

1 **Title:** Top-Down Benchmark of U.S. Methane Inventories Reveals Regional Discrepancies in
2 Activity-Based Estimates

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22 Abstract: Robust estimates of methane emissions are critical for understanding their impacts on
23 atmospheric warming and air quality, and for assessing methane mitigation strategies. Gridded
24 inventories, such as the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency’s Greenhouse Gas Inventory
25 (EPA GHGI), the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR 2024), and
26 the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration’s Fossil Fuel Oil and Gas inventory
27 (NOAA FOG), are constructed to evaluate large-scale emission patterns and support identifying
28 emission mitigation priorities and prioritizing future measurements. However, substantial
29 differences across inventories complicate such assessments. We benchmark EPA GHGI,
30 EDGAR 2024, and NOAA FOG against flux estimates from an atmospheric inversion of
31 Greenhouse Gases Observing Satellite (GOSAT) data from 2012 to 2020 over the Contiguous
32 United States (CONUS). A key technical challenge is the heterogeneous sensitivity of satellite-
33 derived fluxes, which depends on measurement uncertainty, coverage, and inversion model
34 configuration. We account for this heterogeneity by applying an inversion operator to each

35 inventory prior to comparison with the GOSAT-based estimates. The GOSAT estimates are most
36 sensitive to oil&gas and livestock emissions; oil and gas emissions are consistent with NOAA
37 FOG (14.1 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ in 2015), but exceed EPA GHGI and EDGAR, particularly across Texas,
38 Oklahoma, and Louisiana. GOSAT-based livestock emissions exceed EPA GHGI and EDGAR
39 by 1–2 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹, with the largest differences in the Midwest and California. Despite these
40 discrepancies, both activity and satellite based estimates show no observable trends from 2012 to
41 2020 in fossil and livestock emissions.

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43

44 **1. Introduction**

45

46 All GOSAT-derived emissions and corresponding inputs/algorithms are available at
47 [<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15786798>].

48 Jupyter / python code at [<https://zenodo.org/records/16921536>] shows how to compare these
49 GOSAT derived emissions to inventories.

50

51 Methane is a potent greenhouse gas that plays a significant role in atmospheric warming
52 (Saunois et al., 2020). Methane is emitted from multiple anthropogenic sources including
53 livestock, oil and gas exploitation, manure, rice cultivation, wastewater, solid waste, and coal
54 mining, and from natural sources, particularly wetlands. Methane is also the main component of
55 natural gas, a valuable global commodity that can pose safety risks when it leaks. Accurate and
56 verifiable estimates of its emissions are essential for tracking progress and guiding effective
57 mitigation strategies, and for accounting for the economic value of energy waste (IEA, 2025;
58 World Bank, 2025). Gridded methane emission inventories, such as the gridded United States
59 Environmental Protection Agency’s Greenhouse Gas Inventory (EPA GHGI), the Emissions
60 Database for Global Atmospheric Research 2024 release (EDGAR 2024), and the National
61 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration’s Fuel-based Oil and Gas inventory (NOAA FOG), are
62 widely used for comparing sectoral emissions, primarily at the regional scale, to atmospheric
63 data (EPA, 2023; Maasakkers et al., 2023; Crippa *et al.*, 2020, 2024; Francoeur et al., 2021;
64 Kruskamp *et al.*, 2025). However, discrepancies in how the inventories are generated, e.g. from

65 emission factor assumptions, activity data, and/or spatial proxies and resolution can result in
66 substantial variation in both the magnitude and sectoral attribution of emissions (Hristov et al.,
67 2017; Alvarez et al., 2018; Maasakkers et al., 2021; Petrescu et al., 2024; Gordon 2025). In some
68 cases, differences between inventories can be as large as the emissions themselves (Figure 1),
69 complicating the evaluation of national and regional emission trends. Verification of their
70 underlying parameterizations is often limited by spatiotemporal mismatches between empirical
71 measurements and inventory assumptions. Moreover, differences between activity-based
72 emissions and flux estimates based on observations combined with atmospheric modeling (e.g.,
73 top-down atmospheric inversions) can far exceed the changes inferred from the observed growth
74 in atmospheric methane concentrations (Nisbet et al., 2019; Worden et al., 2022). As a result,
75 tracking mitigation progress using bottom-up inventories alone could be unreliable without
76 independent observational constraints. In addition to these uncertainties, emissions missing in the
77 inventories pose another significant challenge. For instance, sporadic high emitters in both fossil
78 fuel production and waste management, often caused by mechanical failures, may not be
79 captured in traditional inventories (Cusworth et al., 2020, 2024; Sherwin et al., 2024);
80 consequently, the magnitude of these emissions remains poorly understood.

81 To evaluate potential uncertainties in bottom-up inventories, top-down emissions
82 estimates derived from satellite observations, such as those from the Greenhouse Gases
83 Observing Satellite (GOSAT), provide a valuable, independent constraint. These atmospheric
84 measurements inherently capture all emissions influencing methane concentrations, including
85 unreported or underestimated sources, and therefore offer a more comprehensive view of total
86 methane emissions. However, the resulting estimates and their information content (spatial
87 resolution + uncertainties) depend strongly on the observational sampling, sensitivity of the
88 observation to the emissions, choice of a priori fluxes, and the inversion regularization.
89 Consequently, over regions with limited sampling, e.g., due to clouds or low sunlight, top-down
90 analyses have greatly reduced sensitivity to nearby emissions, so the estimates there simply
91 reflect the *a priori*. In contrast, emissions inferred for regions with ample sampling are more
92 likely to accurately represent local sources. The focus of this paper is to demonstrate how this
93 GOSAT-based benchmark can be used to evaluate alternative gridded inventories while
94 accounting for its variable information content as discussed next.

95

96 **Method and Data**

97 **Accounting for choice of *a priori* and inversion regularization:** Comparisons between
98 satellite-based top-down fluxes and activity-based inventories must account for the variation in
99 sensitivity of the data to emissions and choice of *a priori*, otherwise substantial uncertainty (also
100 known as *smoothing error*) is introduced into the comparison (Rodgers, 2000; Worden et al.,
101 2022, 2023). Smoothing error in this context can be mitigated for these comparisons by at least
102 three ways: 1) by using the inventory as the *a priori* in the inversion or 2) by applying an
103 inversion operator to the inventory being compared (the inversion operator depends on the
104 inversion *a priori* and what is called the averaging kernel matrix, Appendix B) or 3) by adjusting
105 the GOSAT based estimate using the gridded inventory and the averaging kernel matrix to
106 replace the effect of the original prior (also known as prior swapping).

107 In the first scenario, recalculating the inversion and subsequently comparing to the *a*
108 *priori* is computationally expensive (e.g., Nesser et al., 2024 and references therein) as it
109 involves minimizing a cost function of gridded emissions vector (e.g. \mathbf{z}) that typically has the
110 following form:

$$111 \quad \mathbf{C} = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{z}_A)\|_{\mathbf{S}_n^{-1}}^2 + \|\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}_A\|_{\mathbf{S}_A^{-1}}^2 \quad (1)$$

112 Where \mathbf{y} is a state vector representing concentrations (e.g. total column methane or XCH_4), the
113 forward model $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{z}_A)$ in this case is the Goddard Earth Observing System – Chemistry model
114 (GEOS-Chem) driven by a distribution of *a priori* emissions (\mathbf{z}_A). The matrix \mathbf{S}_n represents the
115 measurement error covariance for the total column data and the matrix \mathbf{S}_A represents the
116 uncertainty (or covariance) in our *a priori* emissions. For the benchmark described in this paper,
117 the vector \mathbf{z} represents the spatial distribution of anthropogenic emissions by sector, in this case
118 livestock, waste, coal, rice, oil&gas. Wetlands and fire emissions are also estimated with the
119 GOSAT data and the effect of jointly estimating these emissions are included in the posterior
120 covariance and uncertainties of the anthropogenic emissions estimate (Worden *et al.*, 2022,
121 2023).

122 The estimate for the converged solution, $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$, can be related to the “true distribution” of the
123 emissions (\mathbf{z}) with the following (e.g. Rodgers 2000).

$$124 \quad \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{z}_A + \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}_A) \quad (2)$$

125
126 where for clarity we have not included the uncertainty terms (see Appendix B). The averaging
127 kernel matrix \mathbf{A} is a function of the *a priori* and posterior covariance, $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}$ and \mathbf{Z}_A (see Appendix B
128 for a description of uncertainties and prior covariances) and describes the sensitivity of the
129 distribution of estimated emissions to the true state ($\mathbf{A} = \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{z}}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}$). Approach #2, which is to apply an
130 inversion operator to the inventory, is equivalent to replacing \mathbf{z} , or the “true distribution” of
131 emissions, with the alternative inventory, \mathbf{z}_I in Equation 1; this approach is commonly used for
132 data assimilation or for comparing atmospheric trace gas profiles from models or in situ
133 measurements to remotely sensed measurements (e.g. Wecht *et al.* 2014, Herman *et al.* 2014).
134 This revised estimate can be compared to $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ while accounting for the *a priori* and regularization
135 choices made in the inversion described by Equation 1. Approach #3 (or prior swapping) instead
136 involves replacing \mathbf{z}_A with the alternative inventory (e.g. Rodgers and Connor 2003)

$$137 \quad \hat{\mathbf{z}}_{new} = \hat{\mathbf{z}} - (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})\mathbf{z}_A + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})\mathbf{z}_I \quad (3)$$

138
139 And is equivalent to re-running the inversion described by Equation (1) with this alternative *a*
140 *priori*.

141 As approaches 2 and 3 are linear operations, they result in equivalent comparative differences as
142 shown in Appendix B. In this manuscript we use the inversion operator approach (Equation 2)
143 for consistency with previous publications (e.g. Worden *et al.*, 2022, 2023).

144 **Sector Based Attribution:** We use estimates of gridded integrated fluxes from a GEOS-Chem
145 based inversion using GOSAT XCH₄ data as described in Qu *et al.* (2022,2024). We use a
146 Bayesian-based sectoral partitioning approach (Appendix A, Worden *et al.*, 2022, 2023) to
147 project these top-down integrated fluxes to emissions by sector at a 1° × 1° resolution. This
148 approach characterizes the inversion solution by providing a posterior covariance for the solution
149 and provides the “inversion operator” (Equation 2) that, when applied to a gridded inventory,

150 enables the comparison to inversion results by capturing the influence of the inversion’s prior
151 emissions and the sensitivity of the satellite observations to those emissions (Rodgers, 2000).

152
153 **Inventories:** (See Appendix C for more detail) The inventories we compare include EDGAR
154 2024 (Crippa et al. 2024), the gridded U.S. EPA GHG inventory (GHGI) (Maasakkers et al.
155 2023), and NOAA FOG (Francoeur et al. 2021). The EDGAR and GHGI inventories provide
156 information about methane emissions across multiple sectors (e.g., livestock, waste, oil and gas,
157 coal, rice). The approaches estimating these emissions vary, with EDGAR down-scaling national
158 totals to finer scales using spatial information about the sources using global datasets while the
159 GHGI gridded inventory reflects emission factors and activity data used in the EPA U.S.
160 Greenhouse Gas Inventory. In contrast, NOAA FOG focuses specifically on fossil methane
161 emissions and is a hybrid inventory that integrates atmospheric CH₄ and NO₂ observations with
162 activity-based NO₂ metrics (Francoeur et al. 2021). While these inventories show considerable
163 overlap in the location of emissions, differences can be large, even when aggregating from the
164 original 0.1 degree grid of the inventories to the 1 degree grid shown for Figure 1.

165
166 As stated previously, our goal for this study is to demonstrate a benchmark for U.S.
167 methane emission gridded inventories and their changes from 2012 to 2020. These comparisons
168 are documented and publicly accessible at Zenodo (see data availability); Jupyter notebooks are
169 provided here that demonstrate how to compare gridded inventories to GOSAT-based emissions.
170 These benchmarks will be updated as newer datasets, such as inverse analyses using Sentinel-5P
171 TROPOMI (Tropospheric Ozone Monitoring Instrument) observations, become available (e.g.,
172 Nesser et al. 2024; Hancock et al. 2025). Readers unfamiliar with the Bayesian attribution
173 framework, the GOSAT inversion, or the specific inventories compared are encouraged to
174 consult the appendices, where these methods are summarized, or our previously published work
175 on the subject (Cusworth et al. 2021; Worden et al., 2022,2023).

176

177 **2. Integrated total and sectoral USA emissions for 2015**

178

179 Table 1 summarizes U.S. methane emissions by sector for 2015, based on the GOSAT
 180 data and the sectoral attribution approach described in this study (Appendix A). The error
 181 characterization (Appendix B) includes uncertainties from the *a priori* as well as measurement
 182 and model systematic error. The prior emissions are taken from Worden *et al.* (2023). Table 1
 183 also shows a quantity called the Degrees of Freedom for Signal (DOFS), which is given by the
 184 trace of the averaging-kernel matrix for the corresponding state-vector elements in \mathbf{z} . The DOFS
 185 describe the extent to which the estimate is informed by observations rather than prior
 186 assumptions (Appendix B), as well as the spatial information content. For example, from
 187 Equation 2, if $\mathbf{A} \approx \mathbf{0}$ (equivalent to DOFS = 0), observations say essentially nothing about the
 188 emissions and the estimate reduces to the prior. If \mathbf{A} is the identity matrix, then the DOFS equals
 189 the number of state-vector elements and the estimate exactly reflects the true distribution,
 190 modified by the expected uncertainties (Appendix B). The DOFS reported in Table 1 refer to the
 191 spatially distributed estimate, not for the total emissions value. Hence, DOFS > 1 means there is
 192 at least some spatial information for that sector's estimate.

193 For this GOSAT-based benchmark, the highest information content is available for total,
 194 livestock, and oil and gas (O&G) emissions, while waste emissions estimates are only
 195 moderately constrained by the data, and rice and coal emissions have limited observational
 196 information. This variability in information content underscores the need for careful
 197 interpretation of top-down estimates, particularly when examining spatial and sectoral patterns or
 198 trends.

199

200 Table 1: GOSAT-Based CONUS Anthropogenic Emissions and Information Content by
 201 Sector (2015)

Sector	Emissions (Tg CH₄/yr)	<i>A priori</i> (Tg CH₄/yr)	DOFS*
Total	29.4 ± 1.5	28.2±2.0	3.4
Livestock	10.3 ± 1.2	9.2 ± 1.4	1.8
Rice	0.4 ± 0.1	0.4±0.1	0.0
Waste	4.5 ± 0.6	5.6±0.8	0.6
Oil & Gas	11.1 ± 0.9	9.9±1.2	1.0

Coal 3.1 ± 0.3 3.1 ± 0.3 0.1

202

203 Table 2 compares our emissions to previous inversions using atmospheric data and to the
 204 inventories discussed in this paper (Appendix C). As can be seen in Table 2, our atmospheric-
 205 based emissions are generally consistent with other studies, typically within 1–2 standard
 206 deviations of the reported uncertainties, even though each study uses different priors, has
 207 different systematic errors, and has different sensitivity to the underlying emissions. These
 208 comparisons also show that total emissions from atmospheric-based inversions are typically
 209 larger than activity-based estimates, with the livestock and oil and gas sectors responsible for
 210 most of the discrepancy.

211

212

213 Table 2: Comparison of Methane Emissions by Study. All totals are CONUS

214 anthropogenic; years as listed;

215 *(All values in Tg CH₄/yr)*

Study	Total	Livestock	Rice	Waste	Oil & Gas	Coal
(Atmospheric Inversions)						
GOSAT (2015 This Work)	29.4 ± 1.5	10.4 ± 1.2	0.4 ± 0.1	4.6 ± 0.6	11.1 ± 0.9	3.1 ± 0.3
GOSAT (2019)¹	27.3 ± 3	9.9 ± 0.9	0.3 ± 0.1	4.0 ± 0.7	10.3 ± 1.0	2.8 ± 0.4
TROPOMI (2019)²	30.9 ± 0.9	10.4 ± 0.3	N/A	6.9 ± 0.6	10.4 ± 0.3	1.5 ± 0.4
GOSAT + Surface (2009– 2020)³	29.1 ± 0.5	8.8 ± 0.3	N/A	4.2 ± 0.1	14.1 ± 0.2	2 ± 0.4
GOSAT (2010–2015)⁴	31 ± 1.0	9.4 ± 0.4	0.4 ± 0.2	6.2 ± 0.2	11.1 ± 0.6	3.2 ± 0.1
In Situ (2007-2008)⁵	33.4 ± 2	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
In Situ (2003)⁶	32.4 ± 5	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
(Activity Models and Year)						
GHGI (2015)⁷	23.7 ± 2.1	8.9 ± 1.4	0.6 ± 0.3	4.8 ± 1.4	6.9 ± 1	2.5 ± 0.4
EDGAR (2015)⁸	25.7 ± 2.1	8.6 ± 1.4	0.3 ± 0.1	4.3 ± 1.3	10.1 ± 1	2.4 ± 0.4

216
217 **Table 2: Comparison of Methane Emissions by Study.** All totals are CONUS anthropogenic
218 emissions for the years listed. Values are reported in Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹. Atmospheric inversions
219 exclude natural sources and fire emissions where sectoral separation is available. Activity-based
220 estimates include the gridded EPA GHGI, EDGAR 2024, and NOAA FOG inventories evaluated
221 in this study. References: (1) Worden et al. (2022), (2) Nesser et al. (2024), (3) Janardanan et al.
222 (2024), (4) Maasakkers et al. (2019), (5) Miller et al. (2013), (6) Kort et al. (2008), (7)
223 Maasakkers et al. (2016, 2023), (8) Crippa et al. (2024), and (9) Francoeur et al. (2021).

224

225

226 *2.1 Oil and Gas Emissions (GOSAT, FOG, EPA, and EDGAR)*

227

228 We next compare the GOSAT-based emissions for O&G to those from NOAA FOG,
229 GHGI, and EDGAR inventories. In particular, we demonstrate how applying the inversion
230 operator to these inventories modifies our interpretation of the comparison.

231

232 **Spatial Distribution for 2015:** Figures 2 through 4 compare the spatial distribution of U.S. oil
233 and gas (O&G) methane emissions in 2015 from the GOSAT inversion with those from the
234 FOG, GHGI, and EDGAR (2024 release, Crippa et al., 2024) inventories respectively. These
235 comparisons demonstrate the importance of accounting for the varying information content of
236 the GOSAT inversion, which is influenced by both the prior emissions used in the inversion and
237 the sensitivity of the aggregated satellite observations to underlying emission patterns (Worden
238 et al., 2023 and references therein). In Figure 2, the upper left panel (a) shows the GOSAT based
239 estimate. The upper right panel (b) shows the original FOG emissions. The middle left panel (c)
240 shows the difference between the top two. The middle right panel shows the difference between
241 FOG emissions and GOSAT based emissions after applying the inversion operator (denoted
242 AK). All figures use 1x1 degree gridding. The bottom right panel (E) shows the diagonal of the
243 averaging kernel (or DOFS) corresponding to that location for oil and gas emissions. As seen in
244 the left panel of Figure 2, significant regional discrepancies between the GOSAT and FOG
245 inventories exist, with similar magnitude differences as shown in Figure 1. However, after

246 applying the inversion operator (Equation 2) to the FOG inventory (labeled FOG AK), many of
247 these differences are greatly reduced (middle right panel)

248 Small differences between GOSAT and the inventory, after applying the inversion operator, can
249 also occur because of limited sensitivity, as indicated by the DOFS, for example over the Bakken
250 region of North Dakota. As discussed previously and shown in Equation 2 and Appendix B, in
251 such cases the difference between the GOSAT estimate and the inventory adjusted by the
252 inversion operator should be close to zero, because both terms reduce to $\sim Z_A$. In contrast, the
253 GOSAT estimate shows increased sensitivity to emissions in Oklahoma, Texas, and Louisiana.
254 Based on this comparison, and on the integrated total emissions in the next section, we conclude
255 that the GOSAT estimate does not falsify the spatial distribution of methane emissions posited
256 by the FOG oil and gas inventory.

257

258 **Interpreting Comparisons between GOSAT, EDGAR, and GHGI emissions:**

259

260 Comparisons between GOSAT and EDGAR (Figure 3) and between GOSAT and EPA GHGI
261 (Figure 4) show larger discrepancies, even after applying the inversion operator, particularly in
262 northwest Colorado, Texas, Oklahoma, and Louisiana. These patterns indicate substantial
263 inventory uncertainties in well-observed regions with intensive oil and gas activity. Some
264 regions are sparsely observed by GOSAT, so their contributions may be important but their
265 uncertainties cannot be reliably assessed with this benchmark. When measurement cost is a
266 constraint, the discrepancy hotspots identified here are high-value targets for additional
267 observations, with expanded coverage of under-sampled regions as resources allow.

268

269 Previous studies (e.g., Alvarez et al. 2018; Cusworth et al. 2022; Sherwin et al., 2024)
270 have shown that a small number of high emitters (e.g., <2%; Sherwin et al., 2024), likely due to
271 unplanned mechanical failures, contribute disproportionately to the fossil methane budget. These
272 sources are likely underrepresented or missing from activity-based inventories. The agreement
273 between FOG and GOSAT supports this conclusion, as the FOG inventory integrates
274 atmospheric CH₄ with NO_x observations and activity metrics; these regional CH₄ observations
275 capture emissions under-represented in purely bottom-up approaches. If such super-emitters are

276 entirely responsible for the discrepancies between GOSAT and the EPA GHGI and EDGAR
277 inventories, then comparisons between the GOSAT, EPA, EDGAR, and FOG O&G emissions in
278 Table 2 suggest these sources are undercounted by ~ 7 Tg CH₄/yr of reported natural gas
279 emissions, far exceeding previous estimates, as previously documented in other studies (e.g.,
280 Alvarez et al. 2018; Cusworth et al. 2022; Sherwin et al., 2024; Zavala-Araiza et al. 2015).

281
282

283 **Integrated totals for 2015:** Figure 5 compares integrated total oil and gas (O&G) emissions
284 derived from GOSAT with those from the FOG, GHGI, and EDGAR inventories.

285 Before applying the inversion operator, total FOG emissions are estimated at 14.1 ± 2 Tg CH₄
286 yr⁻¹. We assumed the same prior covariance structure (\mathbf{Z}_A , Appendix B; Worden et al., 2022,
287 2023) for FOG as for the GOSAT *a priori*. This yields a smaller total uncertainty (2 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹)
288 than the ~ 2.8 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ uncertainty for total FOG O&G emissions inferred from a Monte Carlo
289 analysis of NO_x activity data (Francoeur *et al.*, 2021). Using a different covariance structure that
290 is consistent with the stated uncertainty in total emissions could therefore change conclusions
291 about whether the GOSAT estimate falsifies the FOG inventory, and the inversion-operator
292 methodology in Equation 2 would allow this. However, a full covariance is required, with
293 explicitly computed off-diagonal terms such that, when projected to a single number, it
294 reproduces the expected uncertainty reported in, for example, Francoeur et al. (2021).

295 After applying the inversion operator, the FOG total is reduced to 11.4 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹. The
296 uncertainty shown for the modified FOG estimate (denoted FOG-AK) reflects the uncertainty in
297 the difference between the GOSAT-based estimate and the FOG-AK estimate (Appendix B
298 Equation 15), not the uncertainty of the FOG-AK estimate itself. Because the FOG-AK estimate
299 is consistent with the GOSAT-based inversion within the reported uncertainty, this comparison
300 suggests that the GOSAT estimate does not falsify the original, higher FOG total of 14.1 Tg CH₄
301 yr⁻¹.

302 Figure 5 also shows comparisons to GHGI and EDGAR. For these inventories, uncertainties
303 prior to applying the inversion operator are derived using the same prior covariance structure as
304 for the GOSAT a priori, because published full covariances are not readily available.

305 In contrast to the FOG comparison, both the EPA and EDGAR estimates, with or without
306 application of the inversion operator, are inconsistent with the GOSAT-based inversion. Their
307 differences lie well outside the post-operator uncertainty shown for each inventory. As shown in
308 Figures 3 and 4 these differences are spatially located primarily in the Texas, Oklahoma, and
309 Louisiana regions. As noted previously, additional measurements here are therefore likely to
310 reduce uncertainties in the USA O&G methane budget.

311
312 **Integrated Totals: 2012–2020:** Figure 6 shows annual methane emissions from 2012 to 2020.
313 Despite substantial increases in oil and gas production over this period, all gridded inventories
314 and the GOSAT top-down estimates show no significant change in total U.S. methane emissions,
315 although the FOG inventory may have a slight increase. This apparent disconnect between rising
316 production and stable emissions has been noted in several studies and is commonly attributed to
317 improvements in production efficiency, leak detection, and emissions control technologies (e.g.,
318 Lu et al., 2023). EPA GHGI supports this conclusion, showing relatively flat changes in fossil
319 fuel methane emissions over the same period. This stability in the activity estimate is explained
320 by offsetting trends, including a decline in exploration emissions due to fewer well completions,
321 the adoption of lower-emitting equipment, and stable or slightly declining well counts
322 (Maasakkers et al. 2023). For instance, while natural gas production increased by 26% and crude
323 oil production by 67%, the number of active gas and oil wells remained roughly constant,
324 declining slightly over the period. Emissions from gas systems were flat overall, with increases
325 in gathering and boosting offset by decreases in production and processing. Similarly, petroleum
326 system emissions rose by just 11% due to a significant drop in exploration-related emissions
327 (Maasakkers et al. 2023).

328
329 *2.2 Livestock Emissions (GHGI and EDGAR)*
330

331 **Spatial Distribution for 2015:** Similar to Figures 2-4, Figures 7 and 8 show the spatial
332 distribution of livestock methane emissions from GOSAT, EDGAR, and GHGI data. The FOG
333 inventory is limited to oil and gas emissions and is therefore excluded from this and subsequent
334 comparisons. Methane emissions from livestock generally scale with herd size, particularly dairy
335 and beef cattle. Dairy cows typically emit more than twice as much methane as beef cows, due to
336 higher enteric fermentation (Wolf et al., 2017; Hristov et al., 2017). Emissions vary
337 geographically with management and environmental conditions (for example grazing
338 practices, feed quality, and temperature, Wolf et al., 2017). Inventories account for this
339 using region-specific emission factors, but if the factors used are not representative of
340 actual local conditions, the resulting difference between the atmospheric based and activity
341 based emissions should be spatially structured rather than random. Consistent with this,
342 we observe systematic regional biases relative to the GOSAT-based estimates: inventories
343 in California and the northern states are higher than GOSAT, whereas inventories in
344 northern Texas are lower.

345
346 **Integrated Total for 2015:** Figure 9 compares integrated livestock methane emissions from
347 GOSAT with GHGI and EDGAR inventories, each shown with and without the inversion
348 operator applied. The GHGI and EDGAR totals differ modestly. The EPA total lies slightly
349 outside the GOSAT uncertainty range, while the EDGAR total falls within it. However,
350 agreement in totals does not imply agreement in spatial patterns. For EDGAR in particular,
351 closer total agreement with GOSAT coincides with offsetting regional deviations, with positive
352 differences in parts of the Midwest and negative differences in California. These cancellations
353 reduce the apparent mismatch in the national total, which underscores the importance of
354 evaluating spatial variability alongside integrated totals. Overall, comparisons of integrated
355 totals and spatial patterns indicate substantial remaining uncertainty in livestock emissions.
356 Additional measurements over California and the Midwest, especially in the Texas and
357 Oklahoma region, would likely reduce this uncertainty.

358
359 **Integrated Totals for 2012-2020:** Figure 10 (and Table 2) shows comparisons between the
360 integrated total livestock emissions from the GOSAT based inversion and the GHGI and
361 EDGAR inventories. The GOSAT-based estimate as well as those from the GHGI and EDGAR

362 inventories do not observably change within the calculated uncertainties, except possibly for the
363 year 2019. We therefore conclude that GOSAT based livestock emissions cannot falsify the
364 posited (flat) trends from activity data (Maasakkers et al. 2021).

365

366 2.3 Waste (GHGI and EDGAR)

367 Figures 11 and 12 show the spatial distribution of methane emissions from the waste
368 sector based on GOSAT, GHGI, and EDGAR estimates and Figure 13 shows the integrated total
369 for 2015. The largest differences are for California for the EDGAR / GOSAT comparison. The
370 integrated waste sector methane emissions from GOSAT are estimated at 4.5 ± 0.6 Tg CH₄/yr,
371 while both GHGI and EDGAR report lower values of 4.2 ± 0.3 Tg CH₄/yr. These differences are
372 not statistically significant, as the GOSAT estimate lies within the uncertainty range of both
373 inventories (after applying the inversion operator). However, there is very limited spatial
374 information content in the GOSAT waste estimate (~0.6 DOFS total). Consequently, the spatial
375 differences shown in the right-bottom panel don't show meaningful differences between the
376 inventories and the GOSAT waste estimate for most of the country. Because of this limited
377 sensitivity we do not compare temporal changes in the waste emissions.

378

379 3. Summary and Future Directions

380

381 Top-down methane emissions estimates vary in their information content depending on
382 the emission sector and observing system. For these GOSAT based emissions estimates,
383 information content is greatest for oil and gas and livestock, so these sectors are best suited for
384 inventory evaluation using the results shown here. Waste, coal, and rice exhibit lower
385 information content in this analysis because GOSAT does not adequately sample methane
386 variability attributable to those sources. Even so, our information-content-based comparison
387 identifies where additional measurements would yield the largest uncertainty reductions in
388 gridded inventories.

389 In particular, our results highlight the need for targeted measurement campaigns,
390 especially in the Texas, Oklahoma, and Louisiana drilling basins, where additional data can most
391 effectively reduce inventory uncertainties. For the livestock sector, California and Northern

392 Texas stands out as key regions where improved activity based and atmospheric methane
393 observation can have the highest impact. These findings underscore the importance of
394 prioritizing high-emitting or uncertain regions to refine national methane budgets.
395 Beyond regional targeting, improving inversion resolution is also key. Higher-resolution flux
396 estimates, whether through satellites like TROPOMI or plume-resolving instruments (e.g., Jacob
397 et al. 2022; Pandey et al. 2025 and refs therein), are particularly needed for sectors such as waste,
398 coal, and oil and gas, where coarse-resolution inversions struggle to isolate source signals. In
399 particular, integrating plume-resolving and area-flux estimates enhances the sectoral attribution
400 of emissions and improves the information content for inventory evaluation (Pandey *et al.* 2025).

401
402 **(Trends)** Inversions conducted using GOSAT data and GEOS-Chem (see references in
403 Table 2), show no discernible trend over the analysis period, which is consistent with all three
404 gridded inventories discussed in this manuscript. However, the fact that other inversions show
405 different trends highlights the importance of benchmarking approaches (Janardanan et al. 2024),
406 not only for validating inventories but also for identifying uncertainties in inversion outputs
407 themselves. These differences matter for informing effective remediation strategies and setting
408 realistic expectations for emission reductions.

409 As satellite constellations improve in spatial resolution, sampling, and accuracy, top-
410 down flux estimates become more accurate at higher spatial resolution (e.g., Jacob et al., 2022).
411 Using TROPOMI, Nesser et al. (2024) produced a 2019 North American emissions map with a
412 degree of freedom for signal (DOFS) of ~ 772 , more than two orders of magnitude higher than in
413 our GOSAT record, driven by a similar increase in observations. This resolution enables explicit
414 estimation of many large sources, including landfills. East et al. (2025) extended this approach to
415 global coverage at similar ~ 25 km gridding. Building a benchmark from the combined record
416 will help evaluate how countries have managed emissions before and after the Global Methane
417 Pledge, which targets a 30 percent reduction from 2020 to 2030. Our approach shows how
418 inventories can be benchmarked against these improved flux estimates to reduce uncertainty,
419 especially smoothing error, without re-running inversions with inventory priors. Combining
420 high-resolution, independent datasets will support more accurate methane inventories, clarify
421 source trends, and inform effective mitigation strategies.

422 **Appendices**

423 **Appendix A: GOSAT Methane Fluxes and Projection to USA Emissions by Sector**

424 **(Overview)** Yearly sectoral emissions by region based on the satellite data are generated in a two
425 step process. The first step is to quantify global integrated fluxes using total atmospheric column
426 methane data from the Japanese GOSAT (Greenhouse gases Observing SATellite) instrument
427 (Parker *et al.* 2011) and the GEOS-Chem model (Zhang *et al.*, 2021). The approach used to
428 generate fluxes has been extensively documented in past literature (e.g. Zhang *et al.*, 2021, Qu *et*
429 *al.*, 2024), and we refer the reader to these articles. The state vector for this inversion include 1)
430 yearly anthropogenic methane emissions between 2010 and 2022 at a gridding of 5x4 degrees
431 (longitude/latitude) and we use the estimates between 2012 and 2020 for this study, 2) wetland
432 methane emissions for specified regions for each month between 2010 to 2022), and 3) the
433 yearly hemispheric methane sink. The second step (next section) is a linear estimate based on an
434 optimal estimation sectoral emissions attribution approach (Cusworth *et al.* 2021; Worden *et al.*
435 2022) that projects the integrated anthropogenic fluxes to emissions by sector and trends at the
436 same 5x4 degree gridding and then again at 1x1 degree (lon/lat) gridding over the USA. This
437 projection accounts for the prior distribution and uncertainties in the emissions (e.g. Worden *et*
438 *al.* 2022). We next provide more detail on projection/attribution methodology as it is relevant to
439 the benchmarking methodology that is the focus of this paper.

440 **(Sectoral attribution of fluxes to emissions)** We use a Bayesian based approach to project the
441 fluxes described in the previous section (at 5x4 degrees lon/lat) to emissions by sector at 1x1
442 degree. The full methodology is described in Cusworth *et al.* (2021) and first applied to methane
443 fluxes in Worden *et al.* (2022) and again in Worden *et al.* (2023). This approach is equivalent to
444 swapping the *a priori* assumptions, given by \mathbf{x}_A and \mathbf{S}_A , to a different state vector \mathbf{z}_A (and *a priori*
445 covariance \mathbf{Z}_A) when a linear relationship between the different state vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{z} exist. The
446 approach provides the full posterior and prior covariances and priors needed to account for the
447 varying information content of satellite based emissions estimates when comparing these
448 emissions to either each other (e.g. between years) or to inventories (Worden *et al.* 2023) or to
449 other estimates. We refer the reader to these papers, starting with Cusworth *et al.* (2021) for the
450 primary derivation, and summarize here.

451

452 Given a linear mapping between one state vector and another (e.g. between fluxes \mathbf{x} at 5x4
453 degrees versus emissions \mathbf{z} at 5x4 degrees or alternatively emissions at 1x1 degree):

454

$$455 \quad \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{z}, \tag{4}$$

456

457 As discussed in Worden et al. (2023), the solution for projecting fluxes back to emissions takes
458 the form:

459

$$460 \quad \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{z}_A + \hat{\mathbf{Z}}\mathbf{M}^T\hat{\mathbf{S}}^{-1}[(\mathbf{I} - \hat{\mathbf{S}}\mathbf{S}_A^{-1})(\mathbf{x}_A - \mathbf{M}\mathbf{z}_A) + (\hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}_A)] \tag{5}$$

461

462 where the $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ and \mathbf{z}_A is the posterior and prior emissions state vector respectively with posterior
463 and prior error covariance $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}$, \mathbf{Z}_A respectively.

464

465 The posterior emission error covariance matrix $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}$ is calculated explicitly given \mathbf{M} , \mathbf{S}_A , $\hat{\mathbf{S}}$, and
466 prior emissions error covariance matrix \mathbf{Z}_A :

467

$$468 \quad \hat{\mathbf{Z}} = (\mathbf{M}^T(\hat{\mathbf{S}}^{-1} - \mathbf{S}_A^{-1})\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{Z}_A^{-1})^{-1} \tag{6}$$

469

470

471 Here, the $\hat{\mathbf{S}}$ is the posterior covariance for the fluxes described in the Qu *et al.* (2024), with prior
472 error covariance \mathbf{S}_A , given as a diagonal matrix with values of 0.5 (squared). The \mathbf{I} is the identity
473 matrix. The prior covariances for each emission category (livestock, waste, rice, coal, oil and
474 gas, and fires) are described in Worden et al. (2022) and Worden et al. (2023).

475

476

477 ***Uncertainty Calculation***

478

479 After projecting the estimate for integrated fluxes at 5x4 degrees ($\hat{\mathbf{x}}$) to emissions by sector at
 480 1x1 degree ($\hat{\mathbf{z}}$), we can describe $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ using Equation 2 with corresponding averaging kernel as
 481 discussed in the introduction (and now including uncertainties):

$$482$$

$$483 \hat{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{z}_A + \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}_A) + \boldsymbol{\delta}_n + \boldsymbol{\delta}_m \quad (7)$$

484

485 where $\boldsymbol{\delta}_n$ and $\boldsymbol{\delta}_m$ are the errors from measurement error and model error respectively. The
 486 measurement and model errors are discussed in Worden *et al.* (2022, 2023). The error
 487 covariance for $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ is then given by:

$$488$$

$$489 E\|\hat{\mathbf{z}} - \mathbf{z}\|^2 = \mathbf{Z}_{\text{total}} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})\mathbf{Z}_A(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^T + \mathbf{S}_n + \mathbf{S}_m \quad (8)$$

490

491 Note that the inverse of the Hessian (Equation 6) is equivalent to the first two terms (Worden *et al.*
 492 2004; Bowman *et al.* 2006):

$$493$$

$$494 \hat{\mathbf{Z}} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})\mathbf{Z}_A(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^T + \mathbf{S}_n \quad (9)$$

495

496 Equation 9 allows us to separate the “smoothing error” (the first term on the RHS of Equation 9),
 497 from the measurement error in order to better evaluate comparisons between the GOSAT and
 498 inventory methane estimates as discussed in the next section.

499

500 In order to calculate the emissions for either a region (e.g. USA) or a category of emissions (e.g.
 501 rice), we must first sum the corresponding elements of the state vector:

$$502$$

$$503$$

$$504 \mathbf{z}_i = \mathbf{h}_i \hat{\mathbf{z}}, \quad (10)$$

505

506 Where \mathbf{h}_i is a column vector that projects the desired elements of $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ to region or sector i , \mathbf{z}_i . As
 507 discussed in Worden *et al.* (2022), the uncertainty of \mathbf{z}_i is then given by

$$508$$

$$509 \sigma_i^2 = \mathbf{h}_i \mathbf{Z}_{\text{total}} \mathbf{h}_i^T \quad (11)$$

510
511
512
513
514
515

As discussed in these previous papers, this uncertainty calculation accounts for the effects of cross-terms (e.g. wetlands, OH, fires). Equation (11) is what is used to calculate the uncertainties shown in the figures and the tables in this paper.

516 **Appendix B: Bayesian / Optimal Estimation Approach for Comparing Inventory to top-** 517 **down Inversion**

518 To compare a $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ inventory with top-down fluxes based on an inversion of atmospheric
519 data, we first project the inventory to the same spatial scale as the top-down fluxes and then
520 account for the sensitivity of the top-down estimates. The native resolution of the gridded
521 inventories is 0.1° , provided by sector. In contrast, the GOSAT based fluxes are at a coarser
522 resolution of $5^\circ \times 4^\circ$ (longitude \times latitude) and represent integrated fluxes (Qu et al., 2024) with
523 no sectoral specificity in each grid. Our approach is to first re-grid the inventory to $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$, while
524 retaining sectoral distinctions (e.g., livestock, waste, rice, coal, oil & gas). As discussed in the
525 following paragraph, we then project the $5^\circ \times 4^\circ$ GOSAT-inverted methane fluxes to sector-
526 specific emissions at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ resolution as discussed in Appendix A. We selected this
527 intermediate resolution to better represent national emission patterns, as a $5^\circ \times 4^\circ$ grid can cause
528 significant overlapping flux contributions from neighboring countries such as the United States,
529 Canada, and Mexico.

530

531 The comparison approach is described in Worden *et al.* (2023) and summarized here. We next
532 project the inventory (\mathbf{z}_i) through the “inversion operator” (Equation 2) in order to account for
533 the choice of a priori in the inversion and the sensitivity of the emissions (Rodgers 2000, Worden
534 *et al.*, 2022, 2023).

535

$$536 \hat{\mathbf{z}}_i = \mathbf{z}_A + \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{z}_A) \tag{12}$$

537

538 Where \mathbf{z}_A is a vector describing the *a priori* methane emissions used for the top-down estimate
 539 and \mathbf{A} is the averaging kernel matrix calculated for that inversion. The averaging kernel matrix is
 540 a function of the prior and posterior covariance, $\hat{\mathbf{Z}}$ and \mathbf{Z}_A :

$$541$$

$$542 \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} - \hat{\mathbf{Z}}\mathbf{Z}_A^{-1} \quad (13)$$

$$543$$

544 The DOFS shown in Table 1 are calculated by taking the sum of diagonal elements (or trace) of
 545 the averaging kernel corresponding to the sector.

546

547 After application of the inversion operator a comparison of these modified inventory emissions
 548 with the GOSAT- based emissions (Cusworth et al. 2021, Worden et al. 2023, Appendix A) is
 549 given by:

$$550$$

$$551 \hat{\mathbf{z}} - \hat{\mathbf{z}}_i = \mathbf{A}(\boldsymbol{\delta}_i) + \boldsymbol{\delta}_n + \boldsymbol{\delta}_m \quad (14)$$

$$552$$

553 Where $\boldsymbol{\delta}_i$ is the uncertainty in the inventory, $\boldsymbol{\delta}_n$ is the uncertainty in the inversely estimated
 554 emissions due to noise in the atmospheric data, and $\boldsymbol{\delta}_m$ is the uncertainty in the model used to
 555 project concentrations to emissions. The effect of the prior, \mathbf{z}_A , is also removed in this
 556 comparison described by Equation 14 so that the inventory can be compared to the satellite based
 557 emissions without this large effect of smoothing error on the comparison (see subsequent figures
 558 and supplemental). The error of the difference between satellite estimate and this adjusted
 559 inventory is then the expectation of the difference:

$$560$$

$$561$$

$$562 E\|\hat{\mathbf{z}} - \hat{\mathbf{z}}_i\| = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{S}_i\mathbf{A}^T + \mathbf{S}_n + \mathbf{S}_m \quad (15)$$

$$563$$

564 Where \mathbf{S}_i is the covariance for the inventory uncertainties $\boldsymbol{\delta}_i$, \mathbf{S}_n is the measurement error
 565 projected to emissions, and \mathbf{S}_m is the model error. Note that \mathbf{S}_n is directly calculated from the
 566 inversion (Worden et al. 2023). The final term in Equation 15, the model error, can be highly
 567 challenging to quantify. Previous studies have pointed towards the vertical mixing in models as
 568 being the largest source of model error; too much or too little methane (or other trace gas) at the

569 surface as a result of incorrect mixing leads to inaccurate surface flux calculations (e.g. Jiang et
 570 al. 2013; Schuh et al. 2019; Mcnorton et al. 2020). These studies show that this effect is largest
 571 in the tropics where there is significant convection with an uncertainty that is about the same size
 572 as the data uncertainty. On the other hand, the mid-latitudes likely have smaller uncertainties of
 573 this type because of smaller uncertainties related to vertical mixing. For the purpose of this study
 574 we assume the model error is the same magnitude as the observation error \mathbf{S}_n ; however continued
 575 advances are needed in both quantifying and mitigating this term, and how it affects the
 576 emissions estimates, in order to improve confidence in the comparisons between inventories and
 577 satellite data.

578 Note that if the GOSAT-based emissions are directly compared to the inventory without
 579 first passing the inventory through the inversion operator, then the uncertainties in the
 580 comparison are much larger and less meaningful as they include both the smoothing error of the
 581 data and the full uncertainty of the inventory:

$$582$$

$$583 \quad E\|\hat{\mathbf{z}} - \mathbf{z}_i\| = \mathbf{S}_i + \mathbf{S}_n + \mathbf{S}_m + (\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{A})\mathbf{S}_A(\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{A})^T \quad (16)$$

$$584$$

$$585$$

586 As a demonstration, we compare the GOSAT based emissions to the inventories both directly
 587 (uncertainties from Equation 16) and after applying the inversion operator (e.g. see Figures 2-4).

588

589 **Use of Prior Swapping to evaluate emissions:** Equation 3 represents an alternative but
 590 equivalent approach for mitigating smoothing error when comparing atmospheric based
 591 emissions estimates to an inventory. After “swapping” the prior used for the GOSAT based
 592 emissions estimate with the inventory the new estimate has the following form:

$$593$$

$$594 \quad \hat{\mathbf{z}}_{\text{GOSAT_New}} = \mathbf{z}_I + \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{z}_{\text{True}} - \mathbf{z}_I) + \boldsymbol{\delta}_n + \boldsymbol{\delta}_m \quad (17)$$

$$595$$

596 In this instance we want to take the expectation of the difference of $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_{\text{GOSAT_New}}$ and \mathbf{z}_I as
 597 Equation (3) is equivalent to using \mathbf{z}_I as the *a priori* in the inversion described by Equation 1:

$$598$$

$$599 \quad \hat{\mathbf{z}}_{\text{GOSAT_New}} - \mathbf{z}_I = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{z}_{\text{True}} - \mathbf{z}_I) = \mathbf{A}(\boldsymbol{\delta}_I) + \boldsymbol{\delta}_n + \boldsymbol{\delta}_m \quad (18)$$

600

601 Equation 18 is the same as Equation 14 which demonstrates that the covariances as described by
602 Equation 15 (and hence uncertainties) are the same using prior swapping or an inversion operator
603 approach.

604

605

606 **Appendix C: Description of Inventories**

607

608

609 **(EPA GHGI)** The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Inventory of U.S.
610 Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (GHGI) provides annual estimates of methane emissions
611 from anthropogenic sources. The gridded inventory used here covers emissions from sectors
612 such as agriculture, energy, waste, and coal for the years 2012 to 2018 (Maasackers et al. 2023).
613 Desai et al. (2026) provides updated national-scale inventory estimates for 1990–2024 that are
614 methodologically consistent with the EPA GHGI, allowing a comparable gridded product to be
615 developed and evaluated against satellite-based inversions using the benchmark framework
616 applied here.

617

618

619

1. **Total Methane Emissions:** Gridded GHGI reports U.S. CONUS methane
emissions in 2015 at **23.7 Tg** of CH₄, which accounts for approximately **7% of global
anthropogenic methane emissions**.

620

621

2. **Sectoral Breakdown:** The Gridded GHGI includes methane emissions of 26
individual sectors. The largest sources are (see Table 2):

622

623

624

○ **Livestock and Rice:** Emissions from enteric fermentation and manure
management constitute a significant portion of methane emissions from this sector
(8.8), with total agricultural emissions reaching **9.4 Tg** in 2018.

625

626

627

○ **Oil and Gas:** Methane emissions from the oil and gas sectors, including
production & exploration, refining, transmission & storage, processing, and
distribution, account for approximately **6.9 Tg**.

- 628 ○ **Waste:** Emissions from municipal solid waste (MSW) landfills, industrial
629 landfills, wastewater treatment, and composting contributed to about **4.8 Tg**.
- 630 ○ **Coal Mines:** Methane from coal mining, including both active and abandoned
631 mines, contributed approximately **2.5 Tg**.

632 3. **Methodology:** The GHGI combines activity data with emission factors to
633 estimate methane emissions. The inventory uses data from sources such as the EPA’s
634 Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP) and U.S. Department of Agriculture
635 (USDA). The gridded GHGI uses facility-level data as well as proxy data for sources
636 with limited spatial information. to spatially and temporally disaggregate emissions

637 4. **Uncertainty and Adjustments:** The uncertainty in methane emissions is
638 accounted for with confidence intervals provided in the GHGI report. Recent updates to
639 the GHGI methodology include the inclusion of large well blowouts and emissions from
640 abandoned oil and gas wells, which had not been considered in previous iterations. The
641 inventory is continuously updated to reduce uncertainties and improve accuracy.

642 5. **Comparisons with Atmospheric Data:** The Gridded GHGI serves as a critical
643 input for atmospheric inversions and can be compared with top-down estimates from
644 satellite-based data, such as those from GOSAT.

645 **(EDGAR 2024)** The Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research

646

647 The EDGAR series of inventories provides gridded (0.1x0.1 degree) emissions of the key
648 anthropogenic emissions contributing to the global methane budget. We refer the reader to
649 Crippa et al. (2020, 2024) for a description of this inventory. Emissions are generated by
650 downscaling national totals by sector using spatial proxies and projected to the 0.1 x 0.1 grid. In
651 order to improve the accuracy of comparisons between the EDGAR inventory and the GOSAT-
652 based fluxes, we regrid their sub-categories to livestock, waste, coal, gas, oil, and rice (e.g. see
653 Figure 1 for the EDGAR 2024 oil&gas emissions).

654

655 (NOAA FOG) The NOAA fuel-based oil and gas (FOG) inventory provides oil and gas
656 emissions for the contiguous United States (CONUS) gridded at 4km x 4km and are then
657 regridded to (0.1 x 0.1 degree) for this work (Francoeur et al. 2021). The NOAA FOG methane
658 emissions inventory is generated through a hybrid approach that combines activity data with
659 atmospheric measurements to provide a more comprehensive and accurate assessment of
660 methane emissions from the oil and gas sector. FOG combines combustion activity of drilling
661 and production engines with fuel-based nitrogen oxides (NO_x) emission factors from
662 measurements and empirical models (Gorchov-Negron *et al.* 2018). The activity-based NO_x
663 emissions have been evaluated with airborne NOAA WP-3 measurements over a comprehensive
664 number of US oil and gas basins during the Southeast Nexus Study
665 (<https://csl.noaa.gov/projects/senex/>) and Shale Oil and Natural Gas Nexus Study
666 (<https://csl.noaa.gov/projects/songnex/>), as well as with spaceborne observations (Dix *et al.*
667 2020, 2022). Oil and gas methane emissions are then inferred by tracer-tracer ratios observed by
668 the aircraft relative to NO_x analyzed for each oil and gas basin measured (Francoeur *et al.* 2021).
669 The hybrid approach in principle allows for a better representation of emissions compared to
670 traditional activity-based inventories as the atmospheric data likely better captures the effect of
671 **fugitive emissions** and other hard-to-measure sources that are often underrepresented in other
672 activity based inventory methods. Additionally, atmospheric measurements help to address
673 uncertainties by cross-referencing emission estimates with observed methane concentrations,
674 thus improving the overall reliability of the inventory.

675 Key findings from the FOG inventory include:

- 676 1. **Methane Emissions:** The FOG inventory estimates total methane emissions from
677 oil and natural gas production **at 14.1 ± 2.0 Tg CH₄/yr for 2015.**
- 678 2. **Sectoral Breakdown:** The FOG inventory includes methane emissions from
679 drilling, production, gathering, and processing activities. The contribution of methane
680 emissions from the production and drilling phases is particularly significant, comprising
681 about **60% of total methane emissions** during the oil and gas production process.
- 682 3. **Uncertainty and Evaluation:** The methane estimates from the FOG inventory
683 are supported by aircraft-derived "top-down" emission measurements, which help

684 validate the inventory's accuracy. Uncertainties are evaluated through a Monte-Carlo
685 analysis of the NO_x emissions and emissions factors (Francoeur *et al.* 2021)

686

687 **Code Availability**

688 The code for the sectoral attribution is available here (Worden and Pandey, 2025):

689 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15786798>].

690 A Python notebook demonstrating the benchmarking approach with the GOSAT inversion fluxes

691 is available at Pandey, S., & Worden, J. (2025). Evaluation of Methane Emissions Inventory

692 Using Satellite Flux Inversions Data set <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.16921536> (Pandey and

693 Worden, 2025)

694

695 **Data Availability**

696 GOSAT-based fluxes and emissions by sector are also available on Zenodo:

697 <https://zenodo.org/records/15786798>. (Worden and Pandey, 2025)

698

699 **Author Contributions**

700 JW designed the study, performed sectoral attribution, and wrote the paper draft SP performed

701 the inventory comparison analysis, made the figures and supported the paper writing. HN, JDM,

702 and KB supported the analysis and paper writing. CH and CL supported the FOG analysis. DG

703 and LS supported interpretation of the inventories. DJ, LE, DV, JE, and ZQ produced the

704 GOSAT fluxes, supported the interpretation, and reviewed the paper.

705

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707 **interests.**

708

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995 [Figure Captions](#)

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997 Figure 1: (Top Panels) Mean Emissions for Oil and Gas for 2015 (at 1x1 degree lon/lat gridding)
998 as calculated from the EPA, FOG, EDGAR inventories. (Bottom Panels) Differences between
999 FOG and EPA and EDGAR and EPA.

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1001 Figure 2: Comparison of the U.S. oil and gas (O&G) methane emissions in 2015 from the
1002 GOSAT inversion with those from the FOG inventory. The upper left panel (a) shows the
1003 GOSAT based estimate. The upper right panel (b) shows the original FOG emissions. The
1004 middle left panel (c) shows the difference between the top two. The middle right panel shows the
1005 difference between FOG emissions and GOSAT based emissions after applying the inversion
1006 operator (denoted AK). All figures use 1x1 degree gridding; only differences larger than the
1007 corresponding calculated uncertainty are shown. The bottom right panel (E) shows the diagonal
1008 of the averaging kernel (or DOFS) corresponding to that location for oil and gas emissions.

1009

1010 Figure 3: Same as in Figure 2 but for the EDGAR inventory.

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1012 Figure 4: Same as in Figure 3 but for the EPA GHGI inventory.

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1014 **Figure 5:** Comparison of the integrated total oil and gas (O&G) emissions derived from GOSAT
1015 with those from the FOG, EPA GHGI , and EDGAR 2024 inventories, both with and without the
1016 inversion operator (AK) applied. Comparisons should be made between the GOSAT estimate
1017 and the inventories with inversion operator (AK) applied.

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1019 **Figure 6:** Integrated totals for oil and gas emissions between 2012 and 2020. The GOSAT
1020 inversion operator has been applied to the FOG, EPA GHGI , and EDGAR 2024 inventories; the
1021 biases between the comparisons are therefore not due to the prior used with the GOSAT
1022 inversion.

1023 **Figure 7:** Similar to Figure 2 but for EDGAR 2024 livestock emissions

1024

1025 **Figure 8:** Similar to Figure 7 but for EPA GHGI livestock emissions

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1027 **Figure 9:** Comparison of the integrated livestock emissions derived from GOSAT with those
1028 from the EPA GHGI and EDGAR 2024 inventories, both with and without the inversion
1029 operator (AK) applied. Comparisons should be made between the GOSAT estimate and the
1030 inventories with inversion operator (AK) applied.

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1032 **Figure 10:** Integrated totals for Livestock Emissions between 2012 and 2020. The inversion
1033 operator has been applied to the inventories.

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1035 **Figure 11:** Similar to Figure 2 but for EDGAR 2024 waste emissions

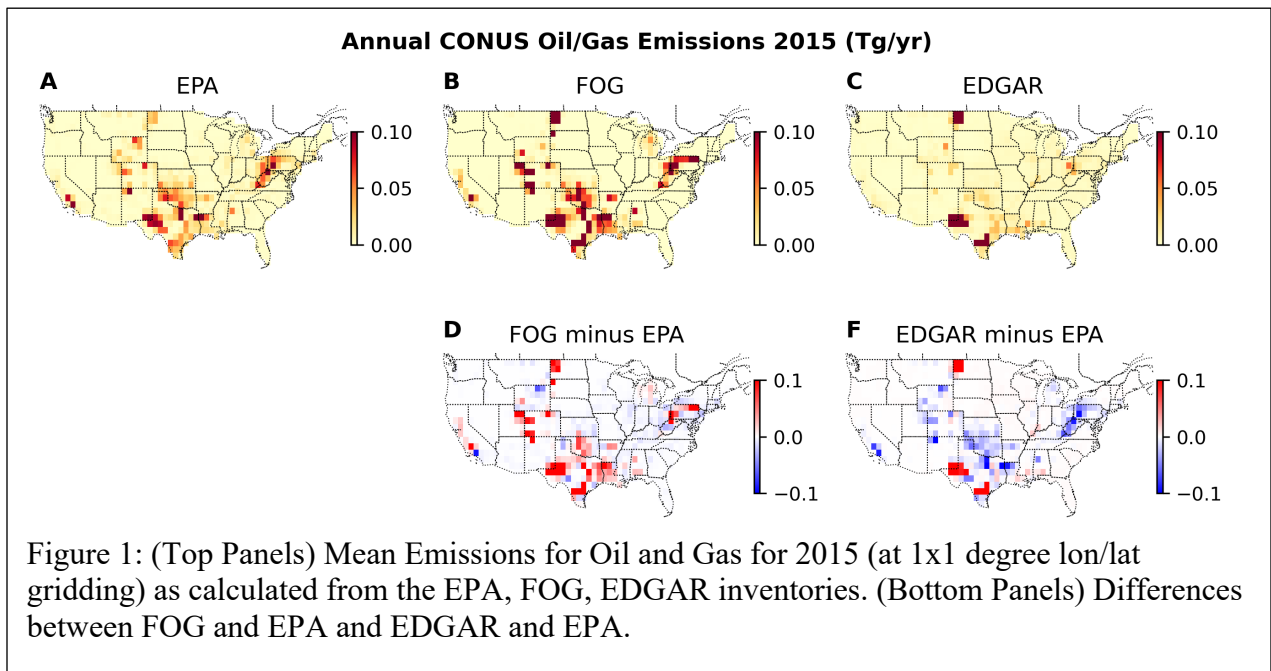
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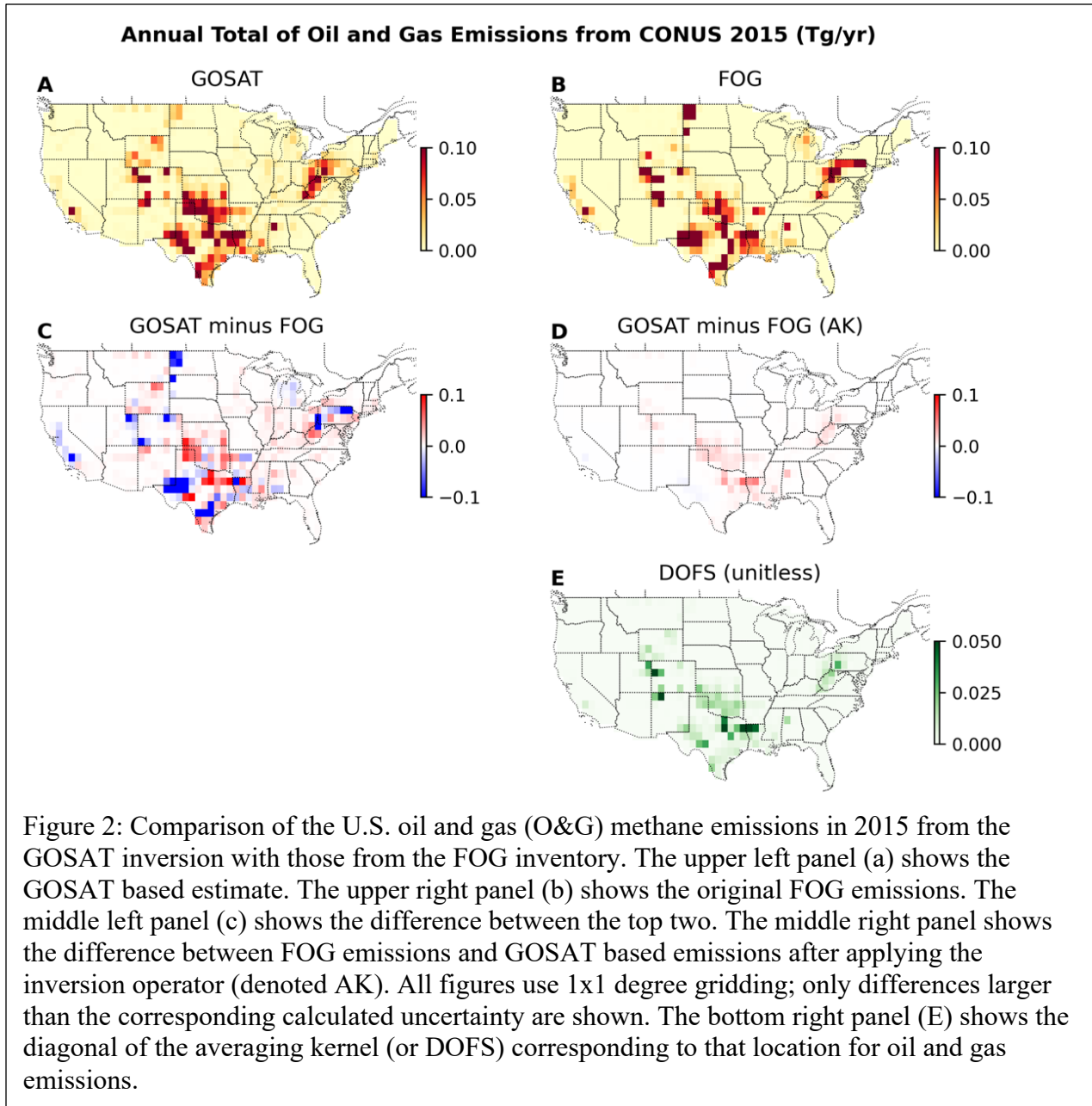
1037 **Figure 12:** Similar to Figure 3 but for EPA GHGI waste emissions

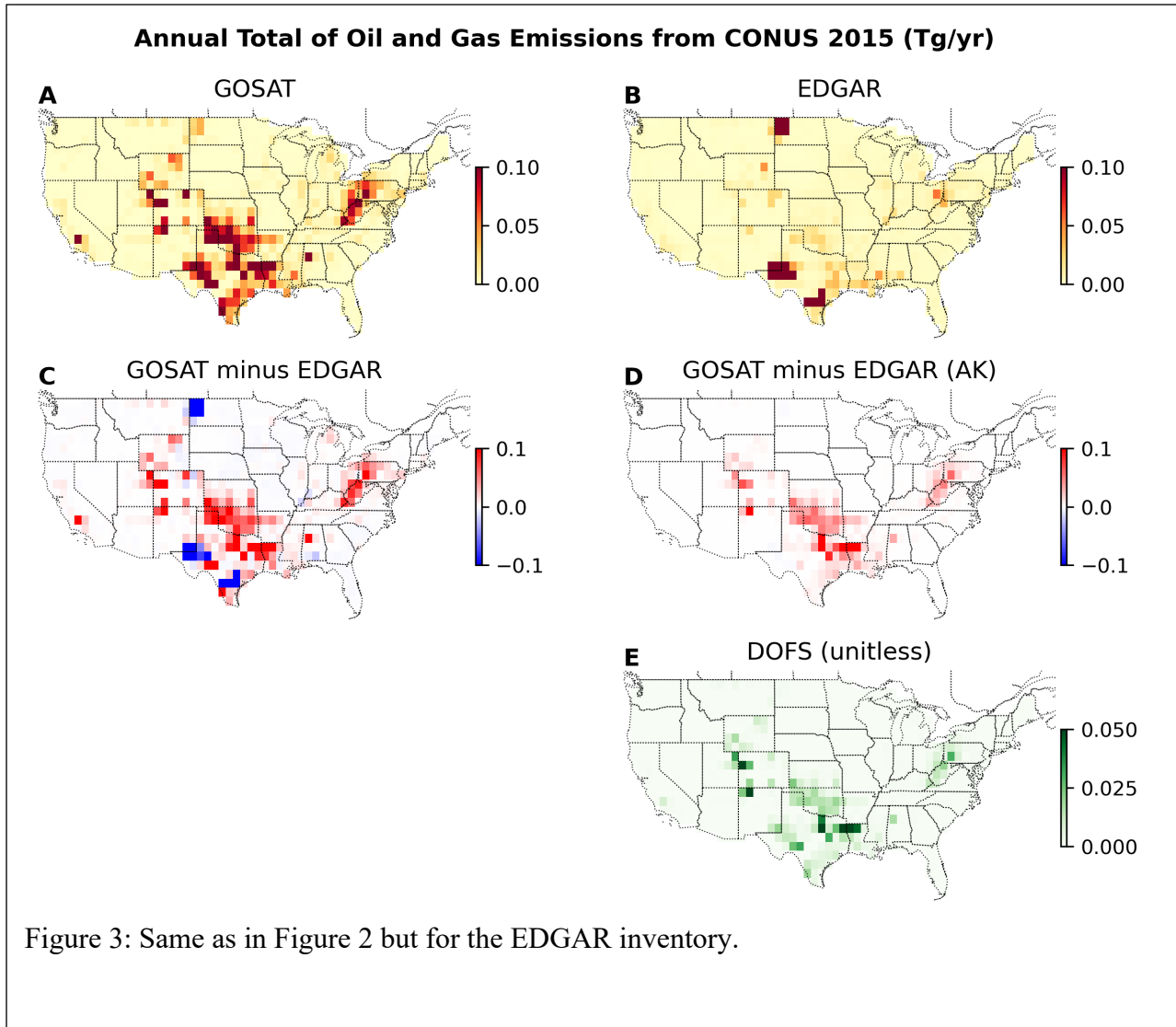
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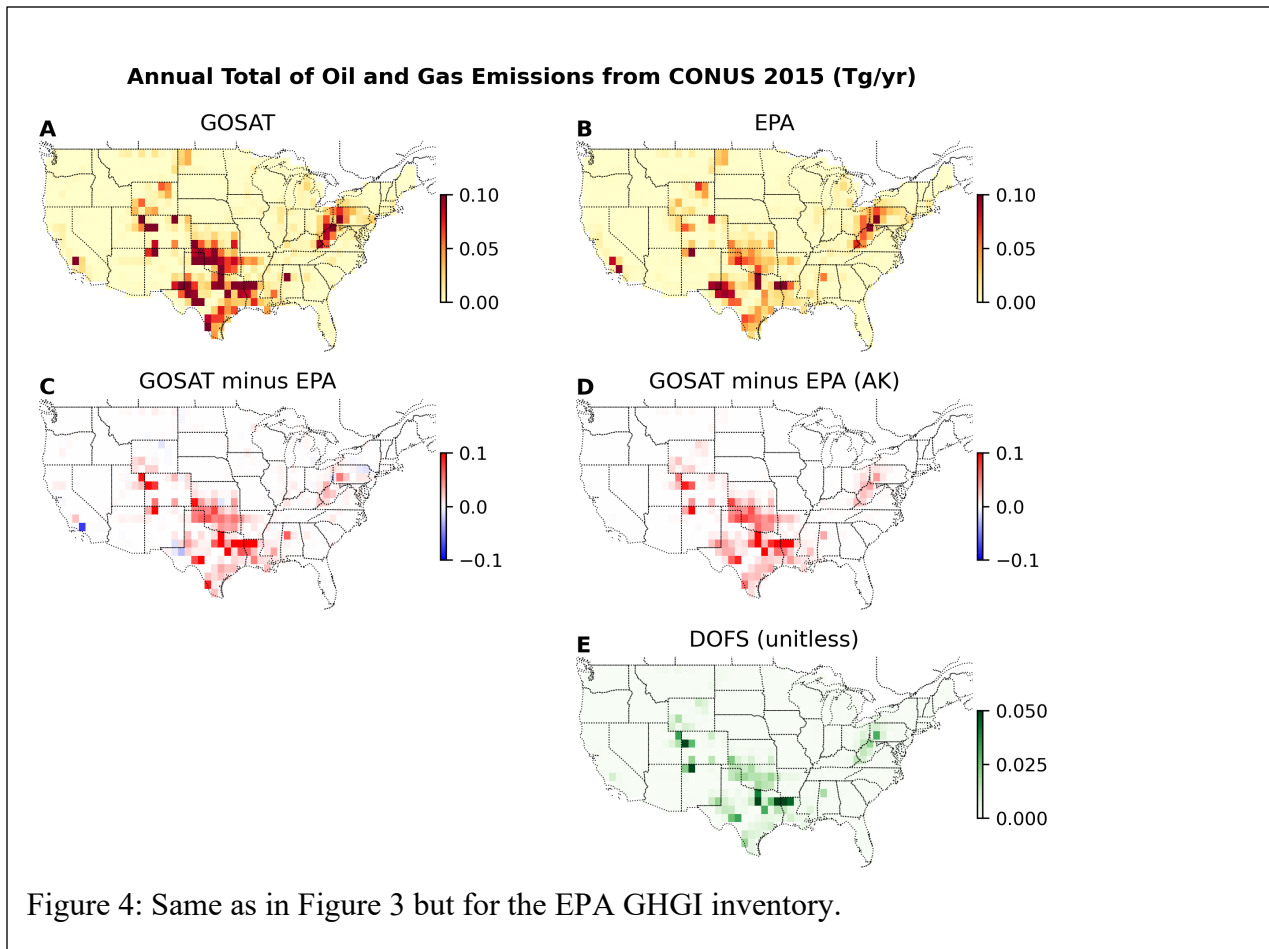
1039 **Figure 13:** Integrated total methane emissions from the waste sector based on GOSAT, along
1040 with estimates from the EPA GHGI and EDGAR 2024 inventories, both with and without the
1041 inversion operator applied.

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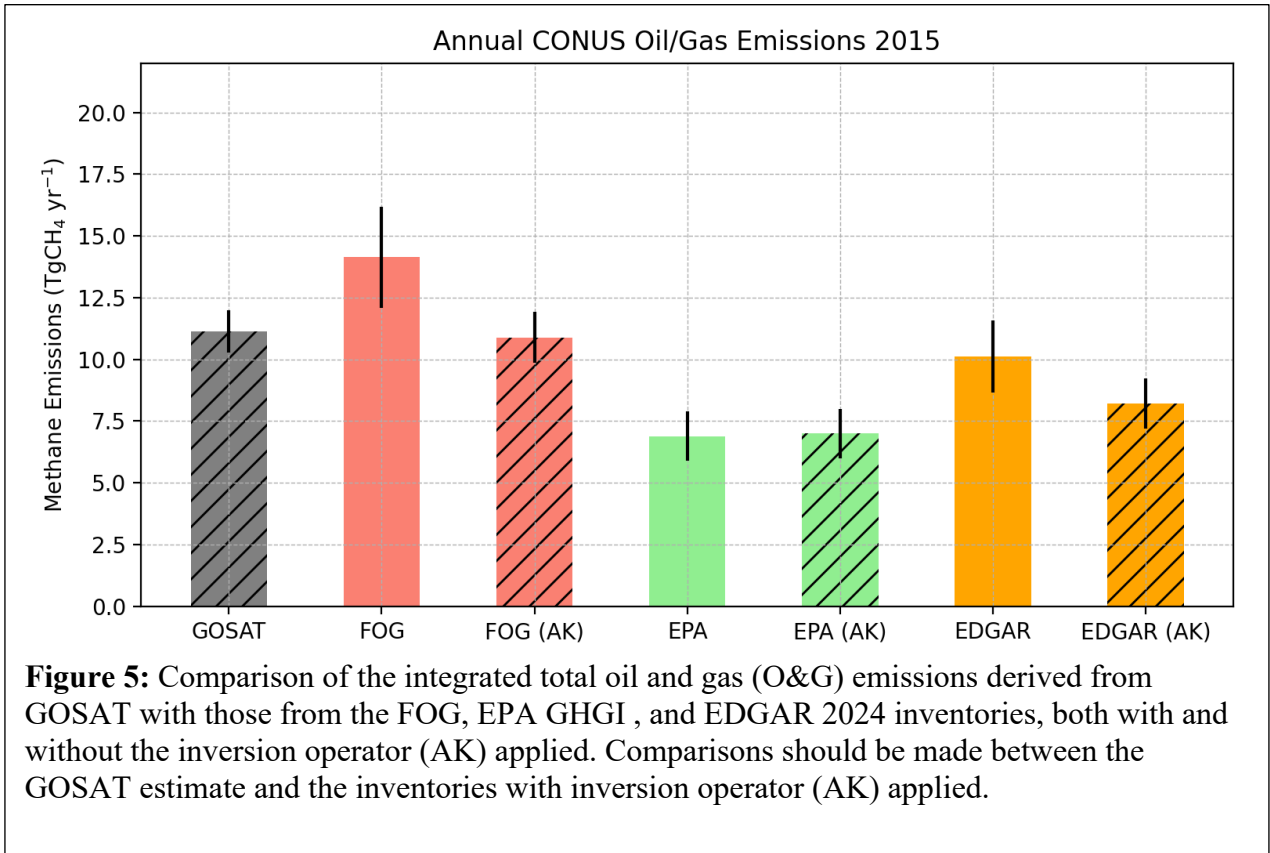




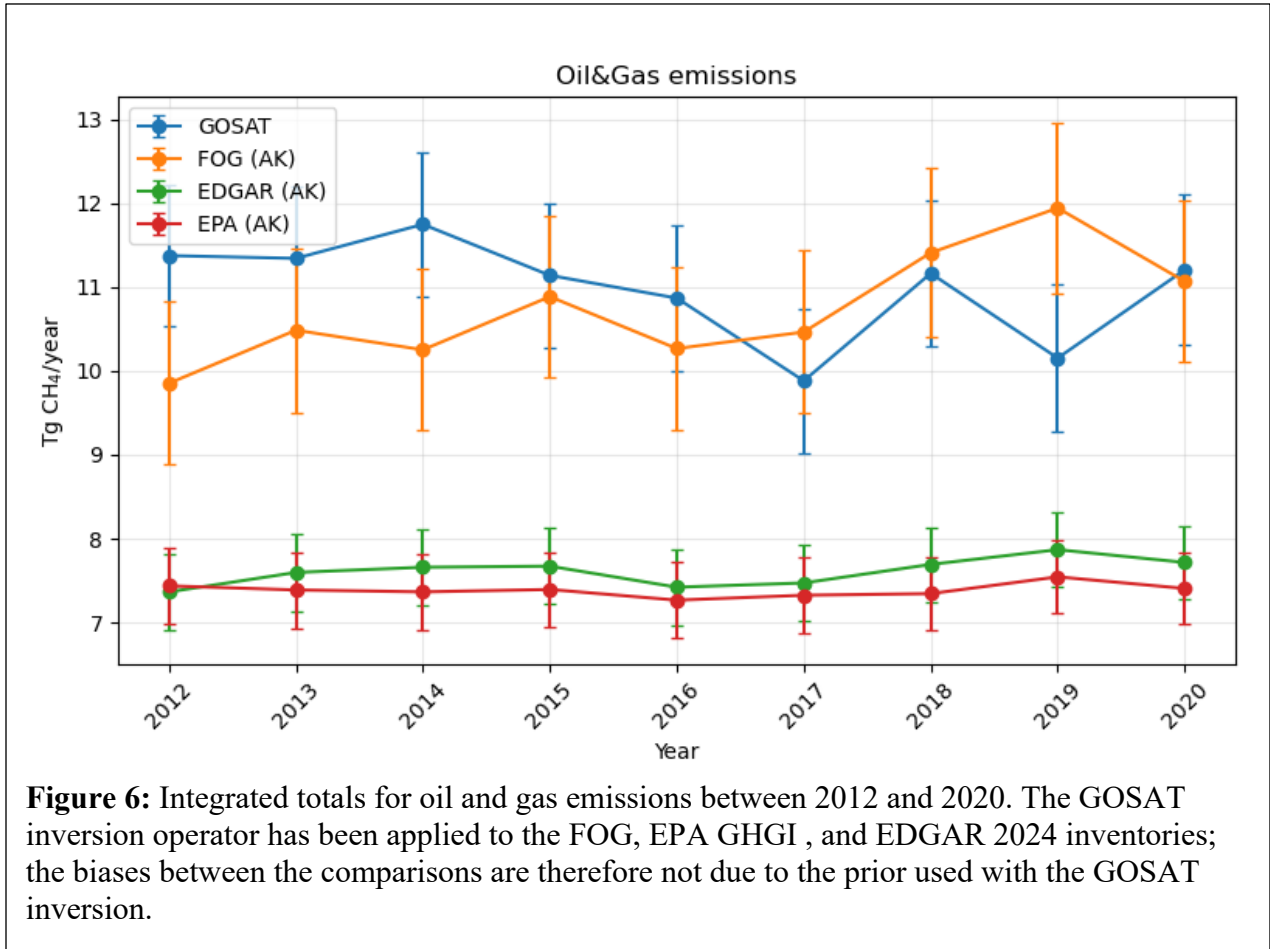




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Figure 6: Integrated totals for oil and gas emissions between 2012 and 2020. The GOSAT inversion operator has been applied to the FOG, EPA GHGI, and EDGAR 2024 inventories; the biases between the comparisons are therefore not due to the prior used with the GOSAT inversion.

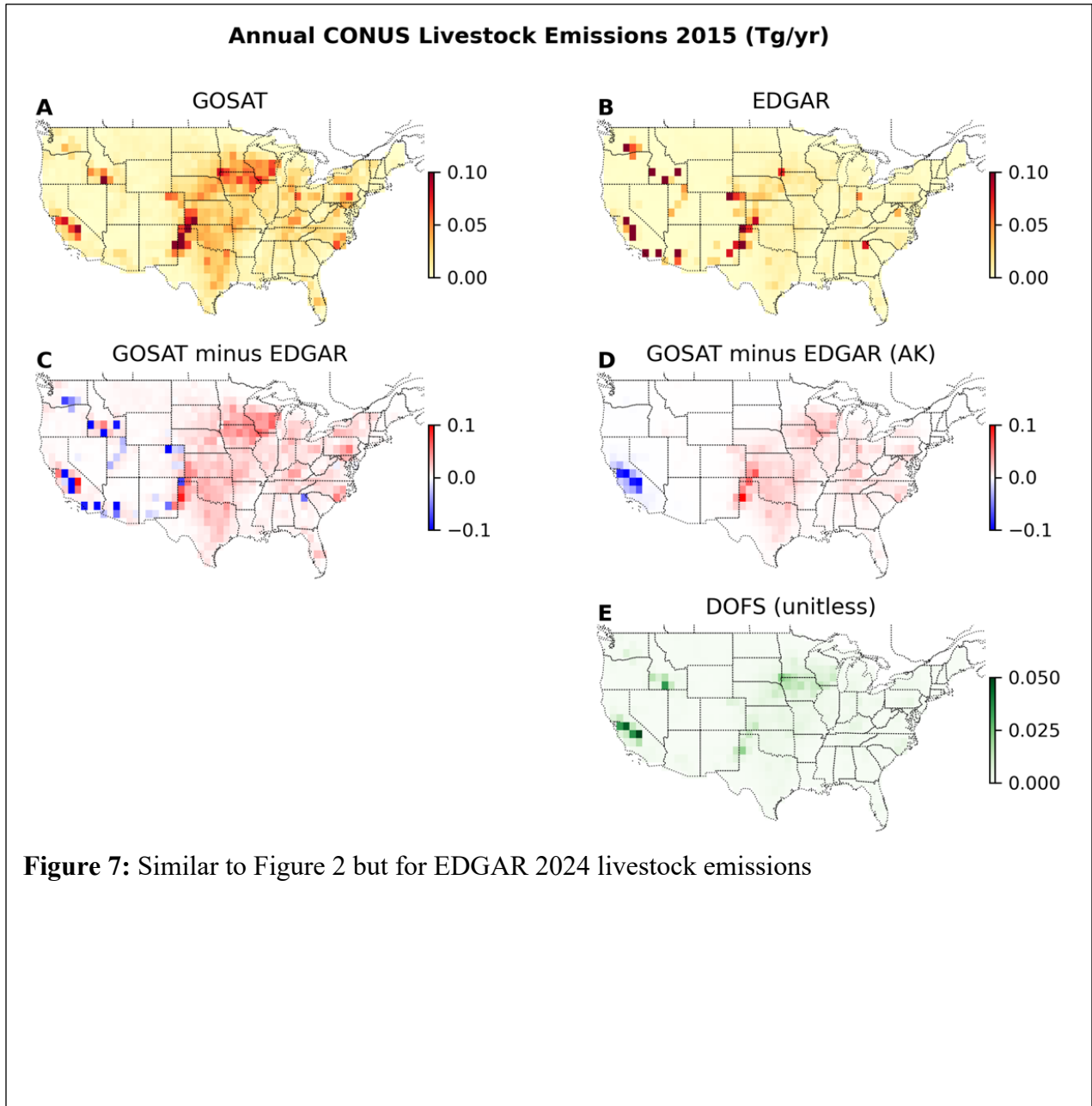


Figure 7: Similar to Figure 2 but for EDGAR 2024 livestock emissions

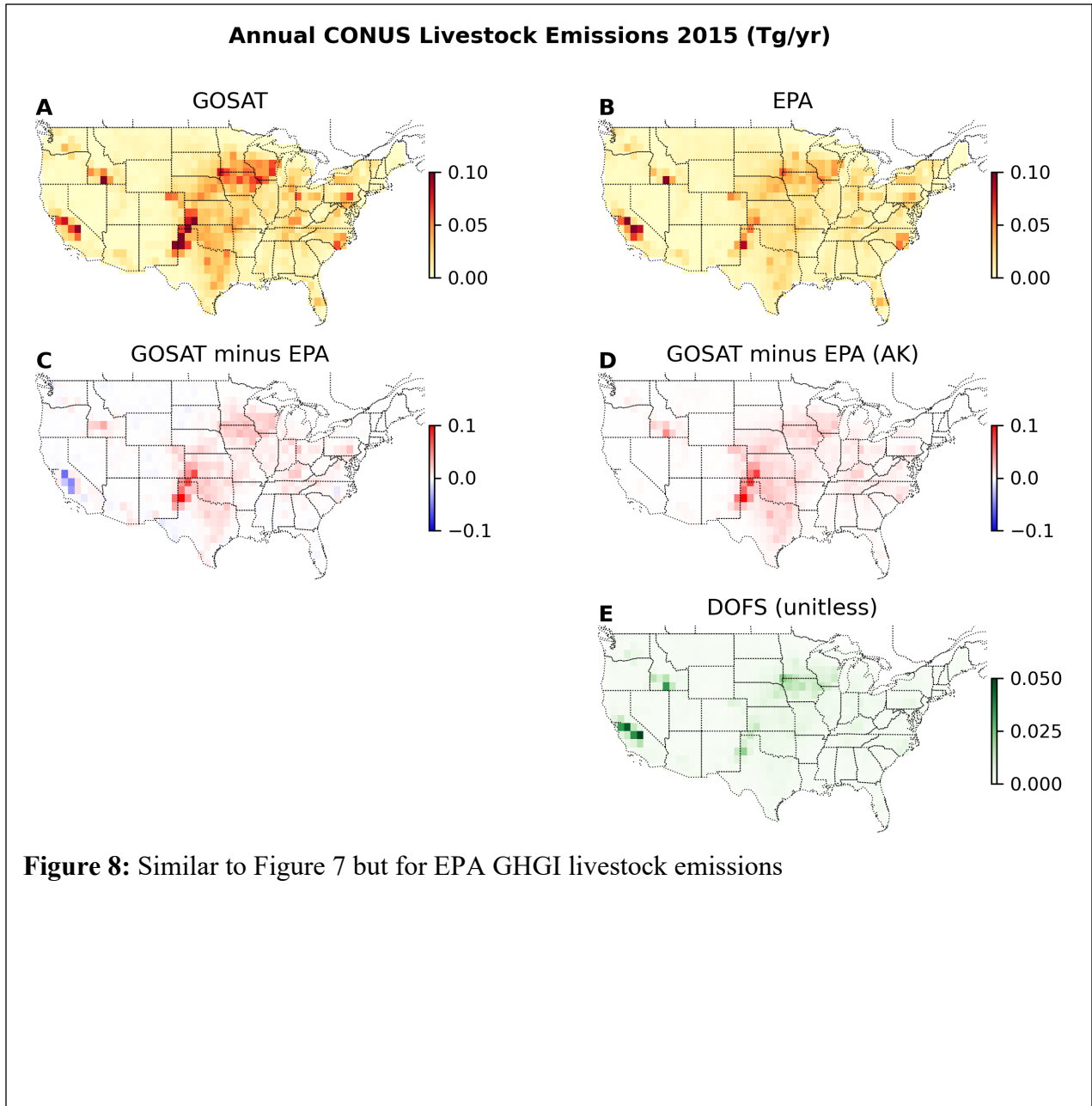
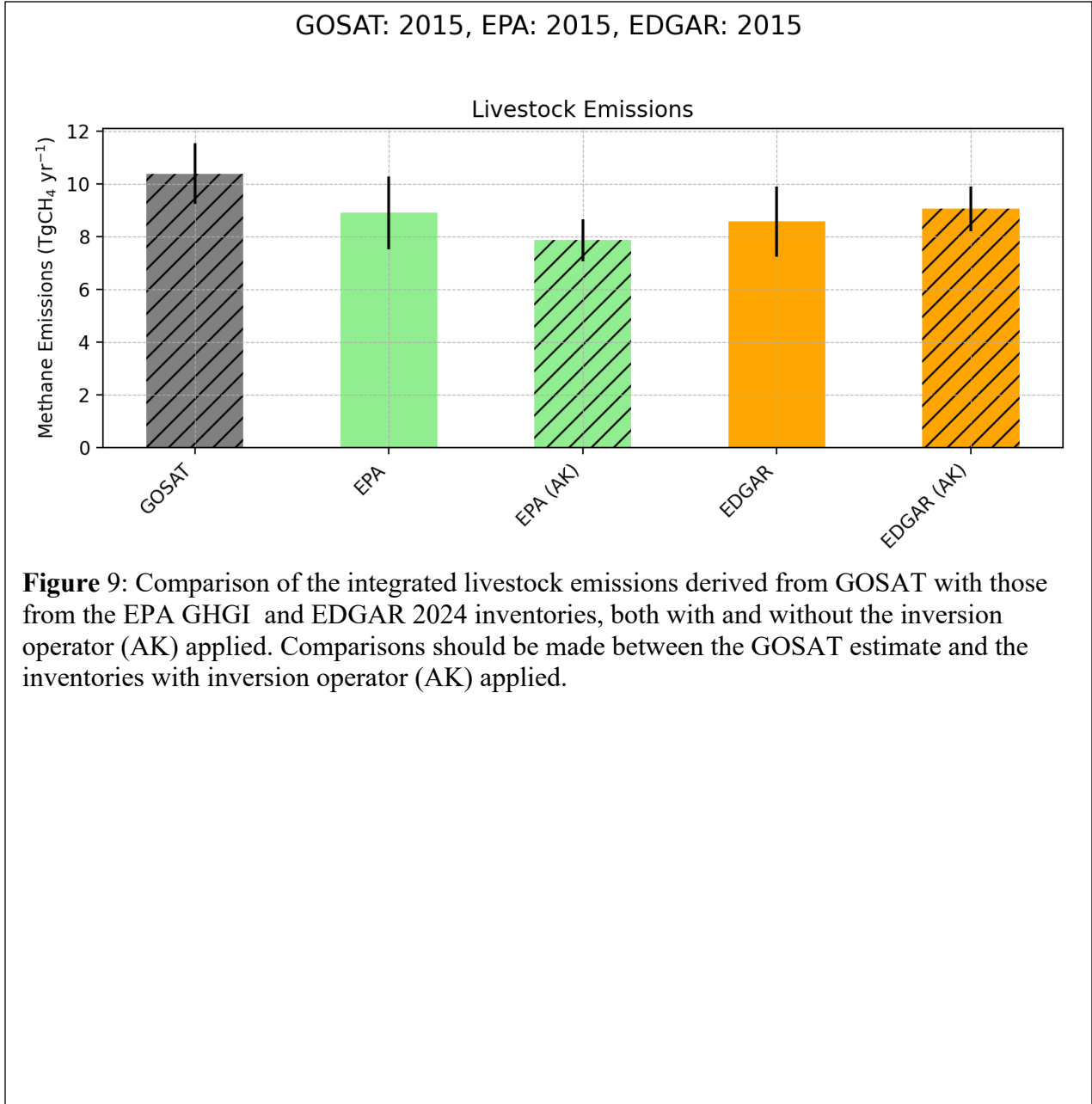


Figure 8: Similar to Figure 7 but for EPA GHGI livestock emissions



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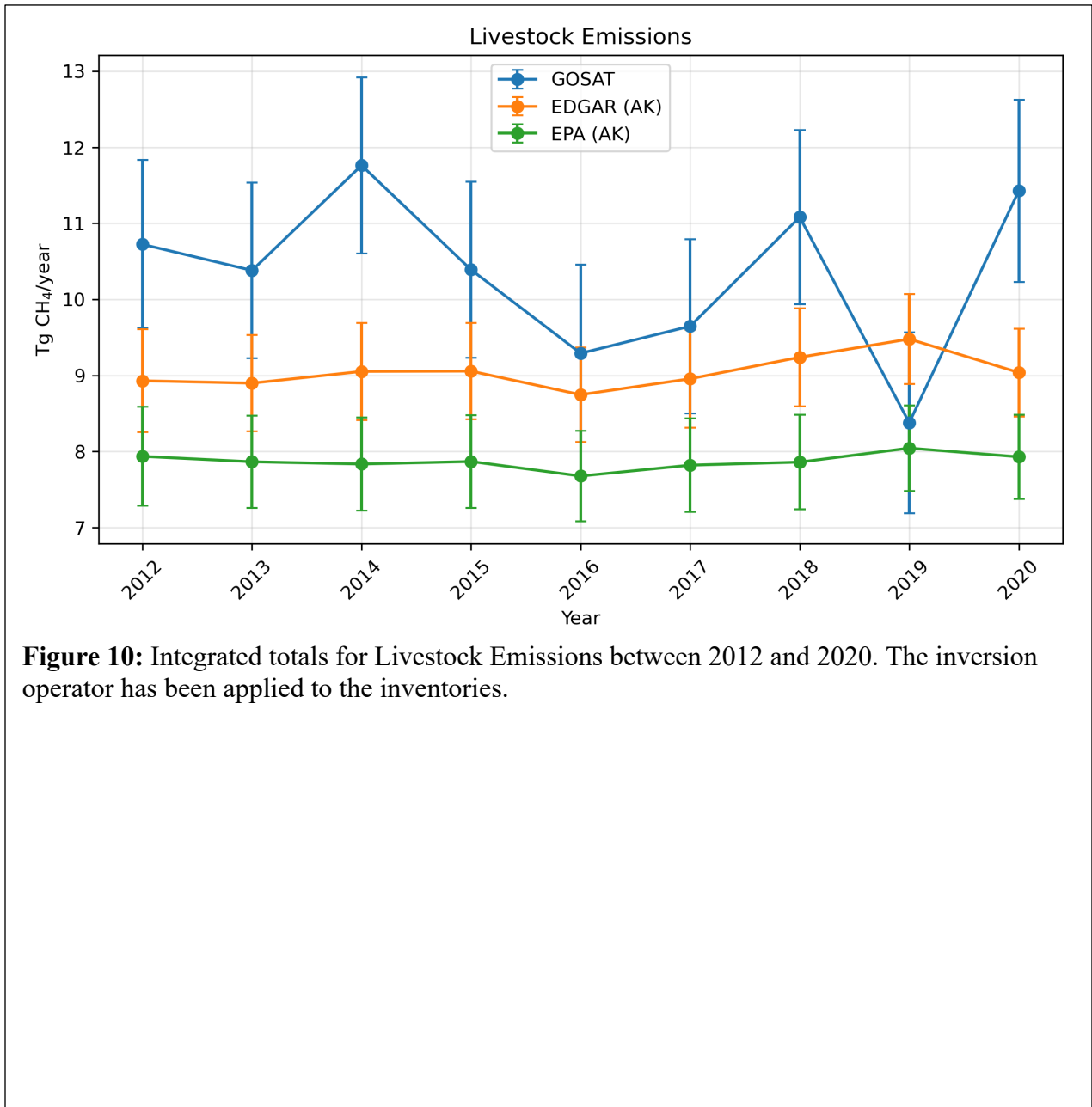


Figure 10: Integrated totals for Livestock Emissions between 2012 and 2020. The inversion operator has been applied to the inventories.

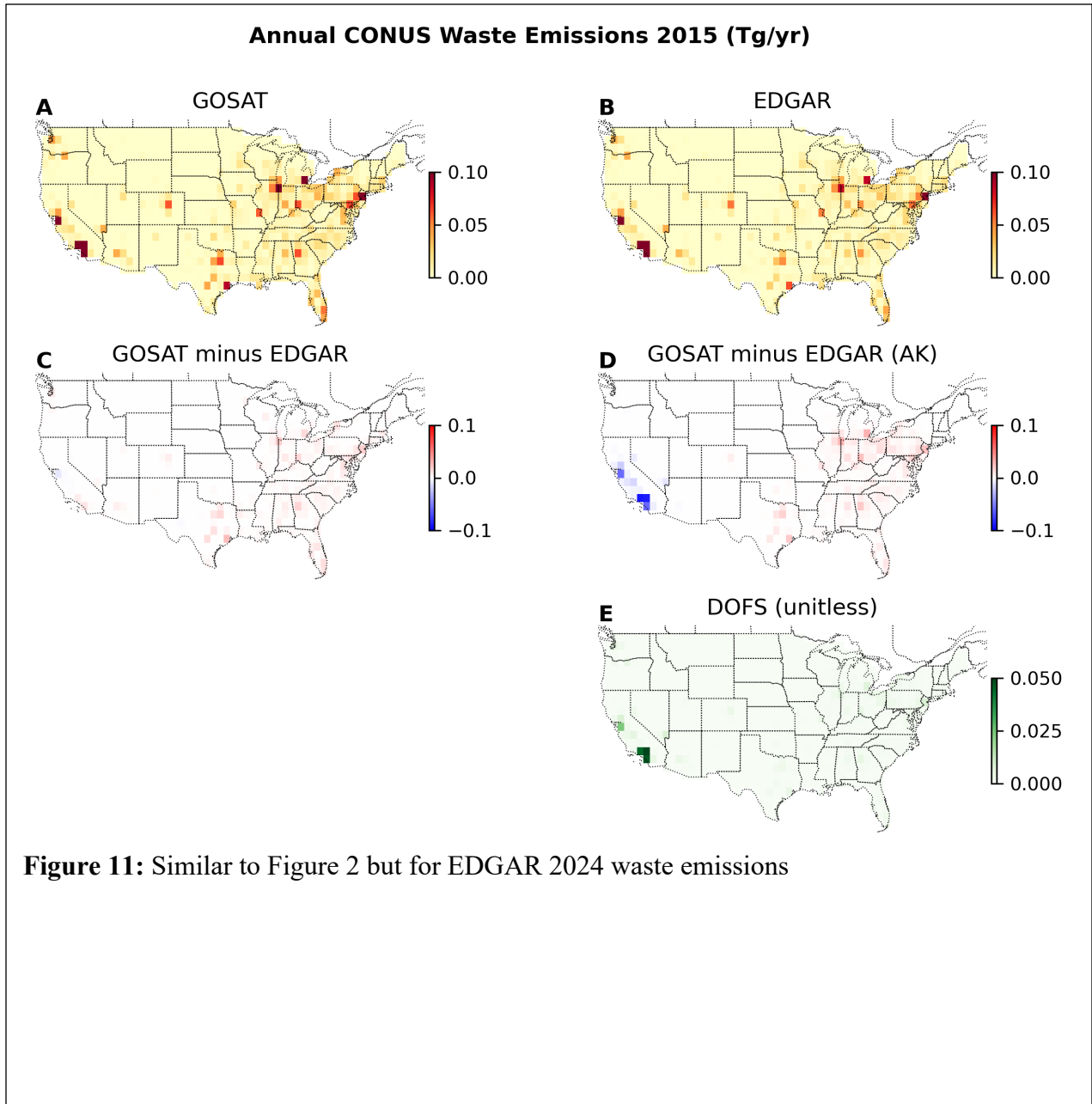
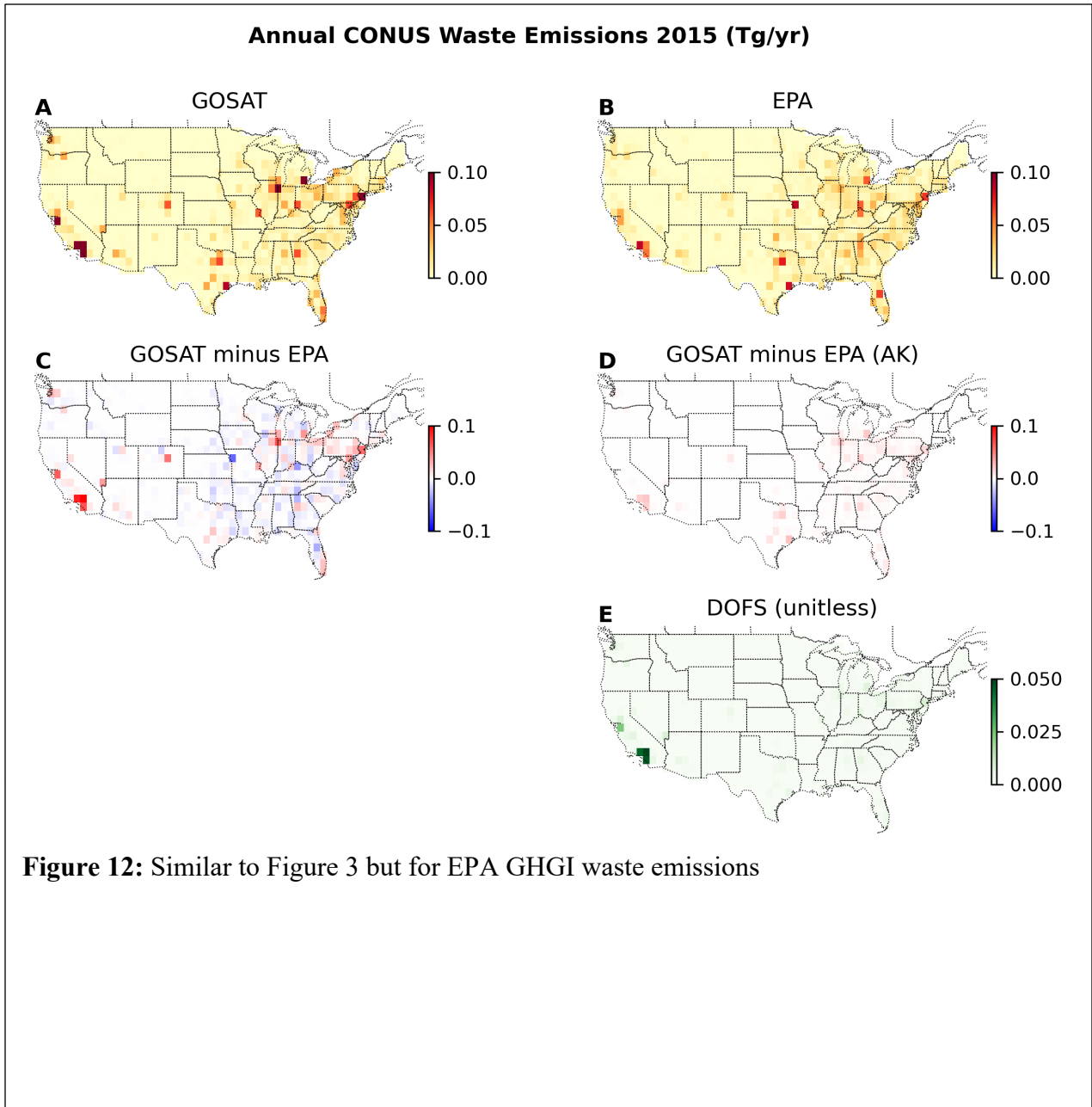


Figure 11: Similar to Figure 2 but for EDGAR 2024 waste emissions

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Figure 12: Similar to Figure 3 but for EPA GHGI waste emissions

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