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3 ****** INTERNAL DRAFT ******
4 ****** SOFT RELEASE FOR COMMENTS BY NACP COMMUNITY******

5
6 **2021 NACP Science Implementation Plan**
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8 **Chapter 1: Introduction: Motivation, History, Goals, and Achievements** (Lead:
9 Christopher A. Williams)

10 **Chapter 2: Program Elements and Key Priorities for the Future** (Lead: Christopher A.
11 Williams)

12 **Chapter 3: Science Implementation Plan Elements**

13 3.1. Sustained and Expanded Observations (Lead: Arlyn Andrews)

14 3.2. Assessment and Integration (Lead: Eric T. Sundquist)

15 3.3. Processes and Attribution (Lead: Christopher A. Williams)

16 3.4. Prediction (Leads: Benjamin Poulter, Forrest M. Hoffman, Kenneth J. Davis)

17 3.5. Communication, Coordination & Decision Support (Lead: Molly Brown)

18 **Chapter 4: Partnerships and Collaborations: Institutional and International** (Leads:
19 Elisabeth K. Larson, Gyami Shrestha)

20 **Chapter 5: Data and Information Management** (Lead: Yaxing Wei)

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23 **Forthcoming Additions Before Final Release**

24 **Executive Summary** (forthcoming)

25 **Appendices** (forthcoming as needed)

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Motivation

Carbon is a building block of life, a central biogeochemical element in the earth system, and an important constituent of Earth’s atmosphere as a greenhouse gas (GhG) that powerfully influences global climate. Human activity has radically altered the global carbon balance in fundamental ways, with severe consequences for Earth’s biosphere. Vast quantities of carbon have been emitted as CO₂ from oxidation of the primary carbon-containing fuels humans have used over the past two centuries, and from the destruction of natural ecosystems for agriculture, resource extraction, industry, transportation, and other human endeavors. Together these have significantly elevated atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations, leading to planetary warming and attendant climate changes that are fundamentally altering ecosystems and environments worldwide. They have also acidified the oceans, jeopardizing coral reefs, endangering fisheries, and threatening the extinction of many species. Many of these impacts involve adverse natural feedbacks that release additional greenhouse gases and accelerate climate change. There is a pressing need to understand these changes to the global carbon cycle and their interactions with the climate system and biosphere, so that we may stabilize and reverse their damaging impacts and safeguard human well-being and life on planet Earth. The North American Carbon Program responds to continued and growing urgency to understand the dynamics and drivers of the coupled carbon-climate system, and its interactions with the health and sustainability of ecosystems, natural resources, and the provision of goods and services.

1.2 The NACP

With a focus on sources and sinks of carbon for North America and its coastal waters, the North American Carbon Program emphasizes diagnosis of the contemporary carbon cycle, scientific understanding of how it responds to natural and human forcings, and skillful predictions of its likely future dynamics. The program also aims to provide scientific assessments of a range of policy and management options being considered to mitigate climate change and ocean acidification by protecting and expanding land, aquatic, or oceanic carbon stocks. As such, the NACP plays a vital role in global carbon cycle research and its applications in service to society.

1.3 Program Foundation and Developmental History

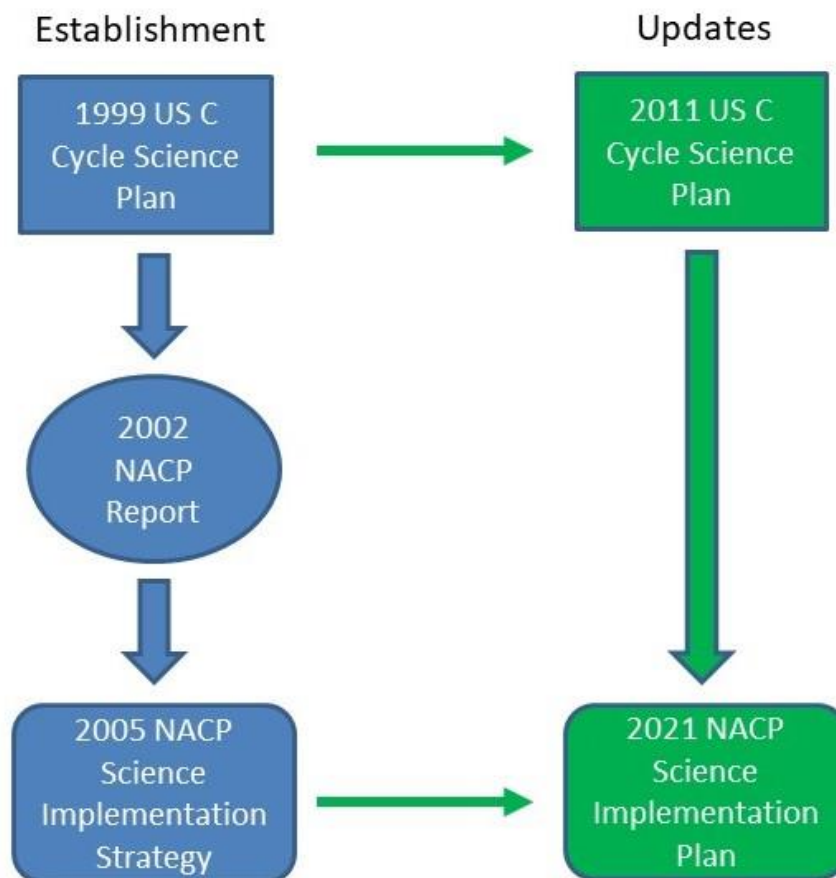
The North American Carbon Program (NACP) is a principal activity of the US Carbon Cycle Science Program (USCCSP), a Federal interagency partnership that operates under the aegis of the U.S. Global Change Research Program (USGCRP). Born out of the 1999 US Carbon Cycle Science Plan (Sarmiento and Wofsy 1999) (Figure 1), the NACP was established in 2002 by the NACP Report (Wofsy and Harris 2002). Since its inception, the NACP has become an essential venue for coordinated U.S. measurement and research concerning terrestrial, aquatic, and coastal

73 ocean carbon fluxes, their importance as sources and sinks of atmospheric greenhouse gases
74 (primarily CO₂ and CH₄), and the extent to which they both affect and are affected by natural
75 processes and human activities. While the NACP emphasizes U.S. contributions to global carbon
76 cycle science along with partners across North America including Canada, Mexico, and
77 Indigenous Nations, the program's observations, analyses, and findings have relevance and
78 impact at the global scale.

79
80 Shortly after the program's establishment, a 2005 NACP Science Implementation Strategy
81 (Denning et al. 2005) outlined an initial phase of activity that emphasized diagnostic studies to
82 uncover carbon source and sink trends, and attribution studies to identify the processes
83 responsible for these trends. The 2005 strategy document also identified activities needed to
84 advance predictive capability and to support decision makers, with an anticipated developmental
85 progression to expand the program's scope in these areas over time.

86
87 In 2011, the US Carbon Cycle Science Plan revisited the USCCSP science goals (Michalak et al.
88 2011), reiterating broad research priorities and new directions. As a follow-on effort, this NACP
89 Science Implementation Plan (NSIP) revises and updates the 2005 NACP strategy document. It
90 responds to new scientific capabilities, the program's developmental progression, and emergent
91 priorities.

92



93

94 **Figure 1.** Establishment of, and updates to, the North American
95 Carbon Program (NACP), from its origins in the US Carbon Cycle
96 Science Plan to its design laid out in science implementation
97 documents.
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100 **1.4. The 2021 NACP Science Implementation Plan**

101
102 This 2021 NACP Science Implementation Plan highlights key gaps and offers strategies for
103 program implementation. The intention is to facilitate coordinated, complementary, and
104 comprehensive science research activities that address the major goals of the NACP (Chapter 2).
105 This new plan builds on the foundation of the 2005 NACP Science Implementation Strategy to
106 design an up-to-date research program that responds to emerging research needs, recent
107 discoveries, and new capabilities.
108

109 The plan reviews key activities needed for a full implementation of the NACP’s broad science
110 goals, and highlights selected activities deemed to be of highest priority. The plan’s activities
111 are organized among five overarching program elements that are introduced in Chapter 2 and
112 given more detail in Chapter 3. Highest priority is based upon three main criteria: the largest
113 uncertainties, the weakest understanding, and the greatest public need.
114

115 The plan also reviews major achievements of the program to date (Chapter 2), provides a vision
116 for sustaining and strengthening collaborative linkages to diverse partners and institutions
117 (Chapter 4), and identifies data and information management capabilities needed to support the
118 overall program (Chapter 5). An Executive Summary underscores the most important aspects of
119 the implementation plan.
120

121 122 **1.5 Comments on Procedure, Audience, and Distribution**

123
124 The NSIP was developed by a leadership team consisting of leads or co-leads for each of the
125 major implementation themes (Program Elements), and an overall chair who guided the activity,
126 with logistical support provided by the NACP Coordinator located in the Carbon Cycle &
127 Ecosystems Office at NASA Goddard Space Flight Center. Together, this team led the plan’s
128 development to design a balanced science program that considers advances in research and
129 technology, program gaps, and emerging issues while highlighting new activities of the highest
130 priority. The team engaged in discussions with the NACP Science Leadership Group (SLG),
131 sought input from the broad NACP community, assembled writing teams to draft the plan,
132 facilitated public review by the NACP community, and revised the plan in response to these
133 reviews. As such, the NSIP document has been prepared principally by the diverse community
134 of scientists engaged with the NACP.
135

136 The NSIP has been developed to guide the research science community of the NACP. It is also
137 available to provide information for interested government agencies including those participating
138 in the Carbon Cycle Interagency Working Group (CCIWG), and other institutions in the private
139 sector, NGOs, and science organizations. Formal delivery of the plan involved distribution to

140 the NACP Science Leadership Group, the CCIWG, and any interested party, with broad public
141 release.

142

143 **1.6 NACP Science Questions and Goals**

144

145 Many of the goals, questions, program elements, and deliverables articulated in the NACP's
146 founding documents (Wofsy and Harris 2002; Denning et al. 2005) remain central to the
147 program today. However several new dimensions have emerged, including increased emphasis
148 on process-oriented understanding, predictive capabilities, and decision support. Here we briefly
149 restate the program's founding science questions and goals, and its founding developments and
150 intended deliverables.

151

152 **Science Questions and Goals**

153

154 This 2021 NACP Science Implementation Plan adopts the science questions stated in the 2011
155 US Carbon Cycle Science Plan (Michalak et al. 2011) with only modest revision.

156

157 **NACP Science Plan Questions**

158

159 *How do natural processes and human actions affect the carbon cycle on land, in the*
160 *atmosphere, and in the oceans?*

161

162 *How do policy and management decisions affect the levels of the primary carbon-*
163 *containing gases, CO₂ and CH₄, in the atmosphere?*

164

165 *How are ecosystems, species, and natural resources impacted by increasing greenhouse*
166 *gas concentrations, the associated changes in climate, and by carbon management*
167 *decisions?*

168

169 To answer these overarching questions the initial NACP Report (Wofsy and Harris 2002)
170 outlined the following program goals.

171

172 **Original NACP Goals**

173

174 *"... to provide the scientific information needed to inform policies designed to reduce*
175 *contributions by the US and neighboring countries to atmospheric carbon dioxide and*
176 *methane."*

177

178 *"... to provide scientific data to determine the fate of CO₂ emitted to the atmosphere by*
179 *combustion of fossil fuels. It is also aimed at comprehensive understanding of the rates*
180 *and mechanisms controlling carbon uptake and release from soils and vegetation in*
181 *North America and the adjacent Atlantic and Pacific Oceans"*

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183 *"... to reduce uncertainties about the carbon cycle component of the climate system, and*
184 *to develop scientific and technical tools to forecast future increases in concentrations of*
185 *atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄.*

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“...to provide scientific information needed to design effective and economical policies for the US and neighboring countries to manage carbon sources and sinks.”

A follow-on science implementation strategy (Denning et al. 2005) articulated similar goals but with additional language about the need to inform management and policy decisions affecting carbon emissions, to provide information on optimal strategies for carbon sequestration, to provide the scientific basis for implementing full carbon accounting, and to provide the scientific understanding needed for projections of future carbon fluxes as they respond to climate, energy policy, and land use.

More recently, the US Carbon Cycle Science Plan provided updated programmatic aims (or goals), restated here with only modest revision for the North American Carbon Program.

2021 NACP Goals

- 1) Document past and current concentrations of atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ and surface fluxes of CO₂ and CH₄, and provide clear and timely explanation of their variations and uncertainties.*
- 2) Understand and quantify the socioeconomic drivers of carbon emissions, and develop transparent methods to monitor and verify those emissions.*
- 3) Determine and evaluate the vulnerability of carbon stocks and flows to future climate change and human activity, emphasizing potential positive feedbacks to sources or sinks that make climate stabilization more critical or difficult.*
- 4) Predict how ecosystems, biodiversity, and natural resources will interact with CO₂ and climate change forcings to affect carbon cycling.*
- 5) Examine a wide range of potential carbon management pathways that might be undertaken to achieve a low-carbon future, and determine their likelihood of ‘success’ and side effects.*
- 6) Address decision maker needs for current and future carbon cycle information with relevant and credible data, projections, and interpretations.*

1.7 Review of Founding Documents and Intended Deliverables

The NACP’s founding documents identified several high priority general developments needed to deliver on the program’s overall goals (Wofsy and Harris 2002) as:

“... quantitative scientific knowledge, robust observations, and models to determine the emissions and uptake of CO₂, CH₄, and CO, the changes in carbon stocks, and the factors regulating these processes for North America and adjacent ocean basins.”

232
233 “... the scientific basis to implement full carbon accounting on regional and continental
234 scales. This is the knowledge base needed to design monitoring programs for natural
235 and managed CO₂ sinks and emissions of CH₄.”

236
237 “... long-term quantitative measurements of sources and sinks of atmospheric CO₂ and
238 CH₄, and develop forecasts for future trends.”

239
240 The early plan envisioned three phases of development, moving from initiation, to testing and
241 implementation, and to operation. Also, it identified enabling developments of highest priority:

242
243 (1) the development of in situ sensors and sampling protocols;

244
245 (2) performance of modeling studies to inform network design;

246
247 (3) advances in model-data fusion and integration to diagnose and attribute carbon
248 sources and sinks;

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250 (4) optimization of national inventories for carbon accounting;

251
252 (5) strengthening current observation networks to fill gaps in long-term measurements of
253 greenhouse gases and to transform AmeriFlux into an integrated, near-real time
254 network;

255
256 (6) improve databases documenting fossil fuel uses, land use, and land cover;

257
258 (7) the development of remote sensing technology for measuring greenhouse gases,
259 biomass, and soil moisture.

260
261 Key deliverables of the program were envisioned as:

262
263 “measurements of sources/sinks for CO₂, CH₄, CO for North America and adjacent ocean
264 basins, at scales from continental to local with seasonal resolution.”;

265
266 “attribution of sources/sinks to contributing mechanisms, including climate change,
267 changes in atmospheric CO₂, nutrients, pollutants, and land use history.”;

268
269 “documentation of North America’s contribution to the Northern Hemisphere carbon
270 budget, placed in the global context.”;

271
272 “optimized sampling networks (ground-based and remote) to determine past, current, and
273 future sources and sinks of CO₂, CH₄, CO, and major pollutants”;

274
275 “data assimilation models to compute carbon balances”;

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277 “A State of the Carbon Cycle Report (SOCCR) as periodic report communicating results
278 to the public”; and,

279
280 “data and observations to enable major advances in atmospheric chemistry, resource
281 management, and in weather forecasting and climate models.”.

282
283 Major progress has been made addressing the NACP’s science goals, priority enabling
284 developments, and key deliverables. Progress to date as well as continuing and emerging needs
285 are reviewed in Chapter 2, followed by more detailed plans for the future of the program
286 presented in Chapter 3.

287 288 **1.8 Achievements Since NACP’s Founding**

289
290 Great progress has been made in delivering the NACP’s fundamental research agenda as
291 originally conceived, with contributions from a widespread and diverse collection of individuals
292 and institutions. Today’s scientific and technical capabilities and current understanding show
293 clear traces of the program’s early plans, with notable progress on all of the enabling
294 developments and key deliverables.

295
296 An initial core of observations has been deployed to document concentrations of carbon species
297 in the atmosphere and oceans, essential for estimating carbon sources and sinks at monthly to
298 decadal time scales and over regional to continental spatial scales. Atmospheric sampling with
299 tall towers is now being complemented by new observations on aircraft, ships and floats, and
300 even with spaceborne, remote detection of greenhouse gas concentrations.

301
302 National inventories tracking carbon dynamics in forestlands, rangelands and croplands have
303 been improved with new and expanded sampling protocols. Flux tower networks, such as
304 AmeriFlux and MexFlux, continue to grow, including through collaboration with the National
305 Ecological Observing Network.

306
307 Spaceborne and airborne remote sensing capabilities have been deployed to study and monitor a
308 wide range of biospheric, atmospheric, oceanic, hydrospheric and geologic states and behaviors
309 that are critical for understanding of the carbon cycle. They monitor vegetation biomass and
310 structure, photosynthetic activity on land and in water bodies, soil moisture, ecosystem
311 disturbances, land use and land cover changes, hydrologic inundation, and much more. A wide
312 range of ecological, meteorological, and hydrological ground-based networks monitor a similar
313 suite of attributes but often with finer-scale and/or greater detail. This includes critical
314 contributions from programs such as the USDA Forest Service Forest Inventory and Analysis,
315 the USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service, the USDA Natural Resources Conservation
316 Service Rapid Carbon Assessment, and the USGS Groundwater, Streamflow and Water Quality
317 monitoring programs.

318
319 NASA established a prototype Carbon Monitoring System (CMS) leveraging existing
320 observation programs from across NASA and other agencies, and some individual projects
321 include additional targeted measurements to demonstrate potential new data products or
322 applications. The NASA CMS science team includes researchers from across NASA and from

323 other agencies and universities, and has strong links with the NACP. Accomplishments include
324 the development of continental U.S. biomass data product and a global carbon flux product, as
325 well as demonstrations of Monitoring, Reporting and Verification (MRV) in support of local-
326 and regional-scale carbon management projects; scoping of potential new ocean carbon
327 monitoring products; and engagement of carbon monitoring stakeholders to better understand
328 their needs for carbon data and information products. NASA CMS has developed a state-of-the-
329 science data assimilation system that integrates satellite and surface observations related to
330 anthropogenic, oceanic, terrestrial and atmospheric carbon.

331
332 Databases documenting fossil fuel and cement emissions, such as the early Carbon Dioxide
333 Information and Analysis Center (CDIAC), have seen continued improvements in spatial
334 resolution, and with the chemistry of fuels such as that of The Vulcan Project. Datasets
335 documenting carbon emissions from land use and land change have been improved with more
336 detailed understanding of the nature and extent of land use and change, associated perturbations
337 to carbon stocks, and ensuing carbon emissions legacies.

338
339 Carbon dynamics in riverine, lake and wetland systems have received increased attention, with
340 new analyses and observing systems improving understanding of net carbon exchange with the
341 atmosphere, and lateral fluxes and transformations.

342
343 Scaling, synthesizing, and integrating disparate and diverse data types has enabled improved
344 carbon accounting and monitoring. Progress has been made in data assimilation systems and in
345 modeling of atmospheric transport, both of which have improved top-down inversions of
346 atmospheric data being used to infer surface sources and sinks of carbon species at regional to
347 global scales. Data integration and model-data fusion techniques have improved, expanding
348 capacity for diagnosing and attributing carbon sources and sinks. Advances in attributing carbon
349 dynamics to contributing mechanisms have been made, enhancing capacity to trace human
350 activities and their impacts on the changing climate, atmospheric composition, and land cover
351 and use.

352
353 Large-scale research intensives have been launched (e.g. Mid-Continent Intensive, ABoVE,
354 ACT-America), revealing insights about the carbon metabolism of natural ecosystems,
355 agrosystems, and built environments, and how it relates to human activity and environmental
356 variability.

357
358 New manipulative experiments have been launched (there are many... some examples from
359 LTER sites like Harvard Forest's soil warming, simulated hurricane, nitrogen addition
360 experiments; others). Several experiments launched relatively recently and are well positioned
361 to provide new, important insights (SPRUCE, NGEE-Arctic, NGEE-Tropics). These and other
362 developments are improving understanding of carbon cycle feedbacks and carbon stock
363 vulnerabilities (e.g. forest mortality, thawing of permafrost).

364
365 Predictive modeling has advanced, with new capabilities emerging from the development of
366 benchmark datasets for model evaluations, from model intercomparison activities, from model
367 assessment with emergent constraints, from inclusion of new model theory, from improved
368 integration of socioeconomic and natural/physical processes that jointly affect the global carbon

369 cycle, and from model applications to assess impacts of interactive global change drivers,
370 feedbacks and vulnerabilities (e.g. permafrost). Integrated assessments now provide better
371 fusion of social, economic, ecological, and physical predictions.

372
373 The NACP has engaged in extensive reporting, communication and outreach activities. These
374 include major contributions to the USGCRP Sustained Assessment Report on the State of the
375 Carbon Cycle Report (SOCCR), with additional contributions to the National Climate
376 Assessment (NCA). The NACP has contributed to the Global Carbon Project, including its
377 Regional Carbon Cycle Assessments and Processes (RECCAP) initiative. Also, the NACP has a
378 presence at many national and international science conferences, and hosts its own open science
379 meetings roughly every third year.

380
381 The program has included well over 500 research projects
382 (https://nacarbon.org/cgi-bin/web/investigations/inv_profiles.pl#post2013), with affiliations,
383 associations, and linkages extending well beyond these individual pieces of science.

384
385 While these achievements are to be celebrated, much work needs to be done to fulfill the
386 program's aims. Holes in measurement networks and limited capacity for integration hinder
387 diagnosis and attribution. Gaps in process understanding yield major uncertainties for diagnosis
388 and prediction. The program's communications, outreach, and decision support dimensions are
389 under-developed, undermining the program's ability to deliver to inform the public and address
390 decision maker needs.

391
392 It is also important to draw attention to several threats to the work of the NACP. While some
393 sampling networks have grown, others have seen significant reductions over the past decade,
394 including FLUXNET - Canada, the USGS hydrological monitoring network, NOAA's
395 atmosphere and ocean sampling networks. Much of our understanding of the carbon cycle
396 emerges from measurements sustained over decades. Supporting long-term observational
397 records continues to be a challenge, as research ventures need to be transitioned to operational
398 capacities. Historically, funding from short-term grants has been strung together to create long-
399 term observational records, and new funding models are needed to support carefully planned and
400 coordinated sustained observations. Additionally, restructuring and relocation of some federal
401 institutions such as the USDA ARS, and some USFS, NOAA, and USGS offices has jeopardized
402 the critical contributions these institutions make to carbon cycle research.

403 404 **References**

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421 **Chapter 2. Program Elements and Leading Initiatives for the Future**
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423 This Chapter outlines the NACP’s contemporary program elements needed to deliver on the
424 program’s goals followed by highlights of some of the highest priority, leading initiatives for the
425 program’s future.

426
427 **2.1 The 2021 NACP Program Elements**
428

429 The 2005 NACP Science Implementation Strategy outlined a series of intersecting Program
430 Elements necessary for achieving the original goals of the NACP. Those elements are closely
431 mirrored in this new implementation plan but are given expanded scope and have been revised to
432 reflect new developments.

433
434 The 2021 NACP Program Elements are:

435
436 Sustained and Expanded Observations (Chapter 3.1) seeks to measure surface biogenic and
437 anthropogenic carbon exchanges, associated changes in carbon stocks, and their primary social,
438 environmental, and ecological determinants. Observations support evaluation of trends and
439 diagnosis of their drivers (causal factors). Observations also provide scientific data records
440 needed to monitor the effectiveness of carbon policy and carbon management actions.

441
442 Assessment and Integration (Chapter 3.2) seeks to produce key scientific data products and to
443 develop analytical methods needed for synthesis and integration activities that bridge across
444 scales and across disparate observations and disciplines. Assessment and integration activities
445 advance core scientific understanding of contemporary carbon cycle trends, and provide the basis
446 for communicating these findings to broad audiences.

447
448 Processes and Attribution (Chapter 3.3) seeks to uncover mechanistic drivers of carbon cycle
449 dynamics, including the processes that underlie their responses to societal and environmental
450 changes. In doing so, it provides a process-oriented understanding of recent trends as well as the
451 theoretical and empirical foundations for skillful predictions.

452
453 Prediction (Chapter 3.4) seeks to develop and test predictive understanding of the carbon cycle to
454 identify and resolve processes missed or poorly represented in models, and then to apply
455 improved models to generate insights into expected behaviors of the carbon cycle in the future as
456 a dynamic and interactive component of the full Earth System.

457
458 Communication, Outreach, and Decision Support (Chapter 3.5) seeks to facilitate clear and
459 effective communication of current understandings of how the carbon cycle is responding to
460 drivers now and how it will in the future, to reach diverse audiences including non-specialists. In
461 addition, it seeks to develop decision support tools that aid private sector and public sector
462 decision makers with exploring the impacts of policy and management options.
463

464 Chapter 3 details each Program Element with a comprehensive set of critical activities needed for
465 full implementation. Important advances, challenges, gaps, and emerging issues are identified
466 for each, and highest priority activities and developments are highlighted. In addition, this
467 chapter and the Executive Summary emphasize the highest-level needs and initiatives for the
468 program’s future.

469

470 **2.2 Leading Initiatives for the Future of NACP**

471

472 The following themes and initiatives are of highest priority for the program’s future.

473

474 Sustained, long-term observations and research networks will continue to serve as a critical
475 backbone of the NACP in the future, measuring carbon fluxes and stocks in air, land, water, and
476 built environments. These observations are essential for detecting changes as they unfold over
477 time, and for attributing those changes to forcing factors and underlying processes.

478

479 A comprehensive Carbon Monitoring System is needed, with the mission of transforming current
480 capabilities into a coherent, comprehensive and coordinated observing and analysis system that
481 reports the current state of the carbon cycle and provides timely detection and attribution of its
482 patterns and trends. The system requires thoughtful design, and will surely involve international
483 and cross-agency partnerships and collaborations with research science institutions. It should be
484 designed as an integral contribution to global carbon monitoring and assessment systems,
485 extending across all environmental spheres (atmosphere, ocean, terrestrial, aquatic, urban,
486 cryosphere), all societal sectors (energy, industry, commercial, agriculture), and all range of
487 scales (city, state, regional, continental, global). Its early activities should involve:

488

- 489 ● System design for mission-driven analysis and reporting of carbon stocks and flows
490 across scales and sectors, likely involving hierarchically nested frameworks.
- 491 ● Identification of targeted expansions of observational and analytical capacities needed to
492 deliver on its mission.
- 493 ● Scientific and technical advances to provide more complete and holistic accounting and
494 reporting, with clear and transparent methods and with internal consistency across sectors
495 and reporting units, and including checks across measurement systems and scales.

495

496 A Carbon Decision Support System is needed to answer pressing new questions and needs
497 arising from diverse stakeholders who are asking NACP to play a lead role. Its mission will be
498 to explore opportunities for effective management of C sources and sinks needed for a range of
499 domains such as an individual household, city or state, a select company or industry, or a
500 particular economic sector such as energy or agriculture. It will likely involve cross-agency
501 partnerships and external collaborations. The system will provide land and resource managers,
502 industrial and commercial sectors, and the general public the basic information and tools needed
503 to assess the carbon emissions and removals that might result from specific actions, and
504 associated interactions with the provision of goods and services in society and the environment.
505 Its early activities might involve:

506

- 507 ● Examining the societal and environmental impacts of possible transitions to a low carbon,
clean energy economy across a range of alternative pathways.

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- Establishing a platform to enable users to forecast baseline carbon stocks and fluxes in ecosystems and landscapes given recent trends and with comparison to alternative future scenarios.
 - Developing improved approaches to quantifying impacts in a way that standardizes for the scale of actions to demonstrate how even small-scale actions can offer meaningful impacts at scale.
 - Mapping the carbon economy, including quantification and visualization of virtual fluxes embedded in production and consumption activities across sectors.

517 Research investments are needed for:

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- Sustained, coordinated observations and intensive field campaigns that advance understanding of carbon dynamics along the land-aquatic-oceanic continuum, including holistic assessments of carbon sources, transport, transformation, storage, and exchange with the atmosphere.
 - Manipulative global change type experiments that uncover how ecosystems respond to climate extremes, human and natural disturbances, and changes in atmospheric composition. Such experiments need to be designed to falsify key hypotheses about how the coupled carbon-climate system responds to these forcings, with attention to the most influential model hypotheses, maximizing advances in predictive skill as well as uncertainty reductions in long-term forecasts.
 - Improving process models with insights emerging from novel data sets and with tests that enable rejection of competing process representations, and applying process models to anticipate carbon cycle trends, feedbacks and vulnerabilities.
 - Synthesis and integration studies that bridge from discrete, field-scale (<1 ha) measurements of carbon stocks and fluxes to yield spatially and temporally continuous carbon dynamics at larger scales, spanning across ecoregions and functional units to assess landscape, watershed, continental, and earth system scale patterns.

536 Active communications and outreach are needed to elevate broad awareness about how and why

537 the carbon cycle is changing, the implications of these changes for life on planet Earth, and the

538 actions that could be taken to safeguard our collective future.

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**** INTERNAL DRAFT ****
**** SOFT RELEASE FOR COMMENTS BY NACP COMMUNITY****

Ch 3.1: Sustained and Expanded Observations

Lead Author: Arlyn Andrews; **Contributing Authors:** Ankur Desai, Stefan Metzger, Anna Karion, Josh Fisher, Erika Podest, Simone Alin, Scott Goetz, Grant Domke, Ben Bond-Lamberty, Stephen Ogle, Ben Poulter, Melissa Weitz, Conor Gately, Lisa Windham-Myers, To Be Completed...

IMPORTANT NOTE: THIS DRAFT HAS NOT YET BEEN REVIEWED BY THE ENTIRE WRITING TEAM. INPUT IS WELCOME AT THIS STAGE AND SUBSTANTIVE CONTRIBUTIONS WILL BE ACKNOWLEDGED ACCORDINGLY. A MORE POLISHED AND COMPLETE DRAFT, INCLUDING APPENDICES, IS ANTICIPATED BY EARLY APRIL 2021.

Observations are the foundation of the NACP, needed to detect and attribute changes in the carbon cycle, to elucidate underlying mechanisms and processes, and to enable skillful predictions of the carbon cycle under alternate scenarios of the future. Augmented observing systems are critical to address knowledge gaps identified in the SOCCR-2 and in this document.

In the US, responsibility for carbon observations does not reside within a single agency. EPA leads the effort to collect and compile data from a number of other departments and agencies and produce an annual inventory of greenhouse gas emissions and sinks as required under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Coordination among agencies making observations to support carbon cycle research occurs primarily via the [USGCRP's Carbon Cycle Science Program](#). In accordance with guidance from Congress, NASA has established a prototype Carbon Monitoring System (CMS). The NASA CMS leverages existing observation programs from across NASA and other agencies, and some individual projects include additional targeted measurements to develop and demonstrate potential new data products and applications.

NACP and NASA CMS have laid the groundwork for a US National Carbon Monitoring System to provide reliable state-of-the-science decision support services to policymakers and diverse stakeholders. A comprehensive and sustained national monitoring effort will require additional high-level coordination and investment across multiple agencies. Guidance from the science community is needed to design an integrated carbon observing system including ground-based, aircraft, ocean, and satellite observations. This could be accomplished through a process similar in scope and influence to the [Decadal Survey for Earth Science and Applications from Space](#). Standardization of methods, automation, and best practices are required to ensure reliable and compatible datastreams nationally and internationally. The observing system should encompass a continuum of effort from research and development to sustained operations with ongoing engagement of academic, private sector, and federal researchers. System design needs to be flexible and adaptable to ensure continuity of long records while also enabling next generation technology to be deployed. It is beyond the scope of this document to present a full plan for

588 national scale carbon monitoring systems, however Chapter 2 highlights some initial steps
589 needed for their design.

590

591 **NACP measurements in the context of a global observing system:**

592 While NACP is aimed at understanding and quantifying the North American carbon cycle,
593 potential feedback cycles involving large and vulnerable carbon reservoirs outside of the NACP
594 domain drive large uncertainties in global and regional climate forecasts. Furthermore, North
595 American regional estimates depend critically on accurate knowledge of the boundary values.
596 For example, detailed knowledge of the deep ocean carbon budget is a critical gap for estimating
597 continental scale fluxes on decadal scales. Careful monitoring and process studies to advance
598 understanding of the *global* carbon cycle are thus urgently needed to support climate policy and
599 mitigation and adaptation efforts by the US and other nations. Sustained and rigorously
600 calibrated measurements are needed to support implementation of UNFCCC efforts such as
601 Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest degradation (REDD+) and the Global
602 Stocktakes in 2023 and 2028 to evaluate Nationally Determined Contributions (NDC) under the
603 Paris Agreement. Coordinated investments in US and global long-term observing networks will
604 support these efforts and lead to improved models of processes driving regional and global
605 carbon-climate feedbacks.

606

607 Several US agencies already contribute to international measurement efforts through programs
608 such as the Committee on Earth Observation Satellites (CEOS), the Group on Earth Observations
609 (GEO), the Global Ocean Observing System (GOOS), and the World Meteorological
610 Organization’s Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW). NASA, NOAA, and USGS are investing
611 heavily in diverse satellite datasets that are generally global in scope. Continued and expanded
612 coordination with international partners is needed, and measurement strategies, products, and
613 analyses that were prototyped under NACP can now be implemented for other regions via
614 international partnerships. WMO GAW has established an [Integrated Greenhouse Gas Observing
615 System](#) (IG³IS) aiming to expand the observational capacity for greenhouse gases, extend it to
616 the regional and urban domains, and develop the information systems and modelling frameworks
617 to provide information about GHG emissions to society. IG³IS is not designed to check
618 compliance with regulations, but rather to provide information on policy- and management-
619 relevant scales and ensure that the information provided is consistent with a global network of
620 high quality observations and models. The [Global Climate Observing System](#) (GCOS) is a
621 framework to coordinate international efforts and promotes sustained, accurate, and freely
622 available observations. GCOS has described measurement requirements for a comprehensive set
623 of Essential Climate Variables (ECVs) that characterize Earth’s climate and has adopted a set of
624 monitoring principles¹. GCOS recommends targeting efforts to sample data-poor regions and
625 regions sensitive to climate, and calls for carefully planned conversion of research observing
626 systems to long-term operations. Expanded US participation in GCOS and other international
627 efforts will improve efforts for validation and characterization of remote sensing datasets needed
628 to ensure global consistency of products across platforms and over time.

629

630 **Current and Planned Observations**

631

¹ Updated ECV measurement requirements are currently under review until 2022.

632 **Sustained Observations**

633 Detection of climate change signals requires measurement records of sufficient duration to
634 characterize other sources of seasonal and interannual variability such as ENSO. Carbon
635 observing networks should be designed to track responses to interannual variability in climate as
636 well as human decision making/management through time. In addition to testing model
637 parameterizations and inventories, the carbon observing system should detect tipping points and
638 potential surprises. Rapidly changing conditions, especially due to warming in the Arctic and
639 increased frequency of major storms, underscore the urgency of establishing a long-term baseline
640 against which to measure future disturbance and to track the efficacy of regional to international
641 emissions reductions efforts.

642
643 The original NACP planning documents (Wofsy and Harris, 2002 and Denning et al., 2005)
644 envisioned a multi-tiered network of terrestrial measurements, including intensive local
645 measurements of carbon stocks and fluxes, with detailed process characterization, forest
646 inventory methods, and remote sensing imagery. An atmospheric observing system consisting of
647 measurements from ground stations, aircraft, ships and buoys was described, and satellite and
648 other remote sensing measurement concepts for atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ were under
649 development. Estimates of hydrologic transfers of carbon over land, transformations in estuaries
650 and sequestration in coastal oceans were lacking, and estimates of transfers between coastal
651 oceans and open oceans were limited due to sparse data and high variability. Interdisciplinary
652 intensive field campaigns were proposed to test and further develop the long-term observing
653 strategy. Some elements of the planned NACP observing system were realized, while others fell
654 short or evolved in unanticipated ways.

655
656 Much progress has been made toward understanding the major components of the North
657 American carbon cycle, and recent best estimates of the carbon budget were synthesized in the
658 SOCCR-2. A primary objective of the North American Carbon Program was to quantify the land
659 sink. We now know that North American land and aquatic ecosystems and adjacent coastal
660 waters remove an amount of carbon equivalent to 30-40% of North American fossil fuel
661 emissions, although large uncertainties remain on some components of the budget, particularly
662 those related to transport of carbon through inland waters, wetlands, and estuaries. The lateral
663 flux between land ecosystems and inland waters is an especially large term with uncertainty
664 greater than 100%. Sedimentation and outgassing from inland waters and estuaries are also
665 poorly constrained by the available data, as is exchange between coastal waters and the open
666 ocean. Estimates of these components are complicated by high variability and the role of
667 extreme events such as erosion associated with storms and flooding. Reliable estimates of net
668 ecosystem flux are available at local scales (<10 km²) from intensive measurements at individual
669 sites, and top-down estimates informed by atmospheric observations provide constraints at the
670 continental scale, but large uncertainties remain on net flux estimates at regional scales (10⁴-10⁶
671 km²) due to the complexity of upscaling from the site level and insufficiently dense atmospheric
672 measurements. The current observing system provides insufficient constraints for tracking
673 regional trends in the North American carbon sink, verification of greenhouse gas emissions
674 reduction efforts, and understanding drivers of interannual and interdecadal variability in
675 strength of the terrestrial ecosystem uptake, including assessment of carbon-climate feedbacks
676 and post-disturbance carbon trajectories or shifts in disturbance regimes.

677

678 Understanding of the mechanisms driving the North American terrestrial sink remains elusive
679 (SOCCR-2 page 349, Section 8.6), and measurements are needed that can distinguish between a
680 potentially short-lived sink due to recovery from past land-use practices (mainly a temperate
681 Northern Hemisphere phenomenon) versus a longer-term sink due to CO₂ fertilization and
682 nitrogen deposition. Sustained observations are needed to illuminate carbon/climate relationships
683 and to monitor both negative (e.g., extended growing seasons and tree-line migration) and
684 positive (e.g., permafrost carbon release, fire, and insect outbreaks) feedbacks. Climate and
685 carbon impacts on ecosystems must also be monitored, including changes in marine ecosystems
686 in response to ocean acidification and changes in species composition and extent of terrestrial
687 ecosystems. Expansion and improved coordination of observing systems is urgently needed to
688 track rapid changes in the Arctic and other vulnerable regions, especially as we approach
689 potential tipping points that could trigger feedbacks such as the release of carbon from melting
690 permafrost.

691
692 Increased data are needed for ongoing assessment of mitigation strategies and/or management of
693 climate impacts. For example, forest carbon datasets are needed at the scale of disturbance and
694 management units to support the design and implementation of effective carbon policy and
695 management aiming to increase carbon sequestration or reduce emissions. Forest carbon offset
696 programs must have reliable verification mechanisms. Many US cities and states have enacted
697 climate adaptation plans that include aggressive greenhouse gas reductions. Reliable datasets are
698 needed to ensure that mitigation efforts are on track to meet ambitious targets.

699
700 Current and planned observational capabilities, major findings and decision support services,
701 gaps and limitations, and anticipated measurements and emerging technologies are described in
702 Appendix A1 (forthcoming in April 2021) as follows:

703
704 **A1.1 Atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄**
705 Measurements of atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ provide an integral constraint for estimating
706 regional surface fluxes and evaluating ecosystem models and inventories using inverse modeling
707 and data assimilation. Major US observing systems include NOAA's Global Greenhouse Gas
708 Reference Network (GGGRN), NSF's National Ecological Observatory Network (NEON), the
709 NASA Orbiting Carbon Observatory - 2/3, and the Total Column Carbon Observing Network.²
710 NASA's planned GeoCarb geostationary mission, planned for launch in 202X) will alternately
711 view the continental US and the Amazon basin and will provide several soundings per day with
712 nearly complete spatial coverage for each region.

713
714 Measurement requirements for estimating regional fluxes are extremely challenging, especially
715 for CO₂, since signatures of surface fluxes are small and are superimposed on a large and highly
716 variable background. Vertical profile measurements extending from the surface through the
717 planetary boundary layer and well into the free troposphere are especially useful for separating
718 local and far-field influences and for diagnosing errors in simulated atmospheric transport that
719 can lead to biased flux estimates. Total column measurements from satellites can potentially
720 provide comprehensive coverage during daylight cloud-free conditions³, but they are relatively

² Urban and point-source monitoring efforts are included in Appendix A1.2 Anthropogenic Emissions.

³ Future satellite sensors using lasers as a light source may provide daytime and nighttime observations.

721 insensitive to regional surface fluxes and are subject to systematic biases in retrievals that can
722 overwhelm surface flux signatures. The US lacks a long-term strategy for coordinated in situ and
723 satellite measurements of atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄.

724

725 **A1.2 Anthropogenic Emissions**

726 In the US, national total emissions and removals are reported by the EPA in its annual
727 Greenhouse Gas Inventory. Anthropogenic emissions include a fossil component (e.g., emissions
728 from extraction and use of fossil fuels), and a biological component (e.g., emissions from
729 livestock and land use, including agriculture). In greenhouse gas inventories or emissions models
730 of anthropogenic fluxes, fluxes are typically estimated by applying emission factors to activity
731 data or by more complex process modeling. Emissions of greenhouse gases are often directly
732 reported by individual operators to either state or federal entities, for example to EPA's
733 [Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program](#) (GHGRP). Electricity generation facilities (power plants)
734 also report emissions measured using Continuous Emissions Monitoring Systems (CEMS) to the
735 EPA Clean Air Markets Division. EPA emissions inventories for UNFCCC reporting lack the
736 spatial and temporal resolution needed for data assimilation and inverse modeling studies. Some
737 emissions models down-scale national-level estimates in space and time using proxy data (e.g.,
738 population, traffic counts, or night-lights) or models of temporal and spatial variability. Research
739 products with high spatial resolution have been developed for CO₂ (e.g., Oda et al., 2018;
740 Gurney et al., 2020) and CH₄ (Maasakkers et al., 2016) where the CO₂ products also represent
741 temporal variability. Transitioning these research products to operational data services is
742 necessary to meet stakeholder needs, to enable evaluation of inventories using atmospheric
743 measurements, and to support data assimilation and inverse modeling studies.

744

745 Methods to use atmospheric measurements to quantify anthropogenic emissions are an active
746 area of research. Prototype urban atmospheric greenhouse gas measurement networks have been
747 deployed in several cities, and state agencies in California and New York have explored the
748 potential of using atmospheric monitoring to estimate state-level emissions. Measurements of
749 radiocarbon in atmospheric CO₂ provide independent estimates of fossil fuel emissions for
750 evaluating inventories and could be expanded to track regional and national trends. New and
751 upcoming satellite sensors have been optimized to map plumes from large point sources and
752 urban areas are expected to greatly improve emissions inventories, especially for CH₄. Private
753 companies such as [GHGSat](#) and non-governmental organizations like the Environmental Defense
754 fund, which is developing [MethaneSAT](#), have taken a leading role in developing new approaches
755 for tracking anthropogenic emissions from space.

756

757 **A1.3 Terrestrial Ecosystem Stocks**

758 Terrestrial ecosystem carbon stocks are estimated using inventory methods augmented by remote
759 sensing data. The USDA Forest Service Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) Program provides
760 information needed to assess the status and trends of forest land in the US and to project how
761 forests are likely to change over the next 10-50 years. The National Forest Inventory (NFI)
762 includes permanent sample plots distributed approximately every 2400 hectares across all land
763 uses and ownerships in the US. The Forest Service is working with other US government
764 agencies and research institutions to leverage all NFI data from annual and periodic inventories
765 with auxiliary information (i.e., remotely sensed data) to improve the spatial and temporal
766 resolution of estimates. Estimates of soil organic carbon stocks have relied on digital soil

767 geographic databases such as the Soil Survey Geographic (SSURGO) Database and the U.S.
768 General Soil Map STATSGO2 that are produced by the USDA Natural Resources Conservation
769 Service (NRCS). The USDA NRCS conducts the Natural Resources Inventory (NRI), a
770 statistical survey of land use and natural resource conditions and trends on U.S. non-Federal
771 lands, including detailed data on soil properties. The USDA NRCS Soil Science Division
772 conducted a separate Rapid Carbon Assessment (RaCA) project during 2010-2013 that was
773 designed to provide a snapshot of the organic carbon content of soils across CONUS for different
774 types of soils and land uses. No permanent soil carbon monitoring network has been established
775 despite the potential for improved national inventories and to quantify the impacts of
776 management practices. Efforts to sequester carbon in soils through land management practices
777 would benefit from improved datasets to enable tracking of changes in SOC resulting from land
778 management practices or climate change.

779
780 Many components of vegetation and ecosystem structure can be measured using remote sensing
781 technologies. Multi-spectral sensors such as Landsat can distinguish among land cover types
782 such as forest, grassland, cropland, and urban with relatively high spatial resolution. Satellite
783 datasets products have been developed for tracking burned area and other types of ecosystem
784 disturbance. Hyperspectral sensors collect and transmit all wavelengths of radiation from visible
785 to short wavelength infrared along with selected thermal-infrared wavelengths and can provide
786 more detailed information about vegetation traits than is available from current satellite
787 multispectral sensors. The National Academies report, *Thriving on Our Changing Planet, A*
788 *Decadal Strategy for Earth Observation from Space* (2018) recommends a “Surface Biology and
789 *Geology”* mission to provide additional detailed spaceborne measurements of vegetation traits,
790 and candidate measurement approaches include hyperspectral imaging. Lidar sensors measure
791 reflected light from lasers to provide unique information on canopy height and other vegetation
792 structural parameters. The Global Ecosystem Dynamics Investigation (GEDI) is a vegetation
793 lidar on the International Space Station that aims to quantify the distribution of aboveground
794 carbon stored in vegetation, the effects of vegetation disturbance and recovery on carbon storage,
795 the potential for existing and new/regrowing forests to sequester carbon in the future, and the
796 spatial and temporal distribution of habitat structure and its influence on habitat quality and
797 biodiversity. Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) sensors also provide information about vegetation
798 structure but with the capability of wall-to-wall mapping and almost all weather and day/night
799 imaging capability. The NASA-ISRO Synthetic Aperture Radar (NISAR) mission is a joint
800 effort by NASA and the Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO) nominally scheduled for
801 launch in 2022. The National Academies report, *Thriving on Our Changing Planet, A Decadal*
802 *Strategy for Earth Observation from Space* (2018) recommends a “Surface Biology and
803 *Geology”* mission to provide additional detailed spaceborne measurements of vegetation traits,
804 and candidate measurement approaches include hyperspectral imaging.

805 806 **A1.4 Terrestrial Ecosystem Fluxes and Drivers**

807 Terrestrial ecosystem fluxes can be derived from changes in stocks as indicated by inventories
808 and other data products or by direct observations. The USDA Forest Service is responsible for
809 reporting nationally and internationally on greenhouse gas emissions and removals from forest
810 land, woodlands, urban trees in settlements, and harvested wood products as part of the
811 Environmental Protection Agency Greenhouse Gas Inventory which is prepared each year as part
812 of the US commitment to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. All

813 forest and non-forest plots from the NFI are used in the compilation of annual carbon stock and
814 stock change estimates for 5 ecosystem carbon pools -- aboveground biomass (live trees and
815 understory vegetation), belowground biomass (live trees and understory), dead wood (standing
816 dead and downed dead wood), litter, and soil (mineral and organic) carbon -- for forest land
817 remaining forest land and land conversions to and from forest land.
818

819 In-situ flux observations provide a critical benchmark for detecting trends and changes in the
820 terrestrial carbon sink at the ecosystem scale, which is a primary evaluation method for Earth
821 system models. Eddy covariance flux towers measure instantaneous fluxes of CO₂, H₂O, and
822 energy and provide unique insight into crucial linkages between terrestrial ecosystem processes
823 and climate-relevant responses. A key challenge in their application lies in upscaling and fusion
824 with other data sources to generate regional to continental flux data products. Major US long-
825 term observing systems include AmeriFlux (DOE), and the National Ecological Observatory
826 Network (NSF), Critical Zone Observatories (NSF), the Long Term Ecological Research sites
827 (NSF), and smaller networks from USGS, USDA, and other agencies. Changes in SOC are
828 generally based on assessments of stocks and some metric of turnover, residence, or transit time.
829 The enriched atmospheric ¹⁴C signal (“bomb C”) has also been used to estimate soil SOC
830 turnover timescales Soil-to-atmosphere CO₂ flux (soil respiration or R_S) has been measured
831 extensively and provides unique information about terrestrial carbon dynamics at fine temporal
832 and spatial resolution.
833

834 Satellite sensors can provide detailed “wall-to-wall” imagery used to infer key variables such as
835 land cover, vegetation state, productivity, and disturbance history, including burned areas, insect
836 mortality, and storm damage. Satellite optical imagery has provided sustained observations of
837 simple metrics such as the normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) and enhanced
838 vegetation index (EVI). Consistent time series are available from the Advanced Very High
839 Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) and the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MODIS)
840 from 1981-present. An NDVI time series has also been developed from Landsat. Satellite indices
841 such as NDVI essentially detect the presence of live green vegetation and can be used to estimate
842 the vegetation canopy extent and the fraction of photosynthetically active radiation absorbed by
843 vegetation (fPAR) over broad spatial scales. Satellite optical imagery thus provides important
844 spatial and temporal constraints on estimates of carbon uptake via gross and net primary
845 production in process models. Satellite datasets products have been developed for tracking
846 burned area and other types of ecosystem disturbance. The Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity
847 (MTBS) program aims to consistently map the burn severity and fire extent across the US from
848 1984 to present using Landsat data. The Global Fire Emissions Database combines satellite
849 information from MODIS burned area maps with active fire data from the Tropical Rainfall
850 Measuring Mission (TRMM) Visible and Infrared Scanner (VIRS) and the Along-Track
851 Scanning Radiometer (ATSR) along with vegetation productivity to estimate gridded monthly
852 burned area and fire emissions of carbon and other species.
853

854 Satellite imagery has been used to estimate terrestrial ecosystem fluxes such as the MODIS
855 Gross Primary Productivity and Net Primary Productivity. A relatively recent innovation is the
856 measurement of the emission of fluorescence from the chlorophyll of assimilating leaves; part of
857 the energy absorbed by chlorophyll cannot be used for carbon fixation and is reemitted as
858 fluorescence at longer wavelengths than the absorbed solar radiation. Global maps of solar-

859 induced fluorescence (SiF) are available from GOSAT, GOME-2, OCO-2 and OCO-3. These are
860 products of opportunity, since these sensors were not originally designed to measure chlorophyll
861 fluorescence. The ECOSystem Spaceborne Thermal Radiometer Experiment on Space Station
862 (ECOSTRESS) measures the temperature of plants in order to better understand how much water
863 plants need and how they respond to stress. ECOSTRESS was deployed to the ISS in July 2018
864 and addresses questions about how the terrestrial biosphere responds to changes in water
865 availability and agricultural vulnerability to drought.

866
867 Satellite measurements of vegetation properties are complemented by ground based and aircraft
868 remote sensing. For example, the PhenoCam network provides near-surface remote sensing of
869 canopy phenology at many sites across the globe. Most sites are co-located with eddy
870 covariance flux towers, and the data are being used to evaluate the implications of seasonal
871 changes in canopy state for ecosystem function.

872

873 **A1.5 Inland Waters and Terrestrial Wetlands**

874 PLACEHOLDER FOR OVERVIEW PARAGRAPH

875

876 **A1.6 Coastal Margins**

877 PLACEHOLDER FOR OVERVIEW PARAGRAPH

878

879

880 PLACEHOLDER FOR SHORT SECTION ABOUT ANCILLARY MEASUREMENTS

881 ● Meteorological measurements to improve atmospheric transport simulations and reduce
882 uncertainty of top-down estimates

883 ● Soil moisture

884 ● Geologic information to measure subsurface hydrology

885 ● etc

886

887 **Intensive Measurements and Manipulative Experiments**

888

889 Intensive measurements and focused sampling campaigns enable detailed process studies to
890 support mechanistic modeling, to test new technologies and measurement strategies, to prototype
891 data collection and analysis frameworks, and to quantify uncertainties of products and analysis
892 derived from sustained observations. Intensive measurements can serve as a testbed for new
893 sustained observations, e.g. to optimize the sampling strategy and to demonstrate the value of
894 new technologies and emerging capabilities. Intensive sampling campaigns are often leveraged
895 or designed to provide critical validation data for remotely sensed observations or other types of
896 new data (e.g. ocean pCO₂ from biogeochemical Argo floats equipped with pH). Conversely,
897 sustained observations provide spatial and temporal context for intensive studies to the extent
898 that calibration and validation ensures that measurements are compatible.

899

900 A series of coordinated multidisciplinary intensive experiments were anticipated to test NACP
901 experimental concepts and to advance process understanding. One such experiment, the [NACP](#)
902 [Mid-Continent Intensive](#) was selected from a multi-agency call for proposals, with the objective
903 of developing robust methodology to reconcile top-down and bottom-up carbon flux estimates
904 for a region with large fluxes due to agriculture and relatively simple terrain. Despite the success

905 of that activity, there have been no subsequent multi-agency sponsored intensives explicitly
906 focused on further developing top-down versus bottom-up methodology in the context of the
907 NACP. However, many Agencies have supported intensive sampling programs that are aligned
908 with and informed by NACP objectives. Here we provide an overview of intensive experiments
909 with strong links to NACP. More detailed information is provided in Appendix A2 (forthcoming
910 in April 2021).

911
912 Errors in simulated atmospheric transport are a primary driver of uncertainty in top-down
913 estimates of surface carbon fluxes. The NASA sponsored [Atmospheric Carbon Transport -](#)
914 [America](#) (ACT-America) experiment included five airborne campaigns across three regions in
915 the eastern United States and addressed three primary sources of uncertainty in estimating CO₂
916 and CH₄ sources and sinks from atmospheric measurements - transport error, prior flux
917 uncertainty, and limited data density. The NSF-led [Chequamegon Heterogeneous Ecosystem](#)
918 [Energy-balance Study Enabled by a High-density Extensive Array of Detectors](#)
919 (CHEESEHEAD) was designed to investigate the role of atmospheric boundary-layer responses
920 to scales of spatial heterogeneity in surface-atmosphere heat and water exchanges using a diverse
921 suite of state of the science technology and models. CHEESEHEAD focused on the long-running
922 tall tower measurement site in Park Falls, Wisconsin, that hosts AmeriFlux, NOAA GGGRN,
923 and TCCON observations.

924
925 Arctic observations are extremely challenging due to the inaccessibility and remoteness of
926 candidate sampling locations. Satellite observations that measure reflected sunlight are limited
927 due to darkness for much of the year. SOCCR-2 identified the following key uncertainties as to
928 the future of carbon storage in Arctic and boreal regions: the extent to which plant community
929 productivity will respond to elevated CO₂, whether landscapes will become wetter or drier in the
930 future, the magnitude of winter fluxes, and the extent of the permafrost carbon feedback.
931 Research programs have addressed the critical need for Arctic observations through intensive
932 efforts such as NASA's [Arctic Boreal Vulnerability Experiment](#) (ABoVE), and DOE's [Next](#)
933 [Generation Ecosystem Experiment -Arctic](#).

934
935 Urban experiments have emerged as a focal point for NACP Agencies and researchers seeking to
936 address decision-maker needs and to better understand drivers of emissions in cities as well as
937 urban ecosystem fluxes. US cities with extensive GHG measurement programs include
938 Indianapolis, Salt Lake City, Los Angeles, Baltimore/Washington DC, Boston and San
939 Francisco. Major sampling efforts are also underway in Mexico City and Toronto. Urban
940 ecosystems may differ substantially from surrounding regions and can either partially offset or
941 enhance GHG emissions. Targeted aircraft sampling to measure atmospheric emissions, such as
942 during the East Coast Outflow (ECO, Plant et al., 2019) and the follow-on ECO COVID-19
943 experiments measured plumes downwind of urban centers along the US East Coast to estimate
944 emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and CO during Spring 2018 and 2020, respectively. Notably, they
945 found evidence of large fugitive CH₄ emissions and estimated total emissions more than double
946 EPA inventory estimates. ECO COVID-19 revisited the region to assess the impact of
947 coronavirus responses on air quality and greenhouse gas emissions.

948
949 Intensive atmospheric observations have played a major role in quantifying emissions from oil
950 and gas production and from coal mining. Flights downwind of major production regions have

951 shown widely varying and frequently larger than reported emissions (e.g. Peischl et al., 2018
952 Smith et al., 2015; Barkley et al., 2019; Petron et al., 2020). Aircraft measurements have also
953 been used to quantify emissions from catastrophic leaks such as from the Deep Water Horizon
954 oil spill (Ryerson et al., 2012) and Aliso Canyon (Conley et al., 2015). Importantly, the US
955 currently lacks a national rapid-response aircraft capability that can be quickly mobilized in the
956 event of a disaster. State agencies such as the California Air Resources Board and non-
957 governmental organizations such as the Environmental Defense Fund have played a key role in
958 organizing and sponsoring intensive experiments. A growing number of private sector companies
959 are emerging to meet government and stakeholder needs for reliable emissions estimation.

960

961 PLACEHOLDER FOR TERRESTRIAL/COASTAL INTENSIVES.

- 962 ● Intensive data collection sponsored by NASA CMS (e.g. lidar for regional/state level
963 biomass)
- 964 ● Coastal ocean intensives: EXPORTS
- 965 ● Other?

966

967 **Manipulative Experiments**

968

969 PLACEHOLDER FOR FACE EXPERIMENTS.

970 PLACEHOLDER FOR NGEE-SPRUCE.

971 PLACEHOLDER FOR SOIL EXPERIMENTS.

972 OTHER?

973

974

975 **Chapter 3.1 Key Priorities**

976

- 977 ● **Establishment of an interagency National Carbon Monitoring System.** Many
978 prototype data products and services have been developed and successfully demonstrated
979 under NACP and the NASA Carbon Monitoring System. A concerted effort is needed to
980 transition products and services from the research realm to sustained operations with
981 routine updates, while also supporting further development and improvements. Long-
982 term support for the observational network must be secured and additional interagency
983 coordination will be required with mechanisms to support ongoing input from
984 stakeholders and the research community.
- 985
- 986 ● **Strategic investments to further develop and expand in situ measurements to**
987 **address critical gaps in the current carbon observing system.** Many key variables
988 simply cannot be measured from space, while others can be measured but stability and
989 resolution are inadequate. Validation data are needed that will serve a variety of emerging
990 satellite measurement concepts and provide firm linkages across missions to enable
991 confident interpretation of variability and long-term trends.
 - 992 ○ Greatly expanded vertical profile measurements of atmospheric CO₂, CH₄, and
993 CO are urgently needed to reduce uncertainties in top-down flux estimates and to
994 correct systematic errors in current and future satellite data products that are
995 comparable to or even larger than the signals of surface fluxes. Commercial

- 996 aircraft are a promising platform for increasing the frequency of profiles by an
997 order of magnitude.
- 998 ○ No permanent soil carbon monitoring network has been established despite the
999 potential for improved national inventories and to quantify the impacts of
1000 management practices. Efforts to sequester carbon in soils through land
1001 management practices would benefit from improved datasets to enable tracking of
1002 changes in SOC resulting from land management practices or climate change.
 - 1003 ○ A rapid-response aircraft capability including state of the science multi-species in
1004 situ measurements and remote sensing is needed so that emissions resulting from
1005 catastrophic leaks or natural disasters can be rigorously investigated and
1006 quantified.
 - 1007 ○ PLACEHOLDER FOR OTHER KINDS OF OBSERVATIONS (ground-truth for
1008 lidar/radar estimates of biomass, ocean biogeochemical properties, etc.)
1009
- 1010 ● **Guidance from the science community to design an integrated and sustained carbon
1011 observing system including diverse ground-based, aircraft, ocean, and satellite
1012 observations with careful consideration of long-term costs, risks, and information
1013 content.** This could be accomplished by an activity similar in scope and process to the
1014 Decadal Survey for Earth Science and Applications from Space.
 - 1015 ○ The observing system should be sufficient to rapidly detect potential surprises in
1016 ecosystem and ocean fluxes that might result from tipping points or thresholds
1017 that are poorly represented or missing in current process models (e.g. faster than
1018 anticipated release of CO₂ and/or CH₄ from permafrost degradation).
 - 1019 ○ Rigorous Observing System Simulation Experiments are needed to evaluate
1020 potential future combinations of diverse in situ and remote sensing observations
1021 and novel platforms. Particular attention is needed to define an optimal strategy
1022 for reliable detection and correction of systematic errors in models and in satellite
1023 data products.
 - 1024 ○ Recommendations should include pathways for continuously incorporating new
1025 technologies while also ensuring continuity of long records.
1026
 - 1027 ● **Routinely updated, high resolution, national and global gridded estimates of
1028 anthropogenic emissions and ecosystem fluxes for CO₂ and CH₄.** Data products that
1029 accurately represent diurnal and day-to-day variability are needed to enable rigorous
1030 evaluation of process models and inventories using atmospheric measurements.
 - 1031 ○ Global inventory products such as ODIAC and EDGAR, are updated on a semi-
1032 regular basis, but are still managed largely by small research groups. US gridded
1033 national inventories have been developed under NACP (e.g. Vulcan, ACES).
1034 There is a continued need for a concerted effort to routinely produce gridded
1035 inventories for both gases that are updated along with the national reporting.
 - 1036 ○ Routinely updated, high spatial and temporal resolution terrestrial ecosystem flux
1037 estimates with realistic phenology, separate estimation of autotrophic and
1038 heterotrophic respiration and fire emissions, accurate representation of forest,
1039 grassland, agricultural, wetland, and urban ecosystem fluxes, and well-
1040 characterized uncertainties and error covariances are needed for atmospheric data

1041 assimilation systems. Placeholder for examples of promising products that could
1042 be transitioned from R&D to routine operations.

- 1043
- 1044 ● **New coordinated intensive measurement activities to address key uncertainties**
- 1045 **identified in SOCCR-2.** A solicitation for whitepapers proposing new NACP intensive
- 1046 measurement campaigns is suggested.
 - 1047 ○ Intensive measurement programs to develop reliable protocols for comprehensive
 - 1048 tracking carbon transport through inland waters, wetlands, and estuaries are
 - 1049 needed to address large remaining uncertainties in the North American carbon
 - 1050 budget and to reconcile top-down and bottom-up ecosystem flux estimates.
 - 1051 ○ PLACEHOLDER FOR ADDITIONAL INTENSIVE CAMPAIGN
 - 1052 SUGGESTIONS.
 - 1053

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Ch 3.2: Integration, Synthesis, and Assessment

Lead Author: Eric T. Sundquist; **Contributing Authors:** Arlyn Andrews, Molly Brown, Kenneth J. Davis, Forrest M. Hoffman, Benjamin Poulter, Christopher A. Williams

3.2.1 Introduction

The integration of diverse information, the synthesis of general insights, and the assessment of important implications are intrinsic to the North American Carbon Program. [footnote here, or perhaps for section title: In scientific planning, the terms “synthesis” and “assessment” are often confused. In this report, “synthesis” refers to the compilation and communication of information, while “assessment” refers to the evaluation of information quality, needs, and implications. For the NACP, both synthesis and assessment rely inherently on the integration of diverse information and perspectives.] The program requires a portfolio of multidisciplinary expertise from the natural sciences and socioeconomic disciplines. This expertise is applied across a broad span of spatial and temporal scales, including the long-term global context of interactions between carbon cycling and climate change. Measurements are needed from space-based and airborne platforms; from in situ sensors deployed in air-, ground-, and water-based instruments; and from laboratory analysis of samples representing the vast heterogeneity of materials and organisms that comprise the carbon cycle. Scientists acquire these measurements using combinations of remote data downloads, hands-on field expeditions, and advanced analytical procedures. Demographic and economic records are analyzed for features and trends that often involve innovative combinations of data. Mathematical analysis includes cutting-edge data assimilation and processing, advanced geostatistical methods, and computer simulations of carbon-cycle processes ranging from local and regional interactions to fully coupled Earth system models.

Since its inception, the NACP has focused on the mass balance of carbon as a central integrating concept and tool. The physical mass balance of carbon serves as a quantitative constraint that can be applied to diverse observations and models. Mass balance assessments require resolution of dissimilarities in the demarcations of carbon stores and fluxes defined in different studies and disciplines. Attention to these dissimilarities is important not only to the integration of information across different scientific and socioeconomic disciplines, but also (and especially) to the consistent application of mass-balance constraints across economic sectors, governmental jurisdictions, and other “data domains” that characterize data associated with human activities. [sectors, regions, ecosystems, boundaries] While carbon mass balance calculations continue to be a critical integrating physical constraint, related concepts such as “carbon footprint” and the “carbon (or CO₂) budget” have extended to broader scientific and societal concerns regarding human interactions within the carbon cycle. Within this broader scope of interests, mass balance calculations are increasingly recognized as one tool among many integrating perspectives and needs.

1133 The integration of diverse information is needed not only to address the multifaceted scientific
1134 goals of the NACP, but also to improve the communication of technical findings to non-
1135 specialists who need to understand the cycling of carbon in ways that are relevant to particular
1136 societal interests and concerns. The rapidly growing need for integrated public information
1137 poses significant challenges to the communication skills of NACP experts. At the same time, this
1138 challenge offers significant potential benefits for improvement of communication and
1139 understanding among the diverse academic and professional participants in the program.

1140
1141 The importance of integrated understanding and assessment to the North American Carbon
1142 Program is evident in the extent to which all of the sections of this NSIP describe plans for
1143 integration of observations, models, data analysis, and synthesis and assessment. The focus of
1144 this section is on identification of broad needs for integration and assessment across the program
1145 as a whole. The section first describes several general integration needs that are ongoing and
1146 emerging in current research and public interests. The section then highlights particular
1147 challenges and difficulties in the implementation of integration and assessment activities.
1148 Finally, several specific activities are suggested to address the integration and assessment needs
1149 of the NACP in the next few years.

1150

1151

1152 **3.2.2 Ongoing and emerging implementation needs**

1153

1154 NACP requires near-term efforts to improve integration of data, models, and analyses of
1155 uncertainties; as well as pragmatic commitment to synthesis and assessment activities. The
1156 implementation needs described below are focused on issues that cut across diverse interests of
1157 the NACP community. Specific needs for data collection, modeling, and research are addressed
1158 in other sections of the NSIP.

1159 [*Note for comment and review:* The paragraphs below are intended to summarize both ongoing
1160 and emerging needs for data integration, model integration, integration of uncertainty analyses,
1161 and synthesis and assessment. Distinctions between “ongoing” and “emerging” are necessarily
1162 vague. In this draft, emerging needs are listed only in outline form, to accommodate changes
1163 that may be necessary to reflect recent developments. Suggestions are welcome.]

1164

1165 a. Data integration

1166

1167 The importance of integrating diverse datasets is evident in the wide array of observational
1168 domains, ecosystems, and human activities represented by the topical chapters of the SOCCR2.
1169 The challenges of data integration are well illustrated by the difficulties of merging the diverse
1170 data sources that are necessary to characterize the transfers of carbon to and from the land
1171 surface. Information concerning energy commerce and technology is used to estimate trends in
1172 the distribution and nature of fossil fuel emissions. These estimates of emissions are combined
1173 with measurements of atmospheric chemistry and transport to infer (via inversion computations)
1174 the distribution of both fossil and generalized non-fossil CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes at the land surface.
1175 Inventories and surveys concerning land use and technology are used to estimate the more
1176 specific partitioning of land surface fluxes across areas ranging from cities to forests, croplands,
1177 and tribal lands.

1178

1179 When applied to the overall mass balance of CO₂ exchange, these vastly different data sources
1180 have long yielded a stubborn divergence between inversions from atmospheric measurements
1181 (“top-down” estimates) and calculations from ground-based inventories and surveys (“bottom-
1182 up” estimates). The significance of this difference is difficult to resolve, due to uncertainties in
1183 the divergent estimates. The emerging availability of space-based CO₂ measurements may
1184 contribute to analysis of this problem by integration of frequent spectral measurements from
1185 multiple platforms and sensors. The synthesis provided by the SOCCR2 suggests possible
1186 progress from new understanding of the role played by lateral fluxes of carbon transported by
1187 water through and across soils, wetlands, and aquatic and coastal environments. Datasets that
1188 characterize these lateral fluxes — which are not readily observable from space — are emerging
1189 as an important component of “bottom-up” mass-balance estimates. These additional data
1190 sources add to the challenge of data integration for many components of the NACP.

1191

1192 *Emerging data integration needs:*

1193 i. Need for improved understanding of relationships among diverse data (“My carbon is your
1194 carbon”)

1195 1. Across domains (ecosystems, geographic systems, human systems)

1196 2. Across temporal and spatial scales

1197 3. A growing array of data sources and needs are emerging from groups and institutions
1198 concerned with developing and applying standardized protocols for assessment and
1199 monitoring of carbon storage and emissions of greenhouse gases. [carbon management,
1200 mitigation protocols, economic- and social-sector-based, production-based vs.
1201 Consumption-based, MRV]

1202 ii. Rapid improvements in capabilities for data management to improve transparency,
1203 accessibility, utility

1204

1205 b. Model integration

1206

1207 Mathematical models are powerful integrative tools in carbon-cycle research, as they are
1208 constructed to organize many forms of knowledge within defined quantitative constraints. The
1209 integration of information from these models has become increasingly difficult, as their variety
1210 and complexity mirror the growing range of relevant knowledge and needs. Many of the
1211 NACP’s fundamental advances and challenges are reflected in its evolving contributions to
1212 terrestrial carbon-cycle model development and analysis. Models are expanding to include more
1213 detailed portrayals of more diverse processes that affect carbon stores and fluxes. Examples
1214 include efforts to improve representations of vegetation demography and structure; soil
1215 hydrology and biology; impacts of wildfire, pests, and disease; and interactions among the
1216 biogeochemical cycles of carbon, water and nutrients.

1217

1218 One of the most important recent developments in carbon-cycle research is the incorporation of
1219 terrestrial carbon models as dynamic components embedded within Earth system models. This is
1220 a dramatic leap in both model integration and complexity, as the range of simulated interactions
1221 is extended to the fully coupled land-ocean-atmosphere-ice system at global scale. Global
1222 simulations are an essential prerequisite for understanding and anticipating many critical carbon-
1223 climate feedbacks in North America and other regions. Results from Earth system models

1224 provide an emerging list of important regional carbon-cycle impacts associated with global
1225 changes in atmospheric, oceanic, and cryospheric processes.

1226
1227 In carbon-cycle models at both global and regional scales, effects of human land use and
1228 emissions are typically prescribed as external model boundary conditions based on historical data
1229 or predictive scenarios. Innovations are ongoing to represent dynamic interactions affecting
1230 managed lands in ways that are more consistent with model treatments of natural ecosystems.
1231 These developments have potential to integrate modeling for research purposes with applications
1232 for the growing array of resource managers and others who are concerned about carbon cycling
1233 as a vital component of many land, water, and ecosystem resources.

1234
1235 Intercomparisons among models have provided understanding of differences and similarities
1236 among model results, with increasing emphasis on diagnosis of specific sources of differences
1237 and uncertainties (e.g., TransCom, MsTMIP, other MIPs, C-Lamp, ILAMB).

1238
1239 *Emerging model integration needs:*

- 1240 i. Improved diagnostic and comparison methods and approaches to address increasing model
1241 complexity
- 1242 ii. Overarching issues:
- 1243 1. Continuity and consistency across multiple spatial and temporal scales
 - 1244 2. Hindcasts: Can socio-economic models be subjected to hindcast testing? If not, this is a
1245 fundamental divergence in modeling “cultures” of physical vs socio-economic communities
 - 1246 3. Need for balance of interests in convergence of modeling efforts
 - 1247 a. “representative” or “average” may not be best for many specific applications
 - 1248 b. need for balance between innovations and consensus
 - 1249 4. Model hierarchies – e.g., space, time scales - but also need for simplified versions for
1250 access, transparency, ensembles and integrated assessments

1251
1252 c. Integration of uncertainty estimates and their implications

1253
1254 The challenges of integrating data and models include a rapidly growing need for analyses and
1255 comparisons of uncertainties across the full range of NACP activities. Improved spatial and
1256 temporal data coverage has reduced uncertainties in estimates of carbon fluxes (e.g., combustion
1257 emissions) and stores (e.g., wetland soils). The analysis of mass balance constraints has
1258 highlighted the importance of comparing probability distributions across diverse datasets (e.g.,
1259 top-down vs. bottom up fluxes) and models (e.g., atmospheric inversions and dynamic vegetation
1260 models). Empirical statistical methods are increasingly important through their application to
1261 understanding uncertainties in data assimilation and model ensembles. Where fully quantitative
1262 measures of uncertainty are not feasible (e.g., in comparing results attributed to different model
1263 structures), estimates based on expert judgement remain an essential interpretive tool.

1264
1265
1266 *Emerging needs for integration of uncertainty analyses:*

1267 While improvements in uncertainty analysis are ongoing throughout virtually every aspect of the
1268 NACP, several overarching issues are emerging that require attention beyond the continuing
1269 refinement of uncertainty estimates for particular datasets and models.

- 1270 1. Implementation of MRV standards across diverse data and models (improved and
1271 consistent probabilistic methods and analyses)
1272 2. Trade-offs between increasing model complexity and measurable improvement of model
1273 reliability
1274 3. Multi-scalar statistical metrics are needed, including analysis of error propagation across
1275 time and space.
1276 4. Uncertainties in carbon fluxes and storage are viewed within a context of broader
1277 economic and social value/risk assessments
1278

1279 d. Synthesis and assessment
1280

1281 The recent publication of the Second State of the Carbon Cycle Report (SOCCR2; USGCRP
1282 2018) has provided a comprehensive and authoritative synthesis and assessment of the state of
1283 knowledge regarding the carbon cycle in North America. The report was prepared under the
1284 auspices of the U.S. Global Change Research Program and contributed to the congressionally
1285 mandated Fourth National Climate Assessment. Hundreds of scientists were involved as authors
1286 or technical reviewers, with final expert review by a committee of the National Academies of
1287 Science, Engineering, and Medicine. Broad input was also incorporated through a public review
1288 process, and through ongoing support and final approval by multiple Federal agencies. The
1289 information provided by the SOCCR2 is highly valued by both experts and non-experts.
1290 However, like the first SOCCR (CCSP 2007; King et al. 2007), such a massive endeavor cannot
1291 be repeated often due to the time and effort involved. While the SOCCR2 provides essential
1292 guidance for current scientific planning, one of the challenges facing the NACP is the need for
1293 more frequent assessment updates to provide information about ongoing new developments.
1294

1295 Topical syntheses and assessments have contributed valuable knowledge and understanding of
1296 research needs in areas of particular NACP interest. Syntheses and assessments focused on
1297 specific ecotypes (e.g., CCARS, Blue Carbon, urban carbon) and geographic areas (e.g.,
1298 RECCAP, MCI, ABoVe) have demonstrated the value of such activities by not only
1299 summarizing current information for the broader scientific community, but also clarifying NACP
1300 research needs that often extend beyond narrow topical perspectives. Similarly, site-level
1301 monitoring and research activities are increasingly leveraged through coordinated programs that
1302 require standardized methods for broader synthesis, including increasing emphasis on links
1303 between ground-based and remotely-sensed observations (e.g., FACE, NEON [other
1304 examples?]). Focused syntheses and assessments have addressed important methodological
1305 needs (e.g., ... [need examples, perhaps from FACE, NEON, OCO?]) and modeling issues (e.g.,
1306 the model inter-comparisons summarized above). Topical coordination has also drawn together
1307 communities of interest in research on carbon-cycling identified with specific human systems
1308 (e.g., energy, urban, agriculture), yielding syntheses and assessments of information of particular
1309 interest to stakeholders as well as NACP scientists (e.g., ... [need specific examples here]).
1310

1311 *Emerging synthesis and assessment needs:*

- 1312 1. Community support for continuing system-level syntheses; e.g., wetlands, others TBD
1313 2. Although SOCCR3 probably not needed in this NSIP time horizon (see above), need new
1314 formats for regular timely scientific community-based assessments

1315 3. Increasing need for improved public outreach that provides timely information in
1316 accessible formats

1319 **3.2.3 Implementation challenges**

1320
1321 Needs and opportunities for integration, synthesis, and assessment follow the evolving science
1322 and information needs and interests. These program-wide activities are not necessarily at the
1323 “cutting edge” of process-based research, but they often provide essential and/or breakthrough
1324 constraints and feedback concerning research and outreach needs. To maximize the benefits of
1325 integration, synthesis, and assessment, several challenges must be addressed. The changing and
1326 increasing need for timely and relevant information must be weighed against the exhaustive
1327 efforts and timelines of recent and past syntheses and assessments.

1328
1329 In particular, the information needs of stakeholders (both public and private-sector) are changing
1330 and becoming more urgent. Stakeholders are increasingly outspoken about the need for
1331 integrated synthesis and assessments that are relevant to policies and management decisions.
1332 Unfortunately, the exhaustive efforts often required for scientific integration, synthesis, and
1333 assessment do not necessarily extend (“translate”) to timely and effective communication of the
1334 information needed by stakeholders. As stakeholders develop sources of information and
1335 analysis to meet their needs, there is a growing risk of interest-based divergence among
1336 applications that would benefit from broader perspectives.

1337
1338 Integration, synthesis, and assessment activities are often difficult to develop and carry out.
1339 They require dedicated funding and community commitments that may limit resources available
1340 for more narrowly defined research. Integration, synthesis, and assessment require a very high
1341 “overhead” cost to develop and maintain the necessary collaborative and organizational
1342 arrangements. Recent and past endeavors have required long timelines from plans to products.
1343 These difficulties of time, effort, and overhead are disincentives for individual involvement,
1344 especially for younger scientists.

1347 **3.2.4 Proposed implementation activities**

1348
1349 This plan cannot anticipate the full range of integrative opportunities and needs that may arise
1350 from the evolving science and stakeholder concerns of the coming years. The intent of this
1351 section is to identify selected opportunities for targeted activities that address the needs and
1352 challenges summarized above. We emphasize that the activities proposed below, and other
1353 emerging integrative endeavors, will require attention not only to the proposed topics, but also to
1354 the inherent logistical difficulties and disincentives described above.

1356 a. Integration of observational data and synthesis for public access and understanding

1357 Public access to observational carbon data is expanding with the implementation of new
1358 standards and protocols for data management, documentation, and release. However, public
1359 understanding of these observations requires focused efforts to integrate and synthesize the
1360 datasets as they become available. An excellent example is the NOAA/ESRL Carbon Tracker

1361 program (CT2019, Jacobson et al. 2020), an ongoing contribution to the NACP. This effort
1362 provides estimates of temporal and spatial variations in global and North American CO₂ fluxes
1363 by integrating a global network of atmospheric CO₂ observations with data and models of
1364 emissions, atmospheric transport, ecosystem fluxes, and ocean surface exchange. The program
1365 offers a powerful example of integrating multiple models and datasets with ensemble
1366 assimilation methods that support transparency and statistical analysis of uncertainties.

1367
1368 While Carbon Tracker demonstrates the value of calculating atmospheric fluxes by inversion
1369 from atmospheric data, public interest extends to a broader range of carbon fluxes and stocks.
1370 There is a growing need for integration and synthesis that includes more diverse observations of
1371 ecosystems, soils, aquatic and marine environments, and human activities. Given the exhaustive
1372 time and effort required for the comprehensive SOCCR reports, new efforts are required to
1373 provide more regular and timely updates utilizing ongoing observations. For example,
1374 atmospheric inversions might be integrated with other data products to provide annual
1375 summaries of North American carbon fluxes and stocks. The value of such summaries is
1376 demonstrated by the wide public interest in the global carbon budgets released annually by the
1377 Global Carbon Project. Like Carbon Tracker and the GCP syntheses, a new synthesis activity for
1378 North America would require full documentation and transparency, thorough analysis of
1379 uncertainties, and rigorous peer review. This new effort would be less demanding than a
1380 SOCCR-like compendium, but more demanding than a simple compilation of datasets and their
1381 separate statistical characteristics. To enable public understanding of diverse and sometimes
1382 divergent datasets, the effort will need to address (but not necessarily resolve) some of the data
1383 integration challenges described above.

1384
1385 **b. Integration of methods to quantify uncertainties and their implications**

1386 Improved estimates of carbon-cycle uncertainties are needed by both scientists and stakeholders.
1387 In addition to the refinement of uncertainty estimates for individual datasets and models, broader
1388 analyses are needed to address the complex uncertainties that arise in the integration of diverse
1389 datasets and models. We suggest the formation of a focused community of interest within the
1390 NACP to provide a venue for sharing and advancing the integrated analysis of uncertainties.
1391 This new effort should be guided by community interests, but potential directions might include:

1392
1393 - Identify critical factors limiting the reduction of uncertainties in analyses based on
1394 data/model integration. For example, ensemble sensitivity testing might be used to
1395 determine the extent to which uncertainties in atmospheric inversion calculations could
1396 be reduced by improved GHG monitoring or improved transport monitoring. Similarly,
1397 diverse soil datasets and models might be integrated to provide insights concerning
1398 opportunities and limits in reducing uncertainties in soil fluxes and stores.

1399
1400 - Improve statistical methods for model inter-comparison and diagnosis to address the
1401 challenges of increasing model complexity. For example, statistical tools and metrics
1402 might be developed to evaluate changes in uncertainties, and corresponding information
1403 gains and losses, associated with the introduction of new complexities in model
1404 components or structures. Conversely, statistical methods might be used to construct
1405 empirical reduced-complexity parameterizations that could be used to boost the
1406 efficiency of model ensembles.

1407
1408 - Improve program-wide consistency and application of probabilistic methods and
1409 analyses. The NACP research community faces many shared difficulties in efforts to
1410 improve quantification and understanding of uncertainties across diverse systems.
1411 Significant improvements are needed in the joint application of uncertainty estimates for
1412 fluxes derived from fundamentally different datasets. A conspicuous example is the
1413 ongoing effort to resolve differences in atmospheric CO₂ budgets calculated top-down
1414 and bottom-up datasets and models. Although convergence is suggested by the overlap
1415 of top-down and bottom-up ranges of uncertainty, a more challenging analysis is to
1416 estimate the joint probability distribution of the budget based on both datasets. This
1417 analysis would require determination of covariances and autocorrelation, and elucidation
1418 of underlying differences in data and model properties that might significantly augment
1419 our understanding of the CO₂ budget. Analysis of joint probabilities could contribute
1420 better understanding of uncertainties in many applications based on combined use of
1421 diverse datasets. A particularly important and challenging need is for improved
1422 integration between estimates of uncertainties associated with physical processes and
1423 those associated with effects of human activities.

1424
1425 - Improve quantification and understanding of uncertainties across spatial and temporal
1426 scales. This is a long-standing issue for NACP and for other many other efforts that
1427 require consistent constraints (such as conservation of mass) across diverse scales. There
1428 is a robust body of statistical analysis and methodologies that could be more fully applied
1429 to NACP in such areas as comparison of diagnostic statistics vs prognostic
1430 (extrapolation) probabilities based on observational datasets; integration of MRV
1431 standards/protocols across spatial scales; quantification of uncertainties across predictive
1432 timescales (alternatives to model ensembles, and/or ways to optimize them); and
1433 improved understanding of joint spatial and temporal variabilities and uncertainties.

1434
1435 c. Integrated studies of interactions between carbon and water cycling
1436 Many important contributions to the NACP have developed from research themes that have been
1437 identified periodically for particular focus. Interactions between the cycling of carbon and water
1438 have always held implicit importance for the NACP, but recent and ongoing research have made
1439 this topic an appropriate target for more focused thematic attention. A major finding of the
1440 SOCCR2 was the potential importance of water-borne carbon transport in resolving divergent
1441 CO₂ budget estimates. This conclusion invites further scrutiny of many processes that control
1442 the interactive transport of water and carbon across the land surface and through soils, the
1443 unsaturated zone, groundwater, streams, rivers, and lakes. New interactions and collaborations
1444 are underway among carbon scientists, hydrologists, ecologists, and others. These collaborations
1445 include renewed attention to long-standing issues such as the interactions between soil moisture
1446 and heterotrophic respiration, between evapotranspiration and CO₂ fertilization, and between
1447 carbon and sediment burial in wetlands. Emerging research on these topics would be strongly
1448 leveraged by a new NACP thematic focus on interactions between carbon and water.

1449
1450 d. Integrated carbon accounting for science and for management/policy applications
1451 NACP research quantifies carbon stocks and fluxes to understand their cycling in and among the
1452 atmosphere, ecosystems, soils, and aquatic and marine environments. At the same time, carbon

1453 accounting methods and protocols are receiving increased attention and development for
1454 management and policy applications. The carbon-cycle research community and the carbon-
1455 accounting stakeholder community would both benefit from stronger mutual communication and
1456 collaboration. Although divergence among methodologies and definitions is necessary to address
1457 different interests, both communities are ultimately concerned with the same carbon. (“My
1458 carbon is your carbon.”) Consistent estimates using divergent methods and data may provide
1459 measures of reliability. Conversely, divergent estimates may lead to unnecessary confusion,
1460 particularly where estimates of carbon fluxes and stocks are needed for management and policy
1461 decisions.

1462
1463 Improved communication and collaboration are most successful in areas of readily defined
1464 interest to both communities. Examples include resources and economic sectors that coincide
1465 with major ecosystems (forests, wetlands, agriculture), emissions (fossil fuels, energy,
1466 transportation), or geographic areas (urban, coastal). While scientist-stakeholder interactions are
1467 generally expanding in these and other areas, broader communication is required for integration,
1468 synthesis, and assessment beyond specific areas of common interest. For example, scientist-
1469 stakeholder co-development is needed to establish metrics of potential CO₂ and CH₄ mitigation
1470 that are minimally dependent on particular models or global emission pathways and are
1471 presented in ways that make sense to both communities. Similar co-development is needed to
1472 improve the treatment of carbon cycling in scenario-based simulations such as integrated
1473 assessment models.

1474
1475 Important interests of both scientists and stakeholders are converging in the integration of
1476 uncertainty analyses and probabilistic prognostic calculations. Scientific advances in applying
1477 geostatistical methods and ensemble simulations are contributing to significant improvements in
1478 estimating complex uncertainties associated with the integration of diverse data and models
1479 across multiple spatial and temporal scales. Similarly, stakeholders are increasingly aware of the
1480 need for probabilistic assessments of carbon-cycle response to potential management and policy
1481 decisions. Overlapping scientist-stakeholder interests are evident in the attention of both
1482 communities to issues such as mitigation programs and protocols (e.g., REDD+, Trillion Trees)
1483 and inter-comparisons among carbon-cycle model simulations of scenarios for past and potential
1484 future emissions. Broadly integrated perspectives are expanding to recognize the importance of
1485 carbon in assessment of the value and availability of diverse natural resources such as water and
1486 ecosystem services. In this context, evaluations of carbon storage can be guided by long-
1487 established practices in natural resource assessment, including stakeholder contributions to
1488 methodology development, periodic inventories, and probabilistic estimates using Monte Carlo
1489 ensembles. The NACP community is uniquely qualified to explore the challenges of carbon
1490 storage resource assessment. This endeavor demands the full interactive engagement of NACP
1491 scientists and stakeholders. Carbon storage cannot be managed in isolation from interactions
1492 with other natural resources.

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Ch 3.3: Process and Attribution Studies to Uncover Mechanistic Responses to Drivers

Lead Author: Christopher A. Williams; **Contributing Authors:** Simone Alin, David Butman, Scott Doney, Adrien Finzi, Chris Gough, Daniel Hayes, Sarah Hobbie, Trevor Keenan, Randy Kolka, Kate Lajtha, Peter J. Marcotullio, Stephanie Pincetl, Andrew D. Richardson

Quantitative understanding of the mechanisms and processes that govern the carbon cycle is important for diagnosing and predicting how the carbon cycle responds to natural and anthropogenic forcings. The carbon cycle of North America is experiencing forcings and perturbations from a wide range of natural and anthropogenic factors, particularly socioeconomic activities related to energy, transportation, industry, commerce, agriculture, construction, resource extraction, and urbanization. These factors are altering atmospheric composition, climate, extreme weather, and nutrient availability, as well as imposing direct disturbances to ecosystems. Understanding carbon cycle responses to these drivers and activities, across human, terrestrial, aquatic, and oceanic carbon cycle systems is incomplete and requires further study.

Process and attribution studies are critical for addressing the goals of the NACP. Such studies reveal the contributions that individual processes make in driving today’s sources and sinks of carbon. Process studies identify the importance of different drivers of the carbon cycle at regional to global scales, while attribution studies identify how distinct and interacting processes give rise to collective carbon cycle dynamics. Together, they advance understanding and enable skillful predictions of how changes in these forcings will alter the future state of the carbon cycle and its interactions with other components of the Earth System.

A complementary suite of methods is required to achieve these goals. Process-oriented analyses of carbon cycle observations are needed to develop mechanistic understanding of carbon cycle responses to drivers, and to improve diagnostic and prognostic models of the carbon cycle. Manipulative experiments are needed to provide insights into carbon cycle responses to specific drivers and interactions among drivers, and to investigate how the carbon cycle will function in altered environmental and socioeconomic conditions in the future. Integrated field campaigns are needed to work across disparate observing networks, measurement systems, and experiments to advance broader and deeper understanding from synergistic study. Synthesis activities utilizing existing observational and experimental networks are needed to evaluate larger patterns of carbon cycle behavior. Long-term observations are required to examine carbon cycle responses to punctuated disturbances, to interannual variability in climate and human activities, and to decadal scale trends in diverse drivers. Scaling studies are needed to translate local, discrete measurements to larger spatial and temporal scales and to assess the integrated effects of carbon cycle drivers. Model-data integration and model intercomparison activities are needed to test models, identify gaps in process understanding, and bridge from process understanding to predictive capability.

1560 With this backdrop of motivation and methods for process and attribution studies, the following
1561 subsections provide more specific guidance on research implementation priorities across key
1562 carbon cycle components.

1563
1564

1565 **3.3.1 Responses of terrestrial ecosystems to changes in atmospheric CO₂, tropospheric O₃, 1566 N deposition, and climate**

1567 Many unknowns remain regarding how terrestrial ecosystems respond to changes in atmospheric
1568 composition and climate (Keenan & Williams 2018). The effect of rising atmospheric CO₂ on
1569 plant- to ecosystem-scale photosynthesis and carbon stocks in biomass, litter, and soils remain
1570 poorly understood, as well as the relations of those effects to nutrient dynamics as limiting or
1571 interactive controls. The lack of understanding is highlighted by long-term studies, which
1572 continue to yield variable results and conclusions given the complexity of the problem. There
1573 remains insufficient understanding of how the carbon cycle responds, over various timescales, to:
1574 (1) climate-related extremes (e.g. heat waves, frosts, droughts, floods, fires), (2) interacting
1575 global change drivers (e.g. CO₂, atmospheric N deposition, ozone, temperature, precipitation,
1576 and soil moisture forcings), (3) the magnitude and timing of permafrost degradation; (4) shifts in
1577 light quantity and quality from diffuse/direct illumination; and (5) shifts in biodiversity, species
1578 distributions and community composition.

1579

1580 In addition to advancing understanding of individual processes and site-level responses, research
1581 is needed to develop a more integrated and holistic understanding of carbon cycle behavior at the
1582 Earth System scale. This requires the use of ecosystem models informed by experiments in key
1583 regions, merged with atmospheric inverse modeling, remote sensing constellations and
1584 distributed sensor networks. Regions where soil or vegetation carbon stocks may be particularly
1585 vulnerable to environmental change include boreal forest and tundra ecosystems (inclusive of
1586 various states of permafrost), which have high carbon stocks and wide-ranging albedo, and are
1587 particularly disturbance-prone in a changing environment; tropical forests, which have high
1588 productivity, and a potentially high response to CO₂ fertilization; peatlands, which store large
1589 amounts of carbon and are frequently drained for anthropogenic means; and drylands, which
1590 contribute much of the world's productivity and food, and are likely sensitive to rising
1591 atmospheric CO₂ due to the implied higher water use efficiency while also being particularly
1592 vulnerable to warming and decreased humidity.

1593

1594 Observational and experimental studies play critical complementary roles in informing our
1595 understanding of ecosystem responses to global change. Long-term observations are essential to
1596 identify trends, characterize the historic range of variability, and generate hypotheses.

1597 Experiments are of fundamental importance for isolating processes and testing mechanisms, and
1598 pushing systems past tipping points that have not historically been exceeded. Also, we note the
1599 critical importance and great value of networked observational approaches, which are more
1600 easily standardized and synthesized across sites and networks, e.g. AmeriFlux, NEON, LTER
1601 and national forest inventory programs. Experimental protocols are difficult to standardize across
1602 different ecosystem types, and arguably a high degree of standardization is not realistic or even
1603 desirable, as the important questions and relevant mechanisms are undoubtedly different among
1604 diverse ecosystems. Thus, to maximize the return on investment, costly multi-factor global
1605 change and FACE experiments conducted at the ecosystem scale should target the high-priority,

1606 ecosystem-specific research questions highlighted above. For example, the SPRUCE (Spruce and
1607 Peatlands Responses Under Changing Environments) experiment targets high carbon peatland
1608 ecosystems. Replication within a given ecosystem type (broadly defined) is essential to ensure
1609 the generality of results. Finally, although not as comprehensive in scope, focused observational
1610 networks (e.g. PhenoCam) and coordinated, grass-roots experimental efforts (e.g. DIRT and
1611 NutNet) provide insight into specific processes that are highly relevant in the context of global
1612 change.

1613
1614 Increasingly, advanced statistical methods are being used to identify model weaknesses and
1615 guide model improvement. In addition to data assimilation techniques, which can be used to
1616 calibrate parameters of complex models to diverse data constraints, new tools should be
1617 developed to benchmark model performance using observational data sets, and to generate
1618 realistic estimates of model uncertainty. Benchmarking tools, such as iLAMB, provide a model-
1619 agnostic testbed that move the field towards automated model diagnostics. The MODEX (model-
1620 experiment coupling) approach adopted by DOE emphasizes the use of model predictions to
1621 guide experimental design, and experimental results to in turn guide model improvement. The
1622 need for rigorous ecological forecasting necessitates such integration of models and both
1623 experimental and observational datasets. However, widespread adoption of these approaches will
1624 require improved computer and networking facilities that lower barriers to model use and model
1625 development. Also required is broader training that integrates cutting-edge tools from fields
1626 including “big data” informatics, statistics, and high-performance computing. Additionally, there
1627 needs to be greater emphasis on archiving of data and code in open-access repositories to
1628 promote reproducibility and transparency.

1630 Key Priorities:

1631 *1. Identification of:*

- 1632 *a. effects of rising atmospheric CO₂ on whole ecosystem carbon balance, and its flux and*
- 1633 *stock change component, in diverse ecoclimatic settings and in combination with*
- 1634 *other environmental changes;*
- 1635 *b. effects of warming trends and heat extremes on whole ecosystem carbon balance;*
- 1636 *c. effects of wetness and dryness trends and variability (including extremes) on whole*
- 1637 *ecosystem carbon balance;*
- 1638 *d. interactive effects of these multiple drivers.*

1639 *2. Research focusing on ecoregions with high carbon stocks that are disturbance prone or*

1640 *otherwise vulnerable to release, including peatlands and some forestlands.*

1641

1642

1643 **3.3.2 Responses to changes in forest disturbance regimes and forest management**

1644 Forests constitute the largest carbon sink in North America, but the future of this sink remains
1645 unclear given changes in natural and anthropogenic disturbances, trends in forest management
1646 and use, and land conversions (Domke et al. 2018). While studies demonstrate the importance of
1647 these processes for local to continentals-scale carbon fluxes and stocks (e.g. Amiro et al. 2010,
1648 Heath et al. 2011, Goetz et al. 2012, Hurtt et al. 2016, Williams et al. 2016), further study is
1649 needed to uncover underlying mechanisms. Process-level studies are needed to characterize the
1650 causes of tree mortality, the vulnerability of forests to fires, pests, pathogens, and droughts, as
1651 well as the determinants of post-disturbance forest regeneration, composition, and associated

1652 effects of forest loss and regeneration on carbon dynamics. Mechanistic understanding of these
1653 mortality and recovery dynamics, for individuals, stands, and whole ecosystems, needs to be
1654 incorporated into ecosystem process models to enable skillful projections of how forest carbon
1655 stocks and fluxes will respond to anticipated future disturbance regimes. The carbon cycle
1656 impacts of changing forest management practices also requires focused study, as timber
1657 extraction and silvicultural approaches respond to changing markets, including mass timber and
1658 engineered wood products, as well as biomass energy. Influences of species selection and the
1659 retention or loss of biodiversity associated with harvest and planting, thinning and other
1660 treatments modifying forest structure, prescribed burning, fire suppression, the timing of harvest,
1661 conservation and assisted migration all remain poorly understood and merit investigation. Full
1662 life cycle analysis of carbon is needed to track its fate from forest to product to waste or to the
1663 atmosphere as CO₂ or CH₄. Consideration of substitution effects from using forest products in
1664 energy and building sectors as a substitute for other fuels and building products is needed as well
1665 (see also section 3.3.7).

1666
1667 Continued progress is needed in quantifying and understanding the mechanisms that underlie
1668 forest carbon losses and gains, as well as disturbance and recovery dynamics across the continent
1669 for an array of forested ecosystems and disturbance types. Sustained and enhanced remote
1670 sensing capabilities will help, including high and moderate spatial resolutions (1 to 100 m) and
1671 repeat times (1 to 16 days) from both airborne and satellite sensor platforms (Cohen et al. 2016).
1672 Additionally, improved understanding of CH₄ production, consumption, and release in trees and
1673 soils is needed, as well as how they respond to disturbance, forest management, and land-use
1674 change.

1675
1676 Addressing these knowledge gaps requires improved integration of methodology and disciplines,
1677 enhanced collaboration among scientists and land managers, and sustained support for long-term
1678 monitoring and experimental networks. Ecosystem-scale manipulative experiments, and targeted
1679 field-based observational studies sampling along gradients of disturbance timing and severity are
1680 needed to uncover mortality mechanisms, forest vulnerabilities and thresholds to disturbance,
1681 and the determinants of forest recovery patterns. Forest inventory and measurement networks,
1682 which have typically focused on aboveground measurements, need expanded sampling of
1683 belowground carbon pools and fluxes, in general, and particularly before and after disturbance,
1684 management, and land-use change (Smith et al. 2016). Improved integration and synthesis of
1685 long-term carbon flux, leaf and canopy physiology, and remote sensing data from networks such
1686 as FLUXNET, NEON, and national forest inventory programs should be leveraged to provide
1687 complementary, broad-scale mechanistic insights into ecosystem physiology (e.g. Becknell et al.
1688 2015, Williams et al. 2014). Partnerships across disciplines (e.g. foresters, ecologists,
1689 statisticians, remote sensing scientists), agencies and institutions (universities, government forest
1690 managers, industry, conservation organizations) are providing powerful new synergies and
1691 should be actively promoted to spur advances in priority research areas and to develop decision
1692 support tools and outreach interactions. Authentic inclusion of stakeholders and potential data
1693 end-users, including foresters and land-use planners, in the research planning process is expected
1694 to enhance the impact and application of research products, while assisting in the development of
1695 standard carbon accounting methods and forest products life cycle analyses (Fahey et al. 2010).

1696
1697 Key Priorities:

- 1698 1. *Identification of:*
1699 a. *effects of changing forest management and land use practices on forest sector carbon*
1700 *stocks and fluxes;*
1701 b. *effects of changing rates, types, and severity of forest disturbances and conversions on*
1702 *long-term ecosystem recovery dynamics and attendant carbon stock and flux*
1703 *dynamics;*
1704 c. *effects of changing forest composition and structure on forest carbon stocks and fluxes.*
1705 2. *Emphasis on high-carbon, disturbance-prone forest types and regions as well as those with*
1706 *high market value and extractive use.*
1707
1708

1709 **3.3.3 Responses to grazing management and invasive species in grasslands and shrublands**

1710 The grasslands and shrublands of North America are presently believed to constitute a modest
1711 net carbon sink in response to fertilization by CO₂ and nutrients (i.e. N deposition), with much of
1712 the carbon being stored in soils. Spanning arid to semi-humid environments, these ecosystems
1713 are also responding to precipitation variability and trends, as well as background warming that is
1714 lengthening growing seasons. In addition to these climate and CO₂ drivers (addressed in section
1715 3.3.1), grazing practices, invasive species, and woody encroachment, afforestation, and
1716 reforestation also have the potential to significantly influence carbon dynamics in grasslands and
1717 shrublands of North America in unclear ways over coming decades.
1718

1719 Grazing acts as a rapid carbon release pathway, and may cap carbon accumulation in
1720 aboveground tissues and limit the build-up of live, and even dead, carbon stocks. Intensive
1721 grassland management with grazing or mowing can stimulate a regrowth response onsite
1722 (Owensby et al. 2006) but tends to release carbon to the atmosphere (Klump et al. 2009) though
1723 not in all cases (Machmuller et al. 2015). Some grasslands are recovering carbon stocks after
1724 historical use for agriculture or overgrazing (Conant et al. 2017), whereas others are
1725 experiencing invasion by non-native grasses or woody species (Naito and Cairns 2011). For
1726 example, reduced fire frequency in mesic grasslands has allowed woody encroachment of juniper
1727 which reportedly increased plant and soil carbon stocks (McKinley and Blair 2008), though
1728 carbon storage can also decrease with woody encroachment. Widespread invasion of perennial
1729 grasslands by annuals (e.g. cheatgrass) can decrease productivity, alter fire frequency, and
1730 increase decomposition rates collectively decreasing carbon stocks. Interactions among water
1731 availability, grazing intensity, and invasive species strongly influence the carbon balance
1732 response to each driver.
1733

1734 Progress is needed to resolve contrasting carbon balance responses to intensive grazing and
1735 woody encroachment, in particular, and to advance predictive understanding of their interactions
1736 with variability in precipitation. Assessment of continental-scale impacts of changes in these
1737 drivers could be achieved with synthesis of existing experimental manipulations, observing
1738 networks (e.g. LTER, NEON, AmeriFlux), and targeted sampling along gradients of grazing
1739 intensity, woody encroachment, and invasive species. Also needed is upscaling of field-scale
1740 process insights to continental-scale process understanding with model-data integration
1741 techniques involving spatial statistics, remote sensing, and ecosystem process models.
1742

1743 Key Priorities:

- 1744 1. *Identification of:*
1745 *a. determinants of carbon stock and flux responses to changes in grazing practices,*
1746 *b. the efficacy of innovative grazing management techniques on reducing impacts on soil*
1747 *organic matter depletion and greenhouse gas fluxes, and*
1748 *c. determinants of carbon stock and flux responses to invasive species and woody*
1749 *encroachment.*
- 1750 2. *Improved predictive understanding of interactions among grazing, invasive species and*
1751 *precipitation variability in driving carbon stocks and fluxes.*
1752
1753

1754 **3.3.4 Responses to changes in food production and consumption**

1755 Food production and consumption systems have significant impacts on GHG emissions (CO₂,
1756 CH₄, and N₂O) (Peters et al. 2016) and constitute one of the largest anthropogenic perturbations
1757 to the coupled carbon-climate system. Land conversion and use for cropland and pasture can
1758 alter soil carbon stocks, soil nutrition, plant productivity, and erosion rates (e.g. Govaerts et al.
1759 2009, Kopittke et al. 2017, Montgomery 2007, Ogle et al. 2005, Wang et al. 2017). Food
1760 production systems introduce greenhouse gas emissions from enteric fermentation, fertilization,
1761 waste streams (e.g. manure), and mechanization (e.g. farm equipment) (e.g. Montes et al. 2013).
1762 Land use and dietary choices significantly alter how food systems influence the coupled carbon-
1763 climate system (e.g. Paustian et al. 2016, Clark and Tilman 2017, Rosi et al. 2017, Steinfeld and
1764 Gerber 2010). Food systems are, in turn, altered by changes in the environment (e.g. climate,
1765 atmospheric composition, and soils), as well as by technological and societal conditions (e.g.
1766 farming practices, markets and lifestyles).

1767
1768 Improved mechanistic understanding is needed to clarify how and why plant productivity, soil
1769 carbon stocks, and lateral carbon flows (e.g. erosion, harvesting) change with a range of
1770 agricultural management practices. This requires process studies quantifying carbon flows and
1771 stocks, as well as hydrologic, biologic, and physicochemical conditions over time with land
1772 conversions and in response to alternative management regimes. This can be achieved with a
1773 complement of targeted monitoring of existing sites in use and naturally undergoing alternative
1774 treatments, as well as experimental manipulations, and chronosequence studies. Key science
1775 questions center on how soil organic carbon and plant productivity respond to changes in
1776 biomass carbon inputs, erosion and soil structure, changes in tilling, conventional versus organic
1777 practices, soil fertility and fertilization, and crop rotations, multi-cropping and fallowing.

1778
1779 Global demand for meat has created widespread and growing production of livestock for human
1780 consumption. Process studies to improve understanding of greenhouse gas emissions associated
1781 with alternative management practices within livestock operations are needed. In particular,
1782 studies are needed on the emissions from alternative feedstocks (grass or grain fed), meat sources
1783 (e.g. ruminant versus monogastric), manure management strategies (manure solids separation,
1784 aeration, acidification, biofiltration, composting, and anaerobic digestion), and farming systems
1785 (conventional or circular economies). Investigations are needed of the GHG implications of
1786 human food waste and food choices. Emphasis should be placed on quantitative studies assessing
1787 the effects of different diets, clarifying the relative efficiencies of different food sources in terms
1788 of land area, water resource use, caloric and energetic losses through the production system, food
1789 waste with consumption, and including life cycle assessments (LCAs) of the full GHG emissions

1790 embodied in the production and consumption of different food sources. Studies are also needed
1791 to document carbon cycle implications of future afforestation, reforestation, and deforestation in
1792 response to shifting global patterns of agricultural production.

1793

1794 Key Priorities:

1795 *1. Full life cycle assessment of carbon stock and flux responses to alternative cropland*
1796 *management practices, with associated greenhouse gas budgets, and to alternative food*
1797 *production systems, each with associated greenhouse gas budgets.*

1798 *2. Emphasis on comparisons among food system alternatives including their capacities to meet*
1799 *caloric, nutritional, and dietary preferences and requirements, and potential for greenhouse gas*
1800 *emissions reductions.*

1801

1802

1803 **3.3.5 Responses of aquatic carbon dynamics to changing carbon inputs, nutrient loadings,** 1804 **warming, and direct physical alterations**

1805 Aquatic systems, including wetlands, streams, rivers and estuaries, play a major role in the
1806 continental carbon cycle. For example, organic soil wetlands (peatlands) only occupy 3% of
1807 global lands but store 30% of the soil carbon. Aquatic systems store, emit, and laterally transport
1808 carbon along a continuum from upland to coastal waters. As recipients of upland carbon via
1809 erosion and dissolved loads, aquatic systems are also driven by all of the forcings affecting
1810 terrestrial ecosystems including rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, nutrient fertilization,
1811 climate change, and land cover and land use changes. Warming and nutrient loadings are
1812 directly altering their metabolism and biogeochemical transformations. Aquatic systems are also
1813 being physically transformed by wetland destruction and creation, waterway alterations (e.g.
1814 channelization), impoundments, and tile drainage. Detailed quantitative and mechanistic
1815 understanding of these processes is incomplete.

1816

1817 Progress is needed in understanding the relative contributions of diverse carbon inputs (e.g.
1818 allochthonous, autochthonous, and geochemical contributions) as they vary across diverse
1819 physiographic and ecoclimatic settings and in time. Advances are needed to understand the
1820 processes controlling the magnitude and timing of CH₄ and CO₂ fluxes from aquatic systems, as
1821 well as productivity and respiration rates within wetland, riverine, lacustrine, and estuarine
1822 settings. The determinants of rates of sedimentation and release in inland waters (e.g. reservoirs)
1823 need to be resolved, along with impacts of channelization, levees, coastline developments, and
1824 wetland alterations on erosion, sedimentation, and conveyance. Effects of dam removal and
1825 flooding on carbon storage and release needs further study. New insights on how all of these
1826 processes are responding to nutrient inputs, agricultural runoff, and eutrophication are needed.
1827 Advances are needed to translate site-level and case study process understanding to integrated,
1828 system-level behavior at watershed to continental scales, with improved scaling methods, and
1829 system-wide modeling that considers soil attributes (organic and mineral contents), spatio-
1830 temporal patterns of inundation, nutrient dynamics, connections to upland systems (i.e.
1831 terrestrial-aquatic interfaces), decomposition and transformation processes. Lastly, a modelling
1832 framework is needed to represent the aquatic carbon cycle fully integrated with terrestrial and
1833 oceanic carbon exchanges and capable of prediction.

1834

1835 Key Priorities:

- 1836 1. *Identification of:*
1837 a. *lateral fluxes, emissions, and full budget assessments considering diverse inputs,*
1838 *changes in stocks, and outputs for all C forms (DIC, DOC, POC, CO₂ & CH₄);*
1839 b. *how water column chemistry and biology influences the fate of C and permanence*
1840 *of C sinks;*
1841 c. *effects of terrestrial wetland destruction, creation, and restoration;*
1842 d. *carbon burial rates (including use of isotopes in sediments) and fate of this buried*
1843 *carbon (respired vs. preserved).*
1844 2. *Improved scaling methods, and system-wide modeling capabilities to translate site-level*
1845 *and case study process understanding to integrated, predictive, system-level behavior at*
1846 *watershed to continental scales.*
1847 3. *Incorporation of carbon dynamics of freshwater and estuarine ecosystems into coupled*
1848 *land-ocean process models taking account of interactions with terrestrial and oceanic*
1849 *carbon cycle processes.*
1850

1851 **3.3.6 Responses of coastal and oceanic ecosystems to temperature, water quality, and** 1852 **acidification**

1853 The coastal environment, spanning from wetlands and estuaries across the shallow ocean shelf
1854 and onto the continental slope, is a region of vigorous biological productivity and
1855 biogeochemical transformations, lateral carbon transport, and carbon storage (Najjar et al.,
1856 2018). Human disturbance is altering both the carbon and biogeochemical inputs to the coastal
1857 system (Regnier et al., 2013). Disturbances include nutrient pollution, destruction of wetlands,
1858 rising atmospheric CO₂, ocean warming, acidification, hypoxia, and other aspects of climate
1859 change affecting freshwater input, upwelling, currents, winds, and sea-level rise.
1860

1861 An improved mechanistic understanding of the coastal carbon system requires embedding
1862 targeted process and attribution studies within a framework of an expanded marine
1863 biogeochemical monitoring system that characterizes temporal and spatial variability of the
1864 carbon budget as well as long-term trends. Key scientific questions for process and attribution
1865 studies include (a) the factors driving changes over time of coastal surface ocean CO₂ and air-sea
1866 exchange including ocean carbon uptake, climate change, and alterations in wetland carbon
1867 fluxes (Reimer et al., 2017); and, (b) the response of water-column biogeochemistry, carbon
1868 export and fluxes, and ecosystem dynamics to multiple stressors; and the burial, mobilization,
1869 and fate of organic carbon storage in coastal sediments and especially blue carbon in marshes,
1870 mangroves, estuaries, and seagrass meadows (McLeod et al., 2011). More comprehensive
1871 synthesis and attributions studies that leverage available coastal and ocean observations are
1872 needed, similar to prior and current investments in long-term observations of terrestrial systems
1873 (e.g., AmeriFlux).
1874

1875 Ocean acidification, caused by rising atmospheric CO₂ and ocean uptake, is a growing concern
1876 for coastal systems because of the wide range of possible negative impacts on marine life
1877 (Kroeker et al., 2013). Excess CO₂ reacts with water resulting in a series of chemical changes
1878 including lowering pH, carbonate ion (CO₃²⁻) concentrations, and the saturation state for
1879 carbonate minerals used by many organisms to construct shells and skeletons. Acidification in
1880 coastal waters can be exacerbated by nutrient eutrophication, atmospheric deposition of acidic
1881 compounds, and other local pollution sources (Strong et al., 2014).

1882
1883 Improved evaluation of the biological impacts of ocean acidification requires a combination of
1884 sustained ocean CO₂ biological system observations, targeted manipulation experiments on key
1885 biological species, and field and ecosystem-level process studies. Calcification by warm-water
1886 and cold-water corals and coralline algae appears particularly sensitive to reductions in carbonate
1887 ion concentration and mineral saturation states, as shown by numerous laboratory and mesocosm
1888 studies; recent novel field manipulation experiments of water chemistry on shallow coral reefs
1889 open up critical opportunities for assessing community-level responses (e.g., Albright et al.,
1890 2018). Acidification vulnerabilities for many shellfish—clams, scallops, oysters—with possible
1891 repercussions for many valuable U.S. and international commercial fisheries (Gledhill et al.,
1892 2015; Hare et al., 2016); further studies are need on shellfish as well as expanding further into
1893 assessing impacts for key crustaceans and finfish. During the mid-2000s, low pH waters
1894 associated with coastal upwelling led to reduced larval survival of Pacific oysters in some U.S.
1895 Pacific northwest shellfish hatcheries, a problem that has been largely addressable so far through
1896 adaptive strategies (Barton et al., 2015). The challenges and potential adaptation strategies for
1897 wild-caught species are generally less-well known and require more detailed study. For all
1898 marine species, the impact of current and future ocean acidification must be framed in the
1899 context of a rapidly changing ocean environment with multiple human-driven stressors,
1900 particularly ocean warming (Breitburg et al., 2015).

1901
1902 Key Priorities:

- 1903 *1. Identification of:*
- 1904 *a. the major factors driving changes over time of coastal surface ocean CO₂ and air-*
 - 1905 *sea exchange including ocean carbon uptake, climate change, and alterations in*
 - 1906 *wetland carbon fluxes;*
 - 1907 *b. the response of water-column biogeochemistry, carbon export and fluxes, and*
 - 1908 *ecosystem dynamics to multiple stressors; and*
 - 1909 *c. the burial, mobilization, and fate of organic carbon storage in coastal sediments*
 - 1910 *and especially in so-called blue carbon in marshes, mangroves, estuaries, and*
 - 1911 *seagrass meadows*
 - 1912 *d. the biological impacts of ocean acidification.*

1913
1914
1915 **3.3.7 Responses to changes in energy, transportation, and building/housing sectors**

1916 North America's electric power production and distribution systems, as well as its highway,
1917 railway, and airway transportation systems are some of the world's largest, generating a
1918 correspondingly large proportion of global carbon emissions (Marcotullio et al, 2018). Fossil
1919 fuels dominate the region's total energy supply (DOE EIA, 2019a,b), with North America's
1920 energy consumption contributing significantly to global CO₂e emissions. The region emits
1921 approximately 17% of total global GHGs from fossil fuels and cement production (Boden et al,
1922 2016). Emissions from transportation, electricity generation, and industry each account for about
1923 one third of the total, with more modest contributions from commercial and residential uses. The
1924 region also contributes significantly to worldwide energy production and energy reserves from
1925 fossil fuels spanning coal, natural gas and oil and petroleum hydrocarbon (BP 2018; DOE EIA,
1926 2016). Trends in anthropogenic emissions of CO₂e are being driven by changes in the fuel mix,
1927 such as increases in natural gas and renewables, and by a variety of new, less carbon-intensive

1928 technologies. Those drivers are, in turn, being influenced by changes in the price of fuels, by
1929 slow growth rates in electricity demand in the United States and Canada, and by national, state
1930 and regional policies that are promoting technology development for energy efficiency and clean
1931 energy (Marcotullio, et al 2018).

1932
1933 Five areas in the energy system stand out as needing further examination and research. First, the
1934 governance and institutional needs in the transition to a low-carbon society are not well
1935 understood. Studies have examined the potential costs of mitigation, but much more detail is
1936 needed on the governance structures and institutions required to support navigation through the
1937 future energy transition. The effectiveness of policies that increase energy efficiencies, reduce
1938 carbon intensity, and reduce emissions, while also maintaining social benefits, such as
1939 environmental equity and economic growth is not well understood. Second, investigations are
1940 needed to comprehensively assess the capacity of renewable energy to supply current and future
1941 demands, with attention to intermittency in production, energy storage, energy transmission, and
1942 the typically-low energy densities of solar and wind sources which require large surface areas to
1943 meet demands. Third, energy use efficiencies in households and public and private sectors are
1944 recognized to be an important component of reducing energy use but with unclear scope. Also,
1945 such gains are at risk of being masked by overwhelming growth in additional demand.
1946 Fourth, studies have identified the potential extent of CH₄ emissions from natural gas extraction
1947 and use, putting into question the role of natural gas as a “bridge fuel.” However, the actual
1948 amount of gas that escapes as leakage and fugitive emissions has yet to be measured accurately.
1949 Lastly, detailed comparable data for end-use energy, emissions, and projections across North
1950 American economies have yet to be generated, and more comparable economic end-use data
1951 across nations could help inform evidenced-based regional policies regarding carbon
1952 management (Marcotullio et al 2018).

1953
1954 Key Priorities:

- 1955 *1. Identification of:*
- 1956 *a. impacts of changes in fuel sources and energy sources, considering energy density and*
 - 1957 *distribution issues, market constraints and opportunities*
 - 1958 *b. governance and institutional needs in the transition to a low-carbon society*
 - 1959 *c. scope for renewables to contribute a growing fraction of total energy consumption*
 - 1960 *d. scope for energy use efficiencies in households and public and private sectors in the face*
 - 1961 *of growing energy demands*
 - 1962 *e. leakage and fugitive emissions of CH₄ during production, distribution, and use*
 - 1963 *f. improved data collection on energy uses and emissions across North American*
 - 1964 *economies*

1965
1966
1967 **3.3.8 Responses to changes in industrial, commercial, public, and household production**
1968 **and consumption**

1969 Industry, commerce, manufacturing, governance, residential life and the general functioning of
1970 society all influence the patterns and trends of carbon fluxes and stocks in natural and managed
1971 ecosystems, and in the built environment. The decisions and actions these entities take can have
1972 profound effects on the carbon metabolism of society and on its attendant impacts upstream in
1973 fields, farms, forests, waterways and beyond.

1974 Studies are needed to uncover how the production and sales of goods and services influences the
1975 carbon cycle through resource extraction, building, transportation, energy use, material
1976 consumption and associated wastes. Investigations into the potential effects of changes in
1977 policies, market forces, and decision making are needed, with an eye toward developing
1978 predictive capabilities to facilitate assessments of likely outcomes of actions being considered by
1979 decision makers. Methodological advances in tracking, tracing, reporting and visualizing the
1980 direct material flows of carbon resulting from these production and consumption activities are
1981 needed, along with communication of the carbon embedded in these activities.

1982 **Key Priorities:**

1983 *1. Identification of:*

1984 *a. carbon cycle impacts of expansion of built environments and shifts in building materials*

1985 *b. carbon cycle implications of waste trends such as in sewage and landfills*

1986 *2. Research on the potential effects of changes in policies, market forces, and decision making,*
1987 *with an eye toward developing predictive capabilities to facilitate assessments of likely outcomes*
1988 *of actions being considered by decision makers*

1989 *3. Improved methods for tracking, tracing, reporting and visualizing the direct material flows of*
1990 *carbon resulting from these production and consumption activities*

1991

1992

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Chapter 3.4. Predictions: Model Development, Evaluation and Prediction

Lead Authors: Benjamin Poulter^{1,*}, Kenneth J. Davis², Forrest M. Hoffman³; **Contributing Authors:** Steven Davis⁴, Michael Dietze⁵, Jeffrey S. Dukes⁶, Margaret Evans⁷, Anna Harper⁸, Ben Bond-Lamberty⁹, Danica Lombardozzi¹⁰, Lisamarie Windham Myers¹¹, Joellen Russell¹², David Werth¹³, Christopher A. Williams¹⁴

Affiliations

- ¹NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Biospheric Sciences Lab., Greenbelt, MD 20771, USA
- ²The Pennsylvania State University, Pennsylvania, USA
- ³Oak Ridge National Lab, Department of Energy, Oak Ridge, Tennessee, USA
- ⁴University of California, Irvine, California, USA
- ⁵Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts, USA
- ⁶Purdue University, Indiana, USA
- ⁷University of Arizona, Tucson, USA
- ⁸University of Exeter, Exeter, UK
- ⁹Pacific Northwest National Lab., Maryland, USA
- ¹⁰National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR), Boulder, USA
- ¹¹United States Geological Survey, Menlo Park, California, USA
- ¹²University of Arizona, Tucson, USA
- ¹³Savanna River National Lab, Jackson, South Carolina, USA
- ¹⁴Clark University, Massachusetts, USA

*benjamin.poulter@nasa.gov

2176 **3.4 Introduction**

2177 The 2011 North American Carbon Program Science Plan listed ‘prediction’ as one of several
2178 overarching science goals, specifically asking how to improve predictions of ‘how ecosystems,
2179 biodiversity, and natural resources will change under different CO₂ and climate change scenarios?’
2180 This Chapter describes for the Science Implementation Plan five thematic areas that need to be
2181 developed to improve our predictive capabilities for a biosphere under increasing anthropogenic
2182 pressure. These include i) expanding the role of forecasting and treatment of uncertainties, ii) the
2183 use of benchmarks for model evaluation and initialization, iii) applications of Observing System
2184 Simulation Experiments (OSSEs), iv) consideration of feedbacks, and v) new focus areas,
2185 including addressing social systems and the role of lateral fluxes along the land-ocean atmosphere
2186 continuum (LOAC).

2187
2188 Predictions are useful for many applications, including informing management decisions and
2189 policy targets, evaluating how well we understand a particular system and its potential feedbacks,
2190 and prioritizing and optimizing *in situ* or remote sensing-based monitoring strategies. Predictions
2191 can take place at varying timescales, with *forecasts* (seasonal-to-subseasonal, i.e., S2S) that aim
2192 to provide information for daily to sometimes decadal time windows and *projections* typically for
2193 multi-decadal to millennial timeframes, depending on the purpose of the scenario. In addition to
2194 constraining what might take place in the future, ‘predictions’ can be made for historical periods;
2195 ‘retrospective forecasts’ or ‘hindcasts’ are commonly used to evaluate model skill and ‘reanalyses’
2196 are generated by fusing hindcasts with observations to reconcile historical pools and fluxes. This
2197 chapter focuses mainly on the use of predictions made for seasonal to century scale processes and
2198 their relevance for process understanding and informing policy.

2199
2200 Rapid and large-scale changes are taking place within Earth’s climate system, in atmospheric trace
2201 gas concentrations (e.g., CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, O₃, PM_{2.5}), on the land surface through deforestation,
2202 forest management, and cropland expansion and in the hydrologic cycle through water use and
2203 changes in water quality. The rate and magnitude of these changes, interactions between drivers,
2204 and feedbacks from the biosphere and atmosphere have led to conditions that lack any historical
2205 or paleoecological analogs that can appropriately inform the future. For example, the last time
2206 atmospheric carbon dioxide levels were more than 415 ppm (as of 2020) was more than several
2207 million years ago, and thus it is not straightforward to make empirical inferences to learn how
2208 ecosystems will respond as CO₂ concentrations continue to rise into the 21st century. Consequently,
2209 modeling tools used in prediction must incorporate interactions and nonlinear feedbacks between
2210 a range of processes that operate at varying temporal and spatial scales, e.g., interactions between
2211 CO₂ and air pollutants on ecosystems. These models tend to be mechanistic or process based, in
2212 that they use first principles to represent flows of carbon, water, energy and nutrients with various
2213 parameters and requirements for ‘driver’ data (i.e., climate, CO₂, and land-use scenarios). More
2214 recently, data-driven models based on machine learning, deep learning and artificial intelligence
2215 frameworks are demonstrating important and useful predictive capabilities (Reichstein et al.,
2216 2019). This Chapter focuses on the requirements and areas of emphasis for improving process-
2217 based modeling approaches to be used in making predictions.

2218
2219 **3.4.1 Forecasting and Uncertainty**
2220 There are large uncertainties in (and among) simulated projections of historical and future changes
2221 in carbon cycling (e.g., Ciais et al. 2013; Anav et al. 2013; Arora et al. 2013; Friedlingstein et al.

2222 2014), which inhibit our ability to understand and forecast changes in climate feedbacks and
2223 ecological services. Foundational to the goal of reducing these are (1) the establishment of
2224 probabilistic forecasting as a community standard for how predictions and projections are made,
2225 and (2) a systematic effort to understand better which uncertainties, i.e., parameters, processes,
2226 and drivers, limit forecasts at different spatial and temporal scales. Probabilistic forecasting is
2227 widely considered best for representing the uncertainties in meteorological forecasts, but
2228 traditionally has not been the norm in carbon cycle modeling. Ensemble approaches are becoming
2229 more common, but to date have focused on subsets of uncertainties. The lack of a full error
2230 accounting means we do not yet know the relative importance of different uncertainties, which
2231 constrains our ability to prioritize which uncertainties to focus on reducing.
2232

2233 Broadly speaking, our ability to make a skillful carbon cycle forecast is limited by five key
2234 uncertainties: i) initial conditions, ii) external drivers and boundary conditions, iii) parameter
2235 uncertainty, iv) parameter heterogeneity, and v) process error (Dietze 2017). The initial condition
2236 of model state variables drives significant uncertainty in short-term predictions and can also be
2237 significant at much longer time-scales, e.g. changes in soil carbon pools, disturbance, vegetation
2238 succession, and species range shifts that can play out over centuries to millennia (Huntzinger et al.
2239 2020). For example, research suggests that model initialization limits the detectability of changes
2240 in terrestrial carbon cycle pools for multiple decades (Lombardozzi et al. 2014). Boundary
2241 conditions and model drivers are another source of uncertainty, as there is considerable uncertainty
2242 about future climate, deposition, disturbance, etc. This will translate into variability in terrestrial
2243 carbon cycle pools (Matthews et al. 2004) and other ecosystem services, such as projected crop
2244 yields (Levis et al. 2016). An additional source of uncertainty arises from model process error,
2245 including the failure to represent either stabilizing or destabilizing feedbacks, the inherent
2246 stochasticity in biological processes (dispersal, mortality, disturbance), and the omission or
2247 misspecification of processes that become important as models are applied at spatial or temporal
2248 scales different from the scale at which they were parameterized. Many studies, for example, have
2249 highlighted the large carbon cycle uncertainties that arise from the various representations of
2250 photosynthetic processes (Dietze et al. 2013; Fatichi et al. 2014; Rogers et al. 2017; Lombardozzi
2251 et al. 2015, 2018), yet photosynthesis has received more attention than arguably any other process
2252 in carbon cycle models. Process errors encompass the ‘residual’ differences between models and
2253 observations, after observation errors have been accounted for, but are rarely accounted for in
2254 carbon cycle forecasts (Riaho et al., 2020). Parameter uncertainty arises because most of the
2255 parameters in carbon cycle models are not physical constants but empirical coefficients that need
2256 to be estimated from observational data. Finally, parameter heterogeneity occurs because many
2257 ecological processes can be highly variable in space and time for reasons that are incompletely
2258 understood (e.g. trait plasticity), but which can nonetheless be accommodated using approaches
2259 such as statistical random effect or spatial maps of trait variability. The combination of these
2260 uncertainties limits the predictability of carbon cycling, but targeted research to quantify the
2261 uncertainties will help prioritize research efforts and improve carbon cycle forecasting.
2262

2263 Recent analyses by Lovenduski and Bonan (2017) and Bonan and Doney (2018) quantify these
2264 sources of uncertainty and illustrated that “model error” accounts for nearly 80% of uncertainty in
2265 carbon cycle projections over the next century. These initial efforts, however, combined multiple
2266 sources of uncertainty within a single “model error”. Efforts to disentangle these uncertainties
2267 point to large contributions from process and initial condition error, but have been limited to simple

2268 models and local scales (Raiho 2020). Progress on quantifying and reducing uncertainties can be
2269 made through several paths, including: explicitly quantifying parameter uncertainty by combining
2270 trait constraints and Bayesian calibration; data assimilation to constrain initial conditions based on
2271 observations rather than spin-up; employing statistical model selection and hierarchical
2272 approaches; using optimality theory models; model benchmarking and inter-comparison (see
2273 3.4.2) and acknowledging, quantifying, and propagating the process error in current semi-
2274 mechanistic process-based models. Research is required to determine the most scientifically
2275 rigorous and effective methods for treating initial conditions and model spin up for ecosystem
2276 carbon cycle models, with consideration that ecosystems are never in steady state.

2277
2278 Other, more systematic ways that the scientific community can reduce uncertainty in carbon cycle
2279 projections and improve carbon cycle predictability and forecasts require more sweeping
2280 initiatives. One such initiative would be to implement a comprehensive carbon-cycle reanalysis
2281 through a formal model-data assimilation of ground, tower, and remotely-sensed observations,
2282 similar to meteorological reanalysis products. Efforts to develop such assimilation systems for the
2283 carbon-cycle are in their early stages (e.g., NASA Carbon Monitoring System), and as they mature
2284 they will ultimately link top-down inversions (e.g., CarbonTracker) with bottom-up syntheses and
2285 facilitate analysis of spatial and temporal variability in carbon pools and fluxes, and help us
2286 identify model structural errors. Additionally, carbon-cycle reanalysis would provide an improved
2287 operational tool for land carbon monitoring, reporting, and verification requirements under the
2288 Paris Climate Accord, the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, and REDD+, while
2289 enabling a seamless transition to forecasts with constrained initial conditions.

2290
2291 A second proposed initiative is to implement a carbon cycle forecast program that creates near-
2292 term (sub-daily to multiple years) iterative forecasts as a way to accelerate understanding and make
2293 carbon cycle predictions more relevant to real-time decision making (Dietze et al. 2018). Existing
2294 ecological monitoring networks such as FLUXNET, NEON, national forest inventories, etc., can
2295 be leveraged for this purpose, strengthened with new data sources e.g., tree rings, lidar, imaging
2296 spectroscopy, and assimilated together to produce rolling forecasts – predictions produced and
2297 tested against new data on a continuous basis. Other processes that we can forecast rapidly,
2298 including vegetation phenology, ecosystem fluxes, and disturbances like insect outbreaks, can be
2299 used for carbon cycle and adaptive management, providing immediate feedback to land managers.
2300 For example, the IPCC 1.5 Degree Special Report underlines the need for rapid action, and a 2018
2301 report by the U. S. National Academy of Science offers four “negative emissions technologies” as
2302 a proposed set of such actions; here we emphasize the need for rapid learning to accompany that,
2303 via a more systematic focus on uncertainty and more intimate feedbacks between monitoring,
2304 forecasting, and management.

2305

2306 **3.4.2 Establishing Benchmarks**

2307 Improved model representation of ecosystem processes and biogeochemistry–climate feedbacks
2308 are essential for reducing uncertainties in climate change predictions. The increasing complexity
2309 of carbon cycle models, however, requires a comprehensive and detailed evaluation of model
2310 fidelity to identify model weaknesses, inform design of new measurements and field campaigns,
2311 achieve better understanding of controlling processes, and yield improved predictions. Community
2312 efforts to coordinate model assessment methodologies and quantitative metrics of model
2313 performance through standardized open source software tools enables systematic benchmarking

2314 across models and modeling centers e.g., ILAMB, ESMValTool. Ideally, benchmarking systems
2315 help researchers avoid “reinventing the wheel” by performing data preparation, regrid-
2316 ding, and standardized gap-filling. Using community accepted datasets also ensures that all users are
2317 comparing against the same data.

2318
2319 Recent coordinated, international efforts have focused on defining community-wide reference data
2320 sets, methods, and metrics for model evaluation (Abramowitz et al. 2012; Kumar et al. 2012;
2321 Collier et al. 2018). These are built on data ranging from point to global scales, and from centennial
2322 to diurnal time scales. The Fluxnet network of eddy covariance towers, which measures the
2323 exchanges of heat, water, and trace gases, has been incorporated into several model benchmarking
2324 systems for both carbon dioxide and methane (Abramowitz et al. 2012; Blyth et al. 2011; Lawrence
2325 et al. 2019). Single eddy covariance or long-term ecological ‘super’ sites are useful for evaluating
2326 process-level responses of selected ecosystems.

2327
2328 Global-scale collaborative efforts for model benchmarking include ILAMB (Collier et al. 2018),
2329 ESMValTool (Eyring et al. 2016) and the land surface verification toolkit (LSVT; Kumar et al.
2330 2012). Each product compares current models against observations related to biogeochemistry,
2331 hydrology, radiation and energy, and climate forcing. ILAMB and ESMValTool also facilitate
2332 evaluation of future CMIP models. For example, ESMValTool includes tools to reproduce well-
2333 established evaluations of CMIP5 models, such as emergent constraints to investigate model biases
2334 in interannual variability of carbon uptake (Cox et al. 2013) or GPP response to CO₂ (Wenzel et
2335 al. 2016).

2336
2337 Benchmarking systems often produce a final metric defining the performance of the model(s), but
2338 this should be seen as the beginning of model development and process understanding, not the
2339 end. To enable future development that improves model prediction, a process is needed to identify
2340 which metrics are most valuable for determining prognostic skill (which will likely depend on the
2341 applications of the model), and to identify the relevant observations or experiments to assess these
2342 metrics. Often, benchmarking can flag missing datasets as well as highlight model predictive
2343 deficiencies. The wealth of North American carbon cycle data, including the Free Air CO₂
2344 Enrichment (FACE) experiments, ecosystem experiments (e.g., summarized by INTERFACE),
2345 nutrient addition, and warming experiments, should be used to test and develop predictive models.
2346 The inclusion of global change experiments in benchmarking datasets will facilitate future model
2347 development, and will help identify instances when future model development improves model
2348 performance in one component but degrades model performance in a separate but related
2349 component. Benchmarking metrics should account for process-level and emergent behavior of the
2350 coupled system, including the equilibrium climate sensitivity and the transient climate response,
2351 rather than just the mean state (e.g., annual average GPP).

2352
2353 A challenge with benchmarking is understanding the limitations of the observations: multiple data
2354 sets can sometimes give conflicting results, and benchmarks need to account for measurement
2355 error and uncertainty (for example relating to natural climate variability). When datasets used in
2356 benchmarking packages do not include carefully quantified uncertainty bounds, it is difficult to
2357 determine whether or not the model actually has a bias (this is a problem for all model evaluations
2358 and is not unique to benchmarking). And when not possible, this highlights a need for uncertainty
2359 quantification from the measurements.

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3.4.3 Observing System Simulation Experiments (OSSEs)

Observing System Simulation Experiments, or OSSES, provide a unique approach to help inform prediction by incorporating observations within a sampling efficiency framework. First developed to understanding meteorological modeling and forecasts, OSSEs are modeling studies that sample simulated processes through a workflow that is representative of observational networks and conditions, and then use these simulated samples to inform Reanalysis models. The comparison between prior conditions and the Reanalysis outputs indicates how well the sampling network can inform our process understanding. In the context of the carbon cycle, the OSSE workflow has been adapted to inform terrestrial and ocean observing networks, mainly through the evaluation of greenhouse gas satellites.

For example, recent spaceborne carbon observatories, such as the NASA Orbiting Carbon Observatory 2 (OCO-2) and the Orbiting Carbon Observatory 3 (OCO-3, aboard the International Space Station), are being used to observed column concentrations of atmospheric CO₂. To better understand how well these observations can inform us on terrestrial and oceanic carbon fluxes, OSSEs have been developed to quantify effects of cloud-cover, aerosols, and water-vapor concentrations on CO₂ retrievals and ultimately the derived surface fluxes and emissions of carbon. The workflow is similar to how the meteorological community has used OSSEs: a land-surface model provides fluxes, these fluxes are ingested within an atmospheric model to generate column concentrations, the column concentrations are sampled following greenhouse-gas satellite configurations, and the samples are used within an atmospheric inversion model, and the posterior fluxes compared with the original surface flux.

The relevance of OSSEs for predictive modeling is unique in that these studies can direct us towards effective observational and experimental studies. The results of the OSSEs can lead us to better benchmarks and forecasting systems, including the data for forecasts. As the carbon cycle community is increasingly called up to inform policy, OSSEs are invaluable in terms of directing where and when measurements should be made, in a cost-effective manner, and can contribute toward operationalizing observing systems with improved forecast and predictive skill.

3.4.4 Feedbacks and processes

The way in which processes are represented in models contributes to nearly 80% of the uncertainty in carbon cycle projections (Bonan and Doney 2018). Several large-scale terrestrial processes strongly control the fate of large carbon stores or fluxes, including land use change and land management, nitrogen and water limitation, large-scale releases of soil carbon through permafrost thaw and soil degradation, and disturbances from fire and insects. Model representation of carbon-cycle processes is often based on smaller-scale measurements. For example, leaf-level photosynthesis is scaled to global gross primary productivity and constitutes the largest flux of carbon into terrestrial ecosystems. Although many models use a Farquhar calculation for leaf-level photosynthesis, the manner in which this leaf-level process is scaled to a plant, canopy, ecosystem, and continent varies widely across models (Rogers et al. 2017). Thus, while many key processes regulating the carbon cycle have already been incorporated into most models, the manner in which they are represented differs.

2406 Model estimates of soil carbon pools vary widely, and observations to evaluate soil carbon pools
2407 (Fischer et al. 2008) are limited. Global rates of heterotrophic respiration are considerably larger
2408 than fossil fuel emissions ($\sim 10 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$), but are highly uncertain, with estimates varying from
2409 33 to more than 50 Pg C yr^{-1} (e.g., Hashimoto et al. 2015, Konings et al 2019, Ciais et al., 2020).
2410 In models, too, these rates are a dominant source of carbon cycle uncertainty. The ways in which
2411 modeled heterotrophic respiration responds to environmental changes, as well as feeds back to soil
2412 nutrient availability, play a crucial yet largely unconstrained role in modeled carbon cycle
2413 responses. For example, permafrost thaw with climate warming is releasing significant amounts
2414 of carbon and mineralizing nitrogen for plant growth (Schuur et al 2015; Koven et al. 2015). When
2415 incorporated into process models, respiratory temperature acclimation can have a large impact on
2416 terrestrial carbon storage (Lombardozzi et al. 2015). The representation of decomposition in
2417 models often includes one or more pools of carbon with rates scaled by abiotic factors and the
2418 recalcitrance of the carbon in that pool (e.g., Bonan et al, 2012; Koven et al. 2013). More recently,
2419 the importance of biological processes has been highlighted with the emergence of several
2420 microbial-explicit models (e.g., Wieder et al. 2013).

2421
2422 Fluxes of carbon into terrestrial ecosystems are largely governed by plant physiological processes,
2423 with terrestrial vegetation carbon pools dependent upon gross rates of photosynthesis and
2424 autotrophic respiration. Although extensive research has led to the development of widely accepted
2425 models of photosynthesis, there is still considerable uncertainty in the representation of
2426 photosynthesis in models that arises from leaf-level implementation and scaling (Rogers et al.
2427 2017; Lombardozzi et al. 2018) as well as imperfect knowledge of responses to environmental
2428 variables (Lombardozzi et al. 2015; Smith and Dukes 2012; Slot and Winter 2017). Similarly, the
2429 representation of autotrophic respiration, including maintenance and growth respiration, is quite
2430 simplistic. For example, models of respiration often include a static temperature response even
2431 though available data suggest some acclimation to growth temperature. When incorporated into
2432 process models, respiratory temperature acclimation can have a large impact on terrestrial carbon
2433 storage (Lombardozzi et al. 2015).

2434
2435 Process representation of C cycle is often based on smaller-scale measurements (for example, leaf-
2436 level photosynthesis to global GPP). We recommend additional research to determine how
2437 uncertainty propagates as processes are scaled through space. Different factors/processes come
2438 into play at different scales, and there are “scale transitions” when the system passes from a scale
2439 at which it is primarily influenced by one process to a scale at which it is primarily influenced by
2440 a different process. Scaling uncertainty can be evaluated through benchmarking and model
2441 validation activities with coordinated prognostic carbon cycle model evaluation, taking into
2442 account both complexity and performance as a function of complexity.

2443
2444 NACP science should seek to reduce the uncertainty caused by process representation in terrestrial
2445 biosphere models, by evaluating and improving the representation of processes important for C
2446 cycle prediction. Tools for prioritizing research on processes could be useful for groups
2447 conducting empirical and modeling research. While some progress has been made on identifying
2448 sources of uncertainty within individual terrestrial biosphere models (e.g., Booth et al. 2012,
2449 Dietze et al. 2014) and within photosynthesis models (e.g., Dietze 2013; Rogers et al. 2017), these
2450 analyses omit larger-scale processes and those that are not yet included in models. NACP science
2451 should target understanding the magnitude of uncertainty caused by model process representation,

2452 including evaluating and improving mechanistic representations of these and other processes
2453 important for C cycle prediction. Additionally, measurement campaigns should target
2454 understanding key mechanisms contributing to representation uncertainty. These activities would
2455 help prioritize future scientific activity to reduce the greatest uncertainties in large-scale carbon-
2456 climate feedbacks.
2457

2458 **3.4.5 Focus Areas (Coupled human-natural systems and Land-Ocean-Aquatic** 2459 **Continuum)**

2460 In addition to predicting the indirect effects of humans on the carbon cycle from climate change
2461 and changes in atmospheric CO₂ and ozone etc., human activities include direct effects such as
2462 burning of fossil fuels, deforestation, silviculture, agriculture, marine management, land
2463 development (i.e., drainage), and land fragmentation and abandonment. The human systems and
2464 natural ecosystems influence one another in ways that our current observing systems and models
2465 are not currently designed to understand dynamically. Predicting the drivers and impacts of
2466 human-related activities requires taking into account existing infrastructure and investment
2467 lifetimes (i.e., ‘carbon lock-in’) and developing socio-economic scenarios of population growth
2468 and economic development. At short time scales (decadal), empirical models relating climate
2469 teleconnections, existing land cover and land use, and economic projections can be effective in
2470 predicting where land cover transitions may take place (Seto et al. 2012), and are important in the
2471 context of shorter-term monitoring of the carbon budget (Le Quere et al. 2018). At longer-term
2472 scales (i.e., centennial), tools like Integrated Assessment Models allow exploration of a range of
2473 population and economic growth scenarios coupled with policy and radiative forcing assumptions,
2474 similar to those used in the IPCC process (e.g. O’Neil et al. 2017). Up to now, much of the socio-
2475 economic and human integration with carbon cycle modeling has taken place in an offline
2476 approach, for example, where land cover and land-use change scenarios are provided as diagnostic
2477 inputs to models (Hurtt et al. 2020). There is a need to more comprehensively couple human-
2478 drivers, including energy consumption and type choices, ecosystem management decisions,
2479 infrastructure efficiency, socioeconomics, and agricultural and urban development preferences,
2480 into carbon cycle models to effectively constrain feedbacks between the Earth system and human
2481 activities (see, e.g., Woodard et al. 2018), particularly as carbon management and geoengineering
2482 technologies are proposed as climate mitigation solutions, i.e., BECCS (Fuss et al. 2018).
2483

2484 Emissions from the burning of fossil fuels are the primary cause of increasing atmospheric CO₂
2485 levels (Friedlingstein et al., 2019), and these fuels have supplied ~85% of primary energy used
2486 worldwide in recent years (IEA WEO, 2018). Although inventories of fossil emissions based on
2487 energy statistics are regularly published (Andres et al., 2012), little research effort to date has
2488 focused on predicting future fossil emissions or their spatial patterns in the context of population,
2489 lifestyle, and development trajectories. Energy forecasts are more common, but are notoriously
2490 unreliable, particularly in anticipating sudden economic changes or technological breakthroughs
2491 (Sherwin et al., 2018; Davis, 2018). Research aiming to predict emissions or even report emissions
2492 in near real-time is thus focused on improving the detail and currency of energy data and the
2493 techno-economic and weather-related factors that affect energy demand, as well as advances in
2494 data science to develop more accurate models. Promising sources of data include satellite
2495 observations of nightlights, ship traffic, aerosol concentrations (e.g., NO_x and SO₂), ozone
2496 measurements, and energy infrastructure, as well as country- and region-specific economic
2497 indicators of consumption, international trade, and industrial activity. Many of our most promising

2498 opportunities for emissions mitigation are at local, city-scales, granular activity data is needed to
2499 identify specific opportunities and assess the efficacy of mitigation efforts (Gurney et al. 2015;
2500 Gately and Hutyra 2017).

2501
2502 Prediction of land-use change emissions is similarly rare, again limited by the currency and detail
2503 of available information. The emissions impacts of land use changes can extend for decades as
2504 land cover can change repeatedly (e.g. forest converted to agriculture and then secondary
2505 regrowing forest) and has cascading impacts on the surrounding built and natural ecosystems.
2506 Satellite observations of land cover and land transitions gradients represents an increasingly
2507 promising source of data which may be used to improve either rule-based predictive approaches
2508 such as cellular automata and simple Markov models or more sophisticated, economic-based land-
2509 use models that assess the relationship among land-use allocations and the inherent productivity
2510 of the land as determined by biophysical features, returns to improvement of the land, society's
2511 preferences for various goods, and policies that manipulate economic returns (see, e.g., Radeloff
2512 et al., 2012).

2513
2514 Lateral carbon fluxes related to the land-ocean-aquatic continuum (LOAC) represent another focus
2515 area for predictive modeling. The LOAC accounts for inland water fluxes of CO₂ and CH₄, the
2516 transport of dissolved organic and inorganic carbon from headwaters to estuaries, and the fluxes
2517 of estuarine carbon to continental shelves and open ocean. Annually, and at global scales, these
2518 fluxes amount to >1 Pg C yr⁻¹ and regionally, the LOAC fluxes partly resolve bottom-up and top-
2519 down differences in carbon accounting (Kondo et al. 2020, Hayes et al., 2012), and are important
2520 components of wetland restoration and climate mitigation. With changes in climate, atmosphere
2521 CO₂, and land-use and land cover change, LOAC fluxes will likely be significantly altered. Current
2522 methodologies to estimate LOAC fluxes remain highly empirical, i.e., scaling fluxes made at the
2523 chamber scale by remote-sensing based areal estimates. This approach presents challenges for
2524 predictive modeling, especially when environmental conditions are changing. We recommend an
2525 emphasis on process-modeling approaches to represent LOAC fluxes and that these approach
2526 provide the basis for predictive modeling of LOAC at seasonal, decadal, and centennial time
2527 scales.

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**** INTERNAL DRAFT ****
**** SOFT RELEASE FOR COMMENTS BY NACP COMMUNITY****

Chapter 3.5: Communication, Coordination and Decision Support

Lead Author: Molly E Brown; **Contributing Authors:** Catherine Champagne, Riley Duren, Vanessa Escobar, John S. Kimball, Benjamin L. Ruddell, and Daniel Sarewitz

Question: How can we develop science and models that provide data, projections, and understanding that are relevant, credible and useful for decision makers at the local, state and national scales?

3.5.1 Communication Goals

The NACP, along with the rest of the scientific community, has worked over the past decades to improve communication with policymakers, with a goal of informing sound public policy decision-making. Examples of institutions and individual scientists providing timely, appropriate, and high-quality information to Congress and government agencies can be drawn from public health, food availability and safety, and environmental management, as well as research and science education policy. On the topic of climate mitigation, land use, and environmental regulations, however, less progress has been made (Funk et al., 2015).

High-quality scientific information is needed by those envisioning solutions to many of the significant problems facing humanity. Research needs to provide the relevant information and scientific understanding needed to make wise policy decisions. To ensure support for this research and its use, the NACP must appropriately and effectively share its knowledge through the development of social media platforms, news organizations and monitoring systems, as is described in the last section of this chapter and throughout. How knowledge is shared will vary according to the potential uses, from the individual to the institution, from local decisions about a single tree to regulatory frameworks affecting entire countries (Cohen et al., 2014).

Since its founding, the NACP charged itself with a roughly decadal State of the Carbon Cycle Report that takes stock of current understanding and trends. The NACP and its participating community of scientists have been supported by multiple Federal agencies emphasizing a focus on changes to the carbon cycle. To ensure the plan is effective, the *Science Leadership Group (SLG)* works to communicate among government program managers, independent research groups, and multiple institutions not affiliated to the government. The people with whom this knowledge is shared must value—and to some degree internalize—its importance. For if the public does not value the benefits of science, funding will go elsewhere, and decisions will be made using whatever information might be at hand (Gropp, 2018). This chapter focuses on three communication goals for the NACP in the coming decades.

3.5.1.1 Reduce Information Access Barriers for Decision Makers

The NACP should work to address barriers to policy-relevant information through data-sharing, transparency, and open-access to information via public- and private-sector stakeholders. These barriers could include privacy, intellectual property, legal, liability or political concerns. The

2753 NACP has as its data policy the ‘full, open, and timely sharing of the full suite of North
2754 American data sets for all NACP researchers.’ Although this policy is in place, it continues to be
2755 challenging for researchers to comply with due to the need for datasets to be ‘final’, cleaned,
2756 searchable, referenced, and complete, something that for many datasets could take years to
2757 achieve.

2758
2759 However, it could be that information is shared, but policy makers are unable to use it because
2760 the research is not currently formulated in ways compatible with current decision-making
2761 models. For example, the National Acid Precipitation Assessment Program ambitiously
2762 attempted to develop the science base for a set of critical policy decisions regarding acid rain.
2763 According to several retrospective analyses, however, its results were largely ignored by decision
2764 makers because they were not timely, clearly connected to policies, and generated with specific
2765 policy-related priorities in mind (Jones et al., 1999). Relevant information for a pending policy
2766 decision may be available online, in the literature, and widely known, but if the information fails
2767 to be communicated in a way that can be accessed by policy makers, it won’t be used. Presenting
2768 the information is important but scaling of the information to targeted policy makers while also
2769 giving a timeline is also crucial. How long will this information be good for? Will the
2770 information support the policy in the future as well as now? Answering these questions is central
2771 to usability and can be addressed with surveys of various communities and stakeholders.

2772
2773 Developing and presenting carbon cycle science research with greater utility for policy makers
2774 requires an unprecedented amount of knowledge on the policy context and significant investment
2775 in time and resources in supporting decision making. Greater investment by agencies to provide
2776 clear, concise, targeted information for specific policies would enhance utilization of research,
2777 such as collating research on targets for scientifically defensible thresholds for carbon pricing.
2778 Working directly with stakeholders (both policy makers and the private sector) to determine
2779 what information they need, when its needed and linking this to published research would help
2780 improve the dialog and utilization of scientific research.

2781
2782 Innovative partnerships between researchers, funding entities, and beneficiary stakeholders could
2783 include public-private partnerships, such as the new collaboration between Google and the UN
2784 Environment division, in efforts to track specific environment-related development targets with a
2785 user-friendly Google front-end. The Global Carbon Project, the Long Term Ecological Research
2786 (LTER) program, NASA’s Earth Observing Program (EOS), National Ecological Observatory
2787 Network (NEON), the Ocean Carbon & Biogeochemistry and other programs provide great
2788 examples of additional and alternative communication activities that have impact and reach
2789 beyond that of the NACP. Similarly, the NACP could engage with high profile organizations
2790 with access to government and public policy decision makers. Organizations that use social
2791 media (e.g. Facebook, LinkedIn) and print media organizations (New York Times, Washington
2792 Times, etc) could engage with the NACP in their efforts to communicate broad findings to a
2793 broad spectrum of stakeholders.

2794
2795 Stakeholders are both providers of bottom-up information and also users of that information.
2796 Major private corporations and cities can benefit from NACP efforts by contributing data, and by
2797 then accessing analysis of how their carbon impacts compare with other corporations, cities and
2798 industries, or how their impacts contribute to national accounts. NACP can facilitate inter-

2799 stakeholder communication by integrating the information from many stakeholders in a shared
2800 frame of reference.

2801
2802 Another aspect of reducing barriers is the encouragement of funding, publishing and academic
2803 programs that reduce ‘silos’ and improve NACP scientists’ engagement in decision support and
2804 communication activities. Incentivization of service and education activities for this community
2805 means providing funding support and highly visible prestige to scientists who spend their time
2806 engaging with decision makers. Scientists need training on more constructive engagement with
2807 decision makers could also be useful. For scientists, there are similar communication barriers
2808 with policy makers as there are with media and the public.

2809 By encouraging, rewarding, and facilitating ‘user engagement’ from the start of new research
2810 projects, and encouraging scientists in making carbon cycle observations, models and tool
2811 development directed toward policy applications, the NACP can reduce barriers to scientists’
2812 participation in stakeholder engagement. The NACP can use incentives, clearly articulated
2813 selection criteria and funding opportunities to reduce barriers to participation.

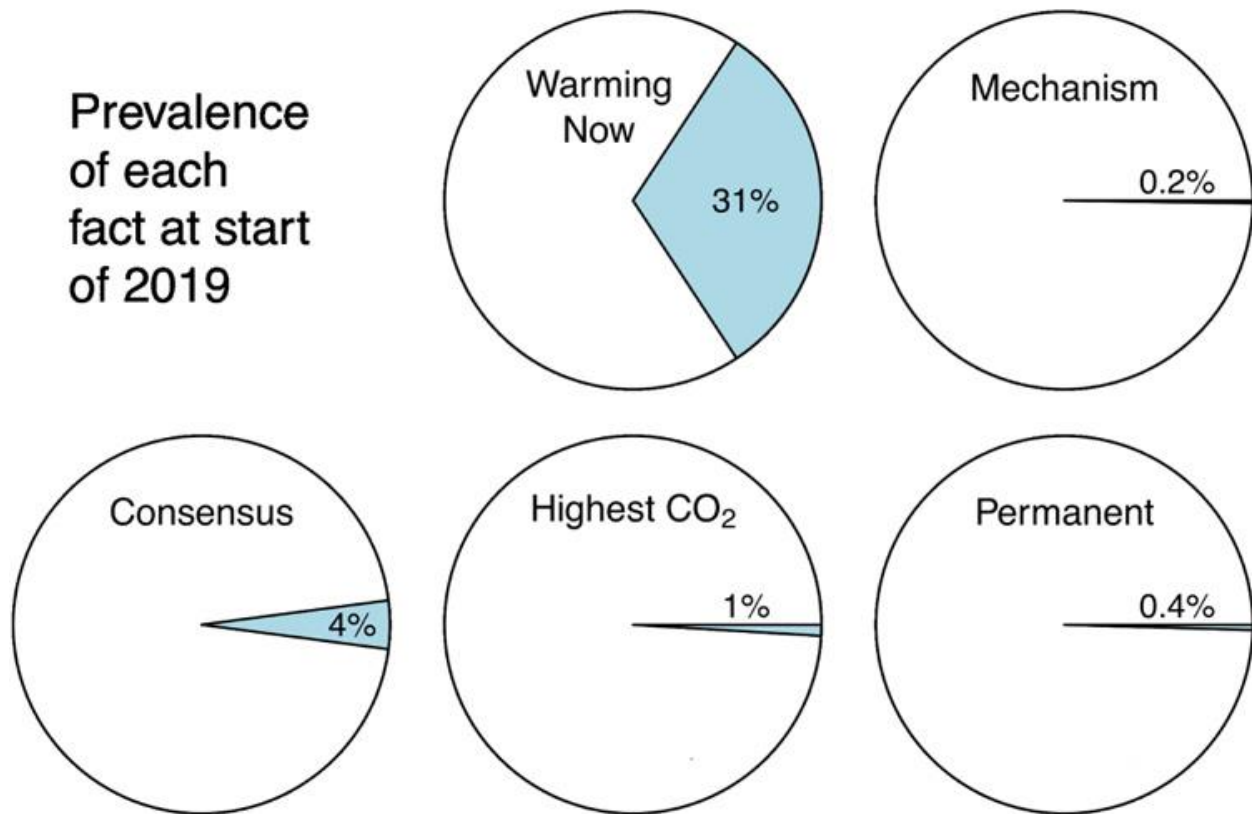
2814 2815 **3.5.1.2 Uncertainty in carbon knowledge and its communication and application by** 2816 **decision makers**

2817 A critical objective of the NACP is to produce bottom-up inventories, linking these to
2818 observations, connecting these observations to models, and communicating the resulting data
2819 uncertainties to both the scientific and stakeholder communities. This work has the potential to
2820 greatly improve the prioritization, formulation and verification of policies meant to reduce
2821 carbon emissions. By integrating across these scales, the NACP can improve policy makers’
2822 ability to understand the impact of policies on emissions.

2823
2824 Whereas past efforts have achieved significant advancement in detailed inventories,
2825 observations, and models, future efforts will require a systems-approach to provide actionable
2826 information for decision making. We need to know the systematic effects of uncertainty on
2827 decision making, both direct and indirect, of government policy, corporate investment, economic
2828 growth, and consumer behavior. This information must connect each participant in the system to
2829 the broader carbon cycle effects of their individual decisions. Communicating information and
2830 data with confidence estimates in both space and time allow for immediate understanding of the
2831 certainty of outcomes across both observations and models. Focusing on confidence estimates, as
2832 opposed to uncertainties, shifts the perception of the discussion from something of weakness to a
2833 topic of strength and optimism. “Uncertainty” puts decision making and policy people into an
2834 insecure state of mind, therefore a focus on confidence estimates is a better bet.

2835
2836 The NACP needs to create a communications strategy which is focused on the continual need to
2837 revisit, understand, and define how carbon cycle science findings are understood and used by the
2838 stakeholder community. Focusing on how confident the developer is, with clearly explained and
2839 visualized data, is critical for effective communication. Visual representations of probabilistic
2840 events are often misinterpreted by the general public and by policy makers. Although various
2841 uncertainty visualizations are now in use, the parameters that determine their successful
2842 deployment are still unknown and require more research to be effectively implemented (Tak et
2843 al., 2015). For example, uncertainty and error bars are seen as too “sciencey” and are not
2844 relatable for decision makers. This is an immediate deterrent as they feel the information is not

2845 tailored to them. Carbon cycle scientists should engage with scientific expertise from
2846 psychology, engineering and political science, among other disciplines, to effectively
2847 communicate their uncertainty information.
2848



2849 **Figure 1.** The percentage of climate change articles in the New York Times since 1980 that
2850 mention five basic facts about global warming: the climate is warming now, the mechanism is
2851 through the burning of fossil fuels, there is more CO₂ in the atmosphere than there has been for
2852 hundreds of thousands of years, and that these changes are effectively permanent. (Graphic by
2853 David Romps, UC Berkeley).
2854
2855

2856 3.5.1.3 Participate in the science of communicating science

2857 NACP needs to engage with the broader scientific community that is engaged in studying the
2858 most effective ways of communicating science with policy makers, private institutions, the
2859 public, and others. Communication approaches need to be adapted to reflect the circumstances
2860 around which the information is being imparted and the goals of the communication. There is a
2861 growing literature and expertise that can be drawn upon that can help inform the most effective
2862 ways of communicating with the public and with non-expert audiences, through a variety of
2863 outlets like social media (NAS, 2017). By clarifying the NACP's goals for communicating with
2864 different audiences within different contexts, the strategy taken will vary. The NACP should
2865 engage with science communicators and social scientists researching the complex individual and
2866 social phenomena that impede or enhance science communication.
2867

2868 The NACP should engage with social scientists to identify process-level understanding of human
2869 factors that determine carbon emissions from energy use, industrial activities, transportation and

2870 others to increase relevance of carbon cycle science. The challenge is not only in understanding
2871 how policy makers at various levels and the public interpret available science, but also
2872 understanding how carbon cycle science can be more accessible and relevant to individual and
2873 collective decision making. In addition, the NACP should confront the challenge posed by
2874 *intentional* dissemination of misinformation about climate change and efforts to undermine trust
2875 in scientific and governmental institutions.

2876
2877 The domain of the NACP is to study the sources and sinks of carbon with the expectation that
2878 resulting knowledge should ultimately be accessible and salient to stakeholders at a variety of
2879 levels. Although scientific research does not have a simple cause-and-effect relationship with
2880 improved societal outcomes, research has led to policies seeking to reduce society's exposure to
2881 extreme events (Rosenzweig et al., 2014). Although it is a goal of the NACP to improve
2882 communication of carbon cycle research to decision makers, to do this it is necessary that natural
2883 sciences be integrated with the study of human processes. However, the integration of social and
2884 human aspects in carbon science is challenged by the need for translation and cooperation
2885 between different kinds of stakeholders. Researchers tend to interact more closely and share
2886 similar technical language with other researchers in their own fields, which can frustrate
2887 interdisciplinary cooperation amongst those who study natural sciences, social sciences, and
2888 economics.

2889 **Key Priorities for communication**

- 2891 1. *Rewarding NACP scientists for engagement with stakeholders early in the research*
2892 *process.*
- 2893 2. *Investment in new capabilities in uncertainty communication and interdisciplinary work*
2894 *to visualize effectively how certain models, processes and outcomes are for a diversity of*
2895 *audiences.*
- 2896 3. *NACP institutional engagement across multiple social science and physical science*
2897 *disciplines to ensure that scientific outputs are able to provide joint representation of*
2898 *natural and managed systems that can be communicated to stakeholders.*
- 2899 4. *Facilitate inter-stakeholder communication by placing stakeholder-originated carbon*
2900 *information within a shared frame of reference.*

2901 2902 2903 **3.5.2 Decision Support Goals**

2904 The readiness of decision makers to receive climate information varies widely, from those who
2905 do not consider climate in any decisions to those who are entirely focused on adaptation and
2906 mitigation. The NACP should engage its community in developing flexible, customizable tools
2907 that allow users to access appropriate scientific information which is understandable regardless
2908 of the sophistication of the user.

2909 2910 **3.5.2.1 Engagement with boundary organizations to co-produce knowledge**

2911 Public policy and decision making must become increasingly dependent on expertise and expert
2912 knowledge. Boundary organizations can facilitate a science-policy and science-management
2913 interaction that is dynamic and collaborative. Science from the NACP contributes to rules,
2914 regulations, and legislation but also to decisions made by environmental managers and industry
2915 at a variety of scales as they interpret and implement policies. By engaging with boundary

2916 organizations at a variety of scales, the NACP can facilitate multidisciplinary research and the
2917 interaction and engagement with policy makers in the local, regional, national and international
2918 arenas.

2919
2920 Boundary organizations can facilitate the interactions between science producers and users,
2921 enabling the NACP to ensure that scientists are able to provide essential information to decision
2922 makers while continuing to focus on their own science and expertise. Guston defines a boundary
2923 organization using three criteria:

- 2924 - The organizations provide the opportunity and sometimes the incentives for the creation
2925 and use of boundary objects and standardized packages;
- 2926 - They involve the participation of actors from both sides of the boundary, as well as
2927 professionals who serve a mediating role; and
- 2928 - They exist at the frontier of the two relatively different social worlds of politics and
2929 science, but they have distinct lines of accountability to each (Guston, 2001).

2930 By facilitating the communication between its scientists and organizations making decisions
2931 such as regulators or businesses, the NACP can contribute to the increased uptake of the science
2932 and improve the relevance of the data products and science that the NACP members create. This
2933 engagement ensures the accurate identification of decision makers and the information they need
2934 to make better decisions, along with the design of the best possible scientific data products and
2935 communication systems to deliver the information these decision makers require.

2936
2937 Examples of effective boundary institutions include the Decision Center for a Desert City,
2938 located at Arizona State University, which focuses on developing fundamental knowledge about
2939 decision making from three interdisciplinary perspectives: climatic uncertainties, urban-system
2940 dynamics, and adaptation decisions. The Decision Center has worked with Phoenix communities
2941 to implement sustainable development goals and increase equity, sustainability and resilience in
2942 a desert city (Sachs et al., 2019; Stanley, 2017). Another example is the use of sea level rise
2943 information in climate adaptation measures taken urban areas. The New York City Panel on
2944 Climate Change is a New York City Mayor appointed advisory board of researchers who act as a
2945 boundary organization, guiding the infrastructure and adaptation investments in the New York
2946 and New Jersey Port authority (Mills-Knapp et al., 2011). These changes have resulted in
2947 increases in property values, particularly in areas proximate to hard infrastructure, green
2948 infrastructure, and building structural elevation projects (Kim, 2020).

2949
2950 Two additional examples are given below. Both involve boundary organizations who have been
2951 directly involved in producing science or have been collaborators on grants and research. Molly
2952 Macauley of Resources for the Future (RFF) has collaborated on projects and grants with a
2953 variety of NACP scientists since 2009, and therefore had a hand in focusing efforts of scientists
2954 and their use of remote sensing data in models to ensure their relevance to decision making.

2955
2956 **Example 1: Resources for the Future engagement with forest regulations for carbon**
2957 **sequestration**

2958 In the United States, forests store the equivalent of 52 years' worth of US carbon emissions. This
2959 reservoir is expanding by about 0.5 percent per year; however, net growth is expected to decline
2960 over the next 30 years, primarily due to land use changes and forests aging. In order to mitigate
2961 this decline and expand carbon storage in forests, the Obama-era Mid-century Strategy for Deep

2962 Decarbonization proposed a set of policy options, including afforestation (creating new forests),
2963 avoided deforestation, and by implementing forest management strategies. Forests are also at the
2964 root of House Republican leaders’ push to capture carbon dioxide from the atmosphere.
2965 Recently, they unveiled plans for a series of climate bills, among which is a proposal to grow
2966 more trees “for the purpose of sequestering carbon. **Boundary organization Resources For the**
2967 **Future (RFF)** is working to determine the amount of carbon forests may sequester and the
2968 potential effectiveness of the policy. RFF is also working directly with satellite remote sensing
2969 scientists and modelers to determine the impact of different forest policies and emissions from
2970 forest harvest, notably using high resolution forest maps generated by Huang et al (2019). By
2971 evaluating potential and existing policies using data and information generated by the NACP,
2972 RFF can directly influence future policies of the United States.

2973
2974

2975 **Example 2: Finite Carbon and Forest Offsets**

2976 The boundary organization Finite Carbon Corporation has worked with a wide variety of
2977 landowners and corporations to create forest reserves that can generate revenue from the
2978 protection, restoration and sustainable management of forests. By putting a price on carbon, the
2979 organization allows for carbon emitters to invest in forest conservation and reduce their impact
2980 on the environment. Finite Carbon has recently been acquired by oil giant BP in their efforts to
2981 diversify their sustainability offerings and accelerate their net-zero goals.

2982

2983 Finite Carbon works to increase the ability of the forest management community to scale-up the
2984 infrastructure needed to quantify, monitor and verify the carbon sequestered in forests in the
2985 United States. As of 2021, the corporation has 50 carbon projects on three million acres in the
2986 US and is working to extend this effort to new geographies. By aggregating forest plots as small
2987 as 40 acres together, the organization will enable small landowners to access the carbon offset
2988 market, reducing barriers including high transaction and reporting costs. Through use of
2989 systematically applied modeling, verification and monitoring, the corporation is working to
2990 ensure that the carbon sequestered through its efforts delivers long-term results .

2991

2992

2993

2994 The NACP can contribute to ensuring that there is funding to support the engagement of
2995 scientists with policy makers, decision makers and others who may use their science. Co-
2996 production of knowledge through identifying user information demands and working with the
2997 users from the start of the scientific process allows scientists to develop results that are both
2998 usable and socially robust, and contributes to users being more engaged and invested in the
2999 science. User-driven science thrives when institutions shift priorities to meet user needs and set
3000 reward structures accordingly. By ensuring that there is funding for improved science
3001 communication across multiple institutions, formats, and objectives, the NACP can ensure that
3002 these efforts are prioritized and valued within its research agenda.

3003

3004 When scientists communicate useful information more effectively to decision makers, science
3005 thrives. Science is increasingly interdisciplinary, which fosters collaboration and innovation.
3006 Being able to communicate the relevance and impact of their ideas and discoveries can enhance
3007 scientists’ ability to secure funding or find a job. It allows them to write better and more

3008 comprehensible research papers and to utilize more relevant communication tools. It also allows
3009 them to be better teachers and mentors for next-generation scientists. There needs to be a
3010 stronger emphasis on the information handoff and knowledge continuity during research
3011 programs if we are to ever bridge the gap between science and policy. This takes significant
3012 effort and time, which needs to be included in grants and proposal opportunities provided by
3013 funders. The NACP can inform these agencies on the importance of including science
3014 communication in their funding efforts.

3015

3016 **3.5.2.2 Reducing Barriers to Access for Decision Makers**

3017 The scientific community should prioritize engagement with frameworks and boundary
3018 institutions early in their research process to accelerate and enhance their individual efforts in
3019 working with policy makers. Carbon cycle science will require improved interaction and
3020 information exchange not only within and among different scientific disciplines, but also with
3021 stakeholders and policy makers – people who require up-to-date assessments, improved
3022 approaches for understanding complex and interdependent issues, and ways of quantifying and
3023 dealing with uncertainty (West et al., 2018). There is a need to bridge the differences between
3024 the research results published by scientists and the information needed to make decisions
3025 regarding policy and regulation – to translate research findings into meaningful input for these
3026 groups. This work can be done through boundary organizations that can ensure a sustained and
3027 ongoing dialogue among the different groups to raise awareness of both what science can
3028 provide and what science cannot provide, and of the uncertainties associated with current
3029 assessments and projections of the future (Michalak et al., 2011).

3030

3031 In order to engage decision makers, stakeholder mapping is required for the institutions and
3032 individuals involved in investment, production, consumption, management, and policy making
3033 that substantially impact the carbon cycle. Each stakeholder should be characterized in terms of
3034 their connections to other stakeholders, their direct emissions and emissions decisions,
3035 constraints and incentives surrounding their behavioral decisions, ability to create change in
3036 other actors through regulatory mandates, persuasion, purchasing choices, specific decisions and
3037 information needs for those decisions, the timeline of decisions, and the precision,
3038 authoritativeness, and latency requirements placed on that information. Boundary organizations
3039 do this knowledge mapping and provide sustained engagement with these institutions and
3040 decision makers, which will improve the ability of NACP scientists to make an impact.

3041

3042 For example, investment in energy infrastructure in rapidly growing urban areas should take into
3043 account a wide variety of information which will help policy makers set up the investment and
3044 appropriately size the infrastructure according to the economic, demographic and technology
3045 projections of the area being served. Scientists can contribute to providing information to the
3046 decision making, but instead of attempting to work with each individual organization they may
3047 achieve greater impact and efficiency by working through a boundary organization. An example
3048 of a boundary organization working at the metropolitan scale is the Decision Center for a Desert
3049 City (DCDC), whose mission is to advance knowledge about decision making under uncertainty
3050 in the context of water sustainability and urban climate change adaptation. By working across
3051 multiple institutions at different levels, the DCDC is focused on improving decision making
3052 across the Colorado River Basin and the cities that rely upon its water in a warming and drying

3053 climate. NACP science can be instrumental in understanding how the climate is changing and
3054 helping the cities in the Basin craft appropriate responses to these changes.

3055
3056 An example of an institution that engages with policy in Canada is Ouranos, which is self-
3057 described as an “innovation cluster and consultation forum enabling Quebec society to better
3058 adapt to climate change”. They are effective knowledge translators for key industries on climate
3059 change and carbon emissions reduction. For over 15 years, Ouranos has been providing climate
3060 information to regional and national clients, helping them identify and implement climate change
3061 adaptation strategies and improve regulation and decision making in government. A national-
3062 level boundary organization is the Consortium for Science, Policy and Outcomes (CSPO) that
3063 focuses on translating science for government across multiple disciplines. They do research on
3064 policy for science (how we nurture the health of the research enterprise) and science for policy (how
3065 we use knowledge more effectively to achieve social goals).

3066
3067

3068 **3.5.2.3 Engagement that produces research Outputs that are relevant, credible, and** 3069 **legitimate for Decision Makers**

3070 As part of the idea of co-production of knowledge, scientists have been encouraged to ‘address
3071 decision maker needs for current and future carbon cycle information and provide data and
3072 projections that are relevant, credible, and legitimate for their decisions’ (Goal 6, US Carbon
3073 Cycle Science Plan, 2011). To do this, scientists must be sufficiently aware of the needs of
3074 decision makers and be working in an area that is able to create sufficiently accurate, relevant
3075 science results.

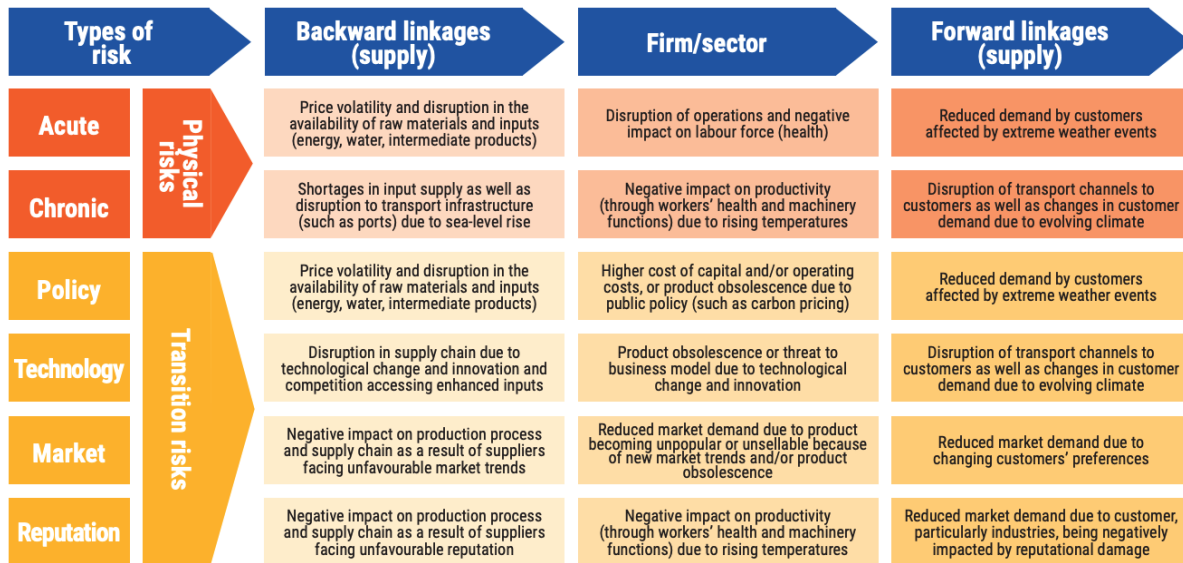
3076
3077 Part of being relevant and responsive to decision maker needs is being able to define who the
3078 decision maker is that the research is addressing. What aspect of the carbon cycle do these
3079 decision makers work on, and which are affected by particular decisions (sinks, sources, stocks,
3080 flows)? What information do the decision makers need, get, and act upon? Clearly identifying
3081 the deficits in the information at each level of decision-making, and the participating actors, is a
3082 clear first step in designing relevant carbon research. Mapping information and capabilities of the
3083 NACP community to the needs of users will allow production of information in formats and
3084 timing that align with standard practices for a variety of decision makers.

3085
3086 Another essential part of this goal is to establish a shared vision of what knowledge is usable in
3087 decision processes. For example, how can data, models and observations provide critical
3088 information about the ‘extreme’ upper tail of climate response and threatened damage due to
3089 carbon emissions, linking improved understanding, observations and models of carbon processes
3090 to the urgency for action. Just writing papers about these extreme responses may be insufficient
3091 to engender a response – we must understand the usability of data, research and information
3092 within decision making processes.

3093
3094 One of the most relevant research outputs is information regarding carbon emissions and offsets
3095 within the supply chain. Most private organizations choose to mitigate emissions indirectly by
3096 investing in offsets within their supply chains, or in partnership with carbon credit markets.
3097 Indirect emissions, supply chain emissions, and offset research and data is therefore a priority-
3098 including specifically data regarding Scope 1 or direct emissions such as from vehicles owned by

3099 the firm or direct consumption of energy while doing business, Scope 2 or indirect emissions
 3100 such as from purchased electricity, and Scope 3 emissions, which include other indirect
 3101 emissions such as employee travel, waste disposal, production of purchased materials, use of
 3102 products and purchased services that emit greenhouse gases.

3103
 3104



3105
 3106 **Figure 2.** shows the variety of both physical and transition risks small and medium sized
 3107 businesses face from climate change, which involve both supply chain as well as direct threats to
 3108 business functioning via demand and distribution impacts. from Montmasson-Clair (2019)
 3109

3110 Having clear guidance and description of the data needs of potential users of carbon cycle
 3111 science could allow a standardization of format, resolution, latency and continuity of data for
 3112 decision makers across a variety of organizations. For example, NASA provides low latency
 3113 datasets by creating a parallel processing stream that reduces the time between the satellite
 3114 observation and the issuing of the product to meet decision making requirements. One key
 3115 difference between low latency and standard data products is that low latency geolocation may
 3116 not be as accurate because the standard products use the best knowledge of the spacecraft
 3117 position and attitude which may not be available until after the low latency products are
 3118 produced (Davies et al., 2017). However, if these products cannot be used if they have a longer
 3119 latency regardless of their accuracy, they cannot provide the utmost value to society and to
 3120 decision makers. A similar parallel approach could be taken by NACP scientists so that the
 3121 format, resolution, latency or necessary continuity of data needed for effective use of their
 3122 science output is understood and planned for. Research funding should incentivize the inclusion
 3123 of user needs assessments in projects.

3124
 3125

3126 **Key priorities:**

- 3127 1. *The NACP can develop a database of effective boundary institutions for different*
 3128 *research themes, datasets, and stakeholders.*

- 3129 2. *Encourage and train researchers to identify potential stakeholders and decision makers*
3130 *for each model, research output and relevant insight that may emerge from their*
3131 *research.*
3132 3. *NACP should support and engage with researchers over multiple funding cycles to create*
3133 *decision support tools that can ingest, present and connect to decision makers at a*
3134 *variety of scales.*
3135
3136

3.5.3 Coordination Goals:

3138 Improved coordination across agencies, institutions and researchers would greatly improve the
3139 impact of NACP research. Coordinating among climate, land-use, global and regional economic
3140 and energy modeling would greatly improve the ability of models to speak to one another and to
3141 enable engagement with stakeholder communities who seek to understand impacts across all
3142 these domains. This effort would require high-level coordination among research organizations
3143 that support modeling in different research fields, as well as by organizations seeking to use the
3144 information. In this section, we focus on how the NACP can encourage and lead efforts to ensure
3145 this coordination happens.
3146

3.5.3.1 Coordination across modeling institutions

3148 Modeling of the impact of climate on carbon cycling integrates various biogeochemical and
3149 socioeconomic components of the earth system can be quite complex, a number of quantitative
3150 models have been developed to study earth system-wide climate changes and the effect of
3151 various types of public policies on projections of future climate change. For example, one class
3152 of models, the “integrated assessment of climate change” or simply integrated assessment
3153 models (IAMs), use data from multiple sources and data modeling approaches from multiple
3154 disciplines. These models have as their objective to project alternative future climates with and
3155 without various types of climate change policies in place in order to give policymakers at all
3156 levels of government and industry an idea of the stakes involved in deciding whether or not to
3157 implement various policies (Weyant, 2017). The literature on models is spread across many
3158 disciplines, with publications appearing in a wide range of journals, including those that focus on
3159 earth sciences, biological sciences, environmental engineering, economics, sociology,
3160 technological change, and other related fields.
3161

3162 Coupled life cycle analysis models, which include integrated assessment, economic, biophysical
3163 and land-cover and land-use change data, can be integrated with decision support systems to
3164 improve the effectiveness of policies. Because most data collection, accounting and modeling
3165 efforts are independent of each other, using a systems approach and data assimilation, the NACP
3166 research community could integrate research areas to explore data similarities and differences
3167 and better understand sources of error across modeling frameworks. In addition, by integrating
3168 models, investments made in one sector, for example in land use change data, can be translated
3169 directly into improving carbon and economic models used in decision making. Research efforts
3170 on different methods of observing and modeling carbon sinks and emissions can be enhanced by
3171 better understanding uncertainty in existing inventory estimates and finding ways to make them
3172 more complete.

3173 The NACP can act as a coordinating institution and host meetings, research events, and sessions
3174 that bring together these diverse communities to improve modeling coordination. These efforts
3175 can focus initially on ensuring the output from one model can be used as input to another, but
3176 should eventually extend to coordinating output, decision support tools, funding and engagement
3177 with boundary institutions.

3178 **3.5.3.2 Increasing Institutional Collaboration and linkages across research and decision**
3179 **making**

3180 The governments' use of data—such as information collected by performance measures,
3181 environmental surveys, and findings from program evaluations and research studies—to drive
3182 decision making can help federal agencies improve program implementation, identify and correct
3183 problems, and make other management decisions. Although agencies struggle to effectively use
3184 this approach, evidence-based policy tools can help them incorporate performance information
3185 into decision making. Providing appropriate information at the right time, which all federal, state
3186 and local agencies concerned with climate change and environmental management contribute to,
3187 should greatly improve collaboration and uptake of research into decision making.

3188
3189 The NACP should continue to deepen collaboration with the Global Carbon Project (GCP), the
3190 Integrated Carbon Observation System (ICOS) and other global research communities to
3191 investigate North America's contributions to global emissions, the accumulation of GHGs, and
3192 the airborne fraction. By engaging with these organizations who are also supporting boundary
3193 institutions, the NACP members can enhance and accelerate their ability to engage with decision
3194 makers in the local, national and international arenas. Through international collaboration, the
3195 NACP can develop new mechanisms to communicate science findings to a variety of
3196 constituents, improving tools available to communicate results.

3197
3198 For example, in its 2018 work plan, ICOS has defined its target groups for provision of up-to-
3199 date information as the general public, the ICOS scientific community, and decision-makers,
3200 funders and supporters. The plan states that one of its main channels of communication is the
3201 website, with their 'Instagram and the #ICOScapes campaign' being promising and to be further
3202 invested in. Similarly, the GCP has focused one of its activities on a 'Global Carbon Budget'
3203 process, whose primary audience is the UNFCCC process and the stakeholders invested in it. To
3204 this end, it has developed a conservative, incremental and regular process to issue its annual
3205 Budget at the Conference of Parties (COP) every year. The NACP could contribute to these
3206 campaigns and may consider targeting the development of specific research and models that
3207 could be instrumental in these efforts.

3208
3209 **3.5.3.3 Improve inter-agency coordination for integrated observation and monitoring systems**

3210 The NACP can promote the goals of the Carbon Cycle Interagency Working Group (CCIWG) at
3211 the federal level. The working group coordinates carbon cycle research funded by USGCRP's
3212 member agencies. CCIWG is responsible for US Carbon Cycle Science Program goals, setting
3213 research priorities, and reviewing the progress of the Federal research programs that contribute to
3214 carbon cycle science. The group promotes interagency cooperation and coordination, helps to
3215 secure funding, and prepare individual and joint agency initiatives and solicitations. Because the
3216 carbon cycle is associated with a wide range of global change research needs, CCIWG works

3217 closely with other USGCRP Interagency Working Groups and engages with U.S. and
3218 international partners.

3219
3220 NASA's Carbon Monitoring System (CMS) project is a good example of how the many federal
3221 agencies could work together to improve decision support and communication of the impact of a
3222 changing climate on North America and its people. The CMS project is forward-looking and
3223 designed to make significant contributions in characterizing, quantifying, understanding, and
3224 predicting the evolution of global carbon sources and sinks through improved monitoring of
3225 carbon stocks and fluxes. The approaches developed have emphasized the exploitation of NASA
3226 satellite remote sensing resources, computational capabilities, airborne science capabilities,
3227 scientific knowledge, and end-to-end system expertise in combination with effective use of
3228 commercial off-the-shelf (COTS) measurement capabilities in order to prototype key data
3229 products for Monitoring, Reporting and Verification (MRV). Significant effort is being devoted
3230 to rigorous evaluation of the carbon monitoring products being produced, as well as to the
3231 characterization and quantification of errors and uncertainties in those products.

3232 Additional activities of the CMS include greenhouse gas emission inventories, forest carbon
3233 sequestration programs (e.g., Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation
3234 (REDD and REDD+), cap-and-trade systems, self-reporting programs, and their associated
3235 monitoring, reporting and verification (MRV) frameworks. These activities depend upon data
3236 that are accurate, systematic, practical, and transparent. A sustained, observationally-driven
3237 carbon monitoring system using remote sensing data has the potential to significantly improve
3238 the relevant carbon cycle information base for the U.S. and world. Work is needed to prototype
3239 and mature relevant measurement and analytical approaches for use in support of MRV
3240 frameworks.

3241 The needs of management and policy domains at national, regional and municipal levels require
3242 spatial scales and timescales that are often not available. The most relevant time scales for
3243 decisions are 5-10 years. These space-time constraints don't often match with earth system and
3244 integrated assessment models so some level of downscaling should be involved to enhance utility
3245 of model projections. Information which is poorly matched in time or in resolution won't be used
3246 and will leave decisions to be made without support.

3247 NASA's Carbon Monitoring System (CMS) project is prototyping and conducting pilot studies
3248 to evaluate technological approaches and methodologies to meet this need. The NASA CMS
3249 project is a funded grant program which focuses on developing global models and policy-
3250 relevant prototype data products that incorporate remote sensing data products that can be shown
3251 to help decision makers. In contrast, NACP is a multi-disciplinary science program that
3252 incorporates a much broader set of issues, models, observations and scientists, but is primarily
3253 focused on Canada, the United States and Mexico. The NACP can explicitly address
3254 anthropogenic emissions, policy relevance, carbon cycle models and observations across a very
3255 broad set of disciplines. Because the NASA CMS is a funding program, it cannot engage with
3256 international scientists and with scientists who were not successful in obtaining funding. The two
3257 programs have similar goals with different constraints and scope.

3258 Key Priorities for Coordination:

- 3259 1. *Set up systems to ensure improved coordination and interoperability among models and*
3260 *disciplines to generate appropriate information for decision makers.*
3261 2. *Provide strategic and visionary guidance for multiple agencies and institutions seeking to*
3262 *inform policy through improved coordination and engagement.*
3263 3. *Form linkages and clear pathways for engagement across institutions and scales for*
3264 *improved carbon monitoring and decision making.*
3265
3266

3.5.4 Decision Support and Monitoring Systems for Carbon Management

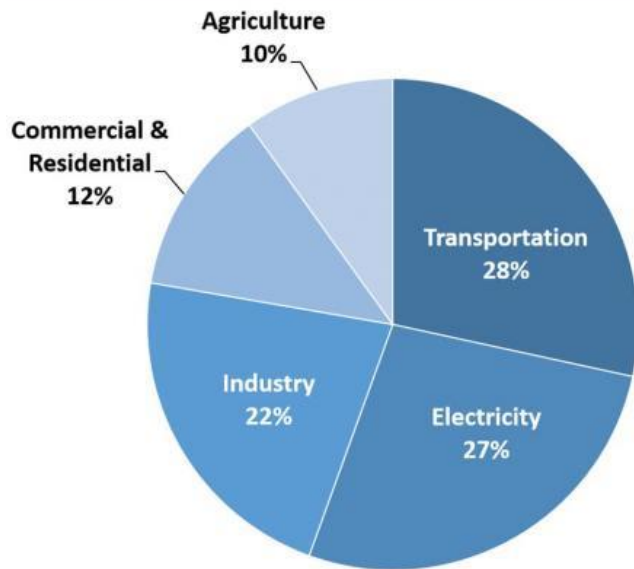
3267 The NACP has been focused on developing appropriate scientific foundations for effective
3268 communication and support for decision making. The next step in effective support for carbon
3269 monitoring is setting up a center where information, data, models and expertise can be available
3270 to support government actions on carbon management and policy development. This section
3271 provides a brief outline of how the NACP could contribute to the development of such a system
3272 to support effective policies and leadership on climate mitigation and adaptation.
3273
3274

3275 Here, we define *carbon monitoring* as being focused on sustained measurement or assessment of
3276 all carbon dynamics that are needed to estimate total carbon exchange between the biosphere and
3277 atmosphere (West et al., 2013). The West et al paper also defines *carbon management* as an
3278 effort to manage human activities that alters baseline carbon stocks and fluxes, including fossil
3279 fuel production and combustion, land cover change, agriculture or geoengineering of the carbon
3280 cycle. To determine the effectiveness of policies, incentives and regulation on emissions, *carbon*
3281 *accounting* includes efforts to reconcile carbon stocks and fluxes across space and time to create
3282 seamless estimates that can be used to address the needs of decision makers.
3283

3.5.4.1 Information and monitoring for carbon management

3284 A decision support system (DSS) is a set of data and models that support decision making across
3285 a variety of scales. DSSs serve the management, operational and planning levels of
3286 organizations and help people to make decisions about problems that are rapidly changing or that
3287 are not easily specified in advance. Because the production of greenhouse gases in the United
3288 States is a multi-sector problem (Figure X) that includes large scale sources that can be easily
3289 identified (such as electricity generation) along with millions of small sources such as residential
3290 heating or car emissions that need to be managed using policy or economic mechanisms, a DSS
3291 is needed to allow for rapid analysis of impact of policies to ensure that they are effective. The
3292 United States does not have decades to determine which set of punitive regulations, financial
3293 incentives and policies actually reduce emissions overall. Since ‘my carbon is your carbon’,
3294 there is significant danger that some policies may actually increase overall carbon emissions
3295 through unintended impacts.
3296
3297

Total U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Economic Sector in 2018



3298
3299 **Figure X.** Total Emissions in 2018 = 6,677 [Million Metric Tons of CO₂ equivalent](#). Percentages may not add up to
3300 100% due to independent rounding. Land use, land-use change, and forestry in the United States is a net sink
3301 and offsets approximately 12 percent of these greenhouse gas emissions, this emissions offset is not included in
3302 total above. All emission estimates from the [Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990–2018](#).
3303

3304 Monitoring carbon emissions includes both top down and bottom-up analysis and modelling, and
3305 a significant advancement in our ability to attribute carbon emissions to specific sources and
3306 sectors. For example, if an incentive was set up for Americans to switch from a petroleum car to
3307 an electric car, total emissions of these vehicles must include the mining of raw materials,
3308 manufacturing and maintenance of the batteries that they run on, as well as the entire electrical
3309 generation system needed to charge them throughout their life cycle. Electric vehicles will only
3310 reduce overall emissions from the transportation sector if they are combined with recycling
3311 systems to reuse and reduce emissions in the mining sector, and massive reductions in the carbon
3312 intensity of the electricity generation sector will be needed. Without this end-to-end approach,
3313 appropriate policies cannot be developed that actually will reduce emissions substantially. This
3314 kind of science is typically beyond what the NACP works on, but will be essential for
3315 development of appropriate and effective policies.
3316

3317 **3.5.4.2 Engaging across temporal and spatial scales for Decision-Appropriate Carbon** 3318 **Accounting**

3319 A significant issue that is often encountered in carbon modeling is developing modeling systems
3320 that can be used directly in carbon accounting. Since carbon accounting requires reconciling
3321 carbon stocks and fluxes across space and time, they require that top-down models are connected
3322 to bottom-up estimates. *Top-down estimation methods* are generated by estimating the total net
3323 exchange of CO₂ between the biosphere and atmosphere. While attribution is difficult with these
3324 approaches, they can verify and constrain bottom-up estimations and are often combined with
3325 atmospheric transport and inversion models. *Bottom-up estimates* are generated by summing all

3326 known carbon sinks and sources from all relevant carbon-containing and carbon-emitting
3327 entities. These may include inventories, ecosystem process models or site-specific measurements
3328 from instrumented towers, remote sensing observations, or industrial activities. Bottom-up
3329 methods are often used directly in attribution, such as the emissions produced by electricity
3330 generation.

3331
3332 Decision support will require a significant modeling effort by the NACP community to not only
3333 reconcile these different models but increase their interoperability to allow their use in decision
3334 support. Carbon accounting methods change based on stakeholder interests. For example,
3335 terrestrial fluxes that are compared with atmospheric fluxes differ from life cycle analyses of
3336 terrestrial carbon stock changes (West et al., 2013). The initial measurements and estimates are
3337 the same, but the accounting and use of the information are different. By setting up a system that
3338 allows for interactive and transparent use of not only the carbon measurements, but also the
3339 modeling framework to enable immediate analysis of current conditions.

3340
3341 An additional aspect of decision-appropriate carbon accounting is a facility to estimate the likely
3342 impact of investments in infrastructure, imposition of a regulation or of a financial incentive.
3343 *Policy analysis* is a technique used in public administration to enable civil servants, activists, and
3344 others to examine and evaluate the available options to realize carbon emission reductions. Given
3345 the complexity of the climate change problem, any effective policy will require a suite of policy
3346 analysis tools, which must begin with flexible and far-reaching carbon accounting.

3347 3348 **3.5.4.3 Communicating uncertainty in information and monitoring systems**

3349 Uncertainty quantification is a critical aspect to carbon cycle science and analysis. There are
3350 uncertainties across every aspect of carbon accounting, from the initial carbon emission
3351 observations through to the process models and downscaling of total greenhouse gases in the
3352 atmosphere. Understanding which uncertainties are the largest and most important to the overall
3353 system will help guide decisions about where to best direct resources to reduce them. This will
3354 require further analytical and comparative work, outlined in the other chapters of this plan.

3355
3356 Communicating the level of confidence to decision makers, as is described in section 4.5.1.2 of
3357 this chapter, will be essential. Carbon management is in its infancy, as are the policy analysis
3358 tools needed to support it. Investment and long term support of both the science and the
3359 communication across the broad set of economic, political and social/cultural sectors is essential
3360 for success. These need to focus not only on the impact of policies, but also the profoundly
3361 uncertain outcome of climate change itself. Models are not predictive of the future, particularly
3362 when technology and economic activities are involved.

3363 3364 **3.5.4.4 Managing risk to governments, institutions and individuals**

3365 Risks from climate change to society, government, institutions and individuals is profound
3366 Numerous studies have concluded that climate change poses risks to many environmental and
3367 economic systems. Modeling of climate change risks suggests that the coming century is likely
3368 to be characterized by challenges to food and water security (Brown et al., 2015), coastal zones
3369 (Vitousek et al., 2017), infrastructure (Dawson et al., 2018), industry (Bui and De Villiers, 2017),
3370 urban areas (*Guid. to Clim. Chang. Adapt. Cities*, 2011), biodiversity (Bhuiyan et al., 2018) and

3371 human health (McMichael et al., 2006). Climate change acts as a threat multiplier, exacerbating
3372 current problems of poverty, agriculture and governance (Rosenzweig et al., 2017).

3373
3374 These threats cut across sectors and are particularly acute for infrastructure and the ability of
3375 governments to manage them. There are strong connections between *climate risk management*,
3376 disaster *risk management*, and sustainable development which will either enhance or degrade
3377 our ability to reduce carbon emissions (Hausfather and Peters, 2020). Some policies will require
3378 increased emissions in the short term, such as renewing road transportation infrastructure or
3379 increasing investment in mass transportation systems such as rail or buses. How these
3380 investments increase or reduce emissions in the long term requires research and investment.
3381 These decisions will have significant impacts on economic growth and the well-being of the US
3382 economy. For example, according to the November 2018 National Climate Assessment
3383 report, the continued increase in the frequency and extent of high-tide flooding due to sea level
3384 rise threatens America’s trillion-dollar coastal property market and public infrastructure, with
3385 cascading impacts to the larger economy (Hayhoe et al., 2018). Having appropriate information
3386 on the risks, how to manage them, and whether policies are effective is the first step to
3387 appropriate management.

3388
3389 A decision support system for climate action is urgently needed and should be supported and
3390 managed at the Federal level. Federal leadership of the DSS could help ensure open access and
3391 less bias for maximum benefit; although it could also impose less flexibility in the system for
3392 meeting the needs of diverse users, particularly those at the municipal, state, federal levels.
3393 NACP coordination and subsequent research needs to accelerate decision making and support in
3394 the coming decade.

3395
3396

3397 **3.6 Conclusions and Path Forward**

3398 We may see a more complex and interconnected landscape of carbon policy and management
3399 emerge in the next 10-20 years - in particular, we’re likely to see the emergence of negative
3400 emissions technology or carbon capture and sequestration at large scales, in parallel with more
3401 aggressive mitigation and adaptation efforts. This may translate to greater demands on attribution
3402 and predictive skill than currently envisioned by NACP where most of our current decision-
3403 support projects tend to be more narrowly focused on a given sector or region.

3404
3405 There will be a greater demand for integrating carbon decision-support frameworks with related
3406 management topics, particularly water security, food production and biodiversity. These
3407 frameworks need to be connected to improved ways of communicating scientific results via
3408 innovative and transformative partnerships and strategies to improve the understanding and
3409 impact of the research. For example, Hausfather and Peters (2020) makes a good case that it
3410 really matters how model projections are presented, and that they can influence public
3411 perceptions and policy. These developments will require developments of carbon cycle science,
3412 as well as improved methods of engaging with decision makers through boundary organizations
3413 and the co-development and application of knowledge.

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**** INTERNAL DRAFT ****
**** SOFT RELEASE FOR COMMENTS BY NACP COMMUNITY****

Chapter 4. Partnerships and Collaborations: Institutional and International

Lead Authors: Elisabeth K. Larson, Gyami Shrestha; **Contributing Authors:** Christopher A. Williams

The work of the NACP relies on a wide net of institutional and international contributions. Strengthening and widening these connections is a key priority for the program’s future, for several reasons: ensuring relevance and contributing to global understanding; breaking down agency, institutional, and national barriers that prevent scientific advancement; and enhancing Program resilience to potential variations in funding priorities and availability.

NACP science contributes to global understanding of the carbon cycle by engaging with stakeholders and decision-makers, testing and developing scientific methods, bolstering observing systems, uncovering fundamental process-level understanding and communicating findings. Expansion of institutional and international collaborations will facilitate achievement of the program’s aims, and will allow for greater coordination of North American contributions to carbon cycle science and decision-making across a range of scales (local, regional, national, continental, to global).

Research Partnerships Among Agencies and Universities

The NACP’s origins are rooted in coordination and funding initiatives among several US Federal Agencies (e.g. NASA, NOAA, DoE, USDA, USGS, and NSF). Since initiation, these agencies have funded research scientists at diverse institutions, including universities, research institutes, and government. The establishment of NACP enabled investment and collaboration at scales beyond an individual investigator or even agency mission. For example, the Mid-Continent Intensive (MCI) in the 2000s served as a test-bed for methodologies used to validate and compare regional carbon flux estimates derived from “top-down” atmospheric budgets and “bottom-up” ecosystem inventories, facilitating further evaluation and improvement of both approaches. NASA, NOAA, DoE, USDA, and NSF funded 45 projects resulting in 200+ publications. This research was foundational, along with other NACP synthesis activities on model intercomparison, coastal carbon, disturbances, and site-level analyses, in providing the underlying scientific understanding for the First (2007) and Second (2018) State of the Carbon Cycle Reports.

Despite the successes of U.S. Federal competitive research funding for carbon cycle science, there are ongoing challenges for establishing and maintaining cross-federal collaborations. Changes in presidential administration, differing agency missions and mandates, and administrative constraints on funding duration and mechanisms (e.g., limitations on type of institution or cross-agency transfer of funds) all potentially hinder activities requiring intensive or long-term investment and coordination.

3541 **Research Networks**

3542 Collaborative, multi-institutional research networks provide essential platforms for sustained
3543 long-term observations, high-impact cross-site comparative analyses and synthesis,
3544 methodological innovations, and manipulative experiments that uncover key mechanisms.
3545 Beyond the well-known federal agency programs, such as the NOAA Global Greenhouse Gas
3546 Reference Network, the USGS water quality and stream gauge network, and the USDA forest
3547 inventory and analysis program, multi-institutional research networks involve diverse
3548 partnerships and investments. Many of these collaborative communities are spawned by large
3549 federal investments, but then grow from initial investments into long-term, sustained networks.
3550 Examples include LTER, AmeriFlux, ABoVE, and MsTMIP. Synthesis activities help to
3551 maintain and renew these communities and significantly expand their impact, often with limited
3552 cost.

3553

3554 **Science Communities of Practice**

3555 NACP functions as a *community of practice* (Brown et al., 2016). A community of practice is
3556 defined as “a group of people who share a common set of problems, or a passion about a topic,
3557 and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis”.
3558 Individuals and institutions within the NACP network have become more interconnected over
3559 time through continued participation in shared practices, with NACP serving as a platform for
3560 researchers representing different institutions to engage in cross-organizational collaboration.
3561 The NACP community of practice continues to grow by extending to a wider range of relevant
3562 disciplinary topics, most notably incorporating more human dimensions into its research profile.

3563

3564 Continued investments in community building and shared activities are needed to sustain a
3565 vibrant NACP community of practice and to buffer the challenges of cross-institutional,
3566 transdisciplinary, and potentially transnational collaboration. The roles of the NACP
3567 Coordinator, the NACP Science Leadership Group, and the commitment to holding Open
3568 Science Meetings all help to maintain and expand the NACP Community. Also, reporting
3569 activities, such as the State of the Carbon Cycle Report and the National Climate Assessment,
3570 generate continued interest in and commitment to our multi-institutional community. More work
3571 could be done, with the assistance US Carbon Cycle Science Program and others, to enhance
3572 connections between NACP and communities with similar or overlapping research interests,
3573 such as the US Ocean Biology and Biogeochemistry Program (OCB), the Global Carbon Project,
3574 (GCP), and others. Bridging to adjacent programs such as these will add value to all by
3575 enhancing programmatic coordination, realizing strategic synergies, exchanging ideas, elevating
3576 impact, and facilitating new initiatives that cut across scales and boundaries.

3577

3578 *Tri-federal collaborations across the US, Canada, and Mexico*

3579 Participation in NACP has been largely from individuals at US institutions, although research
3580 has not been limited to carbon cycling within US borders. This is a historical artefact, as a result
3581 of NACP having been established by US Federal agencies participating in the US Carbon Cycle
3582 Science Program. Soon after NACP was founded, program managers from Federal agencies in
3583 the US, Canada, and México set up CarboNA, whose goal was to establish greater cohesion
3584 across North America in the fields of carbon pool and greenhouse gas flux dynamics and of
3585 carbon related mitigation strategies, through the identification of continental-scale priority issues
3586 and promotion of collaborative research in areas of common interest and complementary

3587 expertise. CarboNA originally had a Government Coordination Working Group and a Science
3588 Steering Committee, but political, funding, and logistical difficulties and changes have meant
3589 that this group has become essentially defunct. Despite the fact that there are likely still many
3590 impediments to coordination at the governmental level, there is an opportunity for NACP to
3591 become broader in its community composition by making and strengthening connections with
3592 Canadian and Mexican colleagues involved in carbon cycle research. The NACP Coordinator
3593 and SLG should look for ways to expand engagement with those at Canadian and Mexican
3594 institutions, finding meaningful ways to build a trans-national community that supports the needs
3595 and interests of carbon cycle science researchers throughout North America.

3596

3597 **Global Partnerships**

3598 US agencies contribute to global efforts through programs such as the Committee on Earth
3599 Observation Satellites, the Group on Earth Observations, the Global Ocean Observing System,
3600 and the World Meteorological Organization’s Global Atmosphere Watch. Continued and
3601 expanded cooperation with international partners is needed. For example, North American
3602 efforts would benefit from coordination with similar international efforts such as the Integrated
3603 Carbon Observing System in Europe and other regional efforts such as the International Long
3604 Term Ecological Network present in Canada, Mexico and the USA. International collaborations
3605 improve efforts for validation and characterization of remote sensing datasets needed to ensure
3606 consistency of products across platforms and over time. International cooperation is also needed
3607 on in situ surface and aircraft measurement networks that complement and anchor remote
3608 sensing data, including the use of best practices and common standards and data formats. These
3609 efforts will ensure comparability and will narrow interoperability barriers (i.e., conceptual,
3610 technological, organizational, cultural) among regional networks (Vargas et al. 2017).

3611

3612 With support and guidance from the NACP Office and the U.S. Carbon Cycle Science Program
3613 Office, the NACP would benefit from expanding and further fostering its liaison, coordination
3614 and collaboration activities with key regional and international groups, including (but not limited
3615 to) the Global Research Projects of Future Earth (e.g., the Global Carbon Project GCP), the
3616 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), the Intergovernmental Science-Policy
3617 Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES), the World Climate Research
3618 Program (WCRP), the Integrated Carbon Observing System (ICOS), the Integrated Global
3619 Greenhouse Gas Information System (IG3IS), and FLUXNET/AmeriFlux/MexFlux, Coastal
3620 Carbon Research Coordination Network (CCRCN) and the Permafrost Carbon Network.

3621

3622 **Private sector and stakeholders**

3623 In support of the NACP vision and DEI needs, the NACP would likely benefit from exploring
3624 partnerships with stakeholders and private entities with whom the NACP has traditionally not
3625 interacted in the past. These relationships would expand the accessibility, useability, exchange,
3626 use and visibility of the science, tools and products among all involved collaborators while also
3627 creating opportunities for developing innovative products to advance common goals and meet
3628 stakeholder needs.

3629

3630 For instance, the National Indian Carbon Coalition (NICC) is one organization explicitly
3631 dedicated to engaging Native American communities in carbon management. NICC is a
3632 greenhouse gas (GHG) management service established to encourage Native American

3633 community participation in carbon cycle programs with the goal of furthering both land
3634 stewardship and economic development on Native American lands. NICC was created as a
3635 partnership between the Indian Land Tenure Foundation and the Intertribal Agriculture Council
3636 to assist tribes in developing carbon credit programs. NICC-sponsored programs represent
3637 focused efforts on carbon sequestration; GHG emission reductions; and the promotion of soil
3638 health, ecological diversity, and water and air quality in the context of traditional values and
3639 economic development (McCarthy et al. 2018).

3640
3641 While the pace of the private sector’s adoption of carbon reduction and removal strategies has
3642 accelerated in the past, the rate of integration of existing and rapidly developing new science into
3643 such strategies has lagged. In the next few years, the NACP may wish to catalyze expanded
3644 collaborative activities with the private sector, through targeted use-inspired science and joint
3645 interaction platforms, iterative discussions and joint product development opportunities to help
3646 meet these needs and bring the best available information to this important set of decision
3647 makers and stakeholders.

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Chapter 5. Data and Information Management

Lead Author: Yaxing Wei (weiy@ornl.gov)

Contribution Authors: Bob Cook, Peter Thornton

5.1 Introduction

The goal of data and information management for NACP is to ensure data products required and produced by various elements of NACP are readily available when needed and in forms that are convenient to use by different types of users. As outlined in the 2005 NACP Science Implementation Strategy (Denning et al., 2005), key functions of data and information management include acquisition, distribution, and sharing of key data; centralized access to NACP data; standards for data and documentation; quality assurance reviews; tools to facilitate data acquisition, visualization, and analysis; data processing; and preparation of value-added data products. Effective data and information management is fundamental to the success of every element of NACP, including observations, assessment and integration, modeling, communication, coordination and decision support. These key functions still remain central to the program, their scope and extent require expansion and deepening, as new data needs and challenges emerge.

NACP established its Data Policy in 2007 to ensure that participants have full, open, and timely access to NACP data. This Data Policy pertains to the life-cycle of data during NACP – from data collection, through quality checking and analysis, to distribution to NACP participants, and to depositing finalized products in a long-term archive.

The Modeling and Synthesis Thematic Data Center (MAST-DC), funded by NASA's Terrestrial Ecology (TE) Program, was a core data management component of NACP. MAST-DC was designed to support NACP by providing data products and data management services needed for modeling and synthesis activities. Based on data needs identified through the NACP data management workshop held in 2005, MAST-DC coordinated data management activities with NACP modelers and synthesis groups, prepared and distributed model input data, provided data management support for model outputs, provided tools for accessing, subsetting and visualization, provided data packages to evaluate model output, and supported synthesis activities, including data support for workshops. MAST-DC was a key to the success of NACP modeling and synthesis activities, including the Site Synthesis, the Regional Synthesis, MCI, and MsTMIP. The significance of MAST-DC went beyond the course of the project in that it provided data management guidelines that facilitated the data practices across the NACP community (Cook et al., 2018; <https://daac.ornl.gov/datamanagement/>).

Through more than a decade of effort sponsored by multiple agencies, NACP has collected and produced a huge amount of data products, including almost 450 that have been archived and are publicly, as well as almost 300 more under development (as of Feb. 2021) in the NACP Database. This diverse collection of data products include field measurements, in-situ observations, inventory, airborne and spaceborne remote sensing, synthesis results, and modeling

3709 products. These data are managed at various long-term data facilities and repositories across
3710 different agencies, including the NASA Earth Observing System Data and Information System
3711 (EOSDIS), DOE's Environmental Systems Science Data Infrastructure for a Virtual Ecosystem
3712 (ESS-DIVE), USFS FIA, USDA NASS, and NSF NEON and LTER Networks, and BCO-DMO.
3713 The Oak Ridge National Laboratory Distributed Active Archive Center (ORNL DAAC), a
3714 member of NASA EOSDIS, serves as a major long-term data archive for data products from
3715 NASA's TE program and carbon cycle & ecosystem focus area, including data from projects
3716 such as ACT-America, ABoVE, and CMS. ESS-DIVE serves as the major data repository for
3717 DOE's Environmental System Science and the new home for data products of the long-standing
3718 CDIAC.

3719
3720 Those data resources provide a foundation to tackle NACP science questions and have potential
3721 for reliable state-of-the-science decision support services to policymakers and diverse
3722 stakeholders. However, the very large volume of data and the distribution of this data across
3723 multiple data repositories pose challenges on NACP research and development activities and also
3724 the use of NACP data and results in downstream applications.

3725
3726 **5.2 Data Needs and Challenges**
3727 Research and development priorities identified in the major NACP elements pose emerging
3728 needs and challenges on data and information management. This NACP Science Implementation
3729 Plan called out the research needs for 1) sustained and expanded observations, 2) a
3730 comprehensive Carbon Monitoring System that integrates observations and analysis systems
3731 across scales, sectors, and agencies to transform current capabilities into a coherent and
3732 coordinated system that reports the current state of the carbon cycle and provides timely
3733 detection and attribution of its patterns and trends, and 3) a Carbon Decision Support System to
3734 answer pressing new questions and needs arising from diverse stakeholders leveraging the data
3735 and findings from NACP research activities. Through a parallel comparison with numerical
3736 weather prediction systems, Ciais et al. (2014) described the current hurdles and the importance
3737 of improved data management, infrastructure, and services for a future policy-relevant
3738 operational carbon observing system. Similarly, for NACP, a pressingly needed backbone to
3739 support these research priorities is a data and information management system that promotes
3740 Findable, Accessible, Interoperable, and Reusable (FAIR) data (Wilkinson et al., 2016),
3741 seamlessly integrates data across scales, domains, systems, agencies and enables easy and timely
3742 data sharing, discovery, visualization, access, and analysis. The key data needs and data system
3743 elements are described below.

3744
3745 **5.2.1 Permanent data archival**
3746 Scientists need sustained options for permanent data archival. Most agencies now require a data
3747 management plan addressing the permanent, public, archival of data collected on all funded
3748 grants. Some agencies also have dedicated repositories for long-term data preservation. In
3749 addition, nearly all journals require electronic release of data simultaneously with paper
3750 publication. We applaud such policies to promote the reuse of data and the reproducibility of
3751 results. However, while agencies and journals require archival, many do not offer such services.
3752 and even if they do, archival of data from continuous efforts co-funded by multiple agencies can
3753 still cause complexity. For example, a data center funded by one agency generally cannot archive
3754 data collected under a grant from another agency without special arrangements, even if the data

3755 clearly fall under the data center’s mission and the data center has very related data from other
3756 aspects of that same investigator’s work. These issues force investigators to ‘shop around’ for a
3757 data center to accept their data, cause similar data to be archived with differing practices and
3758 levels of curation, and make it more difficult for data users to find and use related NACP data. A
3759 coordinated strategy and effort within and across agencies participating in the NACP are needed
3760 to address this community need.

3761

3762 **5.2.2 Data interoperability**

3763 Data interoperability addresses “the ability of systems and services that create, exchange and
3764 consume data to have clear, shared expectations for the contents, context and meaning of that
3765 data” (<https://datainteroperability.org/>). With the continuously increasing diversity and amount
3766 of data used for and produced by NACP, making data interoperable on both structural and
3767 semantic aspects is crucial for effective data integration and use. Common standards for data
3768 format, metadata, and vocabulary are needed for data interoperability. Some standards exist, such
3769 as the Climate and Forecast (CF) and the Assistance for Land-surface Modelling Activities
3770 (ALMA) conventions, but these focus on modeling and lack terminology for many disciplines.
3771 Many groups are working on standards, but if every data center has a different standard, the time
3772 required to organize Big Data remains unchanged. We should coordinate the enhancement,
3773 development, and adoption of standards across data centers.

3774

3775 **5.2.3 Data discovery and access**

3776 Different agencies have invested a fair amount of efforts in improving the discovery of and
3777 access to their data. For example, since its establishment in early 1990s, NASA’s EOSDIS has
3778 been long dedicated in managing and enabling discovery and access to diverse NASA Earth
3779 science data (Behnke et al., 2019). DOE’s ESS-DIVE was launched in 2017 to store and publicly
3780 distribute data from observational, experimental, and modeling research funded by the DOE’s
3781 Office of Science under its Subsurface Biogeochemical Research (SBR) and Terrestrial
3782 Ecosystem Science (TES) programs within the ESS activity. But NACP researchers do not have
3783 a central gateway to share data and results across teams and agencies and for the general public
3784 to find and access NACP results and findings of interest. The exponentially growing volume of
3785 data and the advancing computing technologies offer new opportunities for data-intensive
3786 approaches, including advanced data assimilation, machine learning (ML), and cloud-based
3787 analysis. But at the same time, it requires that data are not only easily accessible, but also
3788 accessible in interoperable, ready-to-use forms, for example, being analysis-ready, ML-ready,
3789 and cloud-ready. Agencies like USGS, NASA, and NOAA have started new initiatives to satisfy
3790 the data and information needs of modern research, for example the Committee on Earth
3791 Observation Satellites (CEOS) Analysis Ready Data for Land (CARD4L) and NASA EOSDIS’s
3792 cloud migration efforts. Cross-agency coordination is needed to leverage those existing data and
3793 information initiatives to address the data discovery and access needs of NACP.

3794

3795 **5.2.4 Data tools for non-expert users**

3796 NACP data products are valuable for the broad user community, including non-expert users and
3797 decision makers, not just NACP-funded researchers. Successful understanding and use of those
3798 data by local, state, and national decision makers and the general public is important to maximize
3799 the value of NACP research findings and increase the recognition of the importance of NACP
3800 activities. For example, data products produced by NASA’s CMS projects provide emissions,

3801 biomass, carbon flux products (Gurney et al., 2020) across scales and sectors in support of local-
3802 and regional-scale carbon MRV. But due to the complexity of these data products, they are not
3803 readily understandable and usable by non-expert users, even if the data are easily findable and
3804 accessible. There is a need for easy-to-use Web-based data tools, particularly ones that
3805 interoperate with commonly used geospatial information system (GIS) tools, to summarize
3806 complex data products, visualize information in intuitive ways, and communicate NACP
3807 findings to decision makers and the general public.
3808

3809 **5.2.5 Data and information quality**

3810 Data quality information, such as associated uncertainty and provenance, is important to
3811 determine the fitness-to-use of individual datasets and for the traceability and reproducibility of
3812 scientific findings. It is an essential part of the ecosystem that supports open and actionable
3813 science. With the anticipated developmental progression to expand the NACP to advance
3814 predictive capability and to support decision makers, there is an increasing need for standards,
3815 guidelines, and best practices to improve the representation, interoperability, accessibility, and
3816 usability of data quality information. Earth Science Information Partners (ESIP), a community
3817 formed with 120 partner organizations including many agencies participating in the NACP,
3818 established the Information Quality Cluster (IQC) to develop and publish a baseline of standards
3819 and best practices for data quality for adoption by inter-agency and international data providers.
3820 ESIP IQC defined the four dimensions of data quality: scientific, product, stewardship and
3821 service (Ramapriyan et al., 2017), devoted efforts to provide consistent understanding of the
3822 various perspectives of Earth science data uncertainty (Moroni et al., 2019), and initiated the
3823 action for global access to and harmonization of quality information of individual Earth science
3824 datasets (Peng et al., 2020). Through the coordination of USGCRP, the National Climate
3825 Assessment (NCA) established an information system to capture provenance that provided
3826 scientific support for the findings of the assessment (Tilmes et al., 2013). Such capability is of
3827 importance to the NACP findings as well. Existing communities such as the ESIP IQC can
3828 provide platforms for cross-agency discussion and collaboration to address the data quality needs
3829 to improve the efficiency, trustworth, and value of NACP research and products.
3830

3831 **5.2.6 Data management practices and dedicated support**

3832 The NACP community still needs improved data management practices and personnel with
3833 relevant skills to build a healthier open data ecosystem to promote research and applications.
3834 Funding agencies need to ensure that research projects have an appropriate level of resources
3835 dedicated to data management. Resources committed to long-term archival, development of data
3836 tools and services, and integration across data systems are needed to maximize the research and
3837 societal value of NACP data products. Improved data management practices and skilled
3838 personnel are important to ensure smooth interaction between research teams and data systems
3839 and to form a seamless data lifecycle to promote science and applications.
3840

3841 **5.3 Data and Information Management Priorities**

3842 To address the emerging data needs and challenges to advance the observation, synthesis,
3843 modeling, and decision support activities outlined in this NACP Science Implementation Plan, an
3844 effort dedicated in coordinating the next generation data management and synthesis activities
3845 across NACP would be critical. Instead of setting up a central long-term data repository for
3846 NACP, this effort will coordinate among agencies to support data management across NACP by

3847 providing dedicated personnel and establishing channels for cross-agency NACP data experts to
3848 tackle data challenges and identify concrete solutions in a collaborative manner. This work
3849 includes reviewing the NACP Data Policy and providing options for high-quality, permanent,
3850 data publishing regardless of funding source. This effort will also lead the development of
3851 necessary infrastructure, based on emerging information technologies (e.g., cloud computing),
3852 required for integration across data systems by leveraging community standards (such as science
3853 on Schema.org) and lessons learned from prior NACP management projects (e.g. MAST-DC)
3854 and related Earth science efforts (e.g. DataONE; Michener et al., 2012). This work is crucial to
3855 enabling effective data discovery and seamless data access mechanisms across agencies. It will
3856 also serve as the interface to collaborate with existing data and information communities beyond
3857 NACP, such as Open Geospatial Consortium (OGC) and ESIP, to advance the development of
3858 standards, guidelines, and practices to promote data quality, interoperability, and sharing needed
3859 by NACP.

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3861 With the rapid growth of NACP data and research, needs and challenges for data are also rapidly
3862 evolving. It is important to have a dedicated effort to consistently coordinate activities, such as
3863 data management workshops, among domain scientists, data researchers, and other users across
3864 NACP to ensure new data needs and challenges are captured in a timely manner, adjust and
3865 improve the strategies and approaches to address the emerging needs, and also provide
3866 necessary and timely training on data management practices to the NACP community.

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