

1 **North America's net terrestrial carbon exchange with the**  
2 **atmosphere 1990-2009**

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 Scientific understanding of the global carbon cycle is required for developing national and  
26 international policy to mitigate fossil-fuel CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by managing terrestrial carbon uptake.

1 Toward that understanding and as a contribution to the REgional Carbon Cycle Assessment and  
2 Processes (RECCAP) project, this paper provides a synthesis of net land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub>  
3 exchange for North America ([Canada, United States, and Mexico](#)) over the period (1990-2009).  
4 Only CO<sub>2</sub> is considered, not methane or other greenhouse gases. This synthesis is based on  
5 results from three different methods: atmospheric inversion, inventory-based methods and  
6 terrestrial biosphere modeling. All methods indicate that the North America land surface was a  
7 sink for atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, with a net transfer from atmosphere to land. Estimates ranged from -  
8 890 to -280 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, where the the mean of atmospheric inversion estimates forms the lower  
9 bound of that range (a larger land-sink) and the inventory-based estimate using the production  
10 approach the upper (a smaller land sink). This relatively large range is due in part to differences  
11 in how the approaches represent trade, fire and other disturbances and which ecosystems they  
12 include. Integrating across estimates, -“best” estimates (i.e., measures of central tendency) are -  
13 472 ± 281 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> based on the mean and standard deviation of the distribution and -360 Tg C  
14 yr<sup>-1</sup> (with an interquartile range of -496 to -337) based on the median. Considering both the fossil-  
15 fuel emissions source and the land sink, our analysis shows that North America was, however, a  
16 net contributor to the growth of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere in the late 20<sup>th</sup> and early 21<sup>st</sup> century.  
17 With North America’s mean annual fossil fuel CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for the period 1990-2009 equal to  
18 1720 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> and assuming the estimate of -472 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> as an approximation of the true  
19 terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> sink, the continent’s source:sink ratio for this time period was 1720:472 or nearly  
20 4:1. The continent’s CO<sub>2</sub> source to sink ratio for this time period was likely in the range of 4:1 to  
21 3:1.

22

23 **1 Introduction**

24 Only about 45% of the carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) released to the atmosphere by global human  
25 activities since 1959 (including the combustion of fossil fuels, cement manufacturing and  
26 deforestation and other changes in land use) has been retained by the atmosphere (calculated from  
27 data in Le Quéré et al., 2013). The remainder has been absorbed by the ocean and terrestrial  
28 ecosystems. Given observations of the increase in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, estimates of anthropogenic  
29 emissions, and models of oceanic CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, it is possible to estimate CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by the  
30 terrestrial biosphere (i.e., the land sink) as the residual in the global carbon budget (Le Quéré et

1 al., 2013). Le Quéré et al. (2013) thus estimated the mean *global* land sink for 2002–2011 at  $2.6 \pm$   
2  $0.8 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ . Within the uncertainty of the observations, emissions estimates and ocean  
3 modeling, this residual calculation is a robust estimate of the *global* land sink for CO<sub>2</sub>. However,  
4 both scientific understanding and policy considerations require more detail than is afforded by a  
5 global estimate since the magnitude, spatial pattern and temporal dynamics of the land sink vary  
6 considerably at continental and regional scales. Considerations of national and international  
7 policy to mitigate climate change by managing net terrestrial carbon uptake must account for this  
8 spatial and temporal variability. To do so requires more spatially-refined estimates along with an  
9 improved understanding of the major controlling factors and underlying ecosystem processes.

10

11 The REgional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes (RECCAP) project is an effort at regional  
12 refinement of terrestrial (and ocean) carbon fluxes based on a synthesis of multiple constraints  
13 (Canadell et al., 2011). An international activity organized under the auspices of the Global  
14 Carbon Project (Canadell et al., 2003; <http://www.globalcarbonproject.org>), the objective of  
15 RECCAP is “...to establish the mean carbon balance and change over the period 1990–2009 for  
16 all subcontinents and ocean basins” (Canadell et al., 2011, p. 81). RECCAP aims to achieve this  
17 objective through a series of regional syntheses designed to “...establish carbon budgets in each  
18 region by comparing and reconciling multiple bottom-up estimates, which include observations  
19 and model outputs, with the results of regional top-down atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>)  
20 inversions.” Beyond the more spatially (regionally) refined estimates of carbon flux and  
21 processes, “[t]he consistency check between the sum of regional fluxes and the global budget will  
22 be a unique measure of the level of confidence there is in scaling carbon budgets up and down”.

23

24 The objective of this study is a synthesis of net land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange for North  
25 America combining different approaches (i.e., atmospheric inversion, inventory-based methods  
26 and terrestrial biosphere modeling) over the period 1990–2009. The North American land area  
27 ( $21.748 \text{ } 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ ; Canada =  $9.985 \text{ } 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ , U.S. (including Alaska, excluding Hawaii) =  $9.798$   
28  $10^6 \text{ km}^2$ ; Mexico =  $1.964 \text{ } 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ ) is approximately 16% of the global land area (excluding  
29 Greenland and Antarctica). North America's net land-atmosphere exchange is thus a potentially  
30 important fraction of the global land sink for atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. In 2013, fossil-fuel and cement

1 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from North America (Canada, United States and Mexico combined) were second  
2 only to those from China (Le Quéré et al., 2014). Quantifying North America's net land-  
3 atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange, potentially offsetting at least a portion of North America's CO<sub>2</sub>  
4 emissions, is an important element of understanding and quantifying North America's  
5 contribution to the accelerating increase in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Le Quéré et al.,  
6 2014). Our approach was guided by a) Canadell et al. (2011); b) RECCAP syntheses for other  
7 regions (Dolman et al., 2012; Gloor et al., 2012; Haverd et al., 2013; Luyssaert et al., 2012; Patra  
8 et al., 2013; Piao et al., 2012; Valentini et al., 2014); c) guidelines found at the RECCAP website  
9 (<http://www.globalcarbonproject.org/reccap/>); and d) personal communications with J.G.  
10 Canadell as Coordinator of the RECCAP Science Steering Committee. This study focuses on  
11 estimates of land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange over Canada, the United States and Mexico.  
12 Although the inventory approaches included in this study are based on total carbon changes, we  
13 do not report flux estimates of other carbon gases such as methane and carbon monoxide or N<sub>2</sub>O  
14 and other greenhouse gases. This study is a synthesis of the net contribution of the North  
15 American land surface to atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and is neither a carbon nor greenhouse  
16 gas budget for the region.

17

## 18 **2 Methods**

19 We estimated the annual net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C (Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) for North America  
20 using results from three different approaches to estimating carbon budgets over large areas:  
21 atmospheric inversion modeling, empirical modeling using inventory data, and terrestrial  
22 biosphere modeling. For each method, we provide estimates for the 1990-1999 and 2000-2009  
23 decades and the entire 20-yr 1990-2009 period. We follow the convention that negative values of  
24 the estimated net land-atmosphere exchange represent net uptake of CO<sub>2</sub>-C by the land surface  
25 (predominately in vegetation and soils) or a sink for atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Positive values thus  
26 represent a net release from the land to the atmosphere or a source of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Lateral  
27 flows of carbon as they ultimately influence vertical exchange with the atmosphere, including the  
28 trade of grain, wood and fiber, are an important consideration in interpreting and comparing  
29 results from each of the approaches. The respective treatments of lateral fluxes in each of the  
30 approaches are discussed in the corresponding sections below. More generally, the different  
31 approaches include and exclude different contributions to the net land-atmosphere exchange

1 [\(Figure 1\)](#). Those differences are likewise important in interpreting and comparing results and  
2 are described in the respective sections. Here we focus on reporting results aggregated for North  
3 America; country-level breakdowns of the three approaches can be found in Hayes et al. (2012)  
4 for the 2000-2006 time period.

5

## 6 **2.1 Atmospheric Inversion Models (AIMs)**

7 The methods of atmospheric inversion modeling have been described previously in detail by  
8 Enting (2002), Gurney et al. (2008; 2003; 2002), Baker et al. (2006), Peters et al. (2007), Butler  
9 et al. (2010), Ciais et al. (2011) and others. As summarized by Hayes et al. (2012), AIMs  
10 combine data from an observation network of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations with models of  
11 surface CO<sub>2</sub> flux and atmospheric transport to infer from an inversion process the net land-  
12 atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C. Because they provide an integrated estimate of all CO<sub>2</sub> sources  
13 and sinks (over a given land area and time period) from the atmospheric perspective, inversions  
14 are sometimes referred to as a top-down approach (Canadell et al., 2011; Schulze et al., 2009). [In](#)  
15 [estimating net land-atmosphere exchange, the influence of fossil-fuel emissions are assumed to](#)  
16 [be well-known and their influence is removed from the problem prior to solving for non-fossil](#)  
17 [fluxes](#) (Peylin et al., 2013; Schulze et al., 2010). We use as our primary source the 11-model  
18 ensemble of RECCAP selected TransCom3 inversions (Peylin et al., 2013). The individual  
19 models are identified in Table 1 (p. 6703) of Peylin et al. (2013). North America here is defined  
20 by the combination of TransCom3 [\(Baker et al., 2006\)](#) regions “Boreal North America” and  
21 “Temperate North America” [\(Figure 2\)](#) [\(Baker et al., 2006\)](#).

22

## 23 **2.2 Terrestrial Biosphere Models (TBMs)**

24 Terrestrial biosphere modeling employs a model of terrestrial ecosystem carbon dynamics  
25 deployed on a geospatial grid to simulate the exchange of carbon with the atmosphere, primarily  
26 as CO<sub>2</sub> (Hayes et al., 2012; Huntzinger et al., 2012; Schwalm et al., 2010). The models differ in  
27 which ecosystem processes they include and how they conceptually and mathematically represent  
28 them. Some, for example, include carbon release to the atmosphere from fire and other  
29 disturbances; others do not (see Hayes et al., 2012; Huntzinger et al., 2012). In order to estimate  
30 the net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub> with TBMs, the models must minimally include the  
31 processes of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake from the atmosphere in gross primary production (GPP) and the release

1 of CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere in ecosystem respiration (Re), whether separated into autotrophic (Ra)  
2 and heterotrophic (Rh) respiration (Re = Ra + Rh) or not. Net primary production (NPP) is the  
3 balance between GPP and Ra (NPP = GPP – Ra). Net ecosystem production (NEP) is the balance  
4 between GPP and Re (NEP = GPP – Re or, equivalently, NEP = NPP - Rh). Net Biome  
5 Production (NBP) is defined by Schulze et al. (2000) as NEP minus nonrespiratory losses such as  
6 fire and harvest. It is defined by Chapin et al. (2006) as Net Ecosystem Carbon Balance (NECB)  
7 estimated at large temporal and spatial scales (where NECB is the net rate of organic and  
8 inorganic C gain by or loss from an ecosystem), and by RECCAP as NEP plus and/or minus all  
9 vertical and horizontal fluxes in and out of an ecosystem. NEP is a subcomponent of net  
10 ecosystem exchange (NEE) which is “...the net vertical exchange of CO<sub>2</sub> between a specified  
11 horizontal surface and the atmosphere above it over a given period of time” (Hayes and Turner,  
12 2012). NEE is equivalent to the net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>. However, NEP is often  
13 the only net exchange with the atmosphere simulated by TBMs (Hayes et al., 2012; Huntzinger et  
14 al., 2012). Thus NEP for these models is, with sign reversed, a minimal approximation of NEE  
15 or the net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>. When the processes of CO<sub>2</sub> release from fire, land  
16 cover change, or other disturbances are included in the model (as in NBP), the approximation of  
17 net land-atmosphere exchange is even closer. It should be noted, however, that while some  
18 TBMs include CO<sub>2</sub>-C loss from fire, very few, if any, include the trade and lateral transport of  
19 harvested wood or agricultural products and their subsequent release of CO<sub>2</sub>, or the influence of  
20 insect outbreaks. These models, as a class, also generally ignore CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from livestock  
21 and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from agriculture. But these absences do not impact our estimate of net land-  
22 atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange from these models

23  
24 Our source for results from TBMs was Version 2 of the 10-model ensemble of the  
25 GCP/RECCAP-Trendy activity (<http://www-lscedods.cea.fr/invsat/RECCAP/V2/>). The models in  
26 this ensemble are identified as Dynamic Global Vegetation Models (DGVMs), a subset of the  
27 larger class of TBMs (Sitch et al., 2008). We used the net biosphere production (NBP) from these  
28 models, which includes GPP, Re, and fire emissions, as the near equivalent of NEE  
29 approximating the net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C. We extracted the results for North  
30 America from these global models, with North America defined by the “Boreal North America”  
31 and “Temperate North America” regions of Transcom3 ([Figure 2](#)) (Baker et al., 2006).

1

## 2 2.3 Inventory-based

3 Inventory-based methods for estimating net land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange use a combination of  
4 field survey, disturbance and land-use and management data, collectively referred to as ‘activity  
5 data’, to estimate net carbon emissions over time (IPCC, 2006). In general, repeated  
6 measurements and activity data are used to estimate *changes* in carbon stocks over time, and in  
7 this study CO<sub>2</sub> exchange with the atmosphere is inferred from these changes by decomposing  
8 them into additions and losses of carbon among the major pools (Hayes et al., 2012; Pan et al.,  
9 2011). The inventory-based flux estimates are based on a calculation that includes both the  
10 change in ecosystem carbon stocks (from live biomass and dead organic matter pools) as well as  
11 the change in stocks from product pools that considers the fate of carbon harvested from the  
12 ecosystem as a result of anthropogenic land management and use. Whether, how, where and  
13 when carbon stock changes in product pools, including those resulting from trade, are considered  
14 as sources or sinks depends on the accounting approach. The different “approaches” represent  
15 variations on the conceptual framework for reporting land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and  
16 removals in greenhouse gases inventories. Within each approach, there can be different  
17 “methods” based on the underlying data sets and calculations used to estimate these emissions  
18 and removals. The inventory-based accounting approaches are conceptually similar and follow  
19 common guidelines, though the details of the methods differ by country (i.e., Canada, the U.S.  
20 and Mexico) and sector (e.g., forest lands and crop lands).

21

22 For comparison with estimates from the TBMs and AIMs, here we report net land-atmosphere  
23 exchange of CO<sub>2</sub> from inventories using two different accounting approaches: the “production  
24 approach” and the “atmospheric flow approach”, which differ in where and when the emissions  
25 of carbon from harvested products are assigned (IPCC, 2006). The production approach assigns  
26 product emissions to the producing country (i.e. the country in which where the carbon is was  
27 harvested from), based on stock change in the domestic harvest product pool. The atmospheric  
28 flow approach assigns product emissions to the consuming country, based on stock change in the  
29 domestic consumption product pool after adjusting for international imports and exports of  
30 harvested products. In both cases, the stock change estimates for harvested wood product (HWP)  
31 pools include “inherited emissions” from products harvested prior to our time period of analysis.

1 In crop lands, the change in harvested crop product (HCP) pools is zero on an annual basis, so  
2 only the adjustment for international imports and exports influences the sink / source estimates  
3 (and only when using the atmospheric flow approach). The exception is in our estimates for  
4 Mexico, where data on neither carbon stock changes nor the fate of harvested products are  
5 currently available [to researchers](#) (Vargas et al., 2012). [Here](#) [For Mexico](#) we [therefore](#) use the  
6 “default approach” (IPCC, 2006), which assumes no change in the product pools and so only  
7 carbon stock changes resulting from forest growth, deforestation and reforestation / afforestation  
8 are included. As such, we calculate only one inventory-based estimate for Mexico, but we add  
9 this same estimate to the continental totals in both the production and atmospheric flow  
10 approaches.

11

12 The two approaches are complimentary in terms of assessing the role of a particular country /  
13 sector in the global carbon budget both spatially and temporally. The distinction between the two  
14 is important in terms of comparison with other scaling approaches (Hayes et al., 2012). In  
15 general, most TBMs essentially employ the production approach where, if they consider  
16 harvested products at all, product carbon is typically assumed to be emitted from within the same  
17 grid cell as it was harvested. Thus, stock change estimates using the production approach ~~is~~are  
18 ~~the~~ more appropriate [indicator](#) for comparing inventory-based estimates with those of TBMs. On  
19 the other hand, we calculate an inventory-based flux estimate using the atmospheric flow  
20 approach as the more appropriate comparison with the AIMs. As they are based on atmospheric  
21 CO<sub>2</sub> observations combined with a transport model, AIMs should – in theory – detect a sink  
22 where the carbon was originally taken up in vegetation and a source where and when the product  
23 carbon is ultimately returned to the atmosphere through consumption or decay. [These fluxes](#)  
24 [may, however, be below detection levels with current AIM technologies.](#)

25

26 We used activity data based on national [GHG](#) inventories from Canada and the U.S. to estimate  
27 the contribution of forestlands to the net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C for North America.  
28 Per IPCC [Good Practice Guidelines](#) (IPCC, 2006), only “managed” forest lands are  
29 considered in the inventories, which excludes a large area of forest primarily in the boreal zone  
30 (i.e., the northern extent of Canada’s forested area as well as interior Alaska). The Canada forest  
31 inventory uses the “[stock plus flow gain-loss](#)” methodology, which starts with data from a

1 compiled set of inventories of forest carbon pools, which are then modeled forward based on the  
2 components of change, including growth, soil C respiration, natural disturbance and forest harvest  
3 (Kurz et al., 2009; Stinson et al., 2011). For the U.S., forest carbon stock and stock change  
4 estimates are based on the “stock change” methodology using repeated measurements in a design-  
5 based forest inventory (Bechtold and Patterson, 2005; Smith et al., 2013; USDA Forest Service,  
6 2013). Aboveground standing tree (both live and dead) carbon pools are directly estimated from  
7 allometric equations (Woodall et al., 2011) of individual trees measured across the national plot  
8 network, while all other forest pools are estimated from models applied at the plot-level based on  
9 specific forest attributes (Smith et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2006; USEPA, 2012).

10  
11 Both the production and atmospheric flow approaches were used to estimate contributions of  
12 HWP to Canadian and U.S. carbon fluxes. In the atmospheric flow estimate for the U.S., the  
13 HWP stock change calculations from the production approach (Skog, 2008) were adjusted for  
14 both imports and exports from international trade (USEPA, 2012). For Canada, however, the  
15 atmospheric flow estimate includes only exports; HWP imports to Canada are known to be very  
16 small relative to exports and are not tracked. As noted above, data on changes in HWP are not  
17 available for Mexico, and therefore the contribution of HWP is not part of the estimate of carbon  
18 fluxes for Mexico. Stock change in HWP is calculated in the Canada forest inventory method, but  
19 the atmospheric flow estimate here includes only exports since imports are not tracked (but are  
20 known to be very small relative to exports). For the U.S., carbon stock change and emissions  
21 from domestic HWP pools are based on the production approach (Skog, 2008), whereas the  
22 estimates from the atmospheric flow approach used here considers the domestic consumption  
23 pools adjusted for international imports and exports (USEPA, 2012).

24  
25 The estimates of net land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange from cropland in Canada and the U.S. are  
26 based on carbon stock change in agricultural soils and by imports and exports of agricultural  
27 commodities. Annual carbon flux from the herbaceous biomass in harvested crops is considered  
28 to be net zero because of the fast turnover time (decay and consumption) of this pool, with the  
29 exception of the transfer of residue carbon to soils, and the amount of carbon removed in HCP  
30 and exported from the region. In the case of agricultural soils, annual soil carbon stock change is  
31 estimated directly from activity data since soil carbon stocks are not commonly reported (West et

1 al., 2011). Data on carbon stock change in crop land soils from Canada (Environment Canada,  
2 2013) and the U.S. (West et al., 2011) were used, and estimates of carbon in HCP imports and  
3 exports were available from each country (*Canadian Socio-Economic Information Management*  
4 *System*, Statistics Canada and *Foreign Agricultural Trade of the United States*, USDA Economic  
5 Research Service).

6

7 The contribution of lands in Mexico to the continental estimates of net land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub>  
8 exchange is derived from that country's Fifth National Communication to the United Nations  
9 Framework Convention on Climate Change (SEMARNAT / INECC, 2012). The data represent  
10 the carbon accounting for the Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry (LULUCF) sector, and  
11 includes estimates of carbon emissions and removals resulting from changes in biomass, the  
12 conversion of forests and grasslands to agricultural use, the abandonment of farmland, and carbon  
13 stock changes in mineral soils. These estimates use the default accounting approach based on a  
14 stock plus flow gain-loss method where mean carbon stock density by land cover type is  
15 distributed according the areal extent of each type at an initial point in time, and stock change is  
16 estimated according to the area of land-use change over a subsequent period of time (de Jong et  
17 al., 2010).

18

19 To these forest land and crop land estimates we also added the estimates of net land-atmosphere  
20 CO<sub>2</sub> exchange for the "tundra" region of North America (i.e., Alaska and northern Canada), as  
21 reported in the study by McGuire et al. (2012). That study also included modeled estimates, but  
22 here we used a synthesis of the observations as analogous to an "inventory" of that region's  
23 carbon fluxes. While we add estimates for this large region from an existing study, our  
24 continental total estimates do not otherwise include land-atmosphere exchanges from other  
25 ecosystem types for which inventories were not available (e.g., arid lands, grasslands, temperate  
26 wetlands, shrublands or areas of woody expansion into tundra and grassland areas previously not  
27 forested and not meeting the definition of managed forest). Arid lands generally have low carbon  
28 stocks, but in wet years or decades could be an additional sink (Poulter et al., 2014) or source  
29 (Thomey et al., 2011) missed by the general exclusion of these lands from inventories. Similarly,  
30 a potential contribution to the North American sink is missed by the absence from the national

1 inventories of woody encroachment into previously non-wooded lands (Hayes et al., 2012; King  
2 et al., 2012).  
3

4 **2.4 Estimating decadal mean net land-atmosphere exchange**

5 For each of the multi-model approaches (AIMs and TBMs) we first estimated for each decade  
6 and the entire 1990-2009 period (n = 10 and 20, respectively) the mean and population standard  
7 deviation ( $\sigma$ ) of each model's time series of annual net exchange for North America. The  
8 standard deviation, describing the variability of annual values about the decadal or period mean,  
9 is an index of the model's interannual variability for the period. We then averaged the model-  
10 specific time averages and standard deviations to estimate the multi-model mean and population  
11 standard deviation for each ensemble (n = 10 for the AIM ensemble and n = 10 for the TBM  
12 ensemble) for each decade and the entire 1990-2009 period. For each of the multi-model  
13 approaches (AIMs and TBMs) we first estimated for the North American spatial domain the time-  
14 averaged mean and population standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) as an index of interannual variability of  
15 each model in the multi-model ensemble. We then averaged those model-specific results to  
16 estimate the multi-model mean and population standard deviation. The resulting multi-model  
17 means are the estimate of net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C for each method and time  
18 period. There are different opinions of how to best characterize “uncertainty” in CO<sub>2</sub> flux  
19 estimates, whether to use, for example, the standard deviation, standard error, 95% confidence  
20 intervals, inter-percentile/quartile ranges, or semi-quantitative characterizations such as that used  
21 by the IPCC in communicating confidence in scientific findings. For comparison with other  
22 RECCAP regional syntheses, we followed Luysaert et al. (2012) and Ciais et al. (2010) in using  
23 the population standard deviation of the multi-model means as a metric of the “uncertainty” (i.e.,  
24 variability) in the multi-model estimates.

25  
26 The two inventory-based estimates (the production approach and the atmospheric flow approach)  
27 are both derived from the three regional source data sets (the land carbon stock inventories of  
28 Canada, the United States, and Mexico). There is no multi-inventory ensemble from which to  
29 estimate across inventory means and standard deviation. The apparent interannual changes in  
30 stocks of the U.S. and Mexico confound inventory uncertainty with actual year-to-year variations  
31 in changes in stocks and are unlikely to be a reliable estimate of interannual variability in net

1 exchange with the atmosphere. The Canadian [GHG](#) inventory does use annual information on  
2 harvest, natural disturbances and land-use change (Stinson et al., 2011), and thus [some](#)  
3 interannual variability [resulting from activity data](#) is reflected in those estimates. They do  
4 not, however, include changes due to interannual variation [\(or long term trends\)](#) in  
5 [atmospheric chemistry and](#) climate. [Similarly, the inventories exclusion of arid lands and](#)  
6 [range lands means that these approaches also miss interannual variation associated with](#)  
7 [temporal patterns of precipitation in those regions](#) (Poulter et al., 2014). Accordingly, we  
8 estimate net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C from the inventory-based approaches using a  
9 single value, the time-averaged mean for each period, and do not report the time-averaged  
10 standard deviation either as an index of interannual variability or as a measure of uncertainty.

11

## 12 **2.5 Fossil-fuel emissions**

13 We also estimated the fossil-fuel source for North America to characterize the land sink relative  
14 to fossil-fuel emissions (King et al., 2007a) or the continent's source-to-sink ratio (King et al.,  
15 2012). Estimates were made following Andres et al. (2012) using data from (Boden et al., 2013).  
16 As with the inventories, we combined emissions data from Canada, the United States, and  
17 Mexico to estimate North American emissions.

18

## 19 **3 Results**

20 Table 1 compares the estimates of average annual net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C for  
21 North America across the different methods. Table 2 compares the interannual variability. Most  
22 notable in Table 1 is the substantially larger estimate for the continental land sink (negative net  
23 land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange) from the atmospheric inversions as compared to the estimates  
24 from the other methods. The difference is on the order of at least a factor of two or more. This  
25 pattern has been noted before, most recently in the syntheses of Hayes et al. (2012), Huntzinger et  
26 al. (2012) and King et al. (2012).

27

28 Because we consider the estimates from the three different methods (Table 1) to all be  
29 scientifically credible, the central tendency of the distribution of those estimates can be  
30 synthesized or integrating across the estimates provide some indicators of “best” estimates.

1 Unfortunately the small sample size (n=4) and the asymmetry or skew introduced by the  
2 atmospheric inversion estimate (Figure 34) makes the arithmetic mean and standard deviation  
3 across the methods an unreliable estimate of central tendency and spread in the estimates.  
4 However, because the mean is so commonly used to integrate across estimates, we report the  
5 across method mean  $\pm$  1 sample standard deviation (s) in Table 1. The median and interquartile  
6 range as measure of central tendency and spread of such a skewed distribution are perhaps a more  
7 appropriate “best” estimate (Table 1 and Figure 34). The small sample size makes calculation of  
8 the mode (i.e., the most frequent/likely value) difficult or a misleading estimate of central  
9 tendency. However, inspection and a simple histogram of the estimates suggests a modal estimate  
10 of  $<400$  Tg C yr $^{-1}$  as an alternative, if imprecise, across-method estimate for 1990-2009.

11  
12 Results in Table 2 are suggestive of some tendency for an increase in interannual variability in  
13 net land-atmosphere exchange in the 2000-2009 decade relative to the preceding 1990-1999  
14 decade. However, given the relative short 10 year spans and intradecadal variability, any apparent  
15 trend should be considered cautiously, and the standard deviation for the entire 20-yr period a  
16 sounder indicator of interannual variability in North America’s terrestrial sink. In either  
17 easeAcross approaches, the atmospheric inversions show somewhat greater interannual  
18 variability than the TBMs (Table 2). Racza et al. (2013) similarly showed that TBMs  
19 consistently underestimated the amplitude of interannual variability with respect to flux tower  
20 records across North America.

21  
22 Figure 42 displays the fossil-fuel-CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for the three countries, their sum, and the sum of  
23 all countries around the world (i.e., global emissions). Solid lines represent annual emissions and  
24 dashed lines represent the decadal mean of emissions. For most political units shown, the decadal  
25 means well represent the annual emissions at this scale. Only for global emissions, especially in  
26 the latter decade, is the decadal mean a poor representation of the annual emissions. Emissions  
27 from Mexico and Canada are too similar in magnitude to be easily discernible from each other in  
28 this figure.

29  
30 Table 3 displays the numerical details of Figure 42 as well as relative percentages of smaller  
31 political units to larger political units. In terms of mass emitted globally in calendar year 2010,

1 out of 216 countries, the U.S. is the second largest emitter, Canada is ranked #9, and Mexico is  
2 ranked #13. Prior to 2006, U.S. emissions ranked #1; thereafter China has had the largest  
3 emissions (Global Carbon Atlas, 2013; Le Quéré et al., 2014). In 2010, North America as a whole  
4 is ranked #2 behind China. In term For the period 1990-2009, uncertainty (in Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) was  
5 higher in Mexico (~10% of mean), lower for Canada (~2% of mean) and substantially lower in  
6 the U.S. (~0.02% of the mean) (Table 3). s-of mass emitted in calendar year 2010, the U.S. is the  
7 second largest emitter in the world (China at 2259.86 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> is ranked #1) out of 216 countries,  
8 Canada is ranked #9, Mexico is ranked #13, North America as a whole would still be ranked #2  
9 (behind China).

10  
11 Table 4 is as Table 1 but with the entries replaced by the estimates of the terrestrial sink as a  
12 percentage of North American fossil fuel emissions. These proportions range across methods and  
13 decades from nearly 60% to as low as 5%, with a “best” estimate of perhaps 20-30%. There is no  
14 clear decadal trend in the sink as a proportion of fossil-fuel emissions; some methods suggest an  
15 increase, others a decrease, and, with the exception of the inventory-based estimates, the changes  
16 are small. But again, as in Table 2, the relatively short record means any apparent change over  
17 time in the sink strength relative to fossil fuel emissions the relatively short record means any  
18 appearance of a trend, or lack thereof, should be considered cautiously and should not be  
19 considered significant, statistically or otherwise.

20  
21 Table 5 is as Table 1 but with the entries replaced by the estimates as a percentage of the global  
22 land sink estimated by difference to balance the global carbon cycle (Le Quéré et al., 2013). The  
23 average global net land-atmosphere exchanges are -2460, -2320 and -2390 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> for the  
24 periods 1990-1999, 2000-2009 and 1990-2009, respectively. While a crude comparison because  
25 the global terrestrial sink is not thought to be uniformly dispersed geographically, the numbers in  
26 Table 5 around 15% are in keeping with the approximately 16% of the global land surface (minus  
27 Greenland and Antarctica) represented by North America (minus Greenland). North America is  
28 approximately 21% of the Northern Hemisphere land surface. While the majority of the global  
29 land sink is likely in the Northern Hemisphere (Field et al., 2007), it is unlikely that the entire  
30 global sink is in the Northern Hemisphere. Nevertheless, the atmospheric inversion estimates of  
31 the North American sink at slightly less than 40% of the global sink suggest a North American

1 sink disproportional to North America's share of the Northern Hemisphere land surface.  
2 However, the across-method mean and mode estimates (Table 5) indicate a sink approximately  
3 proportional to North America's relative land area as part of the Northern Hemisphere.

4

## 5 **4 Discussion and Conclusions**

6 All estimates of North America's net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C synthesized in this  
7 study are negative values (Table 1), indicating a net exchange from atmosphere to land (i.e., net  
8 land uptake of CO<sub>2</sub>-C). We therefore conclude, along with most previous assessments, that the  
9 vegetation and soils of North America were a sink for atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> over the decades of 1990-  
10 2009. Our estimates of the net land sink for 1990-2009 range from as large as  $-890 \pm 409 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$   
11 (multi-model mean  $\pm \sigma$ ) to as small as  $-280 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ , with the estimates from atmospheric  
12 inversions and from the inventory-based production approach the large and small ends of that  
13 range, respectively. The ranges for the decades 1900-1999 and 2000-2009 are  $-929 \pm 477 \text{ Tg C}$   
14  $\text{yr}^{-1}$  to  $-83 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$  and  $-890 \pm 400 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$  to  $-270 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$ , respectively. The atmospheric  
15 inversion and inventory-based production approach are again the high and low ends of those  
16 ranges. The State of the Carbon Cycle Report's (SOCCR) (King et al., 2007b) synthesis and  
17 assessment of the North American carbon cycle estimate of the North American terrestrial sink  
18 circa 2003 based on inventories was  $-500 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$  with uncertainty of  $\pm 50\%$ <sup>1</sup> (Pacala et al.,  
19 2007). Our inventory-based estimates are lower than that of the SOCCR because while our  
20 estimates include the contribution of tundra they are based on forest and cropland inventories and  
21 exclude additional but highly uncertain sinks such as woody encroachment into previously non-  
22 woody ecosystems, wetland sinks, and sequestration in rivers and reservoirs included in the  
23 SOCCR estimate. The SOCCR found woody encroachment to be a relatively large sink of  $-120$   
24  $\text{Tg C yr}^{-1}$ , second only to the forest sink, but with uncertainty of  $>100\%$ . We feel justified in  
25 leaving these additional uncertain sinks out of inventory-based estimates until the uncertainty is  
26 reduced by further study. These additional sinks contribute, however, to the estimates from the  
27 AIMs and TBMs and may be partially responsible for their larger sink estimates relative to

---

<sup>1</sup> The 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.

1 inventory-based estimates. A post-SOCCR assessment for circa 2000-2005 synthesizing  
2 atmospheric inversion, TBM and inventory-based approaches estimated a North American land  
3 sink of  $-634 \pm 165^2$  Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (King et al., 2012). Our “best” estimate for 2000-2009 based on  
4 the average across methods is  $-472 \pm 281$  (mean  $\pm$  s) (Table 1). Our “best” estimate based on the  
5 median of the estimates from different methods is  $-360$  Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> with 68% percent of the  
6 estimates (equivalent to the proportion represented by  $\pm 1$  standard deviation) in the range -638 to  
7 -316 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>. Synthesizing across these syntheses, we conclude the North American land sink  
8 for the first decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century was most likely in the range of -300 to -600 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> but  
9 with a relative uncertainty of  $\pm 65\text{-}78\%$  to be highly (95%) confident that the actual value lies  
10 within even that large range.

11

12 We have made no attempt to resolve temporal trends in the estimates of net land-atmosphere  
13 exchange due to the relatively short time frame. However, Kurz et al. (2008) found that Canada's  
14 managed forests switched from being a GHG sink to a source in 2002 as a result of large insect  
15 outbreaks, and those forests have been a carbon source for all but two (2008-2009) of the  
16 subsequent years (through 2012) (Environment Canada, 2014; Stinson et al., 2011). If there had  
17 been no changes in either the United States or Mexico over that period, the North American sink  
18 might be expected to decline between the decades of 1990-1999 and 2000-2009. There is  
19 perhaps some suggestion of a shift in that direction in the AIM estimates and perhaps the TBM  
20 estimates (Table 1), but the uncertainties are very large and any conclusion, as noted above, is  
21 tentative at best. Moreover, the inventory-based estimates suggest an increase in the sink (Table  
22 1). Increases in natural disturbances (a declining sink) are off-set by simultaneous decreases in  
23 harvest rates (an increasing sink) and these two opposing trends in the activity data may make it  
24 difficult to identify a clear overall trend in the CO<sub>2</sub> balance using inventory-based methods.  
25 (Kasischke et al., 2013) Decadal changes in disturbance like those reported by Kasischke et al.  
26 (2013) likely influence the North American sink, but a clear definitive signal of that influence in  
27 the estimates given their uncertainties is elusive.

28

---

<sup>2</sup> Multi-method mean  $\pm 1.96$  standard error of the mean.

1 The North American land sink is only a fraction of the fossil fuel emissions from the region for  
2 that same period (Table 4). The source : sink ratio for the 1990–1999 decadal average ranges  
3 across methods from approximately 1628:83 (nearly 20 : 1, the estimate from inventories using  
4 the production approach) to as low as 1628:929 (nearly 2 : 1, the atmospheric inversion estimate).  
5 For the 2000–2009 decade that range is from 1812:270 (nearly 7 : 1) to 1812:890 (approximately  
6 2 : 1), with the inventory-based production approach and atmospheric inversion approach again  
7 generating that range. For the entire 1990–2009 period that range is from 1720:280  
8 (approximately 6 : 1) to 1720:890 (nearly 2 : 1). Based on “best” estimates of the land sink for  
9 that entire period, the ratio is in the range of 1720:360 (nearly 5 : 1) based on the median estimate  
10 and 1720:472 (nearly 4 : 1) based on the average estimate.~~The source:sink ratio for the 1990–1999~~  
11 ~~decadal average ranges across methods from nearly 20:1 (the estimate from inventories~~  
12 ~~using the production approach) to as low as 1.8:1 (the atmospheric inversion estimate).~~ For the  
13 ~~2000–2009 decade that range is from nearly 7:1 to approximately 2:1, with the inventory-based~~  
14 ~~production approach and atmospheric inversion approach again generating that range. For the~~  
15 ~~entire 1990–2009 period the range is from 6:1 to nearly 2:1. Based on “best” estimates of the land~~  
16 ~~sink for that entire period, the ratio is in the range of approximately 4:1 to 3:1.~~ In the SOCCR the  
17 North American source:sink ratio circa 2003 was estimated at approximately 3:1 (King et al.,  
18 2007a). King et al. (2012) also estimated a source:sink ration of approximately 3:1 for the period  
19 2000-2005. The larger potential value of 4:1 reported here is attributable to a smaller estimate of  
20 the sink based on the median value of the multiple methods (Table 1). Considering both the  
21 fossil-fuel emissions source and the land sink, North America was a net contributor to the growth  
22 of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century and early 21<sup>st</sup> century, with emissions exceeding  
23 the land sink by at least a factor of three.

24

25 Both methods (AIMs and TBMs) for which we could calculate the time-average standard  
26 deviation as a measure of interannual variability show greater variability in the 2000-2009 decade  
27 than in the previous decade. However, as noted in the Results above, the relatively short record  
28 and the averaging by decade make us hesitant to draw any conclusions about changes in  
29 interannual variability from decade to decade for any of the approaches. A time series analysis of  
30 variability over a longer time period is likely needed to determine whether the North American  
31 land sink has been increasing or decreasing, and any such trend may well vary with

1 approach draw any conclusions about changes in interannual variability. A time series analysis of  
2 variability over a longer time period is likely needed to determine whether the North American  
3 land sink has been increasing or decreasing. We can say, however, that the AIMs show larger  
4 variability than the TBMs (Table 2). Whether this is due to the inversions “seeing” variable net  
5 land-atmosphere exchanges not well represented in the TBMs or to or to some unidentified  
6 source of error in the AIMs year-to-year variation in atmospheric transport is unclear. Findings by  
7 Poulter et al. (2014) showing the influence of Southern Hemisphere arid grasslands in wet years  
8 on interannual variation in the global carbon sink suggest that it may very well be the former.  
9 The work of Raczka et al. (2013) showing that TBMs systematically underestimate NEE relative  
10 to North American flux towers also points to the conclusion that AIMs are capturing interannual  
11 variability in net-land atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange not well represented by TBMs.

12  
13 Different methods for estimating the net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub> of North America  
14 continue to generate different estimates of that flux (Hayes et al., 2012; Huntzinger et al., 2012;  
15 King et al., 2012) as in this study. Although the different methods all attempt to estimate the  
16 same net land-atmosphere flux, the methods account for different components of that exchange  
17 (Figure 1). The atmospheric inversions are influenced by all land-atmosphere exchanges. The  
18 TBMs only account for net exchange from those ecosystems and processes that they actually  
19 simulate, and the inventory-based estimates are limited to the ecosystems that are actually  
20 included in the inventories (e.g., managed forests, as defined by those responsible for the  
21 inventory, but not arid lands, grasslands, croplands, wetlands and other non-forest categories).  
22 These differences in fluxes captured by the different methods likely contribute to the different  
23 estimates. However, the within method uncertainties also contribute to the differences (Enting et  
24 al., 2012). Each method involves numerous assumptions and myriad sources of uncertainty;  
25 transport uncertainty in the atmospheric inversions, parameter and process uncertainty in the  
26 TBMs, and uncertainty in estimating carbon stock from observations of tree height and diameter  
27 in forest inventories are just a few examples. Different uncertainties and more or less uncertainty  
28 among the different methods potentially influence the differences in estimates of the net land-  
29 atmosphere exchange.

1 Disturbance, natural and human, plays an important role in determining North America's net  
2 land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange (Kasischke et al., 2013; King et al., 2012). Indeed, much if not  
3 most of the early 21st Century North American land sink can be attributed to the recovery of  
4 forests from earlier disturbance, primarily human clearing and harvesting in the United States  
5 (Goodale et al., 2002; Hayes et al., 2012; Huntzinger et al., 2012; King et al., 2012; Myneni et al.,  
6 2001; Pacala et al., 2007; Pan et al., 2011). On annual to decadal time scales, the contributions  
7 from disturbance are generally greater than those from enhanced GPP with rising atmospheric  
8 CO<sub>2</sub> or in response to variations in weather (Luyssaert et al., 2007). The variety of disturbance  
9 types, heterogeneity in the spatial and temporal characteristics of disturbance regimes and  
10 disturbance intensity, and the many ways disturbance can impact terrestrial ecosystem processes  
11 in North America (Kasischke et al., 2013) lead to complexity in quantifying the specific  
12 contribution of disturbance to net land-atmosphere exchange. The source-sink consequences of  
13 disturbance change over time (Amiro et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2011). For example, a forest fire  
14 releases CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere during combustion (a source), the reduction in canopy results in  
15 an imbalance between GPP and Re which can reduce the sink represented by a formerly  
16 aggrading forest or convert the landscape to a source while Rh exceeds NPP with lags between  
17 Re and Rh (Harmon et al., 2011). Over time, as the forest recovers, NPP exceeds Rh, and the  
18 regrowing forest is a sink for atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Kurz et al., 2013).

19

20 The three approaches for estimating net land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange differ in how they  
21 perceive or represent contributions from disturbance. Atmospheric inversion modeling captures  
22 the influence of disturbance contributions to patterns in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, but  
23 cannot generally attribute those changes to disturbances or disturbance types without additional  
24 effort involving carbon monoxide or other atmospheric gases, carbon isotopes, or structured  
25 attribution analyses (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2014; Randerson et al., 2005). Inventory-based  
26 estimates capture the impact of disturbance on changes in carbon stock but the carbon accounting  
27 might (e.g., the Canadian forest inventory) or might not (e.g., the U.S. and Mexico forest  
28 inventories) explicitly consider disturbances. In the US, knowledge from other sources about  
29 areas burned (and other disturbances) can be used to inform GHG emissions estimates and allow  
30 for at least some attribution of specific disturbance to changes in carbon stocks even when  
31 disturbances are not explicitly accounted. Terrestrial biosphere modeling can attribute land-

1 atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange to specific disturbances, but only those which the model explicitly  
2 represents and the models differ considerably in which disturbance types they include and how  
3 they represent those disturbances and the consequences for CO<sub>2</sub> exchange with the atmosphere  
4 (Hayes et al., 2012; Huntzinger et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2011; Sitch et al., 2013). For example  
5 some models include fire as an internal prognostic variable, others as an external forcing and  
6 some not at all (Huntzinger et al., 2012; Sitch et al., 2013). Incomplete or mis-representation of  
7 disturbances by the TBMs likely contributes to differences between the TBM estimate and the  
8 AIM and inventory-based estimates. Williams et al. (2012) used information on age structure  
9 from U.S. forest inventory data to parameterize the disturbance and recovery processes of a  
10 carbon cycle model similar to the TBMs reported on here. They found a much smaller net carbon  
11 sink for conterminous U.S. forests than previous estimates using those inventory data in stock-  
12 change approaches like those of the inventory-based estimates here (Williams et al., 2012). The  
13 same source of data used in different methods can yield different results. Particulars of how  
14 disturbance is represented in inventories are also likely responsible for some portion of the  
15 difference between AIM and inventory-based estimates of net-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange.

16

17 Within-method uncertainties also contribute to the differences in estimates and the uncertainty  
18 surrounding those estimates (Enting et al., 2012). Each method involves numerous assumptions  
19 and myriad sources of uncertainty: transport uncertainty, limited atmospheric data and inversion  
20 methodology in the atmospheric inversions; parameter, process and input data uncertainty in the  
21 TBMs; and uncertainty in estimating carbon stock from a limited number of observations of tree  
22 height and diameter in forest inventories are just a few examples. In principle the different  
23 estimates should agree, but the uncertainty in a method's estimate may cloud that agreement.  
24 Multiple and diverse sources of uncertainty within methods make the reconciliation of the  
25 estimates by reducing uncertainty more difficult.

26

27 The approaches also differ in their coverage of subregional heterogeneity in ecosystem types.  
28 Atmospheric inversions estimate the total land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange from a given region,  
29 including any fluxes associated with carbon traded across the region's boundaries, while  
30 inventory-based approaches estimate only those exchanges from ecosystem types represented in  
31 the inventories (most commonly forest and cropland), and may or may not represent trade of

1 products from those ecosystem types~~Atmospheric inversions estimate the total land-atmosphere~~  
2 ~~CO<sub>2</sub> exchange from a given region, while inventory-based approaches estimate only those~~  
3 ~~exchanges from ecosystem types represented in the inventories (most commonly forest and~~  
4 ~~cropland)~~. As such, estimates from AIMs may capture fluxes missed by inventory-based  
5 estimates, while inventory-based estimates can attribute emissions to specific ecosystems thereby  
6 assisting in the management of ~~C~~carbon sources and sinks. Likewise, the estimates from TBMs  
7 only include those ecosystem types and fluxes simulated by the models but can attribute those  
8 fluxes to particular processes and ecosystems that might be managed.

9  
10 Differences in the treatment of trade, fire, insects, land-use change, methane and methane  
11 conversions, arid regions, and permafrost and peatland processes are among the many possible  
12 contributions to differences in estimated net land-atmosphere exchange among and within the  
13 approaches. Years of research have provided information on these various components, but no  
14 single comprehensive, integrated, agreed upon treatment of them in their entirety exists for  
15 attribution of the net flux estimated by the AIMs, to guide national carbon inventories, or for  
16 implementation in TBMs. Efforts to resolve differences among approaches and specific  
17 attribution of the North American sink will likely require a community effort to test specific  
18 hypotheses involving, initially at least, one or a very small combination of these components.  
19 Recent indications by Poulter et al. (2014) of the influence of arid lands under El Nino conditions  
20 combined with the uncertain contribution of woody encroachment to the North American land  
21 sink (Hayes et al., 2012; King et al., 2007a) suggest more attention to woody biomass changes in  
22 arid and semi-arid environments as a promising area of investigation. This attention might  
23 include focus on these lands and dynamics in an inter-model comparison of TBMs or structured  
24 synthesis and perhaps additional observations of carbon inventories for these regions.

25  
26 There is some indication of convergence in the estimates from the different methods across  
27 previous syntheses (Hayes et al., 2012; King et al., 2007b; King et al., 2012) and the work  
28 presented here, suggesting a North American land sink in the first decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century in  
29 the range of -300 to -600 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>. Convergence of inventories with AIMs has been shown for  
30 one data-rich region of North America for one year (Schuh et al., 2013), but the level of  
31 observational and analytic effort put into this study has not yet been replicated at the continental

1 scale. However, with additional synthesis and assessment within continents, the North  
2 American Carbon Program's Regional and Continental Interim Synthesis activities (Huntzinger et  
3 al., 2012; Schuh et al., 2013), for example, and with inter-continental syntheses like among  
4 regions, RECCAP (Canadell et al., 2011; Ciais et al., 2010),for example, there may be further  
5 convergence and improved understanding of any remaining differences. Either or both will  
6 improve not only scientific understanding of the carbon cycle but the input into considerations of  
7 national and international carbon policy as well.

8

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24

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1 Table 1. Mean  $\pm$  1 standard deviation ( $s$ ) of annual net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C (Tg  
 2 C yr<sup>-1</sup>) for North America by decade and the 1990-2009 period.

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

3 <sup>a</sup>The multi-model mean and standard deviation of the time-period means of the RECCAP  
 4 selected TransCom3 inversions of Peylin et al. (2013).

5 <sup>b</sup> See Methods. Note that there is single inventory estimate and thus no “multi-  
 6 model” mean or standard deviation.

7 <sup>c</sup>The multi-model mean and standard deviation of the time-period means of ten RECCAP-Trendy  
 8 models’ time-averaged annual NBP (see Methods)

9

1 Table 2. Interannual variability of annual net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C (Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>)  
 2 for North America by decade and for the 1990-2009 period. The population standard deviation  
 3 ( $\sigma$ ) of annual exchange is used as an index of interannual variability.

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

4 <sup>a</sup>The multi-model mean ( $\pm$  1 s) of individual within-model standard deviations from the time-  
 5 averaged (see Table 1) atmospheric inversion estimates of net land-atmosphere exchange (see  
 6 Methods) for each time period for the RECCAP selected TransCom3 IAV models (Peylin et  
 7 al., 2013).

8 <sup>b</sup>The multi-model mean ( $\pm$  1 s) of individual within-model standard deviations from the time-  
 9 averaged annual NBP (Table 1 and Methods) for each time period for ten RECCAP-Trendy  
 10 models.

11 <sup>c</sup> With only two estimates there is no asymmetry in the distribution as evidenced by the  
 12 equivalence of mean and median; likewise there is no mode.

13

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

	years	mean (Tg C)	$s$ (Tg C)	uncertainty (Tg C)	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		

- 1 Table 4. Mean annual net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C for North America by  
 2 decade as a percentage of North American fossil fuel emissions (from Table 3).  
 3 Note that these are independent proportions and do not add to 100%.

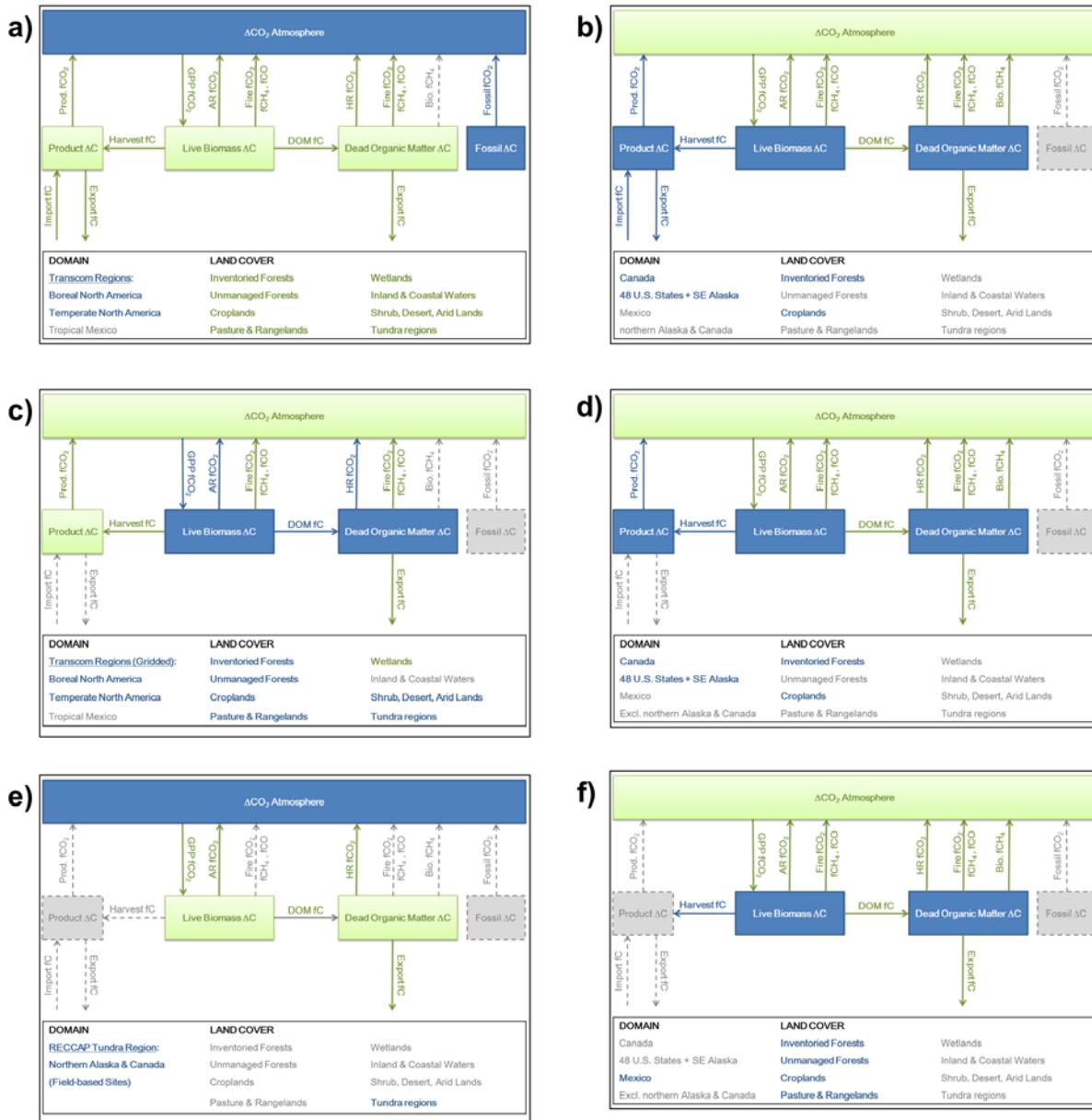
Method	1990-1999	2000-2009	1990-2009
Atmospheric inversion	57%	49%	52%
Inventory: atmospheric flow approach	10%	19%	21%
Terrestrial biosphere modeling	23%	20%	21%
Inventory: production approach	5%	15%	16%
“Best” estimates			
Mean	24%	26%	27%
Median	16%	20%	21%
Mode	< 31%	< 28%	29%

4

1 Table 5. Estimates of mean annual net land-atmosphere exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>-C for  
2 North America by decade and for 1990-2009 as a proportion of the global  
3 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%

4



1 **Figure 1. Carbon dioxide budget diagrams illustrating the spatial domains and component**  
2 **fluxes included in each approach and data set synthesized in this study: a) atmospheric**  
3 **inversion models (AIMs), b) atmospheric flow inventory, c) terrestrial biosphere models**  
4 **(TBMs), d) production approach inventory, e) tundra ecosystem flux measurement, and f)**  
5 **Mexico land-use change (default approach) inventory. In each diagram, flux components are**  
6 **shown in blue when explicitly estimated (i.e., observed, measured or simulated), in green**  
7 **when implicitly contributing to an aggregated flux but not estimated directly, and in gray**  
8 **when explicitly not included in the estimate.**

9  
10 **Atmospheric methods (a, e) measure the concentration or flux of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere,**  
11 **which implies all land-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> exchange components (and excludes non-CO<sub>2</sub>**

1 fluxes). AIMs (a) integrate CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for large regions (Boreal & Terrestrial North  
2 America) and explicitly subtract out the contribution of fossil fuel emissions in order to  
3 quantify the terrestrial contribution. The eddy covariance flux measurements for the tundra  
4 region (e) are similar in concept, but are site-based and so are not influenced by fire, fossil  
5 or harvested product emissions. Inventory approaches (b, d, f) are primarily based on  
6 carbon stock change estimates in the major live biomass and dead organic matter pools.  
7 Mostly implicit in the inventories, then, are the fluxes in and out of these pools, with the  
8 exception of harvested carbon (crop and wood) removals that need to be tracked to  
9 determine the role of product consumption and decay emissions in the overall budget. The  
10 atmospheric flow approach (b) considers product imports and exports from international  
11 trade in calculating the stock change in the product pool, whereas the production approach  
12 (d) does not. The default approach (f) excludes the harvested product pools from the  
13 accounting. Finally, there is large variation in how TBMs (c) explicitly simulate, implicitly  
14 include, or explicitly exclude the various flux components; here, we represent a 'basic case'  
15 where all models simulate ecosystem production and respiration and track the major pools.  
16 TBMs differ widely, though, as to whether and how they simulate fire, harvest, product  
17 emission and dead organic matter export fluxes (i.e. riverine export). None of the models in  
18 this study include estimates of fossil fuel emissions, biogenic methane flux or the lateral  
19 transfer of product carbon via international trade.

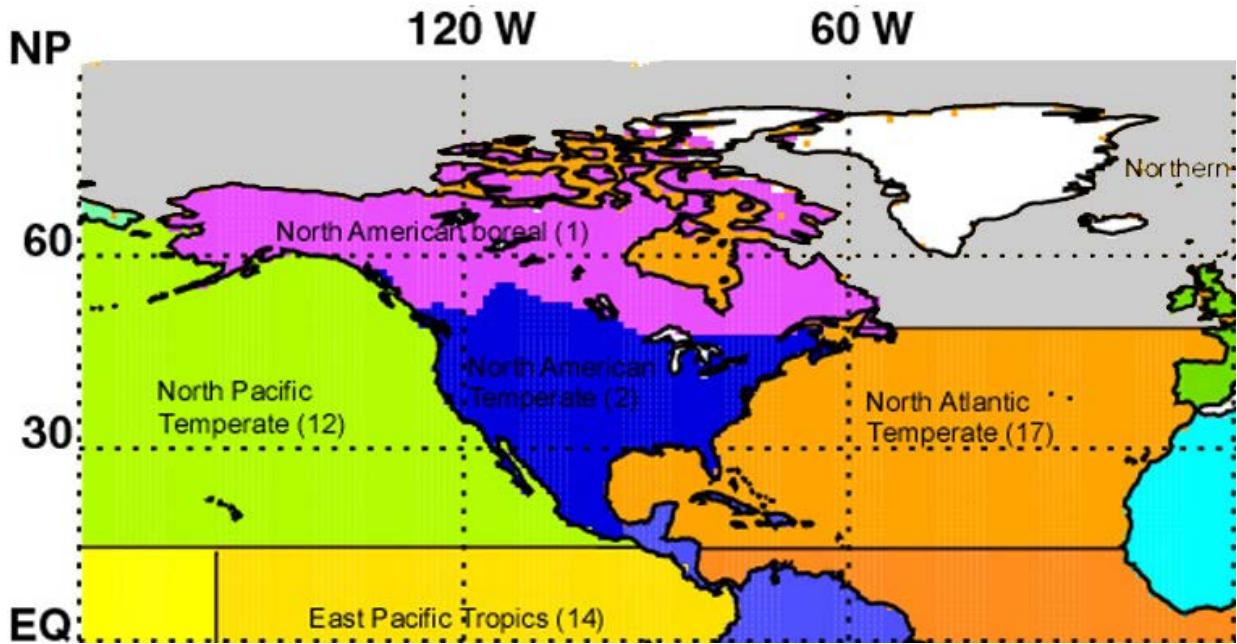
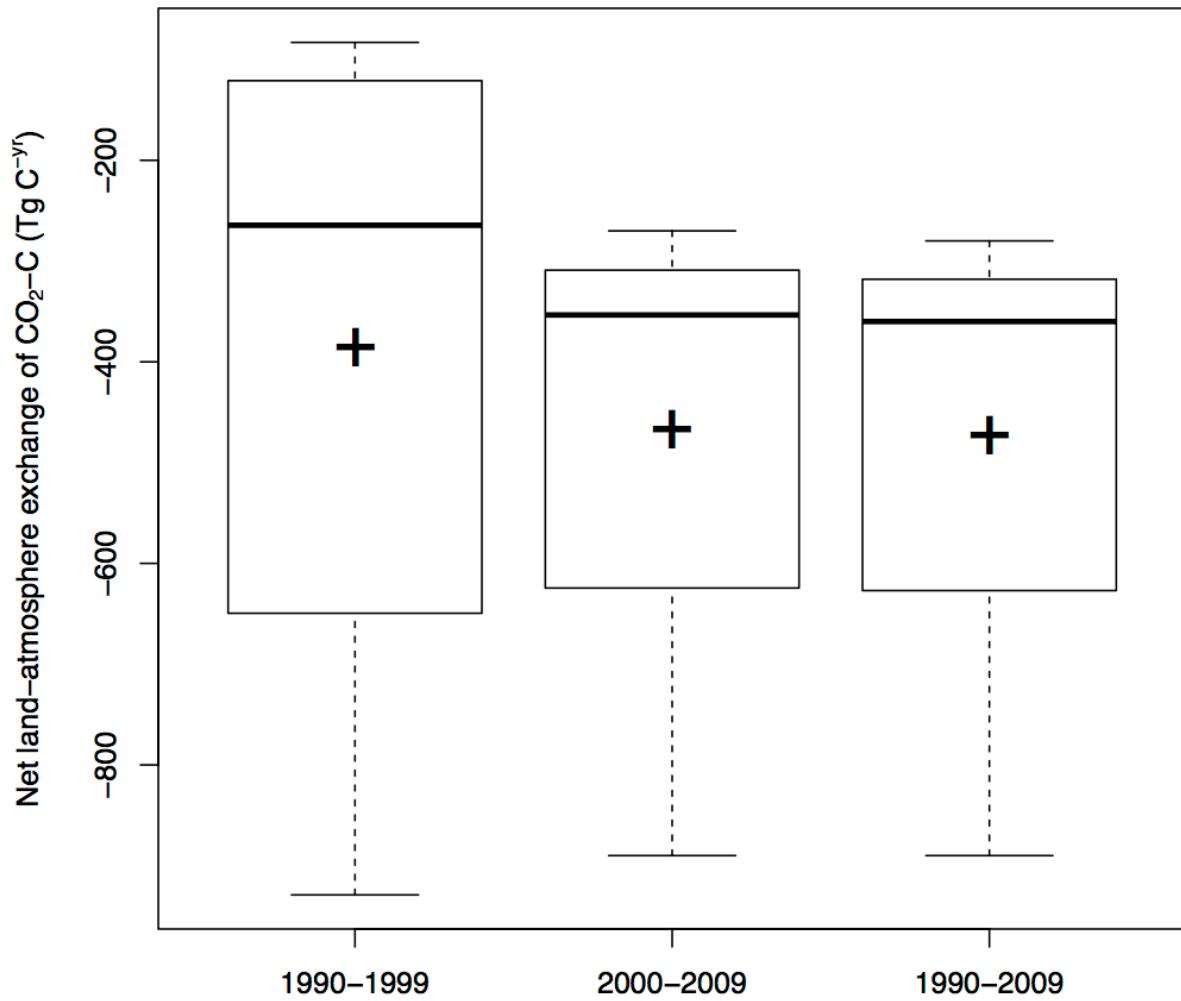


Figure 2. TransCom3 regions of the western Northern Hemisphere (Baker et al 2006). The combined North American Boreal and North American Temperate regions define North America for the Atmospheric Inversion Model (AIM) and Terrestrial Biosphere Model (TBM) approaches to estimating net land-atmosphere carbon exchange for North America. Adapted from [http://transcom.project.asu.edu/transcom03\\_protocol\\_basisMap.php](http://transcom.project.asu.edu/transcom03_protocol_basisMap.php).



1  
2 | Figure 34. Box-and-whisker diagrams of the estimates from the different methods. The bold  
3 | horizontal line indicates the median, the + the mean. The upper and lower bounds of the box are  
4 | the “hinges” of the Tukey box-and-whisker algorithm of R’s boxplot and approximate the  
5 | interquartile range. The whiskers indicate the minimum and maximum values.

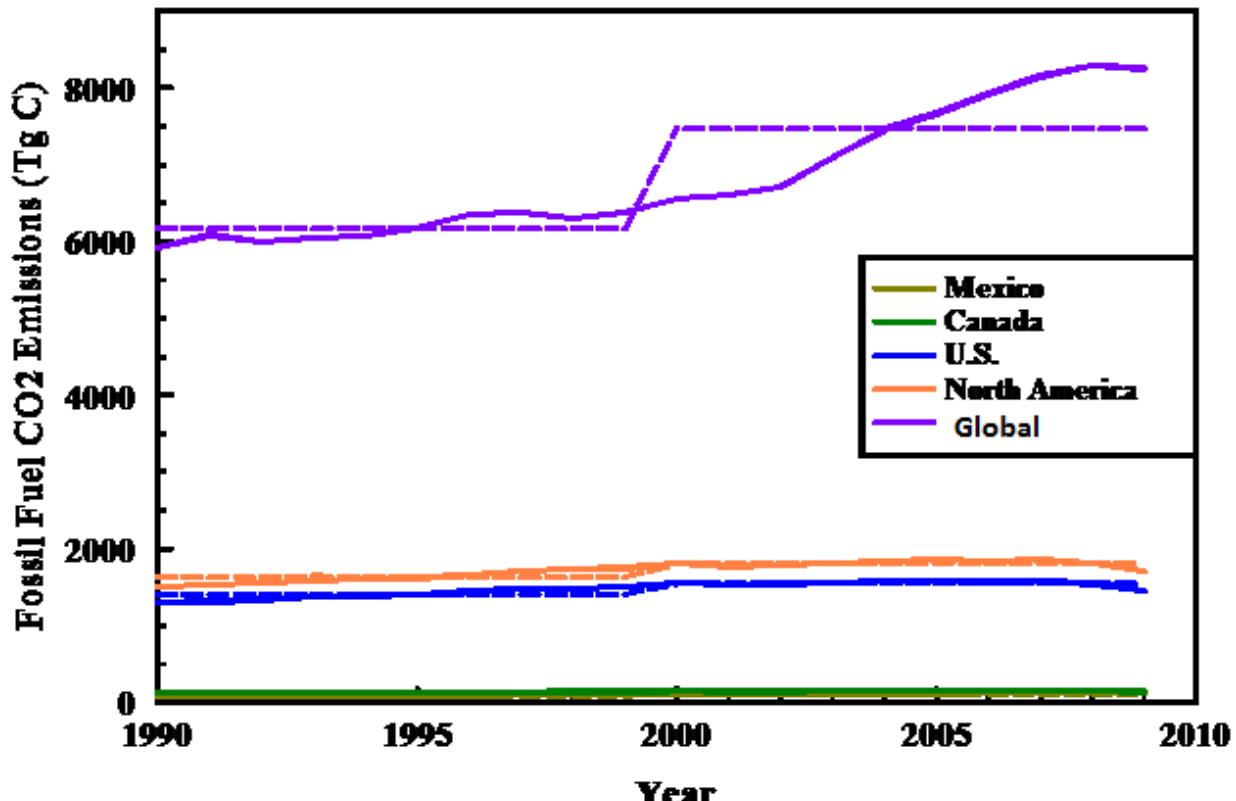


Figure 42. Fossil-fuel-CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for various political units. [Solid lines represent annual emissions and dashed lines represent the decadal mean of emissions](#). The sum of countries is used to represent total global emissions in this plot. This allows comparison of emissions on an equal 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](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).