



THE UNIVERSITY *of* EDINBURGH

Edinburgh Research Explorer

Perspectives on removal of atmospheric methane

Citation for published version:

Ming, T, Li, W, Yuan, Q, Davies, P, De Richter, R, Peng, C, Deng, Q, Yuan, Y, Caillol, S & Zhou, N 2022, 'Perspectives on removal of atmospheric methane', *Advances in Applied Energy*, pp. 100085. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adapen.2022.100085>

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1016/j.adapen.2022.100085](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adapen.2022.100085)

Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Published In:

Advances in Applied Energy

General rights

Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Edinburgh Research Explorer is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

The University of Edinburgh has made every reasonable effort to ensure that Edinburgh Research Explorer content complies with UK legislation. If you believe that the public display of this file breaches copyright please contact openaccess@ed.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.



Perspectives on removal of atmospheric methane

Tingzhen Ming¹, Wei Li², Qingchun Yuan³, Philip Davies⁴, Renaud de Richter⁵,
Chong Peng⁶, Qihong Deng⁷, Yanping Yuan⁸, Sylvain Caillol⁹, Nan Zhou^{10,*}

¹ School of Civil Engineering and Architecture, Wuhan University of Technology, Wuhan 430070, P. R. China.

² Institute for Materials and Processes, School of Engineering, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH9 3FB, Scotland, UK

³ School of Engineering & Applied Science, Aston University, Birmingham, B4 7ET, UK

⁴ School of Engineering, University of Birmingham, Edgbaston, Birmingham, B15 2TT, UK

⁵ Tour-Solaire.fr, 8 Impasse des Papillons, 34090 Montpellier, France

⁶ School of Architecture and Urban Planning, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430074, China

⁷ School of Energy Science and Engineering, Central South University, Changsha 410083, China

⁸ School of Mechanical Engineering, Southwest Jiaotong University, Chengdu 610031, China

⁹ ICGM, University of Montpellier, CNRS, ENSCM, Montpellier, France

¹⁰ Energy Technologies Area, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, 1 Cyclotron Road, Berkeley, CA 94720 USA

* Corresponding author

Keywords: methane removal, photocatalysis, chlorine atoms, hydroxyl radicals, zeolites, methane mitigation, methane remediation, enhanced atmospheric methane oxidation

Highlights:

- Action on methane is the easiest and faster way to slow down global warming
- At COP26 105 countries signed 'the methane pledge' for -30% CH₄ emissions by 2030
- CH₄ removal (remediation) is complementary with reducing CH₄ emissions (mitigation)
- Atmospheric CH₄ removal methods are described and early costs estimates provided

- Co-benefits include: human health, agriculture, economy, and ozone layer recovery.

Abstract

Methane's contribution to radiative forcing is second only to that of CO₂. Though previously neglected, methane is now gaining increasing public attention as a GHG. At the recent COP26 in Glasgow, 105 countries signed "the methane pledge" committing to a 30% reduction in emissions from oil and gas by 2030 compared to 2020 levels. Removal methods are complementary to such reduction, as they can deal with other sources of anthropogenic emissions as well as legacy emissions already accumulated in the troposphere. They can also provide future insurance in case biogenic emissions start rising significantly. This article reviews proposed methods for atmospheric methane removal at a climatically significant scale. These methods include enhancement of natural hydroxyl and chlorine sinks, photocatalysis in solar updraft towers, zeolite catalyst in direct air capture devices, and methanotrophic bacteria. Though these are still at an early stage of development, a comparison is provided with some carbon dioxide removal methods in terms of expected costs. The cheapest method is potentially enhancement of the chlorine natural sink, costing as little as \$1.6 per ton CO₂-eq, but this should be carried out over remote areas to avoid endangering human health. Complementarity with methane emissions reduction is also discussed.

1. Introduction

A spotlight on methane versus carbon dioxide

While the atmospheric stock of carbon dioxide (CO₂) in the atmosphere has increased by about 50% since preindustrial time (417 vs 278 ppm), that of methane (CH₄) has more than doubled (1879 vs 722 ppb) [1]. Although the importance of CH₄ as a greenhouse gas has been known about for many years, as reflected by the Kyoto protocol of 1997 [2], until recently public attention focused mainly on CO₂. Most mitigation and remediation proposals targeted CO₂.

Recently, however, more attention is being given to CH₄. Thus, in November 2021, at the UN Climate Change Conference (COP 26) held in Glasgow, 105 participating countries signed “*The Global Methane Pledge*” committing to a 30% reduction in emissions from oil and gas by 2030 relative to 2020 [3]. Moreover, the new contribution of Working Group 1 to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC WR1 AR6) released on August 2021 [4] highlights the need to quickly reduce global CH₄ emissions to slow warming [5, 6] and “buy us time” [7].

Previously, on July 2021, a U.S.-Russia Joint Statement Addressing the Climate Challenge expressed their intent to work together bilaterally to address climate change, including emissions reductions from non-CO₂ greenhouse gases (GHGs), including CH₄ [8]. Methane featured in the agenda of the recent U.S. Leaders’ Climate Summit. Meanwhile, the Chinese 14th Five-Year Plan presented in March 2021 was expanded to include CH₄ and other non-CO₂ gases [9], and China’s biggest gas and oil producer is targeting a 50% reduction in CH₄ emission intensity by 2025 [10]. The United Nations Environment Program (UNEP) and the Climate and Clean Air Coalition in their “Global Methane Assessment” [11] as well as the International Energy Agency [12] are calling for urgent action to cut CH₄ emissions, and scientists and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) are calling for atmospheric CH₄ removal [13][14].

These calls and decisions are timely. In the absence of further climate action, by the end of the century, global-mean warming due only to CH₄ emissions could contribute to about 0.9°C (±0.2°C), compared to a warming of about 0.5°C (±0.1°C) currently, due to historical CH₄ emissions [15], and compared to the Paris agreement target of less than 2°C global warming including all GHGs.

The atmospheric concentration of CH₄ is rising

In 2020, despite Covid-19 shutdowns, the annual increase in atmospheric CH₄ was the largest recorded since 1983, when systematic measurements began [16]. Since the preindustrial era, tropospheric concentrations of CO₂ and CH₄ have increased by 47% and 167%, respectively [1]. Since 2007, tropospheric CH₄ has been rising rapidly, with an average annual growth rate of 9.3 parts per billion (ppb) (approximately 0.4% year⁻¹) between 2014 and 2019 [1]. Over a longer timescale, CH₄ concentrations have multiplied 3.28 times from a minimum of 570 ppb, reached 5,000 years ago [17]. The IPCC [18] predicts that, over the next 10 to 20 years, CH₄ and CO₂ will have similar global warming impacts, as measured by heat absorbed (global warming potential,

GWP) and temperature rise (Global Temperature change Potential, GTP). See Figure 1.

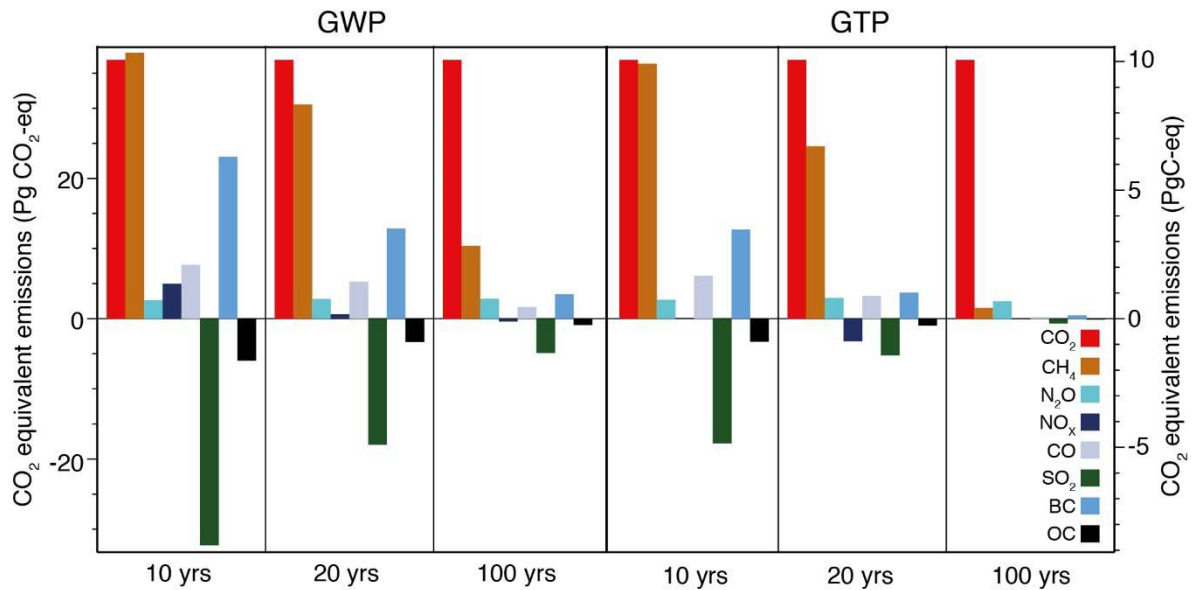


Figure 1: Equivalent emissions of the principal GHGs, on a GWP and GTP basis, compared over a time horizon of 10, 20, and 100 years, from the IPCC [18]

Besides slowing global warming, CH₄ removal also can help protect the ozone layer, because one of the indirect effects of the rising concentrations of CH₄ is the increasing amounts of water in the stratosphere, which participates in ozone layer depletion [19].

Whereas the natural capacity of the atmosphere to remove GHGs remains roughly constant [20, 21], CH₄ emissions from the major natural and anthropogenic sources are increasing [16]. The biogenic sources include tropical wetlands [22], lakes [23], ponds, hydroelectric reservoirs [24], and rivers [25]; and human-made sources include fossil fuels (coal mines, oil and gas wells); agriculture (livestock and rice cultivation); landfills; and some of the biomass burning due to intentional wildfires [26].

CH₄ emissions from the fossil fuel industry are uncertain but recently shown to be approximately 40% higher than previously estimated [27]. They include venting, flaring, and fugitive emissions of global diesel and gasoline [28], as well as leaks in gas distribution and use [29].

Due to warming oceans and surface air temperatures, several scientists perceive a risk of massive release of CH₄ by destabilization of seafloor methane-hydrates [30-32]

and Arctic permafrost thaw [33, 34]. Some observed CH₄ fluxes from 5 to 24 grams per square meter per day (gm⁻²day⁻¹) were observed in 2013 [35]. However, some consider such risks to be lower, mainly thanks to microbial CH₄ consumption by methanotrophs [36-39] whose populations rise with the increasing abundance of CH₄. Meanwhile, increasing CH₄ emissions due to warming of wetlands and landfills, eutrophication of lakes [24], and fossil fuel extraction [40] are rising.

Most anthropogenic CH₄ emissions come from agriculture and waste management, which together constitute 60% of anthropogenic and 38% of total emissions. CH₄ emissions from oil and gas industries represent about 33% of anthropogenic emissions and about 17-19% of total CH₄ emissions, with extraction, processing and distribution accounting for about 2/3 and coal mining for 1/3 [26]. According to the UNEP, by fixing leaks and reduce venting and flaring, many CH₄ emissions reductions in the oil and gas industry can result in negative costs, as capturing CH₄ adds revenue [11].

The rapid rise of atmospheric CH₄ concentration requires action to try to limit global warming well below 2°C as targeted by the COP21 Paris Agreement, bearing in mind that the GWP of CH₄ is nearly 28 times higher than that of CO₂ on a 100-year basis, and 84 times higher on a 20-year basis [18]. Moreover, because CH₄ depletes the atmospheric reservoir of hydroxyl radicals responsible for removing CH₄ itself, large additions of CH₄ to the atmosphere extends the lifetime and GWP of the CH₄ already in the atmosphere [41, 42].

In the next section the importance of focusing in CH₄ reduction is explained. The following sections review the infrastructure needed for large-scale CH₄ removal with the methods and strategies proposed so far, summarizing the advantages and disadvantages of those methods, and their potential costs compared to some CO₂ removal technologies. Then some expected co-benefits are discussed, before the concluding remarks.

2. Actions are needed against methane emissions and its atmospheric stock

Methods have been proposed to limit and reduce CH₄ emissions from several anthropogenic sources [43-45]: examples include better management of landfill (separate biodegradable waste) and coal, oil and gas fields (reduce leakage, recovering instead of flaring, capturing instead of venting, etc.) [11, 15], as well as

dietary changes to reduce emissions from livestock populations [46]. But few of these can be adapted to natural emissions, which are diffuse over large areas of thousands to millions of square kilometers and/or partly inaccessible. Unfortunately, most CH₄ emissions come from such diffuse natural biogenic sources [44], which by top-down estimations represent about 40% of total emissions [26]. Biogenic emissions come mainly from wetlands (31%) and a smaller part (7%) from freshwater systems, oceans, estuaries, permafrost, termites, wild animals and vegetation. Other estimates of the natural CH₄ emissions are of about 50% [47], as well as 50% by bottom-up estimates [26].

Removal or remediation methods seem even more technologically challenging, because they need to deplete CH₄ already released to the atmosphere, where it has been diluted about 0.5 million times in an air volume of some 1.4 billion cubic kilometers. In addition, the relatively short life cycle of atmospheric CH₄ (about 10 years) means that removal would have to be ongoing to reduce the concentration by a target amount. This contrasts with CO₂, for which a one-off removal achieves an almost permanent reduction. Further, CH₄ molecules are about 200 times scarcer in the atmosphere than CO₂ molecules. Unlike CO₂, however, CH₄ and other GHGs can be removed by in-situ oxidation, to products with no GWP or with much lower GWP than CH₄; for instance, CO₂ is obtained from CH₄ and nitrogen and oxygen from nitrous oxide (N₂O) without the need of capture, separation, or storage. The oxidation reaction is exothermic and exergonic, and as such requires no minimum energy input once the activation energy is overcome. This differs from CO₂, which requires at least 18 kJ mol⁻¹ for its separation from the atmosphere [48], and more energy still if CO₂ is to be reduced to carbon or organic compounds such as industrial polymers [49]. Removal of CH₄ may be considered an acceleration of the natural oxidation processes, as once in the atmosphere it finally ends-up as CO₂.

3. Infrastructure needed for treating large volumes of air

As CH₄ is a well-mixed GHG, and its life expectancy in the troposphere is approximately 10 years, in order to have an impact on global warming, some authors have proposed that at least one-tenth of the atmosphere has to be processed every year, to compete with natural sinks [43]. In reality, any process of a portfolio of technologies allowing the atmospheric CH₄ concentration to start decreasing (while the

imbalance between sources and sinks is currently increasing) will reduce its direct global warming impacts, as well as its indirect impacts (due to tropospheric ozone generation) on health, food production, and primary productivity [50, 51].

Boucher et al. first proposed direct atmospheric CH₄ removal in 2010 [52], but found that available technologies (zeolite minerals, adsorption filters, molecular sieves, and cryogenic separation) did not appear to be energetically or economically suitable for large scale CH₄ capture from air. Consequently, instead of CH₄ capture, they proposed to directly oxidize it in-situ by a variety of possible methods, including bio-inspired aqueous-phase catalytic oxidation, bio-reactors containing methanogens, enzymatic systems, and catalysts made of precious metals. But these authors did not provide any specific details about how to process the very large volume of air in the atmosphere, concluding that these ideas were speculative.

Lockley [53] proposed several additional mitigation or removal techniques, such as: ignition of CH₄ at point sources, lake sealing with impermeable covers or with non-biodegradable foaming agents, ducting CH₄ bubble streams from underwater sources, and others. Again, in the absence of specific details, these ideas seem speculative.

Later, researchers proposed adding to the atmosphere CH₄ depleting agents such as chlorine (Cl) atoms generated by iron salt aerosols in the air [43, 54] or using human made infrastructure devoted to another use. These could include:

- solar updraft chimneys (SUT) [55], which produce CO₂-free renewable electricity and each unit can process on the order of 6,000 cubic kilometers (km³) of air per year;
- direct air capture (DAC) systems [56] that are being developed to capture CO₂ from air [57, 58].

Existing infrastructure could be used for CH₄ removal. For example, titanium dioxide in self-cleaning windows or other photocatalytic coatings such as paintings on buildings could contribute to CH₄ removal and attract carbon credits and certificates, thus helping to finance future removal infrastructure. Aircrafts, wind turbines, or other structures already in contact with large quantities of air might also provide reaction surfaces to oxidize CH₄.

4. Principal methods for enhancing atmospheric methane removal

Enhancing the main natural CH₄ sinks

Currently, in the troposphere, the principal natural CH₄ sinks are the hydroxyl radicals (which remove nearly 90% of the CH₄) [59], chlorine atoms (which remove about 2.5% of the CH₄) [60], minerals in soils and dust [61], soil microbes, plants and trees. Enhancing those natural sinks can be a strategy to increase atmospheric CH₄ removal.

4.1 Enhancing the hydroxyl radical °OH and targeting in majority point sources

Atmospheric natural self-cleansing and volatile organic compound (VOC) removal is mainly due to hydroxyl radicals [62]. Hydroxyl radical generators, as well as ozone generators, are commercially available, and indoor VOC pollution can be efficiently controlled by short-wave ultraviolet (UVC) light in closed systems [63]. Some coauthors of this article are working on methods to enhance the °OH sink of CH₄ and reduce its lifetime, although still more research is needed to be able to provide cost estimates and quantitative estimates of efficacy [64]. Still, the increasing efficiency and lifetime and the decreasing costs of ultra-violet light-emitting diodes (UV-LEDs) are promising. Research conducted at the University of Copenhagen has led to the creation of start-ups such as Infuser and AirLabs, which already apply this technology to point sources [65]. Several other possible strategies to generate °OH radicals and apply them in the open atmosphere might be possible, based on the numerous and complex mechanisms by which they are produced [66]. Knowing the intensity of sunlight UV, the °OH radical concentration can be predicted [67]. But care has to be taken not to expose human beings, animals, and plants to dangerous UV radiation and to ozone.

4.2 Enhancing the natural chlorine sink of CH₄—at the molecular level

In 2017, some of the coauthors of this article proposed to deplete the atmospheric CH₄ directly in the lower troposphere with Cl atoms [54, 57], mainly but not exclusively under the marine boundary layer. Recent scientific research from 2015–2017 proved that Cl atoms can be generated in large amounts from the sodium chloride (NaCl) content of natural sea-spray aerosols, thanks to an iron(III)/iron(II) sunlight photocatalyzed reaction [68, 69]. Acidity (pH<3) found over coastal areas is naturally generated from NaCl by acid displacement with biogenic sulfate and nitrate [70]. However, it also can be enhanced by anthropogenic pollution due to combustion

sources, where nitrogen oxides and sulfur oxides are further oxidized in the atmosphere into nitric and sulfuric acids that react with sea salt to generate hydrochloric acid and sodium nitrate and sodium sulfate salts. Figure 2 illustrates a possible way by which CH₄ is already being removed by enhancing its chlorine sink.

Over polluted coastal areas, the chlorine sink destroys up to 11% of CH₄ [71]. It is worth noting that authors in favor of this method do not propose enhancing acid air pollution, and do not target the enhancement of the Cl atom generation over populated areas or coasts [54, 72]. As CH₄ is a well-mixed GHG, it can be removed anywhere at atmospheric concentrations (about 1.9 ppm), consequently they propose to do so in remote unpopulated areas. They also plan to address point sources of CH₄, where it is more concentrated, to deplete it before it becomes diluted and mixed in the global atmosphere, and in this case the Cl atom generation will be carried out in closed systems such as the existing ventilation systems of coal mines, with very low risks.



Figure 2: A container ship powered by bunker fuel mixed with commercially available iron additives [73, 74] which are sold to reduce black carbon and carbon monoxide (CO) emissions and to reduce fuel consumption. In the exhaust plume, the iron compounds react with sea salt to produce iron chloride (FeCl₃), which under sunlight generates Cl atoms [69] that oxidize CH₄ 16 times faster than °OH radicals [71].

4.3 Enhancing the natural mineral sink of CH₄—on surfaces

In 2017, it was proposed to perform CH₄ depletion by large scale photocatalysis [55] using solar updraft chimneys (SUT), which are structures able to process very large volumes of air, as illustrated by Figure 3. As an example, a hypothetical 400-MW SUT would process 38,000 km³ of air yearly [75, 76].

The proposed photocatalyst for CH₄ depletion is a semiconductor metal oxide: a zinc oxide (ZnO) doped with 0.1% silver (Ag) [77]. It is expected to remove 50% of the CH₄ from the air processed thanks to sunlight at ambient temperatures [55].

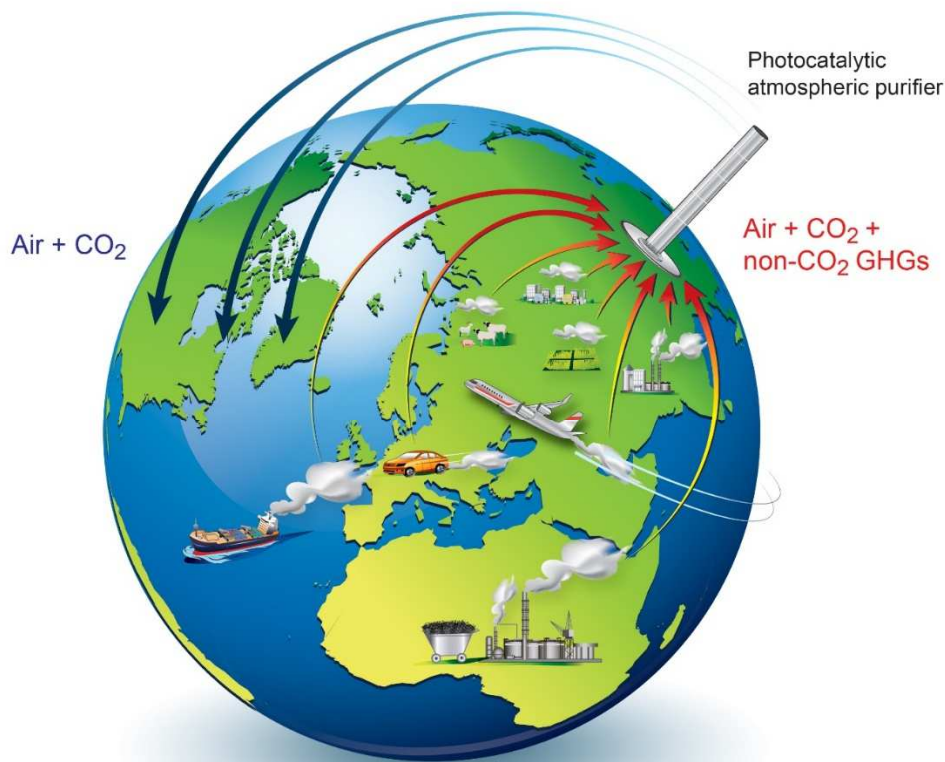


Figure 3: A photocatalytic solar updraft tower concept to remove atmospheric CH₄, nitrous oxide (N₂O), and other GHGs, from [55].

Then in 2018, DAC devices were proposed to remove atmospheric CH₄ alongside CO₂, using the same ZnO-0.1%Ag photocatalyst illustrated by Figure 4. The enormous

energy costs of fan-driven DAC make it less attractive than passive generation of large airflows by the SUT devices proposed above. Nonetheless, it is anticipated that the DAC technology will develop rapidly to remove CO₂ from the atmosphere. Once DAC plants exist, profiting from this existing infrastructure by upgrading it to also remove CH₄ could enhance the capture yields in terms of CO₂-eq by 20%. Depending on the CH₄ oxidation yields and costs, it could be advantageous, especially since the removal of other GHGs also seems feasible [55, 78, 79] and does not introduce a pressure drop requiring more energy for the fans, and no additional CO₂ capture capacity would be required [55].

In 2019, other scientists proposed the use of DAC devices dedicated to CH₄ capture by zeolites and then removal of CH₄ using a thermal catalyst [58]. No published data was found on the pressure drop across the zeolite, making it difficult to know if the DAC device might be attractive to capture CO₂ also. Lackner [80] commented on this proposal by pointing to the extreme dilution of CH₄ in air (200 times more dilute than CO₂) which (based on the Sherwood law) may cause a three-order of magnitude energy penalty in using fan-driven DAC systems – thus suggesting that approaches should take advantage of natural air flow and use passive methods. Both the comment and the response [81] mention that it would be more interesting to remove N₂O, the third most important GHG by its radiative forcing, with an atmospheric lifetime estimated to 114 years and a GWP₁₀₀ nearly 300 times higher than of CO₂. Such a proposal was made in 2016 [78].

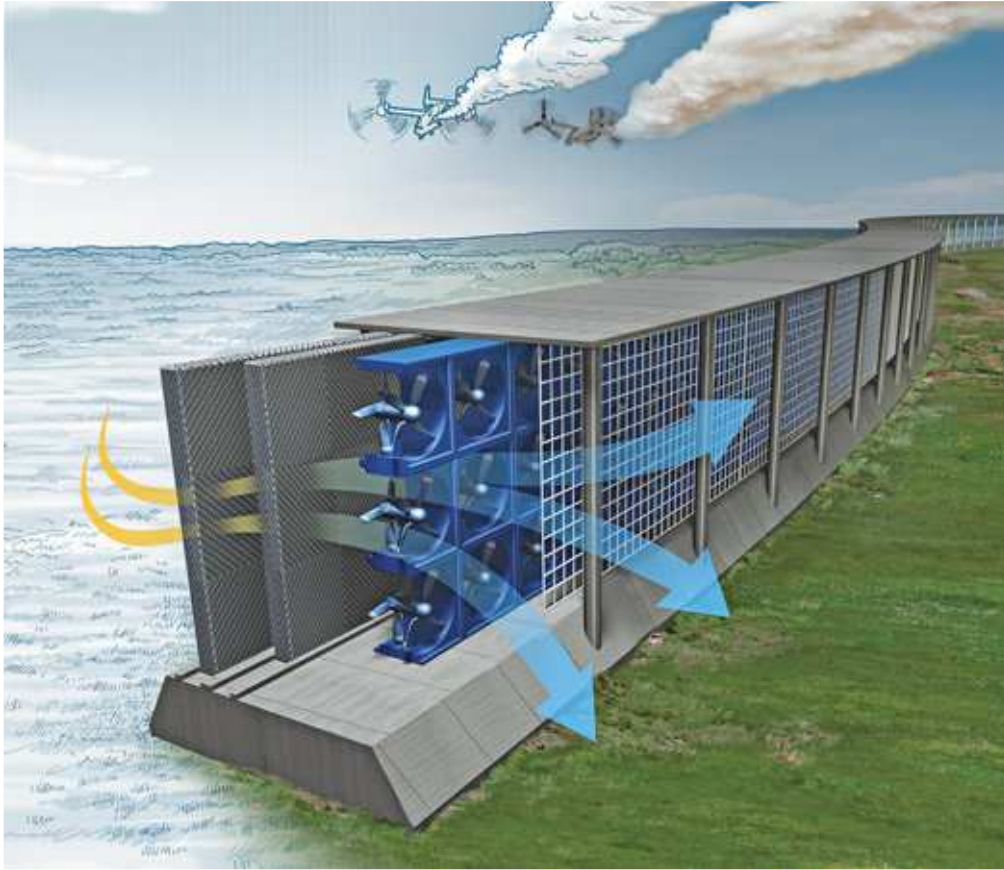


Figure 4: A hypothetical industrial DAC device with added photocatalyst, proposed to oxidize CH_4 into CO_2 [57]. Reproduced from John Bradley [82].

Two proposals [55, 57] also suggested removal of other GHGs (like N_2O , as well as many halogenated GHG gases) with very high global warming potentials, which also damage the stratospheric ozone layer and are included in the Montreal Protocol. A long list of possible photocatalysts was proposed [78, 79], mainly titanium dioxide derivatives, all acting at ambient temperature and activated by sunlight. Consequently, not only CH_4 , but almost all non- CO_2 GHGs are targeted by the photocatalytic method [55].

In table 1, the principal methods of CH_4 removal are summarized.

Table 1: Summary of the methane removal methods, technologies and estimated costs. For comparison, some methane mitigation strategies are also briefly described.

Method	Principal targets	Description, possible costs and comments	Ref.
Both for removal and mitigation of CH₄ ¹			
Zeolites + catalysis	Point sources such as ventilation systems; and global atmosphere	<p>For removal, using air moving devices such as Direct CO₂ Air Capture plants associated with zeolites and a catalyst, if the DAC plant is only devoted to CH₄ capture and oxidation, costs might be slightly higher than for CO₂ capture [80] as tropospheric CH₄ is more than 200 times more diluted than CO₂ and air handling will consume more energy. But if passive systems are used and as on zeolites some catalysts can oxidize CH₄ at room temperature [83] and as no capture, no purification, no compression, no transport and no long-term storage is required in the case of CH₄ compared to CO₂, then global costs might be reduced, with a target cost-range of \$100 ton⁻¹ of CO₂-eq [84].</p> <p>In case of use of hybrid CO₂ DAC plants upgraded to also capture and oxidize CH₄, the costs might be lower, as almost all the infrastructure and the air-flow already exist.</p>	[85]

Photocatalysis on surfaces	Point sources such as ventilation systems; and global atmosphere	The estimated cost $\text{ton}^{-1} \text{CO}_2\text{-eq}$ is \$166 by 2030 with a target of \$100 by 2040 [84].	[55]
Generation of hydroxyl radicals	Point sources such as ventilation systems; and global atmosphere	Estimations for the infrastructure requested, results in cost-range of \$200-1000 per ton of $\text{CO}_2\text{-eq}$ [84]	[64]
Generation of Cl atoms	Point sources such as ventilation systems; and global atmosphere	<p>For CH_4 removal using chlorine atoms, directly in the troposphere, mimicking natural processes costs estimates range from \$ 54 to as low as $\\$1.7 \text{ ton}^{-1} \text{CO}_2\text{-eq}$ [86]. A startup targets costs of about $\\$1.6 \text{ ton}^{-1} \text{CO}_2\text{-eq}$ [87].</p> <p>Those estimations of the costs look very favorable but are uncertain prior to demonstration, waiting for field trails which cannot start before a full-scale environmental assessment has been conducted.</p> <p>For CH_4 mitigation at point sources, for instance in ventilation systems of coal mines where CH_4 is more concentrated, costs might even be lower as the infrastructure and the air-flow already exist and the generation of Cl atoms can be made by photolysis of Cl_2 gas, produced</p>	[54, 72]

		<p>by the well-established chlor-alkali industrial process.</p> <p>Possible co-benefit: iron salt aerosols provide iron to depleted oceans, with possible CO₂ capture in the oceans at costs about \$1 ton⁻¹ of CO₂ [72] based on the “Redfield ratio” of oceanic C-N-P-Fe stoichiometry and assuming 10% sequestration in the bottom of the oceans.</p>	
Methanotrophic bacteria	Point sources	(see next section) Spraying methanotrophs cultures on point sources such as trees which transfer CH ₄ from underground to the atmosphere, or over large thawing permafrost areas and wetlands	[52]
CH₄ mitigation only ²			
Food modification	Cattle breeding to reduce enteric CH ₄ emissions	<p>Among effective feed additives for beef: 3-nitrooxypropanol and nitrates (respectively 22% and 14% CH₄ reduction)</p> <p>Many other feeds are effective, but less: chestnut, coconut, grape pomace, linseed, red seaweed...</p> <p>The practice may not be generalizable.</p> <p>Probably low global impact.</p>	[46, 88]
Biochar	Manure Sewage sludge	Co-composting can reduce CH ₄ emissions by about 80%	[46]

Bio-covers For enhancing anaerobic oxidation of CH ₄	Landfills with municipal solid waste	Several types of bio-covers exist, oxygenation of the soil is necessary. A better future strategy consists of removing all fermentable organic matter from new landfills.	[89, 90]
Leak repair	Oil & gas industry	The “methane pledge” signed at COP26 targets 30% reduction by 2030, from oil and gas industries.	[3, 91]
Thermal catalysis	Coal mines (Ventilation systems of)	Usually applicable for CH ₄ concentration about 0.5-1% as the reaction is exothermic it can be self-sustained. If CH ₄ >1.5% energy generation is possible.	[92, 93]

¹ Although it is yet too early in the development process to have accurate cost estimates for CH₄ removal directly in the troposphere, initial estimations have been provided

² Provided for illustration purposes only, as mitigation is out of the scope of this review and has been reviewed elsewhere [15, 43-46].

4.4 Enhancing the sinks by the use of plants, trees, and microbes

Mitigation of landfill CH₄ emissions using soil amendments such as biochar [94], and microbial CH₄ oxidation processes with bio-covers [90] or bio-trickling filters are well-established methods [95]. Adding methanotrophs to flooded paddy soil also mitigates CH₄ emissions [96]. Enhancing methanotrophic activity is among the mitigation methods proposed to prevent CH₄ from reaching the atmosphere [44, 45]. Similar methods also might be possible for greenhouse gas removal (GGR), as it has been shown that an important CH₄ sink can be created by cropland reforestation [97]. One can probably imagine that for afforestation projects and for the “one trillion trees” initiative, planting trees that absorb tropospheric CH₄ [98] in addition to CO₂ (instead

of plants and trees that emit CH₄ [98]), as recently observed in the seasonally flooded Amazon floodplain, is a good idea – especially if using local trees species, and if biodiversity is preserved or restored, without competing with agricultural land.

Airborne microbes are abundant in the atmosphere [99] and subject to long-range transport [100], so it might be possible to enhance the amount of CH₄ consuming microorganisms (methanotrophs) [101] for instance by enhancing the amount of methanotrophs already present on the bark of tree trunks [102]. Currently, plants, trees, and microbes represent 5%–6% of the sinks for atmospheric CH₄, but to our knowledge apart a brief mention [52], no large-scale strategy has yet been proposed to take advantage of these sinks.

5. Discussion

The main benefit of returning to CH₄ pre-industrial levels will be to reduce global warming by up to 0.5°C [103], which can help reduce a temperature overshoot above 2°C by mid-century [104].

The expression “at a climatically significant scale” often appears in discussions about GHG removal, but lacks precise definition. Perhaps one benchmark could be the amount of GHG removal achieved up to now. According to the International Energy Agency [105], after 10 years of development, existing DAC installations captured just 9,000 tons CO₂ yr⁻¹ in 2019. The report of three U.S. National Academies [106] on negative emissions technologies (NETs) considers “coastal blue carbon” (mangroves) as being of interest, for a global potential of 0.13 Gt CO₂ removal per year and of only 0.02 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹ in the United States. After a half-century of development, solar photovoltaics and wind turbines are now cost-competitive with other electricity generating technologies. In 2018, PV and wind turbines avoided respectively 0.15 and 0.37 gigatons of CO₂-equivalent per year (Mt CO₂-eq yr⁻¹) [107, 108], compared to only a few tons per year five decades ago. Even though these savings are still small compared to global CO₂ emissions (currently about 40 gigatons CO₂-eq yr⁻¹), many people would consider them significant. When “net-zero” is reached in the second half of this century, renewable energy will be preponderant.

Without knowing much about potential energy costs, and costs of scaling up, it is very difficult to understand and predict how feasible CH₄ removal technologies can be. But

in our opinion, even if during the first decade following their invention, a very small-scale effective efficiency is obtained at very high cost, technologies able to avoid GHG emissions or able to remove GHGs already in the atmosphere deserve attention as soon as their scalability and globalization seems possible. Otherwise, the criterion of “at a climatically significant scale” may lead to too many options being dismissed and too few remaining, while the scale of the global warming problem requires a large portfolio of methods and technologies to be developed. A significant scale might be achieved as the sum of many contributions that are not individually very significant.

There are several direct and indirect co-benefits to reduced CH₄ atmospheric concentrations. The rapid climate benefits of reducing the concentration of CH₄ in the atmosphere are significant [15] for agriculture and the economy [109, 110] as the tropospheric ozone burden enhanced by CH₄ will also be reduced [103]. Lower surface ozone concentrations will increase crops yields and global photosynthesis, potentially allowing some CO₂ removal [51]. The co-benefits for human health are numerous [111], as it will reduce hospitalizations, asthma and pulmonary diseases and premature deaths due to the linked ozone pollution [11]. Development of CH₄ removal methods is still in its infancy and requires more research, development and funding [85].

Some of the CH₄ enhanced oxidation methods proposed will have other co-benefits. As °OH and Cl atoms are very reactive and not very selective, by enhancing their generation several other GHGs and atmospheric pollutants will be removed faster than CH₄. This includes, for instance VOCs, whose removal will help reduce CH₄ lifetime [112]. Such VOCs include also organo-halogens, human made hydrofluorocarbons and hydrochlorofluorocarbons, as well as natural biogenic halogenated-methane compounds produced mainly by oceanic plankton and bacteria [113]. The latter are not considered to be GHGs, but they participate in the stratospheric ozone layer natural cycle of destruction [114]. By reducing faster the amount of natural biogenic halogenated-methane compounds in the lower troposphere, as well as by reducing the water content of the stratosphere due to CH₄ oxidation [19], the ozone layer might recover faster.

Of course, the main benefit of returning to CH₄ pre-industrial levels will be to reduce global warming by up to about 0.5°C [103], which can help reduce a temperature overshoot above 2°C by mid-century [104].

6. Concluding remarks

This perspective article has discussed different strategies (some already proposed and several new ones) to accelerate the removal of already emitted CH₄, reducing its radiative forcing by direct and indirect effects. A reduction of the atmospheric CH₄ burden might help the ozone layer to recover faster and will have rapid climate benefits together with significant co-benefits for agriculture, human health and the economy.

Unlike CO₂ removal methods, the CH₄ removal methods described here do not require capture and long-term geological sequestration as for CO₂, as they only accelerate the natural oxidation processes that will anyway occur with the products remaining in the atmosphere. By returning to CH₄ pre-industrial levels, the increase of atmospheric CO₂ resulting from CH₄ oxidation is small compared to global CO₂ annual emissions, while the reduction of the radiative forcing could be significant. Net warming could be reduced by about 0.5°C.

Although CH₄ enhanced oxidation methods can be applied both to global tropospheric CH₄ and to some local concentrated sources, removal and mitigation strategies and methods do not necessarily target the same sources and are complementary. In case of an abrupt acceleration of CH₄ emissions from natural sources (e.g. submarine methane-hydrates, or wetlands), the availability of effective and proven techniques would constitute an assurance to avoid a rapid acceleration of global warming.

Those innovative methods deserve more attention from the scientific community to help evaluate their potential risks, costs, public acceptability, and societal appropriation. Together with CO₂ and CH₄ mitigation and with CO₂ removal, CH₄ removal methods can help fight climate change, win time by slowing down warming and thus meet the targets of the Paris Agreement with limited temperature overshoot.

Acknowledgement

This research was supported by the National Key Research and Development Plan (Key Special Project of Inter-governmental National Scientific and Technological Innovation Cooperation, Grant No. 2019YFE0197500), National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 51778511), the European Commission H2020 Marie S Curie Research and Innovation Staff Exchange (RISE) award (Grant No. 871998), Hubei Provincial Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No.2018CFA029), Key

Project of ESI Discipline Development of Wuhan University of Technology (Grant No. 2017001), and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (Grant No. 2019IVB082).

References

1. NOAA. *Global Monitoring Laboratory - Earth System Research laboratories*. https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/trends_ch4/ accessed 20 December 2021. 2019.
2. UNFCCC. *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change - The Kyoto protocol*. https://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol. Accessed 20 december 2021.
3. European-Commission, *Joint EU-US Press Release on the Global Methane Pledge* https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/IP_21_4785 accessed 19 September 2021. 2021.
4. IPCC, *Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* [Masson-Delmotte, V., P. Zhai, A. Pirani, S. L. Connors, C. Péan, S. Berger, N. Caud, Y. Chen, L. Goldfarb, M. I. Gomis, M. Huang, K. Leitzell, E. Lonnoy, J. B. R. Matthews, T. K. Maycock, T. Waterfield, O. Yelekçi, R. Yu and B. Zhou (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press. In Press. <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg1/#FullReport> Accessed 10 August. 2021.
5. The-Guardian. *Reduce methane or face climate catastrophe, scientists warn*. <https://www.theguardian.com/environment/2021/aug/06/reduce-methane-or-face-climate-catastrophe-scientists-warn> accessed 6 August 2021. 2021.
6. CNN. *Scientists say this invisible gas could seal our fate on climate change*. <https://edition.cnn.com/2021/08/11/us/methane-climate-change/index.html> Accessed 12 August 2021. 2021.
7. BBC. *Climate change: Curbing methane emissions will 'buy us time'* <https://www.bbc.com/news/science-environment-58174111> Accessed 12 August 2021. 2021.
8. US-GOV. *U.S.-Russia Joint Statement Addressing the Climate Challenge, 15 July 2021*. <https://www.state.gov/u-s-russia-joint-statement-addressing-the-climate-challenge/> accessed 16 July 2021.
9. You, L. *China to Reduce Emissions of Methane, a Powerful Greenhouse Gas*. 22 March 2021. <https://www.sixthtone.com/news/1006954/china-to-reduce-emissions-of-methane%2C-a-powerful-greenhouse-gas> accessed 16 July 2021.
10. Reuters. *China's CNPC targets 50% slash in methane emission intensity by 2025*. 2 July 2020. <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-china-cnpc-carbon-idINKBN2430P7>, assessed 16 July 2021.
11. UNEP. *Global Methane Assessment: Benefits and Costs of Mitigating Methane Emissions*. <https://www.unep.org/resources/report/global-methane-assessment-benefits-and-costs-mitigating-methane-emissions>, accessed 22 June 2021. ISBN: 978-92-807-3854-4. 2021.
12. IEA. *IEA calls on companies, governments and regulators to take urgent action to cut methane emissions from oil and gas sector*. 18 January 2021. <https://www.iea.org/news/iea-calls-on-companies-governments-and-regulators-to-take-urgent-action-to-cut-methane-emissions-from-oil-and-gas-sector>, assessed 17 July 2021.
13. Methane-Action. *Scientists' Statement on Lowering Atmospheric Methane Concentrations* <https://methaneaction.org/expert-statement-oxidation-methane/> Accessed 11 August 2021. 2021.
14. Methane-Action. *Declaration on Reducing Atmospheric Methane* <https://methaneaction.org/letter-in-support-of-declaration-on-reducing-atmospheric-methane-2/>, accessed 19 September 2021. 2021.

15. Ocko, I.B., et al., *Acting rapidly to deploy readily available methane mitigation measures by sector can immediately slow global warming*. Environmental Research Letters, 2021. **16**(5): p. 054042.
16. NOAA. *Despite pandemic shutdowns, carbon dioxide and methane surged in 2020*. <https://research.noaa.gov/article/ArtMID/587/ArticleID/2742/Despite-pandemic-shutdowns-carbon-dioxide-and-methane-surged-in-2020>, accessed 22 June 2021. 2021.
17. Ruddiman, W.F., *Plows, plagues, and petroleum: how humans took control of climate*. ISBN-0-691-12164-8. Chapter 8. Vol. 46. 2010: Princeton University Press.
18. IPCC, *Climate Change 2013, in The Physical Science Basis, Working Group I Contribution to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Stocker, T.F., D. Qin, G.-K. Plattner, M. Tignor, S.K. Allen, J. Boschung, A. Nauels, Y. Xia, V. Bex and P.M. Midgley (eds.)). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK and New York, NY, USA, 1535 pp. <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar5/wg1/>. 2013.
19. Revell, L.E., et al., *The role of methane in projections of 21st century stratospheric water vapour*. Atmospheric Chemistry Physics, 2016. **16**(20): p. 13067-13080.
20. Rigby, M., et al., *Role of atmospheric oxidation in recent methane growth*. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2017. **114**(21): p. 5373-5377.
21. Turner, A.J., et al., *Ambiguity in the causes for decadal trends in atmospheric methane and hydroxyl*. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2017. **114**(21): p. 5367-5372.
22. O'Connor, F.M., et al., *Possible role of wetlands, permafrost, and methane hydrates in the methane cycle under future climate change: A review*. Reviews of Geophysics, 2010. **48**(4).
23. Wik, M., et al., *Climate-sensitive northern lakes and ponds are critical components of methane release*. Nature Geoscience, 2016. **9**(2): p. 99-105.
24. Beaulieu, J.J., T. DelSontro, and J.A. Downing, *Eutrophication will increase methane emissions from lakes and impoundments during the 21st century*. Nature Communications, 2019. **10**(1): p. 1-5.
25. Wilkinson, J., et al., *Continuous seasonal river ebullition measurements linked to sediment methane formation*. Environmental science technology, 2015. **49**(22): p. 13121-13129.
26. Saunio, M., et al., *The global methane budget 2000–2017*. Earth System Science Data, 2020. **12**(3): p. 1561-1623.
27. Hmiel, B., et al., *Preindustrial 14CH₄ indicates greater anthropogenic fossil CH₄ emissions*. Nature, 2020. **578**(7795): p. 409-412.
28. Pieprzyk, B. and P.R. Hilje, *Influence of methane emissions on the GHG emissions of fossil fuels*. Biofuels, Bioproducts Biorefining, 2019. **13**(3): p. 535-551.
29. Schwietzke, S., et al., *Upward revision of global fossil fuel methane emissions based on isotope database*. Nature, 2016. **538**(7623): p. 88-91.
30. Andreassen, K., et al., *Massive blow-out craters formed by hydrate-controlled methane expulsion from the Arctic seafloor*. Science, 2017. **356**(6341): p. 948-953.
31. Cardoso, S.S. and J.H. Cartwright, *Increased methane emissions from deep osmotic and buoyant convection beneath submarine seeps as climate warms*. Nature communications, 2016. **7**(1): p. 1-6.
32. Archer, D., B. Buffett, and V. Brovkin, *Ocean methane hydrates as a slow tipping point in the global carbon cycle*. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2009. **106**(49): p. 20596-20601.
33. Schuur, E.A., et al., *Climate change and the permafrost carbon feedback*. Nature, 2015. **520**(7546): p. 171-179.
34. Holgerson, M.A. and P.A. Raymond, *Large contribution to inland water CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from very small ponds*. Nature Geoscience, 2016. **9**(3): p. 222-226.
35. Shakhova, N., et al., *The East Siberian Arctic Shelf: towards further assessment of permafrost-related methane fluxes and role of sea ice*. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical Engineering Sciences 2015. **373**(2052): p. 20140451.

36. Cooper, M.D., et al., *Limited contribution of permafrost carbon to methane release from thawing peatlands*. *Nature Climate Change*, 2017. **7**(7): p. 507-511.
37. Knoblauch, C., et al., *Methane production as key to the greenhouse gas budget of thawing permafrost*. *Nature Climate Change*, 2018. **8**(4): p. 309-312.
38. Singleton, C.M., et al., *Methanotrophy across a natural permafrost thaw environment*. *The ISME journal*, 2018. **12**(10): p. 2544-2558.
39. Ruppel, C.D. and J.D. Kessler, *The interaction of climate change and methane hydrates*. *Reviews of Geophysics*, 2017. **55**(1): p. 126-168.
40. Dalsøren, S.B., et al., *Discrepancy between simulated and observed ethane and propane levels explained by underestimated fossil emissions*. *Nature Geoscience*, 2018. **11**(3): p. 178-184.
41. Holmes, C., et al., *Future methane, hydroxyl, and their uncertainties: key climate and emission parameters for future predictions*. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 2012. **12**(20): p. 931.
42. Voulgarakis, A., et al., *Analysis of present day and future OH and methane lifetime in the ACCMIP simulations*. *Atmospheric Chemistry Physics*, 2013. **13**(5): p. 2563-2587.
43. Stolaroff, J.K., et al., *Review of methane mitigation technologies with application to rapid release of methane from the Arctic*. *Environmental science technology*, 2012. **46**(12): p. 6455-6469.
44. Nisbet, E., et al., *Methane mitigation: methods to reduce emissions, on the path to the Paris agreement*. *Reviews of Geophysics*, 2020. **58**(1): p. e2019RG000675.
45. Johannisson, J. and M. Hiete, *A Structured Approach for the Mitigation of Natural Methane Emissions—Lessons Learned from Anthropogenic Emissions*. *Journal of Carbon Research*, 2020. **6**(2): p. 24.
46. Kebreab, E. and W. Feng, *Strategies to Reduce Methane Emissions from Enteric and Lagoon Sources (2021)*. <https://ww2.arb.ca.gov/sites/default/files/2020-12/17RD018.pdf> accessed 20 December 2021. .
47. Rosentreter, J.A., et al., *Half of global methane emissions come from highly variable aquatic ecosystem sources*. *Nature Geoscience*, 2021. **14**(4): p. 225-230.
48. Wilcox, J., P.C. Psarras, and S. Liguori, *Assessment of reasonable opportunities for direct air capture*. *Environmental Research Letters*, 2017. **12**(6): p. 065001.
49. Liu, M., et al., *Highly Efficient Synthesis of Functionalizable Polymers from a CO₂/1, 3-Butadiene-Derived Lactone*. *ACS Macro Letters*, 2017. **6**(12): p. 1373-1378.
50. Ainsworth, E.A., et al., *The effects of tropospheric ozone on net primary productivity and implications for climate change*. *Annual review of plant biology*, 2012. **63**: p. 637-661.
51. Feng, Z., et al., *Economic losses due to ozone impacts on human health, forest productivity and crop yield across China*. *Environment international*, 2019. **131**: p. 104966.
52. Boucher, O. and G.A. Folberth, *New directions: atmospheric methane removal as a way to mitigate climate change?* *Atmospheric environment*, 2010. **44**(27): p. 3343-3345.
53. Lockley, A., *Comment on "Review of Methane Mitigation Technologies with Application to Rapid Release of Methane from the Arctic"*. *Environmental science technology*, 2012. **46**(24): p. 13552-13553.
54. Oeste, F.D., et al., *Climate engineering by mimicking natural dust climate control: the iron salt aerosol method*. *Earth System Dynamics*, 2017. **8**(1).
55. de Richter, R., et al., *Removal of non-CO₂ greenhouse gases by large-scale atmospheric solar photocatalysis*. *Progress in Energy Combustion Science*, 2017. **60**: p. 68-96.
56. Keith, D.W., et al., *A process for capturing CO₂ from the atmosphere*. *Joule*, 2018. **2**(8): p. 1573-1594.
57. de Richter, R., et al., *Iron Salt Aerosol and Photocatalytic Solar Chimneys: Two innovative breakthrough technologies to remove greenhouse gases*. <https://www.researchgate.net/> accessed 4th May, 2020, in *Conference on Negative CO₂ Emissions 2018*: Goteborg, in Sweden 22-24 May 2018.

58. Jackson, R.B., et al., *Methane removal and atmospheric restoration*. Nature Sustainability, 2019. **2**(6): p. 436-438.
59. Naik, V., et al., *Preindustrial to present-day changes in tropospheric hydroxyl radical and methane lifetime from the Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison Project (ACCMIP)*. Atmospheric Chemistry Physics, 2013. **13**(10): p. 5277-5298.
60. Hossaini, R., et al., *A global model of tropospheric chlorine chemistry: Organic versus inorganic sources and impact on methane oxidation*. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 2016. **121**(23): p. 14,271-14,297.
61. George, C., et al., *Heterogeneous photochemistry in the atmosphere*. Chemical reviews, 2015. **115**(10): p. 4218-4258.
62. Rohrer, F., et al., *Maximum efficiency in the hydroxyl-radical-based self-cleansing of the troposphere*. Nature Geoscience, 2014. **7**(8): p. 559-563.
63. Johnson, M.S., et al., *Gas-phase advanced oxidation for effective, efficient in situ control of pollution*. Environmental science technology, 2014. **48**(15): p. 8768-8776.
64. Ming, T., et al., *Atmospheric methane removal by enhancing the hydroxyl radical sink*. (yet to be submitted) in preparation, 2021.
65. Startups. <https://infuser.eu/> and <https://www.airlabs.com/> accessed 21 April 2021.
66. Zhao, Y., et al., *Inter-model comparison of global hydroxyl radical (OH) distributions and their impact on atmospheric methane over the 2000–2016 period*. Atmospheric Chemistry Physics, 2019. **19**(21): p. 13701-13723.
67. Wennberg, P.O., *Radicals follow the sun*. Nature, 2006. **442**(7099): p. 145-146.
68. Wittmer, J., et al., *Iron (III)-induced activation of chloride from artificial sea-salt aerosol*. Environmental Chemistry, 2015. **12**(4): p. 461-475.
69. Wittmer, J. and C. Zetzsch, *Photochemical activation of chlorine by iron-oxide aerosol*. Journal of Atmospheric Chemistry, 2017. **74**(2): p. 187-204.
70. Fong, B., K. Newhouse, and H. Ali, *Effect of relative humidity on HCl formation from the reaction of H₂SO₄ and HNO₃ with NaCl particles*. Reaction Kinetics, Mechanisms Catalysis, 2015. **116**(1): p. 273-283.
71. Sommariva, R. and R. von Glasow, *Multiphase halogen chemistry in the tropical Atlantic Ocean*. Environmental science technology, 2012. **46**(19): p. 10429-10437.
72. Ming, T., et al., *A nature-based negative emissions technology able to remove atmospheric methane and other greenhouse gases*. Atmospheric Pollution Research, 2021.
73. Ergin, S., M. Durmaz, and S.S. Kalender, *An experimental investigation on the effects of fuel additive on the exhaust emissions of a ferry*. Proceedings of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, Part M: Journal of Engineering for the Maritime Environment, 2019. **233**(4): p. 1000-1006.
74. Debbarma, S. and R.D. Misra, *Effects of iron nanoparticle fuel additive on the performance and exhaust emissions of a compression ignition engine fueled with diesel and biodiesel*. Journal of Thermal Science Engineering Applications, 2018. **10**(4).
75. de Richter, R., P. Davies, and T. Ming, *An unusual renewable energy device for atmospheric removal of GHGs*, in *The Oxford Greenhouse Gas Removal Conference, 30 September - 2 October 2015*. Oxford University, UK.
76. Schindelin, H., *Entwurf eines 1500m hohen Turms eines Solar-Aufwindkraftwerkes Parameteruntersuchung zur Geometrieoptimierung (Design of a 1500m high tower of a Solar Updraft Chimney: Parameter study of the geometry optimization)*. PhD thesis Univ of Wuppertal (2002) Germany. 2002.
77. Chen, X., et al., *Photocatalytic oxidation of methane over silver decorated zinc oxide nanocatalysts*. Nature communications, 2016. **7**: p. 12273.
78. Ming, T., et al., *Fighting global warming by greenhouse gas removal: destroying atmospheric nitrous oxide thanks to synergies between two breakthrough technologies*. Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 2016. **23**(7): p. 6119-6138.

79. de Richter, R., et al., *Fighting global warming by GHG removal: destroying CFCs and HCFCs in solar-wind power plant hybrids producing renewable energy with no-intermittency*. International Journal of Greenhouse Gas Control, 2016. **49**: p. 449-472.
80. Lackner, K.S., *Practical constraints on atmospheric methane removal*. Nature Sustainability, 2020: p. 1-1.
81. Jackson, R.B., et al., *Reply to: Practical constraints on atmospheric methane removal*. Nature Sustainability, 2020: p. 1-2.
82. Bradley, J., *Environmental Visionaries: The Big Gun*. Popular Science. <https://www.popsci.com/science/article/2010-06/environmental-visionaries-big-gun/> Accessed 15th December 2020, 2010.
83. Snyder, B.E., et al., *The active site of low-temperature methane hydroxylation in iron-containing zeolites*. Nature, 2016. **536**(7616): p. 317-321.
84. Methane-Action. *Private information provided in 2021 by scientists from* <https://methaneaction.org/>. 2021.
85. Jackson, R., et al., *Atmospheric methane removal: A research agenda*. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A. in press 2021.
86. Johnson, M.S. *Methane Removal and Emerging Technologies, Tuesday, 28 September, 2021 at Center for Climate Repair, Cambridge, UK. At 2h02* <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=oFOnsY-2zs> accessed 21 Decemer 2021.
87. AMR. *Atmospheric Methane Removal*. <https://amr.earth/income/> accessed 21 Decemer 2021.
88. Roque, B.M., et al., *Red seaweed (Asparagopsis taxiformis) supplementation reduces enteric methane by over 80 percent in beef steers*. Plos one, 2021. **16**(3): p. e0247820.
89. Majdinasab, A. and Q. Yuan, *Performance of the biotic systems for reducing methane emissions from landfill sites: A review*. Ecological Engineering, 2017. **104**: p. 116-130.
90. Scheutz, C., et al., *Microbial methane oxidation processes and technologies for mitigation of landfill gas emissions*. Waste management research on Chemical Intermediates, 2009. **27**(5): p. 409-455.
91. CCAC. *Climate and Clean Air Coalition, Short-lived climate pollutants: methane*. <https://www.ccacoalition.org/en/slcp/methane> accessed 21 december 2021.
92. Pawlaczyk-Kurek, A. and M. Suwak, *Will It Be Possible to Put into Practice the Mitigation of Ventilation Air Methane Emissions? Review on the State-of-the-Art and Emerging Materials and Technologies*. Catalysts, 2021. **11**(10): p. 1141.
93. Su, S. and J. Agnew, *Catalytic combustion of coal mine ventilation air methane*. Fuel, 2006. **85**(9): p. 1201-1210.
94. Huang, D., et al., *Enhancement of the methane removal efficiency via aeration for biochar-amended landfill soil cover*. Environmental Pollution, 2020. **263**: p. 114413.
95. Yoon, S., J.N. Carey, and J.D. Semrau, *Feasibility of atmospheric methane removal using methanotrophic biotrickling filters*. Applied microbiology biotechnology, 2009. **83**(5): p. 949-956.
96. Davamani, V., E. Parameswari, and S. Arulmani, *Mitigation of methane gas emissions in flooded paddy soil through the utilization of methanotrophs*. Science of The Total Environment, 2020. **726**: p. 138570.
97. Wu, J., et al., *Afforestation enhanced soil CH₄ uptake rate in subtropical China: Evidence from carbon stable isotope experiments*. Soil Biology Biochemistry, 2018. **118**: p. 199-206.
98. Covey, K.R. and J.P. Megonigal, *Methane production and emissions in trees and forests*. New Phytologist, 2019. **222**(1): p. 35-51.
99. Smets, W., et al., *Airborne bacteria in the atmosphere: presence, purpose, and potential*. Atmospheric Environment, 2016. **139**: p. 214-221.
100. Mayol, E., et al., *Long-range transport of airborne microbes over the global tropical and subtropical ocean*. Nature communications, 2017. **8**(1): p. 1-9.

101. Chen, Y.-Y., et al., *Evaluation of methane degradation performance in microbial gas-phase reactions using effectively immobilized methanotrophs*. *Biochemical Engineering Journal*, 2020. **154**: p. 107441.
102. Jeffrey, L.C., et al., *Bark-dwelling methanotrophic bacteria decrease methane emissions from trees*. *Nature communications*, 2021. **12**(1): p. 1-8.
103. Abernethy, S., et al., *Methane removal and the proportional reductions in surface temperature and ozone*. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A* , 2021. **379**(2210): p. 20210104.
104. Taylor, G. and S.J.C.R.M. Vink, *Managing the risks of missing international climate targets*. 2021. **34**: p. 100379.
105. IEA. *Direct Air Capture, Report June 2020*, www.iea.org/reports/direct-air-capture. Accessed 23 October 2020.
106. National Academies of Sciences, Engineering and Medicine, *Negative emissions technologies and reliable sequestration: A research agenda*. <https://www.nap.edu/catalog/25259/negative-emissions-technologies-and-reliable-sequestration-a-research-agenda> accessed 10th May 2020. 2019: National Academies Press.
107. IEA. *Key electricity trends 2019, Annual trends from OECD countries*. April 2020. www.iea.org/articles/key-electricity-trends-2019 accessed 23 October 2020.
108. IEA. *World Energy Outlook 2019, Renewables*. November 2019 www.iea.org/reports/world-energy-outlook-2019/renewables accessed 23 October 2020.
109. Saunio, M., et al., *The growing role of methane in anthropogenic climate change*. *Environmental Research Letters*, 2016. **11**(12): p. 120207.
110. Collins, W.J., et al., *Increased importance of methane reduction for a 1.5 degree target*. *Environmental Research Letters*, 2018. **13**(5): p. 054003.
111. Sarofim, M.C., S.T. Waldhoff, and S.C. Anenberg, *Valuing the ozone-related health benefits of methane emission controls*. *Environmental Resource Economics*, 2017. **66**(1): p. 45-63.
112. Lelieveld, J., P.J. Crutzen, and F. Dentener, *Changing concentration, lifetime and climate forcing of atmospheric methane*. *Tellus B*, 1998. **50**(2): p. 128-150.
113. Carpenter, L., P. Liss, and S. Penkett, *Marine organohalogens in the atmosphere over the Atlantic and Southern Oceans*. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 2003. **108**(D9).
114. Chuck, A.L., S.M. Turner, and P.S. Liss, *Oceanic distributions and air-sea fluxes of biogenic halocarbons in the open ocean*. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 2005. **110**(C10).