

Declining, seasonal-varying emissions of sulfur hexafluoride from the United States

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Abstract

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) is the most potent greenhouse gas and its atmospheric abundance, albeit small, has been increasing rapidly. Although SF₆ is used to assess atmospheric transport modeling and its emissions influence the climate for millennia, SF₆ emission magnitudes and distributions have substantial uncertainties. In this study, we used NOAA's ground-based and airborne measurements of SF₆ to estimate SF₆ emissions from the U.S. between 2007 and 2018. Our results suggest a substantial decline of U.S. SF₆ emissions, a trend also reported in the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)'s national inventory submitted under the United Nations Framework on Climate Change, implying that U.S. mitigation efforts have had some success. However, the magnitudes of annual emissions derived from atmospheric observations are 40 – 250% higher than the EPA national inventory and substantially lower than the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research inventory. The regional discrepancies between atmosphere-based estimate and EPA's inventory suggest that emissions from electric power transmission and distribution (ETD) facilities and an SF₆ production plant that did not or does not report to EPA may be underestimated in the national inventory. Furthermore, the atmosphere-based estimates show higher winter than summer emissions of SF₆. These enhanced wintertime emissions may result from increased maintenance of ETD equipment in southern states and increased leakage through aging brittle seals in ETD in northern states in winter. The results of this study demonstrate the success of past U.S. SF₆ emission mitigations, and suggest substantial additional emission reductions might be achieved through efforts to minimize emissions during servicing or through improving sealing materials in ETD.

Short Summary

Effective mitigation of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions relies on an accurate understanding of emissions. Here we demonstrate the added value of using inventory- and atmosphere-based approaches for estimating U.S. emissions of SF₆, the most potent GHG known. The

46 **results suggest a large decline in U.S. SF₆ emissions, shed light on the possible processes**
47 **causing the differences between the independent estimates, and identify opportunities for**
48 **substantial additional emission reductions.**
49

50 **Introduction**

51 Sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) is the greenhouse gas (GHG) with the largest known 100-year global
52 warming potential (GWP) (i.e., 25,200) and an atmospheric lifetime of 580 - 3200 years (Forster
53 et al., 2021; Ray et al., 2017). SF₆ is primarily used in electrical circuit breakers and high-voltage
54 gas-insulated switchgear in electric power transmission and distribution (ETD) equipment, and its
55 emissions occur during manufacturing, use, servicing, and disposal of the equipment. There is
56 also usage and associated emissions of SF₆ from production of magnesium and
57 electronics. Because of its extremely large GWP and long atmospheric lifetime, emissions of SF₆
58 accumulate in the atmosphere and will influence Earth's climate for thousands of years. Since
59 1978, global emissions of SF₆ have increased by a factor of 4 due to rapid expansion of the ETD
60 systems and the metal and electronics industries (Rigby et al., 2010; Simmonds et al., 2020). As
61 a result, the global atmospheric mole fractions and radiative forcing of SF₆ have increased by 14
62 times over the same period. In 2019, the radiative forcing of SF₆ was 6 mW m⁻² or 0.2% of total
63 radiative forcing from all long-lived GHGs, making it the 11th largest contributor to the total
64 radiative forcing among all the long-lived greenhouse gases and the 7th largest contributor among
65 gases whose atmospheric concentrations are still growing (i.e., other than CFCs and carbon
66 tetrachloride) (Gulev et al., 2021). If global SF₆ emissions continue at the 2018 rate (9 Gg yr⁻¹)
67 into the future, the global atmospheric mole fraction and radiative forcing of SF₆ will linearly
68 increase by another factor of 4 by the end of the 21st century (Fig. S1). If global emissions of SF₆
69 continue to rise at the same rate as 2000 – 2018, the global atmospheric mole fraction and radiative
70 forcing of SF₆ will increase by another factor of 10 by the end of the 21st century (Fig. S1).
71 Consistent with the large GWP of SF₆ emissions and its importance for influencing climate for
72 many years, national emissions of this gas are reported under the United Nations Framework
73 Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) annually by the U.S. Furthermore, accurate estimates
74 of the magnitude and distribution of SF₆ emissions are also important in studies to refine our
75 understanding of atmospheric transport processes in the troposphere and stratosphere (Orbe et al.,
76 2021; Waugh et al., 2013; Denning et al., 1999; Gloor et al., 2007; Peters et al., 2004; Schuh et al.,
77 2019; Ray et al., 2017; Maiss and Levin, 1994; Harnisch et al., 1996).

78
79 Although global emissions of SF₆ can be well constrained with knowledge of its observed remote-
80 atmosphere growth rates and its atmospheric lifetime, large uncertainties remain in the magnitude
81 and distribution of SF₆ emissions on national and regional scales. For example, the total annual
82 national emissions reported to the UNFCCC summed from its Annex I (mostly developed
83 countries) and some non-Annex I (mostly developing) countries (including China, one of the large
84 SF₆ emitting countries) account for only 50% of global annual SF₆ emissions derived from
85 atmospheric observations for the analyzed years (1990 – 2007) (Simmonds et al., 2020; Rigby et
86 al., 2010; Levin et al., 2010). This difference between activity-based inventory (“bottom-up”)
87 estimates and atmosphere-based (“top-down”) estimates may result from underestimates of
88 emissions by activity-based inventories (Simmonds et al., 2020; Rigby et al., 2010; Levin et al.,
89 2010; Weiss and Prinn, 2011) as well as from substantial emissions from non-reporting countries.
90 The results of activity-based inventories are sensitive to estimated activity levels and, especially,
91 emission rates. In the Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research (Janssens-Maenhout,

2011; Crippa et al., 2020), U.S. SF₆ emissions were up to five times larger than the emissions estimated by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and in their reporting to the UNFCCC (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2022a) (Fig. 1). The causes for this large difference are not fully known, but appear to arise largely from the ETD sector (Fig. S2). Uncertainties in EPA’s emissions estimates were also illuminated by a comparison between the SF₆ usage inferred from the user reports (which form the basis of EPA’s emissions estimates) and the SF₆ usage inferred from suppliers’ reports, which showed that supplier-based estimates were 70% higher than user-based estimates in 2012 (Ottinger et al., 2015).

Against this backdrop, we estimated U.S. SF₆ emissions between 2007 and 2018 using inverse modeling of atmospheric mole fraction measurements made from ground-based and airborne whole-air flask samples collected from the U.S. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Global Greenhouse Gas Reference Network (Fig. 1). The analysis provides robust emission estimates by region and season for the contiguous U.S. (CONUS). Our study offers an independent estimate that complements the current U.S. inventory-based national emission reporting of SF₆ to the UNFCCC. This effort exemplifies the quality assurance guidance laid out in the *2019 Refinement to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories*, which states “Atmospheric measurements are being used to provide useful quality assurance of the national greenhouse gas emission estimates. Under the right measurement and modelling conditions, they can provide a perspective on the trends and magnitude of greenhouse gas (GHG) emission estimates that is largely independent of inventories” (Maksyutov et al., 2019). In fact, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, and Australia have already included top-down atmosphere-based emission estimates in the QA/QC section of their national GHG emission reporting to UNFCCC (Fraser et al., 2014; Henne et al., 2016; Manning et al., 2021). The United States also started to include top-down estimates of four major hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) as a comparison to the U.S. national GHG inventory reporting in 2022 (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2022a). Derived national and regional SF₆ emissions from this analysis are accessible through NOAA’s U.S. Emission Tracker for Potent GHGs website (https://gml.noaa.gov/hats/US_emissiontracker).

Methods

Top-down atmosphere-based SF₆ emission estimates were derived using inverse modeling of NOAA’s long-term atmospheric measurements of SF₆ (https://gml.noaa.gov/aftp/data/hats/sf6/Data_in_Hu_et_al_2023/). Measurements made over North America were based on air samples collected by discrete flasks from tall towers and aircraft. The tall tower flask samples were typically collected every one to two days and airborne flask-sample profiles were collected once or twice per month between 0 and 8 km above sea level. Measurements made outside North America were from weekly whole-air samples collected globally, generally at remote locations far away from emission sources (<https://gml.noaa.gov/dv/site/>). All the whole-air flask samples were shipped to Boulder and analyzed by a Gas Chromatography with Electron Capture Detector (GC-ECD) for SF₆. Uncertainty of each SF₆ flask measurement is approximately 0.04 to 0.05 ppt, which includes uncertainties related to short-term measurement noise, long-term measurement reproducibility, and calibration scale transfer from gravimetric standards to working standards.

138 Mole fraction enhancements of SF₆ over the contiguous U.S. (Fig. 1) relative to SF₆ mole fractions
139 in air measured upwind were then estimated for deriving U.S. emissions. These enhancements
140 were estimated by referencing them to “background” mole fractions that were derived using three
141 different approaches. These approaches are similar to previous inversion analyses for other
142 atmospheric trace gases (Hu et al., 2021; Hu et al., 2017). In all three approaches, we constructed
143 an empirical 4-dimensional mole fraction field based on measurements made in air over the Pacific
144 and Atlantic Ocean basins and in the free troposphere above 3 km over North America, so that it
145 contains vertical and horizontal gradients of mole fractions measured in the remote atmosphere
146 over time. From this empirical background, we then extracted the mole fraction at the sampling
147 time and location of each observation and used it as our first background estimate. In the second
148 approach, we considered 500 air back-trajectories associated with each observation. Five hundred
149 background estimates were extracted from this empirical background at the locations where the air
150 back-trajectories exited the North American domain horizontally or where they were aloft above
151 5 km. In most cases, the majority of particles exited North America horizontally or vertically
152 within 10 days, but for those that remained within the domain after 10 days, background values
153 were derived from their positions 10 days after sampling. For midcontinent and eastern sites, there
154 were up to 20% of particles remained within the domain after 10 days. The 500 background
155 estimates were averaged to obtain the background mole fraction estimation for that observation.
156 In the third approach, we assessed potential biases in the background estimate from the second
157 approach, particularly because there was a small fraction of back-trajectories ending up in the
158 planetary boundary layer in North America after 10 days. Background mole fractions for these
159 particles were likely higher than estimated using the marine boundary layer information. To
160 minimize such biases, we corrected our background estimates from the second approach based on
161 their differences with measurements made within North America that had small surface
162 sensitivities over populated areas (Hu et al., 2017).

163
164 SF₆ mole fraction enhancements estimated in observations at North American sites were then
165 incorporated into a regional inverse model to estimate U.S. national and regional emissions,
166 following the same methodology as described in our previous inversion studies for other
167 anthropogenic gases (Hu et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2016). In regional inversions, we
168 assume a linear relationship between atmospheric mole fraction enhancements and upwind
169 emissions. The linear operator is called a ‘footprint’ or the Jacobian matrix, representing the
170 spatial and temporal sensitivity of atmospheric mole fraction observations to emissions. Footprints
171 were computed by two transport models, the coupled Weather Research and Forecasting -
172 Stochastic Time-Inverted Lagrangian Transport model (WRF-STILT) (Nehrkorn et al., 2010) and
173 the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory model (Stein et al., 2015) driven by
174 the North American Mesoscale Forecast System (HYSPLIT - NAMs). The WRF field has 41
175 pressure levels and a horizontal resolution of 10-km in North America and 40-km outside of North
176 America. The NAMs meteorology has a 12-km resolution and 40 sigma-pressure levels. Before
177 March 2009, when NAMs was not available; we used NAM-12 meteorology, which only has 26
178 vertical levels. NAMs or NAM-12 was nested with the U.S. National Centers for Environmental
179 Prediction (NCEP) 0.5° Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS0.5) with 55 sigma-pressure
180 levels. Both WRF-STILT and HYSPLIT-NAMs were run with 500 particles back in time for 10
181 days (e.g., Miller et al., 2013; Nevison et al., 2018; Miller et al., 2012; Gerbig et al., 2003). In
182 each run, particles were released at the sampling inlet heights. Footprints were then calculated by

183 integrating particles between the modeled surface to modeled boundary layer in each grid at each
184 timestep (Lin et al., 2003).

185
186 A Bayesian inverse modeling technique (Rodgers, 2000) was implemented, where a prior emission
187 field or “a priori” was required. The model adjusts magnitudes and distributions of the a priori at
188 a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ \times$ weekly resolution, such that the posterior solution of emissions better represents the
189 observed magnitudes, and horizontal and vertical gradients of mole fraction enhancements
190 observed in the U.S. Here, we used two different temporally-constant prior emission fields. The
191 first one was from the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research version 4.2
192 (EDGARv4.2) with a U.S. total SF₆ emission of 1.8 Gg yr⁻¹ in 2008. We used the 2008
193 EDGARv4.2 estimate and applied it for all years between 2007 – 2018 in our inversions.
194 EDGARv4.2 was the most recent grid-scale product offered by EDGAR at the time we conducted
195 our inversions. EDGAR version 7.0 (EDGARv7.0) became available only after this work was
196 submitted in late September of 2022. It extends this inventory emission through 2021 and its U.S.
197 total and regional SF₆ emissions for earlier years are similar to those in EDGARv4.2 (Figs. 1 and
198 2). Given the similarities of EDGAR v7.0 with v4.2 in distribution and magnitude and the
199 insensitive nature of our posterior results to these aspects of the prior (see below), we did not rerun
200 inversions with EDGARv7.0 as a priori. The second a priori includes a U.S. total emission of 0.4
201 Gg yr⁻¹ for 2007 – 2018. It was distributed by population density from the Gridded Population of
202 the World (GPW) v4 dataset (<https://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/data/collection/gpw-v4>, last
203 access: 15 March 2019). The weight between the prescribed prior emissions and atmospheric
204 observations in the final posterior emission solution was determined by the values in the prior
205 emission error covariance matrix and the model-observation mismatch covariance matrix, which
206 were calculated from the maximum likelihood estimation (Michalak et al., 2005; Hu et al., 2015).

207
208 In each inversion, the derived $1^\circ \times 1^\circ \times$ weekly emissions and emission uncertainties were
209 aggregated to derive emissions and uncertainties at regional and national scales and at monthly
210 and annual time steps. When calculating the posterior uncertainty, we considered the temporal
211 and spatial correlations of posterior errors in the derived full posterior emission covariance matrix.
212 The final reported emissions and emission uncertainties include results from a total of 12
213 inversions that have two representations of transport, two prior emission fields, and three
214 background estimates. Assume μ_i and σ_i represent the posterior emission estimate and its
215 associated 1-sigma error for the i th inversion. Our final estimate of emissions and its associated
216 uncertainty discussed in the text were calculated as the mean posterior emission and the 2-sigma
217 uncertainty ($2\sigma_t$) derived from Eq. (1).

$$218 \quad \sigma_t = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 + \dots + \sigma_{12}^2}{12} + \sigma_s^2} \quad (1)$$

219 where σ_s denotes 1-sigma spread or variability of the posterior emissions derived from all 12
220 inversions.

221

222

223 **Results and discussion**

224 **Declining SF₆ emissions from the U.S.**

225 The U.S. recognized that it had significant emissions of SF₆ in the 1990s and has taken steps to
226 reduce its national emissions. In the U.S., 60 – 80% of SF₆ emissions have historically been from
227 the ETD sector (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2022a) (Fig. 1). Outside the ETD sector,

228 smaller amounts of SF₆ are used in semiconductor manufacturing processes as a source of fluorine
229 to etch patterns onto chips and to clean thin film deposition chambers, and SF₆ is also used as a
230 cover gas in magnesium production and casting processes to prevent rapid oxidation of molten
231 magnesium. Both of these uses result in emissions. SF₆ emissions from magnesium processes
232 accounted for roughly 15 – 30 % of the U.S. total emissions reported by EPA between 1990 and
233 2018 (Fig. 1). While the magnitude of SF₆ emissions from the electronics manufacturing sector
234 has not changed much over time, its share of total U.S. SF₆ emissions in the EPA inventory has
235 increased from 2% in 1990 to 14% in 2018 as emissions from other industries have decreased.

236
237 Since 1999, the U.S. EPA has worked with the electric power industry through the voluntary SF₆
238 Emission Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems to identify, recommend, and
239 implement cost-effective solutions to reduce SF₆ emissions. There have also been regulations at
240 the state level to reduce SF₆ emissions from the ETD sector (U.S. Environmental Protection
241 Agency, 2022a). In addition, the EPA operated voluntary partnership programs with the
242 semiconductor and magnesium industries from the late 1990s through 2010 to understand and
243 reduce their emissions. These national- and state- level mitigation strategies, along with an increase
244 in the market price of SF₆ during the 1990s, have resulted in a substantial reduction in total U.S.
245 SF₆ emissions since 1990 (Fig. 1). In addition, before 2011, SF₆ was likely emitted from an SF₆
246 production plant that ceased producing SF₆ in 2010, according to data reported to the U.S. EPA.
247 Total U.S. SF₆ emissions estimated by the EDGAR version 4.2 or 7.0 inventory showed an
248 absolute decline over this period similar to that in the EPA National Greenhouse Gas Inventory
249 (GHGI), but EDGAR emissions were substantially larger on average (Fig. 1). Note that although
250 the U.S. national total in EDGARv7.0 suggests lower emissions than EDGARv4.2, this difference
251 arises only in the magnesium production sector. There were slightly higher emissions from the
252 ETD and electronics industries in EDGARv7.0 than in EDGARv4.2 over the U.S. (Fig. S2).

253
254 Consistent with the inventory reports, the independent, atmospheric observation-based results
255 presented here suggest a large decline of U.S. total SF₆ emissions, confirming the success of U.S.
256 SF₆ emission mitigation efforts. The atmospheric observation-based emissions declined from 0.93
257 ($\pm 0.19, 2\sigma$) Gg yr⁻¹ in 2007 – 2008 to 0.37 ($\pm 0.10, 2\sigma$) Gg yr⁻¹ in 2017 – 2018 (Table 1 and Fig.
258 1). The 0.56 ± 0.21 (2σ) Gg yr⁻¹ drop in SF₆ emissions from 2007 – 2008 to 2017 – 2018 is
259 equivalent to a reduction of 13 ± 7 million tons of CO₂ emission, when using the 100-year global
260 warming potential that was used in the EPA GHGI ($GWP_{100} = 22800$).

261
262 Although both the atmosphere-based top-down and inventory-based bottom-up estimates show
263 declining trends for total U.S. SF₆ emissions, the estimated emission magnitudes are quite different.
264 In 2007 – 2008, the atmosphere-based emissions fall between the EDGARv7.0 and EPA's GHGI
265 estimates; but the difference between the atmosphere-based estimate and EDGARv7.0 increases
266 over time, whereas the difference between the atmosphere-derived estimate and EPA's inventory
267 decreases over time. After 2011, the atmosphere-based emission estimates are $0.93 (\pm 0.07, 2\sigma)$
268 Gg yr⁻¹ (a factor of 3.4) lower than EDGARv7.0 and only about $0.15 (\pm 0.07, 2\sigma)$ Gg yr⁻¹ (35%)
269 higher than the EPA's GHGI (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2022a). The improved
270 agreement between the EPA GHGI and the atmosphere-based estimates may be associated with
271 more accurate emission information used to inform the EPA's GHGI after 2010. Before 2011, the
272 SF₆ emission estimate in the EPA GHGI was primarily informed by reporting through the
273 voluntary Partnership Programs between EPA and various industries (Rand, 2012) described above.

274 In 2011, EPA established its greenhouse gas reporting program (GHGRP), requiring facility-based
275 reporting of greenhouse gas (GHG) data and other relevant information from large GHG emission
276 sources ($\geq 25,000$ CO₂-equivalent metric tons of GHG emissions per year). Although smaller
277 emitters are not required to report their emissions, this program provides more complete emission
278 information than had been available prior to 2011. For example, from 1999 to 2010, ETD facilities
279 representing an estimated 60% of the emitting activity reported their SF₆ emissions to EPA through
280 EPA's voluntary reporting program. After 2010, ETD facilities representing an estimated 70% of
281 the emitting activity began reporting their emissions to EPA under the GHGRP.

282
283 A variety of factors may be contributing to the difference observed between the SF₆ emissions
284 estimates from atmospheric measurements and the estimates developed for the U.S. EPA GHGI.
285 The largest potential contributor to the difference is a possible underestimate by the GHGI of
286 emissions from ETD facilities that do not report to EPA, or that did not report to EPA until they
287 were required to report by the GHGRP starting in 2011. Emissions from non-reporting facilities
288 are currently estimated based on the uncertain assumption that the emission rate per mile of
289 transmission line (transmission mile) for non-reporting facilities has been the same, on average, as
290 that for reporting facilities in each year of the time series. However, the emission rate per
291 transmission mile has varied significantly across facilities and over time due to a variety of factors,
292 including the age of the electrical equipment, maintenance practices, local regulations, and the
293 quantity of SF₆-containing equipment per transmission mile (SF₆ nameplate capacity). Among
294 reporting facilities, the emission rate has fallen from an average of 0.7 kg per transmission mile in
295 1999 to 0.2 kg per transmission mile in recent years, with emission rates declining most quickly
296 in the first three years of reporting (i.e., 1999-2001 for Partners, 2011-2013 for facilities that began
297 reporting under the GHGRP). This implies that reporting itself may drive emission reductions.
298 Thus, it is plausible that the emission rate of non-reporting facilities has fallen more slowly than
299 that of reporting facilities.

300
301 In the years prior to 2011, there are several additional factors that may be contributing to the
302 underestimate of SF₆ emissions by the GHGI, compared to the atmosphere-based estimates. One
303 potentially significant factor is that the GHGI does not currently account for SF₆ emissions from
304 the SF₆ production plant that operated in Metropolis, Illinois, up until 2010. This plant never
305 reported its emissions to EPA; but based on production capacity data for the plant from 2006 and
306 the broad range of emission factors observed for production of SF₆ and other fluorinated gases, the
307 plant's SF₆ emissions would likely have ranged between 0.03 and 0.3 Gg yr⁻¹. Notably, the region
308 showing the largest drop in the atmosphere-derived emissions between 2008 and 2011-2018
309 includes Metropolis, Illinois (Fig. S3). Although emissions from this plant have not been included
310 in previous GHGIs, the discrepancy highlighted here points to potential significant contributions
311 from this plant before 2011 (and other fluorinated gas production facilities) that will be included
312 in future submissions of the GHGI.

313
314 Other factors that may account for a small portion of the post-2011 difference is an underestimate
315 of emissions of SF₆ from electronics manufacturing by a factor of 2 (equivalent to ~ 0.02 Gg yr⁻¹).
316 In the GHGI, the EPA adjusted the time series of GHGRP-reported data for 2011 through 2013 to
317 ensure time-series consistency using a series of calculations that took into account the
318 characteristics of a facility (e.g., wafer size and abatement use) and updated default emission
319 factors and destruction and removal efficiencies. These updates reflected improved activity data

320 and not changes to emission rates, and resulted in an increase in SF₆ emissions estimates by 95%
321 from electronics manufacturing. Finally, a similar improvement for time series consistency is
322 planned for pre-2011 estimates and is expected to result in a similar relative increase in estimated
323 SF₆ emissions from the electronics sector for those years.

324

325 **U.S. regional SF₆ emissions**

326 We also investigated regional emissions derived from atmospheric inversions and from EPA's
327 recently created Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emission and Sinks by State (U.S.
328 Environmental Protection Agency, 2022b) to understand the distribution of SF₆ emissions and how
329 various regions contribute to the difference between the atmosphere- and inventory- derived U.S.
330 total emissions. Note that the EPA GHGI was only able to allocate 20 – 30 % of ETD emissions
331 to a single state by facility location (i.e. when the facility was only in one state). The remaining
332 emission was distributed based on a national average emission factor (kg of SF₆ per transmission
333 mile). Because of this limited regional resolution, we expect some limitations in the regional
334 estimates of the GHGI. However, this comparison with atmosphere-based estimates helps assess
335 the robustness of the regional estimates.

336

337 The atmosphere-based emission estimates suggest that about 80% of the U.S. total SF₆ emissions
338 were contributed by three regions: the northeast, central north, and central south (Table 1; Figs. 2).
339 Regional SF₆ emissions corresponding to the GHGI calculated using the EPA's Inventory of U.S.
340 Greenhouse Gas Emission and Sinks by State (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2022b)
341 were distributed slightly differently. For the southeast, west, and mountain regions, EPA's
342 regional emissions agree well with emissions estimated from atmospheric observations, but they
343 are lower than the atmosphere-derived emissions in the northeast for the entire study period and in
344 the central north and central south during 2007 – 2010. Such regional differences were expected
345 due to the limited regional resolution of the GHGI for emissions from ETD. For regions that
346 predominantly had emissions from the ETD sector, the difference is likely more dependent on how
347 similar the ETD emissions in the region are to the national average. This method could result in
348 an underestimate of emissions in the regions like the northeast where the average emission rate is
349 expected to be higher than the national average based on historical data submitted to the EPA by
350 facilities in the region. Higher regional emission rates in the northeast could be due in part to the
351 region containing more gas-insulated equipment per transmission mile and the presence of older
352 transmission systems (i.e. older, leakier equipment). The national average emission factor may be
353 more appropriate for the mountain, central north, and central south regions. This is because
354 regional emission factors that are based only on GHGRP reported emissions from facilities that
355 reside entirely within the region, are similar to a national average in these regions. Better
356 agreement in the western region may be also associated with the incorporation of the California
357 Air Resource Board estimate for SF₆ from California in the GHGI.

358

359 For the central north and central south regions, the atmosphere-derived emissions were higher in
360 2007 – 2010 and show a larger declining trend than the EPA GHGI. The larger discrepancy in the
361 central north and central south before 2011 may be due in part to the unaccounted emissions by
362 GHGI from the SF₆ production facility in Metropolis, Illinois, described above, which ceased
363 producing SF₆ in 2010. This facility is located right at the border between the central north and
364 central south regions, so it is likely that emissions from it could have been attributed to one or both
365 adjacent regions in the atmospheric inversions.

366
367 Besides the EPA GHGI, we also compared our top-down estimate with the EDGAR inventories
368 (EDGARv4.2 and EDGARv7.0). Results suggest that emissions estimated by the EDGAR are
369 higher than the atmosphere-derived emissions and the EPA's inventory estimates for all regions
370 across the U.S., especially in the western and northeast regions (Fig. 2).

371
372 **Significant seasonality detected in U.S. SF₆ emissions**

373 The monthly SF₆ emissions derived from our inverse analysis of atmospheric concentration
374 measurements reveal a prominent seasonal cycle with higher emissions in winter for all 12 years
375 of this analysis (Fig. 3a). On average, the magnitude of winter SF₆ emissions is about a factor of
376 2 larger than summer emissions summed across the contiguous U.S. (Fig. 3a). This seasonality is
377 most likely from the use, servicing, and disposal of ETD equipment, as SF₆ emissions from
378 magnesium production, electronics production, and manufacturing of ETD equipment are
379 expected to be aseasonal. Consistent with this hypothesis, winter-to-summer ratios of total U.S.
380 SF₆ emissions derived for individual years significantly correlate at a 99% confidence level ($r =$
381 0.71 ; $P = 0.01$) with the annual fractions of national emissions contributed by the ETD sector
382 reported by EPA (Fig. 3c). Moreover, this robust relationship also holds regionally ($r = 0.84$; $P =$
383 0.02) (Fig. 3c). The largest seasonal variation in emissions is detected in the southeast and central
384 south regions of the U.S., where the ETD sector accounted for more than 85% of the regional total
385 emissions (Figs. 2, 3b, and 3c). In these southern regions, the winter emissions were higher than
386 summer emissions by more than a factor of 2, whereas in the central north, where the ETD sector
387 accounted for about 50% of the regional total emissions, the mean winter-to-summer emission
388 ratio was less than 1.5 (Figs. 2 and 3c).

389
390 The enhanced winter emissions in the southern states are consistent with the fact that more
391 servicing is performed on electrical equipment and transmission lines over this region in the cooler
392 months (information provided by Mr. B. Lao at the DILO Company, Inc.), when electricity usage
393 is lower compared to other seasons (U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2020). This
394 suggests that the enhanced seasonal SF₆ emission may be associated with the season during which
395 electrical equipment repair and servicing is enhanced. In the northern states, the higher winter
396 than summer emissions may relate to increased leakage through more brittle seals in the aging
397 electrical transmission equipment due to increased thermal contraction in winter (Du et al., 2020).
398 This winter-to-summer ratio in the northeast is somewhat higher than in the other northern regions
399 (Fig. 3b), which may reflect the fact that the electrical power grid is denser (U.S. Federal
400 Emergency Management Agency, 2008) and ETD is the primary emitting source of SF₆ over the
401 northeast region.

402
403 Given that the ETD sector may be the primary cause for seasonally-varying emissions in the U.S.,
404 we next assessed changes in seasonality over time and their implication for changes in sector-
405 based emissions from 2007 to 2018. The most notable feature of the time series (Fig. S4) is that
406 the largest seasonal cycle occurred in 2009 when the economic recession took place. The 2009
407 recession resulted in a significant drop in the production of magnesium and electronics (U.S.
408 Environmental Protection Agency, 2021), but little (if any) change to the ETD infrastructure and
409 associated servicing practices is likely to have occurred. Thus, ETD emissions represent a larger
410 fraction of the total U.S. SF₆ emissions in that year. In addition, the winter-to-summer emission
411 ratios appear smaller before the 2009 peak (i.e., in 2007 – 2008) than after it (in 2011 – 2018).

412 This may imply that emissions from the ETD sector accounted for a growing fraction of total
413 emissions through this entire period.

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415

416 **Conclusions and implications**

417 SF₆ is a potent industrially-produced greenhouse gas with an extremely long atmospheric lifetime.
418 It is a trace gas that is primarily used in the electrification of the energy sector. In the past five
419 decades, global emissions, concentrations, and radiative forcing of SF₆ have substantially
420 increased due to growing energy demand. Without effective emission mitigation efforts
421 worldwide, the climate impact of SF₆ will continue to rise in the future. In contrast to the global
422 emission trend, U.S. SF₆ emissions have decreased substantially since the 1990s. These decreases
423 are documented in EPA's emission inventories reported annually to the UNFCCC and in the new
424 results reported here from an inverse analysis of atmosphere concentration measurements. These
425 independently-derived U.S. emission records demonstrate substantial success by U.S. industry in
426 coordination with the EPA in mitigating SF₆ emissions.

427

428 The magnitude of SF₆ emissions derived from atmospheric inversions are higher than those
429 reported in the EPA GHGI but lower than EDGAR; but the difference between the EPA GHGI
430 and atmosphere-derived estimates become substantially smaller after 2011, when national GHG
431 reporting became mandatory, implying that that the shift from voluntary to mandatory emission
432 reporting by industry increased the accuracy of the inventory. However, differences remain
433 between the emissions estimated from these independent methods, which may relate to the
434 uncertain assumptions about ETD-related emission rates per mile from non-reporting facilities in
435 the GHGI. Although the EPA GHGI may underestimate SF₆ emissions, its contribution to the
436 global "missing" source of SF₆ is small. More specifically, the total SF₆ emissions summed from
437 all reporting countries to the UNFCCC are only half of the global emissions derived from global-
438 scale observed concentration trends; in other words, there are ~ 4 Gg SF₆ yr⁻¹ or 100 million tons
439 of CO₂-equivalent per year of SF₆ emissions still "missing" in the global GHG accounting system.
440 The underestimate of the U.S. GHGI only contributed 14% in 2007 – 2008 and only 3% after 2011
441 to this global SF₆ emission gap, implying either large underreporting of SF₆ emissions from other
442 reporting countries or large emissions from non-reporting countries.

443

444 Regional emissions from atmospheric inversions were compared with the recently available
445 disaggregation of the EPA GHGI by state to provide an initial assessment on the emission
446 distribution of SF₆ estimated from the GHGI. Good agreement was noted in some regions but not
447 others. Combining the spatial discrepancies with processes used for constructing the GHGI, we
448 were able to identify regions where applying a national average emission factor may be
449 inappropriate and where historical emissions of a facility (the SF₆ production plant in Metropolis,
450 Illinois) are currently not accounted for but may have been significant.

451

452 Finally, the atmosphere-derived results further suggest a strong seasonal cycle in U.S. SF₆
453 emissions from electric power transmission and distribution for the first time, with wintertime
454 emissions twice as large as summertime emissions. This seasonal cycle is thought to be strongest
455 in southern states, where servicing of ETD equipment is typically performed in winter. The
456 seasonal cycle is likely enhanced additionally by increased leakage from ETD equipment during
457 the winter, when cold weather makes sealing materials more brittle and therefore less effective.

458 This newly discovered seasonal emission variation implies that further larger reductions of SF₆
459 emission in the U.S. might be achievable through efforts to minimize losses during equipment
460 maintenance and repairs, and through the use of improved sealing materials in ETD equipment.

461
462 The 2019 Refinements to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories
463 suggest that atmospheric inversion-derived emissions be considered in the quality assurance,
464 quality control and verification of the national GHG inventory reporting. It is anticipated that the
465 consideration of an independent estimate will lead to more accurate inventories. The work
466 presented here, however, suggests that a collaboration between these communities can provide
467 much more. In the case of SF₆, the result has been not only an improved understanding of emission
468 magnitudes, but also a better grasp of the processes that lead to emissions and the identification of
469 substantial new emission mitigation opportunities, thereby pointing the way towards a more
470 effective and efficient means to minimize and reduce national greenhouse gas emissions.

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474 **Data availability**

475 Atmospheric SF₆ observations used in this analysis are available at
476 <https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/obspack/data.php>. Data included in our inversion can be downloaded
477 at https://gml.noaa.gov/aftp/data/hats/sf6/Data_in_Hu_et_al_2023/. The marine boundary layer
478 reference for SF₆ can be downloaded from <https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/mbl/data.php>. Atmospheric
479 observation-derived U.S. national and regional emissions from this analysis are accessible through
480 the US Emission Tracker for Potent GHGs (https://gml.noaa.gov/hats/US_emissiontracker). SF₆
481 emissions reported to the GHGR are available at [https://www.epa.gov/enviro/greenhouse-gas-](https://www.epa.gov/enviro/greenhouse-gas-customized-search)
482 [customized-search](https://www.epa.gov/enviro/greenhouse-gas-customized-search).

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484

485 **Author contributions**

486 LH developed the inversion framework, performed the analysis, and wrote the paper with DO, SB,
487 and SM. Significant edits and inputs were also from PD and ED. DO and SB made and provided
488 EPA SF₆ emission estimates. PD, SM, and LH initiated this project. LH, DO, SB, SM, and PD
489 worked on the interpretation of the results. ED led the NOAA SF₆ measurements. PD coordinated
490 the discussion between NOAA and EPA colleagues. AA led the NOAA tower sampling network,
491 provided the 4D empirical background estimates of SF₆ and WRF-STILT footprints. KT and GD
492 helped with improving the inversion code. KT and LH computed the HYSPLIT footprints. CS
493 led the NOAA aircraft sampling network. LA contributed the construction of EPA SF₆ emission
494 estimates. AC contributed to NOAA SF₆ measurements.

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The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views or policies of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency.

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510 analysis.

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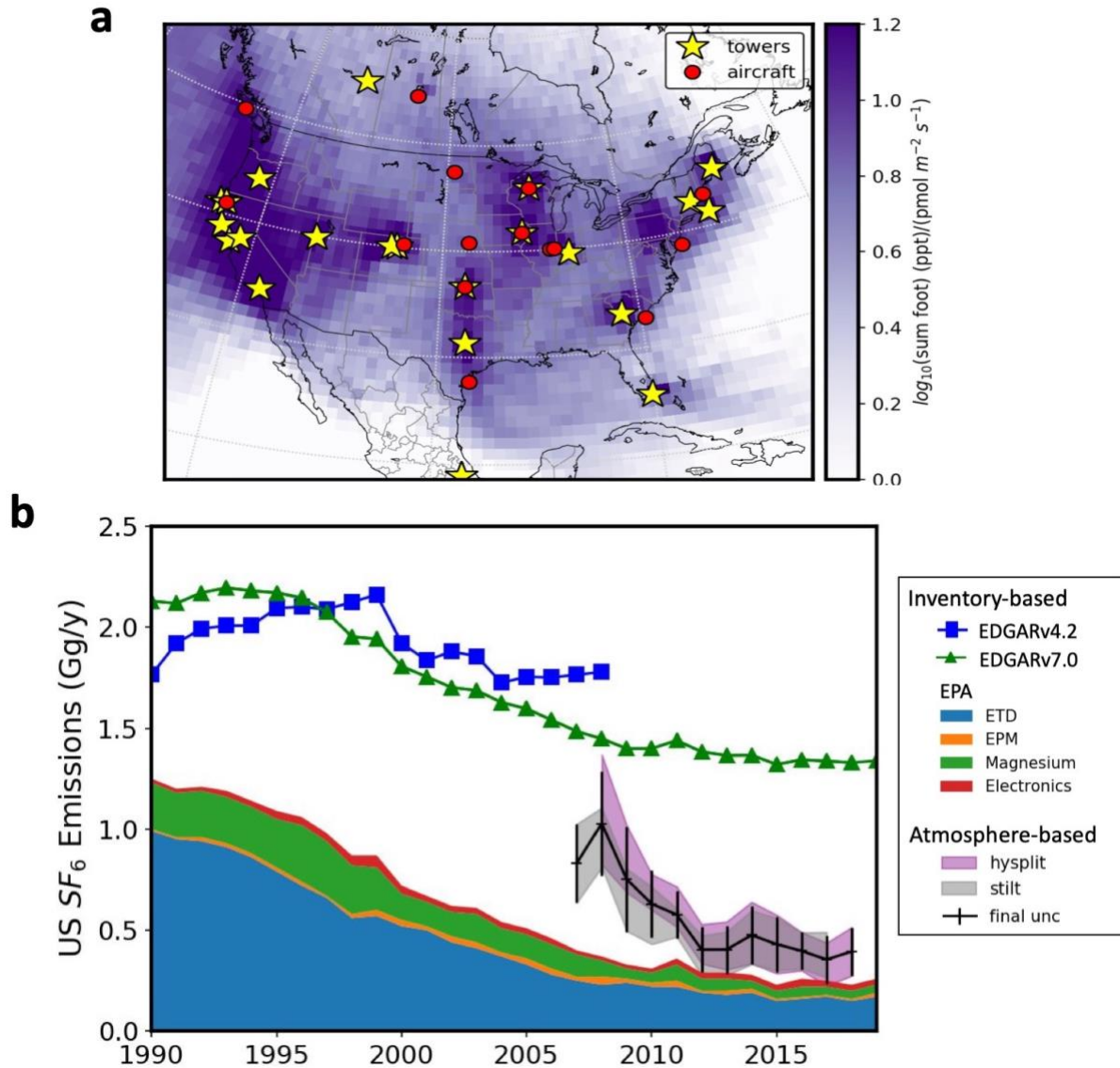
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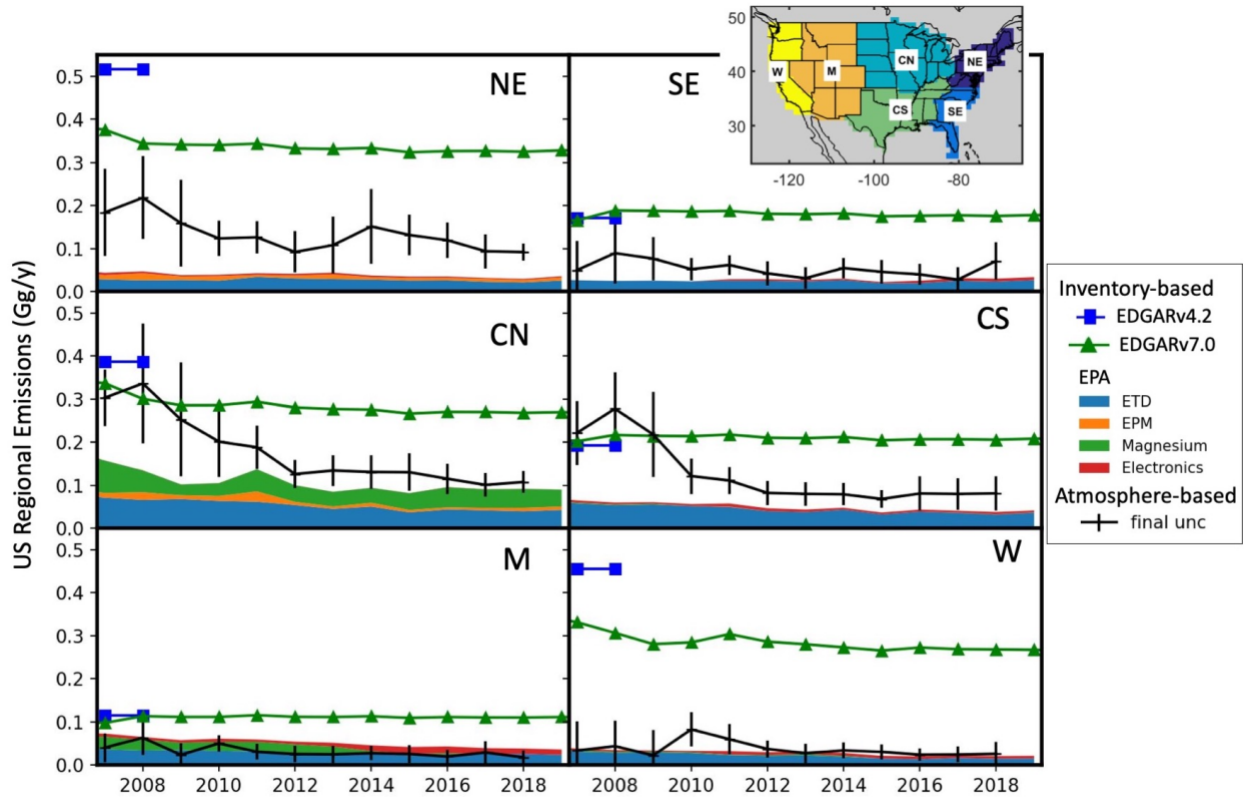
731 **Table 1.** U.S. national and regional annual emissions of SF₆ (in Gg yr⁻¹) reported by EPA and
 732 derived from NOAA atmospheric measurements from this study. Errors derived from NOAA
 733 atmospheric measurements are expressed at a 95% confidence interval.

Year	National totals		Regions											
			Northeast		Southeast		Central North		Central South		Mountain		West	
	EPA	NOAA	EPA	NOAA	EPA	NOAA	EPA	NOAA	EPA	NOAA	EPA	NOAA	EPA	NOAA
2007	0.40	0.83±0.19	0.04	0.18±0.10	0.03	0.05±0.07	0.16	0.30±0.07	0.06	0.22±0.07	0.07	0.04±0.03	0.04	0.03±0.07
2008	0.37	1.03±0.26	0.05	0.22±0.10	0.02	0.09±0.07	0.13	0.34±0.14	0.06	0.28±0.09	0.06	0.06±0.04	0.03	0.04±0.06
2009	0.32	0.75±0.26	0.04	0.16±0.10	0.03	0.08±0.05	0.10	0.25±0.13	0.06	0.22±0.10	0.06	0.02±0.03	0.03	0.02±0.04
2010	0.32	0.63±0.16	0.04	0.12±0.04	0.02	0.05±0.03	0.11	0.20±0.08	0.06	0.12±0.04	0.06	0.05±0.02	0.03	0.08±0.04
2011	0.36	0.58±0.12	0.04	0.13±0.04	0.03	0.06±0.02	0.14	0.19±0.05	0.06	0.11±0.03	0.06	0.03±0.02	0.03	0.06±0.02
2012	0.30	0.40±0.11	0.04	0.09±0.05	0.03	0.04±0.03	0.10	0.13±0.03	0.05	0.08±0.03	0.05	0.03±0.02	0.03	0.04±0.02
2013	0.28	0.40±0.12	0.04	0.11±0.07	0.03	0.03±0.03	0.08	0.13±0.04	0.04	0.08±0.03	0.05	0.02±0.02	0.03	0.03±0.02
2014	0.29	0.48±0.14	0.04	0.15±0.09	0.03	0.05±0.03	0.09	0.13±0.04	0.05	0.08±0.03	0.05	0.03±0.02	0.03	0.03±0.02
2015	0.24	0.43±0.14	0.04	0.13±0.05	0.02	0.05±0.03	0.08	0.13±0.04	0.04	0.07±0.02	0.04	0.03±0.02	0.02	0.03±0.02
2016	0.26	0.40±0.09	0.04	0.12±0.04	0.03	0.04±0.02	0.10	0.11±0.03	0.04	0.08±0.04	0.04	0.02±0.02	0.02	0.02±0.02
2017	0.26	0.35±0.12	0.03	0.09±0.04	0.03	0.03±0.03	0.09	0.10±0.03	0.04	0.08±0.04	0.04	0.03±0.03	0.02	0.02±0.02
2018	0.25	0.39±0.12	0.03	0.09±0.02	0.03	0.07±0.04	0.09	0.11±0.03	0.04	0.08±0.04	0.04	0.02±0.02	0.02	0.03±0.03

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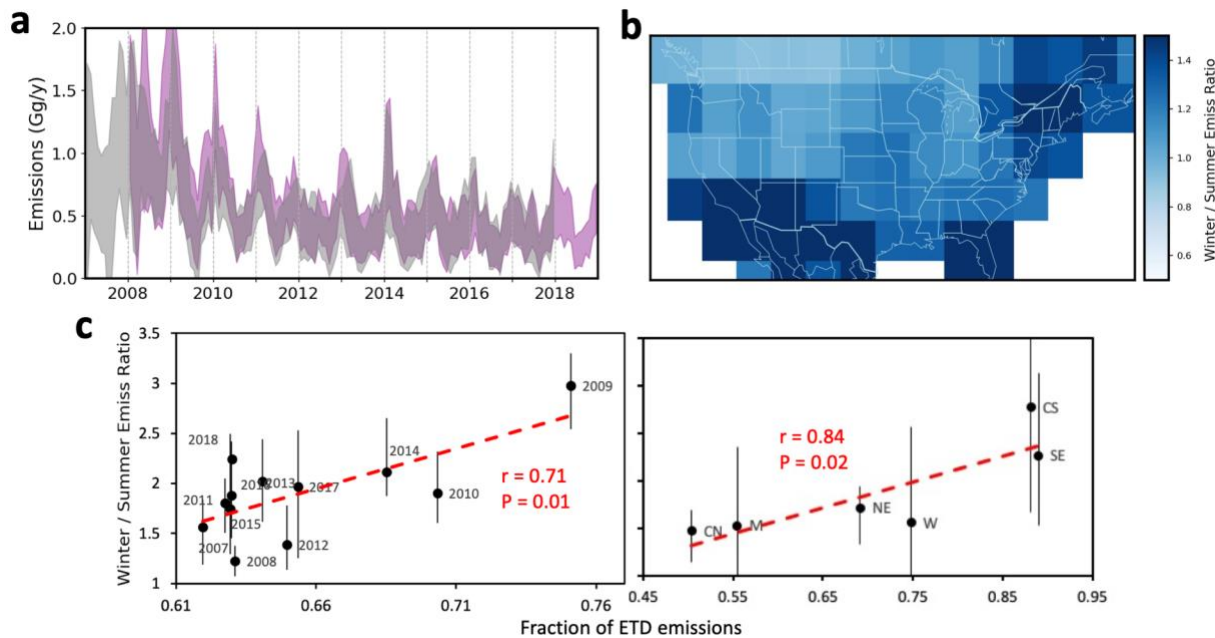


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 762 **Fig. 1.** U.S. SF₆ emissions derived from atmospheric observations and reported by inventories. (a)
 763 Locations of atmospheric SF₆ measurements considered in the regional inversions; tower-based
 764 sampling is indicated as stars and airborne-profile sampling is denoted as circles. Sensitivity of the
 765 atmospheric SF₆ measurements to surface emissions is indicated on a log₁₀ scale as purple shading.
 766 (b) U.S. SF₆ emissions reported by EDGAR (v4.2 and v7.0) and EPA inventories, and derived
 767 from atmospheric observations. National totals are shown from EDGARv7.0, whereas the EPA
 768 inventory is parsed out by sector, including electric power transmission and distribution (ETD),
 769 electrical equipment manufacturing (EPM), magnesium production, and electronics. Atmosphere-
 770 based emission estimates for the contiguous U.S. are derived with two different model analyses of
 771 the atmospheric observations using two different transport simulations (HYSPLIT-NAMS in
 772 purple shading for 2008 - 2018 and WRF-STILT in gray shading for 2007 - 2017). The black line
 773 with error bars indicates inversion ensemble annual means and an uncertainty at a 95% confidence
 774 interval.



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 776 **Fig. 2.** Regional SF₆ emissions over the U.S., derived from atmospheric observations and reported
 777 by EPA's GHGI and EDGAR (EDGARv4.2 and EDGARv7.0). EPA emissions are parsed out by
 778 sectors, i.e., electrical transformation and distribution (ETD), electrical power manufacturing
 779 (EPM), magnesium production, and electronics, while EDGAR emissions are presented as totals.
 780 Atmosphere-based emission estimates (black lines) include uncertainties at a 95% confidence
 781 interval (vertical black bars).

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 786 **Fig. 3.** Seasonal cycle of U.S. SF₆ emissions derived from atmospheric observations. (a) Monthly
 787 emissions derived from atmospheric inversions using HYSPLIT-NAMS (in purple shading) and
 788 WRF-STILT (in gray shading) transport simulations. The shading associated with each transport
 789 model represents a combined uncertainty associated with 6 different inversions. (b) The winter-
 790 to-summer emission ratios derived on a 5° × 5° grid from atmospheric observations, averaged
 791 across all years and 12 inversion ensemble members. The winter and summer here are defined as
 792 Nov – Feb and May – Aug. (c) Atmosphere-derived winter-to-summer emission ratios versus the
 793 fraction of total U.S. SF₆ emissions from electric power transformation and distribution (ETD)
 794 reported by EPA. Left: the ETD emission fraction versus winter-to-summer emission ratios for
 795 annual national emissions; errorbars indicate the 2.5th – 97.5th percentile range from the 12
 796 inversion ensembles. Right: the mean ETD emission fraction by region averaged between 2007-
 797 2018 versus winter-to-summer emission ratios for multi-year average regional emissions over the
 798 same period; errorbars indicate the 2.5th – 97.5th percentile range from the 12 inversion ensembles.
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