Responses to Anonymous Referee #1

This paper proposes an analysis of the global and regional methane cycle for the past 40 years using long-term simulations of a chemistry-transport model, forced by state-of-the-art emissions and sinks and with analysed meteorology (after 1997). It presents the impact of the different regions and processes on the atmospheric observed changes at a subset of surface atmospheric stations measuring methane and for the different important periods of the methane cycle: the pre-1990s growth, the 2000s stagnation and the post 2006 renewed growth.

The paper is an important and useful piece of information about the methane cycle for the past four decades. One original point is about the balanced analysis of both sources and sinks, whereas most studies on the global methane cycle focus on emissions only. Another (related) interesting point is the analysis of the underlying processes of the OH trend found in the paper. The outline is clear and it is well-written. The figures are supporting the text. I suggest publication in ACP after accounting for the following comments and questions

We thank the reviewer for a thorough evaluation with useful suggestions helping to improve the manuscript.

General comments

1/ The rather crude extrapolation done for the emissions after 2008 limits the analysis of 2007-2012 period. My suggestion is to re-run the last period of the 40 years with less anthropogenic-source-increasing scenario the prescribed one is clearly not adapted to the observations (and now rather well documented). If too long, this solution should be replaced by more acknowledgements in the text that the conclusions about this part should not be taken with caution.

The Edgar 4.2 inventory we used was recently extended with gridded anthropogenic methane emissions up to 2010 and emissions per country basis up to 2012. A simplified approach was used and updates for other key emission components (NOx, CO, NMVOCs) are not available yet. Our applied natural methane emission inventory lack data after 2009 (wetland emissions drive much of the inter-annual variability). Therefore, the results from a rerun for the 2009-2012 period would still be hampered by considerable uncertainty. Instead of rerunning the model we have added a comparison and discussion of anthropogenic methane emission estimates over the period 1990-2015 containing our extrapolation of the Edgar data, the Edgar update and ECLIPSE emissions in the Supplement. Though we had already stated in several places in the main manuscript that the conclusions for the 2009-2012 period are uncertain, we agree with the reviewer comment and now acknowledge this more strongly throughout the manuscript. 2/The paper is too long to my opinion with too many figures and no real synthesis at the end of each section (e.g. the interesting lifetime sections need synthesis and conclusions). It leads to hide and diffuse a bit too much the important results of the paper to my opinion. In particular, I suggest a substantial reduction of section 3.3. Please provide a section with more synthetiszed text and only few stations that are characteristic of the different regions, to support the conclusions of the text for the main regions. Else, the reader gest a bit lost in the large amount of local to regional results provided. Other stations can go in the supplementary with their detailed analysis. Else it is too dense

We have made changes in the manuscript in accordance with the suggestions. The text is shortened in several places, especially section 3.3, where also the number of compared stations are reduced. Now, a short synthesis is added at the end of the sections as suggested by the Reviewer to improve the clarity and highlight the important findings. This is done for the lifetime section (section 3.5) and a summary of the two sections 3.3 and 3.4 is given at the end of section 3.4. Some more text is also added to the Introduction to emphasis the motivation for the various analysis made in the Results section.

3/The "tracer" analysis is interesting but the main text should include the minimum to understand what is done, which is not the case (see specific comments)

We agree, and we have now included more information in the introduction (first paragraph) of section 3.3: "In the Supplement, we explain how the CH₄ mole fraction can be split into two components: A quite uniform background component and an inhomogeneous recently emitted component. The latter is advected and mixed, and when achieving a good mixing (after 1-2 months) it is converted into the background component. We show how the use of a 1-month e-folding fictitious tracer (Total tracer) is valid as a proxy for the inhomogeneous component. The CH₄ surface emissions act as the sources for the tracer. In the Supplement we use the continuity equation for the CH₄ mole fraction (CH₄ model) as starting point and further arguments to derive the following approximation:

<CH₄ model> - [<CH₄ model>] = B x (<Total tracer> - [<Total tracer>]) + Residual (Equation 1)"

In the last part of the paragraph we also added some additional information on the terms in equation 1.

4/In many places, the text should be more precise (see specific comments) and avoid redundancies (e.g. MCF & OH changes in several places)

We have removed some redundancies and shortened the text. We think this now provides a more concise and precise analysis.

Specific comments

Abstract, last sentence : "In our analysis...." Please provide more precise results in these relations.

We added a sentence with information on the key meteorological and chemical factors behind these relations in the revised version: "In our simulations, the atmospheric CH₄ lifetime decreases by more than 8 % from 1970 to 2012, a significant reduction of the residence time of this important greenhouse gas. Changes in CO and NO_x emissions, specific humidity, and ozone column drive most of this, and we provide simple prognostic equations for the relations between those and the CH₄ lifetime."

P30898, 17 : It should be mentioned that Bousquet et al. provides optimized emissions against atmospheric observations. However, using only their natural+BBG do not guar-antee that the atmospheric evolution will be matched as anthropogenic emissions are taken from EDGAR. This should be précised at some point.

We have now included text about this issue in the comparison of global mean surface methane (section 3.2)

P30898, 115 : As EDGAR is already suspected to have too large emissions and trends (e.g. Bergamsachi et al 2013), the extrapolation after 2007 is probably enhancing even more the issue. EDGAR have released their data until end 2012 now. Can you compare your extrapolation with their data and eventually acknowledge differences ? Ideally, It would be necessary to redo the end of the period with more realistic anthropogenic emissions accounting for trends more in line with IIASA ECLIPSE or EPA or at least with the latest EDGAR. I do not request it but this issue should be mentioned at this early stage of the paper and discussed later in the text.

> This last EDGAR update was done using a simplified (fast track) approach and updates for other key emission components (NOx, CO, NMVOCs) are not available yet. Our applied natural methane emission inventory lack data after 2009 (wetland emissions drive much of the inter-annual variability). Hence, the results from a rerun for the 2009-2012 period would still be hampered by considerable uncertainty. ECLIPSE emissions are only available on 5-year intervals and extrapolating them to annual intervals would also be a simplification. A scenario is used by ECLIPSE to estimate 2015 emissions based on 2010 data, which would add uncertainty if this inventory was used. Another difficulty with using ECLIPSE emissions is that the first year of the inventory is 1990 while we start our simulations in 1970. Instead of rerunning the model, we have added a comparison for anthropogenic methane emissions over the period 1990-2015 containing our extrapolation, the Edgar update, and ECLIPSE emissions in the Supplement. We now also compare the regional EPA inventory with the EDGAR inventory in our analysis for North America in section 3.3.

P30899, 18 : the collapse of former USSR should be mentioned here.

This is now mentioned.

P30899, 115 : why not applying BP statistics in your standard? It seems more conser- vative than the simple extrapolation of EDGAR.

> The BP approach, made for methane emissions only, and perturbing key methane emission sectors, was used as a simple sensitivity test on some of the potential impact of the financial crisis on the methane evolution since this is not captured in our baseline extrapolation. BP statistics for gas production, oil and coal consumption were used to scale relevant methane emission from oil, gas and coal production. If this approach were to be used to set up a consistent baseline emission inventory, these BP factors should also be used to scale emissions of other compounds (e.g., CO and NOx). This would be complicated and will introduce uncertainties as it is less clear how to use the BP factors to scale emissions for road traffic, power plants etc., which constitute a substantial share of the emissions for these compounds. Therefore, a simpler extrapolation based on changes for previous years was preferred as baseline since it can be used in a consistent way for all compounds.

P30900, 125 : how do you "drive" the model ? Nudging ? which variables ? which relaxing time?

➤ In the manuscript we refer to Søvde et al. (2012) for model details to avoid the article becoming too long. In the manuscript we had written: "The Oslo CTM3 simulations were driven with 3-hourly meteorological forecast data from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Integrated Forecast System (IFS) model (see Søvde et al. (2012) for details). We now added the following information: "These data are 36-hours forecasts produced with 12 hours of spin-up starting from an ERA-Interim analysis at noon on the previous day".

P30901, 11 : why not using ERA-I product instead of recycled meteorology ? It would have allowed to study the impact of varying meteorology on you results for the full period ?

> The IFS forecast fields are used since they provide additional meteorological fields needed in our transport scheme that are not available from reanalysis products. An additional advantage of using IFS is the availability of 3^{rd} hourly meteorological fields compared to 6 hourly for ERA.

Figure 2. Very interesting figure indeed. I ma surprised not to see more the effect of Pinatubo eruption on the loss? Can you comment? Also, the period after 2008 is hard to fully analyse because of the crude hypotheses on emissions changes. Again, if possible it would be good to update emissions and re run the last years to draw more robust conclusions. But I leave the option to the decision of the authors.

*Reduced emissions are implicitly included in the natural CH*⁴ *emission inventories, but*

changes in meteorology (temperature, water vapor, etc.) and volcanic SO_2 and sulphate aerosols in the stratosphere, are not accounted for in the simulations and that is the reason why there is too small effect of Pinatubo on the loss. These issues are discussed later in the text, in section 3.4.

30903, 127: Can you give at least the relative importance of Chlorine and 01D loss in your study here ?

We only calculated the total loss in these simulations and not the contributions from individual compounds. In previous studies performed with this model, the loss from chlorine and $O^{1}D$ were in the order 5-10 %, in agreement with findings in other studies in the literature.

Figure 4 needs attention. I suggest to add a panel below the evolution of the global mixing ratio representing the atmospheric growth rate (derivative of the model and obs mixing ratios) for observations and model (as done by NOAA on its website (Dlugo- kencky classical double panel figure). This would reveal more clearly the model goods and weaknesses.

➢ Growth rates are shown in figures 11-14 and discussed in detail in section 3.4. We agree that it would provide useful information also in Figure 4 but we decided to limit these discussions to figs. 11-14 and section 3.4 to avoid repetitions and increasing the number of figures

Supplementary, S3. It should be mentioned that " ' " refers to time fluctuations and " * " refers to longitudinal fluctuations. What is the impact of this rather technical treatment of the 18 tracers compared to simply using their relative weight as passive tracers emitted 1 month and stopped ?

> This is now mentioned in the Supplement. The technical discussion in the Supplement explains why we can use simple passive tracers with e-folding lifetime of one month as proxies for recent methane changes. Emitting tracers for one month and then stop would only give the influence from various sectors for that specific month and not capture sectors/regions responsible for trends in methane concentrations.

P30905, 19. It is unclear and not straightforward how equation 1 comes from the text the supplementary (S3). This paragraph should be clarified for the reader to have enough information in the main text. I suggest to phrase in simple words what equation 1 represents. You want to represent the contribution of all the different tracers at different stations after removing seasonal cycle (\leq) and north/south differences ([]). It would help the reader to have things written with words at this stage. - B is not clearly defined.

- "if some prerequisites discussed in the supplementary are met. Âz : please be more precise

here, unclear.

We agree. We have added new text and included information from the Supplement in the main text to make these issues clearer. The new introduction in section 3.3: "In the Supplement, we explain how the CH₄ mole fraction can be split into two components: A quite uniform background component and an inhomogeneous recently emitted component. The latter is advected and mixed, and when achieving a good mixing (after 1-2 months) it is converted into the background component. We show how the use of a 1-month e-folding fictitious tracer (Total tracer) is valid as a proxy for the inhomogeneous component. The CH₄ surface emissions act as the sources for the tracer. In the Supplement we use the continuity equation for the CH₄ mole fraction (CH₄ model) as starting point and further arguments to derive the following approximation:

 $\langle CH_4 \ model \rangle - [\langle CH_4 \ model \rangle] = B \ x \ (\langle Total \ tracer \rangle - [\langle Total \ tracer \rangle]) + Residual (Equation 1)$

Where [] denotes longitudinal mean along a whole terrestrial parallel and <> denotes annual running mean. We are interested in the inter-annual variation of CH₄, so we have carried out annual running means to remove the strong seasonal cycle. The subtraction of longitudinal means on each side of Eq. 1 removes the influence of differences in lifetimes (the mean lifetime of CH₄ is around 9 years, whereas the mean lifetime of the Total tracer is 1 month). B and Residual are constants (or almost constant), if the prerequisites discussed in the supplement (S3, last paragraph) are met. We expect B to be near or equal to 1, and Residual to be small. If B and Residual were exactly constant, the Pearson linear correlation coefficient between $<CH_4 \mod e^{-1}$ and <Total tracer > - [<Total tracer>] would be exactly equal to 1. The tracer approach then gives valuable information on the contribution to CH₄ variation from recent regional-local emission or transport changes.

P30905, 118 : "recent regional-local emission or transport changes $\hat{A}\dot{z}$: as you remove the longitudinal mean, would not it be only (or mostly) East/west changes that you can analyse ? Please be more precise here.

> Mostly, but in some cases additional information can be extracted, i.e. discussion of contributions to trends at Ushuaia and Cape Grim where we discuss how the tracer results indicate that long-range transport from other latitudes are decisive.

P30905, 120 : I agree with the argument of time/space coverage, but the R2 argument is a bit weak. For stations with poor model performances, it is critical to study them and analyse why the model fails. The different tracers can bring information on this. I strongly suggest to add an analysis for such stations (if existing) with some text & hypotheses for the causes of low performances. Else it gives the impression that the authors have (a bit) chosen the stations at "their convenience". (p30906, 115-16 is too short on this aspects)

The stations chosen for comparisons are based on the objectively defined station selection criteria given in section 2.3. An additional constrain is employed in the tracer study (section 3.3). As explained in section 3.3, only stations where the coefficient of determination between $\langle CH_4 \mod el \rangle - [\langle CH_4 \mod el \rangle]$ and $\langle Total \ tracer \rangle - [\langle Total \ tracer \rangle]$ is higher than 0.5 are used for this analysis. We agree that analysis of the different tracers could give some information on the causes at stations with poor model performance but it would not provide the complete picture. Revealing the causes would to our opinion be the topic of a separate study/paper covering runs with different model resolutions (reviewer agrees that coarse resolution likely is a major cause) and sensitivity studies on other possible explanation factors (transport, chemistry, deposition, etc.).

P30905, 120 and P30906, 114-15 : What do you exactly correlate (deseasonlized totals, full signals, ..)? This is a bit confusing. It should be precised in the text.

We think the general clarifications made in section 3.3 now make this easier to grasp. For the first coefficient the text says: "the Pearson linear correlation coefficient between $\langle CH_4 \mod el \rangle - [\langle CH_4 \mod el \rangle]$ and $\langle Total tracer \rangle - [\langle Total tracer \rangle]$ ". This correlation is for annual running means as $\langle \rangle$ (defined earlier in the same paragraph) denotes annual running mean. For the second coefficient it is written: "In general the model reproduces the seasonal and year to year variations very well with high coefficients of determination, R^2 , for most stations,", so this is for the full seasonal (monthly signal) as seen in the top panels of Fig. 6-10.

Fig 6-10 : Using the marine boundary layer latitudinal synthesis from NOAA to get [<observation>], you could probably compute <observation> - [<observation>] as well and compare to the same model term. Did you try this ? It would worth trying.

> This is an interesting suggestion. Due to sparse coverage of stations in many regions the width of the latitudinal bands in the NOAA latitudinal synthesis is much larger than the width we use in the tracer approach. Unfortunately, the tracer approach is no longer valid if we extend the widths of the latitudinal bands. Moreover, the NOAA marine boundary layer latitudinal synthesis is only valid above the oceans, whereas most of the Earth parallels contain also a significant fraction of land

P30907, 121 : "This indicates that the contribution to CH4 from regional emissions are small and that long-range transport from other latitudes is decisive $\hat{A}\dot{z}$. I do not fully agree as Cape Grim is one of the only site where, the B(tracer – mean(tracer)) term explains the growth after 2000. Please provide explanations in the text.

> B(tracer – mean(tracer)) + the Residual explains the difference CH4-mean(CH4) (see eq 1) and **not** the trend in CH4. See equation 1 in the manuscript.

P30908, 119 : Keybiscane analysis. This requires attention. Is the coal increase from EDGAR reliable ? Can you cross this increase with EPA inventory and see whether this is consistent or not ?

The increase in coal emissions from 2003 to 2008 is almost 12 % in the EDGAR inventory. An increase of 28 % is found from 2005-2010 in the EPA inventory. We have added this information in the manuscript.

P30909, 13 : "i.e. other locations at the same latitudes have a larger trend in CH4. $\hat{A}\dot{z}$ Pleas be more precise here. As Europe also shows reductions the blame is probably on Asia as shown by following figures.

We agree and now point to Asian emissions as the likely cause.

P30912, 11 : for Minamitorishima, I do not understand why B(tracer – mean(tracer)) term is constantly decreasing. With the pattern of individual emission change (mostly increase). Please provide explanations in the text.

> This means that the latitudinal mean tracer grows more than the tracer at this specific site. Since this is a background station in the ocean some of the signal from the strong emission increase at the continent disperses before reaching the station. This station also has a relatively strong influence from regional natural emissions. The tracer from this source decreases somewhat over time whereas the latitudinal mean tracer for this source shows a smaller trend. (To shorten section 3.3 the comparison for this station is now removed from the manuscript.)

P30913, 128. I think there is now a majority (if not a consensus yet) to agree that OH variations inferred for the 80s/90s from MCF are too large (e.g. Montzka et al 2011). I would be more clearly state this point that wetland variations are most probably overestimated in Bousquet et al., 2011 for this period.

We agree and have changed the text in accordance with the suggestion from the reviewer.

P30914, Pinatubo analysis. OH changes are not mentioned in this analysis whereas it probably explained a lot of the changes. Why so ? Ir it because "changes in meteo-

rology (temperature, water vapor, etc.) and volcanic SO2 and sulphate aerosols in the stratosphere $\hat{A}\dot{z}$ are not accounted for ? You should at least specified their expected impact on methane through OH changes (reduction).

> The theoretical background refers to literature studies and discuss the overall effect of

emission and OH changes to compress the text. We agree that we could provide a bit more information and have now adjusted the text to distinguish those perturbations only affecting OH and how this changes methane.

Figure 12 : Why coal and gas are largely positive in the southern hemisphere for this period ? Please comment on that in the text

➤ Instead of showing relative numbers for growth, the figure is now changed to show absolute numbers. This gives a better measure of the individual sector's contribution and makes it easier to see where emission changes occur. The coal and gas signal is no longer as striking as for relative numbers, therefore we include them under the "anthropogenic" umbrella in the text: "Both model and measurements have the strongest growth (Fig. 12) in the Southern Hemisphere, which had large wetland emissions in 1998 (Bousquet et al., 2006;Dlugokencky et al., 2001). In the model, slowly rising anthropogenic emissions in the Southern Hemisphere also seems to contribute (Fig. 12b-f)."

P30918, 17 "Much of this is due to intensification of oil and shale gas extraction in the US and coal exploitation in China $\hat{A}\dot{z}$. Are gas emissions from gas extraction in the US increase in EDGAR4.2 ? I am not sure this inventory accounts for the shale gas for instance. Please precise.

> The EDGAR inventory does not fully take into account the increase in shale gas exploitation. However, in this discussion in the manuscript we refer to a number of studies in literature of which some take into account US shale gas extraction.

P30919, 17-9 : "who attributes much of the recent increase in total emissions to wet- lands Âż I suggest to add Âń for the period 2007-2009 Âż as Bousquet et al study does not cover the most recent years (since 2010).

We agree. The sentence now says: "Our natural emissions are from Bousquet et al. (2011) who attributes much of the 2007-2008 increase in total emissions to wetlands."

P30921-22 : please provide a conclusion to the literature analysis performed about OH changes. There might not be a consensus but it is worth summarizing where we are at the end of the part.

In accordance with the suggestion we have now added a few concluding remarks.

P30922 : "An increase in NOx emissions increases global OH as long as it takes place

outside highly polluted regions $\hat{A}\dot{z}$: what happens in Asia so? It is important to estimate the impact of such highly polluted regions on you conclusions about OH impacts in this paper. Please provide at least hypotheses.

We have now added the following text in section 3.5: "Of particular importance is large increases in OH over Southeast Asia, mainly due to strong growth in NO_x emissions. From 2000-2010 the modelled tropospheric OH column increase by 10-20 % over China and India (not shown)."

P30924 : Are these two equations to represent methane lifetime very dependent of your model? It would be important to assess somehow the genericity of these equations as it may be useful for other scientists in the communitog.

We think the key message from this finding is that simplified equations can be used to hindcast or project methane lifetime for similar types of perturbation studies. This should be of interest for other scientists in the community. Regarding model genericity it is a bit difficult to answer. To our knowledge it is only Holmes et al. (2013) and Dalsøren and Isaksen (2006) who have performed similar analysis on equations for methane lifetime. Since we study different time periods and both emissions and meteorology are perturbed in our simulations this probably explains much of the difference compared to these studies. In general, if multi-model studies perform identical emission perturbations we expect the slope and intercept of the equations to be model dependent due to numerous differences in applied chemistry schemes, transport schemes etc. However, we think that the OH affecting parameters forming the equations should be the same. If the parameters are different it would be a reason for detailed investigation of differences in model representation of OH chemistry.

P30925, 119 : $\hat{A}\hat{n}$ that our applied emission inventories are reasonable $\hat{A}\hat{z}$ i suggest to rephrase : that our applied emission inventories and computed transport and chemistry are reasonable.

We agree and included the suggested addition to the text.

P30925, 127 The model overestimates the growth in all regions, in particular in Asia after 2006

We now make it clear that this is after 2006.

P30926, 128 : "... model results after 2009 due to lack of comprehensive emission inventories Âż. Edgar4.2, although not perfect as noticed in the paper has released data until 2012. There is also IIASAS and EPA having projections for the next years. I would rephrase suggestions that inventory should improve and account for consistent suggestions

that Asian emissions are overestimated in EDGAR.

 \succ For the global inventories the 2008-2012 EDGAR projection is based on a simplified approach and the step from 2010 to 2015 in ECLIPSE is scenario based. We therefore think it is correct to state that comprehensive emission inventories for recent years are lacking.

Responses to comments from Anonymous Referee #2

This paper adds to our understanding of the factors affecting methane concentration in the past. A novel modeling approach for assessing regional emission impacts on observations is provided and in many respects supports conclusions from previous studies. Unfortunately, while the introduction is concise and to the point, the main text rambles on in places and reads like a review in others. As such it can be difficult to fol- low and understand how the new work contributes. Specific conclusions are provided, yet they are often lost in the extensive discussion of minor points, ancillary information, and reviews of past studies that don't necessarily help the reader follow the train of thought required to draw conclusions. Section 3.5 (and 3.6) is particularly noteworthy in this regard, although the discussion of figures 12-14 also needs attention. I'm not sure what to conclude from three long paragraphs of text in section 3.5. It is only in the Summary and Conclusion section that I learn what the authors really think about constraints on OH provided by other gases (or lack of constraints). I think with some attention to tightening up the text to improve the focus on the most noteworthy issues regarding CH4 the paper would be ready for publishing in ACP.

We thank the reviewer for comments and suggestions. We have tried to tighten up the text to provide a clearer presentation of our main conclusions (e.g., Section 3.3 and 3.5 has been revised and shortened, Figures 12-14 changed). See below for answer to detailed comments on these and other issues.

Figures 12-14. All results are given in percentages. Please be clear what the percent- ages are calculated relative to. I presume it is the total emission associated with each sector and, if true, makes it very difficult to confirm the points made in the text about which sources are the dominant players in affecting growth rates during these different periods.

We agree that it can be confusing presenting these figures in relative terms. We now present absolute changes. As the reviewer states, this gives clearer information on the key sectors affecting growth rates and is also more in line with the other figures in the manuscript.

A similar problem is encountered in Figure 8, where results from Zepplin are discussed relative to conclusions from Fisher et al (2011). Assertions by the authors that the two results are in agreement regarding the seasonal contributions shifting from wetland in summer to gas in winter isn't apparent from the figure (red line, combo of wetlands and biomass burning is always higher than the yellow line (gas)).

> The referee comment is correct: This is not shown in the figure. We now state this in the manuscript. Figure 8 shows running annual means for the tracers but the first draft we

submitted contained monthly variations. This information was removed from this figure as it otherwise got a bit overloaded with information.

In section 3.5, results from some studies are not well represented in this somewhat rambling text. Weren't the results from Manning et al. (2005) specifically relevant for OH on a semi-hemisphere scale (not global)? And the NOAA study argues for OH variability derived from CH3CCl3 before 1998 being artificially enhanced also because of representation issues given the sparse networks (in addition to emission uncertain- ties). It would be interesting to discuss whether the increase in OH derived from the photochemical model here is consistent or not with the CH3CCl3 budget (longer-term trends more than year-to-year variations), or are the uncertainties associated with deriving OH from CH3CCl3 too large to detect the changes are inferred here? To imagine that an analysis of the CO budget actually allows the conclusion that the OH changes are realistic seems an overstatement (p. 30920). CO is not typically used to constrain OH and OH trends because CO emissions (and their time dependence globally) are not well enough known to allow for tight constraints on OH. It is very good to point out that the CO model results (with trending OH and the given emissions) are internally consistent, but this analysis doesn't add much to the reliability in the model-derived OH trends.

We agree with the reviewer's interpretation for the two mentioned studies and adjusted the text in accordance with this. A check for consistency between the OH trends and the CH3CCl3 budget would be interesting. However, we decided not to do such analysis here as there are considerable uncertainties. This mainly affects interannual variations but could in turn affect the trend analysis. The uncertainties are discussed in the manuscript and we support the statement (referred to in manuscript) from Holmes et al. (2013) which concludes that better understanding of systematic differences between different CH₃CCl₃ observation networks is required before using them as constraints on inter-annual variability of CH4 lifetime and OH. On the CO and OH trend issues we share the reviewer's views. The wording was unfortunate giving a misleading impression. We have now reformulated the text and moved this to section 3.6 (discussion of CO emissions) where we just point to internal consistency between modelled CO, OH trends and CO emissions.

Abstract, in the last 5 lines and throughout the text where appropriate, be clear to emphasize that this is the case "in the model".

$\blacktriangleright \qquad This is now done.$

Instead of using the word detach, consider as an alternative deconvolve or even identify.

Thanks. We now use "identify".

Colors in figures are very difficult to distinguish-perhaps increase the symbol sizes or line widths. Also, in the text and caption it would help if sources were identified and described consistently throughout and, where possible, included parenthetically the color of the line referring to the source being discussed in the text.

Changes were made to figure 12-14 where absolute numbers now are shown for growth rates instead of relative. The color scaling was also changed. Section 3.3 is revised and shortened and it should now be easier to relate the text and connected figures (Fig. 5-10). To further ease interpretation, Table S1 in the Supplement lists CH4 emission sectors and tracers used in the model simulations, and shows the legend colours in Fig. 1 and Fig. 6-10.

1	Atmospheric methane evolution the last 40 years
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1 Abstract

Observations at surface sites show an increase in global mean surface methane (CH₄) of about 2 180 parts per billion (ppb) (above 10 %) over the period 1984-2012. Over this period there are 3 large fluctuations in the annual growth rate. In this work, we investigate the atmospheric CH₄ 4 evolution over the period 1970-2012 with the Oslo CTM3 global Chemical Transport Model 5 6 (CTM) in a bottom-up approach. We thoroughly assess data from surface measurement sites 7 in international networks and select a subset suited for comparisons with the output from the 8 CTM. We compare model results and observations to understand causes for both for-longterm trends and short-term variations. Employing the Oslo CTM3-model we are able to 9 reproduce the seasonal and year to year variations and shifts between years with consecutive 10 growth and stagnation, both at global and regional scales. The overall CH₄ trend over the 11 12 period is reproduced, but for some periods the model fails to reproduce the strength of the growth. The model overestimates the observed growth after 2006 is overestimated by the 13 14 model in all regions. This seems to be explained by a too strong increase in anthropogenic emissions in Asia, having global impact. Our findings confirm other studies questioning the 15 16 timing or strength of the emission changes in Asia in the EDGAR v4.2 emission inventory over the last decades. The evolution of CH₄ is not only controlled by changes in sources, but 17 also by changes in the chemical loss in the atmosphere and soil uptake. The We model a large 18 growth in atmospheric CH₄ lifetime is an indicator of oxidation capacity over the CH₄ 19 loss.period 1970-2012. In our simulations, the atmospheric CH₄ lifetime decreases by more 20 than 8 % from 1970 to 2012, a significant reductionshortening of the residence time of this 21 important greenhouse gas. Changes in CO and NO_x emissions, specific humidity, and ozone 22 column drive most of this, and we provide simple prognostic equations for the relations 23 between those and the CH₄ lifetime. The reduced lifetime This results in substantial growth in 24 the chemical CH₄ loss (relative to its burden) and dampens the CH₄ growth. The change in 25 atmospheric oxidation capacity is driven by complex interactions between a number of 26 27 chemical components and meteorological factors. In our analysis, we are able to detach the key factors and provide simple prognostic equations for the relations between these and the 28 29 atmospheric CH₄-lifetime.

30

1 1 Introduction

2 The atmospheric CH₄ abundance has more than doubled over the industrial era. The resulting

3 radiative forcing is second after CO₂ in terms of anthropogenic forcing from greenhouse gases

4 (Myhre et al., 2013). High uncertainty remains regarding the contributions from specific

5 source sectors and regions to the CH₄ emissions (Neef et al., 2010;Kirschke et al.,

6 2013;Houweling et al., 2014;Melton et al., 2012;Bruhwiler et al., 2014;Schwietzke et al.,

7 2014;Bridgham et al., 2013;Pison et al., 2009;Ciais et al., 2013), the underlying factors

8 contributing to observed trends (Dlugokencky et al., 2009;Dlugokencky et al., 2003;Wang et

9 al., 2004;Kai et al., 2011;Aydin et al., 2011;Simpson et al., 2012;Bousquet et al.,

10 2006;Bousquet et al., 2011;Pison et al., 2013;Bergamaschi et al., 2013;Monteil et al.,

11 2011;Ghosh et al., 2015;Nisbet et al., 2014;Fiore et al., 2006;Levin et al., 2012), and in

12 feedbacks from the biosphere and permafrost (Bridgham et al., 2013;Melton et al.,

13 2012;Isaksen et al., 2011;O'Connor et al., 2010). The uncertainties in our understanding of

14 current budgets, recent trends, and feedbacks limit confidence in accurately projecting the

15 future evolution of CH₄. Increasing atmospheric CH₄ would accelerate near-term warming,

16 due to its strong climate impact on a 20-year time frame (Myhre et al., 2013). Enhanced CH₄

17 levels would also increase the ozone levels in surface air (Fiore et al., 2008;West and Fiore,

18 2005; Fiore et al., 2012; Isaksen et al., 2014), and thereby worsen air pollution impacts on

19 vegetation, crops, and human health.

20 This study seeks to increase our understanding of CH₄ by providing a detailed analysis on

21 global and regional CH₄ evolution over the last 40 years. We investigate essential natural and

22 anthropogenic drivers controlling the atmospheric CH₄ budget over the period, with a

23 particular focus on the last 15 years. We perform a balanced analysis of both sources and

24 sinks. The sinks depend on the atmospheric oxidation capacity, which is determined by

25 complex chemical and meteorological interactions. This study tries to reveal the key chemical

26 components and meteorological factors affecting recent changes in the oxidation capacity. We

compare model studies and observations to understand causes for both for-long-term trends

and short--term variations (year-to-year). We also address reasons for differences between

29 observed and modelled CH₄ trends. The methods used are described in section 2. Section 3

30 presents the results from our main analysis and discuss them in a broader context related to

31 findings from other studies. Additional sensitivity studies are presented in the Supplement. In

32 section 4 we summarize our findings.

1 2 Methods and approach

2 2.1 Emissions and sinks

3 2.1.1 Methane

We used CH₄ emissions for anthropogenic sources from EDGAR v4.2 (EC-JRC/PBL, 2011) 4 and biomass burning and natural sources from Bousquet et al. (2011). In addition we used soil 5 6 uptake from Bousquet et al. (2011). Combination of two emission inventories (EDGAR v4.2 7 and Bousquet et al. (2011)) makes it possible to study the impacts of many emission sectors (18 in total, see Table S1 in the Supplement for the sectors and specifications of the categories). 8 9 The EDGAR inventory covers the period 1970-2008 while the Bousquet et al. (2011) data 10 covers the period 1984-2009. Since we study the period 1970-2012 extrapolations were made for the years not covered by the datasets. For all years from 1970 to 1984 we used natural and 11 biomass burning emissions and soil uptake for 1984. For 2010-2012 we used 2009 data for 12 these sources. For the anthropogenic emissions we extrapolated the change from 2007-2008 to 13 the period 2009-2012. The rather simple extrapolations result in additional uncertainties in the 14 model outcome for these years. Fig. S1 in the Supplement shows how the emissions are 15 included in the model for the different time periods. The total emissions and emissions from 16 17 major sectors are shown in Fig. 1. There is a large growth in total emissions from 1970 to 2012. However, shorter periods with declining emissions occur due to large inter-annual variability 18 19 in natural emissions, especially from wetlands which is the largest emission sector. The interannual variation in wetland emissions tends to be anti-correlated with the ENSO index 20 (Bousquet et al., 2006;Hodson et al., 2011). Low natural emissions also occur due to lower 21 global temperatures in the years after the Pinatubo eruption. In the 1990s the growth in 22 23 anthropogenic emissions are small, mainly caused by the economic collapse of the former USSR. From 2000 to 2006 the total emissions are quite stable and this is caused by decreasing 24 wetland emissions due to dry conditions in the tropics in combination with increasing 25 anthropogenic emissions. From 2006 there is a strong growth in total emissions due to large 26 27 wetland emissions and a continuing growth of anthropogenic emissions. The abrupt increase in 2007 is mainly explained by high wetland emissions caused by high temperatures at high 28 29 latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere, and wet conditions in the tropics (Bousquet et al., 2011). 30 Enteric fermentation (due to ruminants) is the main anthropogenic emission sector and it grows steadily except for a period in the nineties. Some other major anthropogenic sectors like gas, 31 32 solid fuel (mostly coal) and agricultural soils (mostly rice) even decrease over shorter periods but have in common a substantial growth over the last decade. The sum of several smaller 33

anthropogenic emission sectors (industry, residential, waste, some fossil, etc.) are also shown
in Fig. 1. This sum termed "other anthropogenic sectors" is of the same magnitude as enteric
fermentation. The growth is rather stable and moderate with some interruptions: Temporary
declines occur after the oil crisis in 1973 and the energy crisis in 1979. The growth is also small

5 <u>during the nineties.</u> and by coincidence follows a similar time evolution.

6 We also explore a possible impact of the recent financial crisis using an alternative

- 7 extrapolation of anthropogenic emissions for the period 2009-2012. Here, the emissions from
- 8 petroleum and solid fuel production and distribution were scaled with BP Statistical Review
- 9 of World Energy (bp.com/statisticalreview) numbers for gas production, oil and coal
- 10 consumption resulting in a drop in total emissions in 2009 (Fig. 1). However, the evolution
- 11 from 2010 with this alternative extrapolation is rather similar to that for the standard
- 12 extrapolation. The EDGAR v4.2 inventory was recently extended to include also the years
- 13 <u>2009-2012. In Figure S2 (supplement) we compare our extrapolations with the new data and</u>
- 14 <u>also include a comparison to ECLIPSE v5a emissions that are available for part of our study</u>
- 15 period (1990-2015, 5-year intervals).
- 16

17 2.1.2 Other components

Anthropogenic emissions of CO, NOx, sulfur and NMVOCs were taken from the EDGAR v4.2 inventory (EC-JRC/PBL, 2011). Similar extrapolation was done as for the CH₄ emissions to cover the period 2009-2012. For biomass burning emissions we used GFEDv3 (van der Werf et al., 2010) for the period 1997-2012. In the period 1970-1996 we used year 2001 emissions from GFEDv3. 2001 was taken as a proxy for an average year since it has a weak ENSO index for all months (see next section for more discussion on this).

24 The parametrization and inter-annual variation of lightning NO_x emissions are described in

25 Søvde et al. (2012). For other natural emissions we used emission data for 2000 for all years.

26 The oceanic emissions of CO and NMVOCs and soil NOx emissions are from RETRO

- 27 (Schultz et al., 2008). Sources for natural sulfur emissions are described in Berglen et al.
- 28 (2004). -The emissions from vegetation of CO and NMVOCs are from MEGANv2 (Guenther
- et al., 2006). Recently a new dataset (Sindelarova et al., 2014) with MEGAN emissions
- 30 covering the period 1980-2010 became available. This dataset was used in a sensitivity study
- 31 to investigate whether inter-annual variations in CO and NMVOCs emissions from vegetation
- 32 are important for the CH₄ evolution.

1 2.2 Chemical Transport Model

2 The emission data over the period 1970-2012 was used as input in the Oslo CTM3 model. A coupled tropospheric and stratospheric version was used. The model was run with 109 3 chemical active species affecting CH₄ and atmospheric oxidation capacity. In addition we 4 5 added 18 passive fictitious tracers for each of the CH₄ emission sectors listed in Table S1. The traces were continuously emitted and then given an e-folding lifetime of 1 month undergoing 6 7 transport but not interacting chemically. The passive tracers were used as a proxy for the 8 different sector's contribution to monthly mean surface CH₄ concentrations. The aim was to 9 reveal key sectors and regions behind recent changes in spatial distribution or temporal 10 evolution of CH₄.

11 Oslo CTM3 was described and evaluated by Søvde et al. (2012) and used for studying CH4

12 lifetime changes in Holmes et al. (2013). Oslo CTM3 is an update of Oslo CTM2 which has

13 been used in a number of previous studies of stratospheric and tropospheric chemistry,

14 including studies on CH₄ (Dalsoren et al., 2010;Dalsøren and Isaksen, 2006;Dalsøren et al.,

15 2011;Isaksen et al., 2011).

16 The Oslo CTM3 simulations were driven with <u>3-hourly</u> meteorological forecast data from the

17 European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Integrated Forecast

18 System (IFS) model (see Søvde et al. (2012) for details). <u>These data are 36-hours forecasts</u>

19 produced with 12 hours of spin-up starting from an ERA-Interim analysis at noon on the

20 <u>previous day.</u> The meteorological data used in this study cover the period 1997–October

21 2012. For the years ahead of 1997, year 2001 meteorology was used. 2001 was chosen since

this is a year with weak ENSO index for all months. Previous studies have shown a strong

23 influence of ENSO events on CH₄ (Holmes et al., 2013;Warwick et al., 2002;Johnson et al.,

24 2002). Initially the model was spun up in a long run with repetitive 1970 emissions until we

obtained a stable atmospheric CH₄ burden from one year to the next. Due to the long

adjustment time of CH₄ it took 27 years to get CH₄ in equilibrium. After the spin up a set of

simulations (Table 1) were made for the period 1970 to 2012. The «main» simulation includes

the standard CH₄ emissions described in section 2.1.1. In the «financial» simulation the period

29 2009-2012 was rerun with slightly different emissions evaluating whether the recent financial

30 crisis had any significant impact on CH₄ levels. With a similar purpose a "bio" simulation

31 was performed accounting for inter-annual variation in emissions of CO and NMVOCs from

32 vegetation. The results from the two sensitivity studies on emissions are discussed in the

33 Supplement. In the «fixed methane» simulation, the prescription of methane emissions was

1 turned off and surface CH₄ was kept fixed at monthly mean 1970 levels (i.e., boundary

- 2 condition of Dirichlet type instead of Neumann type) to isolate the effect of other
- 3 components and meteorological factors on CH₄ via changes in oxidation capacity. In the
- 4 «fixed met» simulation, the period 1997-2012 was repeated using year 2001 meteorology for
- 5 all years. By comparing this run with the «main» simulation the impact of meteorological
- 6 variability could be discerned.

7 2.3 Observations

To get insights into the drivers of the changes on regional level, and reveal strengths and 8 9 discrepancies in model performance we compared the model results to surface CH₄ observations. We thoroughly assessed the surface sites providing CH₄ measurements to the 10 11 World Data Center for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG) (http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/wdcgg/), 12 and picked out a subset of sites for comparison. Criteria for selection were the length of 13 measurement record (coverage over most of the time periods of interest),, access to continuous time series with few gaps, time resolution (at least 2-3 measurement per month), 14 15 coverage of different regions of the Earth, and site characteristics (e.g. elevation, topography, and influence of pollution episodes). The last point was evaluated in relation to the resolution 16 17 of the CTM. From this analysis, 71 observational datasets from 64 stations in the WDCGG 18 database were selected as suited for comparisons with the CTM results. Comparisons for some of these stations are shown in sections 3.3 and 3.4.-19 20

3 The methane evolution and decisive factors over the period 1970-2012 3.1 Global methane budget

23 Fig. 2 shows the evolution of the CH_4 budget over the period 1970-2012 for the main simulation. It presents total burden and loss calculated by the forward CTM run and the 24 25 emissions applied in this simulation. The total burden shown in black is balanced by the emissions (blue) and the loss (red). There is a steady growth in atmospheric CH₄ burden from 26 27 1970 to the beginning of the nineties, then a short period of decline after the Mount Pinatubo volcanic eruption in 1991. After 1994 there is a slight increase in CH₄ burden towards the 28 29 millennium. Then the CH₄ burden is stable for 5-6 years. After 2006 there is a rapid growth in CH₄ burden. 30

31 <u>TheComparing to the emissions, the</u> evolution of <u>emissions and the modelled</u> CH₄ burden
 32 <u>sharefrom 1970 to 2012 shares</u> many common features (Fig. 2). However, the. The growth in

emissions is about 35 % from 1970 to 2012 while the growth in atmospheric burden is about 1 2 15 % (additional burden increase after 2012 due to the long response time of CH₄, is not accounted for in this number). The Noticeably, the CH₄ burden has increased less than 3 expected solely from the increase in CH_4 emissions since a growth in the atmospheric CH_4 4 loss occurred over the period. The growth in instantaneous atmospheric CH₄ loss is almost 5 25 %. In the period 2001-2006 when emissions were quite stable increasing CH₄ loss likely 6 7 contributed to the stagnation of the CH₄ growth. Interestingly, for 2010-2012, the loss deviates from its steady increase over the previous decades. A stabilization of the CH4 loss 8 9 probably contributed to the continuing increase (2009-2012) in CH₄ burden after the high emission years 2007 and 2008. Due to the long response time of CH₄ this change in the loss 10 11 pattern might also contribute to future growth in CH₄. However, there are additional 12 uncertainties in the model burden and loss after 2009 due to the extrapolation of emissions 13 after this year.

Especially after 1997 and the introduction of variation in meteorology, we see that the loss 14 follows a different path than the burden. Comparing the main model simulation with the one 15 16 with fixed meteorology (Fig. 3) for the period 1997-2012 it becomes evident that inclusion of varying meteorological factors is important to take into account to understand the 17 development of the CH₄ budget. This was also shown in other studies (Johnson et al., 18 2002; Fiore et al., 2006; Warwick et al., 2002; Holmes et al., 2013). If there had been no 19 20 variation in meteorology and only changes in emissions, the CH₄ loss would have been 21 significantly different and there would have been a stronger increase in CH₄ burden after 22 2006. Meteorological variability explains to a large degree much of the stabilization of CH₄ loss after 2010, and might thereby explain part of the large CH₄ burden increase in 2011 and 23 2012. Around the millennium we see a stabilization of the loss in the simulation with fixed 24 meteorology, but increased loss in the main run. This implies that meteorological variations 25 contribute to a prolonged period (2003-2006) of stabilization in CH₄ burden (Fig. 3). From the 26 27 comparison in Fig. 3 it can also be seen that it is meteorological factors and not emissions that causes the large enhancements of CH₄ loss in 1998 (El Niño event) and 2010 (warm year on 28 29 global scale). Such episodes do not show up as immediate perturbations of the CH₄ burden 30 (Fig. 2 and 3) due to the long response time of atmospheric CH₄.

31 CH₄ is lost from the atmosphere by soil uptake (Curry, 2009) and chemical reactions in the

32 atmosphere (Lelieveld et al., 1998;Crutzen, 1991).-Our prescribed fields for soil uptake

33 (Bousquet et al., 2011) are responsible for about 5 % of the loss and the difference between

1 the year with smallest and largest soil uptake is only 2 %. Meteorology and other drivers for

2 the modelled evolution of methane loss The atmospheric chemical loss is therefore decisive

- 3 for the evolution of the total CH₄ loss shown in Fig. 2 and 3. Oxidation by atmospheric
- 4 hydroxyl (OH) is the major chemical loss, but there is also some small loss due to reactions
- 5 with atomic oxygen radicals and chlorine (Lelieveld et al., 1998;Crutzen, 1991). Modelled
- 6 changes in OH and the impacts on CH_4 -lifetime are discussed in detail in sections 3.5-3.6.

7 3.2 Evolution of global mean surface methane

Fig. 4 compares the global mean surface CH₄ in the main model simulation, to global mean 8 9 surface CH₄ calculated from networks of surface stations. The main picture is discussed in this section while more detailed evaluations of CH₄ development on continental scale, trends, 10 11 and inter-annual variations are made in the following sections. The time evolution of global 12 mean surface CH₄ is very similar for the three observational networks shown in Fig. 4 but 13 there are some differences for the absolute methane level. The AGAGE (mountain and coastal sites) and NOAA ESRL (sites in the marine boundary layer) stations are distant from large 14 15 pollution sources. WDCGG uses curve fitting and data extension methods very similar to those developed by NOAA and many of the same stations (Tsutsumi et al., 2009), but in 16 17 addition to marine boundary layer sites, WDCGG includes many continental locations strongly influenced by local sources and sinks 18

19 (http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/mbl/mbl.html). The methane emission estimates from

20 Bousquet et al. (2011) are optimized against atmospheric observations. Since we only use

- 21 their natural and biomass burning emission inventories, we use different anthropogenic
- 22 emissions (from EDGAR), and the OH field in their inverse model is substantially different
- 23 from our modelled OH, there is no guarantee that our model will match observations.
- 24

Our model generally reproduces the different periods of growth and stagnation and the overall 25 26 observed increase in concentration from 1984 to 2012 of almost 180 ppb is replicated. This gives us confidence when evaluating the decisive drivers explaining the variable evolution 27 over time. However, the model fails to reproduce the strength of the growth rate during some 28 eras, for instance the growth since 2006 is overestimated. Over the whole period the model 29 also underestimate the observed CH₄ level. Even though there are also large uncertainties in 30 total CH₄ emission levels (Kirschke et al., 2013;Ciais et al., 2013) we find it more likely that 31 our model overestimates the atmospheric CH₄ sink. In a recent model inter-comparison the 32 multi-model global mean CH₄ lifetime was underestimated by 5-13 % (Naik et al., 2013) 33

compared to observational estimates. Our study shows a similar underestimation of CH₄
lifetime. Though the multi-model lifetime is within the uncertainty range of observations it is
likely that models tend to overestimate OH abundances in the Northern Hemisphere (Naik et al., 2013;Strode et al., 2015;Patra et al., 2014).

5

6 3.3 Methane evolution and emission drivers in different regions

7 In the <u>Supplementary Material</u>, we <u>explaindiscuss</u> how the CH₄ mole fraction can

8 be split into two components: A quite uniform background component and an inhomogeneous

9 recently emitted component. <u>The latter is advected and mixed, and when achieving a good</u>

10 mixing (after 1-2 months) it is converted into the background component. We show how the

11 use of a 1-month e-folding fictitious tracer (Total tracer) is valid as a proxy for the

12 <u>inhomogeneous component</u>. The latter, which after achieving well mixing will become

13 background-CH₄ surface emissions act as the sources for the tracer. In the Supplement we use

14 the continuity equation for the CH_4 mole fraction (CH_4 model) as starting point and further -

15 From the arguments to derivepresented in the supplementary material, we use the following

16 approximation:

17 $\langle CH_4 \mod b \rangle - [\langle CH_4 \mod b \rangle] = B x (\langle Total tracer \rangle - [\langle Total tracer \rangle]) + Residual$

18 (Equation 1)

19 Where [] denotes longitudinal mean along a whole terrestrial parallel and <> denotes annual

20 running mean. We are interested in the inter-annual variation of CH₄, so we have carried out

annual running means to remove the strong seasonal cycle. <u>The subtraction of longitudinal</u>

22 means on each side of Eq. 1 removes the influence of differences in lifetimes (the mean

23 lifetime of CH₄ is around 9 years, whereas the mean lifetime of the Total tracer is 1 month). B

and Residual are constants (or almost constant), if <u>thesome</u> prerequisites discussed in the

25 <u>Supplement (S3, last paragraph) supplementary</u> are met. We expect B to be near or equal to 1,

and Residual to be small. If B and Residual were exactly constant, the <u>Pearson</u> linear

27 correlation coefficient between $\langle CH_4 \mod el \rangle - [\langle CH_4 \mod el \rangle]$ and $\langle Total \ tracer \rangle - [\langle Total$

tracer>] would be exactly equal to 1. The tracer approach then gives valuable information on

the contribution to CH₄ variation from recent regional-local emission or transport changes.

30 We therefore use the correlation coefficient (indeed, its square, R^2 : the coefficient of

31 determination obtained when performing a linear least-square fit between both magnitudes in

32 Eq. 1 to determine B and Residual) as one criteriona when selecting interesting stations for

1 methane trend studies. Only stations where $\underline{\mathbb{R}^2}$ the correlation coefficient (\mathbb{R}^2) is higher than

2 0.5 is used. This criterion excludes only a small number of The second main station selection

3 criteria is to have sufficient coverage in the available stationsdifferent world regions. In

4 addition, we use the general station selection criteria discussed earlier in the manuscript

5 (<u>sufficient coverage in the different world regions</u>, long time series etc., see section 2.3). Fig.

6 5 shows the locations of stations used in Fig. 6-10 for detailed trend analysis and evaluation of

7 model performance.

8

Table 2 shows R^2 , the constants B and Residual, and RMSE from a linear fit of the variables 9 in eq. 1. All stations except one (reason for exception at the Wendover station is discussed in 10 the <u>S</u>supplement) have R^2 above 0.8. Such high correlation coefficients support that the 11 approximation in eq. 1 is useful for these stations. As expected, B is usually larger than 1. The 12 13 fictitious tracer will underestimate somewhat the inhomogeneous recently emitted CH₄, in particular at remote stations, because part of it is removed by the e-folding sink before being 14 15 smoothed to the characteristic variation length of the background. Mauna Loa is probably the most remote station and located at high altitude. It has the largest B and Residual. Alert, 16 17 Tutuila, Mahe Island and Key Biscayne are also remote stations that have a high B. As explained below the tracers play a small role in explaining CH₄ at Cape Grim and Ushuaia, 18 for which B is below 1. 19

20

In the upper panels of Fig. 6-10, the model results are scaled to the observed mean CH₄ level 21 over the periods of measurements to better discern differences in trends between observations 22 and model. The scaling procedure is explained in the Supplement. In general, the model 23 reproduces the seasonal and year--to--year variations very well with high correlation 24 coefficients of determination, R^2 , for most stations, (The median is 0.7679, and R^2 is above 25 0.65 for 1547 of 1820 stations). The model performance is lower at highly polluted sites due 26 27 to large gradients in concentrations and non-linearity of oxidant chemistry not fully captured by a global model with coarse resolution (approximately 2.8° x 2.8°). The model also captures 28 the long term evolution of CH₄ seen in the observations but overestimates the increase after 29 30 2005 at most stations.

The stations in the Southern Hemisphere (Fig. 6) are located far from the dominating
emissions sources, and the CH₄ concentration is to a large degree determined by transport and
chemical loss. The high <u>correlation</u> coefficients <u>of determination</u> ranging from 0.92 to 0.95

and reproduction of the seasonality and trends indicate that our model is performing excellent
 with respect to transport and seasonal variation in the chemical loss.

As seen in the mid panels, Ascension Island (Fig. 6a) and Tutuila (Fig. 6b) have negative 3 4 <Total tracer>-[<Total tracer>]. Since these are rather remote stations, their tracer levels are 5 below the longitudinal mean. The modelled CH₄ evolution from 1990-2005 is well correlated 6 with the development of the natural tracers. However, changes in natural emissions do not 7 seem to explain the periods with large growth before 1990 and for the period 2005-2012. 8 While the model underestimates the growth before 1990 it overestimates the growth in the recent years. The small steady increases in contributions from all anthropogenic sectors only 9 has a minor contribution to the modelled CH₄ increase for these periods. However, since these 10 11 source tracers have an e-folding lifetime of 1 month their evolution is only representative for 12 changes in contribution from regional sources. Inter-hemispheric transport occurs on longer 13 timescales; hence, changes in large anthropogenic sources in the Northern Hemisphere most likely also had a significant contribution as discussed below. At Ascension Island, extra 14 strong influences of regional sources (<CH₄ model>-[<CH₄ model>] change different from 15 16 zero) are mainly associated with El Nino episodes (1987, 1997-98, and 2004-05). In 1997-98 there are peaks both for the natural tracer and <Total tracer>-[<Total tracer>] indicating a rise 17 in nearby natural emissions and/or transport from such a source. For 1987 a regional drop in 18 natural emissions has a smaller impact at Ascension compared to the whole latitude band. At 19 20 Tutuila <Total tracer>-[<Total tracer>] decreases over time due to a relatively larger increase 21 in the latitudinal mean anthropogenic tracers (not shown), especially enteric fermentation. 22 This explains why the CH₄ growth at the site (<CH₄ model>) is slightly less than the mean latitudinal ([<CH₄ model>]) growth. 23

24

Ushuaia (Fig. 6c) and Cape Grim (Fig. 6 d) are the southernmost stations. In the mid panels it 25 26 can be seen that both terms on the right side in eq. 1 are small (B x (<Total tracer>-[<Total tracer>] and Residuals) resulting in small (<CH₄ model>-[<CH₄ model>]. This indicates that 27 28 the contribution to CH₄ from regional emissions are small and that long-range transport from 29 other latitudes is decisive. Distant latitudinal transport is not seen by the tracer term if it takes 30 more than around two months. Such transport would also result in very similar <CH₄ model> 31 and [<CH₄ model>] since atmospheric species with lifetime of that timescale or longer are 32 quite homogenously distributed over latitudinal bands. Since both the emissions and their 33 trends are small at high southern latitudes, the distant transport likely originates from lower

1 latitudes in the Southern Hemisphere or the Northern Hemisphere. As discussed earlier the

- 2 fictitious tracer will underestimate somewhat the inhomogeneous recently emitted CH₄,
- 3 leading to B being higher than 1 for most stations. Since the tracers play a small role in
- 4 explaining CH₄ at Cape Grim and Ushuaia, they have B below 1 (Table 2).

5

- 6 At stations in or near North America (Fig. 7) the model reproduces the observed trends with 7 increases in the eighties, less change in the period 1990-2005 and increase from 2006. For the latest period the increase in the model is larger than that observed. The seasonal and year-to-8 year variations are well represented by the model at all stations (correlation coefficients of 9 10 determination from 0.73-0.82). Key Biscayne (Fig. 7c) and Mauna Loa (Fig. 7d) have relatively large negative <Total tracer> - [<Total tracer>] which shows that these are 11 12 background stations and that important emission sources exist at their latitude. The tracer difference is quite small and negative at Alert (Fig. 7b) and since the Residual is quite close to 13 zero this may indicate small sources at the station latitude. The contribution from natural 14 emissions is decisive for year to year variations at all four stations in Fig. 7, and the influence 15 16 of emission from the gas sector increases gradually. Key Biscayne situated in the boundary layer (Fig. 7c) is mostly influenced by emissions from the American continent, and the rest of 17 the anthropogenic sectors have moderately declining impact after 1990. However, this decline 18 occurs only initially for the solid fuel (mainly coal) sector as its contribution increases from 19 20 2003 and onwards. The same occurs for this sector at Alert (Fig. 7a). It corresponds with the 21 start of an increase in U.S. fugitive solid fuel emissions in the applied EDGAR v4.2 22 inventory. The increase in U.S. coal emissions from 2003 to 2008 is almost 12 % in EDGAR v4.2. An increase of 28 % is found from 2005-2010 in the EPA inventory (EPA 23 2012). EDGAR v4.2 inventory. At the high altitude sites Mauna Loa and Wendover (Fig. 7b 24 and d) there are small or large increases in the contribution from all anthropogenic sectors 25 from year 2000 and onwards. These stations are subject to efficient transport from Asia at 26 27 high altitudes. There are large emission increases after 2000 in eastern Asia in the EDGAR v4.2 inventory (Bergamaschi et al., 2013). Especially coal related emissions in China show a 28 29 strong increase with a doubling from 2000 to 2008.-
- 30 At Wendover, Mauna Loa and Key Biscayne <Total tracer> [<Total tracer>] decrease over
- 31 the three decades studied (Fig. 7, mid panels). <u>Several emission sectors contribute</u>,
- 32 Differences for several emission sectors contributes to this the <Enteric> and <Others> tracers
- 33 are quite stable over time while the longitudinal means, [<Enteric>] and [<Others>] grow.

1 The increase in [<Gas>] is larger than for <Gas>. After year 2000 this also occurs for

2 [<<u>Solid></u>] and [<<u>Agr></u>] compared to <<u>Solid></u> and <<u>Agr></u>. The implication is a lower growth

- 3 rate for <CH₄ model> than for [<CH₄ model>] (Fig. 7, mid panels), i.e. other locations (Asian
- 4 <u>stations, see discussion below</u>) at the same latitudes have a larger trend in CH₄. There are
- 5 large fluctuations of tracer transport to Mauna Loa in 1997-1998 and 2010-2011 that strongly
- 6 impacts <CH₄ model<u>>. The observations also show</u>>. Similar changes is not evident in
- 7 growth and seasonal pattern these years. observed CH₄ in 2010-2011.

8 At the Arctic site Zeppelin (Fig. 8a) located at the coast of West Svalbard

- 9 At the Arctic site Zeppelin (Fig. 8a) located at the coast of West Svalbard the tracers for the main sources is in agreements there is a small CH₄ increase both in model and observations 10 up to 2004. A large part of the CH₄ variability in the period 1997-1999 (Morimoto et al., 11 2006) was due to fluctuations in wetland and biomass burning emissions. Our modelled 12 variation in the natural source tracer conforms to the fluctuations deduced from the isotopic 13 measurements of Morimoto et al. (2006). Seasonal tracer analysis (not shown) is in agreement 14 with the conclusion of Fisher et al. (2011), who found that wetlands are the main contributor 15 16 in summer and gas in winter. At this site there is a small CH4 increase both in model and observations up to 2004. A large part of the CH₄ variability in the period 1997-1999 17 (Morimoto et al., 2006) was due to fluctuations in wetland and biomass burning emissions. 18 Our modelled variation in the natural source tracer conforms to the fluctuations deduced from 19 20 the isotopic measurements of A CH₄ concentration drop from 2004 to 2006 seems to mainly be explained by natural source contribution in the model Moromito et al. (2000). A CH4 21 22 concentration drop from 2004 to 2006 seems to mainly be explained by natural source 23 contribution-falling from a period maximum in 2004 to low values in 2005-2006. This is also 24 the case for the sub-Arctic site Pallas (Fig. 8b) located in a region characterised by forest and 25 wetlands. Gas, enteric fermentation and various other small regional anthropogenic sources seems to contribute to the -CH₄ increase at Zeppelin after 2006. The contribution from natural 26 emissions and recent regional coal mining peaked in 2007. A quite strong CH₄ enhancement 27 occurs for 2009-2010 in both the model and observations. The longitudinal mean tracers for 28
- 29 individual sectors are almost stable to declining (not shown) while contribution from the
- 30 <Gas> and some other tracers show a small maximum (Lower panel Fig. 8a and b). Pallas
- 31 has a similar pattern. The runs with fixed meteorology suggest enhanced transport from
- 32 Russia passing major gas fields and Pallas.

Mace Head (Fig. 8c) is a rural background coastal site in Europe. <Total tracer> - [<Total 1 tracer>] is quite large and negative suggesting important emission sources along the station's 2 latitude. In the beginning of the nineties, there is a mismatch between declining model 3 concentrations and the increase found from the observations. Some of the decrease in the 4 model is due to decreasing contributions from solid fuel (mainly coal), enteric fermentation 5 6 and other regional anthropogenic sources. The station experiences unusual meteorological 7 conditions in the ENSO year 1997, as there are abrupt shifts in concentrations of CH₄ and 8 several of the anthropogenic tracers having small year-to-year variations in emissions. 9 Similarly, there seems to be transport of less polluted air masses to the station in 2004 compared to earlier years resulting in lower CH₄ concentration in measurements and model in 10 11 2004 and 2005. These air masses has not undergone zonal transport over large distances since there is no enhancement of the longitudinal mean tracers (not shown). Several regional 12 13 sources seems to have a small contributions to the modelled and observed CH₄ increases from 14 2006 to 2009. After 2009 we extrapolate emission trends due to lack of emission inventories 15 and this may be the cause why the model doesn't reproduce the observed levelling off in growth in 2010 and 2011. 16

The model has larger discrepancies with the seasonal variation at Hegyhatsal, a semi-polluted 17 site in central Europe (Fig. 8d). Despite the seasonal issues the model performance is 18 19 reasonable for the long term CH₄ changes. In years with high contributions from natural sources, the seasonal maxima tend to be too high in the model. It could be that the coarse 20 21 model resolution results in too much transport from nearby wetlands or that the emission 22 inventory has too large natural emissions in surrounding regions. <Total tracer> - [<Total 23 tracer>] is very large and positive meaning that the station is very sensitive to emissions closenot far upwind. The evolution of <CH₄ model> therefore deviates strongly from the 24 longitudinal mean [<CH₄ model>]. The deviation starts in 1996 when a sharp increase in 25 natural emission occurs. From 2003-2008 there is a period with stable to declining modelled 26 27 CH₄ concentrations. This is caused by decreasing central European emissions particularly from enteric fermentation and the category "other anthropogenic sectors" together with 28 29 decreasing or fluctuating natural sources.

30 In general, the model reproduces the features in the observations over and near Asia quite

31 well (Fig. 9 and 10) with correlation coefficient of determination in the range of 0.24-0.8491.

32 For the trends, the overestimation after year 2006 is higher here than modelled in other world

regions (Fig. 6-8). Gas is the major cause of increases in CH_4 in Israel (Sede Boker, Fig. 9a).

The increase of the <Gas> tracer is much larger than for the longitudinal mean [<Gas>] 1 2 suggesting important emission increases from nearby gas fields. Small changes in regional natural emissions and the category other anthropogenic sources (lower panel) is correlated 3 with the modelled year-to-year variations (upper panel). The station in Kazakhstan (Fig. 9c9b) 4 is downwind of large sources (<Total tracer> - [<Total tracer>] large and positive) and the 5 modelled CH₄ increase after 2005 is much larger than for the longitudinal mean. Also at this 6 7 station, the CH₄ trend is heavily influenced by gas, although not to the same extent as in Israel. Other regional anthropogenic emission changes also contribute somewhat to the 8 9 modelled CH₄ increase over the last years. -High natural emissions in 2008-2009 also had an impact. Since we use repetitive year 2009 natural emissions for the latter years it could be that 10 11 the contribution from this source is too large after 2009. Unfortunately, the modelled CH₄ 12 increase cannot be confirmed by measurements since data at the station is missing after 2008.

Regional solid fuel emissions (mainly coal) is the main cause of last decade modelled CH₄ 13 14 increase in eastern continental Asia (Ulaan Uul and Tae-ahn Peninsula, Fig. 9b and d) but gas 15 and other reginal anthropogenic sectors also contribute. There is large growth in <CH₄ 16 model> for Ulaan Uul in 2006-2007 and 2010 mainly due to peaks in the contribution from solid fuel sources but also other anthropogenic sectors have a role in this. Similar pattern 17 appears for Tae-ahn Peninsula in 2009. The first peak at Ulaan Uul is also partly seen in the 18 observations, but the existence of the latest episode and the event at Tae-ahn Peninsula is less 19 clear from the measurements. Our tracer analysis for Minamitorishima (not shown), a 20 21 background station affected by outflow from the Asian continent indicates less continental 22 outflow in 2007. For these polluted continentalFor these polluted sites the correlation coefficients are lower than for the other stations. The coarse resolution of the model has 23 problems resolving large gradients in concentrations and non-linearity of oxidant chemistry. 24 At Tae-ahn Peninsula <CH₄ model> starts increasing in 2005 while the increase at Ulaan Uul 25 first starts in 2006. At Ulaan Uul decreasing regional natural emissions over the period 2000-26 27 2005 seems to compensate for the large increase of solid fuel emissions from around 2000. Minamitorishima (Fig 10a) is a background stations (<Total tracer> - [<Total tracer>] large 28

28 ivinianiitorisinnia (Fig. 10a) is a background stations (<10tai tracer>- [<10tai tracer>] targe

- 29 and negative) affected by outflow from the Asian continent. The large increase in the solid
- 30 fuel tracer therefore also occurs here together with smaller changes of the other anthropogenic
- 31 tracers. The 1997-98 ENSO event influences the transport to the station. 2007 also seems to
- 32 be a special year with regard to transport with decline in the otherwise increasing
- 33 anthropogenic tracers. Compared to the "nearby" continental stations and the longitudinal

mean CH4 this downturn results in a one year lag in the CH4 increase at this station. It could 1 2 be that 2007 was a year with less continental outflow since peaks for the same tracers were found for Ulaan Uul this year. The Yonagunijima Island (Fig 10b) is close to the Asian 3 continent. It has some sensitivity to nearby upwind emissions (<Total tracer> - [<Total 4 5 tracer>] moderately positive), mainly from Japan since prevailing wind direction is northnortheast or south. Westerly winds are rare 6 7 (http://www.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/env/ghg_obs/en/station/station_yonagunijima.html). Thus, the station is quite unaffected by the sources to the west, including the Asian continent and 8 9 Taiwan. This is probably the reason why the tracer changes are moderate and different than found for the Asian continent and Minamitorishima. The CH4 evolution is also very similar to 10 that for the longitudinal mean, A special feature is a sharp increase in <CH₄ model> in 2001 11

12 caused by an abrupt increase in the tracer representing the sum of several small anthropogenic

13 sectors. A similar increase is not found in the measurements.

14

For Cape Rama in India (Fig 10ae), the observations show signatures of both Northern and 15 16 Southern Hemispheric (NH and SH) air masses (Bhattacharya et al., 2009). Mixed with regional fluxes and varying chemical loss this results in large seasonal variation. During the 17 18 summer monsoon, the station is located south of the inter-tropical convergence zone. Air arriving during this period (June to September) represent tropical or SH oceanic air masses 19 20 and the station is upwind of Mahe Island (Fig. 10be). During the winter monsoon the situation is opposite. There is outflow from the continent affecting both Cape Rama and Mahe Island. 21 22 The ENSO event in 1997 seems to have opposite effects on modelled and observed CH₄ 23 variability at Cape Rama. Except from that, the model does a reasonable job in reproducing 24 the measurements. Most regional tracers show stable to upward levels over the period of 25 comparison and likely contribute to a small fraction of the modelled CH₄ trend. At Mahe Island in the SH (Fig. 10b10-d), the CH₄ concentration peaks sharply during NH winter when 26 the station is influenced by outflow from continental Asia. The station is therefore an 27 28 indicator of inflow to the SH. This feature is well captured by the model. Over the last decade, there is a small and continuous rise in the levels of all anthropogenic tracers at the station. 29 This coincides with large emission increases in Asia suggesting that the recent development in 30 31 Asia has some influence on the SH.

32

3.4 Methane evolution and emission drivers over distinct time periods

Fig. 11 compares the latitudinal distribution of surface CH₄ in the model and observations. 2 Generally, the model and the observational approach reveal the same pattern and 3 characteristics both in time and space although some clear differences are evident. From 1985 4 to the early nineties, there is a homogeneous growth in the observations (Fig. 11b). The model 5 6 (Fig. 11a) also has growth over the same period but a distinct period (1987-88) with no 7 growth, corresponding to smaller emissions from wetlands and biomass burning (Figure 1). 1987-1988 were El Niño years and there is a tendency of low wetland emissions for those 8 9 years, e.g. an anti-correlation between wetland emissions and ENSO index (Hodson et al., 2011). It might be that our applied emission inventory for natural CH₄ sources (Bousquet et 10 al., 2011) has too large variability in wetland emissions in the eighties and too strong 11 reductions in wetland emissions in 1987-88. Bousquet et al. (2006) states that bias in OH 12 inferred from methyl chloroform (CH₃CCl₃) observations (Bousquet et al., 2005) could 13 account for some of the variability that they attributed to wetland emissions. Later findings 14 (Montzka et al., 2011) support this. If OH changes are set to zero instead of the large 15 variability in the eighties, suggested by early CH₃CCl₃ studies If OH changes are set to zero 16 instead of the large variability in the eighties, suggested by CH₃CCl₃ observations (Bousquet 17 18 et al., 2005), the fluctuations in wetland emissions are dampened by 50 %. On the other hand, the model simulation has no year-to-The OH variability for the 1980s and 1990s deduced 19 from CH₃CCl₃ data is much debated (Bousquet et al., 2005;Krol and Lelieveld, 2003;Wang et 20 al., 2008;Montzka et al., 2011;Lelieveld et al., 2006). year variation in meteorology before 21 22 1997, and the meteorology used corresponds to the year 2001, which has a weak ENSO index. 23 Therefore, during the 1987-1988 El Niño, the meteorology used is less representative than for other years with weaker ENSO. In the two periods of CH₄ growth before and after 1987-88, 24 the CH₄ increase is strong in the model (Fig. 11a) in the Northern Hemisphere and might be 25 26 overestimated. However, it might be that the model is able to better capture latitudinal gradients, as only a few measurement sites are available to make latitudinal averages for the 27 eighties. On the other hand the model simulation has no year to year variation in meteorology 28 before 1997, and the meteorology used corresponds to the year 2001, which has a weak 29 ENSO index. Therefore, during the 1987 1988 El Niño, the meteorology used is less 30 representative than for other years with weaker ENSO. In 1992 and 1993 there is a pause in 31 32 the CH_4 growth in the measurements (Fig. 11b) at all latitudes. This pause has been explained 33 as a consequence of the Mount Pinatubo volcanic eruption in 1991 (Dlugokencky et al.,

1996;Bekki and Law, 1997;Bândă et al., 2013). The eruption results in an initial increase in

the CH₄ growth rate (less OH) lasting for half a year. This is due to backscattering by volcanic 1 stratospheric aerosols, which reduces the UV radiation to the troposphere. After that, the 2 growth rate due to Pinatubo becomes negative (more OH plus less natural methane emissions 3 4 are the dominating effects) reaching a minimum after 2 years (1993), before levelling off 5 towards zero after 5 years. The main cause of the OH increase is reduction in stratospheric ozone allowing more UV radiation to the troposphere. In contrast to the measurements the 6 7 model shows a stronger decrease in CH₄ after the eruption, and the pause in CH₄ growth is longer. This might be due the fact that the model does not fully include all factors affecting 8 9 CH₄ related to the Mount Pinatubo eruption. Reduced emissions are implicitly included in the 10 natural CH₄ emission inventories, but changes in meteorology (temperature, water vapor, etc.) 11 and volcanic SO₂ and sulphate aerosols in the stratosphere, initially leading to net positive 12 CH4 growth rate before turning negative due to the impact on ozone, are not accounted for in 13 the simulations. In the period 1994-1997 the model struggles to reproduce reproducing the latitudinal distribution of growth (Fig. 11).- The model seems to have too large growth in the 14 15 Tropics probably due to a small but significant growth in wetland and biomass burning emissions in the period (Fig. 1). 16

- In the next paragraphs, we study whether the model is able to reproduce CH₄ measurements
 when we split the time frame into shorter epochs that measured distinct different growth rates.
 The splits are made within the period 19987-2009 when our simulations have both interannual variation in meteorology and complete emission data (no extrapolations made). We
 have only included observation sites that have measurements available for all months within
 the given time period, see section 2.3 for details about data selection.
- Fig. 12 shows the modelled CH_4 growth in the CTM in the period $199\underline{87}$ -2000, compared to
- the observed changes at various sites. The model seems to <u>slightly</u> underestimate <u>increases at</u>
- 25 <u>several stations. The largest underestimation occurthe increase</u> in eastern Asia. <u>In parts of</u>
- 26 <u>eastern AsiaElsewhere there is good agreement between model and some other regions in</u>
- 27 observations. The modelled CH₄ evolution is caused by a combination of anthropogenic and
- 28 natural sources. In the Northern Hemisphere there are regions with decline in modelled CH₄
- 29 concentrations caused by decreased contribution from several anthropogenic sectors.
- 30 Increased emissions from gas fields in Russia and the Middle East and in several
- 31 anthropogenic tracers over India explain why these are the regions in the Northern
- 32 <u>Hemisphere with largest modelled CH₄ increase.</u>

Earlier studies find that a low CH₄ growth rate in the nineties is mostly caused by lower 1 2 fugitive fossil fuel emissions from oil and gas industries, mainly due to the collapse of the Soviet Union (Bousquet et al., 2006;Simpson et al., 2012;Dlugokencky et al., 2003;Aydin et 3 al., 2011). Another important factor is decreased emissions from rice paddies. Lower 4 emissions from agricultural soils last until around year 2000 in the EDGAR v4.2 inventory 5 (Figure 1) and are also evident in Fig. 12c. Kai et al. (2011) exclude fossil fuel emissions as 6 7 the primary cause of the slowdown of CH4 growth. According to their isotopic studies, it is more likely long-term reductions in agricultural emissions from rice crops in Asia, or 8 9 alternatively another microbial source in the Northern Hemisphere that is the major factor. 10 Another isotope study (Levin et al., 2012) disagrees and finds that both fossil and microbial 11 emissions were quite stable.

12 Wetland and biomass burning sources seem to play the key role for the variations in the model from 1997 to 2000 (Fig. 12a). They were particularly large in 1998 due to the 1997-13 1998 El Niño (Chen and Prinn, 2006; Simpson et al., 2002; Dlugokencky et al., 2001; Bousquet 14 et al., 2006; Pison et al., 2013; Spahni et al., 2011; Hodson et al., 2011). Simpson et al. (2002) 15 16 also conclude that the increase in observed surface CH₄ between 1996 and 2000 was driven primarily by a large growth in 1998. Both model and measurements have the strongest growth 17 (Fig. 12) in the Southern Hemisphere, which had large wetland emissions in 1998 (Bousquet 18 et al., 2006; Dlugokencky et al., 2001). In the model, slowly rising anthropogenic emissions in 19 20 the Southern Hemisphere also seems to contribute (Fig. 12b-f). Natural emissions (Fig. 12a) are also important for the irregular pattern seen at mid-to-high northern latitudes. This is 21 expected due to the 1997-1998 ENSO-event, showing a dip in high northern wetland 22 emissions in 1997 followed by unusual large emissions in 1998 (Bousquet et al., 23 2006; Dlugokencky et al., 2001). During the ENSO event, the zonal pattern in the model and 24 measurements (Fig. 11) is very similar for the Southern Hemisphere but there are larger 25 differences for the Northern Hemisphere. 26

During 2000-2006 the CH₄ growth levelled off and there was a period with stagnation in global mean growth rate (Fig. 13). The agreement between the zonal averages from the model and the measurement approach is excellent, both with regards to timing and strength of the growth (Fig. 11 and 13). The 2002-2003 anomaly in the Northern Hemisphere is captured by the model (Fig. 11) and explained by enhanced emissions from biomass burning in Indonesia and boreal Asia (Bergamaschi et al., 2013;Simpson et al., 2006;van der Werf et al., 2010).

The EDGAR v4.2 inventory applied here and in other studies (e.g. Bergamaschi et al., 2013) 1 2 show that global anthropogenic emissions rise substantially, especially in Asia after year 2000. This increase in the anthropogenic emissions is compensated by a drop in northern 3 tropical wetland emissions associated with years of dry conditions (Bousquet et al., 4 2006;Bousquet et al., 2011). Monteil et al. (2011) finds that moderate increases in 5 anthropogenic emissions and decreased wetland emissions together with moderate increasing 6 7 OH can explain the stagnation in CH₄ growth from 2000. Bergamaschi et al. (2013), assuming 8 constant OH, also finds a decrease in wetland emissions but-finds that a large increase in 9 anthropogenic emissions first occurs from 2006 and beyond. Uncertainty in wetland 10 emissions in the period is well illustrated by Pison et al. (2013). Using different methods to 11 estimate global wetland emissions from 2000 to 2006 Pison et al. (2013) finds either a decrease or increase. They find the latter to be most likely, and this question the large increase 12 13 found in anthropogenic bottom up inventories after 2000. On the other hand, increase in both wetland and anthropogenic emission would not conform to the observed stable global mean 14 15 CH₄ levels in this period. Spahni et al. (2011) found a small decrease in wetland emissions from 1999-2004 followed by an increase from 2004 to 2008. Our model results from 16 17 simulations with declining natural emissions and increasing anthropogenic emissions (Fig. 1) reproduce the measurements in most regions (Fig. 13). Eastern Asian stations are exceptions. 18 Gas and solid fuels (coal) (Fig. 13d, e) are causing much of the modelled increases over 19 20 southern and eastern Asia. Since the observation at the eastern Asian stations close to large 21 anthropogenic sources show smaller changes it is plausible that the emission growth is too strong in the applied EDGAR v4.2 inventory, for this region. However, it is difficult to be 22 conclusive since the few observation sites available are situated in zones with sharp gradients 23 in modelled concentration changes. The EDGAR v4.2 emissions from the region increase 24 gradually between 2000 and 2008, with a larger growth rate after 2002. Findings from 25 26 Bergamaschi et al. (2013) question this as they suggest a large increase mostly since 2006. 27 The period 2007 to 2009 is characterized by strong growth in observed global mean growth rate and even stronger growth in the model (Fig. 11 and 14). The model overestimation seems 28 29 to occur almost everywhere. Increase in natural sources dominates in some regions, anthropogenic in others. There are large increases in anthropogenic tracers from Asia (Fig. 30 14b f), in particular gas in the Middle East (Fig. 14d) and solid fuel (coal) in eastern Asia 31

32 (Fig. 14e). Due to the long lifetime of CH₄, strong increase in regional emissions has global

33 <u>impact.</u> Increases in anthropogenic sources in Asia (e.g. Fig. 9, Fig. 14b-f), in particular,

1 <u>natural gas in the Middle East and solid fuel (coal) in eastern Asia have large contributions.</u>

2 The influence from emission increases in these regions can be seen at downwind stations over

- 3 <u>and near northern America and in the Southern Hemisphere (Seychelles) (see Fig. 6 and 7).</u>
- 4 For the Southern Hemisphere a small steady increase in several regional anthropogenic
- 5 <u>emissions also contributes.</u> For the Arctic stations the responsible sectors for the recent
- 6 increase and their geographical origin varies but high wetland emissions in 2007-2008, gas in
- 7 Russia, and coal and other anthropogenic emissions in Asia seem to play a central roles (Fig.
- 8 <u>7, 8 and 14</u>). For North America anthropogenic emissions increase in central and eastern U.S.
- 9 and decrease in the eastern parts (Fig. 14). A similar west-east gradient is seen over the
- 10 continent for natural sources but this is likely temporary due to special conditions in 2007-
- 11 <u>2008. These factors, together with the distant contributions from rising emissions in eastern</u>

12 Asia explain the modelled CH₄ trends. In central Europe there is a decline in modelled CH₄

13 due to a combination of declining emissions from enteric fermentation, solid fuels (coal), and

14 several other anthropogenic sectors (Fig. <u>14 b</u>14b,d,f), and fluctuations in natural emissions

- 15 (Fig. 14a). A decrease over a small region of South America is mainly explained by <u>variations</u>
- 16 <u>in natural emissions emission changes</u> (Fig. 14a).

17 Other studies (Kirschke et al., 2013;Rigby et al., 2008;Bergamaschi et al., 2013;Bousquet et

- al., 2011;Dlugokencky et al., 2009;Crevoisier et al., 2013;Bruhwiler et al., 2014) attribute the
- 19 resumed strong growth of observed (Dlugokencky et al., 2009;Rigby et al., 2008;Frankenberg
- et al., 2011;Sussmann et al., 2012;Crevoisier et al., 2013) global CH₄ levels after 2006 to
- 21 increases in both natural and anthropogenic emissions. However, the share of natural versus
- 22 anthropogenic contribution varies in the different studies. The studies agree that abnormally
- high temperatures at high northern latitudes in 2007 and increased tropical rainfall in 2007
- and 2008 resulted in large wetland emissions these years. There is also a likely contribution
- from forest fires in the autumn of 2006 due to drought in Indonesia (Bergamaschi et al.,
- 26 2013;Worden et al., 2013). Top down (Bergamaschi et al., 2013;Bousquet et al.,
- 27 2006;Bousquet et al., 2011;Kirschke et al., 2013;Bruhwiler et al., 2014) and bottom up studies
- 28 (EC-JRC/PBL, 2011;Schwietzke et al., 2014;Höglund-Isaksson, 2012;EPA, 2012) suggest
- steady moderate to substantial increases in anthropogenic emissions in the period 2007-2009.
- 30 Much of this is due to intensification of oil and shale gas extraction in the United States and
- 31 coal exploitation in China.
- 32 Due to the long lifetime of CH₄, strong increase in regional emissions has global impact.
- 33 From the analysis for different time periods and world regions (this and previous sections) it
1 is evident that the model increase in global CH₄ after 2006 is driven mainly by increases in

2 anthropogenic sources in Asia (e.g. Fig. 9), in particular, gas in the Middle East and solid fuel

3 (coal) in eastern Asia. Increases in the contribution from these sectors-can be seen at

4 downwind stations over and near northern America and in the Southern Hemisphere

5 (Seychelles) (see Fig. 6 and 7). For the Southern Hemisphere a small steady increase in

6 several regional anthropogenic emissions also contributes. For Europe and the European

7 Arctic stations the responsible sectors for the recent increase and their geographical origin

8 varies but gas in Russia and coal and other anthropogenic emissions in Asia seem to play a

9 central role.

Using the EDGAR v4.0 inventory as input to a CTM and observations of CH₄ and its isotopic 10 11 composition Monteil et al. (2011) concluded that a reduction of biomass burning and/or of the 12 growth rate of fossil fuel emissions is needed to explain the observed growth after 2005. The differences between the EDGAR v4.0 and EDGAR v4.2 used in this study are moderate. 13 Other bottom up inventories (EPA, 2012;Höglund-Isaksson, 2012;Schwietzke et al., 2014) 14 report lower increases in anthropogenic emissions, see also comparison with ECLIPSE 15 16 emission in the supplement.- Using the mean of the EPA and EDGAR v4.2 inventory for anthropogenic emissions Kirschke et al. (2013) finds that either is the increase in fossil fuel 17 emissions overestimated by inventories, or the sensitivity of wetland emissions to temperature 18 19 and precipitation is too large in wetland emission models. Schwietzke et al. (2014) and the 20 top-down studies by Bergamaschi et al. (2013) and Bruhwiler et al. (2014) conclude that the 21 EDGAR v4.2 emission inventory overestimates the recent emission growth in Asia. This is 22 especially the case for coal mining in China. From our results above it is plausible that too high growth of fossil fuel emissions, in particular in Asia, is the reason why the recent CH₄ 23 growth is higher in our model than for the observations. However, in 2007 and 2008 much of 24 the increase in the model in the Northern Hemisphere is driven by high natural wetland 25 emissions. Our natural emissions are from Bousquet et al. (2011) who attributes much of the 26 27 <u>2007-2008</u> recent increase in total emissions to wetlands. According to Bergamaschi et al. (2013) a substantial fraction of the total increase is attributed to anthropogenic emissions. 28 29 There is therefore a possibility that we combine two emission inventories (anthropogenic 30 from EDGAR v4.2 and natural from Bousquet et al.) that both have too large growth in the period 2006-2008. 31

Extrapolating anthropogenic emissions that likely have too strong growth probably explain why the model also overestimates the CH₄ growth from 2009 to 2012. Mismatch between the spatial distributions of the model and measurements (Fig. 11) on regional scales from 2009 to
2012 are expected due to the extrapolation of anthropogenic emissions and use of constant
2009 natural and biomass burning emissions. Of these, especially wetland emissions have
large spatial and temporal variation from year to year.

5 3.5 Changes in methane lifetime

6 The modelled evolution of CH₄ is not only decided by changes in sources but also changes in 7 the atmospheric CH₄ loss and soil uptake. Another important explanation for not reproducing observed trends are possibilities of inadequate representation of the CH₄ loss in the model. 8 The CH₄ lifetime is an indicator of the CH₄ loss. The lifetime is dependent on the efficiency 9 of soil uptake (Curry, 2009), and concentrations of atmospheric chemical components 10 reacting with CH₄, including the kinetic rates of the corresponding reactions. It also depends 11 on how efficiently the emitted CH₄ is transported between regions with differences in loss 12 rate. It also depends on how efficiently the emitted CH4 is transported between regions with 13 differences in loss rate. As discussed in section 3.1 there are small variations in the soil uptake 14 15 and this had little influence on the evolution of the CH4 lifetime. Our prescribed fields for soil uptake (Bousquet et al., 2011) are responsible for about 5 % of the loss and the difference 16 17 between the year with smallest and largest soil uptake is only 2 %. The main reactant removing CH₄ chemically in the atmosphere is OH, but there is also a small loss due to 18 19 reactions with excited atomic oxygen (O¹D) and chlorine (Lelieveld et al., 1998;Crutzen, 1991). Due to the limited influence of soil uptake, chlorine, and O¹D we will hereafter focus 20 on the role of changes in OH and the kinetic loss rate for this reaction. A number of 21 components (CO, NOx, NMVOCs, CH4, SO2, aerosols, meteorological factors, solar 22 radiation) control the atmospheric OH level and the kinetic loss rate (Dalsøren and Isaksen, 23 2006;Lelieveld et al., 2004;Holmes et al., 2013;Levy, 1971). Due to the extremely high 24 reactivity of OH, measurements on large scale are impossible (Heard and Pilling, 2003). 25 26 Forward models have been employed to calculate the OH evolution over time on global scale. 27 (Dalsøren and Isaksen, 2006;Dentener et al., 2003;Karlsdóttir and Isaksen, 2000;Fiore et al., 2006;Monteil et al., 2011;Holmes et al., 2013;John et al., 2012;Naik et al., 2013;Ghosh et al., 28 2015; Wang et al., 2004). Another alternative is inverse models in combination with 29 observations of ¹⁴CO, CH₃CCl₃ or other long-lived species reacting with OH. (Bousquet et 30 al., 2005;Prinn et al., 2005;Prinn et al., 2001;Montzka et al., 2011;Montzka et al., 31 2000; Manning et al., 2005; Holmes et al., 2013; Krol et al., 2008; Patra et al., 2014). This 32 33 section discusses the modelled evolution of CH₄ lifetime in this study and compares it to

findings from other relevant studies on CH₄ lifetime and OH change. In the section thereafter
 we try to <u>identifydetach</u> the key drivers behind the modelled changes in CH₄ lifetime.

The overall picture from the main simulation (blue lines Fig. 15) is that there is a clear 3 4 decrease in the CH₄ lifetime over the last four decades, more than 8% from 1970 to 2012 and a similar increase in OH concentration. Of particular importance is large increases in OH over 5 6 Southeast Asia, mainly due to strong growth in NO_x emissions. From 2000-2010 the modelled 7 tropospheric OH column increase by 10-20 % over China and India (not shown). In A 8 comparison with global mean observed CO levels (see Supplement section S5) indicates that the modelled changes of OH are realistic. In Fig. Fig. 15, the reaction rate with methane is 9 used as averaging kernel to examine the OH change relevant for changes in methane lifetime. 10 11 There is a very strong anti-correlation between the evolution of OH and methane lifetime 12 suggesting causality. This is especially the case for the period 1970-1997 run without interannual variation in meteorology resulting in a static CH₄+OH reaction rate (k) for these years. 13 The lifetimes in the fixed CH₄ run (red line) and the main CH₄ run (blue line) are highly 14 correlated. This is another way of illustrating that OH (k x OH), and not the CH₄ burden itself, 15 16 is driving the long_-term evolution and year-to-year variations of CH₄ lifetime. However, some influence from CH₄ fluctuations is evident in a few years (mainly in the eighties) with 17 large variations in CH₄ emissions (Fig. 1). CH₄ itself is important for its own lifetime length 18 (blue line well above red line), due to the decrease in the OH concentration produced by the 19 reaction with the CH₄. 20

21 Other forward models also suggest similar decrease in CH₄ lifetime due to increase in global

22 OH concentrations the recent decades (Karlsdóttir and Isaksen, 2000;Dentener et al.,

23 2003; Wang et al., 2004; Dalsøren and Isaksen, 2006; Fiore et al., 2006; John et al.,

24 2012;Holmes et al., 2013;Naik et al., 2013). However, some of these studies focus on the

effect of certain factors (emissions or meteorology) and do not cover changes in all central

26 physical and chemical parameters affecting CH₄ lifetime. Using observations of CH₄ and its

isotopic composition, Monteil et al. (2011) find that moderate (<5 % per decade) increases in

28 global OH over the period 1980-2006 are needed to explain the observed slowdown in the

29 growth rate of atmospheric CH₄ at the end of that period. In contrast large increases in OH in

the 1980s and a large negative trend for the 1990s were inferred from CH₃CCl₃ observations

31 (Prinn et al., 2005;Prinn et al., 2001;Krol and Lelieveld, 2003;Bousquet et al., 2005;Montzka

et al., 2000). These studies also found large inter-annual variability of OH. However, the

studies were debated (Krol and Lelieveld, 2003;Lelieveld et al., 2006;Bousquet et al.,

2005; Wang et al., 2008) and it was shown that largely reduced variations and trends are 1 2 possible within the uncertainties bonds of the CH₃CCl₃ emission inventory. In a more recent analysis of CH₃CCl₃ measurements for the period 1998-2007 Montzka et al. (2011) find small 3 inter-annual OH variability and trends and attribute previously estimated large year-to-year 4 OH variations before 1998 to uncertainties in CH₃CCl₃ emissions and representation issues 5 given sparse observation network.- Kai et al. (2011) finds that relatively stable dD-CH₄ 6 7 suggested small changes in the OH sink between 1998 and 2005. Rigby et al. (2008) finds declining OH from 2004 to 2007. Bousquet et al. (2011) also finds a decline in 2007 and 8 9 2008, compared to 2006. However the decline is much less than that found by Rigby et al. Holmes et al. (2013) concludes that better understanding of systematic differences between 10 11 different CH₃CCl₃ observation networks is required before using them as constraints on interannual variability of CH₄ lifetime and OH. Using ¹⁴CO Manning et al. (2005) finds no 12 13 significant long term trend in OH in the Southern Hemisphere but short term large variations persisting for a few months. Like CH₃CCl₃ there are uncertainties related to inferring OH 14 from $\frac{14}{CO}$ ¹⁴-CO (Krol et al., 2008). Ghosh et al. (2015) does not consider trends in OH but 15 anyway they find a decrease in CH₄ lifetime over the last century and attribute it to 16 17 temperature increase (larger reaction rate) and the increase of stratospheric chlorine (larger 18 loss through reaction with Cl).

19 It is evident from the above discussion that there are uncertainties related to all methods

20 (models, CH₃CCl₃, and ¹⁴CO) and missing consensus on OH trends. To increase

21 <u>understanding and facilitate discussion it is important not to stop by a derived number for</u>

22 change in OH or methane lifetime, but investigate the major drivers for the changes. The next

23 section address drivers in this model study.

24

25 **3.6 Major drivers for changes in the methane lifetime**

Fig. 16 shows the evolution of main factors known to determine atmospheric CH₄ lifetime.

27 The factors chosen are based on the study by Dalsøren and Isaksen (2006) and Holmes et al.

28 (2013).

29 Using the NOx/CO emission ratio and linear regression analysis (Dalsøren and Isaksen, 2006)

30 found a simple equation describing the evolution of OH resulting from emission changes in the

31 period 1990-2001. In general, CO emission increases lead to an overall reduction in current

32 global averaged OH levels. An increase in NO_x emissions increases global OH as long as it

takes place outside highly polluted regions. In this study the general picture is that the NOx/CO 1 2 emission ratio increases over the 1970-2012 period (Fig. 16). Despite the general increase, periods of declining ratio can be seen both after the oil crisis in 1973 and the energy crisis in 3 1979. This occurs since NOx emissions are more affected than CO emissions. After 1997 when 4 we include year to year variation in emissions from vegetation fires the NOx/CO emission ratio 5 is more variable. Large drops in ratio can be seen in years with high incidences of fires resulting 6 7 in large CO emissions. This is typical for ENSO episodes (1997-1998) and warm years (2010). Agreement with observed CO trends (see comparison in Supplement section S5) indicates that 8

9 the modelled changes of CO and OH, and applied CO emissions are internally consistent.

Holmes et al. (2013) found formulas for predicting CH₄ lifetime due to changes in meteorology 10 using some of the factors shown in Fig. 16. It is only from 1997 that our simulations include 11 12 inter-annual variation in meteorology. We find that variations in global averaged specific humidity and temperature are highly correlated with each other and a 6 month delayed ENSO 13 index. This is reasonable as this is a typical response time for physical and chemical signals to 14 propagate from one hemisphere to the other. High temperature and specific humidity, meaning 15 16 high water vapor content, is for instance found in the ENSO year 1998 and warm year 2010 (Fig. 16). Variations in these parameters are important for the CH₄ lifetime since the reaction 17 rate (k) between OH and CH₄ is highly temperature dependent and water vapor is a precursor 18 of OH (Levy, 1971). The production of OH is also dependent on UV radiation and thereby the 19 20 atmospheric ozone column absorbing such radiation (Rohrer and Berresheim, 2006). The highest UV radiation is found at low latitudes and the ozone burden between 40°S and 40° N is 21 22 regarded as a useful indicator (Holmes et al., 2013). The emissions of NO_x from lightning are dependent on a number of meteorological factors and thereby quite variable from year to year 23 (Fig. 16). 24

In this section we investigate whether simplified expressions for the evolution of CH₄ lifetime can be found based on the parameters in Fig. 16. Such equations could be very useful for fast prediction of future development of CH₄ lifetime and CH₄ burden. Since we study different time periods than Dalsøren and Isaksen (2006) and Holmes et al. (2013) and both emissions and meteorology are perturbed in our simulations, it is not obvious that simplified equations would be statistically valid.

Fig. 17 shows the results of multiple linear regression analysis performed to describe the CH₄
lifetime over the period 1970 to 1996. For this period fixed year to year meteorology was used

in the mainfull model simulation. This means that parameters like lightning NO_x, temperature
and specific humidity (Fig. 16) can be kept out of the regression analysis. The equation best
reproducing (R²=0.99) the lifetime evolution from the mainfull run (Fig. 17) and having
statistical significant linear relations between its parameters and CH₄ lifetime is:

5

CH₄ lifetime (yr) = $11.9 - 21.4 \text{ x} (\text{NO}_{x}/\text{CO})_{\text{emissions}}$.

6 This confirms the analysis from previous sections suggesting that CH₄ itself has small 7 influence on the variation in CH₄ lifetime during this period. The same seems to be the case 8 for variations in ozone column. A similar simple equation was found by Dalsøren and Isaksen 9 (2006). This suggests that near future variation of CH₄ lifetime due to changes in emissions 10 can be predicted solely by looking at the ratio of NOx to CO emissions. However, it should be noted that the region of emission change is important (Berntsen et al., 2006). This is 11 especially the case for NO_x emissions due to the short atmospheric NO_x lifetime. For instance, 12 changes in NO_x emissions at low latitudes with moderate pollution levels (OH response is 13 non-linear) would have profound impacts on CH₄ lifetime due to the temperature dependency 14

15 of the reaction between CH_4 and OH.

16 The blue line in Fig. 18 shows the lifetime over the period 1997-2012 as predicted by the

17 <u>mainfull</u> model run. The red line shows the best fit from a simple parametric model. Because

18 the mainfull CTM run for this period include year to year variation in meteorology, the simple

19 regression model need more parameters to reproduce the evolution. Still a simplified equation

20 ($R^2=0.99$) is statistically valid predicting the CH₄ lifetime by a linear combination of the

21 parameters specific humidity (q), NO_x/CO emission ratio (NO_x/CO)_e, lightning NO_x

emissions $(LNO_x)_e$, and O_3 column:

23 CH₄ lifetime (yr) =
$$0.07 \times O_{3column} - 4.80 \times (NO_x/CO)_e - 0.04 \times q - 1.21 \times (LNOx)_{e.}$$

It should be noted that specific humidity and temperature have almost identical year to year
variation and it is therefore not given which of these parameters that should be used.

26

27 4 Summary and conclusions

Uncertainties in physical and chemical processes in models, input data on emissions and
meteorology, and limited spatial and temporal coverage of measurement data, have made it
hard for both bottom up and top down studies to settle the global CH₄ budget, untangle the

1 causes for recent trends, and predict future evolution (Ciais et al., 2013;Kirschke et al.,

2 2013;Nisbet et al., 2014). As the quality and detail level of models, input data, and

3 measurements progress, the chances of understanding more pieces in the big puzzle increase.

4 This study is an effort in such a perspective.

5 In our bottom up approach, a global Chemical Transport Model (CTM) was used to study the 6 evolution of atmospheric CH₄ over the period 1970-2012. The study includes a thorough comparison with CH₄ measurements from surface stations covering all regions of the globe. 7 The seasonal variations are reproduced at most stations. The model also reproduces much the 8 observed evolution of CH4 on both inter-annual and decadal time scales. Variations in 9 wetland emissions are the major drivers for year-to-year variation of CH₄. Regarding trends, 10 11 the causes are much debated as discussed in the previous sections. Consensus is not reached 12 on the relative contribution from individual emission sectors, neither on the share of natural versus anthropogenic sources. The fact that our simulations capture much of the observed 13 14 regional changes indicates that our transport and chemistry schemes perform well and that applied emission inventories are reasonable with regard to temporal, spatial, sectoral, and 15 16 natural versus anthropogenic distribution of emissions. However, there are some larger discrepancies in model performance questioning the accuracy of the CH₄ emission data in 17 certain regions and periods. Potential flaws in emission data are pinpointed for recent years 18 19 when our model simulations are more complete with regard to input data (e.g. emissions, 20 variable meteorology, etc.) and there are more measurements available for comparison. After 21 a period of stable CH₄ levels from 2000-2006, observations show increasing levels from 2006 22 in both hemispheres. From 2006, the The model overestimates the growth in all regions, in 23 particular in Asia. Large emission growth in Asia influences the CH₄ trends in most world regions. Our findings support other studies suggesting that the recent growth in Asian 24 anthropogenic emissions is too high in the EDGAR v4.2 inventory. Based on our model 25 results and the comparison between ECLIPSE and EDGAR v4.2 emissions in the supplement 26 27 (S2) we we also question the Asian emission trends in the nineties and beginning of the 2000s in the EDGAR v4.2 inventory, although the limited number of measurement sites in Asia 28 29 makes it difficult to validate this.

30 The modelled evolution of CH₄ is also dependent on changes in the atmospheric CH₄ loss. An

31 important other reason for not reproducing observed trends are possibilities of inadequate

32 representation of the CH_4 loss in the model. The CH_4 lifetime is an indicator of the CH_4 loss.

In our simulations, the CH₄ lifetime decreases by more than 8 % from 1970 to 2012. The

reason for the large change is increased atmospheric oxidation capacity. Such changes are in 1 theory driven by complex interactions between a number of chemical components and 2 meteorological factors. However, our analysis reveals that key factors for the development are 3 changes in specific humidity, NO_x/CO emission ratio, lightning NO_x emissions, and total 4 ozone column. It is statistically valid to predict the CH₄ lifetime by a combination of these 5 parameters in a simple equation. The calculated change in CH₄ lifetime is within the range 6 7 reported by most other bottom up model studies. However, findings from these studies do not fully agree with top down approaches using observations of CH₃CCl₃ or ¹⁴CO. 8

Without the calculated increase in oxidation capacity, the CH₄ growth over the last decades 9 would have been much higher. Increasing CH₄ loss also likely contributed to the stagnation of 10 CH₄ growth in the period 2001-2006. Interestingly, over the last few years, the loss deviates 11 12 from its steady increase over the previous decades. Much of this deviation seems to be caused by variation in meteorology. Our simulations reveal that accounting for variation in 13 meteorology has a strong effect on the atmospheric CH₄ loss. This in turn affects both inter-14 annual and long term changes in CH₄ burden. A stabilization of the CH₄ loss, mainly due to 15 16 meteorological variability, likely contributed to a continuing increase (2009-2012) in CH₄ burden after high emission years in 2007 and 2008. Due to the long response time of CH₄ this 17 could also contribute to future CH₄ growth. However, there are extra uncertainties in the 18 model results after 2009 due to lack of comprehensive emission inventories. A new inventory 19 or update of existing ones with sector-vice separation of emission for recent years (2009-20 2015) would be a very valuable piece for model studies trying to close the gaps in the CH₄ 21 puzzle. It will also provide important fundament for more accurate predictions of future CH₄ 22 levels and various mitigation strategies. 23

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- 4

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Simulation	Period	Characteristics	Difference from main	
name			simulation	
Main	1970-Oct 2012	Standard emissions		
		described in section 2.1.1.		
		Meteorology described in		
		this section.		
Fixed	1970-Oct 2012		No prescription of methane	
methane			emissions. Surface methane levels	
			kept fixed. Monthly mean 1970	
			levels used repeatedly for all	
			years	
Fixed	1997-Oct 2012		Year 2001 meteorology	
meteorology				
Financial*	2009-Oct 2012		Alternative extrapolation of	
			anthropogenic emissions to	
			account for the financial crisis	
Bio*	1980-2012		Inter-annual variation in biogenic	
			emissions of NMVOCs and CO	

*Results (and setup) from these simulations are mainly discussed in the Supplement.

- 1 **Table 2.** <u>Coefficient of determination</u> Correlation coefficient (R^2) between <CH4 model> [<CH4
- 2 model>] and <Total tracer> [<Total tracer>] for stations shown in Fig. 5-10. Parameters for equation
- 3 1 and RMSE for a linear fit between <CH4 model> [<CH4 model>] and <Total tracer> [<Total
- 4 tracer>].

Station	Figure	R ² between <ch4 model> – [<ch4< th=""><th>Residual</th><th>В</th><th>RMSE</th></ch4<></ch4 	Residual	В	RMSE
		model>] and <total< th=""><th></th><th></th><th></th></total<>			
		tracer> - [<total< th=""><th></th><th></th><th></th></total<>			
		tracer>]			
Ascension Island	ба	0.80	-3.01	1.21	0.74
Tutuila	6b	0.87	5.08	1.49	0.82
Cape Grim	6с	0.98	-0.15	0.97	0.05
Ushuaia	6d	0.83	-0.27	0.94	0.09
Alert	7a	0.69	-2.16	1.66	0.85
Wendover	7b	0.54	-5.74	0.78	1.07
Key Biscayne	7c	0.95	6.10	1.38	1.40
Mauna Loa	7d	0.87	18.41	1.80	1.27
Zeppelinfjellet	8a	0.91	-1.67	1.13	0.59
Pallas-Sammaltun	8b	0.95	-3.38	1.18	0.75
Mace Head	8c	0.97	-3.28	1.16	0.56
Hegyhatsal	8d	1.00	-2.46	1.15	0.96
Sede Boker	9a	0.83	5.41	1.23	0.97
Cape Rama<u>Ulaan Uul</u>	9b	0. <u>95</u> 92	<u>1.15</u> - 9.60	1. <u>10</u> 24	<u>0.65</u> 1.02
Sary Taukum	9c	0.97	-8.27	1.11	0.96
Tae-ahn Peninsula	9d	0.97	0.77	1.07	1.15
MinamitorishimaCape	10a	0. <u>92</u> 84	-	1. <u>24</u> 05	1. <u>02</u> 46
Rama			<u>9.60</u> 4.18		
Ulaan Uul	10b	0.95	1.15	1.10	0.65
Yonagunijima	10c	0.89	-2.54	1.24	1.35
Mahe Island	10 <u>b</u> d	0.85	6.68	1.42	1.22



1	Figure 1. Emissions used in the model simulations. The grey shaded area is the total CH ₄
2	emissions (left y-axis). The total emissions in the alternative extrapolation accounting for the
3	financial crisis are shown from 2006 and onwards as the grey line with markers. The other
4	colored lines are the CH ₄ emissions from the main emission sectors (right y-axis).
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Atmospheric burden (left y-axis), loss: atmospheric chemical destruction + soil uptake (right
y-axis), and total emissions (right y-axis).

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Figure 3. Atmospheric CH₄ burden and atmospheric chemical loss for the simulation with

3 "fixed meteorology" and the "main" simulation.



- 2 Figure 4. Global mean surface CH₄ mixing ratio in the main model simulation compared to
- 3 global mean surface CH₄ mixing ratio calculated from the global networks AGAGE
- 4 (<u>http://agage.eas.gatech.edu/data_archive/global_mean_global_mean_md.txt</u>), NOAA ESRL
- 5 (<u>http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/mbl/data.php</u>), and WDCGG
- 6 (http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/wdcgg/pub/global/globalmean.html).







Figure 5. Location of the 18 surface stations used in comparison between measurements and
 model in this section. Blue: Stations in the Southern Hemisphere, orange: Stations in or near
 North America, green: stations in or near Europe, red: stations in or near Asia.





Figure 6. Evolution of CH₄ and tracers at stations (a: Ascension Island, b: Tutuila, c: Cape
Grim, d: Ushuaia) in the Southern Hemisphere. Upper panel in each figure: Comparison of
monthly mean surface CH₄ in model and observations. The model results are scaled to the
observed mean CH₄ level over the periods of measurements. Mid panels: Variables from
equation 1. <> denotes annual running mean, [] denotes longitudinal mean. Left y-axis: <CH₄
model> and [<CH₄ model>] are scaled down to be initialized to zero in the first year. Right y-

1 2	axis: B x (<total tracer="">-[<total tracer="">]) and Residual. Lower panels: Evolution of various emission tracers, see Table S1 in the Supplement for detailed information.</total></total>
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- 2 Figure 7. Evolution of CH₄ and tracers at stations (a: Alert, b: Wendover, c: Key Biscayne, d:
- 3 Mauna Loa) in or near North America. See Fig. 6 caption for further description.





Figure 8. Evolution of CH₄ and tracers at stations (a: Zeppelinfjellet, b: Pallas-Sammaltun, c:

3 Mace Head, d: Hegyhatsal) in or near Europe. See Fig. 6 caption for further description.





Figure 9. Evolution of CH₄ and tracers at stations (a: Sede Boker, b: Ulaan Uul, c: Sary
Taukum, d: Tae-ahn Peninsula) near Asian emission sources. See Fig. 6 caption for further
description.





- 3 e: Cape Rama, <u>bd</u>: Mahe Island) in background/outflowing air in or near Asia. See Fig. 6
- 4 caption for further description.







Figure 11. CH₄ y¥ear to year variation (ppb) in surface CH₄ in model (Plot a) compared to
the levels of surface CH₄ estimated from observations (Plot b) in various latitudinal bands
based on the NOAA ESRL network of surface stations (Ciais et al. 2013, and data set
provided by Edward J. Dlugokencky: private communication).






Figure 12. Upper panel: Mean year-to-year growth (ppb/yr)(%) in surface CH₄ in Oslo CTM3
over the period 199<u>8</u>7-2000. The 32 circles show the observed growth rates over the same
period. The stations picked for comparison is based on the criteria described in section 2.3_{L7}
and only observation sites that have measurements available for all months within the given time is
included. Panels a)-f): Mean year-to-year growth ppb/yr)(%) in mole fration of emission
tracers in the same period. a) Natural (wetlands+other natural+biomass burning), b) enteric, c)

9 agricultural soils, d) gas, e) solid fuel, f) sum all other anthropogenic tracers.





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Figure 13. Upper panel: Mean year-to-year growth (ppb/yr)(%) in surface CH₄ in Oslo CTM3 3 4 over the period 2001-2006. The 25 circles show the observed growth rates over the same 5 period. The stations picked for comparison is based on the criteria described in section 2.3, 6 and only observation sites that have measurements available for all months within the given time is included. Panels a)-f): Mean year-to-year growth (ppb/yr)(%) in mole fration of 7 8 emission tracers in the same period. a) Natural (wetlands+other natural+biomass burning), b) 9 enteric, c) agricultural soils, d) gas, e) solid fuel, f) sum all other anthropogenic tracers.





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Figure 14. Upper panel: Mean year-to-year growth (ppb/yr)(%) in surface CH₄ in Oslo CTM3 3 4 over the period 2007-2009. The 36 circles show the observed growth rates over the same 5 period. The stations picked for comparison are based on the criteria described in section 2.3_{47} 6 and only observation sites that have measurements available for all months within the given time is included. Panels a)-f): Mean year-to-year growth (ppb/yr)(%) in mole fraction of 7 8 emission tracers in the same period. a) Natural (wetlands+other natural+biomass burning), b) 9 enteric, c) agricultural soils, d) gas, e) solid fuel, f) sum all other anthropogenic tracers.



Figure 15. Evolution of yearly global average atmospheric instantaneous CH₄ lifetime in the 3 main and fixed methane simulations (left y-axis). Evolution of yearly global average 4 atmospheric OH concentration in the main simulation (right y-axis) using the reaction rate 5 with CH₄ as averaging kernel. 6













