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North America's net terrestrial carbon exchange with the atmosphere 1990–2009

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Abstract

Scientific understanding of the global carbon cycle is required for developing national and international policy to mitigate fossil-fuel CO₂ emissions by managing terrestrial carbon uptake. Toward that understanding and as a contribution to the REgional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes (RECCAP) project, this paper provides a synthesis of net land–atmosphere CO₂ exchange for North America over the period (1990–2009). This synthesis is based on results from three different methods: atmospheric inversion, inventory-based methods and terrestrial biosphere modeling. All methods indicate that the North America land surface was a sink for atmospheric CO₂, with a net transfer from atmosphere to land. Estimates ranged from –890 to –280 Tg C yr^{–1}, where the atmospheric inversion estimate forms the lower bound of that range (a larger land-sink) and the inventory-based estimate the upper (a smaller land sink). Integrating across estimates, “best” estimates (i.e., measures of central tendency) are –472 ± 281 Tg C yr^{–1} based on the mean and standard deviation of the distribution and –360 Tg C yr^{–1} (with an interquartile range of –496 to –337) based on the median. Considering both the fossil-fuel emissions source and the land sink, our analysis shows that North America was, however, a net contributor to the growth of CO₂ in the atmosphere in the late 20th and early 21st century. The continent’s CO₂ source to sink ratio for this time period was likely in the range of 4 : 1 to 3 : 1.

1 Introduction

Only about 45% of the carbon dioxide (CO₂) released to the atmosphere by global human activities since 1959 (including the combustion of fossil fuels, cement manufacturing and deforestation and other changes in land use) has been retained by the atmosphere (calculated from data in Le Quéré et al., 2013). The remainder has been absorbed by the ocean and terrestrial ecosystems. Given observations of the increase in atmospheric CO₂, estimates of anthropogenic emissions, and models of oceanic

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CO₂ uptake, it is possible to estimate CO₂ uptake by the terrestrial biosphere (i.e., the land sink) as the residual in the global carbon budget (Le Quéré et al., 2013). Le Quéré et al. (2013) thus estimated the mean *global* land sink for 2002–2011 at $2.6 \pm 0.8 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$. Within the uncertainty of the observations, emissions estimates and ocean modeling, this residual calculation is a robust estimate of the *global* land sink for CO₂. However, both scientific understanding and policy considerations require more detail than is afforded by a global estimate since the magnitude, spatial pattern and temporal dynamics of the land sink vary considerably at continental and regional scales. Considerations of national and international policy to mitigate climate change by managing net terrestrial carbon uptake must account for this spatial and temporal variability. To do so requires more spatially refined estimates along with an improved understanding of the major controlling factors and underlying ecosystem processes.

The REgional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes (RECCAP) project is an effort at regional refinement of terrestrial (and ocean) carbon fluxes based on a synthesis of multiple constraints (Canadell et al., 2011). An international activity organized under the auspices of the Global Carbon Project (Canadell et al., 2003; <http://www.globalcarbonproject.org>), the objective of RECCAP is “. . . to establish the mean carbon balance and change over the period 1990–2009 for all subcontinents and ocean basins” (Canadell et al., 2011, p. 81). RECCAP aims to achieve this objective through a series of regional syntheses designed to “. . . establish carbon budgets in each region by comparing and reconciling multiple bottom-up estimates, which include observations and model outputs, with the results of regional top-down atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) inversions.” Beyond the more spatially (regionally) refined estimates of carbon flux and processes, “[t]he consistency check between the sum of regional fluxes and the global budget will be a unique measure of the level of confidence there is in scaling carbon budgets up and down”.

The objective of this study is a synthesis of net land–atmosphere exchange for North America combining different approaches (i.e., atmospheric inversion, inventory-based methods and terrestrial biosphere modeling) over the period 1990–2009. Our approach

was guided by (a) Canadell et al. (2011); (b) RECCAP syntheses for other regions (Dolman et al., 2012; Gloor et al., 2012; Haverd et al., 2013; Luysaert et al., 2012; Patra et al., 2013; Piao et al., 2012; Valentini et al., 2014); (c) guidelines found at the RECCAP website (<http://www.globalcarbonproject.org/reccap/>); and (d) personal communications with J.G. Canadell as Coordinator of the RECCAP Science Steering Committee.

2 Methods

We estimated the annual net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂-C (Tg C yr⁻¹) for North America using results from three different approaches to estimating carbon budgets over large areas: atmospheric inversion modeling, empirical modeling using inventory data, and terrestrial biosphere modeling. For each method, we provide estimates for the 1990–1999 and 2000–2009 decades and the entire 20 yr 1990–2009 period. We follow the convention that negative values of the estimated net land–atmosphere exchange represent net uptake of CO₂-C by the land surface (predominately in vegetation and soils) or a sink for atmospheric CO₂. Positive values thus represent a net release from the land to the atmosphere or a source of atmospheric CO₂.

2.1 Atmospheric Inversion Models (AIMs)

The methods of atmospheric inversion modeling have been described previously in detail by Enting (2002), Gurney et al. (2008; 2003; 2002), Baker et al. (2006), Peters et al. (2007), Butler et al. (2010), Ciais et al. (2011) and others. As summarized by Hayes et al. (2012), AIMs combine data from an observation network of atmospheric CO₂ concentrations with models of surface CO₂ flux and atmospheric transport to infer from an inversion process the net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂-C. Because they provide an integrated estimate of all CO₂ sources and sinks (over a given land area and time period) from the atmospheric perspective, inversions are sometimes referred to as

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a top-down approach (Canadell et al., 2011). We use as our primary source the 11-model ensemble of RECCAP selected TransCom3 inversions (Peylin et al., 2013). The individual models are identified in Table 1 (p. 6703) of Peylin et al. (2013). North America here is defined by the combination of TransCom3 regions “Boreal North America” and “Temperate North America” (Baker et al., 2006).

2.2 Terrestrial Biosphere Models (TBMs)

Terrestrial biosphere modeling employs a model of terrestrial ecosystem carbon dynamics deployed on a geospatial grid to simulate the exchange of carbon with the atmosphere, primarily as CO₂ (Hayes et al., 2012; Huntzinger et al., 2012; Schwalm et al., 2010). The models differ in which ecosystem processes they include and how they conceptually and mathematically represent them. Some, for example, include carbon release to the atmosphere from fire and other disturbances; others do not (see Hayes et al., 2012; Huntzinger et al., 2012). In order to estimate the net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂ with TBMs, the models must minimally include the processes of CO₂ uptake from the atmosphere in gross primary production (GPP) and the release of CO₂ to the atmosphere in ecosystem respiration (Re), whether separated into autotrophic (Ra) and heterotrophic (Rh) respiration (Re = Ra + Rh) or not. Net primary production (NPP) is the balance between GPP and Ra (NPP = GPP – Ra). Net ecosystem production (NEP) is the balance between GPP and Re (NEP = GPP – Re or, equivalently, NEP = NPP – Rh). Net Biome Production (NBP) is defined by Schulze et al. (2000) as NEP minus nonrespiratory losses such as fire and harvest. It is defined by Chapin et al. (2006) as Net Ecosystem Carbon Balance (NECB) estimated at large temporal and spatial scales (where NECB is the net rate of organic and inorganic C gain by or loss from and ecosystem), and by RECCAP as NEP plus and/or minus all vertical and horizontal fluxes in and out of an ecosystem. NEP is a subcomponent of net ecosystem exchange (NEE) which is “...the net vertical exchange of CO₂ between a specified horizontal surface and the atmosphere above it over a given period of time” (Hayes and Turner, 2012). NEE is equivalent to the net land–atmosphere exchange of

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the ecosystem as a result of anthropogenic land management and use. Whether, how, where and when carbon stock changes in product pools are considered as sources or sinks depends on the accounting approach. The different “approaches” represent variations on the conceptual framework for reporting land–atmosphere CO₂ emissions and removals in greenhouse gases inventories. Within each approach, there can be different “methods” based on the underlying data sets and calculations used to estimate these emissions and removals. The inventory-based accounting approaches are conceptually similar and follow common guidelines, though the details of the methods differ by country (i.e., Canada, the US and Mexico) and sector (e.g., forest lands and crop lands).

For comparison with estimates from the TBMs and AIMS, here we report net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂ from inventories using two different accounting approaches: the “production approach” and the “atmospheric flow approach”, which differ in where and when the emissions of carbon from harvested products are assigned (IPCC, 2006). The production approach assigns product emissions to the producing country (i.e. where the carbon is harvested from), based on stock change in the domestic harvest product pool. The atmospheric flow approach assigns product emissions to the consuming country, based on stock change in the domestic consumption product pool after adjusting for international imports and exports of harvested products. In both cases, the stock change estimates for harvested wood product (HWP) pools include “inherited emissions” from products harvested prior to our time period of analysis. In crop lands, the change in harvested crop product (HCP) pools is zero on an annual basis, so only the adjustment for international imports and exports influences the sink/source estimates (and only when using the atmospheric flow approach). The exception is in our estimates for Mexico, where data on neither carbon stock changes nor the fate of harvested products are currently available. Here we use the “default approach” (IPCC, 2006), which assumes no change in the product pools and so only carbon stock changes resulting from forest growth, deforestation and reforestation/afforestation are included. As such, we calculate only one inventory-based

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estimate for Mexico, but we add this same estimate to the continental totals in both the production and atmospheric flow approaches.

The two approaches are complimentary in terms of assessing the role of a particular country/sector in the global carbon budget both spatially and temporally. The distinction between the two is important in terms of comparison with other scaling approaches (Hayes et al., 2012). In general, most TBMs essentially employ the production approach where, if they consider harvested products at all, product carbon is typically assumed to be emitted from within the same grid cell as it was harvested. Thus, stock change estimates using the production approach is the more appropriate indicator for comparing inventory-based estimates with those of TBMs. On the other hand, we calculate an inventory-based flux estimate using the atmospheric flow approach as the more appropriate comparison with the AIMS. As they are based on atmospheric CO₂ observations combined with a transport model, AIMS should – in theory – detect a sink where the carbon was originally taken up in vegetation and a source where and when the product carbon is ultimately returned to the atmosphere through consumption or decay.

We used activity data based on national inventories from Canada and the US to estimate the contribution of forestlands to the net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂-C for North America. Per IPCC Good Practice Guidance (IPCC, 2006), only “managed” forest lands are considered in the inventories, which excludes a large area of forest primarily in the boreal zone (i.e., the northern extent of Canada’s forested area as well as interior Alaska). The Canada forest inventory uses the “stock-plus-flow” methodology, which starts with data from a compiled set of inventories of forest carbon pools, which are then modeled forward based on the components of change, including growth, soil C respiration, natural disturbance and forest harvest (Kurz et al., 2009; Stinson et al., 2011). For the US, forest carbon stock and stock change estimates are based on the “stock change” methodology using repeated measurements in a design-based forest inventory (Bechtold and Patterson, 2005; Smith et al., 2013; USDA Forest Service, 2013). Aboveground standing tree (both live and dead) carbon pools are directly es-

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5 timated from allometric equations (Woodall et al., 2011) of individual trees measured across the national plot network, while all other forest pools are estimated from models applied at the plot-level based on specific forest attributes (Smith et al., 2013, 2006; USEPA, 2012). Stock change in HWP is calculated in the Canada forest inventory method, but the atmospheric flow estimate here includes only exports since imports are not tracked (but are known to be very small relative to exports). For the US, carbon stock change and emissions from domestic HWP pools are based on the production approach (Skog, 2008), whereas the estimates from the atmospheric flow approach used here considers the domestic consumption pools adjusted for international imports and exports (USEPA, 2012).

10 The estimates of net land–atmosphere CO₂ exchange from cropland in Canada and the US are based on carbon stock change in agricultural soils and by imports and exports of agricultural commodities. Annual carbon flux from the herbaceous biomass in harvested crops is considered to be net zero because of the fast turnover time (decay and consumption) of this pool, with the exception of the transfer of residue carbon to soils, and the amount of carbon removed in HCP and exported from the region. In the case of agricultural soils, annual soil carbon stock change is estimated directly from activity data since soil carbon stocks are not commonly reported (West et al., 2011). Data on carbon stock change in crop land soils from Canada (Environment Canada, 2013) and the US (West et al., 2011) were used, and estimates of carbon in HCP imports and exports were available from each country (*Canadian Socio-Economic Information Management System*, Statistics Canada and *Foreign Agricultural Trade of the United States*, USDA Economic Research Service).

25 The contribution of lands in Mexico to the continental estimates of net land–atmosphere CO₂ exchange is derived from that country's Fifth National Communication to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (SEMARNAT/INECC, 2012). The data represent the carbon accounting for the Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry (LULUCF) sector, and includes estimates of carbon emissions and removals resulting from changes in biomass, the conversion of forests

and grasslands to agricultural use, the abandonment of farmland, and carbon stock changes in mineral soils. These estimates use the default accounting approach based on a stock-plus-flow method where mean carbon stock density by land cover type is distributed according to the areal extent of each type at an initial point in time, and stock change is estimated according to the area of land use change over a subsequent period of time (de Jong et al., 2010).

To these forest land and crop land estimates we also added the estimates of net land–atmosphere CO₂ exchange for the “tundra” region of North America (i.e., Alaska and northern Canada), as reported in the study by McGuire et al. (2012). That study also included modeled estimates, but here we used a synthesis of the observations as analogous to an “inventory” of that region’s carbon fluxes. While we add estimates for this large region from an existing study, our continental total estimates do not otherwise include land–atmosphere exchanges from other ecosystem types for which inventories were not available (e.g., grasslands, temperate wetlands, shrublands or areas of woody expansion into tundra and grassland areas previously not forested and not meeting the definition of forest).

2.4 Estimating decadal mean net land–atmosphere exchange

For each of the multi-model approaches (AIMs and TBMs) we first estimated for the North American spatial domain the time-averaged mean and population standard deviation (σ) (as an index of interannual variability) of each model in the multi-model ensemble. We then averaged those model-specific results to estimate the multi-model mean and population standard deviation. The resulting multi-model means are the estimate of net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂-C for each method and time period. There are different opinions of how to best characterize “uncertainty” in CO₂ flux estimates, whether to use, for example, the standard deviation, standard error, 95 % confidence intervals, inter-percentile/quartile ranges, or semi-quantitative characterizations such as that used by the IPCC in communicating confidence in scientific findings. For comparison with other RECCAP regional syntheses, we followed Luysaert et al. (2012)

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and Ciais et al. (2010) in using the population standard deviation of the multi-model means as a metric of the “uncertainty” (i.e., variability) in the multi-model estimates.

The two inventory-based estimates (the production approach and the atmospheric flow approach) are both derived from the three regional source data sets (the land carbon stock inventories of Canada, the United States, and Mexico). There is no multi-inventory ensemble from which to estimate across inventory means and standard deviation. The apparent interannual changes in stocks of the US and Mexico confound inventory uncertainty with actual year-to-year variations in changes in stocks and are unlikely to be a reliable estimate of interannual variability in net exchange with the atmosphere. The Canadian inventory does use annual information on harvest, natural disturbances and land-use change (Stinson et al., 2011), and thus some interannual variability is reflected in those estimates. They do not, however, include changes due to interannual variation in climate. Accordingly, we estimate net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂-C from the inventory-based approaches using a single value, the time-averaged mean for each period, and do not report the time-averaged standard deviation either as an index of interannual variability or as a measure of uncertainty.

2.5 Fossil-fuel emissions

We also estimated the fossil-fuel source for North America to characterize the land sink relative to fossil-fuel emissions (King et al., 2007a) or the continent's source-to-sink ratio (King et al., 2012). Estimates were made following Andres et al. (2012) using data from (Boden et al., 2013). As with the inventories, we combined emissions data from Canada, the United States, and Mexico to estimate North American emissions.

3 Results

Table 1 compares the estimates of average annual net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂-C for North America across the different methods. Table 2 compares the interan-

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nual variability. Most notable in Table 1 is the substantially larger estimate for the continental land sink (negative net land–atmosphere CO₂ exchange) from the atmospheric inversions as compared to the estimates from the other methods. The difference is on the order of at least a factor of two or more. This pattern has been noted before, most recently in the syntheses of Hayes et al. (2012), Huntzinger et al. (2012) and King et al. (2012).

Because we consider the estimates from the three different methods (Table 1) to all be scientifically credible, the central tendency of the distribution of those estimates can be synthesized or integrating across the estimates provide some indicators of “best” estimates. Unfortunately the small sample size ($n = 4$) and the asymmetry or skew introduced by the atmospheric inversion estimate (Fig. 1) makes the arithmetic mean and standard deviation across the methods an unreliable estimate of central tendency and spread in the estimates. However, because the mean is so commonly used to integrate across estimates, we report the across method mean ± 1 sample standard deviation (s) in Table 1. The median and interquartile range as measure of central tendency and spread of such a skewed distribution are perhaps a more appropriate “best” estimate (Table 1 and Fig. 1). The small sample size makes calculation of the mode (i.e., the most frequent/likely value) difficult or a misleading estimate of central tendency. However, inspection and a simple histogram of the estimates suggests a modal estimate of $< 400 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ as an alternative, if imprecise, across-method estimate for 1990–2009.

Results in Table 2 are suggestive of some tendency for an increase in interannual variability in net land–atmosphere exchange in the 2000–2009 decade relative to the preceding 1990–1999 decade. However, given the relative short 10 yr spans and intradecadal variability, any apparent trend should be considered cautiously, and the standard deviation for the entire 20 yr period a sounder indicator of interannual variability in North America's terrestrial sink. In either case, the atmospheric inversions show somewhat greater interannual variability than the TBMs (Table 2).

Figure 2 displays the fossil-fuel-CO₂ emissions for the three countries, their sum, and the sum of all countries around the world (i.e., global emissions). Solid lines represent

annual emissions and dashed lines represent the decadal mean of emissions. For most political units shown, the decadal means well represent the annual emissions at this scale. Only for global emissions, especially in the latter decade, is the decadal mean a poor representation of the annual emissions. Emissions from Mexico and Canada are too similar in magnitude to be easily discernible from each other in this figure.

Table 3 displays the numerical details of Fig. 2 as well as relative percentages of smaller political units to larger political units. In terms of mass emitted in calendar year 2010, the US is the second largest emitter in the world (China at 2259.86 Tg C yr⁻¹ is ranked #1) out of 216 countries, Canada is ranked #9, Mexico is ranked #13, North America as a whole would still be ranked #2 (behind China).

Table 4 is as Table 1 but with the entries replaced by the estimates of the terrestrial sink as a percentage of North American fossil fuel emissions. These proportions range across methods and decades from nearly 60 % to as low as 5 %, with a “best” estimate of perhaps 20–30 %. There is no clear decadal trend in the sink as a proportion of fossil-fuel emissions; some methods suggest an increase, others a decrease, and, with the exception of the inventory-based estimates, the changes are small. But again, as in Table 2, the relatively short record means any appearance of a trend, or lack thereof, should be considered cautiously and should not be considered significant, statistically or otherwise.

Table 5 is as Table 1 but with the entries replaced by the estimates as a percentage of the global land sink estimated by difference to balance the global carbon cycle (Le Quéré et al., 2013). The average global net land–atmosphere exchanges are –2460, –2320 and –2390 Tg C yr⁻¹ for the periods 1990–1999, 2000–2009 and 1990–2009, respectively. While a crude comparison because the global terrestrial sink is not thought to be uniformly dispersed geographically, the numbers in Table 5 around 15 % are in keeping with the approximately 16 % of the global land surface (minus Greenland and Antarctica) represented by North America (minus Greenland). North America is approximately 21 % of the Northern Hemisphere land surface. While the majority of the global land sink is likely in the Northern Hemisphere (Field et al., 2007), it is un-

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likely that the entire global sink is in the Northern Hemisphere. Nevertheless, the atmospheric inversion estimates of the North American sink at slightly less than 40 % of the global sink suggest a North American sink disproportional to North America's share of the Northern Hemisphere land surface. However, the across-method mean and mode estimates (Table 5) indicate a sink approximately proportional to North America's relative land area as part of the Northern Hemisphere.

4 Discussion and conclusions

All estimates of North America's net land-atmosphere exchange of CO₂-C synthesized in this study are negative values (Table 1), indicating a net exchange from atmosphere to land (i.e., net land uptake of CO₂-C). We therefore conclude, along with most previous assessments, that the vegetation and soils of North America were a sink for atmospheric CO₂ over the decades of 1990–2009. Our estimates of the net land sink for 1990–2009 range from as large as $-890 \pm 409 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ (multi-model mean $\pm \sigma$) to as small as $-280 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$, with the estimates from atmospheric inversions and from the inventory-based production approach the large and small ends of that range, respectively. The ranges for the decades 1900–1999 and 2000–2009 are $-929 \pm 477 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ to -83 Tg C yr^{-1} and $-890 \pm 400 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ to $-270 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$, respectively. The atmospheric inversion and inventory-based production approach are again the high and low ends of those ranges. The State of the Carbon Cycle Report's (SOCCR) (King et al., 2007b) synthesis and assessment of the North American carbon cycle estimate of the North American terrestrial sink circa 2003 based on inventories was $-500 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ with uncertainty of $\pm 50\%$ ¹ (Pacala et al., 2007). Our

¹The range relative to the estimate of $-500 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ which the authors were highly (95%) confident included the actual value. This is not a coefficient of variation comparable to the standard deviation used in this paper as a measure of uncertainty (i.e., variability) surrounding a mean estimate. It is also not the 95% confidence interval although it is more comparable to that measure of uncertainty than the standard deviation used here.

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inventory-based estimates are lower than that of the SOCCR because while our estimates include the contribution of tundra they are based on forest and cropland inventories and exclude additional but highly uncertain sinks such as woody encroachment into previously non-woody ecosystems, wetland sinks, and sequestration in rivers and reservoirs included in the SOCCR estimate. The SOCCR found woody encroachment to be a relatively large sink of $-120 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$, second only to the forest sink, but with uncertainty of $> 100\%$. We feel justified in leaving these additional uncertain sinks out of inventory-based estimates until the uncertainty is reduced by further study. These additional sinks contribute, however, to the estimates from the AIMs and TBMs and may be partially responsible for their larger sink estimates relative to inventory-based estimates. A post-SOCCR assessment for circa 2000–2005 synthesizing atmospheric inversion, TBM and inventory-based approaches estimated a North American land sink of $-634 \pm 165^2 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ (King et al., 2012). Our “best” estimate for 2000–2009 based on the average across methods is -472 ± 281 (mean $\pm s$) (Table 1). Our “best” estimate based on the median of the estimates from different methods is $-360 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ with 68% percent of the estimates (equivalent to the proportion represented by ± 1 standard deviation) in the range -638 to $-316 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$. Synthesizing across these syntheses, we conclude the North American land sink for the first decade of the 21st century was most likely in the range of -300 to $-600 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ but with a relative uncertainty of ± 65 – 78% to be highly (95%) confident that the actual value lies within even that large range.

The North American land sink is only a fraction of the fossil fuel emissions from the region for that same period (Table 4). The source : sink ratio for the 1990–1999 decadal average ranges across methods from nearly 20 : 1 (the estimate from inventories using the production approach) to as low as 1.8 : 1 (the atmospheric inversion estimate). For the 2000–2009 decade that range is from nearly 7 : 1 to approximately 2 : 1, with the inventory-based production approach and atmospheric inversion approach again generating that range. For the entire 1990–2009 period the range is from 6 : 1 to

²Multi-method mean ± 1.96 standard error of the mean.

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nearly 2 : 1. Based on “best” estimates of the land sink for that entire period, the ratio is in the range of approximately 4 : 1 to 3 : 1. In the SOCCR the North American source : sink ratio circa 2003 was estimated at approximately 3 : 1 (King et al., 2007a). King et al. (2012) also estimated a source : sink ration of approximately 3 : 1 for the period 2000–2005. The larger potential value of 4 : 1 reported here is attributable to a smaller estimate of the sink based on the median value of the multiple methods (Table 1). Considering both the fossil-fuel emissions source and the land sink, North America was a net contributor to the growth of CO₂ in the atmosphere in the late 20th century and early 21st century, with emissions exceeding the land sink by at least a factor of three.

Both methods (AIMs and TBMs) for which we could calculate the time-average standard deviation as a measure of interannual variability show greater variability in the 2000–2009 decade than in the previous decade. However, as noted in the Results above, the relatively short record and the averaging by decade make us hesitant to draw any conclusions about changes in interannual variability. A time series analysis of variability over a longer time period is likely needed to determine whether the North American land sink has been increasing or decreasing. We can say, however, that the AIMs show larger variability than the TBMs (Table 2). Whether this is due to the inversions “seeing” variable net land–atmosphere exchanges not well represented in the TBMs or to year-to-year variation in atmospheric transport is unclear.

Different methods for estimating the net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂ of North America continue to generate different estimates of that flux (Hayes et al., 2012; Huntzinger et al., 2012; King et al., 2012) as in this study. Although the different methods all attempt to estimate the same net land–atmosphere flux, the methods account for different components of that exchange. The atmospheric inversions are influenced by all land–atmosphere exchanges. The TBMs only account for net exchange from those ecosystems and processes that they actually simulate, and the inventory-based estimates are limited to the ecosystems that are actually included in the inventories (e.g., forests, as defined by those responsible for the inventory, but not grasslands,

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croplands, wetlands and other non-forest categories). These differences in fluxes captured by the different methods likely contribute to the different estimates. However, the within-method uncertainties also contribute to the differences (Enting et al., 2012). Each method involves numerous assumptions and myriad sources of uncertainty; transport uncertainty in the atmospheric inversions, parameter and process uncertainty in the TBMs, and uncertainty in estimating carbon stock from observations of tree height and diameter in forest inventories are just a few examples. Different uncertainties and more or less uncertainty among the different methods potentially influence the differences in estimates of the net land–atmosphere exchange.

Atmospheric inversions estimate the total land–atmosphere CO₂ exchange from a given region, while inventory-based approaches estimate only those exchanges from ecosystem types represented in the inventories (most commonly forest and cropland). As such, estimates from AIMS may capture fluxes missed by inventory-based estimates, while inventory-based estimates can attribute emissions to specific ecosystems thereby assisting in the management of C sources and sinks. Likewise, the estimates from TBMs only include those ecosystem types and fluxes simulated by the models but can attribute those fluxes to particular processes that might be managed.

There is some indication of convergence in the estimates from the different methods, suggesting a North American land sink in the first decade of the 21st century in the range of –300 to –600 Tg C yr^{–1}. With additional synthesis and assessment within continents, the North American Carbon Program's Regional and Continental Interim Synthesis activities (Huntzinger et al., 2012; Schuh et al., 2013), for example, and among regions, RECCAP (Canadell et al., 2011), for example, there may be further convergence and improved understanding of any remaining differences. Either or both will improve not only scientific understanding of the carbon cycle but the input into considerations of national and international carbon policy as well.

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Table 1. Mean ± 1 standard deviation (s) of annual net land–atmosphere exchange of $\text{CO}_2\text{-C}$ (Tg C yr^{-1}) for North America by decade and the 1990–2009 period.

Method	1990–1999	2000–2009	1990–2009
Atmospheric inversion ^a	-929 ± 477	-890 ± 400	-890 ± 409
Inventory: atmospheric flow approach ^b	–159	–348	–356
Terrestrial biosphere modeling ^c	-370 ± 138	-359 ± 111	-364 ± 120
Inventory: production approach ^b	–83	–270	–280
“Best” estimates			
Mean $\pm s$	-385 ± 382	-467 ± 285	-472 ± 281
Median (interquartile range)	$-264 (-510 \text{ to } -140)$	$-354 (-492 \text{ to } -328)$	$-360 (-496 \text{ to } -337)$
Mode	$> -500 < 0$	$> -400 < 0$	$> -400 < 0$

^aThe multi-model mean and standard deviation of the time-period means of the RECCAP selected TransCom3 inversions of Peylin et al. (2013).

^b See Methods. Note that there is single inventory estimate and thus no “multi-model” mean or standard deviation.

^cThe multi-model mean and standard deviation of the time-period means of ten RECCAP-Trendy models’ time-averaged annual NBP (see Methods)

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Table 2. Interannual variability of annual net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂-C (Tg C yr⁻¹) for North America by decade and for the 1990–2009 period. The population standard deviation (σ) of annual exchange is used as an index of interannual variability.

Method	1990–1999	2000–2009	1990–2009
Atmospheric inversion ^a	316 ± 156	368 ± 115	364 ± 129
Terrestrial biosphere modeling ^b	218 ± 73	250 ± 52	239 ± 58
“Best” estimates			
Mean ± s	267 ± 69	309 ± 83	302 ± 88
Median (interquartile range) ^c	267 (242 to 292)	309 (280 to 338)	302 (270 to 333)

^a The multi-model mean (± 1 s) of individual within-model standard deviations from the time-averaged (see Table 1) atmospheric inversion estimates of net land–atmosphere exchange (see Methods) for each time period for the RECCAP selected TransCom3 IAV models (Peylin et al., 2013).

^b The multi-model mean (± 1 s) of individual within-model standard deviations from the time-averaged annual NBP (Table 1 and Methods) for each time period for ten RECCAP-Trendy models.

^c With only two estimates there is no asymmetry in the distribution as evidenced by the equivalence of mean and median; likewise there is no mode.

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Table 3. Mean, standard deviation, uncertainty, and relative percentage of emissions for various political units and years. The standard deviation of the time-averaged mean is indicated by *s*. Uncertainty is our best assessment of how well we know the mean, integrating the variability of the data with knowledge of the quality of the data. North America's percentage of global total does not equal the sum of its components due to rounding. Flux data from Boden et al. (2013); uncertainty estimate from Andres (unpublished data).

	years	mean (TgC)	<i>s</i> (TgC)	uncertainty (TgC)	Emissions % of N. America	emissions % of global total
Canada	1990–1999	129.34	6.42	2.59	8	2
	2000–2009	147.75	4.51	2.95		
	1990–2009	138.54	10.75	2.77		
Mexico	1990–1999	93.54	5.75	9.45	6	2
	2000–2009	115.47	7.92	11.66		
	1990–2009	104.50	12.96	10.55		
United States	1990–1999	1404.90	69.42	28.10	86	22
	2000–2009	1548.94	38.89	30.98		
	1990–2009	1476.92	91.39	29.54		
N. America	1990–1999	1627.78	80.11	34.95	100	25
	2000–2009	1812.16	43.44	39.41		
	1990–2009	1719.97	112.48	37.18		
Global	1990–1999	6169.80	162.90	203.72	–	100
	2000–2009	7471.66	653.98	271.50		
	1990–2009	6820.73	806.73	237.61		

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Table 4. Mean annual net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂-C for North America by decade as a percentage of North American fossil fuel emissions (from Table 3). Note that these are independent proportions and do not add to 100 %.

Method	1990–1999	2000–2009	1990–2009
Atmospheric inversion	57 %	49 %	52 %
Inventory: atmospheric flow approach	10 %	19 %	21 %
Terrestrial biosphere modeling	23 %	20 %	21 %
Inventory: production approach	5 %	15 %	16 %
“Best” estimates			
Mean	24 %	26 %	27 %
Median	16 %	20 %	21 %
Mode	< 31 %	< 28 %	29 %

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Table 5. Estimates of mean annual net land–atmosphere exchange of CO₂-C for North America by decade and for 1990–2009 as a proportion of the global mean annual net land–atmosphere exchange for those same periods.

Method	1990–1999	2000–2009	1990–2009
Atmospheric inversion	38 %	38 %	37 %
Inventory: atmospheric flow approach	6 %	15 %	15 %
Terrestrial biosphere modeling	15 %	15 %	15 %
Inventory: production approach	3 %	12 %	12 %
“Best” estimates			
Mean	16 %	20 %	20 %
Median	11 %	15 %	15 %
Mode	< 20 %	< 22 %	< 21 %

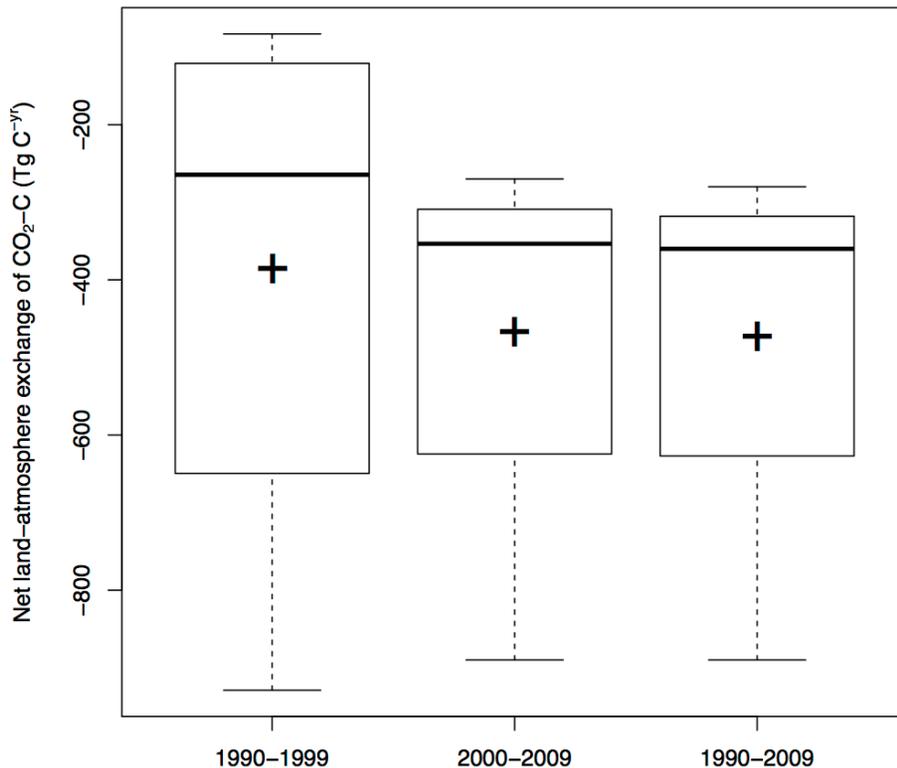


Figure 1. Box-and-whisker diagrams of the estimates from the different methods. The bold horizontal line indicates the median, the + the mean. The upper and lower bounds of the box are the “hinges” of the Tukey box-and-whisker algorithm of R’s boxplot and approximate the interquartile range. The whiskers indicate the minimum and maximum values.

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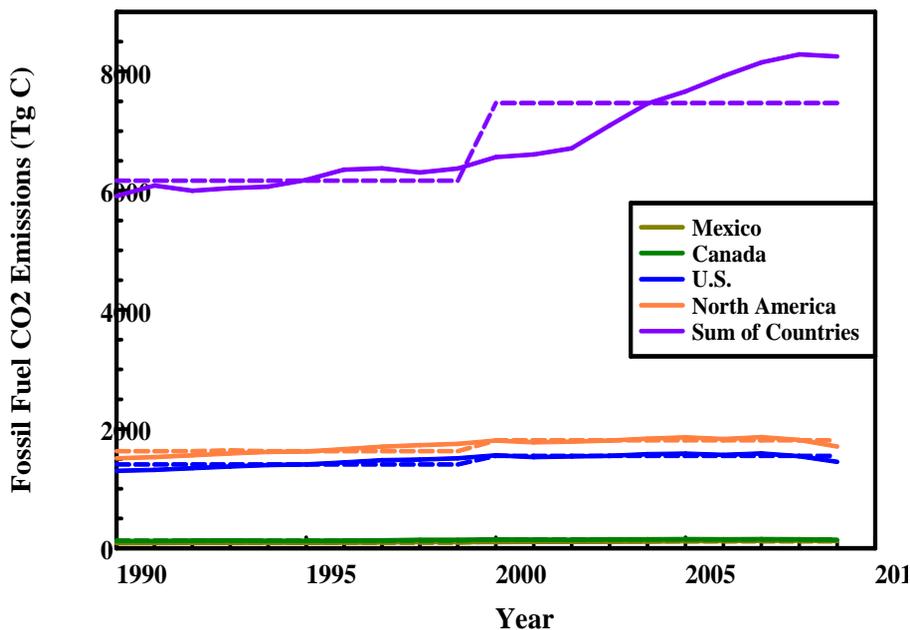


Figure 2. Fossil-fuel-CO₂ emissions for various political units. The sum of countries is used to represent total global emissions in this plot. This allows comparison of emissions on an equal basis as all emissions are based on apparent consumption data and not production data (see Andres et al. (2012) for a fuller discussion of the differences). The global values used here are less than those in the CDIAC archive (http://cdiac.esd.ornl.gov/trends/emis/tre_glob_2010.html) mainly due to the exclusion of bunker fuels. Data from Boden et al. (2013).