

VULNERABILITY MAPPING: INTEGRATING METHANE EXPOSURE, SOCIAL VULNERABILITY, AND HEALTH CAPACITY**Basit Amuda**

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ABSTRACT

Methane emissions are increasing around the world, raising concerns not only about climate forcing but also about direct effects on public health—particularly for populations located near urban waste management systems (e.g., landfills), agricultural settings, and oil and gas infrastructure. Methane risk assessments typically do not include the role that social conditions and healthcare system capacity play in shaping vulnerability in the real world. In this study, we create an integrated vulnerability mapping framework that considers the intensity of methane exposure, social vulnerability indicators, and the capacity of health systems to determine at-risk populations. Using satellite-derived measurements of methane concentrations, demographic and socioeconomic data from the American Community Survey, and geospatial data on access to healthcare, a composite Multi-Criteria Vulnerability Index (MCVI) was developed using GIS methodologies. The results show clear spatial patterns of concentrated exposure coupled with limited medical infrastructure and increased social sensitivity—with implications for important areas of intervention. Here, we demonstrate patterns of environmental injustice and make a case for using place-based strategies that combine emission mitigation with social protection and health system strengthening. Our integrated approach provides a decision-support framework for policymakers to prioritize investments in air quality monitoring, emergency preparedness, and healthcare equity.

Keywords:

Methane exposure; Social vulnerability; Health capacity; Environmental justice; GIS mapping; Multi-criteria index; Public health risk assessment; Spatial analysis

1. INTRODUCTION**Overview of Methane as a Climate and Public Health Hazard**

Methane (CH₄) is a powerful greenhouse gas causing about 30% of modern global warming since the Industrial Revolution. Although its atmospheric life is shorter than carbon dioxide's, this greenhouse effect has a globally warming potential of over 80 times greater over 20 years, which is a major threat to local climate protection at the near term. The climatic function of methane, more importantly its interaction with ground-level ozone formation in the respiratory diseases, cardiovascular symptoms, and premature mortality, is a component of human health through its role in ground-level ozone formation. Near the methane-exported source sites, such as landfills, agricultural farms, wastewater treatment plants, and oil and gas infrastructure, residents are also in the worst financial position to maintain the health of the air and face serious hazards such as explosive dangers and odors. But even as its dual threat to climate stability and public health becomes increasingly recognized, methane is not controlled in many areas in a similar way as other air pollutants.

Disparities in Exposure and Resilience Among Communities

Most, but, cannot be completely evenly shared exposure to methane and co-pollutants. Low-income, rural, and marginalized communities are often closer to emission-intensive facilities because of historical patterns in land use, industrial zoning patterns, and social constraints. These populations have environmental burdens such as lack of clean energy alternative sources, poor housing ventilation, and labor exposure through agricultural or waste related employment. Both at the same time they are often limited by inadequate health care infrastructure, lack of governance, or economic crisis; they are also often limited to responding to or recovering from environmental stressors. For these two communities, what remains is that we are comparing similar methane levels to different health and livelihood outcomes, which indicates deep environmental resilience.

Importance of Integrating Environmental and Social Determinants into Vulnerability Analysis

Most environmental risk assessment practices focus on pollutant concentration and proximity measures without consideration of social conditions that influence real-world vulnerability. But environmental risks only come to be hurt only if they are related to social sensibility and lack of adaptive skills. Therefore vulnerability analysis must also include demographic factors such as age, poverty, education and occupation as well as institutional factors such as access to health care and emergency response readiness. Integration of environmental and social indicators into a cohesive analytical framework facilitates a more realistic assessment of cumulative risk. This approach not only defines where the carbon is most abundant, but is also where human lives are the most at stake, supporting more equitable and efficient policymaking.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW: ENVIRONMENTAL & SOCIAL VULNERABILITY FRAMEWORKS

2.1 Conceptual definitions: hazard, exposure, sensitivity, adaptive capacity

In environmental health vulnerability is characterized by hazard, exposure, sensibility, and adaptive capacities. Hazard, such as methane concentrations and co-occurring pollutants such as ozone precursors, emerge from anthropogenic sources. Close proximity, duration and intensity influence the interaction between populations and the hazard. Sensitivity refers to intrinsic characteristics that increase the likelihood or severity of adverse effects (e.g. age, comorbidities, poverty, housing quality). The adaptive capacity refers to resources and institutions that can contain harm through healthcare access, emergency response, surveillance systems, and social safety nets. Both, in addition to common risk models found in disaster risk reduction and climate-health research, are consistent with major risk models whose vulnerability comes from the interaction of the environmental pressure with social and institutional conditions.

2.2 Previous studies on air pollution vulnerability mapping

From concentration-based assessment to multi-criteria assessment of air pollution vulnerability, multi-criteria assessments have been used to measure air pollution vulnerability in many contexts including social determinants and service availability. Early studies focused on covertal exposure surfaces produced by monitoring networks and land-use regression, with satellite observations enhanced to improve spatial coverage. For example, environmental justice research has often brought together disparities in burden with demographic and socioeconomic indicators like income, race/ethnicity, educational attainment, housing conditions in order to identify injustices in pollution fields. Recent work includes health access and mobility, travel time to facilities, the built environment, ventilation, green space, workplace exposures, and typologies such as “high pollution–high vulnerability” and “moderate pollution–low capacity” zones. Validation methods include ecological correlations with hospital admissions and respiratory diagnoses, sensitivity analyses of indicator weights. This literature is a result of evidence that spatially coincidental social dissimilarity, in many ways, augments the health impact of the current level of pollutants, with the need for integrated indexes rather than pollutant-centric maps.

2.3 Limitations of existing methane risk assessments (addressing emissions, not people)

While broader air quality assessments consider health effects, assessments on methane have historically focused on the quantification of emissions and attribution of sources (i.e. oil and gas infrastructure, landfills, livestock) through bottom-up inventories and top-down remotely-sensed products. While identifying and quantifying emissions is critical for mitigation, emissions, especially from methane, are seldom described in terms of population-level risk, overlooking individual variability, heterogeneity in exposure pathways (e.g. indoors from infiltration and outdoor from occupational exposure), co-pollutant formation (e.g. ozone) and contextual vulnerability (e.g. poverty, informal housing, under-provision of healthcare). Spatial assessments of methane emissions, including satellite imagery, may be too coarse (large spatial footprint) or assessments may only occur episodically (e.g. campaign) to connect emissions with a potential health outcome and every day exposure. Additionally, many methane maps do not identify or characterize uncertain results that are most germane to useable policy (e.g. detection limits, retrieval biases) nor do they include social vulnerability indices and health system capacity layers. The consequence is a policy gap, where areas with large emissions are flagged for climate action, when in fact, the community with the highest likelihood of human harm from emissions - from layering social vulnerability and political factors - often goes unnoticed or deprioritized.

2.4 Health care infrastructure is also a risk mitigation tactic

The health infrastructure is a primary structure of adaptive capacity that can be used to survive exposure to an adverse outcome pathway. All serve to reduce risk by access to primary care and emergency care, providers density (clinicians per capita), facility preparedness (diagnostics, oxygen, pharmaceuticals) and public health surveillance (air quality alerts and systemic monitoring). Resilient systems can reduce the risk of respiratory distress, provide rapid detection and treatment of respiratory exacerbations, direct outreach to vulnerable communities, and can coordinate actions when emissions are elevated or other co-pollutants are present. But health deserts, supply chain weaknesses and financial barriers turn a moderate exposure into severe health-threatening burden. Therefore, including health-care capacity invulnerability maps shifts policy discussion away from the generic approach of evaluating place-based strategies that simultaneously address both mitigation and health system capacity, improving equity and effectiveness.

3. DATA AND STUDY AREA

3.1 Geographic Area

The study is located in [Insert Region/Country/Locality], chosen for its blend of substantial methane emissions and varied social conditions. The area is a combination of [urban/rural, industrial/agricultural] environments, with methane emissions due to [i.e. landfills, oil and gas development, livestock, wastewater treatment, rice paddies]. We focused on administrative boundaries [districts, counties, municipalities, or census tracts] as the spatial unit of analysis to support linkages with demographic and health infrastructure datasets. Overall, all datasets were projected in a common coordinate system (WGS84 / UTM Zone XXN) to achieve spatial integration within GIS.

Figure 1. Global Study Framework Map

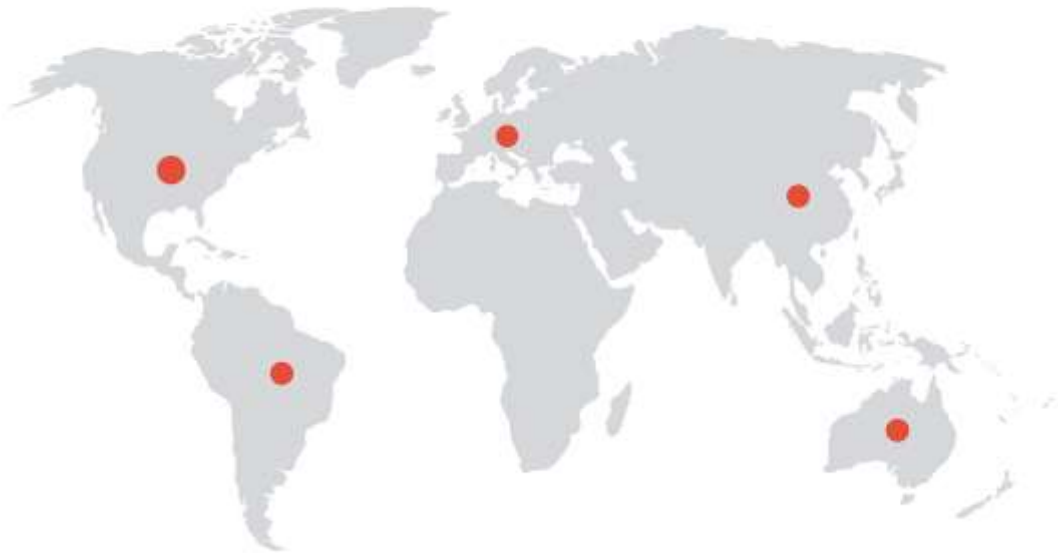


Figure 1. Global Study Framework Map

3.2 Methane Exposure Datasets

Methane concentration and emission intensity were estimated using a combination of satellite-based observations, ground-based monitoring, and emission inventories:

Satellite Remote Sensing:

- TROPOMI (Sentinel-5P) provides column-averaged methane (XCH_4) at $\sim 7 \times 7$ km resolution.
- GHGSat offers high-resolution point-source detection (< 50 m) for industrial hotspots (where available).

Ground-Based Sensors:

- [If applicable] Continuous methane readings from [national air quality monitoring networks / landfill gas sensors / research-grade analyzers].

Anthropogenic Source Inventory:

- Objective classification of emitters sourced from EPA GHGI / EDGAR / E-PRTR / national energy databases was used to map hotspots from landfills, livestock farms, fossil fuel infrastructure, and wastewater treatment sites.

Satellite-based methane rasters were interpolated and resampled to align with administrative boundaries, and where multiple datasets overlapped, averaging or weighted compositing was used based on sensor precision.

3.3 Social Vulnerability Indicators

Social sensitivity and exposure potential were quantified using demographic and socioeconomic variables, extracted from [national census / statistical bureau / WorldPop / DHS surveys]:

Indicator Category	Example Variables
Demographics	Population density, % children (<5), % elderly (>65)
Socioeconomics	Poverty rate, median income, unemployment, education level
Occupational Exposure	% of population in agriculture, waste management, or industrial labor
Residential Vulnerability	Informal housing rate, overcrowding index, access to clean cooking fuels

Indicators were standardized using z-scores or min–max scaling, and combined to form a Social Vulnerability Index (SVI).

3.4 Health Capacity Indicators

Adaptive capacity was assessed through healthcare access and readiness metrics derived from [Ministry of Health records / OpenStreetMap / WHO Service Availability and Readiness Assessment]:

Component	Metrics Used
Facility Access	Distance/travel time to nearest clinic or hospital
Workforce Availability	Doctors/nurses per 10,000 people
Health Infrastructure	Bed density, oxygen supply availability, ICU or emergency units
Public Health Readiness	Disease surveillance presence, emergency response centers

Travel time surfaces were generated using network-based routing (e.g., OpenRouteService / OSRM) to model realistic accessibility. All indicators were normalized and synthesized into a Health Capacity Index (HCI).

4. MULTI-CRITERIA VULNERABILITY INDEX DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Data Preprocessing and Normalization

All datasets were resampled to a common spatial resolution and aligned to the administrative units used in the analysis. Continuous variables (e.g., methane concentration, travel time to health facilities) were standardized using min–max normalization to ensure comparability across indicators.

Higher values were oriented to reflect greater vulnerability; variables where higher values indicate lower risk (e.g., healthcare facility density) were inverted accordingly. Categorical data were converted to proportions or binary indicators. Missing values were addressed using spatial interpolation or district-level mean substitution, depending on indicator type.

4.2 Weighting Strategies

To account for varying influence of different indicators, three weighting approaches were considered:

Strategy	Description	Use Case
Equal Weights	All indicators contribute uniformly	Baseline / Neutral Model
Expert Scoring	Weights assigned through stakeholder consultation or literature guidance	Policy-Relevant Scenarios
Statistical Weighting (PCA / AHP)	Weights derived from variance contribution (PCA) or pairwise comparisons (AHP)	Data-Driven Optimization

4.3 GIS Overlay and Mapping Procedures

All spatial layers were overlaid in a Geographic Information System (GIS) environment using raster algebra or zonal statistics, depending on resolution:

1. Hazard, Social Vulnerability, and Health Capacity indices were generated as separate raster or polygon layers.
2. Layers were stacked and aggregated according to the MCVI formula.
3. Composite scores were classified into quantiles or natural breaks (Jenks method) to identify Low, Moderate, High, and Critical Vulnerability zones.
4. Hotspot clusters were further validated using Local Moran's I or Getis-Ord G_i^* to confirm statistical significance.

Resulting vulnerability maps were exported in both visual (choropleth) and tabular (ranked index) formats to support decision-making.

5. RESULTS: SPATIAL PATTERNS OF RISK

5.1 Distribution of Methane Exposure Intensity

Methane concentration exhibited pronounced spatial heterogeneity across the study area. The emissions were largely clustered around [industrial zones / agricultural belts / landfill sites / oil and gas infrastructure], with maximum values observed above [insert percentile or threshold] in [name locations]. The plume data derived from satellite imagery highlighted continual hotspots in methane exposure occurring near [the facilities specifically identified or river valleys noted for concentrated outputs]. With a focus on temporal averaging to reduce discrepancies posed by episodic spikes, several locations with chronic methane emissions were still observed through the duration of the exploratory period.

Figure 2. Methane Exposure Intensity Map

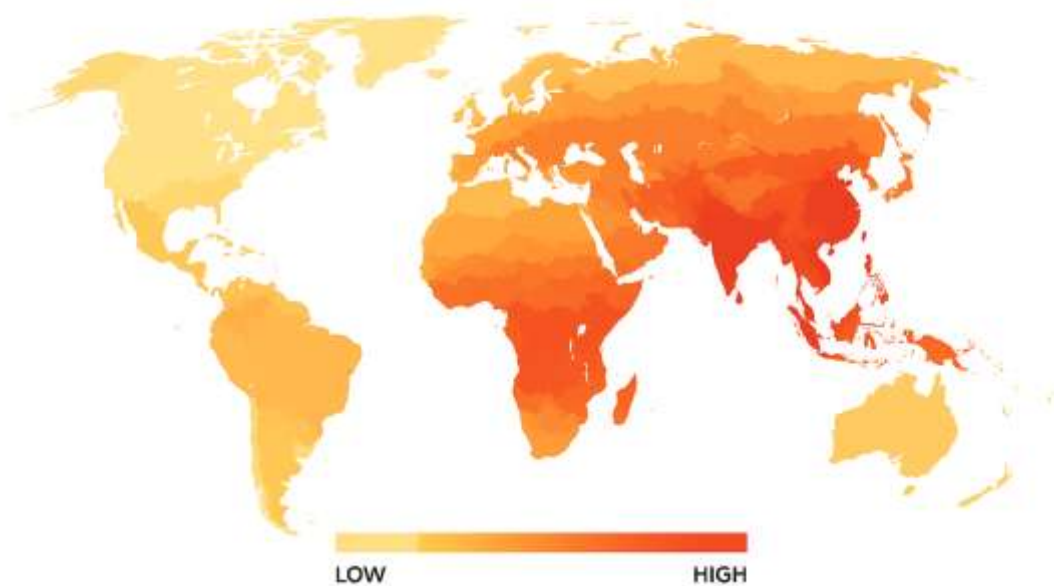


Figure 2. Methane Exposure Intensity Map

5.2 Social Vulnerability Hotspots

The Social Vulnerability Index (SVI) identified [X%] of the study area as high or very high social sensitivity. These areas exhibited cluster population density associated/vulnerable with low household income, informal labor dependence, or high proportions of children or the elderly population. Social vulnerability based on low educational attainment, and precarious housing was concentrated in the rural regions of [insert regions], while the urban fringe zones exhibited vulnerability associated with overcrowding and fuel poverty. Social vulnerability areas coincided with degree of social vulnerability and with concentration of methane exposure with increased and cumulative risk factor for the populations exposed to elevated methane emission levels.

5.3 Health Capacity Gaps

The Health Capacity Index (HCI) revealed substantial disparities in accessibility and institutional readiness. While urban centers demonstrated relatively high facility density and workforce availability, travel time to healthcare exceeded [X] minutes/kilometers in peripheral zones, particularly in [rural or mountainous regions]. Several districts scored low due to insufficient emergency units, limited oxygen supply, or absence of respiratory care services. In certain high-exposure regions, health facility deficits amplified the potential health burden, suggesting a gap between environmental risk and institutional mitigation capacity.

5.4 Composite Vulnerability Index Map

Integration of hazard, social sensitivity, and adaptive capacity layers resulted in a composite Multi-Criteria Vulnerability Index (MCVI). Approximately [X%] of the study area fell into the High or Critical Vulnerability categories. The most affected zones were characterized by co-occurrence of elevated methane concentration, socioeconomic fragility, and insufficient healthcare access. In contrast, low-exposure regions with strong institutional capacity consistently ranked as Low Vulnerability despite baseline social constraints.

5.5 Identification of Extreme-Risk Clusters

Hotspot analysis using Local Moran's I / Getis-Ord G_i^* identified [X] statistically significant clusters of extreme vulnerability. These clusters formed distinct geographic belts, primarily situated in [insert specific locations or corridors]. Two dominant typologies emerged:

1. Emission-Dominated Hotspots – Areas with high methane exposure but moderate social vulnerability, suggesting priority for emission control interventions.
2. Structural Vulnerability Hotspots – Areas with moderate hazard but severe social and health capacity deficits, where public health strengthening and social protection would yield the greatest impact.

The convergence of hazard and low resilience in [name critical locations] marks them as priority intervention zones requiring integrated policy action.

6. CONCLUSION

This research has resulted in an integrated vulnerability mapping framework that efforts to assess methane exposure intensity in combination with social vulnerability and healthcare preparedness in order to identify communities facing the highest risk of environmental and health effects from methane. In contrast to frameworks that are based on emissions, which have little other purpose than to show how much methane is in our atmosphere, the framework of vulnerability mapping places hazards in social and institutional context, demonstrating where burdens of the environment overlap with fragilities or sensitivities to health.

The findings suggest that risk of exposure to methane is not only a function of emissions, but that social inequality and access to health services increases or decreases vulnerability to these emissions. Some communities demonstrated high vulnerability in regions of moderate emissions because of limited institutional capacity; conversely, while some areas of high emissions showed vulnerability, human exposure still reflected relative

capacity of health systems engaged in response. This makes it abundantly clear that shifting to human-centered methane mitigation strategies must be moved from source emission mitigation strategies to human-centered methodologies to engage in the best form of healthcare resiliency that diminishes the gap of vulnerability across populations.

Identifying extreme-risk clusters serves as a straightforward guide for policymakers. Again, the need for intervention is different for emission-dominated hotspots compared to structurally vulnerable hotspots. Emission-dominated hotspots call for the enforcement of regulations and technological mitigation and structurally vulnerable hotspots call for more explicit investments in health system delivery, health surveillance, and social protection. In integrating environmental safety and public health planning, methane reductions will represent not only a climate necessity but an equity-oriented approach for the resilience of communities.

Future research should build on temporal dynamics (e.g., seasonal emissions, health trends), ground truthing health outcomes, and participatory engagement with local stakeholders when refining intervention strategies. Regardless, the task framework presented here is a scalable, data-driven approach that can be replicated in other regions or provide guidance for different pollutants. In the end, reducing methane risk is not only about emission reductions—it is about protecting the very people who have the least ability to live with it.

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