

Methane~~Sea-air methane~~ flux estimates derived from continuous atmospheric measurements and ~~surface-water observations~~marine depth profiles in ~~the northern Labrador Sea and Baffin Bay~~cold seep regions

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Abstract. Vast amounts of methane (CH₄) stored in ~~permafrost and~~ submarine sediments are susceptible to release in a warming Arctic, further exacerbating climate change in a positive feedback. It is therefore critical to monitor CH₄ over pan-regional scales to detect early signs of CH₄ release. However, our ability to monitor CH₄ is hampered in remote northern regions by sampling and logistical constraints and few good baseline data exist in many areas. ~~To create~~From high-resolution atmospheric CH₄ measurements and discrete surface water samples, we estimated instantaneous sea-air CH₄ fluxes at various locations. We also created a baseline study of current background levels of CH₄ in North Atlantic waters, ~~we collected continuous real-time based on the~~ atmospheric CH₄ data, ~~along with ambient air temperature and wind parameters~~ over 22 days in summer 2021 on a roughly 5100 km voyage in the northern Labrador Sea and Baffin Bay ~~up to 71° between 55° N and 72° N~~. In addition, we measured CH₄ concentrations ~~in~~across the water column ~~using discrete water samples at selected various~~ stations. Measured atmospheric mixing ratios of CH₄ ranged from 1944.7 ~~ppb~~ ppbv to 2012.0 ~~ppb~~ ppbv, with a mean of 1966.0 ~~± 7.4 ppb~~ ± 8 ppbv and a baseline of 1954.2 ~~– 1980.6 ppb~~ – 1981 ppbv. Dissolved CH₄ concentrations in the near-surface water peaked at 56.58 ~~± 0.05 nM~~ 5.3 nmol/L within 1 km down-current of a known cold seep at Scott Inlet ~~but~~and were consistently ~~super-saturated~~oversaturated throughout the water column in Southwind Fjord, which is an area recently affected by submarine landslides. Local sea-air CH₄ fluxes ranged from 0.1 ~~– 14.4~~ 0.03 – 0.119 μmol m⁻² d⁻¹ indicating that the ocean ~~acted as a~~released only small amounts of CH₄ ~~source~~ to the atmosphere: at all stations. Atmospheric CH₄ levels were also driven by meteorological, spatial, and temporal variations. ~~Highest atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratios were detected in the Cumberland Sound in Nunavut, suggesting, and both~~ onshore ~~sources from nearby waterbodies and wetlands, whereas~~and ocean-based contributions ~~at this location could not be ruled out to atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratios are likely~~. Coupled ~~real-time~~high-resolution measurements of marine and atmospheric CH₄ data have the potential to provide ongoing monitoring in a region susceptible to CH₄ releases, as well as critical validation data for global-scale measurements and modelling.

1 Introduction

Global atmospheric methane (CH_4) levels have substantially increased in recent years, with the largest recorded yearly increase from 2020 to 2021 (Dlugokencky, 2016; Nisbet et al., 2019). Due to the high radiative activity of the greenhouse gas CH_4 , close observations of atmospheric levels are needed to determine trends and impacts on the future climate. While Arctic regions are subject to rapid warming (Dlugokencky, 2016; Nisbet et al., 2019). Due to the high radiative forcing of the greenhouse gas CH_4 , close observations of atmospheric levels are needed to immediately detect trends and impacts on the future climate. While Arctic regions are subject to rapid warming (Meredith et al., 2019), measurements of atmospheric CH_4 levels in these regions are scarce, especially over the ocean. The Arctic Ocean contains large amounts of CH_4 in sediments along the continental margins. With ongoing climate change, permafrost thaw, destabilization of CH_4 hydrates and reduction of sea ice cover may make the Arctic Ocean susceptible to substantial CH_4 release further exacerbating global warming (James et al., 2016). Seafloor gas seeps releasing CH_4 -rich bubbles into the water column are often found along continental margins. However, the contribution of seafloor gas seeps to atmospheric CH_4 entails large uncertainties (Saunois et al., 2016), mostly due to significant temporal and spatial differences of emissions (Boles et al., 2001; Leifer and Boles, 2005; Shakhova et al., 2014; Cramm et al., 2021; Dølven et al., 2022). Water depth and the abundance of methanotrophic bacteria influence the oxidation of CH_4 , and the speed and strength of currents affects the dissolution of the gas (McGinnis et al., 2006; Reeburgh, 2007; Leonte et al., 2017; Silyakova et al., 2020). Among others, these factors determine how much of the gas diffuses, measurements of atmospheric CH_4 levels in these regions are scarce, especially over the ocean. The Arctic Ocean contains large amounts of CH_4 in sediments along the continental margins (Kvenvolden, 1988; Shakhova et al., 2010; Mau et al., 2017). With ongoing climate change, permafrost thaw, destabilization of CH_4 hydrates and reduction of sea ice cover may make the Arctic Ocean susceptible to substantial CH_4 release further exacerbating global warming (James et al., 2016). Seafloor gas seeps releasing CH_4 -rich bubbles into the water column are often found along continental margins. However, the contribution of seafloor gas seeps to atmospheric CH_4 entails large uncertainties (Saunois et al., 2016), mostly due to significant temporal and spatial differences of emissions (Boles et al., 2001; Leifer and Boles, 2005; Shakhova et al., 2014; Cramm et al., 2021; Dølven et al., 2022). Water depth and the abundance of methanotrophic bacteria influence the oxidation of CH_4 , and the speed and strength of currents affect the distribution of the gas in surface waters and in the water column (McGinnis et al., 2006; Reeburgh, 2007; Leonte et al., 2017; Silyakova et al., 2020). Among others, these factors determine how much of the gas escapes to the atmosphere.

While the East Siberian Arctic Shelf overall releases up to $4.5 \text{ Tg } \text{CH}_4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ of CH_4 of mostly thermogenic, but also biogenic origin (Berchet et al., 2020) with large temporal and spatial variability (Shakhova et al., 2010, 2014; Thornton et al., 2016, 2020)(Shakhova et al., 2010, 2014; Thornton et al., 2016, 2020), prevailing thought suggests that the North American Arctic Ocean contributes relatively little CH_4 to the atmosphere (Manning et al., 2022). Increasing atmospheric concentrations of CH_4 have however been reported over the European Arctic Ocean and mostly attributed to land-based sources, but also marine point-sources from active underwater seeps (Platt et al., 2018). While a few studies focused on dissolved CH_4 levels in north-eastern/northeastern Canadian Arctic waters (Punshon et al., 2014, 2019) where seep locations were suggested (Jauer and

Budkewitsch, 2010; Punshon et al., 2019) or confirmed (Cramm et al., 2021), continuous measurements of atmospheric CH₄ levels in this region are lacking and more measurements in this area are needed. To investigate how the identified seep areas affected atmospheric CH₄ levels, we conducted ~~mobile~~-CH₄ monitoring onboard the icebreaker CCGS *Amundsen*. We collected measurements of CH₄ dissolved in the water column at ~~select~~various locations between the northern Labrador Sea to Baffin Bay adding to a small but growing body of data on water column CH₄ concentrations in the Arctic and sub-Arctic seas. We also tracked atmospheric CH₄ levels continuously along a north-south transect to establish a baseline study for above-ocean CH₄ mixing ratios in the area that can be used as a benchmark for further monitoring of CH₄ levels in Arctic regions.

2 Methods

2.1 Study area

75 Data for this study was collected during an expedition of the Canadian research icebreaker CCGS *Amundsen* starting on July 15, 2021, in St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada, and ending on August 12, 2021, in Iqaluit, Nunavut, Canada. The expedition transited the western Labrador Sea, Davis Strait, and Baffin Bay along the ~~north-eastern~~northeastern Canadian continental shelf (Fig. 1). Along the shelf margins, seafloor gas seepage was previously localized at Scott Inlet, Baffin Bay (~~71.37812° 22' 41.2" N, =70.07452° 04' 28.3" W~~) (Loncarevic and Falconer, 1977; Levy and Maclean, 1981; Cramm et al., 2021), while
80 further locations were suggested in the Saglek Basin in northern Labrador (~~60.351° 21' 03.6" N, =61.864° 51' 50.4" W~~) (Jauer and Budkewitsch, 2010; Punshon et al., 2019) and off the coast of Cape Dyer, Baffin Island (~~67.449° 26' 56.4" N, =61.919° 55' 08.4" W~~) (Punshon et al., 2019)- also indicated in Figure 1. The studied region lies within the seasonal sea ice zone and ~~the ocean was partially covered with~~partial sea ice cover was observed in the northernmost regions- between July 30, 2021, and August 3, 2021. Hydrography in the studied area is dominated by the Baffin Island Current (BIC)- ~~The BIC is~~, the integrated
85 Arctic outflow through the Canadian Arctic Archipelago- flowing. The BIC flows southward along the Baffin Island coast and slope- ~~The BIC and~~ becomes a component of the Labrador Current- (Fig. 1), being modified by the Hudson Strait overflow, and continues flowing southward, mainly confined to the shelf and upper slope (Azetsu-Scott et al., 2012). The West Greenland Current bifurcates at Davis Strait, with part of the flow entering Baffin Bay on the eastern side of Davis Strait and contributing to the cyclonic circulation in the Bay, and partly continuing westward as the Labrador Sea cyclonic circulation (Melling et al.,
90 2001; Tang et al., 2004; Wu et al., 2013). The eastern coast of Baffin Island is characterized by the Baffin Mountains, with elevations up to 2147 m. With its location north of the tree line, the land is dominantly barren and sparsely vegetated, or covered with smaller waterbodies and wetland areas.

USA), and an air inlet for gas sampling at 7.3 m (Appendix A, Fig. A1). Roughly 30 m long Synflex tubing connected the air inlet with the greenhouse gas analyzer (Ultraportable Greenhouse Gas Analyzer, Los Gatos Research, USA), making ~~real-time~~
105 ~~high-resolution~~ monitoring of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄) and water ~~vapor~~~~vapour~~ (H₂O) mixing ratios possible. In this study, all CH₄ and CO₂ measurements reflect dry mixing ratios. The analyzer is equipped with a built-in pump drawing the air from the inlet on the tower to the analyzer stored securely inside a laboratory on deck. The greenhouse gas analyzer was calibrated in July 2021 before deployment on the ship with certified calibration gas (calibrated by the AmeriFlux QA/QC team at the Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA at 385.18±0.01 ppmppmv CO₂,
110 1810.6±0.1 ~~ppbpbv~~ CH₄, and 4.08±1.58 ppmppmv H₂O), and benchmarked daily (except for the first two days due to logistical issues) with a certified standard gas mixture (from Praxair) of 450 ~~ppmppmv~~ CO₂ balanced with air containing 5000 ~~ppbpbv~~ CH₄, which was well within the analyzer's measurement range (200–20,000 ~~ppmppmv~~ for CO₂ and 100–100,000 ~~ppbpbv~~ for CH₄). Once the setup was mounted and leak proof, we recorded atmospheric measurements ~~over a distance of 5400 km~~ between July 20, 2021, and August 10, 2021, on a datalogger (CR1000, Campbell Scientific, USA) at a frequency of
115 1 Hz.

We ~~pre-processed the obtained data by excluding inconclusive~~ wind measurement timeseries to exclude occasional erroneous values of ~~position, wind direction and speed. Resulting gaps, and missing values of mixing ratios were~~ linearly interpolated, ~~corresponding to 19% of all sampled 1 Hz data for gas mixing ratios. By repeatedly breathing on the air inlet, we determined an average delay time of 90 seconds for the air samples to reach the analyzer and accounted for this delay time during pre-~~
120 ~~processing across gaps before resampling onto the datalogger's timestamp.~~ Wind parameters were corrected for lateral ship motion when the ship was not in transit or not headed forward, using speed, track and heading from the ship's own navigation system (~~Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021e~~). (Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021a).

By repeatedly breathing on the air inlet, we determined an average delay time of 90 seconds for the air samples to reach the analyzer and accounted for this delay time during data processing. The gas analyzer did not significantly drift over time (in
125 comparison to the manufacturer's precision specification of 2 ppbpbv for 1 σ), and we assessed instrument noise and drift in combination by integrating the data from benchmarking while on the ship and determined a standard error of ~~2-1 ppb pbv~~ for CH₄ and 0.13 ~~ppmppmv~~ for CO₂ that can be considered the uncertainty of our measurements. In addition To exclude data potentially contaminated by the ship's exhaust, we determined there excluded all measurements of CH₄ and CO₂, whenever the wind direction was no significant80°–280° relative to the bow of the ship, and when CO₂ levels were larger than 420 ppm. As
130 a result, 26 % of all 1 Hz CH₄ and CO₂ measurements were excluded on the account of potential contamination of air samples by considering CO₂ mixing ratios when the air inlet was downwind of the ship's (comparatively elevated) exhaust. (see also Fig. A2). To determine CH₄ baseline levels for the studied region, we applied a Savitzky-Golay filter (~~Savitzky and Golay, 1964~~)(Savitzky and Golay, 1964) of second polynomial order with a 24-hour window size on the mixing ratios.

Maxima in atmospheric CH₄ measurements were further investigated using the online Real-time Environmental Applications and Display System (READY) for the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Stein et al., 2015; Rolph et al., 2017). Ensemble back-trajectories of air masses from the time and location where CH₄ maxima were
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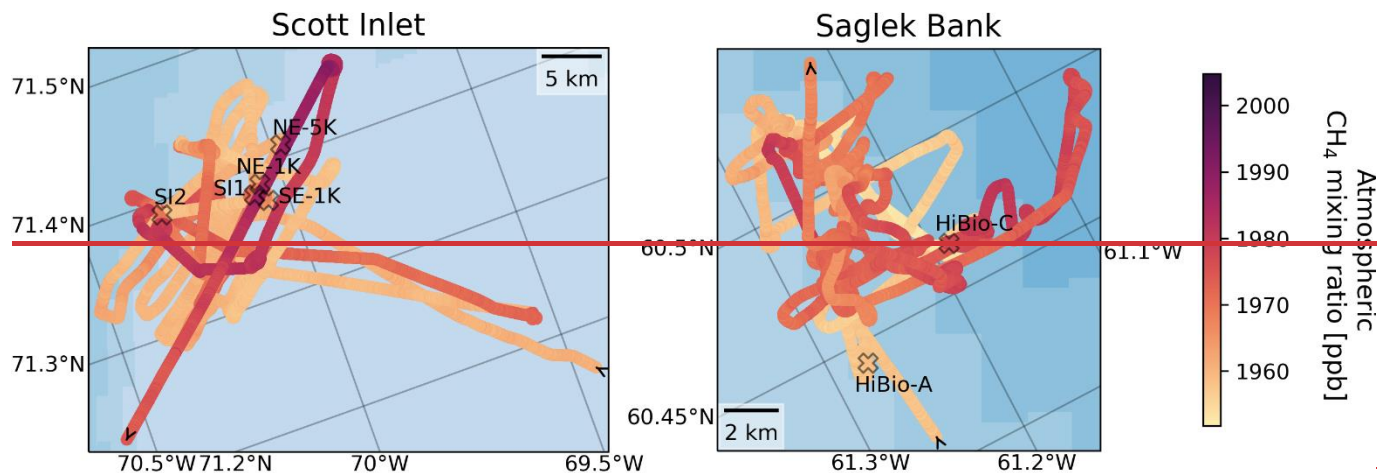
measured (referred to as source) to the point of possible origin within the previous 12 hours were modelled. Two gridded meteorological data archives were used: the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) model (1° horizontal resolution) and the Global Forecast System (GFS) model (0.25° horizontal resolution). For the ensemble, the datapoints of the meteorological input model were offset by a fixed grid factor resulting in an output of 27 possible trajectories (Rolph et al., 2017).

Atmospheric pressure and dew point temperature measurements were recorded every two minutes with a digital barometer (PTB-210, Vaisala, Finland) and a humidity-temperature sensor (MP101A-T7, Rotronic, USA) located on the bridge of the ship (~~Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021b~~)(Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021b). For statistical analyses, we ~~log-transformed the non-normally distributed CH₄ mixing ratios, examined CH₄ measurements for linear Spearman rank correlations with available data~~ and also fitted a simple Generalized Additive Model (~~GAM; used previously in air quality studies, e.g. Pearce et al., 2011; Hou and Xu, 2022~~)(GAM; used previously in air quality studies, e.g. Pearce et al., 2011; Hou and Xu, 2022) to hourly averaged CH₄ data in order to identify trends of inter-dependencies. The GAM was well suited due to its ability to describe the non-linear effects of non-normally distributed data using non-parametric smoothing functions. The respective analysis was performed in R (package: “mgcv”, function: “gam”; Wood, 2011).

2.3 Water column measurements

Seawater was collected at ~~13~~15 stations for measurements of dissolved CH₄: ~~north-eastern~~Makkovik in the Labrador Shelf, northeastern Labrador (“Kelp”), two locations at Saglek Bank, ~~(Fig. A2)~~, Hatton Sill, Davis Strait, Southwind Fjord, Disko Fan, ~~five~~six locations at Scott Inlet, and Clark Fiord (Fig. 1 ~~and 2~~). While exclusively surface samples were taken at Clark Fjord and at four co-located stations close to the Scott Inlet seep (SI1, SE-1K, NE-1K, NE-5K; Fig. A2), we gathered water column profiles at the remaining ~~eighteen~~ locations. Collection and measurement protocols followed that of Punshon et al. (2014, 2019). Briefly, seawater ~~from discrete depths was samples were collected into~~from 12 L Niskin bottles mounted on a Conductivity-Temperature-Depth (CTD) ~~)/Rosette. On recovery, the waters were transferred system~~ to 60 ml glass serum bottles (after triple rinsing with the sample water) to overfilling by 1.5 times the bottle volume, immediately fixed with mercuric chloride, capped with metal crimp seals and rubber septa, and stored at 4 °C. Samples were analyzed for CH₄ at the Bedford Institute of Oceanography (Department of Fisheries and Oceans, Canada) using a single-phase batch headspace equilibration method with gas chromatography (similar to Neill et al., 1997). ~~Uncertainty in dissolved CH₄ was ±0.08%~~Marine CH₄ concentrations are given in nmol/L, abbreviated as nM hereinafter. The analytical precision was estimated from repeat measurements of standard gases and amounted to 0.5–0.8 % or better for dissolved CH₄ similar to previous studies (Punshon et al., 2014, 2019). Data from previous studies conducted in 2011, 2012 and 2016 (Punshon et al., 2014, 2019) were included here to examine regional patterns and temporal variations of dissolved CH₄ concentrations in the Baffin Bay. Potential temperature (θ) and density of seawater at atmospheric pressure (σ_0) were calculated based on water temperature, pressure and salinity measured on the ship (SBE ~~9plus~~911 CTD, Seabird Scientific, Canada) (~~Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021d~~)(Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021c) using the package ‘seawater’ in Python (calculations based on Bryden, 1973; Fofonoff and Millard, 1983; Millero and Poisson, 1981). Water masses were ~~assigned according to operational~~

170 definitions considering specified ranges of calculated potential temperature and density of seawater defined following previous studies (Table 1 in Sherwood et al., 2021; Stramma et al., 2004; Fratantoni and Pickart, 2007; Azetsu-Scott et al., 2012). These water masses comprise Halocline Water ($\sigma_0 \leq 27.30 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $\theta \leq 0^\circ\text{C}$), Baffin Bay Water ($27.50 < \sigma_0 \leq 27.80 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $\theta \leq 2^\circ\text{C}$), Labrador Shelf Water ($\sigma_0 \leq 27.40 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $\theta \leq 2^\circ\text{C}$), Irminger Water ($27.30 < \sigma_0 \leq 27.68 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $\theta > 2^\circ\text{C}$), Labrador Sea Water ($27.68 < \sigma_0 \leq 27.80 \text{ kg/m}^3$, $\theta > 2^\circ\text{C}$), and to a lesser extent North East Atlantic SeaDeep Water ($27.80 < \sigma_0 \leq 27.88 \text{ kg/m}^3$) and Denmark Strait Overflow Water ($\sigma_0 \leq 27.88 \text{ kg/m}^3$). It should be noted that surface waters (~2 m) did not necessarily match operational definitions of water masses as outlined in Sherwood et al. (2021) and were interpreted separately. We also used seawater density and oxygen data from the CTD casts (Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021c) and determined the mixed layer depth where the density change was higher than 0.125 kg/m^3 compared to the density at 5 m depth. Continuous water temperature and salinity measurements in surface waters from the underway thermosalinograph (Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021d) were used to determine correlations with atmospheric measurements. Daily sea ice concentration data with 10 km resolution (AMSR-2, identifier OSI-408) by the Norwegian and Danish Meteorological Institutes was extracted from the Ocean and Sea Ice Satellite Application Facility EUMETSAT catalogue (https://thredds.met.no/thredds/osisaf/osisaf_seaiceconc.html; accessed: 2022-11-13).



185 **Fig. 2:** Close-up of Scott Inlet and Saglek Bank, where multiple water measurements were taken. The locations of CTD-Rosette sampling are indicated together with respective names of stations. The arrows indicate the direction where the ship was heading. Station SI1 was located at the seep at Scott Inlet (left panel).

2.4 Sea-air methane flux

The instantaneous sea-air CH_4 flux (F) was determined with the bulk flux equation (Wanninkhof, 2014),

$$F = k (C_w - C_a),$$

combining measured dissolved CH_4 concentrations (C_w) and air-equilibrated seawater CH_4 concentrations (C_a) (Equation 7, Wiesenburg and Guinasso, 1979) calculated with our atmospheric CH_4 measurements averaged between three minutes before and after the time of sampling, as well as water temperature and salinity measurements from the CTD. The gas transfer velocity (k) (Wanninkhof, 2014) was determined calculated with our atmospheric CH_4 measurements averaged between five minutes

before and after the time of sampling, as well as water temperature and salinity measurements from the CTD (Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021c). The gas transfer velocity (k) was determined after Ho et al. (2006) with

$$k = 0.251 \bar{U}^{2.254} \bar{u}_{10}^{-2} (Sc/660)^{-0.5},$$

making use of the Schmidt number (Sc) (Table 1, Wanninkhof, 2014) and wind speeds averaged between three minutes before and after the time of sampling (\bar{U}).

making use of the Schmidt number (Sc) with a correction for salinity (average 4.9 % diffusivity decrease for dihydrogen and helium in a seawater-like solution) based on Jähne et al. (1987), following the example of Manning et al. (2022) and the respective code (Manning and Nicholson, 2022) was used as a reference (see Appendix A2). Wind speeds were corrected to 10 m height via wind profile power law (Hsu et al., 1994) and averaged between five minutes before and after the time of sampling (\bar{u}_{10}). Positive sea-air fluxes indicated CH_4 flux from the ocean to the atmosphere. No flux was calculated for the Makkovik station since these samples were taken before atmospheric measurements had started.

3 Results and discussion

Seawater samples showed wide ranges of dissolved CH_4 concentrations at the different sample locations and water depths from undersaturated (53.25 %, 0.29 nM) to highly oversaturated (685.8 %, 272.4 nM, Fig. 32). The by far highest water column concentrations were measured about 8 km north-west of at the known cold seep at Scott Inlet (station SI2-Stn0, Fig. 2) at 200 m depth close to the bottom of the ocean (about 250 m water depth), decreasing to 4.13 % (41.8 nM) at the surface. These high concentrations close to the seafloor were not surprising given documented ebullition-observed previously in the area (Cramm et al., 2021). The second depth profile taken in proximity to the seep, about 8 km northeast of its location (station SI2, Fig. A3) showed a maximum of 25.4 nM (63.9 %, Fig. 2) at 200 m depth and just slightly oversaturated surface water (11.3 %, 3.9 nM). Measurements from the year 2012 revealed CH_4 maxima of 65.8 nM at 200 m depth decreasing to 3.7 nM at the surface roughly 40 km north-west/northwest from the seep location (Punshon et al., 2019). Large temporal fluctuations of dissolved CH_4 levels between 9 and 609 nM within 24 hours were found close to the seafloor (~250 m) at the seep in 2018 (Cramm et al., 2021). Similarly, other studies also manifested the temporal variability of seafloor seep degassing (Boles et al., 2001; Leifer and Boles, 2005; Shakhova et al., 2014; Cramm et al., 2021; Dølvén et al., 2022) (Boles et al., 2001; Leifer and Boles, 2005; Shakhova et al., 2014; Cramm et al., 2021; Dølvén et al., 2022). However, concentrations at the water surface of the seep were in the single digits in the past previously (Cramm et al., 2021). Where high bottom concentrations within 5 km of the seep were measured, which was confirmed in Cramm et al. (2021), we found elevated concentrations between 42.7 nM (this study (from 3.9 nM at station NE-5K, roughly 5 km north-east of the seep) and 56.9 nM (SI2 to 5.3 nM at station SE-1K, about 1 km south-east of the seep) at the water surface (Fig. 2 and 3). Considering the findings from Punshon et al. (2019), Cramm et al. (2021), and the present study, depths of ~200–250 m around the Scott Inlet seep location seemed most prominent for CH_4 maxima. Furthermore, elevated water columns supersaturated with CH_4 concentrations at in proximity to this location over several years show the persistence of the

seep activity. Surface concentrations ~~an order of magnitude higher in 2021~~ close to the atmospheric equilibrium in 2012, 2018 and 2021 in this area may indicate ~~reduced~~ significant oxidation of CH₄ within the upper water column ~~relative to other years.~~ However, this station. The Scott Inlet stations should not be considered as representative of the Baffin Bay as a whole, but rather specific to the seep location.

Seawater oversaturated with CH₄ (338 %, 12.9 nM) was also found at 250 m depth at Makkovik (Fig. 2), the southernmost station in this study. The ~~second highest concentrations~~ Makkovik station was characterized by a strong gradient of water masses, with warm (6.3 °C) surface water, cold (~0 °C) sub-surface water featuring its CH₄ maximum and again warmer (3.8 °C) water at the seafloor.

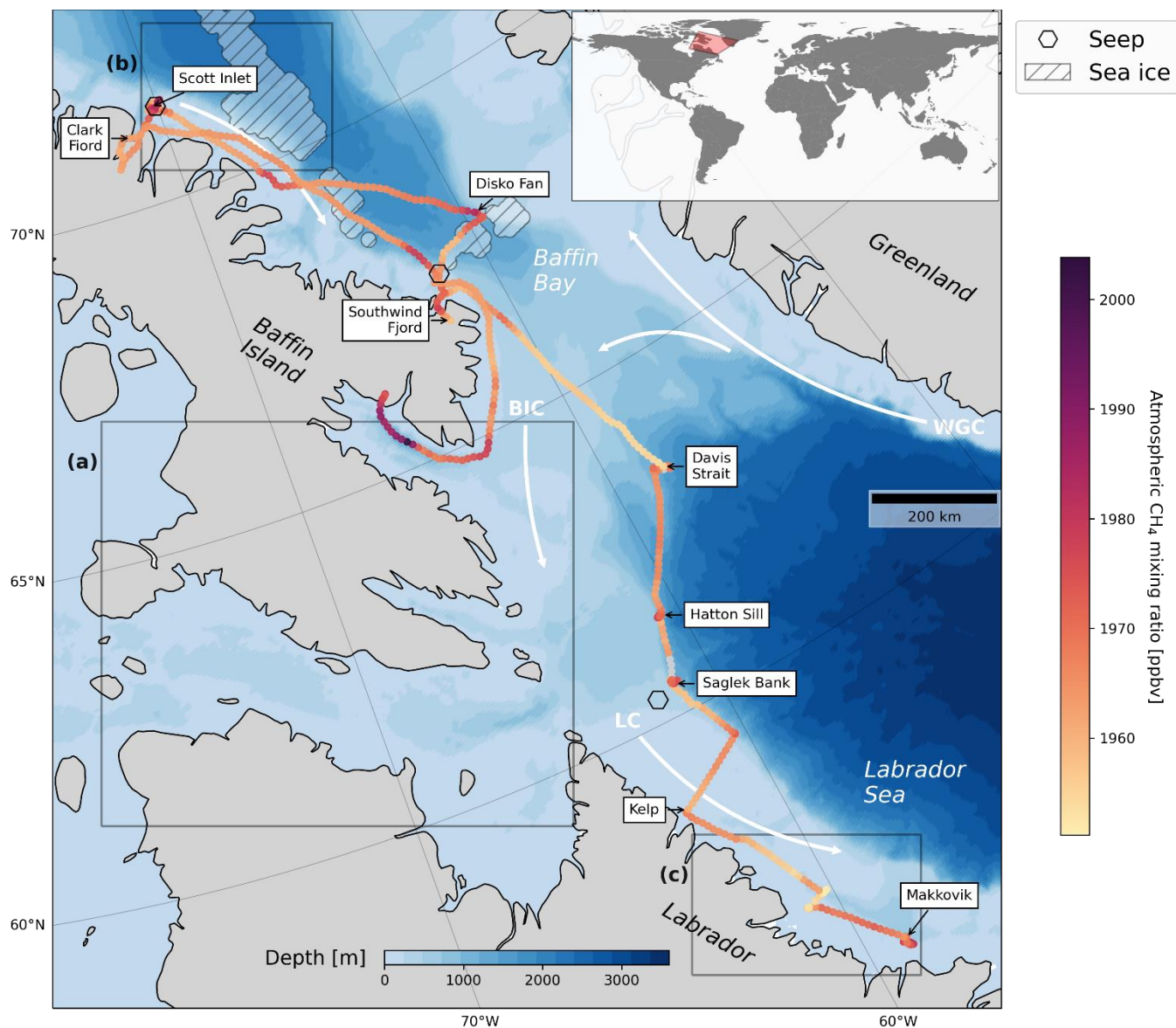


Fig. 1: The ship's trajectory and atmospheric CH₄ levels as averages over consecutive 10 km sections. The black arrows point to the locations where water measurements were taken. The three black hexagons indicate confirmed or suspected locations of gas seepage (Punshon et al., 2014, 2019; Cramm et al., 2021). White arrows represent the West Greenland Current (WGC), Baffin Island Current (BIC) and Labrador Current (LC). Water depth was retrieved from the NOAA server (Amante and Eakins, 2009). Areas labelled a, b and c indicate the extents for each panel in Fig. dissolved CH₄ A4. Shaded areas represent sea ice cover above 10 % (copyright 2021, EUMETSAT).

Dissolved CH₄ levels of similar range were measured at Southwind Fjord with a maximum of 2418±227 % oversaturation (938.8 nM) at 30 m depth, 1578% (55.7±148 % (5.2 nM) at the surface, and 1210% (48.0±114 % (4.5 nM) at the bottom (75 m). Occurrences of highly supersaturated waters in Arctic and sub-Arctic fjords have been documented previously: up to 33.5 nM and 974 % super-saturation in the Isfjorden, Svalbard, Norway (Damm et al., 2021), up to 72.3 nM and ~2000 % super-

saturation in the Storfjorden, Svalbard, Norway (Mau et al., 2013) and up to 459.2 nM at the head of the Canadian sub-Arctic Saguenay fjord (Li et al., 2021). ~~Possible sources of high dissolved CH₄ concentrations at Southwind Fjord in this study could be terrestrial runoff, although Manning et al.~~ Most likely, the recent disturbance from iceberg groundings and subsequent landslides at Southwind Fjord (Normandeau et al., 2021) led to CH₄ release into the water column from a fresh supply of organic matter and lowered oxygen levels (Bonaglia et al., 2022). Other possible sources of enhanced dissolved CH₄ concentrations at this location could be terrestrial runoff (Castro-Morales et al., 2022), although Manning et al. (2022) found that rivers did not discharge significant amounts of CH₄ to the North American Arctic Ocean in the summers of 2017–2019. Advection of CH₄-rich water from other sources within the Baffin Bay could play an important role given the evidence of oil slicks off Cape Dyer for example (Budkewitsch et al., 2013). ~~Other potential sources could be unknown seeps within the fjord or the recent disturbance from iceberg groundings and subsequent landslides (Normandeau et al., 2021), which could have led to CH₄ release into the water column from a fresh supply of organic matter, or gas hydrates or CH₄-bearing pore water in the seafloor sediment disturbed by the turbulence~~ Otherwise, gas hydrates or CH₄-bearing pore water in the seafloor sediment ~~disturbed by the turbulence of local landslides (Paull et al., 2002)- could have resulted in CH₄ release into the water column.~~ Overall, we recommend follow-up sampling to assess the persistence of the CH₄ ~~super saturation~~ oversaturation and its source at Southwind Fjord.

~~CH₄ saturations at the remaining stations ranged between 25–178 % (0.9–6.9 nM) at varying depths. Compared to measurements at nearby locations in 2012 and 2016 (Punshon et al., 2014, 2019), dissolved CH₄ concentrations in 2021 at the stations Hatton Sill, HiBio-C, and Disko Fan were very similar ranging between 0.9–5.6 nM (Fig. 2). While concentrations at HiBio-A in all years showed similar ranges, a CH₄ peak of 6.8 nM (181 % saturation) in relatively shallow water at 50 m depth was observed in 2021 suggesting advection of CH₄ within subsurface water masses from elsewhere. Similar, relatively shallow CH₄-rich water masses brought along by the Labrador Current may have provoked the CH₄ maxima at Kelp and Makkovik. Methane concentrations in the general Davis Strait area measured one decade before (Punshon et al., 2014) were in good agreement with our findings for the respective station (1.8–5.4 nM).~~

~~In 2021, surface water concentrations were above saturation at all stations including further locations around the Scott Inlet seep and at Clark Fiord where only surface samples were taken (3.6–5.3 nM, 106–153 %, Fig. 3). Even though some sea ice was observed during the cruise, none of the water sample locations were in proximity to any significant sea ice cover (>10 %), so that local accumulation of CH₄-rich water below a surface ice layer as found previously (Damm et al., 2015) did not play a role here. A significant positive correlation of mixed layer mean dissolved CH₄ and oxygen levels at those stations where depth profiles were taken (Spearman R² = 0.63, p < 0.01) may suggest aerobic CH₄ production (Karl et al., 2008). Or else, sea ice melt may have discharged other precursors used by microbes to form CH₄ despite increasing oxygen levels towards the surface (Damm et al., 2015).~~

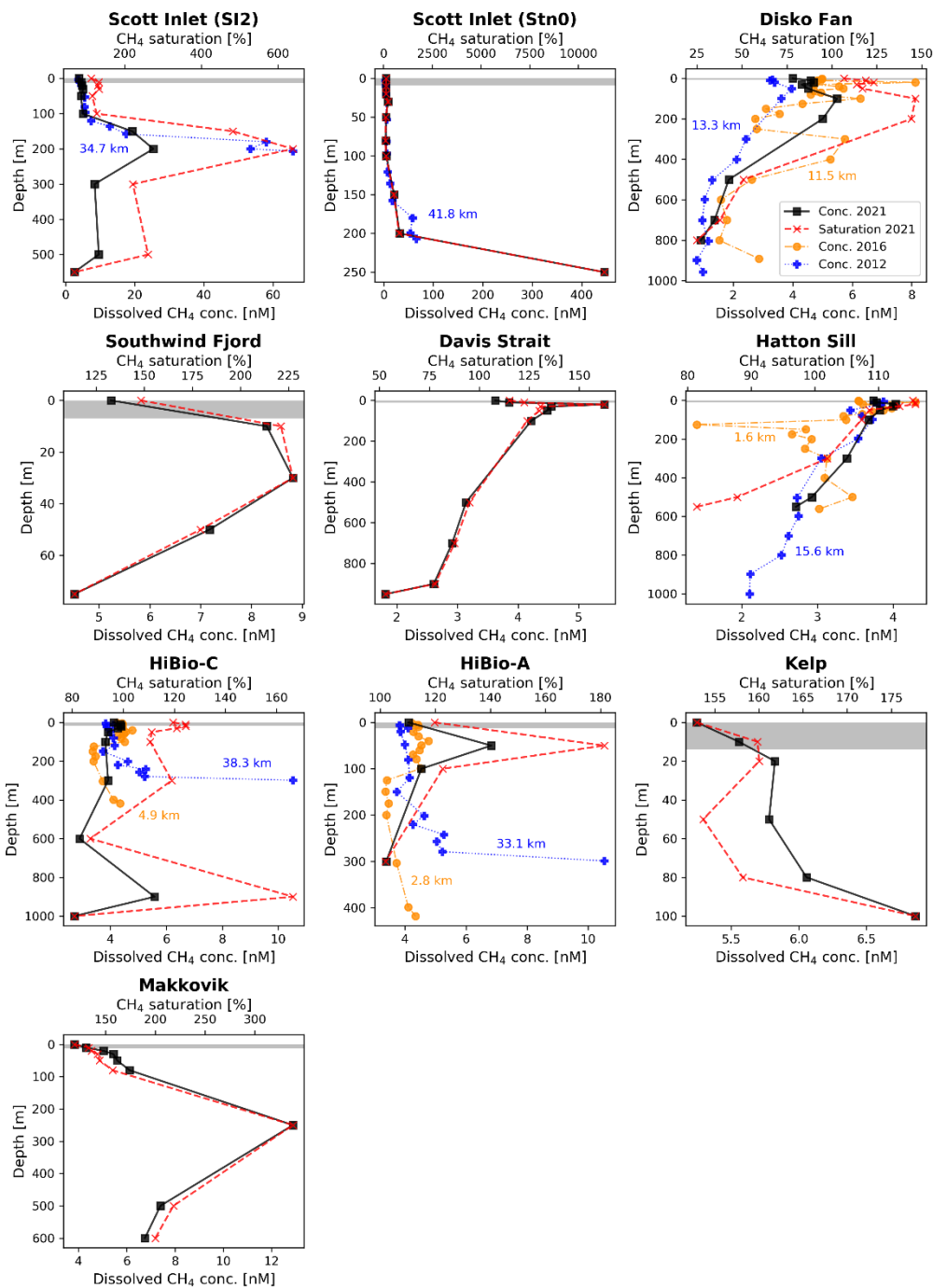


Fig. 2: Depth profiles of dissolved CH₄ concentrations (black) and saturations (red, dashed line) throughout the water column. Station names are given and can be located in Fig. 1 and A3. Profiles from Punshon et al. (2014, 2019) conducted in 2012 and 2016 were included for each year's closest stations within 50 km of the ones from 2021 and are shown in blue (2012) and orange (2016). Distances between respective nearby stations are given in kilometres. The mixed layer depths are indicated by gray areas.

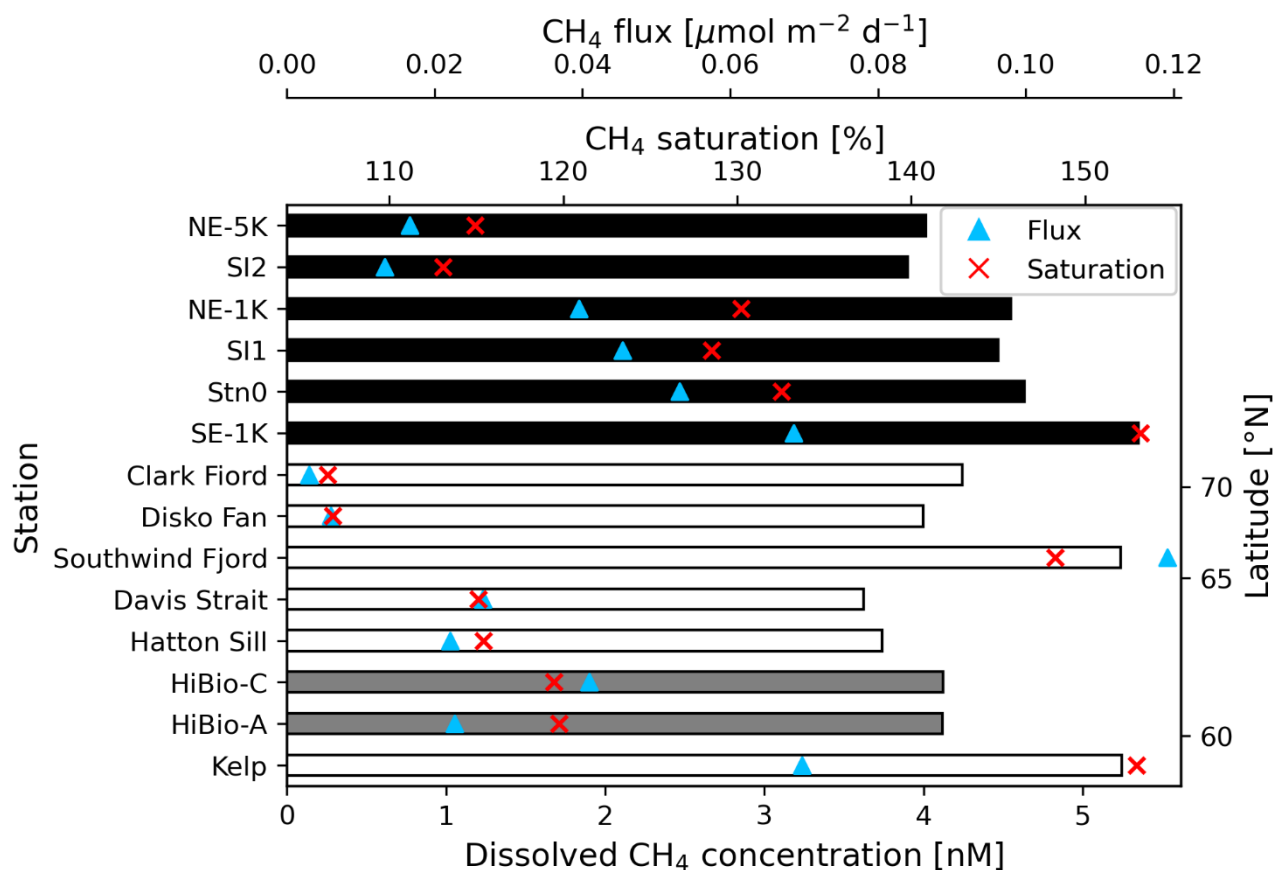


Fig. 3: Dissolved CH₄ concentrations at the water surface (bars) for all stations where CTD-Rosette samples and atmospheric measurements were collected. Gray bars represent two sample locations in the Saglek Bank area, and black bars reflect samples in the Scott Inlet area, both close to seafloor seep locations (station names correspond to those in Fig. A2). CH₄ saturations (red crosses) and estimated sea-air fluxes (blue triangles) are shown as well. Latitudes are not to scale.

The distribution of CH₄ with respect to water masses accounting for data from Punshon et al. (2014, 2019) and this study are visualized in a temperature-salinity diagram (Fig. 4). Samples span the known upper and intermediate depth of water masses of the

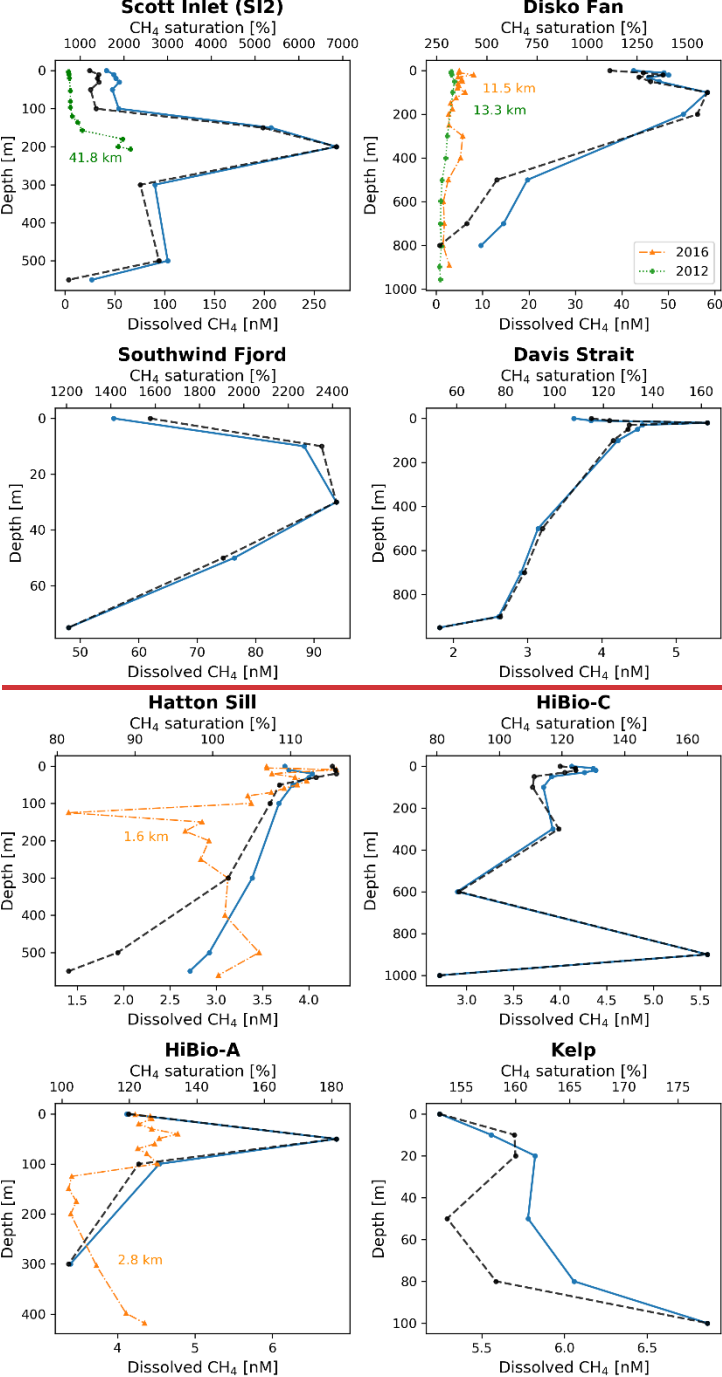


Fig. 3: Depth profiles of dissolved CH₄ concentrations (blue) and saturations (black, dashed line) throughout the water column. Station names are given and can be located on Fig. 1 and 2. Profiles from Punchon et al. (2014, 2019) conducted in 2012 and 2016 were included for stations close to the ones from 2021 and are shown in green (2012) and orange (2016). Distances between respective nearby stations are given in kilometres.

The Disko Fan station had concentrations of dissolved CH₄ that were the third highest in this study. The CH₄ maximum with a super saturation of 1600% (58.4 nM) at 100 m depth, decreased with depth to 265% (9.7 nM) at 800 m, and remained high (>1000%) towards the surface. These results were much higher than measurements from nearby stations in 2012 and 2016 (Punshon et al., 2019) as shown in Fig. 3, and an order of magnitude higher than measurements on cross-basin transects (Punshon et al., 2014). While the cause of this increment remains unknown, prevailing currents (West Greenland Current) and the shallow depth of the CH₄ maximum (100 m) suggest a CH₄ source around the south western Greenland shelf, where possible CH₄ seepage was suggested (Gregersen and Bidstrup, 2008; Gautier et al., 2011; Nielsen et al., 2014). Moreover, onshore lakes in south west Greenland showed highest dissolved CH₄ concentrations (average of 2530 nM) among all reported lakes at northern latitudes (Northington and Saros, 2016), and glacial runoff from the Greenland ice sheet caused CH₄ discharge of an average 271 nM (Lamarche Gagnon et al., 2019). Alternatively, increased CH₄ levels could originate from an extension of CH₄ rich water spreading from the western side of Baffin Bay. These findings also warrant the need of continued monitoring to see if high CH₄ levels at this location are persistent.

All other stations from Davis Strait and further southward along the northern Labrador shelf showed significantly lower dissolved CH₄ concentrations than any of the Baffin Bay stations. Respective subsurface maxima showed over saturation between 116–181% (4.0–6.9 nM) at varying depths. CH₄ concentrations at these stations except for “Kelp” tended to decrease with depth, suggesting advection of CH₄ within shallow water masses from elsewhere. Compared to measurements at nearby locations in 2016, dissolved CH₄ concentrations in 2021 at the stations Hatton Sill and HiBio A were very similar ranging between 2.7–6.8 nM (Fig. 3). Average water column CH₄ concentrations of stations south of 65°N in 2021 (mean: 4.2 nM, range: 1.8–6.9 nM) were close to those measured in the Davis Strait in previous years (mean: 3.9 nM, range: 1.1–10.5 nM; Punshon et al., 2014, 2019).

The distribution of CH₄ with respect to water masses accounting for data from Punshon et al. (2014, 2019) and this study are visualized in a temperature salinity diagram (Fig. 4). Samples span the known upper and intermediate depth of water masses of the region, mainly Halocline Water (HW), followed by Irminger Water (IMIW), Labrador Shelf Water (LShW) and Baffin Bay Water (BBW). Highest concentrations were found in Arctic HW (mean: 1210.3 nM, range: 2.4–272.4445.3 nM), which was partly/largely forced by the presence of the Scott Inlet seep (Fig. 4). This seep, and possibly others, could enrich the HW with CH₄ as HW travels southward in form of the Baffin Island Current. HW overlying most of the water column at the Scott Inlet seep. This seep, and possibly others, could enrich the HW with CH₄ as HW travels southward in form of the Baffin Island Current. The overall shallowest water mass, the LShW, held the second highest CH₄ concentrations (mean: 694.3 nM, range: 1.1–88.321.1 nM) partially due to direct seep impacts, and possibly due to the influence of the Baffin Island Current transporting CH₄-rich water southward or of the West Greenland Current carrying elevated CH₄ levels westward, which may have provoked higher than expected/elevated CH₄ levels/concentrations in LShW for example at Southwind Fjord, HiBio-A and possibly even at the Disko Fan/Makkovik station. Warmer IW masses tended to have lower/lowered the third highest

335 concentrations (mean: 3.52 nM, range: 1.3–53.2 nM), potentially due to increased 0–10.5 nM. Increased oxygen availability
was found in the Irminger Sea ~~as found in 2015 (Fröb et al., 2016) which could have led to CH₄ oxidation and reduced CH₄~~
~~levels, for example at the 2021 stations HiBio A, HiBio C, Hatton Sill and Davis Strait. Similarly, the~~ 2015 (Fröb et al.,
2016), but dissolved oxygen levels during our Rosette casts showed lower oxygen concentrations on average in the IW than
in the shallower HW and LShW. The colder and deeper BBW mass showed lower CH₄ concentrations (mean: 3.21.7 nM,
340 range: 0.2–103.217.0 nM), ~~than the mostly oversaturated HW, LShW, and IW,~~ whereas measurements in proximity to the
Scott Inlet seep ~~and at the Disko Fan station in 2021 in 2021 and roughly 45 km north of the suggested seep at Cape Dyer in~~
~~2011~~ contributed to the high end (>17.9 nM) of the concentration range. ~~Therefore for BBW. Most likely,~~ both CH₄ production
and consumption co-occurred in the BBW (Fenwick et al., 2017).

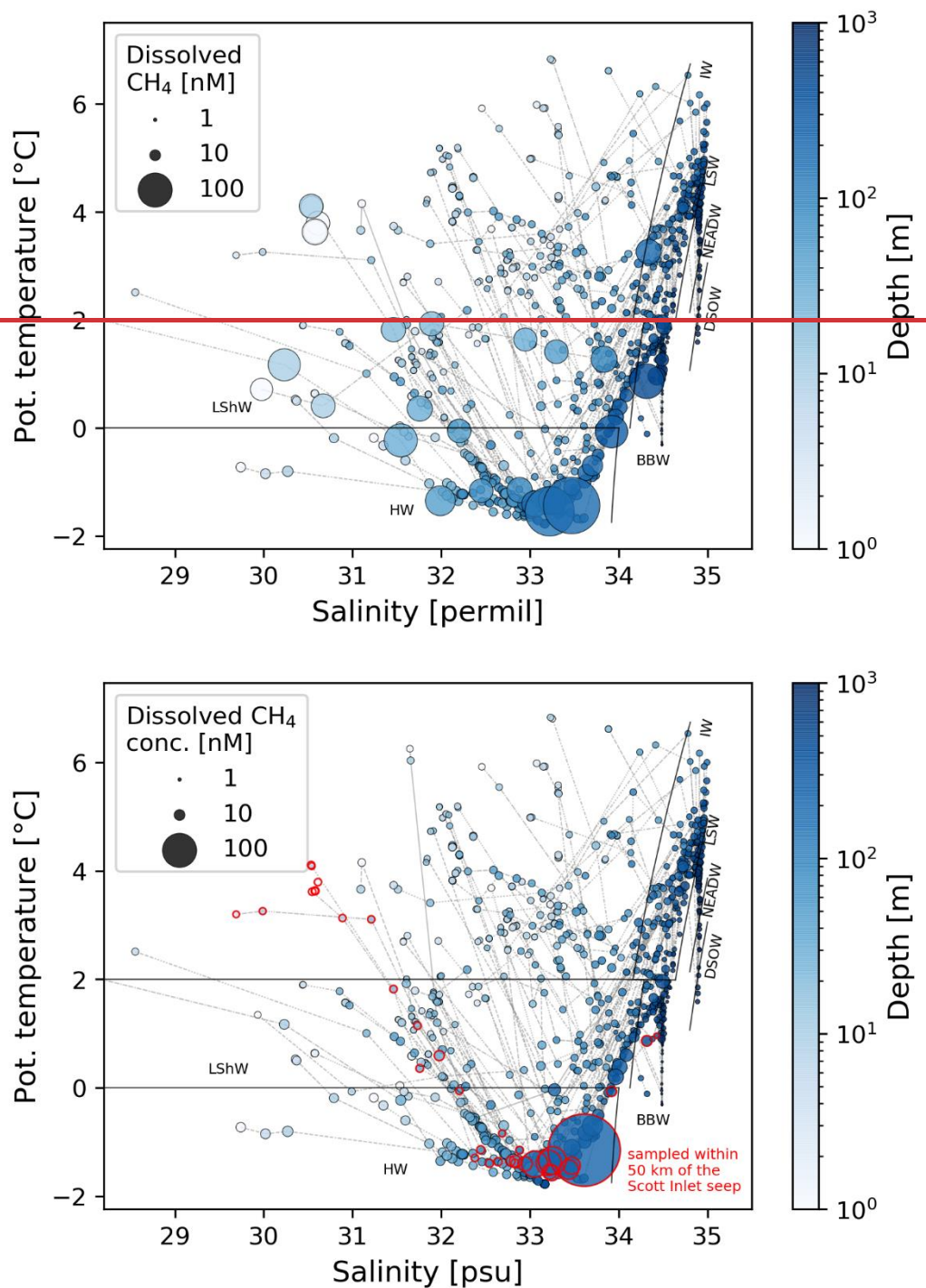


Fig. 4: Temperature-salinity diagram of all measurements from 2021 and from the studies by Punshon et al. (2014, 2019) for the Baffin Bay and Davis Strait area. Dissolved CH₄ concentrations are shown with different marker sizes, colors indicate the water depth. Black lines distinguish between water masses: Halocline Water (HW), Labrador Shelf Water (LShW), Irminger Water

(IW), Labrador Sea Water (LSW), Northeast Atlantic Deep Water (NEADW) and Denmark Strait Overflow Water (DSOW). Gray lines connect measurements from the same CTD-Rosette cast. For better visualization, salinities below 28‰ ~~which were~~ psu measured at the surface of the two fjords in 2021 are not shown. Red circles highlight the sample locations within 50 km of the seep in Scott Inlet.

~~In 2021, CH₄ concentrations decreased from subsurface maxima towards the surface at all stations (Fig. 3), which was most likely caused by oxidation within the water column. Nevertheless, surface water concentrations were above saturation at all stations (including further locations around the Scott Inlet seep and at Clark Fiord where only surface samples were taken, Fig. 5). While dissolved CH₄ concentrations at latitudes below 65°N ranged from 3.6–5.3 nM, concentrations were one order of magnitude higher in the sampled areas north of 65°N (41.8–56.9 nM). We suggest that differences in surface ocean current patterns with stronger influence of the West Greenland Current joining the Labrador Current (Tang et al., 2004; Curry et al., 2011) maintained lower concentrations of dissolved CH₄ at the water surface than above 65°N. Moreover, partial sea ice cover may also have reduced the diffusion of CH₄ from surface waters into the atmosphere in higher latitudes (Damm et al., 2015). We observed brief periods of close pack ice, but mostly brash ice between north of 65°N and south of Scott Inlet. High dissolved CH₄ concentrations at the surface of the (ice free) Clark Fiord indicate that CH₄-rich water from waterbodies onshore could have been discharged into the narrow inlet (Manning et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021), or that other processes were responsible for the CH₄ accumulation.~~

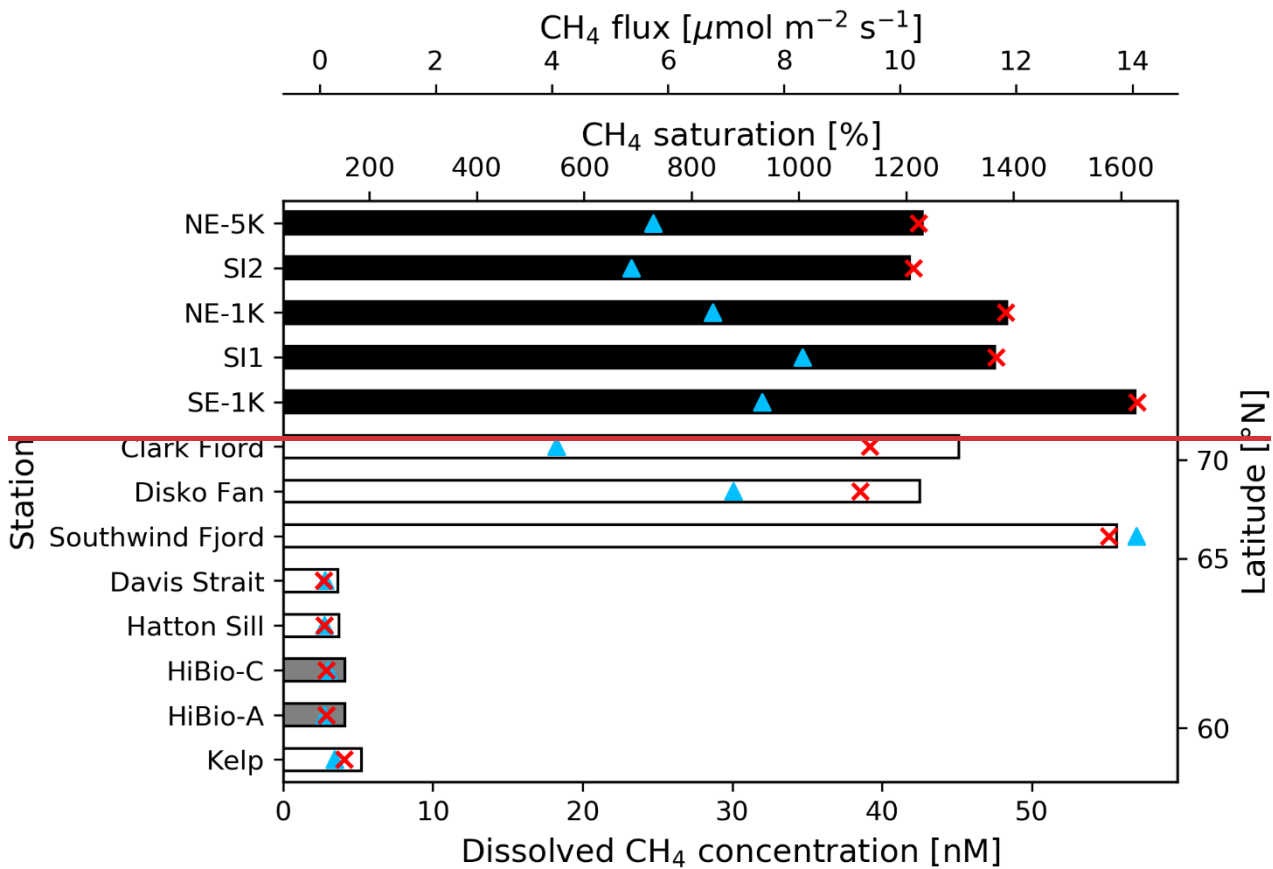
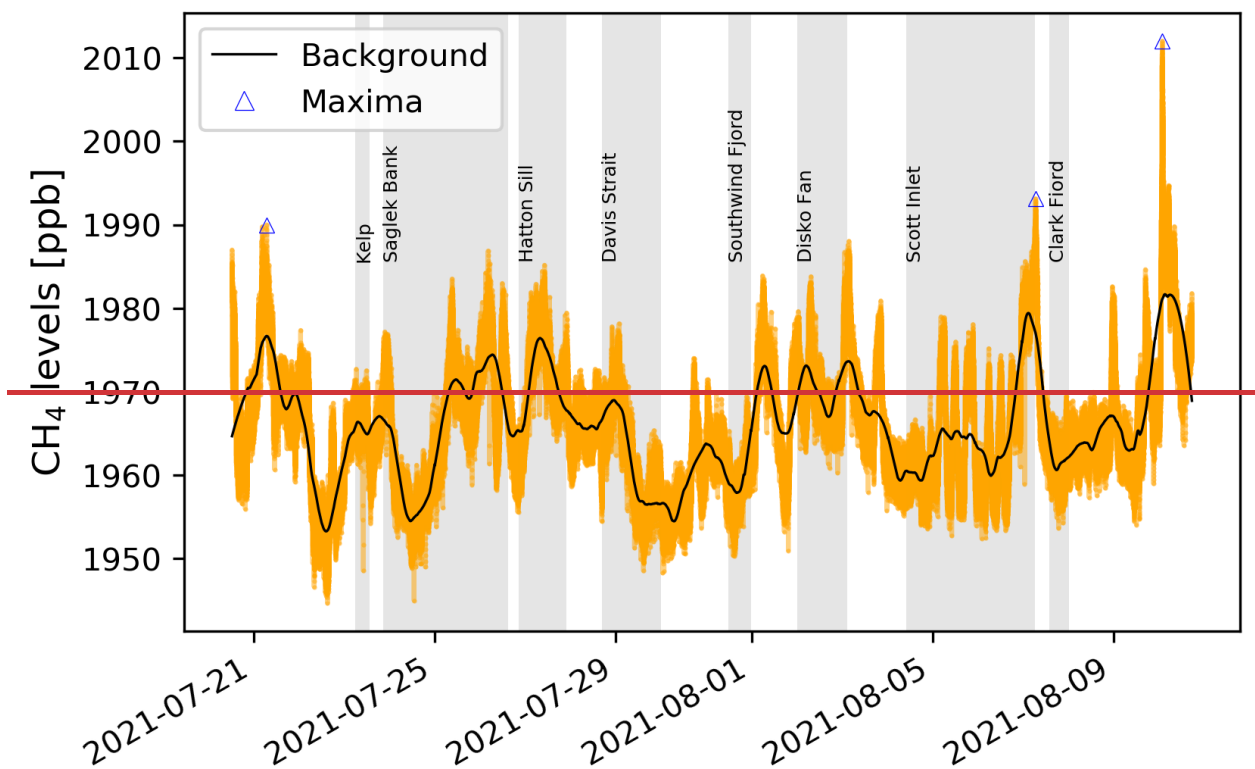


Fig. 5: Dissolved CH₄ concentrations at the water surface (bars) for all stations where CTD-Rosette samples were collected. Gray bars represent two sample locations in the Saglek Bank area, and black bars reflect samples in the Scott Inlet area, both close to seafloor seep locations (station names correspond to those in Fig. 2). Concentrations north of 65°N were substantially higher than south of 65°N. CH₄ saturations (red crosses) and estimated sea-air fluxes (blue triangles) are shown as well. Latitudes are not to scale.

In this study, we recorded a net flux of CH₄ from the ocean to the atmosphere, which amounted to a mean of $4.6 \pm 4.3 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ based on measurements in 2021, with a mean of $0.1 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for measurement locations south of 65°N, and $7.4 \pm 3.0 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ north of 65°N featuring large uncertainties. Overall, sea-air fluxes in this study peaked at $14.1 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the Southwind Fjord, exceeding the flux rate of $5.4\text{--}8.3 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ generated from the Scott Inlet seep (Fig. 5). As a result, fluxes in the northern Labrador Sea were negligible in summer 2021, whereas mean emission rates in the Baffin Bay beyond 65°N were of similar magnitude as mean estimates of $8.7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for the Chukchi Sea (Thornton et al., 2020), and exceeded averages found in other studies of $1.6 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for the Davis Strait (Punshon et al., 2014), $1.3 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for the Bering Sea to Baffin Bay (Fenwick et al., 2017), and $0.4 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for the Baffin Bay and Davis Strait (Manning et al., 2022). Considering all measurements from 2021 and an area of $1,123,000 \text{ km}^2$ for the Baffin Bay and Davis Strait (Manning et al., 2022), we calculated a basin-wide mean net CH₄ flux of $0.030 \pm 0.029 \text{ Tg/yr}$ (median: 0.035 Tg/yr , 25th percentile: 0.001 Tg/yr , 75th percentile: 0.047 Tg/yr). If samples with high concentrations were excluded, the net flux decreases to 0.021 ± 0.036

Tg/yr (median: 0.001 Tg/yr, 25th percentile: 0.001 Tg/yr, 75th percentile: 0.024 Tg/yr), in which case the ocean may act as a small CH₄ source or sink to the atmosphere. Both flux estimates are one order of magnitude higher than the mean of 0.002±0.003 Tg/yr estimated for the Baffin Bay and Davis Strait by Manning et al. (2022). Therefore, the Baffin Bay and Davis Strait alone contributed on average 0.3% to the global oceanic CH₄ emissions of 9 Tg/yr (Saunois et al., 2020) based on our measurements in 2021.

Atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratios during the expedition ranged between 1944.7 ppb ppbv off the coast of northern Labrador and 2012.0 ppb ppbv in the Cumberland Sound in Nunavut (Fig. 1), with an overall mean (± standard deviation) of 1966.0±7.4 ppb, ±8 ppbv. Wind speeds did not exceed 15 m/s. After filtering applying the Savitzky-Golay filter to the measured data, baseline mixing ratios ranged between 1954.2 ppb ppbv and 1980.6 ppb 1981 ppbv (Fig. 65). These concentrations were higher than global monthly mean CH₄ mixing ratios in July (1886.4 ppb ppbv) and August (1892.6 ppb ppbv) of the sampling year 2021 (Dlugokencky, 2022), but were within range of recent (year 2020) values from surface flask-air measurements from the year 2020 from northern stations of the NOAA Global Greenhouse Gas Reference Network, e.g. Summit, Greenland (July: 1939.2 ppb; August: 1946.7 ppb); Alert, Nunavut (July: 1933.0 ppb; August: 1945.7 ppb); Stórhöfði, Vestmannaeyjar, Iceland (July: 1937.9 ppb; August: 1952.8 ppb); and Ny Ålesund, Svalbard, Norway (July: 1955.2 ppb; August: 1962.4 ppb ppbv; August: 1947 ppbv) and Alert, Nunavut (July: 1933 ppbv; August: 1946 ppbv) (Dlugokencky et al., 2021). The mixing ratios measured in this study are higher than those determined from flask samples likely due to the influence of CH₄ seeps in our study area. Our measured CH₄ values were also consistent with the known latitudinal gradient and recent growth increase in atmospheric CH₄ (Lan et al., 2021). The baseline estimates suggest a local background CH₄ fluctuation of roughly 26 ppb 27 ppbv in the studied area. A recent study found a contribution of 42.5±25.2 ppb ppbv to total CH₄ mixing ratios measured during a cruise in the eastern Arctic Ocean, suggesting that atmospheric CH₄ levels over the ocean can be affected by distant wetland CH₄ sources (Berchet et al., 2020).



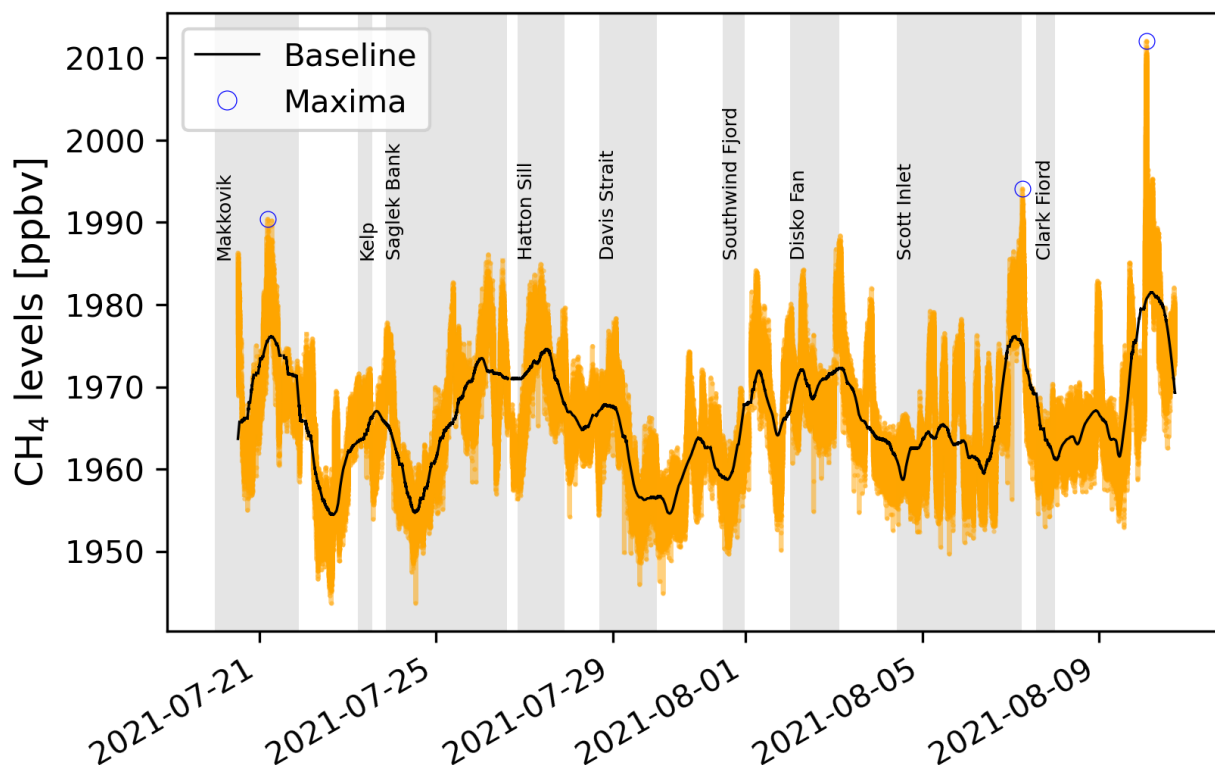


Fig. 65: Timeseries of atmospheric CH₄ levels (orange points) and the derived background levels baseline (black line) over the entire measurement period. Gray parts show the approximate duration at the stations (Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021a)(Amundsen Science Data Collection, 2021e), where seawater samples were collected. Blue triangles/circles reflect the three maxima of atmospheric CH₄.

Persistent enhancements of CH₄ mixing ratios above the baseline lasting over roughly 4 hours were detected repeatedly over the length of the expedition (Fig. 6). We investigated potential atmospheric origins of CH₄ maxima at three locations, Cumberland Sound, Scott Inlet, and the Labrador Trough, using ensemble back trajectories (Fig. 7). At Cumberland Sound, the maximum of 2012.0 ppb coincided with prevailing westerly winds based on our measurements. Therefore, we assumed that those ensemble trajectories indicating air transport from or across the inland on the western side best reflected the observed meteorological conditions (Fig. 7a). Since no water samples were taken in the Cumberland Sound, where the highest atmospheric CH₄ levels were observed, we could not rule out an ocean-related atmospheric input of CH₄ at this location. Instead, we inferred from a back trajectory analysis that the elevated CH₄ mixing ratios likely originated from sources onshore such as waterbodies or wetlands. The second highest CH₄ peak of 1993.1 ppb was detected roughly 12 km north-east of the Scott Inlet seep with dominating easterly winds (Fig. 2, left panel; Fig. 7b). Given the distance of roughly 500 km from Greenland, the origin of this CH₄ enhancement may rather be ocean-based than land-based, which suggests the existence of further seeps along the continental shelf east of Scott Inlet (Gregersen and Bidstrup, 2008; Gautier et al., 2011; Nielsen et al.,

2014). Trajectories for the third highest CH₄ levels of 1990.0 ppb measured in the Labrador Trough coupled with west-south-west wind directions suggested onshore sources from northern Labrador (Fig. 7c).

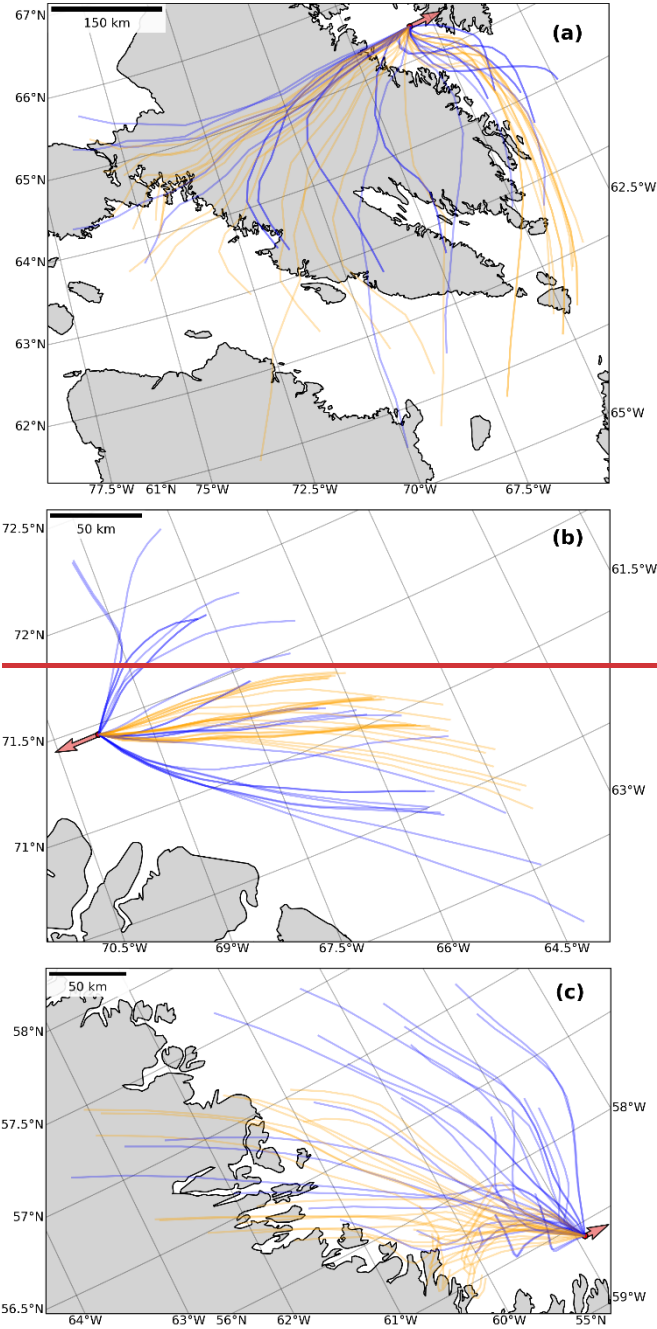


Fig. 7. Back trajectories of air masses approaching the locations where highest atmospheric CH₄ levels were measured in the Cumberland Sound (a), at Scott Inlet (b) and in the Labrador Sea (c). Orange lines represent trajectories using the GFS archive and blue lines show trajectories with the GDAS meteorological model. Persistent enhancements of CH₄ mixing ratios above the baseline lasting over more than four hours were detected repeatedly over the length of the expedition (Fig. 5). We investigated potential

430 atmospheric origins of CH₄ maxima at three locations, Cumberland Sound, Scott Inlet, and the Labrador Trough, using ensemble back-trajectories (Fig. A4). At Cumberland Sound, the maximum of 2012 ppbv coincided with prevailing westerly winds based on our measurements. Therefore, we assumed that those ensemble trajectories indicating air transport from or across the inland on the western side best reflected the observed meteorological conditions (Fig. A4a). Since no water samples were taken in the Cumberland Sound, where the highest atmospheric CH₄ levels were observed, we could not rule out an ocean-related atmospheric input of CH₄ at this location. Red arrows indicate the direction of air movement averaged over three minutes before and after the time of sampling, pointing in the direction the wind is blowing to.

435 Calculated sea-air fluxes demonstrated that the ocean in the studied area acted as a CH₄ source to the atmosphere. However, linear correlations between atmospheric and dissolved CH₄ levels based on our dataset were not found which indicates that CH₄ released from seeps at the seafloor alone did not directly increase atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratios consistent with findings from previous studies (Law et al., 2010; Punshon et al., 2019; Cramm et al., 2021). Furthermore, linear correlations of CH₄ mixing ratios with available data were not found, suggesting more complex relationships at sea. Instead, results of a Generalized Additive Model proposed spatial (latitude, longitude), temporal (hour of day) and meteorological (pressure, dew point temperature) influences on atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratios with a good fit (n=173, R²=0.84, 88% explained deviance). In this study, small increments of atmospheric CH₄ levels in proximity to seep locations were observed, whereas at other locations where substantial fluxes of CH₄ from the sea to the atmosphere were determined locally atmospheric concentrations were not noticeably affected. Therefore, we suggest that atmospheric CH₄ levels were influenced by a number of processes including, but not limited to seafloor seeps, upwind distant land based sources like wetlands and other waterbodies, weather conditions and ultimately temporal and spatial differences.

440 Instead, the back-trajectory analysis suggests that the elevated CH₄ mixing ratios could have originated from along the trajectories leading onshore, where potential sources such as waterbodies or wetlands could be located (Fisher et al., 2011; Thonat et al., 2017; Berchet et al., 2020). The second highest CH₄ peak of 1994 ppbv was detected roughly 13 km northeast of the Scott Inlet seep with dominating easterly winds (Fig. A4b). Given the distance of roughly 500 km from Greenland, the origin of this CH₄ enhancement could be ocean-based, with origins from further seeps along the continental shelf east of Scott Inlet (Gregersen and Bidstrup, 2008; Gautier et al., 2011; Nielsen et al., 2014). Trajectories for the third highest CH₄ levels of 1990 ppbv measured in the Labrador Trough coupled with west-south-west wind directions may suggest onshore sources from northern Labrador (Fig. A4c).

455 Linear correlations between atmospheric and dissolved CH₄ levels based on our dataset were not found. Due to the atmosphere-sea surface barrier, and complexities added by wind conditions, ocean currents, bacterial activity within the water column and other processes, the atmosphere-ocean system essentially describes a decoupled system locally, so that increased CH₄ concentrations are not necessarily found alongside rising atmospheric CH₄ levels (Law et al., 2010; Punshon et al., 2019; Cramm et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2022). Accordingly, simple linear correlations of CH₄ mixing ratios with available auxiliary data (latitude, longitude, speed, wind speed and direction, air temperature, humidity, dew point temperature, atmospheric pressure, water temperature, salinity, hour of day) were not found, suggesting more complex relationships. Instead, results of a Generalized Additive Model proposed spatial (latitude, longitude), temporal (hour of day) and meteorological (atmospheric

pressure, dew point temperature) influences on hourly averaged atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratios with a good fit ($n = 171$, $R^2 = 0.84$, 88 % explained deviance) for the parts of the cruise when these data were available. Therefore, we suggest that atmospheric CH₄ levels were influenced by a number of processes including, but not limited to seafloor seeps, upwind distant land-based sources like wetlands and other waterbodies, weather conditions and ultimately temporal and spatial differences.

Based on our measurements, we determined a near-zero net flux of CH₄ from the ocean to the atmosphere, which amounted to a mean of $0.039 \pm 0.031 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ along Baffin Island and Labrador in 2021, compared to $1.6 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in Davis Strait in 2011 (Punshon et al., 2014). Overall, sea-air fluxes in this study peaked at $0.119 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in the Southwind Fjord, exceeding the flux rates at the Scott Inlet seep (Fig. 5). As a result, fluxes in the northern Labrador Sea and Baffin Bay were negligible in summer 2021 in comparison to mean estimates of $8.7 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for the Chukchi Sea (Thornton et al., 2020), of $1.3 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for the Bering Sea to Baffin Bay (Fenwick et al., 2017), or of $0.4 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for the Baffin Bay and Davis Strait from measurements between 2015–2019 (Manning et al., 2022).

4 Conclusion

Continuous measurements of atmospheric CH₄ levels in ~~remote marine regions of~~ the northern Labrador Sea and Baffin Bay ~~made this study unique~~ were above the global marine average with small instantaneous input from the ocean. Differences in dissolved CH₄ concentrations were mainly affected by ocean currents and seafloor sources, while atmospheric CH₄ levels showed interrelations with environmental conditions, location, and time with small temporal fluctuations. ~~Ocean~~Both ocean-based CH₄ sources as well as onshore waterbodies and wetlands likely contributed to atmospheric CH₄ levels. Further investigation is necessary to confirm potential CH₄ sources, for example through analyses of carbon isotopic ratios– ~~and more extensive back-trajectory modelling~~. We suggested baseline CH₄ mixing ratios between 1954–~~2 ppb~~ ppbv and ~~1980.6 ppb~~ 1981 ppbv for the studied area which can be used to validate global-scale measurements and modelling. ~~Depth profiles and their comparison with measurements from previous years in the studied area revealed little interannual variation and ongoing CH₄ to the hydrosphere from the Scott Inlet cold seep. More extensive investigation of the chemical composition of sediments, bacterial activity, and riverine input could help explain elevated CH₄ levels within the shallow water column at Southwind Fjord, where recent landslides triggered by an iceberg were observed.~~ Even though the Arctic Ocean does currently not contribute significantly to the global CH₄ budget ~~as found by other studies~~, monitoring and investigation of CH₄ levels in and over the sea ~~remains~~ remain relevant to assess potential impacts of climate change in regions susceptible to permafrost thaw, destabilization of CH₄ hydrates and reduced sea ice cover.

A.1 Figures



495

Fig. A1: The measurement tower at the bow of the ship with anemometer, temperature sensor, and air inlet mounted on the truss approximately where the arrow is pointing. The GPS was fixed at the lower end of the truss. Photo credit to David Cote (DFO, Canada).

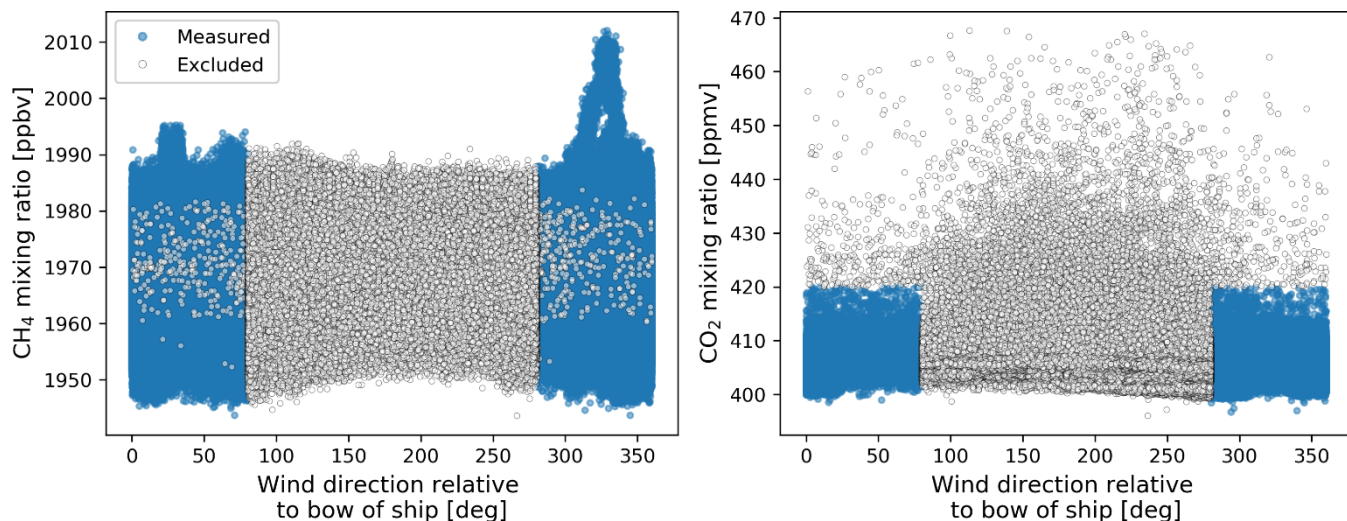


Fig. A2: Gas mixing ratios throughout the cruise for wind directions relative to the bow of the ship are shown. All data represented by open circles fulfil the criterion for measurements potentially contaminated by the ship's exhaust (wind directions between 80–280° or CO₂ mixing ratios < 420 ppm) amounting to 26 % of all measured 1 Hz data.

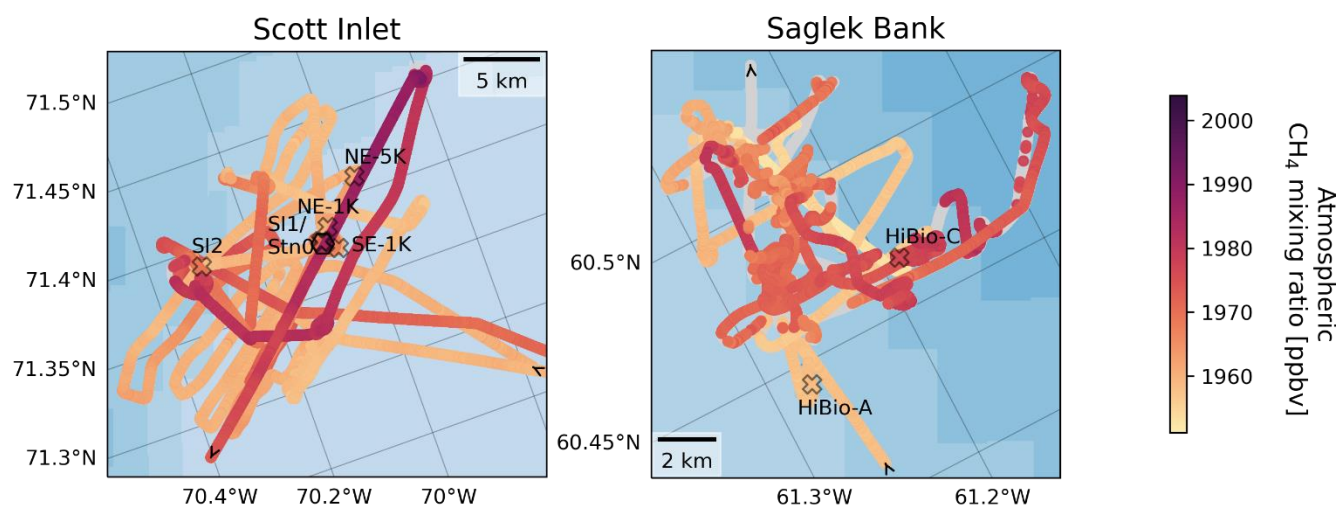
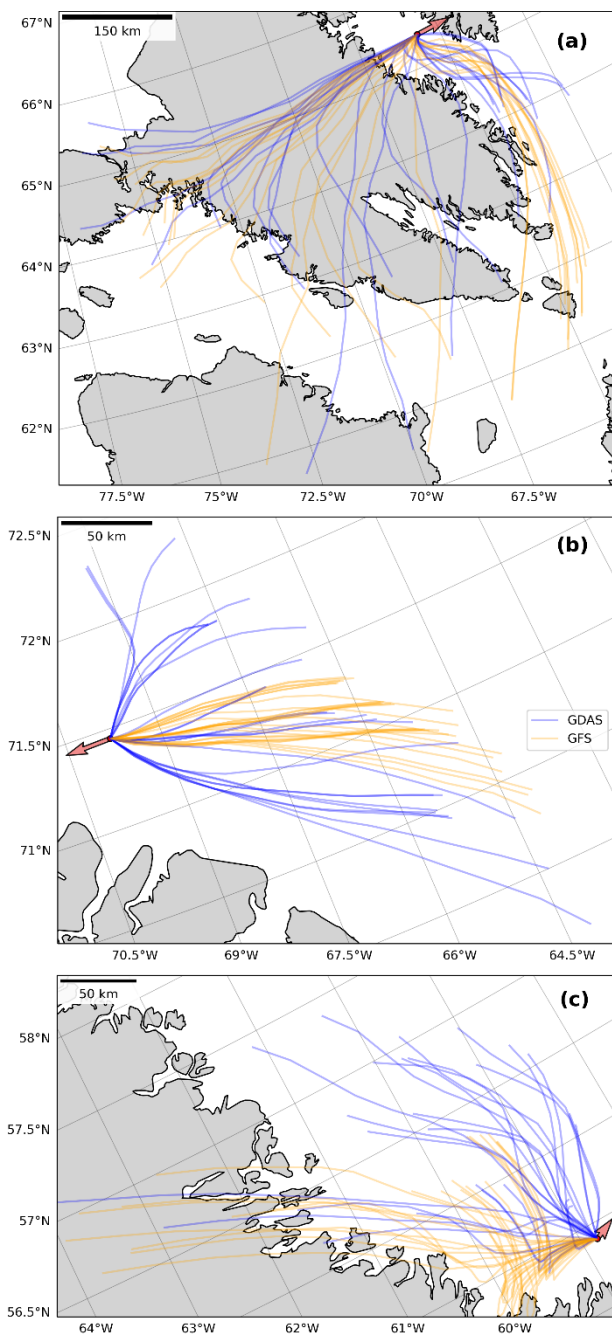


Fig. A3: Close-up of Scott Inlet and Saglek Bank, where multiple water measurements were taken. The locations of CTD-Rosette sampling are indicated together with the respective names of stations. The arrows indicate the direction where the ship was heading.

Stations SI1 and Stn0 were co-located at the Scott Inlet seep (black hexagon, left panel). Gray circles indicate measurements excluded due to the ship's contamination.



510 **Fig. A4: Back-trajectories of air masses approaching the locations where highest atmospheric CH₄ levels were measured in the Cumberland Sound (a), at Scott Inlet (b) and in the Labrador Sea (c). Orange lines represent trajectories using the GFS archive and blue lines show trajectories with the GDAS meteorological model. Red arrows indicate the direction of air movement averaged over five minutes before and after the time of sampling, pointing in the direction the wind is blowing to.**

A.2 Flux estimates

515 To determine the sea-air fluxes, the wind profile power law following Hsu et al. (1994) was used to correct wind speeds in m/s from the anemometer at 14.1 m height above sea level to 10 m height:

$$u_{10} = u_{14.1} \frac{10^{0.11}}{14.1}$$

Furthermore, the Schmidt number for CH₄ in sea water following the example of Manning and Nicholson (2022) based on Jähne et al. (1987) was incorporated:

520
$$Sc = \frac{\mu_w}{D_w}$$

with the kinematic viscosity of seawater (Manning and Nicholson, 2022):

$$\mu_w = 0.0001 \cdot (17.91 - 0.5381 \cdot T_w + 0.00694 \cdot T_w^2 + 0.02305 \cdot S_w) \cdot \frac{1}{\rho_w}$$

the water temperature (T_w) in °C, salinity (S_w) in psu as measured by the CTD, and density at atmospheric pressure (ρ_w) in kg/m³ (Fofonoff and Millard, 1983; Millero and Poisson, 1981).

525 The diffusion coefficient (D_w) in m²/s was determined following Manning and Nicholson (2022) and based on Jähne et al. (1987):

$$D_w = 3.0470 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot e^{\frac{-18360}{R(T_w+273.15)}} \cdot (1 - 0.049 \cdot S_w / 35.5)$$

using the ideal gas constant $R = 8.314510 \frac{\text{kg m}^2}{\text{s}^2 \text{K mol}}$

Data availability

530 Data was made publicly available: Vogt, J., Risk, D., Azetsu-Scott, K., Edinger, E. N. & Sherwood, O. A.: Methane flux estimates from continuous atmospheric measurements and surface-water observations in the northern Labrador Sea and Baffin Bay, <https://doi.org/10.5683/SP3/6IUECA>, Borealis, [V5](#), 2022.

Author contribution

JV, DR and OAS designed and conceptualized the study and JV collected the data. [EB processed the raw atmospheric data.](#)
535 KAS provided the resources for seawater analysis and ENE mentored. JV prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

Competing interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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