Anthropogenic emissions of methane in the United States

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This study quantitatively estimates the spatial distribution of anthropogenic methane sources in the United States by combining comprehensive atmospheric methane observations, extensive spatial datasets, and a high-resolution atmospheric transport model. Results show that current inventories from the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research underestimate methane emissions nationally by a factor of ∼1.5 and ∼1.7, respectively. Our study indicates that emissions due to ruminants and manure are up to twice the magnitude of existing inventories. In addition, the discrepancy in methane source estimates is particularly pronounced in the south-central United States, where we find total emissions are ∼2.7 times greater than in most inventories and account for 24 ± 3% of national emissions. The spatial patterns of our emission fluxes and observed methane–propane correlations indicate that fossil fuel extraction and refining are major contributors (45 ± 13%) in the south-central United States. This result suggests that regional methane emissions due to fossil fuel extraction and processing could be 4.9 ± 2.6 times larger than in EDGAR, the most comprehensive global methane inventory. These results cast doubt on the US EPA’s recent decision to downscale its estimate of national natural gas emissions by 25–30%. Overall, we conclude that methane emissions associated with both the animal husbandry and fossil fuel industries have larger greenhouse gas impacts than indicated by existing inventories.

Significance

Successful regulation of greenhouse gas emissions requires knowledge of current methane emission sources. Existing state regulations in California and Massachusetts require ∼15% greenhouse gas emissions reductions from current levels by 2020. However, government estimates for total US methane emissions may be biased by 50%, and estimates of individual source sectors are even more uncertain. This study uses atmospheric methane observations to reduce this level of uncertainty. We find greenhouse gas emissions from agriculture and fossil fuel extraction and processing (i.e., oil and/or natural gas) are likely a factor of two or greater than cited in existing studies. Effective national and state greenhouse gas reduction strategies may be difficult to develop without appropriate estimates of methane emissions from these source sectors.


Supporting Online Material


Methane (CH4) is the second most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas, with approximately one third the total radiative forcing of carbon dioxide (1). CH4 also enhances the formation of surface ozone in populated areas, and thus higher global concentrations of CH4 may significantly increase ground-level ozone in the Northern Hemisphere (2). Furthermore, methane affects the ability of the atmosphere to oxidize other pollutants and plays a role in water formation within the stratosphere (3).

Atmospheric concentrations of CH4 [1.800 parts per billion (ppb)] are currently much higher than preindustrial levels (∼680–715 ppb) (1, 4). The global atmospheric burden started to rise rapidly in the 18th century and paused in the 1990s. Methane levels began to increase again more recently, potentially from a combination of increased anthropogenic and/or tropical wetland emissions (5–7). Debate continues, however, over the causes behind these recent trends (7, 8).

Anthropogenic emissions account for 50–65% of the global CH4 budget of 395–427 teragrams of carbon per year (TgC)−1 (526–569 Tg CH4) (7, 9). The US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) estimates the principal anthropogenic sources in the United States to be (in order of importance) (i) livestock (enteric fermentation and manure management), (ii) natural gas production and distribution, (iii) landfills, and (iv) coal mining (10). EPA assesses human-associated emissions in the United States in 2008 at 22.1 TgC, roughly 5% of global emissions (10).

The amount of anthropogenic CH4 emissions in the US and attributions by sector and region are controversial (Fig. 1). Bottom-up inventories from US EPA and the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) give totals ranging from 19.6 to 30 TgC−1 for 2004 (13). The most recent EPA and EDGAR inventories report lower US anthropogenic emissions compared with previous versions (decreased by 10% and 35%, respectively) (10, 11); this change primarily reflects lower, revised emissions estimates from natural gas and coal production (Fig. S1). However, recent analysis of CH4 data from aircraft estimates a higher budget of 32.4 ± 4.5 TgC−1 for 2004 (13). Furthermore, atmospheric observations indicate higher emissions in natural gas production areas (14–16); a steady 20-y increase in the number of US wells and newly-adopted horizontal drilling techniques may have further increased emissions in these regions (17, 18).

These disparities among bottom-up and top-down studies suggest much greater uncertainty in emissions than typically reported. For example, EPA cites an uncertainty of only ±13% for the US (10). Independent assessments of bottom-up inventories give error ranges of 50–100% (19, 20), and

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values from Kort et al. are $47 \pm 20\%$ higher than EPA (13). Assessments of CH$_4$ sources to inform policy (e.g., regulating emissions or managing energy resources) require more accurate, verified estimates for the United States.

This study estimates anthropogenic CH$_4$ emissions over the United States for 2007 and 2008 using comprehensive CH$_4$ observations at the surface, on telecommunications towers, and from aircraft, combined with an atmospheric transport model and a geostatistical inverse modeling (GIM) framework. We use auxiliary spatial data (e.g., on population density and economic activity) and leverage concurrent measurements of alkanes to help attribute emissions to specific economic sectors. The work provides spatially resolved CH$_4$ emissions estimates and associated uncertainties, as well as information by source sector, both previously unavailable.

**Model and Observation Framework**

We use the Stochastic Time-Inverted Lagrangian Transport model (STILT) to calculate the transport of CH$_4$ from emission points at the ground to measurement locations in the atmosphere (21). STILT follows an ensemble of particles backward in time, starting from each observation site, using wind fields and turbulence modeled by the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model (22). STILT derives an influence function (“footprint,” units: ppb CH$_4$ per unit emission flux) linking upward emissions to each measurement. Inputs of CH$_4$ from surface sources along the ensemble of back-trajectories are averaged to compute the CH$_4$ concentration for comparison with each observation.

We use observations for 2007 and 2008 from diverse locations and measurement platforms. The principal observations derive from daily flask samples on tall towers (4,984 total observations) and vertical profiles from aircraft (7,710 observations). Tower-based observations are collected as part of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric (NOAA)/Department of Energy (DOE) cooperative air sampling network, and aircraft-based data are obtained from regular NOAA flights (23), regular DOE flights (24), and from the Stratosphere-Troposphere Analyses of Regional Transport 2008 (START08) aircraft campaign (25); all data are publicly available from NOAA and DOE. These observations are displayed in Fig. 2 and discussed further in the SI Text (e.g., Fig. S2). We use a GIM framework (26, 27) to analyze the footprints for each of the 12,694 observations, and these footprints vary by site and with wind conditions. In aggregate, the footprints provide spatially resolved coverage of most of the continental United States, except the southeast coastal region (Fig. S3).

The GIM framework, using footprints and concentration measurements, optimizes CH$_4$ sources separately for each month of 2007 and 2008 on a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ latitude–longitude grid for the United States. The contributions of fluxes from natural wetlands are modeled first and subtracted from the observed CH$_4$ (2.0 TgC yr$^{-1}$ for the continental United States); these fluxes are much smaller than anthropogenic sources in the United States and thus would be difficult to independently constrain from atmospheric data (SI Text).

The GIM framework represents the flux distribution for each month using a deterministic spatial model plus a stochastic spatially correlated residual, both estimated from the atmospheric observations. The deterministic component is given by a weighted linear combination of spatial activity data from the EDGAR 4.2 inventory; these datasets include any economic or demographic data that may predict the distribution of CH$_4$ emissions (e.g., gas production, human and ruminant population densities, etc.). Both the selection of the activity datasets to be retained in the model and the associated weights (emission factors) are optimized to best match observed CH$_4$ concentrations. Initially, seven activity datasets are included from EDGAR 4.2, (i) population, (ii) electricity production from power plants, (iii) ruminant population count, (iv) oil and conventional gas production, (v) oil refinery production, (vi) rice production, and (vii) coal production.

We select the minimum number of datasets with the greatest predictive ability using the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) (SI Text) (28). BIC numerically scores all combinations of available datasets based on how well they improve goodness of fit and applies a penalty that increases with the number of datasets retained.

The stochastic component represents sources that do not fit the spatial patterns of the activity data (Fig. S4). GIM uses

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**Fig. 2.** CH$_4$ concentration measurements from 2007 and 2008 and the number of observations associated with each measurement type. Blue text lists the number of observations associated with each stationary tower measurement site.
studies adopted one of three approaches: use a simple box model (13) regional (13) model explains the observations well, the magnitude of CH\textsubscript{4} emissions in the stochastic component and/or if the spatial activity maps are effective at explaining those sources, many activity datasets will be included in the deterministic model. If the deterministic model explains the observations well, the magnitude of CH\textsubscript{4} emissions in the stochastic component will be small, the assignment to specific sectors will be unambiguous, and uncertainties in the emissions estimates will be small. This result is not the case here, as discussed below (see Results).

A number of previous studies used top-down methods to constrain anthropogenic CH\textsubscript{4} sources from global (29–33) to regional (13–15, 34–38) scales over North America. Most regional studies adopted one of three approaches: use a simple box model to estimate an overall CH\textsubscript{4} budget (14), estimate a budget using the relative ratios of different gases (15, 37–39), or estimate scaling factors for inventories by region or source type (13, 34–36). The first two methods do not usually give explicit information about geographic distribution. The last approach provides information about the geographic distribution of sources, but results hinge on the spatial accuracy of the underlying regional or sectoral emissions inventories (40).

Here, we are able to provide more insight into the spatial distribution of emissions; like the scaling factor method above, we leverage spatial information about source sectors from an existing inventory, but in addition we estimate the distribution of emissions where the inventory is deficient. We further bolster attribution of regional emissions from the energy industry using the observed correlation of CH\textsubscript{4} and propane, a gas not produced by biogenic processes like livestock and landfills.

**Results**

**Spatial Distribution of CH\textsubscript{4} Emissions.** Fig. 3 displays the result of the 2-yr mean of the monthly CH\textsubscript{4} inversions and differences from the EDGAR 4.2 inventory. We find emissions for the United States that are a factor of 1.7 larger than the EDGAR inventory. The optimized emissions estimated by this study bring the model closer in line with the observations (Fig. 4, Figs. S6 and S7). Posterior emissions fit the CH\textsubscript{4} observations \((R^2=0.64\), root mean square error (RMSE) = 31 ppb\) much better than EDGAR v4.2 \((R^2=0.23\), RMSE = 49 ppb\). Evidently, the spatial distribution of EDGAR sources is inconsistent with emissions patterns implied by the CH\textsubscript{4} measurements and associated footprints.

Several diagnostic measures preclude the possibility of major systematic errors in WRF–STILT. First, excellent agreement between the model and measured vertical profiles from aircraft implies little bias in modeled vertical air mixing (e.g., boundary-layer heights) (Fig. 4). Second, the monthly posterior emissions estimated by the inversion lack statistically significant seasonality (Fig. S8). This result implies that seasonally varying weather patterns do not produce detectable biases in WRF–STILT. **SI Text** discusses possible model errors and biases in greater detail.

CH\textsubscript{4} observations are sparse over parts of the southern and central East Coast and in the Pacific Northwest. Emissions estimates for these regions therefore rely more strongly on the deterministic component of the flux model, with weights constrained primarily by observations elsewhere. Therefore, emissions in these areas, including from coal mining, are poorly constrained (**SI Text**).

**Contribution of Different Source Sectors.** Only two spatial activity datasets from EDGAR 4.2 are selected through the BIC as meaningful predictors of CH\textsubscript{4} observations over the United States: population densities of humans and of ruminants (**Table S1**). Some sectors are eliminated by the BIC because emissions are situated far from observation sites (e.g., coal mining in West Virginia or Pennsylvania), making available CH\textsubscript{4} data insensitive to these predictors. Other sectors may strongly affect observed concentrations but are not selected, indicating that the spatial datasets from EDGAR are poor predictors for the distribution of observed concentrations (e.g., oil and natural gas extraction and oil refining). Sources from these sectors appear in the stochastic component of the GIM (**SI Text**).

The results imply that existing inventories underestimate emissions from two key sectors: ruminants and fossil fuel extraction and/or processing, discussed in the remainder of this section.

We use the optimized ruminant activity dataset to estimate the magnitude of emissions with spatial patterns similar to animal husbandry and manure. Our corresponding US budget of 12.7 ± 5.0 TgCy\textsuperscript{-1} is nearly twice that of EDGAR and EPA (6.7 and 7.0, respectively). The total posterior emissions estimate over the northern plains, a region with high ruminant density but little fossil fuel extraction, further supports the ruminant estimate (Nebraska, Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and South Dakota). Our total budget for this region of 3.4 ± 0.7 compares with 1.5 TgCy\textsuperscript{-1} in EDGAR. Ruminants and agriculture may also be

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**Fig. 3.** The 2-yr averaged CH\textsubscript{4} emissions estimated in this study (A) compared against the commonly used EDGAR 4.2 inventory (B and C). Emissions estimated in this study are greater than in EDGAR 4.2, especially near Texas and California.
partially responsible for high emissions over California (41). EDGAR activity datasets are poor over California (42), but several recent studies (34, 36–38, 41) have provided detailed top-down emissions estimates for the state using datasets from state agencies.

Existing inventories also greatly underestimate CH$_4$ sources from the south-central United States (Fig. 3). We find the total CH$_4$ source from Texas, Oklahoma, and Kansas to be 8.1 ± 0.96 TgC·yr$^{-1}$, a factor of 2.7 higher than the EDGAR inventory. These three states alone constitute ~24 ± 3% of the total US anthropogenic CH$_4$ budget or 3.7% of net US greenhouse gas emissions [in CO$_2$ equivalents (10)].

Texas and Oklahoma were among the top five natural gas producing states in the country in 2007 (18), and aircraft observations of alkanes indicate that the natural gas and/or oil industries play a significant role in regional CH$_4$ emissions. Concentrations of propane (C$_3$H$_8$), a tracer of fossil hydrocarbons (43), are strongly correlated with CH$_4$ at NOAA/DOE aircraft monitoring locations over Texas and Oklahoma ($R^2 = 0.72$) (Fig. 5). Correlations are much weaker at other locations in North America ($R^2 = 0.11$ to 0.64).

We can obtain an approximate CH$_4$ budget for fossil-fuel extraction in the region by subtracting the optimized contributions associated with ruminants and population from the total emissions. The residual (Fig. S4C) represents sources that have spatial patterns not correlated with either human or ruminant density in EDGAR. Our budget sums to 3.7 ± 2.0 TgC·yr$^{-1}$, a factor of 4.9 ± 2.6 larger than oil and gas emissions in EDGAR v4.2 (0.75 TgC·yr$^{-1}$) and a factor of 6.7 ± 3.6 greater than EDGAR sources from solid waste facilities (0.55 TgC·yr$^{-1}$), the two major sources that may not be accounted for in the deterministic component. The population component likely captures a portion of the solid waste sources so this residual methane budget more likely represents natural gas and oil emissions than landfills. SI Text discusses in detail the uncertainties in this sector-based emissions estimate. We currently do not have the detailed, accurate, and spatially resolved activity data (fossil fuel extraction and processing, ruminants, solid waste) that would provide more accurate sectorial attribution.

Katzenstein et al. (2003) (14) were the first to report large regional emissions of CH$_4$ from Texas, Oklahoma, and Kansas; they cover an earlier time period (1999–2002) than this study. They used a box model and 261 near-ground CH$_4$ measurements taken over 6 d to estimate a total Texas–Oklahoma–Kansas CH$_4$ budget (from all sectors) of 3.8 ± 0.75 TgC·yr$^{-1}$. We revise their

Fig. 4. A model–measurement comparison at several regular NOAA/DOE aircraft monitoring sites (averaged over 2007–2008). Plots include the measurements; the modeled boundary condition; the summed boundary condition and wetland contribution (from the Kaplan model); and the summed boundary, wetland, and anthropogenic contributions (from EDGAR v4.2 and the posterior emissions estimate).

Fig. 5. Correlations between propane and CH$_4$ at NOAA/DOE aircraft observation sites in Oklahoma (A) and Texas (B) over 2007–2012. Correlations are higher in these locations than at any other North American sites, indicating large contributions of fossil fuel extraction and processing to CH$_4$ emitted in this region.
estimate upward by a factor of two based on the inverse model and many more measurements from different platforms over two full years of data. SI Text further compares the CH₄ estimate in Katzenstein et al. and in this study.

**Discussion and Summary**

This study combines comprehensive atmospheric data, diverse datasets from the EDGAR inventory, and an inverse modeling framework to derive spatially resolved CH₄ emissions and information on key source sectors. We estimate a mean annual framework to derive spatially resolved CH₄ inventories. The US EPA recently decreased its CH₄ the US have emissions approximately twice that of recent in- ties over the south-central United States have emissions as much as total US greenhouse gas budget.

The results indicate that drilling, processing, and refining activities over the south-central United States have emissions as much as 4.9 ± 2.6 times larger than EDGAR, and livestock operations across the US have emissions approximately twice that of recent in- ventories. The US EPA recently decreased its CH₄ emission factors for fossil fuel extraction and processing by 25–30% (for 1990–2011) (10), but we find that CH₄ data from across North America instead indicate the need for a larger adjustment of the opposite sign.

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