



1       **Methane Emissions Estimation from China's Leading Coal Production Hub: A**  
2       **Hybrid Hyperspectral Satellite Observations and Emission Inventory Framework**  
3

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20 **Abstract**

21 Accurate estimation of coal mine methane (CMM) emissions in Shanxi Province, China's leading  
22 coal production hub, is essential for mitigating China's anthropogenic methane emissions.  
23 Hyperspectral remote sensing is an emerging method for real-time methane monitoring with  
24 significant potential for optimizing CMM emission factors. However, limited satellite revisit  
25 frequencies can introduce biases in CMM emission estimates. To address these issues, we  
26 developed a Hierarchical Bayesian Inversion Algorithm utilizing time-series observations from  
27 seven hyperspectral satellites in Shanxi (2019-2023), comprising 215 methane plumes from 26  
28 coal mines, to estimate annual CMM emission rates with limited satellite revisit frequency.  
29 Subsequently, we integrated multi-source satellite observations with inventory data to estimate  
30 CMM emissions in Shanxi province. Our analysis yields a CMM emission factor of  $(7.9 \pm$   
31  $1.4) \times 10^{-3}$  Tg/Mt for Shanxi, with CMM emissions reaching  $11 \pm 2$  Tg/yr in 2023. We  
32 demonstrate that CMM emissions follow a right-skewed distribution in Shanxi Province, where  
33 low-frequency extreme methane emission events ( $\geq 10000$  kg/h) constitute approximately 25% of  
34 all time-series observations. Additionally, our results reveal that capacity reduction policies  
35 initially decreased CMM emissions, but subsequent production recovery led to emission  
36 increases, with asymmetric responses to coal price fluctuations. Our findings establish a novel  
37 strategy for CMM accounting from hyperspectral satellite observations.

38

39 **Keywords:** Coal mine methane emission, Hyperspectral satellite, Bayesian Inversion, Annual  
40 emission estimates, Emission factor optimization

41



## 42 1 Introduction

43 China is the world's largest coal producer, with coal mine methane (CMM) emissions  
44 representing the dominant anthropogenic methane source (bp, n.d.; Liu et al., 2021; Peng et al.,  
45 2016; Saunio et al., 2020). Mitigating Chinese CMM emissions is critical for climate change  
46 mitigation. Shanxi Province, China's leading coal production hub, accounts for ~15% of global  
47 coal production (Peng et al., 2023) and ~21% of China's CMM emissions (Yue et al., 2012).  
48 Prioritizing the assessment and control of methane emissions from major coal production hubs  
49 represents an effective strategy for reducing China's overall CMM emissions (Lu et al., 2021),  
50 requiring reliable emission assessment data for guidance.

51 Bottom-up emission inventories provide spatially extensive, long-term estimates of  
52 Chinese CMM emissions using standardized national and regional emission factors (Commission  
53 et al., 2023; Scarpelli et al., 2022). However, with the advancement of China's coal industry  
54 reforms and rapid technological development, these standardized emission factors increasingly  
55 diverge from observed CMM emission levels (Gao et al., 2021; Kang et al., 2024; Khanna et al.,  
56 2024; Wang et al., 2024a). Although recent studies have developed bottom-up corrections for  
57 Chinese CMM emissions (Chen et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2023), the spatiotemporal variability of  
58 CMM emissions makes it challenging for bottom-up emission factors to accurately characterize  
59 emission patterns (Tibrewal et al., 2024). Consequently, existing bottom-up estimates for  
60 Chinese and Shanxi CMM emissions remain inconsistent with ground-based and satellite  
61 monitoring observations (Guo et al., 2023; Miller et al., 2019).

62 Top-down methods assimilating satellite and ground data through atmospheric transport  
63 models reveal spatiotemporal emission characteristics while improving estimation accuracy  
64 (Chen et al., 2022; Miller et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2022). The TROPospheric Monitoring  
65 Instrument (TROPOMI) can observe atmospheric methane column enhancements at  $7 \text{ km} \times 3.5$   
66 km spatial resolution, providing  $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$  resolution estimates of Shanxi CMM emissions  
67 through Bayesian inversion (Peng et al., 2023). While these top-down approaches offer sufficient  
68 spatial resolution to identify significant CMM emission regions, they face limitations in  
69 attributing methane column enhancements to specific mines when developing targeted mitigation  
70 measures, particularly in coal-dense production hubs (Hong et al., 2021; Lauvaux et al., 2022;  
71 Schuit et al., 2023; Tan et al., 2023).

72 Hyperspectral satellites can accurately identify coal mine point sources at high spatial  
73 resolution (Han et al., 2024; He et al., 2024). However, due to cloud cover and revisit frequency,  
74 hyperspectral satellite observations of methane emissions from individual mines are limited and  
75 prone to capturing extreme emission events (Bai et al., 2024; Han et al., 2024; He et al., 2024;  
76 Qin et al., 2024). This leads to biased estimates of annual methane emission based on limited  
77 hyperspectral satellite observations—a challenge that extends to anthropogenic methane  
78 monitoring from oil/gas facilities and landfills (Beaven and Scheutz, 2019; Irakulis-Loitxate et  
79 al., 2024). The limited revisit frequency of hyperspectral satellites, which hampers  
80 characterization of significant temporal emission variability, represents a widely recognized  
81 barrier requiring urgent resolution.

82 To address these research gaps, this study utilized observations from seven hyperspectral  
83 satellites (GF5-01, GF5-02, ZY1-02D/02E, PRISMA, GHGSat, EnMAP, EMIT) overpassing  
84 Shanxi Province during 2019-2023 to develop a novel Hierarchical Bayesian inversion algorithm  
85 for accurately estimating annual methane emission flux rates from coal mines with low satellite



86 revisit frequencies. Integrating top-down satellite observations with bottom-up inventory data,  
87 we calculated the CMM emission factor for Shanxi, established a facility-level inventory, and  
88 analyzed temporal characteristics of Shanxi CMM emissions from 2000-2023. Our findings  
89 provides an optimization strategy for national/regional CMM accounting.

## 90 **2 Data and Methods**

### 91 **2.1 Datasets**

92 We analyzed images from seven hyperspectral satellites (GF5-01, GF5-02, ZY1-  
93 02D/02E, PRISMA, GHGSat, EnMAP, EMIT) overpassing Shanxi Province during 2019-2023  
94 to estimate CMM emissions. Mines with  $\geq 3$  satellite revisits were classified as having time-  
95 series methane observations, with extracted data forming the Shanxi CMM emission time-series  
96 dataset. **Figure A1** shows the temporal distribution of effective methane plume detections from  
97 seven hyperspectral satellites for these mines. Mines with  $< 3$  revisits were classified as having  
98 limited observations, with missing data in at least two seasons.

99 The Global Coal Mine Tracker (GCMT) is an open-source database that records detailed  
100 information on representative surface and underground coal mines globally (Global Energy  
101 Monitor, 2023). The database encompasses key parameters including annual production (Mt),  
102 mine size ( $\text{km}^2$ ), mine depth (m), workforce size, coordinates, and operational status. While  
103 GCMT exhibits spatial gaps in documenting small-medium coal mines in Shanxi Province due to  
104 restricted access to government websites and limited availability of physical documentation, its  
105 high degree of open accessibility facilitates global application of methodologies developed using  
106 this database. The representative coal mine dynamics captured in GCMT effectively reflect  
107 regional spatiotemporal characteristics of coal mining activities, making it a preferred data  
108 source for validation and comparative assessment in existing CMM emission accounting studies  
109 (Bai et al., 2024; Han et al., 2024; Hauenstein, 2023; Jasansky et al., 2023; Sadavarte et al.,  
110 2022; Scarpelli et al., 2025). Consequently, we coupled the GCMT database with observations  
111 from seven hyperspectral satellites to calculate CMM emission factors for Shanxi Province and  
112 establish a facility-level methane emission inventory.

113 Due to incomplete coverage of mines in GCMT, we used Berkeley Lab's annual Shanxi  
114 coal production statistics (2000-2023) (Lin et al., 2025) for provincial emission calculations.  
115 Monthly coal prices (Qinhuangdao Q5500 thermal coal and Australia Newcastle steam coal spot  
116 prices) were averaged annually to analyze economic influences on emission trends (Wang et al.,  
117 2024b).

### 118 **2.2 Methane plume detection and quantification from hyperspectral satellites**

119 We employed Matched Filter algorithm to retrieval the methane column enhancements  
120 from six satellites (Bai et al., 2024; Dennison et al., 2013; Foote et al., 2020; Thompson et al.,  
121 2015) (GHGSat data products provided pre-processed results). GEOS-FP 10-m wind data ( $U_{10}$ )  
122 were used to support manual plume identification; a plume was deemed valid when its  
123 elongation direction formed an acute angle with the wind vector (**Figure A2a-c**) (Lauvaux et al.,  
124 2022). Plume origins were attributed to specific coal mines using Google Earth imagery, and  
125 high-value pixels within each plume were assigned to the corresponding emission facility  
126 (**Figure A2d**). In this case, all three plumes traced back to ventilation shafts at the same mine.  
127 Methane flux rates were estimated using the Integrated Mass Enhancement (IME) method



128 (Frankenberg et al., 2016; Irakulis-Loitxate et al., 2024), with effective wind speed ( $U_{eff}$ )  
129 relationships derived from large eddy simulations conducted in Changzhi, Shanxi (Fei et al.,  
130 2023).

131 Controlled methane release experiments have comprehensively validated the precision of  
132 methane point-source emission detection and quantification using multiple hyperspectral  
133 satellites (Sherwin et al., 2023). Quantification uncertainties remain consistently minimal across  
134 all satellite platforms and research teams (Sherwin et al., 2024). For all emissions identified  
135 through hyperspectral measurements, the parity plots from each satellite team demonstrate strong  
136 concordance with the theoretical 1:1 relationship. Mean estimation accuracy exceeds 80% for all  
137 satellite team combinations, while  $R^2$  values for linear regression of fully blinded assessments  
138 range between 0.89 and 0.97 (Li et al., 2024; Sherwin et al., 2023, 2024). These validation  
139 results confirm the robust capability of hyperspectral satellite platforms to identify and quantify  
140 methane point-source emissions through Matched Filter and IME methodologies.

141 We attributed 26 mines with time-series observations linked to 215 methane plumes.  
142 Among GCMT-recorded mines with detected emissions ( $n=13$ ), seven had time-series  
143 observations and six had limited observations from hyperspectral satellites.

### 144 2.3 Hierarchical Bayesian Inversion Algorithm

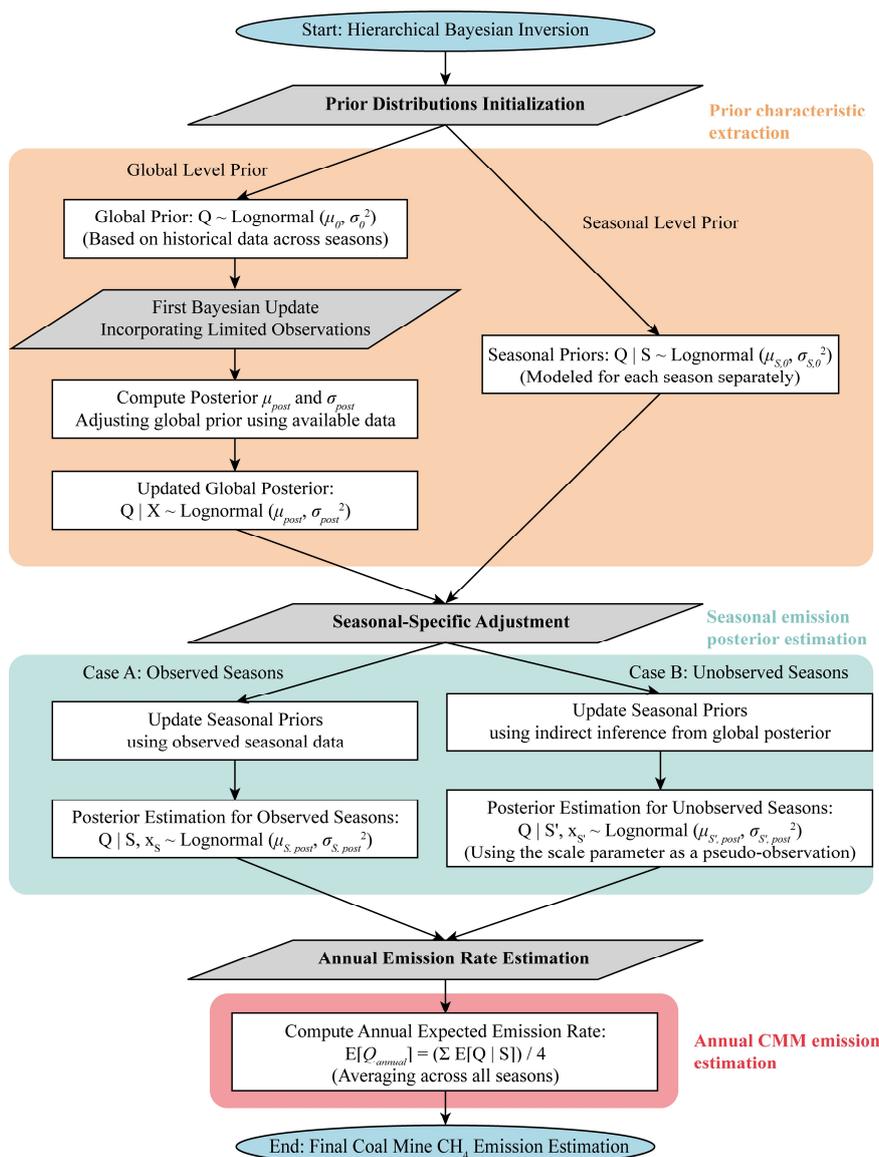
145 To accurately estimate annual methane fluxes and reduce estimation errors caused by  
146 limited hyperspectral satellite revisit frequencies, we developed a novel Hierarchical Bayesian  
147 inversion algorithm. The algorithm extracts global and seasonal characteristics from 2019-2023  
148 Shanxi time-series observations, combining these with limited target mine observations to  
149 estimate annual methane emission fluxes, as illustrated in **Figure 1**.

150 *Prior Characteristic Extraction:* Global prior characteristics  $Q \sim \text{Lognormal}(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$  and  
151 seasonal prior characteristics  $Q|S \sim \text{Lognormal}(\mu_{s,0}, \sigma_{s,0}^2)$  were extracted from the 2019-2023  
152 Shanxi Province coal mine time-series hyperspectral satellite methane emission observation  
153 dataset.

154 *First-Layer Bayesian Update:* The global prior characteristics undergo first-layer  
155 Bayesian updating using limited methane emission observations from the target mine to generate  
156 global posterior characteristics  $Q|X \sim \text{Lognormal}(\mu_{post}, \sigma_{post}^2)$ , which characterize the target  
157 mine's overall emission tendency.

158 *Second-Layer Bayesian Update:* For seasons with target mine methane emission  
159 observations, the seasonal prior characteristics are updated through second-layer Bayesian  
160 updating using the target mine's hyperspectral satellite methane emission observations for that  
161 season, generating seasonal posterior characteristics  $Q|S, x_S \sim \text{Lognormal}(\mu_{s,post}, \sigma_{s,post}^2)$  and  
162 inversely estimating seasonal methane emission flux rates. For seasons lacking target mine  
163 methane emission observations, the target mine's global posterior characteristics serve as indirect  
164 information for second-layer Bayesian updating of seasonal prior characteristics, generating  
165 seasonal posterior characteristics  $Q|S', x_{S'} \sim \text{Lognormal}(\mu_{s',post}, \sigma_{s',post}^2)$  and inversely  
166 estimating methane emission flux rates for missing observation seasons.

167 *Annual Flux Estimation:* Annual methane emission flux rates for target mines with  
168 limited observations are obtained by averaging the hierarchical Bayesian inversion results across  
169 all four seasons.



170

171 **Figure 1.** Hierarchical Bayesian Inversion Algorithm framework: (1) extraction of prior  
 172 characteristics from hyperspectral satellite observations (orange box), (2) posterior estimation of  
 173 seasonal emissions for coal mines with limited observations (cyan box), and (3) calculation of  
 174 annual methane emissions (red box).



175 2.4 Coal mine methane emission factor

176 This study integrates top-down observations from seven hyperspectral satellites with coal  
 177 mine attribute information from the GCMT database to calculate the Shanxi CMM emission  
 178 factor ( $EF$ , Tg/Mt). Despite limitations posed by cloud cover and revisit frequency constraints of  
 179 hyperspectral satellite observations, as well as incomplete coal mine records in the GCMT  
 180 database, we successfully identified 13 operational coal mines that were consistently detected by  
 181 both satellite observations and documented in the GCMT database. These 13 coal mines are  
 182 geographically distributed across western Xinzhou, southern Yangquan, northern Jinzhong, and  
 183 central Changzhi regions of Shanxi Province—areas where TROPOMI has detected significant  
 184 methane column concentration enhancements and which encompass typical coal mining districts  
 185 (Peng et al., 2023).

186 Consequently, We derived the Shanxi CMM  $EF$  by calculating the coal production-  
 187 weighted average of  $EF$ s from these 13 representative coal mines that were both observed by  
 188 hyperspectral satellites for methane emissions and recorded in the GCMT database, as shown in  
 189 **Eq.(1)** (Chen et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2025):

$$EF = \frac{Q_1}{Prod_1} \times \frac{Prod_1}{\sum_{i=1}^{13} Prod_i} + \dots + \frac{Q_{13}}{Prod_{13}} \times \frac{Prod_{13}}{\sum_{i=1}^{13} Prod_i} = \frac{\bar{Q}}{\bar{Prod}} \quad (1)$$

190 where  $Q_i$  and  $\bar{Q}$  represent the methane emission flux rate of each individual coal mine and the  
 191 mean methane emission flux rate of the 13 coal mines, respectively (Tg/yr). For the seven coal  
 192 mines with time-series methane emission observations,  $Q_i$  values correspond to the temporal  
 193 mean of their respective time-series observations. For the six coal mines with limited methane  
 194 emission observations,  $Q_i$  values were estimated using the established Hierarchical Bayesian  
 195 inversion algorithm.  $Prod_i$  and  $\bar{Prod}$  represent the annual coal production of each individual  
 196 mine and the mean annual coal production of the 13 coal mines, respectively (Mt/yr). The  $Prod_i$   
 197 values for each mine were obtained from the GCMT database.

198 Following uncertainty propagation principles, we calculated the uncertainty ( $\sigma_{EF}$ , Tg/Mt)  
 199 of the  $EF$  using **Eq.(2)**. Here,  $\sigma_{Q_i}$  represents the uncertainty in methane emission flux rate for  
 200 each coal mine. For mines with time-series methane emission observations, we calculated  $\sigma_{Q_i}$   
 201 using **Eq.(3)-(6)**:

$$\sigma_{EF} = \left| \frac{\partial EF}{\partial \bar{Q}} \right| \cdot \sigma_{\bar{Q}} = \frac{1}{\bar{Prod}} \cdot \sigma_{\bar{Q}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{13} \sigma_{Q_i}}{13 \cdot \bar{Prod}} \quad (2)$$

$$\sigma_{Q_i} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sigma_{q_i} \quad (3)$$

$$\sigma_{q_i} = q \times \frac{\sigma_{U_{eff}}}{U_{eff}} \times 2 \quad (4)$$

$$\sigma_{U_{eff}} = \sigma_{U_{10}} \times 0.37^2 \quad (5)$$



$$\sigma_{U_{10}} = -\frac{1}{6600}\tau + 2.55 \quad (6)$$

202 where  $N$  represents the number of satellite revisits to the coal mine by the seven hyperspectral  
 203 satellites, and  $\sigma_{q_i}$  represents the uncertainty in methane emission rate ( $q$ ) estimates when  
 204 hyperspectral satellites overpass the coal mine. Following the approach of Li et al. (2023), we  
 205 implemented identical assumptions to derive the computational framework in **Eq.(4)** (Varon et  
 206 al., 2018). The uncertainty quantification for  $U_{eff}$  in **Eq.(5)** was established through linear  
 207 regression analysis of the  $U_{eff}-U_{10}$  relationship parameterized via large eddy simulation  
 208 modeling (Li et al., 2023). Based on GEOS-FP  $U_{10}$  uncertainties ( $\sigma_{U_{10}}$ ) reported by Veron et al.  
 209 (2018), we developed the relationship expressed in **Eq.(6)** to characterize  $\sigma_{U_{10}}$  as a function of  
 210 plume lifetime ( $\tau$ ).

211 We calculated  $\sigma_{Q_i}$  for coal mines with limited methane emission observations through  
 212 random sampling inversion estimation experiments. First, we constructed scenarios with limited  
 213 methane emission observations (one or two observations) using time-series observations from  
 214 Gucheng coal mine in Shanxi Province. Gucheng mine had 18 hyperspectral satellite time-series  
 215 observations spanning four seasons from 2019-2023, making it representative. From the 18 time-  
 216 series observations at Gucheng mine, we randomly selected 1 observation 10 times and 2  
 217 observations 15 times, ensuring these 25 random samples were non-overlapping, thereby  
 218 creating 25 scenarios of Gucheng mine with limited methane emission observations. Second, we  
 219 applied the established Hierarchical Bayesian inversion algorithm to estimate CMM emission  
 220 flux rates for these 25 limited observation scenarios, with results shown in **Figure A3**. We found  
 221 that methane emission flux rates estimated from two observations were closer to the mean of  
 222 Gucheng mine's 18 time-series observations (reference value,  $\bar{y}$ ) than those estimated from single  
 223 observations, indicating that higher satellite revisit frequencies capture more information related  
 224 to CMM emission patterns. Finally, we calculated  $\sigma_{Q_i}$  for coal mines with limited observations  
 225 using **Eq.(7)**, based on the methane emission flux rate ( $\hat{y}_i$ ) estimates from the 25 ( $k$  value)  
 226 simulation scenarios.

$$\sigma_{Q_i} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k (\hat{y}_i - \bar{y})^2} \quad (7)$$

227 A facility-level CMM emission inventory for Shanxi Province was established by  
 228 applying the Shanxi CMM  $EF$  to annual production data for each coal mine in the GCMT  
 229 dataset. Provincial-level emissions for 2000-2023 were estimated by multiplying the Shanxi  
 230 CMM  $EF$  by Berkeley Lab's annual coal production statistics for Shanxi Province, as detailed in  
 231 **Section 2.1**.

232



233 **3 Results and discussion**

234 3.1 Point-source methane emission intensities from coal mines in Shanxi Province

235 Hyperspectral satellites provide precise detection of methane enhancement plumes from  
236 coal mine emissions at fine spatial resolution. **Figure 2** illustrates representative examples of  
237 methane plumes captured by seven hyperspectral satellite platforms in Shanxi Province. Our  
238 analysis reveals substantial variability in emission rates across CMM plumes. Notably, GF5-01  
239 detected a methane plume from a coal mine in Changzhi during winter 2019 with an emission  
240 rate of  $(5.9 \pm 2.5) \times 10^3$  kg/h, approximately twice the emission rate observed by EnMAP at the  
241 same facility during winter 2022. However, both observations were significantly lower than the  
242 emission rate captured by PRISMA during winter 2021, which recorded  $(1.1 \pm 0.5) \times 10^4$  kg/h at  
243 the identical coal mine. Similarly, GF5-02 detected a methane plume from this coal mine in May  
244 2022, approximately one-third of the emission rate observed by GHGSat at the same facility in  
245 June of the same year. In contrast to the Changzhi coal mine with time-series hyperspectral  
246 satellite observations, EMIT captured only a single methane emission event from a coal mine in  
247 Xinzhou during winter 2023, recording an emission rate of  $(9.8 \pm 3.5) \times 10^3$  kg/h. This  
248 observation approaches the emission rate detected by PRISMA at the Changzhi coal mine during  
249 the same seasonal period in 2021, yet remains significantly higher than other methane plume  
250 examples from the Changzhi facility presented in **Figure 2**.

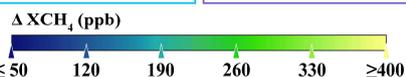
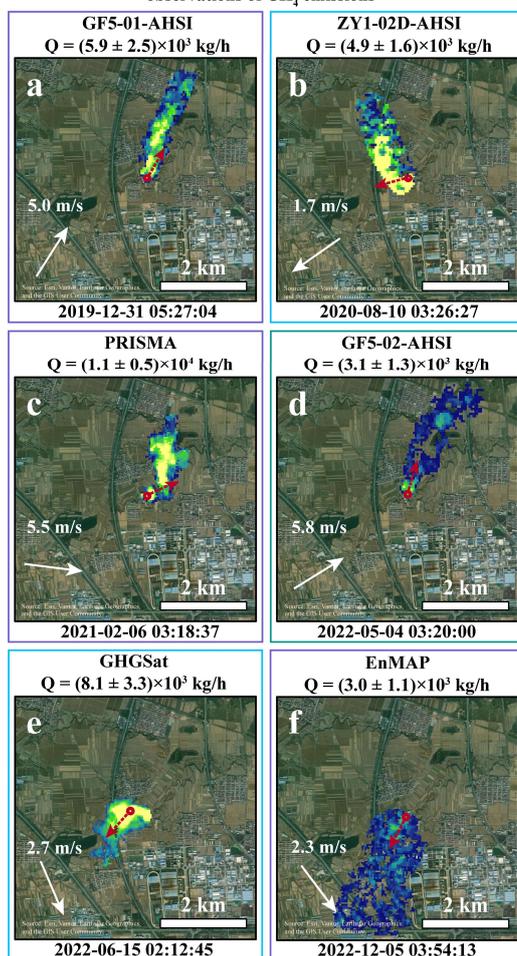
251 Our hyperspectral satellite observations of CMM emissions in Shanxi Province reveal  
252 pronounced temporal variability in emission characteristics. Accurate quantification of CMM  
253 emissions necessitates time-series observational data to characterize temporal emission patterns,  
254 including seasonal variations, for reliable annual methane emission estimates. However, the  
255 revisit frequency of current hyperspectral satellites is constrained by operational parameters and  
256 atmospheric conditions such as cloud cover, resulting in preferential detection of extreme  
257 methane emission events rather than systematic monitoring of emission patterns. This limitation  
258 is exemplified by EMIT's single extreme emission observation from the Xinzhou coal mine  
259 (**Figure 2**). Consequently, annual methane emission estimates based solely on limited  
260 observational records would introduce substantial estimation biases. Therefore, establishing  
261 comprehensive time-series hyperspectral satellite observation databases through multi-satellite  
262 collaborative monitoring represents a critical step toward addressing this challenge. By  
263 leveraging time-series hyperspectral satellite observations of CMM emissions, we can extract  
264 characteristic emission patterns to improve the accuracy of annual methane emission accounting  
265 for coal mines with limited observational coverage.

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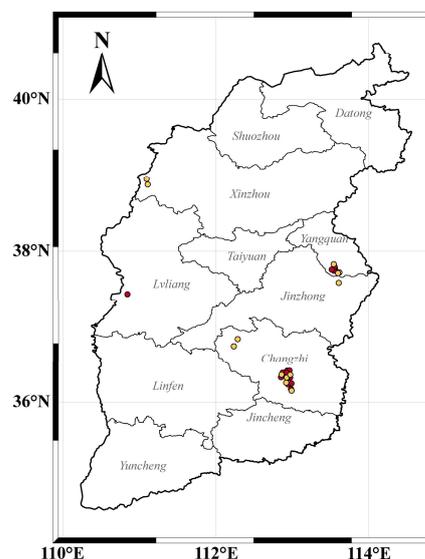


**A Changzhi coal mine example**

● Coal mines with time-series satellite observations of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions

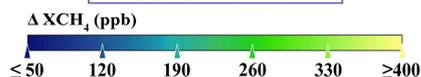
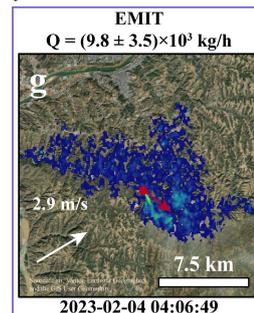


**Top-down and bottom-up estimation of Shanxi coal mine CH<sub>4</sub> emissions**



**A Xinzhou coal mine example**

● Coal mines with CH<sub>4</sub> emissions detected by satellite and detailed GCMT records



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**Figure 2.** Hyperspectral satellite methane plume detection and quantification results: (a)-(f) Examples of methane plume masks from GF5-01, ZY1-02D, PRISMA, GF5-02, GHGSat, and EnMAP for a coal mine in Changzhi with time-series observations; (g) EMIT methane plume mask for a coal mine in Xinzhou. The red dashed arrow denotes the methane concentration gradient direction near the plume source. The upper-right inset shows spatial distribution of coal mines with time-series hyperspectral satellite methane observations and GCMT-recorded mines with detected emissions in Shanxi. Background RGB imagery in (a)-(g) is Powered by Esri.



275

### 276 3.2 Coal mine methane emission factors in Shanxi Province

277 We employed our Hierarchical Bayesian Inversion Algorithm to optimize annual average  
278 methane emission rates for 6 coal mines with limited hyperspectral satellite observations from 13  
279 GCMT-recorded mines with detected emissions. Coupling hyperspectral satellite observations  
280 with GCMT inventory data yielded a CMM emission factor of  $(7.9 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-3}$  Tg/Mt for Shanxi  
281 Province.

282 Accurate estimation of annual methane emissions requires comprehensive understanding  
283 of coal mine emission patterns. **Figures 3a** and **3b** demonstrate that emission rates from 26 coal  
284 mines with time-series hyperspectral observations exhibited predominantly right-skewed  
285 distributions, as did emission rates from 215 observed methane plumes. This heavy-tailed  
286 distribution characterizes temporal variability in CMM emissions through extreme events that  
287 substantially exceed typical levels. These infrequent extreme events, typically exceeding 10000  
288 kg/h, constitute approximately 25% of all time-series observations (**Figure 3b**). Seasonal  
289 distributions also exhibit right-skewness (**Figures A4**), with autumn (shape=0.98) and winter  
290 (shape=0.92) demonstrating the most pronounced skewness. The time-series observations reveal  
291 significant seasonal differences in CMM emissions (Kruskal-Wallis test,  $H=17.29$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). To  
292 assess whether uneven observation frequency across seasons affects this seasonal pattern, we  
293 conducted bootstrap resampling by randomly subsampling autumn and winter observations to  
294 match the minimum seasonal sample size ( $n=18$ ). Across 1000 iterations, 100% of tests yielded  
295 significant seasonal differences ( $p<0.05$ , **Figure A5**), confirming that the observed seasonal  
296 emission characteristics are robust and independent of sampling frequency disparities.

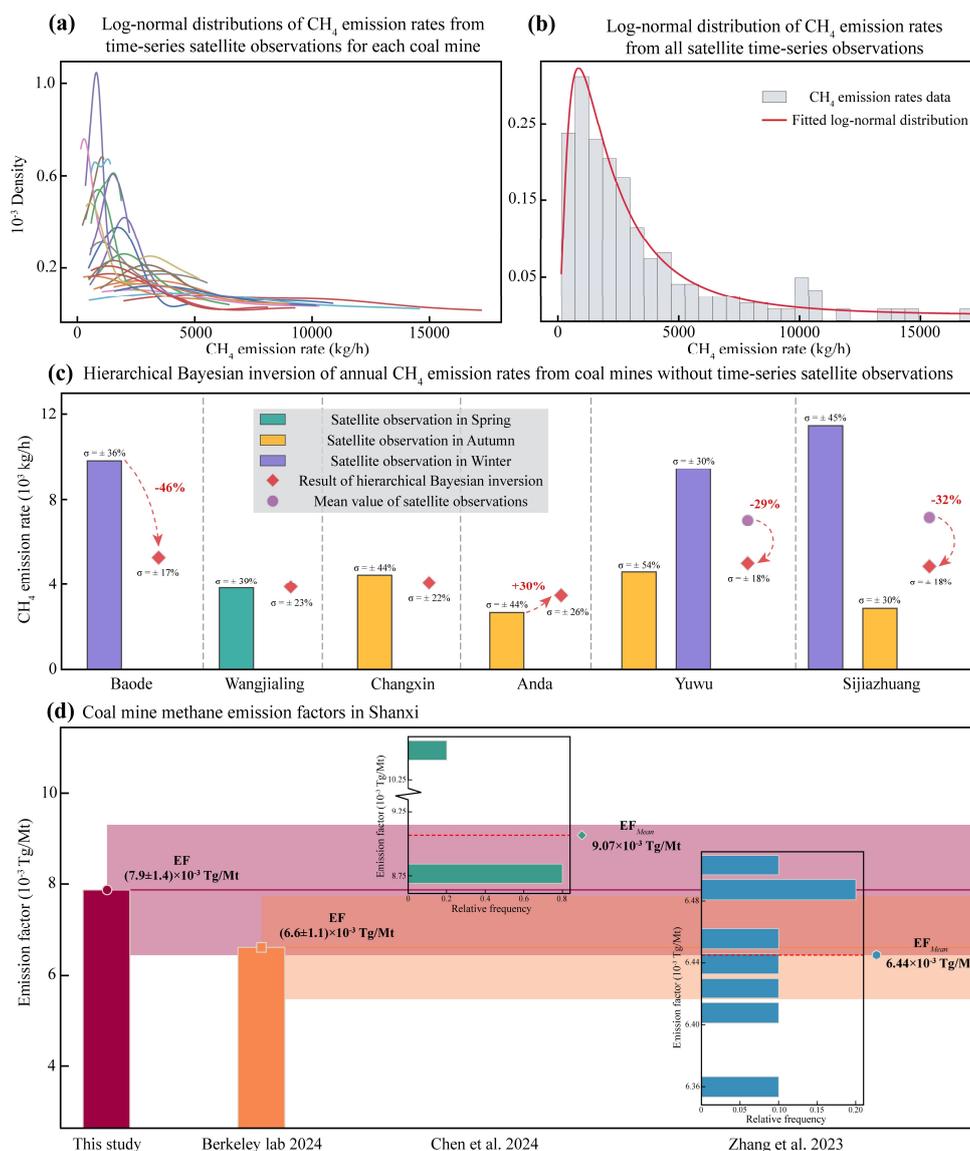
297 **Figure 3c** presents hyperspectral satellite observations from 6 coal mines with limited  
298 data availability. Baode mine exhibited only one extreme winter emission event. Given the right-  
299 skewed characteristics of coal mine emissions, direct extrapolation of annual emissions from this  
300 single observation would result in significant overestimation. Our Hierarchical Bayesian  
301 Inversion Algorithm integrated this observation with global and seasonal characteristics derived  
302 from time-series data, producing an optimized annual average emission rate 46% lower than the  
303 extreme winter observation. Yuwu and Sijiazhuang mines each possessed two observations, both  
304 containing one extreme event exceeding 10000 kg/h. Since such extreme events occur  
305 infrequently within the right-skewed distribution framework, calculation of annual emissions  
306 from the arithmetic mean of two observations would overestimate emissions by artificially  
307 amplifying extreme event frequency. Our algorithm effectively integrated satellite observations  
308 with captured emission pattern characteristics, thereby optimizing annual average estimates for  
309 Yuwu and Sijiazhuang mines to values 29% and 32% below their respective observation means.  
310 Notably, annual production and methane emissions should theoretically demonstrate strong  
311 positive correlation (Liu et al., 2024). **Figure A6** reveals that the Pearson correlation coefficient  
312 between our algorithm's emission estimates and annual production (0.78) exceeds that between  
313 satellite observations and production, indicating effective reduction of bias introduced by  
314 extreme emission values.

315 We compared our satellite-inventory coupled CMM emission factor for Shanxi Province  
316 with existing bottom-up estimates (**Figure 3d**). Berkeley Laboratory assumed a fixed provincial  
317 emission factor to calculate historical emissions, deriving  $(6.6 \pm 1.1) \times 10^{-3}$  Tg/Mt from 2011  
318 National Mine Safety Administration data—lower than our  $(7.9 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-3}$  Tg/Mt estimate (Lin



319 et al., 2025). Chen et al. (2024) used the same 2011 data but considered China's 2010-2019 coal  
320 industry capacity reduction plan involving gradual mine closures. Though tracking all abandoned  
321 mines during this period remains challenging, Chen et al. estimated annual emission factors  
322 accounting for closure policy impacts. Their 2010-2019 estimates cluster around  $8.7 \times 10^{-3}$  Tg/Mt,  
323 closely approximating our results. Zhang et al. (2023) extrapolated 2016-2023 annual factors  
324 from 2019 measurements at 182 Shanxi mines, yielding a mean of  $6.44 \times 10^{-3}$  Tg/Mt, similar to  
325 Berkeley's estimates but lower than our estimation.

326 The aforementioned bottom-up studies employed identical methods to calculate methane  
327 emission factors for individual coal mines: measuring absolute methane emission quantities on  
328 designated days within specific months under government guidance, then calculating ratios with  
329 corresponding daily production (Zhang et al., 2023). This approach facilitates large-scale surveys  
330 of CMM emission conditions. However, CMM emissions exhibit significant right-skewed  
331 characteristics, making this method inadequate for capturing temporal variability in CMM  
332 emissions, particularly prone to overlooking extreme methane emission events, potentially  
333 resulting in underestimation. In deriving the CMM emission factor for Shanxi Province, our  
334 study extracted methane emission characteristics from five years of time-series hyperspectral  
335 satellite methane emission observations, specifically considering right-skewed properties caused  
336 by extreme methane emission events. This may explain why our estimated CMM emission factor  
337 for Shanxi Province exceeds those of Berkeley Laboratory (Lin et al., 2025) and Zhang et al  
338 (2023). In contrast, our derived CMM emission factor for Shanxi Province closely approximates  
339 Chen et al. (2024)'s results, possibly because Chen et al. considered the Chinese government's  
340 coal industry capacity reduction plan, providing a more realistic representation of actual CMM  
341 emission scenarios in Shanxi Province at the provincial level (Gao et al., 2021).



342

343 **Figure 3.** (a)-(b) Emission rate distributions for coal mines with time-series observations; (c)

344 Annual emission estimates using Hierarchical Bayesian Inversion Algorithm for mines with

345 limited satellite revisits. The  $\sigma$  shows the uncertainty in satellite observations and hierarchical

346 Bayesian inversion results; (d) Comparison of coal mine methane emission factors.



347 3.3 Spatiotemporal characteristics of regional coal mine methane emissions in Shanxi Province

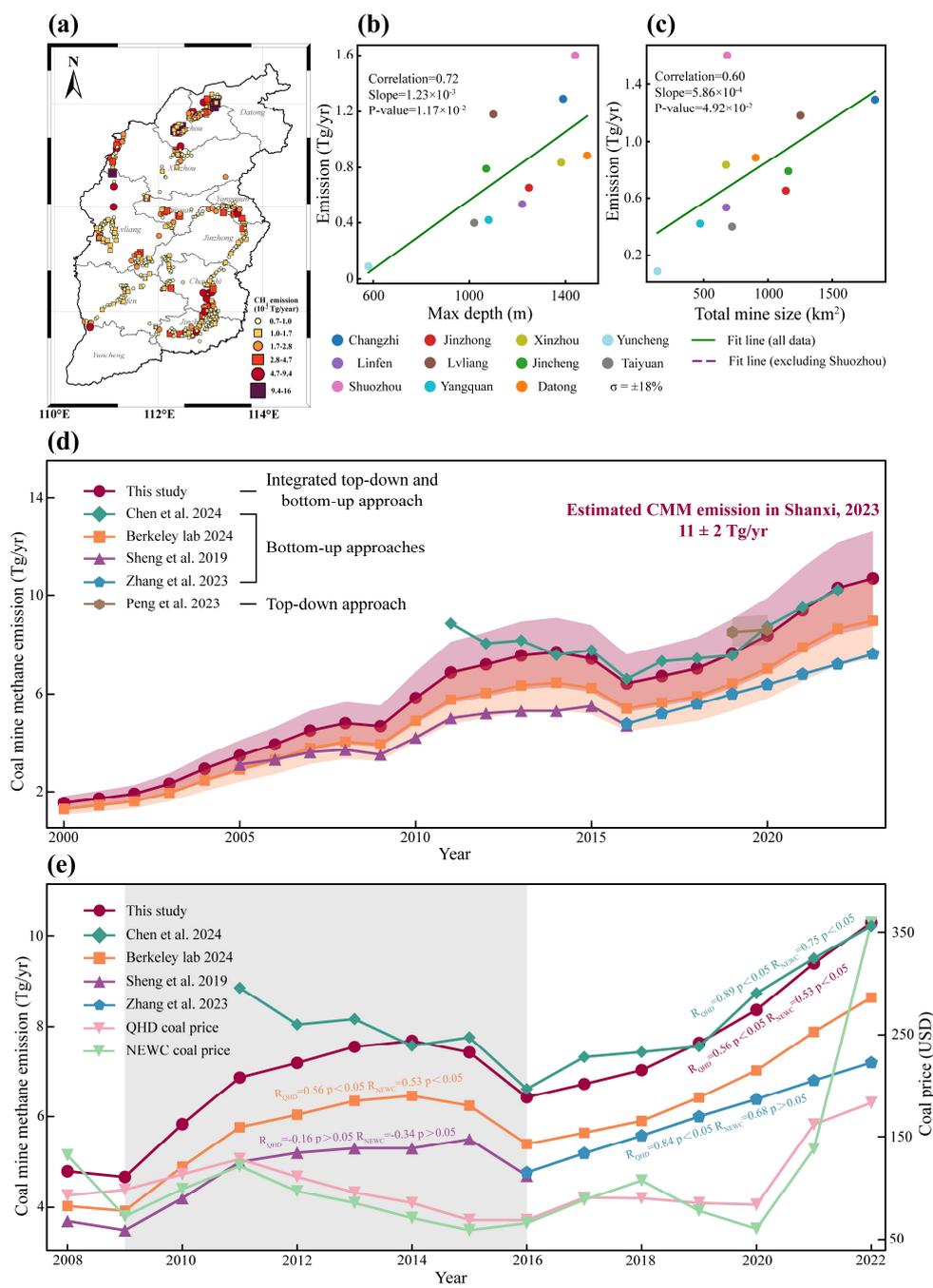
348 Our analysis reveals that Shanxi Province's CMM emissions reached  $11 \pm 2$  Tg/yr in  
349 2023. **Figure 4a** illustrates the spatial distribution of CMM emissions across Shanxi Province.  
350 Coal production regions in Yangquan, Changzhi, and central Jincheng exhibited dense mine  
351 distributions, corresponding to primary methane column concentration enhancement zones  
352 observed by TROPOMI (Peng et al., 2023). Prefecture-level analysis revealed strong positive  
353 correlations between methane emissions and operational characteristics (**Figures 4b, 4c**). Total  
354 annual methane emissions correlated strongly with maximum mining depth ( $r = 0.72$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ),  
355 reflecting increased coalbed gas pressure and methane content at greater depths (Langmuir,  
356 1918). A significant positive correlation also existed with total mine size ( $r = 0.60$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ),  
357 indicating the influence of production scale. However, mining depth exerted a more pronounced  
358 influence on methane emissions than mine area.

359 The temporal characteristics of CMM emissions in Shanxi from 2000-2023 are illustrated  
360 in **Figure 4d**. Emissions increased continuously from 2000-2008, followed by a reduction in  
361 2009 coinciding with the implementation of the Eleventh Five-Year Plan for Coal Industry  
362 Development (Yang et al., 2024), which aimed to optimize coal distribution, regulate total  
363 production, and consolidate small- and medium-sized mines. However, China's coal-dominated  
364 energy structure drove a renewed rapid increase in emissions from 2010 onwards. Following  
365 large-scale energy transition and air pollution control measures implemented by the Chinese  
366 government in 2013, emissions began declining in 2015. The expansion of coal production led to  
367 a gradual increase in emissions from 2017, reaching  $11 \pm 2$  Tg/yr in 2023. While the Berkeley  
368 Laboratory (Lin et al., 2025), Sheng et al. (2019), and Zhang et al. (2023) bottom-up assessments  
369 show consistent temporal trends with our study, their estimated annual emission intensities are  
370 consistently lower. Chen et al. (2024) demonstrated fluctuating declining trends for 2011-2015,  
371 differing from other studies, though their post-2015 trends align with previous research and their  
372 annual emission intensities approximate our estimates. Peng et al. (2023)'s top-down TROPOMI-  
373 based estimate for 2019 yielded  $8.5 \pm 0.6$  Tg/yr, exceeding both our integrated estimate of  $7.6 \pm$   
374  $1.4$  Tg/yr and Chen et al. (2024)'s bottom-up estimate of 7.56 Tg/yr. For 2020, Peng et al.  
375 (2023)'s top-down estimate of  $8.6 \pm 0.6$  Tg/yr closely matches our integrated estimate of  $8.4 \pm$   
376  $1.5$  Tg/yr and Chen et al. (2024)'s bottom-up estimate of 8.74 Tg/yr. Notably, methane emissions  
377 from open-pit mines fall below the detection limits of both TROPOMI and the hyperspectral  
378 satellites, potentially biasing satellite-derived provincial emission estimates scaled by  
379 production.

380 To elucidate the economic drivers underlying the gradual decline followed by steady  
381 increase in emissions during 2008-2022, we further conducted correlation analyses between  
382 CMM emissions and coal prices (**Figure 4e**). Both our estimates and those from Berkeley  
383 Laboratory (Lin et al., 2025) demonstrate significant positive correlations between time-series  
384 emissions and domestic QHD coal prices as well as international NEWC coal prices for 2008-  
385 2022. This relationship likely reflects China's domestic coal supply dominance (Guo et al.,  
386 2025), with Shanxi serving as the leading coal production hub. Rising coal prices stimulate  
387 provincial production and consequently increase methane emissions, while declining prices  
388 reduce mining enterprise profitability, potentially affecting production and emissions. Following  
389 brief price increases and subsequent sustained declines from 2009-2016, Sheng et al. (2019)'s  
390 emission estimates did not immediately decrease but rather decelerated growth before declining  
391 four years later, consistent with our findings and those of Berkeley Laboratory (Lin et al., 2025).



392 Chen et al. (2024)'s estimates during this period exhibited "decline-increase-decline" fluctuations  
393 following price drops, with significant reductions occurring four years later. These patterns  
394 indicate that while price declines can diminish coal production incentives, China's coal-  
395 dominated energy structure and sustained high demand prevent immediate emission reductions  
396 following price decreases. Post-2016 price increases correspond with rising emission trends  
397 across all studies examined.





399 **Figure 4.** Spatiotemporal characteristics of Shanxi coal mine methane emissions: (a) Annual  
400 methane emission fluxes and spatial distributions for 526 coal mines in 2023; (b) Prefecture-  
401 level correlations between total annual methane emission and maximum mining depth; (c)  
402 Prefecture-level correlations between total annual methane emission and total mine size. The  $\sigma$   
403 shows the uncertainty in prefecture-level coal mine methane emission estimates; (d) Time-series  
404 methane emissions (2000-2023) from bottom-up, top-down, and integrated approaches. The  
405 shaded area adjacent to the line plot represents the estimated uncertainty range; (e) Correlation  
406 analysis between QHD coal price (representing China's coal price) and NEWC coal price  
407 (representing international coal price) with temporal variations of Shanxi coal mine methane  
408 emissions (2008-2022).

#### 409 **4 Conclusions**

410 Accurate quantification of CMM emissions in Shanxi Province, China's leading coal  
411 production hub, is essential for national anthropogenic methane accounting. This study  
412 demonstrates the potential of integrating multi-hyperspectral satellite observations with  
413 inventory data to enhance emission factor derivation at provincial scales. The developed  
414 Hierarchical Bayesian Inversion Algorithm addresses a critical limitation in satellite-based  
415 methane monitoring—sparse temporal coverage—by leveraging regional emission patterns to  
416 constrain annual estimates for individual mines.

417 Our derived provincial emission factor of  $(7.9 \pm 1.4) \times 10^{-3}$  Tg/Mt and 2023 emissions of  
418  $11 \pm 2$  Tg/yr for Shanxi Province provide updated constraints for China's methane inventory. The  
419 spatial heterogeneity analysis reveals emission hotspots in Yangquan, Changzhi, and central  
420 Jincheng, offering targeted guidance for emission reduction prioritization. The identified  
421 temporal patterns reflect policy impacts on CMM emission, with asymmetric responses to price  
422 fluctuations providing insights into emission drivers.

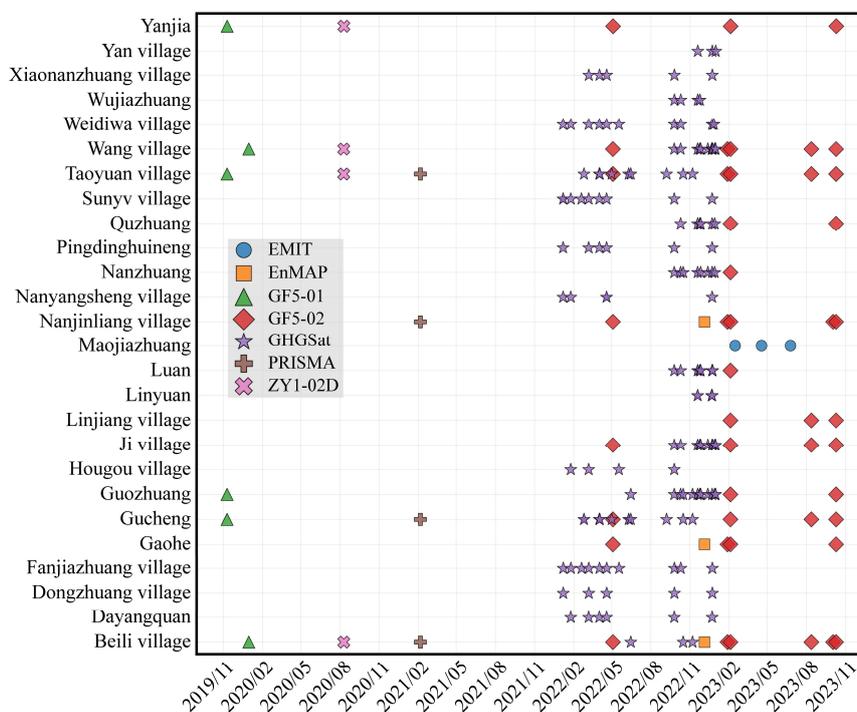
423 The framework established here offers significant environmental benefits for global  
424 methane monitoring. Notably, the limited revisit frequency of hyperspectral satellites poses a  
425 challenge for accurate emission factor estimation, for which coordinated multi-satellite  
426 observation provides an effective solution. The 12-satellite GHGSat constellation, for instance,  
427 achieves substantially higher revisit frequencies than the GF/ZY series. With the deployment of  
428 MethaneSAT and Tanager-1 in 2024 and additional methane-monitoring satellites planned, both  
429 the temporal coverage and spatial extent of coal mine point-source observations are expected to  
430 increase markedly. Furthermore, recent studies indicate that uncertainty in point-source methane  
431 emission estimates is predominantly driven by wind speed and methane column enhancements  
432 retrieval uncertainties, the latter propagated through the IME method. Future work will prioritize  
433 developing more robust retrieval algorithms to reduce these uncertainties and enhance emission  
434 quantification accuracy. Moreover, detection limits inherent to hyperspectral satellites may lead  
435 to the underestimation of minor emission sources; integrating satellite observations with ground-  
436 based measurements thus offers a pathway toward more responsive and precise anthropogenic  
437 methane accounting. This study presents a novel approach for deriving CMM emission factors  
438 through coordinated multi-satellite observations—one that is readily scalable to refine CMM  
439 emission factors worldwide, thereby improving greenhouse gas inventory accuracy and  
440 informing evidence-based climate mitigation strategies.

441



442 **Appendix**

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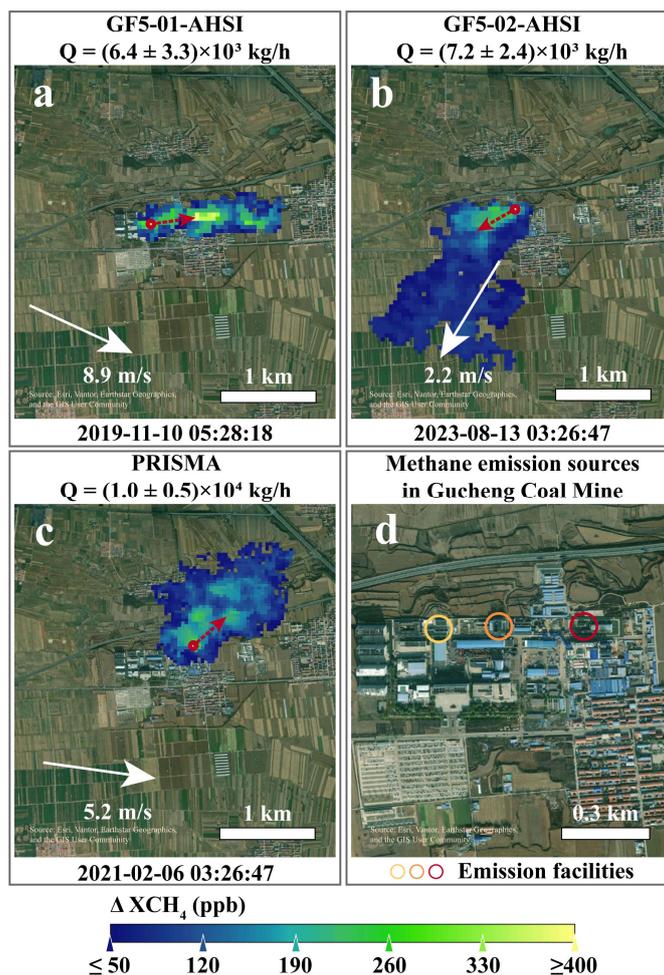
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**Figure A1.** Methane plume detection statistics for mines with time-series observations by hyperspectral satellites: The x-axis represents detection timestamps by seven hyperspectral satellites, and the y-axis represents mines with time-series methane observations.



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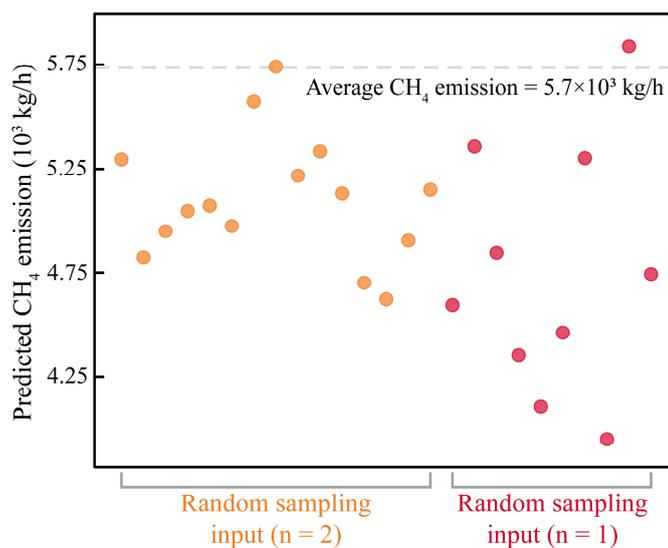
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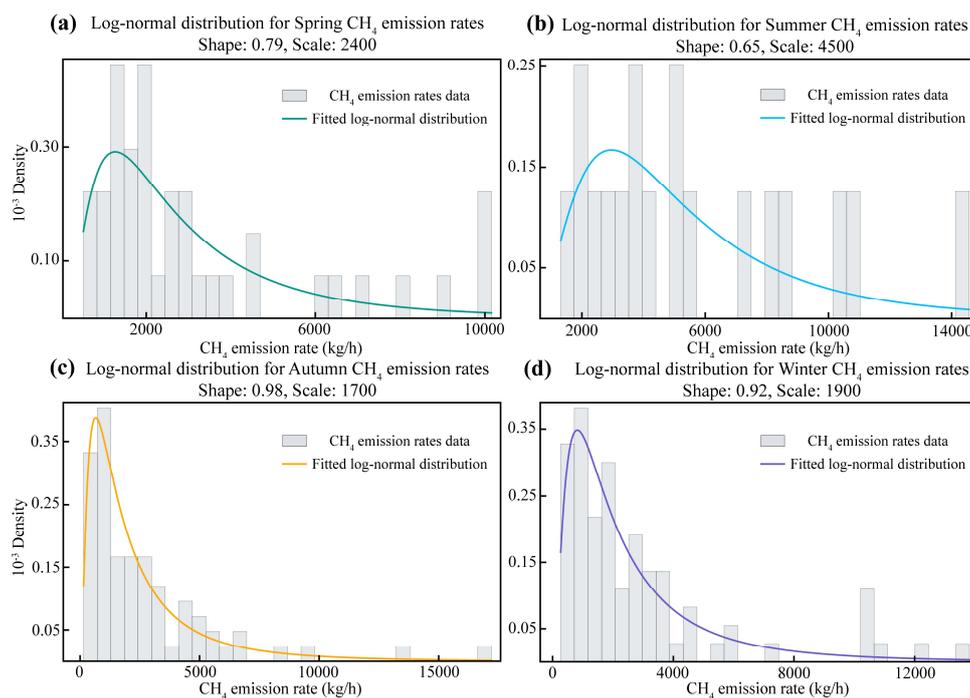
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**Figure A2.** Examples of methane plume identification and source attribution. (a)–(c) Methane plumes observed by GF5-01, GF5-02, and PRISMA, respectively, and attributed to the Gucheng coal mine. (d) Attribution of the three methane plumes to their respective emission sources within the coal mine. The red dashed arrow denotes the methane concentration gradient direction near the plume source. The circled features indicate the attributed facilities. Background RGB imagery in (a)–(d) is Powered by Esri.



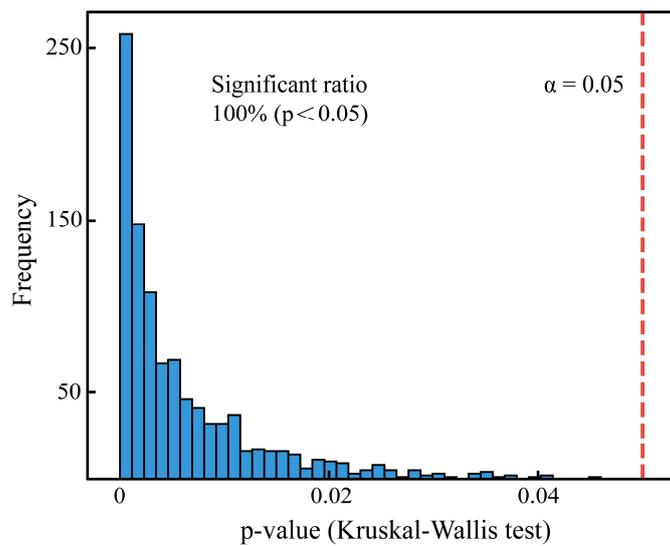
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**Figure A3.** Results of the random sampling inversion estimation experiment.



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**Figure A4.** Seasonal characteristics of time-series hyperspectral satellite observations from Shanxi coal mines.

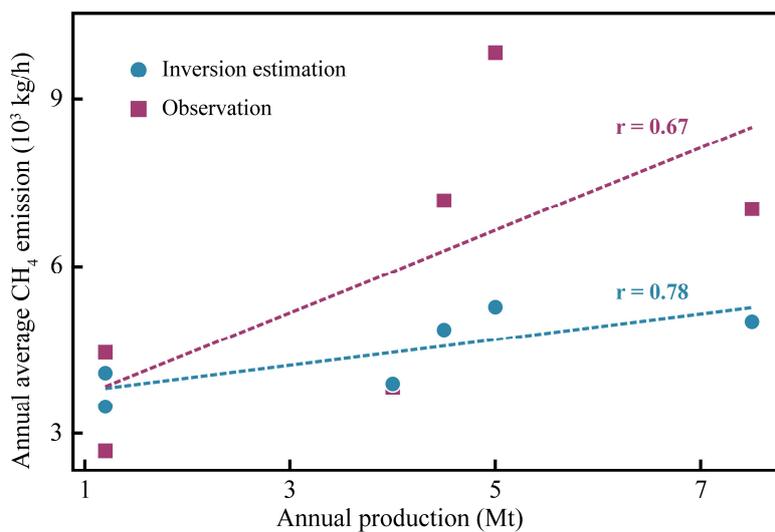


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**Figure A5.** Bootstrap analysis with subsampled autumn-winter observations.



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**Figure A6.** Comparison of annual average methane emissions from coal mines.



471 **Data availability**

472 The Global Coal Mine Tracker data can be downloaded at <https://globalenergymonitor.org/>.  
473 PRISMA data are available at <https://prismauserregistration.asi.it/>. EMIT data are available at  
474 <https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search>. GF5-01, GF5-02, and ZY1-02E data are available at  
475 <http://114.116.226.59/english/normal/>. EnMAP data are available at  
476 [https://www.enmap.org/data\\_access/](https://www.enmap.org/data_access/). GHGSat-C1 to C5 data are available at  
477 <https://www.ghgsat.com/en/products-services/data-sat/>.

478

479 **Author contribution**

480 SB and YZ conceived and designed the research. SB analyzed data, and prepared the paper. HC,  
481 ZZ, SP, FJ, FL, SF, YY and QH reviewed and commented on the paper.

482

483 **Competing interests**

484 At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of Atmospheric Chemistry and  
485 Physics.

486

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