

4 2021 NACP Science Implementation Plan 5

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15 3.5. Communication, Coordination & Decision Support (Lead: Molly Brown⁷)

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21 Executive Summary

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

Chapter 1. Introduction

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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

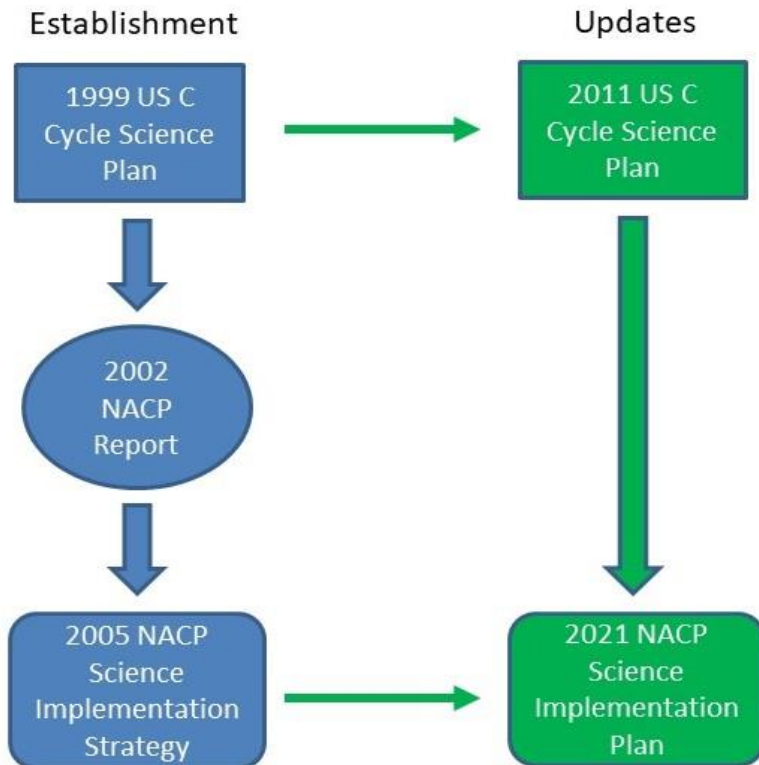
The North American Carbon Program (NACP) is a principal activity of the US Carbon Cycle Science Program (USCCSP), a Federal interagency partnership that operates under the aegis of the U.S. Global Change Research Program (USGCRP). Born out of the 1999 US Carbon Cycle

90 Science Plan (Sarmiento and Wofsy 1999) (Figure 1), the NACP was established in 2002 in
91 response to the NACP Report (Wofsy and Harris 2002). Since its inception, the NACP has become
92 an essential venue for coordinated U.S. measurement and research concerning terrestrial, aquatic,
93 and coastal ocean carbon fluxes, their importance as sources and sinks of atmospheric greenhouse
94 gases (primarily CO₂ and CH₄), and the extent to which they both affect and are affected by natural
95 processes and human activities. While the NACP emphasizes U.S. contributions to global carbon
96 cycle science along with partners across North America including Canada, Mexico, and
97 Indigenous Nations, the program’s observations, analyses, and findings have relevance and impact
98 at the global scale.

99
100 Shortly after the program’s establishment, a 2005 NACP Science Implementation Strategy
101 (Denning et al. 2005) outlined an initial phase of activity that emphasized diagnostic studies to
102 uncover carbon source and sink trends, and attribution studies to identify the processes responsible
103 for these trends. The 2005 strategy document also identified activities needed to advance
104 predictive capability and to support decision makers, with an anticipated developmental
105 progression to expand the program’s scope in these areas over time.

106
107 In 2011, the US Carbon Cycle Science Plan revisited the USCCSP science goals (Michalak et al.
108 2011), reiterating broad research priorities and new directions. As a follow-on effort, this NACP
109 Science Implementation Plan (NSIP) revises and updates the 2005 NACP strategy document. It
110 responds to new scientific capabilities, the program’s developmental progression, and emergent
111 priorities.

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Figure 1. Establishment of, and updates to, the North American Carbon Program (NACP), from its origins in the US Carbon Cycle

116 Science Plan to its design laid out in science implementation
117 documents.

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120 **1.4. The 2021 NACP Science Implementation Plan**

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

128

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

134

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

140

141

142 **1.5 Comments on Procedure, Audience, and Distribution**

143

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

155

156 The NSIP has been developed to guide the research science community of the NACP. It is also
157 available to provide information for interested government agencies including those participating
158 in the Carbon Cycle Interagency Working Group (CCIWG), the US Global Change Research
159 Program (USGCRP) science community and associated executive branch entities. and other
160 institutions in the private sector, NGOs, and science organizations. Formal delivery of the plan

161 involved distribution to the NACP Science Leadership Group, the CCIWG, and any interested
162 party, with broad public release.

163 164 **1.6 NACP Science Questions and Goals**

165
166 Many of the goals, questions, program elements, and deliverables articulated in the NACP's
167 founding documents (Wofsy and Harris 2002; Denning et al. 2005) remain central to the program
168 today. However several new dimensions have emerged, including increased emphasis on process-
169 oriented understanding, predictive capabilities, and decision support. Here we briefly restate the
170 program's founding science questions and goals, and its founding developments and intended
171 deliverables.

172 173 **Science Questions and Goals**

174
175 This 2021 NACP Science Implementation Plan adopts the science questions stated in the 2011 US
176 Carbon Cycle Science Plan (Michalak et al. 2011) with only modest revision.

177 178 **NACP Science Plan Questions**

179
180 *How do natural processes and human actions affect the carbon cycle on land, in the*
181 *atmosphere, and in the oceans?*

182
183 *How do policy and management decisions affect the levels of the primary carbon-*
184 *containing gases, CO₂ and CH₄, in the atmosphere?*

185
186 *How are ecosystems, species, and natural resources impacted by increasing greenhouse*
187 *gas concentrations, the associated changes in climate, and by carbon management*
188 *decisions?*

189
190 To answer these overarching questions the initial NACP Report (Wofsy and Harris 2002) outlined
191 the following program goals.

192 193 **Original NACP Goals**

194
195 *"... to provide the scientific information needed to inform policies designed to reduce*
196 *contributions by the US and neighboring countries to atmospheric carbon dioxide and*
197 *methane."*

198
199 *"... to provide scientific data to determine the fate of CO₂ emitted to the atmosphere by*
200 *combustion of fossil fuels. It is also aimed at comprehensive understanding of the rates*
201 *and mechanisms controlling carbon uptake and release from soils and vegetation in North*
202 *America and the adjacent Atlantic and Pacific Oceans"*

203
204 *"... to reduce uncertainties about the carbon cycle component of the climate system, and*
205 *to develop scientific and technical tools to forecast future increases in concentrations of*
206 *atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄.*

207
208 *“...to provide scientific information needed to design effective and economical policies for*
209 *the US and neighboring countries to manage carbon sources and sinks.”*
210

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

217
218 More recently, the US Carbon Cycle Science Plan provided updated programmatic aims (or goals),
219 restated here with only modest revision for the North American Carbon Program.

220 221 **2021 NACP Goals**

222
223 *1) Document past and current concentrations of atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ and surface*
224 *fluxes of CO₂ and CH₄, and provide clear and timely explanation of their variations and*
225 *uncertainties.*

226
227 *2) Understand and quantify the socioeconomic drivers of carbon emissions, and develop*
228 *transparent methods to monitor and verify those emissions.*

229
230 *3) Determine and evaluate the vulnerability of carbon stocks and flows to future climate*
231 *change and human activity, emphasizing potential positive feedbacks to sources or sinks*
232 *that make climate stabilization more critical or difficult.*

233
234 *4) Predict how ecosystems, biodiversity, and natural resources will interact with CO₂ and*
235 *climate change forcings to affect carbon cycling.*

236
237 *5) Examine a wide range of potential carbon management pathways that might be*
238 *undertaken to achieve a low-carbon future, and determine their likelihood of ‘success’ and*
239 *side effects.*

240
241 *6) Address decision maker needs for current and future carbon cycle information with*
242 *relevant and credible data, projections, and interpretations.*

243 244 245 **1.7 Review of Founding Documents and Intended Deliverables**

246
247 The NACP’s founding documents identified several high priority general developments needed to
248 deliver on the program’s overall goals (Wofsy and Harris 2002) as:

249
250 *“... quantitative scientific knowledge, robust observations, and models to determine the*
251 *emissions and uptake of CO₂, CH₄, and CO, the changes in carbon stocks, and the factors*
252 *regulating these processes for North America and adjacent ocean basins.”*

253
254 *“... the scientific basis to implement full carbon accounting on regional and continental*
255 *scales. This is the knowledge base needed to design monitoring programs for natural and*
256 *managed CO₂ sinks and emissions of CH₄.”*

257
258 *“... long-term quantitative measurements of sources and sinks of atmospheric CO₂ and*
259 *CH₄, and develop forecasts for future trends.”*

260
261 The early plan envisioned three phases of development, moving from initiation, to testing and
262 implementation, and to operation. Also, it identified enabling developments of highest priority:

- 263
264 *(1) the development of in situ sensors and sampling protocols;*
265
266 *(2) performance of modeling studies to inform network design;*
267
268 *(3) advances in model-data fusion and integration to diagnose and attribute carbon*
269 *sources and sinks;*
270
271 *(4) optimization of national inventories for carbon accounting;*
272
273 *(5) strengthening current observation networks to fill gaps in long-term measurements of*
274 *greenhouse gases and to transform AmeriFlux into an integrated, near-real time network;*
275
276 *(6) improve databases documenting fossil fuel uses, land use, and land cover;*
277
278 *(7) the development of remote sensing technology for measuring greenhouse gases,*
279 *biomass, and soil moisture.*

280
281 Key deliverables of the program were envisioned as:

282
283 *“measurements of sources/sinks for CO₂, CH₄, CO for North America and adjacent ocean*
284 *basins, at scales from continental to local with seasonal resolution.”;*

285
286 *“attribution of sources/sinks to contributing mechanisms, including climate change,*
287 *changes in atmospheric CO₂, nutrients, pollutants, and land use history.”;*

288
289 *“documentation of North America’s contribution to the Northern Hemisphere carbon*
290 *budget, placed in the global context.”;*

291
292 *“optimized sampling networks (ground-based and remote) to determine past, current, and*
293 *future sources and sinks of CO₂, CH₄, CO, and major pollutants”;*

294
295 *“data assimilation models to compute carbon balances”;*

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

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

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

1.8 Achievements Since NACP’s Founding

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

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

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

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

NASA established a prototype Carbon Monitoring System (CMS) leveraging existing observation programs from across NASA and other agencies, and some individual projects include additional targeted measurements to demonstrate potential new data products or applications. The NASA CMS science team includes researchers from across NASA and from other agencies and universities, and has strong links with the NACP. Accomplishments include the development of continental U.S. biomass data products and a global carbon flux product, as well as demonstrations

345 of Monitoring, Reporting and Verification (MRV) in support of local- and regional-scale carbon
346 management projects; scoping of potential new ocean carbon monitoring products; and
347 engagement of carbon monitoring stakeholders to better understand their needs for carbon data
348 and information products. NASA CMS has developed a state-of-the-science data assimilation
349 system that integrates satellite and surface observations related to anthropogenic, oceanic,
350 terrestrial and atmospheric carbon.

351
352 Databases documenting fossil fuel and cement emissions, such as the early Carbon Dioxide
353 Information and Analysis Center (CDIAC), have seen continued improvements in spatial
354 resolution and with the chemistry of fuels, for example by The Vulcan Project. Datasets
355 documenting carbon emissions from land use and land change have been improved with more
356 detailed understanding of the nature and extent of land use and change, associated perturbations to
357 carbon stocks, and ensuing carbon emissions legacies.

358
359 Carbon dynamics in riverine, lake and wetland systems have received increased attention, with
360 new analyses and observing systems that are improving understanding of net carbon exchange
361 with the atmosphere, and lateral fluxes and transformations.

362
363 Better scaling, synthesis, and integration of disparate and diverse data types has enabled improved
364 carbon accounting and monitoring. Progress has been made in data assimilation systems and in
365 modeling of atmospheric transport, both of which have improved top-down inversions of
366 atmospheric data being used to infer surface sources and sinks of carbon species at regional to
367 global scales. Data integration and model-data fusion techniques have improved, expanding
368 capacity for diagnosing and attributing carbon sources and sinks. Advances in attributing carbon
369 dynamics to specific mechanisms have been made, enhancing capacity to trace human activities
370 and their impacts on carbon dynamics through the changes in climate, atmospheric composition,
371 and land cover and use.

372
373 Large-scale research intensives have been launched (e.g. Mid-Continent Intensive, ABoVE, ACT-
374 America), revealing insights about the carbon metabolism of natural ecosystems, agrosystems, and
375 built environments, and how it relates to human activity and environmental variability.

376
377 New manipulative experiments have been launched. As just one example from an LTER site,
378 Harvard Forest has offered decades-long experiments of soil warming, simulated hurricane
379 damage, and nitrogen addition. We also highlight several experiments launched relatively recently
380 that are well positioned to provide new, important insights, including SPRUCE, NGEE-Arctic,
381 and NGEE-Tropics. These and other developments are improving understanding of carbon cycle
382 feedbacks and carbon stock vulnerabilities, such as forest mortality and thawing of permafrost.

383
384 Predictive modeling has advanced, with new capabilities emerging from the development of
385 benchmark datasets for model evaluations, from model intercomparison activities, from model
386 assessment with emergent constraints, from inclusion of new model theory, from improved
387 integration of socioeconomic and natural/physical processes that jointly affect the global carbon
388 cycle, and from model applications to assess impacts of interactive global change drivers,
389 feedbacks and vulnerabilities (e.g. permafrost). Integrated assessments now provide better fusion
390 of social, economic, ecological, and physical predictions.

391
392 The NACP has engaged in extensive reporting, communication and outreach activities. These
393 include major contributions to the USGCRP Sustained Assessment Report on the State of the
394 Carbon Cycle Report (SOCCR), with additional contributions to the National Climate Assessment
395 (NCA). The NACP has contributed to the Global Carbon Project, including its Regional Carbon
396 Cycle Assessments and Processes (RECCAP) initiative. Also, the NACP has a presence at many
397 national and international science conferences, and hosts its own open science meetings roughly
398 every third year.

399
400 The program has included well over 500 research projects
401 (https://nacarbon.org/cgi-bin/web/investigations/inv_profiles.pl#post2013), with affiliations,
402 associations, and linkages extending well beyond these individual pieces of science.

403
404 While these achievements are to be celebrated, much work needs to be done to fulfill the program's
405 aims. Holes in measurement networks and limited capacity for integration hinder diagnosis and
406 attribution. Gaps in process understanding yield major uncertainties for diagnosis and prediction.
407 The program's communications, outreach, and decision support dimensions are under-developed,
408 undermining the program's ability to inform the public and address decision maker needs.

409
410 It is also important to draw attention to several threats to the work of the NACP. While some
411 sampling networks have grown, others have seen significant reductions over the past decade,
412 including FLUXNET - Canada, the USGS hydrological monitoring network, and NOAA's
413 atmosphere and ocean sampling networks. Much of our understanding of the carbon cycle
414 emerges from measurements sustained over decades. Supporting long-term observational records
415 continues to be a challenge, as research ventures need to be transitioned to operational capacities.
416 Historically, funding from short-term grants has been strung together to create long-term
417 observational records, and new funding models are needed to support carefully planned and
418 coordinated sustained observations. Additionally, restructuring and relocation of some federal
419 institutions such as the USDA ARS, and some USFS, NOAA, and USGS offices has jeopardized
420 the critical contributions these institutions make to carbon cycle research.

421
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Chapter 2. Program Elements and Leading Initiatives for the Future

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This Chapter outlines the NACP’s contemporary program elements needed to deliver on the program’s goals followed by highlights of some of the highest priority leading initiatives for the program’s future.

2.1 The 2021 NACP Program Elements

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

The 2021 NACP Program Elements are:

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

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

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

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

Communication, Outreach, and Decision Support (Chapter 3.5) seeks to facilitate clear and effective communication of current understandings of how the carbon cycle is responding to drivers now and how it will in the future, to reach diverse audiences including non-specialists. In

482 addition, it seeks to develop decision support tools that aid private sector and public sector decision
483 makers with exploring the impacts of policy and management options.
484

485 Chapter 3 details each Program Element with a comprehensive set of critical activities needed for
486 full implementation. Important advances, challenges, gaps, and emerging issues are identified for
487 each, and highest priority activities and developments are highlighted. In addition, this chapter
488 and the Executive Summary emphasize the highest-level needs and initiatives for the program's
489 future.

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491 **2.2 Leading Initiatives for the Future of NACP**

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493 The following themes and initiatives are of highest priority for the program's future.
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495

495 Sustained, long-term observations and research networks will continue to serve as a critical
496 backbone of the NACP in the future, measuring carbon fluxes and stocks in air, land, water, and
497 built environments. These observations are essential for detecting changes as they unfold over
498 time, and for attributing those changes to forcing factors and underlying processes.
499

500

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

509

- 509 ● System design for mission-driven analysis and reporting of carbon stocks and flows across
510 scales and sectors, likely involving hierarchically nested frameworks.
- 511 ● Identification of targeted expansions of observational and analytical capacities needed to
512 deliver on its mission.
- 513 ● Scientific and technical advances to provide more complete and holistic accounting and
514 reporting, with clear and transparent methods and internal consistency across sectors and
515 reporting units, and including checks across measurement systems and scales.

516

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

- 527 ● Examining the societal and environmental impacts of possible transitions to a low carbon,
528 clean energy economy across a range of alternative pathways.
529 ● Establishing a platform to enable users to forecast baseline carbon stocks and fluxes in
530 ecosystems and landscapes given recent trends and with comparison to alternative future
531 scenarios.
532 ● Developing improved approaches to quantifying impacts in a way that standardizes for the
533 scale of actions to demonstrate how even small-scale actions can have meaningful impacts
534 at scale.
535 ● Mapping the carbon economy, including quantification and visualization of virtual fluxes
536 embedded in production and consumption activities across sectors.
537

538 Research investments are needed for:

- 539 ● Sustained, coordinated observations and intensive field campaigns that advance
540 understanding of carbon dynamics along the land-aquatic-oceanic continuum, including
541 holistic assessments of carbon sources, transport, transformation, storage, and exchange
542 with the atmosphere.
543 ● Manipulative global change type experiments that uncover how ecosystems respond to
544 climate extremes and trends, human and natural disturbances, and changes in atmospheric
545 composition. Such experiments need to be designed to falsify key hypotheses about how
546 the coupled carbon-climate system responds to these forcings, with attention to the most
547 influential model hypotheses, maximizing advances in predictive skill as well as
548 uncertainty reductions in long-term forecasts.
549 ● Improving process models with insights emerging from novel data sets and with tests that
550 enable rejection of competing process representations, and applying process models to
551 anticipate carbon cycle trends, feedbacks and vulnerabilities.
552 ● Synthesis and integration studies that bridge from discrete, field-scale (<1 ha)
553 measurements of carbon stocks and fluxes to yield spatially and temporally continuous
554 carbon dynamics at larger scales, spanning across ecoregions and functional units to assess
555 landscape, watershed, continental, and earth system scale patterns.
556

557 Active communications and outreach are needed to elevate broad awareness about how and why
558 the carbon cycle is changing, the implications of these changes for life on planet Earth, and the
559 actions that could be taken to safeguard our collective future.
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**** INTERNAL DRAFT ****
**** SOFT RELEASE FOR COMMENTS BY NACP COMMUNITY****

Chapter 3.1: Sustained and Expanded Observations

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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

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

610

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

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

625

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

648

649 **Current and Planned Observations**

650

651 **Sustained Observations**

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

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

661
662 The original NACP planning documents (Wofsy and Harris, 2002 and Denning et al., 2005)
663 envisioned a multi-tiered network of terrestrial measurements, including intensive local
664 measurements of carbon stocks and fluxes, with detailed process characterization, forest inventory
665 methods, and remote sensing imagery. An atmospheric observing system consisting of
666 measurements from ground stations, aircraft, ships and buoys was described, and satellite and other
667 remote sensing measurement concepts for atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ were under development.
668 Estimates of hydrologic transfers of carbon over land, transformations in estuaries and
669 sequestration in coastal oceans were lacking, and estimates of transfers between coastal oceans
670 and open oceans were limited due to sparse data and high variability. Interdisciplinary intensive
671 field campaigns were proposed to test and further develop the long-term observing strategy. Some
672 elements of the planned NACP observing system were realized, while others fell short or evolved
673 in unanticipated ways.

674
675 Much progress has been made toward understanding the major components of the North American
676 carbon cycle, and recent best estimates of the carbon budget were synthesized in the SOCCR-2. A
677 primary objective of the North American Carbon Program was to quantify the land sink. We now
678 know that North American land and aquatic ecosystems and adjacent coastal waters remove an
679 amount of carbon equivalent to 30-40% of North American fossil fuel emissions, although large
680 uncertainties remain on some components of the budget, particularly those related to transport of
681 carbon through inland waters, wetlands, and estuaries. The lateral flux between land ecosystems
682 and inland waters is an especially large term with uncertainty greater than 100%. Sedimentation
683 and outgassing from inland waters and estuaries are also poorly constrained by the available data,
684 as is exchange between coastal waters and the open ocean. Estimates of these components are
685 complicated by high variability and the role of extreme events such as erosion associated with
686 storms and flooding. Reliable estimates of terrestrial net ecosystem flux are available at local scales
687 (<10 km²) from intensive measurements at individual sites, and top-down estimates informed by
688 atmospheric observations provide constraints at the continental scale, but large uncertainties
689 remain on net flux estimates at regional scales (10⁴-10⁶ km²) due to the complexity of upscaling
690 from the site level and insufficiently dense atmospheric measurements. The current observing
691 system provides insufficient constraints for tracking regional trends in the North American carbon
692 sink, verification of greenhouse gas emissions reduction efforts, and understanding drivers of
693 interannual and interdecadal variability in strength of the terrestrial ecosystem uptake, including
694 assessment of carbon-climate feedbacks and post-disturbance carbon trajectories or shifts in
695 disturbance regimes.

696

697 Understanding of the mechanisms driving the North American terrestrial sink remains elusive
698 (SOCCR-2 page 349, Section 8.6), and measurements are needed that can distinguish between a
699 potentially short-lived sink due to recovery from past land-use practices (mainly a temperate
700 Northern Hemisphere phenomenon) versus a longer-term sink due to CO₂ fertilization and nitrogen
701 deposition. Sustained observations are needed to illuminate carbon-climate relationships and to
702 monitor both negative (e.g., extended growing seasons and tree-line migration) and positive (e.g.,
703 permafrost carbon release, fire, and insect outbreaks) feedbacks. Climate and carbon impacts on
704 ecosystems must also be monitored, including changes in marine ecosystems in response to ocean
705 acidification and changes in species composition and extent of terrestrial ecosystems. Expanded
706 and improved coordination of observing systems is urgently needed to track rapid changes in the
707 Arctic and other vulnerable regions, especially as we approach potential tipping points that could
708 trigger feedbacks such as the release of carbon from thawing permafrost.

709
710 Expanded datasets are needed for ongoing assessment of mitigation strategies and/or management
711 of climate impacts. For example, forest carbon datasets are needed at the scale of disturbance and
712 management units to support the design and implementation of effective carbon policy and
713 management aiming to increase carbon sequestration or reduce emissions. Forest carbon offset
714 programs must have reliable verification mechanisms. Many US cities and states have enacted
715 climate adaptation plans that include aggressive greenhouse gas reductions. Reliable datasets are
716 needed to ensure that mitigation efforts are on track to meet ambitious targets.

717
718 Current and planned observational capabilities, major findings and decision support services, gaps
719 and limitations, and anticipated measurements and emerging technologies are described in
720 Appendix A1 (forthcoming in April 2021) as follows:

721 722 **A1.1 Atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄**

723 Measurements of atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ provide an integral constraint for estimating regional
724 surface fluxes and evaluating ecosystem models and inventories using inverse modeling and data
725 assimilation. Major US observing systems include NOAA's Global Greenhouse Gas Reference
726 Network (GGGRN), NSF's National Ecological Observatory Network (NEON), the NASA
727 Orbiting Carbon Observatory - 2/3, and the Total Column Carbon Observing Network.² NASA's
728 planned GeoCarb geostationary mission, planned for launch in 202X) will alternately view the
729 continental US and the Amazon basin and will provide several soundings per day with nearly
730 complete spatial coverage for each region.

731
732 Measurement requirements for estimating regional fluxes are extremely challenging, especially
733 for CO₂, since signatures of surface fluxes are small and are superimposed on a large and highly
734 variable background. Vertical profile measurements extending from the surface through the
735 planetary boundary layer and well into the free troposphere are especially useful for separating
736 local and far-field influences and for diagnosing errors in simulated atmospheric transport that can
737 lead to biased flux estimates. Total column measurements from satellites can potentially provide
738 comprehensive coverage during daylight cloud-free conditions³, but they are relatively insensitive
739 to regional surface fluxes and are subject to systematic biases in retrievals that can overwhelm

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.

740 surface flux signatures. The US lacks a long-term strategy for coordinated in situ and satellite
741 measurements of atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄.

742

743 **A1.2 Anthropogenic Emissions**

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

762

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

774

775 **A1.3 Terrestrial Ecosystem Stocks**

776 Terrestrial ecosystem carbon stocks are estimated using inventory methods augmented by remote
777 sensing data. The USDA Forest Service Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) Program provides
778 information needed to assess the status and trends of forest land in the US and to project how
779 forests are likely to change over the next 10-50 years. The National Forest Inventory (NFI) includes
780 permanent sample plots distributed approximately every 2400 hectares across all land uses and
781 ownerships in the US. The Forest Service is working with other US government agencies and
782 research institutions to leverage all NFI data from annual and periodic inventories with auxiliary
783 information (i.e., remotely sensed data) to improve the spatial and temporal resolution of estimates.
784 Estimates of soil organic carbon stocks have relied on digital soil geographic databases such as the
785 Soil Survey Geographic (SSURGO) Database and the U.S. General Soil Map STATSGO2 that are

786 produced by the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS). The USDA NRCS
787 conducts the Natural Resources Inventory (NRI), a statistical survey of land use and natural
788 resource conditions and trends on U.S. non-Federal lands, including detailed data on soil
789 properties. The USDA NRCS Soil Science Division conducted a separate Rapid Carbon
790 Assessment (RaCA) project during 2010-2013 that was designed to provide a snapshot of the
791 organic carbon content of soils across CONUS for different types of soils and land uses. No
792 permanent soil carbon monitoring network has been established despite the potential for improved
793 national inventories and to quantify the impacts of management practices. Efforts to sequester
794 carbon in soils through land management practices would benefit from improved datasets to enable
795 tracking of changes in SOC resulting from land management practices or climate change.
796

797 Many components of vegetation and ecosystem structure can be measured using remote sensing
798 technologies. Multi-spectral sensors such as Landsat can distinguish among land cover types such
799 as forest, grassland, cropland, and urban areas with relatively high spatial resolution. Satellite data
800 products have been developed for tracking burned area and other types of ecosystem disturbance.
801 Hyperspectral sensors collect and transmit all wavelengths of radiation from visible to short
802 wavelength infrared along with selected thermal-infrared wavelengths and can provide more
803 detailed information about vegetation traits than is available from current satellite multispectral
804 sensors. The National Academies report, *Thriving on Our Changing Planet, A Decadal Strategy*
805 *for Earth Observation from Space* (2018) recommends a “Surface Biology and Geology” mission
806 to provide additional detailed spaceborne measurements of vegetation traits, and candidate
807 measurement approaches include hyperspectral imaging. Lidar sensors measure reflected light
808 from lasers to provide unique information on canopy height and other vegetation structural
809 parameters. The Global Ecosystem Dynamics Investigation (GEDI) is a vegetation lidar on the
810 International Space Station that aims to quantify the distribution of aboveground carbon stored in
811 vegetation, the effects of vegetation disturbance and recovery on carbon storage, the potential for
812 existing and new/regrowing forests to sequester carbon in the future, and the spatial and temporal
813 distribution of habitat structure and its influence on habitat quality and biodiversity. Synthetic
814 Aperture Radar (SAR) sensors also provide information about vegetation structure but with the
815 capability of wall-to-wall mapping and almost all weather and day/night imaging capability. The
816 NASA-ISRO Synthetic Aperture Radar (NISAR) mission is a joint effort by NASA and the Indian
817 Space Research Organization (ISRO) nominally scheduled for launch in 2022. The National
818 Academies report, *Thriving on Our Changing Planet, A Decadal Strategy for Earth Observation*
819 *from Space* (2018) recommends a “Surface Biology and Geology” mission to provide additional
820 detailed spaceborne measurements of vegetation traits, and candidate measurement approaches
821 include hyperspectral imaging.
822

823 **A1.4 Terrestrial Ecosystem Fluxes and Drivers**

824 Terrestrial ecosystem fluxes can be derived from changes in stocks as indicated by inventories and
825 other data products or by direct observations. The USDA Forest Service is responsible for
826 reporting nationally and internationally on greenhouse gas emissions and removals from forest
827 land, woodlands, urban trees in settlements, and harvested wood products as part of the
828 Environmental Protection Agency Greenhouse Gas Inventory which is prepared each year as part
829 of the US commitment to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. All
830 forest and non-forest plots from the NFI are used in the compilation of annual carbon stock and
831 stock change estimates for 5 ecosystem carbon pools -- aboveground biomass (live trees and

832 understory vegetation), belowground biomass (live trees and understory), dead wood (standing
833 dead and downed dead wood), litter, and soil (mineral and organic) carbon -- for forest land
834 remaining forest land and land conversions to and from forest land.

835
836 In-situ flux observations provide a critical benchmark for detecting trends and changes in the
837 terrestrial carbon sink at the ecosystem scale, which is a primary evaluation method for Earth
838 system models. Eddy covariance flux towers measure instantaneous fluxes of CO₂, H₂O, and
839 energy and provide unique insight into crucial linkages between terrestrial ecosystem processes
840 and climate-relevant responses. A key challenge in their application lies in upscaling and fusion
841 with other data sources to generate regional to continental flux data products. Major US long-term
842 observing systems include AmeriFlux (DOE), and the National Ecological Observatory Network
843 (NSF), Critical Zone Observatories (NSF), the Long Term Ecological Research sites (NSF), and
844 smaller networks from USGS, USDA, and other agencies. Changes in SOC are generally based on
845 assessments of stocks and some metric of turnover, residence, or transit time. The enriched
846 atmospheric ¹⁴C signal (“bomb C”) has also been used to estimate soil SOC turnover timescales
847 Soil-to-atmosphere CO₂ flux (soil respiration or R_s) has been measured extensively and provides
848 unique information about terrestrial carbon dynamics at fine temporal and spatial resolution.

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

869
870 Satellite imagery has been used to estimate terrestrial ecosystem fluxes such as the MODIS Gross
871 Primary Productivity and Net Primary Productivity. A relatively recent innovation is the
872 measurement of the emission of fluorescence from the chlorophyll of assimilating leaves; part of
873 the energy absorbed by chlorophyll cannot be used for carbon fixation and is reemitted as
874 fluorescence at longer wavelengths than the absorbed solar radiation. Global maps of solar-induced
875 fluorescence (SiF) are available from GOSAT, GOME-2, OCO-2 and OCO-3. These are products
876 of opportunity, since these sensors were not originally designed to measure chlorophyll
877 fluorescence. The ECOsystem Spaceborne Thermal Radiometer Experiment on Space Station

878 (ECOSTRESS) measures the temperature of plants in order to better understand how much water
879 plants need and how they respond to stress. ECOSTRESS was deployed to the ISS in July 2018
880 and addresses questions about how the terrestrial biosphere responds to changes in water
881 availability and agricultural vulnerability to drought.

882
883 Satellite measurements of vegetation properties are complemented by ground based and aircraft
884 remote sensing. For example, the PhenoCam network provides near-surface remote sensing of
885 canopy phenology at many sites across the globe. Most sites are co-located with eddy covariance
886 flux towers, and the data are being used to evaluate the implications of seasonal changes in canopy
887 state for ecosystem function.

888

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

890 PLACEHOLDER FOR OVERVIEW PARAGRAPH

891

892 **A1.6 Coastal Margins**

893 PLACEHOLDER FOR OVERVIEW PARAGRAPH

894

895

896 PLACEHOLDER FOR SHORT SECTION ABOUT ANCILLARY MEASUREMENTS

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

899 ● Soil moisture

900 ● Geologic information to measure subsurface hydrology

901 ● etc

902

903 **Intensive Measurements**

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

914

915 A series of coordinated multidisciplinary intensive experiments were anticipated to test NACP
916 experimental concepts and to advance process understanding. One such experiment, the [NACP
917 Mid-Continent Intensive](#) was selected from a multi-agency call for proposals, with the objective
918 of developing robust methodology to reconcile top-down and bottom-up carbon flux estimates for
919 a region with large fluxes due to agriculture and relatively simple terrain. Despite the success of
920 that activity, there have been no subsequent multi-agency sponsored intensives explicitly focused
921 on further developing top-down versus bottom-up methodology in the context of the NACP.
922 However, many Agencies have supported intensive sampling programs that are aligned with and
923 informed by NACP objectives. Here we provide an overview of intensive experiments with strong

924 links to NACP. More detailed information is provided in Appendix A2 (forthcoming in April
925 2021).

926
927 Errors in simulated atmospheric transport are a primary driver of uncertainty in top-down estimates
928 of surface carbon fluxes. The NASA sponsored [Atmospheric Carbon Transport - America](#) (ACT-
929 America) experiment included five airborne campaigns across three regions in the eastern United
930 States and addressed three primary sources of uncertainty in estimating CO₂ and CH₄ sources and
931 sinks from atmospheric measurements - transport error, prior flux uncertainty, and limited data
932 density. The NSF-led [Chequamegon Heterogeneous Ecosystem Energy-balance Study Enabled
933 by a High-density Extensive Array of Detectors](#) (CHEESEHEAD) was designed to investigate the
934 role of atmospheric boundary-layer responses to scales of spatial heterogeneity in surface-
935 atmosphere heat and water exchanges using a diverse suite of state of the science technology and
936 models. CHEESEHEAD focused on the long-running tall tower measurement site in Park Falls,
937 Wisconsin, that hosts AmeriFlux, NOAA GGGRN, and TCCON observations.

938
939 Arctic observations are extremely challenging due to the inaccessibility and remoteness of
940 candidate sampling locations. Satellite observations that measure reflected sunlight are limited due
941 to darkness for much of the year. SOCCR-2 identified the following key uncertainties as to the
942 future of carbon storage in Arctic and boreal regions: the extent to which plant community
943 productivity will respond to elevated CO₂, whether landscapes will become wetter or drier in the
944 future, the magnitude of winter fluxes, and the extent of the permafrost carbon feedback. Research
945 programs have addressed the critical need for Arctic observations through intensive efforts such
946 as NASA's [Arctic Boreal Vulnerability Experiment](#) (ABoVE), and DOE's [Next Generation
947 Ecosystem Experiment -Arctic](#).

948
949 Urban experiments have emerged as a focal point for NACP Agencies and researchers seeking to
950 address decision-maker needs and to better understand drivers of emissions in cities as well as
951 urban ecosystem fluxes. US cities with extensive GHG measurement programs include
952 Indianapolis, Salt Lake City, Los Angeles, Baltimore/Washington DC, Boston and San Francisco.
953 Major sampling efforts are also underway in Mexico City and Toronto. Urban ecosystems may
954 differ substantially from surrounding regions and can either partially offset or enhance GHG
955 emissions. Targeted aircraft sampling to measure atmospheric emissions, such as during the East
956 Coast Outflow (ECO, Plant et al., 2019) and the follow-on ECO COVID-19 experiments measured
957 plumes downwind of urban centers along the US East Coast to estimate emissions of CO₂, CH₄,
958 and CO during Spring 2018 and 2020, respectively. Notably, they found evidence of large fugitive
959 CH₄ emissions and estimated total emissions more than double EPA inventory estimates. ECO
960 COVID-19 revisited the region to assess the impact of coronavirus responses on air quality and
961 greenhouse gas emissions.

962
963 Intensive atmospheric observations have played a major role in quantifying emissions from oil and
964 gas production and from coal mining. Flights downwind of major production regions have shown
965 widely varying and frequently larger than reported emissions (e.g. Peischl et al., 2018 Smith et al.,
966 2015; Barkley et al., 2019; Petron et al., 2020). Aircraft measurements have also been used to
967 quantify emissions from catastrophic leaks such as from the Deep Water Horizon oil spill (Ryerson
968 et al., 2012) and Aliso Canyon (Conley et al., 2015). Importantly, the US currently lacks a national
969 rapid-response aircraft capability that can be quickly mobilized in the event of a disaster. State

970 agencies such as the California Air Resources Board and non-governmental organizations such as
971 the Environmental Defense Fund have played a key role in organizing and sponsoring intensive
972 experiments. A growing number of private sector companies are emerging to meet government
973 and stakeholder needs for reliable emissions estimation.

- 974
975 PLACEHOLDER FOR TERRESTRIAL/COASTAL INTENSIVES.
- 976 ● Intensive data collection sponsored by NASA CMS (e.g. lidar for regional/state level
977 biomass)
 - 978 ● Coastal ocean intensives: EXPORTS
 - 979 ● Other?

980 **Manipulative Experiments**

981
982
983 PLACEHOLDER FOR FACE EXPERIMENTS.
984 PLACEHOLDER FOR NGEE-SPRUCE.
985 PLACEHOLDER FOR SOIL EXPERIMENTS.
986 OTHER?

987 988 989 **Chapter 3.1 Key Priorities**

- 990
991 ● **Establishment of an interagency National Carbon Monitoring System.** Many prototype
992 data products and services have been developed and successfully demonstrated under
993 NACP and the NASA Carbon Monitoring System. A concerted effort is needed to
994 transition products and services from the research realm to sustained operations with
995 routine updates, while also supporting further development and improvements. Long-term
996 support for the observational network must be secured and additional interagency
997 coordination will be required with mechanisms to support ongoing input from stakeholders
998 and the research community.
- 999
1000 ● **Strategic investments to further develop and expand in situ measurements to address**
1001 **critical gaps in the current carbon observing system.** Many key variables simply cannot
1002 be measured from space, while others can be measured but stability and resolution are
1003 inadequate. Validation data are needed that will serve a variety of emerging satellite
1004 measurement concepts and provide firm linkages across missions to enable confident
1005 interpretation of variability and long-term trends.
- 1006 ○ Greatly expanded vertical profile measurements of atmospheric CO₂, CH₄, and CO
1007 are urgently needed to reduce uncertainties in top-down flux estimates and to
1008 correct systematic errors in current and future satellite data products that are
1009 comparable to or even larger than the signals of surface fluxes. Commercial aircraft
1010 are a promising platform for increasing the frequency of profiles by an order of
1011 magnitude.
 - 1012 ○ No permanent soil carbon monitoring network has been established despite the
1013 potential for improved national inventories and to quantify the impacts of
1014 management practices. Efforts to sequester carbon in soils through land

- 1015 management practices would benefit from improved datasets to enable tracking of
 1016 changes in SOC resulting from land management practices or climate change.
- 1017 ○ A rapid-response aircraft capability including state of the science multi-species in
 1018 situ measurements and remote sensing is needed so that emissions resulting from
 1019 catastrophic leaks or natural disasters can be rigorously investigated and quantified.
 - 1020 ○ PLACEHOLDER FOR OTHER KINDS OF OBSERVATIONS (ground-truth for
 1021 lidar/radar estimates of biomass, ocean biogeochemical properties, etc.)
 1022
- 1023 ● **Guidance from the science community to design an integrated and sustained carbon**
 1024 **observing system including diverse ground-based, aircraft, ocean, and satellite**
 1025 **observations with careful consideration of long-term costs, risks, and information**
 1026 **content.** This could be accomplished by an activity similar in scope and process to the
 1027 Decadal Survey for Earth Science and Applications from Space.
 - 1028 ○ The observing system should be sufficient to rapidly detect potential surprises in
 1029 ecosystem and ocean fluxes that might result from tipping points or thresholds that
 1030 are poorly represented or missing in current process models (e.g. faster than
 1031 anticipated release of CO₂ and/or CH₄ from permafrost degradation).
 - 1032 ○ Rigorous Observing System Simulation Experiments are needed to evaluate
 1033 potential future combinations of diverse in situ and remote sensing observations
 1034 and novel platforms. Particular attention is needed to define an optimal strategy for
 1035 reliable detection and correction of systematic errors in models and in satellite data
 1036 products.
 - 1037 ○ Recommendations should include pathways for continuously incorporating new
 1038 technologies while also ensuring continuity of long records.
 1039
 - 1040 ● **Routinely updated, high resolution, national and global gridded estimates of**
 1041 **anthropogenic emissions and ecosystem fluxes for CO₂ and CH₄.** Data products that
 1042 accurately represent diurnal and day-to-day variability are needed to enable rigorous
 1043 evaluation of process models and inventories using atmospheric measurements.
 - 1044 ○ Global inventory products such as ODIAC and EDGAR, are updated on a semi-
 1045 regular basis, but are still managed largely by small research groups. US gridded
 1046 national inventories have been developed under NACP (e.g. Vulcan, ACES). There
 1047 is a continued need for a concerted effort to routinely produce gridded inventories
 1048 for both gases that are updated along with the national reporting.
 - 1049 ○ Routinely updated, high spatial and temporal resolution terrestrial ecosystem flux
 1050 estimates with realistic phenology, separate estimation of autotrophic and
 1051 heterotrophic respiration and fire emissions, accurate representation of forest,
 1052 grassland, agricultural, wetland, and urban ecosystem fluxes, and well-
 1053 characterized uncertainties and error covariances are needed for atmospheric data
 1054 assimilation systems. Placeholder for examples of promising products that could be
 1055 transitioned from R&D to routine operations.
 1056
 - 1057 ● **New coordinated intensive measurement activities to address key uncertainties**
 1058 **identified in SOCCR-2.** A solicitation for whitepapers proposing new NACP intensive
 1059 measurement campaigns is suggested.

- 1060 ○ Intensive measurement programs to develop reliable protocols for comprehensive
1061 tracking carbon transport through inland waters, wetlands, and estuaries are needed
1062 to address large remaining uncertainties in the North American carbon budget and
1063 to reconcile top-down and bottom-up ecosystem flux estimates.
1064 ○ PLACEHOLDER FOR ADDITIONAL INTENSIVE CAMPAIGN
1065 SUGGESTIONS.
1066

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

Chapter 3.2: Integration, Synthesis, and Assessment

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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.⁴ 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 for the integration of information across different scientific and socioeconomic disciplines, but also (and especially) for 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.

⁴ 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.

1141 The integration of diverse information is needed not only to address the multifaceted scientific
1142 goals of the NACP, but also to improve the communication of technical findings to non-specialists
1143 who need to understand the cycling of carbon in ways that are relevant to particular societal
1144 interests and concerns. The rapidly growing need for integrated public information poses
1145 significant challenges to the communication skills of NACP experts. At the same time, this
1146 challenge offers significant potential benefits for improvement of communication and
1147 understanding among the diverse academic and professional participants in the program.
1148

1149 The importance of integrated understanding and assessment to the North American Carbon
1150 Program is evident in the extent to which all of the sections of this NSIP describe plans for
1151 integration of observations, models, data analysis, and synthesis and assessment. The focus of this
1152 section is on identification of broad needs for integration and assessment across the program as a
1153 whole. The section first describes several general integration needs that are ongoing and emerging
1154 in current research and public interests. The section then highlights particular challenges and
1155 difficulties in the implementation of integration and assessment activities. Finally, several specific
1156 activities are suggested to address the integration and assessment needs of the NACP in the next
1157 few years.
1158

1159

1160 **3.2.2 Ongoing and emerging implementation needs**

1161

1162 NACP requires near-term efforts to improve integration of data, models, and analyses of
1163 uncertainties; as well as pragmatic commitment to synthesis and assessment activities. The
1164 implementation needs described below are focused on issues that cut across diverse interests of
1165 the NACP community. Specific needs for data collection, modeling, and research are addressed
1166 in other sections of the NSIP.
1167

1168 [*Note for comment and review:* The paragraphs below are intended to summarize both ongoing
1169 and emerging needs for data integration, model integration, integration of uncertainty analyses,
1170 and synthesis and assessment. Distinctions between “ongoing” and “emerging” are necessarily
1171 vague. In this draft, emerging needs are listed only in outline form, to accommodate changes that
1172 may be necessary to reflect recent developments. Suggestions are welcome.]
1173

1174 a. Data integration

1175

1176 The importance of integrating diverse datasets is evident in the wide array of observational
1177 domains, ecosystems, and human activities represented by the topical chapters of the SOCCR2.
1178 The challenges of data integration are well illustrated by the difficulties of merging the diverse
1179 data sources that are necessary to characterize the transfers of carbon to and from the land surface.
1180 Information concerning energy commerce and technology is used to estimate trends in the
1181 distribution and nature of fossil fuel emissions. These estimates of emissions are combined with
1182 measurements of atmospheric chemistry and transport to infer (via inversion computations) the
1183 distribution of both fossil and generalized non-fossil CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes at the land surface.
1184 Inventories and surveys concerning land use and technology are used to estimate the more specific
1185 partitioning of land surface fluxes across areas ranging from cities to forests, croplands, and tribal
1186 lands.

1187
1188 When applied to the overall mass balance of CO₂ exchange, these vastly different data sources
1189 have long yielded a stubborn divergence between inversions from atmospheric measurements
1190 (“top-down” estimates) and calculations from ground-based inventories and surveys (“bottom-up”
1191 estimates). The significance of this difference is difficult to resolve, due to uncertainties in the
1192 divergent estimates. The emerging availability of space-based CO₂ measurements may contribute
1193 to analysis of this problem by integration of frequent spectral measurements from multiple
1194 platforms and sensors. The synthesis provided by the SOCCR2 suggests possible progress from
1195 new understanding of the role played by lateral fluxes of carbon transported by water through and
1196 across soils, wetlands, and aquatic and coastal environments. Datasets that characterize these
1197 lateral fluxes — which are not readily observable from space — are emerging as an important
1198 component of “bottom-up” mass-balance estimates. These additional data sources add to the
1199 challenge of data integration for many components of the NACP.

1200

1201 *Emerging data integration needs:*

1202 i. Need for improved understanding of relationships among diverse data (“My carbon is your
1203 carbon”)

1204 1. Across domains (ecosystems, geographic systems, human systems)

1205 2. Across temporal and spatial scales

1206 3. A growing array of data sources and needs are emerging from groups and institutions
1207 concerned with developing and applying standardized protocols for assessment and
1208 monitoring of carbon storage and emissions of greenhouse gases. [carbon management,
1209 mitigation protocols, economic- and social-sector-based, production-based vs.
1210 Consumption-based, MRV]

1211 ii. Rapid improvements in capabilities for data management to improve transparency,
1212 accessibility, utility

1213

1214 b. Model integration

1215

1216 Mathematical models are powerful integrative tools in carbon-cycle research, as they are
1217 constructed to organize many forms of knowledge within defined quantitative constraints. The
1218 integration of information from these models has become increasingly difficult, as their variety
1219 and complexity mirror the growing range of relevant knowledge and needs. Many of the NACP’s
1220 fundamental advances and challenges are reflected in its evolving contributions to terrestrial
1221 carbon-cycle model development and analysis. Models are expanding to include more detailed
1222 portrayals of more diverse processes that affect carbon stores and fluxes. Examples include efforts
1223 to improve representations of vegetation demography and structure; soil hydrology and biology;
1224 impacts of wildfire, pests, and disease; and interactions among the biogeochemical cycles of
1225 carbon, water and nutrients.

1226

1227 One of the most important recent developments in carbon-cycle research is the incorporation of
1228 terrestrial carbon models as dynamic components embedded within Earth System models. This is
1229 a dramatic leap in both model integration and complexity, as the range of simulated interactions is
1230 extended to the fully coupled land-ocean-atmosphere-ice system at global scale. Global
1231 simulations are an essential prerequisite for understanding and anticipating many critical carbon-
1232 climate feedbacks in North America and other regions. Results from Earth System models provide

1233 an emerging list of important regional carbon-cycle impacts associated with global changes in
1234 atmospheric, oceanic, and cryospheric processes.

1235
1236 In carbon-cycle models at both global and regional scales, effects of human land use and emissions
1237 are typically prescribed as external model boundary conditions based on historical data or
1238 predictive scenarios. Innovations are ongoing to represent dynamic interactions affecting managed
1239 lands in ways that are more consistent with model treatments of natural ecosystems. These
1240 developments have potential to integrate modeling for research purposes with applications for the
1241 growing array of resource managers and others who are concerned about carbon cycling as a vital
1242 component of many land, water, and ecosystem resources.

1243
1244 Intercomparisons among models have provided understanding of differences and similarities
1245 among model results, with increasing emphasis on diagnosis of specific sources of differences and
1246 uncertainties (e.g., TransCom, MsTMIP, other MIPs, C-Lamp, ILAMB).

1247
1248 *Emerging model integration needs:*

1249 i. Improved diagnostic and comparison methods and approaches to address increasing model
1250 complexity

1251 ii. Overarching issues:

1252 1. Continuity and consistency across multiple spatial and temporal scales

1253 2. Hindcasts: Can socio-economic models be subjected to hindcast testing? If not, this is a
1254 fundamental divergence in modeling “cultures” of physical vs socio-economic communities

1255 3. Need for balance of interests in convergence of modeling efforts

1256 a. “representative” or “average” may not be best for many specific applications

1257 b. need for balance between innovations and consensus

1258 4. Model hierarchies – e.g., space, time scales - but also need for simplified versions for
1259 access, transparency, ensembles and integrated assessments

1260
1261 c. Integration of uncertainty estimates and their implications

1262
1263 The challenges of integrating data and models include a rapidly growing need for analyses and
1264 comparisons of uncertainties across the full range of NACP activities. Improved spatial and
1265 temporal data coverage has reduced uncertainties in estimates of carbon fluxes (e.g., combustion
1266 emissions) and stores (e.g., wetland soils). The analysis of mass balance constraints has highlighted
1267 the importance of comparing probability distributions across diverse datasets (e.g., top-down vs.
1268 bottom up fluxes) and models (e.g., atmospheric inversions and dynamic vegetation models).
1269 Empirical statistical methods are increasingly important through their application to understanding
1270 uncertainties in data assimilation and model ensembles. Where fully quantitative measures of
1271 uncertainty are not feasible (e.g., in comparing results attributed to different model structures),
1272 estimates based on expert judgement remain an essential interpretive tool.

1273
1274

1275 *Emerging needs for integration of uncertainty analyses:*

1276 While improvements in uncertainty analysis are ongoing throughout virtually every aspect of the
1277 NACP, several overarching issues are emerging that require attention beyond the continuing
1278 refinement of uncertainty estimates for particular datasets and models.

- 1279 1. Implementation of MRV standards across diverse data and models (improved and
1280 consistent probabilistic methods and analyses)
1281 2. Trade-offs between increasing model complexity and measurable improvement of model
1282 reliability
1283 3. Multi-scalar statistical metrics are needed, including analysis of error propagation across
1284 time and space.
1285 4. Uncertainties in carbon fluxes and storage are viewed within a context of broader economic
1286 and social value/risk assessments

1287

1288 d. Synthesis and assessment

1289

1290 The recent publication of the Second State of the Carbon Cycle Report (SOCCR2; USGCRP 2018)
1291 has provided a comprehensive and authoritative synthesis and assessment of the state of knowledge
1292 regarding the carbon cycle in North America. The report was prepared under the auspices of the
1293 U.S. Global Change Research Program and contributed to the congressionally mandated Fourth
1294 National Climate Assessment. Hundreds of scientists were involved as authors or technical
1295 reviewers, with final expert review by a committee of the National Academies of Science,
1296 Engineering, and Medicine. Broad input was also incorporated through a public review process,
1297 and through ongoing support and final approval by multiple Federal agencies. The information
1298 provided by the SOCCR2 is highly valued by both experts and non-experts. However, like the first
1299 SOCCR (CCSP 2007; King et al. 2007), such a massive endeavor cannot be repeated often due to
1300 the time and effort involved. While the SOCCR2 provides essential guidance for current scientific
1301 planning, one of the challenges facing the NACP is the need for more frequent assessment updates
1302 to provide information about ongoing new developments.

1303

1304 Topical syntheses and assessments have contributed valuable knowledge and understanding of
1305 research needs in areas of particular NACP interest. Syntheses and assessments focused on specific
1306 ecotypes (e.g., CCARS, Blue Carbon, urban carbon) and geographic areas (e.g., RECCAP, MCI,
1307 ABoVe) have demonstrated the value of such activities by not only summarizing current
1308 information for the broader scientific community, but also clarifying NACP research needs that
1309 often extend beyond narrow topical perspectives. Similarly, site-level monitoring and research
1310 activities are increasingly leveraged through coordinated programs that require standardized
1311 methods for broader synthesis, including increasing emphasis on links between ground-based and
1312 remotely-sensed observations (e.g., FACE, NEON [other examples?]). Focused syntheses and
1313 assessments have addressed important methodological needs (e.g., ... [need examples, perhaps
1314 from FACE, NEON, OCO?] and modeling issues (e.g., the model inter-comparisons summarized
1315 above). Topical coordination has also drawn together communities of interest in research on
1316 carbon-cycling identified with specific human systems (e.g., energy, urban, agriculture), yielding
1317 syntheses and assessments of information of particular interest to stakeholders as well as NACP
1318 scientists (e.g., ... [need specific examples here]).

1319

1320 *Emerging synthesis and assessment needs:*

- 1321 1. Community support for continuing system-level syntheses; e.g., wetlands, others TBD
1322 2. Although SOCCR3 probably not needed in this NSIP time horizon (see above), need new
1323 formats for regular timely scientific community-based assessments

1324 3. Increasing need for improved public outreach that provides timely information in accessible
1325 formats

1326
1327

1328 **3.2.3 Implementation challenges**

1329

1330 Needs and opportunities for integration, synthesis, and assessment follow the evolving science and
1331 information needs and interests. These program-wide activities are not necessarily at the “cutting
1332 edge” of process-based research, but they often provide essential and/or breakthrough constraints
1333 and feedback concerning research and outreach needs. To maximize the benefits of integration,
1334 synthesis, and assessment, several challenges must be addressed. The changing and increasing
1335 need for timely and relevant information must be weighed against the exhaustive efforts and
1336 timelines of recent and past syntheses and assessments.

1337

1338 In particular, the information needs of stakeholders (both public and private-sector) are changing
1339 and becoming more urgent. Stakeholders are increasingly outspoken about the need for integrated
1340 synthesis and assessments that are relevant to policies and management decisions. Unfortunately,
1341 the exhaustive efforts often required for scientific integration, synthesis, and assessment do not
1342 necessarily extend (“translate”) to timely and effective communication of the information needed
1343 by stakeholders. As stakeholders develop sources of information and analysis to meet their needs,
1344 there is a growing risk of interest-based divergence among applications that would benefit from
1345 broader perspectives.

1346

1347 Integration, synthesis, and assessment activities are often difficult to develop and carry out. They
1348 require dedicated funding and community commitments that may limit resources available for
1349 more narrowly defined research. Integration, synthesis, and assessment require a very high
1350 “overhead” cost to develop and maintain the necessary collaborative and organizational
1351 arrangements. Recent and past endeavors have required long timelines from plans to products.
1352 These difficulties of time, effort, and overhead are disincentives for individual involvement,
1353 especially for younger scientists.

1354

1355

1356 **3.2.4 Proposed implementation activities**

1357

1358 This plan cannot anticipate the full range of integrative opportunities and needs that may arise
1359 from the evolving science and stakeholder concerns of the coming years. The intent of this section
1360 is to identify selected opportunities for targeted activities that address the needs and challenges
1361 summarized above. We emphasize that the activities proposed below, and other emerging
1362 integrative endeavors, will require attention not only to the proposed topics, but also to the inherent
1363 logistical difficulties and disincentives described above.

1364

1365 a. Integration of observational data and synthesis for public access and understanding

1366 Public access to observational carbon data is expanding with the implementation of new standards
1367 and protocols for data management, documentation, and release. However, public understanding
1368 of these observations requires focused efforts to integrate and synthesize the datasets as they
1369 become available. An excellent example is the NOAA/ESRL CarbonTracker program (CT2019,

1370 Jacobson et al. 2020), an ongoing contribution to the NACP. This effort provides estimates of
1371 temporal and spatial variations in global and North American CO₂ fluxes by integrating a global
1372 network of atmospheric CO₂ observations with data and models of emissions, atmospheric
1373 transport, ecosystem fluxes, and ocean surface exchange. The program offers a powerful example
1374 of integrating multiple models and datasets with ensemble assimilation methods that support
1375 transparency and statistical analysis of uncertainties.

1376
1377 While CarbonTracker demonstrates the value of calculating atmospheric fluxes by inversion from
1378 atmospheric data, public interest extends to a broader range of carbon fluxes and stocks. There is
1379 a growing need for integration and synthesis that includes more diverse observations of
1380 ecosystems, soils, aquatic and marine environments, and human activities. Given the exhaustive
1381 time and effort required for the comprehensive SOCCR reports, new efforts are required to provide
1382 more regular and timely updates utilizing ongoing observations. For example, atmospheric
1383 inversions might be integrated with other data products to provide annual summaries of North
1384 American carbon fluxes and stocks. The value of such summaries is demonstrated by the wide
1385 public interest in the global carbon budgets released annually by the Global Carbon Project. Like
1386 CarbonTracker and the GCP syntheses, a new synthesis activity for North America would require
1387 full documentation and transparency, thorough analysis of uncertainties, and rigorous peer review.
1388 This new effort would be less demanding than a SOCCR-like compendium, but more demanding
1389 than a simple compilation of datasets and their separate statistical characteristics. To enable public
1390 understanding of diverse and sometimes divergent datasets, the effort will need to address (but not
1391 necessarily resolve) some of the data integration challenges described above.

1392
1393 **b. Integration of methods to quantify uncertainties and their implications**
1394 Improved estimates of carbon-cycle uncertainties are needed by both scientists and stakeholders.
1395 In addition to the refinement of uncertainty estimates for individual datasets and models, broader
1396 analyses are needed to address the complex uncertainties that arise in the integration of diverse
1397 datasets and models. We suggest the formation of a focused community of interest within the
1398 NACP to provide a venue for sharing and advancing the integrated analysis of uncertainties. This
1399 new effort should be guided by community interests, but potential directions might include:

1400
1401 - Identify critical factors limiting the reduction of uncertainties in analyses based on
1402 data/model integration. For example, ensemble sensitivity testing might be used to
1403 determine the extent to which uncertainties in atmospheric inversion calculations could be
1404 reduced by improved GHG monitoring or improved transport monitoring. Similarly,
1405 diverse soil datasets and models might be integrated to provide insights concerning
1406 opportunities and limits in reducing uncertainties in soil fluxes and stores.

1407
1408 - Improve statistical methods for model inter-comparison and diagnosis to address the
1409 challenges of increasing model complexity. For example, statistical tools and metrics
1410 might be developed to evaluate changes in uncertainties, and corresponding information
1411 gains and losses, associated with the introduction of new complexities in model
1412 components or structures. Conversely, statistical methods might be used to construct
1413 empirical reduced-complexity parameterizations that could be used to boost the efficiency
1414 of model ensembles.

1415

1416 - Improve program-wide consistency and application of probabilistic methods and
1417 analyses. The NACP research community faces many shared difficulties in efforts to
1418 improve quantification and understanding of uncertainties across diverse systems.
1419 Significant improvements are needed in the joint application of uncertainty estimates for
1420 fluxes derived from fundamentally different datasets. A conspicuous example is the
1421 ongoing effort to resolve differences in atmospheric CO₂ budgets calculated top-down and
1422 bottom-up datasets and models. Although convergence is suggested by the overlap of top-
1423 down and bottom-up ranges of uncertainty, a more challenging analysis is to estimate the
1424 joint probability distribution of the budget based on both datasets. This analysis would
1425 require determination of covariances and autocorrelation, and elucidation of underlying
1426 differences in data and model properties that might significantly augment our
1427 understanding of the CO₂ budget. Analysis of joint probabilities could contribute better
1428 understanding of uncertainties in many applications based on combined use of diverse
1429 datasets. A particularly important and challenging need is for improved integration
1430 between estimates of uncertainties associated with physical processes and those associated
1431 with effects of human activities.

1432
1433 - Improve quantification and understanding of uncertainties across spatial and temporal
1434 scales. This is a long-standing issue for NACP and for many other efforts that require
1435 consistent constraints (such as conservation of mass) across diverse scales. There is a
1436 robust body of statistical analysis and methodologies that could be more fully applied to
1437 NACP in such areas as comparison of diagnostic statistics vs prognostic (extrapolation)
1438 probabilities based on observational datasets; integration of MRV standards/protocols
1439 across spatial scales; quantification of uncertainties across predictive timescales
1440 (alternatives to model ensembles, and/or ways to optimize them); and improved
1441 understanding of joint spatial and temporal variabilities and uncertainties.

1442
1443 c. Integrated studies of interactions between carbon and water cycling
1444 Many important contributions to the NACP have developed from research themes that have been
1445 identified periodically for particular focus. Interactions between the cycling of carbon and water
1446 have always held implicit importance for the NACP, but recent and ongoing research have made
1447 this topic an appropriate target for more focused thematic attention. A major finding of the
1448 SOCCR2 was the potential importance of water-borne carbon transport in resolving divergent CO₂
1449 budget estimates. This conclusion invites further scrutiny of many processes that control the
1450 interactive transport of water and carbon across the land surface and through soils, the unsaturated
1451 zone, groundwater, streams, rivers, and lakes. New interactions and collaborations are underway
1452 among carbon scientists, hydrologists, ecologists, and others. These collaborations include
1453 renewed attention to long-standing issues such as the interactions between soil moisture and
1454 heterotrophic respiration, between evapotranspiration and CO₂ fertilization, and between carbon
1455 and sediment burial in wetlands. Emerging research on these topics would be strongly leveraged
1456 by a new NACP thematic focus on interactions between carbon and water.

1457
1458 d. Integrated carbon accounting for science and for management/policy applications
1459 NACP research quantifies carbon stocks and fluxes to understand their cycling in and among the
1460 atmosphere, ecosystems, soils, and aquatic and marine environments. At the same time, carbon
1461 accounting methods and protocols are receiving increased attention and development for

1462 management and policy applications. The carbon-cycle research community and the carbon-
1463 accounting stakeholder community would both benefit from stronger mutual communication and
1464 collaboration. Although divergence among methodologies and definitions is necessary to address
1465 different interests, both communities are ultimately concerned with the same carbon. (“My carbon
1466 is your carbon.”) Consistent estimates using divergent methods and data may provide measures
1467 of reliability. Conversely, divergent estimates may lead to unnecessary confusion, particularly
1468 where estimates of carbon fluxes and stocks are needed for management and policy decisions.
1469

1470 Improved communication and collaboration are most successful in areas of readily defined interest
1471 to both communities. Examples include resources and economic sectors that coincide with major
1472 ecosystems (forests, wetlands, agriculture), emissions (fossil fuels, energy, transportation), or
1473 geographic areas (urban, coastal). While scientist-stakeholder interactions are generally
1474 expanding in these and other areas, broader communication is required for integration, synthesis,
1475 and assessment beyond specific areas of common interest. For example, scientist-stakeholder co-
1476 development is needed to establish metrics of potential CO₂ and CH₄ mitigation that are minimally
1477 dependent on particular models or global emission pathways and are presented in ways that make
1478 sense to both communities. Similar co-development is needed to improve the treatment of carbon
1479 cycling in scenario-based simulations such as integrated assessment models.
1480

1481 Important interests of both scientists and stakeholders are converging in the integration of
1482 uncertainty analyses and probabilistic prognostic calculations. Scientific advances in applying
1483 geostatistical methods and ensemble simulations are contributing to significant improvements in
1484 estimating complex uncertainties associated with the integration of diverse data and models across
1485 multiple spatial and temporal scales. Similarly, stakeholders are increasingly aware of the need
1486 for probabilistic assessments of carbon-cycle response to potential management and policy
1487 decisions. Overlapping scientist-stakeholder interests are evident in the attention of both
1488 communities to issues such as mitigation programs and protocols (e.g., REDD+, Trillion Trees)
1489 and inter-comparisons among carbon-cycle model simulations of scenarios for past and potential
1490 future emissions. Broadly integrated perspectives are expanding to recognize the importance of
1491 carbon in assessment of the value and availability of diverse natural resources such as water and
1492 ecosystem services. In this context, evaluations of carbon storage can be guided by long-
1493 established practices in natural resource assessment, including stakeholder contributions to
1494 methodology development, periodic inventories, and probabilistic estimates using Monte Carlo
1495 ensembles. The NACP community is uniquely qualified to explore the challenges of carbon
1496 storage resource assessment. This endeavor demands the full interactive engagement of NACP
1497 scientists and stakeholders. Carbon storage cannot be managed in isolation from interactions with
1498 other natural resources.
1499

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

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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.

1565 With this backdrop of motivation and methods for process and attribution studies, the following
1566 subsections provide more specific guidance on research implementation priorities across key
1567 carbon cycle components.

1568
1569

1570 **3.3.1 Responses of terrestrial ecosystems to changes in atmospheric CO₂, tropospheric O₃, N** 1571 **deposition, and climate**

1572 Many unknowns remain regarding how terrestrial ecosystems respond to changes in atmospheric
1573 composition and climate (Keenan & Williams 2018). The effect of rising atmospheric CO₂ on
1574 plant- to ecosystem-scale photosynthesis and carbon stocks in biomass, litter, and soils remain
1575 poorly understood, as well as the relations of those effects to nutrient dynamics as limiting or
1576 interactive controls. The lack of understanding is highlighted by long-term studies, which continue
1577 to yield variable results and conclusions given the complexity of the problem. There remains
1578 insufficient understanding of how the carbon cycle responds, over various timescales, to: (1)
1579 climate-related extremes (e.g. heat waves, frosts, droughts, floods, fires), (2) interacting global
1580 change drivers (e.g. CO₂, atmospheric N deposition, ozone, temperature, precipitation, and soil
1581 moisture forcings), (3) the magnitude and timing of permafrost degradation; (4) shifts in light
1582 quantity and quality from diffuse/direct illumination; and (5) shifts in biodiversity, species
1583 distributions and community composition.

1584

1585 In addition to advancing understanding of individual processes and site-level responses, research
1586 is needed to develop a more integrated and holistic understanding of carbon cycle behavior at the
1587 Earth System scale. This requires the use of ecosystem models informed by experiments in key
1588 regions, merged with atmospheric inverse modeling, remote sensing constellations and distributed
1589 sensor networks. Regions where soil or vegetation carbon stocks may be particularly vulnerable
1590 to environmental change include boreal forest and tundra ecosystems (inclusive of various states
1591 of permafrost), which have high carbon stocks and wide-ranging albedo, and are particularly
1592 disturbance-prone in a changing environment; tropical forests, which have high productivity, and
1593 a potentially high response to CO₂ fertilization; peatlands, which store large amounts of carbon
1594 and are frequently drained for anthropogenic means; and drylands, which contribute much of the
1595 world's productivity and food, and are likely sensitive to rising atmospheric CO₂ due to the implied
1596 higher water use efficiency while also being particularly vulnerable to warming and decreased
1597 humidity.

1598

1599 Observational and experimental studies play critical complementary roles in informing our
1600 understanding of ecosystem responses to global change. Long-term observations are essential to
1601 identify trends, characterize the historic range of variability, and generate hypotheses. Experiments
1602 are of fundamental importance for isolating processes and testing mechanisms, and pushing
1603 systems past tipping points that have not historically been exceeded. Also, we note the critical
1604 importance and great value of networked observational approaches, which are more easily
1605 standardized and synthesized across sites and networks, e.g. AmeriFlux, NEON, LTER and
1606 national forest inventory programs. Experimental protocols are difficult to standardize across
1607 different ecosystem types, and arguably a high degree of standardization is not realistic or even
1608 desirable, as the important questions and relevant mechanisms are undoubtedly different among
1609 diverse ecosystems. Thus, to maximize the return on investment, costly multi-factor global change
1610 and FACE experiments conducted at the ecosystem scale should target the high-priority,

1611 ecosystem-specific research questions highlighted above. For example, the SPRUCE (Spruce and
1612 Peatlands Responses Under Changing Environments) experiment targets high carbon peatland
1613 ecosystems. Replication within a given ecosystem type (broadly defined) is essential to ensure the
1614 generality of results. Finally, although not as comprehensive in scope, focused observational
1615 networks (e.g. PhenoCam) and coordinated, grass-roots experimental efforts (e.g. DIRT and
1616 NutNet) provide insight into specific processes that are highly relevant in the context of global
1617 change.

1618
1619 Increasingly, advanced statistical methods are being used to identify model weaknesses and guide
1620 model improvement. In addition to data assimilation techniques, which can be used to calibrate
1621 parameters of complex models to diverse data constraints, new tools should be developed to
1622 benchmark model performance using observational data sets, and to generate realistic estimates of
1623 model uncertainty. Benchmarking tools, such as iLAMB, provide a model-agnostic testbed that
1624 move the field towards automated model diagnostics. The MODEX (model-experiment coupling)
1625 approach adopted by DOE emphasizes the use of model predictions to guide experimental design,
1626 and experimental results to in turn guide model improvement. The need for rigorous ecological
1627 forecasting necessitates such integration of models and both experimental and observational
1628 datasets. However, widespread adoption of these approaches will require improved computer and
1629 networking facilities that lower barriers to model use and model development. Also required is
1630 broader training that integrates cutting-edge tools from fields including “big data” informatics,
1631 statistics, and high-performance computing. Additionally, there needs to be greater emphasis on
1632 archiving of data and code in open-access repositories to promote reproducibility and transparency.
1633

1634 Key Priorities:

1635 *1. Identification of:*

- 1636 *a. effects of rising atmospheric CO₂ on whole ecosystem carbon balance, and its flux and*
1637 *stock change component, in diverse ecoclimatic settings and in combination with*
1638 *other environmental changes;*
- 1639 *b. effects of warming trends and heat extremes on whole ecosystem carbon balance;*
- 1640 *c. effects of wetness and dryness trends and variability (including extremes) on whole*
1641 *ecosystem carbon balance;*
- 1642 *d. interactive effects of these multiple drivers.*

1643 *2. Research focusing on ecoregions with high carbon stocks that are disturbance prone or* 1644 *otherwise vulnerable to release, including peatlands and some forestlands.*

1645
1646

1647 **3.3.2 Responses to changes in forest disturbance regimes and forest management**

1648 Forests constitute the largest carbon sink in North America, but the future of this sink remains
1649 unclear given changes in natural and anthropogenic disturbances, trends in forest management and
1650 use, and land conversions (Domke et al. 2018). While studies demonstrate the importance of these
1651 processes for local to continentals-scale carbon fluxes and stocks (e.g. Amiro et al. 2010, Heath
1652 et al. 2011, Goetz et al. 2012, Hurtt et al. 2016, Williams et al. 2016), further study is needed to
1653 uncover underlying mechanisms. Process-level studies are needed to characterize the causes of
1654 tree mortality, the vulnerability of forests to fires, pests, pathogens, and droughts, as well as the
1655 determinants of post-disturbance forest regeneration, composition, and associated effects of forest
1656 loss and regeneration on carbon dynamics. Mechanistic understanding of these mortality and

1657 recovery dynamics, for individuals, stands, and whole ecosystems, needs to be incorporated into
1658 ecosystem process models to enable skillful projections of how forest carbon stocks and fluxes
1659 will respond to anticipated future disturbance regimes. The carbon cycle impacts of changing
1660 forest management practices also requires focused study, as timber extraction and silvicultural
1661 approaches respond to changing markets, including mass timber and engineered wood products,
1662 as well as biomass energy. Influences of species selection and the retention or loss of biodiversity
1663 associated with harvest and planting, thinning and other treatments modifying forest structure,
1664 prescribed burning, fire suppression, the timing of harvest, conservation and assisted migration all
1665 remain poorly understood and merit investigation. Full life cycle analysis of carbon is needed to
1666 track its fate from forest to product to waste or to the atmosphere as CO₂ or CH₄. Consideration
1667 of substitution effects from using forest products in energy and building sectors as a substitute for
1668 other fuels and building products is needed as well (see also section 3.3.7).

1670 Continued progress is needed in quantifying and understanding the mechanisms that underlie
1671 forest carbon losses and gains, as well as disturbance and recovery dynamics across the continent
1672 for an array of forested ecosystems and disturbance types. Sustained and enhanced remote sensing
1673 capabilities will help, including high and moderate spatial resolutions (1 to 100 m) and repeat times
1674 (1 to 16 days) from both airborne and satellite sensor platforms (Cohen et al. 2016). Additionally,
1675 improved understanding of CH₄ production, consumption, and release in trees and soils is needed,
1676 as well as how they respond to disturbance, forest management, and land-use change.

1677
1678 Addressing these knowledge gaps requires improved integration of methodology and disciplines,
1679 enhanced collaboration among scientists and land managers, and sustained support for long-term
1680 monitoring and experimental networks. Ecosystem-scale manipulative experiments, and targeted
1681 field-based observational studies sampling along gradients of disturbance timing and severity are
1682 needed to uncover mortality mechanisms, forest vulnerabilities and thresholds to disturbance, and
1683 the determinants of forest recovery patterns. Forest inventory and measurement networks, which
1684 have typically focused on aboveground measurements, need expanded sampling of belowground
1685 carbon pools and fluxes, in general, and particularly before and after disturbance, management,
1686 and land-use change (Smith et al. 2016). Improved integration and synthesis of long-term carbon
1687 flux, leaf and canopy physiology, and remote sensing data from networks such as FLUXNET,
1688 NEON, and national forest inventory programs should be leveraged to provide complementary,
1689 broad-scale mechanistic insights into ecosystem physiology (e.g. Becknell et al. 2015, Williams et
1690 al. 2014). Partnerships across disciplines (e.g. foresters, ecologists, statisticians, remote sensing
1691 scientists), agencies and institutions (universities, government forest managers, industry,
1692 conservation organizations) are providing powerful new synergies and should be actively
1693 promoted to spur advances in priority research areas and to develop decision support tools and
1694 outreach interactions. Authentic inclusion of stakeholders and potential data end-users, including
1695 foresters and land-use planners, in the research planning process is expected to enhance the impact
1696 and application of research products, while assisting in the development of standard carbon
1697 accounting methods and forest products life cycle analyses (Fahey et al. 2010).

1698
1699 Key Priorities:

1700 *1. Identification of:*

- 1701 *a. effects of changing forest management and land use practices on forest sector carbon*
1702 *stocks and fluxes;*

- 1703 *b. effects of changing rates, types, and severity of forest disturbances and conversions on*
1704 *long-term ecosystem recovery dynamics and attendant carbon stock and flux*
1705 *dynamics;*
1706 *c. effects of changing forest composition and structure on forest carbon stocks and fluxes.*
1707 2. *Emphasis on high-carbon, disturbance-prone forest types and regions as well as those with high*
1708 *market value and extractive use.*

1710
1711 **3.3.3 Responses to grazing management and invasive species in grasslands and shrublands**

1712 The grasslands and shrublands of North America are presently believed to constitute a modest net
1713 carbon sink in response to fertilization by CO₂ and nutrients (i.e. N deposition), with much of the
1714 carbon being stored in soils. Spanning arid to semi-humid environments, these ecosystems are
1715 also responding to precipitation variability and trends, as well as background warming that is
1716 lengthening growing seasons. In addition to these climate and CO₂ drivers (addressed in section
1717 3.3.1), grazing practices, invasive species, and woody encroachment, afforestation, and
1718 reforestation also have the potential to significantly influence carbon dynamics in grasslands and
1719 shrublands of North America in unclear ways over coming decades.

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

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

1743
1744 **Key Priorities:**

- 1745 1. *Identification of:*
1746 *a. determinants of carbon stock and flux responses to changes in grazing practices,*
1747 *b. the efficacy of innovative grazing management techniques on reducing impacts on soil*
1748 *organic matter depletion and greenhouse gas fluxes, and*

1749 *c. determinants of carbon stock and flux responses to invasive species and woody*
1750 *encroachment.*

1751 *2. Improved predictive understanding of interactions among grazing, invasive species and*
1752 *precipitation variability in driving carbon stocks and fluxes.*

1753
1754

1755 **3.3.4 Responses to changes in food production and consumption**

1756 Food production and consumption systems have significant impacts on GHG emissions (CO₂,
1757 CH₄, and N₂O) (Peters et al. 2016) and constitute one of the largest anthropogenic perturbations to
1758 the coupled carbon-climate system. Land conversion and use for cropland and pasture can alter
1759 soil carbon stocks, soil nutrition, plant productivity, and erosion rates (e.g. Govaerts et al. 2009,
1760 Kopittke et al. 2017, Montgomery 2007, Ogle et al. 2005, Wang et al. 2017). Food production
1761 systems introduce greenhouse gas emissions from enteric fermentation, fertilization, waste streams
1762 (e.g. manure), and mechanization (e.g. farm equipment) (e.g. Montes et al. 2013). Land use and
1763 dietary choices significantly alter how food systems influence the coupled carbon-climate system
1764 (e.g. Paustian et al. 2016, Clark and Tilman 2017, Rosi et al. 2017, Steinfeld and Gerber 2010).
1765 Food systems are, in turn, altered by changes in the environment (e.g. climate, atmospheric
1766 composition, and soils), as well as by technological and societal conditions (e.g. farming practices,
1767 markets and lifestyles).

1768

1769 Improved mechanistic understanding is needed to clarify how and why plant productivity, soil
1770 carbon stocks, and lateral carbon flows (e.g. erosion, harvesting) change with a range of
1771 agricultural management practices. This requires process studies quantifying carbon flows and
1772 stocks, as well as hydrologic, biologic, and physicochemical conditions over time with land
1773 conversions and in response to alternative management regimes. This can be achieved with a
1774 complement of targeted monitoring of existing sites in use and naturally undergoing alternative
1775 treatments, as well as experimental manipulations, and chronosequence studies. Key science
1776 questions center on how soil organic carbon and plant productivity respond to changes in biomass
1777 carbon inputs, erosion and soil structure, changes in tilling, conventional versus organic practices,
1778 soil fertility and fertilization, and crop rotations, multi-cropping and fallowing.

1779

1780 Global demand for meat has created widespread and growing production of livestock for human
1781 consumption. Process studies to improve understanding of greenhouse gas emissions associated
1782 with alternative management practices within livestock operations are needed. In particular,
1783 studies are needed on the emissions from alternative feedstocks (grass or grain fed), meat sources
1784 (e.g. ruminant versus monogastric), manure management strategies (manure solids separation,
1785 aeration, acidification, biofiltration, composting, and anaerobic digestion), and farming systems
1786 (conventional or circular economies). Investigations are needed of the GHG implications of
1787 human food waste and food choices. Emphasis should be placed on quantitative studies assessing
1788 the effects of different diets, clarifying the relative efficiencies of different food sources in terms
1789 of land area, water resource use, caloric and energetic losses through the production system, food
1790 waste with consumption, and including life cycle assessments (LCAs) of the full GHG emissions
1791 embodied in the production and consumption of different food sources. Studies are also needed
1792 to document carbon cycle implications of future afforestation, reforestation, and deforestation in
1793 response to shifting global patterns of agricultural production.

1794

1795 Key Priorities:

1796 *1. Full life cycle assessment of carbon stock and flux responses to alternative cropland*
1797 *management practices, with associated greenhouse gas budgets, and to alternative food*
1798 *production systems, each with associated greenhouse gas budgets.*

1799 *2. Emphasis on comparisons among food system alternatives including their capacities to meet*
1800 *caloric, nutritional, and dietary preferences and requirements, and potential for greenhouse gas*
1801 *emissions reductions.*

1802

1803

1804 **3.3.5 Responses of aquatic carbon dynamics to changing carbon inputs, nutrient loadings,**
1805 **warming, and direct physical alterations**

1806 Aquatic systems, including wetlands, streams, rivers and estuaries, play a major role in the
1807 continental carbon cycle. For example, organic soil wetlands (peatlands) only occupy 3% of global
1808 lands but store 30% of the soil carbon. Aquatic systems store, emit, and laterally transport carbon
1809 along a continuum from upland to coastal waters. As recipients of upland carbon via erosion and
1810 dissolved loads, aquatic systems are also driven by all of the forcings affecting terrestrial
1811 ecosystems including rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, nutrient fertilization, climate
1812 change, and land cover and land use changes. Warming and nutrient loadings are directly altering
1813 their metabolism and biogeochemical transformations. Aquatic systems are also being physically
1814 transformed by wetland destruction and creation, waterway alterations (e.g. channelization),
1815 impoundments, and tile drainage. Detailed quantitative and mechanistic understanding of these
1816 processes is incomplete.

1817

1818 Progress is needed in understanding the relative contributions of diverse carbon inputs (e.g.
1819 allochthonous, autochthonous, and geochemical contributions) as they vary across diverse
1820 physiographic and ecoclimatic settings and in time. Advances are needed to understand the
1821 processes controlling the magnitude and timing of CH₄ and CO₂ fluxes from aquatic systems, as
1822 well as productivity and respiration rates within wetland, riverine, lacustrine, and estuarine
1823 settings. The determinants of rates of sedimentation and release in inland waters (e.g. reservoirs)
1824 need to be resolved, along with impacts of channelization, levees, coastline developments, and
1825 wetland alterations on erosion, sedimentation, and conveyance. Effects of dam removal and
1826 flooding on carbon storage and release needs further study. New insights on how all of these
1827 processes are responding to nutrient inputs, agricultural runoff, and eutrophication are needed.
1828 Advances are needed to translate site-level and case study process understanding to integrated,
1829 system-level behavior at watershed to continental scales, with improved scaling methods, and
1830 system-wide modeling that considers soil attributes (organic and mineral contents), spatio-
1831 temporal patterns of inundation, nutrient dynamics, connections to upland systems (i.e. terrestrial-
1832 aquatic interfaces), decomposition and transformation processes. Lastly, a modelling framework
1833 is needed to represent the aquatic carbon cycle fully integrated with terrestrial and oceanic carbon
1834 exchanges and capable of prediction.

1835

1836 Key Priorities:

1837 *1. Identification of:*

1838 *a. lateral fluxes, emissions, and full budget assessments considering diverse inputs,*
1839 *changes in stocks, and outputs for all C forms (DIC, DOC, POC, CO₂ & CH₄);*

- 1840 *b. how water column chemistry and biology influences the fate of C and permanence*
1841 *of C sinks;*
1842 *c. effects of terrestrial wetland destruction, creation, and restoration;*
1843 *d. carbon burial rates (including use of isotopes in sediments) and fate of this buried*
1844 *carbon (respired vs. preserved).*
1845 2. *Improved scaling methods, and system-wide modeling capabilities to translate site-level*
1846 *and case study process understanding to integrated, predictive, system-level behavior at*
1847 *watershed to continental scales.*
1848 3. *Incorporation of carbon dynamics of freshwater and estuarine ecosystems into coupled*
1849 *land-ocean process models taking account of interactions with terrestrial and oceanic*
1850 *carbon cycle processes.*

1851
1852 **3.3.6 Responses of coastal and oceanic ecosystems to temperature, water quality, and**
1853 **acidification**

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

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

1874
1875 Ocean acidification, caused by rising atmospheric CO₂ and ocean uptake, is a growing concern for
1876 coastal systems because of the wide range of possible negative impacts on marine life (Kroeker et
1877 al., 2013). Excess CO₂ reacts with water resulting in a series of chemical changes including
1878 lowering pH, carbonate ion (CO₃²⁻) concentrations, and the saturation state for carbonate minerals
1879 used by many organisms to construct shells and skeletons. Acidification in coastal waters can be
1880 exacerbated by nutrient eutrophication, atmospheric deposition of acidic compounds, and other
1881 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 and

1886 cold-water corals and coralline algae appears particularly sensitive to reductions in carbonate ion
1887 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., 2018).
1890 Acidification vulnerabilities for many shellfish—clams, scallops, oysters—with possible
1891 repercussions for many valuable U.S. and international commercial fisheries (Gledhill et al., 2015;
1892 Hare et al., 2016); further studies are need on shellfish as well as expanding further into assessing
1893 impacts for key crustaceans and finfish. During the mid-2000s, low pH waters associated with
1894 coastal upwelling led to reduced larval survival of Pacific oysters in some U.S. Pacific northwest
1895 shellfish hatcheries, a problem that has been largely addressable so far through adaptive strategies
1896 (Barton et al., 2015). The challenges and potential adaptation strategies for wild-caught species
1897 are generally less-well known and require more detailed study. For all marine species, the impact
1898 of current and future ocean acidification must be framed in the context of a rapidly changing ocean
1899 environment with multiple human-driven stressors, particularly ocean warming (Breitburg et al.,
1900 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 and*
1910 *especially in so-called blue carbon in marshes, mangroves, estuaries, and seagrass*
1911 *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 fuels
1919 dominate the region's total energy supply (DOE EIA, 2019a,b), with North America's energy
1920 consumption contributing significantly to global CO₂e emissions. The region emits approximately
1921 17% of total global GHGs from fossil fuels and cement production (Boden et al, 2016). Emissions
1922 from transportation, electricity generation, and industry each account for about one third of the
1923 total, with more modest contributions from commercial and residential uses. The region also
1924 contributes significantly to worldwide energy production and energy reserves from fossil fuels
1925 spanning coal, natural gas and oil and petroleum hydrocarbon (BP 2018; DOE EIA, 2016). Trends
1926 in anthropogenic emissions of CO₂e are being driven by changes in the fuel mix, such as increases
1927 in natural gas and renewables, and by a variety of new, less carbon-intensive technologies. Those
1928 drivers are, in turn, being influenced by changes in the price of fuels, by slow growth rates in
1929 electricity demand in the United States and Canada, and by national, state and regional policies
1930 that are promoting technology development for energy efficiency and clean energy (Marcotullio,
1931 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 amount
1948 of gas that escapes as leakage and fugitive emissions has yet to be measured accurately. Lastly,
1949 detailed comparable data for end-use energy, emissions, and projections across North American
1950 economies have yet to be generated, and more comparable economic end-use data across nations
1951 could help inform evidenced-based regional policies regarding carbon management (Marcotullio
1952 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 economies*

1964
1965
1966 **3.3.8 Responses to changes in industrial, commercial, public, and household production and**
1967 **consumption**

1968 Industry, commerce, manufacturing, governance, residential life and the general functioning of
1969 society all influence the patterns and trends of carbon fluxes and stocks in natural and managed
1970 ecosystems, and in the built environment. The decisions and actions these entities take can have
1971 profound effects on the carbon metabolism of society and on its attendant impacts upstream in
1972 fields, farms, forests, waterways and beyond.

1973 Studies are needed to uncover how the production and sales of goods and services influences the
1974 carbon cycle through resource extraction, building, transportation, energy use, material
1975 consumption and associated wastes. Investigations into the potential effects of changes in policies,
1976 market forces, and decision making are needed, with an eye toward developing predictive
1977 capabilities to facilitate assessments of likely outcomes of actions being considered by decision

1978 makers. Methodological advances in tracking, tracing, reporting and visualizing the direct material
1979 flows of carbon resulting from these production and consumption activities are needed, along with
1980 communication of the carbon embedded in these activities.

1981 Key Priorities:

1982 *1. Identification of:*

1983 *a. carbon cycle impacts of expansion of built environments and shifts in building materials*

1984 *b. carbon cycle implications of waste trends such as in sewage and landfills*

1985 *2. Research on the potential effects of changes in policies, market forces, and decision making,*
1986 *with an eye toward developing predictive capabilities to facilitate assessments of likely outcomes*
1987 *of actions being considered by decision makers*

1988 *3. Improved methods for tracking, tracing, reporting and visualizing the direct material flows of*
1989 *carbon resulting from these production and consumption activities*

1990

1991

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Chapter 3.4. Predictions: Model Development, Evaluation and Prediction

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2175 **3.4 Introduction**

2176 The 2011 North American Carbon Program Science Plan listed ‘prediction’ as one of several
2177 overarching science goals, specifically asking how to improve predictions of ‘how ecosystems,
2178 biodiversity, and natural resources will change under different CO₂ and climate change scenarios?’
2179 This Chapter describes for the Science Implementation Plan five thematic areas that need to be
2180 developed to improve our predictive capabilities for a biosphere under increasing anthropogenic
2181 pressure. These include i) expanding the role of forecasting and treatment of uncertainties, ii) the
2182 use of benchmarks for model evaluation and initialization, iii) applications of Observing System
2183 Simulation Experiments (OSSEs), iv) consideration of feedbacks, and v) new focus areas,
2184 including addressing social systems and the role of lateral fluxes along the land-ocean atmosphere
2185 continuum (LOAC).

2186
2187 Predictions are useful for many applications, including informing management decisions and
2188 policy targets, evaluating how well we understand a particular system and its potential feedbacks,
2189 and prioritizing and optimizing *in situ* or remote sensing-based monitoring strategies. Predictions
2190 can take place at varying timescales, with *forecasts* (seasonal-to-subseasonal, i.e., S2S) that aim
2191 to provide information for daily to sometimes decadal time windows and *projections* typically for
2192 multi-decadal to millennial timeframes, depending on the purpose of the scenario. In addition to
2193 constraining what might take place in the future, ‘predictions’ can be made for historical periods;
2194 ‘retrospective forecasts’ or ‘hindcasts’ are commonly used to evaluate model skill and ‘reanalyses’
2195 are generated by fusing hindcasts with observations to reconcile historical pools and fluxes. This
2196 chapter focuses mainly on the use of predictions made for seasonal to century scale processes and
2197 their relevance for process understanding and informing policy.

2198
2199 Rapid and large-scale changes are taking place within Earth’s climate system, in atmospheric trace
2200 gas concentrations (e.g., CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, O₃, PM_{2.5}), on the land surface through deforestation,
2201 forest management, and cropland expansion and in the hydrologic cycle through water use and
2202 changes in water quality. The rate and magnitude of these changes, interactions between drivers,
2203 and feedbacks from the biosphere and atmosphere have led to conditions that lack any historical
2204 or paleoecological analogs that can appropriately inform the future. For example, the last time
2205 atmospheric carbon dioxide levels were more than 415 ppm (as of 2020) was more than several
2206 million years ago, and thus it is not straightforward to make empirical inferences to learn how
2207 ecosystems will respond as CO₂ concentrations continue to rise into the 21st century. Consequently,
2208 modeling tools used in prediction must incorporate interactions and nonlinear feedbacks between
2209 a range of processes that operate at varying temporal and spatial scales, e.g., interactions between
2210 CO₂ and air pollutants on ecosystems. These models tend to be mechanistic or process based, in
2211 that they use first principles to represent flows of carbon, water, energy and nutrients with various
2212 parameters and requirements for ‘driver’ data (i.e., climate, CO₂, and land-use scenarios). More
2213 recently, data-driven models based on machine learning, deep learning and artificial intelligence
2214 frameworks are demonstrating important and useful predictive capabilities (Reichstein et al.,
2215 2019). This Chapter focuses on the requirements and areas of emphasis for improving process-
2216 based modeling approaches to be used in making predictions.

2217
2218 **3.4.1 Forecasting and Uncertainty**
2219 There are large uncertainties in (and among) simulated projections of historical and future changes
2220 in carbon cycling (e.g., Ciais et al. 2013; Anav et al. 2013; Arora et al. 2013; Friedlingstein et al.

2221 2014), which inhibit our ability to understand and forecast changes in climate feedbacks and
2222 ecological services. Foundational to the goal of reducing these are (1) the establishment of
2223 probabilistic forecasting as a community standard for how predictions and projections are made,
2224 and (2) a systematic effort to understand better which uncertainties, i.e., parameters, processes,
2225 and drivers, limit forecasts at different spatial and temporal scales. Probabilistic forecasting is
2226 widely considered best for representing the uncertainties in meteorological forecasts, but
2227 traditionally has not been the norm in carbon cycle modeling. Ensemble approaches are becoming
2228 more common, but to date have focused on subsets of uncertainties. The lack of a full error
2229 accounting means we do not yet know the relative importance of different uncertainties, which
2230 constrains our ability to prioritize which uncertainties to focus on reducing.

2231
2232 Broadly speaking, our ability to make a skillful carbon cycle forecast is limited by five key
2233 uncertainties: i) initial conditions, ii) external drivers and boundary conditions, iii) parameter
2234 uncertainty, iv) parameter heterogeneity, and v) process error (Dietze 2017). The initial condition
2235 of model state variables drives significant uncertainty in short-term predictions and can also be
2236 significant at much longer time-scales, e.g. changes in soil carbon pools, disturbance, vegetation
2237 succession, and species range shifts that can play out over centuries to millennia (Huntzinger et al.
2238 2020). For example, research suggests that model initialization limits the detectability of changes
2239 in terrestrial carbon cycle pools for multiple decades (Lombardozzi et al. 2014). Boundary
2240 conditions and model drivers are another source of uncertainty, as there is considerable uncertainty
2241 about future climate, deposition, disturbance, etc. This will translate into variability in terrestrial
2242 carbon cycle pools (Matthews et al. 2004) and other ecosystem services, such as projected crop
2243 yields (Levis et al. 2016). An additional source of uncertainty arises from model process error,
2244 including the failure to represent either stabilizing or destabilizing feedbacks, the inherent
2245 stochasticity in biological processes (dispersal, mortality, disturbance), and the omission or
2246 misspecification of processes that become important as models are applied at spatial or temporal
2247 scales different from the scale at which they were parameterized. Many studies, for example, have
2248 highlighted the large carbon cycle uncertainties that arise from the various representations of
2249 photosynthetic processes (Dietze et al. 2013; Fatichi et al. 2014; Rogers et al. 2017; Lombardozzi
2250 et al. 2015, 2018), yet photosynthesis has received more attention than arguably any other process
2251 in carbon cycle models. Process errors encompass the ‘residual’ differences between models and
2252 observations, after observation errors have been accounted for, but are rarely accounted for in
2253 carbon cycle forecasts (Riaho et al., 2020). Parameter uncertainty arises because most of the
2254 parameters in carbon cycle models are not physical constants but empirical coefficients that need
2255 to be estimated from observational data. Finally, parameter heterogeneity occurs because many
2256 ecological processes can be highly variable in space and time for reasons that are incompletely
2257 understood (e.g. trait plasticity), but which can nonetheless be accommodated using approaches
2258 such as statistical random effect or spatial maps of trait variability. The combination of these
2259 uncertainties limits the predictability of carbon cycling, but targeted research to quantify the
2260 uncertainties will help prioritize research efforts and improve carbon cycle forecasting.

2261
2262 Recent analyses by Lovenduski and Bonan (2017) and Bonan and Doney (2018) quantify these
2263 sources of uncertainty and illustrated that “model error” accounts for nearly 80% of uncertainty in
2264 carbon cycle projections over the next century. These initial efforts, however, combined multiple
2265 sources of uncertainty within a single “model error”. Efforts to disentangle these uncertainties
2266 point to large contributions from process and initial condition error, but have been limited to simple

2267 models and local scales (Raiho 2020). Progress on quantifying and reducing uncertainties can be
2268 made through several paths, including: explicitly quantifying parameter uncertainty by combining
2269 trait constraints and Bayesian calibration; data assimilation to constrain initial conditions based on
2270 observations rather than spin-up; employing statistical model selection and hierarchical
2271 approaches; using optimality theory models; model benchmarking and inter-comparison (see
2272 3.4.2) and acknowledging, quantifying, and propagating the process error in current semi-
2273 mechanistic process-based models. Research is required to determine the most scientifically
2274 rigorous and effective methods for treating initial conditions and model spin up for ecosystem
2275 carbon cycle models, with consideration that ecosystems are never in steady state.

2276
2277 Other, more systematic ways that the scientific community can reduce uncertainty in carbon cycle
2278 projections and improve carbon cycle predictability and forecasts require more sweeping
2279 initiatives. One such initiative would be to implement a comprehensive carbon-cycle reanalysis
2280 through a formal model-data assimilation of ground, tower, and remotely-sensed observations,
2281 similar to meteorological reanalysis products. Efforts to develop such assimilation systems for the
2282 carbon-cycle are in their early stages (e.g., NASA Carbon Monitoring System), and as they mature
2283 they will ultimately link top-down inversions (e.g., CarbonTracker) with bottom-up syntheses and
2284 facilitate analysis of spatial and temporal variability in carbon pools and fluxes, and help us
2285 identify model structural errors. Additionally, carbon-cycle reanalysis would provide an improved
2286 operational tool for land carbon monitoring, reporting, and verification requirements under the
2287 Paris Climate Accord, the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, and REDD+, while
2288 enabling a seamless transition to forecasts with constrained initial conditions.

2289
2290 A second proposed initiative is to implement a carbon cycle forecast program that creates near-
2291 term (sub-daily to multiple years) iterative forecasts as a way to accelerate understanding and make
2292 carbon cycle predictions more relevant to real-time decision making (Dietze et al. 2018). Existing
2293 ecological monitoring networks such as FLUXNET, NEON, national forest inventories, etc., can
2294 be leveraged for this purpose, strengthened with new data sources e.g., tree rings, lidar, imaging
2295 spectroscopy, and assimilated together to produce rolling forecasts – predictions produced and
2296 tested against new data on a continuous basis. Other processes that we can forecast rapidly,
2297 including vegetation phenology, ecosystem fluxes, and disturbances like insect outbreaks, can be
2298 used for carbon cycle and adaptive management, providing immediate feedback to land managers.
2299 For example, the IPCC 1.5 Degree Special Report underlines the need for rapid action, and a 2018
2300 report by the U. S. National Academy of Science offers four “negative emissions technologies” as
2301 a proposed set of such actions; here we emphasize the need for rapid learning to accompany that,
2302 via a more systematic focus on uncertainty and more intimate feedbacks between monitoring,
2303 forecasting, and management.

2304

2305 **3.4.2 Establishing Benchmarks**

2306 Improved model representation of ecosystem processes and biogeochemistry–climate feedbacks
2307 are essential for reducing uncertainties in climate change predictions. The increasing complexity
2308 of carbon cycle models, however, requires a comprehensive and detailed evaluation of model
2309 fidelity to identify model weaknesses, inform design of new measurements and field campaigns,
2310 achieve better understanding of controlling processes, and yield improved predictions. Community
2311 efforts to coordinate model assessment methodologies and quantitative metrics of model
2312 performance through standardized open source software tools enables systematic benchmarking

2313 across models and modeling centers e.g., ILAMB, ESMValTool. Ideally, benchmarking systems
2314 help researchers avoid “reinventing the wheel” by performing data preparation, regrid-
2315 ding, and standardized gap-filling. Using community accepted datasets also ensures that all users are
2316 comparing against the same data.

2317
2318 Recent coordinated, international efforts have focused on defining community-wide reference data
2319 sets, methods, and metrics for model evaluation (Abramowitz et al. 2012; Kumar et al. 2012;
2320 Collier et al. 2018). These are built on data ranging from point to global scales, and from centennial
2321 to diurnal time scales. The Fluxnet network of eddy covariance towers, which measures the
2322 exchanges of heat, water, and trace gases, has been incorporated into several model benchmarking
2323 systems for both carbon dioxide and methane (Abramowitz et al. 2012; Blyth et al. 2011; Lawrence
2324 et al. 2019). Single eddy covariance or long-term ecological ‘super’ sites are useful for evaluating
2325 process-level responses of selected ecosystems.

2326
2327 Global-scale collaborative efforts for model benchmarking include ILAMB (Collier et al. 2018),
2328 ESMValTool (Eyring et al. 2016) and the land surface verification toolkit (LSVT; Kumar et al.
2329 2012). Each product compares current models against observations related to biogeochemistry,
2330 hydrology, radiation and energy, and climate forcing. ILAMB and ESMValTool also facilitate
2331 evaluation of future CMIP models. For example, ESMValTool includes tools to reproduce well-
2332 established evaluations of CMIP5 models, such as emergent constraints to investigate model biases
2333 in interannual variability of carbon uptake (Cox et al. 2013) or GPP response to CO₂ (Wenzel et
2334 al. 2016).

2335
2336 Benchmarking systems often produce a final metric defining the performance of the model(s), but
2337 this should be seen as the beginning of model development and process understanding, not the
2338 end. To enable future development that improves model prediction, a process is needed to identify
2339 which metrics are most valuable for determining prognostic skill (which will likely depend on the
2340 applications of the model), and to identify the relevant observations or experiments to assess these
2341 metrics. Often, benchmarking can flag missing datasets as well as highlight model predictive
2342 deficiencies. The wealth of North American carbon cycle data, including the Free Air CO₂
2343 Enrichment (FACE) experiments, ecosystem experiments (e.g., summarized by INTERFACE),
2344 nutrient addition, and warming experiments, should be used to test and develop predictive models.
2345 The inclusion of global change experiments in benchmarking datasets will facilitate future model
2346 development, and will help identify instances when future model development improves model
2347 performance in one component but degrades model performance in a separate but related
2348 component. Benchmarking metrics should account for process-level and emergent behavior of the
2349 coupled system, including the equilibrium climate sensitivity and the transient climate response,
2350 rather than just the mean state (e.g., annual average GPP).

2351
2352 A challenge with benchmarking is understanding the limitations of the observations: multiple data
2353 sets can sometimes give conflicting results, and benchmarks need to account for measurement
2354 error and uncertainty (for example relating to natural climate variability). When datasets used in
2355 benchmarking packages do not include carefully quantified uncertainty bounds, it is difficult to
2356 determine whether or not the model actually has a bias (this is a problem for all model evaluations
2357 and is not unique to benchmarking). And when not possible, this highlights a need for uncertainty
2358 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.

2405 Model estimates of soil carbon pools vary widely, and observations to evaluate soil carbon pools
2406 (Fischer et al. 2008) are limited. Global rates of heterotrophic respiration are considerably larger
2407 than fossil fuel emissions ($\sim 10 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$), but are highly uncertain, with estimates varying from
2408 33 to more than 50 Pg C yr^{-1} (e.g., Hashimoto et al. 2015, Konings et al 2019, Ciais et al., 2020).
2409 In models, too, these rates are a dominant source of carbon cycle uncertainty. The ways in which
2410 modeled heterotrophic respiration responds to environmental changes, as well as feeds back to soil
2411 nutrient availability, play a crucial yet largely unconstrained role in modeled carbon cycle
2412 responses. For example, permafrost thaw with climate warming is releasing significant amounts
2413 of carbon and mineralizing nitrogen for plant growth (Schuur et al 2015; Koven et al. 2015). When
2414 incorporated into process models, respiratory temperature acclimation can have a large impact on
2415 terrestrial carbon storage (Lombardozzi et al. 2015). The representation of decomposition in
2416 models often includes one or more pools of carbon with rates scaled by abiotic factors and the
2417 recalcitrance of the carbon in that pool (e.g., Bonan et al, 2012; Koven et al. 2013). More recently,
2418 the importance of biological processes has been highlighted with the emergence of several
2419 microbial-explicit models (e.g., Wieder et al. 2013).

2420
2421 Fluxes of carbon into terrestrial ecosystems are largely governed by plant physiological processes,
2422 with terrestrial vegetation carbon pools dependent upon gross rates of photosynthesis and
2423 autotrophic respiration. Although extensive research has led to the development of widely accepted
2424 models of photosynthesis, there is still considerable uncertainty in the representation of
2425 photosynthesis in models that arises from leaf-level implementation and scaling (Rogers et al.
2426 2017; Lombardozzi et al. 2018) as well as imperfect knowledge of responses to environmental
2427 variables (Lombardozzi et al. 2015; Smith and Dukes 2012; Slot and Winter 2017). Similarly, the
2428 representation of autotrophic respiration, including maintenance and growth respiration, is quite
2429 simplistic. For example, models of respiration often include a static temperature response even
2430 though available data suggest some acclimation to growth temperature. When incorporated into
2431 process models, respiratory temperature acclimation can have a large impact on terrestrial carbon
2432 storage (Lombardozzi et al. 2015).

2433
2434 Process representation of C cycle is often based on smaller-scale measurements (for example, leaf-
2435 level photosynthesis to global GPP). We recommend additional research to determine how
2436 uncertainty propagates as processes are scaled through space. Different factors/processes come
2437 into play at different scales, and there are “scale transitions” when the system passes from a scale
2438 at which it is primarily influenced by one process to a scale at which it is primarily influenced by
2439 a different process. Scaling uncertainty can be evaluated through benchmarking and model
2440 validation activities with coordinated prognostic carbon cycle model evaluation, taking into
2441 account both complexity and performance as a function of complexity.

2442
2443 NACP science should seek to reduce the uncertainty caused by process representation in terrestrial
2444 biosphere models, by evaluating and improving the representation of processes important for C
2445 cycle prediction. Tools for prioritizing research on processes could be useful for groups
2446 conducting empirical and modeling research. While some progress has been made on identifying
2447 sources of uncertainty within individual terrestrial biosphere models (e.g., Booth et al. 2012,
2448 Dietze et al. 2014) and within photosynthesis models (e.g., Dietze 2013; Rogers et al. 2017), these
2449 analyses omit larger-scale processes and those that are not yet included in models. NACP science
2450 should target understanding the magnitude of uncertainty caused by model process representation,

2451 including evaluating and improving mechanistic representations of these and other processes
2452 important for C cycle prediction. Additionally, measurement campaigns should target
2453 understanding key mechanisms contributing to representation uncertainty. These activities would
2454 help prioritize future scientific activity to reduce the greatest uncertainties in large-scale carbon-
2455 climate feedbacks.
2456

2457 **3.4.5 Focus Areas (Coupled human-natural systems and Land-Ocean-Aquatic** 2458 **Continuum)**

2459 In addition to predicting the indirect effects of humans on the carbon cycle from climate change
2460 and changes in atmospheric CO₂ and ozone etc., human activities include direct effects such as
2461 burning of fossil fuels, deforestation, silviculture, agriculture, marine management, land
2462 development (i.e., drainage), and land fragmentation and abandonment. The human systems and
2463 natural ecosystems influence one another in ways that our current observing systems and models
2464 are not currently designed to understand dynamically. Predicting the drivers and impacts of
2465 human-related activities requires taking into account existing infrastructure and investment
2466 lifetimes (i.e., ‘carbon lock-in’) and developing socio-economic scenarios of population growth
2467 and economic development. At short time scales (decadal), empirical models relating climate
2468 teleconnections, existing land cover and land use, and economic projections can be effective in
2469 predicting where land cover transitions may take place (Seto et al. 2012), and are important in the
2470 context of shorter-term monitoring of the carbon budget (Le Quere et al. 2018). At longer-term
2471 scales (i.e., centennial), tools like Integrated Assessment Models allow exploration of a range of
2472 population and economic growth scenarios coupled with policy and radiative forcing assumptions,
2473 similar to those used in the IPCC process (e.g. O’Neil et al. 2017). Up to now, much of the socio-
2474 economic and human integration with carbon cycle modeling has taken place in an offline
2475 approach, for example, where land cover and land-use change scenarios are provided as diagnostic
2476 inputs to models (Hurtt et al. 2020). There is a need to more comprehensively couple human-
2477 drivers, including energy consumption and type choices, ecosystem management decisions,
2478 infrastructure efficiency, socioeconomics, and agricultural and urban development preferences,
2479 into carbon cycle models to effectively constrain feedbacks between the Earth system and human
2480 activities (see, e.g., Woodard et al. 2018), particularly as carbon management and geoengineering
2481 technologies are proposed as climate mitigation solutions, i.e., BECCS (Fuss et al. 2018).
2482

2483 Emissions from the burning of fossil fuels are the primary cause of increasing atmospheric CO₂
2484 levels (Friedlingstein et al., 2019), and these fuels have supplied ~85% of primary energy used
2485 worldwide in recent years (IEA WEO, 2018). Although inventories of fossil emissions based on
2486 energy statistics are regularly published (Andres et al., 2012), little research effort to date has
2487 focused on predicting future fossil emissions or their spatial patterns in the context of population,
2488 lifestyle, and development trajectories. Energy forecasts are more common, but are notoriously
2489 unreliable, particularly in anticipating sudden economic changes or technological breakthroughs
2490 (Sherwin et al., 2018; Davis, 2018). Research aiming to predict emissions or even report emissions
2491 in near real-time is thus focused on improving the detail and currency of energy data and the
2492 techno-economic and weather-related factors that affect energy demand, as well as advances in
2493 data science to develop more accurate models. Promising sources of data include satellite
2494 observations of nightlights, ship traffic, aerosol concentrations (e.g., NO_x and SO₂), ozone
2495 measurements, and energy infrastructure, as well as country- and region-specific economic
2496 indicators of consumption, international trade, and industrial activity. Many of our most promising

2497 opportunities for emissions mitigation are at local, city-scales, granular activity data is needed to
2498 identify specific opportunities and assess the efficacy of mitigation efforts (Gurney et al. 2015;
2499 Gately and Hutyra 2017).

2500
2501 Prediction of land-use change emissions is similarly rare, again limited by the currency and detail
2502 of available information. The emissions impacts of land use changes can extend for decades as
2503 land cover can change repeatedly (e.g. forest converted to agriculture and then secondary
2504 regrowing forest) and has cascading impacts on the surrounding built and natural ecosystems.
2505 Satellite observations of land cover and land transitions gradients represents an increasingly
2506 promising source of data which may be used to improve either rule-based predictive approaches
2507 such as cellular automata and simple Markov models or more sophisticated, economic-based land-
2508 use models that assess the relationship among land-use allocations and the inherent productivity
2509 of the land as determined by biophysical features, returns to improvement of the land, society's
2510 preferences for various goods, and policies that manipulate economic returns (see, e.g., Radeloff
2511 et al., 2012).

2512
2513 Lateral carbon fluxes related to the land-ocean-aquatic continuum (LOAC) represent another focus
2514 area for predictive modeling. The LOAC accounts for inland water fluxes of CO₂ and CH₄, the
2515 transport of dissolved organic and inorganic carbon from headwaters to estuaries, and the fluxes
2516 of estuarine carbon to continental shelves and open ocean. Annually, and at global scales, these
2517 fluxes amount to >1 Pg C yr⁻¹ and regionally, the LOAC fluxes partly resolve bottom-up and top-
2518 down differences in carbon accounting (Kondo et al. 2020, Hayes et al., 2012), and are important
2519 components of wetland restoration and climate mitigation. With changes in climate, atmosphere
2520 CO₂, and land-use and land cover change, LOAC fluxes will likely be significantly altered. Current
2521 methodologies to estimate LOAC fluxes remain highly empirical, i.e., scaling fluxes made at the
2522 chamber scale by remote-sensing based areal estimates. This approach presents challenges for
2523 predictive modeling, especially when environmental conditions are changing. We recommend an
2524 emphasis on process-modeling approaches to represent LOAC fluxes and that these approach
2525 provide the basis for predictive modeling of LOAC at seasonal, decadal, and centennial time
2526 scales.

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

Chapter 3.5: Communication, Coordination and Decision Support

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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

2752 NACP has as its data policy the ‘full, open, and timely sharing of the full suite of North American
2753 data sets for all NACP researchers.’ Although this policy is in place, it continues to be challenging
2754 for researchers to comply with due to the need for datasets to be ‘final’, cleaned, searchable,
2755 referenced, and complete, something that for many datasets could take years to achieve.

2756
2757 However, it could be that information is shared, but policy makers are unable to use it because the
2758 research is not currently formulated in ways compatible with current decision-making models. For
2759 example, the National Acid Precipitation Assessment Program ambitiously attempted to develop
2760 the science base for a set of critical policy decisions regarding acid rain. According to several
2761 retrospective analyses, however, its results were largely ignored by decision makers because they
2762 were not timely, clearly connected to policies, and generated with specific policy-related priorities
2763 in mind (Jones et al. 1999). Relevant information for a pending policy decision may be available
2764 online, in the literature, and widely known, but if the information fails to be communicated in a
2765 way that can be accessed by policy makers, it won’t be used. Presenting the information is
2766 important but scaling of the information to targeted policy makers while also giving a timeline is
2767 also crucial. How long will this information be good for? Will the information support the policy
2768 in the future as well as now? Answering these questions is central to usability and can be addressed
2769 with surveys of various communities and stakeholders.

2770
2771 Developing and presenting carbon cycle science research with greater utility for policy makers
2772 requires an unprecedented amount of knowledge on the policy context and significant investment
2773 in time and resources in supporting decision making. Greater investment by agencies to provide
2774 clear, concise, targeted information for specific policies would enhance utilization of research,
2775 such as collating research on targets for scientifically defensible thresholds for carbon pricing.
2776 Working directly with stakeholders (both policy makers and the private sector) to determine what
2777 information they need, when its needed and linking this to published research would help improve
2778 the dialog and utilization of scientific research.

2779
2780 Innovative partnerships between researchers, funding entities, and beneficiary stakeholders could
2781 include public-private partnerships, such as the new collaboration between Google and the UN
2782 Environment division, in efforts to track specific environment-related development targets with a
2783 user-friendly Google front-end. The Global Carbon Project, the Long Term Ecological Research
2784 (LTER) program, NASA’s Earth Observing Program (EOS), National Ecological Observatory
2785 Network (NEON), the Ocean Carbon & Biogeochemistry and other programs provide great
2786 examples of additional and alternative communication activities that have impact and reach
2787 beyond that of the NACP. Similarly, the NACP could engage with high profile organizations with
2788 access to government and public policy decision makers. Organizations that use social media (e.g.
2789 Facebook, LinkedIn) and print media organizations (New York Times, Washington Times, etc)
2790 could engage with the NACP in their efforts to communicate broad findings to a broad spectrum
2791 of stakeholders.

2792
2793 Stakeholders are both providers of bottom-up information and also users of that information. Major
2794 private corporations and cities can benefit from NACP efforts by contributing data, and by then
2795 accessing analysis of how their carbon impacts compare with other corporations, cities and
2796 industries, or how their impacts contribute to national accounts. NACP can facilitate inter-

2797 stakeholder communication by integrating the information from many stakeholders in a shared
2798 frame of reference.

2799
2800 Another aspect of reducing barriers is the encouragement of funding, publishing and academic
2801 programs that reduce ‘silos’ and improve NACP scientists’ engagement in decision support and
2802 communication activities. Incentivization of service and education activities for this community
2803 means providing funding support and highly visible prestige to scientists who spend their time
2804 engaging with decision makers. Scientists need training on more constructive engagement with
2805 decision makers could also be useful. For scientists, there are similar communication barriers with
2806 policy makers as there are with media and the public.

2807
2808 By encouraging, rewarding, and facilitating ‘user engagement’ from the start of new research
2809 projects, and encouraging scientists in making carbon cycle observations, models and tool
2810 development directed toward policy applications, the NACP can reduce barriers to scientists’
2811 participation in stakeholder engagement. The NACP can use incentives, clearly articulated
2812 selection criteria and funding opportunities to reduce barriers to participation.

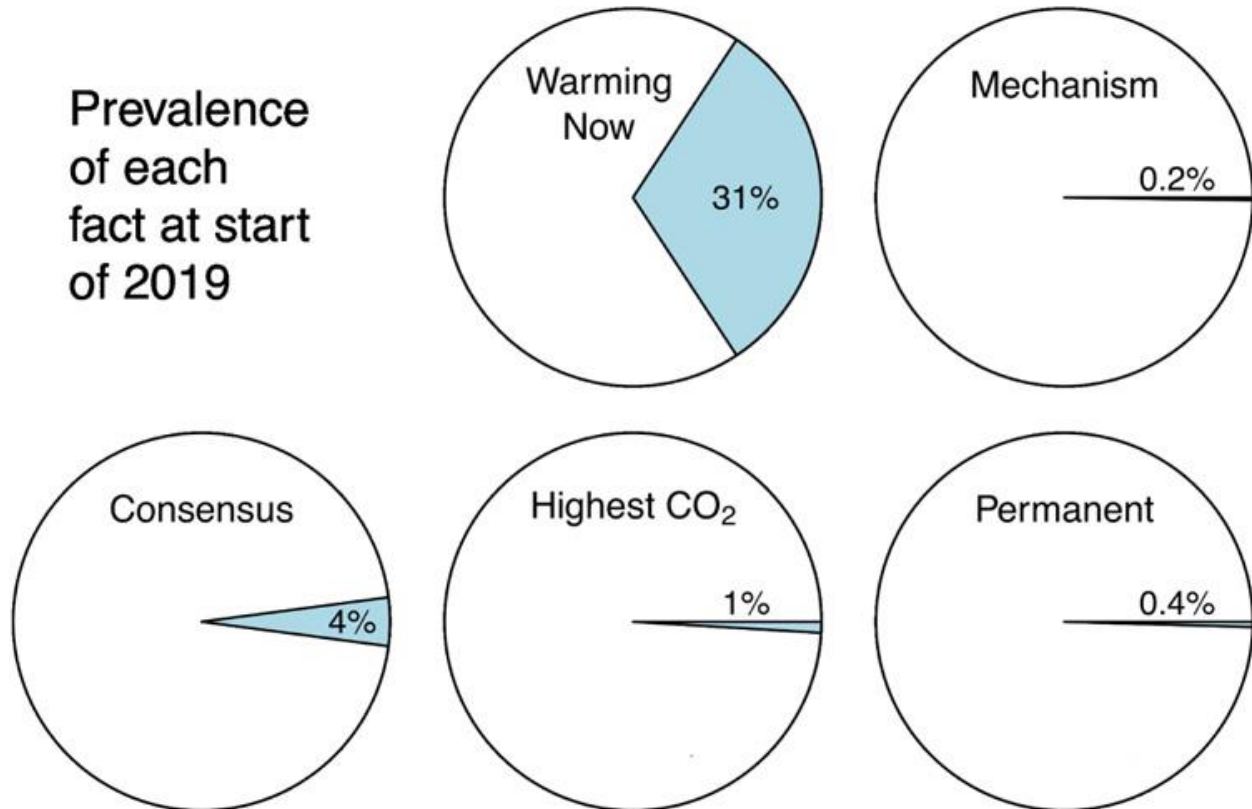
2813
2814 **3.5.1.2 Uncertainty in carbon knowledge and its communication and application by decision**
2815 **makers**

2816 A critical objective of the NACP is to produce bottom-up inventories, linking these to
2817 observations, connecting these observations to models, and communicating the resulting data
2818 uncertainties to both the scientific and stakeholder communities. This work has the potential to
2819 greatly improve the prioritization, formulation and verification of policies meant to reduce carbon
2820 emissions. By integrating across these scales, the NACP can improve policy makers’ ability to
2821 understand the impact of policies on emissions.

2822
2823 Whereas past efforts have achieved significant advancement in detailed inventories, observations,
2824 and models, future efforts will require a systems-approach to provide actionable information for
2825 decision making. We need to know the systematic effects of uncertainty on decision making, both
2826 direct and indirect, of government policy, corporate investment, economic growth, and consumer
2827 behavior. This information must connect each participant in the system to the broader carbon cycle
2828 effects of their individual decisions. Communicating information and data with confidence
2829 estimates in both space and time allow for immediate understanding of the certainty of outcomes
2830 across both observations and models. Focusing on confidence estimates, as opposed to
2831 uncertainties, shifts the perception of the discussion from something of weakness to a topic of
2832 strength and optimism. “Uncertainty” puts decision making and policy people into an insecure
2833 state of mind, therefore a focus on confidence estimates is a better bet.

2834
2835 The NACP needs to create a communications strategy which is focused on the continual need to
2836 revisit, understand, and define how carbon cycle science findings are understood and used by the
2837 stakeholder community. Focusing on how confident the developer is, with clearly explained and
2838 visualized data, is critical for effective communication. Visual representations of probabilistic
2839 events are often misinterpreted by the general public and by policy makers. Although various
2840 uncertainty visualizations are now in use, the parameters that determine their successful
2841 deployment are still unknown and require more research to be effectively implemented (Tak et al.,
2842 2015). For example, uncertainty and error bars are seen as too “sciencey” and are not relatable for

2843 decision makers. This is an immediate deterrent as they feel the information is not tailored to
 2844 them. Carbon cycle scientists should engage with scientific expertise from psychology,
 2845 engineering and political science, among other disciplines, to effectively communicate their
 2846 uncertainty information.
 2847



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 **3.5.1.3 Participate in the science of communicating science**

2856 NACP needs to engage with the broader scientific community that is engaged in studying the most
 2857 effective ways of communicating science with policy makers, private institutions, the public, and
 2858 others. Communication approaches need to be adapted to reflect the circumstances around which
 2859 the information is being imparted and the goals of the communication. There is a growing literature
 2860 and expertise that can be drawn upon that can help inform the most effective ways of
 2861 communicating with the public and with non-expert audiences, through a variety of outlets like
 2862 social media (NAS, 2017). By clarifying the NACP’s goals for communicating with different
 2863 audiences within different contexts, the strategy taken will vary. The NACP should engage with
 2864 science communicators and social scientists researching the complex individual and social
 2865 phenomena that impede or enhance science communication.
 2866

2867 The NACP should engage with social scientists to identify process-level understanding of human
2868 factors that determine carbon emissions from energy use, industrial activities, transportation and
2869 others to increase relevance of carbon cycle science. The challenge is not only in understanding
2870 how policy makers at various levels and the public interpret available science, but also
2871 understanding how carbon cycle science can be more accessible and relevant to individual and
2872 collective decision making. In addition, the NACP should confront the challenge posed by
2873 *intentional* dissemination of misinformation about climate change and efforts to undermine trust
2874 in scientific and governmental institutions.

2875
2876 The domain of the NACP is to study the sources and sinks of carbon with the expectation that
2877 resulting knowledge should ultimately be accessible and salient to stakeholders at a variety of
2878 levels. Although scientific research does not have a simple cause-and-effect relationship with
2879 improved societal outcomes, research has led to policies seeking to reduce society's exposure to
2880 extreme events (Rosenzweig et al. 2014). Although it is a goal of the NACP to improve
2881 communication of carbon cycle research to decision makers, to do this it is necessary that natural
2882 sciences be integrated with the study of human processes. However, the integration of social and
2883 human aspects in carbon science is challenged by the need for translation and cooperation between
2884 different kinds of stakeholders. Researchers tend to interact more closely and share similar
2885 technical language with other researchers in their own fields, which can frustrate interdisciplinary
2886 cooperation amongst those who study natural sciences, social sciences, and economics.

2887
2888 **Key Priorities for communication**

- 2889 1. *Rewarding NACP scientists for engagement with stakeholders early in the research*
2890 *process.*
2891 2. *Investment in new capabilities in uncertainty communication and interdisciplinary work to*
2892 *visualize effectively how certain models, processes and outcomes are for a diversity of*
2893 *audiences.*
2894 3. *NACP institutional engagement across multiple social science and physical science*
2895 *disciplines to ensure that scientific outputs are able to provide joint representation of*
2896 *natural and managed systems that can be communicated to stakeholders.*
2897 4. *Facilitate inter-stakeholder communication by placing stakeholder-originated carbon*
2898 *information within a shared frame of reference.*

2899
2900
2901 **3.5.2 Decision Support Goals**

2902 The readiness of decision makers to receive climate information varies widely, from those who do
2903 not consider climate in any decisions to those who are entirely focused on adaptation and
2904 mitigation. The NACP should engage its community in developing flexible, customizable tools
2905 that allow users to access appropriate scientific information which is understandable regardless of
2906 the sophistication of the user.

2907
2908 **3.5.2.1 Engagement with boundary organizations to co-produce knowledge**

2909 Public policy and decision making must become increasingly dependent on expertise and expert
2910 knowledge. Boundary organizations can facilitate a science-policy and science-management
2911 interaction that is dynamic and collaborative. Science from the NACP contributes to rules,
2912 regulations, and legislation but also to decisions made by environmental managers and industry at

2913 a variety of scales as they interpret and implement policies. By engaging with boundary
2914 organizations at a variety of scales, the NACP can facilitate multidisciplinary research and the
2915 interaction and engagement with policy makers in the local, regional, national and international
2916 arenas.

2917
2918 Boundary organizations can facilitate the interactions between science producers and users,
2919 enabling the NACP to ensure that scientists are able to provide essential information to decision
2920 makers while continuing to focus on their own science and expertise. Guston defines a boundary
2921 organization using three criteria:

- 2922 - The organizations provide the opportunity and sometimes the incentives for the creation
2923 and use of boundary objects and standardized packages;
- 2924 - They involve the participation of actors from both sides of the boundary, as well as
2925 professionals who serve a mediating role; and
- 2926 - They exist at the frontier of the two relatively different social worlds of politics and science,
2927 but they have distinct lines of accountability to each (Guston, 2001).

2928 By facilitating the communication between its scientists and organizations making decisions such
2929 as regulators or businesses, the NACP can contribute to the increased uptake of the science and
2930 improve the relevance of the data products and science that the NACP members create. This
2931 engagement ensures the accurate identification of decision makers and the information they need
2932 to make better decisions, along with the design of the best possible scientific data products and
2933 communication systems to deliver the information these decision makers require.

2934
2935 Examples of effective boundary institutions include the Decision Center for a Desert City, located
2936 at Arizona State University, which focuses on developing fundamental knowledge about decision
2937 making from three interdisciplinary perspectives: climatic uncertainties, urban-system dynamics,
2938 and adaptation decisions. The Decision Center has worked with Phoenix communities to
2939 implement sustainable development goals and increase equity, sustainability and resilience in a
2940 desert city (Sachs et al., 2019; Stanley, 2017). Another example is the use of sea level rise
2941 information in climate adaptation measures taken urban areas. The New York City Panel on
2942 Climate Change is a New York City Mayor appointed advisory board of researchers who act as a
2943 boundary organization, guiding the infrastructure and adaptation investments in the New York and
2944 New Jersey Port authority (Mills-Knapp et al., 2011). These changes have resulted in increases in
2945 property values, particularly in areas proximate to hard infrastructure, green infrastructure, and
2946 building structural elevation projects (Kim, 2020).

2947
2948 Two additional examples are given below. Both involve boundary organizations who have been
2949 directly involved in producing science or have been collaborators on grants and research. Molly
2950 Macauley of Resources for the Future (RFF) has collaborated on projects and grants with a variety
2951 of NACP scientists since 2009, and therefore had a hand in focusing efforts of scientists and their
2952 use of remote sensing data in models to ensure their relevance to decision making.

2953
2954 **Example 1: Resources for the Future engagement with forest regulations for carbon**
2955 **sequestration**

2956 In the United States, forests store the equivalent of 52 years' worth of US carbon emissions. This
2957 reservoir is expanding by about 0.5 percent per year; however, net growth is expected to decline
2958 over the next 30 years, primarily due to land use changes and forests aging. In order to mitigate

2959 this decline and expand carbon storage in forests, the Obama-era Mid-century Strategy for Deep
2960 Decarbonization proposed a set of policy options, including afforestation (creating new forests),
2961 avoided deforestation, and by implementing forest management strategies. Forests are also at the
2962 root of House Republican leaders’ push to capture carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. Recently,
2963 they unveiled plans for a series of climate bills, among which is a proposal to grow more trees “for
2964 the purpose of sequestering carbon. **Boundary organization Resources For the Future (RFF)** is
2965 working to determine the amount of carbon forests may sequester and the potential effectiveness
2966 of the policy. RFF is also working directly with satellite remote sensing scientists and modelers to
2967 determine the impact of different forest policies and emissions from forest harvest, notably using
2968 high resolution forest maps generated by Huang et al (2019). By evaluating potential and existing
2969 policies using data and information generated by the NACP, RFF can directly influence future
2970 policies of the United States.

2971
2972

2973 **Example 2: Finite Carbon and Forest Offsets**

2974 The boundary organization Finite Carbon Corporation has worked with a wide variety of
2975 landowners and corporations to create forest reserves that can generate revenue from the
2976 protection, restoration and sustainable management of forests. By putting a price on carbon, the
2977 organization allows for carbon emitters to invest in forest conservation and reduce their impact on
2978 the environment. Finite Carbon has recently been acquired by oil giant BP in their efforts to
2979 diversify their sustainability offerings and accelerate their net-zero goals.

2980
2981 Finite Carbon works to increase the ability of the forest management community to scale-up the
2982 infrastructure needed to quantify, monitor and verify the carbon sequestered in forests in the United
2983 States. As of 2021, the corporation has 50 carbon projects on three million acres in the US and is
2984 working to extend this effort to new geographies. By aggregating forest plots as small as 40 acres
2985 together, the organization will enable small landowners to access the carbon offset market,
2986 reducing barriers including high transaction and reporting costs. Through use of systematically
2987 applied modeling, verification and monitoring, the corporation is working to ensure that the carbon
2988 sequestered through its efforts delivers long-term results.

2989
2990

2991
2992 The NACP can contribute to ensuring that there is funding to support the engagement of scientists
2993 with policy makers, decision makers and others who may use their science. Co-production of
2994 knowledge through identifying user information demands and working with the users from the
2995 start of the scientific process allows scientists to develop results that are both usable and socially
2996 robust, and contributes to users being more engaged and invested in the science. User-driven
2997 science thrives when institutions shift priorities to meet user needs and set reward structures
2998 accordingly. By ensuring that there is funding for improved science communication across
2999 multiple institutions, formats, and objectives, the NACP can ensure that these efforts are prioritized
3000 and valued within its research agenda.

3001
3002 When scientists communicate useful information more effectively to decision makers, science
3003 thrives. Science is increasingly interdisciplinary, which fosters collaboration and innovation.
3004 Being able to communicate the relevance and impact of their ideas and discoveries can enhance

3005 scientists' ability to secure funding or find a job. It allows them to write better and more
3006 comprehensible research papers and to utilize more relevant communication tools. It also allows
3007 them to be better teachers and mentors for next-generation scientists. There needs to be a stronger
3008 emphasis on the information handoff and knowledge continuity during research programs if we
3009 are to ever bridge the gap between science and policy. This takes significant effort and time, which
3010 needs to be included in grants and proposal opportunities provided by funders. The NACP can
3011 inform these agencies on the importance of including science communication in their funding
3012 efforts.

3013

3014 **3.5.2.2 Reducing Barriers to Access for Decision Makers**

3015 The scientific community should prioritize engagement with frameworks and boundary
3016 institutions early in their research process to accelerate and enhance their individual efforts in
3017 working with policy makers. Carbon cycle science will require improved interaction and
3018 information exchange not only within and among different scientific disciplines, but also with
3019 stakeholders and policy makers – people who require up-to-date assessments, improved
3020 approaches for understanding complex and interdependent issues, and ways of quantifying and
3021 dealing with uncertainty (West et al., 2018). There is a need to bridge the differences between the
3022 research results published by scientists and the information needed to make decisions regarding
3023 policy and regulation – to translate research findings into meaningful input for these groups. This
3024 work can be done through boundary organizations that can ensure a sustained and ongoing
3025 dialogue among the different groups to raise awareness of both what science can provide and what
3026 science cannot provide, and of the uncertainties associated with current assessments and
3027 projections of the future (Michalak et al., 2011).

3028

3029 In order to engage decision makers, stakeholder mapping is required for the institutions and
3030 individuals involved in investment, production, consumption, management, and policy making
3031 that substantially impact the carbon cycle. Each stakeholder should be characterized in terms of
3032 their connections to other stakeholders, their direct emissions and emissions decisions, constraints
3033 and incentives surrounding their behavioral decisions, ability to create change in other actors
3034 through regulatory mandates, persuasion, purchasing choices, specific decisions and information
3035 needs for those decisions, the timeline of decisions, and the precision, authoritativeness, and
3036 latency requirements placed on that information. Boundary organizations do this knowledge
3037 mapping and provide sustained engagement with these institutions and decision makers, which
3038 will improve the ability of NACP scientists to make an impact.

3039

3040 For example, investment in energy infrastructure in rapidly growing urban areas should take into
3041 account a wide variety of information which will help policy makers set up the investment and
3042 appropriately size the infrastructure according to the economic, demographic and technology
3043 projections of the area being served. Scientists can contribute to providing information to the
3044 decision making, but instead of attempting to work with each individual organization they may
3045 achieve greater impact and efficiency by working through a boundary organization. An example
3046 of a boundary organization working at the metropolitan scale is the Decision Center for a Desert
3047 City (DCDC), whose mission is to advance knowledge about decision making under uncertainty
3048 in the context of water sustainability and urban climate change adaptation. By working across
3049 multiple institutions at different levels, the DCDC is focused on improving decision making across
3050 the Colorado River Basin and the cities that rely upon its water in a warming and drying climate.

3051 NACP science can be instrumental in understanding how the climate is changing and helping the
3052 cities in the Basin craft appropriate responses to these changes.

3053
3054 An example of an institution that engages with policy in Canada is Ouranos, which is self-
3055 described as an “innovation cluster and consultation forum enabling Quebec society to better adapt
3056 to climate change”. They are effective knowledge translators for key industries on climate change
3057 and carbon emissions reduction. For over 15 years, Ouranos has been providing climate
3058 information to regional and national clients, helping them identify and implement climate change
3059 adaptation strategies and improve regulation and decision making in government. A national-level
3060 boundary organization is the Consortium for Science, Policy and Outcomes (CSPO) that focuses
3061 on translating science for government across multiple disciplines. They do research on policy for
3062 science (how we nurture the health of the research enterprise) and science for policy (how we use
3063 knowledge more effectively to achieve social goals).

3064
3065
3066 **3.5.2.3 Engagement that produces research Outputs that are relevant, credible, and**
3067 **legitimate for Decision Makers**

3068 As part of the idea of co-production of knowledge, scientists have been encouraged to ‘address
3069 decision maker needs for current and future carbon cycle information and provide data and
3070 projections that are relevant, credible, and legitimate for their decisions’ (Goal 6, US Carbon Cycle
3071 Science Plan, 2011). To do this, scientists must be sufficiently aware of the needs of decision
3072 makers and be working in an area that is able to create sufficiently accurate, relevant science
3073 results.

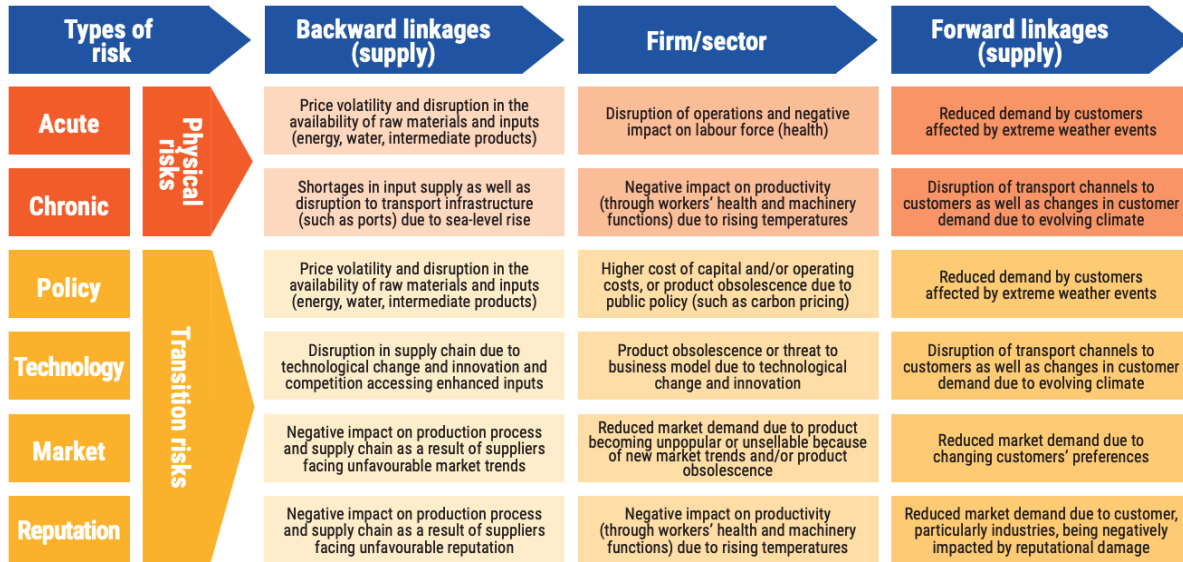
3074
3075 Part of being relevant and responsive to decision maker needs is being able to define who the
3076 decision maker is that the research is addressing. What aspect of the carbon cycle do these decision
3077 makers work on, and which are affected by particular decisions (sinks, sources, stocks, flows)?
3078 What information do the decision makers need, get, and act upon? Clearly identifying the deficits
3079 in the information at each level of decision-making, and the participating actors, is a clear first step
3080 in designing relevant carbon research. Mapping information and capabilities of the NACP
3081 community to the needs of users will allow production of information in formats and timing that
3082 align with standard practices for a variety of decision makers.

3083
3084 Another essential part of this goal is to establish a shared vision of what knowledge is usable in
3085 decision processes. For example, how can data, models and observations provide critical
3086 information about the ‘extreme’ upper tail of climate response and threatened damage due to
3087 carbon emissions, linking improved understanding, observations and models of carbon processes
3088 to the urgency for action. Just writing papers about these extreme responses may be insufficient to
3089 engender a response – we must understand the usability of data, research and information within
3090 decision making processes.

3091
3092 One of the most relevant research outputs is information regarding carbon emissions and offsets
3093 within the supply chain. Most private organizations choose to mitigate emissions indirectly by
3094 investing in offsets within their supply chains, or in partnership with carbon credit markets.
3095 Indirect emissions, supply chain emissions, and offset research and data is therefore a priority-
3096 including specifically data regarding Scope 1 or direct emissions such as from vehicles owned by
3097 the firm or direct consumption of energy while doing business, Scope 2 or indirect emissions such

3098 as from purchased electricity, and Scope 3 emissions, which include other indirect emissions such
 3099 as employee travel, waste disposal, production of purchased materials, use of products and
 3100 purchased services that emit greenhouse gases.

3101
 3102



3103
 3104 **Figure 2.** shows the variety of both physical and transition risks small and medium sized
 3105 businesses face from climate change, which involve both supply chain as well as direct threats to
 3106 business functioning via demand and distribution impacts. from Montmasson-Clair (2019)

3107
 3108 Having clear guidance and description of the data needs of potential users of carbon cycle science
 3109 could allow a standardization of format, resolution, latency and continuity of data for decision
 3110 makers across a variety of organizations. For example, NASA provides low latency datasets by
 3111 creating a parallel processing stream that reduces the time between the satellite observation and
 3112 the issuing of the product to meet decision making requirements. One key difference between low
 3113 latency and standard data products is that low latency geolocation may not be as accurate because
 3114 the standard products use the best knowledge of the spacecraft position and attitude which may
 3115 not be available until after the low latency products are produced (Davies et al., 2017). However,
 3116 if these products cannot be used if they have a longer latency regardless of their accuracy, they
 3117 cannot provide the utmost value to society and to decision makers. A similar parallel approach
 3118 could be taken by NACP scientists so that the format, resolution, latency or necessary continuity
 3119 of data needed for effective use of their science output is understood and planned for. Research
 3120 funding should incentivize the inclusion of user needs assessments in projects.

3121
 3122

3123 **Key priorities:**

- 3124 1. *The NACP can develop a database of effective boundary institutions for different research*
 3125 *themes, datasets, and stakeholders.*
- 3126 2. *Encourage and train researchers to identify potential stakeholders and decision makers*
 3127 *for each model, research output and relevant insight that may emerge from their research.*

3128 3. *NACP should support and engage with researchers over multiple funding cycles to create*
3129 *decision support tools that can ingest, present and connect to decision makers at a variety*
3130 *of scales.*

3131
3132

3133 **3.5.3 Coordination Goals:**

3134 Improved coordination across agencies, institutions and researchers would greatly improve the
3135 impact of NACP research. Coordinating among climate, land-use, global and regional economic
3136 and energy modeling would greatly improve the ability of models to speak to one another and to
3137 enable engagement with stakeholder communities who seek to understand impacts across all these
3138 domains. This effort would require high-level coordination among research organizations that
3139 support modeling in different research fields, as well as by organizations seeking to use the
3140 information. In this section, we focus on how the NACP can encourage and lead efforts to ensure
3141 this coordination happens.

3142

3143 **3.5.3.1 Coordination across modeling institutions**

3144 Modeling of the impact of climate on carbon cycling integrates various biogeochemical and
3145 socioeconomic components of the earth system can be quite complex, a number of quantitative
3146 models have been developed to study earth system-wide climate changes and the effect of various
3147 types of public policies on projections of future climate change. For example, one class of models,
3148 the “integrated assessment of climate change” or simply integrated assessment models (IAMs),
3149 use data from multiple sources and data modeling approaches from multiple disciplines. These
3150 models have as their objective to project alternative future climates with and without various types
3151 of climate change policies in place in order to give policymakers at all levels of government and
3152 industry an idea of the stakes involved in deciding whether or not to implement various policies
3153 (Weyant, 2017). The literature on models is spread across many disciplines, with publications
3154 appearing in a wide range of journals, including those that focus on earth sciences, biological
3155 sciences, environmental engineering, economics, sociology, technological change, and other
3156 related fields.

3157

3158 Coupled life cycle analysis models, which include integrated assessment, economic, biophysical
3159 and land-cover and land-use change data, can be integrated with decision support systems to
3160 improve the effectiveness of policies. Because most data collection, accounting and modeling
3161 efforts are independent of each other, using a systems approach and data assimilation, the NACP
3162 research community could integrate research areas to explore data similarities and differences and
3163 better understand sources of error across modeling frameworks. In addition, by integrating models,
3164 investments made in one sector, for example in land use change data, can be translated directly
3165 into improving carbon and economic models used in decision making. Research efforts on
3166 different methods of observing and modeling carbon sinks and emissions can be enhanced by
3167 better understanding uncertainty in existing inventory estimates and finding ways to make them
3168 more complete.

3169 The NACP can act as a coordinating institution and host meetings, research events, and sessions
3170 that bring together these diverse communities to improve modeling coordination. These efforts can
3171 focus initially on ensuring the output from one model can be used as input to another, but should

3172 eventually extend to coordinating output, decision support tools, funding and engagement with
3173 boundary institutions.

3174 **3.5.3.2 Increasing Institutional Collaboration and linkages across research and decision**
3175 **making**

3176 The governments’ use of data—such as information collected by performance measures,
3177 environmental surveys, and findings from program evaluations and research studies—to drive
3178 decision making can help federal agencies improve program implementation, identify and correct
3179 problems, and make other management decisions. Although agencies struggle to effectively use
3180 this approach, evidence-based policy tools can help them incorporate performance information
3181 into decision making. Providing appropriate information at the right time, which all federal, state
3182 and local agencies concerned with climate change and environmental management contribute to,
3183 should greatly improve collaboration and uptake of research into decision making.

3184
3185 The NACP should continue to deepen collaboration with the Global Carbon Project (GCP), the
3186 Integrated Carbon Observation System (ICOS) and other global research communities to
3187 investigate North America’s contributions to global emissions, the accumulation of GHGs, and the
3188 airborne fraction. By engaging with these organizations who are also supporting boundary
3189 institutions, the NACP members can enhance and accelerate their ability to engage with decision
3190 makers in the local, national and international arenas. Through international collaboration, the
3191 NACP can develop new mechanisms to communicate science findings to a variety of constituents,
3192 improving tools available to communicate results.

3193
3194 For example, in its 2018 work plan, ICOS has defined its target groups for provision of up-to-date
3195 information as the general public, the ICOS scientific community, and decision-makers, funders
3196 and supporters. The plan states that one of its main channels of communication is the website, with
3197 their ‘Instagram and the #ICOScapes campaign’ being promising and to be further invested in.
3198 Similarly, the GCP has focused one of its activities on a ‘Global Carbon Budget’ process, whose
3199 primary audience is the UNFCCC process and the stakeholders invested in it. To this end, it has
3200 developed a conservative, incremental and regular process to issue its annual Budget at the
3201 Conference of Parties (COP) every year. The NACP could contribute to these campaigns and may
3202 consider targeting the development of specific research and models that could be instrumental in
3203 these efforts.

3204
3205 **3.5.3.3 Improve inter-agency coordination for integrated observation and monitoring**
3206 **systems**

3207 The NACP can promote the goals of the Carbon Cycle Interagency Working Group (CCIWG) at
3208 the federal level. The working group coordinates carbon cycle research funded by USGCRP’s
3209 member agencies. CCIWG is responsible for US Carbon Cycle Science Program goals, setting
3210 research priorities, and reviewing the progress of the Federal research programs that contribute to
3211 carbon cycle science. The group promotes interagency cooperation and coordination, helps to
3212 secure funding, and prepare individual and joint agency initiatives and solicitations. Because the
3213 carbon cycle is associated with a wide range of global change research needs, CCIWG works
3214 closely with other USGCRP Interagency Working Groups and engages with U.S. and international
3215 partners.

3216

3217 NASA's Carbon Monitoring System (CMS) project is a good example of how the many federal
3218 agencies could work together to improve decision support and communication of the impact of a
3219 changing climate on North America and its people. The CMS project is forward-looking and
3220 designed to make significant contributions in characterizing, quantifying, understanding, and
3221 predicting the evolution of global carbon sources and sinks through improved monitoring of carbon
3222 stocks and fluxes. The approaches developed have emphasized the exploitation of NASA satellite
3223 remote sensing resources, computational capabilities, airborne science capabilities, scientific
3224 knowledge, and end-to-end system expertise in combination with effective use of commercial off-
3225 the-shelf (COTS) measurement capabilities in order to prototype key data products for Monitoring,
3226 Reporting and Verification (MRV). Significant effort is being devoted to rigorous evaluation of
3227 the carbon monitoring products being produced, as well as to the characterization and
3228 quantification of errors and uncertainties in those products.

3229 Additional activities of the CMS include greenhouse gas emission inventories, forest carbon
3230 sequestration programs (e.g., Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation
3231 (REDD and REDD+), cap-and-trade systems, self-reporting programs, and their associated
3232 monitoring, reporting and verification (MRV) frameworks. These activities depend upon data that
3233 are accurate, systematic, practical, and transparent. A sustained, observationally-driven carbon
3234 monitoring system using remote sensing data has the potential to significantly improve the relevant
3235 carbon cycle information base for the U.S. and world. Work is needed to prototype and mature
3236 relevant measurement and analytical approaches for use in support of MRV frameworks.

3237 The needs of management and policy domains at national, regional and municipal levels require
3238 spatial scales and timescales that are often not available. The most relevant time scales for
3239 decisions are 5-10 years. These space-time constraints don't often match with earth system and
3240 integrated assessment models so some level of downscaling should be involved to enhance utility
3241 of model projections. Information which is poorly matched in time or in resolution won't be used
3242 and will leave decisions to be made without support.

3243 NASA's Carbon Monitoring System (CMS) project is prototyping and conducting pilot studies to
3244 evaluate technological approaches and methodologies to meet this need. The NASA CMS project
3245 is a funded grant program which focuses on developing global models and policy-relevant
3246 prototype data products that incorporate remote sensing data products that can be shown to help
3247 decision makers. In contrast, NACP is a multi-disciplinary science program that incorporates a
3248 much broader set of issues, models, observations and scientists, but is primarily focused on
3249 Canada, the United States and Mexico. The NACP can explicitly address anthropogenic emissions,
3250 policy relevance, carbon cycle models and observations across a very broad set of disciplines.
3251 Because the NASA CMS is a funding program, it cannot engage with international scientists and
3252 with scientists who were not successful in obtaining funding. The two programs have similar goals
3253 with different constraints and scope.

3254 Key Priorities for Coordination:

- 3255 1. *Set up systems to ensure improved coordination and interoperability among models and*
3256 *disciplines to generate appropriate information for decision makers.*
3257 2. *Provide strategic and visionary guidance for multiple agencies and institutions seeking to*
3258 *inform policy through improved coordination and engagement.*

- 3259 3. *Form linkages and clear pathways for engagement across institutions and scales for*
3260 *improved carbon monitoring and decision making.*

3263 **3.5.4 Decision Support and Monitoring Systems for Carbon Management**

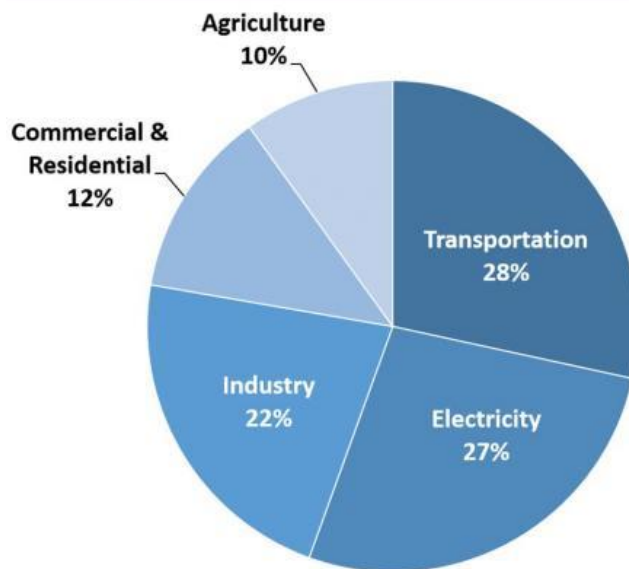
3264 The NACP has been focused on developing appropriate scientific foundations for effective
3265 communication and support for decision making. The next step in effective support for carbon
3266 monitoring is setting up a center where information, data, models and expertise can be available
3267 to support government actions on carbon management and policy development. This section
3268 provides a brief outline of how the NACP could contribute to the development of such a system to
3269 support effective policies and leadership on climate mitigation and adaptation.

3270
3271 Here, we define *carbon monitoring* as being focused on sustained measurement or assessment of
3272 all carbon dynamics that are needed to estimate total carbon exchange between the biosphere and
3273 atmosphere (West et al., 2013). The West et al paper also defines *carbon management* as an effort
3274 to manage human activities that alters baseline carbon stocks and fluxes, including fossil fuel
3275 production and combustion, land cover change, agriculture or geoengineering of the carbon cycle.
3276 To determine the effectiveness of policies, incentives and regulation on emissions, *carbon*
3277 *accounting* includes efforts to reconcile carbon stocks and fluxes across space and time to create
3278 seamless estimates that can be used to address the needs of decision makers.

3280 **3.5.4.1 Information and monitoring for carbon management**

3281 A decision support system (DSS) is a set of data and models that support decision making across
3282 a variety of scales. DSSs serve the management, operational and planning levels of organizations
3283 and help people to make decisions about problems that are rapidly changing or that are not easily
3284 specified in advance. Because the production of greenhouse gases in the United States is a multi-
3285 sector problem (Figure X) that includes large scale sources that can be easily identified (such as
3286 electricity generation) along with millions of small sources such as residential heating or car
3287 emissions that need to be managed using policy or economic mechanisms, a DSS is needed to
3288 allow for rapid analysis of impact of policies to ensure that they are effective. The United States
3289 does not have decades to determine which set of punitive regulations, financial incentives and
3290 policies actually reduce emissions overall. Since ‘my carbon is your carbon’, there is significant
3291 danger that some policies may actually increase overall carbon emissions through unintended
3292 impacts.

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



3294
 3295 **Figure X.** Total Emissions in 2018 = 6,677 Million Metric Tons of CO₂equivalent. Percentages may not add up to
 3296 100% due to independent rounding. Land use, land-use change, and forestry in the United States is a net sink and
 3297 offsets approximately 12 percent of these greenhouse gas emissions, this emissions offset is not included in total
 3298 above. All emission estimates from the *Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990–2018*.
 3299

3300 Monitoring carbon emissions includes both top down and bottom-up analysis and modelling, and
 3301 a significant advancement in our ability to attribute carbon emissions to specific sources and
 3302 sectors. For example, if an incentive was set up for Americans to switch from a petroleum car to
 3303 an electric car, total emissions of these vehicles must include the mining of raw materials,
 3304 manufacturing and maintenance of the batteries that they run on, as well as the entire electrical
 3305 generation system needed to charge them throughout their life cycle. Electric vehicles will only
 3306 reduce overall emissions from the transportation sector if they are combined with recycling
 3307 systems to reuse and reduce emissions in the mining sector, and massive reductions in the carbon
 3308 intensity of the electricity generation sector will be needed. Without this end-to-end approach,
 3309 appropriate policies cannot be developed that actually will reduce emissions substantially. This
 3310 kind of science is typically beyond what the NACP works on, but will be essential for development
 3311 of appropriate and effective policies.
 3312

3313 **3.5.4.2 Engaging across temporal and spatial scales for Decision-Appropriate Carbon** 3314 **Accounting**

3315 A significant issue that is often encountered in carbon modeling is developing modeling systems
 3316 that can be used directly in carbon accounting. Since carbon accounting requires reconciling
 3317 carbon stocks and fluxes across space and time, they require that top-down models are connected
 3318 to bottom-up estimates. *Top-down estimation methods* are generated by estimating the total net
 3319 exchange of CO₂ between the biosphere and atmosphere. While attribution is difficult with these
 3320 approaches, they can verify and constrain bottom-up estimations and are often combined with
 3321 atmospheric transport and inversion models. *Bottom-up estimates* are generated by summing all
 3322 known carbon sinks and sources from all relevant carbon-containing and carbon-emitting entities.

3323 These may include inventories, ecosystem process models or site-specific measurements from
3324 instrumented towers, remote sensing observations, or industrial activities. Bottom-up methods are
3325 often used directly in attribution, such as the emissions produced by electricity generation.
3326

3327 Decision support will require a significant modeling effort by the NACP community to not only
3328 reconcile these different models but increase their interoperability to allow their use in decision
3329 support. Carbon accounting methods change based on stakeholder interests. For example,
3330 terrestrial fluxes that are compared with atmospheric fluxes differ from life cycle analyses of
3331 terrestrial carbon stock changes (West et al., 2013). The initial measurements and estimates are the
3332 same, but the accounting and use of the information are different. By setting up a system that
3333 allows for interactive and transparent use of not only the carbon measurements, but also the
3334 modeling framework to enable immediate analysis of current conditions.
3335

3336 An additional aspect of decision-appropriate carbon accounting is a facility to estimate the likely
3337 impact of investments in infrastructure, imposition of a regulation or of a financial incentive.
3338 *Policy analysis* is a technique used in public administration to enable civil servants, activists, and
3339 others to examine and evaluate the available options to realize carbon emission reductions. Given
3340 the complexity of the climate change problem, any effective policy will require a suite of policy
3341 analysis tools, which must begin with flexible and far-reaching carbon accounting.
3342

3343 **3.5.4.3 Communicating uncertainty in information and monitoring systems**

3344 Uncertainty quantification is a critical aspect to carbon cycle science and analysis. There are
3345 uncertainties across every aspect of carbon accounting, from the initial carbon emission
3346 observations through to the process models and downscaling of total greenhouse gases in the
3347 atmosphere. Understanding which uncertainties are the largest and most important to the overall
3348 system will help guide decisions about where to best direct resources to reduce them. This will
3349 require further analytical and comparative work, outlined in the other chapters of this plan.
3350

3351 Communicating the level of confidence to decision makers, as is described in section 4.5.1.2 of
3352 this chapter, will be essential. Carbon management is in its infancy, as are the policy analysis tools
3353 needed to support it. Investment and long term support of both the science and the communication
3354 across the broad set of economic, political and social/cultural sectors is essential for success. These
3355 need to focus not only on the impact of policies, but also the profoundly uncertain outcome of
3356 climate change itself. Models are not predictive of the future, particularly when technology and
3357 economic activities are involved.
3358

3359 **3.5.4.4 Managing risk to governments, institutions and individuals**

3360 Risks from climate change to society, government, institutions and individuals is profound
3361 Numerous studies have concluded that climate change poses risks to many environmental and
3362 economic systems. Modeling of climate change risks suggests that the coming century is likely to
3363 be characterized by challenges to food and water security (Brown et al., 2015), coastal zones
3364 (Vitousek et al., 2017), infrastructure (Dawson et al., 2018), industry (Bui and De Villiers, 2017),
3365 urban areas (*Guid. to Clim. Chang. Adapt. Cities*, 2011), biodiversity (Bhuiyan et al., 2018) and
3366 human health (McMichael et al., 2006). Climate change acts as a threat multiplier, exacerbating
3367 current problems of poverty, agriculture and governance (Rosenzweig et al., 2017).
3368

3369 These threats cut across sectors and are particularly acute for infrastructure and the ability of
3370 governments to manage them. There are strong connections between *climate risk management*,
3371 disaster *risk management*, and sustainable development which will either enhance or degrade our
3372 ability to reduce carbon emissions (Hausfather and Peters, 2020). Some policies will require
3373 increased emissions in the short term, such as renewing road transportation infrastructure or
3374 increasing investment in mass transportation systems such as rail or buses. How these investments
3375 increase or reduce emissions in the long term requires research and investment. These decisions
3376 will have significant impacts on economic growth and the well-being of the US economy. For
3377 example, according to the November 2018 National Climate Assessment report, the continued
3378 increase in the frequency and extent of high-tide flooding due to sea level rise threatens America's
3379 trillion-dollar coastal property market and public infrastructure, with cascading impacts to the
3380 larger economy (Hayhoe et al., 2018). Having appropriate information on the risks, how to manage
3381 them, and whether policies are effective is the first step to appropriate management.
3382

3383 A decision support system for climate action is urgently needed and should be supported and
3384 managed at the Federal level. Federal leadership of the DSS could help ensure open access and
3385 less bias for maximum benefit; although it could also impose less flexibility in the system for
3386 meeting the needs of diverse users, particularly those at the municipal, state, federal levels. NACP
3387 coordination and subsequent research needs to accelerate decision making and support in the
3388 coming decade.
3389

3390

3391 **3.6 Conclusions and Path Forward**

3392 We may see a more complex and interconnected landscape of carbon policy and management
3393 emerge in the next 10-20 years - in particular, we're likely to see the emergence of negative
3394 emissions technology or carbon capture and sequestration at large scales, in parallel with more
3395 aggressive mitigation and adaptation efforts. This may translate to greater demands on attribution
3396 and predictive skill than currently envisioned by NACP where most of our current decision-support
3397 projects tend to be more narrowly focused on a given sector or region.
3398

3399 There will be a greater demand for integrating carbon decision-support frameworks with related
3400 management topics, particularly water security, food production and biodiversity. These
3401 frameworks need to be connected to improved ways of communicating scientific results via
3402 innovative and transformative partnerships and strategies to improve the understanding and impact
3403 of the research. For example, Hausfather and Peters (2020) makes a good case that it really matters
3404 how model projections are presented, and that they can influence public perceptions and policy.
3405 These developments will require developments of carbon cycle science, as well as improved
3406 methods of engaging with decision makers through boundary organizations and the co-
3407 development and application of knowledge.
3408

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

Chapter 4. Partnerships and Collaborations: Institutional and International

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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.

Research Networks

3536 Collaborative, multi-institutional research networks provide essential platforms for sustained long-
3537 term observations, high-impact cross-site comparative analyses and synthesis, methodological
3538 innovations, and manipulative experiments that uncover key mechanisms. Beyond the well-known
3539 federal agency programs, such as the NOAA Global Greenhouse Gas Reference Network, the
3540 USGS water quality and stream gauge network, and the USDA forest inventory and analysis
3541 program, multi-institutional research networks involve diverse partnerships and investments.
3542 Many of these collaborative communities are spawned by large federal investments, but then grow
3543 from initial investments into long-term, sustained networks. Examples include LTER, AmeriFlux,
3544 ABoVE, and MsTMIP. Synthesis activities help to maintain and renew these communities and
3545 significantly expand their impact, often with limited cost.

3546

3547 **Science Communities of Practice**

3548 NACP functions as a *community of practice* (Brown et al., 2016). A community of practice is
3549 defined as “a group of people who share a common set of problems, or a passion about a topic,
3550 and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis”.
3551 Individuals and institutions within the NACP network have become more interconnected over time
3552 through continued participation in shared practices, with NACP serving as a platform for
3553 researchers representing different institutions to engage in cross-organizational collaboration. The
3554 NACP community of practice continues to grow by extending to a wider range of relevant
3555 disciplinary topics, most notably incorporating more human dimensions into its research profile.

3556

3557 Continued investments in community building and shared activities are needed to sustain a vibrant
3558 NACP community of practice and to buffer the challenges of cross-institutional, transdisciplinary,
3559 and potentially transnational collaboration. The roles of the NACP Coordinator, the NACP Science
3560 Leadership Group, and the commitment to holding Open Science Meetings all help to maintain
3561 and expand the NACP Community. Also, reporting activities, such as the State of the Carbon
3562 Cycle Report and the National Climate Assessment, generate continued interest in and
3563 commitment to our multi-institutional community. More work could be done, with the assistance
3564 US Carbon Cycle Science Program and others, to enhance connections between NACP and
3565 communities with similar or overlapping research interests, such as the US Ocean Biology and
3566 Biogeochemistry Program (OCB), the Global Carbon Project, (GCP), and others. Bridging to
3567 adjacent programs such as these will add value to all by enhancing programmatic coordination,
3568 realizing strategic synergies, exchanging ideas, elevating impact, and facilitating new initiatives
3569 that cut across scales and boundaries.

3570

3571 *Tri-federal collaborations across the US, Canada, and Mexico*

3572 Participation in NACP has been largely from individuals at US institutions, although research has
3573 not been limited to carbon cycling within US borders. This is a historical artefact, as a result of
3574 NACP having been established by US Federal agencies participating in the US Carbon Cycle
3575 Science Program. Soon after NACP was founded, program managers from Federal agencies in the
3576 US, Canada, and México set up CarboNA, whose goal was to establish greater cohesion across
3577 North America in the fields of carbon pool and greenhouse gas flux dynamics and of carbon related
3578 mitigation strategies, through the identification of continental-scale priority issues and promotion
3579 of collaborative research in areas of common interest and complementary expertise. CarboNA
3580 originally had a Government Coordination Working Group and a Science Steering Committee, but
3581 political, funding, and logistical difficulties and changes have meant that this group has become

3582 essentially defunct. Despite the fact that there are likely still many impediments to coordination at
3583 the governmental level, there is an opportunity for NACP to become broader in its community
3584 composition by making and strengthening connections with Canadian and Mexican colleagues
3585 involved in carbon cycle research. The NACP Coordinator and SLG should look for ways to
3586 expand engagement with those at Canadian and Mexican institutions, finding meaningful ways to
3587 build a trans-national community that supports the needs and interests of carbon cycle science
3588 researchers throughout North America.

3589

3590 **Global Partnerships**

3591 US agencies contribute to global efforts through programs such as the Committee on Earth
3592 Observation Satellites, the Group on Earth Observations, the Global Ocean Observing System, and
3593 the World Meteorological Organization’s Global Atmosphere Watch. Continued and expanded
3594 cooperation with international partners is needed. For example, North American efforts would
3595 benefit from coordination with similar international efforts such as the Integrated Carbon
3596 Observing System in Europe and other regional efforts such as the International Long Term
3597 Ecological Network present in Canada, Mexico and the USA. International collaborations
3598 improve efforts for validation and characterization of remote sensing datasets needed to ensure
3599 consistency of products across platforms and over time. International cooperation is also needed
3600 on in situ surface and aircraft measurement networks that complement and anchor remote sensing
3601 data, including the use of best practices and common standards and data formats. These efforts
3602 will ensure comparability and will narrow interoperability barriers (i.e., conceptual, technological,
3603 organizational, cultural) among regional networks (Vargas et al. 2017).

3604

3605 With support and guidance from the NACP Office and the U.S. Carbon Cycle Science Program
3606 Office, the NACP would benefit from expanding and further fostering its liaison, coordination and
3607 collaboration activities with key regional and international groups, including (but not limited to)
3608 the Global Research Projects of Future Earth (e.g., the Global Carbon Project GCP), the
3609 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), the Intergovernmental Science-Policy
3610 Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES), the World Climate Research Program
3611 (WCRP), the Integrated Carbon Observing System (ICOS), the Integrated Global Greenhouse Gas
3612 Information System (IG3IS), and FLUXNET/AmeriFlux/MexFlux, Coastal Carbon Research
3613 Coordination Network (CCRCN) and the Permafrost Carbon Network.

3614

3615 **Private sector and stakeholders**

3616 In support of the NACP vision and DEI needs, the NACP would likely benefit from exploring
3617 partnerships with stakeholders and private entities with whom the NACP has traditionally not
3618 interacted in the past. These relationships would expand the accessibility, useability, exchange,
3619 use and visibility of the science, tools and products among all involved collaborators while also
3620 creating opportunities for developing innovative products to advance common goals and meet
3621 stakeholder needs.

3622

3623 For instance, the National Indian Carbon Coalition (NICC) is one organization explicitly dedicated
3624 to engaging Native American communities in carbon management. NICC is a greenhouse gas
3625 (GHG) management service established to encourage Native American community participation
3626 in carbon cycle programs with the goal of furthering both land stewardship and economic
3627 development on Native American lands. NICC was created as a partnership between the Indian

3628 Land Tenure Foundation and the Intertribal Agriculture Council to assist tribes in developing
3629 carbon credit programs. NICC-sponsored programs represent focused efforts on carbon
3630 sequestration; GHG emission reductions; and the promotion of soil health, ecological diversity,
3631 and water and air quality in the context of traditional values and economic development (McCarthy
3632 et al. 2018).

3633
3634 While the pace of the private sector’s adoption of carbon reduction and removal strategies has
3635 accelerated in the past, the rate of integration of existing and rapidly developing new science into
3636 such strategies has lagged. In the next few years, the NACP may wish to catalyze expanded
3637 collaborative activities with the private sector, through targeted use-inspired science and joint
3638 interaction platforms, iterative discussions and joint product development opportunities to help
3639 meet these needs and bring the best available information to this important set of decision makers
3640 and stakeholders.

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Chapter 5. Data and Information Management

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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 products. These data are managed at various long-term data facilities and repositories across different

3702 agencies, including the NASA Earth Observing System Data and Information System (EOSDIS),
3703 DOE’s Environmental Systems Science Data Infrastructure for a Virtual Ecosystem (ESS-DIVE),
3704 USFS FIA, USDA NASS, and NSF NEON and LTER Networks, and BCO-DMO. The Oak Ridge
3705 National Laboratory Distributed Active Archive Center (ORNL DAAC), a member of NASA
3706 EOSDIS, serves as a major long-term data archive for data products from NASA’s TE program
3707 and carbon cycle & ecosystem focus area, including data from projects such as ACT-America,
3708 ABoVE, and CMS. ESS-DIVE serves as the major data repository for DOE’s Environmental
3709 System Science and the new home for data products of the long-standing CDIAC.

3710
3711 Those data resources provide a foundation to tackle NACP science questions and have potential
3712 for reliable state-of-the-science decision support services to policymakers and diverse
3713 stakeholders. However, the very large volume of data and the distribution of this data across
3714 multiple data repositories pose challenges on NACP research and development activities and also
3715 the use of NACP data and results in downstream applications.

3716

3717 **5.2 Data Needs and Challenges**

3718 Research and development priorities identified in the major NACP elements pose emerging needs
3719 and challenges on data and information management. This NACP Science Implementation Plan
3720 called out the research needs for 1) sustained and expanded observations, 2) a comprehensive
3721 Carbon Monitoring System that integrates observations and analysis systems across scales, sectors,
3722 and agencies to transform current capabilities into a coherent and coordinated system that reports
3723 the current state of the carbon cycle and provides timely detection and attribution of its patterns
3724 and trends, and 3) a Carbon Decision Support System to answer pressing new questions and needs
3725 arising from diverse stakeholders leveraging the data and findings from NACP research activities.
3726 Through a parallel comparison with numerical weather prediction systems, Ciais et al. (2014)
3727 described the current hurdles and the importance of improved data management, infrastructure,
3728 and services for a future policy-relevant operational carbon observing system. Similarly, for
3729 NACP, a pressingly needed backbone to support these research priorities is a data and information
3730 management system that promotes Findable, Accessible, Interoperable, and Reusable (FAIR) data
3731 (Wilkinson et al., 2016), seamlessly integrates data across scales, domains, systems, agencies and
3732 enables easy and timely data sharing, discovery, visualization, access, and analysis. The key data
3733 needs and data system elements are described below.

3734

3735 **5.2.1 Permanent data archival**

3736 Scientists need sustained options for permanent data archival. Most agencies now require a data
3737 management plan addressing the permanent, public, archival of data collected on all funded grants.
3738 Some agencies also have dedicated repositories for long-term data preservation. In addition, nearly
3739 all journals require electronic release of data simultaneously with paper publication. We applaud
3740 such policies to promote the reuse of data and the reproducibility of results. However, while
3741 agencies and journals require archival, many do not offer such services. and even if they do,
3742 archival of data from continuous efforts co-funded by multiple agencies can still cause complexity.
3743 For example, a data center funded by one agency generally cannot archive data collected under a
3744 grant from another agency without special arrangements, even if the data clearly fall under the data
3745 center’s mission and the data center has very related data from other aspects of that same
3746 investigator’s work. These issues force investigators to ‘shop around’ for a data center to accept
3747 their data, cause similar data to be archived with differing practices and levels of curation, and

3748 make it more difficult for data users to find and use related NACP data. A coordinated strategy
3749 and effort within and across agencies participating in the NACP are needed to address this
3750 community need.

3751

3752 **5.2.2 Data interoperability**

3753 Data interoperability addresses “the ability of systems and services that create, exchange and
3754 consume data to have clear, shared expectations for the contents, context and meaning of that data”
3755 (<https://datainteroperability.org/>). With the continuously increasing diversity and amount of data
3756 used for and produced by NACP, making data interoperable on both structural and semantic
3757 aspects is crucial for effective data integration and use. Common standards for data format,
3758 metadata, and vocabulary are needed for data interoperability. Some standards exist, such as the
3759 Climate and Forecast (CF) and the Assistance for Land-surface Modelling Activities (ALMA)
3760 conventions, but these focus on modeling and lack terminology for many disciplines. Many groups
3761 are working on standards, but if every data center has a different standard, the time required to
3762 organize Big Data remains unchanged. We should coordinate the enhancement, development, and
3763 adoption of standards across data centers.

3764

3765 **5.2.3 Data discovery and access**

3766 Different agencies have invested a fair amount of efforts in improving the discovery of and access
3767 to their data. For example, since its establishment in early 1990s, NASA’s EOSDIS has been long
3768 dedicated in managing and enabling discovery and access to diverse NASA Earth science data
3769 (Behnke et al., 2019). DOE’s ESS-DIVE was launched in 2017 to store and publicly distribute
3770 data from observational, experimental, and modeling research funded by the DOE’s Office of
3771 Science under its Subsurface Biogeochemical Research (SBR) and Terrestrial Ecosystem Science
3772 (TES) programs within the ESS activity. But NACP researchers do not have a central gateway to
3773 share data and results across teams and agencies and for the general public to find and access
3774 NACP results and findings of interest. The exponentially growing volume of data and the
3775 advancing computing technologies offer new opportunities for data-intensive approaches,
3776 including advanced data assimilation, machine learning (ML), and cloud-based analysis. But at the
3777 same time, it requires that data are not only easily accessible, but also accessible in interoperable,
3778 ready-to-use forms, for example, being analysis-ready, ML-ready, and cloud-ready. Agencies like
3779 USGS, NASA, and NOAA have started new initiatives to satisfy the data and information needs
3780 of modern research, for example the Committee on Earth Observation Satellites (CEOS) Analysis
3781 Ready Data for Land (CARD4L) and NASA EOSDIS’s cloud migration efforts. Cross-agency
3782 coordination is needed to leverage those existing data and information initiatives to address the
3783 data discovery and access needs of NACP.

3784

3785 **5.2.4 Data tools for non-expert users**

3786 NACP data products are valuable for the broad user community, including non-expert users and
3787 decision makers, not just NACP-funded researchers. Successful understanding and use of those
3788 data by local, state, and national decision makers and the general public is important to maximize
3789 the value of NACP research findings and increase the recognition of the importance of NACP
3790 activities. For example, data products produced by NASA’s CMS projects provide emissions,
3791 biomass, carbon flux products (Gurney et al., 2020) across scales and sectors in support of local-
3792 and regional-scale carbon MRV. But due to the complexity of these data products, they are not
3793 readily understandable and usable by non-expert users, even if the data are easily findable and

3794 accessible. There is a need for easy-to-use Web-based data tools, particularly ones that interoperate
3795 with commonly used geospatial information system (GIS) tools, to summarize complex data
3796 products, visualize information in intuitive ways, and communicate NACP findings to decision
3797 makers and the general public.

3798

3799 **5.2.5 Data and information quality**

3800 Data quality information, such as associated uncertainty and provenance, is important to determine
3801 the fitness-to-use of individual datasets and for the traceability and reproducibility of scientific
3802 findings. It is an essential part of the ecosystem that supports open and actionable science. With
3803 the anticipated developmental progression to expand the NACP to advance predictive capability
3804 and to support decision makers, there is an increasing need for standards, guidelines, and best
3805 practices to improve the representation, interoperability, accessibility, and usability of data quality
3806 information. Earth Science Information Partners (ESIP), a community formed with 120 partner
3807 organizations including many agencies participating in the NACP, established the Information
3808 Quality Cluster (IQC) to develop and publish a baseline of standards and best practices for data
3809 quality for adoption by inter-agency and international data providers. ESIP IQC defined the four
3810 dimensions of data quality: scientific, product, stewardship and service (Ramapriyan et al., 2017),
3811 devoted efforts to provide consistent understanding of the various perspectives of Earth science
3812 data uncertainty (Moroni et al., 2019), and initiated the action for global access to and
3813 harmonization of quality information of individual Earth science datasets (Peng et al., 2020).
3814 Through the coordination of USGCRP, the National Climate Assessment (NCA) established an
3815 information system to capture provenance that provided scientific support for the findings of the
3816 assessment (Tilmes et al., 2013). Such capability is of importance to the NACP findings as well.
3817 Existing communities such as the ESIP IQC can provide platforms for cross-agency discussion
3818 and collaboration to address the data quality needs to improve the efficiency, trustworth, and value
3819 of NACP research and products.

3820

3821 **5.2.6 Data management practices and dedicated support**

3822 The NACP community still needs improved data management practices and personnel with
3823 relevant skills to build a healthier open data ecosystem to promote research and applications.
3824 Funding agencies need to ensure that research projects have an appropriate level of resources
3825 dedicated to data management. Resources committed to long-term archival, development of data
3826 tools and services, and integration across data systems are needed to maximize the research and
3827 societal value of NACP data products. Improved data management practices and skilled personnel
3828 are important to ensure smooth interaction between research teams and data systems and to form
3829 a seamless data lifecycle to promote science and applications.

3830

3831 **5.3 Data and Information Management Priorities**

3832 To address the emerging data needs and challenges to advance the observation, synthesis,
3833 modeling, and decision support activities outlined in this NACP Science Implementation Plan, an
3834 effort dedicated in coordinating the next generation data management and synthesis activities
3835 across NACP would be critical. Instead of setting up a central long-term data repository for NACP,
3836 this effort will coordinate among agencies to support data management across NACP by providing
3837 dedicated personnel and establishing channels for cross-agency NACP data experts to tackle data
3838 challenges and identify concrete solutions in a collaborative manner. This work includes reviewing
3839 the NACP Data Policy and providing options for high-quality, permanent, data publishing

3840 regardless of funding source. This effort will also lead the development of necessary infrastructure,
3841 based on emerging information technologies (e.g., cloud computing), required for integration
3842 across data systems by leveraging community standards (such as science on Schema.org) and
3843 lessons learned from prior NACP management projects (e.g. MAST-DC) and related Earth science
3844 efforts (e.g. DataONE; Michener et al., 2012). This work is crucial to enabling effective data
3845 discovery and seamless data access mechanisms across agencies. It will also serve as the interface
3846 to collaborate with existing data and information communities beyond NACP, such as Open
3847 Geospatial Consortium (OGC) and ESIP, to advance the development of standards, guidelines,
3848 and practices to promote data quality, interoperability, and sharing needed by NACP.
3849

3850 With the rapid growth of NACP data and research, needs and challenges for data are also rapidly
3851 evolving. It is important to have a dedicated effort to consistently coordinate activities, such as
3852 data management workshops, among domain scientists, data researchers, and other users across
3853 NACP to ensure new data needs and challenges are captured in a timely manner, adjust and
3854 improve the strategies and approaches to address the emerging needs, and also provide necessary
3855 and timely training on data management practices to the NACP community.
3856

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