the MX Shelf has the largest area. It acted as a strong carbon sink in winter and spring (1.46 and 0.97 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹) and then a carbon source in summer and fall (-0.96 and -0.76 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹). Waters along the eastern side of the MX Shelf were a sink during most of the year, while to the west the shelf was a source in summer and fall. On an annual scale, this region was a sink with an air-sea flux of 0.19 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹. To the north, the WGoM Shelf has the smallest area among the four shelf sub-regions. It acted as a CO₂ source during spring, summer, and fall (-0.24, -1.69 and -1.06 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹) and a strong carbon sink during winter (1.62 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹). On an annual scale the WGoM region was a CO₂ source with a degassing rate of 0.34 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹.

The NGoM Shelf shifted from acting as a CO₂ source in summer and fall (-1.42 and -0.79 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹) to a sink in winter and spring (1.01 and 2.49 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹). The most prominent feature here was the continuous, strong degassing in the coastal waters around the Mississippi-Atchafalaya River mouths. However, as the water becomes deeper, the NGoM Shelf water shifted from acting as a sink during winter and spring to a source during summer and fall. Despite of the extensive degassing in the coastal water, the NGoM Shelf overall was a CO₂ sink on a yearly basis (0.32 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹). Similarly,

the WF Shelf also shifted from acting as a CO₂ source in summer and fall (-1.26 and -1.73 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹) to a sink in winter and spring (1.19 and 0.28 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹). The degassing in the inner shelf was strong enough to make the WF Shelf a CO₂ source on a yearly basis (-0.38 mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹).

Despite the salient spatial and temporal variability, the GoM was an overall CO₂ sink, mainly because of the strong uptake in the open ocean. For validation purposes, we compared (in Table 1) model-simulated air-sea flux against an estimation based on observations, which utilized all available measurements collected within the GoM from 2005 to 2010 (Robbins et al., 2014). Our control-run estimations generally agreed with in-situ measurements in all five sub-regions in terms of the ocean's role as a CO₂ source or sink. There is some discrepancy in the magnitude of the estimated flux, which can be attributed to 1) the spatial and temporal heterogeneity of the in-situ dataset and 2) the spatially uniformed air *p*CO₂ used by our model.

4.3 Model Sensitivity experiments: No-bio simulation (Exp2)

To test the role of biological processes in regional *p*CO₂ variability, a no-bio simulation was conducted, where all biology sources and sinks of DIC and alkalinity were disabled similar to the experiment described in Fennel and Wilkin (2009). The experiment produced higher surface *p*CO₂. The multi-year mean sea surface *p*CO₂ was elevated by 88.0 ppm (from 393.1 to 466.5 ppm) for the NGoM Shelf and 56.0 ppm (from 375.1 to 463.1 ppm) for the entire Gulf (Fig.6). Such *p*CO₂ increase was not temporally uniform. On the NGoM Shelf, *p*CO₂ increases in the no-bio simulation was clearly higher during spring-summer (84.1 and 95.6 ppm) than during fall-winter (57.3

and 56.0 ppm). On the Gulf-wide scale, the $p\text{CO}_2$ increase was stronger during summer (97.1 ppm) than the rest seasons (86.5, 87.6, and 80.9 ppm for spring, fall, and winter). For air-sea flux, the elevated surface $p\text{CO}_2$ turns all five sub-regions into a carbon source throughout the year, resulting in a net outflux rate of $2.09 \text{ mol C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Table 1).

4.4 Model Sensitivity experiments: historical river forcing (Exp3)

Fig.4 shows that river discharge and DIC inputs during years 1904-1910 as simulated by the DLEM model were comparable with those at present (2004-2010). The multi-year mean value of freshwater discharge is $25,700 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ for 1904-1910 and $23,900 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ for 2004-2010. The Mississippi-Atchafalaya delivered $1.51 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol C yr}^{-1}$ during 1904-1910 and $1.70 \times 10^{12} \text{ mol C yr}^{-1}$ during 2004-2010. However, NO_3 inputs during 1904-1910 was $< 30\%$ of current inputs (18.12 vs. $63.18 \times 10^9 \text{ mol N yr}^{-1}$). Limited N input led to a decrease of primary production not only on the NGoM Shelf, but also the adjacent waters on the WGoM and WF Shelves. Reduced primary production resulted in the coastal ocean being a weaker carbon sink during spring and summer (Fig. 8) and the NGoM Shelf a year-long carbon source with a net outflux rate of $0.61 \text{ mol C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Table 1). A close examination of the spring and summer condition on the NGoM Shelf showed that differences in primary production between Exp1 and Exp3 were simulated mainly along the Texas and Louisiana coasts. Primary production was significantly elevated in the control run because of enhanced NO_3 inputs (Fig. 8a and c). Elevated primary production brought down the sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$. During spring, enhanced primary production and decreased CO_2 was simulated along the Louisiana and Texas coast (Fig.

8b), while during summer when coastal circulation was influenced by the westerly wind forcing, the decreased CO₂ was more confined within waters along the Louisiana coast.

5. Discussion

So far, the carbon dynamics in the GoM were poorly characterized and represented a large uncertainty. This study provides one of the first attempts to quantify GoM-wide carbon fluxes and exchanges using a coupled physical-biogeochemical model. Here, we discuss the factors controlling sea surface *p*CO₂ variability on the river-influenced NGoM Shelf and the Loop Current-influenced open ocean. The relationship between *p*CO₂ and other hydrographic variables as well as model uncertainty are also considered.

5.1 NGoM Shelf

The Mississippi-Atchafalaya River and associated plume play the most important role in determining the *p*CO₂ distribution on the NGoM Shelf. The large input of fluvial DIC and alkalinity introduces carbonate saturation in the coastal waters, conversely, nutrients from the river enhance local primary production, which results in DIC removal and thus reduces sea surface *p*CO₂ (e.g. [Lohrenz et al., 2010](#); [Guo et al., 2012](#); [Huang et al., 2013 and 2015](#)). Such biological removal of CO₂ was also confirmed by the elevated *p*CO₂ values in the no-bio simulation in this study. Although the river plume's influence on CO₂ flux has been addressed by prior observational studies, large uncertainties were also found regarding whether the NGoM Shelf is a CO₂ sink or source over a longer time period. For instance, [Huang et al. \(2013\)](#) found a large difference between the *p*CO₂

distributions in April 2009 and in March 2010. Such a difference was attributed to the variations in river plume extension influenced by local wind conditions and river discharge. In a later communication, based on ship-measurements from 11 cruises, [Huang et al. \(2015a\)](#) concluded that the NGoM Shelf acted as a net CO₂ sink, but with a large uncertainty (influx rate: $0.96 \pm 3.7 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$).

Model results in this study revealed significant spatial and temporal gradients in sea surface *p*CO₂ as well. The multi-year mean (2005-2010) *p*CO₂ distribution was characterized by high values in the coastal waters ([Fig. 9a](#)), accompanied by low salinity ([Fig. 9c](#)), high Dissolved Inorganic Nitrogen (DIN) and high DIC ([Figs. 9d and 9e](#)). The *p*CO₂ value was significantly lower as water became deeper, where the ocean acted as a CO₂ sink during most time of the year ([Figs. 7a through d](#)). The surface *p*CO₂ distribution on the NGoM Shelf was highly correlated with surface salinity (*r* value: -0.81) and DIN concentration (*r* value: 0.80) throughout the year, while its correlations with surface temperature and DIC concentration were significant only for part of the year (for detailed season-by-season correlation see [Table 2](#)). Although our model suggests that the shelf-wide *p*CO₂ distribution was positively correlated with DIN concentration, this is not contrary to findings of the above-mentioned observational studies, that is, the high DIN stimulates primary production should be negatively correlated with sea surface *p*CO₂. Instead, the high DIN concentration, together with the low salinity, was a signal of rich DIC from the riverine inputs and potentially the light-limited condition within the river plume. In other words, CO₂ outgassing from oversaturated plume water overwhelmed the CO₂ influx induced by “biological pump” in the areas near the river mouths.

To further link $p\text{CO}_2$ dynamics with biological processes on the NGoM shelf, we plotted the seasonal mean $p\text{CO}_2$ against surface salinity of the control and no-bio runs in [Fig.10](#). Seawater $p\text{CO}_2$ decreased almost linearly as salinity increased in the no-bio simulation in all seasons (right panels). For most seasons of the year (except winter), the NGoM shelf acted as a source of CO_2 if no biological mixing was involved. During summer when discharge and river DIC input were high, the high $p\text{CO}_2$ low salinity waters around the Mississippi River Delta (86-88°W, reddish points) can be easily differentiated from the high salinity low $p\text{CO}_2$ waters on the Texas Shelf (92-95°W, bluish points).

When biological processes were included, the shelf water exhibited large spatial and seasonal variability (left panels). A $p\text{CO}_2$ minimum was simulated in mid-salinity waters (30-33 psu) during spring and summer, which is consistent with the curve derived by [Huang et al., 2015a](#) using ship measurements. Compared with the no-bio run, $p\text{CO}_2$ was reduced significantly and exhibited a wider range in the control run. The biological removal of sea surface CO_2 was most salient in waters around the Mississippi River Delta throughout a year. The difference in $p\text{CO}_2$ between waters around the delta and the Texas Shelf became more salient. The surface $p\text{CO}_2$ was in general higher in the Texas Shelf region than around the delta. Intriguingly, the $p\text{CO}_2$ -salinity curve of waters around the Mississippi Delta exhibited a bifurcated feature in spring and summer. We further examined the relationship between salinity and variables other than $p\text{CO}_2$ and found a similar pattern in the DIC-salinity curve (not shown here), which was also reported by [Guo et al., 2012](#) based on ship measurements. The similarity between the DIC-salinity and $p\text{CO}_2$ -salinity curves indicates that the elevated $p\text{CO}_2$ water in the plume and on the

Texas Shelf is a result of respiration, which is usually linked with hypoxia. We note that [Hetland and DiMarco \(2007\)](#) also suggested that hypoxia on the NGoM Shelf happened both in the deltaic region due to plume-dependent respiration, and on the Texas Shelf due to benthic respiration.

5.2 Open Ocean

In the open ocean, the distribution of surface $p\text{CO}_2$ was largely determined by that of the surface DIC (r value: 0.93) and alkalinity throughout the year (r value: -0.85, for detailed season-by-season correlations see [Table 2](#)), while the influence from DIN and primary production was limited to fall and winter months when wind-induced upwelling is strong ([Xue et al., 2013](#)). The dependence of $p\text{CO}_2$ on DIC and alkalinity makes the Loop Current an important factor controlling the regional air-sea CO_2 flux. In addition to a relatively high temperature, the Loop Current water is also characterized by low DIC and high alkalinity ([Wang et al., 2013](#) and references therein). The multi-year mean sea surface temperature in [Fig.9b](#) shows persistent warm water mass in the form of the Loop Current, which carries the carbonate characteristics of the Caribbean water (i.e. low DIC and high alkalinity, [Figs. 9e and 9f](#)). Surface $p\text{CO}_2$ in this warm water mass was significantly lower than surrounding shelf waters ([Fig. 9a](#)), making the Loop Current a strong carbon sink throughout the year ([Figs.7a-d](#)). Any changes in the Caribbean water's carbonate characteristics will affect the carbon budget in the GoM as well as waters further downstream in the Gulf Stream.

5.3 Carbon budget estimation and model uncertainty

Based on our model-simulations, we conclude that the GoM is an overall CO₂ sink, taking up 1.11×10^{12} mol C yr⁻¹ from the air. This estimation is comparable to those based on in situ observations, e.g. 1.48×10^{12} mol C yr⁻¹, (Coble et al., 2010) and 0.30×10^{12} mol C yr⁻¹ (Robbins et al. 2014). These recent estimates are in stark contrast to the earlier SOCCR report (Takahashi et al. 2007), which found the GoM to be a CO₂ source (1.58×10^{12} mol C yr⁻¹, the GoM and Caribbean Sea combined). In addition, we estimated that the GoM received $\sim 2.18 \times 10^{12}$ mol C yr⁻¹ from rivers, the majority of which were from the Mississippi-Atchafalaya River ($\sim 1.80 \times 10^{12}$ mol C yr⁻¹). These two DIC sources (air: $\sim 1.11 \times 10^{12}$ mol C yr⁻¹ plus river: $\sim 2.18 \times 10^{12}$ mol C yr⁻¹) largely balance the DIC transported out of the GoM by the Loop Current ($\sim 3.30 \times 10^{12}$ mol C yr⁻¹, Wang et al., 2013).

We notice that, during summer months, our model simulated a higher surface *p*CO₂ than ship measurements on the NGoM Shelf (Fig.6a). As discussed in Section 5.1, a large part of the strong CO₂ degassing simulated by our model was from respiration on the Texas Shelf. Yet a close examination of the distribution of available ship measurements indicates that data points on the Texas Shelf are fairly sparse and sporadic (Fig.5), which may partially explain the mismatch between model and ship measurements in Fig.6a. For instance, in the summer of 2010 when more ship measurements were available on the NGoM shelf, both model and observation indicated a high *p*CO₂ in the summer. In addition, the current model resolution (~ 5 km) may not be high enough to reproduce small-scale circulation patterns associated with the Mississippi River plume. The complexity of the food web and uncertainty in model parameterization (e.g.

rudimentarily represented particular organic matters, the lack of phosphate and silicate components, etc.) warrants further investigation.

6. Summary

A coupled physical-biogeochemical model was used to hindcast surface $p\text{CO}_2$ in the GoM from January 2004 to December 2010. Favorable comparisons were found when validating model solutions against ship measurements on the Gulf-wide scale, indicating that this coupled model can reproduce observed $p\text{CO}_2$ variability in the GoM. Time series of spatially averaged $p\text{CO}_2$ for both shelf and open ocean waters exhibit significant seasonal variability, with high values in August and low values in February. Model-simulated $p\text{CO}_2$ values were elevated by 56 and 88 ppm for the entire Gulf and the NGoM shelf, respectively, when the biological sources and sinks of carbon were disabled (i.e., the no-bio simulation). Without biological processes, the GoM shifts to a strong carbon source with a outflux rate of $2.10 \text{ mol C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. Another sensitivity test driven by river conditions from the 1904-1910 period (reduced NO_3 and comparable DIC) indicates the NGoM shelf could have been a CO_2 source with an outflux rate of $0.61 \text{ mol C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ under those conditions.

The Mississippi-Atchafalaya River plume is the dominant factor controlling the $p\text{CO}_2$ distribution on the NGoM Shelf. Although the NGoM Shelf is overall a CO_2 sink, high surface $p\text{CO}_2$ was simulated in relative shallow waters, induced by both oversaturated plume water and respiration on different parts of the shelf. $p\text{CO}_2$ in the open ocean is controlled largely by the low DIC high alkalinity Loop Current water from the Caribbean Sea.

Our model simulations characterize the GoM as an overall CO₂ sink, taking up ~
1.11 × 10¹² mol C yr⁻¹ from the air. Together with the enormous riverine input (~ 2.18 ×
10¹² mol C yr⁻¹), this carbon influx was largely balanced by carbon export through the
Loop Current estimated by an earlier study. More accurate model predictions of water
column DIC concentration will require more in-situ data for improved specification of
model DIC initial conditions, and further refinements in model parameterizations to
better account for complex carbon dynamics in the coastal ocean.

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020 is much appreciated. The operational mode of the SABGOM model is located at
<http://omgsrv1.meas.ncsu.edu:8080/ocean-circulation/>. Data of daily nowcast/forecast
model output is hosted at
http://omgsrv1.meas.ncsu.edu:8080/thredds/sabgom_catalog.html. Data used in all
figures for the hindcast simulation can be obtained by contacting the corresponding
author.

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Tables and Figures

Table 1. Comparison between observed and modeled air-sea CO₂ flux. Observations are taken from Robins et al (2014), whereas the model results are seven-year (2005-2010) model mean*.

		Sub-regions					Gulf-wide**
		Mexico Shelf	Texas Shelf	Louisiana Shelf	West Florida Shelf	Open Ocean	
Subregion Area (10¹² m²)		0.18	0.08	0.15	0.15	1.01	1.56
Simulation 1 (control run)*	Spring	0.97	-0.24	1.01	0.28	1.51	1.23
	Summer	-0.96	-1.69	-1.42	-1.26	-0.33	-0.62
	Fall	-0.76	-1.06	-0.79	-1.73	0.56	0.06
	Winter	1.49	1.62	2.49	1.19	2.44	2.21
	Annual	0.19	-0.34	0.32	-0.38	1.04	0.71
Robbins et al., 2014	Annual	0.09	-0.18	0.44	-0.37	0.48	0.19
Simulation 2 (no-bio)	Annual	-2.77	-2.02	-1.64	-1.79	-2.08	-2.10
Simulation 3 1904-1910	Annual	0.08	-0.77	-0.61	-0.55	0.86	0.50

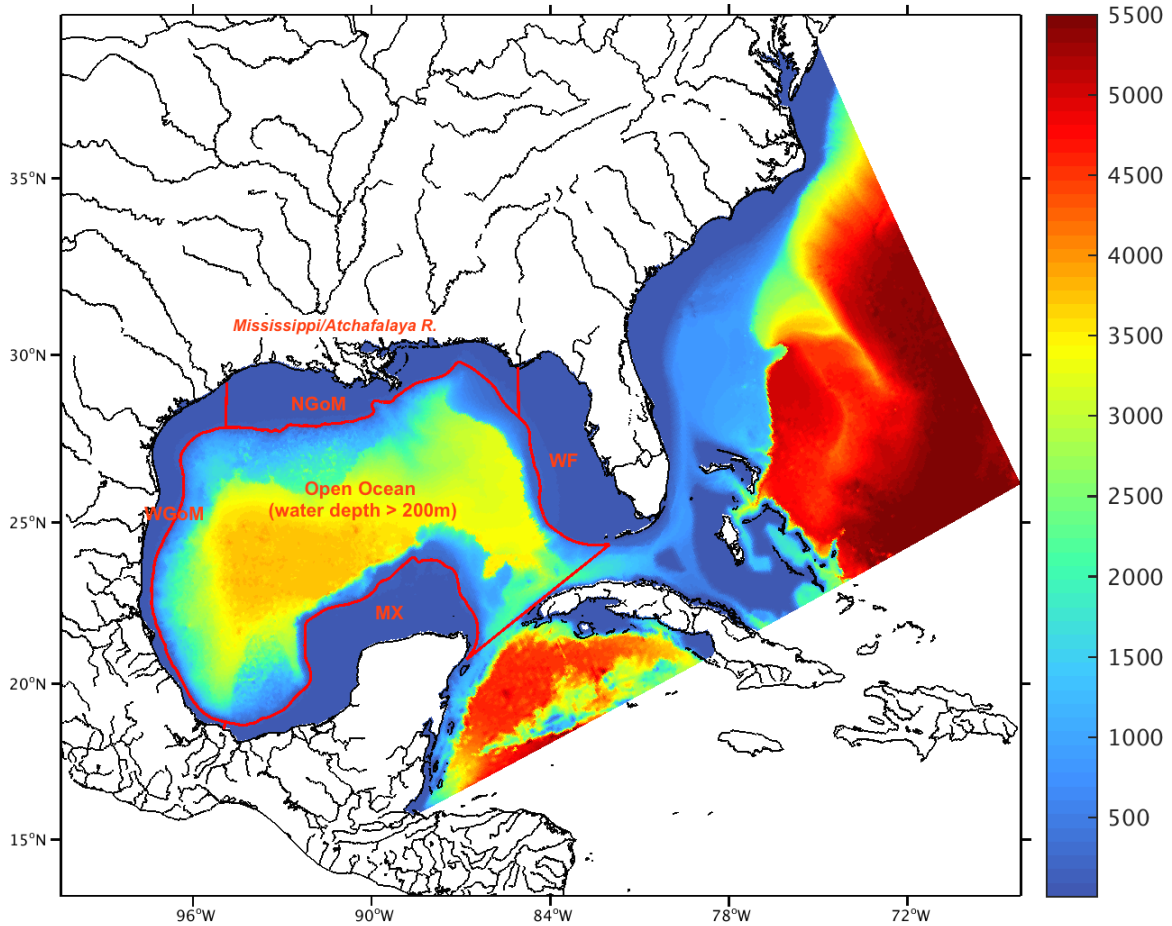
*unit: mol m⁻² yr⁻¹, + indicates ocean is an air CO₂ sink; - indicates a CO₂ source to the atmosphere

**Gulf-wide value is a sum of all sub-regions.

Table 2. Spatial correlation coefficients between $p\text{CO}_2$, sea surface temperature (SST), sea surface salinity (SSS), dissolved inorganic nitrate (DIN: NO_3+NH_4), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), alkalinity(ALK), and primary production (P-Prod) on the Louisiana Shelf and in the open ocean (multi-year mean of 2005-2010, control run).

Correlation Coefficient (R value)		SST	SSS	DIC	DIN	ALK	P-Prod
$p\text{CO}_2$ on the Louisiana Shelf	Spring	-0.24	-0.81	-0.12	0.86	-0.77	0.36
	Summer	0.63	-0.65	0.65	0.66	-0.17	0.35
	Fall	-0.66	-0.87	0.86	0.78	0.17	0.58
	Winter	-0.67	-0.89	0.45	0.89	-0.90	0.23
	Annual	-0.64	-0.82	0.63	0.82	-0.65	0.47
$p\text{CO}_2$ in open ocean	Spring	0.11	0.17	0.76	-0.27	-0.70	-0.41
	Summer	-0.11	-0.11	0.99	-0.29	-0.91	-0.43
	Fall	0.04	0.08	0.96	-0.77	-0.88	-0.76
	Winter	0.04	-0.05	0.75	-0.49	-0.69	-0.55
	Annual	-0.17	0.05	0.93	-0.50	-0.85	-0.59

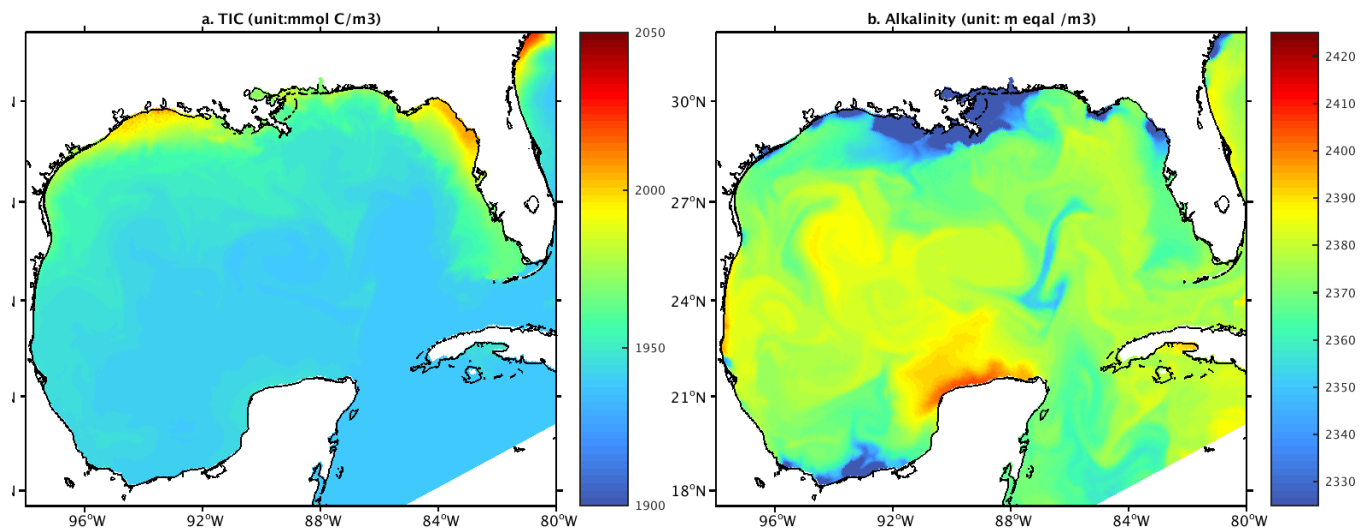
Figure 1. Domain of the South Atlantic Bight and Gulf of Mexico (SABGOM) ROMS model with water depth in color (unit: m). Also shown are the five sub-regions used in this study, which are Mexico Shelf (MX), Western Gulf of Mexico Shelf (WGoM), Northern Gulf of Mexico Shelf (NGoM), West Florida Shelf (WF), and open ocean.



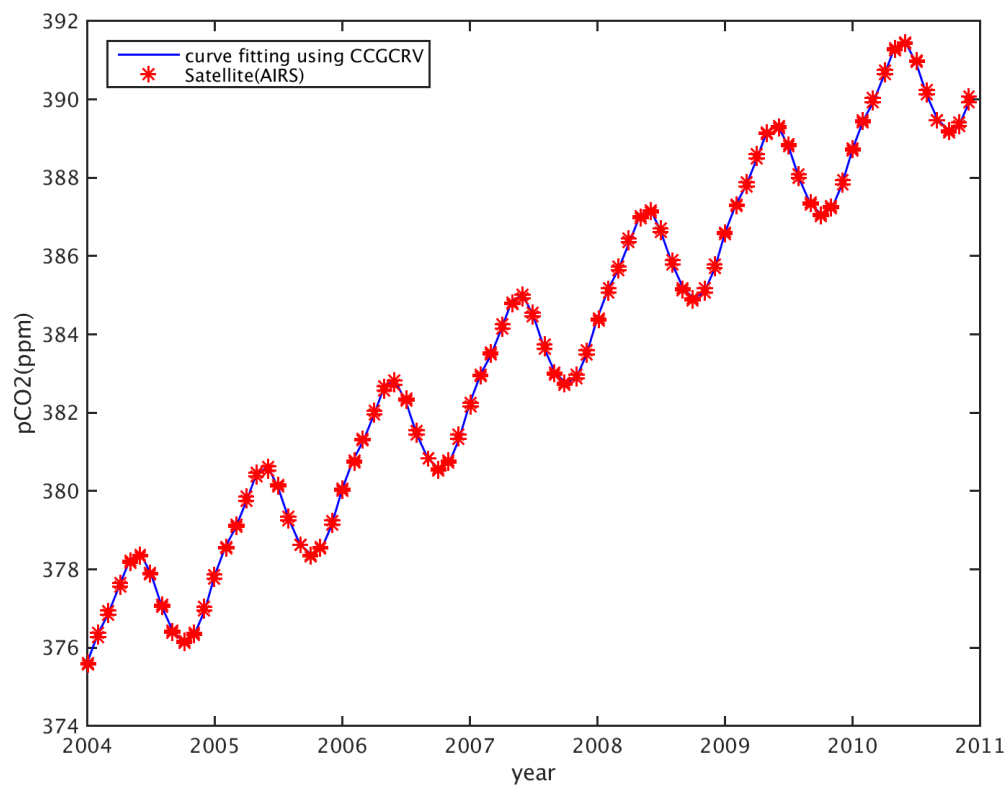
637 Figure 2. DIC and alkalinity initial conditions derived from the empirical relationship by
638 Lee et al., (2000 and 2006).

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641 Figure 3. Satellite observed monthly pCO_2 (AIRS) averaged over the Gulf of Mexico (red
642 stars) and the pCO_2 air used in model air-sea CO_2 flux calculation (blue line), which is
643 generated using the curve-fitting software CCGCRV.



644

Figure 4. Comparisons between the 2005-2010 riverine DIC and NO_3 conditions observed by USGS (red line) and the 1904-1910 river condition simulated by the Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model (black line, [Tian et al., 2015](#)).

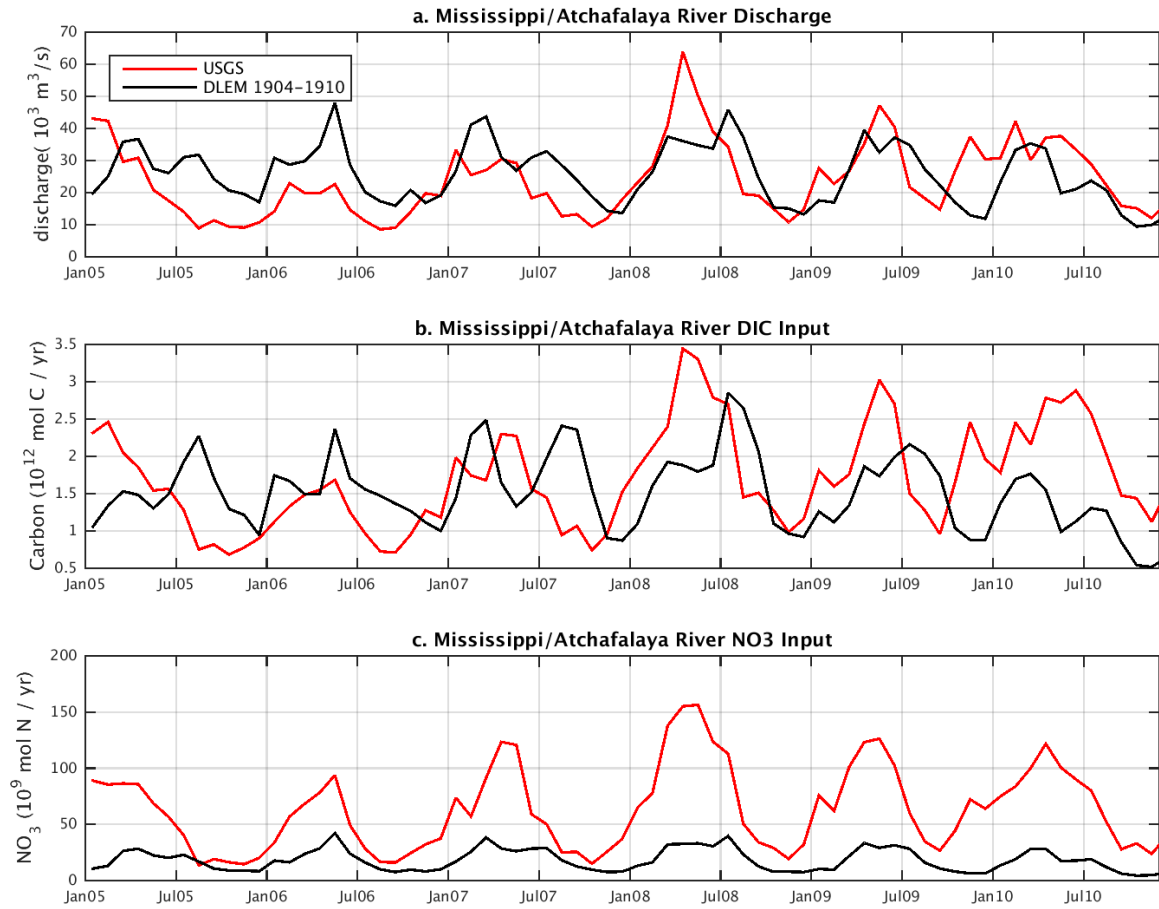


Figure 5. Locations of in-situ measurements from the LDEO database (blue) and Huang et al. (2015, grey) in the period of 2005-2010.

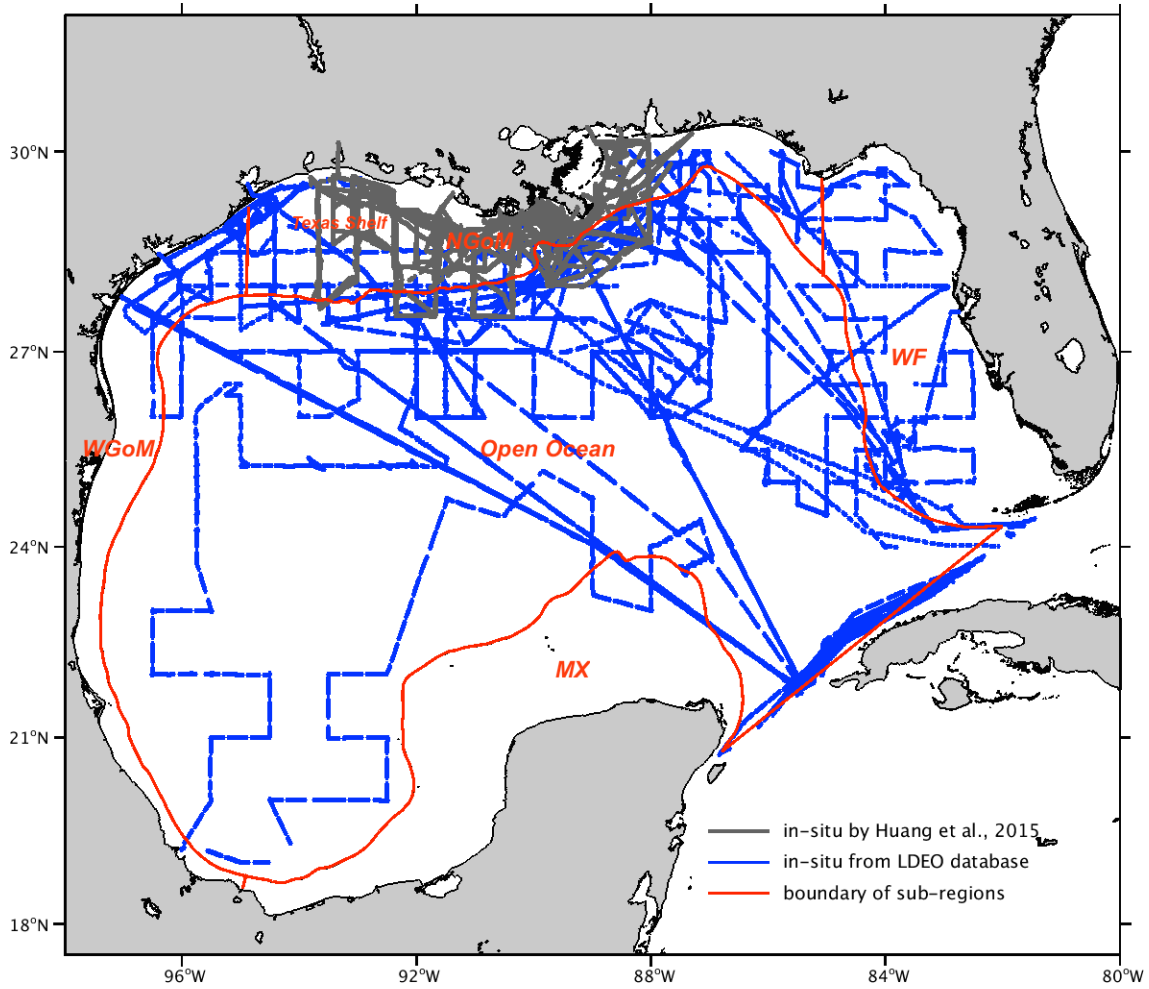


Figure 6. Time series of spatially averaged $p\text{CO}_2$ (control run in blue and no-bio simulation in red) (a) on the Louisiana shelf, and (b) in the entire Gulf of Mexico, overlaid with in situ observations (in black) from Huang et al. (2015a and b), and Takahashi et al. (2015).

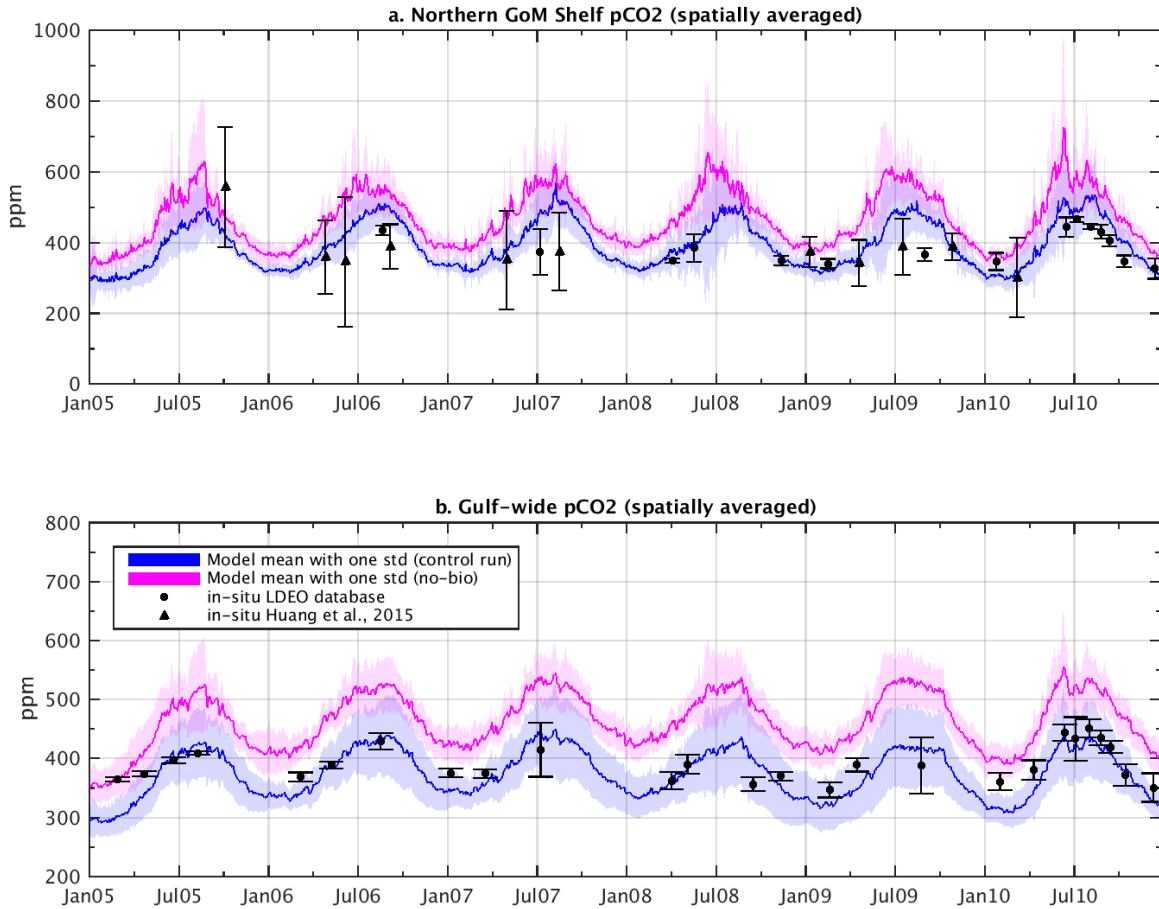


Figure 7. Seven-year (2005-2010) model (control run) mean air-sea CO₂ flux in the Gulf of Mexico during (a) spring, (b) summer, (c) autumn, and (d) winter. Blue color indicates where the ocean is a sink for CO₂; red color indicates where the ocean is a source.

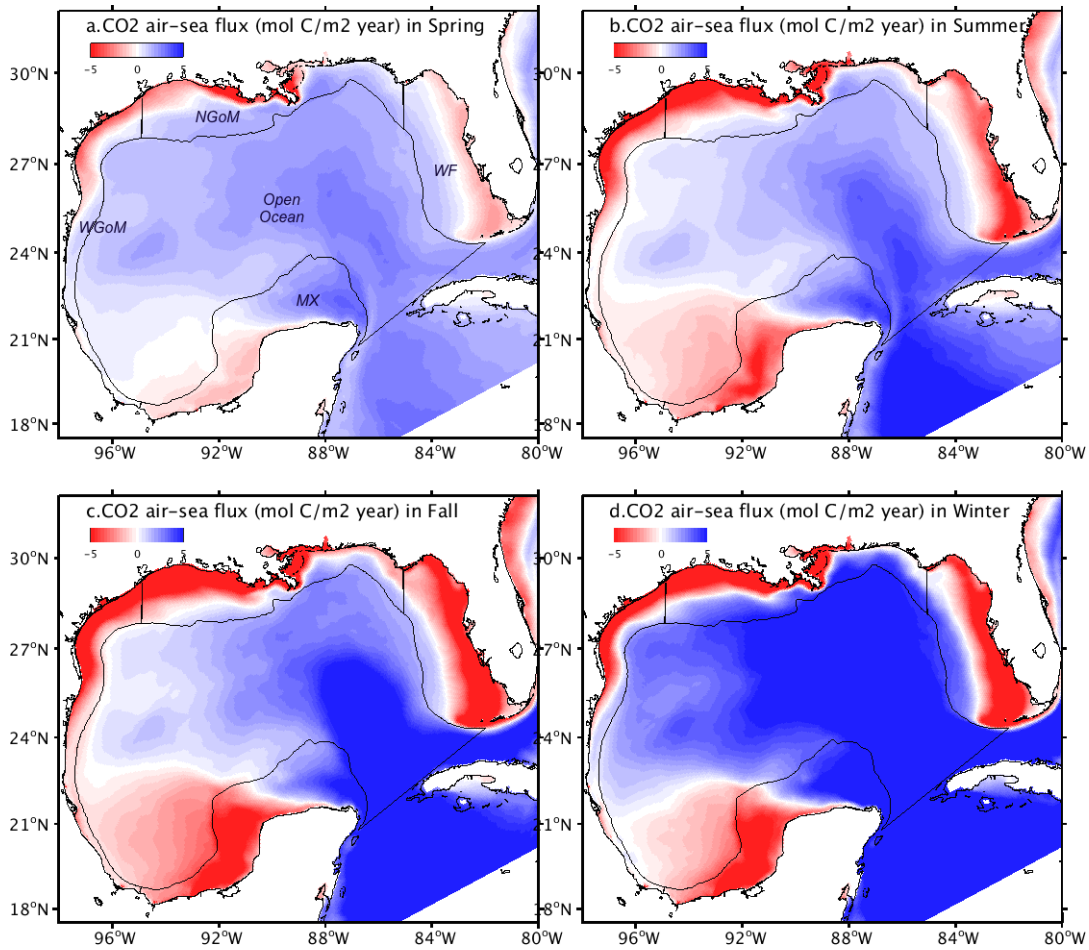


Figure 8. Differences in model simulated primary production and $p\text{CO}_2$ between the 2004-2010 and the 1904-1910 periods (2005-2010 minus 1905-1910 seasonal mean condition). For a) and c) blue color indicates increased primary production during 2004-2010, for b) and d) red color indicates reduced $p\text{CO}_2$ during 2004-2010.

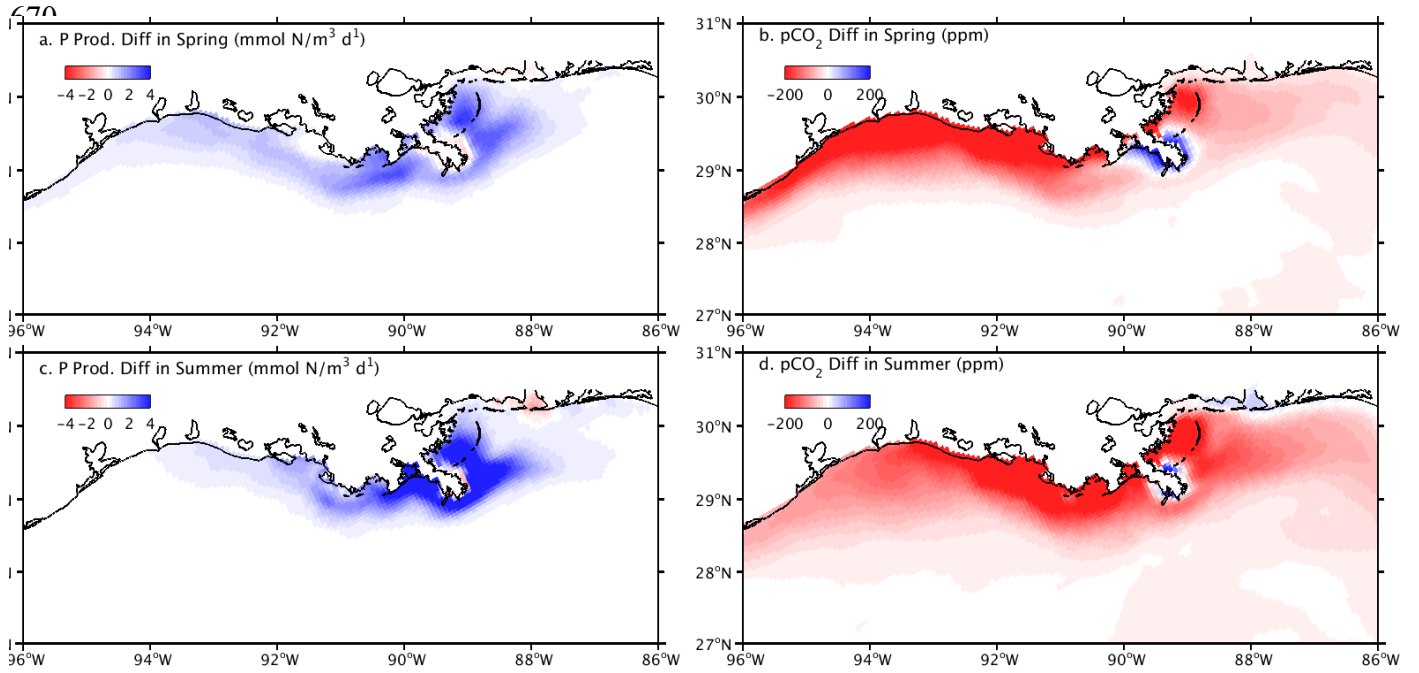
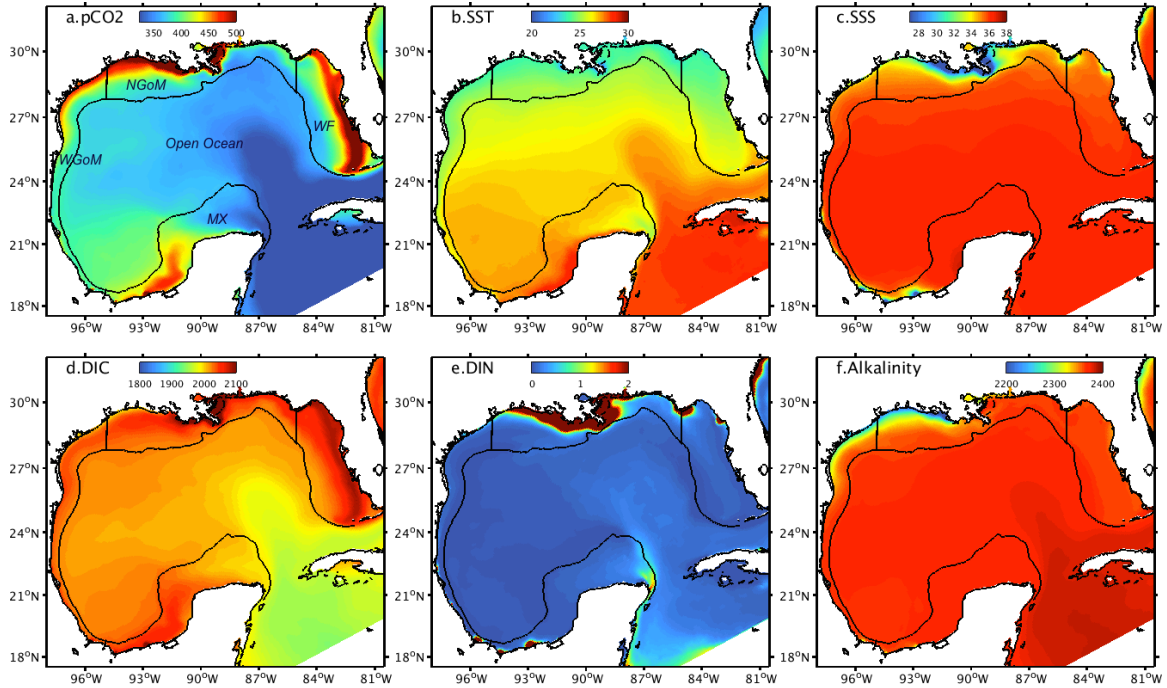
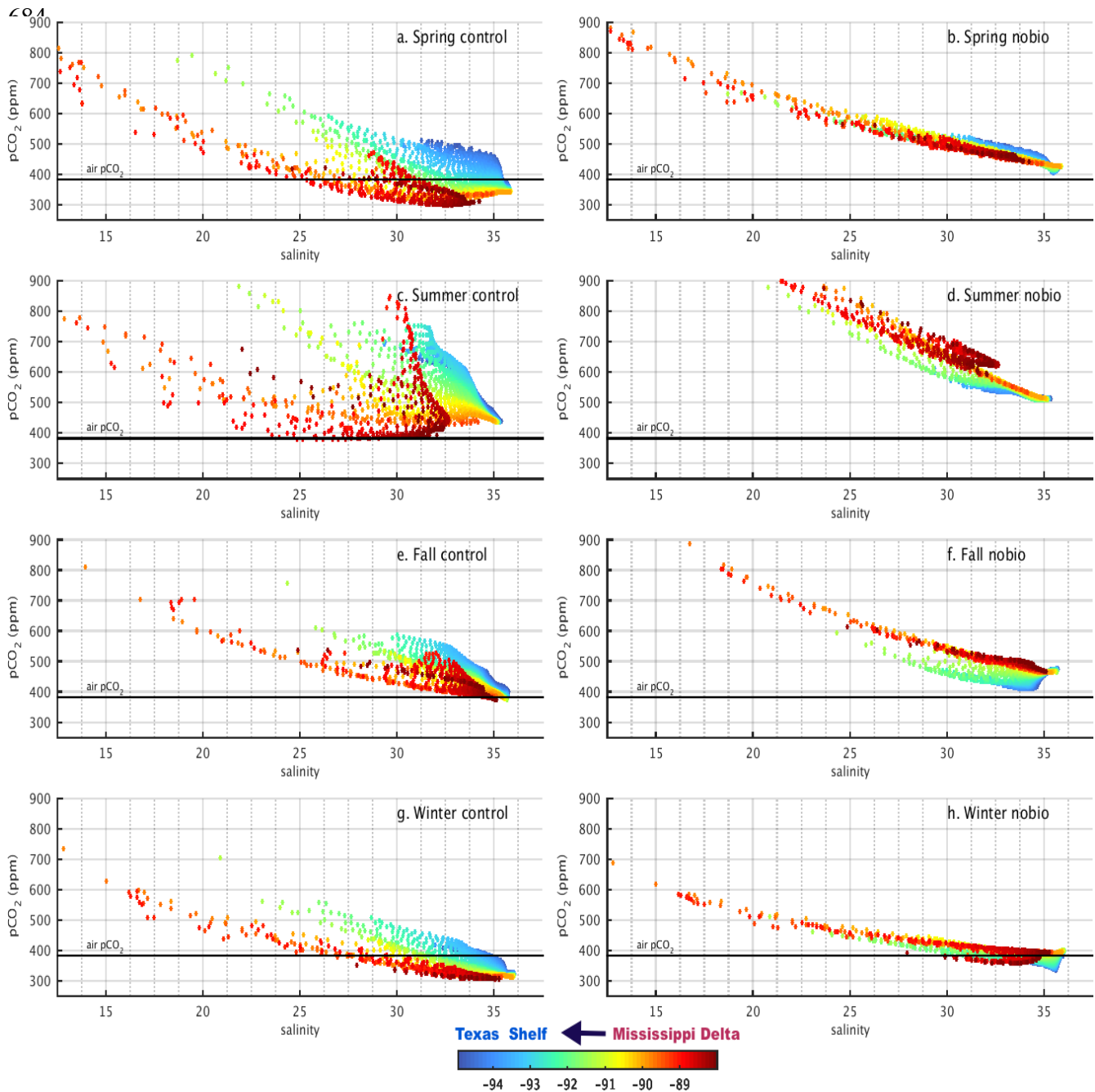


Figure 9. Seven-year mean (2005-2010) surface conditions simulated by the model for a) $p\text{CO}_2$ (ppm), b) temperature (degree C), c) salinity (psu), d) dissolved inorganic carbon (mmol C m^{-3}), e) dissolved inorganic nitrogen (NO_3+NH_4) (mmol N m^{-3}), and f) alkalinity (mEq m^{-3}).



680 Figure 10. Seasonal mean (2005-2010) of model simulated sea surface $p\text{CO}_2$ against
681 salinity for the control (a, c, e and g) and no-bio experiment (b, d, f and h) on the
682 Louisiana Shelf; also shown are longitude with colors, note the Mississippi river delta is
683 located around 89°W .



Supplementary Materials

S1. Calculation of seawater pCO_2

The seawater pCO_2 was calculated following [Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow \(2001\)](#) as following:

$$pCO_2 = DIC * [H^+]^2 / ([H^+]^2 + K_1 * [H^+] + K_1 * K_2) / f \quad (1)$$

where DIC is the dissolved inorganic carbon and was given by model input. K_1 and K_2 are constant of carbonic acid, $K_1 = [H^+] * [HCO_3^-] / [H_2CO_3]$, $K_2 = [H^+] * [CO_3^{2-}] / [HCO_3^-]$ and were calculated following [Millero \(1995\)](#) using data from [Mehrbach et al. \(1973\)](#) as following:

$$\log K_1 = 62.008 - 1/T * 3670.7 - \log T * 9.7944 + S * (0.0118 - S * 0.000116) \quad (2)$$

$$\log K_2 = -4.777 - 1/T * 1394.7 - \log T * 9.7944 + S * (0.0184 - S * 0.000118) \quad (3)$$

where in (2) and (3) the T is for water temperature (unit: K) and S is for salinity (unit: psu);

The f in (1) is the correction term for non-ideality and was calculated from [Weiss and Price \(1980\)](#) using equation 13 with 6 values. $[H^+]$ is solved using the 5th order polynomial bracket and bisection method with the following 5 coefficients:

$$p5 = 1; \quad (4)$$

$$p4 = -Alk - K_b - K_1; \quad (5)$$

$$p3 = DIC * K_1 - Alk * (K_b + K_1) + K_b * borate + K_w - K_b * K_1 - K_1 * K_2; \quad (6)$$

$$p2 = DIC * (K_b * K_1 + 2 * K_1 * K_2) - Alk * (K_b * K_1 + K_1 * K_2) + K_b * borate * K_1 + (K_w * K_b + K_w * K_1 - K_b * K_1 * K_2); \quad (7)$$

$$p1 = 2 * DIC * K_b * K_1 * K_2 - Alk * K_b * K_1 * K_2 + K_b * borate * K_1 * K_2 + K_w * K_b * K_1 + K_w * K_1 * K_2; \quad (8)$$

$$p0 = K_w * K_b * K_1 * K_2; \quad (9)$$

where *Alk* is for total alkalinity (unit: milli-equivalent per liter) and was given by model input; K_w is ion product of water ($[H^+][OH^-]$) and K_b is the constant of boric acid ($[H^+][BO_2^-]/[HBO_2]$), which were calculated following [Millero \(1995\)](#):

$$\begin{aligned} \ln K_b = & -8966.90 + 2890.51 * S^{0.5} - 77.942 * S + 1.726 * S^{1.5} - 0.0993 * S^2 / T \\ & + (148.0248 + 137.194 * S^{0.5} + 1.62247 * S \\ & + (-24.4344 - 25.085 * S^{0.5} - 0.2474 * S) * \ln T + 0.053105 * S^{0.5} * T) \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \ln K_w = & 148.9802 - 13847.26 / T - 23.6521 * \ln T \\ & + (-0.977 + 118.67 / T + 1.0495 * \ln T) * S^{0.5} - 0.01615 * S \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

and borate stands for the concentrations for borate and was calculated following [Uppstrom \(1974\)](#):

$$borate = 0.000232 * S / 1.80655 / 10.811 \quad (12)$$

S2. Air-Sea CO₂ flux calculation

The air-sea CO₂ flux was calculated following Wanninkhof (1992) as following:

$$F=K*(pCO_{2\text{ air}}-pCO_{2\text{ water}}) \quad (13)$$

where $pCO_{2\text{ air}}$ is the air pCO_2 , and $pCO_{2\text{ water}}$ was calculated from (1); F is the air-sea CO₂ flux (unit: millimole C meter⁻² day⁻¹);

$$K=kL \quad (14)$$

where L is the solubility of CO₂ and was calculated following Weiss (1974) as following:

$$\ln L = -60.2409 + 93.4517/T + 23.3585 * \text{Log}(T) + S * (0.023517 + T * (-0.023656 + 0.0047036 * T)) \quad (15)$$

and the k in (14) is the gas transfer velocity and was calculated using

$$k = 0.31u^2(Sc/660)^{-0.5} \quad (16)$$

where u is the wind speed at 10 m above sea-level from the North America Regional Reanalysis dataset; Sc is the Schmidt number and was set to

$$Sc = 2073.1 - 125.62 * T + 36276 * T^2 - 0.043219 * T^3 \quad (17)$$