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Department of Climate Change

AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL

GREENHOUSE ACCOUNTS



National Inventory Report 2006 — Volume 2

The Australian Government Submission to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change June 2008

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June 2008

Designed by Roar (DE&WR 4029)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

VOLUME 2

7. Land Use, Land Use Change And Forestry	1
7.1 Overview	1
7.2 Overview of Source Category Description and Methodology – Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry	3
7.3 Source Category 5A Forest Lands	17
7.4 Source Category 5B Cropland	20
7.5 Source Category 5C Grassland	21
7.6 Source Category 5D Wetland	23
7.7 Source Category 5E Settlements	23
7.8 Source Category 5F Other Lands	23
7.9 Source Category 5G Other	23
7.10 Source Category 5(V) Biomass Burning	25
Appendix 7.A: Harvested Native Forests	29
Appendix 7.B: Plantations	33
Appendix 7.C: Forest Conversion to Croplands and Grasslands	66
Appendix 7.D: Harvested Wood Products	117
Appendix 7.E: Overview of the Development of Australia's National Carbon Accounting System	138
8. Waste	165
8.1 Overview	165
8.2 Overview of Source Category Description and Methodology – Waste	166
9. Other (UNFCCC Sector 7)	180
10. Recalculations and Improvements	181
10.1 Explanations and justifications for recalculations	181
10.2 Implications for emission levels	182
10.3 Implications for emission trends, including time series consistency	182
10.4 Recalculations, including in response to the review process, and planned improvements to the inventory	184
ANNEX 1: Key Source Analysis	186
ANNEX 2: Methodology and Data for Estimating Carbon Dioxide Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion	199
ANNEX 3: Other Detailed Methodological Descriptions	200
ANNEX 4: Carbon Dioxide Reference Approach for the Energy Sector	201
ANNEX 5: Assessment of Completeness	203
ANNEX 6: Additional Information: Glossary	205
ANNEX 7: Uncertainty Analysis	209
ANNEX 8: References	222

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 7.1	Total net CO ₂ -e emissions from Land use, land use change and forestry, 1990–2005	2
Figure 7.2	Land Use in Australia	5
Figure 7.3	Forest Extent in Australia	6
Figure 7.4	Average Annual Rainfall	6
Figure 7.5	Average Annual Temperature	7
Figure 7.6	Soils Map of Australia	7
Figure 8.1	Emissions from solid waste disposal on land, 1990–2006	166
Figure 8.2	Solid waste to landfill by state	170
Figure 8.3	Carbon stock model flow chart	171
Figure 8.4	Pathways for Wastewater	174

LIST OF TABLES

Table 7.1	Land use, land use change and forestry net CO ₂ -e emissions, 2006	1
Table 7.2	Annual area of forest conversion (ha)	3
Table 7.3	Land representation matrix (2005)	4
Table 7.4	Summary of methodologies and emission factors – Land use, land use change and forestry sector	8
Table 7.5	Fuel loads for Prescribed Burning of Forest in Australia	26
Table 7.6	Fuel loads for Wildfires in Australia	26
Table 7.7	Burning efficiencies for Prescribed Burning and Wildfires in Australia	26
Table 7.8	Forest vegetation composition	27
Table 7.9	Mean emission factors for carbon and nitrogen trace gases from forest biomass burning	27
Table 7.10	Elemental to molecular mass conversion factor (Ci)	27
Table 8.1	Waste CO ₂ -e emissions, 2006	165
Table 8.2	Summary of methods and emission factors used to estimate emissions from Waste	166
Table 8.3	State Waste stream percentages 2006	167
Table 8.4	Waste mix percentage by stream for 2006	168
Table 8.5	Volumes of total waste and by type of waste: Australia, 1940–2006	169
Table 8.6	Key Model Parameters: DOC values used in the First Order Decay Model	171
Table 8.7	Key Model Parameters: Half-lives by waste mix category and State	172
Table 8.8	Carbon stocks, losses and accumulation 1990 to 2006	173
Table 8.9	Key parameters for industrial wastewater emissions, 2006	176
Table 8.10	Methane recovered as a percentage of industrial wastewater treatment, 2006	176
Table 10.1	Principal recalculations for the 2006 inventory (compared with the 2005 Revised inventory)	182
Table 10.2	Principal estimated recalculations for the 2006 inventory	183
Table 10.3	Principal recalculations for the 2006 Revised inventory by sector (compared with the 2005 Revised inventory)	184
Table 10.4	Summary of Planned Improvements to the Australian Inventory	185

7. LAND USE, LAND USE CHANGE AND FORESTRY

7.1 OVERVIEW

The net emissions from the *land use, land use change and forestry* sector were 13.8 Mt CO₂-e in 2006 (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1 Land use, land use change and forestry net CO₂-e emissions, 2006

Greenhouse gas source and sink categories	CO ₂ -e emissions (Gg)			Total
	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	
5 Land use, land use change and forestry^(a)				13 787
A. Forest lands ^(b)	-49 572	2 083	568	-46 921
B. Croplands ^{(c) (d) (e)}	3 154	641	228	4 023
C. Grassland ^{(c) (d)}	57 157	1 415	387	58 959
D. Wetlands	NE	NE	NE	NE
E. Settlements	NE	NE	NE	NE
F. Other Lands	NE	NE	NE	NE
G. Other ^(f)	-2 620		345	-2 274

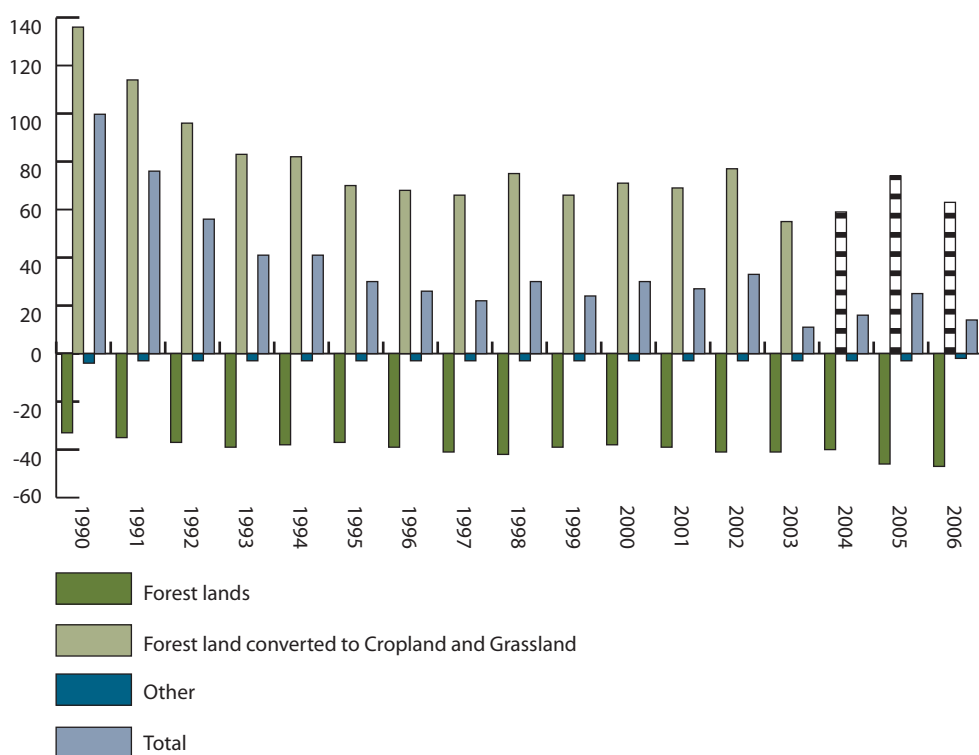
(a) A negative sign denotes a sink. (b) Includes emissions from prescribed burning and wildfires. (c) Includes emissions from biomass burning. (d) The results for 2006 are based on average emissions from 2003 to 2005, this estimate will be revised when 2006 areas of forest conversion are determined in the next update of estimates using the National Carbon Accounting System. (e) Includes N₂O from disturbance associated with land-use conversion to croplands (f) Includes Harvested Wood Products, Agricultural Lime Application and N₂O from disturbance associated with land-use conversion to grasslands.

Forest lands (5A) comprises emissions and removals from harvested native forests and plantations, emissions from fuelwood consumption and non-CO₂ gas emissions from prescribed burning and wildfire in forests. These subsectors are estimated to have constituted a net sink of 46.9 Mt CO₂-e in 2006.

The preliminary estimate for *Forest land converted to Cropland and Grassland* in 2006 is 62.9 Mt, while the associated emissions of N₂O from soil disturbance were 0.4 Mt. The estimates for 2004 to 2006 for these sources should be considered as being interim only, as they will be revised when areas of forest conversion are confirmed in the next update of the inventory using the National Carbon Accounting System.

Harvested wood products are not reported in the Forest lands category and carbon stocks are transferred to the 5G Other – Harvested Wood Product. As the reporting tables do not account for transfers of carbon stocks, this leads to an apparent, but not real, emission from forest lands and a 4.1 Mt 'sink' in harvest wood products.

Figure 7.1 Total net CO₂-e emissions from Land use, land use change and forestry, 1990–2006



Note: The results for forest conversion for 2004 to 2006 will be revised following the next update of the inventory. N₂O emissions from disturbance associated with land-use conversion to cropland are included in Other.

Trends

Overall the total *land use, land use change and forestry* emissions declined from 99.7 Mt CO₂-e in 1990 to 13.8 Mt CO₂-e in 2006.

The preliminary estimate of total emissions from *forest land converted to cropland and grasslands*, was 53.9% (73.6 Mt) lower than in 1990. Since 1990 the annual rates of *forest conversion* have decreased substantially reflecting both the effects of changing market and climatic conditions and of regulatory impacts with consequent reductions in estimated emissions from burning and decay of above-ground biomass and below-ground carbon. There is also a diminishing effect of extensive past *land use change* on decay of above-ground biomass and below-ground carbon.

Emissions of N₂O from disturbance associated with forest conversion to cropland and grassland has declined by 34.3% (0.2 Mt) between 1990 and 2006.

Within *forest lands* (5A), net removals from *forest land remaining forest land* declined by 22.4% (7.0 Mt) to -24.1 Mt CO₂-e from 1990 to 2006, while the removals from *lands converted to forest land* increased from -2.0 Mt to -22.8 Mt CO₂-e. The combined effect of these changes is an increase in the forest lands net sink of 41.6 % (13.8 Mt) between 1990 and 2006.

Emissions from *agricultural lime application* have increased from 0.2 Mt in 1990 to 1.5 Mt in 2006.

Table 7.2 Annual area of forest conversion (ha)

	Forest land converted to	
	Croplands	Grassland
1990	117,324	444,465
1991	89,165	338,630
1992	69,750	320,038
1993	65,337	323,026
1994	76,623	292,146
1995	60,788	253,876
1996	65,767	251,179
1997	65,359	246,712
1998	62,887	266,167
1999	62,152	273,237
2000	62,596	289,299
2001	65,941	286,648
2002	63,605	232,352
2003	62,714	216,452
2004	76,499	286,218
2005	55,955	277,611

Note: Estimates of forest conversion for 2006 are not yet available.

7.2 OVERVIEW OF SOURCE CATEGORY DESCRIPTION AND METHODOLOGY – LAND USE, LAND USE CHANGE AND FORESTRY

Land use and management activities influence a variety of ecosystem processes that affect greenhouse gas fluxes. The focus of this sector is the estimation of emissions and removals of carbon dioxide (CO₂) from these activities. CO₂ fluxes between the atmosphere and managed land systems are primarily controlled by uptake from plant photosynthesis and releases from respiration, decomposition and oxidation of organic material. Nitrous oxide (N₂O) may be emitted from the ecosystem as a by-product of nitrification and denitrification and the burning of organic matter. Other gases released during biomass burning include methane (CH₄), carbon monoxide (CO), other oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOC).

7.2.1 LAND USE IN AUSTRALIA

Australia has a land mass of 769 million hectares containing unique land, water, vegetation and biodiversity resources. The distribution and land areas of the continent under different land uses are shown in Figure 7.2 and Table 7.3 shows the representation of land according to the IPCC categories.

The most significant agricultural activities include wool, beef, wheat, cotton and sugar. Australia is also a significant exporter of dairy produce, fruit, rice and flowers.

Table 7.3 Land representation matrix (2005)

Land Category	1990 (Mha)	2005^(d) (Mha)	Net Change (Mha)
Forest lands total	112.0	108.9	-3.2
Forest remaining Forest	111.9	107.7	-4.2
<i>Harvested Native Forests</i>	14.9	14.9	0.0
<i>Plantations</i>	0.8	0.8	0.0
<i>Other Native Forest</i> ^(a)	96.2	92.0	-4.2
Grassland converted to Forest Land	0.1	1.2	1.1
Grasslands total	441.2	444.3	3.1
Grassland remaining Grassland	433.6	432.6	-1.1
Forest Land converted to Grassland	7.6	11.7	4.2
Cropland total	24.8	25.8	1.0
Cropland remaining Cropland	21.7	21.7	0.0
Forest Land converted to Cropland	3.2	4.2	1.0
Wetlands total	13.5	13.5	0.0
Settlements total	1.6	1.6	0.0
Other Lands	176.4	176.4	0.0
Non-anthropogenic Forest land -Grassland transitions ^(b)	-0.6	-1.5	-0.9
TOTAL LAND AREA ^(c)	769.0	769.0	0.0

(a) Australia is not in a position to identify managed and unmanaged forests within the forest estate. In the interim until Australia confirms the definition of "managed forests" all non-harvested forests are reported as Forests remaining Forests – Other Native Forest with emissions and removals assumed to be in equilibrium. These forest areas will be revised once the determination of "managed forests" has been made.

(b) The forest – grassland transition term is a net term - that is there are transitions in both directions from forest regrowth and forest dieback which are in large part driven by climate variability. These transitions typically occur in lands just at the lower crown cover threshold of the forest definition where small changes in leaf mass can move lands under or over the forest threshold.

(c) Total area does not include external territories.

(d) As forest conversion coverages for 2006 are not yet complete this table has not been updated.

[illegible]

Australia is a dry continent where rainfall is unreliable and both recurring floods and droughts are a natural feature. There are a number of distinct climatic zones with summer dominant rainfall in the tropics and subtropics in the north, Mediterranean climates in the south, the arid and semi-arid regions in the centre, and areas of high rainfall on the coastal fringes and in the ranges of the east.

7.2.3 SOILS

Australia has a range of soil types, ranging from old deeply weathered and infertile to younger, more fertile soils derived from volcanic rocks and alluvium. Approximately 50 per cent are sandy, 37 per cent are earths and loams, and 13 per cent are clay textured. Many soils have low levels of phosphorus and other nutrients. Soils are managed by maintaining ground cover, avoiding disturbance on steep slopes and use of fertilizer (mainly phosphorus and nitrogen).

Figure 7.3 Forest Extent in Australia

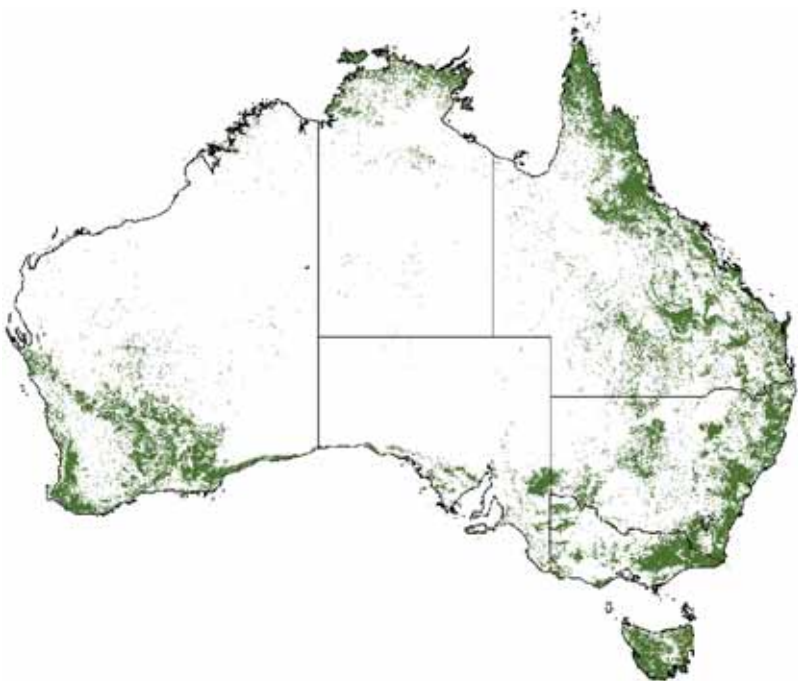


Figure 7.4 Average Annual Rainfall

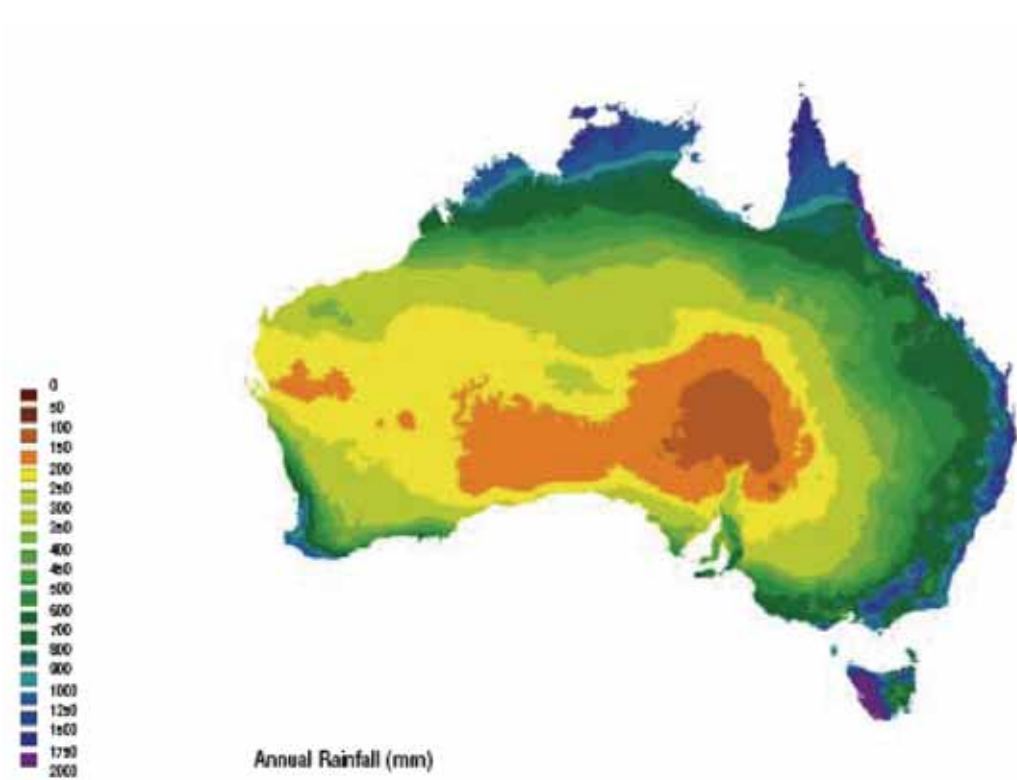


Figure 7.5 Average Annual Temperature

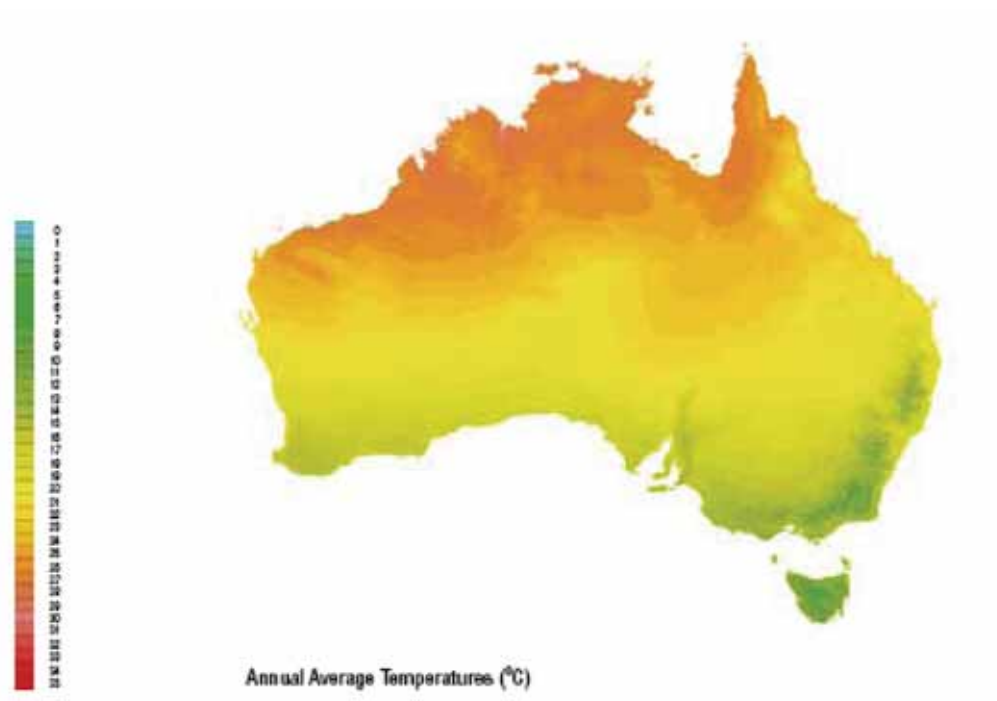
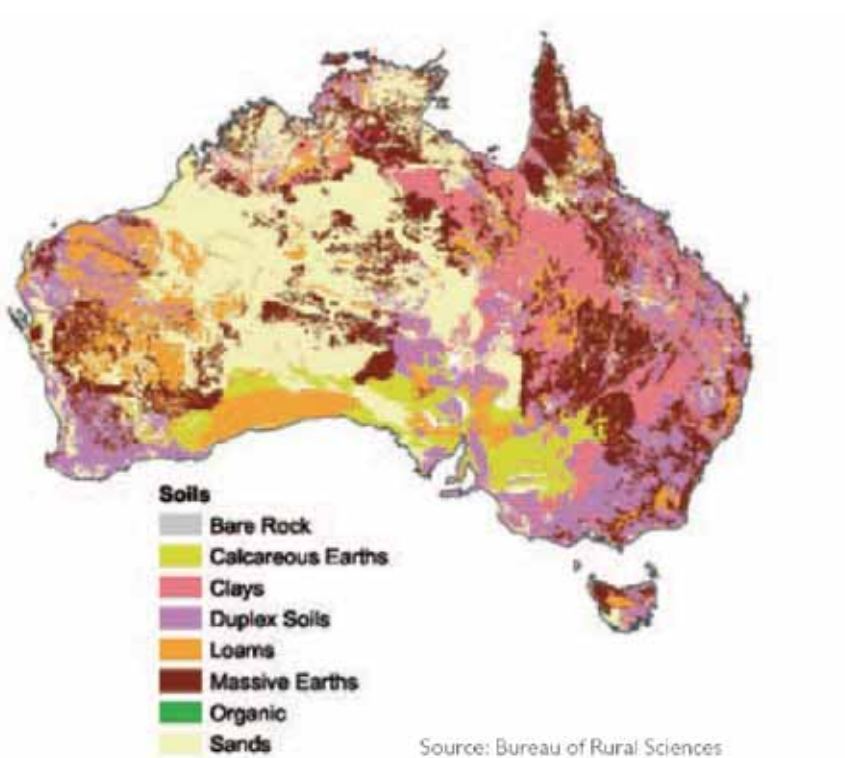


Figure 7.6 Soils Map of Australia



7.2.4 GENERAL APPROACH

The Australian LULUCF methodology contains predominantly country specific methodologies and Tier 3 models (Table 7.4). The principal method of representing land is through a time-series national remote sensing program. This consistent representation of land is a fully spatial and time-series application of Approach 3 as described in the IPCC Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2003). Reconciliations on a land unit by land unit basis are done to ensure that there are no gaps or overlaps leading to under or double counting of land. To support estimation of emissions/removals in the Forest Land category Australia uses some non-spatial data drawn from Australia's National Forest Inventory. This is used exclusively within a reporting category consistent with Approach 3.

The methods used in the reporting of this inventory are described in detail in Appendices 7.A to 7.D.

Appendix 7.A – Harvested Native Forests for *Forest land remaining Forest land*;

Appendix 7.B – Forest Plantations for *Forest land remaining Forest land* and *Grassland converted to Forest land*;

Appendix 7.C – *Forest land converted to Grassland and Cropland*;

Appendix 7.D – *Harvested Wood Products*.

The NCAS development is staged over a ten year period, 1998 to 2008, with progressive implementation of a complete national (all lands, land use activities, pools and gases) reporting capability for agriculture, forestry and land use activities. To date the full NCAS capabilities (fully spatially explicit process-based ecosystems modelling) has only been completed for the conversion of forests to other land uses (e.g., cropping and grazing). For Australia, this represents the majority of emissions associated with *Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry* activities. The methods applied to the estimation of emissions from the conversion of forest land to other land uses is described in Appendix 7.C. Appendix 7.E gives an outline of the current and planned NCAS capabilities for inventory improvement.

The methods used to estimate emissions from other activities (not associated with forest conversion) that use interim approaches are described in Appendices 7.A, 7.B and 7.D.

Table 7.4 Summary of methodologies and emission factors – Land use, land use change and forestry sector

Greenhouse Gas Source And Sink	CO ₂		CH ₄		N ₂ O		NO _x , CO and NMVOC	
	Method applied	EF	Method applied	EF	Method applied	EF	Method applied	EF
5. Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry								
A. Forest Lands								
1. Forest Land Remaining Forest Land								
Harvested Native Forests	CS, T2	CS						
Other Native Forests	T1	CS						
Plantations	T3	M						
Fuelwood consumed	T1	CS						
5(V) Biomass Burning - 5.A.1.			CS	CS	CS	CS	CS	CS
2. Land Converted to Forest Land	T3	M						
B. Cropland								
1. Cropland remaining Cropland	T1	CS						

Greenhouse Gas Source And Sink	CO ₂		CH ₄		N ₂ O		NO _x , CO and NMVOC	
	Method applied	EF	Method applied	EF	Method applied	EF	Method applied	EF
5. Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry								
2. Land Converted to Cropland	T3	M						
5(III) Disturbance associated with land conversion					T2	CS		
5(V) Biomass Burning – 5.B.2	T3	M	CS	CS	CS	CS	CS	CS
C. Grassland								
1. Grassland remaining Grassland	T1	CS						
2. Land Converted to Grassland	T3	M						
5 (V) Biomass Burning - 5.C.2	T3	M	CS	CS	CS	CS	CS	CS
D. Wetlands								
1. Wetlands remaining Wetlands	NE	NE						
2. Land Converted to Wetlands	IE	IE						
E. Settlements								
1. Settlements remaining Settlements	NE	NE						
2. Land Converted to Settlements	IE	IE						
F. Other Lands								
1. Other Lands remaining Other Lands	NA	NA						
2. Land Converted to Other Lands	NO	NO						
F. Other								
Harvested Wood Products	T3	M						
5(I) N fertilisation					IE	IE		
5(II) Drainage of Soils					NE	NE		
5(III) Disturbance associated with land conversion to grassland					T2	CS		
5(IV) Agricultural lime application	CST1	D						

EF = emission factor, CS = country specific, D = IPCC default, M = Model, NA = not applicable, NE= not estimated, NO = not occurring, IE=included elsewhere, T1 = Tier 1, T2 = Tier 2 and T3 = Tier 3,

7.2.5 AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL CARBON ACCOUNTING SYSTEM

Australia has embarked on a 10 year development program for a National Carbon Accounting System (NCAS) to provide a complete accounting capability by 2008 (AGO 2005). With a current annual investment of approximately AUD \$4 million per year, the NCAS will be progressively developed to provide a complete (all carbon pools, gases, lands and land use activities) greenhouse gas accounting capability for agriculture, forestry and land use. The eventual capacity will be a full spatial enumeration with emissions and removals calculated using a process-based, mass balance, carbon and nitrogen cycling, ecosystem model.

The full spatial enumeration is achieved through an extensive remote sensing program that uses medium resolution (50m and 25m) Landsat satellite data in a time-series since 1972 (Furby 2002; Caccetta et. al., 2003). There are currently fifteen national coverages in the time-series. The medium resolution data is used to determine change in forest and sparse woody vegetation, and to determine plantation area, age and type.

Land use is being mapped using a coarse 1km resolution (NOAA) satellite, with a higher temporal resolution time-series (16 day) and constrained to agricultural survey statistics.

Monthly climate maps at 1km resolution since 1968 have been derived to provide the annual variability due to climatic process drivers (Kesteven et. al., 2004). Coupled with management practices, the vegetation cover change and climate variability are together the principal causes of emissions, and source of annual variability in emissions.

The progressive development of the NCAS is set around priorities according to the scale of emissions from either the land use activity or carbon pool. For Australia, by far the largest component of anthropogenic emissions is the conversion of forests to cropland and grassland. In the 2006 national inventory, only the forest to cropland and forest to grassland conversions are reported using the full Tier 3, Approach 3 capability of the NCAS.

The other principal reporting elements, forests remaining forests and land converted to forest are reported using interim methods that, as yet, have not been fully spatially developed within the NCAS framework. This is also the case for harvested wood products.

As the NCAS operates under a tightly integrated singular framework, and generates the bulk of its required input data, specifications are applied that ensure that the collection of data and analysis meet both technical and policy specifications. This has led to the development of detailed methods and protocols to ensure that all data meets quality and consistency standards. These specifications and protocols have been published and are publicly available through the internet, library deposits and circulation on compact disk as part of the free-of-charge distribution of the National Carbon Accounting Toolbox (NCAT).

7.2.6 CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES

Australia's National Carbon Accounting System (NCAS) uses Tier 3 methods (ecosystem model) of emissions estimation and an Approach 3 (full spatial enumeration) method of representing most land categories (IPCC 2003). Unlike the Tier 1 and Tier 2 methods, Tier 3 uses integrated ecosystem modelling that integrates the remotely sensed data on land cover change to estimate emissions in a way that fully represents both annual and spatial variability. Tier 3 methods do not use the emissions factors approaches of Tier 1 and Tier 2 inventory methods. Tier 1 and Tier 2 methods do not represent annual variability in emissions (except in activity data) with the same emissions factor being used over time, and encompass limited spatial variability.

Tier 3 and Approach 3 methods were chosen because the causes of most emissions in Australia (forest conversion) are from rare events (a small fraction of the forest estate). A simple and generalised emissions factor approach cannot, with confidence, reliably estimate emissions from rare events in a spatially and temporally variable overall 'population'. Tier 3 methods are more complex, and therefore require different, yet more intensive, attention to quality control, quality assurance, sensitivity and uncertainty analysis, and verification. The checking of emissions estimates can still be facilitated by transparency and peer review.

Flowing from the change in approach from 'activity' data (typically either areas of land use or land use change) multiplied by 'emissions factors' as used for Tier 1 and Tier 2 is a need to reconsider how the cross-cutting issues are treated in Tier 3 inventories. As the methods no longer rely on emissions factors, basing an approach to the cross-cutting issues as if using an emissions factor method is not appropriate.

The following describes the way in which the cross-cutting issues are addressed in the NCAS around:

- > Quality Assurance and Quality Control
- > Verification
- > Sensitivity and Uncertainty Testing
- > Transparency and Peer Review.

Each of these is discussed in relation to the various processes used in inventory preparation.

7.2.6.1 Quality Assurance and Quality Control

Harvested Native Forests

The growth rates used in the harvested native forests model are drawn from Australia's National Forest Inventory and are 'benchmarked' against independent estimates. The area estimates are also benchmarked against independent data, but these estimates are highly variable. Data on stem to whole tree conversions, carbon contents and wood densities are all cross-checked against independent estimates. Data on harvest volumes are drawn from national statistics on forest products production consumption. Decomposition estimates, such as for harvested wood products and forest slash are within ranges developed/used in independent studies.

Plantations

Data on the area of plantations is drawn from the published data of Australia's National Forest Inventory. Growth rate estimates of the various plantation types are also extracted from the National Forest Inventory published report on national wood flow estimates. Appendix 7.B of this report describes the approach taken. Model parameters have been drawn from various studies, both specifically for, and prior to the development of the NCAS. The values used represent the estimates judged as most probable.

The model, model parameterisation and results were submitted for external independent quality assurance. The quality assurance report is at Attachment 7.B2 of Appendix 7.B. The models used are also the 'benchmark' systems for the NCAT, and are publicly available and widely used by the forest industry in estimating carbon budgets.

Forest Converted to Other Land Uses

The methods described in Appendix C include a summary of the quality assurance activities undertaken in this full application of NCAS spatially explicit ecosystem model based approach. Being a part of the complete and systematic NCAS approach the estimation is subject to the quality assurance processes embedded within each program area of the NCAS. Also, quality assurance benefits from the ability to benchmark activities against the detailed specifications, protocols, testing and verification procedures. Periodic external review of program application is also carried out to ensure that the quality assurance programs meet current best practice in method and application.

Harvested Wood Products

The data for the harvested wood products model described in Appendix 7.D has been drawn from a variety of sources. As described in the Appendix, wherever possible data has been cross-checked against independent sources. The model has also been subjected to independent quality assurance and the report of this is at Attachment 7.D2.

7.2.6.2 Verification

The verification processes of the NCAS focus on the detailed checking of land areas and modelled emissions estimates. The testing of the NCAS results is typically against actual field/ground truth measures that have a 'certain' outcome. Extensive application of this approach provides benefits that cannot be derived from other approaches such as model inter-comparison. This is made possible by the quantum of resources available for NCAS development. Had fewer resources been available to the NCAS, an approach such as model inter-comparison would likely have been pursued as a verification approach.

The benefits of verification by direct measurement are, first, the detailed data derived can be used to determine the model and land area estimation performances in general (e.g., by region, soil type, vegetation type) and in detail, for example, by carbon pool (e.g., litter, fast turnover soil organic matter). Second, having actual measures allows for continuous improvement whereby the verification data can subsequently be used to enhance model calibration, which is then tested again in subsequent verification. This ensures a growing base of data for model calibration while also ensuring that calibration and verification data remain independent. A snapshot of each of the NCAS verification program areas is described below.

Land Cover Change and Plantation Classification

Extensive independent verification programs of the land cover change and plantation mapping via remote sensing techniques have been continuously applied throughout the time-series updates. The methods applied to verification of the land cover change results are published in the NCAS Technical Reports (Lowell et. al., 2003 and Jones et. al., 2004) and in peer review literature (Lowell et. al., 2005). This program initially relied on verification against historic air photographs, and more recently, by using very high resolution satellite data (1m). The verification of the plantations mapping (MBAC Consulting *in prep.*) was based on on-site field inspection. This alternative approach was used because it was able to provide a definite date of planting (from signage or company records) and could accurately provide parameters such as species, stocking rate, condition etc. that could not be derived with certainty from remote techniques. This program was based on several hundred sites throughout Australia, selected to be representative of geographic regions, plantation types and plantation ages.

Forest Growth

The direct measurement of forest biomass is rare, and as destructive sampling is required, no time-series growth data based on whole mass measurement is available. However, through the use of allometric equations from measurable forest stand parameters of basal area, height etc. it is possible to model total stand biomass. As these measures are widely used in forest inventory, there is a wealth of industry data available as both single point in time and time-series (permanent plot) measurements against which growth and biomass estimates have been verified. In addition, research site data comparisons and select whole-stand mass measurements have been applied. The benefits of comparisons with research data has been that additional to commonly available stand biomass estimates are data on site conditions and management. Because of the cost and logistical difficulty in actually measuring total stand biomass, the approach taken was to destructively sample and weigh forest plots of a single species across a productivity gradient (Ximenes et. al., 2005). This approach could then test both the biomass predictions and replication of the gradient in forest productivity and carrying capacity by model estimates.

Soil Carbon

Much like the verification activities for forest biomass, a tiered approach was applied to the verification of modelled soil carbon change estimates. Most geographically widespread and representative data were taken from paired site samples, before and after land use change. The change in total soil organic carbon was compared to modelled estimates. Soil fractionations were also completed to test the model performance in predicting turnover in various soil carbon pools. Wherever possible, models were also compared to research site data (Skjemstad and Spouncer 2002). This had the benefit of multiple pool, time-series measurements for comparison, along with the recorded impacts of detailed site condition and management.

7.2.6.3 Sensitivity and Uncertainty Testing

The methods of uncertainty analysis described by the IPCC Good Practice Guidance 2003 are typically designed for Tier 1 and Tier 2 emissions factor based approaches. More complex methods for dealing with potential error propagation and inter-correlation of parameter uncertainties needs to be applied to the process model forms of inventory used in Tier 3. However, the fundamental approach of using *Monte Carlo* forms of analysis for both sensitivity and uncertainty analysis remains relevant and are applied.

The sensitivity and uncertainty analysis of the NCAS are used to determine:

- > that the best estimate (most likely outcome) is not subject to bias;
- > the parameter sensitivity, in order to understand the drivers of uncertainty and guide improvement programs and verification priorities; and,
- > to determine the probability distribution of possible outcomes.

The sensitivity and uncertainty analyses undertaken are described in detail in each of the methods Appendices. To enable these analyses a *Monte Carlo* analysis capability has been integrated into the modelling framework and is routinely applied.

Uncertainty analyses using *Monte Carlo* techniques are also supplemented by the determination of accuracies of spatial data through verification programs. Verification can also be used to identify if there is any potential bias in the spatial inputs to the emissions modelling.

7.2.6.4 Transparency and Peer Review

As with the methods for uncertainty and sensitivity analysis, the approach to transparency and peer review will differ for a Tier 3 (spatially explicit) approach from those used in a Tier 1 or Tier 2 (area by emissions factor) approach. For Tier 1 and Tier 2 the focus is on the determination of area estimates and the selection of appropriate emissions factors. For the complex methods, models and large datasets used in Tier 3 systems, different approaches to transparency and peer review are required. The basis of transparency and peer review for the NCAS are founded on:

- > published specifications, protocols and methods;
- > published verification results;
- > public release of models, tools and data; and,
- > publication in peer reviewed literature.

These aspects of transparency are discussed further in the methods Appendices (7.A-7.E).

7.2.7 Forest definition and monitoring of forest conversion

7.2.7.1 Forest Definition

In choosing a forest definition Australia took several factors into account, including:

- > the range of values provided for in the Marrakech Accords LULUCF decision;
- > the call in the Marrakech Accords for consistency of Parties LULUCF reporting with existing international reporting;
- > available data sources;
- > the nature of deforestation and reforestation, and forest management activity, in Australia; and
- > the requirement that the definition would need to remain consistent across all uses in the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol inventories, and remain in place for time-series consistency.

The Marrakech Accords provide ranges for forest attributes from within which countries are to derive national

definitions. The ranges were for height of 2 to 5 metres, crown canopy cover 10 to 30%, a minimum area of 0.05 to 1.0 hectare. Consistent with the definition used for Australia's National Forest Inventory that has been used for reporting to the FAO and Montreal Process, a height of 2 metres and crown canopy cover of 20% were adopted for the forest definition.

Australia has adopted a minimum forest area of 0.2 ha. As the National Forest Inventory does not apply a minimum area requirement in its definition an extensive process was undertaken to select an appropriate minimum area value. The selection process considered the structure and distribution of forest cover change in Australian forests, and the capacity of available data and processing systems to identify change at different spatial resolutions.

7.2.7.2 Understanding patterns of change

To understand the structure and distribution of forest cover change in Australia, a study was commissioned on the drivers, locations and patterns of forest cover change (AGO 2000a). This work showed significant regional differences in the nature of the drivers of deforestation and reforestation. Broadly, in southern Australia, patterns of deforestation strongly featured small 'patch' clearance for rural residential development, infrastructure such as roads, and the removal of remnant tree patches in agricultural lands. Reforestation also strongly featured small-scale environmental plantings for revegetation and rehabilitation purposes.

In the north of Australia, where the majority of deforestation occurs, the patterns were for large development fronts of removal of remnant forest for expansion of the agricultural estate. Ongoing maintenance of removal of woody regrowth in 8-15 year cycles also occurred at large scale within the existing agricultural estate.

Another factor that became evident from this work was that many ecosystems subject to change, such as woodlands, were characterised by highly variable patterns of tree cover and open spaces. The combination of large proportion of small-scale forest cover change events, and the variable patterns of tree cover and open space, led to a need for monitoring at the lowest reliably applied spatial scale.

The nature of the deforestation activity also became evident as being largely in mature forests, except in cases where cyclic clearance and regrowth cycles (8-15 years) were being observed. As natural disturbances in Australian forests are rarely stand-replacing (ie. the old forest is removed) there are few instances of conversion where carbon stocks are below that of mature stands.

In addition to the work described above on forest cover monitoring, parallel studies on post-deforestation land management and emissions profiles were completed. These studies highlighted that the patterns of emissions over time were characterised by the majority of emissions occurring within 1-2 years of the deforestation event.

7.2.7.3 Data availability

Australia has available an extensive archive of Landsat satellite data collected since the first Landsat sensor launch delivered data in 1972. Review of the archive in 1998 showed that there was sufficient continental coverage to allow for time-series continental change analysis commencing in 1972.

Once the availability of the Landsat data was established, it was necessary to establish whether the data and processing systems would be able to identify change at the different spatial resolutions at which forest conversion was occurring. Extensive processes were put in place to:

- > select an analytic method;
- > develop scene acquisition specifications for the geometric registration, radiometric calibration, and analysis and processing of the images to forest monitoring products;

- > trial the methods using pilot studies of which the results were used to form detailed operational specifications (Furby and Woodgate, 2002);
- > develop methods for continuous improvement and verification of the data; and
- > establish the R&D programs that led to enhancement of the processes, such as described by Caccetta et al (2003) and Wu, Furby and Wallace (2004).

Pilot testing was also used to refine the methods to deal with technical issues including:

- > time-series stability given sensor change in the Landsat series;
- > consistent application in the diversity of Australian vegetation types; and
- > ability to detect change in the variety of spatial configuration and patterns.

7.2.7.4 Time-series consistency

From the remote sensing pilot testing, the need for time-series consistency of image data pre-processing, analysis, and subsequent formation of time-series forest presence/absence labels became clear. To this end, the operational standards (Furby 2002) give explicit emphasis through documented rules to each of these areas. For instance, although the processing is performed by different companies, all images are ortho-rectified using a standard algorithm (PCI Orthoengine) with standard inputs (consistently provided digital elevation model). For time-series classification, these standards also include the use of a joint spatial-temporal model (in this case a conditional probability network (Caccetta, 1997; Caccetta et al 2003; Kiiveri et al 2001, 2003)) for determining time-series of forest cover presence/absence labels, producing far superior forest extent and change results than a process reliant on pair-wise differencing of image pairs. In the latter, change figures may be dominated by errors due to seasonally changing land management effects (introducing large contiguous areas of false change), or by subtle sampling differences where mixed pixels have varying composition of forest/non forest year to year (producing many isolated false change pixels or edge effects at forest boundaries).

The conditional probability network uses a series of spatial and temporal rules for determining forest presence/absence and change (forest and non-forest conversions). The temporal rules bias against unlikely events such as multiple one year conversions between forest and non forest – for example conversion from non-forest to forest back to non-forest is an unlikely event over a short, say three year, period. In the example given, the rules are particularly effective when the time between observations is less than that of a forest growth and harvest cycle. This is one of the reasons for having a relatively dense time-series sampling.

The spatial rules consider the labelling of a pixel in the context of its spatial surroundings, where labels that are consistent with the neighbouring labels are reinforced as opposed to those that are inconsistent (eg isolated pixels). The spatial and temporal rules work together providing spatial and temporal consistency, minimising temporally varying “mixed pixel” effects (due to spatially varying sampling from independent satellite overpass year to year) and subsequent error in pixel and change labelling.

7.2.7.5 Mapping resolution and resampling

Modelling grid resolution

The pixel resolution of data applied in a Tier 3 grid-based spatial ecosystem model and Approach 3 land representations predicates the use of both time-series consistent and spatially consistent integration of data. To gain time-series consistency in the land representation 50m resampled Landsat data is always compared to 50m data, and where later best available data is at 25m, comparisons are made at 25m to 25m comparisons. The approaches are described in Appendix 7.C.

The pixel resolution of 50m and 25m are also guided by the need to integrate this spatial data with other spatial data sets. To achieve consistency in this integration a minimum 25m resolution, or select multiples of 25m (eg 50m, 1000m, 200m, 250m, 1km) are applied so that pixel to pixel registration is achieved.

Land cover grid resolution

In order to deal with the change in pixel size of the various Landsat sensors over time and the need for spatially and temporally consistent integration with other spatial data used in the model, the 'natural' pixel size of the Landsat MSS (57m x 79m) was re-sampled to a 50 x 50m pixel. The Landsat TM (~30 x 30m native resolution) and ETM+ data available after 1988 were produced as 25 x 25m pixels (see details in Appendix 7.C).

To apply the pixel-by-pixel analysis over the period where the pixel size changed from 50m to 25m (in 1988), a 50m MSS equivalent (in both spatial and spectral resolution) was derived from the 1989 TM (25m) data, and then forest extent calculated separately from both the 50 and 25m data sets. Differences in the extents of forest between these two outputs are due to "sensor change". An overlap technique, as recommended by the IPCC (2003), is used to ensure time-series consistency such that the assessment of land cover change for 1988-89 was then based on a 50m to 50m comparison, while the 1989-1991 data was a 25m to 25m comparison. This permitted the use of best available data while maintaining time-series consistency.

Data are taken to a consistent 25m resolution for the full time-series analysis by resampling the 50m pixels into four 25m pixels. The spatial-temporal model is important at this time, as it reduces the effect of "mixed" isolated and edge MSS pixels in the same way as described in section 7.2.7.4.

The period of the transition to the true 25m data takes place prior to the period where it would have any significant effect on the first reported year of emissions. The 50m data resolution is effectively only used to run-in the model to establish forest age (if a regrowth from non-forest land or in response to a forest removal since 1972). The ability to determine, from 1990 onwards, the effects of land use change to 0.2ha minimum areas is robust, given that this area is greater than the pixel resolution and the approach used removes mixed and other pixels which are temporally and spatially inconsistent. It is important to note that the change area within the commitment period (1990 onwards) is consistent at the 0.2ha resolution.

The use of a 25m pixel resample for Landsat TM and ETM data is common practice. The use of a 50m resample to provide consistency over the multiple resolutions of MSS sensors also provides for uniformity in the time-series. QA and validation processes confirm that accurate results are achieved with this resampled data.

7.2.7.6 Carbon stocks in 1990

As the first reporting period is 1990 and data is available since as early as 1972, the 1972 to 1989 period is used to run-in the model. This is informed by the mapping of forest extent in 1972, and the histories of forest disturbance since that time. This disturbance history is used to determine the age of forests, and therefore their carbon stocks. The carbon stocks for 1972 are determined from their 'native' condition in a largely undisturbed state (Richards and Bracks 2004b; and Webbnat Land Resource Services 2002). It is important to note that the biomass estimates for the undisturbed state reflect the ongoing, low level disturbance patterns (e.g., grazing and low intensity fire) that dominate Australian woodlands and represent a maximum biomass that is slightly less than the theoretical maximum.

The raster-based spatial model then uses the disturbance histories, climate and management data etc to determine the carbon stocks in the run-in level for 1990.

The effect of this approach is that areas of forest in 1972 are tracked through time, and if they remain forests until 1990 they will hold the carbon stocks of a largely undisturbed forest. For any forest regrowth after disturbance, and any new forest areas, their age, and therefore carbon stocks can be calculated.

7.2.7.7 Land Classification

Australia's reporting meets the IPCC (2003) land representation criteria of being consistent over time, and that

land is represented in only one category. Movement of land between categories is reported where a land use change occurs, such as a conversion of forest to cropland and grassland, or grassland to a forest.

In cases where there is a temporary change, such as a forest harvest, that land is not temporarily transferred in and out of that land category as per good practice guidance. Equally, a temporary regrowth of woody biomass, as occurs in many grassland systems in Australia, is continuously reported under the grassland category. As such consistency in treatment of temporary changes in land classification is maintained.

The IPCC (2003) recommends that for Tier 1 and 2 methods land should be reported in a “conversion subcategory” for 20 years, and then moved to a “remaining subcategory”, unless a further change occurs. However, they also note that Tier 3 modelling approaches may utilize different assumptions.

Australia has not, so far, selected a period of time after which reporting land is moved from a land use conversion subcategory to a land use remaining subcategory. This is because under Australia's Tier 3 inventory system moving location of lands in the inventory report from the “conversion” to “remaining” subcategories at an arbitrary time period can lead to unintended artefacts in reporting. This problem is recognised in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines. In future submissions Australia plans to institute the method proposed in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines which is to subdivide the land remaining category to provide a strata of land remaining that is for lands that are in later stages of transition following land-use change.

7.3 SOURCE CATEGORY 5A FOREST LANDS

7.3.1 METHODOLOGY

7.3.1.1 Forest Land Remaining Forest Land

There are three broad components to *Forest land remaining Forest land* – Harvested Native Forests, Other Native Forests and Plantations. These are treated as independent strata and emissions estimates are modelled independently.

The methods for estimating emissions from controlled burning and wildfires in *Forest land remaining Forest land* are described in section 7.10.

Forests are defined as having vegetation (trees) with a height of at least 2m and a minimum crown canopy cover of 20%. These parameters are the same as used in Australia's National Forest Inventory. A minimum area of 0.2ha is additionally used for identifying areas of forest for greenhouse gas reporting purposes. The National Forest Inventory does not apply a specified minimum area.

Harvested Native Forests

Harvested native forests are taken to be those comprised of endemic species arising from natural regrowth, although various silvicultural techniques may be applied to initiate and promote particular growth characteristics. The areas considered are those subject to harvest and regrowth from prior harvest. Areas of deforestation that change to a non-forest land use or to plantation (native and exotic) are excluded from this account and are reported elsewhere.

The method used for the estimation of emissions and removals is Tier 2, using country specific growth and decomposition rates. The reporting of harvested native forests includes both above and belowground biomass and harvest slash generated from forest harvest. Emissions and removals from soil carbon are not considered to be significant with the losses during forest harvest presumed to be in balance with re-accumulation in areas of regrowth for any inventory period. The detailed methods used are described in Appendix 7.A.

The current methods do not support emissions estimation from other activities in harvested forest lands, but these activities e.g., grazing, beekeeping etc. do not have a significant effect on carbon stocks.

Harvested wood products are not reported in this category and carbon stocks are transferred to the harvest

wood products reporting (G Other). In the structure of the reporting tables that do not account for transfers of carbon stocks, this leads to an apparent, but not real, emission from harvested native forests and a 'sink' in harvested wood products.

Other Native Forests

Other native forests include those forests that (a) are comprised of endemic species, (b) are not harvested native forests (c) are not areas of deforestation, and (d) are not plantations (native or exotic).

Net CO₂ emissions and removals from other native forests are reported as '0'. Currently aboveground biomass is not estimated, however these forests are assumed to be in equilibrium as there are no significant anthropogenic removals of carbon stocks. While local and short-term variability in emissions and removals due to natural causes (ie forest die back and regrowth associated with climate variability) and fires can be substantial the natural 'background' of greenhouse gas emissions and removals by sinks average out over time.

Changes in the dead organic matter are not estimated under Tier 1 methods (IPCC 2003). Soil carbon stocks are assumed to be constant under Tier 1 methods.

As no removals by regrowth are estimated for these forests only non-CO₂ emissions associated with controlled burning and wildfires are estimated (see section 7.10).

Plantations (Native Forests converted to Plantations and Plantations remaining Plantations)

The plantation forests include those forests that (a) meet the definition of forest, (b) are not harvested native forests, (c) are not areas of deforestation, and (d) for reporting of *Forest land remaining Forest land*, are not other land uses that are converted to Forest land. Areas included are typically either harvested native forest converted to plantation, or long term (second or third rotation) plantation systems. Prior to 1990 it was relatively common practice to convert native forest to plantation. After 1990, this practice largely ceased, and now only occurs in limited areas.

The Tier 3 NCAS *FullCAM* model is used to estimation emissions and removals from plantations (although not yet in a fully spatially explicit mode) employing growth increment tables and wood flow estimates. The carbon pools considered for plantations include above and belowground biomass and litter. Soil carbon under long term forest use is considered to be in equilibrium. This is consistent with national reviews of forest soil carbon data (Polglase et. al., 2004; Paul et. al., 2002b; Paul et. al., 2003b). The detailed methods used are described in Appendix 7.B.

The areas of plantation have been drawn from Australia's National Forest Inventory. However, the National Forest inventory makes no distinction between native forest conversions to plantations and second rotation plantations (*Forest land remaining Forest land*) and other non-forest land uses converted to forests (land converted to forest). To separately identify non-forest land uses that were converted to forest after 1990 the archive of NCAS remotely sensed satellite data was analysed from 1990 onwards. This time-series data was able to separate forests that remained forests from other land uses that were converted to forest, while also keeping these spatially unique from forest regrowth cycles in areas of deforestation that are reported under the forest land converted to other land use categories. The emissions from other land uses converted to forest were simply deducted from the estimates for the total plantation estate leaving an estimate for only those plantations that were *Forest land remaining Forest land*.

As historic Australian forest inventory data on plantation establishment does not separate new forest establishment from second rotations forests (Jaakko Pöyry Consulting 2000) it is not possible to separate pre-1990 plantations from forest lands remaining forest lands. Post-1990 this separation is made possible through the plantation mapping using Landsat data as described in Appendix 7.B.

Harvested wood products are not reported in this category and carbon stocks are transferred to the harvest

wood products reporting (G Other). In the structure of the reporting tables that do not account for transfers of carbon stocks, this leads to an apparent, but not real, emission from plantation forests and a 'sink' in harvested wood products. This leads to these plantations appearing as a source of emissions when coupled with the reporting of plantations in *Grassland converted to Forest land* also removes the expansion of the plantation area (young forests) that act as a sink.

Fuelwood Consumed

Fuelwood is extracted from dead organic matter across all forest categories and as such the CO₂ emissions associated the consumption of fuelwood are reported separately rather than against any specific subcategory of forest lands. The amount of fuelwood collected from forest lands is based on the estimates of fuelwood consumption (t dry matter) reported by ABARE. Dry matter is converted to carbon content (0.5) and multiplied by 44/12 to give CO₂ emissions.

7.3.1.2 Land Converted to Forest Land

In Australia, lands converted to forest land are almost always formerly grassland, and even if they have been previously cropped at some time, they will have had a period as grassland prior to conversion of forest land. All emissions are therefore reported as *Grassland converted to Forest land*. High land values and high soil nutrient status both limit the access to, and suitability of, former croplands for plantation establishment.

The definition of forest is the same as reported for all other land categories. The areas of *Grassland converted to Forest land* are drawn from remotely sensed data as per the methods described in Appendix 7.B. The multiple national time-series of Landsat satellite data (25m) is analysed to provide the previous vegetation cover, area, time of establishment and type of plantation (Caccetta and Chia 2004).

The modelling method used to estimate emissions is described in Appendix 7.B and is the same as the method used for plantations under *Forest land remaining Forest land*. Again, the soil carbon pool has not been estimated. Polglase et. al. (2004), Paul et. al. (2002b) and Paul et. al. (2003b) have shown that with the establishment of plantations on pasture land an initial loss of soil carbon will be recovered over time. Given the mix of ages of the plantations reported under this category, it is expected that initial losses of soil carbon in young forests would be counterbalanced by the accumulation in older forests. As with *Forest land remaining Forest land*, a calibrated and verified soil carbon model will be used to estimate soil carbon emissions in future when the full NCAS spatially explicit modelling (Tier 3, Approach 3) is applied.

7.3.2 UNCERTAINTIES AND TIME SERIES CONSISTENCY

Uncertainties for Forest lands were estimated to be $\pm 30\%$ for CO₂. Further details are provided in Annex 7. Time series consistency is ensured by the use of consistent methods and full recalculations in the event of any refinement to methodology.

7.3.3 SOURCE SPECIFIC QA/QC

Specific QA/QC and verification activities undertaken for this source category are described in detail in section 7.2.6.

7.3.4 RECALCULATIONS SINCE THE 2005 REVISED INVENTORY

There have been no recalculations performed for the 2006 inventory.

7.3.5 SOURCE SPECIFIC PLANNED IMPROVEMENTS

The method used is yet to reflect the fully spatially explicit (Approach 3), Tier 3 process-based modelling methods of Australia's NCAS. The methods being developed as described in Appendix 7.E will provide a comprehensive estimation capability for future reporting when the national implementation has been fully calibrated, verified, quality assured and peer reviewed. This is consistent with the approach to inclusion of NCAS results in the national inventory only after all appropriate cross-cutting processes have been completed.

In addition with the calibration of a forest soil carbon model within the NCAS soil carbon pools will also be estimated and reported for these forests when the fully spatial area data is available.

7.4 SOURCE CATEGORY 5B CROPLAND

7.4.1 METHODOLOGY

7.4.1.1 Cropland Remaining Cropland

Forest land converted to Cropland is taken to be all of the current croplands that were deforested since 1972 (commencement of the NCAS national remote sensing of land cover change as described in Appendix C). *Cropland remaining Cropland* is therefore a land use that has persisted for a period of over 20 years.

As per IPCC (2003) the change in biomass is only estimated for perennial woody crops. For annual crops increases in biomass in a single year are assumed equal to biomass losses through harvest and mortality in the same year. As no information is available on changes in perennial woody vegetation, changes in carbon stocks are not estimated.

Changes in the dead organic matter are not estimated under Tier 1 methods (IPCC 2003).

The results of field trials and paired site sampling analyses carried out for Australia's NCAS (Skjemstad and Spouncer 2002) show that soil carbon is largely in equilibrium 20 years after forest conversion. Emissions from *Cropland remaining Cropland* soils are reported as not occurring on the basis that these lands are considered to have been under a Cropland use for 20 years with no changes in management.

Non-CO₂ greenhouse gas emissions from *Cropland remaining Cropland* are reported under the Agriculture sector of the inventory.

7.4.1.2 Land Converted To Cropland

In many Australian agricultural land systems there is an ongoing practice of rotations between crops and grasslands. These are considered as ongoing use as cropland because this part of the rotational system has the greatest influence on carbon stocks and greenhouse gas emissions. Because of this, whenever land is cropped it is considered cropland and reported under a Cropland category (although the emissions are estimated taking account that land use may have transferred to and fro between a grassland and crop use).

Forest Land Converted to Croplands

The definition for a forest used by Australia (2m height, 20% crown canopy cover and minimum area of 0.2ha) is also used to define areas of forest conversion. That is, the conversion of greater than 0.2ha of forest to another (non-forest) land use is taken as a forest conversion. When the land use subsequent to a forest conversion contains a cropping activity, associated emissions are reported under *Forest land converted to Cropland*.

The reporting of *Forest land converted to Cropland* includes all on-site carbon pools. The areas are identified by the NCAS remote sensing program as described in Appendix C. As all national land areas are covered by this

program in time-series since 1972, all *Forest land converted to Cropland* has been identified

Emissions and removals are estimated using the Tier 3, Approach 3 NCAS mass balance, process-based ecosystem model *FullCAM*, as described in Appendix C. The calibration and verification of this model, along with the associated quality assurance and quality control program are described in Appendix C.

N₂O emissions from disturbance associated with land-use conversion to Cropland are estimated as described in section 7.9.1.4.

7.4.2 UNCERTAINTIES AND TIME SERIES CONSISTENCY

Uncertainties for Cropland conversion were estimated to $\pm 10\%$ for CO₂. Further details are provided in Annex 7. Time series consistency is ensured by the use of consistent methods and full recalculations in the event of any refinement to methodology.

7.4.3 SOURCE SPECIFIC QA/QC

Specific QA/QC and verification activities undertaken for this source category are described in detail in section 7.2.6.

7.4.4 RECALCULATIONS SINCE THE 2005 REVISED INVENTORY

N₂O emissions from disturbance associated with land-use conversion to Cropland are now reported in the 5.B.2 Land Converted to Cropland subcategory not 4.D Agricultural Soils. This reallocation results in an 0.05 Mt CO₂-e increase in the 1990 estimate for this subcategory but makes no change to the total inventory.

7.4.5 SOURCE SPECIFIC PLANNED IMPROVEMENTS

In taking a land systems based approach with its Tier 3 fully spatially explicit methods Australia is in the process of implementing fully integrated emissions estimates. To achieve this Australia will develop capabilities for the comprehensive reporting of all forms of emissions for all activities on the land from which they occur. Australia will therefore be in a future position to report all emissions, CO₂ and non-CO₂, for each of the land categories.

7.5 SOURCE CATEGORY 5C GRASSLAND

7.5.1 METHODOLOGY

7.5.1.1 Grassland Remaining Grassland

The *Grassland remaining Grassland* category includes all areas of Grassland that are not reported under *Forest land converted to Grassland*. Areas that are in rotational use between Grassland and Cropland are reported under either *Forest land converted to Cropland* or *Cropland remaining Cropland*.

In line with IPCC (2003) Tier 1 methods, the changes in the biomass of grasses and dead organic matter are not estimated. The changes in woody biomass are currently not estimated. Emissions from *Grassland remaining Grassland* soils are reported as not occurring on the basis that, these lands are considered to have been under a Grassland use for 20 years with no changes in management (after this period of time it is presumed that soil carbon stocks will have reached an equilibrium (Skjemstad and Spouncer (2002))).

Non-CO₂ emissions are reported in the Agriculture sector.

7.5.1.2 Land Converted To Grassland

Forest Land Converted to Grassland

The definition for a forest used by Australia (2m height, 20% crown canopy cover and minimum area of 0.2ha) is also used to define areas of forest conversion. That is, the conversion of greater than 0.2ha of forest to another (non-forest) land use is taken as a forest conversion. When the land use subsequent to a forest conversion is as a grassland, associated emissions are reported under *Forest land converted to Grassland*.

The reporting of *Forest land converted to Grassland* includes all carbon pools. The areas are identified by the NCAS remote sensing program as described in Appendix C. As all national land areas are covered by this program in time-series since 1972, all *Forest land converted to Grassland* has been identified. All lands converted from forest to continuous grassland use are included. Cyclic forest regrowth and reclearing of woody regrowth in grasslands is continuously reported under *Forest land converted to Grassland*. Where a cropping activity takes place on these lands they are removed from this account and are reported under *Forest land converted to Cropland*.

Emissions and removals from this category are estimated using the Tier 3, Approach 3 NCAS mass balance, process-based ecosystem model *FullCAM*, as described in Appendix C. The calibration and verification of this model, along with the associated quality assurance and quality control programs are also described in Appendix C.

N₂O emissions from disturbance associated with land-use conversion to Grasslands are estimated as described in section 7.9.1.4. As it is not possible to include these emissions under Lands converted to Grasslands in the UNFCCC CRF reporter tools they are reported under 5G in the interim.

7.5.2 UNCERTAINTIES AND TIME SERIES CONSISTENCY

Uncertainties for Grassland conversion were estimated to be $\pm 10\%$ for CO₂. Further details are provided in Annex 7. Time series consistency is ensured by the use of consistent methods and full recalculations in the event of any refinement to methodology.

7.5.3 SOURCE SPECIFIC QA/QC

Specific QA/QC and verification activities undertaken for this source category are described in detail in section 7.2.6.

7.5.4 RECALCULATIONS SINCE THE 2005 REVISED INVENTORY

There have been no recalculations performed for the 2006 inventory.

7.5.5 SOURCE SPECIFIC PLANNED IMPROVEMENTS

In taking a land systems based approach with its Tier 3 fully spatially explicit methods Australia is in the process of implementing fully integrated emissions estimates. To achieve this Australia will develop capabilities for the comprehensive reporting of all forms of emissions for all activities on the land from which they occur. Australia will therefore be in a future position to report all emissions, CO₂ and non-CO₂, for each of the land categories.

7.6 SOURCE CATEGORY 5D WETLAND

7.6.1 METHODOLOGY

7.6.1.1 Wetland Remaining Wetland

Australia does not estimate emission and removals from this voluntary reporting category.

7.6.1.2 Land Converted To Wetland

Australia has no peat extraction and any removals of forest biomass for the purposes of water storage infrastructure are reported under *Forest land converted to Grassland*.

7.7 SOURCE CATEGORY 5E SETTLEMENTS

7.7.1 METHODOLOGY

7.7.1.1 Settlements Remaining Settlements

Australia does not estimate emission and removals from this voluntary reporting category.

7.7.1.2 Land Converted To Settlements

The conversion of forest prior to infrastructure development is captured and reported under *Forest land converted to Grassland*. Therefore emissions and removals from this category are included elsewhere.

7.8 SOURCE CATEGORY 5F OTHER LANDS

7.8.1 METHODOLOGY

7.8.1.1 Other Lands Remaining Other Lands

All Other lands are considered unmanaged, and as such Australia does not report emission and removals from this voluntary reporting category.

7.8.1.2 Land Converted To Other Land

It is assumed that no Lands are converted to Other Lands

7.9 SOURCE CATEGORY 5G OTHER

7.9.1 METHODOLOGY

7.9.1.1 Harvested Wood Products

Australia reports the carbon stock changes and associated emissions and removals of CO₂ from the harvested wood products pool. The carbon pool considered is defined as the wood products in service life within Australia. This includes the national production (including transfers from Forest land after harvest that are recorded as a carbon stock reduction in *Forest land remaining Forest land* and *Grassland converted to Forest land*) plus the imported material, minus exported material and losses to landfill and the atmosphere. The methods used are described in detail at Appendix 7.D.

7.9.1.2 N₂O Emissions From N Fertilisation 5(I)

Nitrous oxide emissions associated with nitrogen fertilisers are reported under the Agriculture sector (4D).

7.9.1.3 N₂O Emissions From Drainage of Soils 5(II)

Australia does not estimate emission and removals from this voluntary reporting category.

7.9.1.4 N₂O Emissions from Disturbance Associated with Land-Conversion to Cropland and Grassland 5(III)

An increase in N₂O emissions can be expected following the conversion of forest land to cropland and grassland. This is a consequence of enhanced mineralisation of soil organic matter that takes place as a result of that conversion. The conversion results not only in net loss of soil organic carbon but the mineralised nitrogen can result in N₂O emissions from the process of nitrification and denitrification.

A method for calculating N₂O emissions from this source is provided in IPCC 2006 Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (chapter 11). This method is used for estimation of this emission source. The amount of nitrogen mineralised is calculated from the C:N ratio of soil. The C:N value used is 18, reflecting the approximate median value extracted from a survey of national estimates (Snowden et al 2005). The same emissions factor as used for fertiliser additions to pasture (0.004) is then applied, as recommended in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines. Also following the methods outlined, nitrogen sequestered into increased carbon stocks is not taken into account, leading to zero emissions for Forest to Cropland conversions where appropriate at the regional level (State).

7.9.1.5 CO₂ Emissions from Agricultural Lime Application 5(IV)

Limestone and dolomite are used in Australia to ameliorate soil acidity and improve plant growth in both croplands and grasslands. Adding carbonates to soils in the form of lime (eg. calcic limestone (CaCO₃) or dolomite (CaMg(CO₃)₂)) leads to CO₂ emissions as the carbonate limes dissolve and release biocarbonate which evolves into CO₂ and water

For agricultural lime application, the annual emissions of CO₂ are calculated as:

$$E_{ijk} = ((M_{ijk} \times \text{FracLime}_{ijk} \times P_{k=1} \times EF_{k=1}) + (M_{ijk} \times (1 - \text{FracLime}_{ijk}) \times P_{k=2} \times EF_{k=2})) \times C_g / 1000 \quad (5IV_1)$$

Where: E_{ijk} = annual emission of CO₂ from lime application (Gg)

M_{ijk} = mass of limestone and dolomite applied to soils (t)

FracLime_{ijk} = fraction limestone

$P_{k=1}$ = fractional purity of limestone = 0.9

$P_{k=2}$ = fractional purity of dolomite = 0.95

$EF_{k=1}$ = 0.12 - IPCC (2006) default emission factor for limestone

$EF_{k=2}$ = 0.13 - IPCC (2006) default emission factor for dolomite

C_g = 44/12 factor to convert elemental mass of CO₂ to molecular mass

7.9.2 UNCERTAINTIES AND TIME SERIES CONSISTENCY

A qualitative assessment of uncertainty was undertaken and uncertainties for harvested wood products were estimated to be medium. Time series consistency is ensured by the use of consistent methods and full recalculations in the event of any refinement to methodology.

National data on limestone and dolomite applications to agricultural soils are only available from the Australian Bureau of Statistics for five years (1993, 1994, 1996, 2001 and 2002) with limestone and dolomite

reported separately for only three (1996, 2001, 2002) of those years. Additional data are available for Western Australia (1991, 1995, 1998-2000 and 2004). Interpolation and extrapolation techniques have been used to estimate the mass of limestone and dolomite applied in years for which data are not available. The fraction of the estimated mass applied that is assumed to be limestone was based on the average of years for which data are available.

7.9.3 SOURCE SPECIFIC QA/QC

Specific QA/QC and verification activities undertaken for this source category are described in detail in section 7.2.6.

7.9.4 RECALCULATIONS SINCE THE 2005 REVISED INVENTORY

N₂O emissions from disturbance associated with land-use conversion to Grasslands are now reported in 5.G Other not 4.D Agricultural Soils. This reallocation results in an 0.55 Mt CO₂-e increase in the 1990 estimate for this subcategory but makes no change to the total inventory:

7.9.5 SOURCE SPECIFIC PLANNED IMPROVEMENTS

All data and methodologies are kept under review and development. Appendix 7.E specifies the detailed development plans for the National Carbon Accounting System.

7.10 SOURCE CATEGORY 5(V) BIOMASS BURNING

7.10.1 METHODOLOGY

7.10.1.1 Forest Lands (5A.1) - Prescribed Burning and Wildfires

In Forest lands, burning occurs in Australia either anthropogenically or as a result of wildfires. The anthropogenic burning occurs for a variety of reasons including fuel reduction, prevention of uncontrollable wildfires, and traditional Aboriginal burning. These anthropogenic fires replace wildfires that would occur naturally otherwise, albeit at other times of the year.

The release of CO₂ in fire is not synchronous with the rate of uptake by regrowing forest and may take many years to sequester the quantity of carbon released in a wildfire of prescribed burn. As the Australian method does not report removals by regrowth after these fires Australia also does not report CO₂ emissions associated with the fires, in accordance with IPCC (2003, page 3.49) guidelines.

Treatment of C stock changes and fire

As the growth rates, age class and forest areas of the harvested native forest are fixed, the increment to living biomass is independent of any fire activity. Hence the method does not account for regrowth after fires. Where fully spatial data is used Australia derives fire masks for each satellite data overpass, and these are used during spatial modeling to remove any regrowth from these areas from accounting.

Climatic variability contributes large year-to-year variations in biomass burning in Australia. Consequently, to obtain a representative value, emissions are reported as a 3-year moving average of individual annual estimates as recommended by the IPCC (1997, Volume 1, page 2.3)¹.

¹ While IPCC (2003) provides methods for estimating annual emissions, as an elaboration of the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 1997), they do not explicitly remove the option of reporting average emissions.

For prescribed burning and wildfires, the total mass of fuel burnt is calculated as:

$$M_{jkl} = A_{jkl} * FL_{jkl} * Z_{jk} * 10^{-3} \text{ (Gg)} \quad (5V_1)$$

Where: A_{jkl} = area of category burnt annually (ha),

M_{jkl} = mass of fuel burnt annually (Gg),

FL_{jkl} = fuel loading (dry weight) (Mg ha⁻¹) (Table 7.5 and 7.6),

Z_{jk} = burning efficiency (Table 7.7).

then for CH₄, CO and NMVOCs calculate total annual emissions:

$$E_{ijkl} = M_{jkl} * CC_{jk} * EF_{ijk} * C_i \text{ (Gg)} \quad (5V_2)$$

Where: E_{ijkl} = annual emission of gas i from biomass burning (Gg),

M_{jkl} = mass of fuel burnt annually (Gg yr⁻¹).

CC_{jk} = carbon mass fraction in vegetation (Table 7.8),

EF_{ijk} = emission factor for gas i from vegetation (Table 7.9),

C_i = factor to convert from elemental mass of gas species i to molecular mass (Table 7.10),

and total annual emissions for NO_x and N₂O are:

$$E_{ijkl} = M_{jkl} * CC_{jk} * NC_{jk} * EF_{ijk} * C_i \text{ (Gg)} \quad (5V_3)$$

Where: E_{ijkl} = annual emission of gas i from biomass burning (Gg),

M_{jkl} = mass of fuel burnt annually (Gg),

CC_{jk} = carbon mass fraction in vegetation (Table 7.8)

NC_{jk} = nitrogen to carbon ratio in biomass (Table 7.8)

EF_{ijk} = emission factor for gas i from vegetation (Table 7.9)

C_i = factor to convert from elemental mass of gas species i to molecular mass (Table 7.10)

Table 7.5 Fuel loads for Prescribed Burning of Forest in Australia

State	ACT ^(a)	NSW ^(a)	NT ^(a)	Qld ^(a)	SA ^(b)	Tas ^(b)	Vic ^(a)	WA ^(a)
	FL _{ijkl} (Mg/ha)							
Load	17.6	18.2	4.1	9.7	9.6	20.0	17.9	12.0

(a) State agencies, (b) Tolhurst (1994)

Table 7.6 Fuel loads for Wildfires in Australia

State	ACT ^(a)	NSW ^(a)	NT ^(a)	Qld ^(a)	SA ^(b)	Tas ^(b)	Vic ^(a)	WA ^(a)
	FL _{ijkl} (Mg/ha)							
Load	35.2	36.4	7.2	19.4	19.2	40.0	35.8	33.4

(a) State agencies, (b) Tolhurst (1994)

Table 7.7 Burning efficiencies for Prescribed Burning and Wildfires in Australia

Category	Burning efficiency Z _{ijk}
Prescribed burning	0.42
Wildfires	0.72

Tolhurst (1994)

Table 7.8 Forest vegetation composition

System	Carbon mass fraction in dry residue CC_{jk}	Nitrogen to carbon mass fraction $NC_{jk}^{(a)}$
Forest	0.50	0.011

(a) Hurst et al. (1994a,b)

Table 7.9 Mean emission factors for carbon and nitrogen trace gases from forest biomass burning

Gas species i		Emission factor EF_{ijk} (Gg element in species/Gg element in fuel burnt)
1.	CH_4	0.0054
2.	N_2O	0.0077
3.	NO_x	0.15
4.	CO	0.091
5.	NMVO	0.022

Hurst et al. (1996) mean of 4 Australian temperate forest fires.

Table 7.10 Elemental to molecular mass conversion factor (C_i)

CH_4	N_2O	NO_x	CO	NMVO
1.33	1.57	3.29	2.33	1.17

7.10.1.2 Forest Lands Converted to Croplands and Grasslands (5B.2 AND 5C.2)

Carbon dioxide emissions from on-site burning associated with land conversion is estimated by the National Carbon Accounting System (Appendix C). The mass of fuel carbon burnt annually (FC_{jkl}) is taken directly from the National Carbon Accounting System and is used to estimate the non- CO_2 gases associated with burning.

There are no direct measurements of trace gas emissions from the burning of cleared vegetation in Australia, however, it is considered that these fires will have similar characteristics to hot prescribed fires and wildfires (Hurst et al. 1996).

The algorithms for total annual emissions of CH_4 , CO and NMVOs are:

$$E_{ijkl} = FC_{jkl} * EF_{ijk} * C_i \text{ (Gg)} \quad (5V_4)$$

and for total annual emissions for NO_x and N_2O are:

$$E_{ijkl} = FC_{jkl} * NC_{jk} * EF_{ijk} * C_i \text{ (Gg)} \quad (5V_5)$$

Where: FC_{jkl} = annual fuel carbon burnt in land conversion (Gg),

EF_{ijk} = emission coefficient for gas i from vegetation (Table 7.9),

NC_{jk} = nitrogen to carbon ratio in biomass (Table 7.8)

C_i = factor to convert from elemental mass of gas species i to molecular mass (Table 7.10).

7.10.2 UNCERTAINTIES AND TIME SERIES CONSISTENCY

Uncertainties for biomass burning CH_4 and N_2O were estimated to be in the order of -45 to +93% for Forest Lands and $\pm 20\%$ for forest conversion categories. Further details are provided in Annex 7. Time series consistency is ensured by the use of consistent methods and full recalculations in the event of any refinement to methodology.

7.10.3 SOURCE SPECIFIC QA/QC

Specific QA/QC and verification activities undertaken for this source category are described in detail in section 7.2.6. Data quality used in the inventory is kept under review by the DCC. This source category is also covered by the general QA/QC procedures detailed in Section 1.6.

7.10.4 RECALCULATIONS SINCE THE 2005 REVISED INVENTORY

The area of prescribed burning in Forest Lands in New South Wales has been revised as a comprehensive fire coverage has been provided by the State agencies for the period 1993 onwards. A correction was also made to the 1989 areas which affects the 1990 emission estimates. Complete wildfire area data is now available for the years 2003-2005 and emission estimates have been revised.

The above recalculations result in minimal change in *Forest lands* biomass burning in 1990 and 0.01 Mt in 2005

7.10.5 SOURCE SPECIFIC PLANNED IMPROVEMENTS

All data and methodologies are kept under review and development.

APPENDIX 7.A: HARVESTED NATIVE FORESTS

Background

The model used for the reporting of carbon stock changes and CO₂ emissions from harvested native forests currently only considers the above and belowground biomass and harvest slash. The areas and activities considered in the model are those associated with forest harvesting of Australia's native forests. Changes in dead organic matter, other than that generated as harvest slash, and soil carbon are not considered. The areas of harvest and regrowth, and growth rate data are drawn from Australia's National Forest Inventory.

Australia's National Carbon Accounting System (NCAS) is developing the capacity to comprehensively report on *Forest land remaining Forest land*, the inventory category that incorporates both harvested native forests, and plantations (that are not otherwise reported in the land converted to Forest land categories). NCAS reporting currently includes fully developed reporting for lands converted to Forest land, but the development of a Tier 3 fully spatially explicit estimation method for all native forests is yet to be completed. The spatially explicit methods when applied by the NCAS will ensure that there are no gaps or overlaps in reporting of either lands or emissions. In the interim, review of areas included in the *Forest lands converted to Cropland and Grassland*, and of forest plantations, plus review of land tenure, ensures that these lands do not overlap other reporting categories.

It is anticipated that the fully spatial reporting capability will be introduced in the 2008 inventory for *Forest land remaining Forest land*. For now, the following methods describe the harvested native forests reporting, while Appendix 7.B describes the methods used for reporting plantations. Together the harvested native forests, other native forests and plantations represent the entirety of reporting of Australia's managed *Forest land remaining Forest land* and *Land converted to Forest land*.

An overview of the methods that will be applied to future reporting for native forests can be found in Appendix 7.E.

Growth Modelling

Growth rates (in tC ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) are modelled by broad forest types and age classes (Table 7.A1). The total area of each forest type is divided into a series of age classes, each with different growth rates (Table 7.A2). A weighted average growth rate based on the area of forest in each age class is calculated to give an average per hectare growth rate for each forest type [1]. Total annual growth for each forest type is then calculated by multiplying the weighted average by the total forest type area [2], with all forest types summed to provide a total harvested native forest growth value [3]. Growth is then converted to CO₂ removals using a standard conversion rate based on the relative mass of C and CO₂ [4].

The total area of each forest type is that outside of nature conservation reserves. Only areas within the commercially managed estate (i.e., those outside conservation reserves) are included in the emissions reporting. The forest areas within each forest type are assumed to not change with time and there is no movement between conservation and production areas. The model is constant for both area and growth rates for each forest type and forest age class. Hence the calculated CO₂ removals associated with forest growth remain constant through time.

Weighted average growth rate for forest type = $S (\text{Area in age class} * \text{age class growth}) / \text{Total forest type area}$ [1]

Forest type growth per year (tC yr⁻¹) = total area of forest type * weighted average of age class growth rates [2]

Total growth per year (tC yr⁻¹) = sum of annual growth for all forest types [3]

CO₂ removed by forest growth = total growth (tC yr⁻¹) * Fraction of carbon dioxide that is carbon (12/44) [4]

Table 7.A1: Growth Rates by Forest Type and Age Classes (tC ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹)

Forest Type	All Forests in All Tenures (excluding nature conservation reserves) Whose Age Class is Known						
	State Forests Whose Age Class is Unknown	Establishment 1-10 yrs	Juvenile 11-30 yrs	Immature 31-100 yrs	Mature 100-200 yrs	Senescent > 200 yrs	Average Annual Increase, Weighted by Area
t C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹							
Rainforests	0.56				0.86		0.576
Tall Dense Eucalypt Forests	3.24	6.44	4.41	2.23	0.74		2.403
Medium Dense Eucalypt Forests	1.62	4.24	2.80	0.99	0.18		0.948
Low Dense Eucalypt Forests							
Tall Sparse Eucalypt Forests	0.24						0.176
Medium Sparse Eucalypt Forests							
Low Sparse Eucalypt Forests							
Eucalypt Mallee							
Callitris Forests	0.25						0.254
Acacia Forests							
Other Forests	0.23						0.235

Table 7.A2: Areas by forest type and age classes (ha)

Forest Type	Forests excluding nature conservation reserves									
	State Forests Whose Age Class is Unknown	Establishment 1-10 yrs	Juvenile 11-30 yrs	Immature 31- 100 yrs	Mature 100- 200 yrs	Senescent yrs	Two (mixed) Aged	Three or More Aged	Total for All Ages	Total for All Forests
ha										
Rainforests	752,334				371,000	90,000		119,548	580,548	1,332,882
Tall Dense Eucalypt Forests	1,015,024	73,919	151,025	371,586	462,067	364,000	183,000	614,077	2,219,674	3,234,698
Medium Dense Eucalypt Forests	2,625,710	23,058	154,619	274,340	1,311,540	266,000	433,000	1,616,923	4,079,480	6,705,190
Low Dense Eucalypt Forests										
Tall Sparse Eucalypt Forests										
Medium Sparse Eucalypt Forests	433,869					546,000		1,049,383	1,595,383	2,029,252
Low Sparse Eucalypt Forests										
Eucalypt Mallee	66,848							228,083	228,083	294,931
Callitris Forests										
Acacia Forests										
Other Forests	1,064,653							224,134	224,134	1,288,787
Totals	5,958,439	96,978	305,644	645,926	2,144,607	1,266,000	616,000	3,852,148	8,927,302	14,885,741

Table 7.A3: Annual Roundwood Removals from Harvested Native Forests

Year	Roundwood Removal 1,000 m ³
1990	10,535
1991	10,037
1992	9,512
1993	9,801
1994	9,793
1995	10,857
1996	9,920
1997	9,442
1998	9,793
1999	9,229
2000	10,942
2001	10,571
2002	9,445
2003	10,018
2004	10,394
2005	9,727
2006	8,506

Emissions from the decay of forest slash from harvested native forests is presumed as linear, with carbon moving to the atmosphere within a pre-defined number of years (Table 7.A4).

Model Parameterisation

Key parameters and the 'constraints' used in the model are shown in Table 7.A4. The parameters fall into grouping of similar types:

- > carbon fraction of biomass;
- > carbon to CO₂ conversion;
- > partitioning of tree biomass to various components;
- > carbon density of wood; and,
- > decay times of slash

As with the growth rates and harvest areas, the data presented here has been contained in and reviewed during several national inventory submissions. Also, there is independent data for comparison with the data used in this model.

Table 7.A4: Parameters and Default Values Used in the Model

Description	Value	Units
Fraction of carbon dioxide that is carbon, by weight	0.27	
Ratio of hardwood slash to hardwood roundwood removal, by volume ^(a)	0.90	
Density of carbon in hardwood	0.325	t C / m ³
Time to total decay of hardwood slash (equal amount decays each year)	7	year

(a) Snowden et al. 2000

Carbon to CO₂ Conversion

The conversion factor used is 44/12 (3.666) which is the IPCC recommended default.

Partitioning of Tree Biomass

The conversion factor used in the model is:

- > ratio of hardwood slash to hardwood roundwood removal – 0.9

This value can be compared to those found by Snowden et al. (2000). For commercial tree types of harvestable age Snowden et al. (2000) found that the slash ratio could vary from 0.25 to 5.0 depending on forest type, harvesting method and available markets (primarily pulpwood). A ratio of 0.9 is considered to be a good overall estimate given the diversity of Australian forest types and silvicultural practices.

Density of Carbon (t C/m³) for Hardwood

The value for the density of carbon (t C/m³) used in this model for hardwood is 0.325. Independent studies by Jaakko Pöyry Consulting (1999 and 2000) derived a basic wood density value of 630kg/m³ for hardwood. Converted to an equivalent t C/m³ using the carbon content of dry matter as 0.5 (Gifford 2000b), the Jaakko Pöyry Consulting results were equivalent to 0.315 t C/m³ for hardwood. These independent values are similar, and confirm the appropriateness of the value used in the model.

APPENDIX 7.B: PLANTATIONS

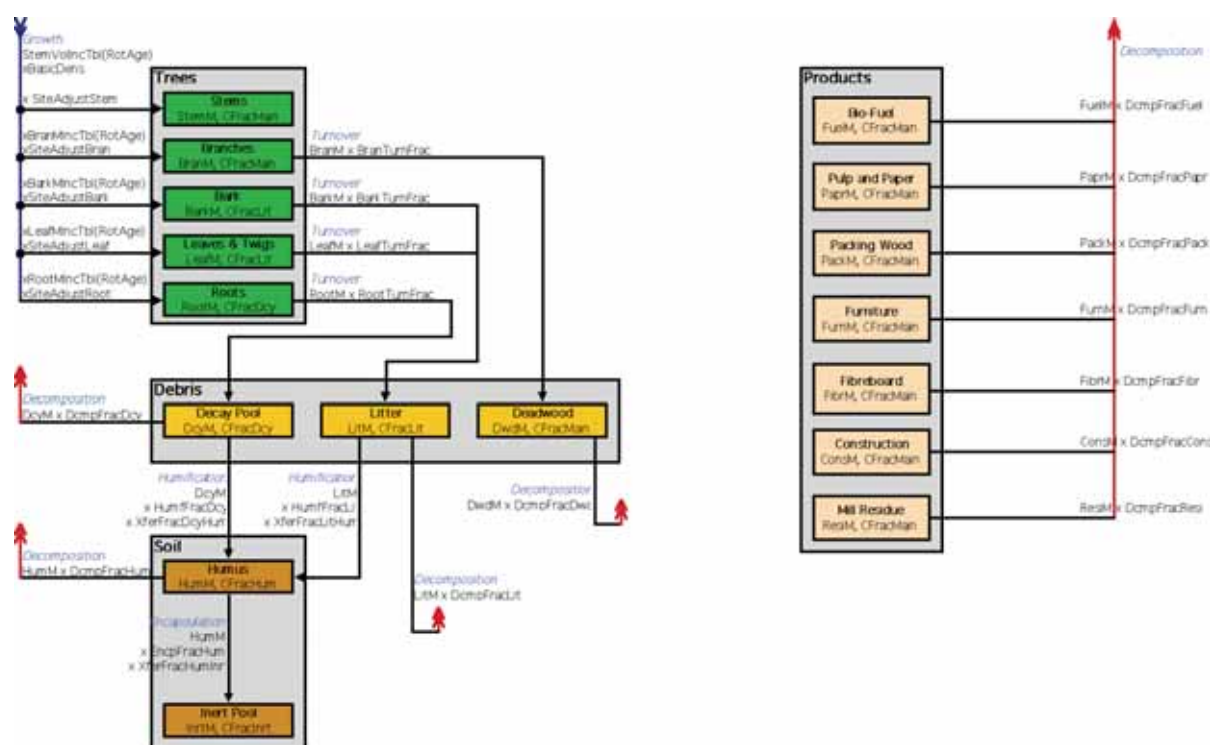
Introduction

The Australian Government's capacity for carbon accounting in plantations has been developed through Australia's National Carbon Accounting System (NCAS). The development of the NCAS includes four principal program areas, remote sensing of land cover change; biomass estimation; soil carbon estimation; and information system development. The capability developed for these programs is being progressively implemented for national reporting. The results reported in this paper do not as yet reflect an implementation of the full form of Tier 3 emissions estimation and Approach 3 land representation that will be used eventually.

Model Development

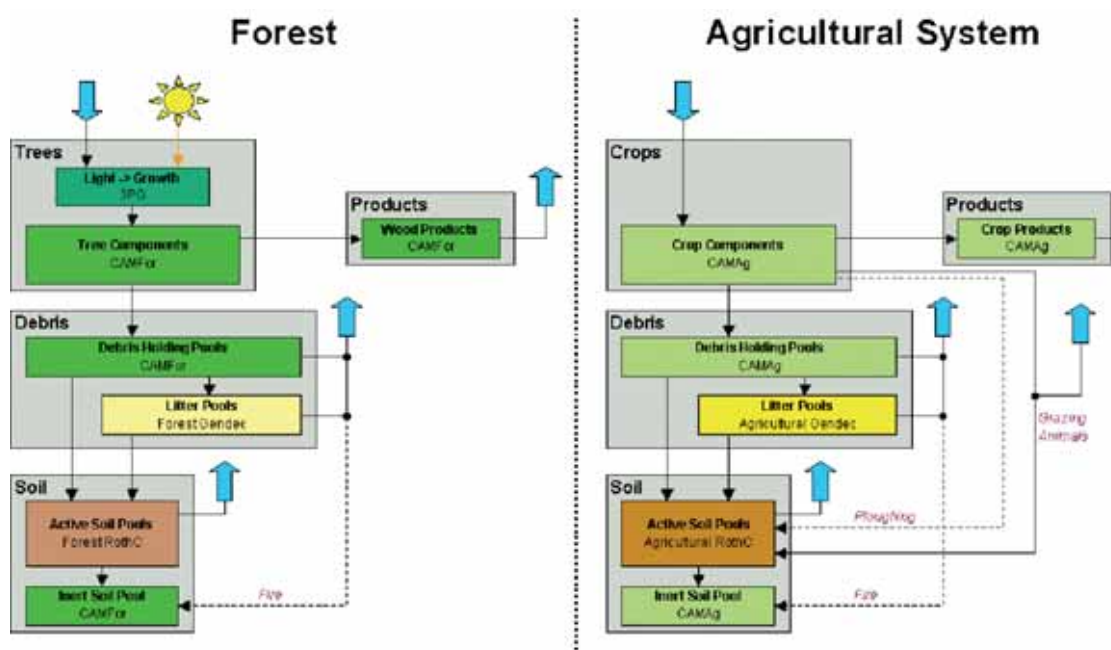
Model development for the NCAS started with the point-based and spatial 'estate' Excel versions of the *CAMFor* model (Richards and Evans 2000a). *CAMFor* (Figure 7.B1) was then integrated with the *Roth-C* soil carbon model (Jenkinson et. al., 1987, Jenkinson et. al., 1991), the 3-PG forest growth model (Landsberg and Waring 1997) and the *GENDEC* litter decomposition model (Moorhead and Reynolds 1991; Moorhead et. al., 1999). The individual models can be applied independently or in various combinations within the model framework. For example, *CAMFor* can take data inputs from user entered data tables, from 3-PG or from a generalised, productivity driven growth formula.

Figure 7.B1: The CAMFor Model Pool Structure



Once the testing of the forest model was complete the development of an agricultural equivalent model was undertaken, around a new model, *CAMAg* (Richards and Evans 2000b), to replicate the role of *CAMFor*. The forest and agricultural applications were then integrated into the *FullCAM* model (Richards 2001b; Richards and Evans 2004), providing the capacity for spatial (GIS) application, with transitions between agricultural and forest systems, or mixed systems such as agroforestry and grazed woodlands. The ability to change agricultural and forest species over time was also introduced into *FullCAM* (Figure 7.B2). The *FullCAM* model provides the framework for the integration of the model program calibration and verification activities, land use and management systems, remotely sensed land cover change information and collated (tabular) data such as crop yield and wood density.

Figure B2: The FullCAM model pool structure



The Current Approach Plantations Carbon Accounting

The approach to estimating emissions from plantations will evolve and be refined as the NCAS develops. Initially, as reported here, it employs growth increment tables based on the work of Turner and James (2001), as developed from the National Forest Inventory (National Forest Inventory 1997a and 1997b) wood flow estimates (National Forest Inventory 2000). Areas of relevant plantation types have been derived from Australia's National Plantation Inventory establishment estimates.

While it has been shown that in the medium to long term, soil carbon contents do not change for most plantations (Polglase et. al., 2000), it has also been identified that there are frequently short term losses (later recovered in most situations) and some instances of long term losses or gains (Paul et. al., 2002b). Work is currently underway to develop the capacity for soil carbon accounting for the range of plantation situations. Initial work (Paul et. al., 2002b, 2003a and 2003b) shows the potential for the development of this capacity. However, as the ages of the plantations in this account are over an extended range, the initial losses will be counterbalanced by accumulation in older plantations in any one reporting year.

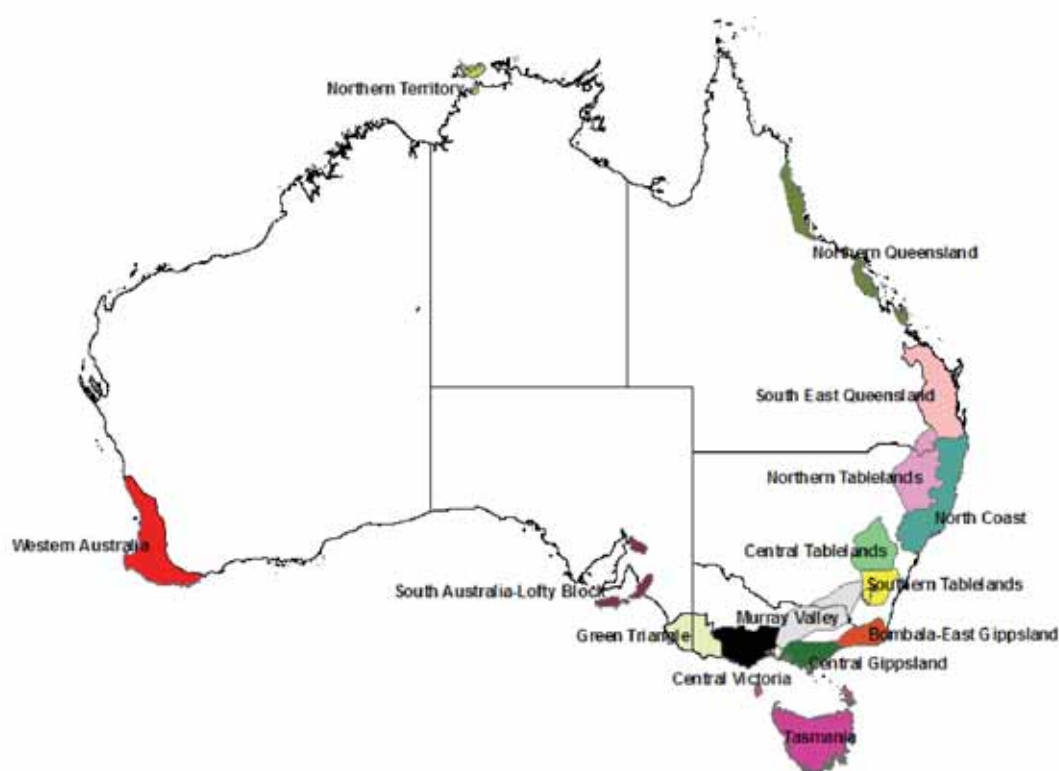
The model capability for the NCAS is also being extended to consider the non-CO₂ gases which may arise from activities such as fertiliser application, burning and decomposition giving rise to nitrous oxide and methane production. These gases and their potential impact have not been considered in the current analyses, but are not expected to be significant.

Model Implementation

The plantation area data provided by Spencer et al. (2001) is reported on the basis of the 14 National Plantation Inventory regions (Figure 7.B3). Three broad classes of forest are defined as Short Rotation Hardwood (SRH), Long Rotation Hardwood (LRH) and Softwood (SW).

This data is subsequently annualised (cumulative area divided by number of years) from within the blocks of years reported by Spencer et al. (2001).

Figure 7.B3: The National Plantation Inventory Regions



Allocations of the Short Rotation Hardwood (SRH), Long Rotation Hardwood (LRH) and Softwood (SW) classes are made to the region and species specific Plantation Types described by Turner and James (2001). Table 7.B1 shows the Plantation Types for which growth increment (yield) tables are available. The yields, in terms of bole volume, are shown in Attachment 7.B1.

Table 7.B1: Plantation Types and Management Regimes

Species	Region	Regime
<i>Pinus pinaster</i>	Western Australia	Average sites – 65% thin @ 18yrs, 37% @ 25yrs and clearfall @ 40yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Western Australia	Average sites – 51% thin @ 12yrs, 39% @ 18yrs, 32% @ 24yrs, clearfall @ 35yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Victoria, NSW	Poor sites – clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i>	Western Australia	Clearfall @ 10yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Victoria, NSW	Average sites – 65% thin @ 16yrs, 57% @ 24yrs, 27% @ 30yrs, clearfall @ 35yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Victoria, NSW	Poor sites – 26% thin @ 18yrs, 32% @ 24yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Victoria, NSW	Average sites – 65% thin @ 16yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Victoria, NSW	Average sites – 65% thin @ 16yrs, 57% @ 24yrs, clearfall @ 30 years
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Murray Valley	Very Good sites – 44% thin @ 14yrs, 31% @ 18yrs, 27% @ 23yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Victoria, NSW	Average sites – clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Murray Valley	Average sites – 47% thin @ 14yrs, 35% @ 22yrs, 29% @ 29yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Murray Valley	Average sites – 47% thin @ 14yrs, 35% @ 22yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Eucalyptus spp</i>	Vic(Central Gippsland)	All sites – clearfall @ 35yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Vic(Central Gippsland)	Average sites – 33% thin @ 15yrs, 37% @ 20 yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Eucalyptus spp</i>	Vic(Central Gippsland)	All sites – clearfall @ 20 yrs
<i>Eucalyptus spp</i>	Vic(Central Gippsland)	All sites – clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Victoria (Central)	Average sites – clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Eucalyptus spp</i>	Victoria (Central)	All sites – clearfall @ 25yrs
<i>Pinus spp (not radiata)</i>	Tasmania	All sites – clearfall @ 35yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Victoria (Central)	Average sites – 34% thin @ 15yrs, 18% @ 22yrs, 24% @ 28yrs, clearfall @ 35yrs
<i>Eucalyptus nitens</i>	Tasmania	All sites – clearfall @ 25yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Tasmania	Average sites – clearfall @ 35yrs
<i>Eucalyptus nitens</i>	Tasmania	All sites- clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Eucalyptus nitens</i>	Tasmania	All sites – clearfall @ 15yrs
<i>Eucalyptus spp</i>	South Australia	All sites – clearfall @ 25yrs
<i>Pinus spp (not radiata)</i>	South Australia	Average sites – 54% thin @ 13yrs, 25% @ 18yrs, 28% @ 23yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Eucalypt spp</i>	South Australia	All sites – clearfall @ 25yrs
<i>Pinus spp (not radiata)</i>	South Australia	Average sites – 54% thin @ 13yrs, 25% @ 18yrs, 28% @ 23yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Eucalypt spp</i>	South Australia	All sites – clearfall @ 20yrs
<i>Eucalypt spp</i>	South Australia	All sites – clearfall @ 15yrs

Species	Region	Regime
<i>Eucalypt spp</i>	Queensland	All sites – clearfall @ 20yrs
<i>Southern Pines</i>	Queensland	All sites – 35% thin @ 18yrs, clearfall @ 35yrs
<i>Eucalypt spp</i>	NSW	All sites – clearfall @ 20yrs
<i>Eucalypt spp</i>	Queensland	All sites – 67% thin @ 20yrs, 47% @ 35yrs, clearfall @ 45yrs
<i>Southern Pine</i>	NSW Northern Tableland	Average sites – 27% thin @ 14yrs, 47% @ 20yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Eucalypt spp</i>	NSW	All sites – 67% thin @ 20yrs, 47% @ 35yrs, clearfall @ 45yrs
<i>Pinus radiata</i>	Green Triangle	Average sites – 54% thin @ 13yrs, 25% @ 18yrs, 28% @ 23yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs
<i>Pinus spp</i> (not <i>radiata</i>)	Green Triangle	Average sites – 54% thin @ 13yrs, 25% @ 18yrs, 28% @ 23yrs, clearfall @ 30yrs

Within the *FullCAM* model, as implemented for the national plantation estate, *CAMFor* equivalent models for each of the Plantation Types were developed. Additional information, beyond the growth tables and thinning regimes of Turner and James (2001) shown in Table 7.B5 and Attachment 7.B1, for each Plantation Type included:

- > wood density;
- > stem to whole tree mass conversion;
- > carbon contents;
- > wood product destinations; and,
- > leaf and root turnover and decay rates.

Table 7.B5 and Attachment 7.B1 provide snapshots of the relevant inputs, and the resultant carbon balances on a per hectare basis from each of the Plantation Types. These snapshots are incorporations of the information collated by the NCAS as individual model implementations for each Plantation Type.

The 'Estate' module of *CAMFor* as contained within the *FullCAM* is then used to calculate the results of the implementation of the individual Plantation Type models on the basis of the new areas of each Plantation Type established over time. To do this the model interrogates the carbon balance for each Plantation Type at the relevant point in time to derive the overall account. The per hectare outcome, by the relevant age (as determined by the year of planting for each Plantation Type), is multiplied by the number of hectares planted in the corresponding year to calculate the change for the whole of the estate in any one year. A fuller explanation of the operation of the 'Estate' module of *CAMFor* can be found in Richards and Evans (2000a).

Identifying Lands Converted to Forest Land

Lands converted to Forest land can be identified and classified to Plantation Type since 1990. This is because the remotely sensed (Landsat satellite) data has only been analysed over this period. Further analysis is planned to identify lands converted to plantation since the commencement of the Landsat archive in 1972. The time-series data is able to identify areas where plantations have been established on land with a prior non-forest land use. The areas are shown in Table 7.B2.

Table 7.B2. Areas of Land Converted to Forest

Year	Area (ha)
1990	85,269
1991	86,183
1992	77,105
1993	72,850
1994	71,976
1995	50,535
1996	50,535
1997	50,535
1998	64,420
1999	66,411
2000	86,856
2001	86,856
2002	87,764
2003	87,976
2004	77,275
2005	55,303
2006	48,833

Growth Tables and Thinning Regimes

Turner and James (2001) reinterpreted their previous work for the National Forest Inventory wood flow estimates (National Forest Inventory 1997b) to provide current annual increments (CAI) of stem volume for each Plantation Type represented. To determine the CAI, the estimates of total volume produced (from a per cent thin or clearfall) by age, by region, by species and by Plantation Type were fitted with growth curves that met the annual growth needed to meet the volume harvested (yield). The method of fitting growth curves to the known points of wood yield for each Plantation Type is described in Turner and James (2001).

The empiricism of the estimates masks the influences of climate variability giving average performance over the time of measurement. It has been shown (Brack unpub.) that a variable climate will affect a variability in growth over time. While it is unlikely that the volume at maturity (reflecting the longer term climate average) would be much affected, performance over a shorter period, such as a single inventory year, may yield above or below the expected growth due to the prevailing climate conditions. The potential impact of prevailing climate conditions during the time of reporting is described in Brack and Richards (2002).

Wood Density Estimates

Wood density estimates were extracted from the compendium prepared by Ilic et. al. (2000) for the NCAS. While many native forest species have few, and in some instances no, reported wood density estimates, plantation species are relatively well studied and reported. However, wood density is most commonly measured at the time of harvest, reflecting a mature state.

As it is commonly accepted that wood density increases with tree age, there is a potential that the adopted wood densities are over-estimates for the early stages of plantation growth. However, the overall effect is unlikely to be significant as lower densities occur when mass is least, that is, during early growth stages. Also, as plantations are generally harvested well before individual tree maturity (generally as total growth increment begins to taper) it is unlikely that the maximum potential density will be achieved at the time of harvest. Table B6 and Attachment 7.B1 show the wood density values used for the major plantation species in the Plantation Types.

Stem to Whole Tree Mass Conversions

Studies completed for the NCAS on the above and below ground partitioning of biomass (Keith et. al., 2000, Eamus et. al., 2000, Snowdon et. al., 2000) have shown that both above and below ground variability reduces, as do non-stem allocations, as site biomass increases. Greatest uniformity, and therefore least variability, tends to occur in even-aged and productive stands. Attachment 7.B1 provides a synopsis of the non-stem allocations used in each Plantation Type model.

The ratio of stem (merchantable) quantities to non-merchantable components is particularly important for the calculation of the amounts of forest slash generated by thinning and harvesting activity. The potential accumulation of slash can make a considerable contribution to increased carbon stock, particularly on former pasture sites.

Carbon Contents

The carbon contents of various tree components below and above ground were examined in Gifford (2000a) and Gifford (2000b) respectively in studies for the NCAS. Carbon contents were tested for various species and growing conditions, with recommended estimates given within the range of values yielded in test results. There was little variability in the results and more importantly no cause to suspect bias in any set of environmental conditions or plant groups. These results could be considered as robust and reliable estimates, providing little source of uncertainty in the carbon models.

Leaf and Root Turnover

The turnover rate of leaves affects both the amount of fine litter on the forest floor and subsequently most of the aboveground contribution to soil carbon. The turnover rate of roots (largely fine roots) is taken to be a direct input to soil carbon.

As this implementation of the model has not considered soil carbon, the rates of turnover of both leaves and fine roots are relatively unimportant. The key attributes of the assigned rates are that they are realistic and do not operate at rates high or low enough to either reduce below reasonable expectation, the mass of attached leaves and live roots, or create unrealistically high or low levels of litter.

A simple reality check can be performed directly from observations of model results. While leaf turnover rates have been the subject of measurement and can be compared to observations, the difficulty in measuring root turnover means that there are very few reported measures against which to compare. However, as the stock of 'dead' fine root material is accounted for as soil organic matter, this becomes irrelevant until soil carbon accounting is implemented.

Table 7.B3: Tree Component Annual Turnover Rates

Tree Component	Turnover yr ⁻¹
Branches	0.03
Bark	0.1
Leaves	0.5
Coarse Roots	0.05
Fine Roots	0.1

Slash Decomposition

Subsequent to harvest there is often large quantities of slash (stumpage, branches etc.) left on the forest floor to decompose. The rates of decomposition applied in the model have been guided by the work of Mackensen and Bauhus (1999) for the NCAS. Table 7.B4 shows the decomposition rates applied.

Table 7.B4: Slash Decomposition Rates

Litter Component	Breakdown Rate yr ⁻¹
Deadwood	0.1
Bark Litter	0.5
Leaf Litter	1.0
Coarse Dead Roots	0.5
Fine Dead Roots	1.0

Table 7.B5: Wood Densities and Carbon Contents

Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sap- wood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	CC% Fine Roots	CC% Coarse Roots	Regime Description
Green Triangle	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 54% thinning @ 13 years, 25% @ 18, 28% @ 23, CF @ 30
Green Triangle	<i>Pinus</i> (other than radiata)	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 54% thinning @ 13 years, 25% @ 18, 28% @ 23, CF @ 30
NSW Northern Tableland	Southern Pine (<i>P. ellipti</i> , <i>P. taeda</i> , <i>Araucaria cunninghamii</i>)	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 27% thinning @ 14 years, 47% @ 20, CF @ 30
NSW	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - 67% @ 20 years, 47% @ 35, CF @ 45
NSW	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 20
Qld	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - 67% @ 20 years, 47% @ 35, CF @ 45
Qld	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 20
Qld	Southern Pine (<i>P. ellipti</i> , <i>P. taeda</i> , <i>Araucaria cunninghamii</i>)	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	All Sites - 35% @ 18 years, CF @ 35
SA	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 20
South Australia	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 15
South Australia	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 25
South Australia	<i>Pinus</i> (other than radiata)	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 54% thinning @ 13 years, 25% @ 18, 28% @ 23, CF @ 30
Tasmania	<i>Eucalyptus nitens</i>	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 30
Tasmania	<i>Eucalyptus nitens</i>	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 15
Tasmania	<i>Eucalyptus nitens</i>	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 25
Tasmania	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - CF @ 35
Tasmania	<i>Pinus</i> (other than radiata)	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 35
Victoria (Central)	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 34% thinning @ 15 years, 18% @ 22, 24% @ 28, CF @ 35
Victoria (Central)	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - CF @ 30
Victoria (Central Gippsland)	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 25
Victoria (Central Gippsland)	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 20

Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sap- wood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	CC% Fine Roots	CC% Coarse Roots	Regime Description
Victoria (Central Gippsland)	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 30
Victoria (Central Gippsland)	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	46	49	All Sites - CF @ 35
Victoria (Central Gippsland)	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 33% thinning @ 15 years, 37% @ 20, CF @ 30
Murray Valley	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 47% thinning @ 14 years, 35% @ 22, 29% @ 29, CF @ 30
Murray Valley	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 47% thinning @ 14 years, 35% @ 22, CF @ 30
Murray Valley	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Very Good Sites - 44% thinning @ 14 years, 31% @ 18, 27% @ 23, CF @ 30
Victoria and NSW	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - CF @ 30 years
Victoria and NSW	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 65% thinning @ 16 years, CF @ 30
Victoria and NSW	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 65% thinning @ 16 years, 57% @ 24, CF @ 30
Victoria and NSW	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 65% thinning @ 16 years, 57% @ 24, 27% @ 30, CF @ 35
Victoria and NSW	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Poor Sites - 26% thinning @ 18 years, 32% @ 24, CF @ 30
Victoria and NSW	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Poor Sites - CF @ 30 years
Western Australia	Eucalyptus globulus	550	52.8	49.8	47	48.7	50.7	49	46	49	Clear fall @ 10
Western Australia	Pinus pinaster	470	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 65% thinning @ 18 years, 37% @ 25, CF @ 40
Western Australia	Pinus radiata	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	46	49	Average Sites - 51% thinning @ 12 years, 39% @ 18, 32% @ 24, CF @ 35

Uncertainty Analysis

Brack and Richards (2002) have provided the basis for uncertainty analysis using the @Risk *Monte Carlo* capabilities attached to the *FullCAM* model. The analysis undertaken took advantage of the progression from treating all parameters as 'uncertain' with ranges of potential values, to described the potential 'variance' within many parameters in terms of a probability distribution.

Dealing with quantified variance rather than constrained uncertainty within *Monte Carlo* analyses in *FullCAM* makes it possible to consider the correlation between variables and parameters and the likelihood of any single or interacting circumstance occurring. When the Monte Carlo analysis runs all statistical variants of possible inputs in combination, unrealistic biophysical scenarios may be induced. For example, under a high rainfall both growth rate and decomposition rates will likely increase. If the *Monte Carlo* analysis is not informed that these parameters are positively correlated, then the random selection of high growth values may be associated with decreased decomposition rates.

If correlations are not prescribed combinations such as increased growth and decreased decomposition rates (a negative correlation) are as likely to be selected as a positive correlation, yet they are not likely in reality. This inclusion of unrealistic scenarios will considerably increase perceived uncertainty in model outcomes. The result is that a simple multiplicative array of potential (yet unrealistic) extreme results increases uncertainty ranges, as the generally ameliorating impacts of correlated inputs are not acknowledged.

Brack and Richards (2002) modelled the performance an individual stand using growth rates determined according to the observed growth variance around rainfall variability, error in allocating a growth index for the relevant growth model, and known variance or uncertainty in other key parameters. The key output for consideration is shown in Figure 7.B4.

The 'tornado' graph shows the sources of uncertainty of model parameters and variables in order of their importance to uncertainty in the model outcome. It is clear from the analysis that, on an individual stand basis and in this instance, predictions are more prone to climate based variation than any other influence.

Figure B5 provides the mean and standard deviations for projected performance, providing the logical conclusion that stands aged around their maximum potential growth rate would be most affected (largest standard deviation) by variability largely driven by climate.

To take such individual stand-based uncertainty analyses to a national scale by simplistically extrapolating high and low outcomes would yield unrealistic results. The use of say a 'low' based and the lower standard deviation is founded on the unlikely potential for below average rainfall for all plantation areas across the whole continent. Given the vast areas covered by plantations, it is a reasonable expectation that across the continent, 'near average' conditions will be achieved.

Figure 7.B4: Tornado diagram derived from @ Risk simulations of the correlation between uncertainty of the inputs and distribution of sequestration estimates between 2008 and 2012 for a plantation established in 1990. Weather/xxxx denotes the variation in weather during 5-year period commencing xxxx. Model/xxxx denotes the variation in the modelled site index during the 5-year period commencing xxxx. Expansion/xxxx denotes the variation in the expansion factors (caused as a result of the variation in increment of bark, branches, twigs and leaves) during the 5-year period commencing xxxx. Roots/xxxx denotes the variation in root increment and decay during the 5-year period commencing xxxx.

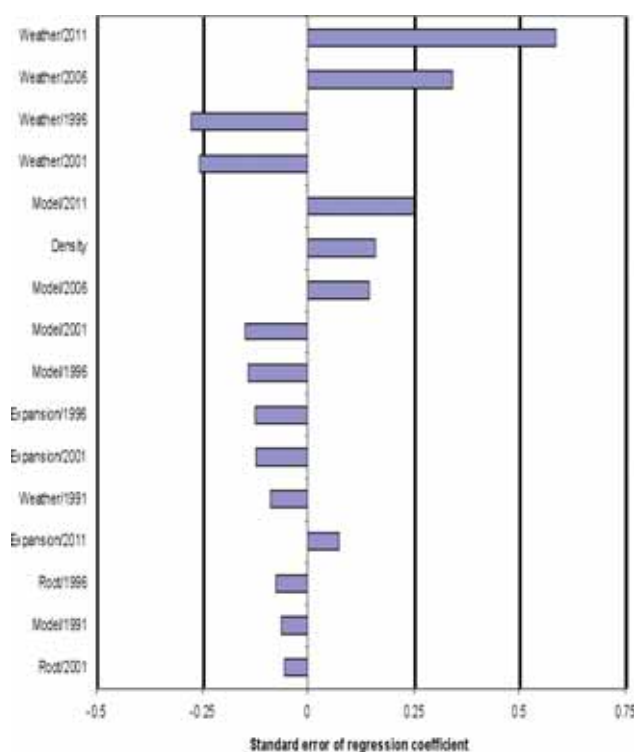
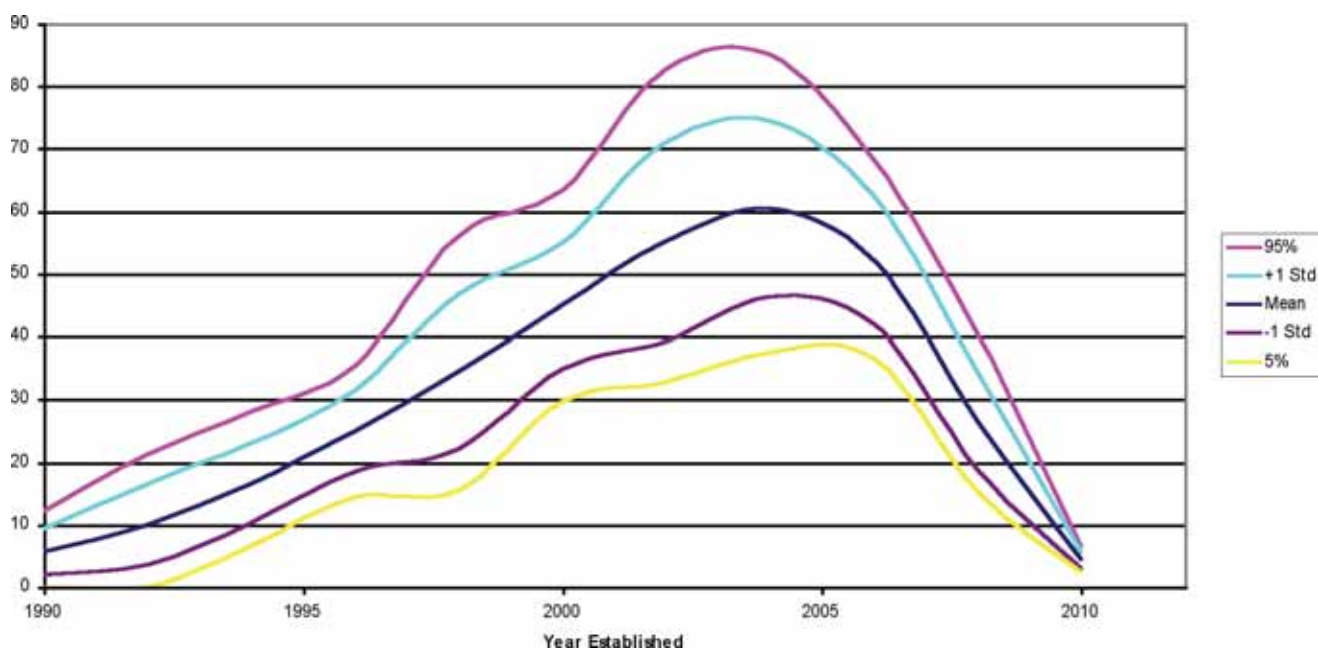
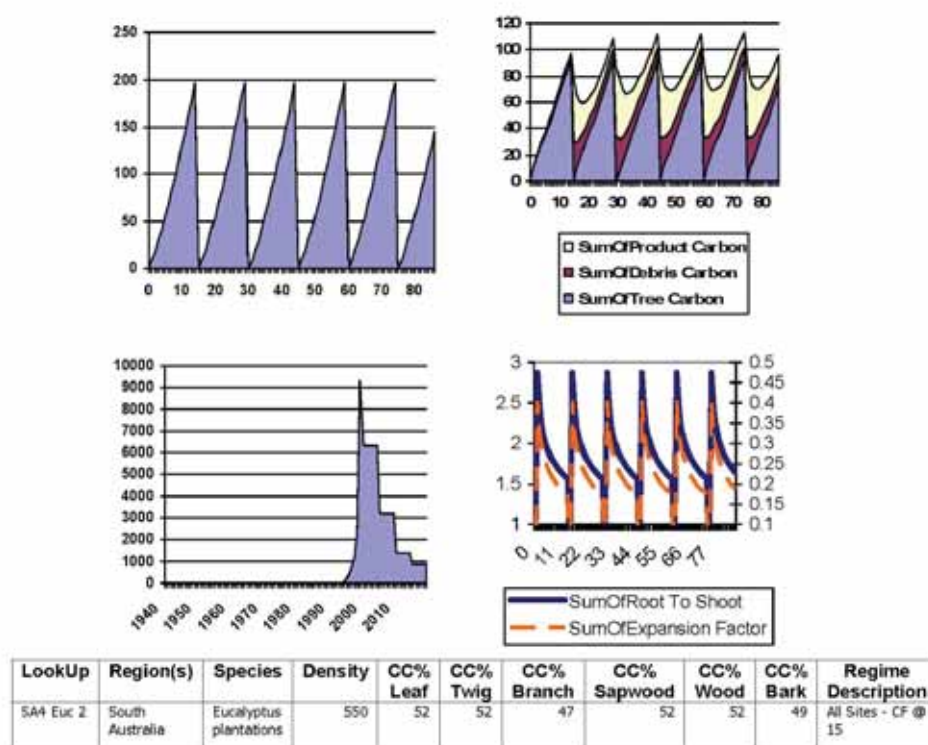
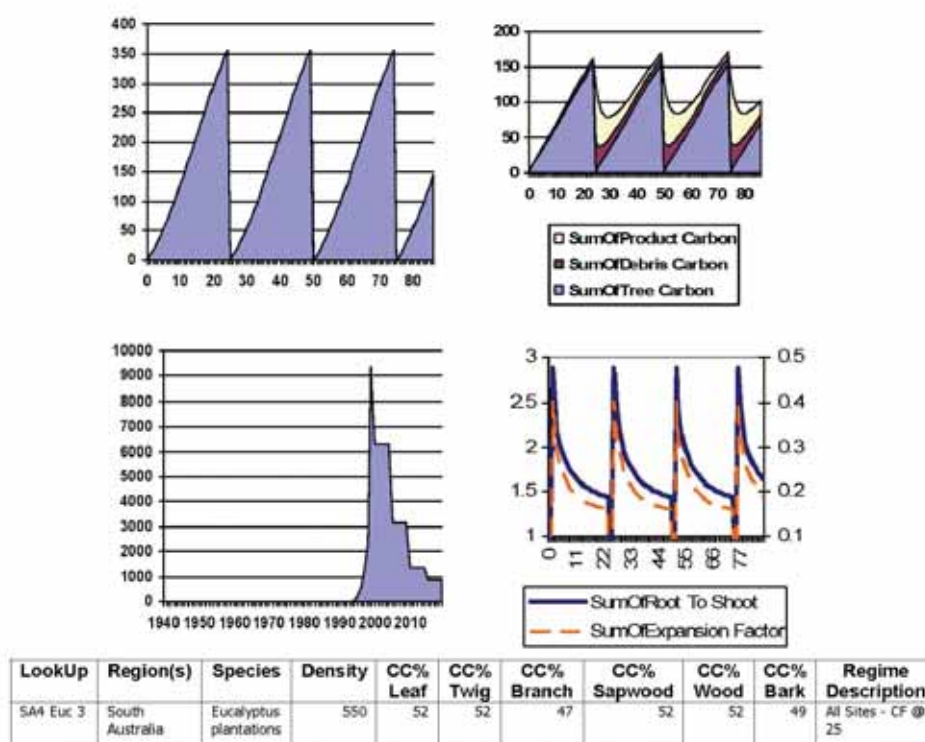


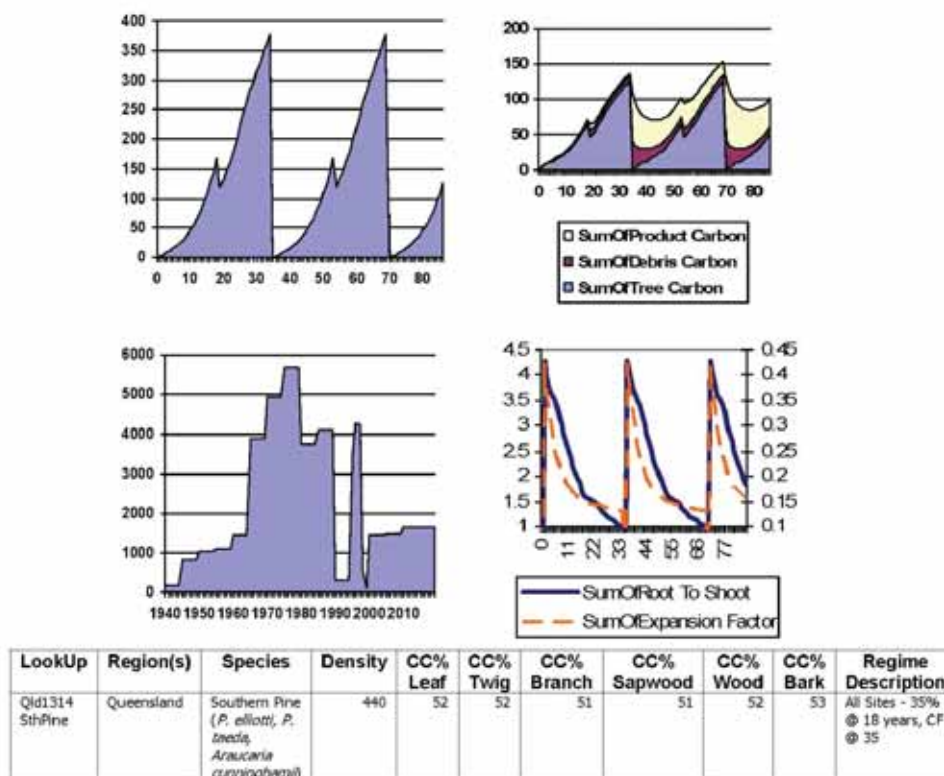
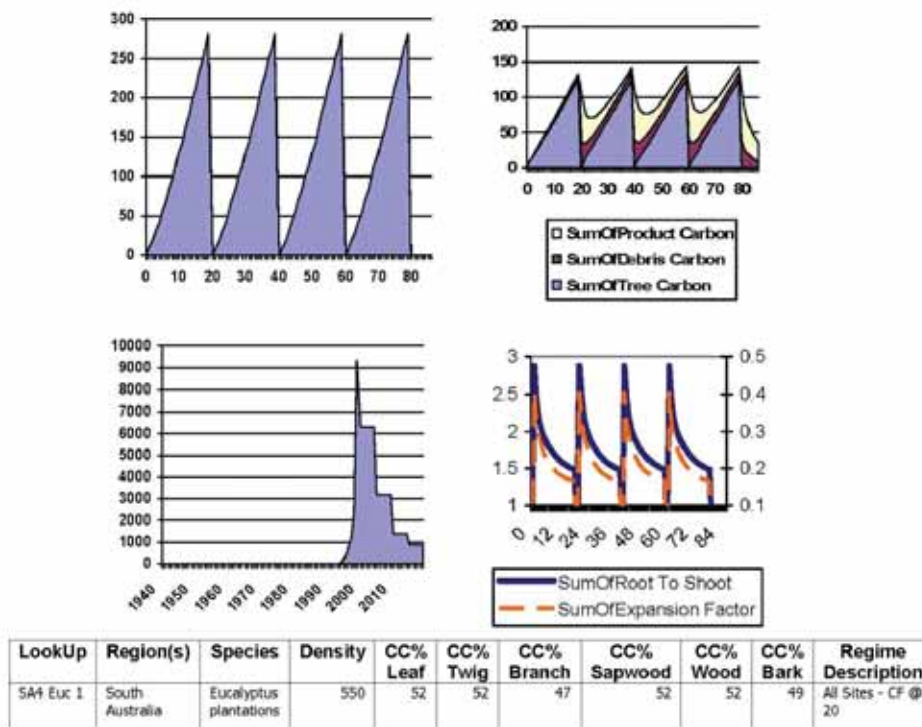
Figure 7.B5. Variability in Stand Performance by Age of Stand (from Brack and Richards 2002)

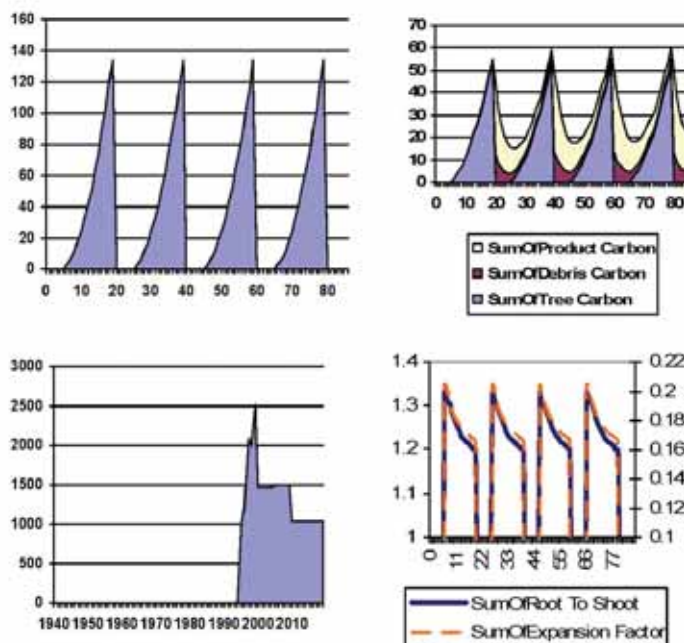


Attachment 7.B1: Plantation Type Model Parameters and Outcomes

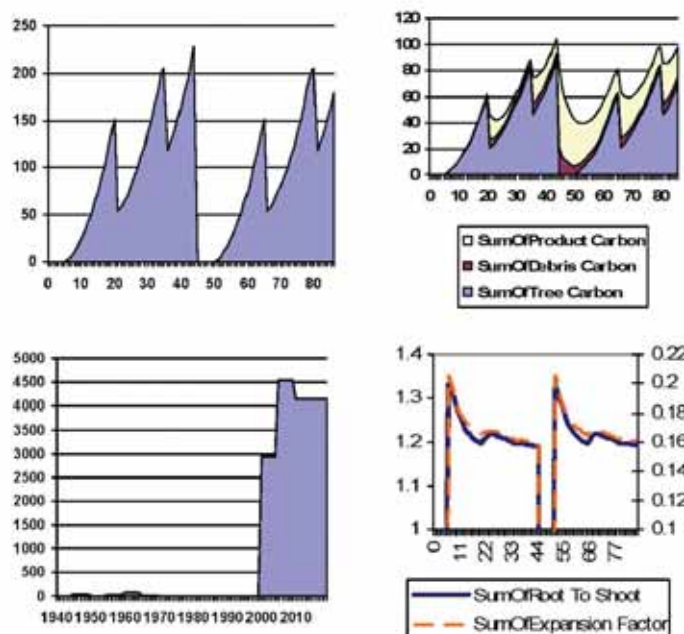


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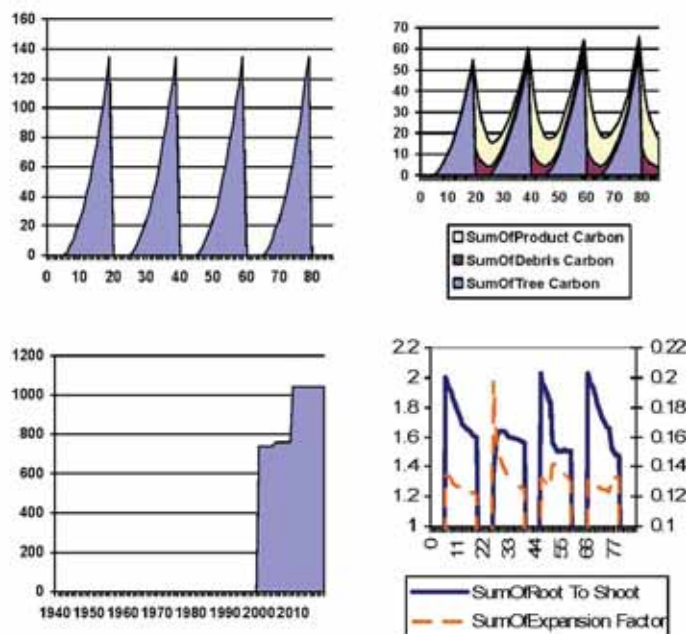


LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
Qld1314 Euc 2	Queensland	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	All Sites - CF @ 20

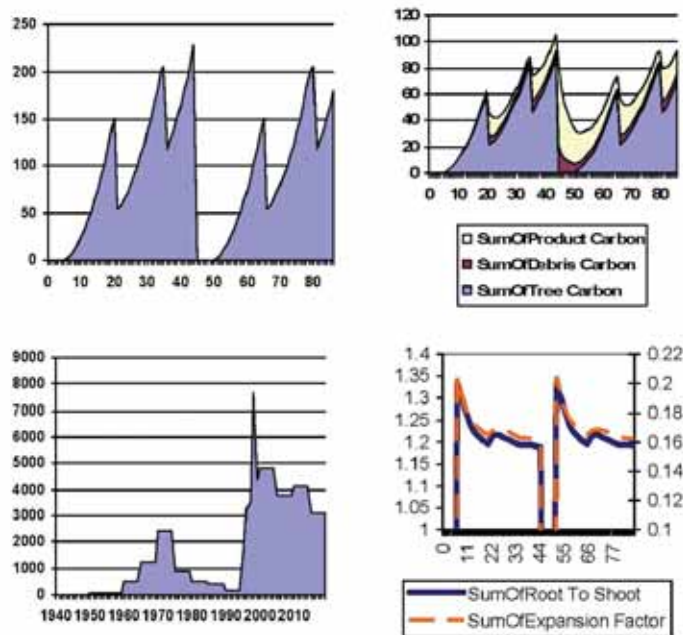


LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
Qld1314 Euc 1	Queensland	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	All Sites - 67% @ 20 years, 47% @ 35, CF @ 45

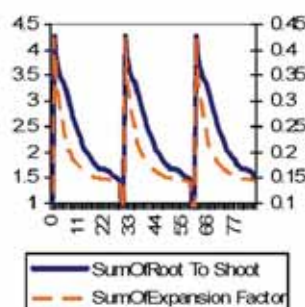
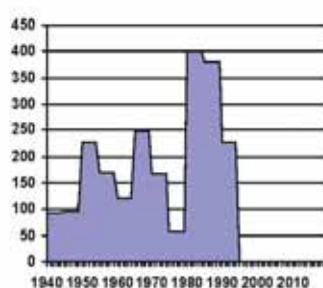
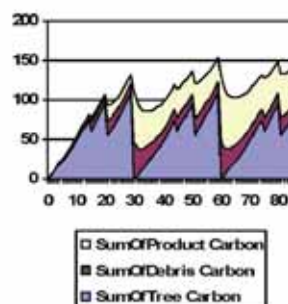
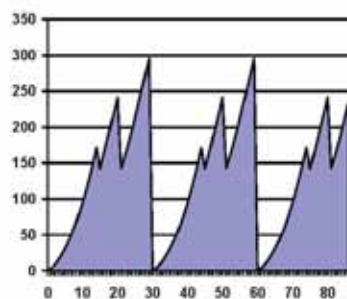
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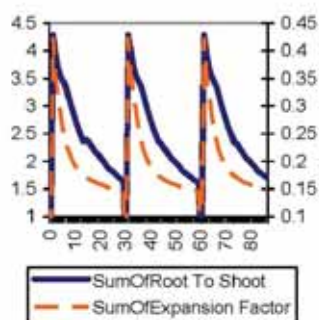
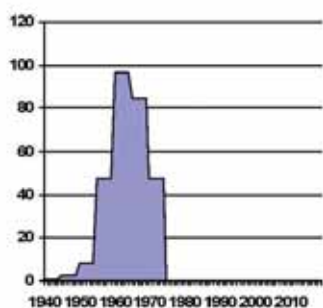
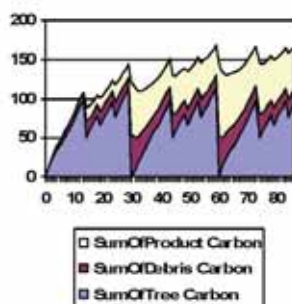
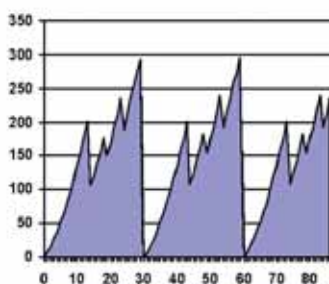
LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
NSW9101112 Euc 2	NSW	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	All Sites - CF @ 20



LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
NSW9101112 Euc 1	NSW	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	All Sites - 67% @ 20 years, 47% @ 35, CF @ 45

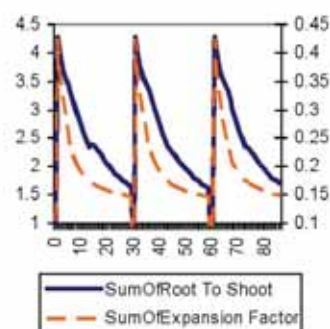
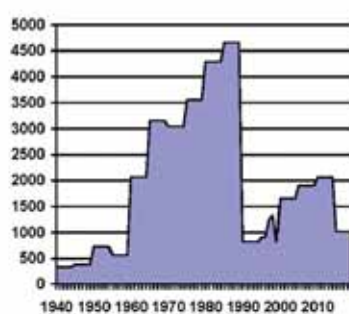
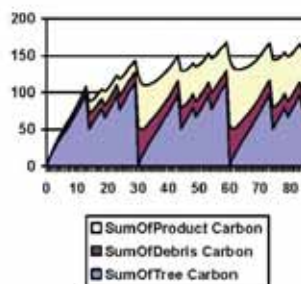
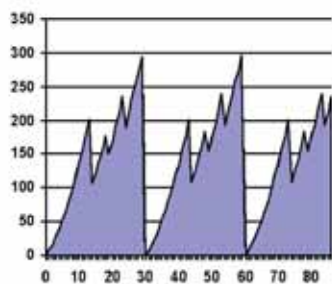


LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
NSW11 SthPine 1	NSW Northern Tableland	Southern Pine (<i>P. elliotii</i> , <i>P. taeda</i> , <i>Araucaria cunninghamii</i>)	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 27% thinning @ 14 years, 47% @ 20, CF @ 30

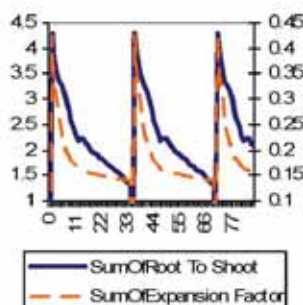
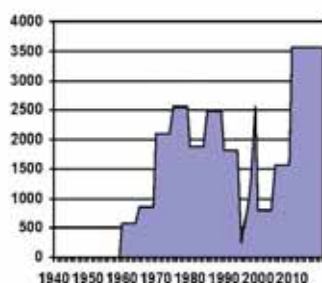
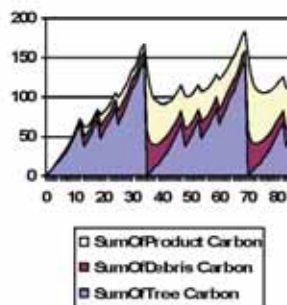
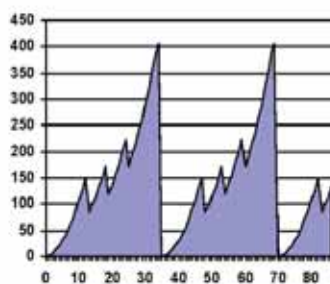


LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
GmTrn3 Pinus 1	Green Triangle	Pinus (other than radiata)	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 54% thinning @ 13 years, 25% @ 18, 28% @ 23, CF @ 30

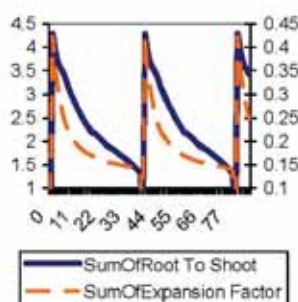
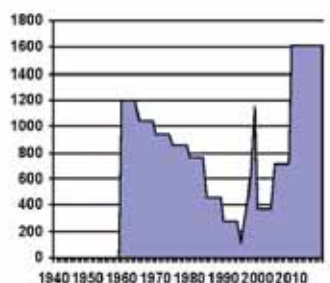
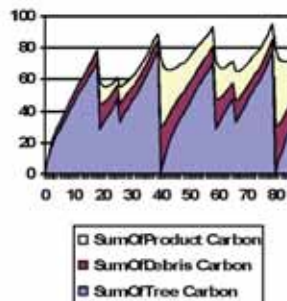
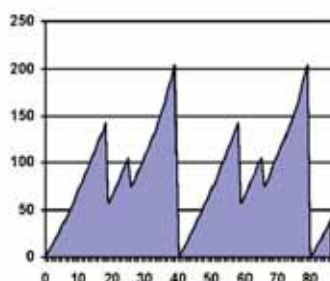
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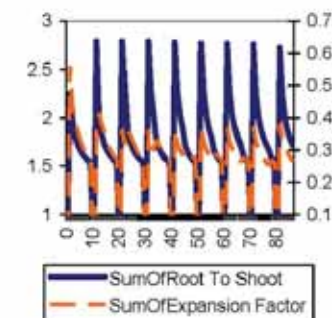
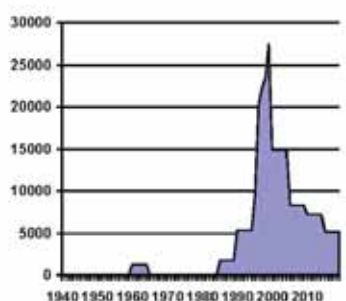
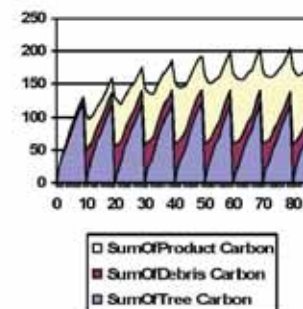
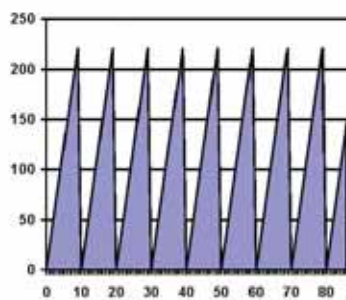
LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
GmTri3 P.rad 1	Green Triangle	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 54% thinning @ 13 years, 25% @ 18, 28% @ 23, CF



LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
WA1 P.rad 1	Wester Australia	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 51% thinning @ 12 years, 39% @ 18, 32% @ 24, CF @ 35

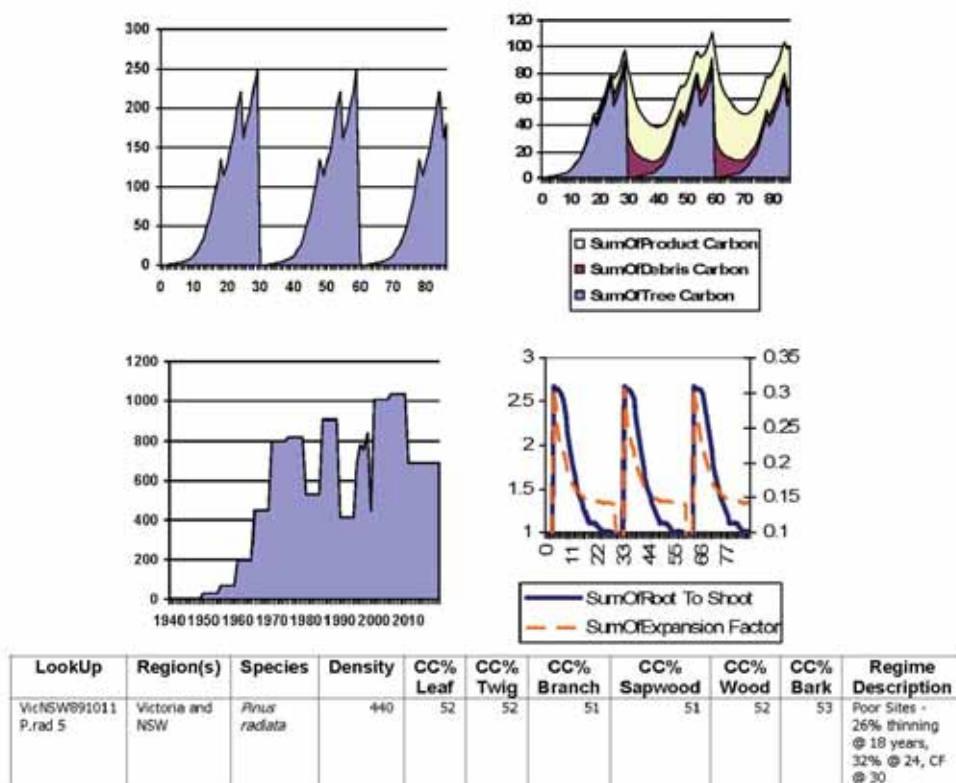
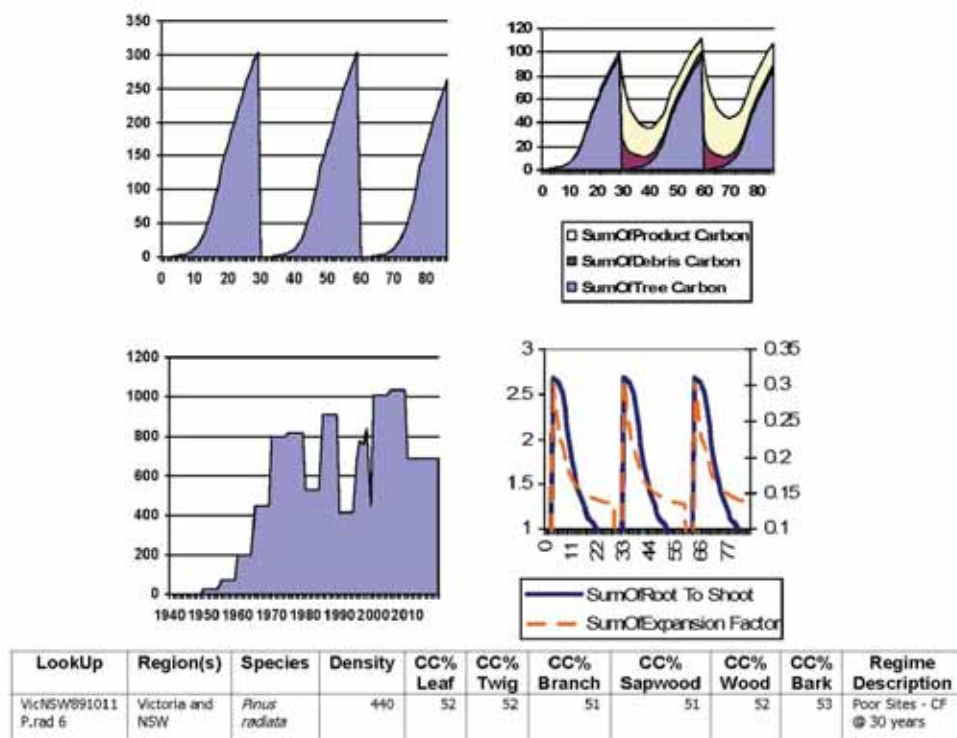


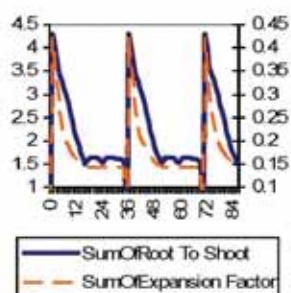
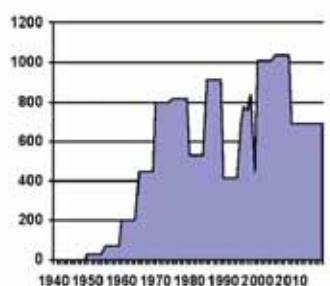
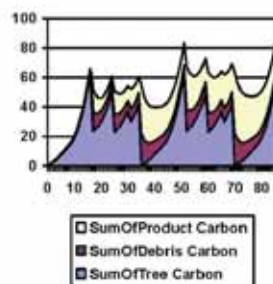
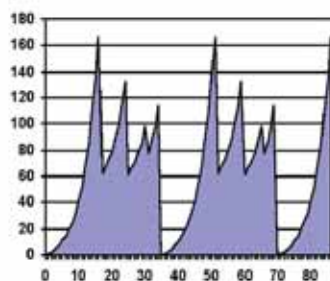
LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
WA1 P.pin 1	Wester Australia	<i>Pinus pinaster</i>	470	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 65% thinning @ 18 years, 37% @ 25, CF @ 40



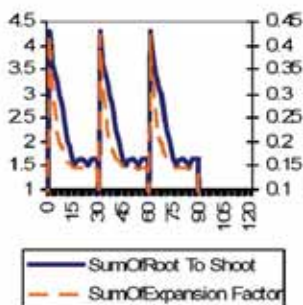
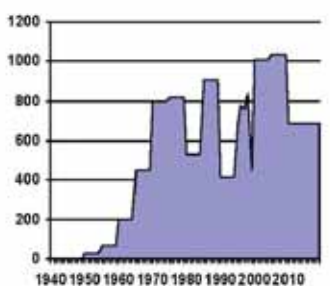
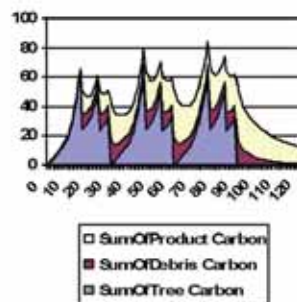
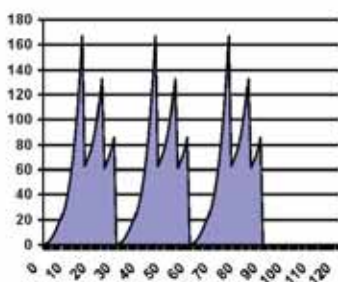
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WA1 E.glob 1	Wester Australia	<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i>	550	52.8	49.8	47	48.7	50.7	49	Clear fall @ 10

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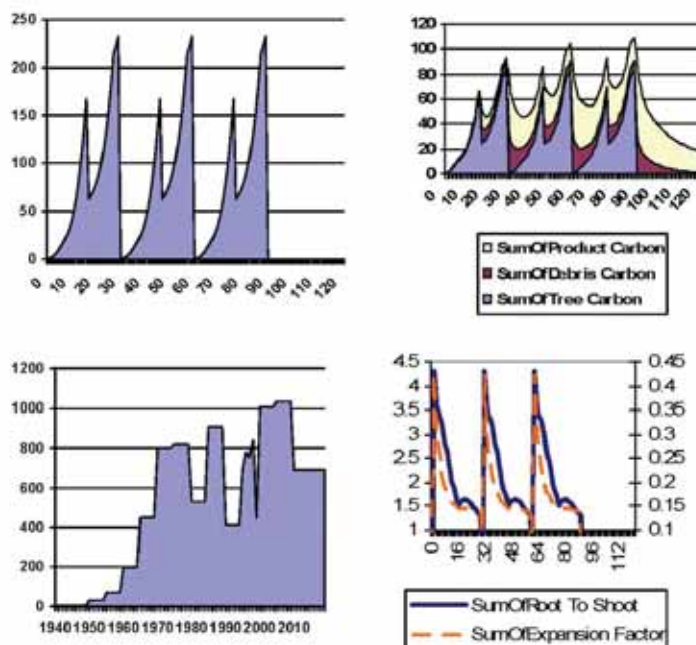


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VicNSW891011 P.rad 4	Victoria and NSW	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 65% thinning @ 16 years, 57% @ 24, 27% @ 30, CF @ 35

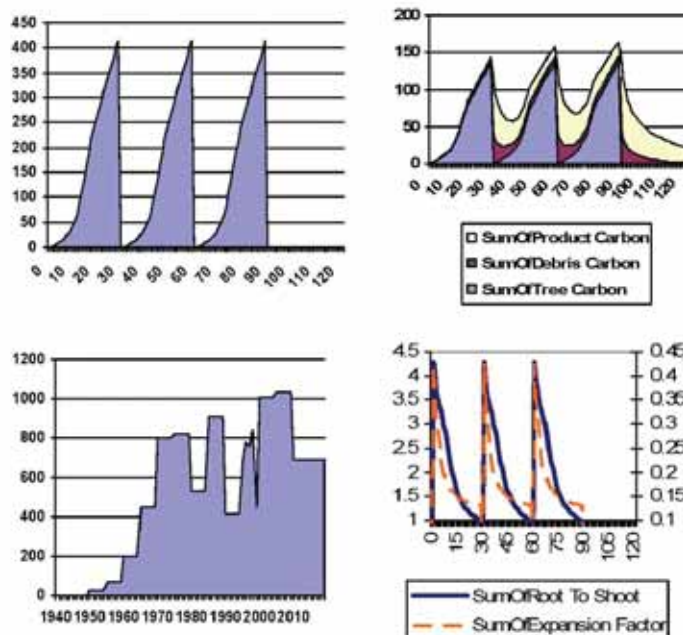


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VicNSW891011 P.rad 3	Victoria and NSW	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 65% thinning @ 16 years, 57% @ 24, CF @ 30

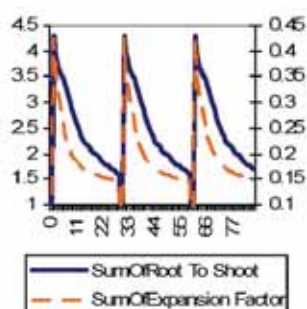
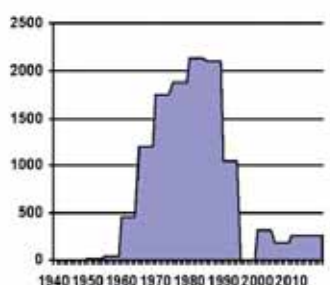
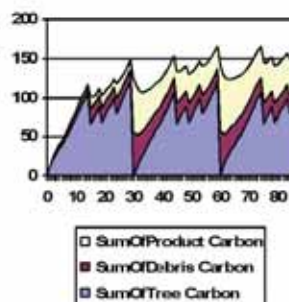
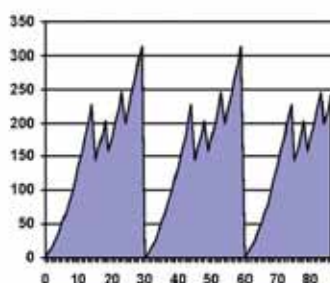
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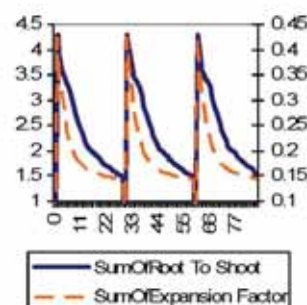
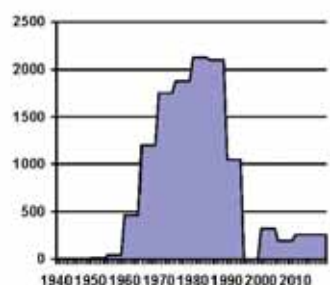
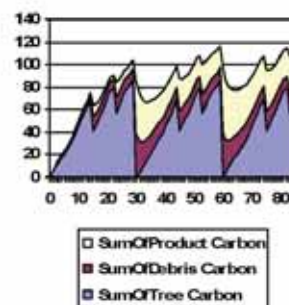
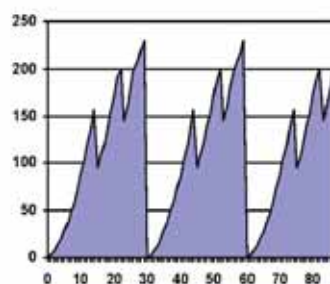
LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
VicNSW891011 P.rad 2	Victoria and NSW	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 65% thinning @ 16 years, CF @ 30



LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
VicNSW891011 P.rad 1	Victoria and NSW	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - CF @ 30 years

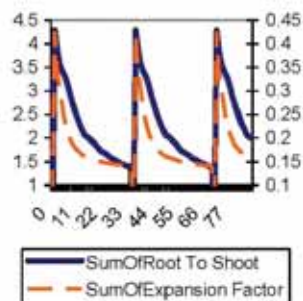
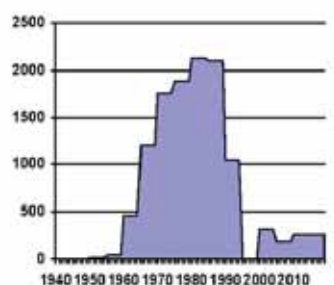
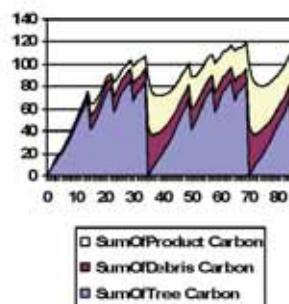
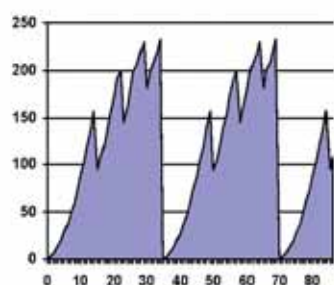


LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
VicNSW6 P.rad 3	Murray Valley	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Very Good Sites - 44% thinning @ 14 years, 31% @ 18, 27% @ 23, CF @ 30

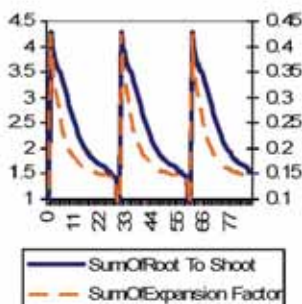
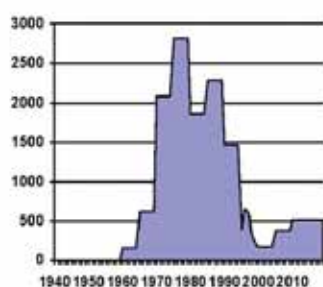
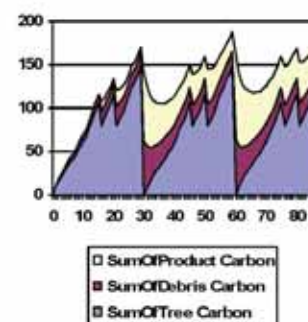
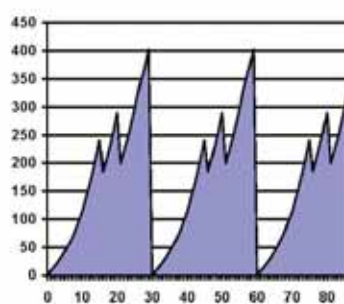


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VicNSW6 P.rad 2	Murray Valley	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 47% thinning @ 14 years, 35% @ 22, CF @ 30

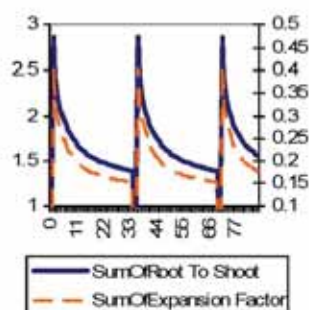
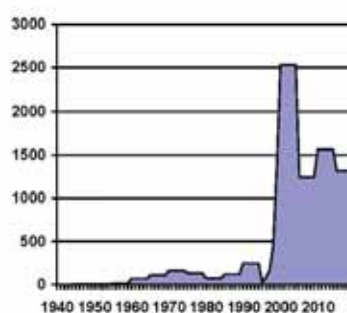
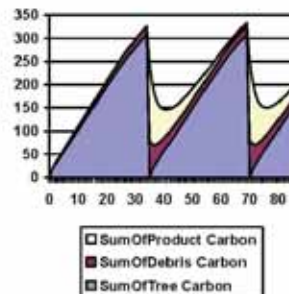
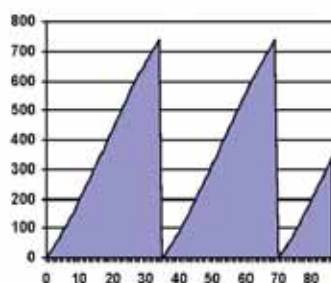
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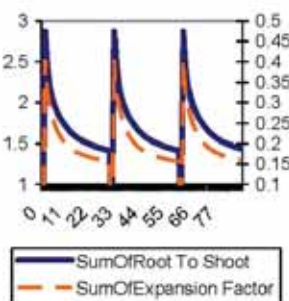
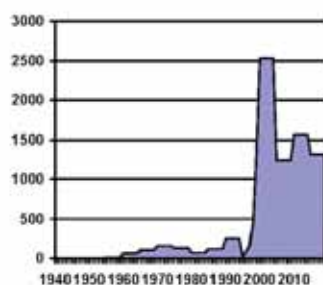
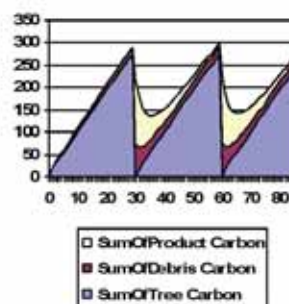
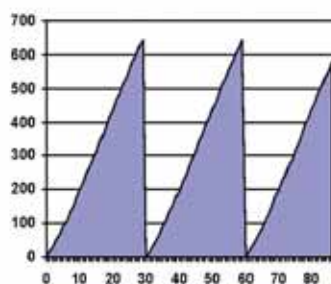
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VicNSW6 P.rad 2	Murray Valley	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 47% thinning @ 14 years, 35% @ 22, CF @ 30



LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
Vic7 P.rad 1	Victoria (Central Gippsland)	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 33% thinning @ 15 years, 37% @ 20, CF @ 30

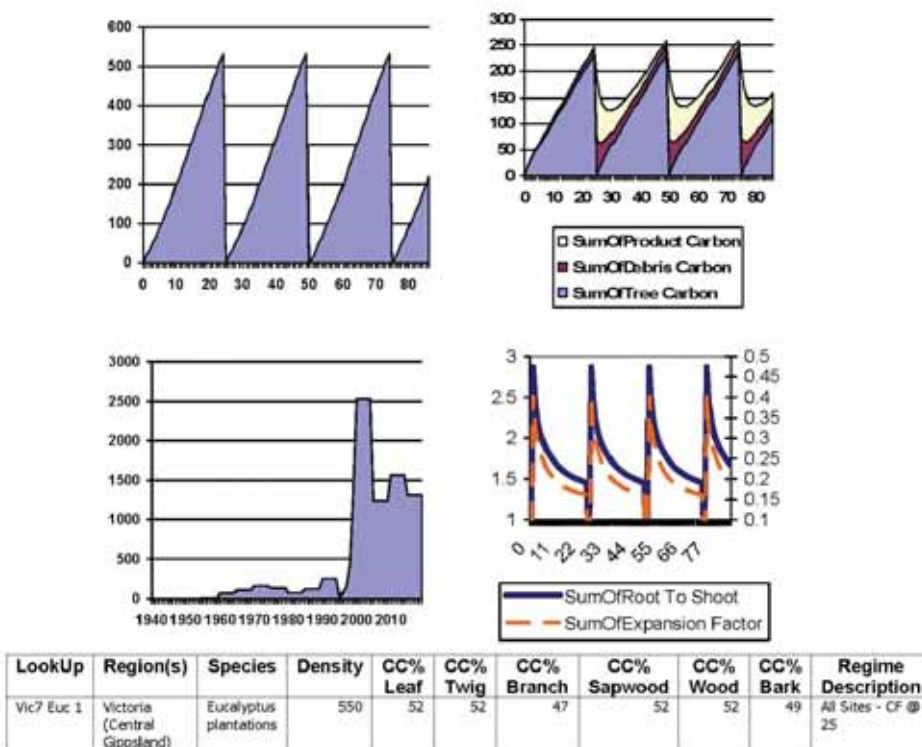
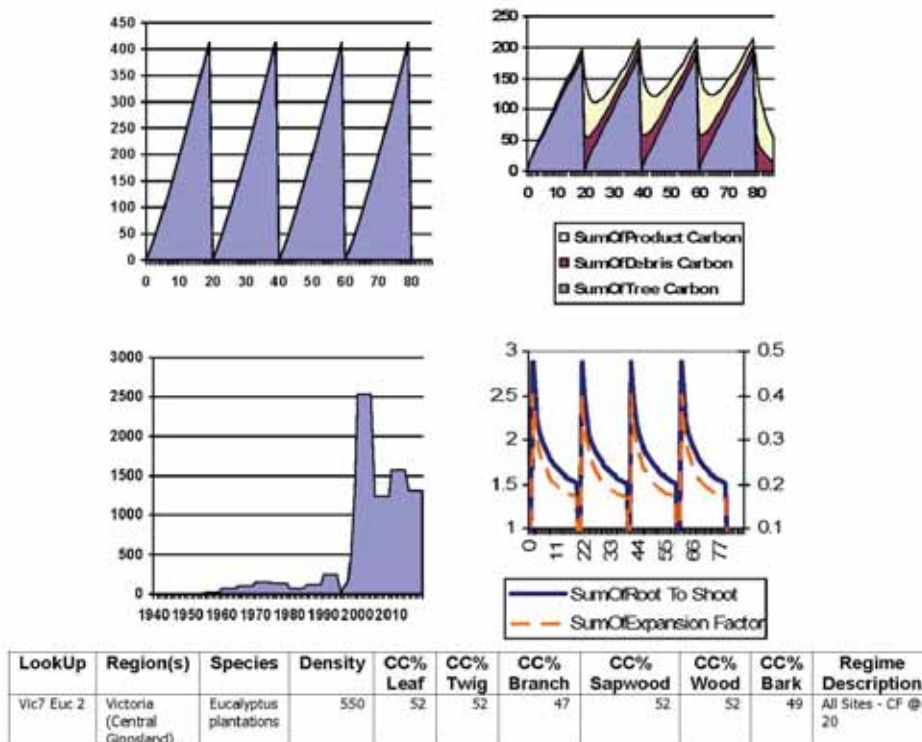


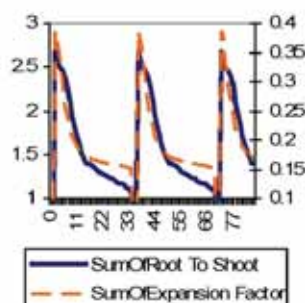
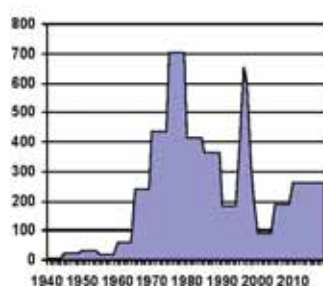
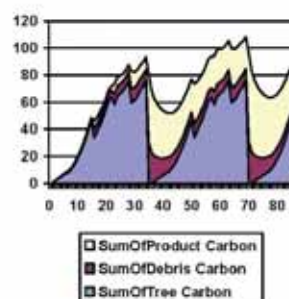
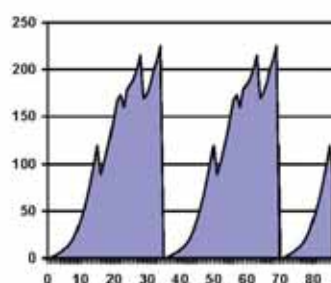
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Vic7 Euc 4	Victoria (Central Gippsland)	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	All Sites - CF @ 35



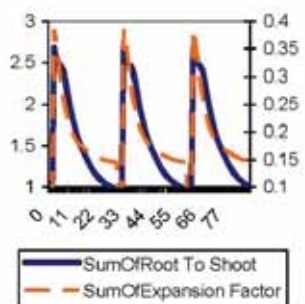
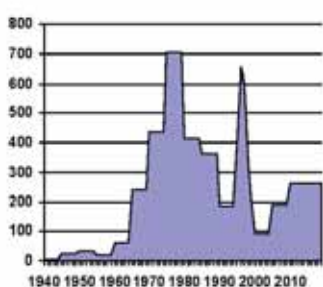
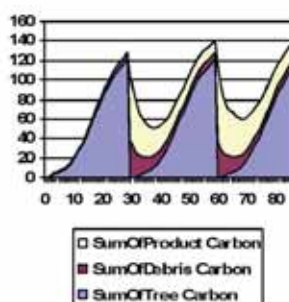
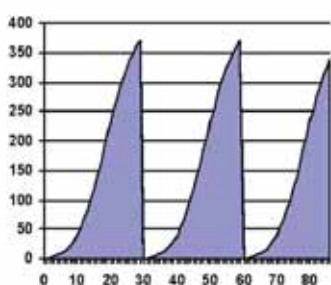
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Vic7 Euc 3	Victoria (Central Gippsland)	Eucalyptus plantations	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	All Sites - CF @ 30

AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL GREENHOUSE ACCOUNTS

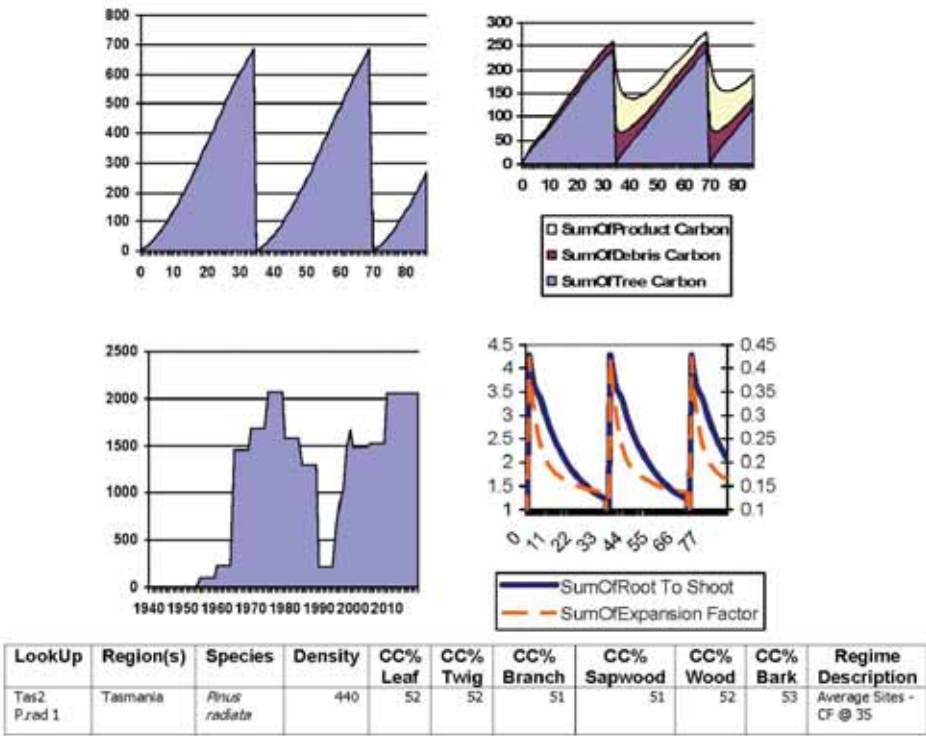
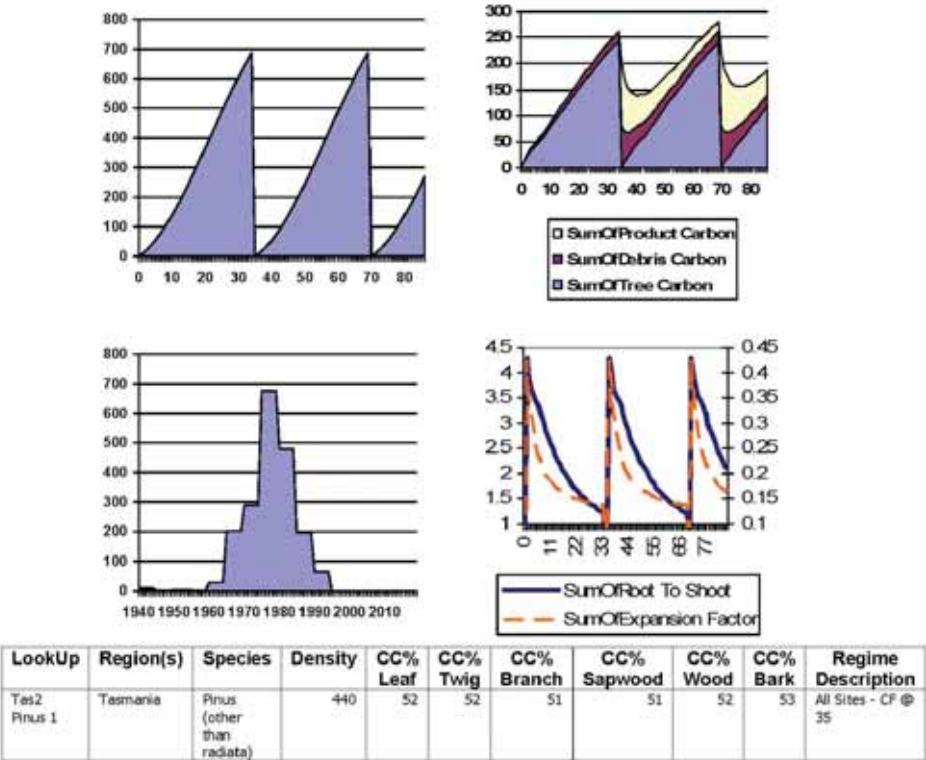


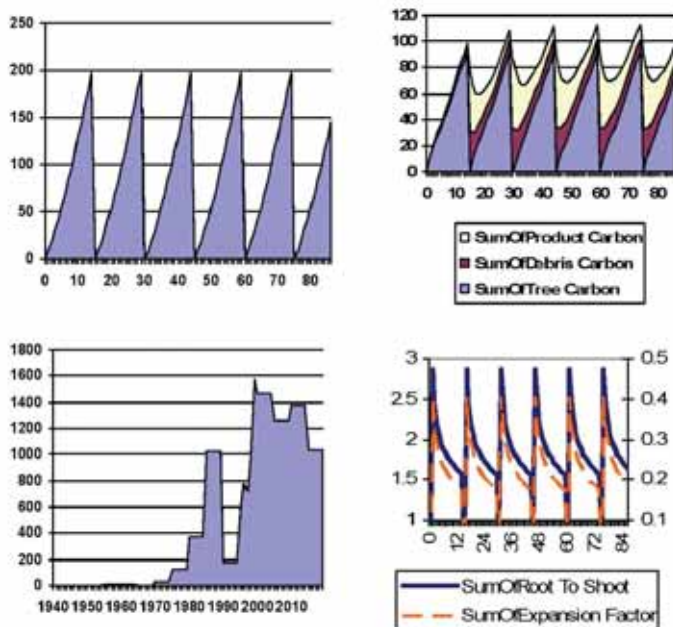


LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
VicS P.rad 2	Victoria (Central)	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - CF @ 30

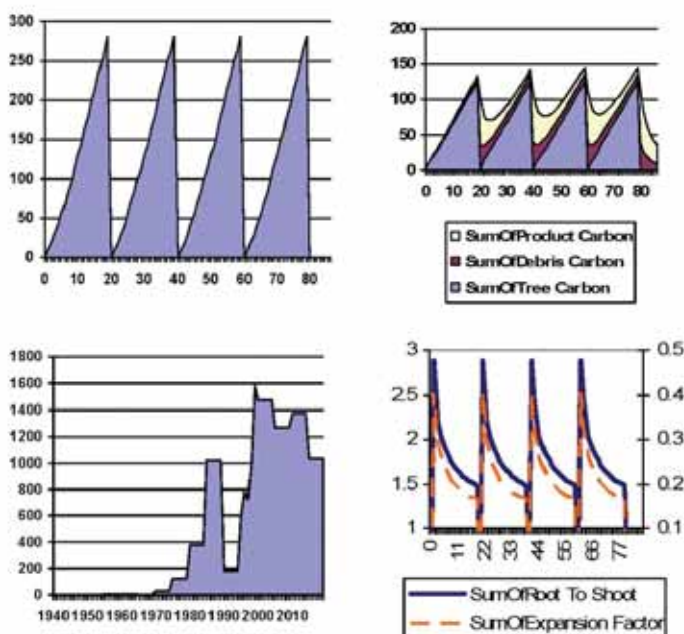


LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
VicS P.rad 1	Victoria (Central)	<i>Pinus radiata</i>	440	52	52	51	51	52	53	Average Sites - 34% thinning @ 15 years, 18% @ 22, 24% @ 28, CF @ 35

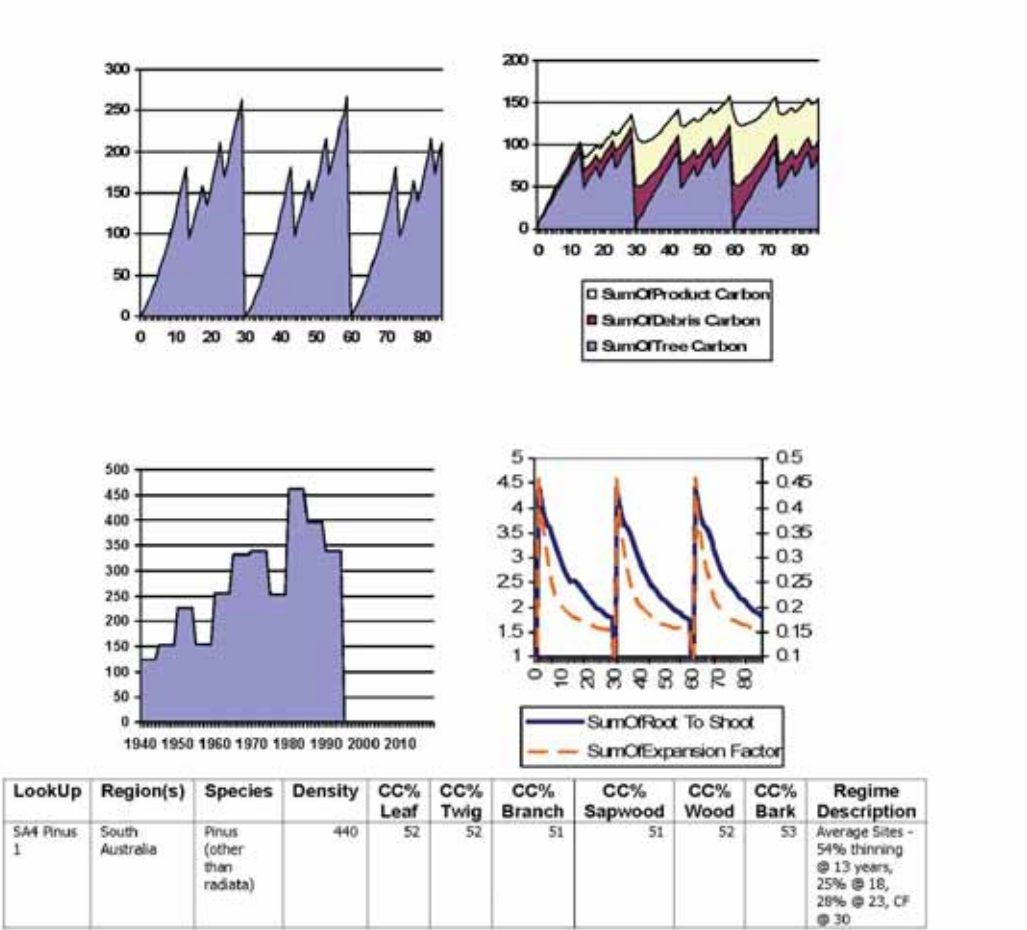




LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
Tas2_E.nit 2	Tasmania	<i>Eucalyptus nitens</i>	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	All Sites - CF @ 15



LookUp	Region(s)	Species	Density	CC% Leaf	CC% Twig	CC% Branch	CC% Sapwood	CC% Wood	CC% Bark	Regime Description
Tas2_E.nit 1	Tasmania	<i>Eucalyptus nitens</i>	550	52	52	47	52	52	49	All Sites - CF @ 30



Attachment 7.B2: Quality Assurance**Forestry and Forest Products**

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 Telephone: (02) 6281 8211 (International + 61 2 6281 8211)
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<http://www.ffp.csiro.au/>

30 November 2001

Mr Ian Carruthers
 Senior Executive Manager
 Greenhouse Policy Group
 Australian Greenhouse Office
 GPO Box 621
 CANBERRA ACT 2601

Dear Ian

National Article 3.3 Model

I am pleased to be able to provide the following report of the review of the National Carbon Accounting System National Article 3.3 Model performed by a team of four scientists from CSIRO Forestry and Forest Products. The CSIRO team have not been directly involved in development of the CamFor model or its calibration for this particular application. However, CSIRO are very aware of the work that has supported it.

Based on some fundamental presumptions (such as the area statements and growth and yield estimates) the CSIRO team undertook a quality control/assurance review of the modelling framework, assumptions and results. During the review, future refinements of the models were agreed with the NCAS developers.

Findings:

1. Areas and Forest Types

The modelling was based upon some prescribed inputs that were not the subject of quality assurance. These were provided by the BRS and included:

- 1) Area statements and plantation expansion scenarios
- 2) Forest types, modified from the NPI
- 3) Average growth and yield forecasts for each of those forest types

The assignment of areas to forest types, and the entry of growth and yield data to the model, appears to be correct.

2. Model Framework

The CAMFor/CAMForEstate models are appropriate for this task. The alternative of using a processes-based modelling approach is considered premature, due to inadequate validation at the national scale. The capability for risk analysis, which is part of the model, is an important tool for analysing uncertainty.

3. Density, Carbon Contents and Allocations

Data for a range of tree characteristics have been drawn from a range of published sources and transferred to the models. Wood density is drawn from the NCAS Technical Report No. 18, Carbon Contents from NCAS Technical Reports 7 and 22, and expansion factors and root:shoot ratios from NCAS Technical Reports 5a, 5b and 17. The reports summarise the extent of readily available knowledge. This information has been summarised and correctly incorporated into CAMFor.

4. Turnover Rates

In this model application, rates of change were specified for :

- (i) Turnover of tree components, and (ii) decomposition of wood products.

The turnover rates of tree components applied in the model provide realistic results. They should be revised to ensure more consistent model performance, but this is unlikely to have a major impact on forecasts of C sequestration.

The wood product decomposition rates are those derived from the NCAS Technical Reports 8 and 24, and whilst representing the state-of-knowledge in this area, are very uncertain. Getting better estimates is very important to improving future predictions.

5. Model Results

Model predictions are consistent with site level changes in carbon pools for the range of forest types examined.

6. Transparency

The model and data underpinning its calibration have been published in a range of NCAS reports, and peer-reviewed literature. Thus the assumptions can be readily reviewed, and feedback at several levels has been used to refine the model.

7. Future Developments

While the National Article 3.3 model represents good practice there are a range of areas where additional development would be beneficial.

- 1) Area Statements – a desirable objective would be to derive a plantation map from the NCAS satellite data. This will provide a more robust and spatial estimation of Kyoto-compliant forests. Projected rates of plantation establishment are the greatest source of uncertainty in estimating future carbon sequestration.
- 2) Growth and Yield – growth and yield curves should be progressively updated based on research and industry data so as to account for change in the plantation land base and management methods.
- 3) Forest Litter and Soils – while forests soils tend to stabilise around small net change in carbon stock in the medium to long term, the short term changes combined with highly skewed age class distributions have the potential to impact on the national account over the first Commitment period. Continued development of the NCAS capacity to operationalise a spatial soil carbon model should be pursued.
- 4) Data – the information used for model calibration, such as partitioning and turnover are the best available, but requires improvement. Further collection and synthesis of such data are required.

Yours sincerely



John Raison
Chief Research Scientist

APPENDIX 7.C: FOREST CONVERSION TO CROPLANDS AND GRASSLANDS

Introduction

Emissions estimates from forest land converted to a non-forest land use apply the full capability of Australia's National Carbon Accounting System (NCAS). This capability uses a mass balance, process-based ecosystem model (Tier 3) in a fully spatially explicit land representation (Approach 3). The areas and timing of forest conversion are identified through a national time-series (1972-2005) of Landsat satellite data.

The methods for *Forest land converted to Grassland* and *Forest land converted to Cropland* are reported below. The descriptions are framed around the program areas of the NCAS that provide the needed input data. The final sections describe the development and implementation of the emissions modelling framework.

Land Cover Change

Method Selection

Areas of land cover change¹ that contribute to emissions include those areas with lagged emissions from activities undertaken since the early 1970s. The ability to map land cover change over a 33-year period (1972-2006) is therefore required for a 2005 emissions inventory. With Australia's land area of some 760 million hectares, establishing this record of activity presented many challenges, particularly as areas of change of less than one hectare need to be considered. In response to these requirements, a remote sensing approach using archival coverage of Landsat satellite data of Australia since the early 1970s was used.

The remote sensing options available for the land cover change program were limited by the retrospective time-series requirement to the use of either air photographs, National Oceanic & Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)/Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) data, or Landsat data. No other options met the temporal and spatial requirements outlined above.

- > Air photographs: The air photograph archive is not uniformly adequate and available across the nation. Also, the use of air photographs presented an excessively intensive analytic task due to the largely manual interpretation required. However, the archive of available air photographs provides a high-resolution calibration and verification tool to support other techniques when used as an independent sub-sample or as instrument 'training' data for satellite-based methods.
- > NOAA/AVHRR: Data is generated at a nominal 1.1 km (approximately 120 ha) resolution. With accounting for Deforestation for the purposes of the Kyoto Protocol requiring monitoring at a sub-hectare scale, remote sensing at such a coarse resolution was not adequate.
- > Landsat (MSS, TM and ETM+): Data, with comprehensive national coverage of areas with woody vegetation, are available through archives held in the USA and Australia since 1972. The Landsat MSS data (since 1972) can be effectively resampled to a 50 m pixel resolution (4 pixels per ha) and TM (since 1988) and ETM+ (1999-2002) can be resampled to 25 m pixel resolution (16 pixels per ha).

The use of Landsat data to analyse land cover change through time at a fine pixel resolution required a consistent geographically registered² and spectrally calibrated³ reference base (Figure 7.C5). Equally, standard specifications for processing and interpretation (including attribution⁴) of the sequence of Landsat data are needed to achieve a consistent national assessment of land cover change over the 32 year period.

¹ Land Cover Change refers to a change in forested to non-forested (or vice-versa) vegetation cover.

² Registration uses stationary and identifiable ground features (ground control points) as constant reference points for the image sequence.

³ Calibration uses a reference image to adjust spectral characteristics to remove inconsistencies such as illumination caused by sun angle at time of image capture etc.

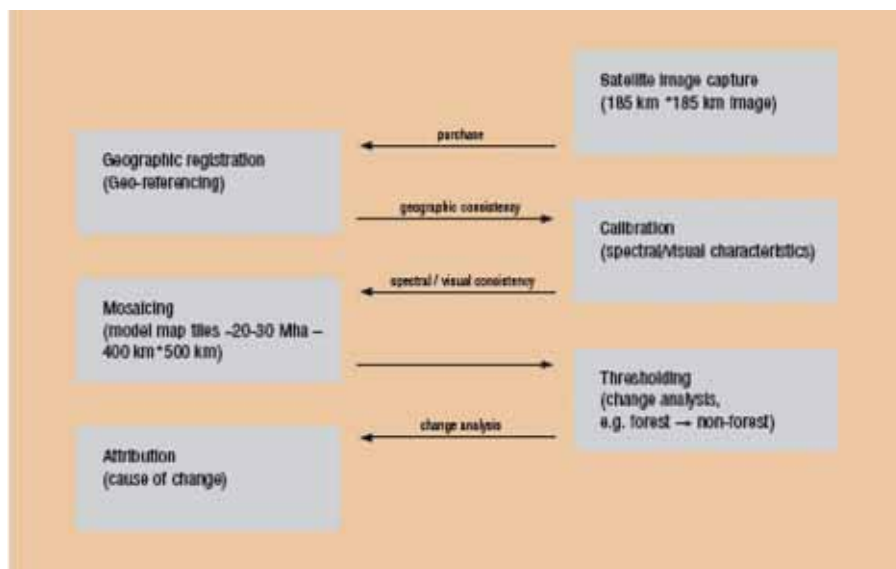
⁴ Attribution uses a combination of automation and visual inspection of the image sequence to determine the cause of land cover change and determine subsequent/existing land use.

It was also important to move from the 50 m resolution MSS data to the 25 m resolution TM and ETM+ data without assessment of false land cover change being introduced due to instrumentation differences. To do this, a MSS equivalent 1989 image coverage was created from the TM images at 50 m resolution using a subset of the TM spectral bands corresponding to the MSS bands. Land cover change assessments bridging the switch from MSS to TM/ETM+ was then always based upon MSS to MSS and TM/ETM+ to TM/ETM+, across similar image spectra and pixel size. The use of this overlap technique is consistent with the good practice methods recommended by the IPCC for ensuring time-series consistency where the instruments used to collect activity data change or degrade through time (IPCC 2003 page 5.58).

To enable processing of the Landsat data at the scale of implementation required for the NCAS (15 national coverages to give 14 change sequences), there was a need both to refine methods to achieve efficient data processing and to build industry processing capacity. Both advances were required to deliver the NCAS program within available funding resources. The imperative was to deliver quality assured analyses using consistently applied methods at less than 30 per cent of benchmark costs.

The sequence of stages carried out in producing the assessment of an Australia-wide land cover change over the interval 1972 to 2005 is shown schematically in Figure 7.C1.

Figure 7.C1. Land Cover Change Program Conceptual Framework.



Pilot Tests of Image Processing Approach

Pilot tests were used to train and develop industry capacity, refine methods and software and to develop logistical systems to maximise both output and opportunity for progressive quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC). During the pilot testing each contractor involved in the processing was allocated a region in which to carry out all image processing stages. This proved to be a difficult approach under which to implement progressive QA/QC.

Without the benefit of either iterative QA/QC between the processing stages, or independent cross region comparisons at each stage, both the consistency and quality of the pilot products was variable. This highlighted a risk that problems could occur in early processing stages and flow through the whole processing program. Given the scale, cost and complexity of work, resolving early-stage problems at the end of the program was a high risk operational approach. The results of the pilot studies are published in Furby and Woodgate (2002).

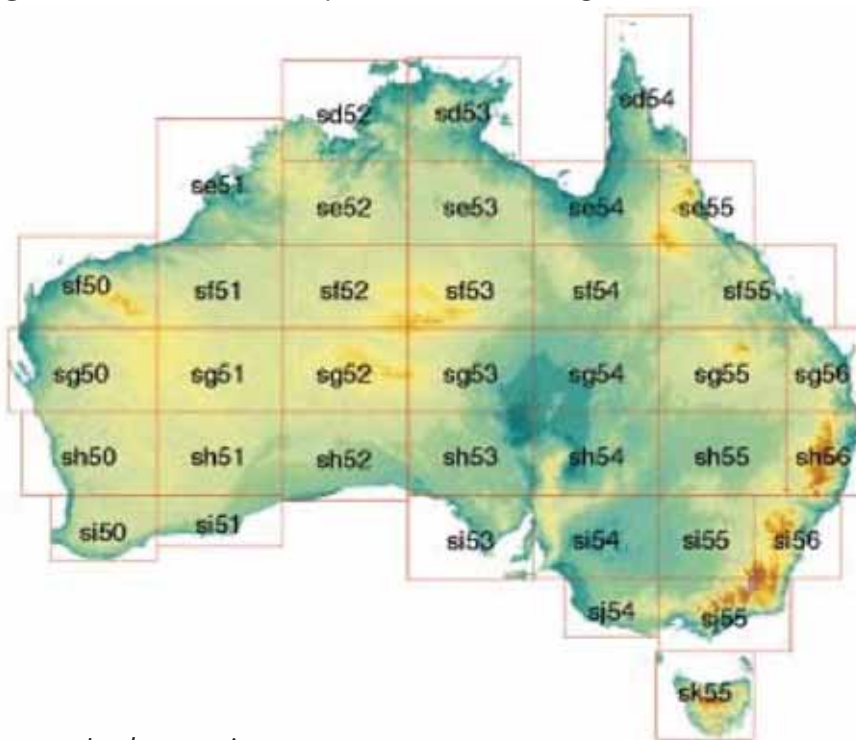
Review of the successes and failures of the pilot studies led to a redesign of the packages of work. In particular,

processing was separated into the stages identified in Figure 7.C3 to allow for the central and progressive implementation of a QA/QC program. The QA/QC program was implemented during and at the end of each processing stage. In the revised approach, each of the processing stages is a regionally defined package of work based on 37 1:1,000,000 (1:1 M) map tiles of Australia (Figure 7.C2). The finalised sequence of processing stages was:

- > image identification;
- > image registration and calibration;
- > mosaicing⁵ of registered and calibrated images to the single map tiles for each time sequence;
- > sun-angle (terrain illumination) correction;
- > thresholding⁶ through all time sequences; and,
- > attribution of change to direct human-induced change.

Additional benefits arising from the pilot studies were that a range of contractors were familiarised with the general approach, a range of regional characteristics identified and improvements made to the efficiency and usability of software systems.

Figure 7.C2. The 37 1:1 M Map Tiles Used in the Program.



Program Implementation

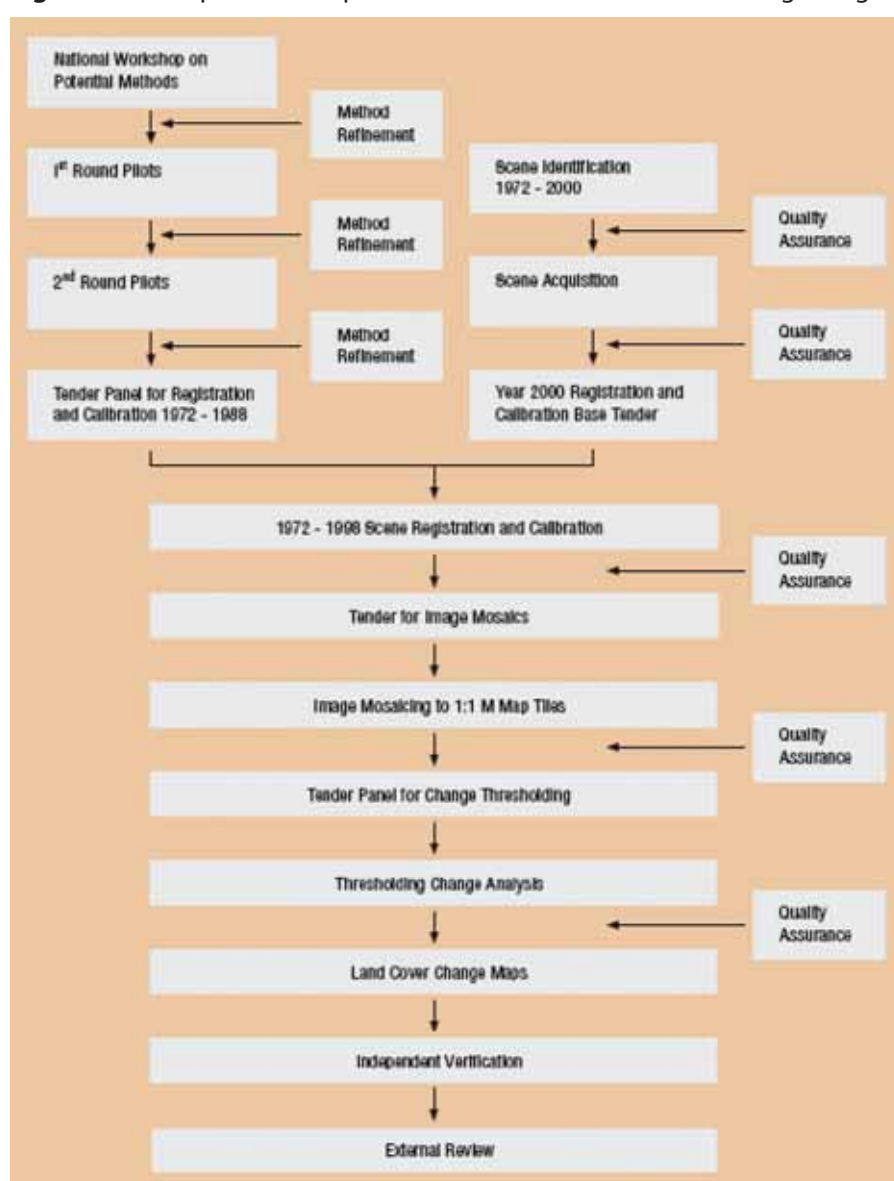
The approach to program administration, revised following the pilot testing phase, provided for centralised progress monitoring and QA/QC at each stage in the processing of the Landsat data. Figure 7.C3 outlines the program stages and their sequence. The finalised program approach maximised quality assurance opportunities, expanded the use of competitive service acquisition and enhanced information flow. A set of 15 national coverages of Landsat data have been compiled at intervals between 1972 and 2006. The sequence of images shown in Table 7.C1 was designed to give maximum temporal resolution immediately before and after 1990, so as to achieve the best possible accuracy of emissions in 1990.

⁵ Mosaicing aggregates images into the map tiles shown in Figure 7.C2, removing overlaps in the original 185 km*185 km images.

⁶ Thresholding compares each image pixel to a reference set of spectral characteristics formed by specific band mixes (indices) that represent forest and non-forest conditions.

Though minimal in quantum, lagged emissions from land cover change events undertaken in the 1970s can persist through to the current inventory. These long-lagged emissions are largely insensitive to timing of land cover change events in early years (e.g., emissions in 1990 are generally insensitive to whether clearing occurred in 1972 or 1976) and therefore a lower, temporal resolution of early 1970s remote sensing images is acceptable for greenhouse accounting purposes. As well as identifying lagged emissions, the historic land cover change record also provides for initialisation of regrowth models, so that estimates of forest age are available for situations involving land cover change through removal of regrowth.

Figure 7.C3. Sequence of implementation of the Land Cover Change Program.



The median of the actual capture dates of the approximately 5,000 185 km-by-185 km Landsat images processed for this project are summarised in Table 7.C1. The image selection criteria (Furby 2002) required the images to be within three months of the nominated target date. The precise date allocated to each land cover change (clearing and regrowth) pixel was randomly generated by the *FullCAM* carbon accounting model,

within the sequence of coverage dates for the relevant map tile. This method provided a random (unbiased over a large sample) distribution of initialisation dates (timing of land cover change event) for the carbon model, within the constraint of the two dates in the overall interval of the image sequence.

Table 7.C1. Image Sequence.

Year	Resolution	Time Since Previous Image (yrs)
1972	50	-
1977	50	5
1980	50	3
1985	50	5
1988 (early)	50	3
1989 (end)	25/50	2
1991 (early)	25	1
1992	25	2
1995	25	3
1998	25	3
2000	25	2
2002	25	2
2004	25	2
2005	25	1
2006	25	1

Technical Specifications

The technical specifications for the land cover change program (Furby 2002) evolved through two rounds of pilot testing (Furby and Woodgate 2002) and reflect the key technical decisions on method selection and implementation. These included:

- > the use of a Landsat ETM+ national mosaic (year 2000) as the base for registration and calibration;
- > the use of an orbital (earth surface) correction model as implemented through the PCI (PCI Geomatics 2000) software package;
- > to use a BRDF (Bi-Directional Reflectance Distribution Function) atmospheric correction model;
- > to apply a sun angle correction (Wu et. al., 2004);
- > to use 'automated' change thresholding, using derived indices within zones based on specific vegetation and soil characteristics;
- > digitising areas of fire scars, later using these as fire masks to differentiate change due to fire from change associated with mechanical land clearing;
- > to apply a 'Conditional Probability Network' (CPN⁷) so that the probability of forested condition for each pixel at each time in the image sequence is placed in the context of the preceding and subsequent images; and,
- > to use the *FullCAM* model to interrogate the full change sequence of each pixel. The analysis of each pixel by *FullCAM* establishes whether a clearing or regrowth event has occurred between each image sequence for that pixel and allocates a time.

⁷ Conditional Probability Network (CPN) is a rule set which enables the status of a pixel of uncertain land cover status at a point in time to be resolved by reference to the previous and subsequent land cover status.

Selection of Indices

Thresholding is the process through which pixels in the land cover change image sequence are identified as either forest or non-forest. Pixel identification involves comparing the spectral indices of each pixel in the land cover change image sequence with reference indices that identify areas of forest in select strata. Reference indices are established through the use of air photographs, site data and very high resolution satellite data. Air photographs with known forested areas are interpreted and compared with the Landsat data of the same area and time. The Landsat data spectral bands of the forested area are then identified as reference indices for a given forest and soil type. The air photograph interpretation was undertaken centrally by appropriately qualified and experienced air photograph interpreters. The interpreters provided brief descriptions of forest or non-forest areas at a set of known locations. These descriptions were then used in the selection of reference indices from the Landsat data.

The final reference indices allow for variability in both forest and soil type by selecting indices within homogeneous strata. The stratification to deal with this variability was achieved largely through the vegetation and soils mapping. The final reference indices used to identify areas of forest/non-forest are consistent with the definition of a forest, i.e., a minimum of 20 per cent canopy cover and a minimum potential height of 2 m.

Conditional Probability Network

The multiple sequences of geographically referenced images are essential for the robust analysis of land cover change. The Conditional Probability Network (CPN) strengthened confidence in the 'forest' or 'non-forest' classification of a pixel by considering the previous and subsequent images in a sequence to resolve any uncertainty in the classification (forest/non-forest) of a particular image. This comparative analysis of the same land unit over time was made possible by the tight and consistent geographic registration and spectral calibration of the image sequences, providing the ability to 'drill' through time on a pixel-by-pixel basis.

Geographic registration ensures that the same pixel is being looked at through the time sequence. It avoids incorrect change status determination due to substitution of neighbouring pixels having potentially different forest cover status, relative to the correct pixel for that location. Spectral inconsistency can also potentially increase the area attributed to clearing and regrowth events by variable status determination due to image calibration difference. This is addressed by consistent (spectral) calibration, thereby preventing the identification of false clearing or regrowth events and results in a more accurate land cover change map. Consistent registration and calibration are both required to ensure robust multi-temporal change analyses.

The CPN empirically assessed the logicity of a forest cover status determination of a pixel at a point in time compared to the previous and subsequent images. The 25 m carbon modelling and accounting was achieved by resampling the early series Landsat remote sensing 50 m MSS data to four 25 m pixels.

There is also potential for sub-pixel shifts to determine a changed status on the edges of forest systems where a small edge portion of the pixel may have previously been just over the forest area, but a small shift in geographical registration (say 10 m) would be enough to move the pixel out of the forest area. The nearest-neighbour approach to the CPN has been developed and applied to reduce this effect. The nearest neighbour CPN (Caccetta et. al., 2003) evaluates the status of adjoining pixels as well as the pixel of interest. This has the effect of reducing flicker in scattered and edge forest pixels.

Reporting

Once a change in forest cover status of each pixel for a point in time is determined, the spatial relationship of each change pixel to other surrounding or nearby change pixels is assessed to identify isolated pixels with forest cover that do not form part of a forest system. This allows for the identification of pixels that are isolated

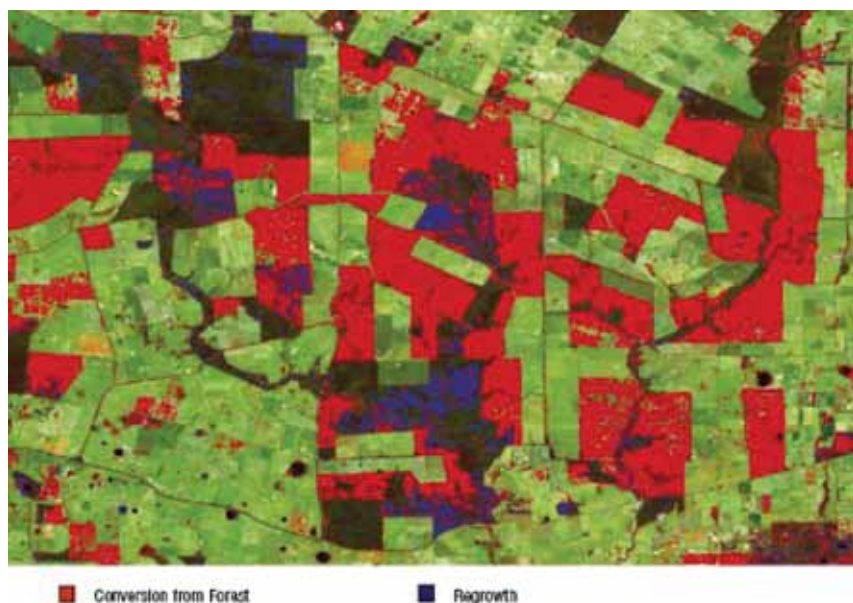
trees not meeting the minimum canopy criterion defining a forest, as opposed to those pixels that may be part of sparse linear features such as roadsides and riparian zones which do meet the canopy criterion.

The area of land cover change is determined as the sum of the changed pixels through time. This approach avoids inclusion of pixels that represent gaps in the forest canopy. An independent study which looked at the implication of the inclusion or exclusion of forest canopy gaps in this way found that the resultant area estimate could vary significantly between approaches (ERIC 2001). The approach used in the NCAS provides a conservative (lesser) calculation of area of change by considering only the area of forest canopy loss and not 'gaps' in the forest canopy. This approach provides a much lower estimate than specified in clearing permits, which usually define the area bounding the clearing, including gaps in forest canopy cover. However, the subsequent carbon stock and emissions estimates must be computed consistently with the spatial area calculation method. That is, the carbon stock values should reflect the area under canopy, and are not an average of the variable 'gaps' between areas of tree canopy.

Further robustness is introduced by the use of a three class determination of forest cover: non-forest, forest and uncertain forest. Pixels identified as uncertain forest have a lower probability of being forest, and unless confirmed as forest after the CPN application, are determined as non-forest. The same applies to non-forest determination. This will typically yield lower (more certain and conservative) cover change statistics than more common analytic methods using only a two class (forest, non-forest) analytic procedure, particularly in the last step of the time-series. The last step uncertainties may be confirmed in a time-series update and CPN re-run. The three class approach is most relevant to a multiple (as opposed to single pair) change analysis.

The approach used provides for an analytic unit (pixel) that is approximately 0.06 ha, but a requirement to be spatially related to other change pixels infers that a minimum area of approximately 0.2 ha of forest area (including gaps between trees) is required for inclusion.

Figure 7.C4. An Example Land Cover Change Image.



Attribution of Change

The high resolution spatial assessment (by pixel) across the continent identifies land cover change resulting from many causes. For unique identification of conversion to another land use it is necessary to attribute the change event to a cause and subsequent land use. Examples of forest cover loss events that do not meet the

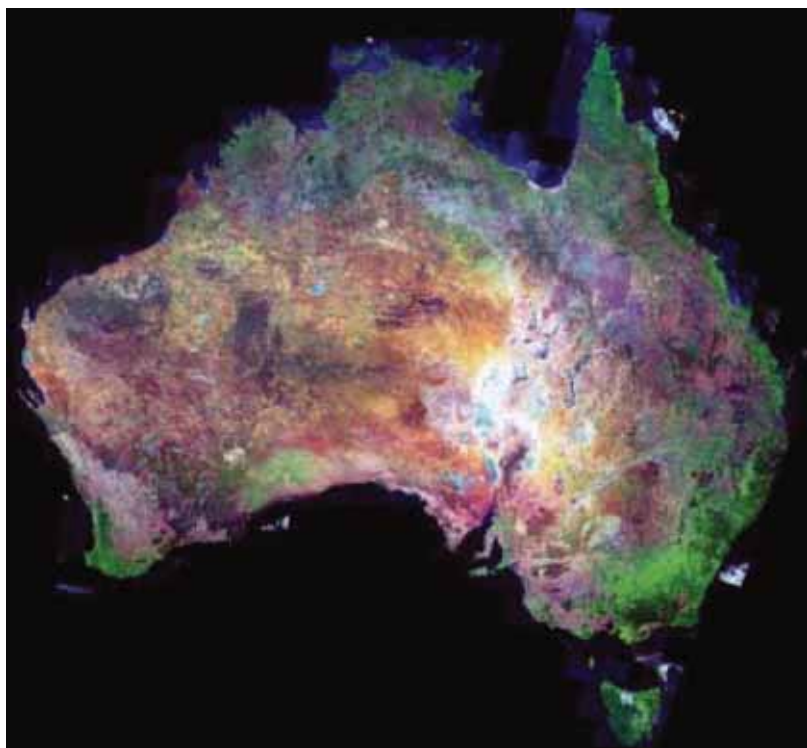
definition of forest conversion to another land use include forest harvesting, dieback of forest during drought periods, and bushfires.

Loss of forest cover due to factors other than a change in land use are initially identified through the application of both the fire masks developed during the image processing, and the tenure masks to define areas of public forest management etc. Subsequently, land cover changes due to salinisation, tree dieback, natural dynamics of tree mortality and recruitment, droughting and both seasonal and interannual variability (causing green 'flushes' of growth with similar spectral signals to regrowth) are also identified and excluded. These are separated from those changes that can be attributed to a forest conversion.

This attribution was achieved by the development of a second series of 'masks' that are derived via visual interpretation of the sequences of images against change mapping. Masks derived include:

- > forest harvest on private land;
- > intermittent water features and irrigation areas that may give a false change signal;
- > salinisation;
- > droughting and growth flushes; and,
- > terrain illumination.

Figure 7.C5. The Year 2000 Mosaic Registration and Calibration Base.



Quality Assurance and Quality Control

The QA/QC procedures for application of the NCAS land cover change methods are described in Furby (2002). Rigorous and consistent quality standards are crucial to the application of the objective techniques applied in the program. The objective approaches minimise direct (and potentially subjective) operator interpretation and intervention in the processing stream and are generally more repeatable than approaches reliant on operator interpretation.

The QA/QC stages applied are:

- > independent date and scene quality checking of selected Landsat image scenes;
- > image quality checks on the raw data were performed by the Australian Centre for Remote Sensing (ACRES) (the data distributor) under their internal quality assurance program. Additional checking of images (visually) by contractors prior to scene registration and calibration was also undertaken;
- > registered and calibrated images and mosaicing products are all checked against published QA/QC standards (Furby 2002);
- > during thresholding, several stages of QA/QC were applied. These included the development of cloud and fire masks, selection of indices representing ground conditions for vegetation types of interest in homogenous zones (strata) reflecting similar vegetation and soil types, checking of change maps against raw imagery and air photographs to remove errors of omission or commission in assessing change in forest cover; and,
- > visual quality assurance of masks derived to identify direct human-induced change.

Once the processing stages were completed, and the abovementioned QA/QC programs satisfied, a further visual check is carried out by creating 'animations' of land cover change over time. This allowed for review of both the spatial and temporal patterns of change. The methods chosen and implementation of the program were submitted to external (international) review at the conclusion of the attribution (final stage) processing. The review provided re-assurance in the robustness of the technical methods, processing and quality assurance programs.

Continuous Improvement and Verification

To confirm the veracity, and provide for continuous improvement, of the method (and hence the accuracy of the product) a second and independent program of checking Landsat results against high resolution satellite and air photograph interpretation is undertaken on a stratified sampling basis. Prior to adding each update (a new remote sensing layer) to the existing multi-temporal sequence, an independent accuracy, and veracity of method, program is applied to make recommendations on refinement for when statistical processing is rerun to add the additional sequence (Lowell et. al., 2003; Jones et. al., 2004; Lowell et. al., 2005). Such recommendations can be iteratively introduced to the overall analyses across the full data sequence from such progressive QA/QC and accuracy reviews. This system of review and refinement provides for the continuous improvement of the overall land cover change product.

Land Use and Management

Program Outline

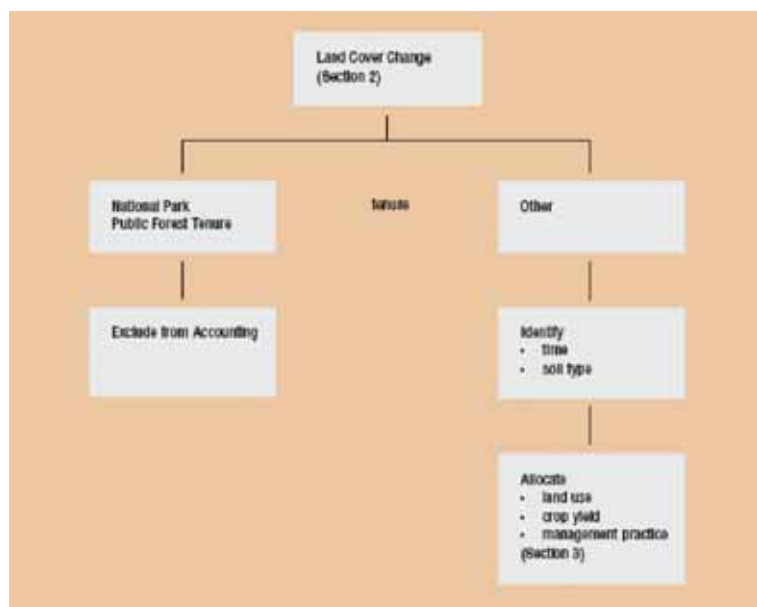
Land cover change has the obvious effect of removing existing tree biomass, resulting in the release of greenhouse gas emissions. The impact of the subsequent land use (e.g., crop, pasture type) and management practices (e.g., tillage, use of fire, grazing intensity) can also impact significantly upon ongoing emissions from that land. Depending on the land use (including forest regrowth) and management practices, the rate of change in carbon stock subsequent to land cover change will vary, and in some instances the direction of change (sink or source) will also be affected. Greenhouse gas emissions from land use and management practices are also affected by the soil type on which they are applied and the climate at, and subsequent to, their application.

With the NCAS land cover change data capable of identifying the location and timing of land cover change events, this information can be spatially overlayed on the soils map derived for the NCAS so that each event can be attributed to a location, time and soil type. Data on management practices are able to be linked to units of land that have undergone forest conversion via unique identifiers of soil type and time. Land use and

management types were then apportioned within the soil type strata.

Land tenure is also an important consideration as it informs land use determination. Areas of forest management (commercial harvest) and National Parks are excluded from forest conversion emissions.

Figure 7.C6. Overview of the Land Use and Management Program



To obtain the needed agricultural land use and management information, the NCAS commissioned CSIRO Land and Water to undertake, via survey and literature searches, the collection of relevant information for each Interim Biogeographic Regionalisation of Australia (IBRA) (Thackway and Cresswell 1995) region, by soil type, by crop type and crop regime (rotations), by management type and by time (Table 7.C2). This included time-based crop yield estimation for each identified land use and management type. The results of this study can be found in Swift and Skjemstad (2002), reported by IBRA regions (Figure 7.C7) as a primary stratification, with soil type used as a secondary strata.

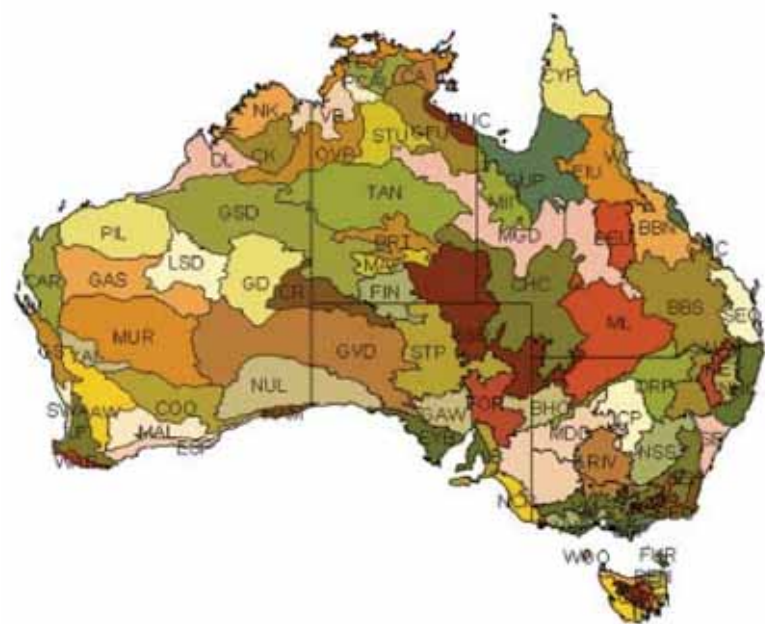
Table 7.C2. Example Land Use Table.

Table A-4 IBRA cell: Darling Riverine Plains Time period: 1981 - 1982									
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Soil type	% of cell	Land use (La)	% of cell	Management practices (mg)	% of La	Phase	% of mg	Yield t/ha	Residue t*
Clay	75	Developed pre-1970	35						
		Historically cleared at end of the time period	20						
		Uncleared forest at end of the time period	5						
		Developed for pasture	16	stable forest - narrow - natural	14	crop	50	0.9	
					1	pasture	10	2	
				stable retained	8.5	long fallow	40		
						crop	50	0.9	
						pasture	10	2	
						long fallow	40		
		Irrigated cotton	5	brush forest	0	crop	60	3.6	
Loam	25			brush retained	100	wood	40	0.9	
						crop	60	3.6	
		Dedicated for pasture	16		100	wood	40	0.9	
						crop	60	3.6	
		Developed pre-1970	35						
		Historically cleared at end of the time period	0						
		Uncleared forest at end of the time period	22						
		Developed for cropping	19	stable forest - narrow - natural	14	crop	50	0.6	
					1	pasture	10	2	
				stable retained	8.5	long fallow	40		
Sand	0								

Note: 1981 - Average climatic conditions
1982 - Drought year

Source: Swift and Skjemstad 2001

Figure 7.C7. IBRA Regions.



Code	Name	Code	Name
CH	Central Highlands	MII	Mount Isa Inlier
AA	Australian Alps	EYB	Eyre and Yorke Blocks
WT	Wet Tropics	SEQ	South Eastern Queensland
LB	Lofty Block	DEU	Desert Uplands
CA	Central Arnhem	BRT	Burt Plain
SB	Sydney Basin	FIN	Finke
GS	Geraldton Sandplains	FOR	Flinders and Olary Ranges
VM	Victorian Midlands	MAL	Mallee
JF	Jarrah Forest	CAR	Carnarvon
VB	Victoria Bonaparte	NSS	NSW SouthWestern Slopes
CK	Central Kimberley	RIV	Riverina
DL	Dampierland	SEH	South Eastern Highlands
NK	Northern Kimberley	STU	Sturt Plateau
CP	Cobar Peneplain	CYP	Cape York Peninsula
AW	Avon Wheatbelt	DRP	Darling Riverine Plains
CR	Central Ranges	BBN	Brigalow Belt North
GD	Gibson Desert	LSD	Little Sandy Desert
ML	Mulga Lands	GFU	Gulf Fall and Uplands
WAR	Warren	OVP	Ord-Victoria Plains
WOO	Woolnorth	EIU	Einasleigh Uplands
HAM	Hampton	COO	Coolgardie
CMC	Central Mackay Coast	PIL	Pilbara
SWA	Swan Coastal Plain	GAS	Gascoyne
DAB	Daly Basin	STP	Stony Plains
SCP	South East Coastal Plain	GUP	Gulf Plains
WSW	West and South West	NUL	Nullarbor
GUC	Gulf Coastal	MDD	Murray-Darling Depression
VVP	Victorian Volcanic Plain	SSD	Simpson-Strzelecki Dunefields
NCP	Naracoorte Coastal Plain	CHC	Channel Country
NAN	Nandewar	MUR	Murchison
NET	New England Tableland	BBS	South Brigalow
SEC	South East Corner	TAN	Tanami
YAL	Yalgoo	MGD	Mitchell Grass Downs
MAC	MacDonnell Ranges	GSD	Great Sandy Desert
ESP	Esperance Plains	GVD	Great Victoria Desert
PCA	Pine-Creek Arnhem	DE	D'Entrecasteaux
TEC	Top End Coast	TM	Tasmanian Midlands
GAW	Gawler	BEN	Ben Lomond
BHC	Broken Hill Complex	FRE	Freycinet
NNC	NSW North Coast	FUR	Furneaux

Land Use Data

The information collected describes 141 grazing and cropping systems with associated management practice data also held within the *FullCAM* model relational database. Allocation to a land use and management system is designated according to the relative frequency of land use and management for each soil type in each IBRA region in each year. For each of these systems the key management practices, such as the use of fire, when grazing is applied (months, intensity), ploughing and herbicide treatment are implemented in the model.

Land Tenure

To separate out forestry activities from relevant land cover change events, a national tenure map is applied, masking out areas with a dedicated public forestry land use and National Parks. This tenure map is supplied by the National Forest Inventory (1997a) of the Bureau of Rural Sciences. Areas of deforestation associated with forest harvest on private land were separately identified by visual interpretation of the land cover change sequences. Masks are created to distinguish these events from those associated with forest conversion.

Quality Assurance and Quality Control

The land use and management information was subjected to review at State-based workshops for verification. The information has also been published and is available via both hardcopy (Swift and Skjemstad 2002) and website (<http://www.climatechange.gov.au/ncas/files/publications.html>). No concerns about the veracity of the information were identified as a result of either review or publication.

This data represents a composite of the best available information. Establishing a more detailed 'reference' sample for accuracy assessment over time was not feasible. A high degree of confidence can be placed in the data given the varied information sources and direct regionalised knowledge of sub-contractors involved in collating the data. This confidence is furthered by the concurrence given during State-based workshops used in review of the data, providing a measure of QA/QC through expert review. Publication of the results has also provided transparency and an opportunity for ongoing review.

Climate Inputs

Introduction

Model sensitivity testing for the NCAS identified that interannual climate variability has a significant effect on both soil (Janik et. al., 2002) and forest (Brack and Richards, 2002) carbon stock change. The use of long-term (temporal) average and regionally (spatial) averaged climate data was shown to be inadequate to support spatially and temporally disaggregated carbon modelling, frequently generating spurious results when tested. To provide spatially mapped monthly climate data over the modelled period, 1970-2004, the NCAS obtained weather station data from the Bureau of Meteorology for rainfall, minimum and maximum temperature, evaporation and solar radiation. Monthly climate surfaces (maps) for each attribute were derived using the ANUCLIM (McMahon et. al., 1995) techniques.

Raw Data

Within the Bureau of Meteorology database there are approximately 1,200 weather stations recording temperature, 13,000 stations recording rainfall, 300 stations recording evaporation and 700 recording frost days. The digital elevation model used to provide terrain (elevation and aspect) mapping to support the spline functions used in the ANUCLIM software is the version 2.0 of the 9 second (approx. 250 m resolution) national digital elevation model of AUSLIG (2001). Extensive checking of the locational data for the Bureau

of Meteorology weather stations included some 2,500 station locations, providing a quality reference set of points from which to spatially interpolate climate surfaces.

Derived Outputs

The weather station climate data is interpolated (modelled) according to mathematical (spline) functions that reflect influences on micro-climate such as elevation. Climate maps are derived at variable resolutions (grid sizes), again using the ANUCLIM software. The list of outputs and their resolution is shown in Table 7.C3. The accuracy of the climate maps is tested by comparison between predicted values and actual weather station data. The climate maps derived for the NCAS (Kesteven et. al., 2004) were independently quality assured by the Australian National University's Centre for Resource and Environmental Studies (CRES). CRES is responsible for the generation of both the AUSLIG digital elevation model and the development and maintenance of the ANUCLIM software. Figures 7.C8 to 7.C11 illustrate national long-term annual average climate maps generated using the ANUCLIM software, noting that the NCAS methods apply the climate maps at the specific spatial and temporal resolutions as presented in Table 7.C3.

The surface interpolation from weather station data provides climate mapping which is both temporally (monthly) and spatially (at select resolution) relevant to the application of the *FullCAM* modelling.

Table 7.C3. List of Climate Maps Developed for the NCAS

Climate Variable	Description
Rainfall	1 km resolution continentally, monthly 1968-2004
Temperature	1 km resolution min., max., and average continentally, monthly 1968-2004
Evaporation	1 km resolution continentally, monthly 1968-2004
Frost Days	1 km resolution continentally, monthly 1968-2004
Solar Radiation	1 km continentally, monthly direct and diffuse 1968-2004, 250 m resolution continentally, slope and aspect corrected diffuse and direct
NDVI	Normalised Difference Vegetation Index Fortnightly 1992-2004
Long-term productivity	250 m resolution
Annual productivity	(sum of monthly) 1 km resolution (1970-2004)

Figure 7.C8. Long-Term Average Rainfall.

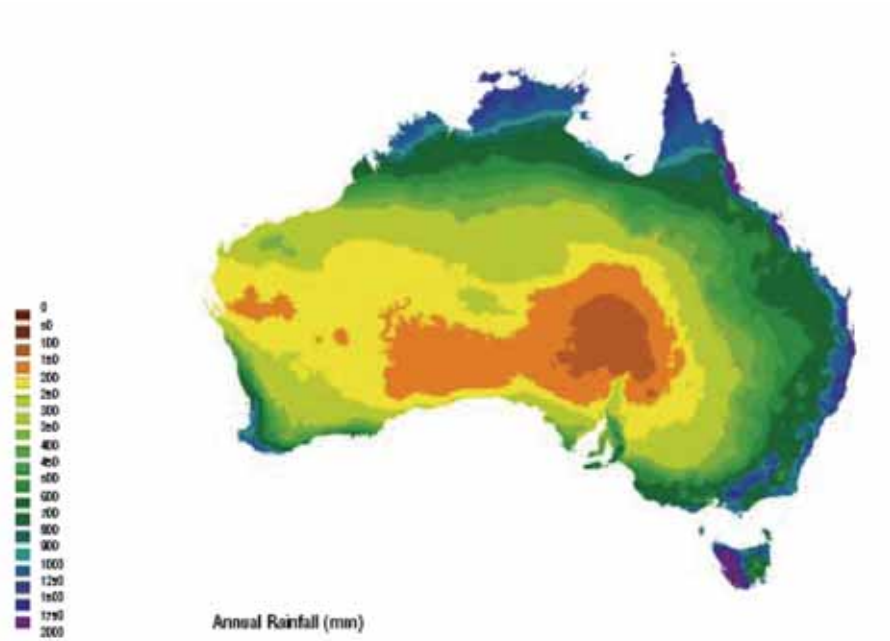


Figure 7.C9. Long-Term Average Annual Temperature.

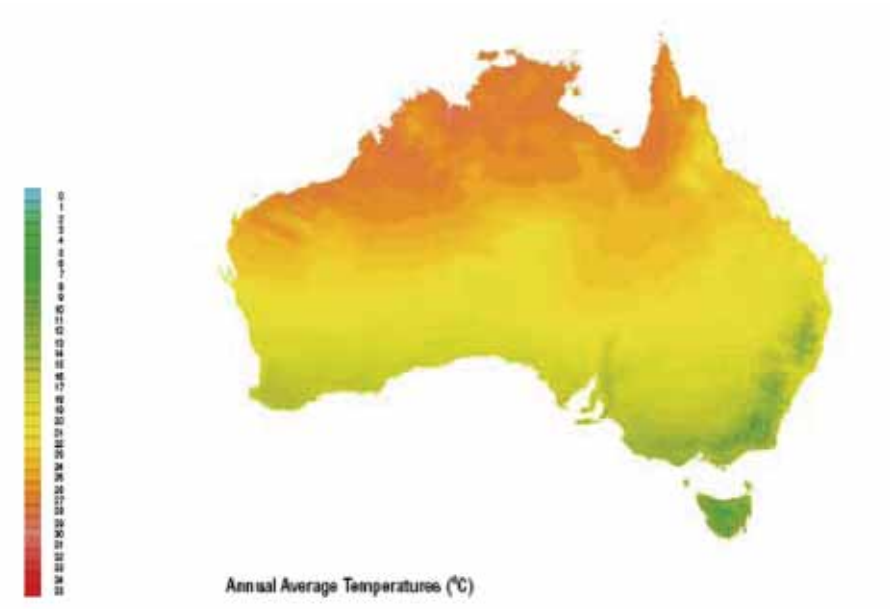


Figure 7.C10. Long-Term Average Annual Evaporation.

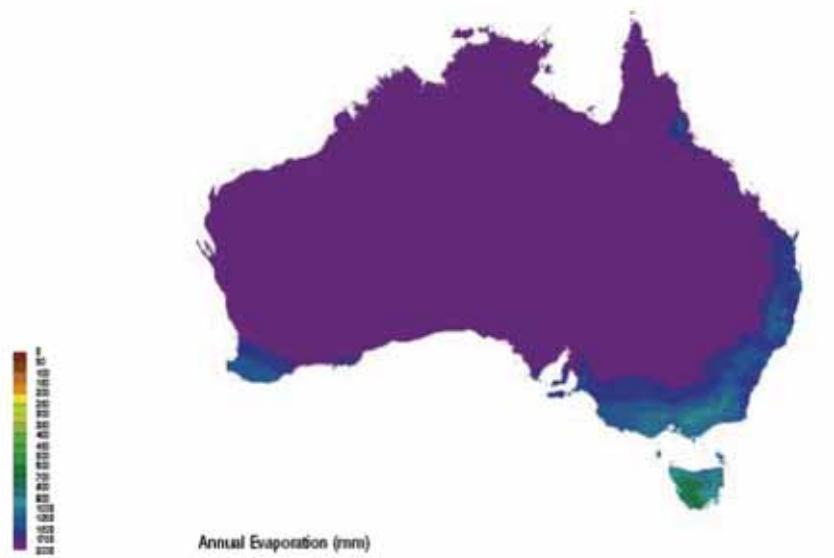
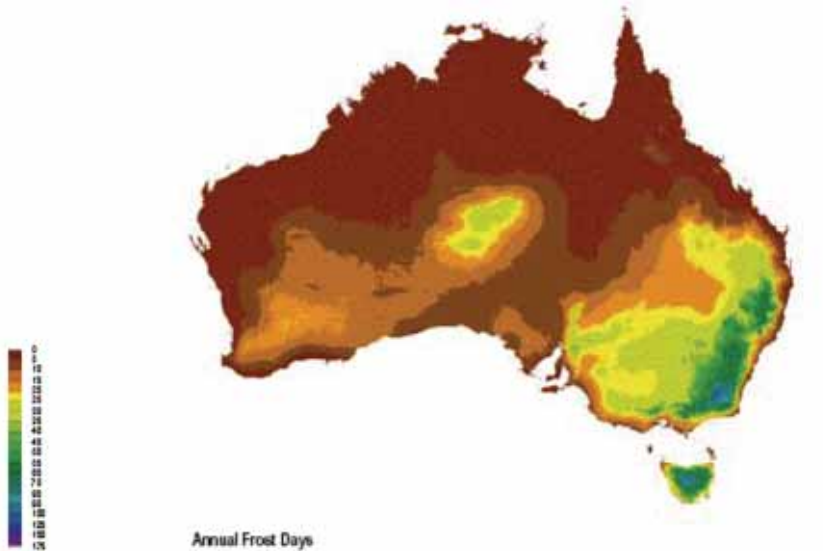


Figure 7.C11. Long-Term Average Number of Frost Days per Year.



Quality Assurance and Quality Control

The climate surface modelling output includes variance statistics that can be used to assess the extent of difference between the modelled result and actual weather station data. The predictive capability of the climate map is tested against actual weather station data. The climate program, including all model results, was submitted for independent QA/QC to the Centre for Resource and Environmental Studies of the Australian National University. Detailed checking of procedures and output statistics led to the conclusion that the development of the models represented application of best practice and yielded robust results.

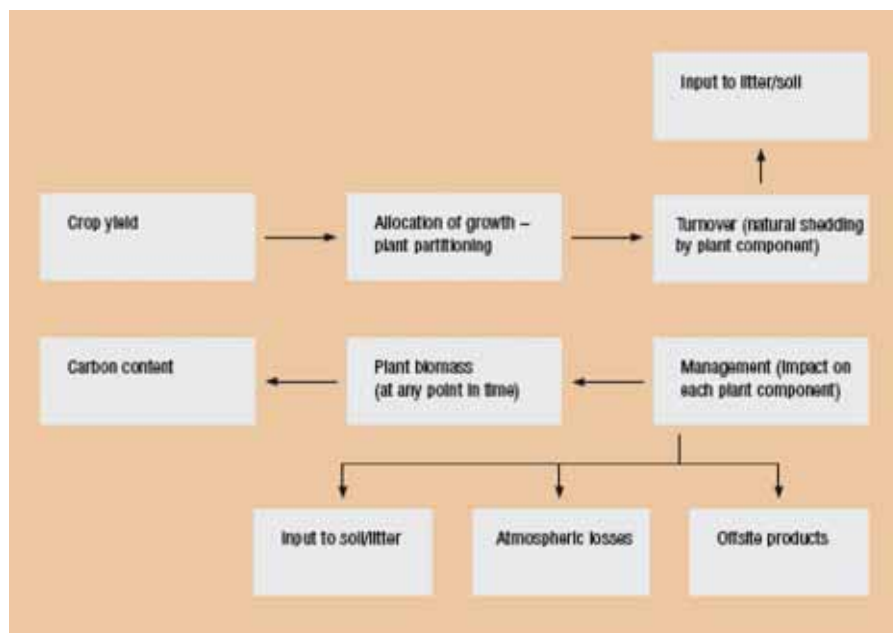
Crop Growth and Plant Parameters

Crop Yield and Residue

In a developmental study for the NCAS, Janik et. al. (2002) showed that the plant residue input to soil carbon modelling was a strong determinant of model outcome. Reliable crop growth information (supported by management practice as it affects residue generation and management) is important to robust soil carbon estimation. Plant residue input to litter and soil carbon pools is a significant determinant of total site carbon and trends in soil carbon over time.

There was no composite source of data suitable to meet the objectives set out above, with the available data frequently requiring supplementation with plant growth model outputs. The information that was available is included in Swift and Skjemstad (2002) and Skjemstad and Spouncer (2002). The accumulated data is contained in the relational database accessed during modelling for each cropping system at the relevant time, IBRA region, and soil type.

Figure 7.C12. Overview of the Crop Growth and Plant Parameters Program.



The available crop data, derived from a variety of sources, is usually expressed in terms of the mass of the saleable product component of growth, e.g., tonnes of grain, cane, leaf yield per hectare or tonnes of total aboveground yield per hectare. Available data has been reviewed to develop the appropriate corrections for each plant type to enable conversion from mass of saleable product to total plant mass.

The amount of plant residue generated over time is dependent on both the crop growth and management practice. The relational database that describes the agricultural management practices, such as the use of fire, is used to determine how much of the crop growth becomes residue for incorporation and decomposition to litter and soil carbon models and how much is taken offsite. The crop types and plant partitioning used in the modelling are shown in Table 7.C4.

Table 7.C4. Plant Partitioning by Crop Type.

Name	Yield Allocation to Grains, Buds or Fruit (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Stalks (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Leaves (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Coarse Roots (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Fine Roots (fraction)
Agricultural crops	0.28	0.00	0.42	0.00	0.30
Annual pasture	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Annual pastures	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Barley	0.30	0.00	0.40	0.00	0.30
Canola	0.27	0.00	0.51	0.00	0.22
Cereal	0.27	0.00	0.43	0.00	0.30
Cereal forage	0.00	0.00	0.60	0.00	0.40
Cereals	0.26	0.00	0.43	0.00	0.31
Cleared improved pasture	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Continuous pasture	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Crop	0.27	0.00	0.43	0.00	0.30
Cropping (e.g. barley)	0.24	0.00	0.46	0.00	0.30
Fallow	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20
Grain sorghum	0.29	0.00	0.41	0.00	0.30
Grass pasture	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Horticulture	0.00	0.00	0.30	0.60	0.10
Improved pasture	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Irrigated cotton	0.25	0.25	0.30	0.10	0.10
Legume	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Legume crop	0.30	0.00	0.48	0.00	0.22
Lucerne	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Lupins	0.23	0.00	0.55	0.00	0.22
Maize	0.34	0.32	0.09	0.00	0.25
Pasture	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Pasture permanent	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Peanut	0.35	0.00	0.35	0.00	0.30
Poppies	0.25	0.20	0.35	0.00	0.20
Pulse	0.30	0.00	0.48	0.00	0.22
Root vegetables	0.00	0.00	0.30	0.60	0.10
Roughly cleared pasture	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Sugar cane	0.00	0.75	0.15	0.00	0.10
Sugarcane	0.00	0.75	0.15	0.00	0.10
Sunflower	0.32	0.39	0.20	0.00	0.10
Unimproved or native pasture	0.00	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.50
Wheat	0.26	0.00	0.44	0.00	0.30
Winter grain (wheat)	0.28	0.00	0.42	0.00	0.30

Carbon Contents of Crop Species

Little data was available on the carbon content of various components of each crop type. To determine a robust general value, various plant materials were obtained from around the country and, using a dry combustion method, the materials were analysed for carbon content. This analysis established a general, crop carbon content values are 0.45 as a fraction of dry matter as carbon.

Initial Crop Litter Mass and Decomposition Rates

Given both the rapid rates of decomposition of onsite crop material (compared to woody material) and the active management of litter in most agricultural systems, only small initial litter pools have been used in the model initialisation. The decomposition rates applied acknowledge that the crop residues that form the litter generally decompose within 12 months of their generation. The initial masses of litter assigned and their decomposition rates are shown in Table 7.C5.

Crop Turnover Rates

The turnover (natural shedding of material) rates for the crop and pasture species are high given that they are annual by nature. Within the annual constraint, the litter and soil carbon modelling is relatively insensitive to turnover rate. For continuous systems such as grazed pasture grasses there was a need to factor in root sloughing in response to grazing which maintains the relative balance of aboveground to belowground plant mass with grazing. The turnover rates used are shown in Table 7.C6.

Table 7.C5. Initial Litter Mass and Decomposition Rates for Crop Systems.

Plant Component	Initial Mass t ha ⁻¹	Decomposition Rate yr ⁻¹
Grains, Buds, Fruit (Resistant)	0.10	1
Grains, Buds, Fruit (Decomposable)	0.00	1
Stalks (Resistant)	0.01	1
Stalks (Decomposable)	0.01	1
Leaves (Resistant)	0.01	1
Leaves (Decomposable)	0.01	1
Coarse Roots (Resistant)	0.01	1
Coarse Roots (Decomposable)	0.01	1
Fine Roots (Decomposable)	0.01	1

Table 7.C6. Turnover Rates Applied to the Crop Systems.

Plant Component	Turnover Rates yr ⁻¹
Grains, Buds, Fruit	0.8
Stalks	0.8
Leaves	0.8
Coarse Roots	0.8
Fine Roots	0.8

Quality Assurance and Quality Control

There was a surprising sparsity of available data on crop characteristics and likeness of similar crop types was often presumed for plant partitioning, decomposition rate and turnover rate model settings. These conform to published values, but limited empirical data constrains the extent of external quality assurance. Crop yields of saleable commodities were the most readily available data, for obvious reasons, and were generally accessed via published statistics. Beyond quality control of the transfer of data into the model, statements of yield were presumed correct. Additional parameters were independently analysed (e.g., carbon contents) or taken from existing literature. Cross referencing between available source data was the principal method of verification used. Sensitivity analyses were deployed to determine key areas of sensitivity for more intensive investigation.

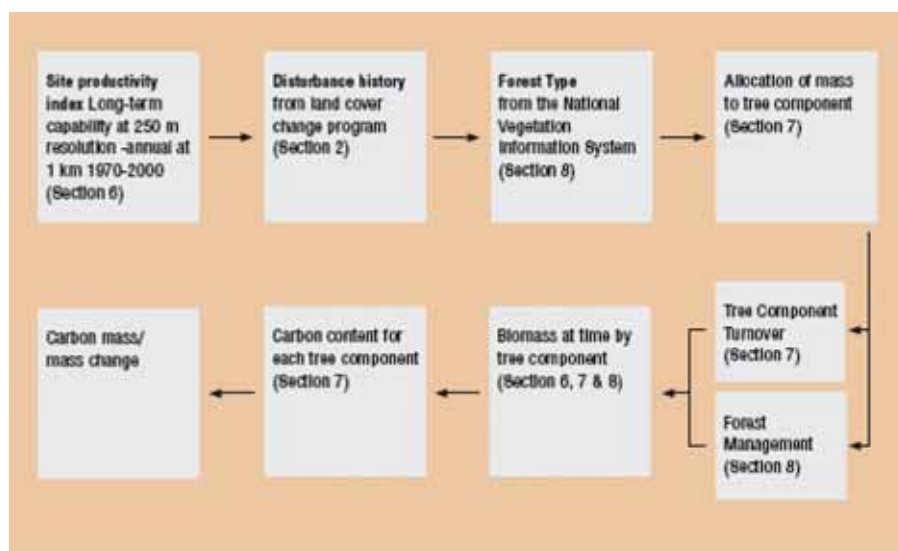
Biomass Stock and Growth Increment

Forest Productivity

The carbon stocks of mature forests and the rates of carbon accumulation in any forest regrowth need to be estimated, and be inclusive of both spatial and temporal variability. At the program outset comprehensive growth data or growth modelling capability (empirical or process-based, as either bole volume or total mass) was not available to support either biomass stock estimation or growth estimates with the required temporal and spatial disaggregation. To derive the spatial and temporal patterns of forest growth, a derivative form of the 3-PG model (Landsberg and Waring, 1997; Coops et. al., 1998; Coops et. al., 2001) was used to provide relative indices of growth potential (productivity indices⁸) at a 1 km grid scale on a monthly basis since 1970. The model was initialised in 1968 using the NCAS climate data, reaching an equilibrium (for water balance) by 1970.

The site-based, multi-temporal productivity indices were used to predict potential biomass at maturity and to support a generalised empirical growth model. All modelling is done on the basis of aboveground biomass with subsequent corrections to account for belowground (fine and coarse root) material.

Figure 7.C13. Overview of the Forest Biomass Programs (from AGO 2002).



The 3-PG spatial model, as used in this study, is a truncated version of the full 3-PG model (Landsberg and Waring, 1997), retaining the essential features of biomass net primary production (NPP) estimation, without the carbon partitioning procedures. The essence of the model is the calculation of the amount of

⁸ A generic model of Net Primary Productivity, derived a classification of productivity, on a relative scale of 1-30. Temporal and spatial variability is identified by a change in classification. This is not a linear relationship with either biomass growth increment or biomass at maturity.

photosynthetically active radiation absorbed by plant canopies (*APAR*). The time step is a month. *APAR* is calculated (Equation 1) as half the amount of short-wave (global) incoming radiation (*SWRadn*) absorbed by plant canopies, i.e.,:

$$APAR = SWRadn \times 0.5 \times (1 - e^{(-0.5 \times LAI)}) \times \text{days in month} \quad (1)$$

Where *LAI* is the Leaf Area Index and the coefficient 0.5 is a general value for the extinction coefficient. *LAI* is derived by the expression $\ln(1 - FPAR) / (-0.5)$ where *FPAR* is calculated by $(NDVI \times 1.0611) + 0.3431$. *APAR* is multiplied by a factor that converts it to biomass.

This, in effect, amalgamates two steps, the conversion of absorbed CO_2 into initial carbon products (gross primary production) and the loss of a proportion of those products by respiration to give NPP. The value of the conversion factor (ϵ , *gm Biomass MJ⁻¹ APAR*) used was obtained from the literature (Potter et. al., 1993; Ruimey et. al., 1994; Landsberg and Waring 1997).

There is significant variation in ϵ values, but no clear pattern in relation to plant type, so a 'best estimate' value of *1.25 gm Biomass MJ⁻¹ APAR* was used. As the resultant NPP is to be used as an index of 'productivity' and not as an absolute mass increase value, precision in the conversion factor is not critical. NPP is applied when there are no constraints on growth, but is reduced by modifiers reflecting non-optimal nutrition, soil water status, temperature and atmospheric vapour pressure deficits.

Calculation of Growth Modifying Factors

Modifiers are dimensionless factors with values between 0 (complete restriction of growth) and 1 (no limitation). Modifiers used in this way are discussed by Landsberg (1986), McMurtrie et. al. (1992) and Landsberg and Waring (1997).

The modifying factors are:

Soil fertility: Because of natural variation and the considerable uncertainty surrounding soil fertility values, only three levels of fertility were used; high (effective modifier = 1), medium (effective modifier = 0.8) and low (effective modifier = 0.6), giving ϵ values of 1.25, 1 and 0.75, respectively. These were applied for each pixel, depending on soil type, before environmental modifiers were applied. (Information on soils and their characteristics was obtained from McKenzie et. al., 2000a).

Vapour Pressure Deficit: (*VPD*), acting on stomatal, and hence canopy, conductance. The equation used is:

$$VPD_{mod} = e^{(-0.05 \times VPD)} \quad (2)$$

This modifier essentially acts as a control on the rate of water loss and is conditional upon soil water content (see below).

Soil Water Content: This is derived from water balance calculations, which take into account the maximum soil water holding capacity (*Swcapacity*, Equation 6) in the root zone of plants. Plant water use (*Transpiration*, Equation 4) is calculated from the equation for equilibrium evaporation (*EqEvapn*, Equation 3, see Landsberg and Gower, 1997; p. 79), modified by feed-back from current soil water content, and a conventional water balance equation (Equation 5):

$$EqEvapn = ((0.67 \times NetRadn \times (1 - 0.05)) / 2.47) \times \text{days in month} \quad (3)$$

$$Transpiration = EqEvapn_j \times SWmod_{j-1} \quad (4)$$

$$WaterBal = (Rain \times (1 - interception)) - Transpiration \quad (5)$$

$$SoilWaterContent_j = SoilWaterContent_{j-1} + WaterBal_j \quad (6)$$

Initial SoilWaterContent was taken as $0.75 \times \text{SWcapacity}$. SoilWaterContent carries over from one time step to the next. The soil moisture calculation sequence was run for 3 years, after which SoilWaterContent had essentially equilibrated to stable monthly values. SoilWaterContent values in year 3 were used in the analysis. The soil water modifier (SWmod, Equation 8) was calculated from the moisture ratio (MoistRatio, Equation 7), which is SoilWaterContent normalised to SWcapacity. The equation describes the variable effect of MoistRatio across the range from wet soil (MoistRatio ≈ 1) to dry soil (MoistRatio ≈ 0).

$$\text{MoistRatio} = \text{SoilWaterContent} / \text{SoilWaterCapacity} \quad (7)$$

$$\text{SWmod} = 1 / (1 + ((1 - \text{MoistRatio}) / 0.6)^{0.7}) \quad (8)$$

The soil water and VPD modifiers are not multiplicative; the lowest one applies. The argument is that if plant growth (conversion of radiant energy into biomass) is limited more by VPD than soil water

(i.e., if $\text{VPDmod} < \text{SWmod}$) then soil water is not a limiting factor, even if soil water content is relatively low. The converse applies, that is, if $\text{SWmod} < \text{VPDmod}$, soil water is the limiting factor.

Temperature: The growth of any plant species is limited by temperatures outside the optimum range for that species. Since plants are dealt with in a generic way the assumption was made that, in any particular region, the plants are well-adapted to the temperature range. The equation (9) describing the effects of temperature is:

$$\text{Tmod} = ((\text{Tav} - \text{Tlow}) / (\text{Topt} - \text{Tlow})) \times ((\text{Thigh} - \text{Tav}) / (\text{Thigh} - \text{Topt})) \quad (9)$$

Tav is the average monthly temperature, Tmin is the monthly average temperature below which plant growth stops, Tmax is the monthly average temperature above which plant growth stops and Topt is the optimum temperature for growth $(\text{Tmin} + \text{Tmax}) / 2$. The temperature modifier (TempMod) is 1 when $\text{Tav} = \text{Topt}$.

Equation (9) gives a hyperbolic response curve, with Temp Mod = 0 when $\text{Tav} = \text{Tmin}$ or Tmax . Tmin is set to $1/2$ the minimum temperature of the coldest month (if the minimum temperature of the coldest month is greater than or equal to 0°C , Tmin was set to the minimum temperature of the coldest month plus $1/2$ the minimum temperature of the coldest month if the minimum temperature of the coldest month is less than 0°C). Tmax is set to 5°C above the maximum temperature of the hottest month of the year and Topt as equal to the average of Tmin and Tmax temperature. Consequently, TempMod generally had relatively small effects on the calculation of NPP.

A frost modifier is included, using the simple assumption that frost temporarily inactivates the photosynthetic mechanism in foliage, so there is no growth on a frost day. The modifier is, therefore, simply the ratio of number of frost days/month to the number of days in the month.

Average daily short-wave incoming (global) radiation was derived from the ANUCLIM package, using the version with rainfall as a co-variate. To account for the effects of slope and aspect on solar radiation the NCAS has derived a ratio of direct/(direct+diffuse) radiation (the effects of slope and aspect apply to direct solar radiation only). Slope and aspect were derived from the AUSLIG (2001) version 2.0 9' digital elevation model (DEM).

Minimum and Maximum Temperature data were derived using the methods described and Tmax, Tmin, Tav and Topt were derived from these values. For the calculation of Frost Days, the NCAS built a climate surface using data from the Bureau of Meteorology, fitted with elevation as a covariate.

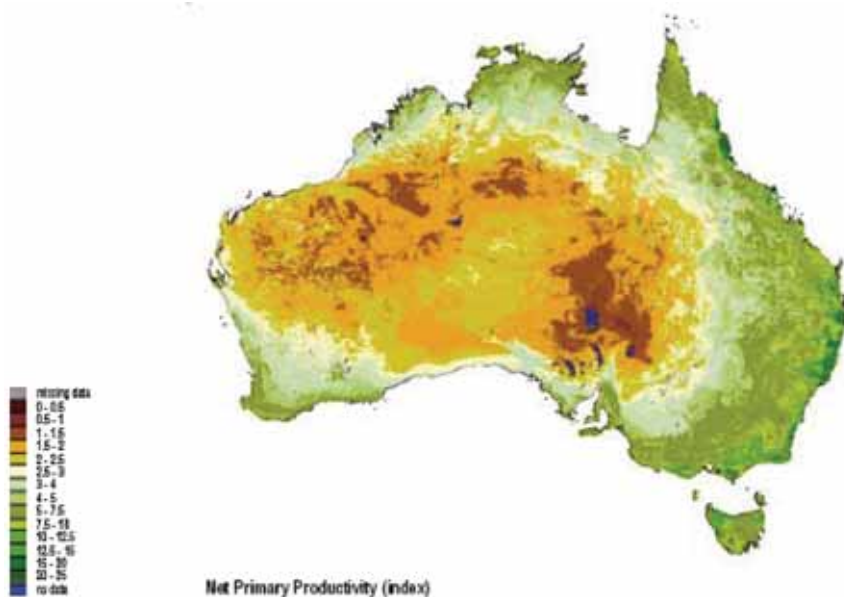
Monthly Average Rainfall for the whole country was taken from the data described earlier. Soil fertility and water holding capacity (SWcapacity) were obtained from the spatial map of Australian soils provided by CSIRO (McKenzie et. al. 2000a).

Potential Biomass at Maturity

In addition to the multi-temporal 1 km grid scale outputs of the model, a 250 m (slope and aspect corrected) long-term average productivity map (Figure 7.C14) was produced using long-term average climate data. This long-term average productivity map was used to define a productivity-to-mass relationship by regressing known measures of aboveground mass at or near maturity (Raison et. al., 2003) against the long-term productivity. Mature masses were defined as having no identifiable major disturbance events since 1970 such as clearing, harvest or fire (Richards and Brack 2004a), and were therefore assumed to have reached biomass production potential (Long-term Aboveground Stand Biomass).

In accumulating georeferenced plot data for fitting to the productivity map, caution was exercised to exclude plots that were potentially drawn from forest 'gaps'. Plots taken as part of fixed-grid or transect systems could potentially fall in gaps in sparse forests. As the remote sensing program at 25 m resolution is capable of separating such forest gaps from clearing events, the forest carbon mapping represents biomass of forested plots, not that averaged over the gaps.

Figure 7.C14. 250 m Slope and Aspect Corrected Productivity Index Map



A regression found a significant correlation ($p < 0.01$, $r^2 = 0.68$) between Long-Term Aboveground Stand Biomass (M) and Long-Term Average Productivity (P). A square root transformation was required to meet assumptions of normality and homogeneity.

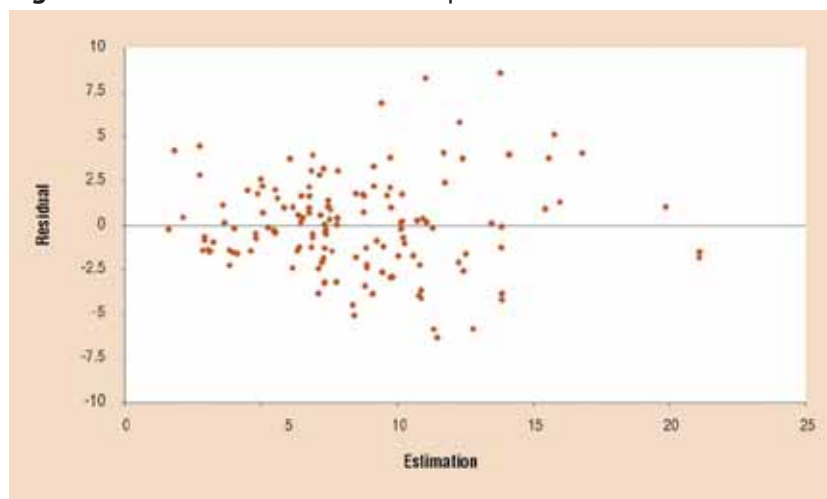
$$M = (6.011 \times \sqrt{P} - 5.291)^2 \quad (10)$$

The goodness of fit of Equation (10) ($r^2 = 0.68$, $p < 0.01$) to the measured data confirms that a robust relationship exists between the productivity mapping and measured aboveground biomass estimates. Biomass at maturity (maximum biomass) at a chosen resolution for the entire continent can then be calculated by applying the relationship (equation) to the productivity index mapping. A key benefit of the hybridisation of process modelling (through the productivity mapping) and empiricism (through known measures) is that estimates will be constrained to actual conditions (measured mass estimates) and actual growth, not that of optimal growth.

While the goodness of fit and lack of bias in error estimates (Figure 7.C15) provides confidence in the application of the Equation (10) as a model to predict biomass at maturity, there is an obvious scatter in

the data. This is potentially attributable to either the range of methods used in the field estimation or to an inherent variability between the 'plot' locations used to scale to one ha mass estimates compared to the average condition reflected in the 250 m resolution productivity estimation.

Figure 7.C15. Error Distribution for Equation 10



Biomass Growth Increments

As not all forest areas are in a 'mature' state, the remote sensing of land cover change is used to identify disturbance history and, therefore, forest age. The forest type mapping is subsequently spatially overlaid on the multi-temporal productivity maps to determine, for every 25 m pixel, the forest type, productivity and (inferred from disturbance history using the land cover change data) age. The following formula (Equation 11) was then used to provide an estimate of growth using the spatial (mass at maturity and forest type) and multi-temporal spatial data (productivity and land cover change) data.

$$\text{Aboveground Tree Mass at age } a = M \times e^{(-k/a)} \quad (11)$$

Where: (a) is the age of the tree stand

(M) is the maximum long-term aboveground tree stand biomass, and

(k) is an estimated constant that determines the rate of approach towards M.

Available data, such as that reported by West and Mattay (1993), suggests the age of maximum current annual increment (CAI) for stem volume is approximately constant for most species and is independent of site productivity. The constant k is determined to reflect the age of maximum total aboveground biomass CAI. The age of maximum aboveground biomass increment is set to 10 for all species. This k value of 10 has been used which reflects an earlier maximum CAI for total aboveground biomass than for stem volume. This reflects an early bias in allocation to non-stem tree components.

Given Equations 10 and 11, the long-term average annual increment between a and a+1 years (I_a) for a stand can be estimated from the Long-Term Average Productivity (P):

$$I_a = (6.011 \times \sqrt{P} - 5.291)^2 \times (e^{(-k/a)} - e^{(-k/a+1)}) \quad (12)$$

However, as productivity in any given year may vary around the average due to non-average weather or other factors, the average annual increment may be adjusted by the productivity in a given year (P_a) as a ratio with the average productivity (P):

$$I_a = I_a \times P_a / P \quad (13)$$

This approach provides biomass stock estimates for a given land unit at any point in time that recognize prior forest disturbance, and the rates of growth for a land unit at any point in time, specific to site condition and age.

Optimal growth as often derived from process models has been shown to over-estimate biomass potential (Kurz et. al. 1998). The approach outlined above provides for a hybridisation of empirical constraints with the temporal and spatial variability derived from spatially applied process modelling.

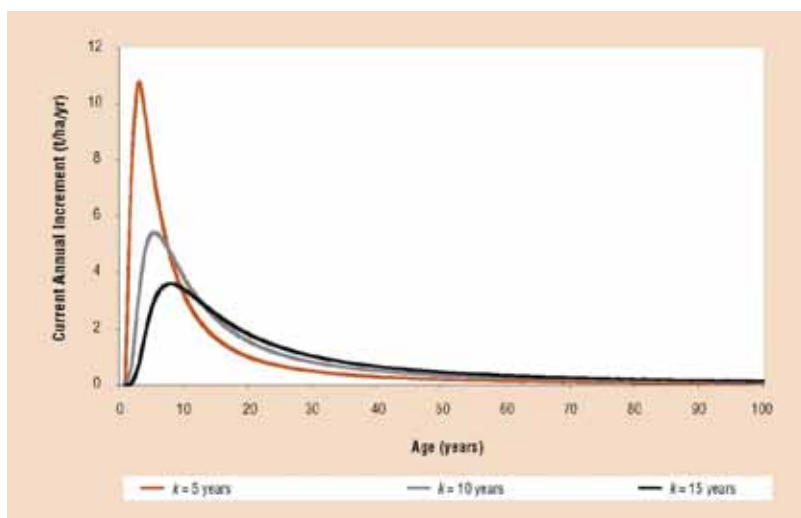
Patterns of growth will show variability according to the spatial and temporal patterns of the main process drivers, e.g., water balance, captured in the productivity modelling. Estimates of biomass in areas of regrowth are then both spatially and temporally relevant.

Figure 7.C16 provides an analysis of the effects of varying age of maximum aboveground biomass increment between the extreme ranges of 5 to 15 years. While the early age growth increments are very sensitive to the age of CAI, even by age 18 there is little difference in the annual aboveground biomass growth increment. Reviews of available data, including that of West and Mattay (1993), suggest that there is little variance from a maximum CAI for a range of species and productivity ranges. No data has been identified that supports significantly earlier or later occurrence in native forests. In plantations where site modification (irrigation, fertilization and soil preparation) is undertaken at an early age (particularly for short rotation pulpwood plantations) the age of maximum stem volume CAI may be reduced. Plantation yield tables can be used to identify any needed modifications (entered through the FullCAM database) when such systems are considered in relevant applications of the model.

The findings on age of maximum aboveground biomass CAI are very significant as the 1972 map layer is assumed to represent biomass at maturity. This assumption has been made as no age definition was available for forests in 1972. The model will have largely achieved equilibrium around this assumption by 1989 in that there is a much reduced and consistent growth increment after approximately age 18.

Land cover change events in 1989 and 1990 have the most significant impact on the 1990 baseline emissions for biomass. The assumption of biomass at maturity in 1972 has little potential for over-estimation of biomass carbon stock changes in 1990, and later years. Areas of land cover change between 1972 and 1989 will have new age allocations, while areas not cleared will be at least 20 years old (needing to be at least 2 years old to be identified as forested in 1972) and so will, by 1989, be at or nearing mature biomass and be largely insensitive to age of maximum aboveground biomass CAI.

Figure 7.C16. Effects of Varying Age of Maximum Current Annual Increment



Quality Assurance and Quality Control

Independent QA/QC was undertaken on the development of the multi-temporal productivity indices developed for the NCAS and included review of methods, their application and the plausibility of results. The land cover change data used to determine forest age and the climate data used in the productivity mapping was independently subjected to QA/QC.

Tree Parameters*Introduction*

To provide a consolidation and synthesis of available national data on partitioning of growth, carbon content and wood density, the NCAS initiated a range of studies on related topics. Identified priority gaps were supplemented with some additional data collection.

Wood Density

Wood density information has been drawn from Illic et. al. (2000), a national compendium of wood density information prepared for the NCAS. The data of Illic et. al. (2000) is presented on a species basis. The wood density assigned to each forest type is an approximate average of the values for species typically represented in each class. One of the key benefits of the direct biomass (rather than volume) modelling approach taken, is that wood density is required only if volume estimates are needed for comparison to forest plot data. Volume is not used in the carbon modelling, but is calculated during the analysis to assist in comparisons between modelled estimates and measured plot data for verification purposes. Plot data for verification is more often available in stem volume than as mass estimates. The wood density values used are shown in Table 7.C7.

Table 7.C7. Wood Density Values for the Major Vegetation Group (MVG) Classes.

MVG Class	Wood Density (Basic) (kg dry matter/m ³)
Rainforest and Vine Thickets	500
Eucalyptus Tall Open Forests	550
Eucalyptus Open Forest	625
Eucalypt Low Open Forest	550
Eucalyptus Woodland	890
Acacia Forest and Woodland	940
Callitris Forest and Woodland	650
Casuarina Forest and Woodland	860
Melaleuca Forest and Woodland	660
Other Forests and Woodland	800
Tropical Eucalyptus Woodland/Grassland	830
Eucalyptus Open Woodland	890
Acacia Open Woodland	940
Mallee Woodland and Shrubland	1,060
Low Closed Forest and Closed Shrubland	1,000
Acacia Shrubland	940
Other Shrublands	940
Heath	900
Chenopod Shrub, Samphire Shrub and Forbland	900
Unclassified Native Vegetation	780

Tree Partitioning

The partitioning of mass to different tree components has limited effect on the carbon modelling for forest conversion, but robust data is required for model accuracy. The NCAS initiated a number of studies to collect data (Keith et. al., 2000, Eamus et. al., 2000, Grierson et. al., 2000 and Burrows et. al., 2001). Snowdon et. al. (2000) provides a synthesis of the available data. In harvested forests, tree components will likely be treated independently, e.g., stemwood being removed from the site as wood product and crowns burnt or left to decay onsite. However, such differential management of tree components does not occur in land clearing activity, to any degree of significance, except for some removal of firewood. A national study on firewood collection indicated that limited activity is associated with forest conversion (Driscoll et. al., 2000).

The most important attribute in partitioning is the ratio of belowground biomass to the aboveground composite mass, which is estimated using available data (Snowdon et al. 2000). There is also a need to apportion materials to different decomposition pools, burning ratios etc. from above-ground components. As land cover change is frequently cyclic (including removal of regrowth), any over- or under-estimates in growth due to the root-to-shoot ratio applied will be largely compensated for by an equivalent over – or under-estimate in amounts of regrowth removed. The partitioning ratios used are drawn from the best available data, largely taken from the synthesis of data compiled by Snowdon et. al. (2000) for the NCAS. The partitioning used for each forest type is shown in Table 7.C8.

Tree Carbon Contents

The carbon content of the estimated biomass (dry matter) is needed to derive a carbon mass equivalent from the biomass modelling. Studies by Gifford (2000a) and Gifford (2000b) for the NCAS considered the carbon content of various tree components, for a range of species and across a range of environments. Drawing on this work, the carbon contents used in this analysis are shown in Table 7.C9.

Table 7.C8. Partitioning of Biomass by Major Vegetation Group (MVG) Class

Name	Yield Allocation to Stems fraction)	Yield Allocation to Branches (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Bark (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Leaves (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Coarse Roots (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Fine Roots (fraction)
Rainforest and vine thickets	0.78	0.06	0.06	0.01	0.06	0.03
Eucalyptus Tall Open Forest	0.67	0.09	0.10	0.02	0.08	0.04
Eucalyptus Open Forest	0.45	0.12	0.10	0.02	0.25	0.06
Eucalyptus Low Open Forest	0.45	0.12	0.10	0.02	0.25	0.06
Eucalyptus Woodland	0.44	0.15	0.10	0.02	0.23	0.06
Acacia Forest and Woodlands	0.42	0.15	0.10	0.02	0.25	0.06
Callitris Forest and Woodlands	0.42	0.15	0.10	0.02	0.16	0.15
Casuarina Forest and Woodland	0.42	0.15	0.10	0.02	0.25	0.06
Melaleuca Forest and Woodland	0.42	0.15	0.10	0.02	0.25	0.06
Other Forests and Woodlands	0.42	0.15	0.10	0.02	0.25	0.06
Eucalyptus Open Woodland	0.41	0.18	0.10	0.02	0.23	0.06
Tropical Eucalyptus woodlands/grasslands	0.41	0.18	0.10	0.02	0.23	0.06
Acacia Open Woodland	0.22	0.165	0.10	0.025	0.42	0.07

Name	Yield Allocation to Stems (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Branches (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Bark (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Leaves (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Coarse Roots (fraction)	Yield Allocation to Fine Roots (fraction)
Mallee Woodland and Shrubland	0.22	0.165	0.10	0.025	0.42	0.07
Low Closed Forest and Closed Shrublands	0.22	0.165	0.10	0.025	0.42	0.07
Acacia Shrubland	0.22	0.165	0.10	0.025	0.25	0.24
Other Shrublands	0.22	0.165	0.10	0.025	0.25	0.24
Heath	0.00	0.3	0.18	0.03	0.25	0.24
Chenopod Shrub, Samphire Shrub and Forbland	0.00	0.3	0.18	0.03	0.25	0.24
Mangrove, tidal mudflat, samphire and bare areas, claypan, sand, rock, salt lakes, lagoons, freshwater lakes	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167	0.167
Unclassified Native vegetation	0.39	0.14	0.09	0.02	0.25	0.11

Table 7.C9. Carbon Contents of Tree Components

Tree Component	Carbon Content (fraction of dry matter)
Stems	0.50
Branches	0.47
Bark	0.49
Leaves and Twigs	0.52
Coarse Roots	0.50
Fine Roots	0.48

Table 7.C10. Tree Component Turnover Rates

Tree Component	Turnover rate yr ⁻¹
Leaf	0.0470
Branch	0.0056
Bark	0.0083
Coarse Roots	0.0560
Fine Roots	0.1042

Tree Component Turnover Rates

Tree component turnover rates determine the inputs to litter, while soil organic matter is largely derived from root turnover (the balance coming from litter decomposition). Litterfall (leaf), branch and bark shed and root turnover have been determined from available literature. The rates applied are in Table 7.C10. These draw heavily on the rates determined by Paul et. al. (2002b) in a model calibration study for the NCAS.

Quality Assurance and Quality Control

Wood density information was compiled for the NCAS and has been published and made available via website distribution (<http://www.climatechange.gov.au/ncas/files/publications.html>). Reliability scales were applied to each source of data subsequent to review of methods used. Carbon contents were analysed for a range of species, tree components and site types and have been published for some time. These values generally concur with the range of values published in independent literature, but frequently the source method is not specified. Partitioning of biomass to different tree components has been largely de-sensitised by direct modelling of total aboveground biomass and consistent management treatment of residues irrespective of tree component. Available literature and data, published for the NCAS, have been used to provide a "best" estimate of belowground allocation.

Forest Parameters*Introduction*

The National Vegetation Information System (NVIS, see NLWRA 2001) provides a composite of the best available vegetation mapping in Australia. Various forest characteristics (e.g., as forest floor coarse woody debris and litter) are associated with the forest types extracted from the NVIS. The rates of decomposition of this material, new inputs and management activity affect changes in mass over time.

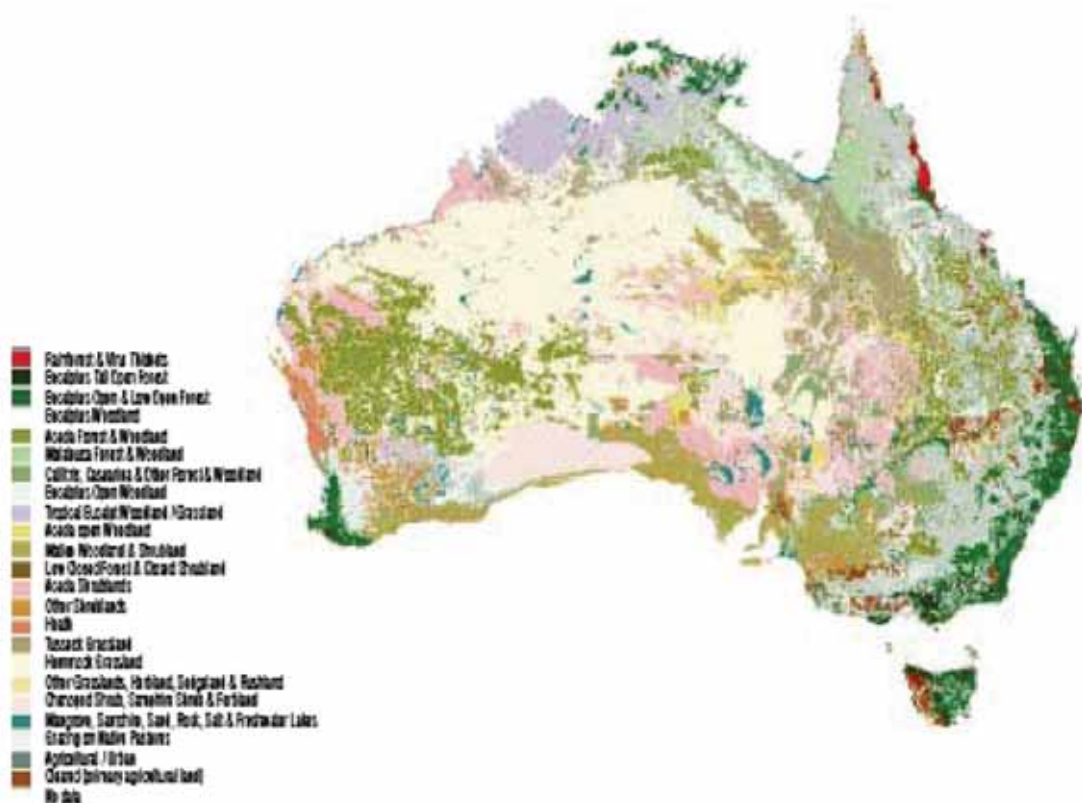
Forest Type Mapping

As part of the commitment to national natural resource mapping undertaken for Australia's National Land and Water Resources Audit (NLWRA), a National Vegetation Information System (NVIS) was compiled. The NVIS collates and provides, in a consistent taxonomy and classification, the best available vegetation maps from all available sources. Six levels of information are available (Table 7.C11).

Table 7.C11. National Vegetation Information System (NVIS) Hierarchical Classifications.

Hier-archical Level	Description	National Vegetation Information System structural/floristic components required
I	Class	Dominant growth form for the ecologically dominant stratum
II	Structural Formation	Dominant growth form, cover and height for the ecologically dominant stratum.
III	Broad Floristic Formation	Dominant growth form, cover, height and broad floristic code usually dominant land cover genus for the upper most or dominant stratum.
IV	Sub-Formation	Dominant growth form, cover, height and broad floristic code usually dominant Genus and Family for the three traditional strata.(i.e. Upper, Mid and Ground)
V	Association	Dominant growth form, height, cover and species (3 species)for the three traditional strata. (i.e. Upper, Mid and Ground)
VI	Sub-Association	Dominant growth form, height, cover and species (5 species)for all layers/strata.

For the purposes of carbon accounting Level III, the Major Vegetation Grouping (MVG) categories were applied. These vegetation types are described in Attachment 7.C1.

Figure 7.C17. Major Vegetation Groups (MVG).

In addition to the 'current' vegetation mapping which represents a composite of recently collected data, the NVIS also modelled forest distributions to infer a pre-European settlement (1770) vegetation map. Some of the land clearing identified by the land cover change program pre-dated the current vegetation mapping (generally 1990 onwards) which meant that areas identified as cleared land in the NVIS could have been forested between 1972 and the NVIS map date. In these instances, the vegetation type allocation was drawn from the 1770 modelled (inferred) vegetation map. While the forest potential maximum (at maturity) biomass and growth rates are largely independent of forest type, other tree characteristics are specific to forest type. Wood density, partitioning of mass to different tree components, the belowground to aboveground biomass ratios and the initial debris stocks are forest type dependent.

Forest Litter

Initialisation of the forest litter stock in the model (coarse woody debris and fine litter) draws upon assessments carried out for the NCAS in conjunction with the soils measurement program (Murphy et. al., 2002, Griffin et. al., 2002, Harms and Dalal 2002 and Harms et. al., 2005) and a separate study by Mackensen and Bauhus (1999). Sites used in these studies were widespread amongst the areas primarily cleared for agricultural purposes. Additional data was drawn from literature where available. The values used are shown in Table 7.C12. Debris mass is converted to carbon assuming a carbon fraction of 0.45.

Forest Residue Management

The principal methods of land cover change for forest conversion involve the extraction of root material (tree-pulling etc.) to allow for subsequent cultivation for pasture and cropping. Limited use of tree poisons, with subsequent standing decomposition (microbial and invertebrate) also occurs.

Table 7.C12. Initial Forest Litter Values (t dry matter ha⁻¹)

Major Vegetation Group (MVG) Class	Decomp- osable Fine Decay		Resistant Fine Decay		Decomp- osable Coarse Decay		Resistant Coarse Decay		Decomp- osable Leaf Decay		Resistant leaf decay		Decomp- osable Bark decay		Resistant Bark Decay		Decomposable Deadwood decay		Resistant Deadwood Decay	
Rainforest and Vine Thickets	30		18		14		10		5		2		0.5		2		18		100	
Eucalyptus Tall Open Forests	30		18		14		10		12		5		1		5		18		100	
Eucalyptus Open Forest	20		9		7		5		10		4		1		5		9		56	
Eucalypt Low Open Forest	10		5		4		3		7		3		0.75		3		5		30	
Eucalyptus Woodland	5		2		1		1		4.5		2		0.5		2		2		12	
Acacia Forestland Woodland	5		2		1		1		4.5		2		0.5		2		2		12	
Callitris Forestland Woodland	5		2		1		1		4.5		2		0.5		2		2		12	
Casuarina Forestland Woodland	5		2		1		1		4.5		2		0.5		2		2		12	
Melaleuca Forestland Woodland	5		2		1		1		4.5		2		0.5		2		2		12	
Other Forests and Woodland	5		2		1		1		4.5		2		0.5		2		2		12	
Tropical Eucalyptus Woodland/ Grassland	6		3		2		1.5		4		2		0.5		2		2		15	
Eucalyptus Open Woodland	5		2		1		1		4.5		2		0.5		2		2		12	
Acacia Open Woodland	1		0.2		0.1		0.1		3		1		0.2		1		1		2.5	
Mallee Woodland and Shrubland	1		0.2		0.1		0.1		3		1		0.2		1		1		2.5	
Low Closed Forest and Closed Shrubland	1		0.2		0.1		0.1		3		1		0.2		1		1		2.5	
Acacia Shrubland	1		0.2		0.1		0.1		3		1		0.2		1		1		2.5	
Other Shrublands	1		0.2		0.1		0.1		3		1		0.2		1		1		2.5	
Heath	1		0.2		0.10.		3.1		1		0.2		1		1		2.5			
Chenopod Shrub, Samphire Shrubland Forbland	1		0.2		0.1		0.1		3		1		0.2		1		1		2.5	
Unclassified Native Vegetation	8		4		3		2		5		2		0.5		2		2		25	

Tree pulling usually involves forming 'wind rows' for subsequent burning. Burning of wind rows follows a period of curing (drying), but combustion is still not always complete. The national accounting model has been developed to accommodate these processes by implementing a delayed burning, with subsequent decomposition of residual material. The residual decomposing pool also includes 'standing dead' material from treatments such as poisoning. The proportion of biomass potentially affected by burning is set at 98 per cent, leaving 2 per cent of all biomass unaffected by burning. Further residue is left to decompose following incomplete combustion, due to combustion efficiencies of 90 per cent for stems, 95 per cent for bark, 95 per cent for leaf litter, 80 per cent for coarse dead roots and 70 per cent for fine roots. In the *FullCAM* model, burning is set to occur six months after clearing.

Litter decomposition rates have been extracted from available information including the study undertaken by Mackensen and Bauhus (1999) for the NCAS. The rates applied are shown in Table 7.C13. There are few studies in Australia of litter decomposition rates with most work being focused on wood product longevity trials. The data was supplemented with some limited chronosequence work on paired sites, but the main focus of this work was on modelling rates that coincided with measures of litter mass when the models were run over extended periods so that a reasonable balance between turnover (input to litter pools) and decomposition of litter pools was achieved.

Table 7.C13. Litter Decomposition Rates for Tree Components.

Plant Component	Decomposition Rate (yr ⁻¹)
Decomposable Leaf	1.0
Resistant Leaf	1.0
Decomposable Deadwood	0.1
Resistant Deadwood	0.1
Decomposable Bark	0.5
Resistant Bark	0.5
Decomposable Coarse Root	0.4
Resistant Coarse Root	0.1
Decomposable Fine Root	0.3
Resistant Fine Root	0.4

Quality Assurance and Quality Control

The vegetation mapping provided by the NVIS has been compiled under a major national program with contributions made by relevant data holding groups, in particular State and Territory Governments.

Forest floor litter (coarse and fine) has been estimated using standardised methods as published in the NCAS Technical Reports 14 (McKenzie et. al., 2000b) and 31 (Snowdon et. al., 2001). Available data conforms to these methods and has been checked for plausibility on entry to the NCAS system and subsequently to the *FullCAM* model.

Soil Carbon

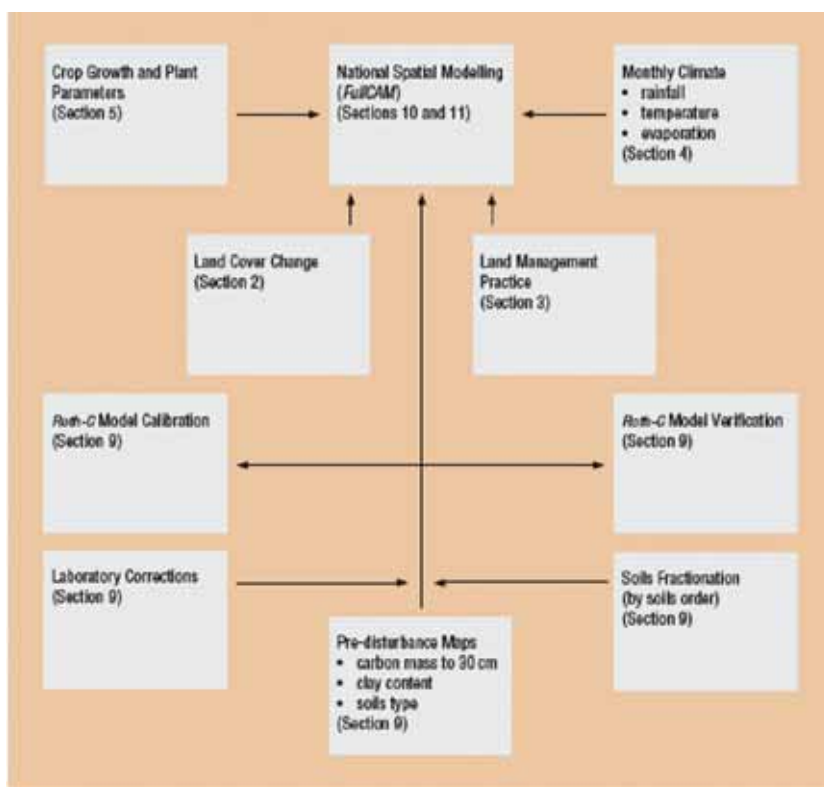
The Soil Carbon Program

In order to perform spatially and temporally disaggregated accounting for soil carbon, it was necessary to calibrate and verify a robust and widely applicable soil carbon model. The overall soil carbon program developed both resource inventory (mapping) descriptions and model calibration and verification. The integrated soil carbon program for the NCAS is shown in Figure 7.C18.

Model Selection

On the basis of previous successful testing in a range of environments in Australia, the *Roth-C* (Jenkinson et. al., 1987, Jenkinson et. al., 1991) soil carbon model was chosen (Webbnet Land Resources Services Pty. Ltd. 2000) for implementation in the NCAS and integrated into the *FullCAM* model (Richards 2001b).

Figure 7.C18. The NCAS Soils Program (from AGO 2002).



Soil Mapping and Inventory

The modelling of soil carbon change by the NCAS uses an initial condition map which defines the pre-disturbance soil carbon content. To develop this map the NCAS collaborated with the relevant agencies of State and Territory Governments and the CSIRO to access the best available soils mapping and site sample data specific to this purpose. To provide comparability between site sample (inventory) results collected over various time periods from a variety of analytic laboratories, typically using different methods, correction factors were derived by standardising methods to the results derived from a dry combustion methodology (Skjemstad et. al., 2000). Correction factors were derived by re-analysing, via a dry combustion method, archival soil samples, and then comparing results to the known results from the original methods.

The mapping of soils units was completed at a level of precision which could be supported by available data. This approach led to variable resolutions in the mapping, generally determined by the regional data availability and heterogeneity of soils landscape. The results of this project are reported in Webbnet Land Resource Services Pty. Ltd. (2002). Figure 7.C19 shows the pre-disturbance map derived.

In conjunction with the development of the pre-disturbance soil carbon map, a map of clay content was also developed (Figure 7.C20) using the same map base. The mapped soil units provide pre-disturbance carbon (organic) content, clay content and soil type. The soil types (Table 7.C14) allow for the mapping to subsequently (via the *FullCAM* relational database) be ascribed proportions of the starting carbon within the

pools described in the soil carbon model. These pools are defined by their differing turnover times (resistance to decomposition). The proportion of material in each soil pool (fractionation) was established by laboratory analysis of soil samples held in CSIRO and State/Territory Government archives.

Figure 7.C19. Pre-Disturbance Soil Carbon Map.

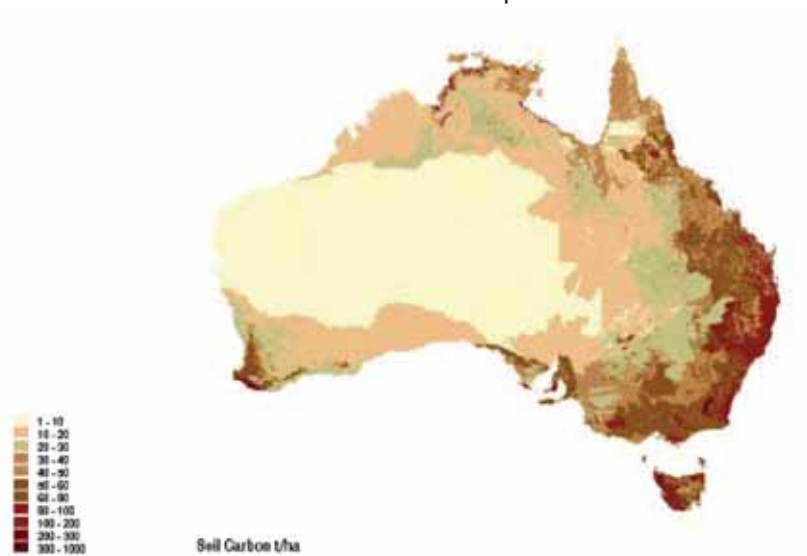
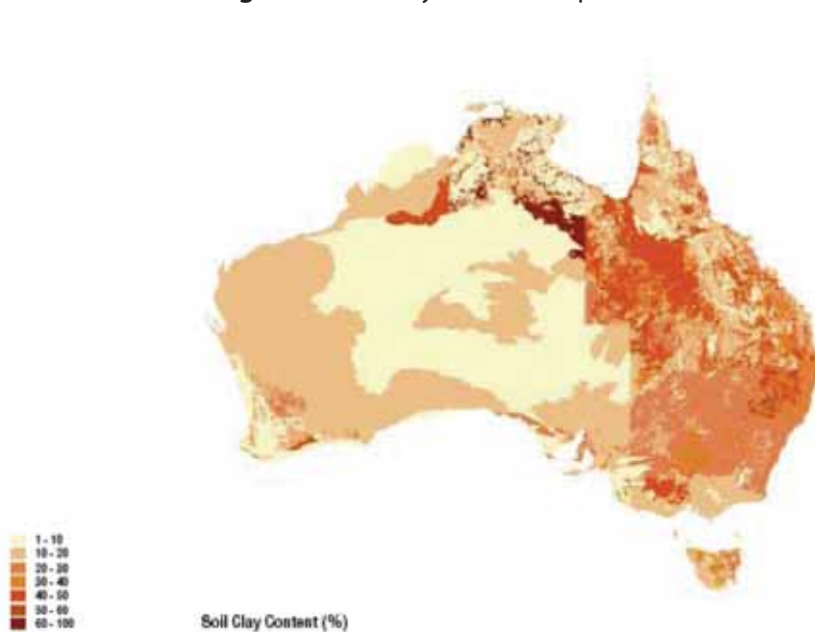


Figure 7.C20. Clay Content Map.



Soil Carbon Model Development

Early policy and technical analysis of the requirements for the carbon accounting under the IPCC Inventory Guidelines, the Kyoto Protocol, and of the national data and methodological capacity available for the task, led to the development of a model-based methodology underpinned by the Roth-C soil carbon model. The background to the selection of methods and design of the program can be found in Webbnnet Land Resource Services Pty. Ltd. (2000). The model calibration and verification program identified available long-term field trial data, a subset of which had sufficiently detailed and complete long-term data to enable calibration of the model against long-term field measurements. Only a minimum of data supplementation was accepted at these calibration sites. Other sites with incomplete long-term data, but providing a robust temporal pattern of carbon change under known treatments and climate, were used for model verification (Skjemstad and Spouncer 2002).

In addition to this long-term trial data, approximately 75 new soil pairs (an undisturbed site paired with a cleared site) were sampled to provide a range of verification targets for model testing. Sites were established, in collaboration with State Agencies, in Queensland, New South Wales and Western Australia, in the areas of major forest conversion activity. Sites were selected to provide a variety of ages (time since change), crop type, soil type etc. in areas subject to most intensive activity. Sampling of sites was completed according to the standardised soil sample protocol developed for the NCAS (McKenzie et. al., 2000b).

Table 7.C14. Soil Classification Used in the Modelling.

Soil no.	Location	Soil type
s1	TAS	Structured earths
s2	TAS	Bleached sands with subsoil pans
s3	TAS	Other soils
s4	NSW	Clay
s5	NSW	Loam
s6	NSW	Sand
s7	QLD	Duplex – woodland
s8	QLD	Clay – brigalow and gidgee
s9	QLD	Clay – open downs
s10	QLD	Clay – brigalow and belah
s11	QLD	Gradational
s12	QLD	Clay
s13	QLD	Other soils
s14	QLD	Gradational – spinifex
s15	QLD	Clay – mitchell grass (30%) and gidgee
s16	QLD	Duplex – black spear grass & a\b woodland
s17	QLD	Duplex
s18	QLD	Gradational and duplex
s19	QLD	Clay – gidgee
s20	QLD	Open downs
s21	QLD	Earths
s22	QLD	Sands and loams
s23	QLD	Clays and red loams
s24	NT	Kandosol
s25	NT	Other

Soil no.	Location	Soil type
s26	NT	Tenosol
s27	SA	Sub area 1 -DD
s28	SA	Sub area 2 – Lb5
s29	SA	Sub area 3 – Sandy
s30	SA	DD2/Lb5/E6
s31	VIC	Deep sands s32 VIC Calcarosols
s33	VIC	Cracking clays
s34	VIC	Yellow duplex soils
s35	VIC	Leached sands
s36	VIC	Brown duplex soils
s37	VIC	Black duplex and gradational soils
s38	VIC	Red-brown earths
s39	VIC	Bleached sands
s40	VIC	Organic soils
s41	VIC	Gradational Red earths
s42	VIC	Non-Cracking clays
s43	VIC	Red duplex soils
s44	VIC	Organic loams
s45	VIC	Red earths
s46	VIC	Brown earth
s47	VIC	Grey Cracking Clays
s48	WA	Coloured sands
s49	WA	Gravels
s50	WA	Loams and clays
s51	WA	Non saline wet
s52	WA	Other
s53	WA	Pale sands
s54	WA	Sandy duplexes
s55	WA	Saline

Both the model calibration and verification studies are reported in Skjemstad and Spouncer (2002). The reports of the paired site studies can be found in Harms and Dalal (2002), Murphy et. al. (2002) and Griffin et. al. (2002). Given the diversity of systems tested and the inherent problems with paired sample approaches, the model results were surprisingly good, with the only model parameter altered from the Roth-C recommended defaults being the decomposition rate for Resistant Plant Matter (RPM) (from 0.30 to 0.15). Occasional site failures, where modelled results were inconsistent with the paired sample measures, were generally readily attributed for identifiable reasons, most commonly poor site pairing in the paired sample analysis.

Quality Assurance and Quality Control

The data for the development of soil type maps was extracted from the best available resource inventory information held by State and Territory Governments and was subjected to expert review prior to entry into the development of the maps. The clay contents were also taken from these inventories and supplemented with available research data as part of the same process. Carbon contents were corrected to methodological standards where the initial method of measurement was known, otherwise the data was considered unusable.

The application of standardised field and laboratory protocols ensured that robust and consistent data was obtained from any sampling undertaken for the NCAS. Extensive field calibration and independent site verification were used to develop and confirm model performance. Use of the paired sites and long-term trial data over a wide range of systems meant that spatial applications were largely interpolations within well understood and field verified ranges.

The Model Framework

Introduction

A considerable challenge was presented by the requirement to provide an integrated, transparent and verifiable framework for data management and modelling. A fundamental requirement was that the framework needed to be capable of implementing an integrated suite of models within a geographic information system (GIS). As there was no integrated framework capable of carrying out this task, and producing the results in a manner required for national inventory reporting, a purpose-built model framework was developed for the NCAS. This framework incorporated sub-models, such as the *Roth-C* soil carbon model, which had been separately calibrated.

The model framework and its development are described in Richards (2001b) and Richards and Evans (2004). In addition to the major development of providing the complex modelling in a spatial (GIS) framework, the model also provided for mixes and transitions between forest and agricultural systems, and to change plant species over both space and time. *FullCAM* (Full Carbon Accounting Model) has been developed as an integrated compendium model that provides the linkage between various sub-models. *FullCAM* has components that deal with both the biological and management processes which affect carbon pools and the transfers between pools in forest, agricultural, transitional (afforestation, reforestation and deforestation) and mixed (e.g., agroforestry) systems. The exchanges of carbon, loss and uptake, between the terrestrial biological system and the atmosphere are accounted for in the full/closed cycle model which includes all biomass, litter and soil pools. The five sub-models included in *FullCAM* are:

- > the physiological growth model for forests, *3-PG* (Landsberg and Waring 1997, Coops et. al. 1998, Coops et. al. 2001);
- > the carbon accounting model for forests, *CAMFor* (Richards and Evans 2000a);
- > the carbon accounting model for cropping and grazing systems, *CAMAg* (Richards and Evans 2000b);
- > the microbial decomposition model *GENDEC* (Moorhead and Reynolds 1991; Moorhead et. al., 1999); and,
- > the Rothamsted Soil Carbon Model, *Roth-C* (Jenkinson, et. al., 1987, Jenkinson et. al., 1991).

These models have been independently developed for the various purposes of predicting and accounting for:

- > soil carbon change associated with agriculture and forest activities (in the case of *Roth-C*);
- > the determination of rates of decomposition of litter (in the case of *GENDEC*); and,
- > the prediction of growth in trees (in the case of *3-PG*).

CAMFor and *CAMAg* are carbon accounting models developed by the NCAS through which it is possible to assess the impacts of management practices, such as fire, decomposition, harvest, cropping, and grazing, on externally generated growth and decomposition rate inputs. In preparing these models for integration into *FullCAM*, each model (except for *CAMAg*) was translated from original source code to a common Microsoft Excel spreadsheet format. The Excel workbooks used only sheet-based formula with no 'Macros' or other code applied. This provided a consistent and transparent model platform from which to review and integrate the various models. Having a consistent structure and format for the models allowed for the independent calibration of various models while providing for ease of later integration. The transparency of the development process also facilitated review at a detailed level.

The integration of the models serves two primary goals. The first was to provide a capacity to be able to operate at a level of conservation of carbon (closed cycle) at a site or other specified area. This includes all pools and transfers (net of atmospheric uptake and emissions) between pools to ensure that there are no significant instances of double counting or omissions in accounting. Potentially, such errors could occur if the dominant carbon pools (soil carbon, biomass and litter) were considered independently. The second goal is to provide a model with the capability to operate continentally as a fine resolution grid-based spatial application. A single efficient model is required to analyse the large input data sets, in a multi-temporal spatial context.

Sub-model Selection

The need to develop an integrated model was highlighted during the International Review of the NCAS Implementation Plan for Phase 1 of the 1990 baseline. The review report is contained in the NCAS Technical Report No. 11 (AGO, 2000b). Most germane among the Review recommendations was a need to take a holistic approach, with modelling and measurement continuous across all carbon pools and cognisant of the transfers between pools. Other recommendations from the Review which had direct implications for the development of the NCAS, and therefore *FullCAM* were:

- > the adoption, within the NCAS suite of tools, of a generic and widely applicable physiological growth model;
- > the adoption of a microbial litter decomposition model, with a suggestion to consider the GENDEC model of Moorhead et. al. (1999); and,
- > support for national calibration of the Roth-C soil carbon model.

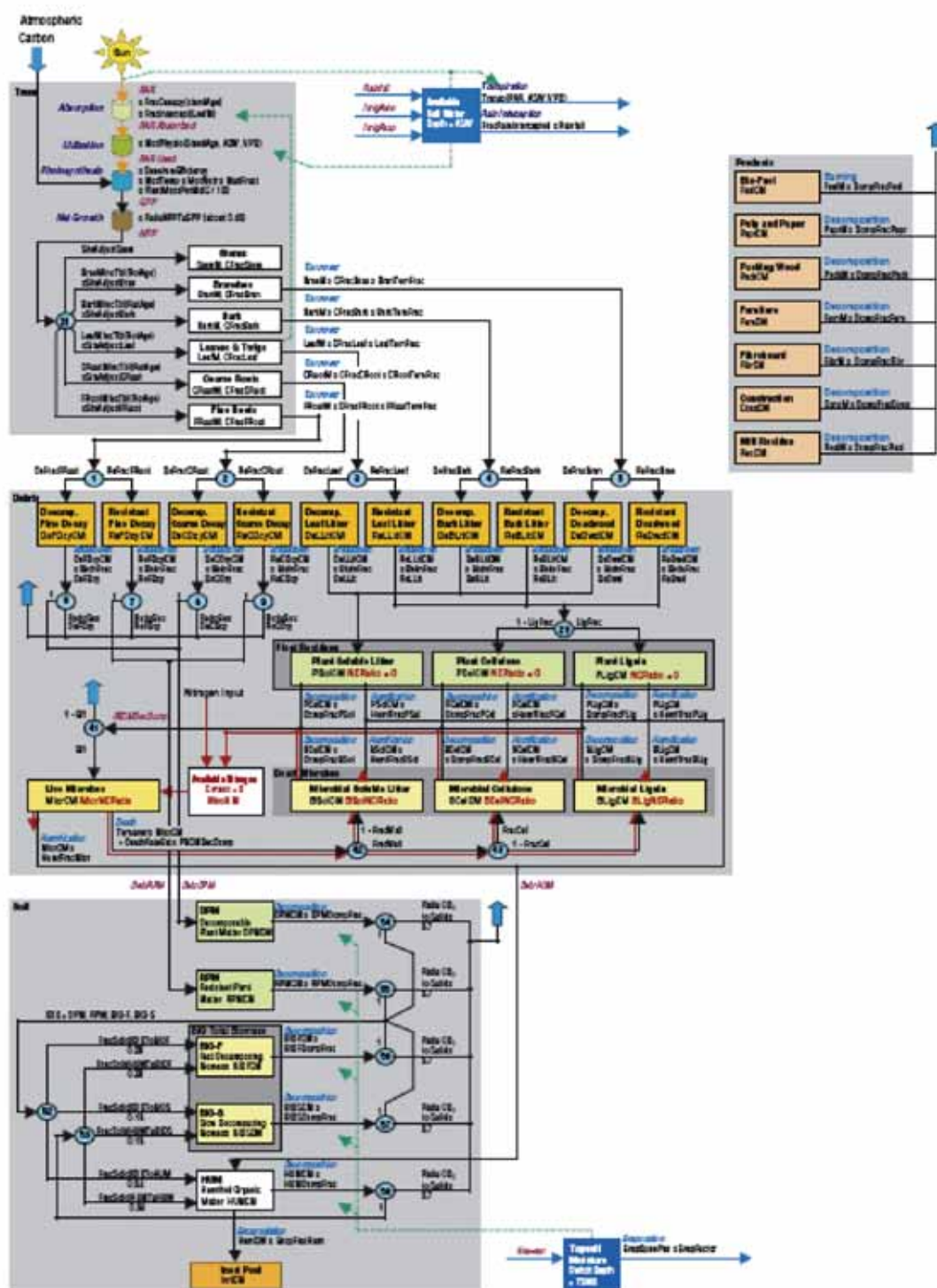
Strategies for data accumulation and assimilation into models capable of both continental and project scale carbon accounting (largely directed at satisfying the requirements of the Kyoto Protocol) were developed. Strategies were also developed to guide the fundamental data collections (field and analytic protocols), research program (targeted research objectives) and model calibration (including sensitivity and uncertainty analysis). The *CAMFor* and *CAMAg* models were developed to account for the impacts of management actions and events such as fire. *CAMFor* (Carbon Accounting Model for Forests) (Richards and Evans, 2000a) was developed within the NCAS to provide capacity for both project and continental scale accounting. *CAMFor* was originally an Excel based model which has its conceptual foundations in the CO₂ Fix model (Mohren and Goldewijk, 1990).

CAMAg (Carbon Accounting Model for Agriculture) was also developed for the NCAS (Richards and Evans, 2000b). *CAMAg* performs similar functions to *CAMFor*, but operates in agricultural systems. *CAMAg*, unlike *CAMFor*, was developed with direct integration of the *Roth-C* model. Testing of the replication of the models in their new format was undertaken through comparison of results between original and derived models using the same model parameters.

Model Development

When there was confidence that the Excel developmental models were giving the same results as the original source code versions, the Excel models were fully documented and returned for verification to the original authors or host organisations. Modifications were considered only subsequent to this initial review. Modifications were made for a variety of reasons including efficiency in code (computational speed and resources) and in recognition of Australia's different biophysical conditions.

Figure 7.C21. The Forest ‘Side’ of the FullCAM Model.



The subsequent integration into a single compendium of the various sub-models was initially undertaken in Excel as a test version. The prototype forest model derived, *GRC3* (Richards and Evans 2000c) (Figure 7.C21), was subsequently tested by CSIRO (Paul et. al., 2002a).

The NCAS provided considerable investment into the calibration of each of the models for the range of conditions and management practices present throughout Australia. Over a 2–3 year period the total investment, including the data collection and process understanding for model calibration needed to ready the model for initial national application, was in the order of \$9M AUS. Model calibration included the collation of a series of previous (quality audited) site measurements and the undertaking of additional field work and laboratory analyses. Separate data sets were maintained for model calibration and verification of model results.

The subsequent implementation of the calibrated sub-models in a spatial version of *FullCAM* uses a range of spatially continuous and frequently multi-temporal input data layers. This includes data such as that on land cover change, climate and soil type described in previous sections.

The Component Models

3-PG

The adopted version of 3-PG is that described as Version 3-PGpjs 1.0 (Sands 2000). In its original form, this is an Excel version of the model supported by Visual Basic Macros. This was translated into a consistent sheet-based and formula-driven (no Macros) model. Subsequent changes were made to this model to enable spatial application reflecting the previous version development by Coops and Waring (2001) and Landsberg and Kesteven (2001).

The principal work required to implement this model was to compile the fundamental input data. This entailed:

- > the development of slope and aspect corrected solar radiation direct and diffuse surfaces on a 250 m grid;
- > the use of a digital elevation model of AUSLIG – Geodata 9 second DEM (version 2);
- > access to CSIRO Division of Land and Water Fertility and Soil Moisture Continental Surfaces (McKenzie et. al., 2000a);
- > creation of monthly rainfall, temperature and radiation surfaces from ANUCLIM (software package) (McMahon et. al., 1995) and data from the Bureau of Meteorology;
- > derivation of a Normalised Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) 10-year average; and,
- > the development of frost surfaces.

CAMFor

The *CAMFor*, forest carbon accounting model, has its origins in the 1990 CO₂ Fix Model of Mohren and Goldewijk (1990). The published Fortran code for this model was converted to an Excel spreadsheet (sheet based, formula driven) format as reported in Richards and Evans (2000a). A subsequent series of modifications was made including:

- > the introduction of an inert soil carbon pool, recognizing the nature of the carbon in Australian mineral soils, the high charcoal content and the potential long-term protection of fine organic matter through encapsulation and absorption by clays;
- > addition of a fire simulation capacity that could deal with stand-replacing and/or regenerating fires, being either forest floor fires largely removing litter or crown fires affecting the whole tree;
- > the wood product pool structures and life cycles were modified to reflect those cited in the NCAS Technical Report Number 8 (Jaakko Pöyry Consulting 1999);
- > greater resolution was added to the component distinctions of the standing tree material, splitting

coarse and fine roots, branch and leaf material;

- > the potential to override the soil carbon model component by directly entering either field data or externally modelled inputs, and,
- > an added capability to use primary data of aboveground mass increment for accounting, as an alternative to stem volume increment.

Within *FullCAM*, the *CAMFor* sub-model can take its growth information from any one of five sources:

- > net primary productivity (NPP) derived from 3-PG with feedback from management actions (thinnings, etc.) specified in *CAMFor*;
- > a generalised productivity-driven growth model;
- > measures of aboveground biomass increment;
- > measures of stem biomass increment; and
- > measures of stem volume increment.

Material entering the forest debris pool (aboveground coarse and fine litter) and the belowground forest decay pool (root material belowground shed by live biomass) is accounted in either a decomposable or resistant fraction, with the potential to apply distinct decomposition rates to each. If the 3-PG and *CAMFor* models are used together, information flowing from 3-PG to *CAMFor* is the total NPP, as reflected in whole tree productivity. Rules for the allocation to various tree components and for the turnover rates that will affect the standing mass increment at any one time (change in mass as opposed to a total productivity change) are specified within a *CAMFor* table. Neither *CAMFor* nor 3-PG (in this form) deals with number of stems, but work on proportional change to mass per unit area. Thinning activities such as harvest or fire, which are specified in *CAMFor*, are treated as a proportional decrease of biomass and are reflected as an equivalent proportional decrease in canopy cover within 3-PG.

CAMAg

Within *FullCAM*, *CAMAg* serves the same roles for cropping and grazing systems as *CAMFor* does for forests. The *CAMAg* model reflects the impacts of management on carbon accumulation and allocates masses to various plant product pools and to decomposable and resistant organic residues. Yields need to be prescribed in the model, as either aboveground, total or product mass – as do above- and belowground turnover rates. With both *CAMFor* and *CAMAg* embedded within *FullCAM*, it is possible to represent completely transitional activities – afforestation, reforestation and deforestation (change at one site) – or a mix of agricultural and forest systems (e.g., agroforestry, discrete activities at separate sites). Under afforestation and reforestation there is a gradual change from the carbon pool characteristics of the original pasture or cropping system, with the mass of organic matter derived from those systems decomposing and decreasing with declining input. For deforestation, the same applies, but with a large residue of decomposing woody material being the primary change remaining within *CAMFor*.

Within *FullCAM*, *CAMFor* and *CAMAg* can be proportionally represented (as under afforestation, reforestation and deforestation) as the source of carbon input according to the relative proportions of canopy cover under each of the forest (*CAMFor*) and non-forest (*CAMAg*) categories. This also provides capacity for ongoing mixed systems such as agroforestry.

GENDEC

GENDEC is a microbial decomposition model, developed by Moorhead et. al. (1999), which considers the environmental and biological drivers of microbial activity, namely temperature, moisture and substrate quality. *GENDEC* addresses both carbon and nitrogen, relying on nitrogen-to-carbon ratios throughout the decomposition process, and using available nitrogen as a factor which may constrain the rate of microbial activity. When *GENDEC* is brought into operation with *FullCAM*, it can replace the empirical decomposition routines which deal with the resistant decomposable fraction of each aboveground tree component

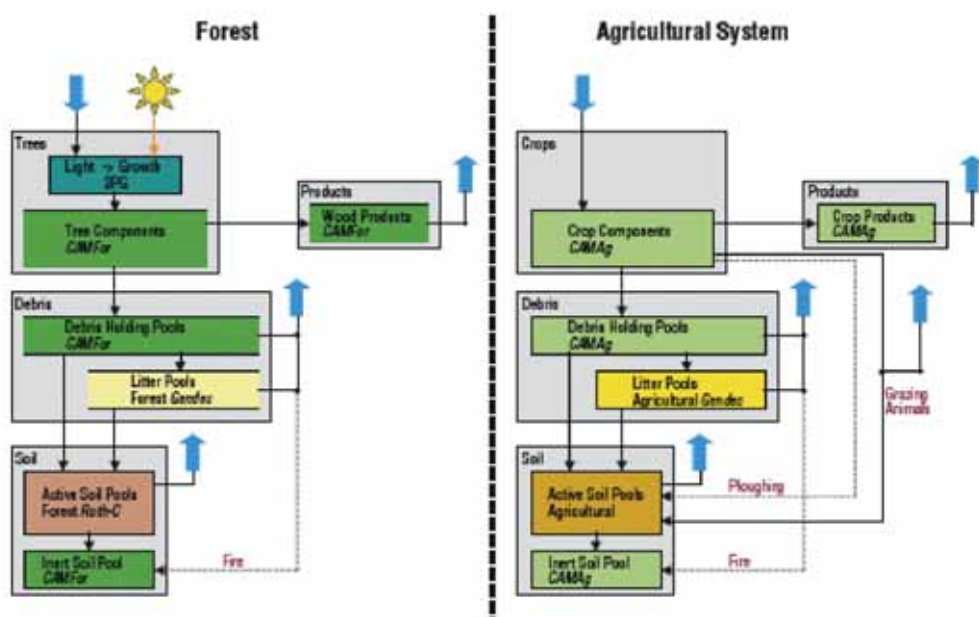
embedded within either or both the *CAMFor* and *CAMAg* components of the model.

The impact of invertebrate activities on the breakdown of debris is addressed within *FullCAM*, whereby the microbial decomposition of *GENDEC* is paralleled by a breakdown factor which can account for losses in aboveground litter due to factors such as macro-invertebrate activity. Root material is incorporated directly into the soil carbon pools, and therefore is subject to the decomposition activities of the Roth-C component of the *FullCAM* model. *GENDEC* is the subject of ongoing calibration studies and will undergo further testing prior to implementation for the national accounting.

Roth-C

The Rothamsted soil carbon (*Roth-C*) model treats pre-determined masses of plant residues which are then split into decomposable and resistant plant material. Required model inputs include the fractionation of soil carbon into various soil carbon pools, generally defined by classes of resistance to decomposition. Turnover rates for each fraction are determined by rainfall, temperature, ground cover and evaporation. For situations where calibration data is available, it is preferable that the Roth-C model be used in conjunction with *CAMFor*. It is a more robust soil model than the simplistic soil carbon routines contained within *CAMFor*. As calibration data is readily available for agricultural systems, *Roth-C* has already been directly integrated into *CAMAg*. *CAMAg* must be operated in conjunction with the *Roth-C* model.

Figure 7.C22. Overview of the FullCAM Model.



Quality Assurance and Quality Control

The development of the *FullCAM* model included the incorporation of previously calibrated and verified models. Testing of integrations was performed using beta versions of transparent Excel modelling. Several independent studies to test and calibrate the model were completed on various parts, integrations and applications of the models. Wide-scale application in government programs (e.g., the Commonwealth Governments Greenhouse Gas Abatement, and Bush for Greenhouse Programs) and commercial application along with independent reviews provide confidence in the robustness of the models.

The NCAS Implementation of FullCAM for Land Use Change Accounting

Information Inputs to FullCAM

The implementation of *FullCAM* includes the sub-models of *CAMFor*, *CAMAg* and *Roth-C*. The 3-PG model is used independently in a modified form to provide annual productivity maps (relative indices on a scale of 1-30) which are averaged from monthly surfaces and drawn in as grids to the spatial application of *FullCAM*. Tree growth is established using the growth formula described previously. To support this form of *FullCAM* model implementation, a series of tabular and spatial databases are used, including:

Maps

- > thirteen sequences of both clearing and regrowth 1972-2005 (25 m);
- > an initial 1972 forest/non-forest mask (25 m);
- > 408 (34x12 months) rainfall maps of Australia (1 km);
- > 408 average temperature maps of Australia (1 km);
- > 34 (annual) top-soil moisture deficit maps of Australia (1 km);
- > a long-term average productivity (index) map of Australia (250 m);
- > 34 (annual) productivity maps of Australia (1 km);
- > a soil clay content map of Australia (250 m);
- > a pre-disturbance soil carbon content map of Australia (250 m).
- > a maximum forest biomass (biomass at maturity) map of Australia (250 m); and,
- > a forest type (MVG) map of Australia (200 m).

Tabular Data (from the *FullCAM* relational database)

- > forest type attributes (partitioning, density etc.);
- > forest litter amounts and characterisation;
- > land use allocations (proportions of land which has been cleared allocated to each land use category by soil type by time);
- > soil fractionation scheme for each soil type;
- > crop type attributes (harvest index, yield etc.); and,
- > crop management (activities, sequencing and timing for land use systems etc.).

Policy Parameters

This application of *FullCAM* provides outputs for Forest land converted to Cropland and Forest land converted to Grassland. Consistent with the treatments of Forest land conversion under the IPCC Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2003) only areas that have been affected by a relevant land cover change are accounted for. This includes land cover change in previous years (since 1972) which can have a 'lagged' impact on carbon stock. Once an area of land is identified as subject to conversion its status is subsequently tracked through time.

The non-CO₂ gas accounting has not yet been developed to the same degree as other elements of the NCAS. However, the *FullCAM* model does output a comprehensive account of the amount of biomass burnt, to which the existing NGGI emissions factors are applied. Appendix E of this report describes in outline the program being developed for non-CO₂ greenhouse gas accounting capability of the NCAS.

Model Outputs

The *FullCAM* model has been developed to provide a variety of outputs, having particular regard to the requirements of the 1996 IPCC (Revised) Guidelines and associated Good Practice Guidance. These are of three general types including point-based, tabular and spatial. As well as being able to operate independently as a point-based model, when applied spatially (Figure 7.C23) *FullCAM* is able to generate point-based models (Figure 7.C24) from the spatial surfaces. These can be output, at a user specified frequency, across the model spatial surface and perform a valuable role in point-based verification of the spatial model implementation.

The point-based models provide detail of all data drawn from spatial layers as well as constants set through the model interface and those parameters drawn from the relational database. Outputs can be graphical or tabular and can (optionally) describe the stock in all carbon pools, all pool transfers and atmospheric losses from each pool for each monthly time step.

Figure 7.C23. Spatial Carbon Stock Change Output (100 m Grids)

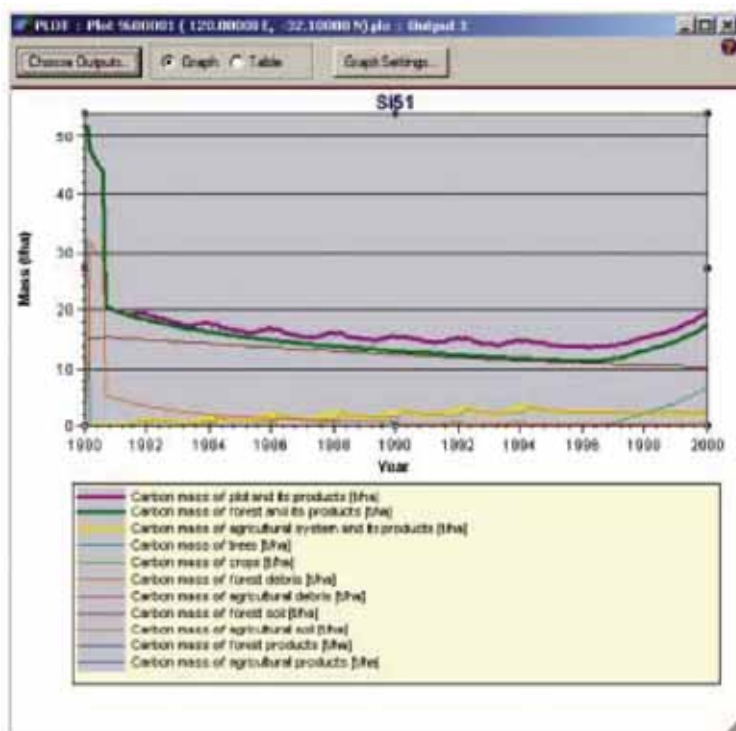


Note: Each 100 m grid has a unique carbon stock change value. The spatial array of source and sink values generally represents the 'proportions' of agricultural practices applied.

Tabular results output by the *FullCAM* model include summaries of input data across the spatial surface, for example, the areas of land cover change (clearing, regrowth, reclearing⁹) each year. The tabular carbon outputs include the total change in carbon stock (including all onsite and offsite carbon pools) due to the modelled activities for each 25 m pixel under consideration. Other carbon outputs include the change in tree mass (of each of above-and belowground), crop mass (total), soil carbon and offsite carbon mass. The amount of biomass burnt is also reported. Spatial 100 m resolution (1 ha) output grids are in a format easily read by most GIS systems. The available spatial outputs are total carbon stock, tree carbon mass, soil carbon mass and product carbon mass (for any point in time). Change over a period of time can be determined by differencing carbon stock maps at the beginning and end of the period under consideration. The 100 m spatial output is used to maintain a manageable output file size as there is the potential to generate many outputs by time and by carbon pool.

⁹ Reclearing is clearing for a second time on a land unit, subsequent to regrowth of an area identified as clearing in the land cover change record.

Figure 7.C24. An Example Point-Based (25 m Grid) Model Output from Western Australia.



Having outputs of both the areas of land cover change and carbon stocks allows for consideration of the lagged emissions that arise from forest conversion. This is crucial to understanding the nexus between rates of land cover change and rates of carbon stock change, as policy response strategies against carbon losses typically focus on the reduction of rates of land cover change. The output information on areas of land cover change distinguishes between first-time and repeat events on a land unit. Spatial overlays can be performed to consider a range of factors such as land cover change pressures on various locations, vegetation types, soil types, under particular climate patterns etc.

Quality Assurance and Quality Control

The combination of spatial outputs and intermittent generation of long-term point-based models allows for verification of results over both space and time. The carbon outputs can be evaluated alongside relevant data on land cover change, climate, vegetation and soil type etc. for verification. The point-based models can be used to review the pick-up of correct spatial data. This is much enhanced by comparative spatial display, e.g., of land cover change against carbon stock change through time. The ability to perform spatial overlays (e.g., carbon change over time against land cover change over time) provides strong visual verification of the carbon outputs. This can be enhanced by the creation of animations that show progress of change in both over time.

Uncertainty

Uncertainty and sensitivity analyses have been an important part of the development of the NCAS programs. Methods development, data compilation, remote sensing and field measurement programs have all been undertaken using sensitivity testing as an integral component. The sensitivity analysis has been targeted at providing an understanding of the key factors in carbon stock change estimation. Priorities in program development have been established around priority improvement in these specific inputs. Sensitivity analyses have mostly been undertaken in the context of *Monte Carlo* type analyses. This has been achieved through the @Risk (Palisade Corporation 1997) software which was applied to both the Excel-based developmental and test models and in direct application in the *FullCAM* model. The results of the uncertainty and sensitivity analyses are variously reported in Brack and Richards (2002), Brack (2001a), Paul et. al. (2002a), Paul et. al. (2003) and Janik et. al. (2002).

The development of the NCAS was undertaken with a clear understanding that there would be imperfect data available, but that the significance of data limitations (and, therefore, priority supplementation) could be fully assessed only in a functional integrated system. It was also recognised that no matter what quality of biophysical data is available, there will almost certainly be an inherent variable quality in that data. This tacit acceptance of variability allowed for a proper focus on matters of accuracy and bias, rather than on potentially unachievable precision. Following from this comes recognition that over a large sample, such as a national inventory derived from an aggregation of fine-scale events, a robust central estimate can be achieved provided that error propagation via biased or 'skewed' inputs is avoided. Over the large sample (several billion 25 m model applications), a bias away from a central estimate is a key item for attention.

The focus of the land cover change program was on any potential bias that may be caused by errors of omission or commission (bias toward inclusion of false change or toward only change where this is absolutely certain). With the extensive QA/QC, verification and continuous improvement programs built into the overall programs, the potential for such bias is insignificant. Ongoing accuracy assessment is built into continuous improvement programs and will provide for ongoing refinement and incremental identification of potential improvements. The biomass estimation program sensitivity analyses were applied in a variety of ways including tests of variability in growth (Brack and Richards 2002; Brack 2001b) and of mass at maturity (Richards and Brack 2004a). Tests were also undertaken of root-to-shoot ratios and wood density.

Variability in growth over time and wood density were shown to be the most sensitive factors in biomass estimation. Variability in growth has been accommodated via the multi-temporal productivity mapping which is used to 'moderate' growth according to the prevailing climate (as is reflected in the temporal variability in the productivity mapping). The method used in this application of *FullCAM* to estimate biomass and biomass increment provides a direct measure of aboveground mass, so no measure of wood density is required to convert volume into mass. This approach is described in Richards and Brack (2004a). As shown in Snowdon et. al. (2000) there is limited information available on root-to-shoot ratios for tree species. The adopted ratios represent the best estimates from the variable data available. There is no cause, from the data available, to presume that there is any bias introduced, despite the evident lack of precision (variability) in the data.

The low sensitivity of the modelling to the root-to-shoot ratio is largely due to the compensatory effects of regrowth. As regrowth is accounted for in the modelling, over- or under-estimates in losses due to forest conversion will be compensated for by a symmetrical over- or under-estimate in regrowth.

The mass estimation of the initial (1972) biomass has been constrained to the available known mass measures as is reported in Richards and Brack (2004a). The approach provides a 'measured' or empirical constraint derived from field measurements to the process-based modelling. While the data available is variable (imprecise), the method used to develop a best fit mathematical model of the available data was reviewed for potential to derive biased error estimates. Unbiased error estimates provide reassurance that bias is not occurring in the mathematical model and should therefore not be expressed or propagated in model application.

Both the multi-temporal productivity mapping and climate mapping were subjected to independent quality assurance, providing confidence that the use of these data products does not provide a potential source of bias in the modelling. The spatial and temporal resolution provided by these products reduces the significant potential for bias in soil carbon models that has been shown to arise from spatially or temporally averaged data inputs (Janik et. al., 2002). Extensive sensitivity testing of the soil carbon modelling, as reported in Janik et. al. (2002) and Paul et. al. (2002a), showed the need for input data at a fine temporal and spatial resolution, as regionally and temporally averaged data provided uncertain, and frequently spurious, results. The use of input data at appropriate scale, and verification against relevant field measurements, were the main forms of uncertainty reduction.

The most extensive sensitivity testing was undertaken for the soil carbon model calibration and verification program. The multi-faceted testing included reviews of model performance against measured chronosequence soils pairs and long-term trial data. The model calibration and verification as reported in Skjemstad and Spouncer (2002) gives no cause to suspect that there is any bias from model over- or under-estimation. Under the highly spatially and temporally disaggregated approaches taken, variance in input data for each grid (25 m) of the model run (presuming it is without skew in the variability in inputs) will, over a large sample, provide a robust and stable central estimate. In terms of uncertainty and potentially biased estimates, this is a significant advance on the default approaches which use constants (emissions factors) to define the change in stock as suggested under Tier 1 and Tier 2 accounting as described in the IPCC Inventory Guidelines.

ATTACHMENT 7.C1: MAJOR VEGETATION GROUPINGS CLASSIFIED BY THE NATIONAL VEGETATION INFORMATION SYSTEM

Group 1. Rainforest and Vine Thickets

Rainforest communities in Australia are mostly confined to the wet and cooler areas or climatic refuges in eastern Australia, apart from the semi-evergreen vine thickets of the Brigalow Belt and the monsoonal vine thickets that are found in the tropics in Western Australia and the Northern Territory. Community types include cool temperate rainforest, sub-tropical rainforest, tropical rainforest, vine thickets, and semi-deciduous and deciduous vine thickets. Rainforests were cleared extensively in the late 19th or early 20th centuries for high value timbers, dairying, tobacco/sugar cane or other agricultural production. The best known examples of this are the "Big Scrubs" of Illawarra and northern New South Wales and the Atherton Tableland in north Queensland.

Group 2. Eucalyptus Tall Open Forests

These communities are restricted to all but the wetter areas of eastern Australia from the margins of the wet tropical rainforests of north Queensland to Tasmania, and the south west of Western Australia, often in rugged mountainous areas. At their maximum development in Tasmania and parts of Victoria, they contain the world's

tallest flowering plants, with some trees rising to heights in excess of 100 m. These communities are typified by a well-developed often broad-leaved shrubby understorey or sometimes tree ferns and are mostly found adjacent to, or in association with, rainforest communities. Extensive areas of these communities were cleared for agriculture and grazing early in the 20th century, particularly where they occurred in association with rainforests. Major areas remain today in crown reserves as State Forests or National Parks.

Group 3. Eucalyptus Open Forests

Widespread along the sub-coastal plains and foothills and ranges of the Great Dividing Range in eastern Australia and the sub-coastal ranges of the south west of Western Australia. Generally this group has a shrubby understorey which is low to moderate in height, but in drier sites they may have a grassy understorey with scattered shrubs and/or cycads. There has been widespread clearing of these communities for grazing and agriculture in the major agricultural zones of eastern Australia and the south west of Western Australia. The rate of clearing in these communities by the early 20th century saw the development of crown reserves for the protection of forests, either as national parks or as production forests, and the establishment of Forestry departments within several jurisdictions.

Group 4. Eucalyptus Low Open Forest

This group contains a series of montane communities of the Great Dividing Range such as Snow Gum, Red Stringybark and Scribbly Gum, and the drier Jarrah communities in the south west of Western Australia. Extensive areas of these communities have been cleared principally for grazing.

Group 5. Eucalyptus Woodlands

Widespread throughout the mountain ranges and plains west of the divide in Eastern Australia and east of the sub-coastal ranges of south west Western Australia. This group includes a series of communities, which have come to typify inland Australia. For example the box (poplar box, white box, yellow box etc.) and ironbark woodlands of eastern Australia are included in this group. The Eucalyptus woodlands have been extensively cleared and modified, particularly in the agricultural zones of eastern Australia and in south west Western Australia. In many regions only small isolated fragments remain today, in many instances found only along creeks and road verges.

Group 6. Acacia Forests and Woodlands

Brigalow (*Acacia harpophylla*) and Mulga (*A. aneura*) dominate this group with mulga covering large parts of the arid interior of the continent. A series of other acacias such as Lancewood (*A. shirelyii*) and Myall (*A. pendula*) are also included. Mulga is one of the most widespread species on the continent, occurring on a series of forest, woodland and shrubland communities. The Mulga and Brigalow communities of eastern Australia have been extensively cleared for grazing and agriculture and in many regions only scattered remnants are found today. Mulga communities in the arid interior have not been subject to clearing to the same degree but many areas have been subject to modification by grazing pressures from cattle/sheep and feral animals, and increased macropod populations supported by the increased availability of water from bores.

Group 7. Callitris Forests and Woodlands

Cypress Pine forests are found mostly in a series of discrete regions, notably in the Brigalow Belt, but also in the arid areas in South Australia and in association with mallee communities near the South Australia – Victoria border. Extensive areas have been cleared for grazing in the Brigalow Belt and in the Mallee bio regions in

particular, but major areas are included in State Forests and other crown reserves in Queensland and New South Wales.

Group 8. Casuarina Forest and Woodland

Containing both *Casuarina* and *Allocasuarina* genera, these occur in a series of quite distinct communities, notably foredune (*C. equisetifolia*) communities, swamp (*C. glauca*) communities, riverine (*C. cunninghamiana*) and desert (*C. cristata*) communities. These communities have been extensively cleared in many coastal areas for agriculture, or for industrial uses or urban developments. Areas in the arid zone are subject to modification by grazing of domestic stock and from feral herbivores.

Group 9. Melaleuca Forest and Woodland

These cover substantial areas in the tropical north, but are also found in temperate climates most often in or adjoining coastal or montane wetlands. These communities have been extensively cleared in many coastal areas for agriculture or housing near major cities. Extensive areas remain in the tropical north, in particular southern Cape York Peninsula.

Group 10. Other Forests and Woodlands

This is a diverse group of communities, some of which such as *Banksia* woodland are comparatively restricted in their extent, but may be locally abundant. It also includes a series of mixed communities of the arid zone, which are not dominated by any particular species. These communities have been extensively cleared in many coastal areas for agriculture or urban uses. Extensive areas remain in the arid zone but are subject to modification by grazing of domestic stock and from feral herbivores.

Group 11. Eucalyptus Open Woodland

These cover extensive areas of the arid zone or drier tropical north mostly with a shrubby or grassy ground layer. Little of this group has been cleared. Many areas have been subject to modification by grazing of domestic stock and from feral herbivores.

Group 12. Tropical Eucalyptus Woodlands/Grasslands

This group contains the so-called tall bunch-grass savannas of north Western Australia and related *Eucalyptus* woodland and *Eucalyptus* open woodland communities in the Northern Territory and in far north Queensland, including Cape York Peninsula. They are typified by the presence of a suite of tall annual grasses, notably *Sorghum* spp, but does not include communities in more arid sites where *Triodia* spp becomes more dominant. The fundamental difference between how Western Australia and the Northern Territory and Queensland describe these vegetation communities, necessitated their separation into a separate MVG.

Group 13. Acacia Open Woodland

These also cover extensive areas of the arid zone or drier tropical north mostly with a shrubby or grassy ground layer such as Blue Grass (*Dicanthium sericeum*). *Eucalyptus* species such as the Yapunyah (*E. thozetiana*) may also be present. Little of this group has been cleared but many areas have been subject to modification by grazing of domestic stock and from feral herbivores.

Group 14. Mallee Woodland and Shrublands

Multi-stemmed eucalyptus trees in association with a broad range of other shrubs or grasses cover extensive areas of the southern arid zone from Victoria to the south west of Western Australia. The mallee communities in Victoria and parts of South Australia have been extensively cleared, with only isolated remnants remaining in some areas, but these communities are still widespread in the arid zone of South Australia and Western Australia. These are subject to modification by grazing of domestic stock and from feral herbivores.

Group 15. Low Closed Forests and Closed Shrublands

These dense communities are found mostly in coastal environments, for example *Kunzea* and *Leptospermum* scrubs, or sub-coastal plains e.g., *Banksia* scrubs, and can cover significant areas. They also occur in rugged mountainous areas, such as sub-alpine areas in Tasmania. They have been extensively cleared in many coastal areas for agriculture or urban development.

Group 16. Acacia Shrublands

Mulga, Gidgee and mixed species communities of the central Australian deserts dominate this group, but it also includes a series of other desert acacia communities. Little of this group has been cleared outside of the major agricultural zones, but they have been subject to modification by grazing from domestic stock and from feral herbivores.

Group 17. Other Shrublands

This is a diverse group containing a series of communities dominated mainly by genera from the *Mrytaceae* family. *Kunzea*, *Leptospermum* and *Melaleuca* shrublands are important component of this group, but it also includes a suite of mixed arid zone communities and other communities dominated by typical inland genera such as *Eremophila* and *Senna*. This group has been extensively cleared in the agricultural regions and in coastal areas adjoining major cities. In the arid zone, little of this group has been cleared but many areas have been subject to modification by grazing of domestic stock and from feral herbivores.

Group 18. Heath

This group includes the stunted (< 1 m tall) vegetation of the coastal sand masses, typified by the family *Epacridaceae* and also other dense low shrublands in sub-coastal or inland environments, mostly on drainage impeded soils or natural hollows or depressions. The communities have been cleared for sand mining, agriculture and urban development.

Group 19. Tussock Grassland

This group contains a broad range of native grasslands from the Blue Grass and Mitchell Grass communities in the far north to the temperate grasslands of Southern New South Wales, Victoria and Tasmania. The group contains many widespread genera including *Aristida*, *Astrelba*, *Austrodanthonia*, *Austrostipa*, *Crysopogon*, *Dichanthium*, *Enneapogon*, *Eragrostis*, *Eriachne*, *Heteropogon*, *Poa*, *Themeda*, *Sorghum* and *Zygochloa* and many mixed species communities. Extensive areas of this group have been cleared and replaced by exotic pasture species and most other areas have been subject to modification by grazing, weed invasion and land management practices associated with grazing domestic stock, such as frequent fire and the application of fertilisers.

Group 20. Hummock Grassland

The spinifex (*Triodia spp.* and *Plechrachne spp.*) communities of the arid lands are quintessential to the Australian outback. These cover extensive areas of the continent either as the dominant growth form with the occasional emergent shrub or small tree (either acacia or eucalypt). They are also a conspicuous element of other communities such as open woodlands. Little of this group has been cleared but many areas have been subject to modification by grazing of domestic stock and from feral herbivores.

Group 21. Other Grasslands, Herbland, Sedgeland and Rushland

This diverse group contains a series of communities, some of which are restricted within the landscape, some of which occur as mosaics and others that are otherwise too small or diffuse across the landscape to be easily discerned at a continental scale.

Group 22. Chenopod Shrub, Samphire Shrub and Forbland

The chenopods such as Saltbush (*Atriplex spp.*) and Bluebush (*Maireana spp.*), cover extensive areas of the arid interior on saline soils. They are also associated with the ephemeral salt lakes of these arid areas, often in association with samphires such as *Halosarcia* species. Similarly, some forbland communities contain a mix of species including samphires and chenopods. Other forblands containing Asteraceae species are found in Queensland.

Group 23. Mangrove, Tidal Mudflat, Samphire, Claypan, Salt Lakes, Bare Areas, Sand, Rock, Lagoons and Freshwater Lakes

Mangroves vary from extensive tall closed forest communities on Cape York Peninsula to low closed forests or shrublands in southern regions. Samphires are found in the coastal mudflats and marine plains, adjoining mangrove areas in many instances, but they also cover extensive marine plains inland from the southern Gulf of Carpentaria and other parts of the tropical north. In the harsh environments of the arid interior extensive areas devoid of vegetation can be found as bare ground, either sand dune, claypan or salt lakes. Similarly, the coastal sand masses can often contain extensive areas of bare sands, mostly as active dunes. In mountainous areas, large areas of bare rock, or scree may be a feature of the landscape. This is particularly the case where large rocky outcrops dominant the landscape, such as Uluru and the Olgas in central Australia, Bald Rock in northern New South Wales and many examples of large monadnocks in the south west of Western Australia. Widespread clearing or infilling of mangroves and tidal mudflats in coastal areas near urban major centres for industrial uses or urban developments.

APPENDIX 7.D: HARVESTED WOOD PRODUCTS

Introduction

Wood product carbon emissions are considered under the 1996 (Revised) IPCC Guidelines for the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (IPCC 1997) and associated Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2003) and are reported in the *Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry* component of Australia's National Greenhouse Gas Inventory where they arise from the service life of products. Emissions from landfill are reported under the Waste section of the inventory.

A national database of domestic wood production, including import and export quantities, has been maintained in Australia since 1944. This consistent and detailed collection of time-series data provides a sound basis for the development of a national wood products model. Jaakko Pöyry Consulting were initially engaged by the National Carbon Accounting System (NCAS) of the Australian Greenhouse Office to develop a national carbon accounting model for wood products, and that work provides the precursor model to that adapted and described here. The model development is reported in detail in the National Carbon Accounting System Technical Reports No. 8 (Jaakko Pöyry Consulting 1999) and No. 24 (Jaakko Pöyry Consulting 2000). Updates and model refinement were subsequently undertaken by MBAC Consulting in conjunction with the NCAS. Jaakko Pöyry Consulting subsequently provided a quality assurance review of the model.

Accounting Approaches

Accounting approaches for carbon emissions from timber harvesting and wood products considered include emissions from wood products in Australia (wherever the source). This approach accounts for emissions from all wood products within Australia, regardless of their country of origin. Exported wood products are not accounted for and are the responsibility of the importing country. The amount of material exported is deducted from the total production, with total imports added, to derive the amount of material available for emissions within Australia. The origin of imported wood products is not tracked. However, the total flow of imported wood products into various pools within Australia is monitored.

Model Components

Information has been obtained and examined under the following components of the model:

- > log flow from the forest: current annual production data were obtained by species groupings, and product classes, e.g., sawlogs, veneer logs, pulp logs, roundwood and other, e.g., sleepers;
- > fibre flow from processing: data on the intake of raw materials to the various processing options and the output of products and by-products have been used in the model to estimate the total tonnes of carbon produced each year under various end product classes;
- > import and export quantities of wood products;
- > recycling;
- > entry and decomposition in landfill;
- > use for bioenergy; and,
- > other losses to atmosphere.

Life Cycles and the Wood Products Carbon Pool

Estimates of the life cycles appropriate for each class of wood product have been made and methods for estimating the initial pool of carbon, as represented by wood products in use since 1943, have been proposed. Annual log removals data are available through the Australian Forests Products Statistics published quarterly

by the Australian Bureau of Agricultural and Resource Economics (ABARE). Data are also available through the Levies Management Unit of the Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forests, on behalf of the Forest and Wood Products Research and Development Corporation (FWPRDC). Log removals data are also published by the relevant State Forest Services and these provide a valuable crosscheck on ABARE data.

Cypress pine removals are included under the total for coniferous logs and a separate figure is not provided. It is necessary to extract cypress pine volume and analyse separate from softwood sawmilling because:

- > Cypress pine is a significant source of wood products;
- > Cypress pine is a native conifer and softwood sawmilling largely refers to exotic species plantations; and,
- > Cypress pine is a denser wood than exotic pines and is used by a totally separate industry supplying different products to the market.

A Cypress pine figure can be developed from the ABARE information by applying a conversion factor to sawnwood consumption and applying a conversion factor to convert back to equivalent log removals.

Wood Flow

The model develops wood flows separately for each sector and these are integrated to account for cross-linkages. This is particularly important in the accounting for waste or by-products which are themselves used as resources for other segments of the industry. In conjunction with the carbon pool and life cycle of timber products, this model enables the total and projected carbon pools to be estimated.

In broad terms, the components of the models developed for each sector are similar, using:

- > an estimate of raw materials input, whether of sawlogs, woodchips ex-sawmill, or pulp logs;
- > an estimate of the products of processing, e.g., "x"% sawdust, shavings or sander dust for on site energy generation or compost, "y"% woodchips for other manufacturing processes, "z"% of sawn timber products, panel products, paper, etc.;
- > an estimate of the proportion of products by product categories, depending on whether their expected end-use is long-term or short-term; e.g., framing timber, dry dressed boards, cases and pallet stock, panel products for use in house construction, panelboards for use in furniture and cabinets, newsprint paper, writing and printing paper, etc;
- > a final figure for total Australian consumption by end use categories, converted to wood fibre content (oven-dry weight) and to tonnes of carbon;
- > import and export data were obtained from the ABARE (2006b) by end use categories; and,
- > details of the flows are shown in Attachment D1.

Treatment of Bark

There has been no accounting for bark in this study. All bark is regarded as being a component of logging slash (harvesting residue) and accounted for under in-forest logging operations, for the following reasons:

- > logs are sold with log volumes recorded on an underbark basis;
- > in most hardwood operations, logs are debarked in the field;
- > in softwood operations, it is estimated that some bark is lost prior to the logs reaching the mill. Most of this loss occurs during the mechanised delimbing and log docking operations; and,
- > most softwood bark recovered at the mill is used for garden mulch which it is considered would have decay characteristics similar to that of logging slash.

Softwood bark is a significant source of carbon with total bark varying from about 35% of underbark log

volume (not oven dry weight) in Caribbean pine to 20% in radiata pine and hoop pine. It is likely that, in the future, an increasing proportion of softwood bark will be used in the co-generation of energy and it may be reasonable to review this proposal should the situation change.

Basic Density and Carbon Content

Basic density and carbon content estimates are relevant to all of the processing options and the choice of values adopted has a significant bearing on the final outcome. In the case of all sawn timber, treated softwood and hardwood poles, etc., weighted basic densities for the species involved have been applied across each category. Basic density is defined as oven dry weight divided by green volume and the values adopted have been based on Illic et. al. (2000). For board products and paper, however, the situation is different because all have been subjected to varying amounts of compression during manufacture and to compensate for this, their basic densities have been adjusted accordingly from the air-dry density of the finished products.

Carbon content is defined variably throughout the literature with values ranging from 0.4 to 0.53 of the oven dry (bone dry) weight. A figure of 0.5 has been adopted as a starting point to use in the model as a median value extracted from Gifford (2000a).

Table 7.D1: Basic Densities, Moisture and Carbon Contents

Carbon Fractions	
Description	Value
Fraction of softwood sawmilling dry matter that is carbon, by weight	0.50
Fraction of particleboard dry matter that is carbon, by weight	0.40
Fraction of MDF dry matter that is carbon, by weight	0.40
Basic Densities *	
Description	Value kg/m³
Density of softwood sawmilling	460
Density of hardwood sawmilling	630
Density of cypress sawmilling	600
Density of plywood (softwood and hardwood) and veneer	540
Density of particleboard	520
Density of MDF	600
Density of hardboard	930
Density of softboard	230
Density of pulp and paper: Paper	1,000
Density of pulp and paper: Softwood	430
Basic Densities *	
Density of pulp and paper: Hardwood	500
Density of pulp and paper: Waste paper	1,000
Density of pulp and paper: Pulp	1,000
Density of paper and paperboard imports and exports, on average	1,000
Density of chips and logs for export: Softwood logs	415
Density of chips and logs for export: Hardwood logs	630
Density of hardwood poles, sleepers and miscellaneous	790
* Basic density = (mass of oven dry wood in kg) / (volume of green wood in m ³)	
Moisture Content of Green Wood	
Description	Value
Ratio of weight of water to weight of wood substance in softwood chips	1.10
Ratio of weight of water to weight of wood substance in hardwood chips	0.90

Apart from the assumptions concerning basic density and carbon content, the other manufacturing assumptions were developed from interviews with representatives from the various industry associations and individual sawmilling companies. The issues addressed included:

- > recoveries of green sawn timber, sawdust and chip;
- > actual sawn sizes and corresponding dressed sizes; and,
- > the range and proportions of products produced.

For the softwood sawmilling industry, for example, weighted averages of the information received have provided realistic assumptions. The same applies to the other species/industry sectors, with the exception of hardwood sawmilling.

Wood Flows from Processing

Wood flows in the various wood products produced in Australia have been developed under the following species/industry headings:

- > Softwood sawmilling;
- > Hardwood sawmilling;
- > Cypress sawmilling;
- > Plywood;
- > Particleboard and medium density fibreboard (MDF);
- > Pulp and paper;
- > Preservative treated softwood;
- > Hardboard;
- > Hardwood poles, sleepers and miscellaneous; and,
- > Export of woodchips and logs.

Softwood Sawmilling

The softwood sawmilling industry in Australia is largely based on plantations of exotic pines, although the native pine, hoop pine, is grown in southern Queensland. Most plantations were initiated around the 1930s. Early development was slow, but momentum was gained in the 1960s and 1970s.

Softwood processing has become very efficient, highly mechanised and well integrated industry, comparable with any of its overseas counterparts. Most softwood mills are large, with up to 500,000 m³/year log intake. Most of the sawn timber is seasoned and dressed. Value-adding options such as machine stress grading, glue lamination and finger jointing are common.

Nearly all softwood mills are now operating on zero waste, with all slabs and edgings being chipped for paper pulp or panelboard feedstock and the sawdust and shavings being used for boiler fuel to provide energy for kiln drying. In some cases, some of this material is sold for composting, but this is unlikely to continue if the co-generation of electricity becomes more financially attractive.

A basic density of 415 kg/m³ is used. This is sourced from Illic et. al. (2000) and Gardner and Ximenes (*pers. comm.*); and is based on a weighted average of the respective densities of radiata pine, slash pine, Caribbean pine and hoop pine that are harvested.

The destinations of sawlogs and sawn timber products were sourced from representative sawmills in South Australia, Tasmania, Queensland and the ACT and from Pine Australia. Import and export figures were derived from ABARE 2006b.

Hardwood Sawmilling

The hardwood sawmilling sector is quite different from the softwood sector being characterised by a large number of small mills; even the very few large hardwood mills are much smaller than the average softwood mill. In recent years, the hardwood industry has undergone considerable change in response to reductions in their traditional resource base and to the impact that softwood framing has had on the traditional green hardwood framing market and also due growing restrictions in the utilisation of native hardwood forests.

As indicated earlier, the hardwood plantation resource is expanding and removals from hardwood plantations have been included in the total hardwood removals. Most of this material is currently of pulp log quality, but more sawlogs will be harvested as the resource matures. There is a reasonable degree of integration in the hardwood industry, however integration is difficult for the smaller more remote mills.

The hardwood sawmilling industry is far more complex and varied than any of the other sectors. There are at least 10 major species throughout the country, all having different densities and shrinkage rates, and to a great extent having different end uses. This sector has not been addressed in nearly the same detail as was applied to the softwood sawmilling sector and the outcome should be regarded as indicative only.

Assumptions on the product out-turn from hardwood sawmilling were sourced from the Victorian Association of Forest Industries and a large sawmilling company operating mills in Queensland, NSW and Tasmania. Sawlog volumes produced and import/export data have been sourced from ABARE.

A basic density of 630 kg/m³ is assumed for hardwood sawlogs. This is an average of the following ten commonly logged hardwoods: spotted gum (*Corymbia maculata*), blackbutt (*Eucalyptus pilularis*), rose gum (*E. grandis*), jarrah (*E. marginata*), karri (*E. diversicolor*), mountain ash (*E. regnans*), alpine ash (*E. delegatensis*), silvertop (*E. sieberi*), brown barrel (*E. fastigata*) and messmate stringybark (*E. obliqua*). The basic density assumed for poles and sleepers is 790 kg/m³. This is an average of spotted gum, ironbark and blackbutt - the main species used.

Hardwood chips are lower in average density than either sawlogs or poles and sleepers as they contain a wider range of species as well as younger regrowth and plantation material. An average basic density of 570 kg/m³ is assumed. This is sourced from Chin (*pers. comm.*) of CSIRO.

Cypress Sawmilling

The Cypress sawmilling industry is restricted to the native cypress pine forests in Queensland and New South Wales. The quantity of logs removed is small and the data are currently included in the coniferous forest information in the ABARE quarterly reports (ABARE 2006b).

The industry consists of several relatively small, low technology mills operating on a scattered resource. Because of the distances involved, integration with other processing sectors is difficult; however some Cypress pine chips are being used in panelboard manufacture. The products are principally green framing and high value flooring and dressed panelling.

Plywood (Softwood and Hardwood) and Veneer

The Australian plywood industry is based principally on plantation grown softwoods and about 8% hardwoods, both native and plantation grown. Large, high quality logs for which premium prices are paid, are preferred. In volume terms, the plywood industry is small, but it uses high technology and produces a variety of products.

In addition to plywood veneer, sliced or rotary peeled decorative veneer is produced in small quantities for furniture, door and panel overlays. This production is not recorded separately by ABARE. Jaakko Pöyry

Consulting (2000) estimated annual production is less than 10,000 m³. Data sources used in the model for plywood were from ABARE 2006b and the Plywood Association of Australia.

Particleboard and Medium Density Fibreboard (MDF)

The characteristics of these two wood panelboards are different, but their feedstock and end use product categories are similar. Their densities are, however, different. Particleboard and MDF plants are large-scale operations and they are usually located close to their resource. Both require low cost material as input using either small logs unsuited to sawmilling, or woodchips produced as a by-product of sawmilling. Most of the feedstock is from softwood plantations, although some regrowth hardwood is being used in a plant in Tasmania and some cypress pine is being used in a plant in Queensland. In terms of trade, Australia is a net exporter of particleboard and MDF. The industry source used for information on processing assumptions in the model was the Australian Wood Panels Association.

Pulp and Paper

Pulp and paper plants are very large-scale industries requiring large volumes of low cost resource. Plantation grown softwood fibre provides the major resource but hardwood and recycled fibre is also important. Accounting for this sector is complicated by the fact that recycled fibre is exported and pulp is imported. Australia has five pulp and paper mills.

While ABARE data provides some information, the Pulp and Paper Manufacturers Federation of Australia (PPMFA) provided a more detailed source of information. The production figures used are derived from assumed raw material usage and conversion figures rather than reported industry figures. This is important for modelling wood flows through the product cycle and is consistent with the approach used in the model for other industry sectors, apart from export woodchips, which uses ABARE statistics for export quantities in bone dry tonnes.

The model-derived paper production estimates are 15% lower than the ABARE or PPMFA figures. The reason for this is that the model calculates the wood-only raw material requirements for pulp and paper in "oven dry tonnes" while pulp reported figures are in "air dry tonnes" which contain approximately 10% moisture and 2-25% of non-wood fillers depending on the process.

A complicating factor in the assumptions on waste with the pulp and paper stream is the fact that mills vary dramatically in their recovery according to type. Kraft pulp mills typically have a low yield of fibre (@ 50%) whereas thermo-mechanical mills have a high yield (@ 95%). The manufacture of recycled paper also results in a lower yield of fibre. Based on weighted inputs, a yield of 70% has been adopted.

Preservative Treated Softwood

Both hardwood and softwood can be preservative treated, but only softwood has been allocated a separate category. This is because treated sawn softwood has some use categories which are different to untreated softwood, whereas hardwood is usually treated so that the sapwood can be protected against borer attack and its use is then the same as for untreated hardwood.

Treated softwood poles and posts have also been included with sawn softwood, but treated hardwood poles and piles have been included with sleepers and other miscellaneous hardwood products. The ABARE statistics do not list treated timber of any description. The information used in the model has been obtained from the Timber Preservers Association of Australia.

Hardboard

The hardboard industry in Australia is quite small, with only two plants in operation. One is at Ipswich (Queensland) and the other is at Raymond Terrace (NSW). Hardwood is used for feedstock, sourced from pulp logs and sawmill residue.

The technology is quite old, but the products are unique and have niche markets that are likely to endure the competition from other panel products. Both hardboard producers were contacted during the study for manufacturing assumptions.

Hardwood Poles, Sleepers and Miscellaneous

The existing stock of hardwood transmission poles in Australia is reputed to number about 6,000,000 and production is estimated to be about 100,000 poles per annum, equivalent to about 75,000 m³ of log. Railway sleepers also represent a considerable resource, and although concrete sleepers are now used for all new work, timber sleepers will continue to be used for the maintenance of secondary lines. 'Miscellaneous' includes a range of products such as mining, fencing and landscaping timbers. The log removals information for this group is conflicting and difficult to uncover. A provisional constant of 184,400 m³ has been proposed for use in the model and further work is recommended.

*Log and Woodchip Exports*Woodchip Exports

Export woodchips constitute a significant proportion of the annual harvest from Australian forests. The ABARE quarterly forest products statistics report both bone dry tonnes (BDt) of softwood chips and BDt of hardwood chips exported. The model uses the ABARE reported export figures directly in bone dry tonnes.

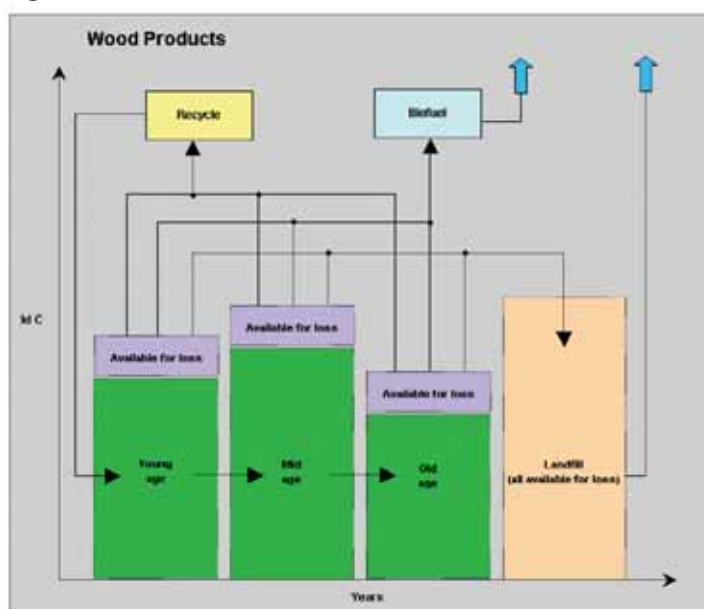
Log Exports

Total exports of coniferous logs reported by ABARE (2006b) consist of both sawlog and pulp log. New South Wales exports approximately 7,000 m³ of short length poles / year.

Life Span of Timber Products (Recycling and Landfill)

The life span of wood products must be taken into account when ascertaining the quantity of carbon stored in timber products. Considerable attention has been given to subdividing the various timber products pools into different classes based on product and decay rates. The decay rates used assume that losses of material from service life will increase with product age. Therefore the entry and exit of material from production to loss from each product pool is tracked and aged according to three age classes; young, medium and old. The proportion of material lost from each pool may vary (e.g., there may be little loss from young pools (excluding those to the medium age class)). Material is lost at a constant rate and may be placed in landfill, recycled, used for bioenergy or lost to the atmosphere (e.g., burnt with no energy capture) (Figure 7.D1).

Figure 7.D1. Structure of the Wood Products Model



For shorter-term products, the impact of the size of previous stocks is fairly slight as the recent additions to the pools have the major impact. For long-term products, an estimate of the size of the initial pool is essential, but difficult. The size of the housing pool uses housing starts data. Other pools are also only estimates. The proportion of the pool that has been derived from Australian-grown wood is required in order to implement an approach that separately deals with imported wood products. However, this component is difficult to estimate and estimates should be treated with some caution.

Life Span Pools Assumed for the Carbon Model

Very short-term products – Pool 1

Softwood – pallets and cases.

Plywood – formboard.

Paper and paper products.

Age: young = 1; medium = 2; old = 3

Short-term products – Pool 2

Hardwood – pallets and palings.

Particleboard and MDF – shop fitting, DIY, miscellaneous.

Hardboard – packaging.

Age: young = 3; medium = 6; old = 10

Medium-term products – Pool 3

Plywood – other (noise barriers).

Particleboard and MDF – kitchen and bathroom cabinets, furniture.

Preservative treated pine – decking and palings.

Hardwood – sleepers and other miscellaneous hardwood products.

Age: young = 10; medium = 20; old = 30

Long-term products - Pool 4

Preservative treated pine – poles and roundwood.

Softwood – furniture.

Hardwood – poles, piles and girders.

Age: young = 20; medium = 30; old = 50

Very long-term products – Pool 5

Softwood – framing, dressed products (flooring, lining, mouldings).

Cypress – green framing, dressed products (flooring, lining).

Hardwood – green framing, dried framing, flooring and boards, furniture timber.

Plywood – structural, LVL, flooring, bracing, lining.

Particleboard and MDF – flooring and lining.

Hardboard – weathertex, lining, bracing, underlay.

Preservative treated pine – sawn structural timber.

Age: young = 30; medium = 50; old = 90

A specified proportion of material may be lost annually (an exponential loss) from each age class of each product pool. The amount lost from each age class for each product pool can be capped and different proportions can be lost according to age. This feature of the model provides for 'steps' in product loss rather than functioning on either a simple linear or exponential loss applied to a whole product pool, irrespective of the average age of the pool. If inputs vary over time the average age of products will vary, and this is represented by the amounts of material in each age class of each product pool.

Initial Stock Assumptions

Input data is available for the model since 1944 and this has the benefit of allowing the model to establish new equilibrium pools as the input material may be 'turned-over' several times prior to an equilibrium stock being reached for recent years. Initial stock estimation (for 1944) is more important for Pool 5 as this material may remain in use.

Model Calibration

Once the data on production inputs, processing flows and initial stocks is determined other model calibration requirements include:

- > the age at which material moves from young to medium and medium to old pools;
- > the amount of each age class for each product pool exposed to loss;
- > the rate of loss from each age class in each product pool;
- > the fraction of losses from each age class in each product pool to each of landfill, recycling, bioenergy and the atmosphere; and,
- > the rate of loss from landfill.

The model estimates used are presented in Tables 7.D2 and 7.D3.

Table 7.D2. Decomposition Rates and Maximum Possible Loss

Pool	YOUNG		MEDIUM		OLD	
	Loss Yr -1	Max. Possible Loss (%)	Loss Yr -1	Max. Possible Loss (%)	Loss Yr -1	Max. Possible Loss (%)
1	1.0	0.60	0.500	0.65	0.333	0.90
2	0.333	0.30	0.167	0.50	0.100	0.90
3	0.10	0.15	0.050	0.65	0.033	0.45
4	0.05	0.25	0.033	0.65	0.020	0.80
5	0.033	0.20	0.020	0.55	0.011	0.95

Table 7.D3. Fraction of Losses from Product Pool to Landfill, Recycling and Biofuel

Pool	Landfill	Recycling	Bioenergy
1	0.44	0.49	0.04
2	0.75	0.20	0.05
3	0.95	0.05	0
4	0.85	0.15	0
5	0.85	0.10	0.05

To understand the impact of uncertainties, *Monte Carlo* analyses using the Palisade @Risk software (Palisade 1997) was applied. This approach is also able to identify model sensitivities. Through this, it is possible to identify where uncertainty in parameter estimation may be most significant in terms of a probability distribution of expected outcomes, and to focus future data collection on areas that will have greatest impact on reducing uncertainties.

Model Results

By integrating the carbon pools and life cycles of wood products, the model enables the total carbon pools and emissions to be estimated. In broad terms, the components of the models as described for each sector are similar, using:

- > an estimate of raw materials input, whether of sawlogs, woodchips ex-sawmill, or pulp logs;
- > an estimate of the products of processing, e.g., "x"% sawdust, shavings or sander dust for on site energy generation or compost, "y"% woodchips for other manufacturing processes, "z"% of sawn timber products, panel products, paper, etc;
- > an estimate of the proportion of products by product categories, depending on whether their expected end-use is long-term or short-term;
- > a final figure for total Australian consumption by end use categories, converted to wood fibre content (oven-dry weight) and to tonnes of carbon; and
- > import and export data were obtained from the ABARE 2006b by end use categories.

Table 7.D4 shows the annual additions and losses and carbon pool sizes.

Table 7.D4. Carbon Stock and Emissions Outcomes (ktC)

Year	Domestic Production of New Wood Products	Imports of New Wood Products	Exports of New Wood Products	Increase Due to New Wood Products	Carbon Pool (excl. landfill)
	kt C	kt C	kt C	kt C	kt C
1990	4,878	817	1,438	4,257	78,925
1991	4,859	726	1,592	3,993	79,916
1992	4,909	787	1,619	4,077	80,914
1993	5,174	825	1,706	4,293	82,029
1994	5,365	826	1,856	4,334	83,197
1995	5,587	990	2,184	4,393	84,374
1996	5,511	777	2,001	4,287	85,386
1997	5,636	839	2,135	4,339	86,404
1998	6,131	909	2,608	4,431	87,493
1999	6,033	894	2,468	4,459	88,559
2000	6,232	1,014	2,620	4,627	89,714
2001	6,834	948	3,136	4,646	90,833
2002	6,998	938	3,088	4,849	92,055
2003	7,482	1,010	3,596	4,897	93,309
2004	7,586	1,110	3,531	5,165	94,661
2005	7,462	1,166	3,611	5,018	95,934
2006	7,213	1,116	3,533	4,796	97,057

Uncertainty Analysis

With the consistent and comprehensive monitoring of wood production in Australia since 1944, and the confidence in this data gained through cross-verification with other datasets, little uncertainty will likely be derived from the production data. The most likely sources of uncertainty will be derived from the allocation to decomposition and recycling pools, and the rates of decomposition in those pools. To test the relative importance of the pool ages and decomposition rates *Monte Carlo* analyses were implemented using the @Risk add-in software (Palisade 1997) to the Excel spreadsheet wood products carbon model. The principal model parameters of interest are the decomposition rates within pools (e.g., losses from service life and landfill) and transfers (e.g., to recycling, bioenergy and landfill). *Monte Carlo* analysis samples values from within specified ranges (probability distributions) for nominated parameters within repeated applications of the model. Probability distributions for values within ranges for each variable can be nominated, as can positive and negative correlations between variables so that sampling can reflect these correlations. In this application the nominated probability distributions were 'triangular', that is, values within the ranges sampled formed a triangular distribution around a central expected value. No correlations between variables were specified, so that value selection was random within the triangular probability distributions.

The life cycle pools affected and the distributions of their possible values for the *Monte Carlo* analyses are shown in Tables 7.D5, 7.D6, 7.D7 and 7.D8. Distributions of possible outcomes were stabilised over 100,000 model iterations. The Tornado Graph (Figure 7.D2) shows the relative importance of each input variable to the overall uncertainty in the model outcome.

Table 7.D5. Pool Age Uncertainty Ranges Used in the Monte Carlo Analysis

Life Cycle Pool	Lower Bound (yrs)			Expected Value			Upper Bound (yrs)		
	Young	Medium	Old	Young	Medium	Old	Young	Medium	Old
Very Short Term	0.5	1	2	1	2	3	1.5	3	4
Short Term	1	3	5	2	6	10	3	9	15
Medium Term	5	15	20	10	20	30	15	25	40
Long Term	15	20	40	20	30	50	25	40	60
Very Long Term	20	40	75	30	50	90	40	60	105

Table 7.D6. Decomposition Rate Uncertainty Ranges used in the Monte Carlo Analysis

Age	Pool	Lower Bound	Expected Value	Upper Bound
Young	1	2.000	1.000	0.667
	2	1.000	0.333	0.333
	3	0.200	0.100	0.067
	4	0.067	0.050	0.040
	5	0.050	0.033	0.025
Medium	1	1.000	0.500	0.333
	2	0.333	0.167	0.111
	3	0.067	0.050	0.040
	4	0.050	0.033	0.020
	5	0.025	0.020	0.017
Old	1	0.500	0.333	0.250
	2	0.200	0.100	0.067
	3	0.050	0.033	0.025
	4	0.025	0.020	0.017
	5	0.013	0.011	0.010

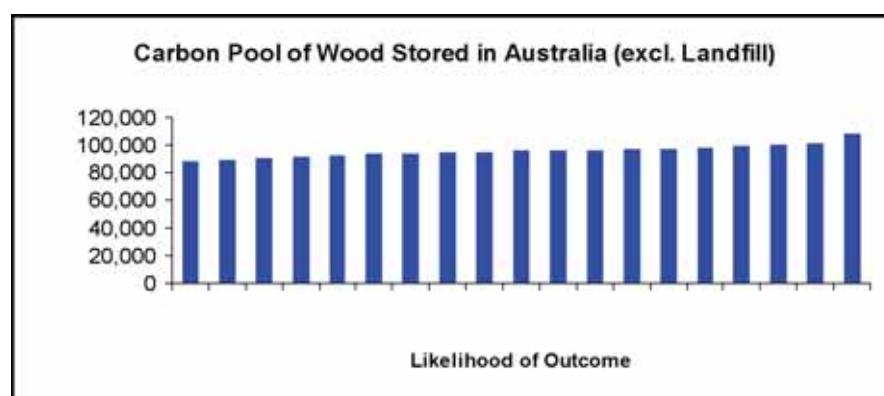
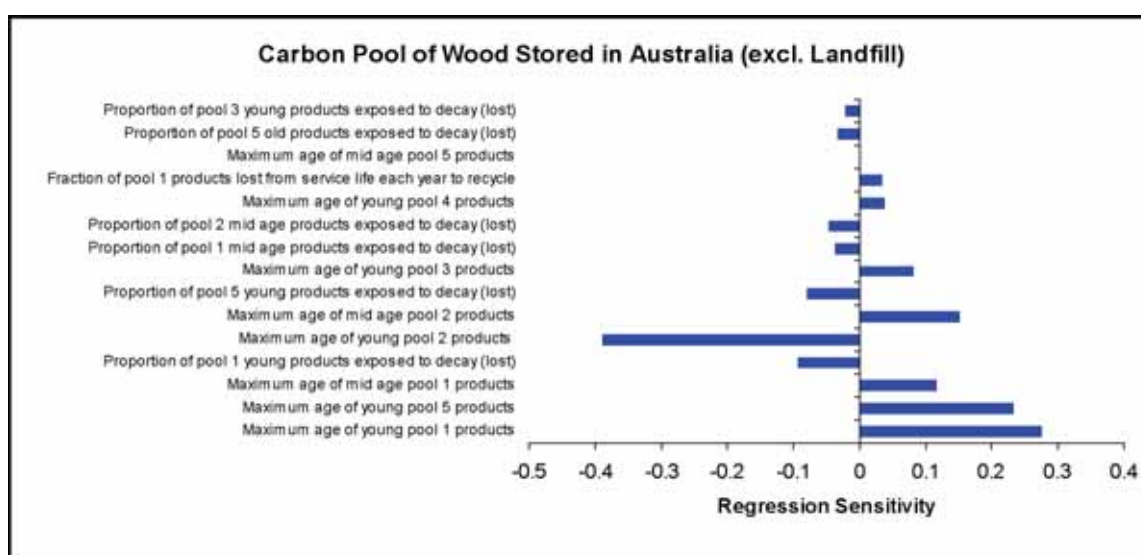
Table 7.D7. Pool Fractions Exposed to Decomposition Uncertainty Ranges Used in the Monte Carlo Analysis

Age	Pool	Lower Bound	Expected Value	Upper Bound
Young	1	0.500	0.600	0.700
	2	0.250	0.300	0.350
	3	0.120	0.150	0.180
	4	0.225	0.250	0.275
	5	0.175	0.200	0.225
Medium	1	0.550	0.650	0.750
	2	0.400	0.500	0.600
	3	0.550	0.650	0.750
	4	0.550	0.650	0.750
	5	0.450	0.550	0.650
Old	1	0.800	0.900	1.100
	2	0.800	0.900	1.100
	3	0.400	0.450	0.500
	4	0.700	0.800	0.900

5 0.800 0.950 1.150

Table 7.D8. Destination Fraction Uncertainty Ranges Used in the Monte Carlo Analysis

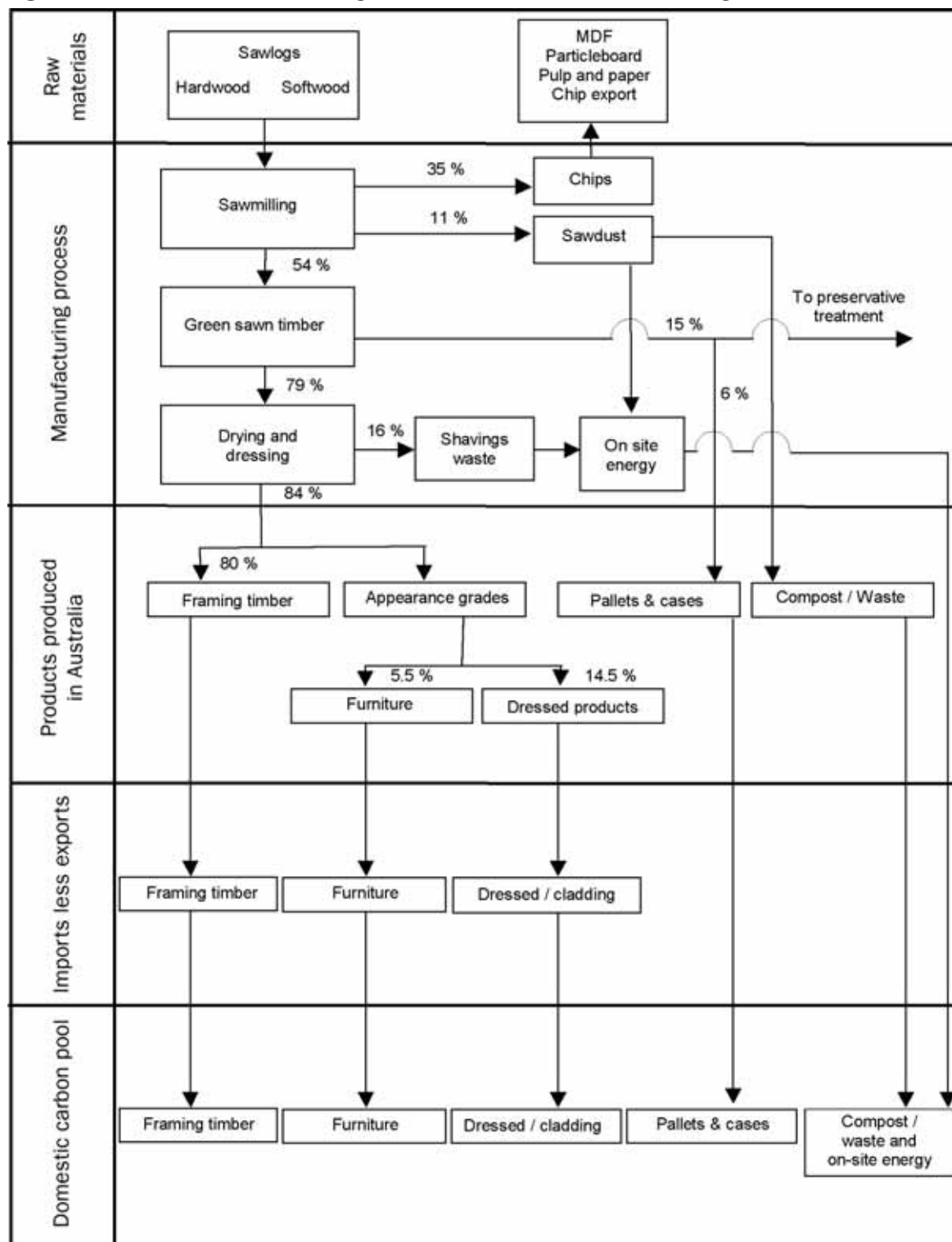
Age	Pool	Landfill			Recycle			Biofuel		
		Lower Bound	Expected Value	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Expected Value	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Expected Value	Upper Bound
Young	1	0.380	0.440	0.500	0.450	0.490	0.530	0.630	0.040	0.050
	2	0.600	0.750	0.900	0.180	0.200	0.220	0.040	0.050	0.060
	3	0.800	0.950	1.100	0.400	0.050	0.060	-	0	-
	4	0.700	0.850	1.000	0.130	0.150	0.170	-	0	-
	5	0.700	0.850	1.000	0.090	0.100	0.110	0.040	0.050	0.060

Figure 7.D2. Results of the @Risk Sensitivity Analyses


The effects of uncertainty in the carbon stock estimates in 1990 and 2004 national harvested wood product emissions estimates can be derived by looking at the annual stock change for the 0.10, 0.50 and 0.90 levels of confidence in potential stock outcome.

ATTACHMENT 7.D1: WOOD FLOWS BY SECTOR

Figure 1: National Carbon Accounting Model for Wood Products - Sawmilling Wood Flows *



* Percentages shown for softwood sawmilling, refer to model for hardwood and cypress pine

Figure 2: National Carbon Accounting Model for Wood Products - Wood Flows in Preservative Treated Products

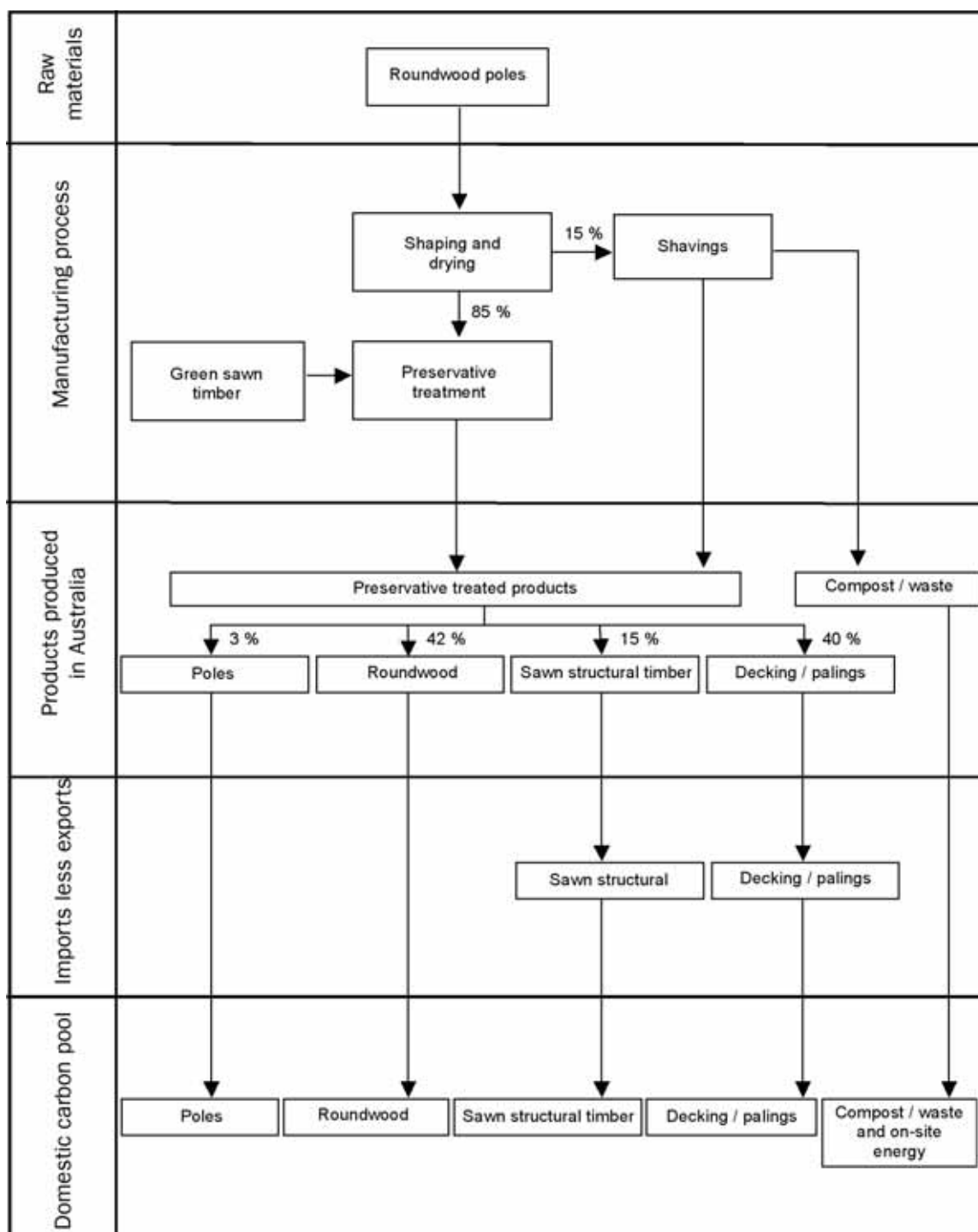


Figure 3: National Carbon Accounting Model for Wood Products - Wood Flows in Plywood Production

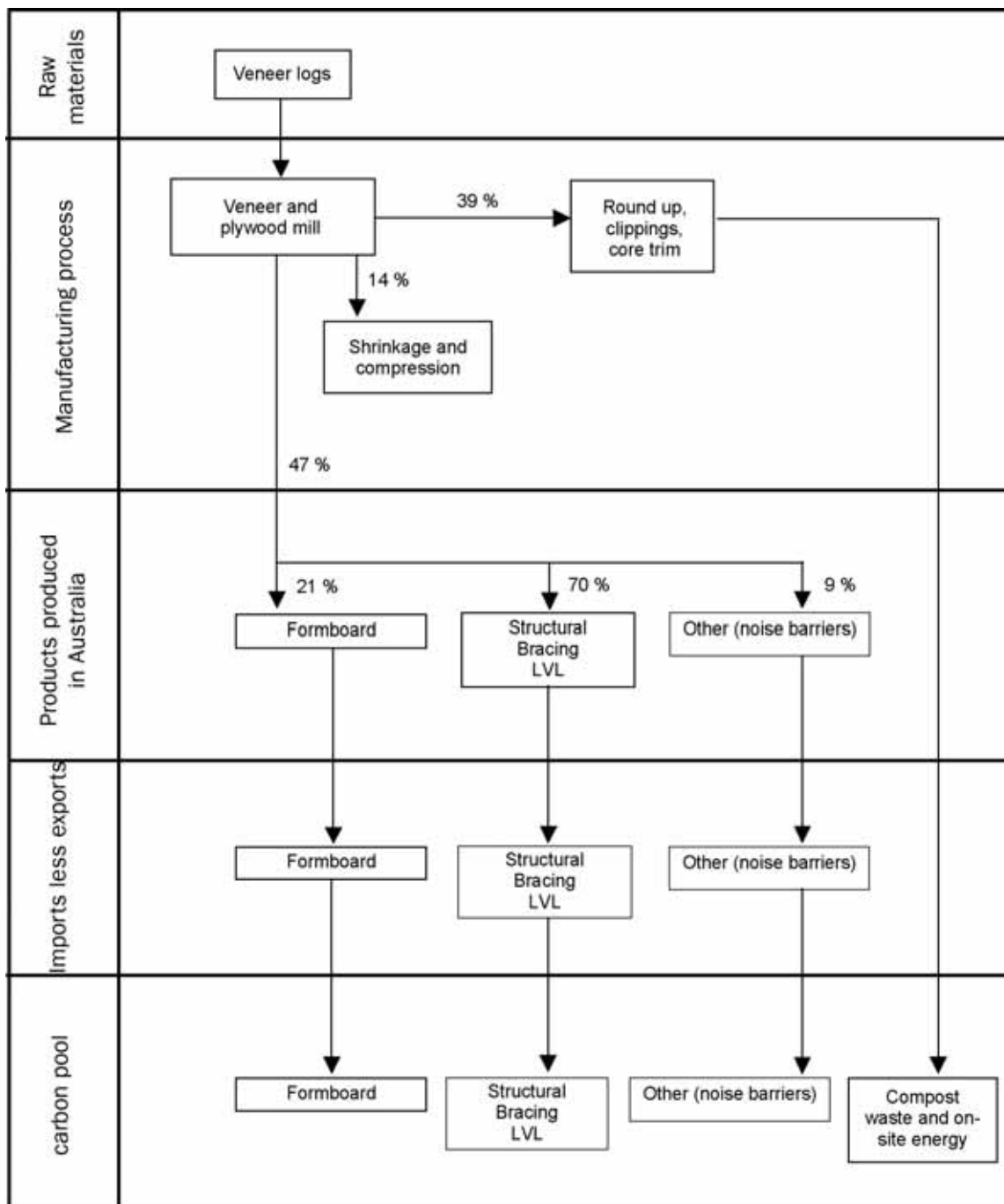
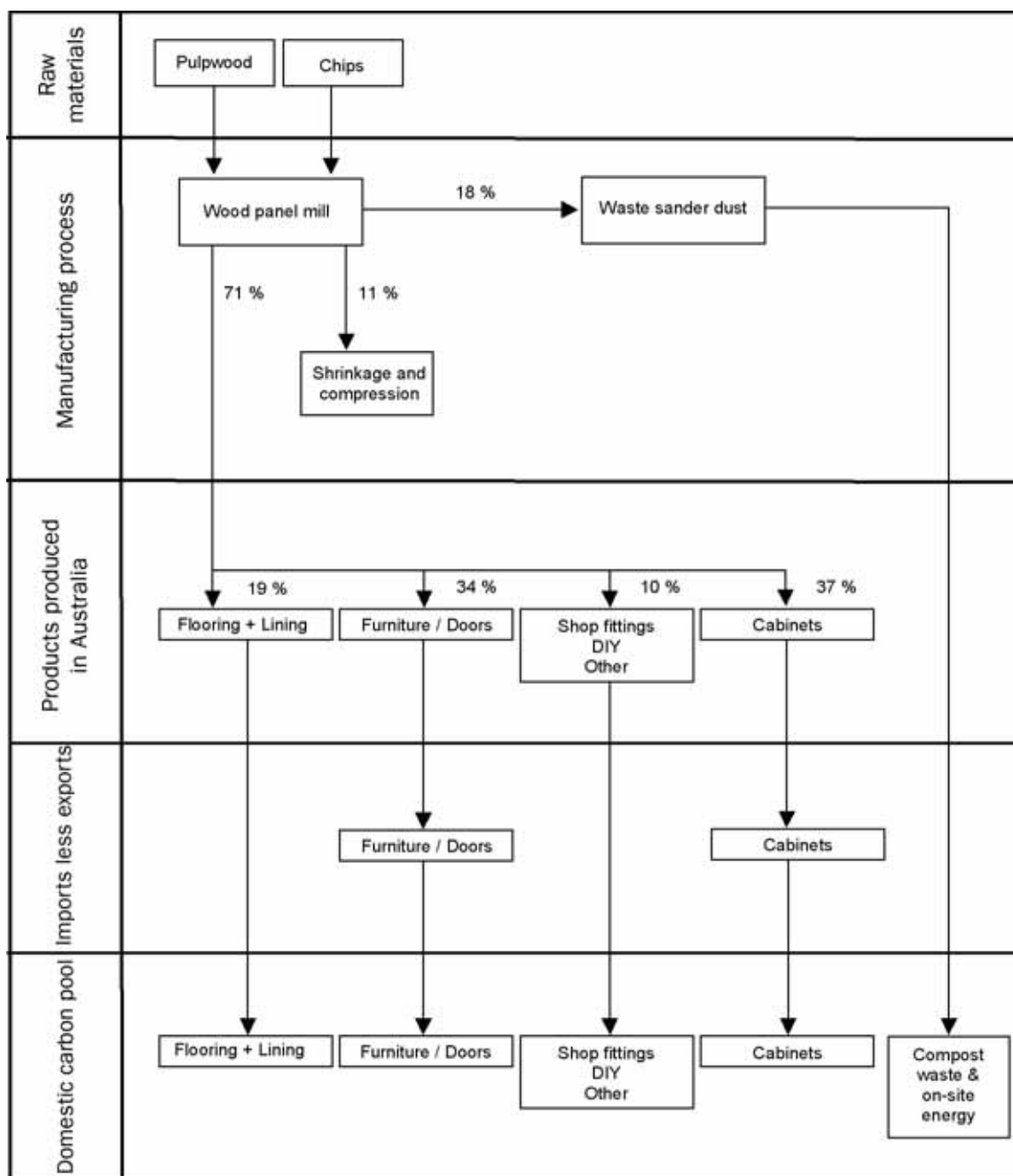


Figure 4: National Carbon Accounting Model for Wood Products - Wood flows in MDF and particleboard manufacture *



* Percentages shown for particleboard manufacture – see model for details on MDF

Figure 5: National Carbon Accounting Model for Wood Products - Wood Flows in Pulp and Paper Manufacture

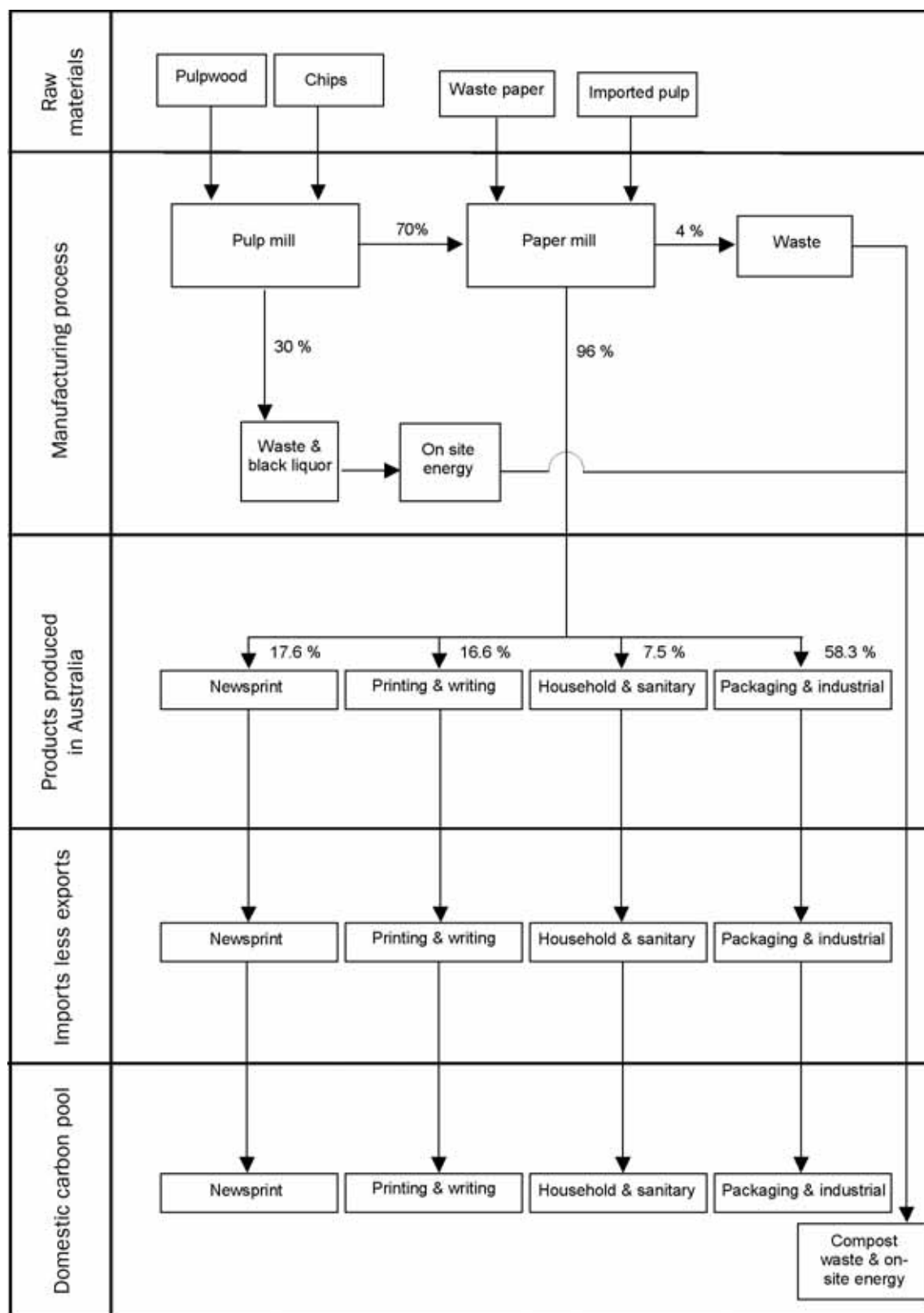
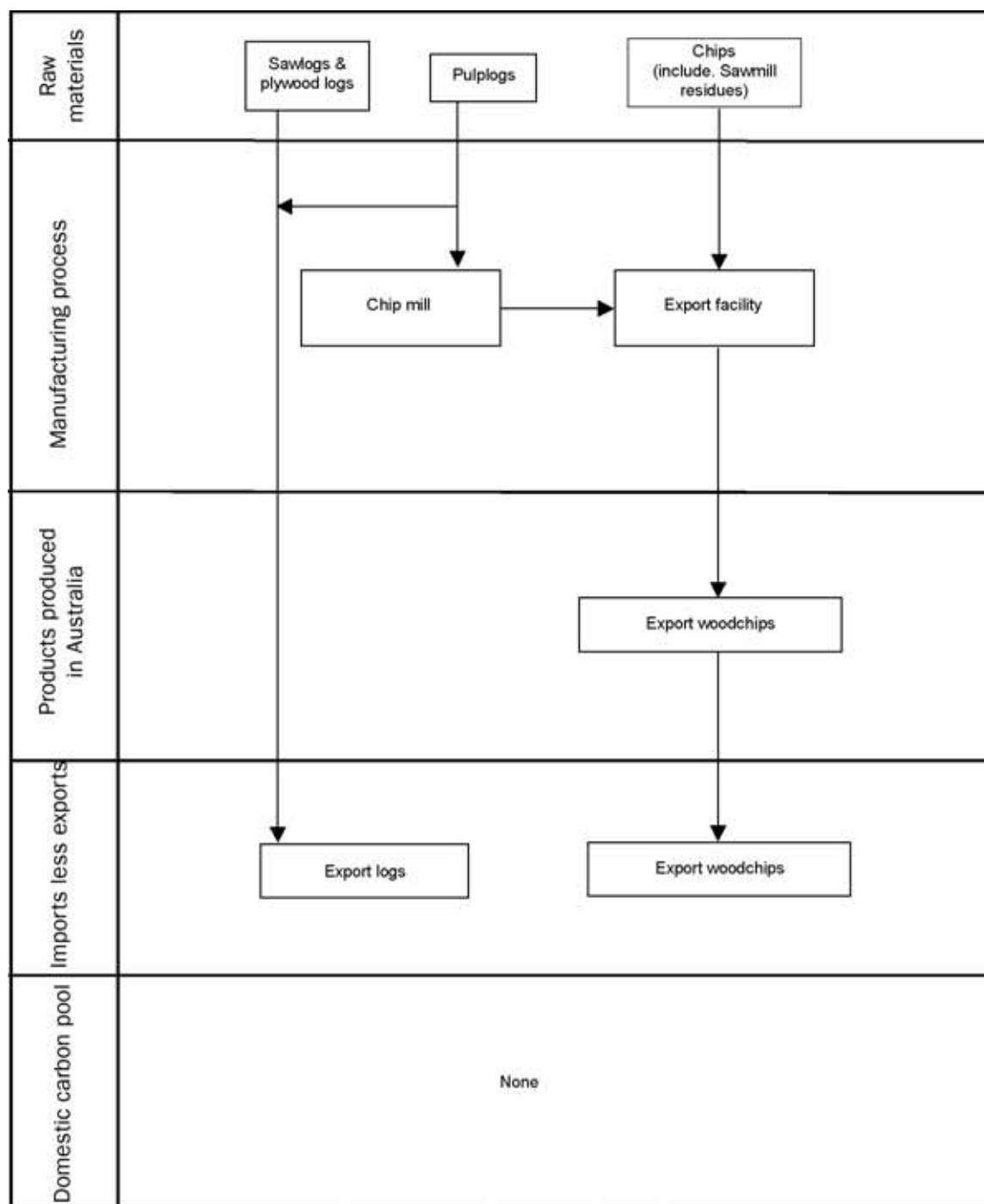


Figure 6: National Carbon Accounting Model for Wood Products - Wood flows in export woodchips and logs



Attachment 7.D1 – Quality Assurance

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Date October 4, 2004

Page 1 (2)

REVIEW OF WOOD PRODUCTS MODEL – UPDATE 2004

Dear Gary

As agreed Jaakko Pöyry Consulting has reviewed the 2004 update of the AGO's Wood Products Model. The update was made by MBAC Consulting in June 2004.

The focus of Jaakko Pöyry Consulting's work was to check that the updated data were consistent with our understanding of the wood products' industry production, import and export statistics and to consider if any recent changes in the industry necessitated adjustments to assumptions or the structure of the model. However, the underlying integrity of the model's calculations has not been checked.

Pulp and paper worksheet

We have no significant concerns about the updated statistics added to the pulp and paper worksheet. The base data entered since 1998 is consistent with the data collected and published by APIC and changes in the industry over the last six years do not require any changes in the assumptions.

In particular, it was considered that the start-up of the new Visy pulp and paper mill at Tumut may have changed the destination fraction of Raw Material for the industry (rows 38 – 40). However, a check of this indicated the destination fraction of wood to pulp had only changed from 71% to 69% with the start-up of the Visy mill, so that the estimate in the model of 70% remains valid.

Some minor points to note are as follows:

- The industry body which is the reference source for the pulp and paper data, has now changed its name from APIC to A3P, so this could be noted to assist in locating data for any subsequent update.
- Similarly, it is noted that the data listed under a particular calendar year in the model, is actually the data for the financial year commencing 1st July in that year. This is unlikely to have any significant impact on the outputs of the model, but again could be noted to assist in any subsequent update.
- Notes by MBAC refer to correcting some of the units from 1000m³ to tonnes. In fact the units for wood volumes entered in rows 25 – 30 which are sourced

from APIC still need to be shown as kilotonnes rather than 1000m³. (That is the numbers entered in the model are in fact kilotonnes.)

The model structure and calculations obviously makes a number of simplifications to the overall complex product flows that occur in the industry. This has introduced some small errors or inconsistencies in the model which are noted below. Overall, the carbon from pulp and paper is possibly overstated by 10%, but given the level of assumptions in the model, this is probably not that significant.

- Some of the data in the model is in dry tonnes and some is in air dried or "as produced" tonnes. Typical moisture content of paper is 4-8%, which could be allowed for in the model.
- Some paper, particularly, printing and writing grades has a significant content of filler or pigment, up to 20%, which is not allowed for. Averaged over all grades, filler content is probably about 3%.
- Waste paper is treated like pulp in that losses to waste stream are only 4%, (row 43). In fact average losses in converting waste paper to recovered fibre for use on the paper machine are 12%.
- While the model requires inputs for each specific grade of paper (newsprint, tissue, printing and writing, packaging) in fact all of these grades are considered to have the same input of raw materials, so that the model actually treats them all the same.
- The model does not make any allowance for consumption growth in the future. A typical figure for paper grades is approximately 2%.

Solid wood worksheets

The inputs and percentages of product recovery, residues, domestic market, imports and exports all seem to be in the right order of magnitude and appear to be based on reasonably reliable data sources.

Though it has been noted that there are no inputs recorded for hardboard since 1999, in the covering explanation for that table it is stated that "no data reported in ABARE Statistics; assumed to be included with MDF from 1999 on". JPC is aware that there are two operating hardboard mills in Australia (Weathertex located at Raymond Terrace, NSW – production 14,000 tonnes per annum & Australian Hardboards located at Ipswich, Qld – production 42,500 tonnes per annum). Including those hardboard mills volumes in with MDF will distort the MDF statistics.

Yours sincerely



Steven King
Consultant

APPENDIX 7.E: OVERVIEW OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL CARBON ACCOUNTING SYSTEM

Introduction

In addition to covering all lands, inventory approaches need to cover all relevant ecosystem components. For monitoring and managing greenhouse gas emissions this needs to consider all relevant carbon pools; biomass, dead organic matter and soil. As both carbon and nitrogen move between these various ecosystem pools, the integration of data over all pools is required for a comprehensive greenhouse gas emissions inventory. Forest and agricultural biomass (above and belowground), soil carbon, litter and debris, and the decay of off-site material (e.g., wood products) represent the major pools for carbon, and each has the potential to be either a source or sink of greenhouse gases.

To develop a comprehensive system to report on Australia's land-based greenhouse gas emissions and removals (from and to the atmosphere) the National Carbon Accounting System (NCAS) was formed. The NCAS provides a complete emissions estimation capability for Australia's international reporting obligations and supports national policy development. The NCAS integrates a wide range of spatially referenced data through a hybrid of process and empirical models that estimate carbon stock change and greenhouse gas emissions at fine spatial and temporal scales. Analysis and reporting includes all carbon pools and all principal greenhouse gases (CO_2 , CH_4 and N_2O), and can be applied at a variety of scales, from the project level through to regional and continental levels, covering both forest and agricultural land uses.

NCAS was specifically challenged to be relevant to both annual national reporting and supporting location specific management actions. The resulting need to operate at fine temporal and spatial scales, for management relevance, led to a bottom-up approach of aggregating 25 m grid resolution data and modelling into a national account. Even though the land cover change data (the principal driver) and modelling are performed at a 25 m resolution, not all data are available or needed at this fine scale for the bottom-up approach to be effective. A top-down approach to form the national account with a relatively large sample over the entire continent could not provide sufficient samples or resolution to support site specific management decisions or allow project-level estimates.

The terrestrial ecosystem model implemented by the NCAS is the Full Carbon Accounting Model (*FullCAM*) (Richards 2001b; Richards and Evans 2004). *FullCAM* is a carbon:nitrogen (C:N) ratio ecosystem model that calculates greenhouse gas emissions and removals in both forest and agricultural lands using a mass balance approach to carbon and nitrogen cycling. As most emissions and removals of greenhouse gases occur on transition between forests and agricultural land-uses, the integration of agricultural and forestry modelling was essential. Model calibration and ongoing refinement programs are completed in parallel to the NCAS science and data collection programs and reporting activity.

The continental spatial and temporal modelling capabilities of *FullCAM* help prevent errors of omission and commission. *FullCAM* also forms the basis of the publicly available National Carbon Accounting Toolbox (NCAT) which allows users to develop project level carbon accounts using the same data as used for deriving national accounts, achieving consistency between national and project level accounting activity.

Although specifically developed to estimate greenhouse gas emissions, the *FullCAM* model and NCAS data have the potential to serve as a valuable framework for a range of land resource inventory and monitoring tasks. The national scale, fine spatial and temporal resolution, and breadth of data (climate, soils, productivity, land cover and management information) provide a comprehensive data and modelling capability not previously available in a single system. This paper reviews the ongoing development of *FullCAM* and NCAS, and presents some of the verification and validation results to date. Particular attention is paid to the forest growth modelling that represents a novel approach.

Methods

Several possible methods were available for the development of the NCAS. These included direct measurement via a range of remote sensing techniques (e.g., optical, radar and lidar sensors), field sampling (e.g., stratified random or plot sampling inventory approaches), process modelling, or an integration of methods (e.g., combination of models, inventory data and remote sensing). The chosen method was an integrated approach using remote sensing, empirical and process models. Landsat images are used to determine changes in land cover. A hybrid of verified empirical and process models are used to estimate the cycling of carbon and nitrogen in plant biomass, dead organic matter, soils and offsite products and the emission and removal of greenhouse gases.

A primary concern was the effect of changes in land cover and land use on greenhouse gas emissions, the modelling framework was designed to accommodate both forest and agricultural land uses, and any transitions between them. The model framework was fully integrated so that mass balance checks could be performed to ensure that all inputs, transfers and emissions were properly reconciled at each time step in the calculation.

A purely measurement approach to developing the NCAS would likely have provided a robust national account, but potentially at greater cost than the model approach chosen. However, a measurement approach would not have supported analysis of either project level estimates or supported management decision making. The process understanding generated through models allows for the development of management practices and land use policies with reliably estimated outcomes. Having such a capacity is fundamental to cost:benefit analysis of mitigation actions and for optimising outcomes for multiple goals (e.g., maintaining production while reducing emissions).

Model Development

The development of the *FullCAM* model started with the 'point-based' Carbon Accounting Model for Forests (*CAMFor*) (Richards and Evans 2000a), that was based on the *CO₂Fix* model (Mohren and Goldewik 1990). *CAMFor* primarily focused on carbon sequestration in trees using basic species information and standard forestry yield tables entered by the user, with limited debris and soil carbon modelling capabilities. After the successful development and testing of *CAMFor* the Carbon Accounting Model for Agriculture (*CAMAg*), was developed to perform similar functions to *CAMFor* but operating in agricultural systems (Richards and Evans 2000b).

To allow for more complete carbon modelling *CAMFor* was integrated with several existing models; *Roth-C* for soil carbon (Jenkinson 1991), *GENDEC* for litter decomposition (Moorehead and Reynolds 1991) and *3-PG* for tree growth (Landsberg and Waring 1997) to form the Full Carbon Accounting Model (*FullCAM*). Other model components (e.g. the *GORCAM* bioenergy and product displacement model of Schlamadinger et. al. (1997)) were also included and a nitrogen cycling capability based on the Century model (Parton et. al., 1987) and the boundary layer approach (Conen et. al., 2000) added to estimate emissions of nitrous oxide.

The model is internally duplicated allowing parallel, but independent, calibration and running of the agricultural and forest systems, and transitions between these land use systems. The integration of the agricultural and forest models helps ensure conservation of mass during carbon and nitrogen cycling by including all pools and transfers between pools, thus ensuring that there are no significant instances of double counting or omissions in accounting. Deforestation at one point, for example, uses the forest model components to estimate the continuing decay and emission of carbon from dead wood, litter, off-site and soil pools while the agricultural model components estimate the changes in pools that result from the introduction of agricultural inputs. This recognises the different cycling rates in the different biomass inputs. The model can report results from any pool or land use, or sum all the results into a single carbon stock estimate. *FullCAM* can be linked to spatial data and run as a grid-based application in addition to its point-based application.

Data sources

An initial task was to bring together all the available data, review its utility, synthesise data of various origins and report the methods and outputs in a series of technical reports. The NCAS Technical Report Series (www.climatechange.gov.au/ncas; ISSN: 1442 6836) also covers the model development and calibration, and various verification activities. Pre-existing national data, such as the vegetation groups of the National Vegetation Information System (NLWRA 2001) were used where available. Where such national compilations were not available, e.g., on soil carbon content and clay content, national collation and synthesis of available inventory and research data was undertaken (Skjemstad et. al., 2000; Webbnat Land Resource Services Pty. Ltd. 2002).

Climate

Climate variation has a significant effect on emissions in the short term, and as many management and reporting issues also relate to short term changes, it is important to be able to account for this variability. The process based models used in *FullCAM* (3-PG, Roth-C, GENDEC) can use appropriate climate data to reflect this variability. The NCAS has developed monthly climate grids from 1968-2004 for rainfall, minimum, average and maximum temperature, evaporation, vapour pressure deficit and frost (Kesteven et. al., 2004). This climate data is updated as new data becomes available.

Land Cover Change

The importance of land cover change to the pattern of greenhouse gas emissions and removals led to the need to develop a national time series of land cover change showing both where and when change occurs. National coverages of Landsat satellite data (MSS, TM, and ETM+) across fifteen time epochs from 1972 to 2006, have been assembled and analysed for change (Caccetta et. al., 2003). The historic cover and cover change information is important in two ways. First, the effects on greenhouse gas emissions from land cover change are typically long lasting, and historic activities may still contribute to current estimates. Second, the emissions and removals by current activity will be affected by the site history. For example, a current deforestation event will likely generate fewer emissions if the forest cleared is secondary forest (regrowth after a previous deforestation) rather than a primary (mature) forest.

Individual vegetation species characteristics, management practices and general growth information has also been collated into a set of databases. The databases are relational, i.e., spatially referenced based on set regions (e.g., the Interim- Biographical Regions of Australia (Thackway and Cresswell 1995)) with changes in management varying over time and with species. Historic information on both forest and agricultural management systems was obtained from experts and documented in various technical reports (Swift and Skjemstad 2002; Squire and Raison in press).

Crop Yield

Crop yields are used in the model to determine several factors in the model calibration. In almost all instances where crop yields are used, their impact on carbon and nitrogen cycling is determined in concert with the management approach applied. The uses of the crop yield information include:

- > determining plant biomass (crop or grass) at a point in time, via the use of 'harvest indices' that relate total plant biomass to the yield commodity of interest (e.g., grain);
- > determining how much plant biomass is removed from the site as product;
- > determining the amount of root slough as input to soil from plant growth coupled with management practices; and,
- > determining the post harvest/grazing residues burnt, decomposed on soil surface or incorporated into soil.

Data on crop yield and management practice are jointly collected because management practices will determine the crop yields as well as the fate of crop residues. Initial data collection from 1970 onwards is supplemented annually. Data are drawn from a variety of sources including statistical and industry holdings, crop growth modelling and expert opinion. One of the planned future developments in the modelling framework will be to incorporate generic crop and pasture yield models into *FullCAM*. Initial testing indicates that this can be achieved through a small number of generic model forms for broad crop classes.

Forest Growth

Providing a dynamic, disturbance and management responsive forest growth model for all of Australia's forests was particularly challenging. Eventually, a novel spatial modelling approach was used that combines the strengths of both empirical and process based modelling. The forest growth model component of *FullCAM* can be described as either a hybrid of process and empirical modelling, or an empirically constrained process model. In this system process models estimate the relative movements between pools and account for climatic variability while empirical data set calibration constraints. The empirical data that constrain the model reflect extensive field data (both existing and specifically collected). Independent data was used to verify the model application (Harms and Dalal 2002; Griffin et. al., 2002; Murphy et. al., 2002; Raison et. al., 2003).

Site and climate data are used in a simple process-based model (a simplified version of 3-PG spatial) to develop continental estimates of productivity (Kesteven et. al., 2004). The 3-PG variant used is a truncated version of the full 3-PG model (Landsberg and Waring 1997; Sands and Landsberg 2002), retaining the essential features of Net Primary Productivity estimation, without species specific growth information or the carbon partitioning algorithms (Equation 1). This variant of the model provides a time series of the site productivity index (*P*) ranging from 1 (low) to 30 (high). The long term average productivity defines long-term potential biomass accumulation, while monthly productivity values provide a relative temporal productivity estimate at each point.

The essence of this model is the calculation of the amount of photosynthetically active radiation (*APAR*) absorbed by plant canopies. The factor converting *APAR* to biomass is reduced from the selected optimum value by modifiers dependent on soil fertility; atmospheric vapour pressure deficits, soil water content and temperature:

$$P = APAR * T * S * W * 0.01 * (1 - F)$$

Equation (1)

Where: *P* denotes the productivity index.

T denotes a variable between 0 and 1 that reduces the potential *P* if the monthly temperature deviates substantially from a range of temperatures.

S denotes a level of fertility (high, medium and low). These levels are applied for each pixel, depending on soil type, before environmental modifiers were applied.

W denotes a variable between 0 and 1, which is calculated from the most limiting factor of Soil Water Content or vapour pressure deficit.

F denotes a ratio of number of frost days month⁻¹ to the number of days in the month.

P is developed for each point over a continental grid using:

- monthly climate surfaces developed for the NCAS (Kesteven et. al., 2004),
- CSIRO's national soil moisture holding capacity and fertility mapping (McKenzie et. al., 2000a),
- the nine second (250 m) Digital Elevation Mapping Version 2.0 (AUSLIG 2001),
- Normalised Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) data of the Environmental Resources Information Network (ERIN).

Long term average *P* values were then correlated to verified and spatially referenced observations of

aboveground biomass in undisturbed forest stands at or near maturity. These biomass data were collated through an extensive search of published and unpublished data by CSIRO and ranged from arid shrublands (2 t ha⁻¹) to tall wet sclerophyll forests (900 t ha⁻¹) (Raison et. al., 2003). The relationship between mass and long term average productivity was then used to derive a map of potential site biomass at maturity (i.e., for long-term undisturbed stands).

Management Data

Land management practices in both agriculture and forestry in Australia have varied considerably over time depending on species, region, desired products and site conditions. However there were no consistent, nationally available compilations of this information and separate programs to compile the needed information were undertaken. While there was no overlap between the forest and agricultural management data programs, the methods used were similar. In both instances, a focus group was established comprising researchers and practitioners to give all management issues (e.g., forest and crop type, burning, harvesting, thinning) a jurisdictional (geographic) and temporal coverage. All available information was collated and supplemented with expert knowledge to give completeness where records were not available. The information gathered by these groups for use in the management databases is documented in Swift and Skjemstad (2002) and Squire and Raison (in press).

Databases were constructed around relevant geographic regions, further stratified spatially by relevant characteristics such as soil and forest type, then classified by a final non-spatial strata such as crop type or tree species. Management systems for each sub-region were then defined as bundles of practices that represented typical management regimes. Each regime was then apportioned to the finest spatial stratification, giving relative frequencies of implementation for available regimes that could vary over time. The resulting databases cover a large range of possible scenarios with over 5,000 regimes, each comprising 10 – 30 specific practices, being developed for plantation forests alone. The databases were developed within *FullCAM* to allow full integration with NCAS spatial data sources.

Coarse woody debris and litter

Coarse woody debris and forest floor litter is particularly difficult to estimate using measurement techniques because it is highly variable and dynamically related to forest productivity and disturbance history (particularly fire and harvest). Data was collected from available literature, but was sparse, particularly for forests without timber harvest. Supplementary data was collected during field sampling (Harms and Dalal 2002; Murphy et. al., 2002; Griffin et. al., 2002).

Estimates of coarse woody debris and litter are used to frame the initial model estimates to reflect typical species and management scenarios. *FullCAM* can then be run-in from the initial estimates with inputs to the debris and litter pools based on turnover from live pools (based on the forest growth model) and the imposition of a known disturbance history (from the land cover change data). This allows the conversion of an uncertain historic initial estimate to a site and species specific estimate.

Soils

The application of a spatial modelling approach for changes in soil carbon reduces the ongoing burden of measurement from that of sufficient measurements to estimate change over time across the country to that required for a strategic approach to model verification. However, even the application of a model based approach requires substantial amounts of descriptive and process data. The data requirements can be classed as:

- > resource description (maps of soil type, carbon content, clay etc.);

- > ancillary data (land-use, climate, residue inputs etc);
- > model calibration data; and,
- > model verification data.

Resource description data are the soil 'physical' parameters needed for input to the soil carbon model and include soil type, carbon content (pre-disturbance) and clay content. Maps of these parameters were developed through a synthesis of resource inventory data, predominantly available from state governments. Clay content was a consistent measure and relatively easily drawn into national synthesis. Soil type descriptions varied according to jurisdiction, but within the modelling framework these differences could be accommodated (Webbnet Land Resource Services Pty. Ltd. 2002). Considerable additional analytic work was required to achieve consistency in data on pre-disturbance soil carbon contents. This need was primarily derived from the differing analytic techniques used to assess carbon content in soil samples. To provide a common and consistent national map, archived samples of soil were reanalysed and correction factors to a *Leco* dry combustion standard were derived (Skjemstad et. al., 2000). Fractionation schemes were also derived for partitioning soil carbon into the pool structures used in the soil carbon model.

Ancillary data inputs to the soil carbon model include information on land use and management, climate, and crop yields (as they influence residue inputs when coupled with management practices). These data have been described in previous sections. The data required for model calibration is characterised by:

- > quality and completeness of measurement;
- > availability of time-series information; and,
- > availability of measurements relevant to model parameters.

Testing the ability of the models to predict change in other locations, based on these calibrations was independently verified. This was done through an independent measurement program. The verification program needed to measure fewer parameters (e.g., total soil carbon change rather than change in fractions) and therefore could be applied to more sites. Calibration data was drawn from a series of both forestry and agricultural research sites. Such sites were sparse, but were ideally suited to the model calibration task having well recorded, comprehensive, and time-series consistent measurements of key model parameters.

Model verification used a mix of existing time-series data, and new paired-site comparisons to test model predictions of change. The model calibration and verification results for agriculture can be found in Skjemstad and Spouncer (2002) and for forestry in Paul et. al. (2002b) and Paul et. al. (2003b).

Wood Products

When an agricultural or forest system is harvested or thinned, carbon stored on-site in plant or debris material can be moved off-site as a range of products. The amount of time these products take to decay and return their carbon to the atmosphere depends on the species characteristics, type of product and the amount of movement between product pools. Forest products in particular can provide an important longer-term store of carbon off-site and hence need to be accounted for in a full mass balance model. Input data to estimate the flow of material into harvested wood products can be accessed via top-down national statistics (forest production and consumption reporting) or by modelled outputs from forest harvest activities (bottom-up).

The top-down model has been progressively developed (Jaakko Pöyry Consulting 1999 and 2000) and has utilised a mix of input statistics from Australia's quarterly forest production and consumption statistics and industry estimates. Data for model calibration (e.g., processing losses, service life, and rates of recycling) have been variously drawn from available literature, industry estimates and expert opinion. For the bottom-up approach, *FullCAM* includes separate product pools for the forest (biofuel, pulp and paper, packing wood, furniture and poles, fibreboard, construction wood, and mill residue) and agricultural (biofuel, grains, bud and fruit products, cane products, leaf products, root products, hay, straw and silage products, and animal products) aspects of the model. Carbon in the on-site plant or debris pools can be moved to the relevant

product pools at any harvest or thinning event. The amount of carbon moved to each product pool is determined by the quantity of carbon on the site, the intensity of the harvest and the desired product splits.

Each product has a different set of in-use decay and bioenergy use parameters. Forest products also have transfer to landfill rate and in-landfill decay parameters. Decay and transfer rates are modelled exponentially based on the percentage of material moved from the pool each year. Individual species can have a different set of product decomposition or transfer parameters, allowing different species with different product characteristics to be established over time (e.g., changing plantation species at the end of a rotation) while still tracking all products consistently. Further to the product decomposition modelling, *FullCAM* also incorporates *GORCAM* (Schlamadinger et. al., 1997) which allows modelling of the displacement of fossil fuel emissions due to use of bioenergy products and displacement due to the use of alternative products. This allows the relative merits of various types of forest and agricultural products to be assessed against other products that may be used as a substitute. The inclusion of *GORCAM* allows *FullCAM* to consider a life cycle approach in carbon accounting.

Model Calibration

Forest Growth

A novel approach has been taken to the estimation of forest growth, and is therefore treated here in more detail than other model components. A linear regression (Figure 1) found a significant correlation ($p < 0.01$, $r^2 = 0.68$) between long-term aboveground stand biomass (M) and long-term average (P) (Richards and Brack 2004a):

$$M = (6.011 * \sqrt{P} - 5.291)^2 \quad \text{Equation (2)}$$

where P is the long-term average forest productivity index

M is the above ground biomass in $t\ ha^{-1}$ dry matter.

For forests that have been disturbed (e.g., cleared, harvested or burnt) and are no longer near M (Equation 2), a simple mathematical model was developed to allow for the calculation of standing biomass, given years since disturbance (i.e., age) and the rate at which the maximum biomass is approached (Equation 3).

$$MA = M * e^{-k/A} \quad \text{Equation (3)}$$

where MA is the predicted above ground tree biomass ($t\ ha^{-1}$) at age A (years)

M is the maximum long-term aboveground tree stand biomass

k is an estimated constant that determines the rate of approach towards M .

Given Equations 2 and 3, the long-term average annual increment between A and $A+1$ years (I_a) for a stand can be estimated from the long-term average productivity (P):

$$I_a = (6.011 * \sqrt{P} - 5.291)^2 * (e^{-k/A} - e^{-k/(A+1)}) \quad \text{Equation (4)}$$

However, as productivity in any given year may vary around the average due to non-average weather or other factors, the average annual increment may be adjusted by the productivity in a given year (P_a) as a ratio with the average productivity (P):

$$I_a = I_a * P_a / P \quad \text{Equation (5)}$$

Values of k for given species and regime types are available from an extensive spatial database that was derived from available empirical data. However, management interventions (forest treatments) can affect the value of M , k or the 'relative age' of the trees. These treatments can be modelled to advance (or retard) growth for a specified period (Type 1 event, e.g., allowing for five years growth in only four years) or increase growth over the entire rotation (Type 2 event, e.g., improve site productivity or change species) as per Snowdon

(2002). The hybrid *FullCAM* forest growth model has been calibrated and adjusted for use in plantation systems based on these Type 1 and 2 responses.

Coarse Woody Debris and Litter

Carbon and nitrogen from the plant biomass pools is added and lost from the debris pools (deadwood, bark litter, leaf litter, dead coarse roots, dead fine roots) through turnover, mortality or disturbance events such as harvesting, thinning, fire, ploughing, grazing or herbicide application. Turnover occurs continually from each plant biomass pool (except stems) based on the current mass in the pool. The quantity of debris added from each plant biomass pool by disturbance events depends on the type and intensity of the event and the current plant mass.

Plant material moving to debris is divided into resistant and decomposable pools, each with different decomposition rates. Upon decomposition, a percentage of the stored carbon is released to the atmosphere, with the remainder entering the mulch pools, as described below. Decomposing litter moves to the mulch layer, which is in between the debris and soil. Mulch decomposition is modelled using the *GENDEC* (GENeral DEComposition Model) (Moorehead and Reynolds 1991).

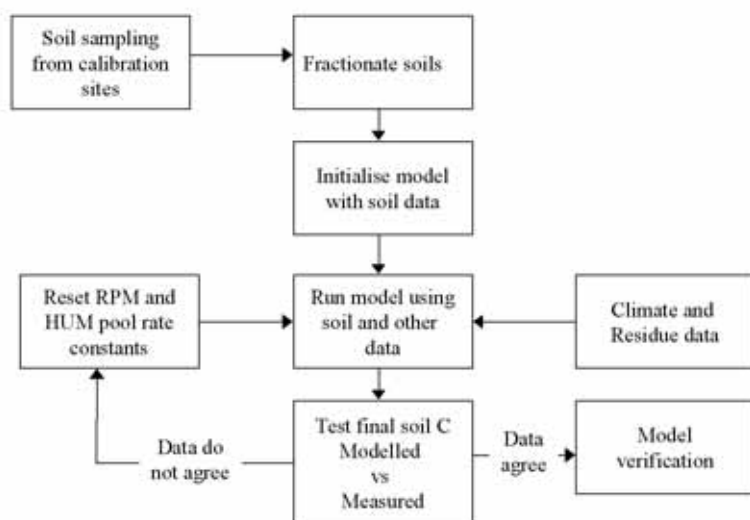
Decomposition rates are dependant on moisture, temperature and litter 'quality' based on the C:N ratio of the mulch pool. Material entering the mulch pool from decomposable debris enters the soluble plant mulch. Material entering from the resistant debris pools can enter either the less-resistant plant mulch or the more-resistant plant mulch pools.

Mulch is either decomposed or humified, moving carbon and nitrogen from the mulch pools to the soil pools. Decomposition occurs through consumption of mulch by soil microbes, thereby passing the carbon back to the atmosphere as emissions or storing it in the bodies of the microbes themselves. The microbes then either excrete the digested mulch or die, turning over their carbon and nitrogen to the soil pools. Humification is the process whereby mulch is moved to the soil pools through the action of more complex soil organisms such as earthworms or slaters.

Soil

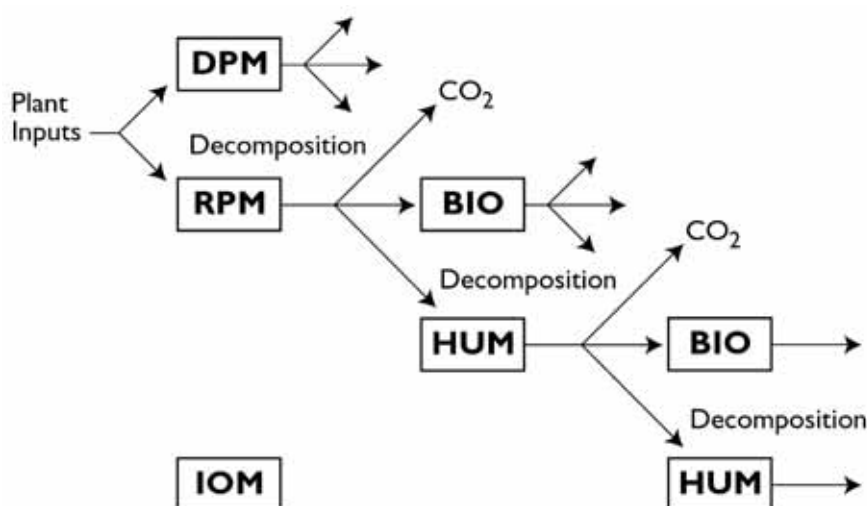
Calibration of the soil carbon model was completed around a structured procedure as shown in Figure 7.E1.

Figure 7.E1: Procedure for the calibration of the Roth-C soil component of FullCAM



The soil carbon turnover model used in *FullCAM* is an adaptation of the *Roth-C* soil carbon model (Jenkinson 1990). The structure of the model is represented in Figure 7.E2.

Figure 7.E.2: Structure of the Roth-C soil carbon model as implemented in FullCAM (modified from Jenkinson 1990)



After investigation of sites that met the requirements for model calibration, two agricultural and seven forestry sites were selected. One agricultural site is on a monsoonal subtropical environment with heavy clay soil and the other is in a temperate Mediterranean climate with a light textured soil. At each agricultural site, soil samples (0-30 cm) from the beginning and tend of the trial as well as some in between were fractionated into particulate organic carbon (POC), charcoal (char-C) and humic (hum) pools (Skjemstad and Spouncer

2002). These pools, measured in the archival soil samples, were then used to initialize the model (RPM set to POC, IOM set to char-C, HUM set to TOC minus POC minus char-C) at the first time of sampling. Other pools were set to zero but were quickly generated by the model. It was found that at both sites that adjusting the Roth-C default resistant plant matter RPM pool decomposition rate modifier from 0.3 to 0.15 yr⁻¹ rectified any divergence in the results. No other changes were necessary. Calibration of the forestry sites was completed subsequent to the agriculture calibration and tested model in seven locations:

- > *Eucalyptus globulus* in the low rainfall region, south-west of Western Australia
- > *E. globulus* in the high rainfall region, south-west of Western
- > *Pinus radiata* in the Green Triangle South Australia and Victoria
- > *E. grandis* in south-eastern Queensland and north-eastern New South Wales
- > *P. radiata* in the south-eastern highlands. New South Wales
- > *E. globulus* in south-eastern Gippsland, Victoria and
- > *E. nitens* in the Tasmanian highlands.

The testing in the forestry sites confirmed the model calibrations for both forestry and agricultural sites.

Wood products

The NCAS has been constructed to determine national wood product stocks and changes using both top-down and bottom-up approaches. This has the advantage of being able to observe the degree of convergence between the two input estimates, the effect of divergence, and an ability to determine at any scale (stand to national), a wood product account.

Land cover change

Deforestation

A sequence of remotely sensed data (Landsat MSS imagery at 50m resolution for 1972, 1977, 1980, 1985, 1988, and Landsat TM at 25 m resolution for 1989, 1991, 1992, 1995, 1998, 2000, 2002, 2004, 2005, 2006) and spatially referenced databases (including soil, vegetation and climate maps, land use patterns and terrain variation) were used to develop indices to discriminate between forest and non-forest cover over Australia. The location and timing of deforestation and reforestation events is determined by comparing the forest extent maps from consecutive time slices. A detailed description of the mapping and its verification can be found in Furby (2002); Furby and Woodgate (2002); Caccetta et. al. (2003); Caccetta and Chia (2004); Lowell et. al. (2003); MBAC consulting (2003); and Lowell et. al. (2005). The resultant disturbance maps in combination with the biomass maps and growth model allow the full spatial and temporal modelling of deforestation and reforestation.

Incremental method development beyond that described in Caccetta et. al. (2003) includes the implementation of terrain illumination correction (Wu et. al., 2004), and the use of 'texture' based analysis to map sparse vegetation extent and change (Caccetta and Furby 2004). Mapping of tree crown cover density and the development and calibration of methods to map plantation types across Australia is ongoing, with both method refinement and field data being collected across Australia (MBAC Consulting *in prep.*).

Plantations

Plantations are identified and mapped into three classes, native forest (environmental type plantings), hardwood plantation and softwood plantation. Plantation forests are those that are identified as being due to deliberate human action, identified by type (e.g., introduction of non-endemic species), evidence of establishment practices (e.g., rip lines), planting patterns (e.g., rows, stand geometry) etc. The identification of conversion between forest and non-forest condition follows the same general approach described above.

Plantation classes are identified by discrimination against regionally specific collection of ground training data. The method uses an automated spectral discrimination.

Harvested Native Forests

Identification of areas of native forest harvest and regrowth again uses the general mapping of forest and non-forest condition over time, with this specific activity identified by considering the temporal pattern of change, the spatial pattern of change, vegetation type, land tenure and context.

Fires

Fire 'masks' are also developed for each time epoch. This allows for the 'mapping' of fire scars overtime.

Model and Data Validation

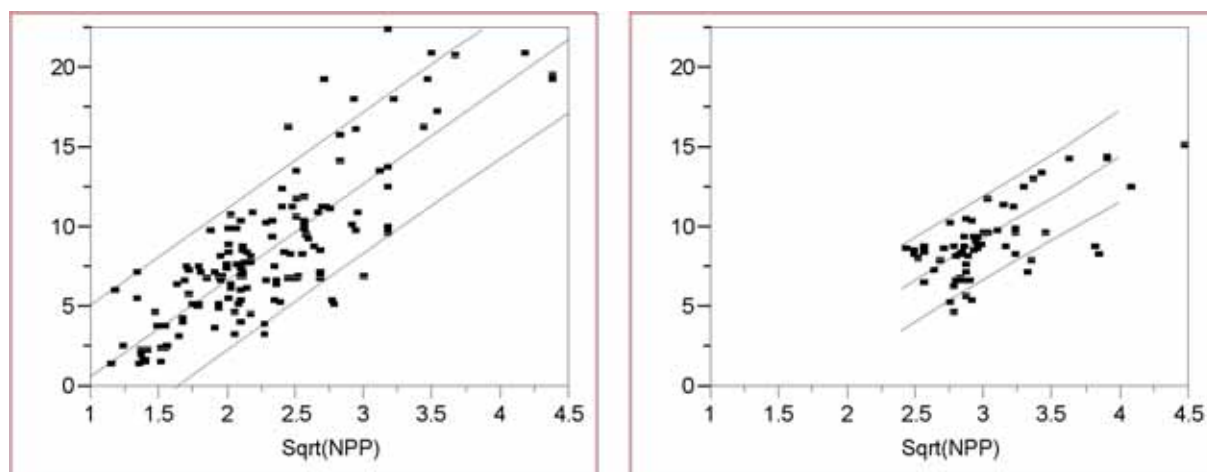
For the purposes of this section, a valid model is one where the model performance or outputs are satisfactory for its intended application. Implicitly, this may mean that the model form is reasonable (verified) and the numerical constants are appropriate (calibrated).

Forest Growth

Native Forests

The extensive search for all data on undisturbed forest sites to parameterise Equation 2 found relatively few points and consequently none these biomass data were reserved for validation. However, some recent and large scale inventories do report stand parameters that can be related to biomass and hence used for model validation. One such study estimated the volume on over 900 000 ha of 'remnant' native vegetation under private management in south eastern Queensland (MBAC Consulting 2003). Remnant vegetation was defined as areas where the predominant stratum is intact with at least 50% foliage projected cover and 70% of the height of the climax vegetation. For the purposes of this comparison, the remnant vegetation could be considered to be either undisturbed or relatively lightly disturbed and therefore approaching the long-term above ground biomass. An estimate of the biomass on sample plots was made using allometrics that relate aboveground biomass to stand basal area in native eucalypt forests (Snowdon et. al., 2000). A regression (Equation 6) between this estimated biomass and P was significant ($p < 0.001$, $r^2 = 0.52$) with the residuals not demonstrating heterogeneity or non-normality (Figure 7.E3).

Figure 7.E3. Regression of long term productivity index (P) to aboveground biomass (M) (t ha⁻¹) with 90% individual confidence lines. [] denotes standard error of the estimates.



<p>a) Biomass data provided by CSIRO and used to parameterize equation 1</p> $M = 6.011 * (\sqrt{P} - 5.291)^2$ <p style="text-align: right;">Equation (1)</p> <p>[0.346] [0.823]</p>	<p>b) Biomass estimated from Snowden et. al. (2000) allometrics and MBAC Consultants (2003) inventory data</p> $M^{\wedge} = 5.132 * (\sqrt{P} - 6.016)^2$ <p style="text-align: right;">Equation (6)</p> <p>[0.667] [1.981]</p>
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Although the parameter estimates for Equation 6 are not significantly different to Equation 2 ($p > 0.05$), the total aboveground biomass estimates using Equation 2 are significantly greater ($p > 0.05$) than the estimates derived from the inventory.

Plantations

FullCAM outputs were compared to measurements from an intensively measured *Pinus radiata* plantation experiment - the Biology of Forest Growth (BFG). The BFG experiment was established in 1983 in the Australian Capital Territory (ACT) and has some 19 years of volume growth measurements combined with detailed site data, including aboveground biomass estimates for a period of 5 years. Data from this experiment has been used in the development and calibration of several physiological models (e.g., *BIOMASS* (McMurtrie et. al., 1992) and *CenW* (Kirschbaum 1999)). The BFG site falls near the boundary between poor and average quality soil (Equation 1) with the broad value used in the national estate just in the later. However the soil quality at BFG is considered poor (Benson et. al., 1992). *FullCAM* allows easy adjustment of the effects of soil quality, by simply changing classes where the broad-scale estimate is not applicable at a fine plot scale. The biomass predictions from *FullCAM* (Figure E4) follow the general growth pattern, but the magnitude in the average soil prediction is consistently higher than the observed mass. This trend is also present in the volume predictions (Figure E5) with both the average and poor soil predictions showing good agreement with the growth pattern up to 25 years and with the poor quality soil run proving particularly accurate.

As the stand ages, the difference in volume between the simulated poor soil and the observed values began to increase. Volume growth in the control treatment at BFG continued at an average of 19 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ from age 10 to age 29, with only small fluctuations due to climatic conditions, while the modelled growth begins to slow by age 23. Despite this trend, there was only around a 10% difference between the actual and modelled values (average or poor) at age 29. Importantly, the increments over time periods are very similar, even though the absolute values can be quite different. The age structure of the national plantation estate will therefore

minimise potential error over short time periods. As volume is back predicted by *FullCAM* from aboveground biomass, the differences in volume may simply be a function of the variable density function applied (Polglase et. al., 2004) or differences in allocation rather than actual differences in the aboveground biomass predictions.

Figure 7.E4. Aboveground biomass at BFG (control) compared to FullCAM estimates assuming poor and average soils.

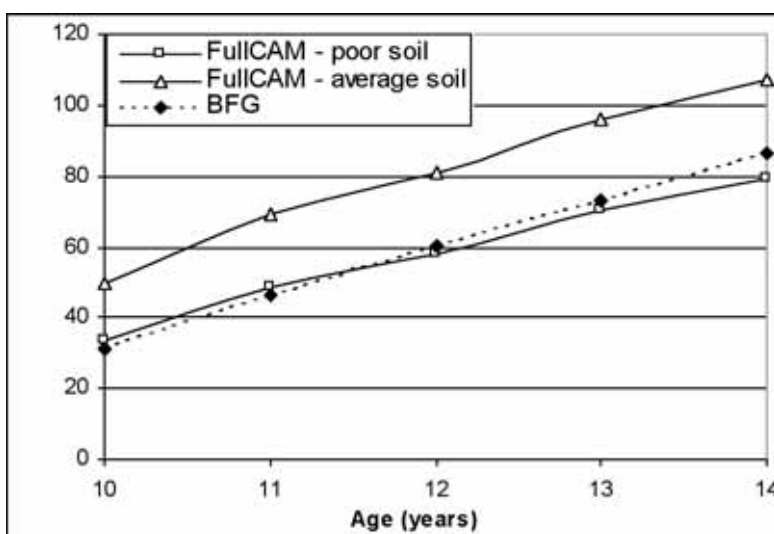
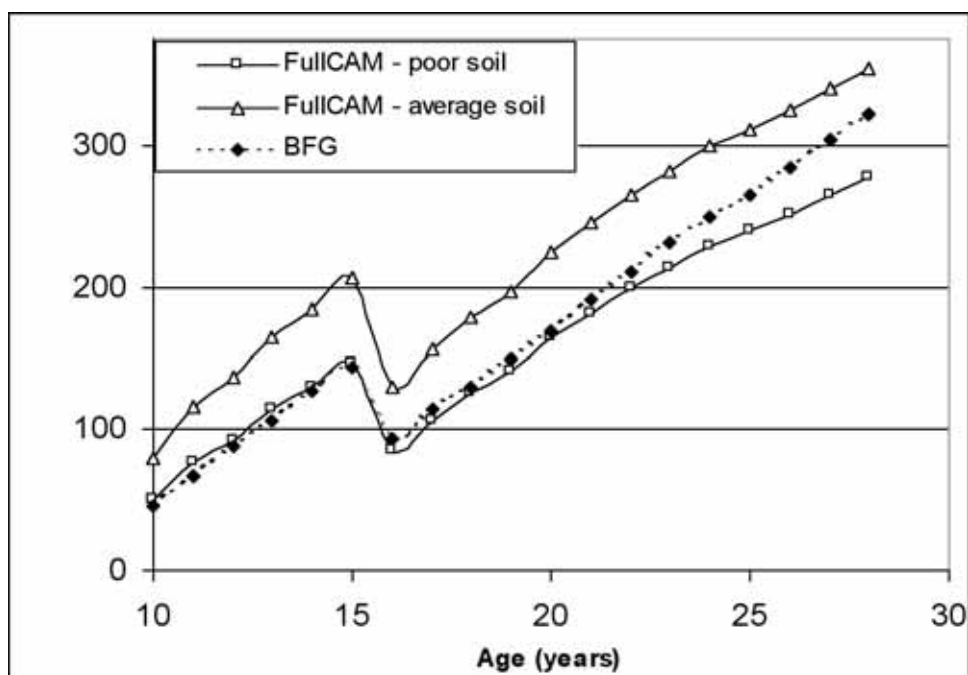


Figure 7.E5. Stem volume at the BFG experiment (control) compared to FullCAM estimates assuming poor and average soils.



Soils

Validation of the NCAS soil carbon model used a combination of comparison to results of time-series measurements at research sites (independent of those used for model calibration) and paired site sampling. The results of the validation activity are reported in Skjemstad and Spouncer (2002) and Paul et. al. (2003a). The validation results were generally good, with (fortuitously) best model performance in areas of most significant land use change. Overall, the model agreement with research site data was better than with the paired sites. Further investigations led to the conclusion that the paired sites were located in some soils where the model exhibits some weaknesses, but also that there was more imprecision in the paired sites due to soil variability and different site histories than expected.

Coarse Woody Debris and Litter

Given the complex and dynamic nature of this pool, it was concluded that verification could not rely on the measurement of inputs, transitions and losses due to disturbance. Instead, the mass balance cycling model approach was used to determine the quality of model calibration. If inappropriate or poorly calibrated parameters of inputs, transfer and losses were used, the mass balance model would, over a long period of time, predict clearly inappropriate pool size (too large or too small in this or surrounding pools). Estimates of coarse woody debris were made from literature and field studies to frame the initial model estimates that reflect typical conditions.

Wood Products

The eventual constraining and convergence of top-down and bottom-up approaches to estimating harvested wood products will provide confidence in estimates of inputs of materials. Studies such as those by Ximenes and Gardner (2005) and Ximenes et. al. (2005) can also selectively validate various elements of the model parameterisation. In other areas of model parameterisation, significant further work will be required to reduce uncertainty in model estimates. These parameters include refined estimates of the service life of wood containing products, rates of recycling and re-entry to new products, and disposal by entry to landfill or incineration. Further work is being conducted on the rates of turnover, and forms of gas emitted during decomposition in landfill.

Land Cover Change

The validation of remotely sensed changes in forest cover is contained within an overall continuous improvement and validation program. The initial validation (Lowell et. al., 2003; Jones et. al., 2004; Lowell et. al., 2005) considered the initial time-series of change data from 1972-2000. This was done using air photograph comparisons. Results from this work then guided improvements made when the time-series was updated, with 2002 data, and the full time-series reanalysed to reflect the improvements. Similar updates were also undertaken for 2004 and 2005. Validation of analyses, for both changes in forest cover and changes in sparse woody vegetation used comparisons to very high resolution data which has significantly improved the quality of the validation. Previously the air photographs, even when using resolutions to 1:25,000 were inconclusive as a validation dataset.

An independent analysis of the "raw" accuracy of the classification of woody and non-woody points across the continent and over period 1972 – 2000 indicated that 2 – 6% of forest was incorrectly classified, while 4 – 15% of non-forest was incorrectly classified (Jones et. al., 2004). Errors in the estimated rates of change (afforestation/regrowth or deforestation) however, were lower than the above errors as a process of manual 'attribution' was used to confirm or reject changes in cover in the final dataset. Forms of error removed are those associated with green flushing in imagery, degradation, terrain illumination, irrigation, water bodies and fire scars.

Validation of plantation type mapping accuracy was carried out against specifically collected field data showing plantation species, stocking, condition, age and extent. This validation data was collected during a national program of site visits. The recently completed plantation mapping achieved an accuracy of 91% in terms of both species and spatial referencing for plantations identified as post 1990 plantations (MBAC Consulting, in prep.). Incorrect forest typing (for example, labelling hardwood as softwood and visa versa) contributed 5% of the error, with only 4% being incorrect by both location and type. These results provide considerable confidence in the methodology applied and allow, for the first time, a spatio-temporal analysis of Australia's plantation estate.

Deforestation is taken to occur when a removal of forest is deliberately done for the purpose of a change in land use. Regrowth is when, either deliberately or naturally, a forest regrows on an area previously deforested. Deforestation is spatially separated (and unique) from natural effects such as dieback and fire, and temporary removals of forest by harvest. This permanent or temporary nature of the change is determined through a visual checking of the time-series data.

The Nitrogen Model

The carbon cycling approaches used in the *FullCAM* model are similar to those implemented in the *Century* model (Parton et. al., 1987), which allowed *FullCAM* to be further developed to include nitrogen cycling, using the *Century* approach as a basis. Inclusion of nitrogen cycling serves two functions. The first is to constrain growth where there is insufficient nitrogen available to plants to support that growth. This is often particularly important in Australian conditions (Dalal et. al., 2002). The second is to estimate the amount of nitrogen volatilised, or lost to nitrification and denitrification. These estimates are of specific interest as losses of N_2O to the atmosphere are required for greenhouse gas emissions reporting. The model couples the nitrogen cycling with the boundary line approach (Conen et. al., 2000) and uses estimated nitrogen available, set temperatures and water filled pore space to determine N_2O emissions.

Calibrations of the nitrogen model component of *FullCAM* have been developed for one cropping and one plantation site. Sites with sufficient time-series data for calibration of both carbon and nitrogen are very scarce. Unfortunately, no site with a sufficiently long time-series description of carbon and nitrogen cycling has also measured actual emissions. To supplement the sparse emissions data available, a series of intact soil cores have been placed under various treatments in laboratory incubations. These incubations allow for identification of thresholds for denitrification, and of the quantum of emissions during denitrification. In concert with a series of in-situ field chambers, sufficient data should be available for model calibration and validation.

The model calibration has highlighted several issues that need to be considered. The first is that as the nitrogen cycling has faster turnover, and exhibits more volatile (episodic) behaviour than the carbon cycling, a daily time-series is required for model runs. Also, the model is very sensitive to plant uptakes, and in forest systems, storage in plant biomass.

Discussion

A key strength of the NCAS is its comprehensive treatment of both carbon and nitrogen cycles covering all terrestrial pools and processes so that:

- > mass balances of carbon and nitrogen are achieved along with interactions between terrestrial and atmospheric stores; and,
- > the interplay and effect on biological processes of carbon and nitrogen cycles (e.g., growth limited by nitrogen depletion; decomposition limited by substrate availability) are acknowledged.

The decision to implement the comprehensive and integrated form of NCAS was based on the development of a critical mass of resource information and significant core capabilities that have broad applications. The most significant of these are the fifteen Landsat MSS (1972-1988) and TM/ETM+ (1988-2006) coverages of Australia.

The pixel resolution of the data is 50 m for MSS and 25 m for TM/ETM (Furby 2002). Another core product was interpolated monthly climate maps of Australia for rainfall, evaporation, minimum, maximum and average temperature and number of frost days per month. Slope and aspect-corrected 250 m resolution solar radiation measurements, direct and diffuse, were also developed (Landsberg and Kesteven 2001; Kesteven et. al., 2004). Together, these products provide a dynamic background to the modelling activities of the NCAS.

Compiling the necessary fundamental and derivative data also encouraged broad strategic relationships to evolve with other natural resource management interests in areas such as vegetation management, forest inventory, soil organic matter management, resource economics etc. The development of the NCAS has thus involved scientists from numerous different disciplinary backgrounds, bringing together their expert knowledge. Forest scientists, agricultural scientists, soil scientists, statisticians, remote sensing experts, climatologists, modellers, and specialist programmers were involved. These broader interests facilitate exchanges of data and knowledge that improve system efficiency and effectiveness.

Another important derivative of coordinated approaches is the capability to encourage systematic and continuous improvement and validation activities. The flexibility of the modelling approach allows parameters to be re-calibrated or new components to be relatively easily integrated, which again optimises the functional outputs derived from the dedication of public resources to this activity. The majority of the input data is related to climate at a fine temporal scale as this variability has a significant effect on many of the biological processes of growth and decay. Another substantial set of data is related to possible management activities and disturbance events and how these would impact on the basic processes.

The use of a hybrid process driven and empirical approach has enabled a robust generalized method for determining forest biomass stocks and rates of forest growth for Australia. Equation 1 provides for appreciation of the processes underpinning growth, while Equations 2 – 5 allow these process-based relationships to be grounded in empirical observations. Consequently the agreement between the patterns of observed biomass and *FullCAM* predictions (Figure 7.E3 – E5) was not unexpected. The regression approach has an advantage over a purely process-driven model which has been shown to generally over-predict site biomass since factors such as insect attack are not taken into account (Kurz et. al., 1998). The potential biomass estimate in *FullCAM* represents the biomass towards which growth will generally approach. It may be that the overprediction of biomass in Queensland's privately managed forests (Figure 7.E3) is a consequence of this process-model bias, but it may more likely be due to localised bias with the Snowdon et. al. (2000) allometrics or that the stands had been disturbed and were still returning to the long-term maximum state.

By taking mass balance approaches, and being comprehensive of all relevant land-based activities, the NCAS ensures that no gaps or overlaps occur in the estimates of greenhouse gas emissions. In the process of compiling necessary fundamental and derivative data, broad strategic relationships have evolved with other natural resource management interests in areas such as vegetation management, forest inventory, soil organic matter management, resource economics etc. These broader interests facilitate exchanges of data and knowledge that continuously improve the NCAS efficiency and effectiveness.

Although currently limited to use in carbon accounting, the *FullCAM* outputs have great potential for estimating other statistics of interest to the forest industry and other land managers. For example, any parameter that is related to above ground biomass (or other output produced by *FullCAM*) can be more precisely estimated by an inventory system using the point estimates output by *FullCAM* as auxiliary variables in a variable probability inventory. For example, Brack (2004), found that the presence of an auxiliary variable with an r^2 value similar to that found in Equation 6 could be used in an appropriate inventory design to improve the precision of the population estimates by a factor of two when compared to a systematic sampling system.

National Carbon Accounting Toolbox and DataViewer

As part of the NCAS program a public release version of *FullCAM* combined with electronic copies of the technical report series and Landsat imagery (the DataViewer) was made available. This provides a valuable resource to land managers while ensuring greater transparency for the NCAS. The DataViewer contains five of the fifteen national composite Landsat satellite sensor images (1972, 1980, 1989, 2000, 2004) obtained and registered by the NCAS, continental maps of long-term average rainfall, minimum, average and maximum temperatures, evaporation and number of frost days. Recent improvements in image compression technology allowed all of this data to fit onto a single DVD. The associated program allows users to locate and zoom into any area of Australia and compare images to help determine changes in land use from 1972-2004. All of these images can be easily imported into more complex GIS systems.

Although a useful tool, the image compression used in the DataViewer does lead to some reduction in visual quality. The archive of Landsat data has been made publicly available through Geoscience Australia (www.ga.gov.au) for the cost of data transfer. This is a major improvement in the availability of land-use data for land managers in Australia. The National Carbon Accounting Toolbox (NCAT) contains a public release version of *FullCAM* and all of the NCAS Technical Reports which outline how and why the system was established, data used in the development of the system and the results of continental simulations. The public release version does not contain nitrogen cycle modelling capabilities or other model aspects currently under development or restricted to research use.

As part of the NCAT development, *FullCAM* was fitted with a Databuilder function. A single *FullCAM* plot file typically requires over 1,500 inputs, including monthly climate records and species and management information making it difficult and time consuming to develop a single model. The Databuilder function simplifies this process by downloading all the required data for a point from a webserver that contains all the climate, species and management data as used in NCAS continental simulations. Users simply select the type of system they wish to model (forest only, agriculture only or transitions between the two), enter a latitude and longitude (obtainable from the Dataviewer) and click a button to download the spatial data. The model then accesses the webserver and obtains the required climate and site information for the specific location from either 250m or 1km grids depending on the data type. Users then further decide what species and management actions they wish to model and further download the required parameters from the server. Hence users can quickly build a *FullCAM* plot using the best available data at the national level. These models can then be saved, shared with other users, and run at any time without a web connection. As the full model is provided, advanced users can also adjust any parameter in the model to better fit their exact circumstances.

ATTACHMENT E1: THE FULLCAM MODEL**Naming Conventions***Abbreviations used in names*

Actv = Active soil carbon

Avg = Average B = Microbes (dead) (see P, Micr)

Bkdn = Breakdown C = Carbon Material whose every atom has six protons

C = Coarse (see Dcy, Root)

Cel = Cellulose (see Lig, Sol)

CM = Carbon mass of material Mass of carbon atoms in the material

Conp = Consumption (of fodder by animals, which emits methane)

Cons = Construction wood

Dcmp = Decomposition

De = Decomposable (see Re)

Debr = Debris

Dec = Decrease (due to)

Decomp = Decomposable

Dcy = Decay (sloughed off root), either CDcy (coarse decay) or FDcy (fine decay)

Dwd = Deadwood

Eff = Assimilation efficiency of microbes

Evap = Evaporation

F = Fine (see Dcy, Root)

Fibr = Fibreboard

Fodd = Fodder (inside animal stomachs)

Foli = Foliage Leaves and twigs of tree

Frac = Fraction of a specified part of a whole (a number from 0 to 1, inclusive)

Furn = Furniture

Grth = Growth (of trees or crops)

Humf = Humification Inc = Increase (due to)

Inrt = Inert soil carbon

Lig = Lignin (see Cel, Sol)

Lit = Litter, either LLit (leaf litter) or BLit (bark litter)

M = Mass (dry weight)

Micr = Microbes (live) (see B, P)

Mod = Modifier

N, Nitro = (Available) nitrogen

NCRatio = Ratio of nitrogen mass to carbon mass

NM = Nitrogen Mass

Nutr = Nutrition

P = Plant matter (dead) (see B, Micr)

Pack = Packing wood

Papr = Pulp and paper

PB = Plant matter and microbial matter

Rel = Relative

Resi = Residue (from wood product mill)

Root = Root, either CRoot (coarse root) or FRoot (fine root)

RotAge = Rotation age (years since trees were planted)

Sol = Soluble litter (see Cel, Lig)

Tbl =Table

Temp =Temperature

Turn =Turnover

Wall = Microbe cell wall

Abbreviated Quantities

ASW = Available soil water (in mm of rainfall or irrigation) (3-PG only)

BIO = Microbial biomass = Fast and slow decomposing biomass combined (BIO-F + BIO-S) (Roth-C only)

BIOF = BIO-F = Fast decomposing biomass (Roth-C only)

BIOS = BIO-S = Slow decomposing biomass (Roth-C only)

CO2 = Carbon dioxide

DPM = Decomposable plant material (Roth-C only)

GBF = Grain, buds, and fruit

GBFP = Grain, bud, and fruit products

GPP = Gross Primary Production = Overall production of tree or crop biomass in tonnes of carbon

HSS = Hay, straw, and silage

HUM = Humified organic matter (Roth-C only)

NPP = Net Primary Productivity = GPP - carbon lost in respiration

PAR = Photosynthetically Active Radiation (3-PG only)

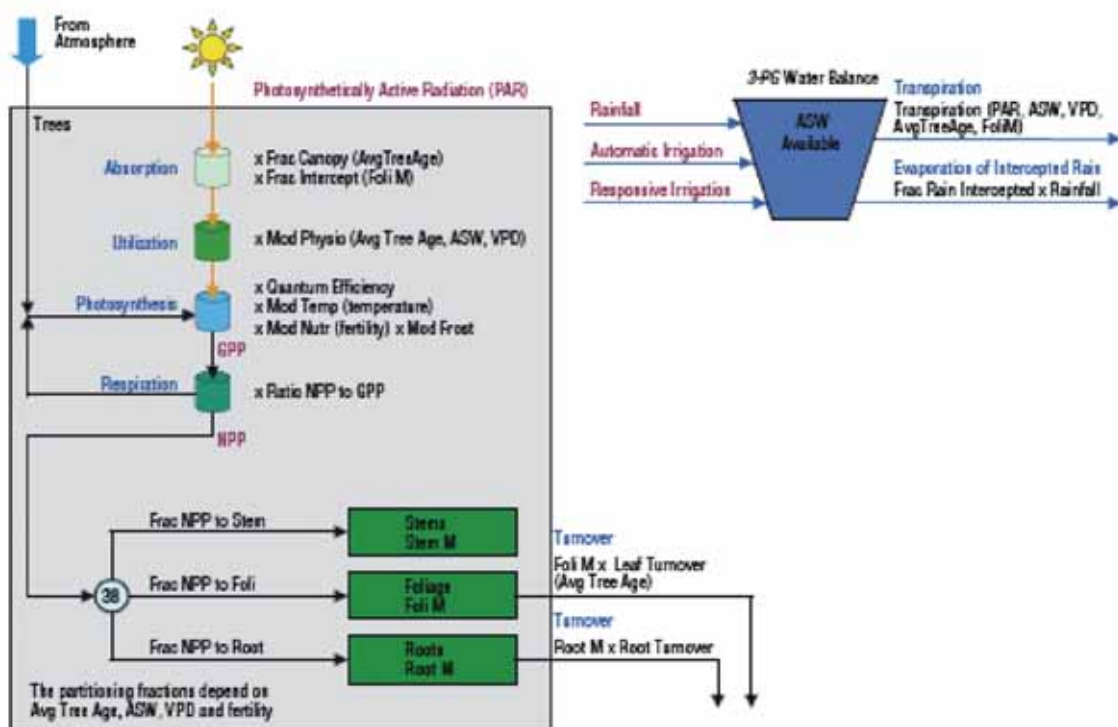
RPM = Resistant plant material (resistant to decomposition) (Roth-C only)

TSMD = Topsoil moisture deficit

VPD = Vapor Pressure Deficit (in kPa) (3-PG only)

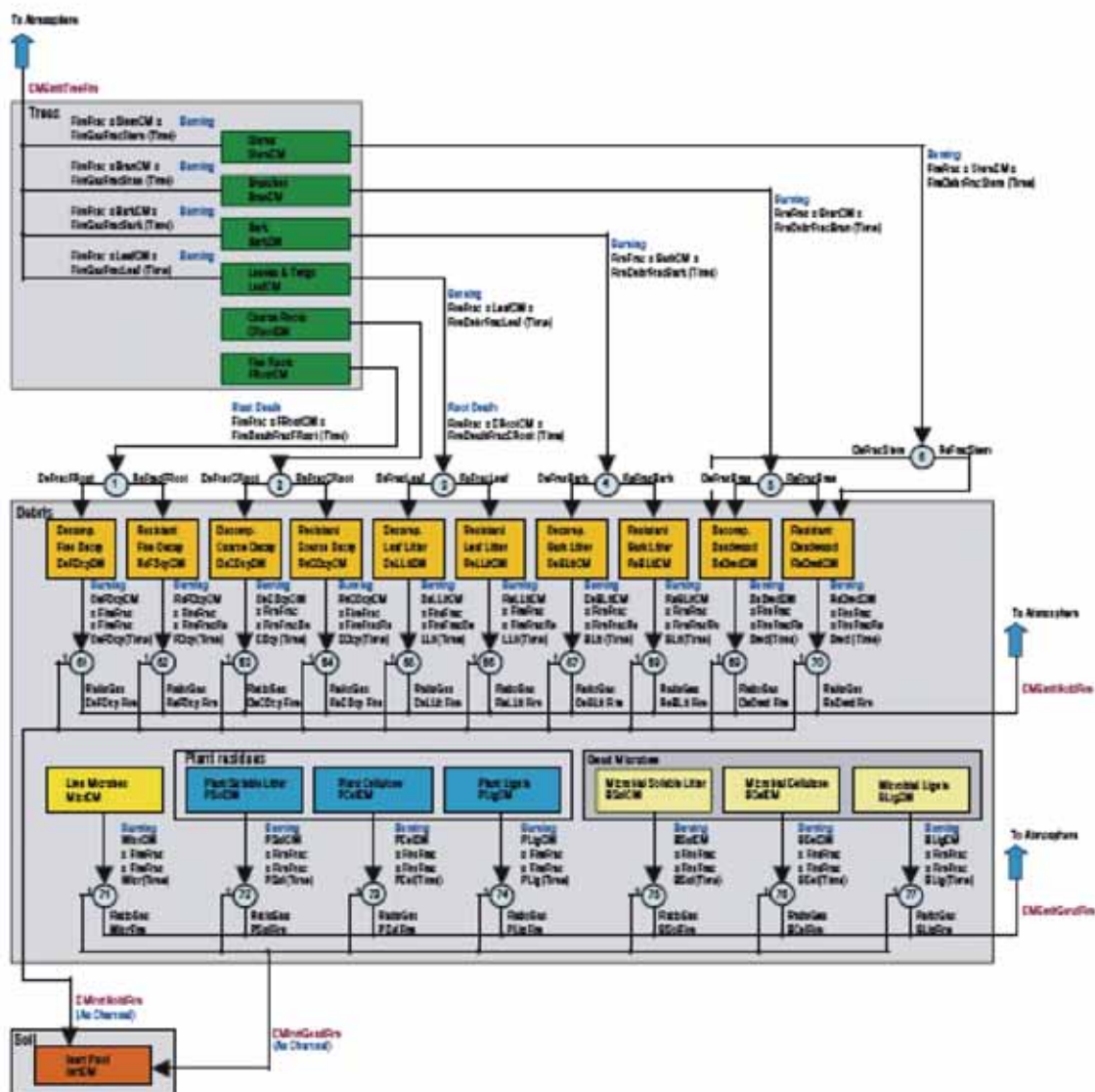
XXX = DPM, RPM, BIO-F or BIO-S (all active soil carbon categories except HUM)

The 3-PG Model



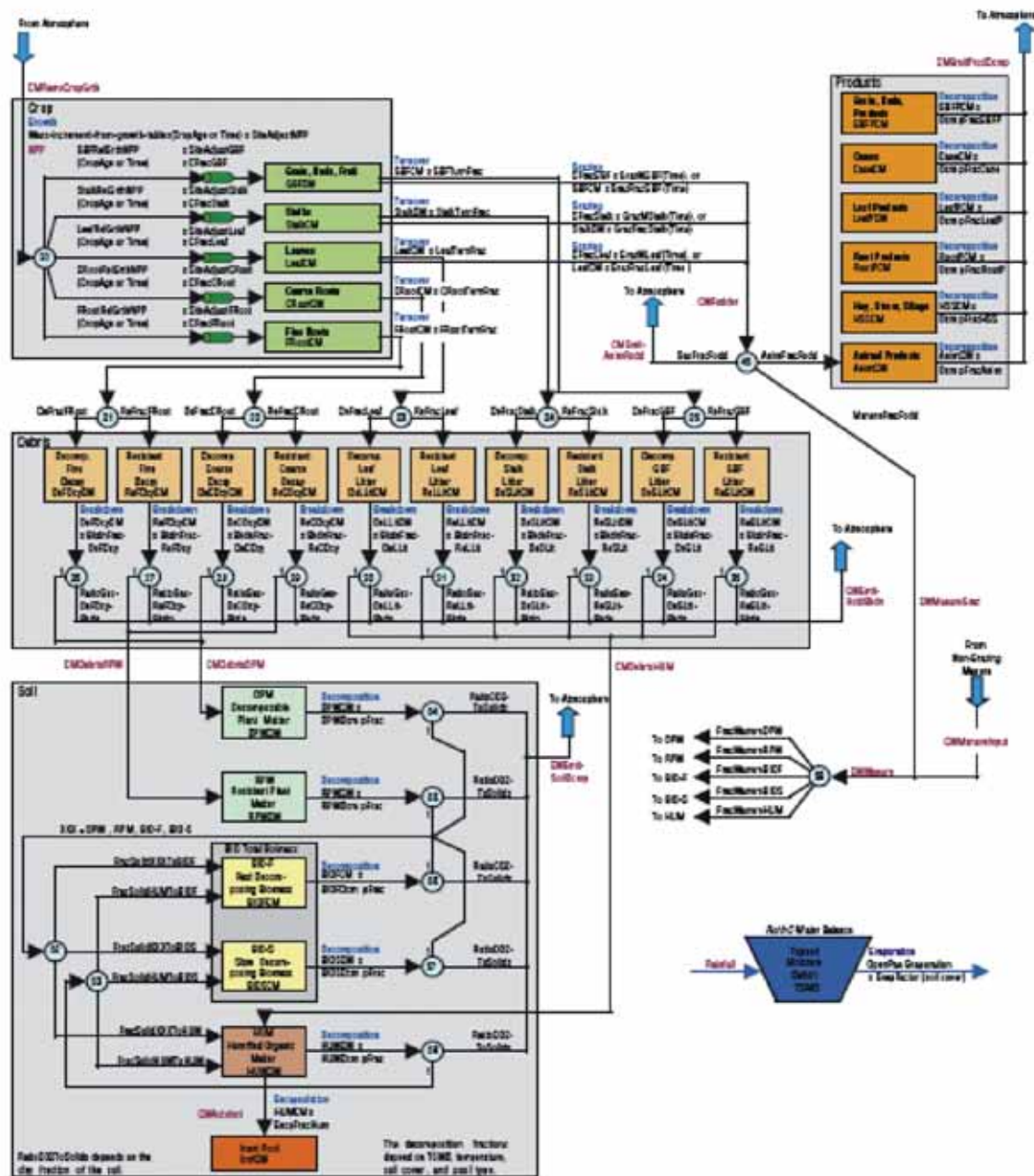


The CAMFor Model (b) Fire

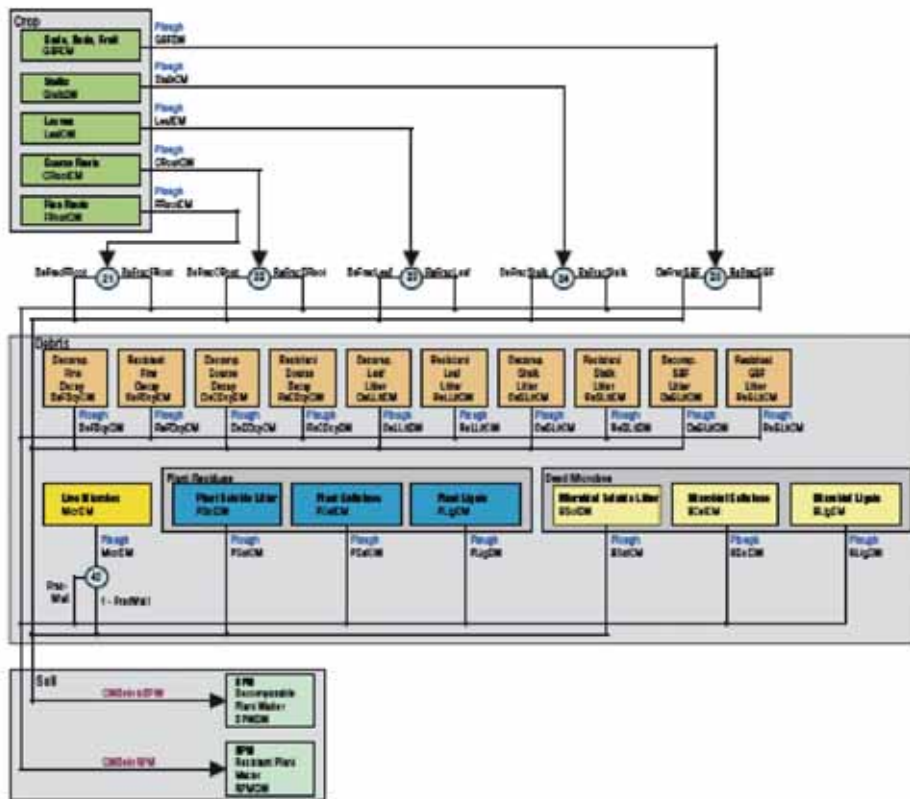




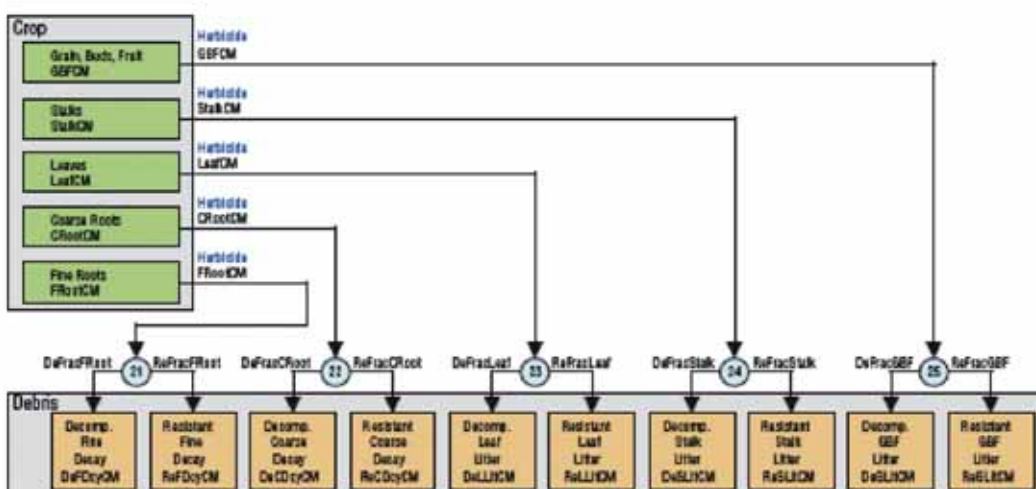
The CAMag Model (b) Harvest



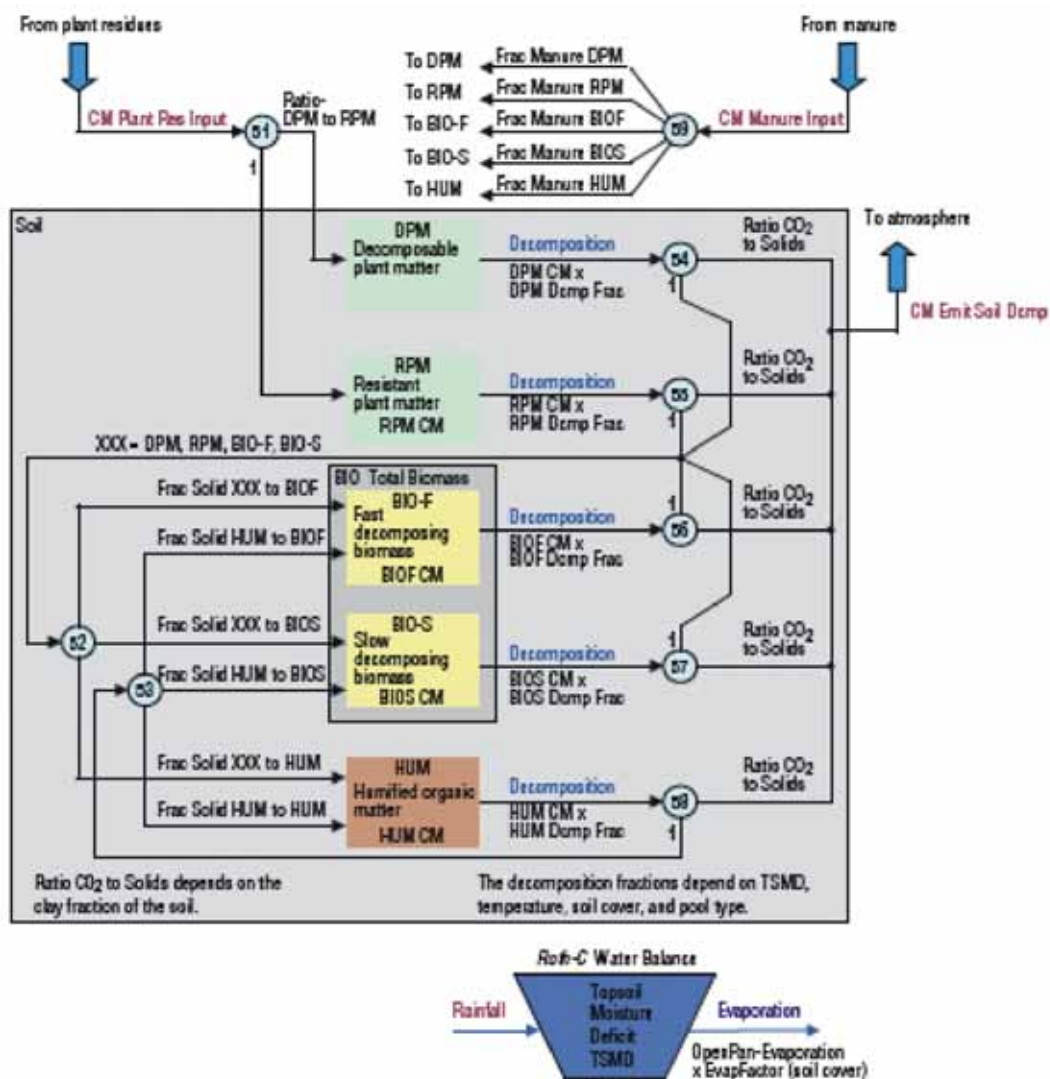
The CAMAg Model (d) Herbicide



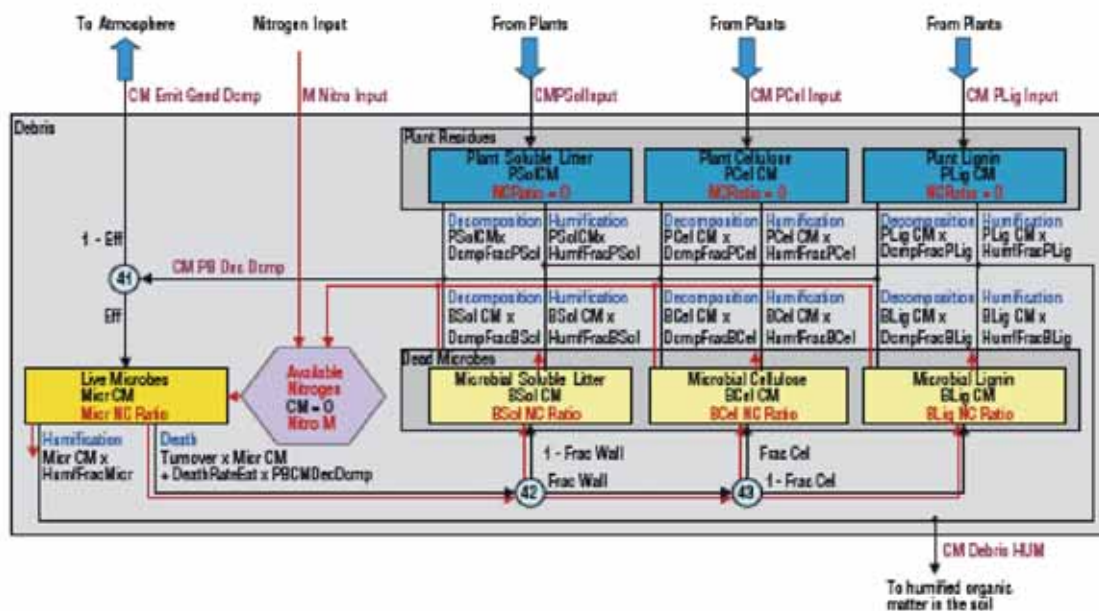
The CAMAg Model (c) Plough



The GENDEC Model



The Roth-C Model



8. WASTE

8.1 OVERVIEW

Total estimated waste emissions for 2006 were 16.6 Mt CO₂-e, or 3.0% of total net national emissions (Table 8.1). The majority of these emissions were from solid waste disposal on land, contributing 13.2 Mt or 79.6% of waste emissions. Wastewater handling contributed a further 3.4 Mt (20.6%) of waste emissions while waste incineration contributed 0.03 Mt (0.2%). *Waste* emissions are predominantly methane-generated from anaerobic decomposition of organic matter. Small amounts of carbon dioxide are generated through the *incineration of solvents and clinical waste* and nitrous oxide through the *decomposition of human wastes*.

Table 8.1 Waste CO₂-e emissions, 2006

Greenhouse gas source and sink categories	CO ₂ -e emissions (Gg)			
	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	Total
6 WASTE	28	16,013	579	16,620
A. Solid waste disposal on land	NA	13,170	NE	13,170
B. Wastewater handling	NA	2,842	579	3,421
C. Waste incineration	28	NA	NE	28
D. Other waste	NA	NA	NA	NA

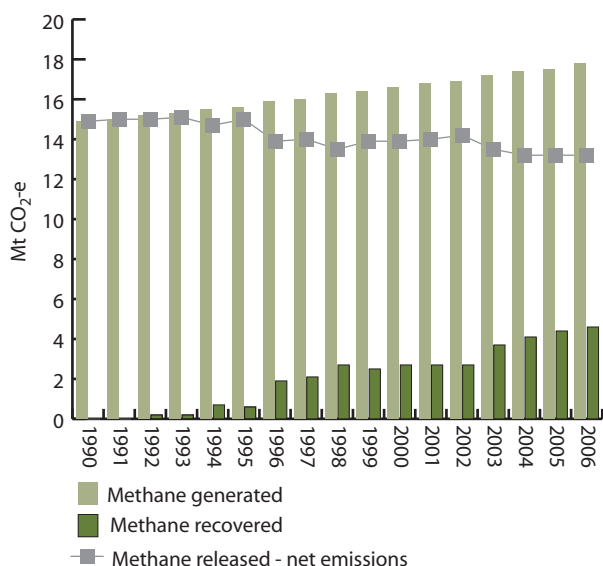
Trends

Waste emissions were 11.4% (2.1 Mt CO₂-e) lower in 2006 than they were in 1990 and 0.3% (0.04 Mt CO₂-e) higher than in 2005.

Emissions from municipal *solid waste disposal on land* decreased by 11.4% (1.7 Mt CO₂-e) over the period 1990 to 2006 (Figure 8.1), and were 0.1% (0.01 Mt CO₂-e) lower than in 2005. As waste degradation is a slow process, estimates of methane generation for 2006 reflect waste disposal over more than 50 years.

Rates of methane recovery from solid waste have improved substantially since 1990, increasing from a negligible amount to 4.6 Mt CO₂-e of methane in 2006.

Figure 8.1 Emissions from solid waste disposal on land, 1990–2006



Wastewater handling emissions decreased by 10.4% (0.4 Mt CO₂-e) over the period 1990 to 2006, with an increase of 1.7% (0.06 Mt CO₂-e) since 2005. Changes in estimates for wastewater handling emissions are largely driven by changes in estimates of industry production and population.

Emissions of CO₂ from the incineration of solvents and clinical waste decreased by 66.6% (0.1 Mt) between 1990 and 2006.

8.2 OVERVIEW OF SOURCE CATEGORY DESCRIPTION AND METHODOLOGY – WASTE

Table 8.2 Summary of methods and emission factors used to estimate emissions from Waste

Greenhouse Gas Source And Sink Categories	CO ₂		CH ₄		N ₂ O	
	Method applied	Emission factor	Method applied	Emission factor	Method applied	Emission factor
6. Waste	T2	CS	T2	CS,D	T1	D
A. Solid Waste Disposal on Land	NA	NA	T2	D		
B. Wastewater Handling			T2	CS,D	T1	D
C. Waste Incineration	T2	CS	NE	NA	NE	NA
D. Other	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

T1 = Tier 1, T2 = Tier 2, CS = country specific, M = model, D = default, NE = not estimated, NA = not applicable

8.2.1 SOLID WASTE DISPOSAL ON LAND (6.A)

Source Category Description

The anaerobic decomposition of organic matter in a landfill is a complex process that requires several groups of microorganisms to act in a synergistic manner under favourable conditions. Emissions emanate from waste deposited over a long period (in excess of 50 years in the Australian inventory). The final products of anaerobic

decomposition are CH₄ and CO₂. Emissions of CO₂ generated from solid waste disposal are considered to be from biomass sources and therefore are not included in the waste sector of the inventory. Management of landfill sites is generally a municipal activity, with activity data collected by State Government agencies. CO₂ produced from the flaring of methane from waste is also considered as having been derived from biomass sources.

Methodology

The Australian methodology for calculating greenhouse gas emissions from solid waste is consistent with the IPCC Tier 2 First Order Decay (FOD) Model (IPCC 2006). The methodology deployed utilizes a dynamic, spatially-explicit model driven by landfill data provided by the relevant State/Territory Government agencies responsible for waste management. Although the structure of the methodology is constant across States, climate-specific parameters introduce variations in estimated emissions depending on location. The model tracks the stock of carbon estimated to be present in the landfill at any given time. Emissions are generated by the decay of that carbon stock, and reflect waste disposal activity over many decades. The methodology is fully integrated with the results of the Harvested Wood Products (HWP) model reported in chapter 7.

Landfill waste decays and emits methane, depending on its composition and the landfill conditions. Methane emissions in one year depend on the stock of organic material present in the landfill, which has been deposited over many preceding years. The IPCC guidelines recommend that the estimation of emissions from landfills is based on carbon stocks over 3-5 half lives. That is, for waste with a half life of 12 years, it is recommended that 36-60 years of waste data is used to derive emissions estimates.

Australian waste to landfill data

A time series for waste in each State has been constructed using recent data from the States, and other historic sources where available and consistent. Actual waste tonnes reported by the States comprise all or part of the most recent years' figures. Backcasting has been undertaken to derive a time series back to 1940, allowing for a carbon stock model covering 50 years.

Total waste to landfill data is disaggregated into three major waste streams:

- > municipal solid waste;
- > commercial and industrial waste; and,
- > construction and demolition waste.

State/Territory data have been used to determine the stream percentages. Where disaggregated historical data cease, the stream shares have been held constant back to 1940. As no stream data is currently available for the Northern Territory, the stream percentages for Queensland have been used. In Table 8.3 the stream percentages for each State and Territory as applied for the 2006 Inventory are outlined.

Table 8.3 State Waste stream percentages 2006

	NSW ⁽¹⁾	VIC ⁽²⁾	QLD ⁽³⁾	NT ⁽³⁾	SA ⁽⁴⁾	WA ⁽⁵⁾	TAS ⁽⁶⁾	ACT ⁽⁷⁾
Municipal Solid Waste	31%	36%	38%	43%	36%	23%	67%	43%
Commercial and Industrial	41%	24%	37%	14%	19%	22%	27%	42%
Construction and Demolition	28%	40%	25%	43%	46%	54%	6%	15%

Sources: ⁽¹⁾ NSW Environment Protection Authority; ⁽²⁾ EcoRecycle Victoria; ⁽³⁾ QLD Environment Protection Authority; ⁽⁴⁾ SA Environment Protection Authority; ⁽⁵⁾ WA Department of Environment; ⁽⁶⁾ Hobart City Council; ⁽⁷⁾ ACT Department of Urban Services; derived from NGGIC 2007g

Some states include clean fill in their waste to landfill estimates provided and this has an influence on the waste stream proportions, however, as this type of waste is largely inert, there is little effect on the final emissions estimate.

Each waste stream is further disaggregated into a mix of waste categories that contain significant fractions of biodegradable carbon. The categories considered are as follows:

- > Food;
- > Paper;
- > Garden and green;
- > Wood;
- > Textiles;
- > Sludge
- > Nappies
- > Rubber and leather; and,
- > Other.

Data on paper and wood are taken from the Harvested Wood Products (HWP) Model reported in NGGIC 2007g. The model tracks carbon stored in wood and paper products entering the Australian economy: from the time of harvest through the production process and over its service-life in various products to the time of disposal. The wood harvest and production data underpinning this model date back to 1940.

Waste mix estimates are based on the quantities of wood and paper products sent to landfill as derived in the HWP Model and the weighted average of published data on waste mix for the non wood/paper product waste categories. Waste mix percentages change over time as the proportions of wood and paper entering the landfill vary.

Table 8.4 Waste mix percentage by stream for 2006

	Municipal Solid Waste	Commercial & Industrial	Construction & Demolition
Food	26%	8%	0%
Paper and Textiles ^(a)	26%	48%	3%
Garden and Green	10%	4%	2%
Wood ^(a)	2%	12%	6%
Textiles	25%	22%	89%
Sludge	4%	2%	0%
Nappies	0%	3%	0%
Rubber and Leather	6%	0%	0%
Other	0%	1%	0%

Sources: Nolan ITU 1995; EcoRecycle 2000,2005; SA Environment Protection Authority 2000; QLD Environment Protection Authority 2002; NSW Environment Protection Authority 2003; ACT Dept of Urban Services 2005;(a) derived from NGGIC 2007g.

The HWP model output of carbon in wood and paper products entering the landfill has been used to derive a complete time-series of waste to landfill between 1940 and 1990. From 1990 onwards, State and Territory data on total waste to landfill are used. The proportion of wood and paper in total waste is determined based on the HWP model output and residual waste is allocated to food, garden and other waste according to waste mix data collected periodically by State and Territory Authorities. Pre-1990 estimates of total waste to landfill are derived from actual wood and paper to landfill from the HWP model with the waste-mix proportions for other waste types held constant at 1990 levels.

Data on waste to landfill by waste mix category for Australia used in the calculations is reported in Table 8.5, while time-series of waste to landfill between 1990 and 2005 by state are shown in Figure 8.2.

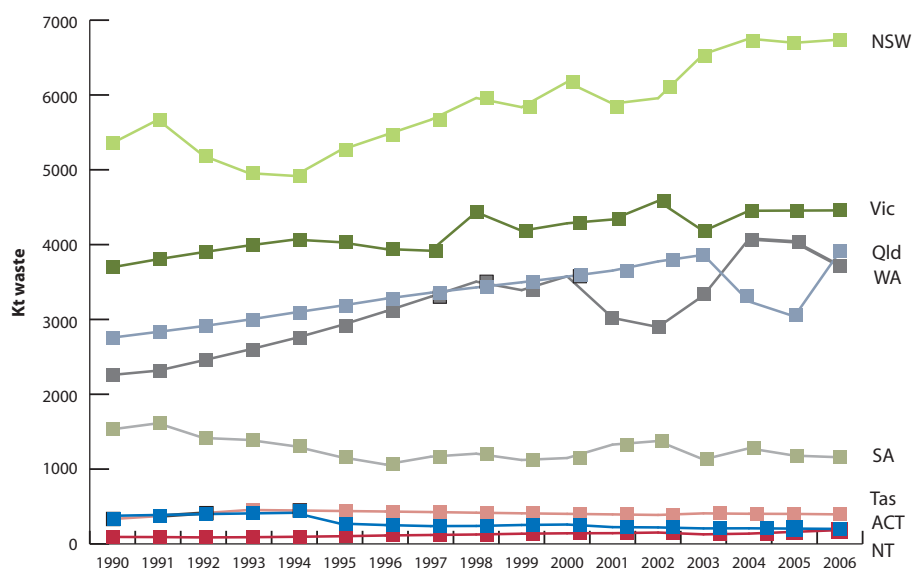
Table 8.5 Volumes of total waste and by type of waste: Australia, 1940–2006

Year	Total waste to landfill ^{a,b} kt	Food ^b kt	Paper ^c kt	Garden ^b kt	Wood ^c kt	Textiles ^b kt	Sludge ^b kt	Nappies ^b kt	Rubber and leather ^b kt
1940	9,637	872	2,362	794	610	199	69	246	26
1950	10,065	912	2,463	830	608	207	73	256	27
1960	15,185	1,398	3,692	1,268	687	311	108	383	41
1970	17,748	1,617	4,281	1,471	813	360	126	443	48
1980	17,098	1,520	4,110	1,389	947	343	122	421	46
1990	16,408	1,439	4,244	1,285	1,102	334	142	380	54
1991	17,085	1,548	4,208	1,372	1,117	348	149	395	56
1992	16,766	1,461	4,253	1,316	1,132	339	137	395	52
1993	16,880	1,392	4,353	1,276	1,149	333	131	391	50
1994	17,090	1,386	4,383	1,274	1,168	333	133	388	50
1995	17,369	1,413	4,433	1,282	1,187	336	146	377	55
1996	17,651	1,439	4,503	1,289	1,202	339	159	366	60
1997	18,199	1,478	4,570	1,312	1,217	344	172	356	65
1998	19,317	1,582	4,613	1,401	1,235	358	181	369	68
1999	18,832	1,503	4,673	1,337	1,250	350	178	358	67
2000	19,560	1,611	4,763	1,423	1,268	367	186	378	70
2001	18,985	1,589	4,848	1,412	1,286	370	175	398	66
2002	19,351	1,567	4,969	1,440	1,304	376	151	438	57
2003	19,783	1,454	5,032	1,361	1,325	359	154	404	58
2004	20,549	1,481	5,204	1,396	1,345	368	156	416	59
2005	20,180	1,486	5,220	1,388	1,365	369	159	415	60
2006	20,687	2,324	5,140	1,157	1,380	392	190	414	72

Sources: a) State Government Agencies; b) DCC estimates derived from Nolan ITU 1995; EcoRecycle 2000,2005; SA Environment Protection Authority 2000; QLD Environment Protection Authority 2002; NSW Environment Protection Authority 2003; ACT Dept of Urban Services 2005; NGGIC 2007g. c) DCC estimates derived from NGGIC 2007g (see also Chapter 7).

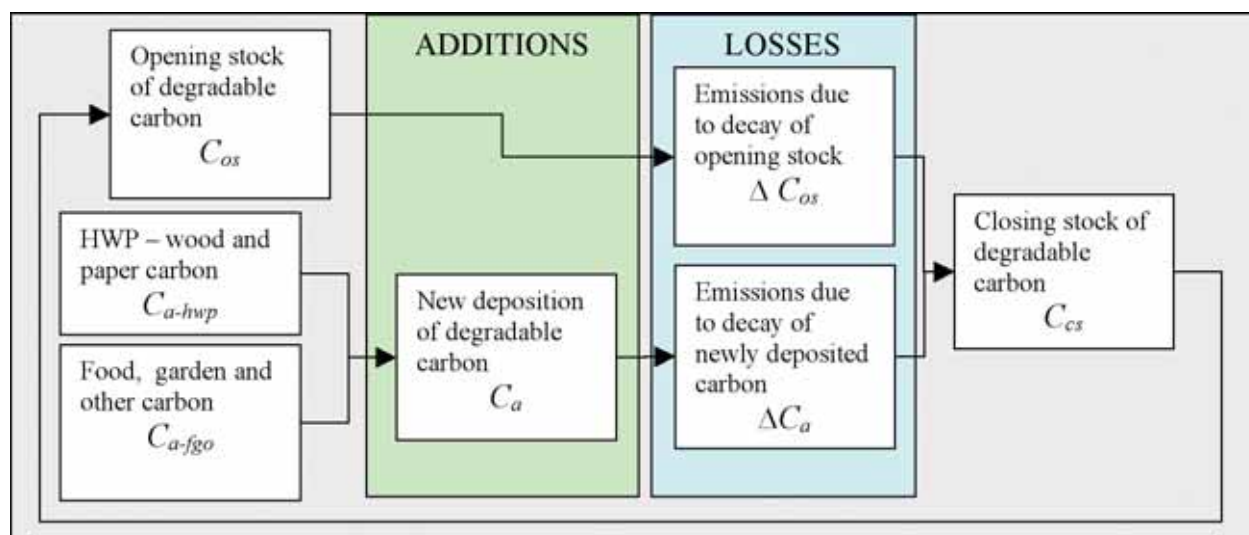
The Australian methodology incorporates the IPCC Tier 2 FOD model presented in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). The IPCC 2006 model provides the flexibility to apply individual decay profiles to each waste mix category. Each waste mix category decays according to an exponential curve which is a function of its individual half-life. Half lives are adjusted according to the prevailing climatic conditions at the landfill site. The FOD model is explained in detail in IPCC 2006 and the *Australian Methodology for the Estimation of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks 2006 - Waste*.

Figure 8.2 Solid waste to landfill by state



Sources: ⁽¹⁾ NSW Environment Protection Authority; ⁽²⁾ EcoRecycle Victoria; ⁽³⁾ QLD Environment Protection Authority; ⁽⁴⁾ SA Environment Protection Authority; ⁽⁵⁾ WA Department of Environment; ⁽⁶⁾ Hobart City Council; ⁽⁷⁾ ACT Department of Urban Services

The IPCC 2006 FOD model takes account of the stock of carbon in a landfill by keeping track of additions of carbon through waste disposal and losses due to anaerobic decay. The concept of the carbon stock model approach is illustrated in Figure 8.3.

Figure 8.3 Carbon stock model flow chart


Carbon enters the landfill system via new deposition of waste C_a . Deposition is based on wood and paper carbon transferred from the HWP carbon pool C_{a-hwp} and carbon in food, garden and other waste derived from data provided by State and Territory waste authorities C_{a-fgo} . A portion of the newly deposited carbon decays in the first year ΔC_a and the remainder contributes to the closing stock of carbon C_{cs} . Additionally, the opening stock of carbon decays over the year ΔC_{os} with the remainder going to the year's closing stock. The closing stock then becomes the next year's opening stock C_{os} . The total change in carbon stock is estimated simultaneously with estimated emissions of methane.

$$C_{cs} = C_{os} - \Delta C_{os} \text{ (emissions lost from opening stock)} + C_a - \Delta C_a \text{ (emissions lost from new deposition)}$$

Values for the degradable organic carbon (DOC) content for each waste mix category used in the model are listed in Table 8.6. Unless otherwise stated, the source for these parameters is IPCC (2006). Country specific studies on the carbon content of wood products have been taken into consideration in the choice of DOC value for wood.

Table 8.6 Key Model Parameters: DOC values used in the First Order Decay Model

Waste Type	DOC
Food	0.15
Paper and Textiles	0.40
Garden and Green	0.20
Wood	0.43
Textiles	0.24
Sludge	0.05
Nappies	0.24
Rubber and Leather	0.39
Other	-

Source: IPCC 2006;

The half lives and associated 'k' values for each waste mix category have been determined based on default half lives reported in IPCC 2006 and on prevailing climatic conditions at the landfill sites of the principal cities in each State and Territory. In each State, average annual temperature and annual rainfall data for the principal landfill sites were taken from data published by the Australian the Bureau of Meteorology. The assumptions of climatic conditions for each State/Territory and 'k' values for each waste mix category are outlined in Table 8.7.

Table 8.7 Key Model Parameters: 'k' values by waste mix category and State

State / Territory	Climate description	Waste mix category	k value
NSW	Wet Temperate	Food	0.185
		Paper and Textiles	0.06
		Garden and Green	0.10
		Wood	0.03
		Textiles	0.06
		Sludge	0.185
		Nappies	0.06
		Rubber and leather	0.06
VIC, WA, SA, TAS, ACT	Dry Temperate	Food	0.06
		Paper and Textiles	0.04
		Garden and Green	0.05
		Wood	0.02
		Textiles	0.04
		Sludge	0.06
		Nappies	0.06
		Rubber and leather	0.04
QLD, NT	Moist and Wet Tropical	Food	0.4
		Paper and Textiles	0.07
		Garden and Green	0.17
		Wood	0.035
		Textiles	0.07
		Sludge	0.4
		Nappies	0.07
		Rubber and leather	0.07

Source: IPCC 2006

Recent research on the decay of wood products in Australian landfills demonstrated that under conditions experienced at certain landfill sites wood products may decay much more slowly than previously thought (Gardner et al 2004). This broad conclusion has been reflected in IPCC 2006 and is implemented through the long default half lives adopted for wood and paper products in the model.

Permanent storage of carbon in landfills

Certain proportions of organic carbon found in wood and paper products are not available to anaerobic decay leading to a permanent storage of carbon in a landfill. This permanent store of carbon from wood and paper products is also tracked in the first order decay model.

Carbon stocks at the end of each year, additions and losses and methane emissions between 1990 and 2005 are shown in Table 8.8. The carbon stocks at 1990 are based on the accumulation of carbon in the landfill since 1940.

Table 8.8 Carbon stocks, losses and accumulation 1990 to 2006

Year	Carbon additions to the pool (C kt)	Carbon loss (through emissions) (C kt)	Closing stock of carbon (C kt)	Methane generated (CH ₄ Gg)
1990	1,422	1,183	69,197	788
1991	1,439	1,194	70,524	796
1992	1,437	1,205	71,850	803
1993	1,449	1,214	73,203	809
1994	1,459	1,223	74,567	815
1995	1,476	1,233	75,952	822
1996	1,496	1,244	77,364	829
1997	1,519	1,256	78,802	837
1998	1,552	1,269	80,274	846
1999	1,552	1,282	81,748	854
2000	1,596	1,295	83,274	864
2001	1,616	1,310	84,826	873
2002	1,649	1,325	86,423	883
2003	1,643	1,339	88,019	892
2004	1,690	1,350	89,689	900
2005	1,698	1,362	91,363	908
2006	1,730	1,380	93,037	920

Source: Department of Climate Change

Methane recovery

Net emissions are derived after accounting for methane recovery undertaken at the landfill site. Methane recovery for flaring and power is estimated for Australia from a survey of the main landfill power and flaring operators. Methane recovered (R(t)) is subtracted from the amount generated before applying the oxidation factor, because only landfill gas that is not captured is subject to oxidation in the upper layer of the landfill. It is assumed that all solid waste disposal on land in Australia is disposed to anaerobic or covered managed landfills (not open dumps or unmanaged sites), hence a methane correction factor of 0.9 applies. Data was obtained from companies and reported in Hyder Consulting 2007b.

Non-Methane Volatile Organic Compounds (NMVOC)

Small quantities of NMVOC are contained in landfill gas emitted from landfills in Australia. Some of these NMVOC are generated by the decomposition process and others are residuals from the particular types of waste dumped in the landfill.

The CSIRO Division of Coal and Energy Technology in Sydney (Duffy, Nelson & Williams 1995) investigated NMVOC emissions from four landfills in the Sydney region. They found significant concentrations, up to 10 parts per million by volume (ppmv), for approximately 60 different compounds. Researchers in the UK (Baldwin & Scott 1991) have found between 2,200 and 4,500 milligrams per cubic metre (mg/m³) of NMVOC present in landfill gas.

In Australian landfills, liquid waste is rarely disposed of with solid waste whereas co-disposal is common practice in the UK. On this basis the lower range of 2,000 mg/m³ found by the UK researchers is used for NMVOC emissions from Australian landfills unless other site-specific information is available.

It is assumed that NMVOC emissions from landfills comprise 0.2% of total landfill gas emissions; the average methane fraction of landfill gas as generated before release to the atmosphere is 0.6. (This quantity is a

weighted mean for all previous years of waste data used to calculate any inventory year's data) and the proportion of methane emitted after oxidation is 0.9.

8.2.2 WASTEWATER HANDLING (6.B)

Source Category Description

The anaerobic decomposition of organic matter in wastewater results in emissions of CH_4 . In Australia wastewater is usually treated at municipal wastewater treatment plants, which receive wastewater from:

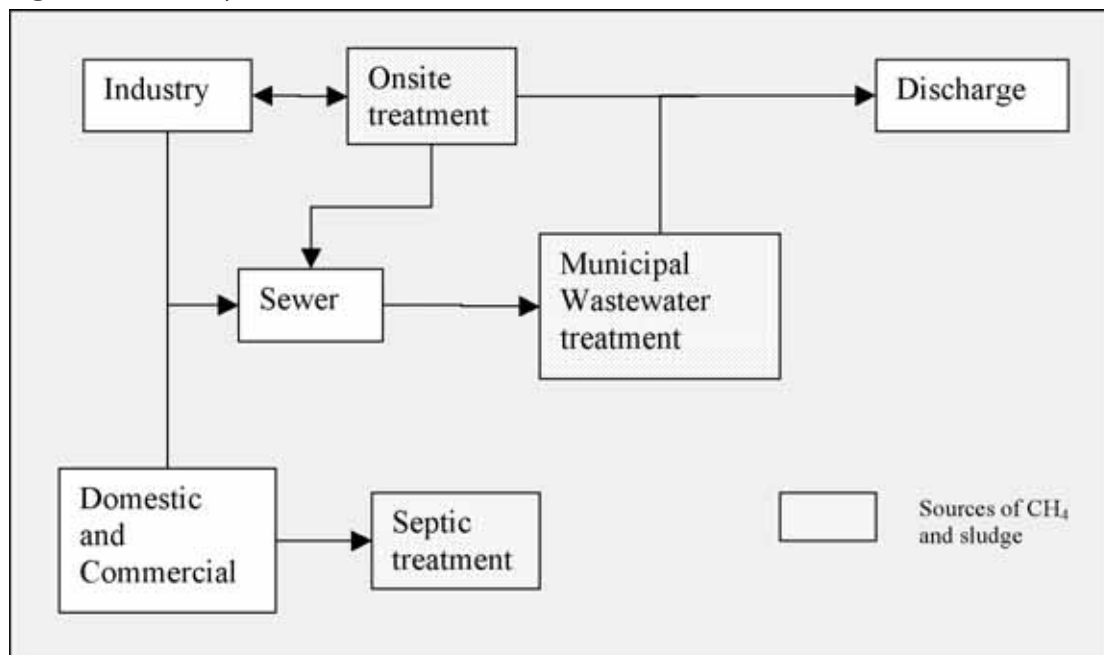
- > domestic premises,
- > commercial establishments, and
- > industrial processing plants.

Municipal wastewater treatment plants in Australia treat a major portion of the domestic sewage and commercial wastewater, and a significant part of industrial wastewater. The main greenhouse gas emitted from wastewater treatment is CH_4 . Wastewater treatment also produces N_2O and NMVOC. Carbon dioxide emissions are excluded from this sector except where they are derived from non-biomass sources of carbon. A schematic diagram of the pathways for wastewater in Australia is shown in Figure 8.4.

Emissions are estimated from the sum of the following four sources:

- > municipal wastewater treatment plants,
- > industrial wastewater,
- > on-site domestic and commercial wastewater treatment, and
- > disposal of sludge generated from the above.

Figure 8.4 Pathways for Wastewater



As shown in the figure, industry treats its wastewater onsite either for direct disposal or for discharge to the sewer. In sewered areas the domestic and commercial sectors discharge directly to the sewer, and in unsewered areas some form of on-site treatment such as septic tanks is used. From the sewer, the wastewater flows to the municipal wastewater treatment plant (MWTP) where it is treated and later discharged.

Methane gas is the principal by-product of anaerobic decomposition of organic matter in wastewater. Large quantities of methane are not usually found in wastewater due to the fact that even small amounts of oxygen are toxic to the anaerobic bacteria that produce the methane. In wastewater treatment plants, however, there are a number of processes that foster the growth of these organisms by providing anaerobic conditions.

As methane is generated by the decomposition of organic matter, the principal factor which determines the methane generation potential of wastewater is the amount of organic material in the wastewater stream. This is most commonly measured (in the case of municipal wastewater) by the Biochemical Oxygen Demand (BOD) of the wastewater. BOD is a measure of the amount of oxygen consumed by the microorganisms that feed on the organic matter over a period of time. For industrial wastewater, Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD) is used. COD is a measure of the total material available for chemical oxidation (both biodegradable and non-biodegradable) (IPCC 2006).

Sources of anaerobic conditions include:

- > sewerage systems – methane generated within the pipeline is released when it enters the inlet of the treatment plant,
- > primary sedimentation tanks, and
- > sludge thickening tanks.

Industrial Wastewater (6.B.1)

Industrial wastewater emissions are estimated using IPCC default methods, COD and wastewater generation rates, supplemented with Australian data where available. Emission trends are driven by changes in production levels of key industries.

Methods for dealing with industrial wastewater in Australia are varied. Some is treated entirely on-site, while a large amount is treated entirely off-site at municipal wastewater treatment plants. Increasingly industrial wastewater is partially treated on-site before being recycled or discharged to the sewer and treated at municipal wastewater treatment plants. This is due to trade waste discharge licence compliance requirements for a certain quality of wastewater to be achieved prior to sewer discharge.

Most of the industrially produced COD in wastewater comes from the manufacturing industry. According to the IPCC, sectors like food and beverage manufacturing produce significant amounts of COD, some of which is anaerobically treated. Some concentrated industrial wastewater is removed from factories in tankers operated by specialised waste disposal services. This wastewater is usually transported to a special treatment facility.

Methodology

The methodology to determine the amount of CH₄ generated from industrial wastewater is given in IPCC 2000 and focuses on 9 industrial sectors which are considered to generate the most significant quantities of wastewater:

- > Dairy production
- > Pulp and paper production
- > Meat and poultry processing
- > Organic chemicals production

- > Sugar production
- > Beer production
- > Wine production
- > Fruit processing
- > Vegetable processing

The level of methane emissions is driven largely by estimates of chemical oxygen demand (COD) in the wastewater anaerobically treated flowing from each of the nine major wastewater industries. The estimates of COD in wastewater anaerobically treated are generated using country specific data. The variables required to estimate COD are reported in Table 8.9.

Table 8.9 Key parameters for industrial wastewater emissions, 2006

Commodity	Wastewater generation rate (m ³ /t)	COD generation rate (kg COD/m ³)	Fraction COD anaerobically treated
Dairy	5.70	0.9	0.4
Pulp and Paper	26.7 ^(b)	0.4	0
Meat and Poultry	13.7	6.1	0.4
Organic Chemicals	67.0 ^(a)	3.0 ^(a)	0.1 ^(a)
Sugar	0.4 ^(a)	3.8	0.3
Beer	5.3	6	0.5
Wine	23.0 ^(a)	1.5 ^(a)	0
Fruit	20	0.2	1
Vegetables	20	0.2	1

Source: O'Brien 2006a unless otherwise stated.

(a) NGGIC 1995

(b) Australian Plantation Products and Paper Industry Council 2006

Methane emissions are calculated from the level of COD in the wastewater treated anaerobically using an emission factor 0.25 kg CH₄/kg BOD (IPCC 2000). Fractions of methane recovered by industry are sourced from empirical data presented in NGGIC 1995 and O'Brien 2006a. The fractions of methane recovery by commodity are presented in Table 8.10.

Table 8.10 Methane recovered as a percentage of industrial wastewater treatment 2006

Commodity	Fraction of Methane Recovered/flared (%)
Dairy ^(b)	6%
Pulp and Paper ^(b)	0%
Meat and Poultry ^(b)	6%
Organic Chemicals ^(b)	6%
Sugar ^(b)	0%
Beer ^(a)	100%
Wine ^(b)	0%
Fruit ^(b)	100%
Vegetables ^(b)	100%

Source: (a) O'Brien 2006a (b) NGGIC 1995

Methane Emissions from Disposal of Sludge Generated by Industrial Wastewater Treatment

A proportion of the COD generated in the industrial wastewater ultimately treated as sludge (a constant value of 0.15 is assumed to be treated as sludge (NGGIC 1995)). Sludge is treated via two main methods, land-spread and landfill. Sludge that is disposed to landfill is accounted for in the solid waste sub-sector. It is estimated that 60% of industrial sludge is treated via the land-spread method.

Domestic and Commercial Wastewater (6.B.2)*Methodology*Methane Emissions from Wastewater Treatment at Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plants (MWTs)

The IPCC 2000 default method is used for the estimation of methane emissions from this Domestic and Commercial Wastewater treatment.

The key variable in the estimation of methane from domestic and commercial wastewater is the biochemical oxygen demand (BOD) from wastewater anaerobically treated. Quantities of BOD treated by Australia's major wastewater treatment plants are based on per-capita BOD generation values for each State/Territory. Sewered populations are based on data reported in WSAA 2005.

Methane emissions from wastewater are calculated from the level of BOD in the wastewater (excluding sludge). The country-specific methane emission factor, 0.65 kg CH₄/kg BOD, is based on the IPCC 2000 default emission factor of 0.25 kg CH₄/kg COD and research conducted by Water Services Association of Australia (WSAA) which has shown COD/BOD ratios of approximately 2.6:1.

Methane Emissions from Disposal of Sludge Generated by Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plants

All wastewater treatment plants produce sludge that needs to be disposed in some way. Sludge generated in Australia is often disposed in sludge lagoons, sludge drying beds or anaerobic digesters. Disposal of this sludge can produce methane if it is allowed to decompose anaerobically. The amount of methane generated is variable depending on the type of treatment process generating the sludge and the method of sludge disposal. Emissions arising from the decomposition of sludge disposed to landfill are included elsewhere (in the solid waste sector).

A constant value of 0.54 is used to determine the quantity of domestic and commercial BOD load ultimately treated as sludge (NGGIC 1995). This quantity of BOD relevant to sludge treatment is subtracted from total BOD before emissions are calculated from wastewater treatment. Of this BOD load in sludge, a constant value of 0.29 is considered to be anaerobically treated (NGGIC 1995). The default wastewater treatment methane emission factor per unit of BOD is used to derive emissions from the treatment of sludge.

Methane Emissions from On-Site Domestic and Commercial Wastewater Treatment

The total unsewered population on a State by State basis is calculated according to the Australian Bureau of Statistics and WSAA data and the assumption that each person in unsewered areas in Australia produces 22.5 kg BOD per year (NGGIC 1995). The amount of BOD that settles out as solids and undergoes anaerobic decomposition is assumed to be 15%, which is the IPCC default fraction for total urban wastewater (IPCC Vol. 3 1997).

Nitrous Oxide

The methodology used to estimate N₂O emissions from human sewage is the IPCC default methodology (IPCC

1997 Vol. 3).

Default values were used to derive the estimate of N_2O . Per capita protein consumption of 99.4g/day (36.28kg/year) was sourced from the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (de Looper and Bhatia 1998).

Non-Methane Volatile Organic Compounds (NMVOC)

There has been little research into the release of NMVOC from wastewater treatment plants. BOD values obtained and used for calculations of methane emissions are used for the calculation of NMVOC from domestic and commercial wastewater and for industrial wastewater. A default value of 0.3 kg NMVOC/tonne BOD for municipal wastewater treatment plants is used.

8.2.3 INCINERATION (6.C)

Emissions are estimated from the incineration of solvents and municipal and clinical waste. Blue Scope Steel (formerly BHP) incinerates a quantity of solvent generated through various metal product coating and finishing processes. In this instance, incineration is used as a method to minimize emissions of solvents and VOCs to the atmosphere and leads to emissions of CO_2 . Emissions from this source have been based on data estimated by the Department of Climate Change for the last three years.

Carbon dioxide emissions from incineration of solvents are estimated by converting the volume of solvent incinerated to the weight of solvent, deriving the energy content of the mass of solvent, and using a carbon dioxide emission factor per petajoule of solvent.

Between 1990 and 1996, there were 3 incinerators receiving municipal solid waste. These were located in NSW and QLD. All 3 incinerators ceased operations in the mid-1990's

In addition to the incineration of municipal solid waste, a quantity of clinical waste is incinerated in four major facilities located in QLD, NSW, SA and WA. Data on clinical waste incineration have been obtained from O'Brien 2006b.

The quantity of carbon dioxide emitted as a result of the incineration of municipal and clinical waste is based upon the quantity of clinical waste incinerated, the carbon content of the waste and the proportion of that carbon which is of fossil origin. Emissions of N_2O from the incineration of municipal solid waste are also estimated based on the IPCC default emission factor.

8.2.4 UNCERTAINTIES AND TIME SERIES CONSISTENCY

The tier 1 uncertainty analysis in Annex 7 provides estimates of uncertainty according to IPCC source category and gas. Time series consistency is ensured by use of consistent models, model parameters and datasets for the calculations of emissions estimates. Where changes to emission factors or methodologies occur, a full time series recalculation is undertaken.

8.2.5 SOURCE SPECIFIC QA/QC

The waste methodologies have been subject to external independent review (Hyder Consulting 2007a). Revisions to the waste sector reflect recommendations from this review.

The waste sector source categories are also covered by the general QA/QC of the greenhouse gas inventory in Section 1.6. Data provided by waste agencies are compared with known published data sources.

8.2.6 RECALCULATIONS SINCE THE 2005 REVISED INVENTORY

In response to the recommendations of the UNFCCC Expert Review Team, the following changes have been made to the waste sector estimation methodologies:

1. The inclusion of textiles, sludge, nappies, and rubber and leather in solid waste estimates;
2. The adoption of 'k' values corresponding to all solid waste types consistent with IPCC 2006; and
3. The inclusion of estimates of emissions from the incineration of municipal solid waste.

The net effect of these changes is an increase of 1.2 Mt CO₂-e in 1990 and 1.3 Mt CO₂-e in 2005

8.2.7 SOURCE SPECIFIC PLANNED IMPROVEMENTS

Further data on domestic wastewater treatment is expected to become available in the near future. These data will be used to further refine the assumptions behind the municipal wastewater treatment methodology and better reflect measures implemented by utilities to reduce greenhouse emissions.

9. OTHER (UNFCCC SECTOR 7)

Australia does not report any emissions under the UNFCCC category 7, 'Other'.

10. RECALCULATIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS

National greenhouse gas inventories have been produced for a comparatively short time, especially when compared with other major national statistics, such as gross domestic product. Emissions processes are pervasive and complex and, consequently, emissions estimation techniques and data sources for the Australian inventory are still evolving, particularly in some sectors. Internationally, this is also the case for the inventories of other countries. In addition, the IPCC guidelines on national inventory preparation themselves have recently been revised.

The development of improved estimation techniques is a resource intensive exercise and the IPCC encourages the allocation of development resources into priority areas. A number of recalculations have been undertaken for the 2006 inventory and these have been summarised in section 10.1-10.3 below. More generally, the development effort behind recalculations is undertaken in line with the Inventory Improvement Plan for the Australian inventory. This plan is aimed at reducing existing emission estimate uncertainties as much as possible, with development focused on key source categories, sources with high uncertainties and where implementation of new methods is feasible (for example, as a result of new data becoming available). The Australian improvement plan also seeks to respond to international expert reviews and revisions to international guidelines on inventory preparation. Some of the principal elements of the research programme that is underway to inform that and subsequent inventories are set out in section 10.4.

10.1 EXPLANATIONS AND JUSTIFICATIONS FOR RECALCULATIONS

Estimates of emissions presented in past inventory reports have been recalculated for a number of reasons including end-of-series averaging effects (for the agriculture sector), revisions of data, the inclusion of additional sources of data or from refinements in the estimation methodology. To ensure the accuracy of the estimates, and to maintain consistency of the series through time, recalculations of past emission estimates are undertaken for all previous years.

Within the 1990–2005 time series there have been a number of sectors where recalculations have been undertaken. The major changes implemented since the *National Inventory Report 2005 Revised* have been adopted in response to recommendations of the UNFCCC expert review conducted in April 2008. Details of the reasons for these recalculations have been given in the sectoral chapters. The principal sectors where recalculations were undertaken for the *National Inventory Report 2006* are set out in Table 10.1.

Table 10.1 Principal recalculations for the 2006 inventory (compared with the 2005 Revised inventory)

	Category	Principal Reason
1.A	Energy – Stationary Combustion	Revision to Coke CO ₂ emission factor Minor revisions to fuel consumption data for 2003 and 2004 ^(a)
1.B	Energy – Fugitive Emissions	Inclusion of emissions from surface mining of Victorian brown coal and Western and South Australian sub-bituminous coals Correction to decommissions mines
2.C.1	Industrial Processes	Revision to Coke CO ₂ emission factor
4.A-F	Agriculture	Recalculations due to 3 year averaging of reported emissions. and revised activity data 2002 to 2005 ^(a) ..
4.D/5(III)	Agriculture/LULUCF	Change to crude protein intake for Dairy Cattle N ₂ O emissions from soil disturbance associated with land conversion have been reallocated to the LULUCF sector (5III)
5(V)	Forest lands biomass burning	Revision to activity data for prescribed burning
6	Waste	Inclusion of additional solid waste categories (textiles, sludge, nappies and rubber and leather). Revised 'k' values in-line with IPCC Guidelines Inclusion of emissions from the incineration of municipal solid waste

(a) These are the additional changes made between the 26 May resubmitted 2005 Inventory and the 2006 Inventory

The number of recalculations for this inventory reflects the availability of new and better data and methodologies and responses to both external and internal reviews of the Inventory. In part, the refinements reflect the introduction of greater methodology complexity, and therefore accuracy, completeness, comparability and time-series consistency of Australia's inventory. In general, the refinements have continued the introduction of enhanced characterisations of the capital stocks at point of emission, differences in emissions processes at the regional level and dynamic linkages between current emissions and past activities. In some cases, this inventory has introduced elements taken from the new *2006 IPCC Guidelines for the Preparation of National Inventories* and, in some instances, changes have been introduced to respond to comments from the UNFCCC expert review teams.

10.2 IMPLICATONS FOR EMISSION LEVELS

The net impact of the recalculations on emission levels was relatively small - decreasing the estimate of total emissions in 1990 and 2005 by 0.5 Mt or 0.1% (see Table 10.2) compared with the *National Inventory Report 2005 Revised*.

10.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR EMISSION TRENDS, INCLUDING TIME SERIES CONSISTENCY

The net effect of the recalculations on aggregate emission trends is small as the recalculations have been applied throughout the time series 1990 to 2005. The estimated impact on emissions in 1990 (16.5 Mt or 3.3 per cent) is very close to the estimated change to the estimates in the latter part of the time series. The full time series of estimated recalculations is set out in Table 10.2.

Table 10.2 Principal estimated recalculations for the 2006 inventory

Year	Net Mt CO ₂ -e Emissions			Difference (2006 NIR less 2005 Revised)	
	Previously Published (2005 Revised) ^(a)	Resubmitted 2005 ^(b)	Latest Estimates 2006 NIR	Difference Mt	Difference %
1990	516.4	515.9	515.9	-0.5	-0.1
1991	494.1	493.6	493.6	-0.5	-0.1
1992	478.6	478.0	478.0	-0.5	-0.1
1993	468.2	467.6	467.6	-0.6	-0.1
1994	470.7	469.9	469.9	-0.8	-0.2
1995	473.0	472.1	472.1	-0.9	-0.2
1996	473.9	472.9	472.9	-1.0	-0.2
1997	482.9	481.9	481.9	-0.9	-0.2
1998	504.3	503.3	503.3	-0.9	-0.2
1999	509.3	508.3	508.3	-1.0	-0.2
2000	525.9	524.9	524.9	-0.9	-0.2
2001	535.5	534.7	534.6	-0.9	-0.2
2002	544.1	543.0	542.8	-1.3	-0.2
2003	529.1	528.4	528.9	-0.3	-0.1
2004	540.1	539.5	540.2	0.1	0.0
2005	555.3	554.6	554.8	-0.5	-0.1

(a) DCC 2008 - National Inventory Report 2005 Revised, (b) Australia's 26 May 2008 inventory resubmission.

The largest changes at the sectoral level were recorded in Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry, principally reflecting the effects of changes to estimates in the Forest Lands Remaining Forests and Land Use Change categories. For the remaining sectors taken as a whole the recalculations have had only small impacts.

Table 10.3 Principal estimated recalculations for the 2006 inventory by sector (compared with the 2005 Revised inventory)

Sector	1990 Mt	2003 Mt	2004 Mt	2005 Mt
1.A Fuel Combustion	-0.4	-0.4	-0.5	-0.8
1.A.1,2, 4, 5 Stationary Energy	-0.4	-0.4	-0.5	-0.8
1.A.3 Transport	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1.B Fugitives	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
2 Industrial Processes	-1.2	-0.9	-1.0	-0.9
3 Solvents	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
4 Agriculture	-0.8	-0.7	-0.2	-0.5
5 Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4
6 Waste	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3
Total	-0.5	-0.3	0.1	-0.5

10.4 RECALCULATIONS, INCLUDING IN RESPONSE TO THE REVIEW PROCESS, AND PLANNED IMPROVEMENTS TO THE INVENTORY

Future refinements will be informed by the ongoing technical review of sectoral methodologies and data sources undertaken by the Department of Climate Change as part of Australia's efforts to comply with inventory good practice. Priorities for the inventory development process have been informed by analysis of key sources and key trends; by analysis of the level of uncertainty surrounding existing emission estimates; and the comments received from previous international reviews of Australia's inventory.

The links between the inventory development programme and both the key source analysis presented in Annex 1 and the uncertainty analysis presented in Annex 7 are clearly shown in Table 10.4. A key area for development is in the land use, land use change and forestry sector, where the full details are set out in the *National Carbon Accounting System, Development Plan 2004-2008* (AGO 2005).

Table 10.4 Summary of Planned Improvements to the Australian Inventory

Category	Key source?	Sectoral uncertainty estimate	Description
Energy			
1A3 Non-CO ₂ from Road Transport	Yes	44%	Empirical research into non-CO ₂ emission factors
All	Yes	-	New data collection processes under the National Greenhouse and Energy Reporting Act will generate high quality data on activity, emission factors and emissions.
Industrial processes			
Review of minor new sources	No	-	Exploration of new data sources
All	Yes	-	New data collection processes under the National Greenhouse and Energy Reporting Act will generate high quality data on activity, emission factors and emissions.
Agriculture			
4.A Enteric fermentation - cattle (CH ₄)	Yes	6%	Field research into emission factors
4.E Burning of savannas (CH ₄)	Yes	120%	Field research into fire dynamics and fuel loads
4.E Burning of savannas (N ₂ O)	Yes	131%	Field research into fire dynamics and fuel loads
4.D Agricultural soils (N ₂ O)	Yes	102%	Review of methodologies for fertiliser application and conservation practices
LULUCF			
5. Forest lands, Croplands and Grasslands (CO ₂)	Yes		Comprehensive estimates for 'land remaining' subcategories will be incorporated in the 2009 submission
5. Forest lands (CO ₂ , N ₂ O)			
Waste			
All	Yes	50%	New data collection processes under the National Greenhouse and Energy Reporting Act will generate high quality data on activity, emission factors and emissions.

Sources: Annex 1, Annex 7.

ANNEX 1: KEY SOURCE ANALYSIS

A *key source category* has a significant influence on a country's total inventory of direct greenhouse gases in terms of absolute level of emissions, the trend in emissions, or both. Australia has identified the key sources for the UNFCCC inventory using the Tier 1 level and trend assessments as recommended in the IPCC *Good Practice* report. This approach identifies sources that contribute to 95% of the total emissions or 95% of the trend of the inventory in absolute terms.

The most significant key categories on both levels and trends bases include *public electricity (solid fuel)*, *road transportation* and *land conversion to grasslands*. The full results are reported in Tables A.1 to A.3.

Further key category analysis was conducted excluding the Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry sectors, as is required by the IPCC Good Practice Guidance. Under this analysis, the most important categories include *public electricity (solid fuel)*, *road transportation*, *enteric fermentation (cattle)* and *enteric fermentation (sheep)*. The results of this latter analysis are presented in Tables A.4 to A.6.

The Australian analysis has been undertaken using a relatively high degree of disaggregation of sources, which permits a greater degree of understanding of Australia's key categories. Past analyses by the UNFCCC secretariat of Australian data, using higher levels of aggregation common in the analyses undertaken by other countries, have not produced any important distinctions.

Table A.1: Key source categories for Australia's inventory-level assessment

A	B	C	D	E	F
IPCC Source Category	Gas	Base Year Estimate	Current Year Estimate	Level Assessment	Cumulative Total
1.A.1.a	CO2	117908.73	180982.45	0.28	0.28
1.A.3.b	CO2	53152.79	66662.97	0.10	0.38
5.C.2	CO2	108063.35	57157.28	0.09	0.46
4.A.1	CH4	39010.80	45455.22	0.07	0.53
5.A.1	CO2	33202.31	26779.43	0.04	0.57
5.A.2	CO2	2045.58	22792.53	0.03	0.61
1.A.1.a	CO2	8239.20	14487.55	0.02	0.63
1.B.1.a.1.1	CH4	12012.94	13615.28	0.02	0.65
4.A.3	CH4	24563.18	13570.21	0.02	0.67
6.A.1	CH4	14857.97	13170.48	0.02	0.69
1.A.1.c	CO2	4592.63	9397.54	0.01	0.71
4.E	CH4	4642.54	8050.27	0.01	0.72
1.B.1.a.2.1	CH4	3385.22	8028.19	0.01	0.73
2.C.1.4	CO2	9018.39	7121.89	0.01	0.74
1.A.2.b	CO2	4139.63	7090.06	0.01	0.75
1.A.4.b	CO2	4612.51	6877.09	0.01	0.76
1.A.2.f	CO2	1740.80	6204.16	0.01	0.77
1.A.3.a	CO2	2895.15	5995.75	0.01	0.78
1.A.4.c	CO2	3371.87	5932.12	0.01	0.79
2.G	CO2	1885.19	5252.19	0.01	0.80
1.A.2.b	CO2	4221.13	4880.82	0.01	0.80
1.A.1.b	CO2	5160.26	4194.36	0.01	0.81
5.G	CO2	4419.61	4117.38	0.01	0.82
4.D.2	N2O	4882.80	4113.82	0.01	0.82
1.A.1.c	CO2	957.85	4069.48	0.01	0.83
2.A.1	CO2	3462.87	3888.06	0.01	0.84
4.D.3.1	N2O	3245.38	3669.50	0.01	0.84
4.E	N2O	1965.72	3426.35	0.01	0.85
1.A.2.c	CO2	3250.87	3380.26	0.01	0.85
1.B.2.c.1.2	CO2	1966.46	3291.63	0.01	0.86
5.B.2	CO2	23890.04	3154.13	0.00	0.86
2.C.3	CO2	2020.53	3031.55	0.00	0.87
1.B.2.b.4	CH4	4092.56	3000.55	0.00	0.87
1.A.2.f	CO2	2950.31	2757.25	0.00	0.88
1.A.2.b	CO2	2967.57	2750.02	0.00	0.88
2.E.1	HFC-134a	0.00	2713.70	0.00	0.88
	Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Equipment				

A IPCC Source Category	B Gas	C Base Year Estimate	D Current Year Estimate	E Level Assessment	F Cumulative Total
4.D.3.2	N2O	2503.98	2699.31	0.00	0.89
1.A.2.f	CO2	2178.14	2656.62	0.00	0.89
4.D.1.1	N2O	1557.60	2648.39	0.00	0.90
1.A.1.c	CO2	2309.92	2397.44	0.00	0.90
1.A.4.a	CO2	1810.69	2258.55	0.00	0.90
1.A.4.a	CO2	1233.07	2138.43	0.00	0.91
5.A.1	CH4	1663.98	2082.56	0.00	0.91
1.B.2.c.2.3	CO2	3601.38	2061.45	0.00	0.91
1.A.3.c	CO2	1727.66	1882.27	0.00	0.91
1.A.1.a	CO2	2863.74	1823.26	0.00	0.92
1.A.2.e	CO2	1246.35	1662.53	0.00	0.92
1.A.3.b	N2O	683.39	1642.37	0.00	0.92
1.A.2.a	CO2	1191.25	1625.88	0.00	0.93
1.A.2.f	CO2	2809.26	1584.42	0.00	0.93
1.A.2.c	CO2	1445.08	1578.56	0.00	0.93
1.B.1.c	CH4	355.14	1556.31	0.00	0.93
1.A.2.f	CO2	45.94	1550.00	0.00	0.93
5.G	CO2	169.87	1497.74	0.00	0.94
5.C.2	CH4	2613.31	1414.83	0.00	0.94
1.A.2.a	CO2	1383.28	1406.76	0.00	0.94
6.B.2.1	CH4	961.42	1352.49	0.00	0.94
2.B.5	CO2	406.82	1304.39	0.00	0.95
4.B.8	CH4	1050.39	1298.99	0.00	0.95

Table A.2: Key source categories for Australia's inventory—trend assessment

A	B	C	D	E	F	G
IPCC Source Categories	Gas	1990 Emissions	2005 Emissions	Trend Assessment	% Contribution to Trend	Cumulative Total of Column F
5.C.2	Land converted to Grassland	108063.35	57157.28	0.10	0.20	0.20
1.A.1.a	Public Electricity and Heat Production \ Solid Fuels	117908.73	180982.45	0.09	0.19	0.40
5.B.2	Land converted to Cropland	23890.04	3154.13	0.04	0.08	0.47
5.A.2	Land converted to Forest Land	2045.58	22792.53	0.04	0.07	0.55
4.A.3	Enteric Fermentation \ Sheep	24563.18	13570.21	0.02	0.04	0.59
1.A.3.b	Road Transportation \ Liquid Fuels	53152.79	66662.97	0.02	0.04	0.63
5.A.1	Forest Land remaining Forest Land	33202.31	26779.43	0.01	0.03	0.66
1.A.1.a	Public Electricity and Heat Production \ Gaseous Fuels	8239.20	14487.55	0.01	0.02	0.68
1.A.1.c	Manufacture of Solid Fuels and Other Energy Industries \ Gaseous Fuels	4592.63	9397.54	0.01	0.02	0.69
1.B.1.a.2.1	Fugitives\Coal Mining\Surface mines	3385.22	8028.19	0.01	0.02	0.71
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Mining \ Liquid Fuels	1740.80	6204.16	0.01	0.02	0.72
4.A.1	Enteric Fermentation \ Cattle	39010.80	45455.22	0.01	0.01	0.74
2.G	Other (please specify) \ Confidential emissions reported as CO ₂ -e	1885.19	5252.19	0.01	0.01	0.75
4.E	Prescribed Burning of Savannas	4642.54	8050.27	0.01	0.01	0.76
2.C.3	Aluminium Production	3336.77	495.54	0.01	0.01	0.77
1.A.1.c	Manufacture of Solid Fuels and Other Energy Industries \ Liquid Fuels	957.85	4069.48	0.01	0.01	0.78
1.A.3.a	Civil Aviation \ Liquid Fuels	2895.15	5995.75	0.00	0.01	0.79
2.F.1	Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Equipment	0.00	2713.70	0.00	0.01	0.80
1.A.2.b	Non-Ferrous Metals \ Gaseous Fuels	4139.63	7090.06	0.00	0.01	0.81
6.A.1	Managed Waste Disposal on Land	14857.97	13170.48	0.00	0.01	0.82
2.C.1.4	Iron and Steel\Coke	9018.39	7121.89	0.00	0.01	0.83
1.A.4.c	Agriculture/Forestry/Fisheries \ Liquid Fuels	3371.87	5932.12	0.00	0.01	0.83
1.A.4.b	Residential \ Gaseous Fuels	4612.51	6877.09	0.00	0.01	0.84
1.B.2.c.2.3	Fugitives\Oil and Natural Gas\Flaring	3601.38	2061.45	0.00	0.01	0.85
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Mining \ Gaseous Fuels	45.94	1550.00	0.00	0.01	0.85
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Construction \ Liquid Fuels	2809.26	1584.42	0.00	0.00	0.86
5.C.2	Land converted to Grassland	2613.31	1414.83	0.00	0.00	0.86
1.B.2.b.4	Fugitives\Natural Gas\Distribution	4092.56	3000.55	0.00	0.00	0.87
4.E	Prescribed Burning of Savannas	1965.72	3426.35	0.00	0.00	0.87
5.G	Agricultural Liming	169.87	1497.74	0.00	0.00	0.88
1.A.1.b	Petroleum Refining \ Liquid Fuels	5160.26	4194.36	0.00	0.00	0.88
1.A.1.a	Public Electricity and Heat Production \ Liquid Fuels	2863.74	1823.26	0.00	0.00	0.89
2.E.1.1	Production of HCFC-22	1126.27	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.89
1.B.2.c.1.2	Venting and Flaring, Venting	1966.46	3291.63	0.00	0.00	0.89

AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL GREENHOUSE ACCOUNTS

A IPCC Source Categories	B Gas	C 1990 Emissions	D 2005 Emissions	E Trend Assessment	F % Contribution to Trend	G Cumulative Total of Column F
1.B.1.c	CH4	355.14	1556.31	0.00	0.00	0.90
4.D.2	N2O	4882.80	4113.82	0.00	0.00	0.90
1.A.4.b	CH4	1711.86	773.89	0.00	0.00	0.91
6.B.1	CH4	1783.36	884.64	0.00	0.00	0.91
2.F.1	HFC-143a	0.00	1007.37	0.00	0.00	0.91
1.B.2.c.1.2	CH4	1733.89	856.99	0.00	0.00	0.92
4.D.1.1	N2O	1557.60	2648.39	0.00	0.00	0.92
1.A.3.d	CO2	1368.43	473.38	0.00	0.00	0.92
1.A.3.b	N2O	683.39	1642.37	0.00	0.00	0.93
2.C.3	CO2	2020.53	3031.55	0.00	0.00	0.93
2.B.5	CO2	406.82	1304.39	0.00	0.00	0.93
4.B.13	N2O	201.82	1048.43	0.00	0.00	0.94
1.A.4.a	CO2	1233.07	2138.43	0.00	0.00	0.94
1.B.1.a.1.1	CH4	12012.94	13615.28	0.00	0.00	0.94
1.A.2.d	CO2	333.53	1102.50	0.00	0.00	0.94
2.F.1	HFC-125	0.00	723.96	0.00	0.00	0.95
1.A.2.e	CO2	422.50	1116.95	0.00	0.00	0.95

Table A.3: Key source categories for Australia's inventory—summary

A IPCC Source Categories	B Direct Greenhouse Gas	C Key Source Category Flag	D If Column C is Yes, Criteria for Identification
1.A.1.a	Public Electricity and Heat Production \ Solid Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.1.a	Public Electricity and Heat Production \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.1.a	Public Electricity and Heat Production \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.1.b	Petroleum Refining \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.1.b	Petroleum Refining \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.1.c	Manufacture of Solid Fuels and Other Energy Industries \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.1.c	Manufacture of Solid Fuels and Other Energy Industries \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.1.c	Manufacture of Solid Fuels and Other Energy Industries \ Solid Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.2.a	Iron and Steel \ Solid Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.2.a	Iron and Steel \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.2.b	Non-Ferrous Metals \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.2.b	Non-Ferrous Metals \ Solid Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.2.b	Non-Ferrous Metals \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.2.c	Chemicals \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.2.c	Chemicals \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.2.d	Pulp, Paper and Print \ Solid Fuels	CO2	Trend
1.A.2.e	Food Processing, Beverages and Tobacco \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.2.e	Food Processing, Beverages and Tobacco \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Trend
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Mining \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Mining \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Mineral industry \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Mineral industry \ Solid Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Construction \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.3.a	Aviation \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.3.b	Road Transportation \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.3.b	Road Transportation \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.3.c	Railways \ Liquid Fuels	N2O	Level, trend
1.A.3.d	Navigation \ Liquid Fuels \ Fuel Oils	CO2	Level
1.A.4.a	Commercial/Institutional \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Trend
1.A.4.a	Commercial/Institutional \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	Level
1.A.4.b	Residential \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	Level, trend
1.A.4.b	Residential \ Biomass Fuels	CH4	Level, trend
1.A.4.c	Agriculture/Forestry/Fisheries \ Liquid Fuels	CH4	Trend
1.B.1.A.1.1	Fugitives\Coal Mining\Underground	CO2	Level, trend
1.B.1.A.2.1	Fugitives\Coal Mining\Surface mines	CH4	Level, trend
1.B.1.C	Fugitives\ Coal mining \ Decommissioned Mines	CH4	Level, trend

A IPCC Source Categories	B Direct Greenhouse Gas	C Key Source Category Flag	D If Column C is Yes, Criteria for Identification
1.B.2.B.4	Fugitives\Natural Gas\Distribution	CH4	Level, trend
1.B.2.C.1.2	Fugitives\Oil and Natural Gas\Venting	CO2	Level, trend
1.B.2.C.1.2	Fugitives\Oil and Natural Gas\Venting	CH4	trend
1.B.2.C.2.3	Fugitives\Oil and Natural Gas\Flaring	CO2	Level, trend
2.A.1	Cement Production	CO2	Level
2.B.5	Other (please specify) \ Synthetic Rutile and Titanium Dioxide	CO2	Level, Trend
2.C.1.4	Iron and Steel\Coke	CO2	Level, trend
2.C.3	Aluminium Production	CO2	Level, trend
2.C.3	Aluminium Production	CF4	Trend
2.E.1.1	Production of HCFC-22	HFC-23	Trend
2.F.1	Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Equipment	HFC-134a	Level, trend
2.F.1	Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Equipment	HFC-143a	Trend
2.F.1	Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Equipment	HFC-125	Trend
2.G	Other (please specify) \ Confidential emissions reported as CO ₂ -e	CO2	Level, trend
4.A	Enteric Fermentation \ Cattle	CH4	Level, trend
4.A	Enteric Fermentation \ Sheep	CH4	Level, trend
4.B	Manure Management \ Swine	CH4	Level
4.B	Manure Management \ solid storage and dry lot	N2O	Trend
4.D.1.1	Synthetic Fertilizers	N2O	Level, trend
4.D.2	Pasture, Range and Paddock Manure	N2O	Level, trend
4.D.3.1	Atmospheric Deposition	N2O	Level
4.D.3.2	Nitrogen Leaching and Run-off	N2O	Level
4.E	Prescribed Burning of Savannas	CH4	Level, trend
4.E	Prescribed Burning of Savannas	N2O	Level, trend
5A	Forest Land remaining Forest Land	CO2	Level, trend
5A	Forest Land remaining Forest Land	CH4	Level
5A	Land converted to Forest Land	CO2	Level, trend
5B	Land converted to Cropland	CO2	Level, trend
5C	Land converted to Grassland	CO2	Level, trend
5C	Land converted to Grassland	CH4	Level, trend
5G	Harvested Wood Products	CO2	Level
5.G	Agricultural Liming	CO2	Level, trend
6.A.1	Managed Waste Disposal on Land	CH4	Level, trend
6.B.1	Industrial Wastewater \ Wastewater	CH4	Trend
6.B.2	Domestic and Commercial Wastewater	CH4	Level

Table A.4: Key source categories for Australia's inventory-level assessment excluding LULUCF

A	B	C	D	E	F
IPCC Source Category	Gas	Base Year Estimate	Current Year Estimate	Level Assessment	Cumulative Total
1.A.1.a	CO2	117908.73	180982.45	0.34	0.34
1.A.3.b	CO2	53152.79	66662.97	0.12	0.46
4.A.1	CH4	39010.80	45455.22	0.08	0.55
1.A.1.a	CO2	8239.20	14487.55	0.03	0.57
1.B.1.a.1.1	CH4	12012.94	13615.28	0.03	0.60
4.A.3	CH4	24563.18	13570.21	0.03	0.62
6.A.1	CH4	14857.97	13170.48	0.02	0.65
1.A.1.c	CO2	4592.63	9397.54	0.02	0.67
4.E	CH4	4642.54	8050.27	0.02	0.68
1.B.1.a.2.1	CH4	3385.22	8028.19	0.01	0.70
2.C.1.4	CO2	9018.39	7121.89	0.01	0.71
1.A.2.b	CO2	4139.63	7090.06	0.01	0.72
1.A.4.b	CO2	4612.51	6877.09	0.01	0.74
1.A.2.f	CO2	1740.80	6204.16	0.01	0.75
1.A.3.a	CO2	2895.15	5995.75	0.01	0.76
1.A.4.c	CO2	3371.87	5932.12	0.01	0.77
2.G	CO2	1885.19	5252.19	0.01	0.78
1.A.2.b	CO2	4221.13	4880.82	0.01	0.79
1.A.1.b	CO2	5160.26	4194.36	0.01	0.80
4.D.2	N2O	4882.80	4113.82	0.01	0.80
1.A.1.c	CO2	957.85	4069.48	0.01	0.81
2.A.1	CO2	3462.87	3888.06	0.01	0.82
4.D.3.1	N2O	3245.38	3669.50	0.01	0.82
4.E	N2O	1965.72	3426.35	0.01	0.83
1.A.2.c	CO2	3250.87	3380.26	0.01	0.84
1.B.2.c.1.2	CO2	1966.46	3291.63	0.01	0.84
2.C.3	CO2	2020.53	3031.55	0.01	0.85
1.B.2.b.4	CH4	4092.56	3000.55	0.01	0.86
1.A.2.f	CO2	2950.31	2757.25	0.01	0.86
1.A.2.b	CO2	2967.57	2750.02	0.01	0.87
2.F.1	HFC-134a	0.00	2713.70	0.01	0.87
4.D.3.2	N2O	2503.98	2699.31	0.01	0.88
1.A.2.f	CO2	2178.14	2656.62	0.00	0.88
4.D.1.1	N2O	1557.60	2648.39	0.00	0.89
1.A.1.c	CO2	2309.92	2397.44	0.00	0.89
1.A.4.a	CO2	1810.69	2258.55	0.00	0.89

A	IPCC Source Category	B	C	D	E	F
		Gas	Base Year Estimate	Current Year Estimate	Level Assessment	Cumulative Total
1.A.4.a	Commercial/Institutional \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	1233.07	2138.43	0.00	0.90
1.B.2.c.2.3	Fugitives\Oil and Natural Gas\Flaring	CO2	3601.38	2061.45	0.00	0.90
1.A.3.c	Railways \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	1727.66	1882.27	0.00	0.91
1.A.1.a	Public Electricity and Heat Production \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	2863.74	1823.26	0.00	0.91
1.A.2.e	Food Processing, Beverages and Tobacco \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	1246.35	1662.53	0.00	0.91
1.A.3.b	Road Transportation \ Liquid Fuels	N2O	683.39	1642.37	0.00	0.91
1.A.2.a	Iron and Steel \ Solid Fuels	CO2	1191.25	1625.88	0.00	0.92
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Construction \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	2809.26	1584.42	0.00	0.92
1.A.2.c	Chemicals \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	1445.08	1578.56	0.00	0.92
1.B.1.c	Fugitives\ Coal mining \ Decommissioned Mines	CH4	355.14	1556.31	0.00	0.93
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Mining \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	45.94	1550.00	0.00	0.93
1.A.2.a	Iron and Steel \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	1383.28	1406.76	0.00	0.93
6.B.2.1	Domestic and Commercial (w/o human sewage) \ Sludge	CH4	961.42	1352.49	0.00	0.93
2.B.5	Other (please specify) \ Synthetic Rutile and Titanium Dioxide	CO2	406.82	1304.39	0.00	0.94
4.B.8	Manure Management \ Swine	CH4	1050.39	1298.99	0.00	0.94
1.A.1.b	Petroleum Refining \ Gaseous Fuels	CO2	576.79	1258.41	0.00	0.94
1.A.2.e	Food Processing, Beverages and Tobacco \ Liquid Fuels	CO2	422.50	1116.95	0.00	0.94
1.A.2.d	Pulp, Paper and Print \ Solid Fuels	CO2	333.53	1102.50	0.00	0.95
1.A.2.e	Food Processing, Beverages and Tobacco \ Solid Fuels	CO2	1189.68	1052.99	0.00	0.95

Table A.5: Key source categories for Australia's inventory—trend assessment excluding LULUCF

A	B	C	D	E	F	G
IPCC Source Categories		1990 Emissions	2005 Emissions	Trend Assessment	% Contribution to Trend	Cumulative Total of Column F
Gas						
1.A.1.a	Public Electricity and Heat Production \ Solid Fuels	117908.73	180982.45	0.04	0.19	0.19
4.A.3	Enteric Fermentation \ Sheep	24563.18	13570.21	0.03	0.12	0.31
6.A.1	Managed Waste Disposal on Land	14857.97	13170.48	0.01	0.04	0.35
4.A.1	Enteric Fermentation \ Cattle	39010.80	45455.22	0.01	0.03	0.38
2.C.1.4	Iron and Steel\Coke	9018.39	7121.89	0.01	0.03	0.41
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Mining \ Liquid Fuels	1740.80	6204.16	0.01	0.03	0.44
1.A.1.a	Public Electricity and Heat Production \ Gaseous Fuels	8239.20	14487.55	0.01	0.03	0.47
2.C.3	Aluminium Production	3336.77	495.54	0.01	0.03	0.49
1.B.1.a.2.1	Fugitives\Coal Mining\Surface mines	3385.22	8028.19	0.01	0.02	0.51
1.A.1.c	Manufacture of Solid Fuels and Other Energy Industries \ Gaseous Fuels	4592.63	9397.54	0.01	0.02	0.54
1.A.1.c	Manufacture of Solid Fuels and Other Energy Industries \ Liquid Fuels	957.85	4069.48	0.00	0.02	0.56
2.G	Other (please specify) \ Confidential emissions reported as CO2-e	1885.19	5252.19	0.00	0.02	0.58
2.F.1	Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Equipment	0.00	2713.70	0.00	0.02	0.59
1.B.2.c.2.3	Fugitives\Oil and Natural Gas\Flaring	3601.38	2061.45	0.00	0.02	0.61
1.A.1.b	Petroleum Refining \ Liquid Fuels	5160.26	4194.36	0.00	0.02	0.63
1.B.2.b.4	Fugitives\Natural Gas\Distribution	4092.56	3000.55	0.00	0.02	0.64
1.A.3.a	Civil Aviation \ Liquid Fuels	2895.15	5995.75	0.00	0.02	0.66
4.D.2	Pasture, Range and Paddock Manure	4882.80	4113.82	0.00	0.01	0.67
4.E	Prescribed Burning of Savannas	4642.54	8050.27	0.00	0.01	0.68
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Construction \ Liquid Fuels	2809.26	1584.42	0.00	0.01	0.70
1.A.1.a	Public Electricity and Heat Production \ Liquid Fuels	2863.74	1823.26	0.00	0.01	0.71
1.B.1.a.1.1	Fugitives\Coal Mining/Underground	12012.94	13615.28	0.00	0.01	0.72
1.A.3.b	Road Transportation \ Liquid Fuels	53152.79	66662.97	0.00	0.01	0.73
1.A.2.b	Non-Ferrous Metals \ Gaseous Fuels	4139.63	7090.06	0.00	0.01	0.75
1.A.4.c	Agriculture/Forestry/Fisheries \ Liquid Fuels	3371.87	5932.12	0.00	0.01	0.76
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Mining \ Gaseous Fuels	45.94	1550.00	0.00	0.01	0.77
2.E.1.1	Production of HCFC-22	1126.27	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.78
1.A.4.b	Residential \ Biomass	1711.86	773.89	0.00	0.01	0.79
6.B.1	Industrial Wastewater \ Wastewater	1783.36	884.64	0.00	0.01	0.80
1.B.2.c.1.2	Venting and Flaring, Venting	1733.89	856.99	0.00	0.01	0.80
1.A.3.d	Navigation \ Liquid Fuels \ Residual Oil	1368.43	473.38	0.00	0.01	0.81
1.B.1.c	Fugitives\ Coal mining \ Decommissioned Mines	355.14	1556.31	0.00	0.01	0.82
1.A.2.b	Non-Ferrous Metals \ Liquid Fuels	2967.57	2750.02	0.00	0.01	0.83
1.A.2.f	Other (please specify) \ Mineral Industry \ Gaseous Fuels	2950.31	2757.25	0.00	0.01	0.83
2.F.1	Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Equipment	0.00	1007.37	0.00	0.01	0.84

AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL GREENHOUSE ACCOUNTS

A	B	C	D	E	F	G
IPCC Source Categories	Gas	1990 Emissions	2005 Emissions	Trend Assessment	% Contribution to Trend	Cumulative Total of Column F
1.A.4.b	CO2	4612.51	6877.09	0.00	0.01	0.85
4.E	N2O	1965.72	3426.35	0.00	0.01	0.85
1.A.2.c	CO2	3250.87	3380.26	0.00	0.01	0.86
4.B.13	N2O	201.82	1048.43	0.00	0.01	0.86
2.B.5	CO2	406.82	1304.39	0.00	0.01	0.87
1.A.3.b	N2O	683.39	1642.37	0.00	0.01	0.87
1.B.2.c.1.2	CO2	1966.46	3291.63	0.00	0.01	0.88
1.A.2.c	CO2	1183.45	765.63	0.00	0.01	0.88
1.A.4.b	CO2	1315.97	962.38	0.00	0.00	0.89
2.F.1	HFC-125	0.00	723.96	0.00	0.00	0.89
1.A.2.f	CO2	1046.39	639.44	0.00	0.00	0.90
2.C.3	C2F6	613.35	91.09	0.00	0.00	0.90
1.A.2.d	CO2	333.53	1102.50	0.00	0.00	0.91
1.B.2.c.2.3	CH4	944.37	558.22	0.00	0.00	0.91
4.D.1.1	N2O	1557.60	2648.39	0.00	0.00	0.92
1.A.1.c	CO2	2309.92	2397.44	0.00	0.00	0.92
1.A.2.e	CO2	422.50	1116.95	0.00	0.00	0.92
2.A.1	CO2	3462.87	3888.06	0.00	0.00	0.93
1.A.2.b	CO2	4221.13	4880.82	0.00	0.00	0.93
1.A.4.a	CO2	1233.07	2138.43	0.00	0.00	0.93
4.D.3.2	N2O	2503.98	2699.31	0.00	0.00	0.94
1.A.1.b	CO2	576.79	1258.41	0.00	0.00	0.94
4.D.3.1	N2O	3245.38	3669.50	0.00	0.00	0.94

Table A.6: Key source categories for Australia's inventory—summary excluding LULUCF

A IPCC Source Categories	B Gas	C Key Source Category Flag	D If Column C is Yes, Criteria for Identification
1.A.1.a	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.1.A	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.1.A	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.1.B	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.1.B	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.1.C	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.1.C	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.1.C	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.A	CO2	YES	Level
1.A.2.A	CO2	YES	Level
1.A.2.B	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.B	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.B	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.C	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.C	CO2	YES	Trend
1.A.2.C	CO2	YES	Level
1.A.2.D	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.E	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.E	CO2	YES	Level
1.A.2.E	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.f	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.f	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.f	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.f	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.f	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.2.f	CO2	YES	Solid
1.A.2.f	CO2	YES	Trend
1.A.3.a	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.3.b	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.3.b	N2O	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.3.c	CO2	YES	Level
1.A.3.d	CO2	YES	Trend
1.A.4.a	CO2	YES	Level
1.A.4.a	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.4.b	CH4	YES	Trend
1.A.4.b	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.A.4.b	CO2	YES	Trend

A IPCC Source Categories	B Gas	C Key Source Category Flag	D If Column C is Yes, Criteria for Identification
1.A.4.c	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.B.1.a	CH4	YES	Level, Trend
1.B.1.a	CH4	YES	Level, Trend
1.B.1.c	CH4	YES	Level, Trend
1.B.2.b	CH4	YES	Level, Trend
1.B.2.C.1.2	CH4	YES	Trend
1.B.2.C.1.2	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.B.2.C.2.3	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
1.B.2.C.2.3	CH4	YES	Trend
2.A.1	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
2.B.5	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
2.C.1	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
2.C.3	CF4	YES	Trend
2.C.3	CO2	YES	Level
2.C.3	C2F6	YES	Trend
2.E.1	HFC-23	YES	Trend
2.F.1	HFC-134a	YES	Level, Trend
2.F.1	HFC-143a	YES	Trend
2.F.1	HFC-125	YES	Trend
2.G	CO2	YES	Level, Trend
4.A.1.	CH4	YES	Level, Trend
4.A.3	CH4	YES	Level, Trend
4.B	CH4	YES	Level
4.B	N2O	YES	Level, Trend
4.D.1.1	N2O	YES	Level, Trend
4.D.2	N2O	YES	Level, Trend
4.D.3.1	N2O	YES	Level, Trend
4.D.3.2	N2O	YES	Level, Trend
4.E	CH4	YES	Level, Trend
4.E	N2O	YES	Level, Trend
6A.1	CH4	YES	Level, Trend
6.B.1	CH4	YES	Level, Trend
6.B.2	CH4	YES	Trend
	CH4	YES	Level

ANNEX 2: METHODOLOGY AND DATA FOR ESTIMATING CARBON DIOXIDE EMISSIONS FROM FOSSIL FUEL COMBUSTION

The full Australian methodology and data descriptions for the estimation of this inventory are documented in *Australian Methodology for the Estimation of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks 2006*, which is available on the Department of Climate Change website at www.climatechange.gov.au/inventory. The essential material in these documents has been reproduced in chapter 3.

ANNEX 3: OTHER DETAILED METHODOLOGICAL DESCRIPTIONS

The full Australian methodology for the estimation of this inventory is documented in *Australian Methodology for the Estimation of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks 2006*, which is available on the Department of Climate Change website at www.climatechange.gov.au/inventory.

ANNEX 4: CARBON DIOXIDE REFERENCE APPROACH FOR THE ENERGY SECTOR

Estimation of CO₂ Using the IPCC Reference Approach

The reference approach estimate CO₂ emissions from *fuel combustion activities* (covering both *stationary energy and transport*). It is calculated using a top-down approach based on national energy statistics for production, imports, exports and stock change. The Australian national energy statistics are produced by ABARE and shown below in Table A6a. The energy consumption data and methodology within the reference approach differ to some degree from that used for the bottom-up, sectoral approach. However, the reference approach can be considered as a further means of quality control supporting the National (sectoral) emissions total. For this inventory, Australia has submitted a complete time series of estimates using the reference approach, from 1990 to 2006.

Comparison of Australian Methodology with IPCC Reference Approach

Total CO₂ emissions estimated using Australia's National approach methodology are 362.1 Mt. Total CO₂ emissions estimated using the reference approach are 365.4 Mt. This is an overall 0.92% difference between the two methods. The main reason underlying the difference are:

- 1) The discrepancy for liquid fuels is caused by the unreliability of the Reference Approach figure, which in turn derives from the crude oil density values used to convert reported indigenous production and imports in volumetric units into energy units, as required by the CRF.

Table A.6a: Australian Energy Statistics balance

Australian energy supply and disposal, 2005-06 - energy units

Item	Black coal	Brown coal	BKB briquettes	Met. coke	Coal by-products	Natural gas, CSM	Crude oil and ORF	Propane, butane, LPG	Refined products	Liquid/gas Biofuels	Biomass Wood	Biomass Bagasse	Solar\ wind electricity	Hydro-electricity	Total electricity	Solar hotwater	U ₃ O ₈ Uranium	Total
Supply	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ	PJ
Primary indigenous	8 194.4	697.4				1 672.3	899.7	125.1		12.3	82.3	109.1	6.2	57.7		2.4	4 665.8	16 524.8
plus all Imports						51.9	976.6	15.4	554.0									1 597.9
less all Exports	6 581.8					679.7	459.8	71.9	157.2								4 818.9	12 769.3
less Stock changes and discrepancies	- 26.6	- 7.3	- 0.1	21.9	- 12.6		27.7	- 54.9	- 82.2								- 153.1	- 287.3
Total domestic availability	1 639.2	704.7	0.1	- 21.9	12.6	1 044.5	1 388.9	123.4	479.0	12.3	82.3	109.1	6.2	57.7		2.4		5 640.7
Less																		
Coke ovens	135.7			- 97.4	- 19.3				0.9						0.1			19.9
Briquetting		6.7	- 8.9												0.2			- 2.0
Petroleum refining						24.6	1 400.7	- 29.0	- 1 371.7						7.0			31.6
Gas manufacturing						3.8		0.4							0.1			4.3
Public Elec. generation	1 351.8	698.0	3.2		5.6	262.5		0.1	26.3	7.3	5.2		6.2	57.7	- 870.5			1 553.6
Other conversion				66.3	- 18.0		- 15.4	4.1	10.7						- 44.4			3.3
Fuel use in conversion						30.6		0.2	89.9						123.9			244.6
Final domestic availability	151.7		5.8	9.3	44.2	723.1	3.5	147.5	1 722.9	5.0	77.0	109.1			783.7	2.4		3 785.3
End use																		
Agriculture						0.1		1.6	84.5						6.7			92.8
Mining	7.3			0.2	1.4	164.7	1.3	1.4	143.9						70.5			390.8
Food, beverage, textiles	9.0		0.2					1.0		1.7	4.4	109.1						116.3
Wood, paper, printing	12.5							0.8			17.5							18.4
Chemical	2.3		1.9	0.9	8.4	94.7		44.5	70.3						15.6			236.3
Iron and steel	21.8			1.3	30.3	23.8		0.5	1.8						26.7			106.3
Non-ferrous metals	63.1			6.5				0.1			2.3							72.0
Other manufacturing	29.9		0.9	0.3	4.0	258.9	2.2	6.6	90.0	2.1	0.9				263.9			659.7
Construction						3.1		0.2	22.7						0.3			26.3
Road transport						1.5		76.7	941.1	1.2								1 020.6
Rail transport									27.1						8.0			35.2
Air transport									201.9									201.9
Water transport	4.8					0.1			53.5									58.4
Commerce & services	0.9		2.7			42.6	3.3		21.4		0.3				168.1	0.2		239.6
Residential	0.1		0.1			133.5	10.9		1.3		51.6				223.9	2.3		423.6
Lubes, bitumen, solvent									63.3									63.3
Total final energy consumption	151.7		5.8	9.3	44.2	723.1	3.5	147.5	1 722.9	5.0	77.0	109.1			783.7	2.4		3 785.3

Source: ABARE, 2007, Table A

ANNEX 5: ASSESSMENT OF COMPLETENESS

The UNFCCC Guidelines require inventory compilers to assess inventories for the level of completeness of national inventories. The sources of greenhouse gas emissions are many and diverse and, in general, are not directly observable without considerable cost. Many emission sources are minor and resource intensive to estimate. Consequently, all national inventories have minor omissions which, for transparency, need to be identified. This section addresses the completeness of key activity datasets, such as the consumption of fossil fuels, and the completeness of the coverage of emissions and removals sources for the Australian inventory.

Completeness of Activity Data

The emission estimates were reviewed for internal consistency and completeness through the application of mass balance approaches to ensure the reconciliation of carbon supplies and carbon uses within the economy for fossil fuels, carbonates and biomass entering the economy. Details have been provided in the respective sectoral chapters.

Omitted Emission Sources

The UNFCCC reporting guidelines provide standard reporting templates that are designed to accommodate the circumstances of as many countries as possible. The reporting templates are not always closely aligned with Australia's circumstances. Consequently, in Australia's reporting tables there are a number of categories where the term "not occurring" has been reported for certain cells because of an absence of a certain economic activity. An example is *adipic acid* production, which does not occur in Australia. In some cases, Australia has chosen to report emissions for a particular category as "included elsewhere" where existing data collections or methodologies do not allow for the splitting of the sources of emissions. An example is the reporting of all emissions from the use of fossil fuels for *ammonia production* under the Industrial Processes sector, rather than being split between the Industrial Process and Energy sectors, because the data do not support an accurate splitting of emissions between the two.

Nonetheless, there are a small number of emission sources which are believed to be minor and which are reported as 'not estimated' either because of a lack of data or because the emission processes are not well enough understood to permit the development of reliable methodologies. In some instances, default methodologies are not specified by the IPCC due to limited understanding internationally of these processes.

With each new inventory, a number of emission sources and removals have been added to the national inventory, resources permitting, as the remaining outstanding sources are generally minor while at the same time resource-intensive to estimate.

CO₂ from Burning of Coal Deposits and Waste Piles (1B1)

The spontaneous combustion of waste piles is a known source of CO₂ emissions. Research undertaken on the measurement of this emission source has not yet been able to develop any reliable approach to the estimation of this emission source. Similarly, neither the 1996 IPCC Guidelines nor the 2006 IPCC Guidelines include a default methodology that could be applied in the absence of information on this source.

Fugitive Emissions From Bore Holes

The use of bore water from the Great Artesian Basin and other sources has been an important source of irrigation for Australia's agricultural industries. Carbon dioxide is often released in small quantities from the bore holes during pumping. Government programmes for capping the bores to improve the efficiency of water use may have led to reductions in this source of emissions in recent years. More research is being conducted into this source of emissions to develop adequate datasets and methodologies.

CO₂ From Metal Production (2.C.5)

Coke is used as a reducing agent in the production of some metals for certain types of production technologies. CO₂ emissions from this source have been reported in the industrial process and energy sectors of this inventory. Emissions may also arise if the metallic ores being processed contain carbonates. In Australia, metallic ores are predominantly sulphide ores, rather than carbonate ores, and so emissions from this source, if any, are thought to be minor.

CO₂ From Food and Drink Production (2.D.2)

The Department of Climate Change is currently exploring the availability of data to support estimates from this minor emissions source.

Miscellaneous SF₆ uses (2.F)

In the Australian inventory SF₆ emissions are reported from the use of this gas in the electricity industry. SF₆ may also be used in a number of other applications, such as in the production sport shoes, tyres and tennis balls, but no data is available to support estimates for any of these uses.

PFC Consumption in Refrigeration and Fire Extinguishers (2.F)

Some countries report minor emissions of PFCs from the use of refrigerators and fire extinguishers. The Department of Climate Change is currently exploring the existence or otherwise of these sources in Australia.

ANNEX 6: ADDITIONAL INFORMATION: GLOSSARY

Activity	A process that generates greenhouse gas emissions or uptake. In some sectors it refers to the level of production or manufacture for a given process or category.
Automotive Diesel Oil (ADO)	A middle distillate petroleum product used as a fuel in high-speed diesel engines. It is mostly consumed in the road and rail transport sectors and agriculture, mining and construction sectors.
Anaerobic	A process relying on bacteria that can live without oxygen
Anthropogenic	Resulting from human activities. In the inventory, <i>anthropogenic emissions</i> are distinguished from <i>natural emissions</i> .
Bagasse	The fibrous residue of the sugar cane milling process which is used as a fuel in sugar mills
Briquettes	A composition fuel manufactured from brown coal, which is crushed, dried and moulded under high pressure without the addition of binders.
Clinker	An intermediate product from which cement is made
Coke	The solid product obtained from the carbonisation of suitable types of coal at high temperature. It is low in moisture and volatile matter and is mainly used in the iron and steel industry as an energy source and chemical agent. Semi-coke or coke obtained by carbonisation at low temperatures is included in this category.
Dolomite	A naturally occurring mineral ($\text{CaCO}_3 \cdot \text{mg CO}_3$) which can be used to produce lime, iron and steel
Emission Factor activity	The quantity of greenhouse gases emitted per unit of some specified
Emission Intensity	The total emissions divided by the total energy content of the fuels or the total energy used in a sector. The overall emissions intensity of coal used in Australia, for example, is determined by the quantity and emission factors for each of the many types and grades of coal used.
Enteric Fermentation	The process in animals by which gases, including methane, are produced as a by-product of microbial fermentation associated with digestion of feed
Feedlot	A confined yard area with watering and feeding facilities where livestock (mainly beef cattle) are completely handfed for the purpose of production. It does not include the feeding or penning of cattle for weaning, dipping or similar husbandry purposes or for drought or other emergency feeding, or at a slaughtering place or in recognised saleyards.
Feedstocks	Products derived from crude oil and destined for further processing in the refining industry, other than blending. Products include those imported for refinery intake and those returned from the petrochemical industry to the refining industry, such as naphtha.
Flaring	The process of combusting unwanted or excess gases at a crude oil or gas production site, a gas processing plant or an oil refinery
Forest	Parties are required to select single minimum values for land area, tree crown cover and tree height. The NCAS when assessing Australia's land use change emissions uses a criteria of 20% tree crown cover, 2 metre minimum tree height, and a minimum of 0.2 hectares in land area for inclusion. These minimum criteria are within the ranges outlined in the Marrakech Accords.
Fuel Oil	Covers all residual (heavy) fuel oils including those obtained by blending

Fugitive Emissions	Generally deliberate but not fully controlled emissions that typically result from leaks, including those from pump seals, pipe flanges and valve stems. Fugitive emissions also include methane emitted from coal mine seams. During petroleum storage tank filling, venting loss of vapour is a fugitive emission.
Global Warming Potential (GWP)	Represents the relative warming effect of a unit mass of a gas compared with the same mass of CO ₂ over a specific period. Multiplying the actual amount of gas emitted by the GWP gives the co ₂ -equivalent emissions.
Greenhouse Gases	Gases that contribute to global warming, including carbon dioxide (CO ₂), methane (CH ₄), nitrous oxide (N ₂ O), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and sulphur hexafluoride (SF ₆). In addition, the photochemically important gases—NMVOCs, oxides of nitrogen (NO _x) and carbon monoxide (CO)—are also considered. NMVOC, NO _x and CO are not direct greenhouse gases. However, they contribute indirectly to the greenhouse effect by influencing the rate at which ozone and other greenhouse gases are produced and destroyed in the atmosphere.
Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs)	Used as substitutes for chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs)
Industrial Diesel Fuel (IDF)	A petroleum product primarily consumed in the rail and water transport sectors.
Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)	The international body responsible for assessing the state of knowledge about climate change. The IPCC increases international awareness of climate change science and provides guidance to the international community on issues related to climate change response.
Key Category	The IPCC <i>Good Practice</i> report (IPCC 2000) introduces the concept of key categories for prioritising the inventory development process. A key category has a significant influence on a country's total inventory of direct greenhouse gases in terms of absolute level of emissions, the trend in emissions, or both. The tier 1 key category analysis identifies categories that contribute to 95% of the total emissions or 95% of the trend of the inventory in absolute terms. Tier 2 analysis identified categories that contribute to 90% of total uncertainty in the inventory.
Kyoto Protocol	The Kyoto Protocol to the convention on climate change was developed through the UNFCCC negotiating process. The protocol was negotiated in Kyoto, Japan, in 1997. It sets binding greenhouse gas emissions targets for UNFCCC developed country parties that ratify the agreement.
Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG)	A light hydrocarbon fraction of the paraffin series. It occurs naturally, associated with crude oil and natural gas in many oil and gas deposits, and is also produced in the course of petroleum refinery processes. LPG consists of propane (C ₃ H ₈) and butane (C ₄ H ₁₀), or a mixture of the two. In Australia, LPG as marketed contains more propane than butane.
Lubricants	Hydrocarbons that are rich in paraffin and not used as fuels. They are obtained by vacuum distillation of oil residues.
Military Transport	Includes all activity by military land vehicles, aircraft and ships

National Carbon Accounting System	An integrated suite of models that estimate emissions from biomass, litter and soil carbon in a geographic information system framework with the support of resource inventories, field studies and remote sensing to assess land cover change
Natural Gas	Consists primarily of methane (around 9%, with traces of other gaseous hydrocarbons, as well as nitrogen and carbon dioxide) occurring naturally in underground deposits. As a transport fuel it is generally used in compressed or liquefied form.
Navigation	All civilian (non-military) marine transport of passengers and freight. Domestic marine transport consists of coastal shipping (freight and cruises), interstate and urban ferry services, commercial fishing, and small pleasure craft movements. International shipping using marine bunker fuel purchased in Australia is reported but not included in the national inventory emissions total.
NMVOC	Non-methane volatile organic compounds such as alkanes, alkenes and alkynes, aromatic compounds and carbonyls that are gases at standard temperature and pressure (i.e. Boiling points below 200°C) and normally 10 or less carbon atoms per molecule; excludes chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs)
PFC	Perfluorocarbons, chemical compounds containing carbon and fluorine atoms only (e.g. CF ₄ and C ₂ F ₆)
Prescribed Burning	The intentional burning of forests to reduce the amount of combustible material present and thereby reduce the risk of wildfires. In Australia this is known as 'fuel reduction burning'.
Process Emission	The gas released as a result of chemical or physical transformation of materials from one form to another
Reference approach	A 'top-down' tier 1 IPCC methodology for estimating CO ₂ emissions from fuel combustion activities (1.a).
Savanna	A grassland ecosystem with associated woody shrub and/or tree overstorey, the latter with projective foliage cover comprising less than 30% of the area. The IPCC category of 'savanna' is extended to include all non-agricultural grassland ecosystem types that experience burning in Australia.
Sink	Any process or activity that removes a greenhouse gas, an aerosol or a precursor of a greenhouse gas from the atmosphere. It includes chemical transformations in the atmosphere and uptake of the gases from the atmosphere by the underlying land and ocean surfaces.
Solid Waste	Waste from various activities; includes <i>municipal solid waste</i> (waste from domestic premises and council activities largely associated with servicing residential areas; such as street sweepings, street tree lopping, parks and gardens and litter bins), <i>commercial and industrial waste</i> , and <i>building and demolition waste</i>
Solvent	An organic liquid used for cleaning or to dissolve materials
Source	Any process or activity that releases a greenhouse gas, an aerosol or a precursor of a greenhouse gas into the atmosphere

Tier	The IPCC methods for estimating emissions and removals are divided into 'tiers' encompassing different levels of activity and technology detail. Tier 1 methods are generally very simple (activity multiplied by default emissions factor) and require less data and expertise than the most complicated tier 3 methods. Tier 2 and 3 methods generally require more detailed country-specific information on things such as technology type or livestock characteristics. The concept of tiers is also used to describe different levels of key source analysis, uncertainty analysis, and quality assurance and quality control activities.
Town Gas	Includes all manufactured gases that are typically reticulated to consumers, including synthetic natural gas, reformed natural gas, tempered LPG, and tempered natural gas
Uncertainty	Uncertainty is a parameter associated with the result of measurement that characterises the dispersion of values that could be reasonably attributed to the measured quantity (e.g. The sample variance or coefficient of variation). In general inventory terms, uncertainty refers to the lack of certainty (in inventory components) resulting from any causal factor such as unidentified sources and sinks, lack of transparency etc.
United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)	Entered into force in 1994. Parties to the convention have agreed to work towards achieving the ultimate aim of stabilising 'greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system'.
Venting	The process of releasing gas into the atmosphere without combustion. This may be done either at the production site or at the refinery or stripping plants. It is done to dispose of non-commercial gas or to relieve system pressure.

ANNEX 7: UNCERTAINTY ANALYSIS

Uncertainty is inherent within any kind of estimation—be it an estimate of the national greenhouse gas emissions, or the national gross domestic product. While it is in some cases possible to continuously monitor emissions, it is not usually practical or economic to do so. This leads to estimations based on samples or studies being used which carry a degree of additional uncertainty attached to them. Uncertainty also arises from the limitations of the measuring instruments, and over the complexities of the modelling of key relationships between observed variables and emissions.

The purpose of estimating the uncertainty attached to emissions estimates is principally to provide information on where inventory resources should be allocated to maximise the future improvements to inventory quality.

Assessing uncertainty is, itself, a difficult exercise, especially in the absence of quantitative data. Australia has conducted an uncertainty analysis for the individual sectors in line with the IPCC *Good Practice* guidelines. Monte Carlo and Latin Hypercube approaches were used to estimate emission uncertainty in some sectors, which is equivalent to the IPCC Tier 2 methodology.

The estimates have been mainly prepared by the judgement of the sectoral expert consultants. However, the estimates of uncertainty for the Australian inventory have been reviewed in 2005 by independent experts under protocols developed by the Australian CSIRO Atmospheric Research Division. The CSIRO report confirmed, with one or two exceptions, the quantitative judgements made in relation to uncertainty of inventory estimates and provide a strong basis for confidence in the assessments reported in this chapter.

The uncertainties for individual sectors are reported in more detail below. The estimated uncertainties tend to be low for carbon dioxide from energy consumption as well as from some industrial process emissions. Uncertainty surrounding estimates from these sources are typically as low as ± 4 –5%. Uncertainty surrounding estimates of emissions are higher for agriculture, land use change and forestry, reflecting inherently high uncertainty due to the very nature of the processes involved (e.g. biological processes). A medium band of uncertainty applies to estimates from fugitive emissions, most industrial processes and non-CO₂ gases in the energy sector. The ranges presented are broadly consistent with the typical uncertainty ranges expected for each sector, as identified in the IPCC *Good Practice Report*.

Table A.7: General Reporting Table for Uncertainty (IPCC Good Practice Guidance Reporting Table 6.1)

A IPCC Source category	B Gas	C Base year emissions	D Year t emissions	E Activity data	F Emission factor	G Combined uncertainty	H Uncertainty in total inventory	I Type A Sensitivity	J Type B Sensitivity	K Uncertainty in trend of EF	L Uncertainty in activity data	M Uncertainty in total emissions	Q footnote ref no.
		1990 Gg CO ₂ e	2005 Gg CO ₂ e	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
1.A. Coal	CO ₂	132673	192827	2	5	5.39	1.977	0.107	0.386	0.533	1.1	1.2	1,2
	CH ₄	28	41	2	5	5.39	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.0	1
	N ₂ O	444	657	2	20	20.10	0.025	0.000	0.001	0.008	0.0	0.0	1
1.A. Liquid	CO ₂	88262	111395	2	3	3.61	0.765	0.037	0.223	0.112	0.6	0.6	1
	CH ₄	589	666	2	40	40.05	0.051	0.000	0.001	0.004	0.0	0.0	1
	N ₂ O	696	1617	2	60	60.03	0.185	0.002	0.003	0.106	0.0	0.1	1
1.A Gaseous	CO ₂	33218	51314	2	3	3.61	0.352	0.033	0.103	0.098	0.3	0.3	1
	CH ₄	29	147	2	5	5.39	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.0	0.0	1
	N ₂ O	20	33	2	20	20.10	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.0	1
1.A. Biomass	CH ₄	1730	956	0	20	20.00	0.036	-0.002	0.002	-0.034	0.0	0.0	8
	N ₂ O	186	198	0	20	20.00	0.008	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.0	8
1.B.1 Fugitives coal mining	CH ₄	16114	21611	5	20	20.62	0.848	0.009	0.043	0.187	0.3	0.4	1,3
1.B.2 Fugitives oil	CO ₂	40	454	5	5	7.07	0.006	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.0	0.0	1,4
1.B.2 Fugitives Natural gas	CO ₂	10	6	10	3	10.44	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.0	1,4
1.B.2 Fugitives venting & flaring	CH ₄	66	272	5	5	7.07	0.004	0.000	0.001	-0.008	0.0	0.1	1,4
1.B.2 Fugitives Natural gas	CH ₄	4215	2135	10	3	10.44	0.042	-0.005	0.004	-0.014	0.1	0.1	1,4
1.B.2 Fugitives venting & flaring	CH ₄	2678	1633	5	5	7.07	0.022	-0.002	0.003	-0.012	0.0	0.0	1,4
2.A.1 Cement	CO ₂	3463	3644	2.5	2.5	3.54	0.025	0.000	0.007	0.000	0.0	0.0	5
2.A.2 Lime	CO ₂	704	1093	2.5	2.5	3.54	0.007	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.0	0.0	5
2.A.3 Limestone Consumption	CO ₂	955	903	4	2.5	4.72	0.008	0.000	0.002	-0.001	0.0	0.0	5
2.B.5 Rutile	CO ₂	407	929	2.5	2.5	3.54	0.006	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.0	0.0	5
2.B.5 Polymers	CH ₄	9	9	5	5	7.07	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.0	5
2.C.1 Steel	CO ₂	10174	8075	2.5	5	5.59	0.086	-0.005	0.016	-0.026	0.1	0.1	5
2.C.1 Steel	CH ₄	59	57	2.5	5	5.59	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.0	5
2.C.3 Aluminium	CO ₂	2017	3076	2.5	2.5	3.54	0.021	0.002	0.006	0.005	0.0	0.0	5
2.C.3 Aluminium	PFCs	3938	1567	27	0	27.00	0.081	-0.005	0.003	0.000	0.1	0.1	5
2.F HFCs	HFCs	1126	4252	27	0	27.00	0.219	0.006	0.009	0.000	0.3	0.3	5
2.F SF6	SF ₆	521	521	27	0	27.00	0.027	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.0	0.0	5
2.G Other	CO ₂ e	1885	5321	5	5	7.07	0.072	0.007	0.011	0.033	0.1	0.1	5
4.A Enteric fermentation	CH ₄	63881	58678	0	5.5	5.50	0.614	-0.017	0.117	0.000	0.0	0.0	6
4.B Manure management	CH ₄	1540	1939	0	10.5	10.50	0.039	0.001	0.004	0.000	0.0	0.0	6
4.B Manure management	N ₂ O	525	1495	0	10.3	10.30	0.029	0.002	0.003	0.019	0.0	0.0	6
4.C Rice Cultivation	CH ₄	490	216	5	10	11.18	0.005	-0.001	0.000	-0.006	0.0	0.0	7
4.D Agricultural Soils	N ₂ O	14379	16558	0	52	52.00	1.639	0.003	0.033	0.151	0.0	0.2	7
4.E Burning of Savannas	CH ₄	4643	6077	50	15	52.20	0.604	0.002	0.012	0.036	0.9	0.9	7
4.E Burning of Savannas	N ₂ O	1966	2574	50	15	52.20	0.256	0.001	0.005	0.015	0.4	0.4	7
4.F Agricultural Residues	CH ₄	193	245	5	20	20.62	0.010	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.0	0.0	7
4.F Agricultural Residues	N ₂ O	99	107	5	20	20.62	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.0	0.0	7
5.A Forest land remaining forest land	CO ₂	-44752	-52758	0	30	30.00	-3.014	-0.011	-0.106	-0.345	0.0	0.3	8
	CH ₄	1531	3977	0	77	77.00	0.583	0.005	0.008	0.365	0.0	0.4	8
	N ₂ O	418	271	0	93	93.00	0.048	0.000	0.001	-0.031	0.0	0.0	8
5.B Conversion to Grasslands	CO ₂	111378	56156	0	10	10.00	1.069	-0.122	0.112	-1.215	0.0	1.2	8
	CH ₄	2653	1327	0	20	20.00	0.051	-0.003	0.003	-0.058	0.0	0.1	8
	N ₂ O	725	363	0	20	20.00	0.014	-0.001	0.001	-0.016	0.0	0.0	8
5.B Conversion to Croplands	CO ₂	13164	-5191	0	10	10.00	-0.099	-0.038	-0.010	-0.380	0.0	0.4	8
	CH ₄	732	487	0	20	20.00	0.019	-0.001	0.001	-0.011	0.0	0.0	8

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	Q
IPCC Source category	Gas	Base year emissions	Year t emissions	Activity data	Emission factor	Combined uncertainty	Uncertainty in inventory	Type A Sensitivity	Type B Sensitivity	Uncertainty in trend of EF	Uncertainty in activity data	Uncertainty in total emissions	footnote ref no.
		1990 Gg CO ₂ e	2005 Gg CO ₂ e	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
5.G Other	N ₂ O	200	133	0	20	20.00	0.005	0.000	0.000	-0.003	0.0	0.0	8
6.A Solid Waste	CO ₂	-4414	-4999	0	20	20.00	-0.190	-0.001	-0.010	-0.014	0.0	0.0	8
6.B Wastewater handling	CH ₄	15250	14742	0	3.25	3.25	0.091	-0.003	0.029	-0.008	0.0	0.0	5
6.B Wastewater handling	CH ₄	2558	1694	0	50	50.00	0.161	-0.002	0.003	-0.099	0.0	0.1	5
6.B Waste incineration	N ₂ O	479	572	0	50	50.00	0.054	0.000	0.001	0.007	0.0	0.0	5
6.C Waste incineration	CO ₂	21	28	0	50	50.00	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.0	0.0	5
Total Emissions		499847	525193										
Total Uncertainties							4.0					1.9	

1 Energy Strategies; 2. George Wilkenfeld & Associates; 3. Dr David Williams, CSIRO; 4 Australian Petroleum Production & Exploration Association; 5 Burnbank Consulting; 6 Dr Mark Howden, CSIRO; 7. Dr Carl Meyer, CSIRO; 8. Dr Gary Richards, Department of Climate Change.

The estimates of uncertainty surrounding the emissions estimates for individual sectors may be combined to present an estimate of the overall uncertainty for the inventory as a whole. Following the recommendations of the IPCC Good Practice Guidance, the emission estimates across the energy sector have been aggregated because of the hidden dependencies that exist between sectoral activity levels as a result of the constraint of overall consumption and since aggregate fuel consumption is more accurately known than the consumption in individual sectors. The results of the application of the IPCC Tier 1 approach to estimating the uncertainty of the inventory as a whole, which identifies separately estimates of uncertainty for both activity and emission factors where available, and which does not account for correlations between variables (unlike some of the sectoral analyses), are presented in Table A.7.

As indicated in the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* the Tier 1 approach is valid as long as a number of restrictive assumptions are met. An alternative, more flexible approach, which relies on Monte Carlo analysis and a more detailed specification of the sources of uncertainty, is currently under consideration for development by the Department of Climate Change for use in future national inventory reports. This analysis would be equivalent to the IPCC Tier 2 approach and would take into consideration a number of refinements proposed by the CSIRO independent review.

The Tier 1 results presented in Table A.7 show the estimated uncertainty surrounding the aggregate inventory estimate for 2004 to be $\pm 4\%$. The reported estimated uncertainty for the trend in emissions is $\pm 2\%$. This estimate has been calculated on the assumption that the total uncertainty for parts of agriculture, land use, land use change and forestry, and the waste sectors are uncorrelated through time. The overall estimate of uncertainty in the trend is sensitive to this assumption. If the alternative assumption was applied, that of full correlation in the total uncertainty of these sectors over time, the uncertainty in the trend estimate is estimated at $\pm 6\%$. Further analysis will be conducted into this issue for future inventories.

Energy

Stationary Energy

Uncertainty analyses were conducted for emissions from three sectors: 1.A.1.a. *Electricity*, 1.A.1.b. *Petroleum refining* and 1.A.1.c. *Manufacture of solid fuels and other energy industries* (Table A.8). The overall uncertainty in estimated emissions from *electricity generation* was $\pm 5\%$. The highest uncertainty was for N_2O emissions, with an associated uncertainty of up to $\pm 16\%$. However, as emissions of N_2O (and CH_4) account for only a small fraction, 0.4%, of the subsector's total emissions, there is a negligible impact on overall uncertainty for this sector.

Table A.8: Quantified uncertainty values for key stationary energy subcategories^(a)

Greenhouse gas source and sink category	Uncertainty (%)			
	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	Total CO ₂ -e
1. ENERGY				
A Fuel combustion activities				
1.A.1.a. Electricity	±5	±9	±15	±5
Black coal	±6	±9	±15	±6
Brown coal	±4	±9	±15	±4
Petroleum	±4	±9	±7	±4
Natural gas	±4	±9	±16	±4
Biomass	NA	±9	±4	±4
Biogas	NA	±9	±16	±4
1.A.1.b. Petroleum refining	±4	±9	±12	±4
Petroleum	±4	±9	±12	±4
Gas	±4	±9	±12	±4
1.A.1.c. Manufacture of solid fuels and other energy industries	±4	±9	±12	±4
Coal	±4	±9	±12	±4
Petroleum	±4	±9	±12	±4
Gas	±4	±9	±12	±4

(a) Uncertainty reported at 95% confidence limits estimated using Latin Hypercube (a type of Monte Carlo) analysis

Overall uncertainty associated with emissions estimates from both 1.A.1.b. *Petroleum refining* and 1.A.1.c. *Manufacture of solid fuels and other energy industries* sectors was ±4%. Again, the uncertainty associated with emissions of N₂O and CH₄ has negligible impact on overall uncertainty. An uncertainty analysis on minor, mobile source categories of the *stationary energy* sector gave uncertainty values ranging from ±16.4% to ±24.5% for CO₂, from ±25.4% to ±63.9% for CH₄, and ±44.7% to ±64.2% for N₂O.

Table A.9: Quantified uncertainty values for mobile source categories^(a)

Greenhouse gas source and sink category	Uncertainty (%)		
	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O
1.A.4. Other sectors			
b. Residential			
Lawn mowers	±24.5	±45.2	±46.3
1.A.5. Other			
b. Mobile	±16.4	±25.4	±44.7
Military transport—land	±18.5	±32.9	±54.6
Military transport—water	±24.4	±63.9	±62.7
Military transport—aviation	±24.0	±47.2	±64.2

(a) Uncertainty reported at 95% confidence limits estimated using Monte Carlo analysis.

Transport

Monte Carlo analyses were conducted for all subsectors and fuel types. The uncertainty distributions for emission factors and activity data were developed on the basis of expert judgment.

The total estimated uncertainties in the *transport* subsector were ±4% for CO₂, ±24% for CH₄, and ±42% for N₂O. Uncertainties in the emissions from individual source categories ranged from ±1% to ±24% for CO₂, ±23% to

$\pm 59\%$ for CH_4 , and $\pm 32\%$ to $\pm 63\%$ for N_2O . The largest source of uncertainty is in the emission factors.

The estimates also reflect the relatively higher uncertainty attached to the emission estimates for particular vehicle types, which are drawn from ABS data and its survey of motor vehicle use, than for the sector as a whole. This outcome reflects the dependency between activity variables; and because overall transport fuel consumption is more accurately known than the individual segments.

Table A.10: Emissions and quantified uncertainty values for key transport subcategories^(a)

Greenhouse gas source and sink category	Uncertainty (%)		
	CO_2	CH_4	N_2O
1.A.3. Transport	± 4	± 24	± 42
	± 4	± 23	± 41
a. Civil aviation	± 9	± 52	± 52
b. Road transport	± 4	± 25	± 42
i. Passenger cars	± 6	± 31	± 44
ii. Light trucks	± 7	± 38	± 41
iii. Medium trucks	± 9	± 41	± 60
iv. Heavy trucks	± 10	± 44	± 61
v. Buses	± 8	± 36	± 53
vi. Motorcycles	± 10	± 43	± 61
c. Railways	± 5	± 39	± 39
d. Navigation	± 8	± 59	± 32
e. Other transportation	± 24	± 46	± 63
International bunkers			
Aviation	± 10	± 58	± 59
Marine	± 4	± 47	± 52

(a) Uncertainty reported at 95% confidence limits.

Fugitives

The overall uncertainty for *fugitive* emissions was estimated to be $\pm 11\%$ (Table A.11). The estimated uncertainty for *solid fuels* CH_4 was $\pm 19\%$. Uncertainties in oil and natural gas emissions were estimated to be $\pm 4\%$ for CO_2 , $\pm 5\%$ for CH_4 and $\pm 4\%$ for N_2O .

Table A.11: Quantified uncertainty values for key fugitive emissions subcategories^(a)

Greenhouse gas source and sink category		Uncertainty (%)			
		CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	CO ₂ -e
1. ENERGY					
B. Fugitive emissions		±4	±14	±4	±11
	1.B.1. Solid fuels	NE	±19	NE	±19
	1B1ai Underground mines	NE	±21	NE	±21
	Underground activities	NE	±21	NE	±21
	Post mining	NE	±17	NE	±17
	1.B.1.a.i.i. Surface mining	NE	±17	NE	±17
	1.B.2. Oil and natural gas	±4	±5	±4	±4
	1.B.2.a. Oil	±8	±5	±8	±7
	1.B.2.b. Natural gas	±9	±9	NA	±9
	1.B.2.c. Venting and flaring	±4	±4	±4	±4

(a) Uncertainty reported at 95% confidence limits estimated using Latin Hypercube analysis.

Industrial Processes

An analysis of uncertainty was conducted using the methods recommended in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* and random sampling techniques described in the *IPCC Good Practice* report (Latin Hypercube simulations). Uncertainty estimates of the components of each emission estimate (activity levels and emission factors) are based on expert judgement.

As the IPCC Tier 1 approach is not suitable for assessing uncertainty where approximately normal distribution assumptions cannot be sustained, an analysis was undertaken using Latin Hypercube techniques. These techniques can take into account asymmetric probability distributions associated with emission factors. For example, as the average emission factor for PFCs tends to the minimum limit that is understood to be technically feasible, the probability of the emission factor being lower than estimated is less than the probability of it being higher than estimated.

The Latin Hypercube analysis gave an uncertainty of ±5% (Table A.12). The uncertainty in the *industrial processes* subsectors ranged from ±4% to ±20%.

Table A.12: Quantified uncertainty values for key industrial processes subsectors using different techniques^(a)

Source	Uncertainties and distribution		Emission factors - uncertainties and distributions								
	Production/ use	Distribution	CO ₂	Distribution	CH ₄	Distribution	N ₂ O	Distribution	CF ₄	Distribution	C ₂ F ₆
Cement clinker	±5.00	Normal	±4.99	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Cement kiln dust	±7.01	Normal	±5.01	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Cement total organic carbon	NA	Normal	±5.00	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Commercial lime	±5.00	Normal	±4.99	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
In-house lime	±4.01	Normal	±5.01	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Limestone use	±8.01	Normal	±5.00	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Dolomite use	±8.00	Normal	±4.99	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Soda ash production	±5.00	Normal	NA	Stoichiometry	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Soda ash use	±5.00	Normal	NA	Stoichiometry	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Magnesia	±5.00	Normal	±5.00	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Ammonia	±7.02	Normal	±5.00	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Nitric acid	±10.00	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	±9.99	Normal	NA	NA	NA
Nitrous oxide	±5.00	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Synthetic rutile	±5.00	Normal	±5.00	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Titanium dioxide	±20.00	Normal	±5.00	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Iron and steel	±5.01	Normal	±2.05	Triangular	±3.82	Triangular	±16.33	Triangular	NA	NA	NA
Hot briquetted iron	±5.00	Normal	±4.08	Triangular	±4.34	Triangular	±9.07	Triangular	NA	NA	NA
Aluminium	±5.01	Normal	±5.00	Normal	NA	NA	NA	NA	±16.22	Triangular	Function of CF ₄
Total emissions	26019.09										
Aggregate uncertainty	±2.88										

(a) Uncertainty reported at 95% confidence limits assuming approximately normal distributions. Source: Burnbank Consulting.

Agriculture

Livestock

An uncertainty analysis was undertaken for the *livestock* subsectors, addressing both CH₄ and N₂O emissions. Uncertainty distributions were developed for the inputs and the relationships used in the inventory. Where possible, uncertainties were based on quantitative analysis of probability distributions. Nevertheless, many of the distributions remain based on expert judgement. For many biological variables there are limits to the likely minimum and maximum values, and these constrain the distributions. For example, feed intakes have maximum values that are defined by the physiology of the livestock and the characteristics of the feed. Minimum values of feed intake relate to productivity and survival below which the industry wouldn't attempt to operate.

The estimated uncertainty in *enteric fermentation* emissions ranged from –5.1% to +5.9% (Table A.13) while the uncertainty in the *manure management* emissions was in the order of 10%. For total CO₂-e emissions from *livestock* the uncertainty was estimated to be –5.3% to +6.1%. The uncertainty in the reported cattle numbers was the most significant contributor to the overall uncertainty.

Recent measurements of methane emissions from sheep on high-quality pastures and cattle on grain diets in Australia show that the inventory procedure produces accurate estimates of methane emission rates. However, further work is needed to reduce uncertainties relating to feed intakes, methane emissions from sheep on low-quality pasture, methane emissions from beef cattle, and emissions from manure under a range of conditions.

Table A.13: Relative uncertainty in emission estimates for the livestock subsector^(a)

Greenhouse gas source and sink categories	Uncertainty (%)	
	CH ₄	N ₂ O
A. Enteric fermentation	–5.1 to +5.9	
B. Manure management	–9.8 to +11.1	–10.1 to +10.6

(a) Uncertainty reported at 95% confidence limits estimated using Monte Carlo analysis.

Other Agriculture

Estimates of uncertainties in the emissions for the *other agriculture* subsectors were determined using a Latin Hypercube analysis (Table A.14). Ideally, the probability distributions of the input variables would be determined by statistical analysis of real data. However, in the current analysis, suitable data sets were not available and the probability distributions were defined using expert judgement. The uncertainty in emission factors and associated parameters were determined from surveys of the published international literature, with emphasis on local Australian measurements. All variables are considered to be independent except fuel load and burning efficiency, which were positively correlated. The activity data with the greatest uncertainties are the areas of savanna fires. These are collated from a large and dispersed number of state government organisations with a wide range of data quality protocols.

There is large relative uncertainty in the emission estimates from all subcategories, including approximately –45 to +55% for methane in the *field burning of residues* subsector and –32% to +52% for nitrous oxide from *agricultural soils*. By way of comparison, estimates presented in the IPCC *Good Practice* guidelines indicate uncertainties of up to +55% and +500% for these sectors respectively as being likely to be typical. Significantly, in all subsectors, most of this uncertainty was derived from the uncertainties in emission factors and associated parameters. Uncertainty in the activity data was a relatively minor contributor to overall uncertainty. Partly this is a result of using three-year averages of annual activity data. The effect of averaging is to significantly reduce the sensitivity of the emissions estimates to uncertainty in the value for any individual year. In most cases, the uncertainty ranges are distributed asymmetrically around the estimates because, while emission factors usually have well constrained minima, their maxima are generally unconstrained.

Table A.14: Relative uncertainty in emission estimates for other agriculture subsectors^(a)

Greenhouse gas source and sink categories	Uncertainty (%)	
	CH ₄	N ₂ O
4. AGRICULTURE		
C. Rice cultivation	–19 to 22	
1. Irrigated	–19 to 22	
D. Agricultural soils		–32 to 52
1. Direct soil emissions		–30 to 42
2. Animal production		–49 to 120
3. Indirect		–61 to 107
E. Prescribed burning of savannas	–52 to 112	–55 to 115
F. Field Burning of agricultural residues	–45 to 55	–43 to 50
1. Cereals	–49 to 60	–47 to 59
2. Pulse	–59 to 85	–59 to 92
3. Tuber and root	NO	NO
4. Sugar cane	–45 to 60	–48 to 63
5. Other	–57 to 96	–57 to 99

(a) Uncertainty reported at 95% confidence limits estimated using Latin Hypercube.

Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry

Australia's National Carbon Accounting System (NCAS) uses Tier 3 methods (ecosystem model) of emissions estimation and an Approach 3 (full spatial enumeration) method of representing land (IPCC 2003). Unlike the Tier 1 and Tier 2 methods, Tier 3 uses complex modelling to estimate emissions in a way that fully represents both annual and spatial variability. Tier 3 and Approach 3 methods were chosen because the causes of most emissions in Australia (forest conversion) are from rare events (a small fraction of the forest estate). Tier 3 methods allow more complex forms of sensitivity and uncertainty analysis, and in concert with verification activities give an ability to identify any potential bias.

The verification processes focus on the detailed checking of land areas and modelled emissions estimates. That is, the testing of the NCAS results is typically against actual measures that have a 'certain' outcome. The benefits of verification by direct measurement are, first, the detailed data derived can be used to determine the model and land area estimation performances in general (e.g., by region, soil type, vegetation type) and in detail, for example, by carbon pool (e.g., litter, fast turnover soil organic matter). Second, having actual measures allows for continuous improvement whereby the verification data can subsequently be used to enhance calibration, which is then tested again in subsequent verification. This ensures a growing base of data for model calibration while also ensuring that calibration and verification data remain independent.

Extensive independent verification programs of the land cover change and plantation mapping via remote sensing techniques have been continuously applied throughout the time-series updates. The methods applied to verification of the land cover change results are published in the NCAS Technical Reports (Lowell et. al., 2003 and Jones et. al., 2004) and in peer review literature (Lowell et. al., 2005). This program initially relied on verification against historic air photographs, and more recently, by using very high resolution satellite data (1m). The verification of the plantations mapping (MBAC Consulting *in prep.*) was based on on-site field inspection. This alternative approach was used because it was able to provide a definite date of planting (from signage or company records) and could accurately provide parameters such as species, stocking rate, condition etc. that could not be derived with certainty from remote techniques. This program was based on several hundred sites throughout Australia, selected to be representative of geographic regions, plantation types and plantation ages.

The direct measurement of forest biomass is rare, and as destructive sampling is required, no time-series growth data based on whole mass measurement is available. However, through the use of allometric equations from

measurable forest stand parameters of basal area, height etc. it is possible to model total stand biomass. As these measures are widely used in forest inventory, there is a wealth of industry data available as both single point in time and time-series (permanent plot) measurements against which growth and biomass estimates have been verified. In addition, research site data comparisons and select whole-stand mass measurements have been applied. The benefits of comparisons with research data has been that additional to commonly available stand biomass estimates are data on site conditions and management. Because of the cost and logistical difficulty in actually measuring total stand biomass, the approach taken was to destructively sample and weigh forest plots of a single species across a productivity gradient (Ximenes et. al., 2005). This approach could then test both the biomass predictions and replication of the gradient in forest productivity and carrying capacity by model estimates.

Much like the verification activities for forest biomass, a tiered approach was applied to the verification of modelled soil carbon change estimates. Most geographically widespread and representative data were taken from paired site samples, before and after land use change. The change in total soil organic carbon was compared to modelled estimates. Soil fractionations were also completed to test the model performance in predicting turnover in various soil carbon pools. Wherever possible, models were also compared to research site data (Skjemstad and Spouncer 2002). This again had the benefit of multiple pool, time-series measurements for comparison, along with the recorded impacts of detailed site condition and management.

The methods of uncertainty analysis described by the IPCC Good Practice Guidance 2003 are typically designed for Tier 1 and Tier 2 emissions factor based approaches. More complex methods for dealing with potential error propagation and inter-correlation of parameter uncertainties needs to be applied to the process model forms of inventory used in Tier 3. However, the fundamental approach of using *Monte Carlo* forms of analysis for both sensitivity and uncertainty analysis remains relevant and are applied.

The sensitivity and uncertainty analysis of the NCAS are used to determine:

- > that the best estimate (most likely outcome) is not subject to bias;
- > the parameter sensitivity, in order to understand the drivers of uncertainty and guide improvement programs and verification priorities; and,
- > to determine the probability distribution of possible outcomes.

The sensitivity and uncertainty analyses undertaken are described in detail in each of the methods Appendices 7.B, 7.C and 7.D. To enable these analyses a *Monte Carlo* analysis capability has been integrated into the modelling framework and is routinely applied.

Uncertainty analyses using *Monte Carlo* techniques are also supplemented by the determination of accuracies of spatial data through verification programs. Verification can also be used to identify if there is any potential bias in the spatial inputs to the emissions modelling.

Table A.14a: Estimation of uncertainties in components of the land use change and forestry subsectors (UNFCCC accounting)

Subsector	Uncertainty Level
Forest land remaining forest (CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O)	±30, -45 +77, -53 +93
Grassland conversion (CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O)	±10, 20
Cropland conversion (CO ₂ , CH ₄ , N ₂ O)	±10, 20

Waste

Estimates for uncertainty for emissions from solid waste disposal were estimated by Burnbank Consulting. Uncertainty in the sold waste sector has been reduced markedly in this Inventory, reflecting the incorporation of State Government and ABARE data and IPCC default methodologies for emissions generation. The full implications of non-linearities in the solid waste methodology are still to be satisfactorily explored, however, and further work into the sold waste estimates are likely in future.

Table A.15: Relative uncertainty in emission estimates for key waste subsectors

Greenhouse gas source and sink categories	Uncertainty (%)				
	CH ₄	N ₂ O	NO _x	CO	NMVOC
6. Waste					
A. Solid waste disposal on land a	± 3.25%	NA	NA	NA	NA
B. Wastewater	± 50%				
C. Incineration	NA				

a Source Burnbank Consulting 2006

Table A.16: Specific distributions, parameters and results: Solid Waste

Variable	Distribution and parameters	2sd	M-2sd	M+2sd	2sd/M	M-/2.5 perc	M+/97.5 perc
Emission Generated / 2004 - ACT		0.70	12.85	14.26	5.19%	1.00	1.00
Emission Generated / 2004 - NSW		16.55	277.85	310.95	5.62%	1.00	1.00
Emission Generated / 2004 - NT		0.26	4.63	5.14	5.26%	1.00	1.00
Emission Generated / 2004 - QLD		7.84	163.61	179.30	4.57%	1.00	1.00
Emission Generated / 2004 - SA		4.92	45.95	55.79	9.68%	1.00	1.00
Emission Generated / 2004 - TAS		1.72	15.75	19.19	9.84%	1.00	1.01
Emission Generated / 2004 - VIC		16.57	163.14	196.29	9.22%	1.00	1.00
Emission Generated / 2004 - WA		8.94	78.13	96.01	10.27%	1.00	1.00
Emissions Generated - Australia		26.59	792.84	846.03	3.25%	1.00	1.00
DOCfood	Normal (0.15,0.05*0.15)	0.01	0.13	0.16	10.00%	1.00	1.00
DOCpaper&text / DOCpaper&text	Normal (0.4,0.05*0.4)	0.04	0.36	0.44	10.00%	1.00	1.00
DOgGarden / DOgGarden	Normal (0.17,0.05*0.17)	0.02	0.15	0.19	10.00%	1.00	1.00
DOCwood / DOCwood	Normal (0.43,0.05*0.43)	0.04	0.39	0.47	10.00%	1.00	1.00
Standard Mix - MSW- food	Triang (0.15,0.21,0.27)	0.05	0.16	0.26	23.33%	0.99	1.01
Standard Mix - MSW-p&t / Standard Mix - MSW-p&t	Triang (0.07,0.11,0.15)	0.03	0.08	0.14	29.69%	0.98	1.01
Standard Mix - MSW-gg / Standard Mix - MSW-gg	Triang (0.14,0.19,0.24)	0.04	0.15	0.23	21.49%	0.99	1.01
Standard Mix - MSW-wood / Standard Mix - MSW-wood	Triang (0.02,0.03,0.04)	0.01	0.02	0.04	27.22%	0.98	1.01
Standard Mix - MSW-other / Standard Mix - MSW-other	Triang (0.38,0.46,0.54)	0.07	0.39	0.53	14.20%	0.99	1.01

Variable	Distribution and parameters	2sd	M-2sd	M+2sd	2sd/M	M-/2.5 perc	M+/97.5 perc
DDOC	Normal(0.5,0.1*0.5)	0.10	0.40	0.60	20.00%	1.00	1.00
Half-life	Triang(3,4,6)	1.25	3.09	5.58	28.78%	0.94	0.99
Half-life	Triang(10,12,14)	1.63	10.37	13.63	13.61%	0.99	1.01
Half-life	Triang(6,7,9)	1.25	6.09	8.58	17.01%	0.97	1.00
Half-life	Triang(17,23,35)	7.48	17.52	32.48	29.93%	0.94	0.99
Time Delay	Normal(7,0.28*7)	3.92	3.08	10.92	55.99%	0.98	1.01
Half-life	Triang(3,4,6)	1.25	3.09	5.58	28.78%	0.94	0.99
Half-life	Triang(10,12,14)	1.63	10.37	13.63	13.61%	0.99	1.01
Half-life	Triang(6,7,9)	1.25	6.09	8.58	17.01%	0.97	1.00
Half-life	Triang(17,23,35)	7.48	17.52	32.48	29.93%	0.94	0.99
Time Delay	Normal(7,0.28*7)	3.92	3.08	10.92	56.00%	0.98	1.01
Half-life	Triang(1,2,4)	1.25	1.09	3.58	53.45%	0.85	0.99
Half-life	Triang(8,10,12)	1.63	8.37	11.63	16.33%	0.99	1.01
Half-life	Triang(3,4,5)	0.82	3.18	4.82	20.41%	0.99	1.01
Half-life	Triang(14,20,23)	3.74	15.26	22.74	19.69%	1.01	1.03
Time Delay	Normal(7,0.28*7)	3.92	3.08	10.92	55.99%	0.98	1.01
Half-life	Triang(1,2,4)	1.25	1.09	3.58	53.45%	0.85	0.99
Half-life	Triang(8,10,12)	1.63	8.37	11.63	16.33%	0.99	1.01
Half-life	Triang(3,4,5)	0.82	3.18	4.82	20.41%	0.99	1.01
Half-life	Triang(14,20,23)	3.74	15.26	22.74	19.69%	1.01	1.03
Time Delay	Normal(7,0.28*7)	3.92	3.08	10.92	56.00%	0.98	1.01
Half-life	Triang(9,12,14)	2.05	9.61	13.72	17.61%	1.00	1.02
Half-life	Triang(14,17,23)	3.74	14.26	21.74	20.79%	0.96	1.00
Half-life	Triang(12,14,17)	2.05	12.28	16.39	14.34%	0.98	1.00
Half-life	Triang(23,35,69)	19.48	22.85	61.82	46.02%	0.86	0.99
Time Delay	Normal(7,0.28*7)	3.92	3.08	10.92	55.99%	0.98	1.01
Half-life	Triang(9,12,14)	2.05	9.61	13.72	17.61%	1.00	1.02
Half-life	Triang(14,17,23)	3.74	14.26	21.74	20.79%	0.96	1.00
Half-life	Triang(12,14,17)	2.05	12.28	16.39	14.34%	0.98	1.00
Half-life	Triang(23,35,69)	19.48	22.85	61.82	46.02%	0.86	0.99
Time Delay	Normal(7,0.28*7)	3.92	3.08	10.92	56.00%	0.98	1.01
Half-life	Triang(9,12,14)	2.05	9.61	13.72	17.61%	1.00	1.02
Half-life	Triang(14,17,23)	3.74	14.26	21.74	20.79%	0.96	1.00
Half-life	Triang(12,14,17)	2.05	12.28	16.39	14.34%	0.98	1.00
Half-life	Triang(23,35,69)	19.48	22.85	61.82	46.02%	0.86	0.99
Time Delay	Normal(7,0.28*7)	3.92	3.08	10.92	55.99%	0.98	1.01
Half-life	Triang(9,12,14)	2.05	9.61	13.72	17.61%	1.00	1.02
Half-life	Triang(14,17,23)	3.74	14.26	21.74	20.79%	0.96	1.00
Half-life	Triang(12,14,17)	2.05	12.28	16.39	14.34%	0.98	1.00
Half-life	Triang(23,35,69)	19.48	22.85	61.82	46.02%	0.86	0.99
Time Delay	Normal(7,0.28*7)	3.92	3.08	10.92	55.99%	0.98	1.01

Source: Burnbank Consulting.

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