

Surface Observation Constrained High Frequency Coal Mine Methane Emissions in Shanxi China Reveal More Emissions than Inventories, Consistency with Satellite Inversion

Fan Lu¹, Kai Qin^{1*}, Jason Blake Cohen^{1*}, Qin He¹, Pravash Tiwari¹, Wei Hu¹, Chang Ye¹, Yanan Shan¹, Qing Xu¹, Shuo Wang¹, Qiansi Tu²

¹*Jiangsu Key Laboratory of Coal-Based Greenhouse Gas Control and Utilization, School of Environment and Spatial Informatics, China University of Mining and Technology, Xuzhou, China*

²*School of Mechanical Engineering, Tongji University, Shanghai, China*

*Correspondence to Kai Qin (qinkai@cumt.edu.cn) and Jason Blake Cohen (jasonbc@alum.mit.edu)

Abstract This work focuses on Changzhi, Shanxi China, a city and surrounding rural region with one of the highest atmospheric concentrations of methane (CH₄) worldwide (campaign-wide minimum/mean/standard deviation/max observations: 2.0, 2.9, 1.3, and 16 ppm) due to a rapid increase in the mining, production, and use of coal over the past decade. An intensive 15-day surface observation campaign of CH₄ concentration is used to drive a new analytical, mass-conserving method to compute and attribute CH₄ emissions. Observations made in concentric circles at 1km, 3km, and 5km around a high production high gas coal mine yielded emissions of 0.73, 0.28, and 0.15 ppm min⁻¹ respectively. Attribution used a 2-box mass conserving model to identify the known mine's emissions from 0.042-5.3 ppm min⁻¹, and a previously unidentified mine's emission from 0.22-7.9 ppm min⁻¹. These results demonstrate the importance of simultaneously quantifying both the spatial and temporal distribution of CH₄ emissions to better control regional-scale CH₄ emissions. Results of the attribution are used in tandem with observations of boundary layer height to quantify policy-relevant emissions from the two coal mines as 6860±3520 kg h⁻¹ and 1010±347 kg h⁻¹ respectively. Both mines display a fat tail distribution, with respective 25th, median, and 75th percentile values of [1600, 3070, 10500] kg h⁻¹ and [755, 1090, 1420] kg h⁻¹. These findings are demonstrated to be higher than CH₄ emissions from equivalent oil and gas

operations in the USA, with one about double and the other similar to day-to-day emissions inverted over 5-years using TROPOMI over the same region.

Key Words: *CH₄; Top-down emissions; Mass-conserving Model; Attribution; Mining*

1 Introduction

Emissions of methane (CH₄) contribute the second most to direct anthropogenic longwave radiative forcing (Etminan et al., 2016; Li et al., 2022). Since CH₄ has a lifetime from 9.5 to 12.5 years (Li et al., 2022; Prather et al., 2012), controlling CH₄ emissions can provide an opportunity to mitigate peak loading and slow the rate of net global warming. Emissions from fossil fuel are one of the largest sources of anthropogenic CH₄ (Kirschke et al., 2013; Saunio et al., 2020a). Since China is the world's largest producer and consumer of coal (Bournazian, 2016), Coal mines contribute up to 33%-40% of China's CH₄ emissions (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2017; Miller et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2016). Although China enacted coal mines CH₄ (CMM) regulations in 2010, CMM continues grow (Kerr and Yang, 2009; Miller et al., 2019). CH₄ emission estimates remain exist uncertain in both space and time (Brandt et al., 2014; Saunio et al., 2020b). They also generally have a fat tail distribution, wherein a small number of samples have extremely large emissions that overwhelm emissions under average conditions (Duren et al., 2019; Plant et al., 2022). For these reasons, new approaches to quantify, reduce uncertainty, and attribute CH₄ emissions are necessary and can provide support for policies aiming to control and mitigate CMM (Cao, 2017).

Bottom-up (BU) quantification of emissions requires a priori knowledge of source locations and diversity, which tends to not represent real-world conditions. Top-down (TD) approaches analyze concentration data with improving accuracy (Allen, 2014; Rigby et al., 2019; Varon et al., 2018; Vaughn et al., 2018), specifically combining surface (Heerah et al., 2021; Katzenstein et al., 2003; Shi et al., 2023), aircraft (Karion et al., 2013; Shi et al., 2022; Tong et al., 2023; Vinković et al., 2022), and/or satellite (Wecht et al., 2014) CH₄ observations with atmospheric models. Some TD approaches use physically realistic but complex chemical transport models (Bloom et al., 2017), others use plume models (Goldsmith et al., 2012), and others still use data driven

approaches (Buchwitz et al., 2017). Uncertainties in whether or not to consider the basic formulation of plume models as being reasonable under the observed conditions are rarely addressed holistically or in detail, including but not limited to: stable wind speed and direction (Varon et al., 2018), no outside sources intersecting the plume (Varon et al., 2018), no significant enhancement in the background concentrations (Irakulis-Loitxate et al., 2021), no pooling or other non-linear behavior within the plume (Bruno et al., 2024), or where to draw the boundaries of a plume (He et al., 2024). Similarly, large-scale chemical transport models tend to be quite stiff, with internal parameters and processes not being variable, even if on the subgrid scale this may introduce considerable uncertainty (Cohen and Prinn, 2011, Cohen and Wang 2014, Qin et al 2013; Hu et al., 2024; Lu et al., 2024).

Airborne remote sensing is a highly technical and costly approach to record CH₄ fluxes from landfills, coal basins, and oil and gas production (Krautwurst et al., 2021; Krautwurst et al., 2017; Kuhlmann et al., 2023), which suffers from not being able to monitor CH₄ emissions over long periods of time or in regions where the source is not well constrained (Brandt et al., 2014; Gorchoy Negron et al., 2020; Hiller et al., 2014; Mehrotra et al., 2017; Molina et al., 2010). Satellite remote sensing can measure CH₄ under specific orbits where the source is known and identified (Jacob et al., 2016; Jacob et al., 2022; Plant et al., 2022; Varon et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020), but only after being calibrated by upward looking remotely sensed measurements (Tu et al., 2022), and only when the atmosphere is rain, cloud and aerosol free (Cohen and Prinn, 2011; Reuter et al., 2019; Sadavarte et al., 2021). TROPOMI and GOSAT have both been shown to be data-rich at times (Butz et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2018; Jacob et al., 2016), but severely limited at other times (Butz et al., 2012; Kuze et al., 2009). Even when these satellites have sufficient data to compute emissions from other species, frequently CH₄ emissions cannot be computed (Li et al., 2023; Qin et al., 2023b) due to insufficient signal strength, and uncertainties which are both non-understood and mis-constrained (Povey and Grainger, 2015).

Ground-based remote sensing provides higher accuracy versus satellite observations (Heerah et al., 2021; Luther et al., 2022; Tu et al., 2022). EM27/SUN measurements have approximated CH₄ emissions in Poland (Luther et al., 2019; Luther et al., 2022). However, these instruments are expensive, require calibration, and have limited data collection due to solar signal strength.

This work employs a high-frequency surface-based observation platform of CH₄ concentration which is portable, economical, and unaffected by most environmental factors. The observations are combined with a new mass-conserving methodology based on temporal transformation of the spatially derived mass-conserving framework successfully applied to NO₂ (Li et al., 2023; Qin et al., 2023b). This work focuses on Shanxi, one of the densest coal mining regions in the world, accounting for approximately 10% total global coal production (Lin and Liu, 2010; Qin et al., 2023a). Continuous observations were made around known coal mines, unknown sources, and of background conditions. The 2-box model used the high-frequency emissions calculated using these data to drive for attributing emissions to the known mine and a second low production mine previously thought insignificant. The results provide insights into the spatial distribution of CH₄ emissions, demonstrate rapid adoption of practical methods globally, and enable source attribution.

2 Method and Data

2.1 Study Site and Campaign Design

Changzhi, Shanxi is located in a basin, with coal mines and associated coal use industries densely distributed throughout both flat central regions and around the mountainous edges (Figure 1), many of which are classified as high CH₄ emitting mines. Due to this combination, city-wide background CH₄ concentrations are very high and have large variation in time. Due to this combination, province-wide background CH₄ concentrations are very high and have large variation in time. This study mainly focuses on two coal mines: one mine is classified as having high amounts of CH₄ emissions per unit of production and an annual coal production of 4 million tons (CM-A), and the other is unclassified for CH₄ emissions per unit of production and having an annual coal production of 3 million tons (CM-B) (Qin et al., 2023a). Instruments were positioned

along concentric circles located 1km, 3km, and 5km from CM-A, over an approximation of the four ordinal directions: east, west, south, north (Figure 2). All locations were planned to be far away from known anthropogenic sources, leading to a net total 12 measurement points. As later discovered, CM-B is located approximately 1km southwest from the measurement point located at 5km west.

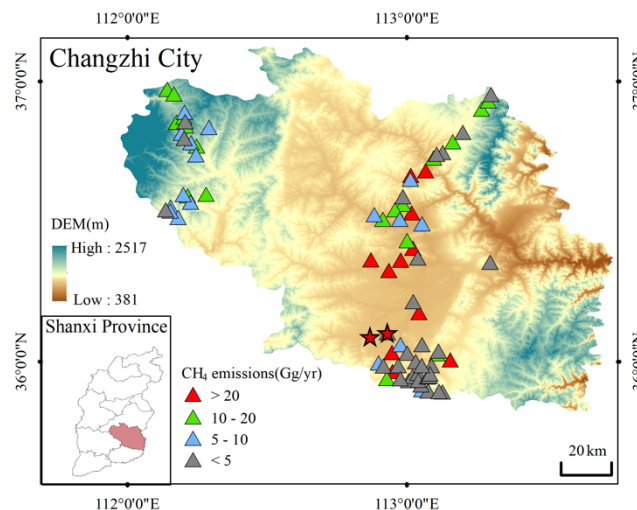


Figure 1. Topographic map of Changzhi, and its location in Shanxi Province (bottom left). The triangles represent the locations of all individual coal mines (including underground and abandoned mines), where the triangle color represents the emissions amount: high (red), middle (green), low (blue), and very-low (grey). The red stars represent the two coal mines in this work.

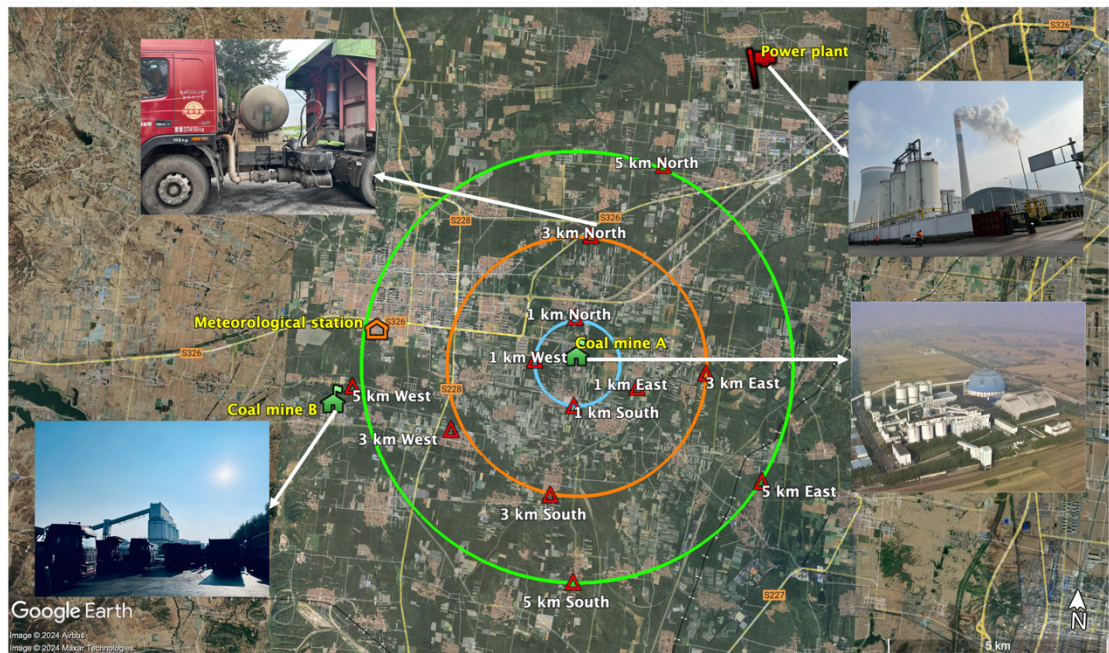


Figure 2. Locations of four individual coal mines (Green filled houses), a power plant (Red flag), and the 12 observation locations presented in this work (red double-outlined triangles). Distance from CM-A are given as concentric circles at 1km (blue), 3km (orange), and 5km (green).

2.2 Measuring CH₄ Concentration

Atmospheric CH₄ concentrations at 5 m above the surface were observed daily at 1 Hz from 8:30 to 17:00 local time in August 2022 using two portable greenhouse gas analyzers (LGR-915-0011, California, USA). Three different locations (1 km, 3 km and 5 km) were selected daily along a single direction from the CM-A, allowing a more consistent and precise calculation of the spatial gradient (Table S1). In order to reduce the time errors, using two portable greenhouse gas analyzers randomly selecting the three observation points during the daily measurements and without fixed sequence. During field experiments, each day in a background location we confirmed that the standard baseline was found within its reliable range. Further, to ensure measurement consistency when the instrument's location was changed, after relocation, we rechecked the condition against the standard baseline. Another, the instrument was allowed to stabilize and any air from the previous location was flushed out, with the first 10 minutes of measurement data discarded, to ensure that only local air was observed.

The CH₄ concentrations data was averaged minute-by-minute to match observed wind data, and subsequently used to compute CH₄ emissions. As show in Figure S1 and S2, the CH₄ concentrations data is highly correlated with rapid changes in both the wind speed and direction.

Observations made in clean locations with a wind direction not from the mine are subsequently considered for background sites. The lowest and least variable CH₄ concentrations observations are found on August 23 in the south (2.08 ± 0.08 ppm) (Figure S2). It is important to note that although this site has the minimum concentrations observed in this work, these values are significantly higher than the global latitude-band background. Three other locations and days were observed with relatively low mean and not significantly large variation: August 19 in the east (2.63 ± 0.35 ppm), August 22 in the east (2.65 ± 0.51 ppm) (Figure S1), and August 22 in the south (2.60 ± 0.55 ppm) (Figure S2). These results highlight the importance of accurately determining background concentrations in mass-balance emissions estimates. Unlike satellite-based emissions assessments, which often rely on separating plumes from global latitude bands or climatological background states (Buchwitz et al.,

2017; Irakulis-Loitxate et al., 2021; Lauvaux et al., 2022; Sadavarte et al., 2021), in situ measurements typically determine background concentrations by sampling upwind or outside the plume (Brantley et al. 2014). In this study, we have taken the spirit of the latter approach a step further, to ensure that concentrations observed as relatively clean are actually representative of locally background air. This way ensures that our background concentrations were representative of the local conditions not influenced directly by the site of interest (Figure S2). This method provides a more accurate approach when the baseline itself also changes, as in the specific locations sampled in this work.

2.3 Meteorological Data

The wind speed and direction were obtained from local meteorological stations with a temporal frequency of 1min. As show in Figures 3 and 4 the overall wind was dominated by a southerly direction (38.0% of observations between 150° and 210°) and found to be moderately slow (69.9% of observations were between 1 m s⁻¹ and 4 m s⁻¹). The 10th and 90th percentiles of wind direction (54° and 312°) and wind speed (1 m s⁻¹ and 5.1 m s⁻¹) respectively, indicate that high frequency sampling reveals a small number of relatively large changes are observed, which are expected to lead to a “fat-tail” type of distribution of subsequently computed CH₄ emissions (Delkash et al., 2016).

The temperature and pressure data were measured by a handheld meteorological instrument (HWS1000, ZOGLAB, China) with an ccuracy of ± 0.5 °C for temperature and ± 0.5 hPa for pressure, ensuring reliable data collection. The meteorological instrument was calibrated according to the manufacturer’s guidelines prior to use. Measurements were taken at 5 s intervals to capture temporal variations in the atmospheric conditions. The temperature and pressure data were averaged minute-by-minute to match observed wind data, and subsequently used to convert CH₄ emissions unit (ppm min⁻¹) into policy-relevant unit (kg h⁻¹).The boundary layer data were obtained from <https://zenodo.org/records/6498004> (Guo et al., 2022) based on a merging of reanalysis data with observations (Guo et al., 2024).

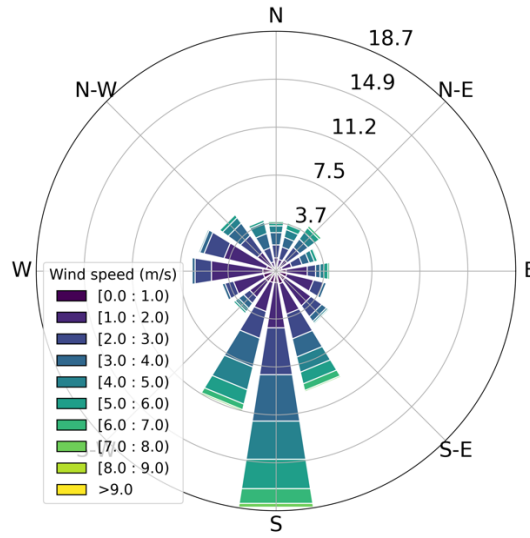


Figure 3. The wind rose of all observed wind speeds from August 10, 2022 to August 25, 2022.

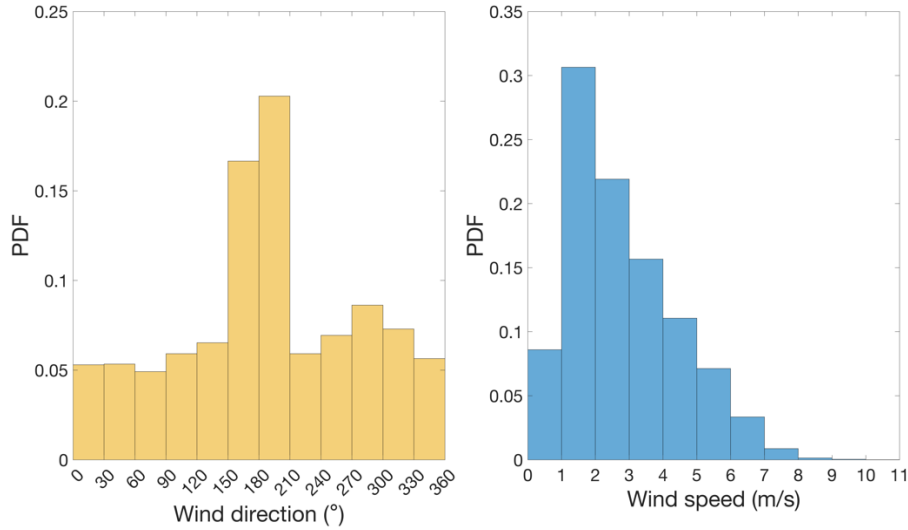


Figure 4. Probability density function (PDF) for all observed wind direction (yellow) and wind speed (blue) from August 10, 2022 to August 25, 2022.

2.4 Quantitative Estimation of CH₄ Emissions

A mass conserving approach was used to estimate the CH₄ emissions using high frequency observations of CH₄ concentrations and meteorological data, hereafter called the Mass Conserving Model of Measured CMM (MCM²). This approach is based on previous dynamic emissions estimates of tropospheric atmospheric column observations of short-lived NO₂ (Li et al., 2023; Qin et al., 2023b), and CH₄ (Hu et al., 2024) but has never been applied to surface observations or at minute-frequency scale. Adopting this approach to solve for CH₄ emissions is done starting with the continuity equation for the conservation of mass (Equation 1), reorganizing the individual terms and converting coordinates from space to time (Equation 2) and finally combining the terms (Equation 3) as follows:

$$\frac{\partial[CH_4]}{\partial t} = ECH_4 - \nabla(U \times [CH_4]) \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla(U \times [CH_4]) &= [CH_4] \times \nabla U + U \times \nabla[CH_4] \\ &= \alpha \times \left([CH_4] \times \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + U \times \frac{\partial [CH_4]}{\partial t} \right) \quad (2)\end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial [CH_4]}{\partial t} = ECH_4 - \alpha \times \left([CH_4] \times \frac{\partial U}{\partial t} + U \times \frac{\partial [CH_4]}{\partial t} \right) \quad (3)$$

where $[CH_4]$ is the CH_4 concentration (ppm), $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$ is the temporal derivative operator, ECH_4 is the CH_4 emissions flux ($ppm \text{ min}^{-1}$), U is the wind speed ($m \text{ s}^{-1}$), and the ∇ is a mathematical gradient operator acting on spatially distributed variables. However, when considering motion along one-dimension, the relationship between distance, speed, and time can be used to rewrite the spatial derivatives of $\nabla([CH_4])$ and $\nabla(U)$ as temporal derivatives (Brasseur and Jacob, 2017), where α is a conversion coefficient between distance and wind speed.

The gradient term used in these equations take into account the local topography of Shanxi, which is known for its significant features and surrounding mountains. These geographical features can impact the transport and dispersion of CH_4 , and their effects are incorporated into the wind field in the continuity equation. Notably, when dealing with a non-divergent wind field, the gradient term simplifies to the term $(U \times \nabla[CH_4])$ (Sun, 2022). Uncertainty analysis was conducted before calculating the CH_4 emissions to ensure only reliable data was used, since observed variation of CH_4 concentrations over time is influenced not only by CH_4 emissions, but also changes in wind speed and pressure. Specifically, $[CH_4] \times \frac{\partial U}{\partial t}$ represents the change in CH_4 concentrations influenced by pressure, while $U \times \frac{\partial [CH_4]}{\partial t}$ represents the change in CH_4 concentrations influenced by advection. Furthermore, since there is uncertainty in the observations, this work takes a conservative approach, and only considers data when the threshold given by equation (4) is observed to be considered influenced by emissions (a lower threshold can be selected like 25% or 15% et al., but uncertainty will increase).

$$U \times \frac{\partial [CH_4]}{\partial t} / \nabla(U \times [CH_4]) > 30\% \quad (4)$$

The remaining data (approximately 22%, presented as red circle indicators in Figure 5) is not processed in the emissions calculation as the signal is most likely due to a combination of observational uncertainty and white noise (Prinn et al., 1987; Conrad et al., 2023).

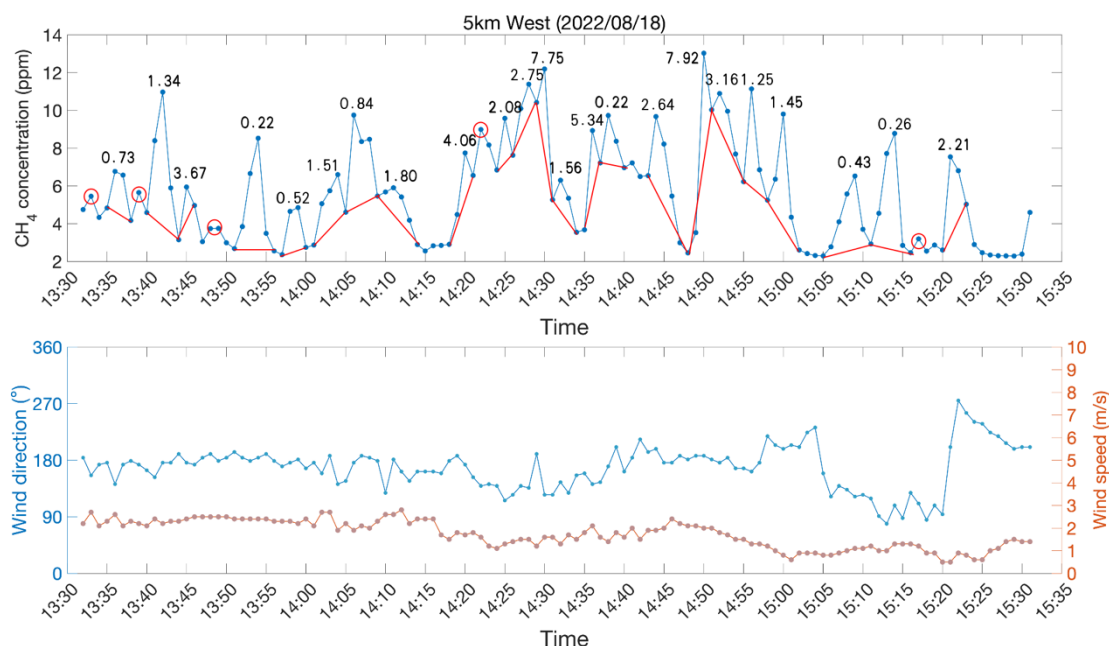


Figure 5. Time series of CH₄ concentrations (top, blue), background concentrations (top, red), wind direction (bottom, blue) and wind speed (bottom, red) measured 5km west of CM-A on August 18, 2022. MCM² computed CH₄ emissions (top, numbers) (ppm min⁻¹) are computed for all regions where the observations are enhanced compared with the background for at least 3 consecutive observations, and which further pass the noise threshold (Equation 4).

2.5 Uncertainty Analysis

In order to reduce the uncertainty of the CH₄ emissions estimation, only data above the threshold given by equation (4) is considered. Prior to this, uncertainty analysis was also conducted on the relevant variables in actual experiments. As shown in Figure 6, a 5% uncertainty was assigned to both the CH₄ concentrations and wind speed data, and the CH₄ emissions was calculated. The uncertainty analysis results indicate that probability distribution of all possible calculated emissions are consistent, and the errors are smaller than 5% in each case, consistent with Equation 3 leading to a dampening of the uncertainty, as also observed in Qin et al. (2023a) study. Therefore, we believe that the results of CH₄ emissions in this study can be trusted.

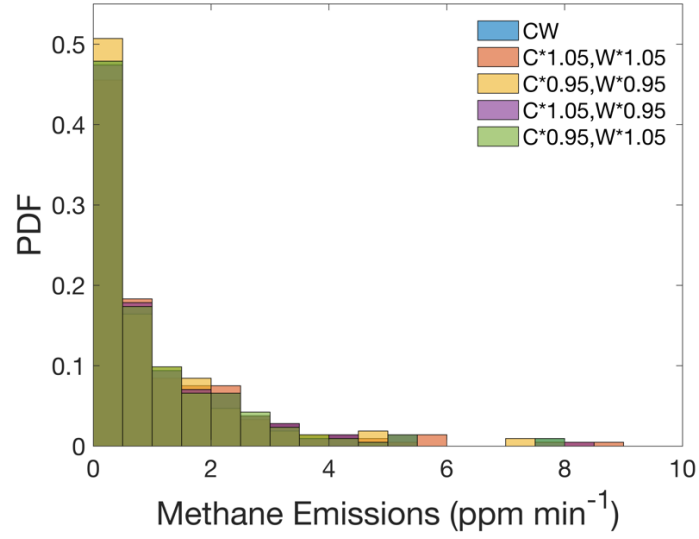


Figure 6. The PDFs of uncertain analysis results (C represents CH₄ concentrations, W represents wind speed).

2.6 Attribution Analysis

A 2-box mass conserving model (based on equation 5) was used to attribute CH₄ emissions from the more than one suspected source of CH₄ emissions in the 5k west. An overview of the MCM² and 2-box mass comserving model used in this work is provided in Figure 7. The changes in CH₄ concentrations ($C_{coal\ mine}$ (ppm)) over time t (min) at the observation point is driven by CH₄ emissions ($E_{coal\ mine}$ (ppm min⁻¹)) from the upwind coal mine and the CH₄ concentration blown away from the coal mine by the wind U (m s⁻¹), and the CH₄ background concentration ($C_{background}$ (ppm)) as demonstrated in Figure 7.

$$\frac{\partial C_{coal\ mine}}{\partial t} = E_{coal\ mine} + U \times C_{background} - U \times C_{coal\ mine} \quad (5)$$

All observed CH₄ concentrations data and estimated CH₄ emissions data are used when wind direction is capable of transporting the CH₄ from either CM-A or CM-B towards the observation site (Figure 10), while the remaining data is not used. A discretized version of Equation 5 is given in Equation 6 and solved using a first order finite difference approach:

$$C_{Coal\ mine_{\tau_{i+1}}} - C_{coal\ mine_{\tau_i}} = E_{coal\ mine_{\tau_i}} + U_{\tau_i} \times C_{background_{\tau_i}} - U_{\tau_i} \times C_{coal\ mine_{\tau_i}} \quad (6)$$

where τ_i and τ_{i+1} are the current and next time step, and the other terms are defined as in equation 5.

All possible sets of steady-state CH_4 concentrations are computed using all possible combinations of CH_4 emissions and observed CH_4 concentrations as boundary and initial conditions and running the equation forward to equilibrium.

The analyze probabilistically by comparing the modeled CH_4 concentrations probability density function (PDF) with the observed CH_4 concentrations PDF. Differences between the PDFs are clearly associated with the different wind directions and hence geophysical locations of the CH_4 emissions sources can be distinguished.

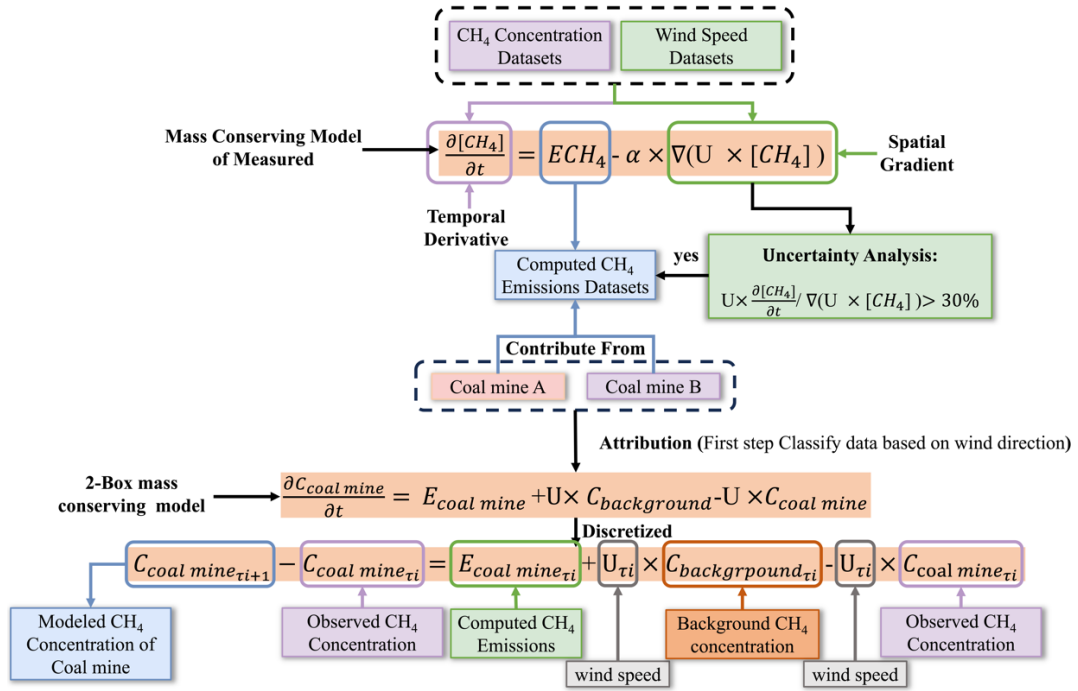


Figure 7. Overview of the MCM2 and 2-box mass conserving model used in this work.

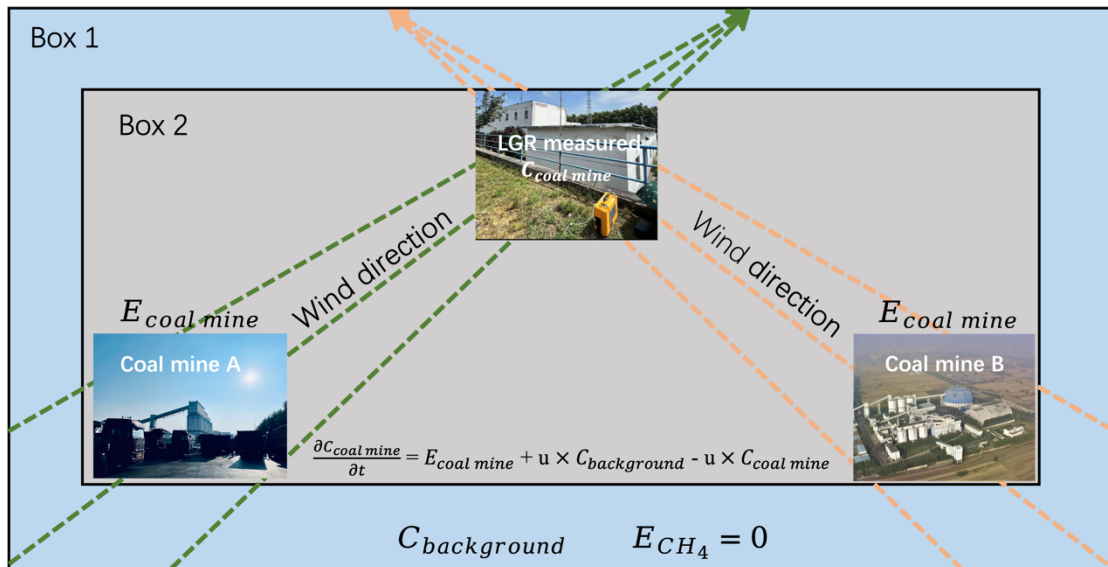


Figure 8. Schematic diagram of the 2-Box model.

2.7 Converting Emissions into Policy-Relevant Units

In order to compare the emissions with some other studies, the units (ppm min⁻¹) were converted into policy-relevant units (kg h⁻¹), although as outlined below, this conversion leads to a larger uncertainty range. According to the attribution analysis in Section 2.6, when the wind direction is located within a 60° arc of coal mine A or coal mine B (Figure 8), the respective CH₄ emissions which successfully passed attribution were assigned to the respective coal mine. Therefore, based on the wind direction, the CH₄ emissions of coal mine A reported in this study use all of the data from the north 1 km CH₄ station, the CH₄ emissions of coal mine B considered all of the data from the west 5 km CH₄ station, and the background data came from all of the non-emissions data.. adopting the following equation (7) to convert the units from ppm min⁻¹ to kg h⁻¹:

$$E'CH_4 = ECH_4 \times \rho_{air} \times H \times A \times 60 \quad (7)$$

$$\rho_{air} = \frac{P \times M_{air}}{R \times T} \quad (8)$$

Where $E'CH_4$ is the CH₄ emissions with unit of kg h⁻¹, ECH_4 is the CH₄ emissions with unit of ppm min⁻¹, ρ_{air} is the dry gas density (kg m³) (based on equation 8), H is the height of the vertical rise that the emissions undergo within their first minute (m), A is the area (m²) swept over an arc (Figure 9), which ranges linearly from 60° under slow wind conditions to 30° over very fast wind conditions, based on the wind speed when the direction is found to lead to successful attribution. P is the atmosphere pressure (Pa) over the sampling duration, M_{air} is the molecular weight of dry air, which is a fixed constant (28.97×10⁻³ kg mol⁻¹), R is the universal gas constant (8.314J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹), T is the air temperature (K) over the sampling duration.

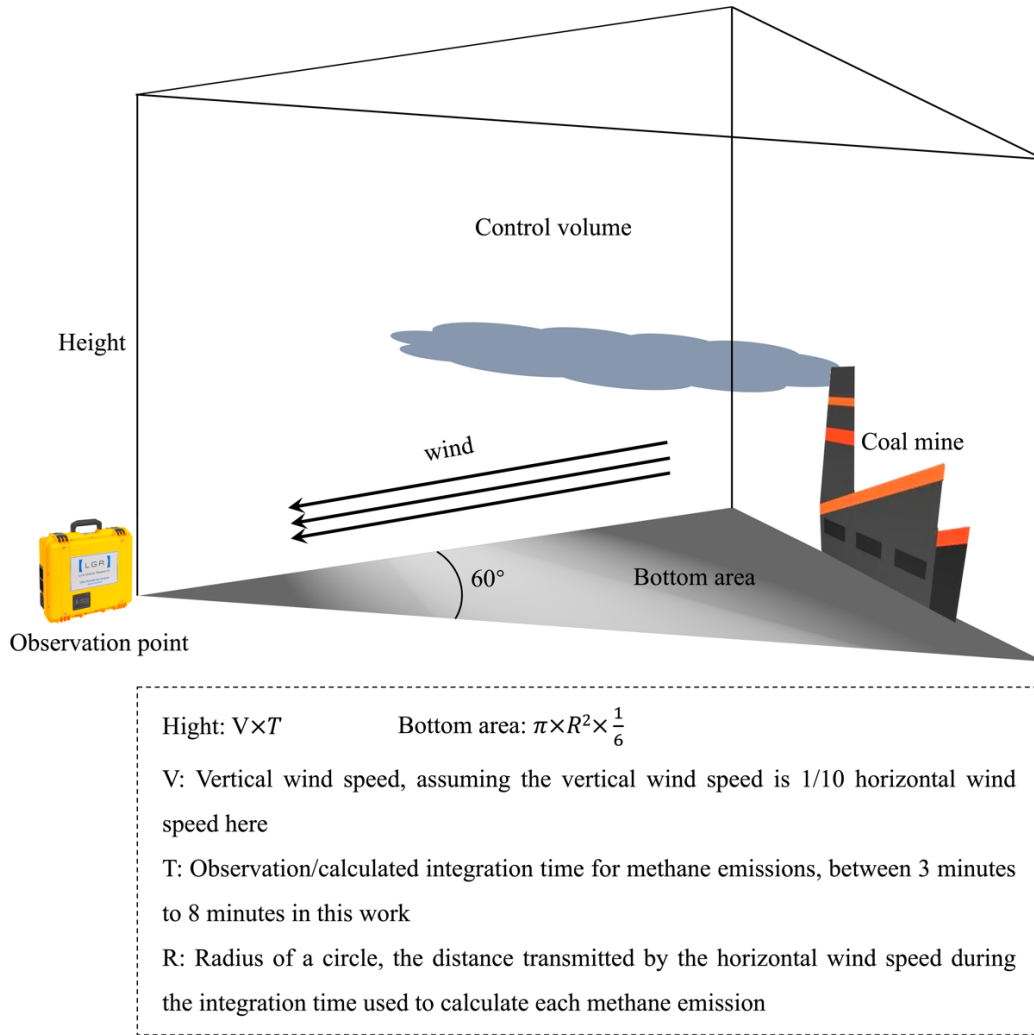


Figure 9. The control volume for CH₄ emissions unit conversion from ppm min⁻¹ to kg h⁻¹.

Two different assumptions are made for the vertical extent of the plume rise, since the emissions are computed minute-by-minute which is shorter than the adjustment time throughout the entire boundary layer (Vaughn et al., 2018; Zinchenko et al., 2002). The first is to assume it has mixed within the bottom one fourth of the boundary layer, and the second is that it has mixed based on a steady vertical rise equal to one tenth of the horizontal wind. In this work, results using both assumptions will be presented.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Spatial Distribution Characteristics of CH₄ Concentration Around Coal Mine

Time series of CH₄ concentration, wind speed, and direction at 1 km, 3 km and 5 km north of CM-A are given in Figure 10. The wind direction predominantly blew from CM-A towards the observation point (wind direction is between 150° and 210°), for about 60% of the daily observation time. Only one day (August 15) observed at 1km north with a significant amount of wind from the west (wind direction is between 240°

and 300°), accounting for approximately 92.8% of the observation time on that day. Consistent with CM-A being the major source at 1km, when the wind blew from the south, the CH₄ concentration (3.45 ± 0.79 ppm) was both higher and had a larger variation than when the wind blew from the west (2.40 ± 0.17 ppm) which was similar to background conditions. This is consistent with there being no known significant sources to the west from this observation location, as shown in Figure 2. Similarly, under faster than average wind conditions from the direction of CM-A (on August 21 the mean wind was 5.70 m s^{-1} with 14.9% of observations faster than 7 m s^{-1}), the observed CH₄ concentrations were slightly lower, yet similarly variable (3.17 ± 0.82 ppm). All of these findings are consistent with transport dominating the CH₄ concentrations at 1 km north, and that high frequency wind and CH₄ concentration observations are required in tandem to compute the required spatial gradients in the CH₄ emissions, otherwise there is no basis to objectively separate the effects of the emitting region (CM-A) from the background.

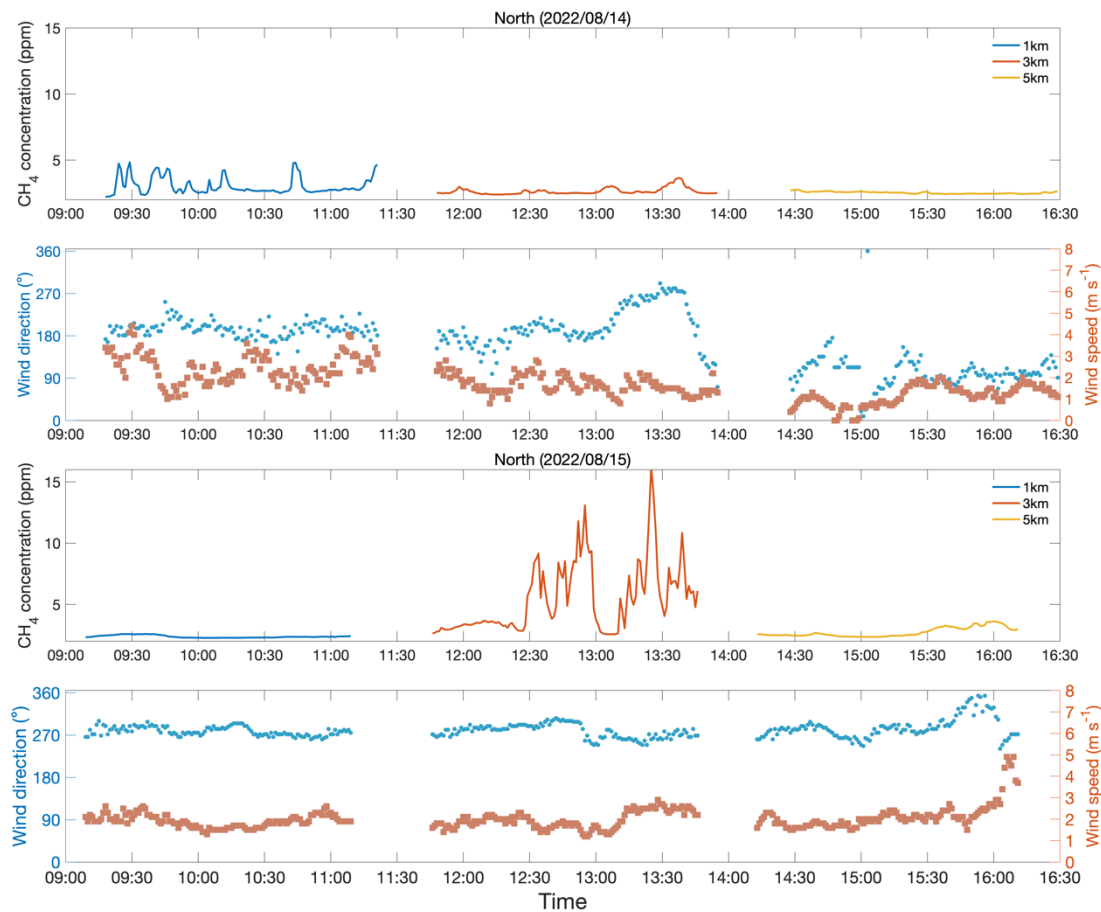


Figure 10. Time series of CH₄ concentrations (ppm), wind speed (m s⁻¹) and wind direction (°) measured at 1km (blue line), 3km (red line) and 5km (yellow line) located north of CM-A on two different days.

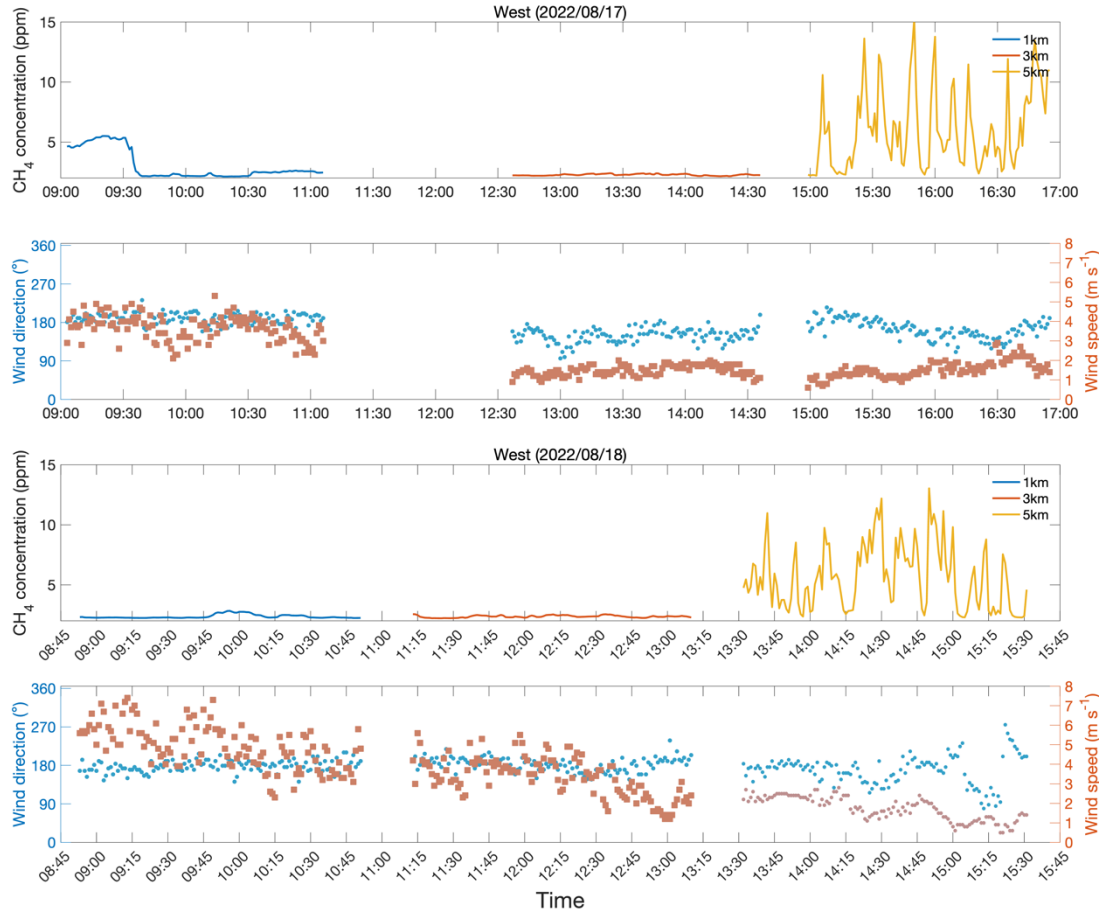


Figure 11. Time series of CH₄ concentrations (ppm), wind speed (m s⁻¹) and wind direction (°) measured at 1km (blue line), 3km (red line) and 5km (yellow line) located north of CM-A on two different days.

A similar set of findings were observed at 3 km north, while 5 km north is generally similar to the CH₄ background concentrations. At 3 km north, when the wind was from the south (59.3% of data), the CH₄ concentration was lower and more variable (3.16 ± 1.48 ppm, with 78.7% of observations below 3.0 ppm) than at 1 km north, consistent with advection from CM-A and a relatively stable atmosphere with a small contribution from diffusion between the plume and the background. When the wind blew from other directions, the distribution of CH₄ concentrations broadened considerably, with a range from background (2.25 ppm) through extremely polluted (16.2 ppm). One subset of this was observed on August 15 (observed over a total of 61 mins of observations, 6.68% of the total observations at 3 km north) when the wind was

from the west and slow, where the CH₄ concentration was (5.44±2.82 ppm), as depicted in Figure 10. The data on this day aligned with the presence of a major highway west of the observation site, which was observed in-person to have heavy traffic consisting of vehicles carrying coal (which could still be outgassing) as well as others powered by compressed natural gas (CNG) (Figure 2). At 5 km north the overall CH₄ concentrations (2.40±0.28 ppm) was generally lower than at 3km and had much lower variability, consistent with background CH₄.

Time series of CH₄ concentrations measured at 1 km, 3 km and 5 km west of CM-A and corresponding wind direction and speed are given in Figure 11. Overall, the main wind direction is from the south 98.4% of the time at 1km, 74.5% of the time at 3km, and 70.2% of the time at 5 km, and the wind speed was very high when measuring CH₄ at 1 km west, with an average value of 4.28±1.13 m s⁻¹ and a maximum of 7.4 m s⁻¹. This set of findings is consistent with clean upwind sources. Accordingly at 1km west, the observed CH₄ concentrations were slightly higher than CH₄ background concentrations and had similar variability to 1km and 3km north (2.71±0.94 ppm and 86.5% of the data below 3 ppm). At 3 km west, CH₄ concentrations was observed to be similar to the CH₄ background concentrations (2.32±0.09 ppm). The only exception was found at 1 km west between 9:00 am and 9:30 am on August 17, in which all of the observations of CH₄ concentrations were greater than 4 ppm. Since the areas to the west from 1 km west contains mostly farmland, there was no expected strong sources of CH₄, as shown in Figure 2. This indicates that during this special short time, the observed slow increase and rapid fall-off in CH₄ concentrations must be due an unidentified sources, or a change in the boundary layer or vertical mixing structure.

Following this, it was anticipated that the 5 km west site would exhibit background types of conditions, however the observed data deviates significantly. Wind speed was low (1.63±0.54 m s⁻¹, maximum 3.0 m s⁻¹), CH₄ concentrations were both very high and exhibited substantial temporal variability (5.83±2.99 ppm, 66.7% of CH₄ concentrations data exceeding 4 ppm, and peak of 15.3 ppm), and 70.2% of the CH₄ concentrations observations were from the south as demonstrated in Figure 12d,e,f. From Figure 1, it can be seen that there is another coal mine (CM-B) located about 1

km away from the 5 km west measurement point, to its southwest, although CM-B has an annual production of about 3 million tons (smaller than CM-A) and not considered to be high gas (like CM-A), and therefore was not previously considered important. The overlap of high CH₄ concentrations with low a priori emissions, suggests that formal attribution is essential to quantitatively confirm whether CM-B is the source responsible for both typical conditions at 5 km west, as well as the long-range transport event at 1 km west.

CH₄ concentrations and wind observations in all directions except to the west, and except for the small number of special events documents above, exhibit PDFs that show there is a decrease in CH₄ concentrations the further the distance from CM-A (Figures 12 and 13), indicating that CM-A is consistent with the major CH₄ emission sources in these regions. These decreases of CH₄ concentrations were observed in terms of the median, mean, distribution width, and percentage over 4.0 ppm all decreasing from 1 km north to 3 km north and again from 3 km north to 5 km north.

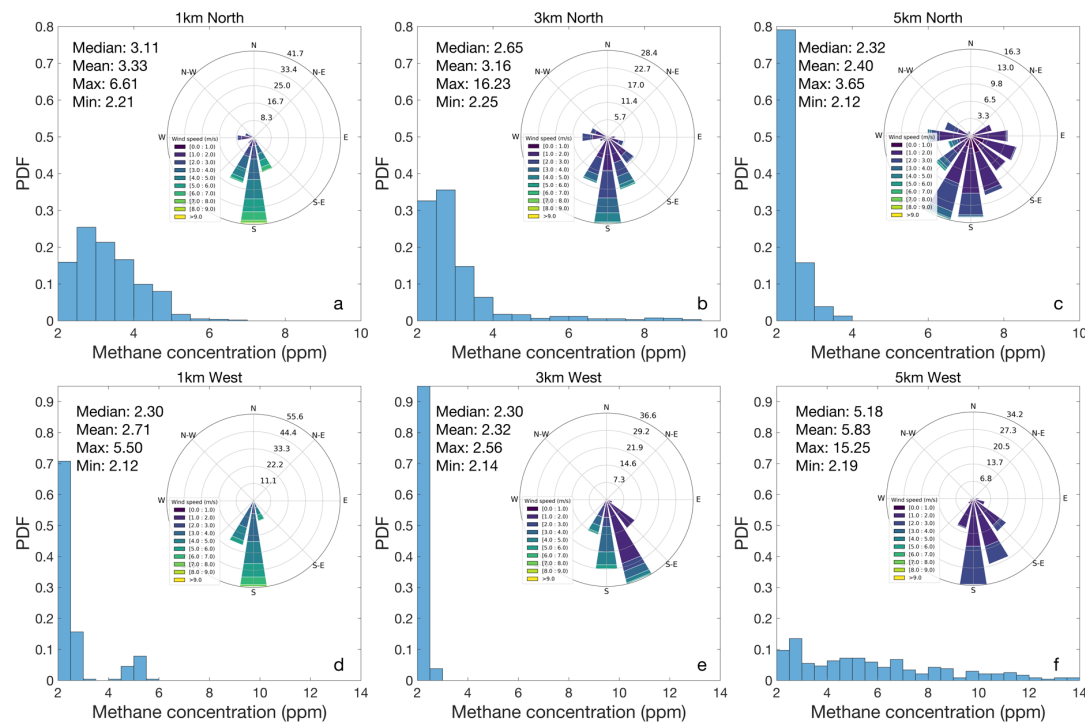


Figure 12. Probability density map for CH₄ concentrations and wind rose measured at 1 km north (a), 1 km west (d), 3 km north (b), 3 km west (e), 5 km north (c), and 5 km west (f) of CM-A and corresponding wind rose chart.

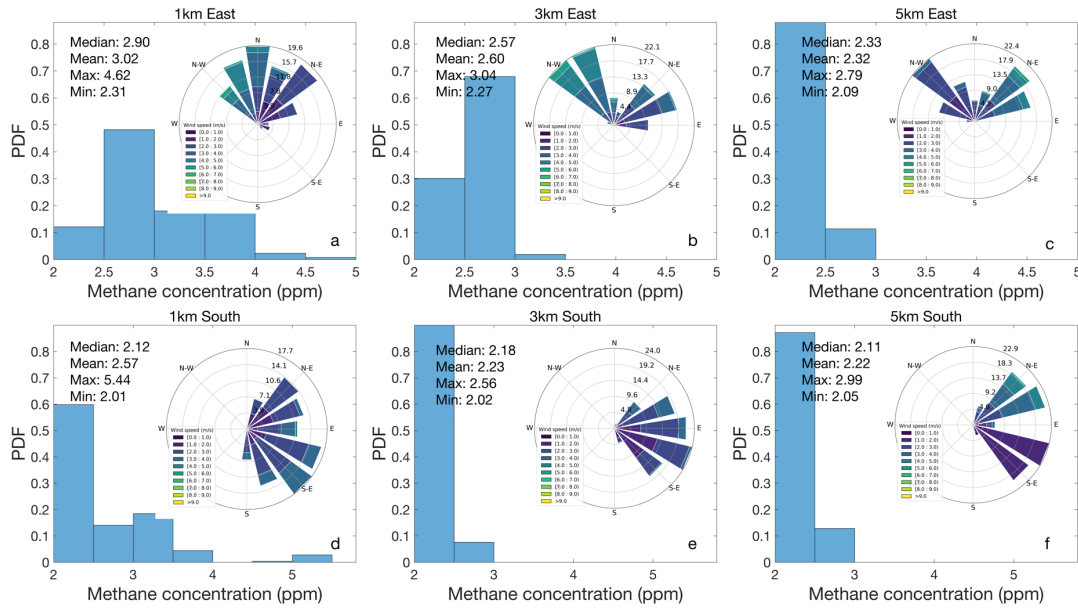


Figure 13. Probability density map for CH₄ concentrations and wind rose measured at 1 km east (a), 1 km south (d), 3 km east (b), 3 km south (e), 5 km east (c), and 5 km south (f) of CM-A and corresponding wind rose chart.

The observed CH₄ concentrations gradient as one moves westward from CM-A is inconsistent with the other ordinal directions (Figure 12d, e, f). While there was a small decrease in the mean and distribution breadth from 1 km west to 3 km west, there was a large increase in the median, mean, distribution width, percentage over 4.0 ppm from 3 km west to 5 km west. Furthermore, the data at 5 km west was found to be skewed differently than at the other sites, with approximately 70% of the CH₄ concentrations data greater than 4.0 ppm. The data clearly indicates that the 5 km west site behaves more like a CH₄ emission source region than even the 1 km north site.

3.2 Quantification and Emission Characteristics of CMM

The CH₄ emissions have been estimated at each of the observation points, with 25.7% of CH₄ concentrations observations yielding emissions results. The PDFs of the CH₄ emissions (Figures 14 and 15) reveal that the three stations in the north and the 5 km west station all are relatively high and variable, while the remainder are relatively low and non-variable. Among all the CH₄ emissions results, the highest median, mean, maximum, and breadth of the distribution are all observed at 5 km west. Another, The 3 km south location has the lowest CH₄ emissions of all points observed (by median), with a respective median, mean, maximum, and percentage greater than 1.0 ppm min⁻¹ of (0.03 ppm min⁻¹, 0.26 ppm min⁻¹, 0.90 ppm min⁻¹, 0%) (Figure 15), and is

subsequently considered representative of CH₄ background emissions in this work. It is important to note that there is no area within this region that has 0 ppm min⁻¹ emissions and that the minimum CH₄ concentration on average is about 2.23 ppm (Figure 13), both of which are considered very high or polluted compared with most other current studies (Irakulis-Loitxate et al., 2021; Sadavarte et al., 2021).

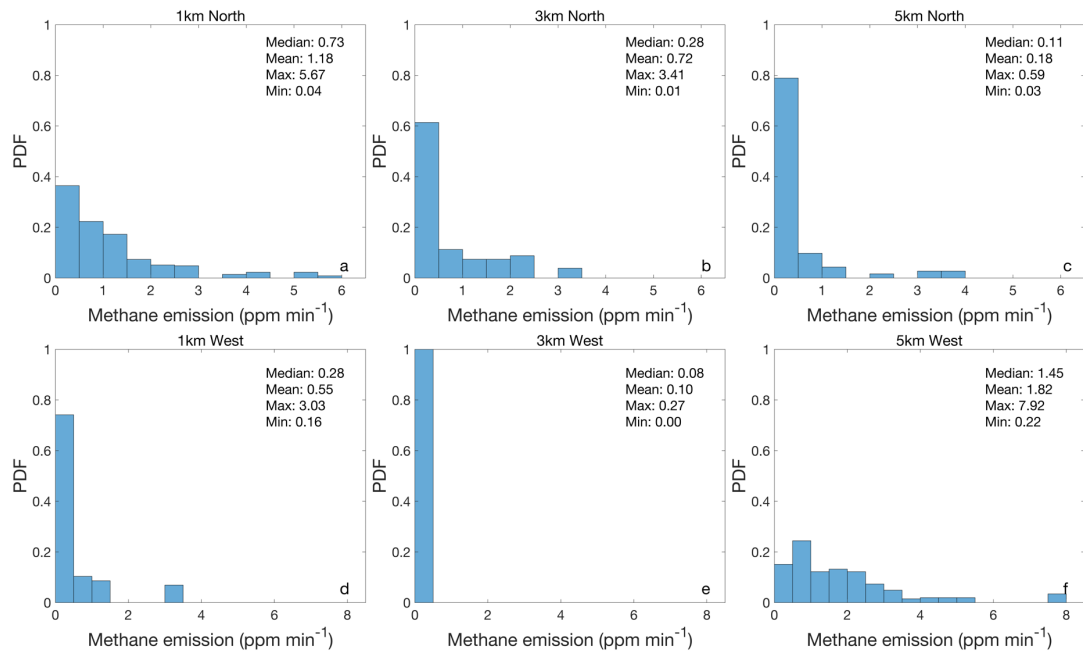


Figure 14. Probability density functions (PDF) of CH₄ emissions located at 1 km north (a), 3 km north (b), 5 km north (c), 1 km west (d), 3 km west (e), and 5 km west (f) of CM-A, including median, mean, maximum, and minimum statistics.

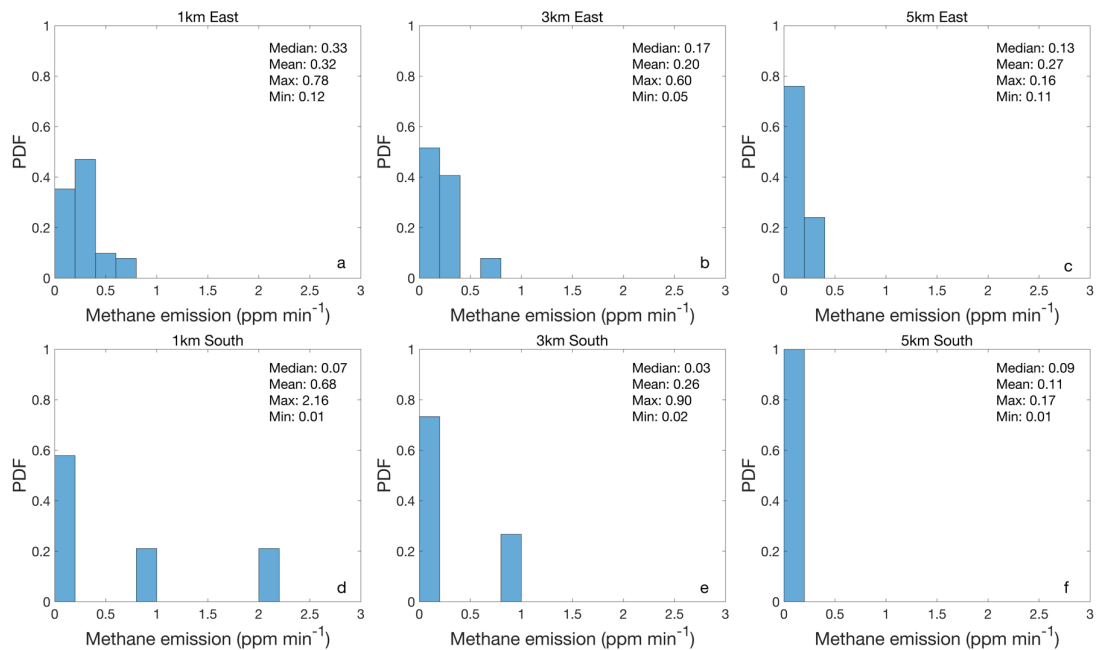


Figure 15. Probability density functions (PDF) of CH₄ emissions located at 1 km east (a), 3 km east (b), 5 km east (c), 1 km south (d), 3 km south (e), and 5 km south (f) of CM-A, including median, mean, maximum, and minimum statistics.

minimum statistics.

The spatial distribution characteristics of the CH₄ emissions is similar to that of the CH₄ concentrations observations (Figure 14). First, there is a decrease as observation points moves northward along the axis away from CM-A, with the median, mean, maximum, and percentage of emissions greater than 1.0 ppm min⁻¹ at 1 km north (0.73 ppm min⁻¹, 1.18 ppm min⁻¹, 5.67 ppm min⁻¹, and 42%) all larger than at 3 km north (0.28 ppm min⁻¹, 0.72 ppm min⁻¹, 3.41 ppm min⁻¹, and 29%). The CH₄ emissions values at 3 km north are also larger than those at 5 km north, which respectively are 0.11 ppm min⁻¹, 0.18 ppm min⁻¹, and 0.59 ppm min⁻¹, and 0%. The subset of CH₄ emissions under low wind speed conditions exhibited a larger decline from 1 km to 3 km and from 3 km to 5 km. The observations are further consistent with transport from a single dominant source located at CM-A being the primary driving factor, and diffusion from other industrial sources in Changzhi city center being a secondary factor.

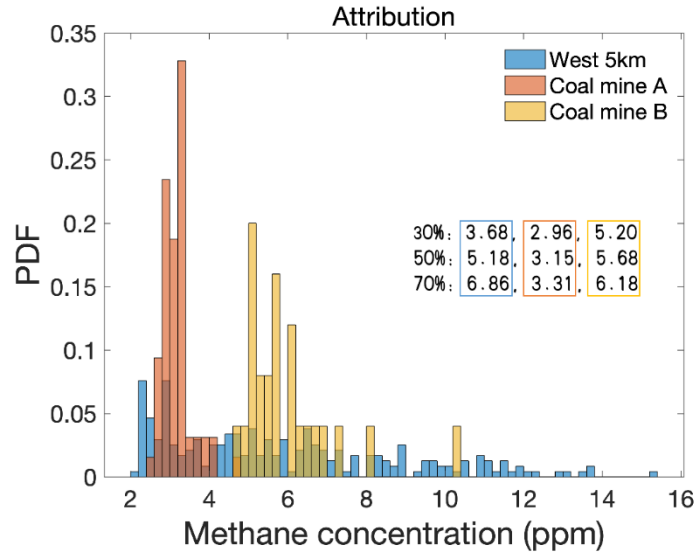
Consistent with there being few to no sources impacting the 1 km west and 3 km west sites, except for considerably less transport from CM-A the CH₄ emissions PDFs at these sites (Figure 14) demonstrate low CH₄ emissions and low variability, with the respective median, mean, maximum, and percentage of CH₄ emissions greater than 1.0 ppm min⁻¹ at 1 km west being 0.28 ppm min⁻¹, 0.55 ppm min⁻¹, 3.03 ppm min⁻¹, and 16% and at 3 km west being even lower (0.08 ppm min⁻¹, 0.10 ppm min⁻¹, 0.27 ppm min⁻¹, and 0%). However, the CH₄ emissions values at 5 km west were the highest and most variable of all results in this work, with the respective statistics being 1.45 ppm min⁻¹, 1.82 ppm min⁻¹, 7.92 ppm min⁻¹, and 60%. Furthermore, the skewness of the distribution at 5 km west (which has 30% of the CH₄ emissions above 2.0 ppm min⁻¹) is much larger than at 1 km north (which only has 15% of emissions above 2.0 ppm min⁻¹). Combining these pieces of information, at first look it seems that the site at 5 km west is not related to the CH₄ emissions from CM-A, or at best are a mixture of CH₄ emissions from CM-A and those at another site, herein proposed to be CM-B. The remainder of this study focuses on disentangling and attributing contributions from CM-A and CM-B at 5 km west, with the observations at the remaining sites ruled out in terms of having a contribution from CM-B.

3.3 Attribution of CH₄ Emissions

This work applied the 2-box model at the 5 km west site and quantified the contribution of both CM-A and CM-B CH₄ emissions to the observed CH₄ concentration distributions as given in Figure 16. First, the results of the 2-box model produce CH₄ concentrations PDFs which overlap with the overall observed CH₄ concentrations PDF, indicating that the results are reasonable. Second, space of the CH₄ emissions from the two different two coal mines do not overlap, and cover two independent portions of the observed CH₄ concentrations PDF. Specifically, the 30%, 50%, and 70% values of CH₄ concentrations observed at 5km west are 3.68 ppm, 5.18 ppm, and 6.86 ppm respectively. The CH₄ emissions from CM-A yield a CH₄ concentration less than 4 ppm most of the time, with a 30%, 50%, 70%, and maximum concentration of 2.96 ppm, 3.15 ppm, 3.31 ppm, and 4.60 ppm, while the CH₄ emissions from CM-B yield a CH₄ concentration more than 5 ppm most of the time, with a minimum, 30%, 50%, 70%, and maximum concentration of 4.76 ppm, 5.20 ppm, 5.68 ppm, and 6.18 ppm.

Overall, the CH₄ emissions from CM-B cover well the observed CH₄ concentration values from the range of 50% to 70%, with a single high value around the 90% value, while the CH₄ emissions from CM-A cover well the observed CH₄ concentration values in the range from 10% to 30%. One weakness is that the length of observation time is not as comprehensive as at the other observation sites, and therefore it is possible that had more observation time been made, the CH₄ contributions from CM-B would have filled more of the space between the 70% and 90% levels, and some combination of sources from CM-A and CM-B would have better filled the space between the 30% and 50% levels. The results indicate to a high degree of certainty that the effect of CH₄ emissions from the two respective coal mines on CH₄ concentrations at west 5 km are distinct, with CM-A the source of emissions in the lower range of the CH₄ concentration distribution and CM-B the source for emissions in the higher CH₄ concentration range, covering values in the middle and upper range. Improvements in modeling, additional observations, considering possible contributions from additional missing sources, and consideration of longer-range transport could add further improvement and better

496 explore the intermediate range of observed concentrations.



497
 498 **Figure 16. Probability density functions (PDF) of CH₄ concentrations (a) observed at the wet 5km site (blue),**
 499 **and concentrations simulated by the 2-box model resulting from emissions attributed to (b) Coal mine A (red),**
 500 **and (c) Coal mine B (orange). The respective 30th, 50th, and 70th percentiles of the distributions are given in**
 501 **text, outlined by the corresponding color box.**

502 3.4 Policy-Relevant Emissions

503 In order to compare the values of CH₄ emissions from the Shanxi coal mines computed
 504 in section 2.7, the units (ppm min⁻¹) are transformed into units of (kg h⁻¹) via a
 505 conversion factor based on equations (7) and (8). This conversion increases the overall
 506 uncertainty, since it involves approximations of the area swept, the boundary layer
 507 height, and other uncertainties. In this study, average CH₄ emissions from CM-A
 508 and CM-B are 6860±3520 kg h⁻¹ and 1010±347 kg h⁻¹, and the CH₄ emissions range is
 509 from 102 kg hr⁻¹ to 19000 kg h⁻¹ and 185 kg hr⁻¹ to 1720 kg h⁻¹ respectively (Table2).
 510 Both mines display a fat tail distribution, with respective 25th, median, and 75th
 511 percentile values of [1600, 3070, 10500] kg h⁻¹ and [755, 1086, 1416] kg h⁻¹ respectively.
 512 These findings are demonstrated to be higher than CH₄ emissions from equivalent oil
 513 and gas operations in the USA (Chen et al., 2022), with one site being roughly double
 514 and the other similar to and slightly lower than day-to-day emissions inverted over 5-
 515 years from TROPOMI (Hu et al., 2024) over the same region. This is consistent with
 516 the fact that the results herein target very high frequency and spatially confined
 517 emissions, while satellites provide day-to-day values over a larger pixel area, as well as
 518 associated significant uncertainties involved in converting from ppm to kg. In specific,

at CM-A, the minimum value (102 kg h^{-1}) of CH_4 emissions is greater than the minimum value (8 kg h^{-1}) of CH_4 emissions inverted from TROPOMI, the maximum value (19.0 ton h^{-1}) of CH_4 emissions is less than the maximum value (24.9 ton h^{-1}) of CH_4 emissions from TROPOMI. Similarly, at CM-B, the minimum value (185 kg h^{-1}) of CH_4 emissions is greater than the minimum value (20 kg h^{-1}) of CH_4 emissions inverted from TROPOMI, the maximum value (1720 kg h^{-1}) of CH_4 emissions is much smaller than the maximum value (37.3 ton h^{-1}) of CH_4 emissions from TROPOMI. In this study, observations were made within 1km of the coal mines on a minute-to-minute basis, while the TROPOMI observed the XCH_4 over a space scale ($5.5 \times 7 \text{ km}^2$) and on a day-to-day average basis, the higher temporal resolution of our in-situ measurements offers an advantage in capturing short-term variations and extreme values within the study period when compared with TROPOMI's results, due to both the fat-tail distribution and the strong temporal variation of the observations. For this reason, it is likely that the sampling time (two days) at CM-B was insufficient to fully capture the fat tail of the CH_4 emissions. The estimation of CH_4 emissions from coal mine B in this study carries multiple sources of uncertainty. First, the site has a smaller amount of data than the other sites, and therefore may be less statistically representative. Second, the site generally has a lower production level and is thought to have a lower emission, however, its method of venting is also not known and there could be other such reasons why it could have very variable emissions over time. Third, the TROPOMI emissions themselves are occurring on different grids, which have different properties in terms of surface albedo, aerosols, and other factors, and therefore will be more uncertain at site B than site A, since site A was constrained using ground-trothed data. Finally, there likely are additional sources in the same upwind regions and direction, but further from the observations than site B, which would require additional measurements in the other three ordinal directions from site B to further disentangle. More accurate CH_4 emission would require additional monitoring data over a longer time, as well as in the other three ordinal directions around site B. Furthermore, coal mine B has a relatively small coal production compared to coal mine A. Given that coal mine B is only about 6 km away from coal mine A and shares the same geological environment, its CH_4 emissions

should theoretically be lower than those from coal mine A, but only assuming if the ventilation technology and work schedules were consistent with each other, for which we have no a priori information.

Table 2. The CH₄ emissions (kg h⁻¹) of CM-A and CM-B using different observation methods and statistical methods, H means the hight.

Coal mines	High frequency ground observation CH ₄ emissions (kg h ⁻¹)								TROPOMI inverted CH ₄ emissions (kg h ⁻¹)			
	H: Lowest boundary layer				H: Vertical wind×time							
	Mean±SE	Min	Median	Max	Mean±SE	Min	Median	Max	Mean±SE	Min	Median	Max
CM-A	6860±3520	102	3070	19000	8200±4400	67	3160	22800	5500±700	8	2130	24900
CM-B	1010±347	185	1090	1720	200±65	34	211	337	6200±1000	20	1450	37300

4 Conclusions

This study presents a high frequency ground observation campaign and a new analytical top down emissions estimation approach to quantify the emissions of CH₄ from a high gas coal mine region with multiple mines. The base observations are made using a portable greenhouse gas analyzer in connection with meteorological and other optical measurements. Observations have been made over 15 days at a frequency of 1 Hz, at various locations of known distance from an existing high production coal mine. The high frequency observations are then used in connection with a mass conserving modeling platform to estimate the CH₄ emissions rate. A mass-conserving Two-Box model was used for attribution analysis in this study. The results show that the spatial characteristics of CH₄ concentration/emissions are consistent with the distance from a well characterized of single coal mine within 5km distance, and CH₄ emissions demonstrate clear first order effects of both transport and diffusion, with CH₄ emission rates of 0.73, 0.28 and 0.15 ppm min⁻¹ at 1, 3 and 5 km downwind respectively. At 5 km north the overall CH₄ concentration (2.40±0.28 ppm) was generally lower than at 3km and had much lower variability, consistent with background CH₄, which demonstrate that the CMM emissions mainly affect the surrounding area within 5 km distance. However, the overlap of two coal mines (CM-A and CM-B) have a far more complex distribution of CH₄ emissions intensity, ranging as high as 1.82 ppm min⁻¹, which is much higher than the emissions of single source at any directions. Another, the

background concentration of surface CH₄ in the mining areas is very high compared with other studies, with a value always at and above 2.23 ppm. Finally, in order to compare these results with results from other parts of the world, the subset of emissions which successfully underwent attribution were converted into the unit of kg h⁻¹ using an approximation of the volume swept by the wind and other approximations of the atmosphere. The resulting values were found to be 6860±3520 kg h⁻¹ and 1010±347 kg h⁻¹ respectively, which are higher than CH₄ emissions from equivalent oil and gas operations in the USA, and in one case are higher than but in the other case similar to day-to-day emissions inverted from 5-years of TROPOMI over the same region.

This work demonstrates that high frequency surface observations of CH₄, in combination with high frequency observations of wind can provide deep insights into emissions by accounting for high frequency changes in space and time at the same time, which tend to be missing from models which used more idealized approaches (such as average plume shapes and sizes, levels of coal production, and interpreting gradients from a small number of fixed images). A significant source of CH₄ emissions from a previously unknown or improperly classified mine may pose a vastly different range of observed concentration as well as computed emissions than expected. The importance of observations at both high frequency and regional spatial coverage are demonstrated, and a set of practical methods that are freely open and can be adopted and modified rapidly are provided. The approach to source attribution used herein can provide insights to policymakers to formulate regional emission control policies and provide a check on or a priori assumption for the new generation of advance satellite-based top-down emissions estimates, while demonstrating that spatial attribution is a critical next-step for satellite approximations and CH₄ control policies.

Data Availability. All underlying data herein are freely available for review and use (after appropriate citation) at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24464149>.

Author contributions. K.Q., J.B.C. and F.L. designed the research; F.L., C.Y., and Y.S. collected the data; J.B.C. and F.L. analyzed the data; Q.T., W. H. and Q.X. provided the support for data analysis and drawing; Q.H., S.W gave suggestion on running the 2-Box model; F.L. wrote the manuscript with inputs from J.B.C., Q.H. and P.T.; All authors discussed the results and contributed to the final manuscript.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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