

1 Abstract

2 Climate change conditions are ultimately established and measured by the level of carbon
3 dioxide within a biome's atmospheric residence conditions. Therefore, reducing carbon dioxide
4 emissions and sequestering carbon dioxide are measurable in comparison when determining their
5 climate mitigation potentials. As a result, climate-changing conditions depend more on
6 *sequestration*, considering a biome's alteration of sequestration abilities that promote either
7 increases or decreases of atmospheric residence time from all emission sources.

8 The present study further defines relationships of carbon dioxide-driven climate change
9 by analyzing the data that established cause-and-effect in atmospheric carbon dioxide levels.
10 Historical correlations were also applied, which revealed the biome impact of historical
11 human demand for forestry resources, the historical and contemporary management of
12 forestry, and historical changes in land uses.

13 Human domestication of forests has influenced an ongoing decline in forest maturity,
14 which in turn results in globally "*impeded fast-cycle carbon dioxide sinks 2.5*," leaving only
15 3–5% of "mature and responsive" global forestry carbon dioxide sinks. The study concludes
16 that carbon dioxide-driven climate-changing conditions are only feasible by the globally
17 decreasing tree maturity effect on sequestration abilities. Therefore, sequestration is critical
18 in mitigating climate change due to the frequently overlooked, albeit regrettable, principles
19 of emission reduction and conservation laws governing biomes.

20
21 **1. Keywords:** Sequestration, Forestry, CO₂ sink, Emission, Climate Change, Biome

22 23 2. Introduction

24 "Complete Mitigation Science," or CMS, is a project characterized by the inner
25 disciplinary structure required to study climate change conditions and their impacts
26 comprehensively. The present study examines the potential effectiveness of implementing
27 the project's findings to completely mitigate CO₂-driven climate change.

28 This study aimed to analyze the conditions for climate change development due to
29 historical and modern human domestication practices. The historical connections between
30 global forestry and its impact on atmospheric CO₂ levels (in ppm) were analyzed in this
31 study. The study first focused on determining the relevance of the correlations to CO₂-
32 driven climate change. The data explored the fast-cycle CO₂ sequestration abilities within
33 global forestry underestimated sequestration potential by ignoring the impact of maturity
34 on forestry. With a root cause established, the study shifted into defining logic and
35 modeling its conclusions. It then progressed to determine a measure for historical records
36 of atmospheric CO₂ sequestration and residence time. Additional evidence further
37 supports the correlation revealed in the initial study.

38 New and expanded terminologies are necessary to define the study's climate change
39 logic and set precedence for the results obtained:

40 2.1. *Sequestration value*

41 Forestry CO₂ sinks and their sequestration ability are more non-renewable than
42 renewable (see *binary restricted resource 2.2*). This generates value in climate mitigation
43 regarding carbon credits, offsets, and *sequestration dependence 2.7*.

44 Herein, the ability to sequester CO₂ within climate mitigation is described as a
45 human endeavor toward domestication, which can have an economic value. The
46 *sequestration value* is established by considering CO₂ sequestration abilities within
47 terrestrial sinks to prolong human domestication. *Sequestration value* is currently
48 priceless but can be socially appraised and monetized.

49 CO₂ *sequestration value* is established by measuring the requirement to maintain
50 atmospheric CO₂ and abate climate change. It can be balanced with emission input, more
51 abundant than emissions, or deficient to a desired level, as it is globally today. The
52 current CO₂ levels within the atmosphere are notable. (1) Therefore, removing CO₂ to
53 achieve balance, abundance, or deficit creates a high *sequestration value* socially and
54 economically. *Sequestration value* can be monetarily established by converting atomic
55 mass units of CO₂ (44 amu) as the *sequestration value* or the sequestered amount as
56 carbon (12 amu) stored within wood biomass as the result of sequestration. (2) (3) (4) (5)
57 Thus, *sequestration value* is an amount of sequestration achievable or having occurred
58 within sequestration-based climate mitigation that has or can be further translated into
59 economics to facilitate human domestication that abates climate change.

60 2.2. *Binary restricted resource – an expanded definition of a renewable resource*

61 Trees are considered as renewable resources. Regenerated biomass from trees is only
62 a part of this resource. They also possess CO₂ sequestration ability (serving as a CO₂
63 sink), which is less readily renewable. Trees replenish biomass over two to three decades;
64 however, the duration required to be helpful as a CO₂ sink and contribute as a net CO₂
65 negative is much longer and cannot be easily replaced (1). In contrast, its “*sequestration*
66 *value 2.1*” becomes more apparent to human domestication requirements than biomass
67 demand.

68 The study's findings suggest that the sink is more essential than the biomass among
69 the combined resources. However, unlike its biomass counterpart, the sink resembles a
70 non-renewable crude oil. It can take lifetimes for this resource within the tree to be
71 replenished. Thus, though renewable, its efficacy is different from biomass. The demand
72 for biomass necessitates a shorter renewal duration, significantly suppressing the
73 extended duration requirement of the sink as a “*binary restricted resource.*”

74 2.3. *Unconstrained and constrained deforestation practices*

75 The scope of “deforestation” is broadened into two factors with differing roles. The
76 assessments oppose the conventional definition of “forest degradation,” whereas forestry
77 use is expected to result in afforestation with an anticipated return to a normal forestry
78 state. The following two subsections are intended to set precedence for CMS logic,
79 arguments, and conclusions:

80 2.3.1. *Unconstrained deforestation*

81 “Unconstrained deforestation” permanently reduces or eliminates the “*binary restricted*
82 *resource 2.2*” of CO₂ sequestration by substituting land use or clearing forestry CO₂ sinks
83 from existence. Like deforestation, clearing forests for crop production or an unintended
84 demise from weather, fire, climate change, biome formation, urbanization, or biological
85 effects can be classified as “unconstrained deforestation.” The concept behind *unconstrained*
86 *deforestation* is that the forest will never return to normal forestry under human or
87 unintentional stewardship. In contrast, deforestation is the removal of forests but implies

88 afforestation as a possibility. Thus, the problem is related to the inherent and enduring
89 characteristics, such as those of urbanization and dam functions, which continue to exist
90 despite attempts to redefine or alter their displacement of forestry.

91 *Unconstrained deforestation* is also partially responsible for increasing but unintended
92 climate demise in an ever-expanding spiral. The more *unconstrained deforestation* occurs, the
93 more climate degradation, which could lead to biological biome changes, forest fires, and
94 adverse weather conditions, which in turn results in further *unconstrained deforestation*. In
95 the end, all these factors are adjusted via climate change impacts. The action is unconstrained
96 in creating the destructive circumstance and perpetuating its result.

97 2.3.2. *Constrained deforestation*

98 *Constrained deforestation* is the forestry practice that allows forestry to be present but
99 physically set aside and never allowed to achieve a forestry normal or recover its “*binary*
100 *restricted resources 2.2.*” CO₂ sequestration is not currently considered in forest practices
101 regarding renewability. This effect is typical because of human interference with natural
102 biology with current and generationally applied stewardship practices. Those forestry
103 practices comprise short-duration commercial harvest rotations that reduce tree maturity,
104 lessen biodiversity, and increase forest impediments due to other “reoccurring” impacts like
105 forest fires or drought.

106 This can be summarized as “the unnatural and inefficient use of forestry that impedes the
107 capability and quantities of CO₂ sinks.” *Constrained deforestation* practices also emit more
108 CO₂ from forestry than the replanted sinks can sequester owing to human demands for
109 unnatural and inefficient uses. Managing forests for product demand and not efficiently using
110 all available resources is crucial, making *constrained deforestation* precedent in this study.
111 The action is thus constrained by the destructive circumstances perpetuating its results.

112 2.4. *Climate change datum, beginning of climate-changing results*

113 The datum point of CMS is a timeline indicator at approximately 1850 CE.
114 Precedence is established using four indicators: human and natural CO₂ emissions
115 accelerate an upward trend in CO₂ atmospheric levels; by indicating a decline of
116 terrestrial fast-cycle sinks shrinking over the years based on the volume of CO₂
117 sequestered; by establishing a downward trend in sinks available to sequester CO₂;
118 correlation is directly linked to historically *constrained* and *unconstrained deforestation*
119 2.3 practices, as the last mature forests of Earth in the Americas (North, South, and
120 Central), except the untouched portion of the Amazon forest, became marketable and
121 subject to harvest from the 1700s and still today. The datum is notable in the correlation
122 between historical forestry use and the acceleration of atmospheric carbon dioxide levels.

123 2.5. *Impeded fast-cycle CO₂ sink or impeded sink*

124 Forestry or other fast-cycle CO₂ sinks that exist as immature sinks as a *binary*
125 *restricted resource 2.2* impeded from reaching their required or needed potential as
126 mature or *sequestration valued 2.1* sinks. Typically, forestry sinks are impeded by
127 *constrained or unconstrained deforestation 2.3*. The result restricts the carbon dioxide
128 sequestration of photosynthesis by limiting them to immature or non-existent levels.
129 Impeded magnitude is measured in tonnes of carbon dioxide and obtained in the
130 comparison of human absence in contrast to the eliminating, impeding, or decreasing the
131 volume of a CO₂ sink’s micro or macro sequestering ability constrained by intervals of

132 past, present, or projected into a future. Impeded sequestration is also *proportional 2.8* to
133 tree or forest maturity and complete climate mitigation.

134 *2.6. Law of conservation*

135 The *law of conservation* was used to estimate the carbon dioxide amount as being
136 initially placed into an enclosed system, the same as CO₂ is present within Earth's biome.
137 (6) Carbon quantities do not and cannot increase or decrease in any way within that
138 enclosed system (Earth-bound); an increase is impossible without an external addition to
139 the system, for instance, an asteroid hitting Earth. Therefore, Earth-bound systems
140 producing or reducing CO₂ conform to a *law of conservation* that acts as a restriction.
141 Overall, there can never be more or less of an element within a closed system like Earth.
142 Nevertheless, an element can change forms, like elemental carbon, transforming into
143 carbon dioxide, which can then move to a different location in a chemical reaction, such
144 as photosynthesis, converting it into biomass.

145 One focus of the study was the physical movement of elements. The evidence
146 suggests that the conversion of carbon through human domestication requires an
147 equalizing transfer to maintain climate homeostasis, a balance acting within the *law of*
148 *conservation*.

149 As a result, conversion (emissions) and storage (sequestration and sequestered) play a
150 crucial role in achieving homeostasis within a closed biome such as Earth. The study
151 establishes the constraints of the conservation law as the amount of CO₂ produced by
152 domestication is deemed infinite. In contrast, reduction (natural sequestration) quickly
153 becomes finite when conversion does not consider storage capacities (as sequestration or
154 sequestered).

155 Furthermore, mitigation efforts that do not involve sequestration (systems that
156 discount the significance of storage in climate mitigation attempts or emissions-only
157 attempts) are deemed destined to fail. They violate the *law of conservation* by only partly
158 addressing the smaller side of the smaller side of the total equation: human emissions.
159 Therefore, emission-based attempts can never mitigate the estimated 400–750 gigatons of
160 naturally occurring carbon that is converted to CO₂ (as CO₂ emissions). Thus, this is also
161 implying *sequestration dependency 2.7*.

162 *2.7. Sequestration and emission-dependent*

163 CO₂ emissions are defined as unavoidable in human domestication goals, and
164 therefore, humans are “*emission-dependent*.” In balance, humans also are “*sequestration-*
165 *dependent*.” Because emissions and sequestration require balanced inputs for ongoing
166 human domestication efforts regarding biome requirements, humans are more
167 “*sequestration-dependent*” because of the closed system the biome exists within, as
168 defined by the *law of conservation, 2.6*. Unbalanced interaction with CO₂ emissions
169 allows extraneous conditions to form undesired effects on human domestication, such as
170 climate change, associated tree and land degradation, and “*unconstrained deforestation*
171 *2.3.1*.” We rely on emissions being balanced with sequestration; hence, the balance is
172 created therein.

173 *2.8. Application of proportionality*

174 Evidence suggests *proportionality* in defining CO₂ sequestration from the study's
175 multiple areas.

176 *Proportionality* occurs among positions within the study:

- 177 a. Tree or forest maturity is \propto to sequestration ability.
178 i. Increasing forest maturity increases CO₂ sequestration ability
179 somewhat “exponentially” given enough “t” (time) to increase the
180 forest’s age as maturity.
181 b. Maturity is then \propto to sequestration ability and \propto to atmospheric CO₂ ppm.
182 c. Atmospheric ppm residence time is \propto to sequestration available in global
183 forestry.
184 d. CO₂ residence time increases \propto to global sequestration abilities decreasing.
185 i. The more sequestration available, the less atmospheric residence time.
186 e. Global forestry area is \propto to maturity and \propto to atmospheric ppm reductions.
187 i. The older the forest, the less forested area is required to mitigate
188 climate change when measured in atmospheric carbon dioxide
189 outflows.
190

191 2.9. *Convenient forestry*

192 This implies forestry resources within easy human access. Adjacent to its location,
193 access, ample roads, railroads, low cost, lesser time required to haul resources,
194 topographical ease to access and harvest, and the usability of the biomass available make
195 some forestry *convenient* over other forests. In context to this study, nomadic people did
196 not cross oceans to increase their forestry use; they primarily used *convenient forestry*.
197 They also relocated when the resources were depleted.

198 Currently, all forests are made *convenient* with technology. The Amazon Rainforest is
199 possibly the exception. As the only old-growth forests remaining at scale, the amount of
200 CO₂ it sequesters is Earth's only viable mechanism that hasten a previous climate
201 collapse. This is primarily due to its untouched maturity levels and subsequent unimpeded
202 CO₂-sequestration capacities. It is however lacking in sufficient quantities (acres) to stop
203 today's atmospheric CO₂ runaway effect and future CO₂ driven climate collapse.

204 2.10. *Tree degradation*

205 CMS defines *tree degradation* as contributing to the “forest degradation and
206 *constrained deforestation 2.3.2*” effect on biomes. *Tree degradation* is brought on by
207 *demand-driven forestry 2.11* practices.

208 Cutting smaller trees within a reduced duration diminishes tree maturity, biomass size,
209 and the land’s ability to regenerate naturally due to adverse biological effects. *Tree*
210 *degradation* adversely affects the tree quality and, in turn, reduces the quality of wood
211 products, precludes devaluation of tree sequestration, ultimately creating an *Impeded fast-*
212 *cycle CO₂ sink 2.5* or further impeding CO₂ fast-cycle sinks, and accelerates the land
213 toward *unconstrained deforestation 2.3.1*.

214 A tree smaller at harvest becomes less valued. Therefore, more trees are often
215 harvested sooner to compensate for the inefficiency and size lost to immaturity; as an
216 economically inefficient practice and an unnatural occurrence biologically, *tree*
217 *degradation* increases as *demand-driven forestry 2.11* increases, perpetuating the
218 “*degradation*” effect.

219 2.11. Demand-driven forestry

220 This is defined as the forestry that is managed to supply the demand for forest
221 products, disregarding the sustainability of its *binary restricted resources* 2.2 or as a
222 resource in general. Historically, *demand-driven forestry* generated adverse biological
223 effects with *tree degradation* 2.10. The practice perpetuates *constrained deforestation*
224 2.3.2, the study’s primary consideration of climate change conditions. Therefore, such a
225 forest physically supplies demand and is only managed to the required extent and not to
226 others present. (7) (8) (9)

227 2.12. Carbon hump

228 After a clear cut, the grounds of a tree plot become a net CO2 positive (a CO2 and
229 methane emissions source) due to remnants of the harvested trees, other plant life on the
230 plot, or life that also succumbed to the practice that decays or is burned as byproduct. The
231 *carbon hump* is added to by waste generated by harvesting or that same waste burned to
232 produce energy or the energy consumed in order to process the harvested biomass into
233 wood products. These *constrained deforestation* practices create an obstacle to restoring
234 any given forestry plot back into a net CO2 negative (A CO2 sink). The *carbon hump* is
235 created from the inability of replacement trees as being replanted, under natural
236 regeneration, or immature in general to sequester more CO2 than the CO2 positive
237 actions (emissions) presented.

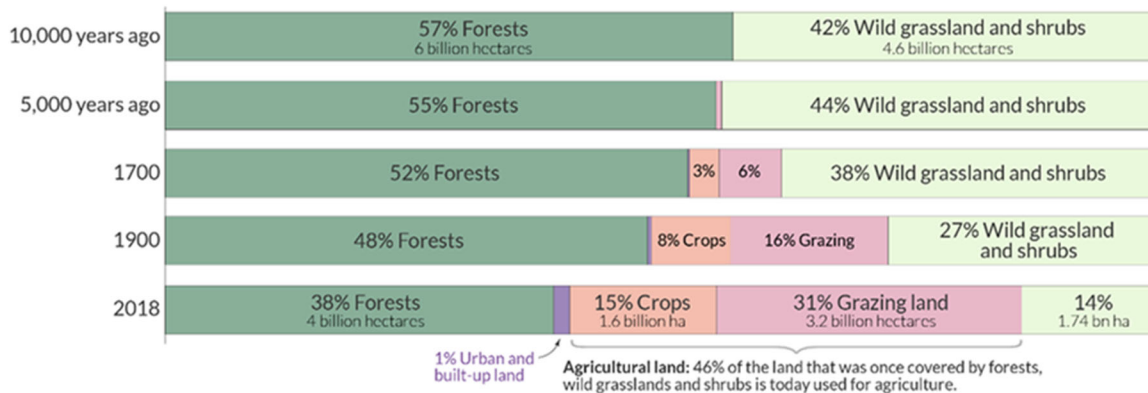
238 Typical *carbon humps* persist 20-30 years on the clear-cut site while the replacement
239 trees mature. The study’s *impeded fast-cycle sink* definition includes *carbon humps* to
240 determine percentage of sequestration impediment. (10)

241
242

243 3. Results

244 3.1. Climate change is more sequestration-dependent 2.7 than emission-dependent 2.7

245



Data: Historical data on forests from Williams (2003) – Deforesting the Earth. Historical data on agriculture from The History Database of Global Environment (HYDE). Modern data from the FAO. OurWorldinData.org – Research and data to make progress against the world’s largest problems. Licensed under CC-BY by the authors Hannah Ritchie and Max Roser.

246

247 Figure 1: “Humanity Destroyed One-Third of The World’s Forests by Expanding Agricultural
248 Land”

249 “10,000 years ago, 10.6 billion hectares-71% of the Earth's land surface-were covered by
250 forests, shrubs, and grasslands. The remaining 29% are covered by deserts, glaciers,
251 rocky terrain, and other barren land.”

252
253 Figure 1 illustrates human domestication (Human Domestication Theory-Roger
254 Silverstone) impact on land use is a modification, geoengineering. Figure 1 also
255 demonstrates the significant reduction from 57% of Earth's land surface under forests
256 10,000 years ago to today's 38%. Thompson suggests that land use modification is an
257 input to a more direct correlation of forestry to atmospheric ppm when the effect of
258 demonstration of *unconstrained deforestation 2.3.1* is added to *constrained*
259 *deforestation's 2.3.2* even more significant impact (Figure 1).

260 Prehistoric humans moved into a geographic area and depleted the resources.
261 Resources for heat, cooking, and, to a lesser extent, shelter building could always be
262 obtained nomadically. CMS states nomadic actions created the first demand for forestry
263 and began engraining them in all of us. (10) (11) (12)

264 Nomadic actions provided resources like game animals and forests time to recover.
265 As human domestication gained traction, nomadic humans settled into fixed communities.
266 Townships, roads, and trade routes expanded and lessened previous nomadic forestry
267 recovery durations.

268 Resources from agriculture and animal husbandry became steady-state and were
269 readily available. As a result, township communities matured and formed into cities, some
270 of which we inhabit today. More populated areas created entanglements of rural regions
271 and trade routes for resources to support the towns that became the mass population
272 centers of today. Thompson's CMS relationship to human domestication can be argued to
273 have begun before population centers were established. Domestication required increased
274 resource use with populations, and forestry was the first and primary resource exploited,
275 just as it is today.

276 During the millenniums of domestication, humans traded the horse for the train and
277 later the train for the automobile but kept modifying land for food production until the
278 1980s. Since then, contemporary efforts in food production have created a global “mini”
279 reversal of deforestation, mainly as a global disbanding of small farms for larger, more
280 productive, GMO corporate-type producers and in temperate regions. Naturally, those
281 abandoned small farms began natural afforestation while human-driven afforestation
282 began to take shape globally (Figure 2).

283 Thompson classifies early human developing practices to use and manage forestry
284 under *convenient forestry, 2.9*. Back then, forestry resources came to the cities from near
285 first and much farther later. Today, forestry resources are entirely extracted in globally
286 traded markets because technology has made all forestry convenient. The only apparatus
287 making some forests inconvenient today are laws, then and now (13) (14). Moreover,
288 those also change regularly over time.

289 Before 1400 CE, humans, such as Europeans and Asians, had harvested all *convenient*
290 *forestry 2.9* multiple times, and it's done more intensely now. (12) Initially, regrowth or
291 forestry recovery periods may have been hundreds of years, but as domestication
292 proceeded, they considerably shortened.

293 It took millenniums for the human population to develop into the masses and
294 technology that could influence forestry globally. It was first accomplished in BCE, but
295 not globally, because oceans stood in the way.

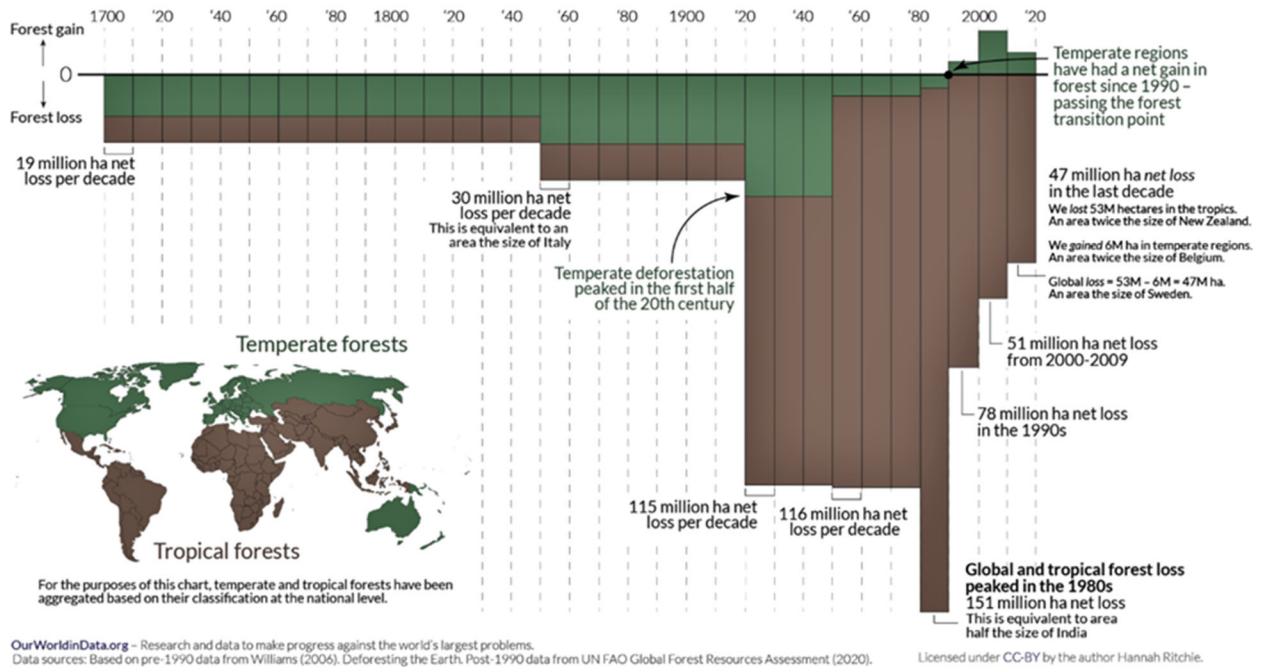
296 For the most part, before 1500 CE, the oceans had safely isolated “The continental
297 Americas” (North, South, and Central America). In addition, the Indigenous people of
298 those undiscovered lands lacking technology combined with many nomadic lifestyles
299 protected it. The European discovery of the Americas opened the floodgate. Forestry
300 made it possible for overseas travel with shipbuilding, which helped to begin using more
301 forestry abroad. (10) (12)

302 3.2. *Impedance of fast-cycle CO₂ Sinks: a historical precedence*

303 As the human population increased and spread globally, forestry demand within the
304 Americas greatly expanded. As a result, the time between forest harvests decreased as it
305 had overseas and thousands of years earlier (2), and the replication of *demand-driven*
306 *forestry* practices within the Americas was the second failure of humans in forestry
307 management. With it, the global emissions balance with atmospheric CO₂ residence
308 conditions and sequestration ability declined further. Before 1700 CE, mature forestry
309 thickly blanketed the Americas, serving as healthy CO₂ sinks; however, with the arrival of
310 Europeans, forestry practices began to fall into *constrained* and *unconstrained*
311 *deforestation* 2.3. (10) (15)(6)

312 By 1850 CE, “*CMS’s climate change datum 2.4,*” European and Asian global
313 expansion had firmly established within the Americas and South Pacific. They had spread
314 *unconstrained* and *constrained deforestation* 2.3 practices throughout the globe, with
315 minor exceptions mainly due to accessibility or marketability. Humans had then “geo-
316 engineered most global forests” to supply demand and finished that task around the
317 1990s. “All forests are now marketable,” The exceptions are portions of Amazonian
318 forests and some country’s national parks; due to access, international agreements, and
319 laws.

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Figure 2: “Decadal Losses in Global Forest Over the Last Three Centuries”

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“Decadal loss is measured as the average net loss in hectares every ten years. This equals deforestation minus any increase in forest area through afforestation. 1.5 billion hectares were lost between 1700 and 2020 - this is equal to an area 1.5 times the size of the U.S.A.”

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325

Figure 2 represents forestry losses and forestry gain, afforestation, from 1700 CE to 2020 CE as indicated in colors as the “green” temperate and “brown” tropical forests.

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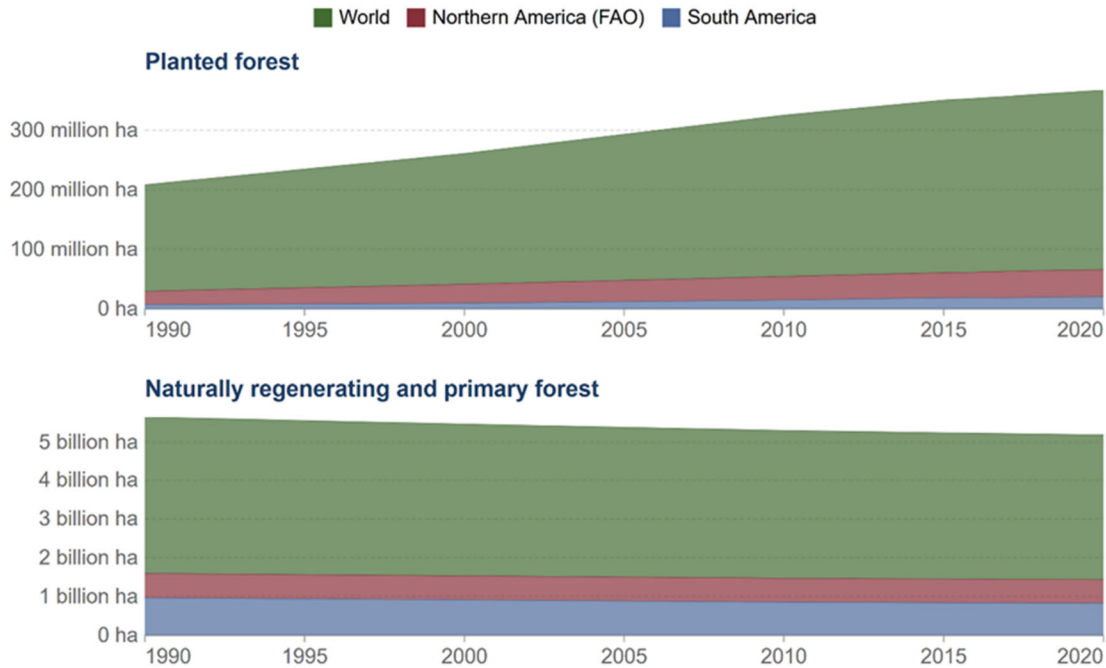
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From 10,000 BCE on, clearing forestry for food production and animal husbandry took priority over forest health (Figure 1). Figure 2 shows that it has only begun to change in the last 30 years. However, the contemporary afforestation shown in Figure 2 is misleading because of incomplete data. Unfortunately, most afforestation efforts mentioned in Figure 2 are offset by *constrained deforestation 2.3.2* practices implemented before and within them (Figure 3) as marketable forests as being expanded to meet forestry demand.

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333

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Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

OurWorldInData.org/forest-area • CC BY

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336

Figure 3: Forest Area by Type: Naturally Regenerating Vs. Planted

337 *Figure 3 discloses global forestry afforestation types as “planted” or “naturally regenerating*
 338 *and primary forest,” with the y-axis indicating the volume in hectares and the x-axis as years.*

339 *The green shaded area of the graph is the world; red is North America, and blue represents*
 340 *South America. Volumes are documented between 1990–2020.*

341 Key terms for Figure 3: According to the United Nations Food and Agriculture
 342 Organization:

343 *Primary forest:* “Naturally regenerated forest of native species, where there are no visible
 344 indications of human activities and the ecological processes are not significantly
 345 disturbed.” Thompson notes: protected forest.

346 *Naturally regenerated and primary forest:* “Naturally regenerated forest where there are
 347 clearly visible indications of human activities. Includes selectively harvested-over areas,
 348 areas regenerating following agricultural land use, areas recovering from human-induced
 349 fires, etc.” Thompson notes: These forests have been, had been, and will be harvested
 350 under *constrained deforestation 2.3.2* management.

351 *Planted forest:* “Forest predominantly composed of trees established through planting and
 352 deliberate seeding.” Thompson notes: These forests have been, had been, and will be
 353 harvested to reproduce biomass under *constrained deforestation 2.3.2* management.

354

355 *Figure 3 Summary*

356 Thompson demonstrates that replants and the natural regeneration of trees in Figure 3
357 show that established *constrained deforestation 2.3.2 practices* are still expanding to meet
358 demand. He speculates that Figure 3's usefulness in curing climate change depends on the
359 landowner. Replanted acres are almost sure signs of production lands, and naturally
360 regenerating land is an indicator of the economics involved in the global forest industry
361 as a form of cash-in, indicating the forces influencing landowners to participate in
362 *constrained deforestation 2.3.2 practices*.

363 *3.3. Determining Impeded Fast-Cycle Sink Basics 2.5, contemporary forestry practices*
364 *results*

365 A replanted or reproduction tree can sequester 1.5 pounds of CO₂ in its second year.
366 In contrast, a typical thirty-year-old tree can remove 150–190 pounds of CO₂ annually (3)
367 (for species such as the typical southern loblolly's pine tree). The difference in weight is a
368 factor used by Thompson to describe the CO₂ sink ability of the tree as "impeded" as an
369 "impeded fast-cycle CO₂ sink 2.5." Another factor is how many harvest rotations have
370 occurred compared to human absenteeism. A total of each tree or forest harvested by the
371 number of occurrences tallied into annual CO₂ sequestration in pounds (seq). They are
372 placed into a ratio against current sequestration.

373 $[(Current\ seq) / (seq\ 1 + seq\ 2 + seq...)] \times (100) = \% \text{ impeded. "t" (time) for land idling}$
374 $\text{between afforestation after harvest and quantifying to apply "t" again for replants to be}$
375 $\text{planted (usually 3 to 5 years). The time required after clear cut for forests to become net}$
376 $\text{negatives is conversational but typically 20-30 years. (16)}$

377 In context, the sink is also impeded because it was harvested and replanted under
378 *constrained deforestation 2.3.2* conditions and not to restore the *binary restricted*
379 *resources 2.2*, meaning it was replanted to only supply biomass in the future. Therefore,
380 if replanted by a sapling, the tree will be harvested again in 20–40 years (resupplying
381 demand), or much longer if regenerated with seed due to additional growth time required,
382 but still harvested in 20–40 years.

383 Had the original tree been left to mature, it could have sequestered thousands of times
384 more carbon and possessed hundreds of times the annual CO₂ sequestration ability (by
385 growing yearly at a 3–8% increase in mass) (3) (2) (17). At some point, that one tree
386 could have possessed 1100–2400 pounds in annual CO₂ sequestration ability (5) (3).
387 Because of premature harvest, it is now impeded to "zero" pounds annually and has no
388 potential to recover the *binary restricted resource 2.2*. Moreover, the forest sequestration
389 ability is further hindered by emitting CO₂ since the clear-cut or fire-damaged land the
390 tree must grow in releases more CO₂ than the replanted can absorb for 20–30 years,
391 known as the carbon hump. (16)

392 The carbon hump forces replanted or regeneration growth on clear cut land into CO₂
393 emissions that depend on when replanting or natural regeneration began. The carbon
394 hump is created by CO₂ emissions exceeding the afforestation process. It further impedes
395 sequestration and must be accounted for 20–30 years before net carbon-negative
396 sequestration can occur. The hump's stifling effect on sequestration significantly
397 contributes to climate change conditions forming due to repetitive harvest rotations
398 similar in duration to the wait for trees to absorb CO₂ faster than the harvested land emits.
399 The hump is elemental in the *constrained deforestation 2.3.2* definition.

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3.4. The makeup of global forestry acres data used to estimate global sequestration

Having established the concept of impeded sequestration and how to measure the impeded portion, Thompson then demonstrates accounting for impeded sequestration globally.

Thompson’s accounting is constructed in general reference using United States Department of Agriculture (7) data (Figures 4 and 5) and comparing it with United Nations data (13) (Figures 6 and 7).

Owner class/ land class	Region			
	U.S.	North	South	West
	<i>Million acres</i>			
All owners	766	176	244	346
Timber land	521	167	210	144
Reserved forest	74	7	4	63
Other forest	172	2	31	139
National Forest	145	12	13	120
Timber land	98	10	12	75
Reserved forest	27	1	1	24
Other forest	20	0	0	20
Other public	176	35	20	122
Timber land	63	29	15	19
Reserved forest	47	5	3	39
Other forest	67	0	2	65
Private corporate	147	29	65	53
Timber land	111	29	61	21
Reserved forest	0	-	0	0
Other forest	36	0	4	32
Private non-corporate	298	100	147	51
Timber land	249	99	121	28
Reserved forest	0	0	0	0
Other forest	48	1	25	22

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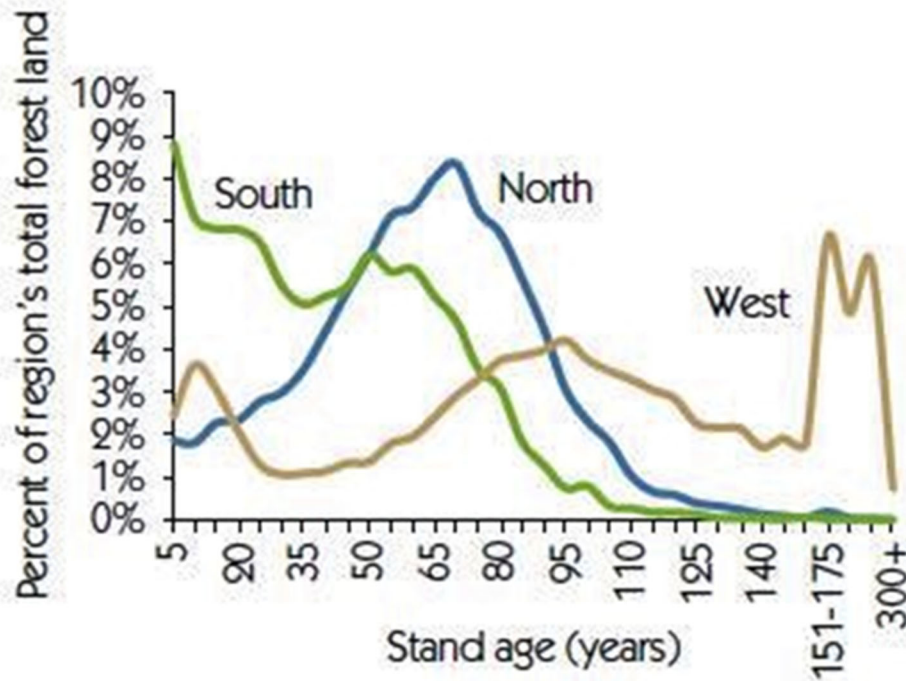
Figure 4: “United States Forestry Ownership” (7)

Private forests provided 88% of the Nation’s (United States) timber harvest in 2011 (7). Figure 4 estimates United States forest acres into ownership categories by North, South, and West regions.

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According to Figure 4, 521 million acres of the 766 million within the United States are under contemporary forestry management labeled as “timberland.” Another 172 million are

416 classified as “Other Forest,” As stated in Figure 2, timberland and other forest can be
 417 defined as naturally regenerated, *replanted*, and *primary forests*. Other forest is further
 418 defined as not optimum for timber production because it takes longer to restore biomass but
 419 is in harvest rotation as marketable. (7). The combined 698 million acres are under
 420 *constrained deforestation 2.3.2*. The 74 million acres in “Reserved Forest” comprise
 421 preserves, parks, and monuments, most of which are national parks. They are protected by
 422 law and hence cannot be harvested. The significance of the observation is that up to 91% of
 423 United States forest lands are under *constrained deforestation 2.3.2* and practicing *tree*
 424 *degradation 2.10* to keep up with the economic demand. Yet it is intentionally made devoid
 425 of any *sequestration value 2.1*.



426
 427 Figure 5: “Distribution of Forest Land by Region and Stand Age, 2012” (7)

428 “Predominant U.S. timber stand age varies by region. In the South, where more acres of
 429 short-rotation yellow pine trees are planted, 51% of timberland is less than 40 years old
 430 compared with 20% in the North and 22% in the West. In contrast, 56% of northern timber
 431 land is more than 60 years old, compared with 27% in the South and 69% in the West.”-
 432 United States Department of Agriculture, USDA, Forest Service, 2014

433 The problem with Figure 5 data and an ongoing conversation is that the USDA refrained
 434 from starting the stand ages at zero, excluding a “highly” significant percentage of trees
 435 from the graph as less than five years old. It also negates bare ground and does not provide
 436 acreages. That all skews the ratio of trees within its age brackets into a higher age and
 437 higher percentage of land than at the time of the survey. Therefore, the graph is not entirely
 438 accurate; it does serve the study’s purpose of tree age demonstration. Despite its data
 439 inconsistency, it still alarmingly demonstrates the study’s conclusion on the lack of forest

440 maturity impeding sequestration. No calculations have been modeled from the inconsistent
441 data presented in Figure 5.

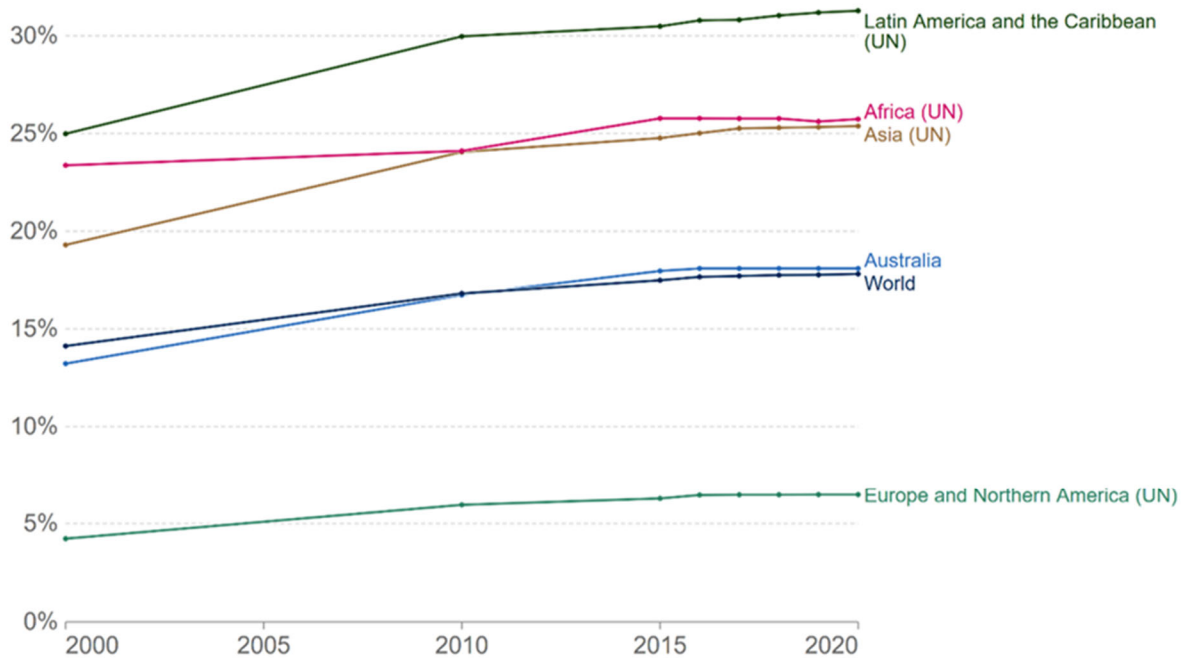
442 Global forest age is also an essential component of the data. The study determined that
443 most, if not all, foreign lands to the United States are considered “much” less than or equal
444 to the United States Department of Agriculture data shown in Figure 5. However, United
445 Nations data is used for global calculations because it appears complete and unbiased.
446 Again, Amazonian forests are the exception.

447 Today, *Demand-driven forestry 2.11* practices globally focus on growing replacement
448 trees into usable biomass size as quickly as possible. The scheme within the process is
449 further defined using Thompson’s *tree degradation 2.10* definition. *Tree degradation 2.10*
450 results, as depicted in Figure 5 as decreased maturity, show that immature trees are
451 repeatedly harvested earlier. As such, immature trees dominate the world’s 8.5 billion acres
452 of unprotected forests today. (13)

453 Satellite pictures worldwide (may be obtained using Google Maps) confirm that forestry
454 harvesting happens almost everywhere. It also demonstrates globally just how young trees
455 are. For all forests globally, replants, natural regeneration (or bare ground), and *constrained*
456 *deforestation 2.3.2* are present in all but minor exceptions noted previously. As difficult as
457 this is within CMS understandings, many replanted and naturally regenerating afforestation
458 efforts in the Americas or overseas have been, are being, or will be used to meet *demand-*
459 *driven forestry 2.11* in the future. (9) (13) (8)

460 By 1960, finding a mature forest that had not been harvested at least once was difficult
461 anywhere in the world and is even more challenging today. All forests would have been
462 harvested at many sites many times over if it could be harvested. As a result, in Figure 5,
463 less than 1% of all U.S. forests contain mature (300+) three hundred-plus years old. Thus,
464 within the U.S., less than 1% of CO₂ fast-cycle sinks have significant maturity. Hence, the
465 maturity required for sequestration of 1,200–2,400 pounds of CO₂ per tree per year as old
466 growth is absent. (5) (4). Of the numerous trees on Earth, approximately 1.8 trillion, with
467 over a trillion in Russia alone, the majority exist as highly immature > 40 years and tightly
468 replanted. (9)

469 The notion that a tree can sequester 1,200–2,400 pounds plus of CO₂ solely because it is
470 mature is also an incomplete perspective. Many marketable tree species can; however, it can
471 take centuries of maturity within the right environment (3) (2). The trees, whose data are
472 illustrated in Figure 5, described as “Northern Timberland,” comprising 56% of the stands
473 over 60, provide a good example. Species and the environment can hinder them. Unlike the
474 same aged trees as the 27% in the South and 69% in the West, trees within those two
475 environments have a good jump on restoring both biomass and “*binary restricted resources*
476 *2.2.*” Species and habitats can improve biomass growth rates and sequestration faster than
477 the trees within the northern species that thrive within harsher winters and shortened
478 growing seasons that hinder the species in the South and West. (2) (4) This opens a
479 conversation about a region or species having difficulty growing trees. Thompson believes
480 that the species and geographical restrictions make impediments of some sinks scalable in
481 forming climate change conditions. Per this study, all trees possess a *sequestration value 2.1*
482 some possess more than others given location and species.



Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

OurWorldInData.org/biodiversity • CC BY

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Figure 6: “Share of Forest Area Within Protected Areas, 2000 to 2020” United Nations Data graphed by OurWorldinData.org (13)

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Figure 6 shows the percentage of protected forests by region and year. “A protected area is a clearly definable geographical space, recognized and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values.”-according to the United Nations (13)

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Figure 6 depicts the world's legally protected forestry as a percent of the region's total forestry. The United States has legally protected 6.71–10.23% of its forest area. Moreover, the “World” has between 14.12–17.81%. Note: Latin America includes South America's Amazonian Forests. Per the graph in Figure 6, it can be concluded that 82.19 to 85.79 % of global forest is unprotected from harvesting per United Nations data.

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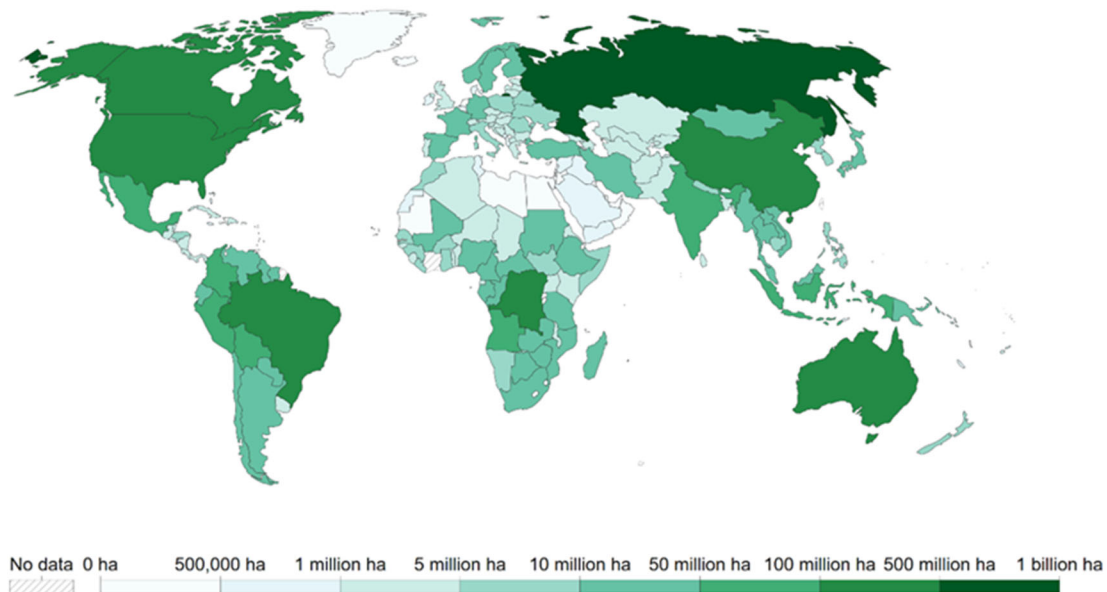
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Nevertheless, these figures are speculated to be too low. Even Google satellite images picture “many” other country's forests as 100% harvested and mostly in regeneration and bare land. It is logically inferred that this is probably because “protected” globally could mean laws protecting the wood industry, unlike the protection of both the forest and the wood industry in the United States. Figures 4 and 5 provide evidence of the understated United Nations data, although it is contained in U.S. data and highly skewed toward non-existent maturity. The United States, Canada, and “the free world” have laws and civil obedience protecting forests. Elsewhere, not so much. “When a coin can be stamped out with forest, forests quickly become harvested.”-Thompson.



Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

OurWorldInData.org/forest-area • CC BY

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Figure 7: “Forest Area, 2020”

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“Forest area is land under natural or planted stands of trees of at least 5 meters in situ, whether productive or not, and excludes tree stands in agricultural systems.” Figure 7 indicates hectares covered by country. The darker the green shade, the higher the forestry hectares available within that country.

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According to the UN, the world has 31.04–35.52% of its land covered in forest. In contrast, Figure 1 indicates that it is approximately 38%. Both datasets seem reasonable for estimation, but the United Nations data looks logically more accurate. Using United Nations data in Figures 6 and 7, we found that this accounts for $4.06 \times E^9$ to $4.2 \times E^9$ ha (hectares) or 4,060,000,000 to 4,200,000,000 (billion) hectares, which is $1.00282 \times E^{10}$ to $1.0374 \times E^{10}$ acres or simply 10,028,200,000 to 10,374,000,000 (billion) global forestry acres. Therefore, based on his previous conversations, Thompson estimates 8.5 billion acres to be unprotected forests and subject to harvesting. These acres are under *constrained deforestation 2.3.2* practices as being resource marketable.

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Therefore, a tree on those 8.5 billion acres sequesters an average of 40–50 pounds of carbon $\times 3.67$ (carbon 12 amu to carbon dioxide 44 amu conversion) from 146.8–183.5 pounds of CO₂ sequestered that year (5). Thus, one acre of *constrained deforested* forest sequesters 16,000–20,000 pounds of CO₂ just before it is harvested between the ages of 30–40.

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Allowing the tree to mature for another 20 years (age 50), when not managed for product demands, can increase the carbon sequestered 90–100 pounds from 303.3–367 pounds of CO₂ sequestered from the atmosphere (in a year), which can be 33,059–40,000 pounds of CO₂ sequestered per acre (in a year).

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To establish a modest baseline below, Thompson averages the 50-year-old tree CO₂ sequestration to 335 pounds of CO₂ per tree as 36,515 pounds of CO₂ per acre sequestered that year.

531 As described as 109 trees per acre. BA70-120, 20' x 20' spacing (18), 106 pounds carbon
532 stored (that year), 335 pounds CO₂ per tree sequestered, age 50 years on average, a fast-
533 growing conifer, avg diameter (DBH) 16 to 24" (5) = 36,515-pounds CO₂ per acre / 2,204.6
534 pounds to metric tonnes = 16.56 tonnes CO₂ is sequestered per acre (that year).

535 1. 8.5 billion, "unprotected" acres × 16.56 tonnes CO₂ per acre = 1.4076 × E¹¹ tonnes
536 CO₂ sequestered, or 140.76 gigatonnes CO₂ sequestered that year. This was
537 accomplished by increasing the average tree harvest by 20 years to age 50, thus
538 exceeding the 35 gigatonnes of human emissions by 105.76 gigatonnes.

539 *Tree or forest sequestration rates are known to increase by 3–8% per year each year it*
540 *remains unharvested. (5) (2)*

541 2. Hence, at age 59, nine years later, the tree in the example expands to
542 approximately 134.1 pounds of carbon sequestered from 492 pounds of
543 atmospheric CO₂ that year. So, 8.5 billion acres × 53,628 pounds CO₂ per acre is
544 206 gigatonnes of CO₂ sequestered from the atmosphere that year by increasing
545 tree maturity nine years past 50 years in the unprotected forest. A 47% increase of
546 CO₂ sequestered is achieved in nine years.

547 3. Below, Thompson uses an average 6% annual tree growth rate using the 8.5
548 million acres:

549 a. At age 66, 225 gigatonnes of CO₂ are sequestered per year.

550 b. At age 71, 301 gigatonnes of CO₂ are sequestered per year.

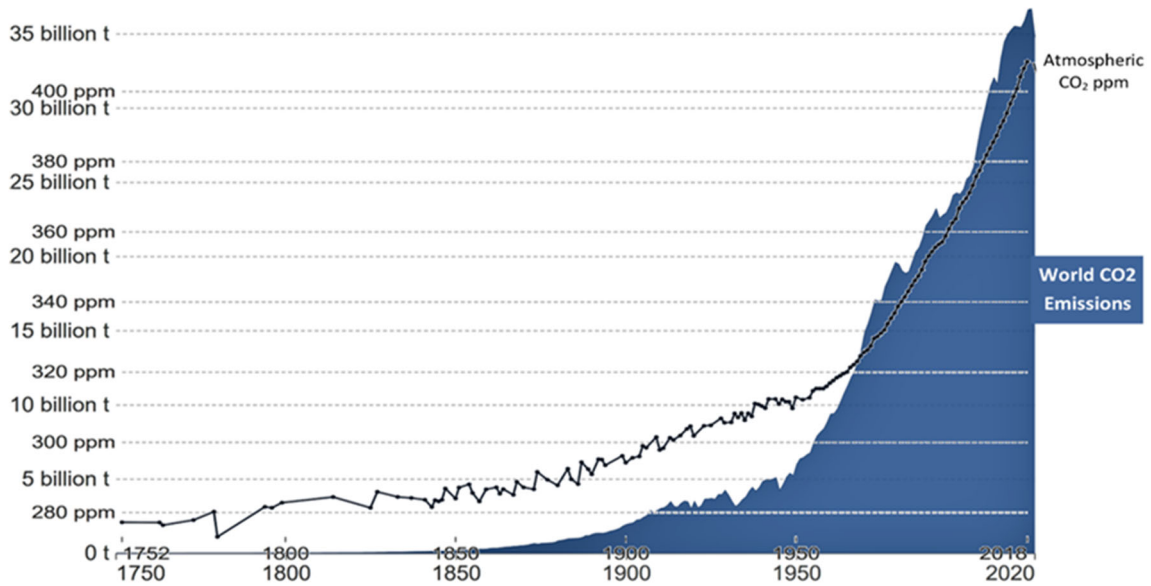
551 c. At age 78, 453 gigatonnes of CO₂ are sequestered per year.

552 d. At age 84, 643 gigatonnes of CO₂ are sequestered per year.

553 4. Using the *proportionality* definition of 2.8, the amount of forestry acres required
554 to mitigate CO₂-driven climate change is *proportional* to the maturity of the forest
555 used.

556 Notes: Marketable tree species susceptible to harvesting practices are symbolic of this
557 assessment. For example, although the information estimated from credible sources suggests
558 that many tree species in good locations outperform the following sequestration evaluation.
559 Tree CO₂ sequestration depends on many factors mentioned earlier; hence, this evaluation
560 might be underestimated for some trees; notably, during the carbon hump, IE when the
561 forest plot released more CO₂ than the amount that its replanted or regenerated trees could
562 absorb. (16) Ongoing releases after 30 years of growth are conversational with future study
563 of geographically constrained areas and tree species are implied.

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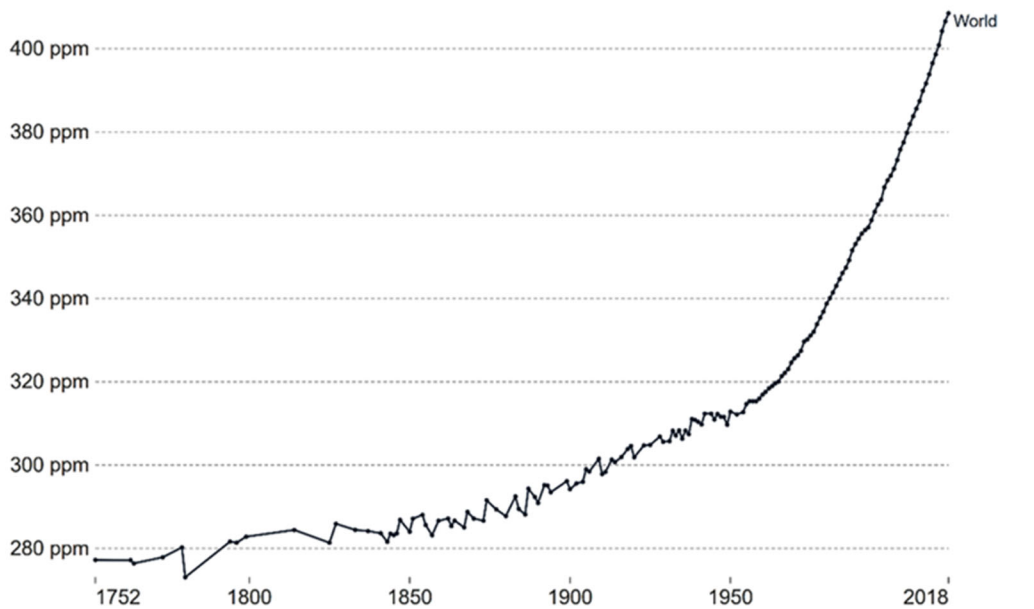
Source: Global Carbon Project
 Note: This measures CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels and cement production only – land use change is not included. 'Statistical differences' (included in the GCP dataset) are not included here.

Source: NOAA/ESRL Global Monitoring Division
 OurWorldInData.org/co2-and-other-greenhouse-gas-emissions/ • CC BY

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Figure 8: “1750 to 2020 Human CO₂ Emissions Overlaid with Atmospheric CO₂ Levels.”

Figure 8 is an overlay resulting in a y-axis indicating both CO₂ ppm and World CO₂ emissions aligned by the x-axis year. “World CO₂ Emissions” are shown as a blue colored area beginning in 1750 and “Atmospheric CO₂ ppm” as a dark black line starting in 1752.



Source: NOAA/ESRL Global Monitoring Division
 OurWorldInData.org/co2-and-other-greenhouse-gas-emissions/ • CC BY

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Figure 9: “Global CO₂ Atmospheric Concentration”

573 Data extracted in 2020. Figure 9's y-axis is atmospheric CO₂ parts per million, ppm, levels in
574 relation to the x-axis indicating the year measured. This graph is overlaid onto Figure 8 and
575 provides a contrast between human emission levels and atmospheric CO₂ ppm levels. Although
576 the increase of both data looks similar, no correlation between the two trends is quantitatively
577 distinguishable. However, Figure 9 does correlate to historic forestry uses and atmospheric CO₂
578 levels with "demand-driven forestry 2.11" and land uses of Figure 1.

579 Data from Figure 8 was overlaid with data from Figure 9. Observations of this overlay
580 include the data points from the study's 1850 climate datum. Although the y-axis is not
581 scaled together, the x-axis is aligned to years, making the overlay accurate for years but not
582 for ppm conversion to tonnes. Conversion is not the scope of the graph; years are.

583 Those years reflect the decline of fast-cycle sinks in an upward trend long before human
584 emission expansion; additionally, see Figure S1 for increased human domestication duration
585 data that clarifies the upward trend in ppm existed long before the expansion of human
586 emissions. (1) (19)

587 Using the data from Figure 8, 1850 was approximated as a *climate change datum 2.4* for
588 climate change, i.e., the beginning of climate-changing impacts and not the beginning of
589 climate change demonstrated in Figure S1. The CMS *climate change datum 2.4* was
590 established with atmospheric CO₂'s relation with *demand-driven forestry 2.11* and land use
591 effect on terrestrial fast-cycle CO₂ sinks. The datum's timeline placement is explained in the
592 following sections.

593 *Figure S1: Climate changes beginning following human domestication of forestry, Demand-*
594 *driven Forestry 2.11*

595 The compelling upward trend in atmospheric CO₂ ppm can only indicate that something
596 other than non-existent human emissions (Until the Industrial Revolution) is creating
597 climate change (Figure. S1). Thompson states, "Biome modification by humans is the only
598 explanation; we (human population) is the only thing added to that closed system (*as a law*
599 *of conservation 2.6*) nor do we introduce fossil fuel emissions until much later." He relates
600 that upward trend to the demand on forestry and land uses as the human need for forestry
601 resources.

602 3.5. Correlations to Atmospheric CO₂

603 The current study looks for standard atmospheric CO₂ ppm patterns as an uptick in CO₂ ppm
604 fall through Winter, then a downtick before the beginning of the following non growth season
605 fall. The trend indicates the planet's photosynthesis-driven growth cycle and its Fast-Cycle CO₂
606 sink abilities. This pattern is empirically understood and existed before humans or their
607 emissions because of natural CO₂ emissions bulk. Thompson found the pattern was being
608 influenced negatively, so around 1850, CMS's *Climate change datum 2.4* marked the time as
609 human domestication crossed the threshold of climate change consequences.

610
611 Note: Natural emissions are estimated to be between 400–750 gigatonnes annually. Indeed,
612 unreliable numbers for this topic abound and seem highly dependent on the source reporting;
613 Thompson found no reoccurring data to compare, but, as evidence to the claim, per MIT's
614 Climate Portal (20), "*that total (natural emissions) dwarfs humanity's contribution, amounting to*
615 *ten times as much CO₂ as humans produce through activities such as burning fossil fuels.*"
616 Thompson also notes that the quote does not mention details like forestry, industrial, agricultural,

617 volcanic, animal respiration, and ocean vents contributing to natural emissions. *The conversation*
618 *thus shifts to just how much CO₂ is naturally produced? Undoubtedly, hundreds of gigatonnes*
619 *exist, and rationality dictates somewhere between 400 and 750 gigatonnes annually.*

620 Before the 1850s (*climate change datum 2.4*), Figures 8, 9, and 10 illustrate atmospheric ppm
621 levels that suggest relatively robust global CO₂ fast-cycle sinks, indicative of a “fairly healthy”
622 state. Notable forestry damage was noted to have accumulated in prior centuries notably in
623 Europe and Asia (12) (14), as revealed by an upward trend in Figure S1. However, before and
624 around 1850, the world had abundant sequestration ability that slowed the upward ppm trend
625 with a more balanced interaction with emission’s input into Earth’s atmosphere. The trend
626 direction shows that the terrestrial sinks were and are in retrograde because oceanographic sinks
627 could not have been impaired or overpowered by emissions, yet.

628 Figure S1’s precedence in the upward ppm trend demonstrates that climate change existed
629 long before human CO₂ emissions increased during the Industrial Revolution, and, therefore,
630 human emissions could not be the sole cause of climate change.

631 Although the contours of Figures 8 and 9 look similar, their trends do not correlate even when
632 adjusted for decades of atmospheric residence time, which also began rapidly increasing around
633 the 1850s (*demand-driven forestry’s 2.11*). Thompson believes the growth cycle started an
634 accelerated decline in volume sequestered around his 1850 *climate change datum 2.4*.

635 There exist unique sequestration signals around 1850 in the ppm data, marking the first
636 instance wherein the global CO₂ fast-cycle deviates noticeably from a closer balanced state with
637 emissions inputs. The somewhat homeostatic relationship between Earth and humans is believed
638 to have been lost from then onwards. The cause lies within the yearly ppm data correlating to
639 *constrained and unconstrained deforestation 2.3* practices, which by 1850 had begun to rapidly
640 spread globally. (12) (14)

641 This demonstrates that land use modifications, such as *unconstrained deforestation 2.3.1* and
642 the ongoing demise of the world's remaining mature trees entering into immature harvest
643 rotations, termed *constrained deforestation 2.3.2*, have unintended climate impacts. They are
644 geoengineering or undesired terraforming. More accessible data correlations occur from 1700 to
645 1920, proceed into further pinnacles around 1950 and 1990, and continue into modern times,
646 1700–2022. Therefore, only one conclusion can explain the upward trend in atmospheric CO₂
647 and its correlation to impeding sequestration. Global forestry misuse.

648 Thompson also notes the presence of carbon isotopes within ppm in the atmosphere. The only
649 reliable source of C₁₄ increase is fossil fuel use or atomic testing. He explains that a particular
650 isotopes presence becomes moot because it has no other place to accumulate due to the lack of
651 sequestration. *The conversation also becomes, can photosynthesis sequester the more complex*
652 *isotopes as well, or will they continue to collect and decay within atmospheric conditions? C₁₃ at*
653 *1% and C₁₄ at less than 0.0000000001% of the atmospheric volume are found somewhat*
654 *irrelevant to this study’s scope but concerning given enough time.*

655

656 **4. Exploring sequestration data, CO₂ ppm deltas**

657 The upward ppm trend accelerated around CMS’s 1850 *climate change datum 2.4* but had
658 been occurring even before. The difference is before around 1850, ppm deltas were still mostly
659 erratic. They exhibited large horizontal ppm swings as picturesque growth cycles, which
660 Thompson evaluates the swings as typical indications of atmospheric residence conditions,

661 sequestration ability as outflows, and CO₂ emissions inflows. To explain the growth cycle,
662 Figure S2 is used.

663 Figure S2 is a close-up of 2022's global CO₂ fast-cycle sinks' impact on atmosphere CO₂ in
664 residence. Atmospheric CO₂ results were measured by NOAA using the flask method at Mauna
665 Lou Observatory and recorded in ppm. The 2022 ppm year-end readings are higher than where
666 they started, demonstrating the upward trend in atmospheric accumulation.

667 Figure S2 demonstrates global fast-cycle sequestration within its atmospheric CO₂ ppm
668 measurements. Spring and Summer extend from May through September as months 5–9, with
669 the ppm downtick during the “fast sink cycle” or growth cycle. October through April of the
670 following year, as months 10–4, plants cease growing (sequestering), causing an uptick in ppm.

671 Specifically, down and upticks in Figure S2 occurring June-February are the northern
672 hemisphere's growth cycle, and the minor cycle on the right expresses the southern hemisphere's
673 opposite seasonal cycle. In contrast, the southern hemisphere is roughly 32% of Earth's total land
674 mass, a portion of which is Antarctica and not within the scope of this study as it is devoid of
675 trees. Therefore, the slight down and upticks transpire from approximately 90% of South
676 America as the lower 2/3rds of South America, one-third of Southern Africa, and all of
677 Australia/New Zealand. Therefore, most, if not all, of that smaller growth cycle downtick is
678 created by the untouched portions of the Amazonian forests and minor forests in the southern
679 hemisphere, not within *constrained deforestation 2.3.2*.

680 *4.1. CO₂ ppm Deltas, Inflows, Outflows, Differences, and Combined Data*

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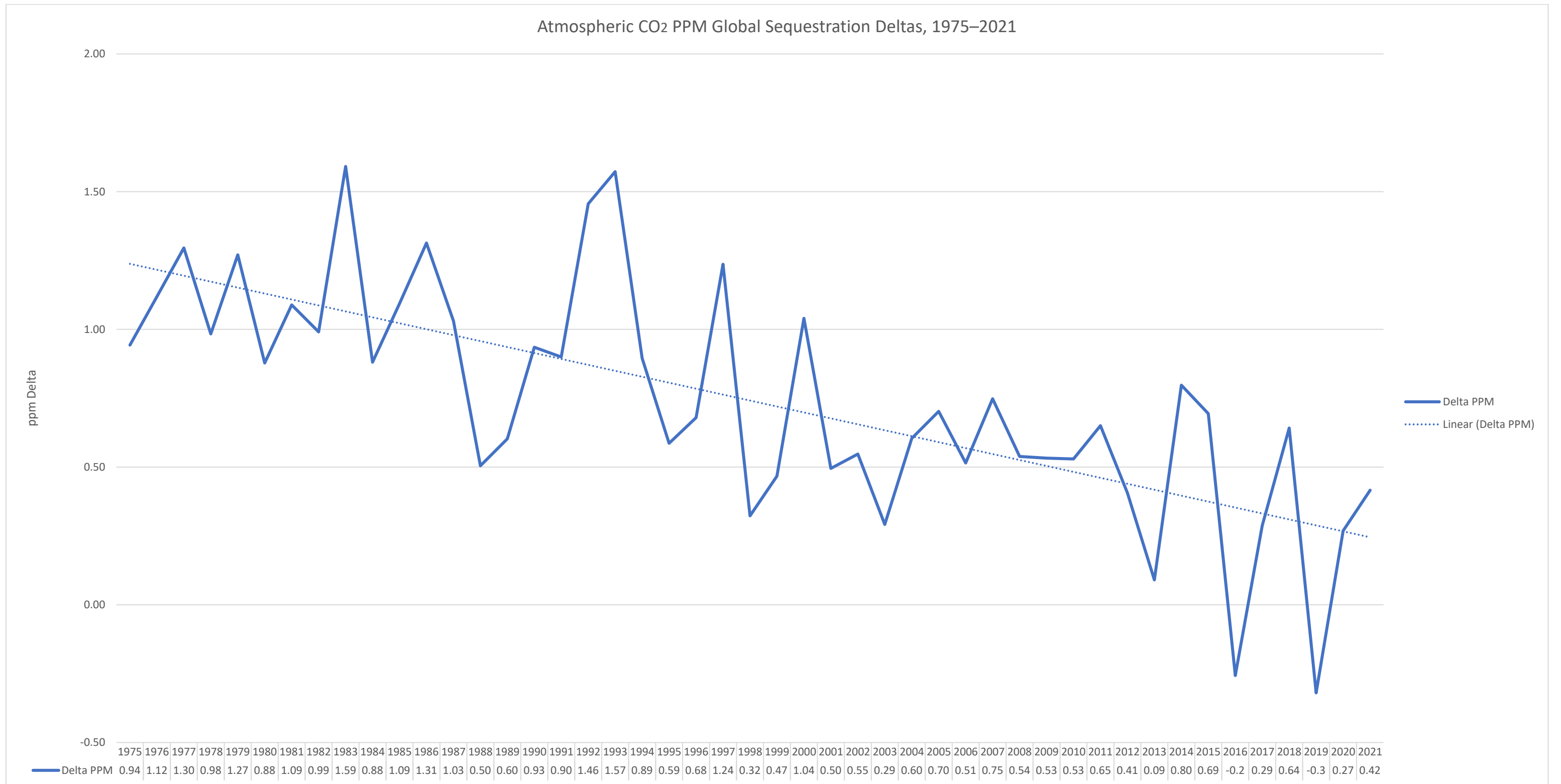


Figure 10: “Atmospheric CO₂ ppm Deltas 1975-2021”

The erratic blue line of Figure 10 moves from the annual growth period peak and its valley from the yearend of the growth cycle to the beginning of the following year’s growth cycle. The value for CO₂ ppm Delta is indicated along the x-axis, as is the year. The y-axis is the ppm level. The dotted blue line indicates the linear trend using the difference of squares method.

Data from Figure 9 was further disseminated to determine and provide secondary proof of Global CO₂ sequestering ability per growth cycle. The experiment was to assess *CO₂ ppm deltas*, the results of which are in Figure 10 and also defined by *sequestration value 2.1*. An expected conclusion with an unexpected result occurred. Figure 10's determination of the declining sequestration trend also offers a scale to measure sequestration-based climate modeling that gauges sequestration's health based on CO₂ atmospheric ppm.

Weekly NOAA ppm observations were averaged into ppm by month to arrive at the gauge's inflection. The month was then classified into a growth or non-growth month. Spring and Summer as May through September, growth months 5–9, followed by October to April of the following year, as non-growth months 10–4. Growth/non-growth cycles were then calculated to provide the average ppm during the cycle. The cycle offers two annual points: the highest ppm during non-growth months 10–4 and the lowest ppm point during growth cycle months 5–9. The difference from the highest to lowest point is recorded as a *CO₂ ppm Delta* graphed in Figure 10. A positive or negative Delta indicates sequestration amplitude during that growth cycle as a difference between growth and non-growth months in ppm. For example, “On average, x-amount of CO₂ ppm was sequestered from atmosphere residence during that period's growth cycle.”

Thus, showing a difference as a ppm Delta, the Delta or change is recorded from the non-growth cycle's highest point to its lowest point during the growth cycle. Figure 10 demonstrates the year-over-year difference in CO₂ ppm sequestered within the growth cycle's year to the following year. Specifically, the CO₂ ppm Delta point is the “ability” of sequestration during the growth cycle.

The linear trend line established in Figure 10 indicates the sequestration capabilities of the growth cycle over time. *The study did not necessarily precisely measure how much CO₂ is being removed from the atmosphere*. Instead, the “*CO₂ ppm Delta*” focuses on *Earth's ability to remove CO₂ from the atmosphere by providing an average yearly indicator of sequestration health*.

The study's method avoids the complexity of establishing how much was sequestered in ppm, considering how ppm increased or decreased during growth/non-growth months. As a result, inflows as emissions and Earth's two growth cycles, the Northern and Southern hemispheres, are accounted for within the difference as a Delta, of the ppm accumulation peak and the ppm reduction valley floor.

CO₂ ppm Delta results are alarming. The trend indicates a quickly declining global sequestration ability to the point of negatives, first forming in 2016 and repeating in 2019.

The trend had been long in forming much earlier than Figure 10's periods (beginning in 1975). Sequestration ability declined enough around the study's *climate change datum 2.4* of around 1850 to increase CO₂ atmospheric residence time. Again, it correlates directly to human domestication's *demand-driven forestry 2.11* and land uses as *unconstrained and constrained deforestation 2.3* practices.

Figure 10 provides additional evidence that climate change is not entirely emissions-based. It is more *sequestration-dependent 2.7*. The trend as the decline in ppm sequestered gradually occurred over millennia and cannot be correlated to human emissions. A relation is more evident to naturally emitted CO₂ having overrun a declining sequestration ability due to human domestication engineering the human biome. As such, natural and human emissions are a guilty input but not anywhere near the entirety.

Atmospheric ppm inflow and outflow measurements were used to check Figure 10's CO₂ ppm Delta results. Again, NOAA data used in Figures 9 and 10 was employed and disseminated in separate methodology to establish CO₂ ppm inflow and outflow in Figures S3–S6. Numbers used as real (+1) and imaginary (-1,0) were compiled to a positive integer to reflect CO₂ ppm inflow and a negative integer to reflect outflow. Each integer was determined by the weekly ppm measurement average less the next weekly ppm average and multiplied by -1 to orientate the result as an atmospheric CO₂ + inflow or – outflow. The data model for this experiment also breaks down the results by growth and non-growth months used in Figure 10. However, graphing further results beyond Figure 10 and S3–S6 were not required to check results. The slope of trend lines between Figure 10 and S5 outflows indicate a linear difference of 0.0182, indicating an acute relationship. The linear slope difference between Figure 10 and S4 is 0.0023, expressing almost perfect symmetry. Therefore, the CO₂ ppm Delta is valid for measuring sequestration.

4.2. *Additional Correlation*

By unintentional design, Figure 10's periods in years correlate to Figure 2's 1980s pinnacle of forestry loss. They can be observed more closely in Figure S5's 1980s, further establishing the 1990 era super declines in sequestration. Those *constrained and unconstrained deforestation 2.3* actions are not offset by replants or natural regeneration as was intended and shown in Figure 2. That correlation is also viewable from 2000 on in Figure S5, as stated in section 4. As an additional resource to claim, Figure 3 demonstrates the global expansion of wood-producing plantings and the reduction of natural regeneration. Those actions are done to keep up with demand on newly acquired lands to speed natural regeneration and expand harvestable holdings.

Therefore, the *constrained deforestation 2.3.2* effect represented as afforestation in Figure 2 is more representative of the expansion of replanted land for future harvesting than environment enhancement. (13)

4.3. *Emission- or Sequestration-Dependent 2.7 Calculations*

In this experiment, Thompson calculates the difference between emissions and sequestration using current emission reduction attempts and sequestration enhancement goals to mitigate CO₂-driven climate change.

Emission reduction attempts fail at curing climate change because they do not address the more critical side of the equation. The precedence formed is that humans can only influence human CO₂ emissions. Humans cannot “directly” control natural CO₂ emissions like volcanoes, annual plant die-offs, ocean vents, or animal respiration.

Human emissions are estimated at 35 gigatonnes, while natural emissions are between 400–750 (575 average) gigatonnes yearly (6) (15). In addition, emission reduction efforts do little to address the atmospheric CO₂ in residence conditions. As shown in Figure 10, atmospheric CO₂ is quickly running out of places to become sequestered, increasing ppm. Therefore, humans are *sequestration and emissions-dependent 2.7* to maintain our biome. The problem Thompson clarifies with emission reduction attempts is they ultimately add CO₂ and do nothing to sequester it. As stated, “The human domestication plight requires CO₂ emissions as much as the act of being human releases CO₂ as a significant function of the human lifecycle.”

4.3.1. *Estimating emissions effect on climate*

1. 400 gigatonnes of natural CO₂ emissions annually. Thompson uses the smaller estimate for naturally occurring emissions.

2. 35 gigatonnes of Human CO₂ emissions annually, the more common estimate.
3. Using 5.1480×10^{18} kg as the atmosphere's mass is also a common estimate.
4. The atmosphere's composition is 28.97 g per mol, so the atmosphere consists of (28.97 g per mol / 1000) to kg) = $5.1480 / .02897 = 177.7 \times 10^{18}$ moles.
5. A ppm is therefore estimated at = 177.7×10^{18} moles / $10.0 \times 10^5 = 177.7 \times 10^{12}$ moles.
 - a. One mole of CO₂ has a mass of 44.01 g, so the mass of one ppm of CO₂ is $177.7 \times 44.01 = 7,821 \times 10^{12}$ grams or 7.821 gigatonnes of CO₂ per ppm.
 - b. At writing, the current global atmospheric CO₂ ppm is 421 ppm $\times 7.821 = 3,292$ gigatonnes of CO₂ has accumulated in Earth's atmosphere (as of writing) and is suspended within atmospheric residence conditions.
 - c. Earth's atmosphere would like to be "around" or less than 230 CO₂ ppm (@ 1,798 gigatonnes), so 3,292 gigatonnes of CO₂ currently in the atmosphere - 1,798 gigatonnes CO₂ to achieve 230 ppm = 1,494 gigatonnes of CO₂ must be removed/sequestered from Earth's atmosphere.
6. $400 + 35 + 1,494$ gigatonnes of CO₂, in total, 1,929 gigatonnes of CO₂ must be addressed to mitigate or cure climate to 230 ppm of CO₂; 435 gigatonnes are reoccurring annually with the caveats described in the summary.

Summary of calculation:

As 35 gigatonnes CO₂ possible in emission reduction attempts / 1,929 gigatonnes CO₂ required sequestered, emissions-based climate curation attempts address 0.18% of the climate condition's cause and do not address sequestration. In contrast, this study addresses 100% or, if the reader prefers, the remaining 99.82 % of climate-changing conditions. Besides, considering reduction attempts have not come close to date at reducing annual human emissions.

Calculating every year: Emissions-based reduction attempts attempt to remove 35 gigatonnes of natural plus human emissions as approximately 435 gigatonnes = 8.04%. Whereas, again, sequestration addresses 100% or, if the reader prefers a relationship from the previous calculation, 91.95%. As self-evident in both calculations and the last 50 years of reduction results historically failing, the difference in approaches appears undeniable.

Caveats: Thompson's current discussion does not account for the current sequestration volume per year because, per Figure 10, this value exhibits a negative trend. Therefore, any improvement globally in sequestration should have an immediate impact measurable in ppm. In addition, it does not calculate percentages directly by the year with the static atmospheric ppm levels used because the percentage of usefulness highly favors sequestration. After all, emissions reduction cannot address current atmospheric concentrations. Instead, they rely on sequestration. Future conversations may incorporate durations in years, input more directly, and running totals to current sequestration rates. Nonetheless, the example provided holds firmly with the contrast and comparison from today's highly simplified historical results and analysis combined with basic math-derived modeling. Emission reduction and sequestration enhancement were fairly made equal within the constraints of tonnes of CO₂ to be dealt with. Each of their benefits applied to that constraint is demonstrated in contrast. Therefore, the CMS study has produced a valid and highly repeatable result. The difference in emission and sequestration approaches to define and

mitigate CO₂-driven climate change is undeniable, regardless of additional assumptions or time inputs.

5. Discussion

Common definitions could not describe the study's sequestration-related findings. Thompson suggested the eleven explanations in the opening of this manuscript to help define the logic of sequestration's effect on climate change. As definitions, they include specific interpretations of findings and establish precedence, perhaps solely.

Damage to terrestrial sinks is distinguished as deltas in Figure 10 during and after the planet's growth cycle. Their trend shows that lower CO₂ ppm is being sequestered. The CO₂ ppm Delta's are alarming. A steady decline and going negative in two of the past seven years indicate sequestration capacity is alarmingly decreasing per *proportionality 2.8*. CO₂ residence time is increasing as sequestration abilities are decreasing. Exploring this model, Figure 10, using higher math orders to further isolate variables is ongoing. Should this model prove further valid with its expansion and additional study, the repercussions within human domestication could prove to be, at best, grim but measurable.

The model for the emissions effect on climate compared to the sequestration effect provides a surprising contrast to address or mitigate CO₂-driven climate change effectively. Sequestration is the better method by looking at the problem's entirety and not at only one input.

Thompson suggests Earth may have entered a runaway greenhouse gas effect around 1950 CE. The ongoing conversation includes exponential "like" impacts of atmospheric CO₂ residence time via sequestration impediment when compared to global temperature increases in a nonlinear form. The ongoing study's preliminary results were derived but not confirmed in time for this manuscript.

Terrestrial fast-cycle CO₂ sinks do not need more CO₂ than is available. It is more natural for plant life to lack CO₂ than to have excessive CO₂. Excessive CO₂ fertilization creates plant growth problems. The global measure of current and ongoing CO₂ fertilization is a further conversation to establish CMS precedence within another discipline-specific study.

Thompson's theory, based on CMS's manuscript, demonstrates that 3–5% of useful CO₂ sequestration abilities exist globally as mature forests; "3–5% useful sequestration further places humans at the precipice of a climate collapse due to any large-scale volcanic (VEI 7 or higher) activity, volcanic events like 536 CE or 1816 CE, "The Year without a Summer," accelerating the greenhouse gas effect." These events can change our climate overnight but now pose a more significant threat than ever before.

Climate significance is derived from the eruption's CO₂ ppm contribution to the atmosphere and the ejected debris in the atmosphere, resulting in a mini-ice age and years of drought following. The latter dramatically impedes global photosynthesis. That impediment can be defined briefly to climate, during a mini-ice age, as *constrained "global" deforestation*. Tree ring studies have shown tree growth rates collapse by 80–90% or can even succumb during mini-ice periods. (21) The global implication is that a twofold effect is documented during the mini-ice age. First, natural (or human) CO₂ emissions normally sequestered during growth cycles enter into atmospheric residence conditions during the years of mini-ice age. Second, during the mini-ice era, plant and animal "die-offs" contributed vast quantities of CO₂ into atmospheric

residence conditions. Those two effects seem well documented historically, just as the decades of drought that follow mini-ice ages are.

Additional significance to Thompson's theory is that within periods of recorded volcanic effects on climate, Earth's CO₂ forestry sequestration was millions of percentiles more valuable than today. It, therefore, stands to reason should such an event occur today, the difficulty in domestication recovery may be impossible when compared to previous recoveries that are historically documented. Ultimately, the possibility of today's climate demonstrating recovery is uncertain at best.

Suppose you remove humans from forestry use, historically, but keep human's current 35 gigatonnes of CO₂ emissions. In that case, there is no CO₂-driven climate change due to forestry's unimpeded fast-cycle sink maturity providing sinks in quantities and capacities. This consideration substantiates this study's evaluation and conversations.

If you eliminate human emissions today, CO₂ climate change still exists because natural emissions are the bulk of the annual CO₂ emissions. One could argue that the runaway effect and atmospheric buildup would slow; and, thus providing additional proof of this study's conclusions. That's because that exact scenario existed before the onset of human domestication expansion between 5,000 and 4,000 BCE through this study's *climate change datum 2.4* around 1850.

In the scope of the sequestration conversation, energy-consuming sequestration attempts are nullified to climate mitigation and prone to failure. Converting atmospheric CO₂ into anything or storage requires energy. It is irrelevant if the energy input is atomic, solar, wind, tide, hydro, or something not yet invented. The scheme will still leak CO₂ to process CO₂. Nothing can compete with forestry's energy advantage: photosynthesis—the most energy-efficient way to convert and store CO₂. Photosynthesis naturally expands exponentially with solar power that comes within a self-contained and permanent carbon storage. No human device yet can compete with the efficiency of photosynthesis within its quantitative configuration.

6. Materials and Methods

Compelling evidence was revealed when modeling Advanced Woody Composites (AWC) products' carbon benefits within raw material supply chains. Primarily an empirical and applied research that presented qualitative evidence of forest maturity affecting sequestration ability. That also appeared quantitative as *proportional 2.8*. An analytical approach was then adopted as follows:

Thompson theorized that if atmospheric CO₂ residence time is a symptom of climate change due to too many emissions, then sequestration, when measured quantitatively as its reduction, should not be affected by rising or decreasing emissions inputs. Many descriptive reports on the subject “implied” sequestrations' measurement should reflect an almost steady state in trend analysis with only residence time increasing and, possibly, CO₂ fertilization as a distant variable that may affect atmospheric CO₂ outflows. Thompson used applied and quantitative research to discover that “current” sequestration assumptions were not quantifiable.

As theorized, “common knowledge” implies the empirical rise and fall of CO₂ ppm within Earth's atmosphere should reflect similarities in trend (least squares method)

established year after year during growth and non-growth cycles of photosynthesis. However, Thompson theorized that CO₂ ppm would fail to demonstrate a trend consistency regardless of sample sizes and durations and would do so in all applied research. Sequestration, as atmospheric outflow, would be found quantitatively in year-over-year trend analysis to be in notable retrograde and consistent. Finding his theory correct, Thompson expanded the fundamental research to apply historically documented *demand-driven forestry 2.11* practices to the retrograding timeline. By doing so, the reason for sequestration's retrograde appeared logical. Eventually, it produced the theory that climate change is an environmental impact, condition, geo-engineered, and not an effect of too many emissions (solely). What he learned in confirming that theory with empirical research applied to his forestry maturity descriptive research compelled this study's conclusion of sequestration impediment by modeling with NOAA ppm data in Figures 10, S3–S6 to forestry data from USDA and United Nations, among other empirical data cited. The result of the methods applied produced multiple interrelated quantitative and qualitative proofs for each conclusion or precedence.

This manuscript is not about Thompson's AWC work (22). However, Thompson uses his AWC history as an introduction to help readers understand the more detailed climate relationship AWC's applied research underscored, along with the methodology used to form conclusions.

AWCs utilize trees more efficiently than contemporary wood-containing products due to 68–81% aeration of biomass and 8–14% of their volume composed with supplemental additives and adhesives to form recyclable structural composites. The environmental benefit calculation of AWC products compared to sawn lumber or peeled wood products produced a highly significant maturity within forestry supply models. The carbon accumulation within those forests significantly increased each thirty-year cycle completed. That result was presented due to the harvesting technique employed; forest plots were thinned of natural die offs and not clear-cut. Thinning is made possible because AWC production uses 12–18% of the forest biomass to replace 100% of contemporary wood products' clear-cut harvest. That modeling indicated a highly enhanced CO₂ negative due to increased tree maturity.

The benefit to define was the year-over-year expansion of the biomass supply; the trees were allowed to mature. Each grew bigger during each 30-year cycle, so the following cycle produced double or even triple the AWC-containing products with a decreasing percent of trees growing on the plot used and much longer durations between harvesting. Thompson determined that AWC production allowed tree plots to mature indefinitely while still answering the demand for wood products. Another relation to tree maturity that affected the CO₂ sequestration became more apparent.

The trees grow bigger and take up more space by eliminating other trees in competition for resources, primarily sunlight. Those trees confined to shadows are destined to be naturally eliminated, mainly after decades of growth. Over time, the remaining trees occupy the space the destroyed trees used. Naturally eliminated trees can be used in AWC or contemporary product production. The significance revealed within that scheme is that highly mature trees have more efficient biomass, being higher in biomass volume, so only a few per acre are needed if matured. That timed well with the natural selection processes eliminating the lesser tree naturally, but now under stewardship.

Those findings provided a theory and evidence for Thompson to conduct a further analytical study to answer the question, “What caused the significant carbon accumulation that is not present in contemporary forestry use?” He knew maturity was the effect but did not see its relation to climate change until he observed it with globally accumulated data. He was the first to see climate change for what it truly is, an environmental condition.

This invites further conversation: "If one tree puts on 100 pounds of carbon within its annual growth period, it sequestered or absorbed 367 pounds of CO₂ to do so," resulting in a 3.67:1 ratio of CO₂ 44 amu to carbon 12 amu.

The evidence presented is the biomasses' ability to sequester CO₂, using photosynthesis, at the 3.67 ratio being empirical. Further calculation using tree growth rates and moderate basal areas (50–70) on acreages supplemented Thompson's initial theory that global climate-changing conditions exist due to a lack of “existing” sequestration. By the same empirical standards, Thompson determined that international forestry plots' sequestration abilities are impeded by younger trees being harvested after replacing the more mature trees that were centuries and even millennia older. Moreover, that proved problematic for globally regulating CO₂-reliant biomes (as in Earth's enclosed climate system).

One hundred pounds of carbon sequestered by a tree per year is a meager figure, provided it is mature or can be matured. Matured longer, a typical and considered “marketable” tree can sequester hundreds or thousands of carbon pounds yearly. Critical to this evidence's context is that certain tree species, such as on North and South America's Pacific Coast, can sequester well over 1000–2400 pounds of carbon dioxide per year, given maturity, location, species, and other conditions aligning. But more often than not, all marketable tree species and where they are grown currently fit that category.

More evidence is presented as global forestry harvest rotations. Spreadsheet modeling that allowed mature trees to replace contemporary tree harvest rotations occurring before 30 and with industry standards of 30–40 years validated the theory. Using United Nations data, Thompson had already documented that 80–85% (and possibly 95%) of the global forest areas are acreages that follow contemporary forest practices using immature tree clear-cuts. The model further indicates those results, allowing the tree to mature 10–20 years more, mathematically, could eliminate CO₂-driven climate change given two “primary” caveats—first, their maturity in age. Second, the amount of acreage used. Tree species and location were also determined to be significant. With the mathematical certainties from empirical references, logic became Thompson's focus.

Thompson found logical correlations between historical forest use and contemporary climate change measurements. The correlation between historic forestry and land uses with NOAA-provided atmospheric CO₂ ppm levels leveled out the theory quantitatively. That correlation also reflected that the durations, capacities, and abilities of forestry CO₂ sinks are significant to climate-changing conditions forming.

Historical events over the years affecting forestry uses register yearly in the form of atmospheric CO₂ ppm increase. Moreover, Thompson determined that the pre-1950 CE global harvesting of the last matured trees and replacing them with replants led to less mature trees harvested in rotation and reoccurrence (harvesting smaller and smaller trees more often). Natural regeneration, being much slower in recovery duration, was also significant. In principle, all three create and perpetuate a global decrease in forestry CO₂

sink abilities and quantities. That data also proposed a *climate-changing climate change 2.4* around 1850 CE.

Thompson's graphed data in this manuscript provides evidence around 1850 of atmospheric CO₂ increasing the duration of atmospheric residence. This appeared as timed to human forestry and land uses. Thompson described it as CMS's *climate change datum 2.4* because it is a time-stamped measure of the correlation between historical forestry use and the acceleration of atmospheric carbon dioxide levels. Natural and the lesser of the two, human emissions, no longer exhibited a close to homeostatic sequestration balance. The declines existed before 1850, but 1850 stands out with known historical forestry uses, railroad and shipbuilding, and construction booms accommodating population increases.

Evidence indicates that climate change results from human biome modification, which can be seen as an undesired form of terraforming with significant environmental consequences. This implies that human emissions do not solely cause climate change. The evidence suggests that human emissions are problematic to climate but not in the way Thompson or the world had previously understood. With 1974–2022 sequestration graphing, Thompson demonstrates a declining year-over-year global sequestration Delta, in which the yearly CO₂ ppm during growth/non-growth cycles ppm is used to rate Earth's yearly growth/non-growth cycles by the average amount of CO₂ ppm sequestered annually from the atmosphere. Within those *CO₂ ppm Deltas (Figure 10, S3–S6)*, Thompson determined a scale to measure and established precedence to the importance of sequestration to mitigate CO₂-driven climate change.

His work has established precedence that emission-based mitigation as reductions is valid but is not what is required for a climate cure. Thompson has determined that we as a species fail at climate mitigation by overlooking the emissions-based inverse and, more significant, fundamental cause, CO₂ sequestration impediment.

7. Appendix

7.1. Metrics

1. The sequestration rate is measured in carbon amu or mols and is calculated by amu conversion using carbon =12 amu and CO₂ equal to 44 amu. Or $3.67 \times \text{carbon amu} = \text{CO}_2 \text{ amu}$ (C 12 +O 16 +O 16 = CO₂ 44).
2. The tabulated sources and Chapman–Richards equation determine tree growth rates. (2) (3) (15) (4) (5)
3. One mole CO₂ = 44.0 g (CO₂ = 12.0 g + 32.0 g = 44.0 g)
4. One tonne CO₂ contains 22730 moles of CO₂ (1,000,000 g /44.0 g/mole)
5. One mole is 24.47 L (Boyle's law at 25 °C and 1-atmosphere pressure)
6. Volume of one ton CO₂ = 22730 moles \times 24.47 L/mole = 556200 L = 556.2 mL
7. The atmosphere's composition is 28.97 g/ mol
8. 5.1480×10^{18} kg as the mass of the atmosphere
9. The atmosphere's composition is 28.97 g/mol, so the atmosphere consists of $5.1480/0.02897 = 177.7 \times 10^{18}$ moles.
10. An atmospheric ppm is therefore = $177.7 \times 10^{18} \text{ moles} / 10.0 \times 10^5 = \underline{177.7 \times 10^{12}}$ moles.
11. One mole of CO₂ has a mass of 44.01 g, so the mass of one ppm of CO₂ is $177.7 \times 44.01 = 7,821 \times 10^{12}$ grams or 7.821 gigatonnes of CO₂.

12. A gigatonne is 1,000,000,000 one billion metric tonnes.
13. Linear Trends were established using Gauss's "Least Squares" method.
14. In 2021, Human CO₂ emissions were estimated at 35 gigatonnes of CO₂ per year
OR, AS simplified 35,000,000,000 metric tonnes of CO₂. OR as 3.50×10^{10} tonnes
CO₂.

8. Data Availability

Center for Open Sciences, <https://osf.io/m28gn>

<https://ewc.company/downloads>

<https://CMS.earth/downloads>

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Publishing of this manuscript for noncommercial means was decided by a majority vote of its sole funding source after considering its global implications that are required versus privatization of its findings that "would take too long to do any good."

Author contributions:

All though, the cited "public" materials and data contributed significantly. No other author contributions are warranted.

Competing interests:

The author declares no competing interests have influenced the findings. On the contrary, the manuscript's conclusions dictated the author's current employment, status, and investments toward its desired outcome, climate mitigation.

Data statement:

All data are available in the main text or the supplementary materials. Much of the data within this manuscript is publicly available and listed in the included bibliography.

Most public data rely on industrial or commercial forests rather than private ones. (8) (7) (13)

All data, code, and materials used in this manuscript are available for non-commercial uses. Any commercial uses must be licensed with the owner, Vestibule Holdings, Inc.

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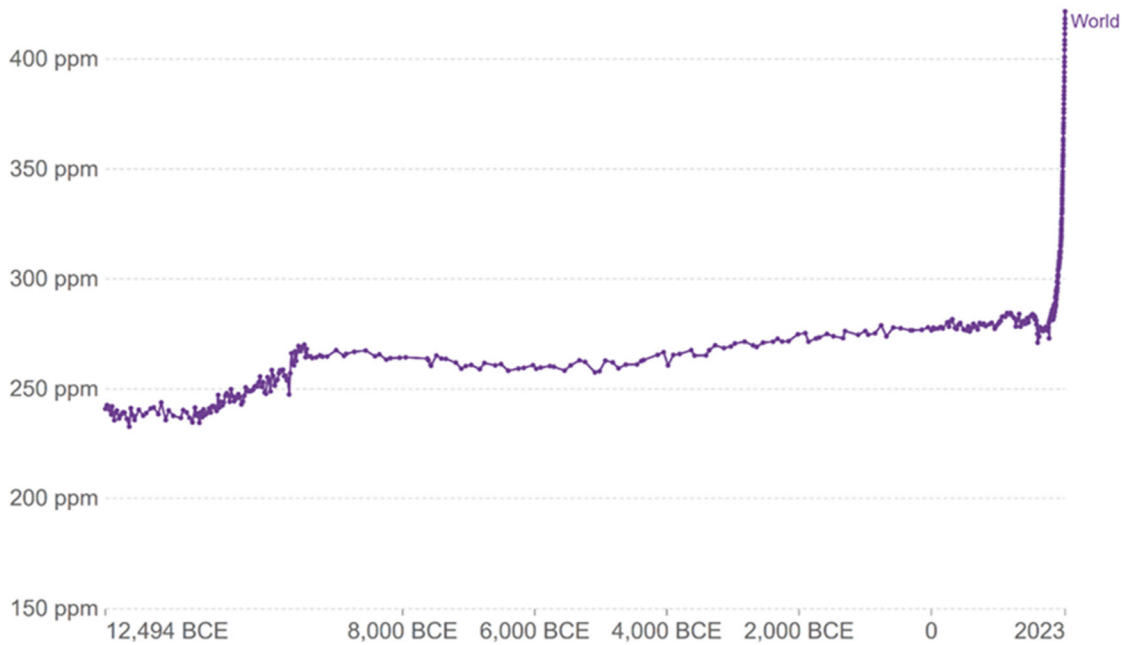
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Photos used for the Graphical Abstract are listed as presented left to right below.

1. Photo by [Darius Kinsey](#) (American, 1869 - 1945) Falling Redwood, Humboldt County, California is licensed under CC BY
<http://www.getty.edu/art/collection/objects/40468/darius-kinsey-falling-redwood-humboldt-county-california-american-1906/>
2. Photo by Unknown Author is licensed under [CC BY-NC](#) [Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 3.0 License](#).
<https://www.forestryimages.org/browse/detail.cfm?imgnum=1200011>
Clearcut in 1952. Slash burned After 4 years to let Ribes sprout, eradicated by herbicides and hand pulling. Planted 1951 E2-2 white pine. 90% survived. North slope. Spacing test on 5 x 5 to 20 x 20 feet. Spacing test on area 5x5 and 20x20 October 1973
Photo by
3. [Photo by Velkiira](#), Clearcut section of Tongass National Forest licensed under CC BY-SA
<https://www.flickr.com/photos/arabani/5539677196/>



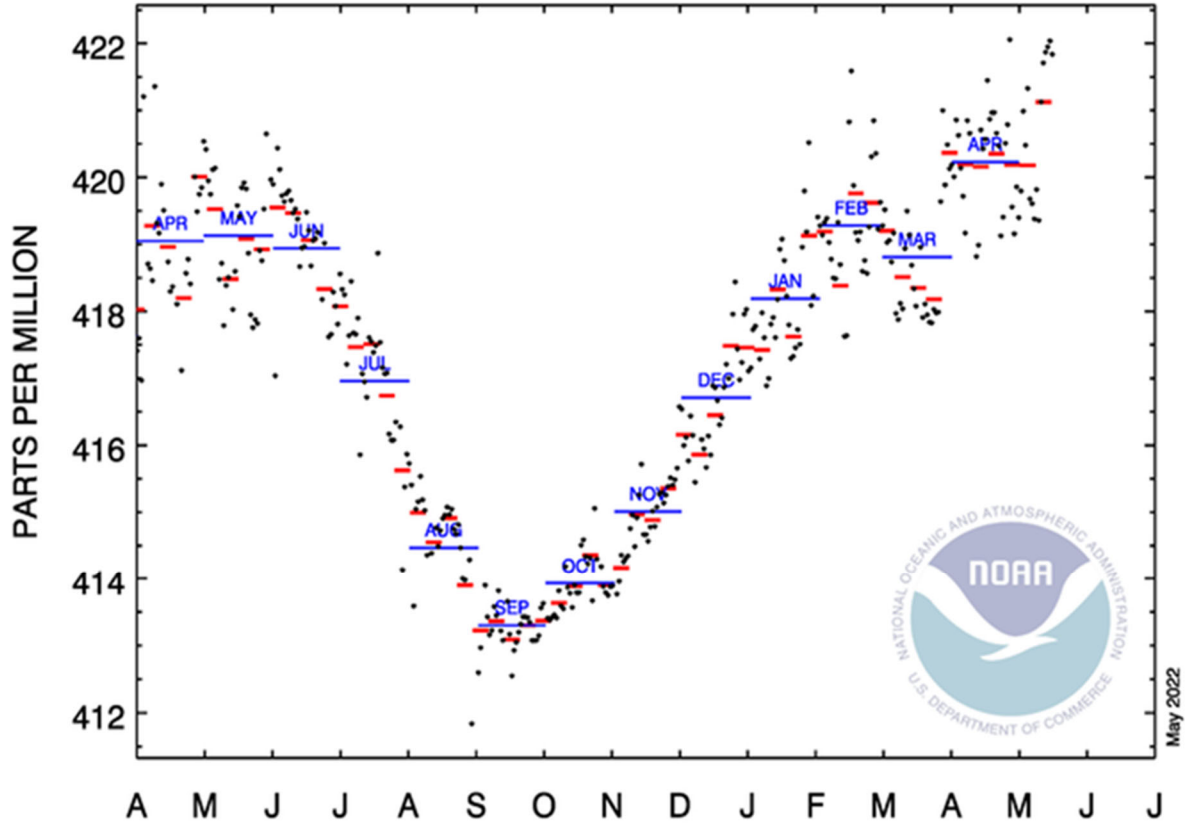
Source: National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)

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Supplemental Figure S1: “Global Atmospheric CO₂ Concentration”

“Atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) is measured in parts per million (ppm). Long-term trends in CO₂ concentrations can be measured at high-resolution using preserved air samples from ice cores.”-NOAA data graphed by OurWorldinData.Org.

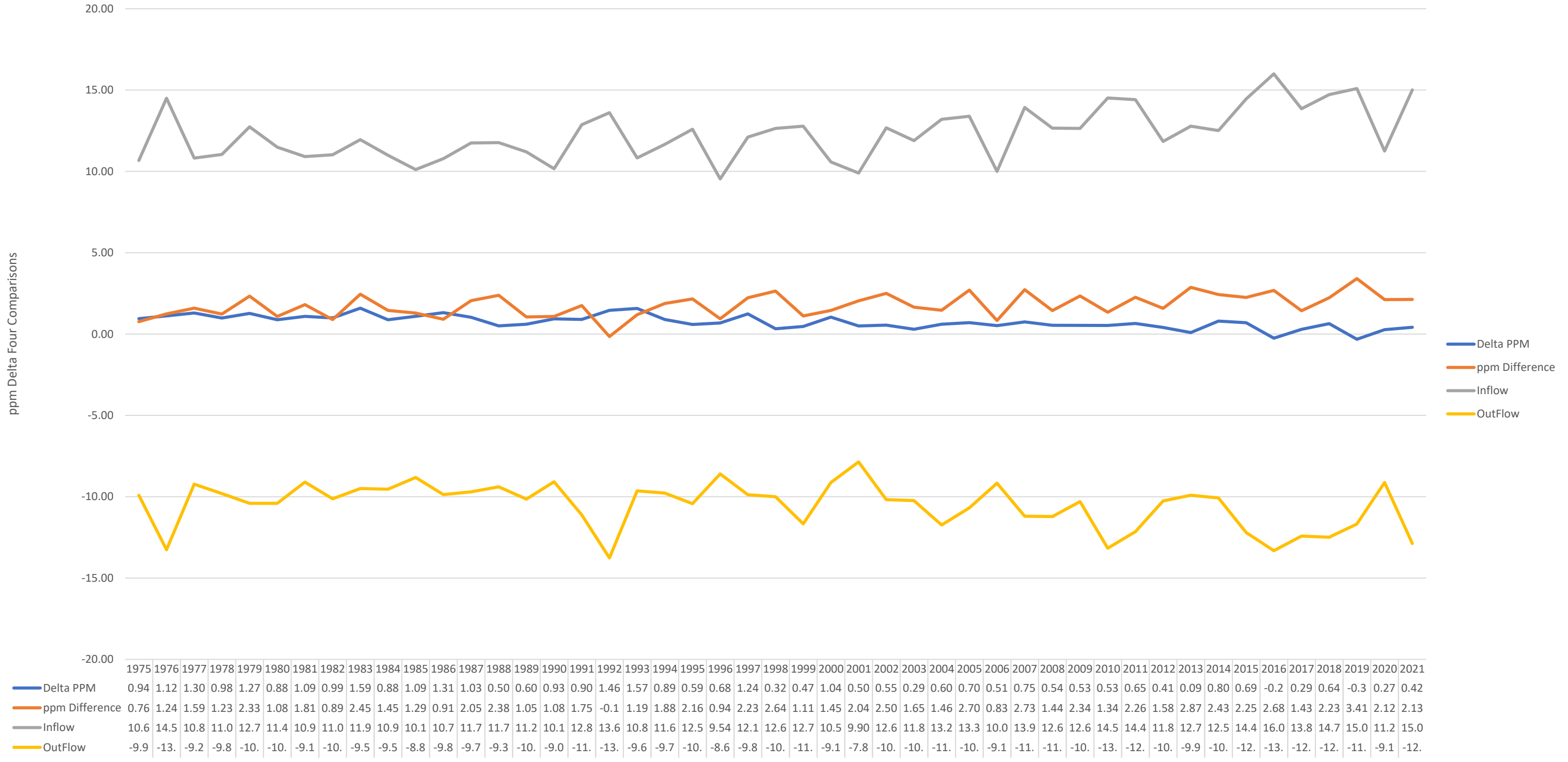
Figure S1’s y-axis is CO₂ ppm recorded from ice core samples, and the x-axis is the measurement year. Figure S1 further demonstrates increasing atmospheric CO₂ ppm is relatable to human domestication and not the much later increases in human emissions. The increasing ppm trend is visible from around 5,000 BCE to the present and correlates to human domestication’s “demand-driven forestry 2.11,” the rising human population, land uses, and globally spreading “unconstrained and constrained deforestation 2.3” practices.



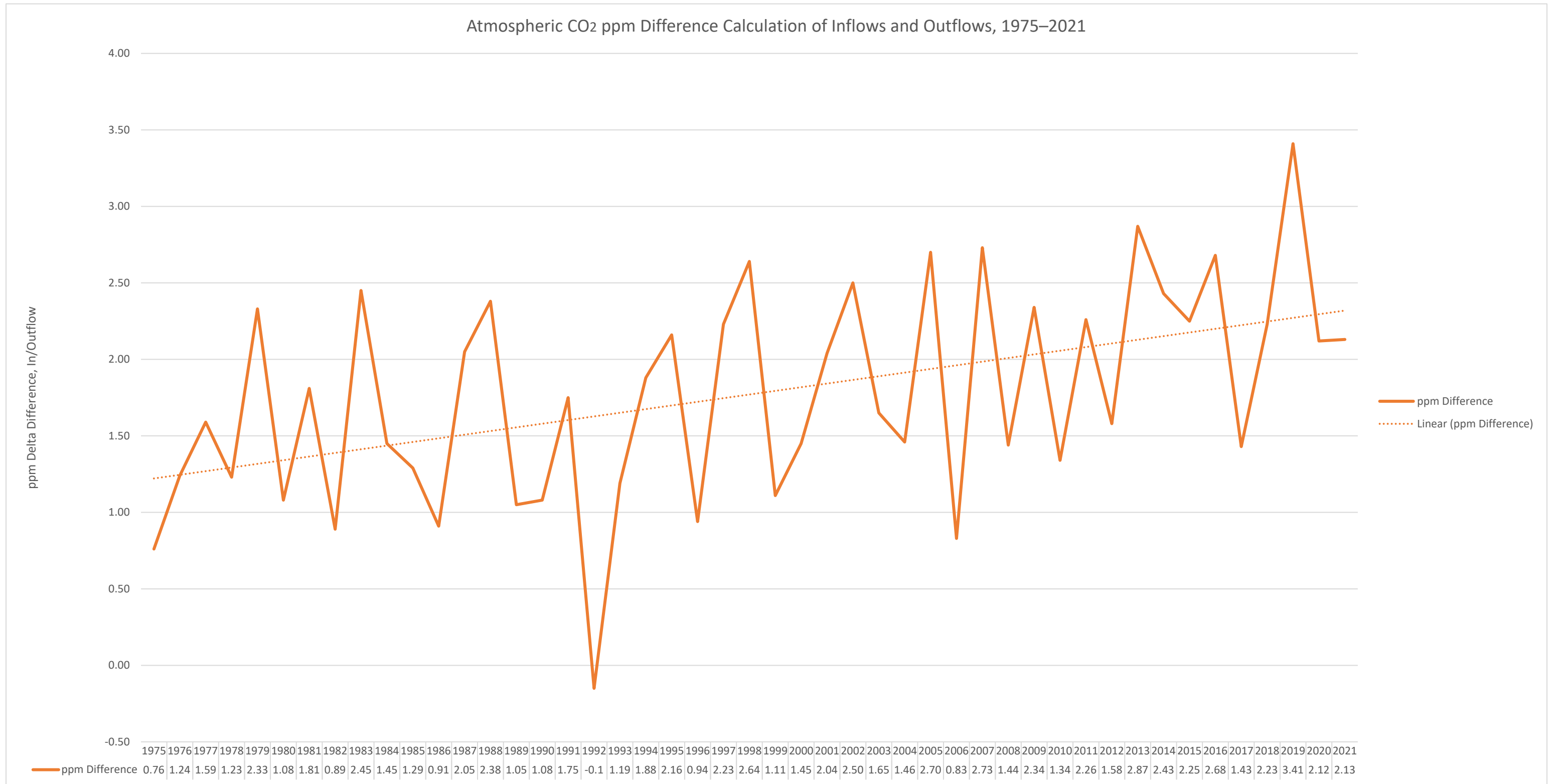
Supplemental Figure S2: “One Year of CO₂ Daily and Weekly Means At Mouna Loa”

Figure S2. A close-up and demonstration of the global CO₂ Fast-Cycle Sink up and down ticks created during planetary growth cycle(s) generated from the northern and southern hemispheres opposite months of plant growth durations. The black dots in Figure S2 are the CO₂ ppm readings as indicated in the y-axis taken using the flask method during the indicated single-lettered month in the x-axis. The months are also abbreviated and underlined on the graph.

Atmospheric CO₂ ppm Represented in Study's Four Comparisons., 1975–2021



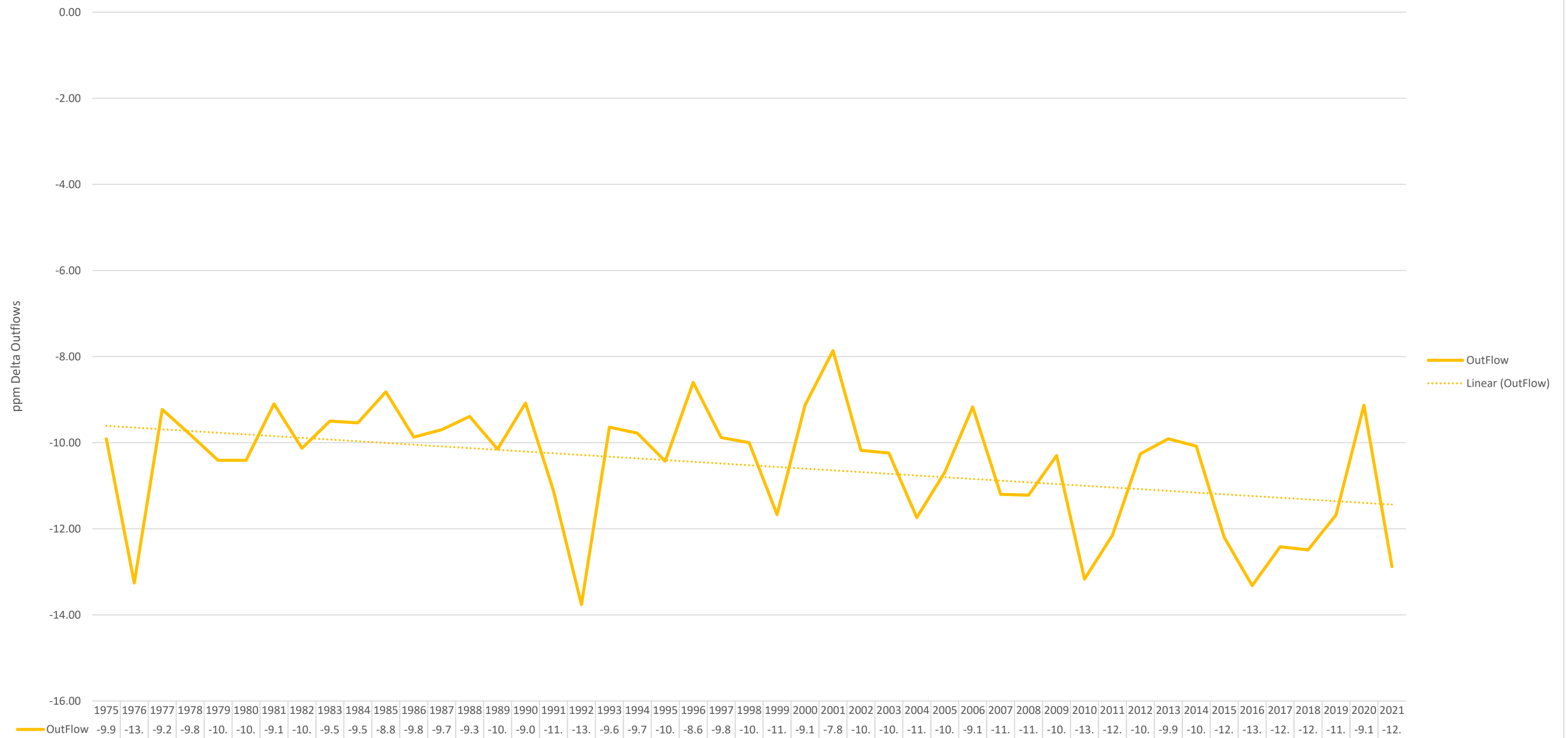
Supplemental Figure S3: “Atmospheric CO₂ ppm Represented in Study's Four Comparisons.”
 Figure S3 combines compressed views that provide a relational perspective of Figure 10 with a separate methodology to quantitate Figures S3-S6 from 1975-2021. Figure S3's y-axis is CO₂ ppm levels, while the x-axis provides the year and data point table. The blue line is the CO₂ ppm Delta of Figure 10. The orange line in Figure S4 indicates a difference obtained between the grey line in the inflow ppm graph Figure S6 and the yellow line in the Outflow ppm graph Figure S5. A condensed view of the graphing was required to accommodate a viewable space allowance. However, the correlations and contrasts made in the study are still viewable and serve as further precedence. Note increasing inflows and decreasing outflows and historical data correlations and concepts mentioned throughout the study can be quickly checked here or further disseminated within each enlarged Figure S3-S6.



Supplemental Figure S4: “Atmospheric CO₂ ppm Difference Calculation of Inflow and Outflows, 1975-2021”

A close-up of Figure S3’s “ppm difference” provides a less condensed view. Graphed is the difference between inflows and outflows as measured by all points of ESRL data on atmospheric CO₂ ppm from 1975 to 2021. The y-axis is CO₂ ppm plotted as the difference between Figure S5 and Figure S6, with the x-axis representing years and data table. The solid orange line moves year to year, indicating the difference in atmospheric CO₂ ppm inflow and outflow. The dotted orange line is the linear trend established by data points. The graph was populated using a different methodology explained in Figure 10 by accounting for differences within each year by creating positive and negative ppm measurements as + positive inflow or – negative outflow. The model’s outcome demonstrated that increasing inflows (as increasing CO₂ residence time and emission inflow) are partially due to decreasing outflows (decreasing sequestration elaborated in Figure 10 and Figure S5). The outcomes symmetry serves as an additional check for the studies Figure 10 “CO₂ ppm Delta,” which analyzes global sequestration health. NOAA ESRL Data, Measurement’s used flask method, 1975-2021, Mauna Loa, Hawaii.

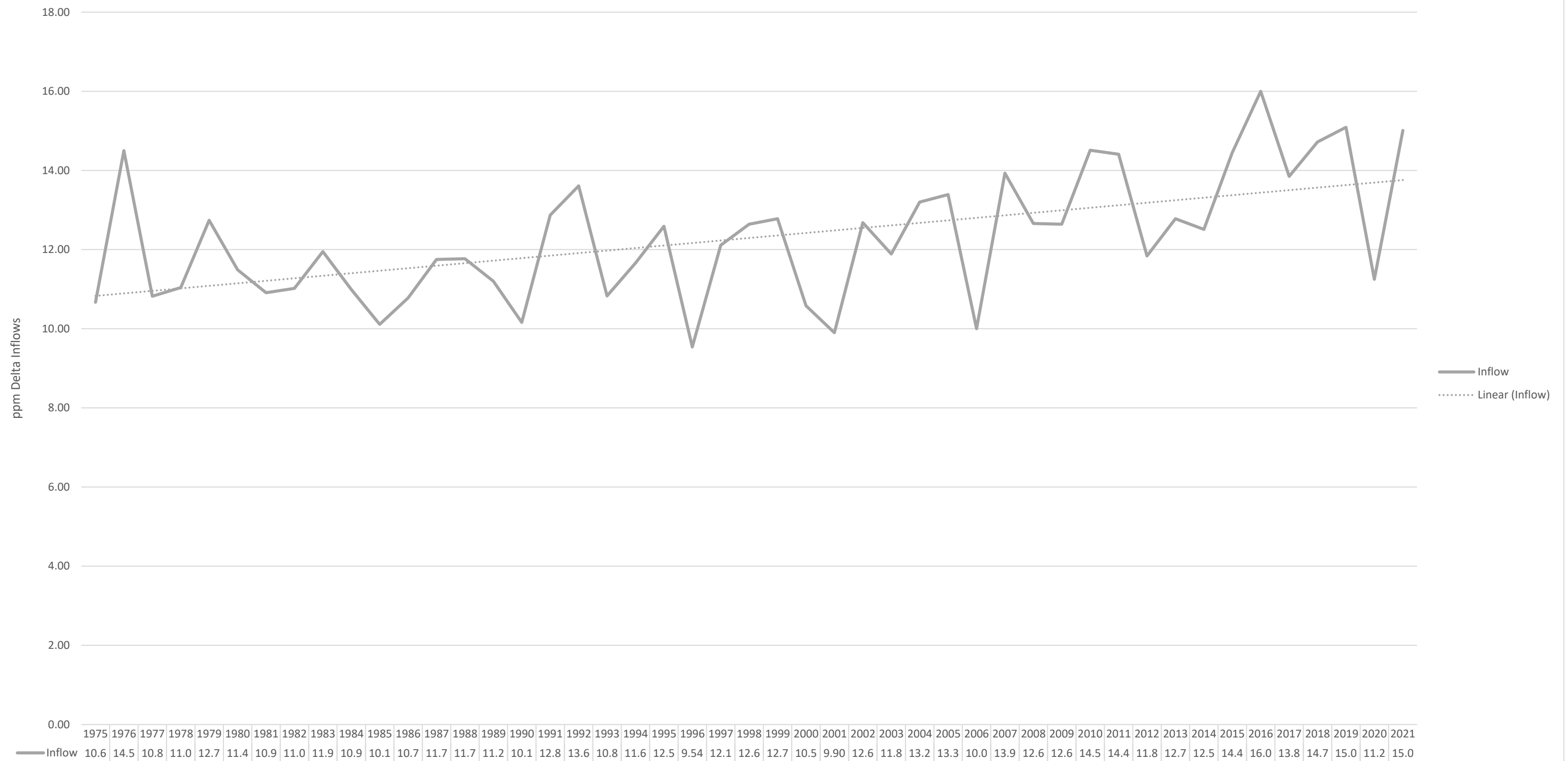
Atmospheric CO₂ ppm Out Flows, Sequestration, 1975–2021



Supplemental Figure S5: “Atmospheric CO₂ ppm Outflow, 1975-2021”

A close-up of Figure S3’s “Outflow” that provides a less condensed view. Graphed is the atmospheric CO₂ ppm inflow measured by all points of ESRL data on atmospheric CO₂ ppm from 1975 to 2021. The y-axis is CO₂ ppm plotted as the outflow or – negatives determined with the x-axis representing years and data table. The solid yellow line moves year to year, indicating the outflow in atmospheric CO₂ ppm. The dotted yellow line is the linear trend established by data points. The graph was populated using a different methodology explained in Figure 10 by accounting for differences within each year by creating positive and negative ppm measurements as + positive inflow or – negative outflow. The outcome of the model demonstrated decreasing outflow attributed to the studies defining decreasing global sequestration, further elaborated by Figure 10’s similar outcome. Figure 10 and this outcome also serve as a check for the “CO₂ ppm Delta” studies that analyze global sequestration health. Historical land uses and forestry demand mentioned in section 4.2 can also be correlated to this graph. NOAA ESRL Data, Measurement’s used flask method, Mauna Loa, Hawaii.

Atmospheric CO₂ ppm Inflows of Emissions, 1975–2021



Supplemental Figure S6: “Atmospheric CO₂ ppm Inflows of Emissions, 1975-2021”

A close-up of Figure S3’s “inflow” that provides a less condensed view. Graphed is the atmospheric CO₂ ppm inflow measured by all points of ESRL data on atmospheric CO₂ ppm from 1975 to 2021. The y-axis is CO₂ ppm plotted as the inflow or + positive differences obtained, with the x-axis representing years and data table. The solid gray line moves year to year, indicating the inflow in atmospheric CO₂ ppm. The dotted gray line is the linear trend established by the data points. The graph was populated using a different methodology explained in Figure 10 by accounting for differences within each year by creating positive and negative ppm measurements as + positive inflow or – negative outflow. The model’s outcome demonstrated increasing inflow due to emissions, which agrees with Figure 10’s similar outcome when used as a variable in calculation. Figure 10 and this outcome also serve as an additional check for the “CO₂ ppm Delta” that analyzes global sequestration health. NOAA ESRL Data, Measurement’s used flask method, Mauna Loa, Hawaii.