

Aircraft-based mass balance estimate of methane emissions from offshore gas facilities in the Southern North Sea

Magdalena Pühl¹, Anke Roiger¹, Alina Fiehn¹, Alan M. Gorchov Negron², Eric A. Kort², Stefan Schwietzke³, Ignacio Pisso⁴, Amy Foulds⁵, James Lee⁶, James L. France^{3,7,8}, Anna E. Jones⁷, Dave
5 Lowry⁸, Rebecca E. Fisher⁸, Langwen Huang⁵, Jacob Shaw^{5,a}, Prudence Bateson⁵, Stephen Andrews⁶,
Stuart Young⁶, Pamela Dominutti⁹, Tom Lachlan-Cope⁷, Alexandra Weiss⁷, Grant Allen⁵

¹Deutsches Zentrum für Luft- und Raumfahrt (DLR), Institut für Physik der Atmosphäre, Oberpfaffenhofen, Germany

²Department of Climate and Space Sciences and Engineering, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

³Environmental Defense Fund, Berlin, Germany

10 ⁴Norwegian Institute for Air Research (NILU), Kjeller, Norway

⁵Department of Earth and Environmental Science, University of Manchester, Manchester, M13 9PL, UK

⁶National Centre for Atmospheric Science, University of York, York, YO10 5DQ, UK

⁷British Antarctic Survey, Natural Environment Research Council, Cambridge CB3 0ET, UK

⁸Department of Earth Sciences, Royal Holloway, University of London, Egham TW20 0EX, UK

15 ⁹Université Grenoble Alpes, UMR 5001, CNRS, IRD, Grenoble, 38000, France

^a now at: National Physical Laboratory (NPL), Hampton Road, Teddington, TW11 0LW, UK

Correspondence to: M. Pühl (Magdalena.puehl@dlr.de)

Abstract. Atmospheric methane (CH₄) concentrations have more than doubled since the beginning of the industrial age, making CH₄ the second most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas after carbon dioxide (CO₂). The oil and gas sector
20 represent one of the major anthropogenic CH₄ emitters as it is estimated to account for 22% of global anthropogenic CH₄ emissions. An airborne field campaign was conducted in April-May 2019 to study CH₄ emissions from offshore gas facilities in the Southern North Sea with the aim to derive emission estimates using a top-down (measurement-led) approach. We present CH₄ fluxes for six UK and five Dutch offshore platforms/platform complexes using the well-established mass balance flux method. We identify specific gas production emissions and emission processes (venting/fugitive or flaring/combustion) using
25 observations of co-emitted ethane (C₂H₆) and CO₂. We compare our top-down estimated fluxes with a ship-based top-down study in the Dutch sector and with bottom-up estimates from a globally gridded annual inventory, UK national annual point-source inventories, and with operator-based reporting for individual Dutch facilities. In this study, we find that all inventories, except for the operator-based facility-level reporting, underestimate measured emissions, with the largest discrepancy observed with the globally gridded inventory. Individual facility reporting, as available for Dutch sites for the specific survey date,
30 shows better agreement with our measurement-based estimates. For all sampled Dutch installations together, we find that our estimated flux of $(122.9 \pm 36.8) \text{ kg h}^{-1}$ deviates by a factor 0.64 (0.33-12) from reported values (192.8 kg h^{-1}). Comparisons with aircraft observations in two other offshore regions (Norwegian Sea and Gulf of Mexico) show that measured, absolute facility-level emission rates agree with the general distribution found in other offshore basins despite different production types

(oil, gas) and gas production rates, which vary by two orders of magnitude. Therefore, mitigation is warranted equally across geographies.

1 Introduction

Atmospheric CH₄ mole fractions have more than doubled since 1750 due to human activity and continue to rise (Saunio et al., 2020). According to the NOAA Global Monitoring Laboratory, globally-averaged atmospheric CH₄ is estimated to have experienced the most dramatic annual increase in 2021 since the beginning of the measurements in 1984 (Lan et al., 2022). With a factor 80-83 times stronger global warming potential over a 20-year time horizon compared to CO₂, CH₄ is the second-most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas after CO₂ and contributes 16% to the effective radiative forcing of well-mixed greenhouse gases over 1750-2019 (Forster et al., 2021). Considering its short life time of around a decade, CH₄ bears a high potential for mitigation strategies in order to reach the aim of the UNFCCC Paris Agreement to abate climate warming (Nisbet et al., 2019). Recently, the European Union and the UK signed up to the Global Methane Pledge with the aim to cut global CH₄ emissions by at least 30% from 2020 levels by 2030 (European Commission, United States of America, 2021).

The oil and gas sector has been estimated to account for 22 (18-27)% of global anthropogenic CH₄ emissions (bottom-up 2017; Saunio et al., 2020). Onboard offshore oil and gas platforms, CH₄ is emitted during routine operations due to safety and operational reasons (e.g. shutdown or start-up of equipment during production) by either controlled venting or flaring, i.e., the release of gas or burning of gas. In the latter case, CO₂ is released simultaneously, with the CH₄/CO₂ emission ratio dependent on the flaring efficiency. According to the United Kingdom Continental Shelf (UKCS) Flaring & Venting report (Oil and Gas Authority (OGA), 2020), in 2019 a total of 2600 metric tonnes (t) CH₄ was emitted in the Southern North Sea and the minor Irish Sea region, of which 74% comes from venting, 13% from turbines and engines, 10% are fugitive emissions (e.g. from leaky valves or compressors) and 3% flaring. Carbon dioxide emission was 0.8 Mt in the same year, arising mainly from turbines and engines (95%) with minor contribution of flaring (4%) and venting (0.01%). Flaring accounts for 87% and venting 13% of the total CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from venting and flaring. Flaring emissions consist of 99% CO₂ and 1% CH₄ and venting emissions of 98% CH₄ and 2% CO₂. Dutch CH₄ emissions from the extraction of crude oil and natural gas on the Netherlands Continental Shelf (Dutch Pollutant Release and Transfer Register, 2019) amount to 6500 t in 2019, of which 98% comes from venting and fugitives, 1.6% from the usage of natural gas (e.g. as fuel for combustion) and 0.2% from flaring. Carbon dioxide emission was 1.1 Mt with a share of 99% from usage of natural gas, 0.8% from flaring and 0.2% from venting and fugitives. Flaring accounts for 33% and venting/fugitives 67% of the total CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from venting/fugitives and flaring. Flaring emissions consist of 99.7% CO₂ and 0.3% CH₄ and venting/fugitive emissions are 89% CH₄ and 11% CO₂.

In Europe the UK is the second largest and the Netherlands the third largest natural gas producer after Norway (Eurostat, 2018). Most of the UK offshore dry gas production takes place in the Southern North Sea region, which comprises 81 dry gas

fields with 181 installations. In 2019, 492 bcf (billion cubic feet) of dry gas was produced. In comparison, the Dutch offshore
65 gas production was 348 bcf from 181 offshore gas fields located in the Southern North Sea.

Several studies indicate that bottom-up inventories underestimate emissions from the oil and gas industry (MacKay et al.,
2021; Saunio et al., 2020; Gorchoy Negron et al., 2020; Schwietzke et al., 2016; Pétron et al., 2012). Unintended leaks can
significantly contribute to CH₄ emissions (Varon et al., 2019; Pandey et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018; Zavala-Araiza et al., 2017;
Conley et al., 2016; Lyon et al., 2015). Top-down emission estimates from direct measurements close to sources can help to
70 independently validate bottom-up estimates in inventory data. A better understanding, monitoring and verification of CH₄
emissions associated with oil/gas operations is crucial part of the European Methane strategy (European Commission, 2020).

Studies on measurements of CH₄ emissions from offshore platforms are still rare. Ship-based measurements were conducted
in the U.S. Gulf of Mexico (Yacovitch et al., 2020), in Southeast Asia (Nara et al., 2014) and in the North Sea (Riddick et al.,
2019; Hensen et al., 2019). CH₄ emissions from the vicinity of 3 UK gas platforms in the Southern North Sea measured by
75 Riddick et al., 2018, are 17.6 - 20.5 kg h⁻¹. In this study, observations were taken onboard small boats at an altitude of ~2.5 m
(above sea level). The measurements relied on a Gaussian plume model to estimate the vertical resolution of a plume, resulting
in a total uncertainty of 45%. Hensen et al., 2019, determined CH₄ fluxes around 5 Dutch facilities in the Southern North Sea
using a combination of measurements taken 35 m above sea level, a Gaussian plume model and a tracer-release experiment.
The results range from 10 kg h⁻¹ to 194 kg h⁻¹.

80 In contrast to ship-based measurements, the mobility of aircraft allows for sampling of emission plumes both horizontally and
vertically, and thus, airborne measurements provide more detailed information on marine boundary layer conditions which are
known to be complex. To the best of our knowledge, the only airborne measurements around offshore facilities conducted so
far took place in the Sureste Basin, Mexico (Zavala-Araiza et al., 2021), in the U.S. Gulf of Mexico (Gorchoy Negron et al.,
2020), in the Norwegian Sea (Foulds et al., 2022; Roiger et al., 2015) and in the North Sea (Lee et al., 2018; Cain et al., 2017).
85 Lee et al., 2018, determined CH₄ fluxes higher than 4500 kg h⁻¹ arising from an uncontrolled CH₄ blow out around one
installation in the Central North Sea.

Our paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, we briefly introduce the aircraft instrumentation and sampling strategy applied
during the field campaign in the Southern North Sea. We describe the mass balance method used for the calculation of CH₄
fluxes and give an overview of the emission inventories. In Section 3, we discuss our measurements and compare the estimated
90 fluxes with the annualized Global Fuel Exploitation Inventory (GFEI) (Scarpelli et al., 2019), UK annually reported data (UK
National Atmospheric Emissions Inventory (NAEI), UK Environmental and Emissions Monitoring System database (EEMS)),
and with individual reporting by operators of the sampled Dutch platforms. Additionally, we compare our estimated fluxes
with ship-based measurements, which were taken around the sampled Dutch platforms in 2018 (Hensen et al., 2019). Finally,
we set the findings into a wider context by comparing them with results from aircraft observations in two other offshore regions
95 (Norwegian Sea (Foulds et al., 2022), Gulf of Mexico (Gorchoy Negron et al., 2020)).

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Campaign 2018/2019 in the Southern North Sea

In April-May 2019 airborne measurements of emissions from offshore installations in the Southern North Sea were conducted within the framework of the United Nations Climate & Clean Air Coalition (UN CCAC) objective to help characterize global CH₄ emissions arising from the oil and gas industry. In a previously conducted campaign in 2018, regional survey flights were performed for method development purposes. In 2019, the flight strategy was adapted in order to sample emissions from dedicated installations, which were chosen because of available inventory emission estimates (UK sites, NAEI) and previous ship-borne measurements (NL sites, Hensen et al., 2019). France et al. (2021) describe the instrument payload and the sampling strategy for both campaigns. Here we extend this study with a quantification of CH₄ emissions for the studied offshore platforms in 2019.

Figure 1 depicts the flight patterns for 2019. A total of five flights were conducted in the Southern North Sea region. Both UK and Dutch sites of offshore gas facilities were surveyed. One flight (F326) was aborted due to poor weather conditions. Platform positions were taken from the Oil and Gas Authority (OGA) for UK sites and the Dutch Oil and gas portal (NLOG) for Dutch sites. Multiple vertically stacked transects in a 2D plane were flown downwind of targeted platforms to fully capture the vertical extent of a plume. Measurements were made at distances varying from 2 to 7 km from the facilities at altitudes between 45 m - 1300 m above sea level. The flights took place in the afternoon hours, when the boundary layer was expected to be well-mixed. The boundary layer height was determined from abrupt changes in observed potential temperature gradient which mark the boundary layer top, using meteorological data sampled during the vertical profiling of the aircraft.

The DHC6 Twin Otter research aircraft, operated by the British Antarctic Survey (BAS), was equipped with several instruments to collect in situ data of atmospheric trace gases. A Picarro G2311-f 10 Hz Analyser measured dry-air CH₄ and CO₂ mole fractions at a response time of 0.4 s and at a precision of 1.2 ppb (1 σ @ 1 Hz) for CH₄. A tuneable infrared laser direct absorption spectrometer (TILDAS, Aerodyne Research Inc.) was deployed to detect C₂H₆ (response time < 2 s; precision 50 ppt over 10 s) (Yacovitch et al., 2014). To assess boundary layer physics, sensors for temperature, pressure, humidity and 3D-wind were mounted at the front nose of the aircraft. A NOAA “Best Air Turbulence” probe was installed at the boom of the aircraft and provided wind measurements at a resolution of 50 Hz (Weiss et al., 2011; Garman et al., 2006). More details on the instrumentation and its calibration procedures are given in France, et. al. (2021).

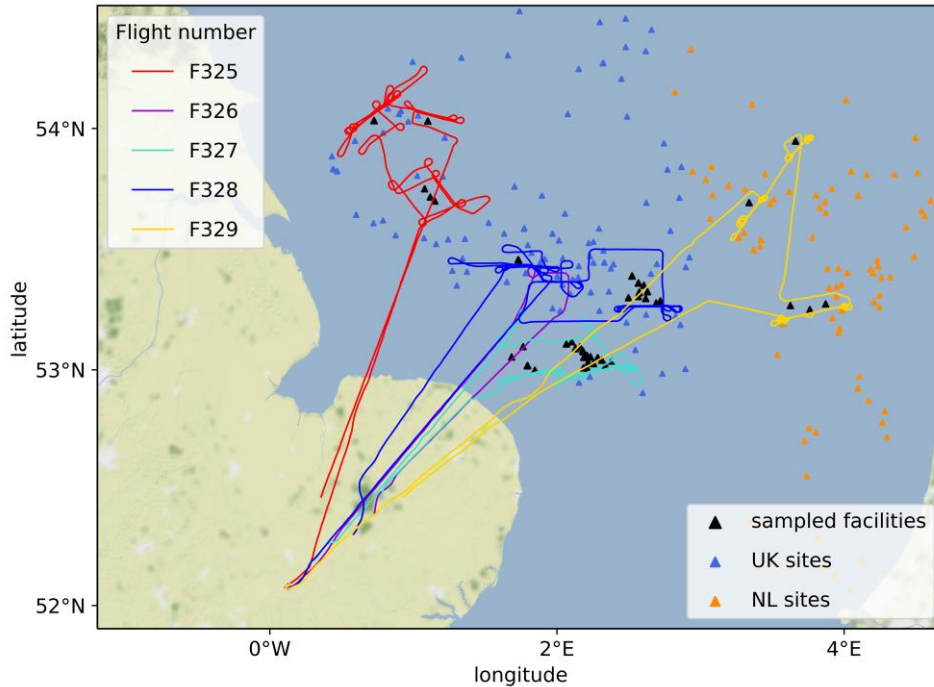


Figure 1. Aircraft tracks for the 2019 campaign in the Southern North Sea (lines). Location of all offshore facilities in the UK (blue markers) and Dutch (orange markers) region and the sampled facilities (black markers).

2.2 Flux calculation method

We apply the mass balance method to determine the amount of CH₄ emitted by the platforms/ multi-platform complexes and passing through a ~~vertical-2D~~ vertical plane downwind (e.g. Pitt et al., 2019; Klausner et al., 2018; O’Shea et al., 2014). For the flux calculation, measured wind speeds in the target region are required to be relatively steady. In general, the mass balance method is applied with the approximation that the plume is vertically well-mixed within the planetary boundary layer. However, to reduce the uncertainty of this approximation under the given meteorological conditions, we conduct horizontal transects at several altitudes to get a higher resolution of the dispersed plume in the vertical. Thereby, we subdivide the 2D vertical plane into discrete mixing layers to account for a possible non-uniformly spread plume. Further, under the given meteorological conditions the plume should be vertically well mixed within the planetary boundary layer. Equation (1) is used to derive the CH₄ flux (unit mass per time) across each individual horizontal transect i within the plane, followed by an integration over the vertical plume extent:

$$Flux_i = \Delta C_i \cdot \frac{p_i M}{R \cdot T_i} \cdot V_{\perp} \cdot \Delta x_i \cdot D_i \quad (1)$$

ΔC_i represents the difference of CH₄ mole fractions measured in- (C_i) and outside (C_0) of the plume ($\Delta C_i = C_i - C_0$). The background mole fractions C_0 during the time of flight through the plume are individually calculated for each transect. Thereby

we use the average CH₄ mole fractions over a 30 s time span at either side of the plume and interpolate linearly in between to account for any drift in background. CH₄ mole fractions are converted to a CH₄ mass density by applying the ideal gas law, i.e. multiplication with molar mass M , the ideal gas constant R and measured pressure p_i and temperature T_i . The CH₄ mass density is then multiplied with the average wind speed V_{\perp} perpendicular to the flight track, which is calculated from the measured average wind speed, wind direction and aircraft heading over all transects. Finally, the CH₄ flux for each single transect is obtained by multiplying with the plume width Δx_i and the vertical depth of each mixing layer D_i . ~~The subdivision of the 2D vertical plane into discrete layers is applied to account for a possible non-uniformly spread (or dispersed) plume.~~ The enhancement measured in each transect is assumed for a layer reaching halfway to the next upper/lower transect. We use all horizontal transects for the flux calculation with the highest transect, where enhancements are found, as the upper plume boundary. In the case where CH₄ enhancements were detected up to the highest transect of the aircraft, we use the boundary layer height as the maximal upper plume boundary assuming that the entrainment flux is small. The boundary layer height is inferred from inspection of the vertical gradient of the potential temperature, which is calculated using the in-situ measured meteorological parameters (Stull, 1988). In case of enhanced CH₄ being detected in the lowest transect, the surface is assumed as lower plume boundary.

As a result, the bulk net CH₄ flux through the plane $Flux_{total}$ is the sum over the fluxes $Flux_i$ calculated for each transect i where CH₄ was enhanced:

$$Flux_{total} = \sum_i^{transects} Flux_i \quad (2)$$

Our flux calculation method is similar to the method applied by Foulds et al. (2022), but differs slightly in the calculation of ΔC_i . Foulds et al. (2022) calculate the background CH₄ mole fractions over a greater time period (50 s) due to a more variable CH₄ background seen in the Norwegian Continental Shelf. In the Appendix A, the CH₄ flux calculation is illustrated by using observations of platform P1 on 30 April 2019. Detailed information on the uncertainty calculation method is provided in the Appendix B.

2.3 Emission inventories

In our comparison with bottom-up estimates we refer to a globally gridded annual inventory based on IPCC Tier 1 methods (IPCC, 2006), UK national point-source inventories and facility-level reporting by Dutch operators.

2.3.1 Globally gridded annual inventory of CH₄ emissions from fossil fuels exploitation

The Global Fuel Exploitation Inventory (GFEI) (Scarpelli et al., 2019) is a globally gridded 0.1° x 0.1° inventory containing CH₄ emissions arising from fossil fuel exploitation for the year 2019. National emission totals, which are based on country-specific emission factors, are reported to the UNFCCC (United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change) and used in the inventory for a spatial downscaling to the locations of potential sources (Scarpelli, 2020). Thereby, global data sets for oil and gas infrastructure are used. The UK UNFCCC reporting for emissions from the offshore oil and gas exploitation is

based on the UK Environmental and Emissions Monitoring System (EEMS) database (Brown et al., 2022) and the Dutch reporting is based on the Dutch Pollutant Release and Transfer Register (Honig et al., 2022). In the UNFCCC reported data, fugitive emissions are already categorized into subsectors, whereas venting and flaring emissions are reported as totals. Thus, the latter are disaggregated by the inventory to the subsectors using IPCC Tier 1 methods (IPCC, 2006). As a result, the inventory resolves the different fossil fuels sectors (oil, gas, coal) and associated subsectors (distribution (fugitive), exploration (fugitive + venting + flaring), processing (fugitive, flaring), production (fugitive, flaring), storage (fugitive) and transmission (fugitive, venting)). We compare our emission estimates with the GFEI v2 data set for total global fuel exploitation for gas from the Harvard Dataverse (Scarpelli et al., 2019). Thereby, we take the inventory data given for each grid cell (Mt/km²) and calculate the emission from the grid cell area.

2.3.2 UK annual point-source inventories

The UK Environmental and Emissions Monitoring System (EEMS) database is the environmental database of the UK oil and gas industry maintained by the Offshore Petroleum Regulator for Environment and Decommissioning (OPRED) and the UK Department for Business, Energy & Industrial Strategy (BEIS). It provides annual data from measurements and calculations made for single offshore installations based on reported data from operators. According to the EEMS Atmospheric Emission Calculations (OPRED (BEIS), 2008), monitoring systems of emitted gases are rare at offshore installations. Where no direct measurement data is available, the emission is calculated by the inventory multiplying activity data (e.g. fuel consumption or flow to flare/venting stack) with locally derived or default emission factors, which are mainly taken from literature. Inventory sources for CH₄ and CO₂ are differentiated into: engines, heaters and turbines for either diesel, fuel oil or gas consumption; total fugitive emissions; gas flaring from maintenance, routine or upsets/other; total gas venting and emissions from ship oil loading. Latest EEMS data is available for 2018 and 2019.

The UK National Atmospheric Emissions Inventory (NAEI) is an emission database listing all UK point-sources and is provided by BEIS. For offshore oil and gas installations it is based on the Emissions Trading Scheme (ETS) dataset for combustion and flaring sources and on the EEMS inventory for fugitives, venting and other sources such as oil loading (with combustion and flaring data only used if not available in ETS) (Brown et al., 2023; personal communication with the technical director for the NAEI). The inventory compilation process includes quality checks against other reporting systems such as the Petroleum Production Reporting System (PPRS), which also reports venting, flaring and gas use data. In the NAEI inventory, emission data is aggregated for all platforms associated with a certain oil or gas field (NAEI, 2020). Offshore emission data is available for CH₄ and for CO₂. The fluxes observed in this study arise from installations within a certain field and are compared to the inventory data from 2018.

2.3.3 Facility-level reporting by platform operators for the survey date

For the sampled Dutch sites facility-level operator-based reporting on CH₄ emission was provided after the flights. The OGMP 2.0 level of the reporting corresponds to level 3, i.e. using generic emission factors for individual source types. The reporting comprises information on the status of the installation (producing or offline on an hourly basis), the total amount of gas produced and CH₄ and CO₂ emissions on the survey day including additional information on emission types and sources (venting, flaring, fugitives). Such information was unavailable for the UK facilities upon request via the trade association Oil & Gas UK.

3 Results

The flight conditions during the flights selected for this study were generally good with moderate wind speeds (3-8 m/s). The number of horizontal transects conducted downwind of the sampled installations and used for the flux calculation range from 4 to 9. For one flight the flux calculation for two installations was not successful due to a poorly defined plume. As a result, CH₄ emission fluxes have been determined for six UK and five Dutch facilities sampled during flight surveys on 30 April 2019, 2 May 2019 and 6 May 2019, using the mass balance method described above. The installations, for which the flux calculation was successful, comprise 17% of the UK SNS dry gas production (OGA, 2019) and 6% of the Dutch offshore dry gas production (NLOG, 2019). Under the prevailing conditions found during the three flights, the level of detection, which is a result of the maximum uncertainty of all measured flux calculation parameters (wind speed V_{\perp} , layer depth D_i , CH₄ enhancement ΔC_i , pressure p_i , temperature T_i , plume width Δx_i), is 0.3 kg h⁻¹ (2σ). No CH₄ enhancement was detected downstream of 4 out of 11 specifically targeted platforms (P3, P5, P6, P9 in Table 1). In addition, a number of several other platforms were passed downwind with no indication of CH₄ enhancements. These observations are listed in the Appendix E.

In this section we compare our measured CH₄ fluxes with reported emissions and ship-based measurements for Dutch sites. Further, we present observed correlations between CH₄, C₂H₆ and CO₂.

3.1 Comparison of calculated and reported CH₄ fluxes

In the following, the top-down results of the 2019 measurements are compared to the most recent available bottom-up estimates from globally gridded and national point-source annual inventories from the years 2018 (NAEI, EEMS), 2019 (EEMS, GFED) and to daily operator-based facility-level reporting. We also compare our results to a ship-based top-down study conducted by Hensen et al., 2019, for the sampled Dutch sites. Observational based top-down methods only provide “snap-shot” emission estimates representing emissions only for the time of the measurements. This means that a) to allow for a comparison the yearly inventory data needs to be scaled to the temporal resolution of the measurement (or vice-versa), and b) a detailed one-by-one comparison is hampered, which is especially true for cases when observations are made during times of non-typical operational conditions, as well as for intermittent emissions (Foulds et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2022). Therefore, for the

comparison with inventories a set of “snap-shot” measurements around a group of sites, which represent a distribution of emissions in a region, are preferred over a one-by-one comparison (Tullos et al., 2021).

230 Figure 2 and Table 1 show the estimated top-down CH₄ fluxes along with the reported bottom-up fluxes for all sampled installations P1-P11. Typically, one installation denotes a platform for drilling, accommodation and production. P3 consists of 3 platforms, and P6 has one central platform with 3 satellite platforms. P4 and P5, both multi-platform complexes, have two central platforms with a compression unit and a terminal and several more producing platforms around. P4 consists of two central platforms, 6 platforms for production and 3 wellhead platforms (19 platforms in total). P5 has two central platforms, 4 platforms for production and 3 wellhead platforms (15 platforms in total). Emissions in both regions are the same magnitude and range from 12.1 kg h⁻¹ to 86.5 kg h⁻¹. Only the multi-platform complex P4 stands out with higher emissions (1258.7 kg h⁻¹). The relative uncertainties of the determined fluxes range from 23% to 70% with the wind measurements as main contributor (> 90%).

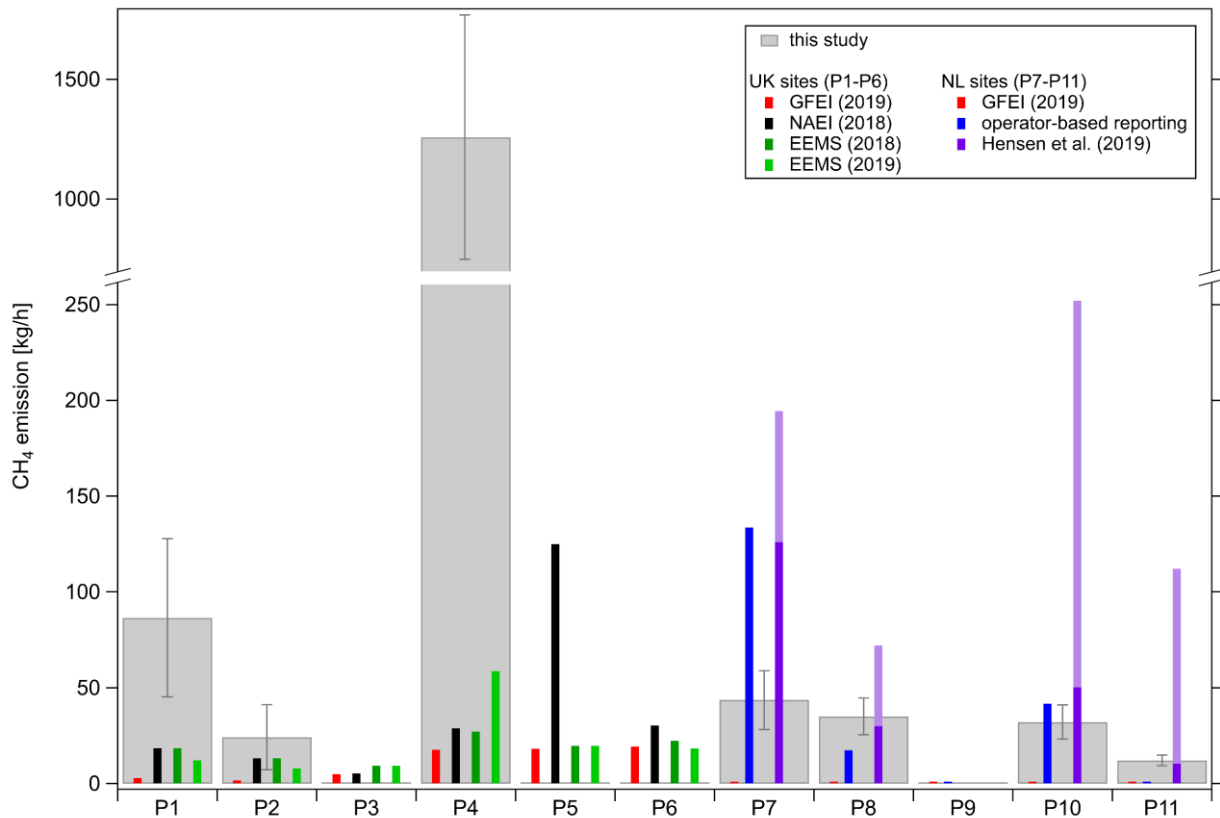


Figure 2. Comparison of calculated CH_4 fluxes from this study (grey) for UK sites (P1-P6) and Dutch sites (P7-P11) to the Global Fuel Exploitation Inventory (GFEI; red), the UK National Atmospheric Emissions Inventory (NAEI; black), UK Environmental and Emissions Monitoring System database (EEMS; dark green for 2018; light green for 2019), reported fluxes from operators (blue) and a ship-based top-down study (range in light purple; minimal flux in dark purple) for Dutch sites (Hensen et al., 2019). The inventory annual emission data is converted to hourly emissions. For 4 out of 11 targeted installations no downwind enhancements were detected (P3, P5, P6, P9). GFEI (2019) emission data for P7-P11 and operator-based reporting for P9 and P11 is smaller than 0.3 kg h^{-1} . Operator reported values were not available for UK sites.

Table 1. Observed CH₄ fluxes for UK and Dutch sites from this study and emissions from annual reporting from the UK National Atmospheric Emissions Inventory (NAEI, 2018), the UK Environmental and Emissions Monitoring System database (EEMS, 2018 and 2019) and the Global Fuel Exploitation Inventory (GFEL, 2019). For 4 out of the 11 targeted installations emissions are measured to be below the level of detection (LoD, 0.3 kg h⁻¹). Data from individual operator-based reporting on the specific survey date was available only for Dutch sites. Information on emission processes is given for venting (vent), fugitives (fug) and flaring (flar). Results from a ship-based top-down study (Hensen et al., 2019) is listed for 4 out of 5 sampled Dutch sites.

Survey date	30 April 2019			2 May 2019			6 May 2019				
	UK			UK			NL				
Country	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	P11
Installation				complex	complex						
CH ₄ flux [kg h ⁻¹]	This study	86.5 ± 41.2	24.2 ± 17.0	< LoD	1258.7 ± 510.1	< LoD	43.6 ± 15.4	35.1 ± 9.6	< LoD	32.1 ± 9.0	12.1 ± 2.8
	GFEL (2019)	2.9	1.6	4.9	18.1	19.3	19.1	0.21	0.003	0.006	0.01
all	gas processing -fug	1.3	0	0	0	0	7.5	0	0	0	0
	gas processing - flar	1.2	0	0	0	0	7.3	0.2	0	0	0
	gas production - flar	0.1	0.5	1.4	5.2	5.6	1.3	0.005	0.006	0.003	0.01
	gas exploration - fug, vent, flar	0.3	1.1	3.5	12.9	13.7	3.1	0	0	0	0
	NAEI (2018)	18.4	13.1	5.2	28.8	124.9	30.3	n.a.			
EEMS (2018/2019)	all	18.4 / 12.1	13.1 / 7.9	9.2 / 9.3	27.1 / 58.6 ^a	22.3 / 18.3	n.a.				
	turbines, engines	0.4 / 0.4	0.5 / 0.4	4.7 / 4.7	3.8 / 5.5	11.4 / 8.2	n.a.				
	fug	3.9 / 0	6.1 / 0	n.a. / n.a.	0 / 0	4.5 / 4.6	n.a.				
	vent	14.0 / 11.6	6.5 / 7.5	4.5 / 4.6	23.3 / 53.1	3.8 / 6.8	n.a.				
	flar	0 / 0	0 / 0	0	0 / 0	0 / 0	n.a.				
Reporting by operators (survey date)	n.a.			n.a.			133.8	17.3	0.03 ^c	41.7	0
Ship observation (11/2018) (Hensen et al., 2019)	n.a.			n.a.			vent + fug	vent + fug	vent + fug	vent, no flar	no vent, no flar
	n.a.			n.a.			126 - 194.4	29.9 - 72	not sampled	50.4 - 252	10.4 - 18.4

^a reporting for 2 (2018) and 1 (2019) platform out of 19 platforms. ^b reporting for 1 (2018 and 2019) platform out of 15 platforms. ^c P9: offline (no dry gas production)

240 3.1.1 Comparison to a globally gridded annual inventory (Tier 1)

We compare our estimated fluxes with the GFEI v2 for 2019, which contains total CH₄ emissions from fossil fuels exploitation and a distribution of emissions per subsector. The platforms surveyed in this study are considered to be processing, production and exploration sites by the inventory. As an example, the total CH₄ emissions reported for P1 (2.9 kg h⁻¹) break down to: 44% estimated to arise from fugitives during gas processing, 43% from flaring during gas processing, 10% from exploration
245 (fugitives + venting + flaring emissions) and 4% from flaring during production. According to the inventory, UK emissions are fugitive, venting and flaring emissions, whereas emissions on Dutch sites arise only from flaring. For all sampled installations, operations other than exploration, production and processing are claimed to emit no CH₄.

Compared to the GFEI v2 data set for total CH₄ emissions from gas exploitation, the measured fluxes of (1369.4 ± 568.3) kg h⁻¹ are 21 times higher than GFEI data (65.9 kg h⁻¹) for all sampled UK facilities on aggregate. However, the highest emitting
250 UK site (P4 complex) is identified as the highest emitter by the GFEI, as well. The factor by which measured emissions around Dutch sites are underestimated by the GFEI is an order of magnitude higher compared to UK sites: Measured fluxes ((122.9 ± 36.8) kg h⁻¹) are 279 times higher than GFEI data (0.44 kg h⁻¹) on aggregate for all sites. This high discrepancy points to the weaknesses in using global inventories for field-specific emissions characterisations especially when compared with snap-shot measurement studies. However, similar to UK sites, the two platforms (P7, P8) with highest emissions measured
255 are correctly identified by the GFEI as the highest emitters.

For the sampled installations in this study, Dutch GFEI data is two orders of magnitude smaller compared to UK GFEI data. GFEI relies on UNFCCC reported emissions. Using the UNFCCC GHG Data Interface (UNFCCC, 2022), Dutch annual CH₄ fugitive emissions from the natural gas energy production sector and reported for the year 2019 are 14 times smaller compared to the UK equivalent. Further, in contrast to UK reporting, no data is reported for the natural gas subsectors exploration,
260 production and processing. Thus, GFEI values for Dutch sites can only arise from UNFCCC reported total venting and flaring emissions, since those are disaggregated by the inventory to the subsectors. For the sampled Dutch sites in this study, the inventory gives only flaring emissions from production and processing. Therefore, the UNFCCC reported Dutch emissions, which the inventory is based on, could explain the high discrepancy between GFEI Dutch and UK values.

A related study of 21 oil and gas facilities in the Norwegian Sea finds a better agreement of the GFEI v1 (2016) with the
265 measured fluxes being only a factor 1.4 higher in aggregate for all platforms (Foulds et al., 2022). Similar to the Dutch UNFCCC reporting, the Norwegian UNFCCC reporting does not show emissions for the natural gas subsectors exploration, production and processing. Considering that Foulds et al. sampled both oil and gas producing installations, the better agreement could possibly be attributed to UNFCCC reported emissions for the oil sector.

3.1.2 Comparison to UK annual point-source inventories

270 The annual estimates of the UK national point-source inventories NAEI and EEMS are smaller than the fluxes measured during this study. The measured fluxes for P1 and P4 are underestimated, while P2 agrees with both inventories within uncertainties. For 2018 the measurement-derived fluxes are a factor of ~6 (NAEI; 220 kg h⁻¹) and ~12 (EEMS; 109.7 kg h⁻¹) higher cumulatively for all sampled facilities. However, EEMS emission data for 2019 agree slightly better with the observations taken in 2019: Top-down estimates are a factor of ~11 higher compared to the EEMS reported data (125.8 kg h⁻¹). Most CH₄ 275 emissions of sampled installations and reported by EEMS are attributed to venting (35% - 96%) besides emissions arising from the operation of turbines and engines (0.1% - 50%). It is worth noting that for all platforms listed in EEMS, zero flaring emissions are reported. During the flights no visible flaring was observed. Nevertheless, flaring is stated to have a share of 3% of the Southern North Sea region's total CH₄ emissions in 2019 (OGA, 2020). The Global Gas Flare Catalog 2019 from the Earth Observation Group at the Payne Institute for Public Policy (Elvidge et al., 2015; Elvidge et al., 2013), which uses VIIRS 280 data, shows flaring in the North Sea region. However, for the sampled installations no flaring is observed in 2019, which confirms the inventories zero flaring claim at least for the sampled installations.

As discussed in section 2, EEMS data is fed into the NAEI inventory, hence we expect that NAEI 2018 reported values are the same or higher than EEMS 2018 data. A comparison between NAEI data and EEMS data from 2018 shows that NAEI numbers are consistent with EEMS for two (P1, P2) and higher than EEMS data for three (P4, P5, P6) UK platforms. However, for P3 285 the NAEI reported value is smaller compared to EEMS 2018. This could either indicate an error in the EEMS reporting or it might be that the emissions of P3, which consists of 3 platforms, are misallocated in the NAEI.

In EEMS emissions are listed for one specific platform, also in the case of multi-platform complexes (P4, P5). Those platforms might be interpreted as being representative platforms with the reported emissions being aggregated emissions for the complex. Regarding the multi-platform complex P4, we used the FLEXPART (FLEXible PARTicle) dispersion model (Pisso et al., 290 2019) to attribute the measured emission plumes to individual platforms located within the complex (see Appendix C). The platforms that the observed fluxes were attributed to do not match with the (representative) platforms listed in EEMS 2018/2019.

The discrepancy to UK national inventories detected in this study is higher than reported in previous airborne studies of other offshore regions. Zavala-Araiza et al. (2021) estimated offshore CH₄ emissions in the Sureste Basin, Mexico, to be more than 295 an order of magnitude lower than the values given in the Mexican greenhouse gas emission inventory. Gorchoy Negron et al. (2020) generated an airborne measurement-based inventory comprising offshore facilities located in the U.S. Gulf of Mexico. They showed that for shallow-water facilities CH₄ emissions are more than a factor of two higher than the estimate of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Greenhouse Gas Inventory (EPA GHGI) and the Gulfwide Offshore Activity Data System (GOADS) inventory.

300 **3.1.3 Comparison to facility-level reporting by platform operators for the survey date**

As expected, the smallest discrepancy between top-down and bottom-up estimates exists for the comparison with emission data of individual facilities provided by platform operators for the specific survey day. Operator-based reporting was only available for the five sampled Dutch installations (P7-P11). The facility-level estimates deviate by up to a factor of ~12 compared to the reporting, whereby two out of five facilities (P7, P10) are overestimated and another two facilities
305 underestimated (P8, P11). P9 is reported as offline on the survey day, which agrees with the measurements showing no elevated CH₄, C₂H₆ and CO₂. According to the operators, CH₄ emissions arise from venting and fugitives for 4 out of 5 installations (P7-P10). P10 is reported as offline during the time of flight, while emissions are still measured and smaller than the reported venting CH₄ emissions. For P11 no venting or flaring was recorded, although CH₄ was detected during the measurements conducted downstream. The measured emissions might be attributed to fugitives, which are not excluded by the operator in
310 this case. Flaring emissions are explicitly excluded only for two out of five installations (P10, P11). For P7-P9 flaring emissions could contribute, though. For all sampled Dutch installations together, we find that our estimated flux of (122.9 ± 36.8) kg h⁻¹ deviates by a factor 0.64 (ranging from 0.33-12 for individual facilities) from reported values (192.8 kg h⁻¹). A comparison with operator-reported data for offshore installations in the Norwegian Sea by Foulds et al. (2022) shows that although there are deviations for individual facilities, reported data agree similarly well on aggregate for a larger sample size (18 facilities)
315 with the measured fluxes being smaller than reported emissions by a factor 0.8 (ranging from 0.1-22 for individual facilities).

3.1.4 Comparison to a ship-based top-down study

The planning for the flight on 2019/05/06 around Dutch installations relied on a ship-based top-down study conducted by the Netherlands Organisation for Applied Scientific Research (TNO) in 2018 (Hensen et al., 2019). With the aim to derive CH₄ emission fluxes, measurements were taken at distances up to ~3 km downwind of 33 platforms in November 2018. CH₄ was
320 measured with a TILDAS spectrometer (Aerodyne Research, Inc.) and a Picarro instrument, whereby the inlet was installed at 35 m above sea level. The results shown in Table 1 were obtained by combining the measurements with a Gaussian plume model and a tracer-release experiment. The derived fluxes range from 10 kg h⁻¹ to 252 kg h⁻¹. For P8 and P11 our fluxes are within the range of the determined fluxes from the ship-based study, whereas in case of P7 and P10 our measured fluxes are smaller. For the studied 4 Dutch facilities in aggregate, our measured fluxes ((122.9 ± 36.8) kg h⁻¹) are smaller with respect to
325 the ship-based measurements (216.7 kg h⁻¹ - 536.8 kg h⁻¹) and deviate by factor 0.23-0.57.

3.2 Correlation between CH₄ and C₂H₆ for all platforms

For all sampled installations for which enhanced CH₄ was detected, we observe clear correlations with co-emitted C₂H₆, which is an indicator for fossil fuel emissions (Lowry et al., 2020; Peischl et al., 2018; Hausmann et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2015). C₂H₆ to CH₄ ratios of fossil fuels depend on the type of field/reservoir (gas, gas condensate, oil). Since the Southern North Sea
330 region contains predominantly dry gas fields with relatively low gas condensate (wet gas) production, we expect low C₂H₆ to

CH₄ ratios ranging from 1-5% (dry gas) and 5-10% (gas condensate) (Xiao et al., 2008, Jones et al., 1999) or 1-6% (dry gas) and > 6% (wet gas) (Yacovitch et al., 2014, Whiticar et al., 1994). We calculate an C₂H₆ to CH₄ ratio for each transect from the integrated plume area of the respective CH₄ and C₂H₆ enhancement, and take the average over all transects for each sampled installation. As an example for the calculation, Figure A2 (b) in the Appendix A shows the simultaneous enhancements in C₂H₆ and CH₄ for peak 5 of P1. Measured values range from 2.5% to 7.8% for all installations. We compare the measured ratios to reported values from the OGA Shell/ExxonMobil Geochemistry Database for Central North Sea (2017) for UK sites and the NLOG for Dutch sites (for all measured and reported values see Table D1 in the Appendix D). Compared to the measured ratios, the reporting underestimates the measurements for P7 and P10 and overestimates the measured value for P11, but is consistent for P4 and P8. In general, the dry gas and gas condensate binary categorization matches for the observed and reported ratios.

3.3 Correlation between CH₄ and CO₂ for selected platforms

Enhanced CO₂ mole fractions accompanied the CH₄ enhancements at five installations (P1, P2, P4, P7, P10) indicating a combustion source from either flared CH₄ or other combustion sources such as turbines or engines. For P8 and P11 C₂H₆ was enhanced while no CO₂ enhancement was observed (< LoD). Figure 3 shows the time series for a transect flown downwind of P1 with simultaneous enhancements in CH₄, CO₂ and C₂H₆ mole fractions as an example of the observed plumes. The CO₂ flux is determined from the gradient of a linear regression between the CO₂ and CH₄ enhancements since both species are detected by the same instrument (Picarro Analyser). Figure A2 (a) in the Appendix A shows the CH₄ to CO₂ scatter plot for P1. For three of the platforms (P1, P4, P10), CH₄ and CO₂ were well-correlated and CO₂ fluxes have been determined.

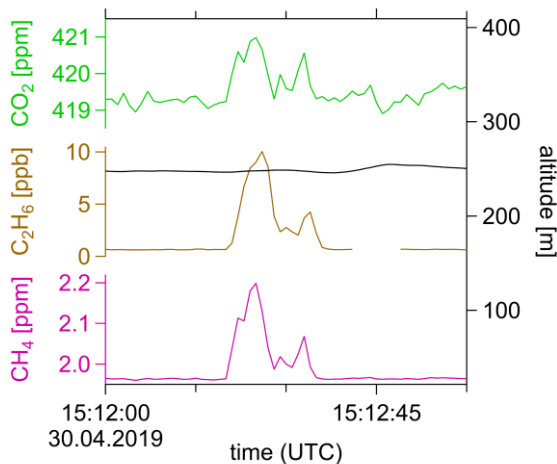


Figure 3. Time series (1 Hz) of a transect at 250 m altitude downwind of P1: Coinciding elevations in CO₂ (green), C₂H₆ (brown) and CH₄ (magenta) mole fractions. C₂H₆ is a tracer for fossil fuel emission and CO₂ indicates a combustion source.

350 Table D1 in the Appendix D shows the measured CO₂ fluxes along with inventory emission data from the UK point-source inventories NAEI and EEMS and Dutch operator data. For P1 EEMS 2018 and 2019 overestimate emissions, while the NAEI inventory states lower emissions, but matches within the uncertainties. Likewise, EEMS 2019 agrees within the uncertainties with measured CO₂ fluxes from P4, while both NAEI and EEMS 2018 underestimate emissions. According to EEMS, which categorizes emissions into turbines/engines, fugitives, venting and flaring, CO₂ emissions arise mainly from the combustion of diesel and gas in turbines and engines. Only for the platform complex P5 minor emissions from fugitives and venting are listed. In EEMS flaring emissions are zero for all UK platforms. This is inconsistent with data from the UK Oil and Gas Authority, which reports that 4% of CO₂ emissions in the SNS region are supposed to arise from flaring in 2019 (OGA, 2020). From the amount of CO₂ and CH₄ flaring emissions in 2019 in the SNS and Irish Sea region given in the Flaring and Venting Report (OGA, 2020), the unburnt fraction, i.e. the ratio of unburnt CH₄ to CO₂ from flaring emissions, is 6.4%. If we calculate this ratio for the sampled CH₄ and CO₂ plumes at the UK platforms, we get higher ratios: 12.4% (P1) and 14.7% (P4). This means that either there is no flaring on the platform, or if some flaring occurred, there were additional CH₄ fugitive or venting sources. Comparing to Dutch operator data, we find that around two Dutch platforms (P8, P11) no simultaneously emitted CO₂ was detected, although Dutch operator data states CO₂ emission on the survey date. For P10 we derive a CO₂ flux half the size of the emissions reported for the survey date. Dutch operator data explicitly excludes flaring sources for P10 and P11 (see Table 1) and lists only combustion sources such as turbines and engines. To sum up, from the measured total emissions we cannot clearly differentiate flaring from other combustion sources. But if there were any flaring sources, there must have been additional fugitive/venting CH₄ sources according to the measured CH₄ to CO₂ ratios.

3.4 Loss rates

In this section we determine loss rates, i.e. the ratio of gas lost to the atmosphere to dry gas production rates. We calculate the amount of gas lost to the atmosphere from the determined CH₄ emission rates and the CH₄ mol % from the OGA Shell/ExxonMobil Geochemistry Database for Central North Sea (2017) for UK sites and from the operator data for Dutch sites. UK production rates are given as monthly values by OGA. We include production from upstream fields with only subsea wells and no platform infrastructure. Dutch production data was provided by Dutch operators for the specific survey day. For three UK facilities (P3, P5, P6) no emissions were detected, although they were producing during the month of survey. According to the Dutch operator, P9 did not produce on the survey day, and we did not detect a plume either.

Determined loss rates for Dutch and UK sites are smaller than 1.0%, except for P4, which shows an higher loss rate of 3.1% (see Appendix E for individual production rates and loss rates). Besides the fact, that P4 is a multi-platform complex and relatively old, i.e. producing since 50 years, there is no indication of abnormal activities on the survey date.

3.4.1 Comparison with airborne studies in other regions (Norwegian Sea, Northern Gulf of Mexico)

Figure 4 depicts the determined CH₄ emission rates and production rates from this study compared to the results obtained in two other airborne studies conducted by Foulds et al. (2022) in the Norwegian Sea and Gorchov Negron et al. (2020) in the Northern Gulf of Mexico.

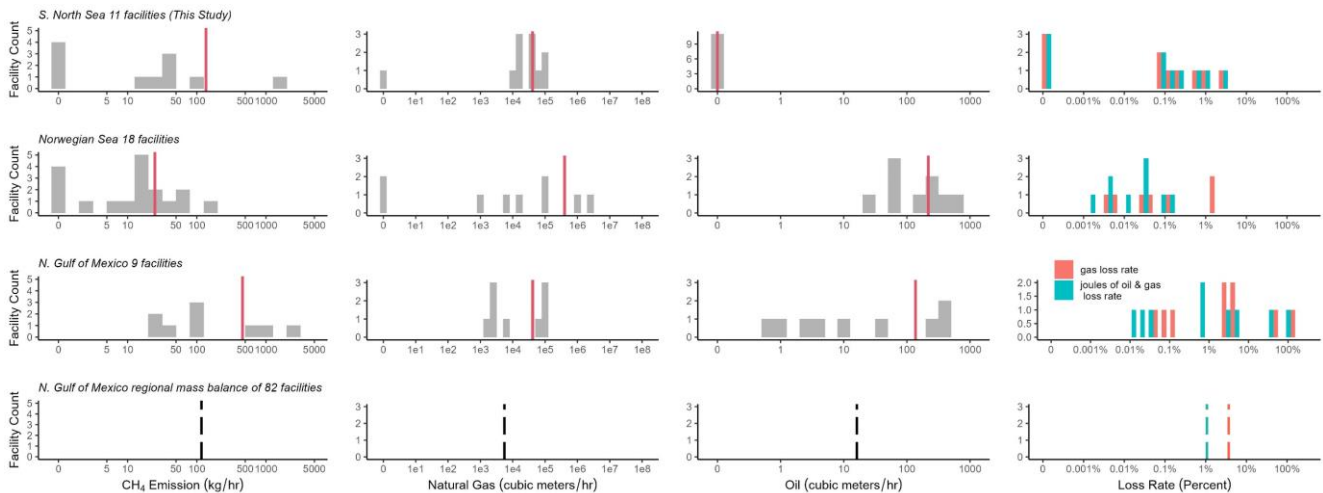


Figure 4. Comparison of measured CH₄ emission rates (first column), corresponding natural gas (second column) and oil (third column) production rates and loss rates (fourth column) in the Southern North Sea (this study) with two other airborne studies conducted in the Norwegian Sea (Foulds et al., 2022) and in the Northern Gulf of Mexico (Gorchov Negron et al., 2020). Red lines denote the respective average values. The dotted lines show the average value obtained in a regional mass balance in the Northern Gulf of Mexico. The facility count does not include satellite structures.

The CH₄ emission fluxes for individual facilities, i.e. rates, calculated in this study compare to the emission rates determined in the Norwegian Sea and in the Northern Gulf of Mexico (see left side of Figure 4). The emission rate of P4 is as high as the emissions measured around similar infrastructure types in the Northern Gulf of Mexico, i.e. multi-platform complexes in shallow water, which equally show emission rates higher than 500 kg h⁻¹. In the Gulf inconstant temporal variability of those infrastructure types was seen, what might correspond to the non-detectable emissions of the multi-platform complex P5. Comparing average absolute emission rates per facility (red vertical lines), the lowest average emission rates were determined around 18 facilities in the Norwegian Sea (24 kg h⁻¹) and highest emission rates around 9 facilities in the Gulf (457 kg h⁻¹) with a factor of 19 difference. Our average emission estimate in the Southern North Sea is 136 kg h⁻¹ and compares well with the average absolute emission rate in a regional mass balance in the Gulf with a larger sample size (117 kg h⁻¹). When excluding the multi-platform complex P4, the Southern North Sea average emission estimate amount to 23 kg h⁻¹, which compares well with the average emission rate in the Norwegian Sea, where no multi-platform complex was sampled.

In contrast to the Southern North Sea, where gas (with little gas condensate) production dominates, in the Northern Gulf of Mexico natural gas is produced as a side product from oil exploitation (associated gas) and in the Norwegian Sea both oil and gas production takes place. The natural gas production rates for the facilities in the Southern North Sea shown in the second column in Figure 4, are on average one order of magnitude smaller than in the Norwegian Sea and one order of magnitude higher than in the Gulf regional estimate, but almost the same value as the Gulf facility-wise estimate. Average oil production rates in the Norwegian Sea and in the Northern Gulf of Mexico are comparable.

Total loss rates, i.e. all gas lost to the atmosphere divided by total production rates in the respective region, can be determined either from gas production only or from the sum of oil and gas production. Thereby, we convert oil and gas production rate units according to the energy content. Considering only gas production, the total loss rate in the Southern North Sea (0.54% (0% - 3.1%)) is one order of magnitude higher than in the Norwegian Sea (0.02% (0.003% - 1.6%)) and one order of magnitude smaller than in the Gulf. The latter amount to 1.9% (0.04% - 128%) for the facility-level measurements and 3.7% for the regional measurements. Including oil production, total loss rates in the Norwegian Sea (0.01% (0.001% - 0.2%)) and in the Gulf (0.51% (0.01% - 112%)) for the facility study; 1.1% for the regional study) are reduced. Thus, total loss rates in the Southern North Sea and in the Gulf compare to each other, when including oil production, and total loss rates in the Norwegian Sea are still one order of magnitude smaller compared to the other regions, but span over 3 orders of magnitude.

410 **4 Conclusion**

We report CH₄ flux estimates for six UK and five Dutch offshore gas production installations in the Southern North Sea derived from airborne measurements conducted in spring 2019. We identified the observed CH₄ enhancements as emissions arising from natural gas based on co-emitted C₂H₆ and derive C₂H₆ to CH₄ ratios for each offshore installation. Comparison with a ship-based top-down study conducted around Dutch facilities in 2018 (Hensen et al., 2019) shows that our derived CH₄ fluxes

415 deviate by a factor 0.23-0.57 being smaller with respect to fluxes derived by Hensen et al. Our CH₄ flux estimates were compared with different bottom-up inventories available for this region, including the Global Fuel Exploitation Inventory (GFEI) (Scarpelli et al., 2019), the UK Environmental and Emissions Monitoring System database (EEMS), the UK National Atmospheric Emissions Inventory (NAEI), and direct facility-level reporting by Dutch operators. In general, the comparison for individual facilities shows a large discrepancy between the top-down derived emissions and all bottom-up (inventory and
420 reported) estimates, which may be expected because of the nature of single snap-shot measurements per facility in this study and potential temporal variability per facility demonstrated via repeat measurements by Foulds et al. (2022). The largest discrepancy exists with the annual emission data from the globally gridded GFEI inventory for the year 2019, showing that measured aggregated emissions from UK and Dutch sites are higher by a factor of ~ 21 and ~ 279, respectively. On the one hand, these high discrepancy factors reflect the weaknesses in using global inventories based on Tier 1 methods for field-
425 specific emissions characterizations, especially when comparing with snap-shot measurements. On the other hand, Dutch UNFCCC reported emissions, which the inventory is based on, are much smaller compared with UK UNFCCC reporting and could give rise to the exceptionally large factor for Dutch sites. Our top-down emission fluxes for all sampled UK installations in aggregate deviate from UK national annualized emission data from NAEI and EEMS for the year 2018 by factors of 6 and 12, respectively. NAEI inventory data, which is based on EEMS operator-based reported, is equal to or higher than EEMS,
430 except for one out of six installations. Latest UK national inventory data available for 2019 from EEMS deviate slightly less from the measurements with the latter being a factor 11 higher for all sampled UK facilities in aggregate. According to the EEMS inventory, CO₂ emissions measured around UK facilities and correlating with CH₄ emissions are solely attributable to combustion sources (turbines, engines) while flaring emissions are reported as zero for both CO₂ and CH₄. The measurements in this study cannot differentiate flaring from other combustive sources, and thus rule out flaring. Still, the measured ratios of
435 emitted CH₄ to CO₂ point at existing venting/fugitive CH₄ sources, whereby flaring sources could be contributing.

As expected, the best agreement with our flux estimates exists with facility-level reporting from Dutch operators for the specific survey date. The measurements deviate by a factor of 0.64 (0.33-12) and are smaller with respect to Dutch reported emissions for all sampled facilities in aggregate. Our results for operator-based facility-level reporting compare very well to a study
440 conducted in the Norwegian Sea by Foulds et al. (2022), which find their measurements deviating by a factor 0.8 and being smaller compared to the reporting by operators. We conclude that for sites with operator-based facility-level reporting in Dutch waters, – as suggested in the reporting framework Oil and Gas Methane Partnership 2.0 (www.ogmpartnership.com) – the highest accuracy is demonstrated compared to measurements. The adoption of facility-level estimation in national inventories would be expected to increase the accuracy of national CH₄ emissions accounting for the offshore oil and gas sector. To improve comparisons of top-down and bottom-up observation and resolve discrepancies, generating bottom-up inventories at
445 facility-scale and accounting for temporal variability when including top-down measurements would be extremely valuable.

A regional comparison to airborne studies in the Norwegian Sea (Foulds et al., 2022) and in the Northern Gulf of Mexico (Gorchov Negron et al., 2020) shows that the absolute facility-level emission rates agree with the general distribution found in other offshore basins. This is despite differing gas production rates, which span two orders of magnitudes across geographies. Including oil production rates, total loss rates of the Southern North Sea compare to total loss rates in the Gulf, whereas loss rates in the Norwegian Sea are one order of magnitude smaller. As a consequence of the similar absolute emission rates, mitigation is needed virtually equally across geographies. Further, average absolute emission rates in this study are substantially larger in the UK compared to NL, which is largely driven by one super-emitter in the UK. The emission of the super-emitter is as high as the emissions measured around similar infrastructure types (multi-platform complexes in shallow water) in the study in the Northern Gulf of Mexico, but additional sampling in future studies is needed to investigate representativeness.

Appendices

A. Example for flux calculation for P1

In the following, the CH₄ flux calculation is illustrated by using observations of platform P1 on 30 April 2019. Measurements were performed downwind at a distance of around 3-4 km from the platform (wind direction $(179.5 \pm 29.8)^\circ$; perpendicular wind speed $V_{\perp} = (3.2 \pm 1.5)$ m/s). To fully capture the emitted CH₄ plume dispersed within the boundary layer, which extended up to (420 ± 20) m, vertically stacked transects were flown between 97 m and 305 m. Figure A.1 shows the downwind horizontal transects with CH₄ mole fractions color-coded [in panel \(a\)](#) and the corresponding time series [in panel \(b\)](#). CH₄ enhancements were detected in all seven transects. We calculated CH₄ fluxes for each transect resulting in a total flux of (86.5 ± 41.2) kg h⁻¹. The uncertainty is given for confidence intervals of 1 standard deviation and arises mainly due to wind measurements. CO₂ fluxes are calculated using the slope of the linear regression between co-emitted CO₂ and CH₄ for the respective peaks. [Panel \(a\) in Figure A.2](#) shows the scatter plot for CO₂ and CH₄ for platform P1, where enhanced CO₂ was found for two peaks at altitudes above 240 m. [The observation of co-emitted CO₂ points to a buoyant plume adding up to the CH₄ plume at altitudes above 240 m.](#) [Panel \(b\) in Figure A.2.](#) shows the time series of measured CH₄ and C₂H₆ for the transect at 250 m altitude downwind of P1 to illustrate the calculation of the C₂H₆ to CH₄ (C2:C1) ratio. The peak areas for C₂H₆ and CH₄ enhancements over the background are shown in yellow. The C2:C1 ratio is calculated by dividing the integrated peak area of C₂H₆ by the integrated peak area of CH₄, which results in a C2:C1 ratio of 4.3% in this case.

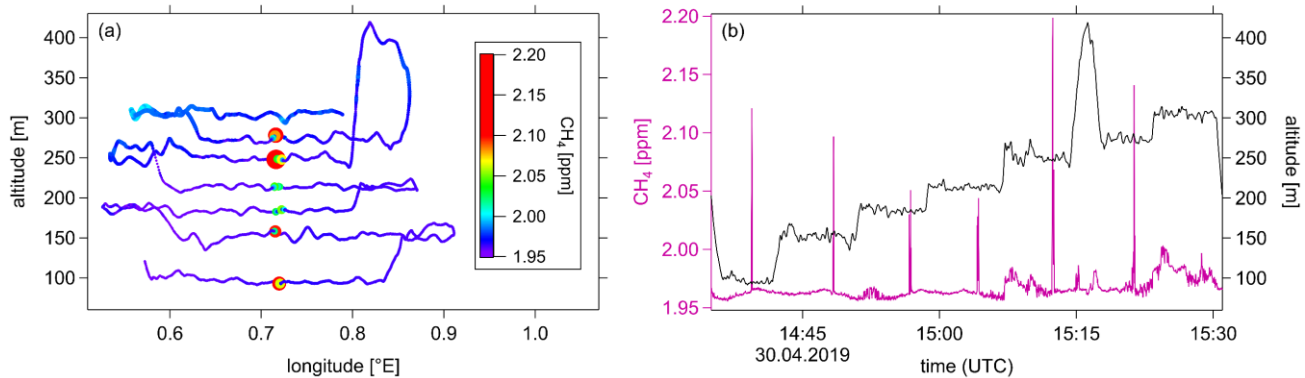


Figure A1. Example for measurements downwind of platform P1 during the offshore flight on 30 April 2019: (a) horizontal transects at altitudes between 94 m and 304 m above sea level. CH₄ enhancements are elucidated with a color-scale, whereby the size of plotted symbols is scaled to CH₄ mole fractions. (b) corresponding CH₄ time series.

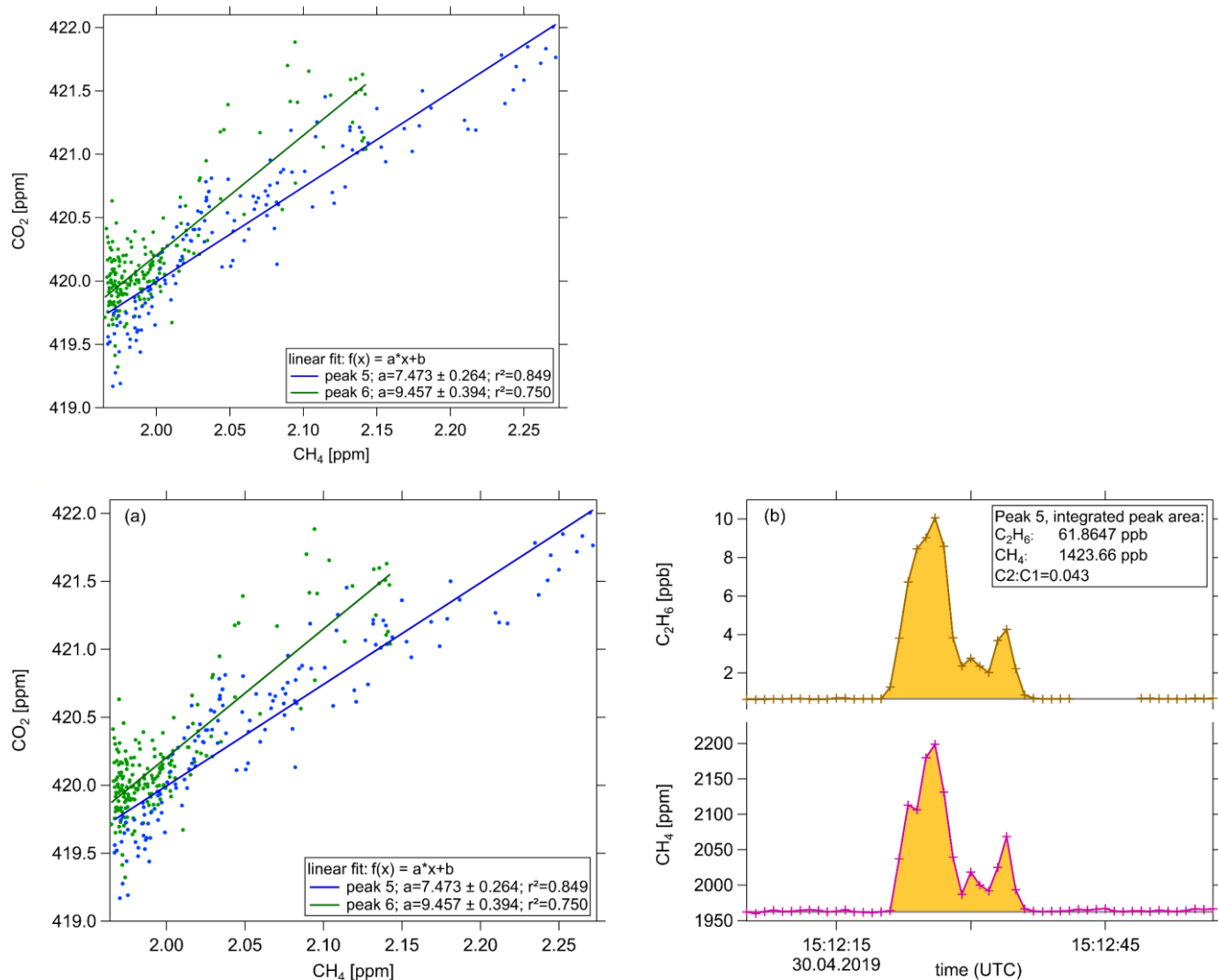


Figure A2. (a) Scatter plot for co-emitted CO₂ downwind of platform P1. Enhanced CO₂ was found for two peaks at altitudes above 240 m. (b) Time series (1 Hz) of the transect at 250 m altitude downwind of P1 (peak 5): Coinciding elevations in C₂H₆ (brown) and CH₄ (magenta) mole fractions. The C₂H₆ to CH₄ (C₂:C₁) ratio is calculated from the fraction of the integrated peak areas (yellow) over the background mole fractions (gray) and over the time span of the peak (18 s).

B. Uncertainty analysis for flux calculation

475 We use the Gaussian error propagation to determine the uncertainty of the flux calculation, represented as confidence intervals of 1 standard deviation (see eq. (1) in subsection 2.2). The uncertainties of the calculated CH₄ fluxes for each layer i result from the uncertainties of each measured parameter q (eq. B1). These parameters are the elevated CH₄ mole fractions ΔC_i , wind

speed V_{\perp} , pressure p_i , temperature T_i , plume width Δx_i and plume height D_i . The total uncertainty is the sum of the uncertainties of the fluxes calculated for each transect (eq. B2).

$$480 \quad u(Flux_i) = \overline{Flux}_i \cdot \sqrt{\sum_q^{parameters} \left(\frac{u(q)}{\bar{q}}\right)^2} \quad (B1)$$

$$u(Flux_{total}) = \sum_i^{transects} u(Flux_i) \quad (B2)$$

The beginning of the plume is defined as a measured concentration enhancement that is higher than 2 standard deviations of the background mole fractions. For ΔC_i the CH_4 mole fractions measured in- (C_i) and outside (C_0) of the plume are used. Both C_i and C_0 have a systematic uncertainty resulting from the Picarro instrument uncertainty of 1.2 ppb (France et al., 2021). The background mole fraction at each point j within the plume is determined from an interpolation between $C_{0,a}$ and $C_{0,b}$, which are the mean CH_4 mole fractions within 30 s before and after the plume. The uncertainty of the interpolated background at each point $u(\Delta C_{0,j})$ is calculated from the standard deviations $\sigma_{0,a}$ and $\sigma_{0,b}$ of $C_{0,a}$ and $C_{0,b}$ (eq. (B4)). The parameter n denotes the number of points within the plume.

$$u(\Delta C_i) = \sqrt{\sum_a^b (u(C_{i,j})^2 + u(C_{0,j})^2)} \quad (B3)$$

$$490 \quad u(\Delta C_{0,j}) = \sqrt{(\sigma_{0,a} \cdot \frac{n_i-j}{n_i})^2 + (\sigma_{0,b} \cdot \frac{j}{n_i})^2} \quad (B4)$$

We determine the perpendicular wind speed from the average aircraft heading, measured average horizontal wind speed and average wind angle over all transects. The uncertainty of the perpendicular wind speed $u(V_{\perp})$ is a result of the standard deviations and valid for all transects:

$$u(V_{\perp}) = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial V_{\perp}}{\partial heading} \cdot \sigma_{heading}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial V_{\perp}}{\partial wind\ speed} \cdot \sigma_{wind\ speed}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial V_{\perp}}{\partial wind\ angle} \cdot \sigma_{wind\ angle}\right)^2} \quad (B5)$$

495 For the uncertainties of pressure $u(p_i)$ and temperature $u(T_i)$ the standard deviations of the mean values across the plume and the 30 s background are taken.

The plume width is determined by the distance the aircraft covered while crossing the plume. Thereby, the velocity of the aircraft is multiplied with the time span of the plume. The uncertainty of the plume width $u(x_i)$ is derived from the uncertainty (standard deviation) of the measured velocity of the aircraft.

500 Since we assume a well-mixed plume within the boundary layer, the uncertainty of plume height $u(D_i)$ is characterized by the uncertainty arising from the estimation of the boundary layer height. Therefore, $u(D_i)$ is only relevant for the uncertainty of the flux calculated for the uppermost layer.

The uncertainty of the wind measurement is the biggest contributor to the total uncertainty of the flux calculation (typically 90%). Uncertainties of Measured wind speed and wind direction measurements show variations ranging range from 1-3 m/s (23-70% relative uncertainty at 1σ) and 8-39° (2-19% relative uncertainty at 1σ), respectively. ~~The uncertainty of the~~

perpendicular wind speed $u(V_{\perp})$ used for the flux calculation lies between 1-3 m/s (22-70% relative uncertainty at 1σ). The uncertainty of plume height ranges from 20-32 m and accounts for less than 10% of total uncertainty of for the flux calculated for the uppermost layer.

510 C. FLEXPART Dispersion Model: Example footprint analysis for the multi-platform complex P4 (backward simulation)

The model study concludes, that 9 out of 19 platforms of the complex could have contributed to the measured CH_4 enhancement (flight track with color-coded CH_4 in Figure C1). None of the possible emitters is listed in the inventories as single platforms.

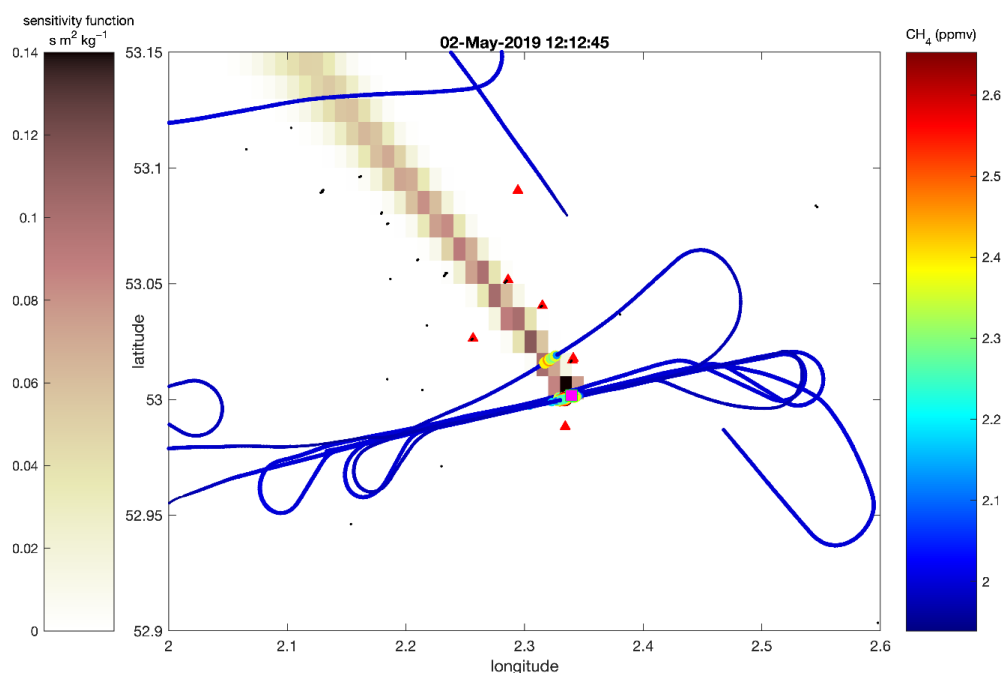


Figure C1: Footprint analysis for the multi-platform complex P4 (backward simulation) sampled during flight 327: The flight track is shown with color-coded CH_4 in units of ppm. The particle density is shown with a brownish scale. Black markers symbolize the installations in the area and red markers show all installations which could have contributed to the measured plume.

D. Comparison of C_2H_6 to CH_4 ratios and CO_2 fluxes with reported values

515

Table D1. Measured and reported (OGA, NLOG) C₂H₆ to CH₄ ratios for all sampled platforms at 2σ. All installations for which CH₄ was enhanced were accompanied by co-emitted C₂H₆. No detected C₂H₆ and CO₂ enhancements are indicated with < LoD. Measured CO₂ emissions are compared to UK inventory data (NAEI, EEMS) and Dutch operator data. Information on emission processes is given for venting (vent), fugitives (fug) and flaring (flar). CO₂ emissions are rounded to two significant digits.

Survey date		30 April 2019				2 May 2019				6 May 2019					
Country		UK				UK				NL					
Installation		P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	P11			
C ₂ H ₆ /CH ₄ [%]	This study	4.3 ± 0.2	2.5 ± 1.1	< LoD	2.8 ± 0.4	< LoD	< LoD	5.6 ± 0.5	4.3 ± 0.9	< LoD	7.8 ± 1.0	5.3 ± 0.7			
	OGA/NLOG	n.a.	n.a.	3.3	3.2	4.9	4.3	3.3	3.6	4.3	6.0	6.1			
CO ₂ flux [kg/h]	This study	640 ± 300	weak correlation	< LoD	21850 ± 8870	< LoD	< LoD	weak correlation	< LoD	< LoD	5290 ± 1580	< LoD			
	NAEI (2018)	410	390	200	3110	4160	1070	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.			
Reporting by operators	EEMS (2018/2019)	all	1490 / 1430 / 1430 /	740 / 740 / 740 /	11400 / 17110 / 11400 /	15260 / 11880 / 15260 /	3930 / 2180 / 3930 /	16520	330	0	10690	570	turbines, furnaces, vent	turbines, power generators	Turbines, engines, furnaces, diesel
		turbines, engines	1490 / 1430 / 1430 /	740 / 740 / 740 /	11400 / 17110 / 11400 /	15260 / 11880 / 15260 /	3930 / 2180 / 3930 /	16520	330	0	10690	570	turbines, furnaces, vent	turbines, power generators	Turbines, engines, furnaces, diesel
	fug	0 / 0	0 / 0	n.a. / n.a.	0 / 0	0.07 / 0.05	0 / 0	0 / 0	0.07 / 0.02 / 0.08	0.02 / 0.02	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0
	vent	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0.07 / 0.08	0.02 / 0.02	0 / 0	0 / 0	0.07 / 0.02	0.02 / 0.02	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0
flar	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0.07 / 0.08	0.02 / 0.02	0 / 0	0 / 0	0.07 / 0.02	0.02 / 0.02	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0	0 / 0
Reporting by operators		n.a.													

E. Production rates and loss rates (including non-emitting installations)

Figure E1 shows gas lost to the atmosphere, which is calculated from CH₄ emission rates and the CH₄ mol % (UK sites: OGA Shell/ExxonMobil Geochemistry Database for Central North Sea (2017); NL sites: operator data). The determined loss rates are the ratio of gas loss and dry gas production, i. e. normalized CH₄ emissions against natural gas production rates.

Table E1 shows platform production rates along with calculated loss rates. No loss rates were determined for installations, where emissions were below detection limit and thus, no enhancements measured (abbreviation “no enh.”). Z1-Z8 are non-emitting installations from fly-bys. Individual platform production data for 2019 were taken from the UK Oil and Gas Authority (OGA), the NLOG and operator reported data. UK production rates are given as monthly values by OGA. Thereby, we include production from upstream fields with only subsea wells and no platform infrastructure. Dutch production data was provided by Dutch operators for the specific survey day.

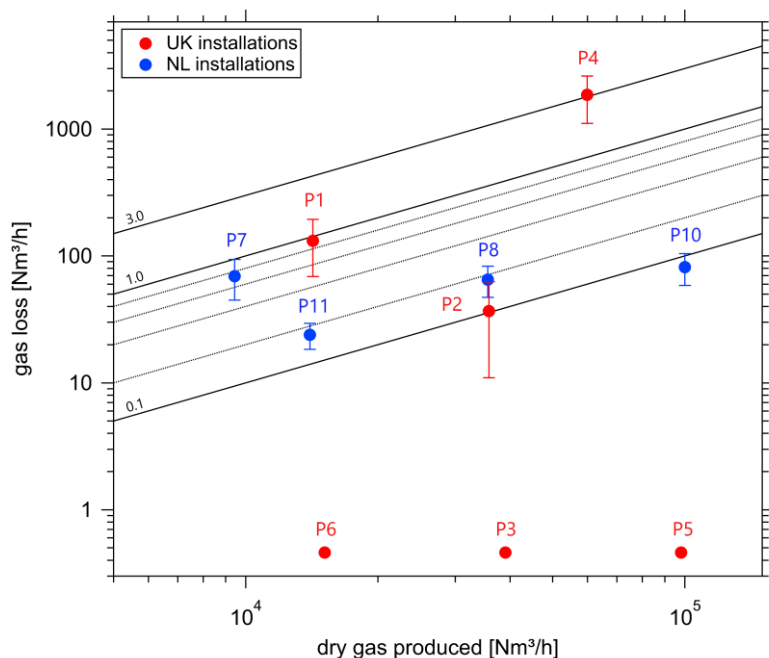


Figure E1. Gas lost to the atmosphere against the amount of dry gas produced in norm cubic meters (Nm³) per hour (UK: OGA, NL: operator data). Dutch platforms are shown in blue, UK platforms in red. Note that no downwind enhancements were detected for 4 installations (P3, P5, P6, P9) with only P9 (NL installation, excluded) not producing. Lines of constant loss rates (%) are shown in black.

Table E1. Reported production rates and calculated loss rates for sampled UK (P1-P6) and Dutch (P7-P11) installations. Z1-Z8 are (non-emitting) installations from fly-bys.

facility	Dry gas production (OGA (UK), NLOG (Dutch)) [Nm ³ /month]	Operator reported gas production [Nm ³ /day]	loss rate [%]	Start of production [yr]
P1 ^a	10238885 (+ 98 Nm ³ gas condensate)	n.a.	0.92 ± 0.42	1988
P2 ^b	25765475	n.a.	0.10 ± 0.07	1990
P3	28090814 (+ 44 Nm ³ gas condensate)	n.a.	no enh.	1967
P4 ^b	44571997 (+ 194 Nm ³ gas condensate)	n.a.	3.10 ± 1.19	1968
P5	72934875 (+ 72 Nm ³ gas condensate)	n.a.	no enh.	1968
P6 ^b	11259835 (+ 150 Nm ³ gas condensate)	n.a.	no enh.	1969
P7	855993	226383	0.73 ± 0.27	1977
P8	11049455	854000	0.18 ± 0.05	1983
P9	0	0	no enh.	1991
P10	28340954	2400000 ^c	0.08 ± 0.02	1994
P11	13314491	335996	0.17 ± 0.04	2005
Z1 ^d	3145322 (+ 3 Nm ³ gas condensate)	n.a.	no enh.	1993
Z2 ^d	14321737 (+ 198 Nm ³ gas condensate)	n.a.	no enh.	2003
Z3	0	n.a.	no enh.	1987
Z4	3794100	n.a.	no enh.	1985
Z5	0	n.a.	no enh.	2007
Z6	0	n.a.	no enh.	2004
Z7	13542079	n.a.	no enh.	2002
Z8	3251685	n.a.	no enh.	1990

^a Zero gas production for the month of survey. Production only of delivering subsea wells.

^b including one delivering subsea well

^c gas production with little gas condensate (gas condensate is injected back into export gas)

^d unmanned installation

Code and data availability

530 Access to the data is provided via request at the British Antarctic Survey Polar Data Centre.

Author contributions

The paper was written and figures were prepared by MP with contributions from AMGN. Modelling work was done by IP. All authors contributed to the discussion. The experimental design and flight planning were performed by GA, JL, TLC and DL. Aircraft set-up and in-flight measurements were performed by PB, PD, SA, SY, AW, TLC and JF. Laboratory
535 measurements were made by REF, and data processing and calibrations were performed by JF, LH, PB, JS, PD.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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