

Title:

An increasing Arctic-boreal CO₂ sink offset by wildfires and source regions

Coauthors:

Anna-Maria Virkkala¹, Brendan M. Rogers¹, Jennifer D. Watts¹, Kyle A. Arndt¹, Stefano Potter¹, Isabel Wargowsky¹, Edward A. G. Schuur^{2,3}, Craig See², Marguerite Mauritz⁴, Julia Boike^{5,6}, Sydonia M. Bret-Harte⁷, Eleanor J. Burke⁸, Arden Burrell¹, Namyi Chae⁹, Abhishek Chatterjee¹⁰, Frederic Chevallier¹¹, Torben R. Christensen^{12,13}, Roisin Commene¹⁴, Han Dolman^{15,16}, Bo Elberling¹⁷, Craig A. Emmerton¹⁸, Eugenie S. Euskirchen⁷, Liang Feng¹⁹, Mathias Goeckede²⁰, Achim Grelle²¹, Manuel Helbig^{32,22,39}, David Holl²³, Järvi Järveoja²⁴, Hideki Kobayashi^{25z}, Lars Kutzbach²³, Junjie Liu¹⁰, Ingrid Liujkx⁴⁴, Efrén López-Blanco^{12,46}, Kyle Lunneberg²⁶, Ivan Mammarella²⁷, Maija E. Marushchak²⁸, Mikhail Mastepanov^{12,13}, Yojiro Matsuura²⁹, Trofim Maximov³⁰, Lutz Merbold³¹, Gesa Meyer^{32,33}, Mats B. Nilsson²⁴, Yosuke Niwa³⁴, Walter Oechel²⁶, Sang-Jong Park³⁵, Frans-Jan W. Parmentier³⁶, Matthias Peichl²⁴, Wouter Peters^{44,37}, Roman Petrov³⁰, William Quinton³⁸, Christian Rödenbeck²⁰, Torsten Sachs^{39,45}, Christopher Schulze^{32,40}, Oliver Sonnentag³², Vincent St.Louis¹⁸, Eeva-Stiina Tuittila⁴¹, Masahito Ueyama⁴², Andrej Varlagin⁴³, Donatella Zona²⁶, and Susan M. Natali¹

Correspondence: avirkkala@woodwellclimate.org

Affiliations:

- 1 Woodwell Climate Research Center, Falmouth, USA
- 2 Center for Ecosystem Science and Society, Northern Arizona University Flagstaff, USA
- 3 Department of Biological Sciences, Northern Arizona University Flagstaff, USA
- 4 Biological Sciences, University of Texas at El Paso, El Paso, USA
- 5 Permafrost Research Section, Alfred Wegener Institute Helmholtz Center for Polar and Marine Research, Potsdam, Germany
- 6 Department of Geography, Humboldt University, Berlin, Germany
- 7 Institute of Arctic Biology, University of Alaska Fairbanks, Fairbanks, USA
- 8 Met Office Hadley Centre, Exeter, UK
- 9 Institute of Life Science and Natural Resources, Korea University, Seoul, South Korea
- 10 NASA Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, USA
- 11 Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement, LSCE/IPSL, CEA-CNRS-UVSQ, Université Paris-Saclay, Gif-sur-Yvette, France
- 12 Department of Ecoscience, Arctic Research Center, Aarhus University, Roskilde, Denmark
- 13 Water, energy and environmental engineering research unit, University of Oulu, Oulu, Finland
- 14 Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Columbia University, NY, USA
- 15 Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Texel, Netherlands
- 16 Vrije Universiteit, Amsterdam, the Netherlands
- 17 Department of Geosciences and Natural Resource Management, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark
- 18 Department of Biological Sciences, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada
- 19 NCEO, School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, UK
- 20 Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry, Jena, Germany
- 21 Linnaeus University, Växjö, Sweden

22 Department of Physics and Atmospheric Science, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Canada
 23 Institute of Soil Science, Center for Earth System Research and Sustainability (CEN), Universität
 Hamburg, Hamburg, Germany
 24 Department of Forest Ecology and Management, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Umeå,
 Sweden
 25 Research Institute for Global Change, Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology
 26 Department Biology, San Diego State University, San Diego, USA
 27 Institute for Atmospheric and Earth System Research / Physics, Faculty of Science, University of
 Helsinki, Finland
 28 Department of Environmental and Biological Sciences, University of Eastern Finland, Finland
 29 Forestry and Forest Products Research Institute, Tsukuba, Ibaraki, Japan
 30 Institute for Biological Problems of Cryolithozone of the Siberian Branch of the RAS - Division of
 Federal Research Centre "The Yakut Scientific Centre of the Siberian Branch of the Russian Academy of
 Sciences", Yakutsk, Russia
 31 Integrative Agroecology, Agroecology and Environment, Agroscope, Zurich, Switzerland
 32 Département de géographie, Université de Montréal, Montréal, Québec, Canada
 33 Environment and Climate Change Canada, Climate Research Division, Victoria, Canada
 34 Earth System Division, National Institute for Environmental Studies
 /Department of Climate and Geochemistry Research, Meteorological Research Institute, Japan
 35 Division of Atmospheric Sciences, Korea Polar Research Institute, Incheon, Republic of Korea
 36 Centre for Biogeochemistry in the Anthropocene, Department of Geosciences, University of Oslo,
 Oslo, Norway
 37 Centre for Isotope Research, Energy and Sustainability Research Institute Groningen, Groningen
 University, The Netherlands
 38 Cold Regions Research Centre, Wilfrid Laurier University, Waterloo, Canada
 39 GFZ German Research Centre for Geosciences, Germany
 40 Department of Renewable Resources, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada
 41 School of Forest Sciences, University of Eastern Finland
 42 Graduate School of Agriculture, Osaka Metropolitan University
 43 A.N. Severtsov Institute of Ecology and Evolution, Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russia
 44 Dept. of Meteorology and Air Quality, Wageningen University, The Netherlands
 45 Institute of Geoecology, Technische Universität Braunschweig, Braunschweig, Germany
 46 Department of Environment and Minerals, Greenland Institute of Natural Resources, Nuuk, Greenland

Abstract (151 words)

The Arctic-Boreal Zone (ABZ) is rapidly warming, impacting its large soil carbon stocks. We use a new compilation of terrestrial ecosystem CO₂ fluxes, geospatial datasets and random forest models to show that although the ABZ was an increasing terrestrial CO₂ sink from 2001 to 2020 (mean ± standard deviation in net ecosystem exchange: -548 ± 140 Tg C yr⁻¹; trend: -14 Tg C yr⁻¹, p<0.001), more than 30% of the region was a net CO₂ source. Tundra regions may have already started to function on average as CO₂ sources, demonstrating a critical shift in carbon dynamics. After factoring in fire emissions, the increasing ABZ sink was no longer statistically significant (budget: -319 ± 140 Tg C yr⁻¹; trend: -9 Tg C yr⁻¹), with the permafrost region becoming CO₂ neutral (budget: -24 ± 123 Tg C yr⁻¹; trend: -3 Tg C yr⁻¹), underscoring the importance of fire in this region.

Main text (3171 words)

Estimating terrestrial net ecosystem CO₂ exchange (NEE) of the Arctic-Boreal Zone (ABZ) poses a significant challenge^{1–4} due to their complex functions^{4–6} and a limited network of field measurements^{7,8}. As a result, models show a wide range of CO₂ budgets, from substantial net atmospheric sinks (–1,800 Tg C yr^{–1}) to moderate atmospheric sources (600 Tg C yr^{–1})^{1,4,5,9,10}, a concerning discrepancy as northern permafrost soils hold nearly half of global soil organic carbon stocks¹¹. The release of this soil carbon to the atmosphere as CO₂ could significantly exacerbate climate change¹². Thus, there is an urgent need to improve CO₂ budget estimates across the ABZ.

The rapid climate change of the ABZ makes this discrepancy even more critical¹³. Increasing air and soil temperatures in both summer and non-summer seasons are causing changes in the CO₂ budget that remain poorly understood⁹. Furthermore, it is not known how the widespread but spatially heterogeneous increase in vegetation productivity and greening^{14,15} impacts the annual CO₂ balance although links to enhanced CO₂ sinks during the spring-summer period have been found^{16,17}. Some of the enhanced uptake might be offset by CO₂ losses associated with vegetation dieback (‘browning’), and the escalating frequency and intensity of disturbances such as abrupt permafrost thaw (e.g., thermokarst), drought and fires, further complicating the understanding of ABZ carbon dynamics and climate feedbacks^{18–20}.

Current evidence on recent ABZ CO₂ budget trends and their main drivers is limited to few in-situ data-driven synthesis and modeling studies without a regional perspective on where and why CO₂ budgets are changing^{1,5,9,10}. These studies have focused primarily on ecosystem CO₂ fluxes (i.e., not incorporating fire emissions), coarse annual or seasonal CO₂ fluxes (i.e., overlooking the intra-annual dynamics), and spatial patterns in CO₂ fluxes with data from only one to two decades. Most importantly, earlier studies have not extended into the 2020s, a period of time where warming has further accelerated and more fires have occurred²¹. Thus, we lack a comprehensive understanding of the regional and seasonal patterns in recent ecosystem CO₂ fluxes, including fire emissions, and their multidecadal trends, and the links to changing environmental conditions across the ABZ.

Here, we address this knowledge gap using the most comprehensive site-level ABZ CO₂ flux dataset to-date—including monthly terrestrial photosynthesis (gross primary production; GPP), ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}), and NEE data from 200 terrestrial eddy covariance and flux chamber sites (4,897 site-months). This dataset is at least four times larger than in earlier upscaling efforts and covers a longer time period with data extending to 2020. The same dataset was previously used to analyze in-situ CO₂ flux trends in permafrost versus non-permafrost regions, with the conclusion that the annual net uptake is increasing in the non-permafrost region but not in the permafrost region²². Here we extend that study from the site level to the full ABZ region by combining flux observations with meteorological, remote sensing, and soil data, together with random forest models to estimate CO₂ budgets across the ABZ. We do this upscaling over two periods, 2001–2020 (1-km resolution) and 1990–2016 (8-km resolution); results in the main text are based on the 1-km models unless stated otherwise. We

then assess regional and seasonal patterns and trends in ABZ ecosystem CO₂ fluxes and their environmental drivers. We also integrate annual fire emissions from 2002 to 2020²³ to provide near-complete terrestrial CO₂ budget estimates (referred as NEE + fire).

Results

CO₂ budgets across the ABZ

Using machine learning models that had a high predictive performance (up to two times higher cross-validated R² compared to earlier efforts^{5,9}), we find that from 2001-2020 circumpolar tundra was on average CO₂ neutral without accounting for fire emissions (in-situ NEE: -4 ± 44 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹; upscaled NEE: 7 ± 3 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹; upscaled budget 45 ± 53 Tg C yr⁻¹; mean $\pm$ standard deviation; Table 1). In contrast, the boreal was a strong sink (in-situ NEE: -42 ± 82 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹; upscaled NEE: -43 ± 7 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹; upscaled budget -593 ± 101 Tg C yr⁻¹). Including fire emissions (on average 237 Tg C yr⁻¹²³, i.e., 2% of R_{eco} and 43% of the ABZ net CO₂ uptake budget) changed the budget to -383 ± 101 Tg C yr⁻¹ in the boreal and to 64 ± 53 Tg C yr⁻¹ in the tundra. With fire emissions included, the permafrost region turned into CO₂ neutral (NEE: -249 ± 123 Tg C yr⁻¹, NEE + fire: -24 ± 123 Tg C yr⁻¹).

Although the entire ABZ domain was a terrestrial CO₂ sink across all years during 2001-2020 with an average NEE of -548 ± 140 Tg C yr⁻¹, our upscaling of NEE revealed a large areal fraction of annual ecosystem CO₂ sources across the domain (34% of the total region, Fig. 1). For the permafrost domain, the fraction of annual CO₂ sources was even higher (41% of the region). This large fraction is also seen in our in-situ CO₂ flux database, with 29% of sites being CO₂ sources (NEE between 0-142 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹). These CO₂ source sites were mostly in Alaska (44%), but also in northern Europe (25%), Canada (19%), and Siberia (13%). One key factor driving CO₂ sources is the long and persistent non-summer season (September-May) emissions in the tundra that, on average, exceed the short summer (June-August) net CO₂ uptake (Table 1). In the boreal, longer summers with strong uptake still dominate over non-summer emissions.

Model performance and comparison

We observed moderate correlation of our upscaled NEE results with an ensemble of atmospheric inversions²⁴ across space (Pearson's correlation 0.5, $p < 0.001$), but the correlation between the temporal trends was weaker (Pearson's correlation 0.2, $p < 0.001$) (Fig. 1). However, the ensemble net uptake budgets from the inversions, as well as from a global machine-learning based upscaling product (FLUXCOM-X-BASE^{25,26}) were 1.5 to 3 times larger than our upscaled budgets (Supplementary Section 5). Moreover, the global Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) process model ensemble²⁷ had barely any annual CO₂ sources across the ABZ, indicating that the process models may not accurately simulate CO₂ source situations (Fig. 1), especially given the prevalence of site-level sources. The cross-validated predictive performances of our random forest models for GPP, R_{eco}, and NEE showed high correlations between observed and predicted fluxes (R² varied from 0.5 to 0.78 and root mean square error from 19.4 to 37.3 g C m⁻² month⁻¹; Supplementary Fig. 1-3), but upscaling

uncertainties remain. For example, areas with the most extensive strong sink or source estimates rarely had in-situ data and were thus largely extrapolated (e.g., sources in central Siberia, or sinks in southern Siberia, Supplementary Fig. 4). These areas also had the highest uncertainties in our analysis (approximately twice as large uncertainties as in the more densely measured areas; Supplementary Fig. 5).

Table 1. Mean gross primary productivity (GPP), ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}), and net ecosystem exchange (NEE) fluxes and budgets over 2001-2020, and NEE + fire budgets from 2002-2020. Uncertainties are standard deviations across sites or pixels (for the mean fluxes) or across bootstrapped budget estimates. Positive numbers for NEE indicate net CO_2 loss to the atmosphere and negative numbers indicate net CO_2 uptake by the ecosystem. Mismatches in the site-level versus upscaled CO_2 fluxes are likely related to sites being biased to certain regions and years while upscaled summaries should provide more representative regional estimates but are influenced by model performance. Mismatches in the NEE vs. $GPP - R_{eco}$ estimates are related to different numbers of sites and observations being available for the different fluxes. Supplementary Table 1 shows the budgets for different vegetation types and regions.

Class	In-situ average			Upscaled per-area average			Average regional budget			The proportion of summer net uptake budget of non-summer net emissions	Average regional budget with fire	Area ($\times 10^6$ km ²)
Flux and unit	NEE g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	GPP g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	R_{eco} g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	NEE g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	GPP g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	R_{eco} g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	NEE Tg C yr ⁻¹	GPP Tg C yr ⁻¹	R_{eco} Tg C yr ⁻¹	%	NEE + fire Tg C yr ⁻¹	
Arctic-Boreal Zone	-32 ($\pm$ 76)	618 ($\pm$ 396)	588 ($\pm$ 385)	-26 ($\pm$ 5)	482 ($\pm$ 20)	460 ($\pm$ 15)	-548 ($\pm$ 140)	9970 ($\pm$ 144)	9525 ($\pm$ 90)	1.4	-319	20.79
Tundra	-4 ($\pm$ 44)	302 ($\pm$ 125)	312 ($\pm$ 133)	7 ($\pm$ 3)	300 ($\pm$ 14)	306 ($\pm$ 12)	45 ($\pm$ 53)	2049 ($\pm$ 49)	2090 ($\pm$ 33)	0.9	64	6.8
Boreal	-42 ($\pm$ 82)	705 ($\pm$ 402)	664 ($\pm$ 398)	-43 ($\pm$ 7)	572 ($\pm$ 24)	537 ($\pm$ 17)	-593 ($\pm$ 101)	7920 ($\pm$ 106)	7435 ($\pm$ 74)	1.6	-383	13.9
Permafrost region	-21 ($\pm$ 62)	458 ($\pm$ 197)	445 ($\pm$ 171)	-15 ($\pm$ 5)	416 ($\pm$ 20)	405 ($\pm$ 16)	-249 ($\pm$ 123)	6918 ($\pm$ 109)	6719 ($\pm$ 69)	1.2	-24	16.6

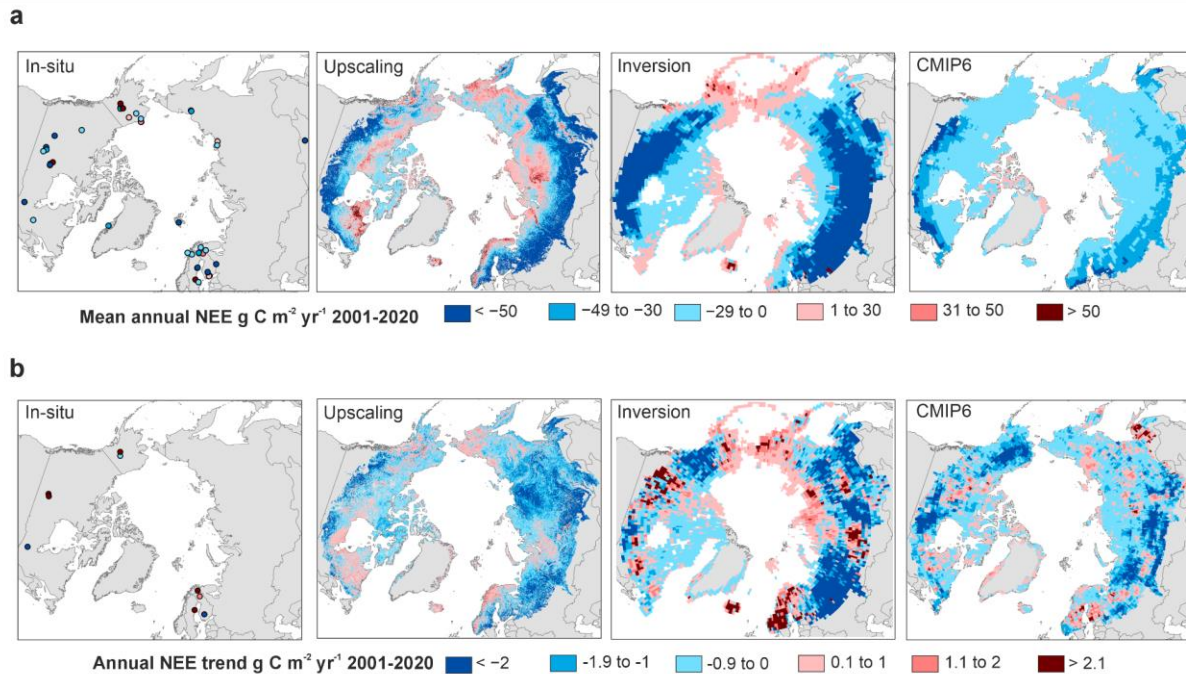


Figure 1. Maps showing the mean annual terrestrial NEE (a) and its trends (b) based on site-level data, our upscaling, atmospheric inversion ensemble, and CMIP6 process model ensemble. In-situ trends in b are based on sites that have >7 years of data. Supplementary Fig. 5c shows the significance of the trends. While the average upscaled NEE values can go up to $116 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$, most of the values are below $60 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$. While the NEE values of the inversion ensemble can go down to $-1636 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$, most of the values are higher than $-200 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$, similar to upscaling and CMIP6 model outputs.

Temporal trends in upscaled ABZ CO₂ budgets

The ABZ has been an increasing terrestrial CO₂ sink based on NEE alone from 2001 to 2020 (temporal trend: -14 Tg C yr^{-1} , $p < 0.001$) (Fig. 2). However, the increasing sink strength was no longer statistically significant when fire emissions were added to NEE (average NEE + fire budget trend -9 Tg C yr^{-1} over 2002-2020). In the permafrost region, the NEE + fire trend was only $-3.3 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$. Nevertheless, based on our NEE upscaling, 23% of the region increased ($p < 0.05$) net CO₂ uptake from 2001 to 2020 (Fig. 1), with increasing net sink pixels occurring across all key regions (Supplementary Fig. 31). Most of the increasing net sink activity was driven by an increase in GPP, especially in Siberia (Fig. 2). Some of the trends were also related to a declining R_{eco} , likely associated with disturbed ecosystems (e.g., forest fires, harvesting) with high R_{eco} during the first post-disturbance years now recovering²⁸. However, evidence for the increasing overall net uptake trend from the in-situ data is limited due to the low number of long-term sites (>7 years of year-round measurements; 9 sites) out of which only one site showed a statistically significant trend (increasing uptake at a boreal forest site in Finland). Some of the relationships in our model are likely thus influenced by spatial differences across

the sites rather than temporal and truly causal patterns, creating some uncertainty in upscaled trends²⁹. However, the model reproduces temporal patterns at individual sites well (see Supplementary Fig. 6), and our upscaled trends are similar to a recent in-situ time-series analysis²² and somewhat similar to those estimated from the inversion ensemble (Fig. 1), providing confidence in our trend results.

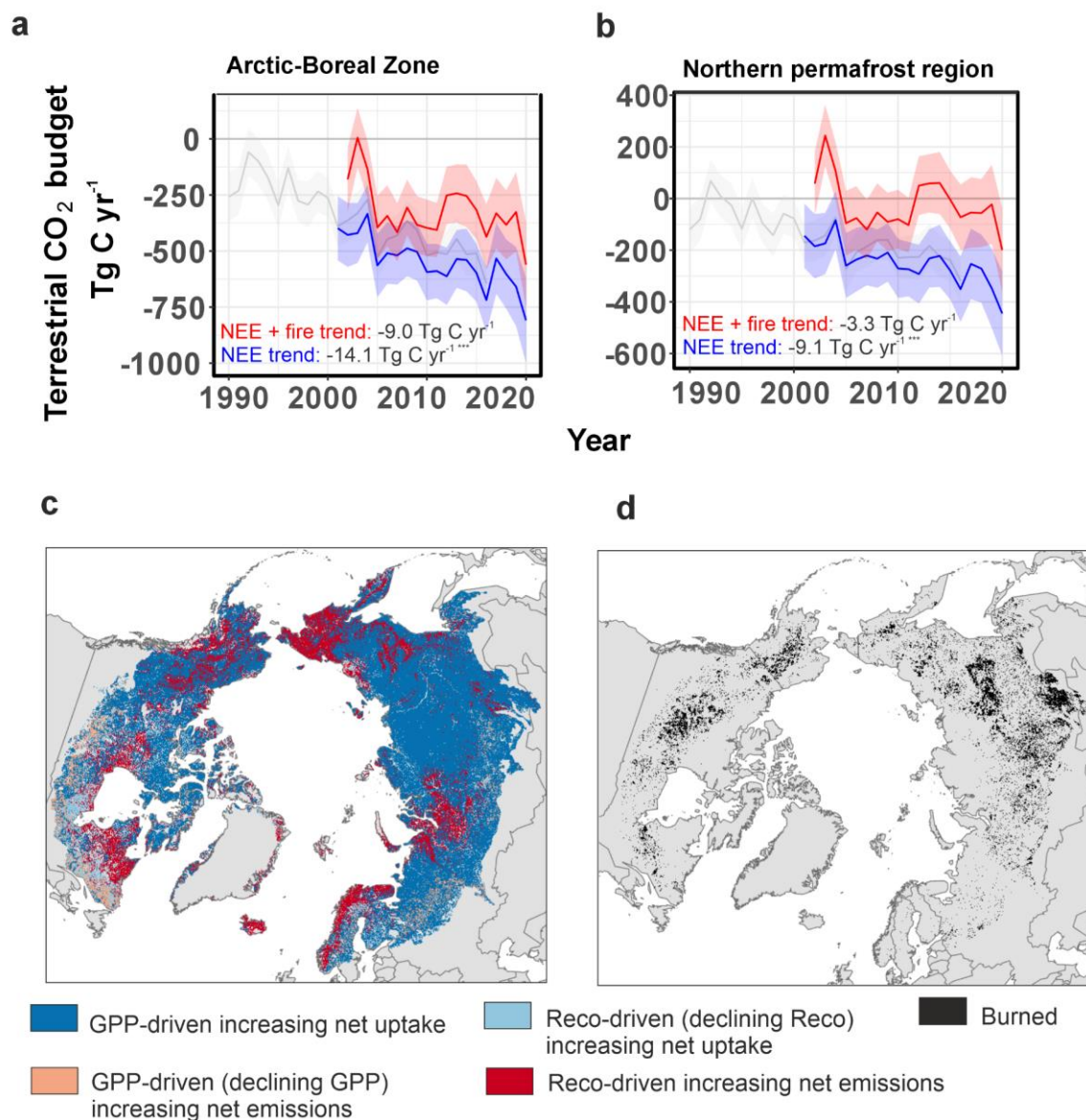
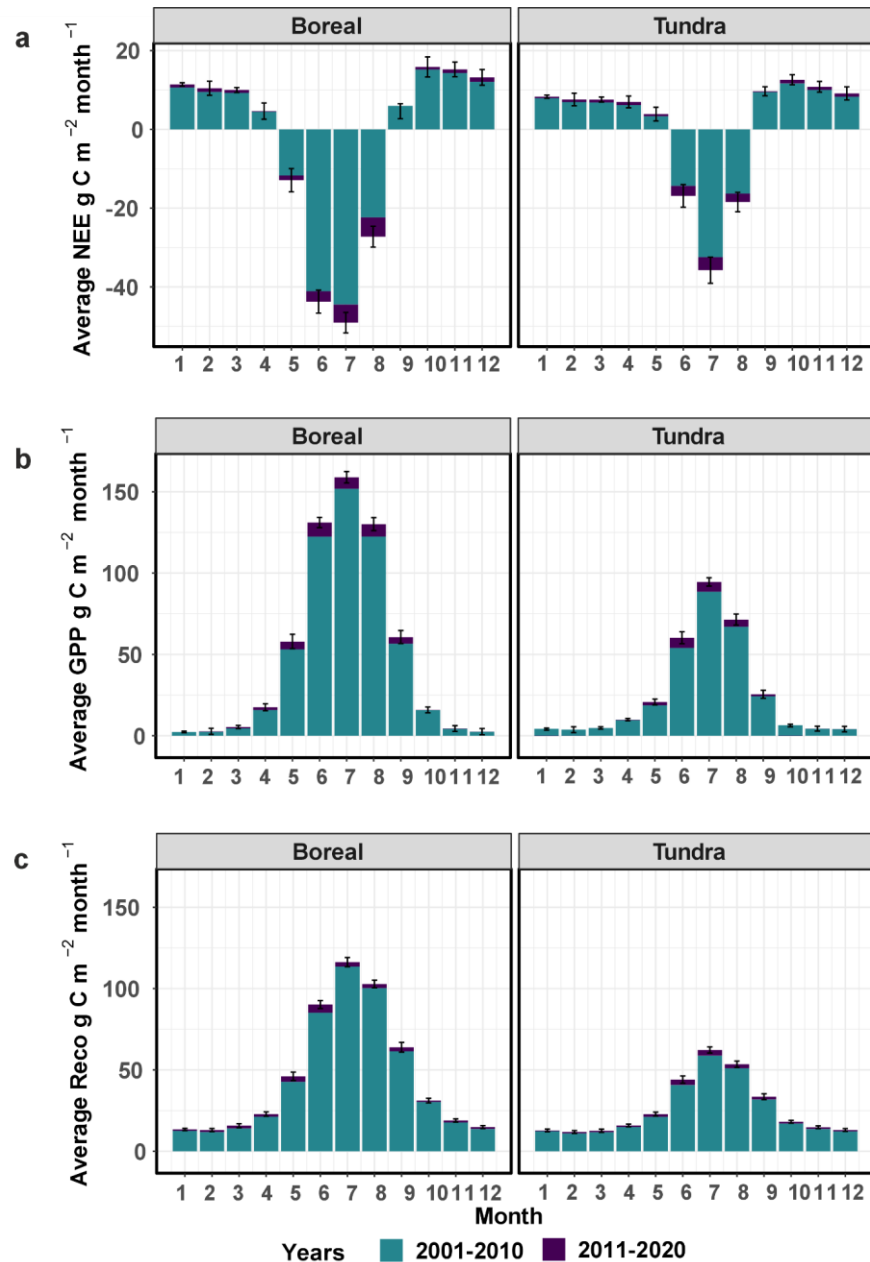


Figure 2. Terrestrial CO₂ budgets for 1-km (blue; 2001-2020) and 8-km (grey; 1990-2016) NEE, and 1-km NEE + fire emissions (red; 2002-2020) across the ABZ (a) and permafrost region (b). An overlay analysis of NEE, GPP, Reco trend maps identifying how trends in GPP and Reco relate to trends in NEE over 2001-2020 (includes significant and non-significant trends; c), and a map showing also pixels burned during 2002-2020 (d). In a and b, trends are shown for the

2002-2020 (NEE + fire) and 2001-2020 (NEE) periods. Stars in the trend values depict the significance of the trend (*= $p<0.05$, **= $p<0.01$, ***= $p<0.001$).



2002-2020 (NEE + fire) and 2001-2020 (NEE) periods. Stars in the trend values depict the significance of the trend (*= $p<0.05$, **= $p<0.01$, ***= $p<0.001$).

Figure 3. Average upscaled monthly NEE, GPP, and R_{eco} in boreal and tundra biomes during the past two decades. Negative NEE values represent net uptake and positive net release. Error bars are only shown for the 2011-2020 period but are similar for the 2001-2010 period. Note that NEE was $1.4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$ lower in September 2011-2020 compared to 2001-2020 in the boreal biome, but this is not shown in the figure. For a similar figure made based on the in-situ data, see Supplementary Fig. 7.

Parts of the ABZ also show increasing annual net CO₂ emissions over time (Fig. 1). Such trends have been observed at six long-term sites (2 to 17 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹, p>0.05), and in 2% of the upscaled region (p<0.05) from 2001 to 2020. Most of the increasing net emission trends were driven by an increase in R_{eco} instead of a decline in GPP (Fig. 2). Regions experiencing increased net CO₂ emissions in upscaling were found especially in (i) northern Europe and Canada (dominated by evergreen needleleaf forests with mild and moderately wet climates), (ii) parts of central Alaska and northern Siberia (sparse boreal ecosystems and graminoid tundra with permafrost and high soil carbon stocks), and (iii) Hudson Bay and Siberian lowlands (wetlands with some permafrost and high soil organic carbon stocks) (Supplementary Fig. 31). Some sites in Alaska have increasing net emissions of CO₂ due to permafrost thaw^{18,30}, but it is unclear if similar changes are occurring in other regions with increasing net CO₂ emissions.

We calculated an overall 25% increase in seasonal amplitude of CO₂ fluxes from the upscaled NEE time series from 2001 to 2020 across the ABZ, on par with earlier atmospheric and modeling studies^{31,32}. Both increasing summer uptake and non-summer season emissions—the key dynamics driving increasing annual sinks and sources—were evident in the tundra and boreal biomes (Fig. 3). However, over the 2001-2020 period, the increasing uptake (GPP) during summer months dominated over increasing net emissions (R_{eco}) during non-summer months across most of the domain. On average across both biomes, net uptake increased the most during July (an average upscaled increase of -5 g C m⁻² month⁻¹ in the boreal and -3 g C m⁻² month⁻¹ in the tundra in 2011-2020 compared to 2001-2010), and increasing net emissions were occurring throughout the entire non-summer season, with no clear peaks (0.1-0.9 g C m⁻² month⁻¹). Although increases in early growing season (May-June) uptake were evident, late growing season (September) trends were absent or minimal (Fig. 3).

Drivers of ABZ CO₂ fluxes

There are several environmental conditions driving CO₂ budgets across the ABZ. Our variable importance analysis showed CO₂ fluxes, and thus the overall increasing sink strength, are explained by dynamic variables of air or surface temperatures, solar radiation, the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), and partially also by soil temperature, snow cover, and the vapor pressure deficit (Supplementary Fig. 8-10). Other less important dynamic variables were vegetation cover and atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Volumetric soil water content was not important in our models, likely due to the large uncertainties and coarse spatial resolution in the gridded product, although in-situ studies have shown drier soils to be linked to larger net CO₂ emissions and wetter soils to enhanced plant growth due to the lack of water limitation³³. Static variables (primarily vegetation type, soil carbon stock, soil pH) were also important in explaining spatial differences.

The most important dynamic variables had a positive overall effect on net uptake, GPP, and R_{eco} (Supplementary Fig. 8-10), however, these relationships are more nuanced in reality. In fact, the recent permafrost in-situ trend analysis of CO₂ fluxes using the same database suggests that the CO₂ flux response to warmer temperatures ranges from positive to negative, depending on the availability of water and nutrients at the site²². Consequently, strong warming

or greening trends did not always translate into increasing net CO₂ sinks in our upscaling (Supplementary Fig. 11). For example, while 49% of the region experienced greening (June-August average NDVI; based on MODIS NDVI, $p < 0.05$), only 12% of those greening pixels showed an annual increasing net CO₂ uptake trend, and 29% an increasing June-August net uptake.

Continental and regional patterns in CO₂ budgets and their trends

Our upscaling showed clear continental patterns in NEE budgets and trends (Fig. 4), with the boreal biome primarily driving the budget and trend differences between the continents^{1,34}. The increasing net uptake trend was more pronounced in Eurasia (-11 Tg C yr^{-1} , $p < 0.001$) compared to North America (-3 Tg C yr^{-1} , $p < 0.05$), which corresponds with the smaller area and weaker warming, declining snow cover and greening trends in North America (Supplementary Fig. 12-14). We found statistically significant declining summer soil moisture trends in Siberian boreal (Supplementary Fig. 15), but this did not translate into stronger net emissions. When fire emissions were added, continental differences were less pronounced due to the much larger and more rapidly increasing CO₂ emissions from Siberian fires (on average 160 compared to 76 Tg C yr⁻¹ in North America; Supplementary Fig. 16). Fire emissions even reversed some NEE trends: the strong increasing sink in Siberia became a source when fire emissions were included (trend: $+0.7 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$; $p > 0.05$). However, Siberian ecosystems have the largest uncertainty for both the upscaled fluxes and inversion-based estimates due to lack of in situ observations, making it challenging to accurately determine the magnitude of continental differences (Fig. 4, Supplementary Fig. 17).

Alaska is an important contributor in the weaker North American CO₂ sink. Based on our analysis, Alaska as a whole was consistently CO₂ neutral or a source over 2002-2020 (NEE + fire emissions), both in the boreal (budget $+5 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$) and tundra (budget $+7 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$). Alaska has a relatively high density of observations, making this result more certain compared to other regions. Alaska is therefore different from the other ABZ regions where boreal regions still remain on average CO₂ sinks. Potential reasons for the Alaskan CO₂ source include Alaska having the most rapidly warming autumns and declining autumn snow cover, which also have high inter-annual variability (Supplementary Fig. 14 and 18). Further, field measurements suggest that many of the observed changes in Alaskan ecosystems can be attributed to permafrost thaw^{18,30}—a phenomenon that has accelerated significantly in response to Alaska's pronounced warming trend since the 1950s³⁵. However, we were unable to incorporate permafrost thaw into our models as high-resolution geospatial data from 1990 to 2020 were not available. The question of whether analogous trends will manifest in other regions across the northern permafrost region remains an important research priority.

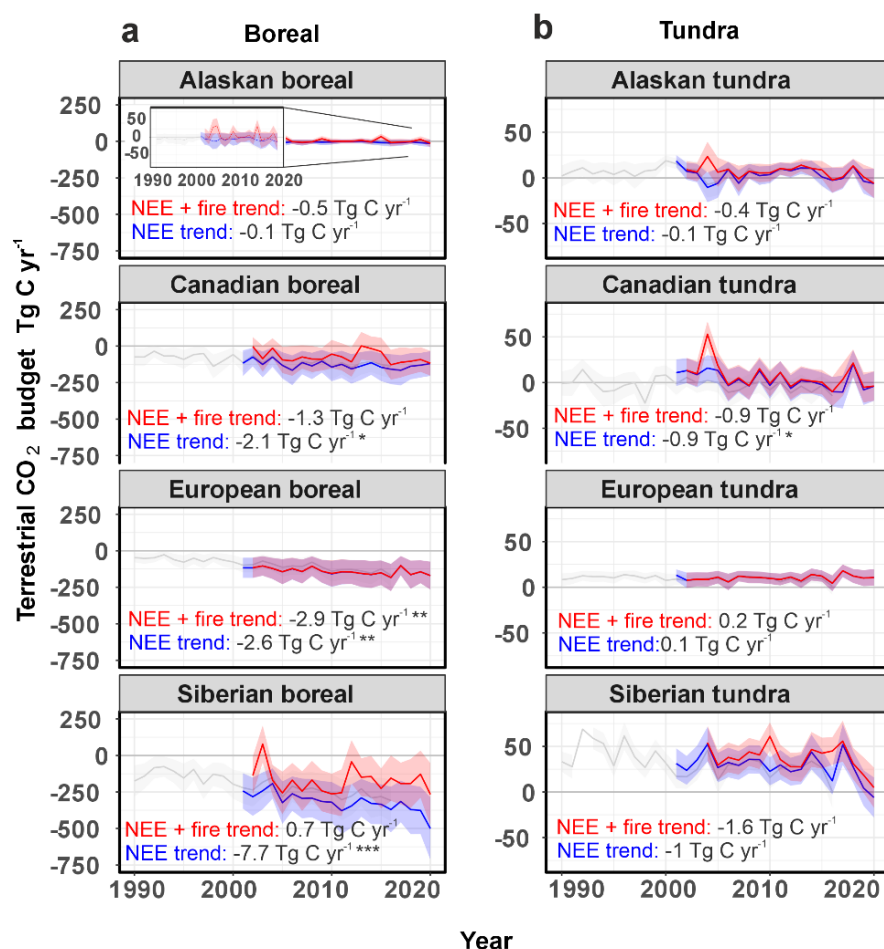


Figure 4. Terrestrial CO₂ budgets for NEE and NEE + fire in key regions and biomes across the boreal (a) and tundra (b). Terrestrial CO₂ budgets are shown for 1-km (blue; 2001-2020) and 8-km (grey; 1990-2016) NEE, and 1-km NEE + fire emissions (red; 2002-2020). Trends are shown for the 2002-2020 (NEE + fire) and 2001-2020 (NEE) periods. The inset in Alaskan boreal in (a) shows the time series with a narrower y axis compared to the main figure to better detect interannual variability. Stars in the trend values depict the significance of the trend (*= $p < 0.05$, **= $p < 0.01$, ***= $p < 0.001$). Fire emissions alone are shown in Supplementary Fig. 16.

Discussion

Our results show that the ABZ was on average an increasing terrestrial CO₂ sink (GPP is increasing more than $R_{eco} + \text{fire}$), indicating that the region still creates an important negative feedback to global warming. However, our study also suggests some positive feedbacks to climate change that have been more regional and of shorter duration in recent decades. We show that the presence of annual sources was large as indicated by several site-level and regional studies^{36–38}, and even larger with fire emissions included³⁹. There were also extreme years when fire emissions exceeded annual net CO₂ uptake (e.g., 2003 in Siberian boreal, 2012

in Canadian boreal, and several years in the permafrost region; Fig. 2). We also observed increasing shoulder season net emission trends, particularly in Alaska⁴⁰ (Supplementary Fig. 34). Moreover, while summer net uptake increase still dominates over non-summer CO₂ emissions, net CO₂ uptake is increasing only in the early and peak growing season (May-August in the boreal and June-August in the tundra) and not in the late growing season (September), because GPP does not increase later in the season due to plant physiological limitations, and drier and warmer conditions cause enhanced R_{eco} instead^{41–46}. A better understanding of how soil moisture and hydrology have been and will be changing, and the impact of these changes on CO₂ fluxes is critical for more accurate ABZ CO₂ budgets.

In the tundra, our findings reveal a noteworthy shift in carbon dynamics. While the tundra region has been a carbon sink for millennia⁴⁷, our results suggest that many tundra regions may now have started to function as CO₂ sources. This transition from an ecosystem CO₂ sink to a CO₂ source may have begun prior to 1990⁴⁸, yet the precise timing of this transformation remains uncertain. The main drivers of this pattern may be related to warming-induced permafrost thaw, the drying of soils, or vegetation shifts^{49–51} but remain unresolved. Tundra regions are also progressing towards conditions where average annual soil (0–7 cm) temperatures are above freezing, resulting in more soil organic material being susceptible to decomposition (Supplementary Fig. 12). Overall, the primary reason behind the annual CO₂ emissions from tundra ecosystems is the limited duration of the high net CO₂ uptake period, and the substantial non-summer season net emissions. However, we observed lower in-situ and upscaled October–April season NEE fluxes and budgets compared to Natali et al. (2019) throughout the entire period (Supplementary Fig. 19; ⁵²).

Our results demonstrate the need to further study Siberian CO₂ flux trends. Our upscaling indicated that some of the strongest net sources and sinks, and strongest increasing sink trends occur in the Siberian boreal. Increasing sink trends in Siberian tundra were also the strongest across tundra regions. The Siberian sink trend might be explained by strong greening trends⁵³, earlier growing season starts and increasing carbon uptake due to declining spring snow cover (Supplementary Fig. 14), increases in tree growth and distribution^{54,55}, rapid recovery of ecosystems after fire⁵⁶, and high cover of larch forests that can rapidly take up CO₂ (Supplementary Table 1)^{8,57}. However, the large inversion model spread, sparse measurement network, and our upscaling uncertainties indicate that it remains challenging to conclude the magnitude of the Siberian CO₂ balance². This is a significant problem given that Siberia stores more than half of the permafrost region's C stocks and is now warming more rapidly than other ABZ regions.

In summary, our study reveals distinct spatial and temporal patterns in CO₂ budgets across the ABZ and underscores the importance of three decades' worth of data. Relatively robust spatial patterns can be seen, such as the Alaskan CO₂ sources and southern Eurasian boreal sinks while the temporal trends remain more uncertain. While CO₂ fluxes can be relatively well modeled using machine learning and existing gridded datasets, gaps persist, such as the incomplete characterization of fire, thermokarst and harvesting disturbances and their links to ecosystem CO₂ fluxes, the lack of accurate predictors describing soil moisture¹, and the need

to quantify landscape heterogeneity and carbon dynamics at even higher spatial (meters) and temporal resolutions (days). Sustaining long-term sites is crucial to accurately track trends in ABZ CO₂ balance, while establishing new year-round sites in data-poor areas like Siberia and the Canadian Arctic is vital to fill knowledge gaps and enhance our understanding of carbon dynamics⁵⁸.

Online Methods

In-situ data overview

We used a recently compiled dataset of in-situ Arctic-boreal terrestrial ecosystem CO₂ flux measurements (ABCflux, led by Virkkala et al. 2021⁸) within the ABZ (Supplementary Methods Section 1). The synthesized data were cumulative flux densities of gross NEE, GPP, and R_{eco} aggregated at the monthly timescale (3,968 to 4,897 site-months depending on the flux). In addition to eddy covariance data, we included fluxes estimated with the chamber method to increase data coverage especially during the growing season. The dataset included metadata out of which we used the site coordinate, biome, flux measurement method, and disturbance history information in the analysis. For further details on the dataset, see Virkkala et al. (2021)⁸ and a description of additional data processing and screening in the Supplementary Methods Section 2. Note that our study does not include lateral transport of carbon, or vertical lake and river CO₂ emissions which were recently summarized to be 93, 66, and 164 Tg C yr⁻¹, respectively, in the northern permafrost region (i.e., greater than the NEE+fire budget calculated in this study)⁵⁹.

This dataset is more comprehensive than the ones used in earlier upscaling studies as it represents monthly fluxes from the entire year if available, while Virkkala et al. (2021) focused on coarse seasonal or annual fluxes⁵, Natali et al. (2019) on monthly winter fluxes⁹, and Mu et al. (2023) a more limited temporal period (2002-2017)⁶⁰. Furthermore, we included more data from recent years (805 monthly observations from 2015-2020 compared to 32 and 95 fluxes in Virkkala et al. 2021 and Natali et al. 2019, respectively), and the sample size in our models was 4 to 25 times larger here compared to the earlier upscaling efforts.

Geospatial data

We used data from geospatial products as predictor variables to upscale fluxes. Our models had the following predictors: month, incident solar radiation, vapor pressure deficit, atmospheric CO₂ concentration, vegetation type, snow cover (the fraction covered by snow), soil temperature (0-7 cm), soil moisture (0-7 cm), NDVI (MODIS- or AVHRR-based), land surface temperature (or air temperature; MODIS- or ERA5 Land-based), compound topographic index (i.e., topographic wetness index), continuous vegetation fields describing percent non-tree vegetation and non-vegetated fraction and percent tree cover (MODIS- or AVHRR-based), soil pH (0-5 cm), soil organic carbon stock in 0-2 meters, and permafrost probability. In our analysis, NDVI was the primary predictor describing disturbances, with declines in NDVI being related to disturbances⁵. Data were in daily, weekly, monthly, annual, and static format (i.e., no temporal

changes such as in the compound topographic index). If data were of higher temporal resolution than monthly, they were aggregated to monthly time steps. Gaps in MODIS and AVHRR NDVI time series were filled to produce a continuous time series. Data were re-projected to North Pole Lambert Azimuthal Equal Area Projection at 1 and 8 km spatial resolution and extracted at the flux sites. See Supplementary Section 3 for further descriptions and data sources.

We used the Global Fire Emissions Database (GFED) 500-m fire product²³ to calculate fire emissions. The product is based on a global fire emissions model with a spatial resolution of 500 m using MODIS data. The model was developed using an updated field measurement synthesis database of fuel load and consumption which included improvements, for example, in boreal soil carbon combustion. The higher resolution of the 500-m model compared to earlier coarser models improved the detection of small-scale fires and understanding of landscape heterogeneity, and reduced the scale mismatch in comparing field measurements to model grid cells. However, some small fires might still be undetected by this model, leading to potential underestimations in carbon emissions in this product.

Machine learning modeling

We used random forest models to upscale GPP, R_{eco} , and NEE to the ABZ from 1990 to 2020, the period with in-situ flux measurements. Two sets of predictive models were developed: (i) models using primarily predictors with a spatial resolution ≤ 1 km from 2001 to 2020 (i.e., the MODIS era) at 1-km spatial resolution (hereafter 1-km models); and (ii) models using coarser-resolution predictors from the AVHRR GIMMS era (1990-2016;) from 1990 to 2016 at 8-km spatial resolution (hereafter 8-km models) (Supplementary Table 3). Each model included all available monthly fluxes from the entire year, i.e. no separate models for individual months or seasons were developed, as this approach resulted in the best predictive performance. All models included 17 predictors, but the sample sizes were variable depending on the amount of data available for each flux and time period; NEE models had the highest amount of model training data compared to GPP and R_{eco} models. For the 1-km model, coarsest predictors were at 9-km resolution but most important predictors were at 1 to 4-km resolution. For the 8-km model, the coarsest predictor resolution was 9 km, and the most important variables had a resolution of 1 to 9 km.

Model parameter tuning was performed based on leave-one-site out cross validation (CV) to achieve minimum predictive error. The models were run using the “caret” package in R version 4.2⁶¹. We assessed the predictive performance of the final models using the (1) R^2 , (2) root mean square error (RMSE), 3) mean absolute error (MAE), and 4) mean bias error (MBE) between predicted and observed values using the CV data. Larger RMSE and MAE values indicate larger errors, and positive MBE values indicate overestimation. The predictive performance of our models was good or high, with R^2 ranging from 0.55 to 0.78 and RMSE from 19.4 to 37.3 g C m⁻² month⁻¹, but there were uncertainties in model performance at both ends of the flux gradient. Specifically, the model had a tendency to slightly overestimate fluxes, which was particularly evident with the model struggling with strong sink observations (observations of ca. -180 to -80 g C m⁻² month⁻¹ were predicted to be -80 to -20 g C m⁻² month⁻¹ in cross

validation; Supplementary Fig. 1). Other uncertainties were mostly due to 1) our model not being able to identify landscape heterogeneity with nearby sites showing large differences in CO₂ fluxes (e.g., a forest and wetland site), and 2) our model not capturing inter-annual variability at individual sites, both of which are likely attributed to the coarse, uncertain, and missing predictors characterizing such conditions (e.g., soil moisture, disturbances) (Supplementary Fig. 1-3).

We evaluated the uncertainty of predictions by creating 20 bootstrapped model training datasets (with replacement; same sample size as in the original model training data) and using those to develop 20 individual models and predictions. Out of the 20 predictions, we calculated the standard deviation to represent prediction uncertainty. The uncertainty ranges in NEE + fire budgets only represent NEE uncertainties. We further assessed the area of extrapolation of the models, and the influence of the flux measurement method and disturbance history information on flux predictions by training models with different subsets. Further details of the uncertainty analyses can be found in the Supplementary Methods Section 4.

Model performance in burned ecosystems

In addition to direct fire emissions from combustion (i.e., burning) derived with GFED, fires have a profound impact on carbon budgets by modulating post-fire ecosystem CO₂ fluxes^{28,67}. Our current database has 21 sites that reported fire disturbance. Only four of those were longer-term sites (operating for >3 years) with recent (<10 years since burn) fire history. All four of these sites in young recovering ecosystems were measured year-round and originally had an evergreen (black spruce) forest cover which underwent a shift to a more deciduous shrub and tree-dominated cover after a stand-replacing fire. These include (i) CA-NS7 with 4 years of data starting 4 years after the fire, (ii) CA-SF3 with 6 years of data starting 3 years after the fire, (iii) US-Rpf with a 6-year time series starting 4 years after the fire, and (iv) US-CR-Fire with a 4-year time series starting the next year after the fire.

Across all the burned sites, the in-situ flux data and remotely-sensed NDVI time series show a clear pattern of July NDVI values, GPP and net carbon uptake steadily increasing after the fire (Supplementary Fig. 24). This post-fire recovery signal is captured by our upscaling, as we see our upscaled GPP and net uptake drop after a fire, and then return to higher levels after the fire (Supplementary Fig. 24 and 25). However, while our random forest model fits the time series of the longer-term sites with recent fire history relatively well, the predictions based on cross validation (i.e., model training data excluding each site) are variable (Supplementary Fig. 26), indicating that our model might struggle in extrapolating post-fire ecosystem CO₂ fluxes in other areas. The model performance at sites experiencing recent fire or other disturbances was also lower than at sites without disturbance or disturbance information, as the model had a lower R₂ and a tendency to underestimate NEE values (i.e., underestimate net CO₂ emissions or overestimate net CO₂ uptake) (Supplementary Fig. 27).

Spatial upscaling of fluxes

We upscaled fluxes across the Arctic-boreal terrestrial area $\geq 49^\circ \text{N}$ ⁶², which comprises 20.69 $\times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ of land (excluding glaciers and ice sheets; Fig. 1) with lake and glacier areas removed. The models were applied at a monthly time step from 2001 to 2020 for the 1-km models and from 1990 to 2016 for the 8-km models.

We analyzed the upscaled flux maps as well as fire emission and environmental predictor rasters for temporal trends using the nonparametric Mann–Kendall test using the “zyp” package^{63,64} with pre-whitening (Zhang method⁶⁵) to remove autocorrelation. We report the significance of Kendall’s correlation coefficient (the strength of the time-series) and the Theil–Sen slope to describe trends over time. Finally, we calculated zonal statistics of average annual, seasonal, and monthly fluxes and trends across key regions (Siberia defined as all land east from the Ural mountains, including a small portion of Mongolia; the rest of Eurasia, including Greenland are grouped within the European classes), biomes (tundra and boreal)⁶², permafrost region⁶⁶, and vegetation types⁸.

Comparison to process models and atmospheric inversions

We compared our estimates with the CMIP6 process models²⁷, atmospheric inversions used in the Global Carbon Project’s Global Carbon Budget 2022⁶⁸, and a global upscaling product FLUXCOM-X-BASE²⁶. We included a subset of CMIP6 process models (13 in total) that had soil thermal processes at several depths to assure they had some information about the freeze-thaw patterns in the permafrost region. We included inversions with data from the whole 2001–2020 period (i.e., included five inversions and excluded four). Fire CO₂ emissions²³ were subtracted from the inversions. CMIP6 process model outputs were only available for the 2001–2014 period. The final model outputs used here represent terrestrial NEE (GPP–R_{eco}) in a similar way across the models except for inversions that also include vertical CO₂ fluxes from water bodies. There is some heterogeneity between individual inversions and CMIP6 models within the ensembles, but overall the ensemble results can be considered robust^{69,70}.

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Data availability

In-situ data used here can be accessed from ORNL DAAC ⁷¹ and geospatial data from the links and references provided in the Supplementary Tables 3 and 6. The 1-km and 8-km upscaled rasters of NEE, GPP, and R_{eco} together with their uncertainties will be published via ORNL DAAC.

Code availability

The main analysis codes can be found in the Supplement.

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