Resolving heterogeneity in CO2 uptake potential in the Greenland coastal ocean

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Abstract

The oceans play a pivotal role in mitigating climate change by sequestering approximately 25% of annually emitted anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO2). High-latitude oceans, especially the Arctic continental shelves, emerge as crucial CO2 sinks due to their cold, low saline, and highly productive ecosystems. However, these heterogeneous regions remain inadequately understood, hindering accurate assessments of their carbon dynamics. This study investigates variation in pCO2 levels during peak ice sheet melt, in the Greenland coastal ocean and estimates rates of air-sea exchange across 6° of latitude. The East and West coast of Greenland displayed distinct regions with unique controlling factors. Though, both coasts represent CO2 sinks in summer. Geographical variation in pCO2 and air-sea exchange was linked intricately to freshwater export from the Greenland ice sheet and levels of primary production in these ecosystems. CO2 uptake ranged from 0.17 to -38 mmol m-2 day-1. However, we found that flux estimation faces substantial uncertainties (up to 770%) due to wind product averaging and gas exchange formula selection. Despite these considerations, we report a first order estimate that Greenland coastal ocean takes up -9.5 \pm 9.0 Tg C year-1, corresponding to nearly 4% of global coastal CO2 uptake. Obtaining a reliable assessment of air-sea CO2 exchange necessitates data collection across seasons, and, even more so, refinement of the gas transfer velocity estimations in the Arctic coastal zone.

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Resolving heterogeneity in CO₂ uptake potential in the Greenland coastal ocean 1

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- 12 **Key Points:** 13
 - The Greenland coastal ocean takes up large quantities of carbon dioxide yet displays • considerable spatial heterogeneity.
 - Biology and freshwater runoff control pCO₂ levels to varying degrees in different regions. •
 - Estimation of the true flux magnitude is beset by large uncertainties, particularly in polar coastal regions.
- 18 19

20 21 Abstract

- 22 The oceans play a pivotal role in mitigating climate change by sequestering approximately 25% of 23 annually emitted anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂). High-latitude oceans, especially the Arctic
- 24 continental shelves, emerge as crucial CO₂ sinks due to their cold, low saline, and highly productive
- 25 ecosystems. However, these heterogeneous regions remain inadequately understood, hindering
- 26 accurate assessments of their carbon dynamics. This study investigates variation in pCO₂ levels
- 27 during peak ice sheet melt, in the Greenland coastal ocean and estimates rates of air-sea exchange
- 28 across 6° of latitude. The East and West coast of Greenland displayed distinct regions with unique
- 29 controlling factors. Though, both coasts represent CO₂ sinks in summer. Geographical variation in
- 30 pCO₂ and air-sea exchange was linked intricately to freshwater export from the Greenland ice sheet
- 31 and levels of primary production in these ecosystems. CO₂ uptake ranged from 0.17 to -38 mmol m⁻²
- 32 day⁻¹. However, we found that flux estimation faces substantial uncertainties (up to 770%) due to
- 33 wind product averaging and gas exchange formula selection. Despite these considerations, we
- 34 report a first order estimate that Greenland coastal ocean takes up -9.5 ± 9.0 Tg C year⁻¹,
- 35 corresponding to nearly 4% of global coastal CO₂ uptake. Obtaining a reliable assessment of air-sea
- 36 CO₂ exchange necessitates data collection across seasons, and, even more so, refinement of the gas
- 37 transfer velocity estimations in the Arctic coastal zone. 38

Plain Language Summary 39

- 40 The oceans help to limit climate change by absorbing large amounts (1/4) of carbon dioxide (CO₂)
- 41 that humans emit to the atmosphere. The majority of this CO₂ enters the oceans near the poles due
- 42 to the special conditions that occur in these regions: namely that there is cold, less salty water, with
- 43 high quantities of photosynthetic algae in the surface ocean. However, scientists do not completely
- 44 understand the regional variability of oceanic CO₂ uptake, which limits our ability to accurately
- 45 predict future climate scenarios. This study measured the partial pressure of CO₂ in the ocean along
- East and West Greenland to calculate rates of air-sea transfer. CO₂ uptake ranged from 0.17 to -38 46
- 47 mmol m⁻² day⁻¹ and the controlling factors behind this flux of carbon were wind speed, amount of 48
- glacial runoff, and the balance between biologic producers/consumers. The Greenland coastal 49 ocean may represent nearly 4% of global coastal ocean CO₂ uptake, indicating the need to better
- 50 understand carbon sequestration variability in this region.

52 Introduction

53 The world's oceans serve as a critical buffer against the escalating impacts of anthropogenic carbon

54 dioxide (CO₂) emissions, absorbing approximately 25% of these emissions annually (Ciais et al.,

2013; Sabine, 2004; Takahashi et al., 2009). Oceans at high latitudes uptake more of this CO_2 due to

a combination of low temperatures and high productivity (Bates and Mathis, 2009; Takahashi et al.,

57 2009). Although 25% of continental shelves (depth < 200 m) are located in the Arctic, we still have a
58 limited understanding of the carbon dynamics in these high-latitude coastal systems due to the lack

59 of field observations compared to low-latitude coastal environments (Bates and Mathis, 2009).

60

61 The driving force behind CO₂ exchange across the sea surface is the difference in partial pressure of

62 $CO_2 (\Delta pCO_2)$ between seawater and the overlying air. However, the fluctuation of oceanic pCO_2 is 63 more spatially and temporally variable compared to atmospheric pCO_2 , making oceanic pCO_2 the

64 thermodynamic driver of air-sea carbon uptake. Arctic coastal waters, are generally considered as a

65 sink for CO₂ due to their undersaturated pCO₂ conditions throughout the year (Ahmed et al., 2020;

Dai et al., 2022; Laruelle et al., 2014, 2018). Some distinct regions, such as the Siberian shelf seas,

exhibit CO₂ effluxes due to decomposition of abundant terrestrial organic matter (Anderson et al.,

- 68 2009). However, other coastal regions, where net-autotrophy dominates, remain large atmospheric
- 69 carbon sinks (e.g. Meire et al., 2015). Still, the magnitude and relative driving processes in shelf seas
- remain poorly quantified. The coastal ocean is unique, in that it is influences both by both by the
 local environment on land, as well as larger oceanic and atmospheric circulation. These coastal

72 systems play a pivotal role in ocean-atmosphere dynamics due to their large exchanges of matter

72 and energy (e.g., heat, CO₂, water) at their interfaces, yet have often been overlooked in air-sea

exchange surveys due to their spatial and temporal complexity (Chen and Borges, 2009; Miller et al.,
 2019).

76

77 Understanding the intricate dynamics of CO₂ exchange in Greenland's coastal ocean is imperative 78 given the heterogeneous nature of its coastline. A few previous studies have estimated air-sea 79 exchange in Greenland fjords (Meire et al., 2015; Rysgaard et al., 2012; Sejr et al., 2011). However, 80 these studies estimate fluxes from only two fjord systems, and have previously been used to upscale 81 for the entire Greenland coastal ocean (eq. Laruelle et al., 2013). Knowing that the coasts of 82 Greenland are a heterogeneous landscape, it is crucial we gain a better understanding of the spatial 83 variation in pCO₂ levels and carbon fluxes in this region to obtain reliable assessments of the CO₂ 84 uptake by the Greenlandic coastal area. Additionally, a large-scale perspective on the drivers of 85 surface pCO₂ levels is necessary to gauge if the combined effects of climate change will result in a positive or negative feedback on coastal carbon uptake. We expect that a glacial meltwater and 86 87 biological activity will drive heterogeneity in pCO₂ levels because carbon dynamics are controlled by 88 a combination of abiotic and biotic factors (Henson et al. 2023). However, the relative contribution 89 of these drivers as well as the magnitude of this heterogeneity have not been examined for CO₂ 90 fluxes in this region. This study aims to fill in this gap in knowledge by exploring CO, fluxes in 91 Greenlandic fjords and shelf waters spanning 6° of latitude. Given the region's sensitivity to climate 92 change and its substantial CO₂ uptake relative to other marine areas, a realistic assessment of 93 exchange rates is imperative. By delving into the drivers influencing air-sea CO₂ exchange in these 94 coastal waters, we strive to contribute valuable insights toward a more comprehensive 95 understanding of the role played by high-latitude coastal systems in the global carbon cycle. 96 97

98 Methods

99

100 Sampling 101 102 Two research cruises were conducted along the coasts of Greenland where oceanic partial pressure 103 of CO₂ (pCO₂) and other environmental parameters were measured. The first cruise, along the 104 western coast of Greenland (69–75°N) was conducted during 12–30 August 2016. Meanwhile, the 105 second cruise along the eastern coast of Greenland (68–74°N) was conducted between July 30 and 106 August 24, 2018 (Fig. 1). Additional stations in Young Sound, East Greenland were sampled in 2018 107 as part of the Greenland Ecosystem Monitoring program (Christensen et al., 2017; Sejr et al., 2011). Seawater pCO₂ profiles were measured using a Contros Hydro-C CO₂ sensor (Meire et al., 2023). 108 109 The Hydro-C sensor was equilibrated for 5-10 min until a stable reading was acquired at 8 depths between 1–6om (1m, 5m, 10, 2om, 3om, 4om, 5om, 6om). The relative standard deviation of the 110 111 Contros pCO₂ measurement has been estimated to be 1% (Fietzek et al., 2014). While some in the 112 research community argue that membrane-based sensors are less precise, we posit that measurement from underway systems in highly stratified waters poses as much or more error when 113 114 calculating air-sea exchange (Macovei et al., 2021; Miller et al., 2019). Therefore, membrane-based sensors at 1m allowed a robust examination of surface layer pCO₂ values in coastal Greenland 115 116 waters. At each station, depth profiles of temperature and salinity, were obtained using CTD 117 instruments (SBE19 + V2 and SBE25 on West and East coast cruises respectively), equipped with additional sensors for chlorophyll-a fluorescence, photosynthetically available radiation (PAR), and 118 119 dissolved oxygen (Bendtsen et al., 2017; Carlson et al., 2020; Holding et al., 2021). Dissolved oxygen 120 sensors were calibrated using Winkler titrations using water samples collected in Niskin bottles. 121 During the western cruise, 56 CTD casts were conducted with 53 stations measured for pCO₂. 122 Meanwhile the eastern cruise conducted 89 CTD casts, with pCO₂ profiles measured at 63 stations. 123 Through visual examination of satellite imagery, stations in the very inner fjord arms, were categorized based on the prevalent glacial output (marine- or land-terminating, "MTG" and "LTG" 124 125 respectively). When a station was located in the larger, more outer fjord system with influence from 126 many different sources of freshwater is was categorized as just "fjord," and when a station was 127 located outside the fjord mouth, they were assigned as "shelf" stations (Supplemental Fig. 1). 128

129 Calculation of air-sea exchange

The net air-sea exchange of CO₂ was calculated using the diffusive boundary model (Sejr et al.,
 2011):

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- (1) $F = k_{660} s(\Delta pCO_2)$
- where F is the flux of CO₂, k_{660} is the gas transfer velocity normalized to 20°C and a salinity of 35 136 137 PSU, s is the solubility of CO₂ in seawater, and ΔpCO_2 is the difference between atmospheric and 138 surface water pCO₂ values (at 1m depth). Atmospheric pCO₂ levels were obtained from the SeaFlux 139 data product (Fay et al., 2021; Gregor, 2023) in August of 2016 and 2018 at each measurement 140 location. The solubility of CO₂, s, was calculated according to Weiss (1974) using surface water 141 temperature and salinity from CTD casts. Gas transfer velocities (k_{660}) were normalized according 142 to: $k_{660} = k(660/Sc)^{-0.5}$ where the Schmidt number (Sc), was calculated following Wanninkhof 143 (1992). The gas transfer velocity, k, is a product of turbulence and is often estimated based on 144 empirically derived relationships with wind speed in oceanic environments. A variety of formulas 145 have been proposed based on different datasets from varying regions. We chose the formulation by 146 Nightingale et al. (2000) as it was derived for coastal environments and has been used in previous 147 assessments of CO₂ fluxes around the Greenland coast (Meire et al., 2015; Rysgaard et al., 2012; Sejr 148 et al., 2011) 149
- 150 (2) $k = 0.333 U_{10} + 0.222 U_{10}^{2}$
- 151

where U_{10} is wind speeds (m s⁻¹) at 10 m above sea surface. Wind speeds were obtained from the

153 Copernicus Arctic Regional Reanalysis (Copernicus Climate Change Service, 2021) and averaged

154 over the months of August 2016 and 2018.

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Figure 1: Map of air-sea exchange of CO₂ in Greenland coastal waters. Station locations are pictured as black
 points. Data was interpolated using an inverse distance weighted matrix limited to a maximum distance of 39
 km. Marine- and Land-terminating glaciers are labeled with M and L respectively.

- 161 162 Statistical Modelling
- 163

164 In order to examine the impact of environmental parameters on surface layer pCO₂ levels, statistical

- 165 models were applied to our data. First, general linear models were fit to identify relationships
- between predictors and pCO₂ in the upper 20 m. Model parameters were chosen based on the
- reduction of Akaike's information criterion (AIC) and verified using likelihood ratio tests.
- 168 Multicollinearity was evaluated and limited using calculated variance inflation factors.
- 169
- Spatial autocorrelation is often a feature of large-scale biodiversity and ecological data (Kreft and
 Jetz, 2007), making it necessary to check for a spatial structure of our data. Plotting residuals and
 conducting a Moran's I test confirmed there is spatial structure to our data (Moran I = 0.36, p-value <
- 173 5e-5). Spatial autocorrelation can inflate type 1 errors and potentially influence parameter
- estimation (Kreft and Jetz, 2007), making it necessary to correct for spatial autocorrelation.
- 175 Generalized least squares models (GLS) with spatial structures as well as spatial autoregressive
- 176 models were fit to model pCO₂. Final spatial linear model (SLM) selection was based on the
- reduction of spatial autocorrelation in the residuals and the minimization of AIC values. A spatial
- 178 GLS model with a rational quadratics spatial correlation structure performed the best for modeling
- response data. A likelihood ratio test confirmed that adding a rational quadratic spatial correlation

- 180 structure was significantly better than the base model (p-value < 5e-4). In order to construct this 181 model, a spatial weights matrix was fit using k = 1 nearest neighbors. The correlogram of the fitted 182 model illustrated that the problem with spatial autocorrelation had been successfully accounted for
- model illustrated that the problem with spatial autocorrelation had been successfully accounted for.
- 184 Results
- 185
- 186 Heterogeneity and drivers of pCO₂
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Comparison between the east and west coasts of Greenland revealed differences extending beyond
 surface waters. Depth profiles of pCO₂ depicted distinct signals in both regions. Western Greenland
 exhibited more variable pCO₂ values with depth, displaying high undersaturation (94-364 µatm) in
 surface waters and CO₂ accumulation (291-522 µatm) already at a depth of 50 meters (Fig. 2,
 Supplemental Fig. 2). Conversely, the eastern coast displayed more uniform pCO₂ levels across the
 mixed layer, with values slightly below atmospheric levels (221-399 µatm at 1 m and 330-414 at 50
 m; Fig. 2).

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Figure 2. Boxplots of pCO₂ profiles on the East and West coast of Greenland.

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 199 The concentrations of pCO₂ in the water column are influenced by a combination of biological and
 200 physical/chemical factors. The main drivers affecting pCO₂ are depicted in Figure 3. Apparent

- 201 Oxygen Utilization (AOU), also known as the deviation from O₂ saturation, serves as a valuable
- 202 indicator of biological activity (e.g. Sejr et al., 2014). Positive AOU values imply bacterial O₂
- 203 consumption, while negative values signify photosynthetic O₂ production. Along the western coast
- of Greenland, AOU showed a strong correlation with measured pCO₂. Primary producers' biological
- incorporation of carbon decreased pCO₂ levels in the surface layer (Fig. 3a). Conversely, deeper
- waters exhibited net respiration, where O_2 consumption and CO_2 production took place
- 207 concurrently. Along the Eastern coast of Greenland, lower levels of net production and net
- respiration were observed (Fig. 3b), leading to a decoupling between AOU and measured pCO_2 . This region, known for its lower productivity (Henson et al., 2023), exhibited less variation in pCO_2 levels.
- 205
- 211 Figures 3c and 3d highlight the primary physical and chemical drivers of pCO_2 in this region:
- 212 freshwater influx. Glacial meltwater input has been documented to reduce seawater pCO₂ through
- 213 both thermodynamic effects and dilution (Meire et al., 2015). The relationship between freshwater
- 214 input and pCO_2 is apparent in both eastern and western Greenland, where the lowest pCO_2 levels

- 215 correspond with lower salinities. However, a stronger relationship was observed, in eastern
- 216 Greenland where low levels of biological production, and fewer high salinity values make this
- 217 relationship more apparent.
- 218

219 These relationships were confirmed using statistical models. This study applied a generalized least 220 squares (GLS) model incorporating a rational guadratic spatial correlation structure to examine the 221 dynamics of pCO₂ in relation to environmental predictors. Fit model parameters are shown in Table 222 1. Two interactions helped to improve model fit: the interaction between coast & AOU as well as the 223 interaction between coast & temperature, illustrating the different effects of biology in each coast. 224 Both biological and physical factors emerged as robust predictors for surface layer pCO₂ levels. The 225 spatial model illustrates that in western Greenland, fluctuations in pCO₂ were primarily driven by 226 AOU (biological processes). Conversely, in eastern Greenland, salinity and temperature exerted the 227 most substantial influence on pCO₂ levels. This spatial linear model duly accounted for the spatial

- autocorrelation of measured pCO_2 values. The estimated range (distance at which spatial
- correlation becomes negligible) is approximately 1.15 longitudinal degrees, and the nugget
 parameter (unaccounted variability) was 0.43.
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- 232

Table 1. Fitted GLS model with rational quadratic spatial structure.

	Estimate	T statistic	p-value	
Intercept	108.3	4.214	<0.0001	
AOU	0.016	0.230	0.8180	
Salinity	6.718	10.56	<0.0001	
Temperature	12.66	8.719	<0.0001	
Coast (west)	-53.96	-2.318	<0.0001	
AOU:Coast (west)	0.770	7.068	<0.0001	
Temperature:Coast (west)	-11.72	-6.140	<0.0001	

233

234 Model performance underwent rigorous assessment via cross-validation, utilizing subsets of the 235 dataset to train and validate the model (Table 2). Our spatial linear model (SLM) accurately 236 predicted 83% of the variance in pCO₂ within the test dataset, indicating that a relatively simple 237 model can accurately estimate coastal pCO₂ levels. This robust predictive capacity was further 238 supported by the evaluation metrics: the root mean standard error (RMSE) and mean absolute error 239 (MAE). These metrics indicated an average and absolute difference of 36.2 and 27.8 µatm, 240 respectively, between the predicted and actual pCO₂ values. Therefore, knowledge of the spatial 241 heterogeneity in temperature, salinity, and AOU (or magnitude of auto/heterotrophy) could be

 $242 \qquad \text{used to estimate or explain variability in surface water pCO_{2} around coastal Greenland.}$

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- 244 245

	Table 2. GLS model cross	s validation	
R-squared	RMSE	MAE	
0.836	36.2 µatm	27.8 µatm	

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Spatial variability in pCO₂ could also be explained by circulation-driven glacial effects. The entry of glacial meltwater into fjord waters occurs at varying depths, contingent upon whether the fjord contains an outlet glacier that is marine- or land-terminating (MTG and LTG, respectively). This inflow dramatically influences the circulation within fjords (Mortensen et al., 2014). Surface runoff from land-terminating glaciers resulted in a warmer, fresher surface layer (Henson et al., 2023). In these turbid waters on the western coast of Greenland, oxygen production, indicative of primary

254 production, was limited compared to near marine terminating glaciers (p-value < 5e-5) where

- 255 subglacial discharge drives upwelling of nutrient-rich bottom water. Meanwhile, AOU did not vary
- 256 spatially on the east coast (Fig. 4a). Similar to AOU, pCO₂ values in western Greenland were
- 257 elevated near LTGs compared to near MTGs, with even higher values in shelf waters (Fig. 4b).
- 258 Eastern Greenland did not demonstrate a difference in pCO₂ values between stations near LTGs and
- 259 MTGs (p-value = 0.997). However, the stations close to glacial output exhibited lower pCO₂ values 260 than mid-fjord or shelf waters (Fig. 4b).
- 261



262 263

Figure 3. Relationships between apparent oxygen utilization (AOU) and pCO₂ (a, b) and salinity and pCO₂ (c, 264 d) for East and West coasts. Linear regression fits use all data in a & b while c & d fit regression for all data 265 below salinity of coastal seawater endmembers (Henson et al. 2023). Atmospheric pCO₂ concentrations and 266 the equilibrium between net auto- and heterotrophy are depicted with horizontal and vertical gray dashed 267 lines respectively. 268



Figure 4. Boxplots and two-way ANOVA analysis of AOU with fjord location (a) and pCO₂(b) with fjord 271 location for surface layer samples (above 20 m depth). Significant interactions between coast and fjord 272 location on AOU and on pCO₂ are described above each plot. All pairwise comparisons were analyzed 273 between the different fjord location groups organized by coast. Statistical differences are depicted as 274 brackets above boxplots with significance codes. Non-significant pairwise comparisons are not pictured. 275 Equilibrium between net auto- and heterotrophy (a) as well as atmospheric pCO₂ concentrations (b) are 276 depicted as gray dashed lines. 277

278 CO₂ Fluxes

279

280 The air-sea exchange of CO₂ is a product of wind speed driven turbulence and ΔpCO_2 .

281 Understanding the interplay between these factors is crucial in understanding the dynamics of CO₂

282 fluxes in marine environments. In our investigation, we delve into the impact of wind speed on this exchange, examining fluxes calculated from both monthly and three-hour wind speed averages. 283

The monthly wind speeds in August ranged between 1.7 to 6.5 m s⁻¹ across our stations within 284

- 285 Greenland fjords while three-hour averages ranged from 0-16.6 m s⁻¹. Notably, we found a strong
- 286 correlation ($R^2 = 0.77$; P = 1.1e-36) between these two flux calculations. However, the air-sea CO₂
- 287 flux derived from three-hour wind averages exceeded the estimates from monthly wind speeds by
- 288 an average of 10%. Disparities in these calculations are attributed to the non-linear relationship 289 between gas transfer velocity and wind speed (Eq. 2), leading to significant exchanges during
- 290 periods of high wind speed events. As a result, if 1hr or 10 min average wind speeds were available, one could expect an even larger difference to monthly averages.
- 291 292

293 In August, both the East and West coasts of Greenland showed pCO₂ values in surface water below 294 atmospheric levels, indicating this region acts as a CO₂ sink. However, considerable geographic

295 variability existed in ΔpCO_2 values, leading to varied flux magnitudes. Fluxes in West Greenland

296 ranged from -37.52 to -1.80 mmol m⁻² day⁻¹ while those in East Greenland ranged from -13.24 to 0.17

- 297 mmol m⁻² day⁻¹, highlighting differences in sink capacity and controlling factors between regions.
- 298 Despite regional variations, certain trends emerged. The highest CO₂ uptake was observed near the
- 299 Greenland ice sheet, whereas lower uptake, driven by smaller ΔpCO_2 , was recorded in shelf waters
- 300 (Fig. 1). These glacial fjords therefore shape a gradient between sources of freshening and the open
- 301 ocean, displaying a transition from more negative to less negative fluxes.
- 302
- 303
- 304 Discussion 305

306 Greenland coastal pCO_2 is highly heterogeneous

307 Our observation of low surface water pCO_2 in coastal Greenland waters affirm the previous

308 conclusions of Sejr et al. (2011, 2014), Meire et al. (2015, 2023), and Rysgaard et al. (2012) that these 309 waters are large CO₂ sinks. We measured ΔpCO_2 values ranging from -295 to 5 µatm with an

- average of -127 µatm. Only a single measurement was above atmospheric levels and was located in
- 311 Kangertittivag. These measurements, while displaying wide variation, represent similar values to
- 312 summer measurements in other regions of coastal Greenland. Sejr et al. (2011) observed averages
- between -77 to -134 μatm in Young Sound, Rysgaard et al. (2012) observed ΔpCO2 values between -
- 314 20 and -330 μatm in offshore areas of Southern Greenland and Meire et al. (2015) measured
- between -115 and -323 μatm within the Nuup Kangerlua fjord system. These seem analogous to the
- variability and levels of ΔpCO_2 that we observed on the east and west coast. Additionally, when
- comparing to syntheses of global shelf seas, our measured ranges of ΔpCO_2 fall within low-end of
- measurements at the same latitude (Dai et al., 2022).
- Although pCO_2 values have been reported before, this is the first study to examine CO_2 uptake
- potential in more than one fjord system. We measured pCO₂ levels across 6° of latitude in both East
- 321 and West Greenland and discovered quite different ecosystems comparing the two coasts. The
- 322 observed spatial variability of pCO_2 emerges as a consequence of multifaceted oceanographic 222 factors (Maire et al., and Crimetal Lance). The solution of the state of the solution of the solution
- factors (Meire et al., 2015; Sejr et al., 2011). Therefore, understanding spatial flux variability requires
- an understanding of the environmental drivers of marine carbon dynamics.

325 Autotrophy/Heterotrophy balance dictates pCO_2 in West Greenland

- 326
- Both biological and physical parameters were found to be significantly related to surface water pCO₂ within SLM models (Table 1). As a result, oxygen saturation in combination with salinity and temperature can be used to predict surface layer pCO₂ levels in coastal Greenland waters. This is because biological processes dictate levels of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) within the water column (Henson et al., 2023). The uptake of DIC by primary production reduces its concentration in seawater, while bacterial decomposition acts as a source of DIC. This direct consumption and production of DIC helps to explain the strong spatial link between pCO₂ levels and AOU in western
- Greenland fjords (Fig. 3a). Similarly, limited biological productivity in eastern Greenland resulted in
- less variability in pCO₂ profiles with depth (Fig.2). Western Greenland is known to be more
- 336 productive ecosystem compare to eastern Greenland (Henson et al., 2023; Vernet et al., 2021).
- 337 Primary production in the photic zone consumes DIC at the expense of deeper waters. In areas
- exhibiting elevated photosynthesis, increased amounts of particulate organic matter sink below the
- photic zone and undergo remineralization (Arendt et al., 2010; Henson et al., 2023). Nevertheless,
- the specific impact of the biological pump compared to the advection of shelf water on pCO₂ levelsremains uncertain.
- 342
- 343
- 344 Glacial meltwater lowers pCO_2 levels along the coasts of Greenland

346 Our other primary environmental driver of pCO₂ variability in these ecosystems is meltwater runoff 347 from the Greenland ice sheet. Freshwater input to coastal waters has two main effects: it alters 348 pelagic biological production by modifying water mass circulation within the fjords and induces 349 direct physical and chemical changes.

350

351 Fjords influenced by land-terminating glaciers (LTGs) showcase distinctive characteristics marked 352 by pronounced thermohaline stratification due to glacial river runoff (Henson et al., 2023). 353 Heightened turbidity and stratification-driven nutrient limitation restrict primary production 354 (Henson et al., 2023; Meire et al., 2017) and therefore CO₂ uptake in surface waters. Conversely, 355 subglacial meltwater from marine-terminating glaciers (MTGs) generates buoyant plumes near glacier termini. These plumes entrain nutrient-rich water, stimulating phytoplankton blooms, and 356 357 contribute to the reduction of surface DIC in fjords where MTGs are present (Chierici and Fransson, 358 2009; Henson et al., 2023; Meire et al., 2015, 2017; Rysgaard et al., 2012). However, these buoyant 359 plumes may also entrain DIC-rich bottom water, elevating pCO₂ below the photic zone. Therefore, 360 freshwater-driven circulation dynamics play a pivotal role in dictating the location and intensity of biological DIC consumption, thereby impacting the magnitude of air-sea exchange. Indeed, a recent 361 362 study found that neighboring fjords with different glacial termini showed double the carbon uptake 363 near MTGs compared to near LTGs (Meire et al., 2023). This relationship is evident in West 364 Greenland, where the spatial distribution of AOU closely corresponds to the distribution of surface 365 layer pCO₂ values (Fig. 4). However, this association seems absent in Eastern Greenland where no 366 apparent difference in biological activity or pCO₂ levels near the termini of MTGs or LTGs are observed. This discrepancy might be attributed to the source history of water masses along the East 367 368 Coast. Seawater entering fjords from the East Greenlandic current consists of cold, nutrient-poor 369 water originating from the Arctic outflow (Henley et al., 2020). This combined with relatively lower 370 glacial discharge (Velicogna et al., 2020) results in reduced upwelling of already nutrient-limited 371 water and therefore restricted primary production along the East Coast, even near marine-372 terminating glaciers.

373

374 Freshwater input also has direct impacts on coastal carbon dynamics. A distinct relationship 375 between pCO₂ and salinity was clearly visible (Figure 3c, 3d). Lowest observed pCO₂ values and 376 therefore the strongest carbon sinks had low salinities and were located near the glacial termini 377 (Figure 3c, 3d, 4b). Greenland's coastal waters are profoundly impacted by freshwater inputs. Within 378 these fjords, August freshwater fractions were primarily of glacial origin while sea ice melt was 379 limited (Henson et al., 2023). When compared to regions like Svalbard and Hudson Bay, Greenland stands out for its unique freshened waters characterized by lower salinity levels and ¹⁸O isotopic 380 381 signatures (Azetsu-Scott et al., 2010; Ericson et al., 2019; Fransson et al., 2015; Granskog et al., 382 2011; Henson et al., 2023). This freshwater has physical and chemical effects on the carbon 383 dynamics of seawater. Glacial fjords, particularly affected by freshening, experience enhanced CO₂ 384 undersaturation due to the non-linear influence of salinity on pCO₂ (Meire et al., 2015; Rysgaard et 385 al., 2012). The combination of low temperatures, pCO₂ undersaturation, and the non-linear 386 relationship with salinity amplifies the potential for CO₂ uptake in surface waters within fjords 387 where freshening occurs.

388

389 As we anticipate increased melting in the future, one might expect a larger ΔpCO_2 and air-sea 390 exchange. However, while increased melting may augment carbon uptake through freshening-391 driven CO₂ drawdown, future climate change may in some circumstances have the reverse effect. 392 As temperatures increase, surface water warming could limit gas dissolution and decrease ΔpCO_2 393 between the ocean and the atmosphere. Additionally, the transition from MTGs to LTGs due to 394 glacial retreat may lead to a reduction in primary production, limiting air-sea CO₂ exchange (Meire 395 et al., 2023).

397 Air-sea exchange and sources of uncertainty

398

399 Flux magnitudes are a product of not only ΔpCO_2 but also gas transfer velocity. This diffusion of 400 gases is related to wind-driven turbulence at the air-sea interface. The interplay between wind 401 speed and ΔpCO_2 values plays a pivotal role in shaping these fluctuations (Ho et al., 2011). Spatial 402 variability in summer fluxes around Greenland, therefore, are dictated not only by carbon dynamics 403 but also wind regimes and fjord morphology. Notably, regions experiencing extreme CO₂ uptake, 404 such as Uummannaq Fjord, exhibit a convergence of both larger ΔpCO₂ values and higher wind 405 speeds in August 2016. In contrast, narrow and elongated fjords such as those present along the 406 east coast of Greenland (Kong Oscar Fjord and Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord) exhibited lower CO₂ 407 uptake, a product of both smaller ΔpCO_2 but also more calm summer wind conditions.

408

In fact, large uncertainty remains in estimating flux magnitudes based upon the source of wind data
as well as the choice of gas transfer velocity parameterization. For instance, Sejr et al. (2011)

as well as the choice of gas transfer velocity parameterization. For instance, Sejr et al. (2011)
 reported larger flux magnitudes in Young Sound, registering below -25 mmol m⁻² day⁻¹, compared

412 to our range of -4 to -10 mmol m^{-2} day⁻¹ despite relatively similar ΔpCO_2 measurements between

413 2006-2009 and during this study conducted in 2018. The discrepancies in flux calculations primarily

414 stem from differences in wind speed measurements. Sejr et al. (2011) relied on hourly wind speeds

- 415 from a nearby weather station, recording higher wind speeds compared to estimates derived from
- 416 the Copernicus Arctic Reanalysis (2021). The non-linear relationship with wind speed results in

417 intermittent spikes of gas transfer during periods of high wind speeds, enabling a large portion of

- 418 monthly air-sea exchange to occur within a single storm.
- 419

420 The calculation of gas transfer velocities relies on empirically derived relationships. However, existing studies have primarily quantified k₆₀₀ values in regions that are rather dissimilar to Arctic 421 422 coastal ecosystems, making the choice of parameterization for coastal Greenland waters difficult. 423 Even more worrying is the fact that the equation chosen to derive k_{600} significantly influences the 424 magnitude of the fluxes we calculate (Fig. 5a). Currently, it remains unclear whether k_{600} values 425 derived from open-ocean, coastal, or estuarine systems best represent Arctic fjords. In our study, 426 this choice results in substantial variations, changing the maximum measured air-sea exchange 427 from -24.8 to -61.6 mmol m^{-2} day⁻¹ and altering median values from -2.5 to -15.9 mmol m^{-2} day⁻¹. 428 Comparing Greenland coastal fluxes using Borges et al. (2014) and Wanninkhof & McGillis (1999) 429 parameterizations results in an average flux difference of 772%. Uncertainties based on gas 430 parameterization increase with both faster wind speeds and larger air-sea differences in pCO₂ (Fig. 431 5b). While Greenland fjords may not exhibit high wind speeds in the summer season, they certainly 432 demonstrate extreme negative ΔpCO_2 values, making this choice of gas transfer equation

disproportionally important compared to ecosystems at lower latitudes. These considerable

discrepancies underscore the pressing need for better establishment of transfer velocities specificto these coastal Arctic regions.

436

437 Despite the uncertainties, we wanted to place this study in context by comparing to other coastal 438 estimates of CO₂ sequestration. Upscaling of coastal carbon fluxes, particularly at high latitudes, is 439 often based upon few datapoints/study sites (Laruelle et al., 2013). This study demonstrates the 440 large heterogeneity of Greenland's coastlines and oceanographic conditions, therefore putting to 441 question the reliability of upscaling efforts based on data from few locations. To compare with 442 these assessments, we estimate coastal Greenland uptake by multiplying mean flux rates for fjord 443 and shelf waters with estuarine and shelf surface areas according to Laruelle et al. (2013), obtaining 444 uptake rates of 0.056 ± 0.052 Tq C day⁻¹. An annual estimate of Greenland coastal uptake was then 445 calculated based upon these August flux rates and then scaled by the yearly-averaged ice cover in 446 the estuarine and shelf regional areas according to Laruelle et al (2014), assuming no gas transfer

447 where sea ice was present (Sejr et al., 2011). Assuming North and South Greenland coasts have 448 63.5% and 25.4% yearly-averaged ice cover respectively, we obtain the total Greenland coastal 449 uptake rates of -9.5 ± 9.0 Tq C year⁻¹. We recognize this annual estimate makes many assumptions, 450 especially as previous studies indicate large seasonality in carbon dynamics and air-sea exchange in 451 Greenland fjords (Meire et al., 2023, 2015; Rysgaard et al., 2012). However, for the sake of 452 comparison and context we present this first order estimate. Both Laruelle et al. (2014) and Dai et al. (2022) report nearly two to three times higher carbon sequestration in this region (-16.37 and -453 454 26.44 Tq C year⁻¹ respectively). Indeed, this region is beset by wide ranging estimates of air-sea 455 exchange, partly due to the choice of gas-transfer parameterization. Still, based upon this study's, perhaps conservative, CO₂ uptake rates, the Greenland coastal ocean represents 3.8% of global 456 457 coastal CO₂ uptake (0.25 Pg C year⁻¹) and 7.1% of uptake in the Arctic coastal zone (-134 Tg C year⁻¹; Dai et al., 2022) despite constituting 2.9% of global coastal ocean area (Laruelle et al., 2013). This 458 considerable percentage of global carbon storage in such a relatively small region reiterates the 459 460 need to better resolve this highly variable region with regards to carbon dynamics and air-sea 461 exchange.

462



Figure 5. Calculated flux from coastal Greenland waters using different gas transfer velocity

- parameterizations (Borges et al., 2004; Wanninkhof and McGillis, 1999; Nightingale et al., 2000; Jiang et al., 2015; Kuss et al., 2004; Ho et al., 2011; Wanninkhof, 2014; Clark et al., 1995) (a). Variability in CO₂ uptake explained by wind speed, ΔpCO_2 magnitude, and choice of gas parameterization.

Conclusion

The widespread undersaturation of surface water pCO₂ in Greenlandic coastal waters confirms that

this region acts as a carbon sink during summer. However, pCO₂ concentrations as well as air-sea

- exchange rates exhibited considerable geographical variability. Levels of pCO₂ on the West coast of
- Greenland were controlled by a combination of biological and physical/chemical drivers. Levels of

- 478 net autotrophy/heterotrophy, indicated by oxygen saturation, combined with freshwater runoff
- 479 helped to explain spatial variation in West coast pCO₂ levels. In contrast, East Greenland fjords had
- 480 pCO₂ levels that were dictated mainly by abiotic factors, including temperature and salinity.
- Freshwater export has two-fold effects, altering primary production by modifying circulation in the
- 482 surface layer and exerting direct physical/chemical impacts. Therefore, the lowest pCO₂ values and
 483 the largest air-sea exchange occurred on the West coast of Greenland where high levels of net
- the largest air-sea exchange occurred on the West coast of Greenland where high levels of net
 production and freshwater export took place concurrently. This resulted in CO₂ uptake reaching -38
- 485 mmol m^{-2} day⁻¹. Using these measurements across 6° of latitude, allowed us to create a first order
- 486 estimate of CO₂ uptake in the Greenland coastal ocean. Using average fluxes in fjords and shelf
- 487 waters combined with coastal surface area data indicated that the Greenland coastal ocean absorbs
- 488 -9.5 ± 9.0 Tg C year⁻¹, or nearly 4% of global coastal ocean CO₂ uptake. However, quantifying the
- 489 *true* flux magnitude is beset by significant uncertainties (up to 770%), stemming from the averaging
- of wind products, as well as the selection of gas exchange formulations. We therefore encourage
 further studies to refine the estimation of gas transfer velocities in the Arctic coastal zone, as this
- 492 represents the largest contributor to present uncertainty. Additionally, comprehensive
- 493 understanding demands data collection across multiple seasons. This expanded temporal scope will
- 494 provide a more holistic view of the year-round dynamics of CO₂ exchange within Greenlandic fjords,
- shedding light on how these ecosystems sequester carbon throughout the annual cycle.

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513 Data Availability

- 514 Data relevant to reproduce the results of this study have been made available on Zenodo, an all-515 purpose open research repository created by Open Access Infrastructure for Research in Europe
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- 519 are available for cruises from the West and East coasts respectively at the following DOIs:
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523 CRediT authorship contribution statement

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- 525 Sejr: Investigation, Writing review & editing. Lorenz Meire: Investigation, Writing review &
- 626 editing. Mie Winding: Investigation, Writing review& editing. Lise Lotte Sørensen: Supervision,

527 528	Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing. Johnna M. Holding: Conceptualization, Investigation, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing.
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