



Vista-LA: Mapping methane-emitting infrastructure in the Los Angeles megacity

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Abstract. Methane (CH₄) is a potent greenhouse gas (GHG) and a critical target of climate mitigation efforts. However, actionable emission reduction efforts are complicated by large uncertainties in the methane budget on relevant scales. Here, we present Vista, a Geographic Information System (GIS)-based approach to map potential methane emissions sources in the South Coast Air Basin (SoCAB) that encompasses Los Angeles, an area with a dense, complex mixture of methane sources. The goal of this work is to provide a database that, together with atmospheric observations, improves methane emissions estimates in urban areas with complex infrastructure. We aggregated methane source location information into three sectors (energy, agriculture, and waste) following the frameworks used by the State of California GHG Inventory and the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Guidelines for GHG Reporting. Geospatial modeling was applied to publicly available datasets to precisely geolocate facilities and infrastructure comprising major anthropogenic methane source sectors. The final database, Vista-Los Angeles (Vista-LA), is presented as maps of infrastructure known or expected to emit CH₄. Vista-LA contains over 33 000 features concentrated on < 1 % of land area in the region. Currently, Vista-LA is used as a planning and analysis tool for atmospheric measurement surveys of methane sources, particularly for airborne remote sensing, and methane “hotspot” detection using regional observations. This study represents a first step towards developing an accurate, spatially resolved methane flux estimate for point sources in SoCAB, with the potential to address discrepancies between bottom-up and top-down methane emissions accounting in this region. The Vista-LA datasets and associated metadata are available from the Oak Ridge National Laboratory Distributed Active Archive Center for Biogeochemical Dynamics (ORNL DAAC; <https://doi.org/10.3334/ORNLDAAC/1525>).

1 Introduction

Methane (CH₄) is the second most important anthropogenic driver of climate change (Myhre et al., 2013). Recent studies have shown that mitigating CH₄ emissions yields large near-term climate benefits due to CH₄'s relatively short atmospheric lifetime and high global warming potential (Dlugokencky et al., 2011). Reducing CH₄ emissions is complicated by the incomplete understanding of the CH₄ budget on

policy-relevant spatial scales (e.g., cities to nations). Cities are important for GHG mitigation, since they represent high-density emissions regions with the appropriate scale to reduce GHG emissions (Duren and Miller, 2012; Kennedy et al., 2009). Additionally, cities have political will and commitment needed to implement mitigation efforts for reducing GHG emissions (Gurney et al., 2015). However, enacting emission controls is challenging in urban areas that are

highly complex and heterogeneous, with various emissions sources located in close proximity.

Understanding urban emissions requires knowledge of source sectors and their respective activities on scales that reflect their variability across the landscape. Such information has been assembled for fossil fuel carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions using the Hestia approach, which quantifies urban sources down to the building level (Gurney et al., 2012). To date, Hestia has been used to generate detailed estimates of urban CO₂ emissions for several cities, including Los Angeles (LA) (Rao et al., 2017), Indianapolis (Gurney et al., 2012), and Salt Lake City (Patarasuk et al., 2016). Similar CH₄ emissions maps with spatial information equivalent to the scale of Hestia are needed for CH₄ emissions mitigation efforts. Studies of spatial patterns of urban CH₄ demonstrate considerable fine-scale variability, with CH₄ concentrated in hotspots compared to more evenly dispersed CO₂ (Hopkins et al., 2016b). This pattern reflects how the sources of CH₄ differ significantly from those of CO₂, which are primarily driven by fossil fuel combustion. Therefore, the methods used to develop Hestia are not directly transferable to CH₄, which has source processes and spatial patterns distinct from CO₂.

Urban areas are globally significant sources of CH₄ emissions; however, correct quantification and source attribution on the scale of individual cities are highly uncertain. Global emissions inventories based on nightlights and/or population scaling methods (e.g., EDGAR v4.2 European Commission Joint Research Centre, 2010; Olivier and Peters, 2005) are limited in their usefulness for estimating emissions at the scale of a city or air basin, as demonstrated for SoCAB by Wunch et al. (2009). Official CH₄ emissions inventories made using bottom-up approaches are often created for policy and planning purposes at the state and national level (IPCC, 2006; CARB, 2016; EPA, 2016); however, CH₄ sources in cities often differ substantially from these totals because they lack information on the spatial distribution of emissions sources in urban regions, such as the high density of fossil fuel usage and relative lack of agricultural activities. Furthermore, these inventories are not directly comparable to urban-scale atmospheric observations increasingly used by researchers to assess city-wide greenhouse gas emissions. When scaled down to the city level, these bottom-up emissions inventories have been shown to underestimate CH₄ emissions and apportion those CH₄ emissions to a different mixture of sources. Such discrepancies have been observed in many North American and European cities, including the greater Los Angeles (LA) region (Hopkins et al., 2016b; Hsu et al., 2009; Townsend-Small et al., 2012; Wennberg et al., 2012; Wong et al., 2015, 2016; Wunch et al., 2009), Boston (McKain et al., 2015), Indianapolis (Cambaliza et al., 2015), Florence (Gioli et al., 2012), London (Helfter et al., 2016), and San Francisco (Jeong et al., 2017). Consequently, there is a need for a new approach for assessing urban CH₄ emis-

sions that is able to incorporate both top-down (observation-based) and bottom-up (activity-based) information.

Recent efforts have been made to spatially disaggregate CH₄ emissions by sector for California and United States inventories, resulting in 0.1° × 0.1° gridded CH₄ emissions products that coarsely represent the city scale (CALGEM: Jeong et al., 2013; Maasackers et al., 2016); however, these ~ 10 km scales are still too coarse for interpreting new fine-scale observations. Inaccuracies and coarse spatial information in city-scale CH₄ emissions inventories pose a direct obstacle to city mitigation plans. One hypothesis for the discrepancy between CH₄ observations and inventories in cities is that fugitive emissions, particularly from natural gas systems, are currently underrepresented in inventories. A related hypothesis suggests that this discrepancy stems from undercounting disproportionately large CH₄ “super-emitters” such as those that have been shown to occur in natural gas systems (Brandt et al., 2014). New observations to identify the location of fugitive emissions and CH₄ super-emitters are currently being made in urban areas using mobile surveys, airborne campaigns, and sustained monitoring (e.g., Cambaliza et al., 2015; Hopkins et al., 2016b; Verhulst et al., 2017). To test these hypotheses, parallel efforts to map CH₄ emissions sources and accurately represent CH₄ emissions are needed at the urban scale, as has been done for oil and gas extraction in the Barnett Shale (Lyon et al., 2015; Zavala-Araiza et al., 2015). CH₄ emissions estimates for urban regions can be improved by more complete accounting of potential CH₄ sources at the facility scale, along with targeted observations that can detect fugitive emissions and super-emitter behavior.

Here, we present Vista-LA, a Geographic Information System (GIS)-based approach to map potential methane emissions sources in the South Coast Air Basin (SoCAB), which includes all of Orange County and the non-desert regions of Los Angeles, Riverside, and San Bernardino counties. Our primary goal is to improve understanding of CH₄ emissions on urban scales with complex mixtures of sources, exemplified by the LA megacity within SoCAB. Emissions monitoring and verification efforts in LA are highly relevant for California’s statewide emissions control efforts. The LA megacity emits a significant fraction of California’s GHG emissions (Jeong et al., 2016). Vista-LA consists of detailed spatial maps for facilities and infrastructure in SoCAB that are known or expected sources of CH₄ emissions, representing a first step towards developing an urban-scale CH₄ emissions gridded inventory for SoCAB. The current release of the Vista-LA database contains over 33 000 entries, which are presented as CH₄-emitting infrastructure maps. SoCAB is an ideal testbed due to the density of sources and availability of observations from the LA Megacity Carbon Project (<https://megacities.jpl.nasa.gov/portal/>) tower network (Newman et al., 2016; Verhulst et al., 2017), the California Laboratory for Atmospheric Remote Sensing (CLARS; Wong et al., 2016, 2015), and a Total Column Carbon Observing Network site (TCCON; Wunch et al., 2009).

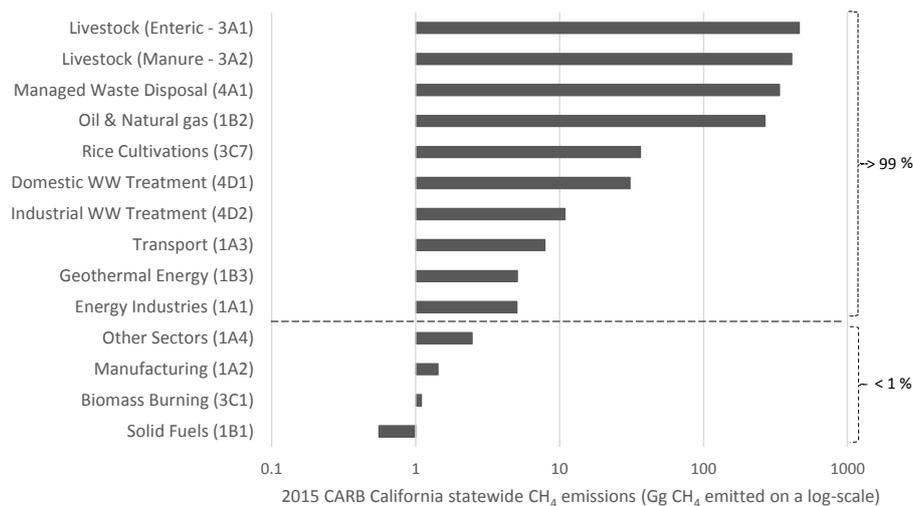


Figure 1. Ranking of inventoried California CH₄ emissions for 2015 by IPCC Level 3 categories. This figure shows the total emitted Gg of CH₄ for each IPCC sector on a logarithmic scale as calculated by CARB for the year 2015. These data are based on IPCC Level 3 categories which are indicated in parentheses next to each source type. Only the top 14 of 35 IPCC Level 3 categories are shown for clarity. The total 2015 emission from these 14 sectors was 1576 Gg of CH₄. The top 10 IPCC Level 3 categories encompass roughly >99 % of California’s statewide CH₄ emissions (~1570 Gg CH₄). We excluded emissions from the Vista-LA database that come from non-stationary sources (i.e., transport, IPCC – 1A3) and that are non-existent in the SoCAB region (i.e., imported electricity, IPCC – 1A1, coal mining, IPCC – 1A2, geothermal energy, IPCC – 1B3, and rice cultivation, IPCC – 3C7). Note that while livestock and waste are the most significant sources of CH₄ in the State of California, atmospheric CH₄ in the Los Angeles urban landscape is dominated by CH₄ hotspots from fossil fuel-derived sources (e.g., Hopkins et al., 2016b). WW refers to wastewater treatment plants.

The Vista-LA data product is a key tool for CH₄ emissions research and mitigation efforts by (1) mapping areas of CH₄-emitting infrastructure, (2) identifying targets for CH₄ surveys, and (3) enabling interpretation of atmospheric observations, including source attribution, and comparison of measured emissions to permitted or reported emissions. Combined with atmospheric observations, Vista-LA enables systematic study of urban CH₄ emissions sources.

2 Methods overview

2.1 Vista-LA structure and organization

The spatial domain for the Vista-LA database is SoCAB, the air-shed for the greater Los Angeles urban extent, including all of Orange County and the urbanized parts of Los Angeles, Riverside, and San Bernardino counties. Vista-LA follows the framework of the 2006 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Guidelines for National GHG Inventories for CH₄ emissions (IPCC, 2006). Following the IPCC methodology provides compatibility with the State of California GHG Inventory for CH₄ (CARB, 2014, 2015) and allows the approach used in this study to be translated to other regions globally. For example, Vista-LA can be easily adapted to the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)’s Inventory of the United States GHG Emissions and Sinks since it also follows the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National GHG Inventories (see Appendix Fig. A1; EPA, 2016).

The Vista-LA structure enables sectoral tracking of emissions. We used the State of California GHG Inventory for 2015 (CARB, 2016), the most policy-relevant inventory that includes the SoCAB domain, to rank the top CH₄-emitting sources (Fig. 1). According to the State of California GHG Inventory, ~99 % of California’s CH₄ emissions are expected to result from just three IPCC Level 1 categories – energy, agriculture, and waste – and 10 IPCC Level 3 categories (see Fig. 1). The other IPCC Level 3 categories cumulatively contribute <1 % of California’s CH₄ emissions, and are hence assumed to have a negligible impact on SoCAB CH₄ emissions. This approach greatly simplifies the database, allowing us to focus our attention on the top-emitting sources. By design, Vista-LA only includes stationary sources and Scope 1 emissions – that is, direct GHG emissions from sources that are owned or controlled by a company within the study domain, as defined by the GHG Protocol (<http://www.ghgprotocol.org/corporate-standard>). Therefore, sources that are not expected to result in significant direct emissions of CH₄ in SoCAB were excluded, such as emissions from imported electricity, geothermal energy production, rice cultivation and solid fuels such as coal.

Vista-LA also includes two additional sources that are not explicitly accounted for in the State of California GHG Inventory but are potentially significant sources of fugitive CH₄ emissions in SoCAB: compressed natural gas (CNG) fueling stations and liquefied natural gas (LNG) fueling sta-

tions, which were categorized under IPCC – 1B2. This case study of Vista-LA focuses on anthropogenic sources of CH₄, and every effort has been made to make the Vista-LA dataset as complete, accurate, and timely as possible. Because Vista-LA is designed to incorporate solely anthropogenic sources of CH₄, natural CH₄ sources such as wetlands and geologic seeps are excluded in this version. This is consistent with the most recent version of the California GHG Inventory, which categorizes petroleum gas seeps separately as “excluded” emissions, though they were previously categorized under IPCC – 1B2.

2.2 Overview of data sources

Within each of the three major CH₄ source sectors (IPCC 1 – Energy; IPCC 3 – Agriculture, Forestry, and other Land Use; and IPCC 4 – Waste), we identified the types of infrastructure associated with known or potential emissions. We sought out publicly available datasets that mapped their spatial locations (Table 1). Spatial datasets were compiled from reliable and verified public databases on government and federal/state research agency portals. The data are presented as shapefiles and kmz files that include points, lines, and polygons. Table 1 summarizes the spatial datasets by the year, source of data, or data type (points, lines, or polygon data), and also indicates the corresponding IPCC Level 3 CH₄ emissions category. While point sources are our primary interest, we have provided polygons in Vista-LA to expedite attribution since the area associated with a given facility, landfill, dairy, etc. is the ownership unit. Additionally, there may be many different source classes within a given polygon – for example wellheads, storage tanks, compressors, or pipelines – and having the polygon/operator identity in our classification hierarchy provides critical information on traits such as behavior, processes, and facility history. Lines are the natural representation for pipelines and transmission infrastructure. Sections 3–5 describe the data sources and information in Vista-LA in further detail and also describe the specific data processing techniques applied to the GIS dataset for each of the Level 3 emissions categories.

Some of the spatial datasets we obtained (see, e.g., the Southern California Association of Governments, <http://gisdata.scag.ca.gov/Pages/GIS-Library.aspx>) and the EPA Facility Registry Service (FRS) were useful for evaluating information from more than one type of CH₄-producing infrastructure (e.g., petroleum refineries and wastewater treatment plants). Due to the variety of data sources used to create Vista-LA, the same level of detail (e.g., spatial resolution, data completeness, available metadata) was not always available for every CH₄-emitting source. The level of completeness or detail for each spatial dataset will be discussed below under the data sources and limitations sections. We processed and standardized GIS datasets through georeferencing, spatial configuration, and verification using ArcGIS software packages. All spatial features and raster layers were

geolocated using the World Geodetic System 1984 datum and the Universal Transverse Mercator Zone 11 North coordinate system. Considerations for privacy including restrictions and limitations on some of these datasets were taken into account for the final product. Consequently, Vista-LA datasets for natural gas compressor stations and natural gas pipelines are only included as static representations in Figs. 2 and 3. Vista-LA does not include sub-facility-level information. Timely data are critical for understanding methane dynamics in SoCAB; therefore, we used the most recent publicly available information in the development of the Vista-LA database.

3 Energy (IPCC Level 1 – Category 1)

The Energy (IPCC Level 1 – 1) sector includes CH₄ emitted by fuel combustion activities (IPCC Level 2 – 1A) and fugitive emissions from fuels (IPCC Level 2 – 1B). CH₄ emissions from fuel combustion are mainly produced by energy industries and transportation, with minor contributions from manufacturing, commercial, industrial, residential and agricultural fuel combustion (CARB, 2016). Fugitive emissions are defined by the IPCC as an intentional or unintentional release of gas from anthropogenic activities not including combustion (IPCC, 2001). Fugitive CH₄ emissions come from leaks or failures of equipment, off-gassing, or venting, arising from sources such as natural gas storage facilities, oil and gas wells, and pipelines. They occur mainly in the oil and gas sector (~95 % of California’s estimated fugitive CH₄ according to CARB, 2016), with a small contribution from industrial and manufacturing sources. Many facilities, including petroleum refineries and power plants, include both combustion and fugitive CH₄ emissions.

3.1 Fuel Combustion Activities (IPCC Level 2 – 1A)

Fuel combustion activities (IPCC Category 1A) include CH₄ emissions from energy industries, which encompass petroleum refining and electricity generation via combustion of natural gas in power plants, and transportation. Other combustion sources have only a small expected CH₄ emission rate (totaling <0.1 % of statewide CH₄), according to the California GHG Inventory, hence are not included in Vista-LA (CARB, 2016). The physical infrastructure associated with combustion and fugitive CH₄ emissions from energy industries in SoCAB are natural gas-fired power plants and petroleum refineries. Transportation comprises ~1 % of inventoried statewide CH₄, primarily from on-road sources (e.g., conventionally fueled cars, light- and heavy-duty trucks), but is not included in this version of Vista-LA (CARB, 2016).

Table 1. Summary of Vista-LA layers. Vista-LA layers, representing CH₄ sources corresponding to IPCC Level 3, are shown organized by IPCC greenhouse gas emission reporting classification. The source and year of the raw datasets, the maximum spatial coverage, number of features and format are also given for each Vista-LA layer. “N/A” refers to datasets that are not available for distribution.

CH ₄ sector	CH ₄ source type	Vista-LA layers (CH ₄ source)	Data source (year)	Raw data spatial coverage (data source)	Vista-LA No. of features	Vista-LA data format
IPCC Level 1						
IPCC Level 2						
1. Energy						
Energy Industries (IPCC – 1A1)						
1A Fuel Combustion Activities	1A Fuel Combustion Activities	Petroleum refineries ^a	EIA (2016) SCAG (2005, 2012)	CONUS (EIA) California (SCAG 2005, SCAG 2012)	12	polygons/kmz
		Power plants ^a	EIA (2016) SCAG (2005, 2012)	CONUS (EIA) California (SCAG 2005, SCAG 2012)	110	polygons/kmz
Oil and Natural Gas (IPCC – 1B2)						
1B Fugitive Emissions from Fuels	1B Fugitive Emissions from Fuels	Compressed natural gas (CNG) fueling stations ^b	U.S. DOE AFDC (2017)	CONUS	109	polygons/kmz
		Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG) Fueling Stations ^b	U.S. DOE AFDC (2017)	CONUS	27	polygons/kmz
Natural gas compressor stations						
Natural gas pipelines ^d						
Natural gas processing plants						
Natural gas storage fields						
Oil and gas wells						
3. Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use						
3A Livestock						
3A2 Manure Management (IPCC – 3A2)						
3A3 Anaerobic lagoons						
3A4 Enteric Fermentation (IPCC – 3A1)						
4. Waste						
4A Solid Waste Disposal						
4A1 Managed Waste Disposal (IPCC – 4A1)						
4A2 Landfills						
4A3 Domestic and Industrial Wastewater Treatment & Discharge (IPCC – 4D1 and 4D2)						
4D Wastewater Treatment and Discharge						
4D1 Wastewater treatment plants						

^a Sources may also include fugitive emissions that fall under IPCC source type 1B. ^b Source not currently included in the California Air Resources Board's 2010–2015 GHG Inventory. ^c CEC compressor station data only available as a static representation in Figs. 2 and 3. ^d CEC pipeline data only available as a static representation in Figs. 2 and 3. Note: CalRecycle: California Department of Resources Recycling and Recovery. CARB: California Air Resources Board. CEC: California Energy Commission. CONUS: Contiguous United States Region. DOE: U.S. Department of Energy. DOGGR: California Department of Conservation, Division of Oil, Gas, and Geothermal Resources. EIA: U.S. Energy Information Administration. EPA FLIGHT Tool: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Facility Level Information on GHG Tool. EPA FRS: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Facility Registry Service. NPMS: National Pipeline Mapping System. RWQCB: California EPA Regional Water Quality Control Board, Santa Ana Region. SCAG: Southern California Association of Governments.

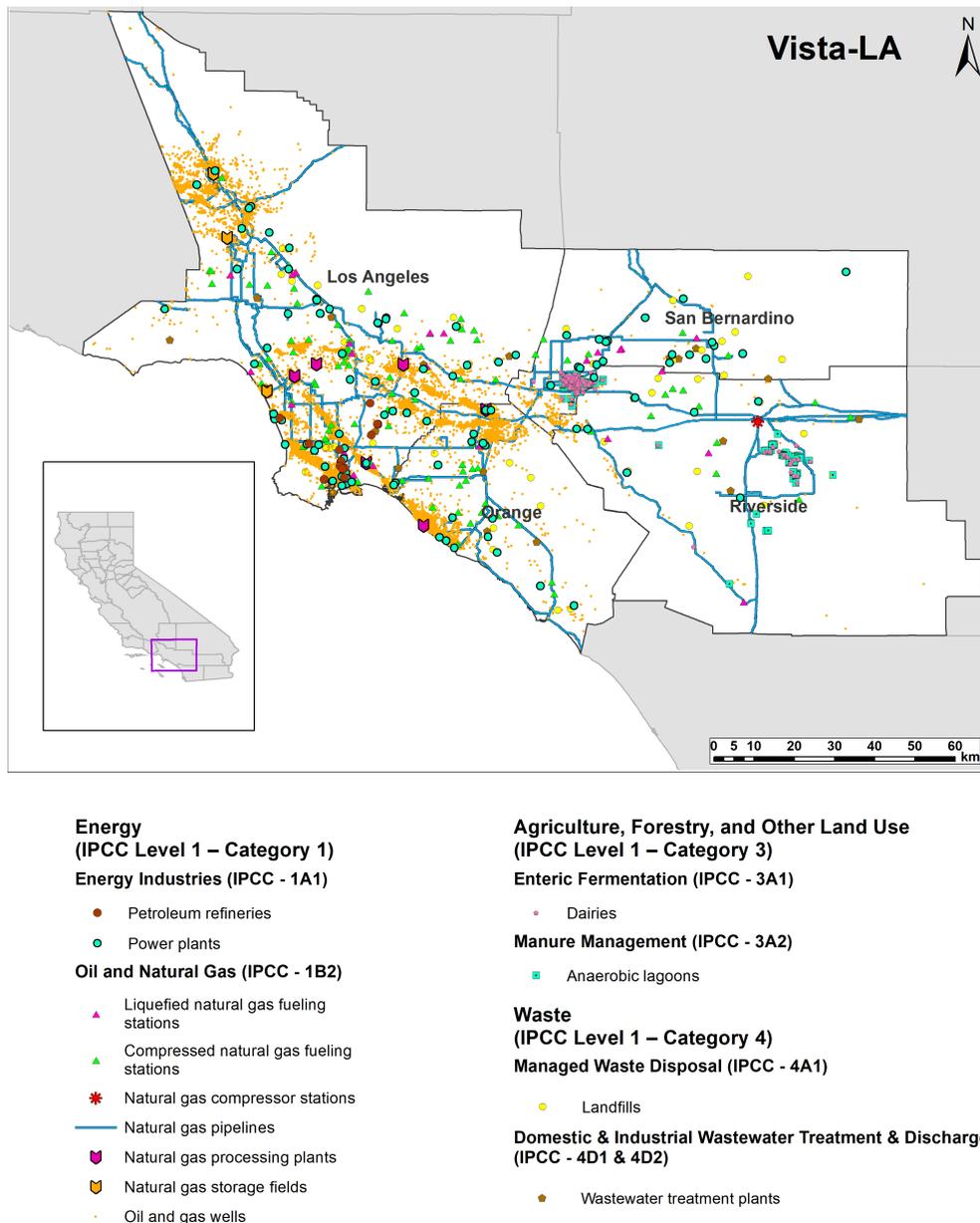


Figure 2. Overview of Vista-LA. Locations are shown for infrastructure with known or expected potential to emit CH_4 in SoCAB. Vista layers are categorized by their corresponding IPCC Level 3 from the State of California GHG Inventory (see Table 1). Currently, compressed and liquefied natural gas fueling stations and natural gas storage fields are not included in the California GHG emissions inventory, but may be a significant source of fugitive CH_4 emissions in SoCAB (see, e.g., Conley et al., 2016; Hopkins et al., 2016b). Note: infrastructure in polygon form is difficult to distinguish from a static zoomed-out image; however, the majority of Vista-LA layers can be viewed at the meter scale. Exceptions to this rule are for natural gas compressor stations and natural gas pipelines due to privacy and security concerns. Total: 33 354 features across 13 layers: 9 polygon layers; 3 point layers; 1 polyline layer.

3.1.1 Energy Industries (IPCC Level 3 – 1A1)

Petroleum refineries (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. The Vista-LA petroleum refinery dataset provides location and extent data for 12 facilities in the domain. The primary spatial datasets for petroleum refineries (IPCC – 1A1) were gathered from the U.S. Energy Infor-

mation Administration (EIA) for the year 2016. EIA reports information about all operable petroleum refineries and electricity generation plants in the United States, including plants that are active, on standby, and those short-term or long-term out of service (EIA, 2016). Additional information came from Southern California Association of Governments (SCAG) land-use data for the years 2005 and 2012 (see

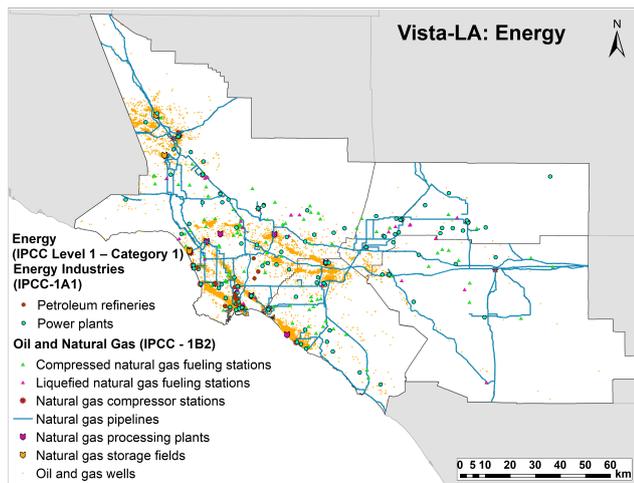


Figure 3. Energy (IPCC Level 1 – Category 1). Spatial distribution of infrastructure associated with the energy industry that emit CH_4 through fuel combustion (IPCC – 1A1) and/or fugitive emissions (IPCC – 1B2). Natural gas storage fields and compressed and liquefied natural gas fueling stations are currently not explicitly inventoried in the California GHG emissions inventory. Note: infrastructure in polygon form is difficult to distinguish from a static zoomed-out image; however, the majority of Vista-LA layers can be viewed at the sub-meter level. Exceptions to this rule are for natural gas compressor stations and natural gas pipelines due to privacy and security concerns.

<http://gisdata.scag.ca.gov/Pages/GIS-Library.aspx>).

Data processing, validation and limitations. Petroleum refinery locations were verified using multiple datasets, including EIA, SCAG, Esri Basemap aerial imagery, and Google Earth imagery. EIA was the primary source of information, as it contains the most recent data. SCAG and the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency’s Facility Level Information on GHG online reporting Tool (EPA FLIGHT) were used to verify that there were no missing petroleum refineries from EIA. This process provided data quality assurance from the most updated publicly available spatial database of petroleum refineries.

The original EIA data series on petroleum refineries includes geolocations as points, and information on production capacity, current and projected capacity of crude oil separated by atmospheric distillation, downstream charge, as well as fuel, electricity, and steam purchased and consumed by 141 refineries across the United States (U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2015). This dataset contains information on nine refineries located in SoCAB, all of which are located in Los Angeles County.

To map the area of petroleum refinery and power plant facilities, we added data from SCAG for the years 2005 and 2012, which map land-use areas to a minimum two-acre resolution (see <http://gisdata.scag.ca.gov/Pages/GIS-Library.aspx>). The SCAG database only contains land-use classifica-

tions for the State of California, and lacks facility-level information. We performed feature identification using SCAG land-use code 1322 “Petroleum Refining and Processing”. This category includes major oil refineries, as well as associated petrochemical plants. The data were used to identify, extract, and define the spatial extent of each refinery and to match the geolocations of the refineries listed in the EIA 2016 dataset.

The SCAG land-use code was used to identify and extract 30 polygons in the SCAG 2005 dataset and 60 polygons in the SCAG 2012 dataset related to petroleum refineries in SoCAB. Because SCAG polygon features were fragmented and not assigned to an individual refinery, they had to be manually merged based on their geolocation and spatial relation to the EIA 2016 dataset. The polygon features dataset categorized as “Petroleum Refining and Processing” was merged together and then compared to the nine refineries identified in the raw EIA dataset. In some cases, these SCAG polygon features were geographically misplaced in residential locations or in the middle of streets and had to be manually adjusted to fit the actual extent of that facility. There were three facilities identified in the SCAG dataset that were not identified in the EIA dataset. The existence and operation of these three facilities identified in SCAG were further verified using refinery planning documents and environmental assessment reports and then were appended to the EIA dataset. The true spatial extent of all polygons was verified using aerial imagery. During validation of refinery spatial extents with Google Earth Imagery and Esri Basemap aerial imagery, focus was placed on identifying acres of storage tanks situated in a matrix formation, large intake pipes, storage vats, and large industrial infrastructure.

The additional refineries identified in SCAG and validated through the Vista verification procedures do not contain facility-level metrics that were provided in the EIA dataset. Obtaining detailed sub-facility-level information for each petroleum refinery will be crucial to developing accurate CH_4 emission factor estimates, which is a limitation of the current dataset.

Results. The final Vista-LA petroleum refinery dataset includes all 12 petroleum refineries operated by eight different companies within SoCAB (Figs. 2 and 3). The final dataset includes operational data from EIA, recalculated locational data, and validation notes including any changes made and date of last update.

Power plants (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. The Vista-LA layer for power plants (IPCC – 1A1) relies on data from EIA, SCAG 2005, SCAG 2012, Google Earth and Esri Basemap aerial imagery (EIA, 2016; see <http://gisdata.scag.ca.gov/Pages/GIS-Library.aspx>). The Vista-LA power plant dataset provides accurate location and extent data as well as facility-level information on the type of power generation methods and energy production statistics.

Data processing, validation and limitations. The EIA 2016 contains records for 7995 power plants in the United States, including 385 power plants in SoCAB. For our analysis, we selected only the power plants that used the following primary fuels: biomass, natural gas, petroleum, or other – which matches the methods of the California GHG Inventory (CARB, 2016). This excluded power plants with primary fuel categories such as wind, solar, hydroelectric, or pumped storage. After filtering by primary fuel type, we retained a subset of 110 power plants in SoCAB.

Polygon features for each of the 110 power plants were created based on Google Earth Imagery, Esri Basemap Aerial Imagery, and SCAG 2005 and SCAG 2012 land-use datasets. SCAG land-use code 1431 (“Electrical Power Facilities”) was used to verify and determine the spatial extent of the EIA power plants. SCAG polygons were geolocated with the point data from the EIA dataset. In total, there were 1490 individual polygon features related to land-use code 1431 in SCAG 2005 and 6932 in SCAG 2012. In addition to power plants, SCAG land-use code 1431 also includes land used for distribution of electricity and substations with power plants; hence, visual inspection using high-resolution aerial imagery was required to validate each individual power plant and to generate accurate polygon representations.

When visually inspecting individual power plants, we looked for typical power plant infrastructure features such as smoke or steam stacks with towers, racks, piping, vents, transformers and/or electrical equipment. Some power plant locations were more difficult to validate. In some cases, the power plant point data were placed on the street near the operating utility and sometimes did not match the address that was listed in the metadata. Sometimes the point was located in the center of a site, which could be within another facility (e.g., a refinery) and thus had to be manually adjusted with appropriate understanding of the context of its location using Google Earth and Esri Basemap aerial imagery. Polygons were created using GIS methods including geoprocessing and digitizing with Google Earth and Esri Basemap aerial imagery as a reference. Latitude and longitude coordinates were recalculated appropriately for each power plant. Power plants whose geolocations were verified but whose spatial extent could not be determined using this method were tagged with a circular placeholder and their

EIA facility-level metrics were maintained and marked in the metadata.

We used the 2014 Fossil Fuel Data Assimilation System (FFDAS) point dataset to validate our results (Asefi-Najafabady et al., 2014). The 105 power plant point locations in the 2014 FFDAS dataset match with 105/110 power plants in the final Vista-LA layer. The FFDAS dataset includes only those facilities registered through the EPA’s Clean Air Markets Division and EIA reporting, which explains the difference in the number of locations between the two datasets. One of the five plants is a landfill gas plant, so it is not tracked in FFDAS because it is not a fossil-based source of CO₂ emissions.

We also considered using the 2010 Open-source Data Inventory for Anthropogenic CO₂ (ODIAC) for validation of power plants (Oda and Maksyutov, 2011). Cross-validation with ODIAC was not straightforward because the online data product is gridded and is at a lower resolution than the EIA and SCAG datasets. The publicly available version of ODIAC also had significant latency compared to the EIA and SCAG datasets used in this study.

Results. The Vista-LA power plant dataset merged polygon extent data with the EIA metadata. The final dataset includes the facility-level statistics from EIA along with data validation information using Google Earth, SCAG 2005, and SCAG 2012 in the metadata for all 110 power plants originally identified in the EIA dataset (Figs. 2 and 3). We include the production metrics in the Vista-LA database, as they may be useful for generating CH₄ emissions estimates in the future.

3.2 Fugitive Emissions from Fuels (IPCC Level 2 – 1B)

Fugitive emissions from fuels (IPCC Category 1B) include CH₄ emissions from the lifecycle (production, processing, storage, transportation) of oil, natural gas, solid fuels, and geothermal energy production occurring in SoCAB. We omit the latter two sources from consideration since California air-quality restrictions do not permit coal-burning (Perata, 2006), and there are no active coal mining or geothermal energy sites in SoCAB. In the California GHG Inventory, fugitive emissions are primarily from oil and gas extraction (30 %) and natural gas pipelines (65 %) (CARB, 2016). Vista-LA includes spatial information for oil and gas wells, natural gas pipelines, natural gas storage fields, natural gas processing plants, and natural gas compressor stations. Petroleum refineries emit fugitive CH₄ (IPCC 1B2), in addition to combustion emissions (IPCC 1A1). For simplicity, the Vista-LA database does not treat these emissions separately because both emission types are encompassed at the facility level (see Sect. “Petroleum refineries” for more information on the Vista-LA layer on petroleum refineries). We also include two more potentially significant sources of fugitive CH₄ emissions in SoCAB that have no assignment

in the California GHG Inventory or IPCC categories: compressed natural gas (CNG) fueling stations and liquefied natural gas (LNG) fueling stations. Vista-LA does not yet include the locations of petroleum storage tanks due to a lack of publicly available information for these elements. Data for energy-related sources are also available for purchase from consulting companies; however, one of the objectives of this work was to generate a product that is openly accessible to the public. Therefore, we did not utilize proprietary or “for-purchase” information in the development of the Vista-LA database.

3.2.1 Oil and Natural Gas (IPCC Level 3 – 1B2)

Compressed natural gas (CNG) fueling stations (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. Geospatial data of active CNG fueling stations were obtained from the U.S. Department of Energy’s (DOE) Alternative Fuels Data Center (AFDC) for the year 2017 (DOE, 2017). Currently, CNG fueling stations are not included in a separate IPCC category. For the purposes of this study we have classified these data under IPCC Level 3 – 1B2.

Data processing, validation and limitations. The raw file was downloaded from DOE/AFDC through a series of queries for CNG fueling stations. Next, the CNG dataset was geocoded using latitude–longitude coordinates. Coordinates for this dataset generated points for 1792 stations across the United States, including 336 in the State of California; 163 of the 336 compressed natural gas stations were in SoCAB, further reduced to 109 after removing duplicate entries. The geolocations of these 109 CNG fueling stations were verified by comparing the reported street address to Google aerial imagery (e.g., Google Earth, Google Maps, and Google Earth Street View) and Esri Basemaps. Out of the 109 points, 88 polygon extent features were created based on aerial imagery. For the remaining 21 CNG stations, placeholder polygons were created for stations whose natural gas infrastructure could not be visually identified using aerial imagery but whose location was otherwise verified. During visual validation of the CNG stations, we focused on identifying pumps, gas station infrastructure, and piping/compressed gas storage cylinders near parking lots and salvage yards.

A major portion of the DOE/AFDC dataset placed the locations of CNG fueling stations adjacent to the fueling station, making it challenging to discern the exact location of station infrastructure on the map. This dataset counts the entire station as one polygon, despite multiple fuel dispensers. Sub-facility-level information about individual fueling dispensers is not currently identified in Vista-LA.

Results. The final Vista-LA CNG fueling station layer contains geolocations for 109 polygons. Figures 2 and 3 show

the spatial distribution of the Vista CNG fueling station layer. The metadata contain information about the station name, pressures (units: pounds per square inch or psi), types of dispensing capability, maximum vehicle size accommodation, and recalculated latitude and longitude coordinates, along with validation notes including any changes made and date of last update.

Liquefied natural gas (LNG) fueling stations (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. Similar to CNG stations, fugitive emissions from LNG fueling stations were not inventoried in the 2015 California GHG Inventory. Thus, we assigned LNG stations under IPCC – 1B2. Geospatial data of active LNG fueling stations were obtained from the U.S. Department of Energy’s (DOE) Alternative Fuels Data Center (AFDC) for the year 2017 (DOE, 2017).

Data processing, validation and limitations. The DOE data were originally geocoded using the coordinates listed. The raw DOE dataset contained 187 records of LNG stations across the U.S.; 47 of those stations were located in the State of California, with 27 currently open and operational in SoCAB; 15 of the 27 LNG stations shared the same location as CNG stations. The geolocations of the 12 LNG-only stations were verified by comparing the reported street address to Google aerial imagery and Esri Basemap aerial imagery. Similar to the CNG stations, extent polygons were generated of the remaining 12 stations using aerial imagery. During visual validation of the LNG stations, focus was placed on identifying gas station infrastructure and piping/compressed gas storage cylinders near parking lots and salvage yards.

This dataset is updated annually by the DOE, meaning additional validation will need to be completed in the future as more LNG fueling stations come online. Two stations were already listed as being planned in SoCAB and will be operational in less than a year and will need to be added to the dataset in the future. Similar to the CNG dataset, the LNG dataset assigns the entire station as one polygon, regardless of the number of fuel dispensers.

Results. The final Vista-LA LNG fueling station dataset contains polygons for 27 stations in SoCAB. Figures 2 and 3 show the spatial distribution of the Vista-LA LNG fueling station layer. The LNG dataset also includes metadata describing the station name, pressures (units: psi), types of dispensing capability, maximum vehicle size accommodation, recalculated GPS coordinates, and validation notes including any changes made and date of last update.

Natural gas compressor stations (Vista-LA layer)

The natural gas compressor station (IPCC – 1B2) dataset was obtained using the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency’s

Facility Level Information on GHG online reporting Tool (EPA FLIGHT) and from the and California Energy Commission (CEC). From EPA FLIGHT, we identified two natural gas compressor stations in SoCAB. CEC lists 25 compressor stations in SoCAB. The locations of natural gas compressor stations were validated using Google Earth and Esri Basemap aerial imagery (EPA, 2015). Due to restrictions, we only show the location of the compressor station facility reported in EPA FLIGHT in Figs. 2 and 3.

Natural gas pipelines (Vista-LA layer)

Information for natural gas pipelines (IPCC – 1B2) was collected from the CEC and the EIA 2017 dataset (Maasakkers et al., 2016). The CEC dataset provides infrastructure information on major gas transmission and hazardous liquid transmission pipelines in the United States for the year 2012 (CEC, 2012). For California, the raw CEC dataset was georeferenced and clipped to fit the spatial extent of SoCAB. We also obtained high-resolution natural gas transmission pipeline maps from the National Pipeline Mapping System (NPMS) (NPMS, 2013) to validate the CEC pipeline layers. The NPMS dataset includes a level of detail similar to that of the CEC dataset, but can be obtained for the entire U.S. There were very minor differences between the CEC and NPMS layers; however, because the NPMS restricts distribution or visualization of these data, they were retained for internal use only. Due to security concerns, the CEC dataset is only shown as static representations in Figs. 2 and 3.

Unlike the CEC and NPMS data, the EIA dataset is available publicly. The EIA dataset has a lower level of accuracy compared to the CEC dataset. The positional accuracy of the EIA dataset is ± 3000 m, while the positional accuracy of CEC is ± 150 m. The EIA dataset also contains less information on the disaggregation of pipeline segments. The final Vista-LA natural gas pipeline dataset includes a georeferenced and processed version of the EIA dataset and contains 111 polyline segments; however, due to the uncertainties noted, it would be ideal to use more spatially resolved datasets for future work.

Natural gas storage fields (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. Under IPCC – 1B2, natural gas storage facility point data for the United States were obtained from the U.S. EIA online database for 2016 (EIA, 2016). Natural gas storage geolocations and spatial extent data were obtained using oil field extents from the California Department of Conservation's Division of Oil, Gas, & Geothermal Resources (DOGGR) for 2016 (DOGGR, 2016). The EPA FLIGHT tool was also used for data quality assurance (EPA, 2015).

Data processing, validation and limitations. Point locations for natural gas storage from EIA in 2016 included 415 points

for the entire United States, three of which are in SoCAB. Since underground natural gas storage in California is done in depleted oil fields (EIA, 2008), we determined natural gas storage field extents using the 2016 DOGGR dataset, which contained 516 polygon features for oil field extents in the State of California. The EIA metadata contained operation metrics for each storage field, which we appended to the DOGGR polygon shapefiles for these three extracted entries. The EPA FLIGHT online GHG reporting tool was used to validate the geolocations of the Aliso Canyon and Honor Rancho storage facilities. Southern California Gas Company's online information on natural gas storage facilities validated the geolocation and extent of the Playa Del Rey storage facility.

We did not include former gas storage fields that are no longer used, such as the Montebello Oil Field. Nevertheless, it is possible that these former storage facilities are still leaking, as it takes many years to deplete the gas to pre-storage conditions (Chilingar and Endres, 2005).

Results. The Vista-LA natural gas storage field polygon layer, shown in Figs. 2 and 3, contains the spatial information and attribute information of the three natural gas storage facilities located within SoCAB: Aliso Canyon, Honor Rancho, and Playa Del Rey. The final Vista-LA layer contains metadata relating to field type, company name, amount of base gas, working capacity, field capacity, maximum delivery, and recalculated locational coordinates along with validation notes including any changes made and date of last update.

Natural gas processing plants (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. Natural gas processing plant (IPCC – 1B2) geospatial data were obtained from the U.S. Energy Information Administration (EIA) online database for the year 2014 (EIA, 2016).

Data processing, validation and limitations. The raw 2014 EIA dataset contained point geolocations for 551 processing plants across the United States, with six of these in SoCAB, which were georeferenced. Because the raw EIA dataset was limited to a scale of 1 : 1 000 000, extensive manual geolocation and validation had to be completed for each plant. EIA's geolocation was manually augmented using aerial imagery, planning documents and environmental assessment reports related to the operating companies of each processing plant. Exact spatial extents for the processing plants were created by identifying infrastructure features such as electrical equipment, piping, vents, smoke or steam stacks with towers, racks, and transformers using both Google Earth and Esri Basemap imagery.

Results. The Vista-LA natural gas processing plant layer contains verified geolocated polygons of six facilities located in

SoCAB. The spatial distribution of the Vista-LA natural gas processing plant layer is shown in Figs. 2 and 3. The associated metadata include information on facility and operator name, plant flow in million cubic feet per day, dry storage in million metric standard cubic feet, energy content of natural gas in British thermal units, barrels of liquid natural gas stored at each facility, recalculated locational coordinates of each polygon, along with validation notes including any changes made and date of last update.

Oil and gas wells (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. Data on oil and gas wells were collected from DOGGR for the year 2016 (DOGGR, 2016). The oil and gas well dataset contains information on well status, type, coordinates, and whether it has undergone hydraulic stimulation treatment. Another dataset from DOGGR also includes historical production and injection statistics, owner and operators of the well, and the state of the well.

Data processing, validation and limitations. Due to the sheer size of the datasets (i.e., 32 537 oil and gas wells), we assumed the locations of the wells in the DOGGR dataset to be valid for the purposes of this study. Validation of this dataset is beyond the scope of this work, even in cases where manual visual inspection methods and/or automated feature extraction from aerial imagery might be useful. We discuss possible methods for automated feature extraction using aerial imagery further in Sect. 6.4.

According to DOGGR, GIS data for oil and gas wells vary in accuracy, scale, origin and completeness (DOGGR, 2016). DOGGR uses a variety of sources to establish well locations. These sources include handheld measurements using GPS units derived from DOGGR Division staff, coordinates provided by operators, well summary reports, official notices regarding the intent to drill, coordinates derived from aerial imagery, coordinates generated from a tool in MapInfo based on corner call locations, and coordinates from digitized maps. However, we note that some wells in LA were drilled before accurate records were kept by DOGGR (Chilingar and Endres, 2005).

Results. In SoCAB, the Vista-LA oil and gas well dataset includes 32 537 oil and gas wells from the 2016 DOGGR dataset (Figs. 2 and 3), associated with activities such as gas storage, pressure maintenance, water disposal, and other (DOGGR, 2016). Specifically, the associated metadata include information such as coordinates, well status, well type, date when drilling commenced, date when well was abandoned, and whether a well undergoes hydraulic fracturing. The dataset includes 5804 abandoned wells, some of which may be located underneath buildings and other structures which hinder validation of their locations (Chilingar and Endres, 2005).

4 Agriculture, Forestry, and Other Land Use (IPCC Level 1 – Category 3)

In the California GHG Inventory, emissions from Livestock (IPCC Category 3A) are the largest of the IPCC Level 3 categories (Fig. 1). Emissions from Biomass Burning (IPCC – 3C1) contribute at the $\sim 0.1\%$ level (Fig. 1), and are therefore considered negligible for the purposes of this study. Emissions from Wetlands (IPCC – 3B4) and all other emissions from the Land (IPCC Category 3B), Aggregate Sources and Non-CO₂ Emissions (IPCC Category 3C) and Other (3-D) source types of the Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use category are also considered insignificant in the domain, and were not included as part of this study. Within the Livestock category, dairies and cattle farms are the major contributors in the SoCAB region (Viatte et al., 2017). Below we describe our methods for collecting GIS data related to these activities within SoCAB.

4.1 Livestock (IPCC Level 2 – 3A)

The livestock category (IPCC – 3A) includes emissions from enteric fermentation (IPCC – 3A1) and manure management (IPCC – 3A2). Manure management systems vary from facility to facility and broadly fall into dry and wet management practices (Kaffka et al., 2016). Manure can be handled and stored using dry lots, deep pits, solid manure storage, daily spread, digesters (CARB, 2016). In slurry/liquid systems, waste from feedlots and other livestock areas is washed and collected in ponds, which are commonly referred to as anaerobic lagoons (Kaffka et al., 2016). Wet manure management involves washing of feedlots and other livestock areas, and the waste runoff is typically collected in lagoons where CH₄ is produced due to anaerobic conditions. By contrast, dry manure management practices do not wash waste with water, thus reduce anaerobic conditions. Dairies in SoCAB primarily use dry manure management practices due to the copious amounts of water needed in wet manure management practices for the collection, movement and storage of animal wastes. However, recent mobile measurement campaigns verified CH₄ emissions from a small number of dairies with anaerobic lagoons as recently as 2015 (Hopkins et al., 2016b; Viatte et al., 2017). In addition to dairy locations, the locations of some anaerobic lagoons were identified as part of the Vista-LA database as described below.

4.1.1 Enteric Fermentation (IPCC Level 3 – 3A1)

Dairies (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. Dairy and cattle farm facility data were collected from the California Regional Water Quality Control Board (RWQCB), Santa Ana Region. The data were drawn from annual reports, which contain information on the location of each dairy, the number and type of the herd (i.e., milking cow, dry cow, heifer or calf) and other livestock located

at each facility for the year 2015 (Edward Kashak, personal communication, 2016). We defined cattle farms as facilities that did not contain any milking cows. Overall, dairy facilities were primarily found to be located in the Chino and San Jacinto basins.

Data processing, validation and limitations. First, the raw RWQCB dataset was georeferenced to match the spatial information of the datasets in Vista-LA. Next, all 110 locations of dairies and cattle farms were validated with Google Earth's historical imagery tool for the year 2015. Facility addresses and coordinates were used to validate the true locations of the farms. When verifying with aerial imagery, focus was given to dairy/cattle facility infrastructure such as feedlots, manure lagoons, animal housing structures, and open pastures. The dairy and cattle farm locations were deemed accurate if the geographic location in the RWQCB dataset was confirmed with aerial imagery and the coordinates did not overlap another facility. During processing and validation, we identified and manually corrected the locations for two farms with incorrect addresses based on aerial imagery. Additionally, we corrected geolocations for twelve farms that were located incorrectly in the original RWQCB dataset using Google Earth aerial imagery and the facility address information given in the RWQCB dataset.

The RWQCB did not report the quantity of feedlots or manure lagoons per dairy, but did include several other types of information which will be useful for estimating emissions from manure management, including annual manure produced, manure hauled, manure spread to cropland and amount of wastewater produced. The RWQCB dataset also contained several facilities that were neither dairy nor cattle farms, such as a livestock market and beef packing facilities. We removed these from the final Vista-LA layer because we do not expect significant CH₄ emissions from these facilities.

It was difficult to obtain spatial extents for each facility because they were difficult to differentiate using available imagery. For this reason, all final dairy/cattle facility locations are point-based in the Vista-LA database. The RWQCB database did not report the number of milking cows, dry cows, heifers or calves for the seven of the farms in Chino. While it does not affect the geolocation in our facility maps, information on cattle populations specific to these farms will be helpful for estimating CH₄ emissions from these facilities.

Results. The final Vista-LA dairy layer, shown in Figs. 2 and 4, contains a total of 110 livestock facilities in SoCAB: 22 dairies and one cattle farm in the San Jacinto Basin; and 56 dairies, 26 cattle farms and five other livestock farms in Chino. Locations for all facilities were validated using Google Earth imagery. Validation notes have been appended to the spatial dataset for further information on which facilities were corrected for location.

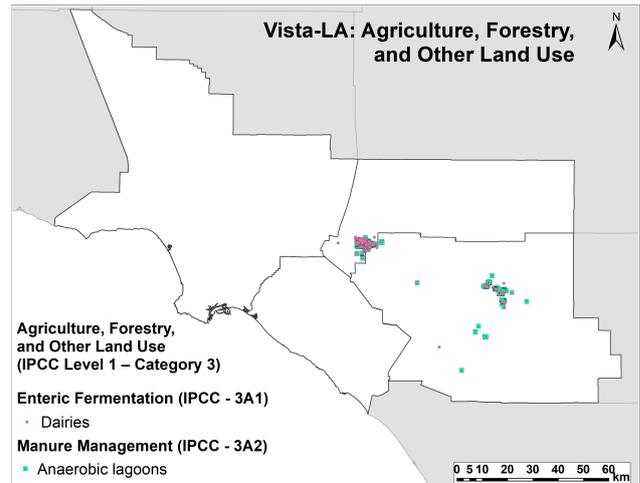


Figure 4. Agriculture, Forestry, and Other Land Use (IPCC Level 1 – Category 3). Spatial distribution of dairies and their respective manure lagoons in SoCAB, encompassing enteric fermentation and manure management CH₄ sources. The largest clusters of dairies are located in the Chino and San Jacinto regions, with 110 dairies. San Jacinto Basin was home to 22 dairies and one cattle farm and Chino housed 56 dairies, 26 cattle farms and 5 other livestock farms in the year 2015. About 228 anaerobic lagoons were identified in these two clusters.

4.1.2 Manure Management (IPCC Level 3 – 3A2)

Anaerobic lagoons (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. In terms of manure management practices, Vista-LA focused on the collection of GIS structures for wet manure management. Specifically, anaerobic lagoons (IPCC – 3A2) were identified using visual inspection of aerial imagery since publicly available GIS datasets on anaerobic lagoons were not available. Therefore, we created a preliminary geospatial dataset of anaerobic lagoons based on GIS data of dairies and cattle farms. Anaerobic lagoons, also commonly called manure lagoons, are considered sub-facility infrastructure within dairy/cattle farms.

Data processing, validation and limitations. Point locations of manure lagoons at each dairy farm were visually determined using aerial imagery from the National Agriculture Imagery Program (NAIP) and Google Earth's Time Tool for the year 2015. Anaerobic lagoons were identified near a dairy/cattle farm facility by their distinct rectangular shape and brown to dark blue color associated with the color of wash water from manure waste. Often, aerial imagery showed evidence of cattle, further confirming the facility location. Once a lagoon structure was identified, GIS processing tools were used to create point data for the geolocation.

Most anaerobic lagoons in SoCAB were found in the Chino/Ontario region, the area with the densest clusters of

dairy farms. However, the identified geolocation of lagoons for year 2015 is likely to change in the near future due to rapid land-use developments in the region and fluctuating manure management practices (Hirsch, 2006). Further work could be done with automated feature extraction with contemporaneous imagery, as discussed in Sect. 6.4.

Results. The Vista-LA layer for anaerobic lagoons contains 228 point locations in the Chino, Ontario, and Riverside regions, as shown in Figs. 2 and 4. The final layer includes geolocations given by latitude and longitude with validation notes including any changes made and date of last update.

5 Waste (IPCC Level 1 – Category 4)

5.1 Solid Waste Disposal (IPCC Level 2 – 4A)

Solid waste disposal includes both managed and unmanaged waste disposal sites, as well as uncategorized disposal sites. The largest CH₄ emissions are expected from managed waste disposal sites, hence the site category we included in the Vista-LA data product.

5.1.1 Managed waste disposal (IPCC Level 3 – 4A1)

Managed waste disposal (IPCC – 4A1) is the third largest IPCC Level 3 emissions source in the California GHG Inventory, trailing only the Enteric Fermentation (IPCC – 3A1) and Manure Management (IPCC – 3A2) categories. For Vista-LA, we define managed waste disposal locations as landfills (i.e., solid waste disposal sites and solid waste landfills). Vista-LA includes both active and inactive landfills, with the status recorded in the metadata.

Landfills (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. The Vista-LA layer for landfills (IPCC – 4A1) was created using landfill data from California’s Department of Resources Recycling and Recovery’s (CalRecycle) Solid Waste Information System (SWIS) and CARB (CARB, 2014; CalRecycle, 2015). A list of methane-generating landfills in California was obtained from the 2014 CARB emissions dataset (Larry Hunsaker, personal communication, 2016). Geolocation and spatial extent for each individual landfill facility in SoCAB were generated and verified using the 2005 and 2012 SCAG land-use dataset, Google Earth, and Esri Basemap aerial imagery (see <http://gisdata.scag.ca.gov/Pages/GIS-Library.aspx>).

Data processing, validation and limitations. The CARB 2014 landfill dataset contained locational records for 372 potential methane-producing landfills for the State of California, with 73 of those landfills located in SoCAB. The CalRecycle/SWIS point dataset contained information on 3087 landfills for all of California, with 759 in SoCAB. CalRecy-

cle landfills located in SoCAB were queried to isolate only the 353 tagged as “solid waste disposal facilities” or “solid waste landfills”. Finally, 19 duplicate entries were identified and removed.

The geolocation and spatial extent of the 334 unique landfills in the CalRecycle/SWIS dataset were verified using the SCAG 2005 and SCAG 2012 land-use datasets. We used SCAG land-use code 1432 (solid waste disposal facilities) to identify the polygon features associated with active dumps and sanitary landfill operations. We used both SCAG 2005 and SCAG 2012 for the maximum amount of information on landfill extent information because neither SCAG dataset contained all landfill locations. In the raw SCAG 2005 dataset, there were 247 individual polygons associated with land-use code 1432 in SoCAB. The SCAG 2005 dataset showed multiple polygon features for the same facility in some cases, so this dataset was further refined by merging multiple polygons that comprise a known facility location based on the refined CalRecycle/SWIS dataset. Simplified polygon features were created for all the distinguishable solid waste disposal sites based on cross-checking the SCAG dataset with the point data from CalRecycle and World Imagery. In Los Angeles County, the total of 86 polygons associated with land-use code 1432 were aggregated into 18 individual landfills; in Orange County, 60 polygons were aggregated into 7 individual landfills; in Riverside County, 61 polygons were aggregated into 13 individual landfills; and in San Bernardino County, 40 polygons were aggregated into 10 individual landfills. This process was again repeated using the SCAG 2012 dataset that had 211 polygons designated as land-use code 1432. Overall, 48 landfills of the total 334 were identified from the intersection of SCAG 2005/2012 solid waste disposal facilities and landfills from the CalRecycle/SWIS dataset.

The location and spatial extent of the remaining 286 landfills from the CalRecycle/SWIS dataset had to be manually validated and/or generated using Google Earth Imagery along with other GIS methods including geoprocessing and digitizing. We were able to verify the location of 188 out of the 286 designated landfills. Unfortunately, their extent and shape could not be determined using imagery since they had long been closed and thus modified or built upon significantly. A placeholder polygon was generated indicating the historical location with extent and shape determined and digitized using Google Earth imagery (for example canyons, excavated pits, and barren land). However, land-use changes that occur on surfaces of former landfills vary from site to site. As seen with verification procedures for power plants, time-sensitive imagery is critical when evaluating the existence and geolocations of landfills. Using the CalRecycle/SWIS metadata for address location for enhanced verification proved to be difficult because often there were no landfill-related features at these addresses, requiring manual geolocation and correction.

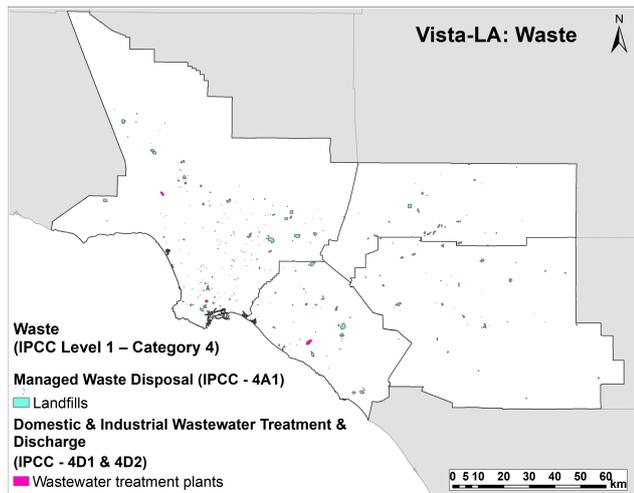


Figure 5. Waste (IPCC Level 1 – Category 4). Spatial distribution of 73 landfills and 26 wastewater treatment plants in SoCAB.

The verified 334 polygons were subset by matching the SWIS number in the CalRecycle metadata to the SWIS number of the 73 potential methane-producing landfills in the CARB dataset in order to produce the final Vista-LA dataset.

Results. In total, 73 potential methane-producing landfills were identified, all locations verified, and polygons were generated in the final dataset using the actual extent or placeholder if extent could not be verified. The final Vista-LA landfill layer is shown in Figs. 2 and 5. The metadata from the CalRecycle/SWIS dataset were appended to the final Vista-LA landfill polygon dataset. This includes site-specific information, such as throughput, capacity, and waste types (CalRecycle, 2015). Validation notes include whether facility extent was derived from SCAG 2005, SCAG 2012, or Google Earth imagery. The final polygon data for landfill extents can be separately categorized by landfill status: active, closed, clean-closed, closing, absorbed, and inactive. The operation status breakdown is as follows: 2 were absorbed, 17 were active, 3 were clean-closed (site is considered to cease to exist as a solid waste disposal site, but records are kept to document the status of the site), 308 were closed, 1 was closing, and 3 were inactive.

5.2 Wastewater Treatment and Discharge (IPCC Level 2 – 4D)

Wastewater treatment and discharge include both domestic and industrial wastewater treatment facilities (Table 1).

5.2.1 Domestic and Industrial Wastewater Treatment and Discharge (IPCC Level 3 – 4D1 and 4D2)

Wastewater treatment in SoCAB is primarily done through aerobic sludge digestion, which has no associated CH_4 emissions in the California GHG Inventory (CARB, 2016). However, under low oxygen conditions, CH_4 may be emitted as a by-product of enhanced denitrification present in water recycling systems (e.g., open tanks in treatment facilities; Townsend-Small et al., 2012). Many wastewater treatment plants also use anaerobic digesters which collect CH_4 for eventual combustion, but may have fugitive CH_4 emissions. Of the urban sources of CH_4 , this source is perhaps the most uncertain (Hopkins et al., 2016a). For the purposes of this study, we assume CH_4 emissions are most likely to arise from the plants with the largest daily flow capacity; however, emissions could also potentially arise from various points of collection and/or drainage of wastewater and sewage.

Wastewater treatment plants (Vista-LA layer)

Data sources. The final Vista-LA wastewater treatment plant layer (IPCC – 4D1 and 4D2) relies on wastewater treatment plant data derived from the State Water Resources Control Board (SWRCB) Regulated Facility Report (SWRCB, 2016), SCAG 2005 and 2012 land-use datasets, and Google Earth and Esri Basemap aerial imagery. The Vista-LA wastewater treatment plant dataset provides accurate location, extent, and facility-level metrics for the largest domestic wastewater treatment plants in SoCAB.

Data processing, validation and limitations. Information for wastewater treatment plants in the LA Basin was obtained from the SWRCB for 2016, including facility names, addresses, coordinates, and the design flow rate in million gallons per day. The raw data contained information on 152 plants for the State of California, 36 of which were located within SoCAB, and 26 of which contained design flow metrics. We geocoded the CARB data as points, and found many uncertainties in the geolocation of wastewater treatment plants in the original dataset. Because of the relatively small number of plants with metrics in SoCAB, we were able to successfully resolve this uncertainty.

We generated polygons and validated plant geolocation for the 26 wastewater treatment plants in SoCAB using Google Earth and Esri Basemap aerial imagery and SCAG 2005 and 2012 land-use data. SCAG data were used to first obtain facility spatial extents. SCAG land-use code 1433 (“liquid waste disposal facilities”) was used to verify locations and determine the spatial extent of the original list of wastewater treatment plants. In total, 189 polygons were classified with this land-use code; 44 of those polygons were directly matched with point locations from the SWRCB dataset. Since some facilities had multiple polygons associated with them, they had to be manually merged in order to asso-

ciate one polygon with one wastewater treatment facility. After this merging procedure, 44 polygons were merged to 11 polygons that directly matched the location of 11 wastewater treatment plants. Polygons for the other 15 plants were digitized using both Google Earth and Esri Basemap imagery as a reference for spatial extent. Each of the 26 plants was successfully validated using aerial imagery. During the manual validation procedure, attention was given to identifying features such as spreading grounds, aeration fields, water injection plants, and circular tanks. EPA Facility Registry Service data for the year 2013 were used as a verification source and contain information about wastewater treatment plants operating within petroleum refineries and power plants (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2016).

The 10 additional plants from the SWRCB dataset were not included in the final Vista-LA dataset because they did not contain facility-level metrics and design flow rates, only location information. Additionally, it is difficult to identify sub-facility plant infrastructure since aerial imagery can only provide a certain degree of context.

Results. The final Vista-LA wastewater treatment plant layer contains geolocations for 26 wastewater treatment plant facilities, as shown in Figs. 2 and 5. Five of these wastewater treatment plants were found to be co-located with power plants. The metadata contain information about the station name, design flow rate metrics, re-calculated location coordinates for each facility, and validation notes including any changes made and the date of last update.

6 Discussion

6.1 Vista-LA data summary

The Vista-LA database consists of 33 354 individual features as points, lines and polygons among thirteen spatial layers, providing a spatial representation of major CH₄ production sources in SoCAB (Fig. 2). Pipelines are represented as lines, and oil and gas wells are represented as points, which we consider to be the most accurate representation of these sources. Nine source types are represented as polygons; some represent “area” sources, such as landfills, while others represent a combination of point sources within a facility, such as oil refineries. We have chosen to represent both types of sources with polygons, since Vista-LA is a facility-level database; at present, we do not include sub-facility scale information. These polygons depict the true spatial extent of each facility, enabling improved, and potentially automated attribution of methane plumes observed in airborne imaging or mobile in situ surveys. In survey data, observed methane plumes may not be close to point representations of the address of a facility, and hence may not be easily attributed to the emitting facility, particularly in complex surroundings with many closely located facilities such as SoCAB (e.g., El Segundo or Port of Los Angeles/Long Beach areas). Polygon

representations enable an automated workflow where the geolocation of a plume detection is attributed to an entity in the Vista-LA database of sources using spatial intersection without any manual work by a human operator. Source attribution to the facility level is also useful because emissions data are often reported as an aggregate value representing the facility level (e.g., CARB’s Mandatory GHG Reporting Regulation). The remaining two sources currently represented by points – dairies and anaerobic lagoons – require future work to accurately describe their spatial extents.

The maps in Figs. 3–5 show the spatial distributions of potential sources of CH₄ in the IPCC Level 1 categories: Energy (1), Agriculture (3), and Waste (4), respectively. The highest density of CH₄-emitting infrastructure is located in the western portion of SoCAB in Los Angeles and Orange counties (Fig. 2). The Energy sector, specifically oil and gas wells, accounts for the majority of the spatial inventory (32 537 features) and is primarily located in southern and northwestern Los Angeles County and northern Orange County (Fig. 3). The Agriculture sector is dominated by dairies and cattle farms located in the Chino and San Jacinto basins of San Bernardino and Riverside counties (Fig. 4). By contrast, landfills and wastewater treatment plants are relatively evenly distributed throughout SoCAB (Fig. 5).

In total, Vista-LA polygons cover 117 km², or 0.68 %, of the 17 108 km² extent of SoCAB, substantially narrowing the area over which surveys for fugitive and non-inventoried CH₄ sources should be carried out. This spatial structure more closely matches the “hotspot” nature of atmospheric CH₄ that has been observed in SoCAB on the scale of meters to kilometers (Hopkins et al., 2016b) than is represented by current existing products that are too coarse to capture the fine-scale nature of CH₄ hotspots in urban areas.

6.2 Vista-LA data completeness and uncertainty

The goal of Vista-LA is to provide a complete representation of potential anthropogenic CH₄ emissions sources in SoCAB; however, ensuring complete spatial coverage of important CH₄ sources is challenging. We made the simplifying assumption that including the eight IPCC Level 3 sources which constitute ~ 99 % of the expected California GHG Inventory emissions would capture the most important CH₄ sources in SoCAB, omitting rice cultivation, imported electricity, and coal mining, which are not present in the domain (see Fig. 1). We also added two new source types that are not included in the California GHG Inventory: compressed natural gas (CNG) fueling stations (total: 109 locations) and liquefied natural gas (LNG) fueling stations (total: 27 locations; see Table 1 and Table S1 in the Supplement). While these sources are not presently included in the inventory, there was sufficient evidence for fugitive CH₄ emissions to include them in Vista-LA (e.g., Fig. 8; Clark et al., 2017; Hopkins et al., 2016b), particularly given that SoCAB con-

tains 32 and 57 % of the state's CNG and LNG fueling stations, respectively.

We verified our list of included source categories against the key source categories at the national level from the U.S. EPA inventory (EPA, 2016). Although rice cultivation and coal mining contribute >1 % to total U.S. methane emissions, these are not significant sources of methane in SoCAB and were excluded from the Vista-LA database. We also compared Vista-LA's source categories to observations of CH₄ hotspots in Los Angeles. The known sources of enhanced CH₄ levels – landfills, cattle, water treatment, power plants, CNG fueling, natural gas pipelines, oil refineries, and oil fields – corresponded to Vista-LA layers with the exception of geologic seeps (Hopkins et al., 2016b). This correspondence suggests that Vista-LA is well suited for source attribution of anthropogenic CH₄ hotspots in SoCAB.

We omitted several categories that might have important contributions to CH₄ emissions in SoCAB, such as transportation. Although transportation produces ~1 % of California inventoried CH₄ emissions (and <0.3 % of national emissions; EPA, 2016), it likely comprises a greater fraction of SoCAB emissions given the greater density of traffic in the region. We have chosen not to include a spatial layer for transportation in this version of Vista; we view Vista primarily as a tool for attribution of large fugitive CH₄ emissions sources, and there is no evidence for this type of emission from conventionally fueled vehicles. Fugitive CH₄ emissions detected along roadways are more likely to originate from leaks in natural gas pipelines that lie underneath the road surface (Chamberlain et al., 2016). Adding a spatial layer for transportation would be simple to achieve, such as by including a map of the road network or from an existing high-resolution inventory such as Hestia (Rao et al., 2017), and needs to be included in an emissions inventory.

We also omitted two possible natural sources of CH₄ emissions in SoCAB – geologic seeps and wetlands – because they are not considered sources in the most recent version of the California GHG Inventory (geologic seeps are inventoried as “excluded” sources). These sources have not been included in this version of Vista despite the large observed emissions from geologic seeps in SoCAB (Farrell et al., 2013). We have identified possible spatial datasets to include in future versions of Vista (USGS maps of Natural Oil and Gas Seeps in California, <https://walrus.wr.usgs.gov/seeps/> and U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service National Wetlands Inventory, <https://www.fws.gov/wetlands/>). There is a potential that either sources may contribute significantly to the SoCAB emissions budget – we anticipate including these in future versions.

There is also uncertainty in the spatial representation of sources in Vista-LA. We assumed the spatial location of sources by linking facility-level (or pipeline-, or oil well-level) datasets to IPCC source categories (Table 1), although there may not be a perfect correspondence between mappable infrastructure and these sources. An alternative ap-

proach would have been to map out the lifecycle of each IPCC Level 1 sector (e.g., Energy, Agriculture, Waste), and determine spatial locations of each lifecycle phase in the domain. We chose the IPCC approach because it is more standardized, and hence applicable to other cities. The lifecycle approach requires local knowledge, and is likely to differ among cities and regions (Hopkins et al., 2016a). We also assumed that most CH₄ emissions come from the main facility associated with an emitting activity, such as wastewater treatment plants for wastewater emissions, rather than the sewer network. This assumption may not hold true, for example when manure is exported from dairies and treated elsewhere. In contrast to waste and agriculture, we included a higher level of detail for the natural gas system because there is more evidence of quantitatively significant CH₄ emissions from distributed parts of the network (e.g., pipelines).

Finally, we recognize error inherent in the availability of data, and in the original data sources themselves. Vista-LA relies on publicly available datasets. Consequently, we are constrained by (a) lack of data on some infrastructure types that may be transient or have never been collected, such as the locations of manure piles; (b) unavailability of proprietary data, such as the locations of petroleum storage tanks or gathering pipelines; and (c) data that pose a security risk, and hence cannot be distributed, such as specific locations of natural gas compressor stations and high-pressure transmission pipelines. Within the datasets themselves, we found errors in geolocation and missing facilities. As described in the text, we took steps to control these errors inherent to the source datasets by performing visual validation and using multiple datasets for the same source category. In most original datasets, geolocation of some facilities was incorrect by up to several kilometers for various reasons, and some geolocations corresponded to the offices or street address of facilities rather than actual facility location (e.g., for dairies). Raw datasets for landfills, natural gas processing plants, and wastewater treatment plants also had a coarse spatial resolution resulting in uncertain geolocations, which we corrected. However, we were unable to visually validate all sources, including oil and gas wells, natural gas pipelines, and landfills.

With respect to omission of CH₄-emitting facilities, in many cases, the total number of facilities varied among the raw datasets that were used to construct the Vista-LA layers (e.g., landfills, natural gas processing plants, natural gas storage fields, power plants, CNG and LNG fueling stations, and wastewater treatment plants). For power plants, there are many small facilities in California (around 4020 plants) that are not included in the EIA dataset (110 plants). Overall, these small power plant facilities only represent about 3 % of the total statewide electricity production related to fossil fuel CO₂ emissions, and therefore most are not tracked. Some of these facilities are also not grid-tied, but are facilities that generate electricity for an industrial process (Kevin Gurney, personal communication, 2017). We found that at least nine power plants were located within the bounds of a petroleum

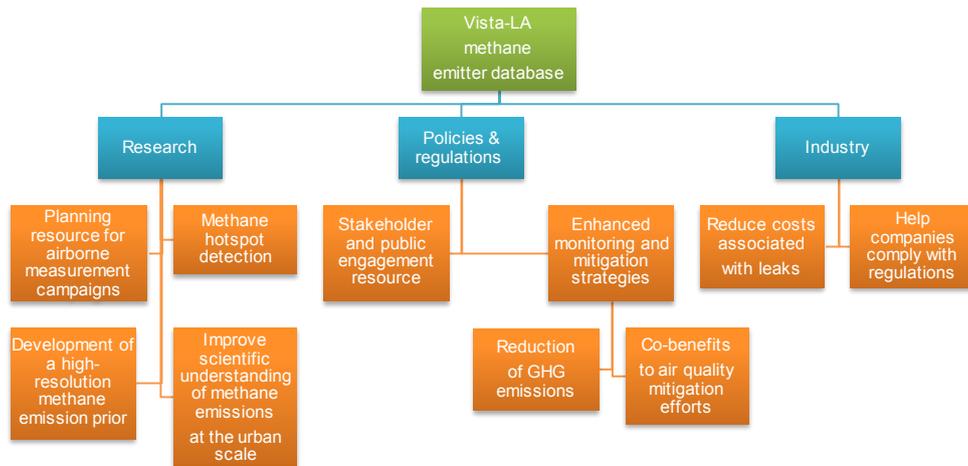


Figure 6. Overview of applications of the Vista-LA CH₄ emissions mapping database. Vista-LA can provide numerous applications and benefits to research, policy, and industry.

refinery facility in SoCAB. We have not considered potential emissions from smaller facilities or those contained within other facilities, but this may be important to consider as part of future work.

6.3 Vista-LA applications

At present, Vista-LA does not contain the bottom–up empirical measurements required for the creation of an accurate fine-scale CH₄ inventory (as in Lyon et al., 2015). However, making and interpreting atmospheric CH₄ measurements is easier for the dense, heterogeneous landscape of SoCAB with the guidance of the Vista-LA spatial layers. Vista-LA represents a much-needed first step towards the development of a fine-scale urban CH₄ emissions inventory that can be used for design and interpretation of CH₄ hotspot surveys. Importantly, Vista-LA complements the tiered remote sensing observation strategies for regional top–down CH₄ emission measurements. Figure 6 summarizes potential applications of Vista-LA, which are described in the following sections.

6.3.1 Research planning

Vista-LA is already in use as a planning tool for research aimed at better understanding CH₄ emissions in SoCAB, by guiding design of CH₄ super-emitter surveys and appropriate selection of locations for stationary CH₄ monitoring. Figure 7 shows how Vista-LA has been used for planning airborne remote sensing campaigns to survey CH₄ point sources. Guidance from Vista-LA allows airborne campaigns to be designed for maximum coverage of key infrastructure identified in SoCAB. In Fig. 7, aircraft flight lines shown in green illustrate a path optimized for coverage of key CH₄ infrastructure in SoCAB.

6.3.2 CH₄ hotspot detection

In addition, Vista-LA can be used to interpret observations of atmospheric CH₄ measurements, addressing the challenge of source attribution of CH₄ hotspots detected in airborne and ground-based surveys. Pinpointing the source of fugitive CH₄ emissions sources in dense mixed-land-use urban areas has been an ongoing challenge (Cambaliza et al., 2015; Hopkins et al., 2016b). In many urban areas, many potential CH₄ sources are located in close proximity, such as in the ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach, which contain extensive fossil fuel use and transportation, active oil drilling and refining, and wastewater treatment. Figure 8 shows an overlay of CH₄ observations from a mobile CH₄ survey in June 2013, where high-frequency in situ CH₄ observations were made from a moving van, as described in Hopkins et al. (2016b). Atmospheric CH₄ levels are shown as colored boxes with an “x” in the center, with blue colors representing near-background levels, and warmer colors (red) representing elevated CH₄. The same region was flown by the Hyperspectral Thermal Emission Spectrometer (HyTES) in July 2014. Plumes of CH₄ were retrieved from HyTES radiance data, and are shown in green (Hulley et al., 2016). In the scene, Vista-LA shows roughly a dozen oil and gas wells and a CNG fueling station near the elevated CH₄ observations, narrowing down the number of potential sources greatly. Together with wind direction, these observations plus Vista-LA enable attribution to the facility level.

6.3.3 Stakeholder and public engagement tool

Vista-LA also has the potential to guide CH₄ mitigation efforts by identifying persistent CH₄-emitting infrastructure when combined with atmospheric measurements. In order to control CH₄ emissions effectively in cities, it is essential to understand the fine-scale spatial distribution of stationary

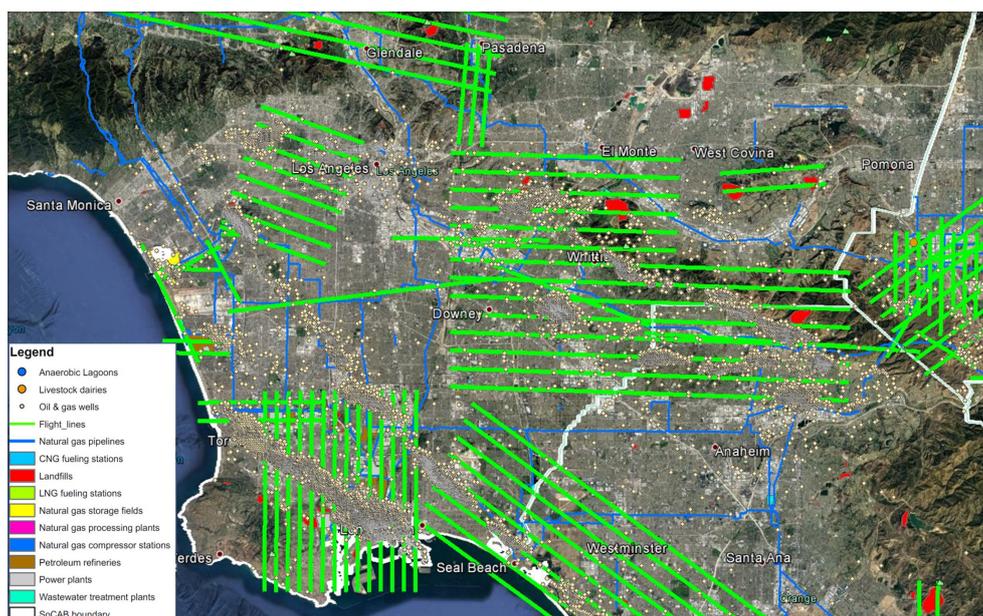


Figure 7. Vista-LA as a flight planning resource. The flight path of an airborne CH₄ remote sensing campaign to survey CH₄ point source emissions, shown as green lines, was optimized to include CH₄-emitting infrastructure for key sources shown in Vista-LA.

sources from a broad range of industries in the energy, agriculture, and waste sectors. Local regulators and city planners may be able to use the location information presented in Vista-LA, combined with targeted surveys or observations, to develop enhanced CH₄ monitoring and mitigation strategies for their cities. Vista-LA may also be extensible to air-quality mitigation efforts. For example, some processes that emit CH₄ also result in co-emission of other gases that are important for climate and air quality. By incorporating new information in Vista-LA, such as information on permitting and/or sub-facility infrastructure information, users may be able to evaluate the air-quality co-benefits associated with fugitive CH₄ mitigation strategies.

6.4 Future directions: Vista CH₄ database

Vista-LA was primarily developed to identify CH₄-emitting infrastructure in SoCAB. However, we anticipate that our approach could be scaled to other regions and over larger spatial scales, including the State of California, the contiguous U.S., and possibly internationally. Expanding the Vista-LA database across the State of California is highly feasible given that our framework is consistent with how the State of California reports CH₄ emissions. Additionally, many of the raw data sources used in the development of Vista-LA already encompass state-level or national-level spatial extents (Table 1). In theory, the approach could also be expanded to any region on Earth, as long as an IPCC (or similar) inventory and geolocation data for the top-emitting sources are publicly available. Our framework is also dependent on the availability of timely, reliable public datasets. In this regard,

Los Angeles and the State of California are perfect testbeds for development. By contrast, many regions may not have such information available publicly, especially in developing nations.

Efforts to expand the database could be enhanced by the use of automated feature extraction techniques. For example, the use of automated feature extraction techniques could expedite the process of identifying, extracting, and updating relevant infrastructure features for estimating emissions, such as those listed in the Supplement, Table S1. Automated feature extraction involves machine-learning algorithms used to recognize patterns through image processing (see, e.g., Yuan, 2016; Castelluccio et al., 2015). In this way, aerial imagery in SoCAB could essentially be used to parse through and locate features such as converted landfills, oil and gas wellheads, anaerobic lagoons, and/or wastewater treatment plants. It is important to note that a machine-learning algorithm may introduce uncertainty more than the use of raw datasets; therefore, efforts need to be made to quantify these uncertainty estimates. Even so, machine-learning algorithms hold the potential to advance the process of identifying infrastructure of potential CH₄ sources at a larger scale.

In the future, the information in Vista-LA could be used to generate a high-resolution bottom-up gridded CH₄ emissions product for SoCAB. While the initial goal of the Vista-LA database was to provide facility location information, some of the facility- and sub-facility-level activity and operation information contained within the metadata may also be useful for assigning emission factors to each source (see Metadata and Supplement, Table S1). For example, the Vista-LA dairy layer contains information on herd population by



Figure 8. Application of Vista-LA as a tool for source attribution of CH_4 hotspots. Vista-LA can be used to determine the source of CH_4 hotspots observed during on-road mobile surveys and aircraft campaigns. In this example, Vista-LA layers are shown with CH_4 plumes observed by the HyTES airborne imaging spectrometer and elevated atmospheric CH_4 levels near the surface from a mobile survey in the port of Long Beach, California. The co-location of the green colored CH_4 plume from HyTES (July 2014) and the red point observations of enhanced CH_4 levels from the mobile survey (June 2013) suggest that the CNG fueling station, shown by the orange polygon, is the source of the observed CH_4 emissions.

type, which could be used to estimate emissions factors for enteric fermentation and manure management. Manure management practices are known to vary widely by region, even within the State of California. Potentially, the information in the Vista-LA database could also be combined with top-down observations and provide independent validation of bottom-up CH_4 flux estimates, in a similar approach to that shown in Sect. 6.3.2 and Fig. 8. In general, utilizing the spatial information in Vista-LA to assign CH_4 emissions estimates could significantly minimize errors in the spatial representation of sources compared to previous estimates for this region. Updates such as changes to locations, spatial extents, and removal or addition of facilities will be required on at least an annual basis to provide timely and accurate emissions information.

7 Data availability

The current releases of the Vista-LA datasets and associated metadata are open access and are available in the Oak Ridge National Laboratory Distributed Active Archive Center for Biogeochemical Dynamics (ORNL DAAC) (Carranza et al., 2018; <https://doi.org/10.3334/ORNLDAAC/1525>).

8 Conclusions

Vista-LA adopts a GIS-based approach to map known or potential CH_4 emissions sources in dense-mixed-land-use ar-

reas of the South Coast Air Basin, which includes the LA megacity. Characterizing CH_4 emissions on the urban scale is incredibly complex, as there exist thousands of structures known to be associated with CH_4 emissions. Vista-LA successfully identifies 33 554 potential CH_4 emitters from three IPCC sectors: Energy, Agriculture, and Waste. Vista-LA contains accurate and validated spatial extent information for nine sources including compressed natural gas fueling stations, liquefied natural gas fueling stations, landfills, natural gas compressor stations, natural gas storage fields, natural gas processing plants, petroleum refineries, power plants, and wastewater treatment plants. It also includes point location of anaerobic lagoons, dairies, and oil and gas wells as well as a natural gas pipeline network for SoCAB. Vista-LA can assist in flight planning for CH_4 airborne campaigns and potential CH_4 hotspot detection, and can essentially be merged with top-down flux estimates for the identification of individual point sources. In this way, Vista-LA represents a first step towards developing a gridded emissions spatial product that can illustrate spatial distribution of CH_4 emissions on a fine scale. By fusing Vista-LA, automated surface feature recognition, and other various remote sensing point source data products, we could dramatically improve the attribution of methane emissions.

Vista-LA serves as a prototype resource to aid in the development of high-resolution bottom-up gridded models of GHG emissions in densely populated urban areas with a complex variety of sources and can be adapted to larger scales in accordance with characteristics innate to each re-

spective region. The development of spatially resolved carbon emissions datasets can offer significant advances in understanding, managing, and mitigating carbon emissions from cities. Generally, uncertainties in emissions sources and their locations in inventories hinder the implementation of mitigation policies. To be useful, CH₄ emissions information is needed on the scale of individual sources. In addition to accurate and timely spatial information, urban CH₄ emissions inventories should also be flexible enough to incorporate new information while remaining relevant for observation-based research efforts such as surveys, hotspot detection, and inversion modeling. Finally, the information should be communicated in an open-source, transparent, and well-documented manner.

Appendix A

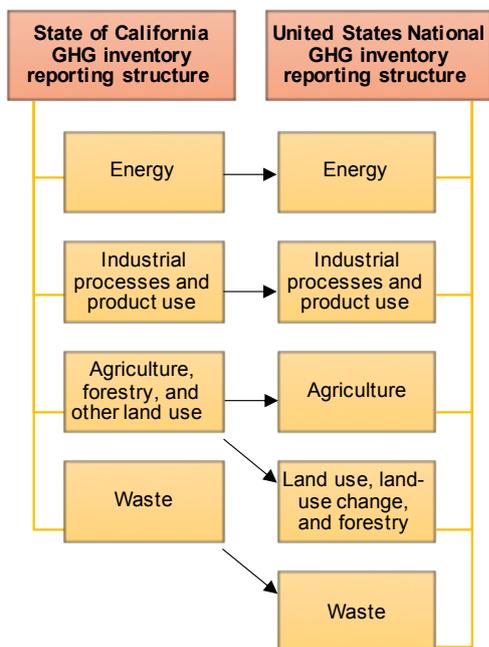


Figure A1. Comparison between GHG emissions inventory reporting structure for the State of California vs. the United States. Vista-LA complies with the State of California’s GHG emissions inventory structure, but can be adapted to different regions, such as for the national GHG emissions inventory of the United States. Arrows indicate links between sector levels of the two GHG inventories.

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Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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