

1 Determining constraints on the carbon budget during deglaciation  
2 with a new method of carbon isotope data analysis

3 Alice Nadeau\*, Clarence Lehman†, Richard McGehee ‡ and Eville Gorham§

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6 cores; Peatlands

7 **Abstract**

8 Recent data sets reveal the history of atmospheric carbon from the last glacial maximum  
9 (24kyBP) to the present — both total carbon and isotopic ratios. The question arises, what were  
10 the dynamical rates of transfer in and out of the atmosphere from the many possible sources  
11 and sinks, both biological and physical, and what known sources and sinks can be incorporated  
12 that put further constraints on the global carbon budget? Here we analyze the dynamics and  
13 incorporate one known large sink into the analysis — the ongoing growth of peatlands — re-  
14 vealing evidence for a large global source of biological carbon during deglaciation. We introduce  
15 a new analytical technique that will allow other sources and sinks to be incorporated, as they  
16 become known. Understanding the dynamics of carbon during the long-term changes occurring  
17 in glacial times can become part of the foundation for understanding the even larger changes  
18 occurring today.

19 **1 Introduction**

20 Recent understanding of the composition of carbon isotopes in the atmosphere has advanced our  
21 understanding of the progression of the carbon budget since the last glacial maximum [9, 26].

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\*Corresponding Author: nadea093@umn.edu; School of Mathematics, University of Minnesota

†Department of Ecology, Evolution, and Behavior, University of Minnesota

‡School of Mathematics University of Minnesota

§Department of Ecology, Evolution, and Behavior, University of Minnesota

22 Different physical, biological, and chemical processes favor one carbon isotope over the other, which  
23 can help identify possible carbon sources and sinks based on their isotopic signatures.

24 Isotopic signatures are commonly measured by  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , measured permil (one-tenth of a percent,  
25 denoted ‰), normalized by a standard, and designed to accentuate small differences between sam-  
26 ples (Supplementary Materials, Equation A1). The standard comes from fossilized *Belemnitella*  
27 *americana*, which has anomalously high carbon-13 content, in contrast with many direct biological  
28 pools. Most biological matter has a large negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value because plants discriminate in favor  
29 of the lighter carbon-12 during photosynthesis. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature of plants ranges from about  
30  $-11\text{‰}$  to  $-33\text{‰}$ , depending on the type of photosynthesis employed by the plant [11]. Conversely,  
31 physical processes such as the formation of calcium carbonate or volcanic release tend to leave  
32 samples with a  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature closer to the standard (i.e. nearer  $0\text{‰}$ ). With this isotope informa-  
33 tion in mind, we have sought to understand the forces that affected the carbon budget during the  
34 Holocene.

35 Details of the carbon budget can be complex, varying with the kind of source or sink and with  
36 physical and temporal conditions. A growing biome, for example, will absorb carbon from the  
37 air during photosynthesis at one  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ratio, respire carbon back into the air at a different ratio,  
38 and incorporate carbon into its tissues at a third ratio. When a component of the biome dies,  
39 decomposition will leave a fourth ratio of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in the biomass residue and will emit a fifth ratio  
40 into the atmosphere resulting from the decomposition (Figure 1).

41 Fortunately, for long-term effects on the atmosphere, it is only the net value of all these flows  
42 that is relevant. In the growth of a new forest following deglaciation, for example, carbon from  
43 the air will be incorporated into plant tissues above and below ground, with living total biomass  
44 saturating as the forest matures. However, carbon may continue to build up in residues for many  
45 millennia, as is the case for lake sediments and peatlands [13, 15, 18], and possibly northern forest  
46 soils. Rates of formation of cumulative residue must be accounted for as part of the long-term  
47 record, but not the individual transient fluxes, nor the total living biomass of the system once it  
48 equilibrates. As it equilibrates, its rate of change becomes zero.

49 Schmitt et al. published the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature of the atmosphere for the past 24,000 years [26].  
50 Their work produced a high-resolution  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  history for the atmosphere which showed that the  
51  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature remained relatively constant for much of the 24,000 year record [26]. Eggleston

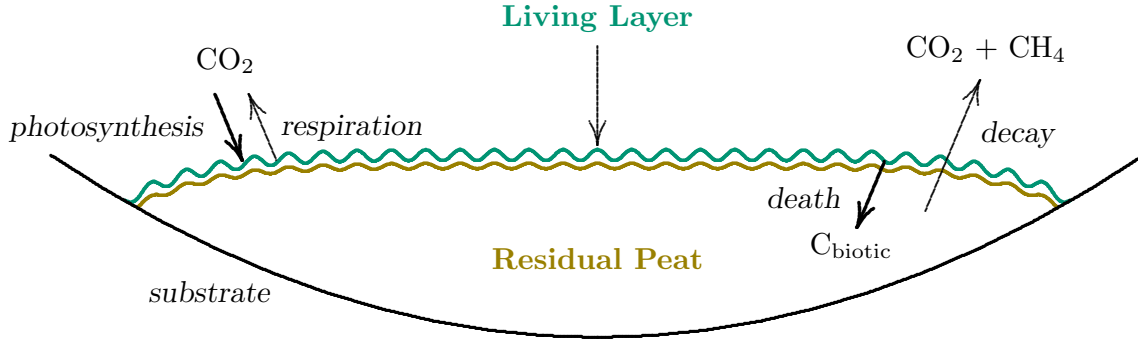


Figure 1: **Carbon circulation in a peatland.** Carbon is captured from the atmosphere in a thin living layer of photosynthetic tissue of sphagnum hummocks and hollows (green). Some of the captured carbon is respired back to the atmosphere and the rest is incorporated into the peatland, resulting from death at the lower fringe of the living layer (brown). Some carbon is released from the entire peat layer as carbon dioxide and methane at rates as indicated in [8] among others. The remainder accumulates over millennia, until disturbed by glacial or other forces.

52 et al. provide the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signature of the atmosphere for the past 120,000 years [9, 10] with slight  
 53 adjustments to the past 24,000 years originally published by Schmitt et al. [26].

54 Over much of the past 24,000 years, the range of atmospheric  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is from  $-6.5\text{‰}$  to  $-6.3\text{‰}$ ,  
 55 but dropped sharply to  $-6.7\text{‰}$  in a particular ‘W’ shape beginning around 17,000 years ago and  
 56 ending 9,000 years ago. (Figure 4A, dotted blue curve). This drop corresponds to a period when  
 57 the amount of carbon in the atmosphere was increasing substantially—from about 190 to 260  
 58 ppmv (Figure 4A, black dots/red curve). Thus the isotopic signature of the carbon entering the  
 59 atmosphere during this period was not in dynamic equilibrium with the carbon already in the  
 60 atmosphere, pointing to new net biological or physical sinks or sources, possibly related to glacial  
 61 retreat. A better understanding of the substantial increase in carbon from 17,000 years ago may  
 62 come from examining the carbon isotope signature of flows in and out of the atmosphere, leading  
 63 to a better understanding of the carbon budget during the Holocene and today.

64 The increase in total carbon in the atmosphere since the last glacial maximum is often attributed  
 65 largely to deep ocean upwelling (see discussion in [26]). Schmitt et al. consider how much upwelling,  
 66 which is constrained to the falling edges of the ‘W’ parts of their data, can be explained by the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
 67 data. They determine that upwelling occurred from 17,000 to 15,000 years ago and from 13,000 to  
 68 11,500 years ago [26]. In Figure 4A, we present revised data from Eggelston et al. which shows  
 69 apparent upwelling from 18,000 to 16,000 years ago and from 14,000 to 12,500 years ago [9, 10].

70 Schmitt et al. point out that the rising edges of the ‘W’ could be due to the growth of the terrestrial  
71 biosphere after the glaciers retreated, with plant growth favoring carbon-12 and thereby leaving a  
72 relative surplus of carbon-13 in the atmosphere, hence correspondingly higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  measurements.

73 In this paper we describe a method to examine the predominant behavior of abiotic and biotic  
74 pools of carbon during the Holocene. The mathematical background, algorithm, and associated  
75 computer code are detailed in the Supplementary Material. We applied this algorithm to analyze  
76 the rate at which each carbon isotope was changing in the atmosphere and determine the simplest  
77 explanation for that change. We also incorporated data on the carbon sequestration of North  
78 American peatlands in an effort to understand how the carbon budget was affected by the regrowth  
79 of part of the North American terrestrial biosphere after glacial retreat. We present the results of  
80 two representative test cases in the body of the text below. The other test cases are presented in  
81 Appendix A.

## 82 **2 Methods**

83 The algorithm examines whether changes in the atmosphere between two successive times appears  
84 to be predominantly biotic or abiotic, or a mixture of the two (Figure 2). Biotic contributions  
85 are those that are relatively light in carbon-13 and abiotic are those that are relatively heavy. If  
86 the carbon  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ratio of carbon entering or leaving the atmosphere in a time period is contained  
87 completely within either the biotic range or the abiotic range, the algorithm attributes that change  
88 to be completely biotic or abiotic, respectively. If it falls outside the biotic and abiotic ranges  
89 or between the ranges, the change in carbon is taken to be a mixture of biotic and abiotic, with  
90 the mixture chosen to minimize the total flow of carbon in or out of the atmosphere. (Details in  
91 Supplementary Material.)

92 Schmitt et al. [26] proposed the regrowth of the terrestrial biosphere as a predominant mecha-  
93 nism driving the change in atmospheric carbon isotopes from 11,500 years ago to 6,500 years ago.  
94 Because northern peatlands are a considerable part of the terrestrial biosphere and information is  
95 available on their growth following glacial retreat ([13–15]), we used data for carbon sequestration  
96 in North American peatlands as a starting point. Carbon sequestered in other pools such as lake  
97 sediments and northern forests can be handled similarly.

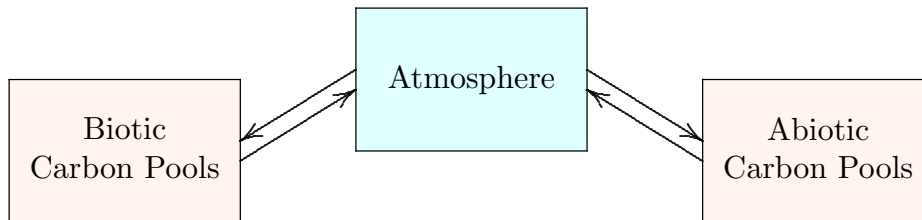


Figure 2: **Visual schematic of the algorithm.** The algorithm in the Supplementary Material determines the minimum amounts of biotic and abiotic carbon needed to explain observed changes of atmospheric carbon. For each time interval, the biotic and abiotic pools can emit carbon to or sequester carbon from the atmosphere. See the Supplementary Material for the details of the algorithm.

98 Schmitt et al.’s data appear in the form of total carbon dioxide (units of ppmv, parts per million  
 99 by volume) and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  content (units of permil), which we converted to total mass of carbon-12 and  
 100 of carbon-13 in the atmosphere, scaling by 2.212 Pg C/ppmv [5]. Yearly time series for total carbon  
 101 and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  were then obtained by fitting a cubic smoothing spline [22] to the results and evaluating  
 102 individual points along the spline.

103 We ran the algorithm on nine different parameter sets over the time series to examine various  
 104 possibilities for flow in and out of biotic and abiotic carbon pools, using various combinations of  
 105 parameters defining those pools. We then did the same thing after accounting for carbon associated  
 106 with the regrowth of North American peatlands during the time [15] (Figure 3), using a charac-  
 107 teristic  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  content for peatlands, to determine how much carbon remained unaccounted for from  
 108 other components of the biosphere.

109 That resulted in eighteen different numerical test cases which are presented in Figures 5 and 6  
 110 (see Appendix A). The test cases explored the dependence of the results on the ranges of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
 111 signatures for our abiotic and biotic pools. Since our results were qualitatively robust to realistic  
 112 ranges, we present two representative results in the following section.

### 113 3 Results

114 A representative result from the nine test cases that do not take northern peatlands into account  
 115 appears in Figure 4B and a representative of the nine cases which account for peatlands appears  
 116 in Figure 4C. The horizontal axis is time relative to present and the vertical axis is the estimated

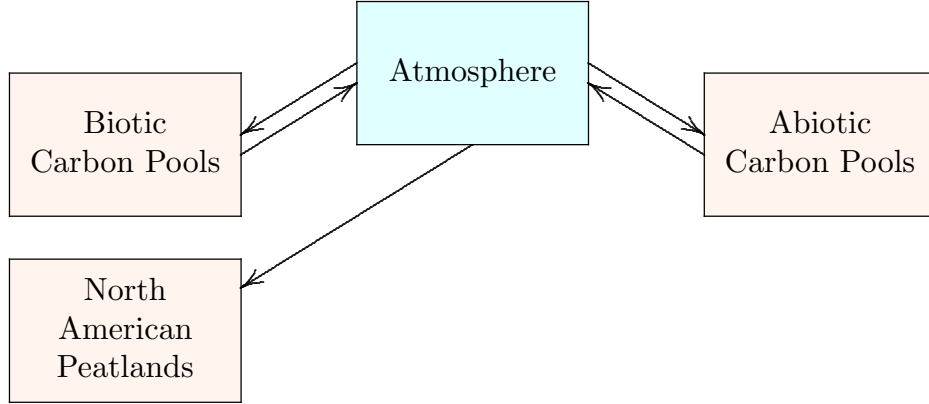


Figure 3: **Visual schematic of algorithm which incorporates peatland growth.** Same as Figure 2 except that the net sequestration of carbon into North American peatlands is explicitly accounted for. For this case, the algorithm computes the minimum amounts of biotic and abiotic carbon needed to explain both changes in the atmosphere and carbon sequestered in the peatlands. For the details of the algorithm, see the Supplementary Material.

117 contribution to the atmosphere from abiotic pools (orange) and biotic pools (green). Positive on  
 118 the vertical axis represents a source—a flow from a carbon pool into the atmosphere, and negative  
 119 on the vertical axis represents a sink, a flow from the atmosphere to a carbon pool.

120 Figures 4B and 4C represent test case 1-2 (see Appendix A for description of test case num-  
 121 bering), covering the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  range of both C3 and C4 photosynthesis. In Figure 4B, biotic transfers  
 122 of carbon (green) are minor compared with abiotic transfers. There is a signature of a biotic sink  
 123 from about 10,000 years ago to about 7,000 years ago, where the biotic curve (green) falls negative,  
 124 in agreement with Schmitt et al.’s analysis of their work [26].

125 Adding in all biotic sinks should cancel the negative biotic signature, rendering the biotic curve  
 126 (green) approximately level across its range. One such biotic sink is North American peatlands.  
 127 Gorham et al [15] found that those peatlands started storing carbon at a small rate beginning  
 128 about 15,000 years ago and increased on a sigmoidal path to nearly 20 PgC/kyr by about 4000  
 129 years ago, then declined slightly in rate since. That alone resulted in a biotic sink of over 150 PgC  
 130 since deglaciation.

131 High resolution  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data over time are not available for peatlands as a whole, though studies  
 132 of individual peatlands have been conducted [3, 4, 7, 19, 27, 30, 31]. Peatland  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values range  
 133 from  $-32\%$  to  $-16\%$ , with variations predominantly attributed to seasonal weather patterns or

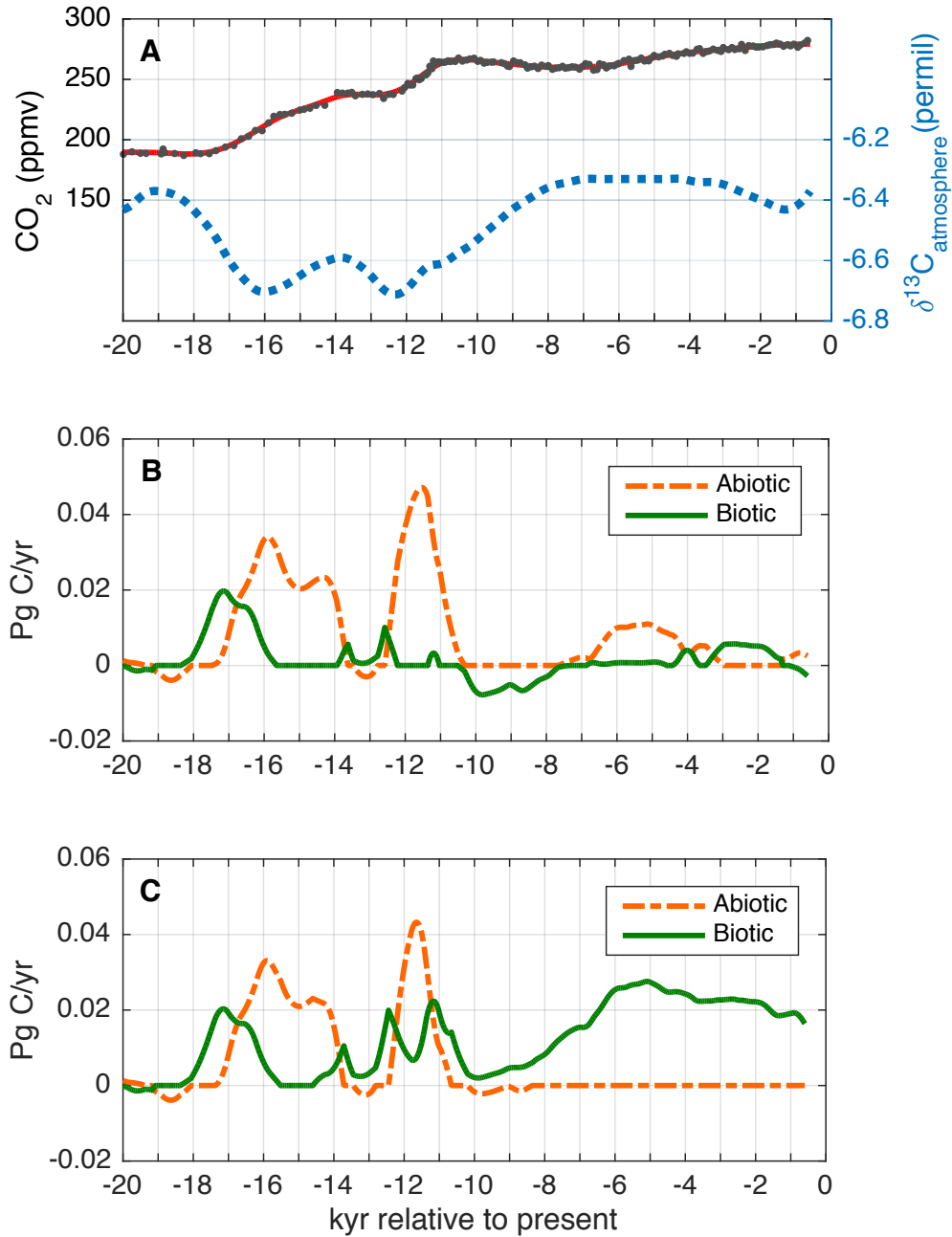


Figure 4: **Results of this study.** A: Observed atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (black dots, [20, 21]), cubic spline (solid red curve, this study), and δ<sup>13</sup>C ratios (dashed blue line, [9, 10]) for the past twenty thousand years. B: The yearly contributions from the biotic (solid green line) and abiotic (dot-dash orange line) pools after analyzing only atmospheric carbon data with a biotic range of -33‰ to -11‰ and an abiotic range of -6‰ to 6‰. Positive values indicate emission from the pool to the atmosphere and negative values indicate sequestration from the atmosphere into the pool. C: The yearly contributions from the biotic (solid green line) and abiotic (dot-dash orange line) pools after analyzing atmospheric carbon data and peatland sequestration data with biotic and abiotic ranges the same as the middle figure.

134 predominant plant type of the peatland [3, 4, 7, 19, 27, 30, 31]. Therefore we assume the average  
135 value of the available data for the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  content of the net carbon sequestered in peatlands, which  
136 is  $-25\%$ . That value, coupled with the time-varying rate of peatland sequestration, gives total  
137 carbon-12 and carbon-13 in peatlands during each time interval, following the methods in the  
138 Supplementary Material. Note that to account for the peatland growth in the atmospheric data,  
139 the totals for carbon-12 and carbon-13 must be added to the atmosphere, not subtracted, as may  
140 be initially thought. Carbon in the peatland sink was in the atmosphere before it was sequestered,  
141 so the change must be accounted for in the atmosphere as well in the peatlands.

142 The results incorporating North American peatlands appear in Figure 4C. After accounting for  
143 peatland growth, a net biotic source is indicated starting about 11,000 years ago.

## 144 4 Discussion

145 Any collection of sinks or sources can be analyzed if their isotopic contents and net rates of emission  
146 or sequestration are known. Following the methods described here and in the Supplementary  
147 Materials, one needs only to compute the amounts of carbon-12 and carbon-13 emitted by the  
148 source or sequestered in the sink, then subtract or add these values to the amounts of carbon-12  
149 and carbon-13 of the atmosphere. Through the process of incorporating sources and sinks in this  
150 way, the predominant processes affecting the Earth's carbon budget can be evaluated. When all  
151 significant sources and sinks have been accounted for, the net contributions from the biotic and  
152 abiotic pools will be zero.

153 There are caveats to this type of analysis. Limitations in the available data and the algorithm  
154 mean that, in some cases, ambiguities can arise where particular differing combinations of carbon  
155 ratios and flows can lead to similar conclusions. However, under physically and biologically rea-  
156 sonable choices of parameter values, situations which minimize flow between the pools and the  
157 atmosphere also preserve the direction of the flow, i.e. sources remain sources and sinks remains  
158 sinks.

159 With that in mind, partitioning the raw data for carbon content of the atmosphere during the  
160 Holocene into components that could have come from unknown biotic and abiotic sources and sinks  
161 indicates a carbon-12 deficiency in the atmosphere starting about 11,000 years ago. That suggests



162 a net biotic sink during deglaciation, hypothesized to be related to the regrowth of the northern  
163 biosphere as the earth warmed and large areas formerly under ice were uncovered [26].

164 Remarkably, however, incorporating one known biotic sink—the regrowth of North American  
165 peatlands—more than accounts for this deficiency. Apparently, from about 11,000 years ago to  
166 present, on balance carbon was flowing out of some unspecified biotic pools instead of into them.

167 What could those biotic pools be? That is for future discovery, perhaps through fieldwork to ac-  
168 quire new or more refined data on isotopic signatures of the various carbon pools, in part following  
169 the ideas presented here, to incorporate other sources and sinks into the analysis, or incorporating  
170 more subtle analyses, such as changes in atmospheric carbon-14 or oxygen concentrations. Potential  
171 candidates for further study may include coastal flooding due to deglaciation [1, 2], the desertifica-  
172 tion of the Sahara [25], carbon uptake by coral reefs [29], or anthropogenic emissions [24], among  
173 others.

174 Finally, it would be interesting to adapt the approach that is central to this analysis to more  
175 complex model situations. Allowing carbon pools to assume a range of values instead of the usual  
176 *a priori* fixed value could shed light on more subtle mechanisms affecting the carbon budget.

## 177 5 Conclusion

178 The main conclusions of this paper are as follows:

- 179 1. We present a method for analysis of atmospheric carbon data that can be extended to carbon  
180 sources and sinks as data become available. The results are robust to physically reasonable  
181 choices of parameter values.
- 182 2. Analysis of atmospheric carbon data using this method confirm earlier results concerning the  
183 data set [26].
- 184 3. Further analysis of North American peatland growth and atmospheric carbon data over the  
185 Holocene indicate a possible large source of biotic carbon starting 11,000 years ago. This  
186 could be verified through independent means or by incorporating more data into the analyses  
187 presented in this paper.

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193 fellowship from the Graduate School at the University of Minnesota.

## 194 **Contributions**

195 AN made all computations and wrote the first draft of the paper. CL refactored the program  
196 which implements the data analysis to the form that appears in the Supplementary Materials. AN  
197 and RM contributed to the development of the mathematical method to account for known and  
198 unknown sources and sinks of carbon. EG motivated the development of the method, initiated the  
199 incorporation of peatlands into the analysis, and created Figure 1. All authors contributed to the  
200 editing of the manuscript. CL and RM acquired funds for the project.

## 201 **Declarations of Interest**

202 None.

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## 274 A Supplementary Figures

275 Below are the results of eighteen different numerical test cases for different ranges for abiotic  
276 (orange, dot-dashed) and biotic (green, solid)  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signatures. We organize these test cases by a  
277 pair of numbers,  $i$ - $j$ , with  $i$  representing biotic values and  $j$  representing abiotic values. Test cases  
278 with  $i = 1$  (top row) have a biotic carbon  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the full range of  $-33\text{‰}$  to  $-11\text{‰}$ , representing  
279 much of the full range of signatures present in biological material [11, 23]. Test cases with  $i = 2$   
280 (middle row) have a biotic carbon  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ranging from  $-16\text{‰}$  to  $-11\text{‰}$ , the typical range for C4  
281 photosynthesis [11, 23], and those with  $i = 3$  (bottom row) have a biotic carbon  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ranging from  
282  $-33\text{‰}$  to  $-24\text{‰}$ , the typical range for C3 photosynthesis [11, 23].

283 Since the dissolved carbon in the surface and deep ocean have isotopic signatures close to the  
284 standard ( $0\text{‰}$ ) [6, 12, 17, 28], test cases for the abiotic pools define ranges close to the standard.  
285 Test cases with  $j = 1$  (left column) have an abiotic carbon  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  range of  $-10\text{‰}$  to  $0\text{‰}$ . Test cases  
286 with  $j = 2$  (middle column) have an abiotic carbon  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  range of  $-6\text{‰}$  to  $6\text{‰}$ , and those with  
287  $j = 3$  (right column) have an abiotic carbon  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  range of  $0\text{‰}$  to  $10\text{‰}$ .

288 Figure 5 shows all  $i$ - $j$  combinations only considering atmospheric carbon data [9, 10]. In all  
289 runs, the biotic pools (green, solid) have two major peaks of emissions around 17,000 and 13,000  
290 years ago and sequester carbon from around 12,000 years ago to about 7,000 years ago. The abiotic  
291 pools (orange, dot-dashed) emit carbon for most of the time series in all runs, sequestering carbon  
292 for short time periods around 19,000 and 13,000 years ago. Runs with a higher range for the abiotic  
293 pools ( $j = 2$  and  $j = 3$ ) have greater contributions from the biotic pools relative to the lower ranges  
294 ( $j = 1$ ), both when the biotic pool is emitting and sequestering carbon. All cases are qualitatively  
295 similar to Case 1-2 which is presented as a representative of this analysis in Figure 4B.

296 Figure 6 shows all  $i$ - $j$  combinations considering both atmospheric carbon data [9, 10] and peat-  
297 land growth [15]. After accounting for the growth of peatlands, all cases show a source of biotic  
298 carbon starting about 12,000 to 10,000 years ago. This new biotic source is accompanied with  
299 either a decrease in the abiotic source during this time period (to either no flow in  $i = 1$  or a sink  
300  $i = 2$ ) or no change in the abiotic source, suggesting that during the period that the peatlands  
301 were growing, there was a source of biotic carbon with similar, if not greater, magnitude to the  
302 peatlands. All cases are qualitatively similar to Case 1-2 which is presented as a representative of

303 this analysis in Figure 4C.

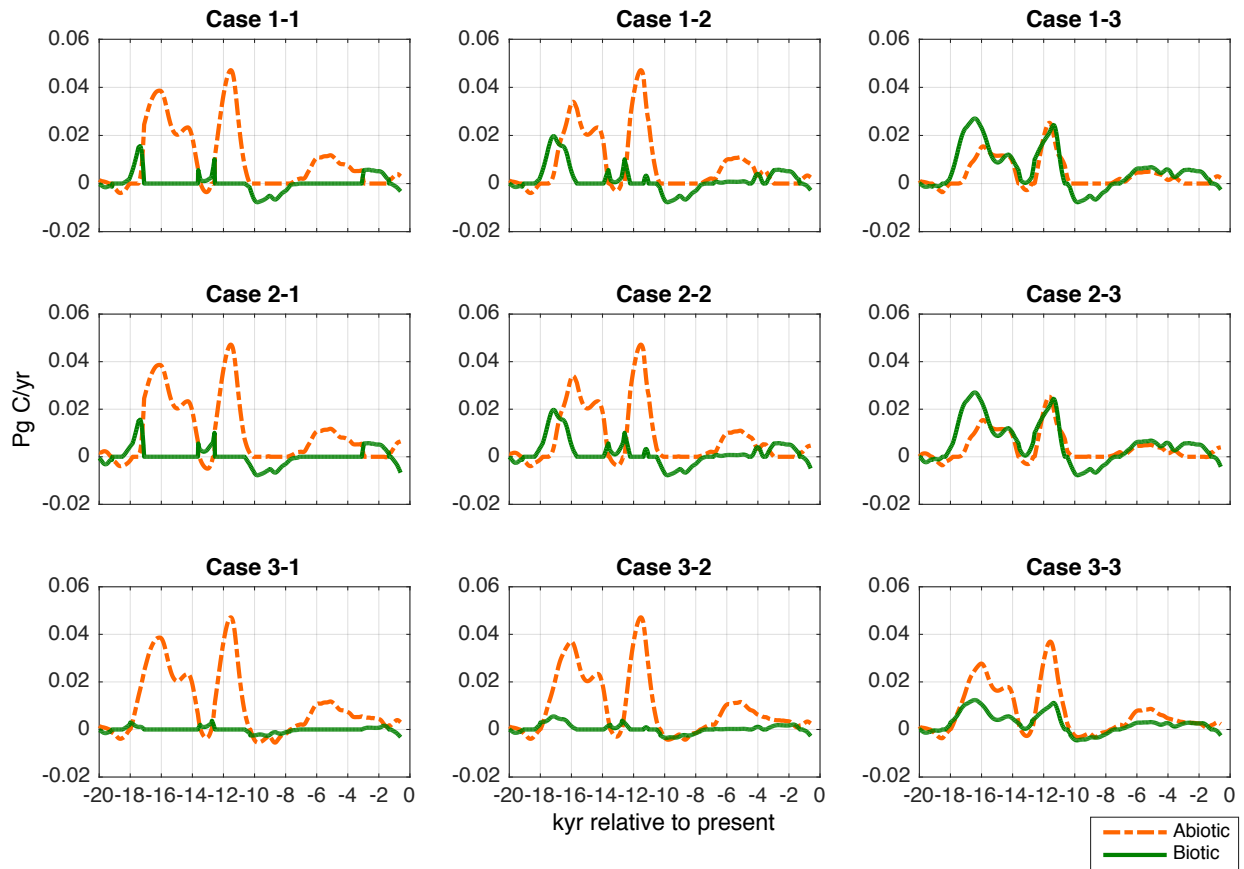


Figure 5: **Test cases of this study.** The yearly contributions from the biotic (solid green line) and abiotic (dot-dash orange line) pools after analyzing the Eggleston et al (2016) atmospheric carbon data [9,10] for nine different parameter combinations. See text for description of numerical labelling for the different cases. Figure 4B is Case 1-2. Positive values indicate a source and negative values indicate a sink of carbon.

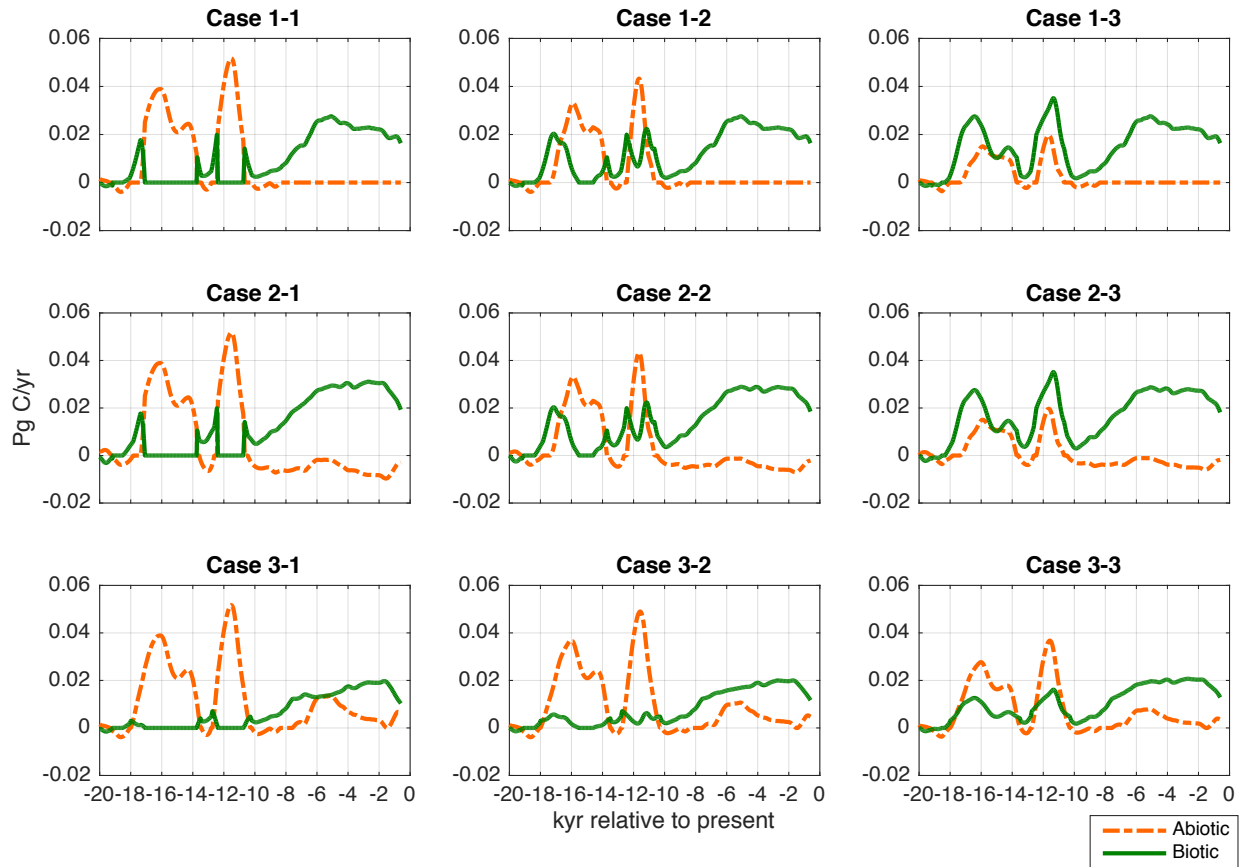


Figure 6: **Test cases which incorporate peatland growth.** The yearly contributions from the biotic (solid green line) and abiotic (dot-dash orange line) pools after analyzing the Eggleston et al (2016) atmospheric carbon data [9, 10] and peatland growth [15] for nine different parameter combinations. See text for description of numerical labelling for the different cases. Figure 4C is Case 1-2. Positive values indicate a source and negative values indicate a sink of carbon.



## APPENDIX: COMPUTER CODE

This appendix carries the computer code to analyse carbon dioxide in the atmosphere and flows in and out of abiotic and biotic carbon pools. It includes background material that may be needed by those working on the code to understand it. It is presented in a form of pseudo-code that is readily translated to specific languages.

### 1. Carbon isotopes

Carbon has three natural isotopes—carbon 12, 13, and 14. The abundance of carbon 12 is about 99% of total carbon, carbon 13 is about 1%, and carbon 14 is negligible. The first two are stable but carbon 14 has a half-life of about 5700 years.

All three forms of carbon are used by living things, but the lighter carbon 12 is taken up in greater proportions during photosynthesis, and the proportion tends to be retained in herbivores and carnivores nearby in the food web. Plants with a C4 photosynthetic pathway incorporate less carbon 12 than those with a C3 pathway. Differences in proportions are slight, however, as follows.

<i>Category</i>	<sup>13</sup> C/C
Marine foraminifera (standard)	1.111%
Volcanic plume (Chiodini et al 2010)	1.110%
Plants with C4 photosynthetic pathway	1.098%
Plants with C3 photosynthetic pathway	1.082%

These small differences are intentionally magnified by measuring the ratio of carbon 13 to carbon 12, relative to a standard, then normalized to 0, and finally expressed in mils. This is called delta-carbon-13,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ .

$$\delta^{13}\text{C} = \left( \frac{\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}}|_{\text{sample}}}{\frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}}|_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) \times 1000 \quad (\text{A1})$$

The standard is a cretaceous marine fossil with a  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  ratio of 0.0112372. That, with the percentages above, leads to the following  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values.

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^{13}\text{C}|_{\text{standard}} &= (0.01111/(1 - 0.01111)/0.0112372 - 1) \times 1000 = 0 \\ \delta^{13}\text{C}|_{\text{volcano}} &= (0.01110/(1 - 0.01110)/0.0112372 - 1) \times 1000 = -1 \\ \delta^{13}\text{C}|_{\text{C4}} &= (0.01098/(1 - 0.01098)/0.0112372 - 1) \times 1000 = -12 \\ \delta^{13}\text{C}|_{\text{C3}} &= (0.01082/(1 - 0.01082)/0.0112372 - 1) \times 1000 = -27 \end{aligned}$$

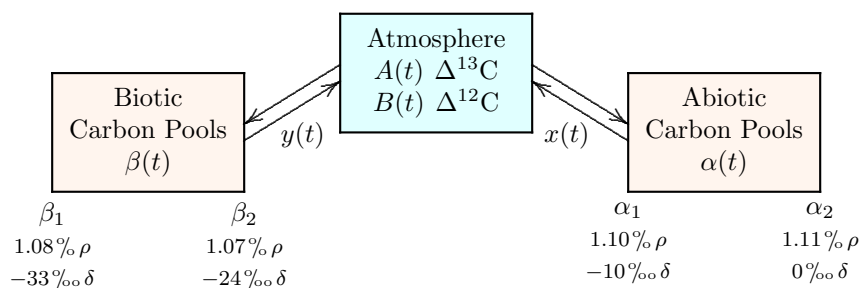
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### 2. Carbon pools

Carbon 12 and 13 concentrations in the atmosphere are averaged monthly at various weather stations around the globe, and are also available in the fossil record. Total carbon in the atmosphere fluctuates, but the ratio of carbon 13 to 12 also fluctuates. Biotic pools contain relatively less carbon 13 than abiotic pools, and that provides a way to estimate flows in and out.

Figure A1 represents the two main carbon pools and the atmosphere. Many sub-pools are involved—terrestrial, oceanic, glacial, and subterranean. Peatlands take part, lake sediments, prairie soils, forest biomass, volcanic plumes, rocks, and more—each with a distinct combination of carbon 12 and 13. The  $^{13}\text{C}/\text{C}$  ratio flowing to or from the abiotic pool at time  $t$  is  $\alpha(t)$  and the corresponding ratio in the biotic pool at time  $t$  is  $\beta(t)$ . These ratios vary as different sub-pools absorb or release carbon.

FIGURE A1



The lowest and highest values for the  $^{13}\text{C}/\text{C}$  ratios representing the set of abiotic pools are  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ , respectively, and the corresponding values for the set of biotic pools are  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$ . These are not functions of time, but they may be varied from run to run to test hypotheses about the pools. Shown below these parameters in Figure A1 are representative values for the ratios as percentages ( $\rho$ ) and as corresponding  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in mils ( $\delta$ ) but the  $\alpha_i$  and  $\beta_i$  are processed in the program simply as ratios, not as percentages or  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  mils.

The increment or decrement of carbon 13 in the atmosphere between times  $t$  and  $t + \Delta t$  is  $A(t)$  and the corresponding value for carbon 12 is  $B(t)$ . These are related to the empirical values reported by the climate stations around the globe, or in the fossil record, and here both are measured in petagrams per time unit.

Finally in Figure A1,  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  represent the total carbon contributed by the set of abiotic and biotic pools, respectively, at time  $t$ , measured in petagrams.

### 3. Preprocessing input data

The data available are total carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, measured in parts per million by volume, and the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ratio of the atmosphere, measured in mils as in Equation A1. Parts per million by volume can be converted to mass by taking 2.212 petagrams of carbon in the atmosphere for each part per million. Then the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ratio can partition that mass into carbon 12 and carbon 13.

For a given  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ratio, the portion of the total carbon that is carbon 13 is obtained by starting with Equation A1,

$$q = \frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \Big|_{\text{sample}} = \left( \frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}}{1000} + 1 \right) \frac{^{13}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C}} \Big|_{\text{standard}} \quad (\text{A2})$$

Now computing

$$\frac{1}{1+q} = \frac{1}{1 + ^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}} = \frac{^{12}\text{C}}{^{12}\text{C} + ^{13}\text{C}} \quad (\text{A3})$$

## APPENDIX: COMPUTER CODE

gives the proportion of total carbon that is carbon 12. The complement of that is the proportion that is carbon 13.

$$1 - \frac{1}{1+q} = \frac{{}^{13}\text{C}}{{}^{12}\text{C} + {}^{13}\text{C}} \quad (\text{A4})$$

Thus values for  $A$  and  $B$  can be computed from total carbon in the atmosphere and its  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ .

### 4. Flow among atmosphere and carbon pools

The main goal is to identify any long-term trends in the biotic and abiotic pools, using the empirical data for carbon flowing in and out of the atmosphere as a guide. For any time period,

$$A(t) = \alpha(t)x(t) + \beta(t)y(t)$$

and simultaneously

$$A(t) + B(t) = x(t) + y(t)$$

As long as  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  differ, the solution of those two linear equations gives the flows in and out of the pools.

$$\begin{aligned} x(\alpha, \beta) &= \frac{A - (A + B)\beta}{\alpha - \beta} \\ y(\alpha, \beta) &= \frac{A - (A + B)\alpha}{\beta - \alpha} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A5})$$

The flows are identical in form except for the interchange of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

Choosing the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  ratios participating each time step, among all the possible values for all the various unknown sub-pools, is the next step. An occam's-razor approach to choosing them, in absence of other information, is to keep the total amount of carbon exchanged in a time step to a minimum. Definitive values are provided by the following considerations.

If the carbon ratio in the atmospheric flow corresponds to a possible ratio of one of the two carbon pools—biotic or abiotic—then the total flow is minimized by attributing all of the atmospheric exchange to that pool and none to the other pool. If it is between the the two sets of pools, then contributions from both pools must be involved. It can be shown that attributing flow at the highest concentration from the biotic pool and the lowest concentration from the abiotic pool minimizes the total flow. Finally, if the atmospheric ratio is either above or below both pools, it can be likewise shown that attributing flow at the lowest concentration from the biotic pool from the abiotic pool minimizes the total flow. These consideration are reflected in the code below.

### 5. Pseudocode

To allow complete evaluation of the algorithm, and to support modifications, we present the algorithm in a form of pseudo-code inspired by and simplified from the programming languages C, R, and Python. In addition, code lines begin with a vertical bar (`|`), as do comments on the right, in what we call “document format.”

The pseudo-code is two-dimensional, as in the language Python, so that indentation completely defines the nested structure without use of bracketing characters such as ‘{’ and ‘}’. Statement separators such as semicolon (‘;’) are likewise unused. Variables and function names are italicized and flow control and reserved words are bolded.

Computations follow a left-to-right, top-to-bottom flow. Thus the assignment operator is represented as ‘ $\rightarrow$ ’, similar to possibilities in R, and also as represented in von Neumann’s early computer programs. A

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compound assignment such as ‘ $x \rightarrow y \rightarrow z$ ’ first transfers  $x$  to  $y$ , then transfers  $y$  to  $z$ . Upon completion all three thus carry the same value. Flow control with if-then-else and looping are similar to other languages.

Mathematical symbols may appear directly in the pseudocode for clarity, rather than being spelled out. For example, ‘ $\alpha_1$ ’ may be used rather than ‘alpha1’. Case matters, so that  $a$  is different than  $A$ . Simple functions are defined by the form ‘ $H(\text{parameters}) \equiv \text{expression}$ ’. For example, one can write ‘ $\mu(x, y) \equiv (x + y)/2$ ’. Variables not defined start out at 0. Operator precedence is that of C.

Equivalent versions of this algorithm translated into operational C or FORTRAN are available from the authors upon request.

### 6. Algorithm

The program begins with the definition of three functions and initialization of bounds of the carbon pools.

On entry to the program, input consists of a data file in order of increasing time. The input data have three columns.

- $n$  Sequence number representing a variable-length time step, for reference.
- $A$  Flow of carbon 12 during the time step, in petagrams. Positive is flow from carbon pools to the atmosphere, negative is the reverse.
- $B$  Flow of carbon 13 during the time step, in petagrams. Positive is flow from carbon pools to the atmosphere, negative is the reverse.

On exit from the program, output consists of a data file in order of increasing time. The output data have seven columns.

- $n$  A sequence number representing the time step, matching the first column in the input file.
- $A$  Flow of carbon 12 during the time step, matching the corresponding column in the input file.
- $B$  Flow of carbon 13 during the time step, matching the corresponding column in the input file.
- $x$  Total carbon entering or leaving the set of abiotic carbon pools during the time step, in petagrams.
- $y$  Total carbon entering or leaving the set of biotic carbon pools during the time step, in petagrams.
- $\alpha$  Ratio of carbon 13 to total carbon in the flow represented by  $x$  in this time step.
- $\beta$  Ratio of carbon 12 to total carbon in the flow represented by  $y$  in this time step.

$F_x(a, b, A, B) \equiv (A - (A + B) * b)/(a - b)$	Function, abiotic flow.
$F_y(a, b, A, B) \equiv (A - (A + B) * a)/(b - a)$	Function, biotic flow.
$R(d) \equiv 1 - 1/(1 + (d/1000 + 1) * 0.0112372)$	Function, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ to $^{13}\text{C}/^{12+13}\text{C}$ conversion.
$R(-33) \rightarrow \beta_1 \quad R(-24) \rightarrow \beta_2$	Low and high ratios for the biotic and
$R(-10) \rightarrow \alpha_1 \quad R(0) \rightarrow \alpha_2$	abiotic pools, respectively.
<b>repeat until</b> <i>end-of-file</i> :	Read the next time period and calculate
$read(n, A, B) \quad A/(A+B) \rightarrow r$	the ratio of $^{13}\text{C}/^{12+13}\text{C}$ exchange.
<b>if</b> $\alpha_1 \leq r \leq \alpha_2$ :	If the ratio is in the abiotic range, ascribe
$r \rightarrow \alpha \quad 0 \rightarrow \beta \rightarrow y \quad A+B \rightarrow x$	all carbon to the abiotic pool.
<b>else if</b> $\beta_1 \leq r \leq \beta_2$ :	In contrast, if it is in the biotic range,
$r \rightarrow \beta \quad 0 \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow x \quad A+B \rightarrow y$	ascribe all carbon to the biotic pool.
<b>else if</b> $\beta_2 < r < \alpha_1$ :	If the ratio is between the pools, use the
$\alpha_1 \rightarrow \alpha \quad \beta_2 \rightarrow \beta \quad F_x(\alpha, \beta, A, B) \rightarrow x \quad F_y(\alpha, \beta, A, B) \rightarrow y$	heaviest biotic and lightest abiotic values.
<b>else</b>	Otherwise, choose the ratio that minimizes
$\alpha_2 \rightarrow \alpha \quad \beta_1 \rightarrow \beta \quad F_x(\alpha, \beta, A, B) \rightarrow x \quad F_y(\alpha, \beta, A, B) \rightarrow y$	total carbon flow among the pools.
$X+x \rightarrow X \quad Y+y \rightarrow Y$	Accumulate the flows to and from both
$write(n, A, B, x, y, \alpha, \beta)$	pools and record the results.

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### 7. Sample Output

For testing and reference, below is an excerpt of the algorithm's output for the data presented in columns A and B. The data are represented in excess precision for purposes of validation.

n	A	B	x	y	alpha	beta
1	0.023005443570	2.14959455600	-0.962217	3.134817	0.011112	0.010750
2	0.001417597648	0.08378240235	1.383085	-1.297885	0.011112	0.010750
3	0.031941570710	2.88615842900	1.848496	1.069604	0.011002	0.010849
4	-0.016522470420	-1.47447753000	-1.491000	0.000000	0.011081	0.000000
5	-0.057460835100	-5.22493916500	-1.004417	-4.277983	0.011002	0.010849
:	:	:	:	:	:	:
402	-0.065321962920	-6.00517803700	0.000000	-6.070500	0.000000	0.010761
403	-0.026066237920	-2.38083376200	0.000000	-2.406900	0.000000	0.010830
404	0.011369124930	1.05363087500	-0.218214	1.283214	0.011112	0.010750
405	0.037801727970	3.43409827200	0.888428	2.583472	0.011002	0.010849
406	0.026061362910	2.38083863700	0.000000	2.406900	0.000000	0.010828