



1 Methane Inversion inter-Comparison (MICA): A Multi-model 2 Estimation of Regional and National Emissions in Asia

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31 **Abstract** Accurate quantification of methane (CH₄) emissions from countries/regions is essential for effective
 32 emission reduction policy, but large uncertainties persist due to sparse observations and divergent bottom-up
 33 inventories. This study establishes a top-down Asian regional methane emission dataset based on the Methane
 34 Inversion inter-Comparison for Asia (MICA), using an ensemble of seven inversion systems (five global, two
 35 regional) assimilating surface in-situ measurements and GOSAT satellite retrievals for 2010–2021 under a
 36 common protocol. Validation against independent surface, aircraft, and balloon data demonstrates substantial
 37 improvements in model performance after inversion, with significant reductions in model-observation Root Mean
 38 Square Error (RMSE). Posterior estimates indicate an overall reduction of prior emissions by ~15% for the study
 39 area, with the largest decline in East Asia (~25.8%). Though a systematic downward adjustment by the inversion
 40 ensemble is observed for most top emitting-countries, the median differences between posterior and prior
 41 emissions vary across countries, from -0.9% (Mongolia) to -16.2% (China). Sectoral results suggest increasing
 42 emissions from waste management across developing Asian countries and a fourfold increase in Indonesian coal-
 43 mine emissions. Comparisons with National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (NGHGs) reveal systematic
 44 underreporting by several nations—notably India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh. We find that inter-model spread is
 45 driven largely by horizontal resolution (Coefficient of Variation 10–20%), and that joint assimilation of satellite
 46 and surface observations is an effective option for constraining emissions in regions with sparse monitoring or



complex land–sea geometries. This dataset provides a foundation for regional and national methane budget assessment in Asia and inverse model development, with robust consistency across multiple inversion systems and independent observations. The dataset generated in this study is openly available via Zenodo (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.22699291>, Wang et al., 2026).

1 Introduction

Global atmospheric methane (CH_4) concentration has been rising at a record speed since 2014 (Nisbet et al., 2016, 2019), with the fastest growth occurring over the last four years from 2020 through 2023 (Lan et al., 2022). This recent acceleration follows a period of stabilization from the late 1990s to 2006 (Dlugokencky et al., 1998, 2003; Etheridge et al., 1998) and a renewed increase that began in 2007 (Dlugokencky et al., 2009, 2011; Nisbet et al., 2014). Since the Industrial Revolution, methane levels have nearly tripled, making it the second most impactful anthropogenic greenhouse gas after carbon dioxide (CO_2) (IPCC, 2023). The increase in atmospheric methane concentrations poses a significant challenge to achieving global climate goals, particularly those outlined in the Paris Agreement (Fletcher and Schaefer, 2019; Tanimoto et al., 2025). Methane is a potent greenhouse gas, which affects the Earth's energy budget through its direct radiative effect and indirect influence on ozone, water vapor, and CO_2 , makes its reduction critical for near-term climate stabilization (Jackson et al., 2024; O'Connor et al., 2022; Watts et al., 2026).

Methane emissions originate from a variety of natural sources, including wetlands, inland freshwaters, geological sources, and biomass burning, as well as anthropogenic activities (Saunois et al., 2020). A substantial portion of this global increase is driven by anthropogenic emissions from agriculture (ruminant livestock and rice farming), fossil fuel exploitation, and waste management (Jackson et al., 2024; Schaefer, 2019; Schaefer et al., 2016). Asia is a prominent contributor to these emissions (Niwa et al., 2024; Stavert et al., 2022; Yin et al., 2021). Recent studies have evaluated Asia's methane budgets using various methods. Bottom-up estimates, which rely on inventories, indicated that East Asia was a net source of $67.3 \pm 14 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ between 2000 and 2012, with anthropogenic emissions accounting for 88.8% (Ito et al., 2019). A comprehensive assessment for 1970–2021 further highlighted that anthropogenic sources were responsible for 84% of total emissions in the 2010s, with notable regional variations (Ito et al., 2023). To evaluate and improve these bottom-up inventories, top-down approaches that use atmospheric measurements are essential. Data from ground-based observations and satellite remote sensing, such as Greenhouse gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT) (Kuze et al., 2009) and Tropospheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) (Hu et al., 2016), are used to constrain inverse models to estimate emissions in part of Asia region (Liang et al., 2024; Nomura et al., 2021; Patra et al., 2016; Qin et al., 2025; Thompson et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2024). Wang et al. (2019) estimated average top-down CH_4 budgets for the period 2009–2018 as 63.40, 45.20, and 64.35 $\text{Tg CH}_4 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for East, Southeast, and South Asia, respectively. While these top-down estimates provide critical insights, they frequently show divergences at finer scales, indicating persistent uncertainties (Janardanan et al., 2024; Kirschke et al., 2013; Saunois et al., 2016). Addressing these uncertainties is key to effective climate action, especially as nations like China are taking steps to control methane emissions (You, 2024). Significant challenges persist, notably the uncertainties inherent in computational models and the discrepancies observed between disparate data sources (Houweling et al., 2017; Jacob et al., 2022). Multi-group intercomparisons, which compare results from multiple models and data sets,



85 have proven effective for yielding robust large-scale flux estimates (Chiao et al., 2010; Houweling et al., 2015).
 86 Such studies have been conducted on the global scale (Jackson et al., 2024; Kirschke et al., 2013; Saunio et al.,
 87 2016, 2020, 2025) and within specific regions, such as Europe (Ioannidis et al., 2026; Monteil et al., 2020) and
 88 North American (Poulter et al., 2025). However, a comprehensive multi-group intercomparison study for the
 89 broader Asian region has yet to be reported, although contributions have been made at the subregional level
 90 (Kondo et al., 2025).

91 Hence this study presents the first multi-model intercomparison specifically for the Asia region. Our research,
 92 conducted under the protocol for Methane Inversion inter-Comparison – evaluation of methane emissions at
 93 regional and national scale for the Asian region (MICA), addresses the following key objectives:

- 94 1. Assess the constraints of atmospheric measurements on country-level methane fluxes, with a particular
 95 focus on long-term emission trends.
- 96 2. Evaluate methane emissions in key Asian regions (East Asia, South Asia, Southeast Asia, and major
 97 Asian emitting-countries).
- 98 3. Investigate sectoral anthropogenic and natural emissions, their associated uncertainties, and the added
 99 value of satellite-based XCH₄ observations in constraining methane fluxes.
- 100 4. Build an open-access dataset of top-down emission estimates, useful for inverse model development,
 101 gridded inventory benchmarking, and comparison with national inventory reports.

102 Due to rapid changes in Asian methane emissions and expanding observation networks, international
 103 intercomparisons intend to be conducted every five years depending on participant availability and interest.

104 2 Data and Methods

105 2.1 The MICA Intercomparison Protocol

106 The MICA protocol was established to provide a standardized framework for evaluating and intercomparing
 107 CH₄ flux inversions. Participants are required to use a common set of atmospheric observations and priori CH₄
 108 emissions, as detailed in Sections 2.2 and 2.3, respectively. Participants are required to submit prior and
 109 posterior fluxes and their corresponding uncertainties for gridded fluxes, national totals, and simulated
 110 concentrations. The regional inversion domain spans from 60°E to 152°E and 15°S to 54°N. Although spatial
 111 resolution remains at the discretion of the participants, submission of national and regional emission totals is
 112 mandatory adhering to the standardized masks defined in Section 2.4. Additionally, a dedicated validation
 113 dataset has been established to evaluate model performance. Participants conducting global or regional flux
 114 inversion simulations are encouraged to cover the 12-year period from January 1, 2010, to December 31, 2021.
 115 The experimental protocol utilizes the following CH₄ datasets:

116 Experiment 1 (Mandatory): Baseline simulation utilizing surface CH₄ observations (SURF).

117 Experiment 2 (Optional): Simulation utilizing GOSAT XCH₄ retrievals (GOS).



Further details regarding atmospheric measurements, prior emissions, participating models, inversion techniques, and simulation outputs are provided in the following subsections.

2.2 Atmospheric Observations and region definition

The observation data used in this study were collected from various sources to provide a comprehensive view of CH₄ observations in Asia. The dataset includes the XCH₄ data of GOSAT (NIES Level 2 product, v.03.05) (Someya et al., 2023; Yoshida et al., 2011), as well as the recent versions of the ObspackCH₄ ground-based data sets (detailed in Table S1 in the supplementary): obspack_ch4_1_GLOBALVIEWplus_v5.1_2023-03-08 and obspack_ch4_1_NRT_v5.1_2023-02-21 (Schuldt et al., 2023). To supplement these, additional ground-based observations were incorporated from a network of stations across Asia, including four sites from NIES (National Institute for Environment Studies, Japan) seven sites from CMA (China Meteorological Administration), one from KMA (Korea Meteorological Administration), and four from the WDCGG (World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases) with a detailed list provided in Table S2. Figure.1 shows the locations of the measurement sites in the domain including sites used in inversion systems and independent validation. The distribution of GOSAT observations is shown in Figure. S1 in the supplementary. Given that many of the CMA stations are located in areas with intense local emissions, their measurements were filtered to distinguish between regional-scale data and locally contaminated readings. Only data classified as "regional events," which are representative of concentrations over a wide area, were used in our analysis, ensuring the robustness of our conclusions regarding large-scale CH₄ levels. This filtering methodology is described in more details by (Zhang et al., 2022a; Zhang et al., 2022b). The study area encompasses three regions: East Asia (China, Mongolia, Japan, South Korea, and North Korea), South Asia (India, Pakistan, Nepal, Maldives, Bhutan, Bangladesh, and Afghanistan), and Southeast Asia (Indonesia, Malaysia, Cambodia, Myanmar, Laos, Baker Island, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Timor-Leste, and Vietnam).

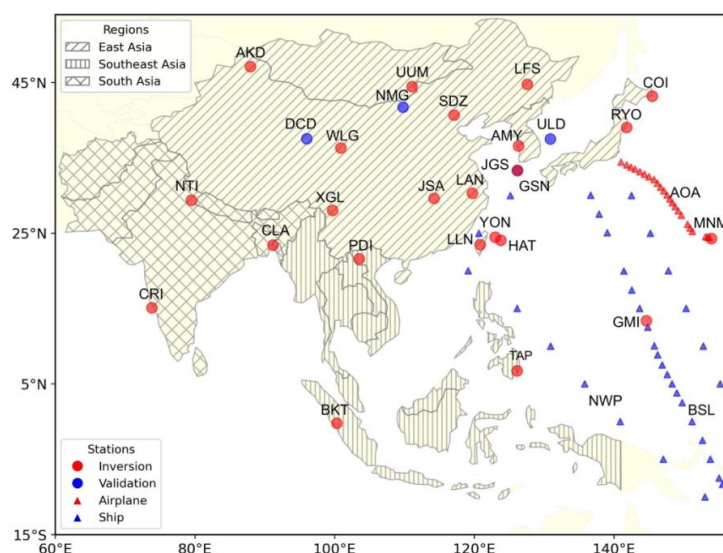


Figure 1: Locations of observation stations used in this study. Shaded hatching patterns indicate the regions East Asia, Southeast Asia, and South Asia. Airplane measurements are denoted by AOA, ship-based measurements by BSL and NWP,



143 and balloon measurement sites by DCD and NMG. The country map was generated with ne_110m_admin_0_countries v5.1.1,
 144 (download from <https://www.naturalearthdata.com/>).

145 2.3 Prior Emission Inventories

146 We specify the prior CH₄ fluxes prescribed for this experiment. These data are provided at a monthly temporal
 147 resolution and on a 0.1° × 0.1° global spatial grid, along with their original source resolutions to accommodate
 148 the specific requirements of different modeling systems. The prior fluxes combine a synthesis of multiple
 149 inventories, the components of which are detailed in Table 1. Anthropogenic emissions are based on the
 150 EDGAR v7 (Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research) inventory (Crippa et al., 2021), with
 151 monthly variations derived from EDGAR v6 data. To prevent double-counting, agricultural waste burning is
 152 excluded from the total flux, as it is already accounted for in the biomass burning data. Natural sources include
 153 VISIT (Vegetation Integrative Simulator for Trace gases) model simulations for global wetland emissions and
 154 soil sinks (Ito and Inatomi, 2012). Biomass burning emissions are from the Global Fire Assimilation System
 155 (GFAS) (Kaiser et al., 2011). Finally, climatological estimates for termites, oceans, geological sources, and
 156 freshwater are based on datasets from the Global Carbon Project (GCP) (Saunois et al., 2025). Spatial
 157 distributions of prior fluxes are presented in Figure S2.

158 **Table 1:** Prior CH₄ fluxes used in this study.

Category	Data source	Spatiotemporal resolution		Time period
Coal, Agriculture, Waste, Biofuels, Oil, Gas & Industry	EDGAR v7.0	0.1° × 0.1°	Monthly	2009-2021
	EDGAR v6.0			
Fire	GFAS	0.1° × 0.1°	Daily	2009-2021
Wetland, Soi sink	VISITv20230209b	0.5° × 0.5°	Monthly	2009-2021
Termites	(Saunois et al., 2025)	0.1° × 0.1°	Monthly	Climatology
Ocean	(Weber et al., 2019)	0.1° × 0.1°	Monthly	Climatology
Geological	(Etiope et al., 2019)	0.1° × 0.1°	Monthly	Climatology
Freshwater	(Saunois et al., 2025)	0.1° × 0.1°	Monthly	Climatology

159

160 2.4 Atmospheric Models and Inverse Systems

161 This study utilizes a multi-model ensemble of six state-of-the-art atmospheric transport models and their
 162 respective inverse modeling systems, including CTE-CH₄, GEOS-Chem, LMDZ, MIROC4-ACTM, NTFVAR,
 163 and NTLB. These systems employ diverse transport models, meteorological data, and inversion algorithms
 164 ranging from 4D-variational (4D-Var) to Ensemble Kalman Filters (EnKF) and Bayesian approaches to
 165 optimize regional and global emissions.

166 The CTE-CH₄ (CarbonTracker Europe-CH₄) system utilizes the TM5 transport model (Krol et al., 2005) driven
 167 by within ERA5 meteorology, within an ensemble Kalman smoother framework (Peters et al., 2005; Van Der



168 Laan-Luijkx et al., 2017). It optimizes anthropogenic and wetland+soil fluxes separately globally. The system
 169 employs 150 ensemble members and a 5-week lag window to account for long-range transport (Bruhwiler et al.,
 170 2014; Tsuruta et al., 2017).

171 The nested regional version of the GEOS-Chem model (v12.9.3) is applied for the Asian domain. The
 172 simulation is driven by MERRA-2 meteorological data (Gelaro et al., 2017) at $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$ horizontal
 173 resolution with 47 vertical layers. Monthly CH_4 fluxes from 600 spatial clusters, generated using a Gaussian
 174 mixture model algorithm (Turner and Jacob, 2015), are optimized with the analytical solution to the Bayesian
 175 inversion, assimilating high-density satellite and in situ data streams (East et al., 2025; Liang et al., 2023, 2024;
 176 Zhang et al., 2022b).

177 The LMDZ-SACS system is part of the Community Inversion Framework (CIF), enabling unified variational or
 178 ensemble-based optimizations (Berchet et al., 2021). It couples the LMDz general circulation model (Hourdin et
 179 al., 2006) with the Simplified Atmospheric Chemistry System (SACS) to simulate oxidation processes (Pison et
 180 al., 2009). CIF enables efficient parallelization and the assimilation of multi-species data, including isotopes
 181 (Thanwerdas et al., 2024). In this study, we employ a 4D-Var approach using the M1QN3 optimization
 182 algorithm. Prior error correlations are prescribed with spatial length scales ranging from 500 to 1,500 km and
 183 temporal scales from 1 to 6 months with sector-specific values detailed in Montenegro et al. (2025).

184 The MIROC4-ACTM model is an atmospheric chemistry-transport model within a time-dependent Bayesian
 185 approach to estimate monthly emissions across 54 land regions (Patra et al., 2016). The model is nudged to
 186 JRA-55 reanalysis to ensure realistic transport (Patra et al., 2018). It includes a posterior loss correction method
 187 to balance the global budget and has been extensively validated against GOSAT and aircraft observations
 188 (Belikov et al., 2024; Chandra et al., 2021).

189 The NTFVAR (NIES-TM-FLEXPART-variational) system is a high-resolution 4D-variational inversion
 190 framework that couples the Eulerian model NIES-TM for global background transport with the Lagrangian
 191 model FLEXPART for near-field sensitivity (Belikov et al., 2016; Maksyutov et al., 2021). The system uses
 192 ERA5 and JRA-55 (Kobayashi et al., 2015) meteorological data, with a 50 km spatial correlation length to
 193 ensure smoothness. The inversion optimizes six source categories via bi-weekly scaling factors. Its robust
 194 performance has been validated through sensitivity tests and extensive budget studies (Janardanan et al., 2024;
 195 Wang et al., 2019, 2025a).

196 The NTLB (NIM-TM-LTM-BAY) regional system couples the WRF (v4.3) meteorological model (Grell et al.,
 197 2005) with the STILT Lagrangian particle dispersion model (Lin et al., 2003). WRF is initialized with NCEP
 198 FNL data and provides 27 km resolution footprints over the study domain. The system uses a Bayesian
 199 framework to estimate monthly fluxes, with a 500 km prior correlation length (Ren et al., 2024; Yadav and
 200 Michalak, 2013).



Table 2 and Table 3 further summarize the key atmospheric model and inverse configuration parameters for the six models. These parameters define how each system handles uncertainties, spatial/temporal relationships, and the observational constraints that drive the posterior flux estimates.

Table 2: Summary of atmospheric inverse modeling systems.

Model System	Institute	Atmospheric model	Horizontal/vertical resolution	Model type	Inverse Method	Meteorology
CTE-CH4	FMI	TM5	Region-wise (global) 1° × 1° (regional)/ 25 levels	Eulerian	EnKF	ERA5
GEOS-Chem	WLU	GEOS-Chem v12.9.3	0.5° × 0.625° (regional)/ 47 levels	Eulerian	Bayesian	MERRA-2
LMDZ	LSCE	LMDz v6	2.5° × 1.27° (global) / 79 levels	Eulerian	4D-Var (CIF)	ERA5
MIROC4-ACTM	JAMSTEC	MIROC4-ACTM	2.8° × 2.8° (global) / 67 levels	Eulerian	Bayesian	JRA-55
NTFVAR	NIES	NIES-TM / FLEXPART	3.75° × 3.75° (global) (NIES-TM), 0.1° × 0.1° (FLEXPART)/ 42 levels	Coupled Eulerian-Lagrangian	4D-Var	ERA5/ JRA-55
NTLB	NIM	WRF-STILT	0.27° × 0.27° (regional)/ 35 levels	Coupled Eulerian-Lagrangian	Bayesian	NCEP FNL

Table 3: Inverse configuration and uncertainty parameters.

Model System	Window/ Lag	Prior Flux Uncertainty	Correlation Length (Space/ Time)	Model-Data Mismatch	Optimized fluxes
CTE-CH4	7-day/ 5 weeks	80%	300 km/ No time corr.	4.5–75 ppb	sectoral (anthropogenic and wetland + soil sink)
GEOS-Chem	1 month	50%	No	~18 ppb for satellite and ~30 ppb for surface data (location dependent)	total
LMDZ	12-month	100% for total flux	500 km/ 1 month	3–15 ppb (remote), >30 ppb (urban)	sectoral
MIROC4-ACTM	1 month	30% for total flux	Regional (54 regions)	10–50 ppb (location dependent)	total



NTFVAR	2 weeks	30% of anthropogenic and 50% of wetland	50 km/ 2 weeks	15–30 ppb (site-specific)	sectoral (anthropogenic and wetland)
NTLB	1 month	30%	500 km/ 1 month	28 ppb	total

207

208 2.5 Dataset products and Data Processing

209 An overview of the dataset products and their simulation periods is provided in Table 4, complemented by a
 210 detailed description provided in the Readme file. The dataset repository provides a comprehensive collection of
 211 standardized outputs from each participating inverse model. These include high-resolution monthly spatial
 212 fluxes (grid_[exp]_[model].nc), easily accessible integrated monthly national or regional/sectoral summaries
 213 (emis_[exp]_[model].csv or emis_[exp]_[model].nc), ensemble mole fraction concentrations
 214 (conc_[exp]_[model].csv), and independent model validation records (val_[exp]_[model].csv). All participating
 215 models performed a baseline simulation (SURF), constrained by surface CH₄ observations. In addition, four
 216 models submitted results for a supplementary simulation (GOS), which used GOSAT XCH₄ retrievals. Sectoral
 217 information is not uniformly reported or included across all participating inverse models, as detailed below.
 218 Two submissions were provided by NIES: NTFVAR using the proposed prior emissions, and NTFVAR2 using
 219 the GCP prior for comparison. The MIROC4-ACTM simulations used surface observations from the World
 220 Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG), following the configuration described in Belikov et al. (2024).
 221 The GEOS-Chem GOS simulations used GOSAT (UoL, v9.0) data (Parker and Boesch, 2020).

222 **Table 4:** Overview of dataset products generated by the participating inverse models.

Model	Experiment exp1(SURF) exp2(GOS)	Gridded Fluxes grid*.nc	Country Totals emis*.csv emis*.nc	CH ₄ mixing ratios conc*.csv	Validation val*.csv	Sectorer
CTE-CH4	SURF, GOS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
GEOS-Chem	SURF, GOS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
LMDZ	SURF, GOS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
MIROC4-ACTM	SURF	✓	✓	✓	✓	
NTFVAR	SURF, GOS	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
NTFVAR2	SURF	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
NTLB	SURF	✓	✓	✓	✓	



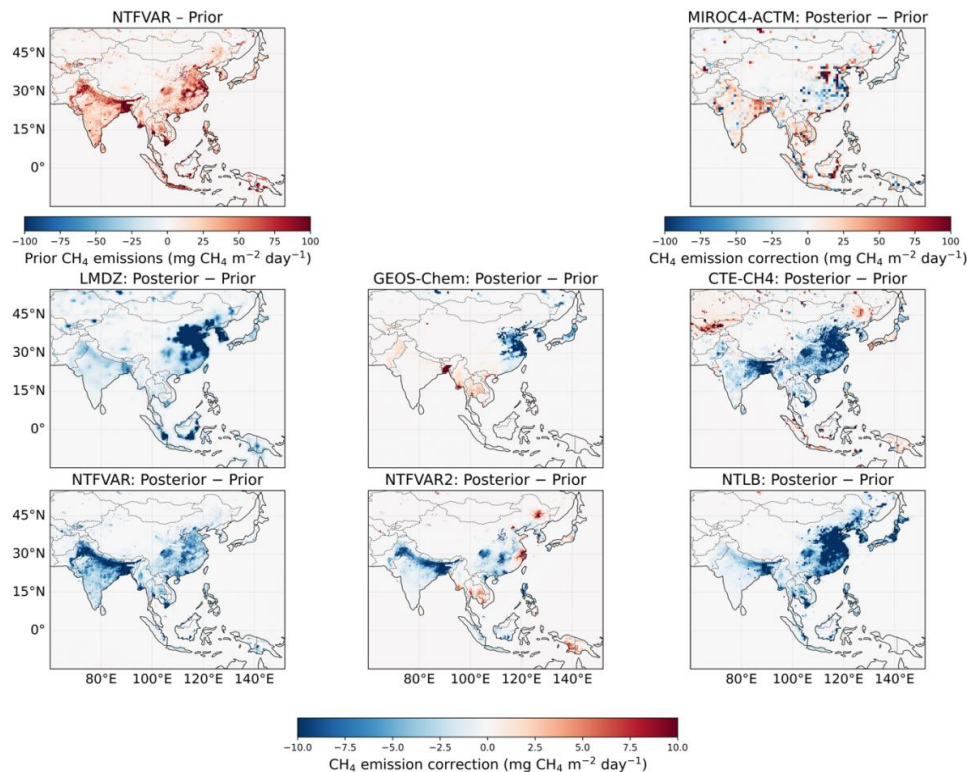
National total emissions were aggregated from grid-based flux data using a standardized country mask to enable cross-model intercomparison. In this study, we employed the `countrymask_eez`, which represents the union of global national boundaries and Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZ) (Marine Regions, 2018). The primary reason for selecting the `countrymask_eez` is the presence of significant offshore CH₄ emissions within the study domain, particularly from natural gas production. Several countries in the Asian region, including Indonesia, the Philippines, Vietnam, and Malaysia, have substantial offshore activities that contribute noticeable CH₄ emissions. We compared national total emissions aggregated from the EDGAR v7 gridded flux data using both the land-only country mask and the `countrymask_eez`. As a result, the aggregated totals using the `countrymask_eez` are in much closer agreement with the officially reported national totals in the EDGAR v7 dataset (detailed in Table S3). Notably, the differences are particularly pronounced for South and Southeast Asian countries with significant offshore production, further supporting the adoption of the `countrymask_eez` in this intercomparison.

3 Results: Methane Emission Estimates

3.1 Regional Methane Estimates

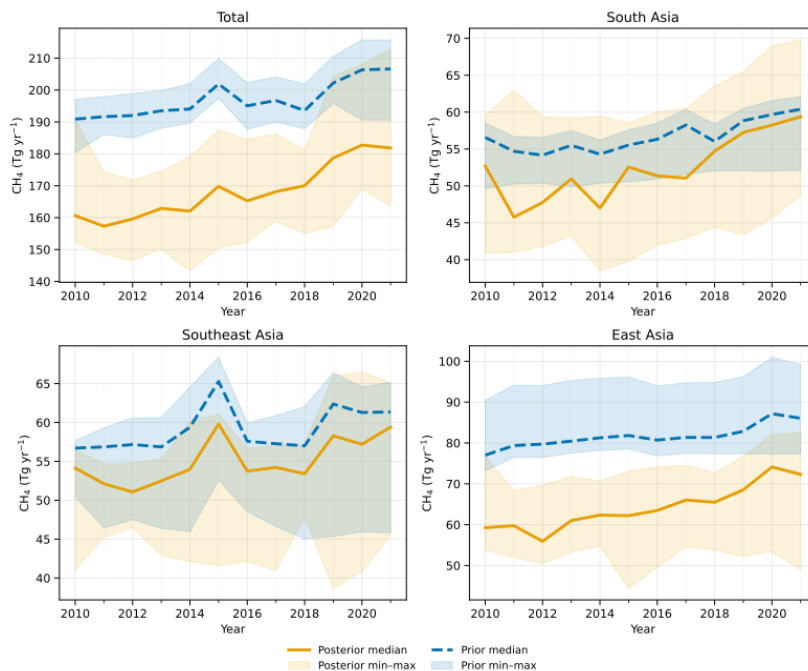
In this section, we evaluate the posterior emission adjustments by comparing the spatial patterns and temporal correlations of the multi-model ensemble against the prior inventories.

Figure 2 illustrates the spatial distribution of a representative prior flux and posterior corrections (posterior minus prior) driven from the inverse models constrained by surface-only data. While spatial patterns of these corrections vary among the models, some consistent spatial patterns are discernible. Models including CTE-CH₄, GEOS-Chem, LMDZ, NTFVAR, and NTLB show a significant reduction in fluxes over East Asia, particularly in southeastern China. Conversely, CTE-CH₄ depicts some flux increases in northern China. NTFVAR2 shows upward corrections across northern China, including areas with dense coal emission sources in the North China Plain, which may be attributed to the underestimation of gas and oil emissions in the Greenhouse Gas and Air Pollution Interactions and Synergies (GAINS) prior inventory, which differed from the protocol (Janardanan et al., 2024). In South Asia, results exhibit higher inter-model variability, due to the lack of observational constraint. While most models indicate downward corrections, GEOS-Chem and MIROC4-ACTM show upward adjustments, particularly over wetland areas in Bangladesh and Myanmar. A large variability is also observed in the Southeast Asian regions. Some models (LMDZ, NTFVAR, NTFVAR2, NTLB) show reductions, while others (CTE-CH₄, MIROC4-ACTM) indicate upward corrections, and GEOS-Chem shows very few adjustments. The variation in Southeast Asia is also clearly seen from the GOSAT-only constraint corrections shown in Figure S3. This significant discrepancy underscores the uncertainty in the posterior fluxes and highlights the regional differences in model constraints and the inverse corrections.



255
 256 **Figure 2:** Spatial distribution of prior fluxes and model-specific posterior corrections averaged over simulation period. The
 257 upper-left panel shows the reference averaged prior emissions baseline. Other panels show the average flux corrections
 258 (posterior minus prior) calculated for each respective simulation based on surface-only CH₄ observations (SURF).

259 Figure 3 presents the prior and posterior CH₄ emissions for each subregion and the entire domain over the
 260 period 2010–2021 by surface-only data. Posterior emissions show consistent downwards adjustments across all
 261 regions relative to the prior emissions, reflecting the influence of observational constraints. Over the study
 262 period, the average total posterior emissions decreased by approximately 15% compared to prior emissions.
 263 Regionally, the most significant reduction was observed in East Asia (25.8%), followed by South Asia (10.4%)
 264 and Southeast Asia (6.4%). Regional variability in the prior estimates is primarily driven by the disparity in
 265 spatial resolution across the ensemble and the specific emission inventories adopted by NTFVAR2, as detailed
 266 in the comparative analysis in Section 4.1. Notably, the spread among posterior emissions is reduced for East
 267 Asia, and Southeast Asia, indicating improved inter-model consistency following inverse optimization. In
 268 contrast, South Asia exhibits a wider spread in posterior estimates, likely due to sparse observational coverage,
 269 which limits the models' capacity to effectively constrain regional emissions. The Mann–Kendall trend test
 270 revealed statistically significant increasing trends ($p < 0.05$) in the prior emissions across the entire domain and
 271 all subregions. Posterior emissions also preserved these increasing trends, generally consistent with the prior.



272

273 **Figure 3:** Prior and posterior methane emissions for the total and subregions including East Asia, South Asia, and Southeast
 274 Asia. The shaded areas represent the minimum–maximum range, and the solid lines indicate the median values.

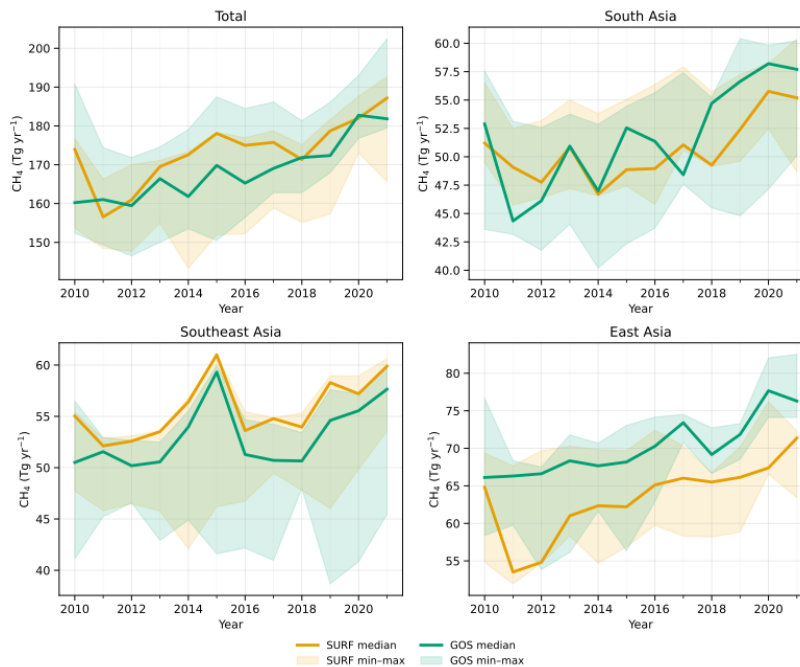
275 3.2 Comparison of Surface-based and GOSAT-based Inversions

276 The choice of observational constraints significantly impacts inverse modeling results. This is illustrated by
 277 comparing surface-only simulations (SURF) and GOSAT-only simulations (GOS) from models—CTE-CH4,
 278 LMDZ, and NTFVAR—each covering the full period from 2010 to 2021. The GEOS-Chem model only
 279 provided simulations for 2018–2021, and these results are not presented here to avoid inconsistencies arising
 280 from differing simulation periods. Figure 4 reveals that GOS consistently exhibits a larger maximum-minimum
 281 range compared to SURF, consistent with previous studies (e.g. Deng et al., 2025) that find column
 282 measurements from satellites generally provide a weaker constraint than high-precision surface observations.
 283 This larger uncertainty in GOS is likely attributable to the lower sensitivity of GOSAT retrievals to local surface
 284 fluxes.

285 The paired t-test results reveal that the impact of observational constraints (SURF vs. GOS) varies significantly
 286 by region. Overall, the simulations differ significantly ($t = 3.22$, $p < 0.01$), with SURF yielding higher total
 287 estimates by approximately 4.98 Tg yr^{-1} . However, the regional behavior is divergent: in Southeast Asia, SURF
 288 estimates are significantly higher than GOS ($t = 8.22$, $p < 0.001$), whereas in East Asia, the trend reverses, with
 289 GOS producing significantly higher estimates than SURF ($t = -7.03$, $p < 0.001$). In contrast, South Asia shows no
 290 statistically significant difference ($p = 0.21$), suggesting the two methods yield comparable results in that region.



291 These findings highlight that the choice of simulation constraint does not produce a uniform shift, but rather
 292 triggers localized adjustments in emission estimates.



293
 294 **Figure 4:** Regional annual emissions simulated by inverse models. The shaded areas represent the inter-model range
 295 (maximum–minimum) within surface-only simulations (SURF) and GOSAT-only simulations (GOS), while the solid lines
 296 denote the median values across models.

297 3.3 National Methane Budgets

298 Our study domain includes 28 countries, some of which have relatively small areas or low emission levels. To
 299 minimize aggregation errors inherent in the inversion process (discussed in Section 4.3), our analysis focuses on
 300 13 “top-emitting” countries where anthropogenic emissions exceeded 1 Tg yr⁻¹ during the 2019–2021 period.
 301 The inversion results presented here thus emphasize these representative countries to better capture spatial and
 302 sectoral emission characteristics across the region. Anthropogenic CH₄ emissions constitute the dominant
 303 component of the total CH₄ budget within the study region, though the magnitude and temporal trends vary
 304 considerably by nations. Figure 5 presents the posterior ensemble distributions for these 13 nations, partitioned
 305 into anthropogenic and total fluxes, benchmarked against official National Greenhouse Gas Inventories
 306 (NGHGs) and prior ensemble medians. Across all 13 countries, posterior total medians are consistently lower
 307 than their corresponding prior medians, indicating a systematic downward adjustment by the inversion
 308 ensemble, a trend consistent with the regional flux distributions illustrated in Figure 2 and Figure S3. The
 309 relative median differences range from -0.9% (Mongolia) to -16.2% (China). For the first big emitters group
 310 (Figure 5(a)), China shows the most pronounced reductions, with the posterior median decreasing from 77.46 to
 311 64.88 Tg yr⁻¹. Indonesia and Pakistan exhibit moderate downward shifts of -8.4% and -5.3%, respectively, while
 312 India shows only a minor reduction of 1.8%. Most of the other two groups (Figure 5 (b) and (c)), exhibit



313 moderate downward revisions less than 10%, except South Korea (11.9%). The uniform direction of these
 314 adjustments suggests that, at the ensemble level, prior total CH₄ emissions has likely been systematically
 315 overestimated for these nations. However, the interquartile ranges (IQRs) of these posterior estimates (box plot)
 316 remain substantial for major emitters, reflecting persistent structural differences among inversion systems.
 317 When normalized by the median, relative spread is generally 10–20% for major emitters but notably higher for
 318 several smaller countries, such as Mongolia (~32%) and Japan (~22%). This persistent spread reflects
 319 fundamental structural differences stemming from variations in transport model resolution, physics, chemical
 320 loss representations, inversion methods, and the relative weighting of observations. Notably, anthropogenic
 321 posterior estimates frequently show smaller inter-model dispersion than total emissions, implying that natural
 322 flux components, such as wetlands and freshwater sources, contribute disproportionately to ensemble
 323 uncertainty.

324 The estimated anthropogenic emissions were compared with NGHGs, as shown in Figure 5 (2019–2021) and
 325 Figure 6 (2010–2021). The submission of NGHGs in this region is limited to only 15 countries that have
 326 submitted inventories. Japan and South Korea, as Annex I countries, provide consistent annual reports. The
 327 submissions from the developing (non-Annex I) countries are often intermittent, with a high variability ranging
 328 from multiple reports to only one or two total submissions. This infrequent and variable reporting schedule
 329 contributes to significant regional data gaps, as exemplified by the current unavailability of data for key nations
 330 such as the Philippines and Myanmar. Conversely, NGHGs for Vietnam and Malaysia are substantially higher
 331 than our posterior estimates, suggesting potential overestimation in their reported fluxes, or underestimation by
 332 models due to lack of observational constraint on fluxes. China's NGHGI exceeds our median estimate,
 333 although the most recent 2020 report demonstrates strong alignment with our results. This is consistent with
 334 Wang et al. (2025b), who found that China's NGHGI estimates typically fall within the upper bound of the
 335 inversion-derived range. Such convergence across different methodologies provides a robust reference point,
 336 further corroborated by independent top-down estimates from TROPOMI satellite observations for 2023 (East et
 337 al., 2025). Finally, A systematic underestimation is evident in several countries including India, Pakistan,
 338 Indonesia, Bangladesh, Thailand, Japan, and Mongolia, where reported emissions are lower than our top-down
 339 estimates. These findings align with recent literature (e.g. East et al., 2025) which recommends upward
 340 inventory revisions for India, Japan, Bangladesh, and Thailand. This discrepancy, however, may occasionally be
 341 obscured by the statistical spread of the models; for instance, some published upward top-down corrections for
 342 India remain within the margin of model uncertainty (Janardanan et al., 2020).

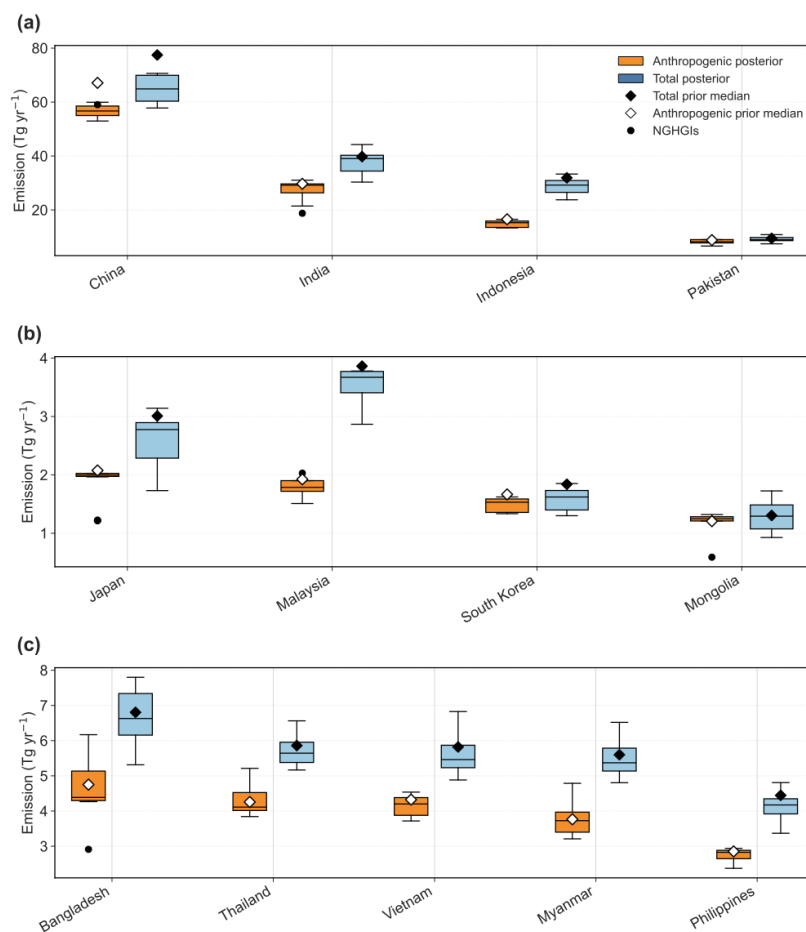


Figure 5: National-level boxplots of methane emissions (Tg yr^{-1}) over 2019–2021 for anthropogenic (left) and total (right) emissions, based on posterior ensemble results across all inversion models. NGHGI values are shown as black dots. The medians of prior total and prior anthropogenic emissions are shown as diamonds for references. Boxes show the interquartile range (25th–75th percentile) minimum and maximum, with the median indicated by a horizontal line.

3.4 Sectoral Emissions and Trends

The sectoral trends in methane emissions from agriculture, coal, oil and gas, waste and wetlands were evaluated for the period 2010–2021 using the Mann-Kendall trend test (Gilbert, 1988), with statistical significance defined at $p < 0.05$. Agriculture is the dominant emission source across Asia, with posterior emissions of 64.69 Tg yr^{-1} ($62.16\text{--}69.94 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$), since this region accounts for over 90% of global rice production. Driven primarily by rice cultivation and livestock activities, the agricultural sector contributes more than 50% of total anthropogenic emissions in most study countries, with expectations in China (~33%) and Indonesia (~26%) (blue chart in Figure 6). Significant increasing trends were observed in India, Pakistan, Myanmar, and Mongolia. In India, and Pakistan these increases are linked to the continuous expansion of rice-harvested area. Furthermore, rapid



357 livestock growth has intensified emissions. In Pakistan, cattle populations rose from 35 million to 55 million
 358 between 2010 and 2021, while Mongolia's cattle population more than doubled from 2.18 million to 5.02
 359 million during the same period. These increases were accompanied by a similar upward trend in sheep and goat
 360 populations (Our World in Data, 2024b). In contrast, Japan and Malaysia exhibited statistically significant
 361 decreasing trends in agriculture emissions. These declines are largely attributed to the contraction of rice paddy
 362 acreage in both countries and a reduction in livestock numbers specifically in Malaysia. For the remaining
 363 countries in Figure 6, no statistically significant trends were detected during the period. In China, Zhao et al.,
 364 (2024) reported agriculture emission reductions since 2016, after the increase from 2011 to 2016, associated
 365 with the drying trend in South China and the transition from double-season to single-season rice cropping.

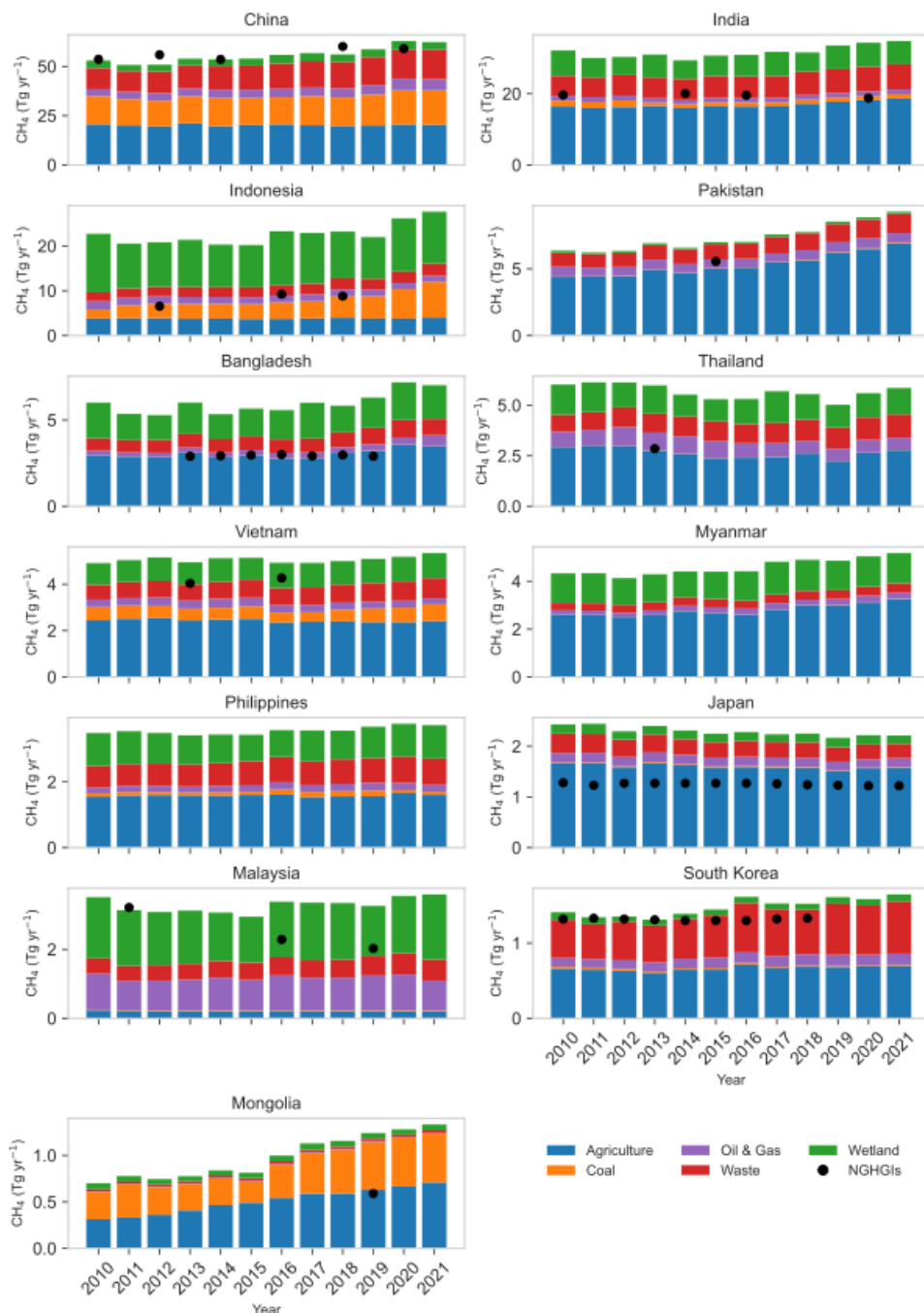
366 Waste represents the second-largest source of methane emissions in the study region, with posterior emissions
 367 of 28.76 Tg yr⁻¹ (24.99–34.41 Tg yr⁻¹). Major contributors include China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Thailand,
 368 the Philippines and Malaysia, where statistically significant increasing trends are consistently observed (Figure
 369 6). The increase in waste-related methane emissions in developing countries is driven not only by rapid
 370 economic growth and urbanization, particularly in South Asia, but also by population growth, a high organic
 371 fraction of municipal solid waste, and the prevalence of unmanaged disposal practices and limited landfill gas
 372 recovery (Zhang et al., 2024). In addition, insufficient wastewater treatment coverage enhances methane
 373 generation (Toha et al., 2025). In Malaysia, emissions from wastewater treatment and discharge represent the
 374 dominant source within the waste sector, with industrial wastewater also contributing substantially, particularly
 375 wastewater treatment associated with palm oil mill effluent (Malaysia, 2022). Japan exhibits a significant
 376 decreasing trend, primarily attributable to long-standing regulatory frameworks that promote waste-to-energy
 377 utilization and high levels of recycling and reuse. Approximately 80% of combustible waste is incinerated with
 378 energy recovery, resulting in one of the world's lowest landfill usage rates at around 1% (Moshkal et al., 2024).
 379 Japan's experience in waste management provides valuable insights for achieving the sustainable development
 380 goals in developing countries, particularly through the adoption of advanced waste treatment technologies,
 381 strengthened waste reduction and recycling efforts, and enhanced environmental awareness.

382 Rapid economic growth and population growth have substantially increased regional energy demand, with most
 383 of this demand met by expanded use of fossil fuel (IEA, 2024). Consequently, the production and consumption
 384 of coal, oil and natural gas have continued to increase. Total coal emissions are estimated at 21.57 Tg yr⁻¹
 385 (19.29–28.35 Tg yr⁻¹), with China contributing 62% and Indonesia 26% of regional emissions. The major coal
 386 producing and consuming countries, including China, Indonesia, Vietnam, Mongolia, all exhibit statistically
 387 significant increasing trends of coal emissions. In Indonesia, mean posterior coal emissions increased nearly
 388 fourfold from 2.02 to 7.94 Tg yr⁻¹ between 2010 and 2021, while emissions in Mongolia approximately doubled
 389 from 0.29 to 0.52 Tg yr⁻¹ over the same period (Our World in Data, 2024a). Total oil and natural gas emissions
 390 are estimated at 11.61 Tg yr⁻¹ (10.84–13.10 Tg yr⁻¹). In Malaysia, oil and gas emissions are estimated at 0.95
 391 (0.85–1.05) Tg yr⁻¹, accounting for 54% of total anthropogenic emissions and show no statistically significant
 392 trend over the study period. In China, the increasing trends in coal and natural gas emissions are consistent with
 393 recent top-down estimates reported by Zhao et al. (2024). In contrast, oil and natural gas emissions in Indonesia,
 394 Vietnam, and Thailand display statistically significant decreasing trends. These declines across South Asia and
 395 Southeast Asia are likely associated with multiple factors, including the maturation and natural production



396 decline of long-producing oil and gas fields—particularly in Indonesia and Malaysia, where production began in
397 the 1970s and 1980s—as well as changes in global oil market conditions, such as increased production from
398 North American shale resources, which have reduced oil prices and investment incentives for oil and gas
399 development in Southeast Asia (IEA, 2024).

400 The total wetland emissions for the study area are estimated at 30.97 Tg yr⁻¹ (27.41 –35.06) Tg yr⁻¹, with
401 Indonesia (10.75 Tg yr⁻¹) and India (6.08 Tg yr⁻¹) identified as the primary contributors. In several Southeast
402 Asian nations —specifically Malaysia, Cambodia, Thailand, Vietnam, the Philippines, and Myanmar—
403 estimated wetland emissions exceed 1 Tg yr⁻¹. Notably, in Indonesia and Malaysia, these emissions account for
404 more than 50% of the total emissions (Figure 6). While significant increasing trends were observed in Vietnam
405 and China, no statistically significant trends were detected in the remaining countries.



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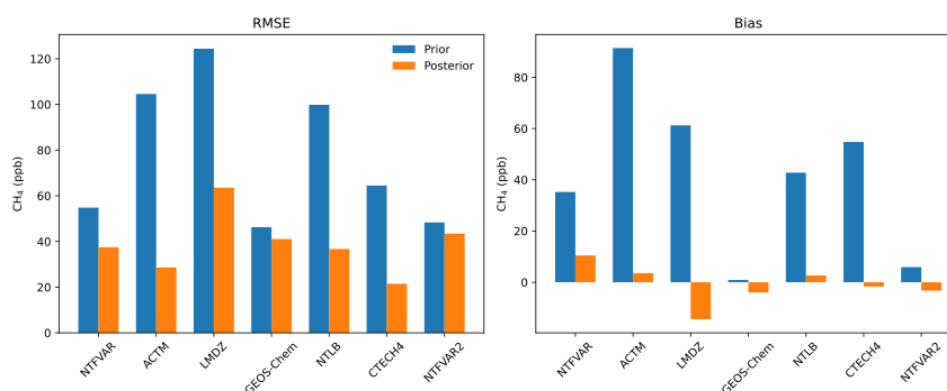
407 **Figure 6:** Posterior country-level sectoral emission trends for the period 2010–2021 for large emitting countries. UNFCCC
 408 portal value available at https://di.unfccc.int/detailed_data_by_party, and the more countries' Biennial Update Reports
 409 (BURs) and National Communications (NCs) available at <https://unfccc.int/BURs>.



410 4 Discussions: Inter-model Differences

411 4.1 Model Performance Evaluation with Observations

412 To evaluate the performance of the inversion models, we compared simulated atmospheric concentrations
 413 derived from both prior and posterior emissions with optimized and independent observational datasets. The
 414 validation stations include two balloon-borne measurement sites in China and selected surface observations that
 415 are not assimilated in the inversions, as shown in Figure 1. We assessed model performance using standard
 416 statistical metrics, specifically mean bias, and root-mean-square error (RMSE), to quantify agreement between
 417 simulated and observed CH₄ concentrations. Figure 7 presents the model–data comparison at the sites used in
 418 inversion. Across all models, RMSEs estimated using posterior fluxes are significantly reduced compared to
 419 those using prior fluxes, indicating improved agreement with observations. The RMSE reductions exceed 50%
 420 for ACTM, LMDZ, NTLB, and CTE-CH₄, while other models show more moderate improvements. Mean
 421 biases also decrease substantially from prior to posterior simulations. All models exhibit positive biases with
 422 prior fluxes, suggesting a systematic overestimation of atmospheric concentrations. After optimization, the
 423 biases are notably smaller and more variable in sign. NTFVAR, ACTM, and NTLB maintain small positive
 424 biases (less than +10 ppb), whereas GEOS-Chem, CTE-CH₄, NTFVAR2, and LMDZ display negative biases.
 425 Among them, LMDZ shows the largest negative bias, with values below -10 ppb.



426

427 **Figure 7:** Average RMSE and mean bias for model simulations using prior and posterior fluxes at the stations used in SURF
 428 inversions.

429 Figure 8 compares the concentrations at surface validation sites (excluding balloon observations), illustrating the
 430 mean biases and RMSEs for SURF and GOS simulations. While RMSEs decrease from prior to posterior fluxes
 431 across all models, the reductions are generally smaller than those observed at the inversion stations. After
 432 optimization, RMSEs at validation sites remain relatively high, ranging from 30 to 60 ppb. Bias reductions are
 433 more pronounced, with most models exhibiting mean posterior biases below ± 10 ppb. The LMDZ model is a
 434 notable exception, retaining a substantial negative bias of approximately 40–50 ppb. Overall, these comparisons
 435 demonstrate consistent improvements in model performance from prior to posterior simulations and underscore
 436 the consistency of posterior fluxes with independent atmospheric observations.

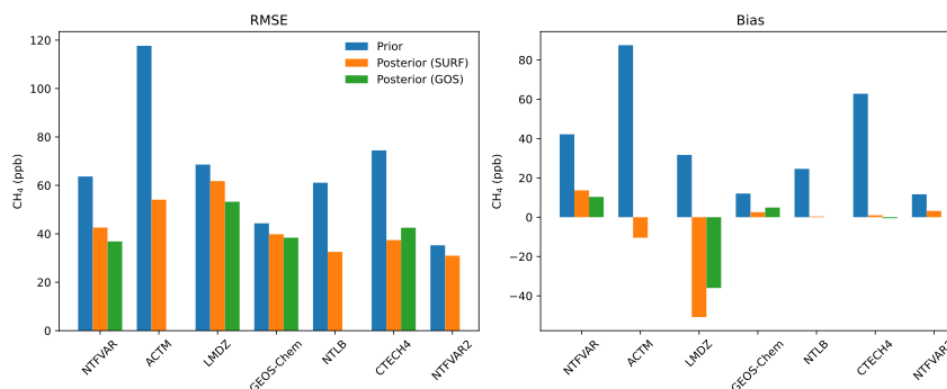
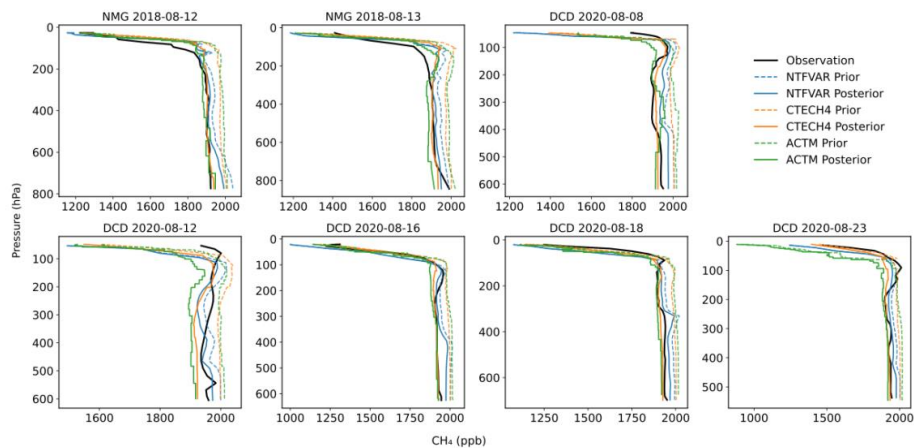


Figure 8: Average RMSE and mean bias for model simulations using prior and posterior fluxes at validation sites.

We also used balloon-borne observations to evaluate the ability of models to simulate vertical CH_4 profiles. Figure 9 presents the results from CTE- CH_4 , MIROC4-ACTM, and NTFVAR models. The observed vertical profile exhibits two distinct regimes: a relatively constant concentration of approximately 1900 ppb is maintained across the free troposphere (from approximately 700 to 200 hPa at site NMG and 600 to 100 hPa at site DCD), following a slight concentration decrease from the near-surface layer, and a sharp decline in concentration is observed in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere region, corresponding to lower pressures zones. Simulated profiles derived from the posterior fluxes align much more closely with the observations than those derived from the prior fluxes. This improved performance is consistent across all three models, which generally maintain more constant concentrations throughout the free troposphere. However, particularly where the observed concentrations sharply decreases. The model simulations begin to diverge at higher altitudes. This discrepancy suggests that the effectiveness of the flux optimization in this region is limited by structural constraints in atmospheric transport models, particularly around the turning point in the concentration profile. Station DCD is located on the Tibetan Plateau at an altitude of approximately 4000 m, which may contribute to the greater variability observed in its vertical profile data.



453

454 **Figure 9:** Comparison of observed and simulated vertical concentration profiles. The black lines denote the in-situ balloon
 455 observations (plotted at 1-minute temporal resolution). The dashed and solid colored lines represent the prior and posterior
 456 vertical profiles, respectively, simulated by three transport models: NTFVAR (blue), CTE-CH4 (orange), and MIROC4-
 457 ACTM (green).

458 4.2 Inter-model Spread in National Emission Estimates

459 The models participating in the MICA projects differ in horizontal resolutions and transport configurations,
 460 leading to measurable differences in prior emission estimates (Figure 3). Quantifying the spread introduced by
 461 the transport models themselves, independent of the underlying emission inventories, is essential for interpreting
 462 multi-model inversion results.

463 To characterize this inter-model spread, we employ the coefficient of variation (CV) and interquartile range
 464 (IQR) of national prior total emissions. Figure 10 presents the relationship between the CV and three-year mean
 465 prior emission totals, thereby minimizing the influence of seasonal and interannual variability. In most
 466 countries, the CV remains below 30%, with a median value of approximately 10%, indicating a moderate level
 467 of agreement across the ensemble. A small number of countries show exceptionally large CV values (>80%);
 468 however, these cases are primarily associated with very low national totals and small land areas, rather than
 469 fundamental model disagreement. The generally small IQR relative to the multi-model mean further suggests
 470 that the ensemble statistics are robust and not unduly influenced by individual models. The inter-model CV
 471 displays a systematic dependence on emission magnitude, with lower CV values for large-emitting countries
 472 and higher relative spread for small-emitting countries. This trend reflects the increased sensitivity of relative
 473 uncertainty metrics to model formulation and spatial aggregation at lower emission levels.

474 The impact of model granularity becomes evident when partitioning the ensemble by horizontal resolution.
 475 Models are categorized into two groups: coarse-resolution, including LMDZ ($2.5^\circ \times 1.27^\circ$), CTE-CH4 ($3^\circ \times 2^\circ$,
 476 $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ over high northern latitudes and Asia), and MIROC4-ACTM ($2.8^\circ \times 2.8^\circ$), and higher-resolution



comprising GEOS-Chem ($0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$), NTLB ($0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$), and NTFVAR ($0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$). The coarse-resolution group yields a higher mean CV (17.7%) and a significantly broader IQR (median = 10.7%; 75th percentile = 20.5%). Conversely, high-resolution models demonstrate much tighter agreement, with a lower mean CV (15.5%) and a smaller median IQR of only 3.2%. These findings underscore that horizontal resolution is a primary driver of inter-model spread in national emission estimates, persisting even when identical prior inventories are prescribed.

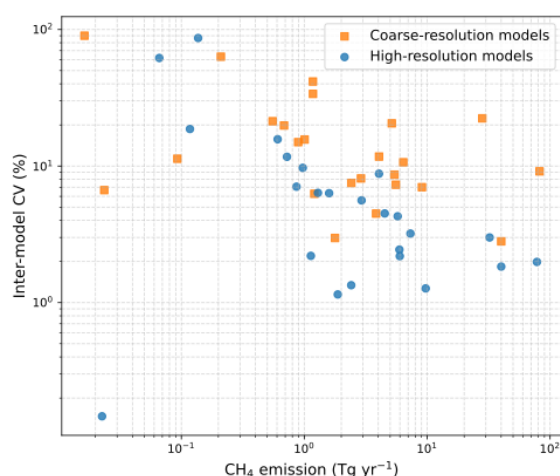


Figure 10: Inter-model variability (coefficient of variation, CV) versus national total CH₄ emissions derived from multiple inversion models. For each country, CV is computed across models using 3-year (2019–2021) mean emissions. Models are separated into high-resolution (blue circles) and coarse-resolution (orange squares) groups.

4.3 Consistency of Two Prior Emission Inventories

Within the MICA intercomparison framework, we examine the impact of prior inventory selection by comparing NTFVAR (which uses the standard MICA common prior) and NTFVAR2 (adopting an earlier version of the GCP prior). The Concordance Correlation Coefficient (CCC) (Lin, 1989) was used to evaluate reproducibility by measuring how well the two sets of national prior total emissions align with the 45-degree line of perfect agreement. The results show exceptional overall agreement (CCC = 0.9904) suggesting that the broad spatial distribution of methane sources remains consistent across the priors. However, a Bland-Altman analysis (Martin Bland and Altman, 1986) reveals localized divergences masked by this regional correlation. The most significant discrepancies, quantified by the Relative Percentage Difference (RPD), occur in nations such as East Timor (73.5%), Sri Lanka (37.9%), Afghanistan (35.3%), Bhutan (30.5%), and Bangladesh (19.7% RPD), which is a major emitter (~ 6.9 Tg yr⁻¹), likely because wetland emissions in the earlier GCP version differ significantly from the common MICA prior in these countries.

Sectoral emission trends also vary. In South Asia, NTFVAR shows a sharp increase in coal emissions that is absent in NTFVAR2. This discrepancy arises because NTFVAR2 relies on EDGAR v6, which only provides



data through 2018; consequently, its coal emissions remain constant for 2018–2021, damping the inferred growth. Substantial differences exist in the oil and gas sector. NTFVAR2 employs the GAINS oil and gas prior instead of EDGAR v7 (Janardanan et al., 2024), resulting in emission estimates for Asia that are less than half of those in EDGAR-based priors over the 2010–2021 period. These differing priors drive the large spread in coal emissions for Indonesia and Vietnam, as well as the wide range of oil and gas sector across most countries for both prior and posterior emissions. These findings underscore that while regional prior totals may align, the specific inventory version significantly alters the 'starting point' for national-level inversions.

5 Data availability

The intercomparison protocol and the output database are available via Zenodo at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.22699291> (Wang et al., 2026). The dataset includes NetCDF and CSV files, accompanied by documentations. These files provide: Monthly spatially resolved total and sectoral emissions (`grid_[exp]_[model].nc`); Integrated national, regional, and sectoral emission summaries aggregated across model groups (`emis_[exp]_[model].csv.nc`); Ensemble-derived concentrations (`conc_[exp]_[model].csv`); Simulated concentrations sampled for independent validation data (`val_[exp]_[model].csv`).

To support ease of use, a complete usage example is documented via the Case Study: Interannual and Sectoral Variations in Asian Methane Emissions. Accompanying Python script is provided in the repository to read model outputs, handle temporal aggregation, compute robust ensemble statistics (medians and min-max spreads), evaluate long-term trends via the Mann-Kendall test, and automatically generate publication-ready boxplots, time-series plots, and summary text files.

The GOSAT data used in this study were obtained from the GOSAT Data Archive Service at the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES) (<https://data2.gosat.nies.go.jp/>). Additionally, CH₄ observation dataset were archived from the World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG) (<https://gaw.kishou.go.jp/>) and the NOAA Global Monitoring Laboratory Obspack dataset (<https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/obspack/>).

6 Conclusions

This study presents the first coordinated multi-model, multi-group inversion intercomparison focused on CH₄ emissions over Asia, conducted under the Methane Inversion inter-Comparison for the Asian region (MICA) framework. By applying a standardized protocol with common prior fluxes, observational constraints, and validation datasets, MICA enables a consistent and quantitative evaluation of regional, national, and sectoral methane emission estimates for the 2010–2021 period, and provides an integrated dataset.

Across all models, inverse optimization results in a systematic reduction of total methane emissions relative to prior inventories. Averaged over Asia, posterior emissions decrease by approximately 15%, with the strongest reduction in East Asia (–25.8%), followed by South Asia (–10.4%) and Southeast Asia (–6.4%). Inter-model spread is reduced for the full domain, East Asia, and Southeast Asia, indicating improved ensemble convergence



535 after optimization, while South Asia retains relatively large posterior uncertainty, reflecting limited
 536 observational constraints in this region. Mann–Kendall tests reveal statistically significant increasing trends ($p <$
 537 0.05) in prior emissions across the full domain and all subregions, and these trends are largely preserved in the
 538 posterior estimates, indicating that inverse modeling primarily adjusts emission magnitudes rather than long-
 539 term growth. Comparisons between surface-only (SURF) and satellite-only (GOS) inversions show that
 540 observational constraints exert a strong influence on inferred emissions. GOS infers significantly higher
 541 emissions in East Asia and Southeast Asia relative to SURF, consistent with the reduced sensitivity of satellite
 542 column retrievals to local surface fluxes and their susceptibility to retrieval biases.

543 At the national scale, our analysis focuses on 13 “top-emitting” Asian countries; posterior total medians are
 544 consistently lower than their corresponding prior medians. China exhibits the largest downward corrections,
 545 with emissions reduced by 16% to the posterior median of 64.88 Tg yr⁻¹, consistent with previous studies of
 546 overestimation in EDGAR-based inventories. Downward corrections of approximately 10% are also found for
 547 South Korea. Sectoral results reveal pronounced and systematic biases. Agriculture dominates methane
 548 emissions across Asia, with posterior emissions of 64.69 Tg yr⁻¹ (62.16–69.94 Tg yr⁻¹), contributing more than
 549 50% of total anthropogenic emissions in most countries. Statistically significant increasing trends are observed
 550 in India, Pakistan, Myanmar, and Mongolia, consistent with expanding rice cultivation and livestock
 551 populations, while Japan and Malaysia exhibit decreasing agricultural emissions. Waste is the second-largest
 552 source, with posterior emissions of 28.76 Tg yr⁻¹ (24.99–34.41 Tg yr⁻¹), and shows widespread increasing trends
 553 in major emitting countries. Coal-related emissions total 21.57 Tg yr⁻¹ (19.29–28.35 Tg yr⁻¹), with strong
 554 upward corrections in Mongolia (+70%) and Pakistan (+50%), and major downward corrections in China
 555 (–30%) and Malaysia (–33%). Oil and natural gas emissions are estimated at 11.61 Tg yr⁻¹ (10.84–13.10 Tg yr⁻¹),
 556 with heterogeneous national trends, including stable emissions in Malaysia and declining emissions in parts
 557 of Southeast Asia. Wetland emissions are estimated at 30.97 Tg yr⁻¹ (27.41–35.06 Tg yr⁻¹), mainly from
 558 Southeast countries.

559 Evaluation against surface, aircraft, and balloon-borne observations demonstrates substantial improvements in
 560 simulated methane concentrations after optimization. RMSEs decrease by more than 50% for several models,
 561 and mean biases are reduced to within approximately ± 10 ppb. Nevertheless, posterior RMSEs at independent
 562 validation sites remain relatively high (30–60 ppb), highlighting the future need for denser and more regionally
 563 representative observational networks, particularly in South Asia and Southeast Asia. Inter-model uncertainty
 564 shows a strong dependence on model horizontal resolution. Coarse-resolution models exhibit larger relative
 565 spread (mean CV 17.7%) than higher-resolution models (mean CV 15.5%, median IQR 3.2%), even when
 566 identical priors are prescribed. In contrast, differences arising from alternative versions of global prior
 567 inventories are generally modest at regional and national scales (CV $\approx$ 5–10% for major emitters), though
 568 sectoral discrepancies, especially for coal and oil and gas, remain substantial. Although there are systemic biases
 569 in prior inventories, our analysis highlighting Southeast Asian waste and energy-sector emissions require urgent
 570 validation through densified observation networks.

571 In this study, we demonstrate the implications of the MICA dataset by analyzing national and sectoral
 572 emissions. The results from the MICA intercomparison reveal that a multi-model ensemble approach improves



the consistency and transparency of Asian CH₄ emission estimates. This intercomparison establishes a robust baseline, facilitating the integration of observational constraints into national emission inventories to support reporting and evaluate emission reduction progress and track climate policy effectiveness. Furthermore, the dataset can be used for distinguishing emission contributions across sectors, helping policymakers target high-emitting areas. It provides transparent, independent scientific support to the global stocktake. It also serves as a methodological benchmark for reasearch, providing a the multi-model ensemble framework and outputs that assist researchers in conducting independent inverse modeling, model development, and performance assessments. Additionally, we provide practical examples in the dataset documentation for researchers interested in conducting their own analysis. However, we note that due to limitations in spatial resolution and sparse observations, the dataset can not resolve fine-scale emissions within individual cities or small countries. It is not suitable for locating or quantifying specific point sources, which require high-resolution satellite imagery or targeted in-situ measurements. Due to sparse observaitonal constrains and smoothing effects in inversions, the dataset is best suited for long-term trend or interannual variability analysis rather than capturing high-frequency temporal dyanamics, such as diurnal or hourly variations.

Competing interests

The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

Author contributions

FW and SM coordinated this inter-comparison as part of the NIES GOSAT project and developed the study protocol. FW led the integrated analysis, performed the NTFVAR inversions, and drafted the manuscript. Model simulations and output were provided by RJ (NTFVAR2), DB and PP (MIROC4-ACTM), RL and YZ (GEOS-Chem), GR and HL (NTLB), NM, AB, MS, and AM (LMDZ), and SH and AT (CTE-CH₄). ML, XL, YT, MKA, and MN contributed to observation data. IM, YY, YS, TS and TM contributed to GOSAT data, and AI provided VISIT data. All co-authors participated in the discussion of the results and contributed to the revision of the manuscript.

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