We would like to thank the two reviewers for their thorough and constructive reviews of our
 manuscript. We have completely revised the manuscript based on the reviews. In summary, the
 most important changes are the following.

We moved a large part of global inversion results and discussion to the supplementary
materials and changed the manuscript title to "Inverse modeling of pan-Arctic methane
emissions at high spatial resolution: What can we learn from assimilating satellite retrievals and
using different process-based wetland and lake biogeochemical models?";

We did an ensemble of pan-Arctic inversions for each prior emission scenario to
calculate the posterior estimate uncertainty using a Monte Carlo stochastic approximation
method. And the new results are now shown in Fig. 5 and the old results in Table 3 are removed;

We redid the bias correction of SCIAMACHY retrievals overpassing the pan-Arctic
using a new method and showed the results in Fig. 3) shows the new bias correction;

• We reanalyzed the comparison between the inversion considering lake emissions and the inversion w/o considering lake emissions. The corresponding new figure (Fig. 6) shows that their difference is pronounced;

• We redrew the inversion evaluation figures (now Fig. 7 and Fig. S6). In Fig. 7, due to a direct comparison between global inversions and nested-grid inversions, We showed that the gain of using high-resolution nested grid inversion could be very promising;

• We rewrote the further discussion section to focus on the gain of assimilating satellite retrievals, using high-resolution nested-grid inversions and incorporating methane emissions from lakes. We also illustrated the impact of prior wetland emissions and the uncertainty of this

22 study and future directions.

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This response file includes (1) the point-to-point response letter to the first reviewer; (2) the point-to-point response letter to the second reviewer; (3) the manuscript revision with all changes highlighted; (4) the supplementary material revision with all changes highlighted.

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34 General Comments

35 Though the authors already carried out an extensive work and analysis, the following

36 points need clarification and revision publication in ACP.

Response: We appreciate the valuable comments from the reviewer. These comments help usimprove the manuscript in both readability and scientific values.

39 1.1 Satellite observations and bias correction

- 40 Using satellite observations in an inversion system is a difficult task. Using SCHIAMACHY
- 41 at high latitudes in support to surface in situ observations is even more difficult. The
- 42 authors acknowledge this difficulty and apply filters on satellite data. They also worked on
- 43 bias correction to minimize any misuse of satellite data in the inversion. However, in its
- 44 current form, some questions remain unanswered and should be discussed.
- 45 **1.** Satellite bias is corrected along natural parameters (latitude, air mass factor, etc.) 46 before inversion. Using the same data for debiasing and then for the inversion can be 47 very hazardous. One should make sure that the bias patterns are totally decorrelated from the patterns used in the inversion (concentration gradients in this case). As 48 49 methane emissions are dominant in tropical regions, concentration patterns could be 50 somehow correlated with satellite bias. In this case, you risk misleading the inversion 51 or at best reduce the number of usable information in the satellite observations. Has it 52 be tried to include the bias correction in the inversion procedure?
- 53 Response: We have not tried to include the bias correction in the inversion procedure. In 54 previous studies, some included and some did not. There is no claim that including the bias 55 correction in the inversion procedure is better than the ones not including or vice versa. 56 Given the risk that the further optimization of bias correction functions in the inversion 57 cycle could cause bias correction to incorrectly account for the uncertainties brought by 58 unaccounted model errors or even the uncertain sources and sinks (Houweling et al., 2014) 59 and the inclusion also makes the inverse modeling system more complex, thus the inclusion 60 was not chosen in this study. But as the pan-Arctic inversions are our focus, we did make an effort to detect the bias using independent observations. Specifically, we used the observed 61 62 CH₄ vertical profiles from the NOAA/ESRL aircraft mission over Alaska, the NIES aircraft 63 mission over Siberia and the NASA/ARCTAS aircraft mission over northern Canada to 64 build a relationship between the satellite bias and specific humidity averaged over the lower 65 3 km. It should make the debiasing process more reliable. See Fig. 3 for details.
- 66 **2. Though efforts are done to deploy new observation sites around the Arctic ocean,**
- 67 satellite datasets could fill some gap in the observations. In my opinion, this paper has
- all the elements to partly address this question and should address it. What is the
- 69 impact of using satellite data on the inversions? This could be estimated by computing

the sensitivity matrix (Cardinali et al., 2004). It could also be inquired into by comparing inversions with and without assimilating satellite observations.

Response: Thanks very much for this suggestion! Accordingly, we have used a Monte Carlo
 stochastic approximation method to calculate the inversion uncertainty with and without
 assimilating satellite retrievals. It shows that assimilating satellite retrievals does reduce the
 inversion uncertainty.

76 **1.2 Inversion system and uncertainties**

- 1. The description of the system is somehow hard to follow. Section 3.3 should be
 clarified, in particular, concerning the nesting procedure and the spin-up periods. It
 looks like observations are used several times in the different inversions, spin up and
 nesting procedure. This could artificially increase the weight of the observations
 multiply used, compared with those used only once. Please discuss this point. It may be
 necessary to stop the spin-up period when the inversion period starts to avoid multiple
 use of information, biasing the inversion.
- 84 Response: The surface sites in the pan-Arctic were used in both global and nested-grid 85 inversions. It could increase the weight of the NOAA/ESRL observations. But if it was not used in global inversions, we believe the boundary conditions of the nested-grid inversions 86 87 would have much more errors. Since the NOAA/ESRL sites in the pan-Arctic provide much 88 less observations (sometimes less than 1/50), this double counting should introduce much 89 less errors than the method the reviewer suggested. Also, using surface measurements in both global and nested-grid inversions can be found in other previous studies such as Wecht 90 91 et al. (2014). In addition, we have rewritten the description of the optimization and spin-up 92 processes.
- Wecht, K. J., Jacob, D. J., Frankenberg, C., Jiang, Z. and Blake, D. R.: Mapping of North
 American methane emissions with high spatial resolution by inversion of SCIAMACHY
 satellite data, J. Geophys. Res. Atmos., 119, 7741–7756, doi:10.1002/2014JD021551, 2014.
- 96 2. The global inversions are used as boundary conditions for the regional inversions. It 97 would be interesting to see the impact of the higher resolution on the inversion results. Could the posterior fluxes from the global and the regional inversions be compared for 98 99 equivalent regions? Anyway, I have some concerns about the way the nesting is carried 100 out. If I understand well, the nested regional model is run on a grid, which does not 101 extend north of 80°. This means that the transport across the Arctic ocean is totally 102 excluded from the regional inversion. Thus, for instance, ZEP only sees the influence of 103 the global boundary conditions as it is really close from the side of your regional 104 domain. ALT is excluded from the regional domain while it is expected to provide some 105 regional information, etc. In the best case, this is a pity of missing some potential information with air masses crossing the Arctic ocean and reaching remote sites. In the 106

worst case, it totally biases the regional inversion and, at the end, the regional is not
 better (or maybe worse) than the global inversion. This problem must be addressed,
 especially as you use a relatively scarce network with Arctic sites relatively close to the
 border of the regional domain.

111 That being said, I finally do not see what exactly brings the regional inversion to this112 study.

- 113 Response: We acknowledge that the exclusion of the North Pole in the nested grid could 114 introduce some uncertainty to our estimates but do not agree with the reviewer's claim that 115 this exclusion can totally bias the regional inversion and make the regional not better than 116 the global inversion. We argue that, due to the following reasons, our regional inversion can 117 do a much better job in helping understand CH₄ emissions from the pan-Arctic. First, as we 118 replied to one specific comment below, studies showed that in the summer time which we 119 are interested in, vertical and zonal transport are much stronger than meridional transport. It 120 is true that ALT is excluded from the regional domain. But we do not think that the 121 exclusion of this site would make important regional information missed. The ALT site is 122 located in a region far from possible CH₄ emission hotspots. And because satellite retrievals 123 in northern Canada are much more abundant than the ALT measurements, even if they are 124 of less quality, the regional information they can provide is much better. Thus the scenario 125 to damage our inversions as pointed out would hardly occur. Compared to coarse grid 126 inversions, high-resolution inversions have many advantages: 1) because the footprint of 127 satellite retrievals becomes more consistent with the finer grid cells, the chance they can be 128 represented well in the GEOS-Chem model is much larger; 2) the impact of earth 129 topography on the usability of satellite retrievals (tessellation error) is largely reduced. In 130 summary, it is very unlikely that there is a large bias in our regional inversions due to the 131 exclusion of the North Pole.
- 132 **3.** Concerning the prior uncertainties in the inversion, the current system uses a 133 regularization term γ to control the weight of prior information compared with observations. How this term is computed? Is it based on a χ^2 criterion? Couldn't the 134 135 same procedure be used to also adjust the in situ vs satellite observations? It has been 136 proven that prior uncertainties play a key role in inversion, and wrong uncertainty 137 matrices can lead to totally biased or inconsistent results. Furthermore, a critical point 138 in inversions is a correct specification of posterior uncertainties. Posterior fluxes 139 without posterior uncertainties are mostly worthless numbers produced by very 140 elaborated black boxes (to caricature...). The authors acknowledge this issue and try to 141 address it by comparing inversion results for 6 different wetland prior fluxes. I am 142 confident that these different scenarios can be sufficient to qualitatively discuss the 143 performance of the inversion. In addition, it seems that the 6 scenarios are sufficient 144 (by chance?) to reproduce a realistic range of uncertainty when comparing to Berchet 145 et al. (2014) numbers for Siberian Lowlands. However, as the author try to draw some

conclusions about the emissions from lakes, dominated by other sources, uncertainties
 might be too high. This is especially critical as the regional inversions seem kind of
 unsound. Additional inversions with different observation and prior uncertainty
 matrices would be necessary to really address this issue.

- 150 Response: The term γ is determined by analyzing its influence on the minimum of the cost 151 function. It is a usual way to balance the prediction error and assimilation error in adjoint 152 methods. More details can be found in Hakami et al. (2005), Yumimoto and Uno (2006) and 153 Kopacz et al. (2009). For the emissions from lakes, we showed in Fig. 6 of the revision that 154 the agreement between the GEOS-Chem model and SCIMACHY over a yedoma permafrost 155 region (circled by a black polygon in Fig. 1) gets much better when the emissions from lakes 156 were considered. There is a non-negligible possibility that the missed emissions by the 157 DLEM scenario are from lakes because as illustrated, 56% of the water-inundated 158 landscapes in this region are lakes. And it is possible that emissions counted for wetlands in 159 other wetland models actually are from lakes. But we are cautious to draw a conclusion that 160 CH_4 emissions from lakes must be included in inversions or are significant across the pan-161 Arctic because there is still very large uncertainty. But the point is that the inversions in this 162 study can shed light on this source at large spatial scales that are unachievable from field 163 observations and the inversions are more reliable than biogeochemical models.
- Hakami, A., D. K. Henze, J. H. Seinfeld, T. Chai, Y. Tang, G. R. Carmichael, and A. Sandu
 (2005), Adjoint inverse modeling of black carbon during the Asian Pacific Regional Aerosol
 Characterization Experiment, J. Geophys. Res., 110(D14), D14301,
 doi:10.1029/2004JD005671.
- Kopacz, M., D. J. Jacob, D. K. Henze, C. L. Heald, D. G. Streets, and Q. Zhang (2009),
 Comparison of adjoint and analytical Bayesian inversion methods for constraining Asian
 sources of carbon monoxide using satellite (MOPITT) measurements of CO columns, J.
- 171 Geophys. Res., 114, D04305, doi:10.1029/2007JD009264.
- Yumimoto, K., and I. Uno (2006), Adjoint inverse modeling of CO emissions over eastern
 Asia using four-dimensional variational data assimilation, Atmos. Environ., 40(35), 6836–
- 174 6845, doi:10.1016/j.atmosenv.2006.05.042.
- 175 **1.3 Structure, content and title of the manuscript**
- The manuscript in its current form lacks some consistency between the title, structure and
 content.
- 178 The title makes the reader expects an atmospheric inversion accounting for lake and
- 179 wetland emissions. Section 4.1 deviates in my opinion from the main topic of the paper.
- 180 What is the objective of this section? In the current state, it looks like an enumeration of
- 181 aggregated emissions on global regions and compared with previous work. Though by itself

- 182 not uninteresting, I don't think it is relevant for Arctic inversions. Maybe the entire section
- 183 could be moved to supplementary materials (or to a different paper dedicated to global
- 184 inversions).
- 185 On the other hand, Section 3.4 seems to me a key part of the manuscript. But the authors
- 186 chose to put it only at the end of the method section with only limited details. I consider the
- 187 satellite measurements play a key role in this work, especially as the Arctic in situ sites are
- 188 very scarce during the inversion window. As noted by the authors, bias correction is
- 189 essential for using both satellite and surface measurements. An amended version of the
- 190 manuscript should include an extended discussion on the bias correction, on the
- performance of the different models, on the relative weight of satellite data in the inversion
 compared to surface measurements. This discussion is already partly done in Section 3.4
- compared to surface measurements. This discussion is already partly done in Section 3.4
 but should be extended and moved to Section 4. Some elements of Section 4.1 may also be
- 194 **used for this discussion.**

195 The title should render the use of satellite observations as it is not common in Northern 196 latitude.

- 197 Response: We have changed the title to "Inverse modeling of pan-Arctic methane emissions at
- 198 high spatial resolution: What can we learn from assimilating satellite retrievals and using
- 199 different process-based wetland and lake biogeochemical models?" In the revision, we mainly
- 200 focused on the following questions: 1) how large the impacts do the wetland biogeochemical
- 201 models have on pan-Arctic CH₄ inversions and in which direction can the wetland
- 202 biogeochemical model can be improved for the use of inverse modeling? 2) Can the inclusion of
- 203 CH₄ emissions from lakes improve the results of inverse modeling? 3) Can the assimilation of
- satellite retrievals reduce the uncertainty of the posterior estimates? and 4) to compare the
- 205 possible debiasing method for global or pan-Arctic scale inversions? And we have moved the
- 206 most part of description about the optimization steps and results of global inversions to the
- 207 supplementary materials.
- 208

209 Technical Comments

210 The following points are mostly technical points that need reformulation or some

- 211 clarification.
- 212 p. 32471 l. 20: the last sentence might over-sell the paper or is too vague
- 213 Response: This sentence has been deleted.
- p. 32472 l. 24: I think putting together ")(" should be avoided as much as possible. There
- 215 are other occurrences of this typo point in the manuscript

216 Response: We have revised all these occurrences of ")(" in the manuscript.

p. 32474 l. 9: inversions are even more sensitive to uncertainty matrices; that should be at least partly addressed

- 219 Response: Thanks very much! In this revision, we have calculated the uncertainty of posterior
- 220 estimates of methane emissions from the pan-Arctic. It shows that by using satellite retrievals the
- 221 uncertainty is reduced.

p. 32476 l. 10: are the outliers numerous? What is the impact of this filtering on theinversion?

Response: We only find one outlier that can pass other quality tests in our study period. Thus we expect this filtering only has a trivial impact on the inversion.

p. 32476 l. 19: the selection is relevant, but some details on how it is done are needed for the

reader. Couldn't the excluded sites be used for evaluation? A map of all the sites excluded

228 from the inversion, assimilated in the inversion and used for validation should be provided

- 229 (at least in the supplementary material), with the borders of the nested model.
- 230 Response: For the global scale, we excluded the same sites as in Alexe et al. (2015). We have
- added this citation for reference. For the nested model, we now added a new figure (Fig. 1) to
- show the sites assimilated in the inversion and used for validation. There are no surface sites
- excluded from both assimilation and validation in the nested inversions.
- Alexe, M., Bergamaschi, P., Segers, A., Detmers, R., Butz, A., Hasekamp, O., Guerlet, S., Parker,
- R., Boesch, H., Frankenberg, C., Scheepmaker, R. A., Dlugokencky, E., Sweeney, C., Wofsy, S.
- 236 C. and Kort, E. A.: Inverse modeling of CH₄ emissions for 2010–2011 using different satellite
- retrieval products from GOSAT and SCIAMACHY, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 15, 113–133,
- 238 doi:10.5194/acp-15-113-2015, 2015.

p. 32476: Maybe I missed it but I couldn't find anywhere whether surface observations are continuous or flask measurements.

Response: The surface observations are weekly flask measurements. We have added thisinformation in this section.

243 p. **32478** l. 17: Can you give an exact definition of "lake"? This seems obvious, but the

difference between wetlands and lake could be very tiny in some conditions? Does the map

245 of lakes evolve with time?

- 246 Response: The lakes north of 60° N were retrieved from Global Lakes and Wetlands Database
- 247 (GLWD). This map does not evolve with time. Tan and Zhuang (2015) have detailed description
- 248 of the lake map processing. According to GLWD, lakes are defined as permanent still-water
- bodies (lentic water bodies) without direct connection to the sea. And wetlands are by nature

- transitional between terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems and have the presence of standing water
- 251 for some period during the growing season, either at the surface or within the root zone. At least
- in GLWD, there is no double counting of lakes or wetlands. And we have acknowledged the
- 253 possible uncertainty introduced by the double counting in the revision.
- 254 We have added the definition of "lake" into this section.
- Tan, Z. and Zhuang, Q.: Arctic lakes are continuous methane sources to the atmosphere under
 warming conditions, Environ. Res. Lett., 10, 054016, doi:10.1088/1748-9326/10/5/054016, 2015.

p. 32479 l. 10: Is there any citation comparing GEOS-4 and GEOS-5? As you use different meteorological forcings for the different inversion windows, it could have an impact on the results. The two datasets are probably very consistent and the impact is probably very limited, but this should at least be mentioned.

Response: In our revision, the GEOS-4 meteorological forcing was only used for constructing initial conditions on January 1, 2004. Thereafter, all inversions used the GEOS-5 meteorological forcing, including global scale and nested grid inversions. Additionally, in the revision, we moved the start time of nested grid inversions from July 1, 2004 to July 1, 2005. With such a change, we expect that any signals that could be caused by the inconsistency between GEOS-4 and GEOS-5, if any, should have disappeared after the transport and assimilation processes of one and a half years.

- 268 p. 32479 l. 14: if I understand well, for instance, if an air mass from Canada crosses the
- 269 pole and reaches a site in Siberia, you wouldn't be able to recover any information on the
- emission with your way of dealing with the pole? It would be then mixed with "boundary"
- 271 polar conditions? You might lose a lot of information on Arctic emissions considering the

fast transport of air masses over the Arctic Ocean. Wasn't it possible to implement the

- 273 procedure of the global system in the nested system?
- 274 Response: We did not include the polar area for the following reasons. First, in GEOS-Chem,
- with the concern of numerical stability, there is a special treatment of advection in the polar
- 276 region (Lin and Rood, 1996), but this treatment has not been applied and tested for the nested
- 277 grid. Second, according to Miyazaki et al. (2008), the Northern Hemisphere (NH) extratropics
- 278 during summer has slow mean-meridional circulation and inactive wave activity but strong
- 279 vertical transport. Thus there should be very few air masses from Canada crossing the pole and
- 280 reaching a site in Siberia or vice versa. Third, it is true that the boundary conditions of the nested
- 281 model could miss the signals out of boundaries. But this is the drawback of all the similar
- applications, regardless whether it is in North America or in the pan-Arctic. The possible
- solution is to construct the boundaries by real data but it is out of focus of this paper. Instead, we
- have acknowledged this problem in our discussion and called for the improvement of the GEOS-
- 285 Chem model.

- 286 Lin, S.-J. and Rood, R. B.: Multidimensional Flux-Form Semi-Lagrangian Transport Schemes,
- 287 Mon. Weather Rev., 124, 2046–2070, 1996.
- 288 Miyazaki, K., Patra, P. K., Takigawa, M., Iwasaki, T. and Nakazawa, T.: Global-scale transport
- of carbon dioxide in the troposphere, J. Geophys. Res., 113, D15301,
- 290 doi:10.1029/2007JD009557, 2008.

p. 32480 l. 10: people unfortunately do not always define Arctic the same way... Please give your definition, so that the reader knows on which region your emissions are defined.

Response: We have removed the word "Arctic" here and the nested domain has defined in the previous paragraph (180°W–180°E and 80°N–56°N).

p. 32482 l. 22: does the system guarantee that it is not stuck in a local minimum? I guess it does, but mentioning only the 0.5% criterion might be insufficient

Response: Yes, the system guarantees that the iteration is not stuck in a local minimum. We have
mentioned in the sentence "optimization changes its course automatically if local minimum
reaches".

p. 32483 l. 14: BIC seems a reasonable score but it is not commonly used, so please give a little bit of details on it.

- 302 Response: We added some descriptions of the method: "The BIC criterion is widely used for
- 303 regression model selection and aims to award a model that fit measurements with the least model 304 parameters."

p. 32483 l. 25: Does filtering outliers influence the bias correction? What is the portion of data filtered out along this criterion?

- 307 Response: The grid squares with RSD in excess of 20 ppb are not outliers but just as indicated by
- 308 Turner et al. (2015) they are more likely dominated by bias in prior emissions or strong local
- 309 emissions. If these values are included, the bias correction will either remove local emission

310 signals or account for biases not belonging to SCIAMACHY retrievals.

p. 32484 l. 15: is there a known reason for the opposite dependence of model-data

312 differences in East Asia? This only comes from wrong emission inventories or is there a

- 313 relation with regional meteorology or other?
- 314 Response: According to Peng et al. (2016), the EDGAR dataset could overestimate
- 315 anthropogenic CH₄ emissions from China.

316 Peng, S. S., Piao, S. L., Bousquet, P., Ciais, P., Li, B. G., Lin, X., Tao, S., Wang, Z. P., Zhang,

- 317 Y., and Zhou, F.: Inventory of anthropogenic methane emissions in Mainland China from 1980
- to 2010, Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss., doi:10.5194/acp-2016-139, in review, 2016.

p. 32484 l. 22: I do not understand why you need these polynomial trends? Is it that you use

320 monthly or 2-weekly flask measurements and extrapolate them to hourly residuals? If so, I

321 think this might be a problem for the inversion. Extrapolating data before inversion can

322 only bring additional uncertainties.

Response: In the revision, we directly compared the weekly flask measurements (the data records include the measurement date and UTC information) to the model.

p. 32486 l. 3: Please remind the inversion windows here. It is not always clear when the satellite data are used.

- 327 Response: The global scale inversion window is from January 2004 to December 2004 and
- 328 January 2005 to December 2005. The inversions of the second time window are for analysis.

p. 32488 l. 20: it would be easier for the reader to draw a picture if the same area were compared.

- 331 Response: Our results cannot directly compare with Monteil et al. (2013) because they only
- 332 reported the CH_4 emissions from the areas north of 50°N.
- p. 32489 l. 13: without uncertainties on the posterior, it is hard to see the impact and the
- 334 confidence of the inversion. The subsequent discussion is thus very speculative in my

opinion. The DLEM scenario with no lakes only shows the limitation of inversion methods,

336 I think... I do not really get the choice of DLEM. The way you put it, it only confirms that

337 the inversion has not enough information to redistribute fluxes. But the missing fluxes

338 could also be wetland fluxes.

- 339 Response: We have calculated posterior uncertainty in the revision.
- p. 32490 l. 18: both numbers looks pretty high, especially for the total column. What the
- 341 difference between observed and prior total columns? Is the improvement significant? I

342 think this is the most important here. If with the inversion, you only shift the total columns

of 1 ppb without the lakes and of 2 ppb with the lakes, you got a signal; but conversely, if

344 the inversion shifts the total columns by e.g., 30 ppb without the lakes and 31 ppb with the

- 345 lake, you got nothing...
- Response: We have drawn another figure to show the difference. As shown in Fig. 6, there arevisible differences.

p. 32490 l. 22: I think this citation is not relevant. They could have achieved 15 ppb of improvement if taking wrong prior fluxes...

350 Response: We have removed this citation.

351 p. 32491 l. 26: Berchet et al. (2014) did find methane emissions of 1–13 TgCH4/y from

- 352 Siberian wetlands, which is amazingly consistent with your figure.
- 353 Response: Our newly estimated methane emissions from Siberian wetlands are $1.6-7.6 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$.
- **Tab. 1: Maybe you could add correlation coefficients as you show one R in Figure 1.**
- 355 Response: We have added it.

356 Figure 1c: it would be interesting to compare on the same figure before and after

357 optimization and to have the same figure for all debiasing method (probably in

358 supplementary material to avoid having dozens of figures...)

359 Response: As shown in Table 1, the fitting between model and SCIAMACHY does not differ too

360 much among several methods, e.g. between "Latitude only" and "Latitude + Humidity". Thus

361 such plots probably will not bring much information.

362 Figure 4: Could you please add the prior and posterior uncertainties? Why does the

363 seasonal cycle vanishes after 1998 in the Tropics? As for Section 4.1, I am not sure this

364 figure is really relevant regarding the topic of the paper

Response: We think you are right – this figure seems irrelevant to our topic. It only shows the process of initial condition construction. We have removed it in the revision. For the vanishing

of the seasonal cycle after 1998 in the tropics, it is related to the discontinuation of the biomass

burning emission dataset. In GEOS-Chem, the GFED3 dataset covers only from 1997 to 2010

and all simulations before 1997 have to use the data of year 1997. Compared to the other years,

370 biomass burning emissions have more apparent seasonal cycle in 1997.

Figure 8-9: Please add the prior RMS for each different scenario, so that one can see the improvement after inversion.

- 373 Response: For both figures, we have added the prior RMS for each different scenario.
- 374

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379 Several studies have pointed to the importance of methane emissions from lakes, but so far 380 no attempt has been made to include those estimates into global atmospheric transport 381 model and assess their influence on inverse modeling results. This study makes a useful 382 contribution by filling this gap. Estimates are provided of Arctic lake and wetland 383 emissions before and after optimization using inverse modeling. This is all fine, but in the 384 end it is still not so clear whether or not the model has improved by the inclusion of lake 385 emission and what it means for the overall Arctic methane budget. In my opinion, some 386 more in depth analysis in this direction would increase the usefulness of this study. Right 387 now, the conclusion section has some general statements that don't seem to be supported by 388 the results, or at least not in the way the results are presented. Improvements in this 389 direction will be needed, as explained in further detail below, to make this manuscript 390 suitable for publication.

391 Response: We appreciate the valuable comments from the reviewer. To address the concerns

- 392 raised by the reviewer, we have used a Monte Carlo stochastic approximation method to 393 calculate the uncertainty of posterior estimates. Fig. 5 shows that assimilating satellite retrievant
- calculate the uncertainty of posterior estimates. Fig. 5 shows that assimilating satellite retrievalsreduced the uncertainty. In Fig. 6, we did a more detailed comparison between the inversion
- 395 considering lake emissions and the inversion not considering lake emissions. It shows that there
- 396 should be strong CH₄ emissions in the specified yedoma permafrost region that is missed by the
- 397 DLEM model. Since 56% of the water-inundated landscapes are lakes in the region, there is a
- non-negligible possibility that the missed emissions by the DLEM scenario could be from lakes.
 And it is possible that emissions counted for wetlands in other wetland models actually are from
- 400 lakes. We are cautious to draw a conclusion that CH_4 emissions from lakes must be included in
- 401 inversions or are significant across the pan-Arctic because there is still very large uncertainty.
- 402 But the point is that the inversions in this study can shed light on this source at large spatial
- 403 scales that are unachievable from field observations and the inversions are more reliable than
- 404 biogeochemical models. Also, we have changed the structure of the manuscript to focus on the
- 405 following questions: 1) how large the impacts do the wetland biogeochemical models have on
- 406 pan-Arctic CH_4 inversions and in which direction can the wetland biogeochemical model can be
- 407 improved for the use of inverse modeling?; 2) can the inclusion of CH_4 emissions from lakes
- 408 improve the results of inverse modeling?; 3) can the assimilation of satellite retrievals reduce the
- 409 uncertainty of the posterior estimates?; and 4) to compare the possible debiasing method for
- 410 global or pan-Arctic scale inversions?

411 General Comments

- 412 The statement in the conclusion section that "biogeochemical models tend to overestimate
- 413 natural sources in the Arctic" calls for a comparison of numbers, together with their
- 414 uncertainties and a discussion of possible factors influencing the comparison. The numbers
- 415 are given in Table 3. Looking at the ranges they seem to support the conclusion. However,
- 416 does the range of posterior estimates reflect the posterior uncertainty? If not, the difference
- 417 between prior and posterior fluxes may not be significant. Since only a single lake estimate

- 418 is used this part of the uncertainty is in any case not accounted for judging only emission
- 419 ranges. What factors could influence the comparison? Without the lake emission estimates
- 420 the biogeochemical models would be fine. Could it be that by simply adding up lake
- 421 emission estimates to the process model results, emissions end up being double counting?
- 422 For example, if lakes appear in places that already count as wetlands in those models.
- 423 Particularly when the model prescribes inundated area using satellite data there is no clear
- 424 boundary between the two. Some further discussion is needed of how these contributions fit
- 425 together and what the implications are for the uncertainty of the estimates.
- 426 Response: In the revision, the posterior uncertainty was calculated. According to Fig. 5, we can
- 427 still claim that biogeochemical models could overestimate CH₄ emissions in the pan-Arctic. But
- 428 now this is not a conclusion we are urgent to draw. Rather, we want to say that according to this
- 429 figure, in addition to Table 2, the estimated uncertainty caused by unrealistic spatial and
- 430 temporal patterns of biogeochemical models could be larger than the uncertainty caused by
- 431 observation and prior emission magnitude uncertainties. This emphasizes the importance of
- 432 improving biogeochemical models to achieve consistent spatial and temporal variabilities. The
- 433 value of the estimates for lake emissions here is to shed light on the upper and lower bounds of
- this source. Because the lake model is combined with different wetland models in which some
- 435 could have stricter definitions of wetland area and some could have wider definitions, in addition
- 436 to data assimilation, the results can give us more insights on the magnitude of the source than the
- 437 lake model alone. It can also be true for CH_4 emissions from wetlands.
- 438 It is difficult to judge the added value of the regional inversion from the way in which
- 439 results are presented. Table 3 is the only place where a direct comparison between prior
- 440 and posterior is made. Looking at the ranges, the results actually suggest that the inversion
- 441 increases uncertainty. Otherwise the plots for the regional inversions show either prior or
- 442 posterior fluxes, but no differences between the two. This makes it hard to judge where
- 443 inversion results converge or diverge in the inversion process. The impact of accounting for
- 444 lakes is discussed in the text where suggestions are made that it is important to do so.
- 445 This is the kind of discussion that is expected from a paper, which investigates the role of
- 446 lakes. However, only one figure in the supplementary information shows any results
- 447 supporting this discussion. Since it only shows posterior results, it is difficult to compare
- 448 with any of the other figures. The point about the importance of including lake emissions
- 449 has to be demonstrated more convincingly.
- 450 Response: To address these issues, we calculated the posterior uncertainty of emission estimates451 and showed it in Fig. 5. Fig. 6 shows that the inclusion of lake emissions improves the agreement
- 452 between the GEOS-Chem model and satellite retrievals. We also compared the RMS of the
- 452 posterior global and pan-Arctic inversions over the pan-Arctic surface and aircraft observations.

454 Figure 8 and 9 demonstrate how the inversion-optimized fluxes improve the fit to various

455 measurements. What I find missing in these figures is the range of a priori RMS values (I

456 mean from each inversion). I wonder also whether posterior RMS's correlate with the

457 priors. In other words, does the pattern of posterior mismatches reflect that of the prior or

- 458 not? A more important omission, however, is a quantification of the role of lakes in these
- 459 figures. Is there any gain in terms of RMS by including a pattern of lake emissions in the
- 460 **inversion**?

461 Response: We have improved these two figures according to the comments (see Fig. 7 and Fig.

462 S6). Now the RMS from the prior of each scenario shows together with the RMS from the

463 posterior. For lake emissions, Fig. 6 can show some gain in terms of RMS if lake emissions are

- included. We think it is difficult to explain the gain in terms of RMS using other observations
 because both surface sites and aircraft missions are far from the regions where lakes are obvious
- dominant in the GLWD map.
- 467 The final conclusion that the nested modeling approach improves the simulation of

468 methane mixing ratios is not supported by results. The same is true for the sentence that

469 follows about the understanding that is gained about Arctic emissions by simulating

470 methane with more spatial detail. Either provide the supporting evidence or otherwise

- 471 remove the conclusions.
- 472 Response: We have revised the discussion and conclusion according to our results. According to
- the results, the following conclusions can be drawn: 1) the realistic spatial and temporal
- 474 variability of prior CH₄ emissions from wetlands are important for inverse modeling; 2) satellite
- 475 retrievals can be used to reduce the uncertainty of the estimates of CH_4 emissions in the pan-
- 476 Arctic; 3) high-resolution nested grid inversions improve the performance of inverse modeling;
- 477 and 4) there could be large spatial scale CH_4 emissions from pan-Arctic lakes in some specific
- 478 regions.
- 479
- 480 Specific Comments

481 Abstract, line 13: "Canadian and Siberian lakes contribute most of the estimated lake 482 emissions" What do you mean here, to Global or Arctic lake emissions?

- 483 Response: We mean that "Canadian and Siberian lakes contributed most of the estimated CH₄
 484 emissions from pan-Arctic lakes."
- 485 Page 32475, equation 2: where does "XCO2" come from?
- 486 Response: The XCO₂ comes from the CarbonTracker CO₂ measurement and modeling system.
- 487 We have added this information in the revision.

488 Page 32479, line 16: The Southern bound of the Arctic nested grid is 56N. Does this mean

489 that all reported total fluxes from the nested grid inversion represent fluxes northward of

490 **56N? In several places there is mentioning of 60N, and somewhere even 50N. Confusion**

491 should be avoided on what is called "Arctic".

- 492 Response: Although the inversions were conducted northward of 56°N, only emissions
- 493 northward of 60°N were analyzed. In the revision, we changed "Arctic" to "pan-Arctic" and
- 494 defined "pan-Arctic" as a region northward of 60°N. For the place 50°N, it is because the cited
- 495 study does not calculate methane emissions from 60° N separately. In that case, we have not tried
- 496 to imply the emissions from 60° N and 50° N should agree.
- 497 Page 32483, line 25: Why is this condition restricted to measurements between 50S and 50N?
 498 It hints at something that requires further specification. In the studies by Bergamaschi et al
- 499 and Houweling et al, SCIAMACHY retrievals are filtered out outside this latitude interval.
- 500 Figure S1, indicates that higher latitude measurements are used in this study, although this
- 501 line 25 suggests that data are treated differently. This should be clarified.
- 502 Response: Following Bergamaschi et al. (2009) and Houweling et al. (2014), we also filtered out
- 503 measurements outside 50°S and 50°N because in these regions SCIAMACHY only delivered
- 504 good-quality retrievals in local summer times and we run whole-year inversion at the global
- 505 scale. Before, we applied the regression relationship of Fig. 1c to the pan-Arctic inversions. We
- 506 realized that it could be problematic. In this revision, following the method of Wecht et al.
- 507 (2014), we used aircraft campaign measurements from Alaska, Canada and Siberia to calculate a
- 508 linear regression between bias and specific humidity. This relationship was then applied to all
- nested grid inversions. We showed this new regression and aircraft campaign sites in Fig. 2 and 3.
- 510 Wecht, K. J., Jacob, D. J., Frankenberg, C., Jiang, Z. and Blake, D. R.: Mapping of North
- 511 American methane emissions with high spatial resolution by inversion of SCIAMACHY satellite
- 512 data, J. Geophys. Res. Atmos., 119, 7741–7756, doi:10.1002/2014JD021551, 2014.
- 513 Page 32486, line 8: "this suggests that the global emissions . . ." It should be noted here that
- 514 the convergence of global totals relies on the assumed atmospheric lifetime being correct.
- 515 There is no mentioning that atmospheric sinks are optimized. If they were, then the
- 516 measurement constraint on the global total emission would have been substantially less.
- 517 Response: We have added this assumption into the sentence: "This convergence probably
- 518 suggests that surface measurements from the NOAA/ESRL network are of sufficient density and
- 519 accuracy to represent the global CH_4 burden if the CH_4 lifetime is correct".

520 Page 32487, line 24: "They probably underestimated . . ." This difference could be caused

- by a different assumption on the methane lifetime, the uncertainty of which may well
 exceed 10 TgCH4/yr.
- 523 Response: You are right. We have changed the tongue of this sentence.

- 524 Page 32488, line 4: "This adjustment could be primarily driven . . ." Then a list follows of
- 525 every element in the inversion that influences the a priori fluxes. Therefore, effectively this
- 526 sentence doesn't say anything. However, it would actually be interesting to know the
- 527 relative importance, for example, of the satellite and surface data. This has been studied in
- 528 the past by others for the global domain, but not specifically for the Arctic sub domain.
- 529 Response: As our focus is on the inverse modeling of CH₄ emissions from the pan-Arctic, we did
- 530 not do more work to investigate the possible reasons. But it is possibly very complex. We have
- 531 deleted the sentence to reduce confusion.

532 Page 32490, line 11: "We conducted a nested grid inversion . . ." Somewhere in the part 533 that follows a reference is missing to figure S3.

534 Response: We have added the reference to Fig. S3

535 Page 32493, line 27: "But our study also suggests that . . ." Here a reference is missing to

- 536 Berchet et al, ACPD, 2015 (doi:10.5194/acpd-15-25477-2015).
- 537 Response: We have added this reference.
- 538 Page 32512, fig 3: It is not clear if the totals refer to Global or Arctic emission totals.
- 539 Furthermore, please put the totals under the figures to improve readability.
- 540 Response: The totals refer to pan-Arctic emission totals. We have put the numbers under the
- 541 wetland scenario or source names to make the figure more readable.

542 Page 32512: figure 3: Is the resolution of CLM4Me indeed so much lower than the other543 models?

- 544 Response: Yes, the CLM4Me model has a spatial resolution of $1.9^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ but many others have
- 545 a spatial resolution of half degree (SDGVM has a resolution of one degree).
- 546 Page 32473, line 24: "Previous" i.o. "And previous".
- 547 Response: We have revised it.

548 Page 32483, line 23: "SIAMACHY"

- 549 Response: We have revised it.
- 550 **Page 32489, line 3: "by that the"**
- 551 Response: This sentence has been removed in the revision.
- 552 Page 32491, line 26: "the CH4 budget of"
- 553 Response: We have revised it.

Page 32492, line 24: "help"?

555 Response: "help transport" was replaced by "quickly transport".

556 Page 32510, figure c: axis titles are missing (they should be along the axis instead of in the557 caption).

558 Response: The problem is that there is no enough space to put them; otherwise this subplot will 559 become too small. As this figure has been move to the supplement, we chose to keep the current 560 format.

573 resolution: using Wwhat can we learn from assimilating satellite retrievals an

574 adjoint atmospheric transport and inversion method and using different process-

- 575 based wetland and lake biogeochemical models?
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592	Abstract: Understanding methane emissions from the Arctic, a fast warming carbon reservoir, is
593	important for projecting future changes in the global methane cycle under future climate
594	scenarios. Here we optimized Arctic methane emissions north of 60°N (pan-Arctic) using with a
595	nested-grid high-resolution inverse model by assimilating-that assimilates both high-precision
596	surface measurements and column-average SCIAMACHY satellite retrievals of methane mole
597	fraction. For the first time, methane emissions from lakes wereare integrated into an atmospheric
598	transport and inversion estimate, together with prior wetland emissions estimated by six different
599	biogeochemical models. In our estimates We find that, the in 2005, global methane emissions
600	during July 2004 June 2005 ranged from were in the range of 496.4 to 511.5 Tg yr ⁻¹ , with
601	wetland methane emissions ranging from 130.0 to 203.3 Tg yr ⁻¹ . The and pan-Arctic methane
602	emissions during July 2004 June 2005 were in the range of $11.9-28.5$ 14.6 30.4 Tg yr ⁻¹ .
603	Methane emissions fromwith pan-Arctic wetlands and lakes wereemissions ranging from 8.8 to
604	20.45.5–14.2 Tg yr ⁻¹ and from 5.4 to 7.92.4–14.2 Tg yr ⁻¹ -, respectively. Canadian and Siberian
605	lakes contributed most of the estimated lake emissions. Methane emissions from Siberian
606	wetlands and lakes could be the largest and also have the largest uncertainty. Our results indicate
607	that the uncertainty introduced by different wetland models could be much larger than the
608	uncertainty of each inversion. We also show that assimilating satellite retrievals can reduce the
609	uncertainty of the nested-grid inversions. The significance of lake emissions cannot be identified
610	across the pan-Arctic by high-resolution inversions but it is possible to identify high lake
611	emissions in some specific regions. In contrast to global inversions, high-resolution nested-grid
612	inversions can perform better in estimating representing near surface CH ₄ concentrations. Due to
613	insufficient measurements in the region, Arctic methane emissions are less constrained in

614	northern Russia than in Alaska, northern Canada and Scandinavia. Comparison of different
615	inversions indicates that the distribution of global and Arctic methane emissions is sensitive to
616	prior wetland emissions. Evaluation with independent datasets shows that the global and Arctic
617	inversions improve estimates of methane mixing ratios in boundary layer and free troposphere.
618	The high-resolution inversions provide more details about the spatial distribution of methane
619	emissions in the Arctic.
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624 **1. Introduction**

625 Methane (CH₄) is an important long-lived atmospheric trace gas. It is the second most 626 powerful carbon-based greenhouse gas in the atmosphere behind carbon dioxide (CO₂) and also 627 plays a significant role in the cycles of ozone (O_3) , hydroxyl radicals (OH) and stratospheric 628 water vapor (H_2O) (Myhre et al., 2013; Shindell et al., 2009). The atmospheric burden of CH₄ is 629 now more than factor of 2.5 greater than the pre-industrial value of about 700 ppb (Etheridge et 630 al., 1998), mainly due to anthropogenic emissions. Major sources and sinks of CH₄ have been 631 identified (Denman et al., 2007); however their quantification is still of large uncertaintiestheir 632 individual strengths and the annual causes of the observed concentration trends and inter-annual 633 <u>variabilities</u> variability fluctuations of atmospheric CH_4 are not well explained known. For instance, 634 scientists have not yet agreed on what caused the leveling off of atmospheric CH₄ since the

635	1980s (Dlugokencky et al., 2003; Bousquet et al., 2006; Aydin et al., 2011; Kai et al., 2011;
636	Levin et al., 2012; Simpson et al., 2012; Kirschke et al., 2013) and the recent rebounding of its
637	growth since 2007 (Rigby et al., 2008; Dlugokencky et al., 2009; Nisbet et al., 2014).
638	Given the uncertainty regarding drivers of trends in CH ₄ -concentrationsLTo reduce the
639	quantification uncertainty of CH_4 sources and sinks the research of atmospheric CH_4 , much
640	effort has been made focused on refining using Bayesian inference estimates of CH ₄ sources
641	using one of two types of general approaches for estimating the contribution of individual CH_4
642	sources or sinks to the overall CH4-budget(Bergamaschi et al., 2007, 2009, 2013; Meirink et al.,
643	2008; Cressot et al., 2014; Houweling et al., 2014; Alexe et al., 2015): "bottom-up" and "top-
644	down" methods. In these studies, in-situ and/or satellite observations of CH_4 that are
645	representative of large spatial scales were assimilated into a chemical transport model (CTM) to
646	constrain the initial estimates of CH ₄ sources and sinks that are inventoried we inferred-from
647	field studies, industrial investigations and biogeochemical models (Fung et al., 1991; Zhuang et
648	al., 2004; Walter et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2013; Tan and Zhuang, 2015a and 2015b). Bottom-up
649	estimates are scaled up from small scale studies of emissions factors (e.g., CH4 flux) and activity
650	data (e.g., global area that applies to the particular wetland studied) or from biogeochemical
651	models (e.g. wetlands) with environmental conditions (Fung et al., 1991; Zhuang et al., 2004;
652	Walter et al., 2006; Tan and Zhuang, 2015a and 2015b). In contrast, top-down estimates use in
653	situ and satellite observations of CH_4 that are representative of large spatial scales with a
654	chemical transport model (CTM) to infer strengths of CH4 sources and sinks (e.g., Enting, 2002;
655	Bergamaschi et al., 2009). In Bayesian theory, a top-down estimate can reduce uncertainty in
656	bottom up inventories through the use of model and ambient observations. This method, called
657	Bayesian inference, has been successfully employed in numerous studies for estimating the

658	global CH4 budget at coarse spatial resolutions (over 300 km) (Bergamaschi et al., 2007, 2009,
659	2013; Meirink et al., 2008; Cressot et al., 2014; Houweling et al., 2014; Alexe et al., 2015).
660	Many of these studies have assimilated sS pace-borne observations of atmospheric CH_4
661	concentrations are especially useful in inverse modeling to constrain CH4 emissions because they
662	can_deliver dense and continuous coverage unachievable by surface networks or aircraft
663	campaigns (Bergamaschi et al., 2007). There are two types of nadir satellite CH ₄ retrievals: one
664	from solar backscatter in the shortwave infrared (SWIR) and the other from thermal infrared
665	radiation (TIR). Between them, SWIR retrievals were more widely used in atmospheric inversion
666	of CH ₄ emissions (Bergamaschi et al., 2007, 2009, 2013; Fraser et al., 2013; Cressot et al., 2014;
667	Houweling et al., 2014; Monteil et al., 2014; Wecht et al., 2014; Alexe et al., 2015; Turner et al.,
668	2015) because they can provide column concentrations with near-uniform vertical sensitivity
669	down to the surface. To date, most of the inversions were operated at coarse spatial resolutions
670	over 300 km. However, partly owing to their coarse resolutions, such coarse resolution global
671	inversionsit is impossible for these inversions have not been able to constrain the strength of
672	different CH ₄ sources that are spatially co-located and the locations of CH ₄ -flux hotspots (Fung et
673	al., 1991; Wecht et al., 2014). To address this issue, regional inverse models at fine spatial
674	resolutions were developed (Miller et al., 2013; Wecht et al., 2014; Thompson et al., 2015). For
675	example, Wecht et al. (2014) and Turner et al. (2015) have used the $1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$ horizontal
676	resolution GEOS-Chem adjoint model to constrain CH ₄ emissions over North America.
677	Estimating CH ₄ emissions from the Arctic is important for understanding the global
678	carbon cycle because the fast warming of Arctic permafrost, one of the largest organic carbon
679	reservoirs (Tarnocai et al., 2009), could lead to a rapid rise of CH ₄ emissions (Zhuang et al.,
680	2006; Walter et al., 2007; Koven et al., 2011). Natural sources dominate the Arctic CH ₄

681	inventory (Fisher et al., 2011), e.g. wetlands (McGuire et al., 2012), lakes (Walter et al., 2006;
682	Bastviken et al., 2011), sea shelves (Shakhova et al., 2013) and oceans (Kort et al., 2012). As the
683	factors governing natural CH ₄ production (methanogenesis) and oxidation (methanotrophy) are
684	notoriously heterogeneous, estimates of Arctic CH4 emissions are still poorly constrained, even
685	with decades of site-level and modeling studies (Zhuang et al., 2004; Bastviken et al., 2011;
686	Schuur et al., 2015; Tan and Zhuang, 2015a; Tan and Zhuang, 2015b). Previous And previous
687	CH ₄ inversions over the Arctic only assimilated surface measurements that were too sparse to
688	<u>constrainprovide constraints for</u> fine-scale CH_4 fluxes. <u>Also, possibly important CH_4 sources that</u>
689	were newly identified, e.g. CH ₄ emissions from Arctic lakes (Walter et al., 2006 and 2007;
690	Bastviken et al., 2011; Tan and Zhuang, 2015a) and the East Siberian Shelf (Shakhova et al.,
691	2013; Berchet et al., 2016) have not been included in these studies. Further, an important
692	consideration is specification of realistic prior fluxes, gGiven the ill-posed nature of trace-gas
693	inversions, realistic prior fluxes could be important for successful inverse modeling of CH ₄
694	emissions from the Arctic (Kaminski and Heimann, 2001). While CH4 emissions from lakes
695	could be of comparable magnitude to CH_4 emissions from wetlands in the Arctic (Walter et al.,
696	2006 and 2007; Bastviken et al., 2011; Tan and Zhuang, 2015a), this source has not been
697	included in past global or regional inverse modeling studies.
698	To address these issues, we used this study uses the adjoint of a 3-D CTM chemical
699	transport model at high spatial resolution (less than 60 km) to improve the quantification of pan-
700	Arctic CH_4 emissions in 2005. We explored the feasibility of using satellite CH_4 retrievals
701	overpassing the pan-Arctic to further constrain regional CH_4 emissions. with the integration of
702	both process based wetland and lake biogeochemical models and atmospheric CH_4 mixing
703	fractions to improve the quantification of Arctic CH ₄ emissions for July 2004 June 2005. For the

704	first time, we include CH ₄ emissions from pan-Arctic lakes were included in a high-resolution
705	Bayesian inverse modeling inversion of CH_4 emissions fluxes in the Arctic. As wetland emissions
706	are likely the largest <u>pan-Arctic CH₄ source</u> , we also investigated this study also considers the
707	sensitivity of our <u>estimates</u> inversion to prior wetland fluxes the use of different wetland emission
708	scenarios. Section 2 describes the observation data of atmospheric satellite retrievals and surface
709	CH_4 observations that were are used to infer CH_4 emissions fluxes and evaluate posterior
710	estimates. Section 3 describes the details of details the wetland and lake biogeochemical models
711	that were used in this study for wetland and lake emissions (Section 3.1), the pan-Arctic nested-
712	grid <u>CTM</u> chemical transport model and the prior budgets of other CH ₄ -sources and sinks
713	(Section 3.2), and the adjoint-based inversion method (Section 3.3). Section 4 presents the
714	posterior CH ₄ emissions,-and-their evaluation and further discussion.
715	2. Observations
716	2.1. Satellite Retrievals
717	SWIR CH ₄ retrievals are available from SCanning Imaging Absorption spectroMeter for
718	Atmospheric CHartogrphY (SCAMACHY) for 2003–2012 (Frankenberg et al., 2006, 2008, 2011)
719	and Greenhouse Gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT) for 2009 to present (Parker et al., 2011).

720 SCIAMACHY, aboard the European Space Agency's environmental research satellite ENVISAT

721 retrieves column-averaged CH₄ mixing ratios (XCH₄) from the SWIR nadir spectra (channel 6:

722 1.66–1.67 µm) using the IMAP-DOAS algorithm (Frankenberg et al., 2006, 2008, 2011). The

723 satellite operates in a near polar, sun-synchronous orbit at an altitude of 800 km. At channel 6,

724 the ground pixel size of the retrievals is about 30 km (along-track) \times 60 km (across-track). We

use version 6.0 proxy CH₄ retrievals from Frankenberg et al. (2011) that provide a weighted 725

column average dry-mole fraction of CH₄ with 10-layer averaging kernels and prior CH₄ profiles. The averaging kernels show near-uniform vertical sensitivity in the troposphere and declining sensitivity above the tropopause (Butz et al., 2010). Some auxiliary data, e.g. the air mass factor $A_F (A_F = 1/\cos\theta + 1/\cos\xi)$, where θ is the solar zenith angle and ξ is the viewing angle of the satellite), water column density and dry air column density, are also published with the IMAP-DOAS v6.0 XCH₄ product.

The estimated single-retrieval precision is scene-dependent and averages roughly 1.5% or 25 ppb (Frankenberg et al., 2011). With this order of instrument precision, SCIAMACHY cannot resolve day-to-day variability of emissions but can strongly constrain a multi-year average (Turner et al., 2015). The retrieving algorithm firstly calculates CH_4 total column density Ω_{CH4} (molecules cm⁻²):

737
$$\Omega_{CH_4} = \Omega_A + \mathbf{a}^T \left(\boldsymbol{\omega} - \boldsymbol{\omega}_A \right)$$
 (1)

where ω is the true 10-layer sub-column densities of CH₄ (molecules cm⁻²), ω_A is the 10-layer prior CH₄ sub-column density (molecules cm⁻²), Ω_A is the corresponding a priori CH₄ total column density, and **a** is an averaging kernel vector that defines the sensitivity of the retrieved total column to each sub-column in ω . To account for the impact of aerosol scattering and instrument effects on the observed light path, Frankenberg et al. (2006) used the CO₂ column density Ω_{CO_2} as a proxy to normalize and convert Ω_{CH_4} to a column mixing ratio XCH₄ (ppb):

744
$$\operatorname{XCH}_{4} = \left(\Omega_{\operatorname{CH}_{4}}/\Omega_{\operatorname{CO}_{2}}\right)\operatorname{XCO}_{2}$$
 (2)

where XCO₂ is the column-weighted mixing ratio of CO₂ from NOAA's CarbonTracker CO₂
 measurement and modeling system. CO₂ is used as a proxy because it is retrieved in a spectrally

neighboring fitting window and, relative to CH₄, its mixing ratio is known with much higherprecision.

749	As general retrieval quality deteriorates after November 2005 due to the dysfunction of
750	two important detector pixels (Frankenberg et al., 2011), only observations during the period of
751	January 2003 to October 2005 are used. The quality of SCIAMACHY observations is controlled
752	by a filtering scheme that selects only daytime, over land and with cloud free or partially cloud
753	scenes and good fitting accuracy (http://www.temis.nl/climate/docs/TEMIS_SCIA_CH4_
754	<u>IMAPv60_PSD_v2_6.pdf</u>). Further, a surface elevation filter is applied to filter out observations
755	that are different from the model grids at surface altitude by more than 250 m (Bergamaschi et al.,
756	2009; Alexe et al., 2015). This filtering process ensures that the atmospheric columns seen by
757	SCIAMACHY are well represented by the model columns. To avoid spurious outliers that may
758	have a large impact on the inversion, XCH ₄ retrievals of less than 1500 ppb or larger than 2500
759	ppb are discarded (Alexe et al., 2015). For the pan-Arctic, most of qualified XCH ₄ retrievals
760	were recorded in the summer time when local solar zenith angles are higher, surface reflectance
761	is lower and impact of Arctic vortex is smaller. Fig. $1S1$ shows the SCIAMACHY retrievals (n =
762	$37\frac{743989}{1000}$ of the weighted column-average CH ₄ dry mixing ratio for July 200 <u>5</u> 4–September
763	20054 in the pan-Arctic that have passed all quality control tests.

764 **2.2.** Surface Observations

765 The NOAA/ESRL Carbon Cycle Cooperative Global Air Sampling Network provides

- 766 high-precision weekly flask measurements of surface atmospheric CH₄ dry-air mole fraction
- 767 (Dlugokencky et al., 2014). <u>CH₄ measurements that</u> were calibrated against the WMO X2004
- 768 CH₄ standard scale maintained at NOAA (Dlugokencky et al., 2005). Due to the coarse

769	resolution of the GEOS-Chem model, we include only marine and continental background sites		
770	and exclude sites that are strongly influenced by sub-grid local sources (Alexe et al., 2015), as		
771	listed in Table S1. The flask-air samples in the NOAA/ESRL network that were taken from		
772	regular ship cruises in Pacific Ocean serve to evaluate simulated surface mixing ratios of global		
773	inversions over the remote ocean and downwind the continental sources (Alexe et al., 2015). Fig.		
774	<u>1 shows</u> One_the_Arctic sites that were used for data assimilation and nested-grid inversion		
775	evaluation. (Pallas Sammaltunturi, Finland (PAL)) that was excluded from the assimilation is		
776	used to evaluate the nested grid inversions.		
777	2.3. Aircraft Campaign Observations		
778	To derive the bias of SCIAMACHY CH ₄ retrievals overpassing the pan-Arctic and		
779	evaluate the The modeled CH ₄ vertical profiles in the troposphere, we used CH ₄ measurements		
780	that were collected by three aircraft campaigns: are evaluated by the NOAA/ESRL Carbon		
781	Cycle Cooperative Global Air Sampling Network's aircraft program		
782	(http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/aircraft/data.html; Sweeney et al., 2015), the National		
783	Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES) aircraft program (Machida et al., 2001; Sasakawa et		
784	al., 2013), and the NASA's Arctic Research of the Composition of the Troposphere from		
785	Aircraft and Satellite (ARCTAS) mission. For the NOAA/ESRL aircraft mission observations,		
786	CH ₄ was routinely collected using 0.7 L silicate glass flasks on planned flights with maximum		
787	altitude limits of 300–350 hPa. The sampling vertical resolution is up to 400 m in the boundary		
788	layer and all samples were analyzed by NOAA/ESRL in Boulder, Colorado. For the NIES		
789	aircraft mission, air samples were collected in 550 mL glass flasks over Surgut, West Siberia		
790	(61.5°N, 73.0°E) at altitude ranging from 0.5 to 7 km with 0.5–1.5 km intervals. The precision of		
791	gas chromatograph analysis for CH_4 measurement was estimated to be 1.7 ppb and the NIES-94		

792	scale used in anal	<u>ysis was hi</u>	<u>gher than the NOAA/GMD scale by</u>	<u>y 3.5–4.6 ppb in a range of 1750–</u>

1840 ppb. In ARCTAS, CH₄ was measured over northern Canada by the DACOM tunable diode

794 laser instrument with an estimated accuracy/precision of 1%/0.1%. Central locations of their

- 795 flights in the pan-Arctic are shown in Fig. 1. Table S2 lists the locations and profiles of the
- 796 NOAA/ESRL aircraft mission flights used in evaluation.

797 **3. Modeling**

Here we describe the prior emissions, <u>the forward model</u>, and <u>the inversion method used</u>
to optimize CH₄ emissions in the pan-Arctic on the basis of SCIAMACHY and NOAA/ESRL
observations.

801 3.1. Wetland and Lake CH₄ Emissions

802 CH₄ emissions estimated by the inverse modeling method can be sensitive to the choice 803 of prior wetland CH₄ fluxes (Bergamaschi, 2007). To assess this sensitivity, we used wetland 804 CH₄ emissions simulated by six well-known wetland biogeochemical models (CLM4Me, DLEM, 805 LPJ-Bern, LPJ-WSL, ORCHIDEE and SDGVM) to setup six different inverse modeling 806 experimentsour inverse model. All wetland CH₄ simulations follow the same protocol of 807 WETland and Wetland CH₄ Inter-comparison of Models Project (WETCHIMP) as described in 808 (Melton et al., (2013); and Wania et al., (2013). Melton et al. (2013) demonstrated that the 809 difference of these estimates primarily arises from the model distinction in CH₄ biogeochemistry 810 and wetland hydrology. These models estimated that the annual global CH₄ emissions from wetlands during 2004–2005 were in the range of $121.7-278.1 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$ (Fig. S12 and Table 2) and 811 812 wetland CH₄ emissions are the highest in tropical regions (e.g., Amazon, Southeast Asia and 813 Tropical Africa) where extensive floodplains and warm environment coexist. In the pan-Arctic,

814	the modeled annual wetland CH_4 emissions in 2005 during 2004–2005 were in the range of
815	<u>9.111.4–20.925.6</u> Tg yr ⁻¹ (Fig. 23 and Table 3), and their spatial distribution was mainly
816	controlled by the modeled or mapped wetland coverage (Melton et al., 2013). As shown in Fig.
817	23, because of some consistency in simulating wetland hydrology, nearly all models suggest that
818	there arewere high CH ₄ fluxes in West Siberia Lowlands, Finland and Canadian Shield. As our
819	focus is on 2004–2005, we only use one wetland emission scenario from LPJ-WSL in our
820	inverse model during 1993-2003 to construct initial conditions. As presented in Fig. S2, before
821	optimization, this prior wetland scenario gives the best fit between GEOS-Chem modeled CH_4
822	and GLOBALVIEW-CH4 (GLOBALVIEW-CH4, 2009).
823	Lakes, permanent still-water bodies without direct connection to the sea, are abundant in
824	the pan-Arctic (Lehner and Döll, 2004). Recent studies indicated that pan-Arctic lakes could
825	contribute a significant amount of CH ₄ to the atmosphere (Walter et al., 2006; Tan and Zhuang,
826	2015a) and the emissions could be driven by factors different from wetland emissions, e.g. the
827	supply of labile yedoma permafrost carbon (Walter et al., 2006) and water deep mixing
828	(Schubert et al., 2012). Because the WETCHIMP models cannot account for this source, The
829	biogeochemical models involved in the WETCHIMP project have not included CH4 emissions
830	from lakes. As CH ₄ emissions from pan Arctic lakes could be significant (Walter et al., 2006;
831	Tan and Zhuang, 2015a) and have different drivers relative to wetland emissions, e.g. the supply
832	of labile yedoma permafrost carbon (Walter et al., 2006) and water deep mixing (Schubert et al.,
833	2012), it is necessary to include this source into the Arctic CH ₄ inventory. we instead Priorprior
834	CH4 emissions from pan-Arctic lakes are simulated used with a one-dimension process-based
835	lake biogeochemical model, bLake4Me, to simulate CH4 emissions from pan-Arctic lakes (Tan
836	et al., 2015; Tan and Zhuang, 2015a). The bLake4Me model explicitly parameterizes the control

837	of temperature and carbon substrate availability on methanogenesis, the control of temperature		
838	and oxygen level on methanotrophy and the transport of gaseous CH_4 by diffusion and ebullition.		
839	The model also includes two thermal modules, governing the heat transport and water phase		
840	change in both water and sediments column of lakes. A detailed model description and		
841	evaluation <u>can be found</u> is given in Tan et al. (2015). Model <u>quantification</u> estimates of CH_4		
842	emissions from all lakes north of 60°N wasare described by Tan and Zhuang (2015a and 2015b).		
843	On average, the estimated CH ₄ emissions from pan-Arctic lakes during the studied period are		
844	approximately 11 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , see Fig. 23 .		
845	3.2. GEOS-Chem Model		
846	Atmospheric CH ₄ mole fractions are simulated by GEOS-Chem v9-01-03		
847	(http://acmg.seas.harvard.edu/geos/index.html), a global 3-D CTM model (Bey et al., 2001). For		
848	the period of 2004–2005, GEOS-Chem could be is driven by either GEOS-4 or GEOS-5		
849	meteorological (met) data from NASA's Global Modeling Assimilation Office (GMAO). As		
850	GEOS-5 is available only from December 2003, in this study we use GEOS-4 met data from		
851	1993 to 2005 for inverse simulations when only surface measurements are assimilated and		
852	GEOS 5 met data from 2004 to 2005 for inverse simulations when both satellite retrievals and		
853	surface measurements are assimilated. Both the GEOS-4 and The GEOS-5 met data have		
854	horizontal resolution of $1/2^{\circ}$ latitude $\times 2/3^{\circ}$ longitude, and 6-hour-temporal resolution of 6 hours		
855	and . There are 55 and 72 hybrid sigma-pressure levels extending from Earth's surface to 0.01		
856	hPa for GEOS-4 and GEOS-5 met data respectively . In contrast to the global GEOS-Chem		
857	model, the nested-grid version does not includecontain algorithms for handling advection near		
858	the North and South Poles (Lin and Rood, 1996). To avoid polar grid boxes, we crop the native		
859	$1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$ resolution GEOS-5 met data to a window region (180°W–180°E and 80°N–56°N) for		

860 the pan-Arctic the Arctic nested grid. To make it consistent with the bLake4Me model, only CH₄

861 emissions north of 60°N are would be analyzed. We expect that the avoidance of the North Pole

862 <u>only has a minor impact on our inversions because according to Miyazaki et al. (2008) the</u>

863 Northern Hemisphere (NH) extratropics during summer has slow mean-meridional circulation

864 and inactive wave activity but strong vertical transport. Boundary conditions for nested grid

865 simulations are produced <u>using for the same period with by the same period</u> GEOS-Chem $4^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$

866 resolution global scale forward runs at 3-hour intervals.

867 The GEOS-Chem CH₄ simulation was originally introduced by Wang et al. (2004) and 868 updated by Pickett-Heaps et al. (2011). As described by Wecht et al. (2014), the prior 869 anthropogenic sources, including oil/gas production, coal mining, livestock, waste treatment, rice 870 paddies, biofuel burning and other processes, wereare extracted from Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research v4.2 (EDGAR4.2) with $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$ resolution and no seasonality 871 872 (European Commission, Joint Research Centre/Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency, 873 2009). CH₄ emissions from termites and biomass burning wereare obtained from the study of 874 Fung et al. (1991) and daily Global Fire Emissions Database Version 3 (GFED3) (of van der 875 Werf et al., (2010), respectively. CH₄ emissions from wetlands and lakes are from the model 876 simulations were simulated by biogeochemical models described in Section 3.1. Atmospheric 877 CH₄ is mainly removed by tropospheric oxidation initiated by reaction with tropospheric OH, 878 which was computed using a 3-D OH climatology of monthly average concentrations from a 879 previous simulation of tropospheric chemistry (Park et al., 2004). The global mean pressureweighted tropospheric OH concentration is 10.8×10^5 molecules cm⁻³. For minor sinks, CH₄ 880 881 uptake by upland soils wasis derived from Fung et al. (1991) and CH₄ oxidation in the 882 stratosphere wasis calculated from the archived CH₄ loss frequency described by Murray et al.

883 (2012). The resulting atmospheric lifetime of CH₄ is about 8.9 years, consistent with the 884 observational constraint of 9.1 ± 0.9 years (Prather et al., 2012). We regrid<u>ded</u> and crop<u>ped</u> the 885 anthropogenic and natural CH₄ emissions in EDGAR4.2, GFED3 and Fung et al. (1991) for 886 <u>ourthe</u> nested <u>pan-Arctic</u> domain using the Harvard-NASA Emissions Component (HEMCO) 887 software (Keller et al., 2014), marked as "other" in Fig. <u>23</u>. Compared to CH₄ emissions from 888 <u>natural sourcesArctic wetlands and lakes</u>, these <u>emissions</u> are relatively small <u>in 2005</u> 889 (~<u>2.13.2</u> Tg yr⁻¹).

890 **3.3.** Inversion Method

Atmospheric inversion is a procedure for using observations of atmospheric gases as
 constraints to estimate surface gas fluxes. The inverse problem can be characterized by solution
 of

894
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon$$
 (3)

By applying Bayesian theorem and assuming Gaussian errors, the inverse problem can be solved by minimizing the cost function, $J(\mathbf{x})$, that measures the model deviations from both prior assumptions and observations (Enting et al., 2002; Kopacz et al., 2009):

898
$$J(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y})^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{C}_{\mathrm{d}}^{-1} (\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}) + \gamma (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{0})^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}_{0}}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{0})$$
(4)

where **y** is a vector of observations from SCIAMACHY and NOAA/ESRL, **F** is a model operator that maps emissions to observations, **x** represents CH_4 emissions to be constrained, **x**₀ is the a priori estimate of **x**, **C**_d is the observational error covariance matrix that includes contributions from model error, representation error (sampling mismatch between observations and the model) and measurement error, and **C**_{**x**₀} is the parameter error covariance matrix (containing the uncertainties of the parameters and their correlations). The regularization parameter γ controls 905 the relative constraints applied by the observational and a priori parts of $J(\mathbf{x})$ (Kopacz et al.,

906 2009). In the adjoint method, γ is not fixed at unity but determined by analyzing its influence on

907 the minimum of $J(\mathbf{x})$ (Henze et al., 2007; Kopacz et al., 2009).

908 Minimization of $J(\mathbf{x})$ yields the following expression for the maximum a posteriori 909 solution for the state vector $(\hat{\mathbf{x}})$ and its associated error covariance $(\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{\mathbf{x}})$ (Rodgers, 2000):

910
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \left(\left(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F} \right)^T \mathbf{C}_d^{-1} \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F} + \gamma \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}_0}^{-1} \right)^{-1} \left(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F} \right)^T \mathbf{C}_d^{-1} \left(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F} \left(\mathbf{x}_0 \right) \right)$$
(5)

911
$$\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{\mathbf{x}}^{-1} = \left(\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{F}\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{C}_{\mathrm{d}}^{-1} \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{F} + \gamma \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{x}_{0}}^{-1}$$
(6)

912 where $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{F}$ is the Jacobian matrix of the forward model. $J(\mathbf{x})$ is minimized iteratively through 913 successive forward and backward simulations with the GEOS-Chem model and its adjoint, developed by Henze et al. (2007) and previously applied to CO, CO₂ and CH₄ source inversions 914 915 (Jiang et al., 2011; Deng et al., 2014; Wecht et al., 2014). The GEOS-Chem adjoint model is a 916 4DVAR inverse modeling system that allows optimization of a very large number of parameters 917 using at the same time very large sets of observational data, such as satellite data. Rather than optimizing CH₄ emissions <u>directly</u>, it optimizes an exponential scale factor $e_x (e_x = ln(x/x_0))$ at 918 each grid cell to avoid negative emissions. The posterior error covariance \hat{C}_x could be 919 920 approximated by the Davidon-Fletcher-Powell (DFP) or the Limited-memory Broyden-Fletcher-921 Goldfarb–Shanno (L-BFGS) optimization algorithm (Singh et al., 2011; Deng et al., 2014). But 922 the performances of these deterministic methods are usually not promising, subjecting to the 923 choice of initial Hessian, so-called preconditioning (Bousserez et al., 2015). In contrast, approximating $\hat{\mathbf{C}}_{\mathbf{x}}$ by stochastic methods, i.e. Monte-Carlo sampling and Gradient-based 924 925 randomization, could help avoid the impact of setting initial Hessian (Bousserez et al., 2015). For 926 example, Bousserez et al. (2015) demonstrated that for high-dimensional inverse problems using

927	a Monte Carlo stochastic approach that samples ensemble members by perturbing x_0 and y in
928	line with C_{x_0} and C_{d} respectively, could guarantee a low relative error (10%) in the variance with
929	as few as 50 members. In this study, the posterior uncertainty of nested-grid inversions was
930	estimated using this method.
931	For prior emissions, the <u>ir</u> uncertainties <u>wereare</u> set as 100% in each grid box and the
932	spatial correlation wasis set as an e-folding function with spatial correlation lengths of 500 km at
933	the global coarse $4^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ resolution $(4^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ})$ and of 300 km at the nested grid $1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$
934	resolution $(1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ})$ (Bergamaschi et al., 2009). Six global coarse-resolution inversions using
935	different wetland emission scenarios and assimilating both surface CH ₄ measurements and
936	satellite CH_4 retrievals were performed during the period of 2005/01–2005/12. These inversions
937	provided boundary conditions for the following nested-grid inversions. For $1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$ nested-
938	grid inversions, we ran the adjoint model for 50 times over the period of 2005/07-2005/09 for
939	each of twelve scenarios: six wetland scenarios by two data assimilation scenarios. The two data
940	assimilation scenarios include one scenario assimilating only NOAA/ESRL measurements and
941	another scenario assimilating both NOAA/ESRL measurements and SCIAMACHY retrievals.
942	As described above, the 50-member ensemble run is for the calculation of posterior estimate
943	uncertainty. The steps to construct optimal initial conditions for global and nested inversions are
944	described in the supplementary materials. Optimization is performed in three steps. First, a
945	global coarse resolution inversion using the LPJ-WSL wetland scenario is run from 1993 to 2005
946	using surface measurements only. This inversion provides the optimized CH ₄ -fields for the
947	calculation of bias correction functions and initial conditions for the next set of inversions. Next,
948	we run six global coarse-resolution inversions using the wetland CH ₄ scenarios described in
949	Section 3.1 at two time windows: 2004/01 2004/12 and 2004/07 2005/06. In these global

950	inversions, both surface measurements and satellite retrievals are assimilated. The inverse
951	modeling at the 1 st time block servers as a spin-up period and the analysis time period is from
952	July 2004 to June 2005 (Deng et al., 2014; Alexe et al., 2015). Besides optimizing global CH_4
953	fluxes, the global inversions also provide boundary conditions for our nested grid inversions.
954	Following Turner et al. (2015), we construct time dependent boundary conditions for the nested
955	simulations of the adjoint model from the forward model at $4^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ horizontal resolution using
956	the posterior emissions from a global inversion performed first. This is different from the method
957	of Wecht et al. (2014) where both emissions and boundary conditions were optimized by
958	minimizing two separate cost functions iteratively. The last step is thus to run nested grid
959	inversions in the Arctic at $1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$ resolution to optimize Arctic CH ₄ emissions. The
960	modeling period is from June 24, 2004 to Oct 1, 2004 and the real analysis time is from July 1,
961	2004 to Oct 1, 2004. As in Wecht et al. (2014), observations in the first week were notare not
962	assimilated and each optimization was run iteratively at least 40 times until the reduction of its
963	cost function became less than 0.5% with each successive iteration. This time period is selected
964	based on two factors. First, due to snow cover and large solar zenith angle, the quality of
965	SCIAMACHY retrievals in winter is usually low. Second, CH4 fluxes from pan-Arctic wetlands
966	and lakes are the most pronounced in summer. In the GEOS-Chem adjoint modelall steps,
967	optimization changes its course automatically if local minimum reachesis run iteratively at least
968	40 times until the reduction of the cost function becomes less than 0.5% with each successive
969	iteration (Wecht et al., 2014).

3.4. Satellite Retrieval Bias Correction

971 The importance of bias correction <u>for to the assimilation of satellite retrievals in inversion</u>
 972 of CH₄ fluxes has been <u>discussed emphasized</u> in <u>many</u> earlier studies (Bergamaschi et al., 2007,

973 2009, 2013; Fraser et al., 2013; Cressot et al., 2014; Houweling et al., 2014; Wecht et al., 2014; 974 Alexe et al., 2015; Turner et al., 2015). Usually, these studies represented satellite retrieval bias 975 as a regression function of one proxy parameter, These methods relied on regression between a 976 proxy parameter (i.e., latitude, air mass factor or specific humidity) and retrieval bias. Air mass 977 factor was used as a proxy parameter by some studies due to its correlation to spectroscopic 978 errors and residual aerosol errors Air mass factor was chosen because of the co-variation of 979 spectroscopic errors with the sampled air mass and residual aerosol errors (Cressot et al., 2014; 980 Houweling et al., 2014) and specific humidity was used chosen because water vapor is the main 981 cause of SCIAMACHY seasonal bias that lags the variations of solar zenith angle (Houweling et 982 al., 2014). Relative to air mass factor and humidity, Many studies used seasonal and latitudinally 983 varying functions for bias correction because latitudethey can represent the changes in both solar 984 zenith angle and climate variables (Bergamaschi et al., 2007, 2009, 2013), it was used by more 985 studies. Considering that different proxies can account for different errors, the system bias of 986 satellites may be better represented by multiple proxy parameters It is likely that retrieval bias can 987 be better represented if the effects of air mass change and climate system change can be 988 accounted for together. 989 To test this hypothesis, we compared the performances of three traditional one-proxy 990 methods (latitude φ , air mass factor A_F , specific humidity H_S) and two new two-proxy methods 991 (latitude + humidity, air mass factor + humidity), listed in Table 1. These methods were 992 evaluated using two reference values: the difference between the satellite-retrieved and the 993 GEOS-Chem modeled CH₄ column mixing ratios and the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) 994 score. The BIC criterion is widely used for regression model selection and aims to award a 995 model that fit measurements with the least model parameters. After constraining the GEOS-
996	Chem model with surface measurements, tIn the study, we would select the bias correction
997	method that gives the smallest difference between the measured and modeled CH_4 -column
998	mixing ratios-and the lowest Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) BIC score will be used.
999	Specific humidity is taken from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
1000	(ECMWF)'s ERA-20C reanalysis product (<u>http://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/data/era20c-daily</u>),
1001	averaged by the column between the surface and 3 km altitude (Houweling et al., 2014). The air
1002	mass factor and central latitude of CH4-retrievals are directly available in the SCIAMACHY
1003	IMAP v6.0. For bias correction, we first optimize the GEOS Chem 4-D CH ₄ -mixing ratios by an
1004	inversion using surface measurements and then sample the modeled XCH4-at the coordinates and
1005	time of SCIAMACHY retrievals and with local averaging kernels applied. The difference
1006	between SIAMACHY and GEOS-Chem values (Fig. 1a) is regressed with proxy factors to obtain
1007	the optimal bias correction. As suggested by Turner et al. (2015), it is more likely that grid
1008	squares between 50°S and 50°N with residual standard deviation (RSD) in excess of 20 ppb are
1009	dominated by model bias in prior emissions. Thus, we exclude such grid squares in regressions.
1010	Further, satellite retrievals with low precisions (the ratio of retrieval precision error to retrieval is
1011	larger than 3%) are removed from analysis. In our experiments, all bias correction functions
1012	wereare updated monthly. Unlike Bergamaschi et al. (2009), we do not further optimize bias
1013	correction functions in the inversion cycle because such an optimization could make bias
1014	correction account for the uncertainties that should not be dealt with by correction, e.g.
1015	unaccounted model errors or even the sources and sinks (Houweling et al., 2014). As listed in
1016	Table 1, the "latitude only" correction performs the best <u>amongwithin the three singleproxy</u>
1017	correction methods and <u>is_only</u> slightly worse than the best correction method "latitude +
1018	humidity" correction methodin our test. The "air mass factor only" method does not work as well

1019	in our experiment. Turner et al. (2015) suggested that it could be attributed to a potential bias in
1020	the GEOS-Chem simulation of CH_4 in the polar stratosphere. This implies that the latitude
1021	polynomial correction used in most previous CH4 inversions is appropriate. As the "latitude +
1022	humidity" method-has the smallest model-data differencet and the lowest BIC scoreperforms the
1023	best, we applied it is applied for satellite bias correction in all global inversionsthis study.
1024	For SCIAMACHY retrievals overpassing the pan-Arctic, because the modeled
1025	atmospheric CH ₄ could be less reliable, we used another bias correction method. According to a
1026	comparison between SCIAMACHY and the high-precision Total Carbon Column Observing
1027	Network (TCCON) measurements, the system bias of SCIAMACHY retrievals could be closely
1028	correlated with specific humidity averaged over the lowest 3 km of the atmosphere (Houweling
1029	et al., 2014). And Wecht et al. (2014) has demonstrated that this humidity-proxy method shows
1030	promising performance in debiasing SCIAMACHY retrievals overpassing North America. In
1031	this study, we sought a similar linear regression relationship between SCIAMACHY bias and
1032	specific humidity. First, we detected the SCIAMACHY bias by comparing SCIAMACHY
1033	retrievals with CH ₄ vertical profiles measured by the NOAA/ESRL aircraft mission over Alaska,
1034	USA, the NIES aircraft mission over Siberia, Russia and the NASA/ARCTAS aircraft mission
1035	over Alberta, Canada. Before comparison, these CH ₄ vertical profiles had been mapped to the
1036	SCIAMACHY retrieval pressure grid using Eq. (1) and (2). Fig. 3 (left) shows that the retrieved
1037	system bias (ΔXCH_4) has a negative relationship with air humidity. Because the pan-Arctic is
1038	normally dry, SCIAMACHY retrievals could be lower than atmospheric CH ₄ column average
1039	mixing ratios in most of days.
1040	

1040After bias correction, we estimated the error variances of SCIAMACHY observations1041retrievals were estimated (Fig. 1b) using thea relative residual error (RRE) method described by

1042	Heald et al.	(2004).	Fig.	S2 shows	the error	variances	of SCIA	MACHY	retrievals	in the	global
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- 1043 scale and Fig. 3 (right) shows the error variances in the nested grid. In both global and nested
- 1044 grid inversions, the total error of individual SCIAMACHY retrievals is assumed to be at least 1.5%
- 1045 (Bergamaschi et al., 2007; Frankenberg et al., 2011). Fig. 1d indicates that the correction greatly
- 1046 reduces model-satellite differences in tropical areas of America, Africa and South Asia and also
- 1047 reduces the difference in Australia and some areas of the United States. As shown in Fig. 1c, the
- 1048 agreement between GEOS Chem and SCIAMACHY XCH₄ is also improved at the global scale.
- 1049 However, because the model data difference in East Asia has an opposite latitude dependence to
- 1050 that in other areas of the same latitudes (Fig. 1a), the correction deteriorates the model-satellite
- 1051 agreement there (Fig. 1d). The observational error of the NOAA/ESRL CH₄ mixing ratios is
- 1052 estimated as the sum of measurement error (~0.2%) and representation error. Similar to satellite
- 1053 retrievals, the representation error of surface measurements is defined as the standard deviation
- 1054 of the difference of surface CH₄ concentration residuals differences between NOAA/ESRL
- 1055 measurements and GEOS-Chem. And the CH₄ residuals are calculated by subtracting the
- 1056 simulated or observed CH₄ mixing ratios by a fitted polynomial trend (Masarie and Tans, 1995).
- 1057 **4. Results and Discussion**
- 1058 4.1. Optimized Global CH₄ Emissions
- 1059 As shown in Fig. 4, the posterior global and regional CH₄ emissions exhibit a strong
- 1060 seasonal variability during 1993–2005, which is mainly driven by the sensitivity of
- 1061 methanogenesis in natural sources to temperature (e.g., wetlands). During this period, there are
- 1062 prominently positive CH₄ emission anomalies in 1994 (+27.4 Tg CH₄) and 1998 (+34.6 Tg CH₄),
- 1063 and prominently negative anomalies in 1997 (-18.4 Tg CH₄), 2001 (-20.5 Tg CH₄) and 2005 (-

1064	22.3 Tg CH ₄). The 1998 CH ₄ emission peak has been documented in many studies (e.g.,
1065	Dlugokencky et al., 2001; Rigby et al., 2008). Dlugokencky et al. (2001) attributed this anomaly
1066	to an increase in the imbalance between CH_4 sources and sinks equal to ~24 Tg CH_4 , suggested
1067	to be caused by an increase of wetland emissions in both tropical regions (13 Tg CH_4) and the
1068	Northern Hemisphere (11.6 Tg CH_4) and a severe fire year in boreal regions (5.7 Tg CH_4).
1069	However, according to Fig. 4, wetlands only contributed a small amount of emission increase
1070	during 1998 (9.1 Tg CH ₄) and most of the increase was from other sources (e.g., biomass
1071	burning) in both tropical and high latitude regions. Our findings are consistent with the claim of
1072	Langenfelds et al. (2002) that two CH_4 emission pulses in 1994 and 1998 could be linked with
1073	large biomass burning events in tropical and boreal regions. During 1993-1996, the annual mean
1074	of global CH ₄ emissions was 534 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , slightly lower than the estimate (549 \pm 7 Tg CH ₄
1075	yr ⁻¹) of Dlugokencky et al. (1998). During 1993–2005, there are no visible trends for wetland
1076	emissions in tropical, northern mid-latitude and northern high-latitude regions. Also, the annual
1077	mean of global CH ₄ emissions did not change between 1993 and 2004, coinciding with the
1078	leveling off of CH ₄ growth rate since the 1990s (Dlugokencky et al., 1998 & 2003). Kai et al.
1079	(2011) claimed that the evolution of CH4-mixing ratios in the recent decades was a result of long-
1080	term reduction in agricultural emissions (i.e. rice paddies) or landfills emissions within the
1081	Northern Hemisphere. In Fig. 4b, the long term decline of CH4 emissions from tropical non-
1082	wetland sources seems to provide some support to this argument. But as the finding of inter-
1083	hemispheric δ^{13} CH ₄ is questionable (Levin et al., 2012), it is uncertain whether this declined
1084	tropical source is in the Northern Hemisphere.
1085	As listed in Table 2, when both NOAA/ESRL measurements and SCIAMACHY

1086 retrievals were assimilated, the posterior estimates of total emissions in 2005 show good

1087	convergence at a narrow range of 496.4–511.5 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹ , albeit our six prior scenarios span in
1088	a wide range (471.5–627.8 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹). The posterior global CH ₄ -emissions using both
1089	NOAA/ESRL and SCIAMACHY observations and different prior wetland scenarios are shown
1090	in Fig. 5 and also listed in Table 2. Since total emissions are constrained by the atmospheric
1091	burden of CH_4 and the CH_4 lifetime, while the prior CH_4 fluxes in six scenarios are different in a
1092	wide range of estimates (471.5–627.8 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹), the posterior global CH_4 emissions converge
1093	into a very narrow zone (496.4–511.5 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹). Because the total of global emissions is
1094	constrained by the atmospheric CH ₄ burden and lifetime, this This convergence probably suggests
1095	that the surface measurements from the NOAA/ESRL networkobservations are of sufficient
1096	density and accuracy to represent the global CH_4 burden constrain the global emissions if
1097	<u>assuming the CH₄ lifetime is being correct</u> . However, In contrast, the posterior CH ₄ emissions
1098	differ largely between different wetland emission scenarios in the TransCom3 land regions. For
1099	example, in the DLEM inversion, the estimated CH ₄ emissions from the Eurasian temperate
1100	region are as large as 146.1 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹ . But in the CLM inversion, the total of these emissions is
1101	only 84.9 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ . Also, for CH ₄ emissions from the South American tropical region, the
1102	estimate is 31.4 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ in the DLEM inversion but nearly two times larger (62.3 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹
1103	¹) in the SDGVM inversion. There are several possible explanations for the large differences
1104	between the scenarios: high-precision surface measurements could be not of sufficient density in
1105	regional scales, satellite retrievals could be not of sufficient accuracy, and the GEOS-Chem
1106	model and its priors could be not of high temporal and spatial resolutions to resolve satellite
1107	retrievals.there are still not enough high-precision measurements at regional scales, resulting in
1108	large differences between the posterior emissions in the TransCom3 land regions (Table 2). A

1109 detailed comparison between our estimates and previous inversion studies at the global scale is
1110 presented in the supplementary materials.

1111	There have been many studies that assimilated surface and/or satellite observations into a
1112	CTM inverse model to constrain global CH4 fluxes, see Kirschke et al. (2013) for review. For
1113	instance, using the same observations suite, Bergamaschi et al. (2009) estimated that in 2004,
1114	CH ₄ emissions in global, tropical (30° S - 30° N), northern extratropical (30° N - 90° N) and southern
1115	extratropical (90°S-30°S) zonal areas were 506.7 Tg CH ₄ -yr ⁴ , 323.5 Tg CH ₄ -yr ⁴ , 172.8 Tg CH ₄
1116	yr ⁻¹ and 10.4 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , respectively. These large-scale estimates are consistent with our
1117	calculations: 284.5 319.6 Tg CH ₄ -yr ⁻¹ (tropical), 165.3 206.6 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ (northern extratropical)
1118	and 10.0-13.9 Tg CH ₄ -yr ⁻¹ -(southern extratropical). This agreement reflects that GEOS-Chem
1119	adjoint and TM5-4DVAR are consistent in the atmospheric transport, chemistry and inverse
1120	modeling methods. In contrast to Bergamaschi et al. (2009), our inversions tend to allocate more
1121	emissions to extratropical regions. As a result, the tropical total (SATr + NAF + SAF + TrA) of
1122	the six inversions is in the range of 114.1–169.7 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹ , which is much lower than their
1123	estimate of 203.2 Tg CH_4 yr ⁴ . The most likely reason for this discrepancy from Bergamaschi et
1124	al. (2009) is that we use a much larger correction to the SCIAMACHY data in tropical regions.
1125	The posterior CH4 emissions from wetlands in our four scenarios (Bern, CLM4Me, SDGVM and
1126	WSL) are close to the estimate (~161 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹) of Bloom et al. (2010) for 2003–2007 based
1127	on CH4 and gravity spaceborne data to constrain large scale methanogenesis. Our estimates are
1128	also close to the inferred CH ₄ emissions (175 \pm 33 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹) from natural wetlands by
1129	Kirschke et al. (2013). By using artificial neural networks, Zhu et al. (2013) estimated that from
1130	1990 to 2009, annual wetland CH ₄ emissions from northern high latitudes (>45°N) are in the

1131 range of 44.0 53.7 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, agreeing with the estimates of the Bern, CLM4Me and SDGVM
1132 scenarios.

1133	The renewed growth of atmospheric CH ₄ -since 2007 has been observed by several studies
1134	(Rigby et al., 2008; Dlugokencky et al., 2009; Nisbet et al., 2014). According to Nisbet et al.
1135	(2014), the global growth rate was about 6 ppb yr ⁻¹ from 2007 to 2012. Assuming 1 ppb
1136	equivalent to 2.75 Tg CH_4 in the entire atmosphere (Khalil et al., 2007) and the lifetime of
1137	atmospheric CH ₄ -constant, the estimated global CH ₄ -emissions during 2010–2011 should be at
1138	most 49.5 Tg larger than the estimated during 2004–2005. The higher CH ₄ emissions after 2007
1139	were also demonstrated by other top-down studies: 539 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹ during 2009–2011 (Turner et
1140	al., 2015) and 538±15 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ during August 2009 July 2010 (Cressot et al., 2014). When
1141	comparing the estimate of Alexe et al. (2015) for 2010 2011 with our estimates (Table 2), the
1142	difference is in the range of 29–44.1 Tg CH ₄ (Table 2), consistent with these independent studies.
1143	Our estimates also agree well with the inference of Houweling et al. (2014) that global CH ₄
1144	emissions in 2004 were close to 500 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ and the emissions rose by 27–35 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹
1145	after July 2006. In contrast, the ensemble Kalman filter assessment in Fraser et al. (2013)
1146	involving GOSAT observations and GEOS-Chem is 510.6 \pm 18.4 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ for the period June
1147	2009 December 2010 (Table 2). If we assume GEOS Chem simulated correct CH ₄ -sink, Theyit
1148	means Fraser et al. (2013) may probably underestimated the emissions during this period because
1149	the calculated increase from 2004 to 2009 is too low (~10 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹).
1150	As shown in Fig. 5a, the highest CH4 fluxes are located in the Amazon, China, Southeast
1151	Asia, North America and Europe where extensive wetlands or large population exist. Our
1152	inversions indicate that the Eurasian temperate regions, including China, North America and
1153	Europe, emitted much more CH_4 than other regions (Table 2), showing the dominance of

1154 anthropogenic sources in the global CH₄ inventory. As presented in Fig. 5c, our inverse model

1155 reduces the CH₄ emissions from China, the Amazon basin and Eurasian boreal region (scale

1156 factor < 1) but enhances the emissions in Europe and Southeast Asia (scale factor > 1) relative to

1157 the prior. This adjustment could be primarily driven by the constraints of the surface

1158 measurements and satellite retrievals and secondarily by the satellite bias correction.

1159 4.2. Optimized pan-Arctic CH₄ Emissions

When using both surface measurements and satellite retrievals, our estimated CH₄ 1160 emissions over the pan-Arctic are in the range of 11.9-28.5 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹. The simulation is the 1161 largest in the ORCHIDEE scenario and the smallest in the SDGVM scenario: 24.9±3.6 Tg CH₄ 1162 yr⁻¹ and 16.1±4.2 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, respectively. Regionally, posterior CH₄ emissions from Alaska, 1163 northern Canada, northern Europe and Siberia are 0.3-3.4 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, 1.3-7.9 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, 0.8-1164 8.1 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ and 4.4–14.9 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, respectively. Same as the global inversions, the 1165 1166 difference of the nested-grid inversions between different scenarios is much larger than the total uncertainty of priors and observations of each scenario: 16.6 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ vs. 5.5 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹. In 1167 these regions, CH₄ emissions from Siberia are more uncertain (Fig. 5), a possible indication of 1168 1169 the lack of high-quality measurements in Siberia for assimilation. Our results also indicate that the assimilation of SCIAMACHY retrievals overpassing the pan-Arctic can reduce the estimate 1170 1171 uncertainty. For example, for the BERN scenario, the posterior uncertainty is about 18%, much 1172 smaller than the inversion that only assimilates NOAA/ESRL measurements (27%). And for the 1173 CLM scenario, the posterior uncertainty increases from 16% to 23% when only surface 1174 measurements were assimilated. n contrast to the global CH4 inversions, total posterior CH4 emissions from the Arctic nested-grid inversions span a wide range: 14.6-30.4 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ 1175 1176 (Table 3). It reflects a strong influence from both the priors (Fig. 3) and the nested-grid

1177	boundaries (Berchet et al., 2015) on the posteriors (Fig. 6). Across six Arctic inversions, the
1178	range of the posterior is not smaller than the range of the prior (25.7–39.9 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹) and the
1179	mean departure of the posterior from the prior is 10.1 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ . This divergence implies that
1180	due to uncertain boundary conditions (Berchet et al., 2015), the surface and satellite observations
1181	in the Arctic cannot provide sufficient constrains to reduce the estimate uncertainty. Further, as
1182	presented in Table 3 and Fig. 6, this lack of constraint from the observations mainly occurs in
1183	Siberia and causes large uncertainties in the estimates of Siberian wetland CH4 emissions (2.0
1184	12.7 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹). Our estimates are consistent with other inverse modeling estimates. For
1185	example, Kirschke et al. (2013) reviewed a series of top-down estimation of CH ₄ emissions and
1186	suggested that CH ₄ emissions north of 60°N could be in the range of 12–28 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , very
1187	close to our estimate. This consistency could reflect the robustness of our nested-grid GEOS-
1188	Chem adjoint model and the good constraint of the NOAA/ESRL sites over the pan-Arctic on the
1189	atmospheric CH_4 field. Our estimates also imply that CH_4 emission from the pan-Arctic could
1190	constitute a large fraction of CH_4 emissions in the northern high latitudes (> 50°N). In
1191	comparison with the inverse modeling of Based on the estimate (50 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹) of Monteil et al.
1192	(2013), we calculated that we estimate that the annual total CH ₄ emission from the pan-Arctic (>
1193	60° N) is 29.2-60.8% of their estimate (50 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹) for CH ₄ emissions in the northern high
1194	latitudes could be emitted from the pan-Arctic (> 60°N). For all scenarios, the inverse modeling
1195	adjusts total CH_4 emissions downward compared to prior emissions. It is possible that CH_4
1196	emissions are overestimated by the biogeochemical models or double counted between the
1197	wetland and lake models or both. This adjustment could also be explained by the underestimate
1198	of CH ₄ absorption by soils in biogeochemical models due to the missing of high-affinity
1199	methanotrophy (Oh et al., 2016). Because all inversions estimate lower CH4 emissions than the

1200	priors, it is possible that CH4 emissions from Arctic wetlands, lakes and other sources are
1201	overestimated by the biogeochemistry models and EDGAR dataset. In contrast to other sources,
1202	the estimated CH ₄ emissions from Arctic lakes are less divergent in the nested grid inversions
1203	except for the ORCHIDEE scenario, as presented in Fig. 7 and Table 3. There are two reasons
1204	for this convergence: 1) CH ₄ fluxes from lakes are low in those poorly constrained regions, e.g.
1205	Northeastern Europe and Central Siberia, and 2) we only use one lake prior scenario in the
1206	inversions. The exception of the ORCHIDEE inversion could be explained by that the
1207	ORCHIDEE model simulates very high wetland CH4 fluxes in Canadian Shield, West Siberia
1208	Lowlands and East Siberia Coastal Lowlands where high CH4 fluxes from lakes are also possible
1209	(Fig. 3). For CH ₄ emissions from Arctic lakes, our estimates, 5.4–7.9 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , are close to
1210	the lower bound of the estimate (7.1–17.3 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹) in Bastviken et al. (2011) with upscaling
1211	site-level observations. Even if the lake source is reduced, on average, by 40% by the inversions,
1212	the remaining amounts are still much higher than the previous estimate of ~ 4 Tg CH ₄ -yr ⁻¹ in Gao
1213	et al. (2013). This emphasizes the importance of including pan-Arctic lakes in the carbon cycle.
1214	When the ORCHIDEE scenario is excluded, annual CH4 emissions from lakes in Alaska,
1215	northern Canada, northern Europe and northern Siberia are, on average, 1.0 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , 3.1 Tg
1216	CH ₄ -yr ⁻¹ , 0.6 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ and 2.8 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , respectively. These estimates correspond to 1.2
1217	$Tg CH_4 yr^4$, 5.0 $Tg CH_4 yr^4$, 0.6 $Tg CH_4 yr^4$ and 5.0 $Tg CH_4 yr^4$ in Tan and Zhuang (2015a)
1218	without optimization. The posterior CH4 emissions from lakes in northern Canada are closer to
1219	the estimate of 2.6±0.4 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ in Tan and Zhuang (2015b) because thermokarst lakes in
1220	northern Canada can be better identified by a high-resolution landscape evolution model in Tan
1221	and Zhuang (2015b) than by coarse-resolution geographic datasets in Tan and Zhuang (2015a).
1222	The posterior lake emissions from northern Siberia are much smaller than the modeled (Tan and

1223	Zhuang, 2015a; Tan and Zhuang, 2015b). There are two possible reasons for the larger estimates
1224	of the lake model: 1) the model overestimates thermokarst active zone of yedoma lakes; and 2)
1225	four high-flux yedoma lakes that are used for calibration are not good representative of all
1226	yedoma lakes. For European lakes, Saarnio et al. (2009) estimated that they are a CH_4 source of
1227	1.48 Tg CH ₄ -yr ⁻¹ . This means that CH ₄ emissions from lakes in northern Europe (>60°N) could
1228	constitute 40% of CH4 emissions from all European lakes. By upscaling site observations to
1229	northern Canada, Laurion et al. (2010) found that annual diffusive CH4 emission from Canadian
1230	thaw ponds was 1.0 Tg CH ₄ . Since ebullition could be much stronger than diffusion in
1231	transporting CH ₄ (Bastviken et al., 2011), our estimate of 3.1 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁴ from Canadian lakes
1232	should not be considered a large overestimate, as indicated in Tan and Zhuang (2015b).
1233	In contrast to <u>CH₄ emissions from pan-Arctic wetlands</u> , <u>CH₄ emissions from pan-Arctic</u>
1234	lakes at large spatial scales are still largely unknown. Consensus has not been reached yet on
1235	how to apply the knowledge learnt from individual lakes to the pan-Arctic scale, because even
1236	lakes in a small area could have much different transport pathways (ebullition vs. diffusion),
1237	morphology (deep vs. shallow and large vs. small), eutrophication (eutrophic vs. oligotrophic)
1238	and carbon source (thermokarst vs. non-thermokarst and yedoma vs. non-yedoma). scientists
1239	have not reached a consensus on the importance of Arctic lakes to the global CH4 cycle because
1240	only a limited number of Arctic lakes have been observed and their characteristics (e.g.,
1241	morphology, eutrophication and carbon input) are more heterogeneous. Because wetlands and
1242	lakes, both inundation landscapes, are usually neighbored, it is difficult to use inverse modeling
1243	at coarse spatial scales to detect strong CH_4 emissions that are emitted solely by lakes. To test
1244	whether high-resolution inversions can better represent CH_4 emissions from lakes, we conducted
1245	a comparison test ("DLEM only") over the East Siberia Coastal Lowlands (Fig. 1) using the

1246	DLEM model and excluding CH ₄ emissions from lakes. We chose the East Siberia Lowlands to
1247	test our hypothesis as lakes there occupy 56% of the water-inundated landscapes, i.e. lakes,
1248	wetlands and rivers (Lehner and Döll, 2004) and a large fraction of lakes in the region are high-
1249	flux yedoma lakes (Walter et al., 2006). We chose the DLEM model considering that the
1250	simulated wetland CH ₄ emissions in this model are weak for the East Siberia Lowlands. This
1251	design is also aimed to alleviate the impact of one major shortcoming: because there are not
1252	sufficient high-quality observations, In this study, as the constraints of observations are limited,
1253	we-only optimized total CH4 emission in each grid cell separately for wetlands and lakes and fix
1254	the weight of each source during our inversions. Since wetlands and lakes are usually spatially
1255	neighbored, this operation could attribute and in this manner -a fraction of lake emissions could
1256	<u>be attributed</u> incorrectly to wetlands or vice versa. To verify the possibility of large CH_4
1257	emissions from pan-Arctic lakes, we conducted a nested-grid inversion in the Arctic based on the
1258	DLEM scenario that did not include CH4 emissions from lakes as a comparison. The DLEM
1259	scenario was chosen because as presented in Fig. 3 its simulated wetland emissions are less
1260	spatially overlapped with the simulated lake emissions. The inversion of the "DLEM only"
1261	scenario is shown in Fig. S5. In comparison to Fig. 4c, CH ₄ emissions from the East Siberia
1262	Coastal Lowlands are low in Fig. S5. A further comparison of model-satellite agreement between
1263	the DLEM scenario and this no-lake scenario reveals that the agreement improves impressively
1264	when lake emissions are considered (see Fig. 6). It implies that CH ₄ emissions from regional
1265	lakes could be significant. As illustrated above, however, the spatial neighborhood of wetlands
1266	and lakes makes it difficult to conduct operate similar experiments in other areas. Thus we are
1267	cautious to claim that CH ₄ emissions from lakes are ubiquitously strong across the pan-Arctic.
1268	Rather, since we used six wetland models that can simulate very different wetland emission

1269	distributions ati n-spatial and temporal scales, our estimates of 2.4–14.2 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ for lake
1270	emissions could be more useful in explaining the range of this source. This no lake inversion
1271	shows that there are low CH_4 fluxes in the East Siberia Coastal Lowlands, a region with
1272	extensive high-flux yedoma lakes (Walter et al., 2006). In comparison with the original test, this
1273	no lake inversion produces a larger mean difference between the observed and simulated
1274	posterior SCIAMACHY XCH ₄ , 27.4 ppb vs. 26.5 ppb. The 0.9 ppb difference is impressive
1275	considering the influence of nested grid model boundaries. For instance, Berchet et al. (2015),
1276	even using high-precision surface measurements collected from eight West Siberian Plain sites,
1277	only reduced the difference of the observed and simulated posterior GOSAT XCH ₄ by 1.5 ppb in
1278	a Eurasian-scale inversion. Another sign that SCIAMACHY XCH4 can be much better
1279	represented by including lake emissions is that the no-lake inversion only reduces the simulated
1280	prior SCIAMACHY XCH4 deviation by 0.1 ppb. Thus, the no-lake scenario probably misses
1281	some significant CH_4 emissions in the coastal lowlands. Because 56% of the water-inundated
1282	landscapes (i.e., lakes, wetlands and rivers) in this region are lakes (Lehner and Döll, 2004),
1283	lakes, especially yedoma lakes, could have contributed a large fraction of the missed CH_4
1284	emissions. The lower bound of our estimate is much smaller than the estimate of 7.1–17.3 Tg
1285	<u>CH₄ yr⁻¹ by Bastviken et al. (2011) in the use of extensive site-level observations. In contrast, the</u>
1286	upper bound of our estimate is within the range. Given the wide span of this estimate, it is
1287	difficult to say whether CH_4 emissions from pan-Arctic lakes can be significant across the region.
1288	Arctic tundra is regarded as an important source of CH ₄ in <u>the</u> northern high latitudes. By
1289	using process-based models and atmospheric CH ₄ observations, McGuire et al. (2012) estimated
1290	that Arctic tundra was a source of 25 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ to the atmosphere during 1990–2006. By using
1291	the TM5-4DVAR inverse model and assimilating with SCIAMACHY and NOAA/ESRL

1292	observations, Alexe et al. (2015) estimated that CH ₄ emissions from Arctic wetlands were 18.2
1293	Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ for 2010–2011. A similar estimate of 16±5 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ was also made by Bruhwiler
1294	et al. (2014) with using the CarbonTracker-CH ₄ assimilation system. Our estimates of $5.58.8$
1295	<u>14.2</u> ^{20.4} Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ overlaps with the estimate of Bruhwiler et al. (2014) but is much lower
1296	than the estimates of Alexe et al. (2015) and McGuire et al. (2012). However, McGuire et al.
1297	(2012) did not use complex inverse models and Alexe et al. (2015) used the coarse-resolution
1298	TM5-4DVAR inverse model. As our global inversions (Table 2) are consistent with the estimate
1299	of Alexe et al. (2015), this difference is likely introduced by the use of the nested-grid inverse
1300	model. In other words, the nested-grid inverse model reveals some information that could be
1301	missed in global coarse-resolution inversions. encompass the estimates of Alexe et al. (2015) and
1302	Bruhwiler et al. (2014) but are lower than that of McGuire et al. (2012). For Siberian wetlands,
1303	they could emit much more CH_4 (1.6–7.6 Tg yr ⁻¹) than any other areas. But the uncertainty of
1304	this source is also the largest. Using several flux towers near to Siberian wetlands, Berchet et al.
1305	(2015) estimated that CH_4 emissions from Siberian wetlands were in the range of 1–13 Tg CH_4
1306	yr ⁻¹ , wider larger than our estimated range. In addition, our estimate is also much smaller than
1307	the estimate of 21.63 \pm 5.25 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ by Kim et al. (2012) for annual mean CH ₄ emissions
1308	from Siberian wetlands during 2005–2010. As discussed, the uncertainty mainly arises from CH4
1309	emissions from Siberian wetlands. Regionally, when the ORCHIDEE scenario is excluded,
1310	annual According to our inversions, CH ₄ emissions from wetlands in Alaska, northern Canada,
1311	northern Europe and northern Siberia are, on average, 0–1.20 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , 0.4–4.83.3 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻
1312	¹ , and 0.7–3.64.2 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ and 5.8 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , respectively. For Alaskan wetlands, tThe
1313	estimated total of posterior CH_4 emissions from Alaskan wetlands is much lower than the
1314	inferred value of 4.1 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ for the Alaskan Yukon River basin during 1986–2005 using the

1515	modeling of process-based CH ₄ biogeochemistry and large-scale hydrology (Lu and Zhuang,
1316	2012) and also much lower than the inferred value of 3 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹ for the whole of Alaska
1317	(Zhuang et al., 2007). As wetlands in Europe are predominantly located north of 60°N, oOur
1318	estimate of wetland emissions from northern Europe compasses is very close to a European-scale
1319	estimate of 3.6 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ by Saarnio et al. (2009), agreeing with the investigation that wetlands
1320	in Europe are predominantly located north of 60°N. The posterior CH ₄ emissions from Siberian
1321	wetlands show a wide range (2.0–12.7 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹), which are much smaller than the estimate of
1322	21.63 ± 5.25 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ by Kim et al. (2012) for the annual mean CH ₄ emissions from Siberian
1323	wetlands during 2005–2010. Assimilating in situ CH4 measurements collected at 13 Eurasian
1324	sites in Siberia, Finland, Mongolia, China and South Korea, Berchet et al. (2015) estimated that
1325	CH_4 budget on the West Siberian Plain was 5–28 Tg CH_4 for 2010. It is also larger than our
1326	estimate but shows a similar large uncertainty.

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1327 **4.3.** Method Evaluation

1215

1328 Fig. 8 shows the difference between the modeled and observed CH4 mixing ratios at 1329 NOAA ship board sampling stations and aircraft vertical profile sites under different wetland 1330 scenarios before and after the global scale inversions. For most scenarios, inversion improves the 1331 representation of CH₄ mixing ratios in GEOS-Chem at both marine and inland boundary layers 1332 and free troposphere. Specifically, the CLM4Me scenario performs best in the evaluation by 1333 reducing the difference by more than 10 ppb. Because this scenario also produces global and 1334 wetland CH₄ fluxes consistent with earlier studies (as described in Section 4.1), it is likely that the spatial pattern of CH₄ fluxes simulated by the CLM4Me model is more realistic than the 1335 1336 other scenarios at the global scale.

1337	As shown in Fig. 7, in most of scenarios, the nested grid inversions perform much better
1338	than both the forward simulations and the global inversions at NOAA/ESRL pan-Arctic flask
1339	sites (Fig. 1). For example, for the ORCHIDEE scenario, the nested grid inversion reduces the
1340	model bias by 44 ppb relative to the forward run and by 20 ppb relative to the global inversion,
1341	respectively. Also, for the SDGVM scenario, it reduces the model bias by 22 ppb relative to the
1342	forward run and by 13 ppb relative to the global inversion, respectively. But for aircraft CH_4
1343	measurements, it is more complex. The nested grid inversions can reduce the model bias in some
1344	scenarios greatly, i.e. the CLM4Me scenario and the SDGVM scenario. But in many cases, they
1345	do not perform visibly better than the forward runs and the global inversions. One possible
1346	reason is that the aircraft CH ₄ RMS has already been low and thus the remaining errors,
1347	including the representation error of model diurnal variability, cannot be resolved by our current
1348	inversion system. For example, CH ₄ emissions from Alaska can be well constrained by three
1349	NOAA/ESRL surface sites in Alaska (BRW, CBA and SHM) and the CH ₄ mixing ratios at the
1350	aircraft PFA site are representative of the interior of Alaska as pointed out in Sweeney et al.
1351	(2015). It is also possible that the increase of grid cells in the nested grid inversions introduced
1352	more transport and computation errors.Fig. 9 compares the modeled and observed CH4 mixing
1353	ratios at the PAL surface station, in Finland and the PFA aircraft vertical profile site, in Alaska
1354	before and after the nested grid inversions. These two stations are near the main CH ₄ -sources in
1355	northern Europe and Alaska, respectively. For PFA, the nested-grid inversions perform better
1356	than the nested grid forward run but do not have clear advantage over the global inversions. The
1357	reason for this could be that CH4 emissions from Alaska can be well constrained by three
1358	NOAA/ESRL surface sites in Alaska (BRW, CBA and SHM) and the CH4 mixing ratios at PFA
1359	are representative of the interior of Alaska as was pointed out in Sweeney et al. (2015).

13604.34.Further Discussion

1361	Both the global and nested-grid inversions indicate that the inverse modeling is more
1362	sensitive to different wetland models than prior emission error and data error. Thus, to gain
1363	better understandings of the global and pan-Arctic CH ₄ cycles, it is important to develop more
1364	realistic biogeochemical models. Especially, from the perspective of inverse modeling, focus
1365	should be put on improving the spatial and temporal representation of the models rather than
1366	emission magnitude.
1367	For the high-resolution inverse modeling, transport and computation errors of the nested-
1368	grid CTMs need to be reduced for better performance. These CTMs can also benefit the efforts
1369	to assimilate aircraft CH ₄ measurements. For the purpose of satellite data bias correction, more
1370	coordination between satellite missions and aircraft missions is demanded. The treatment of the
1371	SCIAMACHY bias could be an important uncertainty source for our estimates, as suggested by
1372	Houweling et al. (2014). Future top-down studies could benefit from a more reasonable bias
1373	correction method, even for low bias satellite products, e.g. GOSAT (Alexe et al., 2015).
1374	As described in Section 4, there are still several issues limiting the accuracy of our
1375	estimates. First, although the stronger zonal and weaker vertical transport characteristics of
1376	northern high latitudes is thought to help transport flux information to the pan-Arctic sites (e.g.,
1377	Shemya, Barrow and Cold Bay), CH4 sources in some regions of the Arctic, e.g. Siberia, are still
1378	poorly constrained by the assimilated measurements. In theory, because surface and aircraft
1379	measurements have much lower uncertainties than satellite retrievals, it is possible to refine our
1380	estimates by incorporating site measurements near Siberia, such as the Surgut site of National
1381	Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES) (Machida et al., 2001). The uncertainty of

1382 SCIAMACHY retrievals likely also needs to be revisited. The assumed 1.5% minimum

1383 uncertainty for SCIAMACHY retrievals in this study could be somewhat overestimated

1384 (Bergamaschi et al., 2007), which limits their potentials to provide constraints on CH₄ fluxes.

1385 The treatment of the SCIAMACHY bias could be an important uncertainty source for our

1386 estimates, as suggested by Houweling et al. (2014). Future top-down studies could benefit from a

1387 more reasonable bias correction method, even for low bias satellite products, e.g. GOSAT (Alexe

1388 et al., 2015).

1389 TSecond, the attribution of CH_4 fluxes to spatially overlapped sources, e.g. wetlands and 1390 lakes, could be problematica problem for even high-resolution inversions. Carbon isotope measurements (δ^{13} CH₄) are widely used to separate biogenic and geologic CH₄ sources 1391 1392 (Langenfelds et al., 2002) but are not useful for two biogenic sources with similar carbon isotope 1393 ratios (Walter et al., 2008; Fisher et al., 2011). In our study, lake and wetland emissions were 1394 simulated separately by different models. This raised the possibility of double counting 1395 emissions of the two sources. A possible solution is to simulate them in a single earth system 1396 model using a consistent wetland and lake pixel identification method. One possible solution is to 1397 constrain the flux ratio of wetlands to lakes using very fine resolution geographical information. 1398 For instance, the flux ratio should be well constrained by the area ratio of these two landscapes. 1399 Another possible solution is to jointly constrain CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes in a nested-grid inversion. 1400 As known, although both wetlands and lakes are CH_4 -sources, wetlands are a CO_2 sink and lakes 1401 are a CO₂ source (Zhu et al., 2013; Walter Anthony et al., 2014). This opposite correlations of 1402 CH₄ and CO₂ emissions could possibly be used to constrain the optimization of the flux ratio in 1403 inverse models.

1404	Our nested grid adjoint model currently does not cover the regions near-to the North Pole.
1405	While it could be rare in the summer time, if air mass transports across the Arctic Ocean, it may
1406	not be represented in the model. In the following studies, we will try to adapt the advection
1407	algorithm for the polar region from the global adjoint model to the nested-grid model and
1408	validate the adaptation. These refinements shall may reduce the uncertainty of our estimates. It is
1409	also valuable to discuss the integration of other natural CH_4 sources found in the pan-Arctic,
1410	such as CH ₄ emission sfrom subsea permafrost of East Siberian shelf (Shakhova et al., 2013).
1411	Our Arctic inversions did not include natural CH ₄ sources (e.g., CH ₄ emissions from
1412	subsea permafrost of East Siberian shelf) other than wetlands and lakes in the Arctic. It could
1413	lead to more uncertainties in our estimates. But our study also suggests that it is unlikely that
1414	CH_4 emissions from sea shelf are as large as 17 Tg CH_4 yr ⁻¹ as suggested by Shakhova et al.
1415	(2013) because the posterior CH_4 emissions from Arctic wetlands are no more than 20.4 Tg CH_4
1416	yr⁻¹.
1417	5. Conclusion
1418	In this study, we use <u>d</u> a nested grid high-resolution nested-grid chemical transport
1419	inverse adjoint model in the pan-Arctic domain to constrain CH ₄ emissions from pan-Arctic
1420	wetlands, lakes and anthropogenic sources. The sensitivity of the method to different prior
1421	wetland CH ₄ fluxes wasis also tested. When assimilating both NOAA/ESRL measurements and
1422	SCIAMACHY <u>retrievals</u> observations, we estimated that during July 2004 June 2005, in 2005,
1423	the total of global total-CH ₄ emissions wasis in the range of 496.4–511.5 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , with

1424 wetlands contributing 130.0–203.3 Tg CH_4 yr⁻¹. Both of these estimates are consistent with some

1425 widely accepted expert assessments. <u>The estimated CH₄ emissions in the pan-Arctic were in the</u>

1426	range of 11.9–28.5 Tg yr ⁻¹ , with wetland and lake emissions ranging from 5.5 to 14.2 Tg yr ⁻¹ and
1427	from 2.4 to 14.2 Tg yr ⁻¹ , respectively. The largest CH ₄ emissions in the pan-Arctic are from
1428	Siberian wetlands and lakes. The study demonstrates that the assimilation of satellite retrievals
1429	can reduce the uncertainty of the nested grid inversions. The nested-grid inversions demonstrate
1430	that biogeochemical models tend to overestimate CH4 emissions from natural sources of the
1431	Arctic (e.g., wetlands and lakes). The posterior CH4 emissions from Arctic lakes from July 2004
1432	to June 2005 are 5.4–7.9 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , a significant contribution to the Arctic CH ₄ cycle. CH ₄
1433	emissions from lakes in Alaska, northern Canada, northern Europe and northern Siberia, on
1434	average, are estimated to be 1.0 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , 3.1 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ , 0.6 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ and 2.8 Tg CH ₄ yr
1435	⁴ , respectively. Except for the emissions from northern Siberia, other estimates are consistent
1436	with the lake biogeochemical model simulations. The posterior CH4 emissions from Arctic
1437	wetlands from July 2004 to June 2005 are 8.8–20.4 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ . CH ₄ emissions from wetlands in
1438	Alaska, northern Canada, northern Europe and northern Siberia are, on average, 1.0 Tg CH ₄ yr ⁻¹ ,
1439	$3.3 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ yr}^4$, $4.2 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ yr}^4$ and $5.8 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ yr}^4$, respectively. The nested-grid inversions
1440	indicate that CH ₄ emissions from northern Canada, Alaska, Scandinavia and East Siberia Coastal
1441	lowlands are better constrained by the inversions than from other Arctic regions, e.g. most of
1442	Siberian wetlands. Evaluation with independent datasets shows that the global inversions and the
1443	Arctic inversions with a nested approach the nested inversions can better improve estimates the
1444	representation of CH4methane mixing ratios in lower boundary layer rather than top boundary
1445	layer and free troposphere. The high resolution inversions provide more details about the spatial
1446	distribution of methane emissions in the Arctic, which helps understand the CH4-cycle in this
1447	climate sensitive region.
1.1.10	

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- 1841 Figure Captions
- 1842 Figure 1. SCIAMACHY retrievals (n = 37743) of the weighted column-average CH₄ dry mole
- 1843 <u>fractions for July 2005–September 2005 in the pan-Arctic that have passed all quality control</u>
- 1844 tests described in Section 2.1 and the locations of surface flask stations and aircraft missions
- 1845 <u>used for data assimilation or inversion evaluation.</u>
- 1846 Figure 1. Comparison of column averaged CH₄ mole fractions from SCIAMACHY with those
- 1847 from GEOS-Chem model calculated with prior emissions. (a and b) show the mean bias and
- 1848 residual standard deviation of the satellite-model difference, (c) shows the comparison of the
- 1849 model (x axis) and satellite (y axis) XCH₄ after applying the "latitude + humidity" correction
- 1850 from the linear regression (weighted R^2 is shown inset and the red 1:1 line is also shown), and (d)
- 1851 shows the satellite-model difference after bias removal.

- 1852 Figure 2. Prior average wetland CH₄ emissions during 2004–2005 from different wetland
- 1853 biogeochemical models used for the GEOS Chem global inversion at $4^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ resolution. Annual
- 1854 total emission (orange) is presented in units of Tg CH₄ yr⁴.
- 1855 Figure 23. Prior average CH₄ fluxes from wetlands, lakes and other sources (i.e. anthropogenic
- 1856 and biomass burning) in 2005 during 2004 2005 used forin the GEOS Chem-pan-Arctic nested
- 1857 grid inversions at $1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$ resolution. Annual total emission (orange) for each pan-Arctic
- 1858 <u>source</u> is presented in units of Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹.
- 1859 Figure 3. Bias correction function (left) and standard deviation (right) for SCIAMACHY
- 1860 retrievals overpassing the pan-Arctic. ΔXCH_4 is the difference between SCIAMACHY and
- 1861 <u>column-average mixing ratios mapped from aircraft vertical profiles. The red line in the left</u>
- 1862 <u>shows a linear regression weighted by the number of SCIAMACHY retrievals.</u>
- 1863 Figure 4. Optimized total (green) and wetlands (orange) CH₄ emissions from 1993 to 2005 by
- 1864 assimilating NOAA/ESRL measurements for (a) global, (b) tropics (30°S 20°N), (c) northern
- 1865 mid-latitude (20°N-50°N) and (d) northern high-latitude (>50°N). The smooth lines indicate the
- 1866 12-month average of total and wetlands CH₄ fluxes. The prior wetland CH₄ fluxes are simulated
- 1867 by LPJ-WSL.
- 1868 Figure 5. Optimized global CH₄ emissions and emissions scale factors (posterior emissions
- 1869 relative to prior emissions) in the period of July 2004 to June 2005 at $4^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ resolution using
- 1870 both SCIAMACHY and NOAA/ESRL observations. a) The posterior CH₄ emissions averaged
- 1871 over six inversions; b) the standard deviation of the posterior CH₄ emissions over six inversions;
- 1872 c) the optimized scale factor averaged over six inversions.

- 1873 Figure <u>46</u>. Optimized <u>pan-Arctic CH₄ fluxes in 2005 from July 2004 to June 2005</u> at $1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$
- 1874 resolution using both SCIAMACHY and NOAA/ESRL observations. a) BERN; b) CLM4Me; c)
- 1875 DLEM; d) ORCHIDEE; e) SDGVM; f) WSL.
- 1876 Figure 5. Comparison of prior and posterior pan-Arctic CH₄ emissions and their uncertainties.
- 1877 <u>"NOAA only" represents posterior emissions assimilating only surface measurements. "NOAA +</u>
- 1878 <u>SCIA" represents posterior emissions assimilating both surface measurements and satellite</u>
- 1879 retrievals. The uncertainty of prior emissions is 100%. Scenarios are represented by their name
- 1880 initials: "B" for BERN, "C" for CLM4Me, "D" for DLEM, "O" for ORCHIDEE, "S" for
- 1881 SDGVM and "W" for WSL.
- 1882 Figure 6. Distribution of the relative difference between the observed and simulated posterior
- 1883 SCIAMACHY column-average mixing ratios. The "DLEM + Lake" scenario includes CH₄
- 1884 emissions from both wetlands and lakes and the "DLEM only" scenario only includes CH₄
- 1885 <u>emissions from wetlands. Relative difference is calculated as a percentage of absolute</u>
- 1886 differences between GEOS-Chem and SCIAMACHY relative to SCIAMACHY retrievals.
- 1887 Figure 7. Optimized CH₄ emissions from Arctic lakes from July 2004 to June 2005 at $1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$
- 1888 resolution using both SCIAMACHY and NOAA/ESRL observations. a) BERN; b) CLM4Me; c)
- 1889 DLEM; d) ORCHIDEE; e) SDGVM; f) WSL.
- 1890 Figure 8. Evaluation of the posterior GEOS Chem CH₄ mole fractions from the global inversions
- 1891 with independent data sets. The plot shows the root mean square (rms) of differences between
- 1892 modeled and observed CH₄ mixing ratios. APRI indicates the average rms using different prior
- 1893 wetland emissions.

- 1894 | Figure <u>79</u>. Evaluation of the posterior GEOS-Chem CH₄ mole fractions from the <u>pan-Arctic</u>
- 1895 nested-grid inversions with independent data sets from the NOAA <u>flaskPAL</u> station<u>s</u>, <u>and</u> the
- 1896 NOAA aircraft PFA profiles and the NIES aircraft Surgut profiles. APRI indicates the average
- 1897 rms using different prior wetland emissions. APOR indicates the average rms calculated from six
- 1898 global inversions. Black symbols indicate the rms of the forward GEOS-Chem runs and red
- 1899 <u>symbols indicate the rms of the global inversions.</u>

Table1. Summary of bias correction methods and of mean absolute satellite-model difference (ppb) for 2003-2005 before and after applying bias correction. Δ BIC is the BIC score increase of a bias correction method when referring to the latitude only method.

	Bias correction function [*]	Mean absolute	ΔBIC	<u>R</u> ²
No correction		9.271		
Latitude only	$p_0 + p_1 \varphi + p_2 \varphi^2$	6.305		<u>0.62</u>
Air mass factor only	$p_0 + p_1 A_F$	7.071	161	<u>0.52</u>
Humidity only	$p_0 + p_1 H_s$	6.786	73	<u>0.56</u>
Latitude + Humidity	$p_0 + p_{11}\varphi + p_{12}\varphi^2 + p_{21}H_s$	6.230	-7	<u>0.62</u>
Air mass factor + Humidity	$p_0 + p_{11}A_F + p_{21}H_S$	6.396	12	<u>0.60</u>

 p_0 , p_1 , p_2 , p_{11} , p_{12} and p_{21} are regression parameters.

Table 2. Estimated annual CH_4 emissions (units: Tg CH_4 yr⁻¹) for TransCom 3 land regions (NAB: North American Boreal, NAT: North American Temperate, SATr: South American Tropical, SAT: South American Temperate, NAf: Northern Africa, SAf: Southern Africa, ErB: Eurasian Boreal, ErT: Eurasian Temperate, TrA: Tropical Asia, Aus: Australasia, and Eur: Europe). The priors are the range of the initial CH_4 emissions given by the six scenarios.

Dogion	Priors —	Posterior							Alexe et
Region		Bern	CLM4Me	DLEM	ORCHIDEE	SDGVM	WSL	al. (2013)	al. (2015)
NAB	7.9–26.0	24.3	16.2	16.8	27.4	12.0	20.7	5.1±1.1	10.3
NAT	38.5–59.2	33.2	32.8	42.8	49.2	51.2	39.7	62.5±4.4	45.6
SATr	29.6-100.0	43.0	60.8	31.4	61.0	62.3	42.1	49.6±6.4	71.8
SAT	29.1–55.8	31.2	27.1	35.2	39.1	25.6	30.5	55.8±9.5	40.2
NAf	26.8–31.2	34.0	41.3	27.9	28.0	27.7	32.0	46.9±7.3	50.6
SAf	16.0–27.0	18.4	16.2	19.0	24.2	15.6	18.7	36.6±5.8	42.0
ErB	11.5–32.7	19.2	14.3	16.5	18.7	22.2	14.9	16.5±3.8	15.4
ErT	114.9–133.5	97.0	84.9	146.1	92.7	98.3	99.8	115.9±7.3	109.6
TrA	33.1–45.8	47.3	51.4	35.8	33.1	36.4	45.1	43.5±3.2	76.8
Aus	5.8-8.3	7.3	7.7	6.6	7.9	6.3	7.3	17.6±2.7	4.3
Eur	43.6–53.5	54.9	52.2	46.4	43.5	56.5	54.1	39.6±3.7	28.9
Wetlands	121.7–278.1	166.8	164.6	130.0	203.3	161.8	160.7	192.1±16.1	169
Global	471.5-627.8	501.0	497.7	511.5	511.0	496.4	502.9	510.6±18.4	540.5

Table 3. Summary of the prior and posterior CH_4 emissions (Tg CH_4 yr⁻¹) from the Arctic from July 2004 to June 2005. The priors are

the range of the initial CH4 emissions given by the six scenarios.

	Dutana	Posterior					
	Priors –	Bern	CLM4Me	DLEM	ORCHIDEE	SDGVM	WSL
Alaska	2.8 3.9	3.3	2.5	2.2	2.6	1.8	2.3
Northern Canada	6.2–12.4	7.2	9.0	6.9	5.2	4.4	4.3
Northern Europe	5.6 9.7	8.5	5.8	4 .8	4 .6	6.7	7.5
Northern Siberia	7.0–18.0	8.2	12.7	3.8	2.0	7.2	8.8
Arctic total	25.7 39.9	27.8	30.4	18.1	14.6	20.3	20.0
Wetlands	11.4 25.6	18.7	20.4	9.2	8.8	12.5	10.9
Lakes	11.1	7.7	7.9	7.5	5.4	7.0	7.7
Other	3.2	1.4	2.1	1.4	0.3	0.9	1.4



Figure 1.



Figure 1.



Figure 2.







Figure 2.



Figure 3.



Figure 4.



Figure 5.



 $g CH_4 m^{-2} yr^{-1}$

Figure <u>4</u>6.



Figure 5.



<u>Figure 6.</u>



Figure 7.





Figure <u>7</u>8.



Figure 9.

S1. Methods and Results

In the text S1, the steps to construct optimal initial conditions for global and nested grid inversions are described. We also describe the steps to construct an optimal GEOS-Chem CH_4 field for SCIAMACHY bias correction purpose and the comparison between our estimates and previous inversion studies in the global scale.

To start global and nested-grid inversions, the initial CH_4 field of the GEOS-Chem model needs to be optimized to minimize its error. As our focus is in the period of 2004–2005, to speed up the whole process, we only ran one inversion from 1993 to 2003 using the LPJ-WSL scenario and NOAA/ESRL measurements. The main purpose of this inversion is to construct initial CH_4 field in 2004. As presented in Fig. S2, without optimization, the LPJ-WSL scenario gives the best fit of the GEOS-Chem modeled CH_4 to the GLOBALVIEW-CH4 data (GLOBALVIEW-CH4, 2009). During the 1993–2003 inversion, GEOS-Chem was driven by GEOS-4 meteorological (met) data from NASA's Global Modeling Assimilation Office (GMAO). Relative to GEOS-5, the GEOS-4 met data has the same horizontal resolutions but less vertical hybrid sigma-pressure levels (55 vertical levels).

To construct optimal atmospheric CH_4 fields for the bias correction of SCIAMACHY retrievals at the global scale, we ran a global inversion during 2004–2005 using the LPJ-WSL wetland emission scenario and NOAA/ESRL measurements. In this inversion, the GEOS-Chem model was driven by the GEOS-5 met data. The global inversions of different scenarios that assimilated both surface measurements and satellite retrievals were then run in two sequential time windows: 2004/01–2004/12 and 2005/01–2005/12. Only the inversions in the second time window are for analysis and the first time window is designed to minimize the impacts of the transition from GEOS-4 to GEOS-5 and from the LPJ-WSL scenario to other scenarios. In the above inversions, we included surface measurements from pan-Arctic sites but excluded satellite retrievals out of 50°S–50°N. The global inversions during 2005 also provided initial conditions and time-dependent boundary conditions for the nested grid simulations of the adjoint model. Following Turner et al. (2015), we did not optimize boundary conditions in the nested-grid inversions as did in Wecht et al. (2014). The nested grid inversions of the pan-Arctic were run at $1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$ resolution from July 1, 2005 to Oct 1, 2005.

Specific humidity for bias correction was retrieved from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF)'s ERA-20C reanalysis product (http://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/data/era20c-daily), averaged by the column between the surface and 3 km altitude (Houweling et al., 2014). The air mass factor and coordinates of satellite CH₄ retrievals have been included in the SCIAMACHY IMAP v6.0. For global-scale bias correction, we first optimized the GEOS-Chem 4-D CH₄ mixing ratios using only surface measurements and then sampled the modeled XCH₄ at the coordinates and time of SCIAMACHY retrievals and with local averaging kernels applied. Following Bergamaschi et al. (2009) and Houweling et al. (2014), only satellite retrievals between 50°S and 50°N were utilized. The XCH₄ differences between SCIAMACHY and GEOS-Chem are shown in Fig. S3a. A regression relationship was then built to represent the satellite system bias by proxy factors. Turner et al. (2015) suggested that it is more likely that grid squares residual standard deviation (RSD) in excess of 20 ppb are dominated by model bias in prior emissions. Thus, we excluded such grid squares in regressions. And satellite retrievals with low precisions (the ratio of retrieval precision error to retrieval is larger than 3%) were also removed from analysis. Following Houweling et al. (2014), we did not optimize bias correction functions in the inversion cycle in the concern that this process could

cause bias correction to incorrectly account for the uncertainties caused by unaccounted model errors or even the uncertain sources and sinks. As shown in Fig. S3d, bias correction reduced model-satellite differences greatly in tropical areas of America, Africa and South Asia and also reduced the differences in Australia and some areas of the United States. And the agreement between GEOS-Chem and SCIAMACHY is also improved at the global scale (Fig. S3c). However, the model-data agreement is deteriorated in East Asia. It could be caused by the overestimate of anthropogenic CH_4 emissions from China in the EDGAR dataset (Peng et al., 2016).

The results of the global inversions are presented in Table 2 and Fig. S4. There have been many studies that assimilated surface measurements and/or satellite retrievals into a CTM inverse model to constrain global CH₄ emissions, see Kirschke et al. (2013) for review. For instance, using the same observations suite, Bergamaschi et al. (2009) estimated that in 2004, CH₄ emissions in global, tropical (30°S–30°N), northern extratropical (30°N–90°N) and southern extratropical (90°S–30°S) zonal areas were 506.7 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, 323.5 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, 172.8 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ and 10.4 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, respectively. These large-scale estimates are consistent with our calculations: 284.5–319.6 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ (tropical), 165.3–206.6 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ (northern extratropical) and 10.0–13.9 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ (southern extratropical). This agreement could imply that the GEOS-Chem adjoint and TM5-4DVAR are consistent in the atmospheric transport, chemistry and inverse modeling methods. In contrast to Bergamaschi et al. (2009), our inversions allocate more emissions to extratropical regions. As a result, the tropical total (SATr + NAF + SAF + TrA) of the six inversions is in the range of 114.1–169.7 Tg CH_4 yr⁻¹, which is much lower than their estimate of 203.2 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹. The likely reason for this discrepancy is that we did not optimize bias correction functions in the inversion cycle. Our posterior wetland CH₄ emissions estimated

in the Bern, CLM4Me, SDGVM and WSL scenarios are close to the estimate of 161 Tg CH_4 yr⁻¹ for 2003–2007 in Bloom et al. (2010). The latter was based on CH_4 and gravity spaceborne data to constrain large-scale methanogenesis. Our estimates are also close to the inferred wetland CH_4 emissions (175±33 Tg CH_4 yr⁻¹) by Kirschke et al. (2013). By using artificial neural networks, Zhu et al. (2013) estimated that from 1990 to 2009, annual wetland CH_4 emissions from northern high latitudes (> 45°N) were in the range of 44.0–53.7 Tg CH_4 yr⁻¹, agreeing with the estimates of the Bern, CLM4Me and SDGVM scenarios.

Fig. S4a shows that CH_4 fluxes are the highest in the Amazon, China, Southeast Asia, North America and Europe where there are either a large area of wetlands and rice paddies or advanced coal and oil industries or both. Our results indicate that the Eurasian temperate zone, including China, North America and Europe, emitted much more CH_4 than any other geographic zones (Table 2), implying the dominance of anthropogenic sources in the global CH_4 inventory. As presented in Fig. S4c, our inverse modeling reduced the CH_4 emissions from China, the Amazon basin and the Eurasian boreal region (scale factor < 1) but increased the emissions in Europe and Southeast Asia (scale factor > 1) relative to the prior.

Fig. S6 shows the difference between the modeled and observed CH_4 mixing ratios at NOAA ship board sampling stations and aircraft vertical profile sites under different wetland scenarios before and after the global scale inversions. For most scenarios, inversion improves the representation of CH_4 mixing ratios in GEOS-Chem at both marine and inland boundary layers and free troposphere. For example, the BERN scenario inversion reduced the bias by about 18 ppb for ship stations and about 6 ppb for aircraft sites. Also the DLEM scenario inversion reduced the bias by about 20 ppb for ship stations and about 19 ppb for aircraft sites. For the CLM4Me and SDGVM scenarios with low prior biases, the inversions did not improve the performance. This could be caused by the errors introduced by the inversion process itself. For example, as the optimization is designed to address total emissions, the representation of diurnal variability in GEOS-Chem could be made worse during inversion.

	Station ID	<u>Latitude</u>	Longitude	Altitude [m]	Station Name
	ALT	82.45	-62.52	<u>210.0</u>	Alert, Nunavut, Canada
	ZEP	<u>78.90</u>	<u>11.88</u>	<u>475.0</u>	Ny-Alesund, Svalbard (Spitsbergen), Norway and Sweden
	<u>SUM</u>	<u>72.58</u>	<u>-38.48</u>	<u>3238.0</u>	Summit, Greenland
	BRW	<u>71.32</u>	<u>-156.60</u>	<u>11.0</u>	Barrow, Alaska, USA
	<u>ICE</u>	<u>63.34</u>	-20.29	<u>127.0</u>	Heimay, Vestmannaeyjar, Iceland
	<u>CBA</u>	<u>55.20</u>	<u>-162.72</u>	<u>25.0</u>	Cold Bay, Alaska, USA
	<u>SHM</u>	<u>52.72</u>	<u>174.10</u>	<u>40.0</u>	Shemya Island, Alaska, USA
	<u>UUM</u>	<u>44.45</u>	<u>111.10</u>	<u>914.0</u>	<u>Ulaan Uul, Mongolia</u>
	<u>NWR</u>	<u>40.05</u>	<u>-105.58</u>	<u>3526.0</u>	Niwot Ridge, Colorado, USA
	AZR	<u>38.77</u>	<u>-27.38</u>	<u>40.0</u>	Terceira Island, Azores, Portugal
	<u>WLG</u>	<u>36.29</u>	<u>100.90</u>	<u>3810.0</u>	Mt. Waliguan, People's Republic of China
	<u>BMW</u>	<u>32.27</u>	<u>-64.88</u>	<u>30.0</u>	<u>Tudor Hill, Bermuda, UK</u>
	<u>IZO</u>	<u>28.30</u>	<u>-16.48</u>	<u>2360.0</u>	Tenerife, Canary Islands, Spain
	MID	<u>28.21</u>	<u>-177.38</u>	<u>7.7</u>	Sand Island, Midway, USA
	<u>ASK</u>	23.18	<u>5.42</u>	<u>2728.0</u>	Assekrem, Algeria
	<u>MLO</u>	<u>19.53</u>	<u>-155.58</u>	<u>3397.0</u>	<u>Mauna Loa, Hawai, USA</u>
	<u>KUM</u>	<u>19.52</u>	<u>-154.82</u>	<u>3.0</u>	<u>Cape Kumukahi, Hawaii, USA</u>
	<u>GMI</u>	<u>13.43</u>	<u>144.78</u>	<u>6.0</u>	Mariana Islands, Guam

Table S1. NOAA/ESRL stations used in the inversion.

<u>RPB</u>	<u>13.17</u>	<u>-59.43</u>	<u>45.0</u>	Ragged Point, Barbados
CHR	<u>1.70</u>	<u>-157.17</u>	<u>3.0</u>	Christmas Island, Republic of Kiribati
<u>SEY</u>	<u>-4.67</u>	<u>55.17</u>	<u>7.0</u>	Mahe Island, Seychelles
ASC	<u>-7.92</u>	<u>-14.42</u>	<u>54.0</u>	Ascension Island, UK
<u>SMO</u>	<u>-14.24</u>	<u>-170.57</u>	<u>42.0</u>	Tutuila, American Samoa, USA
<u>CGO</u>	-40.68	<u>144.68</u>	<u>94.0</u>	Cape Grim, Tasmania, Australia
CRZ	<u>-46.45</u>	<u>51.85</u>	<u>120.0</u>	Crozet Island, France
TDF	<u>-54.87</u>	<u>-68.48</u>	<u>20.0</u>	Tierra Del Fuego, La Redonda Isla, Argentinia
<u>PSA</u>	<u>-64.92</u>	<u>-64.00</u>	<u>10.0</u>	Palmer Station, Antarctica, USA
<u>SYO</u>	<u>-69.00</u>	<u>39.58</u>	<u>14.0</u>	Syowa Station, Antarctica, Japan
HBA	<u>-75.58</u>	<u>-26.50</u>	<u>33.0</u>	Halley Station, Antarctica, UK
<u>SPO</u>	<u>-89.98</u>	<u>-24.80</u>	<u>2810.0</u>	South Pole, Antarctica, USA

Table S2. NOAA aircraft profiles used for validation.

CODE	Location	<u>Latitude</u> (deg)	<u>Longitude</u> (deg)	<u>Start Date</u>	End Date
PFA	Poker Flat, Alaska, United States	<u>65.07</u>	<u>-147.29</u>	06/27/1999	06/05/2015
ESP	Estevan Point, British Columbia, Canada	<u>49.6</u>	<u>-126.4</u>	11/22/2002	06/09/2015
DND	Dahlen, North Dakota, USA	<u>48.1</u>	<u>-98.0</u>	09/21/2004	05/31/2015
LEF	Park Falls, Wisconsin, USA	<u>45.9</u>	<u>-90.3</u>	04/10/1998	05/28/2015
<u>FWI</u>	Fairchild, Wisconsin, USA	<u>44.7</u>	<u>-91.0</u>	09/20/2004	11/18/2005
<u>NHA</u>	Worcester, Massachusetts, USA	<u>43.0</u>	<u>-70.6</u>	09/21/2003	06/10/2015
BGI	Bradgate, Iowa, USA	<u>42.8</u>	<u>-94.4</u>	09/13/2004	11/18/2005
<u>HFM</u>	Harvard Forest, Massachusetts, USA	<u>42.5</u>	<u>-72.2</u>	<u>11/11/1999</u>	11/18/2007
<u>WBI</u>	West Branch, Iowa, USA	<u>42.4</u>	<u>-91.8</u>	09/14/2004	05/28/2015
OIL	Oglesby, Illinois, USA	<u>41.3</u>	<u>-88.9</u>	09/16/2004	<u>11/19/2005</u>
<u>THD</u>	Trinidad Head, California, USA	<u>41.0</u>	<u>-124.2</u>	09/02/2003	05/16/2015
BNE	Beaver Crossing, Nebraska, USA	<u>40.8</u>	<u>-97.2</u>	09/15/2004	05/11/2011
CAR	Briggsdale, Colorado, USA	<u>40.6</u>	<u>-104.6</u>	<u>11/09/1992</u>	04/21/2015
HIL	Homer, Illinois, USA	<u>40.1</u>	<u>-87.9</u>	09/16/2004	05/21/2015
<u>TGC</u>	Sinton, Texas, USA	<u>27.7</u>	<u>-96.9</u>	09/09/2003	06/05/2015
HAA	Molokai Island, Hawaii, USA	<u>21.2</u>	<u>-158.9</u>	<u>05/31/1999</u>	04/22/2008
<u>RTA</u>	Rarotonga, Cook Islands	<u>-21.3</u>	<u>-159.8</u>	04/16/2000	05/29/2015



Figure S1. Average of prior wetland CH_4 annual emissions during 2004–2005 from six different wetland biogeochemical models used for the GEOS-Chem global inversion at $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ resolution. Annual total emission (orange) is presented in units of Tg CH_4 yr⁻¹.



Figure S2. The comparison between the GEOS-Chem simulated and GLOBALVIEW-CH4 atmospheric CH_4 (units: ppbv) at five stations (Mace Head, Ireland; Trinidad, California; Ragged Point, Barbados; Cape Matatula, Samoa; Cape Grim, Tasmania). The wetland CH_4 emissions used are pre-optimized model simulations provided by the WETCHIMP project.



Figure S3. Comparison of column averaged CH_4 mole fractions from SCIAMACHY with those from GEOS-Chem model calculated with prior emissions. (a and b) show the mean bias and residual standard deviation of the satellite-model difference, (c) shows the comparison of the model (x axis) and satellite (y axis) XCH_4 after applying the "latitude + humidity" correction from the linear regression (weighted R^2 is shown inset and the red 1:1 line is also shown), and (d) shows the satellite-model difference after bias removal.



Figure S4. Optimized global CH_4 emissions and emission scale factors in 2005 at $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ resolution. Emission scale factor is defined as posterior emissions relative to prior emissions. a) Posterior CH_4 emissions averaged over inversions of six scenarios; b) standard deviation of posterior CH_4 emissions over inversions of six scenarios; c) optimized emission scale factors averaged over inversions of six scenarios.


Figure S5. Posterior CH_4 emissions from the pan-Arctic in 2005 estimated by the inversion of the "DLEM wetland only" scenario. The "DLEM wetland only" scenario uses the simulated wetland CH_4 emissions from the DLEM model and does not incorporate CH_4 emissions from pan-Arctic lakes.



Figure S6. Evaluation of posterior GEOS-Chem CH_4 mole fractions from the global inversions with independent data sets. The plot shows the root mean square (rms) of differences between the modeled and the observed CH_4 mixing ratios. Black symbols indicate the rms of the forward GEOS-Chem runs.