Role of regional wetland emissions in atmospheric methane variability

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Key Points

- An updated land surface model predicts a trend of +0.2%/yr in global wetland CH\textsubscript{4} emissions over 1993-2014, mainly driven by temperature.
- An atmospheric model using these wetland fluxes, along with other emission estimates, agrees well with ground-based and satellite CH\textsubscript{4} data.
- Varying global wetland CH\textsubscript{4} emissions (±3%) made a small contribution to the 1996-2006 pause, but contributed ~1 ppb/yr to growth post-2006.

Abstract

Atmospheric methane (CH\textsubscript{4}) accounts for ~20% of the total direct anthropogenic radiative forcing by long-lived greenhouse gases. Surface observations show a pause (1999-2006) followed by a resumption in CH\textsubscript{4} growth, which remain largely unexplained. Using a land surface model, we estimate wetland CH\textsubscript{4} emissions from 1993 to 2014 and study the regional contributions to changes in atmospheric CH\textsubscript{4}. Atmospheric model simulations using these emissions, together with other sources, compare well with surface and satellite CH\textsubscript{4} data. Modelled global wetland emissions vary by ±3%/yr (σ=4.8 Tg), mainly due to precipitation-induced changes in wetland area, but the integrated effect makes only a small contribution to the pause in CH\textsubscript{4} growth from 1999 to 2006. Increasing temperature, which increases wetland area, drives a long-term trend in wetland CH\textsubscript{4} emissions of +0.2%/yr (1999 to 2014). The increased growth post-2006 was partly caused by increased wetland emissions (+3%), mainly from Tropical Asia, Southern Africa and Australia.
Index Terms: 3322 (Land/atmosphere interactions), 4337 (Remote sensing), 1890 (Wetlands), 1615 (Biogeochemical cycles), 0365 (Troposphere: composition and chemistry)

Keywords: Methane, Wetlands, Atmosphere

1. Introduction

Two outstanding features of the recent global atmospheric CH₄ record are (i) prior to 2007 atmospheric CH₄ seemed to be approaching a stationary state with sources and sinks in balance and (ii) since 2007 growth has resumed [Rigby et al., 2008]. The reasons for these two features are not fully understood but several indicators suggest that changes in wetlands contributed to both. First, wetland emissions are the largest single source of CH₄ to the atmosphere (~175 Tg/yr, 30% of total) and are known to be sensitive to climate variation. Thus, interannual variations will have an effect at the global scale [Bousquet et al., 2006; Ciais et al., 2014] and may produce a positive climate feedback in the future [Gedney et al., 2004; Melton et al., 2013]. Second, the isotopic signature of atmospheric CH₄ has become more depleted in ¹³CH₄ since 2007, which may be explained by a shift towards a larger fraction of biogenic sources, i.e. wetlands [Nisbet et al., 2014], or agricultural sources [Schaefer et al., 2016]. However, both of these studies focused on the global isotopic signature of CH₄ and so were unable to spatially resolve the regions of main CH₄ emission changes.

Previous investigations into wetland CH₄ emissions using land surface models (LSMs) have shown large differences between estimates, both in magnitude and the spatial and temporal distribution [Wania et al., 2010; Riley et al., 2011; Kirschke et al., 2013; Melton et al., 2013]. Most of these studies were not evaluated against observations of atmospheric CH₄ concentrations, in particular recent column observations [Wunch et al., 2011; Parker et al., 2015]. Studies using atmospheric models forced by a combination of modelled wetland emissions and non-wetland source estimates, were not fully consistent with both in-situ and space-based CH₄ measurements [e.g. Patra et al., 2011; Fraser et al., 2013; Hayman et al., 2014]. Meng et al. [2015] showed good agreement between surface measurements and model simulations when using a wetland CH₄ model, but they did not include emissions after 2005. This was, in part, due to a reliance on the Global Inundation Extent from Multi-Satellites (GIEMS) product for estimated wetland area extent and time-variation, which only covers the period from 1993 to 2007 [Prigent et al., 2012]. It is therefore preferable to have an emission model that is able to predict wetland extent accurately and independently of observational data.
Building on the work of Hayman et al. [2014], we have further developed the Joint UK Land Environment Simulator (JULES) and used it to simulate CH₄ emissions from 1993 to 2014. Important updates to the wetland model include improved representation of topography, which provides a more realistic spatial extent and temporal evolution of flooded areas [Marthews et al., 2015], and inclusion of dynamic soil carbon pools [Clark et al., 2011]. We first compare our modelled wetland CH₄ emissions with a top-down estimate available for 2003-2011 [Bloom et al., 2012]. We then combine the derived wetland CH₄ emissions with non-wetland emission estimates for use in an atmospheric chemical transport model (CTM), TOMCAT, and compare the simulated concentrations to long-term ground-based observations. We have taken advantage, for the first time, of the ~5-year atmospheric column CH₄ measurements from the Greenhouse gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT) remote sensing mission [Parker et al., 2011; 2015] to further evaluate the model. We demonstrate good agreement with both satellite-derived and surface CH₄ data, which allows us to investigate the role of wetland emissions in atmospheric CH₄ variability.

2. Methods

2.1 Wetland Flux Models

Wetlands are areas where the soil is saturated, either permanently or seasonally [Melton et al., 2013]. Within anaerobic wetland regions methanogenesis occurs [e.g. Christensen et al., 2003]. This CH₄ production process is primarily dependent on available substrate and soil temperature. Additional processes, which influence emissions have been included in other LSMs [e.g. Wania et al., 2010; Riley et al., 2011]. We evaluated the importance of these within JULES by comparing simulations against surface flux observations, and found that their inclusion currently provides either limited or no improvement on model performance (see Supporting Information [Gauci et al., 2004; Turnock et al., 2015]). These comparisons highlight uncertainties in wetland emissions at a site-specific scale (R = 0.32). Therefore, due to process uncertainties, our analysis considers only temperature, wetland area and organic substrate as controls of wetland CH₄ emissions.

We use JULES v3.4.1 [Clark et al., 2011] to derive spatially and temporally resolved global wetland CH₄ emissions from 1993-2014 (hereafter labelled JU). The model was forced by 3-hourly WATCH-forcing-data-ERA-interim (WFDEI) at a horizontal resolution of 0.5°×0.5° [Weedon et al., 2014]. The rainfall component of WFDEI was bias-corrected using Global Precipitation Climatology Centre (GPCC) and Climatic Research Unit (CRU) measurements. Wetland fraction derivations were based on an improved topographic index within the JULES-TOPography-based hydrological MODEL (TOPMODEL), which produces significant improvements compared with previous versions [Marthews et al., 2015]. The
topographic index and water table depth, which is controlled by precipitation, evaporation and runoff, are the key controls of wetland area. For the wetland CH$_4$ flux estimation, equation (1) in Gedney et al. [2004] was updated to use the four carbon pools generated as part of both the RothC model [Jenkinson, 1990; Coleman and Jenkinson, 1999] and the Top-down Representation of Interactive Foliage and Flora Including Dynamics (TRIFFID) [Cox, 2001] model within JULES. The updated flux model is:

$$f_{sub} = C_{dpm}R_{dpm} + C_{rpm}R_{rpm} + C_{bio}R_{bio} + C_{hum}R_{hum}$$  

(1)

$$F_{CH_4} = k_{CH_4}f_{wet}f_{sub}Q_{210}(T_{soil}-T_0)/10$$  

(2)

The total temperature independent methanogenesis ($f_{sub}$, in kg m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) is based on the four carbon pools of decomposable plant material ($C_{dpm}$, kg m$^{-2}$), resistant plant material ($C_{rpm}$), biomass ($C_{bio}$) and long-lived humus ($C_{hum}$), which are multiplied by their respective methanogenesis rates ($R_{dpm/rpm/bio/hum}$, s$^{-1}$). These rates used to calculate a CH$_4$ flux ($F_{CH_4}$, kg m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) are assumed to be the same as the respiration rates used in Clark et al. [2011] (see Supporting Information). The soil temperature ($T_{soil}$, K) is averaged over the top 10 cm and the reference temperature ($T_0$) is 273.15 K. At temperatures below 273.15 K the ground is considered frozen with zero surface flux. An effective $Q_{210}$ value, based on the reaction rate change for a 10 K change in temperature, was initially set at 3, based on McNorton et al. [2016a], and varies with temperature between 2.5 and 3 as given by equation (2) in Gedney et al. [2004]. The wetland fraction ($f_{wet}$) is the fraction of the model grid cell area that is water saturated. A unitless constant ($k_{CH_4}$) was calibrated to provide mean global emissions of 175 Tg/yr between 2000 and 2009, based on Ciais et al. [2014].

First we use top-down CH$_4$ emission data derived using the method of Bloom et al. [2012] (hereafter labelled BL) to evaluate JU. BL is based on column CH$_4$ (XCH$_4$) retrievals from the Scanning Imaging Absorption Spectrometer for Atmospheric Chartography (SCIAMACHY), gravity anomaly-derived equivalent water height from the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE), proxy soil temperature from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCEP/NCAR) skin temperature analyses and an assumed surface carbon input. This dataset provides interannually varying emissions between 2003 and 2011; a climatology is used for 1993-2002 and 2012-2014. BL emissions, combined with non-wetland emissions, have previously been shown to compare well with observed surface concentrations when used as a boundary condition in an atmospheric CTM [Bloom et al., 2012]. We therefore use them as a benchmark for JU for the period 2003-2011. JU is suitable for the study of long-term trends
because it is not limited by availability of satellite data. As with JU, we scaled BL to provide mean global emissions of 175 Tg/yr between 2000 and 2009.

2.2 Atmospheric CH4 Model

We used the TOMCAT global atmospheric 3-D off-line CTM [Chipperfield, 2006] to predict atmospheric CH4 concentrations given surface emissions. We performed three simulations, two of which used interannually varying wetlands (TOMCAT-JU and TOMCAT-BL) and the third used a climatology of JULES emissions between 1993 and 2014 (TOMCAT-CL). Simulations were forced by the 6-hourly European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA-Interim reanalyses [Dee et al., 2011] for the period 1993 to 2014 with a horizontal resolution of 2.8°×2.8° and 60 levels from the surface to ~60 km. The model was spun-up from 1977 to 1992 using interannually varying emissions when available, these include JULES wetland fluxes, then the mean global CH4 was rescaled to match observed concentrations in 1993.

Anthropogenic emissions were taken from the EDGAR v4.2 FT 2010 database, which gradually increase between 1993-2010, with 2011-2014 emissions set to repeat 2010 [Olivier et al., 2012]. Previous studies have suggested a range of overestimates in the growth rate in EDGAR anthropogenic emissions [Bousquet et al., 2011; Monteil et al., 2011; Patra et al., 2016]. The magnitude of the overestimated growth is highly uncertain, as an estimate, we reduced the growth rate between 2000 and 2010 by a factor two. Biomass burning emissions were taken from the GFED v4 database [van der Werf et al., 2010] between 1997 and 2014, with 1993-1996 emissions based on a climatology. Annually-repeating hydrate, mud volcano, termite and ocean [Matthews and Fung, 1987] emissions were taken from the TransCom CH4 study [Patra et al., 2011]. JULES only simulates natural wetlands and does not account for agricultural practices (e.g. fertilisation) altering the biogeochemical processes. To account for rice paddies in areas of natural wetlands, a mask (based on the MICRA2000 rice fraction map [Portmann et al., 2010]) was placed over the JU and BL wetlands and annual repeating emissions [Yan et al., 2009] were used instead. Any climate-driven influences on rice emissions are not accounted for. All non-wetland emissions are scaled to 2000-2009 values provided by Ciais et al. [2014] (see Supporting Information).

Removal of atmospheric CH4 follows Patra et al. [2011], where loss occurs through chemical reactions with OH, Cl, O(1D) and a soil sink. We use the same model OH fields as McNorton et al. [2016b]. These are a development of fields used by Patra et al. [2011], which were derived from a combination of semi-empirically calculated tropospheric distributions and 2-D model stratospheric values [Spivakosvky et al., 2000; Huijnen et al., 2010]. We use CH3CCl3 anomalies to vary the model OH field interannually between 1997-2007 [Montzka et al.,...
2011; McNorton et al., 2016b]. For the other years the original Patra et al. [2011] field is used. The Cl, O(1D) and soil sink fields do not vary interannually.

2.4 Satellite CH$_4$ Data

We use the University of Leicester Proxy dry-air column averaged mole fractions of CH$_4$ (XCH$_4$) v6.0 data [Parker et al., 2011; 2015] derived from observations made by the TANSO-FTS instrument on-board the GOSAT satellite [Kuze et al., 2009]. Retrievals of XCH$_4$ are sensitive to the surface and lower troposphere, hence providing information relating to emissions of CH$_4$. GOSAT has provided global XCH$_4$ data since 2009 with a single-sounding precision between 0.4-0.8%, making it an ideal tool for the assessment of modelled atmospheric CH$_4$.

To compare TOMCAT to GOSAT, we take the nearest model profile, both spatially and temporally, to the GOSAT retrieval. We also apply the sounding-specific GOSAT averaging kernel to the model profile to account for the differing sensitivities throughout the atmosphere, allowing the most robust comparison between measurement and model. Both GOSAT and model output are then binned into TransCom regions and temporally into monthly periods between 2009 and 2014.

2.5 Ground-based CH$_4$ Observations

We use atmospheric CH$_4$ measurements from the Total Carbon Column Observing Network (TCCON) (see Supporting Information [Wunch et al., 2011]) and the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration/Earth System Research Laboratory (NOAA/ESRL) sampling sites [Dlugokencky et al., 2015]. These allow us to assess the model’s ability to reproduce the observed long-term trends in CH$_4$ growth. To derive global surface CH$_4$ concentrations we have used observations from 19 NOAA sites (see Table 1, McNorton et al., [2016b]) interpolated across 180 latitude bins, which were then weighted by surface area. The process was repeated for model output sampled at the site locations.

3. Results and Discussion

Figure 1 compares the JU and BL emissions globally and for defined TransCom regions [see Gurney et al., 2002]. Annual emissions from JU compare well with BL in most regions although JU emissions tend to be noticeably higher in tropical regions and lower in boreal regions, caused in part by JU (Q$_{10}(T_0) = 3$) having a higher temperature sensitivity than BL (Q$_{10}(T_0) = 1.65$). Methanogenesis temperature sensitivity varies depending on conditions; as a result there is uncertainty when assuming a global value [Segers et al., 1998]. For the time period when both predictions are available (2003-2011), global annual emissions range from 169.4 Tg/yr (2004) to 183.1 Tg/yr (2010) in JU, and from 172.1 Tg/yr (2004) to 178.6 Tg/yr
(2007) in BL. The mean interannual variability is larger in JU (4.1 Tg/yr) than BL (2.0 Tg/yr). Both datasets show an overall positive trend in global emissions over their respective time periods, statistically significant at the 95% level (p < 0.05), of 0.37 Tg/yr for JU (1993-2014) and 0.55 Tg/yr for BL (2003-2011). Nearly all of the growth trend in JU originates from Europe (0.07 Tg/yr), Tropical Asia (0.13 Tg/yr), Southern Africa (0.05 Tg/yr) and Australia (0.10 Tg/yr), whereas trends in BL are largest from Eurasian Boreal (0.11 Tg/yr), Northern Africa (0.10 Tg/yr) and Southern Africa (0.13 Tg/yr). The spatial difference in trends occurs not only as a result of model differences but also as a result of the time periods covered by each model. When emissions are divided into the time periods before, during and after the observed CH₄ pause, there appears to be no noticeable decrease in JU emissions during the pause (Figure 1b). However, modelled emissions are typically slightly above average early in the pause period (1999-2001, 179.9 Tg/yr) and smaller in the later pause period (2002-2006, 171.5 Tg/yr), indicating that changes in wetland emissions were not responsible for the initial stall in CH₄ growth but may have contributed later on.

Figure 2a shows that the variability in JU CH₄ emissions is larger in tropical than boreal regions, with anomalously high tropical emissions between 2007-2012, offset by lower emissions between 2002-2006. Figure 2b shows positive long-term trends in JU wetland CH₄ emissions over south-east Asia, northern Australia, Zambia, southern Democratic Republic of Congo and the seasonally flooded savannas in tropical South America. Distinct regions with negative trends are less apparent, with the exception of the Iberá wetlands (Paraná river, NE Argentina).

Variability in wetland fraction, soil temperature and carbon substrate is the cause of trends in our modelled JU wetland CH₄ emissions. We investigated anomalies in these parameters both zonally (Figures 3a, 3c and 3d) and globally (Figure 3e). Considerable wetland area anomalies occur at both boreal and tropical latitude bands, with an anomalously low tropical wetland area during both the 1997/1998 El Niño event and the later period of the pause in growth (2002–2006), and anomalously high post-2006. Figures 3b and 3f show interannual variability in wetland area occurs as a result of changes in the reanalysis rainfall over wetland regions [Harris et al., 2014; Weedon et al., 2014].

Soil temperature anomalies in wetland regions predicted by JULES are heavily weighted toward the tropics (Figure 3c), whereas carbon substrate flux anomalies are weighted towards the northern boreal regions (Figure 3d). Our results show positive northern hemisphere tropical wetland temperature anomalies during the 1997/1998 El Niño event and in 2010. Negative tropical wetland temperature anomalies are found early in the simulation from 1993-2001 (excluding 1997/1998).
To further investigate these trends we calculated grid cell coefficient anomalies, which are based on the flux as a function of each variable, to satisfy the following rewrite of equation (2):

$$F_{CH_4} = k_{CH_4} \cdot f_{tem} \cdot f_{wet} \cdot f_{sub}$$  

(3)

The temperature and substrate coefficients were then weighted by grid cell wetland fraction and grid cell area to provide a global coefficient, from which monthly anomalies were calculated.

Globally, there is a statistically significant (95%-level) positive trend in the wetland area CH$_4$ flux coefficient ($f_{wet}$) of 0.16%/yr over the 1993–2014 period (Figure 3e). There is a negative trend in rainfall over the model climatological wetland area, although this is not statistically significant (p-value = 0.09) (Figure 3f). The trend in temperature flux coefficient ($f_{tem}$) anomaly is positive (0.13%/yr) and statistically significant. This trend causes high-latitude thawing, which controls the long-term trend in wetland area. The carbon substrate flux coefficient ($f_{sub}$) anomaly trend is slightly negative (-0.02%/yr), but is not statistically significant. Both the modelled CH$_4$ emission trend (1993-2014) and the interannual flux variability are dominated by changes in wetland area and temperature with small contributions from substrate, which is consistent with previous findings [e.g. Ringeval et al., 2010]. The reduction in our modelled wetland emissions from 2002-2006 is the result of a decrease in wetland area ($f_{wet}$: -2.0%), while the increase since 2007 is mainly the result of increases in wetland area ($f_{wet}$: +1.6%) but also temperature ($f_{tem}$: +0.7%).

Figure 4 compares TOMCAT predictions with atmospheric XCH$_4$ retrievals. Comparisons of GOSAT with the TOMCAT-JU simulation correlate slightly better ($\bar{R}$: 0.91) than with TOMCAT-BL ($\bar{R}$: 0.90) and TOMCAT-CL ($\bar{R}$: 0.90) for the TransCom regions. There is a slight inter-hemispheric offset between both model simulations and GOSAT; the three northern high-latitude regions have a mean concentration over the entire period of 1803.4 ppb in TOMCAT-JU, 1808.9 ppb in TOMCAT-BL, 1800.7 in TOMCAT-CL and 1794.2 ppb in GOSAT. Through comparison of simulated and observed atmospheric SF$_6$ concentrations, Wilson et al. [2014] showed that inter-hemispheric transport in TOMCAT is somewhat too slow (see also Patra et al. [2011]). This causes TOMCAT to slightly overestimate (underestimate) northern (southern) hemisphere CH$_4$ concentrations. The correlation, mean bias and root-mean-squared error (RMSE) values taken from comparisons show TOMCAT-JU produces better agreement with GOSAT ($R = 0.88$, mean bias = 11.1 ppb, RMSE = 7.7 ppb), compared to TOMCAT-BL ($R = 0.84$, mean bias = 13.4 ppb and RMSE = 8.9 ppb) and TOMCAT-CL ($R = 0.87$, mean bias = 11.2 and RMSE = 7.7 ppb) (Figure 4b). Assuming that
the model non-wetland CH$_4$ emissions are realistic, this suggests that JU captures both the seasonality and the interannual variability of wetland emissions well. It is important to note that JU emissions vary interannually over the entire time period, whereas BL only varies between 2003 and 2011. Comparisons with surface sites suggest JU produces a more accurate seasonal cycle than BL (see Supporting Information). Anthropogenic emissions are kept constant and biomass burning emissions are slightly below average from 2010-2014, but the model still captures the continued CH$_4$ growth. These results would suggest that increases in wetland emissions in 2010 and 2011 contributed to growth post-2010; although, high non-wetland emissions pre-2010 may still have contributed. Comparisons with flask measurements in Figure 4c show that the model reproduces the observed stalling and resumed growth of CH$_4$ between 1993-2014, although the modelled growth between 1999-2006 is larger than observed (TOMCAT-JU: 2.29 ppb/yr, TOMCAT-BL: 1.81 ppb/yr, TOMCAT-CL: 2.25 ppb/yr, observations: 0.39 ppb/yr). This is mainly the result of an overestimation of the growth in 2006, which is due either to an underestimation of atmospheric OH [McNorton et al., 2016b] or an overestimation in emissions. A possible explanation for the overestimation is the high global biomass burning emissions estimated for 2006 (+34% compared to 1997-2014 mean). Comparisons with observations indicate TOMCAT simulations provide a reasonable representation of atmospheric CH$_4$, although large uncertainties remain in atmospheric loss and non-wetland emission estimates. This suggests that JU emissions provide a reasonable representation of the spatial and interannual variability, and are therefore suitable in the detection of wetland CH$_4$ trends. TOMCAT-JU (7.54 ppb/yr) captures most of the observed renewed growth post-2006 (8.12 ppb/yr), whereas TOMCAT-CL only captures some of the growth (6.48 ppb/yr), suggesting increased wetland emissions have contributed an additional growth of approximately 1 ppb/yr (~13%) since 2007. The remaining growth is likely the result of non-wetland emissions and/or changes in atmospheric loss. The global CH$_4$ differences between TOMCAT_JU and TOMCAT_CL in Figure 4d show the CH$_4$ concentration is 4 ppb higher by the end of 2014 when interannual variability in emissions is considered.

The model predicts variability in wetland CH$_4$ emissions, but the timescale of variability is not long enough to account for the entire slowdown in CH$_4$ growth (1999-2006). For 1999-2001 wetland emissions were high (3% above 1993-2014 average) so were unlikely to have contributed to the initial slowdown in growth. The continued stall in CH$_4$ growth (2002-2006) may have been caused by a 3% decrease in wetland emissions, mainly from Australia (-9%), Northern Africa (-4%) and Tropical Asia (-4%). In 2007, when atmospheric CH$_4$ growth resumed, modelled emissions are again higher (177.6 Tg/yr), and remain high (2007 – 2014 average: 178.2 Tg/yr). The largest changes in emissions post-2006 occur in Southern Africa
(+7%), Tropical Asia (+7%) and Australia (+18%). These results indicate that changes in wetland emissions contributed to the observed atmospheric CH$_4$ growth post-2006, in support of Nisbet et al. [2014].

4. Summary
Recent trends in global wetland CH$_4$ emissions from 1993-2014 were investigated using a substantially improved version of the JULES LSM. The modelled emissions, used within the TOMCAT CTM, gave a good representation (R = 0.88) of the spatial and temporal variability in atmospheric CH$_4$ when compared with satellite and surface data. However, it should be noted that there remain significant uncertainties in modelling the processes in wetland CH$_4$ emissions. The wetland emissions model predicts a statistically significant positive trend (0.2%/yr) in emissions. This is mainly driven by a long-term positive temperature trend, which increases the methanogenesis rate and, by thawing frozen high-latitude regions, the wetland area. Interannual variability (±3%/yr, σ=4.8 Tg) superimposed on the long-term trend is dominated by changes in precipitation over wetland regions. However, we find no evidence for a long-term trend in precipitation over wetland regions.

We find the slowdown in global CH$_4$ growth rate from 1999-2006 was not caused by decreased wetland emissions. Furthermore, our model suggests that increased wetland emissions of 3% (relative to 1993-2006) contributed to the renewed global CH$_4$ growth since 2007.

The trends in atmospheric CH$_4$ growth are not exclusively a result of changes in wetland emissions. Over the period 1993-2014 anthropogenic emissions show large increases (~0.7%/yr) and the biomass burning emissions vary on an interannual basis, most noticeably during El Niño events. However, our study shows that even when accounting for those changes, the atmospheric loss and wetland emissions are key to the interannual variability of CH$_4$ growth.

Acknowledgments
JM thanks NERC National Centre for Earth Observation (NCEO) for a studentship. CW, MPC and MG acknowledge support from NERC grants GAUGE (NE/K002244/1) and AMAZONICA (NE/F005806/1) and MOYA (NE/N015657/1). GDH acknowledges support from the European Space Agency through its Support to Science Element initiative (ALANIS Methane), NCEO, and the NERC grants (MAMM, NE/I028327/1 and Tropical African Wetlands, NE/I01277X/2). RJP is funded via an ESA Living Planet Fellowship with additional funding from NCEO. RP and HB acknowledge support from the ESA Greenhouse Gas Climate Change Initiative (GHG-CCI) and the NERC GAUGE and Amazonian Carbon
Observatory Project. NG was supported by the Joint UK DECC/Defra Met Office Hadley Centre Climate Programme (GA01101). We thank the Japanese Aerospace Exploration Agency, National Institute for Environmental Studies, and the Ministry of Environment for the GOSAT data and their continued support as part of the Joint Research Agreement. We thank Anthony Bloom for supplying wetland CH\textsubscript{4} emissions. This research used the ALICE High Performance Computing Facility at U. Leicester and the Arc1 facility at U. Leeds. TCCON data were obtained from the TCCON Data Archive, hosted by the Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center (CDIAC) (tcon.onrl.gov). NOAA atmospheric CH\textsubscript{4} dry air mole fractions were obtained from the NOAA ESRL GMD Carbon Cycle Cooperative Global Air Sampling Network (esrl.noaa.gov).

All model data used in this study are available through the University of Leeds ftp server, for access please contact j.r.mcnorton@leeds.ac.uk.

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Figure 2. a) Latitude-time plot of monthly JU wetland CH₄ emission anomalies (Gg/yr) between 1993-2014 binned into 1° latitude bands. Monthly anomalies are the deviation from the mean emission of the latitude band between 1993-2014. Note y-axis plotted as sine of latitude to equally weight surface area. b) Spatial pattern of trends in 1°×1° wetland CH₄ emissions (Gg/yr) from JU between 1993-2014.
**Figure 3.**

a) Latitude-time plot of wetland area anomalies produced by JULES (m²) between 1993-2014 binned into 1° bands and smoothed over a 12-month period. Monthly anomalies are calculated as the deviation from the mean area of the latitude band. Note y-axis plotted as sine of latitude to equally weight surface area. 

b) As panel (a) but for rainfall anomalies (gm⁻²s⁻¹) weighted by the JULES climatological wetland area, taken from WFDEI using GPCC and CRU corrected rainfall [Harris et al., 2014; Weedon et al., 2014].

c) Similar to panel (a) but for upper layer soil temperature (°C) weighted by wetland area, from JULES.

d) Similar to panel (a) but for the temperature-independent substrate carbon (gCm⁻²s⁻¹) weighted by wetland area from JULES.

e) Global monthly wetland fraction ($f_w$, blue), temperature ($f_{tem}$, red), and substrate flux ($f_{sub}$, green) coefficient anomalies (%) weighted by wetland area between 1993-2014 and smoothed over a 12-month period. Note that the wetland area weighting varies with time; therefore, some temperature and substrate flux anomalies occur as a result of the variability in wetland area.

f) Global monthly rainfall anomaly (%) over the JULES climatological wetland area, taken from WFDEI using GPCC and CRU corrected rainfall [Harris et al., 2014; Weedon et al., 2014], smoothed over a 12-month period.
Figure 4. a) Monthly mean XCH₄ concentrations (ppb) from GOSAT between April 2009 and December 2014 (black) for TransCom regions. Also shown are results from the three TOMCAT simulations with GOSAT averaging kernels applied, TOMCAT-CL (blue), TOMCAT-JU (green) and TOMCAT-BL (red). Correlation coefficients of model and observations are displayed. b) Correlation of GOSAT XCH₄ with output from simulations TOMCAT-CL, TOMCAT-JU and TOMCAT-BL (gridded into 1 ppb × 1 ppb bins) for months shown in panel (a). The colour scale indicates the density of points. Also shown are the mean bias, RMSE and correlation coefficient of each comparison. c) Monthly (black circles) and deseasonalised global surface CH₄ (ppb) calculated from 19 NOAA sites (black) from 1993 to 2014. Also shown are results from CTM simulations TOMCAT-CL, TOMCAT-JU and TOMCAT-BL. Numbers indicate average annual CH₄ growth (ppb/yr) for the periods 1993-1998, 1999-2006 and 2007-2014. d) Difference in global CH₄ concentration (ppb) between TOMCAT_JU and TOMCAT_CL.