

# Update on the Temperature Corrections of Global Air-Sea CO<sub>2</sub> Flux Estimates

Yuanxu Dong<sup>1</sup>, Dorothee C. E. Bakker<sup>1</sup>, Thomas G Bell<sup>2</sup>, Boyin Huang<sup>3</sup>, Peter Landschützer<sup>4</sup>, Peter S. Liss<sup>1</sup>, and Mingxi Yang<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of East Anglia

<sup>2</sup>Plymouth Marine Laboratory

<sup>3</sup>NOAA/NCEI

<sup>4</sup>Max Planck Institute for Meteorology

November 23, 2022

## Abstract

The oceans are a major carbon sink. Sea surface temperature (SST) is a crucial variable in the calculation of the air-sea carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) flux from surface observations. Any bias in the SST or any upper ocean vertical temperature gradient (e.g., the cool skin effect) potentially generates a bias in the CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates. A recent study suggested a substantial increase (~50% or ~0.9 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the global ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake due to this temperature effect. Here, we use a gold standard buoy SST dataset as the reference to assess the accuracy of in-situ SST used for flux calculation. A physical model is then used to estimate the cool skin effect, which varies with latitude. The bias-corrected SST (assessed by buoy SST) coupled with the physics-based cool skin correction increases the average ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by ~35% (0.6 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) for 1982 to 2020, which is significantly smaller than the previous correction. After these temperature considerations, we estimate an average net ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of 2.2 ± 0.4 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> for 1994 to 2007 based on an ensemble of surface observation-based flux estimates, in line with the independent interior ocean carbon storage estimate corrected for the river induced natural outgassing flux (2.1 ± 0.4 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>).

# Update on the Temperature Corrections of Global Air-Sea CO<sub>2</sub> Flux Estimates

Yuanxu Dong<sup>1,2</sup>, Dorothee C. E. Bakker<sup>1\*</sup>, Thomas G. Bell<sup>2</sup>, Boyin Huang<sup>3</sup>, Peter Landschützer<sup>4</sup>, Peter S. Liss<sup>1</sup>, Mingxi Yang<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Centre for Ocean and Atmospheric Sciences, School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK

<sup>2</sup>Plymouth Marine Laboratory, Prospect Place, Plymouth, UK

<sup>3</sup>National Centers for Environmental Information, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Asheville, NC, USA

<sup>4</sup>Max Planck Institute for Meteorology, Hamburg, Germany

Correspondence to: Yuanxu Dong ([Yuanxu.Dong@uea.ac.uk](mailto:Yuanxu.Dong@uea.ac.uk))

\*Co-corresponding author: Dorothee C. E. Bakker ([D.Bakker@uea.ac.uk](mailto:D.Bakker@uea.ac.uk))

## Key points:

- The impact of the warm bias in an *in-situ* SST dataset and the cool skin effect on air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates are re-visited
- The updated temperature corrections imply a smaller increase in net ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake (~35%) compared to a previous study (~50%)
- The revised observation-based CO<sub>2</sub> flux agrees well with the independent ocean carbon inventory

## Abstract

The oceans are a major carbon sink. Sea surface temperature (SST) is a crucial variable in the calculation of the air-sea carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) flux from surface observations. Any bias in the SST or any upper ocean vertical temperature gradient (e.g., the cool skin effect) potentially generates a bias in the CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates. A recent study suggested a substantial increase (~50% or ~0.9 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the global ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake due to this temperature effect. Here, we use a gold standard buoy SST dataset as the reference to assess the accuracy of *in-situ* SST used for flux calculation. A physical model is then used to estimate the cool skin effect, which varies with latitude. The bias-corrected SST (assessed by buoy SST) coupled with the physics-based cool skin correction increases the average ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by ~35% (0.6 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) for 1982 to 2020, which is significantly smaller than the previous correction. After these temperature considerations, we estimate an average net ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of  $2.2 \pm 0.4$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> for 1994 to 2007 based on an ensemble of surface observation-based flux estimates, in line with the independent interior ocean carbon storage estimate corrected for the river induced natural outgassing flux ( $2.1 \pm 0.4$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>).

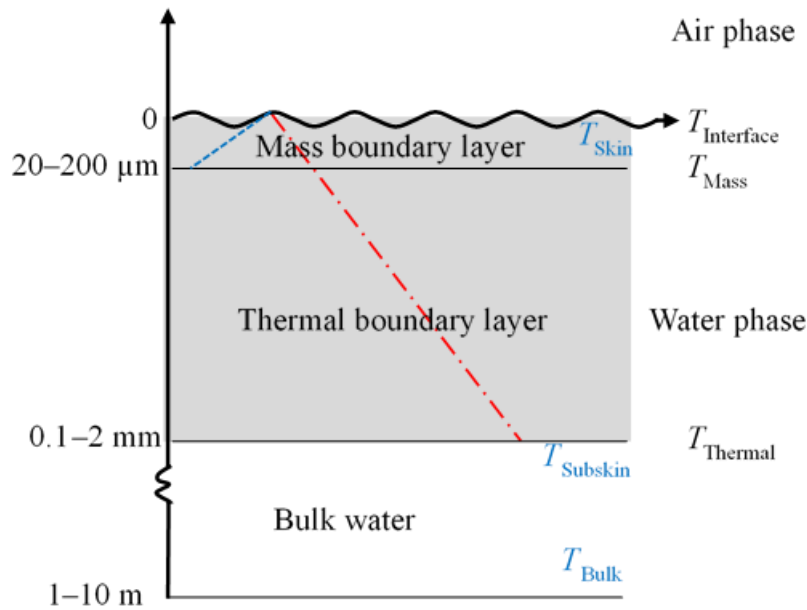
## Plain Language Summary

The global oceans play a major role in taking up carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) released by human activity from the atmosphere. Accurate sea surface temperature (SST) measurements and quantification of any upper ocean temperature gradients (e.g., cool skin effect) are critical for ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake estimates. We determine a slight warm bias in the SST dataset used for CO<sub>2</sub> flux calculation by utilizing a gold standard reference buoy SST dataset. We then derive a physics-based temperature correction for the ubiquitous cool skin effect on the ocean surface. The temperature revised CO<sub>2</sub> flux bridges the gap between estimates from the surface observation-based air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes and from the independent ocean carbon inventory.

## 1 Introduction

Since the Industrial Revolution, humans have emitted large amounts of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) to the atmosphere, which is the main reason for observed global warming. The oceans are a major CO<sub>2</sub> sink accounting for ~25% (~2.5 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> for the last decade) of the annual

anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Friedlingstein et al., 2020) and ~40% of all anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> since industrialization (Gruber et al., 2019; Sabine et al., 2004).



**Figure 1.** A schematic of the upper ocean (0–10 m depth) using an example where temperature is influenced by a positive (ocean heat loss) sensible heat flux and CO<sub>2</sub> is being taken up by the ocean. The grey shaded area represents the thermal boundary layer (TBL), and the red line represents the temperature gradient in the TBL. The mass (in this case, CO<sub>2</sub>) boundary layer (MBL) is embedded within the TBL. The blue line corresponds to the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration gradient within the MBL. The TBL is characteristically ten times thicker than the MBL because heat is transferred about an order of magnitude quicker than CO<sub>2</sub> (Jähne, 2009).  $T_{\text{Interface}}$ : the temperature at the air-sea interface;  $T_{\text{Skin}}$ : the skin temperature at ~10 μm depth measured by an infrared radiometer;  $T_{\text{Mass}}$ : the temperature at the base of the MBL (20–200 μm depth);  $T_{\text{Thermal}}$ : the temperature at the base of the TBL (0.1–2 mm depth);  $T_{\text{Subskin}}$ : the temperature of seawater below the TBL at a depth of ~0.1–1 m such as measured by drifting buoys;  $T_{\text{Bulk}}$ : the temperature at 1–10 m depth as measured at the typical depth of a ship’s seawater intake.  $T_{\text{Interface}}$ ,  $T_{\text{Mass}}$ , and  $T_{\text{Thermal}}$  are conceptual, whereas  $T_{\text{Skin}}$ ,  $T_{\text{Subskin}}$ , and  $T_{\text{Bulk}}$  are from actual measurements (practical). Sea surface temperature (SST) is a general term for all temperatures mentioned above. Figure developed from Donlon et al. (2007).

The global air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux is often estimated by the bulk method combining *in-situ*  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  (fugacity of CO<sub>2</sub> in seawater) measurements (e.g., from the Surface Ocean CO<sub>2</sub> Atlas, SOCAT; Bakker et al., 2016) with a wind speed-dependent gas transfer velocity (e.g., Wanninkhof, 2014; see Methods). Thanks to the SOCAT (<http://www.socat.info/>) community, a key dataset of

$f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  has been available since 2011 (Pfeil et al., 2013; Sabine et al., 2013). The latest SOCAT version, SOCAT v2021, contains 30.6 million quality-controlled  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  observations from 1957 to 2020 with an accuracy better than 5  $\mu\text{atm}$  (Bakker et al., 2016, 2021).

Sea surface temperature (SST) is key for bulk air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux estimates. Takahashi et al. (2009) reported a 13% increase in ocean  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake by correcting for a 0.08 K warm bias in SST.  $\text{CO}_2$  is a water-side controlled gas (Liss & Slater, 1974), and thus air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  exchange is mainly limited by transfer within the  $\sim 20\text{--}200\ \mu\text{m}$  mass boundary layer (MBL, Figure 1; Jähne, 2009). The MBL temperature should be used for the  $\text{CO}_2$  flux calculation, but it is impractical to measure *in-situ* SST within the very thin MBL. The bulk *in-situ* seawater temperature ( $T_{\text{Bulk}}$ ) measured concurrently with  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  (typically at  $\sim 5\ \text{m}$  depth) in SOCAT is often used for the bulk air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux calculation by assuming a well-mixed upper ocean (top  $\sim 10\ \text{m}$ ) without any vertical temperature gradients.

However, there are two issues with using the SOCAT SST. Firstly, many processes can generate vertical temperature gradients in the upper ocean. There is a temperature gradient (red line in Figure 1) in the thermal boundary layer (TBL, grey shaded area) relating to air-sea heat exchange. Infrared radiometer measurements indicate that the skin temperature at  $\sim 10\ \mu\text{m}$  depth ( $T_{\text{Skin}}$ ) is on average  $\sim 0.17\ \text{K}$  (Donlon et al., 2002) lower than the subskin temperature ( $T_{\text{Subskin}}$ , at  $\sim 0.1\text{--}1\ \text{m}$  depth) because the ocean surface generally loses heat through longwave radiation, and latent and sensible heat fluxes (the so-called cool skin effect; e.g., Donlon et al., 2007, 2002; Minnett et al., 2011; Robertson & Watson, 1992; Zhang et al., 2020). Another process that might create an upper ocean temperature gradient is the diurnal warm layer effect. Water close to the surface (e.g., at  $0.5\ \text{m}$  depth) is sometimes warmer than deeper water (e.g., at  $5\ \text{m}$  depth) due to daytime solar insolation, especially under conditions of clear sky and low wind speed (Gentemann & Minnett, 2008; Prytherch et al., 2013; Ward et al., 2004). The warming leads to stabilization of the surface layer and thus helps maintain a layered upper ocean structure. The diurnal warm layer effect is not as ubiquitous as the cool skin effect, and the warm layer is complex to characterize. In the absence of the warm layer effect, the bulk seawater temperature ( $T_{\text{Bulk}}$ ) is approximately equal to  $T_{\text{Subskin}}$ , and  $T_{\text{Thermal}}$  (temperature at the base of the TBL) because the water below the TBL is well-mixed by turbulence.

The second issue is the potential warm bias in the SOCAT SST. The SST community has identified a warm bias in shipboard SST measurements in the ICOADS (International Comprehensive Ocean-Atmosphere Data Set; Huang et al., 2021; Kennedy et al., 2011, 2019;

Reynolds & Chelton, 2010). This might be because ship SST measurements are affected by engine room warming (Kennedy et al., 2019). The SSTs in SOCAT were almost exclusively measured by shipboard systems (98%), meaning that a warm bias could also exist in the SOCAT SST dataset.

Satellite observation of SST represents a consistent estimate of subskin temperature and avoids the diurnal warm layer effect and any potential warm bias issue. Satellite SST thus has been proposed as an alternative to calculate the bulk air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux (Goddijn-Murphy et al., 2015; Shutler et al., 2019; Watson et al., 2020; Woolf et al., 2016). Results, based on a satellite SST dataset suggest a ~25% increase (i.e., warm bias correction; cool skin correction results in another ~25% increase) in ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake compared to the flux estimate based on the SOCAT SST (Watson et al., 2020). However, satellite SST is not measured concurrently with the  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$ . Co-locating the  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , monthly gridded satellite SSTs with individual  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  in SOCAT might introduce extra uncertainties. In addition, various issues in satellite SSTs (e.g., cloud masking, impact of aerosol, diurnal variability, uncertainty estimation, and validation) have not been fully resolved, especially at high latitudes and in coastal and highly dynamic regions (O’Carroll et al., 2019). A comparison of eight global gap-free satellite/blended SST products showed that their global mean ranged from 20.02 °C to 20.17 °C for the period 2003–2018 (at a 95% confidence level; Yang et al., 2021).

SST observations from drifting buoys are unaffected by engine room warming, and are expected to provide the best-quality reference temperature to assess bias in the ship SST, and satellite SST retrievals (Huang et al., 2021; Kennedy et al., 2011, 2019; Kent et al., 2017; Merchant et al., 2019; Reynolds & Chelton, 2010). This work utilizes drifting buoy SST as the reference temperature to determine the accuracy of the SOCAT SST, and to correct for any bias in the SOCAT SST dataset.

Subskin temperature with a cool skin correction represents the skin temperature, which can be used to calculate air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux. Watson et al. (2020) reported a ~25% increase in ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by considering a constant cool skin effect (-0.17 K, Donlon et al., 2002) for 1982 to 2020. In this study, the cool skin effect estimated by a physical model (Fairall et al., 1996) and by an empirical model (Donlon et al., 2002) are compared at a global scale. The updated temperature corrections are then used to estimate their impact on the global air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux. The revised global air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux based on an ensemble of CO<sub>2</sub> flux products (Fay et al., 2021) is then compared with the ocean carbon inventory (Gruber et al., 2019).

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Global Air-Sea CO<sub>2</sub> Flux Estimates

The bulk air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux equation is:

$$F = K_{660}(Sc/660)^{-0.5}(\alpha_w fCO_{2w} - \alpha_i fCO_{2a}) \quad (1)$$

where  $F$  (mmol m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) is the air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux and  $K_{660}$  (cm h<sup>-1</sup>) is the gas transfer velocity (e.g., Wanninkhof, 2014) normalized to a  $Sc$  (Schmidt number) of 660. The  $Sc$  is defined as the ratio of the kinematic viscosity of water (m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and the molecular diffusivity of CO<sub>2</sub> (m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). The CO<sub>2</sub> solubility (mol L<sup>-1</sup> atm<sup>-1</sup>) at the base of the MBL and at the air-sea interface are represented by  $\alpha_w$  and  $\alpha_i$ , respectively (Figure 1).  $Sc$  and  $\alpha$  are calculated from seawater temperature and salinity (Wanninkhof et al., 2009; Weiss, 1974).  $Sc$  is equal to 660 for CO<sub>2</sub> at 20 °C and 35 psu seawater. The CO<sub>2</sub> fugacity (μatm) at the base of the MBL and just above the air-sea interface are represented by  $fCO_{2w}$  and  $fCO_{2a}$ , respectively.

To calculate the global air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux,  $fCO_{2w}$  measured at the equilibrator temperature is first corrected to the *in-situ* bulk temperature (SOCAT SST). Seawater at ~5 m depth (ranging from 1–10 m depth) is sampled from the ship's underway water intake and is pumped through an equilibrator. The equilibrated CO<sub>2</sub> mole fraction in the air of the headspace ( $\chi CO_{2w}$ ) is measured in a gas analyzer.  $\chi CO_{2w}$  is then converted to equilibrator fugacity ( $fCO_{2w\_equ}$ ) (Text S1 in Supporting Information S1).  $fCO_{2w\_equ}$  is further corrected by the chemical temperature normalization (Takahashi et al., 1993) to obtain  $fCO_{2w}$  in the bulk seawater:

$$fCO_{2w} = fCO_{2w\_equ} e^{0.0423(T_{w\_bulk} - T_{equ})} \quad (2)$$

where  $T_{w\_bulk}$  is the seawater temperature measured concurrently with  $fCO_{2w}$  at the ship's water intake at typically 5 m depth. Seawater  $fCO_{2w}$  measurements are then interpolated to obtain a global gap-free  $fCO_{2w}$  product (at 1° × 1°, monthly resolution, e.g., Landschützer et al., 2013). A global gap-free SST dataset is generally one of the independent input variables for the  $fCO_{2w}$  interpolation process. Other variables in Equation 1 are calculated using a global gap-free SST product and related datasets (e.g., mole fraction of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> for the calculation of  $fCO_{2a}$ ). Finally, globally mapped  $fCO_{2w}$ ,  $fCO_{2a}$ ,  $Sc$ ,  $\alpha_w$ ,  $\alpha_i$ , and gas transfer velocity ( $K_{660}$ , estimated using a global gap-free wind speed dataset) are used for the CO<sub>2</sub> flux calculation via Equation 1.

**Table 1.** Variables and relevant sea surface temperature (SST) types for global air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates and their relative importance for the flux estimate (after Woolf et al., 2016). The back-of-the-envelope calculation in the last column is for  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  of  $\sim 380 \mu\text{atm}$ ,  $f\text{CO}_{2a}$  of  $\sim 390 \mu\text{atm}$ , and  $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$  of  $\sim 10 \mu\text{atm}$ , values typical for the last decade (Landschützer et al., 2020).

Variable (x)	Conceptual SST	Practical SST product	$\frac{\partial \ln(x)}{\partial T}$	$\frac{\partial \ln(\text{flux})}{\partial T}$
$Sc^{-0.5}$	$T_{\text{Bulk}}$	Global gap-free $T_{\text{Subskin}}$	$2.5\% \text{ K}^{-1}$	$2.5\% \text{ K}^{-1}$
$\alpha_i$	$T_{\text{Interface}}$	$T_{\text{Skin}}$ (Global gap-free $T_{\text{Subskin}}$ with a cool skin correction)	$-2.5\% \text{ K}^{-1}$	$100\% \text{ K}^{-1}$
$f\text{CO}_{2a}$	$T_{\text{Interface}}$	$T_{\text{Skin}}$ (Global gap-free $T_{\text{Subskin}}$ with a cool skin correction)	$-0.2\% \text{ K}^{-1}$	$10\% \text{ K}^{-1}$
$\alpha_w$	$T_{\text{Thermal}}$	Global gap-free $T_{\text{Subskin}}$	$-2.5\% \text{ K}^{-1}$	$-100\% \text{ K}^{-1}$
<b>Individual <math>f\text{CO}_{2w}</math></b>	$T_{\text{Thermal}}$	Individual $T_{\text{Subskin}}$ ( <i>In-situ</i> $T_{\text{Bulk}}$ with any bias correction)	$4.23\% \text{ K}^{-1}$	$160\% \text{ K}^{-1}$
<b>Mapped <math>f\text{CO}_{2w}</math></b>	$T_{\text{Thermal}}$	Global gap-free $T_{\text{Subskin}}$	$< 4.23\% \text{ K}^{-1*}$	$< 160\% \text{ K}^{-1*}$

\*The interpolation method (e.g., MPI-SOMFFN neural network technique; Landschützer et al., 2013) can largely dampen the effect of SST on mapped  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$ .

Table 1 summarizes the SST types that should be used to calculate variables in Equation 1.  $Sc$  should be calculated from the temperature utilized to derive  $K_{660}$  (e.g.,  $T_{\text{Bulk}}$  for the  $K_{660}$  derived from the dual-tracer method; e.g., Ho et al., 2006; Nightingale et al., 2000). The air-sea interface temperature ( $T_{\text{Interface}}$ ) should be used for the calculation of  $f\text{CO}_{2a}$  and  $\alpha_i$ , while the temperature at the base of the MBL ( $T_{\text{Mass}}$ ) should be employed to calculate  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  (via Equation 2) and  $\alpha_w$ . However, Woolf et al. (2016) suggested that  $T_{\text{Thermal}}$  might be a better temperature for calculating  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  and  $\alpha_w$ . The seawater carbonate system creates a unique situation for air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> exchange, which does not exist for other gases. Seawater temperature changes cause chemical repartitioning of the carbonate species (CO<sub>2</sub>, carbonic acid, bicarbonate, and carbonate; Zeebe & Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). We find that the timescale of this repartitioning equilibration (e-folding time  $> 10$  s for typical seawater; Johnson, 1982; Zeebe & Wolf-Gladrow, 2001) is much longer than the timescale ( $\sim 1$  s) of water mixing below the MBL but within the TBL, where viscous dissipation dominates the water mixing (Jähne, 2009; Jähne et al., 1987; Woolf et al., 2016). The explanation of the timescales is detailed in Text 2



in Supporting Information S1. Although there is a temperature gradient in the TBL due to the cool skin effect, the carbonate species are not expected to have time to thermally adjust, which suggests that  $T_{\text{Thermal}}$  is the optimal temperature for calculating  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  and  $\alpha_{\text{w}}$ .

$T_{\text{Thermal}}$ ,  $T_{\text{Mass}}$ , and  $T_{\text{Interface}}$  are conceptual temperatures, which can be approximated by practical temperatures (Figure 1). Satellite SST, which represents the subskin temperature, is a good approximation for  $T_{\text{Thermal}}$  (Shutler et al., 2019; Watson et al., 2020; Woolf et al., 2016). A satellite  $T_{\text{Subskin}}$  product can be used to calculate  $\alpha_{\text{w}}$  and  $Sc$ , and to map  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  for the global ocean.  $T_{\text{Subskin}}$  with a cool skin correction can then be utilized to calculate global  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{a}}$ , and  $\alpha_{\text{i}}$ . *In-situ*  $T_{\text{Subskin}}$  should ideally be used to correct  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  from the equilibrator temperature to the subskin seawater temperature. However, the *in-situ* temperature measured concurrently with the  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  in SOCAT is  $T_{\text{Bulk}}$ , and *in-situ*  $T_{\text{Subskin}}$  measurements are unavailable to exactly match the SOCAT space and time-stamp. Using *in-situ*  $T_{\text{Bulk}}$  (i.e., SOCAT SST) to correct  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  is reasonable in the absence of a warm layer effect, but it is important to account for the potential warm bias in the SOCAT SST.

Table 1 also summarizes the influence of SST and the corresponding importance for the variables used to make air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux estimates (after Woolf et al., 2016). The  $Sc$  and  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{a}}$  variations due to the bias in the SST product have a small influence on the global air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux. However, any bias in the SST data used for the calculation of  $\alpha_{\text{w}}$ ,  $\alpha_{\text{i}}$ , and especially  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  can result in a considerable bias in the flux. The temperature influence on the  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  mapping should be significantly dampened by the interpolation process. The most significant influence on the  $\text{CO}_2$  flux due to temperature bias comes from individual  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  ( $\sim 160\% \text{ K}^{-1}$ , Table 1). An average bias of 0.1 K could result in a bias in  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  of  $\sim 1.6 \mu\text{atm}$ , which corresponds to  $\sim 16\%$  of the net air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux for the last decade (Landschützer et al., 2020).

The skin temperature should be used for the calculation of  $\alpha_{\text{i}}$  and  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{a}}$ . The  $T_{\text{Skin}}$  can be obtained from  $T_{\text{Subskin}}$  with a cool skin correction. If  $T_{\text{Subskin}}$  is used rather than  $T_{\text{Skin}}$  for the calculation of  $\alpha_{\text{i}}$ , and  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{a}}$ , the ocean  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake is in theory underestimated by  $\sim 19\%$  for the last decade with a mean cool skin effect of 0.17 K (Donlon et al., 2002).

## 2.2 Bias Assessment

The *in-situ* bulk SST in SOCAT is generally used to correct individual  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  observations from the equilibrator temperature to the seawater temperature (e.g., studies in Table S1 in

Supporting Information S1). However, a warm bias might exist in the SOCAT SST due to heating in the engine room. Watson et al. (2020) co-located the DOISST v2.0 (NOAA Daily Optimum Interpolation SST dataset; Reynolds et al., 2007) with individual *in-situ* SST measurements in SOCAT. They found that the SOCAT SST is on average  $0.13 \pm 0.78$  K higher than the co-located DOISST v2.0. However, Huang et al. (2021) pointed out that there might be a cold bias in the DOISST v2.0 and DOISST v2.1 products (the difference between DOISST v2.0 and v2.1 can be seen in Text S4 in Supporting Information S1).

This study uses accurate SST observed by drifting buoys to assess the potential cold bias in the DOISST v2.1 and the warm bias in SOCAT SST. A drifting buoy SST dataset from iQuam (*in situ* SST Quality Monitor v2.10; Xu & Ignatov, 2014) with high accuracy (quality level = 5) is used for the assessment. The buoy SST is first gridded ( $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , monthly) and then compared with the resampled DOISST v2.1 ( $1/4^\circ \times 1/4^\circ$ , daily data are resampled to  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , monthly resolution) and the gridded SST ( $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , monthly) in SOCAT v2021.

### 2.3 Cool Skin Effect Estimate

The cool skin effect is ubiquitous in the ocean (Donlon et al., 2002) and should be considered when estimating air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes. Watson et al. (2020) used a constant value (-0.17 K) to account for the impact of the cool skin effect on air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes. However, the cool skin effect is affected by many environmental processes. Donlon et al. (2002) proposed a wind speed-dependent cool skin effect based on skin and bulk temperature measurements (Donlon02, hereafter). A physical model for the cool skin effect proposed by Saunders (1967) and developed by Fairall et al. (1996) considers wind speed, longwave radiation, heat flux, and solar radiation (Fairall96, hereafter). Fairall96 has been included in the COARE 3.5 model (Edson et al., 2013) and recent studies (Alappattu et al., 2017; Embury et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2020) suggest that Fairall96 better accounts for the cool skin effect than the parameterization dependent upon a single variable (wind speed).

We employ the ERA5 wind speed data (Hersbach et al., 2020) to estimate the Donlon02 cool skin effect. The COARE 3.5 model is used to estimate the Fairall96 cool skin effect. The following model inputs are used: CCI SST v2.1 (European Space Agency Climate Change Initiative SST product; Merchant et al., 2019; Merchant & Embury, 2020), NCEP sea level pressure (Kalnay et al., 1996), ERA5 monthly averaged reanalysis datasets (Hersbach et al.,

2020) for wind speed, 2 m above mean sea level (AMSL) air temperature, relative humidity (calculated from 2 m AMSL air temperature and dewpoint temperature using the August-Roche-Magnus approximation), downward shortwave radiation, downward longwave radiation, and boundary layer height.

## 2.4 Global Air-Sea CO<sub>2</sub> Flux Estimates with the Temperature Correction

We use two different methods to account for the bias in the SOCAT SST for the global air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates. For the first method, we use the buoy SST as the reference temperature to assess the bias in SOCAT SST (bias\_buoy, hereafter). We correct the 1° × 1°, monthly  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  in SOCAT v2021 via Equation 2 (i.e.,  $f\text{CO}_{2w\_corrected} = f\text{CO}_{2w} e^{-0.0423 * \Delta\text{SST}}$ ) by the temperature difference ( $\Delta\text{SST}$ ) between SOCAT SST and buoy SST. The  $\Delta\text{SST}$  varies with latitude (with a 10° latitude running mean, see the orange line in Figure 2b) but does not vary over time. The number of matched data points between SOCAT SST and buoy SST is small in most years, so  $\Delta\text{SST}$  is averaged over 1982 to 2020. In addition, only  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  data within 70°S to 70°N are corrected because of the small number of measurements in the polar oceans. For the second method, the co-located DOISST v2.1 replaces SOCAT SST in Equation 2 to reanalyze  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  (bias\_OI, hereafter; Watson et al., 2020). The reanalyzed  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  is used for the flux calculation (see Goddijn-Murphy et al., 2015 and Holding et al., 2019 for the reanalysis process).

We employ the MPI-SOMFFN neural network technique (Landschützer et al., 2013) to interpolate the  $f\text{CO}_{2w\_corrected}$  and the reanalyzed  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  to the global ocean from 1982 through 2020, using a set of input variables. We use the same datasets as Landschützer et al. (2014) for the neural network inputs, except for the SST product. The CCI SST (Merchant et al., 2019) represents the subskin temperature and is independent of *in-situ* SST measurements, so we utilize the 1° × 1°, monthly CCI SST v2.1 for the neural network training process. The CCI SST v2.1 is also used to calculate  $Sc$  and  $\alpha_w$ , while the CCI SST v2.1 with a cool skin correction is employed to calculate  $\alpha_i$  and  $f\text{CO}_{2a}$ .

We use two models (Fairall96 and Donlon02) to estimate the cool skin effect. Both Fairall96 and Donlon02 cool skin effect estimates are applied to the CCI SST v2.1 to calculate  $\alpha_i$  and  $f\text{CO}_{2a}$ , respectively. The quadratic wind speed-dependent formulation ( $K_{660} = a U_{10}^2$ ; Ho et al., 2006; Wanninkhof, 2014) is used to calculate gas transfer velocity. The 1° × 1°, monthly ERA5 wind speed data from 1982 to 2020 is utilized to scale the transfer coefficient  $a$  to match to a global mean  $K_{660}$  of 18.2 cm h<sup>-1</sup> from the <sup>14</sup>C inventory method (Naegler, 2009). It is worth

noting that the cool skin effect and the warm layer effect do not impact the global mean  $K_{660}$  calculated from the  $^{14}\text{C}$  inventory because the air-sea  $^{14}\text{C}$  concentration difference ( $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ ) is very large (Naegler, 2009; Sweeney et al., 2007), and the upper ocean temperature gradients only result in a minor change in  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ . In the end, we substitute all variables above into Equation 1 to calculate the global air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1 Warm Bias in the *In-situ* SOCAT SST

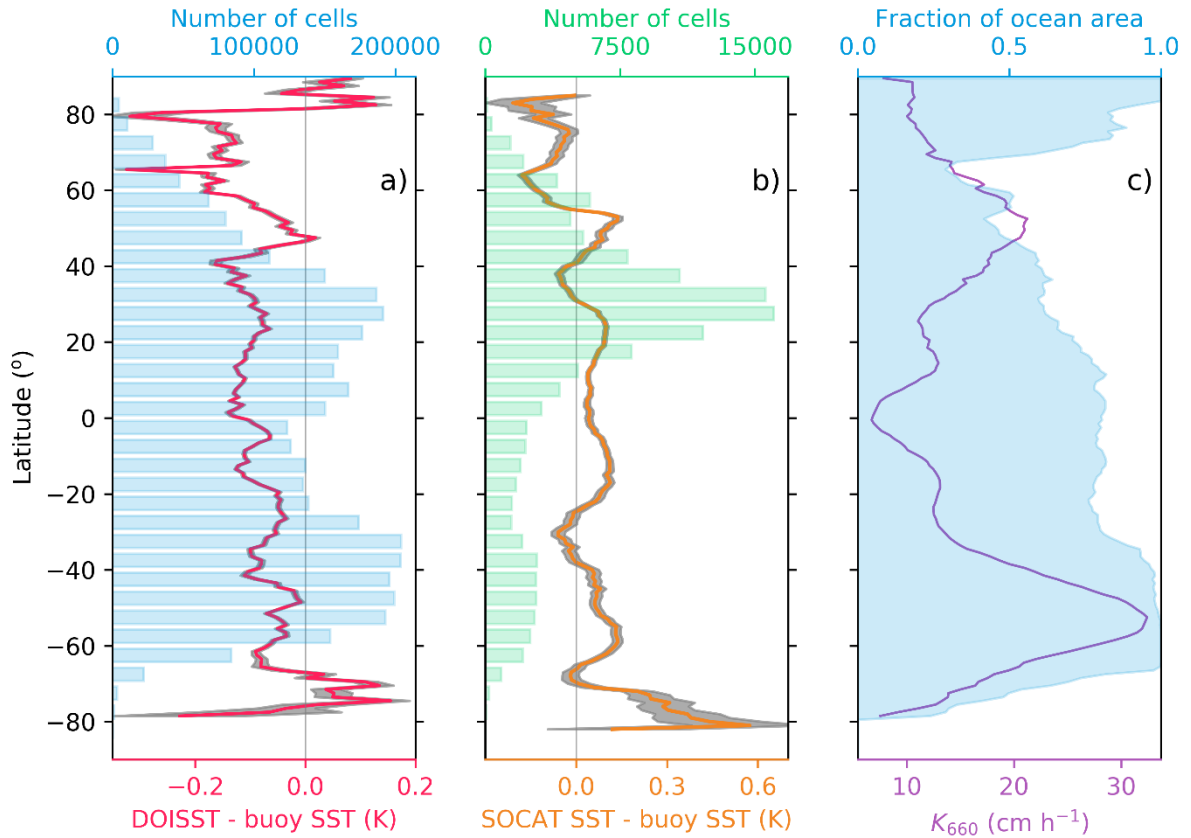
The temperature assessment using the buoy SST suggests a cold bias in the DOISST v2.1 (0.09 K on average) and a small warm bias (0.02 K on average) in the SOCAT SST, which indicates that while a warm bias exists in the SOCAT SST, using the co-located DOISST would overestimate this bias in SOCAT SST (Figure 2a).

Figure 2b shows the latitudinal variation of the bias in SOCAT SST. The number of grid cells with both SOCAT and buoy data (green bars in Figure. 2b) is small and the standard error for the temperature difference (grey shading) is large in the high latitude oceans. Therefore, we only consider data between 70°S and 70°N. The SOCAT SST minus buoy SST ( $\Delta\text{SST}$ , orange line in Figure 2b) shows apparent variation with latitude.  $\Delta\text{SST}$  is on average positive, but is slightly negative at 35°N and 30°S. In the northern hemisphere,  $\Delta\text{SST}$  is +0.04 K near the equator and increases by +0.1 K to a maximum at 25°N and then decreases to -0.05 K at 35°N.  $\Delta\text{SST}$  also increases from 35°N to a maximum of +0.15 K at 50°N and then decreases further north. The  $\Delta\text{SST}$  pattern in the southern hemisphere roughly mirrors that in the northern hemisphere with a 5° northward shift.

It is worth noting that under-sampling affects these bias assessments for SOCAT SST. If we consider all paired cells with both buoy and SOCAT SST measurements, the warm bias is on average +0.02 K. If we only consider cells with at least ten buoy SST and ten SOCAT SST measurements, the warm bias is on average +0.03 K (Figure S2a in Supporting Information S1). The latitudinal variation of the bias is very similar no matter considering how many measurements are within a cell (Figure S2b in Supporting Information S1).

It is important to consider latitudinal variation when correcting for bias in SOCAT SST. For instance, SOCAT SST has a relatively large warm bias (thus a large bias in the  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$ ) in the

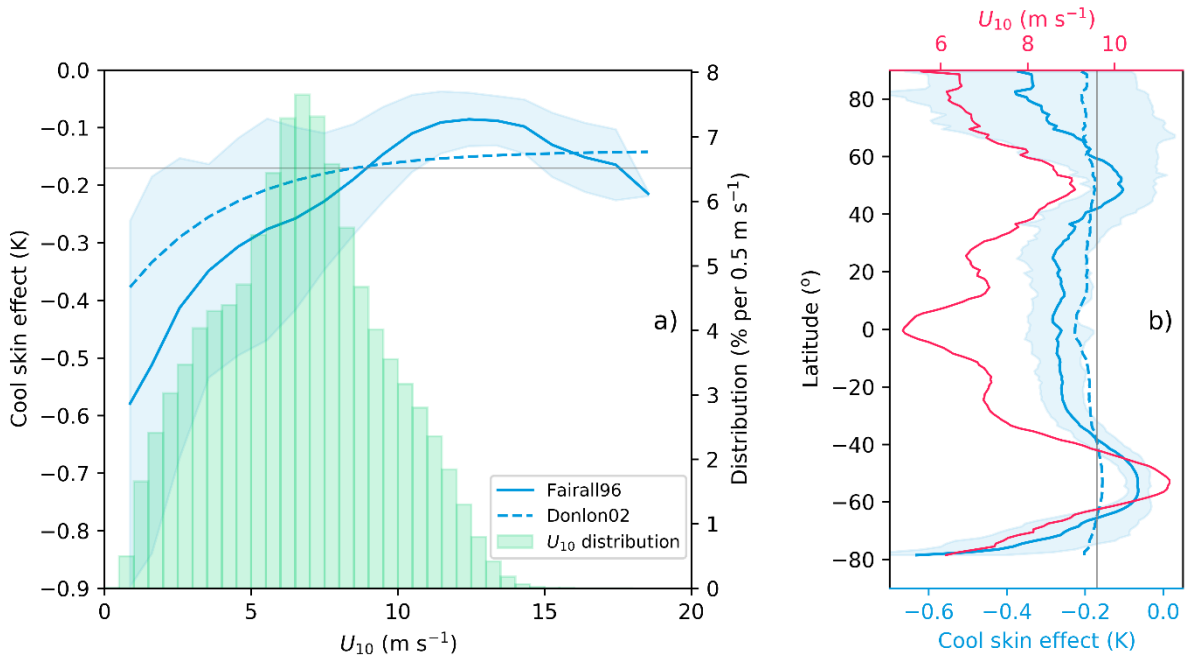
Southern Ocean (south of 35°S, Figure 2b), which coupled with a high  $K_{660}$  and a large surface ocean area (Figure 2c) results in a substantial bias in Southern Ocean CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates. This study uses a latitude-varying temperature bias (i.e., the orange line in Figure 2b) to correct the air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux between 70°S and 70°N (see Section 2.4).



**Figure 2.** Latitudinal variation in SST differences, number of matched grid cells, the gas transfer velocity ( $K_{660}$ ) and the fraction of the globe surface area covered by ocean: (a) 1° latitude average temperature difference between DOISST v2.1 and buoy SST (red line)  $\pm 1$  standard error (grey shading). The input data are from 1982 to 2020 and have a 1°  $\times$  1°, monthly resolution, Blue bars show the number of cells (5° latitude bin) containing both DOISST and buoy SST data; (b) 10° latitude running mean of the temperature difference between SOCAT SST (from SOCATv2021) and buoy SST (orange line, i.e.,  $\Delta$ SST in the main text)  $\pm 1$  standard error (grey shading). Green bars correspond to the number of cells (5° latitude bin) containing both gridded SOCAT and buoy SST; (c) 1° latitude average  $K_{660}$  (purple line) calculated with a wind speed-dependent parameterization (Ho et al., 2006) using the ERA5 wind speed data (Hersbach et al., 2020) for the global ocean. The blue shaded area corresponds to the fraction of ocean area in different latitudes (1° latitude average).

### 3.2 The Cool Skin Effect

Figure 3 shows the cool skin effect estimated by Donlon02 and Fairall96. The Fairall96 estimate of the cool skin effect is stronger than the Donlon02 estimate for low wind speeds ( $U_{10} < 9 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) but weaker for high wind speeds ( $9 \text{ m s}^{-1} < U_{10} < 16 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) (Figure 3a). The monthly wind speed distribution (green bars in Figure 3a) shows that wind speeds less than  $9 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  account for 80% of the wind conditions. Therefore, the cool skin effect estimated by Fairall96 is typically stronger than that estimated by Donlon02. The standard deviation of the Fairall96 cool skin effect is much higher at low wind speeds than at high wind speeds, which reflects that the drivers (longwave radiation, heat flux, and solar radiation) can produce substantial variations in the cool skin effect under relatively calm conditions.



**Figure 3.** (a) Relationship between the cool skin effect and the 10 m wind speed ( $U_{10}$ ). Green bars represent the frequency distribution of the ERA5 monthly averaged reanalysis wind speeds ( $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ ) over the global ocean for 1982–2020. (b) Latitudinal variation in  $U_{10}$  (red line) and the cool skin effect ( $1^\circ$  latitude bins). Both subplots show the average cool skin effect estimated by the Fairall96 physical model (Fairall et al., 1996, solid blue line), the Donlon02 wind speed-dependent empirical model (Donlon et al., 2002, dashed blue line) and a constant value ( $-0.17 \text{ K}$ , grey line; Donlon et al., 2002). The light blue shaded area in both subplots indicates one standard deviation of the bin averages in Fairall96 cool skin estimates. Global ocean  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , monthly datasets are used to estimate the cool skin effect (see Section 2.3).

The Donlon02 cool skin effect only has a slight latitudinal variation that is not substantially different from a constant (-0.17 K) value (Figure 3b), which was used by a previous study for air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux correction (Watson et al., 2020). In contrast, the Fairall96 cool skin estimate shows a clear latitudinal variation with two relatively small cool skin effect regions at around 50°S and 50°N where wind speeds are high. The Fairall96 cool skin effect is stable in the tropical zone and decreases toward both poles to ~50° and then increases at even higher latitudes.

In most ocean regions, the Fairall96 cool skin effect follows variations in wind speed. Intriguingly, the Fairall96 cool skin effect is nearly constant within the tropical and subtropical zones, even though the wind speed is much lower near the equator than in the subtropics. Drivers other than wind speed (i.e., latent and sensible heat fluxes, and longwave radiation) might counteract the low wind speed effect in this area.

## **4 Discussion**

### **4.1 Variation in the CO<sub>2</sub> Flux Correction**

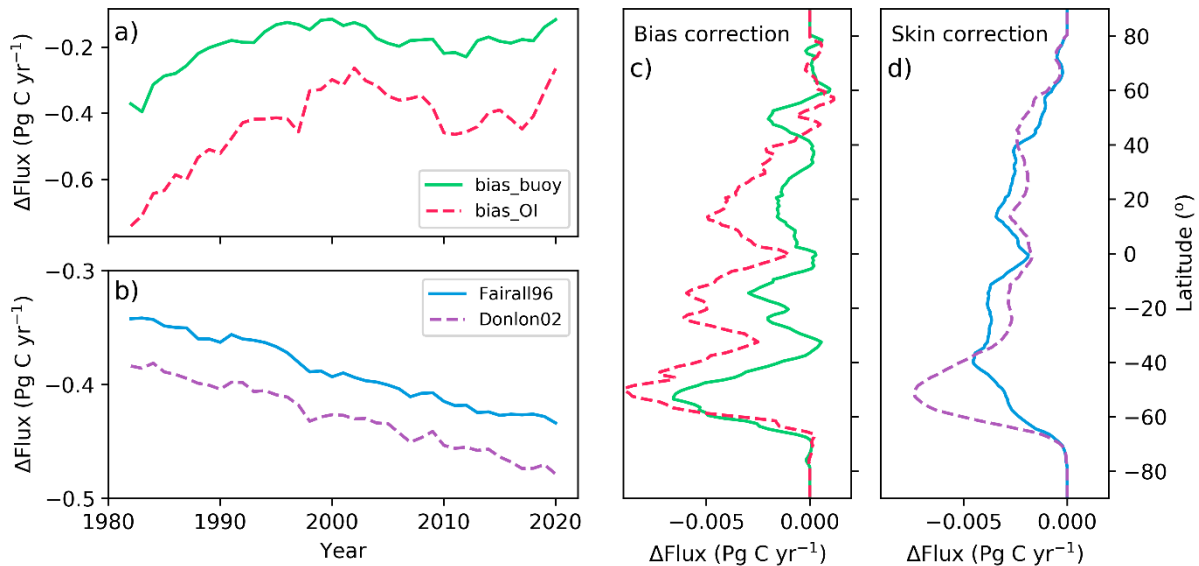
In this section, we discuss the impact of the warm bias and cool skin effects on global air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates. The corrections are applied over time (between 1982 and 2020, Figure 4a, b) and by latitude (Figure 4c, d).

The bias correction using the buoy SST assessment (bias\_buoy) leads to an average increase in ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of 0.19 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, while the bias correction utilizing the co-located DOISST (bias\_OI) suggests an average increase of 0.43 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 4a). Adopting the cool skin correction from Fairall96 and Donlon02 increases the 1982–2020 average ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by 0.39 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> and 0.43 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Figure 4b). A constant cool skin correction of -0.17 K increases the flux by an amount similar to using the Donlon02 correction. In total, the flux correction using the bias\_buoy and Fairall96 is on average ~0.3 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> lower than if the bias\_OI and Donlon02 are used for 1982 to 2020. The inter-annual variation in the net air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux with different temperature corrections are shown in Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1.

Figure 4a and 4c show the change in the air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux ( $\Delta$ Flux) generated by correcting for the warm bias in SOCAT SST. The temporal and the latitudinal variation of the two flux corrections (bias\_buoy and bias\_OI) follow similar patterns, but the magnitude is different.

Using bias\_OI creates a  $\Delta\text{Flux}$  that is twofold larger (in absolute terms) than that using bias\_buoy. The data in Figure 2a suggest that using bias\_OI may overestimate the bias in SOCAT SST, which would result in a  $\sim 0.25 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$  overestimation of the air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux correction. Therefore, we favour the bias\_buoy correction over the bias\_OI correction.

While we use the same latitude-varying temperature difference (i.e., bias\_buoy) to correct the bias in SOCAT SST for every year, the flux correction shows clear inter-annual variation (green line in Figure 4a). One reason is that the number of measurements in each year of SOCAT is different (Figure S2 in Supporting Information S1), and their spatial distribution differs between years. The latitude-dependent bias correction, when applied to the different year-to-year spatial distribution in the SOCAT data, results in a time-varying annual mean bias correction (Figure S2 in Supporting Information S1).



**Figure 4.** SST corrections to the air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux ( $\Delta\text{Flux}$ ) versus time (a, b) and versus latitude (c, d). SST corrections account for the bias in the SOCAT SST (a, c) and the cool skin effect (b, d). Negative  $\Delta\text{Flux}$  values represent increased ocean  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake. Green and red lines represent  $\Delta\text{Flux}$  due to the bias correction assessed by drifting buoy SST (bias\_buoy) and by co-located DOISST (bias\_OI), respectively. Blue and purple lines represent  $\Delta\text{Flux}$  due to the Fairall96 and the Donlon02 cool skin corrections, respectively.  $\Delta\text{Flux}$  in a) and b) is the global annual mean, while  $\Delta\text{Flux}$  in (c) and (d) is the long-term average (1982–2020) in  $1^\circ$  latitude bins. Results are based on the MPI-SOMFFN  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  mapping method (Landschützer et al., 2013) (See Methods). The inter-annual variation of the global air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux with different temperature corrections can be seen in Figure S4 (Supporting Information S1). Our preferred corrections are bias\_buoy for warm bias in SOCAT SST and Fairall96 for the cool skin effect (see Section 4.1).



409

410 Figure 4b and 4d show the change in air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux when accounting for the cool skin effect  
411 using the Fairall96 and Donlon02 models. Figure 4b indicates an increase over time in both  
412 flux corrections (absolute value), which is driven by the increase in  $f\text{CO}_{2a}$  (see equation 1 and  
413 table 1). The impact of the cool skin effect on the air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux is through  $\alpha_i * f\text{CO}_{2a}$ . The  
414 ever-rising atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and thus  $f\text{CO}_{2a}$ , result in the growing cool skin flux  
415 correction.

416 The flux correction using Donlon02 exceeds that by Fairall96 by  $\sim 0.05 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$  (in absolute  
417 terms). The largest difference in flux between the two cool skin corrections occurs in the  
418 Southern Ocean (Figure 4d). The Donlon02 cool skin effect has minimal latitudinal variation,  
419 so the flux correction is largest at  $\sim 50^\circ\text{S}$  where the gas transfer velocity is maximum and the  
420 ocean area is relatively large (Figure 2c). The Fairall96 cool skin effect has an apparent  
421 latitudinal variation and a minimum (absolute) value at  $\sim 50^\circ\text{S}$ . This minimum cool skin effect  
422 offsets the maximum wind speed and large ocean area, resulting in a smaller flux correction  
423 (in absolute terms) at  $\sim 50^\circ\text{S}$  for Fairall96 than for Donlon02. Recent work (Alappattu et al.,  
424 2017; Embury et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2020) has suggested that the Fairall96 cool skin model  
425 is better than Donlon02 at capturing the cool skin effect at a global scale and this, coupled with  
426 our estimates indicates that using the Donlon02 model may lead to an over-correction of the  
427 air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux, especially in the Southern Ocean.

428

## 429 **4.2 Implications for Air-Sea CO<sub>2</sub> Flux Estimates**

430 This study deals with the potential bias in the  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$ -based air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates due to  
431 upper ocean temperature effects. A large amount of uncertainty in this  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$ -based flux also  
432 comes from the gas transfer velocity (Woolf et al., 2019). The air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimated from  
433 the ocean carbon inventory (Gruber et al., 2019) does not require the gas transfer velocity, is  
434 unaffected by upper ocean temperature effects and provides an independent estimate of ocean  
435 CO<sub>2</sub> uptake. To compare the  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$ -based net air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux with the anthropogenic air-sea  
436 CO<sub>2</sub> flux of the ocean carbon inventory, we need to adjust for river-induced CO<sub>2</sub> outgassing.  
437 The riverine carbon flux has been estimated as  $0.23 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$  (Lacroix et al., 2020),  $0.45 \text{ Pg C}$   
438  $\text{yr}^{-1}$  (Jacobson et al., 2007), and  $0.78 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$  (Resplandy et al., 2018). Here we adopt the  
439 mean of these values ( $0.49 \pm 0.28 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ ).

The net air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux derived from the ocean carbon inventory for 1994 to 2007 is  $-2.1 \pm 0.4$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (i.e.,  $-2.6$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> anthropogenic flux plus  $0.49$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> river carbon flux; see the footnote of Table 2 for the propagated uncertainty) (Gruber et al., 2019), which is shown in Table 2 along with the ensemble mean of eighteen  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$ -based fluxes (Fay et al., 2021). Fluxes from six  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  products and three wind speed products (three wind products are used for each  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  product) are utilized to generate the ensemble mean flux, where missing  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  has been filled with a scaled climatology and gas transfer velocity ( $K_{660}$ ) has been calibrated to a global average of  $18.2$  cm hr<sup>-1</sup> over the ice-free ocean based on <sup>14</sup>C-bomb flux estimates (Fay et al., 2021). All six  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  products (which include the MPI SOMFFN method) have been developed from the SOCAT v2021 dataset. So the corrections of the ensemble mean flux for the temperature effects should be similar to the corrections in this study based on the MPI-SOMFFN  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$  mapping method (Landschützer et al., 2013). Furthermore, an ensemble of different data interpolation methods and different wind products provides a more robust flux estimate than a single interpolation method based on a single wind product. The flux corrections estimated in this study are applied to the ensemble mean flux.

**Table 2.** Global mean net air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes for 1994 to 2007. Here bias\_buoy and bias\_OI represent the bias correction (to SOCAT SST) using the assessment from buoy SST and co-located DOISST, respectively. Fairall96 (Fairall et al., 1996) and Donlon02 (Donlon et al., 2002) correspond to the cool skin effect estimated by the physical and the empirical model, respectively. We favour the bias\_buoy and Fairall96 corrections (see Section 4.1)

Net air-sea CO <sub>2</sub> flux estimates (Pg C yr <sup>-1</sup> )	Flux without a temperature correction	Flux with warm bias correction		Flux with warm bias and cool skin correction		
		bias_buoy	bias_OI	bias_buoy + Fairall96	bias_OI + Donlon02	
Ensemble mean of $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$ -based fluxes*	$-1.7 \pm 0.4$	$-1.8 \pm 0.4$	$-2.0 \pm 0.4$	$-2.2 \pm 0.4$	$-2.4 \pm 0.4$	
Ocean carbon inventory**	$-2.1 \pm 0.4$					

\*The ensemble mean of the fluxes from six  $f\text{CO}_2$  products and three wind speed products (Fay et al., 2021).

\*\*From Gruber et al. (2019) ( $-2.6 \pm 0.3$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) with a riverine-derived carbon flux adjustment ( $0.49 \pm 0.28$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>). The uncertainty (i.e.,  $\pm 0.4$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) is calculated as  $\sqrt{0.3^2 + 0.28^2}$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>.

The ensemble mean air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux without any bias and cool skin corrections ( $-1.7 \pm 0.4$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) is barely within the combined uncertainty of the net flux estimate from the ocean carbon inventory. The ensemble mean CO<sub>2</sub> flux with bias\_buoy and Fairall96 cool skin corrections is  $-2.2 \pm 0.4$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, similar to the ocean carbon inventory derived net ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake. The corrections using the bias\_OI and the Donlon02 suggested by a previous study (Watson et al., 2020) pushes the ensemble mean air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux ( $-2.4 \pm 0.4$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) towards the lower limit of the ocean carbon inventory flux estimate (Table 2).

Another question is whether the warm bias and cool skin flux corrections conflict with our understanding of air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes. One might argue that the preindustrial ocean and atmosphere would have been in a natural equilibrium (i.e., the global total of steady state of natural air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes would have been zero; see Hauck et al., 2020 for details), but the temperature corrections would create a preindustrial ocean carbon sink. However, the warm bias in SOCAT SST is not a natural phenomenon and should not affect the preindustrial flux estimate. Furthermore, while the cool skin is a natural phenomenon, the flux correction due to the cool skin effect includes both natural and anthropogenic contributions. Figure 4b shows that the cool skin flux correction decreased almost linearly by  $\sim 0.1$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (from  $-0.34$  to  $-0.43$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) due to the increase in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> ( $\sim 70$  ppm or  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ , from 341 to 414 ppm) from 1982 to 2020 (Dlugokencky & Tans, 2018). Preindustrial atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> was  $\sim 260$ – $280$  ppm (Wigley, 1983), which is  $\sim 70$  ppm lower than atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> in 1982. Thus, the preindustrial natural air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux correction due to the cool skin effect could be  $\sim -0.25$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, with the remaining correction ( $\sim -0.2$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2020) due to the increase in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> by anthropogenic emissions.

A flux correction for the cool skin effect is only related to the  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  observation-based flux estimate, which is available from the 1980s onwards (Friedlingstein et al., 2020). There were no  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  measurements in preindustrial times, so the total preindustrial air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux (the sum of steady state natural flux and river flux) is based on model studies, theory, and lateral transport constraints (Hauck et al., 2020). Although the cool skin effect might result in an  $\sim -0.25$  Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> flux, we can still assume that ocean and atmosphere were in a natural equilibrium in preindustrial times. Specifically, the cool skin effect has been implicitly included in the preindustrial natural equilibrium assumption. Therefore, this study improves our understanding by suggesting a stronger anthropogenic contribution to the air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux, while there is no contradiction between the temperature correction and the preindustrial natural equilibrium assumption.

The cool skin effect and its impact on the air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux have been discussed for decades. While the cool skin effect itself has been well observed and modelled, its impact on the air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux is mainly based on theoretical arguments. We still lack strong observational evidence to confirm the need to include the cool skin effect on estimates of air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux – an important topic we urge the community to demonstrate experimentally. The eddy covariance method (e.g., Dong et al., 2021) provides direct flux measurements, that could be used as a reference CO<sub>2</sub> flux to assess the accuracy of the bulk CO<sub>2</sub> flux. Long-term eddy covariance measurements at a place with very low  $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$  would be insightful because the relative effect of cool skin on the bulk CO<sub>2</sub> flux is in theory more prominent for regions of low  $\Delta f\text{CO}_2$ . Appropriate laboratory experiments may yield further insight.

In summary, this work updates the temperature corrections to  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$ -based air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates. It shows that there is a slight warm bias in SOCAT SST and a latitude-varying cool skin effect, resulting in  $\sim 0.6 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$  additional ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake for 1982 to 2020. The corrected air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux for an ensemble of six gap filled air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux products agrees well with the ocean carbon inventory derived net flux. The extreme sensitivity of  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  and thus of the air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux to the accuracy of SST means that we should be carefully choose the reference temperature to assess any bias in the SOCAT SST. The importance of the Southern Ocean for atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, and the strong winds encountered there mean that large scale assessments need a suitable model for the cool skin correction to the air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux.

## Acknowledgements

We are grateful to H. Zhang (NOAA), C. Merchant (University of Reading), and H. Beggs (Bureau of Meteorology, Australia) for their advice on choosing the appropriate SST product, as well as to J. Kennedy (Met Office Hadley Centre), and S. Zhou (British Antarctic Survey) for suggestions on assessing the bias in the SOCAT SST. We also greatly appreciate the inspirational and helpful discussions with R. Wanninkhof (NOAA) and J. Shutler (University of Exeter). The Surface Ocean CO<sub>2</sub> Atlas (SOCAT) is an international effort, endorsed 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 CO<sub>2</sub> database. The many researchers and funding agencies responsible for the collection of data and quality control are thanked for their contributions to SOCAT. In this study,

Y. Dong has been supported by the China Scholarship Council (CSC/201906330072). The Natural Environment Research Council (NERC) has enabled D. C. E. Bakker's work (PICCOLO, NE/P021395/1, and CUSTARD, NE/P021263/1 projects). The contributions of T.G. Bell and M. Yang have been made possible by support from the NERC (ORCHESTRA, NE/N018095/1, and PICCOLO NE/P021409/1 projects) and European Space Agency AMT4oceanSatFluxCCN (4000125730/18/NL/FF/gp).

## Open Research

Data can be accessed as follows. Gridded SOCAT v2021 data: <https://www.socat.info/index.php/data-access/>. Reanalyzed sea surface CO<sub>2</sub> fugacity dataset using co-located DOISST: <https://doi.org/10.18160/vmt4-4563>. *In-situ* SST measurements (including the drifting buoy SST and the ship SST): <https://www.star.nesdis.noaa.gov/socd/sst/iquam/data.html>. CCI SST v2.1: <https://surftemp.net/regridding/index.html>. DOISST v2.1: <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/sea-surface-temperature-optimum-interpolation/v2.1/access/avhrr/>. ECMWF monthly averaged reanalysis data: <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels-monthly-means?tab=form>.

## References

- Alappattu, D. P., Wang, Q., Yamaguchi, R., Lind, R. J., Reynolds, M., & Christman, A. J. (2017). Warm layer and cool skin corrections for bulk water temperature measurements for air-sea interaction studies. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 122(8), 6470–6481. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017JC012688>
- Bakker, D. C. E., Alin, S., Castaño-Primo, R., Cronin, M., Gkrizalis, T., Kozyr, A., et al. (2021). SOCAT version 2021 for quantification of ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake. Available at <https://www.socat.info/index.php/data-access/>. Released 15 June 2021.
- Bakker, D. C. E., Pfeil, B., Landa, C. S., Metzl, N., O'Brien, K. M., Olsen, A., et al. (2016). A multi-decade record of high-quality *f*CO<sub>2</sub> data in version 3 of the Surface Ocean CO<sub>2</sub> Atlas (SOCAT). *Earth System Science Data*, 8(2), 383–413. <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-8-383-2016>
- Dlugokencky, E., & Tans, P. (2018). Trends in atmospheric carbon dioxide, National Oceanic & Atmospheric Administration, Earth System Research Laboratory (NOAA/ESRL). Available at <https://www.socat.info/index.php/data-access/>. Last access: 4 February 2022.
- Dong, Y., Yang, M., Bakker, D. C. E., Kitidis, V., & Bell, T. G. (2021). Uncertainties in eddy

564 covariance air–sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux measurements and implications for gas transfer velocity  
 565 parameterisations. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 21(10), 8089–8110.  
 566 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-21-8089-2021>

567 Donlon, C. J., Robinson, I., Casey, K. S., Vazquez-Cuervo, J., Armstrong, E., Arino, O., et al. (2007).  
 568 The global ocean data assimilation experiment high-resolution sea surface temperature pilot  
 569 project. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 88(8), 1197–1214.  
 570 <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-88-8-1197>

571 Donlon, C. J., Minnett, P. J., Gentemann, C., Nightingale, T. J., Barton, I. J., Ward, B., & Murray, M.  
 572 J. (2002). Toward improved validation of satellite sea surface skin temperature measurements for  
 573 climate research. *Journal of Climate*, 15(4), 353–369. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442\(2002\)015<0353:TIVOSS>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(2002)015<0353:TIVOSS>2.0.CO;2)

575 Edson, J. B., Jampana, V., Weller, R. A., Bigorre, S. P., Plueddemann, A. J., Fairall, C. W., et al. (2013).  
 576 On the exchange of momentum over the open ocean. *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 43(8),  
 577 1589–1610. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JPO-D-12-0173.1>

578 Embury, O., Merchant, C. J., & Corlett, G. K. (2012). A reprocessing for climate of sea surface  
 579 temperature from the along-track scanning radiometers: Initial validation, accounting for skin and  
 580 diurnal variability effects. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 116, 62–78.  
 581 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2011.02.028>

582 Fairall, C. W., Bradley, E. F., Godfrey, J. S., Wick, G. A., Edson, J. B., & Young, G. S. (1996). Cool-  
 583 skin and warm-layer effects on sea surface temperature. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*,  
 584 101(C1), 1295–1308. <https://doi.org/10.1029/95JC03190>

585 Fay, A. R., Gregor, L., Landschützer, P., McKinley, G. A., Gruber, N., Gehlen, M., et al. (2021).  
 586 SeaFlux: Harmonization of air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes from surface pCO<sub>2</sub> data products using a  
 587 standardized approach. *Earth System Science Data*, 13(10), 4693–4710.  
 588 <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-13-4693-2021>

589 Friedlingstein, P., O’Sullivan, M., Jones, M. W., Andrew, R. M., Hauck, J., Olsen, A., et al. (2020).  
 590 Global carbon budget 2020. *Earth System Science Data*, 12(4), 3269–3340.  
 591 <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-12-3269-2020>

592 Gentemann, C. L., & Minnett, P. J. (2008). Radiometric measurements of ocean surface thermal  
 593 variability. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 113(C8).  
 594 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2007JC004540>

595 Goddijn-Murphy, L. M., Woolf, D. K., Land, P. E., Shutler, J. D., & Donlon, C. (2015). The OceanFlux  
 596 Greenhouse Gases methodology for deriving a sea surface climatology of CO<sub>2</sub> fugacity in support

597 of air-sea gas flux studies. *Ocean Science*, 11(4), 519–541. <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-11-519->  
598 [2015](https://doi.org/10.5194/os-11-519-2015)

599 Gruber, N., Clement, D., Carter, B. R., Feely, R. A., van Heuven, S., Hoppema, M., et al. (2019). The  
600 oceanic sink for anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> from 1994 to 2007. *Science*, 363(6432), 1193–1199.  
601 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aau5153>

602 Hauck, J., Zeising, M., Le Quéré, C., Gruber, N., Bakker, D. C. E., Bopp, L., et al. (2020). Consistency  
603 and challenges in the ocean carbon sink estimate for the global carbon budget. *Frontiers in Marine*  
604 *Science*, 7(October), 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2020.571720>

605 Hersbach, H., Bell, B., Berrisford, P., Hirahara, S., Horányi, A., Muñoz-Sabater, J., et al. (2020). The  
606 ERA5 global reanalysis. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, 146(730), 1999–  
607 2049. <https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.3803>

608 Ho, D. T., Law, C. S., Smith, M. J., Schlosser, P., Harvey, M., & Hill, P. (2006). Measurements of air-  
609 sea gas exchange at high wind speeds in the Southern Ocean: Implications for global  
610 parameterizations. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 33(16). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2006GL026817>

611 Holding, T., Ashton, I. G., Shutler, J. D., Land, P. E., Nightingale, P. D., Rees, A. P., et al. (2019). The  
612 fluxengine air-sea gas flux toolbox: Simplified interface and extensions for in situ analyses and  
613 multiple sparingly soluble gases. *Ocean Science*, 15(6), 1707–1728. <https://doi.org/10.5194/os->  
614 [15-1707-2019](https://doi.org/10.5194/os-15-1707-2019)

615 Huang, B., Liu, C., Banzon, V., Freeman, E., Graham, G., Hankins, B., et al. (2021). Improvements of  
616 the daily optimum interpolation sea surface temperature (DOISST) version 2.1. *Journal of Climate*,  
617 34(8), 2923–2939. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-20-0166.1>

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

621 Jähne, B. (2009). Air-sea gas exchange. *Elements of Physical Oceanography: A Derivative of the*  
622 *Encyclopedia of Ocean Sciences*, 160–169. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-409548-9.11613->  
623 [6](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-409548-9.11613-6)

624 Jähne, B., Heinz, G., & Dietrich, W. (1987). Measurement of the diffusion coefficients of sparingly  
625 soluble gases in water. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 92(C10), 10767–10776.  
626 <https://doi.org/10.1029/JC092iC10p10767>

627 Johnson, K. S. (1982). Carbon dioxide hydration and dehydration kinetics in seawater. *Limnology and*  
628 *Oceanography*, 27(5), 849–855. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.1982.27.5.0849>

629 Kalnay, E., Kanamitsu, M., Kistler, R., Collins, W., Deaven, D., Gandin, L., et al. (1996). The  
630 NCEP/NCAR 40-year reanalysis project. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 77(3),  
631 437–472. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0477\(1996\)077<0437:TNYRP>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0477(1996)077<0437:TNYRP>2.0.CO;2)

632 Kennedy, J. J., Rayner, N. A., Smith, R. O., Parker, D. E., & Saunby, M. (2011). Reassessing biases  
633 and other uncertainties in sea surface temperature observations measured in situ since 1850: 2.  
634 Biases and homogenization. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 116(D14), 1–22.  
635 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2010jd015220>

636 Kennedy, J. J., Rayner, N. A., Atkinson, C. P., & Killick, R. E. (2019). An ensemble data set of sea  
637 surface temperature change from 1850: The Met Office Hadley Centre HadSST.4.0.0.0 data set.  
638 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 124(14), 7719–7763.  
639 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018JD029867>

640 Kent, E. C., Kennedy, J. J., Smith, T. M., Hirahara, S., Huang, B., Kaplan, A., et al. (2017). A call for  
641 new approaches to quantifying biases in observations of sea surface temperature. *Bulletin of the*  
642 *American Meteorological Society*, 98(8), 1601–1616. [https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-15-](https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-15-00251.1)  
643 [00251.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-15-00251.1)

644 Lacroix, F., Ilyina, T., & Hartmann, J. (2020). Oceanic CO<sub>2</sub> outgassing and biological production  
645 hotspots induced by pre-industrial river loads of nutrients and carbon in a global modeling  
646 approach. *Biogeosciences*, 17(1), 55–88. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-17-55-2020>

647 Landschützer, P., Gruber, N., Bakker, D. C. E., Schuster, U., Nakaoka, S., Payne, M. R., et al. (2013).  
648 A neural network-based estimate of the seasonal to inter-annual variability of the Atlantic Ocean  
649 carbon sink. *Biogeosciences*, 10(11), 7793–7815. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-10-7793-2013>

650 Landschützer, P., Gruber, N., & Bakker, D. C. E. (2020). An observation-based global monthly gridded  
651 sea surface pCO<sub>2</sub> and air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux product from 1982 onward and its monthly climatology.  
652 *NCEI Accession*, 160558.

653 Landschützer, P., Gruber, N., Bakker, D. C. E., & Schuster, U. (2014). Recent variability of the global  
654 ocean carbon sink. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 28(9), 927–949.  
655 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GB004853>

656 Liss, P. S., & Slater, P. G. (1974). Flux of gases across the air-sea interface. *Nature*, 247(5438), 181–  
657 184. <https://doi.org/10.1038/247181a0>

658 Merchant, C. J., & Embury, O. (2020). Adjusting for desert-dust-related biases in a climate data record  
659 of sea surface temperature. *Remote Sensing*, 12(16), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.3390/RS12162554>

660 Merchant, C. J., Embury, O., Bulgin, C. E., Block, T., Corlett, G. K., Fiedler, E., et al. (2019). Satellite-



- based time-series of sea-surface temperature since 1981 for climate applications. *Scientific Data*, 6(1), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-019-0236-x>
- Minnett, P. J., Smith, M., & Ward, B. (2011). Measurements of the oceanic thermal skin effect. *Deep-Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography*, 58(6), 861–868. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2010.10.024>
- Naegler, T. (2009). Reconciliation of excess  $^{14}\text{C}$ -constrained global  $\text{CO}_2$  piston velocity estimates. *Tellus, Series B: Chemical and Physical Meteorology*, 61 (2), 372–384. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0889.2008.00408.x>
- Nightingale, P. D., Malin, G., Law, C. S., Watson, A. J., Liss, P. S., Liddicoat, M. I., et al. (2000). In situ evaluation of air-sea gas exchange parameterizations using novel conservative and volatile tracers. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 14(1), 373–387. <https://doi.org/10.1029/1999GB900091>
- O’Carroll, A. G., Armstrong, E. M., Beggs, H., Bouali, M., Casey, K. S., Corlett, G. K., et al. (2019). Observational needs of sea surface temperature. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 7:571720. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00420>
- Pfeil, B., Olsen, A., Bakker, D. C. E., Hankin, S., Koyuk, H., Kozyr, A., et al. (2013). A uniform, quality controlled Surface Ocean  $\text{CO}_2$  Atlas (SOCAT). *Earth System Science Data*, 5(1), 125–143. <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-5-125-2013>
- Prytherch, J., Farrar, J. T., & Weller, R. A. (2013). Moored surface buoy observations of the diurnal warm layer. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 118(9), 4553–4569. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jgrc.20360>
- Resplandy, L., Keeling, R. F., Rödenbeck, C., Stephens, B. B., Khatiwala, S., Rodgers, K. B., et al. (2018). Revision of global carbon fluxes based on a reassessment of oceanic and riverine carbon transport. *Nature Geoscience*, 11(7), 504–509. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41561-018-0151-3>
- Reynolds, R. W., & Chelton, D. B. (2010). Comparisons of daily sea surface temperature analyses for 2007–08. *Journal of Climate*, 23(13), 3545–3562. <https://doi.org/10.1175/2010JCLI3294.1>
- Reynolds, R. W., Smith, T. M., Liu, C., Chelton, D. B., Casey, K. S., & Schlax, M. G. (2007). Daily high-resolution-blended analyses for sea surface temperature. *Journal of Climate*, 20(22), 5473–5496. <https://doi.org/10.1175/2007JCLI1824.1>
- Robertson, J. E., & Watson, A. J. (1992). Thermal skin effect of the surface ocean and its implications for  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake. *Nature*, 358(6389), 738–740. <https://doi.org/10.1038/358738a0>
- Sabine, C. L., Feely, R. A., Gruber, N., Key, R. M., Lee, K., Bullister, J. L., et al. (2004). The oceanic sink for anthropogenic  $\text{CO}_2$ . *Science*, 305(5682), 367–371.

693 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1097403>

694 Sabine, C. L., Hankin, S., Koyuk, H., Bakker, D. C. E., Pfeil, B., Olsen, A., et al. (2013). Surface Ocean  
 695 CO<sub>2</sub> Atlas (SOCAT) gridded data products. *Earth System Science Data*, 5(1), 145–153.  
 696 <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-5-145-2013>

697 Saunders, P. M. (1967). The temperature at the ocean-air interface. *Journal of Atmospheric Sciences*,  
 698 24(3), 269–273. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469\(1967\)024<0269:TTATOA>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469(1967)024<0269:TTATOA>2.0.CO;2)

699 Shutler, J. D., Wanninkhof, R., Nightingale, P. D., Woolf, D. K., Bakker, D. C. E., Watson, A., et al.  
 700 (2019). Satellites will address critical science priorities for quantifying ocean carbon. *Frontiers in*  
 701 *Ecology and the Environment*, 18(1): 27– 35. <https://doi.org/10.1002/fee.2129>

702 Sweeney, C., Gloor, E., Jacobson, A. R., Key, R. M., McKinley, G., Sarmiento, J. L., & Wanninkhof,  
 703 R. (2007). Constraining global air-sea gas exchange for CO<sub>2</sub> with recent bomb <sup>14</sup>C measurements.  
 704 *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 21, GB2015. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2006GB002784>

705 Takahashi, T., Olafsson, J., Goddard, J. G., Chipman, D. W., & Sutherland, S. C. (1993). Seasonal  
 706 variation of CO<sub>2</sub> and nutrients in the high-latitude surface oceans: A comparative study. *Global*  
 707 *Biogeochemical Cycles*, 7(4), 843–878. <https://doi.org/10.1029/93GB02263>

708 Takahashi, T., Sutherland, S. C., Wanninkhof, R., Sweeney, C., Feely, R. A., Chipman, D. W., et al.  
 709 (2009). Climatological mean and decadal change in surface ocean pCO<sub>2</sub>, and net sea-air CO<sub>2</sub> flux  
 710 over the global oceans. *Deep Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography*, 56(8–10),  
 711 554–577. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.DSR2.2008.12.009>

712 Wanninkhof, R. (2014). Relationship between wind speed and gas exchange over the ocean revisited.  
 713 *Limnology and Oceanography: Methods*, 12, 351–362. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lom.2014.12.351>

714 Wanninkhof, R., Asher, W. E., Ho, D. T., Sweeney, C., & McGillis, W. R. (2009). Advances in  
 715 quantifying air-sea gas exchange and environmental forcing. *Annual Review of Marine Science*,  
 716 1(1), 213–244. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.marine.010908.163742>

717 Ward, B., Wanninkhof, R., McGillis, W. R., Jessup, A. T., DeGrandpre, M. D., Hare, J. E., & Edson, J.  
 718 B. (2004). Biases in the air-sea flux of CO<sub>2</sub> resulting from ocean surface temperature gradients.  
 719 *Journal of Geophysical Research C: Oceans*, 109(8), 1–14.  
 720 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2003JC001800>

721 Watson, A. J., Schuster, U., Shutler, J. D., Holding, T., Ashton, I. G. C., Landschützer, P., et al. (2020).  
 722 Revised estimates of ocean-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> flux are consistent with ocean carbon inventory.  
 723 *Nature Communications*, 11(1), 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-18203-3>

724 Weiss, R. F. (1974). Carbon dioxide in water and seawater: the solubility of a non-ideal gas. *Marine*

Chemistry, 2(3), 203–215. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-4203\(74\)90015-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-4203(74)90015-2)

Wigley, T. M. L. (1983). The pre-industrial carbon dioxide level. *Climatic Change*, 5(4), 315–320. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02423528>

Woolf, D. K., Land, P. E., Shutler, J. D., Goddijn-Murphy, L. M., & Donlon, C. J. (2016). On the calculation of air-sea fluxes of CO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of temperature and salinity gradients. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 121(2), 1229–1248. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015JC011427>

Woolf, D. K., Shutler, J. D., Goddijn-Murphy, L., Watson, A. J., Chapron, B., Nightingale, P. D., et al. (2019). Key uncertainties in the recent air-sea flux of CO<sub>2</sub>. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 33(12), 1548–1563. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018GB006041>

Xu, F., & Ignatov, A. (2014). In situ SST quality monitor (iQuam). *Journal of Atmospheric and Oceanic Technology*, 31(1), 164–180. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JTECH-D-13-00121.1>

Yang, C., Leonelli, F. E., Marullo, S., Artale, V., Beggs, H., Nardelli, B. B., et al. (2021). Sea surface temperature intercomparison in the framework of the copernicus climate change service (C3S). *Journal of Climate*, 34(13), 5257–5283. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-20-0793.1>

Zeebe, R. E., & Wolf-Gladrow, D. (2001). *CO<sub>2</sub> in seawater: equilibrium, kinetics, isotopes*. Elsevier Science, pp. 85–140.

Zhang, H., Beggs, H., Ignatov, A., & Babanin, A. V. (2020). Nighttime cool skin effect observed from infrared SST autonomous radiometer (ISAR) and depth temperatures. *Journal of Atmospheric and Oceanic Technology*, 37(1), 33–46. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JTECH-D-19-0161.1>

**Update on the Temperature Corrections of Global Air-Sea CO<sub>2</sub> Flux Estimates**

Yuanxu Dong<sup>1,2</sup>, Dorothee C. E. Bakker<sup>1\*</sup>, Thomas G. Bell<sup>2</sup>, Boyin Huang<sup>3</sup>, Peter Landschützer<sup>4</sup>, Peter S. Liss<sup>1</sup>, Mingxi Yang<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Centre for Ocean and Atmospheric Sciences, School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK;

<sup>2</sup>Plymouth Marine Laboratory, Prospect Place, Plymouth, UK; <sup>3</sup>National Centers for Environmental Information, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Asheville, NC, USA; <sup>4</sup>Max Planck Institute for Meteorology, Hamburg, Germany

Correspondence to: Yuanxu Dong ([Yuanxu.Dong@uea.ac.uk](mailto:Yuanxu.Dong@uea.ac.uk)) and Dorothee C. E. Bakker ([D.Bakker@uea.ac.uk](mailto:D.Bakker@uea.ac.uk))

**Contents of this file**

Text S1 to S5

Figures S1 to S4

Table S1

SI References

**Additional Supporting Information (Files uploaded separately)**

Dataset S1

**Text S1. Conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> Concentration**

The mole fraction of the equilibrated CO<sub>2</sub> ( $\chi\text{CO}_{2w}$ ) in the equilibrator is measured by a gas analyzer and is then converted into CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure ( $p\text{CO}_{2w\_equ}$ ) using the equilibrator temperature ( $T_{equ}$ , K) and pressure ( $P_{equ}$ , atm):

$$p\text{CO}_{2w\_equ} = \chi\text{CO}_{2w}(P_{equ} - p\text{H}_2\text{O}) \quad (\text{S1})$$

where  $p_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  (atm) is the water vapor pressure and can be calculated from  $T_{\text{equ}}$  and the seawater salinity (Pierrot et al., 2009). The  $p\text{CO}_{2\text{w\_equ}}$  is then converted into  $f\text{CO}_{2\text{w\_equ}}$  to correct for non-ideal behavior of the gas (Weiss, 1974):

$$f\text{CO}_{2\text{w\_equ}} = \gamma p\text{CO}_{2\text{w\_equ}} \quad (\text{S2})$$

where the fugacity coefficient  $\gamma$  is  $\sim 0.996$  (Bakker et al., 2014).

## **Text S2. The Timescale of Chemical Repartitioning and Water Mass Transport**

The seawater carbonate system creates unique properties for air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  exchange. The seawater carbonate system includes several different carbonate species, i.e.,  $\text{CO}_2$ , carbonic acid, bicarbonate, carbonate. Among these species, only  $\text{CO}_2$  is directly involved in the air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  exchange. There is a dynamic equilibrium between these carbonate species. When the seawater temperature varies, these carbonate species repartition and gradually approach a new equilibrium. The relaxation time (the time after which a perturbation has reached  $e^{-1}$  of its initial value) for this equilibration depends on pH and temperature. For typical seawater (pH  $\sim 8.2$ , total dissolved inorganic carbon  $\sim 2000 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ , and salinity  $\sim 35$ ) at  $\sim 25^\circ\text{C}$ , the relaxation time is  $\sim 13 \text{ s}$  (Johnson, 1982; Zeebe & Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). For warmer seawater (e.g.,  $\sim 30^\circ\text{C}$ ), the relaxation time is shorter ( $\sim 11 \text{ s}$ ) (Johnson, 1982; Zeebe & Wolf-Gladrow, 2001), while for colder seawater, the relaxation time is longer. Therefore, the timescale of the chemical repartitioning of the  $\text{CO}_2$  system is at least  $10 \text{ s}$ . i.e., if the seawater temperature varies, more than  $10 \text{ s}$  is required for the carbonate species to approach equilibrium.

There is a temperature gradient in the thermal boundary layer (TBL), and the temperature at the top of the TBL is lower than that at the bottom of the TBL due to the cool skin effect. The typical thickness of the TBL ( $L$ ) is  $1 \text{ mm}$  (Jähne, 2009). The mass boundary layer (MBL) is at the top of the TBL with a typical thickness of  $0.1 \text{ mm}$  (Jähne, 2009). Molecular diffusion dominates water mass transport within MBL. There is a viscous boundary layer (VBL) below the MBL and the VBL has a similar thickness as the TBL (i.e.,  $L \sim 1 \text{ mm}$ ) (Jähne, 2009). Viscous dissipation dominates water mass transport in the VBL (Jähne, 2009). The kinematic viscosity ( $\nu$ ) is  $\sim 1 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  at  $25^\circ\text{C}$  seawater ( $\nu$  is larger at colder seawater). So, the timescale of water mixing in the TBL (below the MBL) is  $\sim 1 \text{ s}$  ( $L^2/\nu$ ).

## **Text S3. SST Dataset for Air-Sea $\text{CO}_2$ Flux Estimates**

The SST data used for flux estimates differ between studies. Table S1 lists SST datasets used in eight global observation-based (i.e.,  $f\text{CO}_2$ -based) air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux estimates. Within a specific study, the same global gap-free SST dataset is typically used for the calculation of Schmidt number,  $Sc$ , solubility at the base of the MBL,  $\alpha_w$ , and at the air-sea interface,  $\alpha_i$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  fugacity in the atmosphere,  $f\text{CO}_{2a}$ , and for the  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  mapping, while the *in-situ* bulk water temperature ( $T_{\text{Bulk}}$ ) measured concurrently with  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  is used for correcting individual  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  from the equilibrator temperature to the seawater temperature.

An exception to the above is Watson et al. (2020), which co-located the DOISST v2.0 ( $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , monthly data) (Reynolds et al., 2007) to the individual  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  measurements in SOCAT (Goddijn-Murphy et al., 2015). The co-located DOISST v2.0 was used to re-calculate  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  (via Equation 2 in the main text). Watson et al. (2020) showed that SOCAT SST is on average  $0.13 \pm 0.78$  K higher than the co-located DOISST v2.0, and the SOCAT  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  is on average  $1.65 \pm 11.98$   $\mu\text{atm}$  higher than the re-calculated  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$ . Watson et al. (2020) and this study are the only two studies that considered the cool skin effect. Watson et al. (2020) applied a constant cool skin correction (0.17 K) to the satellite subskin SST product (i.e., DOISST v2.0 minus 0.17 K) for the calculation of  $\alpha_i$  and  $f\text{CO}_{2a}$ . In addition, Watson et al. (2020) used HadISST for the mapping process instead of the SST product used to calculate the other variables (i.e., DOISST v2.0).

As discussed in the main text, a global gap-free  $T_{\text{Subskin}}$  product is an important practical SST for the air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux calculation. However, only some of the global gap-free SST products in Table S1 (MOISST v2, DOISST v2.0, OAF flux, and CCI SST v2.1) represent the subskin temperature, while the others (ASMD, ARMOR3D, MGDSSST, HadISST) correspond to the temperature of bulk seawater.

#### **Text S4. Comparison of Three Satellite SST Products**

The satellite SST product is expected to provide a consistent subskin temperature which can be used for calculating global  $Sc$ ,  $\alpha_w$ ,  $\alpha_i$ , and  $f\text{CO}_{2a}$  and for mapping  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$ . Recent research compared eight global gap-free satellite/blend SST products (ESA CCI SST v2.0, ERA5, HadISST1, DOISST v2.1, MUR25 v4.2, MGDSSST, BoM Monthly SST, OSITASST) and showed that the global mean of these eight SST products ranges from  $20.02^\circ\text{C}$  to  $20.17^\circ\text{C}$  (for the period 2003-2018 with 95% confidence level) (Yang et al., 2021). So, a bias potentially exists in some or all of these satellite SST products. In addition, among these eight satellite SST products, only the CCI SST (Merchant et al., 2019; Merchant & Embury, 2020) and the DOISST (Huang et al., 2021; Reynolds et al., 2007) represent the subskin temperature (Yang et al., 2021). The other SST products provide a bulk temperature for a depth below the subskin. So, hereafter, only the CCI SST and the OISST (DOISST and MOISST) are assessed.

There are two types of OISST products: 1)  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , monthly OI.V2 SST (MOISST), which is derived by linear interpolation of the  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , weekly OI.v2 SST fields to daily fields which are then averaged over a month (Reynolds et al., 2002); 2)  $1/4^\circ \times 1/4^\circ$ , daily OISST v2 (Reynolds et al., 2007) which has been replaced by DOISST v2.1 (Huang et al., 2021) with some quality improvements for data from January 1, 2016, onwards. DOISST data are constructed differently than the MOISST, although both use satellite-derived SST data with a calibration based on *in-situ* measurements (including both ICOADS ship and drifting buoy SST) (Freeman et al., 2017; Xu & Ignatov, 2014). With the warm bias in the ICOADS ship SST well-recognized by the SST community (Huang et al., 2017; Kennedy et al., 2011, 2019), a constant (0.14 K) is subtracted from the ICOADS ship SST to compensate for the large scale (global mean) ship-buoy SST difference (Reynolds & Chelton, 2010) before it is used to calibrate the DOISST v2.0. In addition, the latest research shows that the bias in the ICOADS ship SST has substantially reduced since 2006 (Kennedy et al., 2019). So for the DOISST v2.1 dataset, the ship-buoy SST difference has been set to 0.14 K from 1981 to 2015 and to 0.01 K from 2016 onwards (Huang et al., 2021). However, the warm bias in the ICOADS ship SST is not corrected for when it is used for the calibration of the MOISST. So the DOISST tends to be lower than the monthly MOISST, particularly in the 1980s and 1990s when ship SST data were dominant (Banzon et al., 2016).

Here we test the agreement between the gridded drifting buoy SST (as a reference SST; Xu & Ignatov, 2014) and three satellite SST products: CCI SST v2.1, MOISST v2, DOISST v2.1. Figure S1a shows a comparison between different SST products. The DOISST v2.1 is on average 0.09 K lower than the buoy SST (red curve), while the MOISST v2 is on average 0.01 K lower than the buoy SST (blue curve). The orange curve shows that the CCI SST v2.1 is on average 0.05 K lower than the buoy SST.

Although MOISST v2 has the smallest bias, it is an old SST product and has not been updated for a long time. The standard deviation (SD) of MOISST minus the buoy SST (blue line in Figure S1b) is larger than that of DOISST v2.1 (or CCI SST v2.1) minus buoy SST (red and orange lines in Figure S1b). Therefore, we suggest that the MOISST should better not be used for air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates.

The SD of DOISST v2.1 minus the buoy SST is similar to the SD of CCI SST v2.1 minus the buoy SST (red and orange line in Figure S1b). Therefore, both DOISST v2.1 and CCI SST v2.1 can be used for the air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates (i.e., calculating global  $Sc$ ,  $\alpha_w$ ,  $\alpha_i$ ,  $fCO_{2a}$ , and mapping  $fCO_{2w}$ ). However, as the *in-situ* SST measurements were employed for the validation process, DOISST and MOISST are not fully independent from the *in-situ* SSTs. The CCI SST is independent from the *in-situ* SST dataset because the CCI SST is not calibrated against *in-situ* SST measurements as a reduced-state-vector optimal estimation algorithm (Merchant et al., 2019) is used instead.

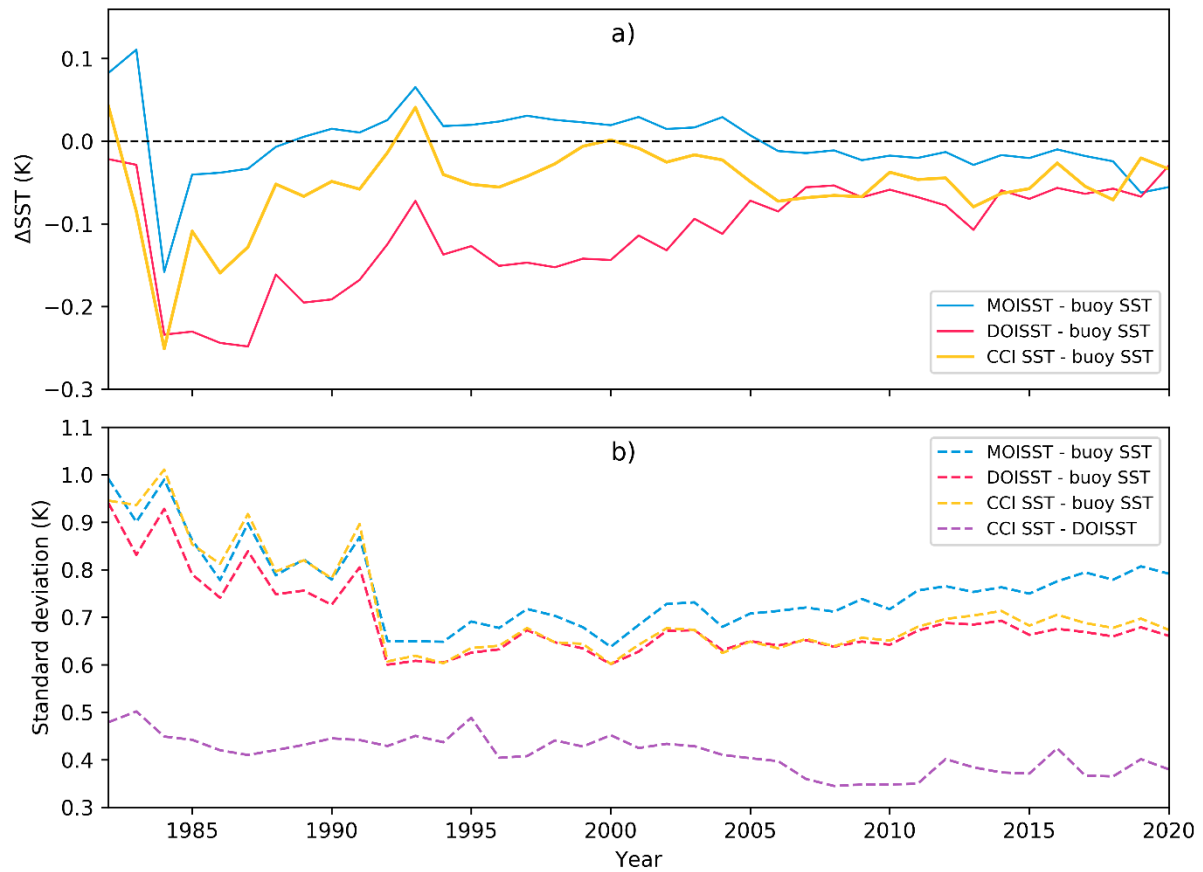
The purple line in Figure S1b shows that the SD of CCI SST v2.1 minus DOISST v2.1 is ~0.5 K and decreasing to ~0.4 K in recent years, which suggests that there is a discrepancy between these two satellite SST products. the SD of DOISST v2.0 minus SOCAT SST is ~0.8 K. The large SDs suggest that using any co-located satellite SST products to calculate  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  could significantly increase the uncertainty in  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  and thus the uncertainty in the estimated air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  flux.

#### **Text S5. Under-Sampling and inter-Annual Variation of the Bias Correction**

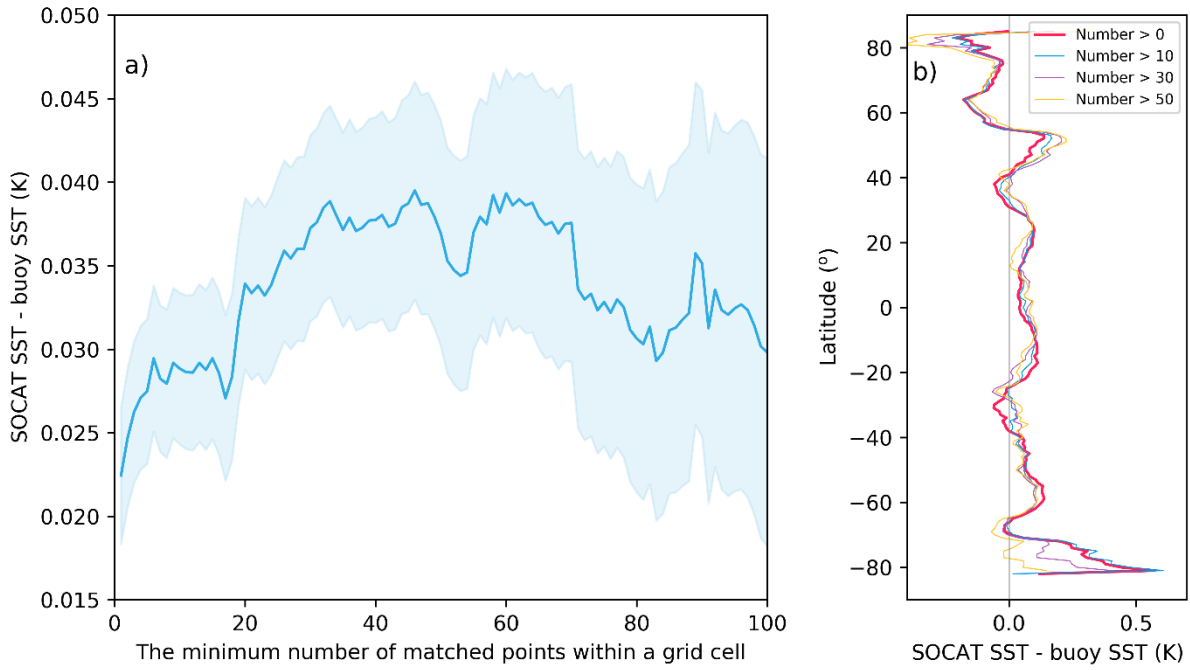
Due to the limited measurements in SOCAT and buoy SST datasets, especially during the 1980s, many grid cells only have a small number of SOCAT and buoy SST measurements. The number of measurements in grid cells might influence the comparison between the SOCAT SST and the buoy SST. Figure S2a shows the under-sampling issue and its influence on the average of SOCAT SST minus buoy SST. If we consider all matched grid cells, the average of SOCAT SST minus buoy SST is ~0.02 K. But if we consider cells with at least 10 measurements, the average of SOCAT SST minus buoy SST is ~0.03 K. However, Figure S2b suggests that under-sampling does not significantly influence the latitudinal variation of SOCAT SST minus buoy SST.

Figure S3 shows the inter-annual variation of the number of cells with SOCAT measurements and the bias correction for the SOCAT SST. We apply the latitudinal-varying bias correction (red curve in Figure S2b) to account for the bias in the SOCAT SST (use buoy SST as the reference). However, as the number of SOCAT measurements varies with year, and the measurements in years before 1990 are limited (blue bars in Figure S3), we do not consider inter-annual variation of the latitudinal-varying bias correction. Thus, the same bias correction value is applied to a specific latitude for every year (every month) between 1982 and 2020. However, as the spatial distribution of the SOCAT measurements is different in different years, the annual mean bias correction varies with year (red line in Figure S3).

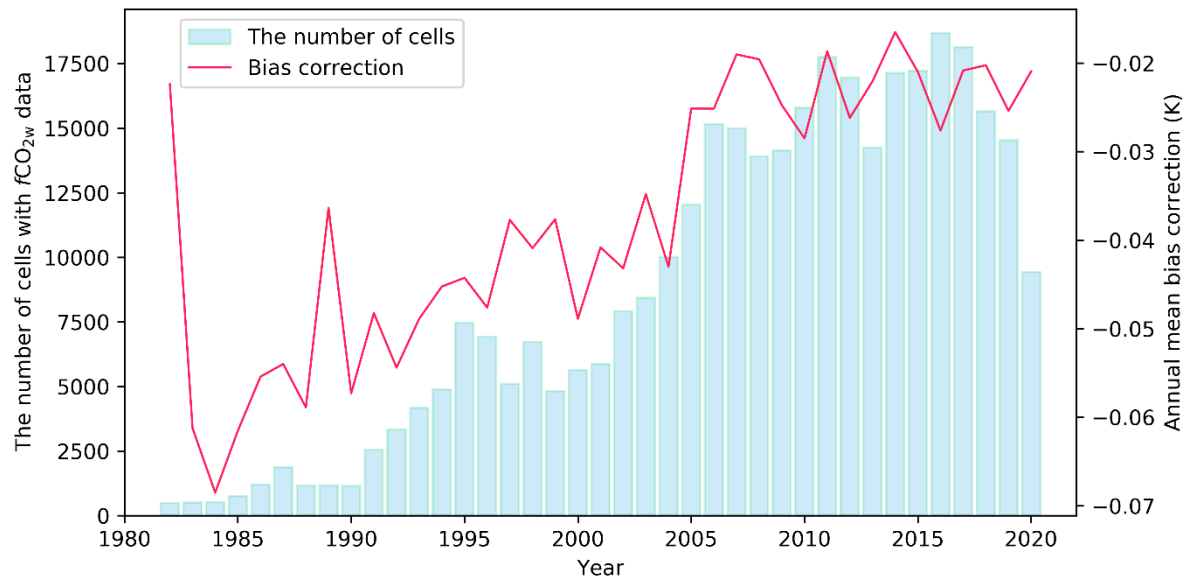




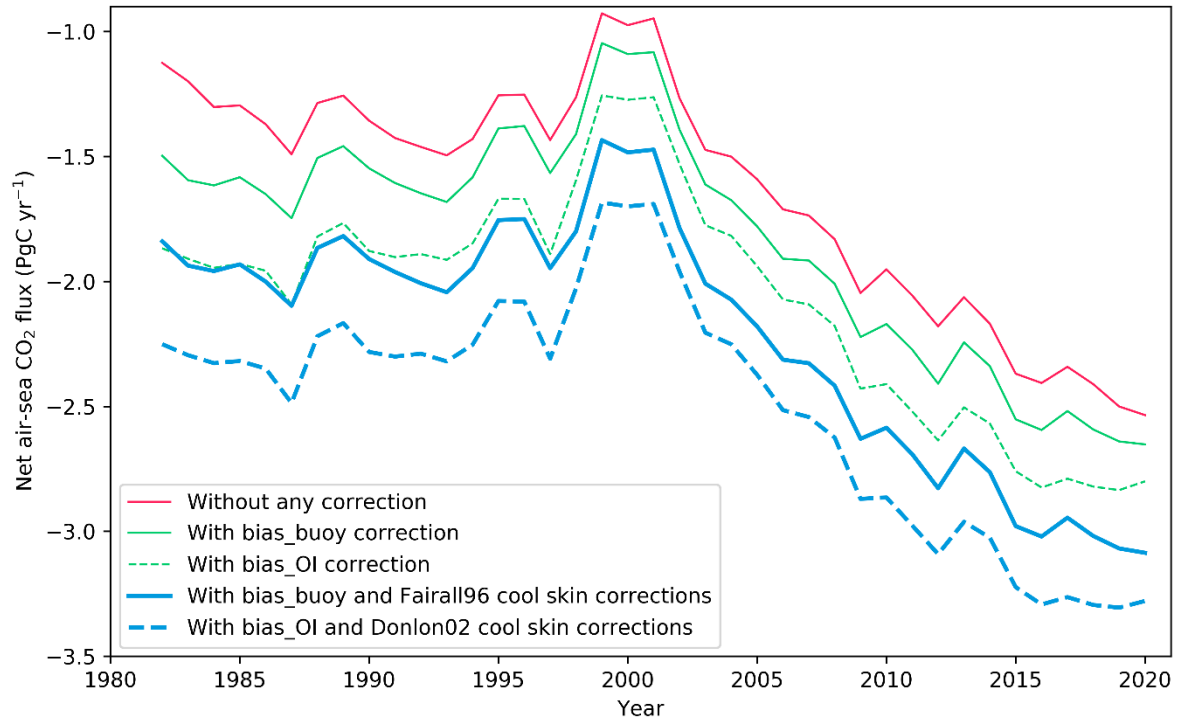
**Figure S1.** Time series of the global annual mean SST difference and its standard deviation between SST products. (a) The blue, red and orange lines represent the MOISST v2 (MOISST) minus drifting buoy SST, DOISST v2.1 (DOISST) minus buoy SST, and ESA CCI SST v2.1 (CCI SST) minus buoy SST, respectively. (b) The blue, red, orange, and purple dashed lines correspond to the standard deviation of MOISST minus buoy SST, DOISST minus buoy SST, CCI SST and buoy SST, and CCI SST minus DOISST, respectively.



**Figure. S2.** (a) Average of SOCAT SST minus buoy SST (from 1982 to 2020) versus the minimum number of matched points within a grid cell, and (b) the latitudinal variation of SOCAT SST minus buoy SST. The first (second) point in (a) represents the average temperature difference considering all grid cells with at least one (two) SOCAT and one (two) buoy measurement (s). The blue shading indicates one standard deviation. The red, blue, purple, and orange lines in (b) correspond to the average temperature difference for grid cells with at least one, eleven, thirty one, and fifty one matched SOCAT and buoy measurements, respectively .



**Figure S3.** The number of grid cells (per year) with measurements in the  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , monthly gridded SOCAT data (blue bars) and the inter-annual mean bias correction for the SOCAT SST (red line) assessed by the buoy SST.



**Figure S4.** Time series of the annual mean global net air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux calculated by interpolating the sea surface CO<sub>2</sub> fugacity ( $f\text{CO}_{2w}$ ) data in SOCATv2021 using a neural network-based method (Landschützer et al., 2013). Negative values represent ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake. The red, green, and blue solid lines represent the uncorrected flux, the flux with bias\_buoy correction (bias assessed by buoy SST), and the flux with bias\_buoy and Fairall96 cool skin corrections, respectively (this study). The green and blue dashed curves correspond to the flux with the bias\_OI (using co-located DOISST v2.1 to account for the bias in SOCAT SST) and Donlon02 cool skin corrections (Watson et al., 2020). The same datasets, interpolation method (Landschützer et al., 2013), and the Arctic and the coastal flux compensation method (Fay et al., 2021) are used for the flux calculations in the figure.

**Table S1.** Summary of the SST datasets used in global air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux estimates by the bulk flux method (Equation 1 in the main text). Acronyms of SST products and related references are in the footnotes.

Studies	Sc and $\alpha_w$	$\alpha_i$ and $f\text{CO}_{2a}$	Individual $f\text{CO}_{2w}$	$f\text{CO}_{2w}$ mapping
<b>Takahashi et al. (2009)</b>	ASMD	ASMD	<i>In-situ</i> $T_{\text{Bulk}}$	Interpolated $T_{\text{Bulk}}$
<b>Rödenbeck et al. (2013)</b>	OAFIux	OAFIux	<i>In-situ</i> $T_{\text{Bulk}}$	OAFIux
<b>Zeng et al. (2014) and Landschützer et al. (2016)</b>	MOISST v2	MOISST v2	<i>In-situ</i> $T_{\text{Bulk}}$	MOISST v2
<b>Denvil-Sommer et al. (2019)</b>	ARMOR3D	ARMOR3D	<i>In-situ</i> $T_{\text{Bulk}}$	ARMOR3D
<b>Gregor et al. (2019)</b>	DOISST v2.0	DOISST v2.0	<i>In-situ</i> $T_{\text{Bulk}}$	DOISST v2.0
<b>Watson et al. (2020)</b>	DOISST v2.0	DOISST v2.0 – 0.17 K	Co-located DOISST v2.0	HadISST
<b>Iida et al. (2021)</b>	MGDSST	MGDSST	<i>In-situ</i> $T_{\text{Bulk}}$	MGDSST
<b>This study</b>	CCI SST v2.1	CCI SST v2.1 with a Fairall96 cool skin correction	<i>In-situ</i> $T_{\text{Bulk}}$ with a bias correction assessed by buoy SST	CCI SST v2.1

ASMD: surface water temperature from the NOAA Atlas of Surface Marine Data (1994, as cited in Takahashi et al., 2009). OAFIux: SST from the Objectively Analysed Air-Sea Fluxes for the global oceans dataset (Yu & Weller, 2007). MOISST v2: NOAA Monthly Optimum Interpolation SST dataset version 2, also known as OI.V2 SST (Reynolds et al., 2002). ARMOR3D: SST from monthly global reprocessed products of physical variables from the ARMOR3D L4 dataset (Guinehut et al., 2012). DOISST v2.0: NOAA Daily Optimum Interpolation SST dataset version 2 (Banzon et al., 2016; Reynolds et al., 2007). HadISST: Hadley Centre Sea Ice and Sea Surface Temperature dataset (Rayner et al., 2003). MGDSST: Merged satellite and *in-situ* data global daily SST analysis dataset (Sakurai et al., 2005). CCI SST v2.1: European Space Agency Climate Change Initiative SST product (Merchant et al., 2019; Merchant & Embury, 2020). *In-situ*  $T_{\text{Bulk}}$  represents the *in-situ* bulk SST measurements in the LDEO and SOCAT datasets. The study of Takahashi et al. (Takahashi et al., 2009) used the LDEO (Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory)  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  dataset (Takahashi et al., 2008) while the other studies employed the SOCAT  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  dataset (Bakker et al., 2016). Co-located DOISST v2.0: the  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ , daily DOISST v2.0 is resampled to  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , monthly data and then co-located with the individual  $f\text{CO}_{2w}$  measurements in SOCAT (Goddijn-Murphy et al., 2015).

**Dataset S1 (Separate file: Flux corrections with different methods. *xlsx*):** Air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> flux corrections using different methods. Lines 2–5 represent the flux corrections for different years using bias\_buoy, bias\_OI, Fairall96, and Donlon02 temperature corrections, respectively. Lines 7–10 correspond to the flux corrections for different latitude bins using bias\_buoy, bias\_OI, Fairall96, and Donlon02 temperature corrections, respectively. For example, latitude -89.5 represent the median latitude of the latitude bin [-90, -89] and the corresponding flux correction represent the accumulated flux in this latitude bin.

## SI References

- Bakker, D. C. E., Bange, H. W., Gruber, N., Johannessen, T., Upstill-Goddard, R. C., Borges, A. V, et al. (2014). Air-sea interactions of natural long-lived greenhouse gases (CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub>) in a changing climate. In P. S. Liss & M. T. Johnson (Eds.), *Ocean-atmosphere interactions of gases and particles* (pp. 113–169). Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-25643-1\\_3](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-25643-1_3)
- Bakker, D. C. E., Pfeil, B., Landa, C. S., Metzl, N., O'Brien, K. M., Olsen, A., et al. (2016). A multi-decade record of high-quality *f*CO<sub>2</sub> data in version 3 of the Surface Ocean CO<sub>2</sub> Atlas (SOCAT). *Earth System Science Data*, 8(2), 383–413. <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-8-383-2016>
- Banzon, V., Smith, T. M., Mike Chin, T., Liu, C., & Hankins, W. (2016). A long-term record of blended satellite and in situ sea-surface temperature for climate monitoring, modeling and environmental studies. *Earth System Science Data*, 8(1), 165–176. <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-8-165-2016>
- Denvil-Sommer, A., Gehlen, M., Vrac, M., & Mejia, C. (2019). LSCE-FFNN-v1: a two-step neural network model for the reconstruction of surface ocean *p*CO<sub>2</sub> over the global ocean. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 12(5), 2091–2105. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-12-2091-2019>
- Fay, A. R., Gregor, L., Landschützer, P., McKinley, G. A., Gruber, N., Gehlen, M., et al. (2021). SeaFlux: Harmonization of air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes from surface *p*CO<sub>2</sub> data products using a standardized approach. *Earth System Science Data*, 13(10), 4693–4710. <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-13-4693-2021>
- Freeman, E., Woodruff, S. D., Worley, S. J., Lubker, S. J., Kent, E. C., Angel, W. E., et al. (2017). ICOADS Release 3.0: a major update to the historical marine climate record. *International Journal of*

230 *Climatology*, 37(5), 2211–2232. <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.4775>

231 Goddijn-Murphy, L. M., Woolf, D. K., Land, P. E., Shutler, J. D., & Donlon, C. (2015). The OceanFlux  
 232 Greenhouse Gases methodology for deriving a sea surface climatology of CO<sub>2</sub> fugacity in  
 233 support of air-sea gas flux studies. *Ocean Science*, 11(4), 519–541. [https://doi.org/10.5194/os-](https://doi.org/10.5194/os-11-519-2015)  
 234 [11-519-2015](https://doi.org/10.5194/os-11-519-2015)

235 Gregor, L., Lebehot, A. D., Kok, S., & Scheel Monteiro, P. M. (2019). A comparative assessment of the  
 236 uncertainties of global surface ocean CO<sub>2</sub> estimates using a machine-learning ensemble (CSIR-  
 237 ML6 version 2019a)-Have we hit the wall? *Geoscientific Model Development*, 12(12), 5113–5136.  
 238 <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-12-5113-2019>

239 Guinehut, S., Dhomps, A. L., Larnicol, G., & Le Traon, P. Y. (2012). High resolution 3-D temperature  
 240 and salinity fields derived from in situ and satellite observations. *Ocean Science*, 8(5), 845–857.  
 241 <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-8-845-2012>

242 Huang, B., Thorne, P. W., Banzon, V. F., Boyer, T., Chepurin, G., Lawrimore, J. H., et al. (2017). Extended  
 243 reconstructed sea surface temperature, version 5 (ERSSTv5): Upgrades, validations, and  
 244 intercomparisons. *Journal of Climate*, 30(20), 8179–8205. [https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-16-](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-16-0836.1)  
 245 [0836.1](https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-16-0836.1)

246 Huang, B., Liu, C., Banzon, V., Freeman, E., Graham, G., Hankins, B., et al. (2021). Improvements of the  
 247 daily optimum interpolation sea surface temperature (DOISST) version 2.1. *Journal of Climate*,  
 248 34(8), 2923–2939. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-20-0166.1>

249 Iida, Y., Takatani, Y., Kojima, A., & Ishii, M. (2021). Global trends of ocean CO<sub>2</sub> sink and ocean  
 250 acidification: an observation-based reconstruction of surface ocean inorganic carbon variables.  
 251 *Journal of Oceanography*, 77(2), 323–358. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10872-020-00571-5>

252 Jähne, B. (2009). Air-sea gas exchange. *Elements of Physical Oceanography: A Derivative of the*  
 253 *Encyclopedia of Ocean Sciences*, 160–169. [https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-409548-9.11613-](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-409548-9.11613-6)  
 254 [6](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-409548-9.11613-6)

255 Johnson, K. S. (1982). Carbon dioxide hydration and dehydration kinetics in seawater. *Limnology and*  
 256 *Oceanography*, 27(5), 849–855. <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.1982.27.5.0849>

257 Kennedy, J. J., Rayner, N. A., Smith, R. O., Parker, D. E., & Saunby, M. (2011). Reassessing biases and  
 258 other uncertainties in sea surface temperature observations measured in situ since 1850: 2.  
 259 Biases and homogenization. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 116(D14), 1–22.  
 260 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2010jd015220>

261 Kennedy, J. J., Rayner, N. A., Atkinson, C. P., & Killick, R. E. (2019). An ensemble data set of sea surface

- temperature change from 1850: The Met Office Hadley Centre HadSST.4.0.0.0 data set. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 124(14), 7719–7763. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018JD029867>
- Landschützer, P., Gruber, N., Bakker, D. C. E., Schuster, U., Nakaoka, S., Payne, M. R., et al. (2013). A neural network-based estimate of the seasonal to inter-annual variability of the Atlantic Ocean carbon sink. *Biogeosciences*, 10(11), 7793–7815. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-10-7793-2013>
- Landschützer, P., Gruber, N., & Bakker, D. C. E. (2016). Decadal variations and trends of the global ocean carbon sink. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 30(10), 1396–1417. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015GB005359>
- Merchant, C. J., & Embury, O. (2020). Adjusting for desert-dust-related biases in a climate data record of sea surface temperature. *Remote Sensing*, 12(16), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.3390/RS12162554>
- Merchant, C. J., Embury, O., Bulgin, C. E., Block, T., Corlett, G. K., Fiedler, E., et al. (2019). Satellite-based time-series of sea-surface temperature since 1981 for climate applications. *Scientific Data*, 6(1), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-019-0236-x>
- Pierrot, D., Neill, C., Sullivan, K., Castle, R., Wanninkhof, R., Lüger, H., et al. (2009). Recommendations for autonomous underway  $p\text{CO}_2$  measuring systems and data-reduction routines. *Deep-Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography*, 56(8–10), 512–522. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2008.12.005>
- Rayner, N. A., Parker, D. E., Horton, E. B., Folland, C. K., Alexander, L. V., Rowell, D. P., et al. (2003). Global analyses of sea surface temperature, sea ice, and night marine air temperature since the late nineteenth century. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 108(14). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2002jd002670>
- Reynolds, R. W., & Chelton, D. B. (2010). Comparisons of daily Sea surface temperature analyses for 2007–08. *Journal of Climate*, 23(13), 3545–3562. <https://doi.org/10.1175/2010JCLI3294.1>
- Reynolds, R. W., Rayner, N. A., Smith, T. M., Stokes, D. C., & Wang, W. (2002). An improved in situ and satellite SST analysis for climate. *Journal of Climate*, 15(13), 1609–1625. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442\(2002\)015<1609:AIISAS>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(2002)015<1609:AIISAS>2.0.CO;2)
- Reynolds, R. W., Smith, T. M., Liu, C., Chelton, D. B., Casey, K. S., & Schlax, M. G. (2007). Daily high-resolution-blended analyses for sea surface temperature. *Journal of Climate*, 20(22), 5473–5496. <https://doi.org/10.1175/2007JCLI1824.1>
- Rödenbeck, C., Keeling, R. F., Bakker, D. C. E., Metzl, N., Olsen, A., Sabine, C., & Heimann, M. (2013). Global surface-ocean  $p\text{CO}_2$  and sea-Air  $\text{CO}_2$  flux variability from an observation-driven ocean



- mixed-layer scheme. *Ocean Science*, 9(2), 193–216. <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-9-193-2013>
- Sakurai, T., Yukio, K., & Kuragano, T. (2005). Merged satellite and in-situ data global daily SST. In *Proceedings. 2005 IEEE International Geoscience and Remote Sensing Symposium, 2005. IGARSS'05.* (Vol. 4, pp. 2606–2608). IEEE.
- Takahashi, T., Sutherland, S. C., & Kozyr, A. (2008). Global ocean surface water partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> database: Measurements performed during 1968–2006 (Version 1.0). *ORNL/CDIAC-152, NDP-088. Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, US Department of Energy, Oak Ridge, TN, 37831*, 20.
- Takahashi, T., Sutherland, S. C., Wanninkhof, R., Sweeney, C., Feely, R. A., Chipman, D. W., et al. (2009). Climatological mean and decadal change in surface ocean pCO<sub>2</sub>, and net sea-air CO<sub>2</sub> flux over the global oceans. *Deep Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography*, 56(8–10), 554–577. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.DSR2.2008.12.009>
- Watson, A. J., Schuster, U., Shutler, J. D., Holding, T., Ashton, I. G. C., Landschützer, P., et al. (2020). Revised estimates of ocean-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> flux are consistent with ocean carbon inventory. *Nature Communications*, 11(1), 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-18203-3>
- Weiss, R. F. (1974). Carbon dioxide in water and seawater: the solubility of a non-ideal gas. *Marine Chemistry*, 2(3), 203–215. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-4203\(74\)90015-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-4203(74)90015-2)
- Xu, F., & Ignatov, A. (2014). In situ SST quality monitor (i Quam). *Journal of Atmospheric and Oceanic Technology*, 31(1), 164–180. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JTECH-D-13-00121.1>
- Yang, C., Leonelli, F. E., Marullo, S., Artale, V., Beggs, H., Nardelli, B. B., et al. (2021). Sea surface temperature intercomparison in the framework of the copernicus climate change service (C3S). *Journal of Climate*, 34(13), 5257–5283. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-20-0793.1>
- Yu, L., & Weller, R. A. (2007). Objectively analyzed air–sea heat fluxes for the global ice-free oceans (1981–2005). *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 88(4), 527–540. <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-88-4-527>
- Zeebe, R. E., & Wolf-Gladrow, D. (2001). *CO<sub>2</sub> in seawater: equilibrium, kinetics, isotopes*. Elsevier Science, pp. 85–140.
- Zeng, J., Nojiri, Y., Landschützer, P., Telszewski, M., & Nakaoka, S. (2014). A global surface ocean fCO<sub>2</sub> climatology based on a feed-forward neural network. *Journal of Atmospheric and Oceanic Technology*, 31(8), 1838–1849. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JTECH-D-13-00137.1>