



RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Key Points:

- Midtropospheric methane concentrations are explored over the tropical Pacific region during El Niño and La Niña events for the first time
- Difference of CH₄ between El Niño and La Niña events can reach 15 ppb over western Pacific and –15 ppb over the central Pacific
- Difference of CH₄ between the central Pacific and the western Pacific correlates well with the Southern Oscillation Index

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Modulation of midtropospheric methane by El Niño

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Abstract Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) midtropospheric methane (CH₄) data are utilized to study the variation of methane concentrations over the Pacific Ocean with an emphasis on the correlation to El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO). When El Niño events happen, the rising air over the central Pacific can bring low surface concentrations of CH₄ over the ocean into midtroposphere, resulting in a reduction of midtropospheric CH₄ over the region. On the contrary, the rising air over the western Pacific brings low surface CH₄ to the midtroposphere during the La Niña events, which leads to negative midtropospheric CH₄ anomalies over the western Pacific. In the horizontal direction, there are stronger southward winds during El Niño than La Niña months in the region of the western Pacific Ocean. The stronger southward winds during El Niño can enhance the transport of high-concentration CH₄ from the Northern Hemisphere to the tropical western Pacific region and contribute to the positive CH₄ anomalies over the region. The difference of midtropospheric CH₄ can reach +15 ppb (–15 ppb) over the western (central) Pacific between El Niño and La Niña events. The noteworthy difference of CH₄ has a significant correlation to the Southern Oscillation Index with a correlation coefficient of 0.74. The change in the transports associated with the ENSO event is an important factor for CH₄ anomalies in the middle troposphere. Results found in this study can help us better understand the spatiotemporal variability of methane.

1. Introduction

As one of the most important greenhouse gases, methane (CH₄) is ~28 times stronger than carbon dioxide in heating the atmosphere [Myhre *et al.*, 2014]. CH₄ also has an important role in atmospheric chemistry [Myhre *et al.*, 2014]. Anthropogenic sources of CH₄ include fossil fuel production and distribution, agriculture and livestock, biomass burning, and landfills [Myhre *et al.*, 2014]. Natural sources include wetlands. Removals of CH₄ from the atmosphere include reactions with the hydroxyl radical and free chlorine [Platt *et al.*, 2004; Allan *et al.*, 2005; Born *et al.*, 1990].

Global CH₄ ground-based measurements have been made since the early 1980s, but due to the inconsistent spatial grid and extremely difficult measurement conditions, ground-based measurements are limited in space and cannot adequately represent the global concentrations [Dlugokencky *et al.*, 1994]. Additionally, ground-based measurements left many locations all over the globe unmeasured, such as the oceans [Dlugokencky *et al.*, 1994; Dlugokencky *et al.*, 1995]. NOAA/GMD operated 40 surface measurements of CH₄ over the globe, which resulted in a global average CH₄ concentration $\sim 1774.62 \pm 1.22$ ppb [Dlugokencky *et al.*, 2005]. Measurements of atmospheric CH₄ concentration demonstrate that atmospheric CH₄ has increased over 20 years; however, the growth rate of CH₄ is not constant [Dlugokencky *et al.*, 2003]. For example, the growth rate of CH₄ has decreased substantially from the 1970s and early 1980s and had a significant increase during 1998 [Blake and Rowland, 1988]. Dlugokencky *et al.* [2003] attribute the increase in concentration in 1998 to the boreal biomass burning emission, which is further correlated to the warmest surface temperature in 1998 [Dlugokencky *et al.*, 2003]. Additionally, Butler *et al.* [2005] suggest unusually high biomass burning contributed to the rise in 1998. The increase in methane concentration has been small since 2000 [Dlugokencky *et al.*, 2003] but then rapidly increased in 2007 [Bousquet *et al.*, 2011]. As suggested by two atmospheric inversions, a positive anomaly of tropical emission is a contributor for the global CH₄ emission anomalies (~60–80%) in 2007 [Bousquet *et al.*, 2011]. In addition, increased CH₄ emissions from wetlands and fossil fuel production and combustion could also be a contributing factor in the rapid increase of methane concentrations in 2007 [Kirschke *et al.*, 2013]. Using satellite retrievals and surface observations, it has been found that CH₄ emissions increased >30% in the United States from 2002 to 2014 [Turner *et al.*, 2016].

Global spaceborne measurements allow the study of global variations of CH₄ with a better spatial coverage than ever before. Additionally, satellite measurements allow a better understanding of the vertical variation of CH₄. More knowledge of the vertical variation of CH₄ can help us better understand its impacts on current and future climate change. *Schoeberl et al.* [1995] and *Park et al.* [2004] utilized CH₄ data from the Halogen Occultation Experiment and found CH₄ seasonal cycle in the tropopause region. CH₄ measurements are available from many different satellites, including ADEOS, GOSAT, SCIAMACHY (Scanning Imaging Absorption Spectrometer for Atmospheric Chartography), AIRS (Atmospheric Infrared Sounder), and IASI [*Clerbaux et al.*, 2003; *Frankenberg et al.*, 2005; *Frankenberg et al.*, 2006; *Xiong et al.*, 2008; *Razavi et al.*, 2009; *Saitoh et al.*, 2012; *Crevoisier et al.*, 2013; *Xiong et al.*, 2013].

Zhang et al. [2011] used CH₄ data from the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) to study middle-upper tropospheric methane and found that AIRS CH₄ agrees well with the Fourier transform infrared profiles in China [*Zhang et al.*, 2011]. *Xiong et al.* [2009] found a strong CH₄ plume in the middle troposphere during South Asia monsoon seasons (July–September), providing evidence of strong upward transport moving CH₄ from the surface to middle troposphere [*Xiong et al.*, 2009]. Results in *Xiong et al.* [2009] are further confirmed with the model tracer model version 3 (TM3), later satellite observations from IASI, and CARIBIC aircraft measurements [*Xiong et al.*, 2009; *Crevoisier et al.*, 2009; *Schuck et al.*, 2012]. Enhanced upper tropospheric CH₄ anomalies were also seen during the TACTS aircraft campaign, which sampled from the surface to the upper troposphere during the South Asia monsoon season [*Vogel et al.*, 2014].

El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) has an important influence on large-scale wind patterns, temperature, pressure, precipitation, and trace gases [*Gage and Reid*, 1987; *Jiang et al.*, 2010, 2013]. It was found that ENSO could influence concentrations of CO₂ and ozone [*Jiang et al.*, 2010; *Wang et al.*, 2011]. However, there is no previous analysis on exploring the influence of ENSO on CH₄ in the middle troposphere. In this manuscript, we will explore possible relationship between ENSO and AIRS midtropospheric CH₄ for the first time.

2. Data and Methods

In this study, we used AIRS version 6 CH₄ data at 400 hPa to study possible relationship between ENSO and CH₄ in the middle troposphere. AIRS is an infrared spectrometer, which has 2378 channels at 649–2674 cm^{−1} [*Aumann et al.*, 2003]. The satellite passes the equator twice a day at 1:30 A.M. and 1:30 P.M. [*Pagano et al.*, 2003]. In addition to temperature [*Aumann et al.*, 2003] and cloud [*Kahn et al.*, 2014], AIRS also provides trace gas data products such as H₂O, CH₄, CO₂, and CO [*Fetzer et al.*, 2006; *Xiong et al.*, 2010; *Chahine et al.*, 2008; *Warner et al.*, 2014]. Channels near 7.6 μm are chosen to retrieve CH₄, which is the best channel and is most sensitive to the midtropospheric CH₄ retrieval [*Xiong et al.*, 2008]. AIRS CH₄ data provide a global measurement of CH₄ about twice a day. AIRS methane data have already been validated by in situ aircraft observations, and it agrees well with the aircraft data [*Xiong et al.*, 2008, 2015]. Therefore, the retrievals of CH₄ from AIRS can help us better understand CH₄ global distributions and variations.

In addition to AIRS midtropospheric CH₄ data, we will also analyze CH₄ aircraft profiles from the HIAPER Pole-to-Pole (HIPPO) aircraft campaign [*Wofsy et al.*, 2011]. HIPPO aircraft CH₄ data are available on 9 January 2009, 31 October 2009, 16 March 2010, 7 June 2011, and 9 August 2011. HIPPO aircraft CH₄ data cover from surface to 15 km and are available from 70°S to 80°N [*Wofsy et al.*, 2011].

Linear trend and annual cycle will be removed from AIRS midtropospheric CH₄ data. To identify El Niño or La Niña months, the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI), defined by the difference of the sea level pressure between two locations (Tahiti and Darwin) over the Pacific Ocean, will be used to identify El Niño or La Niña months from September 2002 to December 2014. When the SOI index is below (above) the mean value by one standard deviation of the SOI, the event is classified as an El Niño (La Niña) event.

3. Results

To explore possible relationship between ENSO and CH₄, we separate AIRS midtropospheric CH₄ data to two groups (El Niño months and La Niña months). When SOI index is below (above) the mean value by one standard deviation of the SOI, it is classified as El Niño (La Niña) events. Following this definition, there are

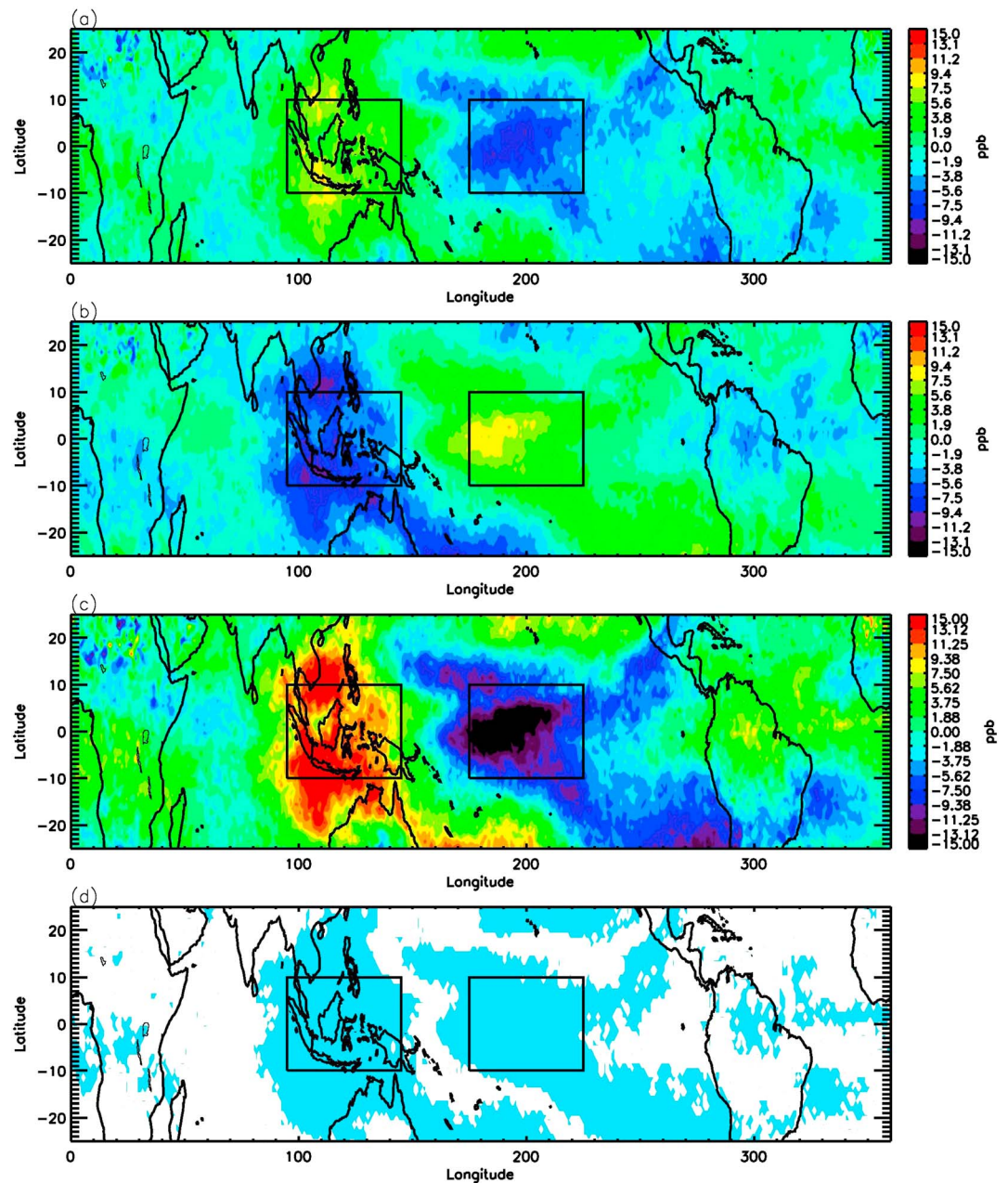


Figure 1. (a) AIRS detrended and deseasonalized midtropospheric CH₄ averaged for 18 El Niño months, (b) AIRS detrended and deseasonalized midtropospheric CH₄ averaged for 23 La Niña months, (c) AIRS midtropospheric CH₄ difference between El Niño and La Niña events, and (d) CH₄ differences within 10% significance level are highlighted in blue. Data visualizations are produced using Interactive Data Language version 8.3 (Exelis Visual Information Solutions, Boulder, Colorado; <http://www.harrisgeospatial.com/>).

18 El Niño months and 23 La Niña months from September 2002 to December 2014. We remove linear trend and annual cycle from AIRS midtropospheric CH₄. AIRS detrended and deseasonalized CH₄ are averaged over the El Niño and La Niña months, respectively. Results are shown in Figures 1a and 1b. Sea surface temperature demonstrates positive anomalies over the central Pacific during El Niño; as a result, there is rising air over the central Pacific [Gage and Reid, 1987]. Rising air over the central Pacific can bring low surface concentrations of CH₄ to the middle troposphere. Figure 1a demonstrates low concentrations of midtropospheric CH₄ over the central Pacific, which is related to the rising air over this region. Conversely, the sea surface temperature demonstrates positive anomalies in the western Pacific and there are anomalously rising motion over

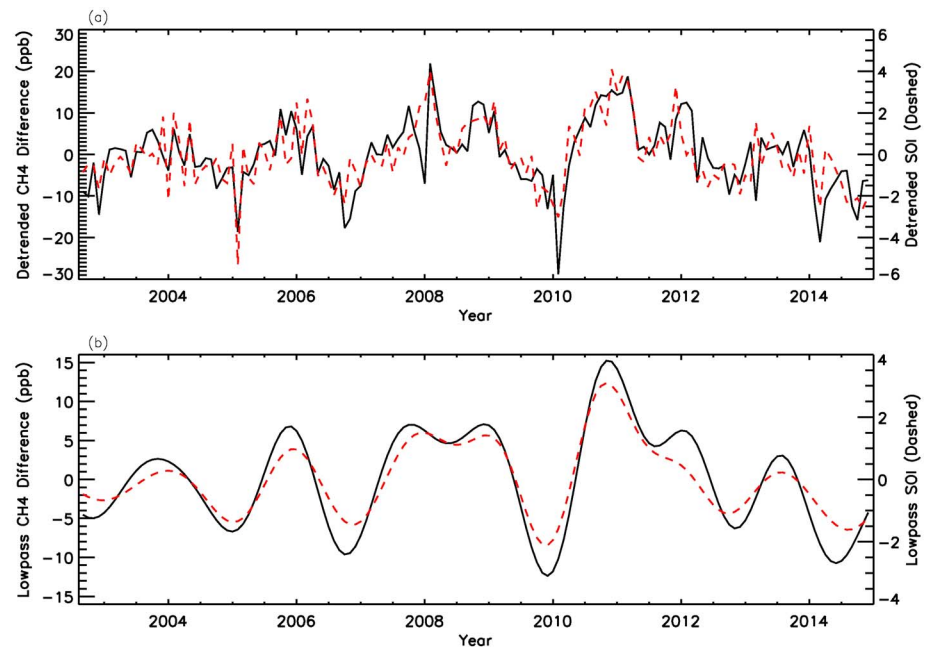


Figure 2. (a) Detrended AIRS midtropospheric CH₄ difference between central Pacific (175°E–225°E; 10°S–10°N) and western Pacific (95°E–145°E, 10°S–10°N) (black solid line) and detrended Southern Oscillation Index (red dashed line). Correlation coefficient between two time series is 0.74 (1% significance level). (b) Same as Figure 2a but with a low-pass filter. Correlation coefficient between two low-pass-filtered time series is 0.96 (1%).

the western Pacific at La Niña months. Figure 1b shows that midtropospheric CH₄ concentrations are relatively low over the western Pacific at La Niña months. Low midtropospheric CH₄ is associated with the anomalously rising motion over this region, which can bring low concentrations of CH₄ from the surface to upper altitudes at La Niña months.

Difference of AIRS CH₄ concentrations between El Niño and La Niña months is shown in Figure 1c. The difference is about –15 ppb (15 ppb) over the central (western) Pacific. We estimate the probability density functions of CH₄ difference between AIRS midtropospheric retrievals and convolved aircraft CH₄. Nine hundred forty-one aircraft profiles are used. The differences of AIRS midtropospheric CH₄ and aircraft convolved CH₄ follow a Gaussian distribution, so the errors are random errors. Random errors are errors moving in positive and negative directions and have a tendency to cancel each other. When the number of observations increases, the errors will decrease. There are 3000–4000 CH₄ retrievals in each grid box for each group. The error for the mean CH₄ due to the random error is about 0.5 ppb, which is equal to the standard error (~25 ppb) divided by the square root of number of data points. (See detailed method in Jiang *et al.* [2015].) It is smaller than 15 ppb difference as shown in Figure 1c. Figure 1d shows the statistical significance of CH₄ difference between two groups (El Niño/La Niña). Student's *t* test is utilized in estimating the significance [Jiang *et al.*, 2010]. When CH₄ difference is within 10% significance level, it is highlighted as blue color in Figure 1d. Blue areas in Figure 1d mean that the differences in Figure 1c are statistically significant.

In addition to exploring the spatial patterns of CH₄ at El Niño/La Niña months, we also investigate whether the ENSO can influence the temporal variations of CH₄ in the middle troposphere. Detrended difference of midtropospheric CH₄ between two regions (the central Pacific (175°E–225°E; 10°S–10°N) and the western Pacific (95°E–145°E, 10°S–10°N)) is calculated and shown in Figure 2a. Figure 2a also displays the detrended SOI (red dashed line). Figure 2a shows that the CH₄ difference between the two regions is negative for El Niño events and positive for La Niña events, which is consistent with the spatial pattern results in Figure 1.

Using a Monte Carlo method [Press *et al.*, 1992; Devore, 1982; Jiang *et al.*, 2004], we calculate the correlation coefficient between the two time series in Figure 2a (i.e., CH₄ difference and SOI) and the corresponding significance level. Our analyses suggest that the correlation coefficient between the two time series (i.e., CH₄

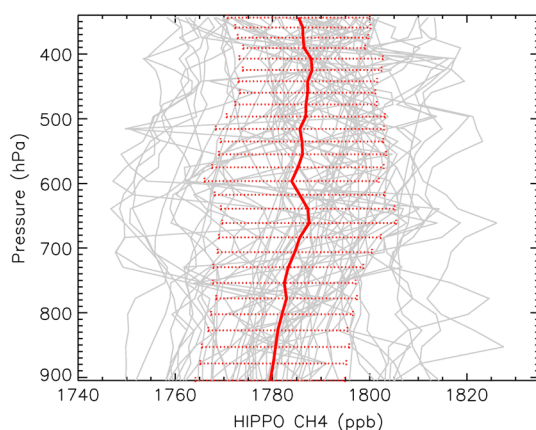


Figure 3. HIPPO CH₄ aircraft vertical profiles over Pacific Ocean (Grey lines). Red line is the mean value for all aircraft profiles. Error bars are standard deviations of CH₄ at different altitudes.

difference and SOI) is 0.74. The significance level for the correlation coefficient is 1%, which suggests that the two time series in Figure 2a are correlated significantly. The interannual variability of the two time series is further investigated by filtering out high-frequency oscillations. All high-frequency oscillations with period smaller than 15 months are removed using a low-pass filter [Jiang *et al.*, 2013]. As shown in Figure 2b, the two low-pass-filtered time series correlate well, with a correlation coefficient of 0.96 (significance level 1%), which implies a significant correlation for the interannual signals in the two time series (CH₄ differences and SOI).

In addition to the vertical transport, interhemispheric transport might also influence CH₄ concentrations. To reveal that, we estimate the differences of NCEP2 500 hPa meridional winds between El Niño and La Niña months. There are stronger anomalous southward winds at El Niño months over the western Pacific than La Niña months. It can move high-concentration CH₄ from the Northern Hemisphere to the tropical region, which can contribute to the positive CH₄ anomalies in the western Pacific Ocean as shown in Figure 1c. We also realize that some impacts to CH₄ anomaly in the middle-upper troposphere can be from surface emissions and the photochemical reaction. The major impact of surface emission is from surface temperature, biomass burning, and water level in rice paddies at Thailand, Indonesia, and Malaysia, which can be modulated by El Niño/La Niña events. Even with some small change in the surface emission, their impact on CH₄ in the middle troposphere is still a secondary factor [Xiong *et al.*, 2009]. During El Niño, there are more biomass burnings, which can influence OH concentrations [Duncan *et al.*, 2003; Levine, 1996; Van der Werf *et al.*, 2006; Kaiser *et al.*, 2012]. The change of OH concentration in the atmosphere during El Niño/La Niña events can lead to the CH₄ destruction in the atmosphere, but it is hard to estimate such impact. This is because the OH concentration can either increase or decrease in different areas after including biomass burning in the model and there is not any evidence for this change of OH over the global scale during El Niño/La Niña [Levine, 1996]. We also estimate the cross correlation of monthly mean AIRS midtropospheric CH₄ difference and detrended Southern Oscillation Index in Figure 2a. The maximum correlation is 0.74 when the lag is 0 month. Vertical motion can bring air from the surface to midtroposphere about 1 day [Li *et al.*, 2010], and the lifetime of CH₄ with reacting with OH in the free troposphere is about 9–10 years [Jacob, 1999], which suggest that impact of large-scale circulation on midtropospheric CH₄ is more dominant than the contribution from OH. We will explore the impact of the surface emission on the middle-upper tropospheric CH₄ when we have good CH₄ surface emission data over the ocean in the future.

Our analyses reveal the influence of large-scale circulation on atmospheric CH₄ over the tropical ocean during El Niño and La Niña. To better understand the vertical structure of CH₄, we analyze CH₄ aircraft profiles from the HIPPO aircraft campaign over the tropical ocean. Vertical profiles for HIPPO aircraft CH₄ over the Pacific Ocean are shown as grey lines in Figure 3. Mean value and standard deviation of all HIPPO aircraft CH₄ over the Pacific Ocean are estimated and shown as red lines in Figure 3. As shown in Figure 3, CH₄ concentrations are lower near the surface than in the midtroposphere, as there is no CH₄ surface emission source over the ocean. We also separated HIPPO aircraft CH₄ data to Northern Hemisphere and Southern Hemisphere over the Pacific Ocean and found that mean CH₄ concentrations are lower near the surface than the midtroposphere for both regions. These results are consistent with previous CH₄ vertical profile results from IASI and HIPPO over Pacific Ocean as suggested by Xiong *et al.* [2013]. The relatively low CH₄ concentrations at the surface than the midtroposphere coupled with changes in the circulation during El Niño/La Niña events lead to midtropospheric CH₄ anomalies as shown in Figure 1c.

4. Conclusion

Using AIRS version 6 data, we explore midtropospheric methane concentrations at the tropical Pacific region and investigate the influence of El Niño/La Niña on CH₄ for the first time. Enhanced rising air at the central Pacific in El Niño months can bring low surface concentrations of CH₄ over the ocean to the middle troposphere, so there is less CH₄ over the central Pacific than the western Pacific. Rising air can bring low surface concentrations of CH₄ to the middle troposphere over the western Pacific in La Niña months, so there is less CH₄ over western Pacific than the central Pacific. In addition to the vertical transport, interhemispheric transport can also modulate CH₄ concentrations. The differences of NCEP2 500 hPa meridional winds (El Niño-La Niña) reveal that there are stronger southward winds during El Niño months over the western Pacific Ocean than La Niña months. It can contribute to the high CH₄ concentrations over the western Pacific Ocean in El Niño.

In addition to the spatial pattern, we also analyzed the temporal variation of midtropospheric CH₄ difference between two regions of Pacific Ocean (central Pacific and western Pacific). Our analyses reveal that the CH₄ difference between the two regions has a significant correlation to the SOI index. Results obtained from this study suggest that midtropospheric CH₄ concentrations can be modulated by ENSO. When we have good CH₄ surface emission data over the ocean in the future, we will explore the impact of the surface emission on the middle-upper tropospheric CH₄.

As an important greenhouse gas, methane is critical to understand climate change and global warming. In this paper, we reveal that midtropospheric CH₄ concentrations can be modulated by ENSO for the first time. Our investigations of the spatiotemporal variations of methane will help us better resolve the heating/cooling rates related to methane and its roles in adjusting the global temperature. The anomalously vertical winds and southward winds can redistribute methane over the tropics during El Niño events. Meanwhile, the observed variations of midtropospheric methane can help us identify possible deficiencies in the general circulation models and help modelers to better constrain/modify the large-scale vertical motion as a passive tracer. The correlation between methane anomaly and ENSO also provides one more way to monitor the ENSO events from satellite observations. Finally, the spatiotemporal characteristics of methane are helpful for better simulating the influence of ENSO on tracers, because such observational characteristics provide constraints on numerical simulations.

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