

1 **In-situ observations of the isotopic composition of methane at the**
2 **Cabauw tall tower site**

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4 Thomas Röckmann^{1,*}, Simon Eyer^{2,*}, Carina van der Veen¹, Maria E. Popa¹, Béla
5 Tuzson², Guillaume Monteil^{1,3}, Sander Houweling¹, Eliza Harris², Dominik
6 Brunner², Hubertus Fischer⁷, Giulia Zazzeri⁴, David Lowry⁴, Euan G. Nisbet⁴, Willi
7 A. Brand⁵, Jaroslav M. Necki⁶, Lukas Emmenegger² and Joachim Mohn²

8

9 ¹ Utrecht University (UU), Institute for Marine and Atmospheric Research
10 Utrecht (IMAU), The Netherlands

11 ² Empa, Laboratory for Air Pollution / Environmental Technology, Dübendorf,
12 Switzerland

13 ³ now at Department of Physical Geography and Ecosystem Science, Lund
14 University, Lund, Sweden

15 ⁴ Royal Holloway University of London (RHUL), Department of Earth Sciences,
16 Egham, UK

17 ⁵ Max-Planck-Institute (MPI) for Biogeochemistry, Jena, Germany

18 ⁶ Environmental Physics Group, Faculty of Physics and Applied Computer
19 Science, AGH University of Science and Technology, Krakow, Poland

20 ⁷ University of Bern, Climate and Environmental Physics, Bern, Switzerland

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22 *These authors contributed equally to this work

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25 **Abstract**

26 High precision analyses of the isotopic composition of methane in ambient air
27 can potentially be used to discriminate between different source categories. Due
28 to the complexity of isotope ratio measurements, such analyses have generally
29 been performed in the laboratory on air samples collected in the field. This poses
30 a limitation on the temporal resolution at which the isotopic composition can be
31 monitored with reasonable logistical effort. Here we present the performance of
32 a dual isotope ratio mass spectrometric system (IRMS) and a quantum cascade
33 laser absorption spectroscopy (QCLAS) based technique for in-situ analysis of
34 the isotopic composition of methane under field conditions. Both systems were
35 deployed at the Cabauw experimental site for atmospheric research (CESAR) in
36 the Netherlands and performed in-situ, high-frequency (approx. hourly)
37 measurements for a period of more than 5 months. The IRMS and QCLAS
38 instruments were in excellent agreement with a slight systematic offset of (+0.25
39 \pm 0.04) ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and (-4.3 \pm 0.4) ‰ for δD . This was corrected for, yielding a
40 combined dataset with more than 2500 measurements of both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD . The
41 high precision and temporal resolution dataset does not only reveal the
42 overwhelming contribution of isotopically depleted agricultural CH_4 emissions
43 from ruminants at the Cabauw site, but also allows the identification of specific
44 events with elevated contributions from more enriched sources such as natural
45 gas and landfills. The final dataset was compared to model calculations using the
46 global model TM5 and the mesoscale model FLEXPART-COSMO. The results of
47 both models agree better with the measurements when the TNO-MACC emission
48 inventory is used in the models than when the EDGAR inventory is used. This
49 suggests that high-resolution isotope measurements have the potential to
50 further constrain the methane budget, when they are performed at multiple sites
51 that are representative for the entire European domain.

52 **1. Introduction**

53 The global increase of the important greenhouse gas methane in the atmosphere
54 since the beginning of the industrial period is very well established
55 (Dlugokencky et al., 2009; Dlugokencky et al., 1996; Dlugokencky et al., 1998;
56 Etheridge et al., 1998; Khalil et al., 2007; Loulergue et al., 2008; MacFarling
57 Meure et al., 2006; Rasmussen and Khalil, 1981; Spahni et al., 2005). The existing
58 CH₄ mole fraction measurement data enable accurate assessment of the source-
59 sink imbalance through time, and together with the estimated total sink strength,
60 they allow for a top-down constraint on the global source of methane to the
61 atmosphere (Bergamaschi et al., 2013; Houweling et al., 2014). Bottom-up
62 estimates of the global methane budget carry much larger uncertainties, which
63 are inherent to the assumptions made in the extrapolation of local scale
64 measurements to larger scales (Bruhwiler et al., 2014; Kirschke et al., 2013;
65 Nisbet et al., 2014). The advantage of bottom-up estimates is, however, the
66 possibility to distinguish different sources and to link observations to process-
67 level understanding of the emissions.

68 An independent approach for distinguishing between source categories of CH₄ is
69 the analysis of its isotopic composition, which is strongly linked to the
70 source/sink processes. This is particularly true for methane from biogenic,
71 thermogenic and pyrogenic sources (Gros et al., 2004; Houweling et al., 2008;
72 Quay et al., 1999; Sapart et al., 2012). A more detailed differentiation within one
73 source category, e.g. biogenic CH₄, for emissions from wetlands, ruminants, rice
74 paddies or termites, however, is complicated because of the overlap of the
75 respective isotopic source signatures. Further complications arise because
76 individual source signatures can show pronounced dependence on
77 environmental parameters and metabolized substrates (Kawagucci et al., 2014;
78 Klevenhusen et al., 2010). In addition to the source contributions, the sink
79 processes (mainly chemical removal by the hydroxyl radical (OH), but also soil
80 deposition and stratospheric loss) also affect the isotopic composition of
81 atmospheric methane (Brenninkmeijer et al., 1995; Röckmann et al., 2011;
82 Saueressig et al., 1996; Saueressig et al., 2001; Snover and Quay, 2000).
83 Nevertheless, over the past decades, numerous studies have shown the potential
84 of isotope measurements to identify individual source categories from isotope

85 observations (Beck et al., 2012; Lassey et al., 1993; Tarasova et al., 2006;
86 Umezawa et al., 2012b; Zazzeri et al., 2015) and to constrain budgets (Ferretti et
87 al., 2005; Fischer et al., 2008; Houweling et al., 2008; Lassey et al., 2000; Lowe et
88 al., 1994; Sapart et al., 2012; Umezawa et al., 2012a).

89 The isotopic composition is commonly reported in δ notation, where δ quantifies
90 the relative deviation of an isotope ratio ($^{13}R = ^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ for carbon isotopes and 2R
91 $= ^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$, abbreviated as D/H, for hydrogen isotopes) in a sample from a standard
92 ratio. The international standard for reporting $\delta(^{13}\text{C}, \text{CH}_4)$ values is Vienna Pee
93 Dee Belemnite (VPDB, $^{13}R_{\text{VPDB}} = 0.0112372$ (Craig, 1957)) and for $\delta(\text{D}, \text{CH}_4)$ it is
94 Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW, $^2R_{\text{VSMOW}} = 0.0020052$ (Baertschi,
95 1976)). $\delta(^{13}\text{C}, \text{CH}_4)$ and $\delta(\text{D}, \text{CH}_4)$ are abbreviated as $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD in the following,
96 and given in per mill (‰). CH_4 mole fractions $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$ are reported in nmol/mol =
97 10^{-9} and $\mu\text{mol/mol} = 10^{-6}$. For interpretation of global or continental scale
98 atmospheric data the expert group of the WMO/IAEA has set a scientifically
99 desirable level of compatibility of 2 nmol/mol, 0.02 ‰ and 1 ‰ for CH_4
100 fraction, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD , respectively (WMO, 2014). For regionally focused studies
101 with large local fluxes, extended compatibility goals of 5 nmol/mol, 0.2 ‰ and 5
102 ‰ for $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD were defined.

103 Due to the complexity of the involved measurement techniques, CH_4 isotope
104 measurements have been limited mostly to relatively low frequency sampling in
105 the field followed by isotope analysis in the laboratory (Bock et al., 2010; Brass
106 and Röckmann, 2010; Sapart et al., 2011; Sperlich et al., 2013; Umezawa et al.,
107 2009; Yamada et al., 2003). For many decades, the dominant method for high
108 precision isotope analysis of atmospheric methane was isotope ratio mass
109 spectrometry. In particular, the development of continuous-flow IRMS in the past
110 two decades (Merritt et al., 1994; Merritt et al., 1995) has greatly increased the
111 throughput of IRMS methods, making this the technique of choice in most
112 laboratories, also because of the small sample amounts required.

113 Recently, mid-infrared laser absorption spectroscopy has proven its potential for
114 high precision isotope ratio analysis. First attempts of measuring the isotopic
115 composition of methane (Bergamaschi et al., 1998a; 1998b; 1994) were
116 restricted to enhanced CH_4 fractions ($>50 \mu\text{mol/mol}$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and >2000

117 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ for δD) and required cryogenic cooling for both the laser source and
118 the detector, which impeded in-situ and long-term applications. The invention of
119 room temperature, quantum cascade laser (QCL) sources has triggered the
120 development of a novel generation of spectrometers suitable for in-situ analysis
121 of the isotopic composition of greenhouse gases (Eyer and al, 2015; Tuzson et al.,
122 2008; Wächter et al., 2008). Their capability of high-temporal resolution led to
123 new applications aiming for source attribution (Mohn et al., 2012; Tuzson et al.,
124 2011; Wolf et al., 2015). The advantages of in-situ measurements are particularly
125 apparent in combination with atmospheric modeling techniques, which enables
126 the identification of specific source regions (Rigby et al., 2012; Sturm et al.,
127 2013). Similarly, high-frequency, high-precision CH_4 isotope data are expected to
128 greatly reduce uncertainties of national and global source estimations, as
129 demonstrated in an observing system simulation experiment (Rigby et al., 2012).
130 In this paper we present the analytical setup and results of a 5-month campaign
131 at the Cabauw tall tower site in the Netherlands, where the isotopic composition
132 ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD) of CH_4 was measured with two instruments, one IRMS system
133 developed at Utrecht University and one QCLAS-instrument developed at Empa.
134 The compatibility of the two analytical techniques for CH_4 mole fractions, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -
135 CH_4 and δD - CH_4 is assessed and the obtained high-resolution isotope dataset is
136 exploited using a novel moving Keeling plot method. A comparison of
137 measurement results with calculations from two different models (TM5 and
138 FLEXPART-COSMO) and two emission inventories (EDGAR, TNO-MACC)
139 indicates the potential of this approach to better constrain on isotope source
140 signatures and emissions in atmospheric models.

141 **2. Methods**

142 **2.1. Site description**

143 The 213 m tall tower is the central construction of the Cabauw Experimental Site
144 for Atmospheric Research (CESAR, <http://www.cesar-observatory.nl/>, $51^\circ 58' \text{N}$,
145 $4^\circ 55' \text{E}$, 2 m a.s.l.). The CESAR site is dedicated to atmospheric research and
146 hosts a wide variety of instruments for in situ and remote sensing measurements
147 of meteorological parameters, trace gases, pollutants, aerosols, and clouds. The

148 site is located in an agricultural landscape, with CH₄ emissions originating from
149 ruminants and other agricultural activities, but also from the peaty soil and the
150 drainage ditches between the surrounding fields (Peltola et al., 2014). The small
151 town Lopik (~7500 inhabitants) is located 1 km east of the tower. Population
152 and road density increase steeply further away from the tower towards the
153 country's major cities: Utrecht (at about 20 km distance), Rotterdam (30 km), the
154 Hague (40 km) and Amsterdam (45 km). An estimated seven million people
155 inhabit these cities and their many neighboring settlements. The location and
156 surroundings are described in more detail in (Peltola et al., 2014; Peltola et al.,
157 2015; Vermeulen et al., 2011). The instruments were operated in a room on the
158 ground floor of the CESAR building. Since this room is not commonly used as
159 laboratory, it has air-conditioning with limited cooling capacity and the
160 temperature varied between 25 °C and 30 °C.

161 **2.2. Air sampling at the Cabauw tall tower**

162 Air was continuously drawn through ½" o.d. (outer diameter) Dekabon tubing
163 from 20 m height at a total flow of 16 l min⁻¹ provided by a Varian scroll pump
164 (Agilent Technologies Inc., USA). The sample gas flow was adjusted by means of a
165 flow restriction at the inlet of the pump in order to maintain the pressure in the
166 sampling line above 950 hPa. The sample gas flows for the methane isotope
167 analyzers were branched off upstream of the scroll pump and the restriction,
168 using ¼" o.d. Dekabon lines.

169 **2.3. IRMS system**

170 The new IRMS method for δ¹³C and δD analysis of atmospheric CH₄ is based on
171 the ISAAC system as developed at the MPI for Biogeochemistry in Jena (W. Brand
172 et al., manuscript in preparation). Importantly, the system does not require liquid
173 nitrogen coolant for the preconcentration and focusing steps, but uses a massive
174 copper block cooled down to about -145 °C, to which the cold traps for
175 preconcentration and cryo-focussing are connected via standoffs (see 2.3.1). This
176 cold assembly is contained in an evacuated steel Dewar to prevent condensation
177 of moisture. During the campaign, the extraction unit and two IRMS instruments
178 (Thermo Delta Plus XL for hydrogen isotopes and Thermo Delta Plus XP for

179 carbon isotopes, both Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Germany) were operated at
180 the CESAR site. The system is schematically shown in Fig. 1.

181 **2.3.1. Cryogenic trapping**

182 A Polycold compact cooler compressor (Brooks Automation Inc., USA), filled with
183 coolant PT-30, cooled a cold end on which a copper cylinder (70 mm diameter,
184 85 mm height, 3 kg) was mounted. In this configuration, the copper block
185 reached a temperature of -145 °C. The pre-concentration trap (PreCon) was a 10
186 cm 1/8" SS tube filled with 4 cm 60/80 mesh HayeSep D in the center and 3 cm
187 60/80 glass beads on each end. It was connected with Valco fittings and the
188 packing material was retained in the trap using removable frits (CEF1F, Valco
189 Instruments Company Inc., USA). The focus trap (Focus) was a 10 cm 1/16" SS
190 tube filled with 2 cm HayeSep D and 4 cm glass beads at both ends, connected
191 with Valco fittings (ECEF211.0F, Valco Instruments Company Inc., USA). The
192 traps could be heated with 0.5 m Thermsys heating wire wrapped around the
193 tubes. The PreCon and Focus trapping units were glued together with a PT-100
194 temperature sensor in heat - conducting two component epoxy on a brass
195 standoff. These brass standoffs were mounted to the copper cylinder. In the
196 "trapping" configuration the temperatures of the traps were usually kept at -135
197 °C.

198 **2.3.2. Measurement procedure**

199 A 3-port 2-position Valco valve (3PV, Fig. 1) selected either ambient air drawn
200 from the tower through a $\text{Mg}(\text{ClO}_4)_2$ dryer, or cylinder air that was injected via
201 one port of an 8-port multiposition Valco valve (MPV). To check the system
202 performance, a reference air cylinder (Ref) was measured alternately with
203 ambient air, and three other target gas cylinders were measured occasionally.
204 The inlet line was connected to a 4-port 2-position Valco valve (4PV1), which
205 directed either Helium (He, BIP quality, Air Products and Chemicals Inc., USA) or
206 the selected airflow to the PreCon unit, which was connected in the loop position
207 of a 6-port 2-position Valco valve (6PV). All He and air flows were controlled by
208 MKS mass flow controllers (MFC, MKS Instruments Inc., USA).

209 The preconcentration and cryofocussing was done similarly to Brass and

210 Röckmann (2010). After flushing the inlet line with >20 ml air, the 6PV was
211 switched to the load position and air was admitted to the PreCon unit. The
212 duration of the air sampling for the IRMS system was 10 minutes at a flow rate of
213 5 ml min⁻¹ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 7 ml min⁻¹ for δD . The flow was provided by a Xavitech
214 mini pump (P200-GAS-12V, Xavitech AB, Sweden). During this step, the
215 temperature measured at the PreCon stayed below -132 °C. At this temperature
216 CH₄ and several other trace species were retained on the HayeSep D, while the
217 air matrix was efficiently flushed out.

218 After preconcentration, the PreCon unit was heated to -30 °C and a He flow of
219 3 ml min⁻¹ transported the CH₄ in 90 seconds to the Focus unit, which was held at
220 a temperature <-137 °C. After transfer of the sample to the Focus, the 6PV was
221 switched to the load position and the PreCon was heated to -10 °C to release any
222 remaining trapped gases such as CO₂.

223 The Focus was then heated to release the CH₄, which was directed via 4PV2 and
224 4VP3 either to the combustion oven and the Delta plus XP IRMS for ¹³C analysis
225 or to the pyrolysis oven and the Delta plus XL IRMS for D analysis.

226 For δD analysis, the CH₄ was injected into a pyrolysis tube furnace (1400 °C),
227 where CH₄ was converted to H₂ and carbon. The H₂ entered the IRMS, after
228 passing a 2 m CarboPLOT column at room temperature (RT) and a nafion dryer,
229 via the GasBench interface. No krypton interference (Schmitt et al., 2013) could
230 be determined in this setup. The repeatability for δD was generally better than
231 ± 2 ‰ (reported as SD), based on consecutive analyses of reference air.

232 For $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, the CH₄ was injected from the cryofocus unit into a combustion oven
233 containing a nickel / nickel oxide wire catalyst at 1100 °C, where the CH₄ was
234 converted to CO₂ and H₂O. The resulting gas mixture passed a nafion dryer and a
235 10 m PoraPLOT Q column (5 °C) to eliminate interference from co-trapped
236 krypton (Schmitt et al., 2013) before entering the IRMS via the GasBench
237 interface. The repeatability of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was better than ± 0.07 ‰ (reported as SD),
238 based on consecutive analyses of reference air.

239 The typical measurement order during the Cabauw campaign was Ref $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ – Air
240 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ – Ref δD – Air δD . A full measurement cycle took 84 min. On a regular basis,
241 pressurized air from a cylinder, applied as a target gas, was analyzed as a quality

242 control tool in order to monitor the long term stability of the analytical
243 technique. The CH₄ mole fraction and isotopic composition in ambient air and
244 target gas were calculated using an interpolation of the reference air analyzed
245 before and afterwards. A custom made LabView software program (National
246 Instruments Corp., USA) was used to control and log the temperature of the
247 traps, the valve switching and the flow setpoints of the MFCs.

248 **2.3.3. IRMS system isotope calibration**

249 The isotope calibration of the IRMS system was based on a reference air cylinder
250 that contains ambient air collected at the IMAU in 2014, with 1888 nmol/mol of
251 CH₄ and isotope values of $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -47.89 \text{ ‰}$ and $\delta\text{D} = -88.08 \text{ ‰}$. The isotope
252 calibration scale is based on the reference scale that was described in detail in
253 Brass and Röckmann (2010). We used the average of the reference air
254 measurement before and after the sample air measurement to calculate the mole
255 fraction and δ values. The linear response of the analytical system (independence
256 of the δ value on the amount of CH₄ analyzed) was verified by injecting various
257 volumes of reference air up to a volume equivalent to 2700 nmol/mol.
258 Occasionally, the long-term stability of the system was checked by measuring 3
259 target cylinders with different CH₄ mole fractions and isotopic compositions. A
260 robust link of the isotopic composition to the international reference materials
261 VPDB and VSMOW has been established in the framework of the INGOS project
262 (Sperlich et al., 2016).

263 **2.4. QCLAS system**

264 The analytical procedure of the laser based measurement system involves two
265 steps: preconcentration of the CH₄ from 7.5 L of ambient air in a trace gas
266 extractor (TREX) by adsorption on HayeSep D (Eyer et al., 2014; Mohn et al.,
267 2010) and analysis of CH₄ isotopologues with a modified commercial QCLAS
268 (QCL-76-D, Aerodyne Inc., USA). Details on the development, optimization and
269 validation of the TREX-QCLAS system are given by Eyer et al. (2015).

270 The present manuscript comprises the first application of the TREX-QCLAS
271 system for in-situ analysis of CH₄ isotopologues at a field site for an extended
272 period of time. In comparison to the original setup, the heating power of the

273 polyimide foil on the cold trap was reduced to 60 W to increase its lifetime. Due
274 to the lower heating power, the duration of the desorption step had to be
275 extended, which led to an improved separation from residual bulk gases (e.g. N₂
276 and O₂). Lowering the O₂ enhancement in the gas matrix is also the main reason
277 for a lower offset in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of 1.58 ‰, with respect to the MPI - scale, as com-
278 pared to 2.3 ‰ in previously published results (Eyer et al., 2015). The offset was
279 related to a higher O₂ mole fraction in the gas matrix after CH₄ preconcentration.
280 One measurement cycle consisted of four consecutive measurements of ambient
281 air samples and one sample of pressurized air used as a target gas, followed by a
282 calibration phase and took around 4:30 hours. This translates into an analysis
283 time of 54 minutes per sample of ambient or pressurized air.

284 A calibration gas (CG1, (1200 ± 50) $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ CH₄, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -(44.24 \pm 0.10)$ ‰, δD
285 $= -(104.7 \pm 1.1)$ ‰) was diluted to 688 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ and analyzed between every
286 preconcentrated sample as an anchor to correct the measurements for
287 instrumental drift. A second calibration gas (CG2, (1103.8 ± 3.5) $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ CH₄,
288 $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -(36.13 \pm 0.10)$ ‰, $\delta\text{D} = -(180.6 \pm 1.1)$ ‰), diluted to a similar CH₄ mole
289 fraction of 681 $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ was used to calculate calibration factors for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
290 δD values. Furthermore, gas cylinders of pressurized ambient air, referred to as
291 target gas (TG1, TG2), were frequently measured over the entire campaign to
292 determine and verify the repeatability of the measurement system, which was
293 found to be 0.28 ‰ and 1.7 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD (1σ), respectively. Additional
294 adjustments in the preconcentration procedure and in the analytical routine for
295 isotope analysis improved the repeatability to 0.18 ‰ and 0.85 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
296 δD in the last month of the campaign. One example is the improved temperature
297 control of the trap during adsorption, which in turn stabilized the O₂ content in
298 the measuring gas and thereby reduced variations in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -CH₄.

299 The CH₄ isotopic composition of the calibration gases, as well as the target gases
300 (TG1, (2639.5 ± 0.6) nmol/mol CH₄, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -(46.48 \pm 0.10)$ ‰, $\delta\text{D} = -(119.0 \pm 1.1)$
301 ‰, TG2, (2659.8 ± 0.6) nmol/mol CH₄, $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -(45.87 \pm 0.10)$ ‰, $\delta\text{D} = -(114.1 \pm$
302 $1.1)$ ‰) were determined by the Stable Isotope Laboratory at the Max-Planck-
303 Institute for Biogeochemistry. CH₄ mole fraction measurements were linked to

304 the WMO-X2004 calibration scale (Dlugokencky et al., 2005) through calibration
305 of the target gases against NOAA reference standards at Empa.

306 **2.5. Modeling**

307 Two complementary atmospheric transport models (TM5, FLEXPART-COSMO),
308 both in combination with two different emissions inventories (TNO-MACC_2,
309 EDGAR/LPJ-WhyMe), were applied to support interpretation of the
310 measurements. The Eulerian tracer model TM5 simulated the distribution of CH₄
311 and ¹³CH₄ at global scale with a zoom on Europe at 1° x 1° resolution and
312 considered both the isotopic signatures of different sources and the fractionation
313 by different removal pathways of CH₄ in the atmosphere. The Lagrangian particle
314 dispersion model FLEXPART-COSMO, conversely, was run in backward mode at a
315 higher resolution of 0.06° x 0.06° but only over Europe. This model is better able
316 to represent the spatial variability of CH₄ sources in the near field of Cabauw but
317 it only simulated the contributions from the last 4 days of emissions within
318 Europe and not the large-scale background. Chemical loss of CH₄ was not
319 considered due to the short transport times between the sources and the
320 receptor point at Cabauw. δD was only simulated with FLEXPART-COSMO.

321 **2.5.1. TM5 modeling**

322 Simulations of atmospheric CH₄ and δ¹³C were performed using the global tracer
323 model TM5 (Krol et al., 2005). The Eulerian off-line model was driven by
324 meteorological fields from the European Centre for Medium Range Weather
325 Forecast (ECMWF) reanalysis project ERA-Interim (Dee et al., 2011), pre-
326 processed for use in TM5. For vertical transport due to moist convection we
327 made use of Era Interim archived convective mass fluxes, replacing the use of the
328 Tiedke scheme in Krol et al. (2005). The model was run at a horizontal resolution
329 of 6°x4° globally and 1°x1° inside a zoom domain covering Western Europe. The
330 model uses 25 hybrid sigma-pressure levels from the surface to top of
331 atmosphere.

332 Two parallel (forward) TM5 simulations were performed with CH₄ and ¹³CH₄ as
333 transported tracers. In the standard configuration, anthropogenic CH₄ emissions
334 were taken from EDGAR4.2 FT2010 (EDGAR, 2009), extrapolated to 2014 and

335 2015 using annual statistics from the Food and Agriculture Organization of the
336 United Nations (FAO) and the British Petroleum Company (BP), as described in
337 Houweling et al. (2014). For natural wetland emissions, an average of the
338 emission estimates derived by Spahni et al. (2011) for the period 2003-2008 was
339 taken, using the LPJ-WhyMe model. For a complete description of the CH₄
340 emissions (Table 1), see Monteil et al. (2013) and references therein. ¹³CH₄
341 emissions were derived from the CH₄ emissions using prescribed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ source
342 signatures (Table 1). The emission inventory was built according to a double
343 constraint: 1st, each source signature must be chosen within its own uncertainty
344 interval, and 2nd, the resulting global average source signature must be
345 compatible with the global source signature that is inferred from the
346 observations (and that is known with a much better precision than the individual
347 source signatures) (Monteil et al., 2011). In a second set of simulations,
348 anthropogenic emissions in a regional domain centered on Cabauw were
349 replaced by emissions from the European TNO-MACC_2 inventory, which was
350 used as the standard inventory in the FLEXPART-COSMO simulations (see
351 below). Outside the regional domain covered by TNO-MACC_2, the EDGAR
352 emissions were used.

353 Atmospheric removal of CH₄ was modeled as described in Monteil et al. (2013),
354 using kinetic fractionation factors $\alpha = k(^{12}\text{C}) / k(^{13}\text{C})$ of $\alpha_{\text{OH}} = 1.0055$, $\alpha_{\text{Cl}} = 1.066$
355 and $\alpha_{\text{O}(1D)} = 1.013$ for the reactions between CH₄ and OH (Sander et al., 2006), Cl
356 (Saueressig et al., 1995) and O(¹D) (Saueressig et al., 2000), respectively. The
357 simulations were initialized at steady state (obtained via a spin-up run) in 2005,
358 and simulations of the period 2005-2015 were used to calculate a realistic state
359 of the atmosphere at the start of the measurement campaigns, including the
360 imbalance between emissions and atmospheric CH₄ mixing ratio/isotopic
361 composition in 2014. Time series were extracted from model-simulated mole
362 fraction fields after interpolation to the horizontal coordinate and height of the
363 Cabauw tower air inlet.

364 **2.5.2. FLEXPART-COSMO modeling**

365 The Lagrangian Particle Dispersion Model (LPDM) FLEXPART (Stohl et al., 2005)
366 was used in a modified version coupled to the mesoscale numerical weather

367 forecast model COSMO (Baldauf et al., 2011) to simulate the regional
368 contribution of different source categories to the concentrations and isotopic
369 signatures of CH₄ at Cabauw. FLEXPART-COSMO was driven by hourly
370 operational analysis fields generated by the Swiss national weather service
371 MeteoSwiss for a domain covering entire western and central Europe from
372 Ireland, Denmark, and Poland in the north to Portugal and southern Italy in the
373 south with a horizontal resolution of approximately 7 km x 7 km and 60 vertical
374 levels. Every 3 hours, 50'000 particles (air parcels) were released from the
375 position of the inlet 20 m above surface and traced backward in time for 4 days
376 to compute the sensitivity of each 3-hourly measurement to upwind sources. The
377 corresponding source sensitivity maps or footprints (Seibert and Frank, 2004)
378 were multiplied with gridded CH₄ emissions to compute the mole fraction
379 enhancement above background expected from different sources. Emissions
380 were taken from the TNO-MACC_2 inventory for Europe representative of the
381 year 2009 and available at 0.125° x 0.0625° resolution (Kuenen et al., 2014) or,
382 alternatively, from the same version of EDGAR/LPJ-WhyMe inventory driving
383 TM5 at a resolution of 1° x 1°. Methane mole fractions were computed separately
384 for a number of SNAP (Standardized Nomenclature for Air Pollutants) source
385 categories with specific isotopic signatures as summarized in Table 2.

386 For the domain covered by the FLEXPART-COSMO simulations, which includes
387 most of western and central Europe, total anthropogenic emissions are 20.6 Tg
388 CH₄/yr in EDGAR and 18.3 Tg CH₄/yr in TNO-MACC, which corresponds to a
389 difference of 12.5%. CH₄ emissions from gas/oil production and distribution are
390 89% higher, CH₄ emissions from agriculture 19% lower and CH₄ emissions from
391 waste 12% higher in EDGAR than in TNO-MACC.

392 Source specific emissions were combined with isotopic signatures of the various
393 categories from Table 2 to derive mean δ¹³C and δD isotopic signatures for the
394 CH₄ that was picked up by the air parcel along the trajectory.

395 **2.6. Interpretation of CH₄ isotope data**

396 **2.6.1. Data analysis by a Keeling plot technique**

397 The isotopic composition of CH₄ emissions were estimated using the Keeling plot
398 technique (Keeling, 1961; Pataki et al., 2003). This method allows the isotopic
399 signature of a single source process or the mean isotopic signature of combined
400 source processes that mix into a background reservoir to be determined from
401 the observed ambient isotopic composition and mole fraction. An implicit
402 assumption of the Keeling plot approach is that the isotopic composition and
403 mole fraction of the background reservoir and the isotopic composition of the
404 source or the combined source stay constant over the time range of the analysis.
405 This may not always apply as the relative contribution of individual CH₄ sources
406 or their isotopic signature may change over time

407 To exploit the high temporal resolution of our data, we applied a novel approach
408 of a moving Keeling plot (MKP) method. Data within a moving window of 12
409 hours were used to calculate the source isotopic composition. This window was
410 moved in 1-hour time steps over the data series. In addition, values for
411 background conditions within a 48-hour period, centered on the respective 12-
412 hour window, were included in the analysis. These background values were
413 chosen between 10:00 and 18:00 local time, because during this period a
414 convective boundary layer usually develops and hence local influence is weak;
415 pollution events with CH₄ mole fractions above 2100 nmol/mol were filtered out
416 additionally. For each time window, an orthogonal least squares fit was applied
417 to the δ values vs. the inverse CH₄ mole fractions and R² values were calculated.
418 A Keeling plot analysis only returns meaningful values for the source isotopic
419 composition if the variations in CH₄ mole fraction are significant and if the
420 emissions are from a source with a well-defined isotopic composition. Therefore,
421 two additional filters were applied: i) the mole fraction had to vary by more than
422 200 nmol/mol within each time window and ii) the R² of the fit had to be larger
423 than 0.8. If R² < 0.8, the 12 h interval was reduced consecutively by one hour to a
424 minimum of six hours until either the R² of the fit was > 0.8 or the number of
425 data points was lower than five. On average this technique accumulated 22 data
426 points per 12-h time window.

427 **3. Results**

428 **3.1. Overview of the field measurements at the Cabauw site**

429 The full record of the methane mole fraction and isotopic composition obtained
430 with the two measurement techniques at the CESAR site is shown in Fig. 2. The
431 IRMS system started with δD measurements first, and after 3 weeks delivered
432 both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD data. The TREX-QCLAS system started later and ran
433 continuously from mid-December to mid-January, and from mid-February to the
434 end of the campaign. Despite a number of interruptions mainly due to various
435 kinds of instrument malfunction, the combined time series of both techniques
436 shows a high temporal coverage with more than 2500 measurements performed
437 for both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD .

438 A qualitative inspection of the time series already conveys the obvious features
439 that will be discussed below in more detail: the methane mole fraction $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$
440 shows a large number of substantial increases above background level, and these
441 positive methane excursions are accompanied by negative excursions in the δ
442 values from the background level. Thus the additional methane is generally
443 depleted in both ^{13}C and D.

444 **3.2. Inter-comparison of the two analytical techniques**

445 Before presenting a detailed analysis of the CH_4 isotopic composition in ambient
446 air, we compare the results obtained with the IRMS and QCLAS techniques in
447 order to evaluate their performance and to combine the results into one final
448 dataset. Although both systems measured air from the same intake line, the
449 sampling intervals could not be synchronized since both instruments operated in
450 different measurement cycles. A full measurement cycle (including measurement
451 of the reference gas) took 84 minutes for the IRMS system and 54 minutes for
452 the TREX-QCLAS system. The actual duration of the air sampling was 10 minutes
453 for the IRMS system and 15 minutes for the QCLAS system. So even if the systems
454 coincidentally started sampling at the same time, they never actually analyzed
455 exactly the same air mass. Consequently, differences between the systems
456 contain contributions from natural variability, random fluctuations due to
457 limited measurement precision, and system offsets.

458 Fig. 2 shows a comparison of the $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$, as well as $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD values that were
459 obtained with the TREX-QCLAS and the IRMS technique. To visualize the possible
460 effect of time shifts, the size of the points corresponds to the proximity of the

461 sampling intervals. A total of 727, 333 and 277 measurement pairs for $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$,
462 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD , respectively, analyzed by both techniques were combined in this
463 way.

464 The mole fraction comparison shows good agreement along the 1:1 line but with
465 a large scatter, which has two contributions: i) instrumental noise, as the isotope
466 systems have a relatively large uncertainty for measurement of the mole fraction
467 compared to existing high-precision CH_4 analyzers, and ii) natural variability
468 associated with the sampling of different air masses as described above. The
469 second point is supported by the fact that the average difference in CH_4 mole
470 fractions between the two analytical techniques was larger for larger temporal
471 differences in the sampling intervals.

472 For the isotope intercalibration plots, the grey-black shading of the circles
473 indicates the difference in $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$ of the respective measurement pair analyzed
474 by both techniques. The overall difference between the measurements
475 conducted with the two systems (QCLAS-IRMS) is $(+0.25 \pm 0.04) \text{‰}$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
476 $(-4.3 \pm 0.4) \text{‰}$ for δD (the stated errors are standard errors of the mean). The
477 mean offsets are slightly outside the WMO extended compatibility goals for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
478 (0.2‰) and within the WMO extended compatibility goals for δD (5‰), as
479 indicated by the red dashed lines (WMO, 2014). Individual measurement pairs
480 can show significantly larger deviations for aforementioned reasons. Differences
481 between the two techniques are higher than expected as both laboratories refer
482 their measurements to MPI-BGC, who recently established a link between the
483 CH_4 isotopic composition and the international reference materials VPDB and
484 VSMOW, in the framework of the INGOS project (Sperlich et al., 2016). Therefore,
485 remaining differences can only be rationalized by uncertainties in propagating
486 the scale or by instrumental issues. The enhanced discrepancies for low $\delta\text{D}-\text{CH}_4$
487 values might originate from a non-linear response of one of the applied
488 analytical techniques. The mean offset values determined above were applied to
489 the QCLAS data to create one combined dataset with 2610 data points for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
490 and 2673 data points for δD .

491 **3.3. FLEXPART-COSMO source attribution**

492 In FLEXPART-COSMO, the contributions of the individual source types are
493 simulated separately and added up to obtain the cumulative CH₄ mole fraction.
494 Fig. 4 shows these contributions in absolute (top) and relative terms (bottom).
495 According to the model, the relative contributions at the Cabauw site are quite
496 uniform, with agricultural sources accounting for more than 60%, waste (mostly
497 landfills) around 20–40%, and fossil sources between 0 and 40%. We note that
498 significant contributions from fossil sources are only detected episodically,
499 during several events that usually last a few days. Contributions from other
500 source categories are generally negligible at the Cabauw site.

501 **3.4. TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO modeling including isotopes**

502 The TM5 model calculates the combined influence of the global methane sources
503 and sinks on CH₄ and δ¹³C at the Cabauw tower, and therefore the TM5 results
504 can be compared directly to the measured time series. For FLEXPART-COSMO, a
505 representative background mole fraction and isotopic signature needs to be
506 added for comparison with the observations. For simplicity we assumed a
507 constant background similar to the observed values for background conditions:
508 1930 nmol/mol for χ(CH₄) with δ¹³C = -47.1 ‰ and δD = -86 ‰.

509 Fig. 5 shows a comparison of these model-generated time series with the
510 measured data for the entire campaign. Both models capture the amplitude and
511 the temporal variability of χ(CH₄) well. Most of the methane pollution events
512 observed at the CESAR site are also present in the modeled time series and the
513 increase in χ(CH₄) is of a comparable size. In addition, the results of the TM5 and
514 the FLEXPART-COSMO model for CH₄ mole fractions agree relatively well with
515 each other (R²=0.69), in particular when both models are run with the same
516 inventory at the same coarse spatial resolution, i.e. with EDGAR/LPJ-WhyMe.

517 A few pronounced CH₄ events in Fig. 5 show larger differences between the
518 models. On 2 November, FLEXPART-COSMO simulates an emission signal that is
519 not captured by TM5. Unfortunately no measurements are available for this
520 event to decide on which model performs better. On 30 November TM5
521 simulates a CH₄ plume, which is absent in FLEXPART-COSMO, and this event is
522 also not supported by the measurements. The global model has the advantage

523 that it includes the influence of long-range transport. As expected, however, the
524 observed variability is predominantly influenced by local and regional emissions.
525 Regarding the time series of the δ values, both TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO
526 qualitatively display the expected anti-correlations between CH_4 and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$.
527 However, the amplitude of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ variability is generally underestimated in the
528 model runs, especially when using the EDGAR inventory. In addition, the
529 modeled background level of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in TM5 is offset by up to 1 ‰, but this offset is
530 also present at clean background sites in the Northern hemisphere.

531 Using the TNO-MACC inventory in FLEXPART-COSMO results in better
532 agreement with the observed variability of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. In TM5, the TNO-MACC
533 emissions reduce the amplitude of the CH_4 variability, which is explained by the
534 13% lower emissions in TNO-MACC compared with EDGAR. Furthermore, the
535 results of both models are consistent with the emissions being more depleted in
536 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in TNO-MACC than in EDGAR. The measurements indicate emissions that
537 are even more depleted in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ than TNO-MACC values. These results suggest
538 that the fractional contribution of isotopically heavy fossil emissions is
539 overestimated in EDGAR, at least in the area sampled by Cabauw, although the
540 uncertainty in the assumed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ source signatures could also contribute. For
541 instance, recent literature showed that landfill emissions from the UK are more
542 depleted in $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ due to the implementation of gas extraction systems (Zazzeri
543 et al., 2015).

544 The δD time series simulated with FLEXPART-COSMO using the TNO-MACC
545 inventory is in good agreement with the measurements. This further indicates
546 that TNO-MACC has a realistic source mixture, but the uncertainties in the mean
547 δD signature are too large to draw firm conclusions at this stage. Despite these
548 uncertainties, Fig. 5 clearly demonstrates how isotopic measurements highlight
549 differences between emission inventories, which would go unnoticed looking
550 only at CH_4 mole fractions. Additional information may be available from the
551 combination of both isotope signatures. For several of the CH_4 elevation events
552 shown in Fig. 5b, the relative changes in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD modeled with FLEXPART-
553 COSMO vary when using the two different inventories (TNO-MACC and EDGAR).
554 Some of the anomalies show differences pointing in the same direction for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$

555 and δD , and some others not. This suggests that δD provides additional
556 independent information, which will be discussed in more detail in Section 4.3
557 using a double isotope plot of the source signatures (Fig. 7). The benefit of the
558 high-resolution dual isotope measurements for validating emissions used in the
559 models will be investigated in Section 4.4.

560 **4. Discussion**

561 **4.1. Diurnal and synoptic variability**

562 A prominent feature of the high-resolution dataset is the pronounced diurnal
563 variability, with large increases in CH_4 mole fraction that occur often during the
564 night, due to the shallow planetary boundary layer. In addition, there are also
565 several synoptic (but much smaller) pollution events, where CH_4 mole fractions
566 stay above the unpolluted background level for several days. These elevations
567 are likely caused by synoptic scale advection of CH_4 plumes from other source
568 regions with a different source mix.

569 **4.2. Isotope identification of the mean CH_4 source**

570 In Fig. 6, the Keeling plot technique is applied to identify the mean isotopic
571 signatures ($\delta^{13}C$, δD) of the combined CH_4 emissions detected at the Cabauw site.
572 An orthogonal regression method was applied to determine the fit parameters.
573 This analysis yields well-defined mean isotopic signatures of the cumulative
574 source (the y-intercept of the regression analysis) of $\delta^{13}C = -(60.8 \pm 0.2) \text{‰}$ and
575 $\delta D = -(298 \pm 1) \text{‰}$. The inferred mean isotopic signature agrees well with
576 emission from ruminants, which are expected to be the main source of CH_4 in
577 this rural area. This is plausible, because the mean isotopic signature is largely
578 determined by the pronounced nighttime CH_4 elevations, which represent the
579 local emissions close to the tower. Also the source contributions modeled by
580 FLEXPART-COSMO suggest the dominant influence of agricultural emissions in
581 this rural area (Fig. 4). Interestingly, the mean isotopic signature for the much
582 smaller synoptic CH_4 variations of the background (red points in Fig. 6) is not
583 significantly different from the one for the complete dataset.

584 **4.3. Short-term variability**

585 Given the high temporal resolution of the dataset presented here, the isotope
586 variations can be interpreted in much more detail than the overall analysis
587 performed above. This allows identifying varying contributions of CH₄ sources
588 during different periods of the campaign. To do so, we applied a 12-hour Moving
589 Keeling Plot (MKP) method to the data, as described in Sect 2.6.1.

590 Fig. 7 summarizes the results of the MKP method in the form of a δD vs. $\delta^{13}C$ plot.
591 To combine $\delta^{13}C$ and δD measurements performed at different times, MKP
592 intercepts were averaged over 6 h intervals. Mean $\delta^{13}C$ signatures range between
593 -68 ‰ and -55 ‰ and mean δD signatures cover a relatively wide range
594 between -350 ‰ and -260 ‰, indicating emissions mainly from microbial
595 sources as derived from the cumulative Keeling plot analysis. During some
596 periods, however, elevated mean $\delta^{13}C$ and δD signatures reveal significant
597 additional contributions from waste and/or fossil emissions.

598 The colored symbols in Fig. 7 highlight the mean isotopic signatures of three 48 h
599 events (10-12, 16-18 and 22-24 March) that are discussed in more detail in the
600 following. For the event of 16-18 March, selected results of the 12 h MKP method
601 are displayed in Fig. 7, demonstrating the advantage of the high temporal
602 resolution data. It is possible to clearly distinguish variations in the mean
603 isotopic signatures during this event by variations in the y-axis intercepts. The
604 increase by about 6 ‰ for $\delta^{13}C$ and about 50 ‰ for δD , in the source isotopic
605 signature for this event, clearly indicates the gradually increasing contribution of
606 CH₄ from isotopically enriched sources, e.g. fossil fuel- or waste-related CH₄.

607 The temporal evolution of the observed source mixture is investigated in further
608 detail in Fig. 9, where the 16-18 March period (labeled as 2) is compared to two
609 other 48 h – periods (10-12 March; label 1, and 22-24 March; label 3), each with
610 significant diurnal CH₄ elevations. For event 1, the mean isotopic signatures
611 stayed rather constant at values around $\delta^{13}C = -63$ ‰ and $\delta D = -320$ ‰. These
612 values are typical for microbial emissions from an agricultural source and agree
613 well with the source contributions predicted for this period by the FLEXPART-
614 COSMO model.

615 Period 2 is characterized by much stronger isotopic change within the 48 h
616 period. The $\delta^{13}C$ signature increases to above -60 ‰ and the δD signature

617 increases to -240 ‰ by the end of the period (see Fig. 9). The double-isotope
618 plot in Fig. 7 shows that the change in δD during event 2b clearly points towards
619 fossil fuel sources, which provides independent support for the FLEXPART-
620 COSMO simulations, where the contributions from fossil-fuel- derived emissions
621 are higher for the second day.

622 For period 3, the mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ isotopic signatures increased during the 48 h by
623 about 2-3 ‰, whereas the δD signatures remained constant around -300 ‰. For
624 this period, the double isotope plot of Fig. 7 indeed shows a shift towards the
625 waste category. Also this observation is independently confirmed (at least
626 qualitatively) by the FLEXPART-COSMO model derived source attribution, which
627 indicates the largest fraction of waste-derived CH_4 for the first day and a small
628 addition of fossil CH_4 for the second day of event 3. These examples show that
629 even at a location like Cabauw, where one source category strongly dominates,
630 contributions from isotopically different sources can be identified if sufficiently
631 high-resolution dual isotope ratio data are available. We note that the
632 “directional” information in the double isotope plot is only available by
633 combining $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD measurements. It would be much harder, if not
634 impossible, to detect an addition from fossil fuel- or landfill- derived CH_4 based
635 on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ or δD data alone.

636 **4.4. Evaluation of emission databases with high temporal resolution CH_4** 637 **isotope data**

638 As described in Section 3.4, both the TM5 and the FLEXPART-COSMO model-
639 generated time series of CH_4 mole fractions show an adequate agreement with
640 the CH_4 measurements at the Cabauw site. Therefore, the comparison between
641 measurement data and the models can be used to evaluate the methane budget
642 in more detail. In this context, the measured and modeled isotopic composition
643 can be employed to assess the validity of emission inventories, EDGAR and TNO-
644 MACC, with respect to the magnitude and spatial distribution of source
645 categories. To compare the measured mean isotopic signatures to the model
646 results, the simulated isotope time series were linearly interpolated and
647 evaluated in the same way as the observations using the 12 h MKP method. This
648 analysis was performed for both models (TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO), each

649 using both the EDGAR/LPJ-Why-Me and the TNO_MACC inventories.
650 Additionally, time series for the mean isotopic signatures were calculated
651 directly from FLEXPART-COSMO data, without using of the MKP method. This
652 direct method allowed an independent estimation of the mean isotopic
653 signatures and, thus, also provided an opportunity to evaluate the MKP method.

654 The statistics of the mean isotopic signatures from all four model-inventory
655 combinations are shown as histograms in Fig. 10, together with the
656 measurement-derived mean isotopic signatures and the directly derived
657 signatures from FLEXPART-COSMO modeling. A clear difference can be observed
658 between the mean isotopic signatures derived with the two different emission
659 inventories. Model runs with the EDGAR/LPJ-WhyMe emission inventory (red in
660 Fig. 10) tend to produce mean CH₄ isotopic signatures that are more enriched in
661 ¹³C and D than the model runs with TNO-MACC emissions. These differences are
662 very similar for the simulations using TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO, suggesting
663 that differences originate from the emission inventories, rather than from
664 differences between the models themselves. The δ¹³C source signatures derived
665 from the measurements at the Cabauw tower are significantly more depleted
666 than any of the model-generated datasets. For δD, the mean isotopic signatures
667 using TNO-MACC emissions are relatively close to the measurements at Cabauw,
668 whereas the values using EDGAR emissions are much more enriched in CH₃D.

669 The high temporal resolution isotope data that are described in this paper thus
670 provide relevant information to further constrain models and/or emission
671 inventories, because the mean isotopic signatures can change rapidly. The
672 comparison of our first high-resolution isotope measurements at Cabauw to
673 model calculations clearly identify differences between the modeled inventories,
674 where the EDGAR inventory produced too enriched mean isotopic signatures
675 due to a higher contribution from fossil fuel sources. Similar differences in terms
676 of source contributions between EDGAR and TNO-MACC_2 were also reported by
677 Hiller et al. (2014) for Switzerland, and Henne et al. (2015) concluded that
678 natural gas emissions in Switzerland are likely overestimated in EDGAR.

679 **5. Conclusions and outlook**

680 The dual isotopic composition of CH₄ has been monitored for the first time with
681 high temporal resolution in an extended (5 months) field deployment with two
682 different instruments, an IRMS system and a QCLAS system, at the tall tower site
683 Cabauw, the Netherlands. The measurements of both instruments compare well
684 and can be combined to a time series of more than 2500 measurements for both
685 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD . Using a moving Keeling plot technique, the mean isotopic signatures
686 of periods with significant CH₄ elevations can be derived with high temporal
687 resolution. The combination of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD data provides strong constraints to
688 distinguish emissions from different source categories. Overall, CH₄ emissions at
689 the Cabauw tall tower are dominated by agricultural sources, but variations in
690 the mean isotopic signatures allow identification of events with increased
691 contributions from fossil fuel and waste sources, which can be used to validate
692 variations in the source mix, calculated using the FLEXPART-COSMO model.

693 The high-resolution isotope ratio measurements at Cabauw were compared to
694 model calculations that used two different emission inventories. When two very
695 different models (TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO) used emissions from the EDGAR
696 inventory, they produced clearly too enriched mean isotopic signatures. The
697 modeled mean isotopic signatures were systematically more depleted and closer
698 to the measured ones when the TNO-MACC inventory was used. The differences
699 in the source signatures appear to originate from differences in the inventories
700 and not from differences in the models, which supports indications in the recent
701 literature that fossil fuel related emissions might be overestimated in EDGAR. We
702 note that measurements at Cabauw reflect only one limited region of the
703 European domain, and given the many degrees of freedom (transport, source
704 signatures used in the models, emission inventories), one single dataset is not
705 sufficient to make a final decision on the quality of the emission dataset. High
706 frequency analysis of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - and δD at several locations would allow better
707 constraints on isotope source signatures and emissions in atmospheric models.
708 Our proof-of-concept study presented here using continuous high-resolution
709 techniques shows that this will be feasible in the future.

710

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719 transport and setup of the TREX-QCLAS system at the CESAR site.

720 **Author contributions**

721 S.E. and C.vdV. carried out the isotope measurements at the Cabauw tower.
722 C.vdV., T.R. and W.A.B. developed the IRMS system. S.E., B.T., L.E. and J.M.
723 developed the TREX-QCLAS system. C.vdV., S.E., J.M., T.R., B.T., M.E.P., G.Z., D.L.,
724 E.G.N., and J.M.N. contributed to the Cabauw measurement campaign. G.M., S.H.
725 and D.B. performed the modeling with TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO. S.E., T.R.,
726 J.M., B.T., E.H., D.B., G.M., S.H., C.vdV., M.E.P. and H.F. performed and contributed
727 to the data evaluation. S.E. produced the figures for the manuscript. T.R., S.E. and
728 J.M. wrote the manuscript with input from C.vdV., G.M., S.H., E.H., D.B., H.F. and
729 L.E. T.R., L.E. and J.M. designed the study as part of the INGOS project.

730 **Table 1** European CH₄ emissions and isotope source signatures ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, δD) for the
 731 different source categories used in TM5.

Process	Yearly emissions (Europe, Tg CH ₄ /yr)	source signature $\delta^{13}\text{C}/\text{‰}$
Natural emissions	22.1	-59.2
Natural wetlands (1)		
<i>Peatland</i>	9.3	-68
<i>Wet mineral soils</i>	4.6	-65
<i>Inundated wetlands</i>	1.3	-60
Geological emissions (2)	6.5	-42
Termites (3)	0.4	-63
Anthropogenic emissions	45.3	-52.4
Biomass burning (4)	0,3	-23.6
Agriculture (5)		
<i>Domestic ruminants</i>	11	-64
<i>Manure</i>	3	-54
<i>Rice paddies</i>	0.17	-65
Energy sector (5)		
<i>Coal mining</i>	3.4	-47
<i>Oil production</i>	3	-42
<i>Gas production and distribution</i>	12	-42
<i>Oil combustion</i>	0.41	-32
Residential sector (5)	1.6	-32
Waste treatment (5)		
<i>Landfills</i>	9	-54
<i>Waste waters</i>	3	-50
Total	67.4	-54.6

732 (1) Spahni et al. (2011); (2) Etiope et al. (2008); (3) Sanderson et al. (1996); (4)
 733 GFED3/4 (<http://www.globalfiredata.org/>); (5) EDGAR4.2FT (EDGAR, 2010).

734

735 **Table 2** SNAP (Standardized Nomenclature for Air Pollutants) source categories
 736 and corresponding $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD source signatures from the TNO-MACC_2
 737 inventory as used in FLEXPART-COSMO.

SNAP Category	Description	$\delta^{13}\text{C}/\text{‰}$	$\delta\text{D}/\text{‰}$
1	Energy industries, oil or gas production	-42	-175
2	Residential combustion	-32	-175
3+4	Industrial combustion and non-combustion processes	-60	-175
5	Extraction and distribution of fossil fuels including distribution of natural gas	-42	-175
7	Road transport	-20	-175
9	Waste including emissions from landfills	-54	-293
10	Agriculture including emissions from ruminants and manure management	-64	-319
6+8	Other emissions (negligible)	-42	-175

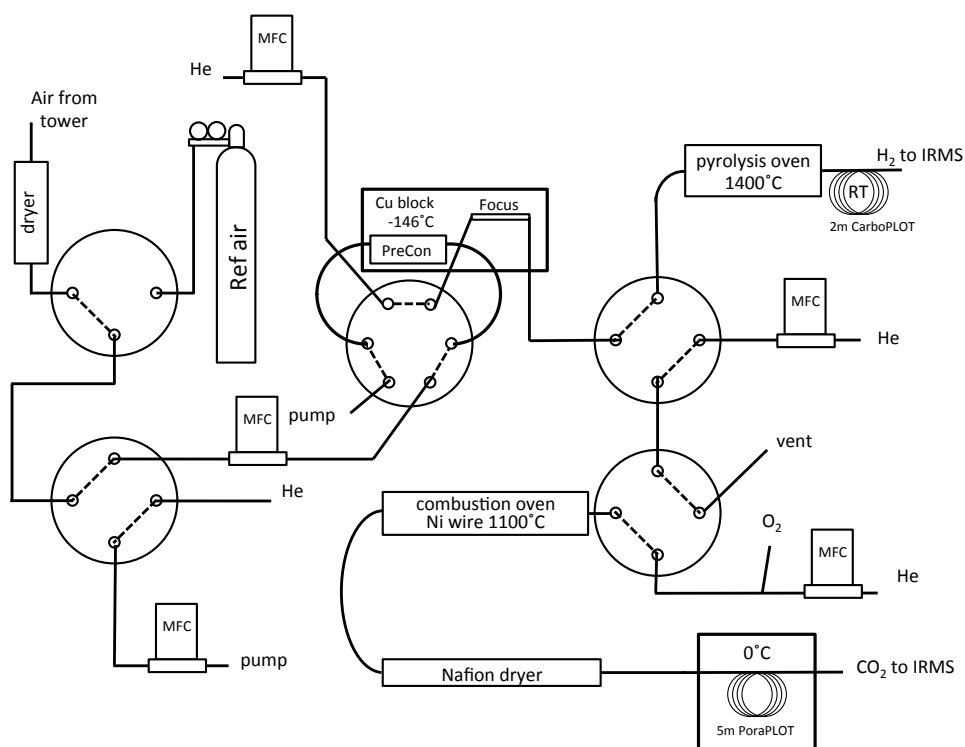
738

739 **Table 3.** Mean value and standard deviation of the histograms of the source
 740 isotopic composition shown in Fig. 10.

Model + Inventory	Method	$\delta^{13}\text{C}/\text{‰}$	$\delta\text{D}/\text{‰}$
Measurement data	MKP	-61.0 ± 2.8	-300 ± 22
TM5 + Edgar	MKP	-53.3 ± 1.1	
FLEXPART-COSMO + Edgar	MKP	-54.5 ± 1.6	-277 ± 10
FLEXPART-COSMO + Edgar	Direct	-53.4 ± 1.7	-269 ± 10
TM5 + TNO-MACC	MKP	-56.7 ± 0.8	
FLEXPART-COSMO + TNO-MACC	MKP	-57.6 ± 1.9	-294 ± 12
FLEXPART-COSMO + TNO-MACC	Direct	-57.2 ± 1.7	-289 ± 11

741

742 **Figures**

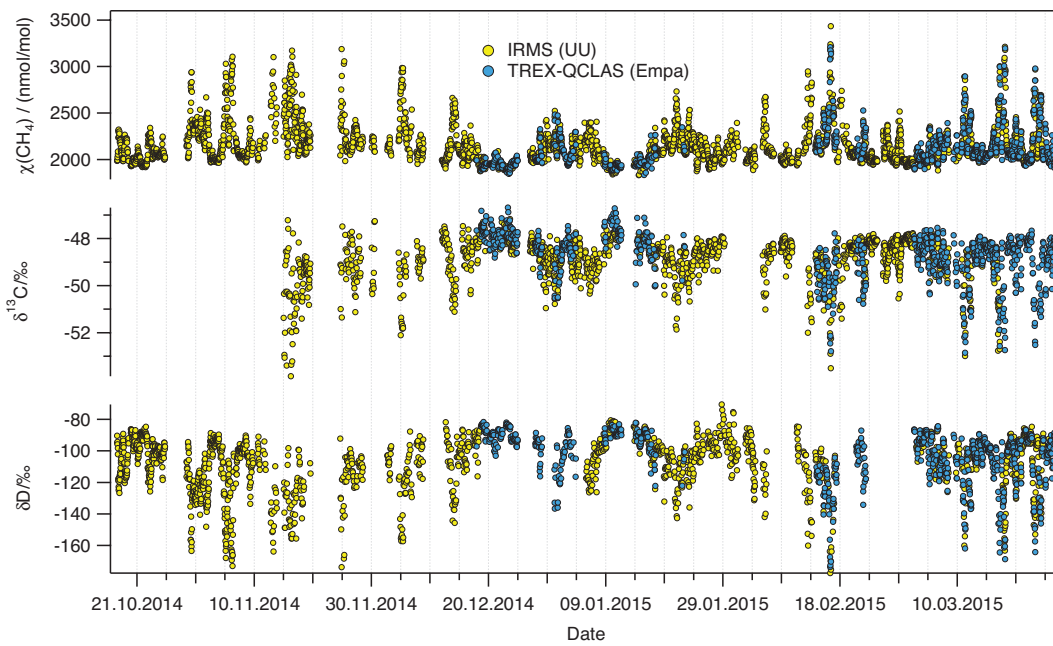


743 Fig. 1: Schematics of the pre-concentration and extraction system developed for
 744 the IRMS technique. MFC denotes mass flow controller. The 8-port valve through
 745 which the Ref air bottle was connected to the first selection valve is not shown to
 746 reduce complexity. For further description see the main text.

747

748

749

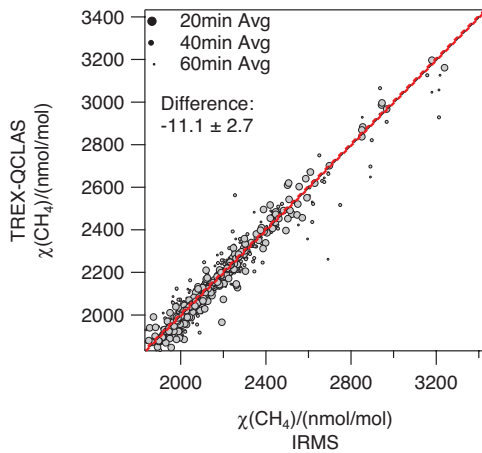


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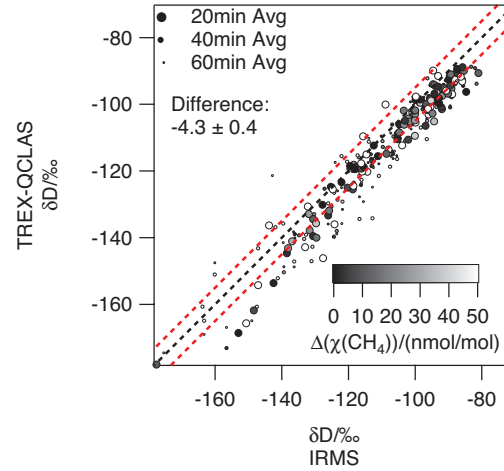
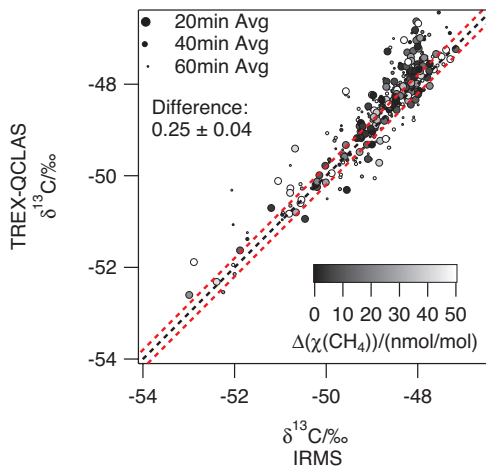
751 Fig. 2.: CH₄ mole fraction, $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$, and isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, δD) measured
752 at the Cabauw tall tower from 17 October 2014 until 29 March 2015. Real-time
753 measurements by IRMS (Utrecht University) are indicated in yellow, TRES-
754 QCLAS (Empa) data in blue.

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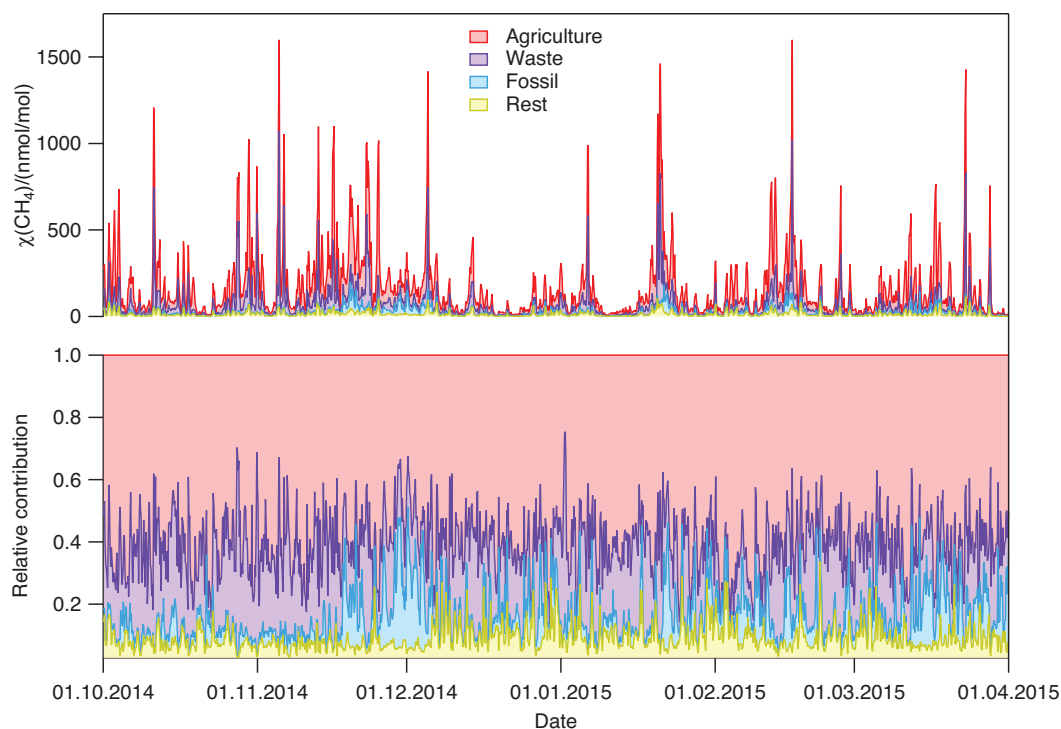
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761 Fig. 2: Correlation diagrams for CH₄ mole fraction, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD analyzed with
762 IRMS (Utrecht University) and TREX-QCLAS (Empa). The dashed black lines are
763 1:1 lines, dashed red lines mark the extended WMO compatibility goals of ± 5
764 nmol/mol, ± 0.2 ‰ and ± 5 ‰ for CH₄ mole fraction, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD , respectively.
765 The temporal difference between IRMS and TREX-QCLAS sampling is indicated
766 by the point size (large: 20 min, medium: 40 min, small: 60 min). For $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD ,
767 the differences in the CH₄ mole fraction of the measurements are represented by
768 the shading (black: identical mole fractions, white: 50 nmol/mol difference).

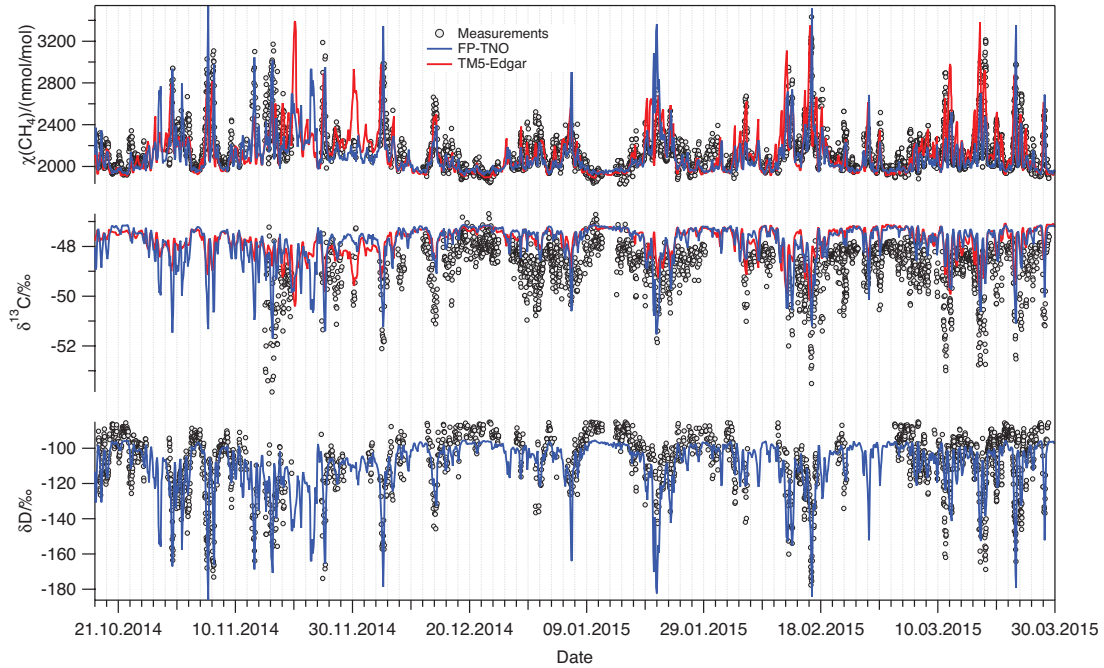
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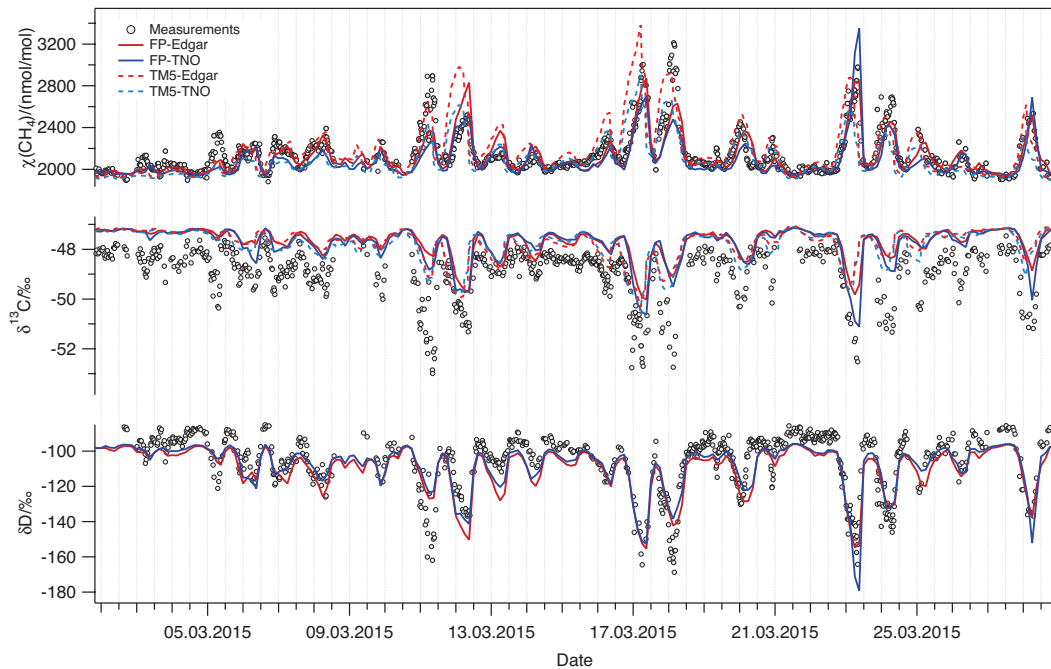
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771 Fig. 3: Absolute (top) and relative (bottom) contributions of methane emissions
 772 that are picked up along the 4-day FLEXPART-COSMO trajectories during the
 773 campaign. The results shown are from the FLEXPART-COSMO simulations with
 774 the TNO-MACC inventory. They indicate major contributions of the following
 775 source categories: “agriculture” (mainly ruminants), “waste” (mainly landfills)
 776 and “fossil” (fugitive losses from coal, oil and natural gas production and from
 777 gas transportation and distribution) to the increase in CH_4 mole fractions at
 778 Cabauw. The category “rest” primarily represents residential CH_4 emissions.

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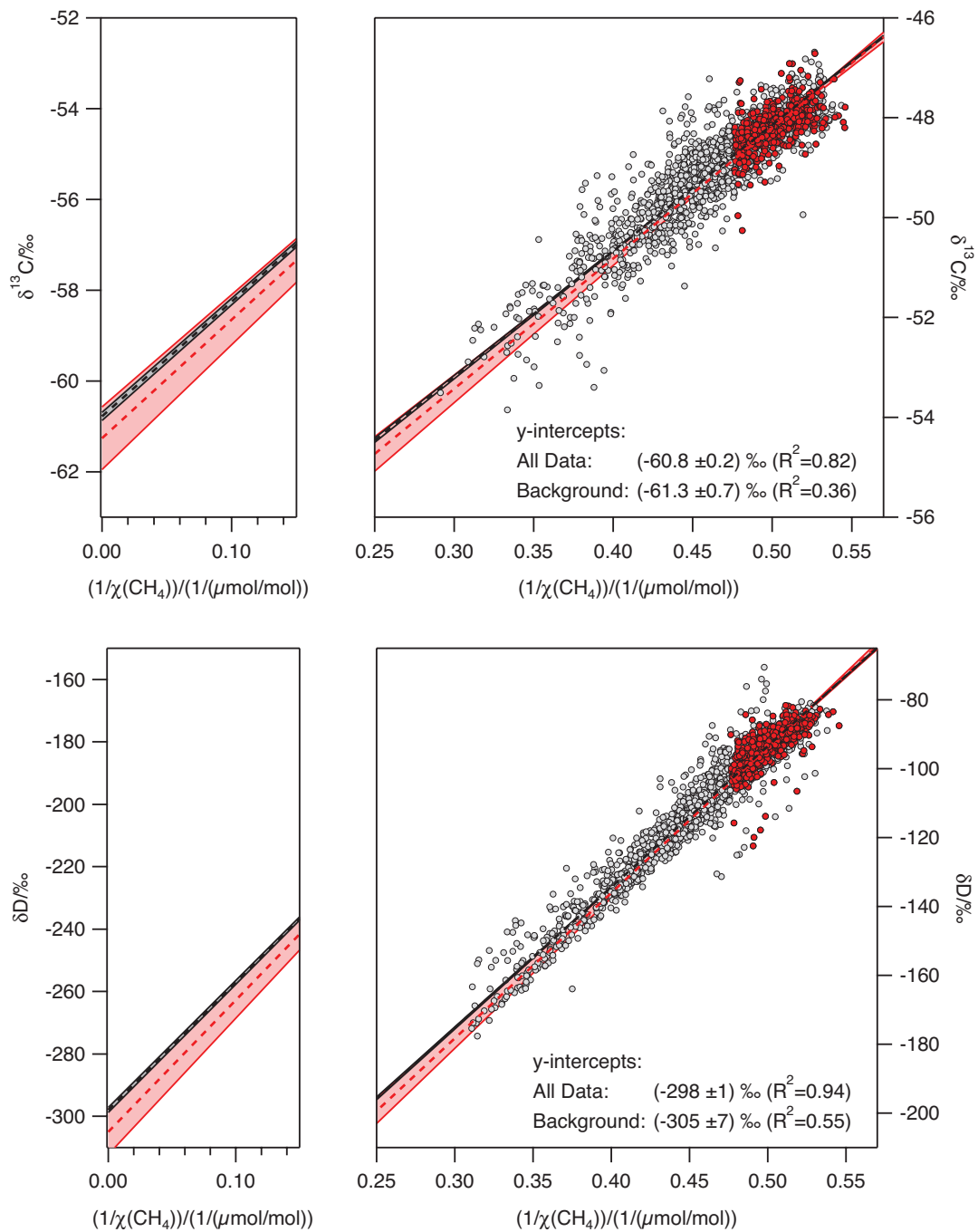
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Fig. 4: Comparison of the modeled and measured time series of CH₄ mole fraction and isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - and δD). Measurements are shown as circles and model results as lines. Top graph: two selected model configurations for the entire campaign: FLEXPART-COSMO using the TNO-MACC inventory (blue) and TM5 using the Edgar/Why-Me inventory (red). Bottom graph: Time series for March 2015 with all four model – inventory combinations. For δD , only the synthetic FLEXPART-COSMO results are available for comparison since TM5 does not simulate δD .



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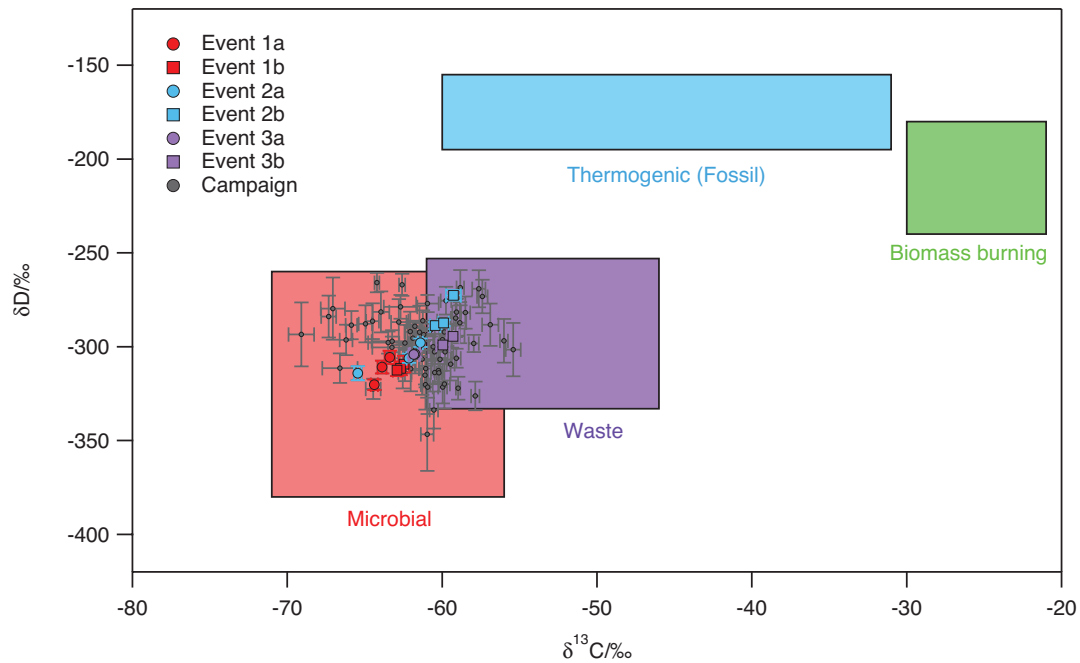
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Fig. 5: Keeling plot of all data using an orthogonal regression method. The dashed line indicates the regression line and the shaded area the confidence interval taking into account the measurement uncertainties. The color code indicates all measured data (grey points) and daily background values (red points). Left panels show the region near the y-axis intercept.

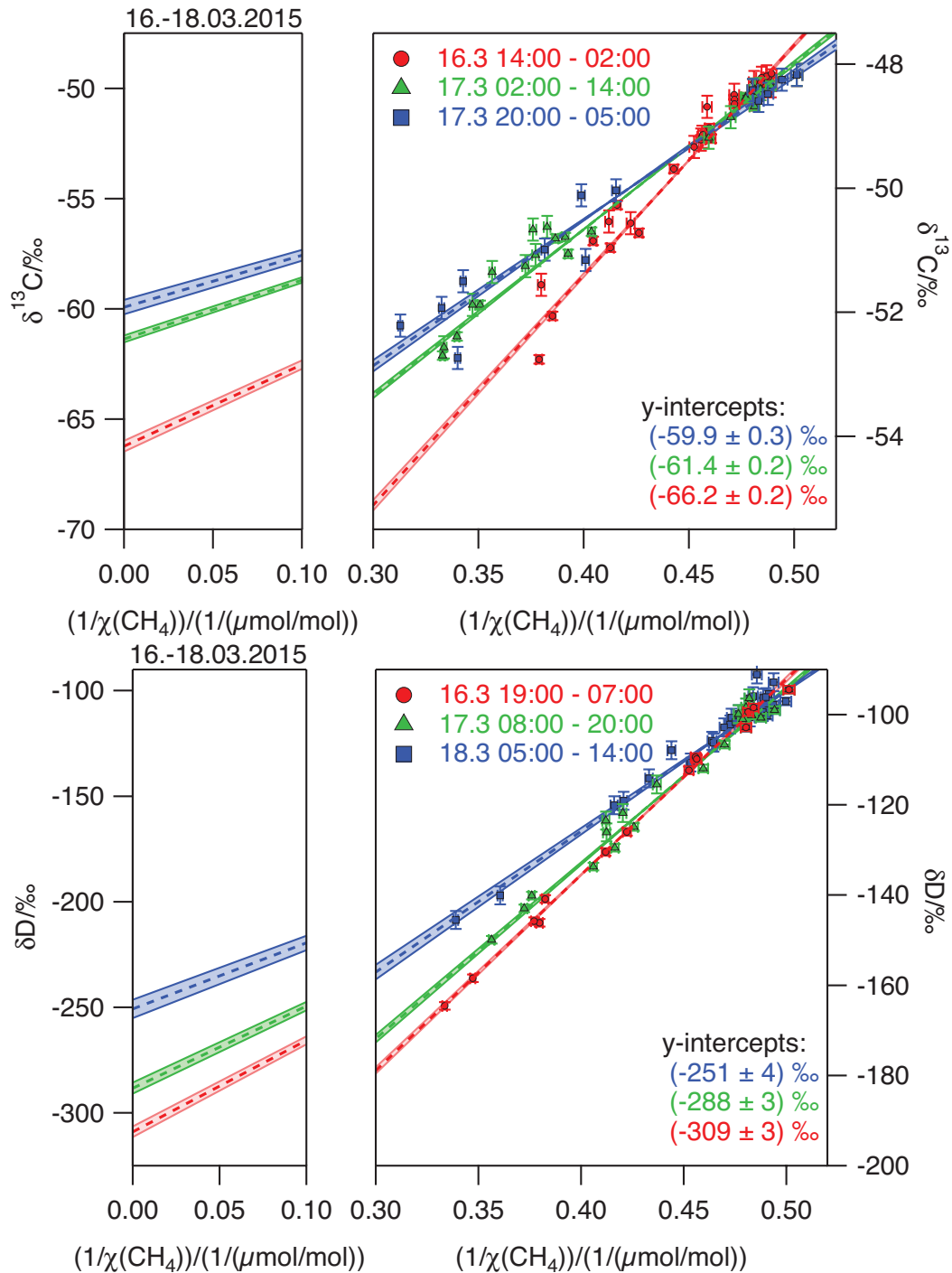


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800 Fig. 6: MKP intercepts of δD vs. $\delta^{13}C$. The colored areas indicate typical isotope
 801 signatures for different source categories. Circles show the 6h-averaged source
 802 signatures. Large colored symbols indicate data from the three events (event 1:
 803 10th – 12th March, event 2: 16th – 18th March, event 3: 22nd to 24th March) that are
 804 highlighted in Fig. 9. The labels a and b refer to day 1 and day 2 of the two-day
 805 events, respectively. For the source signatures, the $\delta^{13}C$ values are taken from
 806 Table 1 and the δD values from recent literature (Snoover et al., 2000; Rigby et al.,
 807 2012).

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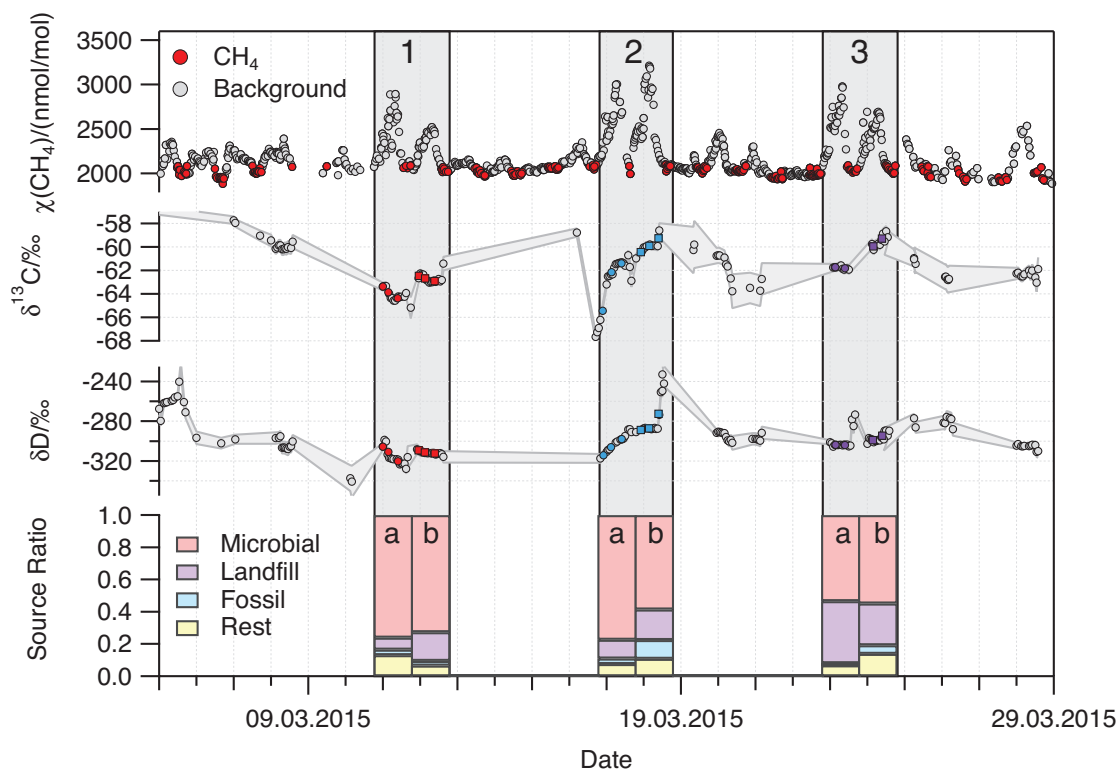
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812 Fig. 7: Keeling plots for the period between 16 and 18 March, illustrating a rapid
 813 change in δ values over the course of hours, which is most probably related to a
 814 change from mainly ruminant derived CH_4 to a significant contribution of fossil
 815 and/or waste CH_4 . The dashed lines indicate the regression line, the shaded
 816 areas show the uncertainty (one standard deviation) of the regression line. Left
 817 panels show the region near the y-axis intercept. Times indicated are Central
 818 European Time (CET).



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821 Fig. 8: Detailed analysis of three 2-day periods with large CH₄ elevations in822 March 2015. The top panel exhibits CH₄ mole fraction (grey) with background

823 values in red (10:00-18:00, >2100 nmol/mol). The middle panels show the mean

824 isotopic signatures ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, δD) derived with the 12-h MKP method. The color-

825 coding in the middle panels (red, light blue, purple) indicates characteristic

826 contributions from different sources; red-microbial, light blue-fossil, purple-

827 waste. For consistency, the same color-coding was chosen in Fig. 7. The bottom

828 graph presents CH₄ source contributions as computed with the FLEXPART-

829 COSMO model using the TNO-MACC inventory, averaged over 24 hours.

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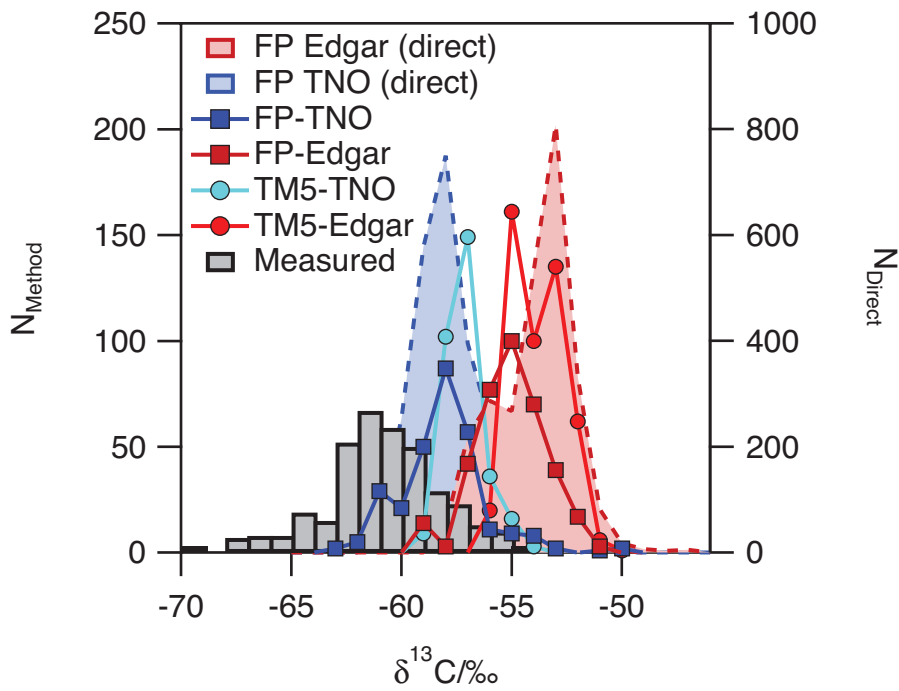
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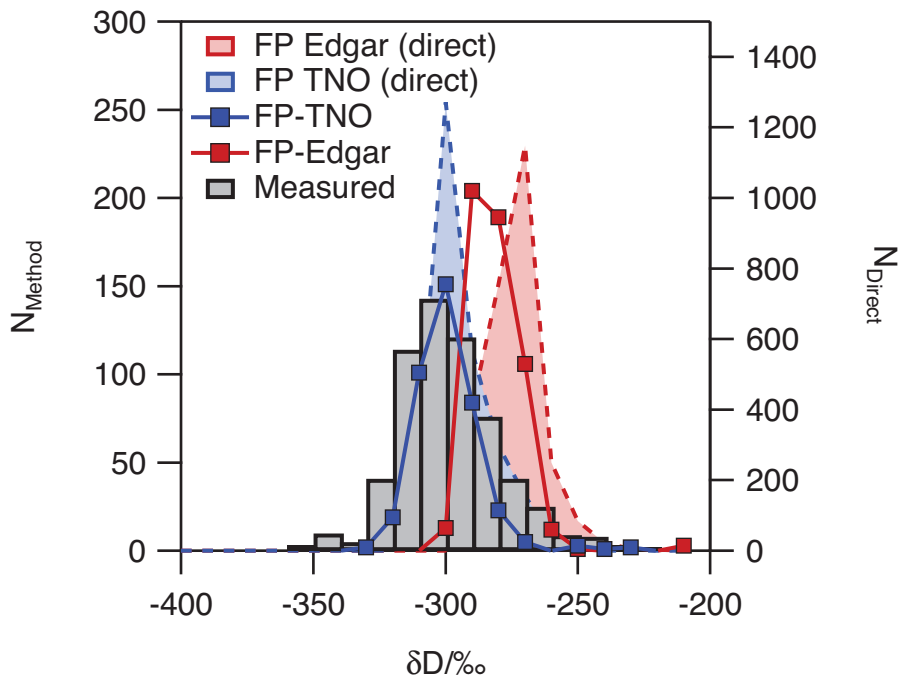
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842 Fig. 10: Histograms of CH₄ isotopic source signatures at the CESAR site between
843 October 2014 and March 2015. Bin widths are 1 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 10 ‰ for δD .
844 Mean isotopic signatures are derived from measured data (grey bins),
845 FLEXPART-COSMO modeling (squares) as well as TM5 modeling (circles) using
846 the 12 h MKP method. Two different inventories, TNO-MACC (blue) and

847 Edgar/LPJ-Why-Me (red), were used. The shaded areas show histograms for the
848 “direct” source signatures that were picked up along the FLEXPART-COSMO
849 trajectory (right axis).

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