Replaying the tape of history: Synthetic large ensembles of sea-air carbon dioxide (CO2) flux

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November 23, 2022

Abstract

We use a statistical emulation technique to construct synthetic ensembles of global and regional sea-air carbon dioxide (CO2) flux from four observation-based products over 1985-2014. Much like ensembles of Earth system models that are constructed by perturbing their initial conditions, our synthetic ensemble members exhibit different phasing of internal variability and a common externally forced signal. Our synthetic ensembles illustrate an important role for internal variability in the temporal evolution of global and regional CO2 flux and produce a wide range of possible trends over 1990-1999 and 2000-2009. We assume a specific externally forced signal and calculate the likelihood of the observed trend given the distribution of synthetic trends during these two periods. Over the decade 1990-1999, three of the four observation-based products exhibit small negative trends in globally integrated sea-air CO2 flux (i.e., enhanced ocean CO2 absorption with time) that are highly probable (44-72% chance of occurrence) in their respective synthetic trend distributions. Over the decade 2000-2009, however, three of the four products show large negative trends in globally integrated sea-air CO2 flux that are somewhat improbable (17-19% chance of occurrence). Our synthetic ensembles suggest that the largest observation-based positive trends in global and Southern Ocean CO2 flux over 1990-1999 and the largest negative trends over 2000-2009 are somewhat improbable (<30% chance of occurrence). Our approach provides a new understanding of the role of internal and external processes in driving sea-air CO2 flux variability.

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17	Key Points:
18	• We construct synthetic large ensembles of observed sea-air carbon dioxide flux using
19	a statistical emulation technique
20	• The synthetic large ensembles illustrate an important role for internal variability in the
21	temporal evolution of carbon dioxide flux
22	• We find a wide range of possible decadal trends in carbon dioxide flux over 1990-
23	1999 and 2000-2009 driven by internal variability

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24 Abstract

We use a statistical emulation technique to construct synthetic ensembles of global and re-25 gional sea-air carbon dioxide (CO₂) flux from four observation-based products over 1985-26 2014. Much like ensembles of Earth system models that are constructed by perturbing their 27 initial conditions, our synthetic ensemble members exhibit different phasing of internal vari-28 ability and a common externally forced signal. Our synthetic ensembles illustrate an impor-29 tant role for internal variability in the temporal evolution of global and regional CO_2 flux 30 and produce a wide range of possible trends over 1990-1999 and 2000-2009. We assume a 31 specific externally forced signal and calculate the likelihood of the observed trend given the 32 distribution of synthetic trends during these two periods. Over the decade 1990-1999, three 33 of the four observation-based products exhibit small negative trends in globally integrated 34 sea-air CO_2 flux (*i.e.*, enhanced ocean CO_2 absorption with time) that are highly probable 35 (44-72% chance of occurrence) in their respective synthetic trend distributions. Over the 36 decade 2000-2009, however, three of the four products show large negative trends in globally 37 integrated sea-air CO₂ flux that are somewhat improbable (17-19% chance of occurrence). 38 Our synthetic ensembles suggest that the largest observation-based positive trends in global 39 and Southern Ocean CO₂ flux over 1990-1999 and the largest negative trends over 2000-40 2009 are somewhat improbable (<30% chance of occurrence). Our approach provides a new 41 perspective on the important role of internal variability in sea-air CO₂ flux trends, and fur-42 thers understanding of the role of internal and external processes in driving sea-air CO2 flux 43 variability. 44

45 **1 Introduction**

The ocean plays a key role in the climate system, absorbing $\sim 25\%$ of the annual carbon 46 dioxide (CO₂) emissions from anthropogenic activities [Friedlingstein et al., 2020]. While 47 this sea-air CO₂ flux slows the rate of anthropogenic climate change [Le Quéré et al., 2018], 48 it also enhances ocean acidification and can thus influence marine organisms, ecosystems, 49 and the societies that depend on those ecosystems [Doney et al., 2020]. Earth system models 50 suggest that ocean carbon absorption will continue through the end of the century [Ciais and 51 Sabine, 2013], though the magnitude of the globally integrated sea-air CO₂ flux will largely 52 depend on our emissions trajectory [Lovenduski et al., 2016; Ridge and McKinley, 2021]. 53 Global sea-air CO₂ exchange is not steady with time, but rather exhibits temporal 54

variability. Studies using estimates of sea-air CO_2 flux from sparse measurements of the

surface ocean partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂) [Bakker et al., 2016] suggest that this CO₂ 56 flux variability is particularly pronounced on decadal timescales. These studies report a pe-57 riod of stagnation in global ocean carbon absorption over the decade 1990-1999 [Le Quéré 58 et al., 2009; Rödenbeck et al., 2015; Landschützer et al., 2016; DeVries et al., 2019], fol-59 lowed by intensification of ocean carbon absorption over the decade 2000-2009 [Fay and 60 McKinley, 2013; Rödenbeck et al., 2015; Landschützer et al., 2016; DeVries et al., 2019]. 61 These observed decadal trends in sea-air CO₂ flux are superimposed on a background char-62 acterized by high interannual variability on global and regional scales [Landschützer et al., 63 2019], and this challenges our ability to quantify the magnitude of the decadal trends and 64 to attribute them to particular drivers [e.g., Fay and McKinley, 2013]. While some studies 65 link the decadal sea-air CO₂ flux trends to modes of *internal climate variability*, such as the 66 Southern Annular Mode or the El Niño-Southern Oscillation [ENSO; Landschützer et al., 67 2015, 2019], others cite *external forcing* from volcanic eruptions and changes in the atmo-68 spheric CO₂ growth rate as the driving factor behind these trends [McKinley et al., 2020]. It 69 is critical that we quantify and understand the drivers of these decadal trends in sea-air CO_2 70 flux for future predictions of the global carbon cycle that are reported in documents such as 71 the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) reports. 72

Large initial condition ensembles of Earth system models are a relatively new tool that 73 can be used to quantify the roles of internal climate variability and external forcing in long-74 term trends of Earth system variables. These large ensemble experiments are conducted with 75 a single Earth system model wherein each ensemble member is subject to perturbations in 76 initial conditions, but all ensemble members are subject to identical external forcing. This 77 procedure produces an ensemble where each member portrays modes of internal climate 78 variability with unique phasing and amplitude, and where the average across all ensemble 79 members captures the response of the Earth system to external forcing [Deser et al., 2020]. 80 McKinley et al. [2016] and McKinley et al. [2017] used the Community Earth System Model 81 Version 1 Large Ensemble [CESM1-LE; Kay et al., 2015] to illustrate how internal vari-82 ability can cloud our ability to quantify and interpret sea-air CO₂ flux trends on decadal and 83 longer timescales. Their analysis demonstrates that decadal trends in sea-air CO₂ flux from 84 a single CESM1-LE ensemble member are strongly affected by internal climate variability 85 [McKinley et al., 2017]. Since the historical record of sea-air CO₂ flux variations is akin to a 86 single ensemble member in this large ensemble framework, the magnitude of decadal trends 87 in the historical record is likely heavily influenced by internal variability. However, sea-air 88

⁸⁹ CO₂ flux variability in CESM1-LE and other Earth system models may not match that of the
 ⁹⁰ real world [*Hauck et al.*, 2020], and this necessitates our development of a large ensemble
 ⁹¹ that is based on real-world observations.

Here, we use a statistical emulation method to place the observation-based estimates of sea-air CO₂ flux into a large ensemble framework by constructing synthetic ensembles of observed sea-air CO₂ flux. Much like a large ensemble of an Earth system model, each synthetic ensemble member experiences a different phasing of internal climate variability, but an identical externally forced signal. We develop synthetic ensembles of sea-air CO₂ flux for four observation-based products and remark on the importance of internal climate variability for the interpretation of decadal trends in the observational record.

2 Observations and models

Our study utilizes a collection of interpolated observations and output from Earth sys-100 tem models to develop, analyze, and test our synthetic ensemble of observed sea-air CO_2 101 fluxes. We illustrate our statistical methodology for the reader using sea-air CO_2 fluxes de-102 rived from surface ocean pCO_2 (pCO_2^{oc}) observations collected in the Drake Passage Time-103 series program. We then develop synthetic ensembles for four global, observation-based 104 sea-air CO₂ flux products, for which we use ensemble mean estimates of sea-air CO₂ flux 105 from Earth system models contributing to the 6th Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 106 (CMIP6). Finally, we use output from the CESM1-LE to test our statistical methodology. In 107 this section, we describe each of these datasets in turn. 108

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2.1 Drake Passage sea-air CO₂ flux estimates

We use a single time-series of annual mean sea-air CO₂ flux derived from underway 110 estimates of pCO₂^{oc} collected as part of the Drake Passage Time-series program over 2004-111 2018 [Figure 1a; Munro et al., 2015a,b; Fay et al., 2018]. Each annual mean estimate of sea-112 air CO₂ flux is calculated from monthly means of all underway pCO_2^{oc} observations within 113 a region in the center of the Drake Passage (i.e., from 58 to 60°S and 61.5 to 65.5°W) where 114 monthly Cross-Calibrated Multi-Platform version 2 (CCMPv2) winds were used to estimate 115 sea-air CO2 flux [Atlas et al., 2011]. Observations were collected in eight to eleven different 116 months of each year within this region, from approximately twenty Southern Ocean crossings 117 per year. 118

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2.2 Observation-based sea-air CO₂ flux products

Our synthetic ensembles of sea-air CO₂ flux are derived from observation-based estimates that rely upon sparse pCO_2^{oc} measurements collected in the Surface Ocean CO₂ Atlas [SOCAT; *Bakker et al.*, 2016] and the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory database [LDEO; *Takahashi et al.*, 2018]. These observation-based products use a range of statistical and machine learning approaches to gap-fill pCO_2^{oc} where and when measurements are not available (Table 1).

The Council for Scientific and Industrial Research-Machine Learning ensemble [CSIR-ML6; *Gregor et al.*, 2019] uses an ensemble of two-step neural network methods where two types of clusters and three types of regressions are used to interpolate pCO_2^{oc} from SOCAT v2020 using chlorophyll-a, sea surface temperature, absolute dynamic topography, mixed layer depth, sea ice, and sea surface salinity. The final product uses an ensemble average of six machine-learning models.

The Max Planck Institute Self-Organizing Map-Feed-Forward Neural Network [MPI-132 SOMFFN; Landschützer et al., 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016] uses a two-step neural network 133 method to gap-fill pCO_2^{oc} . In the first step, a self-organizing map is used to subdivide the 134 ocean into 16 provinces with similar climatological biogeochemical properties. In the second 135 step, a feed-forward neural network is used to predict the non-linear relationships between 136 driver variables and SOCAT v2020 observations in each province. Driver variables for MPI-137 SOMFFN include sea surface temperature, mixed layer depth, satellite derived chlorophyll-a 138 concentration, sea surface salinity, and atmospheric pCO_2 . 139

The Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry-Mixed Layer Scheme [JENA-MLS; $R\ddot{o}$ denbeck et al., 2014] combines ocean mixed layer biogeochemistry with pCO_2^{oc} data from SOCAT v2020 and seasonal, interannual and short-term (daily) variations of sea surface temperature, mixed layer depth, ice-free fraction, salinity, wind speed, and alkalinity.

The Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service Feed-Forward Neural Network [CMEMS-FFNN; *Denvil-Sommer et al.*, 2019] uses a two-step process that first reconstructs monthly climatologies of global pCO_2^{oc} from the LDEO database, and then reconstructs monthly anomalies using the SOCAT v5 grid. The driver variables used are chlorophylla, sea surface temperature, mixed layer depth, sea surface salinity, the atmospheric CO₂ mole fraction (χ CO₂), and sea surface height.

In this study, we use annual mean sea-air CO₂ flux estimates spanning the common 150 observation-based product period of 1985 to 2014. As in McKinley et al. [2020] and Fay 151 et al. [2021], we correct for the spatial coverage differences in each observation-based prod-152 uct by filling missing areas in each with a scaled climatology product which extends to coastal 153 and high latitude regions [Landschützer et al., 2020]. CO_2 flux is then estimated from each 154 product's area-filled pCO2 using common atmosphere, ice, and solubility, and wind speed 155 inputs from the SeaFlux product [Gregor and Fay, 2021; Fay et al., 2021] and a quadratic 156 flux parameterization [Ho et al., 2006; Wanninkhof, 2014]. This preprocessing ensures that 157 differences in decadal trends or interannual variance in our synthetic ensemble are due solely 158 to differences in the pCO_2 products rather than from statistical artifacts or flux calculation 159 parameters. 160

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2.3 Community Earth System Model Version 1 Large Ensemble

We evaluate our statistical methodology using output from CESM1-LE. CESM Ver-162 sion 1 is a fully coupled climate model that simulates Earth's climate system [Hurrell et al., 163 2013]. The model is comprised of four component models that synchronously simulate 164 Earth's land, atmosphere, ocean, and sea ice, with one central coupler component that ex-165 changes fluxes and boundary conditions between the individual components [Hurrell et al., 166 2013]. The ocean component model of CESM1 is the Parallel Ocean Program model with 167 nominal 1° resolution and 60 vertical levels [Danabasoglu et al., 2012] coupled to the Bio-168 geochemical Elemental Cycling model for ocean biogeochemistry, including full carbonate 169 chemistry thermodynamics and sea-air CO₂ fluxes [Moore et al., 2004; Moore and Doney, 170 2007; Moore and Braucher, 2008]. We analyze 34 ensemble members of CESM1-LE that 171 span 1920-2005 and are forced with historical greenhouse gas and aerosol concentrations 172 developed for the 5th Coupled Model Intercomparison Project [CMIP5; Taylor et al., 2012; 173 Kay et al., 2015]. Random phasing of internal climate modes is accomplished in CESM1-LE 174 via round-off-level differences in the 1 January 1920 air temperatures [Kay et al., 2015]. 175

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2.4 Earth system models from CMIP6

We take advantage of newly available output from three CMIP6 Earth system models with active ocean biogeochemistry that submitted multiple historical (1850-2014) ensemble members derived from initial conditions perturbations to the CMIP6 archive: the Canadian Earth System Model Version 5 [CanESM5; *Swart et al.*, 2019], the Institut Pierre-Simon

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Laplace Coupled Model 6 [IPSL-CM6; *Boucher et al.*, 2020], and the Community Earth

- 182 System Model Version 2 [CESM2; *Danabasoglu et al.*, 2020]. We analyze 25 ensemble
- members of CanESM5, 31 ensemble members of IPSL-CM6, and 11 ensemble members of
- 184 CESM2. These simulation output were derived from concentration-driven simulations [*i.e.*,
- their atmospheric CO_2 concentrations were prescribed and were thus unaltered by variability
- in sea-air CO₂ fluxes; *Eyring et al.*, 2016].
- ¹⁸⁷ **3** Synthetic ensemble construction
- Before analyzing the global observation-based sea-air CO₂ flux products, we first illustrate our synthetic ensemble approach for the reader using a single time-series of annual mean CO₂ flux derived from observations collected in Drake Passage (Figure 1). Our method is built upon the approach developed in *McKinnon et al.* [2017] and *McKinnon and*
- method is call upon the upprotent developed in methods of an [2017] and methods
- $_{192}$ Deser [2018]. We statistically model sea-air CO₂ flux as:

$$X^{i,t} = \beta_0^i + \beta_F^t + \beta_{\text{ENSO}}^i M_{\text{ENSO}}^t + \beta_{\text{PDV}_{\perp}}^i M_{\text{PDV}_{\perp}}^t + \varepsilon^{i,t}$$
(1)

where $X^{i,t}$ is the sea-air CO₂ flux at location *i* and time *t*. In this model, sea-air CO₂ flux 193 is described as a linear combination of the mean state β_0^i , the response to external forc-194 ing β_F^t (which we assume to be spatially uniform globally), the response to climate modes 195 $\beta^{i}_{\text{ENSO}}M^{t}_{\text{ENSO}}$ and $\beta^{i}_{\text{PDV}}M^{t}_{\text{PDV}}$, and the residual internal variability $\varepsilon^{i,t}$. The term β_{F}^{t} in 196 Equation 1 captures the response of CO₂ flux to external forcing, while $\beta^{i}_{ENSO}M^{t}_{ENSO}$ and 197 $\beta^{i}_{PDV_{\perp}}M^{t}_{PDV_{\perp}}$ capture the role of these climate modes in sea-air CO₂ flux. Both ENSO and 198 Pacific Decadal Variability (PDV) have been shown to influence sea-air CO₂ flux on global 199 scales [McKinley et al., 2004, 2006, 2017]. We address the covariance between ENSO and 200 PDV by creating a time-series of PDV (PDV₁) that is orthogonalized with respect to ENSO 201 [method described in McKinnon and Deser, 2018]. 202

Figure 1 (top row) illustrates our statistical model for Drake Passage CO₂ flux, as in 213 Equation 1. Figure 1a shows the annual mean flux in this region over 2004 to 2018 $(X^{i,t})$ as 214 a solid line, and anomalies in the flux once the the temporal mean flux (β_0^i) has been sub-215 tracted as a dashed line. In this illustrative example, we model the external forcing (β_F^t) 216 as a simple linear trend (note that we model external forcing differently for the four global 217 observation-based products, discussed later in this section). We model the influence of cli-218 mate modes on sea-air CO₂ flux variability by calculating the linear regression between glob-219 ally integrated CO₂ flux and the standardized indices for ENSO and orthogonalized PDV 220

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Figure 1. Synthetic ensemble construction. (a-c) Statistical model of annual mean Drake Passage sea-air 203 CO_2 flux, as in Equation 1: (a) (solid) Time-series of CO_2 flux (black, $X^{i,t}$) and (dashed) CO_2 flux with 204 temporal mean (β_i^0) removed, (b) regression of CO₂ flux anomalies (temporal mean and response to external 205 forcing (a simple linear trend in this example), β_F^t , removed) onto the ENSO (red) and PDV (blue) climate 206 indices $(\beta^{i}_{\text{ENSO}}, \beta^{i}_{\text{PDV}_{+}})$, and (c) residual variability, $\varepsilon^{i,t}$. (d-f) Construction of the synthetic ensemble: (d) 207 The block bootstrap process re-samples the residual variability, $\varepsilon^{i,t}$, (e) the IAFFT technique produces surro-208 gate ENSO and PDV_{\perp} indices (ENSO shown here), and (f) two synthetic ensemble members show alternative 209 phasing of internal variability and different long-term trends (dashed) than the original time-series (solid 210 black line same as in a). Positive fluxes correspond to decreased oceanic carbon uptake. Panel (d) adapted 211 from Elsworth et al. [2020]. 212

($\beta^{i}_{\text{ENSO}}, \beta^{i}_{\text{PDV}_{\perp}}$; Figure 1b). The CO₂ flux residuals ($\varepsilon^{i,t}$) are modeled as the component of X^{*i*,*t*} that is not captured by the external forcing or internal climate modes, and these residuals are quite large in the Drake Passage region (Figure 1c), suggesting only a small role for ENSO and PDV in CO₂ flux here.

Figure 1 (bottom row) illustrates how we construct a synthetic ensemble from our statistical model of Drake Passage CO₂ flux. We use block bootstrapping with a block length of 3 years to re-sample the residuals ($\varepsilon^{i,t}$) 1,000 times [Figure 1d; block length according to *Wilks*, 1997]. Block bootstrapping selects any contiguous 3-year block of sea-air CO₂ flux from the anomaly time-series and randomly samples these blocks with replacement to gen-

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erate a new time-series with the same length as the original. This technique and block length 230 preserves some of the temporal characteristics (e.g., year-to-year variations) of the residu-231 als (Figure 1d). Next, we use the Iterative Amplitude Adjustment Fourier Transfer (IAAFT) 232 technique [Schreiber and Schmitz, 1996, 2000] to produce 1,000 surrogate ENSO and PDV 233 indices with similar spectral characteristics as the original climate indices (Figure 1e). For 234 example, an IAFFT-generated surrogate ENSO index will exhibit a spectral peak in the 3- to 235 7-year time window, as the observed ENSO index does. We produce 1,000 unique synthetic 236 ensemble members of Drake Passage CO₂ flux (2 members shown in Figure 1f) by combin-237 ing the re-sampled residuals ($\varepsilon^{i,t}$), the CO₂ flux evolution due to the surrogate climate modes 238 $(\beta^{i}_{\text{ENSO}}M^{t}_{\text{ENSO}})$ and $\beta^{i}_{\text{PDV}_{\perp}}M^{t}_{\text{PDV}_{\perp}})$, the external forcing (β_{F}) , and the temporal mean flux 239 (β_0^i) . This technique produces 1,000 "alternative histories" of sea-air CO₂ flux in this re-240 gion. 241

Figure 1f shows the temporal evolution of Drake Passage CO2 flux from two synthetic 242 ensemble members and the original observations over 2004-2018. Each synthetic ensemble 243 member has statistical properties that are similar to the observational record and an identical 244 externally forced signal, but a unique sequence of internal variability. Here, we see the clear 245 influence of internal variability on the long-term trend: different phasing of internal variabil-246 ity in sea-air CO₂ flux between members is substantial enough to drive different estimates of 247 the long-term trend (Figure 1f). The effect of internal variability on long-term trends is espe-248 cially pronounced over the relatively short time period and at the regional scale of the Drake 249 Passage observations [Hawkins and Sutton, 2009]. While the observed CO₂ flux and syn-250 thetic ensemble members exhibit negative trends (more ocean carbon absorption with time), 251 ensemble member 174 exhibits a much larger negative trend than the others over the same 252 period. This outcome emphasizes the importance of internal variability for interpretation of 253 long-term trends in sea-air CO₂ fluxes in this region. 254

We use our statistical emulation technique to develop synthetic ensembles of globally 261 and regionally integrated sea-air CO₂ flux for each of the observation-based products (CSIR-262 ML6, JENA-MLS, CMEMS-FFNN, and MPI-SOMFFN; Figure 2) and for the average of 263 the 4 observation-based products. Our approach is identical to that described for the Drake 264 Passage time-series, with the exception of our model for the externally forced signal (β_F^t) . 265 Here, we model β_F^t as the mean of three ensemble mean CO₂ flux estimates from historical 266 simulations of CMIP6 Earth system models (Figure 2; see Section 2.4). As sea-air CO₂ flux 267 is sensitive to variations in atmospheric pCO2 and short-term volcanic forcing [McKinley 268

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Figure 2. Global CO₂ flux variations. Temporal evolution of globally integrated sea-air CO₂ flux anomalies (temporal mean, β_0^i , removed) from the (blue) CSIR-ML6, (purple) MPI-SOMFFN, (pink) JENA-MLS, and (orange) CMEMS-FFNN observation-based products. Black line shows the global CO₂ flux response to external forcing, β_F^t , estimated as the mean of three ensemble means from Earth system model (ESM) output contributed to the CMIP6 archive (CanESM5, IPSL-CM6, CESM2). Positive flux anomalies correspond to decreased oceanic carbon uptake.

et al., 2020], we use the ensemble mean time-series of CO_2 flux from Earth system models 269 that are driven by these external forcing variations to isolate the temporal evolution of the 270 forced signal [β_F^t ; McKinley et al., 2016]. This allows us to generate synthetic ensemble 271 members that differ due to internal variability, rather than anthropogenic and natural external 272 forcing. We further account for differences in model structure for estimation of the forced 273 signal by averaging across ensemble means from three different Earth system models. In 274 Section 5, we explore the sensitivity of our results to the statistical model of the externally 275 forced signal. 276

277 4 Results

The synthetic ensemble of globally integrated sea-air CO₂ flux from the four observationbased products reveal multiple possible trajectories for the temporal evolution of ocean carbon uptake (Figure 3). While the ensemble mean trend is negative over 1985-2014 (increased ocean carbon absorption with time, likely driven by external forcing), different phasing of

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internal variability produces a different CO₂ flux evolution across the synthetic ensemble 282 (Figure 3). In Figure 3, we highlight the CO₂ flux from the original products in yellow and 283 a single synthetic ensemble member in black (with the remaining 999 synthetic members as 284 thinner, multi-hued lines) for each product to illustrate how the observed temporal evolution 285 of CO2 flux may not be replicated by the synthetic ensemble member, and the observed long-286 term trend may be amplified or muted in the synthetic ensemble member. This showcases the 287 utility of the synthetic ensemble for quantifying the effects of internal variability on particu-288 lar features of the time-series and the long-term trend. 289



Figure 3. Synthetic ensembles of global sea-air CO_2 flux. Temporal evolution of globally integrated sea-air CO_2 flux from 1,000-member synthetic ensembles of the (a) CSIR-ML6, (b) MPI-SOMFFN, (c) JENA-MLS, and (d) CMEMS-FFNN observation-based products. Yellow lines show the CO_2 flux evolution from the given observation-based product, and black line shows the temporal evolution of a single ensemble member with the remaining 999 members shown in thin multi-hued lines. Negative fluxes correspond to ocean carbon uptake.

The synthetic ensembles of globally integrated CO_2 flux from the four observationbased CO_2 flux products display statistical properties that are different for each product (Figure 3). While all four ensembles show a long-term negative ensemble mean trend (increased ocean carbon absorption with time), the average ensemble spread ranges from 0.13 Pg C yr⁻¹

- $(1\sigma, \text{CMEMS-FFNN})$ to 0.27 Pg C yr⁻¹ (1 σ , JENA-MLS). This synthetic ensemble spread
- derives from the variance in the original observation-based product (Figure 2), and so it is
- ³⁰² not surprising that the product with the highest variance (JENA-MLS) exhibits the largest
- synthetic ensemble spread (Figure 3c), while the product with the lowest variance (CMEMS-
- ³⁰⁴ FFNN) exhibits the lowest synthetic ensemble spread (Figure 3d).



Figure 4. Probability of decadal trends in global CO₂ flux. Probability density functions (kernel density 305 estimation, purple curves) of decadal trends in globally integrated sea-air CO₂ flux for (first row) 1990-1999 306 and (second row) 2000-2009, as estimated from synthetic ensembles of the (first column) CSIR-ML6, (second 307 column) MPI-SOMFFN, (third column) JENA-MLS, and (fourth column) CMEMS-FFNN observation-based 308 products. Purple vertical lines show the ensemble mean trend, and the 1σ (67%) and 2σ (95%) confidence 309 intervals are shaded in purple and pink respectively. Black lines show the observed decadal trend from each 310 product with its 95% confidence interval shaded in gray. Negative trends correspond to increased ocean 311 carbon uptake with time. Note that the x- and y-axes differ between panels. 312

If internal variability had been phased differently in the past, would we have observed the same decadal trends in sea-air CO_2 flux? We answer this question by analyzing the statistical properties of linear CO_2 flux trends over 1990-1999 and 2000-2009 from the four synthetic ensembles and displaying the results as probability density functions (PDFs; Figure 4). These decades were selected for analysis as they are associated with stagnation and growth of the ocean carbon sink, respectively, in several previous studies [see, e.g., *Ritter*

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et al., 2017]. The PDFs in Figure 4 show the distributions of trends over the two decades in 319 globally integrated CO_2 flux from 1,000 synthetic ensemble members of each observation-320 based product (purple line; kernel density estimation), with the 1σ (67%) confidence inter-321 vals shaded in purple and the 2σ (95%) confidence intervals shaded in pink (note the dif-322 ferent x-axes for each product). The width of these trend distributions vary across products, 323 with MPI-SOMFFN exhibiting the widest distribution and CMEMS-FFNN exhibiting the 324 narrowest (Table 2); for MPI-SOMFFN, internal variability alone can produce a wide range 325 of trends for globally integrated flux (nearly 0.2 Pg C yr⁻² in a single decade, Table 2). For 326 CMEMS-FFNN, the range of trends is nearly half of MPI-SOMFFN ($\sim 0.1 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-2}$ in a 327 single decade, Table 2). The answer to the question posed at the beginning of this paragraph 328 requires not only information about the width of the trend distributions, but also information 329 about the center of the trend distributions. Our approach assumes that the center of the trend 330 distribution (vertical purple lines in Figure 4) is the mean of three Earth system model en-331 semble means and is thus identical for all of the observation-based synthetic ensembles in 332 each time period (we examine this assumption in further detail in Section 5). Armed with 333 this information, we can now quantify the probability of the observed decadal trends (ver-334 tical black lines and associated gray shading in Figure 4) in the context of the synthetic en-335 semble trend distribution for each observation-based product (Table 2; trend probabilities 336 estimated as the lower/upper cumulative distribution for a normal distribution). Using the 337 observation-based trend mean value and 1σ or 2σ values, the observed trend in globally in-338 tegrated CO₂ flux over 1990-1999 is a small negative number (more ocean carbon uptake 339 with time) that is likely to occur (>40% chance of occurrence) in three of the four products 340 (CSIR-ML6, JENA-MLS, and CMEMS-FFNN) within the distribution of synthetic trends 341 (Figure 4, Table 2). Whereas, the observed trend in MPI-SOMFFN over 1990-1999 is a pos-342 itive number (less ocean carbon uptake with time) that has a low probability of occurrence 343 (25%) within the distribution of synthetic trends (Table 2). Over 2000-2009, three of four 344 observation-based products (CSIR-ML6, MPI-SOMFFN, and CMEMS-FFNN) exhibit large 345 negative trends that are in the tails of the synthetic trend distributions (<25% chance of oc-346 currence (Figure 4, Table 2), calling into question the Earth system model representation of 347 external forcing in this period. Thus, the answer to the question we posed at the beginning 348 of this paragraph is product and period dependent. Over 1990-1999, three of the four prod-349 uct ensembles indicate high probability of the observed trends, but over 2000-2009, three of 350 the four products indicate that the observed trends are somewhat improbable with different 351

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Figure 5. Probability of decadal trends in Southern Ocean CO₂ flux. As in Figure 4, but for the CO₂ flux integrated over the Southern hemisphere super-biome, made up of Southern Ocean Ice, Subpolar and Subtropical Seasonally Stratified biomes [biomes defined in *Fay and McKinley*, 2014]

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352	phasing of internal variability, with only one (JENA-MLS) slightly probable (Figure 4, Ta-
353	ble 2). For MPI-SOMFFN, however, the observed trends fall on the tails of the PDFs for both
354	decades (25% chance of occurrence in 1990-1999 and 17% chance of occurrence in 2000-
355	2009; Table 2), suggesting that different phasing of internal variability would likely have pro-
356	duced different observed trends in this product. A synthetic ensemble generated from the
357	average of all four observation-based products produces a narrow synthetic trend distribu-
358	tion (0.11 Pg C yr ^{-2}) and low probabilities for observed trends in both decades (Figure S1;
359	Table 2), much like the MPI-SOMFFN product.

We estimate the probability of observed trends in regional sea-air CO₂ flux over 1990-1999 and 2000-2009 by creating synthetic ensembles of CO₂ flux integrated over "superbiomes", i.e., biomes that capture large-scale oceanographic regions [*Canadell et al.*, 2021], and performing similar statistical analyses as for the globally integrated fluxes (Figures 5 and S2-S5). We focus our discussion here on the Southern Ocean region, as previous work suggests large, opposite-signed decadal CO₂ flux trends in this region across the two decades of interest [*Le Quéré et al.*, 2007; *Lovenduski et al.*, 2008; *Landschützer et al.*, 2015; *Ritter*

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et al., 2017]. The observation-based synthetic ensembles of sea-air CO₂ flux integrated over 370 the Southern Ocean Ice, Subpolar and Subtropical Seasonally Stratified biomes [SO ICE, 371 SO-SPSS, SO-STSS; biomes defined in Fay and McKinley, 2014] produce narrow PDFs of 372 the decadal trends over 1990-1999 and 2000-2009 (Figure 5). The externally forced trend 373 (mean of Earth system model ensemble means) in the Southern Ocean is negative for both 374 decades (more Southern Ocean carbon absorption with time, purple vertical lines in Fig-375 ure 5). The 95% confidence interval of the synthetic trends ranges from -0.05 to 0.05 Pg C 376 yr^{-2} in each decade across the products (Figure 5), suggesting that both negative and posi-377 tive trends are possible with different phasing of internal variability in both decades. How-378 ever, the observed Southern Ocean flux trends range from negative to positive and do not 379 always fall within 1σ of the PDFs (black vertical lines in Figure 5). For example, observed 380 trends in the CSIR-ML6 and MPI-SOMFFN products over both decades fall outside the 1σ 381 confidence interval of the PDFs, indicating low chance of occurrence given different phas-382 ing of internal variability (Figures 5a,b and 5e,f). Thus, results from this analysis suggest 383 that the magnitudes of observed decadal trends in the Southern Ocean carbon sink discussed 384 in the literature [e.g., Landschützer et al., 2015] are not consistent across the observation-385 based products (as also noted by Ritter et al. [2017] and DeVries et al. [2019]), and for CSIR-386 ML6 and MPI-SOMFFN, are somewhat improbable given the distribution of synthetic trends 387 and an assumed externally forced signal. This cross-product inconsistency is expected from 388 the sparse pCO₂^{oc} measurements in the Southern Ocean [Bakker et al., 2016; Gloege et al., 389 2021], and the improbable nature of the observed trends advocates for a more refined ap-390 proach, like the one presented in this study, to report on the likelihood of trends experienced 391 in this region. 392

The distribution of synthetic trends and the probabilities of observed trends in other 396 super-biomes over 1990-1999 and 2000-2009 are shown in Supporting Information Figures 397 S2-S5 and briefly described here. In the Northern hemisphere high latitude super-biome, the 398 distribution of synthetic trends is very broad (-0.4 to 0.4 Pg C yr⁻²; minimum and maximum 399 values of PDFs) and, similar to the global fluxes, the observed trends over 2000-2009 are 400 somewhat improbable within this distribution (Figure S2). The subtropical super-biomes 401 in the Northern and Southern Hemispheres exhibit narrow distributions of synthetic trends, 402 due to lower interannual variability in CO_2 flux in these regions (-0.2 to 0.1 in the Northern 403 hemisphere, -0.15 and 0.1 in the Southern hemisphere, Figures S3 and S4). The Equatorial 404 super-biome synthetic ensemble produces a wide distribution of decadal trends over both 405

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Figure 6. Synthetic ensemble of global CO₂ flux using CESM1-LE. Temporal evolution of the globally integrated sea-air CO₂ flux from the (pastel colors) CESM1-LE and (gray) synthetic ensemble of CESM1-LE member 18 (shown in black). Negative fluxes correspond to ocean carbon uptake.

periods (-0.5 to 0.4 Pg C yr⁻²) and highly probable observed trends (Figure S5). Thus, the analysis of our super-biome synthetic ensembles suggests that our findings are also regionally dependent.

5 Testing our approach and assumptions

We now consult the CESM1-LE as a testbed, where we apply our synthetic ensemble 410 method to a single ensemble member to see if we reproduce the spread across the full en-411 semble. Using the globally integrated CO₂ flux from a single ensemble member of CESM1-412 LE, our statistical emulation technique generates a synthetic ensemble of CO₂ flux that is 413 similar to the true CESM1-LE (Figure 6). We model the statistical properties of a particular 414 CESM1-LE ensemble member (in this case, member 18, black line in Figure 6) using Equa-415 tion 1 with the external signal (β_F^t) modeled as the mean of three ensemble mean CO₂ flux 416 estimates from historical simulations of CMIP6 Earth system models (see Section 2.4), and 417 the climate modes (M^t_{ENSO} and $M^t_{PDV_{\perp}}$) produced from CESM1 for this ensemble member. 418 We then generate a 1,000-member synthetic ensemble of ensemble member 18 as before. 419 Figure 6 illustrates the resulting synthetic ensemble in pastel colors overlain on the original 420 CESM1-LE ensemble in gray. While not exactly identical, the envelope of variability in our 421

synthetic ensemble is a close match to that of the full CESM1-LE (Figure 6), as the average 422 standard deviation (trend removed) of the synthetic ensemble is only 2% different from that 423 of full CESM1-LE over 1920-2005 (Table 3). We generate a synthetic ensemble of globally 424 integrated sea-air CO₂ flux for each of the 34 CESM1-LE ensemble members and display the 425 quotient of the two standard deviations (synthetic ensemble divided by CESM1-LE) averaged 426 over 1920-2005 in Table 3. This analysis reveals that the synthetic ensemble can overesti-427 mate the standard deviation by as much as 29% (ensemble member 8) and can underestimate 428 the standard deviation by as much as 15% (ensemble member 21), depending upon the sta-429 tistical properties of the original time-series used to generate the synthetic ensemble. On 430 average across the 34 ensemble members, however, the underestimation bias in the standard 431 deviation is relatively small (2%; Table 3). Thus, results from this analysis suggest that our 432 statistical emulation technique for synthetic ensemble generation is relatively unbiased. 433

The length of the time-series used to generate the synthetic ensemble can have an in-434 fluence on its statistical properties (Table 3). In this study, we generate a synthetic ensemble 435 from observational products that are only 30 years long (1985-2014) and thus may not cap-436 ture the full temporal spectrum of internal variability that occurs in the real world [McKin-437 non et al., 2017; McKinnon and Deser, 2018]. We assess whether this shorter time series can 438 produce biased estimates of variance by generating synthetic ensembles of each CESM1-LE 439 member over 1976-2005 (a 30-year period) and comparing their standard deviations to that 440 of the full CESM1-LE over the same time period (Table 3). The synthetic ensembles gener-441 ated from the shorter record produce larger biases in the standard deviations of the synthetic 442 ensembles than the synthetic ensembles generated from the longer record, with overestimates 443 as large as 54% and underestimates as small as 31% (Table 3). This finding lends support 444 to continued and new observations of pCO_2^{oc} from which long records of sea-air CO₂ flux 445 variability can be derived. 446

The probabilities of observed trends reported in the previous section are undoubtedly 457 sensitive to the externally derived signal. Because the externally derived signal sets the cen-458 ter value of the synthetic trend distribution, a different assumption about this signal can shift 459 the distribution to the left/right and affect the probability of the observed trend. Recall that 460 our estimate of the externally forced signal is derived from the mean of three Earth system 461 model ensemble means. McKinley et al. [2020] used an idealized upper-ocean box model to 462 produce an estimate of externally forced variations in sea-air CO₂ flux driven by variations in 463 atmospheric pCO_2 and volcanic eruptions alone. Figure 7 illustrates that the probability of 464

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⁴⁴⁷ Figure 7. Probability of decadal trends in global CO₂ flux with alternative model of external forc-

ing. Probability density functions (kernel density estimation, purple and pink curves) of decadal trends in 448 globally integrated sea-air CO2 flux for (first row) 1990-1999 and (second row) 2000-2009, as estimated from 449 synthetic ensembles of the (first column) CSIR-ML6, (second column) MPI-SOMFFN, (third column) JENA-450 MLS, and (fourth column) CMEMS-FFNN observation-based products. Purple curves show probability 451 density when the external signal is derived from the mean of three ensemble means from Earth system model 452 (ESM) output submitted to the CMIP6 archive. Pink curves show probability density when the external signal 453 is derived from the McKinley et al. [2020] upper ocean box model. Pink and purple vertical lines indicate the 454 ensemble mean trend, and black vertical lines show the observed decadal trend from each product with 95% 455 confidence intervals in gray shading. Note that the x- and y-axes differ between panels. 456

⁴⁶⁵ observed trends are similar regardless of whether we model the external forcing (β_F^t) using ⁴⁶⁶ the *McKinley et al.* [2020] box model or the mean of the three Earth system model ensemble ⁴⁶⁷ means.

6 Conclusions and discussion

We develop synthetic large ensembles of global and regional sea-air CO₂ flux from 469 four observation-based products using a statistical emulation technique. Much like a large 470 initial condition ensemble of an Earth system model, the resulting synthetic ensemble mem-471 bers exhibit different phasing of internal variability and a common externally forced sig-472 nal. We use these synthetic large ensembles to quantify the probability of decadal trends 473 in CO2 flux for each observation-based product. We further comment on the likelihood of 474 the observed decadal trends given the synthetic trend probability distribution. We find that 475 the phasing of internal variability creates unique features in the time-series of CO₂ flux and 476 plays an important role in setting the multi-decadal trends in sea-air CO2 flux for each syn-477 thetic ensemble member. The statistical properties of the synthetic large ensembles differ 478 across the four observation-based products with JENA-MLS exhibiting the highest variance 479 and CMEMS-FFNN exhibiting the lowest variance. Over the decade 1990-1999, three of 480 the four products show negative observed trends in globally integrated sea-air CO₂ flux that 481 are highly probable given different phasing of internal variability. However, over the decade 482 2000-2009, three of the four products show somewhat improbable larger negative trends in 483 sea-air CO₂ flux, calling into question the Earth system model estimate of external forcing 484 in this period. The JENA-MLS product trends over these decades are highly probable, while 485 the MPI-SOMFFN product trends over these decades are unlikely given different phasing 486 of internal variability. The signs of the observed decadal trends in Southern Ocean sea-air 487 CO2 flux are inconsistent across the four observation-based products and, in the case of MPI-488 SOMFFN and CSIR-ML6, their magnitude is somewhat improbable given different phasing 489 of internal variability. While the short length of the time-series used to construct the syn-490 thetic ensembles can bias the resulting statistical properties of the synthetic ensemble, the 491 results of our study are similar whether we use an Earth system model or a box model to es-492 timate the external signal, and are capable of producing robust estimates of the statistical 493 properties when we construct the synthetic ensembles using longer time-series. 494



Our approach provides a new perspective on the important role of internal variability in short-term global and regional sea-air CO_2 flux trends estimated from the observational

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record. While we are not the first to demonstrate this point [see, e.g., McKinley et al., 2011; 497 Fay and McKinley, 2013; McKinley et al., 2016], our synthetic ensembles provide stirring 498 visualizations of this variability. Further, the statistical properties of the synthetic ensembles 499 provide a basis for examining the likelihood of observed global and regional trends in sea-air 500 CO₂ flux given different phasing of internal variability. Finally, our work adds to the recent 501 discussion about the role of internal versus external processes in interannual to decadal vari-502 ations in sea-air CO₂ flux [Landschützer et al., 2019; DeVries et al., 2017; McKinley et al., 503 2020]. Regardless of how we model the externally forced signal, internal variability seems to 504 play a key role in driving the observed decadal trends across our synthetic ensembles. 505

Sustained and new observations of pCO_2 across the global ocean and the continued development and refinement of observation-based gap-filled products will further expand our understanding of sea-air CO₂ flux variations. This understanding is critical for near-term predictions of the global carbon cycle [e.g., *Ilyina et al.*, 2021] and for our community's ability to inform international emission reduction efforts [*Peters et al.*, 2017].

511 Acknowledgments

⁵¹² Our synthetic ensembles are available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5227342.

The Surface Ocean CO2 Atlas (SOCAT) is an international effort, supported by the International Ocean Carbon Coordination Project (IOCCP), the Surface Ocean Lower Atmosphere Study (SOLAS), and the Integrated Marine Biogeochemistry and Ecosystem Research program (IMBER), to deliver a uniformly quality-controlled surface ocean CO₂ database. The many researchers and funding agencies responsible for the collection of data and quality control are thanked for their contributions to SOCAT.

The authors are grateful for the efforts of the marine and science support teams of the ARSV Laurence M. Gould, particularly Bruce Felix, Andy Nunn, and Kevin Pedigo. Underway DPT pCO_2 measurements are submitted to SOCAT and archived at NOAA's National Centers for Environmental Information (https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/ocean-carbondata-system/oceans/VOS_Program/LM_gould.html).

- ENSO and PDV indices were provided by the NOAA Climate Prediction Center
- (https://origin.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/). CESM ensemble output is available from the Earth Sys-
- tem Grid (https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/ dataset/ucar.cgd.ccsm4.CESM_CAM5_BGC_LE.html).

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- 527 CESM computing resources were provided by CISL at NCAR. CESM1-LE climate indices
- were calculated using the Climate Variability Diagnostics package (https://www.cesm.ucar.edu/working_groups/
- ⁵²⁹ CVC/cvdp/). CMIP6 output was provided by the Earth System Grid Federation (https://esgf-
- ⁵³⁰ node.ipsl.upmc.fr/projects/cmip6-ipsl/). Trend probabilities were calculated via the Keisan
- 531 Online Calculator service provided by Casio Computer Co., Ltd. (https://keisan.casio.com/exec/system/1180573188).
- We are grateful for funding from the National Science Foundation (OCE-1558225, OCE-
- ⁵³³ 1752724, OCE-1948664, PLR-1543457, and the Graduate Research Fellowship Program).
- ⁵³⁴ This work benefited from computational assistance from G. Elsworth, E. Maroon, and H.
- 535 Zanowski.

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Observation- based product	Abbreviation	Methodology	Reference
Council for Scientific and In- dustrial Research- Machine Learn- ing ensemble	CSIR-ML6	Ensemble of two-step neural net- work methods: two types of clus- ters and three types of regressions are used to interpolate pCO_2^{oc} from SOCAT v2020 using chlorophyll-a, sea surface temperature, absolute dynamic topography, mixed layer depth, sea ice, and sea surface salinity. The final product uses an ensemble average of six machine- learning models.	Gregor et al. [2019]
Max Planck Institute Self- Organizing Map- Feed-Forward Neural Network	MPI-SOMFFN	uses a two-step neural network method to gap-fill pCO_2^{oc} . In the first step, a self-organizing map is used to subdivide the ocean into 16 provinces with similar climatological biogeochemical properties. In the second step, a feed-forward neural network is used to predict the non-linear rela- tionships between driver variables and SOCAT v2020 observations in each province. Driver variables for MPI-SOMFFN include sea surface temperature, mixed layer depth, satellite derived chlorophyll-a con- centration, sea surface salinity, and atmospheric pCO_2 .	Landschützer et al. [2013, 2014, 2015, 2016]
Jena, Germany, Max Planck Institute for Bio- geochemistry - Mixed Layer Scheme	JENA-MLS	Combines ocean mixed layer bio- geochemistry with pCO_2^{oc} data from SOCAT v2020 and seasonal, interant and short-term (daily) variations of sea surface temper- ature, mixed layer depth, ice-free fraction, salinity, wind speed, and	Rödenbeck et al. [2014]

Observation-based	Width of trend	Width of trend	Probability of	Probability of
product	distribution	distribution	observed trend	observed trend
	1990-1999	2000-2009	1990-1999	2000-2009
CSIR-ML6	0.13	0.13	64%	19%
MPI-SOMFFN	0.19	0.19	25%	17%
JENA-MLS	0.14	0.14	44%	21%
CMEMS-FFNN	0.08	0.09	72%	20%
Average of all observation-				
based products	0.11	0.11	22%	15%

Table 2. Width of trend distributions and trend probabilities for synthetic ensembles of globally integrated

⁸¹⁹ CO₂ flux produced from the CSIR-ML6, MPI-SOMFFN, JENA-MLS, and CMEMS-FFNN observation-

based products. Widths estimated as 4σ (Pg C yr⁻²). Probabilities estimated as the lower/upper cumulative

distribution for a normal distribution.

	$rac{\sigma_{ ext{SE}}}{\sigma_{ ext{CESM1-LE}}}$	$rac{\sigma_{ ext{SE}}}{\sigma_{ ext{CESM1-LE}}}$
Ensemble member	1920-2005	1976-2005
1	1.16	1.08
2	0.90	1.10
3	1.09	0.83
4	0.91	0.90
5	1.15	0.92
6	0.86	0.88
7	1.00	0.69
8	1.29	1.07
9	0.96	1.18
10	0.99	1.21
11	0.98	1.10
12	0.93	1.22
13	0.93	0.78
14	1.01	1.05
15	1.01	1.14
16	0.88	0.84
17	0.91	0.93
18	1.00	1.10
19	1.10	0.78
20	0.95	0.94
21	0.85	0.93
22	1.11	1.26
23	0.97	0.94
24	0.90	1.17
25	1.01	1.02
26	1.05	0.94
27	0.87	0.72
28	1.10	1.54
29	1.06	1.24
30	1.12	1.00
31	1.10	1.03
32	1.10	1.03
33	-32^{1}	0.99
34	0.99	0.93
mean	1.02	1.01

Table 3. Standard deviation quotient (synthetic ensemble standard deviation divided by Earth system model