

Methane emissions from dairies in the Los Angeles Basin

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16 Abstract

17 We estimate the amount of methane (CH_4) emitted by the largest dairies in the southern
18 California region by combining measurements from four mobile solar-viewing ground-based
19 spectrometers (EM27/SUN), in situ isotopic $^{13/12}\text{CH}_4$ measurements from a CRDS analyzer
20 (Picarro), and a high-resolution atmospheric transport simulation with Weather Research and
21 Forecasting model in Large-Eddy Simulation mode (WRF-LES).

22 The remote sensing spectrometers measure the total column-averaged dry-air mole fractions of
23 CH_4 and CO_2 (X_{CH_4} and X_{CO_2}) in the near infrared region, providing information about total
24 emissions of the dairies at Chino. Differences measured between the four EM27/SUN ranged
25 from 0.2 to 22 ppb (part per billion) and from 0.7 to 3 ppm (part per million) for X_{CH_4} and X_{CO_2} ,
26 respectively. To assess the fluxes of the dairies, these differential measurements are used in
27 conjunction with the local atmospheric dynamics from wind measurements at two local airports
28 and from the WRF-LES simulations at 111 m resolution.

29 Our top-down CH_4 emissions derived using the Fourier Transform Spectrometers (FTS)
30 observations of 1.4 to 4.8 ppt/s are in the low-end of previous top-down estimates, consistent
31 with reductions of the dairy farms and urbanization in the domain. However, the wide range of
32 inferred fluxes points to the challenges posed by heterogeneity of the sources and meteorology.
33 Inverse modeling from WRF-LES is utilized to resolve the spatial distribution of CH_4 emissions in
34 the domain. Both the model and the measurements indicate heterogeneous emissions, with
35 contributions from anthropogenic and biogenic sources at Chino. A Bayesian inversion and a
36 Monte-Carlo approach are used to provide the CH_4 emissions of 3.2 to 4.7 ppt/s at Chino.

37 1) Introduction

38 Atmospheric methane (CH₄) concentration has increased by 150% since the pre-industrial era,
39 contributing to a global average change in radiative forcing of 0.5 W.m⁻² (Foster et al., 2007;
40 Myhre et al., 2013). Methane is naturally emitted by wetlands, but anthropogenic emissions now
41 contribute more than half of its total budget (Ciais et al., 2013), ranking it the second most
42 important anthropogenic greenhouse gas after carbon dioxide (CO₂).

43 The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC,
44 <http://newsroom.unfccc.int/>) aims to reduce CH₄ emissions by reaching global agreements and
45 collective action plans. In the United States (US), the federal government aims to reduce CH₄
46 emissions by at least 17% below 2005 levels by 2020 by targeting numerous key sources such as
47 (in order of importance): agriculture, energy sectors (including oil, natural gas, and coal mines),
48 and landfills (Climate Action Plan, March 2014). Methane emissions are quantified using
49 “bottom-up” and “top down” estimates. The “bottom-up” estimates are based on scaling
50 individual emissions and process level information statistically (such as the number of cows,
51 population density or emission factor) with inherent approximations. “Top-down” estimates,
52 based on atmospheric CH₄ measurements, often differ from these reported inventories both in
53 the total emissions and the partitioning among the different sectors and sources (e.g. Hiller et
54 al., 2014). In the US, the disagreement in CH₄ emissions estimated can reach a factor of two or
55 more (Miller et al., 2013; Kort et al., 2014), and remains controversial regarding the magnitude
56 of emissions from the agricultural sector (Histov et al. 2014). Thus, there is an acknowledged
57 need for more accurate atmospheric measurements to verify the bottom-up estimates (Nisbet
58 and Weiss, 2010). This is especially true in urban regions, such as the Los Angeles basin, where
59 many different CH₄ sources (from farm lands, landfills, and energy sectors) are confined to a
60 relatively small area of ~87000 km² (Wunch et al., 2009; Hsu et al. 2010; Wennberg et al., 2012;
61 Peischl et al., 2013; Guha et al., 2015; Wong et al., 2015). Therefore, improved flux estimations
62 at local scales is needed to resolve discrepancies between bottom-up and top-down approach
63 and improve apportionment among CH₄ sources.

64 Inventories of CH₄ fluxes suggest that emissions from US agriculture increased by more than 10%
65 between 1990 and 2013 (Environmental Protection Agency, EPA, 2015), and by more than 20%
66 since between 2000 and 2015 in California (California Air Resources Board, CARB, 2015). In
67 addition, these emissions are projected to increase globally in the future due to increased food
68 production (Tilman and Clark, 2014). Livestock in California have been estimated to account for
69 63% of the total agricultural emissions of greenhouse gases (mainly CH₄ and N₂O); dairy cows
70 represented more than 70% of the total CH₄ emissions from the agricultural sectors in 2013
71 (CARB, 2015). State-wide actions are now underway to reduce CH₄ emissions from dairies (ARB
72 concept paper, 2015). Measurements at the local-scale with high spatial- and temporal-
73 resolution are needed to assess CH₄ fluxes associated with dairy cows and to evaluate the
74 effectiveness of changing practices to mitigate CH₄ emissions from agriculture.

75 Space-based measurements provide the dense and continuous datasets needed to constrain CH₄
76 emissions through inverse modeling (Streets et al., 2013). Recent studies have used the
77 Greenhouse gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT – footprint of ~10 km diameter) observations to
78 quantify mesoscale natural and anthropogenic CH₄ fluxes in Eurasia (Berchet et al., 2015) and in
79 the US (Turner et al., 2015). However, it is challenging to estimate CH₄ fluxes at smaller spatial
80 scales using satellite measurements due to their large observational footprint (Bréon and Ciais,
81 2010). Nevertheless, recent studies used the SCanning Imaging Absorption spectroMeter for
82 Atmospheric CHartography (SCIAMACHY – footprint of 60 km x 30 km) to assess emissions of a
83 large CH₄ point source in the US (Leifer et al., 2013; Kort et al., 2014).

84 Small-scale CH₄ fluxes are often derived from in situ measurements performed at the surface and
85 from towers (Zhao et al., 2009), and/or in situ and remote-sensing measurements aboard aircraft
86 (Karion et al., 2013; Peischl et al., 2013; Lavoie et al., 2015; Gordon et al., 2015). A recent study
87 emphasized the relatively large uncertainties of flux estimates from aircraft measurements using
88 the mass balance approach in an urban area (Cambaliza et al., 2014).

89 Ground-based solar absorption spectrometers are powerful tools that can be used to assess local
90 emissions (McKain et al., 2012). This technique has been used to quantify emissions from regional

91 to urban scales (Wunch et al., 2009; Stremme et al., 2013; Kort et al., 2014; Lindenmaier et al.,
92 2014; Hase et al., 2015; Franco et al., 2015, Wong et al., 2015, Chen et al., 2016; Kille et al., 2017).

93 In this study, we use four mobile ground-based total column spectrometers (called EM27/SUN,
94 Gisi et al., 2012) to estimate CH₄ fluxes from the largest dairy-farming area in the South Coast Air
95 Basin (SoCAB), located in the city of Chino, in San Bernardino County, California. The Chino area
96 was once home to one of the largest concentrations of dairy farms in the United States (US),
97 however rapid land-use change in this area may have caused CH₄ fluxes from the dairy farms
98 change rapidly in both space and time. Chen et al. (2016) used differential column measurements
99 (downwind minus upwind column gradient ΔX_{CH_4} across Chino) recorded on favorable
100 meteorological conditions (e. g. constant wind direction) to verify emissions reported in the
101 literature. In this study, the same column measurement network is employed in conjunction with
102 meteorological data and a high-resolution model to estimate CH₄ emissions at Chino for several
103 different days, including more varying wind conditions. The approach proposed here allows us to
104 describe the spatial distributions of CH₄ emissions within and around the feedlot at very high
105 resolution by using an advanced atmospheric modeling system applicable to any convective
106 meteorological conditions (Gaudet et al., 2017).

107 In section 2 of this paper, the January 2015 field campaign at Chino is described, with details
108 about the mobile column and in situ measurements. In section 3, we describe the new high
109 resolution Weather Research & Forecasting (WRF) model with Large Eddy Simulations (LES)
110 setup. In section 4, results of CH₄ fluxes estimates are examined. Limitations of this approach, as
111 well as suggested future analyses are outlined in section 5.

112 2) Measurements in the Los Angeles Basin dairy farms

113 2.1) Location of the farms: Chino, California

114 Chino (34.02°N, -117.69°W) is located in the eastern part SoCAB, called the Inland Empire, and
115 has historically been a major center for dairy production. With a growing population and
116 expanding housing demand, the agricultural industry has shrunk in this region and grown in the
117 San Joaquin Valley (California Central Valley). The number of dairies decreased from ~400 in the
118 1980's to 95 in 2013 (red area of panels a, b, and c in Figure 1). Nevertheless, in 2013 ~90 % of
119 the southern California dairy cow population (California Agricultural Statistics, 2013) remained
120 within the Chino area of ~6 x 9 km (Figure 1). These feedlots are a major point source of CH₄ in
121 the Los Angeles basin (Peischl et al., 2013).

122 2.2) Mobile column measurements: EM27/SUN

123 Atmospheric column-averaged dry-air mole fractions of CH₄ and CO₂ (denoted X_{CH_4} and X_{CO_2} ,
124 Wunch et al., 2011) have been measured using four ground-based mobile Fourier Transform
125 Spectrometers (FTS). The mobile instruments were developed by Bruker Optics, are all
126 EM27/SUN models. The four FTS (two owned by Harvard University, denoted Harvard 1 and 2,
127 one owned by Los Alamos National Laboratory, denoted LANL, and one owned by the California
128 Institute of Technology, denoted Caltech, were initially gathered at the California Institute of
129 Technology in Pasadena, California in order to compare them against the existing Total Carbon
130 Column Observing Network (TCCON, Wunch et al., 2011) station and to each other, over several
131 full days of observation. The instruments were then deployed to Chino to develop a methodology
132 to estimate greenhouse gas emissions and improve the uncertainties on flux estimates from this
133 major local source. Descriptions of the capacities and limitations of the mobile EM27/SUN
134 instruments have been published in Chen et al. (2016) and Hedelius et al. (2016). Using Allan
135 analysis, it has been found out that the precision of the differential column measurements ranges
136 between 0.1-0.2 ppb with 10 min averaging time (Chen et al., 2016). For this analysis, we need
137 to ensure that all the data from the EM27/SUN instruments are on the same scale. Here, we
138 reference all instruments to the Harvard2 instrument. Standardized approaches (retrieval
139 consistency, calibrations between the instruments) are needed to monitor small atmospheric

140 gradients using total column measurements from the EM27/SUN. Indeed we ensured all
141 retrievals used the same algorithm, calibrated pressure sensors, and scaled retrievals according
142 to observed, small systematic differences to reduce instrumental biases (Hedelius et al., 2016).

143 These modest resolution (0.5 cm^{-1}) spectrometers are equipped with solar-trackers (Gisi et al.,
144 2011) and measure throughout the day. To retrieve atmospheric total column abundances of
145 CH_4 , CO_2 , and oxygen (O_2) from these Near InfraRed (NIR) solar absorption spectra, we used the
146 GGG software suite, version GGG2014 (Wunch et al., 2015). Column measurements at Chino
147 were obtained on five days: the 15th, 16th, 22nd and 24th of January, and the 13th of August, 2015.
148 Of these days, January 15th, 16th, and 24th are sufficiently cloud-free for analysis. These days have
149 different meteorological conditions (i.e. various air temperatures, pressures, wind speeds and
150 directions), improving the representativeness of the flux estimates at Chino.

151 Figure 1 shows measurements made on January 15th, 16th, and 24th. Wind speeds and directions,
152 shown in the bottom panels of Figure 1, are measured at the two local airports inside the domain
153 (the Chino airport indicated on panels d, e, and f and the Ontario airport on panels g, h, and i).
154 Wind measurements from these two airports, located at less than 10 km apart, are made at an
155 altitude of 10 meters above the surface. The exact locations of the four EM27/SUN spectrometers
156 (colored symbols in Figure 1 in the upper panels a, b, and c) were chosen each morning of the
157 field campaign to optimize the chance of measuring upwind and downwind of the plume. On the
158 15th and 16th of January, the wind speed was low with a maximum of 3 ms^{-1} and highly variable
159 direction all day (Figure 1, panels d, e, g and h), therefore the four EM27/SUN spectrometers
160 were placed at each corner of the source area to ensure that the plume was detected by at least
161 one of the instruments throughout the day. On the contrary, the wind in January 24th had a
162 constant direction from the Northeast and was a relatively strong $8\text{-}10\text{ ms}^{-1}$ (Figure 1, panels f
163 and i), so the instruments were located such that one spectrometer (Harvard2) was always
164 upwind (blue symbols in Figure 1) and the others are downwind of the plume and at different
165 distances from the sources (black, green, and red symbols in Figure 1).

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2.3) In situ measurements: Picarro

169 The EM27/SUN column measurements are supplemented by ground-based in situ measurement
170 using a commercial Picarro instruments during January campaign. The Picarro instruments use a
171 Cavity Ringdown Spectroscopy (CRDS) technique that employs a wavelength monitor and
172 attenuation to characterize species abundance.

173 In situ $^{12}\text{CH}_4$, CO_2 , and $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ measurements were performed on January 15th, 16th, and 22nd, and
174 August 13th 2015 at roughly 2m away from the LANL EM27/SUN (Figure 1 a, b, and c) with a
175 Picarro G2132-I instrument (Arata et al., 2016,
176 http://www.picarro.com/products_solutions/isotope_analyzers/). This Picarro, owned by LANL,
177 utilize a 1/4" synflex inlet tube placed approximately 3m above ground level to sample air using
178 a small vacuum pump. Precisions on $^{12}\text{CH}_4$, CO_2 , and $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ measurements are 6 ppb, 2 ppm, and
179 0.6 ‰, respectively.

180 To locate the major CH_4 sources in the dairy farms area, a second Picarro G2401 instrument
181 (http://www.picarro.com/products_solutions/trace_gas_analyzers/) from the Jet Propulsion
182 Laboratory (JPL, Hopkins et al., 2016) was deployed on January 15th, 2015. Precision on CH_4
183 measurements is ~ 1 ppb.

184 3) Model simulations

185 3.1) Description of WRF-LES model

186 The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model (Skamarock et al., 2008) is an atmospheric
187 dynamics model used for both operational weather forecasting, and scientific research
188 throughout the global community. Two key modules that supplement the baseline WRF system
189 are used here. First, the chemistry module WRF-Chem (Grell et al., 2005) adds the capability of
190 simulating atmospheric chemistry among various suites of gaseous and aerosol species. In this
191 study, CH₄ is modeled as a passive tracer because of its long life time relative to the advection
192 time at local scales. The longest travel time from the emission source region to the instrument
193 locations is less than an hour, which is extremely short compared to the lifetime of CH₄ in the
194 troposphere (~9 years). Therefore, no specific chemistry module is required. The version of WRF-
195 Chem used here (Lauvaux et al., 2012) allowed for the offline coupling between the surface
196 emissions, prescribed prior to the simulation, and their associated atmospheric tracers. Second,
197 we make use of the Large Eddy Simulation (LES) version of WRF (Moeng et al., 2007) on a high-
198 resolution model grid with 111-m horizontal grid spacing. A key feature of the simulation is the
199 explicit representation of the largest turbulent eddies of the Planetary Boundary Layer (PBL) in a
200 realistic manner. The more typical configuration of WRF (and other atmospheric models) is to be
201 run at a somewhat coarser resolution that is incapable of resolving PBL eddies. An advantage in
202 this study is that the effect of most important PBL eddies to vertical turbulent transport (i.e., the
203 largest eddies) is not parameterized. By having a configuration with the combination of CH₄
204 tracers and PBL eddies, we can realistically predict the evolution of released material at scales on
205 the order of the PBL depth or smaller. The WRF-LES mode has been evaluated over Indianapolis,
206 IN and compared to the commonly-used mesoscale mode of WRF (Gaudet et al., 2017). The
207 representation of plume structures in the horizontal and in the vertical is significantly improved
208 at short distances (<8km) compared to mesoscale simulations at 1km resolution, while the
209 meteorological performance of WRF-LES remains similar to coarser domains due to the
210 importance of boundary nudging in the nested-domain configuration. Thus, the representation
211 of the CH₄ plumes in this study should be significantly improved with the LES mode configuration
212 of Gaudet et al. (2017).

213 In this real case experiment, the model configuration consists of a series of four one-way nested
214 grids, shown in Figure 2 and described further in the supplementary information section (S1).
215 Each domain contains 201 x 201 mass points in the horizontal, with 59 levels from the surface to
216 50 hPa, and the horizontal grid spacings are 3 km, 1 km, 333 m, and 111 m. All four domains use
217 the WRF-Chem configuration. The model 3-km, 1-km, and 333-m grids are run in the conventional
218 mesoscale configuration with a PBL parameterization, whereas the 111-m grid physics is LES. The
219 initial conditions for the cases are derived from the National Centers for Environmental
220 Prediction (NCEP) 0.25-degree Global Forecasting System (GFS) analysis fields (i.e., 0-hour
221 forecast) at 6-hour intervals. The simulations are performed from 12:00 to 00:00 UTC (= 04:00 to
222 16:00 LT) only, which corresponds to daylight hours when solar heating of the surface is present
223 and measurements are made.

224 Data assimilation to optimize meteorological fields is performed using Four Dimensional Data
225 Assimilation (FDDA; Deng et al., 2009) for the 3-km and 1-km domains. The assimilation improves
226 the model performance significantly (Rogers et al., 2013; Deng et al., 2017) without interfering
227 with mass conservation and the continuity of the air flow. Surface wind and temperature
228 measurements, including from the Ontario (KONT) and Chino (KCNO) airport stations, and upper-
229 air measurements were assimilated within the coarser grids using the WRF-FDDA system.
230 However, no observations of any kind were assimilated within the 333-m and 111-m domains;
231 therefore, the influence of observations can only come into these two domains through the
232 boundary between the 333-m and 1-km grids. Wind measurements at fine scale begin to resolve
233 the turbulent perturbations, which would require an additional pre-filtering. These
234 measurements are used to evaluate the WRF model performances at high resolutions.

235 Based on the terrain elevation in the LES domain (Figure 2), target emissions are located in a
236 triangular-shaped valley with the elevation decreasing gradually towards the South. However,
237 hills nearly surround the valley along the southern perimeter. Meanwhile, the foothills of the San
238 Gabriel Mountains begin just off the 111-m domain boundary to the North. As a result, the wind
239 fields in the valley are strongly modified by local topography, and can be quite different near the
240 surface than at higher levels.

241 3.2) Atmospheric inversion methodology: Bayesian framework and Simulated
242 Annealing error assessment

243 3.2.1 Prior emissions errors: Simulated Annealing

244 The definition of the prior error covariance matrix B is most problematic because little is known
245 about the dairy farms emissions except the presence of cows distributed in lots of small sizes.
246 However, we assume no error correlation as it is known that groups of cows are distributed
247 randomly across Chino. For the definition of the variances in B (i.e. diagonal terms), no reliable
248 error estimate is available because non-agricultural emissions are suspected. The lack of error
249 estimate directly impacts the inverse emissions, and therefore results in the generation of
250 unreliable posterior error estimates. Instead, we develop a Monte-Carlo approach using a
251 Simulated Annealing (SA) technique which will define the range of flux estimates for each grid
252 point according to the observed XCH₄ mole fractions. We test the initial errors in the emissions
253 by creating random draws (i.e. random walk perturbing the emissions iteratively) with an error
254 of about 200% compared to the expected emissions (based on the dairy cows' emissions from
255 CARB 2015). We then generated populations of random solutions and iterated 2000 times with
256 the SA algorithm. Overall, the SA approach allows us to explore the entire space of solutions
257 without any prior constraint. However, we assume here that each pixel is independent, possibly
258 causing biased estimates of CH₄ emissions. To avoid this problem, we only used the range of
259 emission values for each pixel to construct our prior emission errors but discarded the total
260 emissions from the SA. Instead, we performed a Bayesian inversion to produce total emissions
261 for the area, using the diagnosed emissions from the SA as our prior emission errors.

262 3.2.2 Bayesian optimization using WRF-LES

263 Due to the absence of an adjoint model in Large Eddy Simulation mode, the inverse problem is
264 approached with Green's functions, which correspond to the convolution of the Chino dairies
265 emissions and the WRF-LES model response. For the two independent simulations (January 15th
266 and 16th), 16 rectangular areas of 2 x 2 km² (Figure 2) are defined across the feedlots to represent
267 the state vector (x) and therefore the spatial resolution of the inverse emissions, which
268 correspond to the entire dairy farms area of about 8 x 8 km² once combined together. The 16

269 emitting areas continuously release a known number of CH₄ molecules (prior estimate) during
270 the entire simulations, along with 16 individual tracers representing the 16 areas of the dairies
271 area. The final relationship between each emitting grid-cell and each individual measurement
272 location is the solution to the differential equation representing the sensitivity of each column
273 measurement to the different 2 x 2 km² areas. The WRF-LES results are sampled every 10 minutes
274 at each sampling location to match the exact measurement times and locations of the EM27/SUN
275 instruments.

276 The inversion of the emissions over Chino is performed using a Bayesian analytical framework,
277 described by the following equation:

$$278 \quad x = x_0 + BH^T(HBH^T + R)^{-1}(y - Hx_0) \quad (1)$$

279 with x the inverse emissions, x_0 the prior emissions, B the prior emission error covariance, R the
280 observation error covariance, H the Green's functions, and y the observed column dry air mole
281 fractions. The dimension of the state vector is 16, and we assume constant CH₄ emissions for
282 each individual day. The column observations (here the vector y) correspond to the local
283 enhancements (i.e. the contributions of local sources), the background conditions being
284 subtracted beforehand. Here, we defined the background as the daily minimum for both days,
285 measured by multiple sensors depending on the wind direction and the relative position of the
286 sensor. Figure 3 shows that CH₄ background values vary between 1.83ppm to 1.832ppm, with a
287 minimal value of 1.825ppm on January 16th. We used the averaged of each day as our final CH₄
288 background mixing ratios. The lack of CH₄ inventory for the LA basin and the impact of transport
289 errors on simulated CH₄ mixing ratios are likely to produce larger uncertainties on the background
290 conditions. For these reasons, upwind observations were used to define the background,
291 assuming that spatial gradients across our simulation domain are small compared to atmospheric
292 signals from Chino. The CH₄ observations used here, after subtracting the background value,
293 correspond to local signals of about 10ppb (with a peak at 25ppb), compared to an uncertainty
294 of about 2ppb on the background values. Two maps of 16 emission estimates are produced
295 corresponding to the 2 x 2 km² areas for the two days (January 15th and 16th). A combined
296 inversion provides a third estimate of the emissions using 10-minute average column data from

297 both days. The metric used to select the best solutions is the Mean Absolute Error (or absolute
298 differences) between the simulated and observed column fractions. We store the solutions
299 exhibiting a final mismatch of less than 0.01 ppm to minimize the mismatch between observed
300 and simulated column fractions. The optimal solution and the range of accepted emission
301 scenarios are shown in Figure S2. The space of solutions provide a range of accepted emissions
302 for each 2 x 2 km² area that can be used as a confidence interval in the inversion results. The
303 posterior emissions from the Bayesian inversion are then compared to the confidence interval
304 from the Simulated Annealing to evaluate our final inverse emissions estimates and the posterior
305 uncertainties. The results are presented in Section 4.3.

306 Transport errors in the WRF-LES simulation can impact the accuracy of the inversion and need to
307 be addressed in the optimization. Deng et al. (2017) studied the sensitivity of inverse emissions
308 due to different transport scenarios. To quantify the impact of transport errors on the inverse
309 fluxes, an ensemble approach would be necessary to propagate transport errors in the inverse
310 solution (e.g. Evensen, 1994). Ensemble-based techniques remain computationally expensive,
311 especially for LES simulations. Instead, we aimed at reducing the transport errors using the WRF-
312 FDDA system to limit the errors in wind direction, wind speed, and PBL height. The improvement
313 in model performance is significant, as demonstrated in Deng et al. (2017) reducing by half the
314 wind speed and wind direction random errors, while removing biases in the three variables.
315 Remaining uncertainties are described in the observation error covariance matrix \mathbf{R} by balancing
316 the normalized Chi-squared distance (Lauvaux et al., 2013) varying between 0.5ppb to 3ppb
317 among all the 10-min column measurements.

318 4) Results

319 4.1) Observations of X_{CH_4} and X_{CO_2} in the dairy farms

320 Figure 3 shows the 1-minute average time series of X_{CH_4} (upper panels a, b, and c) and X_{CO_2} (d, e,
321 and f) derived from the four EM27/SUN. For days with slow wind ($\sim 3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$), i.e. on January 15th
322 and 16th (Figure 1, panels d, e, g and h), the maximum gradients observed between the
323 instruments are 17 and 22 ppb (parts per billion), and 2 and 3 ppm (parts per million), for X_{CH_4}
324 and X_{CO_2} , respectively. Assuming that the observed X_{gas} changes are confined to the PBL,

325 gradients in this layer are about ten times larger. Gradients observed on January 15th and 16th
 326 are higher than those of X_{CH_4} and X_{CO_2} of 2 ppb and 0.7 ppm observed on a windy day, the 24th.
 327 The X_{CH_4} and X_{CO_2} variabilities captured by the instruments are due to changes in wind speed and
 328 direction, i.e., with high X_{CH_4} signals when the wind blows from the dairies to the instruments.
 329 Thus, the EM27/SUN are clearly able to detect variability of greenhouses gases at local scales
 330 (temporal: less than 5 minutes, and spatial: less than 10 km) indicating that these mobile column
 331 measurements have the potential to provide estimates of local source emissions.

332 4.2) Estimation of fluxes with EM27/SUN column measurements

333 Total column measurements are directly linked to total emissions (McKain et al., 2012) and are
 334 sensitive to surface fluxes (Keppel-Aleks et al., 2012). To derive the total emissions of trace gases
 335 released in the atmosphere from a source region, the "mass balance" approach is often used. In
 336 its simplest form, the X_{CH_4} fluxes can be written as in Equation 2, but this requires making
 337 assumptions about the homogeneity of the sources and wind shear in the PBL.

$$338 \quad F_{X_{CH_4}} = \Delta_{X_{CH_4}} \frac{V(z)}{m(\theta)} SC_{air}(z) \quad (2)$$

339 where $F_{X_{CH_4}}$ is the flux (molecules/s.m²), $\Delta_{X_{CH_4}}$ is the X_{CH_4} enhancement between the upwind and
 340 the downwind region (ppb), V is the average wind speed (ms⁻¹) from both airports, m is the
 341 distance in meter that air crosses over the dairies calculated as a function of the wind direction
 342 θ , and $SC_{air}(z)$ is the vertical column density of air (molecules/m²). The distances that airmasses
 343 cross over the dairies (m) before reaching a receptor (EM27/SUN) are computed for each day,
 344 each wind direction, and each instrument (see complementary information section S3).

345 Equation 2 can be reformulated as:

$$346 \quad \Delta_{X_{CH_4}} = \Delta t \cdot \frac{F_{X_{CH_4}}}{SC_{air}(z)} \quad (3)$$

347 where $\Delta t = \frac{m(\theta)}{V(z)}$ is the residence time of air over the dairies (in seconds).

348 A modified version of this mass balance approach has been used by Chen et al. (2016) to verify
 349 that the X_{CH_4} gradients measured by the EM27/SUN are comparable to the expected values

350 measured at Chino during the CalNex aircraft campaign (Peischl et al., 2013). In Chen et al., X_{CH_4}
351 enhancements measured between upwind and two of the downwind sites on January 24th (day
352 of constant wind direction, Figure 1 panels f and i) are compared to the expected value derived
353 from Peischl’s emission numbers, which were determined using the bottom-up method and
354 aircraft measurements. They found that the measured X_{CH_4} gradient of ~ 2 ppb, agrees within the
355 low range of the 2010 value. However, this differential approach, using upwind and downwind
356 measurements, reduces the flux estimates to only one day (January 24th), since the wind speed
357 and direction were not constant during the other days of field measurements.

358 In this study, we extend the analysis of the Chino dataset using the mass balance approach on
359 steady-wind day (on January 24th) for all the FTS instruments (i.e three downwind sites), as well
360 as employing the other two days of measurements (January 15th, and 16th) in conjunction the
361 WRF-LES model to derive a flux of X_{CH_4} from the dairy farms. We exclude measurements from
362 January 22nd and August 13th because of the presence of cirrus clouds during those days, which
363 greatly reduce the precision of the column measurements. Our X_{CH_4} signal measured by the FTS
364 can be decomposed as the sum of the background concentration and the enhancements due to
365 the local sources:

$$366 \quad X_{CH_4,measured} = X_{CH_4,background} + \Delta_{X_{CH_4}} \quad (4)$$

367 Gradients of X_{CH_4} ($\Delta_{X_{CH_4}}$) are calculated relative to one instrument for the three days. The X_{CH_4}
368 means (and standard deviations) over the three days of measurements at Chino are 1.824
369 (± 0.003) ppm, 1.833 (± 0.007) ppm, 1.823 (± 0.003) ppm, and 1.835 (± 0.010) ppm for the Caltech,
370 Harvard1, Harvard2, and LANL instruments, respectively. The Harvard2 X_{CH_4} mean and standard
371 deviation are the lowest of all the observations, therefore these measurements are used as
372 ‘background’. This background site is consistent with wind directions for almost all observations,
373 except for small periods of time on January 16th, which highlights the limitation of our method.
374 Gradients of X_{CH_4} ($\Delta_{X_{CH_4}}$) for an instrument i (i.e. Caltech, Harvard1, or LANL) are the differences
375 between each 10-minute average X_{CH_4} measured by i and the simultaneous 10-minute average
376 X_{CH_4} measured by the Harvard2 instrument. Details about the residence time calculation can be

377 found in the supplementary information section (S3). Time series of anomalies for individual
 378 measurements days are presented in Figure 4.

379 Assuming the background levels X_{CH_4} are similar at all the instrument sites within 10 km distance
 380 and steady state wind fields, equation 3 can be written as:

$$381 \quad (X_{CH_4,i} - X_{CH_4,Harvard2}) \propto (t_i - t_{Harvard2}) \cdot F_{X_{CH_4}} \quad (5)$$

382 Graphical representation of equation 5 is shown in Figure 5 in which $\Delta_{X_{CH_4}}$, the measured
 383 gradients by the four FTS during January 24th, are plotted as a function of Δ_t , so that the slope
 384 corresponds to a flux in ppb/s or ppt/s (parts per trillion). In this figure the slope of the blue lines
 385 (dark and light ones) represents the flux measured at Chino in previous studies (Peischl et al.,
 386 2013). These studies estimating CH₄ fluxes at Chino in 2010 reported a bottom-up value of 28
 387 Gg/yr with a range of top-down measurements from 24 to 74 Gg/yr (Table 1). To compare these
 388 values (in Gg/yr) to the fluxes derived from column average (in ppt/s), we used Equation 6:

$$389 \quad F_{col} = \frac{F \cdot 10^9}{a \cdot Y \cdot SC_{air}(z) \cdot \frac{m_g}{Na}} \cdot 10^{12} \quad (6)$$

390 where F_{col} is the column average flux in ppt/s, F the flux in Gg/yr, a the area of Chino (m²), Y
 391 the number of seconds in a year, $SC_{air}(z)$ the vertical column density of air (molecules/m²), m_g
 392 the molar mass of CH₄ (g/mol), and Na the Avogadro constant (mol⁻¹).

393 On January 24th, when the wind speed is higher than the other days (Figure 1, panels f, and i), the
 394 residence time over the dairies (Δ_t) is reduced by a factor of 30. The mean Δ_t from the closest to
 395 the furthest instruments to the upwind site are 4 minutes for Caltech (black square, Figure 5), 13
 396 minutes for Harvard2 (green square, Figure 5), and 16 minutes for LANL (red square, Figure 5).
 397 The X_{CH_4} fluxes estimated using the mean states (mass balance approach) are 4.8, 1.6, and 1.4
 398 ppt/s for the Caltech, LANL, and Harvard2 downwind instruments. For that day, the high wind
 399 speed causes a reduction of the methane plume width across the feedlot, which may increase
 400 uncertainties on the mass-balance approach since the FTS' measurements may only detect a
 401 small portion of the total plume. Overall, the FTS network infers X_{CH_4} emissions at Chino that are

402 in the low-end of previous top-down estimates reported by Peischl et al. (2013), which is
403 consistent with the decrease in cows and farms in the Chino area over several past years.

404 However, the flux estimated using the closest instrument/shortest residence time (i.e. Caltech)
405 exceeds the value from previous studies by almost a factor of two. The other values from LANL
406 and Harvard2, on the other hand, are lower than previous published values. This analysis
407 demonstrates that, even with the steady-state winds day, and the simple geometry, the mass
408 balance still has weaknesses, since it does not properly explain the differences seen among the
409 three downwind sites. The close-in site exhibits the highest apparent emission rate possibly due
410 to the proximity of a large CH₄ source. This exhibits delusive approximations implied by this
411 method (i.e., spatial inhomogeneity of X_{CH₄} sources completely averaged out and conservative
412 transport in the domain) even on the “golden day” of strong steady-state wind pattern.
413 Therefore, when investigating emissions at local scales these assumptions can be dubious and
414 lead to errors in the flux estimates.

415 4.3) Spatial study of the CH₄ fluxes using WRF-LES data

416 Analysis of the spatial sources at Chino is developed in this section using the WRF-LES model and
417 in section 4.4 with in situ Picarro measurements.

418 To map the sources of CH₄ at Chino with the model, we focus on the two days of measurements
419 during which the wind changed direction regularly (i.e. January 15th and 16th, Figure 1 panels d,
420 e, g and h). This provides the model information about the spatial distribution of CH₄ emissions.

421 4.3.1) WRF-LES model evaluation

422 The two WRF-Chem simulations were evaluated for both days (January 15th and 16th) using
423 meteorological observations (Figures 6 and 7). EM27 XCH₄ measurements from January 24th
424 correspond to a constant wind direction and therefore are less suitable for mapping CH₄
425 emissions. The triangulation of sources requires changes in wind direction when using a static
426 network of sensors. Starting with the larger region on the 3-km grid where WMO sondes are
427 available (Figure 6), model verification for both days indicates that wind speed errors averaged
428 over the domain are about 1 ms⁻¹ in the free atmosphere and slightly larger in the PBL (less than

429 2 ms^{-1}). For wind direction, the Mean Absolute Error (MAE) is less than 20 degrees in the free
430 atmosphere and increases approaching the surface, reaching a maximum of about 50 degrees
431 there. In the PBL where local enhancements are located, the Mean Error (ME) remains small
432 oscillating between 0 and 10 degrees. At higher resolutions, the comparison between observed
433 and WRF-predicted surface wind speed (Figure 7) indicates that WRF is able to reproduce the
434 overall calm wind conditions for both days at both WMO stations, Chino (KCNO) and Ontario
435 (KONT). However, measurements below 1.5 ms^{-1} are not reported following the WMO standards,
436 which limits the ability to evaluate the model over time. On January 15th at KCNO, consistent with
437 the observations, all domains except the 3-km grid predict no surface wind speeds above 2 ms^{-1}
438 from 16:00 – 19:00 UTC, except for one time from the 111-m LES domain. After this period, the
439 111-m LES domain successfully reproduces the afternoon peak in wind speed of about 3 ms^{-1} ,
440 only slightly smaller than the observed values (3.6 ms^{-1} at Chino and 3.9 ms^{-1} at Ontario airports).
441 However, we should not expect perfect correspondence between the observations and the
442 instantaneous LES output unless a low-pass filter is performed on the LES to average out the
443 turbulence. On January 16th 2015, the model wind speed at KONT remained low throughout the
444 day, in good agreement with the (unreported) measurements, and also with available
445 observations.

446 4.3.2) Dispersion of tracers in LES mode: 15th and 16th January 2015

447 We use the January 15th 2015 case as an example showing the detail in the local winds that can
448 be provided by the high-resolution LES domain. Prior to approximately 19:00 UTC (= 11:00 LT) a
449 brisk easterly flow is present in the valley up to a height of 2 km; however, near the surface, a
450 cold pool up to several hundred meters thick developed with only a very weak easterly motion.
451 A simulated tracer released from a location near the east edge of the Chino area stays confined
452 to the cold pool for this period (Figure 8, upper row). Solar heating causes the cold pool to break
453 down quite rapidly after 19:00 UTC, causing the low-level wind speed to become more uniform
454 with height (around 3 ms^{-1} from the east), and allowing the tracer to mix up to a height of about
455 1 km (Figure 8, middle row). Beginning around 22:00 UTC (= 14:00 LT) however, a pulse of easterly
456 flow scours out the valley from the east, while a surge of cooler westerly flow approaches at low
457 levels from the west, undercutting the easterly flow. By 00:00 UTC (=16:00 LT) the tracer seems

458 to be concentrated in the cooler air just beneath the boundary of the two opposing air streams
459 (Figure 8, lower row).

460 The tracer released (right columns in Figure 8) from an emitting $2 \times 2 \text{ km}^2$ pixel shows complex
461 vertical structures and two different regimes over the day. At 18:00 UTC, the tracer is
462 concentrated near the surface, except toward the West with a maximum at 600 m high. At 21:00
463 UTC, the tracer is well-mixed in the vertical across the entire PBL, from 0 to about $\sim 1 \text{ km}$,
464 corresponding to convective conditions of daytime. At 00:00 UTC, the stability increased again,
465 generating a low vertical plume extent with complex structures and large vertical gradients along
466 the transect. Several updrafts and downdrafts are visible at 18:00 and 00:00 UTC, indicated by
467 the shift in wind vectors and the distribution of the tracer in the vertical (Figure 8). These spatial
468 structures are unique to the LES simulation, as the PBL scheme of the mesoscale model does not
469 reproduce turbulent eddies within the PBL.

470 In the horizontal, convective rolls and large tracer gradients are present, with visible fine-scale
471 spatial structures driven by the topography (i.e. hills in the South of the domain) and turbulent
472 eddies. Figure 9 (left panel) illustrates the spatial distribution of the mean horizontal wind at the
473 surface over the 111-m simulation domain at 18:00 UTC, just prior to the scouring out of the cold
474 pool near a large Chino feedlot. It can be seen that the near-surface air that fills the triangular
475 valley in the greater Chino area is nearly stagnant, while much stronger winds appear on the
476 ridges to the south. There are some banded structures showing increased wind speed near KONT
477 to the north of the main pool of stagnant air. Figure 9 (right panel) illustrates the wind pattern
478 for the 18:00 UTC January 16th case. The same general patterns can be seen, with the main
479 apparent differences being reduced wind speed along the southern high ridges, and more
480 stagnant air in the vicinity of KONT along with elevated wind speed bands near KCNO. These
481 results emphasize how variable the wind field structures can be from point-to-point in the valley.

482 4.3.3) Bayesian inversion and error assessment

483 We present the inverse emissions from the Bayesian analytical framework in Figures 10. The
484 Bayesian analytical solution was computed for both days, assuming a flat prior emission rate of
485 $2150 \text{ mol/km}^2/\text{hour}$ corresponding to a uniform distribution of 115000 dairy cows over 64 km^2

486 emitting methane at a constant rate of 150 kg of CH₄ per year (CARB 2015), plus 18 kg annually
487 per cow from dry manure management assumed to be on-site (Peischl et al., 2013). The colored
488 areas in Figure 10 represent the ranges of solutions defined by the Simulated Annealing (SA)
489 analysis, for the two days of the campaign (in blue and green). The Bayesian averages agree well
490 with the SA estimates, with high confidence for half of the pixels (1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 13, 15, and 16),
491 and lower confidence for the other pixels. High values coincide with high confidence, which
492 confirms the fact that large signals constrain the inverse solution better. This would possibly
493 suggest that only the largest emissions could be attributed with sufficient confidence using these
494 tools.

495 The spatial distribution of the emissions is shown in Figure 13, which directly corresponds to the
496 pixel emissions presented in Figure 10. The largest sources are located in the southern part of
497 the dairy farms area, and in the northeastern corner of the domain. Additional interpretation of
498 these results is presented in the following section. The combination of the results from two dates
499 (January 15th and 16th) is necessary in order to identify the whole southern edge of the feedlots
500 as a large source. Sensitivity results are presented in the discussion and in the supplementary
501 information section (S4 and S5). The triangulation of sources performed by the inversion
502 produced consistent results using different configurations of EM27 sensors for each day.
503 Inversion results cover the entire domain with all wind directions being observed over the two
504 days (cf. Figure 1, panels d, e, g, and h). Additional sensitivity tests were performed to evaluate
505 the impact of instrument errors, introducing a systematic error of 5 ppb in X_{CH₄} measured by one
506 of the EM27/SUN. The posterior emissions increased by 3-4 Gg/year for a +5ppb bias almost
507 independent of the location of the biased instrument. This represents ~10% of the total emission
508 at Chino.

509 4.4) Spatial study of the CH₄ emissions at Chino using Picarro measurements

510 During the field campaign in January 2015, in situ measurements of CH₄, CO₂, as well as δ¹³C are
511 collected simultaneously with a Picarro instrument at the same site as the LANL EM27/SUN.
512 Fossil-related CH₄ sources, such as power plants, traffic, and natural gas, emit CH₄ with an isotopic
513 depletion δ¹³C ranging from -30 to -45 ‰, whereas biogenic methane sources, such as those from

514 enteric fermentation and wet and dry manure management in dairies and feedlots emit in the
515 range of -65 to -45 ‰ (Townsend-Small et al., 2012). During the January 2015 campaign, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
516 at Chino ranged from -35 to -50 ‰, indicating a mixture of fossil and biogenic sources
517 respectively. Most of the air sampled included a mixture of both sources. However, the
518 measurements with the highest CH_4 concentrations had lowest $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures, suggesting that
519 the major CH_4 enhancements measured by the Picarro instrument can be attributed to the dairy
520 farms and not the surrounding urban sources.

521 On January 16th and 22nd, the Picarro and the LANL EM27/SUN were installed at the southwest
522 side of the largest dairies in Chino (red pin, Figure 1b), near a wet lagoon that is used for manure
523 management (< 150 m away). For these days, the Picarro measured enhancements of CH_4 up to
524 20 ppm above background concentrations, demonstrating that the lagoon is a large source of CH_4
525 emissions in the Chino area. The location of the lagoon was identified and verified by satellite
526 imagery, visual inspection, and also with measurements from the second Picarro instrument
527 deployed in the field on January 15th, 2015. With this instrument, CH_4 spikes up to 23 ppm were
528 observed near the wet manure lagoon. The measurements from both Picarras and the LANL
529 EM27/SUN instrument near the lagoon suggested that this is a significant local source of CH_4
530 emissions in the Chino area.

531 As opposed to column measurements, Picarro measurements are very sensitive to the dilution
532 effect of gases in the PBL. With a low boundary layer, atmospheric constituents are concentrated
533 near the surface, and the atmospheric signal detected by the in situ surface measurements is
534 enhanced relative to the daytime, when the PBL is fully developed. For this reason, additional
535 Picarro measurements were made at night on August 13th 2015, when the PBL height is minimal.
536 Between 04:00 to 07:00 (LT), we performed Picarro measurements at different locations in Chino,
537 to map the different sources of CH_4 and verify that the large sources observed in January, such
538 as the lagoon, are still emitting in summer. Figure 11 shows the scatter plot of one minute-
539 average anomalies of CH_4 (Δ_{CH_4}) versus CO_2 (Δ_{CO_2}), colored by the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, measured by the
540 Picarro on the night of August 13th 2015. During that night, the isotopic range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in sampled
541 methane range from -45 ‰ to -65 ‰. These low $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are consistent with the expectation
542 that the sources of CH_4 in the Chino area are dominated by biogenic emissions from dairy cows.

543 In the feedlots (side triangles, Figure 11), Δ_{CH_4} and Δ_{CO_2} are well correlated ($r^2 = 0.90$), because
544 cows emit both gases (Kinsman et al., 1995). The observed $\Delta_{CH_4}/\Delta_{CO_2}$ emission ratio, 48 ± 1.5
545 ppb/ppm, is in good agreement with a previous study measuring this ratio from cow's breath
546 (Lassen et al., 2012). Measurements obtained at less than one meter away from cows (circles,
547 Figure 11), had the lowest the $\delta^{13}C$ observed, ~ -65 ‰, and these points scale well with the linear
548 correlation observed during the survey. This confirms that the emission ratio derived surveying
549 the feedlots is representative of biogenic emissions related to enteric fermentation.
550 Measurements obtained next to the lagoon (diamond marks, Figure 11), the $^{12}CH_4$ concentrations
551 enhanced by up to 40 ppm above background levels observed that night, while the relative
552 enhancement of CO_2 was much smaller. This extremely large CH_4 enhancement relative to CO_2
553 indicates a signature of CH_4 emissions from wet manure management (lagoon), confirming that
554 there is significant heterogeneity in the CH_4 sources within the Chino dairy area.

555 5) Discussion

556 The fluxes derived by the FTS observations and the WRF-LES inversions, as well as previous
557 reported values are summarized in Table 1.

558 The top-down CH₄ estimate using FTS observations in Chino provide a range of fluxes from 1.4 to
559 4.8 ppt/s during January 2015 (Table 1), which are on the lower-end of previously published
560 estimates. These values of CH₄ flux estimates for January 2015 based on the FTS measurements
561 are consistent with the decrease in cows in Chino over the past several years as urbanization
562 spreads across the region.

563 Considering the decrease of dairy cows number by ~20% from 2010 to 2015, and using the
564 emission factor of 168 kg/yr per head (CARB 2015 inventory: enteric fermentation + dry manure
565 management), the CH₄ flux associated with dairy cows at Chino decreased from 2.0 to 1.7 ppt/s,
566 which agrees well with our low flux estimates derived from FTS observations. However, fluxes
567 derived using the simple mass balance approach differs from each other, exhibiting the
568 limitations of this method, even on a “golden day” (steady-state wind day on January 24th). The
569 WRF-LES inversions (Figures 10 and 12) and mobile in situ measurements with the Picarro
570 instrument (Figure 11) indicate that the CH₄ sources are not homogeneous within this local area.
571 In addition, wind measurements from the two local airports typically disagree regarding the
572 direction and speed (Figure 1, panels d, e, f, g, h, and i), and the WRF-LES tracer results indicate
573 non-homogeneous advection of tracers (Figure 8, right panels).

574 Figure 12 shows the map of the *a posteriori* X_{CH₄} fluxes (mean of January 15th and 16th runs) from
575 the WRF-LES simulations, superimposed on a Google earth map, with the location of dairy farms
576 represented by the red areas. The domain is decomposed into 16 boxes (Section 3.2), in which
577 the colors correspond to the *a posteriori* emissions derived from the WRF-LES inversions. Red
578 (blue) colors of a box mean more (less) CH₄ emissions compared to the *a priori* emissions, which
579 corresponds to the dairy cow emissions contained in the CARB 2015 inventory (emission factor
580 multiplied by the number of cows). Results of the inversion exhibit more CH₄ emissions at the
581 South and the Northeast parts of the domain, and emissions corresponding to dairy cows in the
582 center of the area.

583 The higher CH₄ emissions from the southwestern part of the domain can be attributed to the wet
584 manure lagoon (yellow pin, Figure 12) in January 2015. During the night of August 13th 2015,
585 Picarro measurements confirmed that the lagoon was still wet and emitted a considerable
586 amount of CH₄ relative to CO₂ (Figure 12). The second mobile Picarro instrument from JPL was
587 deployed on January 15th 2015 and measured CH₄ spikes up to 23 ppm near the wet manure
588 lagoon. The WRF-LES model also suggests higher methane fluxes in these regions (red boxes,
589 Figure 12). The CARB 2015 inventory estimates that manure management practices under wet
590 (e.g. lagoon) conditions emit more CH₄ than the dairy cows themselves: 187 kg CH₄ cow⁻¹ yr⁻¹
591 from wet manure management, 18 kg CH₄ cow⁻¹ yr⁻¹ from dry management practices, and 150 kg
592 CH₄ cow⁻¹ yr⁻¹ from enteric fermentation in the stomachs of dairy cows. Therefore, we expect
593 measurements in which the lagoon emissions were detected by our instruments will lead to
594 higher methane fluxes in the local region, compared to measurements detecting emissions from
595 enteric fermentation in cows alone. Bottom-up emission inventory of CH₄ is 2 times higher when
596 considering wet lagoons (Wennberg et al., 2012) instead of dry management practices (Peischl
597 et al., 2013) at Chino (Table 1). The location and extent of wet lagoons in the Chino region is not
598 expected to be constant with time and could be altered due to changing land use and future
599 development in the area. Bottom-up estimates of CH₄ emissions from dairies in the Chino region
600 could be further improved if the extent and location of wet manure lagoons were well-known.

601 The WRF-LES model also suggests higher methane fluxes in the Southeast (red boxes, Figure 13).
602 No dairy farms are located in these areas, but an inter-state pipeline is located nearby, thus these
603 CH₄ enhancements could be attributed to natural gas. The ¹³CH₄ Picarro measurements indicate
604 the Chino area is influenced by both fossil- and biogenic- related methane sources. A recent study
605 has suggested the presence of considerable fugitive emissions of methane at Chino
606 (<http://www.edf.org/climate/methanemaps/city-snapshots/los-angeles-area>), probably due to
607 the advanced age of the pipelines. Natural gas leaks in the Chino area were not specifically
608 targeted during the time of this field campaign and cannot be confirmed using available data.
609 This possibility should thus be confirmed by future studies.

610 In addition to possible fugitive emissions at Chino, the inversion also predicts higher CH₄ flux in
611 the Northeastern region of the study domain, which is in the vicinity of a power plant that

612 reportedly emits a CH₄ flux roughly equivalent of one cow per year (only including enteric
613 fermentation) (http://www.arb.ca.gov/cc/reporting/ghg-rep/reported_data/ghg-reports.htm).
614 Further analysis and measurements of fossil methane sources in the Chino area would help verify
615 potential contributions from fossil methane sources, including power plants and/or fugitive
616 natural gas pipeline emissions.

617 Overall, FTS and in situ Picarro measurements, as well as WRF-LES inversions, all demonstrate
618 that the CH₄ sources at Chino are heterogeneous, with a mixture of emissions from enteric
619 fermentation, wet and dry manure management practices, and possible additional fossil
620 methane emissions (from natural gas pipeline and power plants). The detection of CH₄ emissions
621 in the Chino region and discrepancies between top-down estimates could be further improved
622 with more FTS observations and concurrent in situ methane isotopes measurements combined
623 with high-resolution WRF-LES inversions. This would improve the spatial detection of the CH₄
624 emissions at Chino, in order to ameliorate the inventories among the individual sources in this
625 local area.

626 6) Summary and conclusions

627 In January 2015, four mobile low-resolution FTS (EM27/SUN) were deployed in a ~6 x 9 km area
628 in Chino (California), to assess CH₄ emissions related to dairy cows in the SoCAB farms. The
629 network of column measurements captured large spatial and temporal gradients of greenhouses
630 gases emitted from this small-scale area. Temporal variabilities of X_{CH₄} and X_{CO₂} can reach up to
631 20 ppb and 2 ppm, respectively, within less than a 10-minute interval with respect to wind
632 direction changes. This study demonstrate that these mobile FTS are therefore capable of
633 detecting local greenhouses gas signals and these measurements can be used to improve the
634 verification of X_{CO₂} and X_{CH₄} emissions at local scales.

635 Top-down estimates of CH₄ fluxes using the 2015 FTS observations in conjunction with wind
636 measurements are 1.4-4.8 ppt/s, which are in the low-end of the 2010 estimates (Peischl et al.,
637 2013), consistent with the decrease in cows in the Chino area. During this campaign, FTS
638 measurements were collected in close proximity to the sources (less than a few km) in order to
639 capture large signals from the local area. The main advantage of this type of deployment strategy
640 is to better constrain the emissions, while avoiding vertical mixing issues in the model with the
641 use of column measurements in the inversion (Wunch et al., 2011). Therefore, the model
642 transport errors, which often limit the capacity of the model flux estimates, are considerably
643 reduced. However, the close proximity of the measurements to the sources makes the
644 assumptions about homogeneity of the sources and wind patterns questionable.

645 The FTS and the Picarro measurements detected various CH₄ signatures over Chino, with extreme
646 CH₄ enhancements measured nearby a wet lagoon (Picarro and FTS measurements enhanced by
647 40 ppm CH₄ and 60 ppb X_{CH₄}, respectively) and possible fugitive fossil-related CH₄ emissions in
648 the area (indicated by higher δ¹³C values than expected from biogenic emissions alone).

649 Wind speed and direction measurements derived from the two local airports (less than 10 km
650 apart), as well as the WRF meteorological simulations at different FTS sites, differ greatly with
651 each other, suggesting that an assumption of steady horizontal wind can be improved upon in
652 the use of the mass balance approach in our study. This may explain some differences between
653 the CH₄ flux estimates from the mass balance approach and the Bayesian inversion.

654 This study demonstrates the value of using mobile column measurements for detection of local
655 CH₄ enhancements and the estimation of CH₄ emissions when these measurements are
656 combined with modeling. High-resolution (111 m) WRF-LES simulations were performed on two
657 dates, constrained by four column measurements each day, to map the heterogeneous CH₄
658 sources at Chino. The average a posteriori flux over the domain is 3.2 ppt/s when only considering
659 the boxes in the center of the domain, and 4.7 ppt/s when all the boxes are averaged. A major
660 emitter (a wet manure lagoon) was identified by the inversion results, and is supported by in-situ
661 ¹³CH₄ measurements collected during the campaign. The CH₄ flux estimates are within the range
662 of the top-down mass balance emissions derived with the four FTS and estimates reported by
663 Peischl et al. 2013 (i.e., 2.1 to 6.5 ppt/s), showing that column measurements combined with
664 high resolution modeling can detect and be used to estimate CH₄ emissions.

665 The instrumental synergy (mobile in situ and column observations) coupled with a
666 comprehensive high-resolution model simulations allow estimation of local CH₄ fluxes, and can
667 be useful for improving emission inventories, especially in a complex megacity area, where the
668 different sources are often located within small areas.

669 This study highlights the complexity of estimating emissions at local scale when sources and wind
670 can exhibit heterogeneous patterns. Long term column observations and/or aircraft eddy
671 covariance measurements could improve estimations.

672 Acknowledgements:

673 The authors thank NASA and the W. M. Keck Institute for Space Studies for financial support.
674 MKD acknowledges NASA CMS support of the EM27/SUN deployment and LANL- LDRD
675 20110081DR for acquisition of the instrument. J. Chen, T. Jones, J. E. Franklin, and S. C. Wofsy
676 gratefully acknowledge funding provided by the National Science Foundation through MRI Award
677 1337512. January Campaign participants are Camille Viatte, Jacob Hedelius, Harrison Parker, Jia
678 Chen, Johnathan Franklin, Taylor Jones, Riley Duren, and Kristal Verhulst.

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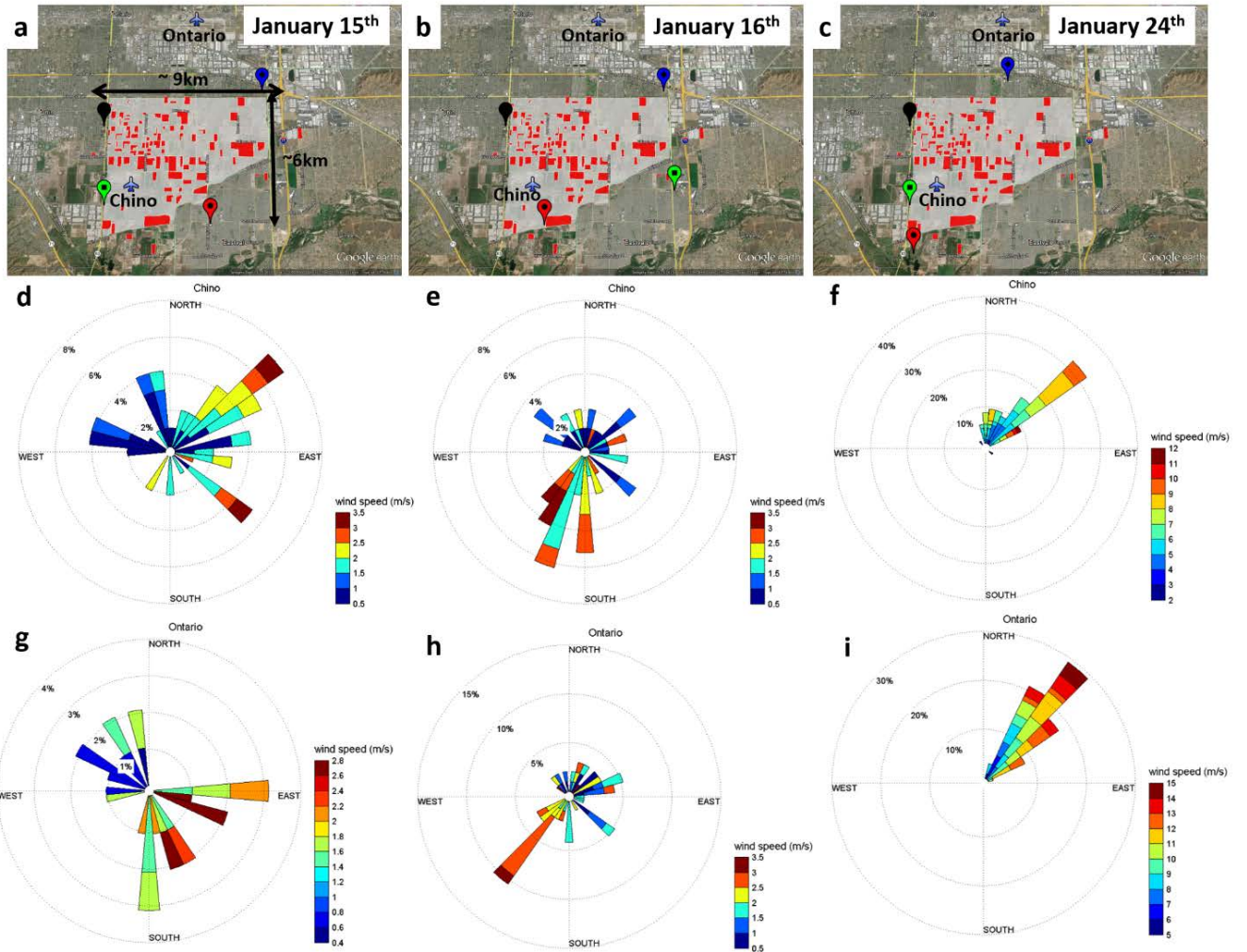
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study	time of study	sources	CH ₄ emission (Gg/year)	CH ₄ emission (ppt/s)
Peischl et al., 2013	2010	inventory (dry manure + cows)	28	2.5
Peischl et al., 2013	2010	aircraft measurements	24-74	2.1-6.5
Wennberg et al., 2012	2010	inventory (wet manure + cows)*	66	5.8
CARB 2015	2015	inventory (dry manure + cows)	19	1.7
Chen et al.	2015	FTS measurements only	19-32	2.4-3.3
This study	2015	FTS measurements only	16-55	1.4-4.8
This study	2015	WRF inversions	36-54	3.2-4.7

901

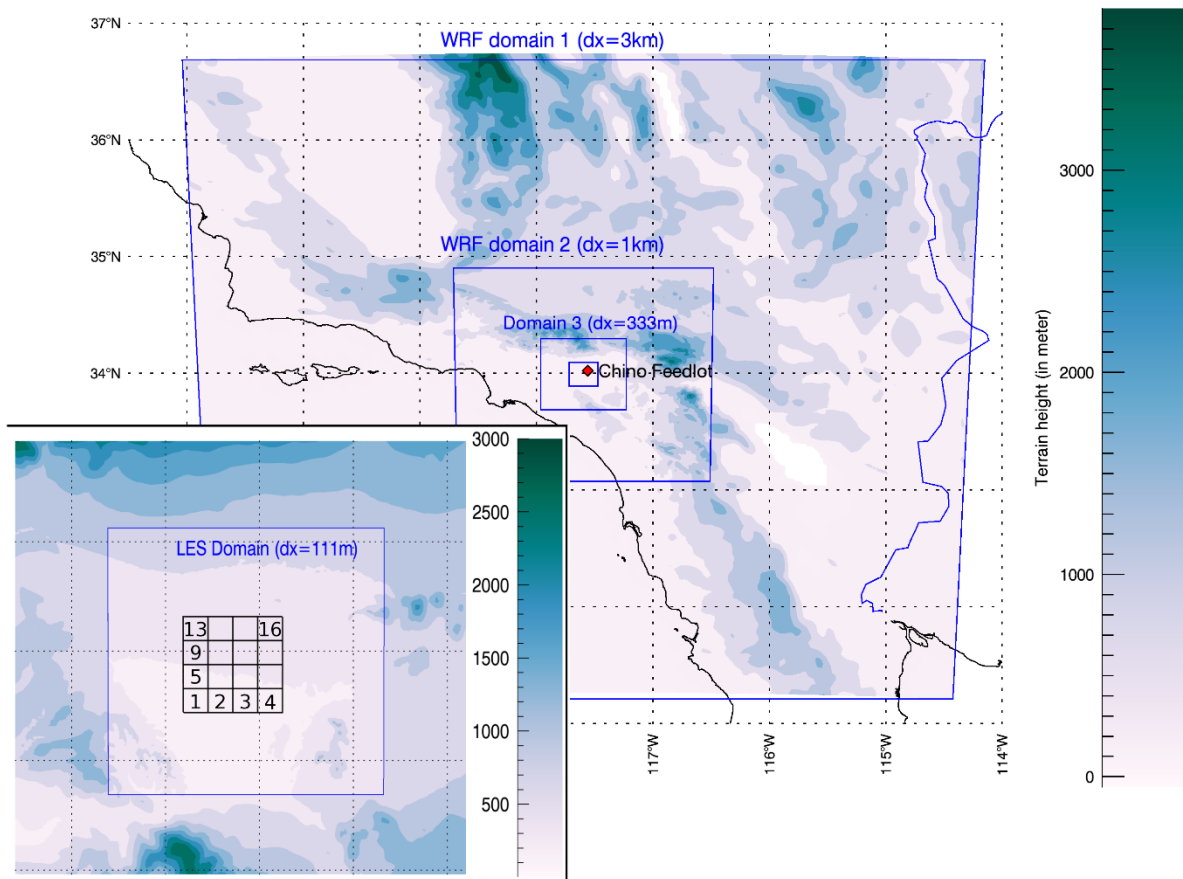
902 * Value reported for the SoCAB, apportioned for Chino in this study.

903 Table1: Emissions of CH₄ at Chino.



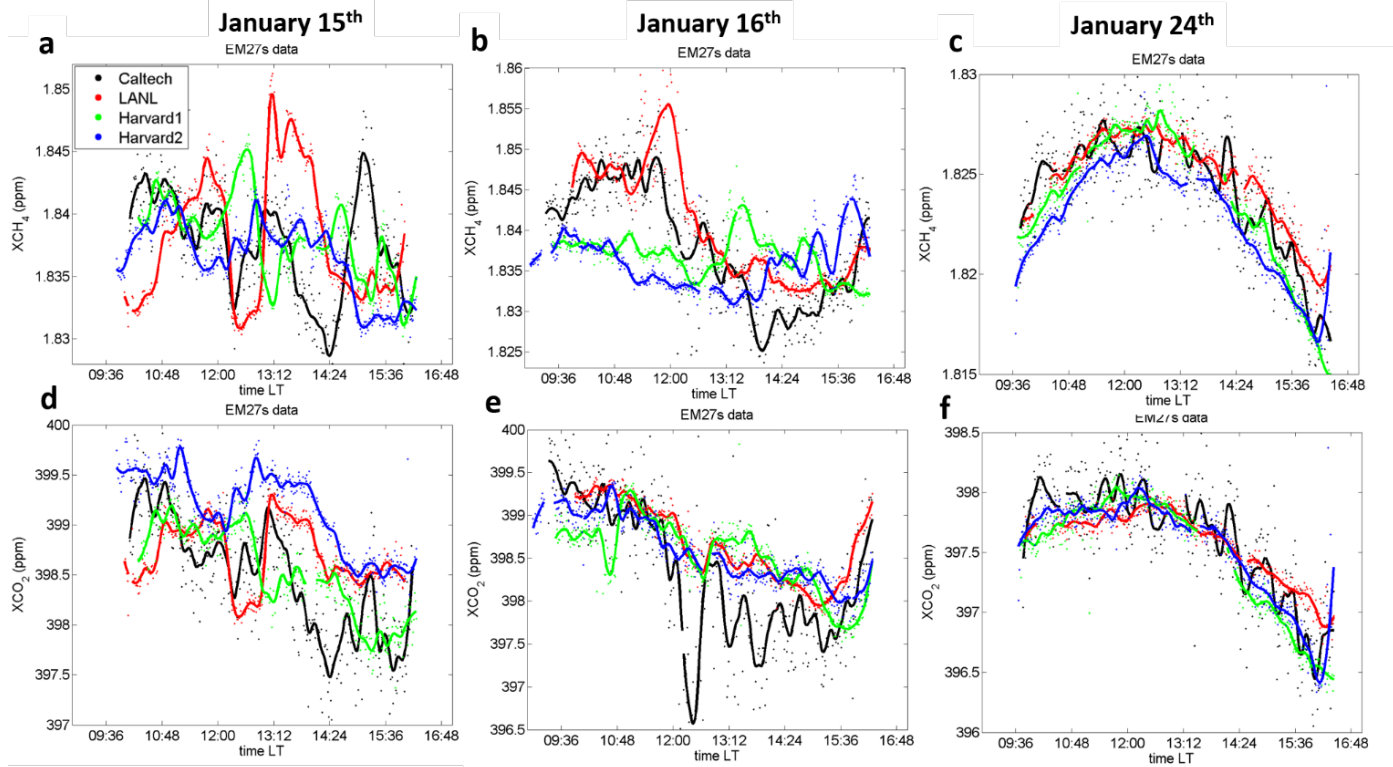
904

905 Figure 1: Three different days of measurements during the field campaign at Chino (~9 x 6 km),
 906 16th, and 24th of January 2015. Upper panels (a, b, and c) show the chosen locations of the four EM27/SUN
 907 (black, red, green, and blue pins correspond to the Caltech, LANL, Harvard1, and Harvard2 instruments,
 908 respectively). The red marks on the map correspond to the dairy farms. Lower panels show wind roses of
 909 ten-minute average of wind directions and wind speeds measured at the two local airports (at Chino on
 910 panels d, e, and f, and at Ontario on panels g, h, and i). Map provided by GOOGLE EARTH V 7.1.2.2041, US
 911 Dept. of State Geographer, Google, 2013, Image Landsat, Data SIO, NOAA, U.S. Navy, NGA, and GEBCO.



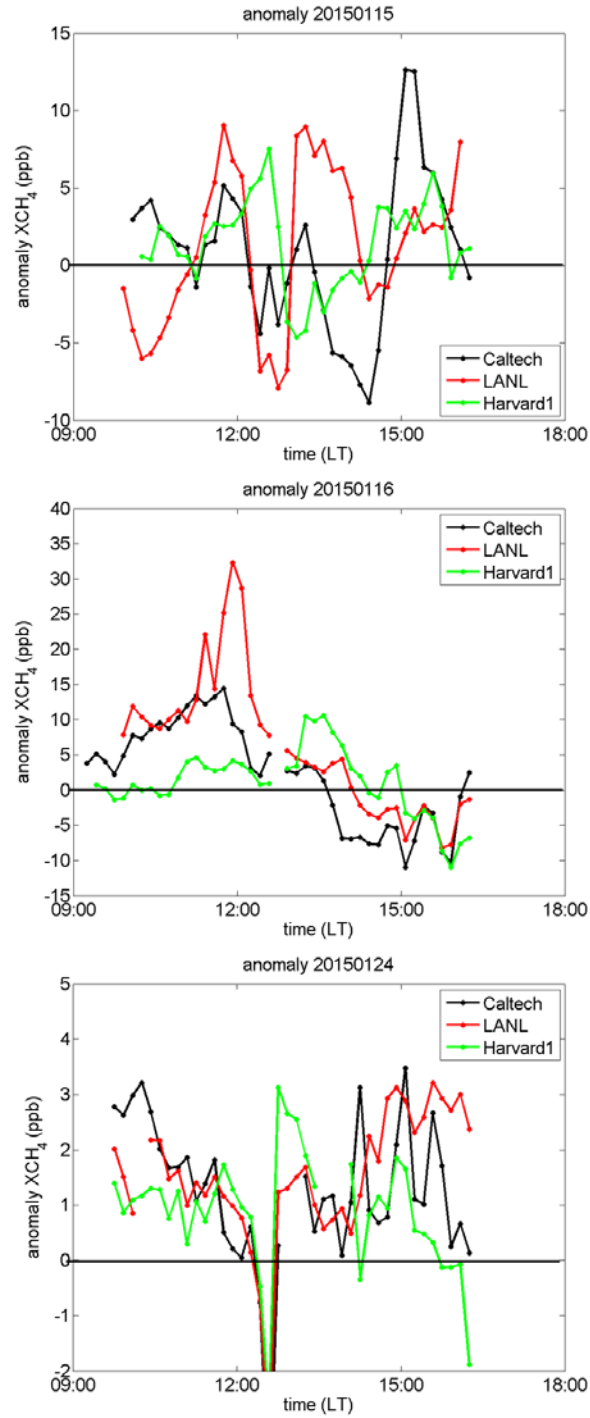
912

913 Figure 2: WRF-Chem simulation domains for the 4 grid resolutions (3-km; 1-km; 333-m; 111-m), with the
 914 corresponding topography based on the Shuttle Radar Topographic Mission Digital Elevation Model at 90-
 915 m resolution). The 16 rectangular areas (2 x 2 km²) are shown on the LES domain map and numerate by
 916 pixel numbers (Figure 10).



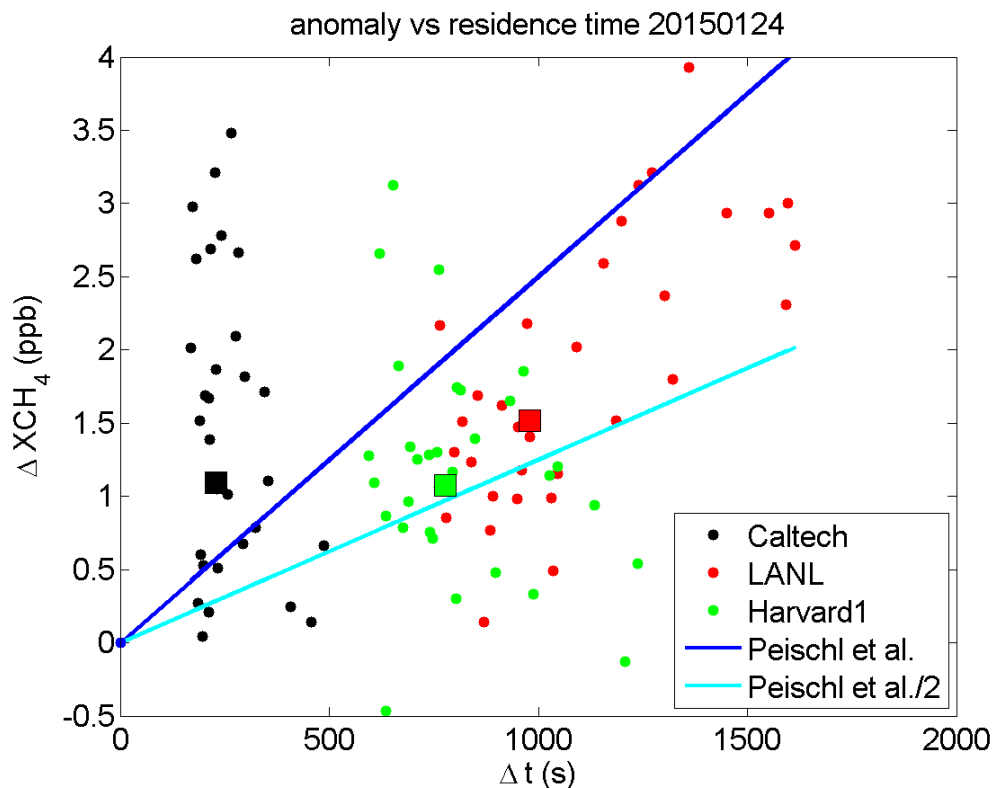
917

918 Figure 3: One minute-average time series of X_{CH_4} (upper panels a, b, and c) and X_{CO_2} (lower panels d, e, and
 919 f) measured by the four EM27/SUN (black, red, green, and blue marks correspond to the Caltech, LANL,
 920 Harvard1, and Harvard2 spectrometers, respectively).



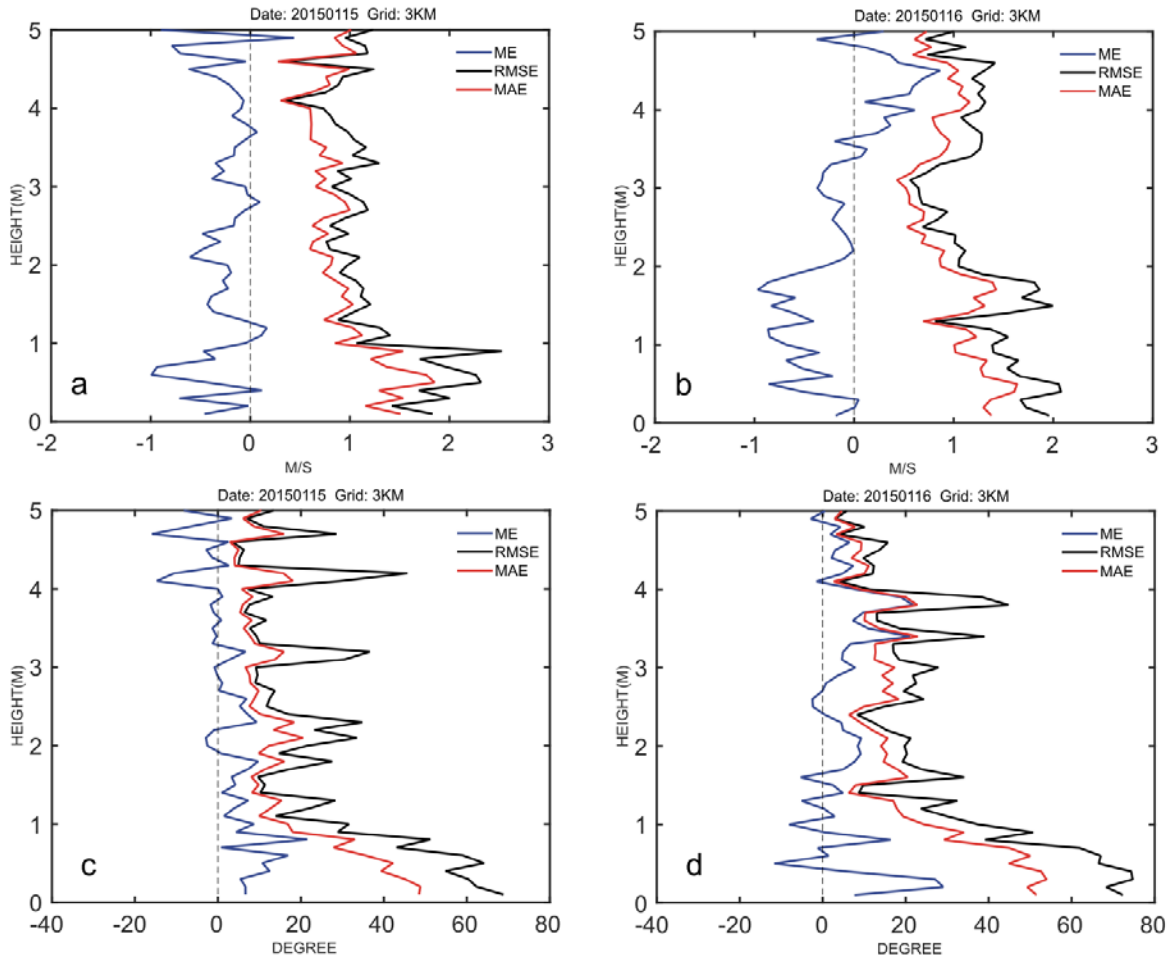
921

922 Figure 4: Time series of the 10-minute average X_{CH_4} anomaly ($\Delta_{X_{CH_4}}$, in ppb) computed relative to the
 923 Harvard2 instrument for January 15th (upper panel), January 16th (middle panel), and on January 24th 2015
 924 (lower panel).



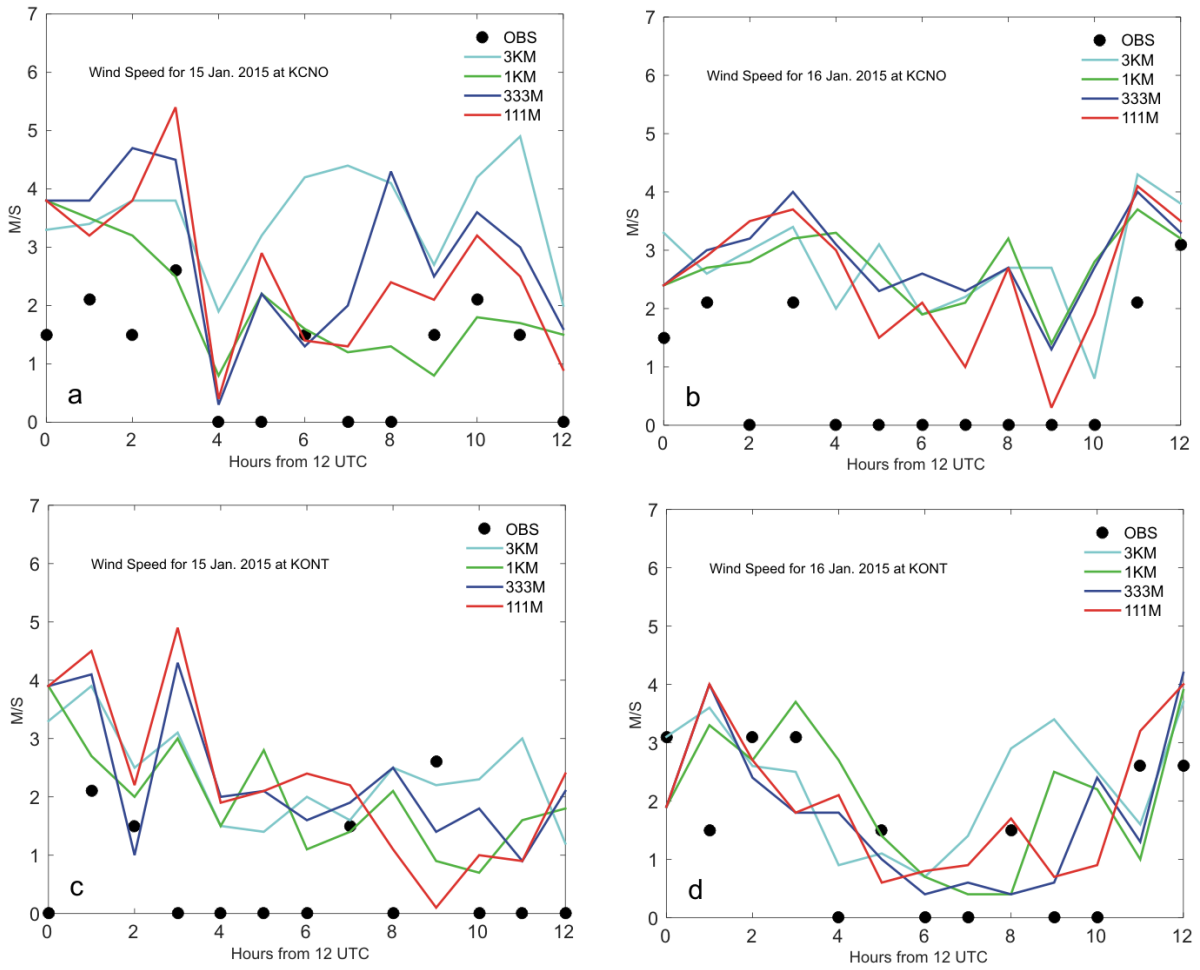
925

926 Figure 5: Estimated fluxes using FTS observations on January 24th. The 10-minute anomalies (relative to
 927 the Harvard 2 instrument) are plotted against the time that air mass travelled over the dairies, so that the
 928 slopes are equivalent to X_{CH_4} fluxes (in ppb/s, equation 5). The blue (and cyan) line represents the fluxes
 929 (and half of the value) estimated at Chino in 2010 (Peischl et al., 2013). The squares are the medians of
 930 the data which correspond to the estimated fluxes using the FTS observations (in black, red and green for
 931 the Caltech, LANL, and Harvard2 instruments).



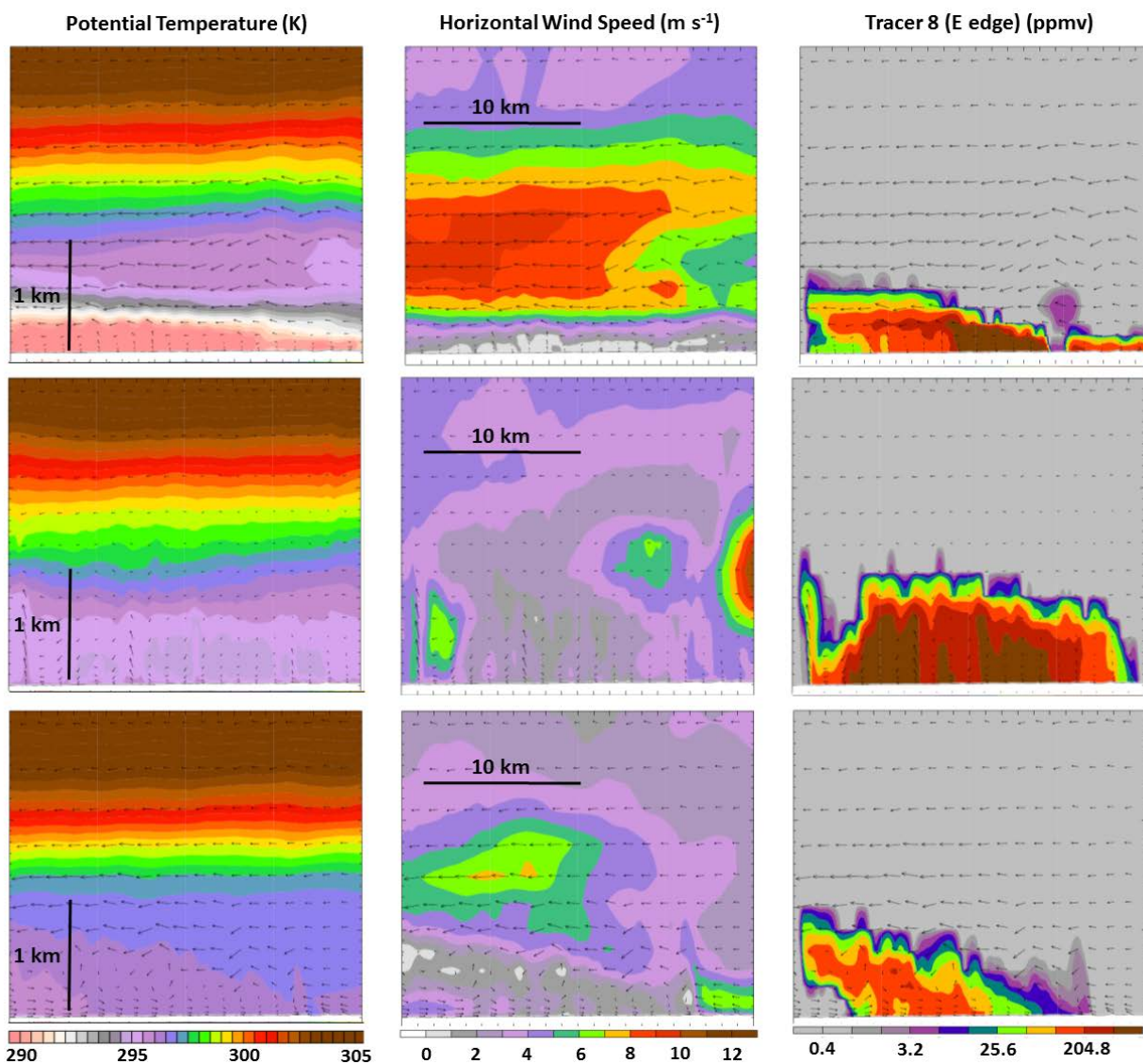
932

933 Figure 6: Vertical profiles of mean horizontal wind velocity errors (upper row) and direction (lower row)
 934 averaged from the WMO radiosonde sites available across the 3-km domain, with the Mean Absolute
 935 Error (in red), the Root Mean Square Error (in black), and the Mean Error (in blue). Only measurements
 936 from 00z radiosondes were used in the evaluation.

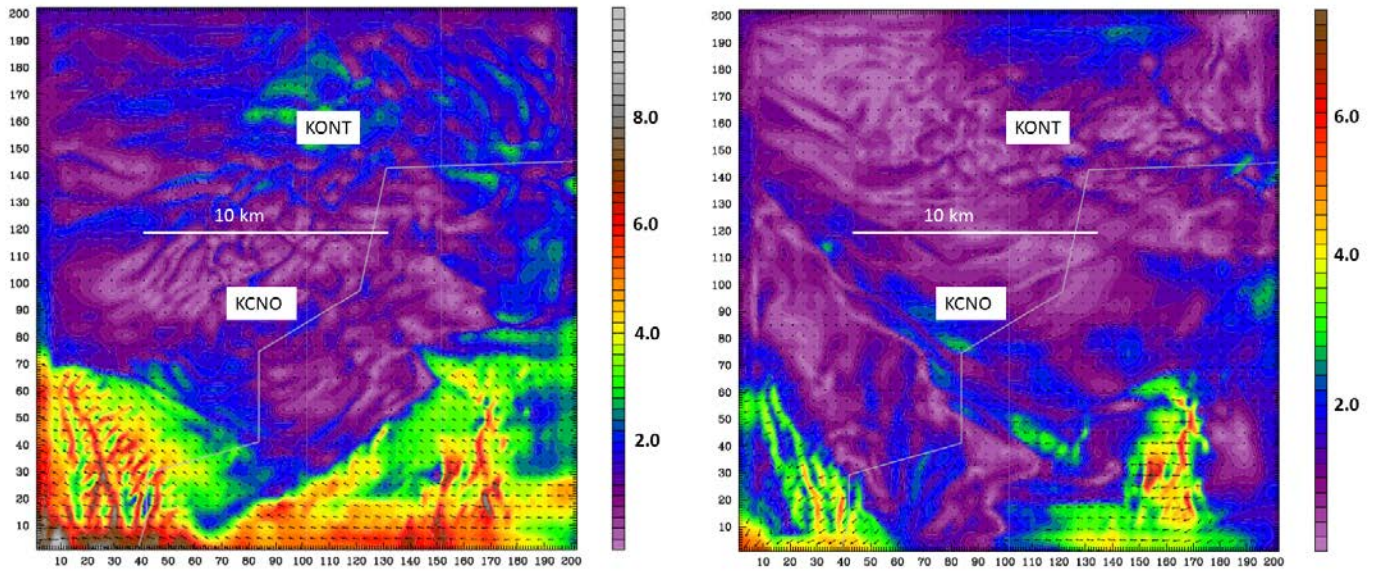


937

938 Figure 7: Mean horizontal 10-meter wind velocity in ms^{-1} measured at Chino (KCNO) and Ontario (KONT)
 939 airports for January 15th and 16th (black circles) compared to the simulated wind speed for different
 940 resolutions using WRF hourly-averaged results. When black circles indicate zero, the wind velocity
 941 measurements are below the WMO minimum threshold (i.e. 1.5 m/s).

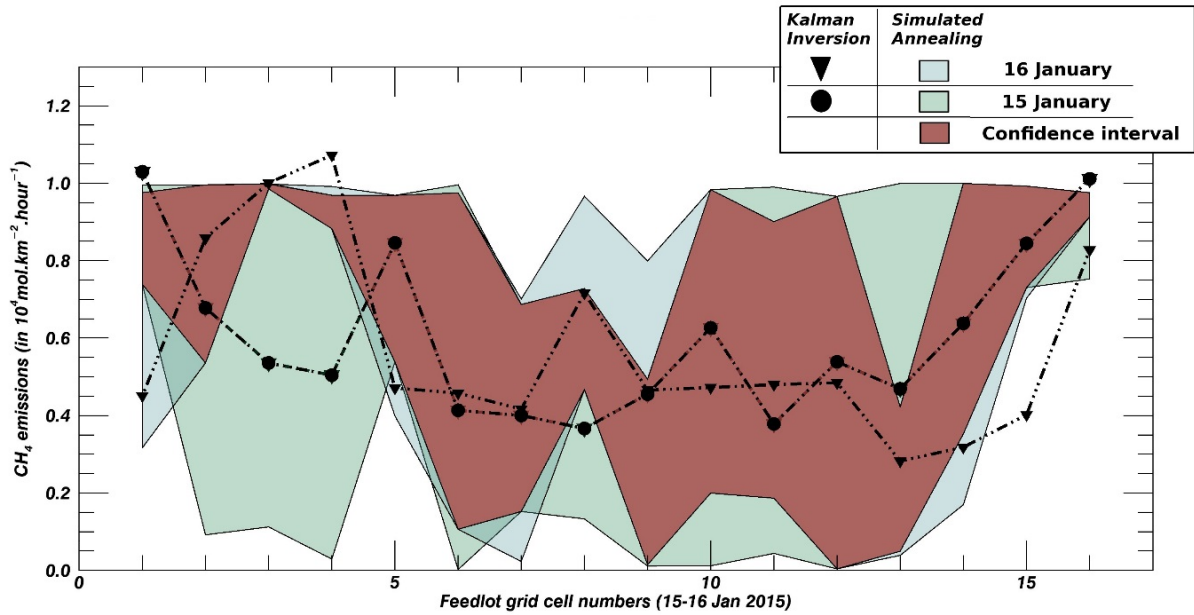


943
 944 Figure 8: Vertical transects across the 111-m West-East WRF-LES simulation domain (pixels 5, 6, 7, and 8)
 945 at 18:00 UTC of January 15th (upper row), 21:00 UTC (middle row), and 00:00 UTC (lower row). From left
 946 to right, simulated data are shown for potential temperature (in K, left column), mean horizontal wind
 947 speed and direction (in ms⁻¹ and degree, middle column), and passive tracer concentration released from
 948 an eastern pixel of the emitting area (pixel 5, right column), to illustrate the relationship between the
 949 three variables.



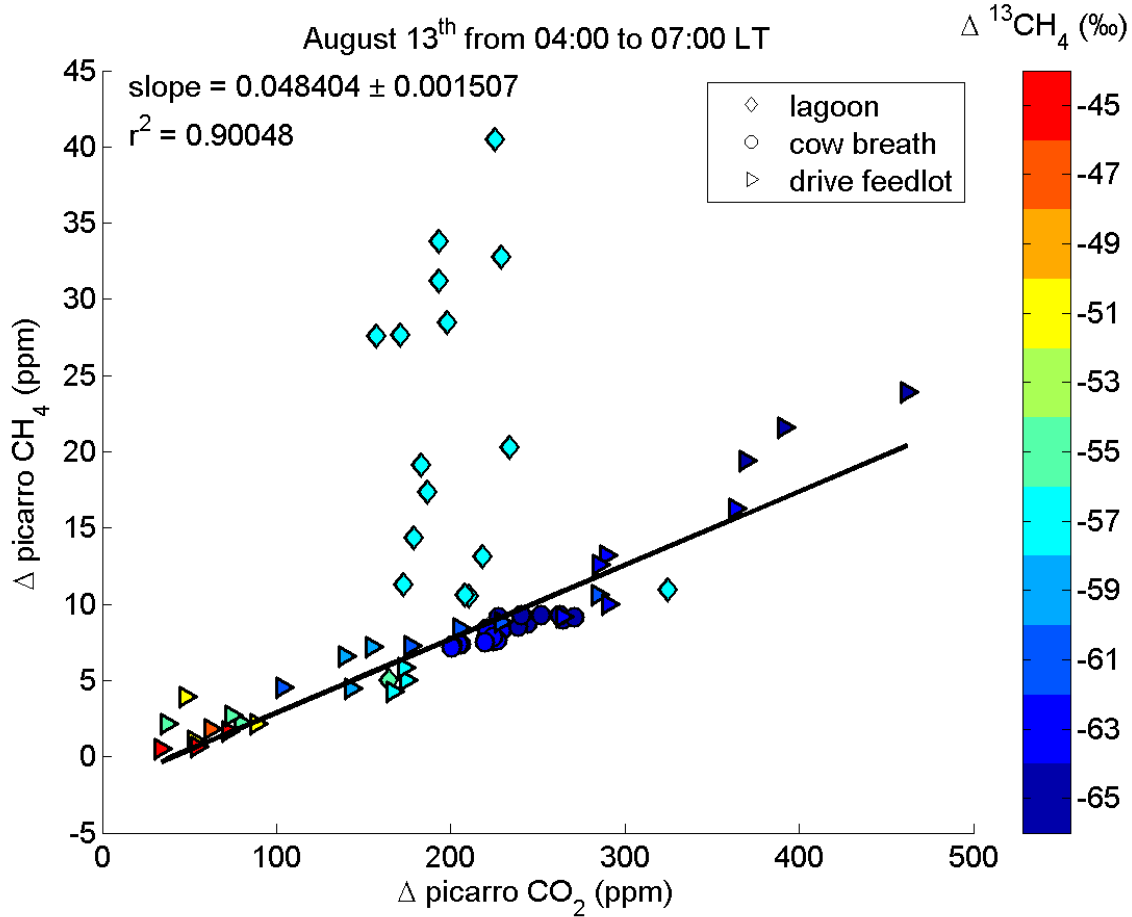
950

951 Figure 9: Mean horizontal wind field (in ms^{-1}) in the first level of the domain at 111-m resolution simulated
 952 by WRF-LES for January 15th (left panel), and January 16th 2015 (right panel), at 18:00 UTC. High wind
 953 speeds were simulated over the hills (southern part of the domain) whereas convective rolls,
 954 corresponding to organized turbulent eddies, are visible in the middle of the domain (i.e. over the feedlots
 955 of Chino), highlighting the importance of turbulent structures in representing the observed horizontal
 956 gradients of CH_4 concentrations. The locations of the Chino (KCNO) and Ontario (KONT) airports and the
 957 counties border (white line) are indicated.



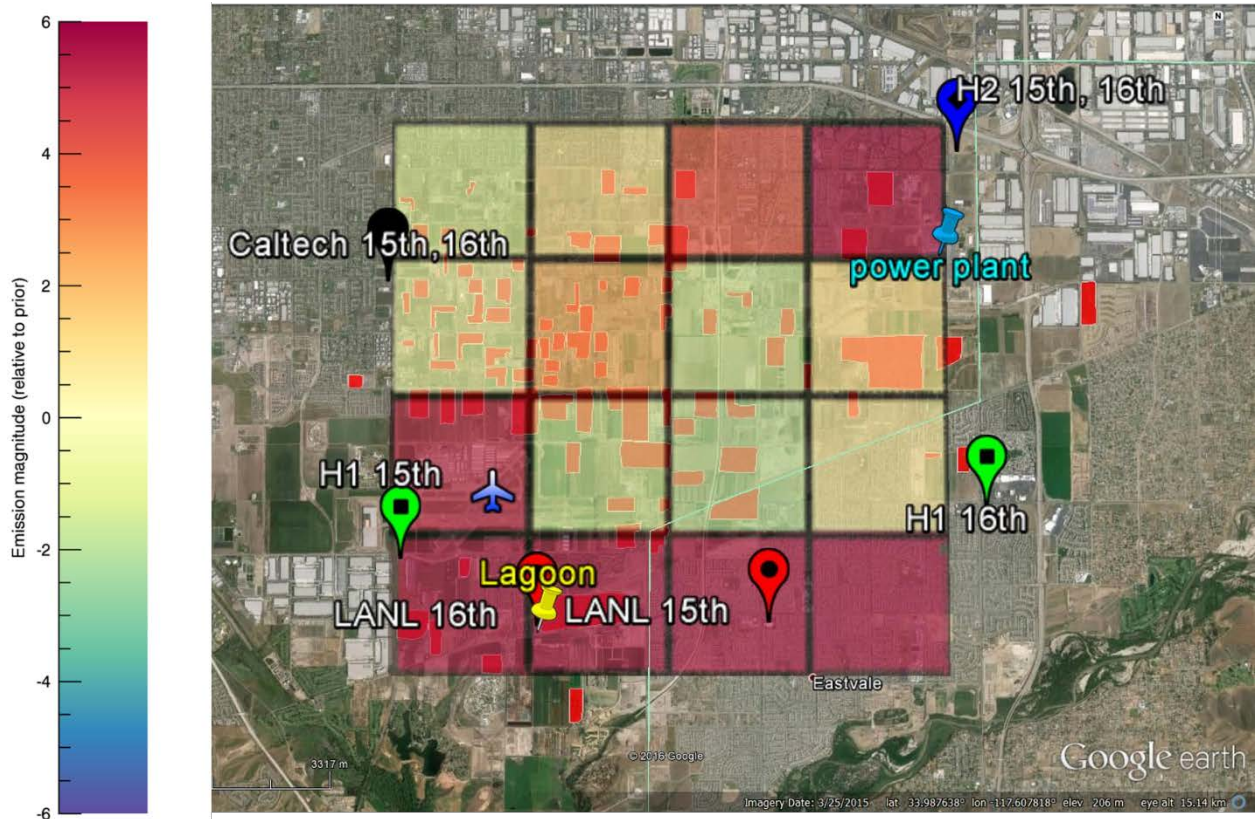
958

959 Figure 10: Emissions of CH₄ (in mol/km²/hour) for the 16 pixels (2 x 2 km² shown In Figure 2) describing
 960 the dairies for both days, i.e. the 15th and 16th of January 2015. The Bayesian mean emissions are shown
 961 in black (triangles and circles) whereas the colored areas represent the accepted range of solutions using
 962 the Simulated Annealing technique (see section 3.2).



963

964 Figure 11: Scatter plot of one minute-average anomalies (from the 5 minutes smoothed) of CH₄ versus
 965 CO₂, color coded by the delta CH₄ values, measured by the Picarro on August 13th from 04:00 to 07:00
 966 (LT).



967

968 Figure 12: Map of the *a posteriori* X_{CH_4} fluxes (mean of January 15th and 16th runs) from the WRF-LES
 969 simulations, superimposed on a Google earth map, where the dairy farms are represented by the red
 970 areas as shown in Figure 1. The domain is decomposed in 16 boxes (2km x 2km), in which the colors
 971 correspond to the *a posteriori* emissions from the WRF-LES inversions. Red (blue) colors mean more (less)
 972 CH_4 emissions than dairy cows in that box. The locations of the lagoon (yellow pin) and the power plant
 973 (blue pin) are also added on the map. Map provided by GOOGLE EARTH V 7.1.2.2041, US Dept. of State
 974 Geographer, Google, 2013, Image Landsat, Data SIO, NOAA, U.S. Navy, NGA, and GEBCO.