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The terrestrial biosphere as a net source of greenhouse gases to the atmosphere

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The terrestrial biosphere can release or absorb the greenhouse gases, carbon dioxide (CO_2) , 13 methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) and therefore plays an important role in regulating 14 atmospheric composition and climate¹. Anthropogenic activities such as land use change, 15 agricultural and waste management have altered terrestrial biogenic greenhouse gas fluxes 16 and the resulting increases in methane and nitrous oxide emissions in particular can 17 contribute to climate warming^{2,3}. The terrestrial biogenic fluxes of individual greenhouse 18 gases have been studied extensively⁴⁻⁶, but the net biogenic greenhouse gas balance as a 19 result of anthropogenic activities and its effect on the climate system remains uncertain. 20 21 Here we use bottom-up (BU: e.g., inventory, statistical extrapolation of local flux measurements, process-based modeling) and top-down (TD: atmospheric inversions) 22 approaches to quantify the global net biogenic greenhouse gas balance between 1981-2010 23 as a result of anthropogenic activities and its effect on the climate system. We find that the 24 cumulative warming capacity of concurrent biogenic CH₄ and N₂O emissions is about a 25 factor of 2 larger than the cooling effect resulting from the global land CO₂ uptake in the 26 2000s. This results in a net positive cumulative impact of the three GHGs on the planetary 27 energy budget, with a best estimate of 3.9±3.8 Pg CO₂ eq/yr (TD) and 5.4±4.8 Pg CO₂ eq/yr 28 (BU) based on the GWP 100 metric (global warming potential on a 100-year time horizon). 29 Our findings suggest that a reduction in agricultural CH₄ and N₂O emissions in particular 30 31 in Southern Asia may help mitigate climate change.

The concentration of atmospheric CO₂ has increased by nearly 40% since the start of the industrial era, while CH₄ and N₂O concentrations have increased by 150% and 20%, respectively^{3,7,8}. Although thermogenic sources (e.g., fossil fuel combustion and usage, cement production, geological and industrial processes) represent the single largest perturbation of 36 climate forcing, biogenic sources and sinks also account for a significant portion of the landatmosphere exchange of these gases. Land biogenic GHG fluxes are those originating from 37 plants, animals, and microbial communities, with changes driven by both natural and 38 anthropogenic perturbations (see *Methods*). Although the biogenic fluxes of CO₂ CH₄ and N₂O 39 have been individually measured and simulated at various spatial and temporal scales, an overall 40 GHG balance of the terrestrial biosphere is lacking³. Simultaneous quantification of the fluxes of 41 these three gases is needed, however, for developing effective climate change mitigation 42 strategies^{9,10}. 43

44 In the analysis that follows, we use a dual-constraint approach from 28 bottom-up (BU) studies and 13 top-down (TD) atmospheric inversion studies to constrain biogenic fluxes of the 45 three gases. We generate decadal mean estimates and 1-sigma standard deviations of CO₂, CH₄ 46 and N_2O fluxes (mean \pm SD with SD being the square root of quadratic sum of standard 47 deviations reported by individual studies) in land biogenic sectors by using the BU and TD 48 ensembles as documented in Extended Data Table 1 and Table S2 in Supplementary Information 49 (SI). Grouping GHG fluxes by sector may not precisely separate the contributions of human 50 activities from natural components. For instance, wetland CH₄ emission is composed of a natural 51 52 component (background emissions) and an anthropogenic contribution (e.g., emissions altered by land use and climate change). Therefore, in this study, the anthropogenic contribution to the 53 biogenic flux of each GHG is distinguished by removing modeled pre-industrial emissions from 54 55 contemporary GHG estimates. To quantify the human-induced net biogenic balance of these three GHGs and its impact on climate system, we use CO₂ equivalent units (CO₂-eq) based on 56 the global warming potentials (GWP) on a 100-year time horizon⁷. This choice has been driven 57 by the policy options being considered when dealing with biogenic GHG emissions and sinks^{7,11}. 58

To address the changing relative importance of each gas as a function of the selected time frame,
a supplemental calculation based on GWP metrics for a 20-year time horizon is also provided

61 (Table 1 and *Methods*).

We first examine the overall biogenic fluxes of all three gases in the terrestrial biosphere 62 during the period 2000-2009 (Figure 1). The overall land biogenic CH₄ emissions estimated by 63 TD and BU are very similar, 325 ± 39 Tg C/yr and 326 ± 43 Tg C/yr (1 Tg = 10^{12} g), 64 respectively. Among the multiple land biogenic CH₄ sources (*Extended Data* Table 1), natural 65 wetlands were the largest contributor, accounting for 40-50% of total CH_4 emissions during the 66 67 2000s, while rice cultivation contributed about 10%. The remaining CH_4 emissions were from ruminants ($\sim 20\%$), landfills and waste ($\sim 14\%$), biomass burning ($\sim 4-5\%$), manure management 68 (~2%), and termites, wild animals and others (~6-10%). Both TD and BU results suggest a 69 global soil CH₄ sink that offsets approximately 10% of global biogenic CH₄ emissions, but this 70 flux is poorly constrained, especially by atmospheric inversions, given its distributed nature and 71 small magnitude. 72 Global biogenic N₂O emissions were estimated to be 12.6 ± 0.7 Tg N/yr and 15.2 ± 1.0 73 Tg N/yr by TD and BU methods, respectively. Natural ecosystems were a major source, 74 75 contributing \sim 55-60% of all land biogenic N₂O emissions during the 2000s, the rest being from agricultural soils (~25-30%), biomass burning (~5%), indirect emissions (~5%), manure 76 management ($\sim 2\%$), and human sewage ($\sim 2\%$). 77 The estimates of the global terrestrial CO₂ sink in the 2000s are -1.6 ± 0.9 Pg C/yr (TD) 78

and $-1.5 \pm 1.2 \text{ Pg C/yr (BU)}$. This estimate is comparable with the most recent estimates⁴, but

80 incoporates more data sources (Table S1 in *SI*).

81	Some CH_4 and N_2O emissions were present during pre-industrial times, while the global
82	land CO ₂ uptake was approximately in balance with the transport of carbon by rivers to the ocean
83	and a compensatory ocean CO_2 source ¹² . Thus, the net land-atmosphere CO_2 flux reported here
84	represents fluxes caused by human activities. In contrast, for CH_4 and N_2O only the difference
85	between current and pre-industrial emissions represents net drivers of anthropogenic climate
86	change. When subtracting modeled pre-industrial biogenic CH_4 and N_2O emissions of 125±14
87	TgC/yr and 7.4±1.3TgN/yr, respectively, from the contemporary estimates (see <i>Methods</i>), we
88	find the heating capacity of human-induced land biogenic CH_4 and N_2O emissions is opposite in
89	sign and equivalent in magnitude to 1.7 (TD) and 2.0 (BU) times that of the current (2000s)
90	global land CO ₂ sink using 100-year GWPs (Figure 1, Table 1). Hence there is a net positive
91	cumulative impact of the three GHGs on the planetary energy budget, with our "best estimate"
92	being 3.9 ± 3.8 Pg CO ₂ eq/yr (TD) and 5.4 ± 4.8 Pg CO ₂ eq/yr (BU). An alternative GWP metric
93	(e.g., GWP20 instead of GWP100) changes the relative importance of each gas, and gives a
94	different view of the potential of various mitigation options ¹¹ . Using GWP20 values, the
95	radiative forcing of contemporary (2000s) human-induced biogenic CH ₄ emission alone is 3.8
96	(TD) or 4.2 (BU) times that of the land CO_2 sink in magnitude but opposite in sign, much larger
97	than its role using GWP100 metric (Table 1). Therefore, cutting CH ₄ emissions is an effective
98	pathway for rapidly reducing GHG-induced radiative forcing and the rate of climate warming in
99	a short time frame ^{8,11} .
100	On a 100 year time harizon, the sumulative radiative foreing of agricultural and weste

100 On a 100-year time horizon, the cumulative radiative forcing of agricultural and waste 101 emissions alone, including CH₄ from paddy fields, manure management, ruminants, and landfill 102 and waste, along with N₂O emissions from crop cultivation, manure management, human sewage 103 and indirect emissions, are estimated to be 7.9 ± 0.5 (BU) and 8.2 ± 1.0 Pg CO₂ eq/yr (TD) for the

104 2000s, offsetting the human-induced land CO_2 sink by 1.4 to 1.5 times, respectively. In other words, agriculture represents the largest contributor to this twofold offset of the land CO₂ sink. 105 We further examine the change of human-induced biogenic GHG fluxes over past three 106 decades (Figure 2, Table 1). The net biogenic GHG source shows a decreasing trend of 2.0 Pg 107 CO_2 eq/yr per decade (p<0.05), primarily due to an increased CO_2 sink (2.2 (TD) and 2.0 (BU) 108 Pg CO₂ eq/yr per decade, p < 0.05), as driven by a combination of increasing atmospheric CO₂ 109 concentrations, forest regrowth, and nitrogen deposition³. The net emissions of CO₂ from tropical 110 deforestation, included in the above net land CO₂ sink estimates, were found to decline or remain 111 stable due to reduced deforestation and increased forest regrowth¹³. However, one recent study 112 based on satellite observations¹⁴ suggests that the decreased deforestation in Brazil has been 113 offset by an increase in deforestation in other tropical countries during 2000-2012. There is no 114 clear decadal trend in total global biogenic CH₄ emissions from 1980 to 2010⁵. Since 2007, 115 increased CH₄ emissions seem to result in a renewed and sustained increase of atmospheric CH₄, 116 although the relative contribution of anthropogenic and natural sources is still uncertain¹⁵⁻¹⁷. The 117 BU estimates suggest an increase in human-induced biogenic N₂O emissions since 1980, at a rate 118 of 0.25 Pg CO₂ eq/yr per decade (p < 0.05), mainly due to increasing nitrogen deposition and 119 nitrogen fertilizer use, as well as climate warming¹⁸. With preindustrial emissions removed, the 120 available TD estimates of N₂O emissions during 1995-2008 reflect a similar positive trend, 121 although they cover a shorter period¹⁹. 122

The human-induced biogenic GHG fluxes vary by region (Figure 3). Both TD and BU approaches indicate that human-caused biogenic fluxes of CO_2 , CH_4 , and N_2O in the biosphere of Southern Asia (Figure 3) lead to a large net climate warming effect, because the 100-year cumulative effects of CH_4 and N_2O emissions significantly exceed that of the terrestrial CO_2 sink. Southern Asia has about 90% of global rice fields²⁰ and represents over 60% of the world's nitrogen fertilizer consumption²¹, with 64-81% of CH₄ emissions and 36-52% of N₂O emissions derived from the agriculture and waste sectors (Table S3 in *SI*). Given the large footprint of agriculture in Southern Asia, improved fertilizer use efficiency, rice management and animal diets could substantially reduce global agricultural N₂O and CH₄ emissions^{22,23}.

Africa is estimated to be a small terrestrial biogenic CO₂ sink (BU) or a CO₂-neutral 132 region (TD), but it slightly warms the planet when accounting for human-induced biogenic 133 emissions of CH₄ and N₂O, which is consistent with the finding of a recent study²⁴. South 134 America is estimated to be neutral or a small sink of human-induced biogenic GHGs, because 135 most current CH₄ and N₂O emissions in this region were already present during the pre-industrial 136 period, and therefore do not represent new emissions since the pre-industrial era. Using the 137 GWP100 metric, CO₂ uptake in North America and Northern Asia is almost equivalent in 138 magnitude or even larger than human-caused biogenic CH₄ and N₂O emissions but opposite in 139 sign, implying a small but significant role of the land biosphere in mitigating climate warming. 140 Europe's land ecosystem is found to play a neutral role, similar to a previous synthesis study⁹ 141 using both BU and TD approaches. 142

Compared to global estimations, much more work on regional GHG budgets is needed^{18,19}, particularly for tropical areas, as large uncertainty is revealed in both TD and BUderived GHG estimations. TD methods are subject to large uncertainties in their regional attribution of GHG fluxes to different types of sources. Furthermore, some TD estimates used BU values as priors, and may be heavily influenced by these assumed priors in regions where atmospheric observations are sparse. In contrast, BU approaches are able to consider regionspecific disturbances and drivers (e.g., insects and disease outbreaks) that are important at

150 regional scale but negligible at global scale. However, the shortcoming of BU estimates is that 151 they may not be consistent with the well-observed global atmospheric growth rates of GHGs. Also, accurate BU assessments are hindered by our limited understanding of microbial and 152 belowground processes and the lack of spatially-explicit, time-series datasets of drivers (e.g., 153 wildfire, peatland drainage, wetland extent). The magnitude of human-induced CH₄ and N₂O 154 emissions reported here is more uncertain than the total emissions of these gases because it 155 156 contains both the uncertainty of pre-industrial emission and contemporary emission estimates (see Methods for additional discussion). 157

158 This study highlights the importance of including all three major GHGs in global and regional climate impact assessments, mitigation option and climate policy development. We 159 should be aware of the likely countervailing impacts of mitigation efforts, such as enhanced N₂O 160 emissions with soil C sequestration²⁵, increased CO₂ and N₂O emissions with paddy-drying to 161 reduce CH₄ emissions²⁶, enhanced CH₄ emissions with peatland fire suppression and rewetting to 162 reduce CO_2 and N_2O emissions²⁷, and increased indirect emissions from biofuel production²⁸. 163 164 The future role of the biosphere as a source or sink of GHGs will depend on future land use intensification pathways and on the evolution of the land CO₂ sinks²⁹. If the latter continues 165 increasing as observed in the last three decades⁴, the overall biospheric GHG balance could be 166 reversed. However, the evolution of the land CO₂ sink remains uncertain, with some projections 167 showing an increasing sink in the coming decades³, while others showing a weakening sink due 168 to the saturation of the CO_2 fertilization effect and positive carbon-climate feedbacks^{3,30}. 169 Increasing land-use intensification using today's practices to meet food and energy demands will 170 likely increase anthropogenic GHG emissions²³. However, the results of this study suggest that 171

adoption of best practices to reduce GHG emissions from human-impacted land ecosystemscould reverse the biosphere's current warming role.

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- 267 work as a whole. H.T. and C.L. performed analysis, calculations and drafted the manuscript. P.C.,
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- 269 S.P. contributed to data collection and analysis. E.S., D.H., K.G., S.S., P.B., L.B., E.D., P. F.,
- 270 J.M., B.P., R.P., M.S., C.S, and S.W. contributed to data provision, data processing, or
- 271 interpretation. All authors discussed and commented on the manuscript.

273 Figure Legends:

- Figure 1. The overall biogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) balance of the terrestrial biosphere in
- the 2000s. Top-Down (TD) and Bottom-Up (BU) approaches are used to estimate land CO₂ sink,
- 276 CH₄ and N₂O fluxes for four major categories merged from 14-sectors (*Extended Data* Table 1).
- 277 Global warming potential (GWP 100) is calculated after removing pre-industrial biogenic
- emissions of CH₄ (125 \pm 14 TgC/yr) and N₂O (7.4 \pm 1.3 Tg N/yr). Negative values indicate GHG
- sinks and positive values indicate GHG sources. *TD estimates of agricultural CH₄ and N₂O
- $\label{eq:emissions} \mbox{ emissions include CH}_4 \mbox{ source from landfill and waste, and N_2O source from human sewage,}$
- respectively.
- 282

Figure 2. Changes in the decadal balance of human-induced biogenic greenhouse gases

(GHG) in the past three decades (GWP 100). TD and BU denote Top-Down and Bottom-Up estimates, respectively. Data points show individual gases (blue for CO_2 , yellow for CH_4 , and red for N₂O) and human-induced GHG balance (black dots) derived from biogenic sources with preindustrial biogenic CO_2 sink, and CH_4 and N₂O emissions removed. Error bars show standard deviation calculated from various estimate ensembles.

- 289
- 290 Figure 3. The balance of human-induced biogenic greenhouse gases (GHG) for different

continents in the 2000s (GWP 100). TD and BU denote Top-Down and Bottom-Up estimates, respectively. Blue bars represent CO_2 flux, yellow for CH_4 , and red for N_2O . Black dots indicate

- net human-induced GHG balance and error bars are standard deviation of estimate ensembles.
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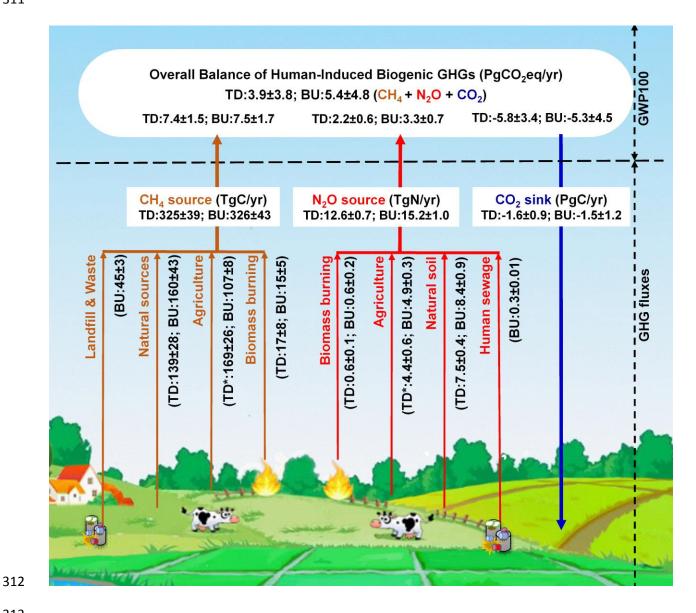
300Table 1 Three-decadal estimates of human-induced biogenic GHGs in the terrestrial biosphere by301using GWP100 and GWP20 metrics.

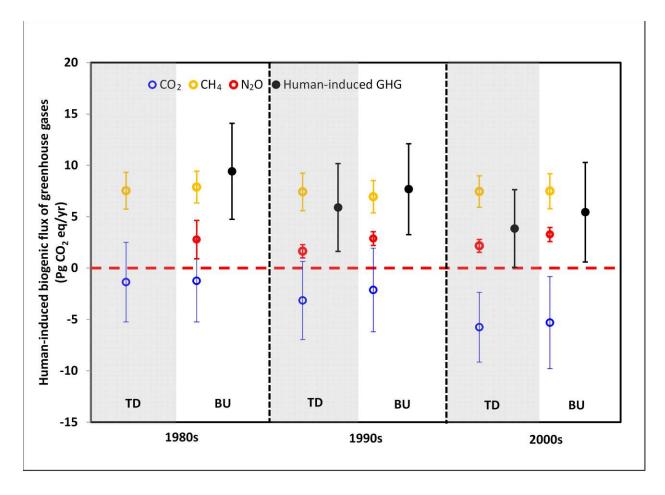
Human-Induced GHG (Pg CO ₂ eq/year)		1980s		1990s		2000s	
		TD	BU	TD	BU	TD	BU
		-1.4	-1.2	-3.2	-2.1	-5.8	-5.3
	CO ₂ sink	(3.9)	(4.0)	(3.8)	(4.1)	(3.4)	(4.5)
		7.5	7.9	7.4	6.9	7.4	7.5
	CH ₄ source	(1.8)	(1.5)	(1.8)	(1.6)	(1.5)	(1.7)
			2.0	1.6	2.0	2.2	2.2
GWP100	N ₂ O source		2.8 (1.9)	1.6 (0.6)	2.9 (0.7)	2.2 (0.6)	3.3 (0.7)
	N ₂ O source		(1.9)	(0.0)	(0.7)	(0.0)	(0.7)
			9.4	5.9	7.7	3.9	5.4
	Overall GHG Balance		(4.7)	(4.3)	(4.4)	(3.8)	(4.8)
	Proportion of land CO ₂ sink being offset		-855%	-287%	-460%	-167%	-202%
		-1.4	-1.2	-3.2	-2.1	-5.8	-5.3
	CO ₂ sink	(3.9)	(4.0)	(3.8)	(4.1)	(3.4)	(4.5)
	CU	22.6	23.6	22.2	20.8	22.3	22.5
	CH ₄ source	(5.4)	(4.6)	(5.5)	(4.7)	(4.6)	(5.1)
			2.8	1.6	2.9	2.2	3.3
GWP20	N ₂ O source		(1.9)	(0.6)	(0.7)	(0.6)	(0.7)
			25.2	20.7	21.5	18.7	20.4
	Overall GHG Balance		(6.4)	(6.7)	(6.3)	(5.8)	(6.8)
	Proportion of land CO ₂ sink being offset		-2118%	-757%	-1110%	-425%	-484%

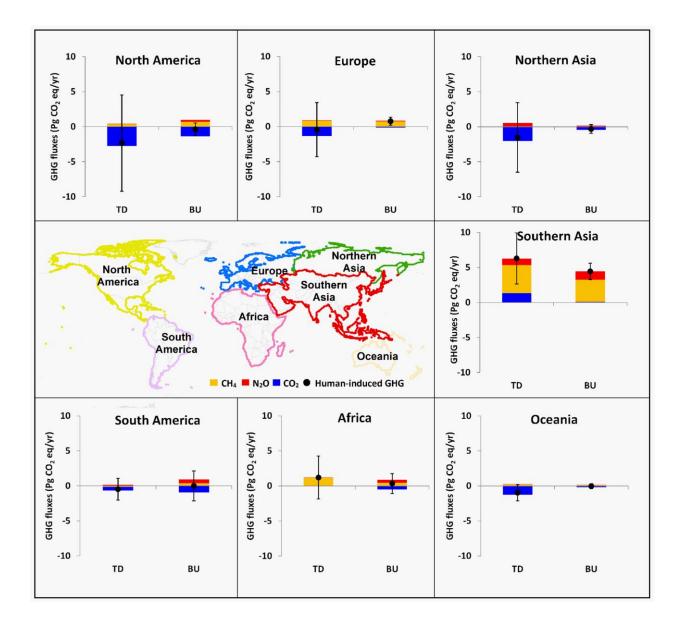
Note: Estimated human-induced biogenic fluxes of CO_2 , CH_4 and N_2O in the terrestrial biosphere for the 1980s, 1990s, and 2000s based on global warming potential (GWP) on 20-, and 100-year time horizons. Numbers in parenthesis represent 1-sigma standard deviations. TD and BU stand for top-down and bottom-up estimates, respectively. The percentage numbers represent the proportion of land CO_2 sink that has been offset by human-induced CH_4 and N_2O emissions in the terrestrial biosphere. Detailed data sources and literature cited are provided in *SI*.

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316 Methods

317 Definition of biogenic GHG fluxes

318 In this study, we define land biogenic GHG fluxes as those originating from plants, animals, and microbial communities, with changes driven by both natural and anthropogenic perturbations. 319 320 For example, this analysis considers the biosphere-atmosphere CO₂ flux resulting from the direct 321 and indirect effects of anthropogenic activities, such as land use and management, climate warming, rising atmospheric CO₂, and nitrogen deposition, but excludes CO₂ emissions due to 322 geological processes (e.g., volcanic eruption, weathering), fossil fuel combustion, and cement 323 production. Biogenic CH₄ fluxes include land-atmosphere CH₄ emissions by natural wetlands, 324 325 rice cultivation, biomass burning, manure management, ruminants, termites, landfills and waste, 326 as well as soil CH₄ uptake. Biogenic N₂O emissions include those released from agricultural ecosystems (i.e., fertilized soil emission, manure management, human sewage, and indirect N₂O 327 emission from manure and synthetic nitrogen fertilizer use), natural ecosystems (i.e., soil 328

emissions and emissions from nitrogen re-deposition), and biomass burning.

330

331 Data sources and calculation

We synthesized estimates of biogenic CO_2 , CH_4 and N_2O fluxes in the terrestrial biosphere 332 derived from 28 bottom-up (BU) studies and 13 top-down (TD) atmospheric inversion studies 333 for two spatiotemporal domains (global scale during 1981-2010 and continental scale during the 334 2000s). The first level data sets meeting our criteria are the most recent estimates of individual 335 GHG gases from multi-model inter-comparison projects (e.g., Atmospheric Tracer Transport 336 Model Inter-comparison Project-TransCom³¹, Trends in net land atmosphere carbon exchanges – 337 Trendy³², and Multi-scale Synthesis and Terrestrial Model Inter-comparison Project – 338 MsTMIP³³). Second, the estimate ensembles included the published global synthesis results that 339

report decadal land-atmosphere GHG exchange during $1981-2010^{4-6}$. Third, for those items that lack detailed information from the above estimations (e.g., continental estimate of CH₄ emission from rice fields and soil CH₄ sink, Table S1 in *SI*), we use multi-source published estimates and a recent process-based modeling result¹⁸. We limit literature reporting the continental GHG estimate to those studies that have close boundary delineation with our definition, and that have gas flux estimates covering all continents. Only part of global studies we used has provided continental estimates (Details on data sources can be found in Table S1 and S3 in *SI*).

347

In Le Quéré et al. $(2014)^4$, net land CO₂ flux is the sum of carbon emission due to land use 348 change (E_{LUC}) and the residual terrestrial carbon sink (S_{LAND}). Estimates of budget residual, as 349 one of top-down approaches, are calculated as the sum of E_{LUC} and S_{LAND} (cited from Table 7 of 350 Le Quéré et al., 2014⁴). Land CO₂ sink estimated by the TRENDY model inter-comparison 351 project³² does not account for land use effects on terrestrial carbon dynamics, and we therefore 352 add land-use-induced carbon fluxes as estimated by IPCC AR5³ (Table 6.3) to obtain the net land 353 carbon sink estimates. However, land CO₂ sink estimated by MsTMIP project³⁴ is derived from 354 model simulations considering climate variability, atmospheric CO₂ concentration, nitrogen 355 deposition, as well as land use change. We directly use its model ensemble estimates in this 356 study. In addition, BU estimates of land $CO_2 \operatorname{sink}^{4,34}$ have been adjusted by removing the CO_2 357 emissions from drained peatland globally^{13,35}, because global land ecosystem models usually 358 359 overlook this part of carbon loss.

360

We include TD and BU estimates of CH_4 and N_2O emission from biomass burning. TD approach (e.g., CarbonTracker-CH₄, Bruhwiler et al., 2014³⁶) considers all the emission sources and

363 growth rate in atmospheric concentration. For BU estimation (e.g., DLEM simulation, Tian et al., 2012³⁷), we use historical fire data that is developed from satellite image and historical record, to 364 drive a process-based land ecosystem model, so the change in fire occurrence is naturally 365 considered. Other BU estimates, e.g., GFED (Van der Werf et al., 2010³⁸) and EDGAR (2014)³⁹ 366 all include peatland fire emissions. We remove preindustrial CH₄ and N₂O emission that includes 367 source from biomass burning to estimate human-caused gas fluxes in the terrestrial biosphere. 368 The role of peatland fire in estimated CO₂ flux is similar to CH₄ and N₂O estimation: fire 369 emission is included in TD approach and historical fire is included as one of input drivers (or 370 371 counted as part of land use change in most BU models, e.g., fire occurrence in deforestation and 372 cropland expansion) in some models. Although peatland fire emission caused by human activities is counted in our analysis, like other sectors, we cannot distinguish how much peat fire 373 is caused by human activity since no specific information is available on pre-industrial peatland 374 fire emission. 375

376

In summary, this study provides multi-level estimates on biogenic GHG fluxes, including global
biogenic fluxes of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O during 1981-2010, continental-level estimates on biogenic
fluxes of CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O over the 2000s, and sector-based estimates on biogenic CH₄ and
N₂O fluxes over the 2000s. Extended Data Table 1 shows our estimates on biogenic CH₄ fluxes
for 8 sectors and N₂O fluxes for 6 sectors. These sectors are further merged into four major
categories for CH₄ and N₂O fluxes, respectively (Figure 1).

383

All the raw data and relevant calculation can be found in supplementary Table S2. Humaninduced biogenic CH_4 and N_2O emissions are calculated by subtracting the pre-industrial emissions as estimated below.

387

388 **Pre-industrial biogenic GHG estimations**

Here we provide a description of how we estimated the pre-industrial GHG emissions. For CO₂ 389 flux, since terrestrial ecosystem models assume the net land-air carbon flux in the pre-industrial 390 era is zero and the modeled C sink is solely human-driven, in order to make TD estimates 391 comparable to BU estimates, the CO₂ sink from TransCom simulations³¹ has been adjusted by 392 removing the natural CO₂ sink $(0.45 \text{ Pg C/yr})^{12}$ due to riverine transport from land to ocean. This 393 CO₂ sink of 0.45 Pg C/yr was allocated to each continent by using continental-scale estimates of 394 riverine carbon export by Ludwig et al. (2011)⁴⁰ and assuming 100 Tg C/yr of organic carbon is 395 buried and 50% of DIC export is degassing⁴¹. 396

397

Human-induced biogenic CH₄ and N₂O emissions are calculated by subtracting the pre-industrial 398 emissions. We define pre-industrial emissions as the GHG source under pre-industrial 399 environmental conditions and land-use patterns, including CH₄ and N₂O emissions from both 400 managed (e.g., crop cultivation) and non-managed ecosystems (e.g., natural wetlands, forests, 401 grassland, shrublands etc.). Preindustrial CH₄ estimate (125.4 \pm 14.4 Tg C/yr) is composed of 402 CH_4 emission from natural wetland and vegetation (99.2 ± 14.3 Tg C/yr derived from Houweling 403 et al. (2008)⁴², Basu et al. (2014)⁴³ and unpublished result from DLEM model simulation with 404 405 potential vegetation map (excluding cropland cultivation and other anthropogenic activities)), termites (15 Tg C/yr, Dlugokencky et al. (2011)⁴⁴), and wildfire and wild animal (3.75-7.5 Tg 406

407 C/yr each, Dlugokencky et al. $(2011)^{44}$). Preindustrial N₂O emission (7.4 ± 1.3 Tg N/yr) is 408 derived from the estimate of terrestrial N₂O emission (6.6 ± 1.4 Tg N/yr) by Davidson and 409 Kanter (2014)⁶, and DLEM simulation (8.1 ± 1.2 Tg N/yr) driven by environmental factors at 410 preindustrial level and potential vegetation map.

411

412 Calculation and interpretation of global warming potential (GWP)

GWP is used to define the cumulative impacts that the emission of 1 gram CH₄ or N₂O could 413 have on planetary energy budget relative to 1 gram reference CO₂ gas over a certain period (e.g., 414 GWP100 and GWP20 for 100 or 20 years). To calculate CO₂ equivalents of the human-induced 415 biogenic GHG balance, we adopt 100-year GWPs of 28 and 265 for CH₄ and N₂O, respectively, 416 and 20-year GWPs of 84 and 264, respectively⁷. These values of GWP 20 and 100 used in this 417 study do not include carbon-climate feedbacks. The different contributions of each gas to the net 418 GHG balance will vary using different GWP time horizons (e.g., GWP20 versus GWP100, see 419 Table 1). In this study, we applied the following equation to calculate the human-induced 420 421 biogenic GHG balance:

422

$$GHG = F_{CO_2-C}\frac{44}{12} + F_{CH_4-C}\frac{16}{12} \times GWP_{CH_4} + F_{N_2O-N}\frac{44}{28} \times GWP_{N_2O}$$

423

424 Where F_{CO2-C} , F_{CH4-C} and F_{N2O-N} are annual exchanges (unit: Pg C/yr or Pg N/yr) of 425 human-induced biogenic CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O between terrestrial ecosystems and the atmosphere 426 based on mass of C and N, respectively. The fractions 44/12, 16/12 and 44/28 were used to 427 convert the mass of CO₂-C, CH₄-C and N₂O-N into CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O. *GWP*_{CH4} (Pg CO₂ eq/Pg CH₄) and *GWP_{N2O}* (Pg CO₂ eq/Pg N₂O) are constants indicating integrated radiative forcing of
CH₄ and N₂O in terms of a CO₂ equivalent unit.

430

Nevertheless, it is noted that adoption of GWP100 to calculate CO₂ equivalent is not 431 fundamentally scientific but depends on a policy perspective. The relative importance of each 432 433 gas at a certain time period and likely mitigation option could change due to GWP metrics at different time horizon (e.g., GWP20 and GWP100 according to Myhre et al., 2013⁷, Table 1). 434 For example, CH₄ has a shorter lifetime (~9 years), and its cumulative radiative forcing is 435 equivalent to 84 times same amount of CO₂ over 20 years, and 28 times same amount of CO₂ 436 over 100 years. At a 20-year time horizon, anthropogenic CH₄ and N₂O emissions in the 2000s 437 are equivalent to 4.2-4.8 (TD-BU) times land CO₂ sink in magnitude but opposite in sign, and 438 439 net balance of human-induced GHG in the terrestrial biosphere is 20.4 ± 6.8 Pg CO₂ eq/yr and $18.7 \pm 5.8 \text{ Pg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr}$ as estimated by BU and TD approaches, respectively. Among them, 440 anthropogenic CH₄ emissions are 7-10 times (BU-TD) as much as N₂O emissions in terms of 441 GWP20. At a 20-year time horizon, the cumulative radiative forcing of contemporary 442 anthropogenic CH₄ emission alone is 3.8-4.2 (TD-BU) times as much as that of land CO₂ sink 443 but opposite in sign, larger than its role at 100-year time horizon (1.3-1.4 times radiative forcing 444 of CO₂ sink). Therefore, to cut CH₄ emission could rapidly reduce GHG-induced radiative 445 forcing in a short time frame 7,8,44 . 446

447

448 Statistics

We use mean ± 1-sigma standard deviations (SD) to indicate the best estimates and their ranges.
Estimate ensembles are grouped for the TD and BU approaches, and the mean value of multiple

ensembles is calculated for each gas in a certain region and period. In the TD and BU groups, we
assume the individual estimates are independent from each other, and therefore, the SD for each
ensemble mean is calculated as the square root of the quadratic sum of standard deviations
reported in each estimate.

455

456 Continental-level estimations and divergence of biogenic-GHG fluxes

Using the TD and BU ensembles, we estimated the net human-induced biogenic GHG balance 457 during the 2000s for 7 continents or regions, which include North America, South America, 458 459 Europe, Northern Asia, Southern Asia, Africa and Oceania (Figure 1). Primarily owing to large 460 CH₄ and N₂O emissions, both approaches show that Southern Asia is a net human-induced biogenic GHG source in the magnitude of 6.3 ± 3.7 and 4.4 ± 1.2 Pg CO₂ eq/yr as estimated by 461 TD and BU, respectively, with the GWP100 metric (Table S3). Southern Asia has about 90% of 462 the global rice fields and represents over 60% of the world's nitrogen fertilizer consumption. 463 China and India together consume half of global nitrogen fertilizer²¹. This leads to the highest 464 regional CH₄ and N₂O emissions as the two approaches consistently reveal. This finding is also 465 consistent with previous studies conducted in China and India⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷. South America was estimated 466 467 to be a CO_2 sink with a large uncertainty (Table S3). Although South America is a large CH_4 and N₂O source, most of these emissions are present at pre-industrial times. Natural wetlands in 468 South America accounted for 31-40% of global wetland CH₄ emissions in the 2000s, and 26-30% 469 470 of the global natural soil N_2O emissions were derived from this region. Therefore, the contribution of this continent to human-induced GHG balance is negligible or acts as a small 471 472 sink. Likewise, Africa is estimated to be a small CO₂ sink or CO₂-neutral region, but adding CH₄

and N₂O emissions makes this continent contribute a small positive radiative forcing, slightly
warming the planet.

475

476 North America and Northern Asia are found to be a neutral region to net human-induced biogenic GHG sink, with 100-year cumulative radiative forcing of biogenic CH₄ and N₂O 477 emissions fully or partially offsetting that of land CO₂ sink in this continent (Table S3). The 478 largest CO₂ sink was found in North America, ranging from -0.37 ± 0.22 to -0.75 ± 1.87 Pg C/yr 479 as estimated by TD and BU, respectively, likely due to larger area of highly productive and 480 481 intensively managed ecosystems (e.g., forests, woodlands, and pasture) that were capable of sequestering more CO₂. Our estimate falls within the newly-reported CO₂ sink of -0.28 to -0.89 482 Pg C/yr in North America by synthesizing inventory, atmospheric inversions, and terrestrial 483 modeling estimates⁴⁸. Considering three gases together, TD estimates showed that the North 484 America acts as a net GHG sink with a large standard deviation (human-induced biogenic GHG 485 of -2.35 ± 6.87 Pg CO₂ eq/yr, Figure 3 and Table S3). By contrast, BU estimates suggested that 486 487 North America was a small GHG sink, in the magnitude of -0.38 ± 0.93 Pg CO₂ eq/yr based on GWP100. Our estimate is comparable to previous GHG budget syntheses for North America^{10,37}. 488 489 TD estimates indicated that Oceania and Europe act as a small negative net radiative forcing over 100 years (-0.98 \pm 1.17 and -0.42 \pm 3.86 Pg CO₂ eq/yr, respectively), while BU estimates 490 indicated a negligible contribution in Oceania, and a positive net radiative forcing (0.76 ± 0.57) 491 Pg CO_2 eq/yr) in Europe. According to BU estimates, CO_2 emission from drained peatland in 492 Europe accounted for about one third of global total during the period 2000s³⁵, which partially 493 explains the warming effect of biogenic GHG in this region as revealed by BU. 494

495

It is important to note that only human-caused biogenic GHG fluxes are included in this study,
and the regional GHG balance will clearly move towards a net source if the emissions related to
fossil fuel combustion and usage are taken into account.

500

501 Our analyses indicate that the TD and BU estimates show a larger divergence at continental scale than global scale. We notice that the high radiative forcing estimate of human-induced biogenic 502 GHG balance $(6.30 \pm 3.66 \text{ Pg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr})$ in the TD approach in Southern Asia is partially 503 because the land biosphere in this region is estimated to be a net CO₂ source of 0.36 Pg C/yr with 504 a large standard deviation of 0.99 Pg C/yr by TransCom Inversions^{31,49}. It includes CO₂ sources 505 and sinks from respiration, primary production, disturbances, rivers outgassing, and land use 506 507 change. In contrast, most BU estimations using land ecosystem models do not consider the full set of factors responsible for CO_2 release^{32,33}. The discrepancy between TD and BU estimates for 508 Southern Asia may come from several reasons. First, the land use history data commonly used 509 for driving terrestrial biosphere models, e.g., HYDE⁵⁰ and GLM⁵¹, was reported to overestimate 510 cropland area and cropland expansion rate in China and to under-estimate it in India compared to 511 regional dataset^{52,53}, thus biasing BU estimates of land conversion-induced carbon fluxes. But 512 none of BU models included in this study conducted global simulation with such regional dataset 513 updated. Second, large uncertainties exist in estimating carbon release due to tropical 514 deforestation^{4,54-57}. Third, carbon emissions due to peat fires and peatland drainage were a large 515 but usually ignored carbon source in tropical Asia (EDGAR 4.2³⁹ and Joosten et al., 2010³⁵). In 516 the BU estimates we included, some models consider peat fire by using input driver of fire 517 regime from satellite images, while most of them don't consider drained peatland and accelerated 518

519 SOC decomposition. Therefore, BU models may underestimate the CO₂ emissions at intensively-520 disturbed areas, resulting in a small CO₂ source of 0.03 ± 0.29 Pg C/yr. BU estimations show that the net human-induced biogenic GHG balance in Southern Asia turned out to warm the 521 planet with the 100-year cumulative radiative forcing of $4.44 \pm 1.17 \text{ Pg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr}$. 522 523 524 Net GHG balance in Africa was positive but with discrepancy between the TD and BU approaches. TD estimates suggest that Africa was a weak source of CO₂ and a strong source of 525 CH₄ and N₂O, resulting in a positive net radiative forcing of 1.20 ± 3.05 Pg CO₂ eq/yr. However, 526 527 BU ensembles estimate that African terrestrial biosphere acted as a relatively smaller climate warmer $(0.34 \pm 1.42 \text{ Pg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr})$ due to an anthropogenic land sink of CO₂ (-0.52 ± 1.38 Pg 528 CO_2 eq/yr) and a strong source of CH_4 and N_2O . The divergent estimates in Africa might have 529 several reasons. First, it was difficult to constrain emissions using TD in this region, due to the 530 lack of atmospheric data. No tropical continent is covered by enough atmospheric GHG 531 measurement stations, making the TD results uncertain in those regions, with almost no 532 533 uncertainty reduction from the prior knowledge assumed before inversion. Second, there were also large uncertainties in BU estimates. Some of the BU models ignored fire disturbance that is 534 likely to result in a carbon source of 1.03 ± 0.22 Pg C/yr in Africa^{24,38} and this emission has been 535 partially offset by carbon uptake due to regrowth. Another reason might be the overestimated 536 CO₂ fertilization effect, which could be limited by nutrient availability. Only few BU models 537 addressed interactive nutrient cycles in their simulation experiments³². 538 539

540 Uncertainty sources and future research needs

A wide variety of methods, such as statistical extrapolations, and process-based and inverse modeling, were applied to estimate CO_2 , CH_4 and N_2O fluxes. TD methods are subject to large uncertainties in their regional attribution of GHG fluxes to different type of sources⁵⁸. BU approaches are however limited by our understanding of underlying mechanisms and the availability and quality of input data. In addition, the TD approach is dependent on BU estimates as prior knowledge, especially in the tropics where both uncertainties are very large.

547

For example, terrestrial CO₂ uptake estimates from process-based model ensembles in Africa, 548 549 South America, and Southern Asia are larger than those from TD approaches, while smaller than 550 TD estimates in North America, Europe, Oceania and Northern Asia (Figure 3, Table S3). The larger BU CO₂ sink estimate might be related to biased land use history data, excluded fire 551 552 emission and CO₂ release due to extreme disturbances such as insect outbreaks and windthrow^{24,32}. Another reason is the lack of fully-coupled carbon-nitrogen-phosphorous cycles 553 in most BU models that overestimate the CO₂ fertilization effect particularly in regions of large 554 biomass and large productivity⁵⁹⁻⁶¹. However, larger CO_2 sink observed from tropical regrowth 555 forests compared to intact forests⁵⁵ might be underestimated because few models are capable of 556 557 capturing CO_2 uptake related to tropical secondary forest management and age structure. The post-disturbance and plantation-induced shift toward rapid carbon accumulation in young forests 558 that were poorly or not represented in terrestrial ecosystem models might be one of the factors 559 responsible for CO₂ sink underestimation as revealed by several studies conducted in mid- and 560 high-latitudes⁶²⁻⁶⁴. The modeled ecosystem responses to frequent occurrence of extreme climate 561 events in BU studies are another uncertainty in estimating variations of land CO₂ sink^{65,66}. 562

563

564 The estimates of terrestrial CH₄ fluxes remain largely uncertain. One major uncertainty in BU wetland CH₄ emission estimate is wetland areal extent data⁶⁷. Global inundated area extent was 565 reported to decline by approximately 6% during 1993-2007 with the largest decrease in tropical 566 and subtropical South America and South Asia⁶⁸. However, the majority of BU models failed 567 either in capturing dynamic inundation area or in simulating inundation and saturated conditions. 568 Tropical emissions, the dominant contributor for global wetland emission, are particularly 569 difficult to quantify due to sparse observations for both TD (atmospheric mixing ratios) and BU 570 (flux measurements) approaches and large interannual, seasonal variability, and long-term 571 change in the inundation extent for the BU modeling approach^{5,36,68}. At high latitudes, current 572 dynamic inundation data could not well represent permanent wetlands⁶⁷, most of which are 573 occupied by peatland. Due to large soil carbon storage in peatlands, such area is an important 574 CH₄ source. In addition, a large divergence exists in the estimation of rice field CH₄ emissions 575 (Table S2). The estimated global CH₄ emissions from rice fields are sensitive to rice field area, 576 management practices (e.g., water regime, nutrient fertilizer), and local climate and soil 577 conditions that directly affect activities of methanotroph and methanogen^{20,69,70}. Models need 578 better representation of CH₄ production and consumption processes modified by agricultural 579 management, such as continuous flooding, irrigation with intermediate drainage, or rainfed⁷⁰. 580 581

582 Compared to CO₂ and CH₄, there were fewer studies for global N₂O emissions. The TD 583 approach is constrained by sparse or inconsistent measurements of atmospheric N₂O mixing 584 ratios^{19,71}. Decadal trends during 1981-2010 from BU approaches were primarily from two 585 process-based models^{18,72}, instead of IPCC methodology based on the N₂O emission factors. The 586 major uncertainty source, therefore, includes data characterizing spatiotemporal variation of

587	reactiv	ve nitrogen enrichment, modeling schemes representing multiple nitrogen forms,
588	transf	ormation, and their interactions with other biogeochemical and hydrological cycles, as well
589	as key	γ parameters determining the sensitivity of N_2O emission to temperature, soil moisture, and
590	availa	bility of $oxygen^{45,46,72-74}$. A large divergence exists in the estimation of natural soil N ₂ O
591	emiss	ion by inventory, empirical and process-based models, implying that our understanding of
592	the pr	ocesses and their controls remain uncertain ^{18,72,75-77} . Tropical areas are the major
593	contri	butors to large divergence. N_2O sources from tropical undisturbed wetland and drained
594	wetla	nd/peatland are likely to be underestimated 78 .
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GHG	Sector	19	1980s		1990s		2000s	
GHG		Top-down	Bottom-up	Top-down	Bottom-up	Top-down	Bottom-up	
CO ₂ (Pg C/yr)	Net land CO ₂ sink	-0.4±1.1	-0.3±1.1	-0.9±1.0	-0.6±1.1	-1.6±0.9	-1.5±1.2	
	1) Natural wetland	125.3±43.5	168.8±31.1	112.5±6.0	154.5±36.0	131.3±24.8	162.8±40.:	
	2) Soil sinks	-15.8±6.4	-19.7±14.3	-20.3±0.0	-21.5±14.3	-24.0±6.0	-22.6±14.3	
	3) Termite, Wild animal & Others	27.0±0.4	19.5±3.8	24.0±5.3	19.5±3.8	32.3±10.5	19.5±3.8	
	Natural*	136.5±44.0	168.6±34.5	116.3±8.0	152.5±38.9	138.8±27.6	159.6±42.	
	4) Biomass burning	34.5±2.3	16.3±5.7	28.5±3.6	19.1±7.9	17.3±7.9	14.8±5.4	
CH₄	5) Rice cultivation		45.4±16.8	86.3±21.0	26.3±5.6	33.0±2.0	28.9±7.6	
(Tg C/yr)	6) Manure management		7.8±0.2		7.9±0.1		8.0±0.3	
	7) Ruminant		64.8±2.2		66.0±0.9		70.0±3.3	
	8) Landfill and Waste		33.6±2.3		39.5±2.0		44.7±3.3	
	Agriculture & Waste*	156.0±12.4	151.6±17.1	179.3±45.4	139.7±6.0	168.8±26.4	151.6±9.0	
	Net CH₄ flux	327.0±45.7	336.5±38.7	324.0±46.6	311.3±39.5	324.8±38.6	325.9±43.	
	Pre-industrial CH ₄ emission	125.4±14.4						
	Human-induced CH ₄ flux	201.6±48.1	211.0±41.3	199.6±48.8	185.8±42.1	199.4±41.2	200.5±45.	
	1) Natural soil		7.9±1.3	6.6±0.5	8.2±1.3	7.5±0.4	8.4±0.9	
	2) Biomass burning		0.7±0.1	0.7±0.1	0.7±0.1	0.6±0.1	0.6±0.2	
	3) Agricultural soil		2.6±0.3		3.3±0.2		4.0±0.3	
	4) Manure management		0.2±0.0		0.2±0.0		0.3±0.0	
N₂O	5) Indirect emission		0.5±0.1		0.9±0.1		0.7±0.1	
(Tg N/yr)	6) Human Sewage		0.2±0.6		0.2±0.0		0.3±0.0	
	Agriculture & Waste *		4.7±4.2	4.1±0.6	4.6±0.2	4.4±0.6	5.5±0.7	
	Net N ₂ O flux		14.0±4.3	11.3±0.8	14.3±0.9	12.6±0.7	15.2±1.0	
	Pre-industrial N ₂ O emission	7.4±1.3						
	Human-induced N ₂ O flux		6.6±4.5	3.9±1.5	6.9±1.6	5.2±1.5	7.8±1.6	

Extended Data Table 1| Decadal estimates of global terrestrial CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O fluxes derived from Top-Down and Bottom-Up approaches

Note: * denotes that additional data are included in the calculation of greenhouse gas fluxes from this sub-total sector. Therefore, the sub-total GHG fluxes are not necessarily equal to the sum of individual sector values shown in this table. The complete set of data used for calculation could be found in supplementary Table S2.