The Impact of Orbital Precession on Air-Sea CO $_{2}\$ Exchange in the Southern Ocean

Cole Frederick Persch¹, Pedro DiNezio¹, and Nicole Suzanne Lovenduski¹

¹University of Colorado Boulder

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Abstract

Orbital precession has been linked to glacial cycles and the atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO2) concentration, yet the direct impact of precession on the carbon cycle is not well understood. We analyze output from an Earth system model configured under different orbital parameters to isolate the impact of precession on air-sea CO2 flux in the Southern Ocean – a component of the global carbon cycle that is thought to play a key role on past atmospheric CO2 variations. Here, we demonstrate that periods of high precession are coincident with anomalous CO2 outgassing from the Southern Ocean. Under high precession, we find a poleward shift in the southern westerly winds, enhanced Southern Ocean meridional overturning, and an increase in the surface ocean partial pressure of CO2 along the core of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current. These results suggest that orbital precession may have played an important role in driving changes in atmospheric CO2

The Impact of Orbital Precession on Air-Sea CO₂ Exchange in the Southern Ocean

Cole F. Persch¹, Pedro DiNezio¹, Nicole S. Lovenduski^{1,2}

¹Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO, USA ²Institute of Arctic and Alpine Research, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO, USA

Key Points:

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7	•	Increased insolation during austral summer due to orbital precession shifts the south-
8		ern westerlies poleward.
9	•	Poleward shifted westerlies enhance CO ₂ outgassing due to increased turbulent
10		exchanges and vertical transport of carbon-rich waters.
11	•	Enhanced transport of carbon-rich waters is driven by a deepening of the over-

turning circulation in response to poleward shifted winds.

Corresponding author: Cole F. Persch, cole.persch@colorado.edu

13 Abstract

Orbital precession has been linked to glacial cycles and the atmospheric carbon dioxide 14 (CO_2) concentration, yet the direct impact of precession on the carbon cycle is not well 15 understood. We analyze output from an Earth system model configured under differ-16 ent orbital parameters to isolate the impact of precession on air-sea CO_2 flux in the South-17 ern Ocean - a component of the global carbon cycle that is thought to play a key role 18 on past atmospheric CO₂ variations. Here, we demonstrate that periods of high preces-19 sion are coincident with anomalous CO₂ outgassing from the Southern Ocean. Under 20 high precession, we find a poleward shift in the southern westerly winds, enhanced South-21 ern Ocean meridional overturning, and an increase in the surface ocean partial pressure 22 of CO_2 along the core of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current. These results suggest that 23 orbital precession may have played an important role in driving changes in atmospheric 24 CO_2 . 25

²⁶ 1 Plain Language Summary

Over the past one million years, Earth has experienced several glacial and inter-27 glacial periods. As a glacial period is ending, carbon in the atmosphere can rise by up 28 to 50%. The cause for this change is currently unknown, but most theories suggest that 29 this carbon is released from the deep ocean into the atmosphere. The Southern Ocean 30 surrounding Antarctica is the location of a lot of carbon outgassing from the deep ocean 31 32 into the atmosphere, so it could be responsible for some of this change in atmospheric carbon. One of Earth's orbital cycles, precession, has been shown to change circulation 33 in the Southern Ocean, that can affect how much carbon is carried from the deep ocean 34 to the surface and released into the atmosphere. This paper uses simulations of a climate 35 model to show that high precession corresponds to a 20% increase in the release of car-36 bon from the Southern Ocean into the atmosphere. These findings suggest that preces-37 sion could have affected changes in past atmospheric carbon concentrations. 38

39 2 Introduction

The Southern Ocean plays a central role in the global carbon cycle [Marshall and 40 Speer, 2012]. The Southern Westerly Winds (SWW) interact with the ocean surface and 41 force a zonally unbound meridional overturning circulation via Ekman transport, also 42 known as the Upper Cell [Speer et al., 2000]. On the poleward edge of this meridional 43 overturning, deep, carbon-rich water is upwelled to the surface, and CO_2 is released into 44 the atmosphere. Past studies have suggested that modern-day, interannual variability 45 in the position and intensity of the SWW can invoke changes in Southern Ocean circu-46 lation, air-sea CO_2 flux, and atmospheric CO_2 concentration [Lovenduski et al., 2007; 47 Butler et al., 2007; Dufour et al., 2013; Landschützer et al., 2019; Nevison et al., 2020], 48 and can influence the global carbon cycle [Hauck et al., 2020]. 49

The Southern Ocean likely played a key role in driving the large variations of at-50 mospheric CO₂ observed over glacial-interglacial cycles [Sigman et al., 2004; Toggweiler 51 et al., 2006; Anderson et al., 2009]. This is because the Southern Ocean is one of the only 52 places in the global ocean where dense ocean isopycnal surfaces outcrop, providing a means 53 to connect the deep ocean interior to the atmosphere [Rintoul et al., 2001]. However, the 54 mechanisms responsible for changing air-sea CO_2 flux in the Southern Ocean on these 55 timescales are not fully understood. In line with results from studies of modern-day South-56 ern Ocean CO₂ flux variability, multiple manuscripts suggest that glacial-interglacial changes 57 in the SWW may have played a role in some of these changes in air-sea CO_2 flux [Tog-58 gweiler et al., 2006; Menviel et al., 2008; Tschumi et al., 2008; Anderson et al., 2009; d'Orgeville 59 et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2011; Ai et al., 2020]. In these studies, the authors invoke SWW 60 changes via mechanisms such as a global temperature increase [Toggweiler et al., 2006], 61 a cooling North Atlantic [Anderson et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2011], or variations in Earth's 62

axial tilt (obliquity) [Ai et al., 2020], yet no clear consensus on the cause of the SWW
 changes has emerged.

Recent studies suggest that the climate in the high-latitude Southern Hemisphere responds to orbital precession, one of the Milankovitch cycles with a spectral peak at $\sim 21,000$ years. Modelling and proxy studies have demonstrated that precession can significantly alter the position and strength of the SWW, which impacts circulation in the Southern Ocean [*Rutberg and Broccoli*, 2019; *Lamy et al.*, 2019]. Yet the models used in these studies are lacking a carbon cycle and thus are unable to predict if Southern Ocean air-sea CO₂ flux will be affected by precession.

Here, we use a state-of-the-art Earth system model which includes a respresenta-72 tion of the carbon cycle to illustrate, for the first time, that orbital precession can have 73 a marked impact on Southern Ocean air-sea CO_2 flux. We compare output from two sim-74 ulations with different precessional states to illustrate the potential influence of preces-75 sion on the Southern Ocean. As we will demonstrate, precession drives changes in the 76 SWW and Southern Ocean circulation, alters the upwelling of deep, carbon-rich water, 77 and produces anomalies in air-sea CO_2 flux. Our results suggest that orbital precession 78 plays an important role in regulating atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, and provide a pos-79 sible mechanism to explain the precessional peak in the ice core atmospheric CO₂ spec-80 tra. 81

82 3 Methods

Our primary numerical modeling tool is the low-resolution configuration of the Com-83 munity Earth System Model (CESM) version 2.1.1 [Danabasoglu et al., 2020], a fully cou-84 pled climate model designed for long climate integrations [Shields et al., 2012]. The at-85 mospheric component, CAM4, has a resolution of $\sim 3.75^{\circ} \times 3.75^{\circ}$ and 26 vertical lev-86 els [Neale et al., 2013]. The ocean component, POP2, has nominal 2° latitude \times 4° lon-87 gitude resolution (lowering to less than 2° latitude resolution in the Southern Ocean), 88 and 60 vertical levels [Danabasoqlu et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2010]. POP2 represents subgrid-89 scale processes, such as mesoscale and submesoscale processes, via a collection of param-90 eterizations [Danabasoglu et al., 2008]. Importantly, the Gent and Mcwilliams [1990] mesoscale 91 eddy parameterization includes a variable eddy-induced advection coefficient [Gent, 2016]92 which improves realism of eddy-driven mixing of carbon in the Southern Ocean at coarse 93 resolution [Lovenduski et al., 2013]. POP2 includes a biogeochemical model, MARBL 94 [Long et al., 2021]. MARBL contains multiple chemical tracers necessary for simulat-95 ing ocean biogeochemistry such as carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, iron, silicon, and oxy-96 gen. 97

Our experiment was designed to isolate the impact of precession on the Southern 98 Ocean. We spun up CESM 2.1.1 for a 1000-year period with an eccentricity parameter 99 of 0; since eccentricity modulates the strength of precession, this equilibration period had 100 no precessional forcing. Carbon dioxide in the atmosphere is kept at a constant prein-101 dustrial value of 284.7 ppm. Over the last 500 years of the spinup, the globally integrated 102 air-sea CO_2 flux drift is negligible (-1.9 \pm 6.5 * 10⁻⁶ Pg C yr⁻²; Figure S1). Following 103 the spin-up period, two 100-year simulations were performed: the first, NoPrec, main-104 tains an eccentricity parameter of 0, while the second, HighPrec, uses an eccentricity pa-105 rameter of 0.058, which is the maximum value over the last one million years [Laskar et al., 106 2004]. In the HighPrec simulation, the Northern Hemisphere summer solution was con-107 figured to occur at the perihelion of Earth's orbit, which maximizes seasonal variabil-108 ity of insolation in the Southern Hemisphere. Our HighPrec simulation shows an imme-109 diate response of the SWW with minimal drift in global temperature consistent with the 110 negligible effect of precession on annual mean insolation thus allowing us to use 100 years 111 to study changes in the Southern Ocean. 112

While CESM2 is a well-validated model [Danabasoglu et al., 2020; Simpson et al., 113 2020; Long et al., 2021, here we employ CESM2 components with lower resolution than 114 the standard configuration, requiring an assessment of model validity at this resolution. 115 Of particular interest in this study is the position and strength of the SWW. While the 116 maximum zonal wind stress in the NoPrec SWW (0.14 N m⁻²) agrees with modern es-117 timates [Large and Yeager, 2009, 0.14 N m^{-2}], the modeled position of the SWW zonal 118 wind stress (centered on 45° S) shows an equatorward bias relative to the estimated prein-119 dustrial value [Large and Yeager, 2009, centered on 53° S], which is a consequence of the 120 lower resolution of the atmospheric model [Shields et al., 2012]. The modelled position 121 and strength of the SWW in our NoPrec simulation is within the range reported by mod-122 els that participated in the Palaeoclimate Model Intercomparison Projects PMIP2 and 123 PMIP3 under preindustrial conditions [Rojas, 2013], whose model components are sim-124 ulated at a similar resolution as in our experiment. We find that the version of CESM2 125 employed in this study captures the air-sea fluxes of pre-industrial/natural CO_2 as com-126 pared to an observation-based inversion, as biome-mean CO_2 fluxes over the last 500 years 127 of the spin-up simulation are within the uncertainty of the observation-based fluxes [Mikaloff Fletcher 128 et al., 2007] (Table S1). 129

A goal of this study is to isolate the different physical processes driving changes in air-sea CO_2 over the Southern Ocean. We approach this using the air-sea CO_2 equation as solved by the model:

$$F_{CO_2} = k_{sol} \times A_{noice} \times \Delta p CO_2 \times k_{qtv}, \tag{1}$$

where k_{sol} is the solubility of carbon in seawater, A_{noice} is the surface area without ice, ΔpCO_2 is the difference in the partial pressure of CO_2 between the surface ocean and the atmosphere, and k_{gtv} is the gas transfer velocity which is driven by surface winds [Wanninkhof et al., 2013; Wanninkhof, 2014]. We isolate the contribution from each process as follows:

$$\delta[F]_{k_{eol}} = \delta[k_{sol}] \times A_{noice} \times \Delta pCO_2 \times k_{atv}, \tag{2}$$

where $\delta[F]_{k_{sol}}$ isolates the impact of precession-driven changes in solubility (δk_{sol}) on air-sea CO₂ flux, δ corresponds to the difference between HighPrec and NoPrec, and the non- δ terms are derived from the NoPrec simulation.

¹⁴¹ We expanded this technique to include effects from changes in the covariance among ¹⁴² the terms in Equation 1. Only one of these terms, the combination of ΔpCO_2 and k_{tur} , ¹⁴³ was significant relative to the changes computed using Equation 2. The influence of joint ¹⁴⁴ changes in these two processes was calculated as follows:

$$\delta[F]_{\Delta pCO_2, k_{atv}} = k_{sol} \times A_{noice} \times \delta[\Delta pCO_2] \times \delta[k_{qtv}], \tag{3}$$

which isolates the impact of simultaneous, precession-driven changes in both ΔpCO_2 and k_{tur} . It is important to note that since CO_2 in the atmosphere is kept constant, the ΔpCO_2 term in the air-sea CO_2 flux decomposition corresponds to only changes in surface ocean pCO_2 . The surface ocean pCO_2 changes are further broken down into contributions from temperature, salinity, Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC), alkalinity, and freshwater forcing.

In this manuscript, we emphasize orbital precession-driven changes in the Southern Ocean, calculated as the difference between the century-mean values in the 100-year HighPrec simulation and the 100-year NoPrec simulation. This difference (δ) is reported to be statistically significant at the 99% level if it exceeds 2.58 times the NoPrec temporal standard deviation, assuming a normal distribution.

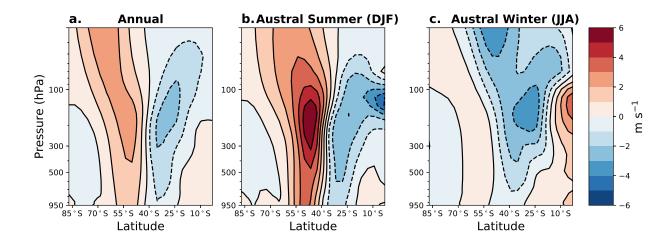


Figure 1. Precession-driven anomalies in Southern Hemisphere zonal-mean wind speed (m
 s⁻¹), calculated as the century-mean difference from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations. (a)
 Annual-mean anomalies, (b) Austral summer (DJF) anomalies, and (c) Austral winter (JJA)
 anomalies. Positive values/contours correspond to westerly wind anomalies.

156 4 Results

Our simulations show that high precession produces a shift in the SWW that man-157 ifests most strongly in the austral summer relative to conditions with no precessional forc-158 ing. In the summer months (DJF), we find a $\sim 6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ increase in the zonal-mean wind 159 speed extending from 300 to 100 hPa and centered at 50°S; we also find a \sim 3 m s⁻¹ de-160 crease at the same heights centered on 30° S (Figure 1b). Whereas, in the winter months 161 (JJA), high precession leads to a general weakening of the SWW in JJA (Figure 1c). The 162 shift in the SWW during the DJF season exceeds the SWW weakening in the JJA sea-163 son, resulting in an annual mean shift (Figure 1a). This poleward shift in the SWW ap-164 pears throughout the entire vertical structure of the atmosphere, indicating a poleward 165 intensification of the surface westerlies that drive Southern Ocean circulation. 166

The simulated precessional shift in the SWW corresponds to large deviations in the 171 atmospheric temperature structure. We find that the strongest temperature anomalies 172 occur during the DJF season, due to austral summer receiving significantly more inso-173 lation in periods of high precession (Figure S2). We find a precession-driven increase in 174 the pole-to-Equator temperature gradient around 200 hPa in both the annual-mean and 175 DJF zonal-mean temperature profiles (Figure S2g,h) that corresponds to the greatest 176 wind anomalies (Figure 1a,b). These findings indicate that periods of high precession, 177 or periods when the perihelion of Earth's orbit occur at the Southern Hemisphere sum-178 mer solstice, are associated with an enhanced pole-to-Equator temperature gradient at 179 the approximate position of the tropopause. 180

Carbon outgassing in the Southern Ocean increases by approximately 20% in High-188 Prec relative to NoPrec. The century-mean, integrated $(<35^{\circ}S)$ air-sea CO₂ flux increases 189 from 0.264 Pg C yr⁻¹ in NoPrec to 0.322 Pg C yr⁻¹ in HighPrec. This precession-driven 190 anomalous air-sea CO₂ flux is most pronounced in the Indian and Pacific sectors of the 191 Southern Ocean: regions typically characterized by outgassing or weak uptake of CO_2 192 (Figure 2). North of the ACC streamlines, and in the Atlantic sector of the ACC, high 193 precession is associated with anomalous uptake of CO_2 (Figure 2). The precession-driven 194 anomalous outgassing exceeds the anomalous uptake, such that the Southern Ocean be-195

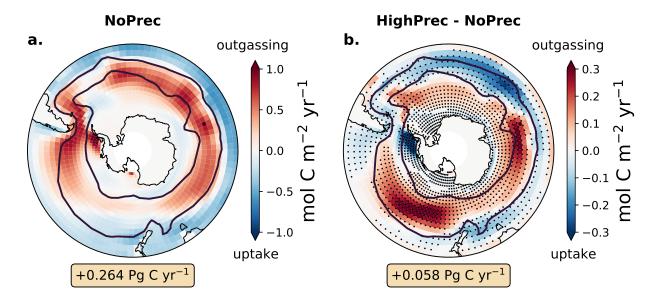


Figure 2. (a) Century-mean sea-air CO₂ flux from the NoPrec simulation. (b) Precessiondriven change in sea-air CO₂ flux, calculated as the difference in century-mean CO₂ flux from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations. Stippling indicates a statistically significant difference at the 99% confidence level. Units are mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹, and positive values correspond to CO₂ outgassing. Black lines show the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) in the NoPrec simulation, bound by the 7 Sv and 100 Sv barotropic streamlines. Numbers under each map indicate the Southern Ocean (<35°S) integrated flux and anomalous flux, respectively (Pg C yr⁻¹).

comes a larger net source of CO_2 to the atmosphere under high precession relative to no precession.

The precession-driven increase in Southern Ocean sea-air CO_2 flux is a result of 206 changes in both surface ocean pCO_2 and the gas transfer velocity caused by changes in 207 precession. We isolated the influence of each physical process driving changes in air-sea 208 flux using the technique outlined in Methods. We find that the spatial pattern of the changes 209 in CO₂ flux is driven by the contribution from ΔpCO_2 (determined by surface ocean pCO₂ 210 since carbon in the atmosphere is constant) (Figure 3), which itself is impacted by chang-211 ing surface ocean DIC (Figure S3). This indicates that the surface ocean pCO_2 response 212 to precession drives the anomalous outgassing in the Indian and Pacific sectors of the 213 ACC and the anomalous uptake in the Atlantic sector of the ACC. When integrated over 214 the Southern Ocean ($<35^{\circ}S$), the large magnitude positive and negative ΔpCO_2 anoma-215 lies nearly balance, such that the net contribution to the integrated flux difference is small 216 $(0.019 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}; \text{Figure 3d})$. The precession-driven CO₂ flux difference is also strongly 217 affected by the simultaneous changes in the gas transfer velocity and ΔpCO_2 , which con-218 tribute to enhanced outgassing in the ACC and a large, positive Southern Ocean inte-219 grated flux contribution (0.091 Pg C yr^{-1} ; Figure 3f). The changes in gas transfer ve-220 locity contributes a moderate decrease in carbon outgassing of $-0.038 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ (Fig-221 ure 3e). Whereas, the changes in air-sea CO_2 flux due to sea ice extent (Figure 3b) and 222 solubility (Figure 3c) have minimal impacts on the flux difference, with the exception 223 of sea ice extent near the West Antarctic Peninsula which drives localized anomalous CO_2 224 uptake (Figure 3b). 225

The core of the Southern Ocean meridional overturning circulation shifts poleward and deepens under high precession, tapping into a richer carbon source explaining the

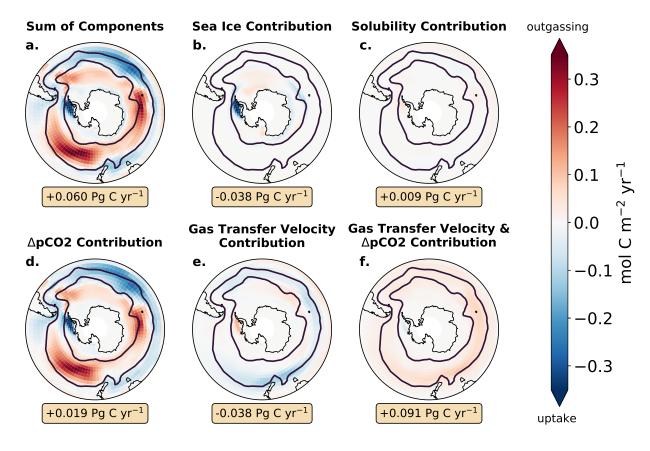


Figure 3. Contribution of (b) sea ice extent, (c) solubility, (d) ΔpCO_2 , (e) gas transfer veloc-198 ity, and (f) the combination of gas transfer velocity and ΔpCO_2 change to the total air-sea CO_2 199 flux difference (mol C $m^{-2} yr^{-1}$) due to precession. Contributions calculated as in Equation 2 200 and Equation 3 using the century-mean differences in each variable from the HighPrec and No-201 Prec simulations. (a) Shows the sum of the five components (b-f), which is nearly identical to 202 Figure 2. Black lines show the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) in the NoPrec simulation, 203 bound by the 7 Sv and 100 Sv barotropic streamlines. Numbers under each map indicate the 204 Southern Ocean ($<35^{\circ}S$) integrated contribution to the anomalous flux (Pg C yr⁻¹). 205

increase in surface pCO_2 . Relative to the NoPrec simulation, both the wind stress and 228 overturning maxima shift southward by $\sim 1^{\circ}$ in the HighPrec simulation (Figure 4). In 229 its more poleward position, the meridional overturning circulation streamlines intersect 230 waters with higher DIC concentrations (Figure 4b). For example, the 20 Sv streamline 231 in the NoPrec simulation intersects waters only up to 1250 meters deep with maximum 232 DIC concentrations of $\sim 2330 \text{ mmol m}^{-3}$. In contrast, this streamline reaches a deeper 233 depth of 1500 meters in the HighPrec simulation overlapping with higher DIC concen-234 tration of $\sim 2340 \text{ mmol m}^{-3}$ (Figure 4). This shifted and deepened meridional overturn-235 ing increases the amount of carbon that is brought to the surface in HighPrec relative 236 to NoPrec, which is a key component (Figure S3) of the simulated increase in CO_2 out-237 gassing. 238

The largest increases in air-sea CO_2 flux occur where precession drives both en-239 hanced gas exchange velocities and anomalous meridional and vertical advection of carbon-240 rich water (Figures 2, 3, 4, S4). High precession is associated with increases in the mod-241 eled air-sea gas transfer velocity, k_{qtv} , near the northern core of the ACC; these increases 242 are especially pronounced in the Indian and western Pacific sectors (Figure S4)a). The 243 SWW changes that induce increases in near surface turbulence and air-sea gas exchange 244 also alter the ocean circulation (Figure 4), driving increases in surface ocean DIC and 245 pCO₂ in the Indian and western Pacific sectors of the ACC (Figures S4b, S3a). Where 246 the gas transfer velocity and pCO_2 anomalies align, they combine to produce enhanced 247 CO_2 outgassing (Figures 2b, 4). 248

²⁴⁹ 5 Conclusions and Discussion

Our study demonstrates that high precessional states impact key Southern Ocean 250 processes involved in the global carbon cycle, ultimately leading to a substantial increase 251 in sea-air CO₂ flux. Under high precessional forcing of the Southern Hemisphere, our 252 model predicts a $\sim 1^{\circ}$ poleward shift of the SWW across the troposphere, likely caused 253 by insolation-driven atmospheric temperature changes over Antarctica. The associated 254 poleward shift in the SWW drives a stronger and deeper meridional overturning circu-255 lation, enhancing the vertical and lateral advection of carbon-rich water. The shifted SWW 256 also increase turbulent air-sea exchange which combined with the changes ocean over-257 turning combine to produce a 20% increase in CO₂ outgassing from the Southern Ocean. 258

The precession-driven poleward shift in the SWW predicted by our model strongly 266 resembles a positive phase of the Southern Annular Mode [SAM; see, e.g., Figure 7 of 267 Thompson et al., 2000], albeit with a different seasonality. While the SAM pattern has 268 been linked to internal climate variability and anthropogenic forcing, here we demon-269 strate that the Southern Hemisphere seasonal insolation changes associated with pre-270 cession produce a similar shift in the SWW. The simulated change in the equator-to-pole 271 temperature gradient in the upper troposphere is similar to that of the positive SAM phase, 272 when the polar atmosphere shows cooling aloft associated with Ozone forcing [see Fig-273 ure 8 of *Thompson et al.*, 2000]. Periods of high precession shift and deepen the merid-274 ional overturning circulation in our model (Figure 4b), which has also been found to oc-275 cur during positive phases of the SAM [Yang et al., 2007]. Thus, results from our sim-276 ulations suggest that the Southern Hemisphere response to precessional forcing exhibits 277 similar features to the Southern Hemisphere response to variability associated with the 278 SAM, suggesting that past changes could be used to understand ongoing changes in South-279 ern Hemisphere climate. 280

The precession-driven changes in ocean meridional overturning and air-sea CO₂ flux that we report broadly agree with other modeling studies that directly test the response of the Southern Ocean to changes in the magnitude and position of the SWWs [*Menviel et al.*, 2008; *Tschumi et al.*, 2008; *d'Orgeville et al.*, 2010]. While these studies are focused on shifts in the winds caused by a combination of orbital forcing changes on glacial-

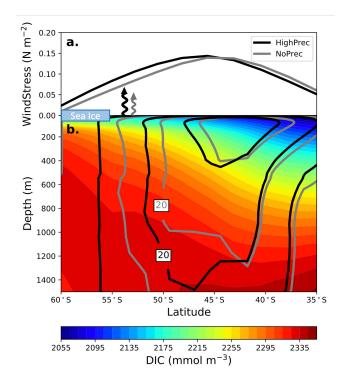


Figure 4. Southern Ocean response to high precession. (a) Century-mean zonal-mean surface wind stress from (gray) the NoPrec simulation and (black) the HighPrec simulation. (b) Centurymean (colors) zonal-mean DIC concentration from the HighPrec simulation with meridional overturning streamlines from the (gray) NoPrec simulation and (black) HighPrec simulation. Overturning units are Sv with contour lines every 10 Sv; positive streamlines indicate clockwise flow. Squiggly arrows indicate the relative position and strength in the annual peak carbon outgassing in both simulations.

to-interglacial timescales, our study demonstrates that orbital precession alone can induce changes in the SWW and thus air-sea CO₂ flux.

Our study uses an Earth system model that is configured with relatively coarse hor-288 izontal resolution in the atmosphere and ocean model components to support long in-289 tegrations potentially affect the realism of our results. The average annual peak in zonal-290 mean wind stress occurs at 45°S in our model. While this shows good agreement with 291 other models that have similar horizontal resolution [see Figure 3 of *Shields et al.*, 2012], 292 this position is equatorward relative to the modern-day position of 53° Large and Yea-293 ger [2009]. Similar poleward shift in the position of the SWW in response to high precession is also found in other modeling studies with higher resolution, suggesting our re-295 sults are not model dependent For instance, Rutherg and Broccoli [2019] used a model 296 with a resolution of 2° latitude by 2.5° longitude in the atmosphere and found a pole-297 ward shift of 4° between extreme precessional states. The coarse resolution of our ocean 298 model component requires that processes influenced by mesoscale eddies are parameter-299 ized. Numerous studies have emphasized the importance of mesoscale eddies in South-300 ern Ocean meridional overturning, especially in its response to changes in surface wind stress [Marshall and Radko, 2003; Hallberg and Gnanadesikan, 2006; Abernathey et al., 302 2011; Marshall and Speer, 2012; Doddridge et al., 2019]. Our model uses a variable eddy-303 induced advection coefficient [Gent, 2016], which has been shown to capture the sensi-304 tivity of these unresolved processes to changes in circulation [Lovenduski et al., 2013]. 305 Indeed, results from our model indicate that the eddy-induced meridional overturning 306 circulation strengthens in response to SWW changes under high precession (counterclock-307 wise anomalies in Figure S5b), suggesting that our coarse resolution ocean model com-308 ponent is capable of capturing changes in unresolved eddy advection. Future work should explore the responses identified here using higher resolution configuration of capable of 310 resolving these processes. 311

Taken together, our findings imply that orbital precession plays an important role 312 in regulating atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration through its effect on the South-313 ern Ocean. While our study is focused on the impact of precession on Southern Ocean 314 CO_2 fluxes, it is reasonable to expect that other regions in the coupled, global Earth sys-315 tem could also be affected by changes in precession. Future studies should address whether 316 precession produces anomalous air-sea CO₂ fluxes in other regions of the global ocean, 317 and whether the global ocean carbon reservoir grows or shrinks in response to preces-318 sion. As we have demonstrated, the changes in seasonal insolation associated with or-319 bital precession could have driven to a shift in the position of the westerly winds over 320 the Southern Ocean, increasing the upwelling of carbon-rich water to the surface exchang-321 ing more carbon with the atmosphere. This mechanism could explain variability in ice 322 core records of atmospheric CO_2 variability on precessional timescales [*Petit et al.*, 1999]. 323

324 Open Research

The analysis data of the CESM simulation in this study were uploaded to https://doi.org /10.5281/zenodo.7761019.

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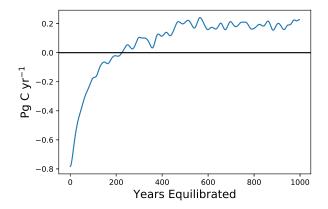


Figure S1. Globally integrated sea-air CO₂ flux during the model spin-up. High-frequency variability has been removed using a σ =10 Gaussian filter.

Region	Model spin-up	Mikaloff Fletcher et al. [2007]
Polar S. Ocean	0.10 ±0.03 $ $	0.04 ± 0.04
Sub-Polar Pac. & Ind.	0.31 ±0.08 $ $	0.25 ± 0.09
Sub-Polar Atl.	0.11 ±0.03 $ $	0.11 ± 0.05

Table S1. Spatially integrated air-sea CO_2 flux (Pg C yr⁻¹) in three Southern Ocean regions averaged over the last 500 years of the model spin-up, and the natural air-sea CO_2 flux reported

in Mikaloff Fletcher et al. [2007].

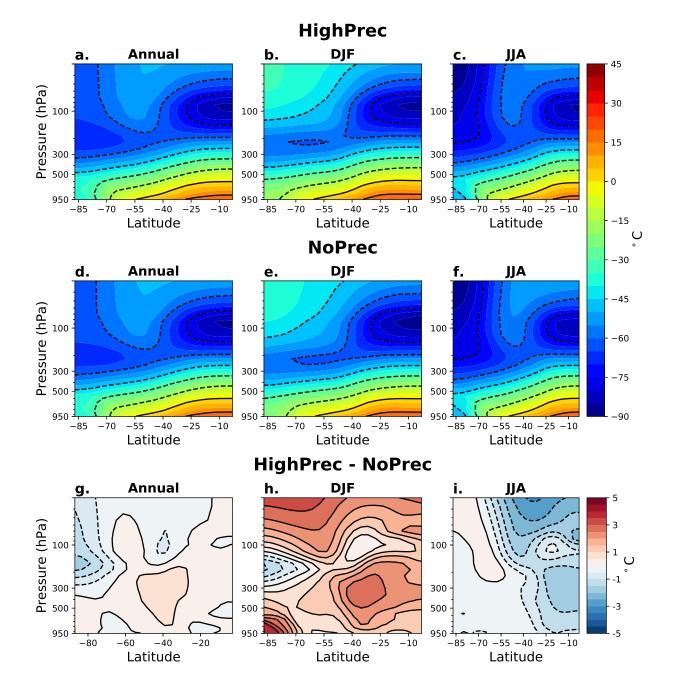
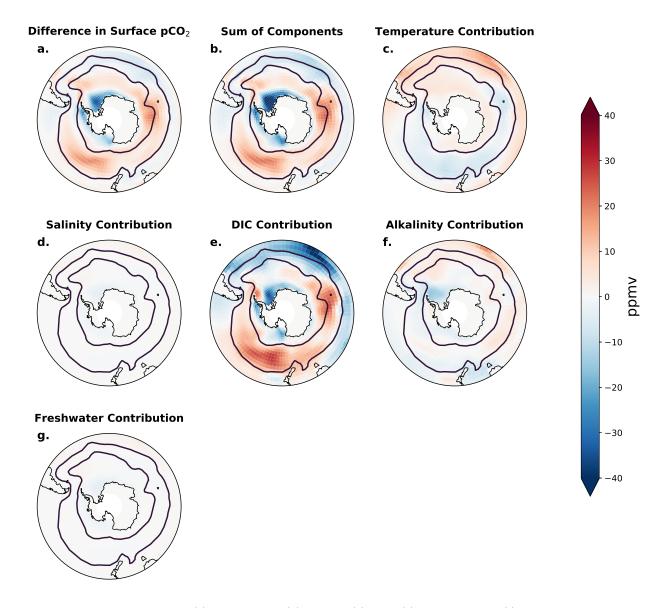
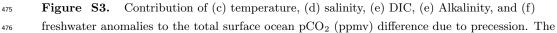


Figure S2. Zonal-mean atmospheric temperature for $(1^{st}$ column) annual-mean, $(2^{nd}$ column) Austral summer (DJF), and $(3^{rd}$ column) Austral winter (JJA) periods in the $(1^{st}$ row) HiPrec and $(2^{nd}$ row) NoPrec simulations (°C). $(3^{rd}$ row) Precession-driven anomalies in zonal-mean atmospheric temperature, calculated as the century-mean difference from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations.





477 contributions of each variable responsible for driving surface ocean pCO₂ were calculated using

the century-mean differences in each variable from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations [see

Equation 3 of Lovenduski et al., 2007]. (b) Shows the sum of the five components (c-g). Black

lines show the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) in the NoPrec simulation, bound by the 7

481 Sv and 100 Sv barotropic streamlines.

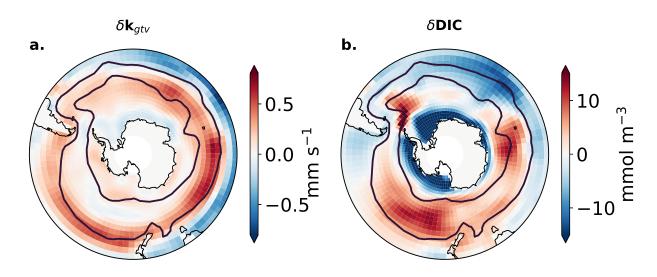


Figure S4. Precession-driven changes in (a) air-sea gas transfer velocity (mm s⁻¹), and (b) surface ocean DIC (mmol m⁻³), calculated as the difference in century-means from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations. Black lines show the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) in the No-Prec simulation, bound by the 7 Sv and 100 Sv barotropic streamlines.

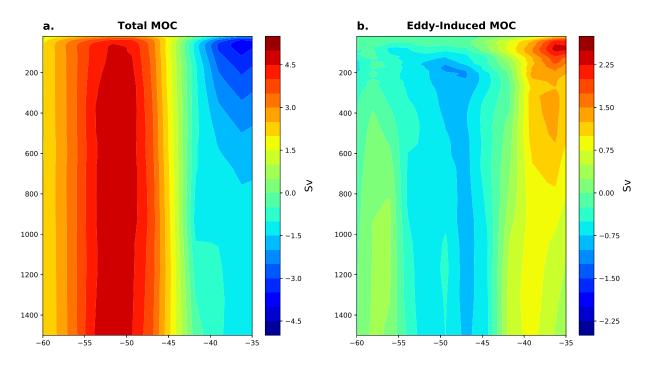


Figure S5. Precession-driven changes in (a) the Meridional Overturning Circulation (MOC)
streamfunction, and (b) the eddy-induced meridional overturning streamfunction, calculated as
the difference in century-means from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations. Units are Sv, and
positive streamlines indicate clockwise flow.

The Impact of Orbital Precession on Air-Sea CO₂ Exchange in the Southern Ocean

Cole F. Persch¹, Pedro DiNezio¹, Nicole S. Lovenduski^{1,2}

¹Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO, USA ²Institute of Arctic and Alpine Research, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO, USA

Key Points:

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7	•	Increased insolation during austral summer due to orbital precession shifts the south-
8		ern westerlies poleward.
9	•	Poleward shifted westerlies enhance CO ₂ outgassing due to increased turbulent
10		exchanges and vertical transport of carbon-rich waters.
11	•	Enhanced transport of carbon-rich waters is driven by a deepening of the over-

turning circulation in response to poleward shifted winds.

Corresponding author: Cole F. Persch, cole.persch@colorado.edu

13 Abstract

Orbital precession has been linked to glacial cycles and the atmospheric carbon dioxide 14 (CO_2) concentration, yet the direct impact of precession on the carbon cycle is not well 15 understood. We analyze output from an Earth system model configured under differ-16 ent orbital parameters to isolate the impact of precession on air-sea CO_2 flux in the South-17 ern Ocean - a component of the global carbon cycle that is thought to play a key role 18 on past atmospheric CO₂ variations. Here, we demonstrate that periods of high preces-19 sion are coincident with anomalous CO₂ outgassing from the Southern Ocean. Under 20 high precession, we find a poleward shift in the southern westerly winds, enhanced South-21 ern Ocean meridional overturning, and an increase in the surface ocean partial pressure 22 of CO_2 along the core of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current. These results suggest that 23 orbital precession may have played an important role in driving changes in atmospheric 24 CO_2 . 25

²⁶ 1 Plain Language Summary

Over the past one million years, Earth has experienced several glacial and inter-27 glacial periods. As a glacial period is ending, carbon in the atmosphere can rise by up 28 to 50%. The cause for this change is currently unknown, but most theories suggest that 29 this carbon is released from the deep ocean into the atmosphere. The Southern Ocean 30 surrounding Antarctica is the location of a lot of carbon outgassing from the deep ocean 31 32 into the atmosphere, so it could be responsible for some of this change in atmospheric carbon. One of Earth's orbital cycles, precession, has been shown to change circulation 33 in the Southern Ocean, that can affect how much carbon is carried from the deep ocean 34 to the surface and released into the atmosphere. This paper uses simulations of a climate 35 model to show that high precession corresponds to a 20% increase in the release of car-36 bon from the Southern Ocean into the atmosphere. These findings suggest that preces-37 sion could have affected changes in past atmospheric carbon concentrations. 38

39 2 Introduction

The Southern Ocean plays a central role in the global carbon cycle [Marshall and 40 Speer, 2012]. The Southern Westerly Winds (SWW) interact with the ocean surface and 41 force a zonally unbound meridional overturning circulation via Ekman transport, also 42 known as the Upper Cell [Speer et al., 2000]. On the poleward edge of this meridional 43 overturning, deep, carbon-rich water is upwelled to the surface, and CO_2 is released into 44 the atmosphere. Past studies have suggested that modern-day, interannual variability 45 in the position and intensity of the SWW can invoke changes in Southern Ocean circu-46 lation, air-sea CO_2 flux, and atmospheric CO_2 concentration [Lovenduski et al., 2007; 47 Butler et al., 2007; Dufour et al., 2013; Landschützer et al., 2019; Nevison et al., 2020], 48 and can influence the global carbon cycle [Hauck et al., 2020]. 49

The Southern Ocean likely played a key role in driving the large variations of at-50 mospheric CO₂ observed over glacial-interglacial cycles [Sigman et al., 2004; Toggweiler 51 et al., 2006; Anderson et al., 2009]. This is because the Southern Ocean is one of the only 52 places in the global ocean where dense ocean isopycnal surfaces outcrop, providing a means 53 to connect the deep ocean interior to the atmosphere [Rintoul et al., 2001]. However, the 54 mechanisms responsible for changing air-sea CO_2 flux in the Southern Ocean on these 55 timescales are not fully understood. In line with results from studies of modern-day South-56 ern Ocean CO₂ flux variability, multiple manuscripts suggest that glacial-interglacial changes 57 in the SWW may have played a role in some of these changes in air-sea CO_2 flux [Tog-58 gweiler et al., 2006; Menviel et al., 2008; Tschumi et al., 2008; Anderson et al., 2009; d'Orgeville 59 et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2011; Ai et al., 2020]. In these studies, the authors invoke SWW 60 changes via mechanisms such as a global temperature increase [Toggweiler et al., 2006], 61 a cooling North Atlantic [Anderson et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2011], or variations in Earth's 62

axial tilt (obliquity) [Ai et al., 2020], yet no clear consensus on the cause of the SWW
 changes has emerged.

Recent studies suggest that the climate in the high-latitude Southern Hemisphere responds to orbital precession, one of the Milankovitch cycles with a spectral peak at $\sim 21,000$ years. Modelling and proxy studies have demonstrated that precession can significantly alter the position and strength of the SWW, which impacts circulation in the Southern Ocean [*Rutberg and Broccoli*, 2019; *Lamy et al.*, 2019]. Yet the models used in these studies are lacking a carbon cycle and thus are unable to predict if Southern Ocean air-sea CO₂ flux will be affected by precession.

Here, we use a state-of-the-art Earth system model which includes a respresenta-72 tion of the carbon cycle to illustrate, for the first time, that orbital precession can have 73 a marked impact on Southern Ocean air-sea CO_2 flux. We compare output from two sim-74 ulations with different precessional states to illustrate the potential influence of preces-75 sion on the Southern Ocean. As we will demonstrate, precession drives changes in the 76 SWW and Southern Ocean circulation, alters the upwelling of deep, carbon-rich water, 77 and produces anomalies in air-sea CO_2 flux. Our results suggest that orbital precession 78 plays an important role in regulating atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, and provide a pos-79 sible mechanism to explain the precessional peak in the ice core atmospheric CO₂ spec-80 tra. 81

82 3 Methods

Our primary numerical modeling tool is the low-resolution configuration of the Com-83 munity Earth System Model (CESM) version 2.1.1 [Danabasoglu et al., 2020], a fully cou-84 pled climate model designed for long climate integrations [Shields et al., 2012]. The at-85 mospheric component, CAM4, has a resolution of $\sim 3.75^{\circ} \times 3.75^{\circ}$ and 26 vertical lev-86 els [Neale et al., 2013]. The ocean component, POP2, has nominal 2° latitude \times 4° lon-87 gitude resolution (lowering to less than 2° latitude resolution in the Southern Ocean), 88 and 60 vertical levels [Danabasoqlu et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2010]. POP2 represents subgrid-89 scale processes, such as mesoscale and submesoscale processes, via a collection of param-90 eterizations [Danabasoglu et al., 2008]. Importantly, the Gent and Mcwilliams [1990] mesoscale 91 eddy parameterization includes a variable eddy-induced advection coefficient [Gent, 2016]92 which improves realism of eddy-driven mixing of carbon in the Southern Ocean at coarse 93 resolution [Lovenduski et al., 2013]. POP2 includes a biogeochemical model, MARBL 94 [Long et al., 2021]. MARBL contains multiple chemical tracers necessary for simulat-95 ing ocean biogeochemistry such as carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus, iron, silicon, and oxy-96 gen. 97

Our experiment was designed to isolate the impact of precession on the Southern 98 Ocean. We spun up CESM 2.1.1 for a 1000-year period with an eccentricity parameter 99 of 0; since eccentricity modulates the strength of precession, this equilibration period had 100 no precessional forcing. Carbon dioxide in the atmosphere is kept at a constant prein-101 dustrial value of 284.7 ppm. Over the last 500 years of the spinup, the globally integrated 102 air-sea CO_2 flux drift is negligible (-1.9 \pm 6.5 * 10⁻⁶ Pg C yr⁻²; Figure S1). Following 103 the spin-up period, two 100-year simulations were performed: the first, NoPrec, main-104 tains an eccentricity parameter of 0, while the second, HighPrec, uses an eccentricity pa-105 rameter of 0.058, which is the maximum value over the last one million years [Laskar et al., 106 2004]. In the HighPrec simulation, the Northern Hemisphere summer solution was con-107 figured to occur at the perihelion of Earth's orbit, which maximizes seasonal variabil-108 ity of insolation in the Southern Hemisphere. Our HighPrec simulation shows an imme-109 diate response of the SWW with minimal drift in global temperature consistent with the 110 negligible effect of precession on annual mean insolation thus allowing us to use 100 years 111 to study changes in the Southern Ocean. 112

While CESM2 is a well-validated model [Danabasoglu et al., 2020; Simpson et al., 113 2020; Long et al., 2021, here we employ CESM2 components with lower resolution than 114 the standard configuration, requiring an assessment of model validity at this resolution. 115 Of particular interest in this study is the position and strength of the SWW. While the 116 maximum zonal wind stress in the NoPrec SWW (0.14 N m⁻²) agrees with modern es-117 timates [Large and Yeager, 2009, 0.14 N m^{-2}], the modeled position of the SWW zonal 118 wind stress (centered on 45° S) shows an equatorward bias relative to the estimated prein-119 dustrial value [Large and Yeager, 2009, centered on 53° S], which is a consequence of the 120 lower resolution of the atmospheric model [Shields et al., 2012]. The modelled position 121 and strength of the SWW in our NoPrec simulation is within the range reported by mod-122 els that participated in the Palaeoclimate Model Intercomparison Projects PMIP2 and 123 PMIP3 under preindustrial conditions [Rojas, 2013], whose model components are sim-124 ulated at a similar resolution as in our experiment. We find that the version of CESM2 125 employed in this study captures the air-sea fluxes of pre-industrial/natural CO_2 as com-126 pared to an observation-based inversion, as biome-mean CO_2 fluxes over the last 500 years 127 of the spin-up simulation are within the uncertainty of the observation-based fluxes [Mikaloff Fletcher 128 et al., 2007] (Table S1). 129

A goal of this study is to isolate the different physical processes driving changes in air-sea CO_2 over the Southern Ocean. We approach this using the air-sea CO_2 equation as solved by the model:

$$F_{CO_2} = k_{sol} \times A_{noice} \times \Delta p CO_2 \times k_{qtv}, \tag{1}$$

where k_{sol} is the solubility of carbon in seawater, A_{noice} is the surface area without ice, ΔpCO_2 is the difference in the partial pressure of CO_2 between the surface ocean and the atmosphere, and k_{gtv} is the gas transfer velocity which is driven by surface winds [Wanninkhof et al., 2013; Wanninkhof, 2014]. We isolate the contribution from each process as follows:

$$\delta[F]_{k_{eol}} = \delta[k_{sol}] \times A_{noice} \times \Delta pCO_2 \times k_{atv}, \tag{2}$$

where $\delta[F]_{k_{sol}}$ isolates the impact of precession-driven changes in solubility (δk_{sol}) on air-sea CO₂ flux, δ corresponds to the difference between HighPrec and NoPrec, and the non- δ terms are derived from the NoPrec simulation.

¹⁴¹ We expanded this technique to include effects from changes in the covariance among ¹⁴² the terms in Equation 1. Only one of these terms, the combination of ΔpCO_2 and k_{tur} , ¹⁴³ was significant relative to the changes computed using Equation 2. The influence of joint ¹⁴⁴ changes in these two processes was calculated as follows:

$$\delta[F]_{\Delta pCO_2, k_{atv}} = k_{sol} \times A_{noice} \times \delta[\Delta pCO_2] \times \delta[k_{qtv}], \tag{3}$$

which isolates the impact of simultaneous, precession-driven changes in both ΔpCO_2 and k_{tur} . It is important to note that since CO_2 in the atmosphere is kept constant, the ΔpCO_2 term in the air-sea CO_2 flux decomposition corresponds to only changes in surface ocean pCO_2 . The surface ocean pCO_2 changes are further broken down into contributions from temperature, salinity, Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC), alkalinity, and freshwater forcing.

In this manuscript, we emphasize orbital precession-driven changes in the Southern Ocean, calculated as the difference between the century-mean values in the 100-year HighPrec simulation and the 100-year NoPrec simulation. This difference (δ) is reported to be statistically significant at the 99% level if it exceeds 2.58 times the NoPrec temporal standard deviation, assuming a normal distribution.

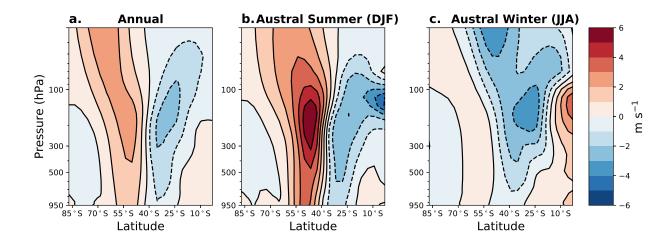


Figure 1. Precession-driven anomalies in Southern Hemisphere zonal-mean wind speed (m
 s⁻¹), calculated as the century-mean difference from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations. (a)
 Annual-mean anomalies, (b) Austral summer (DJF) anomalies, and (c) Austral winter (JJA)
 anomalies. Positive values/contours correspond to westerly wind anomalies.

156 4 Results

Our simulations show that high precession produces a shift in the SWW that man-157 ifests most strongly in the austral summer relative to conditions with no precessional forc-158 ing. In the summer months (DJF), we find a $\sim 6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ increase in the zonal-mean wind 159 speed extending from 300 to 100 hPa and centered at 50°S; we also find a \sim 3 m s⁻¹ de-160 crease at the same heights centered on 30° S (Figure 1b). Whereas, in the winter months 161 (JJA), high precession leads to a general weakening of the SWW in JJA (Figure 1c). The 162 shift in the SWW during the DJF season exceeds the SWW weakening in the JJA sea-163 son, resulting in an annual mean shift (Figure 1a). This poleward shift in the SWW ap-164 pears throughout the entire vertical structure of the atmosphere, indicating a poleward 165 intensification of the surface westerlies that drive Southern Ocean circulation. 166

The simulated precessional shift in the SWW corresponds to large deviations in the 171 atmospheric temperature structure. We find that the strongest temperature anomalies 172 occur during the DJF season, due to austral summer receiving significantly more inso-173 lation in periods of high precession (Figure S2). We find a precession-driven increase in 174 the pole-to-Equator temperature gradient around 200 hPa in both the annual-mean and 175 DJF zonal-mean temperature profiles (Figure S2g,h) that corresponds to the greatest 176 wind anomalies (Figure 1a,b). These findings indicate that periods of high precession, 177 or periods when the perihelion of Earth's orbit occur at the Southern Hemisphere sum-178 mer solstice, are associated with an enhanced pole-to-Equator temperature gradient at 179 the approximate position of the tropopause. 180

Carbon outgassing in the Southern Ocean increases by approximately 20% in High-188 Prec relative to NoPrec. The century-mean, integrated $(<35^{\circ}S)$ air-sea CO₂ flux increases 189 from 0.264 Pg C yr⁻¹ in NoPrec to 0.322 Pg C yr⁻¹ in HighPrec. This precession-driven 190 anomalous air-sea CO₂ flux is most pronounced in the Indian and Pacific sectors of the 191 Southern Ocean: regions typically characterized by outgassing or weak uptake of CO_2 192 (Figure 2). North of the ACC streamlines, and in the Atlantic sector of the ACC, high 193 precession is associated with anomalous uptake of CO_2 (Figure 2). The precession-driven 194 anomalous outgassing exceeds the anomalous uptake, such that the Southern Ocean be-195

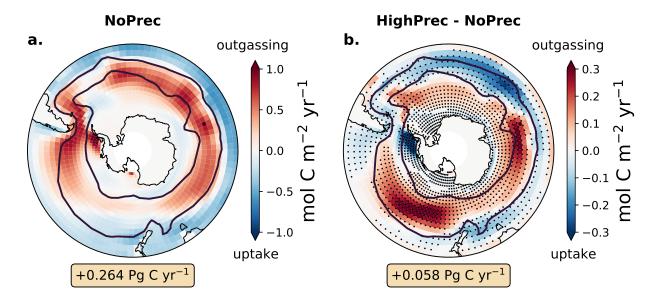


Figure 2. (a) Century-mean sea-air CO₂ flux from the NoPrec simulation. (b) Precessiondriven change in sea-air CO₂ flux, calculated as the difference in century-mean CO₂ flux from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations. Stippling indicates a statistically significant difference at the 99% confidence level. Units are mol C m⁻² yr⁻¹, and positive values correspond to CO₂ outgassing. Black lines show the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) in the NoPrec simulation, bound by the 7 Sv and 100 Sv barotropic streamlines. Numbers under each map indicate the Southern Ocean (<35°S) integrated flux and anomalous flux, respectively (Pg C yr⁻¹).

comes a larger net source of CO_2 to the atmosphere under high precession relative to no precession.

The precession-driven increase in Southern Ocean sea-air CO_2 flux is a result of 206 changes in both surface ocean pCO_2 and the gas transfer velocity caused by changes in 207 precession. We isolated the influence of each physical process driving changes in air-sea 208 flux using the technique outlined in Methods. We find that the spatial pattern of the changes 209 in CO₂ flux is driven by the contribution from ΔpCO_2 (determined by surface ocean pCO₂ 210 since carbon in the atmosphere is constant) (Figure 3), which itself is impacted by chang-211 ing surface ocean DIC (Figure S3). This indicates that the surface ocean pCO_2 response 212 to precession drives the anomalous outgassing in the Indian and Pacific sectors of the 213 ACC and the anomalous uptake in the Atlantic sector of the ACC. When integrated over 214 the Southern Ocean ($<35^{\circ}S$), the large magnitude positive and negative ΔpCO_2 anoma-215 lies nearly balance, such that the net contribution to the integrated flux difference is small 216 $(0.019 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}; \text{Figure 3d})$. The precession-driven CO₂ flux difference is also strongly 217 affected by the simultaneous changes in the gas transfer velocity and ΔpCO_2 , which con-218 tribute to enhanced outgassing in the ACC and a large, positive Southern Ocean inte-219 grated flux contribution (0.091 Pg C yr^{-1} ; Figure 3f). The changes in gas transfer ve-220 locity contributes a moderate decrease in carbon outgassing of $-0.038 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ (Fig-221 ure 3e). Whereas, the changes in air-sea CO_2 flux due to sea ice extent (Figure 3b) and 222 solubility (Figure 3c) have minimal impacts on the flux difference, with the exception 223 of sea ice extent near the West Antarctic Peninsula which drives localized anomalous CO_2 224 uptake (Figure 3b). 225

The core of the Southern Ocean meridional overturning circulation shifts poleward and deepens under high precession, tapping into a richer carbon source explaining the

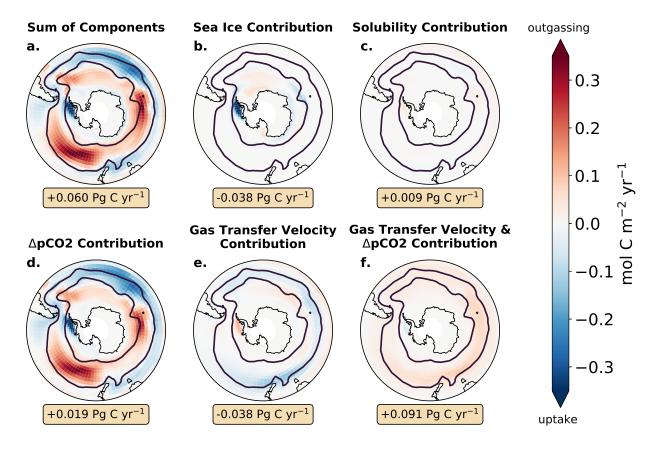


Figure 3. Contribution of (b) sea ice extent, (c) solubility, (d) ΔpCO_2 , (e) gas transfer veloc-198 ity, and (f) the combination of gas transfer velocity and ΔpCO_2 change to the total air-sea CO_2 199 flux difference (mol C $m^{-2} yr^{-1}$) due to precession. Contributions calculated as in Equation 2 200 and Equation 3 using the century-mean differences in each variable from the HighPrec and No-201 Prec simulations. (a) Shows the sum of the five components (b-f), which is nearly identical to 202 Figure 2. Black lines show the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) in the NoPrec simulation, 203 bound by the 7 Sv and 100 Sv barotropic streamlines. Numbers under each map indicate the 204 Southern Ocean ($<35^{\circ}S$) integrated contribution to the anomalous flux (Pg C yr⁻¹). 205

increase in surface pCO_2 . Relative to the NoPrec simulation, both the wind stress and 228 overturning maxima shift southward by $\sim 1^{\circ}$ in the HighPrec simulation (Figure 4). In 229 its more poleward position, the meridional overturning circulation streamlines intersect 230 waters with higher DIC concentrations (Figure 4b). For example, the 20 Sv streamline 231 in the NoPrec simulation intersects waters only up to 1250 meters deep with maximum 232 DIC concentrations of $\sim 2330 \text{ mmol m}^{-3}$. In contrast, this streamline reaches a deeper 233 depth of 1500 meters in the HighPrec simulation overlapping with higher DIC concen-234 tration of $\sim 2340 \text{ mmol m}^{-3}$ (Figure 4). This shifted and deepened meridional overturn-235 ing increases the amount of carbon that is brought to the surface in HighPrec relative 236 to NoPrec, which is a key component (Figure S3) of the simulated increase in CO_2 out-237 gassing. 238

The largest increases in air-sea CO_2 flux occur where precession drives both en-239 hanced gas exchange velocities and anomalous meridional and vertical advection of carbon-240 rich water (Figures 2, 3, 4, S4). High precession is associated with increases in the mod-241 eled air-sea gas transfer velocity, k_{qtv} , near the northern core of the ACC; these increases 242 are especially pronounced in the Indian and western Pacific sectors (Figure S4)a). The 243 SWW changes that induce increases in near surface turbulence and air-sea gas exchange 244 also alter the ocean circulation (Figure 4), driving increases in surface ocean DIC and 245 pCO₂ in the Indian and western Pacific sectors of the ACC (Figures S4b, S3a). Where 246 the gas transfer velocity and pCO_2 anomalies align, they combine to produce enhanced 247 CO_2 outgassing (Figures 2b, 4). 248

²⁴⁹ 5 Conclusions and Discussion

Our study demonstrates that high precessional states impact key Southern Ocean 250 processes involved in the global carbon cycle, ultimately leading to a substantial increase 251 in sea-air CO₂ flux. Under high precessional forcing of the Southern Hemisphere, our 252 model predicts a $\sim 1^{\circ}$ poleward shift of the SWW across the troposphere, likely caused 253 by insolation-driven atmospheric temperature changes over Antarctica. The associated 254 poleward shift in the SWW drives a stronger and deeper meridional overturning circu-255 lation, enhancing the vertical and lateral advection of carbon-rich water. The shifted SWW 256 also increase turbulent air-sea exchange which combined with the changes ocean over-257 turning combine to produce a 20% increase in CO₂ outgassing from the Southern Ocean. 258

The precession-driven poleward shift in the SWW predicted by our model strongly 266 resembles a positive phase of the Southern Annular Mode [SAM; see, e.g., Figure 7 of 267 Thompson et al., 2000], albeit with a different seasonality. While the SAM pattern has 268 been linked to internal climate variability and anthropogenic forcing, here we demon-269 strate that the Southern Hemisphere seasonal insolation changes associated with pre-270 cession produce a similar shift in the SWW. The simulated change in the equator-to-pole 271 temperature gradient in the upper troposphere is similar to that of the positive SAM phase, 272 when the polar atmosphere shows cooling aloft associated with Ozone forcing [see Fig-273 ure 8 of *Thompson et al.*, 2000]. Periods of high precession shift and deepen the merid-274 ional overturning circulation in our model (Figure 4b), which has also been found to oc-275 cur during positive phases of the SAM [Yang et al., 2007]. Thus, results from our sim-276 ulations suggest that the Southern Hemisphere response to precessional forcing exhibits 277 similar features to the Southern Hemisphere response to variability associated with the 278 SAM, suggesting that past changes could be used to understand ongoing changes in South-279 ern Hemisphere climate. 280

The precession-driven changes in ocean meridional overturning and air-sea CO₂ flux that we report broadly agree with other modeling studies that directly test the response of the Southern Ocean to changes in the magnitude and position of the SWWs [*Menviel et al.*, 2008; *Tschumi et al.*, 2008; *d'Orgeville et al.*, 2010]. While these studies are focused on shifts in the winds caused by a combination of orbital forcing changes on glacial-

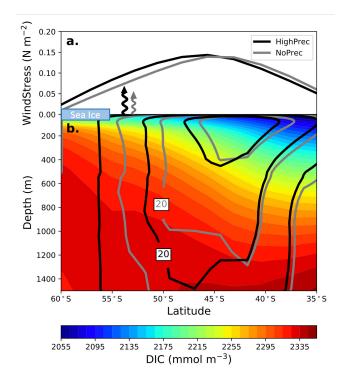


Figure 4. Southern Ocean response to high precession. (a) Century-mean zonal-mean surface wind stress from (gray) the NoPrec simulation and (black) the HighPrec simulation. (b) Centurymean (colors) zonal-mean DIC concentration from the HighPrec simulation with meridional overturning streamlines from the (gray) NoPrec simulation and (black) HighPrec simulation. Overturning units are Sv with contour lines every 10 Sv; positive streamlines indicate clockwise flow. Squiggly arrows indicate the relative position and strength in the annual peak carbon outgassing in both simulations.

to-interglacial timescales, our study demonstrates that orbital precession alone can induce changes in the SWW and thus air-sea CO₂ flux.

Our study uses an Earth system model that is configured with relatively coarse hor-288 izontal resolution in the atmosphere and ocean model components to support long in-289 tegrations potentially affect the realism of our results. The average annual peak in zonal-290 mean wind stress occurs at 45°S in our model. While this shows good agreement with 291 other models that have similar horizontal resolution [see Figure 3 of *Shields et al.*, 2012], 292 this position is equatorward relative to the modern-day position of 53° Large and Yea-293 ger [2009]. Similar poleward shift in the position of the SWW in response to high precession is also found in other modeling studies with higher resolution, suggesting our re-295 sults are not model dependent For instance, Rutherg and Broccoli [2019] used a model 296 with a resolution of 2° latitude by 2.5° longitude in the atmosphere and found a pole-297 ward shift of 4° between extreme precessional states. The coarse resolution of our ocean 298 model component requires that processes influenced by mesoscale eddies are parameter-299 ized. Numerous studies have emphasized the importance of mesoscale eddies in South-300 ern Ocean meridional overturning, especially in its response to changes in surface wind stress [Marshall and Radko, 2003; Hallberg and Gnanadesikan, 2006; Abernathey et al., 302 2011; Marshall and Speer, 2012; Doddridge et al., 2019]. Our model uses a variable eddy-303 induced advection coefficient [Gent, 2016], which has been shown to capture the sensi-304 tivity of these unresolved processes to changes in circulation [Lovenduski et al., 2013]. 305 Indeed, results from our model indicate that the eddy-induced meridional overturning 306 circulation strengthens in response to SWW changes under high precession (counterclock-307 wise anomalies in Figure S5b), suggesting that our coarse resolution ocean model com-308 ponent is capable of capturing changes in unresolved eddy advection. Future work should explore the responses identified here using higher resolution configuration of capable of 310 resolving these processes. 311

Taken together, our findings imply that orbital precession plays an important role 312 in regulating atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration through its effect on the South-313 ern Ocean. While our study is focused on the impact of precession on Southern Ocean 314 CO_2 fluxes, it is reasonable to expect that other regions in the coupled, global Earth sys-315 tem could also be affected by changes in precession. Future studies should address whether 316 precession produces anomalous air-sea CO₂ fluxes in other regions of the global ocean, 317 and whether the global ocean carbon reservoir grows or shrinks in response to preces-318 sion. As we have demonstrated, the changes in seasonal insolation associated with or-319 bital precession could have driven to a shift in the position of the westerly winds over 320 the Southern Ocean, increasing the upwelling of carbon-rich water to the surface exchang-321 ing more carbon with the atmosphere. This mechanism could explain variability in ice 322 core records of atmospheric CO_2 variability on precessional timescales [*Petit et al.*, 1999]. 323

324 Open Research

The analysis data of the CESM simulation in this study were uploaded to https://doi.org /10.5281/zenodo.7761019.

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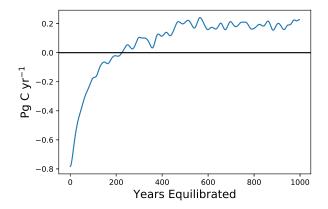


Figure S1. Globally integrated sea-air CO₂ flux during the model spin-up. High-frequency variability has been removed using a σ =10 Gaussian filter.

Region	Model spin-up	Mikaloff Fletcher et al. [2007]
Polar S. Ocean	0.10 ± 0.03	0.04 ± 0.04
Sub-Polar Pac. & Ind.	0.31 ± 0.08	0.25 ± 0.09
Sub-Polar Atl.	0.11 ± 0.03	0.11 ± 0.05

Table S1. Spatially integrated air-sea CO_2 flux (Pg C yr⁻¹) in three Southern Ocean regions averaged over the last 500 years of the model spin-up, and the natural air-sea CO_2 flux reported

in Mikaloff Fletcher et al. [2007].

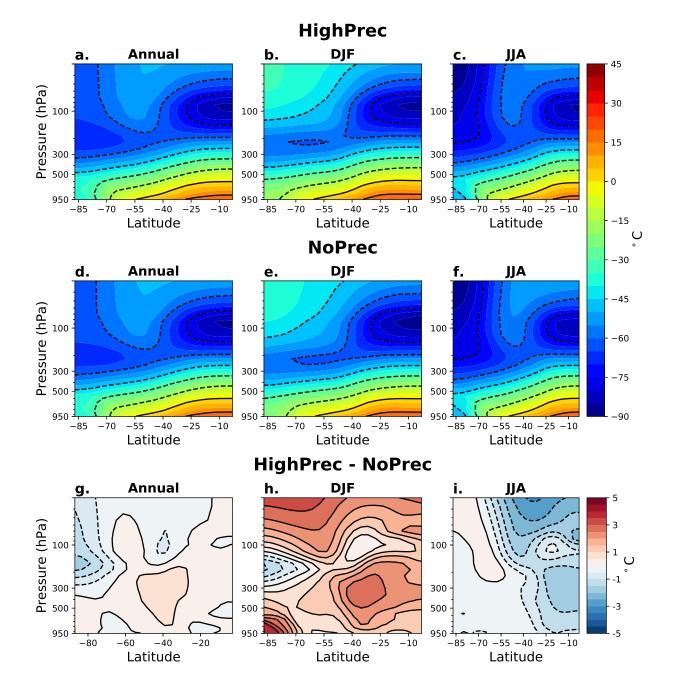
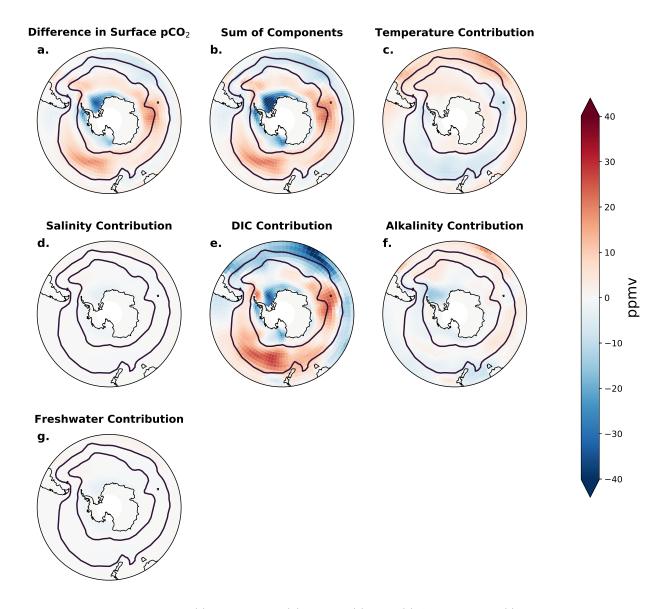
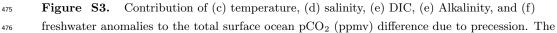


Figure S2. Zonal-mean atmospheric temperature for $(1^{st}$ column) annual-mean, $(2^{nd}$ column) Austral summer (DJF), and $(3^{rd}$ column) Austral winter (JJA) periods in the $(1^{st}$ row) HiPrec and $(2^{nd}$ row) NoPrec simulations (°C). $(3^{rd}$ row) Precession-driven anomalies in zonal-mean atmospheric temperature, calculated as the century-mean difference from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations.





477 contributions of each variable responsible for driving surface ocean pCO₂ were calculated using

the century-mean differences in each variable from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations [see

Equation 3 of Lovenduski et al., 2007]. (b) Shows the sum of the five components (c-g). Black

lines show the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) in the NoPrec simulation, bound by the 7

481 Sv and 100 Sv barotropic streamlines.

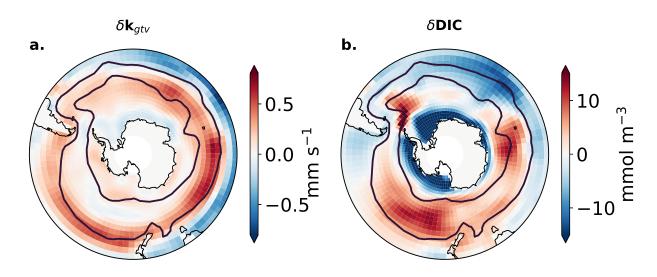


Figure S4. Precession-driven changes in (a) air-sea gas transfer velocity (mm s⁻¹), and (b) surface ocean DIC (mmol m⁻³), calculated as the difference in century-means from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations. Black lines show the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) in the No-Prec simulation, bound by the 7 Sv and 100 Sv barotropic streamlines.

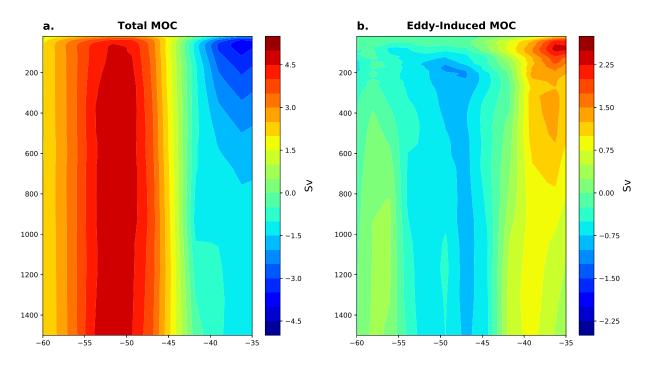


Figure S5. Precession-driven changes in (a) the Meridional Overturning Circulation (MOC)
streamfunction, and (b) the eddy-induced meridional overturning streamfunction, calculated as
the difference in century-means from the HighPrec and NoPrec simulations. Units are Sv, and
positive streamlines indicate clockwise flow.