

An assessment of CO₂ uptake in the Arctic Ocean from 1985 to 2018

Sayaka Yasunaka¹, Manfredi Manizza², Jens Terhaar³, Are Olsen⁴, Ryohei Yamaguchi⁵, Peter Landschützer⁶, Eiji Watanabe⁵, Dustin Carroll⁷, Hanani Adiwara¹, Jens Daniel Müller⁸, and Judith Hauck⁹

¹Tohoku University

²Scripps Institution of Oceanography

³Climate and Environmental Physics - University of Bern

⁴Geophysical Institute

⁵Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology

⁶Flanders Marine Institute (VLIZ)

⁷Moss Landing Marine Laboratories

⁸ETH Zürich

⁹Alfred Wegener Institute Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research

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Abstract

As a contribution to the Regional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes phase 2 (RECCAP2) project, we present synthesized estimates of Arctic Ocean sea-air CO₂ fluxes and their uncertainties from 8 surface ocean pCO₂-observation products, 18 ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models and 6 atmospheric inversions. For the period of 1985-2018, the Arctic Ocean was a net sink of CO₂ of 116 ± 4 TgC yr⁻¹ in the pCO₂ products and 92 ± 30 TgC yr⁻¹ in the models. The CO₂ uptake peaks in late summer and early autumn, and is low in winter when sea ice inhibits sea-air fluxes. The long-term mean CO₂ uptake in the Arctic Ocean is primarily caused by steady-state fluxes of natural carbon (70 ± 15 %), and enhanced by the atmospheric CO₂ increase (19 ± 5 %) and climate change (11 ± 18 %). The annual mean CO₂ uptake increased from 1985 to 2018 at a rate of 31 ± 13 TgC yr⁻¹dec⁻¹ in the pCO₂ products and 10 ± 4 TgC yr⁻¹dec⁻¹ in the models. Moreover, 77 ± 38 % of the trend in the net CO₂ uptake over time is caused by climate change, primarily due to rapid sea ice loss in recent years. Both, the mean CO₂ uptake and the trend, is substantially weaker in the atmospheric inversions. Uncertainties across all estimates are large, in the pCO₂ products because of scarcity of observations and in the models because of missing processes.

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4 Yamaguchi², Peter Landschützer^{8,9}, Eiji Watanabe², Dustin Carroll¹⁰, Hanani
5 Adiwira¹, Jens Daniel Müller¹¹, Judith Hauck¹²

6
7 ¹Graduate School of Science, Tohoku University, Sendai, Japan

8 ²Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Yokosuka, Japan

9 ³Geosciences Research Division, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of
10 California, San Diego, La Jolla, California, USA

11 ⁴Department of Marine Chemistry and Geochemistry, Woods Hole Oceanographic
12 Institution, Woods Hole, Massachusetts, USA

13 ⁵Physics Institute, University of Bern, Switzerland

14 ⁶Oeschger Centre for Climate Change Research, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland

15 ⁷Geophysical Institute, University of Bergen and Bjerknes Centre for Climate Research,
16 Bergen, Norway.

17 ⁸Flanders Marine Institute (VLIZ), Ostend, Belgium

18 ⁹Max Planck Institute for Meteorology, Hamburg, Germany

19 ¹⁰Moss Landing Marine Laboratories, San José State University, California, USA

20 ¹¹Environmental Physics, Institute of Biogeochemistry and Pollutant Dynamics, ETH
21 Zurich, Zürich, Switzerland

22 ¹²Alfred Wegener Institute for Polar and Marine Research, Bremerhaven, Germany

23
24 Corresponding author: Sayaka Yasunaka (yasunaka@tohoku.ac.jp)

25 26 Key Points (<140 characters)

- 27 • From 1985 to 2018, the Arctic Ocean is estimated to have been a net sink of CO₂
28 of 116 ± 4 TgC yr⁻¹ in *p*CO₂ products and 92 ± 30 TgC yr⁻¹ in ocean models
29 (137 characters)
- 30 • The main Arctic Ocean CO₂ uptake component is a steady-state natural carbon
31 flux (70 %) that is enhanced by atmospheric CO₂ increase (19 %) and climate
32 change (11 %) (138 characters)
- 33 • The CO₂ uptake increased over the analysis period (31 ± 13 TgC yr⁻¹dec⁻¹ in
34 *p*CO₂ products and 10 ± 4 TgC yr⁻¹dec⁻¹ in ocean models), mostly as a
35 consequence of decreasing sea ice (137 characters)

36

37 **Abstract (<250 words)**

38 As a contribution to the Regional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes phase 2
39 (RECCAP2) project, we present synthesized estimates of Arctic Ocean sea-air CO₂
40 fluxes and their uncertainties from 8 surface ocean pCO₂-observation products, 18
41 ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models and 6 atmospheric
42 inversions. For the period of 1985–2018, the Arctic Ocean was a net sink of CO₂ of 116
43 ± 4 TgC yr⁻¹ in the pCO₂ products and 92 ± 30 TgC yr⁻¹ in the models. The CO₂ uptake
44 peaks in late summer and early autumn, and is low in winter when sea ice inhibits sea-
45 air fluxes. The long-term mean CO₂ uptake in the Arctic Ocean is primarily caused by
46 steady-state fluxes of natural carbon (70 ± 15 %), and enhanced by the atmospheric CO₂
47 increase (19 ± 5 %) and climate change (11 ± 18 %). The annual mean CO₂ uptake
48 increased from 1985 to 2018 at a rate of 31 ± 13 TgC yr⁻¹dec⁻¹ in the pCO₂ products and
49 10 ± 4 TgC yr⁻¹dec⁻¹ in the models. Moreover, 77 ± 38 % of the trend in the net CO₂
50 uptake over time is caused by climate change, primarily due to rapid sea ice loss in
51 recent years. Both, the mean CO₂ uptake and the trend, is substantially weaker in the
52 atmospheric inversions. Uncertainties across all estimates are large, in the pCO₂
53 products because of scarcity of observations and in the models because of missing
54 processes. (239 words)

55

56 **Plain Language Summary (<200 words)**

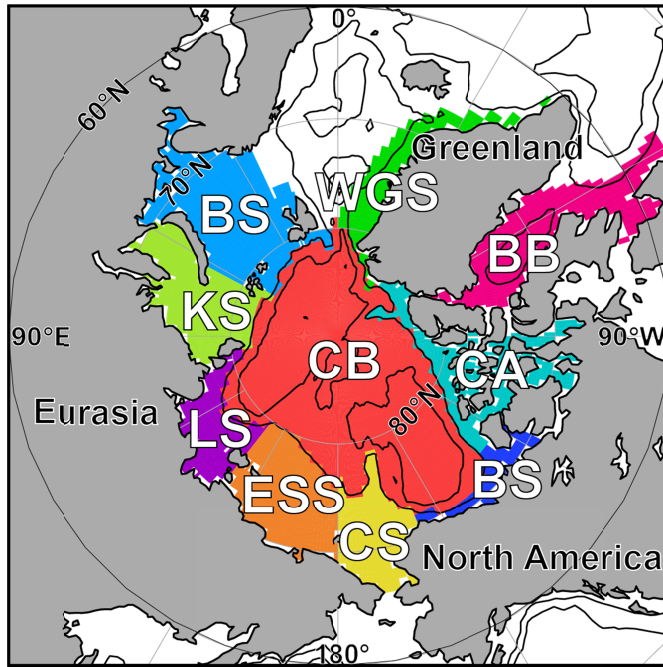
57 The Arctic Ocean is at present a net sink for atmospheric CO₂ mainly due to the intense
58 cooling of the inflowing waters from the Atlantic and the Pacific. Global warming is
59 amplified in the Arctic Ocean and it experiences rapid retreat of sea ice. Here, we
60 present synthesized estimates of the Arctic Ocean CO₂ uptake and their uncertainties
61 from 32 estimates obtained with different methods. Almost all estimates suggest that the
62 Arctic Ocean is a net sink of CO₂ from 1985 to 2018. The CO₂ uptake is strong in late
63 summer and early autumn and weak in winter corresponding to the seasonal variation of
64 sea ice. The CO₂ uptake increased in recent years, especially in regions that have
65 experienced sea ice loss. Compared to the global ocean, the Arctic Ocean is unique
66 because climate change, in particular the change in sea ice cover, has enhanced the
67 ocean CO₂ uptake almost as much as the increase in atmospheric CO₂ over the past 34
68 years. Moreover, this climate effect on the Arctic Ocean CO₂ uptake has become more
69 important in recent years and is the current main driver for the trend towards an
70 increasing CO₂ uptake in the Arctic Ocean. (198 words)

71

72 **1. Introduction**

73 The Arctic Ocean, which consist of complex subregions that include continental
74 shelves and a central basin (Figure 1), has previously been estimated to represent a sink
75 for atmospheric CO₂ that corresponds to 5–14% of the net global ocean CO₂ uptake
76 (Bates & Mathis, 2009; Manizza et al., 2013, 2019; Yasunaka et al., 2018). The rapid
77 cooling of the inflowing Atlantic and Pacific waters through the Barents Sea and the
78 Chukchi Sea (Vowinckel & Orvig, 1962) increases the solubility of CO₂ (Weiss, 1974)
79 and hence allows these waters to take up CO₂ from the atmosphere (Anderson & Kaltin,
80 2001). The sea-air CO₂ flux is mainly modulated by the sea ice cover that acts as a
81 barrier for the exchange of gasses across the sea-air interface, the surface ocean partial
82 pressure of CO₂ ($p\text{CO}_{2w}$), and the wind speed (Bates & Mathis, 2009). While sea ice
83 cover and wind speed are relatively well known from satellite missions and reanalysis
84 products (e.g., Comiso et al., 2008; Hersbach et al., 2020), large uncertainties in $p\text{CO}_{2w}$
85 remain and make it challenging to quantify both the direction and magnitude of the sea-
86 air CO₂ exchange (Yasunaka et al. 2018). In the Arctic Ocean, $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ is influenced by
87 many factors, such as ocean heat loss and gain, influx of Atlantic and Pacific water
88 masses, biological production and respiration, sea ice formation and melting, river
89 discharge, land-ocean carbon fluxes from rivers and coastal erosion, vertical mixing,
90 and shelf–basin interactions (Anderson et al., 2009; Bates, 2006; Bates & Mathis, 2009;
91 Fransson et al., 2017, Kaltin & Anderson, 2005; Manizza et al., 2011, Olsen et al.,
92 2015; Terhaar et al., 2019a; Terhaar et al., 2019b; Oziel et al., 2022). The combination
93 of these environmental drivers results in large spatio-temporal variations of the Arctic
94 Ocean CO₂ uptake.

95



97
 01 **Figure 1.** Regional mask in the Arctic Ocean: Central Basin (CB), western Greenland
 02 Sea (WGS), Baffin Bay (BB), Canadian Archipelago (CA), Beaufort Shelf (BS),
 03 Chukchi Sea (CS), East Siberian Sea (ESS), Laptev Sea (LS), Kara Sea (KS), Barents
 104 Sea (BS). Contour lines show 1000 m and 3000 m isobaths.

102

118 As global warming progresses and sea ice further retreats (Notz & Stroeve, 2016),
 119 sea-air CO₂ fluxes in the Arctic Ocean might become more important over the 21st
 120 century. In recent decades, Arctic surface air temperatures have been increasing at least
 121 twice as fast as globally averaged surface air temperatures (Meredith et al., 2019;
 122 Rantanen et al., 2022). This is known as “Arctic Amplification” (Screen & Simmonds,
 123 2010) and results in rapid sea ice decline. Melting of sea ice increases the open water
 124 area and thus enhances the potential for atmospheric CO₂ uptake (e.g., Anderson &
 125 Kaltin, 2001; Bates et al., 2006; Gao et al., 2012; Qi et al., 2022). The CO₂ uptake might
 126 also be increased by enhanced primary production in the Arctic Ocean due to more light
 127 availability at the ocean surface (Arrigo & van Dijken, 2015) and increased nutrient
 128 delivery from rivers and coastal erosion (Frey and McClelland, 2009; Terhaar et al.,
 129 2019b). However, other processes may suppress the CO₂ uptake. For example,
 130 increasing seawater temperatures, declining buffer capacity due to the freshening of
 131 Arctic Ocean surface water by increased river runoff and melting of sea ice, increased
 132 vertical mixing supplying high-CO₂ water to the surface, and increased carbon fluxes
 133 from land (Bates et al., 2014; Bates & Mathis, 2009; Cai et al., 2010; Chierici et al.,

118 2011; Else et al., 2013; Hauri et al., 2013; Fransson et al., 2017; McGuire et al., 2010;
119 Tank et al., 2016; Terhaar et al., 2019b). Furthermore, an increased inflow of Atlantic
120 water (Wang et al., 2020; Oziel et al., 2020) that is rich in anthropogenic carbon
121 (MacGilchrist et al., 2014; Terhaar et al., 2019a) will likely further decrease the CO₂
122 flux and can even result in outgassing of anthropogenic CO₂ (Anderson and Olsen,
123 2002; Völker et al., 2002, Terhaar et al., 2020). For the end of the 21st century, Earth
124 System Models predict a reversal of the *p*CO_{2w} seasonality in Arctic Ocean surface
125 waters (Orr et al., 2022), with so far unknown consequences for the functioning of the
126 Arctic Ocean CO₂ sink.

127 For the assessment of changes in *p*CO_{2w} and sea-air CO₂ flux, including their regional
128 and seasonal patterns, it is crucial to establish a baseline against which changes can be
129 evaluated. However, establishing such a baseline in the Arctic Ocean is complicated due
130 to sparse observations in this hostile and remote ocean basin, especially in the sea ice
131 covered regions and periods (Yasunaka et al. 2016). As a result, the current uncertainty
132 of Arctic Ocean CO₂ flux estimates is large, despite the use of various statistical
133 techniques and numerical models (Bates & Mathis, 2009; Yasunaka et al., 2018). Bates
134 and Mathis (2009) summarized regional CO₂ flux estimates from the Arctic Ocean and
135 arrived at a net sink strength of between 66 and 199 TgC yr⁻¹. In addition, the first
136 implementation of the Regional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes project
137 (RECCAP) also assessed the Arctic Ocean CO₂ fluxes, but treated the Arctic Ocean as
138 one part of the “large-scale Atlantic Ocean basin” north of 44°S (Schuster et al., 2013).
139 In the first implementation of RECCAP, a small Arctic Ocean CO₂ sink of 50 ± 30 Tg C
140 yr⁻¹ was estimated from available observational *p*CO_{2w}-based estimates, ocean
141 biogeochemical model outputs and atmospheric inversions. However, it was concluded
142 that one could not reliably constrain the Arctic Ocean CO₂ uptake because of limited
143 data and poorly resolved processes in the physical and/or biogeochemical models. Since
144 that assessment, the number of available *p*CO_{2w} measurements have continuously
145 increased (>60% of available *p*CO_{2w} data in the Arctic Ocean have been collected after
146 2010), and ocean biogeochemical models have improved in terms of spatial resolution
147 and additional processes such as eddy transport (Chassignet et al., 2020), sea ice
148 ecosystem (Watanabe et al., 2019), and riverine nutrient and carbon input (e.g., Séférian
149 et al., 2019) in some models.

150 Here we build on these recent developments and present an updated assessment of the
151 Arctic Ocean CO₂ uptake as part of the RECCAP phase 2 (RECCAP2) project. In this
152 dedicated Arctic Ocean chapter, we integrate and assess recent results from *p*CO₂
153 products based on *p*CO_{2w} observations, from ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data

154 assimilation models and from atmospheric inversions, and present synthesized estimates
155 of the Arctic Ocean CO₂ uptake together with its drivers and uncertainties. We also
156 examine CO₂ fluxes in the various subregions of the Arctic Ocean and their seasonal
157 and interannual variations.

158

159 **2. Data and Methods**

160 **2.1 Regional Mask**

161 The Arctic Ocean is here defined by the RECCAP2 regional mask (Figure 1). The
162 outer boundary follows Fay and McKinley (2014), which defined the Arctic Ocean as
163 the ocean having more than 50% of sea ice concentration (SIC) in the period
164 1998–2010, with some modifications: the boundary between the Arctic Ocean and the
165 North Atlantic extends to 56°N in the Labrador Sea while at 25°E it is located at the
166 northern tip of the Scandinavian peninsula. The boundary between the Arctic Ocean and
167 the North Pacific is set to the Bering Strait following the World Ocean Atlas 2009
168 (Levitus, 2013).

169 The Arctic Ocean is further divided into 10 subregions, the Central Basin, the western
170 Greenland Sea, the Baffin Bay (including the western Labrador Sea), the Canadian
171 Archipelago, the Beaufort Shelf, the Chukchi Sea, the East Siberian Sea, the Laptev Sea,
172 the Kara Sea, and the Barents Sea (Figure 1). The boundary between the Central Basin
173 and the surrounding marginal shelf seas is defined by the 1000 m isobath. The
174 RECCAP2 mask here is different to the mask that was used by Bates and Mathis (2009)
175 and in the first phase of RECCAP (Schuster et al., 2013); neither of these included the
176 Baffin Bay and the western Greenland Sea in the Arctic Ocean.

177

178 **2.2 Sea-air CO₂ flux and *p*CO_{2w} estimates**

179 The estimates of the sea-air CO₂ flux and *p*CO_{2w} in the Arctic Ocean used in this
180 study were obtained from 8 *p*CO₂ products based on *p*CO_{2w} observations, 18 ocean
181 biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models, and 6 atmospheric inversions
182 (Table 1). Among them, 24 data sets belong to the RECCAP2 data compilation (see
183 DeVries et al. submitted for detail). All RECCAP2 data sets that cover the Arctic Ocean
184 were used. FESOM_REcoM_HR, which was not included in the global chapter, was
185 used in addition to FESOM_REcoM_LR here because its high spatial resolution allows
186 better representation of the carbon dynamics in the marginal shelf seas and of the
187 horizontal transports in and out of the Arctic Ocean (Chassignet et al., 2020). Another
188 four datasets were used exclusively in the Arctic chapter of RECCAP2: Arctic-SOM,
189 SOM-FFN-extended, Arctic_NEMURO-C, and ECCO2-Darwin. Arctic-SOM is an

190 observational $p\text{CO}_2$ based product for the Arctic Ocean calculated using the self-
 191 organizing map technique by Yasunaka et al. (2018) here extended until 2017. SOM-
 192 FFN-extended is an updated $p\text{CO}_2$ product including the Arctic Ocean, in contrast to the
 193 standard SOM-FFN that is part of RECCAP2 data compilation. The largest difference
 194 from the standard SOM-FFN is, besides the inclusion of the Arctic domain, the use of a
 195 different mixed layer depth product (MIMOC, Schmidtko et al., 2013) as part of the
 196 explaining parameters. These changes are documented in Landschützer et al. (2020).
 197 Arctic_NEMURO-C is an ocean biogeochemical model including sea ice ecosystem
 198 component, coupled with the pan-Arctic sea ice-ocean model COCO (Watanabe et al.,
 199 2019). ECCO2-Darwin is an ocean biogeochemical model with assimilation of physical
 200 data, which simulates the global ocean but with the main focus in the Arctic Ocean
 201 (Manizza et al., 2019).

202

203 **Table 1.** CO_2 flux and $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ estimates used in this study. # denotes the models that
 204 used for the ensemble mean of CO_2 uptake in the Arctic Ocean. * denotes the models
 205 that conducted all additional simulations required to decompose the CO_2 fluxes (Sims A
 206 to D; see text for details).

Name	Period	Notes	Reference
$p\text{CO}_2$ products			
AOML-EXTRAT	1997-2020	No data in sea ice region	Pierrot et al. (2009)
CMEMS-FFNN	1985-2018	No data in sea ice region	Chau et al. (2022)
Jena-MLS#	1985-2018		Rödenbeck et al. (2022)
NIES-ML3	1985-2021	No data in sea ice region	Zeng et al. (2022)
OceanSODAETHZ#	1985-2018		Gregor and Gruber (2021)
Takahashi-climatology	-	Climatology; No data in sea ice region	Takahashi et al. (2009)
Arctic-SOM	1997-2017	Arctic only	Yasunaka et al. (2018)
SOM-FFN-extended#	1983-2019		Landschützer et al. (2020)
Ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models			
CCSM-WHOI*	1958-2017	No riverine carbon flux	Doney et al. (2009)
CESM-ETHZ#*	1980-2018		Yang and Gruber (2016)
CNRM-ESM2#*	1980-2018		Seferian et al. (2019)
EC-Earth3#*	1980-2018		Doscher et al. (2022)
ECCO-Darwin	1995-2018	Data assimilation; No riverine carbon flux	Carroll et al. (2020)
FESOM_REcoM_HR#	1980-2018	No riverine carbon flux	Hauck et al. (2020)

FESOM_REcoM_LR#*	1980-2018	No riverine carbon flux	Hauck et al. (2020)
MOM6-Princeton#	1980-2018		Stock et al. (2020)
MPIOM-HAMOCC#*	1980-2019	No riverine carbon flux	Mauritsen et al. (2019)
MRI-ESM2#*	1980-2018	No riverine carbon flux	Urakawa et al. (2020)
NorESM-OC1.2#*	1980-2018	No riverine carbon flux	Schwinger et al. (2016)
OCIMv2021#	1980-2018	Data assimilation; Abiotic model; Constant circulation; No riverine carbon flux	DeVries (2022)
OCIMv2014	1980-2017	CO ₂ flux only; Data assimilation; Abiotic model; Constant circulation; No riverine carbon flux	DeVries (2014)
ORCA1-LIM3-PISCES#*	1980-2018		Aumont et al. (2015)
ORCA025-GEOMAR#*	1980-2018	No riverine carbon flux	Kriest and Oschlies (2014)
Planktom12#*	1980-2018		Wright et al. (2021)
Arctic_NEMURO-C#	1979-2018	Arctic only; No riverine carbon flux	Watanabe et al. (2019)
ECCO2-Darwin	2006-2013	Data assimilation; No riverine carbon flux	Manizza et al. (2019)

Atmospheric inversions

CAMS#	1980-2020	CO ₂ flux only	Chevallier (2020)
CTE	1990-2020	CO ₂ flux only	van der Laan-Luijkx et al. (2017)
Jena-CarboScope	2001-2020	CO ₂ flux only	Rödenbeck et al. (2018)
UoE-in-situ	1990-2020	CO ₂ flux only	Feng et al. (2016)
NISMON-CO2	2010-2020	CO ₂ flux only	Niwa et al. (2017)
CMS-Flux	2001-2020	CO ₂ flux only	Liu et al. (2021)

207

208 The $p\text{CO}_2$ products are based on observed $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ values, and fill temporal and spatial
209 gaps in the observations by various techniques (e.g., multiple regressions and machine
210 learning). The models are forced with historical time-evolving atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$
211 ($p\text{CO}_{2a}$) and surface boundary conditions (such as atmospheric temperature, humidity
212 and wind fields; Simulation (Sim) A). In addition to the global and regional ocean
213 biogeochemical hindcast models, ocean data assimilation models that assimilate
214 observed distributions of temperature, salinity, and other physical and/or chemical
215 parameters are used. Since there is not a large difference in CO₂ flux and $p\text{CO}_{2w}$
216 between the hindcast models and the data assimilation models (see Figure S1 and S2),
217 they are treated as a single category. Potential model drift in the sea-air CO₂ flux was
218 assessed as the slope of a linear regression applied to the CO₂ flux in a pre-industrial
219 control simulation with constant $p\text{CO}_{2a}$ and climatological-mean atmospheric forcing
220 (Sim B). As this drift in the Arctic Ocean surface fluxes is less than 2% of the decadal

221 trend, it is neglected and Sim A without any drift adjustments is used to estimate the
222 long-term mean and seasonal as well as interannual variations of the sea-air CO₂ flux
223 and *p*CO_{2w} in this study. However, potential constant biases in the CO₂ flux (too large
224 natural uptake or outgassing of CO₂) related to the models not being fully equilibrated
225 might be larger. Unfortunately, such biases cannot be assessed by these simulations and
226 are hence an intrinsic component of the net CO₂ flux uncertainty in the models. The
227 atmospheric inversions used atmospheric transport models and observed atmospheric
228 CO₂ levels to assess sources and sinks of CO₂.

229 For each estimate, monthly CO₂ fluxes and *p*CO_{2w} were interpolated onto a regular
230 1° × 1° grid. Regional area-weighted means and spatial integrals were calculated based
231 on the basin mask shown in Figure 1. Long-term and annual means of individual
232 estimates were calculated over the period of 1985–2018, the years for which most
233 estimates provided data. In some cases, products and models did not fully cover this
234 period, these means are then based on data from available years. Ensemble means and
235 ensemble standard deviations of the *p*CO₂ products and the ocean biogeochemical
236 hindcast and data assimilation models were calculated from 1985 to 2018. The number
237 of estimates used for the ensemble means vary among the regions (see numbers in
238 brackets in Table 2). For the atmospheric inversions, only one inversion (CAM5) covers
239 the period from 1985 to 2018.

240 The areas where sea-air CO₂ flux and *p*CO_{2w} estimates exist in the individual *p*CO₂
241 products, ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models or inversions are
242 not identical. Several *p*CO₂ products (AOML-EXTRAT, CMEMS-FFNN, NIES-ML3,
243 and Takahashi-clim) have, for example, no estimates in the sea ice covered area (see
244 Figures S1 and S2). The data coverage along the coastline also differs among the
245 products, models and inversions. To minimize biases due to the differences in area
246 coverage, regional CO₂ flux and *p*CO_{2w} averages are calculated only where data was
247 available for at least 80% of the total region's area (see Table S1). For example, area
248 averaged values in the Arctic Ocean, the Central Basin, and the Canadian Archipelago
249 are not calculated from AOML-EXTRAT, CMEMS-FFNN, NIES-ML3, and Takahashi-
250 clim, as their areal coverage is below 80% in these regions. For the regional CO₂ uptake,
251 first the area-weighted average of flux density was calculated using the areas covered by
252 each estimate, and then it was scaled up using the same area for all datasets. The
253 uncertainty associated with this scaling is determined by comparing scaled regional CO₂
254 uptakes from minimum coverage and from maximum coverage, using the estimates
255 which cover the whole area. This is estimated to be smaller than 4%, which is much less
256 than the standard deviation among the estimates.

257 Specific SIC and sea surface temperature (SST) datasets used as predictor variables in
258 the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and those simulated in the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data
259 assimilation models are used for driver analysis in this study. Part of the $p\text{CO}_2$ products
260 and all models included in the RECCAP2 data compilation provide SIC and SST. For
261 the $p\text{CO}_2$ products that did not provide SIC and SST, Hadley Centre Sea Ice and SST
262 data set (Rayner et al. 2003), National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
263 (NOAA) /National Snow and Ice Data Center Climate Data Record of Passive
264 Microwave Sea Ice Concentration version 2 (Meier et al., 2013), and NOAA Optimum
265 Interpolation SST Version 2 (Reynolds et al., 2002) were used for our analysis.

266

267 **2.3 $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ and $p\text{CO}_{2a}$ observations**

268 Direct $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ observations available in the Surface Ocean CO_2 Atlas (SOCAT)
269 version 6 (Bakker et al., 2016) and the Global Surface $p\text{CO}_2$ Database version 2017
270 (LDEOv2017; Takahashi et al., 2018) were combined, and binned on a regular $1^\circ \times 1^\circ \times$
271 1 month grid after removing duplicates and extreme values (see Yasunaka et al., 2018,
272 for the detailed procedure), and used to evaluate the $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ estimates in the $p\text{CO}_2$
273 product and the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models.

274 Zonal mean data for the atmospheric CO_2 mixing ratio ($x\text{CO}_{2a}$) from the NOAA
275 Greenhouse Gas Marine Boundary Layer Reference product (Conway et al., 1994) were
276 interpolated into $1^\circ \times 1^\circ \times 1$ month grid-cells assuming even $x\text{CO}_{2a}$ values across all
277 longitudes, and converted to $p\text{CO}_{2a}$ using SST data from the NOAA Optimum
278 Interpolation SST Version 2 (Reynolds et al., 2002) and sea level pressure from the US
279 National Centers for Environmental Prediction–Department of Energy Reanalysis 2
280 (NCEP2) (Kanamitsu et al., 2002).

281

282 **2.4 Assessment of components of the net sea-air CO_2 flux**

283 Most of the ocean biogeochemical hindcast models provide additional simulations
284 that allow quantifying different components of the sea-air CO_2 flux (Table 1). In
285 addition to the historical run with historical time-evolving $p\text{CO}_{2a}$ and historical time-
286 evolving atmospheric forcing (Sim A), and the pre-industrial control run with constant
287 $p\text{CO}_{2a}$ and climatological-mean atmospheric forcing (Sim B), two simulations with
288 historical time-evolving $p\text{CO}_{2a}$ and climatological-mean atmospheric forcing (Sim C),
289 and constant $p\text{CO}_{2a}$ and historical time-evolving atmospheric forcing (Sim D) were
290 performed by most hindcast models.

291 The additional simulations from the ocean biogeochemical hindcast models, allow for
292 the separation of the sea-air CO_2 flux into different components (see DeVries et al.

293 submitted for detail). Here, we decompose the net CO₂ flux in two ways. The first
294 decomposition split the net CO₂ flux into the flux of natural carbon (Sim D) and the flux
295 of anthropogenic carbon (Sim A – Sim D):

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Net CO}_2 \text{ flux (Sim A)} \\ & = \text{Natural CO}_2 \text{ flux (Sim D)} + \text{Anthropogenic CO}_2 \text{ flux (Sim A – Sim D)}. \quad (1) \end{aligned}$$

296 In this first decomposition, both the natural and the anthropogenic fluxes do not
297 distinguish between flux components that represent a steady-state and that are affected
298 by climate change and variability.

299 The second decomposition splits the net CO₂ flux into the natural CO₂ flux in steady
300 state (Sim B), the CO₂ flux driven by increasing *p*CO_{2a} alone (referred to as the CO₂
301 effect; Sim C – Sim B), and the CO₂ flux due to climate change and variability (referred
302 to as the climate effect; Sim A – Sim C):

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Net CO}_2 \text{ flux (Sim A)} \\ & = \text{Natural CO}_2 \text{ flux in steady state (Sim B)} \\ & \quad + \text{CO}_2 \text{ flux by CO}_2 \text{ effect (Sim C – Sim B)} \\ & \quad + \text{CO}_2 \text{ flux by climate effect (Sim A – Sim C)}. \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

303 In this second decomposition, the climate-driven CO₂ flux does not distinguish between
304 fluxes of anthropogenic or natural carbon.

305

306 **3. Results**

307 **3.1 Comparison with observed values**

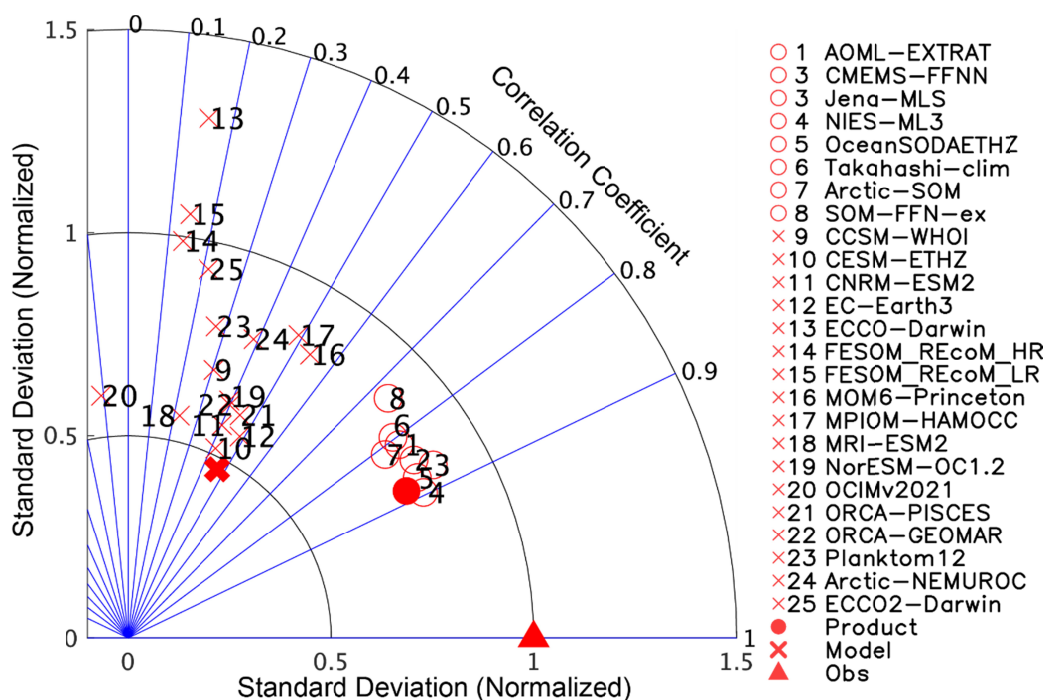
308 The estimates of *p*CO_{2w} from the *p*CO₂ products and the ocean biogeochemical
309 hindcast and data assimilation models were evaluated by comparing them to available
310 observed values of *p*CO_{2w} at the same time and location on the 1° × 1° × 1 month grid.

311 All individual *p*CO₂ products are better correlated with observed values (correlation
312 coefficients are 0.7–0.9) than the models (correlation coefficients are lower than 0.6;
313 Figure 2a). Both the *p*CO₂ products and the models underestimate the variability in
314 *p*CO_{2w} in time and space. The standard deviations of the *p*CO₂ products over time and
315 space are about 80% of the standard deviation of the observations. The standard
316 deviations of the ocean biogeochemical models are mostly smaller than 80% of the
317 observation and often smaller than 60%, while one data assimilation model (ECCO-
318 Darwin) is 130%. The ensemble means of products and models, tend to slightly better
319 correlate with observations than the individual products and models (the correlation
320 coefficient is 0.88 for the ensemble mean of products and 0.47 for that of models), but
321 this comes at the cost of a lower agreement on the magnitude of variability, i.e.,
322 averaging tends to smooth the values (the standard deviations of the ensemble means

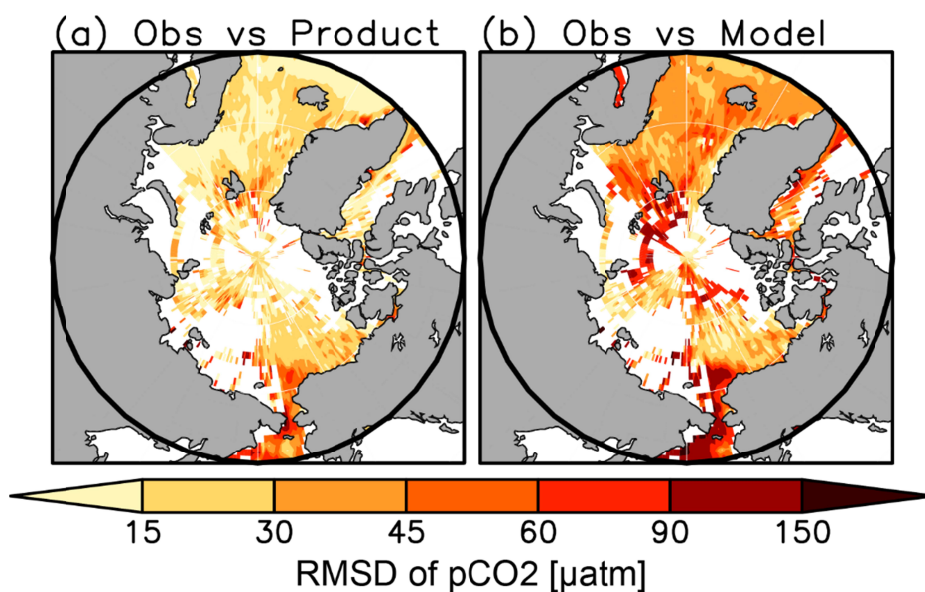
328 are 78% of the observations in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and 47% in the ocean biogeochemical
 329 hindcast and data assimilation models). Differences between the observation and the
 330 ensemble means of products and models are particularly large in the Chukchi Sea and
 331 around 85°N (root mean squared difference is $30\text{--}90\ \mu\text{atm}$ in the products and $90\text{--}150$
 332 μatm in the models in those regions; Figures 2b and 2c).

339 The better agreement of $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and observed $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ reflects
 340 that the $p\text{CO}_2$ products use the $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ observations as basis for their estimates (and not
 341 independent data), and does not ensure a good performance of the $p\text{CO}_2$ products in
 342 data-sparse regions. Unfortunately, the lack of independent measurements prevents us
 343 from quantifying the performance of the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and the ocean biogeochemical
 344 hindcast and data assimilation models in data-sparse regions. Furthermore, the monthly
 345 means of the observed $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ may not be comparable to the estimated $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ in the
 346 products and the models. They are sometimes based on measurements from one single
 347 cruise in that month and may not be representative of the monthly mean $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ values
 348 in regions with large day-to-day variation and within-grid-cell spatial variability
 349 (Yasunaka et al., 2016).

340



341



342

350 **Figure 2.** (a) Taylor diagram of $p\text{CO}_{2w}$. The radial distance from the origin represents
 351 the standard deviation of $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ in each estimate relative to that of the available
 352 observations. The azimuthal angle represents the correlation coefficient of $p\text{CO}_{2w}$
 353 between individual estimate and the observation. (b, c) Root mean squared difference
 354 between observed and ensemble mean $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ from $p\text{CO}_2$ products (b) and ocean
 355 biogeochemical models (c). $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ from $p\text{CO}_2$ products and ocean biogeochemical
 356 hindcast and data assimilation models were subsampled at the same time and location as
 357 the observations.

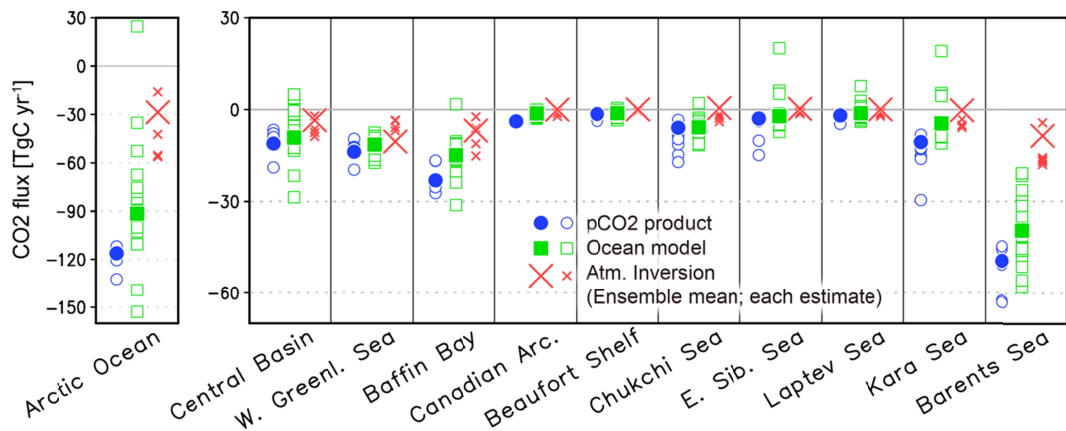
351

352 3.2 Long-term mean

353 3.2.1 Sea-air CO_2 flux and $p\text{CO}_{2w}$

363 The long-term mean sea-air CO_2 flux shows that the Arctic Ocean acted as a sink for
 364 CO_2 from the atmosphere (Figure 3; Table S1). Averaged and scaled up, the CO_2 flux
 365 over the Arctic Ocean from 1985 to 2018 yields an uptake of $116 \pm 4 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1}$ in the
 366 $p\text{CO}_2$ products (average over 2 products) and $92 \pm 30 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1}$ in the ocean
 367 biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models (average over 14 models)
 368 (Ensemble mean \pm ensemble standard deviation; Figure 3; Tables 1, 2 and S1). The
 369 Arctic Ocean CO_2 uptake in the atmospheric inversion (CAMS) is much weaker (29
 370 TgC yr^{-1}). All individual estimates except one data assimilation model (OCIMv2014)
 371 agree that the Arctic Ocean acted as a sink for atmospheric CO_2 over the 1985 to 2018
 372 period (Figure 3; Table S1).

364



365

372 **Figure 3.** Long-term mean sea-air CO₂ flux. Closed or large marks indicate ensemble
 373 means and open or small marks indicate individual estimates (blue circle, *p*CO₂
 374 products; green square, ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models;
 375 red cross, atmospheric inversions) averaged over the period of 1985–2018 (or in some
 376 cases the longest period covered by the estimate). Negative values indicate a CO₂ flux
 377 into the ocean. Ensemble means are calculated by using the estimates which cover the
 378 full period of 1985–2018.

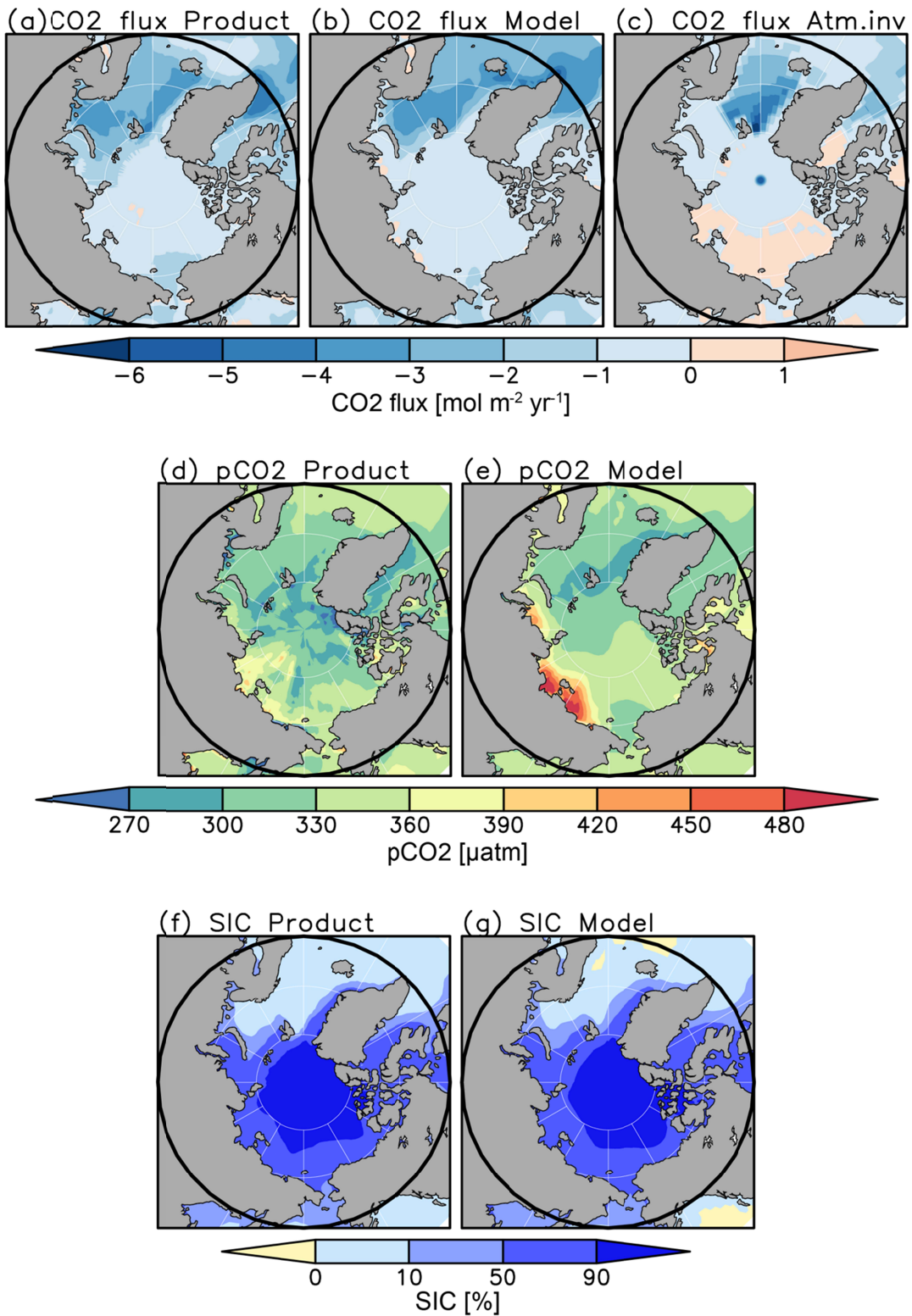
373

377 **Table 2.** Ensemble mean and ensemble standard deviation of the long-term mean sea-
 378 air CO₂ flux from 1985 to 2018 in each region [TgC yr⁻¹]. Negative values indicate a
 379 CO₂ flux into the ocean. The numbers in brackets indicate the number of estimates to
 380 calculate the ensemble means.

378

Region	Sea-air CO ₂ flux [TgC yr ⁻¹]		
	<i>p</i> CO ₂ product	Ocean model	Atm. inversion
Arctic Ocean	-116.2 ± 4.3 (2)	-91.5 ± 30.0 (14)	-28.7 (1)
Central Basin	-11.1 ± 5.5 (3)	-9.1 ± 8.4 (14)	-3.5 (1)
W. Greenland Sea	-13.8 ± 4.3 (3)	-11.4 ± 2.8 (14)	-10.4 (1)
Baffin Bay	-23.1 ± 4.6 (3)	-14.9 ± 5.3 (14)	-6.9 (1)
Canadian Arc.	-3.8 (1)	-1.3 ± 1.0 (11)	-0.0 (1)
Beaufort Shelf	-1.4 ± 0.0 (2)	-1.2 ± 1.2 (11)	0.1 (1)
Chukchi Sea	-5.9 ± 2.6 (2)	-5.8 ± 1.7 (13)	0.5 (1)
E. Siberian Sea	-2.9 ± 0.0 (2)	-2.1 ± 3.7 (13)	0.3 (1)
Laptev Sea	-1.9 ± 0.4 (2)	-1.2 ± 1.8 (13)	0.1 (1)
Kara Sea	-10.6 ± 2.4 (2)	-5.0 ± 5.4 (13)	-0.2 (1)

	Barents Sea	-49.4 ± 7.5 (4)	-39.5 ± 11.8 (14)	-8.6 (1)
378				
379				



382

383 **Figure 4.** Long-term mean CO₂ flux (a–c), pCO_{2w} (d, e), and SIC (f, g) in the period of

382 1985–2018 for ensemble means of $p\text{CO}_2$ products (a, d, f), ocean biogeochemical
383 hindcast and data assimilation models (b, e, g), and atmospheric inversion (c). Negative
384 values indicate CO_2 flux into the ocean in panel a–c.

385

386 The ensemble mean of the regional sea-air CO_2 flux shows ocean uptake larger than
387 the standard deviation in all regions in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products, and in most regions in the
388 ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models except for the East
389 Siberian Sea, the Laptev Sea, and the Kara Sea (Figure 3; Table 2). Both the $p\text{CO}_2$
390 products and the models show the largest uptake per unit area in the Barents Sea (sea-air
391 CO_2 flux $< -3 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), and smaller to medium uptake in the western Greenland
392 Sea, the Baffin Bay, and the Chukchi Sea (sea-air CO_2 flux -2 – $-1 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; Figures
393 4a and 4b). Some individual models even show outgassing of CO_2 in the Central Basin
394 (FESOM_REcoM_HR and FESOM_REcoM_LR), the Baffin Bay (OCIMv2014), and
395 the coastal areas such as the Chukchi Sea (ECCO-Darwin), the East Siberian Sea
396 (FESOM_REcoM_HR, FESOM_REcoM_LR and OCIMv2014), the Laptev Sea
397 (FESOM_REcoM_HR, FESOM_REcoM_LR, OCIMv2014 and Planktom12), and the
398 Kara Sea (FESOM_REcoM_HR, FESOM_REcoM_LR, OCIMv2014 and Planktom12)
399 (Figure S1; Table S1).

400 The regional CO_2 uptake in the atmospheric inversions is smaller than in the $p\text{CO}_2$
401 products and the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models (Tables 2
402 and S1). CAMS shows outgassing in the Beaufort Shelf, the Chukchi Sea, the East
403 Siberian Sea, and the Laptev Sea, and only small CO_2 uptake in the Barents Sea (sea-air
404 CO_2 flux $> -1 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; Figures 3, 4c and S1).

405 The spatial distribution of the standard deviation of CO_2 flux among the individual
406 estimates are different between the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and the ocean biogeochemical
407 hindcast and data assimilation models; it is large ($> 1 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) in the Barents, the
408 Chukchi Sea, and around 80°N in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products, and in the Barents Sea and the
409 coastal region of the Kara Sea and the Laptev Sea in the models (Figures S3a and S3b).

410 In line with the overall negative sea-air CO_2 flux in the Arctic Ocean, the annual
411 mean of $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ from 1985 to 2018 is lower than the annual mean of the $p\text{CO}_{2a}$ (~ 390
412 μatm) in almost all regions except for the coastal region along the Eurasian Continent
413 (Figures 4d and 4e). The standard deviation among the individual estimates is smaller in
414 the $p\text{CO}_2$ products than in the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation
415 models (Figures S3c and S3d). For the $p\text{CO}_2$ products, the standard deviation is smaller
416 than $30 \mu\text{atm}$ except for smaller areas in the coastal and sea ice edge regions. On the
417 other hand, the standard deviation in the models is more than $90 \mu\text{atm}$ in the coastal

418 region along the Eurasian coast due to the high $p\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$ ($> 480 \mu\text{atm}$) in several models
419 there.

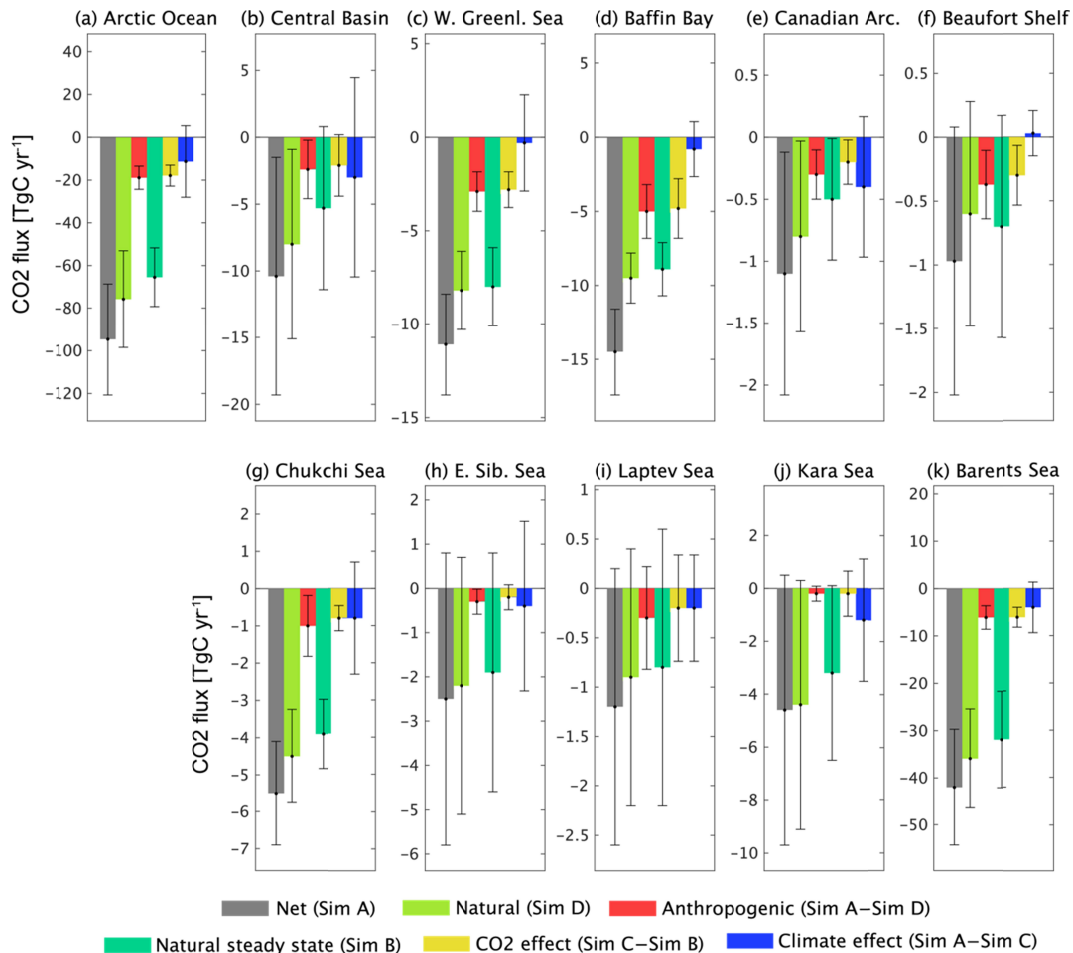
420 The spatial patterns of the sea-air CO_2 flux are different from those of the $p\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$, and
421 correspond with the SIC (Figure 4). The largest uptake across all products occurs in the
422 Barents Sea, of which $>50\%$ remains ice free even in winter (Årthun, M. et al., 2012).
423 Moreover, this is a region where $p\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$ is substantially reduced because of the large
424 heat loss from the Atlantic waters that flow in from the southwest (Lundberg and
425 Haugen, 1996). Medium CO_2 uptake in the western Greenland Sea, the Baffin Bay and
426 the Chukchi Sea corresponds to moderate SIC and low $p\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$. Although very low
427 $p\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$ ($< 330 \mu\text{atm}$) is estimated for the Central Basin, the CO_2 uptake is small as thick
428 sea ice does not allow for sea-air gas exchange. In the East Siberian Sea, the Laptev Sea
429 and the Kara Sea, the CO_2 uptake is small or even outgassing in some biogeochemical
430 hindcast and data assimilation models because $p\text{CO}_{2\text{w}}$ is relatively high due to large
431 influxes of organic and inorganic carbon from rivers and coastal erosion (Figures 4a-e,
432 S1 and S2; Anderson et al., 2009; Manizza et al., 2011; Tank et al., 2012; Vonk et al.,
433 2012; Tanski et al., 2021).

434

435 **3.2.2 Natural and anthropogenic sea-air CO_2 flux and the climate and CO_2 effect**

436 The net Arctic Ocean CO_2 uptake of $93 \pm 27 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1}$ in the hindcast models
437 (number is different from that in Table 2 because the uptake here is the average only
438 over those models that have also provided Sims B, C and D; see Table 1) is the sum of a
439 large uptake of natural carbon ($74 \pm 23 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1}$; $80 \pm 25 \%$ of the net uptake) and a
440 smaller uptake of anthropogenic carbon ($19 \pm 6 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1}$; $20 \pm 22 \%$) (Figure 5).
441 Regionally, the relative importance of the flux of anthropogenic carbon is large on the
442 North American side from the Baffin Bay ($36 \pm 12 \%$) to the Beaufort Shelf ($34 \pm 12 \%$)
443 and small on the Eurasian continent side from the Chukchi Sea ($18 \pm 16 \%$) to the
444 Barents Sea ($14 \pm 5 \%$).

445



447

448

455 **Figure 5.** Decomposition of the long-term mean CO₂ flux (Net; Sim A; gray) into the
 456 natural CO₂ flux (Sim D; light green) and the anthropogenic CO₂ flux (Sim A – Sim D;
 457 red), and into the natural CO₂ flux in steady state (Sim B; aqua), and the CO₂ flux
 458 attributed to the CO₂ effect (Sim C – Sim B; yellow) and the climate effect (Sim A –
 459 Sim C; blue). Negative values indicate CO₂ flux into the ocean. Error bars denote the
 460 standard deviation of the flux components across the ensemble of individual ocean
 461 biogeochemical hindcast models.

456

462 The net sea-air CO₂ flux can also be divided into the steady state natural flux, the
 463 CO₂ fluxes due to the atmospheric CO₂ increase alone, and the CO₂ fluxes caused by
 464 climate change and variability (Figure 5). The background steady state natural flux
 465 accounts for the largest part of the net Arctic Ocean CO₂ uptake ($65 \pm 14 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1}$; $70 \pm$
 466 15% of the net uptake), and is enhanced by $18 \pm 5 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1}$ ($19 \pm 5 \%$) via the CO₂
 467 effect and by $10 \pm 17 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1}$ ($11 \pm 18 \%$) via the climate effect. The anthropogenic

462 CO₂ uptake in the Arctic Ocean (19 TgC yr⁻¹) is almost fully due to the CO₂ effect (18
463 TgC yr⁻¹). The climate effect is split into the climate effect on the anthropogenic flux
464 (19 – 18 = 1 TgC yr⁻¹) and the climate effect on the natural flux in non-steady state (10
465 – 1 = 9 TgC yr⁻¹). Regionally, although the climate effect varies strongly among the
466 individual models, it is on average almost nonexistent in the western Greenland Sea, the
467 Baffin Bay, and the Beaufort Shelf. In the remaining regions the climate effect is of
468 similar magnitude or even larger than the CO₂ effect. In contrast to the Arctic Ocean,
469 the CO₂ effect is much larger than the climate effect in the Southern Ocean (the other
470 polar ocean) and the global ocean where the CO₂ flux via the CO₂ effect is 2.1 PgC yr⁻¹
471 of uptake and the flux from the climate effect is 0.2 PgC yr⁻¹ of outgassing, respectively
472 (DeVries et al. submitted). The Arctic Ocean is thus a unique ocean basin where climate
473 change plays a role of similar magnitude as the increase in atmospheric CO₂ in
474 controlling the sea-air fluxes of CO₂.

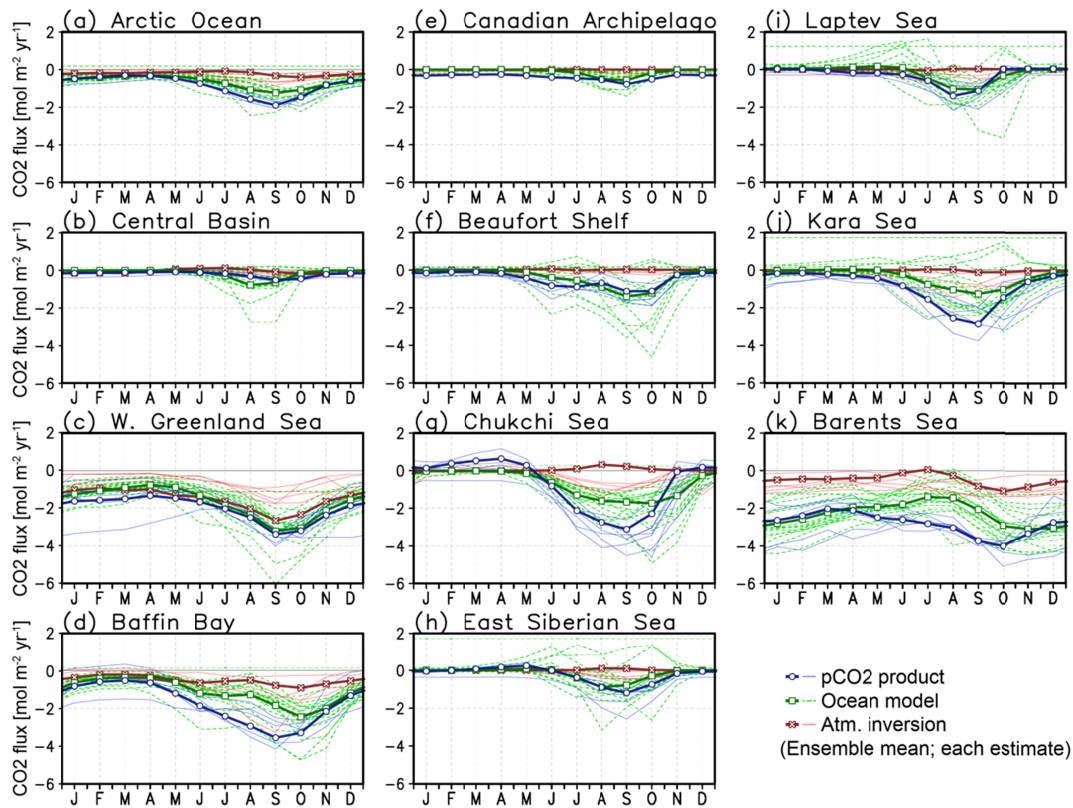
475 The similar strength of the CO₂ effect and the climate effect in the Arctic Ocean
476 requires a relatively strong climate effect and a relatively weak CO₂ effect, compared to
477 other ocean basins. The climate effect is strong in the Arctic due to fast warming (Arctic
478 Amplification; Screen & Simmonds, 2010; Meredith et al., 2019) and the rapid
479 reduction in sea ice coverage that increases the amount of open water and the potential
480 of sea-air CO₂ exchange. Furthermore, the relatively weak CO₂ effect may be caused by
481 the inflowing surface waters from the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean that have already
482 taken up the anthropogenic CO₂ in the Pacific and Atlantic Ocean and thus decrease the
483 importance of the anthropogenic CO₂ flux and hence the CO₂ effect in the Arctic Ocean
484 (Olsen et al., 2015; Terhaar et al., 2019a).

485

486 3.3 Seasonal cycle

487 The CO₂ uptake in the Arctic Ocean is largest in late summer and early autumn
488 (August–October), and smallest in winter and spring (January–May) (Figure 6a). The
489 phasing of the seasonal cycle is similar in all subregions of the Arctic Ocean (Figures
490 6b–6j) except the Barents Sea, which has a relatively constant CO₂ uptake throughout
491 the entire year (Figure 6k). The seasonal amplitude of the sea-air CO₂ flux is large in the
492 western Greenland Sea, the Baffin Bay, the Chukchi Sea, and the Kara Sea (mostly > 2
493 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹; Figures 6c, 6d, 6g, and 6j, respectively), and small in the Central Basin
494 and the Canadian Archipelago (mostly < 1 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹; Figures 6b and 6e).
495 OCIMv2014 has no seasonal cycle of CO₂ flux because of the annual time steps of this
496 model (DeVries, 2014).

497



499

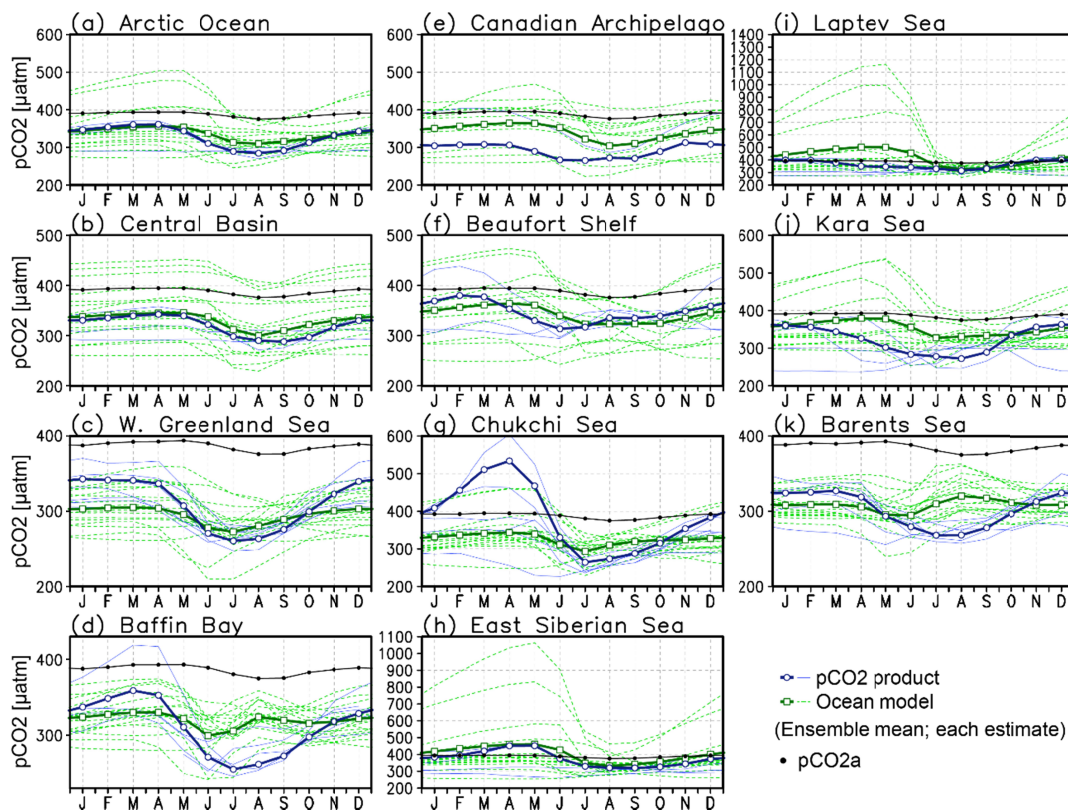
404 **Figure 6.** Monthly climatology of CO₂ flux averaged over the period of 1985–2018 (or
 505 the longest period available). Thick lines with marks indicate ensemble means, and thin
 506 lines indicate individual estimates (blue and circle, *p*CO₂ products; green and square,
 507 ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models; red and cross,
 508 atmospheric inversions). Negative values indicate CO₂ flux into the ocean.

505

517 The seasonal amplitude of the CO₂ flux tends to be larger in the *p*CO₂ products than
 518 in the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models (Figure 6). The
 519 largest differences in CO₂ uptake between *p*CO₂ products and the models occur in
 520 in spring in the Chukchi Sea, and in summer in the Baffin Bay and the Kara Sea (Figures
 521 6d, 6g and 6j, respectively). Seasonal variation is small in the atmospheric inversions
 522 with some exceptions: in the western Greenland Sea (CAMs), the Baffin Bay (Jena-
 523 CarboScope), the Chukchi Sea (all inversions but CAMs), and the Kara Sea (CTE,
 524 Jena-CarboScope, UoE-in-situ and NISMON-CO₂) (Figures 6b–6j). The phasing of the
 525 seasonal cycle in the Barents Sea differs among the categories of estimates; CO₂ uptake
 526 based on the *p*CO₂ products is on average largest in October and smallest in April,
 527 while the models and the atmospheric inversion have their summer minimum uptake in
 528 July (Figure 6k). Large differences in the phasing of the seasonal cycle also exist in

521 several ocean biogeochemical hindcast models (FESOM_REcoM_HR,
 522 FESOM_REcoM_LR, Planktom12, and Arctic_NEMRO-C) that show CO₂ release in
 523 the East Siberian Sea, the Laptev Sea, and/or the Kara Sea from spring to autumn
 524 (Figures 6h–6j).

531 The average $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ in the Arctic Ocean peaks in late winter to early spring
 532 (February–May), and reaches a minimum in summer (July–August) (Figure 7a), which
 533 slightly precedes the seasonal cycle of the sea-air CO₂ flux (Figure 6a). For the $p\text{CO}_2$
 534 products, this pattern is apparent in all subregions, but the ocean biogeochemical
 535 hindcast and data assimilation models simulate highest $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ levels in the Barents Sea
 536 and the Baffin Bay during mid-summer (Figures 7d and 7k). $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ in the Chukchi Sea
 537 in spring is higher in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products than in the models (Figure 7g). A few ocean
 538 biogeochemical hindcast model estimates show high $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ (> 500 μatm) values in
 539 winter and spring in the East Siberian Sea, the Laptev Sea and the Kara Sea
 540 (FESOM_REcoM_HR, FESOM_REcoM_LR, and Arctic_NEMROC; Figures 7h–7j).
 532



533 **Figure 7.** Monthly climatology of $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ averaged over the period of 1985–2018 (or
 535 the longest period available). Tick lines with marks indicate ensemble means, and thin
 536

537 lines indicate individual estimates (blue and circle, $p\text{CO}_2$ products; green and square,
 538 ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models).

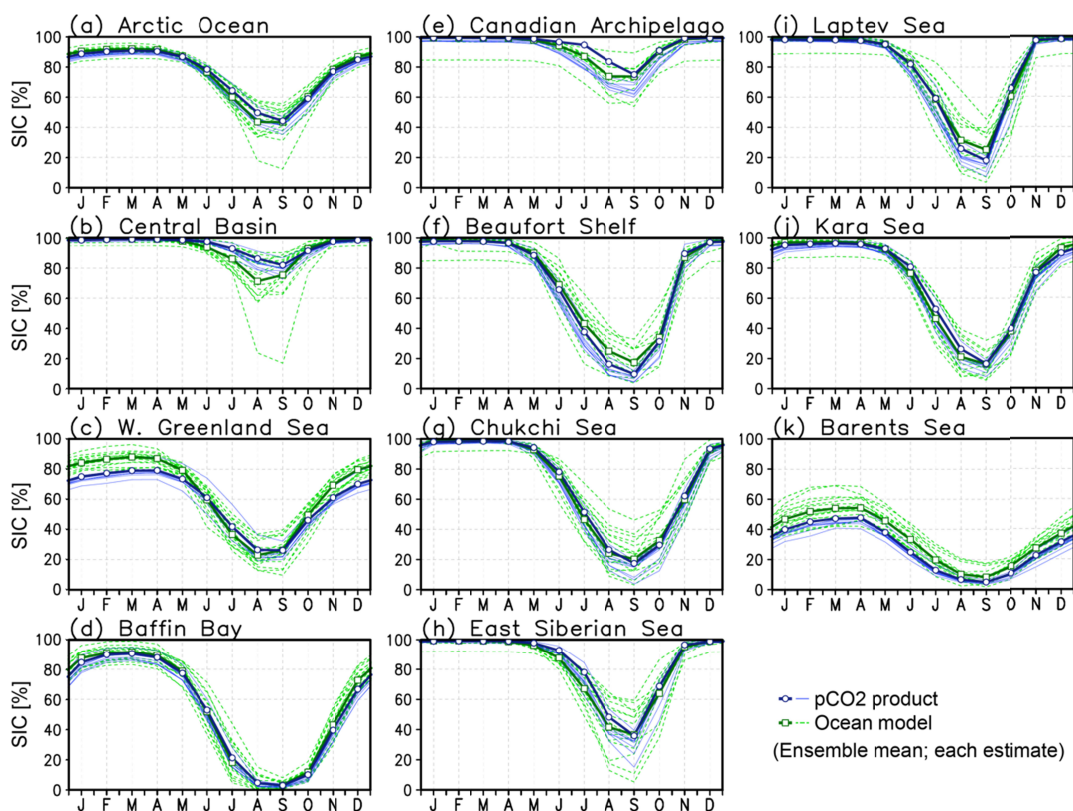
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541 The seasonal cycle of the sea-air CO_2 flux correlates with SIC in all regions both in
 542 the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models
 543 but the Barents Sea; CO_2 uptake is large when sea ice retreats in summer, and it is small
 544 when sea ice covers the ocean (Figures 6 and 8). Relative seasonal amplitudes of the
 545 CO_2 flux correspond well with those of the SIC; the seasonal amplitude of the CO_2 flux
 546 is large where that of the SIC is large (Figure S4). In essence, the seasonal amplitudes
 547 of SIC alone explain the CO_2 flux variability, which is expected since the CO_2 flux is
 548 generally calculated assuming that it is proportionally inhibited by SIC. In the Barents
 549 Sea, the seasonal cycle of CO_2 flux in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products is in phase with SIC but in the
 550 models it is modulated by high $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ in summer.

551 The discrepancy between the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and the ocean biogeochemical hindcast
 552 and data assimilation models is discussed in Section 4.2.2.

553



554

553 **Figure 8.** Monthly climatology of SIC averaged over the period of 1985–2018 (or the
554 longest period available). Thick lines with marks indicate ensemble means, and thin
555 lines indicate individual estimates (blue and circle, $p\text{CO}_2$ products; green and square,
556 ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models).

557

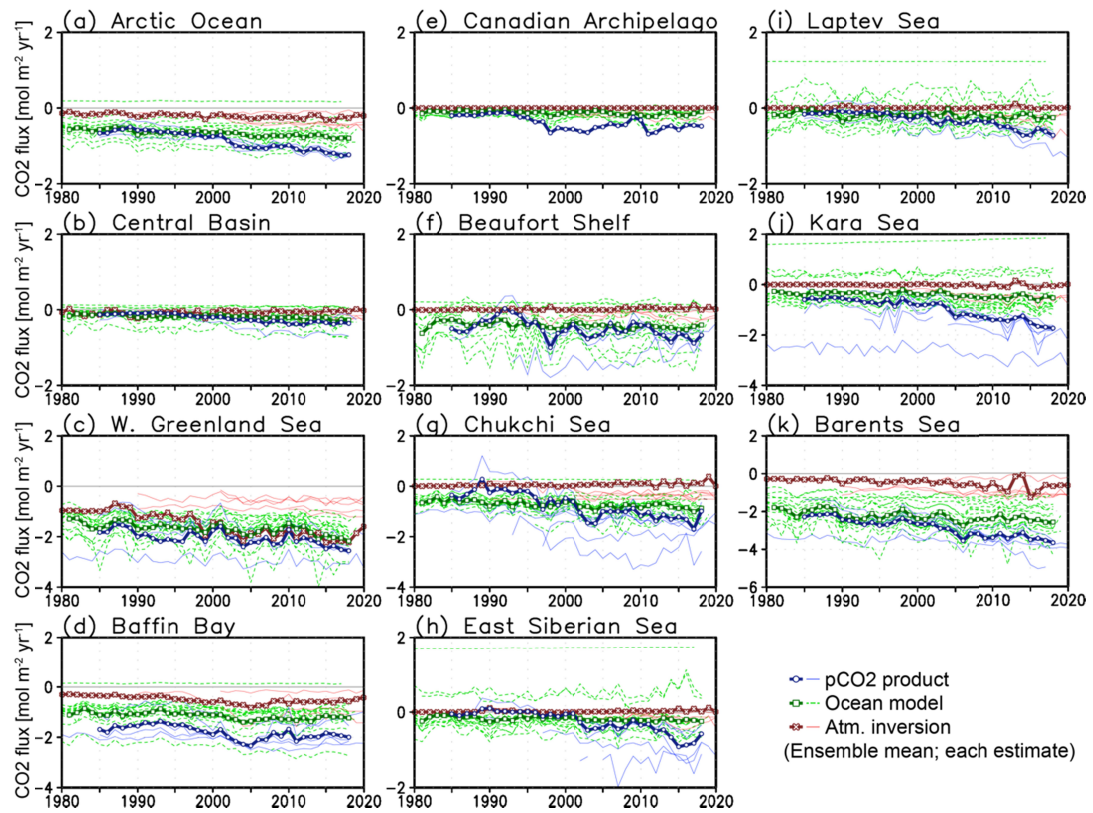
558 **3.4 Decadal trends**

559 **3.4.1 Sea-air CO_2 flux and $p\text{CO}_{2w}$**

560 The annual CO_2 uptake increases in almost all regions (Figures 9, 10a and 10b; Table
561 S2). The increase in the CO_2 uptake per unit area is particularly large in the Barents Sea,
562 the Kara Sea, and the western Greenland Sea (linear slopes of sea-air CO_2 flux < -0.2
563 $\text{mol}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1} \text{dec}^{-1}$; Figures 9c, 9j, 9k, 10a and 10b). During the 1985–2018 period,
564 the trend in the CO_2 uptake integrated over the entire Arctic Ocean is $31 \pm 13 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1}$
565 dec^{-1} in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products, $10 \pm 4 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1} \text{dec}^{-1}$ in the ocean biogeochemical hindcast
566 and data assimilation models, and $5 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1} \text{dec}^{-1}$ in the atmospheric inversion (Table
567 S2). In the $p\text{CO}_2$ products, the uptake trend in the Arctic Ocean (especially in the Kara
568 Sea, the Laptev Sea, the East Siberian Sea and the Barents Sea) accelerated in the recent
569 period, while such an acceleration is not simulated by the models (Table S2). In the
570 models, a positive trend in CO_2 flux (decrease in CO_2 uptake or increase in CO_2 release)
571 is observed in the coastal region off the Eurasian Continent (Figure 10c).

572 The $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ increases with the atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ in all regions (Figure 11). During
573 the 1985–2018 period, the trend in $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ integrated over the entire Arctic Ocean is $7 \pm$
574 $10 \mu\text{atm dec}^{-1}$ in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products, and $18 \pm 3 \mu\text{atm dec}^{-1}$ in the ocean biogeochemical
575 hindcast and data assimilation models. The trend in $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ in both the $p\text{CO}_2$ products
576 and the models are smaller than the atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ increase ($\sim 21 \mu\text{atm dec}^{-1}$;
577 Figures 10c, 10d and 11). In the $p\text{CO}_2$ products, the $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ trend is especially small in
578 the Central Basin, the Chukchi Sea, the East Siberian Sea and the Kara Sea ($< 10 \mu\text{atm}$
579 dec^{-1}). In the models, it is larger than $15 \mu\text{atm dec}^{-1}$ in almost all regions except for
580 coastal parts of the Kara Sea and the East Siberian Sea. The discrepancy between the
581 trends in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data
582 assimilation models is discussed in Section 4.2.3.

583



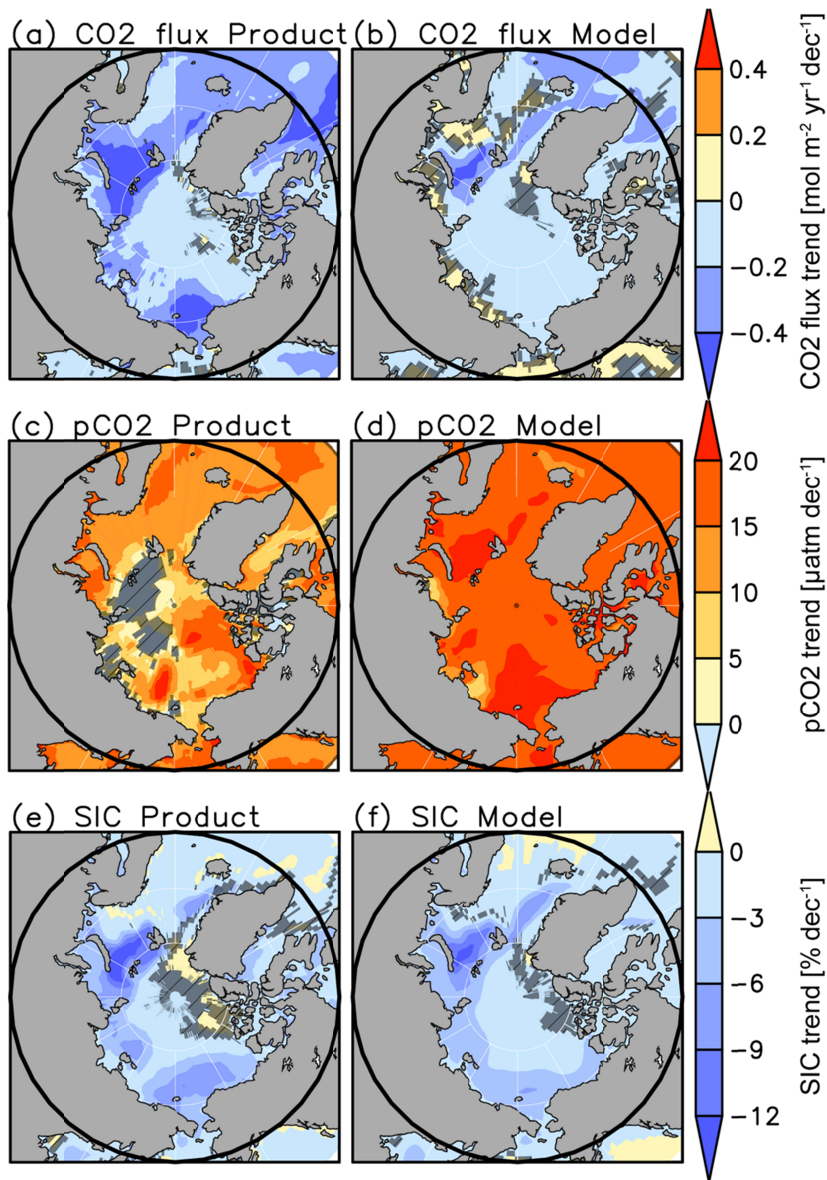
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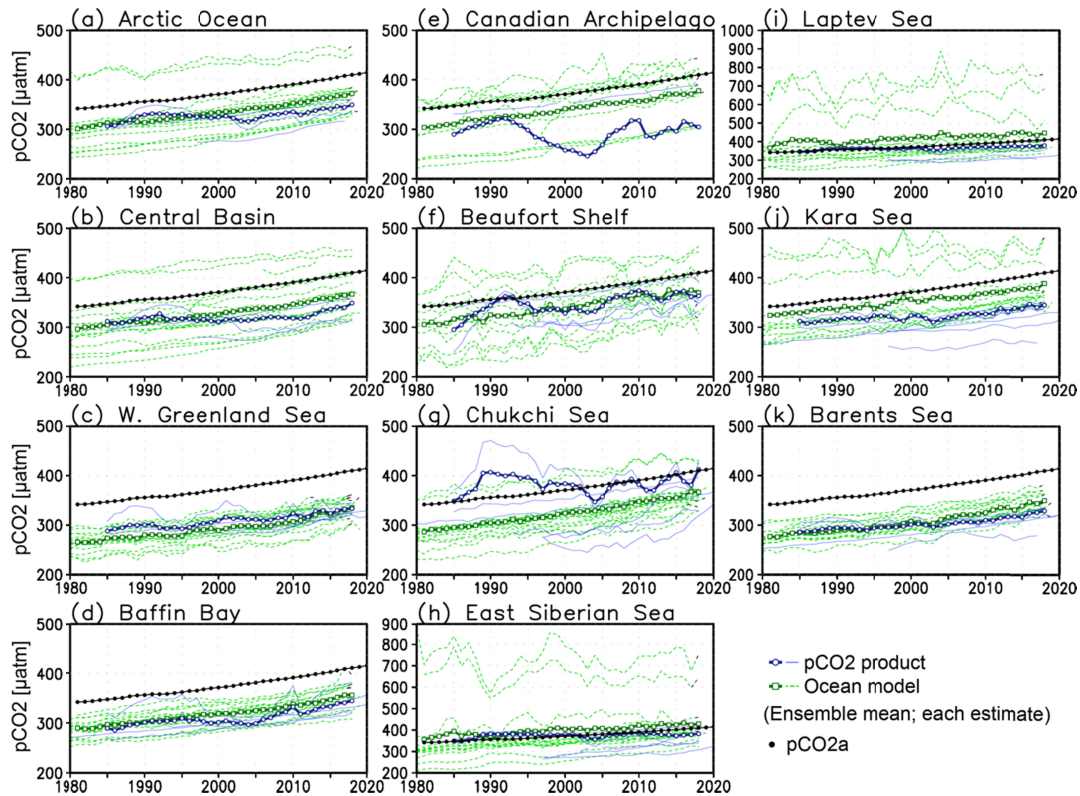
590 **Figure 9.** Annual mean CO₂ flux. Thick lines with marks indicate ensemble means, and
 591 thin lines indicate individual estimates (blue and circle, *p*CO₂ products; green and
 592 square, ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models; red and cross,
 593 atmospheric inversions). Negative values indicate the CO₂ flux into the ocean.

591

592



593
 598 **Figure 10.** Trend over 1985–2018 for ensemble mean CO₂ flux, *p*CO_{2w}, and SIC from
 599 the *p*CO₂ products and the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models.
 500 Negative values indicate increasing CO₂ flux into the ocean in panels (a) and (b).
 501 Darker hatched areas represent values in grids where less than two third of the estimates
 502 show the same sign of the trend.
 599
 500



601

602

606 **Figure 11:** Annual mean $p\text{CO}_{2w}$. Thick lines with marks indicate ensemble means, and
 607 thin lines indicate individual estimates (blue and circle, $p\text{CO}_2$ products; green and
 608 square, ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models), and observed
 609 $p\text{CO}_{2a}$ (black dot).

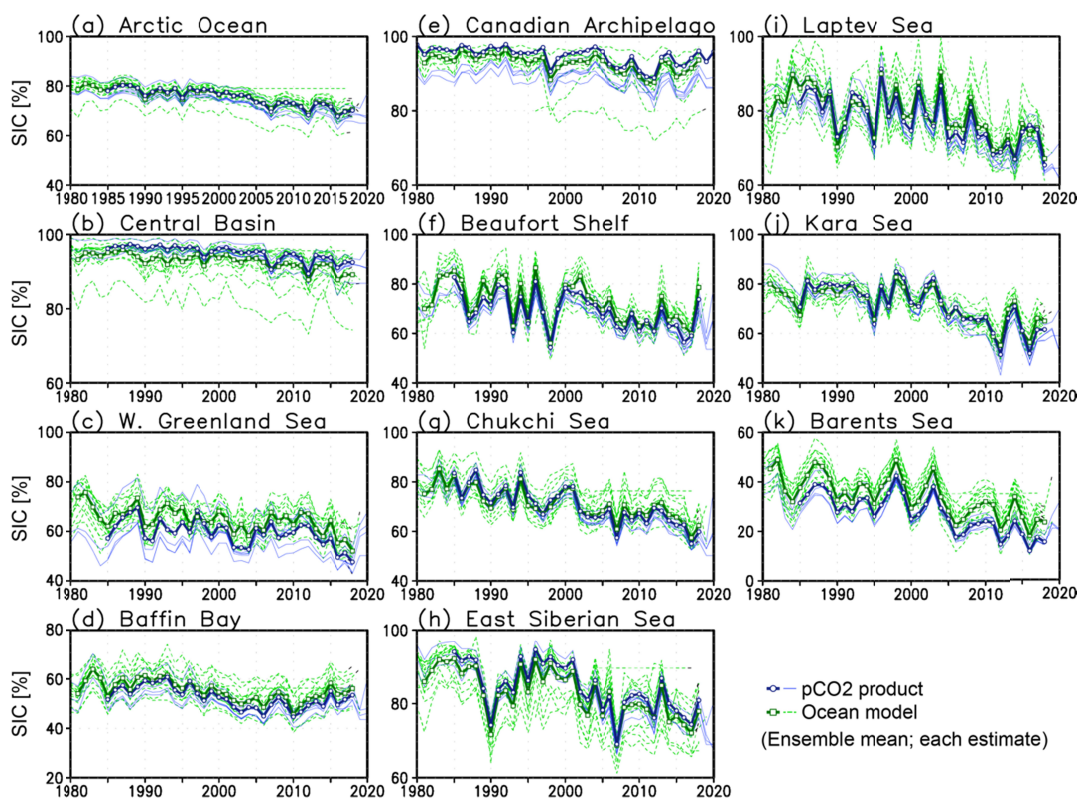
607

608

609 3.4.2 Drivers of the decadal trends

619 The spatial patterns of the trend in sea-air CO_2 flux are similar to the SIC trend both
 620 in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation
 621 models (Figures 9, 10 and 12). The largest increase in the CO_2 uptake occurs in regions
 622 with extensive sea ice loss, in particular the Barents Sea and the Kara Sea. In these two
 623 regions of the Arctic Ocean, the largest reduction in SIC ($> 5\% \text{ dec}^{-1}$) is observed. The
 624 trend in CO_2 flux relative to the long-term mean corresponds well with that in the SIC
 625 (Figure S5) except for in the coastal region off the Eurasian Continent, indicating that
 626 decrease of SIC can explain most of the CO_2 flux increase in the Arctic Ocean.
 627 Furthermore, smaller trend in CO_2 uptake in models than in $p\text{CO}_2$ products also
 628 corresponds with difference in the SIC trend. In the coastal region off the Eurasian

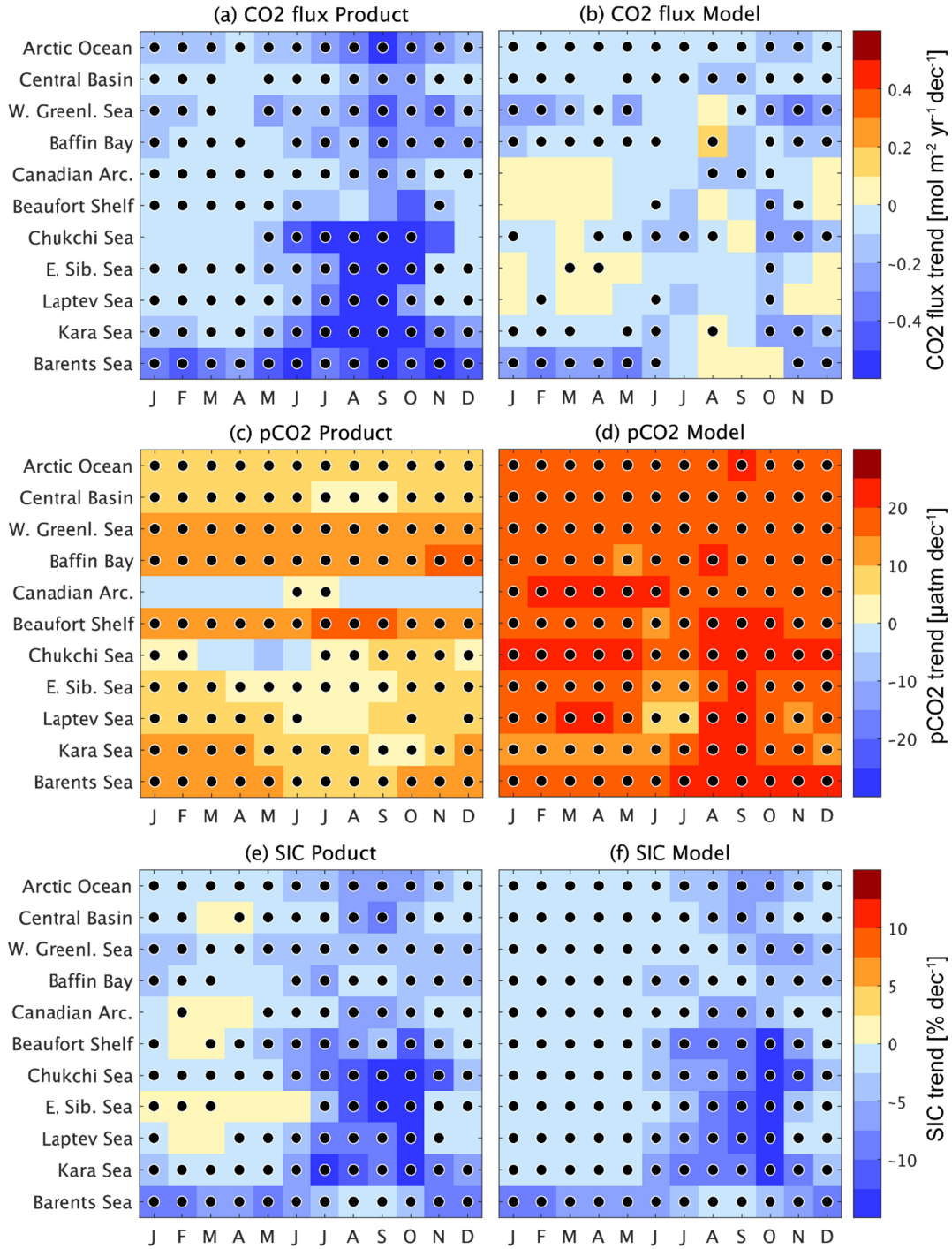
624 Continent, in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products, the increase in the CO_2 uptake is larger than the
 625 decrease in SIC (Figures S5a and S5c) since small $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ increase also intensifies the
 626 CO_2 uptake (Figure 10c). In the models, the $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ increase causes a change in the
 627 direction of CO_2 flux in some areas of the coastal region off the Eurasian Continent,
 628 from ocean uptake to release (Figures 4b, 10d, and S5b).
 625



626
 629 **Figure 12:** Annual mean SIC. Thick lines with marks indicate ensemble means, and
 630 thin lines indicate individual estimates (blue and circle, $p\text{CO}_2$ products; green and
 631 square, ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models).
 630
 631

638 A correspondence between the trends in sea-air CO_2 flux and SIC can be seen in each
 639 month both in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data
 640 assimilation models (Figure 13). The CO_2 uptake averaged over the Arctic Ocean
 641 increases all year round, while on the regional scale the increase occurs in different
 642 seasons because the decrease of SIC varies regionally and seasonally (Onarheim et al.
 643 2018; Årthun et al. 2020). In the $p\text{CO}_2$ products, for most of the subregions except for
 644 the Barents Sea, the largest loss of SIC is observed in summer and autumn, such that the

638 increase in CO₂ uptake is strongest in that season. In the Barents Sea, the CO₂ uptake
639 increase shows no particular seasonal pattern; in winter it is driven by the loss of sea ice
640 and in summer it is driven by relatively small $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ growth rates. The SIC trends in the
641 ocean biogeochemical and data assimilation models are similar but smaller in summer
642 than the observed ones. Trend in $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ is larger in the models in almost all months and
643 all regions. As a result, the trends in the CO₂ uptake in the models is much smaller than
644 in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products, as was the case for the annual mean described in Section 3.4.1.
645 This is further discussed in Section 4.2.3.
646



648

649

652 **Figure 13.** Trends in CO₂ flux, *p*CO_{2w}, and SIC over the 1985–2018 period from the
 653 *p*CO₂ products and the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models.
 654 Negative values in panels (a) and (b) indicate increasing CO₂ influx to the ocean. Dots

652 represent values in grids where more than two third of the estimates show the same sign
653 of the trend.

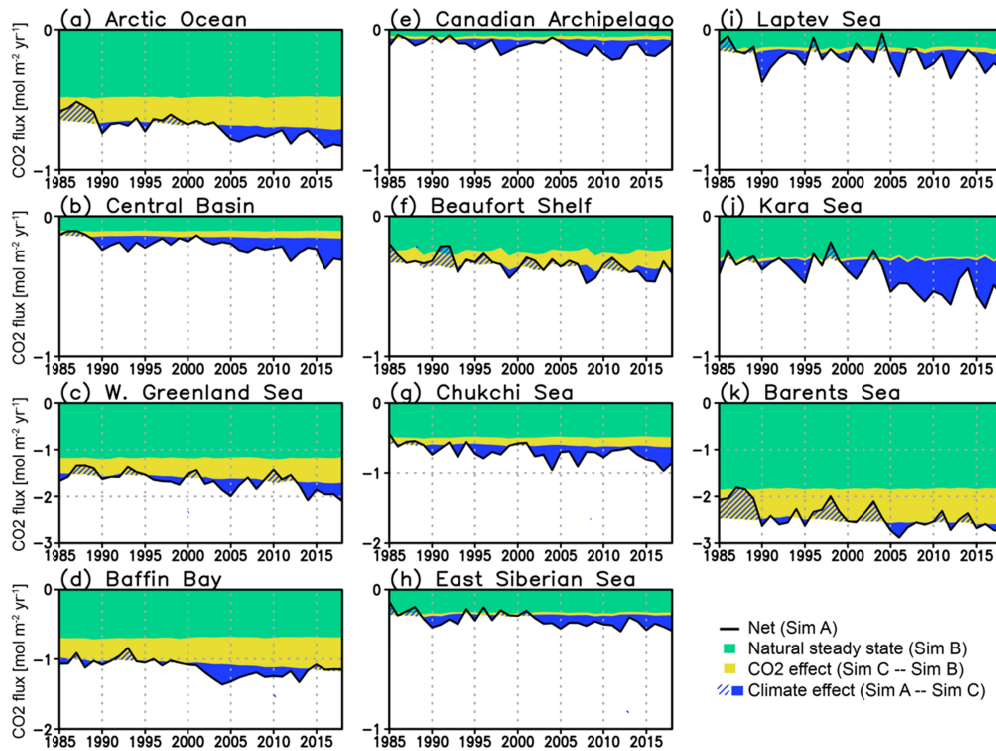
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655

656 A dominance of the climate change effect, which includes the impact of the SIC
657 decrease, on the CO₂ flux trend can be inferred from comparing the flux in the four
658 simulations of the ocean biogeochemical hindcast models (Figure 14). In terms of the
659 model ensemble mean, the CO₂ effect intensifies the CO₂ uptake (i.e., the CO₂ flux via
660 the CO₂ effect is negative) in all regions and for each year throughout the 1985–2018
661 period (yellow ribbons in Figure 14), while the climate effect suppresses the CO₂ uptake
662 (i.e., the CO₂ flux via the climate effect is positive) in some years at every region
663 (hatches in Figure 14). Both effects show a negative trend of CO₂ flux with time, thus
664 contributing to the increase in the net CO₂ uptake. Integrated over the entire Arctic
665 Ocean, 77 ± 38 % of the trend in the net CO₂ uptake over time is caused by climate
666 change effect on natural and anthropogenic CO₂, while 25 ± 9 % is driven by increasing
667 atmospheric CO₂ in the steady state (excess 2% is the trend in the natural CO₂ flux in
668 the steady state, which would be the model drift). The climate change effect on the CO₂
669 flux trends tends to be more important in regions of the high Arctic Ocean (the Barents
670 Sea, the Kara Sea, the Laptev Sea, the East-Siberian Sea, the Chukchi Sea, the Canadian
671 Archipelago, and the Central Basin; > 70%), whereas the increase in atmospheric CO₂ is
672 more important in southern regions like the Baffin Bay (84 ± 40 %) and the western
673 Greenland Sea (52 ± 20 %). The strong climate-induced CO₂ fluxes in the Arctic Ocean
674 (Section 3.2) have become even more important in recent years.

675 Another decomposition of the Arctic Ocean CO₂ uptake shows 65 ± 29 % of the
676 increase in the Arctic Ocean CO₂ uptake over time is caused by the natural flux
677 components, while 35 ± 18 % is driven by anthropogenic components (Figure S6).
678 Since the anthropogenic component (35%) includes both the CO₂ effect and the climate
679 effect on the anthropogenic CO₂, it is bigger than the 25% of the CO₂ effect alone.

680



682
683

688 **Figure 14.** Time series of the decomposition of the net CO₂ flux (Sim A; black line)
689 into the CO₂ effect (Sim C – Sim B; yellow ribbon), the climate effect (Sim A – Sim C;
690 blue hatch and ribbon), and the natural steady-state flux (Sim B; aqua ribbon). Negative
691 values (or widths of the ribbons) indicate the CO₂ influx to the ocean, and positive
692 values (or widths of the hatches) indicates the CO₂ outflux from the ocean.

689
690

691 4. Discussion

692 4.1 Comparison with the previous estimates

699 Previous estimates (Bates & Mathis, 2009; Schuster et al., 2013; Yasunaka et al.,
600 2018) were determined for the Arctic Ocean without the western Greenland Sea and the
601 Baffin Bay. When excluding these regions, the here synthesized estimate of the Arctic
602 Ocean CO₂ uptake from 1985 to 2018 reduces to 84 ± 1 TgC yr⁻¹ in the *p*CO₂ products,
603 65 ± 25 TgC yr⁻¹ in the ocean biogeochemical models, and 11 TgC yr⁻¹ in the
604 atmospheric inversion (Table 2). The estimates from the *p*CO₂ products and the ocean
605 biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models are both larger than their

699 respective estimates in the first iteration of RECCAP (30 ± 30 Tg C yr⁻¹ and 50 ± 30 Tg
700 C yr⁻¹, respectively; Schuster et al., 2013). However, the estimates here are smaller than
701 other estimates ($81\text{--}199$ TgC yr⁻¹, Bates & Mathis, 2009; 180 ± 130 TgC yr⁻¹,
702 Yasunaka et al., 2018) but agree within the standard deviations. The atmospheric
703 inversion estimate in this study is smaller than that previously determined in the
704 framework of RECCAP (40 ± 20 Tg C yr⁻¹; Schuster et al., 2013) and other estimates.
705 Although average periods are different among the studies (before 2004 in Bates &
706 Mathis, 2009; 1990–2009 in Schuster et al., 2013; 1997–2014 in Yasunaka et al., 2018),
707 the different time periods cannot explain the discrepancies between the estimates
708 because the year-to-year variation and the trend in the CO₂ uptake is smaller than the
709 identified discrepancies (Figure 9; Table S2). In this study and the first phase of
710 RECCAP, the standard deviations and the median absolute deviation across the
711 estimates are used to show the range of estimates, but uncertainties may be larger due to
712 common biases or weaknesses across the entire estimates.

713 The CO₂ uptake in the Barents Sea in the present study is estimated to be 2.8 ± 1.1
714 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹ in the *p*CO₂ product and 2.3 ± 0.7 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹ in the ocean
715 biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models, which are in the center of
716 previous studies from 4.4 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹ to 0.7 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Arrigo et al., 2011; Fransson
717 et al., 2001; Kaltin et al., 2002; Land et al., 2013; Lauvset et al., 2013; Manizza et al.,
718 2013, 2019; Omar et al., 2007; Takahashi et al., 2009; Yasunaka et al., 2016, 2018).
719 Previous estimates of CO₂ uptake in the Chukchi Sea differs among the studies from 7.3
720 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹ to 0.4 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Bates, 2006; Evans et al., 2015; Kaltin & Anderson,
721 2005; Manizza et al., 2013, 2019; Murata & Takizawa, 2003; Takahashi et al. 2009;
722 Yasunaka et al., 2016, 2018). The ensemble mean CO₂ uptake in the Chukchi Sea in the
723 present study is 0.8 ± 0.3 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹ in the *p*CO₂ product and 0.7 ± 0.2 mol m⁻² yr⁻¹ in
724 the models, which are near the lower limit of the previous estimates. In the first
725 implementation in RECCAP, the CO₂ uptake in the subregions were not assessed
726 (Schuster et al., 2013).

727

728 **4.2 Uncertainty in sea-air CO₂ flux and *p*CO_{2w}**

729 **4.2.1 Long-term mean**

730 The CO₂ uptake in the Arctic Ocean is larger in the *p*CO₂ products (116 ± 4 TgC
731 yr⁻¹) than in the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models (92 ± 30
732 TgC yr⁻¹). This difference might occur because most ocean models do not (fully)
733 include the carbon input from land and the burial and remineralization in ocean
734 sediments (Table 1; DeVries et al. submitted). According to Lacroix et al. (2020), this

735 riverine-burial carbon flux was estimated to give rise to an outgassing of 29.7 TgC yr^{-1}
736 in the Arctic Ocean, and it amplifies the difference between the $p\text{CO}_2$ product and the
737 models, as this would need to be added to the flux in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products to make them
738 comparable to the models, following procedures of, e.g., the Global Carbon Budget
739 (Friedlingstein et al., 2022). However, the uncertainty of this adjustment is large
740 because the ocean biogeochemical model used by Lacroix et al. (2020) does not resolve
741 the Arctic Ocean small scale dynamics due to the relatively coarse model resolution and
742 likely does not capture the wide range of lability of organic carbon, sediment dynamics,
743 or coastal erosion that are important for the carbon cycle in the Arctic Ocean (Kaiser et
744 al., 2017; Mann et al., 2012; Sanchez-Garcia et al., 2011; Holmes et al., 2008; Brüchert
745 et al., 2018; Grotheer et al., 2020; Freitas et al., 2020 & 2021; Vonk et al., 2012; Hilton
746 et al., 2015; Couture et al., 2018).

747 The CO_2 uptake in the atmospheric inversions is weaker than that in the $p\text{CO}_2$
748 product and the ocean biogeochemical and data assimilation models (Figure 3; Table 2).
749 CAMS, which is the only inversion that covers the period 1985–2018, shows almost no
750 flux in the Central Basin, the Canadian Archipelago, the Beaufort Shelf, the Chukchi Sea,
751 the East Siberian Sea, the Laptev Sea and the Kara Sea even in summer (Figures 6 and
752 S1) probably because the prior in these regions was set to be zero (Denvil-Sommer et al.,
753 2019). However, the CO_2 uptake integrated over the whole Arctic Ocean is weak also in
754 the other atmospheric inversions in which non-zero CO_2 fluxes are used as their priors
755 (Figure 3; Table S1).

756

757 4.2.2 Seasonal cycle

758 The CO_2 uptake during summer and autumn in the Chukchi Sea, the Baffin Bay, the
759 Kara Sea, and the Barents Sea is larger in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products than in the ocean
760 biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models, which leads to the smaller
761 annual uptake in the models there (Figures 6d, 6g, 6j and 6k, respectively). The $p\text{CO}_{2w}$
762 from the $p\text{CO}_2$ products is consistently lower than that from the models in these seasons
763 and regions (Figures 7d, 7g, 7j and 7k). The models do not reproduce the low $p\text{CO}_{2w}$
764 values observed in summer and the seasonal amplitudes of $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ are smaller in the
765 models. Given that the seasonal SST amplitude in the models is similar to that in the
766 products (Figure S7), the $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ differences cannot be explained by potentially different
767 temperature effects on $p\text{CO}_{2w}$. Although differences in the Arctic Ocean
768 biogeochemistry may cause the discrepancy, there is not sufficient observational data
769 available to evaluate this.

770 Large discrepancies among the estimates of $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ are observed in the coastal parts
771 of the East Siberian Sea, the Laptev Sea and the Kara Sea (Figure 7). A few ocean
772 biogeochemical hindcast models (FESOM_REcoM_HR, FESOM_REcoM_LR, and
773 Arctic_NEMURO-C) show high $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ values ($> 500 \mu\text{atm}$) in winter in these regions
774 (Figures 7h, 7i and 7j), which leads to the annual CO_2 release in some cases
775 (FESOM_REcoM_HR and FESOM_REcoM_LR; Table S1). Once the sea ice
776 disappears in spring, the outgassing of CO_2 to the atmosphere (Figure 6h, 6i and 6j) and
777 intense phytoplankton blooms (not shown here) lower the $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ in those models.
778 Remineralization below the surface or under sea ice of this newly formed organic matter
779 then likely increases $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ values in winter. High $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ values ($> 500 \mu\text{atm}$) were
780 observed very near the coast in the Laptev Sea and the East Siberian Sea (Anderson et
781 al., 2009), but the spatial and temporal extent of the high $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ has not been
782 determined yet and the $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ estimates both in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and the models
783 cannot be evaluated at this stage. Although general features of low SSS and low DIC in
784 these regions due to fresh water input from rivers (Tank et al., 2012) are simulated in
785 the models, the range of the model simulated SSS and DIC are large (standard
786 deviations are > 2 in SSS and $> 200 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ in DIC; not shown here) leading to inter-
787 model differences in $p\text{CO}_{2w}$. This implies that the differences in the riverine water,
788 carbon, alkalinity and nutrient input leads to large uncertainties in the $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ estimates
789 in the ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models. Other factors
790 leading to large uncertainty in the coastal regions are burial, erosion and seafloor
791 sediments, which is also difficult to evaluate at this stage. On the other hand,
792 observations are scarce and biased towards summer and open ocean, which may well
793 lead to biases in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products based on $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ observations.

794 $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ in the Chukchi Sea is higher in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products than in the ocean
795 biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models (Figure 7g). High $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ (>500
796 μatm) has been sometimes observed in the Chukchi Sea via storm-induced mixing
797 events (Hauri et al. 2013), which may not be simulated in the models.

798

799 **4.2.3 Trend from 1985 to 2018**

800 The increasing trend in the CO_2 uptake is larger in the $p\text{CO}_2$ product than in the
801 ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models in almost all regions and
802 all seasons (Figures 9, 10a, 10b, 13a and 13b; Table S2). The decreasing trend in SIC is
803 also larger in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products than in the models (Figures 10e, 10f, 13e and 13f).
804 Although the models reproduce SIC well not only in the mean distribution but also the
805 seasonal and interannual variability (Figures 4g, 8, 10f, 12 and 13f), small discrepancies

806 in the SIC trends affect the trend in CO₂ flux (Figure S5). Furthermore, the increase in
807 $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ is much larger in the models than in the $p\text{CO}_2$ product although the difference
808 among the estimates is large (Figures 10c, 10d, 11, 13c and 13d). Since the relevance of
809 $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ for determining the CO₂ flux will increase along with the sea ice retreat, model
810 improvement and more observations for the better $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ estimates are crucial.

811 The CO₂ uptake in the southern Barents Sea and the coastal region in the East
812 Siberian Sea, the Laptev Sea, and the Kara Sea is increasing in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products but
813 decreasing (or increasing outgassing in some regions that are CO₂ sources) in the ocean
814 biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models (Figures 10a and 10b), but both
815 estimates have large uncertainties in these regions as mentioned in Section 4.2.2.
816 Recently, an increasing trend of summertime CO₂ uptake in the Chukchi Sea has been
817 reported (Ouyang et al., 2020, 2022 Tu et al., 2021). In this study, the large increasing
818 CO₂ uptake trend in the Chukchi Sea is detected in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products but it is small in
819 the models (Figure 14a and 14b).

820 The trend in the global ocean CO₂ uptake is also larger in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products than in
821 the ocean biogeochemical models (380 TgC yr⁻¹ dec⁻¹ in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products 260 TgC
822 yr⁻¹ dec⁻¹ in the ocean biogeochemical models from 2001 to 2018; DeVries et al.
823 submitted). To resolve the temporal change of CO₂ uptake, more $p\text{CO}_2$ observations in
824 all seasons and implementing observed changes in riverine and coastal erosion fluxes,
825 including the substantial temporal changes in the riverine alkalinity (Drake et al., 2018),
826 into the ocean biogeochemical models (Peterson et al., 2002; Behnke et al., 2021; Frey
827 & McClelland, 2009; Terhaar et al. 2019b) are needed.

828

829 **4.3. Importance of the Arctic Ocean CO₂ flux for the global ocean carbon sink**

830 Previous studies based on passive tracer observations have estimated that the Arctic
831 Ocean anthropogenic carbon inventory (only due to increasing CO₂) by 2005 was $3.3 \pm$
832 0.3 Pg C (~2% of the change in the global ocean anthropogenic carbon inventory
833 (scaled from Sabine et al., 2004; Tanhua et al., 2009; Terhaar et al., 2020) although the
834 Arctic Ocean volume represents only 1% of the global ocean volume (Jakobsson et al.,
835 2002). Observations (Olsen et al., 2015) and model studies from hindcast models and
836 Earth System Models (Terhaar et al., 2019a) suggest that one third of this anthropogenic
837 carbon has been taken up in the Arctic Ocean and two thirds were transported to the
838 Arctic Ocean from the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean. Thus, the Arctic Ocean sea-air
839 anthropogenic CO₂ flux accounts for less than 1% of the global ocean sea-air
840 anthropogenic CO₂ flux. Actually, for the years from 1985 to 2018, we find that the
841 anthropogenic sea-air CO₂ flux into the ocean to be 19 ± 6 Tg C yr⁻¹, ~1% of the global

842 ocean anthropogenic sea-air CO₂ flux over the same period (DeVries et al., submitted).
843 This relatively small contribution of the Arctic Ocean to the anthropogenic sea-air CO₂
844 flux may lead to the conclusion that the Arctic Ocean only plays a minor role for the
845 global ocean carbon sink.

846 Our analysis, however, suggests that the importance of the Arctic Ocean for the
847 global carbon sink has increased in the last decades. The anthropogenic sea-air CO₂ flux
848 was augmented by an increasing uptake of natural carbon of 10 ± 17 TgC yr⁻¹ due to
849 climate change (half of the anthropogenic sea-air CO₂ flux). The relatively large
850 importance of the uptake of natural carbon suggests that observation-based estimates of
851 the anthropogenic carbon storage in the Arctic Ocean (Tanhua et al., 2009; Terhaar et
852 al., 2020) underestimate the total change in DIC inventory and the associated historical
853 acidification rates (Andersson et al., 2010; Terhaar et al., 2020). Furthermore, the
854 increase in the combined uptake of anthropogenic and natural carbon in the Arctic
855 Ocean (31 ± 13 TgC yr⁻¹ dec⁻¹ in the *p*CO₂ products, 10 ± 5 TgC yr⁻¹ dec⁻¹ in the ocean
856 biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models, and 5 TgC yr⁻¹ dec⁻¹ in the
857 atmospheric inversion) is 4–8% of the global ocean change in carbon uptake (380 TgC
858 yr⁻¹ dec⁻¹ in the *p*CO₂ products and 260 TgC yr⁻¹ dec⁻¹ in the ocean biogeochemical
859 models; DeVries et al. submitted). Thus, the Arctic Ocean contribution to the global
860 ocean carbon sink remains relatively small but fast changes in the Arctic Ocean make it
861 a relatively important ocean basin for changes in the estimated sea-air CO₂ flux. The
862 Arctic Ocean's importance may further increase in the future when climate change and
863 ocean warming are projected to cause further outgassing of natural carbon in most parts
864 of the global ocean (Joos et al., 1999; Frölicher and Joos, 2010) and potentially further
865 enhanced uptake of natural carbon in the Arctic Ocean (Frölicher and Joos, 2010).

866

867 5. Conclusions

868 We integrated results from the *p*CO₂ products based on surface ocean *p*CO_{2w}
869 observation, ocean biogeochemical hindcast and data assimilation models and
870 atmospheric inversions, and presented synthesized estimates of the Arctic Ocean CO₂
871 uptake and their uncertainties. The Arctic Ocean is a net sink of CO₂ of 116 ± 4 TgC
872 yr⁻¹ in the *p*CO₂ products and 92 ± 30 TgC yr⁻¹ in the models. The CO₂ uptake is
873 substantially weaker in the atmospheric inversions. The CO₂ uptake peaks in late
874 summer to early autumn, and is low in winter because of the sea ice cover inhibiting
875 sea-air fluxes. The annual mean of CO₂ uptake increased at the rate of 29 ± 11 TgC yr⁻¹
876 dec⁻¹ in the *p*CO₂ products and 10 ± 4 TgC yr⁻¹ dec⁻¹ in the models.

877 The CO₂ uptake in the Arctic Ocean is primarily caused by steady-state fluxes of
878 natural carbon (70 ± 15 %), and enhanced by the atmospheric CO₂ increase (19 ± 5 %)
879 and climate change (11 ± 18 %). The Arctic Ocean is the only ocean where climate
880 change influences the sea-air CO₂ flux by a similar magnitude as the increase in
881 atmospheric CO₂. Moreover, the climate effect in the Arctic Ocean has become more
882 important in recent years. The relatively strong importance of climate change is due to
883 decreased sea ice cover that allows more CO₂ exchange via the sea-air interface.

884 The uncertainty remains large especially in the $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ estimates in the East Siberian
885 Sea and the Laptev Sea because of the limited observations in the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and
886 limited or non-existing representation of carbon and nutrient coastal boundary fluxes
887 from rivers, coastal erosion and sediment dynamics, and insufficient model resolution to
888 resolve small scale mixing in the models. Discrepancies in the seasonal cycle and long-
889 term trend of $p\text{CO}_{2w}$ between the $p\text{CO}_2$ products and the ocean biogeochemical hindcast
890 and data assimilation models was also observed in many other subregions of the Arctic
891 Ocean.

892 Further model development and more observations are crucially needed to improve
893 estimates of the Arctic Ocean sea-air CO₂ fluxes in a time when the Arctic Ocean faces
894 the effects of rapid change, such as SIC decrease, warming and increasing riverine
895 inputs, that will ultimately also affect ecosystem drivers such as ocean acidification and
896 changing net primary production (Vancoppenolle et al., 2013; Terhaar et al., 2020).

897

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913 of interest to declare.

914

915 **Data Availability Statement**

916 All sea-air CO₂ flux and pCO_{2w} estimates in the RECCAP2 compilation and those
917 provided on a personal basis are available upon request at [https://reccap2-](https://reccap2-ocean.github.io/data/)
918 [ocean.github.io/data/](https://reccap2-ocean.github.io/data/). Hadley Centre Sea Ice and SST data set, NOAA/National Snow
919 and Ice Data Center Climate Data Record of Passive Microwave Sea Ice Concentration
920 version 2, and NOAA Optimum Interpolation SST Version 2 were downloaded from the
921 web sites (<https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/hadisst/>; <http://nsidc.org/data/G02202>;
922 <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.noaa.oisst.v2.html>). SOCAT version 6
923 and LDEOv2017 are available in their web site (<http://www.socat.info/>;
924 [https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/ocean-carbon-acidification-data-](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/ocean-carbon-acidification-data-system/oceans/LDEO_Underway_Database/)
925 [system/oceans/LDEO_Underway_Database/](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/ocean-carbon-acidification-data-system/oceans/LDEO_Underway_Database/)). The NOAA Greenhouse Gas Marine
926 Boundary Layer Reference product and sea level pressure from NCEP2 were
927 downloaded from the websites (<http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/mbl/index.html>;
928 <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis2.html>).

929

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