

Ocean carbon from space: current status and priorities for the next decade

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88 **Abstract**

The ocean plays a central role in modulating the Earth's carbon cycle. Monitoring how the ocean carbon cycle is changing is fundamental to managing climate change. Satellite remote sensing is currently our best tool for viewing the ocean surface globally and systematically, at high spatial and temporal resolutions, and the past few decades have seen an exponential growth in studies utilising satellite data for ocean carbon research. Satellite-based observations must be combined with *in-situ* observations and models, to obtain a comprehensive view of ocean carbon pools and fluxes. To help prioritise future research in this area, a workshop was organised that assembled leading experts working on the topic, from around the world, including remote-sensing scientists, field scientists and modellers, with the goal to articulate a collective view of the current status of ocean carbon research, identify gaps in knowledge, and formulate a scientific roadmap for the next decade, with an emphasis on evaluating where satellite remote sensing may contribute. A total of 449 scientists and stakeholders participated (**with balanced gender representation**), from North and South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, and Oceania. Sessions targeted both inorganic and organic pools of carbon in the ocean, in both dissolved and particulate form, as well as major fluxes of carbon between reservoirs (e.g., primary production) and at interfaces (e.g., air-sea and land-ocean). Extreme events, blue carbon and carbon budgeting were also key topics discussed. Emerging priorities identified include: expanding the networks and quality of *in-situ* observations; improved satellite retrievals; improved uncertainty quantification; improved understanding of vertical distributions; integration with models; improved techniques to bridge spatial and temporal scales of the different data sources; and improved fundamental understanding of the ocean carbon cycle, and of the interactions **among** pools of carbon and light. We also report on priorities for the specific pools and fluxes studied, and highlight issues and concerns

that arose during discussions, such as the need to consider the environmental impact of satellites or space activities; the role satellites can play in monitoring ocean carbon dioxide removal approaches; **economic valuation of the satellite based information**; to consider how satellites can contribute to monitoring cycles of other important climatically-relevant compounds and elements; to promote diversity and inclusivity in ocean carbon research; to bring together communities working on different aspects of planetary carbon; to follow an open science approach; **to explore new and innovative ways to remotely monitor ocean carbon; and to harness quantum computing**. Overall, this paper provides a comprehensive scientific roadmap for the next decade on how satellite remote sensing could help monitor the ocean carbon cycle, and its links to the other domains, such as terrestrial and atmosphere.

89 *Keywords:* Ocean, Carbon cycle, Satellite, Remote sensing

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157 1. Introduction

158 The element carbon plays a fundamental role in life on Earth. Owing to its
159 ability to bond with other atoms, carbon allows for variability in the configuration
160 and function of biomolecules such as **deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) and ribonu-**
161 **cleic acid (RNA)** that control the growth and replication of organisms. Carbon is
162 constantly flowing through every sphere on the planet, the geosphere, atmosphere,
163 biosphere, cryosphere, and hydrosphere, in liquid, solid or gaseous form. This
164 flow of carbon is referred to as the Earth's carbon cycle. It comprises of diverse
165 chemical species, organic and inorganic, and many processes responsible for
166 transformations and flow of carbon **among** the different reservoirs. Although
167 the total amount of carbon on Earth is relatively constant over geological time,
168 the carbon content of the component spheres and reservoirs can change, with
169 profound consequences for the climate of the planet. Since the establishment
170 of the industrial revolution at the start of the 19th century, humans have been
171 increasing the carbon content of the atmosphere through the burning of fossil
172 fuels and land use changes, trapping outgoing long-wave radiation in the lower
173 atmosphere and increasing the temperature of the planet.

174 This anthropogenic increase in atmospheric carbon (in the gaseous form of
175 CO₂) has three principal fates: it can remain in the atmosphere, be absorbed
176 by the ocean, or be absorbed by vegetation on land. Estimates for the year
177 2020 suggest that just under half of the anthropogenic CO₂ emissions currently
178 released ($10.2 \pm 0.8 \text{ Gt C yr}^{-1}$) remain in the atmosphere ($5.0 \pm 0.2 \text{ Gt C yr}^{-1}$), with
179 just over a quarter being absorbed by the land ($2.9 \pm 1.0 \text{ Gt C yr}^{-1}$) and by the
180 ocean ($3.0 \pm 0.4 \text{ Gt C yr}^{-1}$) (Hauck et al., 2020; Friedlingstein et al., 2022). Our
181 ocean therefore plays a major role in regulating climate change. Understanding
182 what controls the trends and variability in the ocean carbon sink is consequently a
183 major question in Earth Science. Recent work from the Global Carbon project
184 suggests estimates of this sink **from models (by which we mean to be 3-D,**
185 **prognostic, process-based models)** are not in good agreement with observational-
186 based evidence (Friedlingstein et al., 2022). Never has it been so urgent to improve
187 our understanding of the ocean carbon cycle.

188 Monitoring the ocean carbon cycle is key to improved understanding. His-
189 torically, ocean carbon cycle reservoirs and fluxes were monitored using *in-situ*
190 methods, collecting data from ship-based platforms (dedicated research cruises
191 and ships of opportunity), moorings and time-series stations (Karl and Winn,
192 1991; Raitsos et al., 2014; Bakker et al., 2016; Olsen et al., 2016). Since the
193 1970's satellite observations have been used (Gordon et al., 1980; Shutler et al.,
194 2019; Brewin et al., 2021) and recent years have seen the expansion of ocean
195 robotic platforms for monitoring ocean carbon cycles (Williams et al., 2015, 2017;
196 Gray et al., 2018; Chai et al., 2020; Claustre et al., 2020, 2021), both aiding the ex-
197 trapolation of local *in-situ* measurements to global scale. Each of these platforms
198 have advantages and disadvantages, and it is commonly accepted that an approach
199 integrating data from all platforms is required. There is also a need to use coupled
200 physical and biogeochemical modelling, with the *in-situ* and satellite data, to
201 estimate the pools and fluxes of carbon that are difficult to measure otherwise, at
202 the required temporal and spatial scales.

203 Satellites play a major role in our global carbon monitoring system. They are
204 the only platforms capable of viewing our entire surface ocean and the air-sea
205 boundary layer synoptically, at high temporal resolution. Consequently, the use
206 of satellites in ocean carbon research has been expanding exponentially over the
207 past 50 years (Figure 1a). However, satellite instrumentation can only view the
208 surface of the ocean (the actual depth the signal represents varies with wavelength
209 and water composition), are constrained to operate in certain conditions (e.g.,
210 passive visible systems are limited to cloud-free conditions and low to moderate
211 sun-zenith angles) and at certain spatial and temporal scales, and are limited to
212 collecting information that can be contained in electromagnetic radiation. To
213 make full use of satellite observations for ocean carbon monitoring the remote-
214 sensing community needs to work closely with *in-situ* data experts, physical and
215 biogeochemical modellers, Earth system scientists, climate scientists and marine
216 policy experts.

217 With this in mind, the European Space Agency (ESA) with support from
218 the US National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), organised a

219 virtual workshop called "Ocean Carbon from Space" in February 2022, building
220 on a successful workshop organised in 2016 (Colour and Light in the ocean from
221 Earth Observation; Sathyendranath et al., 2017a; Martinez-Vicente et al., 2020),
222 and findings from a wide range of international initiatives (e.g., NASA EXport
223 Processes in the Ocean from Remote Sensing (EXPORTS), ESA Ocean Science
224 Cluster, ESA Climate Change Initiative (CCI), various European Commission
225 Carbon Initiatives (e.g. Copernicus, such as [the Ocean Colour Thematic Assembly
226 Center \(OC TAC\) and the Multi Observations Thematic Assembly Center \(MOB
227 TAC\)](#), the Surface Ocean Lower Atmosphere Study (SOLAS), the Blue Carbon
228 Initiative, the Global Carbon Project, International Carbon Observing System¹).
229 The workshop was also part of the Committee on Earth Observation Satellites
230 (CEOS) workplan on Aquatic Carbon (CEOS, 2021). The theme of the workshop
231 was on ocean carbon, its pools and fluxes, its variability in space and time, and the
232 understanding of its processes and interactions with the Earth system. The goal
233 of the workshop was to bring leading experts together, including remote-sensing
234 scientists, field scientists and modellers, to describe the current status of the field,
235 and identify gaps in knowledge and priorities for research. In this paper, we
236 synthesize and consolidate these discussions and produce a scientific roadmap
237 for the next decade, with an emphasis on evaluating where and how satellite
238 remote sensing can contribute to the monitoring of the ocean carbon cycle. [With a
239 growing human population that is dependent on the blue economy sectors \(OECD,
240 2016\)](#), as well as climate, we envisage [this roadmap will help guide future efforts
241 to monitor ocean carbon from space.](#)

¹see <https://oceanexports.org/>; <https://eo4society.esa.int/communities/scientists/esa-ocean-science-cluster/>; <https://climate.esa.int/en/>; <https://www.copernicus.eu/en>
<https://www.thebluecarboninitiative.org/>; <https://www.globalcarbonproject.org/>; <https://www.icos-cp.eu/>; <https://www.solas-int.org/about/solas.html>

242 **2. Workshop details and approach to capture collective view of the status of**
243 **the field**

244 *2.1. Ocean Carbon from Space Workshop*

245 The "Ocean Carbon from Space Workshop" (<https://oceancarbonfromspace2022.esa.int/>) was organised by a committee of 15 international scientists, led by ESA
246 within the framework of the Biological Pump and Carbon Exchange Processes
247 (BICEP) project (<https://bicep-project.org>) with support from NASA. In addition
248 to this organising committee, a scientific committee of 31 international experts on
249 the topic of ocean carbon were assembled, who helped structure the sessions and
250 review abstracts. These committees initially proposed a series of sessions, target-
251 ing 16 themes, covering: the pools of carbon in the ocean (including particulate
252 organic carbon, phytoplankton carbon, particulate inorganic carbon, dissolved
253 organic carbon, and carbon chemistry, including dissolved inorganic carbon);
254 the main processes (including marine primary production, export production,
255 air-sea exchanges, and land-sea exchanges); and crosscutting themes (including
256 the underwater light field, uncertainty estimates, freshwater carbon, blue carbon,
257 extreme events, tipping points and impacts on carbon, climate variability and
258 change, and the ocean carbon budget).

260 The workshop was widely advertised, through a variety of means, including:
261 email distribution lists; through international bodies like the International Ocean
262 Colour Coordinating Group (IOCCG) and SOLAS networks; space agencies;
263 and through social media platforms. Scientists and stakeholders working in the
264 field of ocean carbon were invited to submit abstracts to the 16 themes and to
265 participate in the workshop. The organising committee also identified key experts
266 in the field who were invited to give keynote presentations.

267 A total of 98 abstracts were submitted to the workshop, and based on the
268 topics of these abstracts, the workshop was organised into six sessions combining
269 various themes as needed, and covering:

- 270 • Primary Production (PP),
- 271 • Particulate Organic Carbon (POC),

- 272 • Phytoplankton Carbon (C-phyto),
- 273 • Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC),
- 274 • Inorganic Carbon and fluxes at the ocean interface (IC),
- 275 • Cross-cutting themes with three sessions;
 - 276 – Blue Carbon (BC),
 - 277 – Extreme Events (EEs),
 - 278 – Carbon Budget Closure (CBC).

279 The organisation committee identified chairs for each session, and abstracts were
280 reviewed by the organisation and scientific committees and assigned to oral or
281 e-poster presentations. E-poster presentations were delivered through breakout
282 rooms to help promote discussions. Each session included keynote speakers, oral
283 presentations and importantly, time for discussing gaps in knowledge, priorities,
284 and challenges. There were four poster sessions covering the six themes of the
285 workshop. Participants were encouraged to upload their presentations or e-poster
286 (under the form of a 1-3 slides presentation) prior to the conference start to
287 facilitate knowledge exchange and prepare for workshop discussions.

288 The workshop took place from 14th to 18th February 2022, following the
289 international day of women and girls in science. Due to COVID restrictions,
290 an online format was preferred (using the webex video conferencing software;
291 <https://www.webex.com>), which resulted in a flexible schedule and programme
292 designed to accommodate participants from different regions and time zones,
293 and flexible working (e.g., child care responsibilities). A total of 449 people
294 from a wide geographical spread (Figure 1b) participated. Gender was not asked
295 at registration for privacy concerns, but interpretation of registered participants
296 suggested around 47 % were female and 53 % male (Figure 1c; acknowledging
297 not everyone identifies as female or male), reflecting an increasing participa-
298 tion of female scientists in ocean carbon science. Gender balance is important,
299 as it has been shown that scientific research is more accurate when gender is

300 considered, that research teams are more likely to come up with new ideas and
301 perspectives, and that at present, men significantly outnumber women in the sci-
302 ence, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) workforce (Bert, 2018).
303 Orcutt and Cetinić (2019) discuss gender balance in oceanography and provide
304 ten useful recommendations on how we can progress towards better gender bal-
305 ance. More broadly, increased diversity promotes innovation, productivity, critical
306 thinking, creativity, communication, social justice and sustainability (Phillips,
307 2014; Johri et al., 2021). Given the importance of improving diversity in Earth
308 Sciences, particularly in oceanography where problems have persisted (Garza,
309 2021), more members of under-represented groups are needed in the study of the
310 ocean carbon cycle. Efforts such as Unlearning Racism in Geosciences (URGE;
311 <https://urgescience.medium.com/>) and public celebrations of diversity (e.g.,
312 Royal Society celebration of Black science, see [https://royalsociety.org/topics-
313 policy/diversity-in-science/a-celebration-of-black-science/](https://royalsociety.org/topics-policy/diversity-in-science/a-celebration-of-black-science/)) will help in this re-
314 gard, but more effort is needed.

315 2.2. *Tools and approaches to capture collective view*

316 A series of tools and approaches were used to capture the collective view of
317 the community and identify the major gaps, challenges, and priorities, that fed
318 into this scientific roadmap.

319 Firstly, session chairs were asked to prepare statements on the main scientific
320 challenges, gaps, and opportunities of their session theme, prior to the start of
321 the conference. All presenters (e-poster and oral) were also asked to include one
322 slide about knowledge gaps and priorities for next steps on their work over the
323 next decade. These statements were then used by session chairs to help structure
324 the discussion slot organised at the end of each session. A final discussion session
325 was held at the end of the workshop, whereby all session chairs were asked to
326 join a panel to identify overarching themes.

327 All sessions were recorded through Webex. Throughout the workshop, we
328 used *Padlet* software (<https://en-gb.padlet.com>), a cloud-based, real-time collabo-
329 rative web platform which allowed participants to interact and upload thoughts
330 they had on the scientific challenges, gaps, and opportunities for each session,

331 comment on those suggested by the chairs and other participants, all within virtual
332 bulletin boards called "padlets". Following the closure of the workshop, session
333 chairs were asked to provide a written synthesis of the main outcome of their
334 sessions.

335 All scientific priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities identified and
336 discussed during the workshop, were organised into:

- 337 • Session-specific themes,
- 338 • Common themes,
- 339 • Emerging concerns and broader thoughts.

340 For the reader wanting to focus on recommendations for the entire subject, we
341 suggest you go to Section 5 and 6 of the paper. Table 1 provides an overview of
342 the session-specific themes of the paper and a guide to navigate this scientific
343 roadmap, and Table 2 provides a selection of recently launched and upcoming
344 satellite sensors with applications in ocean carbon research and monitoring.

345 3. Session-specific theme outcomes

346 In the following sections, we begin by providing a brief description of each
347 session-specific theme, then briefly highlight the current state of the art, and finally
348 focus on the identified priorities, scientific challenges, gaps, and opportunities, to
349 be targeted over the next decade. We define these terms according to:

- 350 • **Priority:** Something that is considered very important and must be dealt
351 with before other things,
- 352 • **Challenge:** Something that requires great effort to be achieved,
- 353 • **Gap:** Something lacking or missing and required to make progress,
- 354 • **Opportunity:** A situation that makes it possible to make progress.

355 *3.1. Primary production (PP)*

356 Primary production (photosynthesis) channels energy from sunlight into ocean
357 life, converting DIC, in the form of CO₂, into phytoplankton tissue (e.g., C-phyto)
358 that then fuels ocean food webs. In discussions about the role of phytoplankton in
359 the carbon cycle, it is useful to consider the different components of PP. Carbon
360 fixed through photosynthesis, before any loss terms are detected, is referred to as
361 gross PP. When phytoplankton respiratory losses are subtracted from gross PP, we
362 get net PP. When all the losses to PP required to meet the metabolic requirements
363 of the entire community are taken away, then we are left with net community
364 production. It is also common practice to partition PP into new production (i.e.,
365 PP driven by allochthonous nutrient input), and regenerated production (i.e., PP
366 sustained by locally available nutrients), with the sum of the two yielding gross
367 PP. It is often difficult, if not impossible, to match these exact theoretical and
368 conceptual definitions with practical observations, because of the limitations
369 of the tools available. But, when dealing with estimates of PP from carbon
370 incubation techniques, it is generally accepted that short incubations of about
371 one hour are close to gross PP, whereas longer incubations of one day are close
372 to net PP. If we adopt this operational definition, then PP calculations that are
373 based on photosynthesis-irradiance experiments carried out over periods of one
374 or two hours, are treated as gross PP (especially since these measurements are
375 typically corrected for dark respiration measured during the experiment), and PP
376 measurements that extend over a whole day (24 hours) approach net PP.

377 On the other hand, PP estimated, often indirectly, over seasonal time scales
378 are close to new production. It is also common in the literature to discuss export
379 production, which is that component of PP that is transported below a particular
380 depth horizon deep in the water column, and thereby removed from the oceanic
381 mixed layer, and hence isolated from interactions with the atmosphere. Export
382 production and new production are sometimes treated as being equivalent to
383 each other, but in reality, the depth horizon used for computations of export
384 production is relevant to discussions of time scales that are applicable, before the
385 exported production, or the regenerated carbon and nutrients associated with that

386 production, reappears at the surface. The deeper the depth horizon, the longer the
387 time scale of isolation. The time scale associated with that component of export
388 production that reaches the bottom of the water column and gets buried there, is
389 of the order of millions of years.

390 Total net PP is approximately the same on land and in the ocean (~
391 50 Gt C yr⁻¹; Longhurst et al., 1995; Field et al., 1998; Bar-On et al., 2018).
392 By removing CO₂ from surrounding waters, PP lowers the ambient CO₂ concen-
393 tration in surface waters, which can potentially lead to a drawdown of CO₂ from
394 the atmosphere. In doing so, PP can influence climate. The magnitude of any
395 climate effect of PP depends, however, on the fate of the phytoplankton produced
396 through PP. Only when the reduction in surface ocean *p*CO₂ is maintained over
397 time can it lead to a lasting drawdown of CO₂. In practice, PP can only have a
398 long-term impact on climate when its products are removed from surface waters
399 through the ocean’s organic carbon “pumps” (Volk and Hoffert, 1985; Boyd et al.,
400 2019). The “biological pump”, whereby organic material is transported to below
401 the permanent thermocline is largely driven by “new” production (Dugdale and
402 Goering, 1967), i.e., PP driven by allochthonous nutrient input (which is sensitive
403 to stoichiometry and nutrient availability). To quantify the effect of ocean PP in
404 global carbon cycling and, thereby, climate development, there is therefore a need
405 to develop mechanisms to differentiate between total (gross) and new PP in the
406 ocean (Brewin et al., 2021).

407 3.1.1. State of the art in PP

408 Satellite algorithms of PP have a long-established history, dating back over
409 40-years, to the time when the first ocean-colour satellite (the Coastal Zone Color
410 Scanner, CZCS) became available (Smith et al., 1982; Platt and Herman, 1983).
411 Some initial attempts were made to convert fields of chlorophyll-a directly into
412 PP (Smith et al., 1982; Brown et al., 1985; Eppley et al., 1985; Lohrenz et al.,
413 1988), before approaches based on first principles were established, utilising
414 in addition to information on chlorophyll-a concentration, information on bulk
415 and spectral light availability (now available through satellite Photosynthetically
416 Available Radiation (PAR) products), on the response of the phytoplankton to

417 the available light (parameters of the photosynthesis-irradiance curve), and en-
418 vironmental data such as day length (e.g., Platt et al., 1980; Platt and Herman,
419 1983; Platt et al., 1990; Platt and Sathyendranath, 1988; Sathyendranath and Platt,
420 1989). The first global estimates were computed in the mid-1990's (Longhurst
421 et al., 1995; Antoine et al., 1996; Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997a), arriving at
422 values of around 50 Gt C y⁻¹, consistent with current estimates (Carr et al., 2006;
423 Buitenhuis et al., 2013; Kulk et al., 2020, 2021). Whereas many of the modern
424 techniques can differ in implementation, they have been shown to conform to the
425 same basic formulation, with the same set of parameters (Sathyendranath and
426 Platt, 2007), with some going beyond total PP, and partitioning it into different
427 phytoplankton size-classes (e.g., Uitz et al., 2010, 2012; Brewin et al., 2017b).
428 For a review of these approaches, the reader is referred to the classical works
429 of Platt and Sathyendranath (1993), that of Behrenfeld and Falkowski (1997b),
430 Sathyendranath and Platt (2007), Sathyendranath et al. (2020), Section 4.2.1. of
431 Brewin et al. (2021), and the recent review of Westberry et al. (2023). For a review
432 of operational satellite radiation products for ocean biology and biogeochemistry
433 and a roadmap for improving existing products and developing new products,
434 see Frouin et al. (2018). The reader is also referred to the huge efforts made by
435 NASA over the past 20 years to evaluate and improve these satellite algorithms
436 (Campbell et al., 2002; Carr et al., 2006; Friedrichs et al., 2009; Saba et al., 2010,
437 2011; Lee et al., 2015). The process of evaluating remote sensing algorithms
438 with *in-situ* data is frequently referred to as "validation" in the remote sensing
439 community. NASA PP validation activities have highlighted variations in model
440 performance with region and season (root mean square deviations of between 0.2
441 to 0.5 in log₁₀ space, when compared with *in-situ* data), illustrating the importance
442 of minimising the uncertainties in model inputs and parameters, and in knowing
443 the uncertainties in the *in-situ* measurements used for validation.

444 Following presentations and discussions on PP at the workshop, five key
445 priorities were identified. These are summarised in Table 3 and include: 1)
446 parametrisation of satellite algorithms using *in-situ* data; 2) uncertainty estimation
447 of satellite algorithms and validation; 3) linking surface satellite measurements to

448 the vertical distribution; 4) trends; and 5) **fundamental understanding**.

449 3.1.2. *PP priority 1: Parametrisation of satellite algorithms using in-situ data*

450 **Challenges:** Considering that most satellite **PP** models conform to the same
451 principles (Sathyendranath and Platt, 2007), a major challenge to the research
452 community is to improve our understanding of the spatial and temporal variability
453 in the model parameters, **which** will be key to improving accuracy of satellite **PP**
454 models (Platt et al., 1992). The continuation of existing sampling campaigns and
455 expansion to under-represented regions, is subject to financial support for *in-situ*
456 observations, particularly ship-based research cruises, considering that many **PP**
457 measurements require specialised equipment, not suitable for automation. Given
458 the declining fleet of research vessels in many regions (e.g., Kintisch, 2013), new
459 solutions are needed, with sustained funding.

460 Another challenge is that *in-situ* data on **PP** and model parameters are often
461 collected in a non-standardised way, with differing conversion factors and proto-
462 cols, and differing ancillary measurements, with limited information on the light
463 environment, for both the experimental set-ups as well as the *in-situ* data (Platt
464 et al., 2017). There are many ways **PP** can be measured (see Sathyendranath et al.,
465 2019b; Church et al., 2019; IOCCG Protocol Series, 2022), and to convert **among**
466 methods is not straight-forward, **especially considering methods measure different**
467 **types of PP (gross, net and new)**, though some studies have shown promise in this
468 regard (e.g., Regaudie-de Gioux et al., 2014; Kovač et al., 2016, 2017; Mattei and
469 Scardi, 2021). There is a clear challenge to develop better protocols and standards
470 for **PP** data collection. Recent efforts by the IOCCG have made some progress
471 (IOCCG Protocol Series, 2022).

472 A further challenge with developing and validating satellite algorithms stems
473 from the fact that **PP** (a time varying rate) is estimated from an instant satellite
474 snapshot in time. The time variability of PAR, biomass and the possible variability
475 in photosynthetic parameters must be modelled. Meanwhile these all have diurnal
476 variability. **As a result of many of these challenges, satellite PP algorithms do not**
477 **always agree with one another (Siegel et al., 2023).**

478 **Gaps:** Although large efforts have been made in recent years to compile

479 global *in-situ* datasets of the parameters of the photosynthesis-irradiance curve
480 (e.g., Richardson et al., 2016; Bouman et al., 2018), relatively few measurements
481 of photosynthesis-irradiance curve parameters exists globally, with many regions
482 (e.g., Indian Ocean, Southern Ocean and central Pacific) being under-represented
483 (Kulk et al., 2020), and some hard to reach (e.g., Polar seas). Challenges to *in-situ*
484 data collection (e.g. lack of adequate funding) and compilation have meant there
485 are very few stations with continuous *in-situ* measurements of PP and related
486 parameters. As the ocean colour time-series approaches a length needed for
487 climate change studies (~40 years; Henson et al., 2010; Sathyendranath et al.,
488 2019a), this may impact our ability to verify climate trends in PP detected from
489 space (see PP priority 5). There are gaps in coordination at the international
490 level that if filled, would greatly benefit the systematic and sustained collection
491 of *in-situ* measurements on PP. Many remote sensing algorithms of PP rely on
492 a knowledge of photosynthesis-irradiance curve parameters. Consequently, the
493 algorithms are only as accurate as the coverage (both spatial and temporal) of
494 these *in-situ* parameters. They are also likely to be sensitive to climate change, so
495 it is important to keep updating the *in-situ* databases. There is also a strong spatial
496 bias (North America and Europe) in existing estuarine *in-situ* PP measurements
497 (Cloern et al., 2014).

498 **Opportunities:** By capitalising on an expanding network of novel and au-
499 tonomous *in-situ* platforms, there are opportunities to improve the quantity of
500 measurements of PP, by harnessing active fluorescence-based methods (IOCCG
501 Protocol Series, 2022), such as Fast Repetition Rate (FRR) fluorometry (Kolber
502 and Falkowski, 1993; Kolber et al., 1998; Gorbunov et al., 2000) and Fluorescence
503 Induction and Relaxation (FIRe) techniques (Gorbunov et al., 2020). In fact, vari-
504 able fluorescence techniques are increasingly being used to assess phytoplankton
505 photosynthesis (see Gorbunov and Falkowski, 2020). There are challenges in
506 interpreting these data (Gorbunov and Falkowski, 2020), and differences between
507 FRR and ¹⁴C PP can be large (Corno et al., 2006). However, as these are op-
508 tical measurements that can be collected in real time, they are well suited to
509 autonomous platforms (Carvalho et al., 2020). For a recent review on the topic see

510 Schuback et al. (2021). Dissolved oxygen measurements, derived from oxygen
511 optode sensors on autonomous platforms, can be used to estimate and quantify
512 photosynthesis and respiration rates (Addey, 2022), as well as to quantify gross
513 oxygen production that can be used to constrain net PP estimates (Odum, 1956;
514 Barone et al., 2019; Johnson and Bif, 2021). Johnson and Bif (2021) used diurnal
515 oxygen cycles from BGC-Argo floats to estimate global net PP at 53 Gt C yr⁻¹, by
516 assuming a fixed ratio of net to gross PP (as many net PP methods do). As high-
517 lighted by the authors, the ratio of net to gross PP, however, varies considerably,
518 in ways that are poorly understood. The diurnal oxygen method has also seen
519 extensive application in estuarine and other coastal waters (e.g., Caffrey, 2004).
520 Such estimates require high temporal resolution sampling, to observe the entire
521 daily cycle (both night and day). Open data policies are key to maximising use of
522 these datasets.

523 A multi-platform approach to combining discrete *in-situ* measurements, with
524 those from autonomous *in-situ* platforms and satellite data, could offer synergistic
525 benefits, providing the different scales of the observations, and differences in
526 measurement techniques can be bridged (Cronin et al., 2022). There are also op-
527 portunities to encourage and support existing time-series stations (e.g., Bermuda
528 Atlantic Time-series Study (BATS), Hawaii Ocean Time-series (HOT), Western
529 Channel Observatory (WCO) Station L4, Carbon Retention in a Colored Ocean
530 Time-Series (CARIACO), Line P, Porcupine Abyssal Plain, Blanes Bay Microbial
531 Observatory, Long Term Ecological Research (LTER) sites, and Stončica) to
532 continue to make high-quality *in-situ* measurements of PP as well as the model
533 parameters necessary for implementation of PP and photoacclimation models.
534 There are opportunities to use artificial intelligence, such as machine learning,
535 to help in this regard (e.g., see Huang et al., 2021), which has proven useful for
536 estimating net PP from space in estuaries (Xu et al., 2022). There are oppor-
537 tunities to encourage pathways to commercial partnerships and technological
538 innovation as science questions call for operational *in-situ* sensors and platforms,
539 to target hard to access or currently unattainable ocean carbon properties and key
540 PP parameters.

541 There are opportunities to exploit the ability of geostationary platforms
542 (e.g. Geostationary Ocean Color Imager (GOCI) and Geosynchronous Littoral
543 Imaging and Monitoring Radiometer (GLIMR)), to resolve diurnal variability
544 in light (PAR) and biomass. Such sensors are also able to gather considerably
545 more data for a given region than polar orbiting satellites (Feng et al., 2017). By
546 building on the international community engagement of the "Ocean Carbon from
547 Space" workshop, and that of other international initiatives (e.g., IOCCG), there
548 are opportunities to formulate priorities for funding, and to create the necessary
549 coordinating bodies, to address the challenges and gaps identified above.

550 3.1.3. PP priority 2: Uncertainty estimation of satellite algorithms and validation

551 **Challenges:** Assessment of satellite-based PP estimates is currently challeng-
552 ing, owing to the sparsity of *in-situ* data on PP and model parameters (limited in
553 spatial and temporal coverage and by costs), differences in the methods used for
554 *in-situ* data collection, differences in scales of *in situ* and satellite observations,
555 and a lack of availability of independent *in-situ* data to those used for model
556 tuning. Standard oceanographic cruises can be affected by extreme weather
557 conditions, particularly during fall and winter seasons. As a result, ship-based
558 observations are sparse and often biased towards the summer-season.

559 **Gaps:** Validation-based uncertainty estimates of satellite-derived PP products
560 are often not readily provided, and it is difficult to quantify model-based error
561 propagation methods (e.g., Brewin et al., 2017c). There are gaps in our under-
562 standing of the uncertainty in key parameters and variables used for input to PP
563 models. Other gaps exist relating to the nature of passive ocean-colour, such as
564 data gaps in satellite observations (e.g., cloud covered pixels, and coverage in
565 polar regions; Stock et al., 2020).

566 **Opportunities:** We are now at a point where the computational demand
567 of formal error propagation methods (going from errors in top-of-atmosphere
568 reflectance through to errors in PP model parameters) can be met, such that per-
569 pixel uncertainty estimates in satellite PP products could be computed (McKinna
570 et al., 2019). There are also opportunities to constrain PP estimates and reduce
571 uncertainties through harnessing emerging hyperspectral, lidar (with improved

572 vertical resolution over passive ocean colour) and geostationary sensors, that may
573 provide more information on the community composition of the phytoplankton
574 and their diel cycles (day-night cycles, a requirement being increased temporal
575 resolution), as well as information on the spectral attenuation of underwater
576 light, crucial for deriving PP. The synergistic usage of multiple satellites can be
577 an opportunity to improve input irradiance products to PP models. There are
578 also opportunities to use satellite sensors measuring light in the ultraviolet (UV)
579 to improve satellite PP estimates (Cullen et al., 2012; Oelker et al., 2022). For
580 improved uncertainty estimation, continuous validation is crucial, as is quantifying
581 uncertainties in model parameters. Autonomous platforms and active ocean colour
582 remote sensing (lidar) may offer opportunities to help in this regard.

583 3.1.4. PP priority 3: Linking surface satellite measurements to the vertical 584 distribution

585 **Challenges:** Considering passive ocean-colour satellites only view a portion
586 of the euphotic zone (the first penetration depth), resolving the vertical structure
587 of all satellite-based carbon pools and fluxes is challenging, but none more so than
588 that of PP. There are challenges in the requirements to know vertical variations
589 in the phytoplankton biomass (e.g., Chlorophyll-a, hereafter denoted Chl-a), the
590 physiological status (e.g., photoacclimation) of the phytoplankton (e.g., through
591 the parameters of the photosynthesis-irradiance curve), and the magnitude, angular
592 structure, and spectral nature of the underwater light field. For example, due to
593 wind-dependending wave-induced light focusing, there can be extreme short-term
594 variability in PAR near the surface, with irradiance peaks > 15 times the average
595 (Hieronymi and Macke, 2012) in visible, UV-A and UV-B spectral ranges, with
596 implications for phytoplankton photosynthesis.

597 **Gaps:** Our understanding of this vertical variability is impeded by the sparsity
598 of *in-situ* observations on vertical structure. Ideally, we require observations at the
599 equivalent spatial and temporal scale to that of the satellite data, for successfully
600 extrapolating the surface fields to depth. There are also gaps in vertical physical
601 data, and in their uncertainties, at equivalent scales to the satellite observations,
602 such as the mixed-layer depth.

603 **Opportunities:** There are future opportunities to improve our basic under-
604 standing of vertical structure by tapping into existing and planned arrays of
605 autonomous *in-situ* platforms, such as the global array of Biogeochemical (BGC)
606 - Argo floats (Johnson et al., 2009; Claustre et al., 2020; Cornec et al., 2021;
607 Addey, 2022) and also the physical Argo array for fields of mixed-layer depth
608 and sub-surface temperature, with the help of statistical modelling (e.g., Foster
609 et al., 2021). Other technologies are also expected to improve understanding of
610 vertical structure, such as moorings and ice tethered and towed undulating plat-
611 forms (Laney et al., 2014; Bracher et al., 2020; Stedmon et al., 2021; Von Appen
612 et al., 2021). These platforms may help us improve our understanding of the
613 vertical distribution of parameters and variables relevant for PP modelling, such
614 as chlorophyll (acknowledging potential vertical changes in fluorescence quantum
615 yield efficiency), backscattering and light. Future satellite lidar systems will be
616 capable of viewing the ocean surface up to three optical depths, improving the
617 vertical resolution of ocean colour products.

618 3.1.5. PP priority 4: Trends

619 **Challenges:** Detecting trends in PP is a major challenge to our research
620 community. A recent report by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
621 (IPCC, 2019) expressed low confidence in satellite-based trends in marine PP.

622 **Gaps:** The reasons the IPCC report cited this low confidence were related
623 to the fact that the length of satellite ocean colour record is not sufficient yet for
624 climate change studies, and the lack of corroborating trends in *in-situ* data (see
625 PP priority 1) (IPCC, 2019). Additionally, there are gaps in uncertainty estimates
626 for satellite-based products (see PP priority 3), needed to quantify the significance
627 of any such trends.

628 **Opportunities:** To meet these challenges, and fill these gaps, there has been
629 significant work over the past decade to create consistent and continuous satellite
630 records for climate research (e.g., Sathyendranath et al., 2019a). As we approach
631 the point at which the length of satellite ocean colour record will be sufficient for
632 climate change studies, we can build on this work and harness these systems that
633 have been put in place, merging future ocean colour sensors with current and past

634 **sensors** (e.g., Yang et al., 2022a). There are also opportunities to bring satellite
635 data and models together, for example, using data assimilation, to improve our
636 confidence and understanding of **PP** trends (e.g., Gregg and Rousseaux, 2019) and
637 understand variability in **PP** and photoacclimation. There are also opportunities
638 to gain insight into the impacts of climate change on **PP**, by studying short-term
639 extreme events (see Section 4.2 and Le Grix et al., 2021).

640 3.1.6. *PP* priority 5: *Fundamental understanding*

641 **Challenges:** At the workshop, participants also identified some major chal-
642 lenges relating to our fundamental understanding of marine **PP**. These included:
643 the need to understand better the relationships **among PP**, phytoplankton com-
644 munity structure and physical-chemical environment (e.g. nutrient availability);
645 understand better feedbacks between physics and biology and how biology affects
646 the carbon cycle; understand better the fate of **PP** (e.g., secondary and export pro-
647 duction); and understand better the interactions **among the** different components
648 of the Earth System and how they influence marine primary productivity. As
649 stated earlier, for carbon cycle studies, there is a clear requirement to go beyond
650 **PP** and strive to quantify new production and net community production (e.g.,
651 Tilstone et al., 2015; Ford et al., 2021, 2022a,b).

652 **Gaps:** There are gaps in *in-situ* observations that if filled could help meet
653 some of these challenges (see **PP** priority 1). Additionally, meeting some of
654 these challenges may require higher spatial and temporal resolution products
655 than currently available, for example, to study diurnal variability. The need for
656 higher spatial and temporal resolution data also limits our ability to estimate **PP**
657 in coastal and inland waters, impeding our understanding of land-sea interactions
658 (Regnier et al., 2022) (see Section 4.1 for links to Blue Carbon).

659 There are also gaps in satellite information on datasets relevant to photochem-
660 ical reactions, mostly activated by UV light, impacting **PP** through photodegra-
661 dation of phytoplankton and the formation of UV absorbing compounds. High
662 spectral resolution data from satellite **are** also needed to improve **PP** modelling
663 (Antoine and Morel, 1996). Should such datasets become available, they will
664 require validation. Equipping autonomous platforms with hyperspectral sensors

665 could provide help in this regard (see priority 3). There are gaps in our under-
666 standing of controls on PP in the ocean by viruses and other microbes (Suttle
667 et al., 1990).

668 **Opportunities:** With greater emphasis placed on an Earth system approach,
669 to meet the challenges of the United Nations (UN) Ocean Decade, there are now
670 more opportunities for collaborative interdisciplinary research, which may help to
671 unify the integration of PP across interfaces, bringing together PP on land and in
672 the ocean. For example, there have been promising developments in tidal wetland
673 gross PP algorithms (Feagin et al., 2020). With increasing computation power,
674 there are also opportunities to merge/nest regionally tuned models for larger scale
675 estimates of PP. A shift from high performance computing to quantum computing
676 could lead to significant progress in this direction, as well as incorporation of
677 input data streams from molecular biology.

678 There are opportunities to harness novel algorithms and satellites (e.g.
679 Sentinel-5P, Sentinel-5, Sentinel-4, Plankton, Aerosol, Cloud, ocean Ecosys-
680 tem (PACE), see Table 2) that can provide enhanced information on the spectral
681 composition of underwater light field (e.g., for the retrieval of diffuse underwater
682 attenuation (K_d) of UV and short blue light for Tropospheric Monitoring Instru-
683 ment (TROPOMI) (Sentinel-5P) see Oelker et al., 2022). There is also potential
684 to go beyond the one waveband (490 nm) K_d products, as currently provided
685 operationally, to multi and hyperspectral K_d products, building on the capabilities
686 of S3-OLCI next generation missions and older generation satellites like the
687 Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MERIS), that have a suit of bands
688 in the visible range. Especially considering improved data storage and transfer
689 capabilities. There are also opportunities to use satellite instruments covering
690 the UV spectral range to give insight on the presence of UV absorbing pigments
691 and types of coloured dissolved organic matter (CDOM), which may provide
692 important information on photodegradation processes. Active-based lidar systems,
693 capable of viewing further into the water column, at day and night and at low sun
694 angles, and geostationary platforms, may offer opportunities to fill gaps in our
695 understanding of PP.

696 *3.2. Particulate Organic Carbon (POC)*

697 POC can be defined functionally as the organic carbon in a water sample that
698 is above $0.2\ \mu\text{m}$ in diameter (taken as the formal boundary between dissolved
699 and particulate substances). Globally, it is thought to be in the region of 2.3 -
700 4.0 Gt C in size (Stramska, 2009; CEOS, 2014; Galí et al., 2022), with around
701 0.58 - 1.3 Gt C in the upper mixed layer (Evers-King et al., 2017; Galí et al., 2022).
702 It is among the most dynamic pools of carbon in the ocean, and turns over at a
703 higher rate than any organic carbon pool on Earth (Sarmiento and Gruber, 2006).
704 It can be separated into living (e.g., phytoplankton, zooplankton, bacteria) and
705 non-living (e.g., detritus) organic carbon material.

706 *3.2.1. State of the art in POC*

707 Satellite remote-sensing of POC focuses typically on the use of ocean colour
708 data, and is among the more mature satellite ocean carbon products, with the
709 first satellite-based algorithm developed in the late 90's (Stramski et al., 1999).
710 Current algorithms include those that are: based on empirical band ratio or band-
711 differences in remote-sensing reflectance wavelengths; backscattering based;
712 backscattering and chlorophyll based; based on estimates of diffuse attenuation
713 (K_d); and based on a two-step relationship between diffuse attenuation and beam
714 attenuation. It is worth acknowledging the **inherent optical property (IOP)**-,
715 chlorophyll-, and K_d -based algorithms involve first deriving these inputs from
716 remote-sensing reflectance. For a recent review of these algorithms the reader
717 is referred to Section 4.1.3.1. of Brewin et al. (2021). The empirical algorithm
718 that links POC in the near-surface ocean to the blue-to-green reflectance band
719 ratio described in Stramski et al. (2008) has been used by NASA to generate the
720 standard global POC product from multiple satellite ocean colour missions, and in
721 some ESA POC initiatives (Evers-King et al., 2017). These standard algorithms
722 provided a tool for estimation of global and basin-scale reservoirs of POC in
723 the upper ocean layer (e.g., Stramska and Cieszyńska, 2015). Recently, a new
724 suite of ocean colour sensor-specific empirical algorithms intended for global
725 applications was proposed by Stramski et al. (2022) with a main goal to improve

726 POC estimates compared to current standard algorithms in waters with very
727 low POC (ultraoligotrophic environments, $< 0.04 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$) and relatively high
728 POC (above a few hundred mg m^{-3}). Intercomparison and validation exercises
729 have suggested the performance of satellite POC algorithms is comparable to, or
730 even better than, satellite estimates of chlorophyll-a (Evers-King et al., 2017),
731 among the more widely used ocean colour products. **The high performance in**
732 **satellite POC** is perhaps related to POC representing the entire pool of organic
733 particles (rather than just phytoplankton, as with Chl-a). However, a recent study
734 highlighted significant inconsistencies between satellite-retrieved POC and that
735 estimated from BGC-Argo float data at high-latitudes during the winter season
736 (Galí et al., 2022).

737 Six priority areas of POC were identified, that will be discussed separately
738 in this section, including: 1) *in-situ* measurement methodology; 2) *in-situ* data
739 compilation; 3) satellite algorithm retrievals; 4) partitioning into **size**; 5) vertical
740 profiles; and 6) biogeochemical processes and the biological carbon pump. Table
741 4 summarises these priorities, and their challenges, gaps and opportunities.

742 3.2.2. POC priority 1: *In-situ* measurement methodology

743 **Challenges:** The current filtration-based methodology that uses glass-fiber
744 filters (nominal porosity typically around $0.7 \mu\text{m}$, through the effective pore size
745 of glass-fibre filters is thought to be substantially smaller; Sheldon, 1972) for
746 retaining particles and measuring POC does not include all POC-bearing particles,
747 and hence does not determine the total POC. In particular, some fraction of
748 submicrometer POC-bearing particles is missed by this method (e.g., Nagata,
749 1986; Taguchi and Laws, 1988; Stramski, 1990; Lee et al., 1995), and these
750 small-sized particles can make significant contribution to total POC (e.g., Sharp,
751 1973; Fuhrman et al., 1989; Cho and Azam, 1990). Glass-fibre filters are also
752 subject to cell leakage and can cause breakage of cells due to the combined effects
753 of pressure sample loading, and needle-like microfiber ends (IOCCG Protocol
754 Series, 2021). Other sources of possible underestimation of total POC include
755 the loss of POC due to the impact of pressure differential across the filters (but
756 see Liu et al., 2005) and an underrepresentation of the contribution of relatively

757 rare large particles associated with a limited filtration volume (e.g., Goldman and
758 Dennett, 1985; Bishop, 1999; Gardner et al., 2003; Collos et al., 2014; McDonnell
759 et al., 2015). Thus, it is very important to report volumes filtered together with
760 POC concentrations. Differences in filter type, particle settling in bottles, and
761 breakage or leakage of phytoplankton and other cells, are other issues that can
762 cause errors in filtration-based methods.

763 Optical remote sensing (including ocean colour measurements from space) is
764 driven by all particles suspended in water, including particles which are missed
765 and/or underrepresented by the current filtration-based POC methodology (Davies
766 et al., 2021). Thus, there is a mismatch between *in-situ* POC measurements
767 through filtration and optical measurements that serve as a proxy of POC. The
768 missing portion of POC unaccounted for by the current filtration based POC
769 methodology is important to both the ocean biogeochemistry and ocean optics
770 that underlies ocean colour measurements from space.

771 While standardisation of POC methodology is generally desirable, there are
772 important interpretive challenges that must be recognized during the standardis-
773 ation process. In particular, while the recommendation to use DOC-absorption
774 correction to the standard filtration-based method will result in correction for
775 one known source of overestimation of the fraction of total POC that is strictly
776 retainable on the filters (Moran et al., 1999; Gardner et al., 2003; Cetinić et al.,
777 2012; Novak et al., 2018; IOCCG Protocol Series, 2021), the issue of known
778 sources of underestimation of total POC remains unresolved.

779 The fractional contributions to POC associated with differently-sized particles
780 and/or different types of particles (e.g., different groups or species of microorgan-
781 isms) are difficult to quantify and remain poorly known for natural polydisperse
782 and heterogenous assemblages of suspended particles.

783 **Gaps:** The current POC standard method does not account for both the artifi-
784 cial gains and losses of POC during collection of particles by filtration (Gardner
785 et al., 2003; Turnewitsch et al., 2007; IOCCG Protocol Series, 2021). With the
786 exception of size-based filtration (which has known limitations), no experimental
787 capabilities exist to partition total POC of natural particulate assemblages into

788 contributions by different size fractions and/or different types of particles which
789 play different roles in ocean biogeochemistry and carbon cycling. Another im-
790 portant gap is the lack of a certified reference material (CRM) for POC. A CRM
791 allows to estimate the accuracy of POC estimated by different laboratories and by
792 the same laboratory in different times and locations. Consequently, a CRM for
793 POC, if used by the community, would allow to reduce uncertainties in POC.

794 **Opportunities:** There are opportunities to advance and standardise the mea-
795 surement methodology of total POC to provide improved estimates. These
796 advancements can be brought about by including the portion of POC that is
797 unaccounted for by the current standard filtration-based method. This would
798 likely involve developing measurement capabilities aiming at quantification of
799 POC contributions associated with differently-sized particles and different particle
800 types based on combination of single-particle measurement techniques for particle
801 sizing, particle identification, and particle optical properties.

802 3.2.3. POC priority 2: *In-situ* data compilation

803 **Challenges:** There have been significant investments, at regional, federal and
804 international scale, into POC data collection (see Figure 1 of Evers-King et al.
805 (2017) for a map of global sampling coverage of *in-situ* POC data), which has
806 transformed our understanding of POC in the ocean. But there are challenges in
807 using these data for POC algorithm development and validation. The field-based
808 datasets are commonly compiled from data collected by different investigators on
809 many oceanographic expeditions covering a long period of time. The information
810 content available in documentation of various individual datasets is non-uniform
811 and does not always contain sufficient details about data acquisition and process-
812 ing methodology. This creates a risk that the compiled datasets are affected by
813 methodological inconsistencies across diverse subsets of data, including the poten-
814 tial presence of methodological bias in some data. The presence of methodological
815 bias is generally difficult to identify given the range of environmental variability,
816 especially when available details on data acquisition methods are limited and/or
817 there is a lack of replicate measurements (a CRM would help in this regard, see
818 POC priority 1). Thus, indiscriminate use of data for the algorithm development

819 and validation analyses is not advisable. These issues pose significant challenges
820 for assembling high-quality field datasets that meet the standards and objectives of
821 algorithm development or validation analyses including, for example, the process
822 of data quality control based on predefined set of inclusion and exclusion criteria
823 and assurance of environmental representativeness of datasets assembled for the
824 analysis of specific algorithms (e.g., global vs. regional; Stramski et al., 2022).
825 Best practices for data quality control have been improved significantly following
826 the recent publication of the IOCCG Particulate Organic Matter (POM) protocol
827 (IOCCG Protocol Series, 2021)

828 The common validation strategy that relies on comparisons of field-satellite
829 data matchups is not by itself sufficient to ensure rigorous assessment and under-
830 standing of various sources of uncertainties in satellite-derived POC products.
831 The deviations between field and satellite data matchups can occur for various
832 reasons such as spatial-temporal mismatch of data, uncertainties in both satellite
833 and *in-situ* measurements, atmospheric correction, and performance skills of the
834 in-water algorithm itself. In addition, the number of available data matchups is
835 often limited in various environments.

836 **Gaps:** While the documentation of data acquisition and processing methods
837 is often limited, especially in historical datasets, there are no standardised best-
838 practice guidelines to ensure consistency in data quality control and synthesis
839 efforts when larger datasets are compiled from various individual subsets of
840 data. There are also regions within the world's oceans, such as polar regions and
841 the Indian Ocean, where concurrently collected field data of POC and optical
842 properties are scarce, including the lack of temporal coverage over the entire
843 seasonal cycle.

844 **Opportunities:** Further efforts related to POC algorithm development and
845 validation can benefit from careful scrutiny of historical and future data to min-
846 imize the risk of using biased data and ensure that the analyses are conducted
847 using data with consistently high quality and are accompanied with sufficiently
848 detailed documentation on data acquisition and processing methods. These ef-
849 forts can be facilitated through further improvements and standardisation of best

850 practices for documentation, quality control, sharing, and submission of data into
851 database archives. Such practices are expected to lead to better data quality, data
852 interpretation, and uncertainty assessments (IOCCG Protocol Series, 2021).

853 There is a need to continue field programs in which concurrent POC and
854 optical data are acquired across diverse environments including those that have
855 been severely under-sampled in the past.

856 3.2.4. POC priority 3: Satellite algorithm retrievals

857 **Challenges:** There can be a high level of complexity and variability of water
858 optical properties and water constituent composition including POC-bearing
859 particles, especially in coastal regions and inland waters (where non-algal particles
860 are more prevalent), which are highly susceptible to land effects and re-suspension
861 of sediments from shallow bottom. This makes it very difficult to develop a unified
862 approach to provide reliable POC retrievals from optical remote sensing along
863 the continuum of diverse optical/biogeochemical environments from open ocean
864 to coastal and inland water bodies.

865 Standard global POC products are generated indiscriminately with respect to
866 optical water types or the optical composition of water. Hence, this product is
867 generated for a wide range of environmental situations, including the conditions
868 outside the intended scope of global algorithms, which implies unknown and po-
869 tentially large uncertainties. An inter-mission consistency of POC satellite-based
870 products is required to support long-term climate data records. To successfully
871 harness new satellite geostationary and hyperspectral data (e.g., GLIMR, **Pre-**
872 **cursoro IperSpettrale della Missione Applicativa (PRISMA)**, PACE), there are
873 challenges associated with appropriate atmospheric correction schemes, that can
874 deal with large solar zenith and viewing angles for geostationary sensors, and
875 spectral consistency for hyperspectral sensors.

876 **Gaps:** The current routine process of generating standard global POC products
877 from global empirical algorithms either lack the mechanistically-based flags
878 associated with ocean properties or optical water types to prevent the application
879 of algorithms beyond their intended use, or where flags do exist, their usage is
880 often not clarified and they are often not accurate. Clear and accurate flags are

881 needed to **guide users on product uncertainties and applications**. The need for
882 appropriate flags to prevent the use of algorithms outside their scope is broadly
883 relevant, for example, it applies also to regional algorithms (McKinna et al.,
884 2019).

885 There is a lack of advanced algorithms based on adaptive approaches that in-
886 corporate mechanistic principles on the interaction of light with water constituents
887 and associated optical water typologies, but the workshop saw the emergence
888 of such methods, which is a promising sign. For example, algorithms that dis-
889 criminate the water bodies based on varying composition of organic and mineral
890 particles are required to enable reliable POC retrievals across diverse environ-
891 ments including the optically-complex coastal water bodies (Loisel et al., 2007;
892 Woźniak et al., 2010; Reynolds et al., 2016).

893 **Opportunities:** Recent development of a new suite of empirical satellite
894 sensor-specific global POC algorithms provide the opportunity for further testing,
895 validation, analysis of inter-mission consistency, and ultimately an implementation
896 of next-generation algorithms for routine production of a refined global POC
897 product (Stramski et al., 2022).

898 The analysis of POC reservoir and its spatial-temporal dynamics is expected to
899 be enhanced by increased availability and use of geostationary and hyperspectral
900 satellite data (e.g., GLIMR, PRISMA, PACE) along with *in-situ* data.

901 3.2.5. POC priority 4: Partitioning into *size*

902 **Challenges:** The particle size distribution (PSD) is an important link between
903 ecosystem structure and function on the one hand, and optical properties on
904 the other, as it affects both. Phytoplankton cell size is a key trait, and size
905 fractions are closely related to functional types (Le Quéré et al., 2005; Marañón,
906 2015). **Monitoring the size distribution of particles in the ocean can provide**
907 **information on how carbon flows through the marine food-web, and how much**
908 **carbon is exported out of the euphotic zone, both useful for carbon management**
909 **strategies**. One of the most challenging, yet important tasks moving forward
910 is to develop understanding of the different functional and/or size partitions of
911 POC. Bulk POC does not give a full picture of the ecosystem or its role in

912 biogeochemical cycles. In addition, empirical POC satellite algorithms assume
913 certain relationships between POC and optical properties. These relationships
914 can change if basic characteristics of the POC change, such as its particle size
915 distribution (PSD) or the fraction of total POC due to living phytoplankton. For
916 example, the POC-specific backscattering coefficient can change if the PSD of
917 POC changes, and the POC-specific absorption spectra can change if the living
918 carbon:POC ratio changes (e.g., Stramski et al., 1999; Loisel et al., 2001; Balch
919 et al., 2010; Woźniak et al., 2010; Cetinić et al., 2012; Reynolds et al., 2016;
920 Kostadinov et al., 2016; Johnson et al., 2017; Koestner et al., 2021; Kostadinov
921 et al., 2022).

922 Notwithstanding the operational limitations of what constitutes POC and dis-
923 solved substances within the submicrometer size range, the particle assemblages
924 in the near surface ocean are exceedingly complex, which makes this challenge
925 particularly difficult to address. In addition, both forward and inverse modelling
926 of the optical properties of the ocean entirely from first principles are not feasible
927 currently. The range from truly dissolved substances to particles such as large
928 zooplankton and beyond span many orders of magnitude in size and are governed
929 by different optical regimes, which makes it difficult, for example, to identify,
930 quantify, and separate the various sources of optical backscattering in the ocean
931 (Stramski et al., 2004; Clavano et al., 2007; Stemmann and Boss, 2012).

932 In terms of functional fractions, POC can be considered to consist of phyto-
933 plankton, heterotrophic bacteria, zooplankton, and organic detritus (of marine
934 or terrestrial origin). In terms of size fractions, ideally the PSD of POC and its
935 various functional components should be measured *in situ*. There are theoretical
936 considerations indicating that the marine bulk PSD, spanning several orders of
937 magnitude in size, can follow, to first approximation, a power-law with a certain
938 slope (e.g., Kerr, 1974; Kiefer and Berwald, 1992; Jackson, 1995; Rinaldo et al.,
939 2002; Brown et al., 2004; Hatton et al., 2021). The power-law approximation of
940 marine PSD was used in numerous studies involving experimental data of PSD
941 (e.g., Bader, 1970; Sheldon et al., 1972; Jackson et al., 1997; Jonasz and Fournier,
942 2007; Buonassissi and Dierssen, 2010; Clements et al., 2022) and satellite-based

943 estimation of PSD (Kostadinov et al., 2009, 2010, 2016, 2022). However, there
944 is a challenge associated with the use of power-law approximation because ma-
945 rine PSDs commonly exhibit some features across different size ranges, such as
946 distinct peaks, shoulders, valleys, and changes in slope, which can result in signif-
947 icant deviations of PSD from a single-slope power function. Such deviations were
948 demonstrated in many measurements of PSD in different oceanic environments
949 (e.g., Jonasz, 1983; Risović, 1993; Bernard et al., 2007; Reynolds et al., 2010;
950 White et al., 2015; Organelli et al., 2020; Reynolds and Stramski, 2021).

951 Finally, optically complex coastal waters present an additional challenge in
952 that allochthonous and autochthonous sources of POC may be mixed, for example,
953 due to riverine input, making the task of separating POC by functional fractions
954 with known or assumed optical properties or PSD more challenging.

955 **Gaps:** There is a dearth of concurrent data on POC, PSD and carbon data for
956 the components that make up the POC (e.g., phytoplankton carbon). This is a
957 major limiting factor for satellite algorithm development.

958 **Opportunities:** There is an opportunity to exploit upcoming hyperspectral
959 and polarization remote-sensing data. *For example, the degree of linear polariza-*
960 *tion may provide information on the bulk refractive index of particles (Zhai and*
961 *Twardowski, 2021).* However, to do so requires efforts directed toward progress
962 in basic research into how POC is partitioned into its various components. It
963 is important to include measurements of PSD in future POC field campaigns
964 globally, and in the compilation of global, quality-controlled datasets for algo-
965 rithm development. Further studies of non-parametric descriptors of PSD are
966 desirable because they offer superior performance compared with the power law
967 approximation for representing the contributions of different size fractions to PSD
968 across a wide diversity of marine environments (Reynolds and Stramski, 2021).
969 Satellite-based approaches to monitoring zooplankton (e.g. Strömberg et al., 2009;
970 Basedow et al., 2019; Behrenfeld et al., 2019; Druon et al., 2019) could further aid
971 in partitioning out the contribution of zooplankton to POC. *Additionally, there are*
972 *opportunities to harness multi-scale observational approaches (e.g., combining*
973 *satellites with ocean robotics) for improved monitoring of POC size fractions*

974 (Sauzède et al., 2015, 2016; Claustre et al., 2020).

975 3.2.6. POC priority 5: Vertical profiles

976 **Challenges:** Whereas vertical profiles of POC can be estimated from *in-situ*
977 optical sensors (in particular, backscattering sensors and transmissometers) de-
978 ployed on autonomous *in-situ* platforms, the performance of present optical-based
979 POC algorithms is hampered by limited understanding and predictability of varia-
980 tions in the characteristics of particulate assemblages and their relationships with
981 optical properties throughout the water column. There is a strong requirement to
982 promote fundamental research to better quantify and understand the relationships
983 between variable vertical profiles of POC (and characteristics of the POC such
984 as PSD, functional and size fractions) and the optical signal detectable from
985 satellites.

986 **Gaps:** One of the most frequently asked questions posed by users of ocean
987 colour remote sensing data (e.g., modellers) is what the satellite sensor actually
988 “sees”, in particular how deep the satellite sensor probes the water column in
989 terms of variable near-surface vertical profiles of retrieved data products such as
990 POC. For passive ocean colour, due to the double trip light must take through
991 the water column between the ocean surface and a given depth (downwelling
992 radiance and then upwelling radiance), the source of the water-leaving optical
993 signal reaching the satellite is heavily weighted to the near-surface layers of the
994 ocean. Early research from the 1970s demonstrated that ~90 % of the water-
995 leaving signal comes from one e-folding attenuation depth, i.e., the layer defined
996 by $1/K_d$, where K_d is the wavelength-dependent diffuse attenuation coefficient
997 for downwelling irradiance (Gordon and McCluney, 1975). There is a need
998 to expand on this research and develop POC-specific understanding, including
999 the effects of vertical profiles of variables going beyond just bulk POC, namely
1000 POC partitioned by functional and/or size fractions (see POC priority 4). The
1001 diurnal evolution of the characteristics of POC vertical profiles also needs careful
1002 consideration. At present, there is an uneven distribution of vertical *in-situ* profiles
1003 of POC globally, with the southern hemisphere poorly covered compared with
1004 the northern hemisphere.

1005 **Opportunities:** There are opportunities to advance basic research into improv-
1006 ing our understanding of the relationships between POC and optical properties,
1007 such as the particulate backscattering coefficient, that are potentially amenable
1008 to measurements from autonomous *in-situ* platforms such as BGC-Argo floats.
1009 Artificial Intelligence (AI) may help in this regard (Claustre et al., 2020). Such
1010 research is expected to guide development of new sensors and algorithms (e.g.,
1011 scattering sensors that include polarization) which will ultimately provide more
1012 reliable estimations of POC throughout the water column from autonomous
1013 systems. There are opportunities for synergy among satellite, models and au-
1014 tonomous platforms to create 3D and 4D fields of POC (Claustre et al., 2020).
1015 Future active-based satellite lidar systems will penetrate further into the water col-
1016 umn improving vertical resolution of variables like the backscattering coefficient,
1017 a proxy for POC (Jamet et al., 2019).

1018 3.2.7. POC priority 6: Biogeochemical processes and the biological carbon 1019 pump

1020 **Challenges:** It is estimated that around 80 % of the carbon that is exported
1021 through the ocean biological carbon pump (BCP) is in the form of POC, and the
1022 remainder is transported downward as DOC via vertical mixing and advection
1023 (Passow and Carlson, 2012; Legendre et al., 2015; Boyd et al., 2019). The vertical
1024 export of POC is challenging to quantify, and believed to result from several
1025 biological and physical processes, of which gravitational POC sinking is thought
1026 to be the largest component (Boyd et al., 2019). For a fixed fluid viscosity and
1027 density, gravitational sinking speed is a function of particle size, composition,
1028 and structure (Laurenceau-Cornec et al., 2020; Cael et al., 2021). The distribution
1029 of these properties in the particle population results to a large extent from the
1030 functioning of the upper-ocean ecosystem. Therefore, overcoming the challenges
1031 related to the satellite retrieval of POC mass (POC priority 3), size distribution
1032 (POC priority 4), and vertical distribution (POC priority 5), as well as particle
1033 properties (e.g., composition), is key to improved understanding and prediction
1034 of the BCP.

1035 Quantifying the global vertical POC export flux is a major challenge, as the

1036 range of current estimates (ca. 5-15 Gt C yr⁻¹; Boyd et al., 2019) remains similar
1037 to the ranges quoted in the 1980's (Martin et al., 1987; Henson et al., 2022).
1038 Improved ability to estimate the concentration and fluxes of POC (gravitational
1039 sinking, but also other pathways like the migrant pumps and physical pumps)
1040 would also benefit the study of trace element cycling (Conway et al., 2021) and
1041 deep-ocean ecosystems that rely on POC export. Current methods to measure
1042 gravitational POC export are work-intensive and do not allow for high spatial-
1043 temporal coverage, nor do they cover other pathways of carbon export, such
1044 as the migrant and mixing pumps, that contribute to a large portion of carbon
1045 export (Boyd et al., 2019) and change the sequestration times of exported carbon.
1046 Moreover, they often rely on simplified assumptions (steady-state vertical profiles,
1047 negligible effects of horizontal advection, to name just a few) whose validity
1048 is not always tested or subjected to sensitivity analyses (Buesseler et al., 2020).
1049 Therefore, empirical (e.g., remote-sensing based) and prognostic models of gravi-
1050 tational POC export rely on *in-situ* measurements that are inherently uncertain
1051 and have sparse spatial-temporal coverage.

1052 **Gaps:** There is a sparsity of *in-situ* data on vertical fluxes of POC, meaning our
1053 understanding of the relationship between upper-ocean biogeochemical properties
1054 and vertical POC fluxes is very uncertain. This impedes our ability to represent
1055 POC flux in empirical and mechanistic models of the BCP. Large-scale estimates
1056 of vertical POC export usually focus on the average (climatological) state of
1057 the ocean, but interannual variations and their drivers (e.g., the role of physical
1058 forcing) remain poorly known (Lomas et al., 2022), and because of data sparseness
1059 there is a risk of confounding spatial and temporal variability.

1060 Although shallow seas and continental slope areas are thought to play an
1061 important role in the global POC cycle, there are large gaps in understanding,
1062 as the sources and fate of POC in these areas remain difficult to monitor and
1063 quantify owing to the presence of optically complex environments, the higher
1064 abundance of inorganic particulate materials and the potentially larger role of
1065 lateral advection (Arístegui et al., 2020). Finally, gaps in understanding of the
1066 role of zooplankton diel vertical migration (DVM) (e.g., Bianchi et al., 2013a,b;

1067 Boyd et al., 2019) and the associated biogenic hydrodynamic transport (BHT)
1068 (e.g., Wilhelmus et al., 2019), **mean these processes** are rarely incorporated into
1069 ocean biogeochemical models.

1070 **Opportunities:** Sampling from autonomous platforms (BGC-Argo, gliders,
1071 moorings, etc.) can provide the spatial-temporal resolution needed to refine our
1072 understanding of the BCP, complementing more detailed shipborne observations
1073 and the synoptic surface view obtained from satellites. For example, "optical
1074 sediment traps" mounted on BGC-Argo floats (Bishop et al., 2004; Estapa et al.,
1075 2017) can record a nearly-continuous proxy of vertical POC fluxes in the ocean
1076 interior.

1077 Merging of these various data streams using statistical techniques (e.g., ma-
1078 chine learning; Sauzéde et al., 2020) can allow for refined estimates of the BCP,
1079 reducing the sampling bias associated with shipborne measurements. These com-
1080plementary data streams can be further used to constrain mechanistic models
1081 of the BCP, for example, through data assimilation and parameter optimization
1082 (Nowicki et al., 2022). These approaches will improve quantification of the fluxes
1083 that form the BCP, help identify knowledge gaps and eventually spur progress
1084 in process-level understanding. Ongoing efforts are aimed at improving under-
1085 standing of the effects of DVM and BHT on the biological pump, through a
1086 synergy of remote-sensing (e.g., Behrenfeld et al., 2019), laboratory studies, and
1087 biogeochemical modelling.

1088 Although the framework drafted above is conceptually valid for the study of
1089 continental shelves, these areas require higher-resolution observations and models
1090 that can resolve their larger heterogeneity and a wider array of transport and
1091 transformation processes. Therefore, such areas would benefit from dedicated
1092 regional process studies and monitoring from geostationary satellites and other
1093 airborne sensors.

1094 3.3. *Phytoplankton Carbon (C-phyto)*

1095 The living pool of POC can be partitioned into components associated with
1096 living phytoplankton cells and other types of carbon (e.g., zooplankton, detritus,

1097 fecal pellets). C-phyto is a particularly important pool of POC owing to its role
1098 in marine PP and providing food to the majority of the marine ecosystem. It has
1099 been estimated that the pool is around 0.78 - 1.0 Gt C in size (Falkowski et al.,
1100 1998; Le Quéré et al., 2005), but despite its small size (relative to terrestrial plants,
1101 which is in the order to 450 Gt C, see Bar-On et al., 2018) it contributes around
1102 50 Gt C yr⁻¹ in PP (equivalent to terrestrial plants, see Section 3.1).

1103 C-phyto is key to establishing the carbon-to-chlorophyll ratio (important for
1104 understanding phytoplankton physiology and their adaptation to light, nutrient
1105 and temperature changes), to compute PP using carbon-based models (Behren-
1106 feld et al., 2005; Sathyendranath et al., 2009), and to assess the contribution of
1107 photophysiology to the phytoplankton seasonal cycle (Bellaciccio et al., 2016).
1108 High temporal C-phyto data allows for determination of carbon-based growth and
1109 loss rates in phytoplankton (e.g., Sathyendranath et al., 2009; Zhai et al., 2010;
1110 Behrenfeld and Boss, 2014). C-phyto has also been innovatively used to assess,
1111 at the sea-air interface, the export of organic matter towards the atmosphere in the
1112 form of aerosols (O'Dowd et al., 2004; Fossum et al., 2018).

1113 3.3.1. *State of the art in Phytoplankton Carbon*

1114 A number of algorithms have been developed to derive C-phyto from ocean
1115 colour observations (see Bellaciccio et al. (2020) and reference therein, and Section
1116 4.1.3.2. of Brewin et al. (2021)). The approaches used can be grouped broadly
1117 into: i) backscattering-based approaches (e.g., Behrenfeld et al., 2005; Martínez-
1118 Vicente et al., 2013; Graff et al., 2015); ii) chlorophyll-based approaches (e.g.
1119 Sathyendranath et al., 2009) some with use of models of photoacclimation and
1120 physiology parameters (e.g., Jackson et al., 2017; Sathyendranath et al., 2020);
1121 and iii) size-class-based approaches (e.g., Kostadinov et al., 2016, 2022; Roy
1122 et al., 2017). These approaches can also be grouped according to their product
1123 (PSD, size class or taxonomic class) or the optical properties used to derive
1124 them (Chl-abundance based, backscatter, absorption, radiance) (Mouw et al.,
1125 2017). Each approach relies on the covariation between optical properties or POC,
1126 and a proxy of phytoplankton concentration such as Chl-a, phytoplankton light
1127 absorption or size distribution. Satellite environmental data, such as light or sea-

1128 surface temperature (SST), have been shown to help improve satellite retrievals of
1129 the chlorophyll-a concentration of different phytoplankton groups (Ward, 2015;
1130 Brewin et al., 2015a, 2017a; Moore and Brown, 2020; Xi et al., 2021; Sun et al.,
1131 2023), and recently also for retrievals of diatom carbon concentration (Chase
1132 et al., 2022).

1133 One of the biggest challenges in retrieving C-phyto from ocean colour obser-
1134 vations is separating the contributions of organic detritus, or non-algal particles
1135 (NAP), and living phytoplankton cells to the optical properties, such as the par-
1136 ticle backscattering, and to the particle size distributions, particularly in turbid
1137 or coastal waters. It is assumed that phytoplankton (and co-varying material)
1138 control the backscattering signal in the open ocean (Dall’Olmo et al., 2009; Or-
1139 ganelli et al., 2018), an assumption used in Case-1 water models (e.g., Morel and
1140 Maritorena, 2001). However, the variation of NAP horizontally, vertically, and
1141 temporally is considerable in many parts of the ocean (Bellacicco et al., 2019,
1142 2020) in size and concentration (Organelli et al., 2020). Recent efforts have been
1143 made to improve C-phyto estimates from satellite-based particle backscattering
1144 by accounting for variability in NAP (e.g., Bellacicco et al., 2020).

1145 Each of the proposed approaches have advantages and disadvantages, and
1146 can be improved with knowledge on the optics-to-carbon conversion factors (that
1147 can inform the Chl-a to C ratio), using *in-situ* C-phyto datasets (e.g., Martínez-
1148 Vicente et al., 2017), and through reduced uncertainties in satellite-derived inputs
1149 of relevant quantities (i.e., backscattering, Chl-a, and particle size distribution).
1150 Currently, no method has extended the global estimation of C-phyto to below the
1151 ocean surface where many biogeochemical interactions occur.

1152 During the workshop, three key priority areas of C-phyto were identified, that
1153 will be discussed separately in this section, and include: 1) *in-situ* data; 2) satellite
1154 algorithm retrievals; and 3) vertical structure. Table 5 summarises these priorities,
1155 and their challenges, gaps and opportunities.

1156 3.3.2. C-phyto priority 1: *In-situ* data

1157 **Challenges:** Measuring C-phyto *in-situ* is notoriously difficult and no stan-
1158 dard method exists and any measurements are likely to have high uncertainties.

1159 A major challenge for communities working in this field is to improve *in-situ*
1160 methodologies for quantifying C-phyto and to measure or estimate photoacclima-
1161 tion model parameters. A couple of methods exist to directly measure C-phyto.
1162 One of them entails the separation of living phytoplankton particles from non-
1163 living (detrital) particles and the subsequent elemental measurement of those
1164 particles (Graff et al., 2012, 2015). Another, older method (Redalje and Laws,
1165 1981), requires incubation experiments in which the sample cells are labelled with
1166 ^{14}C , and the specific activity of Chl-a is measured at the end of the experiment as
1167 well as the total particulate ^{14}C activity. The direct measurement methodology
1168 of Graff et al. (2012, 2015) is largely biased towards nano and pico-sized phyto-
1169 plankton particles detected by flow cytometry, whereas the method of Redalje
1170 and Laws (1981) depends on Chl-a being sufficiently high for the incubation
1171 experiments. It is important that these direct methods are incorporated into exist-
1172 ing programs. C-phyto may also be indirectly measured by applying empirical
1173 relationships that relate cell biovolume to C-phyto (Menden-Deuer and Lessard,
1174 2000; Lomas et al., 2019). These empirical relationships are largely attributed to
1175 micro-sized phytoplankton (diatoms and dinoflagellates) and are limited to either
1176 a select number of laboratory cultures or a specific region in the global ocean.
1177 Standardization of phytoplankton carbon data submission using emerging *in-situ*
1178 techniques (such as the Imaging FlowCytobot) is also challenging (Neeley et al.,
1179 2021).

1180 **Gaps:** As a direct result of this challenge, one of the largest gaps for de-
1181 riving C-phyto from space is the paucity of global *in-situ* C-phyto data (and
1182 C-phyto community composition), to develop and validate models and algorithms.
1183 Coincident *in-situ* observations of both phytoplankton community composition,
1184 by flow cytometry, microscopy or the more recent method of imaging-in-flow
1185 cytometry (e.g., Imaging Flow Cytobot (IFCB), FlowCam) with bio-optical and
1186 radiometric measurements are critical for establishing relationships among phy-
1187 toplankton type, size, pigments and optical signatures. Only limited number of
1188 field data sets (e.g., NASA's EXPORTS campaign, and the Atlantic Meridional
1189 Transect Programme (AMT)) contain these coincident measurements, leading to

1190 a lack of understanding of their temporal or spatial variability. Moreover, few
1191 measurements are taken below the surface ocean (see C-phyto priority 3).

1192 Additionally, there are very few consistent C-phyto surface time-series data
1193 sets available. Time series data sets with clear uncertainties are critical to
1194 understanding of spatio-temporal variability in C-phyto, community composi-
1195 tion and coincident optical properties. Existing time-series studies that include
1196 these measurements are limited (e.g., Martha's Vineyard Coastal observatory,
1197 <https://nes-iter.who.edu/>).

1198 **Opportunities:** There is an opportunity to enlarge and explore data collected
1199 at so-called "*in-situ* supersites". *In-situ* supersites are sampling sites in which
1200 manual or automated, coincident measurements of bio-optical, biogeochemical,
1201 and/or biological measurements, are collected regularly as part of a time series
1202 program. These sites are typically co-located with satellite measurements and can
1203 be used to improve and/or validate satellite algorithms. Such sites already exist
1204 and include, for example, the Martha's Vineyard Coastal Observatory (MVCO),
1205 located in Edgartown, Massachusetts, USA. At this observatory, hydrographic
1206 (salinity, temperature), meteorological and biological measurements are collected
1207 in real-time. What makes the data from this observatory particularly powerful
1208 is the inclusion of an IFCB that collects particle and plankton images approxi-
1209 mately every 20-minutes. In conjunction with regular ship-based measurements
1210 through the Northeast Shelf LTER (NES-LTER) program as well as satellite-based
1211 observations, not only are these data instrumental to advancing algorithms to
1212 retrieve phytoplankton taxonomy, but they also advance our understanding of how
1213 climate variability impacts phytoplankton communities and, ultimately the food
1214 web (Hunter-Cevera et al., 2021). Moreover, phytoplankton observations can be
1215 used to derive estimates of C-phyto, which are necessary for the development
1216 and validation of C-phyto algorithms by linking C-phyto to measured optical
1217 properties and considering the diversity and variation of phytoplankton and other
1218 optical constituents. Other sites, such as the Palmer Station Antarctic LTER and
1219 the BATS station have included regular observations of phytoplankton taxonomy
1220 and bio-optics as part of their sampling strategies and these data may also be

1221 used for C-phyto estimations and algorithm development (Casey et al., 2013;
1222 Nardelli et al., 2022). Similarly, at the Acqua Alta Oceanographic LTER site
1223 (AAOT; www.ismar.cnr.it), located in the Gulf of Venice (Mediterranean Sea),
1224 several essential ocean variables (EOVs) including phytoplankton taxonomy have
1225 been collected for decades (Acri et al., 2020) and these observations have been
1226 recently empowered with an IFCB for continuous measurements. AAOT is also
1227 an AERONET and HYPERNET site and used for CAL/VAL activities of OCR
1228 satellites (Concha et al., 2021). Moving forward, we must empower additional
1229 observatories, such as those used for water quality assessment, and expand the
1230 range of data they collect, to strive towards the collection of the entire size spec-
1231 trum of phytoplankton required for satellite C-phyto algorithms (e.g., microscopy,
1232 imaging-in-flow cytometry, flow cytometry). Supersite measurements could even
1233 be complemented by dedicated mesocosm experiments that will help to improve
1234 the mechanistic understanding of the relationship between C-phyto and optical
1235 properties. In addition, these data sets can be used to derive reliable uncertainties
1236 in *in-situ* C-phyto data. A future network of these supersites could be established
1237 to be representative of global scales, and not only collect data at the surface but
1238 also throughout the euphotic zone and beyond.

1239 Another opportunity is to improve the global distribution of optical property
1240 measurements used as input of C-phyto algorithms by empowering validation
1241 through continuous underway optical measurements (e.g. Slade et al., 2010;
1242 Brewin et al., 2016; Rasse et al., 2017; Burt et al., 2018) and autonomous mobile
1243 platforms such as BGC-Argo profiling floats and Lagrangian drifters (e.g., Abbott
1244 et al., 1990; Boss et al., 2008; Sauzède et al., 2016; Bisson et al., 2019; Xing
1245 et al., 2020). For the latter, these robotic platforms allow the acquisition of optical
1246 data with limited spatial and temporal bias, as they also collect data in remote
1247 regions, even during meteorological conditions that are unfavourable for ship-
1248 based sampling (Organelli et al., 2017). Optical data from these platforms, or
1249 similar technologies, have been used to derive bulk properties, such as diffuse
1250 attenuation (K_d), Chl-a, CDOM and POC, and are a source of sub-surface data,
1251 complementary to the surface data from satellites. As hyperspectral data can

1252 help resolve estimates on the composition (type and size) of phytoplankton
1253 (Chase et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2019), integrating *autonomous* instrumentation with
1254 hyperspectral capabilities (Jemai et al., 2021; Organelli et al., 2021) can provide
1255 insight into phytoplankton composition in the illuminated part of the water column
1256 (Bracher et al., 2020). Efforts to enlarge the optical multi-platform data acquisition,
1257 and to develop protocols for the derivation of high-quality C-phyto data sets, must
1258 be taken since these have the potential to fill the gap of C-phyto information below
1259 the first optical depth and provide information on phytoplankton photoacclimation
1260 (see C-phyto priority 3). *Additionally, there maybe future possibilities to connect*
1261 *genetic level information, and at the particle/organismal level, with phytoplankton*
1262 *carbon properties (Braakman et al., 2017).*

1263 3.3.3. C-phyto priority 2: Satellite algorithm retrievals

1264 **Challenges:** Backscattering is an optical property that has been linked to
1265 C-phyto. However, particle backscatter includes all particles, not just phytoplank-
1266 ton and it is challenging to separate phytoplankton from non-living particles,
1267 without complementary information such as microscopic or flow cytometric data.
1268 Additionally, we should strive to increase the accuracy of backscattering retrievals
1269 from space, *itself a challenging task*. Correcting the remote sensing reflectance
1270 for Raman scattering prior to semi-analytical retrievals has shown some promise
1271 for improving quality of back-scattering retrievals (Westberry et al., 2013; Lee
1272 et al., 2013; Pitarch et al., 2019).

1273 Chl-a, both satellite-derived and *in situ*, is often used in models that relate
1274 particle backscatter to C-phyto through empirical relationships. However, the
1275 uncertainties within these empirical relationships are increased by the influence of
1276 phytoplankton composition and the physiological state of phytoplankton driving
1277 photoacclimation, i.e., the adjustment of Chl-a in response to light, particularly in
1278 the surface ocean, and uncertainties in Chl-a measurements. In addition, in low
1279 phytoplankton biomass regions, such as in the subtropical gyres, uncertainties in
1280 both satellite retrieved optical properties and Chl-a can be large.

1281 **Gaps:** There is a gap in our mechanistic understanding of how optical proper-
1282 ties link to C-phyto, considering the diversity of phytoplankton composition and

1283 their physiological state, and the other optically significant substances that can
1284 have an impact on the optical properties.

1285 Each of the methods, models and algorithms, **have** uncertainties, either in-
1286 herent or owing to the input data, which are infrequently reported. As such,
1287 there are gaps in our knowledge of the accuracy of our models and algorithms
1288 to derive C-phyto, which includes uncertainties associated with direct or indirect
1289 measurements of *in-situ* C-phyto.

1290 **Opportunities:** There are opportunities to produce long time-series of C-
1291 phyto data using merged ocean-colour datasets (e.g., OC-CCI (<https://www.oceancolour.org>),
1292 GlobColour (<https://www.globcolour.info>), and Copernicus
1293 Marine (<https://marine.copernicus.eu>); Maritorena et al., 2010; Sathyendranath
1294 et al., 2019a; Kostadinov et al., 2022), or by adapting algorithms to operate on
1295 different ocean colour sensors that cover different time spans (e.g., since 1979
1296 until today; Oziel et al., 2022). These products should include pixel-by-pixel
1297 uncertainties. C-phyto satellite algorithms may be improved by using synergistic
1298 information on the abundance and composition of the different optical components
1299 (phytoplankton, NAP, CDOM), which may lower the uncertainties in C-phyto
1300 retrievals.

1301 There are also opportunities to improve C-phyto products by exploring the
1302 combined use of satellite data with ecosystem modelling. Directly using satellite
1303 Chl-a or phytoplankton community-specific Chl-a for evaluation or assimilation
1304 in (coupled-ocean-) biogeochemical models could be a promising avenue for
1305 deriving C-phyto (IOCCG, 2020). Other exciting avenues of research include
1306 combining models of photoacclimation with size-based approaches (Sathyen-
1307 dranath et al., 2020), that can be reconciled with models of **PP**, meaning the
1308 carbon pools and fluxes are produced in a consistent manner.

1309 3.3.4. C-phyto priority 3: Vertical structure

1310 **Challenges:** Considering the difficulties in measuring C-phyto *in situ* (see
1311 C-phyto priority 1) is it very challenging to collect, aggregate and produce an
1312 *in-situ* dataset that is representative of entire euphotic depth and **beyond** at global
1313 scale, required for understanding distributions in C-phyto.

1314 **Gaps:** Since current satellite ocean colour techniques are limited to passive
1315 radiometry which only delivers information from the first optical depth, the
1316 collection of *in-situ* C-phyto data for validation of satellite products has been
1317 largely limited to discrete water sampling at surface depths. For a complete
1318 understanding of the role of C-phyto in the ocean carbon cycle, it is imperative that
1319 we extend measurements deeper into the water column, encompassing the entire
1320 euphotic zone. Parametrisations have been developed to extrapolate the satellite
1321 ocean colour fields on the first optical depth to derive the chl-a concentration
1322 (Morel and Berthon, 1989) or the contribution of phytoplankton size classes (Uitz
1323 et al., 2006) for the entire euphotic depth. Similarly, approximations based on *in*
1324 *situ* data sampling of the vertical profile of phytoplankton carbon are needed.

1325 **Opportunities:** There are potential opportunities to use autonomous plat-
1326 forms such as BGC-Argo floats (Claustre et al., 2020), undulating profilers
1327 (Bracher et al., 2020) and moorings (Von Appen et al., 2021), together with
1328 satellite passive (ocean colour) and active (lidar) remote-sensing and modelling
1329 (e.g. through data assimilation), to help reconstruct, via techniques like artificial
1330 intelligence, the 4D view of C-phyto, to better observe phytoplankton biomass
1331 dynamics below the ocean surface (e.g., Brewin et al., 2022). Quantum computing
1332 may help in this regard.

1333 3.4. Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC)

1334 DOC is ubiquitous in the ocean and represents a considerable reservoir of
1335 carbon, at around 662 Gt C, approximately the size of the atmospheric CO₂ pool
1336 (Hansell et al., 2009). Marine DOC is also a dynamic carbon component, that ful-
1337 fills important biogeochemical and ecological functions, and connects terrestrial
1338 landscapes (Anderson et al., 2019), freshwater and marine ecosystems and the
1339 atmosphere (Carlson and Hansell, 2015; Anderson et al., 2019). Continuously
1340 and accurately quantifying DOC stocks and fluxes in the ocean is critical to our
1341 understanding of the global role of DOC and its susceptibility to change.

1342 *3.4.1. State of the art in DOC*

1343 In recent years, synoptic monitoring of DOC has been attempted using optical
1344 techniques and Earth Observation. A wide range of methods have been trailed,
1345 mainly empirical, including linear regressions, artificial neural network algorithm,
1346 random forest classification, and gradient boosting. These approaches typically
1347 estimate DOC concentration using single or multiple variables, including: remote-
1348 sensing reflectance, remotely-sensed CDOM absorption coefficients, sea-surface
1349 salinity, SST, chlorophyll-a concentration, and modelled mixed layer depths. For
1350 an in-depth review of the status of DOC monitoring, the reader is referred Section
1351 4.1.2. of Brewin et al. (2021) and the recent review of Fichot (Under Review).

1352 Four key priorities were identified following presentations and discussions at
1353 the workshop. These are summarised in Table 6 and include: 1) temporal coverage
1354 of the coastal ocean; 2) understanding the relationship between CDOM and DOC;
1355 3) identification of sources and reactivity; and 4) vertical measurements.

1356 *3.4.2. DOC priority 1: Spatial and temporal coverage of the coastal ocean*

1357 **Challenges:** The remote sensing of DOC in the surface ocean is facilitated
1358 by the optical detection of CDOM (the coloured component of dissolved matter),
1359 particularly in the coastal ocean, where DOC and CDOM can be tightly correlated
1360 (Ferrari et al., 1996; Vodacek et al., 1997; Bowers et al., 2004; Fichot and Benner,
1361 2012; Tehrani et al., 2013). In such cases, the detection of DOC from space relies
1362 on the optical detection of CDOM absorption coefficients, $a_g(\lambda)$, from remote-
1363 sensing reflectance, followed by the estimation of DOC from $a_g(\lambda)$. However, as
1364 coastal regions are highly dynamic and heterogenous, quantifying DOC stocks and
1365 fluxes require satellite optical monitoring systems with high temporal and spatial
1366 coverage, and accurate atmospheric correction (e.g., separating the contribution of
1367 Rayleigh scattering in the atmosphere is particularly important for DOC retrievals;
1368 Juhls et al., 2019), **both of which are challenging**. High latitudes, where high
1369 loads of DOC are transported from rivers into the sea (e.g., Arctic rivers, Baltic)
1370 are difficult to view using passive ocean colour satellites in winter months.

1371 **Gaps:** At present, accurate estimates of DOC stocks and fluxes in coastal

1372 environments are severely limited by the temporal coverage of existing ocean-
1373 color satellites. Current satellites offer revisit times of about five times per week,
1374 at best (though this depends on latitude and time of year). More appropriate
1375 revisit times for nearshore coastal waters would need to be an order of magnitude
1376 higher (e.g., ideally 3-5 times per day) to adequately capture the dynamics of
1377 DOC and facilitate the accurate estimation of DOC fluxes across the boundaries
1378 of coastal systems. This is especially important for the nearshore regions of the
1379 coastal ocean which can be strongly influenced by tides, currents, and rivers.

1380 **Opportunities:** With the advent of geostationary ocean-colour satellites, such
1381 as GOCI and the upcoming hyperspectral NASA GLIMR, capable of imaging
1382 multiple times daily, there are exciting opportunities to address these challenges
1383 and gaps at regional scales (e.g., see Huang et al., 2017). NASA's GLIMR
1384 (launch expected in 2027) will help quantify DOC stocks and fluxes in coastal
1385 environments of the continental USA and in targeted regions of coastal South
1386 America (e.g., Amazon River outflow, Orinoco River Outflow) by providing
1387 multiple observations per day (hourly), at around 300 m resolution. Reflectances
1388 from GLIMR will also be hyperspectral (10 nm resolution) across the UV-NIR
1389 range (340 -1040 nm) and will therefore provide the opportunity for improved
1390 accuracy of DOC concentration retrievals. We recommend continuing efforts
1391 towards deploying additional geostationary and hyperspectral satellites to improve
1392 the **lack of good** temporal coverage **in** other coastal regions around the world.
1393 **High spatial resolution satellites (such as Sentinel-3 and Sentinel-2/Landsat), and**
1394 **potential future constellations of Cubesats (e.g., SeaHawk/HawkEye; Jeffrey et al.,**
1395 **2018), may also help in this regard.**

1396 3.4.3. *DOC priority 2: Understanding and constraining the relationship between* 1397 *CDOM and DOC*

1398 **Challenges:** Improvements in satellite CDOM absorption retrievals are
1399 needed, with uncertainties in algorithms often higher than other IOPs derived
1400 from ocean colour data (Brewin et al., 2015b). The relationships between DOC
1401 and CDOM absorption, commonly used to quantify stocks of DOC in coastal
1402 regions, tends to be variable seasonally and across coastal systems (Mannino

1403 et al., 2008; Massicotte et al., 2017; Cao et al., 2018). Furthermore, the dynamics
1404 of CDOM and DOC are largely decoupled in the open ocean (Nelson and Siegel,
1405 2013), making the accurate remote sensing of DOC concentration challenging in
1406 much of the open ocean.

1407 **Gaps:** There are gaps in our understanding of the relationship between DOC
1408 and CDOM absorption coefficients that need to be addressed, for example, rela-
1409 tionships are likely to depend on the type of river system studied, and its optical
1410 constituents. There are also gaps in our understanding of the various physical
1411 and biogeochemical processes that impact differently CDOM absorption and
1412 DOC, depending on DOC quality (e.g., Miller and Moran, 1997; Tzortziou et al.,
1413 2007; Helms et al., 2008). This will improve our understanding of regional and
1414 seasonal variability in the relationship among these variables, and consequently
1415 improve DOC estimates from space. Additionally, there is a lack satellite UV and
1416 hyperspectral data for resolving DOC and its composition.

1417 **Opportunities:** We recommend the community work towards improving this
1418 understanding through a combination of the following four efforts.

- 1419 • Utilise the spectral slope of CDOM absorption, $S_{275-295}$, to constrain the
1420 variability between CDOM and DOC in the ocean and improve empirical
1421 algorithms. In river-influenced coastal systems, $S_{275-295}$ has been shown
1422 to be a useful parameter to constrain the variability between CDOM and
1423 DOC (Fichot and Benner, 2011; Cao et al., 2018). It has also been shown
1424 that this parameter can be retrieved empirically with reasonable accuracy
1425 from ocean colour, therefore providing a means to improve DOC retrievals
1426 (Mannino et al., 2008; Fichot et al., 2013, 2014; Cao et al., 2018). Future
1427 studies could look into developing similar approaches for other regions
1428 of the ocean. Retrievals of $S_{275-295}$ requires very accurate atmospheric
1429 correction, which is challenging in coastal waters.
- 1430 • Develop mechanistic models of the processes regulating the relationship
1431 between CDOM and DOC, by integrating new insight on the effects of pho-
1432 tobleaching. Recent efforts have quantified and included in biogeochemical

1433 models (e.g., Clark et al., 2019) the effects of photobleaching on CDOM
1434 absorption coefficient spectra, which in turn, may improve our ability to
1435 constrain the relationship between CDOM and DOC (Swan et al., 2013;
1436 Zhu et al., 2020). Similar efforts should be conducted for understanding
1437 other processes such as the marine biological net production of DOC. A
1438 quantitative appreciation of these processes is also critical to understand
1439 the influence of climate-driven change on the relationship between CDOM
1440 and DOC.

- 1441 • Harness opportunities to acquire high-quality field measurements of DOC
1442 and CDOM absorption across different seasons and marine environments.
1443 This could be achieved by tapping into field campaigns that collect **IOPs**
1444 and apparent optical properties (**AOPs**) for satellite validation, and perform
1445 additional concurrent sampling for DOC. Many field datasets include mea-
1446 surements of CDOM absorption coefficients but lack DOC measurements.
1447 It should be noted, however, that while many labs have the capability to
1448 measure CDOM, much fewer labs can measure DOC. Coordinated efforts
1449 should therefore be considered to ensure that CDOM and DOC are mea-
1450 sured together as often as possible. This could be aided by the development
1451 of semi-automotive methods to measure DOC, that could be used alongside
1452 similar techniques for measuring CDOM absorption (e.g., Dall’Olmo et al.,
1453 2017), **which** could facilitate the development of improved satellite DOC
1454 algorithms.
- 1455 • Harnessing new satellite sensors for CDOM and DOC retrievals. For exam-
1456 ple, consideration in the allocation and characteristics of spectral wavebands
1457 for DOC studies has also gone into the development of NASA’s PACE mis-
1458 sion (Werdell et al., 2019). Harnessing optical water type frameworks for
1459 algorithm selection, **may also lead to better separation of NAP-CDOM**
1460 **absorption. Within the ESA project Sentinel-5-P for Ocean Colour Prod-**
1461 **ucts (S5POC), K_d at three wavelengths (UV-AB, UV-A and short blue)**
1462 **were developed (Oelker et al., 2022), which could help provide insight on**

1463 the sources of CDOM. Additionally, there is potential to exploit the high
1464 spectral resolution of TROPOMI (e.g., the filling of the Fraunhofer lines by
1465 Fluorescent Dissolved Organic Matter (FDOM)) to acquire information on
1466 the sources of DOM.

1467 3.4.4. DOC priority 3: Identification of source and reactivity

1468 **Challenges:** To quantify the cycling, fate, and impacts of DOC in the ocean,
1469 requires identifying specific pools of DOC of different sources and reactivity.
1470 This is particularly true for the coastal ocean. There is likely to be large gradients
1471 in the sources and reactivity of DOC as we transition from inland waters to coasts
1472 and the open ocean.

1473 **Gaps:** Although fluorescence excitation-emission matrix methods have been
1474 used as an *in-situ* optical indicator of dissolved organic matter (DOM) origin and
1475 reactivity (Mopper and Schultz, 1993; Kowalczuk et al., 2013), there has been
1476 few studies assessing whether the DOM fluoresced signal can be detected from
1477 remote-sensing reflectance.

1478 **Opportunities:** We recommend the community puts efforts towards assess-
1479 ing whether the fluorescence of DOC and CDOM, originating from specific
1480 sources (e.g., riverine, effluent), can have a measurable influence on remote-
1481 sensing reflectance. Recent and upcoming hyperspectral sensors (e.g., TROPOMI,
1482 GLIMR, PRISMA, PACE, see Table 2) have (or will have) improved signal-to-
1483 noise ratio, as well as enhanced spectral information in the UV-visible range,
1484 and adequate spatial resolution, that could facilitate detection of the fluorescence
1485 signature of certain pools of DOC and CDOM (Wolanin et al., 2015; Oelker et al.,
1486 2022; Harringmeyer et al., 2021). Such efforts can be facilitated with radiative
1487 transfer simulations (e.g., Hydrolight, www.hydrolight.info, and SCIATRAN,
1488 <https://www.iup.uni-bremen.de/sciatran/>). However, fluorescence signature of
1489 DOC is currently not well understood, and we require a better quantitative knowl-
1490 edge of the fluorescence quantum yield matrix of DOC and CDOM and how it
1491 varies with specific DOM sources (Wünsch et al., 2015).

1492 Active remote-sensing approaches based on laser-induced fluorescence could
1493 also potentially facilitate the sourcing of DOM in the surface ocean. Airborne

1494 laser-based measurements of DOM have been used in the past, but these only used
1495 a single excitation-emission wavelength pair and were used to specifically measure
1496 DOC (Hoge et al., 1993; Vodacek, 1989). The use of multiple, carefully chosen
1497 excitation-emission wavelength combinations could potentially help identify
1498 specific pools of DOM with unique fluorescence signatures.

1499 3.4.5. DOC priority 4: Vertical measurements

1500 **Challenges:** The remote sensing of CDOM and DOC is limited to surface
1501 measurements. Accurately extrapolating these measurements to depth requires
1502 understanding of vertical variability. At present, depth variability is generally
1503 assumed or estimated using empirical or statistical approaches (e.g., neural net-
1504 works) trained with field observations (Mannino et al., 2016).

1505 **Gaps:** Approaches that extrapolate surface DOC and CDOM to depth require
1506 extensive *in-situ* datasets (vertical profiles) of DOC and CDOM, representative of
1507 a wide range of conditions. Though efforts have been made in this regard (Nelson
1508 and Siegel, 2013; Hansell, 2013), gaps exist for many regions and seasons.

1509 **Opportunities:** *In-situ* measurements from autonomous platforms like BGC-
1510 Argo equipped with DOM-fluorescence sensors can provide valuable informa-
1511 tion about the depth-dependency of DOM in the ocean (Claustre et al., 2020).
1512 BGC-Argo radiometric measurements in the UV can also be used to get CDOM
1513 absorption proxies (Organelli et al., 2017; Organelli and Claustre, 2019). Re-
1514 cently, projects such as AEOLUS COLOR (CDOM-proxy retrieval from aeOLus
1515 ObseRvations), have focused on developing UV-lidar-based techniques to retrieve
1516 sub-surface information about CDOM in the ocean (Dionisi et al., 2021). The
1517 ESA AEOLUS mission is a UV-lidar (355 nm) mission originally designed for the
1518 retrieval of atmospheric properties, but the UV capabilities of this active sensor
1519 provides an opportunity to retrieve in-water properties of CDOM. We recommend
1520 that the community continue to explore original ideas to improve the detection
1521 of CDOM and DOC below the surface. There are also opportunities to harness
1522 mechanistic modelling approaches (physical and biogeochemical modelling) to
1523 improve estimation of DOC dynamics at depth (Mannino et al., 2016).

1524 *3.5. Inorganic carbon and fluxes at the ocean interface (IC)*

1525 Unlike organic carbon, consisting primarily of organic compounds such as
1526 lipids, proteins and nucleic acids, inorganic carbon consists of simple compounds
1527 such as carbon dioxide, bicarbonate, carbonate and carbonic acid. Inorganic
1528 carbon in the ocean can be partitioned into dissolved (DIC) and particulate
1529 (PIC) form. Although these two could be treated separately in a review of this
1530 nature, they are intimately linked, considering DIC can be transferred to PIC
1531 through biological (e.g., planktonic fixation and osmoregulation) or abiotic (e.g.,
1532 aragonite) formation of calcium carbonate (CaCO_3), and PIC to DIC through
1533 the dissolution of CaCO_3 . These processes impact the CO_2 concentration of the
1534 water, its alkalinity and pH.

1535 Relative to DIC, PIC is a small pool of carbon at around 0.03 Gt C (Hopkins
1536 et al., 2019), but annual production is considered highly variable and estimated
1537 to be of the order $0.8\text{-}1.4 \text{ Gt C y}^{-1}$ (Feely et al., 2004). PIC is present in the
1538 form of particulate CaCO_3 , with coccolithophores, pteropods, foraminifera and
1539 PIC-containing sediments, thought to be the main sources of PIC in the ocean
1540 (Schiebel, 2002; Feely et al., 2004; Buitenhuis et al., 2019). Despite its biological
1541 growth the formation of PIC has the net-effect of shifting the carbonate chemistry
1542 towards higher CO_2 in the water and decreasing its pH (Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow,
1543 2001; Rost and Riebesell, 2004; Zeebe, 2012). The reader is referred to the recent
1544 review of Neukermans et al. (2023), for a more detailed description of our current
1545 understanding of the influence of PIC production on carbon cycling.

1546 In contrast, DIC constitutes the largest pool of carbon in the ocean, at around
1547 38,000 Gt C (Hedges, 1992), and connects carbon in the ocean with the atmo-
1548 sphere and with the land. CO_2 dissolves in seawater and reacts with water to
1549 form carbonic acid (H_2CO_3). Carbonic acid is unstable and dissociates into bi-
1550 carbonate (HCO_3^-), carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) and protons (H^+). The equilibrium among
1551 these forms controls ocean pH. From a biological viewpoint the gaseous quantity
1552 of CO_2 in seawater, $p\text{CO}_2$, is modulated by photosynthesis (PP) and respiration
1553 (mineralization) which is captured within net community production estimates.

1554 The flux or movement of CO_2 between ocean and atmosphere is often de-

1555 scribed using a formation first described by Liss and Slater (1974), which can be
1556 expressed as $\text{Flux} = kK_0(p\text{CO}_{2,w} - p\text{CO}_{2,a})$ (Wanninkhof, 2014); where k is the
1557 gas transfer velocity (equivalent to the inverse of the resistance to gas transfer), K_0
1558 is the constant of solubility of gas, and $(p\text{CO}_{2,w} - p\text{CO}_{2,a})$ is the difference between
1559 the CO_2 partial pressures in the ocean and the atmosphere ($\Delta p\text{CO}_2$), respectively
1560 (see Woolf et al., 2016, for discussion on how best to derive $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$). Ocean
1561 temperature, and to a less extent salinity, is a strong modulator of the solubility of
1562 CO_2 in seawater (Takahashi et al., 2009) and is thus an important parameter for
1563 **influencing oceanic $p\text{CO}_2$ variability**. k is often parameterised as a function of
1564 wind speed and temperature (e.g., Schmidt number; Wanninkhof, 2014).

1565 3.5.1. *State of the art in inorganic carbon and air-sea fluxes*

1566 Methods to remotely sense PIC have focused on individual or multi-spectral
1567 band optical detection of coccolithophores (Gordon et al., 2001; Balch et al., 2005;
1568 Mitchell et al., 2017), with some using time series to improve data consistency
1569 (Shutler et al., 2010). Due to their unique optical signature (when the plankton
1570 dies coccoliths are detached causing the water to appear spectrally white), coccolithophore
1571 blooms have been mapped via satellite ocean colour since the launch of
1572 NASA's CZCS satellite sensor (Holligan et al., 1983; Brown and Yoder, 1994) **and**
1573 **the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) in 1978 (Groom and**
1574 **Holligan, 1987; Smyth et al., 2004; Loveday and Smyth, 2018)**. The challenges of
1575 detection include: detecting coccolithophores and their associated PIC at low con-
1576 centrations (or prior to their coccoliths becoming detached), during bloom events,
1577 in the presence of bubbles (e.g., in the Southern Ocean; Randolph et al., 2014),
1578 and to remove the effects of suspended particulates that exhibit similar spectral
1579 properties in shelf seas (Shutler et al., 2010). Laboratory and field observations
1580 (Voss et al., 1998; Balch et al., 1999, 1996; Smyth et al., 2002) have informed
1581 PIC algorithm development for determining calcite concentrations by relating
1582 coccolithophore abundance and morphology to PIC concentrations. Currently
1583 NASA Ocean Biology **Distributed Active Archive Centre (DAAC)** distributes
1584 a PIC concentration product that merges Balch et al. (2005) and Gordon et al.
1585 (2001), and there is also a developmental PIC product available (Mitchell et al.,

1586 2017).

1587 DIC and other key carbonate system **variables** (e.g., total alkalinity (TA),
1588 pH, and $p\text{CO}_2$) are more challenging to determine from satellite observations
1589 as they do not have a unique spectral signature. However, alkalinity is strongly
1590 conservative with salinity so this has led to the development of many regional
1591 relationships to predict TA from salinity (e.g., Cai et al., 2010; Lefèvre et al.,
1592 2010) and DIC from salinity and temperature (e.g. Lee et al., 2006), as well as
1593 global relationships using a suite of physical and chemical **variables** (e.g., Sasse
1594 et al., 2013) and their application to satellite remote sensing has been identified
1595 (Land et al., 2015). For example, total alkalinity has been estimated using the
1596 strong relation with sea surface salinity (SSS) which in the last decade has been
1597 measured by different satellites, such as ESA's Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity
1598 satellite (SMOS; Reul et al., 2012), NASA/**Comision Nacional de Actividades**
1599 **Espaciales (CONAE)** Aquarius (Lagerloef et al., 2013), and NASA's Soil Moisture
1600 Active Passive satellite (SMAP; Tang et al., 2017). More recently, efforts to
1601 combine physical and optical satellite ocean observations with climatological
1602 and re-analysis data products has opened the door to remote estimation of the
1603 complete marine carbonate system via regional and global relationships as well as
1604 new machine learning methods and carbonate system calculation packages (e.g.,
1605 Land et al., 2019; Gregor and Gruber, 2021).

1606 Large scale air/sea flux estimates typically make use of the Surface Ocean
1607 CO_2 Atlas (SOCAT, <https://www.socat.info/index.php/data-access/>; Bakker et al.,
1608 2016) and/or global climatologies of surface seawater $p\text{CO}_2$ using data interpo-
1609 lation/extrapolation and neural network techniques (e.g., Takahashi et al., 2009;
1610 Rödenbeck et al., 2013; Landschützer et al., 2020) to produce spatially and tem-
1611 porally complete fields. These $p\text{CO}_2$ fields can be coupled with satellite retrievals
1612 of SST, wind speed, and other variables, to calculate the air-sea CO_2 flux (e.g., as
1613 demonstrated with the FluxEngine toolbox; Shutler et al., 2016). A key parameter
1614 for the calculation of the air-sea CO_2 fluxes is the $x\text{CO}_2$ fraction in air. Global cov-
1615 erage of atmospheric CO_2 estimates is available from multiple satellite missions
1616 (e.g., **Greenhouse gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT) 2009-present, Orbiting**

1617 **Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2)** 2014-present, and OCO-3 2019-present). Satel-
1618 lite observations have been combined with model output to estimate $p\text{CO}_2$ and
1619 air-sea flux (e.g., Arrigo et al., 2010) and estimates of $p\text{CO}_2$ and air-sea flux have
1620 been achieved solely from satellite observations (e.g., Ono et al., 2004; Borges
1621 et al., 2009; Lohrenz et al., 2018). It is also possible to calculate seawater $p\text{CO}_2$
1622 from observations of TA and DIC and using marine carbonate system calculations
1623 (e.g., Humphreys et al., 2022). For a more in-depth review of status of using
1624 satellite remote sensing for determining inorganic carbon and fluxes at the ocean
1625 interface, the reader is referred to Shutler et al. (Submitted).

1626 Modelling studies can also help inform satellite approaches. They have been
1627 used to evaluate the drivers of the marine carbonate system (e.g., Lauderdale
1628 et al., 2016) and examine potential impacts of extreme and compound events
1629 (e.g., Salisbury and Jönsson, 2018; Burger et al., 2020; Gruber et al., 2021).
1630 Seawater $p\text{CO}_2$ and air-sea CO_2 fluxes can also be estimated using dynamic ocean
1631 biogeochemical models (Hauck et al., 2020) and data-assimilation-based models
1632 (e.g., Verdy and Mazloff, 2017). **Estimating the Circulation and Climate of the**
1633 **Ocean Darwin model (ECCO-Darwin)** (Carroll et al., 2020, 2022) is one such
1634 example which is initialised with a suite of physical variables, biogeochemical
1635 properties and also **TA and DIC from datasets such as Global Ocean Data Analysis**
1636 **Project (GLODAP)**. It assimilates a combination of physical and biogeochemical
1637 data to produce physically conserved properties. As such models continue to
1638 evolve, it will be increasingly possible to use them to assess regional and global
1639 scale carbon inventories as well as fluxes and evaluate them with satellite-based
1640 products.

1641 At the workshop, four priorities were identified in relation to the detection of
1642 inorganic carbon and the air-sea flux of CO_2 from space (summarised in Table
1643 7), including: 1) *in-situ* data; 2) satellite retrievals and mapping uncertainty; 3)
1644 models and data integration; and 4) mechanistic understanding of gas transfer.

1645 3.5.2. IC priority 1: *In-situ* data

1646 **Challenges:** Considering many components of inorganic carbon are not di-
1647 rectly observable from space, there is a strong reliance on *in-situ* data. Integrating

1648 *in-situ* data products with satellite data is challenging, owing to large differences
1649 in spatial and temporal resolution. Furthermore, it can be challenging to integrate
1650 *in-situ* datasets from different sources and collaborators, without community
1651 consensus on best practices and consistent use of traceable reference materials
1652 and consistent standards.

1653 **Gaps:** Improved spatial and temporal coverage of field observations in key
1654 regions and times, not only at the surface but also the full water column, is
1655 an essential requirement for the development, validation and use of satellite-
1656 based IC approaches. Although there are some existing programs to monitor
1657 $p\text{CO}_2$ from ships (e.g., SOCAT), air-sea CO_2 flux assessments are spatially and
1658 temporally limited by the extent and number of the *in-situ* data that underpin
1659 them. Additionally, our understanding of long-term changes in $p\text{CO}_2$ and fluxes,
1660 in key ocean regions (e.g., the Southern Ocean), is limited by a lack of *in-situ*
1661 data time-series stations (Sutton et al., 2019). At present, there is no dedicated
1662 framework for sustained, long-term monitoring of seawater $p\text{CO}_2$ (particularly in
1663 South Ocean which contributes around 40 % of the anthropogenic carbon uptake)
1664 which is concerning as without these satellite methods are limited, though some
1665 satellite products like wind may still reveal insights into $p\text{CO}_2$ dynamics.

1666 There are also gaps in our ability to assure consistent quality of these *in-situ*
1667 observations. For example, TA and DIC observations require a certified reference
1668 material (Dickson, 2010), that needs to be sustained into the future (at present
1669 there is only one laboratory able to produce it). Community-wide agreement on
1670 best practices and approaches is needed for measurements that enable accurate
1671 estimation of air-sea CO_2 fluxes.

1672 **Opportunities** There are opportunities to improve the spatial and temporal
1673 resolution of *in-situ* data through autonomous platforms, such as BGC-Argo floats
1674 (Williams et al., 2017; Bittig et al., 2018; Claustre et al., 2020) and autonomous
1675 surface vehicles or sail drones (Sabine et al., 2020; Chiodi et al., 2021; Sutton et al.,
1676 2021). Furthermore, as technology and instrumentation continues to advance,
1677 there are opportunities to develop and integrate new sensors on these platforms,
1678 such as exploiting polarimetry to detect PIC (Bishop et al., 2022). There may be

1679 opportunities to extend recent efforts to develop Fiducial Reference Measurements
1680 (FRM) for satellite products (e.g., Le Menn et al., 2019; Banks et al., 2020;
1681 Mertikas et al., 2020) to *in-situ* measurements of inorganic carbon. This could
1682 help towards generating robust, community-accepted processes and protocols,
1683 needed to satisfy issues related to integrating *in-situ* datasets from different
1684 sources.

1685 3.5.3. IC priority 2: Satellite retrievals and mapping uncertainty

1686 **Challenges:** Estimating some components of the inorganic carbon cycle
1687 in optically-complex water is challenging. For example, current PIC satellite
1688 products are global and are not as accurate in environments where other highly
1689 scattering materials are present (e.g., coastal shelf seas, but see Shutler et al.,
1690 2010, who used of machine learning and computer vision approaches), and can
1691 be flagged as clouds. For all inorganic products (including TA and, ΔCO_2) there
1692 are also trade-offs related to retaining the use of satellite algorithms based on
1693 theoretical understanding, and harnessing new powerful empirical (black box)
1694 approaches, such as machine learning.

1695 **Gaps:** The lack of pixel-by-pixel uncertainty estimates in the satellite prod-
1696 ucts, for all components of the inorganic carbon cycle and carbonate system, is a
1697 major gap that needs to be addressed. There is a crucial lack of coincident *in-situ*
1698 observations of PIC concentrations and other highly scattering materials, along
1699 with full spectral measurements of specific inherent optical properties for PIC,
1700 needed to improve PIC concentration estimates in optically complex water.

1701 **Opportunities:** Plans for improved spatial, spectral and temporal resolution
1702 of satellite sensors will likely lead to improvements in IC satellite products.
1703 For example, in optically complex waters, hyperspectral satellite data may help
1704 differentiate among particles that scatter light with high efficiency, and lead to
1705 improved PIC products. **Information on light polarisation (e.g. from PACE) may**
1706 **also be useful for improving PIC algorithms.** There may be opportunities to
1707 harness and build on recent techniques used to map uncertainty in satellite organic
1708 carbon products (e.g., Evers-King et al., 2017; Martínez-Vicente et al., 2017;
1709 Brewin et al., 2017a; IOCCG, 2019) for the mapping of uncertainty in satellite

1710 inorganic carbon products and flux estimates.

1711 3.5.4. IC priority 3: Models and data integration

1712 **Challenges:** Bridging the differences in spatial and temporal scales in data
1713 products and models, and differences in units (e.g. what is measured versus
1714 what is represented in the models), is a major challenge in producing accurate
1715 inorganic carbon and flux products. There are also challenges in extrapolating
1716 $p\text{CO}_2$ observations to the surface and horizontally (see Woolf et al., 2016).

1717 **Gaps:** Closer collaboration between data generators and modellers is required
1718 to improve the development of satellite-based inorganic carbon products for
1719 integration into Earth System Models (Cronin et al., 2022).

1720 **Opportunities:** Enhanced computer processing power (e.g., quantum com-
1721 puting), and the development of new statistical tools for big data (e.g., machine
1722 learning), offer opportunities to improve model and data integration. There are
1723 opportunities to improve model products by reconciling model carbon budgets
1724 with both satellite and *in-situ* observations, for example, by constraining the dif-
1725 ferent terms within the budget. Increases in the amount of data produced from a
1726 range of sources (models, satellites, ships, autonomous platforms, etc.) mean that
1727 improved links among biogeochemical, physical, optical and biological data could
1728 help improve data products (e.g., Bittig et al., 2018). Additionally, assimilation
1729 of these large dataset into models could improve reanalysis products, providing
1730 accurate, high resolution $p\text{CO}_2$, DIC and TA estimations on local, regional and
1731 global scales (Verdy and Mazloff, 2017; Rosso et al., 2017; Carroll et al., 2020,
1732 2022).

1733 There is a key opportunity to pursue a full and routine integration of *in-situ*,
1734 model, and satellite observations to enable routine assessment of the surface water
1735 $p\text{CO}_2$, air-sea exchange and the net integrated air-sea flux (or ocean sink) of
1736 carbon. This has been highlighted previously and is needed to support policy
1737 decisions for reducing emissions (Shutler et al., 2019).

1738 3.5.5. IC priority 4: Mechanistic understanding of gas transfer

1739 **Challenges:** Air-sea gas transfer remains a controlling source of uncertainty

1740 within global assessments of the oceanic sink of CO₂ (Woolf et al., 2019). Despite
1741 significant progress in our ability to measure gas exchange, our mechanistic
1742 understanding of gas transfer is incomplete (see Yang et al., 2022b).

1743 **Gaps:** There is a need to move away from wind speed as a proxy for air-sea
1744 transfer (Shutler et al., 2019) as many other processes control the transfer includ-
1745 ing wave breaking, surfactants and bubbles and new advances in understanding
1746 are now being made (e.g. Bell et al., 2017; Blomquist et al., 2017; Pereira et al.,
1747 2018). The carbon dynamics and air-sea CO₂ fluxes within mixed sea ice regions
1748 provides further complexities and are poorly understood (see Gupta et al., 2020;
1749 Watts et al., 2022) and these regions are expected to grow with a warming climate
1750 which illustrates a major gap in understanding.

1751 There are large uncertainties surrounding the influence of near surface tem-
1752 perature gradients on air-sea CO₂ fluxes (see Watson et al., 2020; Dong et al.,
1753 2022), and the role of wave breaking, bubbles and turbulence (see Bell et al.,
1754 2017; Blomquist et al., 2017).

1755 **Opportunities:** State-of-the-art flux measurement techniques, such as eddy
1756 covariance (see Dong et al., 2021), need to be established as FRM. There are
1757 then opportunities to exploit these techniques on novel platforms and to use novel
1758 autonomous technologies to improve understanding of air-sea CO₂ fluxes. The
1759 novel tools should be applied in a range of environments (e.g., low winds, high
1760 winds, marginal ice zones) to understand specific processes. For example, the
1761 influence of near surface temperature gradients on air-sea CO₂ fluxes is currently
1762 only theoretical and needs to be quantified/verified by direct observations. Im-
1763 provements in wind speed products could aid in better gas transfer (Taboada et al.,
1764 2019; Russell et al., 2021), although satellite-derived gas transfer estimates could
1765 also be improved if measures other than wind speed are exploited that provide
1766 more direct observations of surface structure and turbulence (e.g., sea state or sea
1767 surface roughness using radar backscattering observations, see Goddijn-Murphy
1768 et al., 2013).

1769 **4. Cross-cutting activities**

1770 *4.1. Blue Carbon (BC)*

1771 Tidal marshes, mangroves, macroalgae and seagrass beds, collectively referred
1772 to as BC ecosystems, are some of the most carbon-dense habitats on Earth. Despite
1773 occupying only 0.2 % of the ocean surface, they are thought to contribute around
1774 50 % of carbon burial in marine sediments, with a global stock size in the region
1775 of 10 to 24 Gt C (Duarte et al., 2013). In addition to providing many essential
1776 services, such as coastal storm and sea level protection, water quality regulation,
1777 wildlife habitat, biodiversity, shoreline stabilization, and food security, they are
1778 highly productive ecosystems that have the capacity to sequester vast amounts of
1779 carbon and store it in their biomass and their soils (Mcleod et al., 2011). However,
1780 their carbon sequestration capacity, carbon storage, and carbon export, depend
1781 on many critical processes, including inundation dynamics, sea level rise, air-
1782 and water pollution, changes in salinity regimes, and rising temperatures. All
1783 of which are sensitive to human impacts and climate change (Macreadie et al.,
1784 2019) with coastal ecosystems being a highly active interface between human and
1785 natural infrastructures and a complex mix of natural and anthropogenic processes.

1786 The role that blue carbon habitats play in regional and global carbon budgets
1787 and fluxes is a big focus in carbon research (Mcleod et al., 2011). One of the
1788 biggest unknowns and largest sources of uncertainty in quantifying the role these
1789 systems play in global carbon budgets and fluxes, is mapping the spatial extent
1790 of BC and how it is changing. Satellites can play a major role in this, but an
1791 important distinction compared to green carbon (carbon that is contained in living
1792 vegetation and soil of terrestrial forest ecosystems; Mackey et al., 2008), is that
1793 the carbon is primarily stored below rather than above ground.

1794 *4.1.1. State of the art in Blue Carbon*

1795 Remote sensing technologies are increasingly used for studying BC ecosys-
1796 tems, owing to their synoptic capabilities, repeatability, accuracy and low cost
1797 (Hossain et al., 2015; Pham et al., 2019b; Campbell et al., 2022). Various tech-
1798 niques have been utilised for this purpose, including spectral optical imagery,

1799 synthetic aperture radar (SAR), lidar and aerial photogrammetry (Pham et al.,
1800 2019a; Lamb et al., 2021). Of these technologies, high spatial resolution, multi-
1801 spectral and hyper-spectral optical imagery are used more commonly, with the
1802 Landsat time-series thought to be the most widely-used dataset for studying
1803 changes in BC remotely over the past decade (Giri et al., 2011; Pham et al., 2019a;
1804 Yang et al., 2022c).

1805 In recent years, there has been an increasing use of high resolution Sentinel-2
1806 and Landsat-8/9 imagery for mapping coastal BC, such as tidal marshes (e.g.,
1807 Sun et al., 2021; Cao and Tzortziou, 2021) and mangroves (e.g., Castillo et al.,
1808 2017). High frequency and high spatial resolution commercial satellites are
1809 also increasingly being used for BC research. For example, the PlanetScope
1810 constellation, DigitalGlobe's WorldView-2, and Planet's RapidEye satellites, are
1811 offering new insights into seagrass mapping (Wicaksono and Lazuardi, 2018;
1812 Traganos and Reinartz, 2018; Coffey et al., 2020). Despite being challenged
1813 by the optical complexity of nearshore coastal waters, and accurate nearshore
1814 atmospheric correction (Ibrahim et al., 2018; Tzortziou et al., 2018), submerged
1815 aquatic vegetation habitats are now being studied remotely. For example, Huber
1816 et al. (2021) used Sentinel-2 data, together with machine learning techniques
1817 and advanced data processing, to map and monitor submerged aquatic vegetation
1818 habitats, including kelp forests, eelgrass meadows and rockweed beds, in Denmark
1819 and Sweden. Optical satellite remote sensing has been increasingly used for
1820 mapping benthic and pelagic macroalgae (e.g., Gower et al., 2006; Hu, 2009;
1821 Cavanaugh et al., 2010; Hu et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018; Schroeder et al., 2019;
1822 Wang and Hu, 2021), and has highlighted that macroalgae blooms are increasing
1823 in severity and frequency (Gower et al., 2013; Smetacek and Zingone, 2013; Qi
1824 et al., 2016, 2017; Wang et al., 2019), with implications for carbon fixation and
1825 sequestration (Paraguay-Delgado et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2021).

1826 International efforts have focused on translating science into policy, man-
1827 agement and finance tools for conservation and restoration of blue carbon
1828 ecosystems, for example, through the Blue Carbon Initiative ([https://www.
1829 thebluecarboninitiative.org](https://www.thebluecarboninitiative.org)). Large scale mapping of ecosystem extent, change,

1830 and attributes such as carbon, is essential for blue carbon prioritisation and im-
1831 plementation at global to local scales, and remote sensing plays a key role in
1832 this. For example, Goldberg et al. (2020) used satellite observations to help map
1833 mangrove coverage and change, and understand anthropogenic drivers of loss.
1834 The Global Mangrove Watch global mangrove forest baseline (taken as the year
1835 2010) was recently updated (v2.5) and has resulted in an additional of 2,660 km²,
1836 yielding a revised global mangrove extent of 140,260 km² (Bunting et al., 2022).
1837 However, this needs to be built upon for BC as different species will have different
1838 below-ground biomass. Therefore, the carbon trapping efficiency and carbon
1839 uptake needs to be measured and used to calibrate maps of habitat extent. The
1840 development of similar tools and baselines for seagrass, salt marsh, and kelp
1841 ecosystems is needed. For a recent review on the topic of remote sensing of BC,
1842 the reader is referred to Pham et al. (2019a).

1843 At the workshop, three priorities were identified in relation to the remote
1844 sensing of BC, these are summarised in Table 8 and include: 1) satellite sensors;
1845 2) algorithms, retrievals and model integration; and 3) data access and accounting.

1846 *4.1.2. BC priority 1: Satellite sensors*

1847 **Challenges:** Owing to the high temporal variability and heterogeneity of
1848 many BC ecosystems (tidal or otherwise), there is a requirement for monitoring
1849 at high temporal (hourly) and spatial (tidal) scales. This is challenging with the
1850 current fleet of Earth Observing satellites.

1851 **Gaps:** Although Landsat has proven vital for the long-term monitoring of
1852 some BC ecosystems (e.g., Ha et al., 2021), there is a lack of long-term satellite
1853 datasets for change detection in many BC ecosystems.

1854 **Opportunities:** New sensors and techniques are leading to significant ad-
1855 vancements in the spatial and temporal characterization and monitoring of BC
1856 ecosystems. New hyperspectral observations (e.g., PACE, GLIMR, PRISMA,
1857 *DLR Earth Sensing Imaging Spectrometer (DESI), Environmental Mapping
1858 and Analysis Program (EnMAP); NASA's Surface Biology and Geology (SBG);
1859 CHIME*) at high to medium resolution and global scale, have the potential to
1860 distinguish differences among mangrove, seagrass, salt marsh species, and esti-

1861 mate satellite products relevant to carbon quality. High spatial resolution (3-5 m)
1862 imagery from constellations of satellite sensors (e.g., PlanetScope) provides
1863 an unprecedented dataset to study vegetation characteristics in BC ecosystems
1864 (Warwick-Champion et al., 2022). Multiple images per day from new geosta-
1865 tionary satellite instruments (e.g., GLIMR), will allow to capture tidal dynamics
1866 in BC ecosystems, and monitor them (e.g., seagrass meadows) under optimum
1867 conditions. Additionally, there is scope to build on efforts to develop satellite
1868 climate records (e.g., through ESA's CCI) with a focus on BC, to help develop
1869 the long-term data records needed.

1870 4.1.3. BC priority 2: Algorithms, retrievals and model integration

1871 **Challenges:** Considering many BC remote sensing approaches are regional,
1872 they are not easily applied (or have been tested) at global scale. Owing to the
1873 complexity of some of the techniques, uncertainty estimation for carbon fluxes in
1874 BC ecosystems is particularly challenging. Regarding the detection of subaquatic
1875 vegetation (and some other BC ecosystems), there are large uncertainties in
1876 the impact of the atmosphere and water depth on the signal. Considering large
1877 quantities of carbon are stored in the sediments of BC habitats, there are challenges
1878 to develop direct or indirect satellite techniques to monitor the dynamics of
1879 sediment carbon. The lack of models that link carbon storage and cycling in
1880 terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems, further challenges our understanding of carbon
1881 fluxes and stocks in BC habitats. Sub-pixel variability poses a challenge when
1882 monitoring macroalgae using coarser resolution satellite data.

1883 **Gaps:** A major gap to improving algorithms and methods, is the limited
1884 availability of *in-situ* data for development and validation. For example, the lack
1885 of measurements on rates (e.g., *Sargassum* carbon fixation and sequestration
1886 efficiency) severely limits our ability to quantify large scale BC budgets (e.g., for
1887 pelagic macroalgae, see Hu et al., 2021). The lack of basic ecosystem mapping
1888 and change detection for seagrasses and kelp forests, limits our ability to extrap-
1889 olate these measurements to large scales using remote sensing. The lack of BC
1890 ecosystem models limits our ability to quantify full BC carbon budgets (including
1891 soil) globally.

1892 **Opportunities:** With improvements in computation power and statistical
1893 analysis of big data (e.g., techniques like machine learning) there is scope to
1894 improve satellite algorithms and methods of BC carbon quantification (e.g., Huber
1895 et al., 2021). Additionally, fusion of hyperspectral optical and SAR data provides
1896 a promising approach for characterization of tidal wetland interfaces, including
1897 wetland vegetation characteristics, inundation regimes, and their impact on carbon
1898 fluxes. New *in-situ* monitoring techniques (e.g., drones) are becoming useful to
1899 bridge the scales between satellites and *in-situ* BC monitoring (e.g., Duffy et al.,
1900 2018).

1901 4.1.4. BC priority 3: *Satellite data access and blue carbon accounting*

1902 **Challenges:** Existing products and approaches are not easily accessible by
1903 users who have limited remote sensing expertise. With the increasing use of com-
1904 mercial satellites, there are challenges to ensure cost-effective monitoring using
1905 remote sensing techniques to track the progress of rehabilitation and restoration
1906 of blue carbon ecosystems.

1907 **Gaps:** There are a lack of products suited to project development and carbon
1908 accounting. The remote-sensing science community must work directly with
1909 policymakers, conservationists, and others, to ensure advances in such products
1910 are tailored to applications and that the tools developed are available broadly
1911 and equitably. Products are also now needed on global scales, at higher spatial
1912 and temporal resolutions, and in a broader range of ecosystems, to support BC
1913 integration into national carbon accounts and to expand the application of carbon
1914 financing.

1915 **Opportunities:** There is increasing momentum towards efforts to develop BC
1916 habitat mapping portals that are user friendly, for example, see Huber et al. (2021).
1917 These developments are needed to support blue carbon based conservation and
1918 restoration and have been instrumental in the recent development of blue carbon
1919 policy and financing by supporting prioritisation, assessment, and monitoring.

1920 4.2. *Extreme Events (EEs)*

1921 **EEs** can be defined as events that occur in the upper or lower end of the range
1922 of historical measurements (Katz and Brown, 1992). Such events occur in the
1923 atmosphere (e.g., tropical cyclones, dust storms), ocean (e.g., marine heatwaves,
1924 tsunami's), and on land (e.g., volcanic eruption, extreme bushfires), affecting
1925 marine carbon cycling at multiple spatial-temporal scales (Bates et al., 1998;
1926 Jickells et al., 2005; Gruber et al., 2021). With continued global warming in the
1927 coming decades, many **EEs** are expected to intensify, occur more frequently, last
1928 longer and extend over larger regions (Huang et al., 2015; Diffenbaugh et al., 2017;
1929 Frölicher et al., 2018). Extreme events and their effects on marine ecosystems and
1930 carbon cycling can be observed, to some extent, by various methods, including:
1931 ships, buoys, autonomous platforms and satellite sensors (e.g., Di Biagio et al.,
1932 2020; Hayashida et al., 2020; Le Grix et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022). Here, we
1933 first provide a broad overview of the current state of the art in the topic, before
1934 highlighting the priorities identified at the workshop.

1935 *4.2.1. State of the art in Extreme Events*

1936 Extremely high temperatures and droughts due to global warming are expected
1937 to result in more frequent and intense wildfires and dust storm events in some
1938 regions (Huang et al., 2015; Abatzoglou et al., 2019; Harris and Lucas, 2019).
1939 Aerosols emitted from wildfire and dust storms can significantly impact marine
1940 biogeochemistry through wet and dry deposition (Gao et al., 2019), by supplying
1941 soluble nutrients (Schlosser et al., 2017; Barkley et al., 2019), especially essential
1942 trace metals such as iron (Jickells et al., 2005; Mahowald et al., 2005, 2011)
1943 which can also enhance the export of carbon from the photic zone to depth
1944 (Pabortsava et al., 2017). The record-breaking Australian wildfire that occurred
1945 between September 2019 and March 2020 was evaluated using a combination of
1946 satellite, BGC-Argo float, *in-situ* atmospheric sampling and primary productivity
1947 estimation (Li et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022). The wildfire
1948 released aerosols that contained essential nutrients such as iron for growth of
1949 marine phytoplankton. These aerosols were transported by westerly winds over
1950 the South Pacific Ocean and the deposition resulted in widespread phytoplankton
1951 blooms. Severe dust storms, observable from space, in arid or semi-arid regions

1952 can also transport aerosols to coastal and open ocean waters increasing ocean
1953 primary productivity (Gabric et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2016; Yoon et al., 2017).

1954 Volcanic eruptions can also fertilise the ocean. The solubility and bioavailabil-
1955 ity of volcanic ash is thought to be much higher than mineral dust (Achterberg
1956 et al., 2013; Lindenthal et al., 2013), and can act as the source of nutrients and/or
1957 organic carbon for microbial plankton, and influence aggregation processes (Wein-
1958 bauer et al., 2017). The first multi-platform observation (using SeaWiFS images
1959 and *in-situ* data) of the impact of a volcano eruption was provided by Uematsu
1960 et al. (2004), who observed the enhancement of primary productivity caused
1961 by the additional atmospheric deposition from the Miyake-jima Volcano in the
1962 nutrient-deficient region south of the Kuroshio. Lin et al. (2011) observed ab-
1963 normally high phytoplankton biomass from satellite and elevated concentrations
1964 of limiting nutrients, from laboratory experiments, caused by aerosol released
1965 by the Anatahan Volcano in 2003. The eruption of Kīlauea volcano triggered a
1966 diatom-dominated phytoplankton bloom near Hawaii (Wilson et al., 2019). More
1967 recently, the eruption of Hunga Tonga–Hunga Ha’apai ejected about 400,000
1968 tonnes of SO₂, threw ash high into the stratosphere, and caused a catastrophic
1969 tsunami on Tonga’s nearby islands (Witze, 2022). Detailed observations on its
1970 biochemical effects have yet to be reported.

1971 Using satellite data with *in-situ* observations, and profiling floats, recent re-
1972 search showed remarkable changes during marine heatwaves (MHWs) in the
1973 oceanic carbon system (Long et al., 2021; Gruber et al., 2021; Burger et al., Ac-
1974 cepted) and phytoplankton structures (Yang et al., 2018; Le Grix et al., 2021), that
1975 are linked to background nutrient concentrations (Hayashida et al., 2020). MHWs
1976 (and cold spells) are defined as prolonged periods of anomalously high (low)
1977 ocean temperatures (Hobday et al., 2016), which can have devastating impacts on
1978 marine organisms and socio-economics systems (Cavole et al., 2016; Wernberg
1979 et al., 2016; Couch et al., 2017; Frölicher and Laufkötter, 2018; Hughes et al.,
1980 2018; Smale et al., 2019; Cheung et al., 2021). MHWs and cold spells are caused
1981 by a combination of local oceanic and atmospheric processes, and modulated
1982 by large-scale climate variability and change (Holbrook et al., 2019; Vogt et al.,

1983 2022). As a consequence of long-term ocean warming, MHWs have become
1984 longer-lasting and more frequent, and have impacted increasingly large areas
1985 (Frölicher et al., 2018; Oliver et al., 2018). Satellite and autonomous platforms
1986 have been used to study MHWs in many regions, including: the Mediterranean
1987 Sea (Olita et al., 2007; Bensoussan et al., 2010), the East China Sea (Tan and
1988 Cai, 2018), NE Pacific (Bif et al., 2019), the Atlantic (Rodrigues et al., 2019),
1989 Western Australia (Pearce and Feng, 2013) and the Tasman Sea (Oliver et al.,
1990 2017; Salinger et al., 2019).

1991 Tropical cyclones (called hurricanes or typhoons in different regions) are
1992 defined as non-frontal, synoptic scale, low-pressure systems over tropical or sub-
1993 tropical waters with organized convection (Lander and Holland, 1993). They
1994 can bring deep nutrients up into the photic zone and lead to changes in the
1995 local carbon system by cooling the sea surface (Li et al., 2009; Chen et al.,
1996 2017; Osburn et al., 2019). Satellite data are often used for studying tropical
1997 cyclones, however, it is difficult to obtain clear images shortly after typhoons due
1998 to extensive cloud cover (Naik et al., 2008; Hung et al., 2010; Zang et al., 2020).
1999 Combining satellite observations with Argo float and biogeochemical models is
2000 increasingly being used to understand biological impacts of tropical cyclones
2001 (Shang et al., 2008; Chai et al., 2021). D'Sa et al. (2018) have reported intense
2002 changes in dissolved organic matter dynamics after Hurricane Harvey in 2017
2003 and then reported changes in particulate and dissolved organic matter dynamics
2004 and fluxes after Hurricane Michael in 2018 (D'Sa et al., 2019), highlighting
2005 the importance of using multiple satellite data with different resolutions as well
2006 as hydrodynamic models. Using the constellation of Landsat-8 and Sentinel-
2007 2A/2B sensors, Cao and Tzortziou (2021) showed strong carbon export from
2008 the Blackwater National Wildlife Refuge marsh into the Chesapeake Bay and
2009 increase in estuarine DOC concentrations by more than a factor of two after the
2010 passage of Hurricane Matthew compared to pre-hurricane levels under similar
2011 tidal conditions.

2012 The impacts of marine compound events, defined as extremes in different
2013 hazards that occur simultaneously or in close spatial-temporal sequence, are being

2014 increasingly studied (Gruber et al., 2021). The dual or even triple compound
2015 extremes such as ocean warming, deoxygenation and acidification, could lead
2016 to particularly high biological and ecological impacts (Gruber, 2011; Zscheis-
2017 chler et al., 2018; Le Grix et al., 2021; Burger et al., Accepted). The increasing
2018 prevalence of extreme Harmful Algae Blooms (HAB) have been linked with ex-
2019 treme events, and satellites play a major role in their monitoring and management
2020 (IOCCG, 2021). Although EEs have emerged as a topic of great interest over the
2021 past decade, our understanding of their impacts on the marine ecosystems and
2022 ocean carbon cycle remains limited.

2023 At the workshop, three priorities (summarised in Table 9) were identified in
2024 relation to understanding impacts of EEs on the ocean carbon cycle: 1) *in-situ*
2025 data; 2) satellite sensing technology; and 3) model synergy and transdisciplinary
2026 research.

2027 4.2.2. EEs priority 1: *In-situ* data

2028 **Challenges:** *In-situ* observations are essential to monitor EEs, especially
2029 considering some EEs are hard to monitor from space (e.g., clouds with tropical
2030 cyclones or volcanic eruptions) and require ground truthing, owing to challenges
2031 around satellite retrievals (e.g., atmospheric aerosols with dust events and volcanic
2032 eruptions). In some cases, EEs can be close to the valid range of measurements
2033 retrieved by satellites. Considering the temporal scales of EEs, their sporadic
2034 occurrence, and hazardous environments, they are extremely challenging and
2035 sometimes dangerous to monitor *in-situ* using ship-based techniques.

2036 **Gaps:** At present there are major gaps in the availability of *in-situ* observations
2037 of EEs. This severely limits our understanding of their impact on the ocean
2038 carbon cycle. Gaps are even greater in subsurface waters. Long time-series
2039 measurements with high frequency resolution are also essential to provide robust
2040 baselines against which extremes can be detected and attributed.

2041 **Opportunities:** With an expanding network of autonomous *in-situ* platforms
2042 (Chai et al., 2020), we are becoming better positioned to monitor EEs. It will be
2043 important that these networks of autonomous *in-situ* platforms have fast response
2044 protocols that can be implemented soon after an extreme event takes place, so

2045 valuable data are collected and not missed. It is also essential that funding
2046 continues, at the international level, to support these expanding networks of
2047 autonomous platforms.

2048 *4.2.3. EEs priority 2: Satellite sensing technology*

2049 **Challenges:** Monitoring EEs from space requires suitable temporal and spatial
2050 coverage to track the event, which varies depending on the nature and location
2051 of the event. Some events require high temporal and spatial coverage, which
2052 challenges current remote sensing systems. Other challenges exist, for example,
2053 dealing with cloud coverage during tropical cyclones, or retrievals in the presence
2054 of complex aerosols (e.g., volcanic eruptions).

2055 **Gaps:** High temporal and spatial resolution data are required for monitoring
2056 some EEs. There are gaps in satellite data for some EEs (e.g., clouds). Algorithms
2057 for satellite retrievals during some EEs (e.g., volcanic eruptions) require detailed
2058 knowledge on the optical properties of the aerosols present. Long time-series
2059 remote sensing data are needed for baselines against which extremes can be
2060 monitored.

2061 **Opportunities:** Synergistic use of different long-term, high-frequency and
2062 high-resolution, remote sensing data may allow better insight into extreme events
2063 and their development. For example, combining ocean colour products from
2064 ESA's OC-CCI (e.g., Sathyendranath et al., 2019a) and the National Oceanic and
2065 Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Climate Data Record Programme (e.g.,
2066 Bates et al., 2016). The increased spectral, spatial and temporal resolution of
2067 the satellite sensors and platforms would help to improve understanding of the
2068 response of phytoplankton community (Losa et al., 2017) and their diel cycles to
2069 extreme events, and HAB detection, for example, with NASA's PACE mission
2070 (Werdell et al., 2019) and the Korean geostationary GOCI satellite platform (Choi
2071 et al., 2012). There are opportunities to derive indicators of EEs for determining
2072 good environmental status of our seas and oceans, for example, for use in the
2073 EU Marine Strategy Framework Directive and the Oslo and Paris (OSPAR)
2074 Conventions EEs and pollution monitoring.

2075 4.2.4. *EEs priority 3: Model synergy and transdisciplinary research*

2076 **Challenges:** Owing to gaps in observational platforms (both satellite and
2077 *in-situ* observations) and the transdisciplinary nature of **EEs**, there is a need to
2078 utilise Earth System Models (ESMs) for understanding **EEs** and projecting future
2079 scenarios, and to bring together communities from multiple fields.

2080 **Gaps:** Reliable projections of extreme events require higher spatial resolution
2081 ESMs, with improved representation of marine ecosystems. ESMs ideally need
2082 to include prognostic representations of **EEs** processes, and improvements are
2083 needed in coupling with land via aerosol emissions and deposition due to fires
2084 or due to dust. Transdisciplinary research on the impact of extremes on marine
2085 organisms and ecosystem services is needed to close knowledge gaps.

2086 **Opportunities:** With enhancements in computation power and improvements
2087 in ESMs and data assimilation techniques, there is likely to be an increasing use
2088 of ESMs for understanding **EEs**, and especially marine compound events. To
2089 promote cross-disciplinary research, support is needed for collaborative projects
2090 and digital platforms, to make data digestible to non-experts (e.g., Giovanni
2091 (<https://giovanni.gsfc.nasa.gov/giovanni/>), MyOcean [https://marine.copernicus.
2092 eu/access-data/myocean-viewer](https://marine.copernicus.eu/access-data/myocean-viewer))).

2093 4.3. *Carbon Budget Closure (CBC)*

2094 Quantifying the ocean carbon budget and understanding how it is responding
2095 to anthropogenic forcing is a major goal in climate research. It is widely accepted
2096 that the ocean has absorbed around a quarter of CO₂ emissions released anthro-
2097 pogenically, and that the ocean uptake of carbon has increased in proportion to
2098 increasing CO₂ emissions (Aricò et al., 2021). Yet, our understanding of the pools
2099 of carbon in the ocean, the processes that modulate them, and how they interact
2100 with the land and atmosphere, is not satisfactory enough to make confident predic-
2101 tions of how the ocean carbon budget is changing. Improving our understanding
2102 requires a holistic and integrated approach to ocean carbon cycle research, with
2103 monitoring systems capable of filling the gaps in our understanding (Aricò et al.,
2104 2021). Satellites can play a major role in this (Shutler et al., 2019).

2105 *4.3.1. State of the art in Carbon Budget Closure*

2106 Each year, the international Global Carbon project produces a budget of
2107 the Earth's carbon cycle (<https://www.globalcarbonproject.org/about/index.htm>),
2108 based on a combination of models and observations. In a recent report (Friedling-
2109 stein et al., 2022), for the year 2020, and for a total anthropogenic CO₂ emission of
2110 10.2 Gt C y⁻¹ (±0.8 Gt C y⁻¹), the oceans were found to absorb 3.0 Gt C y⁻¹ (±0.4
2111 Gt C y⁻¹), similar to that of the land at 2.9 Gt C y⁻¹ (±1.0 Gt C y⁻¹). Building on
2112 earlier reports (e.g., Hauck et al., 2020), this latest report highlighted an increasing
2113 divergence, in the order of 1.0 Gt C y⁻¹, between different methods, on the strength
2114 of the ocean sink over the last decade (Friedlingstein et al., 2022), with models
2115 reporting a smaller sink than observation-based data-products (acknowledging
2116 that observation-based data-products are heavily extrapolated). Results from
2117 this report suggest our ability to predict the ocean sink could be deteriorating.
2118 Understanding the causes of this discrepancy is undoubtedly a major challenge.
2119 Possible causes include: uncertainty in the river flux adjustment that needs to be
2120 added to the data-products in order to account for different flux components being
2121 represented in models and data-products; data sparsity; methodological issues in
2122 the mapping of methods used in data-products; underestimation of wind speeds in
2123 the climate reanalyses (Verezemskaya et al., 2017), model physics biases; possible
2124 issues in air-sea gas exchange calculations; and underestimation of the role of
2125 biology in air-sea gas exchange. Or possibly some compound effects of these
2126 causes.

2127 It is clear satellite data can help in addressing this issue. For example, through
2128 assimilation of physical data (temperature, salinity, altimeter) into high resolution
2129 physical models, to improve model physics (e.g., Verdy and Mazloff, 2017; Carroll
2130 et al., 2020) or ocean colour data assimilation to improve the representation of
2131 biology (e.g., Gregg, 2001, 2008; Rouseaux and Gregg, 2015; Gregg et al., 2017;
2132 Ciavatta et al., 2018; Skákala et al., 2018). A recent budget analysis using ECCO-
2133 Darwin successfully managed to close the global carbon budget "gap" between
2134 observation-based products and biogeochemical models (see Carroll et al., 2022).
2135 Other ways satellites could help include: by improving observation-based data-

2136 products (e.g. using direct SST skin measurements Watson et al., 2020), through
2137 improved estimates or river-induced carbon outgassing and deposition in the
2138 sediments, and even through better understanding of the way ocean biology is
2139 responding to climate (Kulk et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2021; Wang
2140 et al., 2022). On this latter point, whereas it is accepted that biology is critical
2141 to maintaining the surface to depth gradient of DIC (estimated to be responsible
2142 for around 70 % of it; Sarmiento and Gruber, 2006), the role of biology in ocean
2143 anthropogenic CO₂ uptake has been thought to be minor, based on a lack of
2144 evidence that the biological carbon pump has changed over the recent (industrial)
2145 period, or that any change is sufficient to impact anthropogenic CO₂ uptake. An
2146 assumption that is now being challenged. It has been shown in ocean models
2147 that with a future reduced buffer factor, the CO₂ uptake may increase during
2148 the phytoplankton growth season (Hauck and Völker, 2015). This ‘seasonal
2149 ocean carbon cycle feedback’ leads to an increase of ocean carbon uptake by 8 %
2150 globally in a high-emission scenario RCP8.5 by 2100 (Fassbender et al., 2022).
2151 Increasing amplitudes of the seasonal cycle of *p*CO₂ can already be determined
2152 in *p*CO₂-based data-products (Landschützer et al., 2018).

2153 Satellite ocean carbon products have expanded in recent years (CEOS, 2014;
2154 Brewin et al., 2021), to the point where some satellite-based carbon budgets may be
2155 feasible in the surface mixed layer. For example, we are now in a position to use
2156 satellite data to improve our understanding of how organic carbon is partitioned
2157 into particulate carbon and dissolved carbon (DOC), how particulate carbon (PC)
2158 is partitioned into organic (POC) and inorganic (PIC) contributions (**PC = PIC**
2159 **+ POC**), how POC is partitioned into algal (C-phyto) and non-algal portions,
2160 and the relationships between phytoplankton carbon (C-phyto) and **PP** (and net
2161 community production), which can give information on turnover times for marine
2162 phytoplankton. Considering the continuous ocean-colour record started in 1997,
2163 we can begin to develop an understanding how these budgets are changing. This
2164 could be extremely useful for evaluating models.

2165 Notwithstanding the potential and use of satellite-based carbon budgets, many
2166 carbon pools and fluxes are still not amenable from satellite remote sensing,

2167 that satellite ocean observations are limited to the surface ocean, to cloud-free
2168 conditions and low to moderate sun-zenith angles (for some systems), have diffi-
2169 culties in coastal regions, and in spatial and temporal resolution. Thus to quantify
2170 ocean carbon budgets, an integrated approach is required, combining satellite
2171 data with other observations (*in situ*) and with models. A nice demonstration
2172 of this is a recent study by Nowicki et al. (2022), who assimilated satellite and
2173 *in-situ* data into an ensemble numerical model of the ocean’s biological carbon
2174 pump, to quantify global and regional carbon export and sequestration, and the
2175 contributions from three key pathways to export: gravitational sinking of particles,
2176 vertical migration of organisms, and physical mixing of organic material. Their
2177 analysis demonstrated large regional variations in the export of organic carbon,
2178 the pathways that control export, and the sequestration timescales of the export.
2179 It also suggested ocean carbon storage will weaken as the oceans stratify, and the
2180 subtropical gyres expand due to anthropogenic climate change. *It is, perhaps, that*
2181 *mechanisms thought to be understood decades ago about the ocean biological*
2182 *carbon pump have already evolved with climate change.*

2183 Three priorities were identified at the workshop in relation to carbon budget
2184 closure (CBC). These are summarised in Table 10 and include: 1) *in-situ* data;
2185 2) satellite algorithms, budgets and uncertainties; and 3) model and satellite
2186 integration.

2187 4.3.2. CBC priority 1: *In-situ* data

2188 **Challenges:** As emphasised throughout previous sections, *in-situ* data are
2189 central to algorithm development and validation of ocean carbon products. Some
2190 carbon pools and fluxes are easier to measure *in situ* than others. Consequently,
2191 the quality, quantity and spatial distribution of *in-situ* measurements vary de-
2192 pending on the pool or flux being studied. This makes it challenging for budget
2193 computations.

2194 **Gaps:** Very few, if any, datasets exist (or are accessible) on concurrent and co-
2195 located *in-situ* measurements of all the key pools and fluxes required to evaluate
2196 satellite or model budgets. Some remote regions that are thought to play a critical
2197 role in global budgets, such as the Southern Ocean, are severely under-sampled.

2198 There are gaps in some key measurements in many regions (e.g., for organic
2199 carbon budgets, photosynthesis irradiance parameters, see Bouman et al., 2018;
2200 Sathyendranath et al., 2020).

2201 **Opportunities:** As technology develops, improved methods are being devel-
2202 oped to measure pools and fluxes of carbon in the ocean. Some of these methods
2203 (e.g., Williams et al., 2017; Estapa et al., 2017; Bresnahan et al., 2017; Sutton
2204 et al., 2021; Bishop et al., 2022) have the potential to be (or have already been)
2205 integrated into networks of autonomous platforms, such as gliders and BGC-Argo
2206 floats. New methods are also being developed to quantify carbon pools and
2207 fluxes from standard biogeochemical measurements on autonomous platforms
2208 (e.g., Dall’Olmo et al., 2016; Claustre et al., 2020; Giering et al., 2020; Claustre
2209 et al., 2021; Johnson and Bif, 2021). As *in-situ* data grow with time, it is feasible
2210 to quantify properties of carbon budgets from *in-situ* compilations that can be
2211 used to check and constrain satellite or model budgets. For example, empirical
2212 relationships among POC, C-phyto, and Chl-a (Sathyendranath et al., 2009), have
2213 proven useful in model evaluations of emergent carbon budgets (de Mora et al.,
2214 2016).

2215 4.3.3. CBC priority 2: Satellite algorithms, budgets and uncertainties

2216 **Challenges:** When closing the ocean carbon budget, it is critical that there is
2217 coherence in the satellite data fields we input into the different satellite algorithms,
2218 and that uncertainties are available for model propagation. Additionally, and as
2219 identified in previous sections, some of the pools and fluxes of carbon require
2220 satellite data with higher spatial, temporal, and spectral resolution. There is a
2221 need for consistency in algorithms used to quantify budgets (see Sathyendranath
2222 et al., 2020), and these algorithms must respect properties of the ecosystem known
2223 from *in-situ* data.

2224 In the context of quantifying the ocean carbon budget, the pools and fluxes
2225 have to fit together in a consistent way. Therefore, it is important to not only
2226 consider the uncertainties in individual products, but to analyse uncertainties in
2227 multiple products to identify any discrepancies. This requires that we analyse
2228 each of the products in relation to all the other products and see whether they

2229 hold together in a coherent fashion. **These checks** can also help to constrain those
2230 components which are impossible to observe or that are more uncertain.

2231 **Gaps:** Many satellite carbon products lack associated estimates of uncertainty.
2232 The uncertainties for individual products are also needed when combining mul-
2233 tiple products to assess carbon budgets. Considering the importance of model
2234 parameters in satellite algorithms, more work is needed to improve estimates of
2235 uncertainties in model parameters and look towards dynamic, rather than static,
2236 assignment of parameters in carbon algorithms. From an Earth system perspective,
2237 increasing emphasis needs to be placed on harmonising satellite carbon products
2238 across different planetary domains, and evaluating the impact of using different
2239 input climate data records.

2240 **Opportunities:** With the development of consistent and stable climate data
2241 records, with associated estimates of uncertainty (e.g., ESA CCI), we are now
2242 in a good position to utilise coherent satellite data fields as input to ocean car-
2243 bon algorithms. The development of new satellite sensors, with higher spatial,
2244 temporal and spectral resolution, will lead to improved satellite algorithms and
2245 more confident carbon budgets. New approaches and statistical techniques (e.g.,
2246 machine learning) are becoming available, and offer potential to get at pools and
2247 fluxes of carbon from satellite that were previously not feasible to monitor from
2248 space.

2249 4.3.4. CBC priority 3: Model and satellite integration

2250 **Challenges:** A major challenge in bringing satellite observations together
2251 with models, is dealing with the contrasting spatial scales in the two types of
2252 datasets. Quantifying carbon budgets through data integration also requires
2253 appreciation of the different temporal scales that the pools and fluxes operate
2254 on. This is particularly true from an Earth system approach, considering the
2255 timescales of carbon cycling differ **among** the ocean, land and atmosphere.

2256 **Gaps:** Successful integration of satellite carbon products with models requires
2257 accurate uncertainties in the satellite observations and model simulations. These
2258 are often not available. Greater emphasis is needed on model diversity, which
2259 should help increase confidence in carbon budgets and improve understanding.

2260 **Opportunities:** There are opportunities to harness new developments in data
2261 assimilation to help constrain carbon budgets, through the use of new satellite
2262 biological products (e.g. community structure, Ciavatta et al., 2018; Skákala et al.,
2263 2018) and advancements in optical modules for autonomous platforms (Terzić
2264 et al., 2019, 2021), or through combined physical and biological data assimilation
2265 (Song et al., 2016; IOCCG, 2020). There is scope to harness developments in ma-
2266 chine learning to help combine data and models, for example, bridging different
2267 spatial scales in the satellite and model products. Future enhancements in com-
2268 putation power (e.g., quantum computing) should lead to better representations
2269 of spatial scales in models (e.g., sub-mesoscale processes), improving carbon
2270 budgets.

2271 **5. Common themes**

2272 Figure 2 shows a word cloud produced using all the priorities identified across
2273 the nine themes of the workshop. It illustrates the dominant themes and subthemes
2274 emerging from all priorities identified. Commonalities among the nine themes of
2275 the workshop, include:

- 2276 • ***In-situ* data.** It is strikingly clear from this analysis the importance of
2277 *in-situ* data, for algorithm development and validation, for extrapolation
2278 of surface satellite fields to depth, for parametrisation and validation of
2279 ESMs, and for constraining estimates of the carbon budget. It is critical
2280 that the international community continues investing in the collection of
2281 *in-situ* data, in better data protocols and standards, community-agreed upon
2282 data structure and metadata, more intercomparison and intercalibration
2283 exercises, the development of new *in-situ* methods for measurement of
2284 carbon, and in the expanding networks of autonomous observations, that
2285 have the potential to radically improve the spatial and temporal coverage of
2286 *in-situ* data. There are clear challenges with respect to compiling large *in-*
2287 *situ* datasets from different sources, using different methods and protocols,
2288 for algorithm development and validation, that need to be addressed. It is

2289 important that the *in-situ*, satellite and modelling community communicates
2290 prior to collecting data, to ensure the data collected will be useful for the
2291 entire community.

2292 • **Satellite algorithm retrievals.** For all pools and fluxes of carbon, contin-
2293 ued development of satellite algorithms and retrieval techniques is critical
2294 to maximise the use of satellite data in carbon research. New satellites
2295 are being launched in the near future, with new capabilities and improved
2296 spatial, temporal and spectral resolution (see Table 2). Micro- and nano-
2297 satellites (CubeSats; Schueler and Holmes, 2016; Vanhellemont, 2019)
2298 have potential to be launched cheaply into low Earth orbit, in large swarms
2299 improving spatial and temporal coverage. New advanced statistical methods
2300 are emerging (e.g., advancements in artificial intelligence). New satellite
2301 data records are appearing, that will provide the much-needed coherence for
2302 input to multiple satellite carbon algorithms for budget calculations. Over
2303 the coming decades existing missions like Sentinel-3 OLCI, Sentinel-2 MSI
2304 and VIIRS, will provide better carbon products with real operational usage.
2305 Our community needs to be positioned to harness these opportunities. Satel-
2306 lite retrievals of carbon products critically rely on accurate atmospheric
2307 correction, and there are challenges around developing new atmospheric
2308 correction schemes for emerging sensors (Table 2). Additionally, contin-
2309 ued investment is required into basic and mechanistic understanding of
2310 the retrieval process, and improvements in retrievals in coastal and shelf
2311 sea environments and other optically complex waters, **which** is crucial for
2312 monitoring trends in satellite-based carbon products (e.g., Sathyendranath
2313 et al., 2017b).

2314 • **Uncertainty in data.** There is a clear requirement across all themes to
2315 provide uncertainty estimates with satellite, *in-situ* and model products.
2316 Continued investment in methods to quantify uncertainty is vital for quanti-
2317 fying carbon budgets and change (IOCCG, 2019; McKinna et al., 2019).

- 2318 • **Vertical distributions.** One of the major limitations of satellites, is that
2319 they only view the surface layer of the ocean. Sub-surface measurements
2320 are required to extrapolate the surface fields to depth. Synergy among
2321 satellite surface passive fields, satellite active-based sensors (e.g. lidar)
2322 that can penetrate further into the water column (Jamet et al., 2019), and
2323 the expanding networks of autonomous and *in-situ* observations, that are
2324 viewing the subsurface with ever-increasing coverage, for example, the
2325 global network of BGC-Argo floats (Roemmich et al., 2019; Claustre et al.,
2326 2020) and Bio-GO-SHIP (<https://biogoship.org>), is a clear focus for future
2327 ocean carbon research.
- 2328 • **Ocean models.** Many components of the ocean carbon cycle are not di-
2329 rectly observable through satellite, and some are even inherently difficult
2330 or expensive to measure *in situ*. To target these hidden pools and fluxes
2331 we must turn to models. Models can also help tackle the low temporal
2332 and spatial resolution of *in situ* data and issues around gaps in satellite
2333 data. Exploring synergy between satellite observations and models is clear
2334 priority for future ocean carbon research (IOCCG, 2020). New develop-
2335 ments in data assimilation may help (not only satellites, but growing data
2336 sources from autonomous platforms), and integration of radiative transfer
2337 into models, such that the models themselves become capable of simulat-
2338 ing fields of electromagnetic energy (e.g., Jones et al., 2016; Gregg and
2339 Rousseaux, 2017; Dutkiewicz et al., 2018, 2019; Terzić et al., 2019, 2021).
2340 We must continue to identify processes poorly represented in models, that
2341 can be subsequently improved in future model design. Observing System
2342 Simulation Experiments (OSSE) can be used to evaluate the impact of
2343 under sampled observing systems on obtained results, or evaluate the value
2344 of new observing systems design for optimal sampling strategies.
- 2345 • **Integration of data.** It is challenging to find an optimal way of combining
2346 satellites, models and *in-situ* observations, to produce best-quality data
2347 products. Integrated carbon products are required for near real-time fore-

2348 casting of the biogeochemical ocean carbon cycle. Additionally, they are
2349 required for regional or global impact assessments, to assess the multiple
2350 stressors (e.g., temperature change, ocean acidification) acting upon the
2351 marine ecosystem, and subsequent downstream effects on the carbon cycle
2352 (e.g., natural food web, fisheries, etc.). Continued efforts are required to
2353 develop methods and strategies to bridge the spatial and temporal scales
2354 of the different datasets (Cronin et al., 2022), and statistical methods like
2355 machine learning may help in this regard.

2356 • **Fundamental Understanding.** Continued investment is required into im-
2357 proving our fundamental understanding of the ocean carbon cycle, and on
2358 the interaction between pools of carbon and light. The latter is critical for
2359 the development of satellite carbon products. For example, there remains
2360 fundamental gaps in our understanding of controls on carbon cycling in the
2361 ocean by viruses and other microbes (Middelboe and Lyck, 2002; Worden
2362 et al., 2015).

2363 6. Emerging concerns and broader thoughts

2364 In addition to the common themes, during workshop discussions, other emerg-
2365 ing concerns and broader thoughts materialised, including:

2366 • **Bringing carbon communities together.** Considering the need to take a
2367 holistic, integrated approach to ocean carbon science (Aricò et al., 2021;
2368 Cronin et al., 2022), there is a strong requirement to bring different com-
2369 munities together working on different aspects of the ocean carbon cycle,
2370 that can often operate in a disparate fashion, including those working in
2371 different zones of the ocean (e.g., pelagic, mesopelagic, bathypelagic and
2372 abyssopelagic), on the inorganic and organic sides, field and laboratory sci-
2373 entists, remote sensing scientists and modellers. Furthermore, and taking an
2374 Earth system view, this should also be extended to those working on carbon
2375 in other planetary domains (Campbell et al., 2022). We need to improve
2376 our understanding of the connectivity between coastal and open-ocean

2377 ecosystems, for example, the potential impact of (large) rivers on oceanic
2378 carbon dynamics. A good example is the Observing Air-Sea Interactions
2379 Strategy (OASIS), a UN Ocean Decade-endorsed program that has brought
2380 together the carbon community to consolidate three interlinked grand ideas
2381 centred around: the building of a global *in-situ* air-sea observing network;
2382 the creation of a high temporal and spatial resolution satellite network for
2383 measuring air–sea fluxes; leading to improved models and understanding
2384 of air–sea interaction processes (Cronin et al., 2022).

2385 • **The need to maximise use of limited resources.** Current funding levels
2386 make it challenging to support adequate monitoring of core ocean carbon
2387 variables in addition to supporting innovative blue skies science. Increasing
2388 overall funding and separating the funding pots for the two activities could
2389 help to maximise monitoring and achieve key priorities for blue skies
2390 research.

2391 • **Improved distribution of satellite and model carbon products.** Al-
2392 though satellite-based carbon products are becoming available, more em-
2393 phasis is needed to integrate satellite carbon products, as well as model
2394 products, into operational satellite services to ensure end-user access, and
2395 make products more user friendly. This requires close dialogue with the
2396 user communities.

2397 • **Working with satellite carbon experts in different planetary domains.**
2398 More emphasis should be placed on harmonising satellite carbon products
2399 across different planetary domains (ocean, land, ice and air). This involves
2400 working closer with scientific communities working in the different spheres
2401 of the planet (Earth System approach).

2402 • **Carbon and environmental footprints of research.** Our communities
2403 need to start taking more responsibility to monitor and minimise the carbon
2404 and environmental footprints of scientific research, and improve how this is
2405 managed and controlled (e.g., Achten et al., 2013; Shutler, 2020). Greater

2406 stewardship is needed to document and track the carbon and environmental
2407 footprints of researchers, ideally within a transparent and traceable frame-
2408 work (e.g., Mariette et al., 2021). The benefits of the priorities identified
2409 (e.g., launching of new satellites and collection of more *in-situ* measure-
2410 ments etc.) need to be balanced against their environmental footprint, with
2411 a view to identify means by which it can be reduced and mitigated.

2412 • **Carbon and environmental footprints of space technology.** There is an
2413 increasing number of satellites being launched into space. Although much
2414 of this growth is for internet services, Earth Observation satellites are also
2415 increasing in numbers, with increasing amounts of space junk. This raises
2416 questions on the environmental impacts of satellites and space technologies
2417 more generally throughout their complete lifetimes that have previously not
2418 been a concern (from construction, to rocket launch and being placed into
2419 orbit and use, de-orbiting and removal) (Shutler et al., 2022).

2420 • **Use of satellite products for informing ocean carbon dioxide removal**
2421 **(CDR) studies.** Satellites *will* play a role in future monitoring of potential
2422 implementations of CDR, for understanding the consequences that some
2423 of these proposed mechanism would have on the marine ecosystem (Boyd
2424 et al., 2022; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine,
2425 2022).

2426 • **Economic valuation of the satellite based information.** Quantifying the
2427 value of satellite based information would be useful for a range of applica-
2428 tions, including climate and carbon management strategies and solutions
2429 (e.g., CDR), and for understanding environmental footprints.

2430 • **Need to consider how satellites can be used to help monitor cycles of**
2431 **other important climatically-relevant compounds and elements.** For
2432 example, methane (CH₄) emissions have contributed almost one quarter of
2433 the cumulative radiative forcings for CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O (nitrous oxide)
2434 combined since 1750 (Etminan et al., 2016), and absorbs thermal infrared

2435 radiation much more efficiently than CO₂.

- 2436 • **Open Science.** It is essential that our community follows a **transparent,**
2437 open science approach, promoting data sharing and knowledge transfer, and
2438 committing to FAIR principles (<https://www.go-fair.org/fair-principles/>).
2439 Supporting open-access repositories for publications, data and code, and
2440 openly available education resources, for the next generations of scientists.

- 2441 • **Promote diversity and inclusivity.** Geosciences are one of the least di-
2442 verse branches of STEM. And while it was positive to see the high gender
2443 diversity at this meeting (Figure 1), more is needed to promote the po-
2444 sition of the under-represented minorities in our field. **There has been a**
2445 **disproportionate impact of climate change on historically marginalized and**
2446 **under-represented community's worldwide (IOCCG, 2019).** System wide
2447 changes need to be implemented, where diversity, inclusion, cohesion, and
2448 equality across the ocean research (with special emphasis on field safety)
2449 are a priority.

- 2450 • **Prioritise infrastructure in space-based assets** for improved observation
2451 of ocean carbon on multiple scales. It is critical we continue to explore new
2452 and innovative ways to remotely monitor the pools and fluxes of carbon in
2453 the ocean on multiple scales. This requires investment in basic/fundamental
2454 research on the interactions among light, water and carbon, and working
2455 with a wide network of stakeholders to target and address some of the
2456 challenges and gaps highlighted.

- 2457 • **Harness the power of quantum computing.** Our community should be
2458 poised to take advantage of developments in quantum computing, which
2459 has the potential to radically change our ability to process and integrate a
2460 range of different data (models, satellite and *in situ*) not possible with high
2461 performance computing.

2462 **7. Summary**

2463 We organised a workshop on the topic of ocean carbon from space with the
2464 aim to produce a collective view of status of the field and to define priorities
2465 for the next decade. Leading experts were assembled from around the world,
2466 including those working with remote-sensing data, with field data and with
2467 models. Inorganic and organic pools of carbon (in dissolved and particulate
2468 form) were targeted, as well fluxes between pools and at interfaces. Cross-
2469 cutting activities were also discussed, including blue carbon, extreme events and
2470 carbon budgets. Common priorities should focus on improvements in: *in-situ*
2471 observations, satellite algorithm retrievals, uncertainty quantifying, understanding
2472 of vertical distributions, collaboration with modellers, ways to bridge spatial and
2473 temporal scales of the different data sources, fundamental understanding of the
2474 ocean carbon cycle, and on carbon and light interactions. Priorities were also
2475 reported for the specific pools and fluxes studied, and we highlight emerging
2476 concerns that arose during discussions, around the carbon footprint of research
2477 and space technology, the role of satellites in CDR approaches, **the economic**
2478 **valuation of the satellite based information**, to consider how satellites can be used
2479 to help monitor the cycles of other climatically-relevant compounds and elements,
2480 the need to promote diversity and inclusivity, bringing communities working
2481 on different aspects of ocean carbon together, open science, **to explore new and**
2482 **innovative ways to remotely monitor ocean carbon, and harness developments in**
2483 **quantum computing**.

2484 **Competing Interest Statement**

2485 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any
2486 commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict
2487 of interest.

2488 **Author Contributions**

2489 This paper represents a large collaborative effort. R. J. W. Brewin, S. Sathye-
2490 dranath, G. Kulk, M.-H. Rio and J. A. Concha led the work. R. J. W. Brewin
2491 produced an initial draft of the paper with written input from the chairs of the work-
2492 shop sessions (A. Bracher, A. R. Neeley, E. Organelli, C. Fichot, D. A. Hansell,
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Table 1: Overview of the themes of the paper and guide to navigate the manuscript.

Theme	Acronym	Short description	Flux/Stock	Global Size/Rate	Section	Table
Primary Production	PP	Conversion of inorganic carbon (DIC) to organic carbon (POC) through the process of photosynthesis.	Flux	$\sim 50 \text{ Gt C yr}^{-1}$	3.1	3
Particulate Organic Carbon	POC	Organic carbon that is above $>0.2 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter.	Stock	$2.3 \leftrightarrow 4.0 \text{ Gt C}$	3.2	4
Phytoplankton Carbon	C-phyto	Organic carbon contained in phytoplankton	Stock	$0.78 \leftrightarrow 1.0 \text{ Gt C}$	3.3	5
Dissolved Organic Carbon	DOC	Organic carbon that is $< 0.2 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter.	Stock	$\sim 662 \text{ Gt C}$	3.4	6
Inorganic carbon and fluxes at the ocean interface	IC	Consisting of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC, $\text{IC} < 0.2 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter), particulate inorganic carbon (PIC, $\text{IC} > 0.2 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter), and air-sea flux of IC between ocean and atmosphere.	Stock (DIC, PIC), Flux (air-sea IC exchange)	DIC ($\sim 38,000 \text{ Gt C}$), PIC ($\sim 0.03 \text{ Gt C}$), air-to-sea net flux of anthropogenic CO_2 ($\sim 3.0 \text{ Gt C yr}^{-1}$)	3.5	7
Blue Carbon	BC	Carbon contained in tidal marshes, mangroves, macroalgae and seagrass beds.	Stock	$10 \leftrightarrow 24 \text{ Gt C}$	4.1	8
Extreme Events	EEs	Events that occur in the upper or lower end of the range of historical measurements.	–	–	4.2	9
Carbon Budget Closure	CBC	How the stock of carbon in the ocean and elsewhere on the planet is partitioned.	–	$\sim 650,000,000 \text{ Gt C}$ (on Earth)	4.3	10

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Table 2: A selection of recently launched or upcoming satellite sensors with applications in ocean carbon research and monitoring.

Sensor	Description & Reference	Pool/flux of carbon
Plankton, Aerosol, Cloud, ocean Ecosystem (PACE)	PACE will have a hyperspectral Ocean Color Instrument (OCI), measuring in the UV, visible, near infrared, and several shortwave infrared bands. It will also contain two multi-wavelength, multi-angle imaging polarimeters for improved quantification of atmospheric aerosols and ocean particles (Remer et al., 2019a,b). PACE is scheduled to launch in 2024 (https://pace.gsfc.nasa.gov).	PP, POC, C-phyto, DOC, IC, BC, EEs
Geosynchronous Littoral Imaging and Monitoring Radiometer (GLIMR)	GLIMR is a geostationary and hyperspectral ocean colour satellite that will observe coastal oceans in the Gulf of Mexico, portions of the south-eastern US coastline, and the Amazon River plume. It will provide multiple observations (hourly), at around 300m resolution across the UV-NIR range (340 -1040 nm). GLIMR is expected to be launched in 2027 (https://eosps.nasa.gov/missions/geosynchronous-littoral-imaging-and-monitoring-radiometer-evi-5).	PP, POC, C-phyto, DOC, IC, BC, EEs
Environmental Mapping and Analysis Program (EnMAP)	EnMAP is a German hyperspectral satellite mission measuring at high spatial resolution (30 m) from 420-1000 nm in the visible and near-infrared, and from 900 nm to 2450 nm in the shortwave infrared. It aims to monitor and characterise Earth's environment on a global scale. It was launched in April 2022 (https://www.enmap.org).	PP, POC, C-phyto, DOC, IC, BC, EEs
FLuorescence EXplorer (FLEX)	FLEX is a mission designed to accurately measure fluorescence, and provide global maps of vegetation fluorescence that reflect photosynthetic activity and plant health and stress, which is important for understanding of the global carbon cycle. FLEX is expected to be launched in 2025 (https://earth.esa.int/eogateway/missions/flex).	BC, EEs

Continued on the next page.

Table 2: A selection of recently launched or upcoming satellite sensors with applications in ocean carbon research and monitoring.

Sensor	Description & Reference	Pool/flux of carbon
Sentinel-4 (S-4)	S4 mission consists of an Ultraviolet-Visible-Near-Infrared (UVN) light imaging spectrometer instrument embarked to be onboard the Meteosat Third Generation Sounder (MTG-S) satellite. It will provide geostationary data over European waters and planned to be launched in 2023 (https://sentinel.esa.int/web/sentinel/missions/sentinel-4).	IC (air-sea gas interactions)
Sentinel-5 (S-5)	S5 mission consists of a hyperspectral spectrometer system operating in the UV, visible and shortwave-infrared range. Though focused primarily on retrieving information on the composition of the atmosphere, it can retrieve information on ocean colour. Preliminary applications using the precursor mission (S-5p, launched in October 2017), has demonstrated retrieval of diffuse attenuation (K_d) in the blue and UV regions. Owing to the hyperspectral nature of the instrument, it also has applications in deriving information on the composition of the phytoplankton in the ocean (e.g., Bracher et al., 2017) (https://sentinel.esa.int/web/sentinel/missions/sentinel-5).	PP, POC, C-phyto, DOC, IC, EEs
Copernicus Hyperspectral Imaging Mission for the Environment (CHIME)	CHIME will provide routine hyperspectral observations from the visible to shortwave infrared. The mission will complement Copernicus Sentinel-2 satellite for high resolution optical mapping. Planned to be launched in the second half of this decade (https://www.esa.int/ESA_Multimedia/Images/2020/11/CHIME).	PP, POC, C-phyto, DOC, IC, BC, EEs

Continued on the next page.

Table 2: A selection of **recently launched** or upcoming satellite sensors with applications in ocean carbon research and monitoring.

Sensor	Description & Reference	Pool/flux of carbon
Earth Cloud, Aerosol and Radiation Explorer (Earth-CARE)	EarthCARE will contain an atmospheric lidar, cloud profiling radar, a multi-spectral imager, and a broad-band radiometer, with the objective to allow scientists to study the relationship of clouds, aerosols, oceans and radiation. It is planned for launch in 2023 (https://earth.esa.int/eogateway/missions/earthcare).	PP, POC, C-phyto, DOC, IC, BC, EEs
Surface Water and Ocean Topography Mission (SWOT)	SWOT will contain a wide-swath altimeter that will collect data on ocean heights to study currents and eddies up to five times smaller than have been previously been detectable. It was launched on 16th December 2022 (https://swot.jpl.nasa.gov/mission/overview/).	IC, EEs
Satélite de Aplicaciones Basadas en la Información Ambiental del Mar (SABIA-Mar)	SABIA-Mar was conceived to observe water colour in the open ocean (global scenario, 800 m resolution) and coastal areas of South America (regional scenario, 200 m resolution) and provide information about primary productivity, carbon cycle, marine habitats and biodiversity, fisheries resources, water quality, coastal hazards, and land cover/land use. The satellite will carry two push-broom radiometers covering a 1496 km swath and measuring in 13 spectral bands from 412 to 1600 nm. SABIA-Mar is scheduled to be launched in 2024 (https://www.argentina.gob.ar/ciencia/conae/misiones-espaciales/sabia-mar).	PP, POC, C-phyto, DOC, IC, BC, EEs

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Table 2: A selection of recently launched or upcoming satellite sensors with applications in ocean carbon research and monitoring.

Sensor	Description & Reference	Pool/flux of carbon
Surface Biology and Geology (SBG)	SBG is being designed to address, via visible to shortwave imaging spectroscopy, terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems and other elements of biodiversity, geology, volcanoes, the water cycle, and applied topics of social benefit. In the current architecture considered, the instrument payload will consist of a hyperspectral imager measuring at 30-45 m resolution in >200 spectral bands from 380 to 2250 nm and a thermal infrared imager measuring at 40-60 m resolution in >5 spectral bands from 3 to 5 and 8 to 12 microns, with revisit of 2-16 and 1-7 days, respectively. Launch is scheduled for 2026 (https://sbg.jpl.nasa.gov).	PP, POC, C-phyto, DOC, IC, BC, EEs
MetOp-SG Multi-Viewing Multi-Channel Multi-Polarisation Imaging (3MI) instrument	3MI is a passive optical radiometer with large swath (2200 km) dedicated primarily to aerosol characterization for applications in climate monitoring, atmospheric chemistry, and numerical weather prediction, but with ocean colour capability. It will provide multi-spectral (12 spectral bands from 410 to 2130 nm), multi-polarization (+60 deg., 0 deg., and -0 deg.), and multi-angular (14 directions) views of a Earth target at 4 km resolution. The first MetOp-SG A-series satellite carrying 3MI will be launched in 2024, the second in 2031, and the third in 2038 (https://earth.esa.int/web/eoportal/satellite-missions/m/metop-sg).	PP, POC, C-phyto, DOC, IC, EEs

Table 3: Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite estimates of primary production (PP).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(1) Parametrisation of satellite algorithms using <i>in-situ</i> data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Representing the spatial and temporal variability of model parameters. • Continued financial support for <i>in-situ</i> observations. • Standard conversion factors and measurement protocols. • Diurnal variability in parameters and variables assumed (modelled). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spatial and temporal gaps in PP parameters. • Lack of continuous measurements. • Better coordination at international level required. • Spatial biases in estuarine/coastal <i>in-situ</i> PP data. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active fluorescence-based methods and oxygen optode sensors on novel <i>in-situ</i> platforms. • Synergy across <i>in-situ</i> data sources (multi-platform sensors). • Use of artificial intelligence techniques for mapping model parameters. • Commercial partnerships and technological innovation of <i>in-situ</i> sensors and platforms. • Exploit geostationary platforms to resolve diurnal variability in light and biomass. • Formulate priorities for funding (long-term time series, novel measurements).
(2) Uncertainty estimation and validation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Validation of satellite-based primary production estimates is challenging. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uncertainty estimates satellite-based products are not readily provided. • Gaps in <i>in-situ</i> data for validation. • Gaps in our understanding of uncertainty in key input variables and parameters. • Data gaps in satellite observations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhanced computational capacity to run models for uncertainty estimation. • Use of emerging (hyperspectral, geostationary, lidar) sensors. • Validation opportunities with autonomous platforms.

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Table 3. Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite estimates of primary production (PP). (continued from previous page).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(3) Linking surface satellite measurements to vertical distribution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Resolving vertical structure of PP, Chl-a, and PAR. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of high spatial-temporal vertical <i>in-situ</i> data Need for better physical products (e.g., mixed-layer depth) with uncertainties. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improve (basic) understanding of vertical structure. Benefit from use of novel <i>in-situ</i> platforms. Benefit from future satellite lidar systems.
(4) Trends	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Difficulty in assessing direction of change in trends of PP. Dealing with noise in non-linear systems. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uncertainty estimates of satellite-based PP are not provided. Length of satellite record not sufficient for climate change studies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need for consistent and continuous satellite records for climate research. Assimilation of satellite data into models.
(5) Fundamental understanding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Better understand relationships among PP, community structure and environment. Better understand feedbacks between physics and biology. Understand the fate of PP (i.e., secondary and export production). Better understand the interactions of PP in different components of the Earth System. Improved quantification of new production and net community production from space. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need for higher spatial and temporal resolution products to study diurnal variability. Include inland and coastal waters. Gaps in satellite information on data sets relevant to photochemical reactions. Better understanding of viral control on PP. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unifying the integration of primary production across interfaces (e.g. land and ocean). Regional models/algorithms with aim to merge/nest models for larger scale estimates. Harness developments in quantum computing. Meet challenges of the UN Ocean Decade. Harness novel algorithms and satellites (hyperspectral, lidar and geostationary). Harness satellite instruments covering the UV spectral range for insight into photodegradation.

Table 4: Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite Particulate Organic Carbon (POC) estimates

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(1) <i>In situ</i> measurement methodology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inclusion of particles of all sizes to determine total POC. • Quantifying contributions of differently-sized particles and different particle types. • Dealing with biases due to DOC in filters. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Submicrometer and rare large particles under-represented in the standard filtration method. • No capability to measure contributions of differently-sized particles and different particle types. • A lack of a certified reference material for POC. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advance and standardise methods for improved measurement of total POC. • Develop measurement capabilities combining particle sizing, particle identification, and particle optical properties.
(2) <i>In situ</i> data compilation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality control and consistency across diverse datasets. • Limitations of satellite-<i>in-situ</i> data match-ups (e.g., spatial-temporal scale mismatch, spatial biases). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limitations in documentation of methods in historical datasets. • Best-practice guidelines for data quality control and synthesis efforts. • Under-sampled environments. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve and standardise best practices for documentation, quality control, sharing, and data submission into permanent archives. • Collection of high-quality data along the continuum of diverse environments.
(3) Satellite algorithm retrievals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unified algorithms for reliable retrievals from open ocean to coastal and inland water bodies. • Global algorithms applied to environmental conditions outside the intended scope. • Satellite inter-mission consistency. • Atmospheric-correction tailored to a new ocean colour sensors (e.g. geostationary and hyperspectral). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mechanistically-based flags associated with optical water types to ensure appropriate application of algorithms. • Advanced algorithms (e.g., adaptive based on mechanistic principles) to enable reliable retrievals across diverse environments. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunities to harness a new suite of empirical satellite sensor-specific global POC algorithms. • Use of satellite geostationary and hyperspectral data in combination with <i>in-situ</i> data.

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Table 4. Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite Particulate Organic Carbon (POC) estimates. (continued from previous page).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(4) Partitioning into size	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Partitioning of POC into particle size fractions and biogeochemically important components. • Characterize the PSD of both total bulk particle assemblages and separately the functional fractions. • Address coastal and other optically complex water bodies that may have both autochthonous and allochthonous contributions to POC. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to reliably measure <i>in situ</i> various fractions is limited, e.g., separate living vs. non-living POC. • Insufficient global PSD measurements and global PSD data compilations. • A dearth of concurrent data on POC, PSD and carbon data on POC components. • Insufficient knowledge of IOPs for optics-based partitioning of POC. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support basic research on particle sizing, particle identification, and particle optical properties including polarization properties. • Development of light-scattering polarization sensors for deployment on autonomous <i>in-situ</i> platforms. • Emerging techniques to separate living and non-living POC. • Support PSD measurements as part of a suite of basic required measurements. • Harness satellite-based approaches to monitoring zooplankton, for quantifying their contribution to POC.
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Table 4. Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite Particulate Organic Carbon (POC) estimates. (continued from previous page).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(5) Vertical profiles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reconstructing vertical profiles using data from space-borne, air-borne, and <i>in-situ</i> sensors. Determining relationship(s) between remotely-sensed variables and characteristics of the POC vertical profile. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relationships between optical variables and POC (e.g., from sensors on autonomous <i>in-situ</i> platforms). Uneven distribution of <i>in-situ</i> profiles of POC globally. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Development of POC algorithms for <i>in-situ</i> optical data (e.g., BGC-Argo) along with improvements of optical sensor technology (e.g., polarized scattering sensors for BGC-Argo). Use multiple data (satellite, BGC-Argo) and model streams to reconstruct 3D and 4D POC in the ocean via statistical and data assimilation techniques. Advance basic research to determine relationships among remote-sensing reflectance and other optical variables and vertical profiles of POC characteristics (e.g., PSD). Harness lidar-based remote sensing.
(6) Biogeochemical processes and the carbon pump	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantifying the vertical flux of POC a major challenge. Measurements of gravitational sinking of POC are work-intensive and rely on simplified assumptions. Measuring the migrant and mixing pumps is demanding. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sparsity of <i>in-situ</i> data on vertical fluxes of POC. Interannual variation in vertical fluxes of POC poorly known. Gaps in understanding of POC fluxes in shallow and shelf seas. Gaps in understanding on migrant and mixing pumps. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Harness autonomous sensors and emerging observation techniques (e.g., “optical sediment traps” on BGC-Argo floats). Harnessing new statistical approaches (e.g., machine learning). Constraining prognostic ocean BGC models using observations from remote and <i>in-situ</i> autonomous sensors.

Table 5: Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite phytoplankton carbon (C-phyto) estimates.

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(1) <i>In-situ</i> data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Extremely difficult to measure C-phyto <i>in situ</i>. Challenges quantifying photoacclimation parameters and their variability at large scales. Challenges around standardization of phytoplankton carbon data submission using emerging <i>in-situ</i> techniques. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gaps in accurate <i>in-situ</i> C-phyto data. Gaps in consistent C-phyto surface time-series data sets. Gaps in photo-acclimation parameters. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The enlargement and exploration of data analysis of <i>in situ</i> supersites. Empower validation through autonomous mobile platforms (e.g., BGC-Argo floats and Lagrangian drifters). Connecting new genetic level data with phytoplankton carbon properties.
(2) Satellite algorithm retrievals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Separating the contributions of living and non-living particles to the particle backscattering coefficient. Understanding the influence of phytoplankton composition and photoacclimation on the relationships among Chl-a, particle backscatter and C-phyto. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A gap in our mechanistic understanding of how optical properties and particle types link to C-phyto. Uncertainties infrequently reported with satellite C-phyto products. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Harness long time-series satellite products. Explore the combined use of satellite data with ecosystem modelling. Combining models of photoacclimation with size-based approaches and models of PP, for consistent carbon pools and fluxes.
(3) Vertical structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Challenging to collect, aggregate and produce an <i>in-situ</i> dataset that is representative of entire euphotic depth and at global scale. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Biases towards <i>in-situ</i> C-phyto data collected at surface depths. Lack of methods for extrapolating the surface satellite C-phyto products down through the entire euphotic zone. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use autonomous platforms such as BGC-Argo floats and moorings with satellite data and models to reconstruct the 4D views of C-phyto. Harness developments in quantum computing for data integration.

Table 6: Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite detection of Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(1) Spatial and temporal coverage of the coastal ocean	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quantifying DOC stocks and fluxes in coastal waters require data with high temporal coverage. Atmospheric-correction of ocean colour data in coastal waters. Viewing high latitudes regions from space in winter months. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Estimates of DOC stocks and fluxes in coastal environments limited by the temporal coverage of existing satellites. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Geostationary ocean-colour satellites, capable of imaging multiple times daily. Future satellite ocean-colour constellations may improve temporal coverage.
(2) Understanding and constraining the relationship between CDOM and DOC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improved performance of satellite CDOM absorption retrievals is required. Relationships between DOC and CDOM absorption tends to be variable seasonally and across coastal systems. CDOM and DOC are largely decoupled in the open ocean. High sensitivity to atmospheric correction (e.g., effects of Rayleigh scattering). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gaps in our understanding of the relationship between DOC and CDOM absorption. There is a lack satellite UV and hyperspectral data for resolving DOC and its composition. Reliable atmosphere-correction is needed for UV and shortwave visible wavelengths. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Utilise the spectral slope of CDOM absorption to constrain the variability between CDOM and DOC. New insight on the effects of photobleaching may provide opportunities for mechanistic models of the processes regulating the relationship between CDOM and DOC. Harness opportunities to acquire high-quality field measurements of DOC and CDOM absorption. Emerging UV and hyperspectral satellites will open opportunities for CDOM and DOC retrievals. Harness optical water type frameworks for algorithms selection and merging for better separation of NAP-CDOM effects.

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Table 6. Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite detection of Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC). (continued from previous page).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(3) Identification of sources and reactivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Challenging to identify specific pools of DOC of different sources and reactivity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Few studies assessing whether the DOM fluoresced signal can be detected from ocean colour. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Whether the fluorescence of DOC and CDOM can have a measurable influence on remote-sensing reflectance. Hyperspectral sensors will provide improved signal-to-noise ratio, atmospheric corrections, as well as enhanced spectral information in the UV-visible range Opportunities with active remote-sensing approaches based on laser-induced fluorescence.
(4) Vertical measurements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Remote sensing of CDOM and DOC is limited to surface measurements. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Approaches that extrapolate surface DOC and CDOM to depth require extensive <i>in-situ</i> datasets (vertical profiles). Gaps exist for many regions and seasons. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Acquiring <i>in-situ</i> measurements from autonomous platforms like BGC-Argo equipped with DOM-fluorescence sensors and radiometry. Opportunities with UV-lidar-based techniques to retrieve sub-surface information about CDOM. Opportunities to harness modelling approaches to improve estimation of DOC dynamics at depth.

Table 7: Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite detection of inorganic carbon (IC) and fluxes at the ocean interface.

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(1) <i>In-situ</i> data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strong reliance on <i>in-situ</i> data, as many components of IC are not directly observable from space. • <i>In-situ</i> data of a much coarser spatial and temporal resolution when compared with satellite data. • <i>In-situ</i> data products are heavily extrapolated. • Challenging to integrate <i>in-situ</i> datasets without community consensus on best practices and reference materials. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Better spatial and temporal coverage of field observations required throughout the water column. • Limited <i>in-situ</i> data time-series stations in key locations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunities to improve the spatial and temporal resolution of <i>in-situ</i> data through autonomous platforms. • Opportunities to extend recent efforts to develop FRM to inorganic carbon.
(2) Satellite retrievals and mapping uncertainty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Satellite inorganic carbon estimates in optically-complex water are challenging. • Challenging to retain the theoretical understanding of satellite algorithms, while harnessing new powerful statistical approaches (e.g. AI). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of pixel-by-pixel uncertainty estimates in the satellite inorganic products. • Lack of coincident <i>in-situ</i> observations of PIC, other highly scattering materials, and IOPs, in optically-complex waters. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New satellite sensors, with improved spatial, spectral and temporal resolution, may lead to improvements in IC satellite products. • Opportunities to harness and build on recent techniques used to map uncertainty.

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Table 7. Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite detection of inorganic carbon (IC) and fluxes at the ocean interface. (continued from previous page).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(3) Models and data integration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bridging the differences (e.g., scales) in data products and models. • <i>In-situ</i>, data-driven products are sensitive to choice of extrapolation method. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Closer collaboration between data generators and modellers is needed. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunities to harness improved computer processing power, and new statistical tools. • Opportunities to improve model products by reconciling model carbon budgets with those from satellite and <i>in-situ</i> products. • Opportunities to harness an increasing range of data sources to improve data products, for example, data assimilation reanalysis. • Opportunity for routine integration of <i>in-situ</i>, model, and satellite observations to enable assessment of the surface water $p\text{CO}_2$, air-sea exchange and the net integrated air-sea flux of carbon.
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Table 7. Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite detection of inorganic carbon (IC) and fluxes at the ocean interface. (continued from previous page).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(4) Mechanistic understanding of gas transfer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mechanistic understanding of gas transfer is challenged by our ability to measure and quantify key processes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Large uncertainties surrounding the influence of near surface temperature gradients on gas transfer. • Large uncertainty surrounding the importance of bubbles for air-sea CO₂ fluxes. • Carbon dynamics and air-sea CO₂ fluxes in mixed sea ice regions are poorly understood. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunity to establish FRM status and agree best practice for eddy covariance air-sea CO₂ fluxes. • Opportunities to exploit state-of-the-art techniques on novel platforms to improve understanding of air-sea CO₂ fluxes in different environments such as mixed sea ice regions. • Opportunity to quantify the magnitude of near surface temperature gradients on air-sea CO₂ fluxes. • Opportunity to develop/improve parameterisations that use sea surface roughness to estimate air-sea CO₂ transfer.

Table 8: Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite detection of Blue Carbon (BC).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(1) Satellite sensors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requirement for monitoring at high temporal (hourly) and spatial (tidal) scales. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A lack of long-term satellite datasets for change detection in many BC ecosystems. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New hyperspectral observations will lead to improved BC detection. • High spatial resolution (3-5 m) imagery becoming available from a constellation of commercial satellites. • Geostationary satellite instruments will meet the requirements for high temporal (hourly) BC monitoring. • Scope to build on efforts to develop satellite climate records with a focus on BC.
(2) Algorithms, retrievals and model integration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many BC approaches are regional, difficult to go to global scales. • Uncertainty estimation for BC fluxes challenging. • Difficult to monitor the dynamics of sediment carbon remotely. • Dealing with sub-pixel variability of macroalgae when using coarser resolution satellite data. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited availability of <i>in-situ</i> data for development and validation of BC satellite algorithms. • Lack of BC ecosystem models limits our ability to quantify full BC carbon budgets. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Harness computation power and statistical analysis of big data. • Fusion of hyper-spectral optical and SAR data for characterization of tidal wetlands. • New <i>in-situ</i> monitoring techniques (e.g., drones) are useful to bridge the scales between satellites and <i>in-situ</i> observations.
(3) Satellite data access and blue carbon accounting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Existing products and approaches are not easily accessible to non-expert users. • Challenges to ensure cost-effective monitoring using commercial satellites. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of products suited to project development and carbon accounting. • Products needed at global scales, at higher spatial and temporal resolution. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increasing efforts to develop BC habitat mapping portals that are user friendly.

Table 9: Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for satellite detection of Extreme Events (EEs) and their impacts on the ocean carbon cycle.

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(1) <i>In-situ</i> data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some EEs are challenging and dangerous to monitor <i>in-situ</i> using ship-based techniques. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Major gaps in availability of <i>in-situ</i> observations of EEs. Gaps are greater in subsurface waters. Long time-series <i>in-situ</i> observations needed for baselines. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To harness the expanding network of autonomous <i>in-situ</i> platforms.
(2) Satellite sensing technology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some EEs require high temporal and spatial coverage, which challenges current remote sensing systems. Dealing with cloud coverage during tropical cyclones. Satellite retrievals in the presence of complex aerosols from volcanic eruptions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High temporal and spatial resolution data are required for monitoring some EEs. Gaps in satellite data for some EEs (e.g., clouds). Gaps in knowledge on the optical properties of aerosols for some events. Long time-series remote sensing data are needed for baselines. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Synergistic use of different long-term high-frequency and high-resolution remote sensing data. Harness emerging sensors with increased spectral, spatial and temporal resolution. Opportunities to derive satellite-based indicators of EEs for determining good environmental status.
(3) Model synergy and transdisciplinary research	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need to utilise ESMs for understanding EEs and projecting future scenarios. Need to bring communities from multiple fields together. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Higher resolution ESMs with improved representation of marine ecosystems. Investment in transdisciplinary research related to EEs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enhancements in computation power and improvements in ESMs and data assimilation techniques. Remove knowledge barriers by promoting and open data approach cross-disciplinary research and data access.

Table 10: Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for using satellite data for Carbon Budget Closure (CBC).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(1) <i>In-situ</i> data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality, quantity and spatial distribution of <i>in-situ</i> measurements varies depending on the pool or flux being studied and measurement platform used. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very few datasets exist on concurrent and co-located <i>in-situ</i> measurements of all the key pools and fluxes needed to evaluate model budgets. • Remote regions that play a key role in global budgets (e.g., Southern Ocean) are severely under-sampled. • Gaps in key measurements in many regions (e.g., photosynthesis irradiance parameters, for organic carbon budgeting). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New <i>in-situ</i> technologies being integrated into networks of autonomous platforms, for improved carbon measurements. • Methods being developed to quantify carbon pools and fluxes from routine optical autonomous observations. • Properties of carbon budgets can be interrogated using <i>in-situ</i> compilations to check and constrain satellite or model budgets.
(2) Satellite algorithms, budgets and uncertainties	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coherence in the input satellite data fields for different satellite carbon algorithms needed when computing budgets. • Some of the pools and fluxes of carbon require satellite data with higher spatial, temporal and spectral resolution. • There needs to be consistency in algorithms used to quantify budgets, and these algorithms must respect properties of the ecosystem we know from <i>in-situ</i> data. • Uncertainties in individual products are essential to analyse multiple products to compute the budgets. • Products must be evaluated in relation to other products, to see whether they hold together in a coherent fashion. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Many satellite carbon products lack associated estimates of uncertainty. • More work is needed to improve estimates of uncertainties in model parameters. • More efforts needed towards dynamic, rather than static, assignment of parameters in carbon algorithms. • Harmonising satellite carbon products across different planetary domains (ocean, land, ice and air) is needed. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunities to harness climate data records. • Opportunities to harness emerging sensors with increased spectral, spatial and temporal resolution. • New approaches and statistical techniques offer potential to get at pools and fluxes of carbon not seen from space.

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Table 10. Priorities, challenges, gaps and opportunities for using satellite data for Carbon Budget Closure (CBC). (continued from previous page).

Priority	Challenges	Gaps	Opportunities
(3) Model and satellite integration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Challenges dealing with the contrasting spatial scales in models and satellite observations. • Quantifying carbon budgets also requires appreciation of the different temporal scales that the pools and fluxes operate on. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uncertainties in the satellite observations and model simulations needed. • Greater emphasise should be placed on promoting model diversity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New developments in data assimilation can help constrain carbon budgets, such as combined physical and biological data assimilation. • Scope to harness developments in machine learning to help combine data and models. • Future enhancements in computation power should lead to better representations of spatial scales in models.

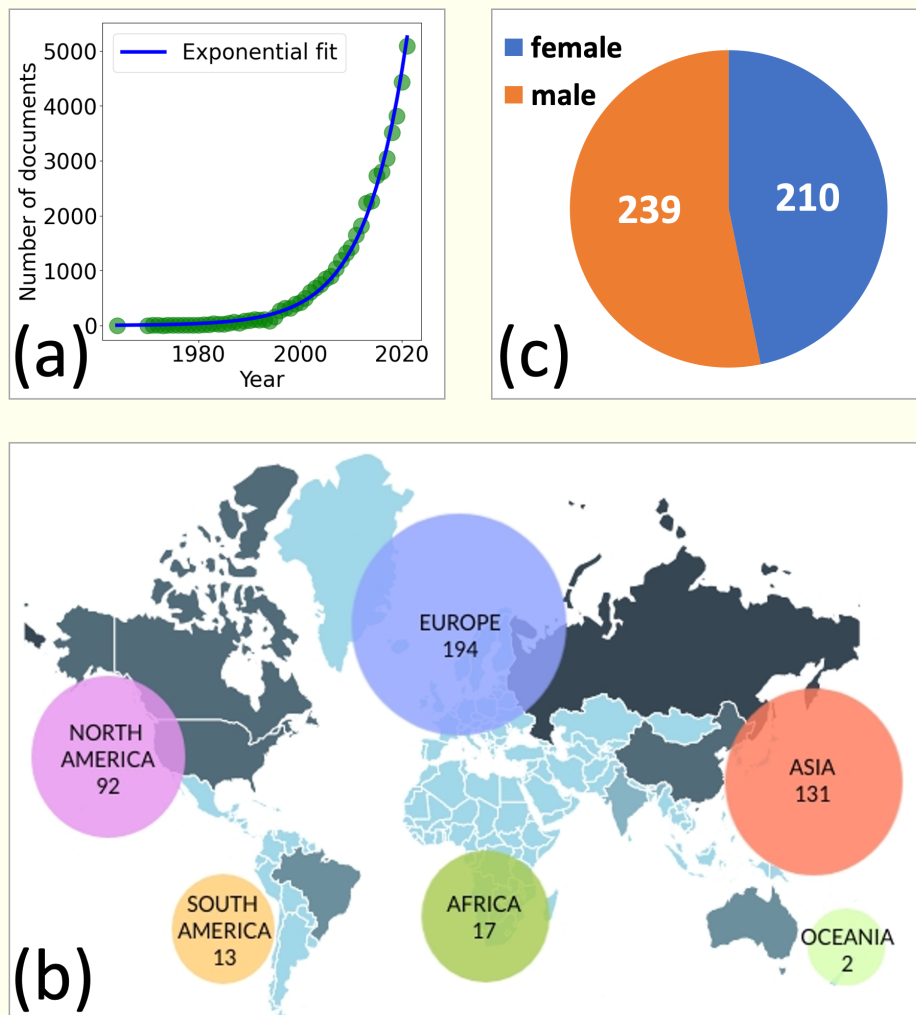


Figure 1: (a) Number of documents identified per year (green circles) in chronological order from a Scopus search (<https://www.scopus.com/>) using the terms "Ocean carbon satellite" (using All fields). Blue line represents an exponential fit to the increase in the number of documents over the past 50 years. (b) Geographical representation of the 449 scientists and stakeholders who participated in the "Ocean Carbon from Space" workshop in February 2022. (c) Gender split of the workshop participants. Gender was not asked at registration for privacy concerns, but interpretation of registered participants suggested around 47 % were female and 53 % male, acknowledging this interpretation does not consider that not everyone identifies as female or male.

