Supplementary Information for:

Large loss of CO² in winter observed across the northern permafrost region

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Supplementary Methods

Extracted *in situ* data

We compiled a dataset of *in situ* winter CO₂ emissions and potential driving variables from sites within the northern permafrost zone. To identify published flux data, we conducted a literature search using Web of Science and we also solicited unpublished data through the Permafrost Carbon Network, and other research networks. Unpublished data were processed and filtered by the data providers. Data were extracted directly from manuscript text and tables and from figures using Plot Digitizer [\(http://plotdigitizer.sourceforge.net/\)](http://plotdigitizer.sourceforge.net/).

In addition to extracting winter $CO₂$ fluxes from the literature, we extracted relevant ancillary *in situ* data (*e.g.,* soil temperature, moisture, soil carbon). We extracted both percent soil carbon (C) and organic matter (SOM) when available and converted SOM to C assuming a conversion factor of $1.9¹$. Data were aggregated monthly or seasonally when monthly data were not available.

We included data collected using several measurement methods: 1. *Chamber:* chamber placed over the ground after digging a snow pit or placed underneath the snowpack prior to snow accumulation, and gas flux measured as a change in gas concentration in the chamber over time (measured at 35% of the locations in this synthesis); 2. *Chamber-snow:* chamber placed on top of the snow pack, and flux measured as a change in gas concentration in the chamber over time (measured at 3% of locations); 3. *Diffusion:* Gas concentrations measured at two or more locations through the snow pack, and gas flux calculated based on gas diffusion rate through the snowpack (measured at 30% of locations); 4. *Eddy covariance*: Gas flux calculated based on covariance of gas concentration and vertical wind velocity; separated into closed path (air is

drawn in through a sampling tube to an infrared gas analyzer; measured at 12% of locations) and open path (air passes freely between infrared source and detector; measured at 9% of locations) systems; 5. *Soda lime*: Seasonal release of CO₂ from soils determined from CO₂ adsorption onto soda lime placed in a closed chamber on top of the soil (measured at 11% of locations). Examples of each of these methods can be found within the references cited in Supplemental Information (SI) Table 1; soil temperature and flux distribution by measurement method is shown in SI Figure 6; and comparisons of methods, including limitations can be found in²⁻⁴. We used the full dataset including all measurement methods for upscaling and future projections, because excluding data from the machine-learning model based on collection method did not substantially change assessments of model uncertainty.

We did not distinguish between heterotrophic and autotrophic sources of winter $CO₂$ emissions; however, we expect that winter emissions are primarily microbially derived. While contributions of root respiration to winter $CO₂$ efflux are expected to be negligible⁵, this is a major unknown, and common methods for partitioning soil respiration (e.g., trenching/girdling, carbon isotopes) are often unable to distinguish between microbial and plant respiration of recently-fixed photosynthates.

Data extraction, geospatial data

Historical climatological data (mean annual, seasonal and monthly air temperature and precipitation) were obtained from the WorldClim database (1960–1990; 1 km² resolution)⁶. Monthly aggregated air and soil temperature during the measurement intervals were obtained from NASA Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research Applications, Version 2 (MERRA-2; $1/2 \times 2/3$ ° resolution; 2003-2017) product⁷. Mean volumetric soil moisture (VSM) of the litter/soil surface for the measurement month (or, if frozen, for the last unfrozen month) and June-July months prior to the flux measurement were calculated using the University of Montana Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer (AMSR) Land Parameter Data Record (LPDR; 25 km; 2003-2017)⁸. Mean soil wetness fraction of the root zone during the measurement month and previous July-August were provided by the MERRA-2 land model component $(2003-2017)^9$. Mean monthly snow water equivalent (SWE) for the measurement month was obtained from the European Space Agency's GlobSnow Version 2 monthly aggregated SWE product (L3B SWE; 25 km resolution; 1979-2016). We used GlobSnow because it is well documented, has a strong research user base, and because gridded error estimates are provided along with the snow cover and SWE retrievals. Although depth and density are key parameters influencing winter $CO₂$ fluxes through their impact on soil thermal regimes^{10,11}, *in situ* snow data had low coverage in the synthesis dataset and the spatiotemporal resolution of SWE and other available snow data products were unable to capture snowtemperature-CO² flux dynamics for our study domain and, therefore, were not retained in the final analysis of this study.

Soil carbon stocks to 30 cm were obtained from the Northern Circumpolar Soil Carbon Database (NCSCD; 0.0012 degrees resolution)¹²; soil texture (% sand, silt, clay), bulk density, soil carbon density, and pH were extracted from the SoilGrids product $(250 \text{ m})^{13}$. Permafrost condition was obtained from permafrost zone¹⁴ and permafrost zonation index maps $(1 \text{ km})^{15}$. Permafrost zones include continuous permafrost, which has permafrost underlying 90-100% of the landscape, discontinuous (50-90%), sporadic (10-50%) and isolated (0-10%) permafrost.

Land cover classifications were derived from the Circumpolar Arctic Vegetation Map $(CAVM; 1:7.5M scale)¹⁶$ for tundra sites and the European Space Agency (ESA) Climate

Change Initiative (CCI) V.2 land cover classifications $(300 \text{ m})^{17}$ for boreal sites (SI Figure 5, SI Table 4). We extracted enhanced vegetation index (EVI) from the MODIS MOD13Q1 product $(2001-2016, 16$ day sampling, 250 m resolution)¹⁸ and calculated average and maximum EVI for the prior growing season (~ June 9 - August 28) and for the 2001-2016 interval for each site. We used MODIS MOD44B V6 for tree cover¹⁹ during the measurement year (or yr. 2000 for earlier data) and MODIS MOD15 Collection 6^{20} for maximum leaf area index (LAI) in the summer prior to winter flux measurements. All MODIS data were quality screened to include only those data having a pixel level quality assurance bit code of 00 indicating "data produced - good quality". We obtained cumulative annual and peak-summer (July, August) GPP for the summer prior to the flux measurements from the NASA Soil Moisture Active Passive (SMAP) Level 4 Carbon Version 3 product $(9 \text{ km})^{21}$ and from the MODIS MOD17 V0006 product $(1 \text{ km})^{22}$. Fractional grid cell lake cover was obtained from the MOD44W MODIS/Terra land water mask $(250 \text{ m})^{23}$.

All geospatial data were re-gridded to the National Snow and Ice Data Center Equal Area Scalable Earth (EASE) 2.0 format²⁴ at a 25 km spatial resolution prior to the $CO₂$ flux upscaling and simulations.

Data filtering

We excluded modeled $CO₂$ flux data from the synthesis dataset, but included gap-filled data when the gap-filling model was based on data collected during the winter. We also excluded data that were averaged across multiple years. For eddy covariance data, we used fluxes of net ecosystem exchange (NEE) or, when fluxes were partitioned, ecosystem respiration, which were essentially the same during the winter. When a monthly winter flux was negative (*i.e.*, signifying CO² uptake), we excluded that month from the analysis. Negative winter fluxes can occur under low CO₂ flux conditions and/or due to instrument-related error, particularly with open-path eddy covariance systems²⁵.

We filtered out monthly average CO_2 fluxes that were anomalously high (> 2 g C m⁻² day⁻¹; n=4, 0.4% of data) and negative/zero fluxes (< 0.001 g C m⁻² day⁻¹; n=5). To minimize the contribution from autotrophic $CO₂$ exchange, when the measurement method included aboveground vegetation (*e.g.*, eddy covariance; n=4), we filtered fluxes measured when *in situ* air temperatures were greater than 5° C and soil temperatures (0-25 cm) were greater than -1° C; we retained data with $> 5^{\circ}$ C air temperatures and $> -1^{\circ}$ C soil temperature when fluxes were measured below the snowpack. We excluded all data with reported soil temperatures greater than 2° C. Data were also filtered to reduce model overfitting resulting from limited data.

Calculation of Q10

The temperature response functions of *in situ* winter $CO₂$ fluxes and of $CO₂$ emissions from low temperature incubations were modeled with an exponential temperature response function (Eq. 1) using a Bayesian statistical approach.

Eq. 1: $flux = A * exp(B * T soil),$

where *B* is the relative increase in flux with soil temperature, *A* describes flux when $T\text{ }sol = 0$, and *Q10 = exp(10*B)*.

Model fitting was performed using "JAGS" in R to calculate the posterior distribution with the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) estimation. We used three chains with different starting values (A: 0.5, 0.6, 0.4; B: 0.2, 0.1, 0.15) and a burn-in of 3,000 iterations. Convergence was assessed using the Gelman and Rubin convergence diagnostic. We used a gamma likelihood distribution, with Eq. 1 as the mean, and *Beta* as the shape parameter (6, 7, 8; respectively). We used uninformative priors, ~dgamma(0.001, 0.001), for parameters *A, B*, and *Beta*. Model fit was evaluated using posterior predictive checks on the mean, standard deviation, and discrepancy between observations and predictions (Bayesian p-values: 0.50, 0.51, 0.57 respectively). We used the mean and standard deviation of the posterior predictive distribution (*i.e.*, predictions of new data by making a draw from the data model at each iteration of the MCMC chain, conditional on the current value of the parameters) at each observation of soil temperature to predict winter flux. The Q10 results are presented as median and 95% credible intervals.

Boosted regression tree analysis

We used boosted regression tree analysis (BRT) to model the drivers of winter $CO₂$ emissions and to upscale emissions to the pan-Arctic region under current and future climate scenarios. We used BRT because this machine learning method is capable of handling nonlinear and high-order interactions; is relatively insensitive to collinearity among predictors; can handle predictors that are continuous or categorical; and allows for missing predictor data²⁶. The BRT model was fit in \mathbb{R}^{27} using 'gbm' package version 2.1.1²⁸, and using code adapted from²⁹. Detailed description of the application of BRT to ecological data can be found in^{26,29}. The BRT models were fitted with the following metaparameters: Gaussian error distribution, bag-fraction (*i.e.*, proportion of data used in each iteration) of 0.5, learning rate (*lr*; contribution of each tree

to the final model) of 0.005, and a tree complexity (*tc*, maximum level of interactions) of two. We used 10-fold cross-validation (CV) to determine the optimal number of trees to achieve minimum predictive error and to fit the final model to the data.

We used geospatial data described above as input variables in our BRT model. Several of these variables were highly correlated because they were derived from the same data (*e.g.*, 16 year average max/mean EVI and max/mean EVI from the prior growing season) or were functionally similar data from different sources (*e.g.*, air temperature from WorldClim or MERRA-2). We removed highly correlated variables from the models (Spearman $\rho = 0.7$), retaining the variable within each functional category (*e.g.*, air temperature) that had the highest correlation with winter flux. We further reduced the model by removing variables in reverse order of their relative influence, until further removal resulted in a 2% average increase in predictive deviance. Relative influence estimates are based on the number of times a variable in the BRT model was selected for splitting, weighted by the squared improvement to the model as a result of each split, and averaged over all trees. Relative influence values were scaled so that all variables summed to 100^{29} . We also removed variables that had a relative influence of less than 5% and that had a functional relationship with winter $CO₂$ flux that was contrary to prior expectations, potentially a result of model overfitting.

We compared this model using geospatial data as input variables with an alternative 'Site' model in which we also included *in situ* data as explanatory variables. Metrics of model fit (SI Table 6) were similar between models. We also found that when we compared the modeled flux estimates from the 'Spatial' and 'Site' BRT models, the estimates did not differ significantly $(\alpha = 0.05)$. Therefore, we used the geospatial model in our final analysis because it allowed us to

upscale results and project future fluxes. Inputs to the final models are in SI Figure 1 and SI Table 8.

We assessed BRT model performance using: 1. The correlation between predicted and observed values using the CV data (*i.e.*, data withheld from model fitting), hereafter referred to as the CV correlation, and; 2. deviance explained by the model over the evaluation dataset (*i.e.,* CV data), calculated as: % deviance = $(CV$ null deviance - CV residual deviance)/ CV null deviance *100.

Spatial and temporal domain for mapping

We scaled the modeled flux data to the northern permafrost land area $\geq 49^{\circ}N^{14}$, which comprises 16.95×10^6 km² of tundra and boreal lands (excludes glaciers, ice sheets and barren lands; Figure 1) with lake area removed. We defined the winter period as the months of October through April, encompassing combined winter and shoulder seasons (late autumn and early spring, e.g., October and April). Because the climate within this timeframe varies substantially across the northern permafrost region, this month-based definition, while temporally consistent, may include some areas that are influenced by climate that would fall outside expected winter temperature ranges. Therefore, we also explored defining the winter season based on soil temperature from MERRA-2 (soil layer 1) as the period when monthly mean soil temperature was below 0° C. The spatial extent of the modeled domain was variable across years when applying the temperature-based definition of winter; therefore, we use the fixed time period winter (October - April) to examine changes in winter $CO₂$ fluxes under future climate scenarios and in cross-model comparisons. Estimated winter emissions using the temperature-defined

winter period, which included September and May for some locations, was 5% greater than emissions estimated for the full permafrost domain for the time period October through April.

Comparison of BRT estimates with process-based models

We compared our regional winter flux estimates to: 1) outputs from five process-based terrestrial models estimated for the northern permafrost domain: National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Community Land Model (CLM) versions 4.5 and 5; Lund-Potsdam-Jena Dynamic Global Vegetation Model (LPJ-DGVM), Wald Schnee und Landscraft version (LPJ-wsl); CARbon DAta MOdel FraMework (CARDAMOM); and the NASA SMAP Level 4 Carbon (L4C) Version 3 NATURE product; 2) estimates for the northern permafrost domain derived from FluxCom, a global gridded machine-learning NEE product; and 3) four process-based terrestrial models and eight atmospheric inversion models from the high latitude model intercomparison for the Regional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes (RECCAP) tundra and northern boreal domain³⁰.

For this application, CLM V4.5 and 5 with dynamic nitrogen and biogeochemistry were run at 0.5° resolution for $> 40^{\circ}N^{31,32}$. The CLM model has 10 soil layers and features dynamic vertical soil water flux. Soil carbon turnover is based on the Century decomposition model³³. The two versions of the model utilize the same surface dataset, including plant functional type fraction. The forcing data used for CLM are NCAR Global Soil Wetness Project V3 fields from 1901 to 2014. The model components are run at a half-hourly time step and simulations are output to monthly averages. Model results for this study were analyzed for years 2003 to 2014.

The LPJ-wsl model includes an eight-layer soil freeze-thaw scheme and one-layer snow model in conjunction with a two-layer bucket model for hydrology³⁴. Soil and litter

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decomposition in the LPJ model are driven by seasonal soil temperature and moisture status; soil temperature functions for respiration use a modified Arrhenius function³⁵. Inputs to the LPJ-wsl model are from the NASA Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) reanalysis record at 0.5 x 0.66° and monthly outputs. The model spin-up period is 1,400 years, and the model outputs are provided at 0.5° for years 2003 to 2017 to correspond with the BRT results.

The CARDAMOM outputs were obtained for years 2003 through 2010 from global 1[°] model-data fusion analysis and includes an aggregated canopy model to provide GPP, the Data Assimilation Linked Ecosystem Carbon model version 2 (DALEC2) for soil carbon flux, and a MCMC MDF algorithm³⁶. Model inputs include global soil data and MODIS LAI time series. The MCMC model simulations apply a range of conditions on carbon pool turnover and carbon allocation ratios to constrain ecosystem variable interdependencies.

The NASA SMAP L4C product provides daily 9 km resolution estimates of NEE, GPP and ecosystem respiration using coupled soil decomposition and terrestrial carbon flux models calibrated against global FLUXNET tower $CO₂$ flux measurements²¹. The baseline L4C model is driven by NASA GMAO reanalysis daily surface meteorology and MODIS satellite vegetation data. Soil respiration is regulated using a three-pool decomposition model with cascading SOM decomposition rates for metabolic, structural, and recalcitrant components. Litterfall carbon inputs to the soil model are defined as a prescribed fraction of daily NPP calculated from a satellite based light-use efficiency model. Soil heterotrophic respiration is regulated by pool size, decomposition rate parameters, soil temperature and soil water content. Outputs from NASA SMAP L4C were compared with this study for the years 2003 to 2017.

FluxCom is a gridded ensemble of NEE CO₂ fluxes, generated by upscaling FLUXNET site observations using machine learning techniques, gridded meteorological data, and MODIS

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remote sensing³⁷. FluxCom is available at a 0.5° spatial resolution, spanning 1980 to 2013; we used monthly averaged output in this analysis. There are some key differences between FluxCom and the machine learning model used in this study: 1) FluxCom is a global product, while our model was developed specifically for the northern permafrost domain using only high latitude flux data collected during the non-growing season; 2) In addition to MODIS, we included AMSR surface moisture data and predictors specifically relevant to permafrost regions (*e.g*., permafrost zonation index, northern soil carbon stock, tundra and boreal land cover); 3) For the northern latitudes, the data used to train FluxCom spanned 1991-2007, while our dataset extended through 2017; and 4) Our dataset included >100 sites, while FluxCom included 25 sites in the northern permafrost region.

Finally, we also compare our BRT $CO₂$ emissions estimates with the RECCAP high latitude model intercomparison results³⁰. The models evaluated here include four process-based models (LPJ-Guess, Orchidee, TEM6, and TCF) and 8 inversion models (C13_CCAM_law, C13_MATCH_rayner, JENA_s96_v3.3, JMA_2010, LSCE_an_v2.1, LSCE_var_v1.0, NICAM_niwa_woaia, rigc_patra).

Projected winter $CO₂$ flux

Inputs for the BRT model of future scenarios of winter $CO₂$ flux were obtained from ensembles of Earth System Model (ESM) outputs from the Fifth Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5)³⁸. Inputs included: 1) Annual GPP; 2) Mean annual summer LAI (July & August); 3) Mean summer soil moisture (June, July, August); 4) Mean monthly soil moisture; 5) Mean monthly near-surface (2 m) air temperature; and 6) Mean monthly soil temperature (layer 1) (SI Table 7). Although total summer precipitation (June, July, August) was not included in our winter $CO₂$ projection model, we obtained future projections of precipitation as a reference to explain trends in surface soil moisture. Outcomes from two representative concentration pathways (RCP), RCP 4.5 and 8.5, were used as inputs for the future winter $CO₂$ emission scenarios. RCP 4.5 assumes a peak in greenhouse gas emissions around 2040; emissions in RCP 8.5 continue to rise during the 21st century³⁸. The ensemble mean RCP 4.5 and 8.5 predictor fields were bias-corrected using the delta, or perturbation method³⁹, based on historic ESM outputs and observed historical data and reprojected to EASE2 25 km grids.

To obtain an estimate of aggregated model uncertainty for the permafrost domain, we first used an average of the internal root mean squared error (RMSE; $g \text{ C m}^{-2} d^{-1}$) from 1,000 BRT ensemble runs, with the models trained using our *in situ* winter flux database. We then made the assumption that the RMSE (0.21 $g \text{ C m}^{-2} d^{-1}$) applied equally to all grid cell area within the domain. This provided us with a total region error budget of 813 Tg C for the winter period.

In addition to our RMSE based uncertainty estimate, we also examined the inherent variability in the ensemble fitting of the regression trees based on subsets of training data and external (withheld) validation data. To do this, we followed the approach of⁴⁰. Bootstrapped BRT model simulations were obtained for the baseline 2003-2017 winter (October - April) climatology and for decadal non-growing season climatologies bracketed from 2017 through 2100. The flux means and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were obtained for each grid cell using output from 1,000 bootstrap BRT model runs where 30% of the *in situ* data were removed during each simulation for validation purposes. We used the resulting 95% CIs to provide additional estimates of model uncertainty; this ranged from 50 to 66 Tg C winter⁻¹ across the 2003 through 2100 period, with higher model uncertainty occurring under the more extreme future temperature scenarios.

For the CMIP5 RCP 4.5 and 8.5 simulations of respiration, we use an r1i1p1ensemble mean from the following models: CanESM2, GFDL-ESM2M, GISS-E2-H-CC, GIS-E2-H, GISS-E2-R, GISS-E2-R-CC, inmcm4, IPSL-CM5A-LR, IPSL-CM5A-MR, MIROC-ESM, MIROC-ESM-CHEM, MPI-ESM-LR, MPI-ESM-MR, NorESM1-M, NorESM1-ME³⁸ .

SI Figure 1. Drivers of winter CO₂ flux based on relative influence of predictor variables in the boosted regression tree model. Panel (a) shows geospatial inputs for the final model used in this study. For comparison, we also ran an alternative 'Site' model that incorporated both *in situ* and geospatial data as input variables (b). The *in situ* data that were retained in the final model are marked with an asterisk. Variable descriptions are in the text and in SI Table 8.

SI Figure 2. Average monthly $CO₂$ fluxes estimated from the boosted regression tree (BRT) analysis (solid blue line) compared with winter net ecosystem $CO₂$ exchange from four processbased models ('bottom-up estimate'; dotted lines) and eight inversion models ('top-down'; dashed lines) for the Global Carbon Project's REgional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes (RECCAP) tundra and northern boreal domain. The winter fluxes are estimated for the time interval of 2003 to 2017 for BRT, ranging between 1985 - 2009 for inversion models, and 1990- 2006 for process models.

SI Figure 3. Monthly $CO₂$ flux (and standard deviation representing interannual variability) estimated for the permafrost region $(17 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2)$ from the boosted regression tree (BRT) model (solid blue line) and winter $CO₂$ flux outputs (NEE) from five terrestrial process models and FluxCom. Fluxes are annual averages of the years 2003 to 2017 (BRT, LPJ, SMAP), 2003 to 2014 (CLM 4.5, CLM 5), 2003 to 2010 (CARDAMOM), and 2003 to 2013 (FluxCom).

SI Figure 4. Projected (a) mean winter (Oct-April) soil temperature, (b) mean winter air temperature, (c) mean leaf area index (July-August), (d) annual gross primary productivity (GPP), (e) mean non-summer (NS; September - May) unfrozen soil moisture, (f) mean summer soil moisture (June-August), and (g) cumulative summer precipitation (June-August) for the northern permafrost region from 2018 through 2100 under RCP 4.5 (blue) and 8.5 (red) based on ESM ensemble outputs.

SI Figure 5. Locations of synthesized *in situ* winter CO₂ flux data (yellow circles) and dominant landcover types within the study region, which includes boreal deciduous and evergreen forests, and flooded wetlands. Tundra regions include wet sedge, shrub-lands, and graminoid dominated vegetation. Landcover classifications were derived from the Circumpolar Arctic Vegetation Map for tundra sites and the European Space Agency Climate Change Initiative V.2 land cover classifications for boreal sites. The REgional Carbon Cycle and Assessment Processes (RECCAP) domain is outlined in red.

SI Figure 6. Soil temperature distribution of winter $CO₂$ flux data in this synthesis, which included data collected using six measurement methods: chamber (ch), chamber placed atop the snow pack (ch_snow), diffusion (diff), eddy covariance-closed path (ECC), eddy covarianceopen path (ECO), and soda lime (SL). Note that this figure is based on a subset (74%) of the 1,014 flux data where soil temperature data were available. Each point represents one site-month of CO² flux/temperature data.

SI Table 1. Summary of sites in the flux synthesis. Location description includes key words to distinguish sampling locations with a site. Landcover (LC) descriptions are in SI Table 4. Measurement methods, which are further described in the supplemental text, include chamber placed on top of ground (C), chamber on top of snow pack (CS), diffusion through the snowpack (D), eddy covariance-open path (ECO), eddy covariance-closed path (ECC), and soda lime (SL). Permafrost (Perm) zones include: isolated/sporadic (I-S), discontinuous (D), continuous (C)¹⁴. Temperatures are average annual temperature (1960-1990) from the WorldClim database⁶. The number of winter flux sites representing individual LC types are: ENLF (24); BDF (5); BSW (14); CMC (7); DNF (8); G1 through G4 (20); NMC (9); P2 (4); S1 (13); S2 (16); SBV (20); W1 (7); W₂ (6): see SI Table 4 for landcover definitions.

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* Lead providers of unpublished data: U1: Celis/Schuur; U2: Euskirchen; U3: Waldrop; U4: Christiansen; U5: Zona/Oechel; U6: Egan/Risk; U7: Sullivan; U8: Davydov; U9: Goeckede (data available at http://www.europe-fluxdata.eu/home/site-details?id=168); U10: Elberling; U11: Sachs; U12: Lund; U13: Friborg.

SI Table 2. Growing season (May-September), Winter (October-April), and Annual average CO₂ exchange (Tg C yr⁻¹) for the northern permafrost land area (17×10^6 km²) during 2003-2017 (2003-2014 for CLM; 2003-2013 for FluxCom). Negative values indicate CO₂ uptake.

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SI Table 3. Temporal trends in winter CO_2 emissions (Tg C yr⁻¹) from the current permafrost region from 2018 through 2100. Kendall's correlation coefficient, τ, describes the strength of the time-series and Theil-Sen (TS) and ordinary least squares (OLS) slopes describe the rate of change in winter flux. Normalized OLS slopes account for differences in land area within each zone. All trends were significant ($p < 0.001$).

SI Table 4. Landcover vegetation types included in the boosted regression tree (BRT) model. Land cover classes were extracted from CAVM and ESA CCI maps based on site coordinates. Model count (CT) indicates the number of observations used to train the BRT model for each land cover type. Map CT indicates the number of 25 km equal area grid cells for each land cover type in the study domain.

SI Table 5. Summary of incubation data. Incubation temperatures (Temp, C) reflect ranges for data used in this synthesis. Type/depth is the soil layer or depth of the soils incubated. Length is the incubation length (days) used to calculate $CO₂$ release.

* Sites spanned these coordinates

** Lead providers of unpublished data: U1: Matamala/Jastrow

SI Table 6. Model fit parameters for boosted regression tree 'Spatial' model, in which input variables were derived from geospatial data, compared to 'Site' model, in which input data included both geospatial and *in situ* data.

SI Table 7. Earth System Models (ESMs) used for the boosted regression tree future scenario model estimates. The 'x' indicates ESM model ensemble combinations used for each predictor.

SI Table 8. Input variables to the boosted regression tree Spatial model (geospatial data) are in bold. Inputs to the alternative Site model, which included geospatial and *in situ* data, are italicized. 'Publication' indicates that the variables were *in situ* data extracted from published and unpublished studies.

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