

1 Variability observed over time in methane emissions from abandoned oil and 2 gas wells

3 Stuart N. Riddick^{1, a}, Denise L. Mauzerall^{1,2}, Michael A. Celia¹, Mary Kang³ and Karl Bandilla¹

4 ¹Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Princeton University, NJ, USA

5 ² Princeton School of Public and International Affairs, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ
6 08544, USA

7 ³Department of Civil Engineering and Applied Mechanics, McGill University, Quebec, Canada

8 ^anow at The Energy Institute, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO 80523, USA

9 Keywords

10 Methane, oil and gas wells, abandoned wells, long-term

11 Abstract

12 Recent studies have reported methane (CH₄) emissions from abandoned oil and gas wells across
13 the United States and the United Kingdom. These emissions can reach **hundreds of kg CH₄ per
14 year per well and are important to include in greenhouse gas emission inventories and mitigation
15 strategies.** Emission estimates are generally based on single, short-term measurements that
16 assume constant emission rates over both short (hours) and longer (months/years) time periods.
17 To investigate this assumption, we measure CH₄ emissions from 18 abandoned oil and gas wells
18 in the USA and the UK continuously over 24 hours and then make repeat 24-hour measurements
19 at a single site over 12 months. **While the lack of historical records for these wells makes it
20 impossible to determine the underlying leakage-pathways,** we observed that CH₄ emissions at all
21 wells varied over 24 hours (range 0.2-81,000 mg CH₄ hr⁻¹) with average emissions varying by a
22 factor of 18 and ranging from factors of 1.1 to 142. We did not find a statistically significant
23 relationship between the magnitude of emissions and variability or that variability is correlated
24 with temperature, relative humidity or atmospheric pressure. The results presented here suggest
25 high CH₄ emission events tend to be short-lived, so short-term (< 1 hour) sampling is likely to
26 miss them. Our findings present the dynamic nature of CH₄ emissions from abandoned oil and
27 gas wells which should be considered when planning measurement methodologies and
28 developing greenhouse gas inventories/mitigation strategies. Incorporation of these temporal
29 dynamics could improve national greenhouse gas emissions inventories.

30 1 Introduction

31 The US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) estimates that over 6 Tg of methane (CH₄)
32 gas leaks from natural gas systems to the atmosphere each year. This includes emissions from
33 field production, processing, transmission/storage, and distribution (US EPA, 2018). However,
34 discrepancies between top-down and bottom-up CH₄ emission estimates suggest this inventory is
35 underestimating sources (Cerri et al., 2017; Miller et al., 2013; Schwietzke et al., 2014; Yang et
36 al., 2017; Zavala-Araiza et al., 2015). Recent measurements identified abandoned oil and gas
37 wells as a source of CH₄ emissions (Kang et al., 2016, 2014; Townsend-Small et al., 2016)
38 which led them to be added to the US EPA greenhouse gas emissions inventory (US EPA, 2018).
39 However, the uncertainty associated with methane emissions from abandoned wells is large due
40 to the lack of measurements and challenges associated with measuring a representative sample.
41 To reduce these uncertainties, it is important to understand variability in emission rates.

42 Recent studies estimating CH₄ emissions from abandoned oil and gas wells implicitly assume
43 that emissions are constant over time, and often base annual emissions estimates from each well
44 on short (~ 20 minutes), one-time measurements (Boothroyd et al., 2016; Kang et al., 2016;
45 Riddick et al., 2019; Townsend-Small et al., 2016). These “instantaneous” emission estimates
46 are then used to calculate emission factors applied to many other wells to produce a national
47 annual emission estimate based on the number of abandoned wells. Although repeat multi-year
48 measurements at high-emitting abandoned wells in Pennsylvania were found to be of the same
49 order of magnitude (Kang et al., 2016), the role of emissions variability at the minute and hourly
50 time scales on estimated state-wide or nation-wide emissions is unknown.

51 In systems emitting biogenic methane, trace gas emissions to the atmosphere are rarely constant
52 and can be affected by environmental conditions. Methane emissions from landfills are highly
53 affected by both temperature and atmospheric pressure, where colder temperatures decrease
54 methanotrophic bacteria activity (Riddick et al., 2017), higher temperature increase
55 methanogenic activity (Avery et al., 2003; Mønster et al., 2015) and negative changes in pressure
56 result in CH₄ being hydraulically pulled from the landfill (Riddick et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2014).
57 In permafrost, short-term variability in CH₄ fluxes are controlled by temperature and height of
58 the water table (Tagesson et al., 2013; Turetsky et al., 2014), while long-term patterns depend on
59 the rate of decomposition of various types of organic matter (Whalen, 2005). The effects of
60 changes in air pressure were also observed in a recent study that aimed to simulate wellbore
61 leakage by injecting gas into the shallow subsurface (Forde et al., 2019), where methane
62 emissions were higher away from the injection site during periods of low pressure. These studies
63 typically involve three-dimensional transport of methane, sometimes including multi-phase flow
64 through complex geological systems. Such leakage systems involve spatially distributed
65 methane fluxes along the land surface.

66 In contrast, the oil and gas wells measured in this work exhibit leakage only at, or in the
67 immediate vicinity of (a few centimetres away), the wellbore. Measurements have consistently
68 shown thermogenic methane to be emitted from the wellbore, with measurements away from the
69 wellbore consistently showing only background-level biogenic soil emissions (see, for example,
70 Kang et al., 2014). This means the leakage is essentially one-dimensional, along the wellbore.
71 With regards to leakage along these oil and gas wells, thermogenic methane originating from
72 much deeper in the earth could rise through zones of oil or water within the borehole in complex
73 ways, thereby giving intermittent emissions (Davies and Taylor, 1950; Dusseault and Jackson,
74 2014). Day-to-day variability in CH₄ emissions from *active* wells has been observed (Lavoie et
75 al., 2017). However, to our knowledge, no study to date has measured how CH₄ emissions from
76 abandoned oil and gas wells change over time, specifically over a timeframe of hours.

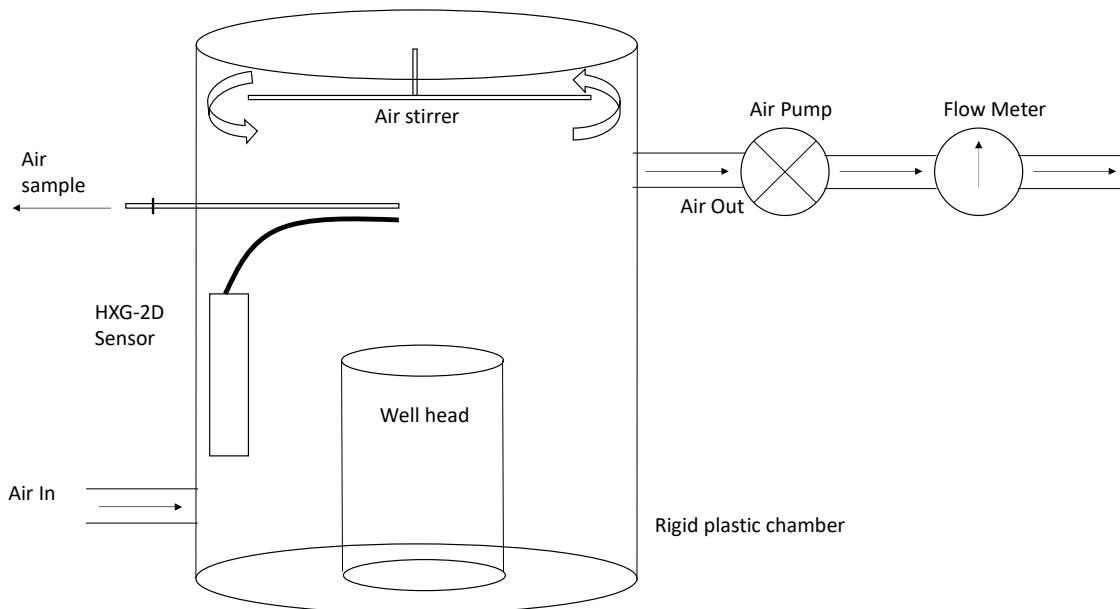
77 Herein we report measurements of CH₄ emissions from abandoned conventional gas and oil
78 wells to determine if temporal variability exists and, if so, whether it is significant. Our
79 objectives are to: 1. Report CH₄ emissions from abandoned wells as a function of time over a
80 24-hour time period; 2. Investigate whether measurements made over a period of less than an
81 hour, henceforth termed instantaneous, can be used to effectively quantify emissions from
82 abandoned wells; 3. Determine whether CH₄ emissions from high-emitting wells vary less than
83 those from low-emitting wells; and 4. Investigate if there are any environmental factors that can
84 explain observed variability in methane emissions. To our knowledge this is the first time that
85 variability of fugitive CH₄ emissions from individual abandoned conventional gas and oil wells

86 has been measured over a 24-hour period of time. Understanding the variability of methane
87 emissions is essential to accurately estimate emissions and design effective mitigation strategies.

88 2 Methods

89 2.1 Measuring 24-hour methane emissions from abandoned oil and gas wells

90 Continuous measurements of CH₄ emissions from abandoned oil and gas wells over a 24-hour
91 period had significant logistical challenges: 1. Remoteness of the wells meant that grid power
92 could not be used; 2. The setup was left unattended overnight in public areas; 3. The distance
93 from roads to the wells was in some cases significant (> 2 miles) with a limitation on what could
94 be carried over rough ground and; 4. Weather could be inclement and could change markedly in
95 24 hours. Given these considerations, a dynamic flux chamber method was employed as it is
96 relatively easy to carry, inexpensive, requires little power to measure continuously and has all the
97 electronics contained within the waterproof chamber (Figure 1). **This dynamic flux chamber has
98 been deployed previously in similar measurements of CH₄ emissions from abandoned oil and gas
99 wells in West Virginia (Riddick et al., 2019).**



100
101 *Figure 1 Schematic of the dynamic flux chamber used to measure emissions from the well head. The dynamic flux chamber is*
102 *made from a rigid plastic cylinder closed at one end with a diameter of 0.5 m, height of 1.5 m and volume of 0.3 m³. A propeller*
103 *was used to circulate the air and a pump drew air through the chamber with flowrate measured throughout using a Cole-Palmer*
104 *flowmeter.*

105 The chamber is comprised of a rigid polyethylene plastic cylinder closed at one end with a
106 diameter of 50 cm and a height dependent on the dimensions of the abandoned well. The base of
107 the flux chamber was inserted into the soil and a seal was made with the ground by pressing the
108 chamber 5 cm into the ground. A motor and propeller, set at 60 rpm, were used to continuously
109 circulate the air inside the chamber and an air pump was used to draw air through the chamber.
110 The size of the pump depended on the expected concentration of CH₄ in the chamber: for high
111 concentrations (> 40,000 ppm) an air flow of 60 l min⁻¹ was used and for lower concentrations (<
112 40,000 ppm) an air flow of 5 l min⁻¹ was used. **Flow rates were measured using a Cole Palmer
113 mechanical flow meter (www.colepalmer.com).** Power was supplied to the fan and pump by a

114 100 Ah lead acid 12 V battery and the chamber was left *in-situ* at each abandoned well for 24
115 hours. These experiments were designed to measure all direct emissions from the well bore, and
116 included emissions from any soil outside the well casing that was also inside the 0.2 m² area of
117 the chamber base. The size of the chamber footprint was selected to be slightly larger than the
118 typical abandoned wellhead girth to minimize the amount of soil measured.

119 An MQ4 semiconductor gas sensor (Hanwei Electronics, Zhengzhou, China) was used to
120 continuously measure the CH₄ concentration inside the chamber. The MQ4 was used because it
121 is a low-power, low-cost device that showed stability when measuring CH₄ concentration over
122 24-hours inside the chamber. This solid-state sensor uses tin dioxide (SnO₂) as the sensing
123 material which has a fixed resistance in clean air (R_0 , Ω). The resistance of SnO₂ decreases in
124 the presence of CH₄ (R_s , Ω) and the ratio of these resistances (R_s/R_0) gives a measure of the CH₄
125 mixing ratio in air. Data on CH₄ concentration, air temperature, relative humidity, soil moisture
126 and air pressure were sampled at 1/second frequency using DHT22, FC-28 and BMP-180
127 sensors, respectively, and the one-minute averages were logged. The CH₄ concentration and
128 meteorological data were then retrieved and analysed using the software package R (R Project,
129 2018). Using the manufacturer's empirically derived equation (Eq. 1), the raw CH₄ count values
130 (C_m) can be calculated from the sensor resistance (R_s), the resistance in clean air (R_0),
131 temperature (T , °C) and relative humidity (RH , %), with an uncertainty of $\pm 12\%$ (Hanwei, 2018;
132 Honeycutt et al., 2019).

$$133 \quad C_m = 13743 - 12754 \frac{R_s}{R_0} (1.267 - (0.003159 RH) - (0.00698 T)) \quad (1)$$

134 These raw CH₄ count data were then calibrated against a handheld HXG-2D (Sensit
135 Technologies, USA) CH₄ sensor (range 10 ppm to 40,000 ppm), which had been calibrated
136 against gas standards of 2 ppm, 5,000 ppm and 1% CH₄ before and after deployment, October
137 2016 and October 2017, respectively. We saw that the MQ4 CH₄ count, C_m as calculated in Eq.
138 1., is non-linear with increasing CH₄ concentration (Supplementary Material Section 1 Figure
139 SM1.1) between 10 ppm and 3 % CH₄. Following this analysis, we generated calibrated
140 concentrations ($[CH_4]_c$, ppm) using the algorithm in Eq. 2. Repeat calibrations in October 2016
141 and October 2017 show no significant drift on the sensor.

$$142 \quad [CH_4]_c = 5 \times 10^{-9} \cdot (C_m)^{0.445} \quad (2)$$

143 In addition to measuring the CH₄ concentrations with the MQ4 sensor, intermittent gas samples
144 were also taken from the chamber and analysed using a Shimadzu GC-2014 gas chromatograph
145 (GC). The GC, as used here, has a detection limit of 1.5 ppb methane and an uncertainty of ± 0.8
146 %, based on triplicate analysis of 5,000 ppm methane, ethane, propane, and n-butane standards.
147 To identify the source of the emission as biogenic or thermogenic, the concentrations of C₂ to C₄
148 hydrocarbons were also measured by the GC, where for biogenic sources $(C_2 - C_4)/C_1 < 0.01$ and
149 for thermogenic sources $(C_2 - C_4)/C_1 > 0.01$ (Molofsky et al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2000). Gas
150 standards used in the GC analysis were 100%, 1%, 5,000 ppm and 200 ppm for C₁ to C₄.

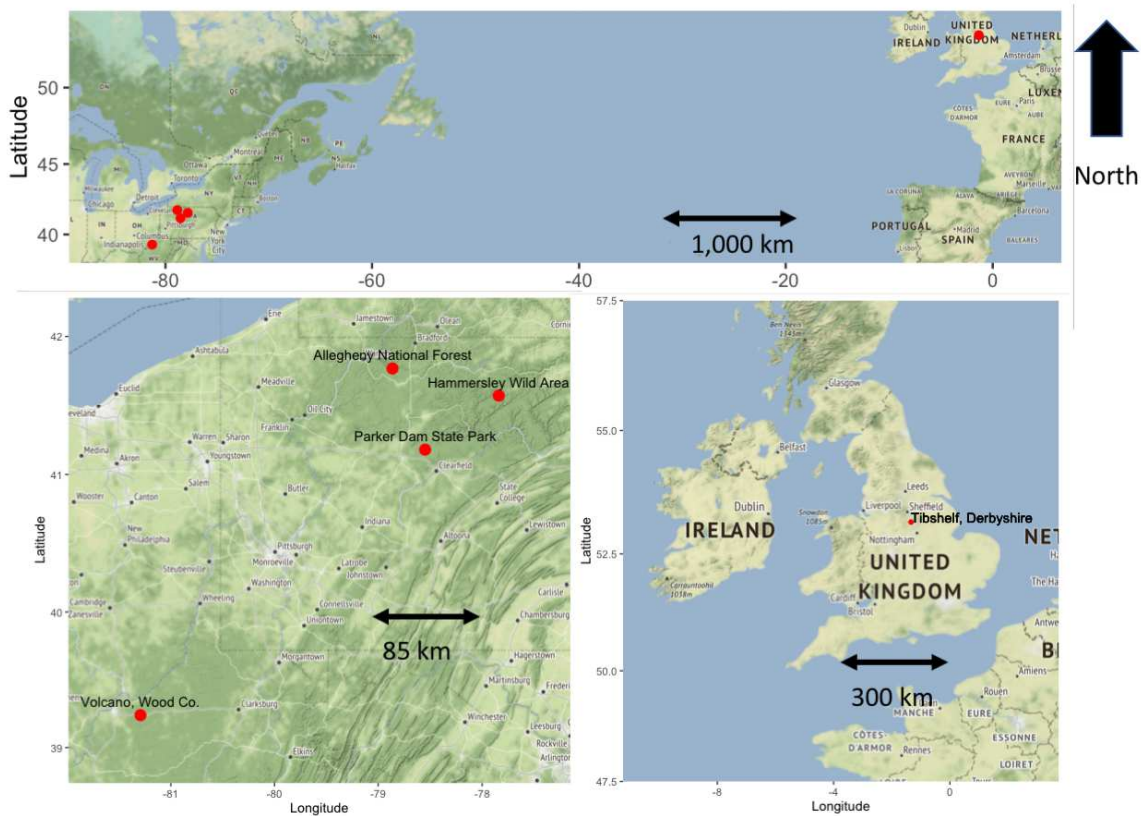
151 Methane emissions (Q , g s⁻¹) were calculated using the algorithm presented in Eq. 3 and
152 following the methods in Aneja et al. (2006) and Riddick et al. (2019). Emissions are derived
153 from the CH₄ concentration in the chamber ($[CH_4]_c$), the background CH₄ concentration
154 ($[CH_4]_b$), the height of chamber (h), the flow of air through the chamber (q), and the volume of
155 the chamber (V). During each measurement the height, volume and flow were kept constant and
156 changes in CH₄ concentration inside the chamber were a function of changes in emissions. The

157 flow rate of air through the chamber was measured using a Cole-Palmer volumetric flowmeter
 158 (Figure 1) at the beginning, after the first hour and at the end of the experiment. The relevant
 159 equation for the methane flux is

$$160 \quad Q = \frac{([CH_4]_c - [CH_4]_b) h q}{v} \quad (3)$$

161 **2.2 Field measurements**

162 Field measurements of CH₄ emissions from abandoned oil and gas wells were conducted
 163 between November 2016 and September 2017 in Volcano, Wood Co., West Virginia (WV),
 164 USA, as published in Riddick et al. (2019), at wells in Pennsylvania (PA), USA, identified in
 165 Kang et al. (2016) and at Tibshelf, Derbyshire, UK (Figure 2). WV and PA measurements were
 166 used to examine similarities and differences between basins in the same geographic region, while
 167 the measurements in the UK were used to study similarities between CH₄ emissions in
 168 geographically disparate oil-producing regions.



169
 170 *Figure 2 Map of wells measured in Pennsylvania (two wells in Parker Dam State Park, two wells in Allegheny National Forest*
 171 *and one in Hammersley Wild area), West Virginia (12 wells in Volcano, Wood Co.), both USA and one well in Tibshelf,*
 172 *Derbyshire, UK. Image courtesy of Google maps (www.google.com/maps).*

173 **2.2.1 Hardstoft 1 Oil Well, Tibshelf, Derbyshire, UK**

174 The Hardstoft 1 oil well in Tibshelf is the oldest oil well on the UK mainland. First drilled in
 175 1918, the vertical well in carboniferous limestone reached a depth of 997 m (Craig et al., 2015).
 176 Oil production decreased afterwards and the well was finally closed and capped in the late 1940s.
 177 The well was rediscovered during landscaping works in the 1990s and was found to be leaking
 178 oil. This site was chosen because of its historical significance and because it is on fenced private

179 land with gates that were locked at night. The time-variable measurements over a 24-hour period
180 were repeated monthly between February and September 2017, thereby providing a second time
181 scale (monthly) to analyse temporal variability. In each monthly measurement, the chamber was
182 secured to the ground and left in place for 24 hours.

183 **2.2.2 Volcano, Wood County, West Virginia, USA**

184 Oil was first discovered in Volcano, Wood County in 1865 100 feet below the surface and
185 erupted from the surface “like a volcano”. Between 1865 and 1879 an unknown number of oil
186 wells were drilled. On August 4th 1879, a fire burned down the entire town, after which the
187 majority of residents left Volcano for other oil fields and few new wells were drilled. Volcano
188 was chosen for our study site because the site has many abandoned wells close together to
189 measure. None of these wells are documented in the WV Department of Environmental
190 Protection well database (TAGIS, 2017) and no data describing well attributes are available.

191 The 24-hour methane emissions measurements were taken at the leaking abandoned oil wells in
192 Volcano, Wood Co., WV, which are described in Riddick et al. (2019). The Riddick et al.
193 (2019) measurements were made in November 2016 and comprised 12 abandoned WV wells
194 with instantaneous CH₄ emissions ranging from 0.2 to 6,919 mg CH₄ hr⁻¹. The measurements in
195 the current study were made between between the 20th and 30th May 2017 in Mountwood Park,
196 Wood County, WV (the site of Volcano).

197 **2.2.3 Pennsylvania**

198 To investigate the behaviour of higher emitting ($> 10^4$ mg CH₄ hr⁻¹) abandoned wells, five sites
199 in Pennsylvania were chosen with wells emitting between 31,000 and 81,000 mg CH₄ hr⁻¹, as
200 described in Kang et al. (2016). Measurements for the current study were made in September
201 2017. The sites were all on state land: Well P1 in Allegheny National Forest near Bradford, PA;
202 Wells P2, P4 and P5 in Parker Dam State Park near Penfield, PA; and Well P3 in Hammersley
203 Wild Area near Coudersport, PA (Figure 2). Some well attributes were estimated by Kang et al.
204 (2016), as shown in Table SM3.1 (in Supplementary Material Section 3). Plugging status was
205 determined from surface inspection of wells, while the type and depth of well were assigned
206 based on the formation(s) beneath the surface location of the well (see Kang et al. (2016) for
207 details).

208 **2.3 Environmental variability in CH₄ emissions using meteorological data**

209 In addition to presenting emissions from abandoned wells over 24 hours, we also investigate how
210 meteorological conditions and corresponding subsurface changes affect emission rates. For the
211 Hardstoft 1 data, we compare CH₄ emission to the average temperature, average relative
212 humidity, average air pressure during the 24 hours over which the measurements took place and
213 the cumulative precipitation in the days preceding measurement. In this study we present
214 cumulative rainfall from 1 to 21 days before measurement. To identify variable(s) that have the
215 largest effect on emission rates we report the R², gradient and p-value of the regression.

216 **3 Results**

217 **3.1 MQ4 Methane Sensor**

218 The MQ4 methane sensor is an inexpensive (< \$10) instrument, not designed for precision CH₄
219 measurement and, in this application, was calibrated against a low-precision handheld methane
220 sensor. Our goal was not to use the MQ4 sensor to accurately determine CH₄ concentrations, but

221 rather to monitor relative changes in methane concentration. However, we compared the
222 calculated $[CH_4]_c$ values in the chamber with the air samples collected from the chamber and
223 analysed on the GC to determine how representative the calculated CH_4 concentrations were. We
224 found that $[CH_4]_c$ were in good agreement with time-matched GC measurements
225 (Supplementary Material Section 1 Figure SM1.2; $m = 1.05$, $R^2 = 0.99$, $p\text{-value} = 0.001$) between
226 100 ppm and 9% CH_4 . This gave us confidence that the MQ4 sensor could feasibly be used to
227 differentiate between high and low concentrations of CH_4 .

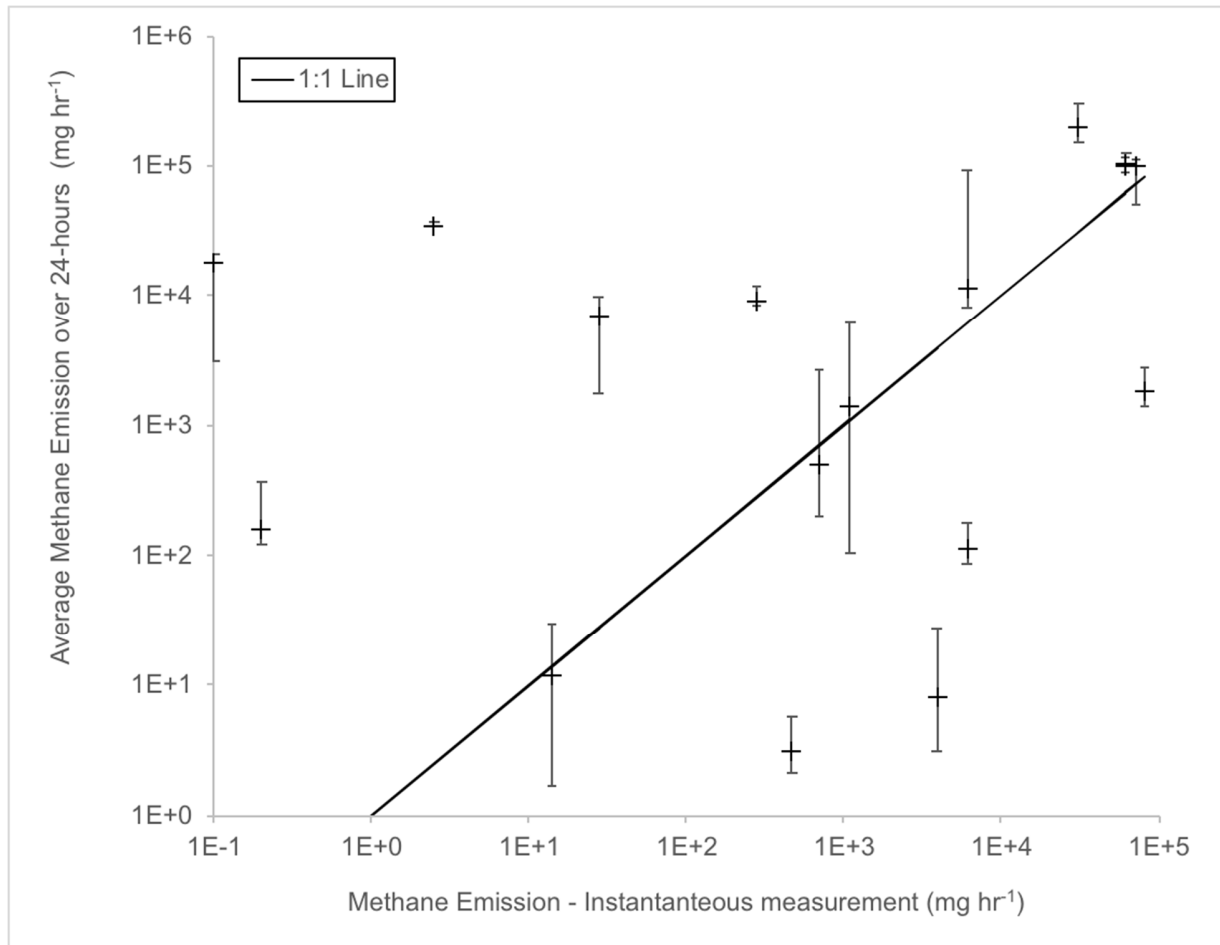
228 **3.2 Characterisation of methane emission sources**

229 For the wells measured here, the hydrocarbon $(C_2 - C_4)/C_1$ ratios range from 1.73 (well W6) to
230 0.006 (well W12) and suggest that all CH_4 emitted from the wells originated from thermogenic
231 sources, as $(C_2 - C_4)/C_1 > 0.01$, except for W12 which appears to be from a biogenic source
232 (Supplementary Material Section 5).

233 **3.3 Using instantaneous emission measurements to estimate emissions**

234 When instantaneous CH_4 emission estimates, (i.e. averages of multiple instantaneous emission
235 measurements as reported in Kang et al. (2016) for PA and Riddick et al. (2019) for WV), are
236 compared to average CH_4 emissions over 24-hours, only four CH_4 emissions estimates based on
237 instantaneous measurements fall within the range of measurements observed over 24-hours
238 (minimum and maximum CH_4 emissions represented as error bars in Figure 3). Four of the
239 seventeen show the average of the 24-hour CH_4 emission measurements to be more than two
240 orders of magnitude lower than the instantaneous measurements. Nine out of the 17 have 24-
241 hour averages as much as four orders of magnitude higher than the instantaneous measurements.

242



243

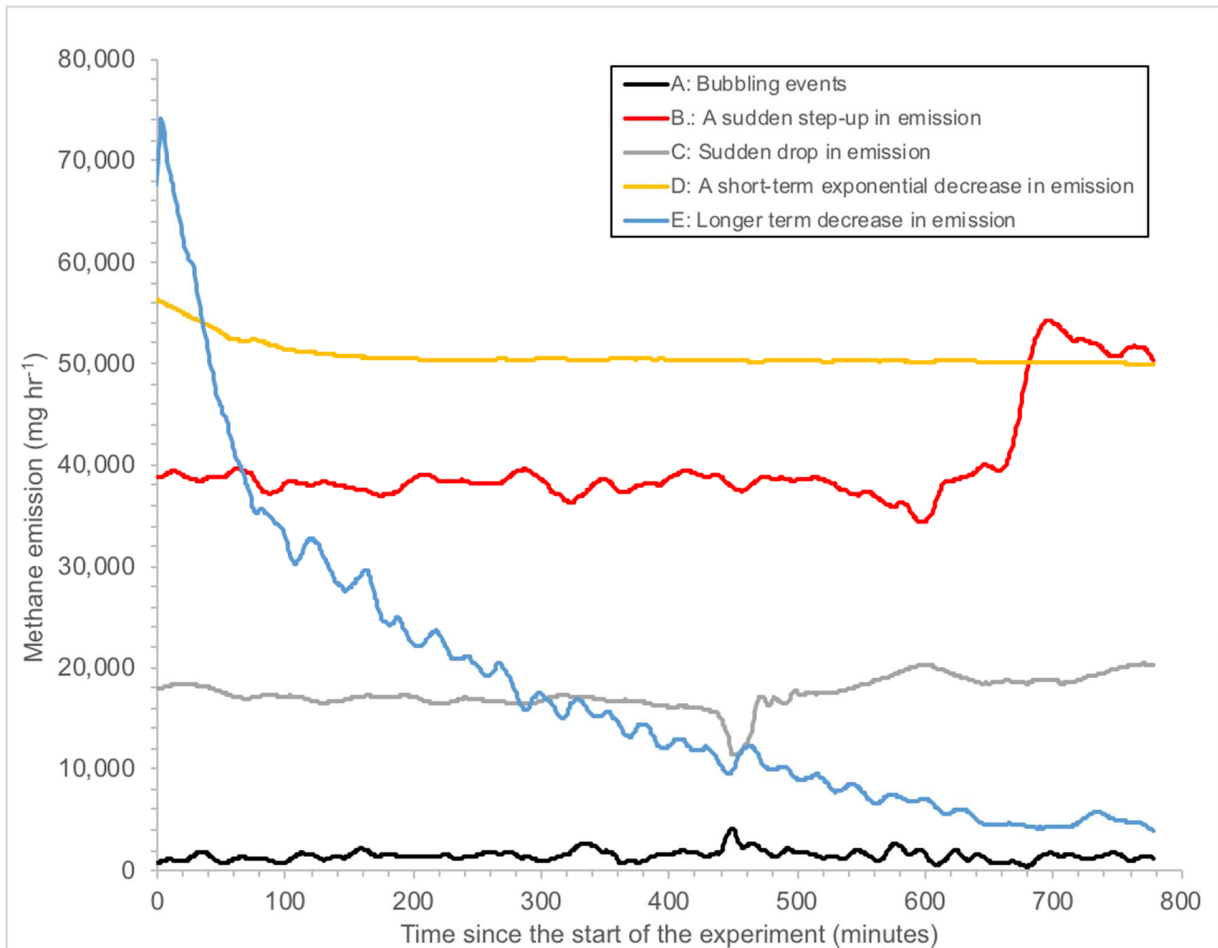
244 *Figure 3 Methane emissions estimated using instantaneous measurements (data taken from Riddick et al. (2019) and Kang et al.*
 245 *(2016)) compared to average emissions measured over 24 hours (as measured in this paper with minimum and maximum*
 246 *emissions during 24-hour measurement presented as error bars).*

247

248 3.4 CH₄ emissions per well over 24-hours

249 The plots from all abandoned wells showed varying CH₄ emission over 24-hours are shown in
 250 Supplementary Material Sections 2; 3; 4. From the collection of transient measurements, five
 251 common features are identified and are shown in Figure 4 using five different plot lines of
 252 emissions versus time. From these plots, the five common features are identified as: 1. Sporadic
 253 emissions e.g. abandoned well W3 (e.g. Figure 4A) (a short-term spike in emissions, usually
 254 involving an increase on the order of 1,000 mg hr⁻¹, over a time interval of several minutes); 2. A
 255 sudden large step-up in emission e.g. abandoned well P4 (e.g. Figure 4B) (an increase of 20,000
 256 to 30,000 mg hr⁻¹ in 10 to a few tens of minutes); 3. A sudden drop in emission followed by a
 257 recovery and increase in emissions e.g. abandoned well W7 (e.g. Figure 4C) (17,000 to 4,000 mg
 258 hr⁻¹ in 10 minutes); 4. A short-term exponential decrease in emissions e.g. abandoned well P2
 259 (e.g. Figure 4D) (decrease from 120,000 to 100,000 mg hr⁻¹ in 2 hours); and 5. Longer term
 260 decreases in emissions e.g. abandoned well W42 (e.g. Figure 4E) (decrease from 10,000 to 3,000
 261 mg hr⁻¹ in 20 hours). The 24-hour emission plots for all wells measured in WV, PA and
 262 Hardstoft 1 are shown in the Supplementary Material Sections 2, 3 and 4, respectively. **Of the 17**

263 wells measured in WV and PA seven showed evidence of sporadic emissions, eight showed a
 264 sudden step-up, two showed a sudden drop, six showed an exponential decrease, and four
 265 showed a slow decrease over an extended period of time. Collectively, this shows that wells
 266 were not limited to a single behaviour and displayed a wide range of behaviours over 24 hours.

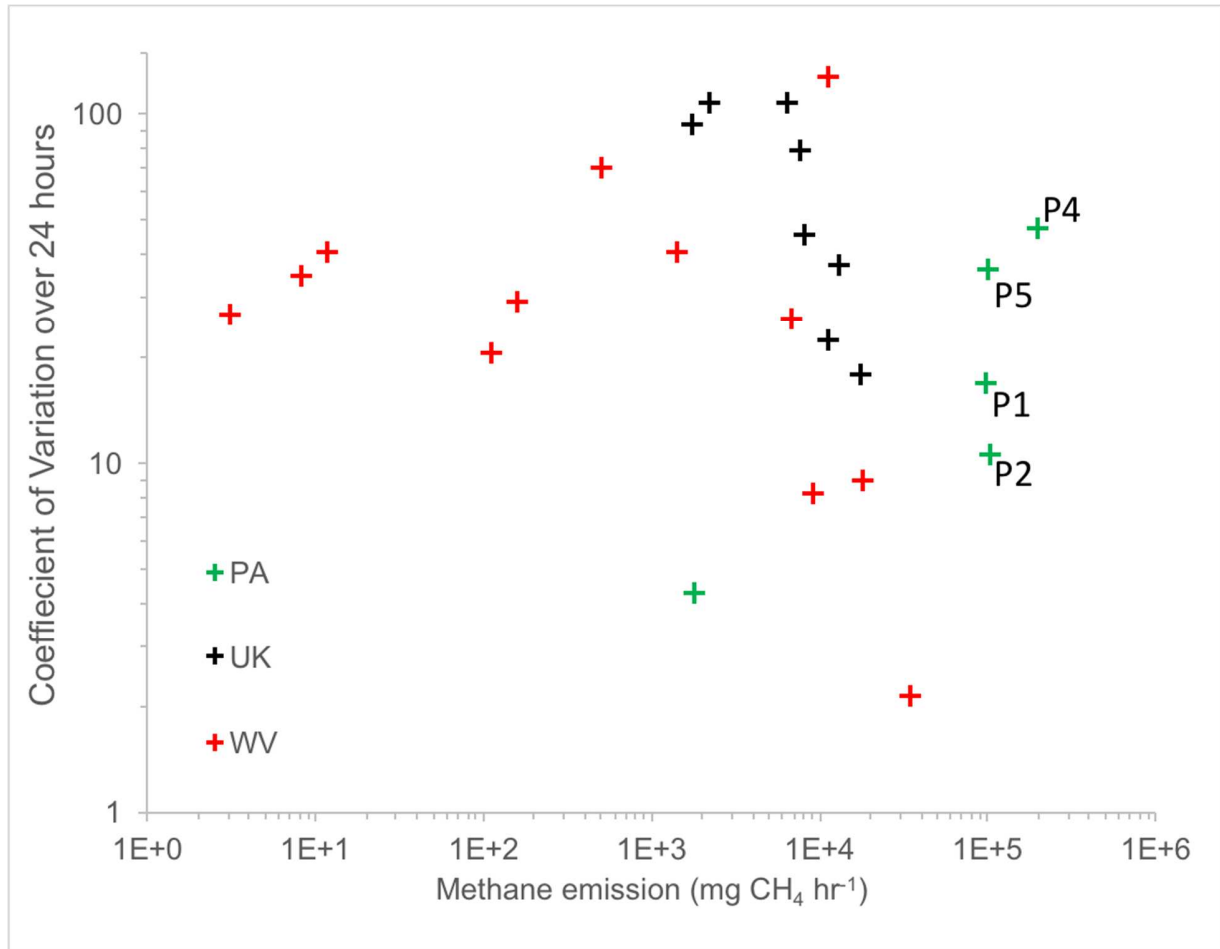


267
 268 *Figure 4 Five common emission features that were identified in the 24-hour emission profiles of wells measured in West Virginia,*
 269 *Pennsylvania and the UK. The common features were: A. Sporadic emission events e.g. abandoned well W3 in West Virginia, B.*
 270 *Sudden step-up in emissions e.g. abandoned well P4 in Pennsylvania, , C. Sudden short-term drop in emissions followed by a*
 271 *recovery and increase in emissions e.g. abandoned well W7 in West Virginia, D. Short-term exponential decrease in emissions*
 272 *e.g. abandoned well P2 in Pennsylvania, E. Slow large longer term decrease in emissions e.g. abandoned well W8 in West*
 273 *Virginia.*

274 3.5 Variability of emissions and methane emission rates

275 To investigate the variability of CH₄ emissions from both high emitters (> 1 x 10⁵ mg CH₄ hr⁻¹)
 276 and lower-emitting wells (< 1 x 10⁵ mg CH₄ hr⁻¹), the average CH₄ emission over 24 hours is
 277 plotted against the coefficient of variance (CV), within the 24-hour time frame (Figure 5). Here,
 278 the CV is the standard deviation of each minute-averaged emission over 24-hours divided by the
 279 mean emission in 24-hours multiplied by 100. A linear regression between all average CH₄
 280 emissions over 24 hours and the corresponding coefficients of variance indicates that there is no
 281 statistical significance between the rate of emissions and variability in emissions within a 24-
 282 hour time period (R² = 0.09, m= -0.000, p-value = 0.14). In addition, the plots of the highest
 283 emitters, P4 and P5, show substantial CV of 30 to 50 % change in emission (Supplementary

284 Material Section 3). The average percentage change of lower-emitting wells ($< 1 \times 10^5$ mg CH₄
 285 hr⁻¹) is 26 %, which indicates that the overall magnitude of variability is similar at all emission
 286 rates when measured using the coefficient of variance.

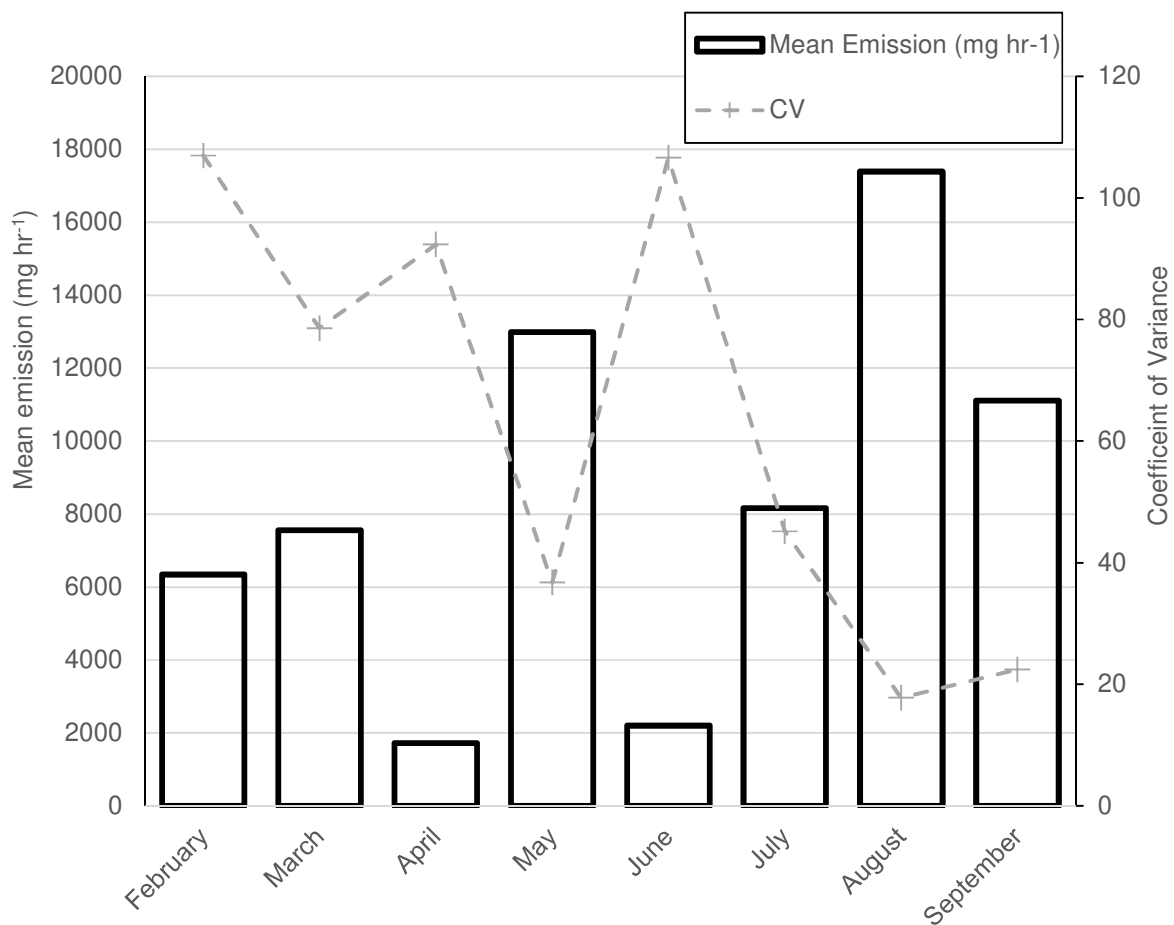


287
 288 *Figure 5 The average CH₄ emission over 24-hours is plotted against the coefficient of variance (CV) within the 24-hours of*
 289 *measurement at each site in Pennsylvania (PA), West Virginia (WV) and the UK (UK).*

290 3.6 Meteorological drivers of CH₄ emissions

291 Previous studies have suggested that the CH₄ emissions from high-emitting abandoned wells
 292 have little seasonal variability (Kang et al., 2016), however the variability in CH₄ emissions
 293 between the instantaneous and 24-hour average measurements was not investigated. To
 294 investigate this, we compare a 24-hour emission measurement taken each month at the Hardstoft
 295 1 well to 24-hour average air temperature, relative humidity, air pressure and cumulative
 296 precipitation.

297 The variability in the average 24-hour CH₄ emission for each month at Hardstoft 1 appears to
 298 show seasonal effects (Figure 6). The highest emissions rate of 17,386 mg CH₄ hr⁻¹ was
 299 observed in August and the lowest of 1,726 mg CH₄ hr⁻¹ in April. The relationship between the
 300 coefficient of variance over 24-hours and the average 24-hour CH₄ emission is statistically
 301 significant ($R^2 = 0.76$, $m = -0.0061$, $p\text{-value} = 0.005$), indicating a decrease in variability as the
 302 average emission increases.



303
 304 *Figure 6 Variability in the average of the 24-hour methane emissions from the Hardstoft 1 oil well in Tibshelf, UK, in 2017*

305 Changes in the average 24-hour CH₄ emissions from the Hardstoft 1 well are not statistically
 306 significantly related to average air temperature (p-value = 0.91), average relative humidity (p-
 307 value = 0.81) or average atmospheric pressure (p-value = 0.22). However, methane emission
 308 rates are statistically significantly related to the cumulative precipitation in the days preceding
 309 the measurement, where the highest R² and lowest p-value was found for the cumulative rainfall
 310 in the 7 days before the measurement (R² = 0.79, m = 1053, p-value 0.001; Supplementary
 311 Material Section 6 Figure SM 6.1). **While a detailed mechanistic investigation is beyond the**
 312 **scope of the current work, we note that mixed lateral and vertical gas migration in shallow**
 313 **unsaturated soils (see, for example, Forde et al., 2018) is significantly influenced by**
 314 **meteorology. The effect of meteorology may be influenced by the underlying mechanisms that**
 315 **influence flux from our wells because the well settings and flow pathways may differ notably**
 316 **between wells.**

317 **4 Discussion**

318 **4.1 Methane emissions from abandoned wells over 24-hour periods**

319 We present the first data showing essentially continuous measurements of emissions over 24-
 320 hour time periods from abandoned oil and gas wells at sites in the UK and the USA. This study

321 used a low-cost sensor inside a dynamic chamber to continuously monitor changing CH₄
322 concentrations. Comparisons of the concentration derived from the sensor output to
323 concentrations measured using a GC show that calibrated low cost sensors can feasibly be used
324 to facilitate widespread monitoring of abandoned oil and gas wells. For these wells, the alkane
325 ratios show that the methane emitted is from a thermogenic source at all but one well out of the
326 18 wells measured. The measurements indicate that CH₄ emissions vary by between 1.1 to 142
327 times, with an average of a factor of 18, over the 24-hour measurement period (Supplementary
328 Material Section 5). **Data presented here strongly suggest the amount of precipitation falling the**
329 **week before measurements are made may affect variability in emissions (Supplementary**
330 **Material Section 6 Figure SM 6.1).** This is contrary to the findings of Forde et al. (2019), who
331 looked at horizontally extensive gas transport associated with gas injected into the shallow
332 subsurface; in our case, we have essentially vertical transport of gas along the wellbore that is
333 open at the land surface.

334 **Given that the majority of the methane appears to be migrating through an open wellbore filled**
335 **with another fluid (most likely water, possibly some oil) or through a conductive zone just**
336 **outside the well casing, we hypothesize that flow variability may be associated with buoyancy**
337 **combined with threshold blockage and release. These kinds of flows can lead to a uniform**
338 **bubbly flow (simple buoyancy) or a periodic slug-type flow. The periodic nature of gas slugs (or**
339 **Taylor bubbles) and associated emissions is likely to be driven by how gas enters/leaves the**
340 **wellbore and migrates upwards (Dusseault and Jackson, 2014). Therefore, the variability likely**
341 **reflects the complex leakage flow paths within a wellbore (Davies et al., 2014; Gasda et al.,**
342 **2004). We note the important studies of Forde et al. (2019).**

343 Database analysis studies on wellbore leakage have identified a wide range of factors including
344 drilling and completion methods, geographic location, geology, and surface casing depth (Bachu,
345 2017; Cahill et al., 2019; Lackey et al., 2017; Montague et al., 2018; Watson and Bachu, 2009).
346 However, it is impossible to apply these approaches to the current wells because of a lack of
347 historical information for the wells. Many of the measured wells date from the 19th century and
348 are completely undocumented without the details of date of drilling, how much oil was produced
349 or the height of the water table. While some attributes can be inferred from historical studies (for
350 example, Kang et al., 2016), a systematic study like those referenced is not possible. Given the
351 age of the wells and the lack of regulatory statutes at the time of their abandonment, it could be
352 that these very old wells were never sealed after use. In those cases, when oil production became
353 unprofitable, the operator simply moved to the next well. This practice was common before
354 modern plugging regulations were put in place. Well drilling practices and technology have
355 evolved over time from cable tool drilling with no cement isolation in the 19th century to rotary
356 drilling in the 1930s to modern drilling and completion techniques (King and Valencia, 2014).
357 Even though we offer some possible explanations above, the main finding of this study is that
358 methane does not leak from abandoned wells at a constant rate and that the variability can be
359 significant within a 24-hour period.

360 **4.2 Instantaneous CH₄ emission measurements from abandoned wells**

361 Even though many studies have used instantaneous (< 1 hour) CH₄ measurements to make
362 emission estimates from abandoned oil and gas wells (Boothroyd et al., 2016; Kang et al., 2016,
363 2014; Townsend-Small et al., 2016), observations made in this study indicate that CH₄ emissions
364 calculated from short term CH₄ concentration measurements (~ 1 hour) can be substantially
365 different from the daily average CH₄ emissions because large changes in emissions can occur

366 over minutes to hours (e.g. short-term, < 5 minute, sporadic emission events can clearly be seen
367 during 70% of our measurements; Supplementary Material Section 2). These variations over the
368 24-hour time period should be considered when assigning emission factors.

369 Longer term methane measurements (with each measurement representing a daily average) can
370 provide a more representative annual average emission. For example, the difference in average
371 CH₄ emissions at the same site can vary by a factor of 6 between consecutive months (May to
372 June; Figure 6). This suggests that instead of a single average one-hour emission for each well,
373 as has been used previously to calculate fugitive emissions from abandoned oil and gas wells
374 (Riddick et al., 2019), a more dynamic approach may need to be employed to estimate changing
375 emissions throughout the day and throughout the year.

376 We suggest that emission estimates should be based on longer-term measurements. Ideally,
377 continuous measurements for at least 24 hours repeated in various seasons would provide a more
378 accurate representation of well leakage. However, we acknowledge that 24-hour measurements
379 at every site would be prohibitively expensive. Instead, we suggest that, for most of the wells
380 measured in this study, measurements lasting three-hours could make emission estimates
381 representative of the mean 24-hour emission by averaging out emission behaviours A to D, as
382 identified in Section 3.4. The results presented here suggest high emission events tend to be
383 short-lived (less than one hour), so random sampling is likely to miss them. Single
384 measurements in time therefore likely underestimate actual cumulative emissions, thus
385 potentially leading to underestimates of emissions from abandoned oil and gas wells in GHG
386 emission inventories.

387 From a policy viewpoint, this study highlights the shortcomings in our understanding of what
388 drives emissions from abandoned oil and gas wells. Our results show that wells emitting almost
389 no CH₄ can be revisited and emissions 10,000 times higher can be observed, i.e. WV5
390 (Supplementary Material Section 5). Conversely, higher emitting wells can be 500 times less
391 emissive when re-measured (WV1). This uncertainty must be resolved through further
392 measurements of a successful plugging program targeting constantly high emitting wells is to be
393 implemented that reduces overall GHG emissions to the atmosphere.

394

395 **Acknowledgements**

396 The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (Grant # AWD1004141) supported this
397 research. We thank Jeremy Cross for help and access to Mountwood Park and Philip Schofield of
398 Oilwell Nursery, Tibshelf, UK (<https://www.oilwellnursery.co.uk>) for information and access to
399 the oil well there throughout the year. We also thanks Peter Jaffe, Mike Han and Jinyi Ge at
400 Princeton for help making GC measurements at Princeton University.

401

402 **References**

403 Avery, G.B., Shannon, R.D., White, J.R., Martens, C.S., Alperin, M.J., 2003. Controls on
404 methane production in a tidal freshwater estuary and a peatland: methane production via
405 acetate fermentation and CO₂ reduction. *Biogeochemistry* 62, 19–37.
406 <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1021128400602>

407 Bachu, S., 2017. Analysis of gas leakage occurrence along wells in Alberta, Canada, from a
408 GHG perspective – Gas migration outside well casing. *International Journal of*
409 *Greenhouse Gas Control* 61, 146–154. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijggc.2017.04.003>
410 Boothroyd, I.M., Almond, S., Qassim, S.M., Worrall, F., Davies, R.J., 2016. Fugitive emissions
411 of methane from abandoned, decommissioned oil and gas wells. *Science of The Total*
412 *Environment* 547, 461–469. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.12.096>
413 Cahill, A.G., Beckie, R., Ladd, B., Sandl, E., Goetz, M., Chao, J., Soares, J., Manning, C.,
414 Chopra, C., Finke, N., Hawthorne, I., Black, A., Ulrich Mayer, K., Crowe, S., Cary, T.,
415 Lauer, R., Mayer, B., Allen, A., Kirste, D., Welch, L., 2019. Advancing knowledge of
416 gas migration and fugitive gas from energy wells in northeast British Columbia, Canada.
417 *Greenhouse Gas Sci Technol* 9, 134–151. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ghg.1856>
418 Cerri, C.E.P., You, X., Cherubin, M.R., Moreira, C.S., Raucci, G.S., Castigioni, B. de A., Alves,
419 P.A., Cerri, D.G.P., Mello, F.F. de C., Cerri, C.C., 2017. Assessing the greenhouse gas
420 emissions of Brazilian soybean biodiesel production. *PLOS ONE* 12, e0176948.
421 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0176948>
422 Craig, J., Gluyas, Jon, Laing, Craig, Schofield, Philip, 2015. Harstoft—Britain’s First Oil Field.
423 *Oil-Industry History* 14, 96–116.
424 Davies, R.J., Almond, S., Ward, R.S., Jackson, R.B., Adams, C., Worrall, F., Herringshaw, L.G.,
425 Gluyas, J.G., Whitehead, M.A., 2014. Oil and gas wells and their integrity: Implications
426 for shale and unconventional resource exploitation. *Marine and Petroleum Geology* 56,
427 239–254. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpetgeo.2014.03.001>
428 Davies, R.M., Taylor, G.I., 1950. The mechanics of large bubbles rising through extended liquids
429 and through liquids in tubes. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series A.*
430 *Mathematical and Physical Sciences* 200, 375–390.
431 <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspa.1950.0023>
432 Dusseault, M., Jackson, R., 2014. Seepage pathway assessment for natural gas to shallow
433 groundwater during well stimulation, in production, and after abandonment.
434 *Environmental Geosciences* 21, 107–126. <https://doi.org/10.1306/eg.04231414004>
435 Forde, O.N., Cahill, A.G., Beckie, R.D., Mayer, K.U., 2019. Barometric-pumping controls
436 fugitive gas emissions from a vadose zone natural gas release. *Sci Rep* 9, 14080.
437 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-50426-3>
438 Gasda, S.E., Bachu, S., Celia, M.A., 2004. Spatial characterization of the location of potentially
439 leaky wells penetrating a deep saline aquifer in a mature sedimentary basin. *Env Geol* 46,
440 707–720. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00254-004-1073-5>
441 Hanwei, 2018. MQ-4 [WWW Document]. URL
442 <https://www.sparkfun.com/datasheets/Sensors/Biometric/MQ-4.pdf> (accessed 1.29.19).
443 Honeycutt, W.T., Ley, M.T., Materer, N.F., 2019. Precision and Limits of Detection for Selected
444 Commercially Available, Low-Cost Carbon Dioxide and Methane Gas Sensors. *Sensors*
445 19, 3157. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s19143157>
446 Kang, M., Christian, S., Celia, M.A., Mauzerall, D.L., Bill, M., Miller, A.R., Chen, Y., Conrad,
447 M.E., Darrah, T.H., Jackson, R.B., 2016. Identification and characterization of high
448 methane-emitting abandoned oil and gas wells. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*
449 *Sciences* 113, 13636–13641. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1605913113>
450 Kang, M., Kanno, C.M., Reid, M.C., Zhang, X., Mauzerall, D.L., Celia, M.A., Chen, Y., Onstott,
451 T.C., 2014. Direct measurements of methane emissions from abandoned oil and gas wells

452 in Pennsylvania. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 111, 18173–18177.
453 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1408315111>

454 King, G.E., Valencia, R.L., 2014. Environmental Risk and Well Integrity of Plugged and
455 Abandoned Wells, in: *SPE Annual Technical Conference and Exhibition*. Presented at the
456 SPE Annual Technical Conference and Exhibition, Society of Petroleum Engineers,
457 Amsterdam, The Netherlands. <https://doi.org/10.2118/170949-MS>

458 Lackey, G., Rajaram, H., Sherwood, O.A., Burke, T.L., Ryan, J.N., 2017. Surface Casing
459 Pressure As an Indicator of Well Integrity Loss and Stray Gas Migration in the
460 Wattenberg Field, Colorado. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 51, 3567–3574.
461 <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.6b06071>

462 Lavoie, T.N., Shepson, P.B., Cambaliza, M.O.L., Stirm, B.H., Conley, S., Mehrotra, S., Faloona,
463 I.C., Lyon, D., 2017. Spatiotemporal Variability of Methane Emissions at Oil and Natural
464 Gas Operations in the Eagle Ford Basin. *Environmental Science & Technology* 51, 8001–
465 8009. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.7b00814>

466 Miller, S.M., Wofsy, S.C., Michalak, A.M., Kort, E.A., Andrews, A.E., Biraud, S.C.,
467 Dlugokencky, E.J., Eluszkiewicz, J., Fischer, M.L., Janssens-Maenhout, G., Miller, B.R.,
468 Miller, J.B., Montzka, S.A., Nehrkorn, T., Sweeney, C., 2013. Anthropogenic emissions
469 of methane in the United States. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 110,
470 20018–20022. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1314392110>

471 Molofsky, L.J., Connor, J.A., Wylie, A.S., Wagner, T., Farhat, S.K., 2013. Evaluation of
472 Methane Sources in Groundwater in Northeastern Pennsylvania: L.J. Molofsky et al.
473 *Ground Water* xx, no. xx: xx-xx. *Groundwater* 51, 333–349.
474 <https://doi.org/10.1111/gwat.12056>

475 Mønster, J., Samuelsson, J., Kjeldsen, P., Scheutz, C., 2015. Quantification of methane
476 emissions from 15 Danish landfills using the mobile tracer dispersion method. *Waste*
477 *Management* 35, 177–186. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2014.09.006>

478 Montague, J.A., Pinder, G.F., Watson, T.L., 2018. Predicting gas migration through existing oil
479 and gas wells. *Environ. Geosci.* 25, 121–132. <https://doi.org/10.1306/eg.01241817008>

480 Riddick, S.N., Connors, S., Robinson, A.D., Manning, A.J., Jones, P.S.D., Lowry, D., Nisbet, E.,
481 Skelton, R.L., Allen, G., Pitt, J., Harris, N.R.P., 2017. Estimating the size of a methane
482 emission point source at different scales: from local to landscape. *Atmospheric Chemistry*
483 *and Physics* 17, 7839–7851. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-17-7839-2017>

484 Riddick, S.N., Hancock, B.R., Robinson, A.D., Connors, S., Davies, S., Allen, G., Pitt, J., Harris,
485 N.R.P., 2018. Development of a low-maintenance measurement approach to continuously
486 estimate methane emissions: A case study. *Waste Management* 73, 210–219.
487 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2016.12.006>

488 Riddick, S.N., Mauzerall, D.L., Celia, M.A., Kang, M., Bressler, K., Chu, C., Gum, C.D., 2019.
489 Measuring methane emissions from abandoned and active oil and gas wells in West
490 Virginia. *Science of The Total Environment* 651, 1849–1856.
491 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.10.082>

492 Schwietzke, S., Griffin, W.M., Matthews, H.S., Bruhwiler, L.M.P., 2014. Natural Gas Fugitive
493 Emissions Rates Constrained by Global Atmospheric Methane and Ethane.
494 *Environmental Science & Technology* 48, 7714–7722. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es501204c>

495 Tagesson, T., Mastepanov, M., Mölder, M., Tamstorf, M.P., Eklundh, L., Smith, B., Sigsgaard,
496 C., Lund, M., Ekberg, A., Falk, J.M., Friborg, T., Christensen, T.R., Ström, L., 2013.
497 Modelling of growing season methane fluxes in a high-Arctic wet tundra ecosystem

498 1997–2010 using in situ and high-resolution satellite data. *Tellus B: Chemical and*
499 *Physical Meteorology* 65, 19722. <https://doi.org/10.3402/tellusb.v65i0.19722>

500 TAGIS, 2017. WVDEP Technical Applications and GIS (TAGIS) [WWW Document]. URL
501 www.tagis.dep.wv.gov (accessed 6.5.20).

502 Taylor, S.W., Sherwood Lollar, B., Wassenaar, I., 2000. Bacteriogenic Ethane in Near-Surface
503 Aquifers: Implications for Leaking Hydrocarbon Well Bores. *Environmental Science &*
504 *Technology* 34, 4727–4732. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es001066x>

505 Townsend-Small, A., Ferrara, T.W., Lyon, D.R., Fries, A.E., Lamb, B.K., 2016. Emissions of
506 coalbed and natural gas methane from abandoned oil and gas wells in the United States:
507 METHANE EMISSIONS FROM ABANDONED WELLS. *Geophysical Research*
508 *Letters* 43, 2283–2290. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015GL067623>

509 Turetsky, M.R., Kotowska, A., Bubier, J., Dise, N.B., Crill, P., Hornibrook, E.R.C., Minkkinen,
510 K., Moore, T.R., Myers-Smith, I.H., Nykänen, H., Olefeldt, D., Rinne, J., Saarnio, S.,
511 Shurpali, N., Tuittila, E.-S., Waddington, J.M., White, J.R., Wickland, K.P., Wilkening,
512 M., 2014. A synthesis of methane emissions from 71 northern, temperate, and subtropical
513 wetlands. *Global Change Biology* 20, 2183–2197. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12580>

514 US EPA, O., 2018. Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks: 1990-2016 [WWW
515 Document]. US EPA. URL [https://www.epa.gov/ghgemissions/inventory-us-greenhouse-](https://www.epa.gov/ghgemissions/inventory-us-greenhouse-gas-emissions-and-sinks-1990-2016)
516 [gas-emissions-and-sinks-1990-2016](https://www.epa.gov/ghgemissions/inventory-us-greenhouse-gas-emissions-and-sinks-1990-2016) (accessed 1.29.19).

517 Watson, T.L., Bachu, S., 2009. Evaluation of the Potential for Gas and CO₂ Leakage Along
518 Wellbores. *SPE Drilling & Completion* 24, 115–126. <https://doi.org/10.2118/106817-PA>

519 Whalen, S.C., 2005. Biogeochemistry of Methane Exchange between Natural Wetlands and the
520 Atmosphere. *Environmental Engineering Science* 22, 73–94.
521 <https://doi.org/10.1089/ees.2005.22.73>

522 Xu, L., Lin, X., Amen, J., Welding, K., McDermitt, D., 2014. Impact of changes in barometric
523 pressure on landfill methane emission. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles* 28, 679–695.
524 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2013GB004571>

525 Yang, W.-B., Yuan, C.-S., Chen, W.-H., Yang, Y.-H., Hung, C.-H., 2017. Diurnal Variation of
526 Greenhouse Gas Emission from Petrochemical Wastewater Treatment Processes Using
527 In-situ Continuous Monitoring System and the Associated Effect on Emission Factor
528 Estimation. *Aerosol and Air Quality Research* 17, 2608–2623.
529 <https://doi.org/10.4209/aaqr.2017.08.0276>

530 Zavala-Araiza, D., Lyon, D.R., Alvarez, R.A., Davis, K.J., Harriss, R., Herndon, S.C., Karion,
531 A., Kort, E.A., Lamb, B.K., Lan, X., Marchese, A.J., Pacala, S.W., Robinson, A.L.,
532 Shepson, P.B., Sweeney, C., Talbot, R., Townsend-Small, A., Yacovitch, T.I., Zimmerle,
533 D.J., Hamburg, S.P., 2015. Reconciling divergent estimates of oil and gas methane
534 emissions. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 201522126.
535 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1522126112>