

1 **A Geographic Weighted Regression Approach for Improved Total**

2 **Alkalinity Estimates in the Northern Gulf of Mexico**

3 **Padmanava Dash\***, Madhur Devkota, Andrew E. Mercer, and Shrinidhi Ambinakudige

4 Department of Geosciences, Mississippi State University, Mississippi State, MS 39762, USA

5 \*Corresponding author: Padmanava Dash (pd175@msstate.edu)

6 **Highlights:**

- 7 • Algorithms were developed to estimate total alkalinity in northern Gulf of Mexico
- 8 • Use of chlorophyll *a* addressed the biological and chemical complexities
- 9 • Geographically weighted regression produced the best estimates

10

11 **Abstract**

12 Total alkalinity (TA) is one of the important parameters to show the intensity of seawater  
13 buffer against ocean acidification. TA dynamics in the northern Gulf of Mexico (N-GoM) is  
14 significantly affected by the Mississippi River. An empirical TA algorithm is offered here  
15 which accounts for the local effects of coastal processes. *In situ* data collected during  
16 numerous research cruises in the N-GoM were compiled and used to develop TA algorithms  
17 using sea surface temperature (SST) and sea surface salinity (SSS) as explanatory variables.  
18 After improving the coefficients and functional form of this algorithm, chlorophyll *a* (Chl-*a*)  
19 was included as an additional explanatory variable, which worked as a proxy for addressing  
20 the pronounced effects of biological forcing on coastal waters. Finally, a geographically  
21 weighted regression algorithm was developed in the form  $TA = \exp[X_0 + X_1(SSS -$   
22  $35)^2 + X_2(SSS \times SST)^{1/2} + X_3 \text{chl-}a]$  to address spatial non-stationarity, which produced improved  
23 estimates of TA in the N-GoM.

24 **Keywords:** Total Alkalinity; Northern Gulf of Mexico; Ocean Acidification; Geographic  
25 Weighted Regression

26

27

28

## 29 **Introduction**

30 About 25% of the anthropologically generated atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is absorbed by the  
31 world oceans [Quere *et al.*, 2016]. This has resulted in an increase in the concentration of  
32 dissolved inorganic carbon and decrease in average ocean pH, also known as ocean  
33 acidification (OA) [Sun *et al.*, 2012]. A gradual decrease in carbonate ion concentrations,  
34 aragonite saturation states ( $\Omega_{ar}$ ), and calcite saturation states ( $\Omega_{ca}$ ) leads to reduced  
35 calcification rates and ultimately calcium carbonate dissolution [Cooley, 2009; Gledhill *et al.*,  
36 2009], a key concerning aspect of ocean acidification. Reduced calcification rates negatively  
37 impact the calcifying organisms in the ocean and also have important implications for global  
38 carbon cycle [Raven *et al.*, 2005].

39 Thirty-five years of observation concluded that the rate of alteration in seawater  
40 carbonate system parameters varies geographically with the greatest variability observed in  
41 the North Pacific Ocean region [Takahashi *et al.*, 2006]. This variability likely results from  
42 local oceanographic processes which contribute additional carbon into the system by lateral  
43 mixing of waters from marginal seas, input from coastal areas and rivers, upwelling of  
44 subsurface waters, and biological activities [Takahashi *et al.*, 2006]. Similarly, there are a  
45 myriad of factors that affect coastal acidification in the northern Gulf of Mexico (N-GoM),  
46 primarily owing to heterotrophic respiration of terrestrial and autotrophically produced  
47 organic carbon [Cai, 2003; Hu *et al.*, 2017] mainly due to nutrient loading by the Mississippi  
48 River as well as outflow from other rivers [Cai *et al.*, 2011; Lohrenz & Cai, 2006]. Hence,  
49 the variability in the carbonate system parameters in the N-GoM coastal waters is notably  
50 higher than the pelagic central Gulf of Mexico due to pronounced coastal biogeochemical  
51 cycling.

52 The partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> (pCO<sub>2</sub>), total alkalinity (TA), pH, and dissolved inorganic  
53 carbon (DIC) are the principal carbonate chemistry parameters used to document the status

54 and trends of ocean acidification. The carbonate system is bivariate and can be fully  
55 constrained if any two of the four measurable carbonate system parameters are known. TA  
56 coupled with  $p\text{CO}_2$  are frequently used (*e.g.*, NOAA's Ocean Acidification Product Suite  
57 [Gledhill *et al.*, 2008]) to estimate pH,  $\Omega_{\text{ar}}$ , and  $\Omega_{\text{ca}}$  using the CO2SYS Program [Lewis &  
58 Wallace, 1998] employing the carbonate equilibrium equations [*e.g.*, Mehrbach *et al.*, 1973].  
59 Thus, TA is one of the important parameters that aids in deriving other carbonate system  
60 parameters [Bever *et al.*, 2021]. TA is one of the important parameters to show the intensity of  
61 seawater buffer against ocean acidification and is defined (Dickson, 1981) as the number of  
62 moles of hydrogen ion equivalent to the excess of proton acceptors in 1 kilogram of sample  
63 ( $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ). Due to the prevalence of carbonate rocks in the drainage basin of the Mississippi  
64 River, the TA values of the Mississippi River water are usually high (Raymond and Cole,  
65 2003), which has increased significantly in the past half century as a result of increased flow  
66 from higher rainfall and land-use changes that have altered vegetation cover (Keul *et al.*,  
67 2010). Keul *et al.* (2010) observed a non-conservative behavior of TA in the Mississippi  
68 River plume region, which they attributed to changes in microbial recycling across salinity  
69 gradients. Additionally, non-conservative mixing with waters from local estuaries, such as  
70 Terrebonne Bay and smaller inputs from other estuaries decrease the TA values in the coastal  
71 waters. This decrease is considerably less due to the high alkalinity content of the Mississippi  
72 River and other rivers draining to the Gulf of Mexico (Keul *et al.*, 2010).

73 *Millero et al.* [1998] developed a set of algorithms for estimating salinity-normalized  
74 TA in global oceans using historical TA measurements and TA measured during global  
75 carbon surveys during 1990s. *Lee et al.* [2006] updated those algorithms with five polynomial  
76 algorithms for estimating TA in five major oceanographic regimes using Sea Surface Salinity  
77 (SSS) and Sea Surface Temperature (SST) as explanatory variables. These oceanographic  
78 regimes include the Subtropics, the Equatorial upwelling Pacific, the North Atlantic, the

79 North Pacific, and the Southern Ocean. The N-GoM region is close to zone 1 (i.e. the  
80 Subtropics) as described by *Lee et al.* [2006]. However, the calibration dataset of the TA  
81 algorithm for zone 1 lacked *in situ* data from the N-GoM region, which likely explains the  
82 bias of the algorithm for the N-GoM region.

83 The Mississippi River is the largest river influencing N-GoM, with an average  
84 discharge of about  $1.35 \pm 0.2 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  based on 64 years of United States Geological  
85 Survey discharge data [*Hu et al.*, 2005]. At the Mississippi River outfall and shelf area, high  
86 net pCO<sub>2</sub> is evidenced due to heterotrophic production of CO<sub>2</sub> from land-derived organic  
87 carbon [*Cai*, 2003]. It is further influenced by autotrophically produced organic carbon  
88 caused by high nutrient loading leading to CO<sub>2</sub> drawdown in shelf surface water [*Ternon et*  
89 *al.*, 2000; *Huang et al.*, 2015] and heterotrophy of autotrophically produced carbon [*Cai &*  
90 *Lohrenz*, 2006], which acts as an additional pCO<sub>2</sub> source [*Lohrenz & Cai*, 2006]. *Guo et al.*  
91 [2012] reported that the net autotrophic production of carbon at the Mississippi River plume  
92 is even higher than the Amazon system. The nutrient-rich Mississippi River water coupled  
93 with outflow from other rivers influences carbon dynamics of the N-GoM coastal ecosystem  
94 [*Lohrenz & Cai*, 2006], causes bottom water hypoxia in the region [*Rabalais et al.*, 2002],  
95 and impacts the marine ecosystem, affecting fisheries and coral reefs in the N-GoM [*Hu et*  
96 *al.*, 2003; *Salisbury et al.*, 2001; *Walker*, 1996; *Inoue et al.*, 2008]. Thus, the N-GoM coastal  
97 region is biologically and chemically complex and is significantly different from the rest of  
98 the subtropical ocean. In past research, chlorophyll *a* (chl-*a*) has been used as a proxy for  
99 primary production in estimating pCO<sub>2</sub> [*Lohrenz & Cai*, 2006]. Thus, the incorporation of  
100 chl-*a* as an explanatory variable has great potential to increase TA algorithm performance.

101 It is difficult to account for the high degree of spatial and temporal variability in  
102 carbonate system parameters in the coastal waters using an algorithm that was developed for  
103 the open ocean due to the biological and chemical complexities of the coastal waters, as well

104 as the variable freshwater influence. Spatial variability in the relationships between  
105 parameters is referred to as spatial nonstationarity [Brunsdon *et al.*, 1996]. Geographically  
106 weighted regression (GWR) is a statistical modeling technique that attempts to address the  
107 spatial nonstationarity [Brunsdon *et al.*, 2010], the spatial variation of complexities in ocean  
108 chemistry and acidification processes in coastal waters. The GWR approach generates a set of  
109 coefficients for each point in space empirically using the provided functional form for the  
110 regression equations. In the case of estimating carbonate system parameters, the GWR  
111 approach has great potential in accounting for the spatial variability of the influence of  
112 biogeochemical processes on the explanatory variables.

113         The objective of this effort was to develop a revised empirical algorithm for  
114 estimating TA in the coastal waters of the N-GoM by proposing an improved functional form  
115 incorporating chl-*a* as an additional explanatory variable, and utilizing GWR to address  
116 spatial nonstationarity in the N-GoM domain.

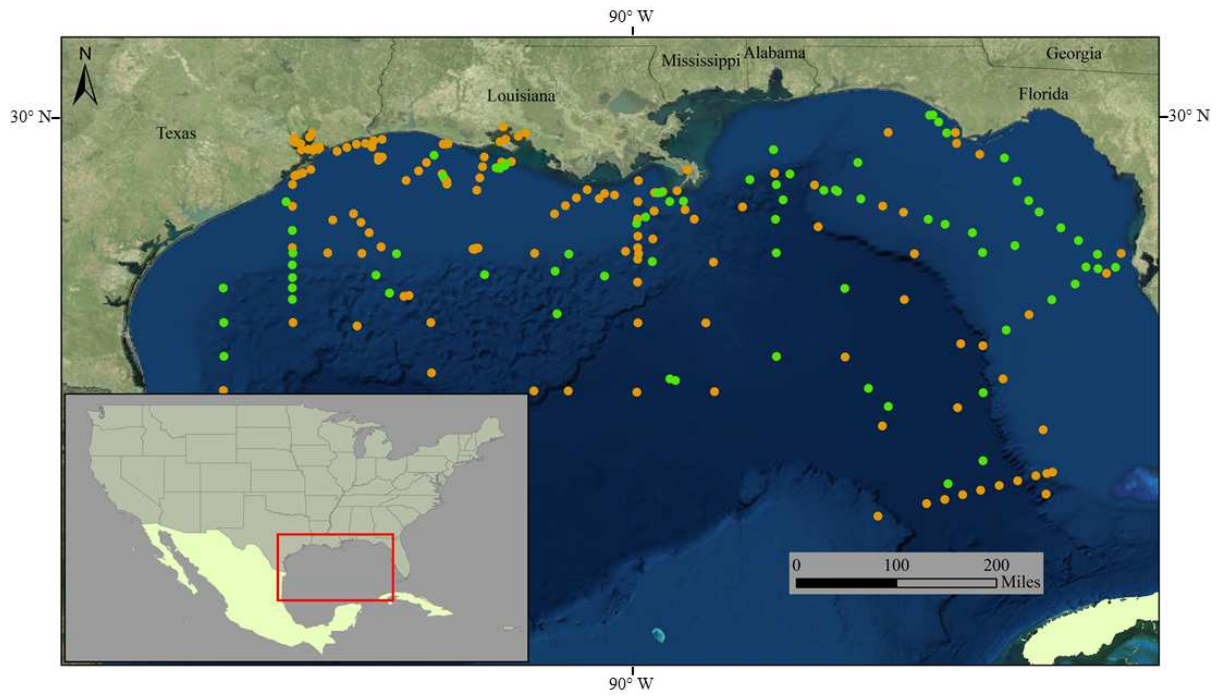
## 117 **Materials and Methods**

118         *In situ* TA, SST, and SSS data, and satellite-derived chl-*a* were used for the  
119 development and testing of the algorithms in this study. The algorithms were later applied to  
120 satellite derived SST, SSS, and Chl-*a* imagery to illustrate the efficacy of the algorithms in  
121 showing the spatial distribution of TA using the derived algorithm. A total of 247  
122 observations of TA, SST, and SSS each were assimilated from the *in situ* data collected  
123 during numerous research cruises from July 2007 to September 2013 in the N-GoM (Table 1;  
124 Fig. 1). The areal extent of these observations is about 474,219 sq km rendering an average of  
125 one observation per 41 km x 41 km area. *In situ* SSS and SST values were used to estimate  
126 TA using each of the five algorithms given by Lee *et al.* [2006] and estimated TA values  
127 were compared with *in situ* measured TA values. As the N-GoM is closer to the zone 1, it  
128 was expected that the TA estimation error would be lowest with this algorithm. However, the

129 lowest error was found when the algorithm that was developed for zone 4 was used, with  
130 zone 1's algorithm performing second best (Table 2). While error was smallest with the zone  
131 4 algorithm, the zone 1 algorithm was selected due to its geographic proximity to the study  
132 region and its simpler functional form than the zone 4 algorithm. The zone 4 algorithm  
133 incorporates longitude as an exploratory variable, which would be redundant in the presented  
134 GWR algorithm. The zone 1 algorithm coefficients were modified to investigate potential  
135 improvement in TA estimations in the N-GoM. This was done by maintaining the functional  
136 form of the algorithm but updating the algorithm coefficients by cross-validation.

137         Next, the functional form of the algorithm was modified to lower the standard errors  
138 of the coefficients in the algorithm by introducing *Chl-a* as an additional explanatory  
139 variable. *Chl-a* data were derived from a time-series of MODIS satellite imagery, processed  
140 using the SeaDAS software package v7.4 with the default atmospheric correction. Out of the  
141 247 locations with TA observations, MODIS derived *chl-a* were available for only 78  
142 locations (Fig. 1) due to cloud cover and atmospheric correction failure at certain coastal  
143 locations. This reduction in observations led to a study area reduction to 359,397 sq km with  
144 an average of one observation per 67 km x 67 km area.

145         Using the data from these 78 locations, the TA algorithm was modified by adding a  
146 linear term for *chl-a*, along with the modified functional forms for SSS and SST. Finally,  
147 geographically weighted regression (GWR) was carried out with SSS, SST, and *chl-a* as  
148 explanatory variables and TA as the dependent variable. While the 78 data points constituted  
149 a limited dataset, the distribution of observations was still relatively uniform. Due to the  
150 paucity of data, GWR was chosen to improve the algorithm since GWR allows coefficients to  
151 vary continuously over the study area, and a set of coefficients are estimated for each location  
152 – typically on a grid using a weighted approach so that the coefficient rasters account for the  
153 spatial heterogeneity. The open source GWR4 Semiparametric GWR/GWGL Modeling Tool



154

155 **Fig. 1.** *In situ* observations of Total Alkalinity (TA), Sea Surface Salinity (SSS), Sea Surface Temperature  
 156 (SST) and chlorophyll *a* (chl-*a*) used in this study. The green points represent the availability of chl-*a* in  
 157 addition to TA, SSS, and SST, while orange points represent the availability of TA, SSS, and SST.

158 (version 4.09; 2016) developed by the National Centre for Geo-computation, Ireland and  
 159 Ritsumeikan University, Japan, was used to carry out GWR with an Adaptive Gaussian  
 160 Kernel (AGK) with cross-validation as the selection criteria [Brunsdon *et al.*, 1996]. During  
 161 the GWR algorithm development, weights for each data point were computed based on the  
 162 relative distance between the point under consideration and the rest of the observations using  
 163 AGK [Charlton and Fotheringham, 2009]. The rate of decrease in the weights was calculated  
 164 using the AGK. This kernel function, unlike Fixed Kernel, uses dynamic bandwidth distance  
 165 where the bandwidth-distance is automatically chosen with a smaller dynamic bandwidth  
 166 distance for the regions with a higher number of observations and higher dynamic bandwidth  
 167 distance for the regions with a lower number of observations. The AGK was chosen because  
 168 of non-uniform spatial distribution density of observations in the dataset.

169 All these algorithms were developed using all available *in situ* data and validated  
 170 using a 10-fold cross-validation approach. For validation, the dataset was randomly divided



171 **Table 1.** Datasets used in this study

Cruise Name	Vessel Name	Data Collection Date	Organization
RB-07-05	GOMECC 1 - R/V Ronald H. Brown	July 2007	NOAA-AOML
Gordon Gunter - GU0802	R/V Gordon Gunter	May 2008	NOAA-AOML
NODC Accession 0081040*	Pacific Celebes	December 2007; April-May 2008; February, March, July 2009	NOAA
Tara Oceans Expedition	Tara Oceans Consortium**	August 2009	PANGAEA
Lophelia II – Cruise 3	R/V Ronald Brown	August-September 2009	NOAA
NF10-13	NOAA ship Nancy Foster	July 2010	NOAA
NCEI Accession 0144622 <sup>#</sup>	Weatherbird II	May 2011	NOAA-NCEI
NCEI Accession 01574614 <sup>##</sup>	PELICAN	September 2013	NOAA

172 \* NODC Accession 0081040, Hydes et al. (2011);

173 \*\* Tara Oceans Consortium; PANGAEA, <https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.839230>, Picheral et al. (2014);

174 # National Centers for Environmental information (NCEI) Accession 0144622, Barrera et al. (2016);

175 ## NCEI Accession 0157461, Salisbury et al. (2016)

176 into ten subgroups. An algorithm was developed using the data from the nine subgroups and  
 177 validated using the 10th subgroup. This was repeated nine times so that each subgroup could  
 178 be used for validation and in the calculation of the residuals. Subsequently, mean absolute  
 179 error (MAE) and root mean square error (RMSE) were calculated for the estimated TA and

180 **Table 2.** Deviations in total alkalinity ( $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ ) observed when Lee et al. (2006)

181 algorithms were applied to the Gulf of Mexico dataset

Parameter	Zone 1	Zone 2	Zone 3	Zone 4	Zone 5
RMSD*	272.6	481.7	308.1	243.7	320.6
%RMSD	11.4	20.1	12.8	10.2	13.4
MAD <sup>#</sup>	183.9	339.4	176.5	166.9	164.4
%MAD	7.7	14.2	7.4	7.0	6.9

182 \* RMSD = Root Mean Square Deviation

183 # MAD = Mean Absolute Deviation

184 the median RMSEs and MAEs were compared between the algorithms. This approach  
185 allowed the use of all the data for algorithm development and validation. Finally, TA images  
186 were generated by using the developed algorithms with SSS from the Soil Moisture Active  
187 Passive (SMAP) sensor, and SST and chl-*a* from the Aqua MODIS sensor.

## 188 **Results**

189 A set of algorithms are given by *Lee et al.* [2006] for estimating global distribution of  
190 surface alkalinity using SSS and SST as explanatory variables. For the purpose of evaluating  
191 the existing algorithm performance in N-GoM, the algorithm developed for zone 1 was tested  
192 to estimate TA using *in situ* SSS and SST data. The *Lee et al.* [2006] algorithm for zone 1 is  
193 given by:

$$194 \quad TA = 2305 + 58.66 (SSS-35) + 2.32 (SSS-35)^2 - 1.41 (SST-20) + 0.04 (SST-20)^2 \quad (1)$$

195 Estimated TA values were compared with *in situ* measured TA for quantifying the  
196 algorithm accuracy within the N-GoM domain. This algorithm produced a median RMSE of  
197 272.6  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  with a %RMSE of 11.4% and a MAE of 183.9  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  with a %MAE of  
198 7.7% (Tables 1 & 3). The distribution of the residuals as percent error (calculated as [*in situ*  
199 TA–estimated TA)/*in situ* TA] x 100) illustrates that the TA values were mostly  
200 underestimated by the *Lee et al.* [2006] zone 1 algorithm (Fig. 2a & 2b). Fig. 3a shows the  
201 residual percentages on a map, revealing the highest TA estimate deviations (range: 10-80%)  
202 were primarily located in coastal waters. In the central GoM, the deviation of estimated  
203 values was less (< 2%) from the *in situ* measured values. Hence, the *Lee et al.* [2006]  
204 algorithm seems well suited for the central GoM but performs poorly near the coast. To  
205 address this bias, the *Lee et al.* [2006] zone 1 algorithm was updated using the coastal *in situ*  
206 data to modify the algorithm coefficients. The resulting modified algorithm was:

$$\begin{aligned}
207 \quad & \text{TA} = 3299.394 + 7.449 (\text{SSS}-35) - 0.083 (\text{SSS}-35)^2 - 250.062 (\text{SST}-20) + 15.784 \\
208 \quad & (\text{SST}-20)^2 \quad \quad \quad (2)
\end{aligned}$$

209 A comparison of this algorithm with the zone 1 algorithm of *Lee et al.* [2006]  
210 revealed that the effect of SSS on TA is different in the N-GoM region relative to the  
211 subtropical region as the magnitude of SSS coefficients were smaller in Eq. 2 compared to  
212 Eq. 1. Additionally, the effect of SST on TA was more pronounced in the N-GoM region than  
213 the subtropics, as evidenced by the larger SST coefficients in the updated algorithm. The  
214 modification produced notable improvements, as the median RMSE was  $94.5 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  with  
215 a range from  $76.5$  to  $112.4 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  for this algorithm (Table 3), which is a 65%  
216 improvement over the zone 1 algorithm provided by *Lee et al.* [2006]. Moreover, the  
217 residuals and comparison of *in situ* and estimated TA showed significant improvements (Fig.  
218 2c & 2d). However, the coefficient for the third term  $(\text{SSS}-35)^2$  had a very high standard error  
219 (error for  $X_2 = 91\%$ ; Table 3) suggesting high algorithm instability with this coefficient.

220 Initially, a regression without including the salinity parameter (with only two terms of  
221 SST) was carried out. This resulted in an algorithm with high coefficient standard errors;  
222 30% for the first SST term and 33% for the second SST term and a lower adjusted  $R^2$  (0.13).  
223 Similarly, a regression with SSS alone also did not yield a good algorithm. To address the  
224 issue of higher coefficient standard errors and lower adjusted  $R^2$ , several functional forms  
225 were tested after including both SSS and SST. Ultimately, an exponential equation with  
226 modification in the parameters (comprising one SSS and two SST terms) produced the best  
227 algorithm with lower RMSE, lower standard error, and higher adjusted  $R^2$ , which is given by:

$$228 \quad \text{TA} = \exp [8.053 - 0.000156 (\text{SSS}-35)^2 - 0.0562 (\text{SST}-20)^2 + 0.000272 (\text{SST}-20)^3] \quad (3)$$

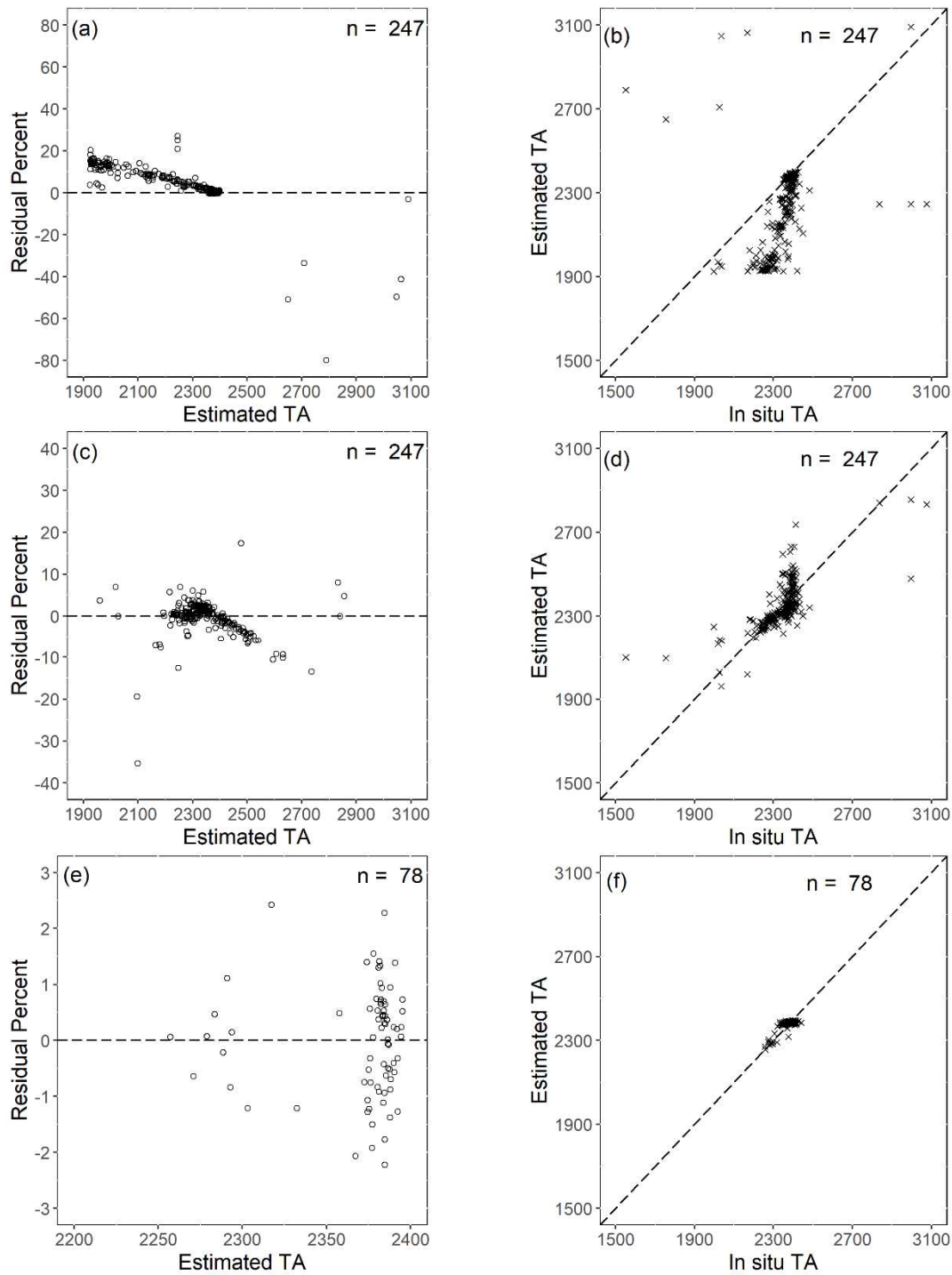
229 Modification in the functional form decreased the standard error for the coefficient of  
230 the second and third terms from 27% to 10% and 91% to 8%, respectively (Table 3).  
231 However, there was a decrease in  $R^2$  and an increase in the RMSE (Table 3). As such,

232 chlorophyll *a* (chl-*a*) was added as an additional explanatory variable to the algorithm. The  
233 correlation between chl-*a* and TA was found to be -0.74 which indicates it may be a  
234 confounding variable that requires addressing. After adding chl-*a*, various modifications to  
235 the functional form were tested and it was found that an algorithm with SSS and SST  
236 interaction term produced the most efficient algorithm when chl-*a* was included in the  
237 algorithm. Among all the algorithms, the one with the highest R<sup>2</sup> (0.61), lowest RMSE (22.6  
238 μmol kg<sup>-1</sup>) and lowest standard error for the coefficients (Table 3) was chosen, which is given  
239 by:

$$240 \text{ TA} = \exp [7.727 - 0.000385 (\text{SSS}-35)^2 + 0.00162 (\text{SSS} \times \text{SST})^{1/2} - 0.00212 \text{ chl-}a] \quad (4)$$

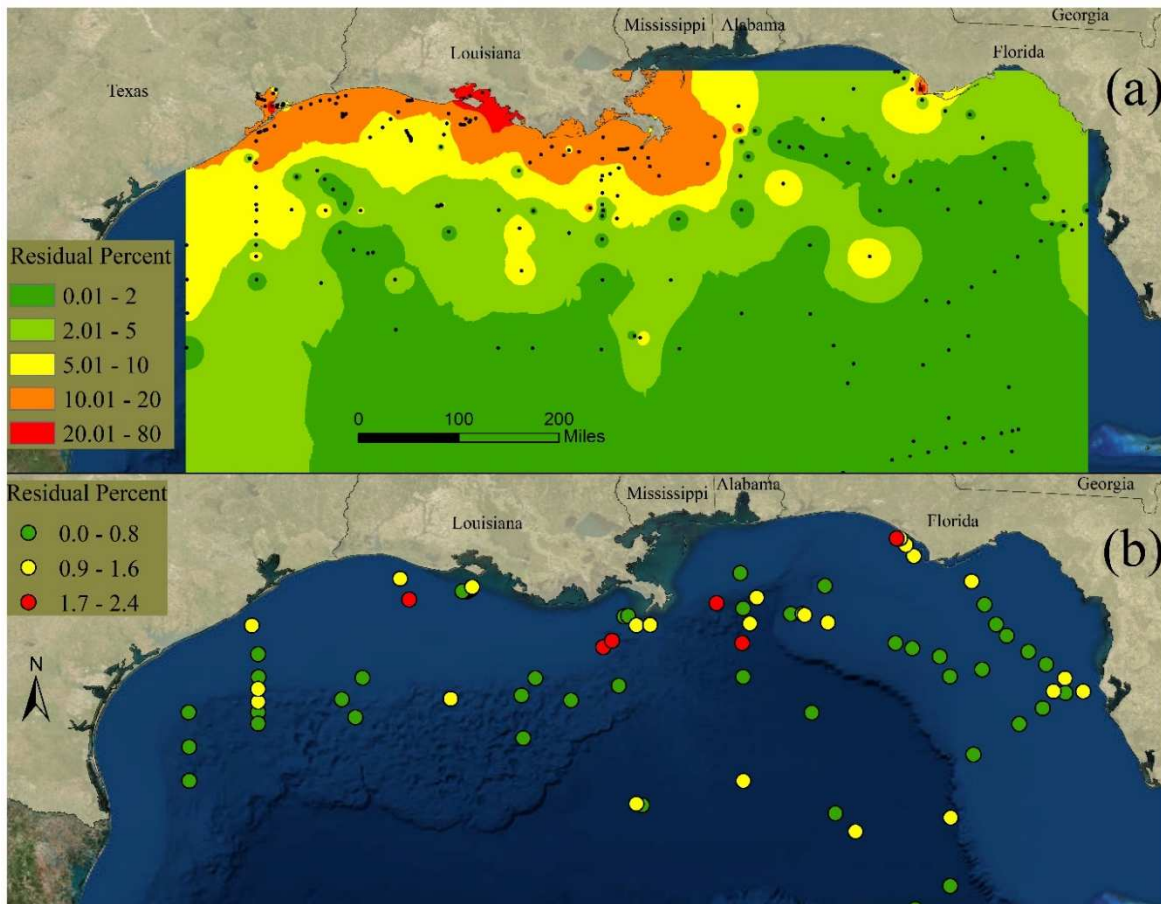
241 The inclusion of chl-*a* as an explanatory variable improved the algorithm considerably,  
242 however, the adjusted R<sup>2</sup> was still less than that of Eq. 2 (Table 3). Next, a GWR algorithm  
243 was developed using the above functional form that includes chl-*a* as the additional  
244 explanatory variable. The output from the GWR approach was the value of the coefficients at  
245 each point. However, the coefficients were noisy, so the cubic spline surface interpolation  
246 was performed to develop smooth raster surfaces of the coefficients over the spatial domain.

247 The raster images for the four coefficients showing the range of values in the N-GoM  
248 are shown in Fig. 4 and given as an Arc GIS map package as supplementary material. For  
249 example, a resulting raster surface for the second coefficient 'X<sub>1</sub>' [the (SSS-35)<sup>2</sup> term] ranged  
250 between 0.000350 to 0.000410 (Fig. 4). The coefficients in coastal locations differed  
251 significantly from those in the central GoM. These differences suggest the spatial variation in  
252 the importance of the explanatory variables in TA estimations, which likely arise from local  
253 effects of biogeochemical processes that affect carbonate chemistry. An adjusted R<sup>2</sup> of 0.69  
254 was obtained for the GWR algorithm (Table 3), which is the highest adjusted R<sup>2</sup> obtained in  
255 this study, indicating that the algorithm best fits the data. The residuals were also randomly  
256 distributed for this algorithm (Fig. 2e). Notably, most points were closer to the 1:1 line (Fig.



257

258 **Figure 2.** (a) Residuals of *Lee et al.* [2006] zone 1 algorithm (Eq. 1) as percent error, (b) comparison of *in situ*  
 259 and estimated total alkalinity (TA) using *Lee et al.* [2006] zone 1 algorithm (Eq. 1), (c) residuals of the TA  
 260 algorithm with modified coefficients (Eq. 2) as percent error, (d) comparison of *in situ* and estimated TA using  
 261 Eq. 2, (e) residuals of TA derived using geographically weighted regression (GWR) algorithm as percent error,  
 262 (f) comparison of *in situ* and estimated TA obtained using the GWR algorithm developed in this study.



263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

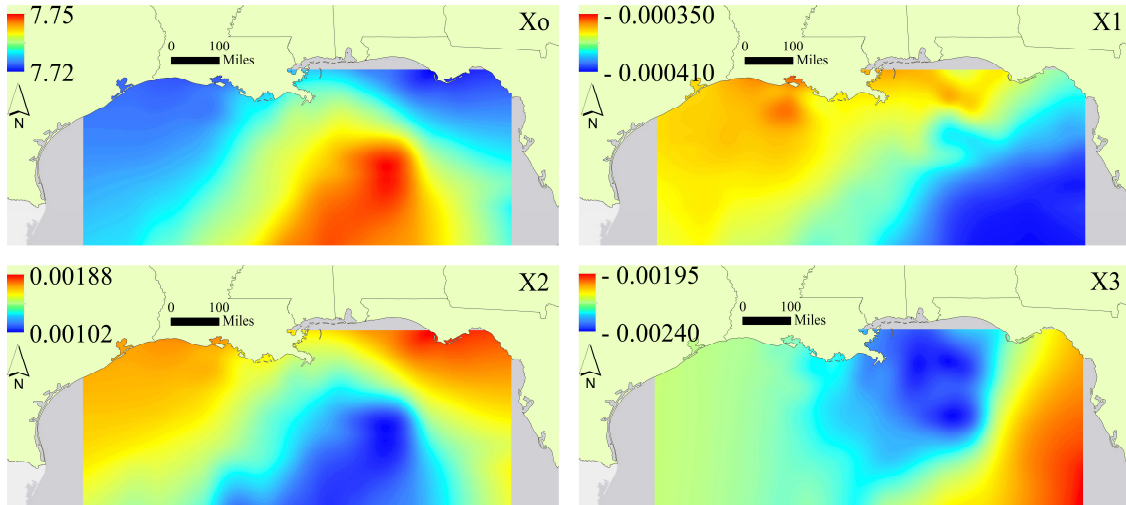
**Figure 3.** Residual percentages for (a) *Lee et al.* [2006] zone 1 algorithm, where the residuals were classified into five classes and the classes are shown using spline surface interpolation, (b) the geographically weighted regression (GWR) algorithm developed in this study.

2f) for the GWR algorithm relative to that of other algorithms (Fig. 2b and 2d), suggesting the GWR algorithm is in good agreement with the *in situ* TA values. Additionally, there is an absence of a spatial trend in the GWR residuals (Fig. 3b) when compared to the residuals of *Lee et al.* [2006] zone 1 algorithm (Fig. 3a). Clearly, the GWR approach significantly reduced spatial nonstationarity in the TA estimates, deeming this approach more valid.

All the algorithms were applied to MODIS-derived SST and chl-*a*, and SMAP-derived SSS images of February 10, 2016 to obtain TA images by multiplying the coefficient rasters with the SST, SSS, and chl-*a* images as per the functional form of the algorithm provided in Eq. 4. The higher SSS coefficient magnitudes in the *Lee et al.* [2006] zone 1

**Table 3.** Summary statistics of the existing and developed algorithms.

	<i>Lee et al.</i> [2006] algorithm (Eq. 1)	Algorithm with modified coefficients (Eq. 2)	Algorithm with modified functional form (Eq. 3)	Algorithm with chl- <i>a</i> as an additional explanatory variable in addition to SSS & SST (Eq. 4)	Geographic Weighted Regression algorithm
MAE ( $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ )	183.9	Median = 57.1 (Range = 47.4, 66.8)	Median = 65.9 (Range = 55.3, 76.4)	Median = 19.2 (Range = 17.1, 21.3)	Median = 19.3 (Range = 17, 22.1)
%MAE (%)	7.7	Median = 2.1 (Range = 1.8, 2.5)	Median = 2.7 (Range = 2.4, 2.9)	Median = 0.7 (Range = 0.6, 0.9)	Median = 0.8 (Range = 0.6, 0.8)
RMSE ( $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ )	272.6	Median = 94.5 (Range = 76.5, 112.4)	Median = 102.1 (Range = 90.9, 113.3)	Median = 22.6 (Range = 20.1, 25)	Median = 22.7 (Range = 20.1, 24.8)
%RMSE (%)	11.4	Median = 3.5 (Range = 3.1, 3.9)	Median = 5.1 (Range = 4, 6.2)	Median = 0.89 (Range = 0.76, 1.02)	Median = 0.89 (Range = 0.76, 1.0)
Adjusted $R^2$	NA	0.66	0.59	0.61	0.69
Standard Error (%)	NA	X <sub>0</sub> :1.6 X <sub>1</sub> :27 X <sub>2</sub> :91 X <sub>3</sub> :7 X <sub>4</sub> :7	X <sub>0</sub> :0.2 X <sub>1</sub> :10 X <sub>2</sub> :8 X <sub>3</sub> :10	X <sub>0</sub> :0.4 X <sub>1</sub> :23 X <sub>2</sub> :59 X <sub>3</sub> :48	X <sub>0</sub> :0.4 X <sub>1</sub> :22 X <sub>2</sub> :55 X <sub>3</sub> :42



277  
 278 **Figure 4.** Range of values of the four coefficients  $X_0$ ,  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ , and  $X_3$  in the geographic weighted regression  
 279 (GWR) algorithm for the northern Gulf of Mexico for the equation  $TA = \exp [X_0 + X_1 (SSS-35)^2 + X_2 (SSS$   
 280  $\times SST)^{1/2} + X_3 \text{ chl-}a]$ . These rasters are provided in the Arc GIS map package with this submission.

281 Multiplying those rasters to a set of sea surface temperature, salinity, and chlorophyll a rasters as per the  
 282 provided functional form of the algorithm will produce the corresponding total alkalinity image.

283 algorithm suggest TA estimated by that algorithm was highly influenced by SSS. The  
 284 resulting TA image (Fig. 5d) appears very similar to the SSS image (Fig. 5a) and is  
 285 strongly correlated at 0.97. With the improved GWR algorithm, the resulting TA image  
 286 displays the influence of SST, SSS, and chl-*a* on TA (Fig. 4e). Specifically, due to high  
 287 chl-*a* concentrations near the Mississippi River outfall (red color in Fig. 5c), the TA  
 288 values are estimated to be low (blue in Fig. 5e). Thus, the coastal region showed  
 289 improved estimates. Differences between the GWR algorithm and the *Lee et al.* [2006]  
 290 zone 1 algorithm (Eq. 1) with chl-*a* is displayed in Fig. 5f, and the improvement offered  
 291 by GWR is clearly demonstrated. The *Lee et al.* [2006] algorithm underestimated TA in  
 292 the coastal waters (shown in deep blue in Fig. 5d and red in Fig. 5f), and over-estimated

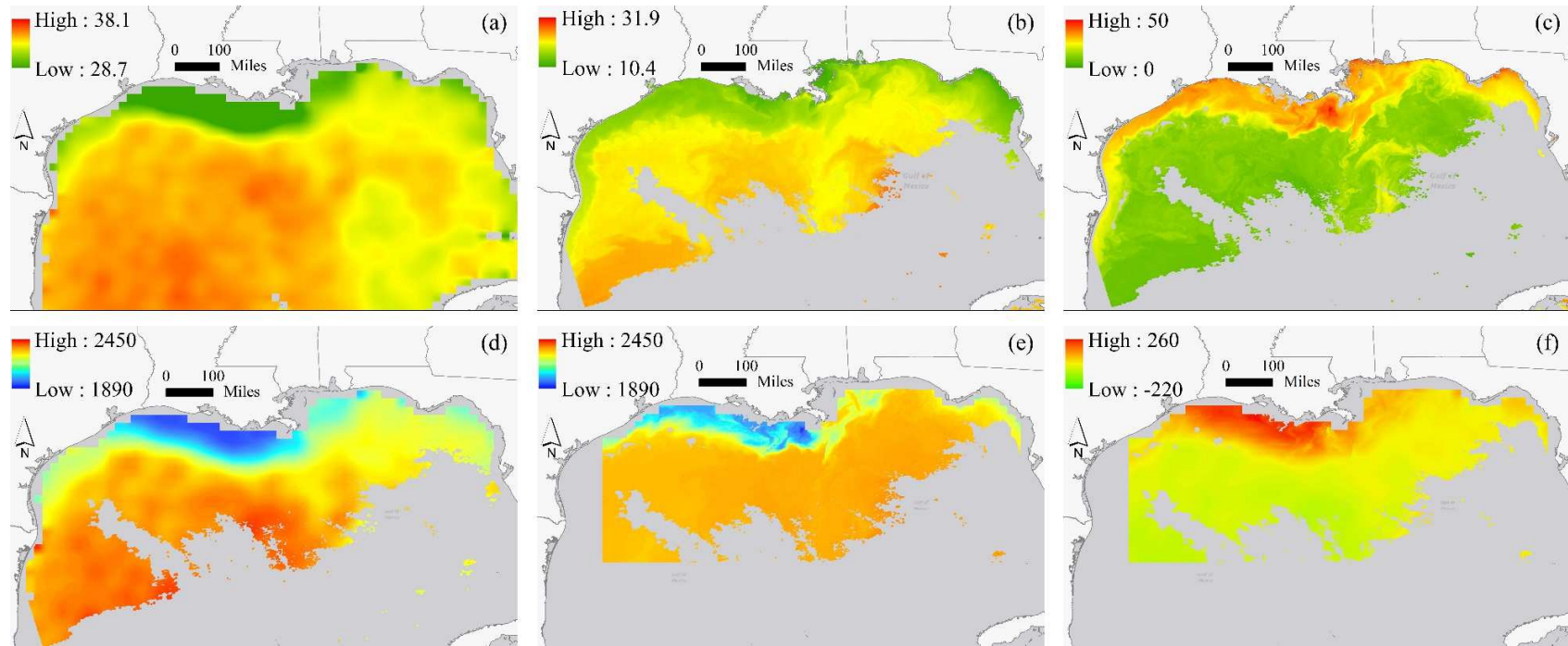


293 in the areas away from the coastal region (green color in Fig. 5f) compared to the image  
294 generated using the GWR algorithm.

## 295 **Discussion**

296 When the *Lee et al.* [2006] algorithm, which was developed for subtropical open  
297 ocean waters, was applied to the N-GoM dataset, the residuals showed a clear trend and  
298 the TA was mostly underestimated (Fig. 2a & 2b). The highest residuals were located in  
299 coastal waters (Fig. 3a), likely a result of the lack of *in situ* data from the N-GoM in the  
300 *Lee et al.* [2006] algorithm calibration. Errors were reduced by 65% when the algorithm  
301 coefficients were updated using *in situ* data from N-GoM, but the algorithm coefficients  
302 had high standard errors after the update. To alleviate this issue, an exponential  
303 functional form was used, which decreased the standard errors in the coefficients  
304 significantly (Table 3).

305 Ocean chemistry is significantly different in the N-GoM, relative to the  
306 subtropical Atlantic, owing to the pronounced effects of coastal biogeochemistry heavily  
307 influenced by the Mississippi River and outflow from other rivers which supply nutrients  
308 and alkalinity [*Cai et al.*, 2011; *Lohrenz & Cai*, 2006]. *Schneider et al.* [2007] was able  
309 to obtain a working algorithm for TA estimation in the Mediterranean Sea using SSS  
310 alone. However, for the N-GoM region, use of only SSS or only SST or even SSS and  
311 SST together resulted in high RMSEs possibly because of the influence of the Mississippi  
312 River and outflow from other rivers. Thus, chl-*a* was introduced as an additional  
313 explanatory variable in the TA algorithm to serve as a proxy for primary production  
314 along with an interaction term between SST and SSS. More recently, *Fine et al.* [2017]  
315 investigated global TA derived using *Lee et al.* [2006] algorithms and reported that the



316

317 **Figure 5.** Satellites derived products and estimated sea surface total alkalinity (TA) in  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$  for February 10, 2016, **(a)** sea surface salinity (SSS) in  
 318 parts per thousand, **(b)** sea surface temperature (SST) in  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , **(c)** Chlorophyll a (chl-a) in  $\mu\text{g/L}$ , **(d)** TA estimated using *Lee et al.* [2006] zone 1 algorithm  
 319 (Eq. 1), **(e)** TA estimated using the geographically weighted regression (GWR) algorithm, **(f)** Difference between TA estimated using GWR and *Lee et al.*  
 320 [2006] zone 1 algorithm.

321 errors in estimated TA in North Atlantic and Pacific were due to higher observed SST and  
322 SSS in large percentages than the ranges given for *Lee et al.* [2006] algorithms. An  
323 underestimation of TA was observed in this study for the same reason in the N-GoM. Hence,  
324 a regional parameterization of the algorithm using observed values in the N-GoM improved  
325 the algorithm considerably by reducing the median RMSE from 272.6 to 22.6  $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ .

326         However, the standard error in the coefficients increased slightly as the sample sizes  
327 were significantly reduced (247 to 78 observations) when chl-*a* data were included. While the  
328 introduction of chl-*a* offered improvements in the TA estimates in the coastal region, GWR  
329 was tested to minimize spatial nonstationarity. The resulting GWR algorithm provided  
330 several interesting observations, one clear observation was the difference in coefficient  
331 magnitudes between coastal areas and the central GoM. These differences resulted from the  
332 biological and chemical complexities of the coastal waters as compared to the central GoM  
333 and was not revealed without using the GWR approach (Fig. 4 & 5).

334         In the development of the algorithms, it was clear that the *Lee et al.* [2006] zone 1  
335 algorithm relied heavily upon SSS. Contrarily, the improvements based on the *Lee et al.*  
336 [2006] algorithm offered here incorporated the effects of SSS, SST, and chl-*a* in its  
337 calculations of TA. These results support the work by *Keul et al.* [2010] which showed that  
338 the TA-salinity relationships from *Lee et al.* [2006] do not apply to shelf waters effectively.  
339 Adding the chl-*a* variable produced more accurate TA estimates relative to *Lee et al.* [2006]  
340 in the N-GoM. The adjustments offered by the GWR algorithm in the coastal regions of the  
341 study domain were also very apparent when comparing it side-by-side with the image  
342 generated by applying the *Lee et al.* [2006] zone 1 algorithm (Figs. 4d and 4e). Overall, the  
343 estimated TA obtained by the GWR algorithm corresponded well to the findings of *Keul et*  
344 *al.* [2010] and the expected TA in the N-GoM. Nevertheless, a denser observation  
345 distribution would address local spatial effects more accurately. While observation density

346 was low, the distribution of observations was relatively uniform, suggesting the algorithm  
347 coefficients derived from the GWR approach are able to produce reasonable estimates of TA  
348 in the N-GoM. Mississippi River and other small rivers supply TA into the N-GoM, and there  
349 is significant seasonal variability in TA and nutrient levels in the N-GoM. The relationship of  
350 TA with SSS, SST, and Chl-*a* is dependent on mixing. Thus, the GWR approach and the use  
351 of three variables, SSS, SST, and Chl-*a* in the algorithm account for this variability to a great  
352 extent, making this approach potentially applicable to other coastal systems around the world.

### 353 **Conclusions**

354         The *Lee et al.* [2006] TA algorithm, which was developed for the subtropical oceans  
355 did not perform efficiently in estimating TA in the N-GoM coastal regions likely owing to the  
356 biological and chemical complexities in the coastal waters caused by the outflow of the  
357 Mississippi River and other smaller rivers. An improved algorithm was formulated by using  
358 *in situ* data from the N-GoM region and by introducing satellite-derived chl-*a* in the  
359 algorithm. Prior to including chl-*a*, the coefficients and the functional form of the *Lee et al.*  
360 [2006] TA algorithm were modified with decreased standard errors. The addition of an  
361 interaction term between SSS and SST, and the addition of chl-*a* as an additional explanatory  
362 variable resulted in an increase in adjusted  $R^2$  with least RMSE and MAE. Finally, the GWR  
363 approach offered the most reliable and valid algorithm with highest adjusted  $R^2$  and least  
364 error. *Lee et al.* [2006] global TA algorithm was improved by introducing satellite-derived  
365 chl-*a* as an additional explanatory and by addressing spatial nonstationarity using GWR.  
366 Notable improvement in estimated TA was observed in the coastal N-GoM region with this  
367 approach as it considered both biological complexities and spatial heterogeneity. An Arc GIS  
368 map package has been provided with four rasters with coefficients for the GWR algorithm as  
369 supplementary material. To create TA images, one would simply multiply these raster images  
370 to satellite derived SST and Chl-*a* images and either satellite or model (e.g., HYCOM)

371 derived SSS as per the provided functional form of the algorithm, which can easily be  
372 performed using Arc GIS or any other image processing software or program. Although the  
373 algorithm was successfully improved, future research utilizing a larger dataset from a longer  
374 period covering more locations is still essential to continue to improve TA estimates in N-  
375 GoM or other complex coastal ecosystems especially over the river-influenced coastal  
376 margins.

### 377 **Acknowledgements**

378 This research was partially supported by a NOAA grant NA11OAR4320199 to Dr.  
379 Padmanava Dash. We sincerely thank Dr. Dwight Gledhill, Deputy Director, NOAA ocean  
380 acidification program and Dr. Xinping Hu, Associate Professor, Department of Physical and  
381 Environmental Sciences, Texas A&M University, Corpus Christi for reviewing the  
382 manuscript and suggesting substantial improvements. *In situ* data used in this study was  
383 provided to the community by NOAA-AOML and NOAA-NCEI through PANGAEA. The  
384 satellite data products used in this study were provided to the community by NASA through  
385 the Ocean Biology Processing Group, GSFC, NASA and were processed using NASA's  
386 SeaWiFS Data Analysis System (SeaDAS).

### 387 **References**

388 Barrera, K. E., Knorr, P.O., Daly, K. L., Robbins, L. L. (2016). Partial pressure (or fugacity)  
389 of carbon dioxide, dissolved inorganic carbon, pH, alkalinity, temperature, salinity and  
390 other variables collected from Surface underway observations using Carbon dioxide  
391 (CO<sub>2</sub>) gas analyzer, Shower head chamber equilibrators for autonomous carbon dioxide  
392 (CO<sub>2</sub>) measurement and other instruments from WEATHERBIRD II in the Coastal  
393 Waters of Florida and Gulf of Mexico (NCEI Accession 0144622). Version 1.1. NOAA  
394 National Centers for Environmental Information. Dataset. [Accessed: June 2017]

395 Bever, A. J., Friedrichs, M. A. M., St-Laurent, P. 2021. Real-time environmental forecasts of  
396 the Chesapeake Bay: Model setup, improvements, and online visualization,  
397 *Environmental Modelling & Software*, 140, 105036

398 Brunsdon, C., Fotheringham, A. S., & Charlton, M. E. (1996). Geographically Weighted  
399 Regression: A Method for Exploring Spatial Nonstationarity. *Geographical Analysis*,  
400 28(4), 281–298. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1538-4632.1996.tb00936.x>

401 Brunsdon, C., Fotheringham, A. S., & Charlton, M. E. (2010). Geographically Weighted  
402 Regression: A Method for Exploring Spatial Nonstationarity. *Geographical Analysis*,  
403 28(4), 281–298. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1538-4632.1996.tb00936.x>

404 Cai, W.-J. (2003). Riverine inorganic carbon flux and rate of biological uptake in the  
405 Mississippi River plume. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 30(2).  
406 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2002GL016312>

407 Cai, W.-J., Hu, X., Huang, W.-J., Murrell, M. C., Lehrter, J. C., Lohrenz, S. E., ... Gong, G.-  
408 C. (2011). Acidification of subsurface coastal waters enhanced by eutrophication.  
409 *Nature Geoscience*, 4(11), 766–770. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo1297>

410 Cai, W. J., and S. E. Lohrenz (2006), Carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorous fluxes from the  
411 Mississippi River and the transformation and fate of biological elements in the river  
412 plume and the adjacent margin, in Carbon and Nutrient Fluxes in Continental Margins:  
413 A Global Synthesis, edited by K. K. Liu et al., Springer, New York.

414 Cooley, S. (2009). Ocean acidification. *Oceanography*, 22(4), 172–181.  
415 <https://doi.org/10.5670/oceanog.2009.106>

416 Dickson, A. G. (1981) An exact definition of total alkalinity and a procedure for the  
417 estimation of alkalinity and total inorganic carbon from titration data, *Deep Sea*

418           *Research Part A. Oceanographic Research Papers*, 28(6), 609-623.

419   Fine, R. A., D. A. Willey, and F. J. Millero (2017), Global variability and changes in  
420           ocean total alkalinity from Aquarius satellite data, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 44, 261–267,  
421           doi:10.1002/2016GL071712.

422   Gledhill, D. K., Wanninkhof, R., Millero, F. K., & Eakin, M. (2008). Ocean acidification of  
423           the Greater Caribbean Region 1996-2006. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*,  
424           113(10), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2007JC004629>

425   Gledhill, D., Wanninkhof, R., & Eakin, C. M. (2009). Observing Ocean Acidification from  
426           Space. *Oceanography*, 22(4), 48–59. <https://doi.org/10.5670/oceanog.2009.96>

427   Guo, X., W.-J. Cai, W.-J. Huang, Y. Wang, F. Chen, M.C. Murrell, S.E. Lohrenz, L.-Q.  
428           Jiang, M. Dai, J. Hartmann, Q. Lin, and R. Culp. 2012. Carbon dynamics and  
429           community production in the Mississippi River plume. *Limnology and Oceanography*  
430           57(1): 1–17.

431   Hu, C., Nelson, J. R., Johns, E., Chen, Z., Weisberg, R. H., & Mu, F. E. (2005). Mississippi  
432           River water in the Florida Straits and in the Gulf Stream off Georgia in summer 2004,  
433           32(September 2004), 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005GL022942>

434   Hu, C., Muller-Karger, F. E., Biggs, D. C., Carder, K. L., Nababan, B., Nadeau, D., &  
435           Vanderbloemen, J. (2003). Comparison of ship and satellite bio-optical measurements  
436           on the continental margin of the NE Gulf of Mexico. *International Journal of Remote*  
437           *Sensing*, 24(13), 2597–2612. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0143116031000067007>

438   Hu, X., Li, Q., Huang, W. J., Chen, B., Cai, W. J., Rabalais, N. N., and Turner, R.E. 2017.  
439           Effects of eutrophication and benthic respiration on water column carbonate chemistry  
440           in a traditional hypoxic zone in the Northern Gulf of Mexico. *Marine Chemistry*, 190,

441 33-42.

442 Huang, W.-J., Cai, W.-J., Wang, Y., Lohrenz, S. E. & Murrell, M. C. 2015. The carbon  
443 dioxide system on the Mississippi River-dominated continental shelf in the northern  
444 Gulf of Mexico: 1. Distribution and air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux. *J. Geophys. Res.: Oceans* 120,  
445 1429–1445.

446 Hydes, D., Z. Jiang, M.C. Hartman, J.M. Campbell, S.E. Hartman, M.R. Pagnani, B.A. Kelly-  
447 Gerreyn (2011). Dissolved inorganic carbon, alkalinity, temperature, salinity and  
448 DISSOLVED OXYGEN collected from the profile and discrete sample observations  
449 using Alkalinity titrator, CTD and other instruments from the Pacific Celebes in the  
450 Alboran Sea, the Arabian Sea and others from 2007-06-11 to 2012-03-18 (NODC  
451 Accession 0081040). Version 3.3. National Oceanographic Data Center, NOAA.  
452 Dataset.

453 Inoue, M., Park, D., Justic, D., Wiseman, W. J. 2008. A high-resolution integrated hydrology–  
454 hydrodynamic model of the Barataria Basin system, *Environmental Modelling &*  
455 *Software*, 23, 9, 1122-1132

456 Keul, N., Morse, J. W., Wanninkhof, R., Gledhill, D. K., & Bianchi, T. S. (2010). Carbonate  
457 chemistry dynamics of surface waters in the Northern Gulf of Mexico. *Aquatic*  
458 *Geochemistry*, 16(3), 337–351. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10498-010-9091-2>

459 Lee, K., Tong, L. T., Millero, F. J., Sabine, C. L., Dickson, A. G., Goyet, C., ... Key, R. M.  
460 (2006). Global relationships of total alkalinity with salinity and temperature in surface  
461 waters of the world ' s oceans, 33, 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2006GL027207>

462 Lohrenz, S. E., & Cai, W. (2006). Satellite ocean color assessment of air-sea fluxes of CO<sub>2</sub> in  
463 a river-dominated coastal margin, 33, 2–5. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005GL023942>



464 Mehrbach, C., Culberson, C. H., Hawley, J. E., & Pytkowicz, R. M. (1973). Measurement of  
465 the Apparent Dissociation Constants of Carbonic Acid in Seawater At Atmospheric  
466 Pressure. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 18(6), 897–907.  
467 <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.1973.18.6.0897>

468 Millero, F. J., L. Lee, and M. P. Roche (1998), Distribution of alkalinity in the surface waters  
469 of the major oceans, *Mar. Chem.*, 60, 111–130.

470 Picheral, Marc; Searson, Sarah; Taillandier, Vincent; Bricaud, Annick; Boss, Emmanuel;  
471 Ras, Josephine; Claustre, Hervé; Ouhssain, Mustapha; Morin, Pascal; Coppola, Laurent;  
472 Gattuso, Jean-Pierre; Metzl, Nicolas; Thuillier, Doris; Gorsky, Gabriel; Tara Oceans  
473 Consortium, Coordinators; Tara Oceans Expedition, Participants (2014): Vertical  
474 profiles of environmental parameters measured on discrete water samples collected with  
475 Niskin bottles at station TARA\_143 during the Tara Oceans expedition 2009-2013.  
476 PANGAEA, <https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.839230>. [Accessed: June 2017]

477 Le Quéré C, Andrew, R.M, Canadell, J.G, et al. Global Carbon Budget 2016. *Earth System*  
478 *Science Data* 2016; 8: 605-49.

479 Rabalais, N. N., Turner, R. E., & Wiseman, W. J. (2002). Gulf of Mexico Hypoxia, A.K.A.  
480 “The Dead Zone.” *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, 33(1), 235–263.  
481 <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.33.010802.150513>

482 Raven, J., Caldera, K., Elderfield, H., Hoegh-Guldberg, O., Liss, P., Riebesell, U., ... Quinn,  
483 R. (2005). Ocean acidification due to increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide. *The Royal*  
484 *Society*, (June), 60. Retrieved from [www.royalsoc.ac.uk](http://www.royalsoc.ac.uk)

485 Raymond, P. A., Cole, J. J. (2003) Increase in the export of alkalinity from North America’s  
486 largest river, *Science*, 301:88–91

487 Schneider, A., D. W. R. Wallace, and A. Kortzinger (2007), Alkalinity of the Mediterranean  
488 Sea, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 34, L15608, doi:10.1029/2006GL028842.

489 Salisbury, J. E., Campbell, J. W., Meeker, L. D., & Vörösmarty, C. (2001). Ocean color and  
490 river data reveal fluvial influence in coastal waters. *Eos*, 82(20).  
491 <https://doi.org/10.1029/01EO00117>

492 Salisbury, J., C. Hunt and A. Mannino (2016). Partial pressure (or fugacity) of carbon  
493 dioxide, dissolved inorganic carbon, pH, alkalinity, temperature, salinity and other  
494 variables collected from Surface underway, discrete sample and profile observations  
495 using Alkalinity titrator, CTD and other instruments from PELICAN in the Coastal  
496 Waters of Louisiana, Coastal Waters of Texas and Gulf of Mexico from 2013-09-09 to  
497 2013-09-22 (NCEI Accession 0157461). Version 1.1. NOAA National Centers for  
498 Environmental Information. Dataset. [Accessed: June 2017]

499 Sun, Q., Tang, D., & Wang, S. (2012). Remote-sensing observations relevant to ocean  
500 acidification. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, 33(23), 7542–7558.  
501 <https://doi.org/10.1080/01431161.2012.685978>

502 Takahashi, T., Sutherland, S. C., Feely, R. A., & Wanninkhof, R. (2006). Decadal change of  
503 the surface water pCO<sub>2</sub> in the North Pacific: A synthesis of 35 years of observations.  
504 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 111(7), 1–20.  
505 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005JC003074>

506 Ternon, J. F., C. Oudot, A. Dessier, and D. Diverres (2000), A seasonal tropical sink for  
507 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> in the Atlantic ocean: The role of the Amazon River discharge, *Mar.*  
508 *Chem.*, 68, 183–201.

509 Walker, N. D. (1996). Satellite assessment of Mississippi River plume variability: Causes  
510 and predictability. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 58(1), 21–35.