

1 Reconciliation-Comparison of observation- and inventory- based methane emissions for
2 eight large global emitters

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42 **Abstract**

43

44 Monitoring the spatial distribution and trends in surface greenhouse gas (GHG) fluxes, as well as flux
45 attribution to natural and anthropogenic processes, is essential to track progress under the Paris Agreement and
46 to inform its Global Stocktake. This study updates earlier syntheses (Petrescu et al., 2020, 2021, 2023) and
47 provides a consolidated synthesis of CH₄ emissions using bottom-up (BU) and top-down (TD) approaches for
48 the European Union (EU) and is expanded to include seven additional countries with large anthropogenic and/or
49 natural emissions (USA, Brazil, China, India, Indonesia, Russia, and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DR
50 Congo)). Our aim is to demonstrate the use of different emission estimates to help improve national GHG
51 emission inventories for a diverse geographical range of stakeholders.

52 We use updated National GHG Inventories (NGHGs) reported by Annex I Parties under the United
53 Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) in 2023 and the latest available Biennial Update
54 Reports (BURs) reported by non-Annex I Parties. Comparing NGHGs with other approaches highlights that
55 different system boundaries are a key source of divergence. A key system boundary difference is whether both
56 anthropogenic and natural fluxes are included and, if they are, how fluxes belonging to these two sources are
57 partitioned.

58 Over the studied period, the total CH₄ emission estimates in the EU, USA, and Russia show a steady
59 decreasing trend since 1990, while for the non-Annex I emitters analyzed in this study, Brazil, China, India,
60 Indonesia, and DR Congo, CH₄ emissions have generally increased. Quantitatively, in the EU the mean of 2015-
61 2020 anthropogenic UNFCCC NGHGs (15 ± 1.8 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹) and the mean of the BU CH₄ emissions (17.8 (16-
62 19) Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹) generally agree on the magnitude, while inversions show higher emission estimates (medians
63 of 21 (19-22) Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ and 24 (22-25) Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ for the three regional and six global inversions,
64 respectively), as they include natural emissions, which for the EU were quantified at 6.6 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ (Petrescu
65 et al., 2023a). Similarly, for the other Annex I Parties in this study (**USA and Russia**), the gap between the BU
66 anthropogenic and total TD emissions is partly explained by the natural emissions.

67 For the **non-Annex I Parties**, anthropogenic CH₄ estimates from UNFCCC BURs show large
68 differences with the other global inventory-based estimates and even more with atmospheric-based ones. This
69 poses an important potential challenge to monitoring the progress of the global CH₄ pledge and the Global
70 Stocktake. Our analysis provides a useful baseline to prepare for the influx of inventories from non-Annex I
71 Parties as regular reporting starts under the Enhanced Transparency Framework of the Paris Agreement.

72 By systematically comparing the BU with TD methods, this study provides recommendations for more
73 robust comparisons of available data sources and hopes to steadily engage more Parties in using observational
74 methods to complement their UNFCCC inventories, as well as considering their natural emissions. With

75 anticipated improvements in atmospheric modeling and observations, as well as modeling of natural fluxes,
76 future development needs to resolve knowledge gaps in both BU and TD approaches and to better quantify
77 remaining uncertainty. TD methods may emerge as a powerful tool [to help improve NGHGs of CH₄ emissions,](#)
78 [but further confidence is needed in the comparability and robustness of the estimates.](#)

79 The referenced datasets related to figures are available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.12818506>
80 (Petrescu et al., 2023b2024).

81 **1. Introduction**

82
83 In 2021, the NOAA Global Monitoring Laboratory (GML) reported the largest annual increase in
84 atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratios since records began in 1983, [at 17 parts per billion \(ppb\) \(NOAA](#)
85 [\(https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/trends_ch4/\)](https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/trends_ch4/). In 2022, atmospheric CH₄ concentrations averaged 1912 ppb [yr⁻¹](#), 162
86 % higher than pre-industrial levels. A similar, abnormally large growth rate of 14.8 ppb yr⁻¹ was detected from
87 total column mixing ratio measurements (XCH₄) by the Greenhouse Gases Observing Satellite (GOSAT) (Peng
88 et al., 2022). ~~The drivers of the recent growth are most likely driven primarily by biogenic emissions (Basu et~~
89 ~~al., 2022; Lan, et al., 2021a; Lan et al., 2021b; Lan et al., 2022; Nisbet et al., 2016, 2019), with smaller~~
90 ~~contributions from increased fossil fuel emissions and a reduced atmospheric sink (Nisbet et al., 2023).~~ These
91 processes drove the near record increase in atmospheric CH₄ growth in 2020, despite and furthermore outweighed
92 the slight the observed decrease in anthropogenic CH₄ emissions accumulated from March–June 2020 as impact
93 of the COVID-19 slowdown (e.g. China) which might be small relative to the long-term positive trend in
94 emissions. (McNorton et al., 2022, Peng et al., 2022, Qu et al. 2022).

95 CH₄ in the atmosphere has many different sources, of both natural and anthropogenic origin. The natural
96 sources of CH₄ are dominated by wetlands, while anthropogenic emissions principally come from agricultural
97 activities (livestock and rice farming), waste management (landfills and water treatment plants) and the
98 production, transportation, and use of fossil fuels. Most of the agricultural sources are distributed sources, while
99 the energy-related industrial sources of CH₄ are a mix of large point sources, of which some are detectable by
100 satellite (Jacob et al., 2022) and smaller point and distributed sources of fugitive emissions (e.g., leaks in
101 pipelines and compression stations), [which](#) are more challenging to identify (Rutherford et al., 2021; Omara et
102 al., 2022).

103 While anthropogenic CH₄ emissions from fossil fuels, agriculture, and waste can be reduced by
104 mitigation actions, increased natural emissions lead to different challenges. It has been suggested that [the drivers](#)
105 [of the recent growth are most likely driven primarily by biogenic emissions \(Basu et al., 2022; Lan, et al., 2021a;](#)
106 [Lan et al., 2021b; Lan et al., 2022; Nisbet et al., 2016, 2019\), with smaller contributions from increased fossil](#)
107 [fuel emissions and a reduced atmospheric sink \(Nisbet et al., 2023\).](#) Fluctuations in natural sources - dominated
108 by wetlands and open water bodies - were the main reasons for some of the atmospheric CH₄ anomalies observed
109 during the last decades (Rocher-Ros et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023; Nisbet et al., 2023; Lunt et al., 2019). Nisbet
110 et al., 2023 review recent studies, including those which quantified the observed methane growth in the last years.
111 Using a global inverse analysis of GOSAT satellite observations, ~~it has been shown that increases in the range~~
112 ~~of 22-32 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ were detected between 2019 and 2020 were in the range of 22-32 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ and were~~

113 attributed to biogenic sources, half of which took place in East Africa (~ 15 Tg yr⁻¹), and some were observed in
114 Canada and Alaska (4.8 Tg yr⁻¹)(Qu et al., 2022 and Basu et al., 2022).

115 Chandra et al., 2021 identified a few main sectors that triggered increases and decreases in the
116 anthropogenic CH₄ emissions of different countries. The first is energy, with its fugitive emissions from the oil
117 and gas industry whose decline in emissions helped stabilize CH₄ concentration in the 1990s, before they
118 contributed to the renewed CH₄ growth since the late 2000s (increased emissions). The other major sectors that
119 drove changes in the CH₄ growth rate were agriculture (increase in emissions from enteric fermentation and
120 manure management) and waste. The increase in emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management
121 was caused primarily by increased animal numbers, and in addition by the greater intensity of ruminant farming
122 as estimated by the FAO and the emission inventories (e.g. EDGAR) which might take into account productivity
123 increases (Crippa et al., 2020; Wolf et al., 2017; FAOSTAT, 2018) while inventory emissions from waste can
124 account for up to 43 % of the linear increase in emissions for the rest of the world.

125 The contribution of CH₄ to global warming has been estimated to be about 0.5°C relative to the period
126 1850–1900 (IPCC, 2021) (Stavert et al., 2022). Methane has a relatively short perturbation lifetime (averaging
127 12.4 years, Balcombe et al., 2018) and a high global warming potential (86 and 34 for 20- and 100-years times
128 horizons respectively, compared to that of CO₂ emissions, IPCC, 2021, Table 7.15). Given the short lifetime, a
129 decline in CH₄ emissions will rapidly reduce the global warming contribution from CH₄ and help mitigate the
130 impact of climate change at decadal time scale (Cain et al., 2021). However, efforts to reduce CH₄ emissions
131 require a thorough understanding of the dominant CH₄ sources and sinks and their temporal and regional
132 distribution and trends (Stavert et al., 2022).

133 The Paris Agreement, a milestone of the UNFCCC to combat climate change and adapt to its effects,
134 entered into force on November 4, 2016. It asks each signatory to define and communicate its planned climate
135 actions, known as Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs), and to report their progress towards their
136 targets. Next to commitments adopted by countries at COP26, the Global Methane Pledge (GMP) was launched.
137 The goal of the GMP is to cut anthropogenic CH₄ emissions by at least 30 % by 2030 with respect to 2020 levels
138 and is seen as the fastest way to reduce near-term warming and is necessary to keep a 1.5°C temperature limit
139 within reach. Achieving this goal will drive significant energy security, food security, health, and development
140 gains, through specific energy and agriculture defined pathways including innovative actions, national targeted
141 policies, and green climate funds to help smallholder farmers (<https://www.state.gov/global-methane-pledge-from-moment-to-momentum/>). About 150 countries joined this pledge and about fifty
142 already have already developed national CH₄ action plans or are doing so. As agriculture and waste are the main anthropogenic
143 sources for CH₄ emissions, a GMP Food and agriculture pathway and a GMP waste pathway were launched at
144 COP27, foreseeing actions that increase agricultural productivity, while reducing emissions from dairy, food loss
145 and waste by supporting small farmers and innovation (<https://www.state.gov/global-methane-pledge-from-moment-to-momentum/>).

148 Starting in 2024, non-Annex I Parties to the UNFCCC must - given they have sufficient capacities -
149 report formal inventories under the Paris Agreement's Enhanced Transparency Framework following the same
150 guidelines and rules as the Annex I countries (Perugini et al., 2021). Furthermore, they will undergo more
151 stringent reviews than those that previously looked at the Biennial Update Reports (BURs) and NDCs. This will
152 also allow strengthening the robustness of such comparison exercises when using independent atmospheric

153 observations in estimating trends and patterns for regional and national CH₄ emissions (IPCC, 2006). The influx
154 of new inventories will place additional demands on independent emission estimates to help improve and inform
155 National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (NGHGs), particularly in countries with low capacity.

156 With increased focus on CH₄ in climate policy, there is a demand to ensure that planned emission
157 reductions are realized. Further, as non-Annex I countries begin regular reporting of emission estimates under
158 the Enhanced Transparency Framework, there is a need to help countries improve their GHG emission estimates.
159 This has created an active field of research comparing NGHGI and independent estimates. Our analysis builds
160 on the three-year EU funded project CoCO₂, which had as main objective the building of prototype systems for
161 a European Monitoring and Verification Support capacity for anthropogenic CO₂ (and CH₄) emissions
162 (CO₂MVS). In this context, one of the results of the CoCO₂ project was the production of a Blueprint for a
163 decision support system to be used in an eventual CO₂MVS, aiming at informing and attracting attention of
164 diverse climate stakeholders on the use of the results needed beyond research. Therefore, the objectives of this
165 study reflect those of the Blueprint and focus on user engagement. It builds on dialogues with a broad community
166 of users (e.g. scientists, inventory agencies, policy makers), considering their opinions and needs when it comes
167 to comparisons between independent approaches. Furthermore, this study expands beyond the EU to include
168 seven countries that have large anthropogenic and/or natural CH₄ emissions (USA, Brazil, China, India,
169 Indonesia, Russia and the Democratic Rep. of Congo). It examines both Annex I (EU, USA and Russia) and non-
170 Annex I estimates from observation-based BU process-based models and inversions-based TD approaches (using
171 satellite observations) by identifying and explaining differences with official inventory reports submitted by
172 parties to the UNFCCC. The seven countries were chosen based on location and the importance / magnitude of
173 their anthropogenic and natural emissions. By using multiple methodologies, uncertainties can be estimated by
174 looking at the range in both emissions and trends.

175

176 **2. Methods and data**

177 In this work we focus on comparing BU and TD emission estimates. The 'reconciliation process'
178 described in this work is the action of making one dataset comparable with another to assess their consistency.
179 In this respect, we attempt to obtain consistent results from both BU and TD estimates, through harmonization
180 of the results, concepts and definitions. After the reconciliation process, the estimates do not necessarily agree,
181 representing uncertainties in the different methods and datasets. We now describe the key data and methods used
182 in our analysis.

183 **2.1. Verification practices in official UNFCCC NGHGs**

184

185 Quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC) is a key component of NGHGs development. Verification
186 is an additional step and refers specifically to methods that are external to the inventory and apply independent
187 data. There are two main methods of verification: 1) independent inventory-based estimates, 2) observation-
188 based emission estimates.

189 A challenge with comparisons against *independent inventory-based estimates* is that none of them is
190 truly independent as they may rely on, for example, the same activity data reported by a country (Andrew 2020).

191 Experience has shown that performing detailed comparisons (Petrescu et al., 2021, 2023 ~~and~~ [Lauerwald et al., 2024](#))
192 can help clarify differences in system boundaries or even identify errors (Andrew 2020). Improving independent
193 emission inventories also has value, as these are often used in global studies where common methods across all
194 countries are desired.

195 *Observation-based estimates* use observations of atmospheric concentrations and prior fluxes that are
196 then coupled to a transport model. These methods are more complex ~~and~~ computationally expensive ~~and can~~
197 make use of ~~both direct~~ observations ~~and~~ emission inventories.

198 ~~Since most developed countries have reported UNFCCC inventories for decades and these have been~~
199 ~~continually reviewed and refined, the focus of this work is on observation-based estimates. As an increasing~~
200 ~~number of developing countries begin more detailed and frequent reporting, comparisons with independent TD~~
201 ~~approaches will be an important method of verification for those countries.~~

202 The 2019 refinement of the 2006 IPCC guidelines highlighted notable advances in the application of
203 inverse models of atmospheric transport for estimating emissions at the national scale. Building on this progress,
204 they extend the guidance on the use of atmospheric measurements for verification (IPCC, 2019). There are
205 several countries that currently use atmospheric measurements for verification of parts of their inventories.
206 Australia (Luhar et al 2020, AUS NIR, 2023) and New Zealand (Geddes et al., 2021) have estimated regional
207 CH₄ emissions to help better understand the methods and their potential. Germany performs various cross-
208 validation checks with available data (German NIR, 2023), some of which are based on observations. The UK
209 and Switzerland (Annex 6 CHE NIR, 2023) have developed more comprehensive methods based on inversion
210 modeling, covering several GHGs in addition to CH₄. Building on modeling experience, the country reporting
211 confirms that most potential lies in using observations to verify fluorinated gases (Annex 6 UK NIR, 2023), but
212 the large uncertainty in CH₄ emissions gives the potential for verification if a sufficient observation network is
213 used in inversion modeling (Bergamaschi et al., 2018, Thompson et al., 2014).

214 While inversions of CH₄ fluxes are associated with significant uncertainty, so are NGHGI estimates of
215 anthropogenic CH₄ emissions. Furthermore, inversions can provide information on subannual and subnational
216 variations in time and space that may indicate differences in source sector emission estimates. In geographic
217 areas with sufficiently dense ground-based observation networks, the inversions will have more value.

218

219 **2.2. Anthropogenic CH₄ emissions from the NGHGIs**

220

221 Annex I countries report their annual GHG emissions to the UNFCCC in the so-called Common
222 Reporting Format (CRFs) data tables and National Inventory Reports (NIRs). Here, anthropogenic CH₄
223 emissions from the five UNFCCC sectors, incl. [Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry \(LULUCF\)](#) are
224 grouped together. As part of the LULUCF sector, we also have the CH₄ emissions from wetlands, which
225 according to the [IPCC guidelines](#) are defined as managed "where the water table is artificially changed (i.e.
226 lowered or raised) or those created through human activity (e.g. damming a river) and that do not fall into Forest
227 Land, Cropland, or Grassland categories (IPCC, 2014)". Reporting CH₄ emissions from managed wetlands ~~is~~ not
228 mandatory, but if done, parties are encouraged to make use of the 2013 IPCC Wetlands supplement (IPCC,
229 2014). In the EU, if Member States report these emissions, they report not only restored (rewetted) wetlands but
230 also emissions from drained organic and mineral soils (e.g. peatlands, ditches, etc.). These are not large by

231 magnitude but are large by area in the Nordic countries. According to NGHGI data, in 2021, managed wetlands
232 in the EU, for which emissions were reported under the LULUCF (CRF Table 4(II) and Summary 1.As2
233 accessible for each EU country, summed up to 0.21 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, in comparison to total emissions of ~15 Tg
234 CH₄ yr⁻¹. Furthermore, the NGHGIs do not include any lateral fluxes from inland waters but do include biomass
235 burning anthropogenic emissions reported under the LULUCF sector.

236 The presented uncertainties in the CH₄ emission levels of the individual countries and the EU are not
237 always reported in a complete and harmonized format, and therefore were calculated applying gap-filling and
238 harmonization procedures that are used to compile the EU GHG inventory reported under UNFCCC (EU NIR,
239 2023) (see SI and Appendix A1.1 in Petrescu et al., 2023a). The EU uncertainty analysis reported in the bloc's
240 National Inventory Report (NIR) is based on country-level, Approach 1 uncertainty estimates (IPPC, 2006, Vol.
241 1, Chap. 3) that are reported by EU Member States, previously under Article 7(1)(p) of Regulation (EU) 525/2013
242 and since 2023 under Article 26(3) and Annex V(Part 1)(m) of the Governance Regulation (EU) 2018/1999.

243 Non-Annex I countries report their updated NGHGIs to the UNFCCC, including a national inventory
244 report and information on mitigation actions, needs and support received in Biennial Update Reports (BURs). In
245 this study, Brazil, China, Indonesia, India and the Democratic Rep. of Congo (DR Congo) were investigated. For
246 Brazil, information from its fourth BUR (Brazil, 2020) was used, giving both total and sectoral split emission
247 values for years 1994, 2000, 2010, 2012, 2015 and 2016. For China, information from its second BUR Tables 2-
248 10, 2-13, 2-14, 2-15, and 2-16 was used (China, 2019). The information was available for both total and sectoral
249 split emission values for 1994, 2005, 2010 and 2014. Uncertainties for 2014 are available in Table 2-12.
250 Indonesia submitted its third BUR in 2021 (Indonesia, 2021). Indonesian total sectoral CH₄ emissions time series
251 as reported by the 2nd UNFCCC BUR (2001-2016) were revised in the 3rd BUR (2000 and 2019, Table 2). For
252 2017 and 2018, only the agricultural CH₄ emissions were detailed by the 3rd BUR (Fig. 2-24), but the total
253 emissions for these two years were not reported. Uncertainty for 2019 activity data and emission factors (EFs)
254 are the same as reported in the 2nd BUR (2018). The result of the uncertainty analysis showed that the overall
255 uncertainty of Indonesia's National GHG inventory with agriculture and AFOLU-LULUCF (including peat fires)
256 for 2000 and 2019 were approximately 20.0% and 19.9%, respectively. A much smaller uncertainty, 10.4 % for
257 2000 and 13.8 % for 2019, occurred when the FOLUforestry and land use sector (including forest fires), was
258 excluded from the analysis, pointing to the high uncertainty of. This shows that Indonesian emission inventories
259 are highly uncertain when emissions from forest fires in Indonesia are included in the analysis. The DR Congo
260 submitted its first BUR in 2022, and we used timeseries reported for 2000-2018 (Table 12 Congo, 2022). India
261 has submitted three BURs and information on sectoral CH₄ emissions are in each of them only for one year. We
262 compiled information for 2010 from the first BUR (India, 2016), for 2014 from the second BUR (India, 2018)
263 and for 2016 from the third and latest BUR (India, 2021).

264 2.3. Other CH₄ data sources and estimation approaches

265
266 The CH₄ emissions in the EU and non-Annex I countries used in the atmospheric inversions and
267 anthropogenic and natural emissions estimates from various BU approaches and inventories (i.e., UNFCCC
268 CRFs and BURs) covering specific products, sectors and activities are summarized in Table 1. The data and the
269 detailed description of most products (Tables S1 and S2, Supplementary Information) span the period from 1990

270 to 2021, with some of the data only available for shorter ~~time~~ periods. The estimates are available both from peer-
 271 reviewed literature and from unpublished research results from the VERIFY and CoCO₂ projects (Supplementary
 272 Information, SI) and in this work they are compared with NGHGs reported in 2023 (time series for all (Annex
 273 I) or some years (non-Annex I) of the 1990-2021 period). The BU anthropogenic sources are from UNFCCC
 274 NGHGs and three global inventory datasets/models: EDGARv7.0, FAOSTAT/[PRIMAP-hist 2.4](#), GAINS [and](#)
 275 [the TNO CoCO₂ PED18-21 priors emissions datasets for 2010-2018 and 2021](#). In this synthesis, ~~data from~~
 276 FAOSTAT (Tubiello et al., 2022; FAO, 2023) ~~data~~ includes ~~estimates~~ for all economic sectors: Energy, [Industrial](#)
 277 [Processes and Products Use \(IPPU\)](#), Waste and Other, [which](#) are sourced from the PRIMAP-hist v2.4 dataset
 278 (Gütschow et al., 2022) to build emissions indicators on agrifood systems and on the entire economy. Emission
 279 totals from the agrifood domain are computed following the Tier 1 methods of the Intergovernmental Panel on
 280 Climate Change (IPCC) Guidelines for NGHGs. Agrifood systems emissions in FAOSTAT are largely based
 281 on FAO crop, livestock and land-use statistics (Tubiello et al., 2022; FAO, 2023). They are complemented with
 282 activity data from the UN Statistics ~~at~~ Division (UNSD), the International Energy Agency (IEA) and with
 283 geospatial information on drained organic soils and biomass fires (Conchedda and Tubiello, 2020; Prosperi et
 284 al., 2020). [The TNO CoCO₂ PED datasets for 2010-2018 and 2021 are based on the UNFCCC reported data in](#)
 285 [2020 and 2023, respectively for the EU27 countries, on the DACCIWA v.2 dataset \(Keita et al., 2021\) for the](#)
 286 [African continent and the CAMS-GLOB-ANT v5.3 dataset \(Soulie et al., 2024\) for all other countries \(no data](#)
 287 [for COD\).](#)-The methodology is detailed in the CoCO₂ deliverables D2.1 Prior Emission Dataset (PED) 2016 |
 288 [CoCO₂: Prototype system for a Copernicus CO₂ service \(coco2-project.eu\) and D2.2 Prior Emissions data 2021](#)
 289 [| CoCO₂: Prototype system for a Copernicus CO₂ service \(coco2-project.eu\)](#).

290 The analysis focuses on both total and sectoral or partitioned information from both BU and TD
 291 estimates. As detailed in Table 1, not all inversions distinguish between sources but in the following sections we
 292 discuss comparability between BU and TD for both total and partitioned results.

293 *Table 1: Sectors included in this study and data sources providing estimates for these sectors. CAMS stands for*
 294 *Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service. References to data products are found in Table 2 Petrescu et al.,*
 295 *2023^a and Table S1 and S2, SI.*

Anthropogenic (BU) ¹ CH ₄	Natural (BU) ² CH ₄	Regional TD CH ₄	Global TD CH ₄
1. Energy: UNFCCC NGHGI (CRFs and BURs), GAINS, EDGAR v7.0, FAOSTAT/ PRIMAP-hist 2.4 , TNO CoCO₂ PED18-21	Wetlands EU: JSBACH-HIMMELI Global: LPJ-GUESS	No partitions – total emissions FLEXkF_v2023 CIF-FLEXPARTv10.4	Totals and partitioned emissions: MIROC4-ACTM (control and OH varying runs)
2. Industrial Products and Products in Use (IPPU): UNFCCC NGHGI (CRFs and BURs), EDGAR v7.0,	Peatlands, mineral soils: EU: JSBACH-HIMMELI		

¹ For consistency with the NGHGI, here we refer to the five reporting sectors as defined by the UNFCCC and the Paris Agreement decision (18/CMP.1), the IPCC Guidelines (IPCC, 2006), and their Refinement (IPCC, 2019a), with the only exception that the latest IPCC Refinement groups together Agriculture and LULUCF sectors in one sector (Agriculture, Forestry and Other land Use - AFOLU).

² The term **natural** refers here to unmanaged natural CH₄ emissions (peatlands, mineral soils, geological, inland waters and biomass burning) not reported under the anthropogenic UNFCCC LULUCF sector.

FAOSTAT/PRIMAP-hist 2.4_TNO_CoCO2_PED18-21	Global: LPJ-GUESS	CIF-CHIMERE	CAMSv21r1 (NOAA and NOAA_GOSAT runs)
3. Agriculture: UNFCCC NGHGI (CRFs and BURs), GAINS, EDGAR v7.0, FAOSTAT, TNO_CoCO2_PED18-21	Inland waters fluxes EU: lakes, rivers and reservoirs (RECCAP2) Global: lakes and reservoirs ORNL DAAC		TM5-4DVAR (TROPOMI) CTE-CH ₄ (GCP2021)
4. LULUCF: UNFCCC NGHGI (CRFs and BURs) and FAOSTAT	Geological fluxes updated activity (see SI)		CEOS (GOSAT)
5. Waste: UNFCCC NGHGI (CRFs and BURs), GAINS, EDGAR v7.0, FAOSTAT/PRIMAP-hist 2.4_TNO_CoCO2_PED18-21	Biomass burning (GFEDv4.1s)		GEOS-Chem CTM (TROPOMI) for USA only

296 note: Not all models have a version id. Those that have, are used in previous syntheses (Petrescu et al., 2021 and 2023^a).

297 We define natural sources as all sources which do not belong to the anthropogenic partition: wetlands,
298 geological, termites, ocean, inland waters, soils and biomass burning-(Table 2). The BU natural components for
299 the EU were computed as the sum of the VERIFY products (biomass burning, inland waters and undisturbed
300 peatlands plus mineral soils (as described in Petrescu et al., 2021 and 2023) and geological emissions (Etiopie et
301 al. 2019) updated for the VERIFY project). For the seven non-EU emitters, the BU natural fluxes are the sum of
302 wetland emissions (LPJ-GUESS), lake and reservoir emissions (ORNL DAAC), biomass burning emissions
303 (GFED4.1s) and geological emissions (updated activity, SI). The TD natural global estimates were calculated as
304 the sum of all natural partitions reported by the inversions. Adjustments were made to have a consistent
305 comparison between partitions, adding the missing ones from the BU estimates (Table 4). The error bar on the
306 TD natural represents the range of the min/max between inversion estimates.

307 The total regional TD estimates (for EU) and their uncertainties were calculated as the mean and
308 min/max range between FLEXkF_v2023, CIF-FLEXPART and CIF-CHIMERE inversions (see Priors table in
309 Petrescu et al., [2023b2024](#)). For the USA, we considered the optimized emissions from the GEOS-Chem CTM
310 (based on TROPOMI data for 2019) from Nesser et al.; (2023), with the range from the eight members of the
311 inversion ensemble shown as uncertainty (Table 2 in Nesser et al., 2023).

312 For all countries, the total global TD inversion estimates (time series) and uncertainties were calculated
313 over the period 2015-2021 using the mean and min/max between CTE-GCP2021, MIROC4-ACTM both runs,
314 CAMS v21r1 (both runs), and TM5-4DVAR (TROPOMI based). CEOS (GOSAT) provided an estimate only
315 for 2019.

316 The units used in this paper are metric tons (t) [1kt = 10⁹ g; 1Mt (Tg) = 10¹² g] of CH₄. The referenced
317 data for replicability purposes are available for download at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.12818506> (Petrescu
318 et al., [2023b2024](#)). Upon request, the computer code for plotting figures in the same style and layout can be
319 provided. Throughout the paper and mostly for the complex figures, the following ISO3 country codes are used:
320 USA (United States of America), BRA (Brazil), CHN (China), IDN (Indonesia), RUS (Russia), COD (DR
321 Congo) and IND (India). Next to these we also refer to CHE (Switzerland) and AUS (Australia). The European

322 Union consists of 27 Member States, excludes the United Kingdom (UK) and is further abbreviated as EU. All
323 abbreviations are summarized in the SI, Table S5.

324 3. Results

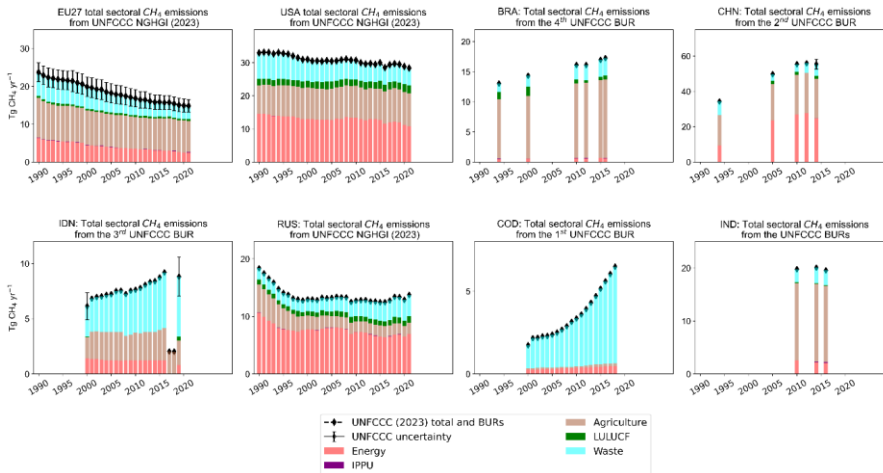
326 3.1. NGHGI official reported estimates (UNFCCC)

328 Figure 1 presents anthropogenic CH₄ emissions reported to the UNFCCC in 2023 from the NGHGI
329 CRFs (EU, USA and Russia) and BURs (Brazil (4th in 2021), China (2nd in 2019), Indonesia (3rd in 2021), DR
330 Congo (1st in 2022) and India (all three BURs). The following section provides additional details for all the
331 countries.

332 For the EU, the total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions in 2021 amount to 14.8 ± 1.8 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ and
333 represent 12.8 % of the total EU greenhouse gas emissions (in CO₂ equivalents, GWP 100 years, IPCC AR5³).
334 CH₄ emissions are predominantly from agriculture (Figure 1, brown), which accounted for 8.3 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ ± 0.8
335 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ or 56 % of the total EU CH₄ emissions in 2021 (incl. LULUCF). Anthropogenic CH₄ emissions from
336 the LULUCF sector are very small for the EU: 0.5 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ or 3 % in 2021, including emissions from biomass
337 burning. The EU data from Figure 1 shows steadily decreasing trends for all sectors with respect to the 1990
338 levels. The reduction in total CH₄ emissions in 2021 with respect to 1990 is 8.9 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ (37 %) at an average
339 yearly rate of -1%.

340 In 2021, the USA reported anthropogenic CH₄ emissions of 28.3 Tg and, compared to 1990, the reported
341 USA CH₄ emissions show a small decrease of 4.6 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, more pronounced for the last two years (2020-
342 2021), with an average reduction rate of -0.5 % per year (Fig. 1 black dotted line). In the USA, the largest share
343 of emissions comes from the energy sector (38%), and next to IPPU and waste, had the highest reductions since
344 1990 (42%, 34% and 26%, respectively). Emissions from agriculture (35%, the second largest sector) and
345 LULUCF increased 16 % and 23 %, respectively. CH₄ emissions have been slowly declining since 1990 but had
346 a notable decrease of 1.5 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ in 2016 compared to 2015, before increasing again and had a second
347 decreasing trend in 2020 and 2021, possibly due to the COVID pandemic. Overall, reported data indicates that
348 reductions in the USA CH₄ emissions have declined more slowly than that in the EU. The EU also has much
349 lower CH₄ emissions than the US on a per capita basis (Figure 2).

³ IPCC AR4 GWP 100 values are still used by the Member States in their NGHGI reporting to the UNFCCC.

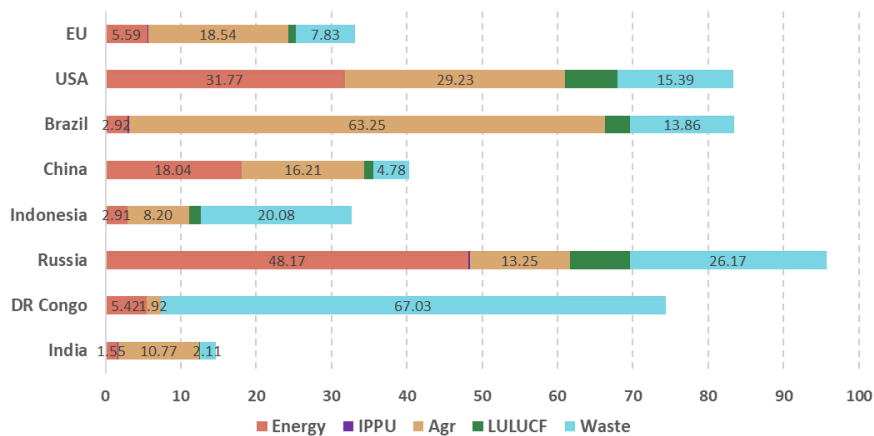


351

352 *Figure 1: Total and sectoral CH₄ emissions (incl. LULUCF) from the UNFCCC NGHGI (2023) CRFs (EU, USA*
 353 *and Russia) and BURs (Brazil (4th in 2021), China (2nd in 2019), Indonesia (3rd in 2021), DR Congo (1st in 2022)*
 354 *and India (all three BURs: 2016, 2018 and 2021). The relative error on the UNFCCC value represents the*
 355 *NGHGI (2023) reported uncertainties computed with the error propagation method (95% confidence interval)*
 356 *and gap-filled to provide respective estimates for each year. Information on Indonesian sectoral CH₄ emissions*
 357 *in 2017 and 2018 are only available for Agriculture. The overall uncertainty of Indonesia's National GHG*
 358 *inventory with AFOLU (including peat fires) for 2000 and 2019 were approximately 20.0% and 19.9%,*
 359 *respectively. In 2014, China reported uncertainty as well (min 5.2 % and max 5.3 %).*

360 The trend in total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions in Brazil is strongly increasing, with 32.5 % more
 361 emissions in 2016 compared to 1994. Given that the Brazilian BUR inventory does not include data between
 362 2001 and 2019, it is difficult to discuss the yearly growth rates. We can only note that maximum +22% in 2010
 363 compared to 2000, minimum increase (+1% 2016 compared to 2015. The agricultural sector (76 % of the total)
 364 was the main driver of the growth, followed by the waste sector (16 % of the total). There are only small CH₄
 365 emissions from the Energy sector (some oil and gas activities). The Brazilian agricultural CH₄ emissions are the
 366 highest of the eight compared to all other countries on a per capita basis (see Figure 2).

367



368

369 *Figure 2: Per capita emissions (kg) intensity per sector based (IPCC, 2006) on reported emissions and*
 370 *population data from the last reported NIRs as follows: 2021 for the EU, USA and Russia, 2016 for Brazil and*
 371 *India, 2014 for China, 2019 for Indonesia and 2018 for DR Congo.*

372 *China's total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions are much larger than the emissions reported by many*
 373 *developed countries or the entire EU (see Figure 1), but on a per capita basis it is only fifth of the eight countries*
 374 *considered (Figure 2). China's CH₄ emissions have grown 61 % from 19954 to 2014, when they reached 3255*
 375 *Tg CH₄. The highest contributions to China's CH₄ emissions in 2014 are from energy (495 %) and agriculture*
 376 *(3640 %). The rapid growth of China's coal demand has important implications for CH₄ emissions from coal*
 377 *minesing or coal-mine methane emissions (Gao et al., 2020). The energy and agriculture sectors have respectively*
 378 *increased by 244-166 % and 54-30 % in 2014 compared to 1994.*

379 *Indonesia's 3rd BUR data (2000 and 2019) show increasing trends in total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions.*
 380 *The time series 2001-2006 derives from the 2nd BUR submitted in 2018. In 2019, Indonesian CH₄ emissions had*
 381 *increased by +44 % compared to 2000, corresponding to 2.6 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, an average yearly increase of 3 %, and*
 382 *the sector which contributes the most to this increase is the waste sector, which nearly doubled its emissions in*
 383 *2019 compared to 2000. According to Qonitan et al., 2021, the major solid waste source in Indonesia is the*
 384 *household sector, which contributed 44-75% to total waste generated. The composition of municipal waste*
 385 *consists of 44% food waste, 16% paper, and 14% plastics. CH₄ emissions from the other sectors remained nearly*
 386 *constant. For 2017 and 2018 the Indonesian 3rd BUR does not report total emissions other than agricultural*
 387 *emissions, which were taken from the report Figure 2-24. The last data point (2019) shows lower total emissions*
 388 *because it belongs to the revised versions of the (3rd) BUR while the previous data points 2000-2016 belong to*
 389 *the 2nd BUR.*

390 *Russia's anthropogenic CH₄ emissions have decreased by -25 % from 1990 to 2021, but most of this*
 391 *decrease happened during the dissolution of the Soviet Union. Since 2000, CH₄ emissions have increased*
 392 *slightly, but remain lower than pre-2000 levels. The decline seen between 1990 and 2000 is primarily due to the*

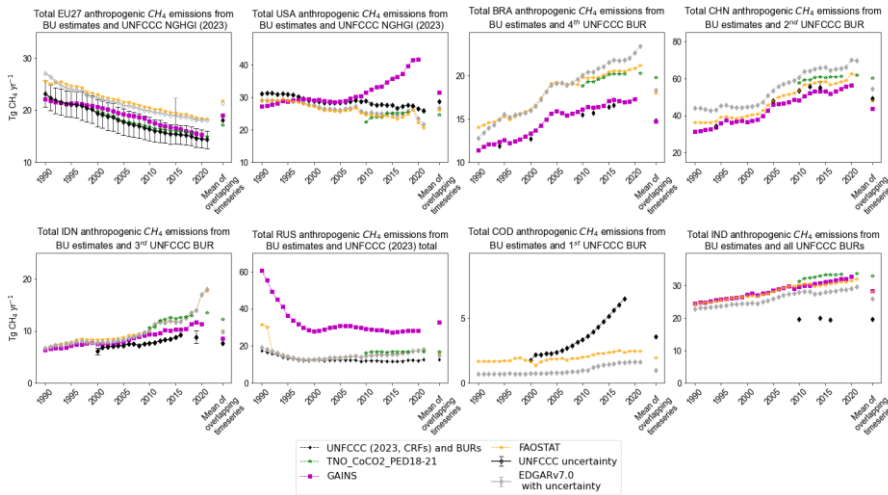
393 agricultural sector (-52 %) and energy (-27 %). At the same time, the waste sector started to increase its emissions
394 (6 %). Between 2001 and 2021, the CH₄ emissions from the agriculture and energy sectors continue to decrease
395 (by 17 % and 11 %, respectively), while the emissions from the waste sector register an additional 76 % increase.
396 IPPU emissions increased by 85 % but remain negligible compared to other sectors. Since the 2000s, LULUCF
397 emissions have also increased, by 53 %.

398 For its first BUR, *DR Congo* submitted emissions from energy, AFOLU (agriculture plus LULUCF)
399 and waste for 2000-2018. Since 2000, the DR Congo total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions have increased by a
400 factor of four. Most of the CH₄ emissions are reported for the waste sector, and account for 90 % of the total
401 emissions. The high percentage of waste emissions in DR Congo is also seen in the per capita emissions (Figure
402 2). Assè-Wassa Sama and Berenger (2023) confirm that between 2000 and 2021, CH₄ emissions, which in 2021
403 represent in DR Congo ~97% of total waste generated emissions, grew at a rate of 4 % yr⁻¹, compared with 2.7
404 % yr⁻¹ for total emissions. This increase was driven by the increase in emissions caused by solid waste disposal
405 (+6.2 %). The CH₄ waste emissions come mainly from the treatment and discharge of wastewater (69 % in 2021,
406 compared with 80 % in 2000), followed by the elimination of solid waste (31 % in 2021, compared with 20 %
407 in 2000). The weight of emissions caused by the elimination of solid waste in the sector's total emissions has
408 nevertheless increased by 11 percentage points between 2000 and 2021 (Assè-Wassa Sama and Berenger, 2023).

409 Each of *India*'s BURs provide detailed information on sectoral CH₄ emissions only for one year. Most
410 of the emissions in India belong to the agriculture sector, amounting to almost 15 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ (in 2016),
411 representing 74 % of the total anthropogenic emissions. However, with only three years of reported data
412 available, no clear or notable trend is observed.

413 3.2. NGHGI compared to other bottom-up estimates

414
415 Figure 3 shows UNFCCC (CRFs and BURs) estimates from EU and seven non-EU countries compared
416 to global bottom-up inventories. The EU and USA show decreasing trends in emissions from all data sets (except
417 for GAINS in the USA), while all the other countries show increasing trends in all datasets. The match between
418 UNFCCC reported emissions and all other data sources is satisfactory, with a few notable exceptions. To note
419 that the TNO CoCO₂ PED18-21 and the FAOSTAT/PRIMAP-hist have very similar trends for all countries
420 except EU, as both FAOSTAT/PRIMAP-hist and CAMS-GLOB-ANT (used in TNO CoCO₂ PED18-21
421 dataset for countries outside EU and Africa) are partly based on EDGAR.
422



423

424

425 *Figure 3: Total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions (excl. LULUCF) from bottom-up (BU) inventories as: UNFCCC*
 426 *NGHGs (2023) of CRFs (EU, USA and Russia) and BURs (Brazil (4th in 2021), China (2nd in 2019), Indonesia*
 427 *(3rd in 2021), DR Congo (1st in 2022), India (all three BURs:2016, 2018 and 2021) and three other global*
 428 *datasets: EDGARv7.0, GAINS (no IPPU) and FAOSTAT (PRIMAP-hist based, except for AFOLU) and*
 429 *TNO_CoCO2_PED18-21. The relative error on the UNFCCC value represents the NGHGI (2023) reported*
 430 *uncertainties computed with the error propagation method (95% confidence interval) and gap-filled to provide*
 431 *respective estimates for each year. China and Indonesia report uncertainties, for 2014 and 2000 and 2019*
 432 *respectively (BUR). Total COD UNFCCC BUR emissions do not include IPPU. The EDGARv7.0 uncertainty*
 433 *is only for 2015 and was calculated according to Solazzo et al., 2021 for EDGARv5.0. The mean of overlapping*
 434 *time series was calculated for 1990-last available year as following: 2021 for UNFCCC NGHGI (2023),*
 435 *EDGARv7.0 and FAOSTAT and TNO_CoCO2_PED18-21 and 2020 for GAINS.*

436 For the EU, the difference between the UNFCCC NGHGI 1990-2020 average and the other three data
 437 sets is less than 5%. TNO_CoCO2_PED18-21 data for EU27 are gap filled data based on the UNFCCC country
 438 reported numbers, therefore it follows closely the trend of the NGHGI data. The difference between EDGAR
 439 and FAOSTAT and the other datasets originates from country-specific emission factors being used in the other
 440 three inventories for the EU, especially for fossil fuel production. As previously discussed, the inventory-based
 441 data sources are consistent with each other for capturing recent CH₄ emission reductions, but they are not
 442 independent because they use similar methodology with different versions of the same activity data (AD)
 443 (Petrescu et al., 2020, Figure 4).

444 For the USA, GAINS reports high emissions after 2010, with strong growth. This divergence is largely
 445 found in the Energy sector, resulting from the EFs used for conventional gas production as well as for
 446 unconventional shale gas extraction, which has increased rapidly since 2006 due to the development of hydraulic
 447 fracturing technology (Supplementary Figure S6-1 in Höglund-Isaksson et al., 2020). The high share of

448 emissions from unconventional shale gas can be explained by the GAINS EFs which, in the absence of published
449 factors, are derived from the residual emissions after having subtracted estimated emissions for oil production
450 and conventional gas production from the total upstream emission estimated by Alvarez et al., (2018, Table 1)
451 As Alvarez et al. 2018 do not specify [emission-factors/EFs](#) by type of gas produced, GAINsv4 splits it based on
452 activity data from other references, International Energy Agency-World Energy Outlook (IEA-WEO, 2018) and
453 [Energy Information Administration \(EIA, 2019\)](#). On the other hand, the NGHGI EF seems to be too low, and
454 this is reflected by the low oil and gas emissions reported by the [Unites States Environmental Protection Agency](#)
455 [\(USEPA 2017\)](#) for 2015, compared to Alvarez et al., 2018 (Supplementary Table S6-3, Höglund-Isaksson et al.,
456 2020). For the USA, total gas production increased by 47 % between 2006 and 2017. Revisions for the
457 agricultural livestock emissions concern updates of AD and reported EFs to statistics from FAOSTAT (2018)
458 and CRFs [\(UNFCCC \(2016; 2018\)\)](#), and a review of available technical abatement options for CH₄.

459 For *Brazil*, UNFCCC and GAINS report emissions of similar magnitudes and trends. The EDGARv7.0
460 and FAOSTAT report on average around 23 % more emissions for the 1990-2021 period, but closely follow the
461 NGHGIs trends. The similarity between trends could be explained by the use of the same EFs following Tier-1
462 IPCC 2006 Guidelines and UNFCCC NIRs (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019), while the higher emissions could
463 appear when using different AD information.

464 For *China* the inventory estimates agree [reasonably](#) with the BUR reported data, with EDGARv7.0
465 showing the highest estimates. According to both GAINS and EDGARv7.0, the primary drivers for growth in
466 Chinese CH₄ emissions are due to a mix of sources, mainly from the IPCC 2006 sector 1.B.1, fugitive emissions
467 from solid fuels activity linked to increased coal mining.

468 In *Indonesia* the three global datasets agree well up until 2010. From 2010, the third-party [datasets show](#)
469 a continued increase in emissions, while the UNFCCC BUR emissions suggest a decline. EDGARv7.0 reports a
470 large increase in emissions from fugitive emissions from solid fuels (coal mining) (IPCC 2006, sector 1.B.1.) at
471 an increased average rate of 19 % per year and has increased by a factor of 152 until 2021 compared to 1990
472 (Figure 3).

473 For *Russia*, GAINS emissions are much higher than NGHGIs and the other two data sets due to the
474 revisions of the assumptions on the average composition of the associated gas generated from oil production
475 based on information provided in Huang et al. (2015). The higher emissions in GAINsv4 might be caused by a
476 greater source from venting of associated gas instead of flaring. GAINsv4 estimates a decline in global CH₄
477 emissions in the first half of the 1990s, primarily a consequence of the [collapse-dissolution](#) of the Soviet Union
478 and the associated general decline in production levels in agriculture and fossil fuels (see regional emission
479 illustrations in figures S2-1 of the SI). In addition, as described by Evans and Roshchanka (2014) and assumed
480 in Höglund-Isaksson (2017), venting of associated petroleum gas declined significantly in Russia due to an
481 increase in flaring. It is unclear why this happened, but a possible explanation could be that the privatization of
482 oil production in this period meant that the new private owners were less willing to take the security risks of
483 venting and invested in flaring devices to avoid potential production disruptions. This hypothesis is however yet
484 to be confirmed (Höglund-Isaksson et al., 2020). FAOSTAT data for the Russian Federation starts in 1992, [but](#)
485 [the former USSR statistics were used prior to 1992 without adjustments and this is the cause of the 1990 and](#)

486 1991 outliers in time series. The slightly increasing trend observed in EDGARv7.0 and FAOSTAT are set by
487 emissions from the Energy sector.

488 For *DR Congo* estimates from GAINS are not available because they only report aggregated emissions
489 from a few African regions. Both FAOSTAT (PRIMAP based) and EDGARv7.0 estimates show similar slowly
490 increasing trends, potentially indicating the use of similar prior statistics (EFs). For non-AFOLU sectors the
491 PRIMAP-hist third party data priority scenario used in FAOSTAT also uses EDGAR data as an input data source
492 explaining similarities in these sectors. On the other hand, UNFCCC BUR data reports a strong increase in
493 emissions, which is due to a rapid growth of CH₄ emissions from the Waste sector, by a factor of four until 2018
494 compared to 2000. This increase happened at an average yearly rate of +8 %, with an initial sharp increase of
495 +30 % between 2000 and 2001. As previously discussed, (section 3.1.) we believe that DR Congo BUR reported
496 waste emissions are improbable and further investigation is needed.

497 For *India*, all bottom-up global inventories show similar trends and magnitudes of anthropogenic CH₄
498 emissions. The emissions of CH₄ averaged across EDGARv7.0, GAINS and FAOSTAT are 67% (2010), 68 %
499 (2014) and 65 % (2016) higher than the Indian BURs. All three BU inventories show an averaged steady increase
500 of 1 % yr⁻¹ between 1990-2020.

501 3.3. NGHGs compared to TD atmospheric-based CH₄ estimates

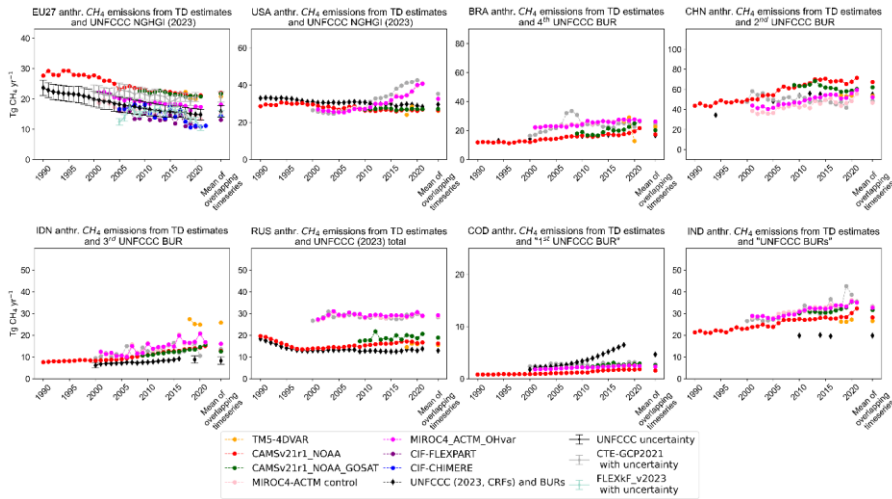
502

503 In Figure 4 we compare the reported TD anthropogenic estimates, after removing natural emissions,
504 with the UNFCCC official reported emissions for the EU and the seven non-EU emitters. The mean column on
505 the right of each chart represents the mean of the overlapping time series (2009-last available year, except for
506 TROPOMI, which was available only for 2018-2020). For the EU, the three regional inversions report total
507 emissions because they do not separate anthropogenic from natural emissions. Therefore, we subtracted from the
508 total the natural emissions as calculated in Petrescu et al., 2023^a which amount to 6.6 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ and are the
509 sum of biomass burning, wetlands, geological and inland water CH₄ emissions. For the global inversions, the
510 anthropogenic estimates were calculated by subtracting from the total fluxes the reported natural partitions as
511 follows: for the two CAMS inversions and TM5-4DVAR (TROPOMI based) the sum of biomass burning and
512 wetlands, for MIROC4-ACTM runs the natural is the represented by the sum of the biomass burning, geologic,
513 ocean, termites, soils and wetlands, for CTE-GCP2021 the sum of the biologic (wetlands + soils) and other
514 (ocean, termites, geological). Because not all inversions report the same partitions, we consider this a coarse
515 comparison, and we detail the harmonization of the natural emissions in the next section (Table 4 and Figure 7).
516 For China, the last BUR is available for 2014, and therefore we used that value. The inversions show total CH₄
517 emissions, including both anthropogenic and natural sources. We present here the total TD estimate against the
518 anthropogenic NGHGs, emphasizing that the difference between BU and TD estimates might be due to the
519 natural emissions.

520

521

522



523

524 *Figure 4: Anthropogenic CH₄ emissions from UNFCCC NGHGI (2023) CRFs (EU, USA and Russia) and BURs*
 525 *(Brazil (4th in 2021), China (2nd in 2019), Indonesia (3rd in 2021), DR Congo (1st in 2022), India (all three BURs:*
 526 *2016, 2018 and 2021) and total-TD estimates as following: for EU anthropogenic regional inversions*
 527 *(FLEXkF_v2023, CIF-FLEXPART and CIF-CHIMERE) and for global inversions anthropogenic estimates*
 528 *calculated as total TD minus natural TD reported partitions (TM5-4DVAR, CAMSv21r1_NOAA,*
 529 *CAMSv21r1_NOAA_GOSAT, CTE-GCP2021 and MIROC4-ACTM both runs) products. The relative error on*
 530 *the UNFCCC value represents the NGHGI (2023) reported uncertainties computed with the error propagation*
 531 *method (95% confidence interval) and gap-filled to provide respective estimates for each year. China reports*
 532 *uncertainties for 2014 (min 5.2 %, max 5.3 %) and Indonesia reports for 2000 and 2019-2019, 20 % and 19.9*
 533 *% respectively. Total COD UNFCCC BUR emissions do not include IPPU. The last available years are CIF-*
 534 *CHIMERE (2022), TM5-4DVAR, CIF-FLEXPART and CTE-GCP2021 (2020) and FLEXkF_v2023, MIROC4-*
 535 *ACTM both runs OHvar and control, UNFCCC CRFs, and CAMSv21r1 NOAA and NOAA_GOSAT both runs*
 536 *(2021). The mean of overlapping time series was calculated for 2009-2021, except for TM5-4DVAR (2018-2020).*

537

538 In the EU, the average anthropogenic CH₄ emissions from global inversions for 2009-2021 were 19 Tg
 539 CH₄ yr⁻¹ with a min-max range of 15-23 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, in line with previous estimates published in Petrescu et al.
 540 (2021, 2023a) and the recent RECCAP2 European GHG budgets study of Lauerwald et al., 2024. This is
 541 consistent with the UNFCCC NGHGI (2023) which report for the same period anthropogenic emissions of (15.8
 542 ± 1.8 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹), noting the uncertainty ranges of both estimates overlap. There is good agreement in trends,
 543 but with inversions showing a larger year to year variability. The regional inversions, for the same period, report
 544 averaged emissions of 14 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ with a min-max range of 13-20 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹. We note that the regional
 545 inversions tend to report slightly lower emissions than the at-of-global inversions, closer to the UNFCCC
 546 estimates. One reason could be that regional inversions use better-constrained regional observations (e.g. ICOS,
 547 not just NOAA), have higher spatial resolution, and may thus better resolve the transport. However, they may
 548 still have problems with the regional boundary conditions.

549 For the USA, averaged over the period 2009-2021, inversions indicate anthropogenic CH₄ emissions of
550 30 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ with min-max range of 26-35 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, well in line with the UNFCCC NGHGs (2023) which
551 for the same period report anthropogenic total emissions of 29 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹. The trends observed in TD products
552 are slightly increasing after 2010, except for CAMS which shows no trend (Figure 4). The striking discrepancy
553 between the trends from CAMS and those from MIROC4-ACTM and CTE-GCP2021 are most likely caused by
554 the increasing oil and gas emissions from the Eastern USA (Permian Basin). The same increasing trend is also
555 captured by GAINS (Figure 3). In their runs, both MIROC4-ACTM and CTE-GCP2021 use oil and gas priors
556 from GAINS, while CAMS uses priors from EDGAR (Figure 3). We discuss further differences in having CTE-
557 GCP2021 run with both EDGAR and GAINS oil & gas prior estimates in the SI.

558 For Brazil, inversions yield an average (range) of anthropogenic CH₄ emissions of 23 (17-27) Tg CH₄
559 yr⁻¹, slightly higher than the UNFCCC estimate of 16.6 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹. The two CAMS inversions have trends
560 which match the trend of the UNFCCC reports estimates.

561 For China, approximately 80 % of the CH₄ emission increase (21.5 Tg yr⁻¹) during 2000 – 2015 was
562 from fugitive emissions from coal (mines), consistent with what GAINS and EDGAR reports (Figure 3). The
563 TD estimates mostly agree with the BURs, except for CAMS inversions which show 10 to 20 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ higher
564 emission than the other inversions. Both MIROC4-ACTM runs (control and OH inter-annual variability (IAV)
565 varying run; Patra et al., 2021) are in line with the BURs. Trend wise, all inversions agree on a slight decrease
566 after 2013 and show increased emissions after 2019, with a slight decrease after 2013 which picks up again after
567 2018 seen in all inversion trends.

568 For Indonesia, most TD results agree on the trend and show a slight increase in emissions. A similar
569 trend is also seen by the BURs. However, the CAMS inversions show linear increased trends while the other
570 inversions have a more variable trend. Regarding the East Asian estimates, MIROC4_ACTM inversion simulates
571 higher fluxes compared to the other inversions. Only recently they found that annual total East Asian emissions
572 have lowered more significantly than in Patra et al. (2016) or Chandra et al. (2021), therefore new runs with
573 updated input set-ups are currently being investigated.

574 For Russia, the estimates from the two MIROC4-ACTM runs and CTE-GCP2021 are both in the same
575 range as the BU GAINS estimate (see Figure 2) from 2000 onwards (between 30-40 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹) but does not
576 show such a strong decrease as GAINS from 1990 to 2000), while CAMS runs report about 10 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ lower
577 emissions than the other two inversions, matching the UNFCCC estimates. The reason for higher estimates
578 reported by CTE-GCP2021 and MIROC4-ACTM is most likely the use of oil and gas priors from GAINS.

579 For DR Congo, inversions show the same slightly increasing trend, similar to that of UNFCCC BURs,
580 without the abrupt increase after 2010. The inversions appear to confirm the overreported growth in emissions
581 from waste.

582 For India, all the TD anthropogenic estimates agree well on increased trends and magnitudes. In
583 contrast, UNFCCC reporting does not show any trend, but given the insufficient data from BURs, a plausible
584 conclusion cannot be drawn.

585

586 3.4 Sectoral attribution of CH₄ emissions in TD products

587

588 In some cases, inversions can be used to partition emissions to different sources. Table 2 shows the
589 partitions as originally reported by some of the inversions, which we name here “unharmonized partitions”. A
590 straightforward, direct comparison of the fluxes is not possible because of the different ways each inversion
591 allocates and groups the natural/anthropogenic fluxes. For example, not all inversions report soil fluxes as done
592 by MIROC4-ACTM and CTE-GCP2021 (together with wetlands); or report the biomass burning fluxes
593 separately from anthropogenic emissions (MIROC4-ACTM and TM5-4DVAR). Rice is also sometimes
594 allocated to natural emissions. Termites, oceans and geological fluxes are sometimes reported separately
595 (MIROC4-ACTM) or grouped in “Other” (CTE-GCP2021, TM5-4DVAR). Regarding the anthropogenic
596 emissions, TM5-4DVAR reports them as other, providing a separate partition for rice. Figure 5 shows the
597 UNFCCC NGHGI anthropogenic total reported estimate (diamond) next to all TD estimates. All global
598 inversions report total and disaggregated partitions, while the regional inversions report only the total emissions
599 (green column).

600

601 Table 2: Unharmonized partitions originally reported by inverse products:

Inversion	Anthropogenic	Rice	Soils	Wetlands	Ocean	Termites	Geological	Biomass burning	Other
CAMSv2Ir1_N OAA and NOAA_GOSAT (both runs)	Yes (as Other)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes (in Other)	Yes (in Other)	No	Yes	Yes**
MIROC4- ACTM (control and OH var)	Yes (Agr, Waste, Oil/Gas, Biofuel, coal)	Yes (in Agr.)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (separated)
CTE-GCP2021*	Yes (Agr, waste, fossil fuel, biofuel, biomass burning)	Yes (in Agr.)	Yes (BIO)		Yes (as Other)	Yes (as Other)	Yes (as Other)	as anthr.	Yes (Ocean, Termites, Geological)
CEOS (GOSAT)	Yes (Livestock, rice, waste, coal, oil, fire)	as anthr.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes (seeps)	as anthr.(but separate)	only seeps
TM5-4DVAR (TROPOMI)	Yes (as Other)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes (as other)	Yes (as other)	Yes (as Other)	Yes	Yes**
GEOS-Chem CTM (TROPOMI for USA)	Yes (Livestock, Oil Gas, Landfills, Wastewater, Other anthro (rice))	as other anthr.	No	Yes	Yes (as Other)	Yes (as Other)	Yes (as Other)	Yes (as Other)	Yes***

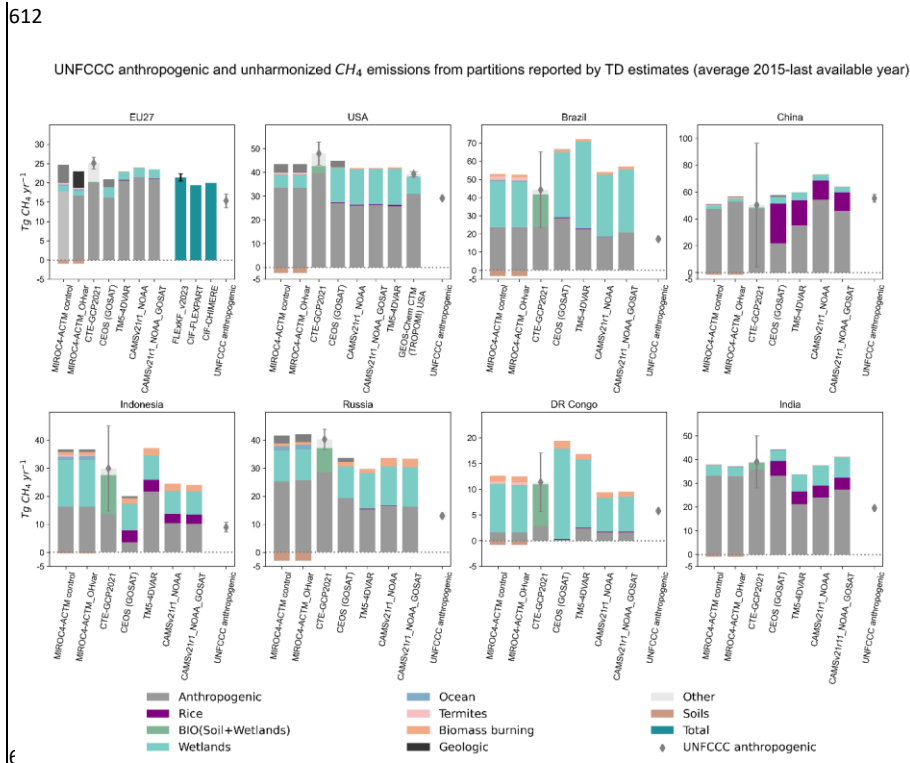
602 *CTE-GCP2021 partitions refer to anthropogenic, bio and other.

603 ** In TM5-4DVAR (similar to the CAMSv20 set-up and CAMSv2Ir1), the "Other" partition includes anthropogenic sources
604 except for the rice paddies. It also includes the small fluxes from termites, oceans, soil sink, geological etc.). More details on
605 priors are found in Petrescu et al., [2023b2024](#), Priors table.

606 ***Named Other biogenic

607

608 Figure 5 shows the UNFCCC NGHGI anthropogenic total reported estimate (diamond) next to all TD
 609 estimates. All global inversions report total and disaggregated partitions, while the regional inversions report
 610 only the total emissions (green column).
 611



614 Figure 5: Total (green) and disaggregated anthropogenic and natural CH₄ emissions from TD estimates
 615 compared to UNFCCC NGHGI (2023) anthropogenic emissions (incl. LULUCF) (diamond) for the EU and
 616 seven global emitters outside the EU (USA, Brazil, China, Indonesia, Russia, DR Congo and India). The
 617 UNFCCC anthropogenic value represents the sum of all five IPCC sectors (Energy, IPPU, Agriculture,
 618 LULUCF and Waste). The partitions reported by the TD global inversions are detailed in Table 2. The relative
 619 error on the UNFCCC CRF value represents the NGHGI (2023) reported uncertainties computed with the error
 620 propagation method (95% confidence interval) and gap-filled to provide respective estimates for each year (see
 621 Petrescu et al., 2023, Appendix). China value and uncertainties (min 5.2 %, max 5.3 %) are for 2014 only and
 622 Indonesia uncertainties for 2019, 19.9 %. For the USA CEOS (GOSAT) we used the Nessar et al., 2023 total
 623 uncertainty of min 1.1 and max 1 Tg yr⁻¹. CTE-GCP2021 provides uncertainties for each partition, but here the
 624 uncertainty of the total flux is shown. FLEXkF_v2023 reports the relative uncertainty (%) of the posterior
 625 emissions. The plotted data represents the average between 2015 and last available year as follows: CIF-
 626 CHIMERE (2022), TMS-4DVAR, CIF-FLEXPART and CTE-GCP2021 (2020) and FLEXkF_v2023, MIROC4-

627 ACTM -OH var and control both runs, UNFCCC CRFs, and CAMSv21r1 -NOAA and NOAA GOSAT runs
 628 both runs (2021). GEOS-Chem CTM (TROPOMI) USA reports only for 2019 (Nesser et al., 2023).

629 Since the different models define sectors differently, also whether they are natural or anthropogenic,
 630 harmonization is required to make them comparable. CTE-GCP2021 reports the net natural land-biosphere flux
 631 “BIO flux” (soil+wetlands), while other inversions report wetlands and soil separately. Rice emissions are
 632 sometimes a part of the agriculture component (anthropogenic partition) (MIROC4-ACTM, CTE-GCP2021)
 633 while CEOS (GOSAT) and GEOS-Chem CTM (USA TROPOMI) report separate partitions for rice in
 634 anthropogenic emissions, while CAMS reports rice separate from anthropogenic and natural. Same for the
 635 biomass burning - CTE-GCP2021 and CEO report it as part of anthropogenic emissions, while GEOS-Chem
 636 CTM as part of Others. The rest of the inversions report it separately; this different allocation makes comparisons
 637 for these two sources challenging. To facilitate comparisons between all TD products, we aggregated and
 638 harmonized the partitions in three main categories, as summarized in Table 3 and Figure 6. The dark green
 639 columns in Figure 6 show the total flux for regional EU inversions which did not report partitions.
 640

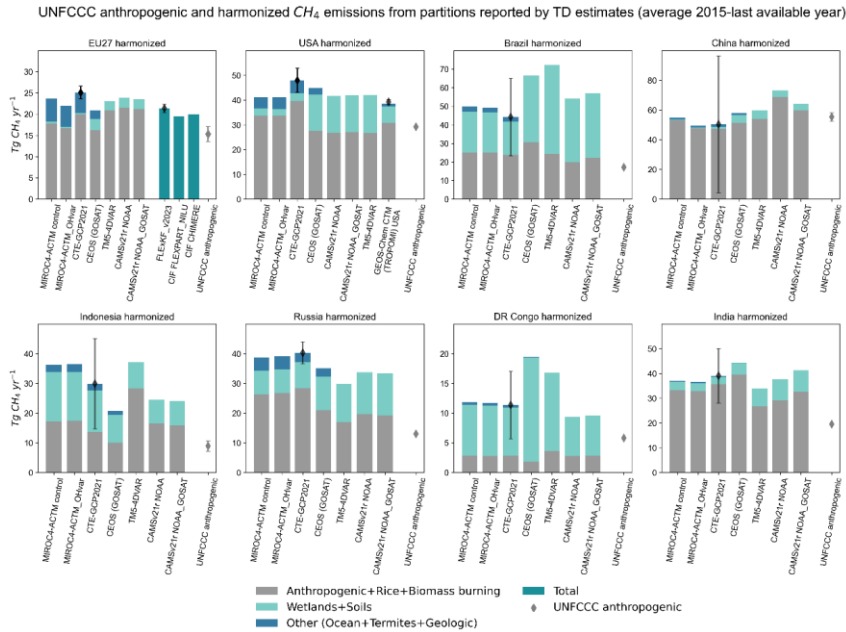
641 *Table 3: Harmonized partitions from inverse products:*

Inversions	Anthropogenic + Rice + Biomass burning			Soils + Wetlands		Other (Ocean + Termites + Geological)		
	Anthropogenic	Rice	Biomass burning	Soils	Wetlands	Ocean	Termites	Geological
<u>CAMSv21r1 NOAA A and NOAA GOSAT runs CAMSv21r1 (both runs)</u>	= Other	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
MIROC4-ACTM (control and OH var)	Yes ((Agr (livestock + rice), Waste, Oil/Gas, Biofuel, coal)	In Agr.	Yes, summed to anthr.	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
CTE-GCP2021*	Yes (Agr (rice is in), waste, fossil fuel, biofuel, biomass burning)	in Agr.	In anthr.	Yes (BIO)		Yes (Other)		
CEOS (GOSAT)	Yes (Livestock, rice, waste, coal, oil, fire)	In anthr.	In anthr.	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
TM5-4DVAR (TROPOMI)	Others + Rice+ BB	In anthr.	Yes, summed to anthr.	In Other	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
GEOS-Chem CTM (TROPOMI) USA	Yes	In anthr.	In other biogenic	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

642 *CTE-GCP2021 partitions refer to Anthropogenic, Bio and Other. Other fluxes are imposed

643

644



645

646 *Figure 6: Total (green) and disaggregated anthropogenic and natural CH₄ emissions from TD estimates*
 647 *compared to UNFCCC NGHGI (2023) anthropogenic emissions (incl. LULUCF) for the EU and seven global*
 648 *emitters (USA, Brazil, China, Indonesia, Russia and DR Congo). The UNFCCC anthropogenic value represents*
 649 *the sum of all five IPCC sectors (Energy, IPPU, Agriculture, LULUCF and Waste). The partitions reported by*
 650 *the TD global inversions are harmonized and detailed in Table 3. The relative error on the UNFCCC CRF value*
 651 *represents the NGHGI (2023) reported uncertainties computed with the error propagation method (95%*
 652 *confidence interval) and gap-filled to provide respective estimates for each year (see Petrescu et al., 2023 et,*
 653 *Appendix). In 2014, China UNFCCC value and reported uncertainties (min 5.2 % and max 5.3 %) are for 2014*
 654 *while Indonesia reported uncertainties for 2019, 19.9 %. India UNFCCC value is for 2016. CTE-GCP2021*
 655 *provides uncertainties for each partition, but here we plotted the uncertainty of the total flux. FLEXkF_v2023*
 656 *reports the relative uncertainty (%) of the posterior emissions. The plotted data represents the average between*
 657 *2015 and last available reported year as follows: CIF-CHIMERE (2022), UNFCCC CRFs, TM5-4DVAR, CIF-*
 658 *FLEXPART and CTE-GCP2021 (2020) and FLEXkF_v2023, MIROC4-ACTM both runs, and CAMSv21r1 both*
 659 *runs (2021). GEOS-Chem CTM (TROPOMI) USA reports only for 2019 (Nesser et al., 2023).*

660 **3.5. 3.4.2. Reconciliation-Comparison of BU and TD CH₄ estimates**

662 Figure 7 summarizes the total CH₄ fluxes for the EU and the seven global emitters as following: BU
 663 anthropogenic sources disaggregated per sector, BU natural emissions, TD natural emissions from regional and
 664 global inversions, and total emissions from global TD estimates (see 2.3 and SI for description of all data
 665 products). **This figure brings all the estimates together to demonstrate the reconciliation process.**

666 Inversions currently report in a way that makes comparison between BU natural and TD natural sources
667 difficult. TD products differ in the sources they report (Table 2) or they allocate them to different categories. We
668 consider natural the following sources: biomass burning, soils, oceans and termites (often reported by inversions
669 under category “Other”), wetlands, geological and lakes & reservoirs (or freshwaters). Due to lack of
670 information, biomass burning emissions were considered among the natural sources, recognizing that in regions
671 like tropical forests, some of these events are influenced by human intervention. To make the products from
672 Figure 7 comparable, we added the missing BU information from TD, and vice-versa, presented in hatched
673 pattern. In this way, comparison between BU and TD natural emission estimates is consistent regarding the
674 “apples to apples” comparison, but became “apples of different flavors” (see Table 4):

675

676 Table 4: BU and TD natural partitions as presented in Figure 7:

Product name	TD natural partitions			
	r Reported	Missing* <u>(not in priors)</u>	<u>Not reported**</u>	<u>Missing was added from:</u>
CAMsv21r1_NOAA	BB, wetlands, “Others” include anthropogenic and was not used	termites, oceans, soils, lakes and reservoirs, geological	<u>termites, oceans, soil sink</u>	MIROC4-ACTM (termites, oceans and soils), DAAC lakes and reservoirs, geological, updated for <u>in</u> this study (<u>see SI</u>)
CAMsv21r1__NOAA_GOSAT	BB, wetlands, “Others” include anthropogenic and was not used	termites, oceans, soils, lakes and reservoirs, geological	<u>termites, oceans, soil sink</u>	MIROC4-ACTM (termites, oceans and soils), DAAC lakes and reservoirs, geological, updated for <u>in</u> this study (SI)
MIROC4-ACTM control	BB, wetlands, oceans, termites, soils, geological	lakes and reservoirs		DAAC lakes and reservoirs
MIROC4-ACTM_OHvar	BB, wetlands, oceans, termites, soils, geological	lakes and reservoirs		DAAC lakes and reservoirs
CTE-GCP2021	soils + wetlands (BIO), termites and oceans	<u>lakes and reservoirs</u>	<u>BB, geologic</u>	<u>DAAC lakes and reservoirs</u> BB from GFEDv4.1s
CEOS (GOSAT)	Fires (BB), Seeps and wetlands	termites, oceans, soils, lakes and reservoirs		MIROC4-ACTM (termites, oceans and soils), DAAC lakes and reservoirs
TM5-4DVAR (TROPOMI)	BB and wetlands	oceans, termites, soils, lakes and reservoirs, <u>geological,</u>	<u>termites, oceans, soil sink</u>	MIROC4-ACTM (termites, oceans and soils), DAAC lakes and reservoirs, geological, <u>updated in this study (see SI)</u>
Product name	BU natural partitions			
	<u>available</u> Reported	Not reported**	<u>added</u> -Added from	
<u>Biomass burning</u> <u>Lakes and reservoirs</u> <u>Wetlands</u>	GFEDv4.1s DAAC LPJ-GUESS	soils termites oceans	MIROC4-ACTM	

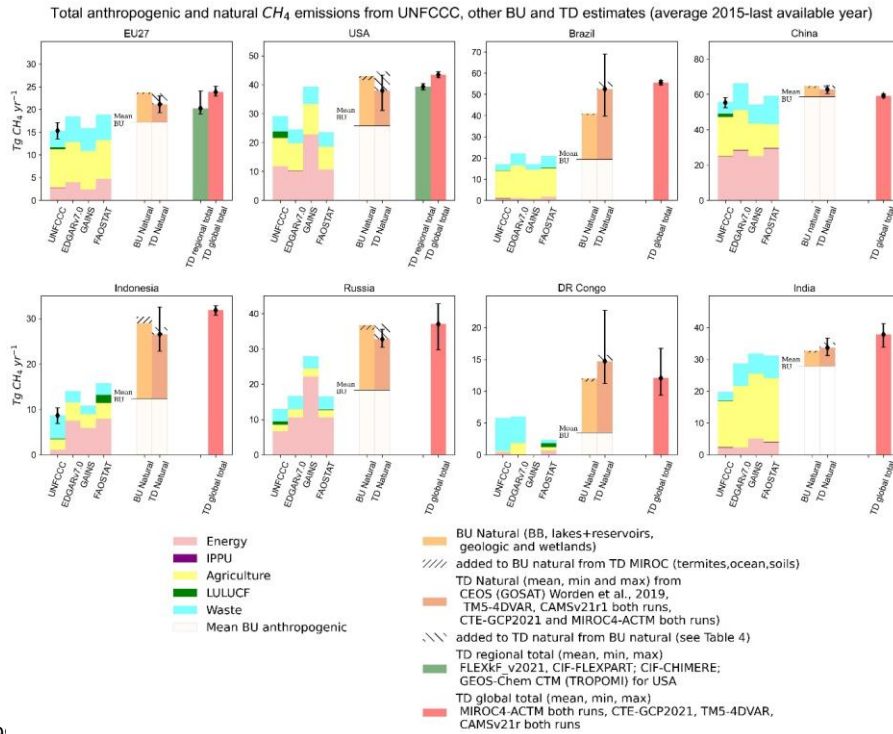
Geological	Geological <u>emissions</u> updated in this study (SI)			
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677 note: in TD products termites, oceans emissions are imposed from existing literature
678 * missing = not in the priors, presented as hatched pattern in the figure “\\”
679 **Not reported** = data not available, presented as hatched pattern in the figure “//”
680

681 For an easier visual comparison and reconciliation between BU and TD estimates, we added the mean
682 of the BU anthropogenic estimates (off-white), underneath the BU and TD natural estimates. To note that for
683 some countries (e.g. Russia, DR Congo) this area might look like subtracted from the BU natural estimates, but
684 this is due to the sign convention used in this study (sink = negative and source = positive). In most cases, the
685 missing soil sink emissions are represented as a downward area.

686 We note that for most countries, the sum of the anthropogenic and natural components matches those
687 of the TD global total estimates. This gives confidence that, to a certain extent and albeit with inconsistencies
688 between products, BU anthropogenic emission estimates are accurate and consistent with the observation-based
689 estimates and can be used to reconcile with the atmospheric-based estimates. We note from Figure 7 that in all
690 Annex I countries (EU, USA, Russia) and China, TD and BU natural emissions are consistent with each other,
691 after including the missing sources, as detailed in Table 4. For Brazil and DR Congo, the gap between the two
692 natural components is highly significant, while less for Indonesia and India. We hypothesize that mapping of the
693 wetland extent might cause these inconsistencies.

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700 Figure 7: Total anthropogenic and natural CH_4 emissions from BU and TD estimates presented as average of
 701 2015-last available year for EU and seven global emitters (USA, Brazil, China, Indonesia, Russia, DR Congo
 702 and India). The BU anthropogenic estimates belong to: UNFCCC NGHGI (2023) CRFs and BURs (incl.
 703 LULUCF) as totals and sectoral shares, EDGARv7.0, GAINS and FAOSTAT/PRIMAP-hist. The relative error
 704 on the UNFCCC CRF value represents the NGHGI (2023) reported uncertainties computed with the error
 705 propagation method (95% confidence interval) and gap-filled to provide respective estimates for each year (see
 706 Petrescu et al., 2023^a, Appendix). In 2014, China reported an uncertainty of min 5.2% - max 5.3%. The BU
 707 Natural emissions for the EU are the sum of the VERIFY products (biomass burning, inland waters, geological
 708 and peatlands plus mineral soils as described in Petrescu et al., 2021 and 2023^a, Appendix A2.1). For the seven
 709 non-EU emitters, the BU Natural fluxes are the sum of wetland emissions (LPJ-GUESS), lakes and reservoirs
 710 fluxes (ORNL DAAC, Johnson et al., 2022), geological (updated activity in SI) and biomass burning emissions
 711 (GFED4.1s). The TD natural global estimates are presented in Table 1. The uncertainty on the TD natural
 712 emissions is the min/max of all estimates. To both BU and TD estimates, missing (as not reported or not included
 713 information in the priors) was added (see Table 4). The natural emissions have been plotted starting at the mean
 714 of the BU anthropogenic estimates, to retain comparability across the natural emission estimates, but also
 715 compare with the total TD estimates. The total regional TD estimates (for EU) belong to the mean and min/max
 716 of FLEXkF_v2023, CIF-FLEXPART and CIF-CHIMERE and for USA GEOS-Chem CTM (TROPOMI) for the
 717 year 2019 (Nesser et al., 2023). The total global TD inversions represent the average of the 2015-last available

718 year of the mean and min/max of CTE-GCP2021, MIROC4-ACTM both runs, CAMS v21r both runs and TM5-
719 4DVAR. The last available years are 2022 for CIF-CHIMERE, 2021 for EDGARv7.0, FAOSTAT, MIROC4-
720 ACTM both runs, UNFCCC CRFs, and CAMSv21r1 both runs, and 2020 for CIF-FLEXPART and CTE-
721 GCP2021. TM5-4DVAR partitioned data is only available between 2018 and 2020.

722 However, [Figure 7](#) should be interpreted with caution because in Europe, natural emission priors come
723 from regional ecosystem model simulations, where drained peatland, drainage ditches areas, and pristine areas
724 are lumped together. Therefore, if both LULUCF sector and natural BU emissions are included in the total budget
725 estimation, there is some overlap and possible double counting. Especially, ecosystem model estimates of ‘soil
726 sink’ or ‘inundated soil emissions’ may overlap with NGHGI managed peatland forest soil category (or
727 agricultural soils). The separation of emissions into different categories requires further clarification together
728 with inventory makers. Furthermore, it should be assessed which emissions should be called natural and which
729 anthropogenic (e.g., LULUCF, Agriculture) by inversions.
730

731 ~~4. Discussion and recommendations on reconciliation procedures~~ Challenges comparing 732 bottom-up and top-down estimates 733

734 An off-the-shelf comparison of BU and TD estimates is not possible, with a variety of adjustments
735 needed for comparability, often without the necessary data. Broadly speaking, inversions have not necessarily
736 been designed to compare directly to NGHGIs. A valid comparison should have consistent system boundaries
737 and perform a full uncertainty analysis to determine whether differences between estimates are statistically
738 significant given the constraining observational data.

739 The two most common issues limiting comparability are geographic scope and system boundaries
740 (Petrescu et al., 2021, 2023; McGrath et al., 2023, Andrew 2020; Grassi et al., 2018). The **geographical scope**
741 of inverse modelling versus inventory estimates should be controllable, but it can be challenging for small
742 countries or coarse inversions. Inversions are generally performed on a spatial grid and require aggregation, in
743 line with how official NGHGIs are reported (EEA, 2013). Inconsistent system boundaries have implications in
744 comparing the inventory- with inversions-based estimates for **source attribution**, e.g., anthropogenic vs. natural.
745 Most emission inventories aim at estimating anthropogenic emissions, while most inversions estimate both
746 anthropogenic and natural emissions. This is a particularly important issue for CH₄ where, globally, natural
747 emissions are of similar magnitude as anthropogenic emissions, with larger variations at regional scales, mainly
748 due to seasonality (i.e. wetlands). Thus, methods are needed to separate the anthropogenic flux from the total
749 flux (Deng et al. 2022, and above section 3.4). Similar issues arise with fossil CO₂ (Andrew 2020) as different
750 datasets can report different emission sources. Standardization procedures, such as The Community Inversion
751 Framework (CIF; Berchet et al., 2021), may help resolve some of these issues.

752 When comparing inventory- and inversion-based emissions, there are difficulties in analyzing **trends**
753 due to different time scale **variability**. Inventory-based approaches report emissions at the annual level, but often
754 do not consider interannual variations. Further, the Paris Agreement is set around five-yearly Global Stocktakes,
755 which indicates a desire to average trends, prioritizing the multi-annual trend over IAV, canceling out extremes
756 from both weather and socio-economic fluctuations. Inversion models, on the other hand, include variations over

757 a wide range of timescales, but in particular for IAV (e.g. OH and weather) that remains challenging to assess.
758 For an effective comparison, inversion-based estimates need to have IAVs statistically removed to make
759 comparisons with NGHGs easier (e.g., 5-year or 10-year averages or trend analysis). Additionally, averages of
760 ensembles of inversions may mask underlying differences and trends in individual inversions. Many research
761 projects make use of multi-model ensembles (Saunois et al., 2020; Deng et al. 2022, Lauerwald et al., 2024,
762 Zhang et al., 2024). From a scientific perspective, the model ensemble is often considered a more robust estimate
763 of the mean and uncertainty, as often individual estimates make errors due to some limitations and biases, while
764 in an ensemble, these errors are averaged out. From an inventory perspective, individual model comparisons may
765 be more efficient, as various input variables or processes can be compared directly to the inventory. Currently,
766 most inventory comparisons in UNFCCC NGHGI (e.g. UK, Switzerland) use single-model comparisons.

767 A strength of inversions is that they provide high temporal and spatial resolutions, which are not directly
768 capitalized when comparing with inventories. CH₄ from the fossil-fuel industry can contribute to large releases
769 to the atmosphere over a short period of time, given the large number of uncontrolled emission point sources in
770 oil and gas (O&G) and coal production areas worldwide (Jackson et al., 2020). Such processes include leakage
771 from landfills, spontaneous events from oil and gas production activities, so-called uncontrolled gas well blasts
772 etc. (Jacob et al., 2016, 2022). These uncontrolled events are difficult to include in the national inventories
773 leading to a potential underestimate of emissions (Massackers et al., 2016, 2022). Recently, under the CoCO₂
774 project (<https://coco2-project.eu/>) a hot-spot satellite detection interactive map (Published studies on hot spot
775 detection (CO₂, CH₄) - uMap (openstreetmap.fr) was released as a user-centric interface featuring published
776 studies on hot-spot detection between 2010 and 2021. It allows for advanced filtering by year, gas, activity,
777 geographical zone, and country.

778 A key challenge when comparing inversions with NGHGs is ensuring independence from the assumed
779 prior emissions. A more valid comparison between inversions is made when all inversions use the same priors.
780 In this context, we define as priors input data in the form of atmospheric observations (e.g. satellite retrievals,
781 ground-based observation networks (ICOS)) and/or bottom-up emissions datasets (e.g. EDGAR, GAINS) used
782 as input parameters to the inverse models. A key issue is the prior emission estimate. Theoretically, a constant
783 emission prior could be used, but this would require a dense observational network. Because of sparse
784 observations, inversion modelers assess how far observations have shifted the prior emissions to the posterior
785 emissions, preferably incorporating a full uncertainty analysis. The posterior emissions depend to a varying
786 extent on the prior that was used; the extent of this dependency is determined by the number of observations
787 used in the inversion, by how the observations relate to the emissions (governed by atmospheric transport) and
788 by the uncertainties assigned on the prior emissions and the observations. Thus, better quantified uncertainties
789 for the prior emissions would lead to more robust inversions ~~would be more robust with better quantified~~
790 ~~uncertainties for the prior emissions. Whereas the comparison of an inversion with NGHGs or other inversions~~
791 ~~would be made more robust by having more information on how dependent the posterior estimate is on the prior.~~
792 This stresses the need for more systematic in-situ data measurements of fluxes necessary to produce adequate
793 prior data (Bastviken et al., 2022) and synthesized atmospheric observations with their uncertainties to robustly
794 constrain the inversions.

795 It is not generally clear how inventory uncertainties can be compared to inversion uncertainties; however, it is
796 important that both methods provide comprehensive **uncertainty estimates**. The prior emissions used as input
797 into an inversion model should have robust uncertainty estimates, particularly with correlations in space and
798 time. This allows a full inversion system to better characterize how observations reduce uncertainty when
799 estimating the posterior estimate. Very few inversions routinely report this information. The inventory-based
800 emission estimate will additionally have uncertainty estimates, though these statistics may not be sufficiently
801 robust for verification purposes (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine 2022). There are
802 often offsets in inversion models, because of systematic inconsistencies between observations and chemistry-
803 transport models, which may make trends more robust than instantaneous estimates. Though, estimating
804 uncertainty in trends also requires understanding the correlation structure in time.

805 A key challenge for comparisons between NGHGI and independent estimates is to understand the
806 reasons for differences. In the case of BU comparisons, obtaining sufficient activity data and emission factors
807 should enable an accurate reconciliation of different estimates. However, in practice, it is often not possible to
808 obtain the necessary data. For inversions it is more complex. Often a close collaboration may be needed between
809 the inversion modeler and NGHGI team (e.g. UK NIR). If an inversion indicated a different trend in agricultural
810 CH₄ emissions, it is necessary to track down if this is a real difference or artifact of the inversion system. After
811 this, the spatial and temporal data in the inversion could be useful to the NGHGI team to locate what is causing
812 the difference. Many of the comparisons we show in this article ultimately remain comparisons, with detailed
813 reconciliations likely requiring intensive country-level case studies.

814 **5. Data availability**

815

816 Data files reported in this work which were used for calculations and figures are available for public
817 download at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.12818506> (Petrescu et al., 2023b,2024). The data are reachable with
818 one click (without the need for entering login and password), with a second click to download the data, consistent
819 with the two click access principle for data published in ESSD (Carlson and Oda, 2018). The data and the DOI
820 number are subject to future updates and only refer to this version of the paper. The raw gridded data is available
821 upon request, directly from the data providers, as detailed in the Supplementary Information, Table S2.

822 **6. Conclusions**

823

824 We analyzed data from both anthropogenic and natural CH₄ fluxes, from both BU and TD observation-
825 based estimates (Table 1). BU estimates show that the largest sectors depend on the country: Agriculture (EU,
826 Brazil, India), Energy (US, China, Russia), and Waste (Indonesia, DR Congo). The inversions attribute most of
827 the fluxes to the anthropogenic emissions, with tropical countries having a larger share of natural emissions
828 (wetlands). The EU and the seven other large emitters analyzed here contribute an anthropogenic emission of
829 173 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ (sum of last UNFCCC reported year, Figure 1,2), representing roughly half of the total global
830 anthropogenic emissions (386 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹) reported by EDGARv7.0 in 2021. For comparison, the average of
831 the anthropogenic component from the atmospheric global inversions (MIROC booth runs, CTE-GCP2021,
832 CEOS and CAMS booth runs) is 181 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ (Figure 5).

833 [We performed comparisons to the UNFCCC NGHGs using the BU and TD data.](#) Comparisons between
834 UNFCCC and BU products (Figure 3) [reveal some](#) deviations, [particularly related](#) to assumptions [on gas/oil](#)
835 [emissions \(e.g., GAINS for Russia and the USA\) and waste \(e.g., Indonesia, DR Congo\).](#) [It is more challenging](#)
836 [to compare](#) BU and TD estimates, due to [different attribution to source activities \(Table 2 and Figure 5\) and](#)
837 [different priors used in the simulations \(Petrescu et al., 2023b2024, Priors Table\).](#) The comparison between
838 UNFCCC and the TD estimates (Figure 4) agrees largely with the findings of Deng et al. (2022) who applied
839 different methodologies to calculate natural emissions. In most cases, the gap between the anthropogenic BU
840 fluxes from inventories and total TD fluxes can be largely explained by the natural fluxes (Figure 7). It is difficult
841 to draw [definitive](#) conclusions [on](#) emissions trends seen by inversions, [as the adjustments for natural emissions](#)
842 [and IAV and seasonal variability might strongly influence trends.](#) [Despite this,](#) given that, in most cases, the
843 UNFCCC BURs reports are incomplete for the non-Annex I parties (China, Indonesia, DR Congo) it is important
844 to acknowledge that the TD estimates might become a useful way to complement inventories and play a role in
845 the validation of the BU estimates.

846 There is still a pressing need for reporting of uncertainties in both prior and posterior emissions, even if
847 some TD inversions do report it as the standard deviation of ensemble members (CTE-GCP2021 and
848 FLEXkF_v2023, Figure 4). The use of a variety of priors across different inversion systems can also inhibit
849 comparability with inventories and between inversions. Generally, inversions are still ill-constrained by
850 observations (only 60 sites globally plus satellites) and the prior flux uncertainty for each of the 54 regions is
851 large. Therefore, the monthly results could be more ill-constrained than the annual totals. Even if comparisons
852 between CH₄ inversion estimates and NGHGs are currently uncertain because of the spread in the inversion
853 results, TD inversions inferred from atmospheric observations represent [partly](#) independent data against which
854 inventory totals and trends can be compared, considering the [recommendationsmost encountered issues](#)
855 [discussed -listed at the end of in](#) section 4.

857 **7. Appendix**

858
859 All the information regarding models/methods descriptions is available in the Supplementary Information (SI)
860 file. Appendices A1 and A2 in Petrescu et al., 2023a contain detailed information about Table 1 products. Further
861 information on new products together with references and contact details are found in Tables S1 and S2 in SI.

862
863 The tables with priors used by all the products and the matrix highlighting the comparability issues identified in
864 section 4 are found in the Zenodo data repository, Petrescu et al., [2024](#).

866 **Supplementary Information (link)**

869 **Author contributions**

870
871 AMRP designed research and led the discussions; AMRP wrote the initial draft of the paper and edited all the
872 following versions; GPP drafted the initial version of section 4, edited the final version of this manuscript,

873 contributed to the revised version and advised on the context; PP processed all the original EU data submitted to
874 the VERIFY portal; RLT, SH, BM, DaB, RL, PKP, AT, RMA, LHI, FNT, GC and JG edited and gave consistent
875 comments and suggestions to the initial manuscript; [DaB, RL and RMA provided input to the final revised](#)
876 [version](#); all co-authors are data providers and contributed to subsequent versions of the manuscript by providing
877 specific comments and information related to their data in the main text, providing as well product descriptions
878 for the Supplementary Information file.

879 **Competing interests**

880 At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of Earth System Science Data.

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