

Bulletin of Multi-scale Estimation of Greenhouse Gas Budgets

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Secretariat of Information Collection and Preparation,
United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

Dear Sir / Madame,

As an observer institution of the UNFCCC, we would like to submit a short report of national-, regional-, and global-scale greenhouse gas budgets for the purpose of supporting the first Global Stocktake.

Sincerely,

三枝信子

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Synopsis

This bulletin provides an overview of the greenhouse gas budgets estimated by the SII-8 project, aiming at making contributions to the first Global Stocktake of the Paris Agreement.

1. Introduction

Reliable quantification of global, regional, national, and local greenhouse gas (GHG) budget is essential to achieve the climate goal of the Paris Agreement. Unlike the Kyoto Protocol (1997), all parties to the Paris Agreement (2015) are obliged to provide national inventories of anthropogenic GHG emissions and their nationally determined contributions. To ensure transparency, the Paris Agreement authorized the Global Stocktake (GST), which is a process for taking stock of implementation with the aim of assessing the world's collective progress towards achieving the purpose of the agreement and its long-term goals, every five years. The first GST, assumed to take place in November 2023, consists of three components: 1) Information Collection and Preparation, 2) Technical Assessment, and 3) Consideration of Outputs.

This summary report aims to demonstrate the outcomes of research activities in Japan with respect to information contributions to the first GST. Funded by the Ministry of the Environment of Japan, the SII-8 strategic research project (Comprehensive Study on Multi-scale Monitoring and Modeling of Greenhouse Gas Budgets) was launched in April 2021. The participating research groups evaluated GHG budgets at multiple scales, by using their resources such as observational platforms, advanced models, and inventories (Fig. 1). Such attempts are undoubtedly required, because the GST should take into consideration inputs on equity and make use of the best available science in a cross-cutting manner. This report gives a brief overview of the methodology adopted in this project and shows key results that are expected to support the first and following GSTs. Advantages of the present study come from 1) integrated deployment of multiple (bottom-up and top-down) approaches, 2) a wide range of spatial scales, and 3) quick reporting to support decision making. In particular, the present study better covered the Asia and Pacific areas, which other regional or global monitoring activities have covered only sparsely.

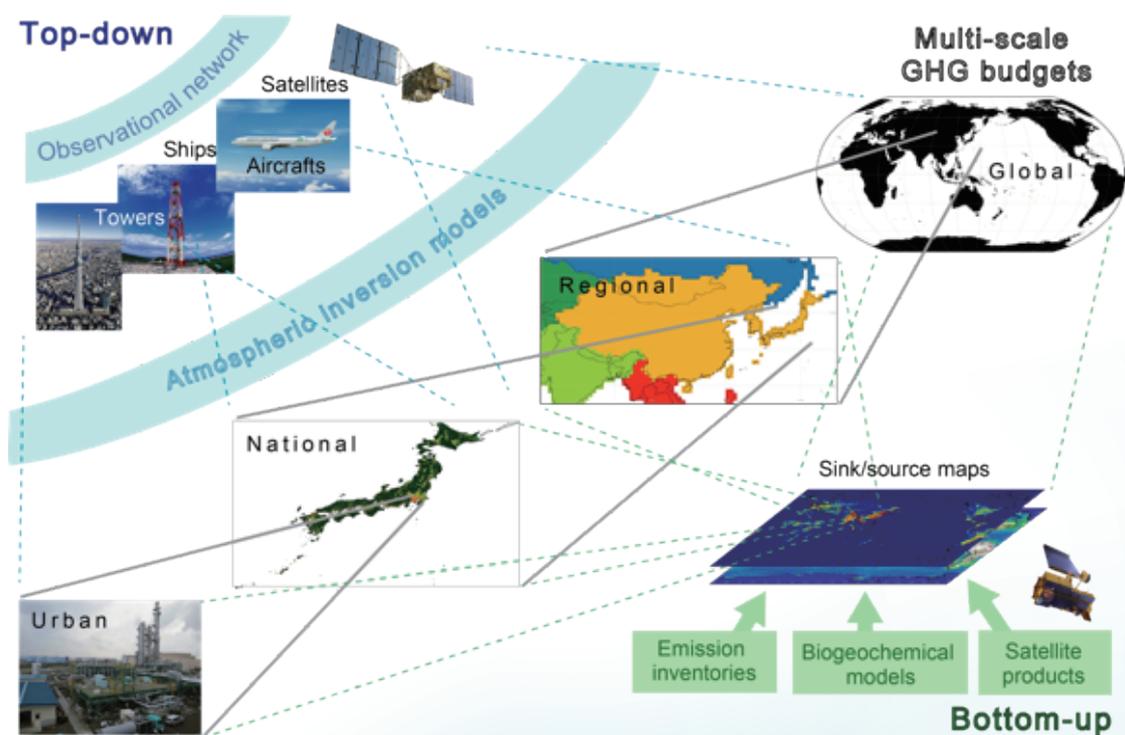


Figure 1. Overview of multi-scale GHG monitoring system using the top-down and bottom-up approaches.

2. Methodology

2.1. Top-down approach

a) Atmospheric observations

Ground observatory, ship, CONTRAIL (aircraft), GOSAT series (satellite) etc.

The Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA), the Meteorological Research Institute, and the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES) have been monitoring atmospheric GHGs from a variety of platforms, including ground sites (Mukai *et al.*, 2001; Tohjima *et al.*, 2002; Watanabe *et al.*, 2000; Tsutsumi *et al.*, 2006), JMA research vessels (Ishii *et al.*, 2011; Ono *et al.*, 2019), commercial cargo ships (Terao *et al.*, 2011; Tohjima *et al.*, 2012), aircrafts (Matsueda *et al.*, 2002; Machida *et al.*, 2008; Tsuboi *et al.*, 2013; Umezawa *et al.*, 2020), and satellites (Yokota *et al.*, 2009; Yoshida *et al.*, 2013). The GHGs are measured on-site or in air samples that are collected in canisters and sent back to the individual laboratories to determine mole fractions of the GHGs and C/H/N isotopic composition. The mole fractions of the GHGs, including CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O, are precisely determined based on highly compatible standard scales (Tsuboi *et al.*, 2017). The time courses of CO₂ over the Asia Pacific area from 2010 through 2021 are plotted in Fig. 2, showing the spatio-temporal variability of CO₂ at background (e.g., MNM), continental (e.g., NTL), and urban (e.g., YYG) sites. These observed data are provided immediately to the atmospheric inversion systems, following strict quality assurance and quality control procedures.

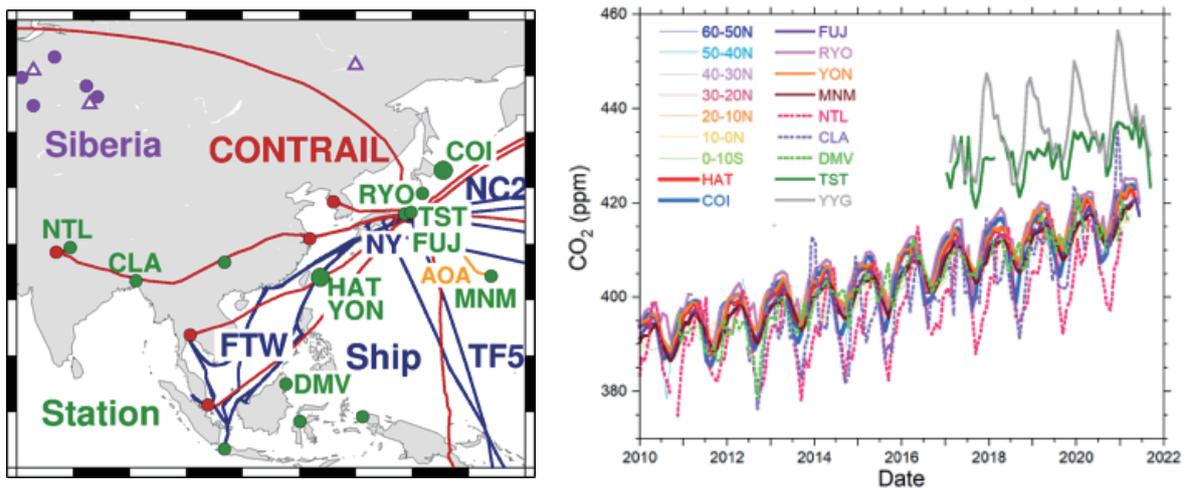


Figure 2. (left) Map showing the locations of the atmospheric GHG observations in the Asia-Pacific region. Green circles represent ground sites, blue lines shipboard routes, and red lines airplane routes. (right) Time courses of atmospheric CO₂ observed over the Asia Pacific region from 2010 through 2021 are shown at monthly intervals.

NIES has observed the atmosphere in Tokyo megacity since 2016. The time courses of atmospheric CO₂ observed at Tokyo Skytree (TST) are plotted in Fig. 3, showing large (up to 100 ppm) increases in CO₂ from baseline concentrations, which is calculated by smoothly connecting the data below 10th percentile for a 5-day time window. The high-resolution NICAM model indicated that the fossil fuel CO₂ emitted from the Greater Tokyo area was the major source (61% of annual average) of CO₂ increases larger than 20 ppm, supplemented by fossil fuel CO₂ emitted from other areas (15%) and from the biosphere (23%). These observed data and high-resolution modeling are especially useful for monitoring GHG emissions in Tokyo megacity.

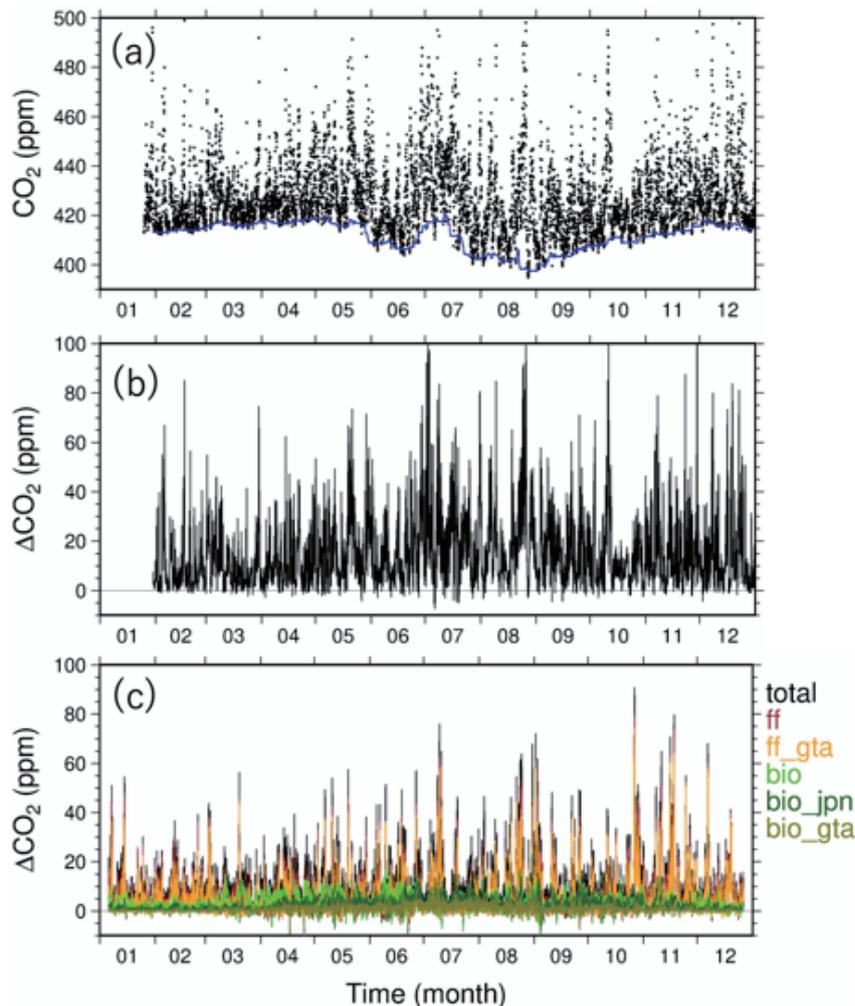


Figure 3. Time courses of (a) the 1-h averaged CO₂ and (b) enhanced CO₂ (Δ CO₂) observed at TST in 2017 from the baseline concentrations, and (c) enhanced CO₂ simulated using the high resolution NICAM model.

b) Atmospheric inversion modeling

NICAM-TM and NISMON:

The Nonhydrostatic Icosahedral Atmospheric Model (NICAM) is a numerical simulation model developed for global high-resolution simulations by the University of Tokyo, JAMSTEC, RIKEN and other Japanese institutes (Sato *et al.*, 2014). The NICAM-based Transport Model (NICAM-TM) and NICAM-based Inverse Simulation for Monitoring greenhouse gases (NISMON) are used to simulate concentration variations in the atmosphere and estimate surface fluxes of CO₂ and CH₄ (Niwa *et al.*, 2017a,b). NICAM-TM has been developed for GHG studies from the study of Niwa *et al.* (2011). In NISMON, the four-dimensional variational method, which is a state-of-the-art data assimilation/inversion method, is implemented to exploit a large number of observations and estimate high-resolution (model grid point) flux values (i.e., large dimensional problems) (Niwa *et al.*, 2017a,b). Its application to estimate CO₂ fluxes (NISMON-CO₂) was demonstrated by Niwa *et al.* (2021). Its long-term analysis (Niwa, 2020) was conducted using version 2021.1 (NISMON-CO₂ v2021.1; Niwa, 2020) and used in the synthesis analysis of the global carbon cycle by Global Carbon Project (Friedlingstein *et al.*, 2020, 2021). The prior fluxes of NISMON-CO₂ v2021.1 are composed of the fossil fuel emissions of GCP-GridFED (Jones *et al.*, 2021); terrestrial biosphere fluxes of a process-based terrestrial ecosystem model, the Vegetation Integrative Simulator for Trace gases (VISIT; Inatomi *et al.*, 2010, Ito and Inatomi, 2012, Ito, 2019); the satellite-based biomass burning emissions product, Global Fire Emissions Database (GFED) v4.1s (van der Werf *et al.*, 2017); and shipboard measurement-based ocean flux data of the Japan Meteorological Agency (Iida *et al.*, 2021).

MIROC4-ACTM:

The Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate, version 4 (MIROC4) is an earth system model developed at JAMSTEC, in collaboration with the University of Tokyo and NIES (see Box). MIROC4-ACTM is the atmospheric chemistry transport version of MIROC4 (Patra *et al.*, 2018). Simulations of long-lived gases in the atmosphere (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, SF₆) are performed at a horizontal resolution of T42 spectral truncations (~2.8° × 2.8° latitude-longitude grid) with 67 vertical hybrid-pressure layers between the Earth's surface and 0.0128 hPa (~80 km). The simulated horizontal winds (U, V) and temperature (T) are nudged with the Japan Meteorological Agency Reanalysis data product (JRA-55; Kobayashi *et al.*, 2015) over the altitude range of ~980 to 0.018 hPa for better representation of the atmospheric transport at synoptic and seasonal timescales. We tested the large-scale interhemispheric transport and Brewer-Dobson circulation in the MIROC4-ACTM using SF₆ simulations in the troposphere and CO₂-derived age of air in the troposphere and stratosphere (Bisht *et al.*, 2021; Patra *et al.*, 2018; and references therein). The MIROC4-ACTM inversion system optimizes monthly-mean fluxes from 84 regions of the globe for CO₂ and N₂O (Saeki and Patra, 2017; Patra *et al.*, 2022) and 54 land regions for CH₄ (updated from Chandra *et al.*, 2021a).

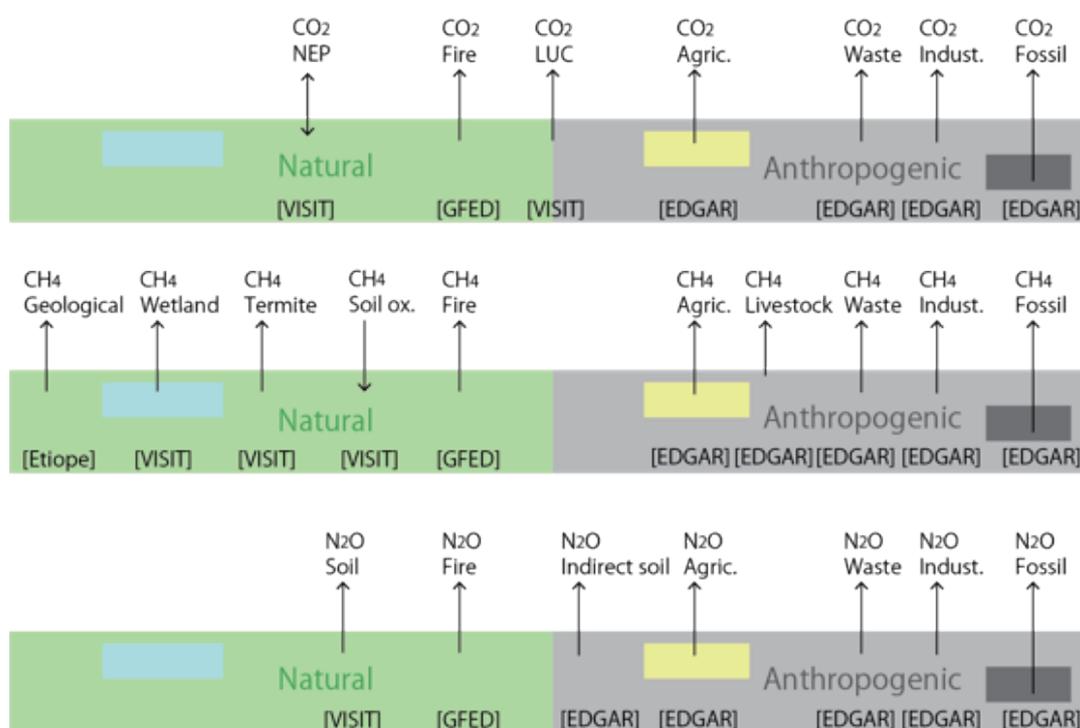


Figure 4. Summary of the bottom-up estimation of GHGs budgets: CO₂ (upper), CH₄ (middle), and N₂O (bottom). Method and data used for each flow are shown in [brackets]. VISIT: Vegetation Integrative Simulatr for Trace gases, GFED: Global Fire Emission Database.

2.2. Bottom-up approach

The bottom-up approach estimates surface GHG sinks and sources by using emission inventories, biogeochemical models, and surface remote sensing (Fig. 4), and therefore is independent from atmospheric observational data. The bottom-up approach has advantages in spatial resolution and sectorial explicitness, but disadvantages in time-lag and data-specific uncertainties. In general, the bottom-up approach uses multiple data sources to cover a variety of sinks and sources for both natural and anthropogenic sectors. In this project, we mainly used a biogeochemical model to estimate GHG sources and sinks of natural sectors and an emission inventory for anthropogenic emissions. Because simulation of wildfire is highly uncertain in the biogeochemical model, a satellite-derived product was used.

a) Biogeochemical model

The process-based terrestrial ecosystem model VISIT was used to simulate GHG exchange of natural ecosystems. The model has been used in regional and global studies of terrestrial GHG budgets and examined with atmospheric and field measurement data (e.g., Patra *et al.*, 2011, 2022; Chandra *et al.*, 2021a). The model simulates biogeochemical processes of natural and agricultural ecosystems; their area fraction-weighted values represent the total flux at each grid point. The model consists of biogeophysical (e.g., radiation budget) and biogeochemical schemes and simulates water, carbon, and nitrogen cycles. In the fraction of cropland, agricultural practices such as planting, harvesting, and fertilizer input are considered in a simplified manner (Ito *et al.*, 2018).

Box. Earth System Model

To quantitatively assess how much the efforts of countries to reduce GHG emissions will lead to global warming mitigation, we use global warming projections by Earth system models (ESMs). By giving anthropogenic CO₂ and other anthropogenic emission scenarios, ESMs can project future CO₂ sinks by land and ocean, changes in CO₂ concentrations, and subsequent climate change, together with impacts from other non-CO₂ GHG species. This is a collaborative study with the TOUGOU (Integrated Research Program for Advanced Climate Models), funded by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan. Figure Box-1 shows historical simulation of global temperature change by an Earth system model and a climate model emulator; by averaging multiple ensemble simulations with slightly different initial conditions, it is possible to extract signals of global temperature rise from projections of global emission reduction. We plan to assess the effectiveness of emission reductions, based on the latest anthropogenic emission data and ESM simulations.

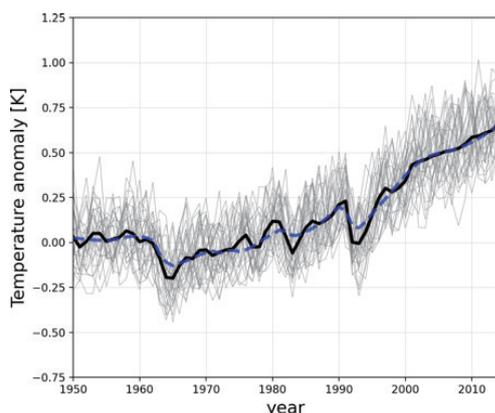


Figure Box-1. Near-surface air temperature change (represented as the difference from the 1961–1990 average) simulated by an Earth system model, MIROC-ES2L (Hajima *et al.*, 2020). Multiple simulations with different initial conditions (thin lines) were performed for the period of 1850–2014, and the ensemble average is represented by thick black line; the averaged air temperature is well reproduced by a simple climate model (FAIR, Smith *et al.*, 2018). In this case, the simulations were performed with a prescribed CO₂ concentration configuration. The simulated results are available via the Earth System Grid Federation (<https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>), and used extensively in IPCC 6th Assessment Report.

b) Emission inventory and satellite products

Anthropogenic emission database

Anthropogenic emission inventories were used for the bottom-up estimation, as well as prior data of atmospheric inversions. The Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR; Crippa *et al.*, 2020) version 6.0 was used because this dataset covers all GHGs and has high spatial resolution (0.1° × 0.1°) and explicit sectorial classification. The emission sectors were aggregated into four to five categories: fossil fuel mining, urban and industry, waste including landfill, agriculture, and indirect emission (N₂O from deposition) or livestock (CH₄ only). For comparison, several other emission datasets were referred to: Open-Data Inventory for Anthropogenic Carbon dioxide (ODIAC), Gridded fossil CO₂ emission database (GridFED), FAOSTAT for agricultural emissions, GAINS/IIASA for CH₄ and N₂O, and Community Emissions Data System (CEDs).

Fire emission database

Biomass burning emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O were derived from GFED v4s (van der Werf *et al.*, 2017) including small fires. Emission factors, i.e., emissions per unit weight of biomass burning, were derived from Akagi *et al.* (2011). Because of uncertainties in burnt-area detection algorithms and emission factors, the GFEDv4s-based biomass burning emissions should be examined by comparing them with other similar products such as GFAS (Global Fire Assimilation System) and FINN (Fire Inventory from NCAR).

3. Greenhouse gas budgets

3.1. Top-down approach

Global, regional, and national budgets

Figure 5 shows the global trends in global CO₂ fluxes estimated by two inversion systems (MIROC4-ACTM and NISMON). NISMON inversion used one set of prior flux and model input parameters, but MIROC4-ACTM performed an ensemble of 16 inversions for two sets of prior fluxes and by varying prior flux uncertainty (PFU) and measurement data uncertainty (MDU). The MIROC4-ACTM uncertainties in the predicted fluxes due to different priors are found to be 0.35 and 0.1 Pg C yr⁻¹ for global land and ocean, respectively. Ensemble mean land and ocean fluxes are in good agreement with the IPCC 6th Assessment Report “mean” estimates of -2.6 ± 1.14 and -1.7 ± 0.6 (Chandra *et al.*, 2021b). Global total sinks estimated with both NISMON and MIROC4-ACTM are in good agreement with the observed global mean CO₂ growth rate (Fig. 5d), although differences remain in land-ocean partitioning of carbon uptakes in the post-2012 period (Fig. 5b,c).

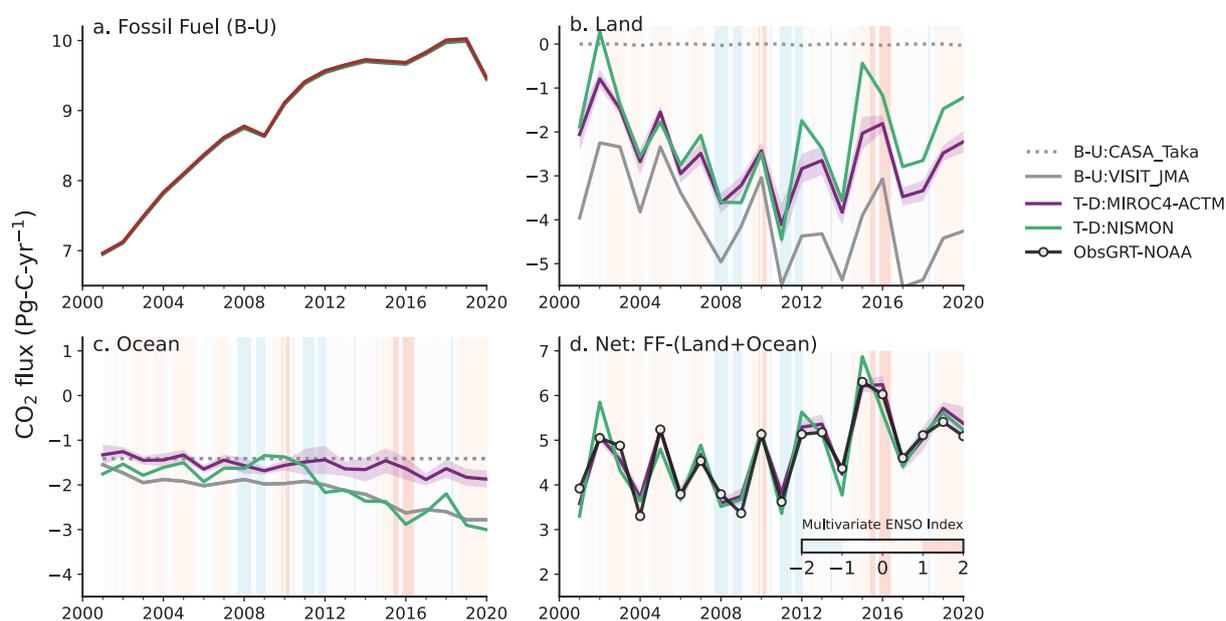


Figure 5. Global annual CO₂ emissions from fossil-fuel (a) and estimated land (b) and oceanic (c) carbon sink from MIROC4-ACTM and NISMON inversions. In panel d, net CO₂ flux (FF emission – land sink – oceanic sink) is compared with the observed global growth rate from the NOAA/ESRL (Dlugokencky and Tans, 2021). CO₂ growth rate is the converted to net flux calculated using a factor 2.13 Pg C ppm⁻¹ (d). The background shading in panels b, c and d shows Multivariate El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) Index (Wolter and Timlin, 2011).

Figure 6 shows regional CO₂ fluxes and flux uncertainties from the 16-member ensemble inversions for 15 land regions at 5-year intervals for the past two decades, as estimated by MIROC4-ACTM. Flux estimates for all the land regions remain quite uncertain, as seen from the 95th percentiles of the 16-inversion ensemble (error bars) at about 0.3 Pg C yr⁻¹. However, by employing the 16-inversion ensemble approach we could obtain flux uncertainties that are an order of magnitude smaller compared to the traditional methods, and often less than the regional fluxes themselves. The mean/median fluxes are consistent for the ensemble inversions and represent the true state of CO₂ flux estimation for the MIROC-ACTM and 50 sites used in the inversion. The changes in regional CO₂ fluxes between 5-year periods are generally attributed to the changes in human induced land use, naturally occurring drought, or fire emission intensities at decadal time scales (Chandra *et al.*, 2021b). The step increases in East Asian CO₂ flux between 2001–2005 and 2011–2015 is suggested to be related to the biased fossil-fuel emissions from China, affecting the natural/managed land flux estimation by inversion (Saeki and Patra, 2017).

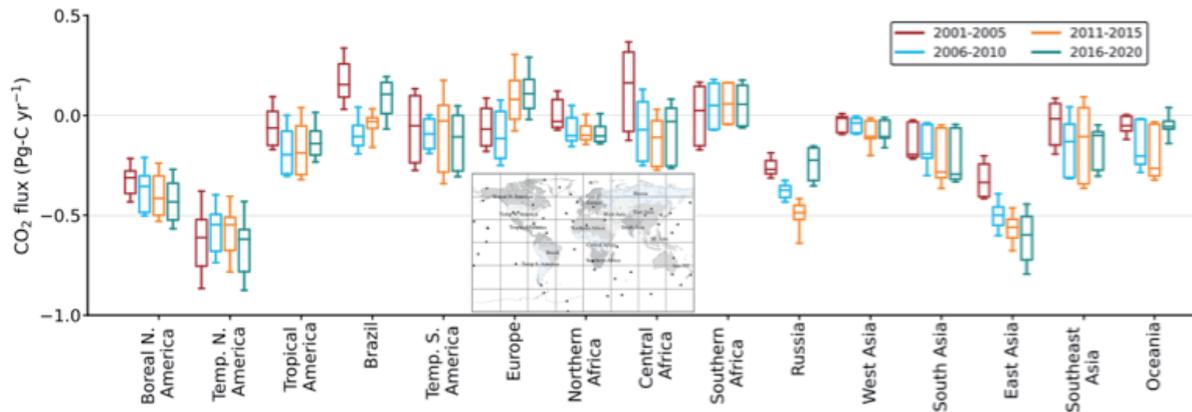


Figure 6. Regional CO₂ fluxes for land using 16 sets of inversion cases for 15 land regions from the MIROC4-ACTM (Chandra et al., 2021b). Box plots each region represent fluxes for 4 different time periods. All 16 inversion cases for each region, based on a different prior, PFU, and MDU, is first averaged for each selected time period. The boxes show 25th and 75th percentiles, and the whiskers show 5th and 95th percentiles from the mean CO₂ flux of 16 ensemble inversion cases. Horizontal lines inside box plots denote the median CO₂ flux of the 16 inversion ensembles. Plot adapted from Chandra et al. (2021b).

Figure 7 shows the CH₄ emission anomalies in the 15 land regions for the period 2001–2020. We take advantage of a joint analysis of region-specific bottom-up emissions for a few dominant sources and regional total top-down emissions to assess the causes of the CH₄ growth rate variabilities during the decrease (1990–1998), quasi-stationary (1999–2005), and regrowth (post-2006) phases. In general, the top-down emission trends agree well with bottom-up emission trends, except for a prominent mismatch for the East Asian region after 2002, suggesting that inventory emissions are in overall agreement with the observed CH₄ concentrations for the control chemical loss case (no interannual variability in hydroxyl (OH) concentration). The agreement between bottom-up and top-down estimates seen here should not be interpreted as a drawback of the inversion but rather an improvement in the a priori emissions, and the bottom-up and top-down emission estimates provide complementary information for better policymaking.

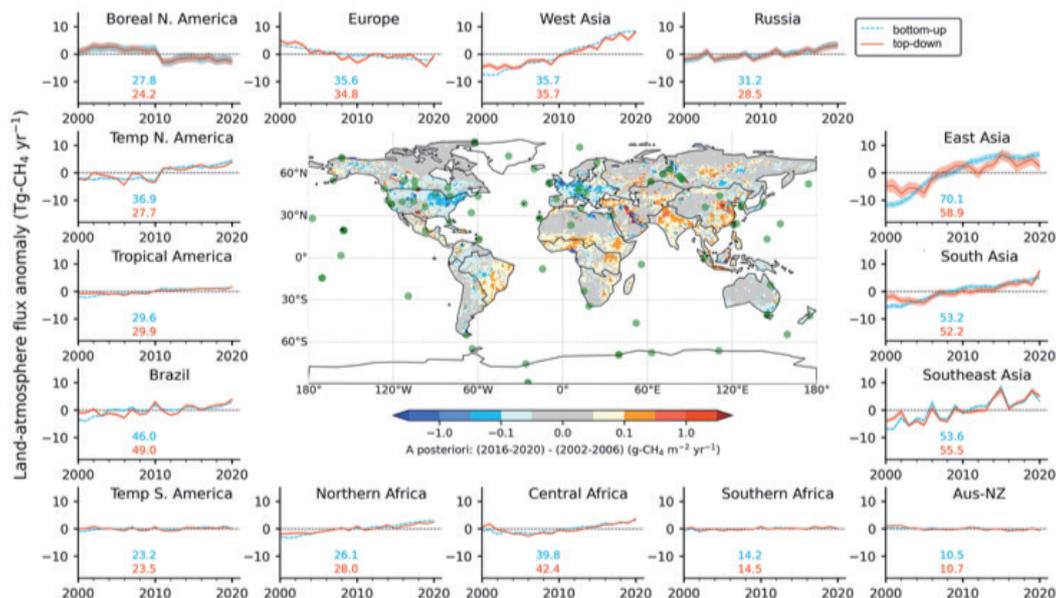


Figure 7. Time series (2003–2020) of regional CH₄ emission anomalies as estimated by 2 cases of MIROC4-ACTM inversions (lines: mean, shade: spread of the 2 cases). Divisions between the 15 regions (black lines) and 60 sites (green circles) are shown on the map of change in emissions between 2016–2020 and 2002–2006. A long-term (2003–2020) mean of individual inversion cases for each region is subtracted to calculate the respective emission anomalies (long-term mean numbers in each panel, in Tg yr⁻¹). Plot adapted from Chandra et al. (2021a) and updated by Dmitry Belikov, Chiba University, by extending the period of inversion until 2020.

Many of the land regions show large interannual variability and systematic increases in predicted N_2O emissions during 1997–2019 (Fig. 8 colored lines), and the systematic increases are in phase with the prior emission scenarios for most regions (grey lines). This suggests that the VISIT model, driven by the fertilizer input data from FAOSTAT, well simulates the N_2O emissions from agricultural activities. The notable exceptions are the Tropical America and Central Africa regions, where the rates of predicted emission increase are at least twice the prior emission increase rate (Fig. 8d, h). Our results confirm a reduction in N_2O emissions from Europe over the period of this analysis. This emission reduction is caused by adaptation of modern technology in the chemical industry, which manufactures nitric acid for fertilizer production mainly and adipic acid for nylon production (ref. EDGAR). Similar reductions in N_2O emissions from Japan are also reported in inventory estimates.

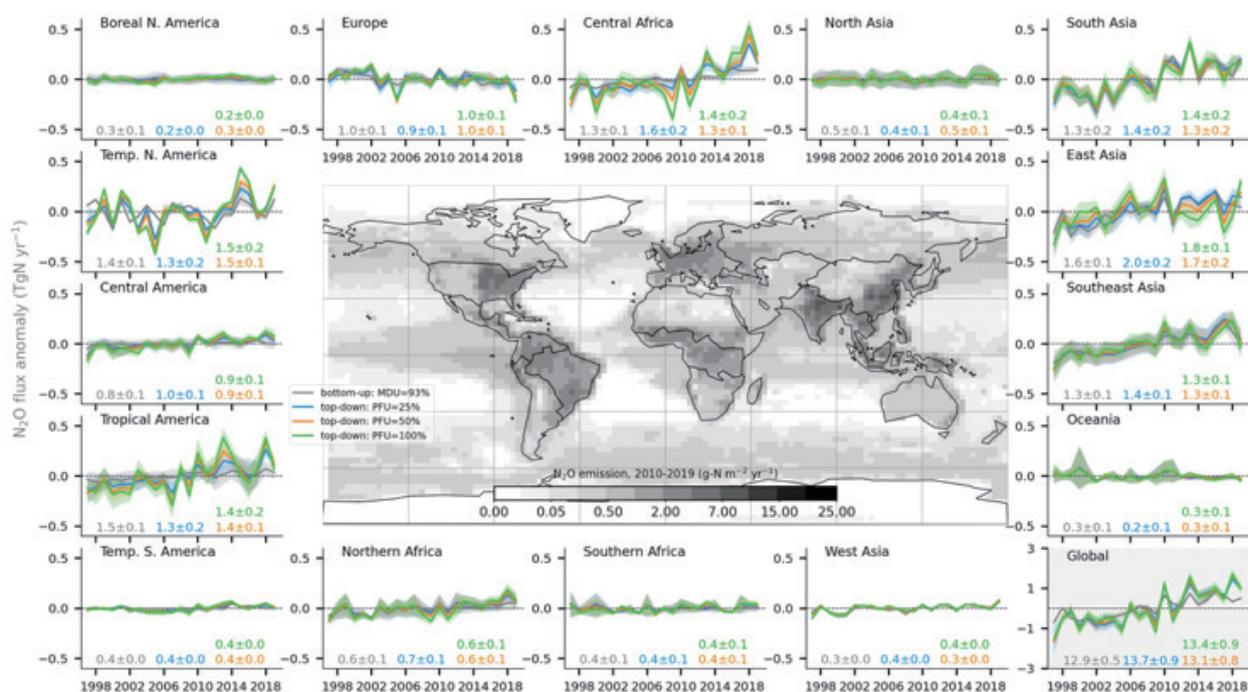


Figure 8. Regional N_2O emissions for the 15-land regions, marked by the dark lines on the 2010s mean emission map, for 3 cases of bottom-up emissions (grey) and top-down emissions by varying prior flux uncertainty (PFU cases: 25%, blue; 50%, orange; and 100%, green). All top-down results correspond to a case of MDU=93% (details in Patra *et al.*, 2022). The long-term (1997–2019) mean regional emission (numbers within each panel) are subtracted from the annual mean emission and 1-sigma standard deviation (shaded area) are calculated from different a priori cases. The map in the center shows gridded N_2O emissions. Plot taken from Patra *et al.* (2022).

CO₂ emission changes during and after COVID-19 lockdown in China

In the early phase of the outbreak of the new coronavirus (COVID-19) (January to March 2020), the government of China imposed severe restrictions on socio-economic activity (i.e., a lockdown), which led to a significant reduction in fossil-fuel-derived CO_2 (FF) emissions and other anthropogenic air pollutants. Previous studies revealed that the ratio of the synoptic-scale variations of CO_2 and CH_4 ($\Delta\text{CO}_2/\Delta\text{CH}_4$ ratio) observed at Hateruma Island (HAT) during winter was a good indicator of the change of the relative emission strengths (Tohjima *et al.*, 2014). Careful investigation of the long-term, high-frequency measurements at HAT revealed that the monthly $\Delta\text{CO}_2/\Delta\text{CH}_4$ ratio markedly decreased in February 2020 (Tohjima *et al.*, 2020), while the ratio returned to the level of the preceding 9-year average in January to March 2021 (Fig. 9). Assuming that the CH_4 emissions from China did not vary significantly, our results indicate that the FF emissions from China had rebounded to the pre-COVID-19 level by early 2021.

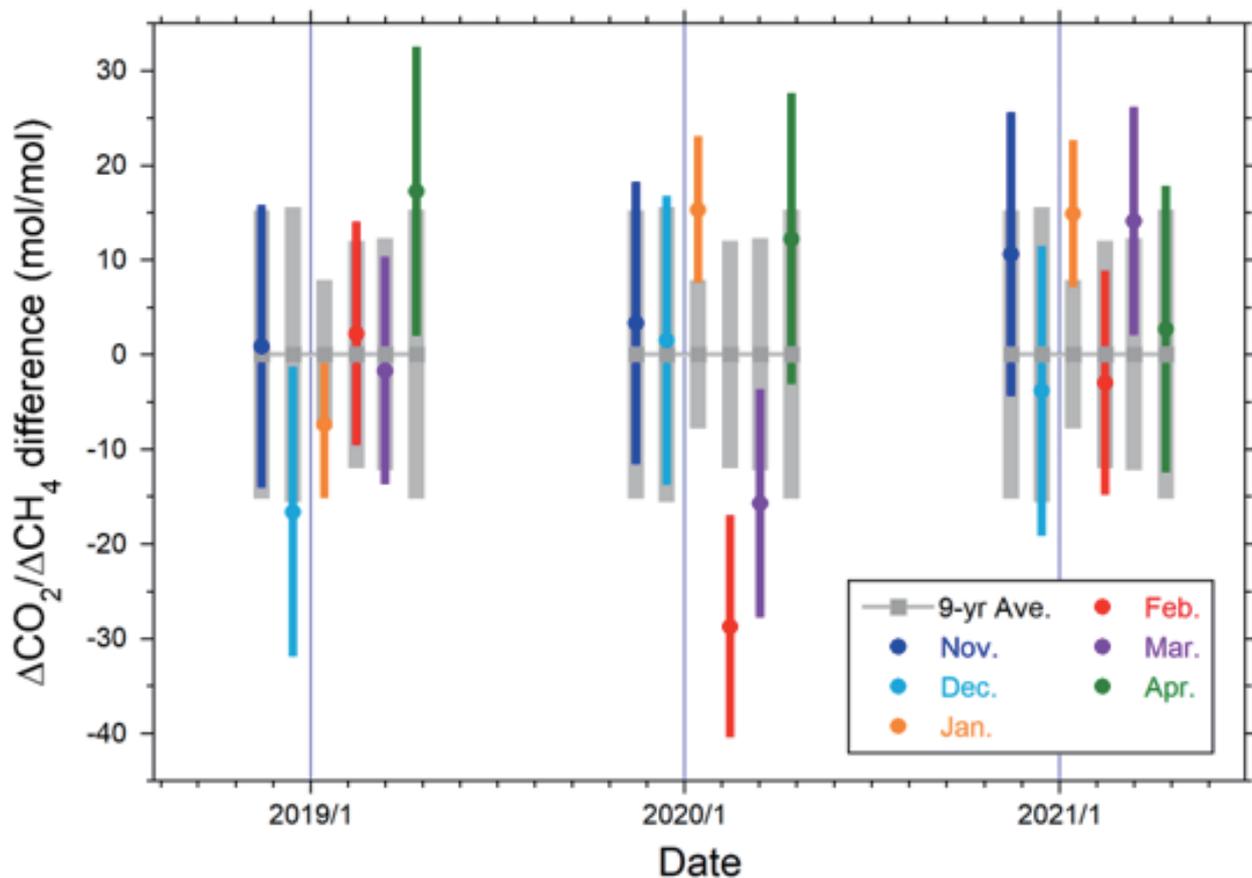


Figure 9. Temporal variations of the difference of monthly $\Delta\text{CO}_2/\Delta\text{CH}_4$ ratios observed at Hateruma Island from November through April during the three years beginning in November 2018, 2019 and 2020 from the 9-year average. Colored circles and bars represent the average differences and standard deviations for the individual months; grey squares and vertical bars, the average (set at 0) and standard deviations for the same months during the preceding 9 years.

3.2. Bottom-up approach

The bottom-up approach provides global maps of sources and sinks for each GHG and sector (Fig. 4). By aggregating the maps, global, regional, and national GHG budgets were obtained. Note that this procedure allows us to obtain consistent budgets across scales; i.e., the sums of regional and country-based budgets equal the global budget.

Global GHG budget

Annual global natural and anthropogenic CO_2 budgets over 2010 to 2018 were estimated as $-13,900 \pm 2700$ (net sink) and $38,900 \pm 1100$ $\text{Tg CO}_2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (source), respectively (mean \pm standard deviation; Fig. 10). In the global total CO_2 budget, land areas were a net source of $25,000 \pm 2500$ $\text{Tg CO}_2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$. We attribute the net sink by the natural sector mainly to the atmospheric CO_2 fertilization effect and climate change. Most of the terrestrial anthropogenic emissions (96.2%) were associated with industrial and urban activities. Global natural and anthropogenic CH_4 emissions, mainly from land, over 2010 to 2018 were estimated as 166.0 ± 3.4 and 334.0 ± 8.7 $\text{Tg CH}_4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$, respectively. Using the Global Warming Potential (GWP) over 100 years (34 for CH_4), the annual mean CH_4 source was equivalent to $16,997 \pm 331$ $\text{Tg CO}_2\text{-eq yr}^{-1}$. Annual global natural and anthropogenic N_2O emissions in this period were estimated as 10.1 ± 0.3 and 6.4 ± 0.2 $\text{Tg N}_2\text{O yr}^{-1}$, respectively. Using the GWP over 100 years (298 for N_2O), the annual mean N_2O source was equivalent to 5501 ± 110 $\text{Tg CO}_2\text{-eq yr}^{-1}$.

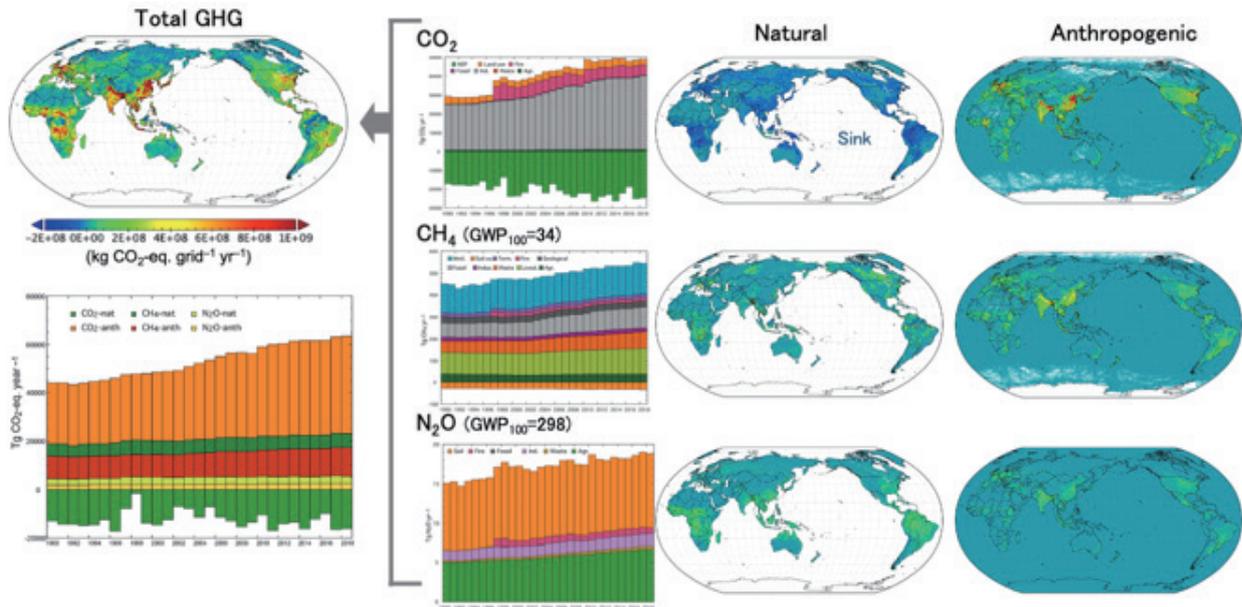


Figure 10. Global GHG budgets estimated by the bottom-up approach. Maps show mean annual budgets during 2000–2018.

Regional GHG budget

We present a regional GHG budget for East Asia. In this region, natural and anthropogenic CO_2 budgets over 2010 to 2018 were estimated as -1639 ± 446 (net sink) and $12,500 \pm 500 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (source), respectively (Fig. 11). The regional total CO_2 budget was a net source of $10,800 \pm 300 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$. Natural and anthropogenic CH_4 emissions over 2010 to 2018 were estimated as 10.5 ± 0.9 and $69.1 \pm 1.3 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$, respectively. The high contribution of anthropogenic emissions (87% of total budget), especially from fossil fuel mining, characterizes the CH_4 budget of this region. Using the GWP over 100 years, the annual mean CH_4 source was equivalent to $2707 \pm 53 \text{ Tg CO}_2\text{-eq yr}^{-1}$. Natural and anthropogenic N_2O emissions over 2010 to 2018 were estimated as 0.86 ± 0.08 and $0.71 \pm 0.01 \text{ Tg N}_2\text{O yr}^{-1}$, respectively. Using the GWP over 100 years, the annual mean N_2O source was equivalent to $571.5 \pm 25.1 \text{ Tg CO}_2\text{-eq yr}^{-1}$.

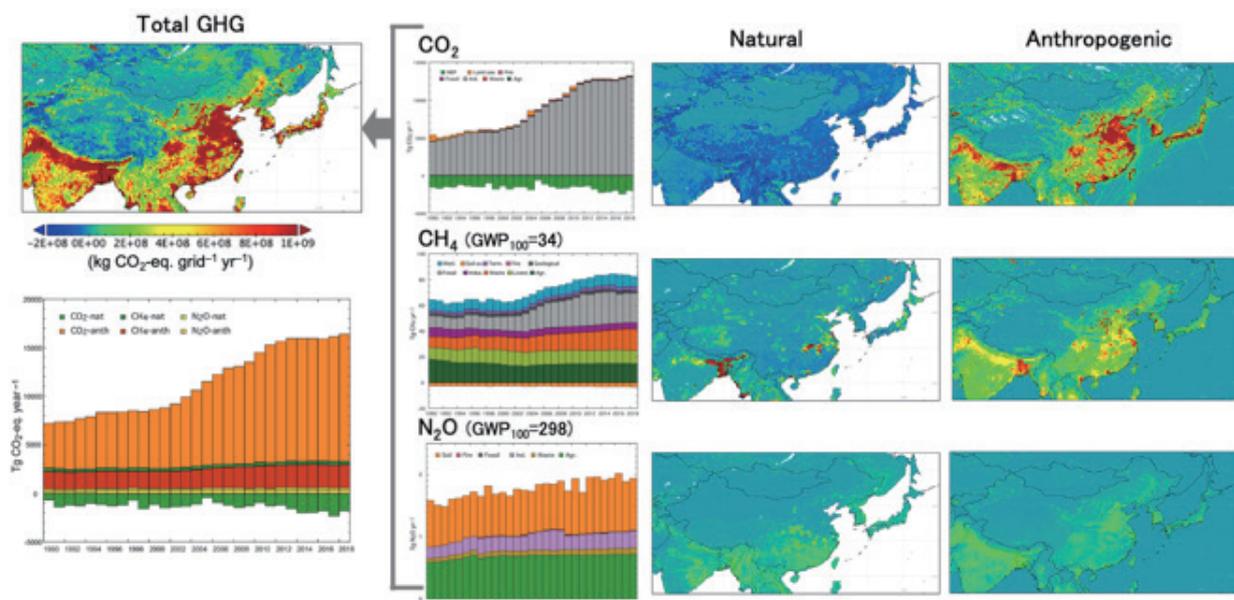


Figure 11. GHG budgets of East Asia estimated by the bottom-up approach. Maps show mean annual budget during 2000–2018.

National GHG budget

We obtained national GHG budgets for almost all countries by the bottom-up approach and present here the budget for Japan. In this country, natural and anthropogenic CO₂ budgets over 2010 to 2018 were estimated as -106 ± 53 (net sink) and 970 ± 38 Tg CO₂ yr⁻¹ (source), respectively (Fig. 12). In the national annual CO₂ budget, Japan was a net source of 861 ± 66 Tg CO₂ yr⁻¹. Ecosystem CO₂ uptake (mainly by forests) offset approximately 11% of the emissions from human activities in Japan. Natural and anthropogenic CH₄ emissions over 2010 to 2018 were estimated as 0.66 ± 0.01 and 1.9 ± 0.09 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, respectively. The high contribution of anthropogenic emissions (75% of the total), especially from livestock and agricultural soils, characterizes the CH₄ budget of this country. Using the GWP over 100 years, annual mean CH₄ emissions were equivalent to 88.6 ± 3.0 Tg CO₂-eq yr⁻¹. Regional natural and anthropogenic N₂O emissions over 2010 to 2018 were estimated as 0.041 ± 0.001 and 0.028 ± 0.001 Tg N₂O yr⁻¹, respectively. Using the GWP over 100 years, the annual mean N₂O source was equivalent to 30.0 ± 0.7 Tg CO₂-eq yr⁻¹.

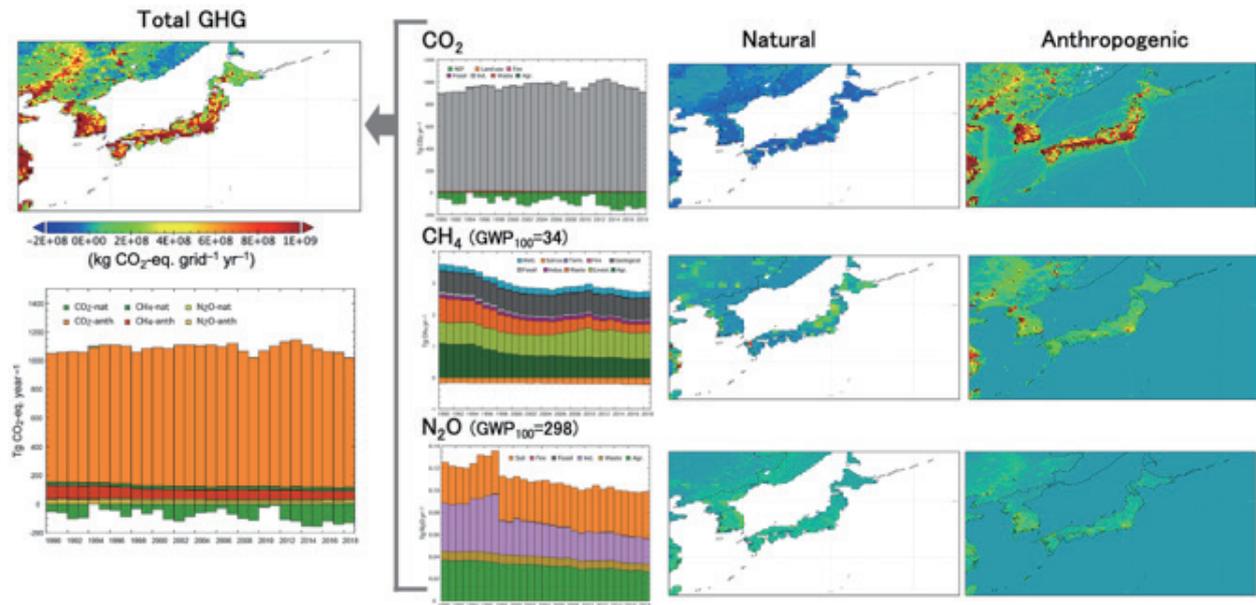


Figure 12. GHG budgets of Japan estimated by the bottom-up approach. Maps show mean annual budget during 2000–2018.

3.3. Comparison between top-down and bottom-up estimates

The difference between the top-down and bottom-up approaches indicates the range of uncertainties associated with assumptions and methods. Tables 1 and 2 compare the global and regional (East Asia) GHG budgets estimated by the top-down and bottom-up approaches for 5-year periods from 1996 to 2020. The two approaches used different data and models, leading to the different directions and magnitudes of biases and errors. Previous studies comparing the top-down and bottom-up results imply that fundamental, conceptual (or terminological) differences between the two approaches could exert substantial influences. For example, there remains ambiguity in the definition of ‘natural’ and ‘anthropogenic’ emissions, such that land-use and biomass burning emissions could occur heterogeneously in space and time and by various reasons. Also, it is still difficult to include lateral flows such as riverine export and transport of agricultural products and harvested wood in both top-down and bottom-up approaches. These issues are contemporary topics for the carbon cycle and greenhouse gas research communities.

In this report, to avoid conceptual ambiguity and to ensure accuracy in the comparison between results of the two approaches, we adopted the following definitions. For CO₂, fossil fuel combustion emissions comprise anthropogenic emissions, and net ecosystem production and land-use emissions comprise net natural emissions (including sinks). These definitions avoid the difficulty and uncertainty associated with specification of land-use emissions from forest and grassland areas. For CH₄ and N₂O, total global and regional budgets including both natural and anthropogenic emissions are compared, because these gases have a wide variety of emission sources, which are difficult to distinguish by using atmospheric information. Despite the simplifications, the comparison presented here is still useful to examine the consistency of our GHG budgets, especially in terms of applicability to the GST.

Table 1. Comparison of global land total GHG budgets between top-down and bottom-up approaches (mean \pm SD of interannual variability).

			1996–2000	2001–2005	2006–2010	2011–2015	2016–2020
CO ₂	Nat. + LUC	top-down (NISMON)	-1.39 \pm 0.87	-1.46 \pm 0.95	-2.90 \pm 0.61	-2.51 \pm 1.40	-1.86 \pm 0.71
		(MIROC4-ACTM)	--	-1.67 \pm 0.63	-2.89 \pm 0.46	-3.04 \pm 0.80	-2.73 \pm 0.67
	bottom-up	-3.01 \pm 1.72	-2.48 \pm 0.68	-3.45 \pm 0.52	-3.95 \pm 0.52	-3.84 \pm 0.74	
Anthr. (FF)	top-down & bottom-up	6.68 \pm 0.11	7.48 \pm 0.42	8.68 \pm 0.24	9.59 \pm 0.11	9.78 \pm 0.20	
CH ₄	Total	top-down (MIROC4-ACTM)	548.5 \pm 14.8	560.4 \pm 18.0	563.7 \pm 8.2	579.1 \pm 12.9	599.4 \pm 10.0
		bottom-up	440.1 \pm 7.5	451.0 \pm 7.2	476.7 \pm 6.2	496.7 \pm 5.3	515.0 \pm 9.1
N ₂ O	Total	top-down (MIROC4-ACTM)	15.6 \pm 0.7	15.6 \pm 0.3	16.4 \pm 1.0	17.0 \pm 0.7	17.5 \pm 0.7
		bottom-up	17.0 \pm 0.7	17.0 \pm 0.3	17.9 \pm 0.5	18.2 \pm 0.1	19.0 \pm 0.3

CO₂ in Pg C yr⁻¹, CH₄ in Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, N₂O in Tg N₂O yr⁻¹

Table 2. Comparison of land total GHG budgets between top-down and bottom-up approaches for East Asia (mean \pm SD of interannual variability).

			1996–2000	2001–2005	2006–2010	2011–2015	2016–2020
CO ₂	Nat. + LUC	top-down	-0.20 \pm 0.43	-0.02 \pm 0.28	-0.19 \pm 0.41	-0.05 \pm 0.31	0.28 \pm 0.14
		bottom-up	-0.32 \pm 0.09	-0.31 \pm 0.11	-0.31 \pm 0.06	-0.43 \pm 0.10	-0.53 \pm 0.08
	bottom-up	1.47 \pm 0.03	1.83 \pm 0.25	2.63 \pm 0.20	3.29 \pm 0.05	3.34 \pm 0.06	
Anthr. (FF)							
CH ₄	Total	top-down (MIROC4-ACTM)	--	52.2 \pm 1.7	57.7 \pm 2.1	60.1 \pm 2.5	48.9 \pm 2.4
		bottom-up	61.3 \pm 1.1	64.2 \pm 3.3	73.5 \pm 2.3	79.7 \pm 1.6	80.7 \pm 1.0
N ₂ O	Total	top-down (MIROC4-ACTM)	1.48 \pm 0.13	1.57 \pm 0.10	1.76 \pm 0.13	1.71 \pm 0.12	1.75 \pm 0.16
		bottom-up	1.72 \pm 0.06	1.75 \pm 0.07	1.85 \pm 0.07	1.90 \pm 0.10	2.02 \pm 0.11

CO₂ in Pg C yr⁻¹, CH₄ in Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, N₂O in Tg N₂O yr⁻¹

4. Concluding remarks

This report demonstrated the global, regional, and national GHG budgets created using observational data and models for the purpose of providing evidence to the GST of the Paris Agreement based on the best available science. The GHG monitoring system proposed by the SII-8 project adequately captured spatial and temporal properties of the GHG budgets, allowing us to detect mitigation efforts and leakages in an objective and transparent manner. The system well covers the Asia-Pacific region, complimenting activities in other regions such as the Copernicus and Integrated Carbon Observation System in Europe and the North American Carbon Program. Note that the present GHG budget estimations were accomplished by using our own observational and model simulation data, in conjunction with open datasets (e.g., emission inventories and satellite products). Through collaborative works from monitoring to modeling, the project enables us to quickly report to stakeholders (Fig. 13). There remain, nevertheless, substantial uncertainties due to sparse observational coverage, errors in immature models, and biased emission inventories. Fortunately, ongoing efforts in the project are expected to overcome these limitations and provide more reliable GHG budgets in support of transparent accomplishment of the GST.

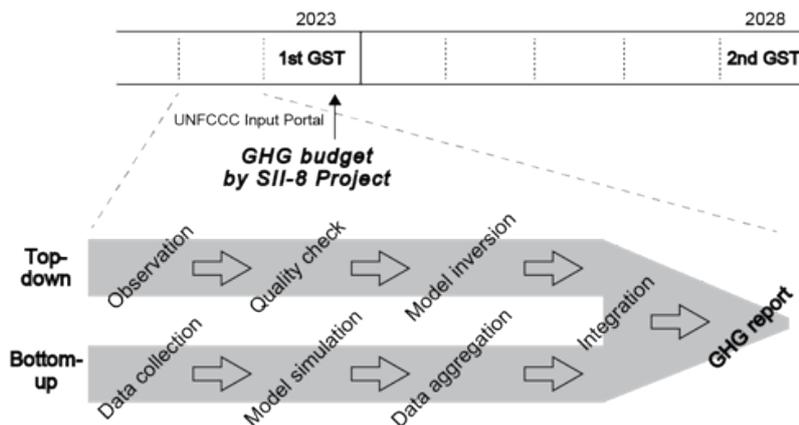


Figure 13. Expected timeline of the contribution of GHG budgets to the Global Stocktake (GST).

Corresponding GST1 Guiding Questions (by SB chairs, ver. 20 Oct. 2021) and our answers

<Mitigation>

Q2. *What is the collective progress made towards achieving the long-term mitigation goal in Article 4.1 of the Paris Agreement, in the light of equity and the best available science?*

A2. This report provides our up-to-date estimates of global, regional, and national greenhouse gas (GHG) budgets mainly based on atmospheric observations and modeling, allowing us to transparently examine the state of emission reduction toward achieving the long-term mitigation goal.

Q3. *What are the projected global GHG emissions and what actions are Parties undertaking to achieve a balance between anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of GHGs, on the basis of equity, and in the context of sustainable development and efforts to eradicate poverty (Article 4.1 Paris Agreement, Decision 19/CMA.1, paragraph 36(b))?*

A3. The GHG budgets provided in this report account for not only net budgets but also sources and sinks of natural and anthropogenic sectors, allowing us to examine the balance between anthropogenic GHG emissions by sources and removals by sinks. By using the Earth system model, our project is also examining the projected global GHG emissions in terms of mitigation effectiveness.

<Cross-cutting>

Q16. *To achieve the purpose and long-term goals of the Paris Agreement (mitigation, adaptation, and finance flows and means of implementation, as well as loss and damage, response measures), in the light of equity and the best available science, taking into account the contextual matters in the preambular paragraphs of the Paris Agreement:*

a. *What are the good practices, barriers and challenges for enhanced action?*

b. *What is needed to make finance flows consistent with a pathway towards low GHG emissions and climate-resilient development?*

c. *What are the needs of developing countries related to the ambitious implementation of the Paris Agreement?*

A16-c. The methodology of GHG monitoring adopted in this report is applicable to developing countries and therefore supports their ambitious implementations of the Paris Agreement, at least in terms of mitigation.

Q17. *What is needed to enhance national level action and support, as well as to enhance international cooperation for climate action, including in the short term?*

A17. Reliable GHG budgets are prerequisites for national and international actions; therefore, establishing a continuous GHG monitoring system that encompasses multi-scale observations and modeling through international collaborations is needed.

Q18. *What is the collective progress made by non-Party stakeholders, including indigenous peoples and local communities, to achieve the purpose and long-term goals of the Paris Agreement, and what are the impacts, good practices, potential opportunities, barriers and challenges (Decision 19/CMA.1, paras 36(g) and 37(i))?*

A18. This report comprehensively covers GHG budgets and therefore is useful for non-Party stakeholders to obtain overviews for planning actions toward long-term goals.

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Data availability

- CONTRAIL-CME

CO₂: <https://www.nies.go.jp/doi/10.17595/20210827.001-e.html>

- Hateruma Station observation data

CO₂: <http://www.nies.go.jp/doi/10.17595/20160901.001-e.html>

CH₄: <http://www.nies.go.jp/doi/10.17595/20160901.003-e.html>

- MIROC4-ACTM data:

CO₂: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5776197>, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5776212>

CH₄: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5920070>

N₂O: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5889524>

- NISMON-CO₂:

CO₂: <https://www.nies.go.jp/doi/10.17595/20201127.001-e.html>

- VISIT data:

CO₂, CH₄, N₂O: <https://www.nies.go.jp/doi/10.17595/20210521.001-e.html>

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Notes:

ppm: parts per million abbreviating dry air mole fraction of 10^{-6} mol mol⁻¹

Pg: petagram (10^{15} g)

Tg: teragram (10^{12} g)

GWP: Global Warming Potential