

1 Supplementary Material to the manuscript:

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3
4 Observation-based global SF₆ emissions – comparison of top-down and
5 bottom-up estimates
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31 **1. The non-linearity of the Univ. of Heidelberg gas chromatographic system**
32

33 Analysis of SF₆ mixing ratios is made by gas-chromatography with electron capture
34 detector (GC-ECD) (Maiss et al., 1996). Maiss et al. used two different sample loops for
35 the analysis of standard gas (93.7 ppt) and ambient air (0.6 to 3.5 ppt) samples with
36 calibrated volumes of 1.006±0.002 cm³ and 15.021±0.002 cm³, resp. This corresponds to
37 about 3.8 fmols (1 fmol (femtomol) = 10⁻¹⁵ mol) SF₆ detected in the case of the standard
38 gas, and a range from 0.36 to 2.1 fmol in the case of ambient air samples. A linear
39 response function of the ECD was assumed by Maiss et al. (1996) for the range of
40 ambient mixing ratios measured at that time.
41

42 The analysis procedure has not been changed in recent years; however, the assumption of
43 a strictly linear response curve of the ECD was abandoned in the present work, after a
44 careful re-assessment of the non-linearity performed by Osusko (2007). Osusko used a
45 number of accurately volume-calibrated sample loops in the range of 1.328±0.004 cm³ to
46 26.792±0.007 cm³ and a standard air sample of 5.757±0.003 ppt to determine the non-

1 linearity of the ECD over a range of about 0.7 to 7 fmol SF₆. Linearity-corrected mixing
2 ratios are then calculated as follows: (1) The “raw” mixing ratio of a sample c_{raw} is first
3 determined using an interpolated detector response based on the two nearest standard
4 measurements bracketing the sample measurement. (2) Using actual temperature and
5 pressure measurements as well as the volume of the sample loop (15.021 cm³) the actual
6 sample amount n in amol (1 amol (attomol) = 10⁻¹⁸ mol) is calculated. This value is then
7 used to determine a correction factor $A(n)$ according to Eq. 1 (Osusko, 2007):

$$A(n) = a_1 \cdot n + a_2 - \frac{a_2 \cdot a_3}{n + a_3} \quad (1)$$

11 with the coefficients $a_1 = 1.03 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ amol}^{-1}$, $a_2 = -0.0474949$ and $a_3 = 141.52704 \text{ amol}$. A
12 corrected mixing ratio c_{corr} is then calculated according to Eq. (2) using individually
13 determined values of $A(n)$

$$c_{\text{corr}} = c_{\text{raw}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + A(n)} \quad (2)$$

17
18
19 Typical corrections for recent atmospheric samples (i.e. 4 to 6 ppt) range from +0.08 to
20 +0.05 ppt. All measurements performed after December 2007 were corrected according
21 to Eq. (1) and (2).

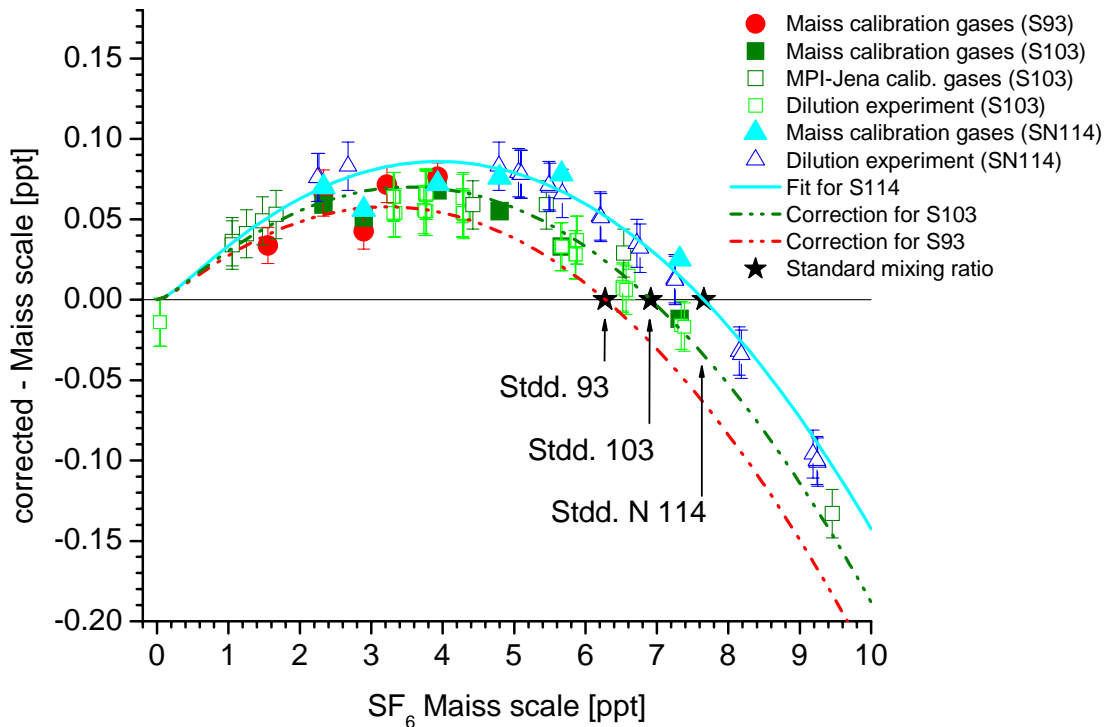
24 **2. Corrections applied to data measured until December 2007 as well as to** 25 **already published data (Maiss et al., 1996)**

26
27 Besides referring their measurements to the working standard used as reference during all
28 analyses (working standard 93, with a mixing ratio of 93.7 ppt injected to the standard
29 sample loop of 1.006 cm³) Maiss et al. (1996) have used an additional set of air standards
30 in the range of 1.6 to 3.2 ppt to correct individual measurement runs for an unknown
31 blank contribution. In the following years, when atmospheric mixing ratios increased by
32 almost a factor of two, we extended our set of ambient air standards to higher mixing
33 ratios (up to 5.7 ppt) assuming a strictly linear response function, and applied respective
34 blank corrections. Also, two new working standards had to be introduced, the
35 gravimetrically prepared working standard 103 with a value of 103.25 ppt which was
36 used from Aug. 22, 1998 to Aug. 12, 2003, and Standard N 114 used from Aug. 13, 2003
37 until August 2009. The mixing ratio of Standard N114 was determined via measurement
38 against Standard 103. Its mixing ratio is 114.33 ppt.

39
40 In order to correct for non-linearity of the detector, the published data from Maiss et al.
41 (1996) as well as the new data measured up to December 2007, we proceeded as follows:

42
43 For the two measurement periods where working standards 103 and N114 had been used,
44 we re-calculated the concentration values of the air standards used for blank correction,

1 and also selected a number of samples covering a large concentration range (i.e. samples
 2 that had been used for dilution experiments in other GC applications and also measured at
 3 the SF₆ GC) or where we analysed standard gases for other laboratories, and re-calculated
 4 corrected mixing ratios according to Eq. (1) and (2). Respective differences from the
 5 classical determination after Maiss et al. (1996) were then calculated and plotted against
 6 the classical uncorrected mixing ratio on the old Maiss scale (Figure A1).
 7
 8
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10
 11
 12 Figure A1:
 13 Measured deviations of the Maiss scale from non-linearity. Maiss and subsequently used air
 14 standards are plotted as filled symbols while other samples analysed to independently check the
 15 non-linearity of the system (dilution experiments) are plotted with open symbols. Measurements
 16 against standard N114 are shown as triangles, against standard 103 as squares and against
 17 standard 93 as circles. The (virtual) standard mixing ratios corrected for sample loop volume are
 18 plotted as black stars. The light blue solid curve shows the correction function described by Eq. 1
 19 and 2 (for standard N114). The dashed green and red lines show the correction functions used for
 20 the samples analysed against standards 103 and 93, which were obtained by adjusting the
 21 coefficients a_2 and a_3 in Eq. 1 for the respective standard mixing ratios. These correction curves
 22 excellently agree to the independent dilution samples as well as the air standards used since the
 23 beginning of the SF₆ program.
 24

1 The differences between corrected and uncorrected mixing ratios follow the well-known
2 shape typical for non-linearity of ECDs (compare e.g. Schmidt et al., 2001). The non-
3 linearity correction should be zero at zero mixing ratios and also at the mixing ratio of the
4 respective working standard used. As our working standards are measured in a smaller
5 sample loop than our atmospheric samples the actual mixing ratios of the standards must
6 be divided by the ratio of the sample loop volumes (14.931) to achieve the respective
7 value. In the case of Standard 103 this corresponds to 6.915 ppt and for Standard N114 to
8 a value of 7.657 ppt (the value for standard 93 is 6.275 ppt). The light blue solid curve in
9 Figure A1 shows the correction function described by Eq. 1 and 2 (for standard N114).
10 The dashed green and red lines show the correction functions used for the samples
11 analysed against standards 103 and 93, which were obtained by adjusting the coefficients
12 a_2 and a_3 in Eq. 1 for the respective standard mixing ratios. All samples measured relative
13 to the respective standards have been corrected with these functions.

14
15 For all samples in the present atmospheric concentration range the non-linearity
16 corrections are smaller than 0.08 ppt, with an absolute uncertainty of the correction
17 smaller than 0.015 ppt. The total uncertainty of individual measurements is between 0.02
18 and 0.03 ppt.

19
20 Ongoing inter-comparison of air samples collected at the Cape Grim observatory shows a
21 constant offset of about 0.1 ppt to AGAGE measurements and of about 0.07 ppt to
22 NOAA/GMD (HD - AGAGE and HD - NOAA/GMD, respectively). These constant
23 concentration offsets are due to independent calibration scale development of the
24 different programs but has no influence on the growth rates and respective emission
25 estimates.

26 27 28 29 **3. Estimates of the atmospheric SF₆ inventory from tropospheric and** 30 **stratospheric observations**

31 32 *3.1. Reconstruction of zonal mean surface SF₆ mixing ratios*

33
34 The reconstruction of the zonal mean surface SF₆ mixing ratios is based on the observed
35 SF₆ records from the long-term background monitoring stations Alert (82°N), Izaña
36 (28°N), Cape Grim (41°S) and Neumayer (71°S) as well as SF₆ data from regular aircraft
37 sampling over Syktyvkar (61°N, only above 2500m). Flask and tank data from Alert,
38 Cape Grim, and Neumayer, respectively, have been combined to obtain one single record
39 for each of these stations. Subsequently, the data have been smoothed with a data fitting
40 routine from Nakazawa et al. (1997), i.e. the seasonal cycle and outliers have been
41 removed.

42
43 In a second step, we extrapolated the records from Alert, Syktyvkar, Izaña and Neumayer
44 to the period where observations from Cape Grim are available (April 1978 - June 2009).
45 The basic idea of this extrapolation is sketched here in the case of Alert: We used the
46 *simulated* SF₆ concentration gradient from the GRACE model (Levin et al., 2009) C_{ALT}^S -

1 C_{CGO}^S , (superscript “S” for simulation) and added it to the observed (superscript “O”) SF_6
2 at Cape Grim (C_{CGO}^O). To obtain a steady transition between the observed and
3 reconstructed SF_6 at the beginning of the original Alert record, we adjusted the simulated
4 gradient with a constant factor f_{ALT} . The reconstructed SF_6 concentration (superscript
5 “R”) at Alert, C_{ALT}^R , thus was calculated as:

$$6 \quad C_{ALT}^R = C_{CGO}^O + f_{ALT} \cdot (C_{ALT}^S - C_{CGO}^S) \quad (3)$$

7
8
9 In an identical manner, the extrapolation is performed for Syktyvkar, Izaña and
10 Neumayer. Finally, the smoothed and extended station records have been interpolated to
11 a regular latitude and time grid. Latitudinal interpolation is performed in sine of latitude
12 space. Hereby, each smoothed/extended station record is assumed to represent the zonal
13 mean SF_6 concentration at the latitude of the station. Additionally, SF_6 from Neumayer
14 and Alert are assumed to represent also $90^\circ S$ and $90^\circ N$, respectively. Furthermore, we
15 duplicated the SF_6 record from Cape Grim at $15^\circ S$ to imitate the shape of the observed
16 zonal SF_6 concentration profile from the meridional transects over the Atlantic ocean
17 (Maiss et al., 1996) where SF_6 concentrations south of $15^\circ S$ are rather constant, whereas
18 the increase from low mixing ratios in the southern hemisphere to high mixing ratios in
19 the northern hemispheric starts approximately at $15^\circ S$.

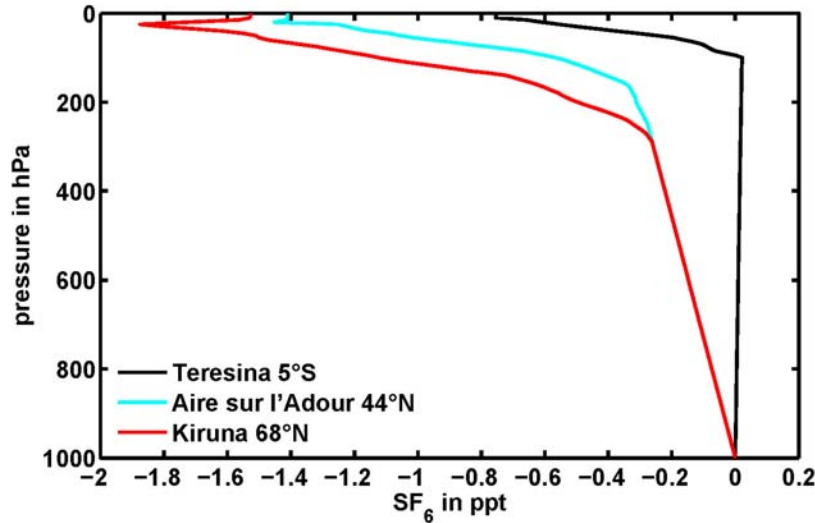
20 21 22 *3.2. Reconstruction of representative vertical SF_6 profiles*

23
24 To avoid complications with different SF_6 scales, the reconstruction of representative
25 vertical SF_6 concentration profiles is entirely based on stratospheric SF_6 profiles from
26 samples measured in Heidelberg. Thus no SF_6 profiles from external publications have
27 been taken into account.

28
29 To each stratospheric SF_6 profile, we added the tropospheric ground level SF_6 mixing
30 ratio from the reconstructed surface level SF_6 mixing ratio field for the respective time
31 and latitude of each stratospheric profile. The vertical SF_6 profiles then extend from the
32 surface up to altitudes of 30-35km (depending on the profile). In doing so, we assume
33 that SF_6 mixing ratio decreases linearly with pressure between the surface and the lowest
34 altitude of each stratospheric profile. Subtraction of the surface SF_6 mixing ratio yields
35 vertical SF_6 profiles relative to the surface level. These relative profiles – taken at
36 different points in time – are now more comparable despite the increase in atmospheric
37 SF_6 with time. The measured vertical SF_6 profiles (given on an altitude axis) are
38 interpolated to a pressure axis using the altitude-pressure relationship from the U.S.
39 Standard Atmosphere (COESA, 1976). For each of the three balloon stations (Kiruna,
40 Aire sur l’Adour, Teresina), we then calculated the average relative vertical SF_6 mixing
41 ratio profile.

42
43 From a simple box-model point of view, the vertical profile of a tracer with sources at the
44 surface and no sinks in the atmosphere should scale nearly linearly with the surface
45 source. From the temporal derivative of the fit curve through the tropospheric SF_6
46 observations we obtain a first-order estimate of the temporal behaviour of the global SF_6

1 source, which increased nearly linearly between 1978 (the start of our observations) and
 2 1995. Between 1995 and the early 2000s, the global SF₆ source decreased slightly, before
 3 it started to increase again. It is therefore reasonable to assume that vertical SF₆ profiles
 4 increased nearly linearly until the early 1990s and are more or less constant from this
 5 time on. We thus assume that the averaged relative gradients for each profile station
 6 (averaged over all post-1990 profiles) well represent the relative vertical gradient above
 7 these stations (i.e. at the respective latitude) in this period (see Figure A2).



11
 12
 13 Figure A2:
 14 Average stratospheric SF₆ profiles relative to the bottom-near troposphere for Teresina, Aire sur
 15 l'Adour and Kiruna.

16
 17
 18 For pre-1990, we obtained relative vertical gradients for each station (Kiruna, Aire sur
 19 l'Adour, Teresina) by scaling the observed average relative profile with the reconstructed
 20 surface SF₆ mixing ratio (at the given latitude) relative to the 1990 surface mixing ratio.
 21 Thus we obtain a time series of relative vertical SF₆ profiles between 1978 and 2009 for
 22 each of the three profile stations.

23
 24 Tests with our GRACE model (Levin et al., 2009) have shown that the vertical SF₆
 25 gradient in the southern extra-tropics (where no profile data are available) is well
 26 approximated by scaling the simulated vertical SF₆ gradient in northern mid-latitudes
 27 with a factor 0.56. We thus assumed that the reconstructed, observation-based average
 28 relative vertical profile in Kiruna well represents the relative vertical profile in northern
 29 polar latitudes (60°N-90°N), whereas Aire sur l'Adour represents northern mid-latitudes
 30 (30°N-60°N) and Teresina the tropics (30°S-30°N). Furthermore, we assumed that the
 31 relative profile from Aire sur l'Adour, scaled with a factor 0.56, represents the relative
 32 vertical SF₆ profile in the southern extra-tropics (90°S-30°S). We thus obtain a time

1 series of estimates of vertical SF₆ profiles (relative to surface mixing ratios) from 90°S to
2 90°N and from 1978 - 2009.

3
4
5 *3.3. Estimate of the global atmospheric SF₆ inventory, annual source strength and*
6 *uncertainties*

7
8 Combining the reconstructed surface SF₆ concentrations with the reconstructed relative
9 vertical SF₆ profiles, we obtain a reconstruction of the global SF₆ concentration on a
10 latitude - pressure grid between April 1978 and June 2009. Averaging over the entire
11 atmosphere (i.e. from 1000hPa to 10hPa, the lowest pressure level), we obtain the global
12 average SF₆ concentration for the period in question, from which the global SF₆ inventory
13 can be calculated. Finally, the global SF₆ source is the temporal derivative of the global
14 atmospheric SF₆ inventory (Table 2 of the main manuscript).

15
16 A number of uncertainties affect the reconstructed SF₆ field, our estimate of the global
17 SF₆ inventory and - to a weaker extent - the global SF₆ source: First, the uncertainty of the
18 individual tropospheric SF₆ measurement is of the order 0.02 ppt. The fitting procedure is
19 not expected to add significant uncertainty (at least on an annual mean basis). The
20 extension of the observed SF₆ records from Alert, Izaña, and Neumayer Station is based
21 on the assumption that the relative temporal change of SF₆ concentration differences
22 between these stations and Cape Grim is well reproduced by the GRACE model. Spatial
23 SF₆ gradients are predominantly controlled by the spatial pattern of SF₆ emissions. Thus,
24 the change in the gradients is controlled by changing emissions. As all estimates of global
25 SF₆ emissions in the 1980s and early 1990s (Maiss and Brenninkmeijer, 1998; Olivier
26 and Berdowski, 2001; EDGAR, 2009) show a similar, nearly linear increasing trend also
27 used in the GRACE simulations, it is reasonable to assume that the relative temporal
28 change of SF₆ gradients is well captured by GRACE. However, due to uncertainties in the
29 atmospheric transport, the absolute value of the gradients might be over- or
30 underestimated by GRACE. This problem becomes evident in particular for Izaña, where
31 observed SF₆ mixing ratios (and thus concentration differences to neighbouring stations)
32 are not well matched by GRACE. However, as mentioned above, we adjusted the
33 simulated gradients in a way to guarantee a steady transition of reconstructed and
34 observed station records to overcome shortcomings of the atmospheric transport in
35 GRACE. Thus, uncertainties in the extended SF₆ records are of similar order of
36 magnitude as inter-annual variability in the original records caused by inter-annual
37 variability of atmospheric transport, which is not taken into account in GRACE. From the
38 available atmospheric SF₆ records, this variability is estimated not to exceed 0.03 ppt.

39
40 SF₆ concentration variability in the Southern Hemisphere south of 15°S is on the order of
41 ca. ±0.05 ppt (Maiss et al., 1996; Geller et al., 1997). This value can be taken as an upper
42 limit of the uncertainty of our reconstruction of zonal mean SF₆ mixing ratio south of
43 15°S. Similarly, in the Northern Hemisphere north of Izaña (28°N), where most of the
44 SF₆ sources are located, the variability is on the order of ca. ±0.1 ppt (Maiss et al., 1996;
45 Geller et al., 1997), which gives an estimate of the uncertainty of our reconstruction for
46 the northern extra-tropics. Both Maiss et al. (1996) and Geller et al. (1997) show a nearly

1 linear decrease of SF₆ concentrations across the tropics (30°N-15°S). We thus can assume
2 that uncertainties in our reconstruction of tropical SF₆ concentrations are small, probably
3 on the order of 0.05 ppt. As a consequence, the overall uncertainty of our reconstructed
4 zonal mean surface SF₆ concentrations is expected to be on the order of 0.06-0.11 ppt,
5 with higher uncertainty in the Northern Hemisphere, in particular in the 1980s and early
6 1990s (when northern hemispheric mixing ratios are entirely reconstructed).

7
8 The uncertainty of the average stratospheric profiles (relative to surface mixing ratios)
9 can be addressed by the standard deviation of the profiles at each station. For the extra-
10 tropical stations Kiruna and Aire sur l'Adour, this is on the order of 0.2-0.3 ppt above 300
11 hPa. For the two measured profiles at the tropical station Teresina, the standard deviation
12 of the vertical SF₆ profiles above 300 hPa is less than 0.1 ppt. In addition to differences
13 between observed profiles, non-quantifiable uncertainties in the pressure-altitude
14 relationship used in our approach might contribute to biases in the reconstructed global
15 mean SF₆ mixing ratios and inventory time series. In summary, we thus assume that the
16 stratospheric SF₆ mixing ratios relative to surface are well reconstructed within 0.1-0.3
17 ppt.

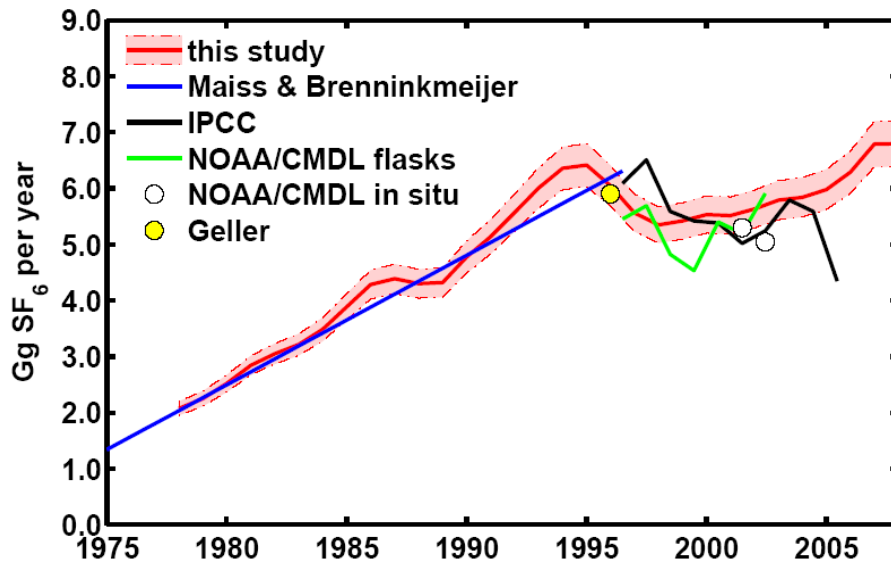
18
19 In our approach, we implicitly assume that SF₆ concentration increases linearly from the
20 lowest profile measurements to the surface. Aircraft-based SF₆ profile measurements
21 from Syktyvkar (62°N), Cherskii (69°N), and Cape Grim (41°S) show an SF₆
22 concentration variability on the order of 0.04-0.06 ppt below 3000m (below 7600m at
23 Cape Grim). However, aircraft data show no clear decrease in SF₆ concentration within
24 the Planetary Boundary Layer (PBL), except for Cape Grim, where SF₆ concentrations
25 below 1000m are *lower* than concentrations above. However, in general, it seems to be
26 appropriate that SF₆ concentration variability within the background troposphere is - on
27 average - less than 0.05ppt.

28
29 If we combine these uncertainty estimates, the absolute uncertainty of the global
30 (tropospheric and stratospheric) annual mean SF₆ mixing ratio is of the order 0.12-0.14
31 ppt. However, most of the factors contributing to the uncertainties discussed above are
32 probably constant in time or change only slightly with changing SF₆ emissions and the
33 resulting change in horizontal and vertical SF₆ gradients. Thus, the main factor of
34 uncertainty of our SF₆ source estimate appears to be the variability of the observed SF₆
35 growth rate among the different stations: In Figure 1 of the main manuscript we show
36 smoothed growth rate curves determined for all our tropospheric sites. The standard
37 deviation of 10-day growth rate values of all curves for the period of 1991 to 2007 ranges
38 from 0.002 to 0.02 ppt a⁻¹, with a mean value of 0.012 ppt a⁻¹. If we take this value as the
39 mean uncertainty of annual growth rates, this corresponds to an error of ±6%, also for the
40 source estimate for the time period in question.

41 42 43 3.4. Comparison with other top-down estimates of the global SF₆ source

44
45 Figure A3 compares estimates of the global SF₆ source from this study with other top-
46 down estimates of this quantity. Within 2σ of our estimated uncertainty (of 1σ = ±6%),

1 we agree well with estimates from Geller et al. (1997), Maiss and Brenninkmeijer (1998),
 2 de Jager et al. (2005) and Forster et al. (2007). However, while our estimate indicates that
 3 global SF₆ emissions continue to increase after the minimum in 1998, the IPCC data from
 4 Forster et al. (2007) suggest a strong decrease of the SF₆ source between 2003 and 2005
 5 which can not be seen in our data. Furthermore, in contrast to the Heidelberg data,
 6 NOAA/CMDL flask data (de Jager et al., 2005) suggest a drop in SF₆ emissions of ca.
 7 20% in 1998 and 1999 (relative to 1997), followed by an increase of the SF₆ source of
 8 similar magnitude from 2000 on. A corresponding variability of the SF₆ growth rate can
 9 not be seen at any of the stations of the Heidelberg network in the respective period
 10 (compare Figure 1 of the main manuscript). From this we conclude that SF₆ emissions
 11 based on NOAA/CMDL data (de Jager et al., 2005; Forster et al., 2007) possibly
 12 overestimate the inter-annual variability of the SF₆ source (note, however, that no error
 13 estimates are given in these studies).
 14
 15



16
 17
 18 Figure A3:
 19 Comparison of top-down estimates of the global SF₆ source. References: red line and shaded area:
 20 best estimate and 1σ uncertainty range from this study; light blue line: Maiss and Brenninkmeijer
 21 (1998); black line: Forster et al. (2007); green line and white circles: de Jager (2005), yellow
 22 circle: Geller et al. (1997).
 23
 24

25 **4. Bottom-up SF₆ emission estimates**

26
 27 *4.1 Compilation of SF₆ emission estimates*

28
 29 Note that the SF₆ inventory presented here is the annual mean, whereas the SF₆ source is
 30 calculated as the change of the global atmospheric SF₆ inventory between January 1st of
 31 each year and January 1st of the following year. Note further that UNFCCC reports SF₆

1 emissions in units of CO₂-equivalent. To calculate SF₆ emissions in Gg, we used a Global
2 Warming Potential for SF₆ (100 years time horizon) of 23900, as used in UNFCCC
3 reporting by Annex I countries, which is higher than the value adopted by IPCC (Forster
4 et al., 2007) of 22800.

5 6 7 4.2. *Correction applied to the SF₆ emission values reported by Japan to UNFCCC*

8
9 Japan reported emissions of 1.9 Gg SF₆ for 1994, but only 0.7 Gg SF₆ for the following
10 year. This apparent decrease in Japanese SF₆ emissions is due to changed methodology
11 estimating SF₆ emissions between 1994 and 1995: The old methodology applied until
12 1994 probably grossly overestimates the emissions, whereas the new method (applied
13 from 1995 onwards) is expected to provide more realistic estimates of the Japanese SF₆
14 source (Jigme (UNFCCC), personal communication 2008). Independent estimates of
15 Japanese SF₆ emissions from gas insulated electrical equipment in Japan (Yasutake and
16 Meguro, 2002) indicate roughly constant SF₆ emissions in the early-to-mid1990s, before
17 SF₆ emissions actually were reduced from the mid-1990s on. To correct the Japanese pre-
18 1995 emissions (and thus the total Annex I SF₆ emissions in this period), we therefore
19 assumed that the Japanese SF₆ emissions in 1990-1994 are identical with the emissions in
20 1995, the first year when the new methodology was applied.

21 22 23 4.3. *Reconstruction of the meridional distribution of the UNFCCC-based emission* 24 *scenario*

25
26 Annex I country emissions are individually reported to UNFCCC (UNFCCC, 2009), so
27 that a first-order estimate of the SF₆ source distribution from Annex I countries can be
28 derived from the individually reported SF₆ emissions and the geographical location of
29 each Annex I country. For Non-Annex I countries no reliable SF₆ emissions estimates on
30 the country level are available from UNFCCC. Only the *total* Non-Annex I emissions can
31 be estimated as the difference between observation-based inferred *global* emissions and
32 Annex I (UNFCCC-reported) emissions (see main manuscript). However, following
33 Denning et al. (1999), we can roughly estimate the spatial distribution of SF₆ emissions
34 from Non-Annex I countries, if we assume that the geographical distribution of non-
35 Annex I SF₆ emissions is similar to the distribution of Non-Annex I electricity production
36 (BP, 2009). In this way, we obtain an UNFCCC-based estimate of the *total* spatial
37 distribution of SF₆ sources on the globe (compare Supplementary Fig. 4b). Note that this
38 approach does *not* assume similar ratios of SF₆ emissions per unit electricity produced by
39 Annex I and non-Annex I countries. However, we do assume that this emission ratio
40 varies with time and is the same in all non-Annex I countries.

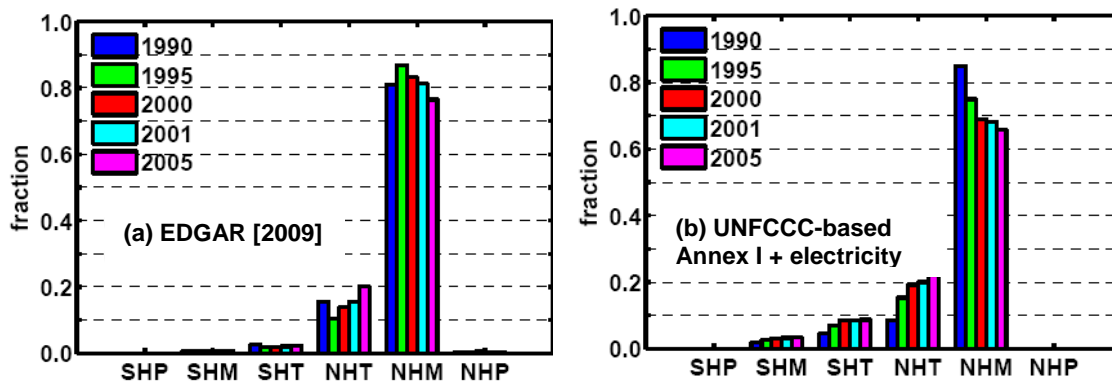


Figure A4:

Fraction of SF₆ emissions averaged over 30° zonal bands for 1990, 1995, 2000, 2001 and 2005. SHP: 90°S to 60°S, SHM: 60°S to 30°S, SHT: 30°S to Equator, NHT: Equator to 30°N, NHM: 30°N to 60°N, NHP: 60°N to 90°N. (a) SF₆ emission distribution based on EDGAR (2009). (b) SF₆ emission distribution based on UNFCCC reported SF₆ emissions.

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