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wetland methane
estimates over North
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Abstract

Existing estimates of methane fluxes from North American wetlands vary widely in both magnitude and distribution. In light of these disagreements, this study uses atmospheric methane observations from the US and Canada to analyze seven different bottom-up, wetland methane estimates reported in a recent model comparison project. We first use synthetic data to explore how well atmospheric observations can constrain wetland fluxes. We find that observation sites can identify an atmospheric pattern from Canadian wetlands but not reliably from US wetlands. The network can also identify the spatial distribution of fluxes in Canada at multi-province spatial scales. Based upon these results, we then use real data to evaluate the magnitude, temporal distribution, and spatial distribution of each model estimate. Most models overestimate the magnitude of fluxes across Canada. Most predict a seasonality that is too narrow, potentially indicating an over-sensitivity to air or soil temperatures. In addition, the LPJ-Bern model has a spatial distribution that is most consistent with atmospheric observations. Unlike most models, LPJ-Bern utilizes land cover maps, not just remote sensing inundation data, to estimate wetland coverage. A flux model with a constant spatial distribution outperforms most other existing flux estimates across Canada.

1 Introduction

Methane fluxes from wetlands play a critical role in global climate change. Methane is the second-most important long-lived greenhouse gas; the radiative forcing of the current atmospheric burden is approximately 26% of carbon dioxide. Wetlands are possibly the largest single source of this gas to the atmosphere and account for roughly 30% of global emissions (Ciais et al., 2013).

Despite the important role of wetland methane fluxes in climate change, existing estimates of this source disagree markedly on the magnitude, seasonality, and spatial distribution of fluxes, from regional to global scales. In fact, a recent global model

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comparison project named WETCHIMP (Wetland and Wetland CH₄ Inter-comparison of Models Project) found large discrepancies among existing methane wetland models (Fig. 1, Melton et al., 2013; Wania et al., 2013). For example, existing estimates of maximum global wetland coverage differ by over a factor of 6 – from 4.1×10^6 to $26.9 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$. Furthermore, estimates of global natural wetland fluxes range from 92–264 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹. The relative magnitude of these uncertainties increases at sub-global spatial scales. As a case in point, methane estimates for Canada’s Hudson Bay Lowlands (HBL) range from 0.2 to 11.3 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹. These disagreements in current methane estimates do not bode well for scientists’ abilities to accurately predict future changes in wetland fluxes due to climate change (Melton et al., 2013).

A number of studies have used chamber measurements of methane to parameterize or evaluate biogeochemical methane models (e.g., Livingston and Hutchinson, 2009). However, these measurements usually encompass fluxes from a very small spatial scale, and fluxes can vary by an order of magnitude over one meter or less (Waddington and Roulet, 1996; Hendriks et al., 2010). Methane data collected in the atmosphere, by contrast, sees the cumulative effect of methane fluxes across a much broader region (e.g., Kort et al., 2008; Pickett-Heaps et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2014). Hence, atmospheric data can provide an important tool for evaluating existing methane flux estimates across different countries or continents.

The present study compares the WETCHIMP methane flux estimates against atmospheric methane data from 2007–2008 through two sets of analyses. First, we construct progressively demanding synthetic data experiments to explore how well available data can constrain wetland fluxes. Can the atmospheric data identify methane patterns from wetlands over distracting patterns in the atmosphere? These patterns include methane from anthropogenic sources or random noise due to model and measurement errors. If yes, can the observation sites detect spatial variability in the wetland fluxes? We seek to understand whether large uncertainties in wetland methane estimates point to a paucity of methane data – data capable of calibrating or evaluating the models. In the alternative, perhaps these disagreements would be much smaller if ex-

isting biogeochemical models leveraged all available data. To answer these questions, we utilize a modeling approach based upon the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), described in greater detail in Sect. 2.2 (Shiga et al., 2014; Fang et al., 2014; Fang and Michalak, 2015).

Based on the synthetic experiments, we conduct a second set of analyses using real atmospheric data. We use this data to evaluate the magnitude, seasonal cycle, and spatial distribution of each WETCHIMP methane estimate. Of the seven available models, which have a magnitude, seasonal cycle, or spatial distribution that is most consistent with the available data? We investigate this question over the US and Canada using methane data collected from towers and regular aircraft flights operated by NOAA and its partners and from towers operated by Environment Canada.

2 Methods

This section first describes the atmospheric methane data and the atmospheric model that allows direct comparison between the data and various flux estimates. Subsequent sections describe how we use these tools to construct both the synthetic and real data experiments outlined in the introduction (Sect. 1).

2.1 Data and atmospheric model

The present study utilizes atmospheric methane observations at Environment Canada and NOAA observation sites (Fig. 2). These include regular measurements from tower and aircraft platforms, a total of 14 703 observations from 2007–2008. The observations used here are identical to those in Miller et al. (2013, 2014).

We then employ an atmospheric transport model to relate methane fluxes at the Earth's surface to atmospheric concentrations at the observation sites. The modeling approach here combines the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) meteorological model and a particle-following model known as STILT, the Stochastic Time-Inverted

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Lagrangian Transport model (e.g., Lin et al., 2003; Nehr Korn et al., 2010; Hegarty et al., 2013). WRF-STILT generates a set of footprints; these footprints quantitatively estimate the sensitivity of each observation to fluxes at each surface location (with units of ppb per unit surface flux). We multiply the footprints by a flux model and add this product to an estimate of the “background” concentration – the methane concentration of air entering the North American regional domain. The resulting modeled concentrations can be compared directly against atmospheric methane observations. This modeling setup is identical to Miller et al. (2013, 2014). Both the observations and the WRF-STILT model are described in greater detail in those papers and in the Supplement.

Using this setup, we can compare predicted methane concentrations using the WETCHIMP flux estimates (Fig. 1) against observed atmospheric concentrations. Of the WETCHIMP models, seven provide a flux estimate for boreal North America and six provide an estimate for temperate North America. These models include CLM4Me (Riley et al., 2011), DLEM (Tian et al., 2010), LPJ-Bern (Spahni et al., 2011), LPJ-WHyMe (Wania et al., 2010), LPJ-WSL (Hodson et al., 2011), ORCHIDEE (Ringer et al., 2010), and SDGVM (Singarayer et al., 2011). All model outputs have a temporal resolution of one month. These models are described in Melton et al. (2013); Wania et al. (2013), and the Supplement.

2.2 Model selection framework

This study employs two synthetic data experiments to explore the sensitivity of atmospheric observations to wetland fluxes: can the observations detect an atmospheric pattern from wetlands fluxes over distracting patterns from anthropogenic emitters? If yes, can the observations detect spatial variability in wetland fluxes from different regions? We build a modeling approach based upon the BIC to answer these questions.

The BIC is a model selection technique, and various forms of the BIC are used widely in statistical regression analysis (e.g., Schwarz, 1978; Ramsey and Schafer, 2012). It scores all possible combinations of explanatory variables based on model-

data fit, and it penalizes combinations that have a greater number of variables. The best combination or candidate model has the lowest BIC score.

We use a form of the BIC that has been adapted for use within a geostatistical inverse modeling framework (e.g., Gourdjji et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2014). The implementation here parallels that of Fang et al. (2014) and Shiga et al. (2014):

$$\text{BIC} = \underbrace{\ln|\Psi| + (z - \mathbf{HX}\beta)^T \Psi^{-1} (z - \mathbf{HX}\beta)}_{\text{negative log-likelihood}} + \underbrace{p \ln(n)}_{\text{penalty term}} \quad (1)$$

The first term in Eq. (1) is the negative log-likelihood, a measure of how well the model fits the data. In that term, z ($n \times 1$) represents the observations minus background concentrations, \mathbf{H} ($n \times m$) the footprints, \mathbf{X} ($m \times p$) a matrix of p explanatory variables, β ($p \times 1$) a set of coefficients assigned to those variables, and Ψ ($n \times n$) a covariance matrix derived from an atmospheric inversion framework. The data (z), footprints (\mathbf{H}), and parameters that define the covariance matrix (Ψ) are taken from Miller et al. (2013, 2014) (refer to the Supplement). The second term in Eq. (1) penalizes the BIC score of a particular model based upon the number of explanatory variables (p).

We employ this model selection framework to understand which explanatory variables from an anthropogenic emissions inventory and from the WETCHIMP ensemble are required to describe either synthetic or real methane data at North American observation sites.

2.3 Synthetic data experiments

The experiments described in this section use synthetic data generated at each of the observation sites. We use anthropogenic emissions estimates for the US and Canada from Miller et al. (2013, 2014), respectively, and use one of the WETCHIMP models as the wetland flux estimate. We then multiply these fluxes by \mathbf{H} to create the synthetic data at the measurement locations. We further add in error that is randomly generated from the covariance matrix Ψ – error that represents uncertainties in the fluxes, the

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that can change by month. As a result of this setup, the magnitude and seasonality of the intercept can be adjusted to match the data, but any spatial variability in the fluxes can only come from the wetland model. As in experiment one, the model selection framework can choose among 16 wetland variables – variables that represent different regions and seasons. If model selection chooses a wetland variable, then the spatial distribution in that variable is necessary to reproduce the synthetic data. If not, then the observations are not sensitive to spatial variability in wetland fluxes for that region/season. This approach follows that of Fang et al. (2014), who employed a model selection framework to evaluate the spatial distribution of biospheric CO₂ flux models.

2.4 Real data experiments

If experiment two is successful on synthetic data, we then apply the experiment to real data. We use the model selection framework to determine which, if any, bottom-up models have a spatial distribution that can describe the methane observations more effectively than a spatial constant.

We also include a number of model-data time series to evaluate both the magnitude and seasonality of the fluxes. We model methane concentrations at a number of US and Canadian observation sites using WRF-STILT, WETCHIMP, and EDGAR v4.2FT2010 (Olivier and Janssens-Maenhout, 2012; European Commission, Joint Research Centre (JRC)/Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency (PBL), 2013). We average the observations and model output at the monthly scale and then compare the magnitude of these model estimates for each month against the averaged observations.

Several studies indicate that EDGAR may underestimate emissions in certain regions of the US and Canada (e.g., Kort et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2013, 2014; Wecht et al., 2014). Therefore, we scale the magnitude of EDGAR v4.2FT2010 to match wintertime observations (November–April) at each site using a standard major axis (SMA) regression. During those months, fluxes from wetlands are small and any model biases are likely due to anthropogenic emissions. We then apply this scaling factor, estimated

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for each site from winter data, to anthropogenic emissions in all seasons. Miller et al. (2013) found that anthropogenic emissions in the US lack significant seasonality, so the wintertime scaling factors should be applicable to other seasons.

We further compare the seasonality of existing bottom-up models against the seasonality of a recent inverse modeling estimate by Miller et al. (2014). We plot the monthly methane budget as a fraction of the annual total for both the bottom-up models and the inversion estimate. We only conduct this analysis for wetland flux regions that are visible to the observation network (synthetic experiments one and two).

Note that inter-annual variability in existing methane flux models is small relative to the differences among these models; as a result, conclusions from the 2 year study period (2007–2008) likely hold for other years. For example, the inter-annual variability in the total US/Canadian budget is ± 7.3 – 9.7% (standard deviation), depending upon the model in question (Note that LPJ-Bern has even larger inter-annual variation due to an issue with model spin-up described in Wania et al., 2013).

3 Results and discussion: synthetic experiments

The synthetic experiments presented here explore the limits of existing atmospheric data for constraining wetland fluxes. We first leverage synthetic data to examine whether the atmospheric observation sites can distinguish an atmospheric pattern from wetland fluxes above other patterns due anthropogenic emissions or simulated model, measurement, and emissions uncertainties. If atmospheric observations are to constrain wetland methane fluxes, those observations must, at minimum, identify an atmospheric pattern from wetland fluxes from other distracting patterns in the model and/or data.

The results of this experiment are summarized in Fig. 3a. The four columns in Fig. 3a display the results from an individual season in each of four geographic regions. In this experiment, the observation network can detect a summertime methane pattern from wetlands in both Eastern and Western Canada in greater than 75 % of

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models? This approach indicates whether each model contributes positive information on the location of wetland fluxes.

The results of this real data experiment are displayed in Table 1. This table only lists the regions and seasons that had a success rate > 75 % in synthetic data experiment two. If a wetland model describes the distribution of fluxes better than a spatial constant in those regions/seasons, then the model selection framework should select that model.

Only a small number of WETCHIMP models are able to describe the distribution of wetland fluxes (as seen via the atmospheric observations) better than a spatial constant – between 0–28 % of the available models depending upon the region and season. The model selection framework chooses LPJ-Bern in eastern Canada and LPJ-Bern and SDGVM in western Canada. The spatial patterns in the remaining WETCHIMP models do not perform better than a spatial constant when compared to atmospheric data.

The LPJ-Bern and SDGVM models have several unique spatial characteristics that could explain these results. Over eastern Canada, the LPJ-Bern model concentrates the largest fluxes in the HBL. Other models, by contrast, often distribute the fluxes more broadly across Ontario and Quebec or put the largest fluxes in Ontario outside of the HBL. In western Canada, the LPJ-Bern and SDGVM models distribute fluxes broadly across both northern Saskatchewan and Alberta. A number of other estimates like DLEM or CLM4Me assign relatively small fluxes in these provinces relative to other regions.

The LPJ-Bern and SDGVM models share another common characteristic: both model wetland area independently instead of relying solely on remote sensing inundation datasets. LPJ-WSL, ORCHIDEE, DLEM, and CLM4Me use remote sensing inundation datasets like GEIMS (Global Inundation Extent from Multi-Satellites, Prigent et al., 2007) to construct a wetland map. Other models, like LPJ-Bern and LPJ-WHyMe also use land cover maps and/or land surveys to estimate wetland (or at least methane-producing) area. SDGVM estimates this area using a dynamic model of soil moisture

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(Melton et al., 2013; Wania et al., 2013). Wetland maps generated using these different approaches show substantial differences. Remote sensing datasets estimate relatively high levels of inundation in regions of Canada that are non-forested or have many small lakes (see further discussion in Melton et al., 2013; Bohn et al., 2015). Other modeling approaches, by contrast, assign more wetlands over regions with high water tables but little surface water. As a result of these differences, models like LPJ-Bern assign more wetlands and methane fluxes in the HBL relative to other regions of eastern Canada.

4.2 Flux magnitude

We next compare the magnitude of predicted concentrations using the WETCHIMP models against atmospheric observations. Unlike previous sections that utilized model selection, this section employs several simple model-data timeseries, displayed in Fig. 4. We model methane concentrations at a number of US and Canadian observation sites using WRF-STILT, the WETCHIMP flux estimates, and anthropogenic emissions from the EDGAR v4.2FT2010 inventory. This model estimate consists of several components: the background (in green) is the estimated concentration of methane in clean air before entering the model domain as in Miller et al. (2013, 2014). The estimated contribution of anthropogenic emissions from EDGAR v4.2FT2010 is added to this background (in red). Note that the estimated scaling factors for EDGAR (Sect. 2.4) are 1.7 ± 0.3 at Chibougamau, 5.6 ± 0.5 at East Trout Lake, 2.4 ± 0.3 at Fraserdale, and 2.5 ± 0.3 at Park Falls. The contribution of wetland fluxes from the WETCHIMP models is then added to the previous inputs, and the sum of all components (blue lines) can be compared directly against measured concentrations.

The various WETCHIMP flux estimates produce very different modeled concentrations at the observation sites (Fig. 4). Overall, modeled concentrations with the WETCHIMP fluxes usually exceed the methane measurements during summer. At Chibougamau, Fraserdale, and Park Falls in early summer, all six WETCHIMP models predict methane concentrations that equal or exceed the observations. The ORCHIDEE, LPJ-WHyMe, and LPJ-Bern models always exceed the measurements during summer

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[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)**Table 1.** Spatial patterns chosen by the model selection framework.

Region	Season	Models chosen over a constant	Model name(s)
E. Canada	Summer	1 of 7	LPJ-Bern
E. Canada	Fall	0 of 7	
W. Canada	Summer	2 of 7	LPJ-Bern, SDGVM

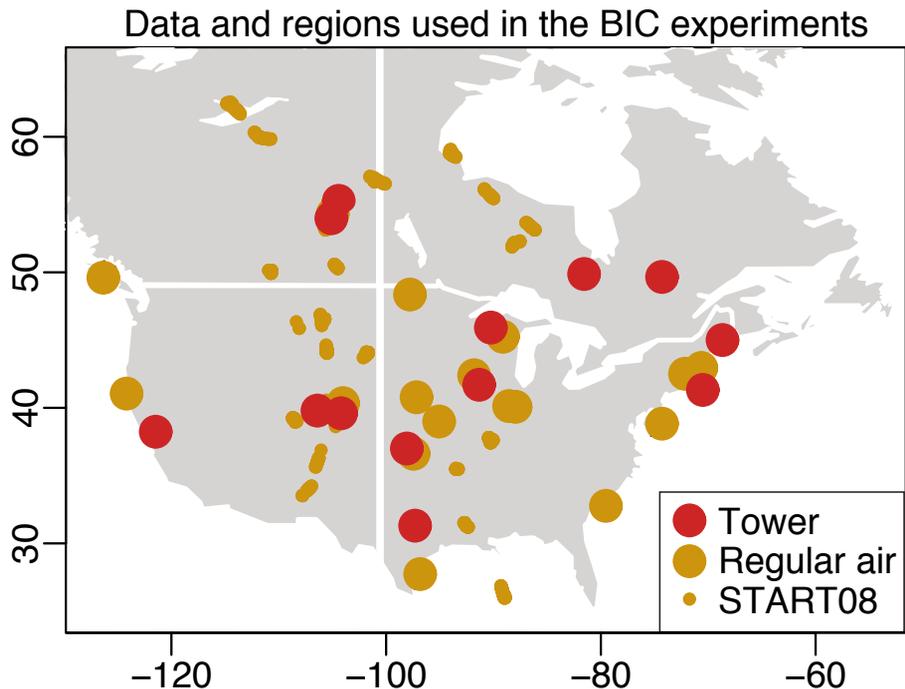


Figure 2. The US and Canadian atmospheric methane observation network for 2007–2008 (14 703 total observations). Small yellow dots indicate observations from the START08 measurement campaign (Pan et al., 2010). Larger dots indicate tower and aircraft sites with regular observations over the two year period (Andrews et al., 2014). The grey background delineates the four regions used in the synthetic data experiments (Sect. 2.3).

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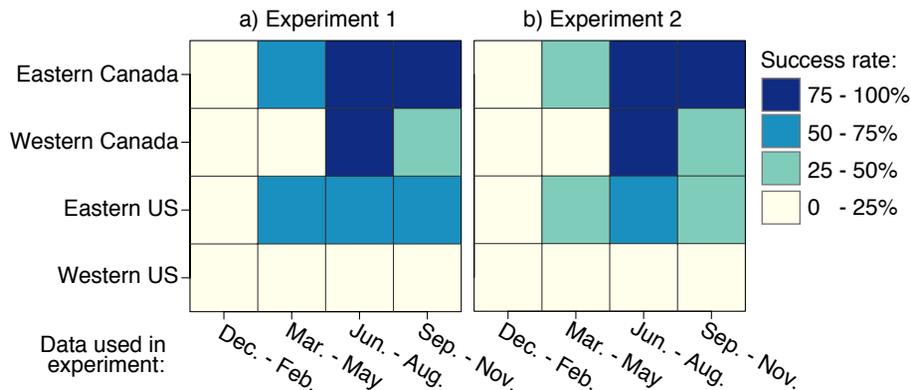


Figure 3. This figure displays the results of the synthetic data experiments. These experiments examine whether the observation network can (a) identify a methane pattern from wetland fluxes and (b) identify spatial variability in the wetland fluxes. The figure shows the percentage of trials that are successful. Darker shades indicate that the network is more sensitive to fluxes in the given region and season.

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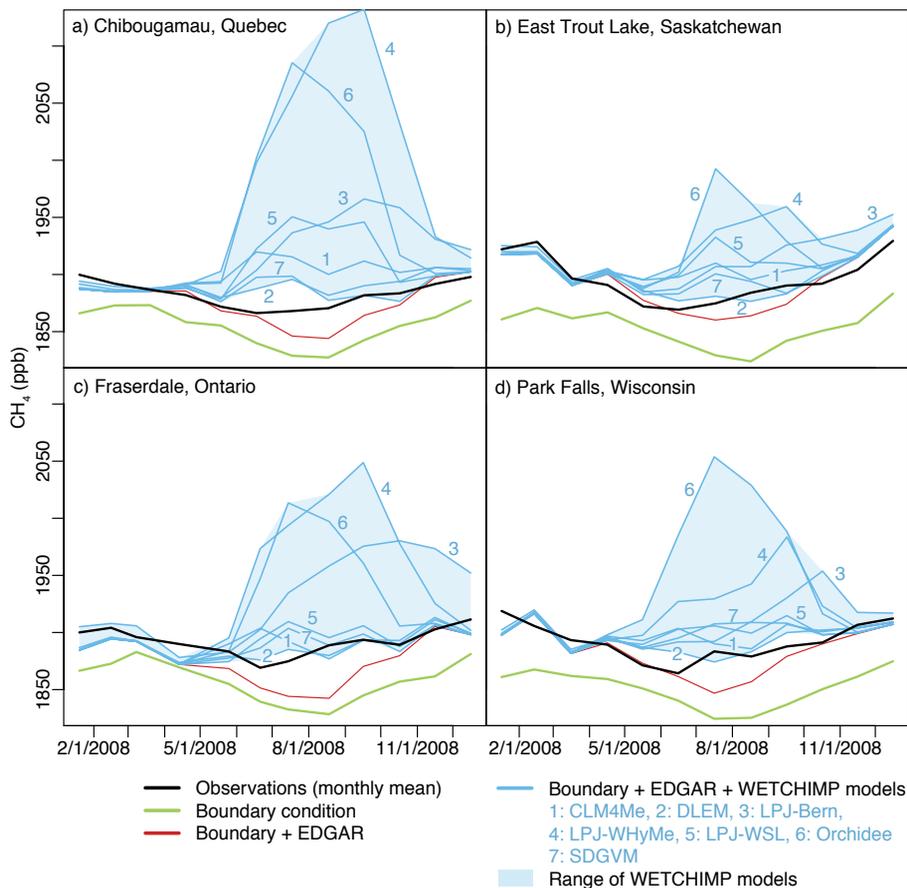


Figure 4. These time series compare atmospheric methane measurements at several observation sites against model estimates using the WETCHIMP ensemble and the EDGAR v4.2FT2010 anthropogenic emissions inventory. The range of estimates from the various WETCHIMP models is large.

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Seasonal cycle in HBL fluxes

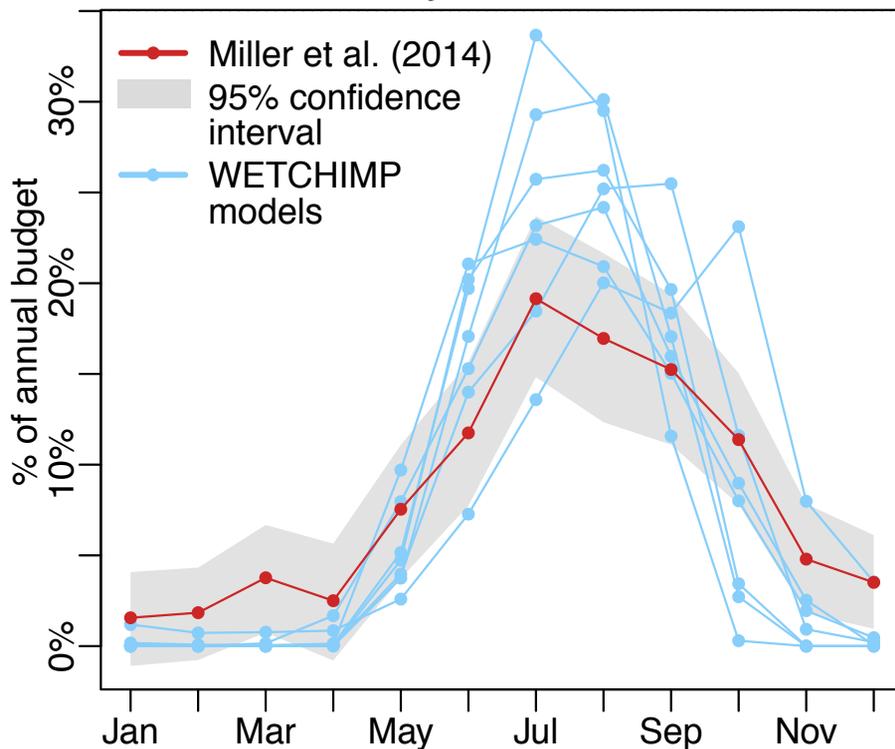


Figure 5. The seasonal cycle in methane fluxes estimated for the Hudson Bay Lowlands (HBL; 50–60° N, 75–96° W). We include both the WETCHIMP estimates and an inverse modeling estimate from Miller et al. (2014). Each month is displayed as a percentage of the annual budget estimated by a given model. This approach highlights differences in the seasonality of the models and controls for differences in magnitude. In general, the WETCHIMP models estimate a narrower seasonal cycle relative to Miller et al. (2014).