

1           **Wave-related Reynolds number parameterizations of CO<sub>2</sub> and DMS transfer velocities**

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20

21        **Abstract**

22        Predicting future climate hinges on our understanding of, and ability to quantify air-sea gas transfer. The  
23        latter relies on parameterizations of the gas transfer velocity  $k$ , which represents physical mass transfer  
24        mechanisms and is usually parameterized as a non-linear function of wind forcing. In an attempt to reduce  
25        uncertainties in  $k$ , this study explores empirical parameterizations that incorporate both wind speed and  
26        sea state dependence via wave-wind and breaking Reynolds numbers,  $R_H$  and  $R_B$ . Analysis of concurrent  
27        eddy covariance gas transfer and measured wave field statistics supplemented by wave model hindcasts  
28        shows for the first time that wave-related Reynold numbers collapse four open ocean datasets that have a  
29        wind speed dependence of CO<sub>2</sub> transfer velocity ranging from lower than quadratic to cubic. Wave-  
30        related Reynolds number and wind speed show comparable performance for parametrizing DMS which,  
31        because of its higher solubility, is less affected by bubble-mediated exchange associated with wave  
32        breaking.

33 **1. Introduction**

34 In the current age of anthropogenic climate change, it is imperative to reduce uncertainties in climate  
35 predictions to allow for sound mitigation guidelines. Adequate characterization of gas transfer across the  
36 air-sea interface is not only essential to quantify local and global sinks and sources of carbon dioxide,  
37 CO<sub>2</sub>, but also to budget many other trace gases that influence Earth's climate [*Carpenter et al.*, 2012].  
38 These include, amongst others, marine aerosol precursors such as dimethyl sulfide, DMS [*Charlson et al.*,  
39 1987].

40

41 The bulk gas flux ( $F_x$ ) across the air-sea interface can be expressed as a function of the concentration  
42 difference ( $\Delta C_x$ ) across the air-water interface, and a kinematic parameter, the transfer velocity ( $k_x$ ):

43 
$$F_x = k_x \Delta C_x = k_x \alpha_x (p_{xw} - p_{xa}), \quad (1)$$

44 where  $\alpha_x$  is the solubility of the gas,  $x$ , in seawater,  $p_{xa}$  and  $p_{xw}$  are the partial pressures of  $x$  in the air and  
45 surface water, respectively.  $k_x$  represents the mass transfer resistances of various physical forcing  
46 mechanisms and incorporates the dependence of the transfer on the diffusivity of the gas in water (which  
47 varies for different gases, temperatures and salinities).

48

49 Studies have shown that the interfacial transfer velocity is regulated by the turbulence in the air and water  
50 surface microlayers, which arises from wind stress at the water surface and buoyancy effects [*Jähne et al.*,  
51 1987; *Komori et al.*, 1993].  $k$  is therefore typically parameterized as a function of wind speed ( $U$ ). One of  
52 the earliest parameterizations [*Liss and Merlivat*, 1986] derived from various field and laboratory  
53 measurements was a three piece linear function of  $U$ , corresponding to wind regimes in which no waves,  
54 capillary waves, or breaking waves are present. For simplicity and practical reasons, the impacts of waves  
55 were later ignored and a single quadratic [*Wanninkhof*, 1992] or cubic [*McGillis et al.*, 2001; *Wanninkhof*  
56 *and McGillis*, 1999a; b] function linking  $k$  to  $U$  were adopted for all sea states.

57

58 Current climate modeling studies most commonly use quadratic wind speed parameterizations for  $k$   
59 [Arora *et al.*, 2013; Wanninkhof, 1992]. These parameterizations are tuned to give the correct result for  
60 the global radiocarbon carbon budget over yearly or decadal timescales [Sweeney *et al.*, 2007;  
61 Wanninkhof, 1992; 2014] and provide an important constraint for global studies, but have an uncertain  
62 relationship to transfer mechanisms over limited temporal and spatial scales. Recent eddy-covariance  
63 measurements [Garbe *et al.*, 2014] highlight the inadequacy of wind speed only parameterizations for gas  
64 transfer velocities. For wind speeds above  $10 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  observations display substantial scatter and wind  
65 speed dependent parameterizations diverge; this can be attributed to a variety of environmental conditions  
66 and processes, mainly associated with surface waves. The complex interplay of these processes means  
67 that wind speed alone cannot capture the variability of air-water gas exchange. For winds over  $7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ,  
68 breaking waves become a key factor to consider when estimating gas fluxes. Both theoretical and  
69 experimental studies suggest that wind waves and their breaking can significantly enhance gas exchange  
70 [Woolf, 1997]. Breaking results in additional upper ocean turbulence and generation of bubble clouds.  
71 Bubbles offer a second pathway for gas transfer between the atmosphere and ocean in addition to direct  
72 diffusion across the main interface. Their influence increases with decreasing solubility leading to  
73 significant enhancement of the transfer of sparingly soluble gases such as  $\text{CO}_2$  under wave breaking  
74 conditions relative to calm seas.

75

76 The main proxy used to quantify breaking processes is the whitecap fraction ( $W$ ) which is detectable in  
77 near surface imagery from ships or aircrafts (e.g., Brumer *et al.* [2017] and references therein) and can be  
78 retrieved from satellite data [Anguelova and Webster, 2006]. This has led to parameterizations in which  
79 the total [Zhao *et al.*, 2003] or bubble mediated [Woolf, 1997; 2005] gas transfer velocities are expressed  
80 as a function of  $W$ . Similarly to  $k$ ,  $W$  is typically modeled as a non-linear function of wind speed.  
81 However, several studies have shown that  $W$  can be better constrained by a function of breaking ( $R_B$ ) and

82 wave-wind ( $R_H$ ) Reynolds numbers [Brumer *et al.*, 2017; Goddijn-Murphy *et al.*, 2011; Zhao and Toba,  
83 2001]. Norris *et al.* [2013] provided further evidence that wave-breaking related processes may be better  
84 constrained by Reynolds numbers than by wind speed alone, showing that the wave-wind Reynolds  
85 number is a more adequate predictor for sea-spray aerosol flux than wind speed. These Reynolds numbers  
86 incorporate both wave field and wind speed dependence. The wave-wind and breaking Reynolds numbers  
87 can be written as:  $R_{HW} = \frac{u_* H_s}{\nu_w}$ , and  $R_{BW} = \frac{u_*^2}{\nu_w \omega_p}$ , respectively, where  $u_*$  is the friction velocity,  $H_s$  is the  
88 significant wave height,  $\nu_w$  is the viscosity of water, and  $\omega_p$  is the peak angular frequency of the wave  
89 energy spectrum. The use of the water viscosity is denoted by the “w” subscript.

90

91 Zhao *et al.* [2003] combined a parameterization that expresses  $k_{CO_2}$  as a power law of  $W$  based on data  
92 from Wanninkhof *et al.* [1995] and the relation of  $W$  and  $R_B$  from Zhao and Toba [2001]. They deduced:

$$93 \quad k_{660} = 0.13 R_{Ba}^{0.63}, \quad (2)$$

94 where  $k_{660}$  is the gas velocity normalized to a Schmidt number,  $Sc$ , of 660 in units of  $\text{cm h}^{-1}$ . Note that  
95 they used the air viscosity ( $\nu_a$ ) rather than the water viscosity for their Reynolds number calculations,  
96 hence the “a” subscript. Using wind tunnel data from Jähne *et al.* [1985], they further suggested:

$$97 \quad k_{660} = 0.25 R_{Ba}^{0.67}. \quad (3)$$

98 Woolf [2005] built on his earlier model [Woolf, 1997] which separates breaking ( $k_b$ ), whitecap-dependent,  
99 from non-breaking ( $k_0$ ,  $u_*$ , and  $Sc$ -dependent) contributions and expressed the  $\text{CO}_2$  gas transfer velocity  
100 as:

$$101 \quad k = k_0 + k_b = 1.57 \times 10^{-4} u_* \left( \frac{600}{Sc} \right)^{1/2} + 2 \times 10^{-5} R_{HW}. \quad (4)$$

102 Note, this model does not explicitly account for the solubility dependence of  $k_b$ , but is consistent with  
103 measurements of  $\text{CO}_2$  transfer at 20°C. Equation 4 may therefore only be used for low solubility gases  
104 such as  $\text{CO}_2$  and requires modification to be applicable to other gases (see Jeffery *et al.* [2010]).

105 Note that these relationships were determined for growing wind sea conditions. Recent studies [Brumer *et*  
106 *al.*, 2017; Goddijn-Murphy *et al.*, 2011] showed that statistics computed from the total wave spectra,  
107 including swells, captured observed variability in  $W$  as well as wind-sea only statistics suggesting an  
108 extended applicability of Reynolds number parameterizations. To date few gas transfer measurements  
109 have been made with concurrent wave physics observations and the universality of these  
110 parameterizations has yet to be assessed. In this paper, data from four field projects will be used to  
111 evaluate Reynolds number parameterizations for  $\text{CO}_2$  and DMS and their performance is contrasted to  
112 that of wind-only relationships.

## 113 **2. Data and Methods**

114 Direct eddy covariance measurements of  $\text{CO}_2$  were obtained in the North Atlantic during wind speeds up  
115 to  $\sim 15 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  during GasEx-98 [McGillis *et al.*, 2001]. No wave measurements were made during GasEx-  
116 98. Instead, wave field statistics were computed from a WAVEWATCHIII® (WW3) global hindcast  
117 obtained from the database of the French Research Institute for Exploitation of the Sea (IFREMER)  
118 where 3-hourly statistics derived from the total spectrum with a  $0.5^\circ$  spatial resolution are archived  
119 ([ftp://ftp.ifremer.fr/ifremer/ww3/HINDCAST/GLOBAL/1998\\_CFSR/](ftp://ftp.ifremer.fr/ifremer/ww3/HINDCAST/GLOBAL/1998_CFSR/)).

120

121 The Southern Ocean (SO) GasEx cruise, which took place in the South Atlantic, made available eddy  
122 covariance measurements of  $\text{CO}_2$  and DMS during wind speeds averaging  $9.7 \pm 3.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  with a maximum  
123 of  $\sim 18 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  [Edson *et al.*, 2011; Ho *et al.*, 2011; Yang *et al.*, 2011]. A Riegl laser altimeter (model LD90-  
124 3100VHS) and a Wave and Surface Current Monitoring System (WAMOS® II) provided wave field data  
125 [Cifuentes-Lorenzen *et al.*, 2013; Lund *et al.*, 2017]. The WAMOS resolves the directional wave, whereas  
126 the Riegl provides only onmidirectional information. Wave field statistics are consistent between the  
127 Riegl and WAMOS, but WAMOS allows separation of wind-sea and swell components. As the WAMOS  
128 was not running during the large storm that occurred during the SO GasEx 5-day return transit, the wave  
129 data were supplemented by a WW3 global hindcast from the IFREMER database

130 ([ftp://ftp.ifremer.fr/ifremer/ww3/HINDCAST/GLOBAL/2008\\_ECMWF/](ftp://ftp.ifremer.fr/ifremer/ww3/HINDCAST/GLOBAL/2008_ECMWF/)). *Lund et al.* [2017] found  
131 excellent agreement between the WAMOS and this hindcast for SO GasEX.

132

133 Eddy covariance measurements of air–sea CO<sub>2</sub> and DMS fluxes were also made during the Knorr11  
134 cruise, which took place in the North Atlantic Ocean, during wind speeds ranging from ~2 to 20 m s<sup>-1</sup>  
135 [*Bell et al.*, 2013; *Bell et al.*, 2017]. Omnidirectional surface wave spectra were obtained using an  
136 ultrasonic altimeter [*Christensen et al.*, 2013]. The significant wave heights measured during Knorr11  
137 agree well with re-analysis and satellite data regardless of whether the ship was on station or not. Good  
138 agreement was found between the measured and modeled peak frequencies only while on station.  
139 Underway estimates of  $\omega_p$  are therefore discarded.

140

141 The latest direct eddy correlation fluxes of CO<sub>2</sub> and DMS were made during the High Wind Gas  
142 exchange Study (HiWinGS) [*Blomquist et al.*, 2017; *Brumer et al.*, 2017; *Yang et al.*, 2014] at wind  
143 speeds up to ~25 m s<sup>-1</sup>. The wave field was monitored with a Riegl laser altimeter and a Datawell DWR-  
144 4G Waverider buoy. Buoy wave measurements were only acquired on-station (approximately 68% of the  
145 cruise duration). They were supplemented by a cruise specific WW3 hindcast for the entire period of the  
146 cruise. The WW3 hindcast, described in *Brumer et al.* [2017], matches the buoy measurements well and  
147 provide the most complete dataset. The model directional spectra along the cruise track will be used for  
148 the results reported here.

149

### 150 Computation of wave-field statistics

151 Hourly data are used from all experiments except Knorr11, for which two-hourly timeseries were  
152 provided. Wave field statistics were computed from the directional wave spectra obtained from the  
153 WAMOS and WW3 hindcasts. The 3-hourly global hindcast fields of  $H_s$  and  $f_p$  derived from the total

154 spectrum were interpolated first in space onto the ship's track and then in time to match gas transfer  
155 velocity estimates. Separation of the wind-sea and swell systems was achieved based on *Hanson and*  
156 *Phillips* [2001]. While hourly gas transfer velocities were computed for SO GasEx, WAMOS spectra and  
157 statistics were computed over 10.25 minutes and averaged to match the gas transfer velocity time  
158 resolution. For HiWinGS, the hindcast statistics were obtained half hourly for each of 4 grid points  
159 around the ship position and averaged to give a single hourly time series matching the gas fluxes. The  
160 significant wave height is defined as follows:  $H_s = 4[\int E(f)df]^{1/2}$ , where  $E(f)$  is either the total  
161 omnidirectional wave spectrum or the wind-sea partition. The peak angular velocity is determined from  
162 the peak frequency of each system of the whole spectrum:  $\omega_p = 2\pi f_p$ . In what follows, statistics  
163 computed from the wind-sea partition are denoted by a "ws" subscript.

164

#### 165 Determination and evaluation of gas transfer velocity parameterizations

166 The gas transfer velocities of CO<sub>2</sub> ( $k_{CO_2660}$ ) and DMS ( $k_{DMS660}$ ) were referenced to a Schmidt number of  
167 660 which corresponds to that of CO<sub>2</sub> at 20°C. For each experiment and gas, seven different  
168 parameterizations are considered. Quadratic ( $k = aU_{10N}^2 + b$ ), cubic ( $k = aU_{10N}^3 + b$ ), and power-law ( $k =$   
169  $aU_{10N}^n$ ) dependence on wind speed were evaluated as well as power-law dependence ( $k = aRe^n$ ) on the  
170 wave-wind and breaking Reynolds numbers computed from the total wave spectra and wind-sea partition  
171 only. Note, for GasEx-98, Knorr11, and the return transit leg of SO GasEx no wind-sea statistics could be  
172 determined. Also, no DMS measurements were taken during GasEx-98. Combining all data, a final set of  
173 parameterization is suggested.

174

175 Coefficients ( $a$ ,  $b$  and  $n$ ) were determined through weighted least-square regressions using equi-density  
176 bins containing 15 data points. The weights were set to equal the reciprocal of the variance in each bin.  
177 Wind-sea statistics for  $k_{CO_2660}$  were determined from bins of 5 data points due to the paucity of data



178 available from the SO GasEx experiment. In order to compare the performance of the different  
179 parameterizations, three metrics are considered: 1) the variation of the exponent "n" among the four  
180 datasets, 2) the correlation coefficient ( $r^2$ ), and 3) the root mean square error ( $rmse$ ). Both the  $r^2$  and  $rmse$   
181 were computed with respect to the hourly and two-hourly data.

### 182 3. Results

183 Key results and parameterizations determined from the four individual and the combined datasets are  
184 summarized below. Coefficients for various best-fit functions are reported in Tables 1 and 2 for CO<sub>2</sub> and  
185 DMS, respectively.

186

#### 187 CO<sub>2</sub>

188 Figure 1a shows the measured gas transfer velocities of CO<sub>2</sub> plotted against the neutral 10-m wind speed.  
189 The different dependences of the  $k_{CO_2660}$  on  $U_{10N}$  observed during the 4 experiments are immediately  
190 apparent. While both GasEx datasets show close to cubic wind speed dependence with power-law fit  
191 exponents of 2.53 and 2.67 for GasEx-98 and SO GasEx, respectively, an exponent of 1.62 best fits the  
192 HiWinGS data. The Knorr11 dataset displays the weakest wind speed dependence with a power-law  
193 exponent of 1.46. The near-cubic dependences of  $k_{CO_2660}$  with  $U_{10N}$  are in agreement with those reported  
194 in *Edson et al.* [2011] and *McGillis et al.* [2001] for the two GasEx datasets. Quadratic parameterizations  
195 reported in *Wanninkhof* [1992] or *Ho et al.* [2006] under-predict all but the Knorr11  $k_{CO_2660}$ .

196

197 The wave-wind Reynolds number, computed from the total wave spectrum (Figure 2a), collapses the  
198 observations from all four experiments to a single curve with reduced scatter:

$$199 \quad k_{CO_2660} = 2.04 \times 10^{-4} R_{Hw}^{0.88} \quad (5)$$

200 with  $r^2 = 0.65$  and  $rmse = 29.4$  for all datasets combined. These fit statistics are slightly better than those  
 201 obtained from wind-only fits (Table 1, Eq. p25). Equation 5 captures 58%, 31%, 63%, and 69% of the  
 202 observed variability in the GasEx-98 ( $rmse = 16.4$ ), SO GasEx ( $rmse = 59.2$ ), Knorr11 ( $rmse = 13.9$ ), and  
 203 HiWinGS ( $rmse = 27.8$ ) measurements, respectively. A wind speed only power-law parameterization  
 204 based on the combined dataset captures 60%, 25%, 70%, and 64% of the observed variability in the  
 205 GasEx-98 ( $rmse = 16.3$ ), SO GasEx ( $rmse = 61.6$ ), Knorr11 ( $rmse = 16$ ), and HiWinGS ( $rmse = 30.1$ )  
 206 measurements, respectively.

207

208 Note that not only were more measurements taken during HiWinGS than during the other experiments,  
 209 but they were also spread over a wider range of wave and wind conditions. These combined fits are  
 210 therefore mostly driven by the HiWinGS data. Nevertheless, fits to individual data sets also demonstrate  
 211 improved inter-dataset agreement with wave-wind Reynolds number compared to wind only. Power-law  
 212 exponents of these fits, ranging from 0.66 (Knorr11) to 1.11 (GasEx-98), show less spread than those of  
 213 wind speed power laws. Again, project specific wave-wind Reynolds number fits suggest marginal  
 214 improvement compared to the best individual wind-only fits in terms of  $r^2$  for HiWinGS and SO GasEx.

215

216 The breaking Reynolds number (Figure 2c), collapses the datasets, with power law exponents ranging  
 217 from 0.52 (Knorr11) to 0.79 (GasEx-98). However, scatter is increased in comparison to the wind-wave  
 218 Reynolds number for all experiments but GasEx-98. The best fit obtained from the combination of the  
 219 datasets is:

$$220 \quad k_{CO_2660} = 9.05 \times 10^{-3} R_{Bw}^{0.69} \quad (6)$$

221 with  $r^2 = 0.59$  and  $rmse = 31.7$  for all datasets combined. Equation 6 captures 32%, 27%, 89%, and 65%  
 222 of the observed variability in the GasEx-98 ( $rmse = 22$ ), SO GasEx ( $rmse = 60.5$ ), Knorr11 ( $rmse = 19.2$ ),  
 223 and HiWinGS ( $rmse = 29.3$ ) measurements, respectively. As for the wave-wind Reynolds number, the

224 close match between the combined and dataset specific fit statistics attest to the inter data set agreement  
225 of these Reynolds number parameterizations.

226

227 Utilizing only the wind-sea part of the spectrum to compute the significant wave height and peak angular  
228 frequencies does not lead to improved inter-dataset agreement based on project specific fits (Figure 2b,  
229 d). Compared to full sea state Reynolds numbers, the scatter is increased for  $R_{Hw_{ws}}$  for which the best fit  
230 (Table 1, Eq. p28) only captures 47% of the variability and there is improvement for  $R_{Bw_{ws}}$  which captures  
231 53% (Table 1, Eq. p29) of the variability of the So GasEx and HiWinGS data combined. Very few good  
232 measurements of  $k_{CO_{2660}}$  were taken during SO GasEx with wind sea present. Therefore, best fits  
233 determined from both datasets are again mainly driven by the HiWinGS dataset. Project specific fits for  
234 SO GasEX have  $r^2 \leq 0.05$ . Note that for HiWinGS, fits and statistics for  $R_{Bw_{ws}}$  are very similar to those for  
235  $R_{Bw}$ .

236

237 DMS

238  $k_{DMS_{660}}$  measured during SO GasEx was significantly lower than that measured during HiWinGS for a  
239 given wind speed (Figure 1b). The Knorr11 measurements agree with those from HiWinGS for  $U_{10N} < 10$   
240  $m s^{-1}$ , however for  $U_{10N} > 14 m s^{-1}$  they match the lower SO GasEx values. The data recorded when  $U_{10N}$   
241 exceeded  $14 m s^{-1}$  during SO GasEx and Knorr11 appear as outliers in Figure 1b as well as in Figure 3a,  
242 c. They correspond to unfilled bin average data points in those figures. The SO GasEx outliers were  
243 measured during the return transit leg and the Knorr11 outliers were measured at the last station under  
244 high wind and wave height conditions. No directional wave data are available to separate wind-seas from  
245 swells for these outliers. They are therefore excluded from Figure 3b, d. Sea state, whitecap, and basic  
246 environmental conditions do not explain these outliers. They are excluded from results in Table 2.

247

248 Omitting SO GasEx data taken on the return transit and Knorr11 data for  $U_{10N} > 14 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  yields better  
249 overall inter-project agreement with a power-law function of wind-speed alone capturing 70% of the  
250 variability in the combined data and a *rmse* of 5.8.  $k_{DMS_{660}}$  increases close to linearly with wind speed with  
251 power-law exponent ranging from 1.28 to 1.4. A power-law function of  $R_{Hw}$  captures 57% of the  
252 combined variability with *rmse* = 6.8:

253 
$$k_{DMS_{660}} = 1.95 \times 10^{-2} R_{Hw}^{0.49}. \quad (7)$$

254 A power-law function of  $R_{Bw}$  can account for 63% of the variability in both data sets with *rmse* of 6.4:

255 
$$k_{DMS_{660}} = 5.36 \times 10^{-2} R_{Bw}^{0.47}. \quad (8)$$

256 Considering wind seas only (Table 2, Eqs. p53 and p54) leads to divergence in the individual best fits for  
257 the two data sets with comparable statistic to Eqs. 7 and 8. As noted above, the high wind SO GasEx and  
258 Knorr11 observations were not included in these fits.

259

260 When considering the datasets individually, expressing  $k_{DMS_{660}}$  as a function of Reynolds numbers does  
261 not lead to better fit statistics than wind only fits. Indeed, for SO GasEX a wind speed power-law  
262 dependence can capture 45% of the variability while a breaking Reynolds number dependence only  
263 captures 25% when ignoring the above mentioned outliers. For Knorr11, the wind speed and  $R_{Bw}$  perform  
264 comparably well, allowing accounting for 38% and 39% of the observed variability for  $U_{10N} < 14 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ .  
265 For HiWinGS, the wind speed only parameterization performs only slightly better than the  $R_{Bw}$  one with  
266 75% compared to 71%. Power law exponents for the fits to the individual datasets are comparably close  
267 for wind-speed and both Reynolds numbers. It is possible that the potential improvement in fit statistics  
268 using Reynolds number instead of wind speed is offset by the greater sampling error in determining wave  
269 statistics.

270

#### 271 **4. Discussion**

272 Wind-only  $k$  parameterizations display significant disagreement between different studies [Garbe *et al.*,  
273 2014; Goddijn-Murphy *et al.*, 2012; McGillis *et al.*, 2001; Wanninkhof, 1992]. While implementing  
274 different wind-only parameterizations for CO<sub>2</sub> may result in comparable globally averaged gas transfer  
275 velocities, the parameterization choice was shown to have significant impact on regional fluxes [Fangohr  
276 and Woolf, 2007; Wrobel and Piskozub, 2016]. In light of current efforts to include wave processes in  
277 Earth System models (e.g., Li *et al.* [2016]; Qiao *et al.* [2013]), it is time to update the traditional wind-  
278 only gas transfer parameterizations to sea state dependent ones and assess uncertainties linked to the  
279 choice of parameterization.

280

281 Parameterizations that incorporate the dependence of wind and sea state in the form of a wave-wind and  
282 breaking Reynolds number provide coherent agreement between the GasEx-98, SO GasEx, Knorr11, and  
283 HiWinGS datasets for CO<sub>2</sub>, and the majority of the DMS data. This study therefore strongly suggests that  
284 expressing  $k$  as a simple function of a wave-related Reynolds number will lead to improved  
285 parameterizations for regional and global models relative to wind-only parameterizations. Global fields of  
286 significant wave heights and peak angular velocities are routinely computed by operational wave  
287 prediction centers, making wave-wind and breaking Reynolds number based parameterizations  
288 convenient to implement and test on a global scale. The relationships between  $k$  and other wave statistics  
289 such as the wave age, bulk slope, and the mean square steepness were also examined but did not reveal  
290 significant trends or yield reduced scatter between projects.

291

292 Although the current study is not a comprehensive analysis of all available eddy covariance CO<sub>2</sub> and  
293 DMS gas transfer data, the datasets analyzed here are representative of the observed variability. They

294 were chosen because they span a wide range of wind speeds with strongly differing dependencies. They  
295 are also, to the best of our knowledge, the only available gas transfer datasets with in situ wave field  
296 measurements. Wave model hindcasts could extend this analysis to other existing CO<sub>2</sub> and DMS datasets  
297 [Bell *et al.*, 2015; Blomquist *et al.*, 2006; Huebert *et al.*, 2004; Marandino *et al.*, 2007; 2008; 2009; Miller  
298 *et al.*, 2009]. However, these datasets span a more limited and lower range of wind speeds and may not  
299 add much additional information because discrepancies in  $k$  at low wind speeds are small.

300

301 CO<sub>2</sub> and DMS have solubilities of  $\sim 1$  and  $\sim 20$ , which strongly influence the fraction of total transfer  
302 resistance represented by bubble-mediated and air-side mechanisms. The less soluble a gas, the more its  
303 air-sea flux depends on the transfer resistance in the aqueous boundary layer and bubble mediated  
304 mechanisms. This explains why  $k_{DMS}$  is smaller than  $k_{CO_2}$  at high wind speeds, where wave breaking leads  
305 to generation of bubble clouds, and thus the need for different, single parameter models for gases of  
306 different solubilities. One could a priori expect DMS to be less sea state dependent than CO<sub>2</sub> as its  
307 increased solubility means that its transfer velocity depends less on bubble mediated transfer. Weaker  
308 dependence on sea state may account for the increased scatter observed in the relationship between both  
309 the wave-wind and breaking Reynolds numbers and  $k_{DMS_{660}}$ . Sea state, represented as either the significant  
310 wave height or wave age ( $\beta = g/(\omega_p u_*) = R_{Bw}(g v_w)/u_*^3$ ) does not reconcile outliers in the SO  
311 GasEx and Knorr11 DMS dataset. These suppressed gas transfer velocities at high wind speeds were  
312 observed in high wave height conditions, i.e. high  $R_{Hw}$  and more work is needed to understand these  
313 observations. Bell *et al.* [2013] suggest that young, large waves may influence interfacial gas transfer by  
314 either causing airflow separation at the wave crest or by modulating the microbreaking of small-scale  
315 waves.

316

317 Early studies [*Toba and Koga, 1986; Zhao and Toba, 2001; Zhao et al., 2003*] which relate breaking  
318 conditions, whitecapping, and gas transfer velocities to Reynolds numbers focus on wind-sea statistics,  
319 ignoring the importance of swell. It is typically assumed that wave breaking is governed by the wind sea  
320 component of the wave spectrum, and that properties of the wind sea partition are most relevant for air-  
321 sea processes. This study, however, suggests that consideration of swell is important for gas transfer.  
322 Indeed, considering only the wind-sea partition of the wave spectra did not reduce the scatter in  $k$ ,  
323 yielding poor fits that differ substantially between datasets. Arguably this could be due to the paucity of  
324 data collected under wind-sea conditions especially during SO GasEx or the difficulty of separating wind-  
325 sea and swell. More data are needed to verify this. However, non-breaking wave induced mixing has  
326 been shown to significantly contribute to upper ocean turbulence through Langmuir circulation [*Fan and*  
327 *Griffies, 2014; Li et al., 2016*]. This suggests mixing that arises from all components of the wave spectra  
328 should be considered. Furthermore, if large waves indeed inhibit interfacial gas transfer, the swell  
329 component needs to be considered. Reynolds numbers computed from the full spectrum can, however, not  
330 account for this effect.

331

332 The Reynolds number parameterizations determined in this study differ from previously published  
333 parameterizations [*Woolf, 2005; Zhao et al., 2003*] using the wind-sea partition or the total spectra. This  
334 can partially be attributed to the whitecap data used to tune previous parameterizations. The  $W$   
335 parameterization used by *Zhao and Toba* [2001] overestimates  $W$  measured during both experiments  
336 resulting in overestimated gas transfer velocities. The parameterization of *Woolf* [2005] underestimates  
337 the measured transfer velocities of  $\text{CO}_2$  though it is loosely based on the relation between  $W$  and  $R_{Ha}$   
338 determined by *Zhao and Toba* [2001]. The issue here comes primarily from the relation used between the  
339 bubble mediated transfer and  $W$  based on *Woolf* [1997], but may also be attributed to the expression for  
340 non-breaking transfer used. The coefficients of the 1997 bubble mediated transfer model are best guess  
341 values which were tuned in *Woolf* [2005] to match a range of observed functions given the assumption

342 that wave fetch is the primary controlling parameter for  $W$ . The model may therefore not be adequate for  
343 the open ocean. Note also that we established that these earlier  $W$  data and the parameterizations differ  
344 greatly from recent observations [Brumer *et al.*, 2017] in part due to the different techniques employed,  
345 and in part due to different wind/wave environments (pure wind vs. mixed seas, laboratory or fetch  
346 limited vs. open ocean waves).

347

## 348 **5. Conclusion**

349 Breaking and wind wave Reynolds numbers allow for improved single parameter models of the gas  
350 transfer velocity of DMS and CO<sub>2</sub> relative to wind speed only parameterizations. The Reynolds number-  
351 based parameterizations appear to be more universally valid, collapsing the data of the GasEx-98, SO  
352 GasEx, Knorr11, and HiWinGS experiments onto closely matching power law dependences, while wind  
353 only parameterizations vary greatly between datasets. For CO<sub>2</sub> they also, for the most part, capture  
354 slightly more of the observed variability than the traditional wind only ones. The comparable goodness of  
355 fits for wind speed and wave related Reynolds numbers reflects the natural high variability of individual  
356 flux estimates which does not vary much for a single set of wind/wave conditions. The important result is  
357 that the wave related Reynolds numbers provide a dramatic improvement in reconciling  $k$  results from  
358 very different wind/wave regimes. Unlike previous studies that relied on the combination of unrelated  
359 datasets and approximate relations between Reynolds numbers, whitecap fraction and gas transfer  
360 velocities, here we show the first Reynolds number parameterizations determined directly from  
361 concurrent eddy covariance measurements of gas fluxes and modeled or remotely sensed wave field  
362 statistics.

363



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369 NOAA FTP server: [ftp://ftp1.esrl.noaa.gov/psd3/cruises/HIWINGS\\_2013/Collective\\_Archive](ftp://ftp1.esrl.noaa.gov/psd3/cruises/HIWINGS_2013/Collective_Archive). The SO  
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373 **7. References**

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 534 represent best fits of power laws of the form  $k = ax^n$ . Examples of published cubic ( $k = aU_{10}^3 + b$ ) and  
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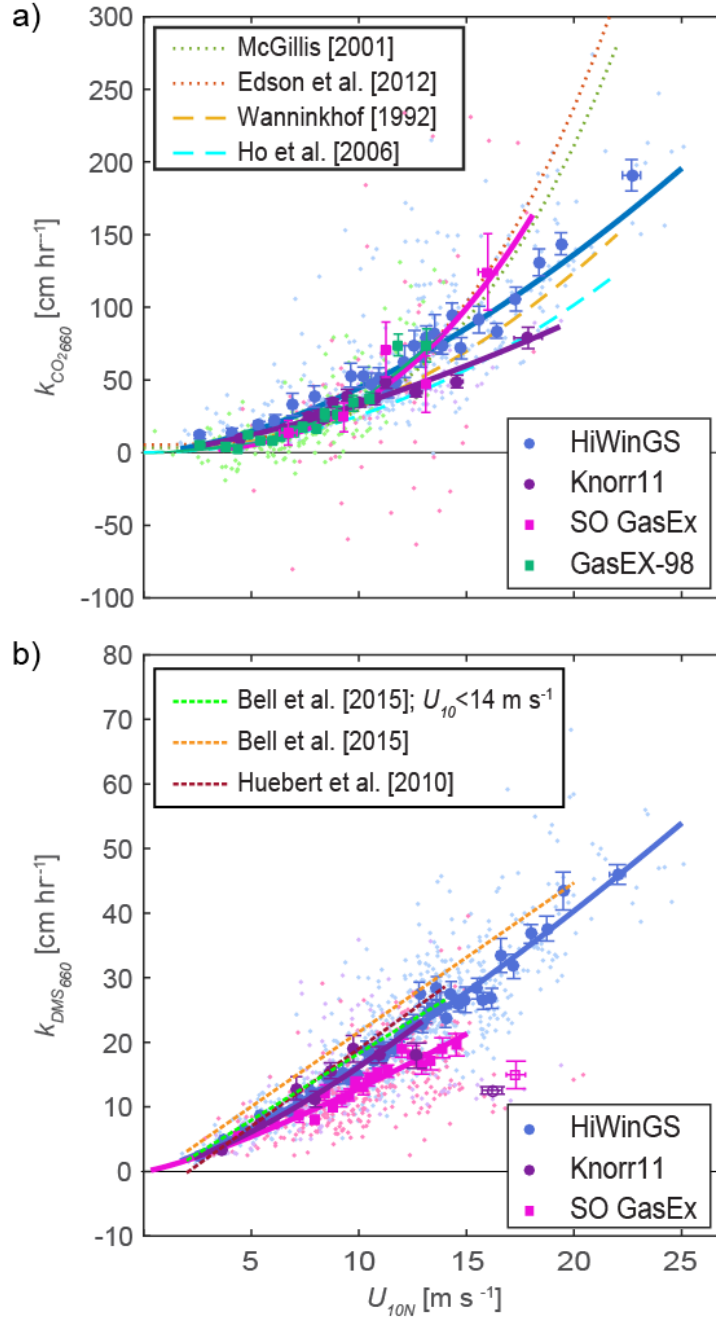


Figure 1- Measured gas transfer velocity of a)  $\text{CO}_2$  and b) DMS, adjusted to a Schmidt number of 660 and plotted against 10 m neutral wind speed ( $U_{10N}$ ). The smaller dots represent individual hourly and two-hourly estimates and the larger symbols are averages of equidensity bins of 15 data points. The solid lines represent best fits of power laws of the form  $k = ax^n$ . Examples of published cubic ( $k = aU_{10}^3 + b$ ) and quadratic ( $k = aU_{10}^2 + b$ ) parameterizations derived from  $\text{CO}_2$  datasets are represented by dotted and dashed lines, respectively. Examples of published linear wind-speed dependent parameterization ( $k = aU_{10} + b$ ) derived from DMS measurements are represented by dashed lines in b). The open symbols in b) represent outliers in the SO GasEx and Knorr11 datasets that cannot be reconciled by either wind speed or Reynolds numbers.

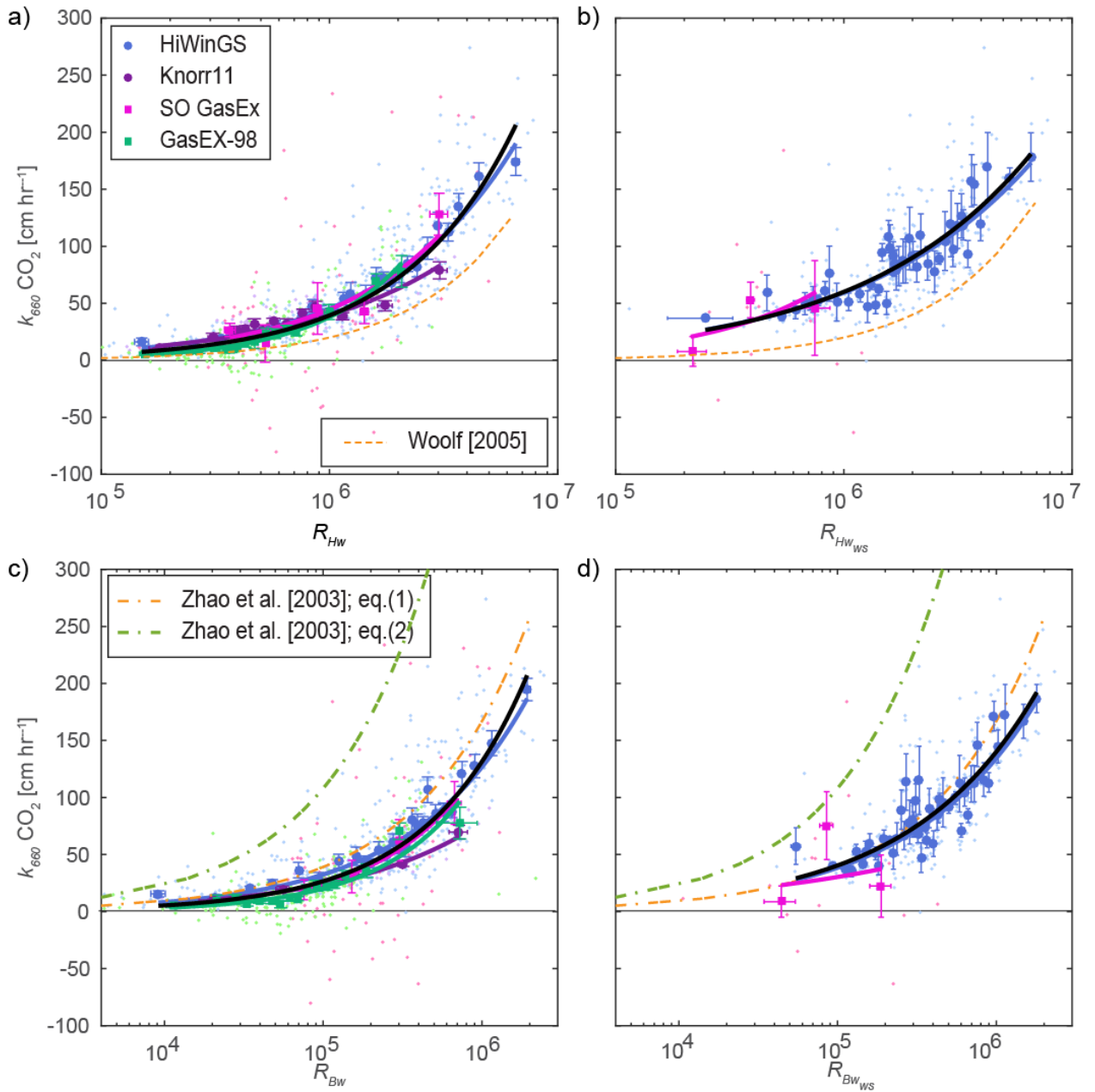


Figure 2- Measured gas transfer velocity of CO<sub>2</sub> adjusted to a Schmidt number of 660 plotted against a) the wave-wind Reynolds number based on  $H_s$  computed from the total spectrum, b) the wave-wind Reynolds number based on  $H_s$  computed from the wind-sea partition of the wave spectrum, c) the breaking Reynolds number computed from the total spectrum, and d) the breaking Reynolds number computed from the wind-sea partition of the wave spectrum. The smaller dots represent individual hourly and two hourly estimates, the larger symbols are averages of equidensity bins of 15 data points for a) and c) and 5 points for b) and d). The solid green, pink, and purple, blue, and black lines represent best fits of power laws of the form  $k = ax^n$ , for Gasex-98, SO GasEx, Knorr11, HiWinGS, and all the data, respectively.



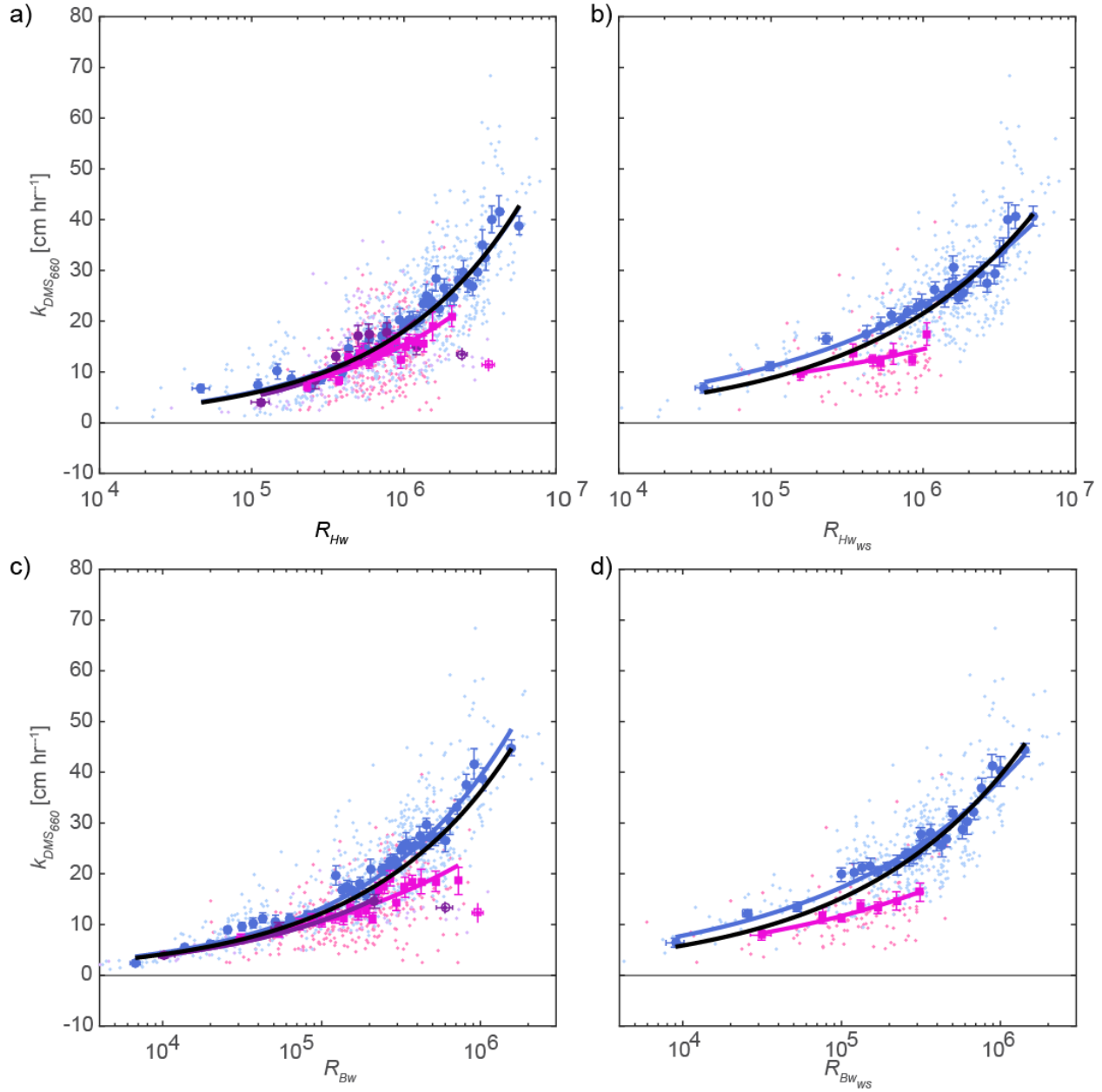


Figure 3- Measured gas transfer velocity of DMS adjusted to a Schmidt number of 660 plotted against a) the wave-wind Reynolds number based on  $H_s$  computed from the total spectrum, b) the wave-wind Reynolds number based on  $H_s$  computed from the wind-sea partition of the wave spectrum, c) the breaking Reynolds number computed from the total spectrum, and d) the breaking Reynolds number computed from the wind-sea partition of the wave spectrum. The smaller dots represent individual hourly and two hourly estimates, the larger symbols are averages of equidensity bins of 15 data points. The solid pink, and purple, blue, and black lines represent best fits of power laws of the form  $k = ax^n$ , for SO GasEx, Knorr11, HiWinGS, and all the data, respectively. The open symbols represent outliers in the SO GasEx and Knorr11 datasets that cannot be reconciled by neither wind speed nor Reynolds numbers.



565 Table 1 – Least square fit results of the wind speed and Reynolds number dependence of the gas transfer  
 566 velocity of CO<sub>2</sub> referenced to a Schmidt number of 660.

Eq.	Experiment	Form	$a$	$n$	$r^2$	$rmse$
p1	GasEx-98	$k = a (U_{10N})^n$	1.06E-01	2.53	0.62	15.4
p2		$k = a (U_{10N})^2 + n$	3.46E-01	-1.30	0.60	16.4
p3		$k = a (U_{10N})^3 + n$	3.14E-02	3.48	0.63	15.3
p4		$k = a(R_{Hw})^n$	7.97E-06	1.11	0.57	16.2
p5		$k = a(R_{Bw})^n$	2.27E-03	0.79	0.28	22.4
p6	SO GasEx	$k = a (U_{10N})^n$	7.27E-02	2.67	0.25	60.8
p7		$k = a (U_{10N})^2 + n$	4.79E-01	-11.01	0.25	60.9
p8		$k = a (U_{10N})^3 + n$	2.80E-02	4.78	0.25	60.9
p9		$k = a(R_{Hw})^n$	6.10E-04	0.81	0.31	59.0
p10		$k = a(R_{Bw})^n$	5.75E-03	0.73	0.27	60.45
p11		$k = a(R_{Hw_{ws}})^n$	6.72E-04	0.84	0.05	64.4
p12		$k = a(R_{Bw_{ws}})^n$	7.45E-02	0.51	0.01	58.2
p13	Knorr11	$k = a (U_{10N})^n$	1.15E+00	1.46	0.71	9.2
p14		$k = a (U_{10N})^2 + n$	2.56E-01	5.78	0.69	10.1
p15		$k = a (U_{10N})^3 + n$	1.55E-02	11.45	0.64	12.5
p16		$k = a(R_{Hw})^n$	4.11E-03	0.66	0.64	10.7
p17		$k = a(R_{Bw})^n$	6.33E-02	0.52	0.90	7.2
p18	HiWinGS	$k = a (U_{10N})^n$	1.07E+00	1.62	0.63	29.9
p19		$k = a (U_{10N})^2 + n$	3.32E-01	9.23	0.64	29.7
p20		$k = a (U_{10N})^3 + n$	1.74E-02	18.47	0.61	31.9
p21		$k = a(R_{Hw})^n$	1.25E-03	0.76	0.69	27.1
p22		$k = a(R_{Bw})^n$	3.63E-02	0.59	0.66	28.7
p23		$k = a(R_{Hw_{ws}})^n$	2.33E-02	0.57	0.48	34.7
p24		$k = a(R_{Bw_{ws}})^n$	7.73E-02	0.54	0.55	33.0
p25	Combined	$k = a (U_{10N})^n$	4.78E-01	1.91	0.61	29.8
p26		$k = a(R_{Hw})^n$	2.04E-04	0.88	0.65	29.4
p27		$k = a(R_{Bw})^n$	9.05E-03	0.69	0.59	31.7
p28		$k = a(R_{Hw_{ws}})^n$	1.64E-02	0.59	0.47	36.7
p29		$k = a(R_{Bw_{ws}})^n$	5.70E-02	0.56	0.53	35.0

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569 Table 2– Least square fit results of the wind speed and Reynold number dependence of the gas transfer  
 570 velocity of DMS referenced to a Schmidt number of 660.

Eq.	Experiment	Form	$a$	$n$	$r^2$	$rmse$
p30	SO GasEx	$k = a (U_{10N})^n$	7.31E-01	1.25	0.25	5.8
p31		$k = a (U_{10N})^2 + n$	8.51E-02	3.95	0.20	6.4
p32		$k = a (U_{10N})^3 + n$	5.69E-03	6.20	0.13	7.8
p33		$k = a(R_{Hw})^n$	3.75E-02	0.44	0.18	5.9
p34		$k = a(R_{Bw})^n$	1.91E-01	0.35	0.25	5.6
p35		$k = a(R_{Hw_{ws}})^n$	8.22E-01	0.21	0.08	6.1
p36		$k = a(R_{Bw_{ws}})^n$	3.72E-01	0.30	0.22	5.6
p37	Knorr11	$k = a (U_{10N})^n$	6.45E-01	1.40	0.38	6.0
p38		$k = a (U_{10N})^2 + n$	1.40E-01	2.11	0.34	6.5
p39		$k = a (U_{10N})^3 + n$	1.11E-02	3.78	0.26	7.3
p40		$k = a(R_{Hw})^n$	7.62E-03	0.56	0.20	6.8
p41		$k = a(R_{Bw})^n$	7.14E-02	0.44	0.39	6.3
p42	HiWinGS	$k = a (U_{10N})^n$	8.23E-01	1.30	0.75	5.7
p43		$k = a (U_{10N})^2 + n$	1.07E-01	3.78	0.73	6.2
p44		$k = a (U_{10N})^3 + n$	5.53E-03	6.40	0.65	8.0
p45		$k = a(R_{Hw})^n$	2.28E-02	0.48	0.62	7.0
p46		$k = a(R_{Bw})^n$	5.73E-02	0.47	0.71	6.0
p47		$k = a(R_{Hw_{ws}})^n$	2.80E-01	0.32	0.54	7.0
p48		$k = a(R_{Bw_{ws}})^n$	3.22E-01	0.35	0.63	6.3
p50	Combined	$k = a (U_{10N})^n$	7.42E-01	1.32	0.62	6.5
p51		$k = a(R_{Hw})^n$	1.95E-02	0.49	0.57	6.8
p52		$k = a(R_{Bw})^n$	5.36E-02	0.47	0.63	6.4
p53		$k = a(R_{Hw_{ws}})^n$	9.95E-02	0.39	0.57	7.2
p54		$k = a(R_{Bw_{ws}})^n$	1.29E-01	0.41	0.63	6.6

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