1	Decadal reanalysis of biogeochemical indicators and fluxes in the North West
2	European shelf-sea ecosystem
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10	Key Points:

- 11 The reanalysis dataset is skilled in estimating indicators that are relevant for marine policy.
- 12 Large areas of shelf bottom waters are oxygen deficient at a high confidence level.
- 13 The shelf-sea ecosystem is a net sink of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO_2).

14 Abstract

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In this paper we present the first decadal reanalysis simulation of the biogeochemistry of the 16 North West European shelf, along with a full evaluation of its skill and value. An error-17 characterized satellite product for chlorophyll was assimilated into a physical-biogeochemical 18 model of the North East Atlantic, applying a localized Ensemble Kalman filter. The results 19 showed that the reanalysis improved the model predictions of assimilated chlorophyll in 60% of 20 the study region. Model validation metrics showed that the reanalysis had skill in matching a 21 large dataset of in situ observations for ten ecosystem variables. Spearman rank correlations were 22 significant and higher than 0.7 for physical-chemical variables (temperature, salinity, oxygen), 23 ~0.6 for chlorophyll and nutrients (phosphate, nitrate, silicate), and significant, though lower in 24 25 value, for partial pressure of dissolved carbon dioxide (~0.4). The reanalysis captured the magnitude of pH and ammonia observations, but not their variability. The value of the reanalysis 26 for assessing environmental status and variability has been exemplified in two case studies. The 27 first shows that between 340,000-380,000 km² of shelf bottom waters were oxygen deficient 28 potentially threatening bottom fishes and benthos. The second application confirmed that the 29 shelf is a net sink of atmospheric carbon dioxide, but the total amount of uptake varies between 30 36-46 Tg C yr⁻¹ at a 90% confidence level. These results indicate that the reanalysis output 31 dataset can inform the management of the North West European shelf ecosystem, in relation to 32 eutrophication, fishery, and variability of the carbon cycle. 33

35 1. Introduction

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Trends and patterns of biogeochemical variables that are relevant for marine policy and 37 ecosystem understanding can be evaluated by merging numerical models and ocean color in 38 extended "biogeochemical reanalysis", using a consistent data assimilation algorithm [Lahoz and 39 Schneider, 2014; Gehlen et al., 2015]. Such algorithm corrects the model estimates towards the 40 observations, taking account of the errors in the model and in the observations [Kalman, 1960]. 41 The resulting estimates of biogeochemical variables are expected to be more realistic than the 42 estimates obtained separately from modelling and monitoring efforts, as is well-established in 43 environmental disciplines such as atmospheric science [Bengtsson and Shukla, 1988; Trenberth 44 45 and Olson, 1988] and ocean physics modelling [Stockdale et al., 1998].

In ocean biogeochemical modelling, the first (quasi)decadal biogeochemical reanalysis 46 estimated the interannual variability of global primary production in years 1998-2004 by 47 assimilating chlorophyll from SeaWiFS (Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor) into the 48 NASA Ocean Biogeochemical Model (OBM) [Nerger and Gregg, 2007]. A comparable 49 variability of primary production was obtained in the reanalysis by Gregg [2008], who in 50 addition described the spatial patterns of chlorophyll in the global oceans. The reanalysis by 51 Fontana et al. [2013] evaluated spatial-temporal patterns of chlorophyll and nitrate in the North 52 Atlantic Ocean in years 1998-2006, by assimilating SeaWiFS chlorophyll into a coupled 53 physical-biogeochemical model. Reanalyses for years 1998-2012, using chlorophyll observations 54 from SeaWiFS and MODIS and the NASA OBM, evaluated significant declining trends of 55 chlorophyll in the Northern Hemisphere and Indian oceans [Gregg and Rousseaux, 2014], and 56

estimated declining trends of phytoplankton functional groups in part of the global oceans
[*Rousseaux and Gregg*, 2015].

The above works all demonstrated the value of reanalysis for open oceans, but the usefulness 59 of biogeochemical reanalysis has not been evaluated in extended simulations for shelf-sea 60 ecosystems yet. Shelf-seas are crucial to the earth system, by providing ~20% of the marine 61 primary production [Jahnke, 2010], ~20% of the uptake of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) by 62 the oceans [Borges, 2011] and over 90% of the global fish catches [Pauly et al., 2002]. These 63 processes and services are impacted by interannual climate variability and changes in anthropic 64 pressures, implying trends in coastal eutrophication [Cloern, 2001], fluctuations of shelf uptake 65 66 of CO₂ [Borges, 2011] and expansion of poorly oxygenated shelf floor areas threatening fishes and benthic communities [Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008; Gilbert et al., 2010; Rabalais et al., 2014]. 67 Marine policy and research are cooperating in monitoring and modelling biogeochemical 68 69 variables that are indicators of the status of shelf ecosystems and that can characterize its longterm variability, such as chlorophyll concentration, dissolved oxygen, partial pressure of CO₂, 70 nutrient concentrations [OSPAR, 2013]. Such indicators have been estimated successfully in 71 previous works by assimilating ocean color into shelf-sea models; however such simulations 72 were short-termed (i.e. one-year or shorter) focusing on the skill of daily to weekly operational 73 predictions [e.g., Terruzzi et al., 2014; Shulman et al., 2013] or on the seasonal cycle of the 74 ecosystems [e.g., Triantafyllou et al., 2007; Fontana et al., 2010; Ciavatta et al., 2011, 2014; 75 Mattern et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2012; Xiao and Friedrichs, 2014], leaving the reanalysis of the 76 interannual variability of shelf-sea biogeochemistry unexplored. 77

The overall aim of this work was to provide the first decadal reanalysis of the biogeochemistry of the North West European shelf sea. The specific objectives of this paper are: i) to evaluate the skill and confidence of the reanalysis; and ii) to exemplify the value of the reanalysis dataset to assess the status and interannual changes of the shelf ecosystem. With this last broad objective in mind, we present two case studies assessing: a) The vulnerability of the bottom waters of the shelf to oxygen deficiency; and b) The interannual variability of the uptake of atmospheric CO_2 by the shelf-sea ecosystem.

To achieve these aim and objectives, we assimilated an error-characterized ocean color 85 product for chlorophyll [Brewin et al., 2015; Sathyendranath et al., 2016] into an ecosystem 86 model of the North East Atlantic [Wakelin et al., 2012], upgraded to the state-of-the-art version 87 of the European Regional Seas Ecosystem Model (ERSEM) [Butenschön et al., 2015] and 88 89 integrated into the Ensemble Kalman filter [Evensen, 1994; Ciavatta et al., 2011]. This assimilation system was applied in the reanalysis of the biogeochemistry of the North West 90 European (NWE) shelf in the years 1998-2009. The reanalysis output dataset was first skill-91 92 evaluated using ocean color data and in situ observations of ten physical and biogeochemical variables. The dataset was then post-processed to extract information relevant to the case studies, 93 including the confidence level of the reanalysis estimates. This latter information is a major gap 94 in most of the current modelling applications for ecosystem assessment [Hyder et al., 2015; 95 Piroddi et al., 2015], thus we suggest that it represents an added value of our reanalysis dataset 96 for its possible application in marine policy. 97

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the ecosystem model, the set-up of the assimilation algorithm, the data, and the metrics applied for skill evaluation. In Section 3, the results are presented and discussed. The skill of the reanalysis dataset is first evaluated with respect to the assimilated ocean color data (Section 3.1), and then using an in situ dataset which

105	2 Material and Methods
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103	and 3.4 and concluding remarks and future applications are pointed out in Section 4.
102	was not part of the assimilation (Section 3.2). The two case studies are presented in sections 3.3

106 2.1 The ecosystem model of the North East Atlantic

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108 The ecosystem dynamics of the North East Atlantic, including the North West European shelf,

109 (Figure 1) are described by a three-dimensional physical-biogeochemical model [*Wakelin et al.*,

110 2012; Artioli et al., 2012; Artioli et al., 2014].



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Figure 1. The North East Atlantic region represented in the model domain. The dashed line represents the 200 m isobath delimiting the shelf region for convention.

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The model consists of three on-line coupled sub-models (see Figure 2): the Proudman Oceanographic Laboratory Coastal Ocean Modelling System (POLCOMS) [*Holt and James*, 2001], which describes the hydrodynamics and provides the physical forcing to the pelagic biogeochemical sub-model, namely the European Regional Seas Ecosystem Model (ERSEM) 119 [*Baretta et al.*, 1995; *Butenschön et al.*, 2015]. The third sub-model is the ERSEM benthic 120 biogeochemical model [*Blackford*, 1997; *Butenschön et al.*, 2015]. The sub-models are coupled 121 at the same temporal and spatial resolution as the physical model, to capture the effects of the 122 three-dimensional hydrodynamics on the biogeochemical cycles [*Holt et al.*, 2004]. The grid of 123 the model spatial domain has horizontal resolution of $1/6^{\circ}$ in longitude and $1/9^{\circ}$ in latitude, 124 approximating to ~12 km at the latitude of the study region, and it has 42 s-coordinate levels in 125 the vertical [*Wakelin et al.*, 2012].

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Figure 2 Schematic of the ecosystem model coupling the physical sub-model POLCOMS and



2.1.1 The physical sub-model: POLCOMS

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The physical model POLCOMS [*Holt and James*, 2001] is a three-dimensional baroclinic, finite-difference, primitive equation model formulated in spherical-polar coordinates on an Arakawa B-grid. Both temperature and salinity are treated as prognostic variables. The model includes: an advection scheme with stability and conservation properties [*James*, 1996]; a vertical turbulence model (GOTM) [*Burchard et al.*, 1999]; and calculation of horizontal pressure gradients.

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2.1.2 The pelagic biogeochemical sub-model: ERSEM

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The biogeochemical dynamics are described by the European Regional Seas Ecosystem 142 model (ERSEM) [Baretta et al., 1995], using its state-of-the-art version presented in Butenschön 143 et al. [2015], and applying a configuration with 51 pelagic variables. ERSEM uses a functional 144 type approach to model the dynamics of the low trophic levels of the ecosystem. Primary 145 producers are split into four phytoplankton functional types (PFTs), including three size based 146 types (picophytoplankton, nanophytoplankon, microphytoplankton), plus diatoms as silicate 147 users. Each of these PFTs is defined in terms of its content of chlorophyll, carbon, nitrogen, 148 phosphate, and (for diatoms only) silicate. Three functional types of zooplankton 149 (mesozooplankton, microzooplankton, and heterotrophic nanoflagellates) prey on the PFTs, 150 bacteria and particulate organic matter as a function of their size. One bacterial functional type 151 drives the microbial loop, the production and recycling of dissolved organic matter in labile, 152 semi-labile and recalcitrant forms, and it drives the regeneration of inorganic nutrients in the 153

water column [*Polimene et al.*, 2006; *Hansell*, 2013]. In the functional types, the stoichiometric ratios of nutrients-to-carbon and chlorophyll-to-carbon (in the PFTs) vary dynamically [*Geider et al.*, 1997; *Baretta-Bekker et al.*, 1997]. The model includes the dynamics of five inorganic dissolved nutrients (carbon, nitrate, ammonia, phosphate and silicate), and dissolved oxygen. The model configuration applied here includes a carbonate system module, which regulates air-sea flux of carbon dioxide, as well as the description of calcite, including its deposition at the sea floor [*Artioli et al.*, 2012; *Butenschön et al.*, 2015].

161 Numerous works demonstrate the skill of ERSEM in representing marine ecosystem processes and reproducing ocean observations. Model validations have used univariate and 162 163 multivariate analysis [e.g. Allen and Sommerfield, 2009; Saux-Picart et al. 2012, de Mora et al., 2013, 2016] in model applications ranging from zero-dimensional process studies [e.g. Pinna et 164 al., 2015] to global simulations [Kwiatkowski et al., 2014, de Mora et al., 2013]. In particular, 165 166 the state-of-art version applied in this work was flexible and skilled in simulating multiannual time series of nutrients, chlorophyll, oxygen, particulate organic and dissolved inorganic carbon, 167 as well as reproducing emerging properties (phytoplankton stoichiometry and average 168 community structure) observed in three contrasting sites in coastal, shelf and open ocean 169 [Butenschon et al., 2015, de Mora et al. 2016]. However, the model can have low skill in 170 representing observed phytoplankton successions (in particular blooms of dinoflagellates) in 171 large-scale shelf-sea applications, due to limitations in the parameterization of the PFTs 172 [*Ciavatta et al.*, 2011]. 173

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2.1.3 The ERSEM benthic sub-model

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The benthic sub-model is the ERSEM benthic model [*Blackford*, 1997], as described in *Butenschön et al.* [2015]. In the configuration applied here, the sub-model includes 35 biogeochemical variables, subdivided into seven living functional groups (including zoobenthos, aerobic and anaerobic bacteria), along with particulate matter and dissolved organic and inorganic nutrients. The fluxes at the sediment-water interface are determined by sedimentation and diffusion of inorganic material across the seabed.

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2.1.4 Boundary conditions and atmospheric forcing

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The oceanic conditions at the open boundaries of the ecosystem model (temperature, salinity, currents and sea surface elevation) were extracted for the years 1998-2009 from the GLORYS reanalysis product provided within the EC FP7 project MyOcean [*Ferry et al.*, 2012]. The corresponding conditions for dissolved nutrients and oxygen were extracted from the 2005 World Ocean Atlas climatology [*Garcia et al.*, 2006a; 2006b], and for dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) from the database GLODAP [*Key et al.*, 2004].

The model is forced by daily climatological discharges of fresh-water and dissolved nutrients from 250 rivers. Data of water discharge were taken from the Global River Discharge Data Base [*Vörösmarty et al.*, 1996], and from data prepared by the UK Centre for Ecology and Hydrology. River nutrient loadings match those used by *Lenhart et al.* [2010], with raw data for the UK, Northern Ireland, Ireland, France, Norway, Denmark and the Baltic processed by the UK Centre for Environment Fisheries and Aquaculture Science, and raw data for Germany and the Netherlands derived from *Pätsch and Lenhart* [2004]. In addition, Baltic inflow was represented
as river-inflow [*Wakelin et al.*, 2012]. Atmospheric input of nutrients was derived from the
European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme [*Tørseth et al.*, 2012].

The atmospheric forcing (three-hourly solar irradiation, air temperature, wind velocity, precipitation, humidity, pressure and cloud cover), was obtained from a regional climate hindcast (years 1989-2009, spatial resolution of 12 km) performed by the Danish Climate Centre, using the regional Climate model HIRHAM5 [*Christensen et al.*, 2006], driven by ERA-interim global reanalysis [*Dee et al.*, 2011].

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2.2 The assimilation system

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The assimilation framework uses the system described in full in *Ciavatta et al.* [2011, 2014], where it was developed to assimilate ocean color in a similar POLCOMS-ERSEM model configured for the English Channel. The system uses the Ensemble Kalman filter (EnKF) [*Evensen*, 1994]. This is a sequential assimilation method, which starts by randomly sampling an ensemble of *N* state vectors $\mathbf{x}_{0}^{a(l)}$ (l=1, 2, ..., N) from an initial probability density function for the model variables. Each ensemble member, i.e. state vector, is propagated in time using the non-linear model equations during the "forecast step", that provides the EnKF "forecasts" $\mathbf{x}_{i}^{f(l)}$.

At time *i*, the forecast state \mathbf{x}_{i}^{f} and the forecast uncertainty \mathbf{P}_{i}^{f} are defined from the mean value and the covariance matrix of the N forecasted members. When at time *i* a vector \mathbf{y}'_{i} of observations of the model output $\mathbf{y}_{i} = \mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}_{i}^{f(l)}]$ becomes available, the assimilation scheme updates (i.e. "corrects") the forecasted states $\mathbf{x}_{i}^{f(l)}$, in the EnKF "analysis" step. This step scales the forecast-to-data mismatches, by balancing the uncertainty in the model (\mathbf{P}_i^f) and in the observations (\mathbf{R}_i) and it provides the analysed ensemble $\mathbf{x}_i^{a(l)}$. This ensemble is the initial condition used to simulate a new ensemble forecast for time *i*+1, in a sequential procedure that estimates the evolution of the model variables over the time window spanned by the assimilated observations.

Our assimilation system uses the *Evensen* [2003] version of the EnKF, which includes localization of the analysis and perturbation of the assimilated observations [see also *Natvik and Evensen*, 2003; *Hu et al.*, 2012; *Storto et al.*, 2013]. Observations and model states are logtransformed prior to the analysis, to guarantee positivity of the solutions [*Janjic et al.*, 2014], as in the applications by *Torres et al.*, [2006], *Nerger and Gregg* [2008], *Ciavatta et al.* [2011, 2014].

Importantly, the ensemble method can provide estimates of the uncertainty of the reanalysis product, derived from the dispersion of the ensemble members around their central value (i.e. the median). In particular, we used ranked values of the one-hundred ensemble members (minimum, 5th, 95th and maximum ensemble value) to define the confidence levels of the reanalysis estimates (1%, 5%, 95% and 100% confidence, respectively).

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2.2.1 Set-up of the assimilation scheme

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Following *Ciavatta et al.* [2011], we used the EnKF with an ensemble size of N=100members. To keep the analysis affordable computationally, the analysed state vector had to include a maximum of forty-four out of the fifty-one biogeochemical state variables. The remaining seven variables were updated through the model equation during the simulation

runtime ("forecast" step) and were selected among those more likely to create instabilities in the 244 long-term reanalysis on the base of previous findings (silicate in dissolved and medium and large 245 particulate forms [Ciavatta et al., 2011]), and of assimilation tests within this study (semi-labile 246 dissolved organic carbon, dissolved oxygen, alkalinity and calcite). The radius of the localized 247 analysis was set spatially variable as a function of the bathymetry [Ciavatta et al., 2011]. In 248 particular, we increased the "resolution" of the analysis from oceanic towards coastal waters, by 249 250 setting a radius of 100 km for grid points where the bathymetry is deeper than 2000 m (i.e. in 251 35% of the cells of the model grid), 50 km for bathymetry between 50 - 2000 m (51% of the grid), and 25 km for bathymetry shallower than 50 m (14% of the grid). 252

Model error is accounted for by random perturbations of the model forcing, namely the 253 surface solar irradiance, thus inducing fluctuations in the underwater light field that drives 254 255 photosynthesis [Torres et al., 2006; see Natvik and Evensen, 2003 and Simon and Bertino, 2009 256 for comparable approaches]. A Gaussian perturbation with standard deviation equal to 20% of the irradiance value is added during the model forecast step. Furthermore, at the first assimilation 257 step of each year, model error is added to all the variables undergoing the analysis, as white 258 noise drawn from a distribution of pseudo-random fields with error equal to 10% of the value of 259 the variables. The error is lowered to 1% for those variables that have relatively high average 260 values (DIC, ammonia, small particulate matter), to avoid divergences in the concentrations of 261 262 the largest pool in the model [Ciavatta et al., 2011].

The ensemble was initialized by perturbing the output of a hindcast model simulation that started in January 1991 after a five-year spin-up. The hindcast states for September 1997 were perturbed by using Gaussian pseudo-random fields with error equal to 30% of the value of the variables. These perturbed states were used to start the assimilation from the first data available

in the ocean color time series. Results of the reanalysis and of the simulation without 267 assimilation, namely the "reference" run, are presented for January 1998-December 2009. 268 The reanalysis simulation was run on the UK NERC High Performance Computing facility 269 "ARCHER", using 7200 CPUs and ~9 Mega Allocation Units (MAUs). 270 271 272 2.3 Data 273 The data of remotely sensed concentration of surface chlorophyll used in the assimilation 274 275 (Figure 3) were provided by the Ocean Colour - Climate Change Initiative project of the European Space Agency (ESA's OC_CCI product, Version 2.0, [Brewin et al., 2015; Grant et 276 al., 2015; Sathyendranath et al., 2016]). This product was created by merging satellite data from 277 sensors MERIS, MODIS and SeaWiFS, after shifting the wavelength bands and correcting the 278 279 bias between the sensors. It consists of a global daily level 3 binned dataset provided on a sinusoidal grid at 4 km resolution. It was downloaded via FTP from http://www.oceancolor.org. 280

As described in Appendix 1, here the dataset was projected onto the ~12 km model grid, and 281 daily values were merged into five-day composites centered on the last day of each month in the 282 years 1998-2009. Importantly, in the assimilation scheme we made use of per-pixel error 283 statistics estimated by OC_CCI through the analysis of match-ups between in situ data and ocean 284 color [Sathyendranath and Jackson, 2015]. In particular, we computed and assimilated un-biased 285 values of chlorophyll observations, and we defined the variance of their pseudo-random 286 Gaussian perturbations (Section 2.2) by processing per-pixel root-mean-square-deviations 287 provided with the OC_CCI dataset (see details in Appendix 1, equations A1.8 and A1.9). 288



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Figure 3 Chlorophyll data from ocean color assimilated in the reanalysis; (a) average value of the unbiased data in the period 1998-2009 (in concentration units, computed from y'_c in equation A1.10 in Appendix 1); (b) range between the maximum and minimum yearly means; (c) average value of the percentage standard deviation of the observations (computed as ratio of s_c and y'_c in equations A1.10-11); (d) numerosity of the assimilated composites at each grid cell of the model domain, in the 144 month long reanalysis. The dashed line represents the 200 m isobath delimiting the shelf region for convention.

The in situ data used to evaluate the reanalysis skill were measured in the North East Atlantic in the years 1998-2009 and were extracted from the Ecosystem Data Online Warehouse of the International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (www.ices.dk) for the following variables: temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen, chlorophyll, nitrate, ammonia, phosphate, silicate and pH. Data of partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO₂) were derived from the Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas (http://www.socat.info/).

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307 2.4 Skill metrics

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The skill of the reference and reanalysis output (y) in matching the assimilated composites of 309 chlorophyll concentrations from ocean color $(y'_c, eq. A.1.10 \text{ in Appendix } 1)$ was evaluated by 310 311 computing and comparing maps of the root mean square deviation (RMSD) and of the Pearson correlation (ρ) between the time series of y and y'_c at each surface grid point of the model 312 domain. The RMSD between the spatial distributions of y and y'_c at each month of the reanalysis 313 were also computed. The skill of the reanalysis was evaluated for the output of both the forecast 314 and analysis steps of the assimilation algorithm (see Section 2.2 for the definition of these steps). 315 Quantitative metrics to evaluate the skill of the reanalysis in matching the in situ 316 biogeochemical data were computed using an open source tool for model validation 317 (https://github.com/bcdev/opec-tools) based on de Mora et al. [2013]. Daily values of the 318 variables in the reanalysis dataset (y) were matched-up point-to-point in space and time with the 319 observations (o). Parametric statistics were then computed and presented in Taylor and Target 320 diagrams that show [Taylor, 2001; Jolliff et al., 2009]: Pearson correlation coefficient (ρ), 321

standard deviation of the output (σ) normalized by the standard deviation of the observations 322 (σ_0), bias of the output, bias=mean(y-o), normalized by σ_0 , unbiased root mean square deviation 323 (RMSD') normalized by σ_0 and taken with the algebraic sign of the differences between the 324 standard deviation of the output and the observations, sign(σ - σ_0). In addition, we computed 325 "robust" skill metrics that are sounder than parametric metrics when the distribution of the 326 variables is non-gaussian, because robust metrics are based on the percentiles and ranks of the 327 distributions and thus they are less affected by outliers [e.g., Daszykowski et al., 2007]. Robust 328 metrics were presented in a Target diagram showing [Butenschön et al., 2015]: the bias 329 computed as the median value of the reanalysis-to-observation mismatch, $bias^*$ =median(y-o), 330 normalized by the interquartile range of the observations (IQR₀); the unbiased median absolute 331 error, MAE'=median{abs[y-o-bias*]}, normalized by IQR_o, and taken with the algebraic sign of 332 the differences between the interquartile range of the output and the observations, sign(IQR-333 334 IQR_o); the Spearman rank correlation coefficient, ρ_s . The latter was used also in the case studies, to compute cross-correlation among time series of variables from the reanalysis; we computed 335 also the significance level p that such correlation is different from zero, at a confidence level of 336 99%, that is *p*<0.01. 337

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- 339 3 Results and discussion
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- 3.1 Skill in matching the ocean color data

In the years 1998-2009, the distribution of chlorophyll observed in the North West European shelf was characterized by sharp gradients from the coastal areas towards the oceanic waters (Figure 3a), and the reanalysis matched this pattern quite closely (Figure 4).

Simulated concentrations were lower than satellite observations in coastal areas, however the 345 satellite observations were more uncertain in these regions compared to the open shelf (Figure 346 3c), due to re-suspended sediments and colored dissolved organic matter discharged by rivers 347 [Sathyendranath et al., 2000]. In oceanic waters, the reanalysis overestimated the observed 348 chlorophyll concentrations because the model was overestimating nutrients in the boundary 349 ocean regions (see Section 3.2). In addition, in the northern oceanic waters, the skill of the 350 351 reanalysis was constrained by the relatively low number of data items available for assimilation (Fig 3d). 352

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Figure 4 (a) Average spatial distribution of chlorophyll concentration from the monthly assimilative analyses, in years 1998-2009; and (b) difference of such distribution with respect to the average value of the unbiased ocean color data shown in Figure 3a. The dashed line represents the 200 m isobath delimiting the shelf region for convention.

The reanalysis had skill in matching the assimilated satellite observations (Figure 5). The 359 seasonal cycles of the observations were captured by the simulation, as demonstrated by the 360 large areas where the correlation coefficient is higher than 0.6. Some low, or even negative, 361 correlations were computed in the northern basin where observations were sparse, and in coastal 362 areas where observations were more uncertain, limiting the ability of assimilation to correct the 363 model (Figs. 3c and 3d). The RMSD between reanalysis and data is comparable to the 364 chlorophyll concentrations in large parts of the domain, when averaged over the whole period 365 1998-2009 (Fig 4a and 5a). Temporal mismatches between simulation and observations (e.g. 366 misrepresented phytoplankton blooms) contributed to the high RMSD in the coastal areas. 367

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Figure 5 Skill of the reanalysis in simulating the assimilated chlorophyll data: (a) root mean square deviation (RMSD); and (b) Pearson correlation between monthly time series of simulated and observed data at each grid point of the model domain, in the period 1998-2009. The dashed line represents the 200 m isobath delimiting the shelf region for convention.

375 The reanalysis product has a higher skill in matching the ocean color data than the output of the model without data assimilation, i.e. the model reference run. Importantly, this holds for the 376 one-month "forecasts" of the assimilation run (i.e. the output before the assimilation step), as 377 well as for the "analysis" (i.e. the output after the assimilation step) (Figure 6). Both the analyses 378 and forecasts decreased the RMSD of the reference run by at least 1% in ~60% of the basin 379 (Figs. 6a and 6c). The already high reference correlations were not changed markedly by the 380 381 forecasts and analyses, since in both cases changes were smaller than 0.01 in ~60% of the basin 382 (Figs 6b and 6d). Improvements of the reference simulation were higher in magnitude for the analysis than for the forecasts, and the analysis decreased the reference RMSD up to 20% (Fig. 383 384 6a). In general, improvements were less evident in the coastal areas and in the northern basin, but here the assimilated data had higher errors and were less numerous, respectively, as mentioned 385 386 above.



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Figure 6 Differences between the skill of the assimilation and reference runs in simulating the 389 time series of chlorophyll concentrations at each point of the model domain. The top panels (a) 390 and (b) show the differences computed for the assimilative analysis, the bottom panels (c) and 391 (d) show the differences for the assimilative forecasts. The panels on the left (a) and (c) show the 392 percentage differences of the root mean square deviations (RMSDs), normalized by the RMSD 393 of the reference simulation; the panels on the right (b) and (d) show the difference between the 394 correlations computed from the assimilative and reference outputs. The dashed line represents 395 the 200 m isobath delimiting the shelf region for convention. 396

Considering the skill over time, both the assimilative forecasts and analysis had lower errors 397 than the reference simulation throughout most of the reanalysis period (Figure 7). Reduction of 398 the RMSD by assimilation were in general more frequent in the spring and summer seasons (see 399 for example summer 2005), while in winter changes were often negligible (for example winter 400 2005/06). Noticeable reductions of the RMSD were obtained in December 2000, 2001and 2008, 401 but these results were less robust, because in December typically only a small amount of data 402 was available for assimilation and validation, due to cloud cover and to the low solar zenith 403 angle at the latitudes of the study region. In general, re-initialization at the analysis step 404 improved the subsequent forecast. However, in some instances, the forecasts were worse than the 405 406 reference, and the analysis could only mitigate the deterioration of the simulation (e.g. in springsummer 1998). Similar temporal patterns of skill improvement and deterioration were found in 407 408 the time series of reference, analysis and forecast correlations with the ocean color data (not 409 shown).



Figure 7 Differences between the RMSD of the assimilative and reference outputs in estimating the spatial distributions of chlorophyll in the entire North East Atlantic, at each month of the period 1998-2009 (J is January). The two lines represent the differences of the assimilative forecasts (For, circles) and analysis (Ana, crosses) with respect to the reference (Ref).

Improved estimates of the assimilated data were expected from the analysis, and essentially 417 this achievement indicates that the data assimilation algorithm was implemented correctly 418 [Gregg et al., 2009]. However, the improved skill from the one-month forecasts shown in 419 Figures 6 and 7 was not obvious, since forecasting the not-yet-assimilated data is a challenging 420 task even for state-of-the-art operational systems [Ford et al., 2012; Teruzzi et al., 2014]. In 421 422 principle, the re-initialization of the assimilated variable closer to the data should improve also the forecast of the next available data, with respect to the reference run. However, re-initialized 423 biogeochemical fields often tend to be "forgotten" and to converge back to the reference 424 425 simulation because of the effect of hydrodynamics, forcing, boundaries values, biogeochemical processes [Allen et al., 2003; Friedrichs et al., 2006; Teruzzi et al., 2014]. In addition, 426 multivariate analysis can produce values that are not consistent with the simulated model 427 428 dynamics, e.g. outlier nutrient values, thus developing simulation instabilities that can lead the forecast to deteriorate both the assimilated and un-assimilated variables [Gregg et al., 2009; 429 *Ciavatta et al.*, 2011]. These potential shortcomings of assimilation may explain the limited areas 430 of skill deterioration pointed out in Figure 6, such as in the complex coastal zones. 431

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3.2 Skill in matching the in situ data

In general, the reanalysis provided skilled estimates of the in situ physical and biogeochemical data in the North East Atlantic in the years 1998-2009. The output captured qualitatively the central position and dispersion of most of the observations, for most of the variables (Figure 8). The reanalysis-to-observation match-ups are well aligned along the bisector line of the plots for temperature, salinity and dissolved oxygen, indicating a skilled

representation of both the magnitude and variability of the observations. The match-ups for 439 phosphate, silicate and nitrate indicate a general overestimation of nutrients, while the reanalysis 440 underestimated (overestimated) low (high) pCO₂ data. Interestingly, in the plots of nutrients, two 441 areas of elevated data density are distinguishable at low and high concentrations, representing the 442 summer and winter conditions respectively, which in turn are related to the seasonal cycle of 443 primary production and stratification. This pattern of nutrients is captured by the reanalysis, 444 though the winter concentrations are overestimated. Match-ups for in situ chlorophyll and 445 ammonia are scattered in the plot, indicating that the high variability of these data was not 446 described by the reanalysis. Finally, the reanalysis was able to represent the magnitude of the pH 447 data, but not their fluctuations. 448

The quantitative metrics confirm the high skill of the reanalysis in estimating temperature, 449 450 salinity and dissolved oxygen (e.g., both the Pearson and Spearman correlations were higher than 451 (0.7) (Figure 9). The skill for the majority of other variables was relatively high when robust metrics were used (Fig. 9c), rather than the metrics based on the Gaussian assumption (Figs. 9a 452 and 9b). A clear example is *in situ* chlorophyll, which is much closer to the center in the robust 453 Target diagram 9c, rather than in the standard Target 9b. Chlorophyll, phosphate, nitrate and 454 silicate all reached correlations 0.6 or higher when the Spearman rank correlation was computed 455 (9c). Robust metrics make the comparison of the variability of observations and estimates 456 457 sounder by using percentiles of the distributions (interquartile and median), which reduce the impact of outliers. For example, outlier data of nutrients imply that the standard deviations are 458 higher for the observations than for the reanalysis, leading these variables to stay below the unit 459 radius in the Taylor diagram in Fig. 9a, and on the left side of the Target diagram in Fig. 9b; 460 however nutrients shifted to the right side of the robust Target diagram in Fig 9c, since the 461

estimates fluctuated more than the data when less weight is given to the outlier observations. Considering the robust skill metrics, the pCO_2 correlation with data is not negligible (~0.4) and the overestimated variability and the bias are within the range of the errors for the other variables. The same holds for pH, though the low Spearman correlation confirms that the model captures the magnitude of this variable, but not its variability.



Figure 8 Density plots of the reanalysis output (y-axis) versus in situ observations (x-axis) measured in the North East Atlantic in the years 1998-2009. The colors represent the density (i.e. number of overlapping observations) in logarithmic scale (note the different scales for the variables). N is the total number of match-ups. The notation of the variables in the plot titles is applied also in Figure 9.

The skill of the reanalysis for the unassimilated variables in Figure 9 was not significantly 473 different from the skill of the reference run (not shown). This means, on the one hand, that the 474 model itself performs satisfactorily in estimating in situ data available in the North East Atlantic. 475 On the other hand, it means that improved ocean color estimates did not come at the cost of 476 worsening the estimates of the other model variables. This is not always the case, since ocean 477 color assimilation can cause unrealistic changes in biogeochemical variables which are not 478 assimilated, reducing the model skill and creating feed-back effects that eventually can blow the 479 simulations [Fontana et al., 2013, Gregg et al., 2009; Ciavatta et al., 2011; Ford et al., 2012; 480 481 Terruzzi et al., 2014]. In our application, two factors can have contributed to the low impact of assimilation on the skill metrics for unassimilated variables, namely the location of the in situ 482 sampling points and the frequency of the assimilation of satellite data. Most of the match-ups 483 484 with *in situ* data occur in coastal case II waters, where ocean color error is higher (Figure 3c) and therefore assimilative corrections are smaller than in the open ocean. This is suggested also by 485 the sensitivity analysis of an analogous assimilation system applied in a subdomain of the study 486 region [Ciavatta et al., 2011]. The relatively low assimilation frequency imposed by the high 487 computational cost of the multivariate ensemble method – i.e. monthly assimilation, compared 488 for example with daily assimilation allowed by the univariate relaxation method in Rousseaux 489 and Gregg [2015] - also constrained our reanalysis to impact more strongly on the skill for 490 unassimilated variables. 491



Figure 9 Skill of the reanalysis in estimating in situ data of ten physical and biogeochemical variables observed in North East Atlantic in the years 1998-2009. Gaussian-base metrics are used in the Taylor (a) and Target (b) diagrams, while robust metrics are shown in the Target diagram (c). The metrics are defined in Section 2.4, the notation of the variables is defined in Fig. 8.

3.3 Case study I: assessment of oxygen deficiency in shelf bottom waters

497

Dissolved oxygen concentration is an essential climate variable [Bojinski et al., 2014], a threat 498 to aquatic life at low concentrations [Vaquer-Sunyer and Duarte, 2008], and an indicator of 499 eutrophication regulated by international legislation [OSPAR, 2013]. The first case study 500 demonstrates that the reanalysis can provide an error-characterized assessment of this indicator. 501 It shows that the bottom of the North West European shelf has large areas at risk of oxygen 502 deficiency (Figure 10), namely the south North Sea, Celtic Sea, Armorican shelf, coastal zones in 503 Scotland, West Ireland and English Channel, but we did not identify anoxic situation in any of 504 these cases. In all the above regions, the reanalysis decadal dataset includes at least one daily 505 506 value of dissolved oxygen below the concentration of 6 mg/L, but still above 2 mg/L; these are the thresholds of oxygen deficiency and anoxia, respectively, defined by the OSPAR 507 Commission for safeguarding the ecosystem of North East Atlantic [OSPAR, 2013]. 508

The extension of the vulnerable area is noticeably larger if we apply a conservative criteria of 509 510 at least 1% confidence on oxygen deficiency (Figure 10b, red plus yellow area, ~ 380,000 km²), rather than a less strict 100% confidence (red area, ~ 340,000 km²). A 1% confidence means that 511 just one of the one-hundred ensemble members estimates daily oxygen below the threshold of 6 512 mg/L in the bottom layer, while 100% confidence means that all one hundred estimate oxygen 513 below 6 mg/L. The more conservative 1% criterion extends the borders of the vulnerable regions 514 (see e.g. in the Celtic Sea), but it includes also areas otherwise neglected by the assessment, i.e. 515 in the Northern North Sea. Overall, the 1% ensemble criterion extends the area of vulnerability 516 by ~ $40,000 \text{ km}^2$, i.e. an area comparable to the surface of Switzerland. 517





Figure 10 (a) Minimum daily values of dissolved oxygen simulated by the ensemble median at the bottom of the shelf in the years 1998-2009 (bathymetry < 200 m) and (b) map of the areas at risk of oxygen deficiency, i.e. with at least one daily value in 1998-2009 below the threshold of 6 mg L⁻¹. In (b), yellow color represent deficient areas at 1% confidence level (i.e. at least one member of the ensemble signals oxygen deficiency), red represents 100% confidence (all the one-hundred members signal deficiency), and blue the areas of the shelf with concentration higher than 6 mg L⁻¹ at 100% confidence.

The simulated absolute minimum values of oxygen at each day, at any point within the risk area, have a clear seasonal pattern and no evident trend in the years 1998-2009 (Figure 11). The lowest values (3.5-4 mg/L) are typically reached in August/September, they increase sharply in autumn and return to not-deficient values in spring. The bottom minima occurred with higher frequency in the Armorican shelf near the Gironde and Loire estuaries, and in the German Bight. The concentrations never descended below the hypoxia threshold; however, they reached persistent low values that were found lethal for some benthic species, e.g. 4.6 mg/L were found
lethal for some fishes and mollusks in the review by *Vaquer-Sunyer and Duarte* [2008]. This low
value was reached at both the 1% and 100% confidence levels (Figure 11).

538





Figure 11 Time series of absolute minimum concentration of dissolved oxygen simulated within the vulnerable area shown in Figure 10; yellow and red lines represent the minimum values at 1% and 100% confidence level, respectively.

543

The location of vulnerable areas identified in Figure 10 matches the global map of hypoxia 544 and eutrophication Rabalais al. [2014] (http://www.wri.org/our-545 areas in et 546 work/project/eutrophication-and-hypoxia/interactive-map-eutrophication-hypoxia) and compares reasonably well with regional studies for the Celtic Sea [O'Boyle and Nolan, 2010], North Sea 547 [Greenwood et al., 2010] and Armorican shelf [Charria et al., 2014]. The latter work presents a 548 continuous, two-year long time series of oxygen data that matches well the seasonal pattern 549 shown in Figure 11. The authors showed that oxygen solubility, seasonal stratification of the 550 water column and bacterial remineralization of organic matter are the potential triggers of low 551 bottom oxygen concentrations in the region, particularly in summer [e.g. O'Boyle and Nolan, 552

2010, Greenwood et al., 2010]. Our simulation extend these findings to the scale of the whole 553 shelf, since we found highly significant anti-correlations between the oxygen series in Figure 11 554 and the daily series of water temperature, bacteria biomass and particulate organic carbon 555 simulated at the same bottom locations (Spearman rank correlations $\rho_s = -0.75$, -0.59 and -0.63, 556 respectively, p<0.01). Furthermore, Figure 11 suggests that oxygen deficiency may occur also in 557 winter months at some shelf locations (e.g. near estuaries). This could not be directly confirmed 558 by measurements collected in the ICES oxygen data base, where the coverage for bottom water 559 in winter is far too low to permit the identification of this phenomenon (www.ices.dk). 560 Therefore, these findings stimulates increasing the extension, frequency and seasonal coverage 561 of European bottom water monitoring for better understanding and predicting oxygen dynamics. 562

563

564 The soundness of the confidence levels shown in Figures 10 and 11 depends on the proved 565 reliability of the model description of oxygen (Section 3.3), but also on our arbitrary choices in the set-up of the ensemble simulation, for example in the initial ensemble conditions for oxygen 566 (Section 2.2.1). However, dissolved oxygen was neither analyzed nor perturbed systematically in 567 the reanalysis, nor were temperature and salinity, which are the physical drivers of the oxygen 568 solubility in the water column. Thus, the oxygen spread in the ensemble was propagated by 569 biological processes only, which were perturbed through the analysis and perturbation of the 570 571 other model state variables, as well as through the perturbation of the surface irradiance (Section 2.2.1). On the one hand, such propagation of the spread implies that the assimilation system for 572 surface chlorophyll was capable of conveying the assimilated information and the model 573 uncertainty across the simulated trophic structure, and down to the bottom of the water column to 574 affect the simulation of oxygen at depth. On the other hand, it implies also that the range of the 575

576 confidence level (i.e. the spread of oxygen) would be underestimated if the errors we assumed 577 for the other model variables and irradiance forcing (i.e. the standard deviations of their 578 perturbations) were underestimated in the first instance.

Besides dissolved oxygen, the reanalysis output also contains data characterizing the spatialtemporal variability and confidence levels of the other ten variables linked to biogeochemical indicators listed in European legislation [*OSPAR*, 2013], including chlorophyll, nutrients and pH, which are skill-assessed in sections 3.1 and 3.2 (see Appendix 2 for a complete list of the reanalysis output).

584

3.4 Case study II: assessment of atmospheric CO_2 uptake by the shelf

585

The reanalysis dataset can be applied to estimate the interannual variability of the shelf uptake 586 of atmospheric CO₂, and to evaluate the confidence levels for such estimates, as shown in this 587 case study. The North East Atlantic is a net sink of atmospheric CO₂ at a high confidence level 588 (Figure 12). The ocean uptake increases from south to the northern colder waters (from ~5 to 15 589 mol C $m^{-2} yr^{-1}$) and from the coast towards the open ocean. On the shelf, the uptake is typically 590 lower than 5 mol C m^{-2} yr⁻¹ (region delimited by the 200 m isobath in Figure 12). Weak sources 591 of CO₂ to the atmosphere (<1 mol C m^{-2} yr⁻¹) were found in the English Channel, Irish sea, and 592 near estuaries. The interannual variability of the fluxes was more homogeneous and smaller than 593 the interannual means, in general (Figure 12b). However, variability and means were comparable 594 in the Irish Sea and English Channel, indicating that these areas can switch from being weak 595 sinks [Kitidis et al., 2012] to weak sources of CO₂ in some years, as a consequence of 596 interannual fluctuations of the ecosystem dynamics (e.g., primary production) and forcing (e.g., 597 water temperature) [Marrec et al., 2015; Borges and Frenkignoulle, 2003]. The uncertainty in 598

the fluxes was in general lower than their average values, indicating that the reanalysis is suitable for assessing flux directions, i.e. defining sink or source zones, at a 90% confidence level. However, in some zones uncertainty and fluxes were comparable low, for example in the English Channel, south North Sea, and Norwegian coast (Figure 12d). These areas should be considered flux-neutral at 90% confidence, like the English Channel that was already classified a "notsignificant-sink" by *Borges and Frankignoulle* [2003].



Figure 12 Air-sea flux of CO₂: (a) average yearly values in 1998-2009 (positive values represent sink, negative values source); (b) interannual variability as range maximum-minimum of the yearly values; (c) uncertainty as average value of the range between the $95^{\text{th}}-5^{\text{th}}$ percentiles of the ensemble. Map (d) shows the uncertainty in (c) normalized by the average in (a). The dashed line represents the 200 m isobath delimiting the shelf region for convention.

The overall annual uptake of carbon dioxide in the shelf region was 41 Tg C y⁻¹ on average in 614 the period 1998-2009, but this value has an uncertainty of ± 5 Tg C y⁻¹ (i.e. ~25% of the average), 615 at 90% confidence level, and with an interannual variability of ~20% (Figure 13, Table 1). These 616 estimates are coherent with previous literature findings (Table 1). An estimate of the average 617 obtained with a comparable model, but referred to the years 1989-2004, lie within the range 618 found in this study [Wakelin et al., 2012]. Our average value was higher than the ones provided 619 for the North Sea only [Thomas et al., 2005] and for the European shelf-seas altogether [Borges 620 et al., 2006], but they overlap with the uncertainty range in the Gulf of Biscay [Chen and Borges, 621 2009]. 622

The interannual variability of the yearly uptake of CO₂ ranged between 36-42 Tg C y⁻¹ (Table 1 and Figure 13), and we found it was related to the interannual variability of the gross primary production (Spearman rank correlation $\rho_s = 0.72$, p<0.01), rather than to the interannual fluctuations of sea surface temperature (not-significant rank correlation). These results agree with *Wakelin et al.* [2012], who suggested that biological processes exert a stronger effect than temperature on the air-sea flux of CO₂ in the study region.

Our estimate of the uncertainty of the total flux ($\pm 5 \text{ Tg C y}^{-1}$, i.e. 25% of the average) appears sound, considering that it is coherent with the error assessed for pCO₂ observations (percentage RMSD=~20%, Section 3.2), and it is comparable in percentage to the range of uncertainty estimated by Thomas et al., 2005 (~22%, Table 1). The estimated uncertainty of the flux is arguably linked to the uncertainty of primary production (see above rank correlation), which is however constrained rather directly by the corrections of ocean color assimilation. In addition, the estimated uncertainty of the flux was larger than the arbitrary perturbations imposed on dissolved organic carbon (DIC) in the assimilative initialization (1%, Section 2.2.1), suggesting that the subjective initial perturbation of DIC did not strongly constrain the estimated uncertainty of its flux at the atmosphere interface. Our estimate of the uncertainty of the CO_2 flux is limited by not accounting for the error in the un-perturbed temperature and salinity, which however are simulated skillfully by the model system (Section 3.2).



641

Figure 13 Interannual variability and confidence of the yearly sink of atmospheric CO_2 in the North West European shelf (bathymetry shallower than 200 m); the grey band represents the range between the 95th and 5th percentiles of the reanalysis ensemble.

Table 1 Air-sea fluxes of CO_2 in the North West European shelf (positive values indicate sinking), ranges of their interannual variability and uncertainty. The total fluxes were computed for the shelf region with bathymetry shallower than 200 m represented in Figure 12 (1.2 million km²). Previous reference values are reported for comparison.

	mol C m ⁻² y ⁻¹	Tg C y ⁻¹	References
Average	2.8	41	This work
		39.6	Same domain as this work [Wakelin et al., 2012]
	1.38		North Sea only [Thomas et al., 2005]
	1.9		European shelf seas altogether[Borges et al., 2006]
Interannual range	2.1-3.5	36-42	This work
		37.2-42	Standard deviation 2.4 Tg C y ⁻¹ [Wakelin et al., 2012]
Uncertainty range	2.4-3.1	36-46	This work
	1.7-2.91		Gulf of Biscay [Chen and Borges, 2009]
	1.2-1.5		North Sea only [Thomas et al., 2005]

The provision of sound estimates of the uncertainty of carbon fluxes based on assimilative 647 ensemble simulations is an added value of the reanalysis with respect to the reference simulation. 648 The relatively large range of uncertainty estimated here calls for the development and 649 assimilation of ocean color products with higher accuracy for type-2 shelf-sea waters, so that the 650 reanalysed air-sea fluxes of carbon dioxide can be constrained more strongly. The assimilation of 651 optical data from ocean color could help, because such data have a lower error than chlorophyll 652 in shelf seas, and they can constrain directly a larger number of variables that are optically active 653 and contribute to carbon fluxes, such as particulate and colored dissolved organic matter 654 [*Ciavatta et al.*, 2014]. A further promising option is including pCO₂ assimilation in shelf-sea 655 656 reanalysis, since this arguably improved the estimation of the air-sea flux of CO₂ in an annual simulation of the global ocean biogeochemistry in the work by While et al. [2012]. 657

The reanalysis dataset contains values and confidence ranges of a large number of biogeochemical fluxes which are useful to investigate nutrient cycles and ecosystem processes in the North West European shelf-sea (see the list in Appendix 2).

661

662 4 Conclusions

663

The reanalysis of the North East Atlantic biogeochemistry provided a unique decadal dataset that has considerable skill in approximating ocean observations, and that can enhance the understanding and management of the North West European shelf ecosystem, in relation to eutrophication and fluctuations of the carbon cycle.

Importantly, the reanalysis comes with confidence levels that quantify the uncertainty of the 668 biogeochemical estimates. The crucial implications of this supplementary information were 669 evident in two case studies, where we assessed that: 670

671

• An area as large as $340,000 \text{ km}^2$ was vulnerable to oxygen deficiency at the bottom of the North West European shelf, but additional 40,000 km² are included when using a strict 1% 672 confidence criteria; 673

• The North West European shelf is a net sink of atmospheric CO₂, but our simulated 674 uptake can range between 36-46 Tg C yr⁻¹, when applying a 90% confidence level for the 675 estimates. 676

The confidence levels provided here are an added value of the reanalysis with respect to the 677 model output alone, because estimates of reliability are much needed for model applications in 678 marine policy [Hyder et al., 2015]. For example, provision of percentile confidence level is 679 required for eutrophication indicators inferred from monitoring programs [OSPAR, 2013], but 680 quantification of uncertainty is a crucial gap when such indicators are estimated through model 681 simulations [*Piroddi et al.*, 2015]. The ensemble-based reanalysis presented here can help with 682 tackling this gap in our knowledge of the North West European shelf, and the same 683 methodological approach can be applied with other shelf-sea models running on adequate high 684 performance computing facilities. Further insights into the confidence in simulated ecosystem 685 indicators and biogeochemical fluxes - including the contribution of uncertainty in 686 hydrodynamics not accounted for here - can be achieved using an ensemble of different 687 biogeochemical models [Lenhart et al., 2010; Skogen et al., 2014; Anav et al., 2013]. The use of 688 our reanalysis in such a type of ensemble is the subject of our ongoing work within the Marine 689 690 Environment Monitoring Service of the European Copernicus programme.

Finally, to our knowledge this is the first reanalysis that is taking advantage of the by-pixel estimates of the errors of the assimilated ocean color product, decreasing the level of subjectivity often applied in biogeochemical data assimilation [*Ciavatta et al.*, 2014]. However, the product we used was derived primarily for case-I waters. We expect that further advantages for biogeochemical reanalysis in shelf-seas will derive from the availability of long-term, integrated products for case-I and II waters, e.g. from the current efforts of the Ocean Colour Climate Change Initiative of the European Space Agency.

698 The reanalysis product presented in this paper is available for download and applications at 699 the data portal http://portal.marineopec.eu/

700

701 Acknowledgments and Data

702

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714 Appendix 1. Set-up of the assimilated observations and errors

715

Daily OC_CCI data of chlorophyll concentration at 4 km resolution were un-biased, scaled onto the model grid ($1/6^{\circ}$ in longitude, and $1/9^{\circ}$ in latitude, Section 2.1) and merged in five day composites following the procedure described in this section. Bias and RMSD of the OC_CCI data are provided in base-10 logarithm, while chlorophyll data are provided as concentrations in mg m⁻³ [*Grant et al.*, 2015]. Therefore, in the reanalysis, central and dispersion parameters of the data distributions were back-and-forward transformed from concentration units to natural logarithm, which is used in the analysis step of assimilation (Section 2.2).

Given the chlorophyll concentration at pixel *p*, and day *t* ($y_{p,t}$), and base-10 logarithmic values of the bias ($\delta_{10,p,t}$) and mean-square-deviation $\Delta^2_{10,p,t}$ we approximated per-pixel values of the base-10 logarithm of the standard deviation of the data as [*Grant et al.*, 2015]:

726
$$\sigma_{10,p,t} = \sqrt{\left| \varDelta_{10,p,t}^2 - \delta_{10,p,t}^2 \right|}$$
 A1

Assuming that $y_{p,t}$ represents the mean value of the log-normal distribution of chlorophyll [e.g., *Campbell*, 1995], the mean value of the log-transformed distribution ($\mu_{10,p,t}$) was calculated (eq. 39 in *Mood et al.* [1974] and *Campbell* [1995]):

.1

730
$$\mu_{10,p,t} = \log_{10}(y_{p,t}) - 1/2 \cdot \sigma_{10,p,t}^2 \cdot \log_e(10)$$
A1.2

And the bias-corrected value $\mu'_{10,p,t}$ was computed:

732
$$\mu'_{10,p,t} = \mu_{10,p,t} + \delta_{10,p,t}$$
 A1.3

taking account of the OC_CCI convention of negative values of bias ($\delta_{10,p,t} < 0$) for ocean color overestimating actual concentrations [*Grant et al.*, 2015]. The un-biased, scaled, five-day composite at each model grid cell c, $\mu'_{10,c}$, was computed by averaging in space and time the bias-corrected data:

737
$$\mu'_{10,c} = \frac{1}{T \cdot N} \cdot \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{p=1}^{N} \mu'_{10,p,t}$$
A1.4

Where T=5 is the number of days, while the number of pixels included in a cell of the model grid is N, which varies in space and time depending on the coordinates of the cell and the number of missing observations.

Similarly, the RMSD and bias of the cell composite were computed [*Grant et al.*, 2015]:

742
$$\Delta_{10,c}^2 = \frac{1}{T \cdot N} \cdot \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{p=1}^N \Delta_{10,p,t}^2$$
A1.5

743
$$\delta_{10,c} = \frac{1}{T \cdot N} \cdot \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{p=1}^{N} \delta_{10,p,t}$$
A1.6

And the standard deviation of the cell composite was approximated [*Grant et al.*, 2015]:

745
$$\sigma_{10,c} = \sqrt{\left|\Delta_{10,c}^2 - \delta_{10,c}^2\right|}$$
A1.7

We changed the base of the mean and variance of the distributions to natural logarithm by using mathematical properties [*Campbell*, 1995]:

748
$$\mu'_{e,c} = \mu'_{10,c} \cdot log_e(10)$$
 A1.8

749
$$\sigma_{e,c}^2 = \sigma_{10,c}^2 \cdot [log_e(10)]^2$$
 A1.9

These parameters were used in the analysis step of assimilation to compute pseudo-random Gaussian distributions of the observations (Section 2.2). In addition, the mean value (y'_c) and standard deviation (s_c) of the unbiased log-normal distribution of chlorophyll, in concentration units, were obtained from the logarithmic mean and variance in eq. A1.8 and A1.9, by using mathematical properties of log-normal distributions (see eq. 39 in *Mood et al.* [1974]):

755
$$y'_c = e^{(\mu'_{e,c} + \frac{\sigma'_{e,c}}{2})}$$
 A1.10

756
$$s_c = \sqrt{(e^{\sigma_{e,c}^2} - 1) \cdot e^{(2\mu'_{e,c} + \sigma_{e,c}^2)}}$$
 A1.11

These are the parameters used in the presentation of the assimilated data in Figure 3.

758

759 Appendix 2. The reanalysis dataset

760

The reanalysis dataset is available in digital files produced in Network Common Data Form 761 (NetCDF) version 4 (http://www.unidata.ucar.edu), following the standard convention "Climate 762 and Forecast" metadata CF-1.5 (http://cfconventions.org/). Separated files contain different 763 statistics of the reanalysis ensemble (median, mean, 5th percentile, 95th percentile, minimum, 764 maximum), for daily and monthly means of pelagic and benthic variables and fluxes listed in 765 Tables A2.1-A.2.4. An extensive description of such variables and fluxes was provided by 766 Butenschön et al. [2015]. The full reanalysis dataset has a size of ~12 Tera bytes. A subset of the 767 regridded dataset can be visualized, processed and downloaded at the data portal 768 http://portal.marineopec.eu/, while the full dataset is available on request to the corresponding 769 770 author.

points out variables linked to ecosystem indicators specified by the OSPAR Convention [OSPAR, 2013]. Ind Notation Unit Description tons C/d^{-1} netPP Net primary production pCO2w µatm Partial pressure of CO₂ in water Х pН 1 pН mg C m^{-3} P1c Diatoms carbon mg C m⁻³ P2c Nanophytoplankon carbon mg C m⁻³ P3c Picophytoplankton carbon mg C m⁻³ P4c Microphytoplankton carbon Х Chl1 $mg C m^{-3}$ Diatoms chlorophyll mg C m⁻³ Nanophytoplankon chlorophyll Х Chl2 Х mg C m⁻³ Picophytoplankton chlorophyll Chl3 Х Chl4 mg C m⁻³ Microphytoplankton chlorophyll Х mmol m⁻³ Nitrate N3n Х N4n mmol m⁻³ Ammonium Х mmol m⁻³ Phosphate N1p mmol m⁻³ Х N5s Silicate mmol m-3 Oxygen Х O20 W m⁻² EIR Irradiance mg C m⁻³ B1c Bacteria carbon mg C m⁻³ Z4c Mesozooplankton carbon mg C m^{-3} Z5c Microzooplankton carbon Z6c mg C m⁻³ Heterotrophic Nanoflagellates carbon R1c+R2c+R3c mg C m⁻³ Total DOC mg C m⁻³ R4c+R6C+R8c Total POC mg C m⁻³ L2c Calcite Х ETW °C Temperature x1X psu Salinity rholocal kg m⁻³ Sea water density m^{-2}/s nuv Vertical turbulent diffusivity oChl mg Chl Total chlorophyll averaged over the optical depth opticalDepth Optical Depth m mg C m⁻² Air – sea flux of CO₂ fairmg

Table A2.1. List of pelagic variables available as daily means in the reanalysis output files. The last column points out variables linked to ecosystem indicators specified by the OSPAR Convention [*OSPAR*, 2013].

Notation	Unit	Description
grossPP	tons C/d ⁻¹	Photosynthesis (gross production)
PResn	tons C/d^{-1}	Phytonlankton respiration
ZResp	tons C/d^{-1}	Zooplankton respiration
BResp	tons C/d^{-1}	Bacterial respiration
TotA	umol/kg	Total alkalinity
bioalk	umol/kg	Bioalkalinity
O3c	mmol m ⁻³	Dissolved organic carbon (DIC)
R1c	$mg C m^{-3}$	Labile dissolved organic carbon (DOC)
R2c+R3c	$mg C m^{-3}$	Recalcitrant DOC
R4c	$mg C m^{-3}$	Small size particulate organic carbon (POC)
R6c	mg C m ⁻³	Medium Size POC
R8c	mg C m ⁻³	Large size POC
P1n	mmol N m ⁻³	Diatoms chlorophyll
P2n	mmol N m ⁻³	Nanophytoplankon nitrogen
P3n	mmol N m ⁻³	Picophytoplankton nitrogen
P4n	mmol N m ⁻³	Microphytoplankton nitrogen
P1p	mmol P m ⁻³	Diatoms nitrogen
P2p	mmol P m ⁻³	Nanophytoplankon phosphate
P3p	mmol P m ⁻³	Picophytoplankton phosphate
P4p	mmol P m ⁻³	Microphytoplankton phosphate
P1s	mmol Si m ⁻³	Diatoms silicate
BGE	1	Bacterial growth efficiency
Bln	mmol N m ⁻³	Bacteria nitrogen
B1p	mmol P m ⁻³	Bacteria phosphate
netB1	tons C d ⁻¹	Bacterial production
fPXZXc	tons C d ⁻¹	Zooplankton Predation on Phytoplankton
fBXZXc	tons C d ⁻¹	Zooplankton Predation on Bacteria
fRXZXc	tons C d ⁻¹	Zooplankton Predation on Particulate Matter
fPXRPc	tons C d ⁻¹	Phytoplankton Excretion and Mortality to POC
fZXRPc	tons C d ⁻¹	Zooplankton Excretion and Mortality to POC
fPXRDc	tons C d ⁻¹	Phytoplankton Excretion to DOC
fZXRDc	tons C d ⁻¹	Zooplankton Excretion to DOC
fBXRDc	tons C d ⁻¹	Bacteria Mortality DOC
fRPBXc	tons C d ⁻¹	POC uptake by bacteria
fN1PXp	Mmol P d^{-1}	Phosphate Uptake by Phytoplankton
fN3PXn	Mmol N d ⁻¹	Nitrate Uptake by Phytoplankton
fN4PXn	Mmol N d^{-1}	Ammonium Uptake by Phytoplankton
fN5PXs	Mmol Si d^{-1}	Silicate Uptake by Phytoplankton
fB1N1p	Mmol P d^{-1}	Phosphate Production by Bacteria
fB1NIn	Mmol N d^{-1}	Ammonium Production by Bacteria
CProd	tons C d^{-1}	Net ecosystem production (Photosynthesis- pelagic respiration)
fRDBXc	tons C d^{-1}	Bacteria uptake of DOC
calc	$mgC m^{-3} d^{-1}$	Net calcification

Table A2.2. List of pelagic variables available as monthly means in the reanalysis output files.

Notation	Unit	Description
oL2c	mg m ⁻²	Calcite
Y2c	mg m ⁻²	Deposit Feeders, Macrobenthos carbon
Y3c	mg m ⁻²	Suspension / Filter Feeders, Macrobenthos carbon
Y4c	mg m ⁻²	Meiobenthos carbon
H1c	mg m ⁻²	Aerobic Bacteria carbon
H2c	mg m ⁻²	Anaerobic Bacteria carbon
Q1c	mg m ⁻²	Dissolved Detrital carbon
Q6c	mg m ⁻²	Slowly Degradable carbon
Q7c	mg m ⁻²	Available Refractory carbon
K1p	mmol m ⁻²	Benthic Phosphate
K3n	mmol m ⁻²	Benthic Nitrate
K4n	mmol m ⁻²	Benthic Ammonium
K5s	mmol m ⁻²	Benthic Silicate
G2o	mmol m ⁻²	Benthic Oxygen
G3c	mmol m ⁻²	Benthic Carbon Dioxide
G4n	mmol m ⁻²	Benthic Nitrogen Dioxide
O17c	$mg m^{-2}$	Buried Refractory Carbon
Table A2.4 . L Notation	ist of benthic variable Unit	es available as monthly means in the reanalysis output files. Description
:00	C2 .1-1	Diffusion of increasing control from hearthic lower
wsiO3c	mg C m a	Diffusion of inorganic carbon from beninic laver

Calcite precipitation in benthic layer

Calcite dissolution in benthic layer

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wsibl2c wsobl2c mgC m mgC m

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