High-resolution Neural Network Demonstrates Strong CO2 Source-Sink Juxtaposition in the Coastal Zone

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Abstract

Coastal oceans may play an important role in regulating the concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. Quantification of carbon fluxes at this highly dynamic land-ocean interface will aid in monitoring, reporting, and verification for marine carbon dioxide removal. Here, we use a two-step neural network approach to generate basin-wide estimates from sparse observational data in the coastal Northeast Pacific Ocean at an unprecedented spatial resolution of 1/12° with coverage in the nearshore (0 - 25 km offshore). We compiled partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO2) observations as well as a range of predictor variables including satellite-based and physical oceanographic reanalysis products. With the predictor variables representing processes affecting pCO2, we created non-linear relationships to interpolate observations from 1998-2019. Compared to in situ shipboard and mooring observations, our coastal pCO2 product captures broad spatial patterns and seasonal cycle variability well. A sensitivity analysis identifies that the parameters responsible for the neural network's ability to capture regional pCO2 variability agrees with mechanistic processes. Using wind speed and atmospheric CO2, we calculated air-sea CO2 fluxes. We report an anticorrelation between net annual air-sea CO2 flux and air-sea CO2 flux seasonal amplitude and suggest the relationship is driven by regional processes. We show the inclusion of nearshore net outgassing fluxes lowers the overall regional net flux. Overall, our results suggest that the region is a net sink (-0.7 mol m-2 yr-1) for atmospheric CO2 with trends indicating increasing oceanic uptake due to strong connectivity to subsurface waters.

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- 2 Juxtaposition in the Coastal Zone
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- 10 Key Points:
- The coastal Northeast Pacific is a net sink for atmospheric CO₂ with increasing air-sea
 *p*CO₂ disequilibrium trends in most of the region.
- Regional processes drive net annual air-sea CO₂ flux to be anticorrelated with air-sea
 CO₂ flux seasonal amplitude.
- Estimated *p*CO₂ reproduces observed seasonal cycle phase and amplitude well along with
 broad spatial patterns of variability.

17 Abstract

Coastal oceans may play an important role in regulating the concentration of carbon dioxide in 18 19 the atmosphere. Quantification of carbon fluxes at this highly dynamic land-ocean interface will aid in monitoring, reporting, and verification for marine carbon dioxide removal. Here, we use a 20 21 two-step neural network approach to generate basin-wide estimates from sparse observational data in the coastal Northeast Pacific Ocean at an unprecedented spatial resolution of 1/12° with 22 23 coverage in the nearshore (0 - 25 km offshore). We compiled partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO_2) observations as well as a range of predictor variables including satellite-based and 24 physical oceanographic reanalysis products. With the predictor variables representing processes 25 affecting pCO_2 , we created non-linear relationships to interpolate observations from 1998-2019. 26 27 Compared to *in situ* shipboard and mooring observations, our coastal pCO₂ product captures broad spatial patterns and seasonal cycle variability well. A sensitivity analysis identifies that the 28 parameters responsible for the neural network's ability to capture regional pCO_2 variability 29 agrees with mechanistic processes. Using wind speed and atmospheric CO₂, we calculated air-30 31 sea CO₂ fluxes. We report an anticorrelation between net annual air-sea CO₂ flux and air-sea CO_2 flux seasonal amplitude and suggest the relationship is driven by regional processes. We 32 show the inclusion of nearshore net outgassing fluxes lowers the overall regional net flux. 33 Overall, our results suggest that the region is a net sink (-0.7 mol $m^{-2} vr^{-1}$) for atmospheric CO₂ 34 with trends indicating increasing oceanic uptake due to strong connectivity to subsurface waters. 35

36 Plain Language Summary

The importance of the coastal ocean as a hub of exchange for carbon between terrestrial 37 ecosystems, the open ocean, and the atmosphere is still unclear. In this study, we investigate how 38 much carbon dioxide moves between the ocean and the atmosphere in the coastal Northeast 39 Pacific. We use a mathematical technique (i.e., machine learning) to transform limited 40 observational data to a high-resolution estimate of this exchange across the entire region. We 41 found this method effectively captured the big picture patterns and seasonal changes in ocean 42 carbon dioxide levels. We report that the coastal Northeast Pacific absorbs slightly more carbon 43 44 dioxide than it releases, helping regulate atmospheric levels of this greenhouse gas. However, there are large differences regionally with some coastal zones absorbing substantial amounts of 45 carbon dioxide and others releasing the gas, such as the nearshore. We report a trend of 46 increasing ocean uptake over time, suggesting the region may play an increasingly important role 47

in reducing atmospheric carbon dioxide levels. This study provides valuable baseline information

49 for efforts to reduce carbon dioxide in the atmosphere through artificially enhancing ocean

50 uptake in the region.

51 **1 Introduction**

The global ocean takes up nearly a quarter of anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO_2) 52 emissions annually (Friedlingstein et al., 2023). It has been suggested coastal oceans contribute 53 disproportionately to oceanic CO₂ uptake relative to global ocean by surface area (Bourgeois et 54 al., 2016; Chau et al., 2022; Laruelle et al., 2014; Resplandy et al., 2024; Roobaert et al., 2019, 55 2024), but exhibit far greater heterogeneity in air-sea CO_2 fluxes (Liu et al., 2010) and may be 56 changing at a different rate compared to the open ocean (Laruelle et al., 2018; Resplandy et al., 57 2024). Coastal oceans serve as an important hub of exchange, outgassing carbon delivered by 58 terrestrial ecosystems to the ocean (Regnier et al., 2022), while facilitating transport between the 59 coast and open ocean, and directly absorbing CO_2 from the atmosphere (Bauer et al., 2013; C.-T. 60 A. Chen & Borges, 2009; Mackenzie et al., 1998; Ward et al., 2020). However, the role of the 61 coastal ocean in the global carbon budget is not well-constrained due to lack of observations 62 63 relative to the complexity of highly localized variability (Chavez et al., 2007; Dai, 2021; Dai et al., 2022). 64

Gap filling approaches (i.e., methods to interpolate sparse observations) used to inform 65 coastal ocean air-sea CO₂ flux estimates are often at coarse resolution and often operate as a 66 "black box." Interpolation techniques have been widely used to inform air-sea CO₂ flux 67 68 estimates in the coastal ocean both regionally and globally (e.g., S. Chen et al., 2016; Hales et al., 2012; Laruelle et al., 2017; G. Parard et al., 2015; Gaëlle Parard et al., 2016; Roobaert et al., 69 2019, 2024; Sharp et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2019). These approaches extend the temporal and 70 spatial coverage of partial pressure of CO_2 in seawater (pCO_2) observations from community 71 synthesis efforts (e.g., through the Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas (SOCAT); Bakker et al., 2016) and 72 can be used to calculate air-sea CO₂ fluxes using wind speed and atmospheric CO₂ (Wanninkhof, 73 2014). Historically, coastal ocean approaches have been adopted from their open ocean 74 75 counterparts (Chau et al., 2022; Landschützer, Laruelle, et al., 2020), and thus most of these estimates have at best a monthly, $1/4^{\circ}x1/4^{\circ}$ latitude by longitude resolution, which is incapable 76 77 of resolving smaller scale processes in coastal regions, especially nearshore, that experience high variability and short autocorrelation length scales (Jones et al., 2012). Interpolation techniques,
which lack transparency, also rarely probe internal relationship dependency between variables.

Large heterogeneity in air-sea CO₂ fluxes exist in the coastal Northeast Pacific, with 80 substantial expanses of the coast completely absent of observations (Benway et al., 2016). Large 81 discrepancies exist between previous air-sea CO₂ flux estimates within this region, with 82 disagreement over the net annual flux magnitude and direction (i.e., as a net sink or source for 83 atmospheric CO₂; Duke, Richaud, et al., 2023; Fennel et al., 2019). Air-sea CO₂ flux variability 84 in the region is heavily impacted by coastal processes such as upwelling, river plumes, tidal 85 86 mixing, and coastal currents (Evans et al., 2012, 2019; Evans & Mathis, 2013; Hales et al., 2005; Ianson et al., 2003; Nemcek et al., 2008). Upwelling along the Pacific eastern boundary shelf has 87 contrasting impacts on the oceanic CO₂ sink reflected in complex interactions between biological 88 carbon drawdown fueled by upwelled nutrient and carbon-rich waters (Hales et al., 2005; Messié 89 90 & Chavez, 2015; Ribalet et al., 2010) and outgassing associated with the same subsurface waters brought to the surface (Chan et al., 2017; Christensen, 1994; Evans et al., 2011; Feely et al., 91 92 2008; Hales et al., 2005; Ianson & Allen, 2002). Closer to shore, within the Salish Sea, and along Alaska's Inside Passage, air-sea CO₂ fluxes into and out of the ocean are highly episodic and 93 spatially heterogeneous (Evans et al., 2022; Jarníková, Ianson, et al., 2022). Binning regional 94 pCO_2 observations in three dimensions into monthly, $1/12^{\circ}x1/12^{\circ}$ grid cells over the period 95 1998–2019, reveals the data scarcity (Figure 1). Of the 6,030,816 spatial and temporal grid cells 96 just 0.6% have an associated gridded pCO_2 value. Observations are concentrated along shipping 97 lanes, have a summer bias, and increase in frequency during later years (Figure 1). No 98 99 observations exist in vast areas of the coastal Gulf of Alaska and along extensive stretches of shoreline (Figure 1c). 100

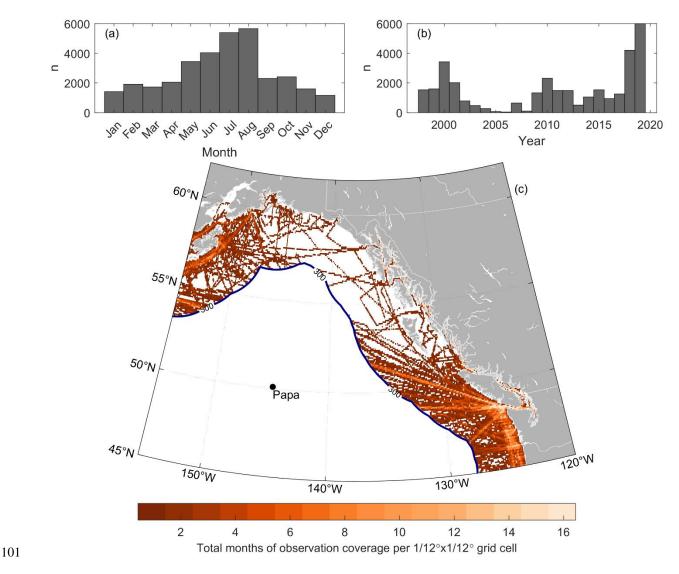


Figure 1. Number of grid cells (of 54782 total spatial grid cells) with coastal pCO_2 observation data (Section 2.1) in (a) months reveals a summer bias, and (b) years showing increased sampling closer to present. (c) Total number of months of observational coverage per grid cell displays better coverage along shipping routes. 300 km offshore line shown for coastal/open oceanic boundary used in this study (solid blue line labelled '300').

Here we investigate how well a high-resolution regional artificial neural network (ANN) approach can determine air-sea CO₂ fluxes in the coastal Northeast Pacific (NEPc). We build on an existing global setup (Landschützer et al., 2013) adopted previously in stepping to a higher spatial resolution in the open Northeast Pacific (Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b). In Section 2, we describe the creation of a gridded pCO₂ data product for the coastal Northeast Pacific monthly from January 1998 to December 2019 at an unprecedented $1/12^{\circ}x1/12^{\circ}$ resolution to resolve coastal ocean processes. In Section 3, we demonstrate that our product robustly recreates gridded observation data, comparable to a less variable open ocean product. In Section 4, we directly

115 compare our pCO_2 product with *in situ* shipboard and mooring observations and detail potential

capabilities and limitations in the continuous, gridded product. In Section 5, we examine the

regional patterns of variability in the net annual air-sea CO_2 flux relative to the seasonal cycle

and describe potential drivers through a spatial sensitivity analysis. We conclude by calculating

surface ocean pCO_2 trends in the last decades.

120 2 Data and methods

We created a coastal pCO_2 data product spanning a geographic area between 45 - 62°N 121 and 120 - 155°W, and within 6 to 300 km of shore building on the methods of Duke, Hamme, et 122 al. (2023b). (ANN-NEPc; Duke et al., 2024). Briefly, our first step identified grid cells with 123 similar environmental characteristics, provinces, using a self-organizing map approach (SOM) 124 (Landschützer et al., 2013). In the second step, within each province, we used a feed-forward 125 neural network (FFN) to create non-linear functional relationships between pCO_2 observations 126 and independent predictor variables (Landschützer et al., 2013). Third, we applied these 127 relationships to the predictor data to generate continuous monthly sea surface pCO_2 maps from 128 1998-2019 in the coastal Northeast Pacific (NEPc). ANN-NEPc fills the gap between open ocean 129 $(> 300 \text{ km offshore}) pCO_2$ (Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b) to as close to the shoreline as reanalysis 130 and satellite-based products reach. In stepping to 1/12° spatial resolution (approximately 9 km by 131 5 km, latitude by longitude), this work represents a three times increase in spatial resolution over 132 previous 1/4° global and regional coastal ocean products with an overlapping domain 133 (Landschützer, Laruelle, et al., 2020; Laruelle et al., 2017; Roobaert et al., 2024; Sharp et al., 134 2022), with extended coverage into the nearshore (defined here as 0 - 25 km offshore). 135

- 136 $2.1 p CO_2$ observations
- 137 ANN target pCO_2 data came from the Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas (SOCAT) v2021 (Bakker
- et al., 2016), the Fisheries and Oceans Canada February 2019 Line P cruise

139 (<u>https://www.waterproperties.ca/linep/</u>), a West Coast Ocean Acidification cruise from July and

August 2010 (Evans et al., 2012), and La Perouse cruises from May 2007 and May 2010 (Tortell

141 et al., 2012). Sea surface CO₂ fugacity (fCO₂) was converted to sea surface pCO₂ (supplementary

- 142 Text S1; Körtzinger, 1999). We did not correct *in situ* pCO₂ observations to sea surface mass
- 143 boundary layer temperature, because following previous techniques introduced significant

additional uncertainty in our coastal study area (supplementary Text S2). pCO_2 observations were bin-averaged (monthly from 1998–2019, at 1/12°x1/12°), computing the mean and standard

146 deviation within each grid cell.

147 2.2 Predictor data

148 Predictor data were chosen based on accessibility and ability to represent processes that

149 mechanistically impact surface ocean pCO_2 (Table 1). Selected predictor variables primarily

150 originate from satellite observations or reanalysis models (Table 1; supplementary Text S3).

151 Predictors differ slightly from a regional open ocean estimate (Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b).

152 Here, we used a high-resolution regional wind speed product and not reanalysis model derived

153 mixed layer depth. Capturing greater variability in the coastal ocean required a high-resolution

regional wind speed product over a low-resolution global product (supplementary Figure S2).

155 Latitude, longitude, and time were not used as predictor variables.

156 **Table 1.** Northeast Pacific Coastal Ocean artificial neural network predictor variables, and their

corresponding source, original temporal and spatial resolutions, and processing steps used for
 this study.

| Der lå der med alle | C | Original resolution | | | |
|---|---|---------------------|-------------|---|--|
| Predictor variable | Source | Temporal | Spatial | -Processing | |
| Satellite-based product | | | | | |
| Sea surface temperature (SST) | SST_cci: Level 4 Analysis Climate Data Record, version 2.1 | Daily | 1/20°x1/20° | Averaged to monthly, aggregated to $1/12^{\circ}x1/12^{\circ}$ | |
| Chlorophyll-a (Chl) | Ocean_Colour_cci: Version 5.0 | Daily | 1/24°x1/24° | Averaged to monthly, aggregated to 1/12°x1/12°, log10- transformed | |
| Satellite and in-situ observation data assimilated reanalysis product | | | | | |
| Sea surface salinity (SSS) | Copernicus Marine Service | Monthly | 1/12°x1/12° | None | |
| Sea surface height (SSH) | GLOBAL_REANALYSIS_PHY_001_030 | | | None | |
| Atmospheric-measurement-based interpolation product | | | | | |
| Atmospheric <i>p</i> CO ₂ | Landschützer et al. (2020b) - NCEI Accession 0160558 | Monthly | 1°x1° | Interpolated to 1/12°x1/12° | |
| High-resolution regional forecast model | | | | | |
| Wind speed | Regional Deterministic Reforecast System (RDRS-v2.1) | Hourly | 1/11°x1/11° | Averaged to monthly, interpolated to 1/12°x1/12° | |

159 2.3 Neural network construction

To reach the optimal ANN-NEPc architecture, we performed a series of tuning tests using 160 the MATLAB Neural Network Toolbox, with sequential improvements impacting future tests 161 (Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b). The choice of three dynamic (i.e., changing shape at every 162 timestep) self-organizing map (SOM) based clusters represented the lowest number for a typical 163 clustering structure to emerge (supplementary Figure S3a). All spatial grid cells within the study 164 area belong to more than one SOM cluster at some point over 1998-2019 (supplementary Figure 165 S3b). SOM predictor variables (SST, SSS, SSH only; Table 1) were normalized to a mean of 0 166 and standard deviation of 1. The second FFN step used all six predictor variables in Table 1, in 167 addition to each predictor variable anomaly (i.e., deseasonalized; calculated by subtracting the 168 climatological monthly mean), bringing the total number of predictors to 12. Anomaly values 169 were used to highlight interannual to decadal variability within our predictor data sets. The 170

number of neurons within the first hidden layer varied by province with the optimal number of 171 neurons determined in a pre-training run (Landschützer et al., 2013, 2014). The second hidden 172 layer used seven static neurons, which slightly improved performance. To further decrease the 173 risk of overfitting, we used a 10-fold cross-evaluation approach to create an ANN ensemble 174 (Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b; Li et al., 2019, 2020) and a bootstrapping method (Landschützer et 175 al., 2013). Observation cruises were randomly divided into 10 equal subsamples (10% each) 176 using expocodes (i.e., unique identifiers corresponding to complete underway cruise tracks or 177 mooring deployments) prior to gridding, leaving some data splits with more (or less) gridded 178 pCO_2 targets (Section 2.1). We repeated the FFN training step 10 times, using each of the 10 179 subsamples once as the internally withheld evaluation dataset and the rest as the training dataset 180 (with a separate independent data always withheld; Section 2.4). In each iteration, we trained the 181 ANN for 10 rounds. The robustness and reliability of an ANN estimate has been shown to be 182 significantly improved by combining a ANN ensemble (Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b; Fourrier et 183 al., 2020; Linares-Rodriguez et al., 2013; Sharkey, 1999). Here, we take the mean of the 10-fold 184 estimates. 185

186 2.4 Evaluation

Comparisons of ANN output to training and independent withheld data were made 187 throughout tuning tests. ANN-NEPc performance for each tuning test was evaluated using five 188 statistical metrics: root mean squared error (RMSE), coefficient of determination (r^2) , mean 189 190 absolute error (MAE), mean bias (calculated as the mean residual), and the slope of the linear regression (c_1) between the ANN and the corresponding gridded pCO_2 observations. One subset 191 192 of data was selected from the observation data using associated expocodes to be entirely withheld from the FFN training step. We tested 100 random independent withheld data splits and 193 194 selected the one with the best observational coverage over a wide range of seasons, years, and locations (supplementary Figure S4). These independent withheld data represented 195 approximately 4.5% of the total study area gridded pCO_2 data. 196

197 2.5 Sensitivity analysis

We used a perturbation approach to quantitatively assess the impact of each predictor variable on estimated pCO_2 (e.g., Broullón et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2021). To diagnose how important different predictor variables were across the study area, a single set of 201 non-linear relationships was used inside a single uniform SOM cluster. We then applied this

single FFN to our continuous, gridded predictor dataset and to perturbed versions of that dataset.

203 For each predictor variable separately, we introduced a perturbation increasing the value within

each grid cell by 50% of the standard deviation within that grid cell (X' = X + 0.5(std(X)); N =

205 264 months per grid cell; de Oña & Garrido, 2014) and calculated the resulting predicted pCO_2 .

We then took the difference between the perturbed run and a baseline run using unperturbed

- 207 predictor variables.
- 208 2.6 Computation of air-sea fluxes

Using our pCO_2 product, we calculated the air-sea CO_2 flux (FCO_2 ; mol m⁻² yr⁻¹):

$$FCO_2 = K_0 k \Delta p CO_2 , \qquad (1)$$

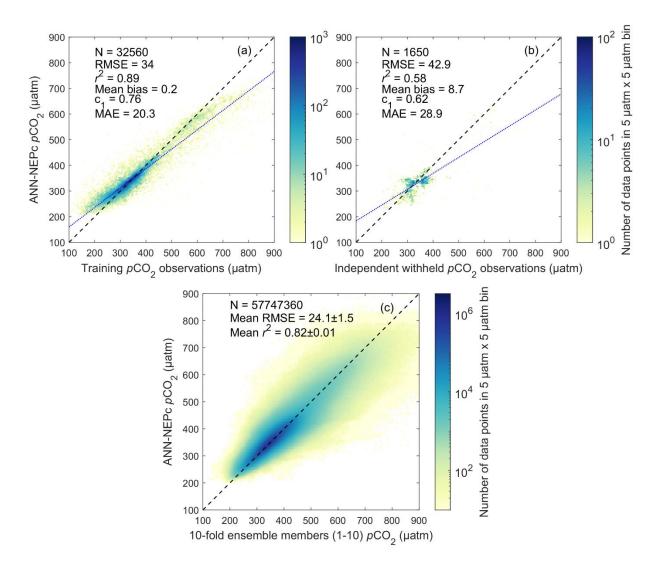
from the Henry's Law solubility constant (K_0 ; mmol m⁻³ µatm⁻¹) as a function of temperature and 211 salinity (Table 1; Weiss, 1974), gas transfer velocity (k; m day⁻¹), and the gradient between 212 pCO_2 in the surface ocean and the atmosphere (ΔpCO_2 ; µatm). Here, the gas transfer velocity is 213 derived from Wanninkhof (2014), a function of wind-speed at 10 meter elevation (Table 1) and 214 the temperature dependent Schmidt number specific to CO₂ (Wanninkhof, 2014). Negative flux 215 216 values indicate CO_2 uptake by the ocean. We assume that the uncertainty in our air-sea CO_2 flux 217 estimate results from a 20% uncertainty in k (Wanninkhof, 2014) and the overall product uncertainty in estimated pCO_2 (θpCO_2 ; Section 3.3 below). As the uncertainty of ΔpCO_2 is 218 dominated by the uncertainty in estimated surface ocean pCO_2 , we neglect the small contribution 219 from atmospheric CO₂ ($< 1 \mu$ atm; Landschützer et al., 2014). 220

221 **3 Network performance**

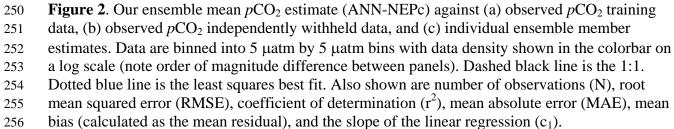
223 Comparing our estimated pCO_2 product with the gridded observations across both the 224 training data (Figure 2a) and independent withheld data (Figure 2b) demonstrates fits with an 225 MAE less than 30 µatm and RMSE of around 40 µatm. The mean bias is negligible over the full 226 range (< 0.2 µatm, smaller than observational uncertainty; Section 3.3). 70% of the calculated 227 residuals fall within the -20 to 20 µatm range, while 47% of the grid cells have absolute residuals 228 < 10 µatm especially further offshore (supplementary Figure S5). Despite seasonal and annual 229 biases in observations (Figure 1; Section 2.1), our product performs similarly across different 230 months and years (supplementary Table S1). The ANN ensemble model mean demonstrated

improved performance compared to each individual ensemble member (supplementary Figure
S6; supplementary Text S4).

Larger bias exists at the upper and lower limits of the gridded pCO_2 observational range. 233 Our product underestimates pCO_2 observations greater than the 90th percentile (> 412 µatm; 234 mean bias = $-28 \mu atm$), and overestimates values less than the 10^{th} percentile (< 306 μatm ; mean 235 bias = 13 μ atm). The spatial structure of the residuals reflects this bias distribution 236 (supplementary Figure S5), with negative residuals in the strong mixing regions of the Salish Sea 237 commonly characterized by high pCO₂ (Evans et al., 2012, 2019; Jarníková, Ianson, et al., 2022), 238 and positive residuals along the upwelling zone off the west coast of Oregon and Washington 239 240 States characterized by low pCO_2 (Evans et al., 2011). Observation-based pCO_2 products commonly overestimate pCO_2 in highly biologically productive coastal upwelling regions (Chau 241 et al., 2022; Hales et al., 2012; Roobaert et al., 2024; Sharp et al., 2022). Chlorophyll (Table 1) 242 as a proxy for biological productivity in training may not fully represent biological control on 243 pCO_2 . Ford et al. (2022) showed that in regions with high biological activity and nutrients 244 supplied from depth (i.e., South Atlantic upwelling mesoscale eddies) regional, algorithm-245 derived net community production estimates (Ford et al., 2021) improved ANN pCO₂ estimates. 246 Creation of coastal, regionally specific net community production algorithms, and inclusion as a 247 predictor variable, may help reduce bias of low pCO_2 values in our study area. 248







In relative terms, our pCO_2 product performs nearly as well as an open ocean product, even nearshore (Table 2). Nearshore pCO_2 exhibits a much larger range of variability compared to the continental shelf and the offshore marine environment. Table 2 displays relative percent

260 error (RPE) binned by distance offshore (*d*) calculated as:

261
$$\operatorname{RPE}_{d} = \operatorname{RMSE}_{d} / [\operatorname{prctile}_{95}(p\operatorname{CO}_{2d}^{obs}) - \operatorname{prctile}_{5}(p\operatorname{CO}_{2d}^{obs})] \times 100,$$
(2)

- where $RMSE_d$ is the RMSE from gridded observational data averaged over the distance bin,
- 263 prctile₉₅(pCO_{2d}^{obs}) is the 95th percentile observed pCO_2 in that distance bin and
- 264 $\operatorname{prctile}_{5}(p\operatorname{CO}_{2d}^{obs})$ is the 5th percentile. Compared to a high-performance, regional open ocean
- product (Table 2; Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023a), RMSE increases moving toward shore but so
- does the range in pCO_2 such that the RPE is constant within a factor of two.

Table 2. Error statistics for our ensemble mean pCO_2 estimate against all gridded observation data binned by distance offshore: number of observations (N) per bin, observed range of variability (range; difference between the 95th and 5th percentile), root mean squared error (RMSE), and relative percent error (RPE; Eq. 2).

| Distance offshore (km) | Ν | Range (µatm) | RMSE (µatm) | RPE (%) |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|----------------|
| 0-25 (nearshore) | 8669 | 481 | 54 | 11 |
| 25-50 | 4763 | 215 | 33 | 16 |
| 50-100 | 5770 | 153 | 24 | 15 |
| 100-150 | 3324 | 114 | 16 | 14 |
| 150-200 | 3317 | 90 | 12 | 13 |
| 200-300 | 6501 | 106 | 10 | 10 |
| High-resolution Northeast 1 | Pacific open ocea | <i>n product</i> (Duke, Hamn | ne, et al., 2023a) | |
| > 300 | 34096 | 83 | 7 | 8 |

3.2 Comparison to other products

Our pCO_2 estimate agrees well with one other Northeast Pacific coastal ocean estimate 272 but diverges from coarser resolution global products (supplementary Figure S7). The regional 273 Sharp et al. (2022) product within the northern extension of the California current system (45 °N 274 to 59 °N, east of 140 °W) is nearly equivalent to our pCO₂ product within reported uncertainties 275 $(r^2 = 0.57;$ supplementary Figure S7a). However, our product produces estimates closer to shore 276 (Section 5.2 below). Compared to our product and *in situ* observations, a global coastal 277 climatology (Landschützer, Laruelle, et al., 2020; Laruelle et al., 2017) and multiyear product 278 279 (Roobaert et al., 2024) do not capture the same pCO_2 range (supplementary Figure S7c&e; supplementary Figure S8). For example, both global products underestimate winter pCO_2 values 280 closer to shore in the coastal Gulf of Alaska region (> 52 °N & < 50 km offshore; area-averaged 281 climatological winter pCO_2 of 300 µatm and 290 µatm respectively compared to 330 µatm in 282 this study; supplementary Figure S7d&f), highlighting the importance of finer resolution in 283

coastal systems. This region also has the scarcest pCO_2 observations within our study area 284 (0.37% coverage; Figure 1). Global SOM clusters commonly group the California current system 285 with the Northwest European shelf and Sea of Japan (Laruelle et al., 2017; Roobaert et al., 286 2024). FFN non-linear relationships inside such clusters may not be suitable for regionally 287 specific processes dominated by downwelling (Stabeno et al., 2004), glacial runoff (Pilcher et al., 288 2018; Siedlecki et al., 2017), significant seasonal biological productivity (Coyle et al., 2012; 289 Fiechter & Moore, 2009; Hermann et al., 2009), and the influence of the upwelling subpolar 290 Alaskan Gyre (Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b; Hauri et al., 2021). This finding supports the Sharp 291 et al. (2022) recommendation of increasing the number of SOM clusters for observation-based 292 coastal ocean pCO_2 estimates to capture more regionally specific non-linear relationships, 293

294 cognizant of SOCAT observation data density.

3.3 Uncertainty estimate

Uncertainty in the ANN-NEPc estimated pCO_2 product was determined following Duke, 296 Hamme, et al. (2023b). The overall pCO_2 product uncertainty ($\theta pCO_2 = 49 \mu atm$ in our coastal 297 product) is calculated from the square root of the sum of the four squared errors: observational 298 uncertainty based on reported SOCAT QA/QC flags ($\theta_{obs} = 3.7 \mu atm$), gridding uncertainty 299 based on the average standard deviation from gridding observations into monthly 1/12°x1/12° 300 bins ($\theta_{grid} = 22.4 \mu atm$; with an increasing gradient shoreward), ANN interpolation uncertainty 301 based on the RMSE comparing the ANN-NEPc estimated pCO_2 to independent withheld data 302 $(\theta_{map} = 42.9 \mu atm;$ Section 3.1), and ANN run randomness uncertainty based on the mean 303 304 standard deviation between 10-fold ensemble members ($\theta_{run} = 6.8 \mu atm$; supplementary Figure S9). ANN interpolation uncertainty is the largest contribution overall. Combining the reported 305 uncertainty in the gas transfer velocity (Section 2.6) and the overall pCO_2 product uncertainty 306 vields an average uncertainty of ± 0.18 mol-C m⁻² yr⁻¹ in the air-sea gas flux across all grid cells, 307 with the largest fraction of the error stemming from the uncertainty in the gas transfer velocity. 308

Our reported total uncertainty may appear high relative to other coastal pCO_2 products, but we include higher variability regions and more stringent error estimates. Other observationbased interpolated pCO_2 products in the coastal ocean report lower uncertainty values (RMSE values generally between 10 and 35 µatm in regional estimates detailed in S. Chen et al., (2016); 29 µatm globally in Roobaert et al. (2024); approximately 30 µatm in the California current system in Sharp et al. (2022); 55 µatm in the coastal subpolar Pacific in Chau et al. (2022)).

However, most other estimates did not use independent withheld data to report total product

uncertainty. Roobaert et al. (2024) point out their largest RMSE values are calculated along the

317 Cascadia Shelf in our study area (62 μ atm). Our *p*CO₂ product is also the only estimate that

includes the nearshore, introducing higher variability (Table 2). Excluding the nearshore across

all components of the uncertainty calculation yields an overall uncertainty of 40 µatm, more

320 comparable to other coastal ocean estimates.

4.0 Comparison to high-resolution observations

Comparison to *in situ* observations shows that our ANN-NEPc estimated pCO_2 product 322 resolves seasonal variability and broad spatial patterns well. Despite high spatial resolution, our 323 design of a monthly timestep product means the ANN cannot reproduce short temporal (e.g., 324 days) events. Predictor variable inaccuracy also contributes to pCO_2 estimate uncertainty, 325 particularly in the nearshore where data assimilation into reanalysis models is limited (e.g., SSS 326 and coastal limitations of Argo float array) and retrieval issues affect satellite estimates (e.g., 327 SST and cloud masking, impact of aerosols, diurnal variability, uncertainty estimation, and 328 329 validation). In situ measurements show that biogeochemical and hydrographic variability in our region occurs on spatial scales of less than 20 km (Nemcek et al., 2008), with spatial 330 331 autocorrelation lengths increasing offshore (Murphy et al., 2001), and timescales of days to weeks (Evans et al., 2011, 2012, 2019; Fassbender et al., 2018). Our product is constrained by 332 initial binning of observations to $1/12^{\circ}x1/12^{\circ}$ (approximately 9 km by 5 km) and a monthly time 333 step, as well as scarcity of observations used to train (Figure 1). Comparing it directly with in 334 situ mooring and shipboard underway pCO_2 system measurements in the coastal zone provides 335 insight into when and where the ANN is both capable and incapable of resolving variability. 336

Our pCO_2 estimate captures the observed seasonal cycle (phase and amplitude) at regional mooring time series sites well (Figure 3; full time series at all five regional mooring sites in supplementary Figure S8). At NOAA's Gulf of Alaska Ocean Acidification (GAKOA) site south of Alaska's Kenai Peninsula, our product tends to overestimate seasonal summer minima and winter maxima values. However, it captures seasonal cycle timing well with a similar average seasonal amplitude even when not all mooring data are included in SOCATv2021 (this study = 144 µatm; GAKOA = 169 µatm; Figure 3b). At another NOAA Gulf of Alaska mooring site south of Kodiak Island, our estimate also captures the phase of the seasonal cycle well ($r^2 = 0.89$; N = 31 months; supplementary Figure S8a).

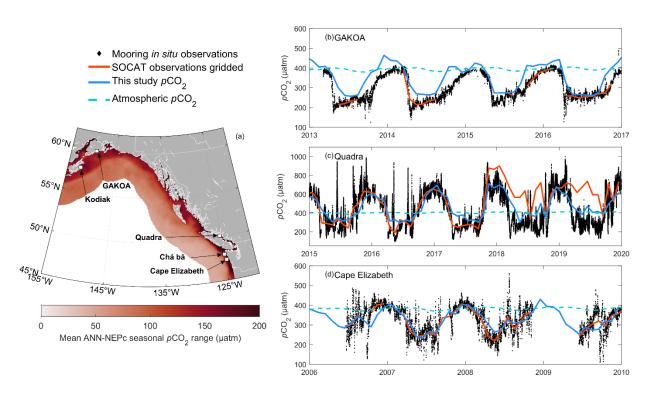


Figure 3. (a) Map of mean estimated surface ocean pCO_2 seasonal amplitude (1998-2019; range; annual maximum minus minimum) in µatm. Nearshore mooring time series at (b) Gulf of Alaska Ocean Acidification mooring (GAKOA), (c) Quadra, and (d) Cape Elizabeth mooring in situ pCO_2 data (black diamonds; not all included in SOCATv2021) plotted with co-located gridded SOCATv2021 (orange solid line), this study pCO_2 (blue solid line), and atmospheric pCO_2 (light blue dashed line). Kodiak and Chá bă and Roobaert et al. (2024) comparison time series in supplementary Figure S8.

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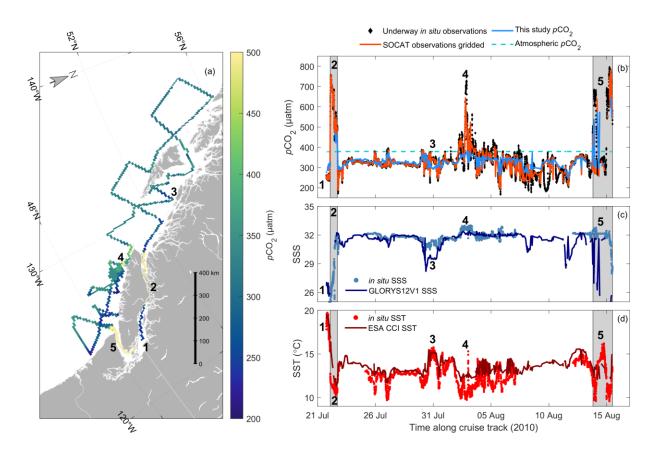
its monthly timestep does not capture higher frequency variability (Figure 3c). In some instances,

The ANN recreates the seasonal cycle well at Hakai Institute's Quadra Island Station, but

- measured pCO_2 at the Quadra mooring increases over 500 µatm within three days (e.g., June 9-
- 12, 2015), leading to a strong outgassing signal. The ANN monthly estimate does not capture
- such short events. Monthly binning impacts net annual air-sea CO₂ fluxes within a single grid
- cell (2015 mean annual flux from daily mooring pCO_2 and wind speed: 0.08 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹;
- 360 compared to this study: $0.26 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) but likely has a smaller impact when quantifying the
- larger regional flux. Near the end of the time series (late 2017 to 2020), the gridded SOCAT data
- 362 deviates from the *in situ* mooring data due to inclusion of nearby shipboard data, yet our
- estimated pCO_2 continues to better represent the mooring seasonal cycle. When evaluating ANN

performance (Section 3.1), this difference from the gridded observation data contributes to a
 higher measure of uncertainty, yet in situ representation is still preserved compared to the
 mooring data.

The ANN does capture part of the signal from somewhat longer (i.e., weeks) summer high pCO_2 events at NOAA's Cape Elizabeth mooring off the west coast of Washington State (Figure 3d). Horizontal advection of freshwater (July 2007) or upwelling events (> 500 µatm; July 2008; Evans et al., 2015) can cause high summer pCO_2 values. These extreme events impact bin-averaged training data, allowing the ANN to recover some of the short duration signal, albeit at a lower value. Our product reproduces both persistent, weeks long events < 35 km offshore, in line with the monthly averaged observations.



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Figure 4. (a) pCO₂ along 2010 West Coast Ocean Acidification cruise track from 21 Jul 2010 to 375 15 Aug 2010 (Evans et al., 2012). Data is gridded into 1/12° by 1/12° bins. Events indicate (1) 376 cruise start, (2) Johnstone Strait, (3) Hecate Strait, (4) intense upwelling plume near Brooks 377 Peninsula, and (5) Juan de Fuca Strait respectively. Subplots against time along cruise track for 378 (b) pCO_2 where underway in situ pCO_2 data (black diamonds) are plotted with co-located 379 monthly gridded data (orange solid line), this study pCO_2 (blue solid line), and atmospheric 380 pCO_2 (light blue dashed line). (c) Sea surface salinity (SSS) with underway in situ SSS (light 381 blue dots) and co-located reanalysis SSS (dark blue solid line; used as a predictor variable). SSS 382 values near cruise start as low as 15 in situ and 24 from reanalysis (not shown). (d) Sea surface 383 temperature (SST) with underway in situ SST (red dots) and co-located satellite-based SST (dark 384 red solid line; used as a predictor variable). Gray boxes highlight tidal mixing zones (e.g., 385 Johnstone Strait, Juan de Fuca and Haro Straits and connecting waters). 386



Direct comparison to a cruise from July/August 2010 provides another example of our

 pCO_2 product's ability to capture broadscale patterns. The ANN estimate resolves undersaturated

- pCO_2 conditions in the Salish Sea at the start of the cruise well (point 1; Figure 4). Through
- Johnstone Strait (50.5 °N, 126.5 °W), a strong tidal mixing zone (Evans et al., 2022), lack of
- predictor data coverage prevents estimation of pCO_2 in those grid cells at all (point 2; Figure 4).
- 392 The ANN captures the lower variability continental shelf and slope environment in Queen
- 393 Charlotte Sound and around Haida Gwaii well (between points 2 and 4; Figure 4). Differences

between estimated and observed pCO_2 exist in Hecate Strait (point 3; Figure 4) likely due to strong underestimation of SSS as a predictor in the reanalysis product (point 3; Figure 4c). Along

the west coast of Vancouver Island, shipboard observations captured an upwelling event off

Brooks Peninsula (50.14 °N, 127.78 °W; Asher et al., 2017), visible in decreased temperatures,

elevated salinity, and very high *in situ* pCO₂ (point 4; Figure 4). The ANN does not replicate this

399 short upwelling event (i.e., days; Asher et al., 2017). High pCO_2 driven by tidal mixing in the

Juan de Fuca and Haro Straits are captured by the ANN (point 5; Figure 4; Jarníková, Olson, et

401 al., 2022). An abundance of consistently high pCO_2 observations results in a strong

402 reconstruction by the ANN in this region (Evans et al., 2012).

403 **5** Air-sea CO₂ flux and *p*CO₂ drivers

Long-term (1998–2019) mean air-sea CO₂ fluxes display a pronounced juxtaposition 404 between strong uptake and outgassing regions in the coastal Northeast Pacific Ocean (Figure 5c). 405 Overall, air-sea CO₂ flux estimates from our product show this coastal zone acts as a net sink for 406 atmospheric CO₂, drawing down 0.96±0.25 Tg C yr⁻¹ with a mean flux of -0.7 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹ but 407 high variability with a standard deviation of 1.4 mol m^{-2} yr⁻¹. Mean *p*CO₂ and air-sea CO₂ fluxes 408 display similar patterns, with high pCO_2 nearshore leading to outgassing and low pCO_2 along the 409 transition zone and continental shelf environments taking up atmospheric CO₂ (Figure 5a&c). 410 Canada's West Coast exclusive economic zone has a CO_2 uptake of 0.61±0.11 Tg C yr⁻¹. 411 Compared to the open ocean region of the Northeast Pacific (Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b), the 412 adjacent coastal ocean is a weaker sink for atmospheric CO₂ by area (40% weaker compared to -413 1.2 mol m^{-2} yr⁻¹ in the open ocean), taking up 64% less CO₂ total within 40% less area (open 414 ocean uptake = 2.63 ± 0.53 Tg C yr⁻¹; open ocean surface area = 1.8×10^{6} km²; coastal ocean 415 surface area = $1.1 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$). Elevated pCO₂ and outgassing is also reported in the subpolar 416

417 Alaskan Gyre system (Figure 5a&c), consistent with Duke, Hamme, et al. (2023b).

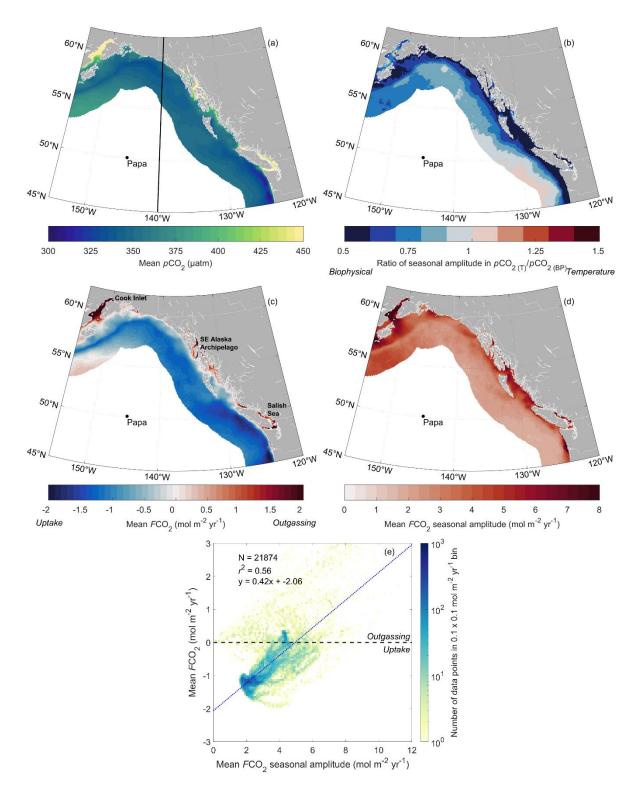


Figure 5. (a) Mean pCO_2 (1998-2019) in μ atm. 140 °W meridian divide used in Section 5.2

- 420 analysis shown for reference. (b) Ratio of pCO_2 seasonal amplitude in thermal component (i.e.,
- 421 changes due to temperature; $pCO_{2(T)}$) and biophysical component (i.e., changes due to

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- 422 circulation, mixing, gas exchange, and biology; $pCO_{2 (BP)}$). (c) Mean air–sea CO₂ flux (1998-
- 423 2019) in mol m^{-2} yr⁻¹. Negative flux values indicate CO₂ uptake by the ocean. (d) Mean air-sea

424 CO_2 flux seasonal amplitude (range; annual maximum minus minimum) in mol m⁻² yr⁻¹. (e) 425 Mean air-sea CO_2 flux vs. mean air-sea CO_2 flux seasonal amplitude (grid cell by grid cell). 426 Dotted blue line is the least squares best fit. Dashed black line separates values of outgassing 427 (positive) from uptake (negative).

428 5.1 Regional patterns

Spatially, the study area can be divided into four distinct regions based on air-sea CO₂ 429 flux patterns in our product. The net annual air-sea CO₂ flux is anti-correlated with the mean air-430 sea CO₂ flux seasonal amplitude ($r^2 = 0.56$; p < 0.01; Figure 5e). We identify four regions that 431 drive this pattern from most offshore to inshore: the transitional zone connecting the open ocean 432 and the coast is a net sink with a small seasonal cycle, the Cascadia Shelf where the net sink is 433 even stronger but the seasonal cycle remains low, nearshore regions with large seasonal cycles, 434 435 and semi-enclosed estuaries with strong outgassing. To further disentangle driving processes between these four regions we decompose the estimated pCO_2 into a thermal (pCO_2 (T)) and 436 biophysical (pCO_{2 (BP)}) component (supplementary Text S5; Takahashi et al., 1993, 2002). We 437 then take the ratio (R_{TBP}^{-1}) of the seasonal amplitude (climatological maximum minus minimum) 438 of the two components ($pCO_{2 (T)}/pCO_{2 (BP)}$; Figure 5b), where biophysical processes dominate if 439 R_{TBP}^{-1} is less than one and vice versa. 440

Much of the offshore transitional zone (medium blue colours in Figure 5c) acts as a sink 441 for atmospheric CO_2 year-round where thermal and biophysical pCO_2 components are nearly 442 balanced. Low air-sea CO₂ flux seasonal amplitudes in the transitional zone (> 50 km offshore; 443 excluding the subpolar Alaska Gyre) correspond to net annual atmospheric CO₂ uptake. In the 444 southeast of the study area (Figure 5b), the North Pacific Current region experiences a relative 445 balance of opposing thermal and biophysical pCO_2 components seasonally (R_{TNT}^{-1} 446 approximately = 1; Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b; A. J. Sutton et al., 2017; Takahashi et al., 2006; 447 Wong et al., 2010). Along most of the transitional zone where R_{TNT}^{-1} is closer to one (Figure 448 5b), we also report low pCO_2 seasonal amplitudes (Figure 3a) allowing for continuous pCO_2 449 450 undersaturation with respect to the atmosphere and continuous annual uptake with low air-sea CO_2 flux seasonal amplitudes (supplementary Figure S12; Figure 5d). Advection of low pCO_2 451 (Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b; Takahashi et al., 2006) water by the North Pacific Current from 452 the open ocean toward the coast causes overall pCO_2 undersaturation in this region (Reed & 453 Schumacher, 1986; Thomson, 1981; Weingartner et al., 2002). The low pCO₂ amplitudes are 454 maintained by the effect of temperature on pCO_2 (increasing during warming and decreasing 455

456 during cooling) dampening changes due to spring phytoplankton blooms (drawing down pCO_2) 457 and winter surface mixed layer deepening (increasing pCO_2).

The most prominent CO₂ sink region is found along the Cascadia Shelf, inshore of the 458 transitional zone, with a mean flux of $-1.5 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (darkest blue colours in Figure 5c). Along 459 the continental shelf and within much of the nearshore, biophysical processes (e.g., coastal 460 upwelling, seasonal biological drawdown, mixing) dominate the seasonal cycle of pCO_2 with R_T 461 $_{\rm NT}^{-1}$ values < 1. Summer upwelling fuels primary productivity causing surface pCO₂ drawdown 462 as waters are advected offshore (Hales et al., 2005; Teeter et al., 2018; Ware & Thomson, 2005). 463 464 Winter downwelling drives onshore transport of low pCO_2 offshore waters and prevents subsurface waters, with elevated respiratory CO₂, from mixing to the surface (i.e., coastal 465 nutrient trap; Ianson et al., 2009; F. A. Whitney et al., 2005; Wilkerson & Dugdale, 1987). This 466 general circulation of shelf waters maintains low seasonal flux amplitudes and strong CO₂ uptake 467 on the Cascadia Shelf. 468

Much of the nearshore tends to experience seasonally strong, juxtaposing air-sea CO_2 469 fluxes, leading to near zero net annual CO₂ fluxes (nearshore white colours in Figure 5c). For 470 example, closer to shore north of 50 °N and south of the Southeast Alaska Archipelago, winter 471 mixed layer deepening brings water rich in nutrients and CO₂ from respired organic matter to the 472 surface, increasing pCO_2 , leading to strong CO_2 outgassing to the atmosphere when light is 473 limiting (supplementary Figure S12a; Marchese et al., 2022). In the spring, substantial primary 474 productivity draws down pCO_2 (Marchese et al., 2022), reverting the region to a prominent sink 475 for atmospheric CO₂ (supplementary Figure S12b). This large seasonal amplitude results in a net 476 neutral flux. 477

Semi-enclosed, nearshore estuarine environments display strong CO_2 outgassing in our 478 product, that is not always observed in regional high-resolution models. High pCO_2 values and 479 outgassing fluxes (mean CO₂ flux of $0.7 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) occur in Cook Inlet, the Salish Sea, and 480 the Southeastern Alaska Archipelago (Figure 5c). Globally, the source strength of these 481 integrated estuarine environments is comparable to (or smaller than) other nearshore source 482 regions that decrease averaged coastal ocean CO₂ uptake (Section 5.2 below; Duke, Richaud, et 483 al., 2023; Fennel et al., 2019; Laruelle et al., 2018). In high-resolution regional models, the 484 Salish Sea has been reported as a weak net annual source (this study: $1.0 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; 485

comparable to Jarníková, Ianson, et al. (2022): 0.69 mol $m^{-2} vr^{-1}$, and Cook Inlet as a net sink 486 (Hauri et al., 2020; Pilcher et al., 2018). Limited observations used to constrain both our 487 observation-based estimate and regional models may create discrepancies between them. Our 488 estimate is based on all available surface ocean pCO_2 observations along with a suite of predictor 489 variables (Figure 1; Table 1), whereas regional process-based models using data for boundary 490 conditions simplify and parameterise mechanisms (Hauri et al., 2020; Jarníková, Ianson, et al., 491 2022; Pilcher et al., 2018). Global observation-based estimates and models also disagree, where 492 model fluxes are often more negative (stronger sink) at northern latitudes, attributed to a smaller 493 seasonal pCO_2 amplitude (Resplandy et al., 2024). 494

495 5.2 Nearshore fluxes

The nearshore coastal environment (0 - 25 km offshore) exhibits large air-sea CO₂ fluxes, 496 over a relatively small surface area, impacting regional marine carbon budgeting. As our 497 estimate wraps around the coast from primarily E-W to primarily N-S, we split the region along 498 499 the 140 °W meridian (Figure 5a). Averaging grid cells approximately parallel to the regional coastline along longitudinal bands (155 °W to 140 °W west of 140 °W; Figure 6a&b) and along 500 latitudinal bands (56 °N to 45 °N east of 140 °W; Figure 6c&d), the inclusion or exclusion of the 501 nearshore environment creates large differences in estimated net annual air-sea CO₂ fluxes, for 502 example, between 154 °W to 149 °W encompassing Cook Inlet (absolute flux difference of 503 250%, switching from a net sink to a source; Figure 6b). North to south from 56 °N to the 504 northern extension of the California current system at 45°N (Figure 6d), including the nearshore 505 leads to a slightly weaker net annual sink for atmospheric CO₂. The difference is largest within 506 latitudinal bands inclusive of the Salish Sea (49-51 °N; 20% weaker). Differences in zonally 507 508 averaged pCO_2 and air-sea CO_2 fluxes also exist between products with varying nearshore coverage (Section 3.2; Roobaert et al., 2024; Sharp et al., 2022). Basin-wide, inclusion of the 509 nearshore changes the annual exchange with the atmosphere within the study area by 0.06 Tg C 510 yr^{-1} (6%). These results highlight the importance of including the nearshore in regional marine 511 carbon budgets. 512

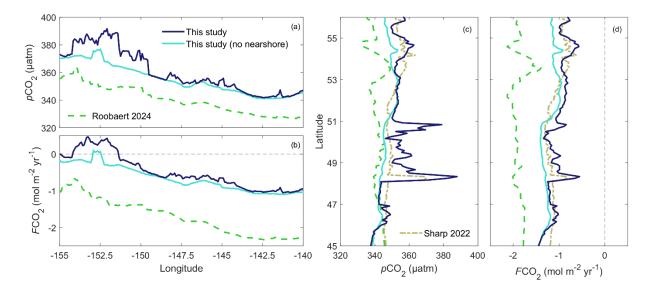


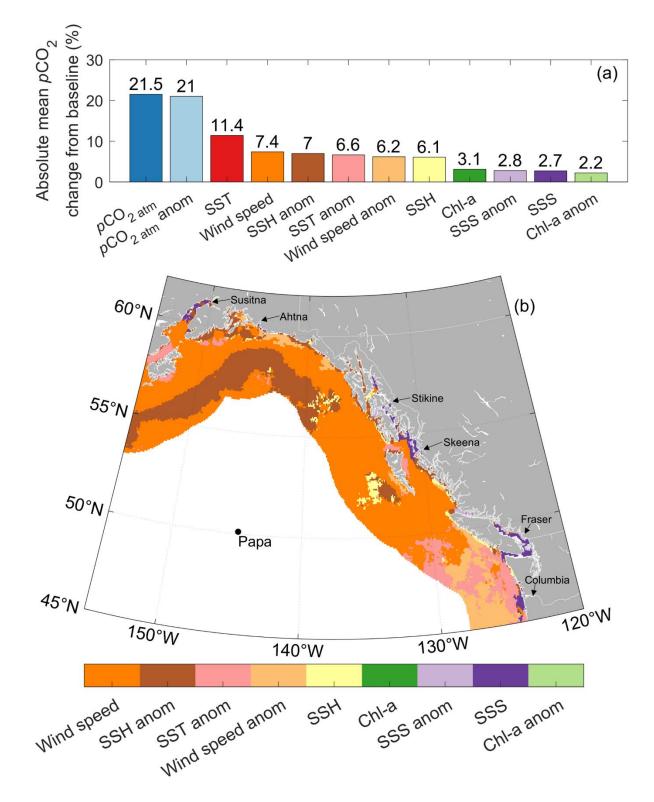


Figure 6. Longitudinally averaged estimates west of 140 °W of mean (a) pCO_2 and (b) air-sea CO₂ flux of: this study (dark blue), this study removing the nearshore (cyan). (c) and (d) are latitudinally averaged estimates east of 140 °W respectively. Additional observation-based estimates with overlapping domains including: Sharp et al. (2022) (dot-dash beige), and Roobaert et al. (2024) (dashed lime green). Sharp et al. (2022) air-sea CO₂ fluxes calculated following Section 2.6.

520 5.3 Dominant controls on variability

Four distinct tiers of predictor variable importance rankings emerged from a perturbation-521 based spatial sensitivity analysis in estimated pCO_2 (Figure 7a). The ANN is purely a set of 522 empirical, not mechanistic, relationships between pCO_2 observations and predictor variables, 523 though variables were selected with mechanism in mind (Table 1). We used a perturbation-based 524 spatial sensitivity analysis (Section 2.5) to probe the dependency of the ANN relationships on 525 each variable, as they cannot be viewed directly (unlike a multiple linear regression). 526 Atmospheric pCO_2 and atmospheric pCO_2 anomaly (removing the seasonal cycle; Section 2.2) 527 are the most important predictors, followed by SST, and then process-driven controls whose 528 importance varies spatially. Atmospheric pCO_2 and atmospheric pCO_2 anomaly are the only two 529 predictor variables that capture a trend in time from 1998 to 2019 (i.e., increase of 2.12 μ atm yr⁻¹ 530 due to anthropogenic emissions). Due to the trend, these variables also experienced the largest 531 absolute value perturbation (mean basin-wide increase of 7 µatm), at least one order of 532 533 magnitude greater than other variables. The third most important predictor for estimating pCO_2 is SST. Basin-wide, the sensitivity test introduced a mean SST increase of 1.5 °C, resulting in a 534 535 mixed pCO_2 response where generally there was a decrease, outside of the Gulf of Alaska central

- 536 glacial drainage basin where pCO_2 increased (supplementary Figure S13a). This result does not
- 537 follow the mechanistic reduced solubility of CO₂ in warmer water. However, it emphasizes the
- 538 importance of the SST seasonal cycle as a predictor (strong correlation, typically negative,
- between pCO_2 and SST; supplementary Figure S13b).



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Figure 7. (a) Predictor variables ordered by absolute mean pCO_2 change from baseline run during perturbation-based spatial sensitivity analysis (Section 2.5). (b) Most dominant processbased predictor variable mapped by largest absolute mean pCO_2 change from baseline run during perturbation-based spatial sensitivity analysis (excluding top three variables from (a)). No grid

cells displayed Chl or Chl anomaly as the largest absolute mean pCO_2 change from baseline over the full study time range (1998-2019). Major river outflows are labelled for reference.

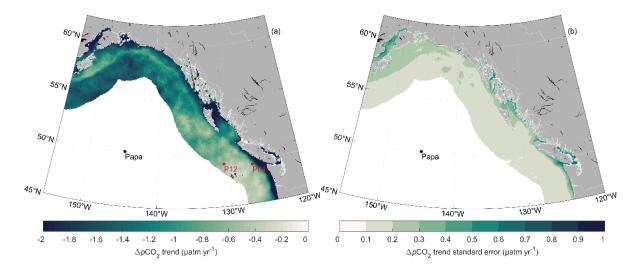
Excluding the three most dominate controls (atmospheric pCO_2 , atmospheric pCO_2) 547 anomaly, and SST), the spatial distribution of predictor variable importance rankings can be 548 549 explained by mechanistic drivers even though the ANN is purely empirical. SSH anomaly is 550 important along the Alaskan Gyre boundary, where the upwelling gyre exerts control over local biogeochemistry (Figure 7b; Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b; Hauri et al., 2021). Wind speed (as a 551 proxy for mixed layer depth) is important throughout most regions along the continental shelf 552 and the outer coast as winter mixed layer deepening brings CO₂-rich subsurface waters to the 553 surface (mean basin-wide increase of 0.4 m s⁻¹ resulting in a pCO_2 increase of 1.7%; Figure 7b). 554 SSH and SSH anomaly are additionally important offshore of Sitka, Alaska (57 °N, 143 °W) and 555 Haida Gwaii (52 °N, 133 °W) where mesoscale anticyclonic eddies with enhanced primary 556 productivity and high SSH propagate away from the continental margin (Figure 7b; Batten & 557 Crawford, 2005; Crawford et al., 2007; Crawford & Whitney, 1999; F. A. Whitney et al., 2005; 558 F. Whitney & Robert, 2002). In the North Pacific Current influenced region southeast of the 559 study area, SST anomaly and wind speed anomaly are the most important predictors linked to the 560 relative balance of opposing mechanisms (i.e., thermal and biophysical pCO_2 components; 561

562 Figure 5b).

Nearshore regions experience a range of predictors with prominent features mostly 563 controlled by salinity (SSS and SSS anomaly) in coastal estuarine areas (Figure 7b), and tidally 564 mixed areas (e.g., Juan de Fuca Strait, Johnstone Strait; Figure 4a). In additional regions where 565 freshwater discharge is important (e.g., supplementary Table S2), SSH and SSH anomaly emerge 566 as important predictors potentially linked to discharge associated changes to nearshore sea level 567 (Figure 7b; Durand et al., 2019). Neither perturbation to Chl nor Chl anomaly resulted in the 568 largest absolute mean pCO_2 change from baseline over 264 months in a single grid cell (Figure 569 7b). However, seasonally Chl emerges as a prominent predictor in scattered grid cells along 570 571 nearshore West Coast Vancouver Island and in the Southeast Alaska Archipelago during the spring (i.e., March, April, and May; not shown). 572

573 5.4 Air-sea pCO₂ trends

Trends in the last decades (1998-2019) in $\Delta p CO_2$ (sea – air) display spatial heterogeneity 574 in the coastal Northeast Pacific, with a gradient of smaller trends moving offshore. A linear fit 575 576 was applied to the $\Delta p CO_2$ anomaly time series within each grid cell to calculate the trend and standard error (i.e., deseasonalized; Section 2.2). Regions that experience an increase in surface 577 ocean pCO_2 close to the increase in atmospheric (i.e., resulting in a small ΔpCO_2 trend) are 578 579 spatially distinct from those that have an insignificant trend in pCO_2 leading to a large divergence with the atmosphere (i.e., large $\Delta p CO_2$ trend). Grid cells with a small $\Delta p CO_2$ trend 580 are dominantly located in the outer coast (> 50 km offshore) and in the southeast of the study 581 area (Figure 8a). Trends are closer to the atmospheric trend in this region (2.12 μ atm yr⁻¹), 582 meaning any change in the carbon sink due to anthropogenic climate change will require long 583 584 observation time series to detect, as the signal is small relative to internal variability (Gooya et 585 al., 2023; McKinley et al., 2016; Resplandy et al., 2015; Adrienne J. Sutton et al., 2019). We report trends in pCO_2 that are similar to those observed at time series sites along Fisheries and 586 Ocean Canada Line P stations (this study: $P4 = 1.3\pm0.1 \mu atm yr^{-1}$; $P12 = 1.6\pm0.1 \mu atm yr^{-1}$; 587 comparable to Franco et al. (2021): $P4 = 1.0 \pm 1.4 \mu atm vr^{-1}$; $P12 = 1.5 \pm 0.6 \mu atm vr^{-1}$). 588



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Figure 8. 1998-2019 trend in (a) $\Delta p CO_2$ anomaly (i.e., deseasonalized) where more negative 590 (darker) values indicate an increase in air-sea pCO_2 disequilibria with time. Black crosshatches 591 show grid cells with an insignificant calculated trend (outside the 95% confidence level; p > p592 0.05; 0.4% of total grid cells). (b) Standard error of the estimated slope in the $\Delta p CO_2$ trend fit. 593 Large $\Delta p CO_2$ trends (and low or insignificant $p CO_2$ trends) occur in regions experiencing 594 strong connectivity to the older subsurface waters of the Northeast Pacific (e.g., subpolar 595 Alaskan Gyre, west coast upwelling zone; Figure 8a). This older water has a lower 596 anthropogenic carbon load (Carter et al., 2019; Clement & Gruber, 2018; Gruber et al., 2019; 597 Sabine et al., 2004), which may be responsible for the lag in the increase in surface ocean pCO_2 598 (e.g., Duke, Hamme, et al., 2023b). The $\Delta p CO_2$ trend in the Alaska Gyre is dominated by the 599 winter trend, whereas the west coast upwelling zone is dominated by the summer trend 600 (supplementary Figure S14). These seasonal trends coincide with the timing of greatest 601 connectivity to depth in each region. Strongest Alaskan gyre upwelling occurs in winter (Gargett, 602 1991; Talley, 1985), whereas the coastal upwelling season is spring and summer (Dorman & 603 Winant, 1995; Hsieh et al., 1995) with downwelling occurring in the winter (Section 5.1; 604 Thomson & Ware, 1996). In the nearshore (e.g., Southeast Alaska Archipelago, Salish Sea), 605 subsurface waters exchange through estuarine flow and tidal mixing. In these regions, we report 606 low or insignificant winter $\Delta p CO_2$ trends and large negative summer trends in agreement with 607 regional model results (e.g., Jarníková, Ianson, et al., 2022). Increasing summer air-sea pCO₂ 608 disequilibria enhances ocean CO₂ uptake, whereas winter air-sea disequilibria has remained 609 610 relatively constant, maintaining ocean outgassing. In winter, light limits biological productivity, resulting in higher total CO₂ in the surface (Evans et al., 2019; Ianson et al., 2016; Simpson et 611

al., 2022). This increase in total CO_2 reduces the buffer capacity of the carbonate system

- (Revelle & Suess, 1957), so that the pCO_2 increase due to anthropogenic carbon uptake is larger
- than it is in summer in many temperate zones (e.g., Jarníková, Ianson, et al., 2022; Landschützer
- et al., 2018). Our findings are consistent with global ΔpCO_2 trend estimates where most coastal
- regions appear to exhibit negative $\Delta p CO_2$ trends (i.e., likely becoming stronger atmospheric CO₂
- sinks or weaker sources; Fennel et al., 2019; Laruelle et al., 2018; Resplandy et al., 2024;
- 618 Roobaert et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2017).

619 6 Conclusions

620 Our high-resolution, neural network created pCO_2 product reproduces observed coastal Northeast Pacific Ocean variability well, from the outer transitional zone to the nearshore (0 - 25)621 km offshore). We interpolated sparse observations using non-linear relationships developed with 622 a neural network based on predictor data from satellite and reanalysis products to create a 623 continuous, gridded monthly pCO_2 estimate at a $1/12^{\circ}$ spatial resolution, inclusive of the 624 nearshore. This pCO_2 product provides a baseline environmental context for pCO_2 and air-sea 625 CO_2 flux variability in the study area with an uncertainty of 49 µatm and 0.24 mol-C m⁻² yr⁻¹, 626 respectively. The product resolves seasonal variability (phase and amplitude) and broad spatial 627 patterns well compared to high-resolution *in situ* observations. The product is not designed to 628 629 capture daily – weekly variability.

630 A unique ANN sensitivity analysis shows that variations in pCO_2 results agree with 631 mechanistic drivers even though the ANN itself is purely empirical. ANNs are not based on predefined equations but their ability to capture information inherent to the training data, 632 preventing any explicit explanation of how predictor variables and their output are related. We 633 suggest a new systematic sensitivity analysis introducing perturbations to predictor variables, 634 with a consideration for natural spatial variability, to produce mapped variable importance 635 rankings. This approach offers insight providing greater transparency to ANN "black box" 636 techniques. 637

We describe the coastal Northeast Pacific as a net sink for atmospheric CO_2 with large spatial heterogeneity between outgassing in the nearshore and uptake on the outer coast. Net annual air-sea CO_2 flux is largely anticorrelated with seasonal air-sea CO_2 flux amplitude. Patterns inherent to specific regions drive this anticorrelation, including circulation and opposing seasonal upwelling or relaxation vs. downwelling, and may make the relationship regionally
specific rather than applicable to the wider global coastal ocean. Our results also emphasize the
importance of including nearshore fluxes (often omitted by other coastal products), which are
likely to be a source reducing the net coastal sink, when constructing marine carbon budgets
(e.g., Legge et al., 2020). These findings could be potentially important considerations for
reporting marine carbon dioxide removal approaches in the study area, as interventions
impacting source areas are treated differently from those enhancing natural sinks (Verra, 2023).

Trends over the last decades show outer coast pCO_2 may be experiencing the largest increase in air-sea pCO_2 disequilibrium, due to strong connectivity with subsurface waters low in anthropogenic CO₂, while pCO_2 in the North Pacific Current region tracks increasing atmospheric pCO_2 more closely. Trends reported here across the coastal Northeast Pacific indicate most regions are likely to become stronger atmospheric CO₂ sinks or weaker sources.

Improving regional observational coverage and continuity and advancing the ANN 654 approach will improve future air-sea CO₂ flux estimates. Some regions in the coastal Gulf of 655 Alaska display large net annual air-sea CO₂ fluxes (e.g., Cook Inlet) yet are extremely sparsely 656 monitored. A higher temporal resolution, such as daily, could enable the ANN to capture highly 657 episodic air-sea CO_2 flux events common to the nearshore. However, this approach would 658 dramatically reduce the percent coverage of observation training targets. A solution may be 659 creating ANN non-linear relationships to interpolate pCO₂ directly from *in situ* observations. 660 Using high frequency, collocated sensors and non-uniform "highest available resolution" satellite 661 and reanalysis datasets for predictor variables not collected in situ, a higher temporal and/or 662 spatial resolution coastal product could be developed without substantial loss in ANN training 663 664 targets.

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684 **Open Research**

- All data used is publicly available. ANN-NEPc pCO_2 and air-sea CO_2 flux fields created for this
- 686 publication are available through the National Center for Environmental Information (NCEI
- 687 Record ID: BHE12VV0E). *p*CO₂ data are from the Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas (SOCAT) v2021
- (available at https://www.socat.info/) as well as additional data from the Fisheries and Oceans
- 689 Canada February 2019 Line P cruise, a West Coast Ocean Acidification cruise from July and
- August 2010 (Evans et al., 2012), and La Perouse cruises from May 2007 and May 2010
- 691 (available at <u>https://www.waterproperties.ca/linep/</u>). Sea surface temperature and chlorophyll-a are
- from the European Space Agency Climate Change Initiative (available at
- 693 <u>https://climate.esa.int/en/odp/#/dashboard</u>). Sea surface salinity and sea surface height are from
- 694 Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service (available at
- 695 https://data.marine.copernicus.eu/product/GLOBAL_MULTIYEAR_PHY_001_030/description).
- Ocean surface wind data at 10 m height are from Regional Deterministic Reforecast System
- 697 (available at <u>https://caspar-data.ca/;</u> detailed here <u>https://github.com/julemai/CaSPAr</u>). Mooring
- data used in analysis are also available through the National Center for Environmental
- 699 Information (NOAA moorings: NCEI Accession 0173932; and Hakai Institute Quadra Island
- Field Station: NCEI Accession 0208638).

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