

1 **Measuring Winds from Space to Reduce the Uncertainty in the Southern Ocean** 2 **Carbon Fluxes: Science Requirements and Proposed Mission**

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4 **Joellen L. Russell¹, David G. Long², Paul S. Chang³, Madeline Cowell⁴, Enrique Curchitser⁵, Michael S. Dinniman⁶,**
5 **Charles Fellows¹, Paul J. Goodman¹, Eileen E. Hofmann⁶, Zorana Jelenak³, John Klinck⁶, John Krasting⁷, Nicole**
6 **Lovenduski⁸, Marcus Lofverstrom¹, Matthew Mazloff⁹, Shelley Petroy⁴, Anjani Polit¹, Ernesto Rodriguez¹⁰, Oscar**
7 **Schofield⁵, Ad Stoffelen¹¹, Ronald J. Stouffer¹, Rik Wanninkhof¹², Carl Weimer⁴, and Xubin Zeng¹**

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10 Affiliations: 1. University of Arizona; 2. Brigham Young University; 3. NOAA/NESDIS/STAR; 4. Ball Aerospace; 5. Rutgers; 6. Old Dominion
11 University; 7. NOAA/GFDL; 8. University of Colorado-Boulder; 9. Scripps Institution of Oceanography, UCSD; 10. Jet Propulsion Laboratory,
12 California Institute of Technology; 11. KNMI; 12. NOAA/AOML
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15 **Keywords: Observing System Design, Surface Vector Winds, Scatterometer, Southern Ocean, Air-Sea Carbon Flux**

16 17 **Key points:**

- 18 **1) The** current wind observing system samples Southern Ocean storms infrequently and is unlikely to directly observe the
19 highest winds and variability
20 **2) Southern Ocean winds are critical to the global air-sea exchange of carbon and heat**
21 **3) Adding a carefully targeted scatterometer to the observing constellation will reduce the uncertainty in the global carbon**
22 **budget by focusing on the SO where the largest fraction of the air-sea exchange happens and where the current uncertainties**
23 **are largest.**

24 25 26 **Plain Language Summary**

27 The Southern Ocean is the windiest place in the world, with frequent intense storms. The winds in these storms drive large
28 fluxes of carbon and heat between the ocean and the atmosphere. Unfortunately, these fluxes can't be observed directly from
29 space; we rely on wind measurements and climate reanalyses to determine them, Our space-based observing network,
30 however, only captures winds over the Southern Ocean twice per day at best, so our estimates of the SO winds and air-sea
31 fluxes are uncertain and about 50% of the global uncertainty in air-sea carbon exchange is associated with the Southern Ocean.
32 We show that higher winds are consistent with reduced uptake of atmospheric carbon by the Southern Ocean. We describe our

33 observing system design experiment to determine the best additional scatterometer to add to the wind-observing constellation
34 to capture more of the high winds and reduce the uncertainty in the Southern Ocean carbon budget

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36

37

38 **Abstract**

39

40 Strong winds in Southern Ocean storms drive air-sea carbon and heat fluxes. These fluxes are integral to the global climate
41 system and wind speeds that drive them are increasing. The current scatterometer constellation measuring vector winds
42 remotely undersamples these storms and the higher winds within them, leading to potentially large biases in Southern Ocean
43 wind reanalyses and the carbon and heat fluxes that derive from them. This observing system design study addresses these
44 issues in two ways. First, we describe an addition to the scatterometer constellation, called Southern Ocean Storms–Zephyr, to
45 increase the frequency of independent observations, better constraining high winds. Second, we show that potential reanalysis
46 wind biases over the Southern Ocean lead to uncertainty over the sign of the net winter carbon flux. More frequent
47 independent observations per day will capture these higher winds and reduce the uncertainty in estimates of the global carbon
48 and heat budgets.

49

50 **1) Introduction**

51

52 The Southern Ocean is the windiest ocean basin in the world; storms play an important role in mass and heat transport and
53 precipitation (Wei & Qin, 2016) and drive air-sea fluxes of carbon and heat, which scale non-linearly with wind speed. These
54 strong winds, coupled with the unique geography and upper ocean processes around Antarctica, forge a connection where
55 carbon dioxide (and heat) are readily exchanged between the atmosphere, the oceanic mixed layer and the deep ocean (Russell
56 et al. 2006).

57

58 The World Meteorological Organization (WMO) recognizes the need for global wind sampling every 6 hours (4 x per day);
59 preferably every 3 hours for ocean and climate applications (Bourassa et al. 2019; Stoffelen et al. 2019). This is not achieved by
60 the existing scatterometer constellation; undersampling is acute in the Southern Ocean (SO, hereafter, Hell et al., 2020) where
61 fast-moving storms drive an increase in carbon exchange (Matear & Lenton, 2008). Storms are frequent but inadequately
62 sampled (only 1-2 times per day at any location), limiting independent assessment of model-based wind reanalyses. Belmonte

63 Rivas and Stoffelen (2019) show large SO reanalysis biases in mean and eddy flow; additional uncertainty is associated with
 64 reduced precision and accuracy of high wind speeds (Stoffelen et al. 2020), and the lack of coincident rain determination (Xu &
 65 Stoffelen, 2020). Uncertainties at high wind speeds and short storm durations (Wentz et al. 2017, Chang et al. 2009, Hell et al.
 66 2020) suggest that the current satellite-based wind observations are insufficient. Given the small spatial scales of the SO storms
 67 and their fluctuating intensities, it is likely that current satellite wind speed observations are biased low, especially in winter.

68

69 Scatterometer, radiometer, and altimeter observations of SO winds, ocean wave height, and ocean power over the last decade
 70 indicate that all are increasing (Young et al. 2011, 2017; Young & Ribal, 2019; Reguero et al. 2019). Wei and Qin (2016) note
 71 increasing SO storms during each season, although the increase was only statistically significant in summer. Verhoef et al.
 72 (2017) show increasing global winds in reanalyses but decreasing winds in collocated QuikSCAT data. Stronger winds bring
 73 more carbon-rich deep water to the surface; this decreases uptake and increases outgassing by changing the air-sea gradient,
 74 as observed by autonomous biogeochemical floats in the SO (Gray et al. 2018).

75

76 Several studies report significant uncertainties and potential biases in wind reanalysis products over the SO, especially in the
 77 highest winds (Marseille et al., 2017; Risien & Chelton, 2008; Arduin et al. 2011; Chawla et al. 2013, Verezemskaya et al.
 78 2017). Sampe and Xie (2007) found that >5% of QuikSCAT winds (Spencer et al. 2000) exceeded 20 m/s over large areas south
 79 of 40°S during winter (June–August, JJA). Comparable calculations from the ERA5 reanalysis (5th reanalysis from the ECMWF;
 80 Hersbach et al. 2020) for 2018–2019 find that <1% of winter wind speeds exceed the 20 m/s threshold. Tetzner et al. (2019)
 81 found that ERA-Interim (Dee et al. 2011) and ERA5 reanalyses (Hersbach et al. 2020) underestimated monthly-mean winds
 82 over the Antarctic Peninsula by >1 m/s and partly attribute this to higher-frequency observations by the meteorological
 83 stations. Verezemskaya et al. (2017) compared QuikSCAT wind speeds in SO mesocyclones during winter (June–September;
 84 Ricciardulli & Wentz, 2015) to four different reanalysis products (ERA-Interim, Dee et al. 2011; NCEP CFSR, Saha et al. 2010;
 85 JRA55, Kobayashi et al. 2015; MERRA2, Bosilovich et al. 2016), showing that mean wind speed was underestimated in each by
 86 1–7 m/s and the 75th percentile was underestimated by 5–10 m/s. A significant underrepresentation in the higher winds will
 87 impact the trend.

88

89 Air-sea fluxes of CO₂ and heat are not directly observable from space; we rely on bulk formulae, experiments and simulations to
 90 determine these quantities. Current estimates of the ocean’s role in the global carbon budget indicate that >50% of the
 91 anthropogenic uptake of carbon from the atmosphere by the global ocean (1.4 PgC/yr in the SO of the 2.6 PgC/yr global) and
 92 50% of the uncertainty (± 0.3 PgC/yr) in air-sea CO₂ exchange occurs in the SO (Friedlingstein et al. 2020). Uncertainties in the

93 SO winds contribute to significant uncertainties in the global and regional carbon budgets; this uncertainty hampers prediction
94 and challenges our carbon emission reduction projections to stabilize global atmospheric CO₂ levels.

95
96 Current estimates of the net global carbon flux (Friedlingstein et al. 2020; Iida et al. 2015; Landschutzer et al. 2016; Takahashi
97 et al. 2014, Wanninkhof et al. 2013) rely on a method based on the observed net invasion of bomb-¹⁴C to scale the gas
98 exchange rate equation, assuming *a priori* that gas exchange scales to the square of the winds (Sweeney et al. 2007). This
99 process depends on spatial and temporal resolution of the “observed” wind speeds (Naegler et al. 2006). Sweeney et al. (2007)
100 note that, “no single (scaling) value can be applied for all wind products”; other parameterizations based on isotopic evidence
101 have been proposed (e.g. Krakauer et al. 2006). Wanninkhof and Triñanes, 2017 found that a different gas exchange
102 parameterization (Wanninkhof et al. 2009) with increased exchange above 14 m/s and below 5 m/s (relative to the standard
103 square of wind speed) adequately represents the net invasion of bomb-¹⁴C. Alternative approaches to carbon flux
104 parameterization using high resolution surface roughness estimates (e.g. Frew et al. 2007) have not been explored in the SO. A
105 coherent observing system with detailed calibration and validation will allow a more precise estimate of the gas exchange rate
106 and therefore the carbon flux in the SO.

107
108 To assess the effects of missing high winds and/or increasing winds over the SO, we take advantage of a unique and powerful
109 tool, the Biogeochemical SO State Estimate (**BSOSE**, Verdy & Mazloff, 2017). The state estimate is constrained with physical
110 and biogeochemical observations while maintaining closed budgets and obeying dynamical and thermodynamic balances. The
111 ocean state estimate solves for the model initial and **boundary conditions** (i.e. surface heat fluxes, freshwater and carbon)
112 that minimize the weighted least squares sum of model-observation misfits.

113
114 When we compare net carbon flux that occurs under high winds (>10 m/s in ERA5 reanalysis) to total flux in the daily solutions
115 from BSOSE for 2013–2018 (forced with ERA5 hourly winds), we find that >60% of the carbon flux happens under winds
116 greater than 10 m/s, although the fraction of the SO (south of 30°S) under these high wind speeds is ~35% of the total area
117 (Supp. Fig. S1). **We show that the air-sea carbon fluxes and upwelling consistent with stronger winds (imposed as**
118 **part of an idealized experiment) indicate that the SO will change from a net carbon sink into a net carbon source**
119 **during austral winter.** This change is consistent with findings of strong outgassing between the polar front and sea ice edge
120 based on the biogeochemical float array (Gray et al. 2018). Bronselaer et al. 2020 showed that the float observations noted by
121 Gray et al. 2018 are not reproducible without imposing stronger winds.

122

123 As proposed, SOS-Zephyr addresses key Decadal Survey questions (NASEM 2018): How can we reduce the uncertainty in the
124 carbon cycle feedback (carbon budget), by up to a factor of 2? And how large are variations in the global carbon cycle? SOS-
125 Zephyr reduces uncertainty in the global carbon budget by focusing on the SO where a large fraction of the air-sea carbon
126 exchange takes place and where the uncertainties are largest; the two biggest sources of uncertainty are: 1) “Are we (now)
127 capturing the surface vector wind field sufficiently with our observing constellation?”, and 2) is our uncertainty about the vector
128 wind field concealing a trend? All indicators point to surface winds strengthening over the SO; SOS-Zephyr’s contribution to the
129 wind field refines our uncertainty estimates of the vector wind field and the statistics of the number, size and strength of SO
130 Storms and indicates the presence or absence of significant trend.

131
132 The second source of uncertainty is that while wind speed determines the gas exchange rate, vector wind fields determine
133 upwelling and mixed layer depth and therefore air-sea carbon gradient. Quantifying time-varying air-sea carbon flux in the SO
134 **requires** numerical simulations to quantify underlying the ocean circulation; these simulations of biogeochemistry and air-sea
135 carbon flux in the SO vary widely. Accordingly, SOS-Zephyr proposes a scatterometer mission to capture vector winds rather
136 than a radiometer which can only determine wind speeds.

137
138 **Reducing uncertainty in SO wind speed and variability improves estimates of air-sea CO₂ exchange in this critical**
139 **region. More frequent, finely-resolved measurements allow us to better quantify the SO’s role in the global**
140 **carbon cycle and the climate system; enhancing our ability to predict the evolution of the carbon system over the**
141 **near term.**

142
143 This modeling study, where faster winds are assimilated into BSOSE, indicate that stronger winds lead to significantly increased
144 carbon outgassing along the seasonal sea ice zone in winter and enhanced outgassing during most seasons at most latitudes,
145 likely due to increased upwelling. Heat fluxes were enhanced by stronger winds but did not change sign. We conduct an
146 observing system simulation experiment (OSSE) within the state estimation to illustrate how adding a satellite to the existing
147 constellation reveals a change in magnitude and potentially the sign of present-day SO air-sea CO₂ flux estimates. The study is
148 as follows: Section 2 describes the current scatterometer constellation, the tools we use to assess performance, and the
149 Biogeochemical SO State Estimate; Section 3 evaluates orbital and performance specifications of the scatterometer
150 constellation, without and with the proposed SOS-Zephyr mission. Section 4 describes our experiment in BSOSE, where surface
151 wind speeds are increased by 20% and compares the seasonal carbon and heat fluxes in the two simulations; and Section 5
152 presents our conclusions.

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154 **2) Data and Methods**

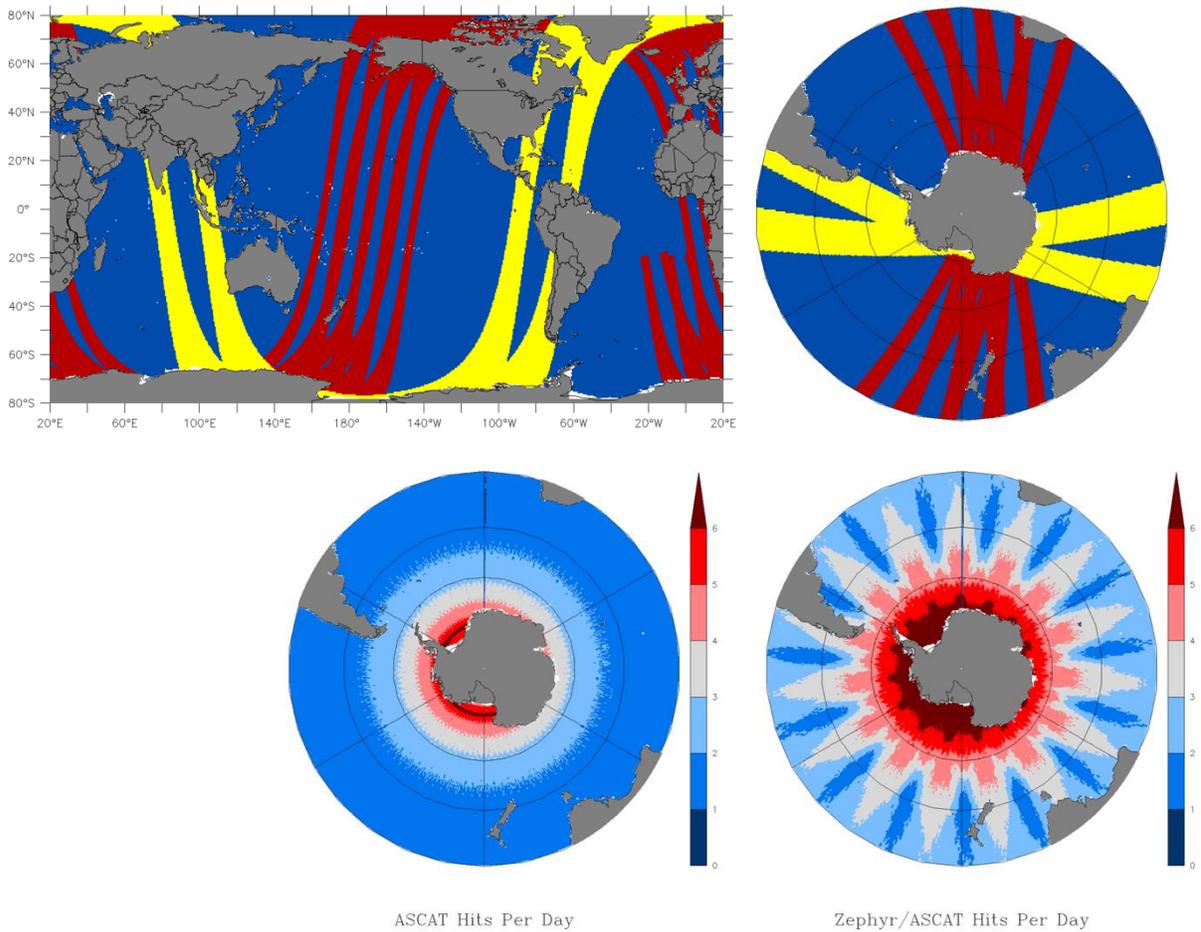
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156 We first assess how often per day and at what spatial resolution the existing scatterometer constellation measures SO winds.

157 We determine the orbital and sampling details needed for an additional satellite, to reduce the uncertainty in the net air-sea
 158 exchange of CO₂ over the SO by >30% to ±0.2 PgC/yr or less.

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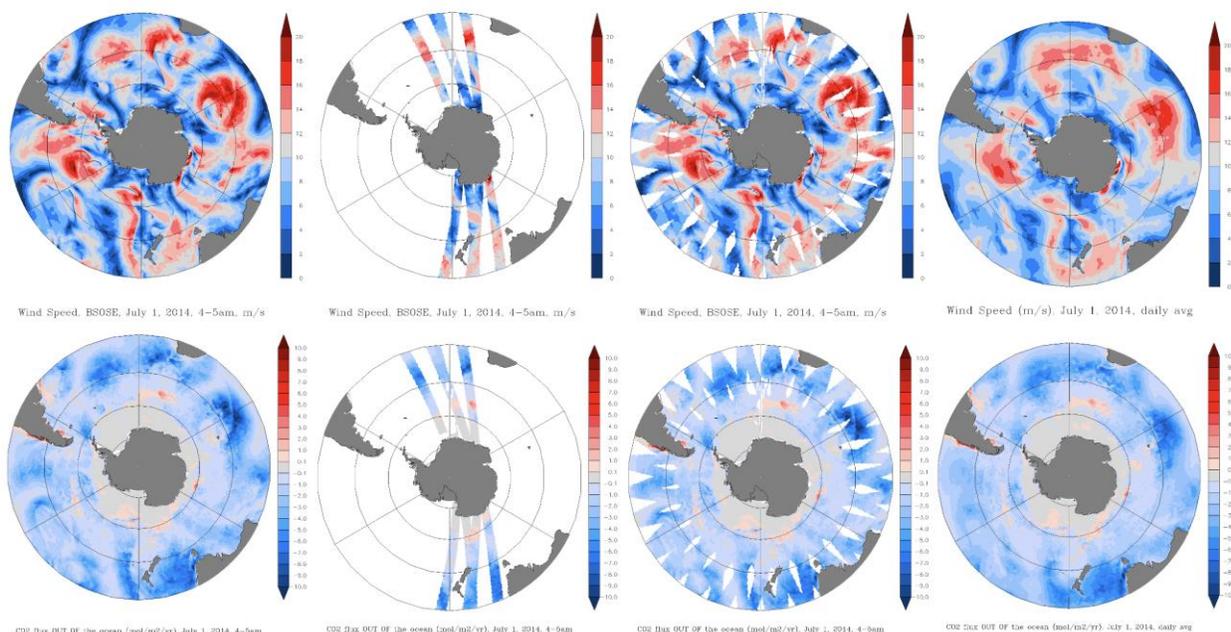
162 Figure 1: (A) Locations of ground swaths during a “typical” period (3-6am GMT) for ASCAT-2 and ASCAT-3 (red) and SOS-Zephyr
 163 (yellow) with a Δ RAAN of approximately 90° and Δ LTAN of about 6 hours. (B) Polar plot of the same data; (C) Number of
 164 “independent” observations (defined as observations not in the same hour) per day for the constellation of ASCAT-2 and ASCAT-3;
 165 and (D) independent observations for proposed constellation (ASCAT plus SOS-Zephyr) where most locations over the Southern
 166 Ocean will be revisited 3 to 5 times per day—a 2x to 3x improvement providing the necessary temporal/spatial coverage to capture
 167 storms.

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2.1 Satellite-borne Scatterometers (ASCAT-1, ASCAT-2 & ASCAT-3)

The operational scatterometers constellation consists of three European-launched satellite missions: ASCAT-1 (Metop-A, until 2022), ASCAT-2 (Metop-B) and ASCAT-3 (Metop-C). There are three additional scatterometers currently on orbit: OSCAT2 (SCAT-SAT1; Indian Space Research Organisation, ISRO) and HY-2B/C and CFOSAT launched by China. OSCAT2 largely duplicates the ASCAT coverage (Bhowmick et al., 2019). The HY-2B satellite is in a sun-synchronous 6am/6pm orbit, while CFOSAT is a sun-synchronous 7am/7pm orbit. The temporal separation between the ASCATs and the ISRO and Chinese missions is insufficient for proper temporal sampling; they are not included in our analysis. ASCAT-2 and ASCAT-3 will still be on orbit when SOS-Zephyr is launched (2027-2028); with no knowledge of additional scatterometers in that time frame, we limit our analysis to ASCATs 2 and 3 and SOS-Zephyr.

Figure 1A and 1B show ground swaths from the ASCATs during a 3-hour period (3-6 am GMT on Day 1). During each hour, ~9% of the SO is directly observed by the ASCAT satellites and ~6.4% of the total carbon flux is “seen” directly. Figure 1C shows the daily satellite revisit cadence; for the ASCATs, only locations south of ~70°S have 4 unique visits per day, but areas north of ~53°S have 2 or fewer visits per day (12-hour return time at best). Adding ScatSat or ASCAT-3 does not change the twice-daily clustering of overpasses.



186

187 Figure 2: (Top row, A) Wind speed (m/s) for the BSOSE solution (2013-2018) for July 1, 2014, at 4-5am (from ERA5 hourly data);
 188 (B) wind speed “seen” at 4-5am by the ASCAT-only constellation (~9% of the area); (C) wind speed “seen” by all visits of the ASCAT
 189 constellation during the day (24 hours) applied to the same wind field (~85% of the area); (D) daily average wind speed from ERA5
 190 for July 1, 2014. (Bottom row, E) Carbon flux (mol/m²/yr) consistent with the above winds from BSOSE at the same day/time; (F)
 191 flux “seen” by ASCAT constellation during the hour; (G) flux “seen” by all visits of the ASCAT constellation during the day (24 hours)
 192 applied to the same flux field; (H) daily average of the carbon flux from BSOSE.

193

194 We determined where and when the constellation of satellites (ASCAT-2, ASCAT-3) observe the ocean over the course of 7 days
 195 (168 hours). We projected these observations onto hourly and daily grids of ¼°, ½° and 1° spacing, creating a series of 168
 196 hourly “coverage maps” indicating whether a location was observed at least once by the constellation during that hour or not.
 197 We will refer to these coverage maps as “masks” because they hide the results of the model that are *unseen* by the satellites.
 198 Our results were insensitive to mask resolution; the rest of this study describes results using the ½° hourly masks. Daily masks
 199 were calculated from hourly masks (Figure 2C, 2G). We note that applying these “daily” masks to *individual hours* is more
 200 representative than applying them to the *daily average* of any particular field.

201

202 **2.2 Biogeochemical SO State Estimate**

203

204 The Biogeochemical SO State Estimate (BSOSE, Verdy & Mazloff, 2017) at 1/6° horizontal grid (~18km), January 2013 to
 205 December 2018, is used (http://sose.ucsd.edu/BSOSE6_iter133_solution.html). BSOSE assimilates observations from shipboard
 206 sensors, profiling floats, satellites and reanalyses (wind speeds, SST, SSS, biogeochemical data, etc.) into a numerical model,
 207 producing a state estimate for the SO. In BSOSE, the MIT general circulation model (MITgcm) is fully coupled to a
 208 Biogeochemistry with Light, Iron, Nutrients, and Gases (BLING) model (Galbraith et al. 2015). Please refer to Verdy and Mazloff
 209 (2017) for additional details.

210

211 The BSOSE solution assimilates ERA5 hourly wind speed data, so we are able to assess the ocean state consistent with any wind
 212 regime. To gauge the effects of either a low bias in the reanalysis winds and/or increasing wind speeds on the ocean (e.g. the
 213 mixed-layer depth, the surface temperature, the air-sea fluxes of carbon and heat, etc.), we ran a *perturbation* experiment
 214 where BSOSE winds are increased by 20%. This approach is similar to the idealized perturbation experiments recently published
 215 by Bronselaer et al. 2018, 2020 in which a fixed zonal wind forcing anomaly was applied to the SO surface to assess the effect of
 216 possible biases in wind stress and latitudinal position. We chose a 20% increase to envelope the effects of the possible missing

217 winds. This experiment addresses two specific points: how do surface fluxes over the SO change in response to stronger winds,
218 and how often must we sample the SO winds to capture either the missing winds or the trend. All other parameters for the
219 2013-2018 simulation were held constant from the control experiment. Increasing the winds has two direct effects on the
220 ocean; mixed layers deepen, exposing a larger volume of water to the atmosphere, and air-sea fluxes that depend on wind
221 speed will be greater. Either or both could alter the air-sea exchange.

222

223 **3) Adding SOS-Zephyr to the Constellation**

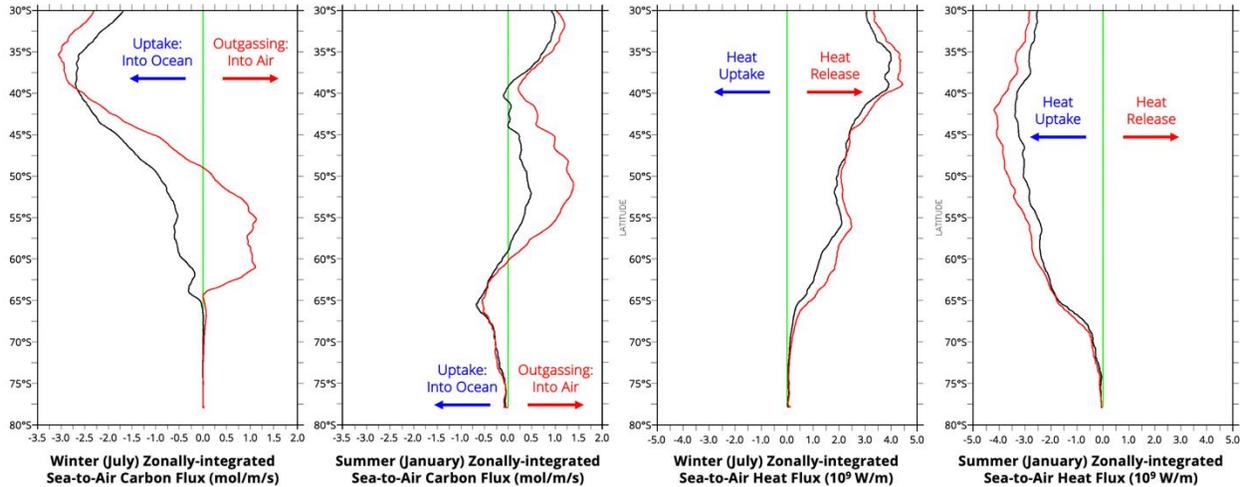
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225 SOS-Zephyr will be a sun synchronous, conical scan, single swath instrument similar to SeaWinds on QuikSCAT (Spencer et al.,
226 2000). Having a wider swath with overlap at lower latitudes was one of the big advantages of QuikSCAT over the ASCAT design:
227 QuikSCAT visited 93% of the global ocean each day while the ASCAT constellation only observes 77% each day (Verspeek &
228 Stoffelen, 2009). Many orbital details proposed for SOS-Zephyr are found in the Supplemental Methods section; the essential
229 parameters are the swath-width of 1225km and the RAAN/LTAN of $\sim 152^\circ$ and $\sim 3:30/15:30$ respectively. The size and timing of
230 SOS-Zephyr's ground track decreases the average revisit to less than 6 hours south of 65°S (Fig 1D, 4 per day at most
231 longitudes) and less than 8 hours south of about 50°S (3 per day). The relative swath positions of SOS-Zephyr in our optimal
232 orbit (Fig 1A & 1B) show excellent separation from the ASCAT swaths. Including the SOS-Zephyr coverage in the constellation
233 increased the area observed from 9% per hour with ASCAT alone to more than 14% per hour. Fast transient changes will be
234 better tracked by adding SOS-Zephyr; inclusion into the constellation increases the fraction of integrated carbon flux retrieved
235 from 6.4% with ASCAT-only to 11.2% per hour (75% increase).

236

237 To quantify the net improvement per day by the augmented constellation, the daily mask of all locations visited that day by
238 each constellation was applied to both the hourly retrievals and the daily sum of the hourly fluxes. The fraction of net flux
239 captured by each constellation was similar in both methods; the differences between ASCAT and ASCAT+SOS-Zephyr are clear,
240 with increases of daily capture at 96%, compared to 75% for carbon and 86% for heat for ASCAT-only.

241



242

243 *Figure 3: Comparison of carbon fluxes and heat fluxes consistent with standard ERA5 wind speeds and with 20% higher wind*
 244 *speeds. Carbon Fluxes (zonally-integrated) during (A) July 2014 for BSOSE-ERA5x1.0 (black), BSOSE-ERA5x1.2 (red), and (B)*
 245 *January 2014 for BSOSE-ERA5x1.0 (black), and BSOSE-ERA5x1.2 (red); and Heat Fluxes (zonally-integrated) for (C) July 2014 and*
 246 *(D) January 2014 with the same color convention. Positive (negative) values are out of (into) the ocean. Note that carbon fluxes in*
 247 *January of the ERAx1.0 run (panel B, black line) are generally out of the ocean except at 40°S and south of 58°S, while in the*
 248 *ERAx1.2 run (red line), these fluxes are more strongly out of the ocean (degassing) between 60°S and 40°S, mirroring the strong*
 249 *outgassing seen between 62°S and 50°S during July (A, red line) under increased winds compared to the uptake at these latitudes in*
 250 *July under standard winds (A, black line).*

251

252 **4) The Experiment: A State Estimate with Stronger Wind Speeds**

253

254 To assess potential benefits of adding SOS-Zephyr to our scatterometer constellation, we pose two questions: 1) “If reanalysis
 255 winds are biased low, how would this affect the carbon and heat fluxes?” and 2) “Would adding an additional satellite capture
 256 more of these higher winds?”.

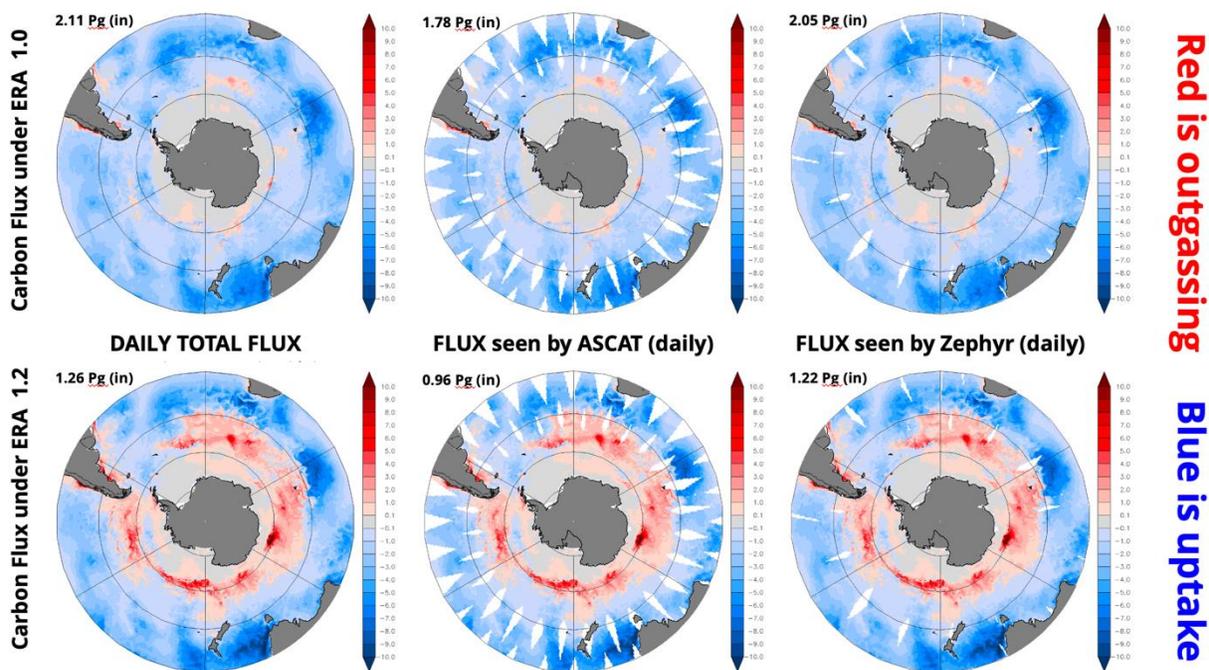
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258 Figure 3 shows zonally-integrated carbon fluxes (A,B) and total heat fluxes (C,D) for July (A,C) and January (B,D) under standard
 259 ERA5 winds (black) and stronger winds (red) in response to increasing the wind speeds. In the SO, south of about 50°S, the
 260 vertical carbon gradient in winter is strong; increased stirring brings more carbon-enriched deep water to the surface in a
 261 region of divergence where it can escape to the atmosphere. Enhanced mixing of deep carbon changes the sign of the air-sea
 262 gradient and turns the region south of 50°S from a net sink (Fig 3A, black line) taking up of 0.024 PgC for the month to a net
 263 source (red line) releasing 0.044 PgC for the month – a change of 0.067 PgC. Increased gas exchange in uptake regions at lower

264 latitudes increase the net uptake there, but stronger divergence in the latitudes of Drake Passage (63°S–55°S) under higher
 265 winds ventilates older, deeper carbon-rich water, and turns the SO from a strong net sink taking up 0.175 PgC into a weaker net
 266 sink, only taking up 0.096 PgC. Outgassing in this region in winter near the ice edge has been documented by
 267 biogeochemically-sensored floats (Gray et al. 2018). Carbon fluxes in January are not as uniform; there is uptake at the highest
 268 latitudes adjacent to the continent, but most of the region is outgassing except along the northern edge of the Antarctic
 269 Circumpolar Current. Increasing winds turn the summer SO, south of 30°S, from a weak outgassing region with a net release of
 270 0.020 PgC over the month into a strong outgassing region releasing 0.074 PgC. The average monthly change implies an annual
 271 change of ~ 0.84 PgC/yr less uptake, representing a 33% decrease in the total uptake by global ocean (2.5 PgC, and an
 272 additional atmospheric increase of ~ 0.4 ppm per year) or about 60% of the annual US emissions (1.4 PgC/yr in 2018,
 273 Friedlingstein et al. 2019).

274
 275 This experiment illustrates that carbon fluxes respond differently to increasing winds than do heat fluxes. Heat fluxes (both in
 276 and out) are enhanced by stronger winds, while stronger winds release more carbon out of the ocean throughout the year.

277



278
 279 *Figure 4 (Top row, A,B,C) Simulated carbon fluxes on July 1, 2014 from BSOSE-ERA5x1.0; (Bottom row, D,E,F) Simulated carbon*
 280 *fluxes from BSOSE-ERA5x1.2. In each panel, red (positive) is out of the ocean while blue (negative) is into the ocean. The left column*
 281 *(A,D) shows the total from BSOSE; the middle column (B,E) shows what is captured by the ASCAT constellation; and the right*

282 *column (C,F) shows what is captured by the addition of SOS-Zephyr. The total fluxes (PgC/yr) are indicated in the upper left corner*
283 *of each panel.*

284

285 **4a) Carbon Flux captured by the Satellite Constellation**

286

287 We next look at the differences between carbon and heat fluxes captured. On an hourly basis, ASCAT sees ~9% of the area and
288 6.4% of the carbon flux, while ASCAT+SOS-Zephyr sees ~14% of the area and 11.2% of the carbon. Over the course of each 24-
289 hour interval, the ASCAT constellation visits ~88% of the SO (south of 30°S) while adding SOS-Zephyr increases that area to
290 97%. This increase has significant repercussions for the total fluxes of carbon and heat observed.

291

292 Figure 4 shows total surface fluxes of carbon from BSOSE assimilations for July 1, 2014. The hourly output from BSOSE was
293 averaged over the entire day; the mask for each constellation includes locations that were visited at least once during the day.
294 Most of the carbon flux is into the ocean except for the highest latitudes near the ice edge and the coastal regions of South
295 America. The net carbon flux for the month is uptake of ~0.17 PgC, equivalent to ~2.1 PgC/yr. The daily average for the ASCAT-
296 constellation represents 81% of the total flux (1.7 Pg/yr, less than the relative area covered) whereas the addition of SOS-
297 Zephyr increases the net flux captured to 96% (2.0 Pg/yr). As can be seen, the gaps in the coverage by the ASCAT-only
298 constellation coincide with the larger uptake fluxes, biasing the total toward the low end.

299

300 Monteiro et al (2015) support the importance of temporal resolution, noting that pCO₂ observations less than two days apart
301 are required to reduce the annual uncertainty of the SO carbon flux below 10%. They conclude that “the synoptic period and
302 the spatial scale of the wind stress, particularly the magnitude and phasing of storm events, make a significant contribution to
303 reducing the uncertainty of the flux.” Trindade et al. (2020) show that reanalysis differences with scatterometers can be
304 reduced by 20% by subtracting local biases that are constant over 5 days, indicating that these biases are associated with the
305 local ocean state rather than with the local weather. Local ocean states vary on the ocean eddy scale of a few km; we believe
306 that the higher spatial resolution of SOS-Zephyr reduces this aspect of our uncertainty (Lindsley et al. 2016).

307

308 **5) Discussion**

309

310 SO winds are the strongest on average globally, but are distinctly spatially and temporally heterogeneous due to the presence
311 of long-lasting, fast-moving storms. These winds stir the surface ocean, driving strong carbon and heat fluxes between

312 atmosphere and ocean, especially in winter. Significant shortcomings and assumptions associated with determining the air-sea
313 carbon fluxes over the SO persist. 1) Our current wind observing system samples these storms infrequently (once or twice per
314 day), and is unlikely to directly observe the highest winds and variability. 2) Uncertainty in precision and accuracy of existing
315 scatterometers are large at the highest wind speeds. 3) Climate reanalyses underestimate the mean winds by 1-7 m/s and the
316 75th percentile by 5-10 m/s compared to scatterometer data (Vezeremskaya et al. 2017). It is these reanalysis winds that
317 determine the SO and global carbon fluxes and budgets. 4) Determination of the wind-dependent air-sea gas exchange
318 parameterization relies on these uncertain winds to determine the global formulation. And 5) coupled climate models
319 consistently simulate wind speeds over the SO that are weaker and more equatorward than observed, which has a large impact
320 on the simulated fluxes (Russell et al. 2006; Bracegirdle et al. 2013; Russell et al. 2018; Beadling et al. 2020).

321
322 By paying careful attention to the orbital parameters, this design OSSE addresses most of the above issues. 1) SOS-Zephyr
323 increases temporal resolution to 3-6 observations per day, south of 45°S. 2) Increased spatial resolution using new processing
324 algorithms increases precision and accuracy at the highest wind speeds and provides data close to coasts and sea ice edges, and
325 coincident radiometer observations reduce the confounding effects of coincident rain. And 3) new wind observations and new
326 attention to the gas exchange parameterization will refine this critical component of our carbon budget estimates. The “best”
327 estimate of the global carbon budget (Friedlingstein et al. 2020) indicates that more than half of the net air-sea carbon flux
328 occurs in the SO and half of the global uncertainty in the air-sea carbon flux is in the SO.

329
330 An additional, targeted scatterometer achieves our main goal of reducing the uncertainty in the global carbon budget by
331 focusing on the SO where the largest fraction of the air-sea exchange happens and where the current uncertainties are largest.
332 If successful, SOS-Zephyr will become a pathfinder for additional instruments that could provide a trove of new data, closing
333 many of the holes in our understanding and quantification of the carbon and heat budgets due to weathered ocean-scale air-
334 sea interaction.

335

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337

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344

345 **Data availability statement.**

346

347 The B-SOSE Iteration 133 output used in this analysis is available at Scripps Institution of Oceanography:

348 http://sose.ucsd.edu/BSOSE6_iter133_solution.html.

349

350 **References**

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