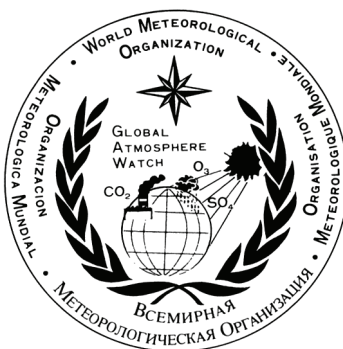


WORLD METEOROLOGICAL ORGANIZATION

GLOBAL ATMOSPHERE WATCH

WORLD DATA CENTRE FOR GREENHOUSE GASES



WMO WDCGG DATA SUMMARY

WDCGG No. 31

GAW DATA

Volume IV-Greenhouse Gases and Other Atmospheric Gases

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Acknowledgements

The present issue of *Data Summary* summarizes the latest status of greenhouse gases and related gases in the globe. The Data Summary was prepared by the WMO World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG) in cooperation with the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) using the data from the global observation network that consists of many contributors (Appendix: LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS). These organizations and individuals are involved in observations and research at stations and laboratories which measure greenhouse gases and other atmospheric gases within the framework of the WMO Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW), and other cooperative monitoring and research programmes. The WDCGG thanks all of the organizations and individuals for their efforts in maintaining the observation programme and for their continuous provision of data, particularly the NOAA global air sampling network. Some contributors may not be explicitly acknowledged in this publication owing to lack of space, but it should be noted that all of the organizations and individuals that have submitted data to the WDCGG equally contributed to this new issue of *Data Summary*.

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Summary

This issue of *Data Summary* covers the results of basic analyses of greenhouse gas mixing ratios submitted to the WMO World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG). The observations range from 1968 to 2005, and only data which the WDCGG accepted by November 2006 were analyzed. This *Data Summary* includes analyses of the monthly mean mixing ratios of global, hemispheric and zonal greenhouse and related gases, and provides useful information on the state of mixing ratios of these gases.

Only monthly mean mixing ratios were used in the analyses in the Data Summary. Of course, it is also appreciated that some stations submit daily and hourly mean mixing ratios, which may be more appropriate for analyzing the variations on various time-scales. All the submitted data are available on the WDCGG web site (<http://gaw.kishou.go.jp/wdcgg.html>).

In this Summary, the units ppm, ppb, ppt are used for mixing ratios for convenience. They correspond to the SI units $\mu\text{mol/mol}$, nmol/mol and pmol/mol respectively.

The CO_2 mixing ratio can be seen on both a seasonal scale and a long-term scale. Growth rates are time derivatives of the deseasonalised long-term trends.

The analytical results are summarized below for each greenhouse and related gas:

1. Carbon Dioxide (CO_2)

The level of carbon dioxide (CO_2), which of all the greenhouse gases contributes most to global warming, has been increasing since the pre-industrial period. It global mean mixing ratio reached 379.1 ppm in 2005, a new high, and the increase from 2004 to 2005 was 2.0 ppm. This mixing ratio corresponds to 135.4% of the pre-industrial level. Mixing ratios peak in northern high and mid-latitudes, suggesting strong net sources in these areas.

The global growth rate varies significantly interannually and was 1.9 ppm/year on average for the period 1995-2005. The high growth rates in 1987/1988, 1997/1998 and 2002/2003, which exceeded 2 ppm/year, resulted from the warm events related to El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO). The anomalously strong El Niño event in 1997/1998 brought about worldwide high increases in 1998. The exceptionally low growth rates in 1992, including negative values for northern high-latitude, were caused by low global temperatures following the eruption of Mt. Pinatubo in 1991.

Amplitudes of the seasonal cycle are clearly large in northern high and mid-latitudes and small in the Southern Hemisphere. The northern seasonal cycle mainly reflects seasonal variation in the absorption/emission in the biosphere there, while the

southern cycle reflects oceanic variations and biomass burning in addition to the influence of the biosphere. In southern low latitudes, an annual cycle cannot be seen clearly but a semiannual cycle can. This is probably due to two opposing factors — the direct influence of sources and sinks there and the propagation of the out-of-phase seasonal variation from the Northern Hemisphere.

2. Methane (CH_4)

CH_4 is the second most significant greenhouse gas, and its level has been increasing since the beginning of the 19th Century. Global mean mixing ratios reflect an annual increase, and the annual averaged mixing ratio was 1783 ppb in 2005, which was the same as that in 2004. The mixing ratio corresponds to 254.7% of the pre-industrial level.

The latitudinal gradient of CH_4 mixing ratio is large from the mid-latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere to the Tropics, suggesting that the major sources are in the high and middle northern latitudes.

The global growth rate was 11.5 ppb/year on average for the period 1984-1990, but the rates decreased markedly in the 1990s. The global growth rate for the period 1995-2005 was 2.8 ppb/year. Growth rates decreased significantly in some years, including 1992, when negative values were recorded in northern high and mid-latitudes. However, both hemispheres experienced high growth rates in 1998, caused by an exceptionally high global mean temperature. The global growth rates decreased to almost zero in 2000-2001, suggesting that the global CH_4 budget seemed to have been in a steady-state. The growth rates increased again in 2002 and 2003 with the occurrence of the 2002/2003 El-Niño event.

Monthly mean mixing ratios have a seasonal variation with high mixing ratios in winter and low mixing ratios in summer. Unlike CO_2 , amplitudes of the seasonal cycle of CH_4 are large, not only in the Northern Hemisphere but also in southern high and mid-latitudes. In southern low latitudes, a distinct semi-annual component with a secondary maximum in boreal winter overlays the annual component. This is attributed to the large-scale transportation of CH_4 from the Northern Hemisphere.

3. Nitrous Oxide (N_2O)

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is an important greenhouse gas, and its level is increasing on a global scale. Data for N_2O submitted to the WDCGG show that mixing ratios are increasing in both hemispheres. Global mean mixing ratio has reached a new high in 2005 at 319.2 ppb, which increased by 0.6 ppb from the year before. The mean growth rate of the global mean

mixing ratio over the period 1995 – 2005 was 0.74 ppb/year. This mixing ratio corresponds to 118.2% of the pre-industrial level.

4. Halocarbons

Halocarbons, most of which are anthropogenic, are effective greenhouse gases and some also act as ozone-depleting compounds. Levels of some halocarbons (CFCs, etc.) increased in the 1970s and 1980s, but have now almost ceased increasing as a result of regulation of production and emission under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer and its Adjustments and Amendments.

Mixing ratios of CFC-11 peaked around 1992 and then started decreasing. The growth rates of CFC-12 have declined since around 1990 and are now nearly zero. CFC-113 growth stopped in the 1990s, and over the last decade has shown a slight decreasing trend. Mixing ratios of HCFC-141b and HCFC-142b, which are the industrial replacements of CFCs, are increasing. Mixing ratios of CCl_4 were at a maximum around 1991. Since then, they have been decreasing slowly. Mixing ratios of CH_3CCl_3 peaked around 1992 and thereafter clearly started to decrease.

5. Surface Ozone (O_3)

Ozone (O_3) plays important roles in the atmospheric environment through radiative and chemical processes. It absorbs UV radiation in the stratosphere, making a temperature profile, and circulates the atmosphere with its absorbed energy. It also absorbs IR radiation, and is thus one of the greenhouse gases.

Variation in the mixing ratio of O_3 near the surface, so-called surface ozone, reflects various processes there. While some of the O_3 in the troposphere comes from the stratosphere, the rest is chemically produced in the troposphere through oxidation of CO or hydrocarbons in the presence of rich NO_x .

Many stations at various locations measure the mixing ratio of surface ozone. However, it is difficult to identify a global long-term trend of surface O_3 due to its very uneven geographic distribution.

6. Carbon Monoxide (CO)

Carbon monoxide (CO) is not a greenhouse gas, but brings influences the mixing ratios of greenhouse gases by affecting hydroxyl radicals (OH). Its mixing ratio in northern high latitudes has been increasing since the mid-19th Century. The mean global mixing ratio was 95 ppb in 2005. The mixing ratio is high in the Northern Hemisphere and low in the Southern Hemisphere, suggesting substantial anthropogenic emissions in the Northern Hemisphere.

Although the global mixing ratio of CO was increasing before the mid-1980s, the growth stopped or the mixing ratio subsequently decreased after then (WMO, 1999a). There was large fluctuation in the

growth rate, however, with high positive rates followed by high negative rates in northern latitudes and southern low latitudes from 1997 to 1999. The growth rates in the Northern Hemisphere increased again in 2002.

Monthly mean mixing ratios show a seasonal variation with large fluctuations in the Northern Hemisphere and small fluctuations in the Southern Hemisphere. This seasonal cycle is driven by industrial emissions, biomass burning, large-scale transportation, and variations in the OH mixing ratio which acts as a sink.

7. Nitrogen Monoxide (NO) and Nitrogen Dioxide (NO_2)

Nitrogen oxides (NO_x , i.e., NO and NO_2) are not greenhouse gases, but influence mixing ratios of important greenhouse gases by affecting OH. In the presence of NO_x , CO and hydrocarbons are oxidized to produce ozone (O_3), which affects the Earth's radiative balance as a greenhouse gas and the oxidization capacity of the atmosphere by reproducing OH.

Most of the stations reporting NO_x data to the WDCGG are located in Europe. NO_x has large temporal and geographic variability, and it is difficult to identify a long-term trend. In Europe, NO_2 mixing ratios are generally higher in southern regions than in northern regions.

8. Sulphur Dioxide (SO_2)

Sulphur dioxide (SO_2) is not a greenhouse gas but a precursor of atmospheric sulphate aerosol. Sulphate aerosol is produced by SO_2 oxidation through photochemical gas-to-particle conversion. SO_2 has also been a major source of acid rain and deposition throughout industrial times.

Most of the stations reporting SO_2 data to the WDCGG are located in Europe. Generally, in Europe, SO_2 mixing ratios are higher in southern regions than in northern regions.

1. Introduction

Human activities have been shown to have major impacts on the global environment. Since the beginning of the industrial revolution, mankind has increasingly made use of land, water, minerals and other natural resources, and future population and economy growths will result in further increases in our impact on the environment. As the global climate, biogeochemical processes and natural ecosystems are closely interlinked, changes in any one of these systems may affect the others and be detrimental to humans and other organisms. Emissions of man-made gaseous and particulate matter alter the energy balance of the atmosphere, and consequently affect interactions between the atmosphere, hydrosphere, and biosphere. Nevertheless, we do not yet have a sufficient understanding of either the chemical processes that occur within the atmosphere or the interrelationships between the atmosphere, the hydrosphere, and the biosphere. Our lack of understanding of the chemical processes of the atmosphere and the oceans is mainly due to lack of observation data.

The World Meteorological Organization (WMO) launched the Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) Programme in 1989 to promote systematic and reliable observation of the global environment, including greenhouse gases (CO₂, CH₄, CFCs, N₂O, etc.) and other related gases (e.g., CO, NO_x, and SO₂) in the atmosphere. In October 1990, the WMO established the World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG) at the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) in Tokyo as one of the GAW World Central Facilities to collect, archive, and distribute data regarding greenhouse and related gases in the atmosphere and oceans. In August 2002, the WDCGG took over the role of the Data Centre for Surface Ozone from the Norwegian Institute for Air Research (NILU) and began to collect surface ozone data from a number of observation sites throughout the world participating in GAW and other scientific monitoring programmes (Appendix: LIST OF OBSERVING STATIONS).

With regard to issues involving global warming, the Kyoto Protocol, in which quantified emission limitations and reductions were agreed upon based on the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, came into force in February 2005. The WMO started annual publications of the WMO Greenhouse Gas Bulletin in March 2006 and the second of a series of the bulletins was issued in November 2006. The bulletin briefly summarizes the state of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. The WDCGG is needed for swifter and smoother exchange of such data.

Since its establishment, the WDCGG has provided its users with data and other information through its regular publications: *Data Report*, *Data Catalogue*, *Data*

Summary, and *CD-ROM* (Appendix: LIST OF WMO WDCGG PUBLICATIONS). All data and information are now available on the WDCGG web site, which aims to improve accessibility to data, information, and products in line with the Strategy of the Implementation of the Global Atmosphere Watch Programme (2001-2007) published in June 2001 and its Addendum for the Period 2005-2007 (WMO, 2001; WMO, 2004).

This strategy also requests that GAW facilities, including World Data Centres, build a data bank that can provide good analyses in cooperation with the scientific research community. To meet this request, the WDCGG provides diagnostic information on global greenhouse gases. Performing global and integrated diagnostics on the state of greenhouse gases is one of the important tasks of the WDCGG. Other important tasks include revision and improvement of the contents of the *Data Summary* based on comments from contributors of the data and scientists, and to provide scientists and policy makers with more advanced analytical information. The WDCGG welcomes comments and suggestions regarding the *Data Summary* and its other publications. It is expected that the diagnostic information presented here will not only stimulate the use of data on greenhouse and other gases, but will also increase appreciation of the value of the GAW program.

The WDCGG thanks all the data contributors, including those involved in measurement at the numerous sites worldwide, for their efforts in maintaining the observation programme and for their continuous provision of data.

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In order that any user is required to accept the following conditions set forth by the Commission for Atmospheric Sciences (CAS) WG and supported by the Thirteenth Session of CAS: "For scientific purposes, access to these data is unlimited and provided without charge. By their use you accept that an offer of co-authorship will be made through personal contact with the data providers or owners whenever substantial use is made of their data. In all cases, an acknowledgement must be made to the data providers or owners and to the data centre when these data are used within a publication.", the WDCGG requests data users to make acknowledgements appropriately. Data

users should refer to the GAW Station Information System (GAWSIS) at the GAW web site (http://www.wmo.ch/web/arep/gaw/gaw_home.html) or the WDCGG web site for details on the GAW Country Contacts, what measurements are being made, and the investigators responsible. The information at the GAWSIS and the World Data Centres is updated in cooperation with the WMO Secretariat.

2. Analysis

The WDCGG collects, archives and provides observation data regarding mixing ratios of greenhouse gases, and also provides diagnostic_ results on the greenhouse gases using collected data.

This publication includes the diagnostic results. For CO₂, CH₄ and CO, long-term trends and seasonal variations in mixing ratios derived for the global and zonal means are presented. For N₂O, global trends are presented. For surface O₃, a global long-term trend has not been identified because the stations measuring the mixing ratio of surface O₃ are not unevenly geographically distributed. For halocarbons, NO_x and SO₂, only time series of monthly mean mixing ratios are presented because only a small number of sites have submitted observation data.

In this Summary, the units ppm, ppb, and ppt, which correspond to the SI units $\mu\text{mol/mol}$, nmol/mol , and pmol/mol , respectively, are used for mixing ratios for convenience.

The following sections explain the methods used for analysis of the CO₂, CH₄, CO and N₂O. Refer to the respective chapters for the other parameters.

2-1. Site selection for global, hemispheric and zonal mean mixing ratios

For CO₂, the diagnostic statistics, such as global, hemispheric and zonal means, are based on data from the selected sites whose standard gases have traceability to the WMO standard gas kept at the Central Calibration Laboratory (CCL). The WMO standard for CH₄ was established in 2005, so the standard is now prevalent. Thus, for CH₄, the statistics are derived not only from the selected sites that employ the WMO standard gas but also from the sites that use standard gases whose differences from the WMO standard gas have been determined. The same is also true for N₂O statistics.

As ground-based sites observe air at a lower boundary layer, the measured mixing ratios of gases, such as CO₂, CH₄ and CO, which have sources or sinks on the Earth's surface, may show localised characteristics in a lower boundary layer depending on weather conditions, *etc.*.

These data provide very useful information for investigating the power of local sources and sinks. However, for global scale analysis, it is necessary to use data that can be considered as representative mixing ratios averaged over a reasonable geographical area and in a whole boundary layer, *i.e.*, background data. In this study, for CO₂, CH₄ and CO, observation sites that were considered to offer such data appropriate were selected.

The site selection was performed objectively as described below, based on data in a reasonably

scattered range of the total data in the same latitudinal zone. The latitudinal distribution of the annual mean mixing ratios normalised with respect to the South Pole, which were calculated from the monthly mean mixing ratios, was fitted to the LOESS model curve (Cleveland *et al.*, 1988). Sites with mixing ratios lying more than $\pm 3\sigma$ from this curve were rejected and this process was iterated until all of the remaining sites lay within $\pm 3\sigma$ from the fitted curve. The sites selected according to certain scales and/or background criteria are marked with asterisks in Plate 3.1 for CO₂, Plate 4.1 for CH₄, Plate 5.1 for N₂O and Plate 8.1 for CO. A list of the selected sites for CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O is available on the WDCGG web site (<http://gaw.kishou.go.jp/wdcgg.html>).

2-2. Trend analysis

The time series of greenhouse gas mixing ratios, which is often produced by removing local effects with very short-term variations, represents integration of variations on different time scales. The two major components of variation in the CO₂ mixing ratio are seasonal variations and long-term trends. Many researchers have attempted to decompose observation data into these two components by objective curve fitting (Keeling *et al.*, 1989), digital filtering (Thoning *et al.*, 1989; Nakazawa *et al.*, 1991), or both (Conway *et al.*, 1994; Dlugokencky *et al.*, 1994).

Trend analysis approximating variations in the sum of seasonal variations by Fourier harmonics and long-term trends by low-pass filtering with a cut-off frequency of 0.48 cycles/year was performed for each selected site. Refer to WDCGG Data Summary No. 22 for details.

2-3. Estimation of value for periods without data for zonal mean calculation

The number of sites used for trend analysis outlined above varied during the analysis period. Moreover, data were frequently missing due to pauses in the observation. When the calculations are performed without considering these situations, the values, such as the zonal growth rate, fluctuate with the change in the number of available sites and data. These fluctuations were particularly evident in the early period when few sites were available.

However, if we select only those sites for which data are available throughout the whole analysis period, the data from many newly established sites will not be reflected in the analysis. To use as many sites as possible and to avoid gaps accompanying changes in the number of sites, the estimated values for the periods for which no data were included in the zonal mean calculations. The values were estimated by

interpolation and extrapolation as follows.

First, sites requiring interpolation were selected. A provisional seasonal variation was calculated from the longest consecutive data set for each site with all the same Lanczos filters (Duchon, 1979) as described in the previous Summary. Then, linear interpolation was performed for the data from which the provisional seasonal variation was subtracted. The complete variation was then retrieved by adding the provisional seasonal variation.

Next, the sites requiring extrapolation were selected. The provisional long-term trend and the seasonal variation were calculated from the interpolated data set with the same filter. Extrapolation was then performed for the long-term trend as its growth rate traces the zonal mean growth rate calculated from those of the other sites in the same latitudinal zone. Subsequently, the complete variation was retrieved by adding the site's own provisional seasonal variation. Here, each zone was created every 30° of latitude.

The zonal mean mixing ratios were calculated from the continuous data set, derived in the above procedure, by determining the arithmetic mean for the sites included in each latitudinal zone for every 20° or 30°. The zonal mean in the early stage of the analysis period may be less accurate than that in the latest stage. Although the data sets were partly estimated, the completeness of data was assumed to be advantageous for trend analysis of the zonal mean.

2-4. Calculation of global and hemispheric means

Global and hemispheric means were calculated by averaging the zonal means, taking into consideration the area ratio of each latitudinal zone.

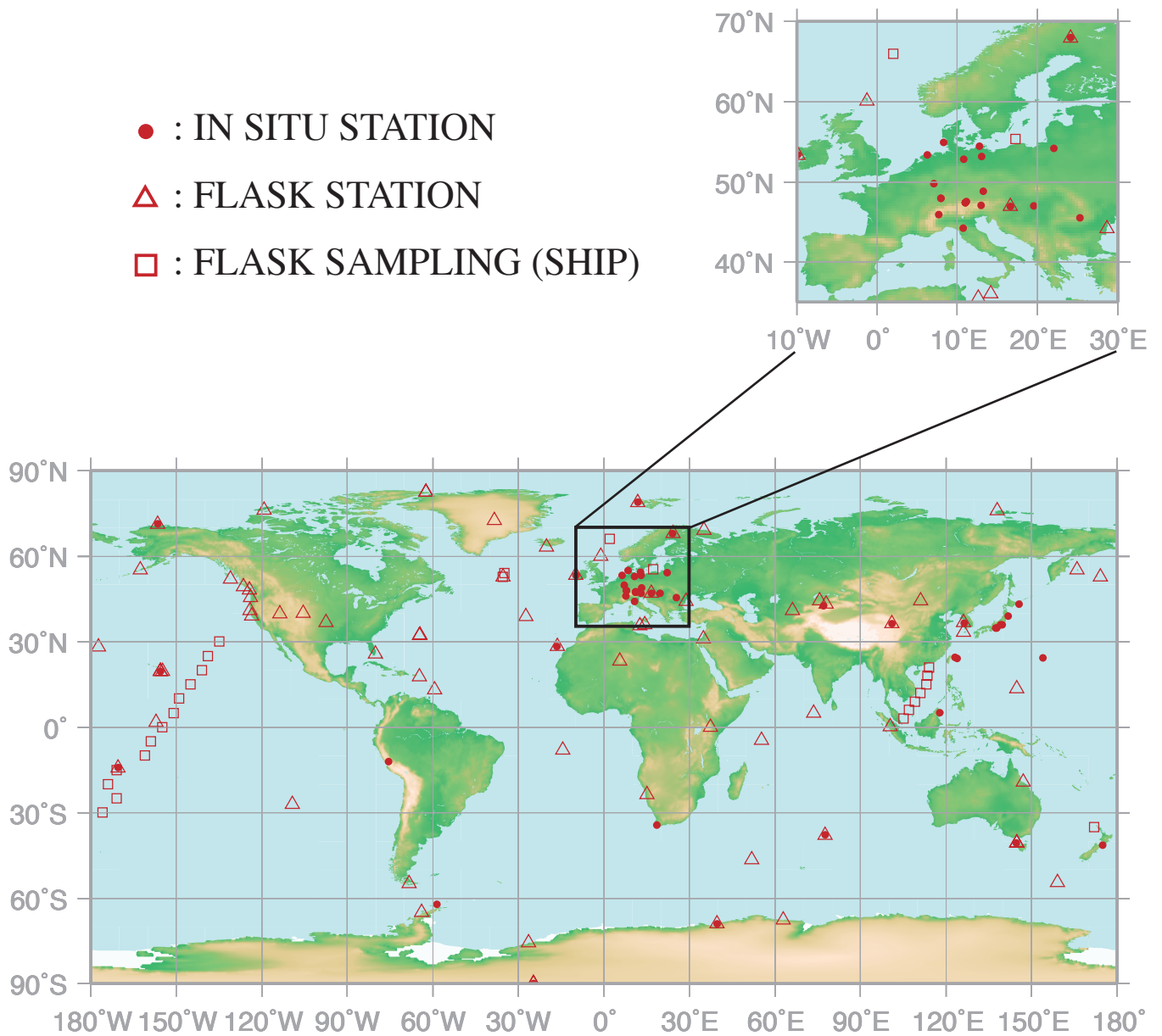
The deseasonalised long-term trend and growth rate for the globe, both hemispheres and each latitudinal zone were calculated again with the filter from the global, hemispheric and zonal means. To derive the trend for the whole period, we assumed that provisional data extending from both ends followed the linear trend for the whole period. Therefore, analyzed trends at both ends may depart from the actual values.

Here, we summarise the characteristics of global, hemispheric and zonal mean mixing ratios by presenting the time series of monthly mean mixing ratios, deseasonalised long-term trends, annual growth rates and the averaged seasonal cycle.

3.

CARBON DIOXIDE

(CO₂)



This map shows locations of the site where the monthly mean mixing ratios are submitted.

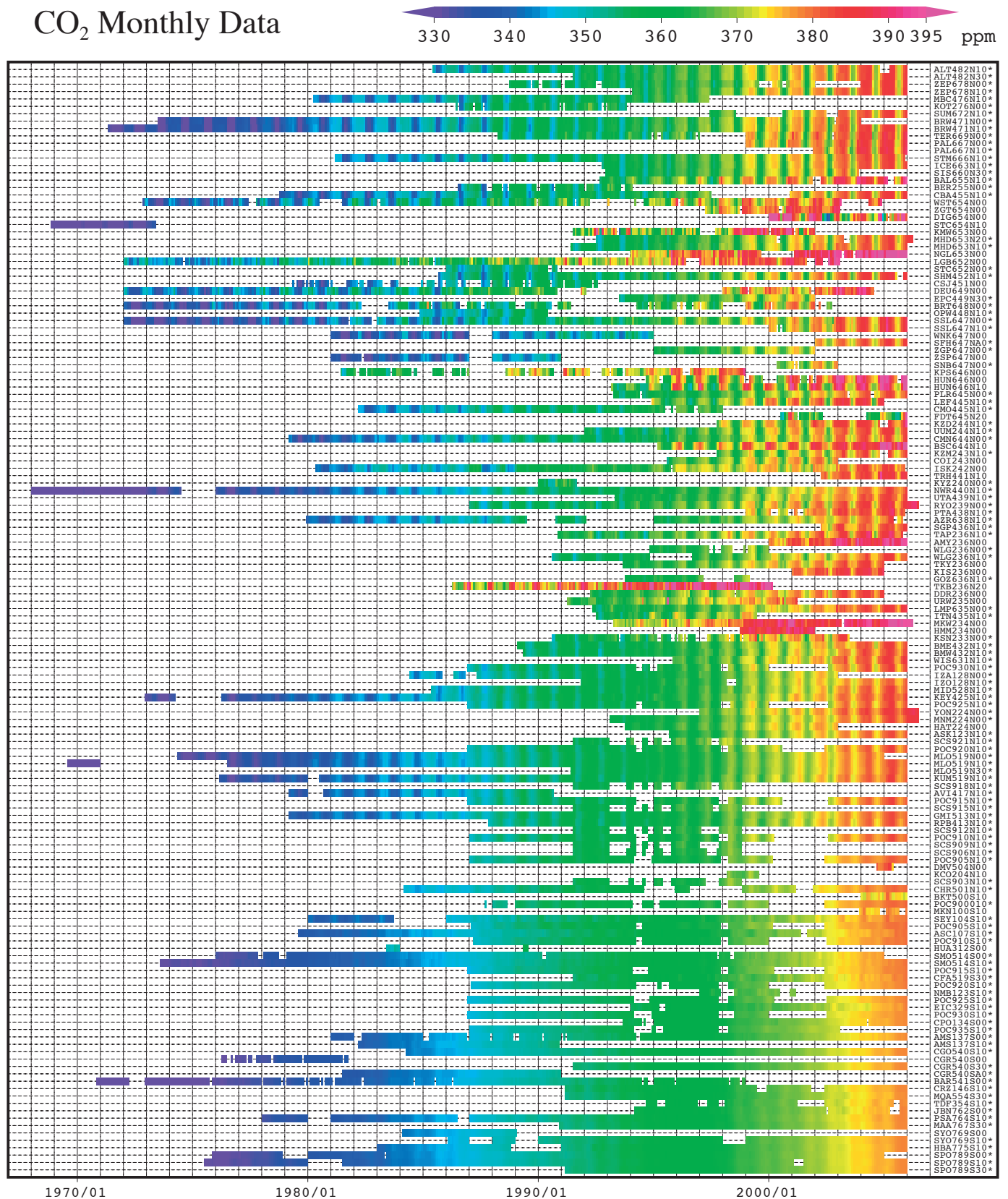
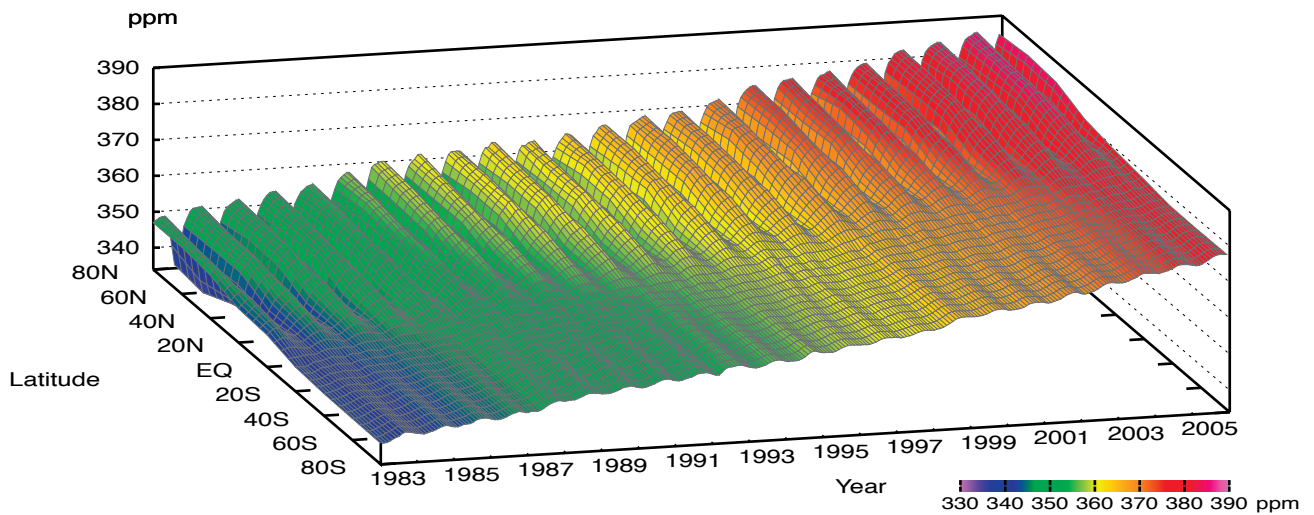
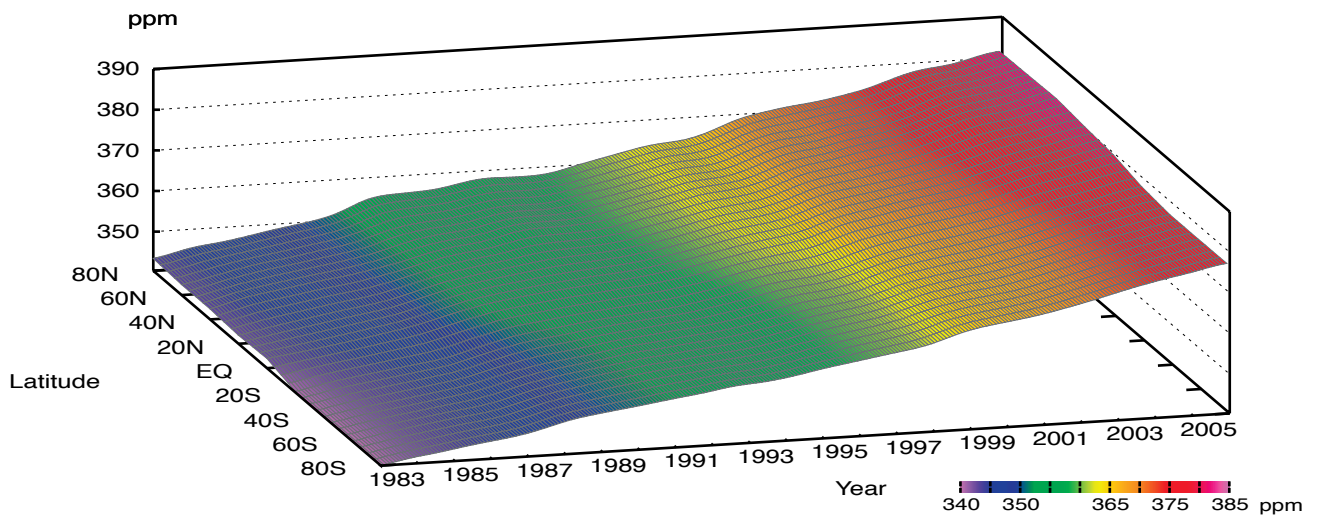


Plate 3.1 Monthly mean CO₂ mixing ratios for all sites reported to the WDCGG illustrated in colors that change with the mixing ratio. The sites are set from north to south. Though some stations reported data at two or three different altitudes, only data at the highest altitudes are illustrated. The monthly value at the site which has submitted only original (hourly) data before selection is calculated by the WDCGG as an arithmetic mean, and may become high for reflecting the mixing ratio influenced in plant breathing at nighttime in the lower boundary layer. Site index with an asterisk shows the site used in the analysis shown in Plate 3.2. (see Chapter 2)

CO₂ mixing ratio



CO₂ deseasonalized mixing ratio



CO₂ growth rate

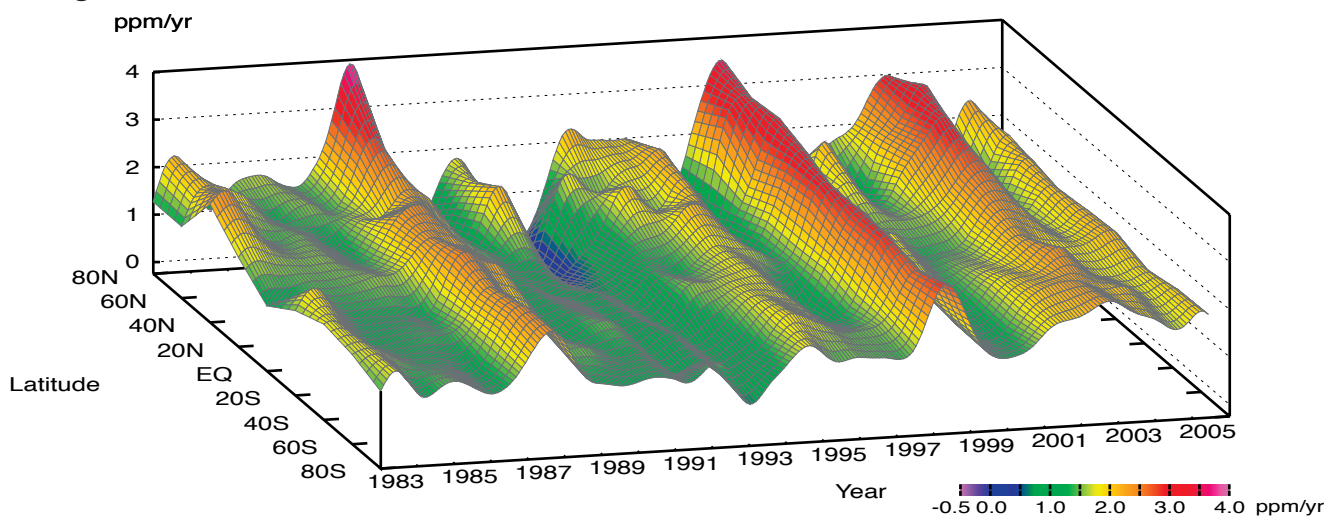


Plate 3.2 Variation of zonally averaged monthly mean CO₂ mixing ratios (top), deseasonalized mixing ratios (middle), and growth rates (bottom). Zonally averaged mixing ratios are calculated for each 20° zone. Deseasonalized mixing ratios and growth rates are derived as described in Chapter 2.

3. Carbon Dioxide (CO₂)

Basic information on CO₂ with regard to environmental issues

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) has strong absorption bands in the infrared region and is the biggest contributor to the greenhouse effect. CO₂ contributed 60% of the radiative forcing caused by the increase in well-mixed greenhouse gases from 1750 to 2000 (IPCC, 2001).

The balance between its emission and absorption at the surface of the earth or oceans determines the mixing ratio of CO₂ in the atmosphere. About 750 Gigatonnes of carbon is stored in the atmosphere as CO₂. This carbon is exchanged with two other large reservoirs, the terrestrial biosphere and the oceans. The CO₂ is exchanged between the atmosphere and terrestrial biosphere mainly through absorption by photosynthesis and emission from plant respiration and decomposition of organic soils. These biogenic activities vary with season, resulting in large seasonal variations in CO₂ levels. CO₂ is transported between the atmosphere and the ocean, the direction, that is, to or from the atmosphere, depending on their relative CO₂ mixing ratios, which varies both temporally and geographically.

The current atmospheric CO₂ mixing ratio is the highest it has been during the last 420,000 years (IPCC, 2001). Based on the results of ice core studies, the mixing ratio of atmospheric CO₂ in the pre-industrial level was about 280 ppm (IPCC, 2001). Emissions of CO₂ due to human activities have been increasing from the beginning of the industrial era, and have been distributed into the atmosphere, oceans and terrestrial biosphere. However, the global carbon cycle, which is comprised mainly of CO₂, is not fully understood. About half of the anthropogenic CO₂ emission has stayed in the atmosphere, the rest having been removed by sinks, including the terrestrial biosphere and ocean. However, the amounts that the sinks remove from the atmosphere varies widely with the year (Figure 3.1).

Carbon isotopic studies have demonstrated the importance of the terrestrial biosphere and oceans as sources and sinks (Francey *et al.*, 1995; Keeling *et al.*, 1995; and Nakazawa *et al.*, 1993, 1997a). On the other hand, the atmospheric O₂ content is dependent mainly on O₂ removal by burning of fossil fuels, and O₂ release from the terrestrial biosphere. Therefore, the uptake of carbon by the terrestrial biosphere and the ocean can be evaluated from O₂ (O₂/N₂) measurements combined with CO₂ measurements (IPCC, 2001). IPCC (2001) showed that the ocean and the terrestrial biosphere respectively absorbed about 27% and 22% of CO₂ emitted from the burning of fossil fuel in the 1990s, while the remaining 51% contributed to the annual increase in CO₂ level in the atmosphere.

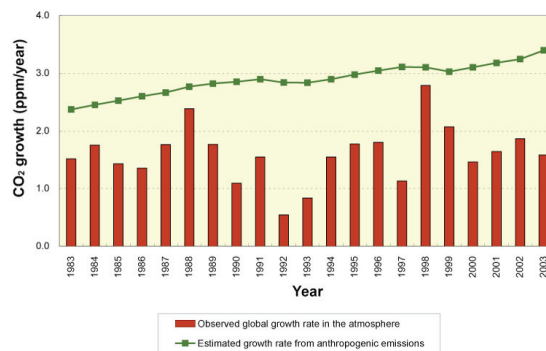


Fig. 3.1 Time series of annual mean CO₂ growth rates in the atmosphere calculated from observation data (column) and from anthropogenic emission data (thin line with dots). CO₂ emissions were calculated by CDIAC based on the United Nations Energy Statistics, and the observed growth rate was calculated by the WDCGG. Note that observational CO₂ abundance in the atmosphere is expressed by mixing ratio with respect to dry air, but CO₂ mixing ratio from anthropogenic emission is calculated based on the atmosphere including water vapor that is usually less than 1% in mixing ratio.

Large amounts of CO₂ are exchanged among these reservoirs, and the global carbon cycle is coupled with the climate system on seasonal, interannual and decadal time scales. Accurate understanding of the global carbon cycle is essential for the estimation of future CO₂ mixing ratios in the atmosphere.

The map at the beginning of this chapter shows observation sites that submitted CO₂ mixing ratio data to the WDCGG by October 2006. These sites include *in situ* stations performing continuous measurement as well as flask-sampling stations, such as those in the NOAA/GMD network. In addition to such fixed stations, mobile stations on ships and aircraft, and other stations that measure event data also report their data to the WDCGG (see Appendix: LIST OF OBSERVATION STATIONS).

Annual variations in CO₂ in the atmosphere

The monthly mean CO₂ data from all the stations that submitted to the WDCGG are shown in Plate 3.1. In this plate, mixing ratio levels are illustrated in different colours. Global, hemispheric and zonal mean background mixing ratios were analysed based on selected stations (see the caption to Plate 3.1). The three-dimensional representations of latitudinal distribution of the atmospheric CO₂ mixing ratio, deseasonalized mixing ratios and the growth rates are shown in Plate 3.2. These three-dimensional representations (CO₂ carpets) indicate that the

amplitudes of seasonal mixing ratio variations are large in the northern mid- and high-latitudes, but the seasonal variation is indistinct in the Southern Hemisphere; the increases in mixing ratio occur in the Northern Hemisphere prior to the Southern Hemisphere, and propagate to the Southern Hemisphere, and the inter-annual variation of growth rates occurs largely in the Northern Hemisphere.

Figure 3.2 shows the global monthly mean mixing ratios with the long-term trends and growth rate from 1983 to 2004. The global average mixing ratio reached a new high in 2005 at 379.1 ppm, and the increase from 2004 to 2005 was 2.0 ppm. This mixing ratio corresponds to 135.4% of the pre-industrial level.

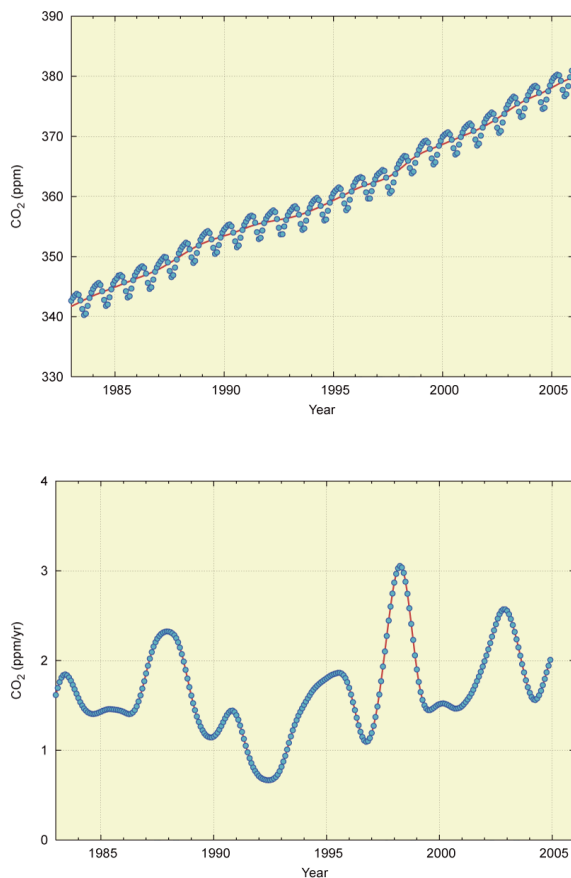


Fig. 3.2 Monthly mean mixing ratios (dots) and deseasonalized long-term trends (line) (top), and growth rate (bottom) from 1983 to 2005 for the globe.

The mean global growth rate during the latest 10 years (1995–2005) was 1.9 ppm/year. The global growth rate of CO_2 shows a large inter-annual variation. During the above period, the maximum and minimum global growth rates were 3.1 ppm/year in April 1998 and 0.7 ppm/year in June 1992, respectively. High growth rates exceeding 2 ppm/year were seen in 1987/1988, 1997/1998 and 2002/2003.

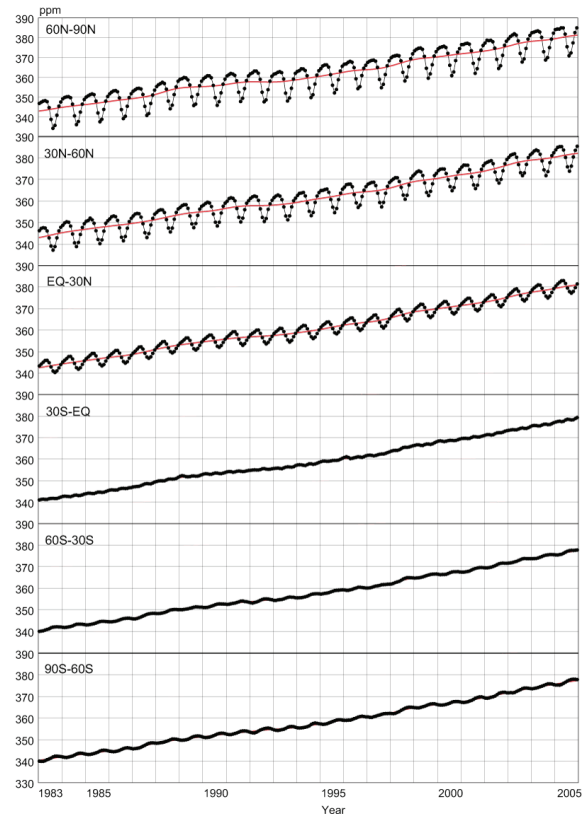


Fig. 3.3 Monthly mean mixing ratios (thick lines and dots) and deseasonalized long-term trends (thin lines) from 1983 to 2005 for each 30° latitudinal zone.

Figure 3.3 shows the monthly mean mixing ratios and their long-term trends from 1983 to 2005 for each 30° latitudinal zone. Long-term increases in both hemispheres and seasonal variations in the Northern Hemisphere are clearly observed.

As shown in Figure 3.4, the growth rates for each 30° latitude zone fluctuated between -0.3 and 3.5 ppm/year, and variability in the growth rate was relatively large in northern high latitudes. Growth rates for all 30° latitude zones were high in 1987/1988, 1997/1998 and 2002/2003. On the other hand, negative values were recorded in northern high latitudes in 1992.

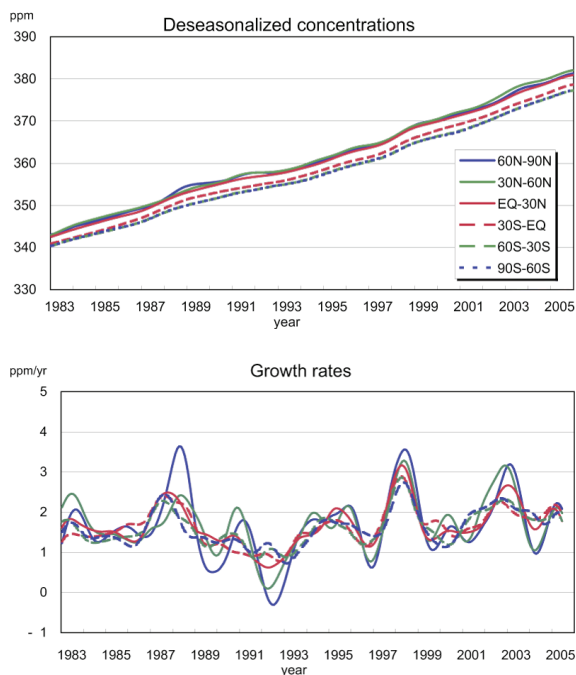


Fig. 3.4 Long-term trends (top) and growth rates (bottom) for each 30° latitudinal zone.

Changes in growth rate are also known to be associated with El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO). El Niño events that occurred in 1982/1983, 1986-1988, 1991/1992, 1997/1998 and 2002/2003, and with the exception of 1992, growth rates were high in these years. In addition to those at the surface, CO₂ growth rates observed by aircraft flying at high altitudes (8-13 km) over the Pacific Ocean also have a similar relationship with ENSO (Matsueda *et al.*, 2002). Ordinarily, there is an up-welling area with CO₂-rich ocean water in the eastern equatorial Pacific, and CO₂ is emitted from the ocean. However, El Niño events suppress this up-welling, which reduces CO₂ emission from the ocean. On the other hand, El Niño events result in high temperature anomalies in many areas globally, particularly in the Tropics, which increase CO₂ emission from the terrestrial biosphere by the enhanced respiration of plants and decomposition of organic matter in the soil (Keeling *et al.*, 1995). Anomalously low precipitation, particularly in the Tropics, also enhances this effect by suppressing plant photosynthesis. These oceanic and terrestrial processes have opposite effects during El Niño events. However, Dettinger and Ghil (1998) suggested that the oceanic effect was limited to the eastern equatorial Pacific, while the terrestrial effect was more global. Thus, the global CO₂ response, which is almost synchronous with El Niño events, is due to terrestrial biosphere changes associated with temperature variations on a global scale.

Carbon isotope (¹³C) studies have also shown that atmospheric CO₂ variations accompanying El Niño events are brought about by the flux between the terrestrial biosphere and the atmosphere, rather than between the ocean and the atmosphere (Keeling *et al.*, 1989; Nakazawa *et al.*, 1993; Morimoto *et al.*, 2000). A strong El Niño event during 1997/1998, which was one of the most severe ENSO events in the 20th Century, brought about high temperatures and low precipitation levels on a global scale during this period (WMO, 1999b), resulting in frequent wildfires and drought in Southeast Asia. Such meteorological conditions perturbed the global carbon cycle, and are considered to intensify CO₂ emission from the terrestrial biosphere. However, an exceptionally low CO₂ growth rate occurred even during the El Niño event in 1991/1992.

The injection of 14-20 Mt of SO₂ aerosols into the stratosphere by the Mt. Pinatubo eruption in June 1991, which affected the radiation budget and atmospheric circulation (Hansen *et al.*, 1992; Stenchikov *et al.*, 2002), resulted in a drop in the global temperature. The reduced CO₂ emission from the terrestrial respiration and from decomposition of organic matter in the soil due to anomalous low temperatures (Conway *et al.*, 1994; Lambert *et al.*, 1995; Rayner *et al.*, 1999), and enhanced CO₂ absorption by intensive photosynthesis due to the increase in diffuse radiation (Gu *et al.*, 2003) contributed to the low CO₂ growth rate despite the El Niño event (Angert *et al.*, 2004).

Figure 3.5 shows a time series of CO₂ growth rates in the tropical area (< ±30° from 1983 to 2005), the SOI (Southern Oscillation Index), the SST (Sea Surface Temperature) anomaly in the eastern equatorial Pacific (5°N–5°S, 150°W–90°W) and the temperature anomaly on land in the Tropics calculated from NCEP (National Centers for Environmental Prediction) reanalysis data. SOI and SST data are provided by the WMO DDBs (Distributed Data Bases). In the figure, the SOI, the SST anomaly and the temperature anomaly are processed as a five-month running mean to display the seasonal variation. The growth rate in the Tropics showed good correspondence to the SOI and SST anomalies with a time lag except in 1992. In addition, the growth rate in the Tropics also showed good correspondence to the temperature anomaly on land in the Tropics, including 1992. These results suggest that the growth rate is related to ENSO events, but that temperature anomalies on tropical land have the closest relationship with CO₂ growth rate in the Tropics. These observations suggest a strong influence of the tropical biosphere on tropical CO₂ mixing ratios.

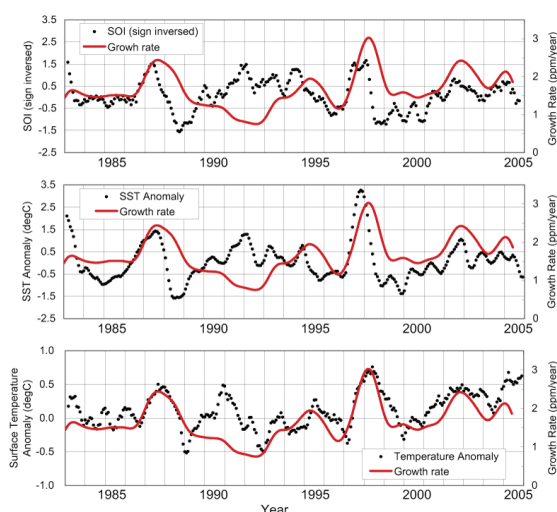


Fig. 3.5 Time series of growth rates in the Tropics (30°N-30°S) and a comparison with the Southern Oscillation Index inversed sign (top), SST anomaly in the eastern equatorial Pacific (5°N-5°S, 150°W-90°W) (middle) and temperature anomaly on land in the Tropics calculated from NCEP reanalysis data (bottom). The solid lines show the growth rates, and the dots show each element (5-month running mean).

Seasonal cycle of CO₂ in the atmosphere

Figure 3.6 shows average seasonal cycles for each 30° latitudinal zone from which the long-term trends were subtracted.

Amplitudes of seasonal cycles are clearly large in northern high and mid-latitudes and small in the Southern Hemisphere. Oceanic uptake (Ramonet *et al.*, 1996) and biomass burning (Wittenberg *et al.*, 1998) are thought to influence the seasonal variation. However, these large seasonal cycles in the Northern Hemisphere are characterized by rapid decreases from June to August and large returns from September to December. They are the result of the activities of the terrestrial biosphere, *i.e.*, CO₂ absorption by photosynthesis, emission by respiration of vegetation, and decomposition of organic matter by microbes in the soil (*e.g.*, Nakazawa *et al.*, 1997b).

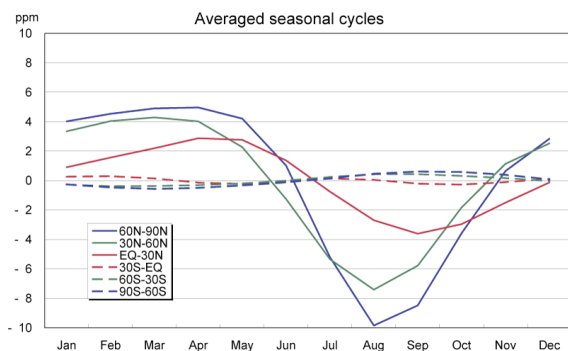


Fig. 3.6 Average seasonal cycles for each 30° latitudinal zone from which the long-term trends were subtracted.

In northern high and low latitudes, the occurrences of their maximum mixing ratios are delayed by one or two months. Minimum mixing ratios appeared in August in northern high and mid-latitudes and in September in northern low latitudes. The peak in low latitudes is delayed because the seasonal variation in high latitudes takes some time to reach the low latitudes (Tanaka *et al.*, 1987), and the seasonal cycle of terrestrial biosphere activity at low latitudes is delayed against that in the mid-latitudes due to the courses of the wet and dry seasons (Nemry *et al.*, 1996).

In the Southern Hemisphere, the seasonal variations showed small amplitudes with a half-year delay due to small amounts of net emission and absorption by the terrestrial biosphere. The seasonal variations of northern mid-latitudes and southern mid-latitudes seemed to be superimposed in the southern low latitudes (0-30°S), while the amplitude was small, suggesting that the large seasonal variation in the Northern Hemisphere influences the Southern Hemisphere. The direct influence of sources and sinks in the Southern Hemisphere might be partially cancelled by propagation of the out-of-phase seasonal variation from the Northern Hemisphere.

Figure 3.7 shows the latitudinal distributions of CO₂ mixing ratios in January, April, July and October in 2005. Latitudinal gradients around 30°N were positive (larger mixing ratios in higher latitudes) in January and April, and negative (smaller mixing ratios in higher latitudes) in July, corresponding to the large seasonal cycle in northern, mid- and high latitudes.

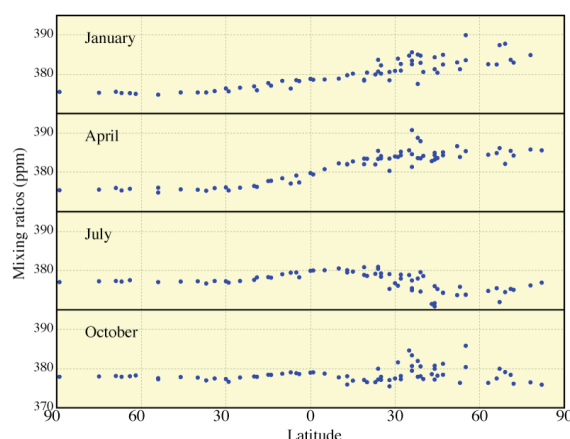


Fig. 3.7 Latitudinal distributions of monthly mean mixing ratios in January, April, July and October 2005.

Annual variation of CO₂ in the upper atmosphere

The Meteorological Research Institute in JMA has carried out aircraft-based measurements of trace gases, such as CO₂, at altitudes of 8–13 km over the western Pacific using a commercial flight between Japan and Australia in cooperation with the Japan Airlines Foundation, the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport, and Japan Airlines since 1993. The observation data are submitted to the WDCGG every year. Fig. 3.8 shows the time series of the atmospheric CO₂ mixing ratios, deseasonalized mixing ratios and the growth rates in the upper air obtained by these measurements. We used continuous data obtained by linear interpolation. The trend analysis method used was the same as that described in Chapter 2. The CO₂ mixing ratios increased with seasonal variations, similarly to those on the surface. The seasonal variations observed over the Northern Hemisphere also reflected those on the surface, but the amplitudes were smaller.

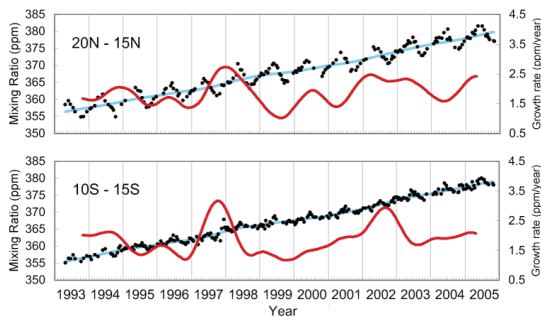


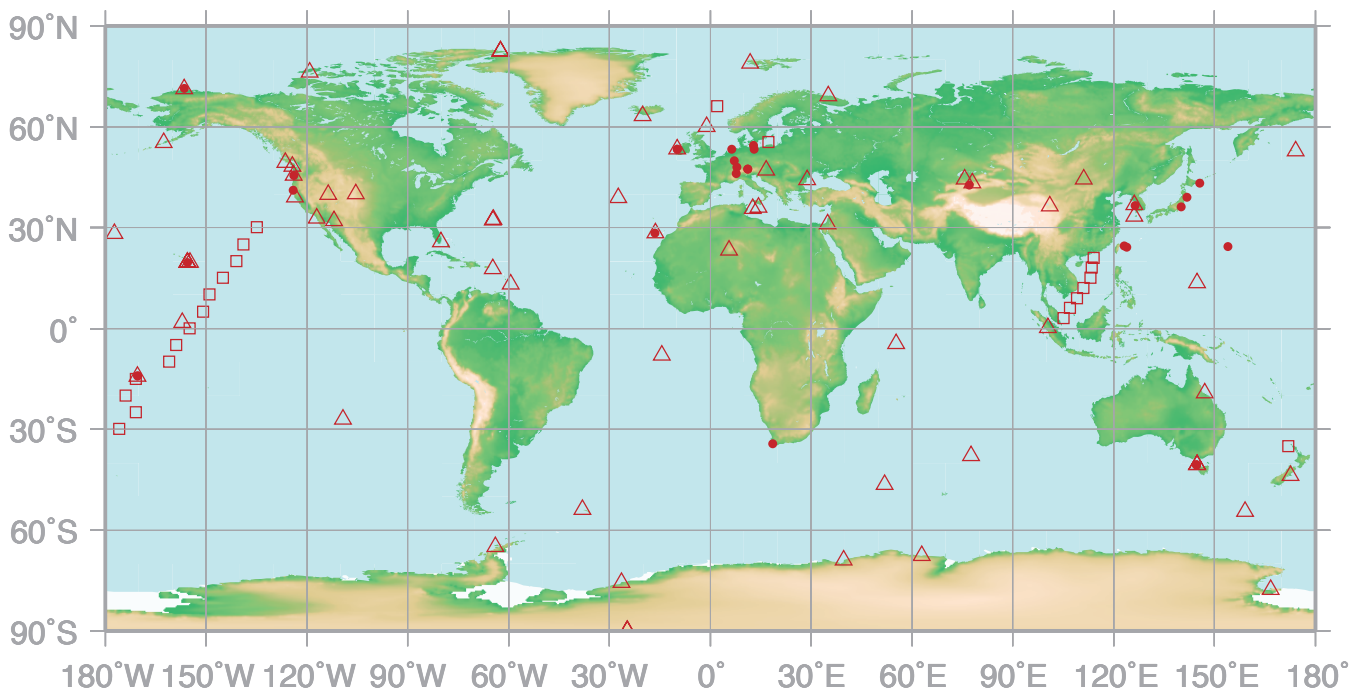
Fig. 3.8 Time series of CO₂ mixing ratios (dots), deseasonalized mixing ratios (dashed lines), and growth rates (solid lines) observed at latitudinal zones of 15–20°N and 10–15°S at altitudes of 8–13 km over the western Pacific.

4.

METHANE

(CH₄)

- : IN SITU STATION
- △ : FLASK STATION
- : FLASK SAMPLING (SHIP)



This map shows locations of the site where the monthly mean mixing ratios are submitted.

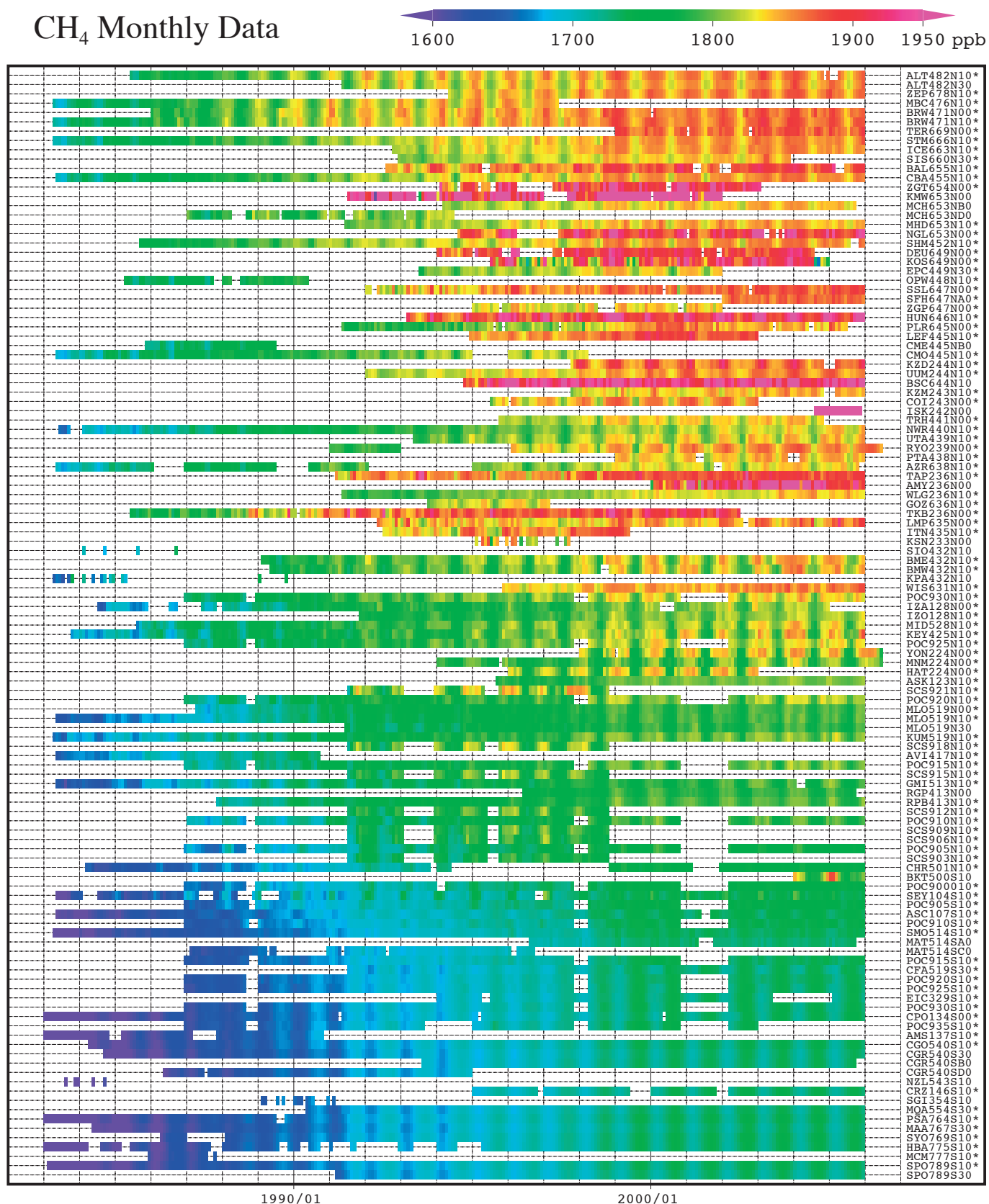
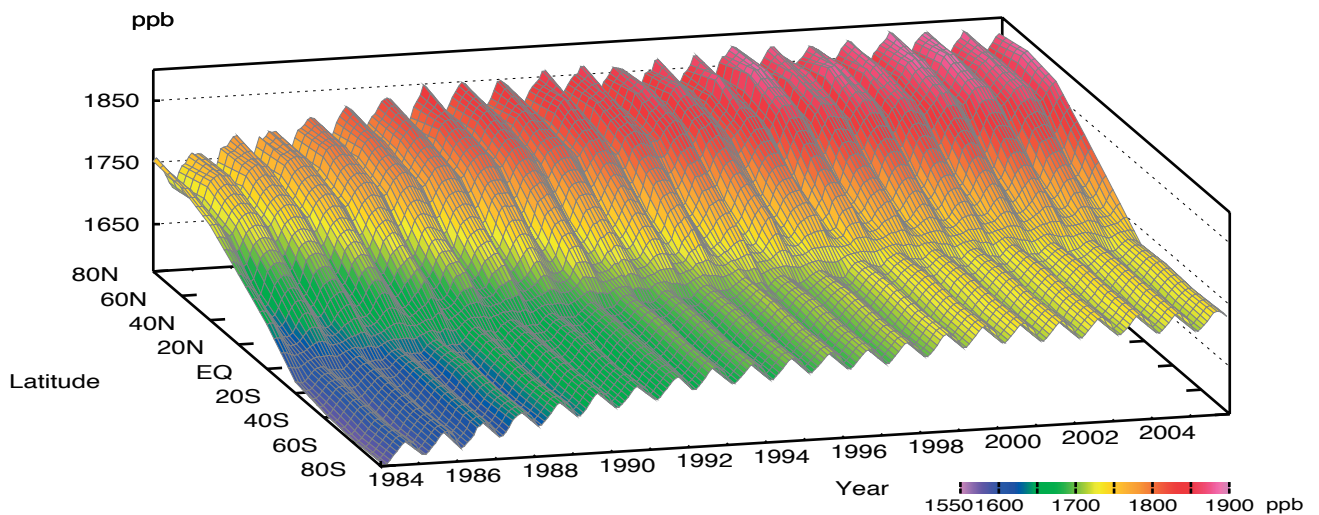
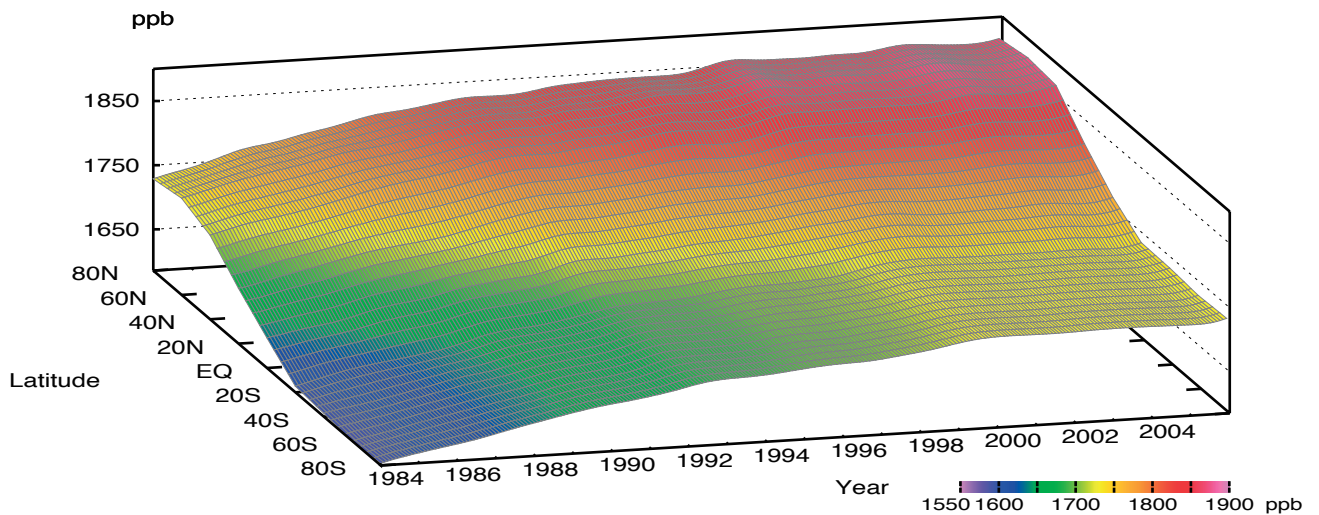


Plate 4.1 Monthly mean CH₄ mixing ratios for all sites reported to the WDCGG illustrated in colors that change with the mixing ratio. The sites are set from north to south. Though some stations reported data at two or three different altitudes, only data at the highest altitudes are illustrated. The monthly value at the site which has submitted only original (hourly) data before selection is calculated by the WDCGG as an arithmetic mean. Site index with an asterisk shows the site used in the analysis shown in Plate 4.2. (see Chapter 2)

CH₄ mixing ratio



CH₄ deseasonalized mixing ratio



CH₄ growth rate

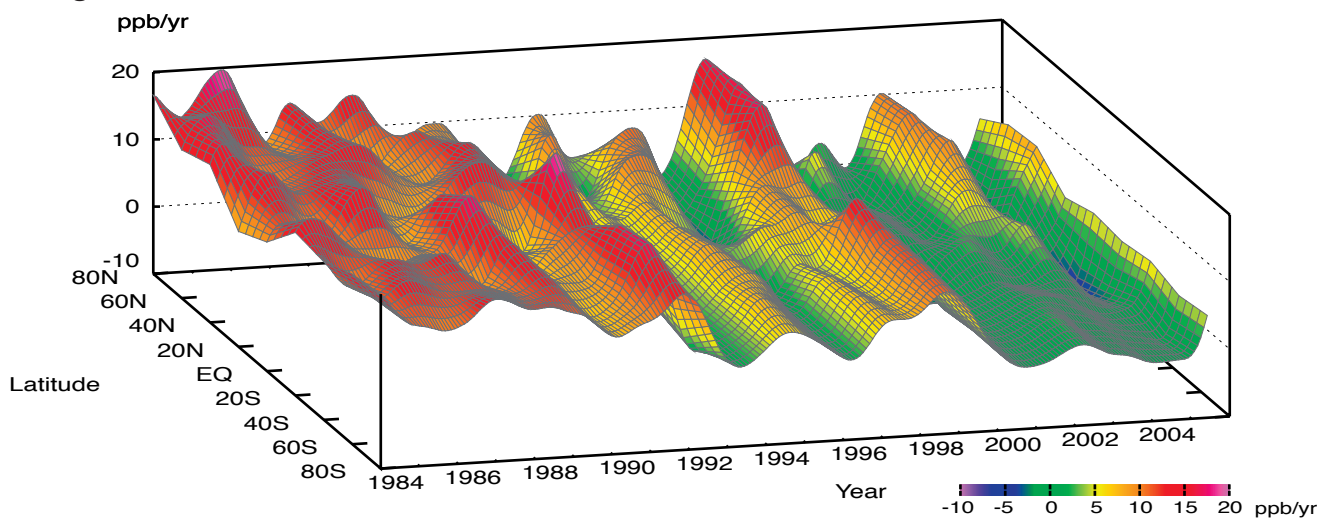


Plate 4.2 Variation of zonally averaged monthly mean CH₄ mixing ratios (top), deseasonalized mixing ratios (middle), and growth rates (bottom). Zonally averaged mixing ratios are calculated for each 20° zone. Deseasonalized mixing ratios and growth rates are derived as described in Chapter 2.

4. Methane (CH₄)

Basic information on CH₄ with regard to environmental issues

Methane (CH₄) is the second most significant greenhouse gas, but is estimated to have 21 times as much radiative forcing as CO₂ per molecule. It contributed 20% of the radiative forcing caused by the increase in well-mixed greenhouse gases from 1750 to 2000 (IPCC, 2001).

Analyses of air trapped in ice cores from the Antarctica and Arctic showed that the current atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratio is the highest it has been during the last 420,000 years (IPCC, 2001). The mixing ratio of CH₄ remained steady at 700 ppb from 1000 AD until the start of the industrial revolution (Etheridge *et al.*, 1998), after which it began increasing. The rate of increase has become very slow in the last few years. From the measurements of CH₄ mixing ratios in ice cores from the Antarctica and Greenland, the mixing ratio difference between the Northern and Southern Hemispheres was in the range of 24–58 ppb from 1000 to 1800 A.D. (Etheridge *et al.*, 1998), but now it is about 150 ppb (see Fig. 4.3), reflecting increased emissions in the Northern Hemisphere where major anthropogenic sources exist.

CH₄ is emitted from both natural and anthropogenic sources, including natural wetlands, oceans, landfills, rice paddies, enteric fermentation, gas drilling and biomass burning. IPCC (2001) estimated global emission at 598 Tg (CH₄/year). Of the various sources of emissions, about 60% are estimated to be related to anthropogenic activities. CH₄ is destroyed by reaction with OH radicals in the troposphere and the stratosphere, and reaction with chlorine atoms and O(¹D), an excited state of oxygen, in the stratosphere. CH₄ is one of the most important water vapour sources in the stratosphere. The atmospheric lifetime of CH₄ was estimated to be about 9 years. However, the mixing ratio of OH radicals is affected by ambient temperature and humidity. In addition, emissions from some sources are dependent on air temperature. Furthermore, Keppler *et al.* (2006) estimated that living plants and plant litter emit 62–236 and 1–7 Tg of methane per year, respectively. More information regarding sources and sinks of CH₄ must be collected to estimate the atmospheric CH₄ budget.

The observation sites that submitted CH₄ mixing ratio data to the WDCGG are shown on the map at the beginning of this chapter.

Annual variation in CH₄ levels in the atmosphere

The monthly mean CH₄ data from all the stations that submitted to the WDCGG are shown in Plate 4.1. In this plate, mixing ratio levels are illustrated in

different colours. Global, hemispheric and zonal mean background mixing ratios were analysed based on selected stations (see the caption for Plate 4.1). The three-dimensional representations of latitudinal distribution of the atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratios, deseasonalized mixing ratios and the growth rate are shown in Plate 4.2. These three-dimensional representations (CH₄ carpets) indicate that the amplitudes of seasonal variation of mixing ratio are larger in the Northern than the Southern Hemisphere; the increase in mixing ratio starts in the Northern Hemisphere and then expands to the Southern Hemisphere. The variation in growth rate occurs on a global scale. These features are similar to those of CO₂ (see Section 3). The latitudinal gradient of CH₄ mixing ratio is large from the mid-latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere to the Tropics, suggesting that the major sources located in the high and middle northern latitudes and CH₄ are destroyed with transportation to the Tropics where OH radicals mixing ratios are high.

Figure 4.1 shows the global monthly mean mixing ratios with deseasonalized long-term trends and the global growth rate from 1984 to 2005. The mean mixing ratio was 1783 ppb in 2005, as in 2004. The mean growth rate was 2.8 ppm/year from 1995 to 2005. The mixing ratio corresponds to 254.7% of the pre-industrial level.

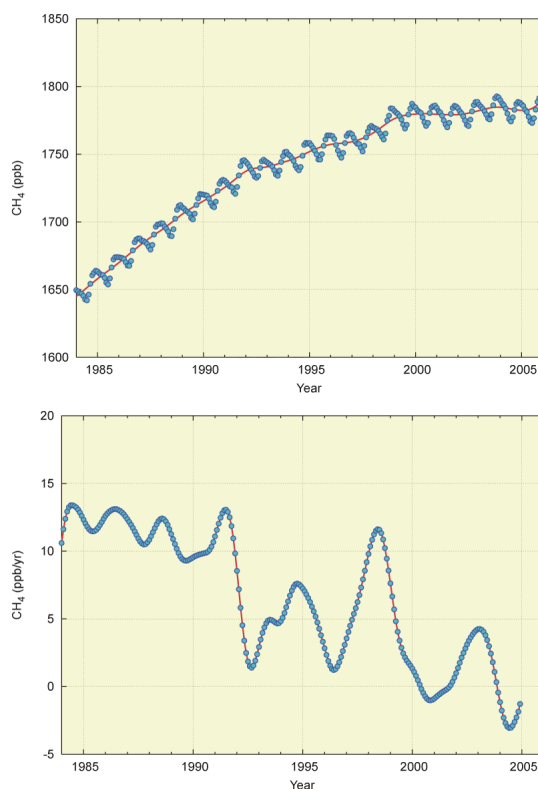


Fig. 4.1 Monthly mean mixing ratios (thick line), deseasonalized long-term trends (thin line) (top) and growth rates (bottom) from 1984 to 2005 for the globe.

Figure 4.2 shows the monthly mean mixing ratios and their deseasonalized long-term trends from 1984 to 2005 for each of the 30° latitudinal zones. The seasonal variations were small in the latitudinal zone from the equator to 30°S.

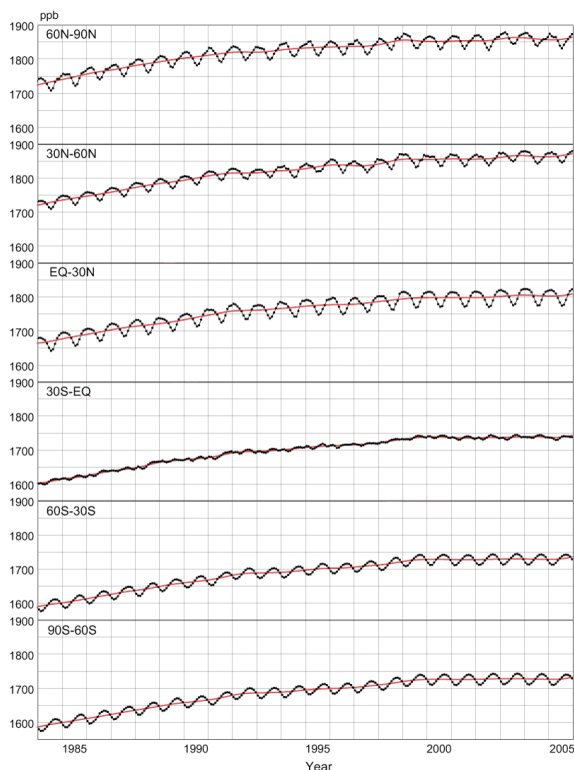


Fig. 4.2 Monthly mean mixing ratios (thick line) and deseasonalized long-term trends (thin line) from 1984 to 2005 for each 30° latitudinal zone.

Figure 4.3 shows the deseasonalized long-term trends and growth rates for each of the 30° latitudinal zones. Deseasonalized long-term trends have the distinct feature of high mixing ratios in northern high and mid-latitudes and low mixing ratios in southern latitudes. Growth rates clearly decreased in 1990s for all latitudinal zones. The growth rates in the Southern Hemisphere and Northern Subtropics were high in 1991, but the global growth rate fell to about 1 ppb/year around 1992 and 1996. In 1998, the global growth rate increased to 12 ppb/year, and the growth rates for northern high and mid-latitudes were over 15 ppb/year. In 2000 and 2001, the global growth rate decreased to around 0 ppb/year and the increase in mixing ratios appeared to have stopped. Around 2002/2003, the growth rates increased in the Northern Hemisphere, especially in northern high and mid-latitudes where it became about 10 ppb/year. In 2004, negative growth rates of around -3ppb/year appeared in the northern high and middle latitudes. Though the growth rates were large in 1998 and 2002/2003, which were affected by El-Niño events as

will be discussed later, the global growth rate during the last 10 years was lower than in the 1990s.

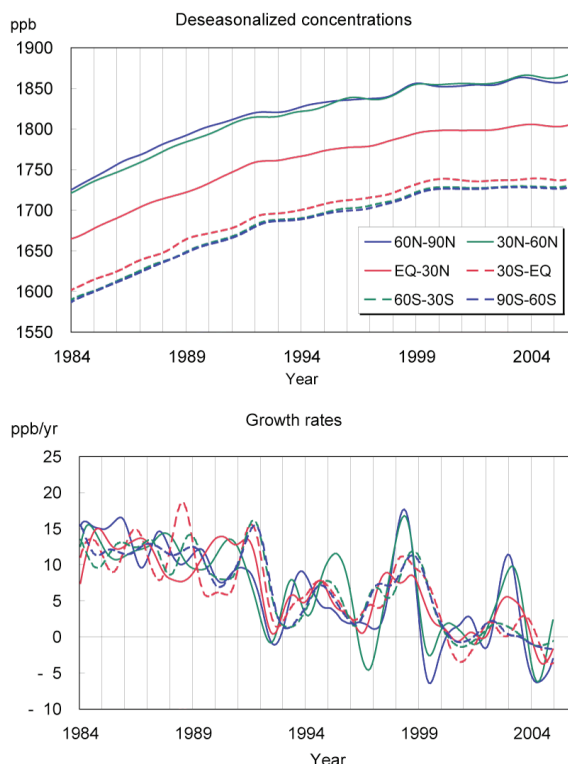


Fig. 4.3 Deseasonalized long-term trends (top) and growth rates (bottom) for each 30° latitudinal zone.

Figure 4.4 shows the interannual variations in global mean growth rate and global surface temperature anomaly. The global CH₄ growth rate fluctuated with global mean temperature anomalies in the 1990s, particularly during the period 1990-1998. High temperature anomalies result in increased CH₄ emission from wetlands and increased removal by increased OH radical levels (Bekki and Low, 1997). The relationship between global growth rate and temperature anomalies showed that the former effect exceeds the latter globally. A study of the relationship between CH₄ mixing ratios in ice cores or firn layers and global temperature anomalies also suggested that a large growth rate for the CH₄ mixing ratio follows a high global mean temperature (Etheridge *et al.*, 1998). However, the global mean growth rate, except in 1990-1998, did not correspond with the global surface temperature anomaly in the same decade. This suggests that, except during this period, the global increase rate could have been caused by factors other than the global temperature anomaly.

The large increase in 1991 may have been caused by decreased OH radical levels due to a reduction in UV radiation as a result of the eruption of Mt. Pinatubo in 1991 (Dlugokencky *et al.*, 1996). The following decrease in 1992 may have been due to an increase in

the OH radical mixing ratio as a result of stratospheric ozone depletion following the eruption of Mt. Pinatubo in 1991 (Bekki *et al.*, 1994). However, analysis of monsoon activity suggested that decrease in emission from wetlands and rice paddy fields, due to low temperatures, and more abundant decomposition due to dryness, may have involved (Lelieveld *et al.*, 1998). On the other hand, carbon isotope observations suggested that the decrease in 1992 was probably caused by reduction in the emission of CH₄ from biomass burning at low latitudes (Lowe *et al.*, 1997).

Growth rates were large in 1998 for all latitudinal zones. Dlugokencky *et al.* (2001) suggested that the large growth rates in 1998 were due to increased emissions from the northern high latitudinal zones and the tropical wetlands due to high temperatures and increased precipitation, and partly due to the influence of biomass burning of the boreal forest mainly in Siberia. On the other hand, Morimoto *et al.* (2006) estimated from isotope observations that the contribution of biomass burning to the 1998 increase was about a half of those of wetlands. The growth rates decreased afterward, but the growth rates increased again, corresponding to the occurrence of the 2002/2003 El-Niño event.

The global growth rate reached a maximum in June 1984 at 13.4 ppb/year, and after the 1990s was generally lower than during the 1980s. The global mean growth rate was 11.5 ppb/year for 1984-1990 and 2.8 ppb/year for 1995-2005. The global growth rate was almost zero in 2000-2001, suggesting that the global CH₄ budget was in a steady-state.

Lelieveld *et al.* (1998) noted that the decrease in global emission of CH₄ brought about a reduction in CH₄ growth rate in the 1990s. Bousquet *et al.*, (2006) pointed out that the decreased growth rate in the 1990s was caused by reduced emission from anthropogenic sources, but after 1999 the increased anthropogenic emission may be offset by emission reduction from wetlands. On the other hand, Fiore *et al.* (2006) showed using the global tropospheric chemical transport model that the decrease in CH₄ growth rate resulted from an increase in tropospheric OH and a lower tropospheric warming that accelerates CH₄ destruction by OH radicals. They indicate that greater convective activity and subsequent production of NO_x by lightning, due to warmer temperature, increases the OH radicals concentration in the troposphere.

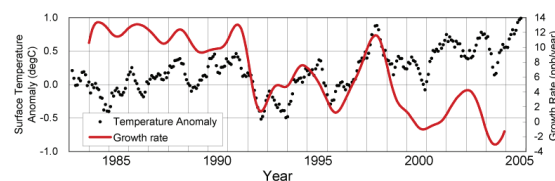


Fig. 4.4 Time series of the global mean CH₄ growth rates and their comparison with temperature anomalies on land from NCEP reanalysis data. The solid lines show the growth rates, and the dots show temperature anomalies (5-month running mean).

Seasonal cycle of CH₄ in the atmosphere

Figure 4.5 shows average seasonal cycles for each of the 30° latitudinal zones. Seasonal cycles are brought about mainly by reaction with OH radicals, a major CH₄ sink in the atmosphere. The strength and timing of the emission from CH₄ sources, such as wetlands and biomass burning, along with transportation of CH₄, also affect the seasonal cycle. The amplitudes of the seasonal cycle were large in the Northern Hemisphere. Unlike CO₂, amplitudes were large in the Southern Hemisphere except at low latitudes. The CH₄ seasonal cycle showed a minimum in summer and a maximum in winter in both hemispheres. The seasonal variation of CH₄ is almost consistent with OH radicals reacting with the CH₄. Southern low latitudes have a distinct semi-annual component, which is superimposed on the annual component of the seasonal cycle at southern mid-latitudes. The secondary maximum occurred in boreal winter due to the trans-hemisphere transportation of CH₄ from the Northern Hemisphere. This phenomenon was seen at stations located in the western Indian Ocean, *e.g.*, Mahe Island and the Seychelles, and in the western and central equatorial Pacific, *e.g.*, Cape Matatula and Samoa.

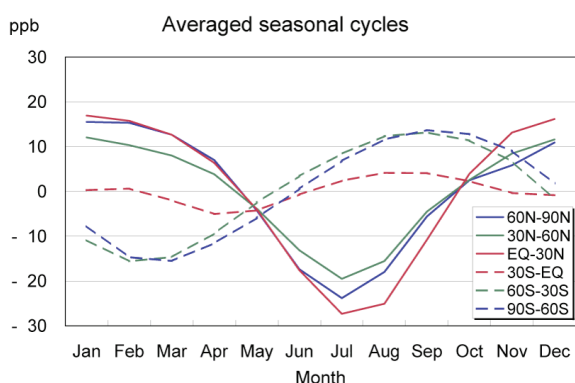


Fig. 4.5 Average seasonal cycles for each 30° latitudinal zone from which the long-term trends were subtracted.

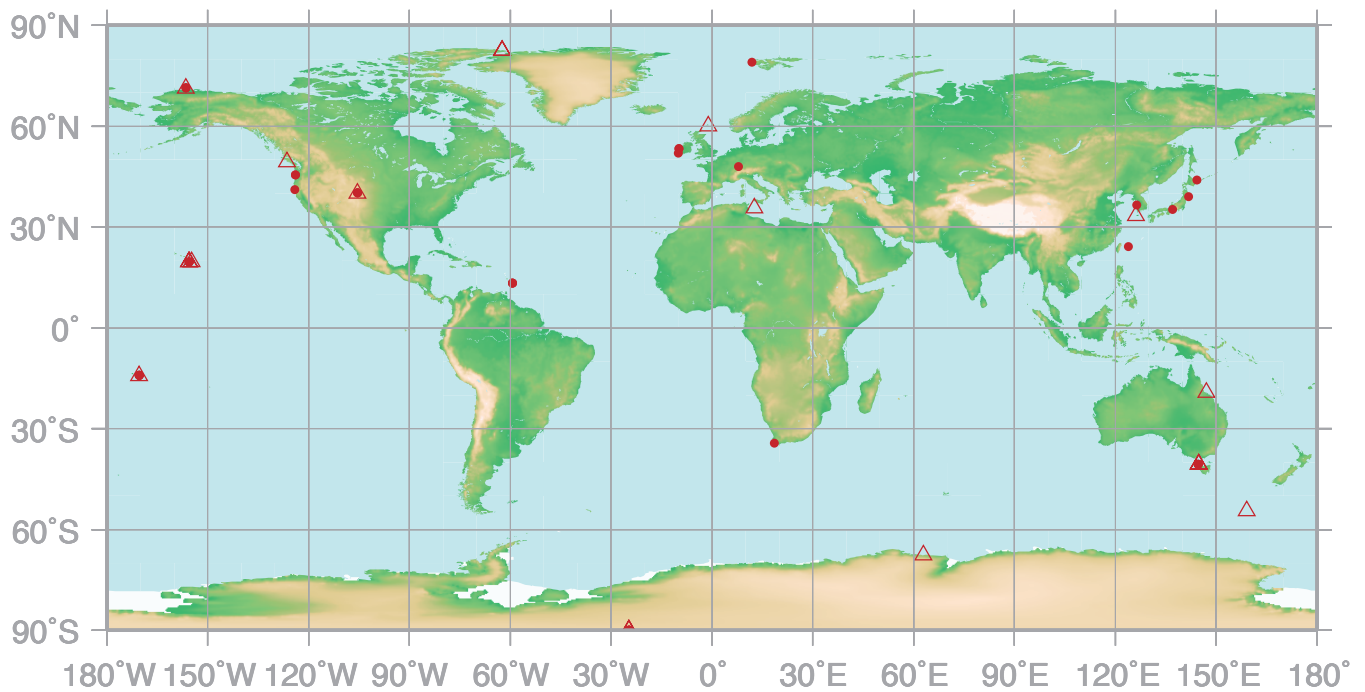
5.

NITROUS OXIDE

(N₂O)

● : IN SITU STATION

△ : FLASK STATION



This map shows locations of the site where the monthly mean mixing ratios are submitted.

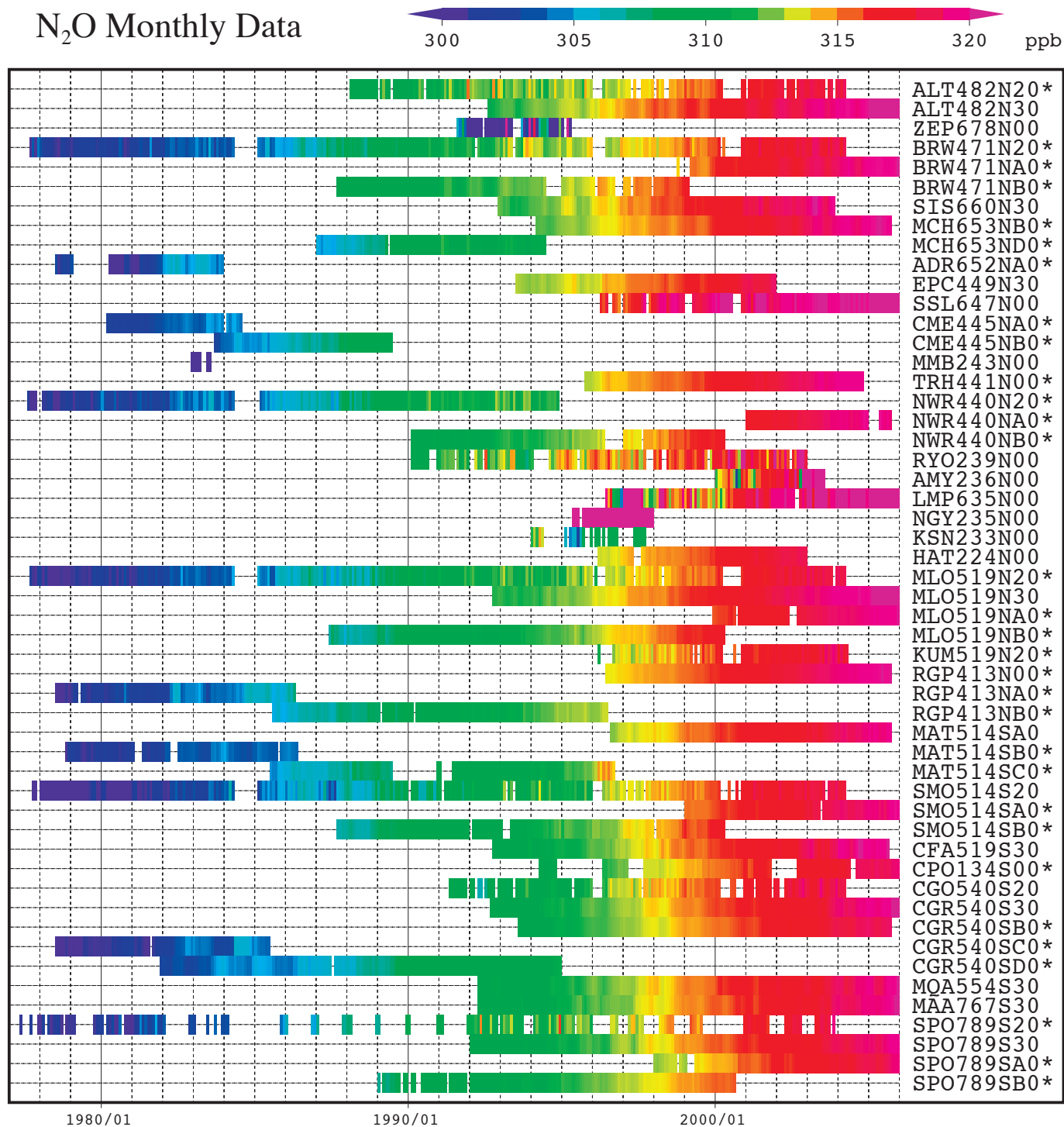


Plate 5.1 Monthly mean N₂O mixing ratios for all sites reported to the WDCGG illustrated in colors that change with the mixing ratio. The sites are set from north to south. Site index with an asterisk shows the site used in the analysis shown in Fig. 5.1. (see Chapter 2)

5. Nitrous Oxide (N₂O)

Basic information on N₂O with regard to environmental issues

Nitrous oxide (N₂O), which is a relatively stable gas in the troposphere, is a greenhouse gas with an “adjustment-time” of 114 years. Radiative forcing due to the increase of N₂O from 1750 to 2000 is estimated at 0.15 W/m², which is 6% of the total from all of the long-lived and globally mixed greenhouse gases (IPCC, 2001). The atmospheric mixing ratio of N₂O increased steadily from about 270 ppb in pre-industrial times and is now 18.2% higher than in 1750.

N₂O is emitted into the atmosphere from natural and anthropogenic sources, including the oceans, soil, combustion of fuels, biomass burning, fertiliser use and various industrial processes. One-third of the total amount of emission is considered to be from anthropogenic sources. N₂O is removed from the atmosphere mainly by photo-dissociation in the stratosphere. However, even at this stage, the estimated amounts from sources and sinks have not yet been balanced.

Annual variation of N₂O in the atmosphere

The map at the beginning of this chapter shows

observation sites that have submitted N₂O data to the WDCGG. The monthly mean N₂O data from all stations submitted to the WDCGG are shown in Plate 5.1. In this plate, mixing ratio levels are illustrated in different colours. Data for N₂O submitted to the WDCGG show that mixing ratios are increasing in both hemispheres. Figure 5.1 shows the global monthly mean mixing ratios with the long-term trends from 1988 to 2005. The global mean mixing ratio reached a new high in 2005 at 319.2, which increased by 0.6 ppb from the year before. This mixing ratio corresponds to 118.2% of the pre-industrial level. The mean increase rate of the global mean mixing ratio during the period 1995–2005 was 0.74 ppb/year.

At some stations, the average growth rate (yearly difference of mixing ratio) decreased considerably between 1991 and 1993, but then returned to almost the same rate as that observed during the 1980s. This was suggested to be due to a decrease in the use of nitrogen-based fertilisers, lower biogenic emissions and larger stratospheric losses due to volcanic-induced circulation changes (IPCC, 2001).

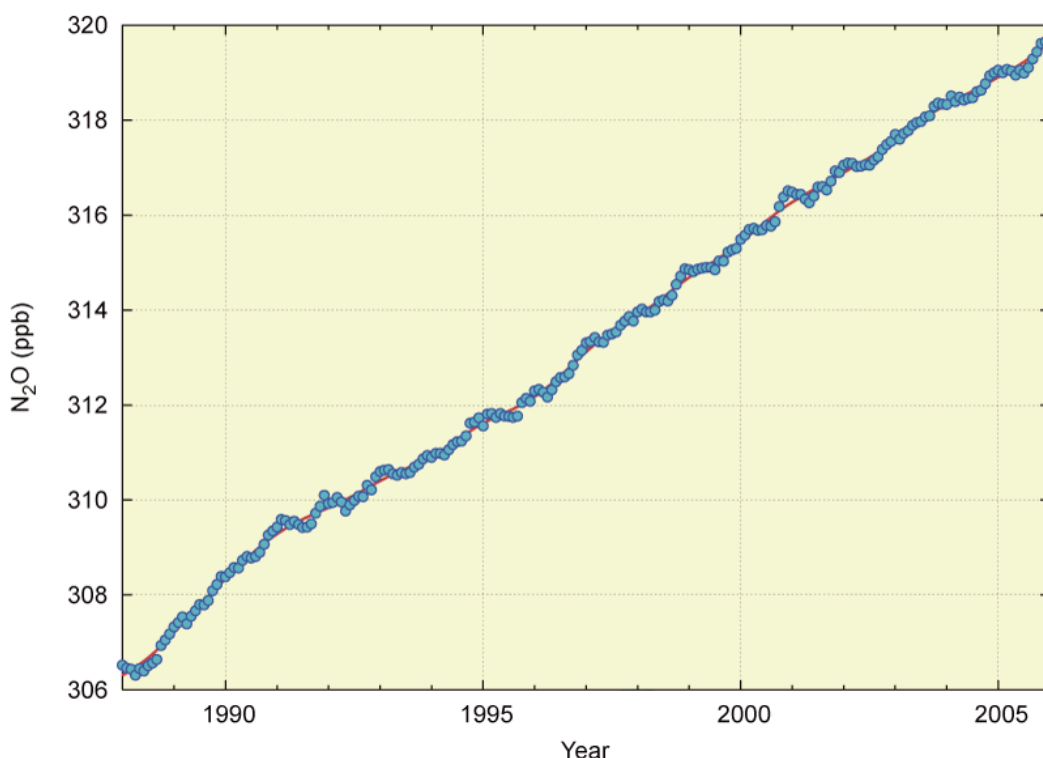


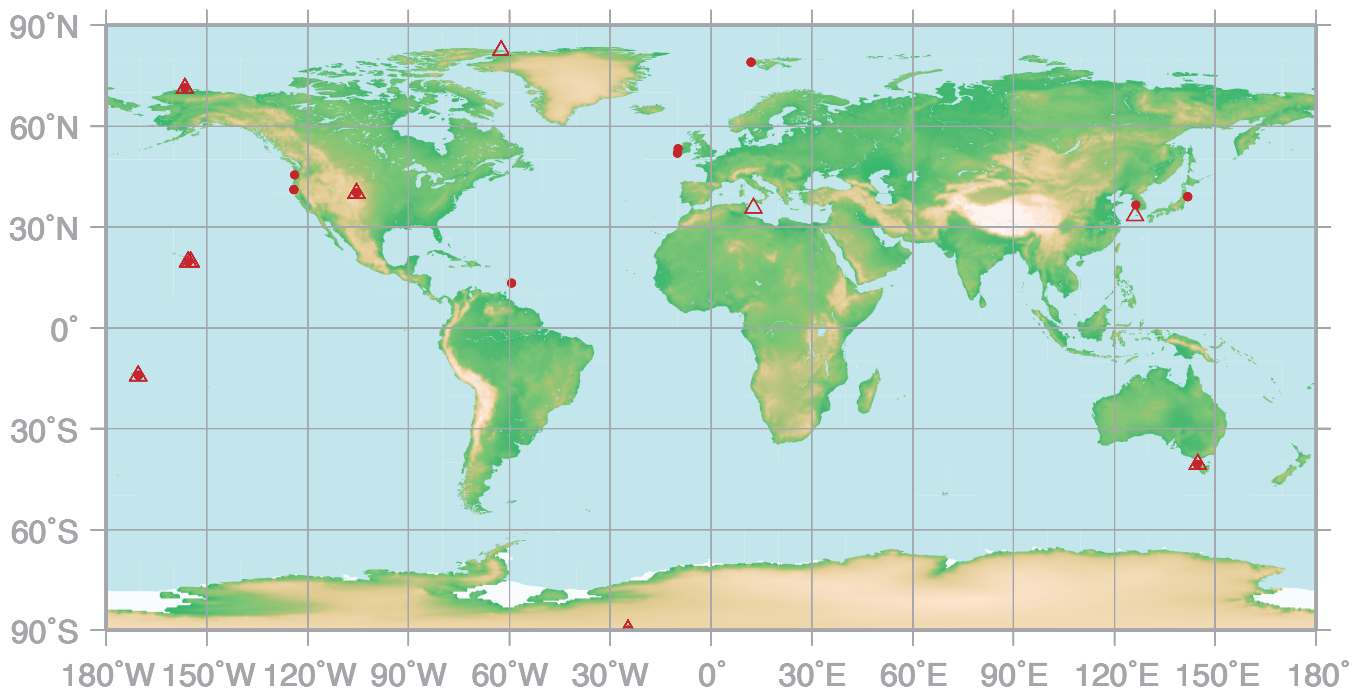
Fig. 5.1 Monthly mean mixing ratios (dots) and deseasonalized long-term trends (lines) from 1988 to 2005 for the globe.

6.

HALOCARBONS

● : IN SITU STATION

△ : FLASK STATION



This map shows locations of the site where the monthly mean mixing ratios are submitted.

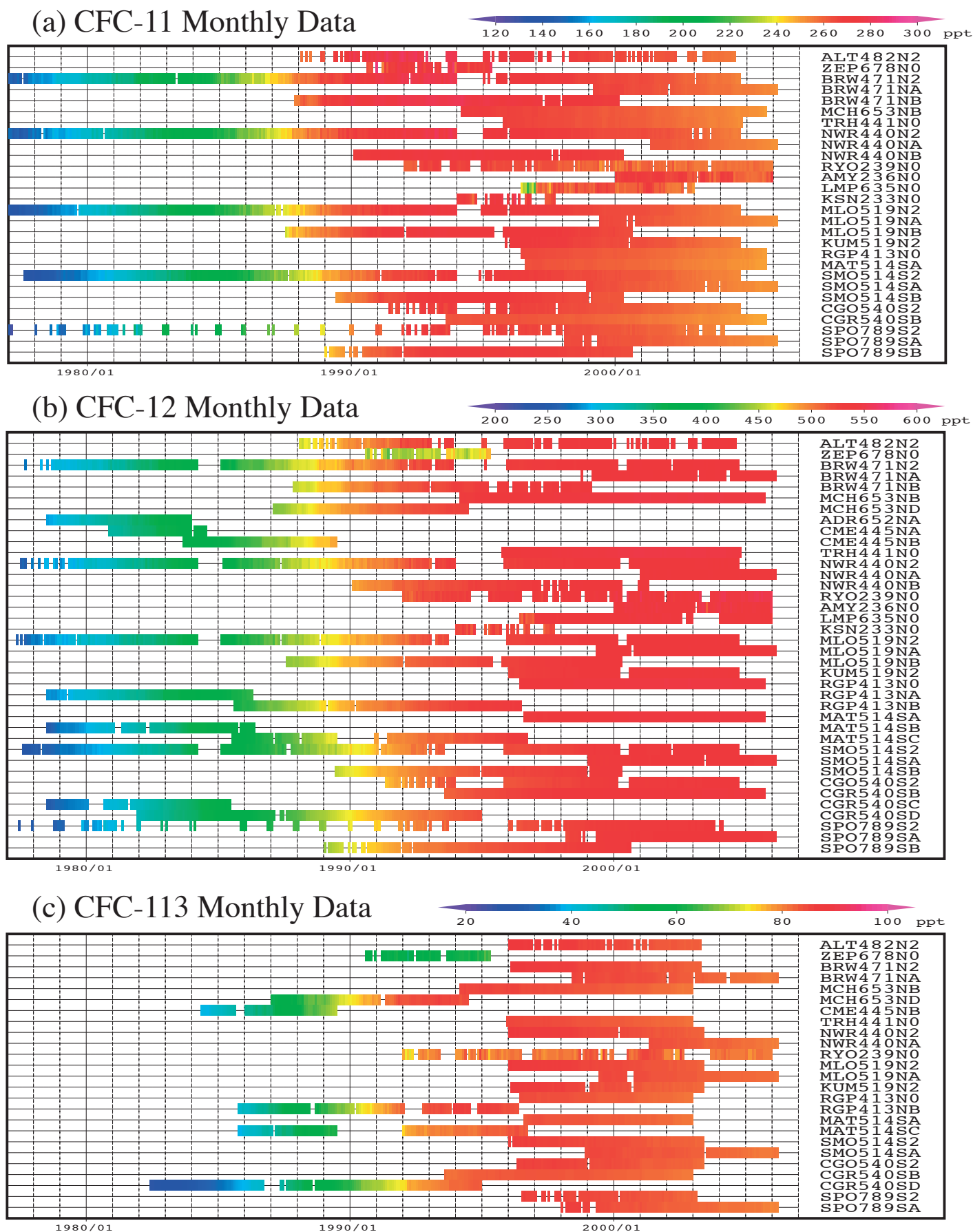


Plate 6.1 Monthly mean (a) CFC-11, (b) CFC-12, (c) CFC-113 mixing ratios for all sites reported to the WDCGG illustrated in colors that change with the mixing ratio. The sites are set from north to south.

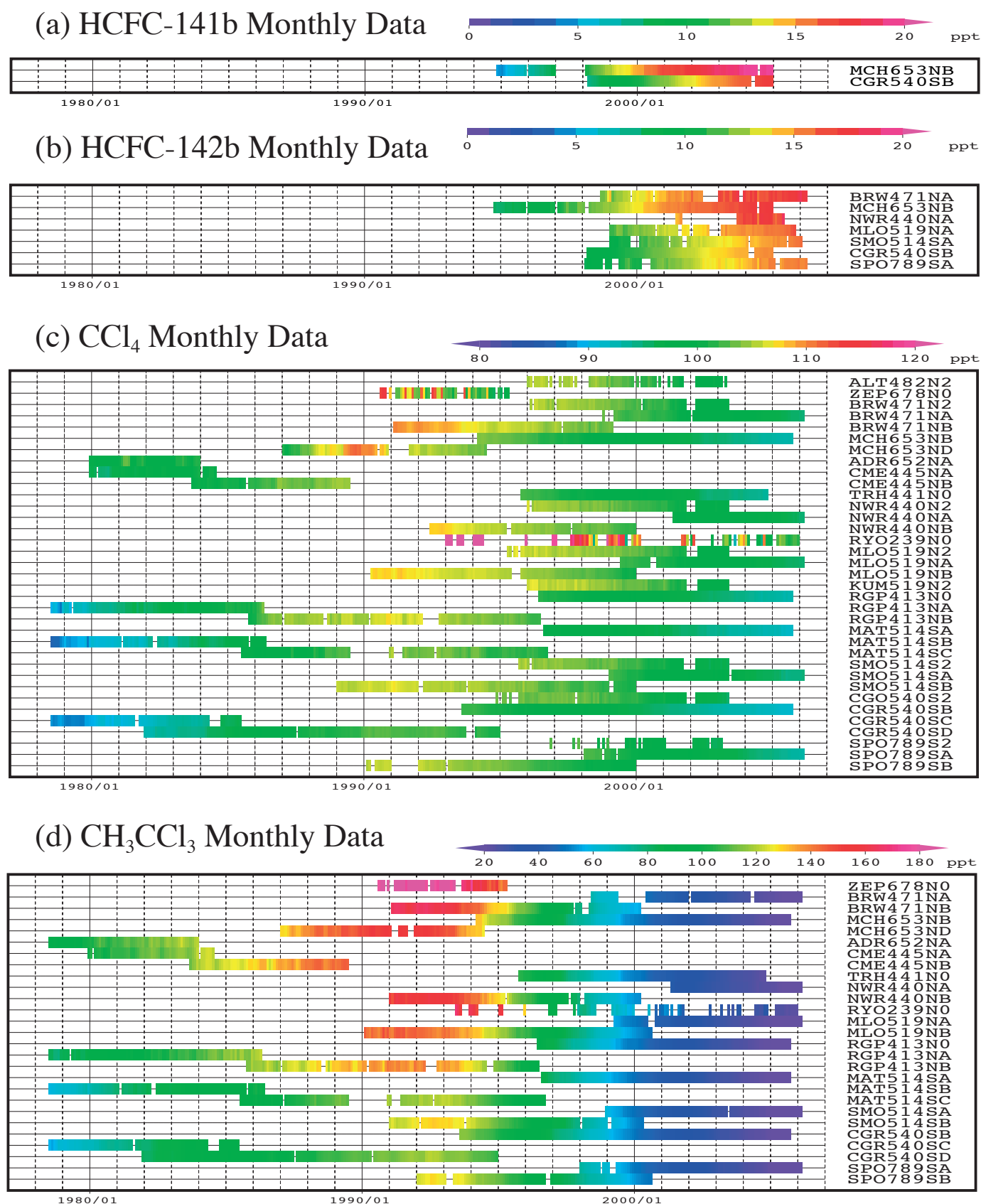


Plate 6.2 Monthly mean (a) HCFC-141b, (b) HCFC-142b, (c) CCl₄, (d) CH₃CCl₃ mixing ratios for all sites reported to the WDCGG illustrated in colors that change with the mixing ratio. The sites are set from north to south.

6. Halocarbons (CFCs, HCFCs, CCl₄ and CH₃CCl₃)

Basic information on halocarbons with regard to environmental issues

“Halocarbon” is a general term for carbon compounds containing one or more halogens, *i.e.*, fluorine, chlorine, bromine or iodine. Most of the halocarbons are industrial products. The chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) are halocarbons containing fluorine and chlorine but no hydrogen, while hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) also contain hydrogen. Carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄) and methyl chloroform (CH₃CCl₃) are produced industrially, while methyl chloride and methyl bromide are halocarbons with natural sources. Halocarbons have very low mixing ratios in the atmosphere, but most have large global warming potential. Thus, halocarbons contributed 14% of radiative forcing caused by the increases in levels of long-lived and globally mixed greenhouse gases from 1750 to 2000 (IPCC, 2001).

Halocarbons are clear, odourless, and innocuous substances, which are readily gasified and liquefied and have low surface tension. Thus, they were commonly used as refrigerants, propellant and detergents for semiconductors, which resulted in a rapid increase in their atmospheric mixing ratios until the mid-1980s. Halocarbons containing chlorine and bromine were found to deplete the ozone layer. The Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer and its Adjustments and Amendments regulate the production and transportation of ozone-depleting compounds. As a result, global mixing ratios of CFC-11, CCl₄ and CH₃CCl₃ have begun to decrease; the global growth of CFC-113 stopped around 1996, and that of CFC-12 has decelerated substantially.

A decrease in stratospheric ozone leads to the cooling of the lower stratosphere. However, the increase in halocarbons has a net positive radiative forcing effect on global warming because the positive direct radiative forcing of halocarbons is greater than the negative indirect radiative forcing due to ozone depletion (WMO, 1999a).

CFCs are dissociated mainly by ultraviolet radiation in the stratosphere, and their lifetimes are generally long (*e.g.*, about 50 years for CFC-11). However, HCFCs and CH₃CCl₃, which contain hydrogen, react with hydroxyl radicals (OH) in the troposphere and thus have relatively short lifetimes (*e.g.*, about 5 years for CH₃CCl₃). As the reaction with OH in the troposphere is a major sink for CH₃CCl₃, global measurements of CH₃CCl₃ provide an accurate estimate of the global mixing ratio of OH (Prinn *et al.*, 2001).

Annual variation of halocarbons in the atmosphere

The map at the beginning of this chapter shows observation sites that have submitted halocarbon data to the WDCGG. The monthly mean CFC-11, CFC-12, and CFC-113 data from all stations submitted to the WDCGG are shown in Plate 6.1. The monthly mean HCFC-141b, HCFC-142b, CCl₄ and CH₃CCl₃ data from all stations submitted to the WDCGG are shown in Plate 6.2. Figure 6.1 shows the time series of monthly mean mixing ratios of CFC-11, CFC-12 and CFC-113.

Figures 6.2 and 6.3 show the corresponding data for HCFCs, and CCl₄ and CH₃CCl₃, respectively. All monthly data from each station are plotted in these figures. The absolute values of mixing ratios differ for some stations, suggesting that standard gases may not be traceable at those stations.

Figures 6.1 and 6.3 showed significant increases in mixing ratios of all compounds during the 1980s in both hemispheres. Long-term trends since around 1990 for each compound are as follows:

CFC-11:	Mixing ratios were at a maximum around 1992 in the Northern Hemisphere and about one year later in the Southern Hemisphere. They have been decreasing slowly since then.
CFC-12:	The growth rates have declined since around 1990 and are now nearly zero in both hemispheres.
CFC-113:	Mixing ratios were at a maximum around 1992 in the Northern Hemisphere and around 1997 in the Southern Hemisphere. Mixing ratios are decreasing slowly in both hemispheres.
HCFC-141b:	Mixing ratios are increasing.
HCFC-142b:	Mixing ratios are increasing.
CCl ₄ :	Mixing ratios were at a maximum around 1991 in both hemispheres. Since then, they have been decreasing slowly.
CH ₃ CCl ₃ :	Mixing ratios were at a maximum around 1992 in the Northern Hemisphere and around 1993 in the Southern Hemisphere. They have been decreasing since then.

Comparison of the stations using identical standard gases revealed that the mixing ratio differences between the two hemispheres were large for all compounds except HCFCs in the 1980s. However, the differences have been decreasing for each since they peaked. The increases in mixing ratios of HCFCs are the result of their continued use as substitutes for CFCs.

The mixing ratios of HCFCs, which are some of the industrial replacements of CFCs, are increasing.

Based on the special report from Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) and Technology and Economic Assessment Panel (TEAP) (IPCC/TEAP, 2005), they are increasing at rapid rates of 3-7%, although their mixing ratios are small.

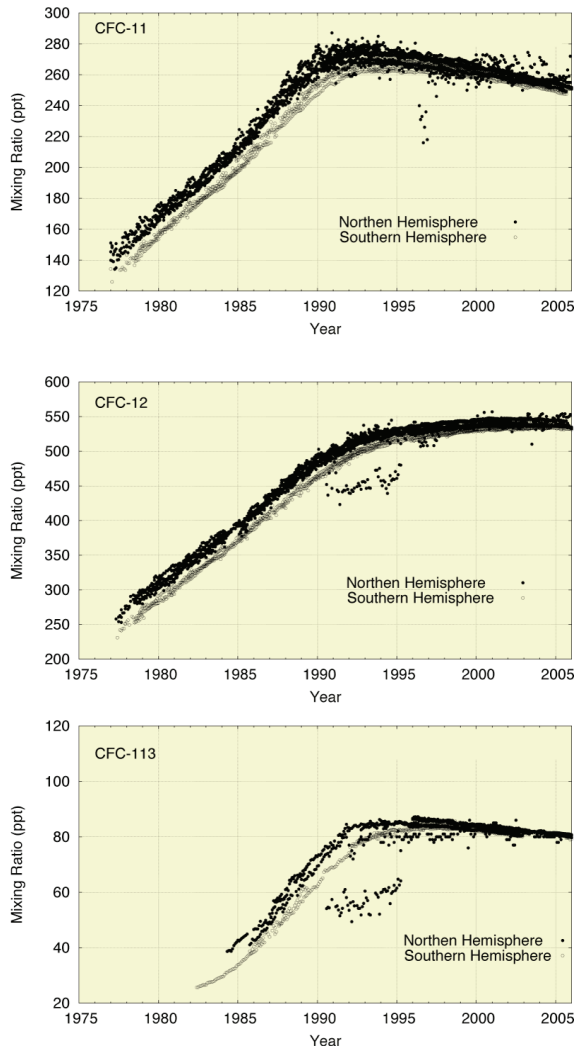


Fig. 6.1 Time series of monthly mean mixing ratios of CFC-11, CFC-12 and CFC-113. Solid circles show the sites located in the Northern Hemisphere and open circles show the sites located in the Southern Hemisphere. Data at all sites reported to the WDCGG are shown.

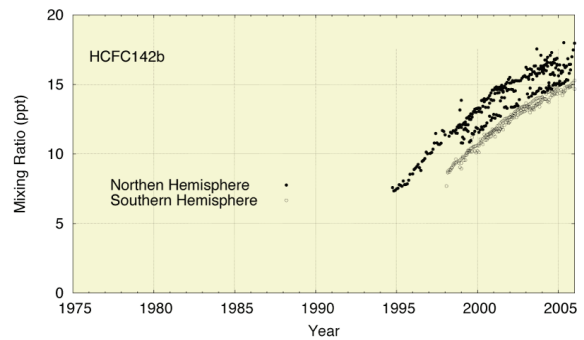
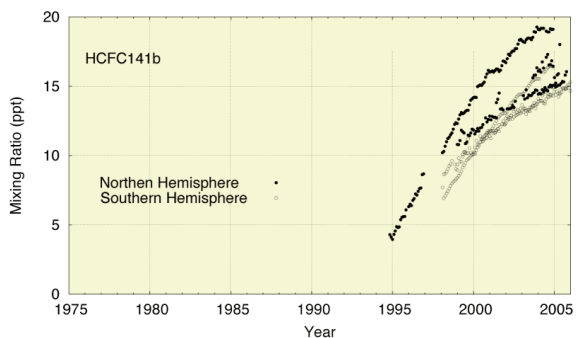


Fig. 6.2 Time series of monthly mean mixing ratios of HCFC-141b and HCFC-142b. Solid circles show the sites located in the Northern Hemisphere and open circles show the sites located in the Southern Hemisphere. Data at all sites reported to the WDCGG are shown.

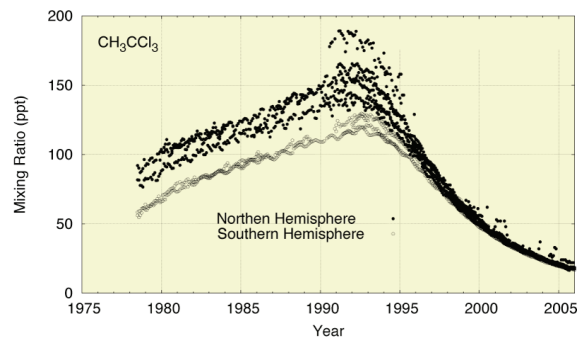
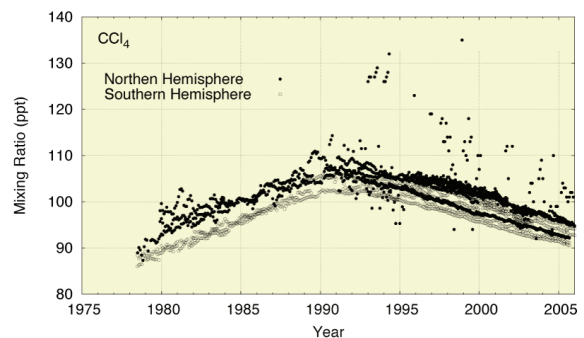
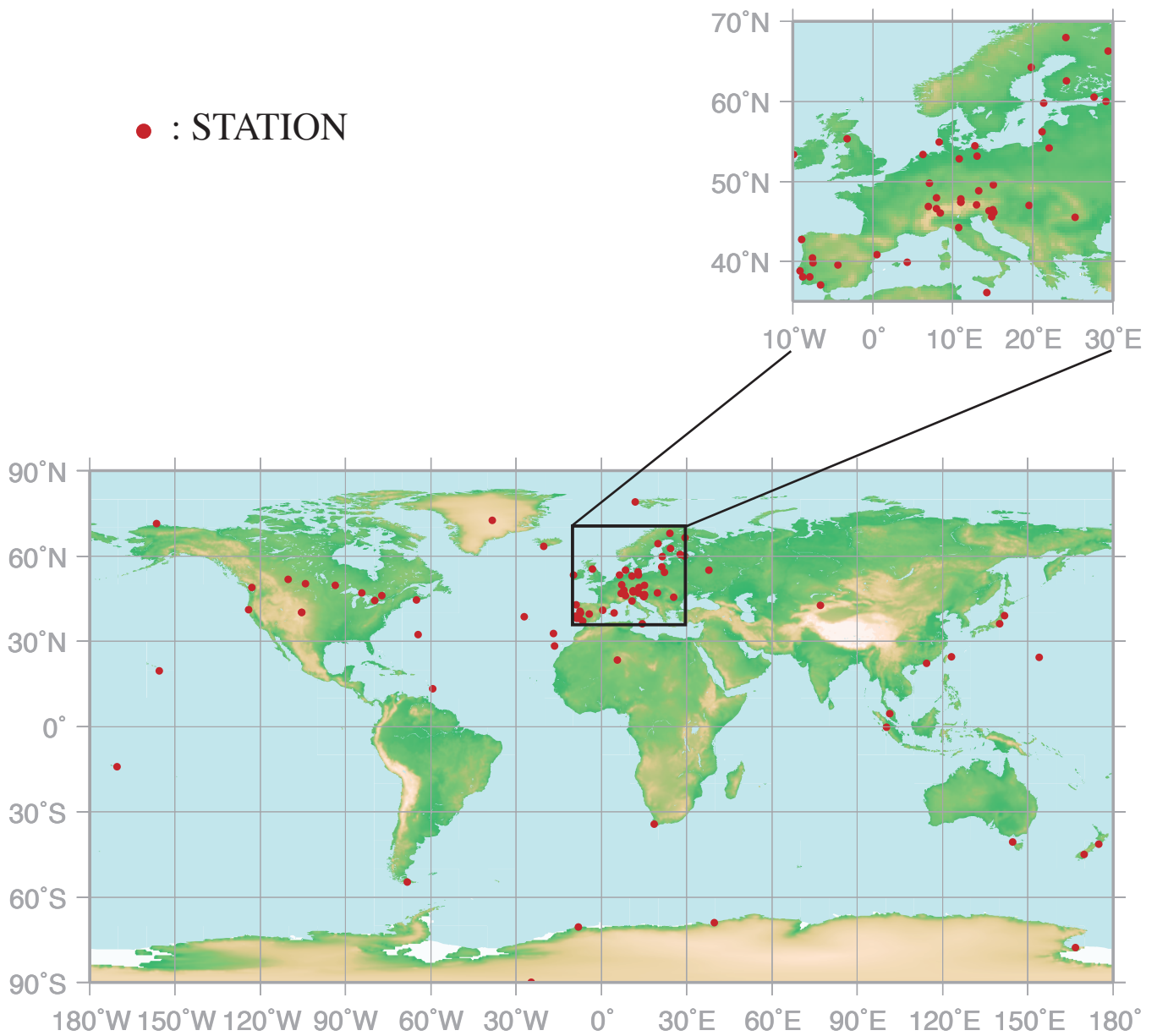


Fig. 6.3 Time series of monthly mean mixing ratios of CCl_4 and CH_3CCl_3 . Solid circles show the sites located in the Northern Hemisphere and open circles show the sites located in the Southern Hemisphere. Data at all sites reported to the WDCGG are shown.

7.

Surface OZONE (O₃)

● : STATION



This map shows locations of the site where the monthly mean mixing ratios are submitted.

O₃ Monthly Data

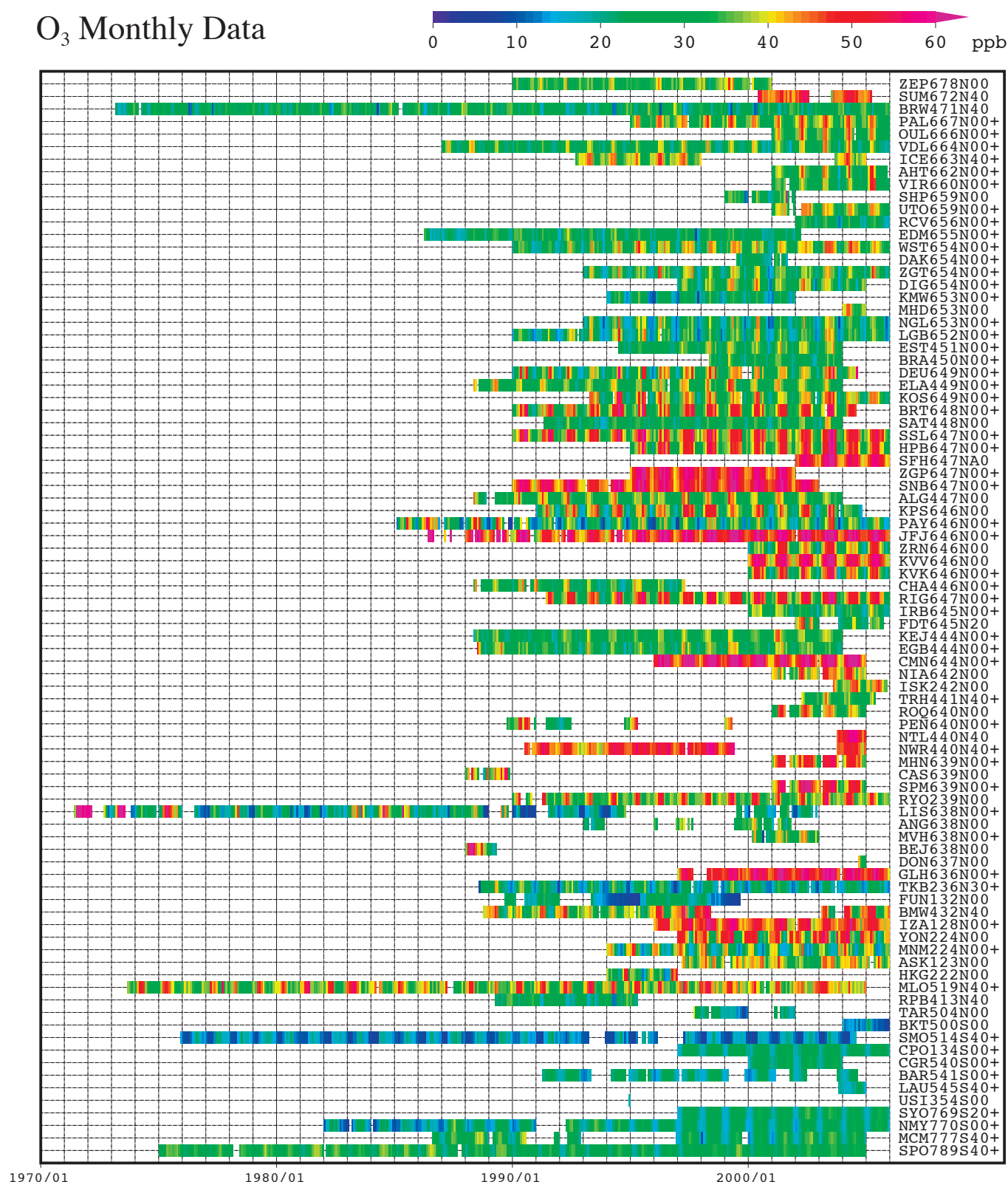


Plate 7.1 Monthly mean O₃ mixing ratios for all sites reported to the WDCGG illustrated in colors that change with the mixing ratio. The sites are set from north to south. It is shown that a cross incidental to station index is one peak type in the analysis shown in Fig 7.1.

7. Surface Ozone (O₃)

Basic information on surface ozone (O₃) with regard to environmental issues

Most ozone (O₃) in the atmosphere exists in the stratosphere, with less than 10% being in the troposphere. However, O₃ in the troposphere plays an important role in the atmospheric environment through radiative and chemical processes. O₃ absorbs UV radiation in the stratosphere, and this energy influences the temperature vertical profile and circulation in the stratosphere. O₃ also absorbs IR radiation, and is thus one of the greenhouse gases in the troposphere. This effect is more significant in the upper troposphere, and tropospheric O₃ is the third most important greenhouse gas after CO₂ and CH₄ (IPCC, 2001). In the tropics and the Arctic, where warming is accelerated compared with other regions, the tropospheric ozone originating from developing countries and the Northern Hemisphere extratropics could play significant role in addition to well-mixed greenhouse gases such as CO₂ and CH₄.

O₃ constitutes most of the oxidants that form photochemical smog, and high mixing ratio of O₃ harm our respiratory organs and skin. Furthermore, O₃ produces OH radicals after reacting with water vapour under UV radiation. Since OH radicals control atmospheric mixing ratios of many greenhouse gases, such as CH₄ through chemical reactions, tropospheric O₃ greatly impacts tropospheric chemistry.

Surface O₃ is estimated to have increased since pre-industrial times (IPCC, 2001). From the comparison between the observation results at high altitudes from the end of the 19th Century to the first half of 20th Century and around 1990, global increases in tropospheric ozone were alarming as well as urban areas (Staehelin *et al.*, 1994). However, ozone sonde data in the troposphere show almost stable or decreasing trends in the middle latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere (Oltmans *et al.*, 2006).

The sources of tropospheric O₃ are intrusions from the stratosphere and photochemical production. Major intrusions from the stratosphere occur by tropopause folding accompanied with low pressure activity in the middle and high latitudes, and unstable mixing in the vicinity of the tropopause around cold vortexes, etc. These intrusions occur around meandering parts of the jet stream. Photochemical production occurs by the reactions of nitrogen oxides with CO and non-methane hydrocarbons under solar radiation (these substances are called “O₃ precursors”). At the same time, O₃ is destroyed mainly through chemical reactions with OH radicals and deposition at the Earth’s surface. The lifetime of tropospheric ozone varies from one or a few days in the boundary layer to few tens days or even a few months in the free troposphere.

The latitudinal distributions of O₃ in the middle troposphere have high mixing ratios in the middle and high latitudes in both hemispheres, and low mixing ratios in the tropics, as shown by Marengo and Said (1989) over the Atlantic Ocean and by Tsutsumi *et al.* (2003) over the Pacific Ocean. As sources are localized and their lifetimes are generally short, the distribution of surface O₃ is also localized and time-variant.

Annual variation of surface O₃

The WDCGG took over the role of the World Data Centre for surface O₃ in August 2002. The monthly mean O₃ data from all stations submitted to the WDCGG are shown in Plate 7.1. The map at the beginning of this chapter also shows observation sites that have submitted O₃ data to the WDCGG. In the plate, mixing ratio levels are illustrated by different colours. Please note that the data on surface O₃ is reported in two units, *i.e.*, mixing ratio (ppb) and weight per volume (µg/m³) at 25°C. Weights per volume (µg/m³) are converted to mixing ratios (ppb) as follows:

$$X_p [\text{ppb}] = (R * T / M / P_0) * 10 * X_g [\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3]$$

where R is the molar gas constant (8.31451 [J/K/mol]),

T is the absolute temperature reported by an individual station,

M is the molecular weight of O₃ (47.9982), and

P₀ is the standard pressure (1013.25 [hPa]).

The mixing ratio of surface O₃ varies from station to station, many of which are located in Europe. Moreover, the seasonal and interannual variation is relatively large at most stations and so it is difficult to identify a global long-term trend in surface O₃ mixing ratios.

Figures 7.1 and 7.2 show average seasonal cycles from which the long-term trends were subtracted for each 30° latitudinal zone of a single- or multi-peak type. The seasonal cycles for each site can be divided into two types: a single-peak type that has a maximum monthly mean, and a multi-peak type that has more than one annual maximum. The maximum mixing ratio of the single-peak type appears in April in northern high and low latitudes and in May in northern mid-latitudes. The delayed peak in the mid-latitudes may be attributed to air pollution in Europe given that most mid-latitude stations are located on this continent. Relatively high spring maximum mixing ratios were observed at Sonnblick, Niwot Ridge, Assekrem and

Mauna Loa, all of which are located at high altitudes (higher than 2700 m).

The second peak of the seasonal cycle of the multi-peak type for the 60N-30N zone around August is not so clear because O_3 tends to be dispersed around this time.

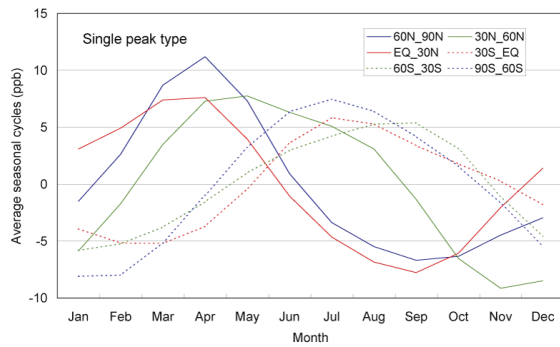


Fig. 7.1 Average seasonal cycles of single-peak type for each 30° latitudinal zone from which the long-term trends were subtracted.

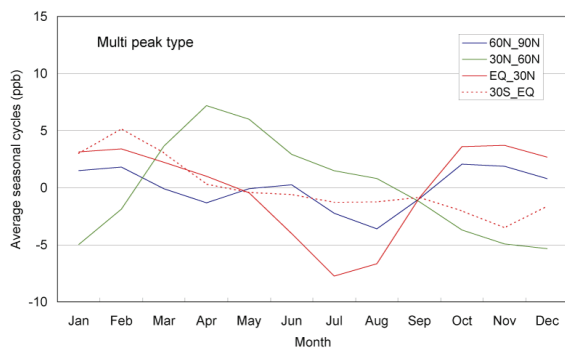
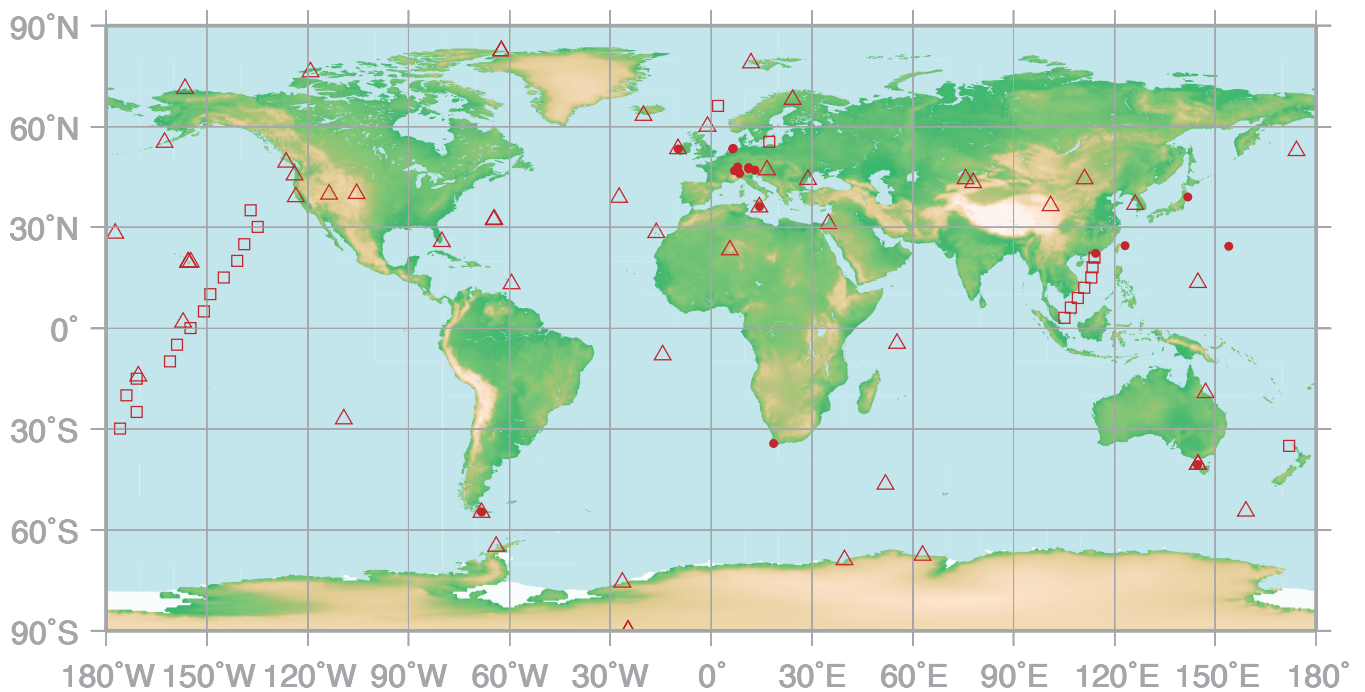


Fig. 7.2 Average seasonal cycles of multi-peak type for each 30° latitudinal zone from which the long-term trends were subtracted.

8.

CARBON MONOXIDE (CO)

- : IN SITU STATION
- △ : FLASK STATION
- : FLASK SAMPLING (SHIP)



This map shows locations of the site where the monthly mean mixing ratios are submitted.

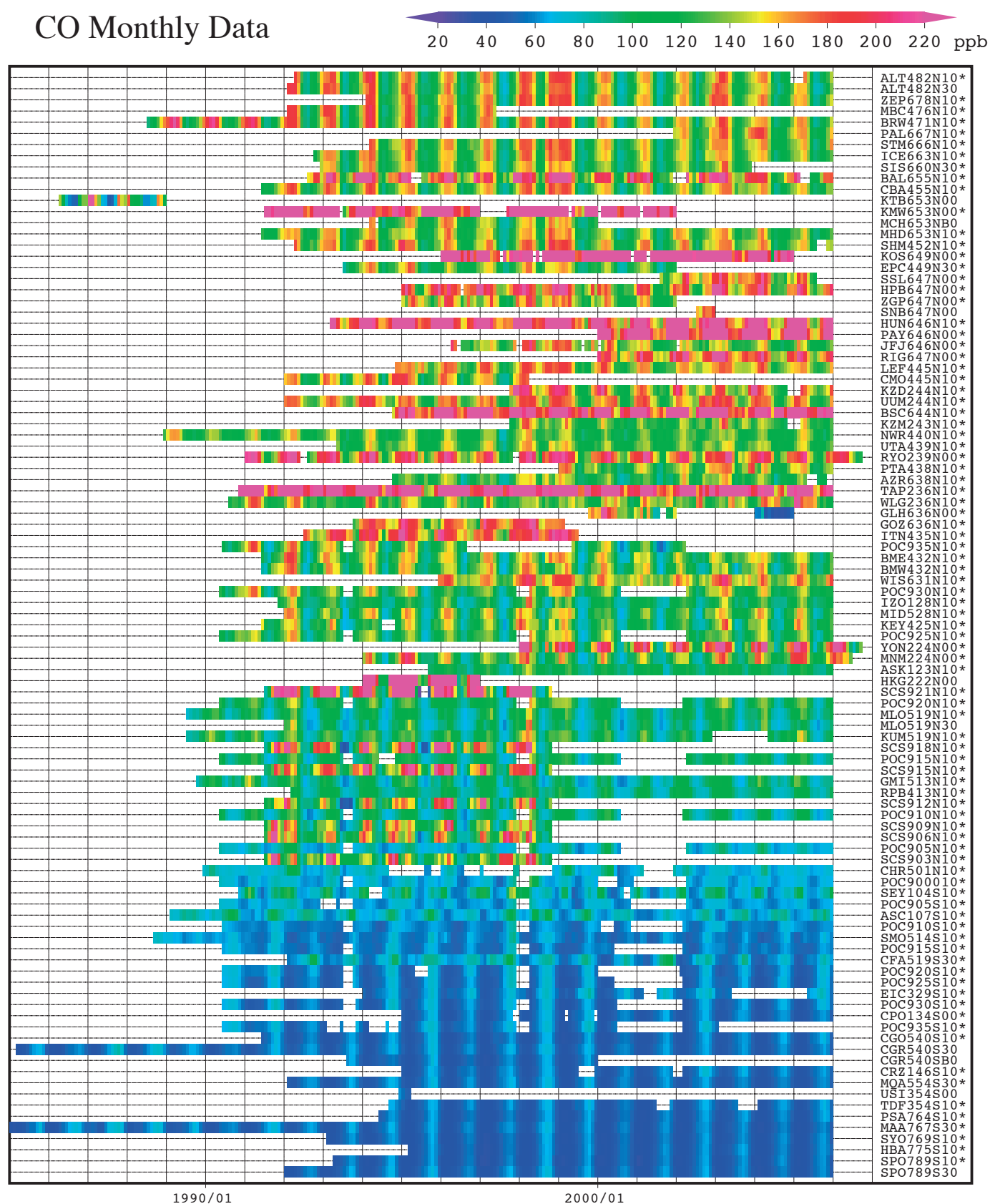
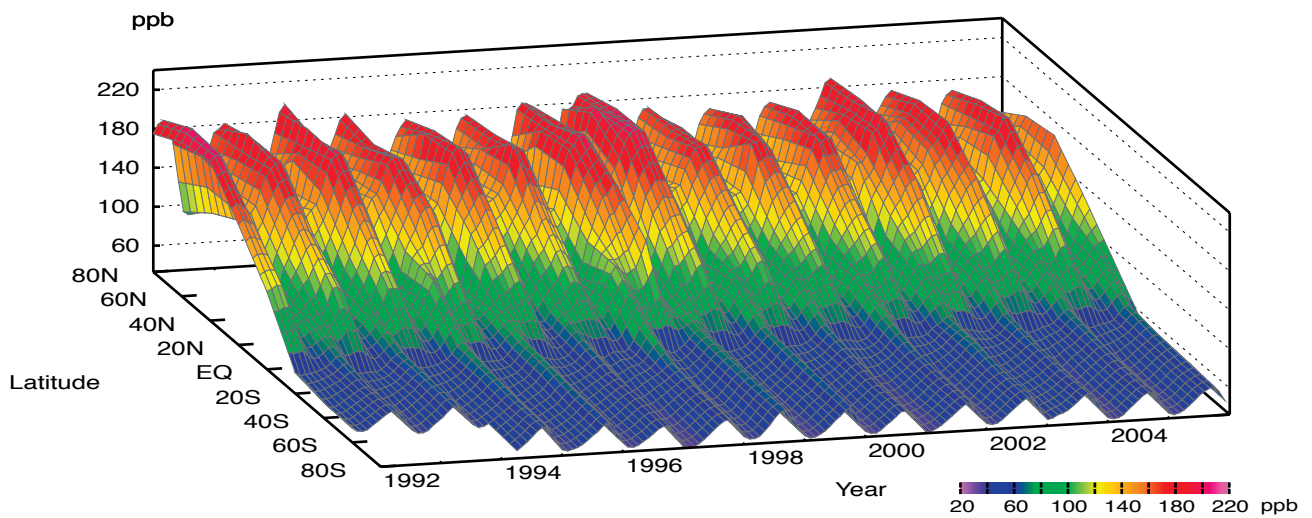
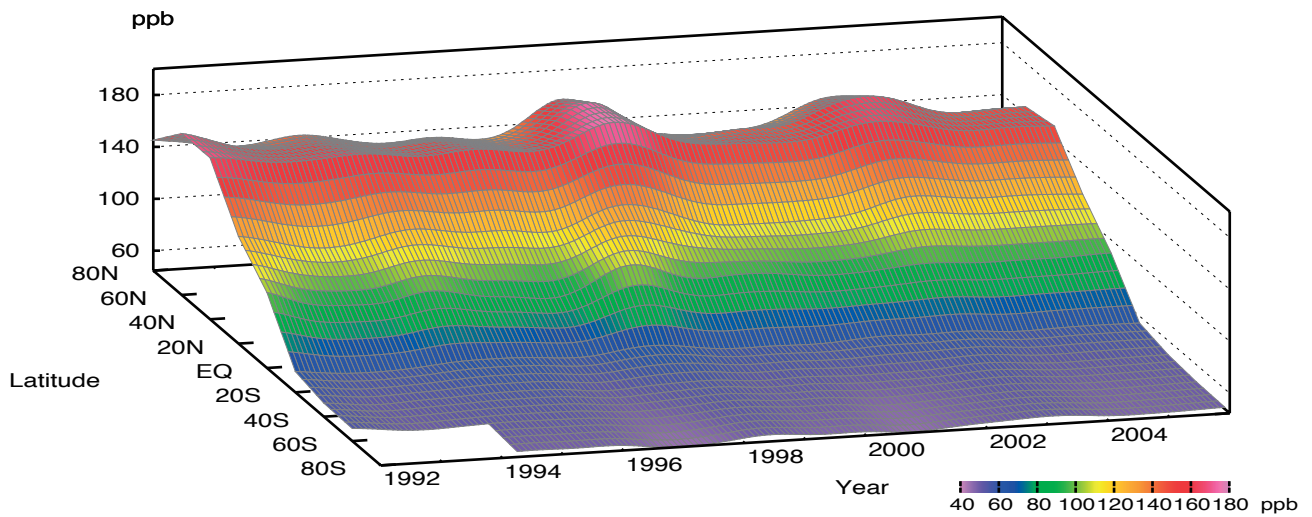


Plate 8.1 Monthly mean mixing ratios of CO for all stations reported to the WDCGG. The stations are set from north to south. Station index with an asterisk shows the station used in the analysis shown in Plate 8.2. (see Chapter 2)

CO mixing ratio



CO deseasonalized mixing ratio



CO growth rate

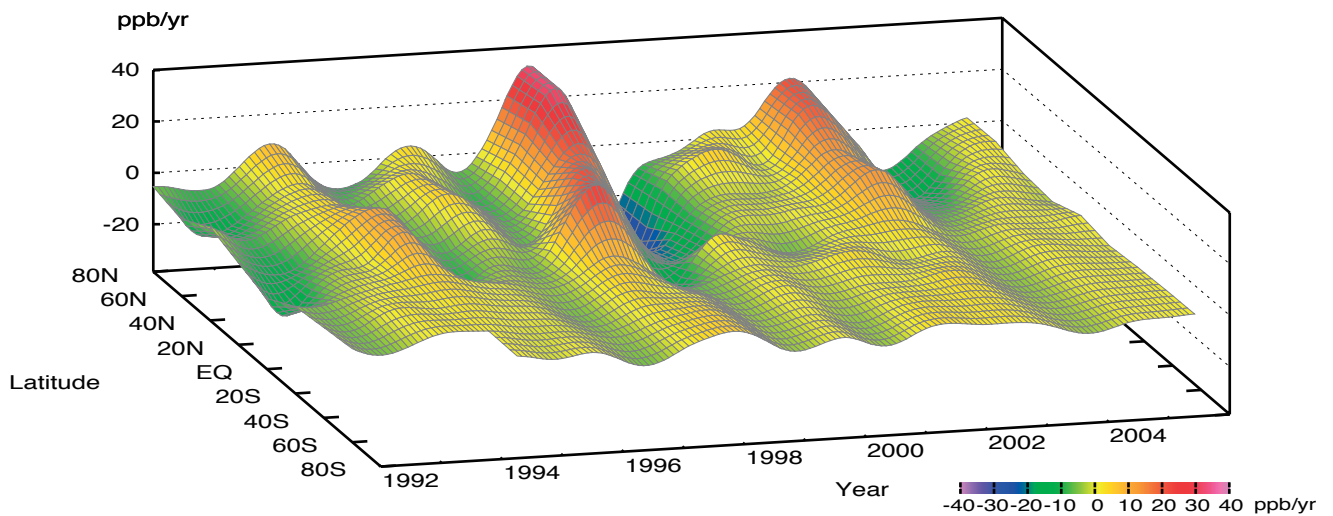


Plate 8.2 Variation of zonally averaged monthly mean CO mixing ratios (top), deseasonalized mixing ratios (middle), and growth rates (bottom). Zonally averaged mixing ratios are calculated for each 20° zone. Deseasonalized mixing ratios and growth rates are derived as described in Chapter 2.

8. Carbon Monoxide (CO)

Basic information on CO with regard to environmental issues

Carbon monoxide (CO) is not a significant greenhouse gas as it absorbs little infrared radiation from the Earth. However, it does have an influence on oxidisation in the atmosphere through interaction with hydroxyl radicals (OH), which also react with methane, halocarbons and tropospheric ozone. The eventual indirect influence of current CO emission on radiative forcing has been estimated to be greater than the direct influence of N₂O (Daniel and Solomon, 1998). In addition, CO is identified in IPCC (2001) as an important indirect greenhouse gas.

Sources of atmospheric CO include fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning along with the oxidisation of both natural and anthropogenic methane and non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHC). IPCC (2001) estimated the global total emission of CO as 2,780 Tg per year. Major sinks are primarily reaction with OH and surface deposition. The lifetime of CO in the atmosphere is relatively short (a few months), so that anthropogenic CO emission does not lead to CO accumulation in the atmosphere, unlike CO₂. Furthermore, uneven distribution of the sources causes large spatial and temporal variations in the amounts of CO. Therefore, CO could be used as a tracer of anthropogenic pollution.

CO measurements in ice cores have indicated that the CO mixing ratio remained at about 50 ppb during the last two millennia over central Antarctica and that it increased to 110 ppb in 1950 in Greenland (Haan and Raynaud, 1998). The CO mixing ratio increased at a rate of 1% per year from 1950, but started to decrease in the late 1980s (WMO, 1999a). Between 1991 and 2001, the global average CO mixing ratio decreased at about 0.5 ppb per year, except for temporal enhancement outbreaks of large biomass burning (Novelli *et al.*, 2003). In recent years, CO emission from large scale forest fires has been widely observed and CO emission from biomass burning including forest fires is considered to account for 30% of the total CO emission in the globe (Holloway *et al.*, 2000).

The global CO distribution and the budget have been estimated using satellite observations and inverse methods (e.g. Pétron *et al.*, 2002; Stavrakou and Müller, 2006), but estimated anthropogenic emissions are larger than the inventories from industrial statistics (Bergamaschi *et al.*, 2000; Kasihbhatla *et al.*, 2002; Arellano Jr *et al.*, 2004).

Annual variation of CO in the atmosphere

The map at the beginning of this chapter shows observation sites that have submitted CO data to the WDCGG.

The time series of monthly mean CO data from all the stations that submitted to WDCGG are shown in Plate 8.1. Mixing ratio levels are illustrated in different colours. Global and zonal mean mixing ratios were calculated using data from selected stations (see the caption to Plate 8.1).

The three-dimensional representations of latitudinal distribution of atmospheric CO mixing ratios, deseasonalized mixing ratios and growth rates are shown in Plate 8.2.

Please note that the CO data are reported in various units, *i.e.*, ppb, µg/m³-25°C, µg/m³-20°C and mg/m³-25°C. All units can be converted to ppb as follows:

$$X_p \text{ [ppb]} = (R * T / M / P_0) * 10 * X_g \text{ [µg/m}^3\text{]} \\ X_p \text{ [ppb]} = (R * T / M / P_0) * 10^4 * X_g \text{ [mg/m}^3\text{]}$$

where R is the molar gas constant (8.31451 [J/K/mol]),

T is the absolute temperature reported by an individual station,

M is the molecular weight of CO (28.0101),

P₀ is the standard pressure (1013.25 [hPa]).

Plates 8.1 and 8.2 show that the seasonal variation of CO is large in the Northern Hemisphere and small in the Southern Hemisphere. The deseasonalized mixing ratio is highest in the middle latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere and the lowest in the Southern Hemisphere. These results are practically consistent with the global CO distribution derived from a combination of satellite observations and computational models. (Bergamaschi *et al.*, 2000; Holloway *et al.*, 2000; Clerbaux *et al.*, 2001). The latitudinal gradient of CO is large from the northern middle latitudes to the southern low latitudes, and is small in the Southern Hemisphere. This is due to there being numerous CO sources the northern middle latitudes and CO being destroyed in the tropics where OH radicals are abundant.

The global monthly mean mixing ratios, their deseasonalized long-term trends and growth rates are shown in Figure 8.1. Growth rates were high in 1993/1994, 1997/1998 and 2002, and low in 1992 and 1998/1999. The global annual mean mixing ratio was about 95 ppb in 2005.

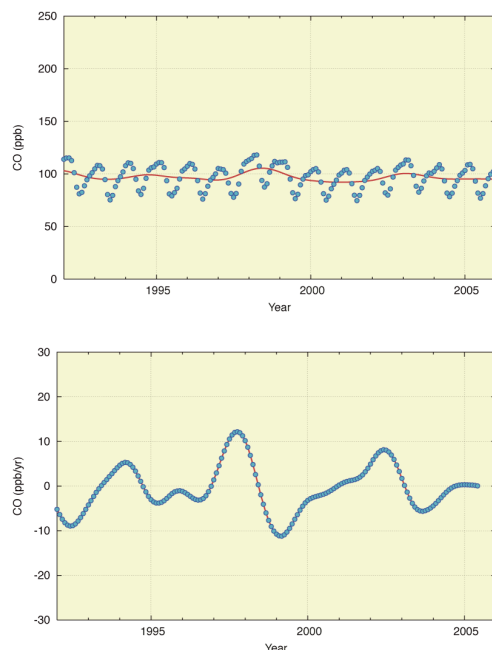


Fig. 8.1 Global monthly mean mixing ratios (thick line and dots) and deseasonalized long-term trends (red line) (top) and the growth rate (bottom) from 1992 to 2005.

Figure 8.2 shows the monthly mean mixing ratios and their deseasonalized long-term trends for each 30° latitudinal zone. A seasonal variation is seen in both hemispheres. In the Northern Hemisphere, the mixing ratio is higher in the winter season. Amplitudes of the seasonal cycle are larger in the Northern Hemisphere than in the Southern Hemisphere.

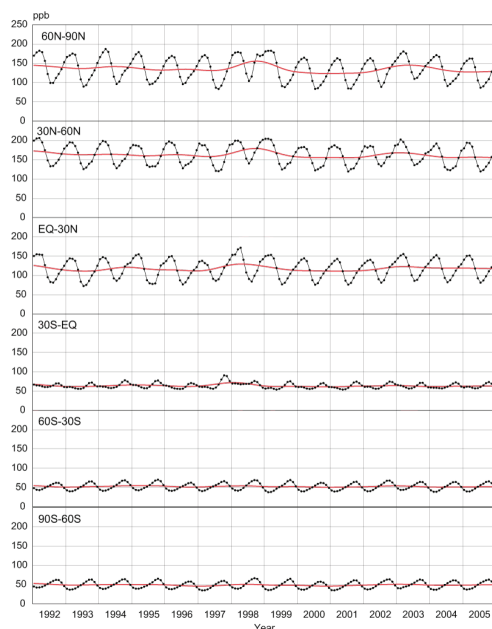


Fig. 8.2 Monthly mean CO mixing ratios (thick lines and dots) and deseasonalized long-term trends (red lines) from 1992 to 2005 for each 30° latitudinal zone.

Figure 8.3 shows the deseasonalized long-term trends and growth rates for each 30° latitudinal zone. CO mixing ratios are highest in northern mid latitudinal zone.

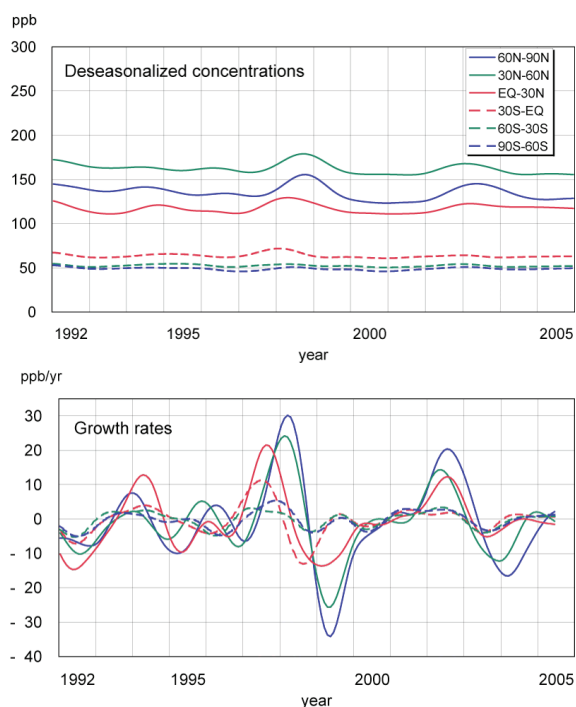


Fig. 8.3 Deseasonalized long-term trends (top) and growth rates (bottom) for each 30° latitudinal zone.

Annual variation of atmospheric flow can influence CO mixing ratio variation as shown by Allen *et al.* (1996). However, a negative growth rate was seen in 1992 in all latitudes. Novelli *et al.* (1998) showed a clear decline in CO mixing ratios from late 1991 through mid-1993, with a subsequent recovery from mid-1993 through mid-1994. The decline in CO mixing ratios almost coincides with the decrease in growth rate of the CH₄ mixing ratio, which can be ascribed to the variations in their common sinks. Enhanced stratospheric ozone depletion due to the increase in volcanic aerosols from the eruption of Mt. Pinatubo in 1991 may have increased the mixing ratio of OH, which reacts with both CO and CH₄ (Dlugokencky *et al.*, 1996).

Increases in CO mixing ratios were observed from 1997 to 1998 in northern latitudes and southern low latitudes. These increases were attributed to the large biomass burning around Indonesia in late 1997 and around Siberia between summer and autumn in 1998 (Novelli *et al.*, 1998).

Duncan *et al.* (2003) estimated that 133 Tg of CO was emitted in 1997 from biomass burning in Indonesia and Malaysia, which is almost one forth of their estimation of global biomass burning emission.

Regular observations using a passenger aircraft of Japan Air Line showed increased CO mixing ratios over the tropical Pacific at an altitude of 10 km, and a model simulation showed that biomass burning in Southeast Asia brought about this CO enhancement (Matsueda *et al.*, 1998; Matsueda *et al.*, 2002; Taguchi *et al.*, 2002).

A large scale boreal forest fire occurred in Siberia in 1998 (Kasischke *et al.*, 1999). The burned area was estimated to be 11,000,000 ha by Kajii *et al.* (2002), 13,300,000 ha by Cornard *et al.* (2002), and 13,100,000 ha by Kasischke and Bruhwiler (2003). From estimates of this forest fire, Yurganov *et al.* (2004) estimated the total emission from all boreal forest fires to be 148 Tg, and the emission from the boreal forest fire in Siberia in 1998 was estimated to be 88–128 Tg by Kasischke and Bruhwiler (2003) and 69 Tg (summer only) by Duncan *et al.* (2003). Boreal forest fires, including those in Siberia, occur from spring to autumn every year, with different magnitudes. The averaged burn area was estimated to be 4.8 million ha by Wotawa *et al.* (2001) and 5.1 million ha by Kajii *et al.* (2002), and the average emission was estimated as 52 Tg per year by Yurganov *et al.* (2004).

The mixing ratios returned to normal levels after 1999, but the growth rates in the Northern Hemisphere increased again substantially in 2002. This increase in CO mixing ratios in 2002 might also be attributed to large biomass burning. Large scale boreal forest fires occurred in Siberia and North America from 2002 to 2003. CO emission from these boreal forest fires were estimated to be 142 Tg (Simmonds *et al.*, 2005).

Seasonal cycle of CO in the atmosphere

Figure 8.4 shows the average seasonal cycles for each 30° latitudinal zone from which the long-term trends were subtracted. The seasonal cycle of CO is mainly driven by seasonal variations in OH mixing ratio, which acts as a CO sink. Furthermore, emission and oxidation as CO sources and the large-scale transportation of CO are additional factors, although the seasonality of emission and oxidation is relatively weak compared with that of the OH mixing ratio. This seasonality and the fact that the lifetime of CO is about a few months produce a sharp decrease in early summer and a relatively gradual increase in autumn. Semi-annual features evident in the southern low latitudes may be attributed to the cross-equatorial transportation of CO from the Northern Hemisphere.

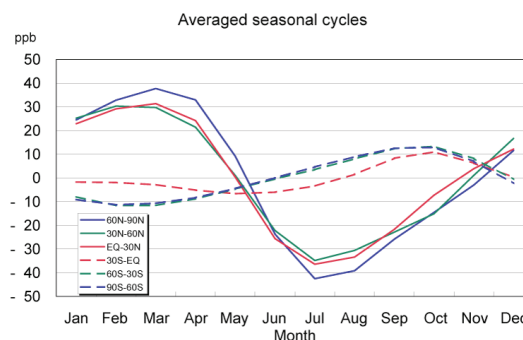


Fig. 8.4 Average seasonal cycles for each 30° latitudinal zone from which the long-term trends were subtracted.

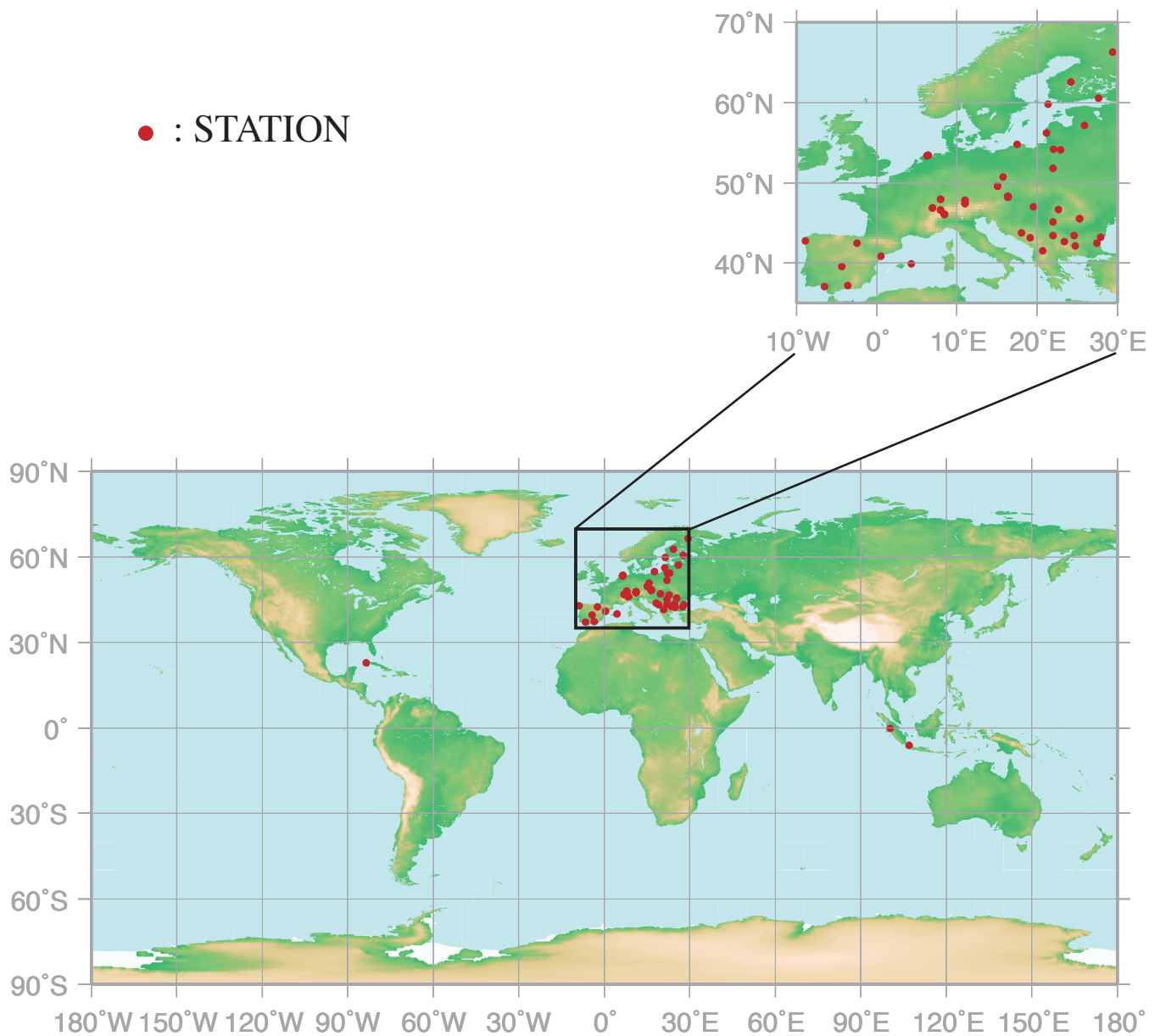
Direct CO emission also brings about intense seasonal variation on some occasions. Novelli *et al.* (1998) showed with a model of a box representing the well-mixed northern layer and a box representing the southern boundary layer that seasonal cycles are strongly affected by changes in emission from biomass burning in both hemispheres. According to model simulations of global CO distribution, regional CO distribution in seasons reflects regional source strength like biomass burning (Bergamaschi *et al.*, 2000; Holloway *et al.*, 2000). Using observation data for the upper troposphere, Matsueda *et al.* (1998) showed that CO mixing ratios in the upper troposphere in southern low latitudes from October to November were increased by tropical biomass burning.

9.

NITROGEN MONOXIDE (NO)

NITROGEN DIOXIDE (NO₂)

● : STATION



This map shows locations of the site where the monthly mean mixing ratios are submitted.

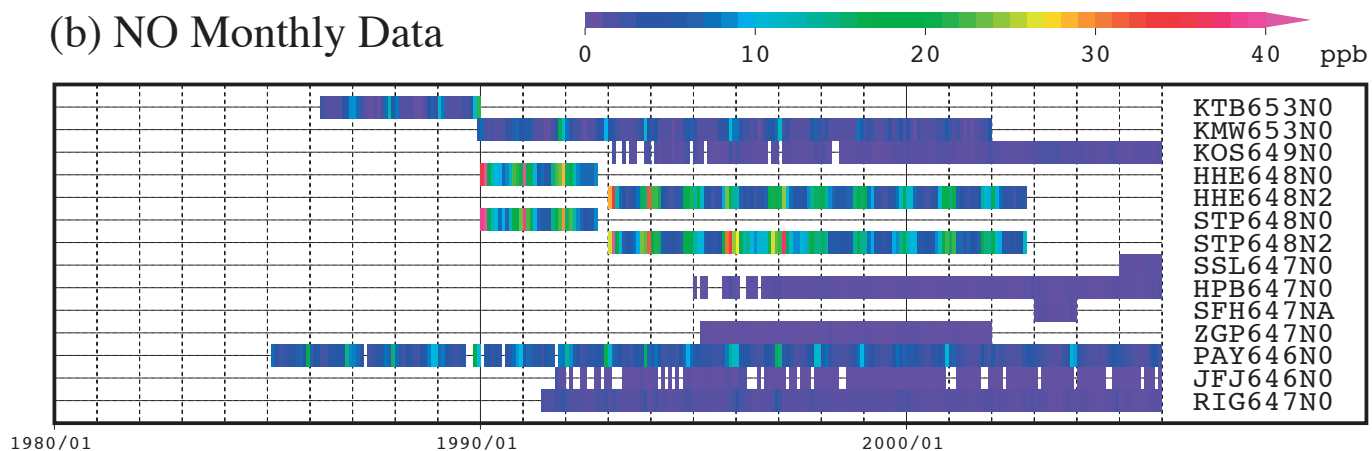
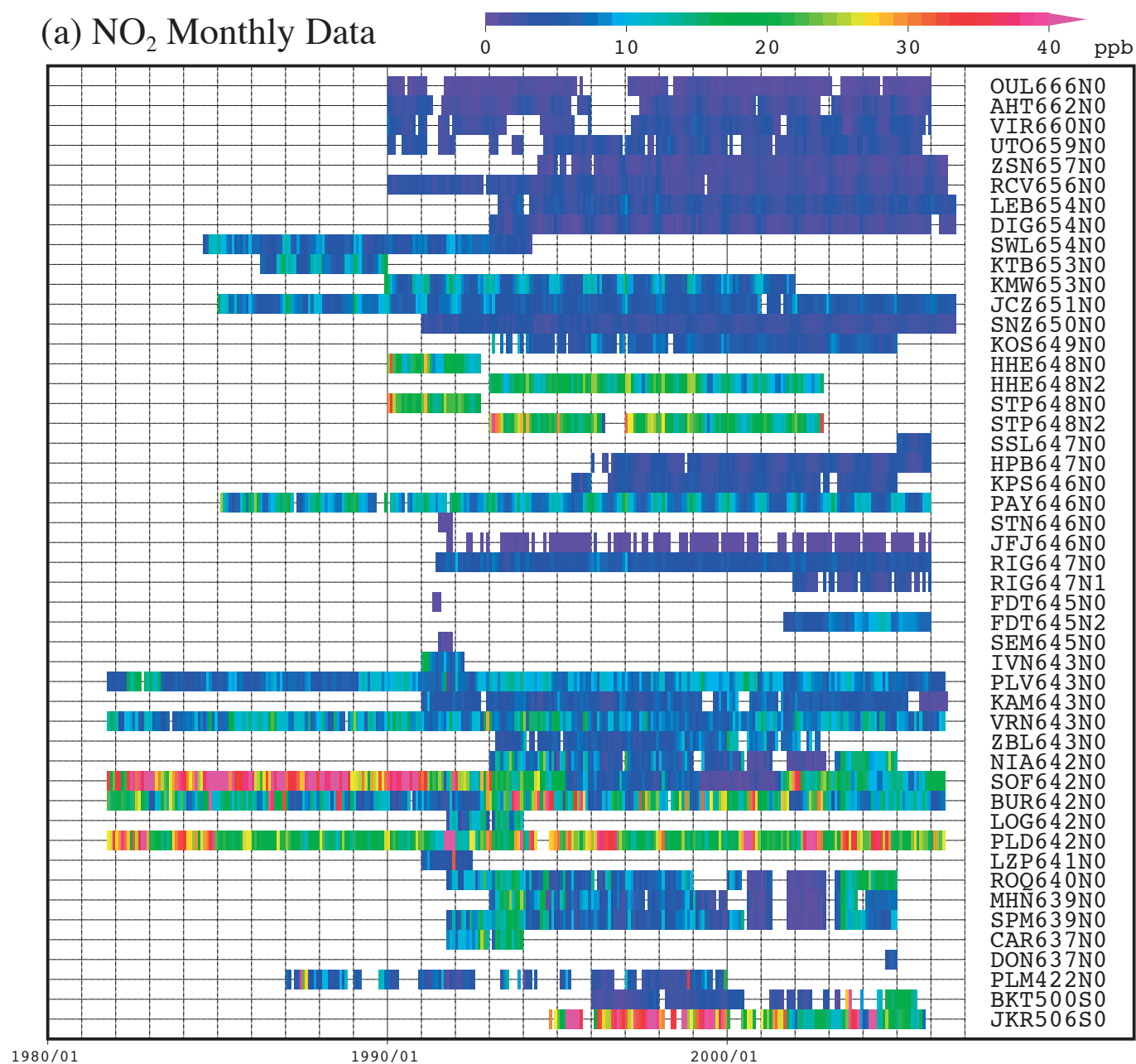


Plate 9.1 Monthly mean (a) NO₂ and (b) NO mixing ratios for all sites reported to the WDCGG illustrated in colors that change with the mixing ratio. The sites are set from north to south.

9. Nitrogen Monoxide (NO) and Nitrogen Dioxide (NO₂)

Basic information on NO and NO₂ with regard to environmental issues

Nitrogen oxides (NO_x, *i.e.*, NO and NO₂) are not greenhouse gases, but affect hydroxyl radicals (OH), which control many substances in the atmosphere such as methane (CH₄), carbon monoxide (CO) and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs). In the presence of NO_x, CO and hydrocarbons are oxidised to produce ozone (O₃) in the troposphere, which is one of strong greenhouse gases. Thus, NO_x can influence the Earth's radiative balance and, by generating OH, alter the oxidation capacity of the atmosphere.

Sources of NO_x include fossil fuel combustion, biomass burning, lightning and soil (IPCC, 2001). The dominant sink of NO_x in the atmosphere is its conversion into nitric acid (HNO₃) and peroxyacetylnitrate (PAN), which are eventually removed by dry or wet deposition. In some cases, NO_x is removed from the atmosphere directly by dry deposition. Anthropogenic emission of NO_x is currently one of the major causes of acid rain and deposition. NO_x mixing ratios show large variability in both space and time because of the species' short lifetimes and uneven source distribution.

Annual variation of NO and NO₂

Observation stations that submitted data for NO₂ and NO to the WDCGG are shown on the map at the beginning of this chapter. Most of the contributing stations are located in Europe.

The time series of monthly mean NO and NO₂ data from all stations submitted to the WDCGG are shown in Plate 9.1. In this plate, mixing ratio levels are illustrated in different colours. Please note that the data for NO_x are reported in various units, *i.e.*, ppb, µg/m³-25°C, µg/m³-20°C, µgN/m³-25°C and mg/m³-25°C.

All units can be converted to ppb as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}X_p [\text{ppb}] &= (R * T / M / P_0) * 10 * X_g [\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3] \\X_p [\text{ppb}] &= (R * T / M / P_0) * 10^4 * X_g [\text{mg}/\text{m}^3] \\X_p [\text{ppb}] &= (R * T / M_N / P_0) * 10 * X_g [\mu\text{gN}/\text{m}^3]\end{aligned}$$

where R is the molar gas constant (8.31451 [J/K/mol]),

T is the absolute temperature reported by an individual station,

M is the molecular weight of NO (30.00614) or NO₂ (46.00554),

M_N is the atomic weight of N (14.00674), and

P₀ is the standard pressure (1013.25 [hPa]).

As their sources are localised and their lifetimes are short, the distributions of NO and NO₂ are also localised and vary over time. Due to the high temporal variability of NO₂ mixing ratios for each observation site, it was difficult to identify a long-term trend. A number of stations located in southern Europe showed higher mixing ratios, and some stations exhibited a winter enhancement of NO₂. An urban site in southeast Asia shows higher mixing ratios.

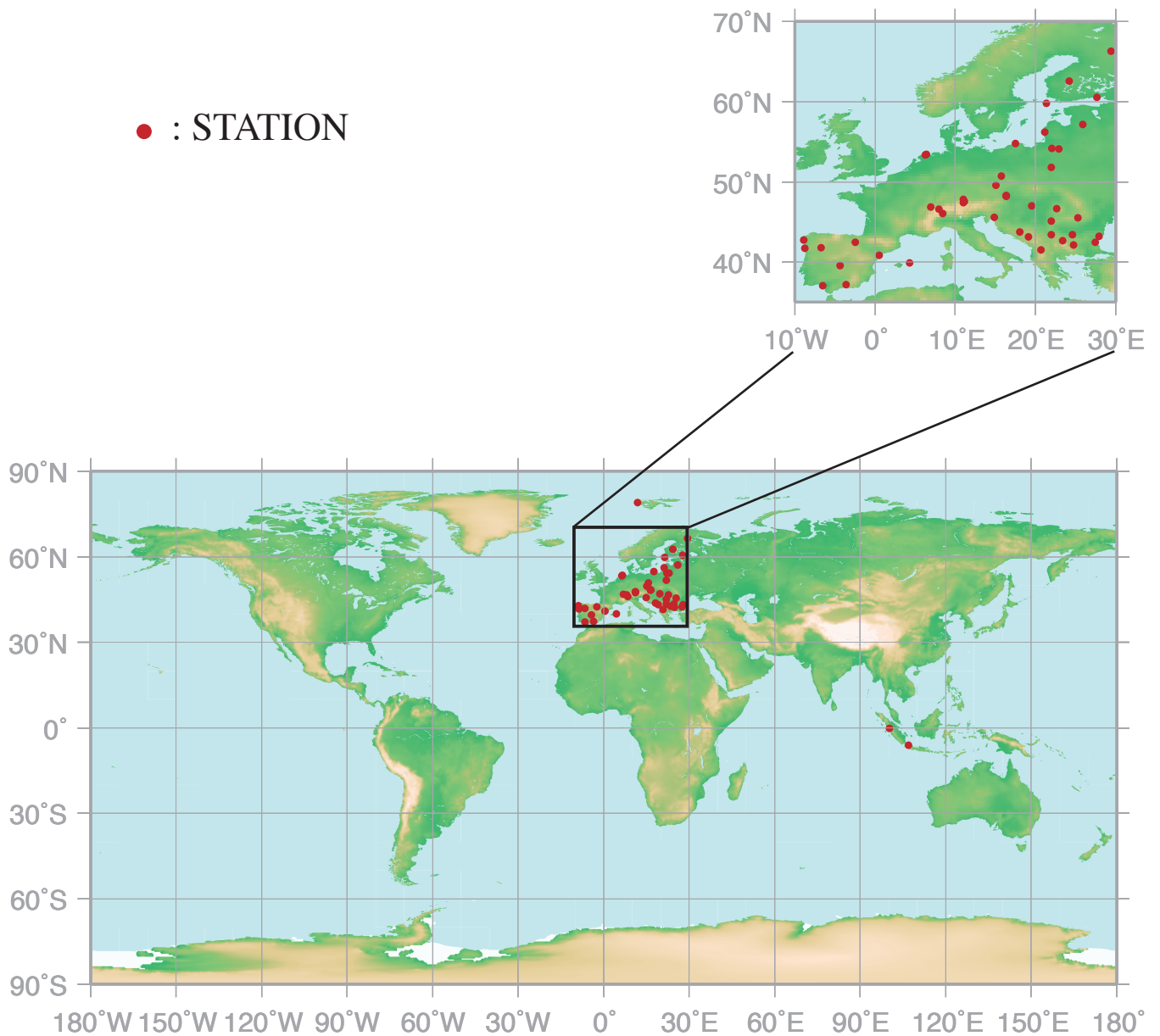
As there are few observation sites for NO, it is difficult to identify increasing or decreasing trends for NO mixing ratios.

10.

SULPHUR DIOXIDE

(SO₂)

● : STATION



This map shows locations of the site where the monthly mean mixing ratios are submitted.

SO₂ Monthly Data

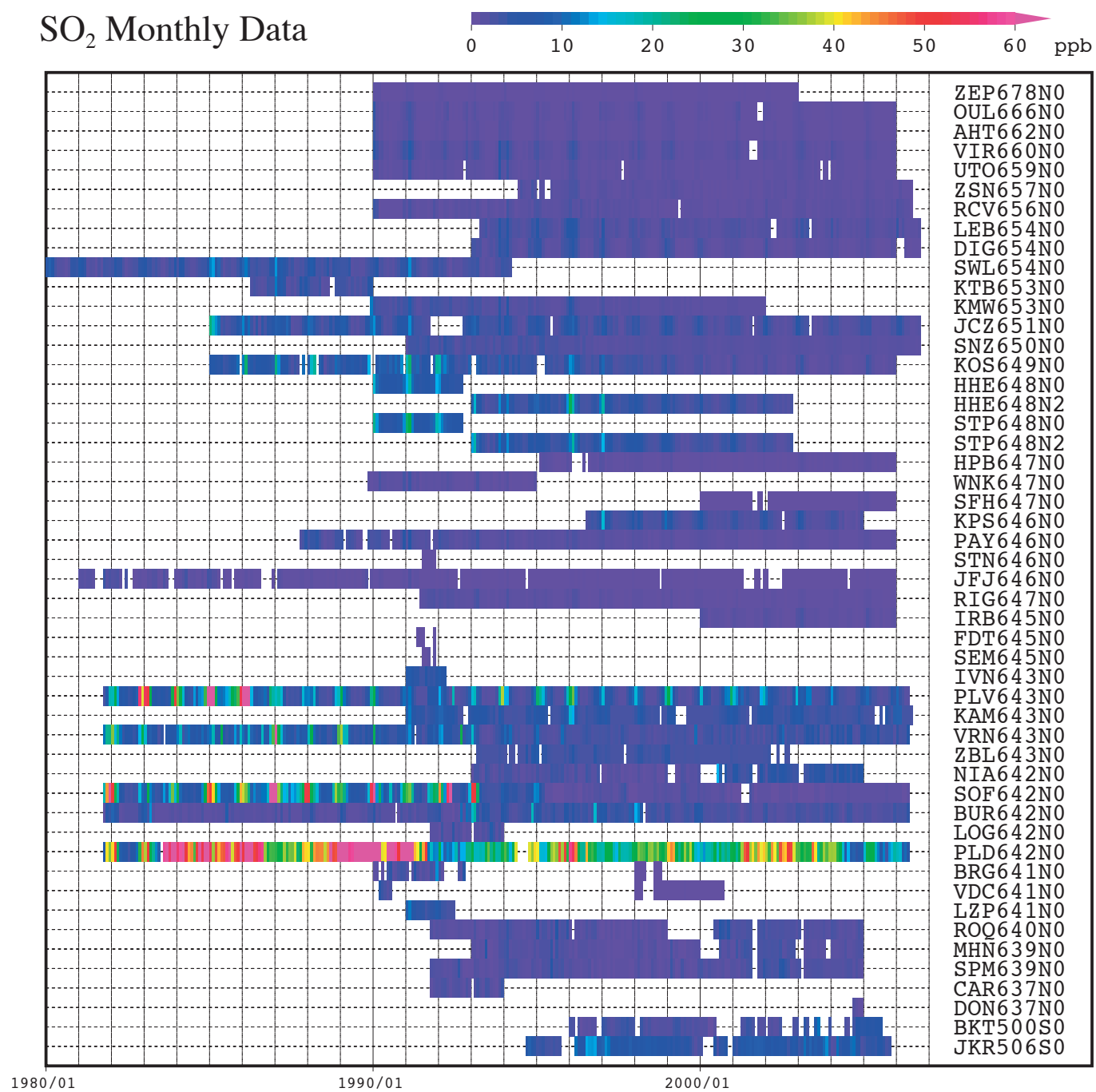


Plate 10.1 Monthly mean SO₂ mixing ratios for all sites reported to the WDCGG illustrated in colors that change with the mixing ratio. The sites are set from north to south.

10. Sulphur Dioxide (SO₂)

Basic information on SO₂ with regard to environmental issues

Sulphur dioxide (SO₂) is not a greenhouse gas, but a precursor of atmospheric sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄) or sulphate aerosol. SO₂ is oxidised by hydroxyl radicals (OH) to form sulphuric acid, which then produces aerosols through photochemical gas-to-particle conversion. While SO₂ reacts much slower with OH than with NO₂, SO₂ dissolves readily in suspended liquid droplets in the atmosphere.

Sources of SO₂ include fossil fuel combustion by industry, biomass burning, volcanoes and the oxidation of dimethylsulphide (DMS) from the oceans (IPCC, 2001). Major SO₂ sinks are oxidation by OH and deposition onto wet surfaces. Anthropogenic SO₂ has caused acid rain and deposition throughout the industrial era. SO₂ mixing ratios show large variations in both space and time because of the species' short lifetime and uneven anthropogenic source distribution.

Annual variation of SO₂

The map at the beginning of this chapter shows observation sites that have submitted SO₂ data to the WDCGG. Most of the contributing stations are located in Europe.

The monthly mean SO₂ data from all stations submitted to the WDCGG are shown in Plate 10.1. In this plate, mixing ratio levels are illustrated in different colours. Please note that the data for SO₂ are reported in various units, *i.e.*, ppb, µg/m³, mg/m³ and µgS/m³.

All units can be converted to ppb as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}X_p [\text{ppb}] &= (R * T / M / P_0) * 10 * X_g [\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3] \\X_p [\text{ppb}] &= (R * T / M / P_0) * 10^4 * X_g [\text{mg}/\text{m}^3] \\X_p [\text{ppb}] &= (R * T / M_S / P_0) * 10 * X_g [\mu\text{gS}/\text{m}^3]\end{aligned}$$

where R is the molar gas constant (8.31451 [J/K/mol]),

T is the absolute temperature reported by an individual station,

M is the molecular weight of SO₂ (64.0648),

M_S is the atomic weight of S (32.066), and

P₀ is the standard pressure (1013.25 [hPa]).

Certain stations in southern Europe showed higher mixing ratios. However, it was difficult to identify an increasing or decreasing trend for SO₂ mixing ratios.

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APPENDICES

Calibration and Standard Scales

1. Calibration System in the GAW programme

Under the Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) programme, World Calibration Centres (WCCs) are responsible for maintaining calibration standards for certain species, establishing instrument calibrations and providing training to the stations. A Reference Standard is

designated for each species to be used for all GAW measurements of that species at Central Calibration Laboratories. Table 1 lists the organizations that serve as WCCs and CCLs for GAW [WMO, 2001, 2004].

Table 1. Overview of the GAW Central Calibration Laboratories (GAW-CCL, Reference Standard) and World Calibration Centres for Greenhouse and Other Related Gases. The World Calibration Centres have assumed global responsibilities, except where indicated (Am, Americas; E/A, Europe and Africa; A/O, Asia and the South-West Pacific)

Species	Central Calibration Laboratory (Reference Standard)	World Calibration Centre
Carbon Dioxide (CO ₂)	NOAA/GMD	NOAA/GMD
Methane (CH ₄)	NOAA/GMD	EMPA (Am, E/A) JMA (A/O)
Nitrous Oxide (N ₂ O)	NOAA/GMD	IFU
Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs)		
Surface Ozone (O ₃)	NIST	EMPA
Carbon Monoxide (CO)	NOAA/GMD	EMPA
Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs)		IFU
Sulphur Dioxide (SO ₂)		
Nitrogen Oxides (NO _x)		

2. Carbon Dioxide (CO₂)

In 1995, Earth System Research Laboratory, Global Monitoring Division, NOAA (NOAA/GMD, former CMDL) took over the role of CCL from the Scripps Institution of Oceanography (SIO) in San Diego, California, USA. NOAA/GMD, Boulder, Colorado, USA has been designated by WMO as the Central Calibration Laboratory (CCL) responsible for maintenance of the GAW Reference Standard for CO₂. As the World Calibration Centre (WCC) for CO₂, NOAA/GMD maintains a high-precision manometric system for absolute calibration of CO₂ as the reference used for GAW measurements throughout the world [Zhao *et al.*, 1997]. It is recommended that the standards of the GAW measurement laboratories be calibrated every two years at the CCL (WMO, 2003).

Under the WMO calibration system, there have been several calibration scales for CO₂ data, *e.g.*, SIO-based X74, X85, X87, X93 and X2002 scales and the NOAA/GMD-based WMO Mole Fraction Scale partially based on the past SIO scales. The

NOAA/GMD and SIO are working to resolve the possible small differences between their scales. The CCL adopted the WMO X2005 scale, reflecting historical manometric calibrations of the WMO CCL set of cylinders and the possible small differences between SIO and NOAA/GMD calibrations.

To assess the differences in standard scales among CO₂ measuring laboratories, NOAA/GMD organizes intercomparisons or Round Robin experiments endorsed by WMO every few years. Many laboratories participated in the experiments organized in 1991-1992, 1995-1997, 1999-2000, and 2002-2006. Table 2 shows the results of the experiments performed in 1996-1997 in which the mixing ratios measured by various laboratories are compared with the mixing ratios measured by NOAA/GMD [Peterson *et al.*, 1999]. In addition, many laboratories compare their standards bilaterally or multilaterally among themselves.

Table 3 lists laboratories and sites used in the present issue of *Data Summary* with standard scales

of reported data and history of participation in the WMO intercomparison experiments.

Table 2. Round Robin Results for Carbon Dioxide Mixing ratio. Differences Between the Mixing ratios Measured by Various Laboratories and the Mixing ratio Measured by NOAA (Laboratory minus NOAA, ppm)

Laboratory	Analysis Date	Mixing ratio Difference (ppm)		
		Low 340-350 ppm	Medium 350-360 ppm	High 370-380 ppm
NIWA	Feb-96	0.02	0.1	0.2
CSIRO	May-96	-0.07	-0.02	-0.02
AES	Jun-97	-0.04	0	-0.02
CMA	Dec-95	-0.07	-0.01	-0.02
Tohoku Univ.	Jun-96	-0.01	0.04	0.02
NIES	Aug-96	-0.02	0.09	0.12
MRI	Dec-96	0.04	0.07	0.14
JMA	Jan-97	0.07	0.31	0.3
SNU	Mar-97	0.24	0.13	0.29
CFR	Jan-96	0.1	0.08	0.16
IMS	Mar-96	0.04	0.06	0.07
ENEA	Apr-96	-0.29	-0.06	0.19
UBA	Jul-96	0	-0.02	0.11
HMS	Dec-96	-1.22	-1.04	-0.8

Table 3. Status of Standard Scales and Calibration/Intercomparison for Carbon Dioxide at Laboratories.

Laboratory	WDCGG Site Index	Calibration Scale	WMO Intercomparison
Aichi	MKW234N00	WMO	
AIST	TKY236N00	NIRE (AIST)	02/06
BoM&CSIRO	CGR540SA0,CGR540S00	WMO	
CAMS	WLG236N00	WMO	96/97, 99/00, 02/06
CESI	PLR645N00	WMO	99/00, 02/06
CSIRO	ALT482N30,CFA519S30,CGR540S30,EPC449N30, MAA767S30,MLO519N30,MQA554S30,SIS660N30, SPO789S30	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06
ENEA	LMP635N00	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06
FMI	PAL667N00	WMO	02/06
HMS	KPS646N00,HUN646N00	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06
IAFMS	CMN644N00	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 02/06
IGP	HUA312S00	WMO	
IMK-IFU	WNK647N00,ZSP647N00	WMO	99/00
INM	IZA128N00	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 99/00
INMH	FDT645N20		

IOEP	DIG654N00		
ISAC	JBN762S00	WMO	
JMA	MNM224N00,RYO239N00,YON224N00	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06
KMA	AMY236N00		02/06
KSNU	ISK242N00		
LSCE	AMS137S00,MHD653N20	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06
METRI	KSN233N00	WMO	96/97
MGO	BER255N00,KOT276N00,KYZ240N00,STC652N00,TER669N00	WMO	
MMS	DMV504N00	WMO	
MRI	TKB236N20	MRI	91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06
MSC	CSJ451N00	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06
NIES	COI243N00,HAT224N00	NIES	96/97, 99/00, 02/06
ITM	ZEP678N00	WMO	96/97, 99/00
NIPR&Tohoku Univ.	SYO769S00		Tohoku Univ.:91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06
NIWA	BAR541S00	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06
NOAA/GMD	BRW471N00,MLO519N00,SMO514S00,SPO789S00,NOAA/GMD flask network [*]	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06
RIVM	KMW653N00	NIST	
Saitama	URW235N00,KIS236N00,DDR236N00	WMO	
SAWS	CPO134S00	WMO	99/00, 02/06
Shizuoka Univ.	HMM234N00		
UBA	BRT648N00,SFH647NA0,SNB647N00,SSL647N00,ZGP647N00,SSL647N10,NGL653N00,LGB652N00,ZGT654N00,DEU649N00,WST654N00	WMO	91/92, 96/97, 99/00, 02/06

* NOAA/GMD flask network:

ALT482N10,AMS137S10,ASC107S10,ASK123N10,AVI417N10,AZR638N10,BAL655N10,BKT500S10,BME432N10, BMW432N10,BRW471N10,BSC644N10,CBA455N10,CGO540S10,CHR501N10,CMO445N10,CRZ146S10,EIC329S10,GMI513N10,GOZ636N10, HBA775S10,HUN646N10,ICE663N10,ITN435N10,IZO128N10,KCO204N10,KEY425N10,KUM519N10,KZD244N10,KZM243N10,LEF445N10, MBC476N10,MHD653N10,MID528N10,MKN100S10,MLO519N10,NMB123S10,NWR440N10,OPW448N10,PAL667N10,POC900010,POC905N10, POC905S10,POC910N10,POC910S10,POC915N10,POC915S10,POC920N10,POC920S10,POC925N10,POC925S10,POC930N10,POC930S10, POC935S10,PSA764S10,PTA438N10,RPB413N10,SCS903N10,SCS906N10,SCS909N10,SCS912N10,SCS915N10,SCS918N10,SCS921N10, SEY104S10,SGP436N10,SHM452N10,SMO514S10,SPO789S10,STC654N10,STM666N10,SUM672N10,SYO769S10,TAP236N10,TDF354S10, TRH441N10,UTA439N10,UUM244N10,WIS631N10,WLG236N10,ZEP678N10

3. Methane (CH₄)

The GAW programmes have established two World Calibration Centres (WCCs) for methane: the Swiss Federal Laboratory for Materials Testing and Research (EMPA), Dübendorf, Switzerland and the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA), Tokyo, Japan [WMO, 2001]. In addition, the Central Calibration Centre for methane has been established in NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory/Global Monitoring Division (NOAA/ESRL/GMD) [WMO, 2004; Dlugokencky, et. al., 2005].

The new NOAA04 scale has been designated as the

Reference Standards of GAW programme. This scale results in CH₄ mole fractions that are a factor of 1.0124 greater than the NOAA previous scale. [Dlugokencky et al., 2005]

Table 4 summarizes the methane standard scales used in the laboratories contributing to the WDCGG and lists tentative multiplying conversion factors applied for the analysis in the present issue of *Data Summary* to make the data on different scales more intercomparable. The standard is the NOAA04 scale and conversion factors are calculated from the results

of intercomparisons of the mixing ratios with other laboratories bilaterally or multilaterally performed before the establishment of GAW Standards. The conversion factors will be abolished when a station employs the NOAA04 scale.

The former CMDL scale is lower than an absolute gravimetric scale [Aoki et al., 1992] by ~1.5% [Dlugokencky et al., 1994] and lower than the AES (MSC) scale by a factor of 1.0151 [Worthy et al., 1998].

The CSIRO scale can be converted to the Tohoku University standard by multiplying by 1.0119 [Cunnold et al., 2002]. So we adopt the conversion factors $1.0124/1.0151=0.997$ and $1.0119*1.0124/1.0151=1.0092$ to intercompare with the new WMO scale, NOAA04.

Table 4. Status of Methane Standard Scales at Laboratories with Conversion Factors Used in the Present Issue of Data Summary.

Laboratory	WDCGG Site Index	Calibration Scale	Conversion Factor
AGAGE	TRH441N00,RGP413N00,RGP413NB0	Tohoku Univ.	0.9973
CESI	PLR645N00	NOAA/CMDL	1.0124
CHMI	KOS649N00	CHMI	0.9973
CSIRO	CFA519S30,EPC449N30,MAA767S30,MQA554S30,SIS660N30	CSIRO94	1.0092
ENEA	LMP635N00	NOAA/CMDL	1.0124
INM	IZA128N00	NOAA/CMDL	1.0124
JMA	MNM224N00,RYO239N00,YON224N00	JMA	0.9973
KMA	AMY236N00		
KSNU	ISK242N00		
METRI	KSN233N00		
MGO	TER669N00	NOAA/CMDL	1.0124
MRI	TKB236N00	MRI	0.9973
NIES	COI243N00,HAT224N00	NIES	0.9973
NOAA/GMD	BRW471N00,MLO519N00,NOAA/GMD flask network*	NOAA04	1
RIVM	KMW653N00	NIST	0.9973
SAWS	CPO134S00	NOAA04	1
UBA	DEU649N00,NGL653N00,SFH647NA0,SSL647N00,ZGP647N00,ZGT654N00	NOAA/CMDL	1.0124

* NOAA/GMD flask network:

ALT482N10,AMS137S10,ASC107S10,ASK123N10,AVI417N10,AZR638N10,BAL655N10,BKT500S10,BME432N10,BMW432N10,BRW471N10,BSC644N10,CBA455N10,CGO540S10,CHR501N10,CMO445N10,CRZ146S10,EIC329S10,GMI513N10,GOZ636N10,HBA775S10,HUN646N10,ICE663N10,ITN435N10,IZO128N10,KEY425N10,KPA432N10,KUM519N10,KZD244N10,KZM243N10,LEF445N10,MBC476N10,MCM777S10,MHD653N10,MID528N10,MLO519N10,NWR440N10,NZL543N10,OPW448N10,POC900010,POC905N10,POC905S10,POC910N10,POC910S10,POC915N10,POC915S10,POC920N10,POC920S10,POC925N10,POC925S10,POC930N10,POC930S10,POC935S10,PSA764S10,PTA438N10,RPB413N10,SCS903N10,SCS906N10,SCS909N10,SCS912N10,SCS915N10,SCS918N10,SCS921N10,SEY104S10,SGI354S10,SHM452N10,SIO432N10,SMO514S10,SPO789S10,STM666N10,SYO769S10,TAP236N10,UTA439N10,UUM244N10,WIS631N10,WLG236N10,ZEP678N10

4. Nitrous Oxide (N₂O)

The Halocarbons and other Atmospheric Trace Species (HATS) Group of NOAA/GMD maintains a set of standards for N₂O [Hall et al., 2001, Hall et al., 2002]. NOAA-2006 N₂O scale was adopted in 2006. These standards have been designated as Reference Standards of the GAW programme. The HATS Group analyses the standards of laboratories, including the Meteorological Service of Canada (MSC) and the Australian Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial

Research Organisation (CSIRO). The Fraunhofer Institut für Atmosphärische Umweltforschung (IFU) in Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany, serves as the GAW World Calibration Centre (WCC).

The NOAA CMDL N₂O calibration scale agrees to within 0.3% of that predicted using NIST Standard Reference Materials (at 300 and 330 ppb). According to a results of the Nitrous Oxide and Halocarbons Intercalibration Experiment (NOHALICE)

implemented under the International Global Atmospheric Chemistry (IGAC) programme, the

difference between the scales of AGAGE (SIO-98) and NOAA/CMDL is 1% or less [Prinn *et al.*, 2000].

Table 5. Status of N₂O Standard Scales at Laboratories.

Submitter	WDCGG Site Index	Calibration Scale
AGAGE	ADR652NA0,CGR540SB0,CGR540SC0,CGR540SD0,CME445NA0,CME445NB0,MAT514SA0,MAT514SB0,MAT514SC0,MCH653NB0,MCH653ND0,RGP413N00,RGP413NA0,RGP413NB0, TRH441N00	SIO 1998
CSIRO	ALT482N30,CFA519S30,CGR540S30,EPC449N30,MAA767S30,MLO519N30,MQA554S30,SIS660N30,SPO789S30	CSIRO
ENEA	LMP635N00	CMDL 2000
JMA	RYO239N00	JMA
KMA	AMY236N00	
METRI	KSN233N00	
MRI	MMB243N00	MRI
Nagoya University	NGY235N00	
NIES	HAT224N00	NIES
NILU	ZEP678N00	
NOAA/GMD	ALT482N20,BRW471N20,BRW471NA0,BRW471NB0,CGO540S20,KUM519N20,MLO519N20,MLO519NA0,MLO519NB0,NWR440N20,NWR440NA0,NWR440NB0,SMO514S20,SMO514SA0,SMO514SB0,SPO789S20,SPO789SA0,SPO789SB0	CMDL 2000
SAWS	CPO134S00	CMDL 2000
UBA	SSL647N00	SIO 1998

5. Surface Ozone (O₃)

The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) has developed and deployed Standard Reference Photometers (SRPs) in the USA and other countries. The GAW has designated the SRP #2 maintained at NIST as the Reference Standard for the GAW programme. The Swiss Federal Laboratory for Materials Testing and Research (EMPA) maintains NIST SRP #15 as the reference for the activities for the GAW World Calibration Centre for Surface Ozone

[Hofer *et al.*, 1998]. The traceability and uncertainty of surface ozone within the GAW network were reported by Klausen *et al.*, (2003). Regional Calibration Centres have been established at the Czech Hydrometeorological Institute (CHMI) in Prague, Czech Republic, and Servicio Meteorológico Nacional (SMN) in Buenos Aires, Argentina [WMO, 2001]. The former maintains the SRP #17 directly purchased by NIST.

Table 6. Status of Surface Ozone Standard Scales at Laboratories

Laboratory	WDCGG Site Index	Calibration Scale	Audit EMPA-WCC
AQRB	ALG447N00,BRA450N00,CHA446N00,EGB444N00,EST451N00,ELA449N00,KEJ444N00,SAT448N00		
AWI/DWD	NMY770S00		
BMG	BKT500S00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	99,01,04

BoM/CSIRO	CGR540S00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	02
CHMI	KOS649N00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	
DEFRA	EDM655N00		
DWD	HPB647N00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	97
EARS	IRB645N00,KVV646N00,KVK646N00,ZRN646N00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	
EMPA	JFJ646N00,PAY646N00,RIG647N00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	JungfrauJoch:99
FMI	AHT662N00,OUL666N00,PAL667N00,UTO659N00, VIR660N00		Pallas-Sammaltunturi: 97,03
HMS	KPS646N00		
IAFMS	CMN644N00		
IM	ANG638N00,BEJ638N00,CAS639N00,FUN132N00, LIS638N00,MVH638N00,PEN640N00		
INM	DON637N00,MHN639N00,NIA642N00,ROQ640N00, SPM639N00	NPL(U. K.)	
	IZA128N00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	96,98,00,04
INMH	FDT645N20		
IOEP	DIG654N00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	
IVL	VDL664N00	Stockholm Univ.(Sweden)	
JMA	MNM224N00,RYO239N00,SYO769S20,YON224N00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	Ryori:05
	TKB236N3		
KSNU	ISK242N00		
LHMA	RCV656N00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	
MMS	TAR504N00		
NILU	ZEP678N00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	97,01
NIWA	BAR541S00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	
NOAA/GMD	BRW471N40,SMO514S40,ICE663N40,LAU545S40, MLO519N40,MCM777S40,NWR440N40,NTL440N4 0, RPB413N40,SPO789S40,SUM672N40,TRH441N40, BMW432N40	NOAA/GMD	Mauna Loa:03
NUI	MHD653N00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	96,98,02,05
ONM	ASK123N00		03
PolyU	HKG222N00		

RIVM	KMW653N00		
Roshydromet	DAK654N00, SHP659N00		
SAWS	CPO134S00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	97,98,02
SMN	USI354S00	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	98,03
UBA	BRT648N00,DEU649N00,NGL653N00,SSL647N00, SNB647N00,LGB652N00,WST654N00,ZGT654N00, ZGP647N00,SFH647NA0	WMO (NIST & EMPA)	Zugspitze:96,97,01 Sonnblick:98
UM	GLH636N00		

6. Carbon Monoxide (CO)

The Swiss Federal Laboratory for Materials Testing and Research (EMPA) serves as the World Calibration Centre (WCC) under GAW based on its secondary

standards calibrated against the standard at NOAA/GMD designated as the Reference Standard for GAW.

Table 7. Status of Carbon Monoxide Standard Scales at Laboratories

Laboratory	WDCGG Site Index	Calibration Scale	Audit EMPA-WCC
AGAGE	CGR540SB0,MCH653NB0	SIO 1998	
CHMI	KOS649N00	CHMI	
CSIRO	CFA519S30,EPC449N30,MAA767S30, MQA554S30,SIS660N30,ALT482N30,MLO519N30, CGR540S30,SPO789S30	WMO (NOAA/GMD & EMPA)	Cape Grim:02
DWD	HPB647N00	WMO (NOAA/GMD & EMPA)	97
EMPA	JFJ646N00,PAY646N00,RIG647N00	WMO (NOAA/GMD & EMPA)	Jungfrauoch:9 9
JMA	RYO239N00, MNM224N00, YON224N00	JMA	
NOAA/GMD	NOAA/GMD flask network*	WMO (NOAA/GMD & EMPA)	Mauna Loa:03
PolyU	HKG222N00		
RIVM	KMW653N00,KTB653N00	National	
SAWS	CPO134S00	WMO (NOAA/GMD & EMPA)	98,02
SMN	USI354S00	WMO (NOAA/GMD & EMPA)	98,03
UBA	SSL647N00,ZGP647N00,SNB647N00	WMO (NOAA/GMD & EMPA)	Zugspitze:01 Sonnblick:98
UM	GLH636N00		

* NOAA/GMD flask network:

ALT482N10,ASC107S10,ASK123N10,AZR638N10,BAL655N10,BME432N10,
BMW432N10,BRW471N10,BSC644N10,CBA455N10,CGO540S10,CHR501N10,CMO445N10,CRZ146S10,
EIC329S10,GMI513N10,GOZ636N10,HBA775S10,HUN646N10,ICE663N10,ITN435N10,IZO128N10,
KEY425N10,KUM519N10,KZD244N10,KZM243N10,LEF445N10,MBC476N10,MHD653N10,MID528N10,

MLO519N10,NWR440N10,PAL667N10,POC900010,POC905N10,POC905S10,POC910N10,POC910S10,
 POC915N10,POC915S10,POC920N10,POC920S10,POC925N10,POC925S10,POC930N10,POC930S10,
 POC935N10,POC935S10,PSA764S10,PTA438N10,RPB413N10,SCS903N10,SCS906N10,SCS909N10,
 SCS912N10,SCS915N10,SCS918N10,SCS921N10,SEY104S10,SHM452N10,SMO514S10,SPO789S10,
 STM666N10,SYO769S10,TAP236N10,TDF354S10,UTA439N10,UUM244N10,WIS631N10,WLG236N10,
 ZEP678N10

Acronyms and Abbreviations:

AES:	Atmospheric Environment Service (presently MSC)
AGAGE:	Advanced Global Atmospheric Gases Experiment
Aichi:	Aichi Prefecture, Japan
AIST:	National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology, Japan
AWI:	Alfred Wegener Institute, Germany
BMG:	Bureau of Meteorology and Geophysics, Indonesia
BoM:	Commonwealth Bureau of Meteorology, Australia
CAMS:	Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences, China
CESI:	Italian Electrical Experimental Center, Italy
CFR:	Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement, CEA-CNRS, France
CHMI:	Czech Hydrometeorological Institute, Prague, Czech Republic
CMA:	Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences, China Meteorological Administration
CMDL:	Climate Monitoring and Diagnostics Laboratory, NOAA, USA (presently NOAA/GMD)
CSIRO:	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation, Australia
DEFRA:	Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, London, United Kingdom
DWD:	Deutscher Wetterdienst, Germany
EARS:	Environmental Agency of the Republic of Slovenia
EMPA:	Swiss Federal Laboratories for Materials Research and Testing, Dübendorf, Switzerland
ENEA:	Italian National Agency for New Technology, Energy and the Environment, Italy
FMI:	Finnish Meteorological Institute
HMS:	Hungarian Meteorological Service, Hungary
IAFMS:	Italian Air Force Meteorological Service, Italy
IGP:	Instituto Geofísico del Perú
IM:	Instituto de Meteorologia, Portugal
IMK-IFU:	Fraunhofer Institut für Atmosphärische Umweltforschung, Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany
INM:	Instituto Nacional de Meteorología, Spain
INMET:	Instituto Nacional de Meteorologia, Brazil
INMH:	National Meteorological Administration, Romania
IOEP:	Institute of Environmental Protection, Warsaw
ISAC:	Istituto di Scienze dell'Atmosfera e del Clima, Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Italy
ITM:	Department of Applied Environmental Science, Stockholm University, Sweden
IVL:	Swedish Environmental Research Institute, Göteborg, Sweden
JMA:	Japan Meteorological Agency, Tokyo, Japan
JMA/AO:	Aerological Observatory, Japan Meteorological Agency, Tsukuba, Japan
KMA:	Korea Meteorological Administration, Republic of Korea
KMD:	Kenya Meteorological Department, Kenya
KSNU:	Kyrgyz State National University, Kyrgyzstan
LHMA:	Latvian Hydrometeorological Agency, Latvia
LSCE:	Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement, CEA-CNRS, France
METRI:	Meteorological Research Institute, KMA, Republic of Korea
MGO:	Main Geophysical Observatory, Russian Federation
MISU:	Department of Meteorology, Stockholm University, Sweden
MMS:	Malaysian Meteorological Department
MRI:	Meteorological Research Institute, Japan Meteorological Agency, Japan
MSC:	Meteorological Service of Canada (formerly AES)
NIES:	National Institute for Environmental Studies, Japan
NILU:	Norwegian Institute for Air Research, Norway
NIMH:	Institutul National de Meteorologie, Hidrologie si Gospodaria Apelor, Romania

NIPR:	National Institute of Polar Research, Japan
NIRE:	National Institute for Resources and Environment, Japan
NIST:	National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg MD, USA
NIWA:	National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research, New Zealand
NOAA/GMD:	Earth System Research Laboratory, Global Monitoring Division, NOAA, USA (formerly CMDL)
NUI:	National University of Ireland, Galway, Ireland
ONM:	Office National de la Météorologie, Algeria
PolyU:	Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China
RIVM:	National Institute of Public Health and the Environment, Bilthoven, Netherlands
Roshydromet	Russian Hydrometeorological Service
Saitama:	Saitama Prefecture, Japan
SAWS:	South African Weather Service, South Africa
Shizuoka:	Shizuoka University, Japan
SIO:	Scripps Institution of Oceanography, USA
SMN:	Servicio Meteorológico Nacional, Argentina
SNU:	Seoul National University, Republic of Korea
Tohoku Univ.:	Tohoku University, Japan
UBA:	Umweltbundesamt (Federal Environmental Agency), Germany
UBA Austria:	Umweltbundesamt (Federal Environmental Agency), Austria
UHEI-IUP:	Institut für Umweltphysik, Universität Heidelberg, Germany
UM:	University of Malta
ZAMG:	Central Institute of Meteorology and Geodynamics, Austria

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LIST OF OBSERVATION STATIONS

Station	Country/Territory	Index Number	Location			Parameter
			Latitude (° ')	Longitude (° ')	Altitude (m)	
REGION I (Africa)						
Amsterdam Island	France	AMS137S00	37 48 S	77 32 E	65	CO ₂
Amsterdam Island	France	AMS137S10	37 57 S	77 31 E	150	CO ₂ , CH ₄
Ascension Island	United Kingdom	ASC107S10	7 55 S	14 25 W	54	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Assekrem	Algeria	ASK123N00	23 16 N	5 38 E	2710	O ₃
Assekrem	Algeria	ASK123N10	23 10 N	5 25 E	2728	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Cape Point	South Africa	CPO134S00	34 21 S	18 29 E	230	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , O ₃ , CO, N ₂ O
Crozet	France	CRZ146S10	46 27 S	51 51 E	120	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Funchal	Portugal	FUN132N00	32 39 N	16 53 W	58	O ₃
Gobabeb	Namibia	NMB123S10	23 34 S	15 01 E	461	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , ¹³ CO ₂
Izaña	Spain	IZA128N00	28 18 N	16 30 W	2367	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , O ₃
Mahe Island	Seychelles	SEY104S10	4 40 S	55 10 E	7	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Mt. Kenya	Kenya	KNA100S30	00 02 S	37 18 E	3678	CO
Mt. Kenya	Kenya	MKN100S10	00 03 S	37 18 E	3897	CO ₂
Tenerife	Spain	IZO128N10	28 18 N	16 28 W	2360	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
REGION II (Asia)						
Anmyeon-do	Rep. of Korea	AMY236N00	36 32 N	126 19 E	47	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs
Bering Island	Russian Federation	BER255N00	55 12 N	165 59 E	13	CO ₂
Cape Ochi-ishi	Japan	COI243N00	43 09 N	145 30 E	45	CO ₂ , CH ₄
Gosan	Rep. of Korea	KSN233N00	33 17 N	126 10 E	72	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs
Hamamatsu	Japan	HMM234N00	34 43 N	137 43 E	35	CO ₂
Hateruma	Japan	HAT224N00	24 03 N	123 48 E	10	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O
Hok Tsui	Hong Kong, China	HKG222N00	22 13 N	114 15 E	60	CO, O ₃
Issyk-Kul	Kyrgyzstan	ISK242N00	42 37 N	76 59 E	1640	CO ₂ , O ₃ , CH ₄
Kaashidhoo	Maldives	KCO204N10	4 58 N	73 28 E	1	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , ¹³ CO ₂
Kisai	Japan	KIS236N00	36 05 N	139 33 E	13	CO ₂
Kotelny Island	Russian Federation	KOT276N00	76 00 N	137 52 E	5	CO ₂
Kyzylcha	Uzbekistan	KYZ240N00	40 52 N	66 09 E	340	CO ₂
Memambetsu	Japan	MMB243N00	43 55 N	144 12 E	32.9	N ₂ O
Mikawa-Ichinomiya	Japan	MKW234N00	34 51 N	137 26 E	50	CO ₂
Minamitorishima	Japan	MNM224N00	24 17 N	153 59 E	8	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, O ₃
Mt. Dodaira	Japan	DDR236N00	36 00 N	139 11 E	840	CO ₂
Mt. Waliguan	China	WLG236N00	36 17 N	100 54 E	3810	CO ₂
Mt. Waliguan	China	WLG236N10	36 17 N	100 54 E	3810	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Nagoya	Japan	NGY235N00	35 09 N	136 58 E	35	N ₂ O
Plateau Assy	Kazakhstan	KZM243N10	43 15 N	77 52 E	2519	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂
Ryori	Japan	RYO239N00	39 02 N	141 49 E	260	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , CO, O ₃
Sary Taukum	Kazakhstan	KZD244N10	44 27 N	75 34 E	412	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂
Tae-ahn Peninsula	Rep. of Korea	TAP236N10	36 43 N	126 07 E	20	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Takayama	Japan	TKY236N00	36 08 N	137 25 E	1420	CO ₂
Tsukuba	Japan	TKB236N00	36 03 N	140 08 E	26	CH ₄
Tsukuba	Japan	TKB236N20	36 03 N	140 08 E	26	CO ₂
Tsukuba	Japan	TKB236N30	36 03 N	140 08 E	25	O ₃
Ulaan Uul	Mongolia	UUM244N10	44 27 N	111 05 E	914	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Urawa	Japan	URW235N00	35 52 N	139 36 E	10	CO ₂
Yonagunijima	Japan	YON224N00	24 28 N	123 01 E	30	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, O ₃
REGION III (South America)						
Arembepe	Brazil	ABP312S00	12 46 S	38 10 W	0	O ₃

LIST OF OBSERVATION STATIONS (continued)

Station	Country/Territory	Index Number	Location		Altitude (m)	Parameter
			Latitude (° ')	Longitude (° ')		
Bird Island	United Kingdom	SGI354S10	54 00 S	38 03 W	30	CO ₂ , CH ₄
Easter Island	Chile	EIC329S10	27 08 S	109 27 W	50	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Huancayo	Peru	HUA312S00	12 04 S	75 32 W	3313	CO ₂
Tierra del Fuego	Argentina	TDF354S10	54 52 S	68 28 W	20	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Tierra del Fuego	Argentina	TDF354S20	54 52 S	68 29 W	20	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃
Tierra del Fuego	Argentina	TDF354SX0	54 52 S	68 29 W	20	HFCs
Ushuaia	Argentina	USI354S00	54 51 S	68 19 W	18	O ₃ , CO
REGION IV (North and Central America)						
Alert	Canada	ALT482N00	82 27 N	62 31 W	210	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, SF ₆
Alert	Canada	ALT482N10	82 27 N	62 31 W	210	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Alert	Canada	ALT482N20	82 27 N	62 31 W	210	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , C ₂ Cl ₄ , CH ₂ Cl ₂ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Alert	Canada	ALT482N30	82 27 N	62 31 W	210	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, H ₂
Alert	Canada	ALT482N40	82 27 N	62 31 W	210	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO
Alert	Canada	ALT482NX0	82 27 N	62 31 W	210	HFCs
Algoma	Canada	ALG447N00	47 02 N	84 23 W	411	O ₃
Barrow	U. S. A.	BRW471N00	71 19 N	156 36 W	8	CO ₂ , CH ₄
Barrow	U. S. A.	BRW471N10	71 19 N	156 35 W	11	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , ¹³ CH ₄ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Barrow	U. S. A.	BRW471N20	71 19 N	156 36 W	8	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , C ₂ Cl ₄ , CH ₂ Cl ₂ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Barrow	U. S. A.	BRW471N40	71 19 N	156 36 W	8	O ₃
Barrow	U. S. A.	BRW471NX0	71 19 N	156 36 W	8	N ₂ O, CFCs, HFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , SF ₆ , HCFCs
Bratt's Lake	Canada	BRA450N00	50 12 N	104 12 W	588	O ₃
Candle Lake	Canada	CDL454N00	53 52 N	104 39 W	489	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO
Cape Meares	U. S. A.	CME445NX0	45 29 N	123 58 W	30	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃
Cape Meares	U. S. A.	CMO445N10	45 28 N	123 58 W	30	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Cape St. James	Canada	CSJ451N00	51 56 N	131 01 W	89	CO ₂
Chalk River	Canada	CHA446N00	46 04 N	77 24 W	184	O ₃
Chapais	Canada	CPS449N00	49 49 N	74 59 W	381	O ₃
Cold Bay	U. S. A.	CBA455N10	55 12 N	162 43 W	25	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Egbert	Canada	EGB444N00	44 14 N	79 47 W	253	O ₃
Estevan Point	Canada	EPC449N10	49 23 N	126 33 W	39	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, SF ₆
Estevan Point	Canada	EPC449N30	49 23 N	126 33 W	39	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, H ₂
Esther	Canada	EST451N00	51 40 N	110 12 W	707	O ₃
Experimental Lakes Area	Canada	ELA449N00	49 40 N	93 43 W	369	O ₃
Frasedale	Canada	FSD449N00	49 53 N	81 34 W	210	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO
Grifton	U. S. A.	ITN435N10	35 21 N	77 22 W	505	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Grifton	U. S. A.	ITN435N20	35 21 N	77 23 W	9	CFCs, SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Harvard Forest	U. S. A.	HFM442N20	42 54 N	72 18 W	340	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Harvard Forest	U. S. A.	HFM442NX0	42 54 N	72 18 W	340	HFCs
Kejimikujik	Canada	KEJ444N00	44 26 N	65 12 W	127	O ₃
Key Biscayne	U. S. A.	KEY425N10	25 40 N	80 12 W	3	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Kitt Peak	U. S. A.	KPA432N10	32 N	112 W	2083	CH ₄
La Jolla	U. S. A.	SIO432N10	32 50 N	117 16 W	14	CH ₄
La Palma	Cuba	PLM422N00	22 45 N	83 32 W	47	NO ₂
Longwoods	Canada	LON442N00	42 53 N	81 29 W	239	O ₃
Moody	U. S. A.	WKT431N10	31 19 N	97 19 W	708	CH ₄
Mould Bay	Canada	MBC476N10	76 15 N	119 20 W	58	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂

LIST OF OBSERVATION STATIONS (continued)

Station	Country/Territory	Index Number	Location		Altitude (m)	Parameter
			Latitude (° ')	Longitude (° ')		
Niwot Ridge	U. S. A.	NWR440N10	40 02 N	105 34 W	3526	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , ¹³ CH ₄ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Niwot Ridge	U. S. A.	NWR440N20	40 03 N	105 35 W	3475	CFCs, HCFCs, HFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , C ₂ Cl ₄ , CH ₂ Cl ₂ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Niwot Ridge	U. S. A.	NWR440N40	40 02 N	105 32 W	3022	O ₃
Niwot Ridge	U. S. A.	NWR440NX0	40 03 N	105 35 W	3475	N ₂ O, CFCs, HFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , SF ₆ , HCFCs
Niwot Ridge (Saddle)	U. S. A.	NTL440N40	40 03 N	105 35 W	3538	O ₃
Niwot Ridge C-1	U. S. A.	NWC440N20	40 00 N	105 36 W	3475	HFCs
Olympic Peninsula	U. S. A.	OPW448N10	48 15 N	124 25 W	488	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , H ₂
Park Falls	U. S. A.	LEF445N10	45 55 N	90 16 W	868	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Park Falls	U. S. A.	LEF445N20	45 56 N	90 16 W	868	CFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , HCFCs, SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Park Falls	U. S. A.	LEF445NX0	45 56 N	90 16 W	868	HFCs
Point Arena	U. S. A.	PTA438N10	38 57 N	123 43 W	17	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, ¹³ CO ₂
Ragged Point	Barbados	RGP413NX0	13 10 N	59 26 W	45	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs, CCl ₄ , CHCl ₃ , CH ₃ CCl ₃
Ragged Point	Barbados	RPB413N10	13 10 N	59 25 W	45	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Ragged Point	Barbados	RPB413N40	13 10 N	59 26 W	45	O ₃
Sable Island	Canada	SBL443N00	43 56 N	60 01 W	5	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, SF ₆
Sable Island	Canada	SBL443N10	43 56 N	60 01 W	5	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO
Saturna	Canada	SAT448N00	48 47 N	123 08 W	178	O ₃
Shemya Island	U. S. A.	SHM452N10	52 43 N	174 05 E	40	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Southern Great Plains	U. S. A.	SGP436N10	36 47 N	97 30 W	314	CO ₂ , CH ₄ ,
St. Croix	U. S. A.	AVI417N10	17 45 N	64 45 W	3	CO ₂ , CH ₄
St. David's Head	United Kingdom	BME432N10	32 22 N	64 39 W	30	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Sutton	Canada	SUT445N00	45 05 N	72 41 W	243	O ₃
Trinidad Head	U. S. A.	TRH441N00	41 03 N	124 09 W	120	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs, CCl ₄ , CHCl ₃ , CH ₃ CCl ₃
Trinidad Head	U. S. A.	TRH441N10	41 02 N	124 09 W	107	CO ₂ , CH ₄
Trinidad Head	U. S. A.	TRH441N20	41 03 N	124 09 W	120	CFCs, HCFCs, SF ₆ , N ₂ O, CH ₃ CCl ₃
Trinidad Head	U. S. A.	TRH441N40	41 03 N	124 09 W	120	O ₃
Trinidad Head	U. S. A.	TRH441NX0	41 03 N	124 09 W	120	HFCs
Tudor Hill	United Kingdom	BMW432N10	32 16 N	64 52 W	30	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Tudor Hill	Bermuda United Kingdom	BMW432N40	32 22 N	64 39 W	50	O ₃
Wendover	U. S. A.	UTA439N10	39 53 N	113 43 W	1320	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
REGION V (South-West Pacific)						
Baring Head	New Zealand	BAR541S00	41 25 S	174 52 E	85	CH ₄ , CO, CO ₂ , N ₂ O, O ₃
Baring Head	New Zealand	BAR541SA0	41 25 S	174 52 E	85	CO
Bukit Koto Tabang	Indonesia	BKT500S00	0 12 S	100 19 E	864.5	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Bukit Koto Tabang	Indonesia	BKT500S10	0 12 N	100 19 E	864.5	CO ₂ , CH ₄
Cape Ferguson	Australia	CFA519S30	19 17 S	147 03 E	2	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, H ₂
Cape Grim	Australia	CGO540S10	40 40 S	144 40 E	94	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , ¹³ CH ₄ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Cape Grim	Australia	CGO540S20	40 41 S	144 41 E	94	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , C ₂ Cl ₄ , CH ₂ Cl ₂ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Cape Grim	Australia	CGO540SX0	40 41 S	144 41 E	94	HFCs
Cape Grim	Australia	CGR540S00	40 41 S	144 41 E	94	CO ₂ , O ₃
Cape Grim	Australia	CGR540S30	40 41 S	144 41 E	94	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, H ₂

LIST OF OBSERVATION STATIONS (continued)

Station	Country/Territory	Index Number	Location		Altitude (m)	Parameter
			Latitude (° ')	Longitude (° ')		
Cape Grim	Australia	CGR540SX0	40 41 S	144 41 E	94	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs, HFCs, HCFCs, CCl ₄ , CHCl ₃ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , CO, H ₂ , CH ₃ Cl, CH ₃ Br
Cape Kumukahi	U. S. A.	KUM519N10	19 31 N	154 49 W	3	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Cape Kumukahi	U. S. A.	KUM519N20	19 31 N	154 49 W	3	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , C ₂ Cl ₄ , CH ₂ Cl ₂ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Cape Kumukahi	U. S. A.	KUM519ND0	19 31 N	154 49 W	3	HFCs
Cape Matatula	U. S. A.	MAT514SX0	14 15 S	170 34 W	42	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs, CCl ₄ , CHCl ₃ , CH ₃ CCl ₃
Cape Matatula	American Samoa, U. S. A.	SMO514S40	14 15 S	170 34 W	42	O ₃
Christmas Island	Kiribati	CHR501N10	1 42 N	157 10 W	3	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Danum Valley GAW Baseline Station	Malaysia	DMV504N00	4 58 N	117 50 E	426	CO ₂
Guam	U. S. A.	GMI513N10	13 26 N	144 47 E	2	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Jakarta	Indonesia	JKR506S00	6 11 S	106 50 E	7	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Kaitorete Spit	New Zealand	NZL543S10	43 50 S	172 38 E	3	CH ₄
Lauder	New Zealand	LAU545S40	45 02 S	169 40 E	370	O ₃
Macquarie Island	Australia	MQA554S30	54 29 S	158 58 E	12	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, H ₂
Mauna Loa	U. S. A.	MLO519N00	19 32 N	155 34 W	3397	CO ₂ , CH ₄
Mauna Loa	U. S. A.	MLO519N10	19 32 N	155 34 W	3397	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , ¹³ CH ₄ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Mauna Loa	U. S. A.	MLO519N20	19 32 N	155 35 W	3397	CFCs, HCFCs, HFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , C ₂ Cl ₄ , CH ₂ Cl ₂ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Mauna Loa	U. S. A.	MLO519N30	19 32 N	155 35 W	3397	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, H ₂
Mauna Loa	U. S. A.	MLO519N40	19 32 N	155 35 W	3397	O ₃
Mauna Loa	U. S. A.	MLO519NX0	19 32 N	155 35 W	3397	N ₂ O, CFCs, HFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , SF ₆ , HCFCs
Sand Island	U. S. A.	MID528N10	28 12 N	177 22 W	7.7	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Tanah Rata	Malaysia	TAR504N00	4 28 N	101 23 E	1545	O ₃
Tutuila	U. S. A.	SMO514S00	14 14 S	170 34 W	42	CO ₂
Tutuila	U. S. A.	SMO514S10	14 14 S	170 34 W	42	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , ¹³ CH ₄ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Tutuila	U. S. A.	SMO514S20	14 15 S	170 34 W	42	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , C ₂ Cl ₄ , CH ₂ Cl ₂ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Tutuila	U. S. A.	SMO514SX0	14 15 S	170 34 W	42	N ₂ O, CFCs, HFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , SF ₆ , HCFCs

REGION VI (Europe)

Adrigole	Ireland	ADR652NA0	52 N	10 W	50	N ₂ O, CFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃
Ähtäri	Finland	AHT662N00	62 35 N	24 12 E	180	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Angra do Heroismo	Portugal	ANG638N00	38 40 N	27 13 W	74	O ₃
Baltic Sea	Poland	BAL655N10	55 21 N	17 13 E	28	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Beja	Portugal	BEJ638N00	38 01 N	7 52 W	246	O ₃
Black Sea	Romania	BSC644N10	44 10 N	28 40 E	3	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Braganca	Portugal	BRG641N00	41 48 N	6 44 W	690	SO ₂
Brotjacklriegel	Germany	BRT648N00	48 49 N	13 13 E	1016	CO ₂ , O ₃
Brotjacklriegel	Germany	BRT648N60	48 49 N	13 13 E	1016	VOCs
Burgas	Bulgaria	BUR642N00	42 29 N	27 29 E	16	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Campisabalos	Spain	CAM641N60	41 17 N	3 09 W	1360	VOCs
Castelo Branco	Portugal	CAS639N00	39 50 N	7 28 W	386	O ₃
Danki	Russian Federation	DAK654N00	54 54 N	37 48 E	140	O ₃
Deuselbach	Germany	DEU649N00	49 46 N	7 03 E	480	CO ₂ , O ₃ , CH ₄

LIST OF OBSERVATION STATIONS (continued)

Station	Country/Territory	Index Number	Location		Altitude (m)	Parameter
			Latitude (° ')	Longitude (° ')		
Doñana	Spain	DON637N00	37 03 N	6 33 W	5	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Donon	France	DNN649N60	48 30 N	7 08 E	775	VOCs
Dwejra Point	Malta	GOZ636N10	36 03 N	14 11 E	30	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Eskdalemuir	United Kingdom	EDM655N00	55 19 N	3 12 W	242	O ₃
Fundata	Romania	FDT645N00	45 28 N	25 18 E	1371	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Fundata	Romania	FDT645N20	45 28 N	25 18 E	1383.5	CO ₂ , NO ₂ , O ₃
Giordan Lighthouse	Malta	GLH636N00	36 04 N	14 13 E	167	O ₃ , CO
Hegyhatsal	Hungary	HUN646N00	46 57 N	16 39 E	248	CO ₂
Hegyhatsal	Hungary	HUN646N10	46 57 N	16 38 E	344	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Heimaey	Iceland	ICE663N10	63 20 N	20 17 W	100	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Heimaey	Iceland	ICE663N40	63 24 N	20 17 W	100	O ₃
Hohe Warte	Austria	HHE648N00	48 15 N	16 22 E	202	NO, NO ₂ , SO ₂
Hohe Warte	Austria	HHE648N20	48 15 N	16 22 E	202	NO, NO ₂ , SO ₂
Hohenpeissenberg	Germany	HPB647N00	47 48 N	11 01 E	985	CO, NO, NO ₂ , NO _x , NO _y , SO ₂ , ROOH, H ₂ O ₂ , O ₃ , PAN
Hohenpeissenberg	Germany	HPB647N20	47 48 N	11 01 E	985	VOCs
Hohenpeissenberg	Germany	HPB647N50	47 48 N	11 01 E	985	²²² Rn
Iskrba	Slovenia	IRB645N00	45 34 N	14 52 E	520	SO ₂ , O ₃
Ivan Sedlo	Bosnia and Herzegovina	IVN643N00	43 46 N	18 02 E	970	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Jarczew	Poland	JCZ651N00	51 49 N	21 59 E	180	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Jungfraujoch	Switzerland	JFJ646N00	46 33 N	7 59 E	3578	CO, O ₃ , NO, NO ₂ , NO _x , SO ₂ ,
K-pusztá	Hungary	KPS646N00	46 58 N	19 33 E	125	CO ₂ , NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Kamenicki Vis	Serbia and Montenegro	KAM643N00	43 24 N	21 57 E	813	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Kloosterburen	Netherlands	KTB653N00	53 24 N	6 25 E	0	CO, NO, NO _x , NO ₂ , SO ₂
Kollumerwaard	Netherlands	KMW653N00	53 20 N	6 17 E	0	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, NO, NO _x , NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Kosetice	Czech Republic	KOS649N00	49 35 N	15 05 E	534	CH ₄ , CO, NO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Kosetice	Czech Republic	KOS649N60	49 35 N	15 05 E	534	VOCs
Kovk	Slovenia	KVK646N00	46 07 N	15 06 E	600	O ₃
Krvavec	Slovenia	KVV646N00	46 18 N	14 32 E	1720	O ₃
La Cartuja	Spain	CAR637N00	37 12 N	3 36 W	720	NO ₂ , SO ₂
La Tardiere	France	LAT647N60	46 39 N	0 45 W	133	VOCs
Lampedusa	Italy	LMP635N00	35 31 N	12 38 E	45	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs
Lazaropole	The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	LZP641N00	41 32 N	20 42 E	1320	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Leba	Poland	LEB654N00	54 45 N	17 32 E	2	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Lisboa / Gago Coutinho	Portugal	LIS638N00	38 46 N	9 08 W	105	O ₃
Logroño	Spain	LOG642N00	42 27 N	2 30 W	370	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Mace Head	Ireland	MCH653N20	53 20 N	9 54 W	25	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Mace Head	Ireland	MCH653NX0	53 20 N	9 54 W	25	CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs, HFCs, HCFCs, CCl ₄ , CHCl ₃ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , CO, H ₂ , CH ₃ Cl, CH ₃ Br
Mace Head	Ireland	MHD653N00	53 20 N	9 54 W	25	O ₃
Mace Head	Ireland	MHD653N10	53 19 N	9 54 W	25	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Mace Head	Ireland	MHD653N20	53 20 N	9 54 W	25	CO ₂
Mace Head	Ireland	MHD653NX0	53 20 N	9 54 W	25	HFCs
Mahón	Spain	MHN639N00	39 52 N	4 19 E	78	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Monte Cimone	Italy	CMN644N00	44 11 N	10 42 E	2165	CO ₂ , O ₃
Monte Velho	Portugal	MVH638N00	38 05 N	8 48 W	43	O ₃
Neuglobsow	Germany	NGL653N00	53 10 N	13 02 E	65	CO ₂ , O ₃ , CH ₄
Noia	Spain	NIA642N00	42 44 N	8 55 W	685	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Ny-Alesund	Norway	ZEP678N10	78 54 N	11 52 E	475	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Ocean Station "C"	U. S. A.	STC654N10	54 00 N	35 00 W	6	CO ₂

LIST OF OBSERVATION STATIONS (continued)

Station	Country/Territory	Index Number	Location		Altitude (m)	Parameter
			Latitude (° ')	Longitude (° ')		
Ocean Station "M"	Norway	STM666N10	66 00 N	2 00 E	5	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Ocean Station Charlie	Russian Federation	STC652N00	52 45 N	35 30 W	5	CO ₂
Oulanka	Finland	OUL666N00	66 19 N	29 24 E	310	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Pallas-Sammaltunturi	Finland	PAL667N00	67 58 N	24 07 E	565	CO ₂ , O ₃
Pallas-Sammaltunturi	Finland	PAL667N10	67 58 N	24 07 E	560	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO
Pallas-Sammaltunturi	Finland	PAL667N60	68 00 N	24 09 E	340	VOCs
Payerne	Switzerland	PAY646N00	46 49 N	6 57 E	490	CO, O ₃ , NO, NO ₂ , NO _x , SO ₂ ,
Penhas Douradas	Portugal	PEN640N00	40 25 N	7 33 W	1380	O ₃
Peyrusse Vieille	France	PVI644N60	43 37 N	0 11 E	200	VOCs
Plateau Rosö	Italy	PLR645N00	45 56 N	7 42 E	3480	CO ₂ , CH ₄
Pleven	Bulgaria	PLV643N00	43 25 N	24 36 E	64	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Plovdiv	Bulgaria	PLD642N00	42 08 N	24 45 E	179	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Puszcza Borecka/Diabla Gora	Poland	DIG654N00	54 09 N	22 04 E	157	CO ₂ , NO ₂ , O ₃ , SO ₂
Rigi	Switzerland	RIG647N00	46 4 N	8 27 E	1031	CO, O ₃ , NO, NO ₂ , NO _x , SO ₂ ,
Rigi	Switzerland	RIG647N10	46 4 N	8 27 E	1031	NO ₂
Roquetes	Spain	ROQ640N00	40 49 N	0 29 E	50	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Rucava	Latvia	RCV656N00	56 10 N	21 11 E	18	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
San Pablo de los Montes	Spain	SPM639N00	39 33 N	4 21 W	917	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Schauinsland	Germany	SSL647N00	47 55 N	7 55 E	1205	CO ₂ , O ₃ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, SF ₆ , CO, NO ₂ , NO
Schauinsland	Germany	SSL647N10	47 55 N	7 55 E	1205	CO ₂ ,
Schmuecke	Germany	SCH651N60	50 39 N	10 46 E	937	VOCs
Sede Boker	Israel	WIS631N10	31 07 N	34 52 E	400	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Semenic	Romania	SEM645N00	45 07 N	21 58 E	1432	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Shepelevo	Russian Federation	SHP659N00	59 58 N	29 07 E	4	O ₃
Shetland	United Kingdom	SIS660N30	60 05 N	1 15 W	30	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, H ₂
Site J	Denmark	GRL666N00	66 30 N	46 12 W	2030	CH ₄
Sniezka	Poland	SNZ650N00	50 44 N	15 44 E	1603	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Sofia	Bulgaria	SOF642N00	42 39 N	23 23 E	586	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Sonnblick	Austria	SNB647N00	47 03 N	12 57 E	3106	CO ₂ , O ₃ , CO
Starina	Slovakia	STA649N60	49 03 N	22 16 E	345	VOCs
Stephansplatz	Austria	STP648N00	48 13 N	16 23 E	171	NO, NO ₂ , SO ₂
Stephansplatz	Austria	STP648N20	48 13 N	16 23 E	171	NO, NO ₂ , SO ₂
Stîna de Vale	Romania	STN646N00	46 41 N	22 37 E	1116	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Summit	Denmark	SUM672N10	72 34 N	38 28 W	3238	CH ₄ , CO ₂
Summit	Denmark	SUM672N20	72 35 N	38 29 W	3238	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃
Summit	Greenland, Denmark	SUM672N40	72 35 N	38 29 W	3238	O ₃
Summit	Denmark	SUM672NX0	72 35 N	38 29 W	3238	HFCs
Suwalki	Poland	SWL654N00	54 08 N	22 57 E	184	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Terceira Island	Portugal	AZR638N10	38 46 N	27 22 W	40	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Teriberka	Russian Federation	TER669N00	69 12 N	35 06 E	40	CO ₂ , CH ₄
Utö	Finland	UTO659N00	59 47 N	21 22 E	7	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Utö	Finland	UTO659N60	59 47 N	21 23 E	7	VOCs
Varna	Bulgaria	VRN643N00	43 12 N	27 55 E	41	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Viana do Castelo	Portugal	VDC641N00	41 42 N	8 48 W	16	SO ₂
Vindeln	Sweden	VDL664N00	64 15 N	19 46 E	271	O ₃
Virolahti	Finland	VIR660N00	60 32 N	27 40 E	4	NO ₂ , SO ₂ , O ₃
Waldhof	Germany	LGB652N00	52 48 N	10 46 E	74	CO ₂ , O ₃
Waldhof	Germany	LGB652N60	52 48 N	10 46 E	74	VOCs
Wank Peak	Germany	WNK647N00	47 31 N	11 09 E	1780	CO ₂ , NO _x , SO ₂
Westerland	Germany	WST654N00	54 56 N	8 19 E	12	CO ₂ , O ₃
Zabljak	Serbia and Montenegro	ZBL643N00	43 09 N	19 08 E	1450	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Zavodnje	Slovenia	ZRN646N00	46 26 N	15 00 E	770	O ₃

LIST OF OBSERVATION STATIONS (continued)

Station	Country/Territory	Index Number	Location		Altitude (m)	Parameter
			Latitude (° ')	Longitude (° ')		
Zeppelinfjellet	Norway	ZEP678N00	78 54 N	11 53 E	475	CO ₂ , N ₂ O, CFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , O ₃ , SO ₂
Zingst	Germany	ZGT654N00	54 26 N	12 44 E	1	CO ₂ , O ₃ , CH ₄
Zingst	Germany	ZGT654N60	54 26 N	12 44 E	1	VOCs
Zoseni	Latvia	ZSN657N00	57 08 N	25 55 E	183	NO ₂ , SO ₂
Zugspitze	Germany	ZGP647N00	47 25 N	10 59 E	2960	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, NO, NO _x , NO _y , O ₃
Zugspitze	Germany	ZSP647N00	47 25 N	10 59 E	2960	CO ₂
Zugspitze/Schneefernerh aus	Germany	SFH647NA0	47 25 N	10 59 E	2656	CH ₄ , CO, CO ₂ , N ₂ O, NO, NO ₂ , NO _y , O ₃ , SF ₆
Zugspitze/Schneefernerh aus	Germany	SFH647N00	47 25 N	10 59 E	2656	SO ₂
ANTARCTICA						
Arrival Heights	Antarctica / New Zealand	ARH778S00	77 48 S	166 40 E	184	CH ₄ , CO, N ₂ O
Arrival Heights	Antarctica / New Zealand	ARH778SA0	77 48 S	166 40 E	184	CO
Halley Bay	United Kingdom	HBA775S10	75 34 S	26 30 W	33	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Jubany	Argentina	JBN762S00	62 14 S	58 40 W	15	CO ₂
Mawson	Australia	MAA767S30	67 37 S	62 52 E	32	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, H ₂
McMurdo / Arrival Heights	U. S. A. / New Zealand / Antarctica	MCM777S40	77 48 S	166 46 E	50	O ₃
McMurdo Station	U. S. A.	MCM777S10	77 49 S	166 35 E	11	CH ₄
Mizuho	Japan	MZH770S00	70 42 S	44 18 E	2230	CH ₄
Neumayer	Germany	NMY770S00	70 39 S	8 15 W	42	O ₃
Palmer Station	U. S. A.	PSA764S10	64 55 S	64 00 W	10	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Palmer Station	U. S. A.	PSA764S20	64 55 S	64 00 W	10	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
Palmer Station	U. S. A.	PSA764SX0	64 55 S	64 00 W	10	HFCs
South Pole	U. S. A.	SPO789S00	89 58 S	24 48 W	2810	CO ₂
South Pole	U. S. A.	SPO789S10	89 59 S	24 48 W	2810	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , ¹³ CH ₄ , C ₁₈ O ₂
South Pole	U. S. A.	SPO789S20	89 59 S	24 48 W	2810	CFCs, HCFCs, CH ₃ CCl ₃ , C ₂ Cl ₄ , CH ₂ Cl ₂ , SF ₆ , N ₂ O
South Pole	U. S. A.	SPO789S30	89 59 S	24 48 W	2810	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, H ₂
South Pole	U. S. A.	SPO789S40	89 59 S	24 48 W	2810	O ₃
South Pole	U. S. A.	SPO789SX0	89 59 S	24 48 W	2810	N ₂ O, CFCs, HFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , SF ₆ , HCFCs
Syowa Station	Japan	SYO769S00	69 00 S	39 35 E	29	CO ₂
Syowa Station	Japan	SYO769S10	69 00 S	39 34 E	14	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Syowa Station	Japan	SYO769S20	69 00 S	39 35 E	19.2	O ₃
MOBILE STATION						
Aircraft (over Bass Strait and Cape Grim)	Australia	AIA999930				CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CO, H ₂
Akademik Korolev, R/V	U. S. A.	AKD999910				CH ₄
Alligator liberty, M/V	Japan	ALG999900				CO ₂
Atlantic Ocean	U. S. A.	AOC9XXX10			10	CH ₄
BACPAC 99	U. S. A.	BAC999900				CFCs, HCFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , CH ₃ Cl, CH ₃ Br

LIST OF OBSERVATION STATIONS (continued)

Station	Country/Territory	Index Number	Location			Parameter
			Latitude (° ')	Longitude (° ')	Altitude (m)	
BLAST1	U. S. A.	BLA999910				CFCs, HCFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , CH ₃ Cl, CH ₃ Br
BLAST2	U. S. A.	BLA999920				CFCs, HCFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , CH ₃ Cl, CH ₃ Br
BLAST3	U. S. A.	BLA999930				CFCs, HCFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , CH ₃ Cl, CH ₃ Br
CLIVAR 01	U. S. A.	CLI999900				CFCs, HCFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , CH ₃ Cl, CH ₃ Br
Discoverer 1983 & 1984, R/V	U. S. A.	DIS999910				CH ₄
Discoverer 1985, R/V	U. S. A.	DSC999910				CH ₄
Environmental observation and monitoring project	Japan	EOM999900				CO ₂ , CH ₄
Gas Change Experiment	U. S. A.	GAS999900				CFCs, HCFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , CH ₃ Cl, CH ₃ Br
HATS Ocean Projects	U. S. A.	HOP9999X0				HFCs
INSTAC-I (International Strato/Tropospheric Air Chemistry Project)	Japan	INS9999A0				CO ₂ , CH ₄ , ¹³ CO ₂
John Biscoe, R/V	U. S. A.	JBS999910				CH ₄
Keifu Maru, R/V	Japan	KEF999900				CO ₂
Kofu Maru, R/V	Japan	KOF999900				CO ₂
Korolev, R/V	U. S. A.	KOR999910				CH ₄
Long Lines Expedition, R/V	U. S. A.	LLE999910				CH ₄
Mexico Naval H-02, R/V	U. S. A.	MXN999910				CH ₄
MRI Research, 1978-1986, R/V	Japan	MRI9999A0				CH ₄
MRI Research, Hakuho Maru, R/V	Japan	HKH999900				CO ₂
MRI Research, Kaiyo Maru, R/V	Japan	KIY999900				CO ₂
MRI Research, Mirai, R/V	Japan	MMR999900				CO ₂
MRI Research, Natushima, R/V	Japan	NTU999900				CO ₂
MRI Research, Ryofu Maru, R/V	Japan	RFM999900				CO ₂
MRI Research, Wellington Maru, R/V	Japan	WLT999900				CO ₂
NOPACCS - Hakurei Maru -	Japan	HAK999900				CO ₂
Oceanographer, R/V	U. S. A.	OCE999910				CH ₄
Pacific Ocean	U. S. A.	POC9XXX10			10	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
PHASE I-04	U. S. A.	PHA999900				CFCs, HCFCs, CCl ₄ , CH ₃ CCl ₃ , CH ₃ Cl, CH ₃ Br
Polar Star, R/V	U. S. A.	PLS999910				CH ₄
Ryofu Maru, R/V	Japan	RYF999900				CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O, CFCs
Ryofu Maru, R/V	Japan	RYF9999A0				CO ₂ , CH ₄
South China Sea	U. S. A.	SCS9XXX10			15	CO ₂ , CH ₄ , CO, H ₂ , ¹³ CO ₂ , C ₁₈ O ₂
Soyo Maru, R/V	Japan	SOY999900				CO ₂
Surveyor, R/V	U. S. A.	SUR999910				CH ₄

LIST OF OBSERVATION STATIONS (continued)

Station	Country/Territory	Index Number	Location			Parameter
			Latitude (° ')	Longitude (° ')	Altitude (m)	
The Observation of Atmospheric Methane Over Japan	Japan	OAM999900				CH ₄
The Observation of Atmospheric Sulfur Hexafluoride Over Japan	Japan	OAS999900				SF ₆
WEST COSMIC - Hakurei Maru No.2 -	Japan	HAK9999A0				CO ₂
Western Pacific	U. S. A.	WPC9XXX10			10	CH ₄

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GLOSSARY

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AES	Atmospheric Environment Service (Canada, presently MSC)
AGAGE	Advanced Global Atmospheric Gases Experiment
Aichi	Aichi Prefecture, Japan
AIST	National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology, Japan
ALE	Atmospheric Lifetime Experiment
AWI	Alfred Wegener Institute, Germany
BMG	Bureau of Meteorology and Geophysics, Indonesia
BoM	Commonwealth Bureau of Meteorology, Australia
CAMS	Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences (China)
CESI	Italian Electrical Experimental Center (Italy)
CFR	Centre des Faibles Radioactivites (France)
CHMI	Czech Hydrometeorological Institute (Czech Republic)
CMA	China Meteorological Administration (China)
CMDL	Climate Monitoring and Diagnostics Laboratory (USA/NOAA, presently ESRL/GMD)
CNRS	Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (France)
CSIRO	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (Australia)
DEFRA	Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, London, United Kingdom
DNA-IAA	Direccion Nacional del Antartico-Instituto Antartico Argentino (Argentina)
DWD	Deutscher Wetterdienst (German Meteorological Service, Germany)
EARS	Environmental Agency of the Republic of Slovenia
EMPA	Swiss Federal Laboratories for Material Testing and Research (Switzerland)
ENEA	Italian National Agency for New Technology, Energy and the Environment (Italy)
FMI	Finnish Meteorological Institute
GAGE	Global Atmospheric Gases Experiment
GAW	Global Atmosphere Watch (WMO)
HATS	Halocarbons and other Atmospheric Trace Species
HMS	Hungarian Meteorological Service (Hungary)
IAFMS	Italian Air Force Meteorological Service, Italy
IGP	Instituto Geofísico del Perú (Peru)
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MRI	Meteorological Research Institute (Japan/JMA)
MSC	Meteorological Service of Canada (Canada, formerly AES)
NCEP	National Centers for Environmental Prediction (USA/NOAA)
NIES	National Institute for Environmental Studies (Japan)
NILU	Norwegian Institute for Air Research (Norway)
NIMH	Institutul National de Meteorologie, Hidrologie si Gospodariea Apelor (Romania)
NIPR	National Institute of Polar Research, Japan
NIRE	National Institute for Resources and Environment, Japan
NIST	National Institute of Standards and Technology (USA)
NIWA	National Institute of Water & Atmospheric Research (New Zealand)
NOAA/GMD:	Earth System Research Laboratory, Global Monitoring Division, NOAA, USA (formerly CMDL)
NUI	National University of Ireland, Galway, Ireland
ONM	Office National de la Météorologie, Algeria
PolyU	Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China
RIVM	National Institute for Health and Environment (Netherlands)
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SAWS	South African Weather Service (South Africa)
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SNU	Seoul National University, Republic of Korea
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UBA Austria	Umweltbundesamt (Federal Environmental Agency), Austria
UHEI-IUP	Institut für Umweltp Physik, Universität Heidelberg, Germany
UM	University of Malta
WDCGG	World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases, operated by JMA, Japan (WMO)
WMO	World Meteorological Organization
ZAMG	Central Institute of Meteorology and Geodynamics (Austria)

ATMOSPHERIC SPECIES:

CCl₄	tetrachloromethane (carbon tetrachloride)
CFC-11	chlorofluorocarbon-11 (trichlorofluoromethane, CCl ₃ F)
CFC-12	chlorofluorocarbon-12 (dichlorodifluoromethane, CCl ₂ F ₂)
CFC-113	chlorofluorocarbon-113 (1,1,2-trichlorotrifluoroethane, CCl ₂ FCClF ₂)
CFCs	chlorofluorocarbons
HCFC-141b	hydrochlorofluorocarbon-141b (1,1-dichloro-1-fluoroethane, CH ₃ CCl ₂ F)
HCFC-142b	hydrochlorofluorocarbon-142b (1,1-difluoro-1-chloroethane, CH ₃ CClF ₂)
HCFCs	hydrochlorofluorocarbons
CH₄	methane

CH₃CCl₃	trichloroethane (methyl chloroform)
CO	carbon monoxide
CO₂	carbon dioxide
N₂O	nitrous oxide
NO	nitrogen monoxide
NO₂	nitrogen dioxide
NO_x	nitrogen oxides
O₃	ozone
SO₂	sulphur dioxide

UNITS:

ppb	parts per billion
ppm	parts per million
ppt	parts per trillion

Others:

ENSO	El Niño-Southern Oscillation
M/V	merchant vessel
R/V	research vessel
SOI	Southern Oscillation Index
SST	Sea Surface Temperature

LIST OF WMO WDCGG PUBLICATIONS

DATA REPORTING MANUAL:

WDCGG No. 1 January 1991

WMO WDCGG DATA REPORT:

(period of data accepted)

WDCGG No. 2 Part A	October	1992	October	1990	~	August	1992
WDCGG No. 2 Part B	October	1992	October	1990	~	August	1992
WDCGG No. 3	October	1993	September	1992	~	March	1993
WDCGG No. 5	March	1994	April	1993	~	September	1993
WDCGG No. 6	September	1994	September	1993	~	March	1994
WDCGG No. 7	March	1995	April	1994	~	December	1994
WDCGG No. 9	September	1995	January	1995	~	June	1995
WDCGG No.10	March	1996	July	1995	~	December	1995
WDCGG No.11	September	1996	January	1996	~	June	1996
WDCGG No.12	March	1997	July	1996	~	November	1996
WDCGG No.14	September	1997	December	1996	~	June	1997
WDCGG No.16	March	1998	July	1997	~	December	1997
WDCGG No.17	September	1998	January	1998	~	June	1998
WDCGG No.18	March	1999	July	1998	~	December	1998
WDCGG No.20	September	1999	January	1999	~	June	1999
WDCGG No.21	March	2000	July	1999	~	December	1999
WDCGG No.23	September	2000	January	2000	~	June	2000
WDCGG No.25	March	2001	July	2000	~	December	2000

WMO WDCGG DATA CATALOGUE:

WDCGG No. 4	December	1993
WDCGG No.13	March	1997
WDCGG No.19	March	1999
WDCGG No.24	March	2001

WMO WDCGG DATA SUMMARY:

WDCGG No. 8	October	1995
WDCGG No.15	March	1998
WDCGG No.22	March	2000
WDCGG No.26	March	2002
WDCGG No.27	March	2003
WDCGG No.28	March	2004
WDCGG No.29	March	2005
WDCGG No.30	March	2006
WDCGG No.31	March	2007

WMO WDCGG CD-ROM:

(period of data accepted)

CD-ROM No. 1	March	1995	October	1990	~	December	1994
CD-ROM No. 2	March	1996	October	1990	~	June	1995
CD-ROM No. 3	March	1997	October	1990	~	June	1996
CD-ROM No. 4	March	1998	October	1990	~	December	1997
CD-ROM No. 5	March	1999	October	1990	~	December	1998
CD-ROM No. 6	March	2000	October	1990	~	December	1999
CD-ROM No. 7	March	2001	October	1990	~	December	2000
CD-ROM No. 8	March	2002	October	1990	~	January	2002
CD-ROM No. 9	March	2003	October	1990	~	December	2002
CD-ROM No.10	March	2004	October	1990	~	December	2003
CD-ROM No.11	March	2005	October	1990	~	December	2004
CD-ROM No.12	March	2006	October	1990	~	December	2005
CD-ROM No.13	March	2007	October	1990	~	November	2006