

1           **Chapter 1. What is the Carbon Cycle and Why Do We Care?**  
2           ***An Introduction to the Purpose, Scope, and Structure of the State of***  
3           ***the Carbon Cycle Report (SOCCR)***

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13           **WHY A REPORT ON THE CARBON CYCLE?**

14           The concept of a *carbon budget* or *carbon cycle* is unfamiliar to many decision makers and other  
15 citizens. We are familiar with a *water cycle*, where precipitation falls on the earth to supply water bodies  
16 and evaporation returns water vapor to the earth's clouds, which then renew the cycle through  
17 precipitation. Similarly, carbon—a fundamental requirement for life on earth—cycles through exchanges  
18 between (a) carbon-based life on and near the earth's surface, (b) carbon in the earth's atmosphere, and  
19 (c) water in the ocean. Stated in oversimplified terms, plants consume carbon dioxide from the  
20 atmosphere through photosynthesis and create sugars and other carbohydrates, which animals and humans  
21 use for food and shelter to sustain life. Emissions from plants, other natural systems, and human activities  
22 return carbon to the atmosphere, which renews the cycle (Fig. 1-1).

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24           **Figure 1-1. The global carbon cycle.** Reservoirs (in black) are gigatons [1 Gt = one billion ( $1 \times 10^9$ )  
25 metric tons] of carbon, and exchanges between reservoirs (in purple) are Gt carbon per year. *Illustration*  
26 *courtesy NASA Earth Science Enterprise.*

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28           All of the components of this cycle—the atmosphere, the terrestrial vegetation, soils, freshwater lakes  
29 and rivers, the ocean, and geological sediments—are reservoirs of carbon. As carbon cycles through the  
30 system, it is exchanged between reservoirs, transferred from one to the next. The carbon *budget* is an  
31 accounting of the balance of exchanges of carbon among the reservoirs: how much carbon is stored in a  
32 reservoir at a particular time, how much is coming in from other reservoirs, and how much is going out.  
33 When the inputs to a reservoir (the sources) exceed the outputs (the sinks), the amount of carbon in the  
34 reservoir increases. The myriad physical, chemical, and biological processes that transfer carbon among

1 reservoirs, and transform carbon among its various molecular forms during that transfer, are responsible  
2 for the cycling of carbon through reservoirs. That cycling determines the balance of the carbon budget  
3 observed at any particular time. Examining the carbon budget not only reveals whether the budget is in  
4 balance or imbalance, but also provides insight into causes of any imbalance and steps that might be taken  
5 to manage that imbalance. Currently, the global carbon budget is in imbalance; and human use of coal,  
6 petroleum, and natural gas to fuel economies is responsible.

7 If vast quantities of water had been trapped underground for millennia and then, in recent centuries,  
8 released to trigger unprecedented rates of evaporation—and thus significant changes in cloud formation  
9 and precipitation patterns—there might be concerns about possible imbalances in the water cycle.

10 Although this has not happened for water, it has happened for carbon. Over the millennia, vast quantities  
11 of carbon were stored in residues from dead plant and animal life that sank into the earth and became  
12 fossilized. With the expansion of the Industrial Revolution in the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries, human societies  
13 found that these fossils had great value as energy sources for economic growth; and the 20<sup>th</sup> century saw a  
14 dramatic rise in the combustion of these “fossil fuels” (e.g., coal, petroleum, and natural gas), releasing  
15 into the atmosphere over *decades* quantities of carbon that had been stored in the earth system over  
16 *millenia*. During this same time, forests that had once absorbed very large quantities of carbon dioxide  
17 each year shrank in their extent.

18 It is not surprising, then, that measurements of carbon dioxide and other carbon compounds in the  
19 earth’s atmosphere, such as methane, have shown steady increases in concentrations. This fact, together  
20 with patterns of human activity that continue trends in fossil fuel use and deforestation, raises concerns  
21 about imbalances in the carbon cycle and their implications.

## 22

### 23 **The Carbon Cycle and Climate Change**

24 Most of the carbon in the earth’s atmosphere is in the form of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and methane  
25 (CH<sub>4</sub>). Both carbon dioxide and methane are important “greenhouse gases.” Along with water vapor, and  
26 other “radiatively active” gases in the atmosphere, they absorb heat radiated from the earth’s surface, heat  
27 that would otherwise be lost into space. As a result, these gases help warm the earth’s atmosphere. Rising  
28 concentrations of atmospheric carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases can alter the earth’s radiant  
29 energy balance. The earth’s energy budget determines the global circulation of heat and water through the  
30 atmosphere and the patterns of temperature and precipitation we experience as weather and climate. Thus,  
31 the human disturbance of the earth’s global carbon cycle during the Industrial era and the resulting  
32 imbalance in the earth’s carbon budget and buildup of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere have  
33 consequences for climate and climate change. According to the Strategic Plan of the U.S. Climate Change  
34 Science Program, carbon dioxide is the largest single forcing agent of climate change (CCSP, 2003).

1 In addition to the relationship between climate change and atmospheric carbon dioxide as a  
2 greenhouse gas, research is beginning to reveal the feedbacks between a changing carbon cycle and  
3 changing climate and what that implies for future climate change. Simulations with climate models that  
4 include an interactive global carbon cycle indicate a positive feedback between climate change and  
5 atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations. The research is in its early stages, and the magnitude of the  
6 feedback varies considerably among models; but in all cases, future atmospheric carbon dioxide  
7 concentrations are higher and temperature increases are larger in the coupled climate-carbon cycle  
8 simulations than in simulations without the coupling and feedback between climate change and changes  
9 in the carbon cycle (Friedlingstein *et al.*, 2006).

10 Invariably, any options or actions to prevent, minimize, or forestall future climate change will require  
11 management of the carbon cycle and concentrations of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. That  
12 management involves both reducing sources of atmospheric carbon dioxide such as the combustion of  
13 fossil fuels and enhancing sinks such as uptake and storage or sequestration in vegetation and soils. In  
14 either case, the formulation of options by decision makers and successful management of the earth's  
15 carbon budget requires solid scientific understanding of the carbon cycle and the "ability to account for all  
16 carbon stocks, fluxes, and changes and to distinguish the effects of human actions from those of natural  
17 system variability" (CCSP, 2003). In short, because people care about the potential consequences of  
18 global climate change, they also necessarily care about the carbon cycle and the atmospheric imbalance in  
19 the carbon budget.

## 21 **Other Implications of an Imbalance in the Carbon Budget**

22 We do not yet have a full understanding of the consequences of this imbalance, but we do know that  
23 they extend beyond climate change alone. Experimental studies, for example, tell us that, for many plant  
24 species, rates of photosynthesis often increase in response to elevated concentrations of carbon dioxide,  
25 thus potentially increasing plant growth and even agricultural crop yields in the future. There is, however,  
26 considerable uncertainty about whether such "CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization" will continue into the future with  
27 prolonged exposure to elevated carbon dioxide; and, of course, its potential beneficial effects on plants  
28 presume climatic conditions that are also favorable to plant and crop growth.

29 It is also increasingly evident that atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations are responsible for  
30 increased acidification of the surface ocean, with potentially dire future consequences for corals and other  
31 marine organisms that build their skeletons and shells from calcium carbonate. Ocean acidification is a  
32 powerful reason, in addition to climate change, to care about the carbon cycle and the accumulation of  
33 carbon dioxide in the atmosphere.

1 It is clear that we need to appreciate the importance of the earth's carbon cycle, its implications for  
2 our well-being in North America, and the challenge of clarifying what we know vs what we do not know  
3 about the carbon cycle. The reason is that any sustained imbalance in the earth's carbon cycle could be  
4 serious business indeed for North America, as it could be for any other part of the world.

## 6 **Why the Carbon Budget of North America?**

7 The continent of North America has been identified as both a significant source and a significant sink  
8 of atmospheric carbon dioxide (Wofsy and Harriss, 2002). More than a quarter (27%) of global carbon  
9 emissions from the combination of fossil fuel and cement manufacturing are attributable to North  
10 America (United States, Canada, and Mexico) (Marland *et al.*, 2003). North American plants remove  
11 carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and store it as carbon in plant biomass and soil organic matter,  
12 mitigating to some degree the anthropogenic sources. The magnitude of the "North American sink" has  
13 been estimated at anywhere from less than 100 Mt C yr<sup>-1</sup> to slightly more than 2000 Mt C y<sup>-1</sup> (Turner *et al.*,  
14 1995; Fan *et al.*, 1998), with a value near 350 to 750 Mt C yr<sup>-1</sup> perhaps most likely (Houghton *et al.*,  
15 1999; Goodale *et al.*, 2002; Gurney *et al.*, 2002). The North American sink is thus a substantial fraction,  
16 perhaps on the order of 30–60%, of the global terrestrial sink estimated to be in the range of 600 to 2300  
17 Mt C yr<sup>-1</sup> and primarily in the extra-tropical Northern Hemisphere (IPCC, 2001). The global terrestrial  
18 sink is responsible for about a quarter to a half of the carbon added to the atmosphere by human actions  
19 that was transferred to oceans and land by carbon cycle processes and thus did not contribute to the  
20 accumulation and increase of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. Global atmospheric carbon  
21 concentrations would be substantially higher than they are without the partially mitigating influence of the  
22 sink in North America.

23 Some mechanisms that might be responsible for the North American terrestrial sink are reasonably  
24 well known. These mechanisms include, but are not limited to, the re-growth of forests following  
25 abandonment of agriculture, changes in fire and other disturbance regimes, historical climate change, and  
26 fertilization of ecosystem production by nitrogen deposition and elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide  
27 (Dilling *et al.*, 2003). Recent studies have indicated that some of these processes are likely more  
28 important than others for the current North American carbon sink, but significant uncertainties remain  
29 (Caspersen *et al.*, 2000; Schimel *et al.*, 2000; Houghton 2002). The future of the current North American  
30 terrestrial sink is highly uncertain, and it depends on which mechanisms are the dominant drivers.

31 Estimates of coastal carbon cycling and input of carbon from the land are equally uncertain (JGOFS,  
32 2001). Coastal processes are also difficult to parameterize in global carbon cycle models, which are often  
33 used to derive best-guess estimates for regional carbon budgets (JGOFS, 2001). It is very important to

1 quantify carbon fluxes in coastal margins of the area adjacent to the North American continent, lest  
2 regional budgets of carbon on land be mis-attributed.

3 Whether as source or sink, North America is a major player in the global carbon cycle. The scientific  
4 understanding of the global carbon cycle required for successful carbon management strategies and by  
5 decision makers searching for options to stabilize or mitigate concentrations of greenhouse gases in the  
6 atmosphere (CCSP, 2003) requires an understanding of the North American carbon budget.

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## 8 **CARBON CYCLE SCIENCE IN SUPPORT OF CARBON MANAGMENT DECISIONS**

9 Beyond understanding the science of the North American carbon budget and its drivers, increasing  
10 attention is now being given to deliberate management strategies for carbon (DOE 1997, Hoffert *et al.*,  
11 2002; Dilling *et al.*, 2003). Carbon management is now being considered at a variety of scales in North  
12 America. There are tremendous opportunities for carbon cycle science to improve decision-making in this  
13 arena. In seeking ways to more effectively use scientific information in decision-making, we must pay  
14 particular attention to the importance of developing constructive scientist–stakeholder interactions.

15 Many decisions in government, business, and everyday life are connected with the carbon cycle. They  
16 can relate to *driving forces* behind changes in the carbon cycle (such as consumption of fossil fuels) and  
17 strategies for managing them and/or *impacts* of changes in the carbon cycle (such as climate change or  
18 ocean acidification) and responses to reduce their severity. Carbon cycle science can help to inform these  
19 decisions by providing timely and reliable information about facts, processes, relationships, and levels of  
20 confidence, although such support is more likely to be effective if the science is connected with  
21 communication structures that are considered by both scientists and users to be legitimate and credible.

22 Perhaps the most widely studied examples of scientist–stakeholder communication and dialogue have  
23 occurred through various types of scientific assessments. For example, Cash and Clark (2001) and Cash *et*  
24 *al.* (2003) found that the most effective<sup>1</sup> scientific assessments generally shared three interdependent  
25 characteristics, which they termed credibility, saliency, and legitimacy. Credibility is obviously essential  
26 if a scientific assessment is to be viewed as technically authoritative. The credibility of an assessment  
27 depends on the scientific scope and rigor of the process and on the scientific stature of its participants  
28 (Parson, 2003).

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<sup>1</sup> The effectiveness of scientific syntheses and assessments is evaluated using a variety of criteria, including effects on policies, management options, research agendas, and attitudes of key constituencies (Cash and Clark, 2001; Parson 2003). These are not the only possible effectiveness criteria, but they provide an appropriate emphasis on the effectiveness of scientifically credible information that can be easily communicated to stakeholders and that they find useful for policy and management.

1 Saliency, according to Cash and Clark, is the extent to which an assessment is perceived as relevant  
2 and useful to stakeholders. Ensuring saliency requires early and ongoing dialogue with stakeholders to  
3 make sure that the questions posed within the scientific community are also important to the stakeholder  
4 community, and to educate the stakeholder community about the importance of scientific issues that they  
5 might otherwise overlook.

6 Cash and Clark (2001) defined legitimacy as the “perceived fairness of the assessment process.” The  
7 legitimacy of a scientific assessment requires not only the contributions of scientific experts who  
8 represent a range of technical viewpoints, but also the substantive involvement of stakeholder  
9 representatives to ensure that the assessment is perceived as fair by their constituencies.

10 A common conclusion in analyses of scientific assessments is that the initial design and context are  
11 critically important (Cash and Clark, 2001; Farrell *et al.*, 2001; Parson 2003). The community and  
12 institutional mandate for an assessment have a strong influence on the eventual success of the process.  
13 The initial “framing” of the issues and questions to be addressed affects many decisions about the  
14 organization of the assessment, communication among participants, prioritization of goals, and ultimate  
15 effectiveness (Farrell *et al.*, 2001). The framing process requires great care because it may predetermine  
16 not only *who* gets to pose the questions, but also *how* the questions are posed.

17 How the assessment is delivered is as important as how it is defined. A potential pitfall in scientific  
18 assessment is to focus solely on producing a written report of findings, without understanding the  
19 importance of ongoing communication and social interaction that are critical for effective outcomes (Cash  
20 and Clark, 2001). Our proposed approach pays considerable attention to the ongoing process required to  
21 produce the SAP 2.2, with the explicit goal of ensuring that the SAP 2.2 is not only scientifically credible  
22 but also easily accessible, credible, and relevant to decision makers and other stakeholders. Transparency  
23 of the process will be a high priority through all stages.

24 Analysis of previous scientific assessments has emphasized that credibility, saliency, and legitimacy  
25 are inter-connected. As Parson (2003) put it, “Assessments that command little attention or respect by  
26 virtue of the collective stature of their participants; that draw no clear scientific judgments or conclusions  
27 about present knowledge except that more research is needed; that present no cogent new ways to  
28 understand the issue; and whose reports are both useless to scientists and inaccessible to lay persons, can  
29 expect to have no influence on policy, however high the quality of their work on other dimensions.”

30 The U.S. climate and carbon research community, and a diverse range of stakeholders, recognize the  
31 need for an integrated synthesis and assessment focused on North America to (a) summarize what is  
32 known and what is known to be unknown, documenting the maturity as well as the uncertainty of this  
33 knowledge; (b) convey this information among scientists and to the larger community; and (c) ensure that  
34 our studies are addressing the questions of concern to society and decision-making communities.

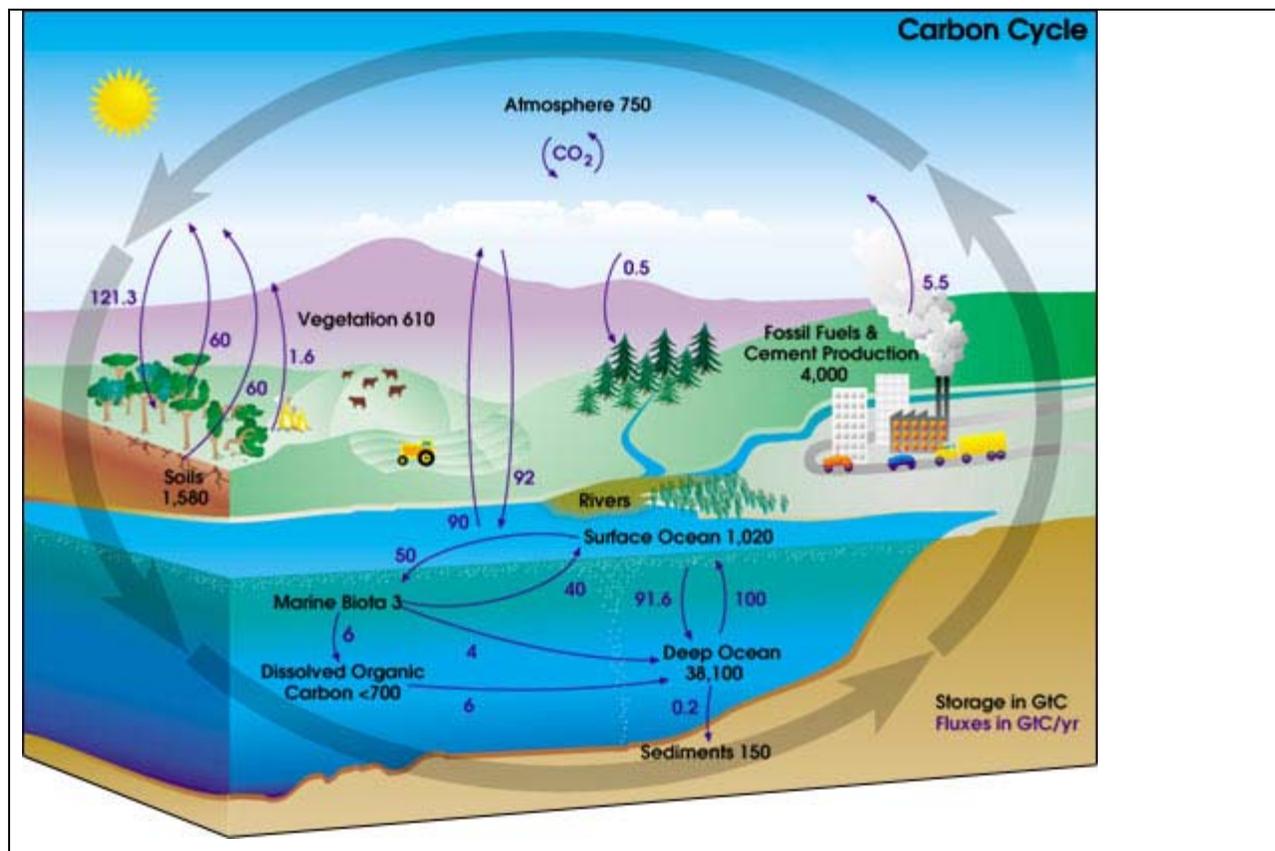
1 As the most comprehensive treatment to date of carbon cycle facts, directions, and issues for North  
2 America, incorporating stakeholder interactions throughout, this report, the *First State of the Carbon*  
3 *Cycle Report (SOCCR)*, focused on *The North American Carbon Budget and Implications for the Global*  
4 *Carbon Cycle* is intended as a step in that direction.

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3 **Figure 1-1. The global carbon cycle.** Reservoirs (in black) are gigatons [1 Gt = one billion ( $1 \times 10^9$ ) metric tons] of  
 4 carbon, and exchanges between reservoirs (in purple) are Gt carbon per year. *Illustration courtesy NASA Earth*  
 5 *Science Enterprise.*

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