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Title Page

Assessing biophysical controls on Gulf of Mexico hypoxia through probabilistic modeling

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Abstract

A mechanistic model is developed to predict mid-summer bottom water dissolved oxygen (BWDO) concentration and hypoxic area on the Louisiana shelf of the northern Gulf of Mexico (1985-2011). Because of its parsimonious formulation, the model possesses many of the benefits of simpler, more empirical models, in that it is computationally efficient and can rigorously account for uncertainty through Bayesian inference. At the same time, the model incorporates important biophysical processes such that its parameterization can be informed by field-measured biological and physical rates. The model is used to explore how freshwater flow, nutrient load, benthic oxygen demand, and wind velocity affect hypoxia on western and eastern sections of the shelf, delineated by the Atchafalaya River outfall. The model explains over 70% of the variability in BWDO on both shelf sections, and outperforms linear regression models developed from the same input variables. Model results suggest that physical factors (i.e., wind and flow) control a larger portion of the year-to-year variability in hypoxia than previously thought, especially on the western shelf; though seasonal nutrient loads remain an important driver of hypoxia, as well. Unlike several previous Gulf hypoxia modeling studies, results do not indicate a temporal shift in the system’s propensity for hypoxia formation (i.e., no regime change). Results do indicate that benthic oxygen demand is a substantial BWDO sink, and a better understanding of the long-term dynamics of this sink is required to better predict how the size of the hypoxic zone will respond to proposed reductions in nutrient loading.

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Keywords

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41 hypoxia, Gulf of Mexico, dissolved oxygen modeling, Bayesian modeling, nutrients,

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Manuscript Body**45 Introduction**

46 Hypoxia, typically defined by dissolved oxygen concentrations of less than 2 mg L^{-1} , is a
47 water quality problem common to many coastal systems worldwide (Diaz and Rosenberg 2008).
48 Hypoxia is often caused or exacerbated by anthropogenic nutrient inputs, though non-
49 anthropogenic processes, such as stratification, are also known to affect its spatial and temporal
50 variability (Rabalais et al. 2010). A particularly well-studied example of coastal hypoxia is the
51 hypoxic zone along the Louisiana shelf of the northern Gulf of Mexico (Rabalais et al. 2007a).
52 Because Gulf hypoxia is largely driven by nutrient pollution from the Mississippi River Basin,
53 and because of ecological and economic concerns over the hypoxic zone, management action
54 plans have been developed to reduce its average size to 5000 km^2 or less (EPA 2008).

55 Quantitative modeling plays an important role in the management of Gulf hypoxia by
56 synthesizing knowledge about the causes of hypoxia, and by predicting how the severity of
57 hypoxia is affected by changing nutrient loads and other environmental factors (Scavia et al.
58 2004, Justic et al. 2007). Most existing Gulf hypoxia models can either be categorized as
59 ‘simple’ in that they are more empirical and have little (or no) spatial detail (Greene et al. 2009,
60 Turner et al. 2012), or ‘complex’ in that they are more mechanistic and provide richer spatial
61 information (Bierman et al. 1994, Hetland and DiMarco 2008, Fennel et al. 2013).

62 The purpose of this study is to develop a model of intermediate complexity for assessing the
63 relative importance of various biological and physical drivers of hypoxia on different sections of
64 the Louisiana shelf. The resulting model has a parsimonious mechanistic formulation and a
65 coarse spatial resolution, making it computationally efficient. As such, it can be calibrated
66 within a probabilistic framework, thoroughly cross-validated, and readily applied to developing

67 scenarios relevant to water quality management. At the same time, the model incorporates
 68 sufficient biophysical realism such that its parameterization can be informed by field-measured
 69 biological and physical rates. Like simpler hypoxia models, this model relies on a steady-state
 70 model solution, but it uses temporally referenced inputs (such as wind stress) that are specific to
 71 the time of prediction. Thus, the model can be used to assess how factors such as nutrient
 72 loading, benthic oxygen demand, and wind control the temporal and spatial variability of
 73 hypoxia over a multi-decadal study period (1985-2011). More broadly, this work helps address
 74 the need for probabilistic mechanistic models that can rigorously characterize scientific
 75 uncertainty and provide probabilistic scenario forecasts (Beck 1987, Clark et al. 2001, Reckhow
 76 2003).

77 Another difference between this study and previous Gulf modeling studies is that it makes
 78 use of new estimates of mean bottom water dissolved oxygen (BWDO) concentration and
 79 hypoxic area, as determined from a geostatistical model (Obenour et al. 2013). The geostatistical
 80 estimates were developed for mid-summer conditions, based on dissolved oxygen measurements
 81 collected by the Louisiana Universities Marine Consortium (LUMCON) during annual
 82 monitoring cruises (Rabalais et al. 1999, Rabalais et al. 2007a). The geostatistical approach
 83 addresses biasing issues that were shown to affect previous hypoxic area estimates derived from
 84 these data. In addition, the geostatistical estimates include measures of uncertainty, related
 85 primarily to sampling coverage and types of sampling instruments used. These uncertainties are
 86 used in the present study, effectively giving more weight to estimates with lower uncertainty.

87 This work builds on previous studies that used largely empirical models to identify key
 88 anthropogenic and environmental factors related to Gulf hypoxia formation. All of these earlier
 89 models confirmed the relationship between mid-summer hypoxia and spring nutrient load

90 (Scavia et al. 2003, Turner et al. 2006, Scavia and Donnelly 2007). However, other studies have
 91 shown that river flow, which is significantly correlated with nutrient load, is also an effective
 92 predictor of hypoxia, such that the relative roles of nutrients and flows cannot be completely
 93 disentangled using empirical models alone (Wiseman et al. 1997, Forrest et al. 2011). Flows
 94 affect the degree of water column stratification, which was confirmed to be another important
 95 predictor of DO, along with nutrients, in a recent geostatistical modeling study (Obenour et al.
 96 2012). The importance of both nutrients and stratification has also been demonstrated in
 97 mechanistic modeling of an intensely monitored location on the eastern shelf (Justic et al. 1996,
 98 2002). In addition, multiple recent empirical and mechanistic modeling studies have found wind
 99 to be an important predictor of hypoxic area, likely because of wind's influence on transport and
 100 stratification (Forrest et al. 2011, Feng et al. 2012, Feng et al. 2013, Justic and Wang 2013). The
 101 present study provides a means of quantifying and comparing these relationships over a 27-year
 102 study period (1985-2011) on the east and west Louisiana shelf.

103 **Materials and methods**

104 *Data*

105 Mid-summer mean dissolved oxygen concentration and hypoxic area are the primary
 106 response variables considered in this study. Results from a geostatistical model (Obenour et al.
 107 2013) provide estimates of these variables, with associated uncertainties, for two sections of the
 108 Louisiana shelf, divided at the Atchafalaya River outfall location (Fig. 1). The west shelf section
 109 extends from 342.5-672.5 km Universal Trans Mercator (UTM) easting, and the east shelf
 110 section extends from 672.5-837.5 km UTM easting. The shelf sections represented in the model
 111 are limited to depths of 3 to 80 meters, and to UTM northings greater than 3122.5 km. Overall,
 112 the study area covers the regions where mid-summer hypoxia is commonly observed. The

113 geostatistical model inputs include only LUMCON dissolved oxygen (DO) measurements,
 114 spatial coordinates, and bathymetry. No biophysical processes are represented in the
 115 geostatistical model, so the results provide an independent dataset for calibrating mechanistic
 116 models. The uncertainties in the geostatistical estimates are approximately normally distributed,
 117 and are represented as such in this study (Fig. 2). For brevity, we refer to these geostatistical
 118 estimates of BWDO as ‘observations’.

119 The study uses United States Geological Survey (USGS) monthly flow and nutrient loading
 120 estimates (Adjusted Maximum Likelihood Estimator method (Runkel et al. 2004)) for the
 121 Atchafalaya and Mississippi Rivers
 122 (http://toxics.usgs.gov/hypoxia/mississippi/nutrient_flux_yield_est.html). Monthly flow and
 123 load estimates were interpolated (linearly) to determine loads for consecutive 30-day averaging
 124 periods leading up to the starts of the annual shelfwide cruises (which began on different dates in
 125 different years). Previous studies have generally focused on total nitrogen (TN) or nitrate plus
 126 nitrite nitrogen (NO_{2-3}) loading data for modeling hypoxia (Scavia et al. 2004). While TN loads
 127 are naturally larger in magnitude than NO_{2-3} loads, they tend to be highly correlated and yield
 128 similar results in more empirical models (Forrest et al. 2011). However, because this model is
 129 mechanistically derived, the magnitude of the bioavailable nitrogen loading is important. TN
 130 includes NO_{2-3} , NH_3 , and organic nitrogen (ON); and while NO_{2-3} and NH_3 are highly
 131 bioavailable, organic nitrogen is more recalcitrant. Based on studies suggesting that about 60%
 132 of Mississippi River ON is dissolved (Goolsby and Battaglin 2001), and about 20% of dissolved
 133 ON is photo-chemically converted to NH_3 on the shelf (Bushaw et al. 1996), 12% of river ON is
 134 represented as bioavailable in this study. Thus, the total ‘bioavailable’ load is calculated as NO_{2-3}
 135 $+ \text{NH}_3 + 0.12 \times \text{ON}$. Riverine dissolved organic carbon is not considered in the model because

136 it is highly recalcitrant (Hernes and Benner 2003), and is expected to contribute negligibly to
 137 total shelf oxygen demand (Dagg et al. 2007).

138 The study uses coastal wind data for Sabine Pass (SRST2) and Southwest Pass (BURL1),
 139 retrieved from the National Data Buoy Center (<http://www.ndbc.noaa.gov/>). Additionally, data
 140 from Calcasieu Pass (CAPL1) and Grand Isle (GISL1) are used to augment missing data for
 141 Sabine Pass and Southwest Pass, respectively, after applying appropriate bias corrections (station
 142 locations are shown in Fig. 1). For brevity, we refer to the combined SRST2+CAPL1 dataset as
 143 the ‘west’ dataset, and the combined BURL1+GISL1 dataset as the ‘east’ dataset. Both datasets
 144 cover about 95% of the examined period, and mean monthly values are substituted for missing
 145 data. Datasets are used to determine daily east-west wind velocities that are then averaged over
 146 30-day consecutive periods leading up to the starts of the annual shelfwide cruises. In addition,
 147 weighted mean wind stresses (wind speed-squared) are determined for 14-day periods prior to
 148 the starts of the annual shelfwide cruises. Continuous monitoring data suggest that it takes
 149 approximately two weeks for DO to be re-depleted following wind mixing events (Walker and
 150 Rabalais 2006, Rabalais et al. 2007a), and linearly decreasing weights (14 down to 1) are
 151 therefore assigned to wind stresses for each of the fourteen days preceding a cruise. The wind
 152 datasets are applied to the different model segments by inverse distance weighting, using
 153 distances measured from primary weather station location to model segment centroid.

154 *Mechanistic model formulation*

155 This section describes the development of the mechanistic model. First, a series of
 156 differential equations (eqs 1-3) representing the primary biophysical processes related to BWDO
 157 depletion are presented; and these equations are solved for steady-state conditions (eq 4).
 158 Second, quasi-mechanistic sub-models for transport (eq 5) and reaeration (eq 6) are presented.

159 Third, a distinction is made between ‘spring’ (roughly late April through late June) model inputs
 160 that determine the water column oxygen demand for each shelf segment, and ‘summer’ (roughly
 161 late May through late July) model inputs that determine the reaeration conditions on each shelf
 162 segment.

163 Model segmentation is based on dividing the shelf east-west and vertically into four ‘mixed
 164 reactors’ (Chapra 1997). The east-west division is at 672.5 km UTM easting (as described
 165 previously). The west and east shelf sections have areas of 48500 and 14000 km², and mean
 166 depths of 28 and 31 m, respectively. The shelf sections are vertically divided at the pycnocline
 167 into upper and lower layers. The vertical division is nominally assumed to be at a depth of 10 m
 168 (Justic et al. 1996, Rabalais et al. 1999), though the exact location is not important to the model
 169 solution.

170 Nitrogen loads enter the model from the Mississippi and Atchafalaya Rivers, and they are
 171 converted to organic matter and fluxed to the lower layer based on an effective settling velocity
 172 (v_s). Overall, the differential equation for nitrogen in the surface layers is as follows:

173

$$174 \quad \frac{dN}{dt} = Q_r C_{rN} + Q_u C_{uN} - (Q_r + Q_u + Q_g) C_N - A v_s C_N \quad \text{eq 1}$$

175

176 Here, dN/dt , is the time rate of change for nitrogen mass in the shelf section (Gg d⁻¹), and
 177 variables Q_r , Q_u , and Q_g are flows (Gm³ d⁻¹) entering the system from the rivers, upstream model
 178 segment, and Gulf, respectively. The variables C_{rN} , C_{uN} , and C_N represent nitrogen
 179 concentrations (mg L⁻¹) in the river, upstream model segment, and the subject model segment,
 180 respectively. Note that $Q_r C_{rN}$ is the river load (L_{rN}). A is the area of the shelf section.

181 The nitrogen that settles to the lower layer is generally associated with organic matter
 182 developed through primary production. The differential equation for organic matter (represented
 183 by carbon) in the lower layers is as follows:

$$185 \quad \frac{dC}{dt} = Av_s R_{C:N} C_N - V k_C C_C \quad \text{eq 2}$$

186
 187 Here, dC/dt , is the time rate of change for carbon mass in the lower shelf segment ($Gg\ d^{-1}$), V
 188 is segment volume (Gm^3), k_C is the first-order decay rate for organic carbon (d^{-1}), $R_{C:N}$ is the ratio
 189 of organic carbon to nitrogen, and C_C is the concentration ($mg\ L^{-1}$) of organic carbon in the
 190 segment. Note that it is assumed that there is no advective flux laterally or longitudinally
 191 because bottom water velocities are small relative to the temporal and spatial scales of this model
 192 (Rabalais et al. 1999).

193 DO in the lower layer is lost through microbial decomposition of organic matter and regained
 194 through diffusion and mixing of dissolved oxygen from the surface layer. The differential
 195 equation for DO in the lower layers is as follows:

$$197 \quad \frac{dO}{dt} = Ak_a(C_{OS} - C_O) - V k_C C_C R_{O:C} \omega - AC_O B / C_{OB} \quad \text{eq 3}$$

198
 199 Here, dO/dt , is the time rate of change for oxygen mass in the shelf section ($Gg\ d^{-1}$), k_a is the
 200 reaeration rate ($m\ d^{-1}$), C_{OS} is the oxygen concentration of the overlying surface layer ($mg\ L^{-1}$),
 201 $R_{O:C}$ is the ratio of oxygen demand to organic carbon, ω is an oxygen demand adjustment factor
 202 related to processes such as photosynthetic oxygen production, B is the benthic oxygen demand
 203 ($g\ m^{-2}d^{-1}$) at reference DO concentration C_{OB} ($mg\ L^{-1}$), and C_O is the DO concentration ($mg\ L^{-1}$)

204 in the lower layer. As shown, both the reaeration and benthic oxygen demand terms are affected
 205 by the segment dissolved oxygen concentration. Reaeration increases as the gradient between
 206 surface and lower layer DO concentrations increase (Justic et al. 1996). Benthic oxygen demand
 207 increases as DO increases, and this relationship is approximated as linear (Lehrter et al. 2012).

208 Equations 1, 2, and 3 can be solved together for C_O under steady-state conditions ($dN/dt =$
 209 $dC/dt = dO/dt = 0$), yielding:

211
$$C_O = \frac{1}{k_a + B/C_{OB}} \left(K_a C_{OS} - \frac{R_{O:C} R_{C:N} \omega [Q_r C_{rN} + Q_u C_{uN}]}{((Q_r + Q_u + Q_g)/v_s + A)} \right) \quad \text{eq 4}$$

212
 213 Eq 4 is the primary mechanistic model formulation used in this study. However, the flows
 214 and loads used in eq 4 are determined by a transport submodel; and k_a is determined by a
 215 reaeration submodel, both described below. Note that terms V and k_C (eq 3) cancel out when the
 216 system is solved for steady-state conditions (eq 4), and water column oxygen demand is
 217 proportional to the organic matter flux from the surface layer. Also note that eq 4 predicts the
 218 DO concentration representative of the entire lower layer, whereas the geostatistical estimates
 219 are for BWDO (DO at the very bottom of the water column). Based on an analysis of DO profile
 220 data, BWDO concentrations are about 0.5 mg L^{-1} lower than DO concentrations near the middle
 221 of the lower layer, on average, and this adjustment is included within the model (i.e., $C_{BWDO} = C_O$
 222 $- 0.5$).

223 Coastal current patterns affect transport of freshwater and nutrients delivered to the Gulf by
 224 the Mississippi and Atchafalaya Rivers (Walker et al. 2005). Throughout much of the year, the
 225 dominant flow pattern is westward, and the strongest westward currents typically occur in spring,
 226 along the inner shelf, due to prevailing easterly winds and the buoyancy flux of river discharge

227 (Cho et al. 1998, Zavala-Hidalgo et al. 2003, Zhang et al. 2012). In the model, transport of water
 228 and load is determined using a simple ‘flow partitioning’ equation:

229

$$230 \quad F_e = 0.5 + \beta_e W_e \quad \text{eq 5}$$

231

232 Here, F_e is the fraction of water and load transported to the east, W_e is the mean east-west
 233 wind velocity (westerly winds are positive, easterly winds are negative), and β_e is a transport
 234 coefficient determined through model calibration. To ensure that F_e is constrained to within the
 235 range [0,1], W_e is constrained to a range of [-2,2] m s⁻¹, and β_e is constrained to be calibrated
 236 within a range of [0,0.25]. The fraction of water and load transported west is simply (1 - F_e).

237 Reaeration is represented using a quasi-mechanistic formulation based on flow and wind
 238 stress:

239

$$240 \quad k_a = \beta_{k0} + \beta_{k1} \tau / (Q_s / A) \quad \text{eq 6}$$

241

242 Here, k_a is the reaeration rate (m d⁻¹), τ is the 14-day weighted mean wind stress for the shelf
 243 section (m²s⁻²), A is the area of the shelf section (Gm²), and Q_s is the summer freshwater flow
 244 onto the shelf section (Gm³d⁻¹). The model follows the logic that reaeration should increase due
 245 to wind stress-induced mixing, but this mixing is inhibited by salinity stratification on the shelf
 246 section (represented by Q_s/A). The terms β_{k0} and β_{k1} are essentially empirical parameters
 247 determined through model calibration.

248 The preceding descriptions make reference to ‘spring’ and ‘summer’ flows and loads. Spring
 249 flows and loads are expected to control the production of organic matter on the shelf, as

250 represented in eq 4. Here, spring flows, loads, and east-west wind velocities are determined as
 251 weighted averages of 60-90 and 30-60 day periods prior to the starts of the shelfwide cruises,
 252 with the earlier period receiving twice the weight of the later period. Because most cruises start
 253 in late July, this roughly corresponds to a period of late April-late June, but more heavily
 254 weighted toward the beginning of this period. This period approximately coincides with
 255 previous modeling studies suggesting May or May-June nutrient loads correlate best with
 256 hypoxic zone size (Scavia et al. 2004, Greene et al. 2009, Turner et al. 2012).

257 The transport of spring freshwater flows and nutrient loads is controlled by the spring east-
 258 west winds and the flow partitioning submodel (eq 5, Fig. 3). In the spring, 80% of the
 259 Mississippi River discharge (flow and load) is assumed available for partitioning, while the
 260 remaining 20% of Mississippi River discharge is assumed lost to the south or east under any
 261 wind condition (Walker et al. 2005, Zhang et al. 2012). Mississippi discharge partitioned to the
 262 east leaves the study area, while discharge partitioned to the west enters the east shelf section.
 263 The discharge from the Atchafalaya River and the gulf dilution flow (Q_g) are both also
 264 partitioned, such that the westward partition enters the west shelf section, and the eastward
 265 partition enters the east shelf section. Flow and load within the east shelf section are partitioned,
 266 such that the westward partition enters the west shelf section and the eastward partition exits the
 267 model. Transport from the west shelf section back to the east shelf section could not be
 268 represented within a steady-state model. However, this type of eastward transport is expected to
 269 be rare in spring, as river flows become entrained in the dominantly westward spring shelf
 270 current (Wang and Justic 2009, Zhang et al. 2012).

271 Summer freshwater flow is expected to regulate the intensity of stratification and reaeration
 272 (eq 6) on the shelf at the time of the shelfwide cruises. The summer flows and east-west wind

273 velocities are determined as weighted averages of the 30-60 and 0-30 day periods prior to the
 274 starts of the shelfwide cruises, with the later period receiving twice the weight of the earlier
 275 period. Because most cruises start in late July, this roughly corresponds to a period of late May-
 276 late July (but more heavily weighted toward the end of this period). The total flow from this
 277 period correlates well ($r^2=0.8$) with the intensity of stratification determined from a previous
 278 study by Obenour et al. (2012).

279 The summer freshwater flow to each shelf section, Q_s , is determined by partitioning the
 280 summer Atchafalaya River discharge based on the transport submodel (eq 5). Mississippi River
 281 discharge is not included in Q_s because relatively little Mississippi River flow enters the shelf in
 282 summer due to reversal of the westward coastal current (Walker et al. 2005, Zhang et al. 2012),
 283 and stable isotope studies suggest Atchafalaya River discharge constitutes the majority of
 284 freshwater in the surface waters of the shelf by mid-summer (Strauss et al. 2012).

285 *Prior information and model calibration*

286 The mechanistic model includes several parameters determined through calibration or
 287 specified as known. The parameters listed in Table 1 are calibrated within the model by
 288 Bayesian inference, implemented using the WinBUGS program (Lunn et al. 2000) called from R
 289 (R Development Core Team, 2008) via the R2WinBUGS software package (Sturtz et al. 2005,
 290 Gelman and Hill 2007). The Bayesian inference approach can incorporate prior information,
 291 rigorously account for parameter and data uncertainty, and be applied to non-linear model
 292 formulations, such as eqs 4 and 6 (Stow et al. 2007). *Prior information* (i.e., a probabilistic
 293 expectation based on existing knowledge of the system) for model parameters is represented as
 294 probability distributions, as shown in Table 1. For most parameters, the priors are wide uniform
 295 distributions that are nearly non-informative (they are only narrow enough to prevent the

296 inference process from occasionally reverting to unrealistic local minima). However, an
 297 informative normal prior distribution is used for benthic oxygen demand, based on recent
 298 research by Lehrter et al. (2012), who performed an extensive study of shelf sediment fluxes, and
 299 determined a mean benthic oxygen flux of $0.28 \text{ g m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$ with standard error $0.06 \text{ g m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$. A less
 300 informative normal prior was used for ω , which represents an adjustment in water column
 301 oxygen demand related to a number of factors. The prior mean (0.5 [unitless]) reflects studies
 302 suggesting that upwards of 40% of sub-pycnocline oxygen demands are offset by photosynthetic
 303 oxygen production (Rowe 2001, Lehrter et al. 2009). Other factors that could be reflected in ω
 304 include off-shelf losses, nutrient recycling between layers, and inaccuracies in assumptions
 305 regarding load utilization (fraction of load that enters the shelf, fraction that is bioavailable, etc.).
 306 There is no strong evidence for the importance of these other factors, but the uncertainty in this
 307 prior reflects their potential relevance. Finally, a moderately informative uniform prior is used
 308 for r_{Qg} , the ratio of Gulf flow to mean Mississippi River flow ($Q_g = r_{Qg} \times \text{mean}[Q_{\text{Miss}}]$). A
 309 previous study suggests this ratio is approximately 5-6 [unitless] under easterly winds (Walker et
 310 al. 2005). However, because river flow does not mix completely with Gulf flow, the effective
 311 dilution may be lower, and thus a uniform prior of [1,6] is used.

312 Some modeling parameters can be reasonably specified as known because the uncertainty
 313 associated with these parameters is relatively small, and calibrating them would be
 314 computationally expensive while providing little additional scientific insight. The ratio of
 315 carbon to nitrogen, $R_{C:N}$, is based on the Redfield Ratio (5.68 gC gN^{-1}) (Redfield et al. 1963).
 316 The ratio of oxygen demand to carbon, $R_{O:C}$, is based on stoichiometric relationships for the
 317 aerobic decomposition of organic matter (3.5 g O gC^{-1}) (Justic et al. 1996, Chapra 1997). A
 318 surface layer oxygen concentration, C_{OS} , of 7.5 mg L^{-1} is used based on an examination of

319 surface layer DO data. The reference oxygen concentration for benthic oxygen demand, C_{OB} , is
 320 simply the DO concentration (3 mg L^{-1}) corresponding to the prior information for B (Lehrter et
 321 al. 2012). Any uncertainty in these parameters is expected to be largely reflected through the
 322 oxygen demand adjustment factor, ω .

323 The model also makes use of prior information for modeling output, particularly the vertical
 324 (downward) organic matter flux ($v_s R_{C:N} C_N$ per eq 2). Sediment trap experiments by Redalje et al.
 325 (1994), suggest east shelf summer carbon fluxes of $0.18\text{-}0.40 \text{ gC m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$. Thus, east shelf carbon
 326 flux is calibrated to an ‘observed’ mean carbon flux, represented as a normal distribution,
 327 $N(0.29, 0.05) \text{ gC m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$.

328 Both mechanistic model uncertainty and geostatistical observation uncertainty are accounted
 329 for within the Bayesian framework using the following relationship:

330

331
$$C_{geo(i,j)} \sim N\left(C_{mech(i,j)}, \sqrt{\sigma_{geo(i,j)}^2 + \sigma_{mech(j)}^2}\right) \quad \text{eq 7}$$

332

333 In eq 7, i and j represent the cruise year and shelf section, respectively. The term $C_{geo(i,j)}$
 334 represents the mean BWDO concentrations from the geostatistical model (these are the
 335 ‘observations’ to which the mechanistic model is calibrated, as discussed previously), and
 336 $C_{mech(i,j)}$ represents the mechanistic model predictions. Mechanistic model (residual)
 337 uncertainties for the two shelf sections, $\sigma_{mech(j)}$, are parameters determined through the
 338 Bayesian inference process, using an effectively uninformative prior distribution, $U(0.1, 3) \text{ mg L}^{-1}$.
 339 Geostatistical uncertainty, $\sigma_{geo(i,j)}$, is specific to each year and shelf section, as determined by
 340 the geostatistical model.

341 *Predicting hypoxic area from DO*

342 Mean BWDO results can be converted to hypoxic area using a linear regression between the
 343 BWDO and hypoxic area values from the geostatistical model. Because the relationship between
 344 mean BWDO and hypoxic area is nonlinear, both mean BWDO and mean BWDO-squared are
 345 used as predictors. (The relationship is non-linear because as mean BWDO increase to higher
 346 values, well above the hypoxic threshold, the hypoxic area becomes smaller and less sensitive to
 347 further increases in BWDO.) The resulting regressions for west and east shelf hypoxic area are
 348 as follows:

349

$$350 \quad A_w = 58230 - 18390(C_{BWDO,w}) + 1460(C_{BWDO,w})^2 \quad \text{eq 8}$$

$$351 \quad A_e = 16950 - 5530(C_{BWDO,e}) + 440(C_{BWDO,e})^2 \quad \text{eq 9}$$

352

353 These regressions explain 98.5% and 98.7% of the variability in hypoxic area on the west
 354 and each shelf section, respectively, as estimated using the geostatistical model (Obenour et al.
 355 2013).

356 **Results**

357 *Model calibration and validation results*

358 Seven mechanistic model parameters were estimated probabilistically through Bayesian
 359 inference. The likely range for each parameter is represented by its posterior distribution (Fig.
 360 4). Three of these parameters, v_s , ω , and B , primarily control oxygen dynamics within the model.
 361 The best estimate (i.e., mean of the posterior distribution) for effective settling velocity, v_s , is
 362 0.19 m d^{-1} . This rate, corresponds to 11-17 meters of settling over 2-3 months, suggesting a
 363 substantial flux of organic material through the pycnocline, consistent with the hypothesis that

364 spring nutrient loads affect mid-summer hypoxia. As expected, this ‘effective settling rate’ is less
 365 than field-measured particle sinking rates (Dagg et al. 2007) because it also represents the
 366 biological processes related to converting inorganic nitrogen to phytoplankton and ultimately to
 367 detrital organic nitrogen. The best estimate for the oxygen demand adjustment parameter, ω , is
 368 0.37, suggesting that factors such as photosynthesis or off-shelf losses substantially reduce the
 369 effective oxygen demand of fluxed organic material. The best estimate for benthic oxygen
 370 demand, B , is $0.33 \text{ g m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$, shifted slightly higher than the prior distribution (mean of $0.28 \text{ g m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$)
 371 determined from the extensive field study by Lehrter et al. (2012). This is consistent with
 372 smaller field studies (Rowe 2001, McCarthy et al. 2013) that documented higher benthic oxygen
 373 demands than those documented by Lehrter et al. (2012).

374 The parameters β_e and r_{Qg} are related primarily to model hydrodynamics. The best estimate
 375 for the flow partitioning parameter, β_e , is 0.22, such that transport ranges from 94% eastward to
 376 94% westward under mean east-west winds ranging from 2 to -2 m s^{-1} , respectively. (Note that
 377 β_e was constrained by prior information to a maximum of 0.25, because higher values would
 378 unrealistically result in flow partitions greater than 100%). The best estimate for the ratio of
 379 Gulf dilution flow to mean Mississippi River flow, r_{Qg} , is 3.8, but the posterior distribution is
 380 very similar to the prior distribution (in terms of both mean and variance), suggesting this
 381 parameter could not be well resolved within the model. While r_{Qg} could be set to a fixed value
 382 without significantly affecting model performance, allowing the parameter to vary acknowledges
 383 a source of mechanistic uncertainty.

384 The reaeration parameters, β_{k0} and β_{k1} , are used to determine the reaeration rate, k_a . Under
 385 conditions of no wind (or infinite freshwater flow), k_a is equal to β_{k0} . As freshwater flows
 386 decrease and wind stresses increase, k_a increases as a function of β_{k1} (eq 6). Based on the

387 calibrated model, reaeration rates (by cruise) range from 0.16-0.53 and 0.14-0.37 m d⁻¹ for the
 388 west and east shelf sections, respectively. Overall, mean reaeration rates for the west and east
 389 shelf sections are 0.23 and 0.17 m d⁻¹, respectively, and their distributions are highly right-
 390 skewed. The highest reaeration rates are for 1988, due to the combined effects of low freshwater
 391 flows (drought year for the Mississippi River basin) and high winds (tropical storm Beryl). The
 392 mean rates from this study are somewhat higher than the 0.1 m d⁻¹ mean July reaeration rate from
 393 a modeling study by Justic et al. (1996) for a location near the center of the east shelf, where
 394 stratification would be expected to be particularly severe.

395 The statistical modeling framework allows for examination of correlation (i.e., dependence)
 396 among model parameters, where high correlations suggest parameters that cannot be well
 397 identified independently of each other (Omlin and Reichert 1999). The largest correlation is
 398 between ω and β_{k0} ($r^2=0.65$). This correlation is expected because these parameters have
 399 similar but opposite effects on DO levels. Other parameter pairings with notable correlations
 400 ($r^2>0.5$) are v_s and r_{Qg} , B and β_{k0} , and B and β_{k1} . Correlation among parameters could be
 401 avoided by setting some parameters to fixed values, but by allowing these correlations,
 402 uncertainty about the relative importance of mechanistic drivers is represented within the model.

403 Overall, the (full) model explains 75% and 76% of the variability in BWDO concentration on
 404 the west and east shelf sections, respectively. The model's residual standard deviations,
 405 $\sigma_{mech(j)}$, were determined through Bayesian inference to be 0.35 and 0.31 mg L⁻¹ for the west
 406 and east shelf sections, respectively. The robustness of the model was tested using 'leave-one-
 407 out' and 'three-fold' cross validation (CV) exercises (Chatfield 2006). For the leave-one-out
 408 CV, the mean BWDO for each cruise was predicted after removing that cruise from the
 409 calibration dataset and re-calibrating the model to the remaining data. Compared to full-model

410 performance, the leave-one-out CV performance is a better measure of how well the model will
 411 perform when predicting future (out-of-sample) conditions. For this test, the model explains
 412 72% of the variability in BWDO on each of the two shelf sections (Fig. 5), such that
 413 performance is only modestly diminished relative to the full model, suggesting the model is
 414 robust. In the three-fold CV, three nine-year periods (1985-1993, 1994-2002, and 2003-2011)
 415 were, in turn, removed from the calibration dataset and then predicted after the model was
 416 recalibrated to the remaining observations. Compared to the leave-one-out CV, this exercise also
 417 considers how robust the model is to potential long-term system variability. Here, the model
 418 explains 70% and 67% of the variability on the west and east shelf sections, respectively, again
 419 indicating only a modest reduction in model performance. Some reduction in performance is
 420 expected in this case, given that the calibration dataset has been reduced to only 18 years for the
 421 three-fold test, and these results generally confirm that the model is robust (i.e., not over-
 422 parameterized).

423 The 27-year mean vertical carbon fluxes determined by the model are 0.14 and $0.27 \text{ gC m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$
 424 for the west and east shelf sections, respectively. The modeled east shelf carbon flux conforms
 425 well with prior information for east shelf carbon flux, $N(0.29, 0.05)$
 426 $\text{gC m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$, as described previously. The carbon flux on the west shelf is expected to be lower, as
 427 it is further removed from the river outfalls, on average. Modeled carbon fluxes can also be
 428 compared to measured water column respiration rates. An extensive study by Murrell et al.
 429 (2013) reports lower-layer water column respiration rates averaging $0.22 \text{ gO m}^{-3}\text{d}^{-1}$ over the
 430 entire shelf. Assuming a 10-m thick lower layer and an $R_{O:C}$ of 3.5 gO gC^{-1} , this is equivalent to
 431 an areal rate of $0.63 \text{ gC m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$, considerably higher than the modeled carbon flux rates. This
 432 may be due to lower-layer photosynthesis, resulting in higher measured rates of both oxygen

433 production and respiration in the sub-pycnocline (but no net increase in oxygen demand). Also,
 434 respiration rates and the relative contributions of surface and benthic respiration have varied
 435 substantially across different Gulf field studies, possibly due to differences in experimental
 436 design (McCarthy et al. 2013).

437 *Comparison to linear regression modeling*

438 Linear regression (LR) is a modeling approach that has been used in several previous Gulf
 439 hypoxia studies (Greene et al. 2009, Forrest et al. 2011, Turner et al. 2012). These previous
 440 modeling studies are not directly comparable to this study, as they focus on somewhat different
 441 hypoxia metrics. However, the effectiveness of LR and parsimonious mechanistic modeling for
 442 predicting mean BWDO on the east and west shelf sections can be compared here. To enable
 443 this comparison, LRs were developed for the east and west shelf sections using the candidate
 444 predictor variables from this study (i.e., flow, load, concentration, wind velocity, and wind
 445 stress). To help avoid over-parameterization, only variables selected from the Akaike
 446 Information Criterion (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) are used; where BIC
 447 results in more parsimonious models than does AIC (Faraway 2005). Models are compared in
 448 terms of percent variance explained (R^2), based on both full-model and leave-one-out CV
 449 predictions.

450 For the variables considered in this study, the parsimonious mechanistic model outperforms
 451 the LR models, especially in CV mode (Table 2). There are two primary reasons why this is
 452 likely to be the case. First, plots of observed versus predicted values for the LRs (not shown)
 453 demonstrate a non-linear pattern in residuals, indicating the system is not well represented by
 454 linear combinations of the available predictor variables. The mechanistic model performs better
 455 in this respect (Fig. 5), likely because its non-linear relationships better approximate the true

456 functioning of the system. Second, the CV performance of the LRs tends to decrease when more
 457 predictor variables are included within the model (i.e., BIC results are better than AIC),
 458 suggesting over-parameterization issues. The mechanistic model includes more predictor
 459 variables than either of the LR models, but the impact of these variables is regulated by the prior
 460 information and biophysical structure of the model. Furthermore, in the mechanistic model, the
 461 differential response in BWDO for the two shelf sections is determined based on biophysical
 462 properties (e.g., the relative position and areal extent of each shelf section), such that the model
 463 can be calibrated to both shelf sections (44 geostatistical observations) without relying on shelf-
 464 specific calibration parameters. Because the LR models do not benefit from these mechanistic
 465 relationships, it is generally necessary to fit separate regressions to the different shelf sections,
 466 such that each LR is based on only 27 observations. This smaller sample size makes the LR
 467 model parameterizations more sensitive (less robust) to exclusion of individual data points,
 468 which is reflected in the CV results.

469 *BWDO sensitivity to stratification and nutrient loading*

470 The model includes ‘spring’ inputs related to seasonal nutrient loading and ‘summer’ inputs
 471 related to stratification. Understanding the relative roles of these two inputs in determining
 472 hypoxic severity is an important scientific and management question (Justic et al. 2007). By
 473 holding one of these input sets constant (at 27-year mean values), while allowing the other to
 474 vary, it is possible to examine the relative roles of these two drivers of hypoxia. As shown in
 475 Fig. 6, both drivers substantially impact the year-to-year variability in mean BWDO. An
 476 ‘influence metric’ for quantifying the impact is determined by calculating the standard deviation
 477 of the 27 predicted BWDO values, under the different model input conditions. The influence
 478 metrics for nutrient inputs (based on spring loads, spring flows, and spring winds) and

479 stratification inputs (based on summer flows and summer winds/wind stresses) are 0.24 and 0.53
 480 mg L⁻¹ for the west shelf, respectively; and 0.33 and 0.46 mg L⁻¹ for the east shelf, respectively.
 481 These results suggest a somewhat larger role for stratification in explaining year-to-year
 482 variability in BWDO. However, when the uncertainty (and correlation) in the mechanistic model
 483 parameters is accounted for, the differences between the nutrient and stratification influence
 484 metrics are only significant for the west shelf (i.e., there is a 13% probability that the role of
 485 nutrients exceeds that of stratification on the east shelf). The west shelf appears heavily
 486 influenced by weather conditions resulting in minimal stratification (i.e., high model reaeration)
 487 in 1988 due to drought and wind stress, and in 1998, 2000, and 2009, due to unusually strong
 488 westerly winds.

489 It should be emphasized that the ‘nutrient effects’ presented in this analysis (i.e., Fig. 6) are
 490 related only to how spring nutrient loads regulate the year-to-year variability in BWDO for the
 491 27-year study period, not how nutrient loads may further regulate hypoxia under potential
 492 nutrient loading reduction (or intensification) scenarios. In particular, long-term changes in
 493 nutrient loading would be expected to affect benthic oxygen demand, and thus produce larger
 494 impacts on BWDO. An analysis of how changing benthic oxygen demands could affect BWDO
 495 is included in the subsequent section on nutrient loading reduction scenarios.

496 *Temporal trends in hypoxia*

497 Previous empirical and simple mechanistic modeling studies (Turner et al. 2008, Greene et
 498 al. 2009, Liu et al. 2010) have suggested that Gulf hypoxia has become more severe over time,
 499 independent of spring nutrient loads. In this study, model residuals were analyzed for signs of
 500 change in the system’s susceptibility to hypoxia over the 27-year study period, where a negative
 501 temporal trend or shift in residuals would indicate increasing susceptibility. Temporal trends in

502 residuals were found to be statistically insignificant on both shelf sections, and a visual
 503 examination of residuals did not indicate any abrupt temporal transitions (Fig. 7). Model
 504 residuals can also be compared with nutrient loads from the preceding year (July-June loads), as
 505 shown in Fig. 7. Here, the residuals are area-weighted averages of the two shelf sections (west
 506 shelf receives more weight). However, no pattern between residuals and loads (or multi-year
 507 averages of these loads) was identified. Thus, the model does not indicate any long-term change
 508 in the system's susceptibility to hypoxia over the 27-year study period.

509 *Hypoxic area prediction and nutrient reduction scenarios*

510 Predicted BWDO concentrations can be converted to predicted hypoxic areas using equations
 511 8 and 9. Based on these relationships, the model explains 68% and 73% of year-to-year
 512 variability in hypoxic area on the west and east shelf sections, respectively. Aggregating the
 513 results, the model explains 70% of the variability in total hypoxic area. Model performance is
 514 greater for BWDO than hypoxic area because of the nonlinear relationship between these
 515 variables, such that model errors for years of relatively low BWDO are amplified when
 516 converted to hypoxic area.

517 Using the model and the relationship between BWDO and hypoxic area, it is possible to
 518 examine how nutrient load reductions would affect the average areal extent of hypoxia (for the
 519 27-year study period). The reductions are relative to the historical bioavailable spring nitrogen
 520 load, averaging 133 Gg mo^{-1} for the study period. An important consideration in this analysis is
 521 whether the nutrient loading reductions will also result in reductions in benthic oxygen demand.
 522 If benthic oxygen demand remains constant, then even an 80% reduction in nutrient loading (Fig.
 523 8.A) will still result in a mean total hypoxic area greater than 5000 km^2 . However, if nutrient
 524 loading reductions are accompanied by a proportional reductions in benthic oxygen demand (Fig.

525 8.B), then a 45% (+/- 5%) reduction in nutrient loading would achieve a mean hypoxic area of
 526 5000 km². While one would expect benthic oxygen demand to decline as nutrient loading to the
 527 system is diminished (as discussed subsequently) the degree of this decline and the time scale
 528 over which it would occur are not clear.

529 **Discussion**

530 Methodologically, this study demonstrates the benefits of using Bayesian inference for
 531 calibrating mechanistic environmental models. First, the Bayesian approach readily allowed for
 532 probabilistically estimating the parameters of a non-linear model, such as was developed here.
 533 Second, the approach provided a systematic means of incorporating prior information about
 534 biophysical rates (with associated uncertainties), as determined from previous studies. Third,
 535 compared to more traditional approaches, model uncertainties were not constrained to follow
 536 normal (Gaussian) distributions, allowing more flexibility in how parameters are represented
 537 (Fig. 4). The benefits of the Bayesian modeling framework have been demonstrated in a
 538 previous hypoxia modeling studies by Liu et al. (2010) and Stow et al. (2005), and this study
 539 builds on that work by applying the Bayesian framework to a richer mechanistic model, capable
 540 of integrating a larger suite of environmental inputs.

541 In addition, this is the first Gulf hypoxia modeling study to systematically test the model's
 542 predictive performance for observations not included within the calibration dataset (using CV).
 543 While the mechanistic model developed here performed well in CV, linear regression models
 544 developed from the same input variables, performed substantially less well (Table 2). This is
 545 noteworthy, given that none of the previous Gulf hypoxia regression models have been formally
 546 validated. However, models used to make annual hypoxia forecasts (Liu et al. 2010, Turner et
 547 al. 2012) have received some degree of validation by comparing these blind annual forecasts to

548 observed values (Evans and Scavia 2011). In the future, systematic validation exercises could
 549 potentially be used to test and lend additional credibility to such models.

550 This work provides new insights into the relative roles of benthic and water column oxygen
 551 demands. In the model, benthic oxygen demand is represented by a constant value, such that it is
 552 not related to seasonal nutrient loading; whereas water column oxygen demand is directly related
 553 to the spring nitrogen load. The calibrated model suggests benthic oxygen demand is
 554 approximately $0.33 \text{ g m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$. In comparison, net water column oxygen demands are estimated to
 555 be $0.18 \text{ g m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$ and $0.34 \text{ g m}^{-2}\text{d}^{-1}$ on average, for the west and east shelf sections, respectively.
 556 The relatively low water column oxygen demand on the western shelf section suggests the
 557 western shelf is less responsive to the year-to-year variability in spring nitrogen load, as also
 558 suggested by Hetland and DiMarco (2008). For example, the model indicates a 50% reduction in
 559 spring nitrogen produces approximately 22% and 34% reductions in west and east shelf hypoxic
 560 area, respectively (Fig. 8.A). If benthic oxygen demand is also reduced, then a much larger
 561 reduction in hypoxic area can be expected for both shelf sections (Fig. 8.B). While benthic
 562 oxygen demand would be expected to decrease under sustained nutrient loading reductions, this
 563 cannot be easily verified because nutrient loads have remained near historically high levels
 564 throughout the study period (Goolsby and Battaglin 2001).

565 One way to infer how benthic oxygen demand has changed over time is to consider
 566 paleoindicators of hypoxic severity, which are determined from shelf sediment cores (Rabalais et
 567 al. 2007b). The bacterial pigment concentrations and foraminiferal community metrics,
 568 measured in these cores, provide clues as to how the severity of hypoxia has changed over the
 569 last century. Several core studies indicate that paleoindicators of hypoxia have increased greatly
 570 (approximately 2-3 fold) since the mid-1900s (Nelsen et al. 1994, Chen et al. 2001, Osterman et

571 al. 2005, Platon et al. 2005). Meanwhile, in the mid-1900s, bioavailable nitrogen loading was
 572 approximately 50% less than at the time of this modeling study (Goolsby and Battaglin 2001). If
 573 benthic oxygen demand was the same in the mid-1900s as today, then the model-predicted mid-
 574 1900s hypoxic area for the east shelf section (where most cores are taken) would be only 22%
 575 smaller than today (Fig. 8.A), inconsistent with the large change in paleoindicators of hypoxia.
 576 However, if benthic oxygen demand was lower in the mid-1900s, then the model-predicted mid-
 577 1900s hypoxic area would be much smaller (similar to Fig. 8.B), more consistent with the
 578 paleoindicator data. These results suggest that benthic oxygen demand has changed prior to the
 579 period of this study, and the direction of this change is consistent with the hypothesis that this
 580 demand is (at least partially) linked to long-term nutrient loading.

581 Contrary to previous long-term modeling studies (Turner et al. 2008, Greene et al. 2009, Liu
 582 et al. 2010), this study does not indicate any significant temporal trend or shift in the system's
 583 propensity for hypoxia formation over the study period. This is likely due, in part, to the use of
 584 revised hypoxia metrics that show less increase in hypoxic spatial extent over the 27-year study
 585 period (Obenour et al. 2013, Scavia et al. 2013). However, we note that model residuals were
 586 largely negative (i.e., BWDO was over-predicted) from 1994-1997 on both shelf sections (Fig.
 587 7), perhaps because the large loads of 1993 and 1994 resulted in an accumulation of organic
 588 matter that persisted in following years as additional benthic oxygen demand. While this
 589 hypothesis cannot be verified by this study alone, the unusually severe impact of the 1993 flood
 590 on Gulf water quality has been noted previously (Rabalais et al. 2007a). It is also noted that new
 591 estimates of hypoxic volume (Obenour et al. 2013) suggest a somewhat larger increase (relative
 592 to hypoxic area and mean BWDO) over the study period, and extending this model to predict
 593 hypoxic volume may be beneficial future research.

594 The model results support the paradigm that both seasonal nutrient loading and stratification
 595 contribute substantially to the year-to-year variability in hypoxia. Stratification is represented by
 596 the reaeration submodel (eq 6), which is a function of summer river discharge, summer east-west
 597 wind velocity, and wind stress. The role of stratification is found to be larger on the west shelf
 598 than on the east shelf (Fig. 6), consistent with the finding that seasonal nutrient loading
 599 contributes less to the total west shelf oxygen demand. A previous empirical modeling study by
 600 Obenour et al. (2012), based on site-specific observations of BWDO, indicated that stratification
 601 and seasonal nutrient loading have approximately equal influence on the year-to-year variability
 602 in hypoxia. The larger role of stratification in this study is likely due, in part, to the shelf
 603 division, because summer east-west wind velocity impacts stratification oppositely on the west
 604 and east shelf sections, such that these impacts partially compensate for each other when
 605 studying the shelf as a whole. (Nutrient loading can also be distributed to the east or west, based
 606 on spring wind velocity, but spring winds are more consistently easterly.) Nonetheless, by
 607 explicitly accounting for stratification and benthic oxygen demand, our model suggests that
 608 hypoxic area is less responsive to seasonal nutrient loading (Fig. 8.A) than previously thought
 609 (Greene et al. 2009, Turner et al. 2012, Scavia et al. 2013).

610 The parsimonious modeling approach used in this study is not without limitations. The use
 611 of a steady-state model solution, and the associated assumption that spring loading determines
 612 mid-summer water column oxygen demands, is sensible because of the time lag between nutrient
 613 input and organic matter decay. However, summer conditions may nevertheless influence the
 614 intensity and spatial distribution of oxygen demands on the shelf (Feng et al. 2013). If summer
 615 conditions consistently modify oxygen demands in a particular direction (positively or
 616 negatively), then some of the parameter estimates obtained in the model may be biased. In

617 addition, this study assumes that benthic oxygen demand increases linearly with water column
 618 DO. While this may be approximately correct (Rowe 2001, Lehrter et al. 2012), it is possible
 619 that benthic oxygen demand saturates at water column DO levels above 4 mg L⁻¹ (Hetland and
 620 DiMarco 2008), such that modeled benthic oxygen demand may be over-represented in years of
 621 high water column DO. As with virtually all models, the model developed here is a
 622 simplification of reality, such that it is subject to future refinements, especially as more data and
 623 information about biophysical rates become available. Despite such uncertainties, we believe
 624 this model captures the primary mechanistic processes leading to hypoxia formation; and it has a
 625 demonstrated capacity for skillfully predicting BWDO based on carbon fluxes, oxygen demands,
 626 and reaeration rates that compare well with previous monitoring and biogeochemical process
 627 studies.

628 Multiple previous Gulf modeling studies (Greene et al. 2009, Turner et al. 2012, Scavia et al.
 629 2013) have suggested that nutrient loading reductions ranging from around 45% to 65% will be
 630 sufficient for achieving the Task Force goal of reducing mean hypoxic area to 5000 km² or less
 631 (EPA 2008). However, our modeling results indicate that such reductions will be insufficient, at
 632 least in the short-term (Fig. 8.A). Unlike the previous studies, our study explicitly accounts for
 633 long-term benthic oxygen demands, which are found to be comparable in magnitude to the
 634 oxygen demands generated from seasonal nutrient loading. Thus, benthic oxygen demands must
 635 also be reduced in order to achieve the Task Force goal (Fig. 8.B). While a comparison of our
 636 modeling results with paleoindicators of hypoxia (discussed above) suggests a linkage between
 637 long-term nutrient loading and benthic oxygen demand, the magnitude and temporal lag of this
 638 linkage remain highly uncertain. As such, this study indicates the need for further research into
 639 factors that control the intensity of benthic oxygen demand on the Gulf shelf. More detailed

640 biogeochemical modeling studies, supported by appropriate monitoring data, could potentially be
641 developed to explore how benthic oxygen demands will respond to changes in nutrient loading
642 over decadal time scales. The relevant mechanistic relationships from such studies could then be
643 distilled into the probabilistic modeling framework presented here, allowing for more
644 informative long-term scenario forecasts.

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834

Tables

835

836 Table 1: Prior information for mechanistic model parameters to be determined by Bayesian

837 inference

symbol	description	prior	unit
v_s	effective settling velocity	U(0.01,1.0)	m d ⁻¹
ω	oxygen demand adjustment	N(0.5,0.2)	-
r_{Qg}	ratio of Gulf flow to mean Mississippi flow	U(1.0,6.0)	-
B	benthic oxygen demand	N(0.28,0.06)	g m ⁻² d ⁻¹
β_e	flow partitioning	U(0,0.25)	-
β_{k0}	reaeration intercept term	U(0,0.5)	m d ⁻¹
β_{k1}	reaeration term modifying $\tau/(Q_s/A)$	U(0.05,0.5)	-

Note: U(lower bound, upper bound) ~ uniform distribution

N(mean, standard deviation) ~ normal distribution

838

839 Table 2: Variance explained (R^2) by mechanistic and LR models, based on full-model and leave-
 840 one-out CV predictions

Model	R^2	CV R^2
West shelf results:		
Mechanistic model (all variables)	75%	72%
West shelf LR w/AIC variables:		
$L_{rN}(\text{Miss}), W_e(\text{spring}), W_e(\text{sum.}), \tau(\text{east})$	66%	31%
West shelf LR w/BIC variables:		
$L_{rN}(\text{Miss}), W_e(\text{spring}), W_e(\text{summer})$	62%	43%
East shelf results:		
Mechanistic model (all variables)	76%	72%
West shelf LR w/AIC variables:		
$L_{rN}(\text{Miss}), W_e(\text{summer}), \tau(\text{west}), \tau(\text{east})$	72%	51%
East shelf LR w/BIC variables:		
$L_{rN}(\text{Miss}), W_e(\text{summer}), \tau(\text{east})$	69%	54%

841

842

843

844 **Figure Legends**

845

846 Fig. 1. Louisiana shelf study area.

847 Fig. 2. Geostatistically determined ‘observed’ mid-summer mean BWDO with 95%
848 confidence intervals.

849 Fig. 3. Surface layer spring flow and load transport schematic.

850 Fig. 4. Prior and posterior probability distributions for calibrated mechanistic model
851 parameters (as described in Table 1).

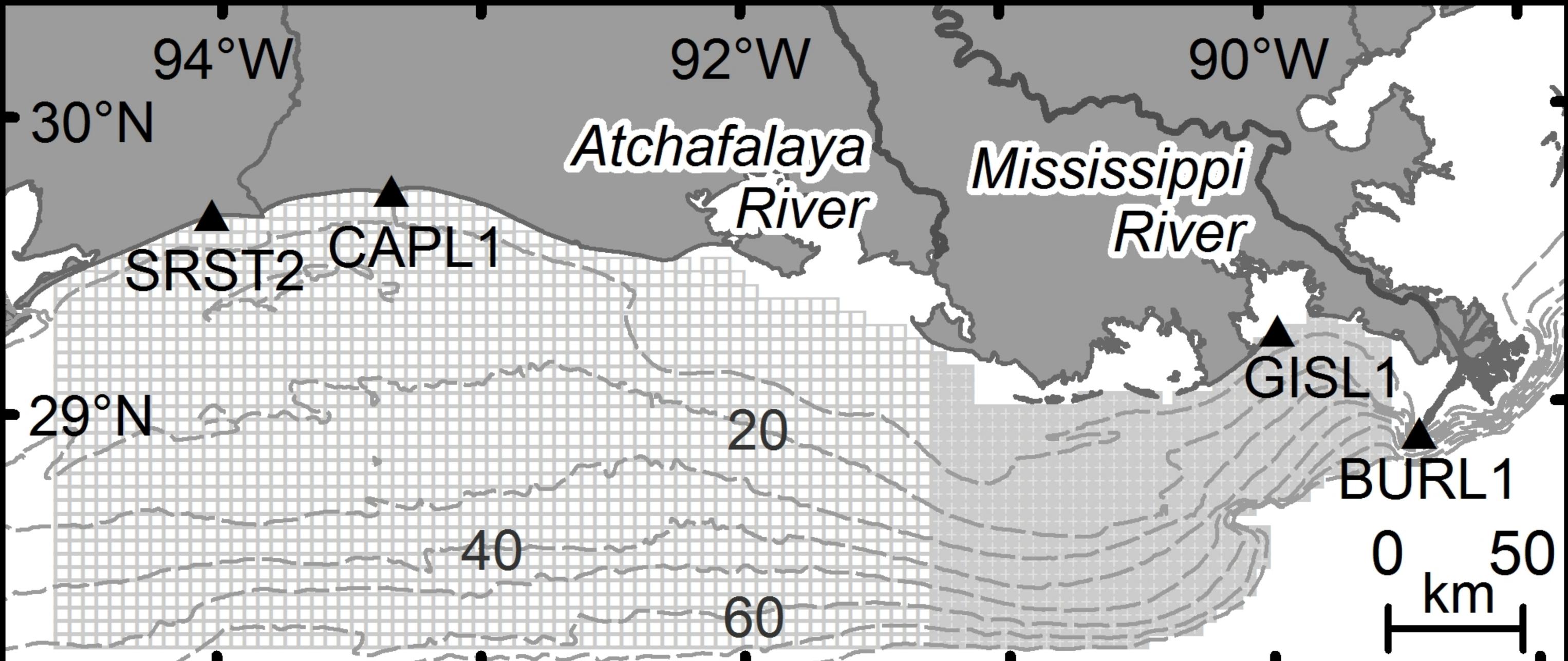
852 Fig. 5. Observed (geostatistical) mean BWDO versus leave-one-out CV model predictions
853 for the west and east shelf sections, with 95% prediction intervals.

854 Fig. 6. Model predicted mean BWDO for the (A) west and (B) east shelf sections based on
855 different mechanistic drivers (holding other factors at 27-year mean value).

856 Fig. 7. Area-weighted mechanistic model residuals (observed - predicted) and nutrient loads
857 from preceding year versus time.

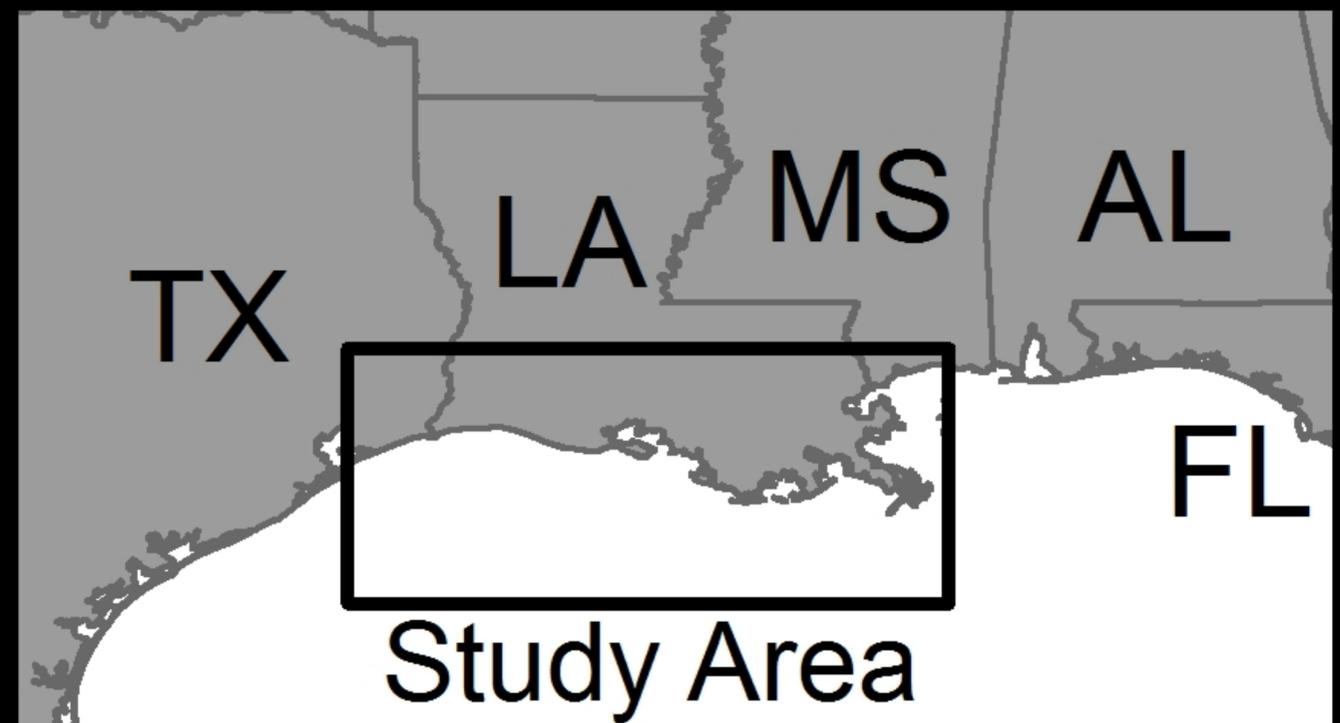
858 Fig. 8. 27-year mean hypoxic areas (with 95% credible intervals) for west shelf, east shelf
859 and total shelf under (A) spring nutrient load reductions alone and (B) nutrient load reductions
860 with proportional benthic oxygen demand reductions.

861



Legend

-  west shelf section
-  east shelf section
-  10-80 meter isobaths
-  weather stations



observed mean BWDO (mg L^{-1})

2 3 4 5 6

1985

1990

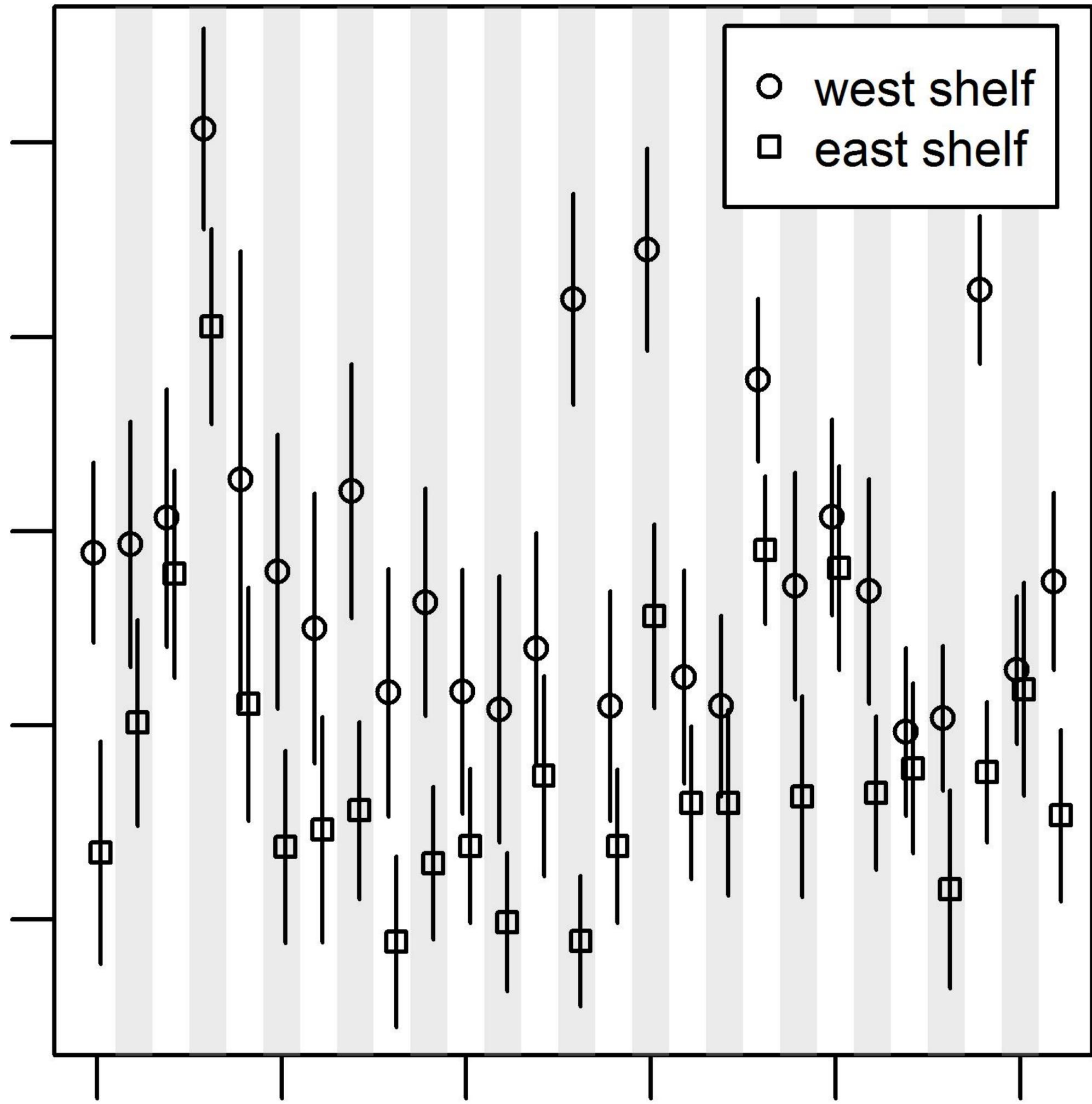
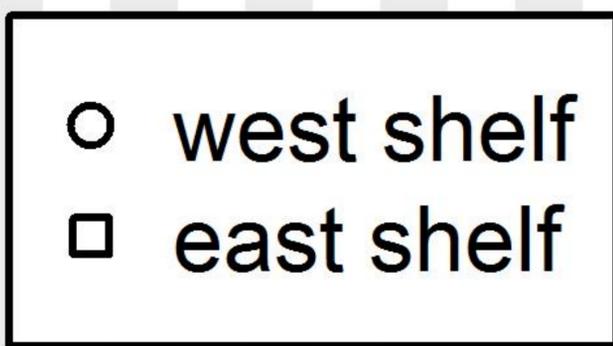
1995

2000

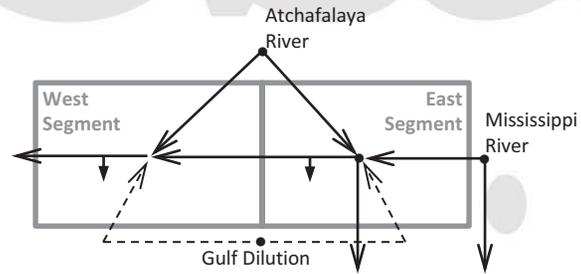
2005

2010

year



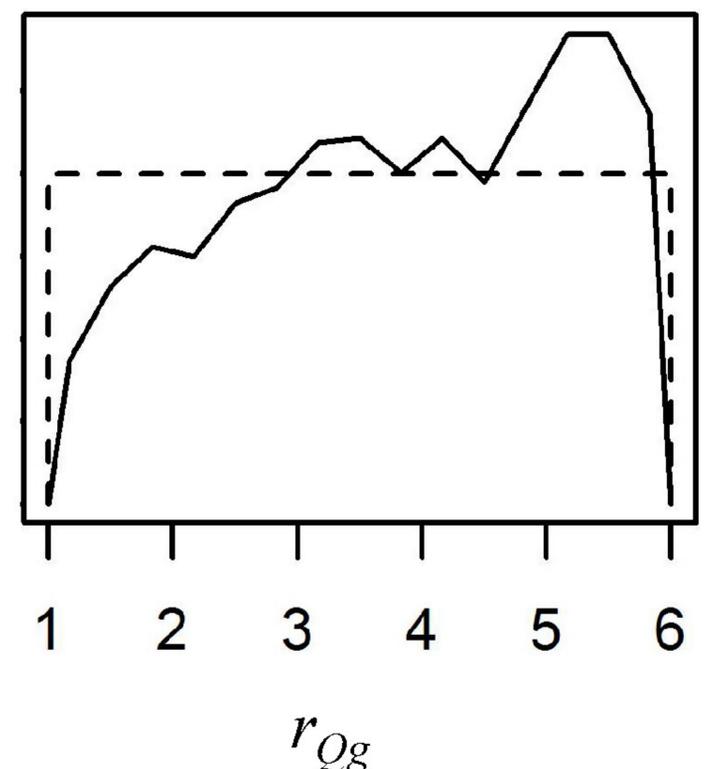
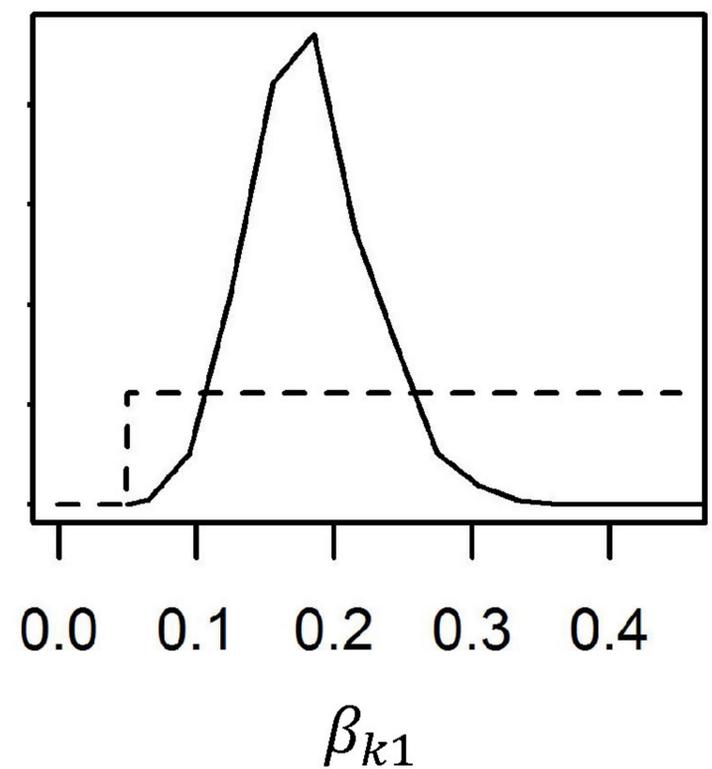
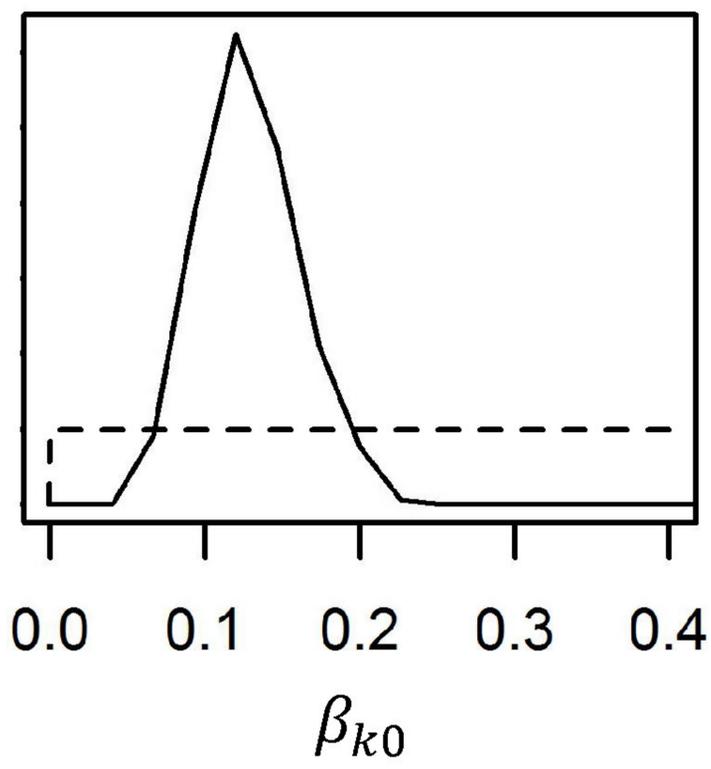
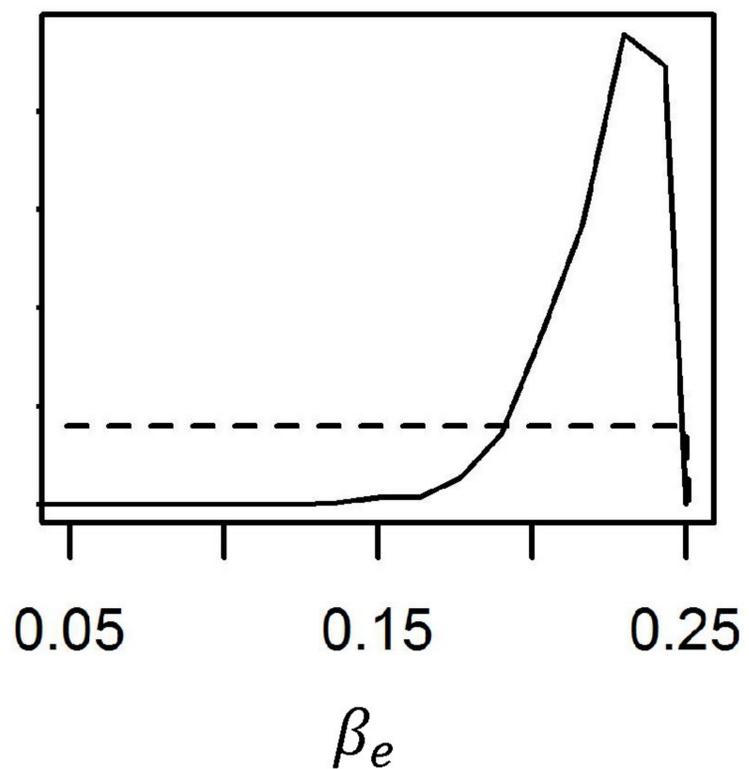
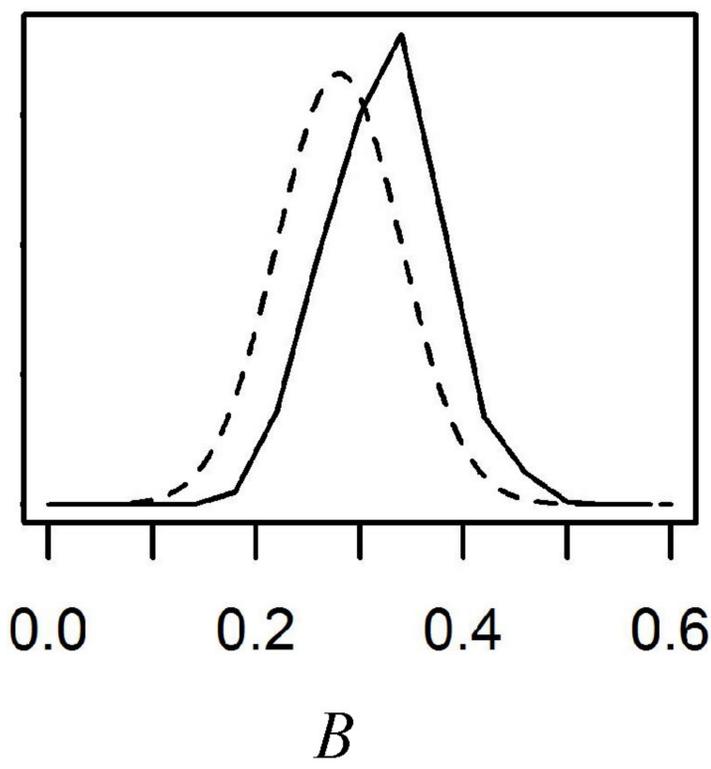
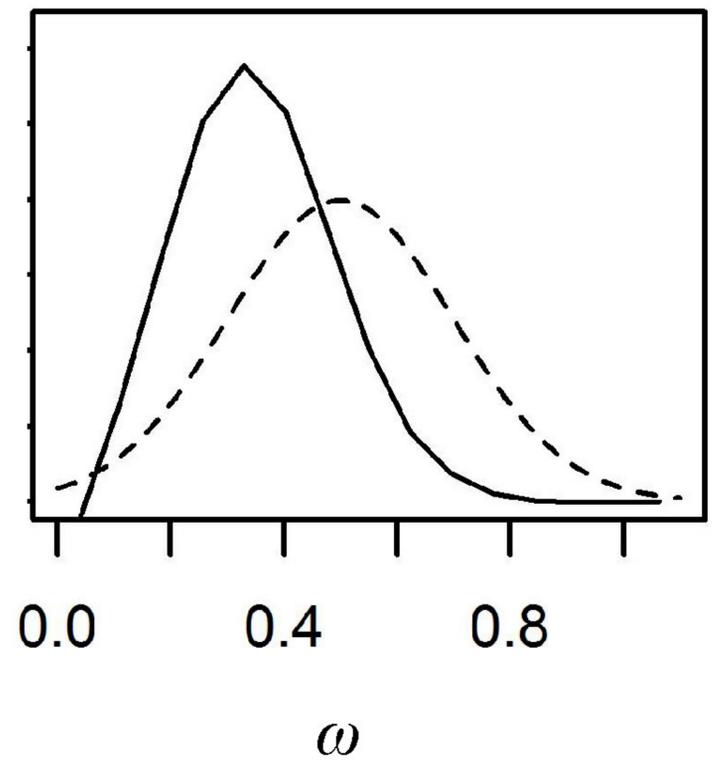
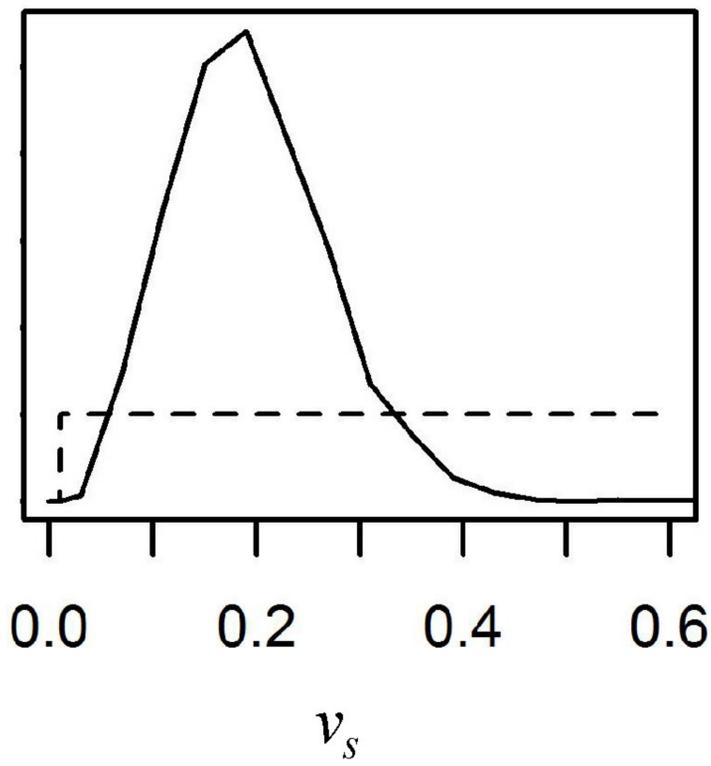
esa



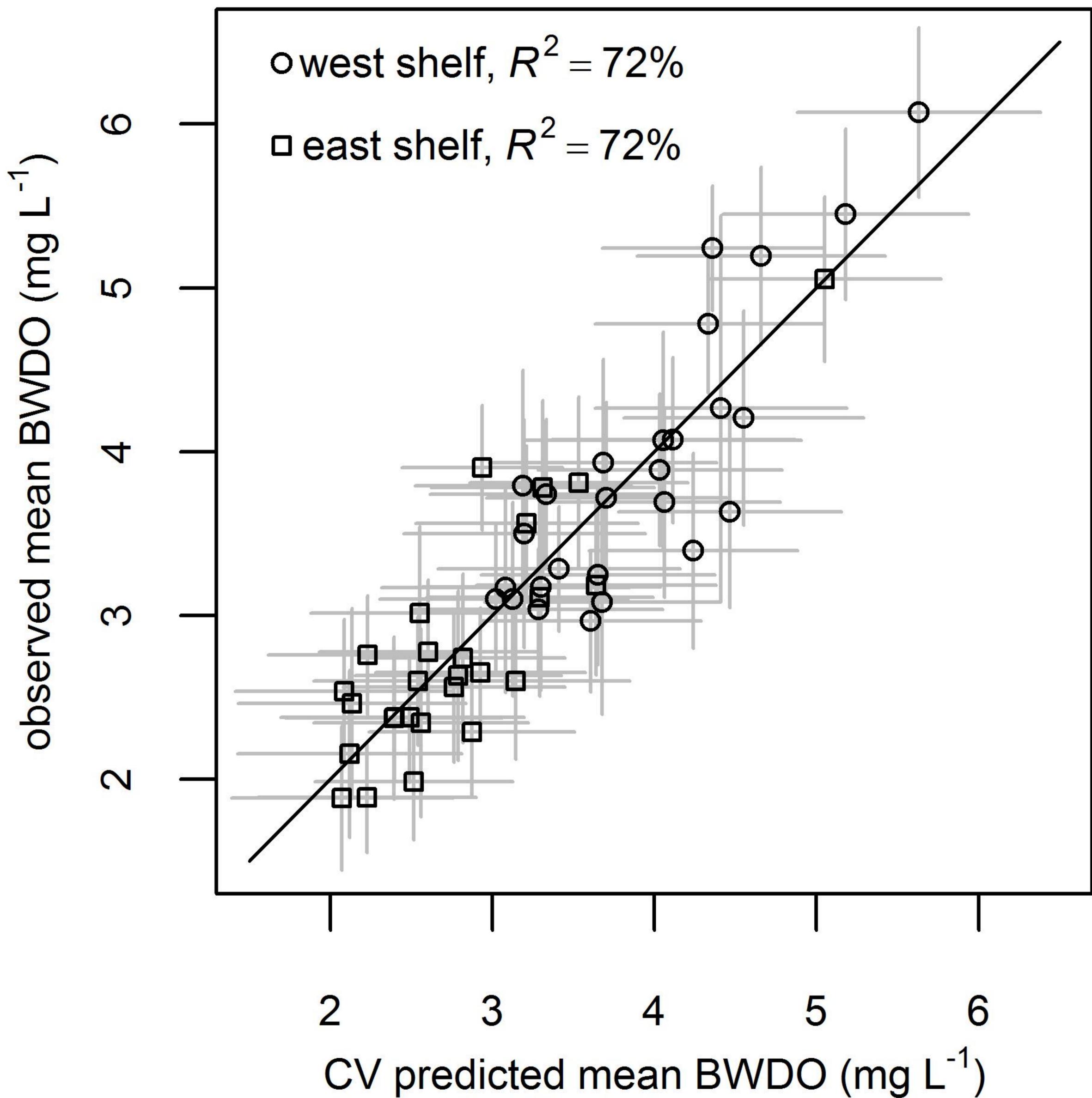
Legend

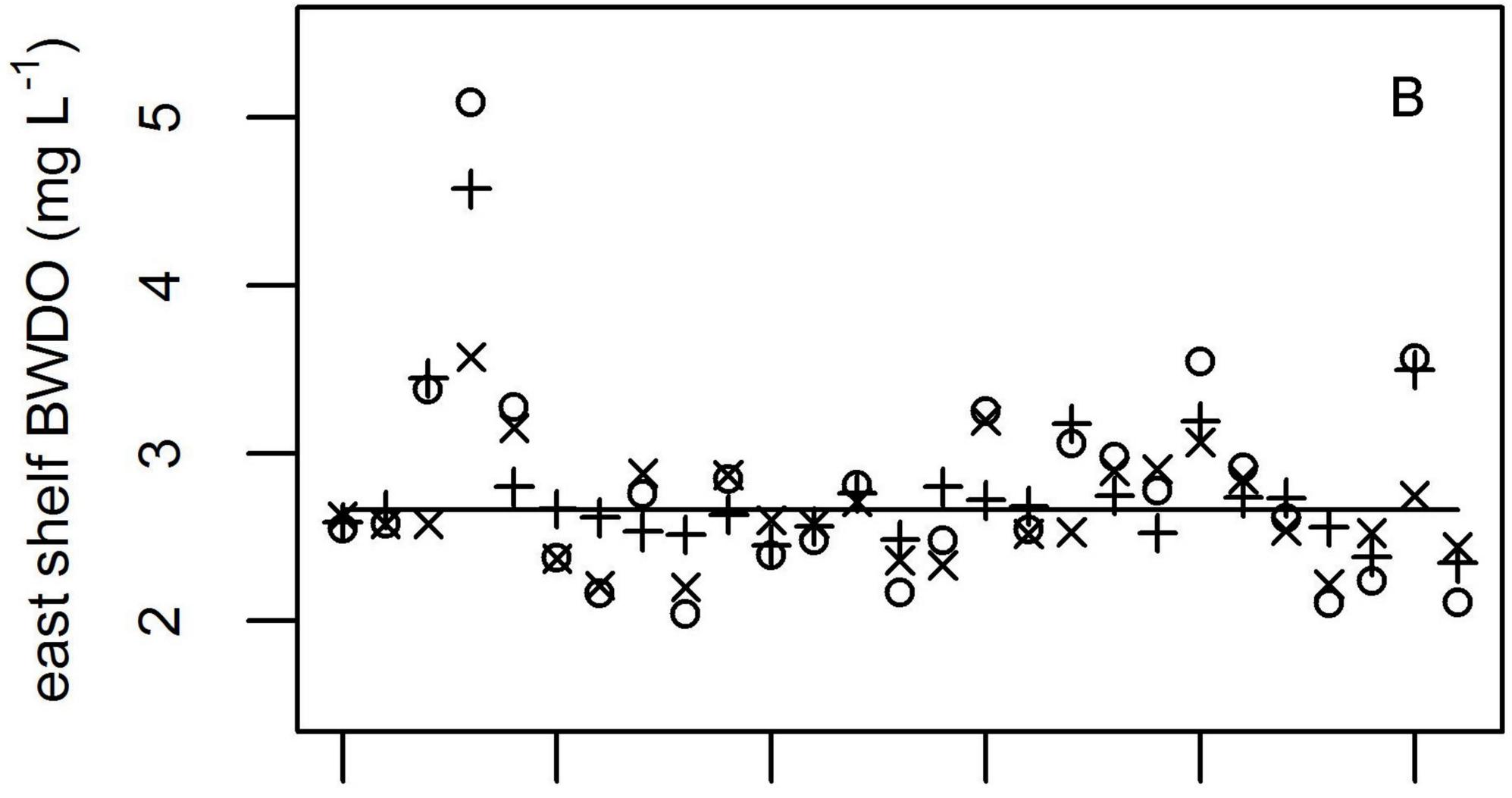
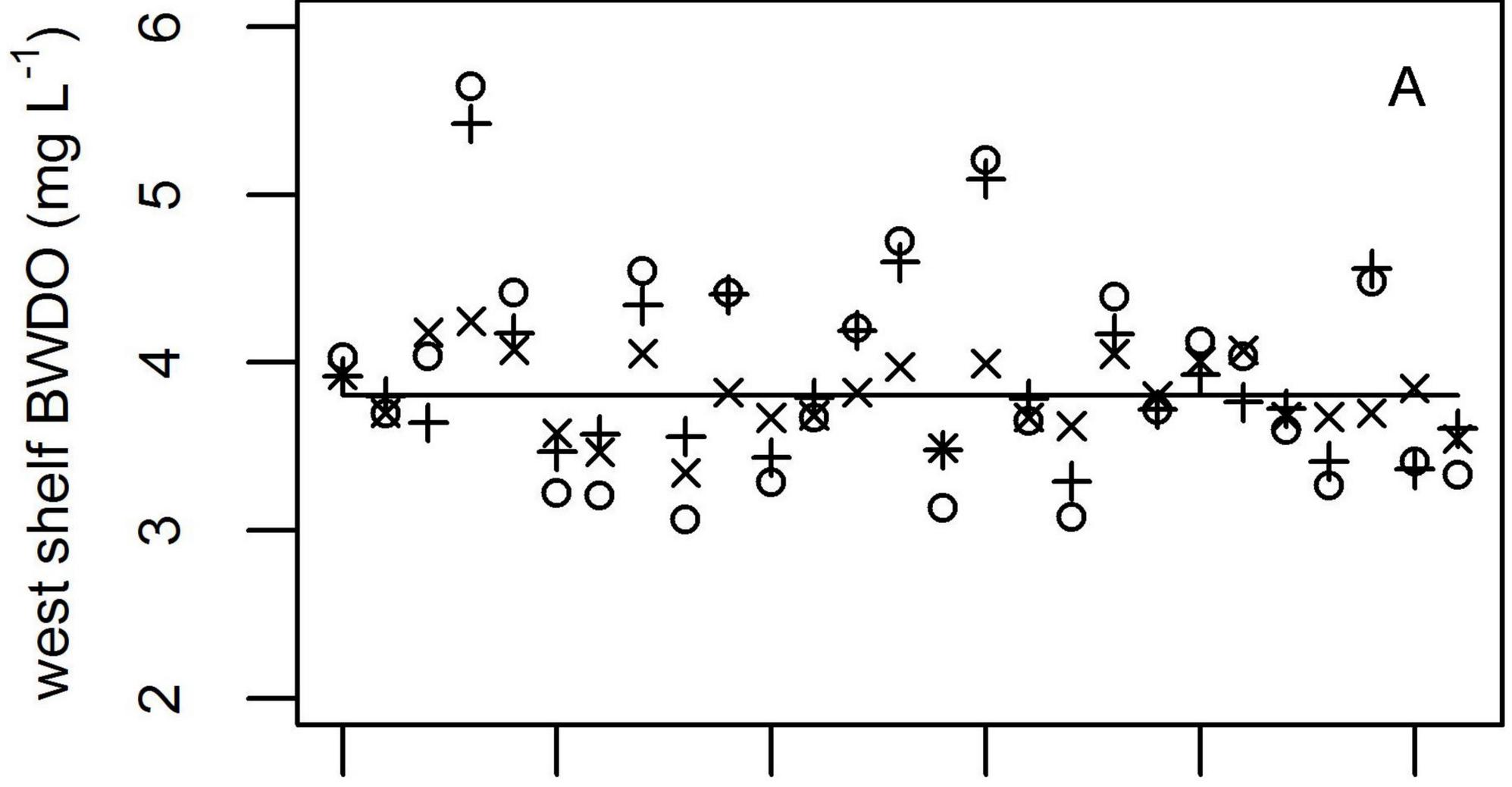
- ← Flow & load path
- ← Flow only
- Partitioning location
- ↓ Load settling (to lower layer)

preprint



----- prior
——— posterior





1985 1990 1995 2000 2005 2010

- o using all drivers
- x using spring drivers only ('nutrient effect')
- + using summer drivers only ('stratification effect')
- using no drivers (all factors held at mean values)

