Exhibit 2

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Storage and Flux of Carbon in Live Trees, Snags, and Logs in the Chugach and Tongass National Forests

T.M. Barrett

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Author

T.M. Barrett is a research forester, Forestry Sciences Laboratory, 1133 N Western Avenue, Wenatchee, WA 98801.

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Abstract

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Carbon storage and flux estimates for the two national forests in Alaska are provided using inventory data from permanent plots established in 1995–2003 and remeasured in 2004–2010. Estimates of change are reported separately for growth, sapling recruitment, harvest, mortality, snag recruitment, salvage, snag falldown, and decay. Although overall aboveground carbon mass in live trees did not change in the Tongass National Forest, the Chugach National Forest showed a 4.5 percent increase. For the Tongass National Forest, results differed substantially for managed and unmanaged forest: managed lands had higher per-acre rates of sequestration through growth and recruitment, and carbon stores per acre that were higher for decomposing downed wood, and lower for live trees and snags. The species composition of carbon stores is changing on managed lands, with a carbon mass loss for yellow-cedar but increases for red alder and Sitka spruce. On unmanaged lands, the Chugach National forest had carbon mass increases in Sitka spruce and white spruce, and the Tongass National Forest had increases in western redcedar and red alder.

Keywords: Biomass, carbon cycle, carbon sequestration, phytomass, rain forest.

Summary

Carbon accounting is becoming of increasing importance to forest managers, as markets develop for private forest landowners and public land managers incorporate carbon services into planning and management. In this report, inventory data from permanent plots established in 1995–2003 and remeasured in 2004–2010 are used to provide estimates of aboveground carbon storage and flux for the two national forests in Alaska. Estimates of change are reported separately for growth, sapling recruitment, harvest, mortality, snag recruitment, salvage, snag falldown, and decay.

For the Chugach National Forest, key findings are:

- The overall increase in live tree carbon mass was substantial, estimated as a 4.5 percent increase from 1999–2003 to 2004–2010, equivalent to an increase of
	- 0.8 percent per year
	- 165,000 tons of carbon mass (C) per year for the forest, and
	- 552 lbs of C per forest acre per year

Although a recent increase in live tree biomass is not unusual for a national forest, the increase for the Chugach National Forest is not attributable to fire suppression or past harvest, unlike most other forests. We do not know whether the observed increase is caused by recovery from past disturbances (e.g., spruce beetle outbreaks) or is a result of warming temperatures in the region.

- Significant increases of live tree carbon mass occurred for the Sitka spruce and white spruce tree species.
- Cottonwood, paper birch, western hemlock, and white spruce forest types all showed significant increases in live tree carbon mass.
- No tree species or forest type showed a significant decrease in live tree carbon mass.

For the Tongass National Forest, key findings from this report are:

The Tongass National Forest stores massive amounts of forest carbon, more than any other national forest in the United States. The estimated aboveground average carbon density in the forest was 70 tons per acre in live trees, snags, and logs in 9.7 million ac of forest.

- Growth and recruitment of live trees removes from the atmosphere an estimated 760 lbs of carbon per acre per year, but net change in live carbon mass was not significantly different from zero, with mortality and harvest estimated at 670 lbs of carbon per acre per year. Turnover in the live tree and snag pool was estimated as 0.6 percent per year and 2.6 percent per year, respectively.
- On managed forest lands (estimated at 446,000 ac), there were significant increases in Sitka spruce and red alder live tree carbon mass, and a significant decrease in yellow-cedar carbon mass.
- On unmanaged forest (estimated at 6,294,000 ac with an additional 2,974,000 ac of unsampled forest in wilderness), there was a large (6.6 percent) increase in western redcedar carbon mass and also a significant increase in red alder carbon mass.
- Growth and recruitment was much higher in managed forest (1,608 lbs per acre per year) than in unmanaged forest (690 lbs per acre per year), and natural mortality was much lower (278 lbs per acre per year versus 619 lbs per acre per year).
- Carbon density on unmanaged forest was estimated as 72 tons per acre, split as 7 percent logs, 13 percent snags, and 80 percent live trees. Carbon density on managed forest was estimated as 45 tons per acre, split as 38 percent logs, 8 percent snags, and 54 percent live trees.
- Although management choices could potentially increase carbon sequestration in second-growth stands, e.g., by altering rotation lengths or utilization of harvested material, this report does not make any specific recommendations owing to the relatively small number of managed stands (58) that fell within the field plots.

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Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO_2) is thought to play a major role in global climate change, and as a result, efforts to measure the levels of carbon sequestration, storage, and flux in forests are of increasing interest to forest land managers. For national forests in the United States, this undertaking was reflected in several significant new developments that occurred in 2012:

- 1. Thirty years after publication of the original forest planning rule under the National Forest Management Act, a new forest planning rule was finalized. Among other requirements, new assessments for each national forest are to include a baseline assessment of carbon stocks, and forests are to monitor changes related to climate change and other stressors.
- 2. National forests began to use an annual "Climate Change Scorecard" assessment. Questions that forests now consider include progress toward a baseline assessment of carbon stocks, as well as an assessment of how disturbance and management activities are influencing carbon stocks, sequestration, and emissions.

This report is intended to help the two national forests in Alaska, the Chugach and the Tongass, make progress toward these new assessments by providing information on storage and flux of carbon in live and dead trees within the forests based on data collected by the USDA Forest Service Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program. In addition, by providing estimates of temporal flux between carbon pools, the results reported here can improve understanding of some types of recent changes occurring in the national forests and their surrounding ecosystems.

Methods

Data

The estimates in this report are derived from remeasured inventory plots installed by FIA. Only trees of at least 5 in diameter at breast height (d.b.h.) were used for analysis because a change in the plot layout resulted in no remeasurement information for smaller trees. The first inventories were installed from 1995 to 2000 in southeast Alaska (van Hees 2003) and from 1999 to 2003 in south-central Alaska (van Hees 2005). These combined inventories are referred to here as the "periodic" inventory. Many of these plots are being remeasured in the current "annual" FIA inventory system. This report combines those periodic (1995–2003) inventory plots with the remeasurement of those plots from 2004 to 2010; remeasurement intervals are shown for the Chugach National Forest in table 1 and for the Tongass National Forest in table 2. The period for remeasurement, which varied from 1 to 15 years, is a relatively short period to expect to see changes for such a large region. The varied interval of time for plot measurements complicates interpretation, as does the use of average annual values. For example, even if mortality rates were absolutely constant during the inventory period, an annual mortality rate calculated from plots remeasured after 1 year will be a little higher than the rate calculated from plots remeasured after a decade.

Detailed information on how measurements were taken can be found in the respective field manuals at http://www.fs.fed.us/pnw/fia/publications/fieldmanuals. Although the two national forests in Alaska are the focus of this report, the inventory crosses all ownerships (figs. 1 and 2). Plots were identified with each national forest using an administrative ownership variable in the FIA database. About 90.8

	Year of first measurement				
Year of second measurement	1999	2001	2002	2003	All years
2004			2		11
2005	4	2	3	θ	9
2006	8	3		θ	12
2007		\mathfrak{D}	4	θ	13
2008	9		3	0	13
2009	6	3	3	θ	12
2010	8	0	5	0	13
All years	49	12	21		83

Table 1—Number of remeasured forested plots by years of measurement, Chugach National Forest

Table 2—Number of remeasured forested plots by years of measurement, Tongass National Forest

Figure 1—Forest inventory plots and ownership in and surrounding the Chugach National Forest, southeast Alaska. Depicted plot locations are approximate.

Figure 2—Forest inventory plots and ownership in and surrounding the Tongass National Forest, southeast Alaska. Depicted plot locations are approximate.

percent of the periodic inventory plots are being remeasured in the annual inventory, although plots that are inaccessible in either inventory reduce the number available for analysis. About 70 percent of the periodic plots (a random sample of the 90.8 percent) had been remeasured by the end of the 2010 field season.

For analysis of change, only remeasurement plots and only portions of plots that were forested in both periods were used. That results in estimates that usually are smaller and less precise than when either the full periodic dataset or the full annual dataset is used (tables 3, 4, 5, and 6). In general, the periodic inventory used a more restrictive definition of forest land, by excluding Krummholz forest and by using a canopy cover definition that was less likely to define an area as forest than was the stocking definition used from 2004 to 2010.

Table 3—Effect of different estimation methods on forest type area, Chugach National Forest

a Includes wilderness study area plots measured in 2005. Because of the very small number of plots, this will not do well at representing forest in the wilderness study area.

b Does not include land that was defined as forest for only one of the inventories, or plots that were not included in both inventories; this method is what was used for estimates of change in this report and is labeled with "remeasurement plots only."

c Estimates also adjust for nonsampled (access denied or hazardous) plots. These estimates should match what would be produced from the national database using the current inventory and are labeled with "all 2004–2010 plots."

^{*d*} For an approximate extrapolation of change estimates to all forest (including the wilderness study area), one could multiply carbon estimates for each forest type by this adjustment factor.

SE = Standard error of the estimate. The total plus or minus the standard error provides a 68 percent confidence interval, and the total plus or minus two standard errors is about a 95 percent confidence interval for the estimate.

Table 4—Effect of different estimation methods on carbon mass in live trees, Chugach National Forest

a Includes wilderness study area plots measured in 2005. Because of the very small number of plots, this will not serve well at representing forest in the wilderness study area.

b^{*b*} Does not include land that was defined as forest for only one of the inventories, or plots that were not included in both inventories or any trees ≤ 5 in diameter at breast height; this method is what was used for change estimates in this report and is denoted with the note "remeasurement plots only."

c Estimates also adjust for nonsampled (access denied or hazardous) plots. This method is denoted by the use of "all 2004–2010 plots."

SE = Standard error.

			Without inaccessible wilderness area	With inaccessible wilderness area				
		Remeasurement plots only ^b		All 2004-2010 plots ^c	All 2004–2010 plots ^c		Adjustment	
Forest type	Total	SE	Total	SЕ	Total	SE	factor d	
			<i>Thousand acres</i>					
Yellow-cedar	1,261	99	1.433	101	2,199	221	1.74	
Black cottonwood	36	18	36	17	98	59	2.72	
Lodgepole pine	286	48	348	50	348	50	1.22	
Mountain hemlock	820	78	1,229	90	2,013	214	2.45	
Red alder	22	12	36	16	36	16	1.64	
Sitka spruce	434	60	590	67	839	130	1.93	
Subalpine fir			$\overline{4}$	4	$\overline{4}$	4	na	
Western hemlock	2,374	117	2,479	114	3,219	222	1.36	
Western redcedar	575	66	587	63	960	148	1.67	
All forest types	5,808	105	6,741	101	9,715	233	1.67	

Table 5—Effect of different estimation methods on forest type area, Tongass National Forest

a Includes wilderness area plots measured in 2005.

b Does not include land that was defined as forest for only one of the inventories, or plots that were not included in both inventories; this method is what was used for estimates of change in this report and is labeled with "remeasurement plots only."

c Estimates also adjust for nonsampled (access denied or hazardous) plots. These estimates should match what would be produced from the national database using the current inventory and are labeled with "all 2004–2010 plots."

d Calculated as the estimate from all plots divided by the estimate from remeasurement plots only. For an approximate extrapolation of change estimates to all forest (including the wilderness study area), one could multiply carbon estimates for each forest type by this adjustment factor.

SE = Standard error of the estimate. The total plus or minus the standard error provides a 68 percent confidence interval, and the total plus or minus two standard errors is about a 95-percent confidence interval for the estimate.

Table 6—Effect of different estimation methods on carbon mass in live trees, Tongass National Forest

a Includes wilderness study area plots measured in 2005. Because of the very small number of plots, this will not serve well at representing forest in the wilderness study area.

b^{*b*} Does not include land that was defined as forest for only one of the inventories, or plots that were not included in both inventories or any trees ≤5 in diameter at breast height; this method is what was used for change estimates in this report and is denoted with the note "remeasurement plots only."

c Estimates also adjust for nonsampled (access denied or hazardous) plots. This method is denoted by the use of "all 2004–2010 plots."

SE = Standard error.

Helicopter use is not allowed within much of the wilderness on the Tongass and the wilderness study area on the Chugach. Owing to this restriction, these areas were inaccessible during the periodic inventory. During the annual inventory, access was permitted in 2005, and 50 forested plots were measured in Tongass wilderness and 9 forested plots in the Chugach wilderness study area. However, after an environmental assessment, the areas were again removed from the inventory in 2006. Because none of the wilderness plots had remeasurement data, they are excluded from all estimates of change in carbon storage in this report but were included in comparisons of methods of estimations of forest type area (tables 3 and 5) and carbon mass (tables 4 and 6).

On the Chugach, of the 107 nonwilderness annual plots measured between 2004 and 2010, just 83 were remeasured plots and only two of these had a record of past silvicultural activities, thus managed forest is not reported as a separate category for the Chugach National Forest. On the Tongass, there are 801 nonwilderness forested FIA plots that were measured between 2004 and 2010; of those, 650 are remeasured plots that were initially established in the 1995–2000 inventory.

On the Tongass, 58 stands with remeasurement data had a record indicating some type of vegetation manipulation, usually clearcutting. (Note: stands are called "condition classes" by FIA, and denote an area of forest that is homogenous with respect to forest type, owner group, stand size, regeneration status, tree density, and reserved status. Although most plots intersect only a single stand, many plots intersect multiple stands.) Fifty-eight managed stands were sufficient to allow some separate analysis of managed and unmanaged forest, which was helpful because of the substantially different trajectories in carbon storage and flux. Classification as managed forest was based on a combination of time since clearcut harvest (a variable that was collected in the periodic inventory), records of trees harvested between the two inventory measurements, written plot descriptions, and the forest's geographic information system layer for stand management. The managed category also includes some residual trees within harvest areas, and a few stands with selective or salvage logging, and thus the plots in the managed forest category include areas with complex structure and older trees in addition to areas of even-aged second growth.

Estimates of carbon in down wood debris*¹* (DWD) are included based on transects that were installed in the periodic inventory (1995–2003). Although DWD was measured on a $1/16^{th}$ subsample of plots from 2004 to 2010, the small number of these plots means it is not possible to measure change in DWD with sufficient precision for meaningful estimates. Down woody debris measurements were taken only on the first stand (condition class) of each plot, which causes more imprecision compared to live tree or snag estimates. Some plots with forest did not have DWD measurements taken, either because of snow or because only a small portion of the plot contained forest. Although this could create some bias in the estimates, less than 2.4 percent of the sampled forested area fell into this category, so the bias is likely to be minimal.

Because of the many procedural differences between the 1995–2003 inventory and the 2004–2010 inventory, trying to estimate change by simple comparison of

¹ The term "snag" is equivalent to the term "standing dead tree" used by FIA, and is defined as a dead tree that is at least 5 in d.b.h., has a bole with an unbroken length of at least 4.5 ft, and is less than a minimum number of degrees from vertical. Minimum lean angles used differed between the first and second inventories.

the two inventories would produce inaccurate estimates of carbon and biomass change for Alaska's national forests. To be able to estimate change accurately, a number of edits to the dataset were required:

(1) Building a stratification customized for remeasurement.

(2) Reconciling every tree in the first inventory for its status at remeasurement (live, snag, harvested, or dead and down).

(3) Reconciling the first inventory for (a) trees that would not meet the current definition for inclusion; (b) trees that had been missed; (c) species codes that were incorrect; and (d) incorrect tree status, most typically trees that had been recorded as dead but were found to have a few live branches in the second inventory.

(4) Adjusting for a definition of forest that changed from a cover-based to a stocking-based definition by including only portions of plots that were forested in both periods. Although this was the best choice available, it prevented the calculation of estimates of biomass/carbon change associated either with forest encroachment (such as increasing treeline) or permanent deforestation (such as when land is developed for housing or roads).

Statistical methods for calculating standard errors are the current standard methods used by FIA, as described in Bechtold and Patterson (2005). Some estimates report carbon mass per forest acre; these are produced using a combined ratio of means estimator (Cochran 1977). Where change estimates are called significant, it means that the 95 percent confidence interval (CI) does not contain zero; the 95 percent CI is created by multiplying the estimated standard error by 1.96 and adding (or subtracting) it from the estimated mean.

Standard FIA reports, including the most recent report for coastal Alaska (Barrett and Christensen 2011), drop nonsampled plots (hazardous or access denied) from the stratification process, so that estimates approximate population totals. The disadvantage of doing this is that it requires an assumption that nonsampled plots are no different from the strata mean estimated from remaining plots; as nonsampled plots tend to be on steeper ground (when hazardous) or at high elevation (where snow often prevents access), this assumption can be incorrect. In this report, the nonsampled plots were left in the stratification, with the result that estimated population totals will be smaller. Tables 3 through 6 show the difference that results from using these different methods. In addition, the area that was sampled for remeasurement is smaller than the area currently in the inventory, because the current inventory includes 1 year of data from national forest wilderness and the boundaries for that wilderness shifted between inventories.

If extrapolation to the entire forest is desired, one might multiply per-acre values for specific forest types by the additional estimated land area. For example, in the Chugach National Forest, the area of Sitka spruce forest is estimated as 111,000 ac using the remeasurement data, and 138,000 ac when the wilderness study area is included, or an increase of 24 percent (table 3), and the remeasurement data provides an estimate that carbon mass in Sitka spruce forest type increased at a rate of 56,000 tons per year. One could then make an educated guess that the increase including the wilderness study area was $56,000 \times 1.24 = 69,400$ tons. This is just a rough approximation, however, as there is no guarantee that Sitka spruce forest in the wilderness study area changed similarly to Sitka spruce forest outside of the wilderness study area.

Carbon Calculations

The aboveground carbon pools estimated in this report are those of (1) the live tree pool; (2) the snag² pool; and (3) the DWD (or log) pool (fig. 3). Carbon fluxes that are estimated in this report are (a) recruitment, (b) growth, and (c) mortality for the live tree pool and (d) snag recruitment, (e) decay, and (f) falldown for the snag pool (fig. 3). Net change in the live tree pool is measured as recruitment plus growth, minus mortality and harvest. Net change in the snag pool is equal to snag recruitment (part of live tree mortality) minus decay, falldown, and salvage. Within the forest ecosystem are a number of carbon pools that are not included here, such as carbon within non-tree vegetation, carbon within tree roots and stumps, and carbon in soil and litter. There are also a number of fluxes that are not estimated, including carbon moving from vegetation to soil or water, or decay of logs. Some current research projects are underway in the region to provide information about these processes.

Several different methods are available for calculating biomass and carbon for Alaska forests from individual tree measurements of diameter, species, and height. In this report, species-specific direct biomass estimators published in the research literature have been used, most of them developed for British Columbia (for rain forest species) or Alberta (for boreal species). A different method, which has typically been developed to address species without direct biomass equations, is called the "component ratio" method. In this method, tree volume equations are modified with estimated density to derive biomass estimates for the main part of the bole, and ratios are then applied to estimate biomass of components such as bark, top,

² The data for down wood debris estimates is courtesy of Mikhail Yatskov, Ph.D. candidate, Oregon State University.

Figure 3—Carbon flux between the (1) live, (2) snag, and (3) log pools of the forest.

branches, and foliage. This method has commonly been used in other states, but because of the low tree species diversity in Alaska, and resulting availability of species-specific biomass equations for all our major species, the component ratio method has not been used by FIA in Alaska. A third method, also not used in this report, has been used to produce many of the biomass variables in the database at the national FIA website (http://www.fia.fs.fed.us/tools-data/default.asp), and it is based on the component ratio method with adjustments based on Jenkins et al. (2003) and others (see Woudenberg et al. 2013, appendix J).

Although attempts to develop a unified national method provides some consistency across regions, when used at a regional level these can produce estimates very different from estimates that use regional equations (e.g., Fried and Zhou 2008). The only way to compare accuracy of competing methods is to test them against independent datasets, which are very scarce because of the cost of drying and weighing trees. In general, because the regional equations are species specific, are based on both diameter and height, were derived from research specifically meant to estimate biomass, and are built from observations for trees typically sampled from ecosystems similar to where they are being applied, the local equations are probably preferable for any use other than national-level estimates. The regional

variables are also available as part of the database on the national FIA website, and can be found in a separate tree table. In both this report and standard national FIA applications, carbon mass is assumed to be equal to 0.5 of dry biomass. Because of the simplicity of conversion, estimates are shown for carbon mass, and it is left to the reader to multiply by two if dry biomass estimates are desired.

The regional equation sets for Alaska trees come from the following published sources:

³ Based on the location of plots, all sampled lodgepole trees are believed to be the shore pine subspecies (*Pinus contorta* Dougl. Ex Loudon subsp. *contorta*).

Currently, most regions of the country, including Alaska, do not have adjustments for portions of tree tops that are broken off ("missing tops") in the national or regional biomass variables in the publicly available FIA database. However, missing tops are being increasingly accounted for in biomass or volume variables within some regional databases, thus biomass estimates for snags in this report have been adjusted to account for missing tops using simple conic geometry. No deductions were made for missing tops on live trees (which is much less common than missing tops on snags), because information for this had not been collected in the periodic southeast Alaska inventory.

Deductions for decay class have also typically not been available in national and regional databases. However, a Forest Service publication was recently developed to provide information on adjustments for decay in snags and logs (Harmon et al. 2011) and adjustments to the component-ratio variables in the national database

are now being made. For this reason, wood decay deductions based on decay class estimated in the field (using Harmon et al. 2011, table 6) were made for both snags and logs in this report. These decay class deductions, along with missing top deductions, will produce some differences from values for snags published in Andersen (2011). Decay class for snags was set at the values measured during the periodic inventory because of a change in methodology, so estimates of carbon lost in snag decay represent reductions from fragmentation rather than progression to a higher decay class.

Chugach National Forest

Excluding its wilderness study area, tree biomass and carbon on the Chugach National Forest is fairly evenly split between three tree species: mountain hemlock, western hemlock, and Sitka spruce (table 7). White spruce, black cottonwood, and paper birch combined comprise only about 5 percent of total carbon mass, and other species such as black spruce or quaking aspen comprise less than 1 percent of carbon mass. Looking at the distribution by forest type instead of species provides similar results (table 8).

Compared to other species, white spruce has a higher proportion of carbon in snags (table 7; the white spruce proportion is 202/699 = 29 percent compared to proportions of 2 to 9 percent for other species). This is likely the result of spruce beetle outbreaks in the 1990s, as is the slightly elevated proportion of dead Sitka spruce (9 percent) compared to the two hemlock species (4 percent for mountain hemlock and 5 percent for western hemlock).

Although the total carbon mass in mountain hemlock, western hemlock, and Sitka spruce forest types is similar within the Chugach National Forest, the density is much higher for the western hemlock and Sitka spruce forest types (table 9).

Overall, there was a 4.5-percent increase in carbon mass in live trees in the Chugach National Forest from the first inventory (1999–2003) to the second inventory (2004–2010) (table 10). A recent increase in biomass is not unusual among national forests. Most U.S. national forests have been experiencing recent increases in carbon and biomass (Heath et al. 2010), with increases in recent decades generally attributed to temporal changes in harvesting or the long-term effect of fire suppression (Goodale et al. 2002).

What makes the observed 4.5-percent increase interesting is that neither of these causes is a satisfactory explanation for the Chugach National Forest. With few roads, challenging topography, and high recreational and subsistence use, little harvest has occurred on the Chugach during the past half century. Forested areas

Table 7—Carbon mass in live trees and snags on the Chugach National Forest

Note: Estimates are created from all 2004–2010 plots but do not include the wilderness study area.

SE = Standard error.

Table 8—Carbon in live trees and snags by forest type within the Chugach National Forest

Note: Estimates are created from all 2004–2010 plots but do not include the wilderness study area.

SE = Standard error.

Table 9—Carbon mass per acre in trees by forest type in the Chugach National Forest

Note: Estimates are created from all 2004–2010 plots but do not include the wilderness study area.

SE = Standard error.

m ventory (2004–2010), Gilagach National Forest												
	Carbon 1999–2003		Mortality		Growth		Ingrowth		Net change		Net change as percent of	
Species	Total	SE	Total	SE	Total	SE	Total	SE	Total	SE	1999-2003	
					<i>Thousand tons</i>						Percent	
Black cottonwood	358	221	17	13	55	39		2	40	41	11	
Mountain hemlock	7,755	1.492	151	97	349	162	28	8	226	192	3	
Paper birch	147	75			22	15			22	15	15	
Sitka spruce	5,553	1.177	205	125	572	134	38	15	405	168	7	
Western hemlock	6,637	1.919	125	59	269	175	25	9	168	177	3	
White spruce	358	138	6	6	66	29	18	11	78	35	22	
All species	20.809	2,707	504	167	1,333	292	110	22	939	325		

Table 10—Change in carbon mass in live trees by species from the first inventory (1999–2003) to the second inventory (2004–2010), Chugach National Forest

Note: Data are based on remeasurement plots only, which do not include trees < 5 in diameter at breast height.

SE = Standard error.

are within a comparably low fire frequency regime, owing to relatively low temperatures, high cloud cover, and ample precipitation in the summer months.

The last major spruce beetle outbreak in the region occurred in the 1990s, and the area most affected was not within the Chugach boundaries. Although recovery from the spruce beetle could be contributing to some biomass and carbon increase, one might expect the majority of effect to be delayed until regenerating trees approach the point of maximum mean annual increment, which would be quite a few years in the future. However, there was a previous large outbreak in the 1970s and 1980s (Berg et al. 2006), and there could be some ongoing recovery from that.

Likewise, there could have been other disturbances in the past (wind events, longago harvests, insect outbreaks) that are now contributing to the net increase of live tree biomass.

Climate change or $CO₂$ increase could also be contributing to the higher biomass storage. To put the observed changes into context, with the possible exception of a few small refugia, almost all of the Chugach was covered by ice during the last glacial maximum approximately 23,000 years BP (Reger et al. 2007). Pollen studies suggest that migration of coastal tree species back into the contemporary forest lands has been a long, slow process, with mountain hemlock and Sitka spruce moving into Prince William Sound only around 3,000 years BP (Ager 1999). Many of the Sitka spruce and hemlock trees in the Chugach were alive at the end of the Little Ice Age in the 1850s, and warming since then is thought to have facilitated the expansion of black spruce in the Kenai lowlands (Berg et al. 2009). In more recent times, trees included in these inventories would have been affected by the relatively warmer, drier phase of the Pacific Decadal Oscillation, which began in the mid-1970s (Whitfield et al. 2010). Weather station data in the region show that average growing season temperatures during the inventory period (1999–2010) were slightly warmer than the 30-year climate "normal" preceding the start of the inventory (1969–1998) (fig. 4).

Figure 4—Average summer temperatures in the Chugach area were slightly warmer during the inventory period compared to the climate "normals" preceding the start of the inventory. Bars indicate average inventory summer temperature minus preceding 30-year averages.

Higher elevation treelines and afforestation resulting from lower water tables, although they have been observed in this region (Berg et al. 2009, Dial et al. 2007), are not explanatory causes for the observed carbon mass increase because of the methods that were used, which analyzed only trends within existing forest. However, climate warming and $CO₂$ increases could be affecting carbon storage and flux in a variety of ways. Growth rates will generally increase with increasing $CO₂$ or with warmer temperatures, provided that soil water availability is not limiting. Maximum biomass density in forests tends to be relatively constant across a broad range of sites for any given tree species owing to self-thinning (Reineke 1933, White 1981), so that the stand density index (in the absence of disturbance) can be expected to be less affected by climate change or $CO₂$ increase than either mortality or growth rates. But there could be displacement of lower volume species (such as hardwoods or white spruce) by higher volume species (such as Sitka spruce and western hemlock). Increased stocking could occur in more marginal habitats as growing conditions improve (Vanclay and Sands 2009). More favorable growing conditions might even allow individual trees to reach a taller maximum height (Ryan and Yoder 1997).

Teasing out the best explanations for the observed change is difficult because of the relatively small number of plots. When looked at as an average annual rate, all the tree species show a nominal increase in live tree carbon mass. However, only Sitka spruce and white spruce have increases that are more than 1.96 times the standard error from zero (indicating statistically significant differences for a 95-percent CI), with estimated annual increases of 3.6 percent for white spruce and 1 percent for Sitka spruce (tables 10 and 11). By forest type, the highest increase in per-acre carbon occurred in the cottonwood, western hemlock, and white spruce forest types (table 12).

Although the Chugach's 165,000 tons per year net accumulation in live tree carbon may seem small compared to the live tree carbon pool of 26 million tons, it is a significant local carbon sink. The equivalent $CO₂$ sequestration rate would be 605,000 tons per year, given the equivalency rate of 3.67 tons of $CO₂$.

However, the net increase of live tree carbon on the Chugach is just one component of carbon dynamics within the larger regional landscape. During the same period, there was a decrease in live tree carbon mass on private lands in the southeast/south-central region comparable in magnitude to the increase observed on the Chugach. In addition, we do not know if the increase in live tree carbon on the Chugach is being augmented or counterbalanced by changes in the DWD and belowground carbon pools.

Table 11—Annual change in live tree carbon mass by species for the Chugach National Forest

Note: Data are based on remeasurement plots only, which do not include trees < 5 in diameter at breast height. SE = Standard error.

Table 12—Per-acre annual change in live tree carbon mass by forest type, Chugach National Forest

Forest type	Mean	SE			
	Pounds per acre per year				
Black cottonwood	964	448			
Black spruce	23				
Mountain hemlock	493	406			
Paper birch	377	142			
Sitka spruce	383	426			
Western hemlock	787	354			
White spruce	773	297			
All forest types	552	225			

Note: Data are based on remeasurement plots only, which do not include trees < 5 in diameter at breast height.

SE = Standard error.

There was an estimated 1.6-percent decrease in carbon stored in snags, which was not significantly different from zero (table 13). When this is shown as per-acre annual change, all the forest types except Sitka spruce had a nominal decrease in snags but none was statistically significant at the 95 percent CI except paper birch (table 14). Estimates for snag carbon mass typically have higher sampling error than live trees. In addition, there is some additional uncertainty for the estimates of snag loss, owing to data collection procedures (see discussion of snag estimates for the Tongass National Forest).

When the DWD transects from the periodic inventory were used, there was an estimated 10 (± 2) Mg per ha of carbon mass in down logs in forest lands within the Chugach National Forest, or $4.6 \ (\pm 0.8)$ tons per acre. There are not enough plots to precisely estimate DWD carbon mass by forest type within the Chugach, so in table 15, values for these forest types within the larger inventory region are shown. Although down wood carbon mass in the white spruce, mountain hemlock, and western hemlock forest within the Chugach is similar to the regional values, the carbon mass in logs in Sitka spruce forest is about half within the Chugach compared to the region.

For the landscape analysis, using the full 2004–2010 dataset and excluding the wilderness study area, there were 26 forested plots in the Copper River landscape, 35 forested plots in the Kenai Peninsula landscape, and 46 forested plots in the

	Time 1 carbon		Snag recruitment		Snag fragmentation		Snag falldown		Net change		
Species	Total	SE	Total	SE	Total	SЕ	Total	SЕ	Total	SE	
		<i>Thousand tons</i>									
Black cottonwood	32	31			Ω	θ	4	$\overline{4}$	-3	$\overline{4}$	
Black spruce											
Mountain hemlock	478	111	14	10		2	19	7	-6	13	
Paper birch	4	5			Ω	θ			Ω	Ω	
Quaking aspen	18	14			θ	θ			-2		
Sitka spruce	439	175	24	17	6	4	3	3	15	17	
Western hemlock	425	144	5	3	7	3	10	5	-12	6	
White spruce	342	210			10	9	13	7	-22	15	
All species	1.738	337	46	19	23	11	50	12	-28	27	

Table 13—Annual carbon mass change in snags by species, Chugach National Forest

Note: Data are based on remeasurement plots only, which do not include trees < 5 in diameter at breast height.

SE = Standard error.

Note: Data are based on remeasured plots only, which do not include trees < 5 in diameter at breast height.

SE = Standard error.

Table 15—Carbon mass in downed logs by forest type

Note: Estimates use data from the 1995–2003 inventory.

Prince William Sound landscape. For the remeasured dataset, there were 23 forested plots in the Copper River landscape, 25 plots in the Kenai landscape, and 35 plots in the Prince William Sound landscape (fig. 5). Although the relatively small number of plots in each landscape makes estimates imprecise, the nominal carbon mass density decreases as one moves westward from the Copper River landscape, across the Prince William Sound landscape, and into the Kenai landscape (table 16); a decrease in density could be explained by climate limiting the growth of Sitka spruce and western hemlock and becoming more favorable for smaller boreal species (white spruce and hardwoods) as one moves westward across the forest.

For the forest overall, the mean storage of 69,800 lbs per acre (= 78.2 Mg/ha) in live tree carbon density is less than the 94.2 Mg/ha estimated for Chugach National Forest by Heath et al. (2011). The 84,800 lbs per acre (= 95.0 Mg/ha) in aboveground tree carbon is split as 82 percent live trees, 7 percent in snags, and 11 percent in logs (table 16). The carbon in unmeasured pools (forest floor, understory vegetation, soil organic carbon, and roots) could exceed the aboveground tree carbon.

Figure 5—The three landscape areas (Copper River, Kenai Peninsula, and Prince William Sound) within the Chugach National Forest.

Table 16—Carbon pools and flux for three Chugach landscapes

Note: Does not include trees \leq 5 in diameter at breast height.

a Based on data from remeasurement plots only.

b Based on data collected from 1999 to 2003.

SE = Standard error.

Tongass National Forest

Including its wilderness area, aboveground live and snag carbon on the Tongass National Forest is estimated to be 601 (± 21) million tons on an estimated 9.715 million ac of forest. Some 233 million tons (39 percent) of this carbon is on land that is legally excluded from timber harvesting, such as formally designated wilderness. Using the remeasurement database, an estimated 448,000 ac of forest fell into the "managed" category (i.e., had some previous silvicultural activity).

Excluding inaccessible wilderness, the estimated amount of carbon stored in western hemlock trees is more than double that of any other species (table 17). Other species accounting for substantial amounts of carbon are Sitka spruce, yellow-cedar, mountain hemlock, and western redcedar. Sitka spruce and cottonwood forest types have a relatively small amount of tree carbon in snags, only 6 percent of total tree carbon mass, while western redcedar, lodgepole (shore) pine, and yellow-cedar forest types have a relatively large proportion of carbon in snags,

Table 17—Carbon mass in live trees and snags by species on the Tongass National Forest

Note: Data are from all 2004–2010 plots; inaccessible wilderness areas are not included. SE = Standard error.

at 20, 17, and 17 percent, respectively (table 18). On a per-acre basis, the western hemlock and Sitka spruce forest types have the highest amount of carbon (table 19).

Changes Between Inventories

Change in live tree carbon by species—

There was no significant change in live tree carbon mass overall between the two inventories (table 20), and there was no significant change when looked at separately as unmanaged land (table 21) or managed land (table 22). There was a significant increase of red alder live tree carbon mass on both managed and unmanaged lands. On unmanaged lands, western redcedar live tree carbon mass had a significant increase, estimated as a 6.6-percent increase from the first inventory. On managed lands, there was also a marginally significant increase in Sitka spruce live tree carbon mass (table 22) and a significant decrease in yellow-cedar live tree carbon mass. Annual rates of change are shown in table 23.

Change in live tree carbon by forest type—

Carbon flux attributable to growth and recruitment of live trees is 690 lbs per acre per year on managed lands and 1,608 lbs per acre per year on unmanaged lands. In general, in unmanaged forest, forest types with high carbon flux in growth and

Table 18—Carbon mass in live trees and snags by forest type within the Tongass National Forest

Note: Data are from all 2004–2010 plots; inaccessible wilderness areas are not included.

SE = Standard error.

Note: Data are from all 2004–2010 plots; inaccessible wilderness areas not included.

 a Indicates that net change is significantly different using a 95-percent confidence interval. *a* Indicates that net change is significantly different using a 95-percent confidence interval.

 $\text{SE} = \text{Standard error}.$ SE = Standard error.

Note: Based on remeasured plots only and includes only trees > 5 in diameter at breast height; unmanaged land indicates no recorded
silvicultural activity. Note: Based on remeasured plots only and includes only trees > 5 in diameter at breast height; unmanaged land indicates no recorded silvicultural activity.

" Indicates that net change is significantly different from zero using a 95-percent confidence interval. *a* Indicates that net change is significantly different from zero using a 95-percent confidence interval.

Table 22—Change in carbon mass (million tons) in live trees by species on managed lands from the first inventory (1995–2000) to
the second inventory (2004–2010), Tongass National Forest

 $\overline{1}$

Note: Data are based on remeasured plots only and include only trees ≥ 5 in diameter at breast height; managed land indicates recorded silvicultural Note: Data are based on remeasured plots only and include only trees ≥ 5 in diameter at breast height; managed land indicates recorded silvicultural
activity.

a Indicates that net change is significantly different from zero using a 95-percent confidence interval. *a* Indicates that net change is significantly different from zero using a 95-percent confidence interval.

 $SE = Standard error$. SE = Standard error.

Table 23—Annual live tree carbon mass change by species and management class, Tongass National Forest, Alaska

Note: Data are based on remeasurement plots only and do not include trees < 5 in diameter at breast height.

SE = Standard error.

recruitment also had high carbon flux out of the live tree carbon pool into snag and log pools. In both management classes, the Sitka spruce forest type has the highest rate of growth and recruitment, estimated at about 1,909 lbs of carbon mass per acre per year overall, followed by the western hemlock forest type, with growth and recruitment at about 993 lbs of carbon mass per acre per year (table 24). Across all lands, annual per-acre flux out of the live tree carbon pools is 88.5 percent mortality and 11.5 percent harvest. On managed lands, carbon flux out of the live tree pool is 21.8 percent mortality and 78.2 percent harvest.

On managed lands in the Tongass National Forest, there was a significant decrease of live tree carbon mass for the yellow-cedar forest type, and a significant increase for the red alder forest type (table 25). On unmanaged lands (table 25), there were significant increases of live tree carbon within the cottonwood and western redcedar forest types. Overall on the Tongass, live tree carbon increased in the cottonwood, red alder, and western redcedar forest types, and no forest type had a significant decrease.

Change in carbon in the snag pool—

Overall, the turnover in the snag carbon pool on the Tongass National Forest is about 2 percent per year, with no significant difference between inputs into the

Table 24—Average annual rates of flux in the live tree carbon pool by forest type and management class, Tongass National Forest

Note: Data for this table are from remeasured plots only and do not include trees < 5 in diameter at breast height.

SE = Standard error.

Table 25—Per-acre net annual live tree carbon change by forest type, Tongass National Forest

Note: Where the standard error is zero, it indicates that only one plot had a stand that fell into this category. Boldface type indicates a change that was significantly different from zero using a 95-percent confidence interval.

Note: Estimates are calculated from remeasured plots only and include only trees ≥ 5 in diameter at breast height.

SE = Standard error.

snag carbon pool (snag recruitment) and outputs from the snag carbon pool (fragmentation, falldown, and salvage). The decay-resistant species of yellow-cedar and western redcedar have lower turnover rates, of roughly 1 percent per year, than do other species (table 26). Salvage of snags is generally incidental to clearcutting, and accounts for only a small proportion (about 2 percent) of flux out of the snag carbon pool. About half of the carbon stored in snags is western hemlock, which had a small (less than 1 percent) but significant decrease (table 26). Lodgepole (shore) pine had a small (1.6 percent) but significant increase of carbon in the snag pool (table 26).

Estimates of flux into and out of the snag pool differed widely among the different forest types (table 27). On a per-acre basis, unmanaged forest had influx into the snag pool that was roughly three times larger than that of managed forest, and outflux from the snag pool was roughly the same. Loss of snags on managed lands was estimated to be about three times snag recruitment, for a net decrease in the snag pool estimated as $239 \ (\pm \ 149)$ lbs per acre per year.

The reliability of estimates for changes in the snag pool was affected by two data issues. The second inventory used a less inclusive definition for snags, by changing the lean angle used to define snags from 15 to 45 degrees from horizontal.

Table 26-Annual rates of change in snag carbon by species, 1995-2000 to 2004-2012, Tongass National Forest

Note: Data are based on remeasurement plots only and do not include trees <5 in diameter at breast height. Note: Data are based on remeasurement plots only and do not include trees < 5 in diameter at breast height.

" Snag fragmentation includes the loss of mass from shrinkage (smaller diameter and heights) but not the loss of mass from a change in decay class. *a* Snag fragmentation includes the loss of mass from shrinkage (smaller diameter and heights) but not the loss of mass from a change in decay class.

 b Indicates that net change is significantly different using a 95-percent confidence interval. *b* Indicates that net change is significantly different using a 95-percent confidence interval.

Table 27—Annual per-acre change in snag carbon by forest type and management class, Tongass National Forest

Note: Data are based on remeasurement plots only, 1995–2000 and 2004–2010.

^aSnag fragmentation includes the loss of mass from shrinkage (smaller diameter and heights) but not the loss of mass from a change in decay class.

SE = Standard error.

Although these instances should have been coded as procedural changes, which were corrected during analysis, it is possible that some instances were coded identically as snag falldown, leading to overestimates of falldown. The other data issue was that a procedural change for estimating decay class made it impossible to include the decrease in density that occurs as snags age, which would lead to underestimate of snag decay. The missing decay component can be even greater than the volume loss from snag fragmentation for some species and decay classes (Harmon et al. 2000). Although estimates for snag losses are presented here despite these uncertainties, because the estimates are still the best available information, caution should be exercised in use of either the two components of snag carbon loss shown, or the resulting net change in snag carbon.

Change in carbon in the log pool—

Roughly 7 percent of aboveground carbon in unmanaged stands of the Tongass National Forest is stored in the log (DWD) pool. On managed forest, about 37 percent of carbon is in the log pool. The higher volume of carbon in logs is found in the western hemlock, Sitka spruce, and western redcedar forest types, and lower volume in the yellow-cedar, cottonwood, lodgepole (shore) pine, and mountain hemlock forest types (table 28). The red alder forest type also had a high carbon density in the log pool (table 28); this corresponds well with the role of red alder as a pioneering species that establishes after disturbance.

No remeasurement data is available for the log pool. We can make a rough estimate of influx into the log pool on unmanaged lands as:

 $(mortality - snag recruitment) + snag falldown [low estimate]$

which is $(619 - 354) + 128 = 393$ lbs per acre per year. This will be an underestimate, as some of the input into the log pool comes from breakage of live trees (an unknown rate), and some input into the log pool comes from snag fragmentation. A higher estimate would be to assume that all of snag falldown and fragmentation goes into the log pool:

 $(mortality - snag recruitment) + snag falldown + snag fragmentation$ [high estimate]

which is $(619 - 354) + 128 + 223 = 616$ lbs per acre per year. This range $(393-616)$ lbs per acre per year) would give us a rough estimate of annual inputs into the log pool of 3.8 to 6.0 percent per year, which would provide turnover rates if the log pool were in equilibrium. Decomposition rates of spruce on the Kenai Peninsula of

Table 28—Carbon mass in downed logs by forest type and management class, Tongass National Forest

Note: Uses plot measurements from 1995 to 2003.

 $SE = Standard error$.

about 1.9 percent per year (Harmon et al. 2005) suggest that the log pool on unmanaged lands might be increasing; better monitoring information for logs would improve the ability to track forest carbon over time. The log pool on managed lands is unlikely to be in equilibrium, given the temporal variation in harvesting.

Combined live tree, snag, and log pools—

Overall, gross flux (growth + recruitment) from the atmosphere to live trees in the Tongass National Forest is estimated at about 760 lbs per acre per year (table 29). Growth is mostly balanced by mortality and harvest, so that net flux (based on increases in the live tree pool) from the atmosphere to the forest is estimated at 91 (standard error = 97) lbs per acre per year, reduced by an estimated slight decrease in the snag pool of 15 (standard error $=$ 45) lbs per acre per year. This estimated net sequestration rate is not significantly different from zero, and also does not include any changes in the log pool. There may be some additional sequestration occurring because the combined harvest and salvage (85 lbs per acre per year) would have some portion that became durable wood products.

Aboveground tree carbon on the Tongass National Forest is 79.3 percent in the live tree pool, 12.4 percent in the snag pool, and 8.3 percent in the log pool (table 29). Turnover in the live tree carbon pool is about 0.6 percent per year, turnover of the snag carbon pool is about 2.9 percent per year, and the approximated turnover in the log pool, assuming equilibrium, is 3.8 to 6.0 percent per year.

Table 29—Carbon pools and flux for aboveground trees in the Tongass National Forest

^a Uses remeasurement plots and initial (1995–2003) data. To keep flux and pools in correct proportions, does not include trees < 5 in diameter at breast height.

^b Snag fragmentation includes the loss of mass from shrinkage (smaller diameter and heights) but not the loss of mass from a change in decay class.

SE = Standard error.

Discussion

A number of carbon pools and fluxes were not included in this report: (1) carbon in nonforested lands, which includes alpine environments, wetlands, grasslands, and shrublands; (2) below-ground carbon, including roots, soils, and organic materials; (3) carbon in nontree vegetation and litter within forest; (4) carbon in a few pools currently not measured by FIA, which includes stumps below 4.5 feet and dead saplings; and (5) (with the exception of tables 4 and 6) carbon in forest lands in inaccessible wilderness. The missing carbon in the belowground pools could be as large as the aboveground stores.

The overall carbon mass stored in just aboveground trees, snags, and logs in the Tongass National Forest is huge. Using the per-acre values by forest types, and extrapolating to include the uninventoried wilderness areas, provides a rough estimate of about 650 million tons in aboveground tree carbon, equivalent to 2.4 billion tons of $CO₂$.

Carbon storage and flux are very different between managed and unmanaged forests. Harvesting on the Tongass was very low before 1955, peaked in the early 1970s at more than 500 million board feet (MMBF) per year, and then dropped over time to current rates at less than 100 MMBF per year (Brackley 2009). On managed lands, this results in an age class structure with a large cohort of stands 30 to 50 years old, very few stands older than 60 years, and relatively few stands under 20 years of age. The cohort of stands 30 to 50 years old are contributing to a nominal (not statistically significant) net increase of carbon in live trees, but they probably have several decades to go before reaching a point of maximum mean annual increment. For instance, Taylor (1934) estimated that the maximum mean annual increment occurs at around 70 years. In contrast to what is happening on the Tongass, privately owned managed forest in southeast Alaska is showing a statistically significant decrease in carbon mass in live trees, a consequence of harvesting that peaked in the 1990s (resulting in a relatively younger stand distribution for second-growth) and current harvesting levels that are above that of the Tongass.

Some species shifts occurred when old-growth forest was converted to second growth; the data reflects this by the observed net decrease in yellow-cedar and net increase in Sitka spruce on managed lands, as well as by the higher proportion of carbon mass in Sitka spruce observed on managed lands (35 percent) relative to unmanaged lands (20 percent). Managed lands had almost triple the density of carbon mass in logs compared to unmanaged lands, but less than half the snag density and live tree density. Carbon flux among pools is also substantially different, with much higher growth and recruitment and lower mortality in managed stands.

The Tongass National Forest is unique within the National Forest System in the large amount of old growth outside of wilderness, and unique in the proportion of harvesting that has occurred in old growth rather than second growth during recent decades. Harvesting of old growth creates an initial net release of CO_2 into the atmosphere relative to leaving stands unmanaged, which can continue for years as logs and snags left after harvest decompose (Harmon et al. 1990). Some of the carbon from harvest is stored in wood products, with transmission back into the atmosphere over time. Because harvest levels peaked in the 1970s, and much of the resulting wood products would now be in landfills, wood products from the Alaska region are now believed to be a net emitter of carbon (Loeffler et al. 2012). Theoretically, at some point in the future, the managed second-growth stands that follow harvest could result in a greater net sequestration of carbon than leaving stands unmanaged, but the relatively low growth rates of most stands in the Tongass and

the relatively high amount of dead wood left after harvest would reduce this potential. Although there is a substantial amount of recent literature about the effects of forest management on carbon stores, different authors have reached widely different conclusions about net sequestration because of different assumptions about the timeframe of interest, initial volume, postharvest residuals, decay rates, the amount of energy expended in harvest and transport, utilization rates, lifespan of wood products, future growth rates of second-growth stands, temporal discounting, and substitution effects.

Including consideration of carbon sequestration into management of existing second growth is likely to be less controversial. Possible management actions to increase carbon sequestration for these situations could include altering rotation age (for even-age stands) or structural composition (for uneven-age stands) or increasing utilization of woody material from harvest sites. Although the carbon estimates made in this report provide information about overall carbon storage and flux in the Tongass National Forest, providing specific management recommendations for second growth would benefit from additional inventory in second-growth.

Several other sets of estimates for carbon in the Tongass National Forest have been published. Some of the data used in this report, specifically the 1995–1999 data, was used in Leighty et al. (2006), in their paper "Effects of Management on Carbon Sequestration in Forest Biomass in Southeast Alaska." The log data used in that paper had a systematic error that resulted in overestimates of carbon in logs; those errors have been corrected in this report. In addition, this report uses standard national FIA methods for statistical estimation, which differ substantially from the map-based approach used by Leighty et al. (2006), and this report uses measured data for flux rather than modeled approximations.

The live tree density reported here, of 53.3 tons per acre on average (table 19) for the nonwilderness areas, is equivalent to 119.3 Mg/ha. This is very similar to the 123 Mg/ha reported by Heath et al. (2012) for the Tongass National Forest overall, particularly considering the difference in methods of calculation. Estimates in this report will also differ somewhat from those published in Barrett and Christensen (2011) owing to the addition of data from 2009 to 2010 and improved estimates for snags. That report also found a significant decrease in lodgepole (shore) pine; data from 2009 to 2010 had relatively little mortality in lodgepole (shore) pine, so that while there is still a nominal decrease in lodgepole (shore) pine of 3 percent (tables 21 and 23) it is no longer significant at the 90-percent CI. However, there was a significant increase in lodgepole (shore) pine snag carbon (table 26), providing indirect evidence of higher than normal mortality for this species.

Conclusion

The Tongass National Forest stores substantially more forest carbon than any other national forest in the United States, with an approximated estimate of 650 million tons of carbon in live trees, snags, and logs. Both managed and unmanaged forest shows nominal net annual increases in live tree carbon (of 0.68 and 0.06 percent, respectively) that were not significantly different from zero. However, changes in species composition have been occurring. On unmanaged lands, there were increases in western redcedar and red alder. On managed lands, there were increases in red alder and Sitka spruce, and a decrease in yellow-cedar.

This report provides the first estimates of annual flux and turnover rates in live tree and snag carbon pools in Alaska based on remeasured data. Overall, live trees in the Tongass National Forest remove about 2,787 lbs of atmospheric CO_2 per acre per year through growth and recruitment, which is largely (estimated 90 percent) balanced by $CO₂$ returning to the atmosphere from mortality and harvest, assuming eventual decay of those trees. Carbon storage and flux differed substantially between managed and unmanaged lands, and by forest type.

Although the Chugach National Forest stores less carbon in aboveground trees than the Tongass National Forest, it also is exhibiting greater change in carbon stores. The Chugach's location on a very major ecoregional transitional zone (boreal forests to the north, shrubland to the west and southwest on the Alaskan Peninsula, and temperate rainforest to the east and south) may make it much more vulnerable to large disturbances and climatic shifts.

Common and Scientific Names

⁴ Alaska paper birch, Kenai paper birch, and western paper birch are not recorded as different species by FIA and are included together as "paper birch" in this report.

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Metric Equivalents

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