
An observing system simulation experiment for Indian Ocean surface pCO₂ measurements

Valsala Vinu ^{1,*}, Sreeush M. G. ^{1,5,6}, Anju M. ^{1,2}, Sreenivas Pentakota ¹, Tiwari Yogesh K. ¹, Chakraborty Kunal ³, Sijikumar S. ⁴

¹ Minist Earth Sci, Indian Inst Trop Meteorol, Pune, Maharashtra, India.

² Andhra Univ, Coll Sci & Technol, Dept Meteorol & Oceanog, Visakhapatnam, Andhra Pradesh, India.

³ Minist Earth Sci, Indian Natl Ctr Ocean Informat Serv, Hyderabad, India.

⁴ Vikram Sarabhai Space Ctr, Space Phys Lab, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India.

⁵ Inst Basic Sci, Ctr Climate Phys, Busan 46241, South Korea.

⁶ Pusan Natl Univ, Busan 46241, South Korea.

* Corresponding author : Vinu Valsala, email address : valsala@tropmet.res.in

Abstract :

An observing system simulation experiment (OSSE) is conducted to identify potential locations for making surface ocean pCO₂ measurements in the Indian Ocean using the Bayesian Inversion method. As of the SOCATv3 release, the pCO₂ data is limited in the Indian Ocean. To improve our modeling of this region, we need to identify where and what observation systems would produce the most good or benefit for their cost. The potential benefits of installing pCO₂ sensors in the existing RAMA and OMNI moorings of the Indian Ocean, the potential of Bio-Argo floats (with pH measurements), and the implementation of the ship of opportunity program (SOOP) for underway sampling of pCO₂ are evaluated. A cost function of dissolved inorganic carbon as a model state vector and CO₂ flux mismatch as the source of error is minimized, and the basin-wide CO₂ flux uncertainty reduction is estimated for different seasons. The maximum flux uncertainty reduction achievable by installing pCO₂ sensors in the existing RAMA and OMNI moorings is limited to 30% during different seasons. One may consider that around 20 Bio-Argos are still the right choice over installing mooring based pCO₂ sensors and achieve uncertainty reduction up to 50% with additional benefit of profiling the sub-surface upto 1000 & ndash;2000 m. However, a single track SOOP has the potential to reduce the uncertainty by approximately 62%. This study identifies vital RAMA and OMNI moorings and SOOP tracks for observing Indian Ocean pCO₂.

Plain Language Summary.

Surface ocean partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂) information is vital for estimating sea-to-air CO₂ exchanges. This parameter is least available from the Indian Ocean as compared to other global tropical and southern oceans. There has been no effort made so far to measure surface ocean pCO₂ in the Indian Ocean with routine monitoring such as by mounting instruments to moorings or by underway sampling via any ship of opportunity program. Therefore there is a considerable demand to start pCO₂ observations in the Indian Ocean. However, one key question that emerges is where to deploy pCO₂ instruments in the Indian Ocean to learn the most with limited resources. This study addresses this question with inverse

modeling techniques. The study finds that the existing moorings of the Indian Ocean are capable of hosting pCO₂ sensors, and data from those are useful to reduce the uncertainty in the surface sea-to-air CO₂ flux estimation by a quarter magnitude. In contrast, the Bio-Argo floats with pH sensors, and the ship of opportunity underway sampling of pCO₂ may benefit from reducing the same up to 50% and 62%, respectively.

Highlights

► OSSE is done for Indian Ocean (IO) pCO₂ using RAMA + OMNI moorings, Bio-Argo floats and SOOP ship-tracks. ► pCO₂ data from moorings and ship-tracks are tested for air-sea CO₂ flux inversions. ► The maximum CO₂ flux uncertainty reduction (UR) with potential pCO₂ data is found. ► IO-UR with pCO₂ data from moorings and ship-tracks are 30% and 62%, respectively. ► Ship-track pCO₂ is more efficient than the mooring pCO₂ data in CO₂ flux inversion.

Keywords : Observing System Simulation Experiment, (OSSE), RAMA mooring, OMNI mooring-Ship of Opportunity (SOOP)

72 1. Introduction

73 The ocean plays a vital role in mitigating global climate change by sequestering
74 ~30% of anthropogenically emitted carbondioxide (CO₂) per year (Sabine et al., 2004; Valsala
75 and Maksyutov, 2010; Le Quéré et al., 2018; Friedlingstein et al., 2019; Gruber et al., 2019).
76 In the absence of this sink, the accumulation of human-made CO₂ in the atmosphere could
77 have been amplified by a corresponding magnitude, and global warming would have been much
78 more accelerated. The global ocean has taken up nearly 165 ± 20 petagrams of carbon (PgC)
79 emitted since the pre-industrial era (Le Quéré et al., 2018). The contemporary global ocean CO₂
80 sink is estimated to be 2.5 ± 0.6 Pg C yr⁻¹ (Friedlingstein et al., 2019).

81

82 Tropical Indian Ocean (IO) alone contributed to sinking 16.6 ± 5.1 petagrams
83 anthropogenic carbon, amounting a 16% of the global total ocean sink (Sabine et al., 2004). The
84 recent synthesis of the Indian Ocean (north of 40°S) sea-to-air CO₂ flux suggests an annual mean
85 (median) CO₂ uptake of -0.37 ± 0.06 Pg C yr⁻¹ based on models and a sink of -0.24 ± 0.12 PgC yr⁻¹
86 based on observational estimates, for a period of 1990-2010 (Table-3, Sarma et al., 2013). Observation-
87 based estimates of sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes show that the Indian Ocean (from 40°S to 30°N) is a
88 carbon sink of -0.17 ± 0.12 Pg C yr⁻¹ as constructed from 1980-2014 neural network-based
89 data product of Landschutzer et al. (2016). On the other hand, variational data assimilation of
90 available surface ocean partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂) observations into a biogeochemical
91 model suggests a sink of -0.28 ± 0.18 Pg C yr⁻¹ for the same region as constructed from 1980-
92 2009 (Valsala and Maksyutov, 2010).

93 The divergence among various observational estimates of the Indian Ocean sea-to-air
94 CO₂ fluxes mostly arises from the lack of pCO₂ data need for the CO₂ flux
95 calculations. Although the Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas (SOCATv3-2020) database consists of
96 28 million quality controlled surface ocean pCO₂ measurements available from 1970 to 2019,
97 the Indian Ocean (30°E-130°E, 40°S-30°N) shares only 0.8 million, hardly representing 2.8% of
98 the total quality-controlled global pCO₂ data, especially for north of 30°S (Pfeil et al., 2013,
99 Bakker et al., 2016, Rödenbeck et al., 2015, Bakker et al., 2020). Despite being the third-largest
100 global ocean, the inadequate data coverage of the Indian Ocean hampers the accurate renditions
101 and budgeting of its carbon cycle. It is perhaps not much felt in the seasonal cycle (Takahashi et
102 al., 2009, 2014). Indeed, it affects deducing the subtle interannual and decadal variability (Bates
103 et al., 2006, Rödenbeck et al., 2015, Landschutzer et al., 2016, Sarma et al., 2013, Valsala et al.,
104 2012, 2020). There has been no effort made to sample pCO₂ by underway sampling using
105 volunteer commercial ships in the Indian Ocean, unlike in the north Pacific and Atlantic
106 (Zeng et al., 2014). It leaves a significant data gap in the Indian Ocean, especially north of 30°S
107 (Bakker et al., 2020).

108

109 The surface ocean pCO₂ can be measured by instruments mounted to moorings or
110 attached to the hull of ships in case of underway sampling (Pierrot et al., 2009; Takeshita et al.,
111 2018). Considering the spatiotemporal diversity of the Indian Ocean physical and
112 biogeochemical characteristics (Schott and McCreary, 2001; Prasanna Kumar et al., 2001; 2007;
113 Wiggert et al., 2005; 2006; Levy et al., 2007; Murtugudde et al., 2007; McCreary et al., 2009;
114 Sarma, 2002; 2013) and limited availability of resources to make direct observations,
115 consideration must be given to determine: (a) which existing moorings in the Indian Ocean

116 where instruments can be installed to make pCO₂ measurements most cost-effectively? (b) which
117 ship-track should be selected for the underway sampling under the voluntary ship of opportunity
118 programs (SOOP) so that the data obtained are optimal to constrain the Indian Ocean sea-to-air
119 CO₂ fluxes in inversion based estimates (Jacobson et al., 2007; Valsala and Maksyutov, 2010;
120 Mukherjee et al., 2011; Khatiwala et al., 2013; Steinkamp and Gruber, 2013, 2015; Sreeush et
121 al., 2019). Intensive ocean observations of pCO₂ and more atmospheric tower observations are
122 required to improve the models (Sarma et al., 2013, Wanninkhof et al., 2019, Nalini et al., 2019).

123
124 Indian Ocean Observing System (IndOOS) is the sustained observing system for the
125 Indian Ocean, a network operated and supported by various national agencies and coordinated
126 internationally under the Global Ocean Observing System framework by the CLIVAR/IOC-
127 GOOS Indian Ocean Region Panel. A detailed observing system simulation experiment (OSSE)
128 has been done for the physical variables of the Indian Ocean as part of IndOOS.1 programs in the
129 early 2000s (a group of publications in the special issue of J. Climate, Vol.50, 2007). The net
130 result of this effort is the installation of Research Moored Array for African-Asian-Australian
131 Monsoon Analysis and Prediction (RAMA) in the Indian Ocean (Vecchi and Harrison, 2005;
132 Ballabrera-Poy et al., 2007; Sakov and Oke, 2008; Oke and Schiller, 2007; McPhaden et al.,
133 2009). IndOOS has updated its priorities into actionable recommendations for future observing
134 system components and has put forwarded recommendations for an effective observational
135 program of the Indian Ocean (Beal et al., 2020a,b).

136
137 Among the IndOOS.2 recommendations for the 2020-30 frameworks, the Bio-Argos are
138 expected to be increased by 200 in number (Beal et al., 2019 and their Figure ES.1, Hood et al.,

139 2020, Wanninkhof et al., 2019). Other two notable recommendations are: (a) to initiate Moored
140 Autonomous pCO₂ systems (MAPCO₂) and biogeochemical measurements at RAMA locations
141 and (b) to establish SOOP-CO₂ measurements in the southern Indian Ocean (IX21, Hood, et al.,
142 2020). Therefore an OSSE for Indian Ocean pCO₂ measurements based on RAMA moorings and
143 based on various ship tracks of the Indian Ocean (Tournadre 2004) and thereby to substantiate
144 the IndOOS.2 recommendations are the need of the hour. This topic has not been attempted in
145 any previous studies to the best of our knowledge, except for the extreme southern part of the
146 Indian Ocean (Majkut et al., 2014). In another notable study, Ford (2021) tested the proposed
147 Bio-Argo arrays (Gray et al., 2018) in improving the simulated pCO₂ of the global oceans.

148

149 Despite the strong recommendations under IndOOS.2 in place, only one of the existing
150 RAMA moorings in the entire array is equipped with sensors for making surface ocean pCO₂
151 measurements (located at 90°E and 15°N) in the central Bay of Bengal popularly known as the
152 Bay of Bengal Ocean Acidification Mooring (BOBOA; Sutton et al. 2016, 2017). BOBOA
153 quality controlled pCO₂ is available from 2013 to the present but with data gaps in 2014-15 and
154 2017-18. It is to be noted that this observation system had been installed considering logistical
155 convenience. However, BOBOA data's benefits in constraining the Bay of Bengal sea-to-air CO₂
156 fluxes as a basin have not been evaluated. Ye et al. (2019) utilized this data to study the high-
157 frequency variability in pCO₂ and the role of Bay of Bengal cyclones in surface ocean carbon
158 fluxes.

159

160 In addition to RAMA mooring, another major Indian Ocean mooring program initiated
161 by the Government of India is the Ocean Moored buoy Network for the Northern Indian Ocean,

162 popularly known as OMNI buoy network (Venkatesan et al., 2013). Under this program, seven
163 moorings are operational in the Bay of Bengal, and another five are operational in the Arabian
164 Sea. They are also potential sites for pCO₂ observations in the north Indian Ocean.

165

166 The Indian Ocean is also home to major global commercial shipping routes. It hosts two
167 major shipping channels: Malacca Strait in the east and Suez Canal in the west. Estimated global
168 energy transportation is about 2.4 million barrels of oil per day, representing 5.5% of world oil
169 transport, taken through these channels (Valsala and Roy, 2014). Tournadre (2014) and Figure 1
170 there show the significant ship-routes in the Indian Ocean as inferred from altimetry data sensed
171 by instruments mounted onboard satellites by NASA. Therefore, the Indian Ocean has the
172 potential to host a SOOP for the underway sampling of pCO₂. In this context, the emerging
173 question is ‘what is the best track to start SOOP in the Indian Ocean? We note here that in
174 IndOOS.2, one of its recommendations includes establishing SOOP-CO₂ measurements in the
175 southern Indian Ocean (IX21) repeat track (Beal et al., 2020), whereas other potential SOOP
176 tracks remain unexplored.

177

178 The present study addresses the gap mentioned in the above areas by answering the
179 following key questions: (a) what are the optimal mooring locations of RAMA and OMNI arrays
180 for making pCO₂ measurements? (b) what is the potential of Bio-Argo floats (including pH
181 sensors) in replacing moored buoy sensors in the future, and (c) what are the potential SOOP
182 ship-tracks in the Indian Ocean for measurements of surface ocean pCO₂? These measurements
183 will lead to a better estimate of sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes for the Indian Ocean. The remaining part of
184 the paper is organized as follows. Section-2 introduces the model and methodology adopted.

185 Section-3 discusses each mooring's ranking in the RAMA and OMNI array to initiate surface
186 ocean pCO₂ measurements and discuss the OSSE done for various ship-tracks to find optimal
187 SOOP tracks in the Indian Ocean. The significant recommendations are made in Section-4.

188

189 **2. Model, Data, and Methodology**

190 **2.1. Physical and Biogeochemical model and Data**

191 The study utilizes the Ocean Tracer Transport Model (OTTM; Valsala et al., 2008) coupled
192 with the Ocean Carbon-cycle Model Intercomparison Project (OCMIP-II) biogeochemistry
193 (Najjar and Orr, 1998) and with a modified biological parameterization for net community
194 compensation depth (Sreeush et al., 2018). More details of physical design, ocean re-analysis
195 data used to run OTTM, the coupled OCMIP-II biogeochemistry modules with modified
196 parameterization, and the model carbon cycle validation are given in Sreeush et al. (2018, 2019)
197 therefore will not be repeated here.

198 **2.2. Methodology**

199 We use the Bayesian inversion method to identify the best locations for making
200 observations of surface ocean pCO₂. In this case, we are minimizing the following cost function
201 constructed with sea-to-air CO₂ flux errors and mismatches in dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC)
202 between model and observations:

$$203 \quad J = (GS_0 - D)^T C_d^{-1} (GS_0 - D) + (S - S_o)^T C_{S_o}^{-1} (S - S_o) \quad (1)$$

204 GS_0 is the model response vector corresponding to the observation, 'D,' taken as DIC in the
205 model. C_{S_o} represents prior sea-to-air flux uncertainty of CO₂. C_d contains a combination of both
206 observational (C_{obs}) and model (C_{mod}) errors. S_0 and S are the prior and posterior sea-air CO₂

207 fluxes, respectively. Here the observed pCO₂ is converted to DIC using abiotic pump routines of
208 OCMIP-II (Najjar and Orr, 1998), and the corresponding errors in the conversions are embedded
209 into C_d (see section 2.2.2). The Bayesian theory states that the above cost function is minimum if
210 the flux vector S_o assumes the optimized form (Tarantola, 2004; Lewis et al., 2006);

211

$$212 \quad S = S_o + (G^T C_d^{-1} G + C_{S_o}^{-1})^{-1} G^T C_d^{-1} (D - G S_o) \quad (2)$$

213

214 Here we note that the DIC, pCO₂, and sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes behave differently in
215 carbonate chemistry routines (Sarmiento and Gruber, 2006). In the model, the prognostic
216 variable is DIC and pCO₂ is diagnostic to that. Therefore, to constrain the model with
217 observations, we opt to convert pCO₂ data into DIC using abiotic routines of OCMIP-II. It is an
218 effective method and has proven capacity in reducing surface ocean pCO₂ biases in variational
219 assimilation (Valsala and Maksyutov, 2010). The errors we expect in this conversion are mainly
220 arising from temperature, salinity, and Alkalinity (ALK). Here we note that the temperature and
221 salinity data are utilized from the re-analysis of ocean data, which have been used to run this
222 model; therefore, the errors are expected to be minimal. The past studies (Sreeush et al., 2018,
223 2019) show that the model has reasonable pCO₂ and sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes across all the biomes
224 considered in this study due to a fine-tuning in the OCMIP-II parameters, which further takes
225 care of the simulated DIC and ALK. Therefore the total error in converting the pCO₂ into DIC is
226 expected to be minimal, and still, we encapsulate an equivalent error of $\pm 2.5 \mu\text{atm}$ expected as
227 an upper bound in the conversion into our observational error matrix as detailed in Section 2.2.2.

228

229 **2.2.1. G-matrix**

230 The G -matrix represents the model response function in terms of DIC to a given
231 perturbation in the S_o vector (i.e., sea-to-air CO_2 fluxes in this case). The Indian Ocean was
232 divided into eight important biomes, as in Sreeush et al. (2019). The area integrated sea-to-air
233 CO_2 fluxes of each of these regions are perturbed each month by a constant value of one Pg C yr^{-1}
234 sink. Here we note that the magnitude of perturbation has little influence on the G -matrix's
235 deduced elements because G -matrix normalizes DIC concentrations to the given flux
236 perturbation of a particular region. The model was simulated from 1996 to 2005 (termed as
237 SENS after this). The perturbations were given only for the month of interest but during all years
238 of the simulation from 1996 to 2005. For eight oceanic regions and for 12 months (from January
239 to December), there were a total of 96 SENS runs. The G -matrix consists of model state variable
240 differences (here we kept as surface ocean DIC) between the control run (CTRL), and SENS
241 runs sampled from the model at mooring locations for the last year of the simulation. Here we
242 note that the period of simulation (1996-2005) is not sensitive in the inversion as it is only used
243 to get the sensitivity of the model to a given perturbation flux in each oceanic region in each
244 month.

245

246 **2.2.2. C_d matrix**

247 This matrix contains the sum of both observational (C_{obs}) and model (C_{mod}) DIC errors at
248 the observation location. In this setup, the observed pCO_2 is assumed as converted to DIC using
249 the solubility pump routines of OCMIP-II. In this conversion, the C_{obs} includes an equivalent
250 RMSE in DIC while converting an 'observational' pCO_2 with a maximum assumed error of ± 2.5
251 μatm . The conversion of pCO_2 to DIC also encapsulates the errors in the dependent variables
252 such as sea surface temperature, ALK, phosphate (PO_4), silicate, and other minor ions. This

253 calculation was done using model outputs spanning from 1960 to 2009, and the RMSE of
254 reconstructed DIC is utilized for C_{obs} .

255

256 **2.2.3. C_{S_o} matrix**

257 This matrix consists of flux variance-covariance of area integrated fluxes between each
258 oceanic region and each month. It has been calculated from the monthly sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes of
259 assimilated data from 1980 to 2009 (Valsala and Maksyutov, 2010). The diagonal elements are
260 the variances of the seasonal cycle of the regional (i.e., R1 to R8) integrated sea-to-air CO₂
261 fluxes, whereas the off-diagonal elements represent the co-variances of the seasonal cycle of
262 fluxes between each oceanic region.

263 The OSSE is based on the assumption that no real observations (D) are required to
264 determine the utility of observation from a particular mooring location, Bio-Argo float, or ship-
265 track in reducing the estimated surface flux uncertainty in the inverse modeling. The first part in
266 the second term of R.H.S. of Equation (2) is the posterior flux uncertainty (C_s) if the
267 observations are available from given locations and for a given prior flux uncertainty of C_{S_o} . It is
268 estimated as:

$$269 \quad C_s = (G^T C_d^{-1} G + C_{S_o}^{-1})^{-1} \quad (3)$$

270 Therefore the percentage uncertainty reduction (UR) in the flux estimation can be quantified as:

$$271 \quad UR = \left[\frac{\text{trace}(C_s) - \text{trace}(C_{S_o})}{\text{trace}(C_{S_o})} \right] \times 100 \quad (4)$$

272 (in %) where 'trace' represents the sum of diagonal elements of the respective matrices.

273

274 **2.2.4. Incremental Optimization**

275 To rank all moorings of RAMA and OMNI array for installation of pCO₂ sensor and
276 evaluate the potential Bio-Argo floats and Indian Ocean ship tracks for SOOP, an incremental
277 optimization method as described in Nalini et al. (2019) is utilized. Suppose there are 'n'
278 moorings in RAMA and OMNI. They all are considered 'candidate set' suitable for installing
279 pCO₂ sensors, further assuming that observations from each of these 'candidate sets' as available,
280 the UR of Indian Ocean sea-to-air CO₂ flux individually contributed by each of these moorings is
281 quantified. The mooring with maximum UR is then moved to a 'base set,' and the candidate set is
282 reduced to 'n - 1'. Further, a second mooring from the 'candidate set' is added to the 'base set,'
283 and the UR due to a combination of two moorings is estimated. The candidate with maximum
284 UR is then permanently moved to the 'base-set' so that 'candidate set' is reduced to 'n - 2' and
285 'base set' is grown to 2. The above process is repeated until all the 'candidate set' got added to the
286 'base set.' The rank of each mooring is the same as the sequence it gets added to the 'base set.'

287

288 In this study total of 43 moorings (31 RAMA moorings and 12 OMNI moorings) are
289 considered. Similarly, one Bio-Argo float per every 10°x10° region in the Indian Ocean is
290 deployed in the model and carried out an incremental optimization for the floats just as done for
291 the RAMA and OMNI buoys. A total of 38 Bio-Argo floats were distributed at equal distances
292 from each other. We have considered data from a particular location (i.e., the center of each
293 10°x10° box) as available via Bio-Argo for all 12 months in a year. Over a month scale, the
294 Argos are not going to drift so much. However, it may drift over a year. Nevertheless, for a
295 uniform deployment of Argo, they may replace the positions so that the frequency of data from a
296 particular locality could be maintained over time to sample the relatively uniform open ocean

297 conditions of the upper ocean carbon cycle. The choice of 38 floats is made as a case study
298 targeting the expansion of Indian Ocean Bio-Argo with pH sensors in the next ten years.
299 Although the recommendation of IndOOS.2 is to achieve 200 Bio-Argo floats in total by 2030
300 (Hood et al., 2020), we assumed roughly 20% of them would have pH sensors in them. We note
301 here that there is no other Bio-Argo in the Indian Ocean with pH sensors (except for recently
302 launched in the south-western Indian Ocean) and therefore anticipating a total of 200 Bio-Argos
303 all with pH sensors in the next ten years is a bit too optimistic. To find the optimal ship-track for
304 SOOP, a set of potential ship-routes of the Indian Ocean is selected based on Tournadre (2014).
305 The UR by each of the ship-tracks is separately calculated (not incrementally), and all tracks are
306 ranked accordingly.

307

308 **3. Results**

309 Figures 1 and 2 show the seasonal mean surface sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes and surface DIC
310 concentrations simulated by the model represented as a mean constructed from the simulation
311 period of 1996-2005 (from CTRL). The essential seasonal features of surface ocean sea-to-air
312 CO₂ fluxes are reproduced well in the model compared to observational estimates of Takahashi
313 et al. (2014). The perennial source of tropical Indian Ocean CO₂ is reproduced in the model well
314 with intense emissions from the western Arabian Sea during boreal summer (Poisson et al., 1993,
315 Sabine et al., 2000, Valsala and Maksyutov, 2013). The seasonal DIC is also comparable with
316 observations from Takahashi et al., (2014).

317

318 **3.1. Bioprovinces used for regional CO₂ flux inversions**

319 Figure 3 shows the eight oceanic bio-provinces identified in Sreeush et al. (2019) based
320 on the homogeneity in the seasonal variances of community compensation depth and the
321 subsequent variability in net primary and export production. The variability in surface ocean
322 pCO₂ can cascade through the ocean's biological and solubility pumps and infer the community
323 compensation depth, which is an integral part of these two pumps. Among these eight regions,
324 R1 to R6 straddles most of the RAMA and OMNI array (Figure 3a). However, there are no
325 moorings to represent R7 and R8 (Figure 3a). It will have implications in the inversion such that
326 the UR for the region R7 and R8 will be minimal and affect the overall UR in the posterior
327 fluxes of the basin. On the other hand, the major ship tracks cover all these oceanic regions
328 (Figure 3b). Figure 4 shows the seasonality of the area integrated sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes of eight
329 oceanic regions used in this study and shown from the assimilated sea-to-air CO₂ flux of Valsala
330 and Maksyutov (2010). A detail of the seasonal evolution of area integrated sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes
331 in Figure 4 is given in Sreeush et al. (2019); therefore will not be repeated here.

332 **3.2. Elements of G-matrix, Model and Observational errors**

333 Figure 5 shows the total response in the surface ocean DIC ($\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$) due to a given
334 perturbation in each oceanic region of Figure 3 as in Section 2.2.1. The figure represents the
335 RMSE of DIC difference between CTRL and SENS runs in the *G*-matrix simulations. This
336 figure is produced using the last year of model-simulated data. The total response is spread
337 widely in the Indian Ocean and reached a distance far away from the individual regions, albeit
338 with much less spread in the case of R7 and R8. R1 has maximum sensitivity close to the
339 northeast coast of the Arabian Sea, where the mixed layer is controlled by coastal currents,
340 entrainment, and convective deepening (Shankar et al., 2016; Singh et al., 2019). R2 has the
341 maximum surface signature in DIC due to weak mixing in the relatively fresh waters of the Bay

342 of Bengal (Valsala et al., 2018). R7 and R8 also have significant signals in the surface ocean,
343 implying weaker mixing in the oligotrophic part of the gyre where the solubility pump dominates
344 the upper ocean's carbon cycle (Valsala et al., 2012). The other regions have moderate sensitivity
345 in the surface ocean DIC. The maxima of RMSE in DIC in Figure 5 could indicate a potential
346 location for observing the surface ocean pCO₂. For instance, the R2 has maximum RMSE close
347 to central BoB, where it tentatively matches with existing BOBOA pCO₂ mooring (Sutton et al.,
348 2017). However, all other such locations may not necessarily correspond to a RAMA or OMNI
349 mooring location. Therefore, an inversion based on Equation 1-4 is apparent for retrieving the
350 optimal number of RAMA and OMNI moorings to capture the maximum DIC signals of Figure
351 5.

352 Figure 6 shows the corresponding RMSE used for the C_{mod} calculations. Ideally, it is the
353 same as Figure 5 except for the perturbations given in each oceanic region. The model error
354 (C_{mod}) is calculated by 'propagating' the CO₂ flux uncertainty of each oceanic region of each
355 month to the mooring locations via simulation from 1996 to 2005. It is the same as we did for the
356 G -matrix, but with perturbations given as standard deviations of C_{So} . The maximum value of
357 C_{mod} is close to $\pm 2 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$.

358

359 Figure 7 shows the C_{obs} seasonal cycle for the selected mooring location from the central
360 Arabian Sea (65°E, 15°N), as an example. The seasonality in error is a function of the ocean's
361 ambient surface state, which are involved in the calculations of abiotic OCMIP-II carbon
362 solubility pump calculation. The error here implies the observational error for each month, which
363 also encapsulates the conversion error from pCO₂ to DIC in the model. Here the conversion of

364 pCO₂ to DIC depends on temperature, ALK, salinity, and other minor ions. The first three are
365 highly seasonal, and the conversion error is also seasonal in this case (Broullón et al., 2019). It is
366 ideal to have a broader error representation in the inversion so that we understand each station's
367 limitation in providing 'insightful' pCO₂, in this case, for constraining surface ocean sea-to-air
368 CO₂ fluxes.

369

370 **3.3. OSSE for RAMA and OMNI moorings**

371 The ranking of each RAMA and OMNI moorings in the total UR of the prior fluxes is
372 calculated separately for four seasons: March-May (MAM), June-September (JJAS), October-
373 November (ON), and December-February (DJF). The seasons are identified following the known
374 characteristics of the Indian monsoon, which has significant control over the Indian Ocean
375 biogeochemistry (Wiggert et al., 2005). Figure 8 shows the seasonal rankings of RAMA and
376 OMNI moorings for surface ocean pCO₂ measurements in the Indian Ocean as obtained from our
377 OSSE. The ranks are indicated as colors with deep blue (red) representing a highly (slightly)
378 impactful mooring location as per this OSSE. Figure 10a shows the percentage of UR achieved
379 by making use of all 43 moorings. The UR reaches saturation within the first 15 moorings. The
380 UR varies with seasons under varying surface ocean dynamics and carbon pump strength in the
381 Indian Ocean (Sreeush et al., 2018). A maximum UR of 30% is obtained during DJF, JJAS, and
382 ON with 15 moorings, while 23% is obtained during MAM. It is noted that the rankings change
383 the positions seasonally. However, a cluster of the first few ranks is relatively consistent among
384 various seasons. This fact encourages us to proceed with pCO₂ sensor installation in these
385 moorings as they are consistent across various seasons. The heterogeneity of rankings among
386 seasons indicates the complicated physical and dynamic biogeochemical nature of the Indian

387 Ocean. We have also found a ranking of all RAMA moorings done with the annual mean
388 response of 'G' matrices (figure not shown). In this case, the maximum UR is 25%, which is very
389 close to the mean of all UR in four seasonal OSSE. The first six ranks' locations are reasonably
390 consistent with those obtained for seasonal OSSE in Figure 8.

391

392 **3.4. OSSE for Bio-Argo floats**

393 Figure 9 shows a similar ranking obtained for the Bio-Argo floats. Bio-Argo floats are
394 distributed equally at a $10^{\circ} \times 10^{\circ}$ resolution in the Indian Ocean; therefore, they are spread widely
395 across various biomes. The total UR by Bio-Argo floats is as large as 50%, with a total number
396 of floats less than 20 (Figure 10b). The regional patterns of ranks obtained with Bio-Argo floats
397 are consistent with those of moorings. However, due to relative changes in the location of Bio-
398 Argo floats considered here compared to the moorings, the ranks are also relatively shifted. A
399 significant consensus is that the equatorial Indian Ocean ranks are relatively weaker in both
400 moorings and Bio-Argo floats in the present OSSE. Considering the relatively smooth operations
401 and implimentaiton of Bio-Argo floats, one may consider that around 20 Bio-Argos are still the
402 right choice over installing mooring based pCO_2 sensors inferred in terms of UR (Figure 10a, b).
403 However, a caveat is that the Bio-Argo floats can detect the pH while mooring can directly
404 measure the pCO_2 . Calculating the surface ocean pCO_2 from float pH has uncertainty
405 contributions from the pH sensor, the alkalinity estimate, and carbonate system equilibrium
406 constants, resulting in a relative standard uncertainty in pCO_2 of 2.7% (or $11 \mu atm$ at pCO_2 of
407 $400 \mu atm$, Williams et al., 2017).

408

409 **3.5. OSSE for Ship tracks**

410 Figure 11a-b shows the ranking of ship tracks for January and July, respectively. Figure 11c-
411 d shows the UR during January and July for ten ship tracks considered in this study. Unlike
412 moorings, the ship-track optimizations are done for individual ship-tracks separately (not the
413 incremental optimization with one ship tracks over the other) with the view that SOOP cannot
414 initiate in multiple tracks as it is not practical. It is assumed that the data collected within a
415 month from each of these tracks represent the entire duration of the month, which is not a caveat
416 because commercial ship takes less than ten days to cross the Indian Ocean in all major tracks
417 used in the analysis. The maximum UR by a single track is somewhat close to 65%. The results
418 are consistent among seasons and shown here for two contrasting months (i.e., January and July).
419 Compared to the mooring, SOOP's advantage is that SOOP covers the entire ocean and
420 contributes significantly to reducing UR from all identified oceanic regions considered in this
421 study. Individually, the first and second ranked ship-tracks reduce the uncertainty closely by
422 62%, and the first four ranked tracks are the same for both January and July. The result shows
423 that SOOP is far more effective at reducing UR in this OSSE (~62%) than utilizing time-series
424 stations (~30%).

425 A consolidated diagram of moorings selected based on the ranks within the Arabian Sea, Bay
426 of Bengal, equatorial Indian Ocean, and south subtropical Indian Ocean for all four seasons is
427 provided as the 'best set' in Figure 12. The inner-circle (outer) circle shows whether the mooring
428 belongs to a rank-range of 1-2 (3-4) as re-ordered for each sub-basin above. Different seasons are
429 indicated in different colors. If the ranks are standard during multiple seasons, the circle shares
430 the colors accordingly.

431 In conclusion, based on OSSE, a total of 24 moorings and four ship-tracks are highly
432 recommended as per this study (Figure 12). Locations important for the moorings are six
433 each in the Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal, while the moorings in the southwest equatorial
434 Indian Ocean (i.e., close to Seychelles -Chagos thermocline ridge region) also rank high for
435 pCO₂ representativeness. Surprisingly, the moorings in the southwest equatorial Indian Ocean
436 ranking high for pCO₂ measurements (i.e., close to the Seychelles-Chagos thermocline ridge
437 region). It could be because the south equatorial current (S.E.C.) passes and diverges at the
438 western continental boundary through this dynamically significant region. 70% of the S.E.C.
439 turns north at the western boundary (Valsala and Ikeda, 2007) and spreads through the north
440 Indian Ocean. The seawater pCO₂ measured from this region may have a higher value in
441 constraining the north Indian Ocean CO₂ fluxes due to the fast-flowing western boundary
442 currents, potentially spreading through considerable distances before equilibrating with
443 atmospheric pCO₂ (Sarmiento and Gruber, 2006).

444 The study also put forward four essential SOOP tracks based on the first two ranks in
445 OSSE (shown as black stars in Figure 12) and also based on busy shipping routes but ranks
446 within the first six in OSSE (shown as cyan stars in Figure 12). The ship traffic analysis shows a
447 global fourfold growth between 1992 and 2012, the largest increase observed in the Indian
448 Ocean and the Chinese seas reflecting the world trade change (Tournadre, 2014). Notably, the
449 track starting from the South African coast also shares the track with the projected repeat track of
450 IX21(until the south Madagascar Islands) as in the IndOOS.2 recommendations (Beal et al.,
451 2020a,b).

452

453 **4. Conclusion**

454 Using Bayesian inversion theory and incremental optimization technique and utilizing a
455 global ocean biogeochemical model, for the first time, we have optimized the locations of
456 RAMA and OMNI moorings, Bio-Argo floats, and commercial ship tracks for making
457 measurements of pCO₂ in the Indian Ocean that would improve the overall knowledge of carbon
458 flux in this basin. The cost function is minimized in such a fashion that the observations of pCO₂
459 from these moorings, floats, or ship tracks are optimal for the maximum reduction in the CO₂
460 flux uncertainty of the Indian Ocean in an ocean inversion framework. The results show that due
461 to the spatio-temporal variability of Indian Ocean physical and biogeochemical dynamics and its
462 strong dependency on seasonality, multiple mooring locations must be equipped with pCO₂
463 sensors to capture its variability throughout the year.

464 Ship-track measurements of underway pCO₂ in SOOP are far more efficient in
465 constraining Indian Ocean CO₂ fluxes than time-series data from fixed moorings. The maximum
466 flux uncertainty reduction achievable by installing pCO₂ sensors in the existing RAMA and
467 OMNI mooring is limited to 30% in different seasons. However, a single track SOOP can reduce
468 the current uncertainty by approximately 62%, albeit with OSSE has been conducted during
469 January and July. SOOP covers a larger area, while mooring represents only selected stationary
470 locations. Given that the equilibration time scale of surface ocean pCO₂ with the atmosphere is
471 few weeks to months, the pCO₂ instruments attached to mooring may not capture the carbon
472 information of far away distances. However, ships can measure all the Indian Ocean regions over
473 a shorter timescale, providing invaluable knowledge. On the other hand, considering the
474 relatively smooth operation and implementation of Bio-Argo floats, one may consider that
475 around 20 Bio-Argos are still the right choice over installing mooring based pCO₂ sensors.

476 However, a caveat is that the Bio-Argo floats can detect the pH while mooring can directly
477 measure the pCO₂. While Bio-Argos can give a profile of pH up to 1000-2000m range in the
478 ocean that is additional merit over SOOP. This study provides first-ever guidelines for initiating
479 future pCO₂ measurements in the Indian Ocean.

480

481

482

483 **5. Acknowledgment**

484 The authors acknowledge the support from the Ministry of Earth Sciences (MoES), Govt. of
485 India, and its various programs operating at IITM. All the model simulations are performed in
486 the HPC facility of MoES. SMG acknowledges the support of the Institute for Basic Science
487 (IBS), Republic of Korea, under IBS-R028-D1

488 **6. Data Availability:**

489 GFDL re-analysis data is taken from <https://www.gfdl.noaa.gov/ocean-data-assimilation/>

490 GLODAP data is taken from <https://www.nodc.noaa.gov/ocads/oceans/GLODAPv2/>

491 WOA-2013 data is taken from <https://www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/woa13/>

492 Takahashi et al., (2009) data is taken from

493 https://www.nodc.noaa.gov/ocads/oceans/LDEO_Underway_Database/

494 Boundary layer wind data for sea-to-air flux is taken from

495 <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis2.html>

496 The model outputs used in this analysis are available at

497 <https://zenodo.org/record/3833776#.XsO330QzbIU> .

498

499

500 **7. References**

501

502 Bakker, D. C. E., Pfeil, B., Landa, C. S., et al. (2016), A multi-decade record of high quality
503 $f\text{CO}_2$ data in version 3 of the Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas (SOCAT), *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 8, 383–
504 413, <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-8-383-2016>.

505

506 Bakker, Dorothee C. E.; et al., (2020). Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas Database Version 2020
507 (SOCATv2020) (NCEI Accession 0210711). [indicate subset used]. NOAA National Centers for
508 Environmental Information. Dataset. <https://doi.org/10.25921/4xkx-ss49>. Accessed [date].

509

510 Ballabrera-Poy, J., E. Hackert, R. Murtugudde, and A.J. Busalacchi, 2007: An Observing System
511 Simulation Experiment for an Optimal Moored Instrument Array in the Tropical Indian Ocean.
512 *Journal of Climate*, **20**, 3284–3299, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI4149.1>

513

514 Bates, N. R., A. C. Pequignet, and C. L. Sabine, 2006. Ocean carbon cycling in the Indian
515 Ocean: 1. Spatiotemporal variability of inorganic carbon and sea-to-air CO₂ gas exchange,
516 *Global Biogeochem. Cycles*, 20, GB3020, doi:10.1029/2005GB002491.

517

518 Beal, L. M., Vialard, J., Roxy, M. K. and lead authors 2019: Executive Summary. IndOOS-2: A
519 roadmap to sustained observations of the Indian Ocean for 2020-2030. CLIVAR-4/2019, GOOS-
520 237, 8 pp. doi: <https://doi.org/10.36071/clivar.rp.4-1.2019>

521

522 Beal, L., M., J. Vialard, M. K. Roxy, 2020a. IndOOS-2: A Consolidated and Enhanced Indian
523 Ocean Observing System for the Next Decade In "The Recent Decadal Review (2020-2030) of
524 the Indian Ocean Observing System (IndOOS-2) and its Outcomes". (Yu L., Ed), Clivar
525 Exchanges, N° 78, Feb 2020, DOI: 10.36071/clivar.78.2020

526 Beal, et, al., A roadmap to IndOOS-2: Better observations of the rapidly-warming Indian
527 Ocean, *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.* (2020b), <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-19-0209.1>

528

529 Broullón, D., Pérez, F. F., Velo, A., Hoppema, M., Olsen, A., Takahashi, T., Key, R. M.,
530 Tanhua, T., González-Dávila, M., Jeansson, E., Kozyr, A., and van Heuven, S. M. A. C., (2019),
531 A global monthly climatology of total alkalinity: a neural network approach, *Earth Syst. Sci.*
532 *Data*, 11, 1109-1127, <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-11-1109-2019>.

533

534 Ford, D.: Assimilating synthetic Biogeochemical-Argo and ocean colour observations into a
535 global ocean model to inform observing system design (2021), *Biogeosciences*, 18, 509–534,
536 <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-18-509-2021>

537

538 Friedlingstein, P., Jones, M. W., O'Sullivan, et al.,(2019), Global Carbon Budget 2019, *Earth*
539 *Syst. Sci. Data*, 11, 1783–1838, <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-11-1783-2019>, 2019.

540

541 Gray, A., K.S. Johnson, S.M Bushinsky, S.C. Riser, J.L. Russell, L.D. Talley, R. Wanninkhof,
542 N.L. Williams, and J.L. Sarmiento. (2018), Autonomous biogeochemical floats detect significant
543 carbon dioxide outgassing in the high-latitude Southern Ocean, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 45.
544 10.1029/2018GL078013

545
546
547
548
549
550
551
552
553
554
555
556
557
558
559
560
561
562
563
564
565
566
567
568
569
570
571
572
573
574
575
576
577
578
579
580
581
582
583
584
585
586
587
588
589
590

Gruber, N., D. Clement, B. R. Carter, R.A. Feely, S. Van Heuven, M. Hoppema, M. Ishii, R. M. Key, A. Kozyr, S. K. Lauvset, C. Lo Monaco, J. T. Mathis, A. Murata, A. Olsen, F. F. Perez, C. L. Sabine, T. Tanhua, R. Wanninkhof (2019), The oceanic sink for anthropogenic CO₂ from 1994 to 2007, *Science*, Vol. 363, Issue 6432, pp. 1193-1199, DOI: 10.1126/science.aau5153.

Hood, R. R., P. G. Strutton, and J. D. Wiggert, 2020. Physical and Biogeochemical Processes and Interactions in the Indian Ocean. In "The Recent Decadal Review (2020-2030) of the Indian Ocean Observing System (IndOOS-2) and its Outcomes". (Yu L., Ed), *Clivar Exchanges*, N° 78, Feb 2020, DOI: 10.36071/clivar.78.2020

Jacobson, A. R., Fletcher, S. E. M., Gruber, N., Sarmiento, J. L., and Gloor, M. (2007), A joint atmosphere-ocean inversion for surface fluxes of carbon dioxide: 1. Methods and global scale fluxes. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 21, GB1019, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005GB002556>

Khatiwala, S., Tanhua, T., Mikaloff Fletcher, S., Gerber, M., Doney, S. C., Graven, H. D., ... Sabine, C. L. (2013), Global ocean storage of anthropogenic carbon. *Biogeosciences*, 10, 2169-2191, <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-10-2169-2013>.

Landschützer, P., Gruber, N., & Bakker, D. C. E. (2016). Decadal variations and trends of the global ocean carbon sink. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 30(10), 1396–1417. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015GB005359>

Le Quéré, C., Andrew, R. M., Friedlingstein, P., et al., (2018), Global Carbon Budget 2018, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 10, 2141–2194, <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-10-2141-2018>

Lévy, M., Shankar, D., André, J. M., Shenoi, S. S. C., Durand, F., & de Boyer Montégut, C. (2007). Basin-wide seasonal evolution of the Indian Ocean's phytoplankton blooms. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 112(12). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2007JC004090>.

Lewis, J. M., S. Lakshmivarahan., and S. K. Dhall (2006), *Dynamic Data assimilation: a least squares approach*, Cambridge University Press, ISBN9780521851558.

Majkut J. D, Carter BR, Frölicher TL, Dufour CO, Rodgers KB, Sarmiento JL. (2014) An observing system simulation for Southern Ocean carbon dioxide uptake. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. A* 372: 20130046. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rsta.2013.0046>

McCreary, J., Murtugude, R., Vialard, J., Vinayachandran, P., Wiggert, J. D., Hood, R. R., Shankar, D., Shetye, S., (2009), Biophysical processes in the Indian Ocean, *Indian Ocean Biogeochemical Processes and Ecological Variability.*, 9 – 32, Online ISBN:9781118666364, doi: 10.1029/GM185.

McPhaden, M.J., G. Meyers, K. Ando, Y. Masumoto, V.S. Murty, M. Ravichandran, F. Syamsudin, J. Vialard, L. Yu, and W. Yu, (2009), RAMA: The Research Moored Array for African–Asian–Australian Monsoon Analysis and Prediction, *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 90(4), 459 – 480, <https://doi.org/10.1175/2008BAMS2608.1>

591
592 Mukherjee, C., Kasibhatla, P. S., & West, M. (2011). Bayesian statistical modeling of spatially
593 correlated error structure in atmospheric tracer inverse analysis. *Atmospheric Chemistry and*
594 *Physics*, 11(11), 5365–5382. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-11-5365-2011>
595
596 Murtugudde, R., Seager, R., & Thoppil, P. (2007). Arabian Sea response to monsoon variations.
597 *Paleoceanography*, 22(4), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2007PA001467>
598
599 Najjar, R. G., & Orr, J. C. (1998). Design of OCMIP-2 simulations of chlorofluorocarbons, the
600 solubility pump and common biogeochemistry. *Internal OCMIP Report*, 25. Retrieved from
601 <http://ocmip5.ipsl.fr/documentation/OCMIP/phase2/simulations/design.ps>
602
603 Nalini, K., Sijikumar, S., Valsala, V., Tiwari, Y. K., Ramachandran, R (2019), Designing surface
604 CO₂ monitoring network to constrain the Indian Land fluxes, *Atmospheric Environment*, 218,
605 117003, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2019.117003>
606
607 Oke, P.R. and A. Schiller, 2007: A Model-Based Assessment and Design of a Tropical Indian
608 Ocean Mooring Array, *Journal of Climate*, 20, 3269–3283, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI4170.1>
609
610 Olsen, A., Lange, N., Key, R. M., Tanhua, T., Bittig, H. C., Kozyr, A., Álvarez, M., Azetsu-
611 Scott, K., Becker, S., Brown, P. J., Carter, B. R., Cotrim da Cunha, L., Feely, R. A., van Heuven,
612 S., Hoppema, M., Ishii, M., Jeansson, E., Jutterström, S., Landa, C. S., Lauvset, S. K., Michaelis,
613 P., Murata, A., Pérez, F. F., Pfeil, B., Schirnick, C., Steinfeldt, R., Suzuki, T., Tilbrook, B., Velo,
614 A., Wanninkhof, R., and Woosley, R. J.,: (2020), An updated version of the global interior ocean
615 biogeochemical data product, GLODAPv2.2020, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 12, 3653-3678,
616 <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-12-3653-2020>, 2020.
617
618 Pfeil, B., et al, 2013. A uniform, quality controlled Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas (SOCAT), *Earth*
619 *Syst. Sci. Data*, 5, 125-143, doi:10.5194/essd-5-125-2013, 2013.
620
621 Pierrot, D., C. Neill, K. Sullivan, R. Castle, R. Wanninkhof, H. Luger, T. Johannessen, A. Olsen,
622 R. A. Feely, C. E. Cosca, (2009), Recommendations for autonomous underway pCO₂ measuring
623 systems and data-reduction routines, *Deep Sea Research, pt II*, 56, 512 – 522,
624 doi:10.1016/j.dsr2.2008.12.005.
625
626 Poisson, A., et al., (1993). Variability of sources and sinks of CO₂ in the western Indian and
627 southern oceans during the year 1991, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 98(C12), 22759- 22778,
628 doi:10.1029/93JC02501.
629
630 Prasanna Kumar, S., Nuncio, M., Ramaiah, N., Sardesai, S., Narvekar, J., Fernandes, V., & Paul,
631 J. T. (2007). Eddy-mediated biological productivity in the Bay of Bengal during fall and spring
632 intermonsoons. *Deep-Sea Research Part I: Oceanographic Research Papers*.
633 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr.2007.06.002>
634
635 Prassana Kumar. S, Ramaiah. N, Gauns. M., Sarma V. V. S. S., Muraleedharan. P. M.,
636 RaghuKumar. S., Dileep Kumar., Madhupratap. M., (2001), Physical forcing of biological

637 productivity in the Northern Arabian Sea during the Northeast Monsoon, *Deep Sea Res. Pt. II.*,
638 48, 1115-1126, doi:10.1016/S0967-0645(00)00133-8.
639

640 Rödenbeck, C., Bakker, D. C. E., Gruber, N., Iida, Y., Jacobson, A.R., Jones, S., Landschützer,
641 P., Metzl, N., Nakaoka, S., Olsen, A., Park, G.-H., Peylin, P., Rodgers, K. B., Sasse, T. P.,
642 Schuster, U., Shutler, J. D., Valsala, V., Wanninkhof, R., Zeng, J., (2015), Data-based estimates
643 of the ocean carbon sink variability - First results of the Surface Ocean pCO₂ Mapping
644 intercomparison (SOCOM). *Biogeosciences* 12: 7251-7278. doi:10.5194/bg-12-7251-2015
645

646 Sabine, C. L., Feely, R. A., Gruber, N., Key, R. M., Lee, K., Bullister, J. L., R. Wanninkhof, C.S.
647 Wong., D. W. R. Wallace, B. Tilbrook, Frank J. Millero, T. Peng., A. Kozyr, T. Ono., A. F. Rios
648 (2004), The oceanic sink for anthropogenic CO₂, *Science*, 305, 367 – 371,
649 doi:10.1126/science.1097403.
650

651 Sabine, C. L., R. Wanninkhof, R. M. Key, C. Goyet, and F. J. Millero, (2000), Seasonal CO₂
652 fluxes in the tropical and subtropical Indian Ocean, *Mar. Chem.*, 72, 33-
653 53. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-4203\(00\)00064-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-4203(00)00064-5).
654

655 Sakov, P. and P.R. Oke, 2008: Objective Array Design: Application to the Tropical Indian
656 Ocean. *J. Atmos. Oceanic Technol.*, **25**,794–807, <https://doi.org/10.1175/2007JTECHO553.1>
657

658 Sarma, V. V. S. S. (2002). An evaluation of physical and biogeochemical processes regulating
659 perennial suboxic conditions in the water column of the Arabian Sea. *Global Biogeochemical*
660 *Cycles*, 16(4), 29-1-29–11. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2001gb001461>
661

662 Sarma, V. V. S. S., Lenton, A., Law, R. M., Metzl, N., Patra, P. K., Doney, S., Lima, I. D.,
663 Dlugokencky, E., Ramonet, M., and Valsala, V. (2013), Sea–air CO₂ fluxes in the Indian Ocean
664 between 1990 and 2009, *Biogeosciences*, 10, 7035-7052, [https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-10-7035-](https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-10-7035-2013)
665 2013.
666

667 Sarmiento, J. L., and Gruber, N. (2006), *Ocean Biogeochemical Dynamics*, Princeton University
668 Press, New Jersey.
669

670 Schott, F. A., & McCreary, J. P. (2001), The monsoon circulation of the Indian Ocean. *Progress*
671 *in Oceanography*, 51, 1-123, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0079-6611\(01\)00083-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0079-6611(01)00083-0).
672

673 Shankar, D., Remya, R., Vinayachandran, P.N., Chatterjee, A and Behera, A.,(2016). Inhibition
674 of mixed-layer deepening during winter in the northeastern Arabian Sea by the West India
675 Coastal Current. *ClimDyn* **47**, 1049–1072 (2016). [https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-471 015-2888-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-015-2888-3)
676 3.
677

678 Singh, S., V. Valsala, A. G. Prajeesh, S. Balasubramanian, (2019). On the variability of Arabian
679 Sea mixing and its energetics. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*,124.
680 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2019JC015334>
681

682 Sreeush, M. G., Valsala, V., Halder, S., Pentakota, S., Prasad, K. V. S. R., Naidu, C. V., and
683 Murtugudde, R., (2019), Biological production in the Indian Ocean upwelling zones: Part – II:
684 Data based estimates of variable compensation depth for ocean carbon models via cyclo-
685 stationary Bayesian inversion, *Deep Sea Res., Pt II*, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2019.07.007>.
686

687 Sreeush, M. G., Valsala, V., Pentakota, S., Prasad, K. V. S. R., & Murtugudde, R. (2018).
688 Biological production in the Indian Ocean upwelling zones - Part 1: Refined estimation via the
689 use of a variable compensation depth in ocean carbon models. *Biogeosciences*, *15*(7), 1895–1918.
690 <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-15-1895-2018>
691

692 Steinkamp, K., and Gruber, N. (2013), A joint atmosphere-ocean inversion for the estimation of
693 seasonal carbon sources and sinks, *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, *27*(3), 732– 745,
694 <https://doi.org/10.1002/gbc.20064>.
695

696 Steinkamp, K., and Gruber, N. (2015). Decadal trends of ocean and land carbon fluxes from a
697 regional joint ocean-atmosphere inversion, *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, *29*(12), 2108–2126,
698 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GB004907>.
699

700 Sutton, Adrienne J.; Sabine, Christopher L.; Dietrich, Colin; Maenner Jones, Stacy; Musielewicz,
701 Sylvia; Bott, Randy; Osborne, John (2017). High-resolution ocean and atmosphere pCO₂ time-
702 series measurements from mooring Mooring BOBOA_90E_15N (NCEI Accession 0162473).
703 [indicate subset used]. NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information.
704 Dataset. <https://doi.org/10.7289/v5h70d1k>.
705

706 Sutton, A. J., Sabine, C. L., Feely, R. A., Cai, W. J., Cronin, M. F., McPhaden, M. J., et al.
707 (2016). Using present-day observations to detect when anthropogenic change forces surface
708 ocean carbonate chemistry outside preindustrial bounds. *Biogeosciences*, *13*(17), 5065–5083.
709 <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-13-5065-2016>
710

711 Takahashi, T., Sutherland, S. C., Wanninkhof, R., Sweeney, C., Feely, R. A. and co-authors,
712 (2009), Climatological mean and decadal changes in surface ocean pCO₂ and net sea-air CO₂
713 flux over the global oceans, *Deep Sea Research part II*, *56*, 554–577,
714 [doi:10.1016/j.dsr2.2008.12.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2008.12.009).
715

716 Takahashi, T., S.C. Sutherland, D.W. Chipman, J.G. Goddard, Cheng Ho, T. Newberger, C.
717 Sweeney, D.R. Munro, (2014). Climatological Distributions of pH, pCO₂, Total CO₂,
718 Alkalinity, and CaCO₃ Saturation in the Global Surface Ocean, and Temporal Changes at
719 Selected Locations. *Marine Chemistry*. doi: 10.1016/j.jmarchem.2014.06.004.
720

721 Takeshita, Y., Johnson, K. S., Martz, T. R., Plant, J. N., & Sarmiento, J. L. (2018). Assessment
722 of autonomous pH measurements for determining surface seawater partial pressure of CO₂
723 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, *123*, 4003–4013.
724 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2017JC013387>
725

726 Tarantola, A. (2004), Inverse Problem 498 Theory and Methods for Model Parameter
727 Estimation. *Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics*, ISBN: 978-0-89871-572-9,
728 <https://doi.org/10.1137/1.9780898717921>.
729

730 Tournadre, J (2014), Anthropogenic pressure on the open ocean: The growth of ship traffic
731 revealed by altimeter data analysis, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 41, 7924 – 7932,
732 doi:10.1002/2014GL061786.
733

734 Valsala V. and M. Ikeda, (2007), Pathways and effects of the Indonesian Throughflow water in
735 the Indian Ocean using Particle trajectory and Tracers in an OGCM. *J. Climate*,, 20, 2994-3017.
736

737 Valsala, K. V., Maksyutov, S., Ikeda, M., (2008), Design and Validation of an offline oceanic
738 tracer transport model for a carbon cycle study, *Journal of Climate*, 21, 2752 – 2769, doi:
739 10.1175/2007JCLI2018.1.
740

741 Valsala, V., and Maksyutov, S. (2010), Simulation and assimilation of global ocean pCO₂ and
742 sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes using ship observations of surface ocean pCO₂ in a simplified
743 biogeochemical offline model. *Tellus, Series B: Chemical and Physical Meteorology*, 62: 821-
744 840, <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0889.2010.00495.x>
745

746 Valsala, V., S. Maksyutov, and R. Murtugudde (2012), A window for carbon uptake in the
747 southern subtropical Indian Ocean, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 39, L17605,
748 doi:10.1029/2012GL052857.
749

750 Valsala, V., and, S. Maksyutov, (2013), Interannual variability of the air–sea CO₂ flux in the
751 north Indian Ocean, *Ocean Dynamics*, DOI:10.1007/s10236-012-0588-7, 1-14
752

753 Valsala V. and C. Roy (2014), The Suez Canal, *Quarterly Newsletter of Ocean Society of India*,
754 Pune Chapter, 1(2), ISSN 2394 – 1928.
755

756 Valsala, V., Singh, S., & Balasubramanian, S. (2018), A modeling study of interannual variability
757 of Bay of Bengal mixing and barrier layer formation, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*,
758 123, 3962–3981, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2017JC013637>
759

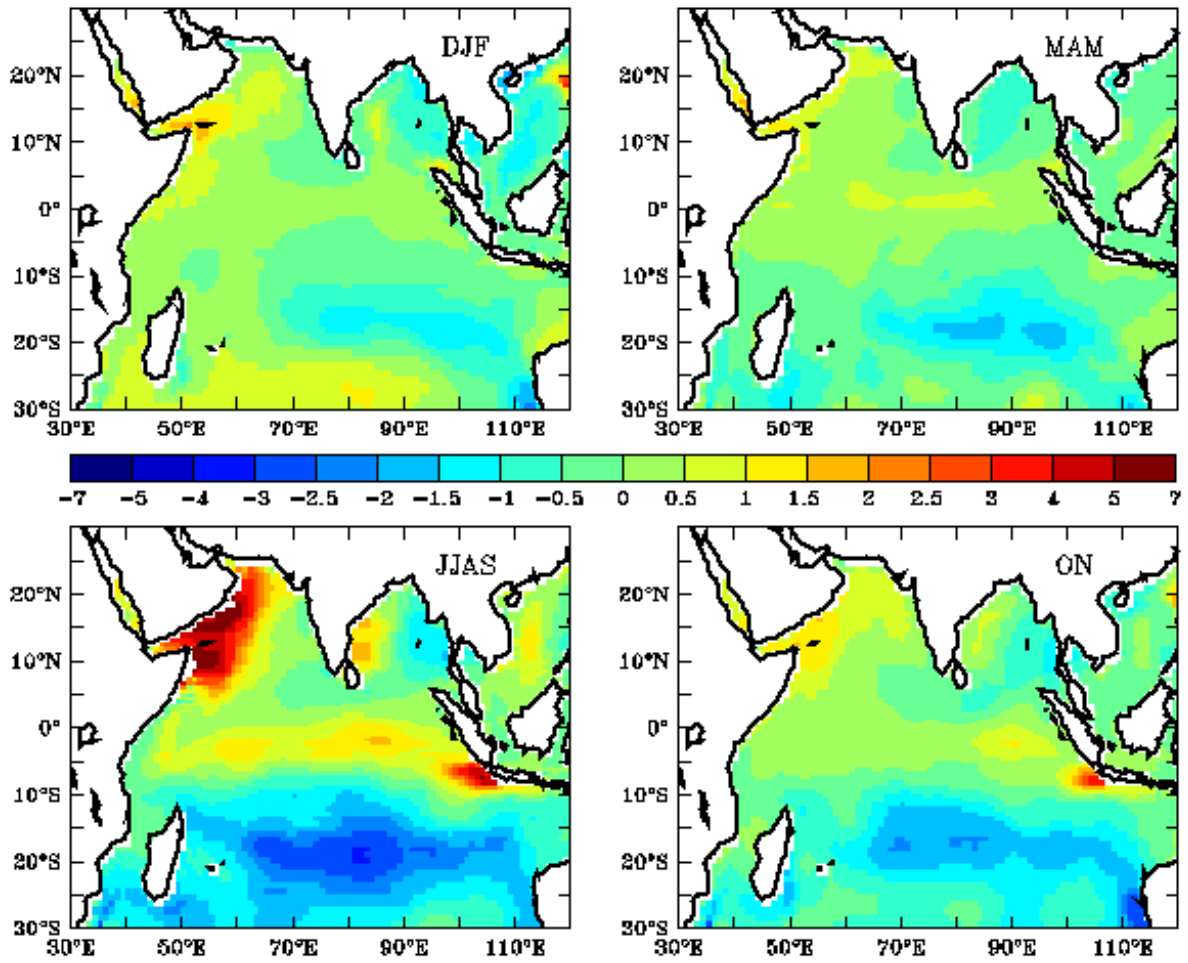
760 Valsala, V., M. G. Sreesh, and K. Chakraborty, (2020), IOD impacts on Indian the Ocean
761 Carbon Cycle, *Journal of Geophysical Research*, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020JC016485>
762

763 Vecchi, G.A. and M.J. Harrison (2007), An Observing System Simulation Experiment for the
764 Indian Ocean. *Journal of Climate*, 20, 3300–3319, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI4147.1>
765

766 Venkatesan, R., V. R. Shamji, G. Latha, S. Mathew, R. R. Rao, A. Muthiah and
767 M. A. Atmanand (2013), In situ ocean subsurface time-series measurements from OMNI buoy
768 network in the Bay of Bengal, *Current Science*, Vol. 104, NO. 9, 10 MAY 2013
769

770 Wanninkhof, R., P. Pickers, A. Omar, A. J. Sutton, A. Murata, A. Olsen, B. Stephens, B.
771 Tilbrook, D. Munro, D. Pierrot, G. Rehder, J. M. Santana-Casiano, J. Müller, J. A. Trinanes, K.

772 A. Tedesco, K. M. O'Brien, K. Currie, L. Barbero, M. Telszewski, M. Hoppema, M. Ishii, M.
773 González-Dávila, N. R. Bates, N. Metzl, P. Suntharalingam, R. A. Feely, S. Nakaoka, S. K.
774 Lauvset, T. Takahashi, T. Steinhoff, U. Schuster, 2019. A surface ocean CO₂ reference network,
775 SOCONET and associated marine boundary layer CO₂ measurements. *Frontiers in Marine*
776 *Science*, 6, 400, DOI:10.3389/fmars.2019.00400
777
778 Wiggert, J. D., Hood, R. R., Banse, K., Kindle, J. C., (2005), Monsoon-driven biogeochemical
779 processes in the Arabian Sea, *Progress in Oceanography*, 65, 176-213,
780 doi:10.1016/j.pocean.2005.03.008.
781
782 Wiggert, J. D., Murtugudde, R. G., Christian J. R., (2006), Annual ecosystem variability in the
783 tropical Indian Ocean: results of a coupled bio-physical ocean general circulation model, *Deep*
784 *Sea Research. Part. II*, 53, 644-676, doi:10.1016/j.dsr2.2006.01.027.
785 Zeng, J., Y. Nojiri, P. Landschützer, M. Telszewski, and S. Nakaoka, (2014), A Global Surface
786 Ocean fCO₂ Climatology Based on a Feed-Forward Neural Network. *J. Atmos. Oceanic*
787 *Technol.*, **31**, 1838–1849, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JTECH-D-13-00137.1>
788
789 Williams, N. L., L. W. Juranek R. A. Feely K. S. Johnson J. L. Sarmiento L. D. Talley A. G.
790 Dickson A. R. Gray R. Wanninkhof J. L. Russell S. C. Riser Y. Takeshita, (2017), Calculating
791 surface ocean pCO₂ from biogeochemical Argo floats equipped with pH: An uncertainty
792 analysis, *Global Biogeochem. Cycles*, 31, 591– 604, doi:10.1002/2016GB005541.
793
794 Ye, H., Sheng, J., Tang, D., Morozov, E., Kalhor, M. A., Wang, S., & Xu, H. (2019).
795 Examining the impact of tropical cyclones on sea-to-air CO₂ exchanges in the Bay of Bengal
796 based on satellite data and in situ observations. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 124,
797 555-576. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018JC014533>



798

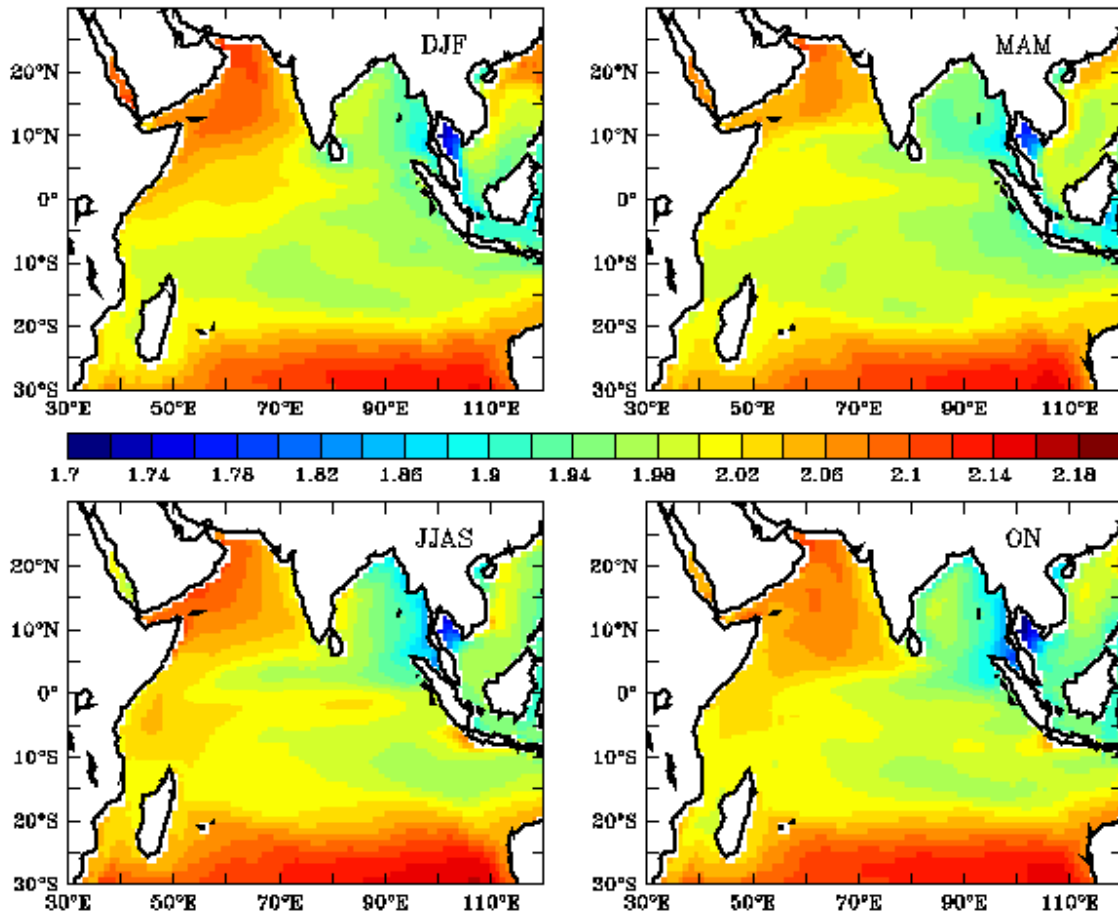
799 **Figure 1:** Seasonal mean sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes from the model shown as mole m⁻² yr⁻¹.

800

801

802

803

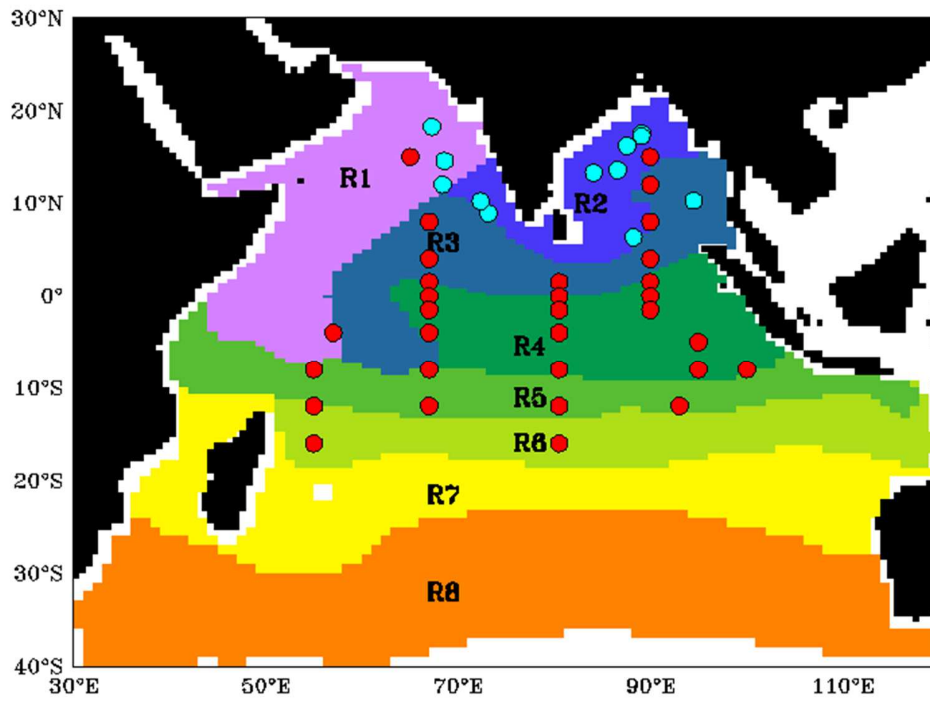


804

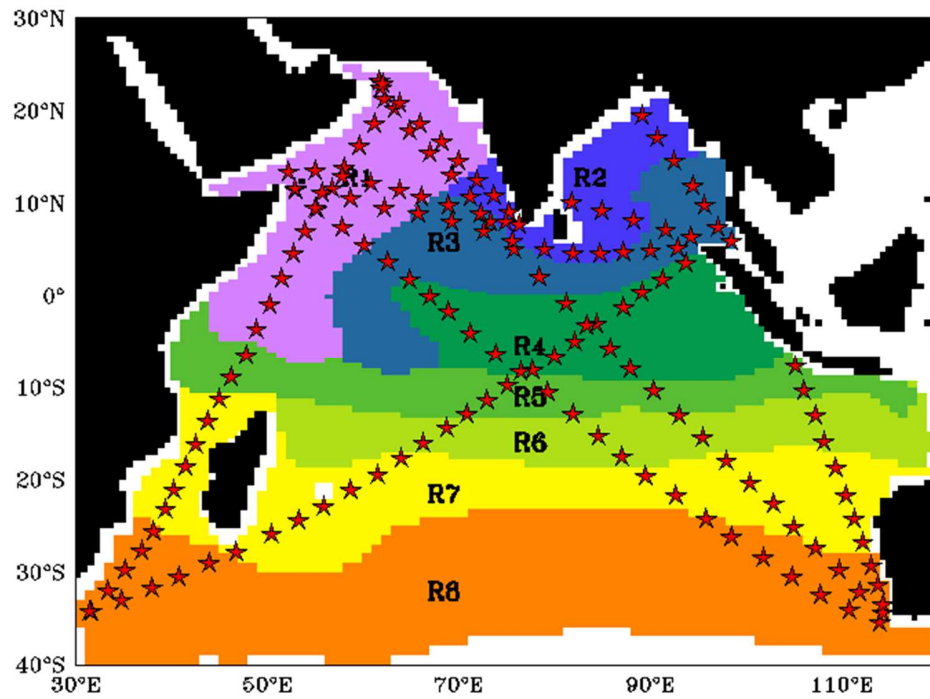
805

806 **Figure 2:** Seasonal mean surface ocean dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) from the model shown

807 as mole m⁻³

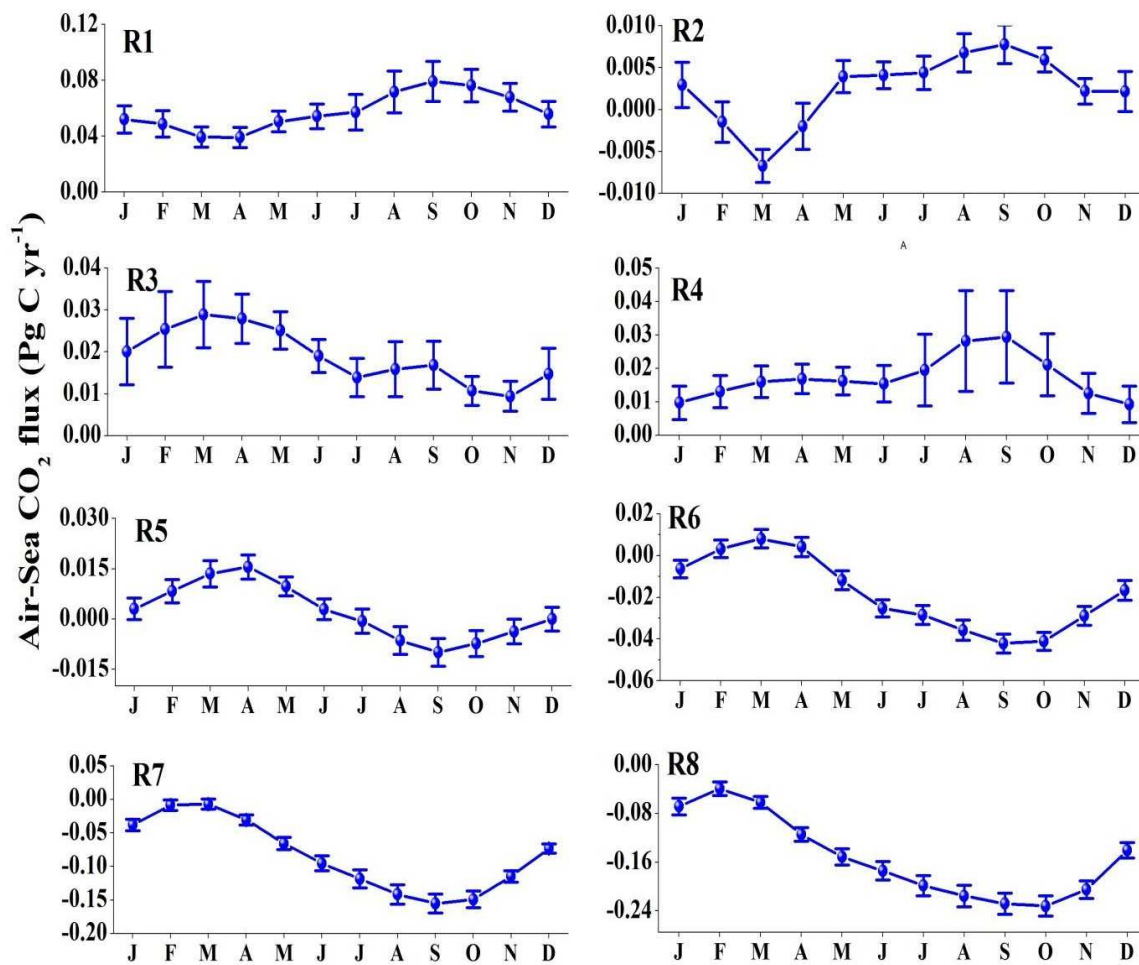


808



809

810 **Figure 3:** Eight oceanic bio-provinces (R1-R8) are denoted with different colors, as in Sreesh
 811 et al. (2019) overlaid with (a) RAMA (red) + OMNI (cyan) mooring locations (b) selected
 812 potential SOOP tracks based on satellite data of Tournadre (2014).
 813



814

815

816 **Figure 4.** The seasonal cycle of area integrated sea-to-air CO₂ flux over eight bio-provinces
 817 calculated from the assimilated sea-to-air CO₂ flux of Valsala and Maksyutov, (2010). The
 818 standard deviations are calculated from the interannual variability of each month of CO₂ flux
 819 from 1980 to 2004. Units are in Pg C yr⁻¹.

820

821

822

823

824

825

826

827

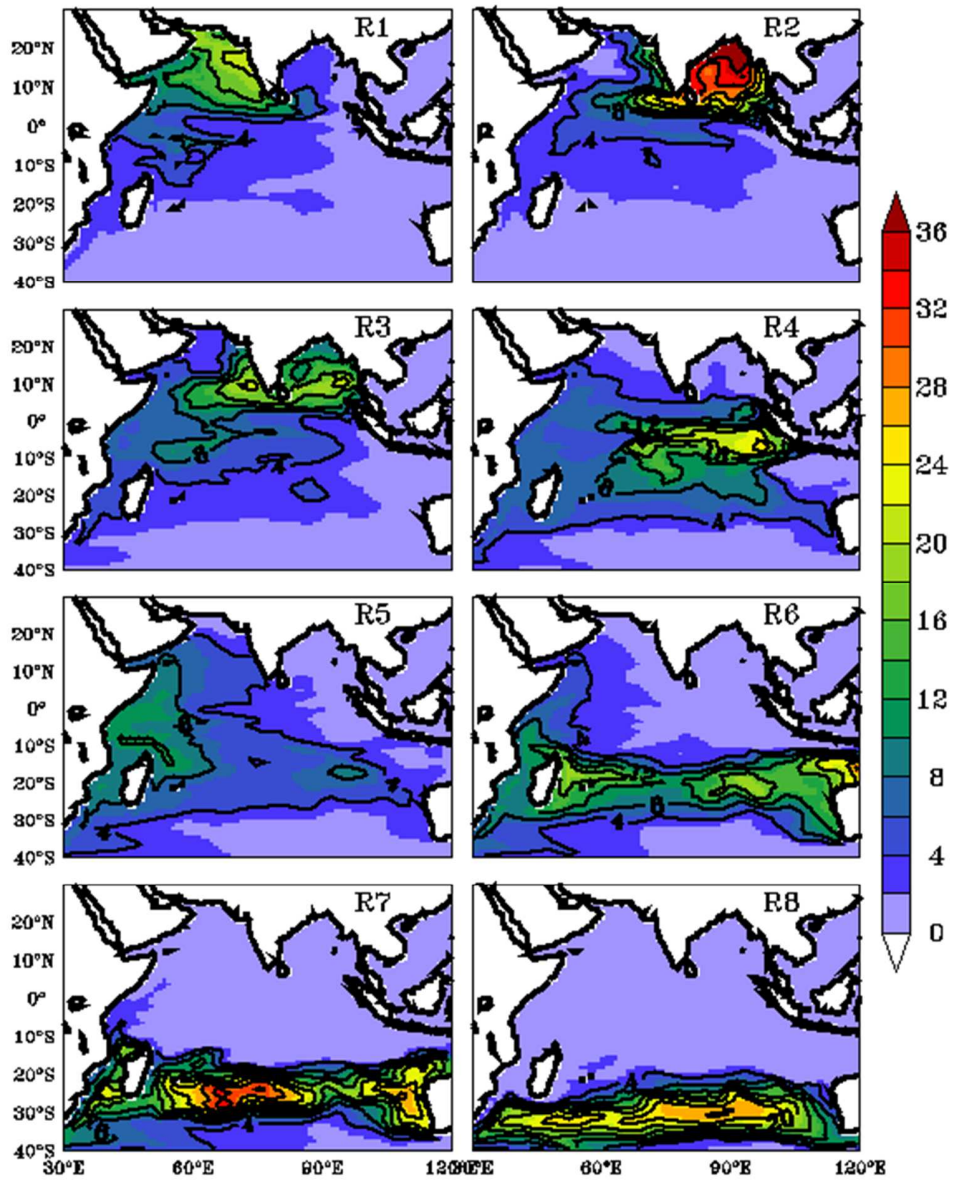
828

829

830

831

832



833

834 **Figure 5.** RMSE of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) for a given perturbation of 1 Pg C sink
 835 over each bio-provinces injected for all months and produced for the last year of the model
 836 output. Units are in $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$.

837

838

839

840

841

842
843
844
845
846
847
848
849
850
851
852
853
854
855
856
857
858
859
860
861
862
863
864
865
866
867
868

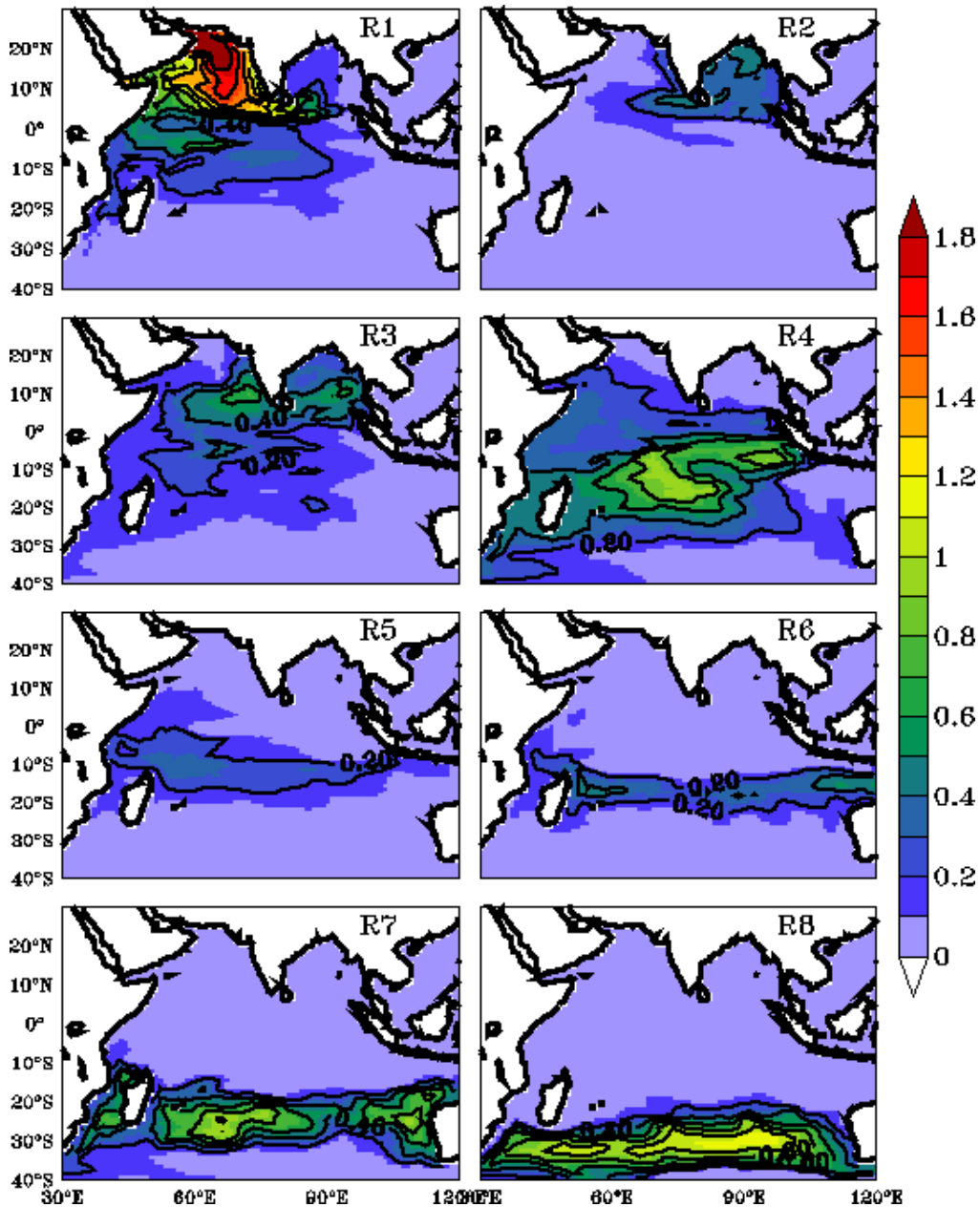
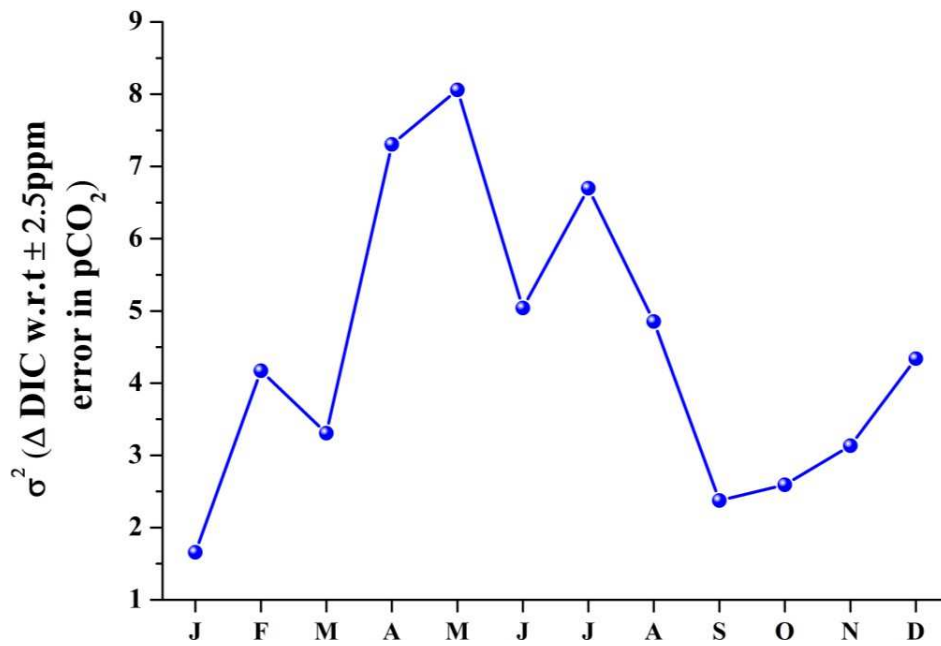


Figure 6. RMSE of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) for the given error perturbations in the fluxes over each bio-provinces (see text for details). The values at mooring locations are used to construct the observational error variances in the inversion. Error perturbation is given as the standard deviation of CO₂ flux for each bio-provinces for each month. Units are in $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$.

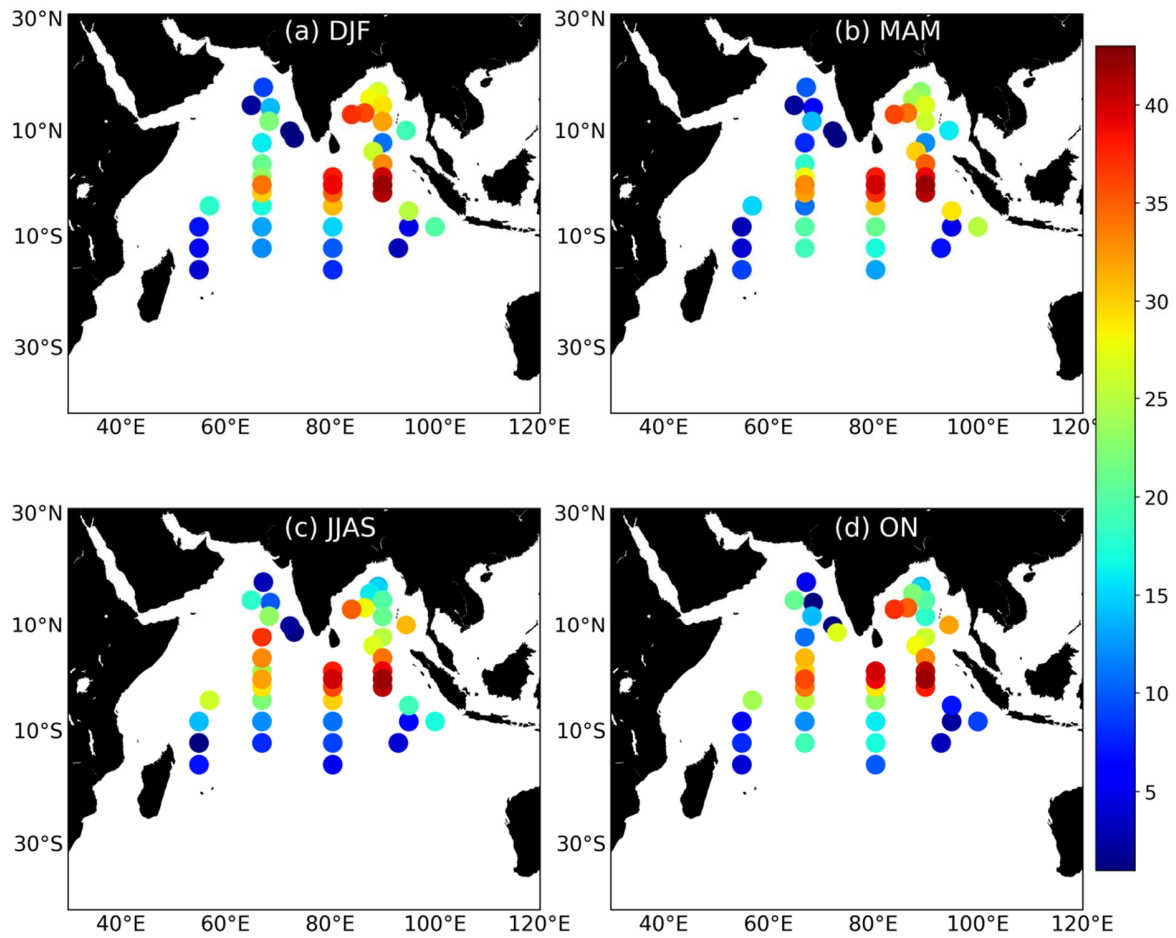


869

870

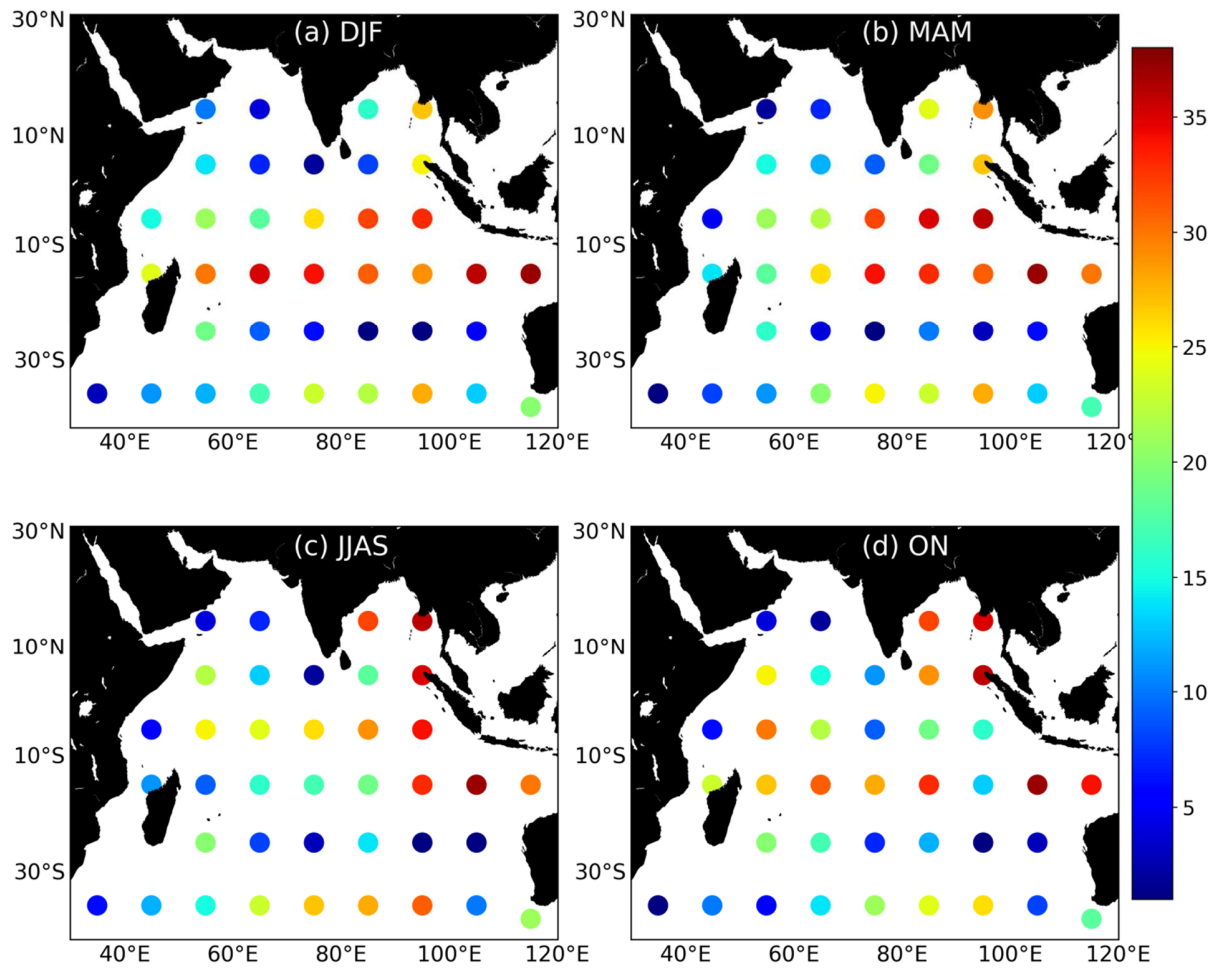
871 **Figure 7.** The seasonal cycle of observational error variances implied in the inversion at a
 872 mooring location at the central Arabian Sea (65°E, 15°N) is shown as an example. Units are in
 873 ($\mu\text{mole kg}^{-1}$)².

874



875
 876
 877
 878
 879

Figure 8. (a-d) Rank of RAMA+OMNI moorings identified for each season for surface ocean pCO₂ observation with deep blue (red) represents best (least) valued mooring for pCO₂ observations from this OSSE experiment.



880

881

882 **Figure 9:** Same as Figure 8 but for Bio-Argos deployed at regular 10°x10° intervals.

883

884

885

886

887

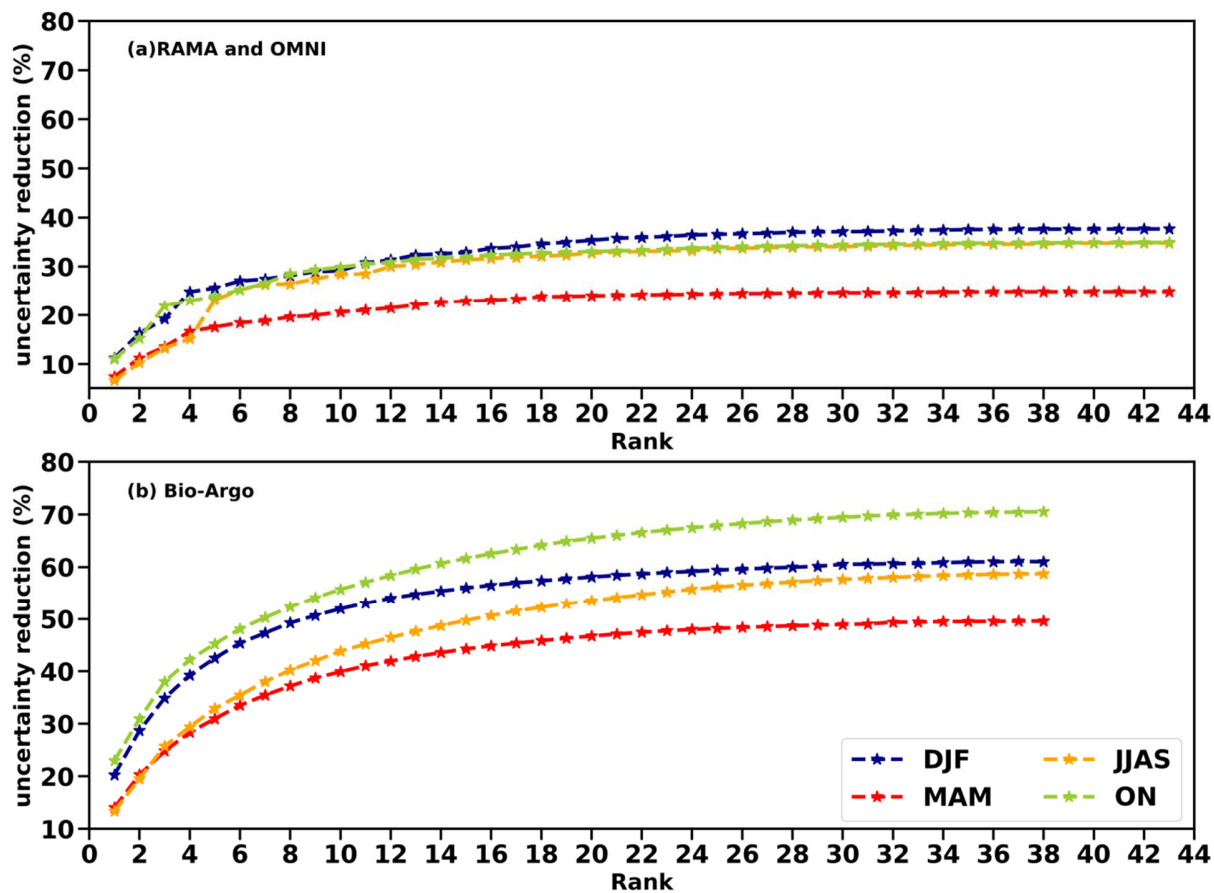
888

889

890

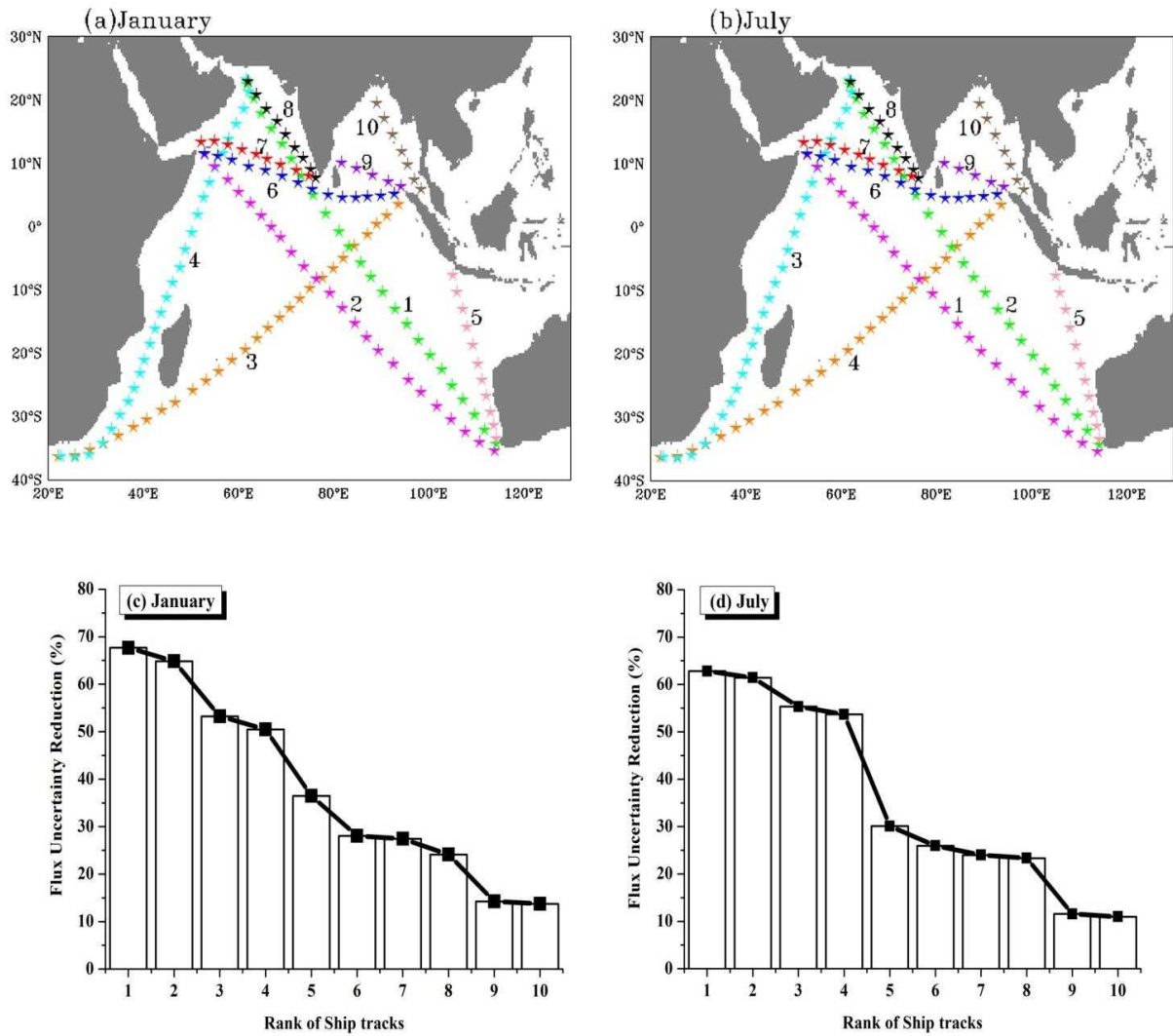
891

892



893
 894
 895
 896
 897

Figure 10: The percentage uncertainty reduction (UR) of (a) RAMA+OMNI moorings and (b) Bio-Argos.



898

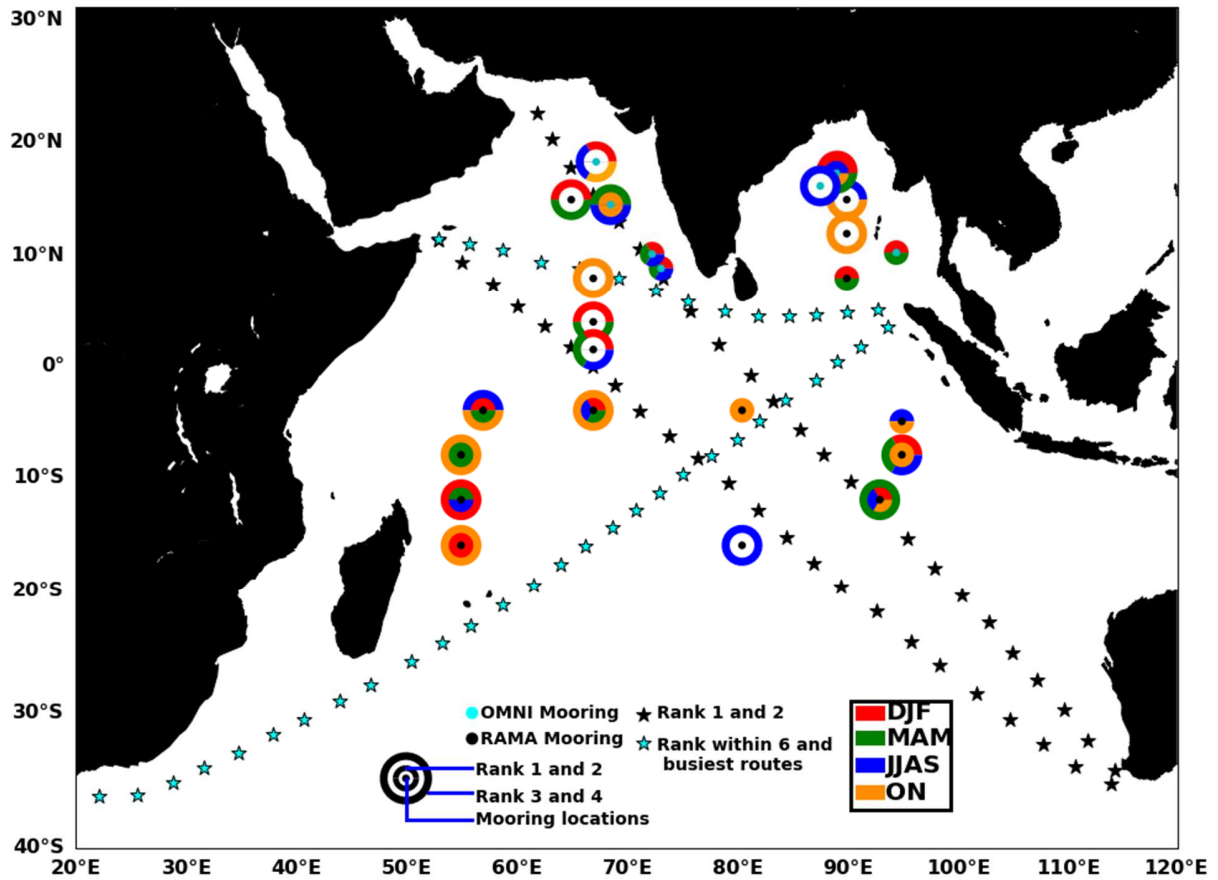
899

900 **Figure 11.** (a-b) The ship tracks are indicated with star symbols. The colors are given for
 901 discerning various tracks. The rank of each track in total UR of sea-to-air CO₂ fluxes during
 902 January and July are written close to the tracks. (c-d) Corresponding CO₂ flux UR (in %)
 903 corresponding to each rank.

904

905

906



907 **Figure 12:** Locations of recommended RAMA+OMNI moorings and SOOP ship-tracks by the
 908 OSSE for the surface ocean pCO₂ measurements. The moorings are selected based on the ranks
 909 within the Arabian Sea, Bay of Bengal, equatorial Indian Ocean, and south subtropical Indian
 910 Ocean for all four seasons. The black dot represents mooring location, the number of circles
 911 represents a range of ranks to which each mooring belongs as re-ordered within each basin, and
 912 different seasons are indicated in different colors. The star dots represent the recommended
 913 SOOP ship-tracks.

914

915

916