

Northumbria Research Link

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1 Biomass offsets little or none of permafrost carbon release from soils, streams, and
2 wildfire: an expert assessment.

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90 region

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92 particulate organic carbon, coastal erosion, high-latitude carbon balance

93

94 **Abstract**

95 As the permafrost region warms, its large organic carbon pool will be increasingly
96 vulnerable to decomposition, combustion, and hydrologic export. Models predict that
97 some portion of this release will be offset by increased production of Arctic and boreal
98 biomass; however, the lack of robust estimates of net carbon balance increases the risk of
99 further overshooting international emissions targets. Precise empirical or model-based
100 assessments of the critical factors driving carbon balance are unlikely in the near future, so
101 to address this gap, we present estimates from 98 permafrost-region experts of the
102 response of biomass, wildfire, and hydrologic carbon flux to climate change. Results
103 suggest that contrary to model projections, total permafrost-region biomass could decrease
104 due to water stress and disturbance, factors that are not adequately incorporated in current
105 models. Assessments indicate that end-of-the-century organic carbon release from Arctic
106 rivers and collapsing coastlines could increase by 75% while carbon loss via burning
107 could increase four-fold. Experts identified water balance, shifts in vegetation community,
108 and permafrost degradation as the key sources of uncertainty in predicting future system
109 response. In combination with previous findings, results suggest the permafrost region will
110 become a carbon source to the atmosphere by 2100 regardless of warming scenario but
111 that 65 to 85% of permafrost carbon release can still be avoided if human emissions are
112 actively reduced.

113

114 **Introduction**

115 **Permafrost zone carbon balance**

116 The United Nations has set a target of limiting warming to 2°C above pre-
117 industrial temperatures to mitigate risk of the most damaging consequences of climate
118 change (UNEP, 2013). Maintaining global climate within this target depends on
119 understanding ecosystem feedbacks to climate change so that adequate limits on human
120 emissions can be set. As high latitudes warm, more of the large permafrost carbon pool
121 will be exposed to decomposition, combustion, and hydrologic export (Harden *et al.*,
122 2012; Schuur *et al.*, 2015). Up to 220 Petagrams (Pg) carbon could be released from
123 permafrost-region soil by 2100, and 500 Pg by 2300 (Schuur *et al.*, 2013; MacDougall *et*
124 *al.*, 2012), representing 10 to 30% of greenhouse gas emissions required to push the global
125 climate system beyond the 2°C target (Schaefer *et al.*, 2014). Models project that some
126 permafrost carbon release will be offset by increases in Arctic and boreal primary
127 productivity due to extended growing season, CO₂ fertilization, and nutrient release from
128 decomposing soil organic matter. However, many processes and dynamics known to
129 influence biomass accumulation, such as ecosystem disturbance and nutrient limitation,
130 are incompletely represented or absent in current models (Qian *et al.*, 2010; Koven *et al.*,
131 2011; Schaefer *et al.*, 2011; Koven *et al.*, 2015b). Likewise, only a few models projecting
132 future permafrost carbon release consider wildfire emissions, and none include hydrologic
133 carbon flux (MacDougall *et al.*, 2012; Koven *et al.*, 2011; Qian *et al.*, 2010; Schaefer *et*
134 *al.*, 2014; Schaefer *et al.*, 2011), though past hydrologic flux has been simulated (McGuire
135 *et al.*, 2010; Kicklighter *et al.*, 2013; Laudon *et al.*, 2012). Despite clear policy
136 implications of this climate feedback, considerable uncertainty of both carbon inputs and
137 outputs limits our ability to model carbon balance of the permafrost region. To bring to
138 bear the best available quantitative and qualitative scientific information (Joly *et al.*, 2010)

139 on this climate feedback, we present results from expert assessment surveys indicating that
140 there is little consensus on the magnitude and even sign of change in high-latitude
141 biomass, whereas most researchers expect fire emissions and hydrologic organic carbon
142 flux to substantially increase by the end of the century.

143 **Expert assessment**

144 When data are sparse but management decisions are pressing, expert judgements
145 have long been used to constrain possible system response and risk of dangerous or
146 undesired outcomes (Zickfeld *et al.*, 2010; Morgan, 2014). There are multiple methods for
147 collecting and combining expert opinion including formal expert elicitation interviews,
148 interactive software, and surveys (Aspinall, 2010; Morgan, 2014; Javeline *et al.*, 2013).
149 While expert assessment cannot definitively answer questions of future system response, it
150 complements modeling and empirical approaches by allowing the synthesis of formal and
151 informal system information and by identifying research priorities (Fig. 1;(Morgan, 2014;
152 Sutherland *et al.*, 2013). The approach is similar to the concept of ensemble models where
153 multiple estimates built on different assumptions and data provide a more robust estimate
154 and measure of variance. Because the experimental unit is an individual researcher, each
155 data point represents an integration of quantitative knowledge from modeling, field, and
156 laboratory studies as well as qualitative information based on professional opinion and
157 personal experience with the system. Expert assessment has been used in risk assessment
158 and forecasting of natural disasters, human impacts on ecosystems, and tipping points in
159 the climate system (Aspinall, 2010; Halpern *et al.*, 2008; Lenton *et al.*, 2008). In a data-
160 limited environment such as the permafrost region, expert assessment allows formal
161 consideration of a range of factors known to affect carbon balance but insufficiently
162 quantified for inclusion in models. For permafrost carbon balance, these factors include

163 nutrient dynamics, non-linear shifts in vegetation community, human disturbance, land-
164 water interactions, and the relationship of permafrost degradation with water balance.

165 Because precise empirical or model-based assessments of the critical factors
166 driving permafrost-region carbon balance are unlikely in the near future (Harden *et al.*,
167 2012), we collected estimates of the components of net ecosystem carbon balance from 98
168 permafrost-region experts (Table 1). We had two major goals: 1. Assess current
169 understanding of the timing and magnitude of non-soil biomass accumulation, hydrologic
170 organic carbon flux, and wildfire carbon emissions, and 2. Identify major sources of
171 uncertainty in high-latitude carbon balance to inform future research.

172 **Methods**

173 **Survey development and design**

174 In the fall of 2013 we administered three expert assessments to address knowledge
175 gaps concerning the response of permafrost-region biomass, wildfire, and hydrologic
176 carbon flux to climate change. Development of assessment methodology began in early
177 2009 as a part of the Dangerous Climate Change Assessment Project administered by the
178 University of Oxford. We iteratively revised questions, response format, and background
179 information based on four rounds of input from participants, including at the Vulnerability
180 of Permafrost Carbon Research Coordination Network meeting in Seattle 2011 (Schuur *et*
181 *al.*, 2013). To help survey participants consider all of the evidence available from field and
182 modeling studies, we distributed a system summary document for each questionnaire
183 including regional and pan-Arctic estimates of current carbon pools and fluxes, a brief
184 treatment of historical trends, and a summary of model projections where available (Table
185 2; Supplementary information Questionnaires and System summaries).

186 Participants were selected based on contribution to peer-reviewed literature or
187 referrals from other experts and had experience in all major boreal and Arctic regions

188 (Table 1). We identified potential participants by querying Thomas Reuters Web of
189 Science (webofknowledge.com) with applicable search terms (e.g. Arctic, boreal, biomass,
190 dissolved organic carbon, fire, permafrost). To reach researchers with applicable expertise
191 who were underrepresented in the literature, we supplemented the list with personal
192 referrals from lead experts and all participants. In total 256 experts were invited to
193 participate. We distributed the surveys and system summaries via email with a two-week
194 deadline. After sending out three reminders and accepting responses for three months after
195 initial invitation, we received 115 responses from 98 experts (38% response rate), with 15
196 experts participating in more than one survey (Supplementary information List of experts).
197 Experts who provided estimates and input to this paper are coauthors.

198 Experts provided quantitative estimates of change in biomass, hydrologic flux, or
199 wildfire for three time points (2040, 2100, and 2300), and four regional warming scenarios
200 based on representative concentration pathway (RCP) scenarios from the IPCC Fifth
201 Assessment Report (Moss *et al.*, 2010). Warming scenarios ranged from cessation of
202 human emissions before 2100 (RCP2.6) to sustained human emissions (RCP8.5) and
203 corresponded to permafrost-region mean annual warming of 2 to 7.5°C by 2100. All
204 surveys were driven by the same scenarios of high-latitude warming generated from
205 RCP2.6, 4.5, 6.0, and 8.5 with the National Center for Atmospheric Research's
206 Community Climate System Model 4 (Lawrence *et al.*, 2012). For the purposes of this
207 survey, warming was assumed to stabilize at 2100 levels for all scenarios so that responses
208 through 2300 accounted for lags in ecosystem responses to climate drivers. While climate
209 scenarios were defined by temperature, we asked experts to consider all accompanying
210 direct climate effects (e.g. temperature, precipitation, and atmospheric CO₂) and indirect
211 effects (e.g. vegetation shifts, permafrost degradation, invasive species, and disturbance).
212 Experts were encouraged to consider all available formal and informal information when

213 generating their estimates including published and unpublished modeled and empirical
214 data as well as professional judgment. Participants listed the major sources of uncertainty
215 in their estimates, self-rated their confidence and expertise for each question, described
216 rationale for their estimates, and provided background information (Tables 1 and S1).

217 The biomass survey consisted of a single question asking for cumulative change in
218 tundra and boreal non-soil biomass including above and belowground living biomass,
219 standing deadwood, and litter. The wildfire survey asked for estimates of change in
220 wildfire extent and CO₂ emissions for the boreal and tundra regions to assess changes in
221 both fire extent and severity. The hydrologic flux survey asked for estimates of dissolved
222 and particulate organic carbon (DOC and POC, respectively) delivery to freshwater
223 ecosystems in the pan-Arctic watershed and delivery to the Arctic Ocean and surrounding
224 seas via riverine flux and coastal erosion, allowing the calculation of losses during
225 transport due to burial or mineralization. Dissolved inorganic carbon fluxes were not
226 included in this survey.

227 The original questionnaires in 2009 asked for participants to estimate subjective
228 95% confidence intervals of the whole system response (e.g. total change in high-latitude
229 biomass). Based on expert input during subsequent testing we disaggregated the system
230 into different components to encourage detailed consideration of possibly competing
231 dynamics (Morgan, 2014) (e.g. asking for separate estimates of boreal forest and Arctic
232 tundra response). This resulted in a large response table for each question (72-102
233 quantitative estimates), which we found caused respondent fatigue and decreased the
234 number of experts willing to participate. As a compromise, we asked respondents to
235 provide a single best estimate and indicate confidence with a five-point scale (Table S1).
236 While analysis of best estimates can return narrower uncertainty ranges than subjective
237 probability distributions (Morgan, 2014), we believe this tradeoff resulted in broader

238 expert participation, better representing diversity of opinion across disciplines and
239 compensating for possible underestimation of variability and uncertainty.

240 **Analysis and calculations**

241 We calculated basic summary statistics, using median values to estimate center and
242 interquartile ranges (IQR) to estimate spread. To calculate the portion of permafrost
243 carbon release offset by biomass accumulation, we combined estimates from this study
244 with reanalyzed data from Schuur *et al.* (2013). The low IQR for carbon release offset by
245 biomass growth was calculated by dividing the low IQR of uptake by the upper IQR of
246 carbon release and conversely for the high IQR. All analyses were performed in R 3.0.2.
247 The complete dataset of quantitative estimates and comments from survey participants
248 stripped of personal identifiers is available at
249 www.aoncadis.org/dataset/Permafrost_carbon_balance_survey.html.

250 **Results**

251 **Carbon pools and fluxes**

252 Expert estimates revealed diverging views on the response of boreal biomass to
253 warming, with over a third of estimates predicting a decrease or no change in boreal
254 biomass across scenarios and time periods (Fig. 2). While median change in boreal
255 biomass was similar across warming scenarios for each time step (3, 9, and 11% increases
256 by 2040, 2100, and 2300, respectively; Figs. 2 and S1), variability was much higher for
257 warmer scenarios. Consequently, all of the interquartile ranges of change in boreal
258 biomass for RCP6.0 and RCP8.5 included zero. Experts projecting a decrease in boreal
259 biomass attributed their estimates primarily to water-stress and disturbance such as fire
260 and permafrost degradation. In contrast, there was general agreement that tundra biomass
261 would respond positively to warming, with end-of-century increases of 6 to 30% projected
262 for RCP2.6 and 10 to 90% for RCP8.5. Because of these contrasting responses to

263 increased warming, tundra accounted for 40% of total biomass gain by 2300 for RCP8.5,
264 though it currently constitutes less than 10% of total permafrost region biomass (based on
265 median values in Fig. 2; Fig. 3a; Table 2). Estimates of boreal biomass were generally
266 symmetrically distributed while tundra biomass estimates were right-skewed, and most
267 datasets had 1 to 4 estimates beyond 1.5 times the interquartile range (Fig. S2). Self-rated
268 confidence was higher for tundra than for boreal forest, but was below 3 (moderately
269 confident) in both cases (Table S1), highlighting considerable uncertainty of individual
270 estimates in addition to variability among respondents.

271 Experts projected major shifts in both fire and hydrologic carbon regimes, with up
272 to a 75% increase of riverine organic carbon flux to the ocean and a four-fold increase in
273 fire emissions by 2100 for RCP8.5 based on interquartile ranges (Fig. 2 and S1). Fire and
274 hydrologic carbon release estimates peaked at 2100, followed by a 10 to 40% decrease
275 through 2300. In contrast to biomass, the response of both fire-driven and hydrologic
276 carbon flux varied strongly by warming scenario, with RCP8.5 resulting in 2 to 6 times
277 more carbon release than RCP2.6. While the boreal forest dominated total wildfire
278 emissions, the relative change in tundra fire emissions was 1.5 and 2-fold greater than the
279 relative boreal response for 2100 and 2300, respectively (Fig. S1). Changes in fire
280 emissions were attributed to changes in fire extent rather than severity, which varied less
281 than 5% among scenarios and time periods. Though dissolved organic carbon (DOC)
282 represented the majority of total hydrologic organic carbon release, experts projected
283 higher relative increases for coastal particulate organic carbon (POC), with end-of-the-
284 century increases of 6 to 50% for RCP2.6 and 13 to 190% for RCP8.5. There was a lack of
285 consensus on the response of DOC delivery to the ocean, with 21% of estimates predicting
286 a decrease or no change. Experts predicting a decrease attributed their estimates to
287 increased mineralization, changes in hydrologic flowpath, and changes in DOC photo- and

288 bio-lability (Cory *et al.*, 2014; Abbott *et al.*, 2014). Responses indicated no change in the
289 proportion of organic carbon mineralized or trapped in sediment before reaching the
290 ocean, with 63-69% of DOC and 68-74% of POC lost in transport. Fire and hydrologic
291 carbon flux estimates were strongly right-skewed with a few experts projecting extreme
292 change well beyond 1.5 times the interquartile range for each timestep and warming
293 scenario combination (Figs. S3 and S4). Average self-rated confidence was between 2 and
294 3 for all questions except tundra fire emissions which had average confidence of 2.0 and
295 1.7 (Table S1).

296 **Sources of uncertainty**

297 Along with quantitative estimates of carbon balance, experts identified sources of
298 uncertainty currently limiting the prediction of system response to climate change (Table
299 3). Water balance, including precipitation, soil moisture, runoff, infiltration, and
300 discharge, was the most frequently mentioned source of uncertainty for both biomass and
301 hydrologic organic carbon flux, and the second most mentioned for wildfire. Many experts
302 noted that water balance is as or more important than temperature in controlling future
303 carbon balance, yet projections of water balance are less well constrained (Zhang *et al.*,
304 2013; Bintanja and Selten, 2014). Almost three-quarters of wildfire experts identified the
305 future distribution of vegetation as the primary source of uncertainty in projecting
306 wildfire, noting strong differences in flammability between different boreal and tundra
307 species. Permafrost degradation was identified as an important source of uncertainty for
308 biomass, hydrologic flux, and wildfire, due to both disturbance from ground collapse
309 (thermokarst) and interactions with water-table dynamics and surface soil moisture as
310 deeper thaw affects soil drainage.

311 **Discussion**

312 **Carbon balance**

313 Arctic tundra and boreal forest have accumulated a vast pool of organic carbon,
314 twice as large as the atmospheric carbon pool and three times as large as the carbon
315 contained by all living things (Hugelius *et al.*, 2014; Schuur *et al.*, 2015). Over the past
316 several decades, the permafrost region has removed an average of 500 Tg carbon yr⁻¹ from
317 the atmosphere (McGuire *et al.*, 2009; Pan *et al.*, 2011; Hayes *et al.*, 2011). Combining
318 our estimates of biomass uptake with a recent projection of permafrost soil carbon release
319 (Schuur *et al.*, 2013) suggests that the permafrost region will become a carbon source to
320 the atmosphere by 2100 for all warming scenarios (Fig. 3b). Experts predicted that boreal
321 and Arctic biomass could respond more quickly to warming than soil carbon release,
322 offsetting -33 to 200% of mid-century emissions from permafrost-region soil (Fig. 3b).
323 However, because estimates of change in biomass are similar across warming scenarios
324 while permafrost carbon release is strongly temperature-sensitive, the emissions gap
325 widens for warmer scenarios, resulting in 5-times more net carbon release under RCP8.5
326 than RCP2.6. This suggests that 65 to 85% of permafrost carbon release could be avoided
327 if human emissions are actively reduced—*i.e.* if emissions follow RCP2.6 instead of
328 RCP8.5 (Fig. 4).

329 **Comparison with quantitative models**

330 Model projections of future boreal and Arctic biomass agree in sign but vary
331 widely in magnitude, with increases of 9 to 61 Pg carbon projected by 2100 (Qian *et al.*,
332 2010; Koven *et al.*, 2011; Schaefer *et al.*, 2011; Falloon *et al.*, 2012). While some of these
333 models fall within the range estimated here of -20 to 28 Pg carbon by 2100, none include
334 zero or negative change in biomass as predicted by over a third of participants in our
335 expert assessment. Two potential reasons for this disagreement are an overestimation of
336 the effect of CO₂ fertilization or an underestimation of the role of disturbance in some
337 models. Firstly, CO₂ fertilization exerts a larger effect on carbon balance than all other

338 climate effects in many models (Balshi *et al.*, 2009), with up to 88 Pg carbon difference
339 between model runs with and without CO₂ fertilization effects for some models (Koven *et*
340 *al.*, 2011). However, there is little field evidence that CO₂ fertilization results in long-term
341 biomass accumulation in tundra and boreal ecosystems (Hickler *et al.*, 2008; Peñuelas *et*
342 *al.*, 2011; Gedalof and Berg, 2010). Additionally, many models with large CO₂ effects do
343 not include other limiting factors, such as nutrients and water, known to interact with CO₂
344 fertilization (Hyvonen *et al.*, 2007; Yarie and Van Cleve, 2010; Thornton *et al.*, 2007;
345 Koven *et al.*, 2015a; Maaroufi *et al.*, 2015). Secondly, models that do not account for
346 disturbance such as wildfire, permafrost collapse, insect damage, and human resource
347 extraction likely overestimate the positive response of biomass to climate change (Kurz *et*
348 *al.*, 2008; Abbott and Jones, 2015; Hewitt *et al.*, 2015).

349 Considering the scenario of a complete biome shift is useful in evaluating both
350 model projections of change and estimates from our expert assessment. If all boreal forest
351 became temperate forest, living biomass would increase by 27%, resulting in the uptake of
352 16 Pg carbon based on average carbon densities from both ecosystems (Pan *et al.*, 2011).
353 However, 22 Pg carbon would be lost due to decreases in dead wood and litter, resulting
354 in a net circumboreal loss of 6 Pg carbon. If all tundra became boreal forest, non-soil
355 biomass would increase by 205% (Epstein *et al.*, 2012; Reynolds *et al.*, 2012; Saugier *et*
356 *al.*, 2001), taking up 17 Pg carbon. This scenario may not represent the upper limit of
357 possible carbon uptake if other unforeseen shifts in C allocation take place; however, it
358 highlights the relatively modest carbon gains probable on century timescales.

359 While model regional projections of boreal wildfire vary in sign and magnitude
360 (Supplementary information System summaries), most circumboreal models agree that
361 fire emissions will increase several-fold, with increases of 200 to 560% projected by the
362 end of the century (Kloster *et al.*, 2012; Flannigan *et al.*, 2009). Interquartile ranges from

363 our study are somewhat lower (40 to 300%, median 170%), but participant confidence in
364 these estimates was low, suggesting considerable uncertainty in the future response of
365 boreal fire. The 60 to 480% increase in tundra fire projected by our study would represent
366 an even larger ecological shift than experienced by the boreal forest, with implications for
367 regional biomass, habitat, and carbon balance, though there are few models that project
368 changes in tundra fire (Rupp *et al.*, 2000) and none at a circumarctic scale (Mack *et al.*,
369 2011).

370 The production of Arctic DOC and POC depends on abundance of carbon sources
371 in terrestrial ecosystems (influenced by biomass, wildfire, temperature, and permafrost
372 degradation) and the ability of hydrologic flow to transport that carbon (determined by
373 factors such as precipitation, runoff, depth of flow through soil, and coastal erosion) (Guo
374 *et al.*, 2007; Kicklighter *et al.*, 2013; Abbott *et al.*, 2015). Due to these complexities and
375 others, there are currently no quantitative projections of future DOC and POC flux from
376 the circumarctic. However, estimates from our study suggest a substantial departure from
377 historical rates of change. For RCP8.5, hydrologic organic carbon loading would increase
378 4-20 times faster in the 21st century than it did in the 20th (Kicklighter *et al.*, 2013),
379 representing a non-linear response to high-latitude warming. The lack of consensus on the
380 response of DOC, the largest component of hydrologic organic carbon flux, highlights the
381 importance of developing and testing conceptual frameworks to be incorporated into
382 models (Laudon *et al.*, 2012).

383 An alternative explanation for differences between expert estimates and modeled
384 projections is the possibility of bias in the group of experts. Participants in our assessment
385 tended to have more field than modeling experience (Table 1) and may have therefore
386 been skeptical of simulated ecosystem responses that have not been observed in the field
387 such as CO₂ fertilization and rapid migration of treeline (McGuire *et al.*, 2009). Because

388 future dynamics cannot always reliably be predicted on the basis of past system behavior,
389 this bias may or may not result in overly conservative estimates. Furthermore, because
390 experts are likely to base projections on the study areas with which they are most familiar,
391 regional differences could be a source of bias. Fundamental differences among regions in
392 the response of DOC flux and fire-regime to warming have been observed (Kicklighter *et*
393 *al.*, 2013; de Groot *et al.*, 2013); Supplementary information System summaries). Asia,
394 which represents more than half of the total permafrost region, was under-represented in
395 all three surveys, particularly wildfire (Table 1). However, the regional bias in this study
396 may not be greater than that of model projections, which depend on observational and
397 experimental data that are not evenly distributed throughout the permafrost region.

398 **Reducing uncertainty surrounding the permafrost carbon feedback**

399 Experts identified water balance, vegetation distribution, and permafrost
400 degradation as the most important sources of uncertainty in predicting the timing and
401 magnitude of the permafrost carbon feedback (Table 3). These three processes are closely
402 interconnected by several internal feedbacks (Jorgenson *et al.*, 2013; Shur and Jorgenson,
403 2007; Anisimov and Reneva, 2006; Girardin *et al.*, 2015). For example, wildfire or
404 drought can trigger a transition from coniferous to deciduous dominance, warming
405 permafrost by up to 7°C due to loss of insulating moss and associated changes (Shur and
406 Jorgenson, 2007; Sturm *et al.*, 2001; Yarie and Van Cleve, 2010). The subsequent
407 recovery trajectories of vegetation and permafrost, as well as the proportion of thawed
408 carbon released CO₂ or CH₄, then depend largely on near-surface hydrologic conditions
409 (Myers-Smith *et al.*, 2008; O'Donnell *et al.*, 2011; Jorgenson *et al.*, 2010; Chapin *et al.*,
410 2010; Lawrence *et al.*, 2015; Payette *et al.*, 2004). These interdependencies mean that
411 improving projections of the permafrost carbon feedback will require conceptualizing
412 these parameters together. The question of water balance is additionally important in

413 Arctic and boreal ecosystems where hydrologic carbon flux can be the determining factor
414 causing net carbon uptake or release (Oquist et al ; Kling et al). The lack of model
415 projections of hydrologic carbon fluxes is a major gap in our ability to estimate the
416 permafrost carbon feedback.

417 The permafrost region has responded differently to various climatic perturbations
418 in the past, representing another tool to constrain possible future response (Zachos *et al.*,
419 2008). During the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum, high-latitude temperature
420 warmed more than 10°C, causing almost complete loss of permafrost and the
421 mineralization of most permafrost soil organic matter (DeConto *et al.*, 2012; Bowen and
422 Zachos, 2010). More recently, the 2-4°C warming at high-latitudes during the early
423 Holocene caused active-layer deepening throughout the permafrost region but did not
424 trigger complete permafrost loss or widespread carbon release (French, 1999;
425 Schirmer *et al.*, 2002; Jorgenson *et al.*, 2013). While there are many differences
426 between the Paleozoic and Holocene warming events, one clear distinction is the degree of
427 warming. There may have been a threshold between 4 and 10°C high-latitude warming
428 due to positive feedbacks such as a coniferous—deciduous shift or abrupt change in
429 hydrology. If a tipping point does exist between 4 and 10°C high-latitude warming, it
430 would fall between scenarios RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, representing maximum atmospheric
431 CO₂ of 650 and 850 ppm, respectively (Moss *et al.*, 2010; Lawrence *et al.*, 2012). RCP4.5
432 is still widely accepted as politically and technically attainable, though it assumes global
433 CO₂ emissions peak before 2050 and decrease by half by 2080 (Moss *et al.*, 2010).

434 **Conclusions**

435 The permafrost climate feedback has been portrayed in popular media (and to a
436 lesser extent in peer-reviewed literature) as an all-or-nothing scenario. Permafrost
437 greenhouse gas release has been described as a tipping point, a runaway climate feedback,

438 and, most dramatically, a time bomb (Wieczorek *et al.*, 2011; Treat and Frolking, 2013;
439 Whiteman *et al.*, 2013). On the other extreme, some have dismissed the importance of this
440 feedback, asserting that increases in biomass will offset any carbon losses from soil, or
441 that changes will occur too slowly to concern current governments (Idso *et al.*, 2014). Our
442 expert estimates suggest that, while Arctic and boreal biomass may offset much or all of
443 mid-century permafrost carbon release, the permafrost region will become a carbon source
444 to the atmosphere by 2100 regardless of warming scenario. However, results indicate a 5-
445 fold difference in emissions between the business as usual scenario (RCP8.5) and active
446 reduction of human emissions (RCP2.6), suggesting that up to 85% of carbon release from
447 the permafrost region can still be avoided, though the window of opportunity for keeping
448 that carbon in the ground is rapidly closing. Models projecting a strong boreal carbon sink
449 and models that do not consider hydrologic and fire emissions may substantially
450 underestimate net carbon release from the permafrost region. If such projections are used
451 as the basis for emissions negotiations, climate targets are likely to be overshoot.

452

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459

460

461

462 **Figure 1.** Conceptual model of the role of expert assessment in generating and
463 communicating scientific understanding. Modelling and field research generate
464 quantitative and qualitative understanding of the system (in this case the permafrost zone).
465 Expert assessment synthesizes current understanding including qualitative information not
466 yet included in numerical models. These syntheses provide perspective to the scientific
467 community and wholistic summaries of the state of the knowledge to the non-scientific
468 community with the goal of improving management of the system.

469

470 **Figure 2.** Estimates of change in non-soil biomass, wildfire emissions, and hydrologic C
471 flux from the permafrost region for four warming scenarios at three time points. All values
472 represent change from current pools or fluxes reported in Table 2. Biomass includes above
473 and belowground living biomass, standing deadwood, and litter. Dissolved and particulate
474 organic C (DOC and POC respectively) fluxes represent transfer of C from terrestrial to
475 aquatic ecosystems. "Coast" represents POC released by coastal erosion. For relative
476 change see Fig. S1. Representative concentration pathway (RCP) scenarios range from
477 aggressive emissions reductions (RCP2.6) to sustained human emissions (RCP8.5). Box
478 plots represent median, quartiles, and minimum and maximum within 1.5 times the
479 interquartile range. Full distributions are presented in Figs. S2 to S4.

480

481 **Figure 3.** Total change in non-soil biomass (a) and percentage of permafrost region C
482 release offset by change in non-soil biomass (b). Estimates of permafrost C release used in
483 estimating percentage offset are recalculated from data presented in Schuur et al. (Schuur
484 *et al.*, 2013). See Fig. 2 for definition of RCP scenarios and symbology. Error bars
485 represent propagated error between the interquartile ranges of carbon release from
486 permafrost soil and carbon uptake by biomass (see Methods).

487

488 **Figure 4.** A comparison of soil C release (recalculated from Schuur et al. (Schuur *et al.*,
489 2013)) and non-soil biomass uptake in the permafrost region for two warming scenarios.
490 Polygons represent median cumulative change and dotted lines represent the interquartile
491 range. Biomass C uptake is overlaid on soil C release to show the proportion of C release
492 potentially offset by biomass. Linear rates of change were assumed between the three
493 dates where estimates were provided. See Fig. 2 for definition of RCP scenarios.

494

Table 1. Composition and characteristics of participant group

	Biomass	Wildfire	Hydrologic flux
Number of respondents	46	34	35
Average responses per question*	41	28	32
Primary region of study			
Asia	10	3	8
Europe	12	5	9
North America	27	27	18
Circumpolar	12	6	9
Primary biome of study			
Arctic	31	13	27
Boreal	27	29	18
Both	14	9	12
Average modeling/field self rating**	3.6	3.7	4.1
Combined years of experience	762	533	521
Ratio male:female	2.6	2.8	4.9

495 Background information on survey participants. Experts could indicate multiple regions
496 and biomes of study. *Not all experts provided estimates for all questions. **Experts rated
497 themselves on a 1-5 scale where 1=exclusive modeler and 5=exclusive field researcher.

Table 2. Estimates of current permafrost region organic carbon pools and fluxes

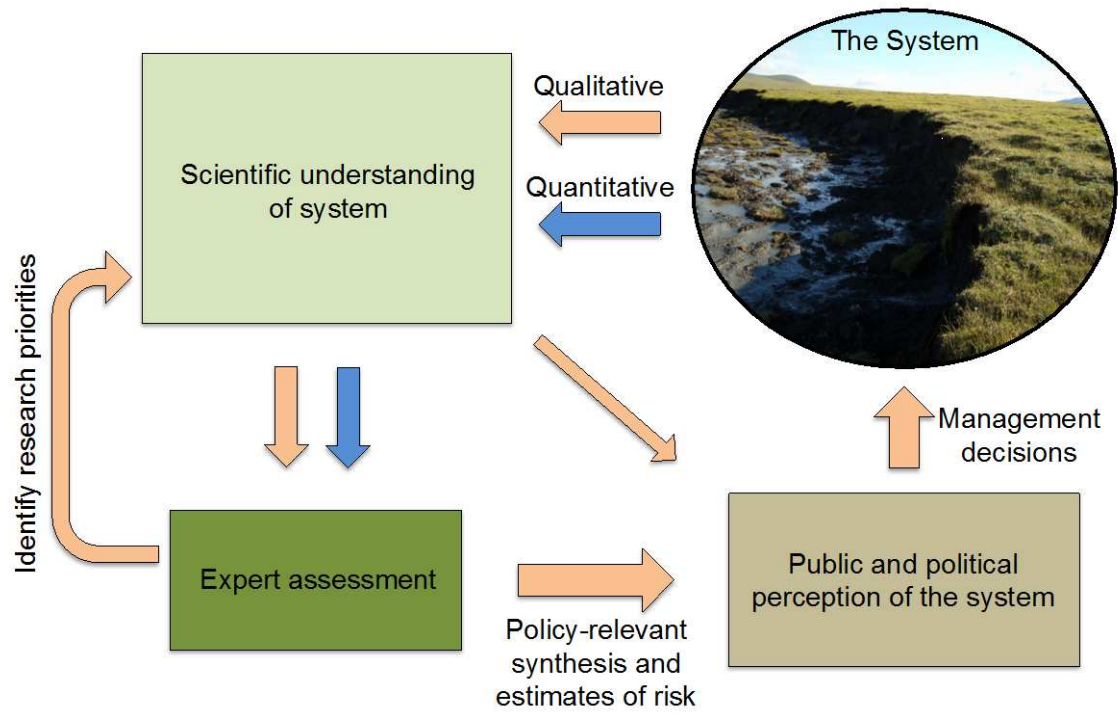
Biomass					
	Aboveground biomass	Belowground biomass ^a	Dead wood ^b	Litter	Total non-soil biomass
Boreal forest (Pg C)	43.6 ^c	16.1	16	27 ^b	102.7
Arctic Tundra (Pg C)	2.4 ^d	4.0		2 ^e	8.4
Wildfire					
	Boreal forest (Eurasia)	Boreal forest (N. America)	Total Boreal forest ^f	Total Tundra	
Area burned (km ² yr ⁻¹)	62,100	22,500	84,600	4,200 ^g	
CO ₂ emissions from fire (Tg C yr ⁻¹)	194	56	250	8 ^h	
Hydrologic organic carbon flux					
	DOC	POC (Riverine)	POC (coastal)	Total OC	
Delivery to freshwater ecosystems (Tg yr ⁻¹)	100 ^c	20 ⁱ	na	120	
Delivery to Arctic Ocean and surrounding seas (Tg yr ⁻¹)	36 ^j	6 ^c	18 ^{ck}	60	

499 a (Saugier *et al.*, 2001), b (Pan *et al.*, 2011), c (McGuire *et al.*, 2009), d (Epstein *et al.*, 2012), e (Potter and Klooster, 1997), f (Balshi *et al.*, 2007; Giglio
500 *et al.*, 2010; Hayes *et al.*, 2011; van der Werf *et al.*, 2010), g (Rocha *et al.*, 2012), h (Mack *et al.*, 2011), i (Aufdenkampe *et al.*, 2011; Battin *et al.*, 2009),
501 j (Holmes *et al.*, 2012), k (Vonk *et al.*, 2012). Literature-based estimates of belowground biomass were calculated from aboveground or total
502 biomass with ratios from Saugier *et al.* (Saugier *et al.*, 2001). POC delivery to freshwater ecosystems was calculated from ocean POC
503 delivery with downscaled global ratio of 0.75 for sedimentation. POC from coastal erosion is the sum of Vonk *et al.* (Vonk *et al.*, 2012) and
504 McGuire *et al.* (McGuire *et al.*, 2009). Considerable uncertainty remains around many of these estimates.

Table 3. Sources of uncertainty in system response to climate change

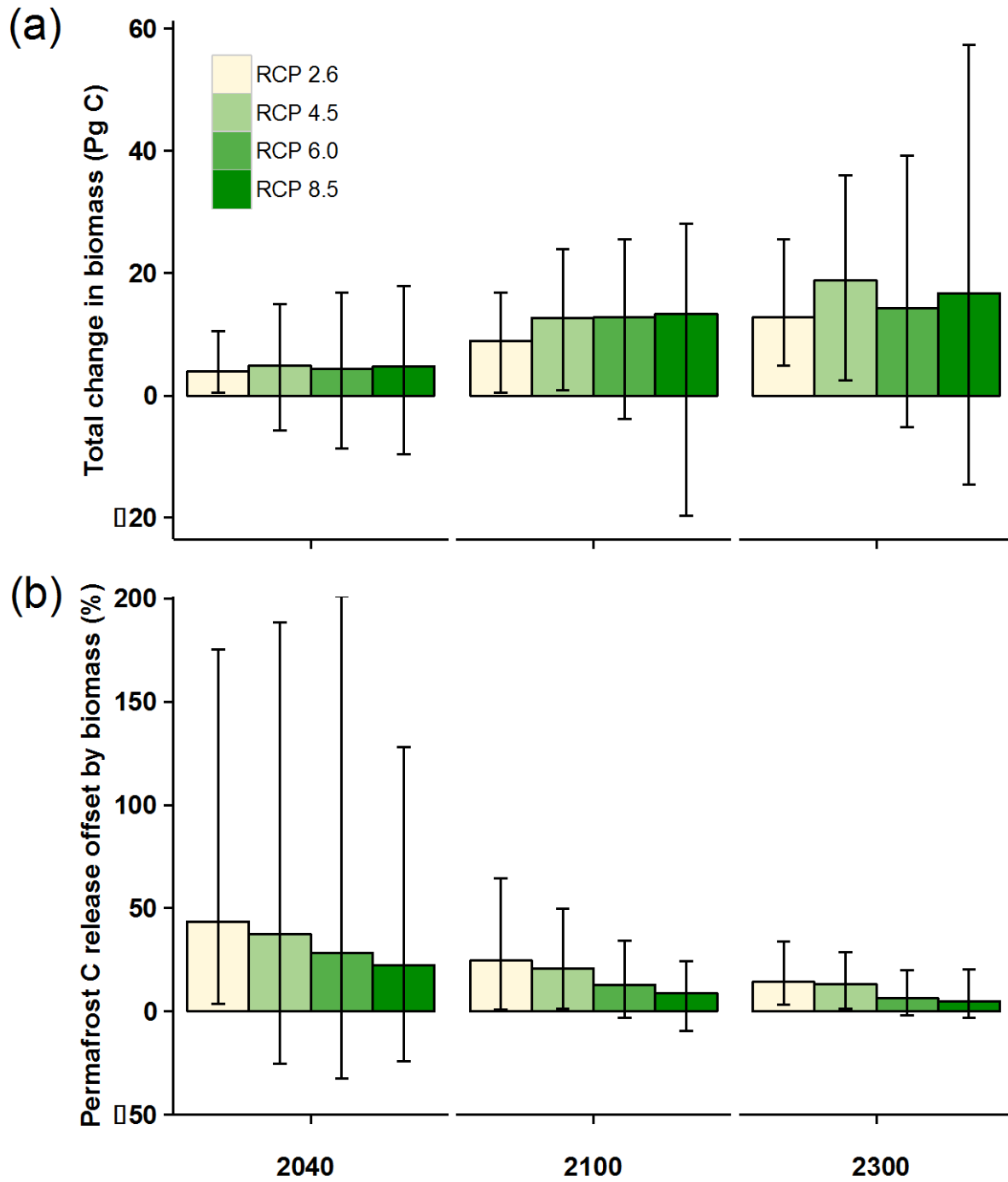
Biomass		Wildfire		Hydrologic OC flux	
Source of uncertainty	%	Source of uncertainty	%	Source of uncertainty	%
Water balance	56	Vegetation shift	73	Water balance	41
Wildfire	47	Water balance	58	Hydrologic flowpath	39
Permafrost degradation	40	Human disturbance	27	Permafrost degradation	24
Human disturbance	29	Permafrost degradation	18	Photo and bio-lability	24
Insect damage	27	Seasonality	15	Vegetation shift	20
Vegetation shift	24	Regional differences	12	Fluvial erosion	11
Treeline dynamics	16				
Nutrient availability	13				
Non-insect herbivores	11				

506 Major factors contributing uncertainty to projections of future system response based on expert
507 comments. Rank is based on percent of experts who listed each factor in their responses. All
508 sources listed by 10% or more of each group are included here. Water balance includes
509 comments mentioning precipitation, soil moisture, runoff, infiltration, or discharge. Permafrost
510 degradation includes comments referring to permafrost collapse (thermokarst) and active layer
511 deepening.
512



514 Figure 1
515

516
517 Figure 2



518 Figure 3
 519
 520

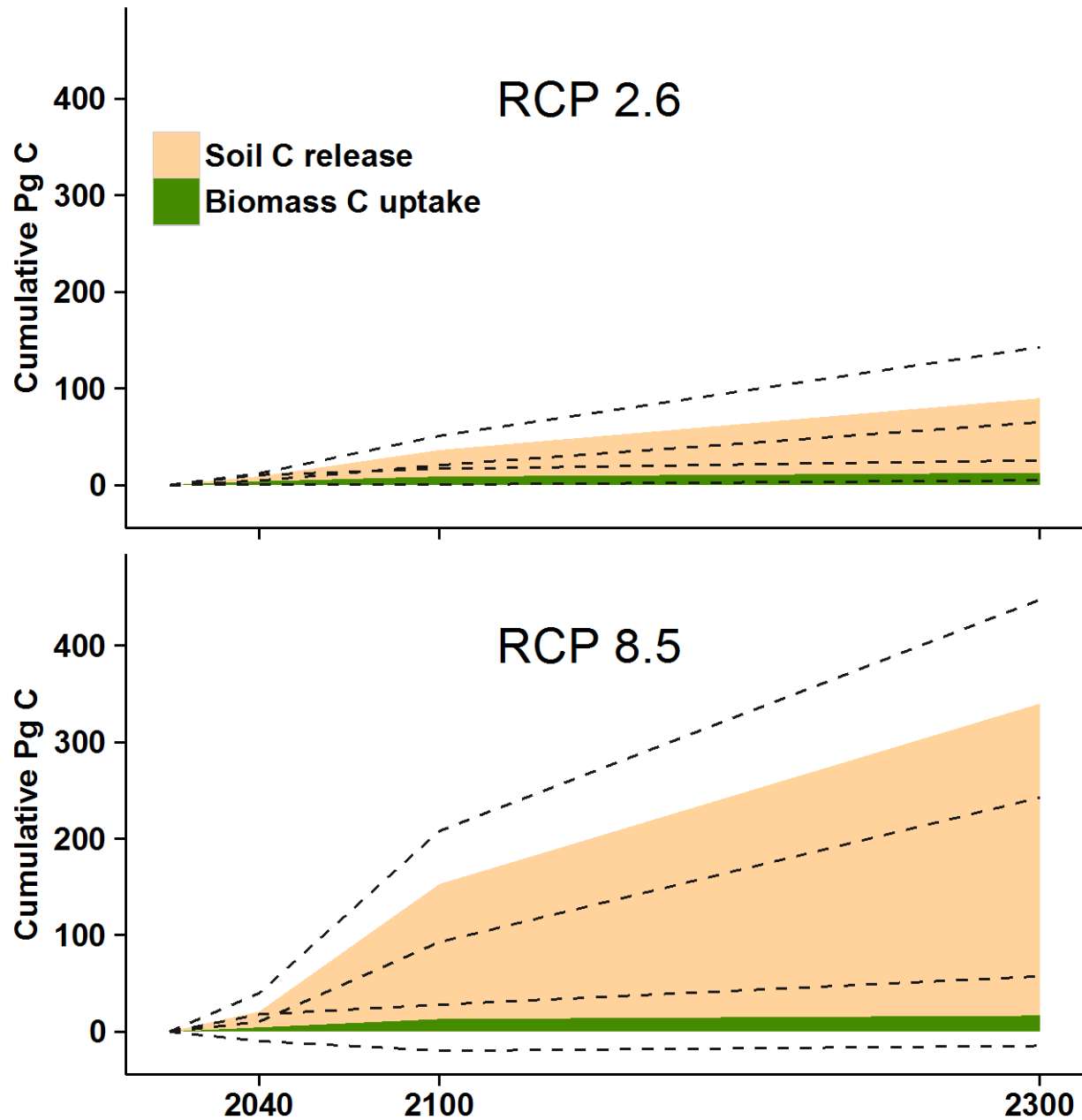


Figure 4

521

522

523

524

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