

ASIA-PACIFIC NETWORK FOR GLOBAL CHANGE RESEARCH

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Greenhouse gas budgets of South and Southeast Asia



The following collaborator worked on this project:

1. Prabir K. Patra (Project Leader), JAMSTEC,

2. Josep G. Canadell (Project Leader), CSIRO,

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Non-Technical Summary

Within the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, countries are continuing to negotiate emission reduction targets and exploring mitigation strategies best suited to their technical capabilities and regional biophysical characteristics. One of the largest impediments to advance on the latter is the lack of high quality estimates of greenhouse gas (GHG) fluxes in and out of natural and managed ecosystems. In this project, we have undertaken the most ambitious synthesis effort to date using global and regional datasets and model outputs to constrain the regional GHG budgets of South and Southeast Asia, where the source/sink balance of GHGs has large uncertainties.

Keywords

Greenhouse Gases, Regional Sources and Sinks, South and Southeast Asia

Objectives

The main goal of this proposal is to compile and synthesize information from multiple sources, essential to understand the role of climate-human systems in the production of greenhouse gas emissions. This will be achieved through cooperation between scientists from South and Southeast Asia, and experts from other parts of the world. Mean estimates of the GHGs balance at the regional level and attribution to flux components will be valuable information for climate policy development in the region, particularly of mitigation policies. Several workshops and personnel visits among the participating institutions are planned for improving exchange of observational data, training on numerical model, and analysis tools.

Amount Received and Number of Years Supported

The Grant awarded to this project was:

US\$ 50,000 for Year 1:

US\$ 50,000 for Year 2:

US\$ 45,000 for Year 3:

Activity Undertaken

- The South Asian Carbon Budget
- The Southeast Asian Carbon Budget

Results

With this third year of reporting, we have now completed the three mains tasks we set up to do:

- 1. To estimate the source and sinks of carbon dioxide (CO_2) and methane (CH_4) due to anthropogenic and natural biospheric activities for the South Asia region (Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka). Flux estimates were based on top-down methods that use inversions of atmospheric data, and bottom-up methods that use field observations, satellite data, and terrestrial ecosystem models. Based on atmospheric CO₂ inversions, the net biospheric CO₂ flux in South Asia (equivalent to the Net Biome Productivity, NBP) was a sink, estimated at -104±150 TgC yr⁻¹ during 2007-2008. Based on the bottom-up approach, the net biospheric CO_2 flux is estimated to be -191±193 TgC yr⁻¹ during the period of 2000-2009. This last net flux results from the following flux components: (1) the Net Ecosystem Productivity, NEP (net primary production minus heterotrophic respiration) of -220±186 TgC yr⁻¹ (2) the annual net carbon flux from land-use change of -14±50 TgC yr⁻¹, which resulted from a sink of -16 TgC yr⁻¹ due to the establishment of tree plantations and wood harvest, and a source of 2 TgC yr⁻¹ due to the expansion of croplands; (3) the riverine export flux from terrestrial ecosystems to the coastal oceans of +42.9 TgC yr⁻¹; and (4) the net CO_2 emission due to biomass burning of +44.1±13.7 TgC yr⁻¹. Including the emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels of 444 TgC yr⁻¹ for the decades of 2000s, we estimate a net CO₂ land-to-atmosphere flux of 297 TgC yr⁻¹. In addition to CO₂, a fraction of the sequestered carbon in terrestrial ecosystems is released to the atmosphere as CH₄. Based on bottom-up and top-down estimates, and chemistry-transport modelling, we estimate that 37±3.7 TgC-CH₄ yr⁻¹ were released to atmosphere from South Asia during the 2000s. Taking all CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes together, our best estimate of the net land-to-atmosphere CO_2 -equivalent flux is a net source of 334 TgC yr⁻¹ for the South Asia region during the 2000s. If CH₄ emissions are weighted by radiative forcing of molecular CH₄, the total CO₂-equivalent flux increases to 1148 TgC yr⁻¹ suggesting there is great potential of reducing CH₄ emissions for stabilizing greenhouse gases concentrations (Patra et al., 2013)
- 2. To estimate the source and sinks of carbon dioxide and methane due to anthropogenic and natural biospheric activities for the Southeast Asia region (Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Papua New Guinea, Singapore, and Vietnam). The bottom-up biospheric carbon budget is +209 TgC yr⁻¹, and the total carbon budget including fossil fuel emissions is +463 TgC yr⁻¹. The top-down biospheric carbon budget is +365 TgC yr⁻¹. These results are will be detailed in an upcoming peer-reviewed publication (Canadell et al., in prep.).
- 3. To support the analysis of air-sea CO₂ exchange over the Indian Ocean, which is connecting the South and Southeast Asian region. The Indian Ocean (44°S–30°N) plays an important role in the global carbon cycle, yet it remains one of the most poorly sampled ocean regions. Several approaches have been used to estimate net sea–air CO₂ fluxes in this region: interpolated observations, ocean biogeochemical models, atmospheric and ocean inversions. As part of the RECCAP (REgional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes) project, we combine these different approaches to quantify and assess the magnitude and variability in Indian Ocean sea–air CO₂ fluxes between 1990 and 2009. Using all of the models and inversions, the median annual mean sea–air CO₂ uptake of -0.37±0.06 PgC yr⁻¹ is consistent with the -0.24±0.12 PgC yr⁻¹ calculated from observations. The fluxes from the

southern Indian Ocean (18–44°S; -0.43 ± 0.07 PgC yr⁻¹) are similar in magnitude to the annual uptake for the entire Indian Ocean.

The results of these three activities and products were used in the 5th assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) for chapter 6 of Working Group 1, i.e., Carbon and Other Biogeochemical Cycles (Ciais et al., 2013). Dr. Canadell is a lead author and Dr. Patra is a contributory author to this chapter of the IPCC AR5.

We have also begun air sampling from Comilla, Bangladesh ($23.45^{\circ}N$, $91.20^{\circ}E$), as a collaborative effort between JAMSTEC and National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES) in Japan, and Dhaka University and Bangladesh Meteorological Department (BMD) in Bangladesh. This activity records concentrations of all major greenhouse gases (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, CO, H₂, SF₆) since June 2012 at weekly time intervals.

Three international workshops on Asian greenhouse gases budget have been conducted to discuss and share information on the state of knowledge of various source sectors of CO_2 , CH_4 and N_2O . These workshops have led to various peer reviewed research papers already published or shortly to be submitted. One training programme in Dhaka University for the master course students and young faculties was conducted. In each of these events about 50 people participated (details below).

Relevance to the APN Goals, Science Agenda and to Policy Processes

The main goal of this proposal is to compile and synthesize information from multiple sources, essential to understand the role of climate-human systems in the production of greenhouse gas emissions. This will be achieved through cooperation between scientists from South and Southeast Asia, and experts from other parts of the world. Mean estimates of the GHGs balance at the regional level and attribution to flux components will be valuable information for climate policy development in the region, particularly of mitigation policies. Several workshops and personnel visits among the participating institutions have been conducted for improving exchange of observational data, training on numerical model, and analysis tools.

Self-evaluation

Significant progress was made over the past one and half years towards the completion of the territorial budgets of CO_2 , CH_4 , N_2O for South and Southeast Asia. The full carbon budgets for the two regions are now available. Most importantly, the project has been able to create an international network of collaborators who are now working together beyond the APN grant, and so leaving a long-term legacy of APN's investment in supporting the establishment of robust and comprehensive GHG budgets.

Potential for further work

A whole Asian greenhouse gases budget will be the obvious next step, where the East, South and Southeast Asia regions can be combined in an analysis for all the major gases, e.g., CO_2 , CH_4 , N_2O , carbon monoxide (CO), and Black Carbon (BC).

Publications

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Acknowledgments

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Part Two: Technical Report

Preface

The timing of this final report comes at a critical period of international negotiations in the United Nations Convention Framework on Climate Change. During this year nations will be pledging their voluntary mitigation commitments to the Intended Nationally Determined Contribution (INDC) database. This report and the associated publications bring the most up to date information on sources and sinks, trends and variability of greenhouse gases for nations in South Asia and Southeast Asia. This information is of strategic value to countries to determine those contributions including the possible role of land-based options as part of their mitigation portfolios.

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1. Introduction

South Asia (Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka) is home to 1.6 billion people and covers an area of 4.5×10^6 km². These countries are largely self-sufficient in food production through wide range of natural resources, and agricultural and farming practices (FRA, 2010). However, due to rapid economic growth, fossil fuel emissions have increased from 213 TgC yr⁻¹ in 1990 to about 573 TgC yr⁻¹ in 2009 (Boden et al., 2011). A detailed budget of CO₂ exchange between the earth's surface and the atmosphere is not available for the South Asia region due to a sparse network of key carbon observations such as atmospheric CO₂, soil carbon stocks, woody biomass, and CO₂ uptake and release by managed and unmanaged ecosystems. Only recently, Patra et al. (2011a) estimated net CO₂ fluxes at seasonal time intervals by inverse modeling (also known as top-down approach), revealing strong carbon uptake of 149 TgC month⁻¹ during July-September following the summer monsoon rainfall.

Southeast Asia (Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Papua New Guinea, Singapore, and Vietnam) is a complex geographical and geopolitical region. It has mainland and peninsular components dominated by tropical rainforest and cropland, and savanna woodlands in drier areas of the northeast. Forest cover constitutes 214 million hectares equal to 29 percent of the Asia-Pacific region's total forest area (FAO 2011). Most of the region is considered a biodiversity hotspot because it harbours a high number of endemic species largely threatened by forest loss (Myers et al. 2000; Sodhi et al. 2010). The region is also home to the most extensive tropical peatlands in the world with an estimated carbon pool of 68 PgC (Page et al. 2011), a quantity rapidly diminishing along with the loss of the remaining swamp forest due to deforestation and drainage (Hooijer et al. 2010; Miettinen et al. 2011).

The regions are also very likely to be a strong source of CH_4 due to rice cultivation by an amount, which still remains controversial in the literature (Cicerone and Shetter, 1981; Fung et al., 1991; Yan et al., 2009), and large numbers of ruminants linked to religious and farming practices (Yamaji et al., 2003). Since the green revolution there has been an increase in CH_4 emissions owing to the introduction of high-yielding crop species, increased use of nitrogen and phosphorus fertilizers, and expansion of cropland areas to meet the food demands of a growing human population in countries of South Asia (Bouwman et al., 2002; Patra et al., 2012a).

South Asia has also undergone significant changes in the rates of land use change over the last 20 years contributing to the net carbon exchange. India alone has increased the extent of forest plantations by 4.5 Mha (~7% of 64 Mha) from 1990 to 2010 leading to a 26% increase in the carbon stock in living forest biomass (FRA 2010). Over the last twenty years, Southeast Asia has undergone through some of the largest changes in land use due to (1) government policies to open up forest areas, particularly in Indonesia for the transmigration program during 1990s, and (2) the rapid expansion of oil-palm plantations for the domestic and international food and biodiesel markets, along with afforestation of fast growing Acacia plantations for the pulp and paper markets (Murdiyarso et al. 2011).

In this project we establish for the first time the net carbon budget of South and Southeast Asia, including CO₂ and CH₄, and its inter-annual variability for the period 1990-2009. We achieve this goal by synthesizing the results of multiple approaches that include (1) atmospheric inversions as so-called top-down methods, and (2) fossil fuel consumption, forest/soil inventories, riverine exports, remote sensing products and dynamic global vegetation models as bottom-up methods. The comparison of independent and partially independent estimates from these various methods help to define the uncertainty in our knowledge on the South and Southeast Asian carbon budget. Finally, we attempt to separate the net carbon balance into its main contributing fluxes including fluxes from net primary production, heterotrophic respiration, land use change, fire, and riverine export to coastal oceans. This effort is consistent with and a contribution to the REgional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes (Canadell et al., 2011; Patra et al., 2012b).

2. Methodology

The **South Asia** region designated for this study is shown in Figure 1, along with the basic ecosystem types (DeFries and Townshend, 1994). A large fraction of the area is cultivated

croplands and grassland or wooded grassland $(1.3 \times 10^{6} \text{ km}^{2} \text{ and } 1.5 \times 10^{6} \text{ km}^{2} \text{ or } 0.89 \times 10^{6} \text{ km}^{2}$, respectively). The rest of the area is classified as bare soil, shrubs, broadleaf evergreen, broadleaf deciduous and mixed coniferous $(0.35 \times 10^{6} \text{ km}^{2}, 0.22 \times 10^{6} \text{ km}^{2}, 0.11 \times 10^{6} \text{ km}^{2}, 0.10 \times 10^{6} \text{ km}^{2}$ and $0.05 \times 10^{6} \text{ km}^{2}$, respectively). The region is bounded by the Indian Ocean in the south and the Himalayan mountain range in the north. The meteorological conditions over the South Asia region are controlled primarily by the movement of the inter-tropical convergence zone (ITCZ). When the ITCZ is located over the Indian Ocean (between Equator to 5°S) during boreal autumn, winter and spring, the region is generally dry without much occurrence of rainfall. When the ITCZ is located north of the region, about 70% of precipitations occur during the boreal summer (June-September). Some of these prevailing meteorological conditions are discussed in relations with CO₂ and CH₄ surface fluxes, and concentration variations in earlier studies (Patra et al. 2009, 2011a).

We define the boundaries of the **Southeast Asia** region based on a geographically consistent unit formed by Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Timor-Leste, Papua New Guinea, Singapore, and Vietnam (Figure 1). The total area of the region is about 4.5×10^6 km² of land with a population of 550×10^6 people in 2012 (World Bank 2012).



Figure 1: Landmass selected for the RECCAP South and Southeast Asia regions following the definition of the United Nations and by accounting for the similarities in vegetation types.

2.1. Emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels and cement production:

Carbon dioxide emission statistics were taken from the CDIAC database of consumption of fossil fuels and cement production (Boden et al., 2011). CO₂ emissions were derived from energy statistics published by the United Nations (2010) and processed according to methods described in Marland and Rotty (1984). CO₂ emissions from the production of cement were based on data from the U.S. Department of Interior's Geological Survey (USGS 2010), and emissions from gas flaring were derived from data provided by the U.N., U.S. Department of Energy's Energy Information Administration (1994).

2.2. Emissions from land use and land use change:

Emissions from land use change include the net flux of carbon between the terrestrial biosphere and the atmosphere resulting from deliberate changes in land cover and land use (Houghton, 2003). Flux estimates are based on a book-keeping model that tracks living and dead carbon stocks including wood products for each hectare of land cultivated, harvested

or reforested. Data on land use change was from the Global Forest Resource Assessment of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO 2010). We also extracted information from national communication reports to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.

2.3. Fire Emissions. Fire emissions for the region were obtained from the Global Fire Emissions Database version 3.1 (GFEDv3.1). GFED is based on a combination of satellite information on fire activity and vegetation productivity (van der Werf et al. 2006; 2010). The former is based on burned area, active fires, and fAPAR from various satellite sensors, and the latter is estimated with the satellite-driven Carnegie Ames Stanford Approach (CASA) model.

2.4. Transport of riverine carbon. To estimate the land to ocean carbon flux we used the six ocean coastline segments with their corresponding river catchments for South Asia as described by the COSCAT database (Meybeck et al. 2006). The lateral transport of carbon to the coast was estimated at the river basin scale using the Global Nutrient Export from WaterSheds (NEWS) model framework (Mayorga et al. 2010), including NEWS basin areas. The carbon species models are hybrid empirically and conceptually based models that include single and multiple linear regressions developed by the NEWS effort and Hartmann et al. (2009), and single-regression relationships assembled from the literature. Modelled dissolved and particulate organic carbon (DOC and POC) loads used here (from Mayorga et al., 2010) were generated largely using drivers corresponding to the year 2000, including observed hydro-climatological forcings, though some parameters and the observed loads are based on data spanning the previous two decade. Total suspended sediment (TSS) exports were also estimated by NEWS. Dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) estimates correspond to weathering-derived bicarbonate exports and do not include CO₂ supersaturation; the statistical relationships developed by Hartmann et al. (2009) were adjusted in highly weathered tropical soils (ferralsols) to 25% of the modelled values found in Hartmann et al. (2009) to account for overestimates relative to observed river exports (J. Hartmann and N. Moosdorf, unpublished); adjusted grid-cell scale exports were aggregated to the basin scale using NEWS basin definitions (Mayorga et al. 2010), then reduced by applying a NEWS-based, basin-scale consumptive water removal factor from irrigation withdrawals (Mayorga et al. 2010). DIC modeled estimates represent approximately 1970-2000. Overall, carbon loads may be characterized as representing general conditions for the period 1980-2000. Carbon, sediment and water exports were aggregated from the river basin scale to corresponding COSCAT regions.

2.5. Fluxes by terrestrial ecosystem models. We use the net primary productivity (NPP) and heterotrophic respiration (RH) simulated by ten ecosystem models: HyLand, Lund-Potsdam-Jena DGVM (LPJ), ORCHIDEE, Sheffield–DGVM, TRIFFID, LPJ_GUESS, NCAR_CLM4C, NCAR_CLM4CN, OCN and VEGAS. The models used the protocol as described by the carbon cycle model intercomparison project (TRENDY) (Sitch et al. 2012; Piao et al. 2012;

http://dgvm.ceh.ac.uk/system/files/Trendy_protocol%20_Nov2011_0.pdf), where each model was run from its pre-industrial equilibrium (assumed at the beginning of the 1900s) to 2009. We present net ecosystem productivity (NEP = NPP - RH) from two simulation cases; S1: where models consider change in climate and rising atmospheric CO_2 concentration, and S2: where models consider change in atmospheric CO_2 concentration alone.

The historical changes in atmospheric CO_2 concentration for the period of 1901-2009 were derived from ice core records and NOAA atmospheric observations (Keeling and Whorf,

2005). For the climate forcing datasets, monthly climate data for the period of 1901-2009 from CRU-NCEP datasets with a spatial resolution $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$

(http://dods.extra.cea.fr/data/p529viov/cruncep/) were used. Information on land use change was derived from HYDE 3.1 land cover dataset (Goldewijk, 2001,

ftp://ftp.mnp.nl/hyde/hyde31_final/). These models do not include lateral fluxes of C exported away from ecosystems (from soils to rivers, biomass harvested products) nor fluxes resulting from forest and agricultural management.

We performed correlation analyses between detrended net carbon flux and two climate drivers, annual temperature and annual precipitation, in order to diagnose the modelled interannual response of net carbon fluxes to these drivers (positive for carbon source, negative for carbon sink). The detrended fluxes were calculated by removing the 30-year linear trend of each variable (net carbon flux, annual temperature and annual precipitation), in order to avoid the confounding effects of the simultaneous trends of temperature or rainfall, with those of other environmental drivers such as rising CO₂.

2.6. Atmospheric inverse models. The biospheric (non-fossil CO₂) CO₂ fluxes are available from state-of-the art atmospheric inversion models from the TransCom database at IPSL/LSCE (http://transcom.lsce.ipsl.fr; Peylin et al., 2013). Estimated fluxes from the following models are included in this analysis: C13_CCAM, C13_CCAM, Carbontracker_EU, Jena_s96_v3.2, JMA_2010, LSCE_an_v2.1, LSCE_var_v1.0, NICAM_MRI, RIGC_TDI64, TransCom-L3_mean. We also obtained regional specific inversion results for South Asia using the CARIBIC (Schuck et al., 2010) data in the upper troposphere over India and Pakistan, which is subsequently validated using the CONTRAIL (Machida et al., 2008) data of vertical profiles over Delhi and upper troposphere over Asia (Patra et al., 2011a). CONTRAIL observations are also used for inversion, with CARIBIC data for validation (Niwa et al., 2012). Measurements of atmospheric CO₂ in the South Asia region are limited to Cabo de Rama, India for the period of 1993- 2002 (Bhattacharya et al., 2009). This site constrains the CO₂ fluxes from India during winter to spring seasons only. Thus the use of aircraft measurements is indispensible for top-down flux estimates over the full seasonal cycle.

2.7. Methane fluxes

Top-down estimates: Global distributions of CH₄ emissions are prepared using site scale field measurements, inventories (in the case of fossil CH₄ emissions and livestock emissions) and their extrapolation using remote sensing of wetland distribution and terrestrial ecosystem models (e.g., Mathews and Fung, 1987; Olivier and Berdowski, 2001; Ito and Inatomi, 2012). Components of these bottom-up estimations are scaled and used as an input to chemistry-transport models and compared with atmospheric mixing ratio measurements, or are used as prior flux estimates for inverse modeling of surface CH₄ fluxes ((Patra et al., 2011a; Bousquet at al., 2006 and references therein). Patra et al. (2011b) prepared 6 distinct CH₄ budgets; 5 of those being anthropogenic sources (EDGAR, 2010; version 3.2, 4.0) in combination with natural sources due to wetlands (Ringeval et al., 2010; Ito and Inatomi, 2012), biomass burning (van der Werf et al., 2006), and those from Fung et al. (1991), and one being based on inversion of atmospheric concentrations (Bousquet et al., 2006).

Bottom-up estimates for India: Methane fluxes for India were estimated using bottom-up inventory data which relied on SPOT Vegetation NDVI, Radarsat Scan SAR (SN2) and IRS AWiFS to map the different rice lands and generate the feed/fodder area for livestock consumption (Manjunath et al. 2011; Chhabra et al. 2009).

3. Results & Discussion

3.1. Emissions from fossil fuels and cement production

3.1.1 South Asia

Table 1 shows the fossil fuel and cement CO_2 emissions trends over the South Asia region and member countries over the past two decades. Growth rates are calculated as the slope of a fitted linear function, normalized by the average emissions for the period of interest. The average regional total emissions are estimated to be 278 and 444 TgC yr⁻¹ for the periods of 1990s and 2000s, respectively. The regional total emissions have steadily increased from 213 TgC yr⁻¹ in 1990 to 573 TgC yr⁻¹ in 2009. About 90% of emissions from South Asia are due to fossil fuel consumptions in India at a normalized growth rate of 4.7% yr⁻¹ for the period of 1990-2009. The decadal growth rates do not show significant differences between the 1990s (5.5% yr⁻¹) and 2000s (5.3% yr⁻¹) for the whole region, while an increased rate of consumptions was observed after 2005 (6.8% yr⁻¹). This acceleration (Table 1) in fossil fuel consumption is largely due to the growth of the Indian economy, where the gross domestic product (GDP) doubled, from 34 trillions of Indian Rupees in 2005 to 67 trillions of Indian Rupees in 2010 (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economy_of_India).

Country/ Region	Average Emissions (TgC yr ⁻¹) 1990- 2009	Growth rate (% yr ⁻¹) 1990- 2009	Average Emissions (TgC yr ⁻¹) 1990- 1999	Growth Rate (% yr ⁻¹) 1990- 1999	Average Emissions (TgC yr ⁻¹) 2000- 2009	Growth Rate (% yr ⁻¹) 2000- 2009
Bangladesh	8.207	6.2	5.638	6.0	10.775	6.1
Bhutan	0.113	7.8	0.072	11.4	0.154	8.5
India	319.81	4.7	247.44	5.6	392.18	5.3
Nepal	0.702	5.6	0.514	13.8	0.889	2.3
Pakistan	29.986	4.1	23.019	4.7	36.932	5.7
Sri Lanka	2.368	5.8	1.629	8.9	3.107	2.2
South Asia	361	5.7	278	8.4	444	5.0

Table 1. Average fossil fuel CO2 emissions and annual growth rates (%) for the decade of
1990s, 2000s, and the full RECCAP period (1990-2009).

3.1.2. Southeast Asia

For the period of 1990-2009, Southeast Asia had cumulative emissions from the combustion of fossil fuel, gas flaring and cement production of 4,450 TgC, at an average of 174 TgC yr⁻¹ during 1990-1999 and 271 TgC yr⁻¹ during 2000-2009. The top three cumulative emitters during the 20-year period were Indonesia (1535 TgC), Thailand (1137 TgC), and Malaysia (725 TgC), accounting for 34%, 26% and 16% of the total regional emissions, respectively (Figure 2).



Figure 2: Carbon emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels from countries in Southeast Asia

3.2. Emissions from Land-use change (LUC)

3.2.1. South Asia

The annual net flux of carbon from land-use change in South Asia was a small sink (-11 TgC yr^{-1} for the 1990s and -14 TgC yr^{-1} for the period 2000-2009). The average sink over the 20-year period 1990-2009 was -12.5 TgC yr^{-1} . Three activities drove this net sink: establishment of tree plantations (-13 TgC yr^{-1} in the most recent decade), wood harvest (-3 TgC yr^{-1}), and the expansion of croplands (2 TgC yr^{-1}). Wood harvest results in a net sink of carbon because both industrial wood and fuelwood harvesting have declined recently, while the forest ecosystem productivity remained constant.

Tree plantations (eucalyptus, acacia, rubber, teak, and pine) expanded by 0.2×10^6 ha yr⁻¹ in the 1990-1999 period and by 0.3×10^6 ha yr⁻¹ during 2000-2009 in the region (FRA, 2010).

Uptake of carbon as a result of these new plantations, as well as those planted before 1990, averaged -11 and -13 TgC yr^{-1} in the two decades, respectively.

Industrial and fuelwood harvest (including the emissions from wood products and the sink in regrowing forests) was a net sink of -6 and -3 TgC yr⁻¹ in the two decades, most of this sink from fuelwood harvest. The net sink attributable to logging suggests that rates of wood harvest have declined in recent decades, while the recovery of forests harvested in previous years drives a net sink in forests.

The carbon sink in expanding plantations and growth of logged forests was offset only partially by the C source from the expansion of croplands, which is estimated to have released 6 TgC yr^{-1} and 2 TgC yr^{-1} during the 1990s and the first decade of 2000, respectively.

The net change in forest area in South Asia was zero for the decade 1990-1999 and averaged 200,000 ha yr-1 during 2000-2009 (FRA, 2010). Given the rates of plantation expansion during these decades (200,000 ha yr⁻¹ in the 1990-1999 period and by 300,000 ha yr⁻¹ during 2000-2009), native forests were lost at rates of 200,000 ha yr⁻¹ and 100,000 ha yr⁻¹ in the two decades.

The large changes in forest area, both deforestation and afforestation, lead to gross emissions (~120 TgC yr⁻¹) and a gross uptake (~135 TgC yr⁻¹) that are large relative to the net flux of 14 TgC yr⁻¹. Thus, the uncertainty is greater than the net flux itself. The uncertainty is estimated to be 50 TgC yr⁻¹, a value is somewhat less than 50% of the gross fluxes.

The net flux for South Asia was determined to a large extent by land-use change (the expansion of tree plantations) in India, which accounts for 72% of the land area of South Asia, 85% of the forest area, and >95% of the annual increase in plantations. Although 11 estimates of the net carbon flux due to land use change for India published since 1980 have varied from a net source of 42.5 TgC yr⁻¹ to a net sink of -5.0 TgC yr⁻¹. The recent estimates by Kaul et al. (2009) for the late 1990s and up to 2009 suggest a declining source/increasing sink, consistent with the findings reported here for all of South Asia.

Because India represents the largest contribution to land-use change in South Asia, and because there have been a number of analyses carried out for India, the discussion below focuses on India. A major theme of carbon budgets for India's forests has been the roles of tree plantations versus native forests. The 2009 Forest Survey of India (FSI) reported a 5% increase in India's forest area over the previous decade. This is a net change, however, masking the loss rate of native forests (0.8% to 3.5% per year) and a large increase in plantations (eucalyptus, acacia, rubber, teak, or pine trees) (~5700 km2 to ~18,000 km2 per year) (Puyravaud et al., 2010).

The same theme is evident in the earlier carbon budgets for India's forests. Ravindranath and Hall (1994) noted that, nationally, forest area declined slightly (0.04%, or 23,750 ha annually) between 1982 and 1990. At the state level, however, adding up only those states that had lost forests (still an underestimate of gross deforestation), the loss of forest area was 497,800 ha yr⁻¹ between 1982 and 1986, and 266,700 ha yr⁻¹ between 1986 and 1988. These losses were obviously offset by 'gross' increases in forest area in other states.

Similarly, Chhabra et al. (2002) found a net decrease ~0.6 Mha in total forest cover for India 1988-1994, while district-level changes indicated a gross increase of 1.07 Mha and a gross

decrease of 1.65 Mha. These changes in area translated into a decrease of 77.8 TgC in districts losing forests and an increase of 81 TgC in districts gaining forests (plantations) during the same period. It seems odd, though not impossible, that carbon accumulated during this period while forest area declined. Clearly, the uncertainties are high.

This analysis did not include shifting cultivation in South Asia, but Lele and Joshi (2008) attributed much of the deforestation in northeast India to shifting cultivation. Houghton (2007) also omitted the conversion of forests to waste lands, while Kaul et al. (2009) attribute the largest fluxes of carbon to conversion of forests to croplands and wastelands. It seems unlikely that forests are deliberately converted to wastelands. Rather, wastelands probably result either from degradation of croplands (which are then replaced with new deforestation) or from over-harvesting of wood.

Fuelwood harvest, and its associated degradation of carbon stocks, and even deforestation, seems another primary driver of carbon emissions in South Asia. For example, Tahir et al. (2010) report that the use of fuelwood in brick kilns contributed to deforestation in Pakistan, where 14.7% of the forest cover was lost between 1990 and 2005.

In Nepal, Upadhyay et al. (2005) attribute the loss of carbon through land-use change to fuelwood consumption and soil erosion, and Awasthi et al. (2003) suggest that fuelwood harvest at high elevations of Himalayan India may not be sustainable. On the other hand, Unni et al. (2000) found that fuelwood harvest within a 100-km radius of two cities showed both conversion of natural ecosystems to managed ones and the reverse, with no obvious net reduction in biomass. They inferred that the demand for fuelwood on forest and non-forest biomass was not great enough to degrade biomass.

The net sink estimated for South Asia in this study may have underestimated the emissions from forest degradation; logged forests were assumed to recover unless they were converted to another use. If wood removals exceed the rate of wood growth, carbon stocks will decline (forest degradation) and may ultimately be lost entirely (deforestation).

3.2.2. Southeast Asia

Of the 11 countries included in Southeast Asia, Indonesia has the largest area of forest in 2010 (97,857,000 ha), approximately 3x greater than the country with the next largest forest (Myanmar and Papua New Guinea) (FAO, 2010).

Indonesia also has the highest rate of deforestation of native forests $(3,275,000 \text{ ha yr}^{-1})$ (2000-2009) (FAO,2010), with Myanmar next (1,687,000 ha yr^{-1}), followed by Papua New Guinea (705,000 ha/yr), Malaysia (668,000 ha yr^{-1}), and Cambodia (632,000 ha yr^{-1}).

Thailand, Indonesia, and Vietnam have the largest areas of tree plantations in 2010 (3,986,000, 3,549,000, and 3,512,000 ha, respectively) (FAO, 2010).

The net flux of carbon from land-use change in Southeast Asia averaged 341 TgC yr⁻¹ and 194 TgC yr⁻¹ for the decades of 1990-1999 and 2000-2009, respectively (268 TgC yr⁻¹ averaged over the period 1990-2009). The decline in emissions over the two decades is consistent with the reduced rates of deforestation reported by FAO (FAO, 2010) and Hansen et al. (2009). Nevertheless, high rates of deforestation (as high as 5% annually) continue at present in at least two locations, the eastern lowlands of Sumatra and the peatlands of Sarawak, Borneo (Miettinen et al., 2011).

The types of land use most important in the carbon budget are the conversion of forests to croplands and to shifting cultivation, with smaller net releases from logging. The net flux from logging includes both the emissions from wood products and the accumulations of carbon in regrowing forests.

The flux attributed to the expansion of croplands and shifting cultivation vary from decade to decade, and, because the approach used to assign deforestation to either croplands or shifting cultivation is subject to error, it is perhaps better to consider the two combined (i.e., 202, 276, and 184 TgC yr⁻¹ for the agricultural expansion in the three decades, respectively).

It is important to note that the net flux of carbon from deforestation for croplands does not include the large emissions of carbon from the draining and burning of peatland forests, which alone contributed an estimated 300 TgC yr⁻¹ to the net flux from Southeast Asia (Hooijer et al., 2010). It would probably be double-counting to add this 300 TgC yr⁻¹ release to the estimates reported here, because the cultivation of upland soils is estimated here to have released 115 TgC yr⁻¹. A conservative estimate would be to add ~200 TgC yr⁻¹ to the net flux reported here, yielding a net flux as high as 0.54 PgC yr⁻¹ 1990-1999 and ~0.4 PgC yr⁻¹ for 2000-2009.

Shifting cultivation is poorly documented at continental scales, but a recent analysis estimated the carbon emitted from fires associated with shifting cultivation in the tropics (Silva et al., 2011). For the countries of Southeast Asia (but lacking Papua New Guinea) their estimate was 48 TgC yr⁻¹. It is lower than the gross emissions of 155 and 100 TgC yr⁻¹ (for the 1990s and 2000-2009, respectively) estimated here for gross emissions of carbon from fires for shifting cultivation.

Shifting cultivation is common in the region, and recent field studies have documented the recovery of forest in the fallows of shifting cultivation in Vietnam (Do et al., 2010) and in Sarawak, Malaysia (Jepsen, 2006).

Recent attention has focused on Indonesia and Papua New Guinea. The loss of forests in Sumatra and Kalimantan (Borneo), in particular, has been going on at least since the 1980s (Curran et al., 2004). That loss has continued to the present (Hansen et al., 2009; Broich et al., 2011) and seems likely to continue (Fuller et al., 2011). Rates of forest loss are highest at present in peat swamp forests (Langner et al., 2007; Miettinen et al., 2011) that are being drained and planted with oil palm plantations. The draining and burning releases large quantities of carbon to the atmosphere (Hooijer et al., 2010) and removes an important carbon sink from the landscape (Dommain et al., 2011). Coffee has also been important in driving deforestation in southwest Sumatra (Gaveau et al., 2008).

In Papua New Guinea population growth has led to deforestation for new agricultural lands (Ningal et al., 2007), but logging is also important. Bryan et al. (2009) estimate that 41% of the 53 TgC released from Papual New Guinea as a consequence of deforestation and degradation in 2001 resulted from logging. Selective logging damages and kills trees in addition to those harvested (Bryan et al., 2010), but in the absence of further disturbance, logged forests have the capacity to recover (Yosi et al., 2011).

In addition to the reduction of biomass that follows logging, forest fragmentation may also contribute to carbon emissions. Oil palm and rubber plantations were major contributors to forest fragmentation in Malaysia (Abdullah and Nakagoshi, 2007), oil palm being more important in wetlands and rubber plantations more important in forests.

3.3 Emissions from fires

3.3.1. South Asia.

South Asia is not a large source of CO_2 emission due to biomass burning as per the GFED3.1 (Global Fire Emission Database, version 3.1; van der Werf et al., 2006; 2010). Out of about global total emissions of 2,013±384 TgC yr⁻¹ due open fires as detected by the various satellites sensors, 47 ± 30 TgC yr⁻¹ (2.3% of the total) only are emitted in the South Asian countries. The average and 1 σ standard deviations are calculated from the annual mean emissions in the period 1997-2009. The total emissions can be attributed to agriculture waste burning (14±4 TgC yr⁻¹), deforestation fires (21±11 TgC yr⁻¹), forest fires (2.6±1.5 TgC yr⁻¹), savanna burning (4.8±1.9 TgC yr⁻¹) and woodland fires (1.8±1.0 TgC yr⁻¹) for the period of 2000-2009. The seasonal variation of CO₂ emissions due to fires is discussed in subsection 3.7.

Fire emissions due to agricultural activities will be largely recovered through the annual cropping cycles, and emissions from wildfires in natural ecosystems will be also largely recovered through regrowth over multiple decades (unless there is a fire regime change for which we have no evidence). For these reasons, carbon emissions from fires from the GFED product will not be used to estimate the regional carbon budget, given that fire emissions associated with deforestation are already included in the land use change flux presented in this study. GFED fire fluxes are used to interpreted interannual variability.

3.3.2 Southeast Asia

Total carbon fire emissions (from CO_2) from Southeast Asia were 227 TgC yr⁻¹ for the 1997-2011 period. The amount is comparable to 254 TgC yr⁻¹ from fossil fuel carbon emissions during 2000-2008 although their long-term net contribution to radiative forcing in the atmosphere is different. Fire emissions are a gross flux that can partially be offset by vegetation regrowth following fire while fossil fuel emissions are a net flux to the atmosphere.

Of the total fire emissions for the period studied, emissions from deforestation and degradation fires are the single most dominant source accounting for 51%. Uniquely to Southeast Asia, peat fires are an important source of emissions as fires can last for months after the fires begin. They account for 33% of the total emissions, followed in decreasing order by fire emissions from savannas, forests, agriculture and woodlands.

Fire emissions are large contributors to inter-annual variability with larger fluxes during The Southern Oscillation/El Nino periods. The El Niño of 1997-1998 stands out from other periods with emissions due to peat fires seven times higher than the long-term mean (Figure 3). These results are consistent with bottom-up estimates based on field measurements (Page et al., 2002) and inverse modelling (Patra et al., 2005). The lower inter-annual variability in carbon emissions due to deforestation fires, compared to peat fires, could indicate greater control of natural climate variability on the extent of peat burning. It is well established, however, that all fires, small and big, are caused by human activity and that there I a close coupling between human activity and natural climate variability in determining fire emissions from the region ([Field and Shen, 2008].



Figure 3: Inter-annual variability and mean of difference fire emission components for the Southeast Asia region.

3.4 Riverine Carbon Flux

3.4. South Asia

The total carbon export from South Asian rivers was 42.9 TgC yr⁻¹, with COSCAT exports ranging from 0.01 to 33.4 TgC yr⁻¹ for the period of 1980-2000. Considering that about 611 TgC yr⁻¹ is estimated to be released from global river systems (Cole et al., 2007; Batin et al., 2009), rivers in the South Asia region contribute about 7% of global riverine carbon export, which is more than twice the world average rate (the South Asia has about 3% of the global land area). The largest riverine carbon export was observed from the Bengal Gulf COSCAT, which is dominated by the combined Ganges-Brahmaputra discharge. The riverine carbon exports from the other five remaining COSCAT basins were lower by up to two orders of magnitude, ranging from only 0.01 to 4.4 TgC yr⁻¹.

Because large riverine carbon loads can be due to large basin area, we also provide the basin carbon yield (riverine carbon load per unit area, excluding PIC). Basin carbon yields varied by a few orders of magnitude, ranging from 0.04 to 18.4 gC m-2 yr⁻¹. The largest basin carbon yield was again from the Bengal Gulf COSCAT. However, Laccadive Basin COSCAT and West Deccan Coast COSCAT also released 9.5 and 8.2 gC m-2 yr⁻¹, respectively. The global mean terrestrial carbon yield can be calculated by dividing the global riverine carbon export of 611 TgC yr⁻¹ (Aufdenkampe et al. 2011, Battin et al. 2009) by the total land area of 149 million km2, providing a global mean yield of 4.1 gC m-2 yr⁻¹. Therefore, the three COSCAT regions in South Asia released more carbon per unit area than the global average. Considering that riverine carbon export is heavily dependent on discharge, this is not surprising since the three COSCAT regions have annual discharge values 40 to 120% larger than the global average discharge to the oceans of 340 mm yr⁻¹ (Mayorga et al., 2010).

The three COSCAT regions with the largest basin carbon yields (Bengal Gulf, Laccadive Basin, and West Deccan Coast) also corresponded to the area of highest NPP of the South Asia (Kucharik et al., 2000), consistent with areas of cultivated crops and forested regions (Figure 1). This suggests that terrestrial inputs of carbon to the river system of the region can be a significant factor next to the riverine discharge.

The relative contribution of DIC (Dissolved Inorganic Carbon), DOC (Dissolved Organic Carbon), and POC (Particulate Organic Carbon) to the total riverine carbon exports varied depending on the region. The Bengal Gulf COSCAT exported riverine DIC, DOC, and POC of 9.3, 7.0, and 17.1 TgC yr⁻¹, respectively, demonstrating the strong POC contribution. Riverine TSS (Total Suspended Sediment) loads and basin yields were also the largest from the Bengal Gulf COSCAT, indicating the strong correlation between POC and TSS.

The carbon emitted by soils to rivers headstreams can be degassed to atmosphere as CO_2 or deposited into sediment during the riverine transport from terrestrial ecosystem to oceanic ecosystem (Aufdenkampe et al., 2011, Cole et al., 2007). The estimated carbon release to the atmosphere from Indian (inner) estuaries (1.9 TgC yr⁻¹; Sarma et al., 2012) is relatively small compared to the total river flux of South Asia region. The mosoonal discharge through these estuaries have a short residence time of OC, which helps the OC matters to be transported relatively unprocessed to the open/deeper ocean. The average residence time during the monsoonal discharge period is less than a day, as observed over the period of 1986-2010, with longest residence time of 7 days for the years of low discharge rate (Acharyya et al., 2012). On an average the processing rate of OC in estuaries is estimated to be 30% in the Ganga-Brahmaputra river system in Bangladesh, and the remaining 70% are stored in the deep water of Bay of Bengal (Galy et al., 2007).

3.4.2 Southeast Asia

The total annual transport of carbon from land to the ocean through riverine transport is 119 TgC yr⁻¹ in the form of DIC (60.6 TgC yr⁻¹), DOC (26.5 TgC yr⁻¹), and POC (32.3 TgC yr⁻¹). The 12 COSCAT regions Southeast Asia have a total riverine carbon export of 119.2 TgC yr⁻¹, ranging from 0.6 to 26.3 TgC yr⁻¹ for individual regions. Considering an estimate of 0.9 PgC yr⁻¹ released from global river systems [*Aufdenkampe et al.*, 2011; *Battin et al.*, 2009], rivers in Southeast Asia contribute 13% of global riverine carbon export. The area of the region is 5.72 million km², similar to the area of the neighboring South Asia (SA) (5.05 million km²) (Patra et al. 2012), but riverine carbon export from the Southeast Asia region is about three times larger than that of South Asia.

3.5. Modeled long-term mean ecosystem fluxes from biosphere models

3.5.1 South Asia

Bottom-up estimates from all ten ecosystem models, forced by rising atmospheric CO_2 concentration and changes in climate (S2 simulation), agree that terrestrial ecosystems of South Asia acted as a net carbon sink during 1980-2009. The average magnitude of the sink (NEP) estimated by the ten models is -210±164 TgC yr⁻¹, ranging from -80 TgC yr⁻¹ to -651 TgC yr⁻¹. Rising atmospheric CO_2 alone (S1 simulation) accounts for 89%-110% of the carbon sink estimated in the CO_2 +Climate simulations (S2), suggesting a dominant role of the CO_2 fertilization effect in driving the regional sink. The decadal average NEPs are -

193 \pm 136, -217 \pm 174 and -220 \pm 186 TgC yr⁻¹, respectively, for the 1980s, 1990s and 2000s. The net primary productivity (NPP) for the same decades are 2117 \pm 372, 2160 \pm 372 and 2213 \pm 358 TgC yr⁻¹, respectively.

Five of the eight models providing CO_2 +Climate simulations (S2) show that climate change alone led to a carbon source of 0.1 TgC yr⁻¹ to 63 TgC yr⁻¹ over the last three decades (the difference between simulation S2 and S1); the three other models (OCN, ORC and TRI) show that climate change enhanced the carbon sink by -14, -6 and -4 TgC yr⁻¹. Such model discrepancies result in average net carbon flux driven by climate change is near neutral (10±22 TgC yr⁻¹).

3.5.2. Southeast Asia

The estimated average NPP from 10 models (CLM4C, CLM4CN, Hyland, LPJ, LPJ-GUESS, OCN, ORCHIDEE, SDGVM, TRIFFID, VEGAS) driven by climate change and rising atmospheric CO₂ concentration (simulation S2) is 5.1 ± 0.8 PgC yr⁻¹ (615.4 ± 95.6 gC m⁻² yr⁻¹) All models show a significant NPP increase at an average rate of 0.018 ± 0.006 PgC yr⁻¹ (0.3 ± 0.1 % yr⁻¹) over the last three decades. Such a significant increase in NPP is mainly the result of the atmospheric CO₂ fertilization effect (0.015 ± 0.005 Pg C yr⁻¹). We found that all models agreed that climate change plays a smaller role in driving the NPP trend as calculated by the difference between model estimated NPP in simulation S2 and that in simulation S1 (rising atmospheric CO₂ only). Temperature has a positive and significant trend with NPP (0.01° C yr⁻¹, P=0.03) and precipitation has a positive but marginally significant trend with NPP (7 mm yr⁻², P=0.06).

3.6. Modelled long-term mean ecosystem fluxes from inversions

3.6.1 South Asia

Top-down estimates of land-atmosphere CO₂ biospheric fluxes (i.e. without fossil fuel emissions, and inclusive of LUC flux and Riverine export) are estimated by using atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and chemistry-transport models. Results are available from 11 atmospheric inverse models participating in the TransCom intercomparison project with varying time period between 1988–2008 (Peylin et al., 2012). The inversions were run without any observational data over the South Asia region for most part of the 2000s. Therefore, we place a very low confidence in the TransCom inversion results, and a medium confidence in the results of two additional regional inversions using aircraft measurements over the region. The estimated net land-atmosphere CO₂ biospheric fluxes from the two regional inversions are -317 and -88.3 TgC yr⁻¹ (Patra et al., 2011a; Niwa et al., 2012). The range of biospheric CO₂ fluxes estimated by the 11 TransCom inversions is -158 to 507 TgC yr⁻¹, with a median value being a sink of -35.4 TgC yr⁻¹ with a 1- σ standard deviation 182 TgC yr⁻¹. The median of the TransCom inversions is chosen for filtering the effect of outliers values. In summary, for this RECCAP carbon budget, we propose as a synthesis of the inversion approach the mean value of the two 'best' inversions using region-specific CO2 data and the median of TransCom models (-147±150 TgC yr⁻¹). For comparison, the NBP is calculated as -104±150 TgC yr⁻¹ (Top-down biospheric flux – Riverine export; further details of NBP calculation in section 3.10.1).

3.6.2 Southeast Asia

The mean net biospheric CO_2 flux (excluding fossil fuel emissions) is estimated at 165 ± 378 TgC yr⁻¹ based on 10 inverse models for the period of 2000-2008. The median value of 174 TgC yr⁻¹ is not distinctly different from the mean value, indicating all the inversion results are spread widely around the mean. To this flux we add carbon exported out of the region through routes other than the atmosphere to complete the carbon budget. Thus, we add the riverine carbon export of 119 TgC yr⁻¹ to estimate a mean of 284±378 TgC yr⁻¹ as the net biospheric production of Southeast Asia (or carbon exported away from terrestrial ecosystems).

Flux anomalies are calculated by subtracting the long-term mean seasonal cycle from the original fluxes time series at monthly time intervals for each model (Figure 4). Although the net CO_2 flux estimated by inverse modeling greatly dependent on the selection of forward transport model, the flux anomalies, however, can be determined at greater consistency between the transport models. Thus we restrict detailed discussion to flux anomalies. Strong correlation of CO_2 flux anomalies is found with the ENSO Index at short to medium time scales, ranging from 3-months to several years (correlation coefficient = 0.57, 0.61 and 0.38 for the mean, mean+1 σ and mean-1 σ fluxes, respectively). Patra et al. (2005) have found correlation coefficients of 0.61, -0.63 and 0.41 for the ENSO Index, rainfall and temperature, respectively, at 2, 5 and 2 months time lag, with the CO_2 flux anomalies in the period of 1994-2001



Figure 4: Interannual variations in CO₂ emission estimated by the inverse models (bottom panel) showing close link with the ENSO index (top panel) for the Southeast Asia.

3.7. Seasonal variability of CO2 fluxes

Figure 5 shows the comparisons of carbon fluxes as estimated by the terrestrial ecosystem models (NEP), atmospheric-CO₂ inverse models (NBP) and fire emissions as estimated from satellite products and modeling. According to the ecosystem and inversion models, the peak carbon release is around April-May, while the peak of CO₂ uptake is between July and October. The dynamics as seen by the TransCom (global) inversion models is quite unconstrained due to the lack of atmospheric measurements in the region. A recent study (Patra et al., 2011a) shows that the peak CO₂ uptake rather occurs in the month of August when inversion is constrained by regional measurements from commercial aircrafts. The months of peak carbon uptake are consistent with regional climate seasonality, i.e., the observed maximum rainfall during June-August months. This predominantly tropical biosphere is likely to be limited by water availability as the average daytime temperatures over this region are always above 20° C and rainfall is very seasonal.

The peak-to-trough seasonal cycle amplitudes of NEP simulated by the ecosystem models are of similar magnitude (~3000 TgC yr⁻¹) compared to those estimated by one of the inversion constrained by aircraft data (Patra et al., 2011a). The other regional inversion using atmospheric observations within the region estimated a seasonal cycle amplitude about 50% greater, mainly due to large CO_2 release in the months of May and June (Niwa et al., 2012). A denser observational data network and field studies are required for narrowing the gaps between different source/sink estimations.



Figure 5: Seasonal cycles of South Asian fluxes (TgC yr⁻¹) as simulated by atmospheric inversions (a. top panel), terrestrial ecosystem models (b. middle panel) and fire emissions modelling (c. bottom panel).

3.8. Inter-annual variability of carbon fluxes

Because aircraft CO_2 observations over South Asia region are limited to only two years (2007 and 2008), we will exclude inverse model estimates from the discussions on interannual variability.

All ten terrestrial ecosystem models agree that there is no significant trend in the net carbon flux (positive values mean carbon source, negative values mean carbon sink) over South Asia from 1980 to 2009 (Figure 6). The estimated net carbon flux (simulation scenario S2) over South Asia exhibits relatively large year-to-year change among the two simulation scenarios. The interannual variation of the 30-year net carbon flux estimated by the average of the ten models is 63 TgC yr⁻¹ measured by standard deviation, or 30% measured by coefficient of variation (CV). In fact, the CV of the 30-year net carbon flux estimated by different models show a large range from 14% to 166%, and only two models show a CV of larger than 100%.

The model ensemble unanimously show that interannual variations in simulated net carbon flux is driven by the interannual variability in gross primary productivity (GPP) rather than that in terrestrial heterotrophic respiration (HR), suggesting that variations in vegetation productivity play a key role in regulating variations of the net carbon flux. Similar results were also found in other regions such as Africa (Ciais et al., 2009).

To study the effect of climate change on net carbon flux variations, we performed correlation analyses between detrended anomalies of the modelled net carbon flux and detrended anomalies of climate (annual temperature and annual precipitation) over the last three decades (see Methods section). All models predict that carbon uptake decrease or reversed into net carbon source responding to increasing temperature, with two models (LPJ GUESS and VEGAS) showing this positive correlation between temperature and net carbon flux statistically significant (r>0.4, P<0.05). Regarding the response to precipitation change, eight of the ten models predict more carbon uptake in wetter years, particularly for LPJ; TRIFFID shows a statistically significant (P<0.05) negative correlation between precipitation and net carbon flux. Thus, warm and dry years, such as 1988 and 2002, tend to have positive net carbon flux anomalies (less carbon uptake or net carbon release). This further implies that the warming trend and the and non-significant trend in precipitation (Figure 6) during the last three decades over South Asia might not benefit carbon uptake by terrestrial ecosystems, although models do not fully agree on the dominant climate driver of interannual variability in the net carbon flux. Six of the models (NCAR CLM4CN, HyLand, LPJ, OCN, ORCHIDEE and TRIFFID) show interannual variability in net carbon flux closely associated with variability in precipitation rather than in temperature. The precipitation is also found to be the main driver of seasonal variation in South Asian CO₂ flux (Patra et al., 2011a).



Figure 6. Interannual variations in net carbon flux (a, top panel), annual temperature (b, middle panel) and annual precipitation (c, bottom panel) over South Asia from 1980 to 2009. Dashed lines show the least squared linear fit with statistics shown in text. Grey area in the top panel shows the range of net carbon flux anomalies estimated by the eleven ecosystem models.

3.9. Methane emissions

3.9.1. Top-down and bottom-up South Asian CH₄ emissions

The South Asian CH_4 emissions are calculated from 6 scenarios prepared for the TransCom-CH₄ experiment (Patra et al., 2011b). Five of the emission scenarios are constructed by combining inventories of various anthropogenic/natural emissions and wetland emission simulated by terrestrial ecosystem model (bottom-up), and one is from atmospheric-CH₄ inversion (top-down). The estimated CH₄ emissions are in the range of 33.2 and 43.7 TgC-CH₄ yr⁻¹ for the period of 2000-2009, with an average value of 37.2±3.7 (1 σ of 6 emission scenarios) TgC-CH₄ yr⁻¹. 3.9.2. Bottom-up CH₄ emissions from agriculture in India – implications for South Asian budget

Livestock production and rice crop cultivation are the two major sources of CH_4 emission from the agriculture sector. The reported emissions due to enteric fermentation and rice cultivation were 6.6 TgC-CH₄ yr⁻¹ and 3.1 TgC-CH₄ yr⁻¹, respectively, using emission factors appropriate for the region (NATCOM, 2004). India is a major rice-growing country with a very diverse rice growing environment: continuously or intermittently flooded, with or without drainage, irrigated or rain fed and drought prone. The average emission coefficient derived from all categories weighted for the Indian rice crop is 74.1±43.3 kgC-CH₄ /ha (Manjunath et al, 2011). The total mean emission (revised estimate) from the rice lands of India was estimated at 2.5 TgC-CH₄ yr⁻¹. The wet season contributes about 2.3 TgC-CH₄ yr⁻¹ amounting to 88% of the emissions. The emissions from drought-prone and flood-prone regions are 42% and 18% of the wet season emissions, respectively.

India has the world's largest total livestock population with 485 million in 2003, which accounts for ~57% and 16% of the world's buffalo and cattle populations, respectively. Methane emissions from livestock have two components: emission from 'enteric fermentation' and 'manure management'. Results showed that the total CH₄ emission from Indian livestock, including enteric fermentation and manure management, was 11.8 Tg-CH₄ for the year 2003. Enteric fermentation itself accounts for 8.0 TgC-CH₄ yr⁻¹ (~91%). Dairy buffalo and indigenous dairy cattle together contribute 60% of the total CH₄ emission. The three states with high livestock CH₄ emission are Uttar Pradesh (14.9%), Rajasthan (9.1%) and Madhya Pradesh (8.5%). The average CH₄ flux from Indian livestock was estimated at 55.8 kgC-CH₄ ha⁻¹ feed/fodder area (Chhabra et al., 2009). The milching livestock constituting 21.3% of the total livestock contribute 2.4 TgC-CH₄ yr⁻¹ of emission. Thus, the CH₄ emission per kg milk produced amounts to 26.9 gC-CH₄/kg milk (Chhabra et al., 2009b).

These CH₄ emission estimations of 8.8 TgC yr⁻¹ from livestocks are in good agreement with those of 8.8 (enteric fermentation + manure management) TgC yr⁻¹ in the Regional Emission inventory in Asia (REAS) for the year 2000 (Yamaji et al., 2003; Ohara et al., 2007), while emissions from rice cultivation of 2.5 TgC yr⁻¹ is about half of 4.6 TgC yr⁻¹, estimated by Yan et al. (2009).

The REAS estimated total CH₄ emissions due to anthropogenic sources (waste management and combustion, rice cultivation, livestock) from South Asia is 25 TgC yr⁻¹ for the year 2000, with 6.5, 11.3 and 7.2 TgC yr⁻¹ are emitted due to rice cultivation, livestock and waste management. To match the range of the total flux from South Asia suggested by bottom-up inventories and atmospheric inversions (33.2-43.7 TgC/yr), the remaining CH₄ sources (mostly natural wetlands and biomass burning) for balancing total emissions from South Asia is in the range of 8-19 TgC yr⁻¹. The combination of bottom-up estimations of all CH₄ sources types from all the member nations with top-down estimates can help closing the methane budget in South Asia.

3.9.3 Southeast Asia

We use bottom-up emission of CH₄ from three-selected emission scenarios developed in Patra et al. (2011). These emissions are constructed from EDGAR3.2 anthropogenic emissions (Olivier and Berdowski, 2005), emissions from rice fields (Yan et al., 2009), and natural emissions from Fung et al. (1991) (referred to as CH₄_CTL). The CH₄_BB scenario is prepared by partly replacing the biomass burning (BB) emissions by interanually varying

emission field from GFEDv3.2 (van der Werf et al., 2010). For CH₄_BB_VISIT emissions, the wetland emissions are taken from an ecosystem model (VISIT; Ito and Inatomi, 2012). Like that of CO₂, the 1997/1998 El Niño period led to anomalously high emissions of CH₄ from the peat burning (Figure 7). The average CH₄ emission from these three emission scenarios is calculated as 47.5 ± 4.4 TgC-CH₄ yr⁻¹. When scaled by the global warming potential of CH₄ (23) compared to CO₂ (IPCC, 2007), the CO₂-equivalent CH₄ emission is 1092 TgC yr⁻¹.



Figure 7: Interannual variations in CH4 emissions as estimated by the VISIT ecosystem model and GFEDv3 for biomass burning.

3.10. The carbon budget

3.10.1 Mean annual CO2 budget

Figure 8 and Table 2 show the estimates of regional total CO₂-carbon emissions from different source types as discussed above. A fraction of the CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel burning (444 TgC yr⁻¹, averaged over 2000-2009) is taken up by the ecosystem within the region as suggested by the net biome productivity (NBP) estimated at -191±193 TgC yr⁻¹ by bottom-up methods, and at -104±150 TgC yr⁻¹ estimated by top-down methods. The bottomup NBP is estimated as the sum of terrestrial ecosystem simulated net ecosystem production (NEP), uptake and emissions due to land use change (LUC), and carbon export through the river system. The estimated CO_2 release due to fires (44 TgC yr⁻¹) is of similar magnitude than the flux transported out of the land to the coastal oceans by riverine discharge (42.9 TgC yr⁻¹), but fire emissions are not included in the budget because are largely taken into account in the LUC component. Considering the net balance of these source types (including all biospheric and fossil fuel fluxes of CO_2), the South Asia subcontinent is a net source of CO₂, with a magnitude in the range of 340 (top-down) to 253 (bottom-up) TgC yr⁻¹ in the period 2000-2009. We choose the mean value of 297±244 TgC yr⁻¹ from the two estimates as our best estimate for the net land-to-atmosphere CO₂ flux for the South Asia region.

Table 2: Decadal average CO_2 fluxes from the South Asia region using bottom-up estimations, top-down estimations and terrestrial ecosystem models. The range of estimate is given as maximum and minimum, and 1- σ standard deviations as the estimated uncertainty or from interannual variability (IAV).

Flux category	Flux (TgC yr ⁻¹)	Assessme nt period	Source	
Fossil fuel	+444 (range: +364 to +573)	2000-2009	Boden et al. (2011)	
Land use change	-14±50	2000-2009	This study based on Houghton et al. (2007)	
Open fires	+44.1±13.7 (IAV)	2000-2009	GFEDv3.1	
Riverine discharge (DIC+DOC+POC)	-42.9	1980-2000	This study based on Global NEWS, (Mayorga et al., 2010)	
Atmospheric-CO ₂ inverse model	-35.4 (model range: -158 to +507)	1997-2006	TransCom (Peylin et al., 2012)	
Region-specific CO ₂ inversion	-317 to -88.3	2007-2008	Patra et al., 2011; Niwa et al., 2012	
Ecosystem models (NEP)	-220±186	2000-2009	Multiple models	

3.10.2. The mean annual carbon (CO_2+CH_4) budget

Figure 8 shows the emission and sinks of CO_2 and CH_4 for the South Asia region. The best estimate of the total carbon or CO_2 -equivalent (CO_2 -eq = CO_2+CH_4) flux is 334 TgC yr⁻¹, calculated with the average CH_4 emissions of 37 TgC yr⁻¹ and best estimate of CO_2 emissions of 297 TgC yr⁻¹. For this CO_2 -eq flux, we assumed all CH_4 is oxidized to CO_2 in the atmosphere within about 10 years (Patra et al., 2011b). However, it is well known that CH_4 exerts 23 times more radiative forcing (RF) than CO_2 over a 100-year period (IPCC, 2001). For estimating the role of South Asia in global warming, the region contributes RF-weighted CO_2 -eq emission of 1148 (297+37×23) TgC yr⁻¹. The net RF-weight CH_4 emission from the South Asia region is more than double of that released as CO_2 from fossil fuel emissions. This result suggests that mitigation of CH_4 emission should be given high priority for policy implementation. The effectiveness of CH_4 emission mitigation is also greater due to shorter atmospheric lifetime compared to CO_2 .



Figure 8: Decadal mean CO_2 fluxes from various estimates and flux components (a. for the South Asia region (top panel), b. for the Southeast Asia region (bottom panel)). The period of estimations defer for source types (ref. Table 2 for details).

4. Conclusions

We have estimated all major natural and anthropogenic carbon (CO₂ and CH₄) sources and sinks in the South Asia region using bottom-up and top-down methodologies.

Excluding fossil fuel emissions and by accounting for the riverine carbon export, we estimated a top-down CO_2 sink for the 2000s (equal to the Net Biome Productivity) of -104±150 TgC yr⁻¹ based on recent inverse model simulations using aircraft measurement and median of multi-model estimate. The flux is in fairly good agreement with the bottom-up CO_2 flux estimate of -191±186 TgC yr⁻¹ based on the net balance of the following fluxes: net ecosystem productivity, land use change, fire, and river export. These results show the existence of a globally modest biospheric sink, but a quite significant regionally and per area sink driven by the net growth and expansion of vegetation. In a longer time frame, the South Asia sink is also benefiting from the CO_2 fertilization effect on vegetation growth.

Including fossil fuel emissions, our best estimate of the net CO_2 land-to-atmosphere flux is a source of 297 ± 244 TgC yr⁻¹ from the average of top-down and bottom-up estimates, and a net CO_2 -equivalent, including both CO_2 and CH_4 , land-to-atmosphere flux of 334 TgC yr⁻¹ for

the 2000s. We calculate that the RF-weighted total CH_4 emission is 851 TgC yr⁻¹ from the South Asia region. In terms of CO_2 -equivalent flux, methane is largely dominating the budget, at a 100-yr horizon, because of its larger warming potential compared to CO_2 . This indicates that a mitigation policy for CH_4 emission is preferred over fossil fuel CO_2 emission control or carbon sequestration in forested land.

Further constraints in the carbon budget of South Asia to reduce current differences between the bottom-up and top-down estimates will require the expansion of atmospheric observations including key isotopes of greenhouse gases and the continuous development of inverse modeling systems that can use a diverse set of data streams including remote sensing data. In addition, terrestrial ecosystem models will need to properly represent the crops given the large role of agriculture in the region, better constrain the role of wetlands in the methane budget, and expand observations on riverine carbon transport and its ultimate fate in the coastal and open oceans.

5. Future Directions

The top-down and bottom-up estimations of carbon fluxes showed good agreements within their respective uncertainties, because we are able to account for the major flow of carbon in to and out of the South Asia regions. However, there are clearly some missing flux components those require immediate attention. The fluxes estimated and not estimated in this work are schematically depicted in Figure 9. Most notably the soil carbon pool and fluxes have not been incorporated in this analysis. The soil organic carbon (SOC) sequestration potential of the South Asia region is estimated to be in the range of 25 to 50 TgC yr yr⁻¹ by restoring degraded soil and changing cropland management practices (Lal, 2004). The carbon fluxes associated with international trade (e.g., wood and food products) are likely to be minor contributor to the total budget of South Asia, as the region is not a major exporter/importer of these products (FRA, 2010). The region is a major importer of coal and gas for supporting the energy supply (UN, 2010). These flux components, along with several others identified in Figure 9, could be addressed in the future projects of the Asia-Pacific Network.



Figure 9: Schematic diagram of major fluxes of CO_2 , CH_4 , nitrous oxide (N₂O) and related species in South Asia region. The flux components written in black ink are discussed in this work, and those marked in red ink requires attention for further strengthening our knowledge of regional GHGs budget. Direction of net carbon flow has not been determined well for some of the fluxes, which are represented by lines with arrowheads on both sides.

5.1 New initiatives

Atmospheric measurements of GHGs: More observations are needed from the South and South Asia region, and we have taken a small step towards that. The figures below show the establishment of the air sampling system at the Bangladesh Meteorological Department building in Comilla, and a first look in to the measurements of greenhouse gases by the National Institute for Environmental Studies in Tsukuba. The Dhaka University and JAMSTEC provided logistic supports using APN funds.



Computer support to University of Sri Jayewardenepura: In our ongoing South and Southeast Asian greenhouse gases budget, high resolution inversion flux maps of CO_2 or the ecosystem model results were not available. Work is in progress in JAMSTEC for estimating CO_2 fluxes at every latitude-longitude grids of the chemistry-transport model. Similar results of high resolution CO_2 fluxes using another chemistry-transport model would be extremely useful for quantifying transport model error in the estimated CO_2 fluxes. In addition, as expressed earlier, a terrestrial ecosystem model with explicit treatment of major crops in the Asian countries is required for understanding the carbon uptake and release in the croplands.

Our colleagues, Dr. R. Lokupitiya and Dr. E. Lokupitiya, in Sri Lanka are going to work on improvements to the CO₂ data assimilation system and crop ecosystem modelling for the Asia region. Both of them have worked on these modelling systems for the North America region while working in Colorado State University in Fort Collins. We have purchased the much needed computing resources for running the models in Sri Lanka (Picture below). This investment is critical for the success of the APN proposal because the group will perform new atmospheric inversions and terrestrial ecosystem modelling which are required for the final synthesis of the Asian GHGs budget. In addition, the investment will leave a long legacy by bringing the country to become part of an international network of atmospheric scientists and ecosystem modellers.





Air and water sampling in Papua New Guinea: Support for air and water sampling from Papua New Guinea was offered to Prof. C.-T. Chen. For over ten years now Prof. Chen has been sampling carbonate related parameters in rivers and estuaries in Taiwan, SE China and Southeast Asia. The countries covered are the Philippines, Malaysia, Brunei, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand, Myanmar, Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam. It leaves a void in Papua New Guinea, a large area with essentially no carbonate data. In view of the rough terrain and very high precipitation there, it is expected that the riverine transports of carbon and related elements are substantial.

APN project partially supported a field trip led by Prof. Chen to sample selected rivers and estuaries in Papua New Guinea. The parameters measured are temperature (both in water and the air), wind speed, conductivity/salinity, dissolved oxygen, nitrate, nitrite, phosphate, silicate, pH, alkalinity, dissolved inorganic carbon, dissolved organic carbon, CH₄ (both in water and the air), N₂O (both in water and the air), total suspended particles, particulate inorganic carbon, particulate organic carbon, etc. In addition, every effort will be made to measure pCO_2 if the problem with transporting standard CO₂ gas can be solved. If not, the

pCO₂ will be calculated based on pH, alkalinity and dissolved inorganic carbon. Prof. Chen's laboratory is equipped to sample and measure all above-mentioned parameters.

The above data are being used to calculate the air-water fluxes of CH₄, N₂O and CO₂. The horizontal transports of nitrate, nitrite, phosphate, silicate, alkalinity, dissolved inorganic carbon, dissolved organic carbon as well as total suspended particles, particulate inorganic carbon and particulate organic carbon will also be calculated.

The above data and fluxes will be provided for a modelling effort will be performed to relate these data to parameters such as temperature, rainfall, roughness of the terrain, soil/sediment and rock type/composition of the catchments, and population density, etc.

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Appendix

Conferences/Symposia/Workshops

No	Name	Address	Tel, Fax & E-mail
1	Josep Canadell (Pep)	Global Carbon Project, CSIRO Marine and Atmospheric Research, Canberra, ACT 2601, Australia	Tel : +61 – 2 – 62465631 Fax : +61 – 2 – 62465560 pep.canadell@csiro.au
2	Prabir K. Patra	Research Institute for Global Change 3173-25 Showa-machi, Kanazawa Yokohama 236 0001, Japan	Tel : +81 – 45 - 7785727 Fax : +81 - 45 – 7785496 prabir@jamstec.go.jp
3	Michel Ramonet	Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et l'Environnement (LSCE), CEA Saclay - 91191 Gif-sur-Yvette Cedex, France	Tél. : 01.69.08.40.14, Michel.Ramonet@lsce.ip sl.fr
4	Yosuke Niwa	Meteorological Research Institute, 1-1, Nagamine, Tsukuba, Ibaraki, 305- 0052, Japan	Tel : +81 –29 -8538538 Fax : +81 –29 –8538545 yniwa@mri-jma.go.jp
5	Kentaro Ishijima	Frontier Research Center for Global Change 3173-25 Showa-machi, Kanazawa-ku, Yokohama, Kanagawa 236-0001, Japan	Tel : +81 – 45 - 7785713 Fax : +81 – 45 - 7785496 ishijima@jamstec.go.jp
6	Iman Rusmana	Department of Biology, Bogor Agricultural University, IPB Campus, Darmaga, Bogor, Jawa Barat [Djawa Barat] 16680, Indonesia	Tel : +62-251-8622833, Fax : +62-251-8622833 irusmana@ipb.ac.id
7	Alan Frendy Koropitan	Department of Marine Science and Technology, Bogor Agricultural University (IPB), Kampus IPB Darmaga, Bogor 16680, Indonesia	Tel/Fax : +62 – 251 - 8623644 alan@ipb.ac.id
8	Neung-Hwan Oh	Graduate School of Environmental Studies, Seoul National University, Seoul 151 – 742, Republic of KoreaTel : +82 – 2 - 8 Fax : +82 – 2 - 8 ultisol@gmail.com	
9	Chun-Ho Cho	OClimate Research DivisionTel : +82 – 2 - 67120201, 0309National Institute of Meteorological67120201, 0309	

Summary list of participants in three APN workshops:

		Research, 45, Gisangcheong-gil,	Fax: +82 - 2 - 8490668
		Dongjak-gu, Seoul 156-720, Korea	choch0704@korea.kr
10	0 Rodel D. Lasco World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF),		Tel:+63 049 5362701
		2/f Khush Hall, IRRI Campus,	Fax: +63 049 5364521
		College, 4031 Laguna, Philippines	r.lasco@cgiar.org
11	Ravindra	Department of Statistics	lokupitiya@yahoo.com
	Lokupitiya	University of Sri Jayewardenepura, Nugegoda. Sri Lanka	
12	(Ms) Erandi Lokupitiva	Depart of Zoology, Colombo University	erandi@kiwi.atmos.colost ate.edu
		Colombo, Sri Lanka	
13	Tapas	Division of Soil Resource Studies	Tel : +91 - 712 - 2500545
	Dhattacharya	National Bureau of Soil Survey and Land use Planning (ICAR), Amravati Road, Nagpur 440 033, Maharashtra, INDIA	tapas@nbsslup.ernet.in
14	(Ms) N.K.	CSIR Centre for Mathematical Modelling	Tel : +91(0)8025228635
	Indira	and Computer Simulation (C-MMACS)	Fax: +91(0)8025220392
		NAL Belur campus, Bangalore - 560 037, Karnataka, India	indira@cmmacs.ernet.in
15	P.S. Swathi	CSIR Centre for Mathematical Modelling	Tel : +91(0)8025228635
		NAL Bolur computer Simulation (C-MMACS)	Fax: +91(0)8025220392
		Karnataka, India	swathi@cmmacs.ernet.in
16	Yogesh Tiwari	Indian Institute of Tropical Meteorology	yktiwari@googlemail.com
		Dr. Homi Bhabha Road, Pashan	
		Pune – 411008, Maharashtra, India	
17	K. Ravi Kumar	Indian Institute of Tropical Meteorology	ravimet07@gmail.com
		Dr. Homi Bhabha Road, Pashan	
		Pune – 411008, Maharashtra, India	
18	Vinu Valsala	Indian Institute of Tropical Meteorology	valsala@tropmet.res.in
		Dr. Homi Bhabha Road, Pashan	
		Pune – 411008, Maharashtra, India	
19	Manish Naja	Aryabhatta Research Institute of Observational Sciences (ARIES)	Tel : +91 – (0)5942 - 233735, (Ext-250)

		Manora Peak, Nainital - 263 129, Uttaranchal, India	Fax : +91(0)5942233439 manish@aries.res.in
20	Narendra Ojha	Aryabhatta Research Institute of Observational Sciences (ARIES)	nojha@aries.res.in
		Manora Peak, Nainital - 263 129, India	
21	V.V.S.S Sarma	National Institute of Oceanography	sarmav@nio.org
		176 Lawsons Bay Colony	
		Visakhapatnam – 530017, India	
22	U. K. De,	School of Environmental Studies,	deutpal2003@yahoo.com
		Jadavpur University, Kolkata - 700032, India.	
23	(Ms) Divya Pandey	Department of Botany, Banaras Hindu University, Varanasi – 221005, India	divyaenvbhu@gmail.com
24	(Ms) Srabanti	School of Environmental Studies	Fax : +91 – (0)33 –
	Ballav	Jadavpur University, Raja S.C Mullick	24146266
		India.	o.in
25	N. R. Patel	Agric. & Soils Division	Tel : +91(0)1352745526
		Indian Institute of Remote Sensing	Fax : +91(0)1352741987
		(NRSA, Dept. of Space)	nrpatel@iirs.gov.in
		4, kalidas Road, Dehradun-248001, India	
26	Rabindra	Oceanography Division, ESAG	rabin2005@rediffmail.co
	Nayak	National Remote Sensing Center (NRSC), ISRO	m
		Balanagar, Hyderabad - 500 625, India	
27	(Ms) Neerja	Oceanography Division, ESAG	neerja_s@nrsc.gov.in
	Sharma	National Remote Sensing Center (NRSC), ISRO	
		Balanagar, Hyderabad - 500 625,India	
28	(Ms) Abha	EHD/ABHG/EPSA	Tel : +91(0)7926914007
	Chhabra	Space Applications Centre,	Fax: +91(0)7926915823
		Indian Space Research Organisation	abha@sac.isro.gov.in
		Ahmedabad- 380015, Gujarat, India	

29	R.P. Singh AED/ABHG/EPSA		Tel : +91(0)7926914005
	Space Applications Centre		Fax: +91(0)7926915823
		Indian Space Research Organisation	rpsingh@sac.isro.gov.in
		Ahmedabad – 380015, Gujarat, India	
30	K.R.	AED/ABHG/EPSA	Tel : +91(0)7926914006
	Manjunath	Space Applications Centre	Fax: +91(0)7926915823
		Indian Space Research Organisation	krmanjunath@sac.isro.go
		Ahmedabad- 380015, Gujarat, India	v.in
31	P.P. Nageswaro	Indian Space Research Organization Geosphere Biosphere Programme,	Tel : +91 – (0)80 - 23416457
	Rao	Room No 345, Antariksh Bhavan, ISRO - HQ , New BEL Road, Bangalore -	Fax : +91 – (0)80 – 23415281
		560231, Karnataka, India	ppn@isro.gov.in
32	32(Ms) Prabha R.Space Physics Laboratory, VikramNairSarabhai Space Centre		prabha_nair@vssc.gov.in
		Trivandrum – 695022, Kerala, India	
33	Harish Gadhvi	National Atmospheric Research Laboratory, Department of Space:	Tel:+91 – (0)8585 – 272024, 20
		Andhra Pradesh, India	Fax : +91 – (0)8585 - 272018
34	Satheesh	Dept. of Atmospheric Science	Tel : +91(0)4972756133
	Kumar	Kannur University, Mangattuparamba	Fax: +91(0)4972784480
		Campus - 670567,	drmksatheesh@gmail.co
		Kannur, Kerala, India	m
35	T. Nishanth	Dept. of Atmospheric Science	Tel : +91(0)4972756133
		Kannur University, Mangattuparamba Campus - 670567	Fax : +91(0)4972784480
		Kannur, Kerala, India	nistru.t@gmail.com
36	C.	School of Post Graduate Studies,	Tel : +91(0)4226611461
	Udayasoorian	Tamil Nadu Agricultural University	Fax: +91(0)4226611343
		Coimbatore - 641 003, Tamil Nadu, India	deanspgs@tnau.ac.in
37	R.M.	School of Post Graduate Studies,	Tel : +91 – (0)42 -
	Jayabalakrishn	Tamil Nadu Agricultural University	26611461

	an	Coimbatore - 641 003, Tamil Nadu India	Fax : +91 – (0)42 - 26611343
38	(Ms) Ujjaini Sarkar	Department of Chemical Engineering Jadavpur University, Raja S.C Mullick Road Kolkutta – 700032, West Bengal, India	Tel : +91 – (0)33 - 24146378 usarkar@chemical.jdvu.a c.in abhigyan@hotmail.com
39	Pradip Bhuyan	Dept. of Physics, Dibrugarh University, Dibrugarh - 786004, Assam, India	Tel : +91 – (0)373 - 2370224 pkbhuyan@gmail.com
40	Y.V. Swamy	BEEC Division Indian Institute of chemical Technology (IICT) Tarnaka, Hyderabad - 500 007, India	Tel : +91 – (0)40 – 27193235 swamy_yv@yahoo.com, yvswamy@iict.res.in
41	(Ms) Trupti Das	Dept. of Environment & Sustainability Inst. of Minerals & Materials Technology (IMMT) Bhubaneswar - 751 013, Orissa, India	trupti.sreyas@gmail.com
42	Shyam Lal	SPA – AS Division, Physical Research Laboratory Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009, Gujarat, India	Tel : +91 - (0)79 - 26314671 Fax : +91 - (0)79 - 26314659 shyam@prl.res.in
43	M.M. Sarin	GS – DN Division, Physical Research Laboratory Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009, Gujarat, India	Tel : +91 - (0)79 - 26314306 Fax : +91 - (0)79 - 26314907 sarin@prl.res.in
44	Y.B. Acharya	SPA – AS Division, Physical Research Laboratory Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009, Gujarat, India	Tel : +91 – (0)79 - 26314673 Fax : +91 – (0)79 – 26314659 yacharya@prl.res.in
45	Lokesh K Sahu	SPA – AS Division, Physical Research Laboratory	Tel:+91 – (0)79 - 26314558

		Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009, Gujarat	Fax : +91 - (0)79 - 26314659
		India	lokesh@prl.res.in
46	(Ms) Shuchita Srivatsava	SPA – AS Division, Physical Research Laboratory	Tel : +91 – (0)79 - 26314656
		Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009, Gujarat	Fax : +91 – (0)79 – 26314659
		India	shuchita@prl.res.in
47	Varun Sheel	SPA – AS Division, Physical Research Laboratory	Tel : +91 – (0)79 - 26314654
		Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009, Gujarat	Fax : +91 – (0)79 – 26314659
		India	varun@prl.res.in
48	Som Kumar Sharma	SPA – AS Division, Physical ResearchTel : +91 – (0)79Laboratory26314554	
		Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009, Gujarat	Fax : +91 – (0)79 – 26314659
		India	som@prl.res.in
49	Chinmay Mallik	SPA – AS Division, Physical Research Laboratory	Tel : +91 – (0)79 - 26314656
		Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009, Gujarat	Fax : +91 – (0)79 – 26314659
		India	chinmay@prl.res.in
50	Naveen Chandra	SPA – AS Division, Physical ResearchTel : +91 – (0)Laboratory26314668	
		Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009, Gujarat	Fax : +91 – (0)79 – 26314659
		India	naveen@prl.res.in
51	(Ms) Kabitri Nag	As) Kabitri SPA – AS Division, Physical Research Tel : +91 – (0 Laboratory 26314775	
		Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009, Gujarat	Fax : +91 – (0)79 – 26314659
		India	kabitri@prl.res.in
52	S. Venkataramani	SPA – AS Division, Physical Research Laboratory	Tel : +91 – (0)79 – 26314663, 75, 68
		Navarangpura, Ahmedabad – 380009,	Fax: +91 – (0)79 –

		Gujarat	26314659
		India	venkat@prl.res.in
53	Md. Kawser Ahmed	Department of Oceanography, Earth & Environmental Sciences Faculty, University of Dhaka, Dhaka-1000, Bangladesh	Tel: + 880-2-9661920 e- mail: kawser_du@yahoo.com
54	Daniel Murdiyarso	Forests and Environment Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR), Situ Gede –Sindangbarang, Bogor 16115, Indonesia	Tel: +62 251 8622622 fax: +62 251 8622100 e-mail: d.murdiyarso@cgiar.org
55	Takashi Hirano	Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan E-mail: hirano@env.agr.ho ac.jp	
56	Edvin Aldrain	BMKG, Jakarta, Indonesia	Email: e_aldrian@yahoo.com
57	Nobuko Saigusa	National Institute for Environmental Studies, 16-2 Onogawa, Tsukuba 305- 8506, Japan	Tel: +81-29-850-2525 Fax:+81-29-858-2645 Email: n.saigusa@nies.go.jp
58	Solichin Manuri	Forests and Environment Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR), Situ Gede –Sindangbarang, Bogor 16115, Indonesia	Tel: +62 251 8622622 fax: +62 251 8622100 e-mail: sbiham@yahoo.com
59	Joko Pubopuspito	Forests and Environment Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR), Situ Gede –Sindangbarang, Bogor 16115, IndonesiaTel: +62 251 862262 fax: +62 251 862210 e-mail: j.purpopuspito@cgia	
60	Haruni Krisnawati	Forests and Environment Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR), Situ Gede –Sindangbarang, Bogor 16115, IndonesiaTel: +62 251 8622622 fax: +62 251 8622100 e-mail: h.krisnawati@yahoo.	
61	J. Van Lent	Forests and Environment Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR), Situ Gede –Sindangbarang, Bogor 16115, Indonesia	Tel: +62 251 8622622 fax: +62 251 8622100 e-mail: d.murdiyarso@cgiar.org
62	AL Hooijer	Stichting Deltares, Jakarta, Indonesia Email:	

			aljosja.hooijer@deltares.n I
63	Govindswamy Bala	Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, India	Email: gbala@caos.iisc.ernet.in
64	Ye Huang	College of Urban and Environment Science, Peking University, Beijing, 100871, China	Email: huangyepku@163.com
65	Lingxi Zhou	Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences (CAMS), China Meteorological Administration (CMA), 46 Zhongguancun Nandajie, Beijing 100081, China	Tel: +86-10-5899-5279 Fax: +86-10-6217-6414 Email: zhoulx@cams.cma.gov.c n
66	Xuhui Wang	Peeking Univ Beijing, China	Email: xh.wang@pku.edu.cn
67	Fuu-Ming Kai	Singapore-MIT alliance, Singapore	Email: fmkai@smart.mit.edu
68	Ting-Hsuan Huang	Department of Oceanography, National Sun Yat-sen University, Kaohsiung 80424, Taiwan, R.O.C	Email: apsara@mail.nsysu.edu.t w
69	Alessandro Baccini	Woods Hole Research Center, Massachusett, USA	Email: abaccini@whrc.org
70	Benjamin Poulter	Montana State University, Department of Ecology, Bozeman, MT 59717-3460, USA	tel: +1 (406) 994-3231 fax: (406) 994-3190 Email: benjamin.poulter@monta na.edu
71	Hideki Kobayashi	Department of EnvironmentalEmail:Geochemical Cycle Research,hkoba@jamstedJAMSTEC, Yokohama	
72	Ram Avtar	United Nations University, Institute for the Advanced Study of Sustainability (UNU-IAS), 5-53-70 Jingumae, Shibuya- ku, Tokyo 150-8925, Japan	Email: ram.envjnu@gmail.com
73	Shilong Piao	Peking University, Beijing, China Email: slpiao@pku.edu.c	
74	Lars Nieradzik	CSIRO, Canberra	Email: Lars.Nieradzik@csiro.au

75	Xu Ri	ITPCAS, Beijing, China	Email: xu-ri@itpcas.ac.cn
76	Hanqin Tian	School of Forestry and Wildlife Sciences, Auburn University, 602 Duncan Drive, Auburn, AL 36849, USA.	Tel: (334) 844-1059 Fax: (334) 844-1084 Email: tianhan@auburn.edu
77	Eri Saikawa	Department of Environmental Sciences, Rollins School of Public Health, Emori University, Atlanta, USA	Tel: +1 404 727-0487 Email: eri.saikawa@emory.edu
78	Rona Thompson	NILU (Norwegian Institute for Air Research), Oslo, Norway	Tel: +47 6389 8148 Email: rlt@nilu.no
79	Siegfried Gonzi	University of Edinburgh, Crew Building, West Mains Road, Edinburgh EH9 3FF, Scotland, United Kingdom	Tel: +44 131 6505247 Email: siegfried.gonzi@ed.ac.uk
80	Tazu Saeki	Department of Environmental Geochemical Cycle Research, JAMSTEC, Yokohama	Email: tazu.saeki@jamstec.go.jp
81	Jun-Ichi Kurokawa	Asia Center for Air Pollution Research, Atmospheric Research Department, 1182 Sowa, Nishi-ku, Niigata-shi 950- 2144, Japan	Tel:+81-25-263-0558 Fax: +81-25-263-0567 E- mail : kurokawa@acap.asia
82	Marilena Muntean	EDGAR team, Joint Research Centre of the European Commission, Ispra, Italy	Email: Marilena.Muntean@jrc.it
83	Shu Tao	Peking University, Beijing, China	Email: taos@urban.pku.edu.cn
84	Keiya Yumimoto	Meteorological Research Institute, Tsukuba, Japan	Email: yumimoto@mri- jma.go.jp
85	Sandipan Mukherjee	G.B. Pant Institute of Himalayan Environment and Development, Almora 263643, Uttarakhand, India	Tel: +91-5962-241041 Email: sandipan@gbpihed.nic.in
86	Shohei Nomura	National Institute for Environmental Studies, 16-2 Onogawa, Tsukuba 305- 8506, Japan	Email: nomura.shohei@nies.go.j p

87	Kazuhito Ichii Department of Environmental Geochemical Cycle Research, JAMSTEC, Yokohama		Tel: +81-45-778-5556 Email: ichii@jamstec.go.jp
88	Hon-Kit Lui	Department of Oceanography National Sun Yat-Sen University 70 Lien-Hai Road, Kaohsiung 80424,Taiwan, R.O.C.	Tel: 886-7-5255155 e-mail: m955030005@student.ns ysu.edu.tw
89	Akihiko Ito National Institute for Environmental Studies, 16-2 Onogawa, Tsukuba 305- 8506, Japan		Tel: +81-29-850-2525 Fax:+81-29-858-2645 Email: itoh@nies.go.jp

First International workshop on Asian greenhouse gases budget,

Physical Research Laboratory, Ahmedabad, 27-29 September 2011

DAY 1	27-Sep-11	K. R. Ramanathan Auditorium
Registration	8:45	
Prabir Patra	0930-0935	Welcome
A. S. Joshipura, Dean, PRL	0935-0950	Inauguration
Josep Canadell	0950-1025	Importance of regional synthesis, regional participation
Shyam Lal	1025-1030	Vote of thanks
HIGH TEA	1030-1115	
Prabir Patra	1115-1125	APN project summary and immediate (first year) targets
Michel Ramonet	1125-1145	Greenhouse gases measurement programme of IAGOS
Yosuke Niwa	1145-1205	Aircraft measurements and inverse modeling for estimating Asian carbon budgets
NK Indira	1205-1220	High Precision Measurements of Carbon dioxide in India
P. S. Swathi	1220-1235	First results of regional inversion using Hanle CO_2 data
Tapas Bhattacharya	1235-1255	Estimation of carbon stock and its changes in Indian soils
LUNCH	1300-1400	
Kentaro Ishijima	1400-1420	Signal of N_2O and CH_4 emission from the South and Southeast Asia detected by aircraft observation and modeling
Ravindra Lokupitiya	1420-1440	Carbon inversions with MLEF using insitu and satellite observations
VVSS Sarma	1440-1500	Riverine input of carbon to the coastal Indian

oceans

K. R. Manjunath	1500-1520	Use EO Sensors in Reducing Uncertainty in Methane Emission Inventory
Divya Pandey	1520-1540	Net global warming potential of rice-wheat cultivation
TEA/COFFEE	1540-1610	
BREAKOUT SESSION	1610-1730	Ground floor lecture hall & 6 th floor meeting room
28-Sep-11	DAY 2	K. R. Ramanathan Auditorium
Prabir Patra	0930-0950	Top-down estimation of CO ₂ fluxes using insitu measurements and validations
Neung-Hwan Oh	0950-1010	Budgeting riverine carbon exports in the global carbon cycle
Erandi Lokupitiya	1010-1030	Prediction of land-atmosphere exchanges in croplands
Manish Naja	1030-1050	Greenhouse gases measurements at Nainital, India
Chun-Ho Cho	1050-1110	CarbonTracker-Asia, a tool to quantify CO_2 uptake/release focused on Asia
TEA/COFFEE	1110-1140	
Rodel Lasco	1140-1200	Philippines Greenhouse Gas Inventory for 2000s
Iman Rusmana	1200-1220	Potentials for rice methane mitigation in Indonesia
Alan Koropitan	1240-1300	Estimation of terrestrial carbon transport to marginal seas
LUNCH	1300-1400	
		Ground floor lecture hall
M. M. Sarin	1400-1420	Acidification of coastal waters: Relative impacts of CO_2 versus other anthrpogenic gases

1420-1440	High resolution CO_2 simulation over Japan using WRF-CO ₂ model
1440-1500	CO and black carbon as an indicator of anthropogenic CO_2 emission in India
1500-1520	Forest carbon fluxes from Satellite remote sensing
1520-1550	
1550-1730	Ground floor lecture hall & 6 th Floor meeting room
DAY 3	K. R. Ramanathan Auditorium
0930-0950	Carbon fluxes over terrestrial ecosystems by using remote sensing and flux-towers
0950-1010	Trace gases measurements and modelling - an ISRO-GBP perspective
1010-1030	Outlook for asian GHG measurments
1030-1050	On developing high precision CO ₂ monitoring techniques at the IITM Pune India
1050-1110	
1110-1230	Advances and specific products and/or papers
1230-1400	
1600-1700	Colloquium
	1420-1440 1440-1500 1500-1520 1520-1550 1550-1730 DAY 3 0930-0950 0950-1010 1010-1030 1030-1050 1050-1110 1110-1230 1230-1400 1600-1700



Photo: Participants at the workshop in Ahmedabad

Second International workshop on "Asian Greenhouse Gases Budget"; CIFOR, Bogor; 9-11 October 2012

Name	Time	Talk title (10 min talk and 5 min discussion)
09 September 2012	(Tuesday)	
Registration	09:00 - 09:30	
Daniel Murdiyarso	09:30 - 09:40	Welcome address, announcement, etc.
Pep Canadell/		
Prabir Patra	09:40 - 10:15	Workshop context/objectives
Pep Canadell	10:15 - 10:30	The carbon budget of Southeast Asia
Takashi Hirano	10:30 - 10:45	Carbon balance of tropical peat swamp forest
Coffee/Tea Break	10:45 - 11:15	
Edvin Aldrain	11:15 - 11:30	Riverine export to the Indonesian marginal seas
Yosuke Niwa	11:45 - 12:00	Transport and inverse modeling analyses with the

Nobuko Saigusa	12:00 - 12:15	Carbon Budget Estimations Based on AsiaFlux Network Observations
Solichin Manuri	12:15 - 12:30	Improving accuracy of forest carbon accounting at district level
Lunch Break	12:30 - 14:00	
Daniel Murdiyarso	14:00 - 14:15	Overview of SWAMP
Joko Pubopuspito	14:15 - 14:30	Belowground carbon dynamics in mangrove ecosystems
Haruni Krisnawati	14:30 - 14:45	Development of allometric equations to predict aboveground C accumulation in mangrove stands
Group discussion	14:45 - 15:30	Panel discussions - general topics
Coffee/Tea Break	15:30 - 16:00	
Breakout sessions	16:00 - 17:30	Group 1: AAAA; Group 2: BBBB
BBQ Dinner	19:00 - 21:00	

10 September 2012 (Wednesday)

Prabir Patra	09:00 - 09:15	TransCom forward simulations of N_2O - implications for inverse modelling
J. Van Lent	09:15 - 09:30	Land-use change effects on soil emissions of N_2O and NO in the tropics and subtropics worldwide: a meta- analysis
VVSS Sarma	09:30 - 09:45	Emission of trace gases, CO_2 , CH_4 , N_2O and DMS from the Indian estuaries and adjacent coastal ocean
AL Hooijer	09:45 - 10:00	Peatland management in Indonesia
Coffee/Tea Break	10:30 - 11:00	
Group discussion	11:00 - 12:30	Panel discussions - general topics
Lunch Break	12:30 - 14:00	
Akihiko Ito	14:00 - 14:15	Process-based modeling of greenhouse gas fluxes at natural and human-disturbed ecosystems in Southeast

		Asia
Govindswamy Bala	14:15 - 14:30	Trends and variability of satellite derived NPP in India
Rodel D. Lasco	14:30 - 14:45	Climate change mitigation through REDD+: will it make a difference in financing forest development in the Philippines?
Ye Huang	14:45 - 15:00	China black carbon emission from 1949 to 2050 and global CO_2 emissions in 2007
Coffee/Tea Break	15:30 - 16:00	
Breakout sessions	16:00 - 17:30	Group 1: AAAA; Group 2: BBBB
Dinner at De Leuit	19:00 - 21:00	
11 September 2012	2 (Thursday)	
Lingxi Zhou	09:00 - 09:20	Accurate and compatible measurement of atmospheric greenhouse gases in China
Yogesh Tiwari	09:20 - 09:35	Atmospheric CO_2 and other GHG monitoring in India
Xuhui Wang	09:45 - 10:00	Modelling terrestrial carbon cycle over Southeast Asia during 1980-2009, the Trendy perspective
N. R. Patel	10:00 - 10:15	Measurement and modeling of carbon fluxes over cropland and forest plantation in northen India
Fuu-Ming Kai	10:15 - 10:30	Recent findings shine light on puzzling growth rate of methane
Coffee/Tea Break	10:30 - 11:00	
K.R. Manjunath	11:00 - 11:15	Spatio-temporal Methane emission pattern from South Asia using remote sensing and GIS approach
Ting-Hsuan Huang	11:15 - 11:30	Fluvial carbon fluxes in tropical rivers
Alan Koropitan	11:30 - 11:45	Carbon fluxes over the waters near mangrove, seagrass and coral reef ecosystems
Prabir Patra	11:45 - 12:00	South/Southeast Asia Regional Network

Lunch Break	12:30 - 14:00	
Group discussion	14:00 - 15:30	Panel discussions - whole Asia synthesis
Coffee/Tea Break	15:30 - 16:00	
Papers and products	16:00 - 17:30	Specific project, subject, etc.



Photo: Participants at the workshop in Bogor, Indonesia

Third International workshop on "Asian Greenhouse Gases Budget"

Miyoshi Hall, JAMSTEC, Yokohama; 8-10 April 2014

Programme co-chairs : Prabir Patra, JAMSTEC & Pep Canadell, GCP/CSIRO

Name	Time	(10 min talk and 5 min discussion)
08 April 2014 (Tuesday)		Title of talk
Registration	08:30 - 09:00	
Pep & Prabir	09:00 - 09:10	Welcome and logistics
Rikie Suzuki	09:10 - 09:20	Terrestrial ecosystem research focus in JAMSTEC
Pep & Prabir	09:20 - 09:45	Toward a grand synthesis of Asian greenhouse gases budget
Nobuko Saigusa	09:45 - 10:00	Measurements of CO ₂ fluxes at AsiaFlux network sites
Alessandro Baccini	10:00 - 10:15	Landuse and landuse change in Asia from remote sensing
session discussions	10:15 - 10:30	
Coffee/Tea Break	10:30 - 11:00	
Benjamin Poulter	11:00 - 11:15	Global/regional forest age-carbon cycle mapping
Hideki Kobayashi	11:15 - 11:30	Satellite remote sensing of terrestrial vegetation dynamics in the Asia region and climate sensitivity
Ram Avtar	11:30 - 11:45	State of Southeast Asian ecosystems - detection of landuse change at 50m resolution
Akihiko Ito	11:45 - 12:00	VISIT: terrestrial ecosystem model simulation of CO2, CH_4 , N_2O and fire emissions
Shilong Piao	12:00 - 12:15	Carbon budget of terrestrial ecosystems in East Asia
session discussions	12:15 - 12:30	

Lunch Break	12:30 - 14:00	
Lars Nieradzik	14:00 - 14:15	CABLE terrestrial ecosystem model results for Asia
Xu Ri	14:15 - 14:30	Carbon-nitrogen dynamics in LPJ-DyN model
Hanqin Tian	14:30 - 14:45	The balance of GHG in the terrestrial ecosystems of monsoon Asia: the concurrent estimation of CO2, CH_4 and N_2O using DLEM
session discussions	14:45 - 15:30	
Coffee/Tea Break	15:30 - 16:00	
Breakout sessions	16:00 - 17:30	Ecosystem monitoring, modelling and bottom-up targets
Dinner: YES Guest House	18:00 - 20:30	2000 yen/person
09 April 2014	(Wednesday)	Title of talk
Eri Saikawa	09:00 - 09:15	Modelling of soil nitrous oxide emissions from natural processes
Benjamin Poulter	09:15 - 09:30	CH₄ emissions from wetlands and other source categories
Rona Thompson	09:30 - 09:45	Methane emissions in East Asia estimated using a Bayesian inversion approach
Siegfried Gonzi	09:45 - 10:00	GOSAT: CO_2 and CH_4 inversion fluxes using GEOS-Chem
Tazu Saeki	10:00 - 10:15	Inverse modelling of CO ₂ emissions using Asian observations
session discussions	10:15 - 10:30	
Coffee/Tea Break	10:30 - 11:00	
Yosuke Niwa	11:00 - 11:15	CONTRAIL: Inverse modelling of CO_2 fluxes using NICAM
Shamil Maksyutov	11:15 - 11:30	GOSAT: $CO_2 \& CH_4$ Inversion fluxes using NIES-TM

Jun-Ichi Kurokawa	11:30 - 11:45	Trend of anthropogenic emissions of GHGs, black carbon, and carbon monoxide estimated in REAS
Marilena Muntean	11:45 - 12:00	EDGAR: Asian emission inventories for greenhouse gases
Shu Tao	12:00 - 12:15	CO2, CO and Black carbon emission inventories of Asia
session discussions	12:15 - 12:30	
Lunch Break	12:30 - 14:00	
Breakout sessions	14:00 - 15:30	Inverse modelling, Bottom-up emission inventories
Coffee/Tea Break	15:30 - 16:00	
Group discussion	16:00 - 17:00	Ecosystem - Emission connections
Philippe Ciais	17:00 - 17:30	Special (Skype) talk from IPCC AR5 Chapter 6 overall lead author
Dinner: at Kamakura	19:00 - 21:00	approx. 6000 yen/person; http://www.kamakurawakamiya.jp/dinner/k aiseki.html
10 April 2014 (Thursday)		Title of talk
Keiya Yumimoto	09:00 - 09:15	Inverse estimation of CO and black carbon emissions
Kentaro Ishijima	09:15 - 09:30	Inverse estimation of N ₂ O fluxes
Sandipan Mukherjee	09:30 - 09:45	CO_2 and energy fluxes in the northern India
Michel Ramonet	09:45 - 10:00	Measurements and modelling of atmospheric CO_2 and CH_4 over India
Shohei Nomura	10:00 - 10:15	Measurements of greenhouse gases in Asia
session discussions	10:15 - 10:30	
Coffee/Tea Break	10:30 - 11:00	
Kazuhito Ichii	11:00 - 11:15	Bottom-up estimation of CO ₂ fluxes using flux tower oservations

Neung-Hwan Oh	11:15 - 11:30	Carbon export from Asian rivers
Hon-Kit Lui	11:30 - 11:45	Riverine export of carbon, nitrogen to the marginal seas
Prabir Patra	11:45 - 12:00	Issues on chemical transformation of reduced carbon
session discussions	12:00 - 12:30	
Lunch Break	12:30 - 14:00	
Group discussion	14:00 - 15:30	Major remaining issues and potential ramification
Coffee/Tea Break	15:30 - 16:00	
Papers and products	16:00 - 17:30	State of the Ecosystems, Budgets of GHGs and BC for 2000s,
Dinner: Patra's Home	18:30 onwards	Complimentary for the participants



Photo: Participants at the workshop in Yokohama, Japan

Training workshop in Dhaka University, Earth & Environmental Sciences Faculty ~Fundamental of atmospheric research~

Lecturers: Dr. Prabir K. Patra, Dr. Masayuki Takigawa, Prof. Utpal K. De

Course Schedule

23/11/2014

Arrive in Dhaka

24/11/2014 (Monday)

10:00~11:30	Presentation on Greenhouse Gases research (Lecture-1)
11:30~12:00	Q & A
12:00	Meeting with the Vice Chancellor
12:30~1:30	Lunch
1:30~2:30	Lecture – fundamentals of atmospheric science (Lecture-2)
2:30~3:30	Interaction with students

3:30~4:30 Introduction to basic tools in atmospheric and oceanic research

25/11/2014 (Tuesday)

- 10:00~11:00 Lecture fundamentals of atmospheric science (Lecture-3)
- 11.00~12:00 Interaction with students
- 12:30~1:30 Lunch
- 1:30~2:30 Lecture observational basics and hands on training (Lecture-4)
- 2:30~3:30 Interaction with students
- 3:30~4:30 Lecture observational basics and hands on training (Lecture-5)

26/11/2014 (Wednesday)

- 10:00~11:00 Lecture numerical modeling (Lecture-6)
- 11.00~12:00 Interaction with students
- 12:30~1:30 Lunch
- 1:30~2:30 Lecture numerical modeling (Lecture-7)
- 2:30~3:30 Interaction with students
- 3:30~4:30 Lecture numerical modeling (Lecture-8)

27/11/2014 (Thursday)

- 10:00~11:00 Hands-on learning of the basic tools WRF model
- 11.00~12:00 Interaction with students
- 12:30~1:30 Lunch
- 1:30~2:30 Hands-on learning of the basic tools WRF model
- 2:30~3:30 Interaction with students
- 3:30~4:30 Hands-on learning of the basic tools WRF model

Check-out, SAYONARA

List of Participants (Masters and Doctoal Course students, and junior faculties):

- 1. Mir Shariful Islam, Lecturer, Dept. of Oceanography, DU.
- 2. Abu Hena Muhammad Yousuf, Lecturer, Dept. of Oceanography, DU.
- 3. Md. Zavid Iqbal Bangalee, Assistant Professor, Dept. of Mathematic, DU.
- 4. Mrs. Jahida Gulshan, Associate Professor, ISRT, DU.
- 5. Mr. Paritosh Kumar Roy, Assistant Professor, ISRT, DU.
- 6. Mrs. Farhana Sadia, Lecturer, ISRT, DU.
- 7. Mr. Mohammad Samsul Alam, Lecturer, ISRT, DU.
- 8. Salahuddin Hawlader, Assistant Professor, Dept. of Natural Sciences, UITS, Dhaka.
- 9. Ms. Farzana Ahmed Mohua, Asst. Prof., Dept. of Geography & Environment, DU.
- 10. Mrs. Fatima Akter, Lecturer, Dept. of Geography & Environment, DU.
- 11. Md. Marufur Rahman, Lecturer, DSM, DU
- 12. BM Rabbi Hossain, Lecture, DSM, DU
- 13. Md. Tariqul Islam, Lecturer, Dept. of Civil Engineering, UITS, Dhaka.
- 14. Mr. Md. Abul Kalam Mallik, Bangladesh Meteorological Department, Dhaka.
- 15. Mr. Md. Hashem Uddin, Senior Scientific Officer, SPARSO, Dhaka.
- 16. K M Azam Chowdhury, M.S. Student, Dept. of Oceanography, DU.
- 17. Rupok Lodh, M.S. Student, Dept. of Oceanography, DU.
- 18. Md. Nazim Uddin, M.S. Student, Dept. of Oceanography, DU.
- 19. Nishat Tasnim, M.S. Student, Dept. of Math, DU.
- 20. Roushanara Begum, M.S. Student, Dept. of Math, DU.
- 21. Md. Mahfuzur Rahman Khan, MS student, ISRT, DU.
- 22. Mr. Md. AL-Imran, Student, (Thesis), Dept. of Geography & Environment, DU.
- 23. A.K.M. Moshiur Rahman, Geology Department, DU.
- 24. Nafisa Shamim, Geology Department, DU.
- 25. Saiful Alam, Geology Department, DU.



Photos from Training course in Dhaka University (left: view of the class room). The pro-vice chancellor (Prof. (Ms.) Nasreen Ahmad) attended the certificate-award ceremony (right).



The training course and desire to continue this type of training course in coming years also welcomed by the university officials and participants. News coverage in Bangladesh Today (Japanese and Indian Scientists meet DU Vice Chancellor; 27 November 2014; Thursday).

Funding sources outside the APN

JAMSTEC (~30,000 USD/year for travel grants, air sampling flask transportation and administrative support)

CSIRO (~10,000 USD/year for travel support)

NIES (~20,000 USD/year for air sampling analysis)

Dhaka University (~20,000 USD per year for sampling flask storage and handling)

PRL (~10,000 USD for organising the first workshop)

CIFOR (~20,000 USD for organising the second workshop)

Website templates and example pages:

We have developed a webserver design during the first year of the project. The website contains fluxes of major greenhouse gases between the earth's surface and the atmosphere, and 4-dimensional distribution of atmospheric concentrations of the GHGs. The webserver allows the registered users to plots and extract data interactively.

Due to the lack of sufficient infrastructure the website could not be put online from JAMSTEC. However, we will continue to work towards this philosophy of data sharing with the project participants and interested parties around the world.



Maintained by : Prabir K. Patra; Contact: RIGC/IAMSTEC, E-mail: prabir@jamstec.go.jp, Ph.: +81-45-778-5727, Fax: +81-45-778-5496 Website designed by : Peobrics, Kollata and TopTech Informatics, Tokyo





First presentation of the APN project in PRL, Ahmedabad by Pep Canadell and Prabir Patra, showing the status report and research plans/targets for the next 3 years.











Why Regional Carbon Budgets?

Cates.

- To provide higher spallul imsolution of the global carbon balance with the aim to improve attribution to processes and hot spots regions essential to understand the future evolution of the carbonclimate bindback.
- To address a growing demand for a capacity to Measure, Report, and Venify (MRV) the evolution of regional fluxes and the outcomes of climate mitigation policies.



Why Regional Carbon Budgets?

- To provide higher spatial mentions of the global carbon balance with the airu to improve attribution to processes and hid-spats regions emertical to understand the tutum evolution of the carbonchriste feedback
- To address a growing demand for a capacity to Measure, Report, and Veility (MRV) the evolution of regional flaves and the calcomes of climate mitigation policies.
- To support regions to further develop the technical capacity to synthesize their carbon balances and enhance observations.

Why Regional Carbon Budgets?

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- To provide higher spatial resolution of the global carbon balance with the aim in improve attribution to processes and hol-spots regions essential to understand the future resolution of the carbonchruste feedback.
- To address a growing domand for a capacity to Mnonute. Report, and Verity (MRV) the evolution of segonal floors and the outcomes of climate mitigation policies.
- 3 To support sugioes to further deniniop the technical copacity to synthesize their calcor balances and enhance observations.
- To respond to the Group on Earth Observations (EOS) in establishing a global carbon observatory to track the evolution of natural and anthropogenic carbon sources and sinks.

REgional Carbon Cycle Assessment and Processes (RECCAP)

- To establish the mean carbon balance of large regions of the globe at the scale of continents and large ocean basins, including their component fluxes.
- To do it by comparing and reconciling multiple bottom-up estimates with the results of regional top-down atmospheric inversions, with attribution to main flux components.
- To evaluate the regional 'hot-spots' of interannual variability and possibly the trends and underlying processes over the past two (or more) decades by combining available long-term observations and modeling.











Synthesis Approach

- Top-down Bottom-up
- Reconciliation of flux estimates (independently assessed and often partially overlapping) as a means to build confidence in our understanding of the component fluxes, mean estimates, and inter-annual variability.
- Although we are ultimately interested in building a mathematically-formalized multiple constraint approach, model data fusion or data assimilation (eg, like in weather and hydrological forecast), we are not pursuing this approach in a first phase.
- · Uncertainties need to be quantitatively estimated.









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RECCAP


















2nd Workshop: Syntheses of Syntheses

Initial Ideas

- Comparison of atmospheric and bottom up fluxes (mean decadal).
- · Inter-annual variability at regional scale.
- · Attribution to regional processes over the globe.
- · Future regional carbon trends.
- · Methods (protocols and uncertainty analyses).
- · Final recommendations

Scientific Steering Committee Philippe Ciais, Chair (France) Pep Canadell, Coordinator (Australia) Han Dolman (The Netherlands) Niki Gruber (Switzerland) Kevin Gurney (USA) Corinne Le Quere (UK) Mac Post (USA) Mike Raupach (Australia) Chris Sabine (USA) Piao Shilong (China) Stephen Sitch (UK)

Partners and Sponsors

- COordination action Carbon Observation System (COCOS), Europe
- Carbon Cycle Science Program CCIWG, USA
- International Ocean Carbon Coordination Project (IOCCP)
- Chinese Science Academy (CAS), China
- CSIRO Marine and Atmospheric Research, Australia
- · National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES), Japan
- · Carbo-Africa
- · Quantifying and Understanding the Earth System (QUEST), UK

How do we expect to achieve it?

- · Establishing a large global coordination effort.
- Developing of a "soft protocol" to guide and ensure consistency among regional syntheses (so they can be compared and add up at the end).
- · Relying primarily on:
 - existing analyses,
 - ongoing analyses from regional and national programs (eg, North American Carbon Plan, CarboEurope, Australian NCAS),
 - global modeling and assessment efforts (eg, GCP Carbon Budget, GCP-TRENDY, TRANSCOM, SOCAT).

· Relying secondarily on:

 the establishment of new synthesis teams in regions where there is not an established carbon program.



Data Fair-Use Policy

- Inspired on the successful model of the AmeriFlux data policy (also used in FluxNet):
 - Request permission to use.
 - Assess possible clashes with other users.
 - Determine which arrangement are appropriate:
 - co-authorship
 - acknowledgements

Product	Specifications	Coordinator Nevin Gurwy, Rachel Law, Philippe Peylin	
Atmospheric CO ₂ inversions	TransCom (12 models), 1° x 1° grid, regional integrated fluxes according to RECCAP mask. To 2008		
Ocean forward biogeochemical models	Five global models at 1" x 1" for all major Bux components. To 1958-2009	Corinne Le Quere	
Ocean Inversion	1 model.	Niki Grubber	
Terrestrial biogeochemical models and NEP dus model	Five Dynamic Global Vegetation Models, gridded output for all major flux components. To 2005. OPP and NEP from eddy flux date-driven model	Stophen Stath, Pierre Friedlingstein, Warkur Raschstein	
Fire emissions	0 S* s 0.5*, monthly, burned area and fire emissions (C.CO. ₃ .CO.CH ₀ .NOx, N ₃ O, BC others) 1997-2008.	Guido van Werf	



Introduction

- Carbon cycle of Asian regions is poorly studied (terra incognita), compared to the North America or Europe
- More and more regions are now covered by mega-projects from the European Union and USA
- The CARIBIC and CONTRAIL aircraft projects offer new view of the South Asian air (shown by transport model intercomparison)
- Here we attempt to conduct inversion using the CO₂ observations in the upper troposphere





















Table 4. Estimated Emissions From Global Rice Fields*					
Region/Country	Irrigated Rice	Rain-Fed and Deepwater Rice	Total		
China	7.41	0.00	7.41		
India	3.99	2.09	6.08		
Bangladesh	0.47	1.19	1.66		
Indonesia	1.28	0.38	1.65		
Vietnam	1.26	0.39	1.65		
My/anmar	0.80	0.36	1.17		
Thailand	0.18	0.91	1.09		
Other monsoon Asian countries	2.32	0.67	2.99		
Rest of the world	1.20	0.49	1.70		
Total	18.90	6.49	25 36		







Conclusions

- JAL/CONTRAIL and Lufthansa/CARIBIC project already provide large amount of data
 - Forward and inverse modelling is conducted with a focus on South Asla region
 - We found South Asia acted as a net sink of CO₂ during 2007 and 2008 at the rate of 0.37 Pg-C/yr
 Unset state of 0.37 Pg-C/yr
 - Upper tropospheric data of CO₂ and other species contains surface flux signal of tropical regions, particularly during deep cumulus convection
- More sophisticated inversion techniques are being employed for further analysis of the CONTRAIL CO₂ data (Rayner et al....)
- Surface measurements of GHGs concentrations are desired following international (WMO) protocols

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MB	MH	Max		Min	Man
c0,	+0.18	+0.54	Pg-C/yr	-0.37	+0.29
ан,	66.0	72.0	Tg-CHL/yr	45.2	57.8
N,D	1.14	1.41	Te-N/yr	0.63	0.85

Annual fluxes - challenge is to reconcile the

...very, very large uncertainty remains in CO₂ fluxes

Final presentations at the APN project meeting in JAMSTEC, Yokohama and Korea Meteorological Agency, Daejeoung, showing the outcome of the project and some of the future directions.









The Legacy of RECCAP

- A research framework to constrain budgets.
- 14 regional carbon budgets (syntheses + data)
- RECCAP Special Issue in Biogeosciences (23 papers)
- Data Repositories and Living Reviews in Earth System Science Data:
 - Global CO₂ Budget - Global CH₄ Budget
 - TRENDY: 10 land biogeochemical models (Climate, CO₂, ... LUC)
 - 5 Ocean models
 - 11 Atmospheric Inversions models
 - Land use change emissions (RECCAP regions resolution)

APN Project - Asia GHG Budgets Justification

- Asia is the biggest contributor of global anthropogenic ghgs emissions.
- · Fastest growth by volume of fossil fuel emissions.
- Fastest growth by volume of emissions from deforestation.
- Land carbon stocks among the most vulnerable:
 Fastest deforestation rates of all tropics.
 Strongest effects of Southern Oscillation (because climate x land use)
- After Africa, the least amount of work and coordination among scientists.

















discussion subgroups:

- Atmosphere (top-down/inventory) subgroup - CO2, CH4, N2O, CO, BC
- Terrestrial subgroup CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O
- · Riverine export and coastal ocean

¹APN: Asia Paulit: Network Project: Generations gas budgets of South and Southeast Asia (ARCP2013-012CMY Pierra/Canadol)



Atmosphere sub-group

II. L. Thompson, M. Ramonet, P. K. Patra. Saeki, K. Ishijima, S. Makyutov, Y. Nwa, S. Ganzi, K. Yumimoto, M. Monteun, J. Karokawa, S. Tao, H. Mukai, I. Nonura, K. Ahmed

Top-down constraints - existing & new observations (list incomplete)

- Long-term record inversions (focus 2000-2012)
 - · NOAA CCGG flask network
 - AGAGE in-situ network + C5IRD
 - JMA
 - · NIES
- Short-term new observation inversions (focus 2010-2012) GOSAT (CO₂, CH₄)
 CONTRAIL ASE (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, CO)
 Tohoku Univ. aircraft and ships (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, CO)

 - RAMCES ground-based sites (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O)
 NIES flask sampling network (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, CO)
 - · CSIRO flasks (CO3, CH4, N2O, CO)
 - IMA flights (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, CO)

Attempt to collect atmospheric data (June 2014)

Rame	buildube	Date	
Ed Olugidaniki	ERUNDAL ISA	NOAA Tiask	
Multan san	ARES, Tradiubal, Japan	WES-Kanits	
Talijino sal	MID, Tradiabal, Japan	Dig N/G CO continues	
Nakacawa-sain, Monimutu-sain	Toliaina University	Bigs and amount	
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Machica-can & Matsusch-cen	Millt and NIES.	CONTRAIL.	
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M. Van der Shaeli	(380). Aspendale, Restrolla	CIRRO refraints	
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. Morien	MCS, Toukuba, Japan	PTH Augen (3 steel?1)	
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Yngroli Tiwat	WM, Pune	ED, D4	
N.H. LINE, F. DUTING	NULL Tenare	Plank & Continuous data	



	CO2	CH,	N,O	00	Black Carbon
TMS	11	44	1		
TMST	44		1	-	
Geos Dem ²	44	-			
LMD2-PYVAR*	40	11		1	11 A
ACTM	14	**	11		
NES-TM ⁴	11	44			
NICAM-TM!	44				
FLEXINVERT*		44			
Geosthem*				11	
CHASE#**				11	
MOZARTH		12	10		
L. BRUE, MC, NGAA 3. SAPE BO2 3. LOOK of Schemery 4. LOOK and Schemery 5. classified (N	*	7 8. 9. 11	AMU DAAL Buluu MAUYu Toosoon JAAMITEC Eleven Maria		Longterm, 2000 focusient, 2010



Terrestrial sub-group - Carbon

B. Poulter (Montana State Univ.), S. Piao (Peking Univ.), K. Ichii (JAMSTEC), A Ito (NIES), L. Nieradzik, P. Canadell (CSIRO), A. Baccini (WHRC), et al.

Terrestrial sub-group – CH₄

(tied with GCP activity)

B. Poulter (Montana State University, USA), A. Ito (National Institute for Environmental Studies, Japan),

H. Tian (Auburn University, USA) et al.

Terrestrial sub-group - N₂O

NMIP - Global and regional N₂O model Inter-comparison Project

Hangin Tian (Auburn University, USA) Eri Salkawa (Emory University, USA) Xu-Ri (Chinese Academy of Sciences) Akihiko Ito (NIES, Japan)