



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

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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 $+(0.05$
39 $\pm 0.03)$ ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $-(3.6 \pm 0.4)$ ‰ 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; Louergue 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 CH₄ mole fractions $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$ are reported in nmol/mol = 10⁻⁹ and $\mu\text{mol/mol}$ = 10⁻⁶.
90 The isotopic composition is commonly reported in δ notation, where δ quantifies
91 the relative deviation of an isotope ratio ($^{13}R = ^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ for carbon isotopes and 2R
92 = $^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$, abbreviated as D/H, for hydrogen isotopes) in a sample from a standard
93 ratio. The international standard for reporting $\delta(^{13}\text{C}, \text{CH}_4)$ values is Vienna
94 PeeDeeBelemnite (VPDB, $^{13}R_{\text{VPDB}} = 0.0112372$ (Craig, 1957)) and for $\delta(\text{D}, \text{CH}_4)$ it
95 is Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW, $^2R_{\text{VSMOW}} = 0.0020052$ (Baertschi,
96 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,
97 and given in per mill (‰). 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 CH₄
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, CH₄ 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 CH₄ 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 In the Methods section we describe the site, the experimental setup and the
135 deployed isotope measurement techniques. In addition, descriptions of the
136 modeling tools that were used to support interpretation of the dataset are given.
137 In the Results section we present the dataset, including evaluation of the
138 calibration and the compatibility of the techniques. In the Discussion section the
139 results and new approaches for data evaluation of such high-resolution isotope
140 datasets are discussed.

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 a limited air-conditioning capacity and the temperature varied
160 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. Dekabon tubing from 20 m height at
163 a total flow of 16 l min⁻¹ provided by a scroll pump (Varian Inc.). The sample gas
164 flow was adjusted by means of a flow restriction at the inlet of the pump in order
165 to maintain the pressure in the sampling line above 950 hPa. The sample gas
166 flows for the methane isotope analyzers were branched off upstream of the scroll
167 pump and the restriction, using ¼" o.d. Dekabon lines.

168 2.3. IRMS system

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



179 shown in Fig. 1.

180 **2.3.1. Cryogenic trapping**

181 A Polycold compact cooler compressor (Brooks Automation Inc., USA), filled with
182 coolant PT-30, cooled a cold end on which a copper cylinder (70 mm diameter,
183 85 mm height, 3 kg) was mounted. In this configuration, the copper block
184 reached a temperature of -145 °C. The pre-concentration trap (PreCon) was a 10
185 cm 1/8" SS tube filled with 4 cm 60/80 mesh HayeSep D in the center and 3 cm
186 60/80 glass beads on each end. It was connected with Valco fittings and the
187 packing material was retained in the trap using removable frits (CEF1F). The
188 focus trap (Focus) was a 10 cm 1/16" SS tube filled with 2 cm HayeSep D and 4
189 cm glass beads at both ends, connected with Valco fittings (ECE211.0F). The
190 traps could be heated with 0.5 m Thermsys heating wire wrapped around the
191 tubes. The focus units were glued together with a PT-100 temperature sensor in
192 heat-conducting two component epoxy on a brass standoff. These brass standoffs
193 were mounted to the copper cylinder. In the "trapping" configuration the
194 temperatures of the traps were usually kept at -135 °C.

195 **2.3.2. Measurement procedure**

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

206 The preconcentration and cryofocussing was done similarly to Brass and
207 Röckmann (2010). After flushing the inlet line with >20 ml air, the 6PV was
208 switched to the load position and air was admitted to the PreCon unit. The
209 duration of the air sampling for the IRMS system was 10 minutes at a flow rate of



210 5 ml min⁻¹ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 7 ml min⁻¹ for δD . The flow was provided by a Xavitech
211 mini pump (P200-GAS-12V). During this step, the temperature measured at the
212 PreCon stayed below -132 °C. At this temperature CH₄ and several other trace
213 species were retained on the HayeSep D, while the air matrix was efficiently
214 flushed out.

215 After preconcentration, the PreCon unit was heated to -30 °C and a He flow of
216 3 ml min⁻¹ transported the CH₄ in 90 seconds to the Focus unit, which was held at
217 a temperature <-137 °C. After transfer of the sample to the Focus, the 6PV was
218 switched to the load position and the PreCon was heated to -10 °C to release any
219 remaining trapped gases such as CO₂.

220 The Focus was then heated to release the CH₄, which was directed via 4PV2 and
221 4VP3 either to the combustion oven and the Delta plus XP IRMS for ^{13}C analysis
222 or to the pyrolysis oven and the Delta plus XL IRMS for D analysis.

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

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

236 The typical measurement order during the Cabauw campaign was Ref $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ – Air
237 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ – Ref δD – Air δD . A full measurement cycle took 84 min. On a regular base,
238 pressurized air from a cylinder, applied as a target gas, was analyzed. The CH₄
239 mole fraction and isotopic composition in ambient air and target gas were
240 calculated using an interpolation of the reference air analyzed before and
241 afterwards. A custom made LabView software program was used to control and



242 log the temperature of the traps, the valve switching and the flow setpoints of the
243 MFCs.

244 **2.3.3. IRMS system isotope calibration**

245 The isotope calibration of the IRMS system was based on a reference air cylinder
246 that contains ambient air collected at the IMAU in 2014, with 1888 nmol/mol of
247 CH₄ and isotope values of $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -47.75\text{‰}$ and $\delta\text{D} = -88.6\text{‰}$. The isotope
248 calibration scale is based on the reference scale that was described in detail in
249 Brass and Röckmann (2010). We used the average of the reference air
250 measurement before and after the sample air measurement to calculate the mole
251 fraction and δ values. The system linearity was monitored by injecting various
252 amounts of reference air up to a CH₄ mole fraction equivalent to 2700 nmol/mol,
253 and no non-linearity could be detected. Occasionally, the long-term stability of
254 the system was checked by measuring 3 target cylinders with different CH₄ mole
255 fractions and isotopic compositions. A robust link of the isotopic composition to
256 the international reference materials VPDB and VSMOW has been established in
257 the framework of the INGOS project (Sperlich et al., 2016).

258 **2.4. QCLAS system**

259 The analytical procedure of the laser based measurement system involves two
260 steps: preconcentration of the CH₄ from 7.5 L of ambient air in a trace gas
261 extractor (TREX) by adsorption on HayeSep D (Eyer et al., 2014; Mohn et al.,
262 2010) and analysis of CH₄ isotopologues with a modified commercial QCLAS
263 (QCL-76-D, Aerodyne Inc., USA). Details on the development, optimization and
264 validation of the TREX-QCLAS system are given by Eyer et al. (2015).

265 The present manuscript comprises the first application of the TREX-QCLAS
266 system for in-situ analysis of CH₄ isotopologues at a field site for an extended
267 period of time. In comparison to the original setup, the heating power of the
268 polyimide foil on the cold trap was reduced to 60 W to increase its lifetime. Due
269 to the lower heating power the duration of the desorption step had to be
270 extended, which led to an improved separation from residual bulk gases (e.g. N₂
271 and O₂) and thus a lower offset in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of 1.58 ‰ with respect to the MPI-scale,
272 as compared to previously published results (Eyer et al., 2015). The offset was



related to a higher O₂ mole fraction in the gas matrix after CH₄ preconcentration. One measurement cycle consisted of four consecutive measurements of ambient air samples and one sample of pressurized air used as a target gas, followed by a calibration phase and took around 4:30 hours.

A calibration gas (CG1, (1200 ± 50) μmol/mol CH₄, δ¹³C = -(44.24 ± 0.10) ‰, δD = -(104.7 ± 1.1) ‰) was diluted to 688 μmol/mol and analyzed between every preconcentrated sample as an anchor to correct the measurements for instrumental drift. A second calibration gas (CG2, (1103.8 ± 3.5) μmol/mol CH₄, δ¹³C = -(36.13 ± 0.10) ‰, δD = -(180.6 ± 1.1) ‰), diluted to a similar CH₄ mole fraction of 681 μmol/mol was used to calculate calibration factors for δ¹³C and δD values. Furthermore, gas cylinders of pressurized ambient air, referred to as target gas (TG1, TG2), were frequently measured over the entire campaign to determine and verify the repeatability of the measurement system, which was found to be 0.28 ‰ and 1.7 ‰ for δ¹³C and δD (1σ), respectively. Additional adjustments in the preconcentration procedure and in the analytical routine for isotope analysis improved the repeatability to 0.18 ‰ and 0.85 ‰ for δ¹³C and δD in the last month of the campaign.

The CH₄ isotopic composition of the calibration gases, as well as the target gases (TG1, (2639.5 ± 0.6) nmol/mol CH₄, δ¹³C = -(46.48 ± 0.10) ‰, δD = -(119.0 ± 1.1) ‰, TG2, (2659.8 ± 0.6) nmol/mol CH₄, δ¹³C = -(45.87 ± 0.10) ‰, δD = -(114.1 ± 1.1) ‰) were determined by the Stable Isotope Laboratory at the Max-Planck-Institute for Biogeochemistry. CH₄ mole fraction measurements were linked to the WMO-X2004 calibration scale (Dlugokencky et al., 2005) through calibration of the target gases against NOAA reference standards at Empa.

2.5. Modeling

Two complementary atmospheric transport models (TM5, FLEXPART-COSMO), both in combination with two different emissions inventories (TNO-MACC₂, EDGAR/LPJ-WhyMe), were applied to support interpretation of the measurements. The Eulerian tracer model TM5 simulated the distribution of CH₄ and ¹³CH₄ at global scale with a zoom on Europe at 1° x 1° resolution and considered both the isotopic signatures of different sources and the fractionation



304 by different removal pathways of CH₄ in the atmosphere. The Lagrangian particle
305 dispersion model FLEXPART-COSMO, conversely, was run in backward mode at a
306 higher resolution of 0.06° x 0.06° but only over Europe. This model is better able
307 to represent the spatial variability of CH₄ sources in the near field of Cabauw but
308 it only simulated the contributions from the last 4 days of emissions within
309 Europe and not the large-scale background. Chemical loss of CH₄ was not
310 considered due to the short transport times between the sources and the
311 receptor point at Cabauw. δD was only simulated with FLEXPART-COSMO.

312 **2.5.1. TM5 modeling**

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

323 Two parallel (forward) TM5 simulations were performed with CH₄ and ¹³CH₄ as
324 transported tracers. In the standard configuration, anthropogenic CH₄ emissions
325 were taken from EDGAR4.2 FT2010 (EDGAR, 2009), extrapolated to 2014 and
326 2015 using annual statistics from the Food and Agriculture Organization of the
327 United Nations (FAO) and the British Petroleum Company (BP), as described in
328 Houweling et al. (2014). For natural wetland emissions, an average of the
329 emission estimates derived by Spahni et al. (2011) for the period 2003-2008 was
330 taken, using the LPJ-WhyMe model. For a complete description of the CH₄
331 emissions (Table 1), see Monteil et al. (2013) and references therein. ¹³CH₄
332 emissions were derived from the CH₄ emissions using prescribed δ¹³C source
333 signatures (see Table 1). The source signature confidence intervals were taken
334 from existing literature. The actual source signatures were adjusted within these
335 ranges to bring the background δ¹³C level to good agreement with observations



(Monteil et al., 2011). In a second set of simulations, anthropogenic emissions in a regional domain centered on Cabauw were replaced by emissions from the European TNO-MACC_2 inventory, which was used as the standard inventory in the FLEXPART-COSMO simulations (see below). Outside the regional domain covered by TNO-MACC_2, the EDGAR emissions were used.

341

Atmospheric removal of CH_4 was modeled as described in Monteil et al. (2013), using kinetic fractionation factors $\alpha = k(^{12}\text{C}) / k(^{13}\text{C})$ of $\alpha_{\text{OH}} = 1.0055$, $\alpha_{\text{Cl}} = 1.066$ and $\alpha_{\text{O}(1\text{D})} = 1.013$ for the reactions between CH_4 and OH (Sander et al., 2006), Cl (Saueressig et al., 1995) and O(1D) (Saueressig et al., 2000), respectively. Simulations of the period 2005-2015 were used to calculate a realistic state of the atmosphere at the start of the measurement campaigns. Time series were extracted from model-simulated mole fraction fields after interpolation to the horizontal coordinate and height of the Cabauw tower air inlet.

2.5.2. FLEXPART-COSMO modeling

The Lagrangian Particle Dispersion Model (LPDM) FLEXPART (Stohl et al., 2005) was used in a modified version coupled to the mesoscale numerical weather forecast model COSMO (Baldauf et al., 2011) to simulate the regional contribution of different source categories to the concentrations and isotopic signatures of CH_4 at Cabauw. FLEXPART-COSMO was driven by hourly operational analysis fields generated by the Swiss national weather service MeteoSwiss for a domain covering entire western and central Europe from Ireland, Denmark, Poland in the north to Portugal and southern Italy in the south with a horizontal resolution of approximately 7 km x 7 km and 60 vertical levels. Every 3 hours, 50'000 particles (air parcels) were released from the position of the inlet 20 m above surface and traced backward in time for 4 days to compute the sensitivity of each 3-hourly measurement to upwind sources. The corresponding source sensitivity maps or footprints (Seibert and Frank, 2004) were multiplied with gridded CH_4 emissions to compute the mole fraction enhancement above background expected from different sources. Emissions were taken from the TNO-MACC_2 inventory for Europe representative of the year 2009 and available at $0.125^\circ \times 0.0625^\circ$ resolution (Kuenen et al., 2014) or,



alternatively, from the same version of EDGAR/LPJ-WhyMe inventory driving
TM5 at a resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$. This was done separately for a number of SNAP
(Standardized Nomenclature for Air Pollutants) source categories with specific
isotopic signatures as summarized in Table 2.

For the domain covered by the FLEXPART-COSMO simulations, which includes
most of western and central Europe, total anthropogenic emissions are 20.6 Tg
 CH_4/yr in EDGAR and 18.3 Tg CH_4/yr in TNO-MACC, which corresponds to a
difference of 12.5%. CH_4 emissions from gas/oil production and distribution are
89% higher, CH_4 emissions from agriculture 19% lower and CH_4 emissions from
waste 12% higher in EDGAR than in TNO-MACC.

Source specific emissions were combined with isotopic signatures of the various
categories from Table 2 to derive $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD isotope source signatures for the
 CH_4 that was picked up by the air parcel along the trajectory.

2.6. Interpretation of CH_4 isotope data

2.6.1. Data analysis by a Keeling plot technique

The isotopic source signatures of CH_4 emissions were estimated using the
Keeling plot technique (Keeling, 1961; Pataki et al., 2003). This method allows
determining the isotopic composition of a source that mixes into a background
reservoir from the observed ambient isotopic composition and mole fraction. An
implicit assumption of the Keeling plot approach is that the isotopic composition
and mole fraction of the background reservoir and the isotopic composition of
the source stay constant over the time range of the analysis. This may not always
apply as CH_4 may originate from different sources and their relative contribution
may change over time.

To exploit the high temporal resolution of our data, we applied a novel approach
of a moving Keeling plot (MKP) method. Data within a moving window of 12
hours were used to calculate the source isotopic composition. This window was
moved in 1-hour time steps over the data series. In addition, values for
background conditions within a 48-hour period, centered on the respective 12-
hour window, were included in the analysis. These background values were
chosen between 10:00 and 18:00 local time, because during this period a



convective boundary layer usually develops and hence local influence is weak; pollution events with CH₄ mole fractions above 2100 nmol/mol were filtered out additionally. For each time window, an orthogonal least squares fit was applied to the δ values vs. the inverse CH₄ mole fractions and R² values were calculated. A Keeling plot analysis only returns meaningful values for the source isotopic composition if the variations in CH₄ mole fraction are significant and if the emissions are from a source with a well-defined isotopic composition. Therefore, two additional filters were applied: i) the mole fraction had to vary by more than 200 nmol/mol within each time window and ii) the R² of the fit had to be larger than 0.8. If R² < 0.8, the 12 h interval was reduced consecutively by one hour to a minimum of six hours until either the R² of the fit was > 0.8 or the number of data points was lower than five. On average this technique accumulated 22 data points per 12-h time window.

3. Results

3.1. Overview of the field measurements at the Cabauw site

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

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

3.2. Intercalibration of the two analytical techniques



Before presenting a detailed analysis of the CH_4 isotopic composition in ambient air, we compare the results obtained with the IRMS and QCLAS techniques in order to evaluate their performance and to combine the results into one final dataset. Although both systems measured air from the same intake line, the sampling intervals could not be synchronized since both instruments operated in different measurement cycles. A full measurement cycle (including measurement of the reference gas) took 84 minutes for the IRMS system and 54 minutes for the TREX-QCLAS system. The actual duration of the air sampling was 10 minutes for the IRMS system and 15 minutes for the QCLAS system. So even if the systems coincidentally started sampling at the same time, they never actually analyzed exactly the same air mass. Consequently, differences between the systems contain contributions from natural variability, random fluctuations due to limited measurement precision, and system offsets. Fig. 3 shows a comparison of the $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$, as well as $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD values that were obtained with the TREX-QCLAS and the IRMS technique. To visualize the possible effect of time shifts, the size of the points corresponds to the proximity of the sampling intervals. A total of 727, 333 and 277 measurement pairs for $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD , respectively, analyzed by both techniques were combined in this way.

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

For the isotope intercalibration plots, the grey-black shading of the circles indicates the difference in $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$ of the respective measurement pair analyzed by both techniques. The overall difference between the measurements conducted with the two systems (QCLAS-IRMS) is $+(0.05 \pm 0.03) \text{‰}$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $-(3.6 \pm 0.4) \text{‰}$ for δD (the stated errors are standard errors of the mean). The mean offsets of 0.05‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 3.6‰ for δD are well within the WMO



462 extended compatibility goals of 0.2 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 5 ‰ for δD , as indicated by
463 the red dashed lines (WMO, 2014). Individual measurement pairs, however, can
464 show significantly larger deviations for aforementioned reasons. The mean offset
465 values determined above were applied to the QCLAS data to create one combined
466 dataset with 2610 data points for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 2673 data points for δD .

467 3.3. FLEXPART-COSMO source attribution

468 In FLEXPART-COSMO, the contributions of the individual source types are
469 simulated separately and added up to obtain the cumulative CH_4 mole fraction.
470 Figure 4 shows these contributions in absolute (top) and relative terms
471 (bottom). According to the model, the relative contributions at the Cabauw site
472 are quite uniform, with agricultural sources accounting for more than 60%,
473 waste (mostly landfills) around 20–40%, and fossil sources between 0 and 40%.
474 We note that significant contributions from fossil sources are only detected
475 episodically, during several events that usually last a few days. Contributions
476 from other source categories are generally negligible at the Cabauw site.

477 3.4. TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO modeling including isotopes

478 The TM5 model calculates the combined influence of the global methane sources
479 and sinks on CH_4 and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at the Cabauw tower, and therefore the TM5 results
480 can be compared directly to the measured time series. For FLEXPART-COSMO, a
481 representative background mole fraction and isotopic signature needs to be
482 added for comparison with the observations. For simplicity we assumed a
483 constant background similar to the observed values for background conditions:
484 1930 nmol/mol for $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$ with $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -47.1$ ‰ and $\delta\text{D} = -86$ ‰.

485 Figure 5 shows a comparison of these model-generated time series with the
486 measured data for the entire campaign. Both models capture the amplitude and
487 the temporal variability of $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$ well. Most of the methane pollution events
488 observed at the CESAR site are also present in the modeled time series and the
489 increase in $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$ is of a comparable size. In addition, the results of the TM5 and
490 the FLEXPART-COSMO model for CH_4 mole fractions agree relatively well with
491 each other ($R^2=0.69$), in particular when both models are run with the same
492 inventory at the same coarse spatial resolution, i.e. with EDGAR/LPJ-WhyMe.



493 A few pronounced CH₄ events in Figure 5 show larger differences between the
494 models. On 2 November, FLEXPART-COSMO simulates an emission signal that is
495 not captured by TM5. Unfortunately no measurements are available for this
496 event to decide on which model performs better. On 30 November TM5
497 simulates a CH₄ plume, which is absent in FLEXPART-COSMO, and this event is
498 also not supported by the measurements. Nevertheless, the overall performance
499 of the TM5 global model is remarkable given its coarse spatial resolution. The
500 global model has the advantage that it includes the influence of long-range
501 transport. As expected, however, the observed variability is predominantly
502 influenced by local and regional emissions.

503 Regarding the time series of the δ values, both TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO
504 qualitatively display the expected anti-correlations between CH₄ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$.
505 However, the amplitude of the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ variability is generally underestimated in the
506 model runs, especially when using the EDGAR inventory. In addition, the
507 modeled background level of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in TM5 is offset by up to 1 ‰, but this is
508 consistent with data-model comparisons at clean background sites at mid
509 latitudes (not shown).

510 Using the TNO-MACC inventory in FLEXPART-COSMO results in better
511 agreement with the observed variability of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. In TM5, the TNO-MACC
512 emissions reduce the amplitude of the CH₄ variability, which is explained by the
513 13% lower emissions in TNO-MACC compared with EDGAR. Furthermore, the
514 results of both models are consistent with the emissions being more depleted in
515 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in TNO-MACC than in EDGAR. The measurements indicate emissions that
516 are even more depleted in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ than TNO-MACC values. These results suggest
517 that the fractional contribution of isotopically heavy fossil emissions is
518 overestimated in EDGAR, at least in the area sampled by Cabauw, although the
519 uncertainty in the assumed $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ source signatures could also contribute. For
520 instance, recent literature showed, that landfill emissions from the UK are more
521 depleted in $^{13}\text{CH}_4$ due to the implementation of gas extraction systems (Zazzeri
522 et al., 2015).

523 The δD time series simulated with FLEXPART-COSMO using the TNO-MACC
524 inventory is in good agreement with the measurements. This further indicates



that TNO-MACC has a realistic source mixture, but the uncertainties in the δD source signatures are too large to draw firm conclusions at this stage. Despite these uncertainties, Figure 5 clearly demonstrates how isotopic measurements highlight differences between emission inventories, which would go unnoticed looking only at CH_4 mole fractions. Additional information may be available from the combination of both isotope signatures. For several of the CH_4 elevation events shown in Fig. 5b, the relative changes in $\delta^{13}C$ and δD modeled with FLEXPART-COSMO vary when using the two different inventories (TNO-MACC and EDGAR). Some of the anomalies show differences pointing in the same direction for $\delta^{13}C$ and δD , and some others not. This suggests that δD provides additional independent information, which will be discussed in more detail in Section 4.3 using a double isotope plot of the source signatures (Fig. 7). The benefit of the high-resolution dual isotope measurements for validating emissions used in the models will be investigated in Section 4.4.

4. Discussion

4.1. Diurnal and synoptic variability

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

4.2. Isotope identification of the cumulative source

In Fig. 6, the Keeling plot technique is applied to identify the isotopic signature ($\delta^{13}C$, δD) of the combined CH_4 emissions detected at the Cabauw site. An orthogonal regression method was applied to determine the fit parameters. This analysis yields well-defined isotopic signatures of the cumulative source (the y-intercept of the regression analysis) of $\delta^{13}C = -(60.9 \pm 0.2) \text{‰}$ and $\delta D = -(295 \pm 1) \text{‰}$. The inferred isotopic signature agrees well with emission from ruminants, which are expected to be the main source of CH_4 in this rural area. This is



556 plausible, because the cumulative source signature is largely determined by the
557 pronounced nighttime CH_4 elevations, which represent the local emissions close
558 to the tower. Also the source contributions modeled by FLEXPART-COSMO
559 suggest the dominant influence of agricultural emissions in this rural area (Fig.
560 4). Interestingly, the source signature for the much smaller synoptic CH_4
561 variations of the background (red points in Fig. 6) is not significantly different
562 from the one for the complete dataset.

563 **4.3. Short-term variability**

564 Given the high temporal resolution of the dataset presented here, the isotope
565 variations can be interpreted in much more detail than the overall analysis
566 performed above. This allows identifying varying contributions of CH_4 sources
567 during different periods of the campaign. To do so, we applied a 12-hour Moving
568 Keeling Plot (MKP) method to the data, as described in Sect 2.6.1.

569 Fig. 7 summarizes the results of the MKP method in the form of a δD vs. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ plot.
570 To combine $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD measurements performed at different times, MKP
571 intercepts were averaged over 6 h intervals. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ source signatures range
572 between -68 ‰ and -55 ‰ and δD source signatures cover a relatively wide
573 range between -350 ‰ and -230 ‰, indicating emissions mainly from microbial
574 sources as derived from the cumulative Keeling plot analysis. During some
575 periods, however, elevated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD source signatures reveal significant
576 additional contributions from waste and/or fossil emissions.

577 The colored symbols in Fig. 7 highlight the source signatures of three 48 h events
578 (10-12, 16-18 and 22-24 March) that are discussed in more detail in the
579 following. For the event of 16-18 March, selected results of the 12 h MKP method
580 are displayed in Fig. 8, demonstrating the advantage of the high temporal
581 resolution data. It is possible to clearly distinguish variations in the isotopic
582 source signatures during this event by variations in the y-axis intercepts. The
583 increase by about 6 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and about 50 ‰ for δD , in the source isotopic
584 signature for this event, clearly indicates the gradually increasing contribution of
585 CH_4 from isotopically enriched sources, e.g. fossil fuel- or waste-related CH_4 .



586 The temporal evolution of the observed source mixture is investigated in further
587 detail in Fig. 9, where the 16-18 March period (labeled as 2) is compared to two
588 other 48 h – periods (10-12 March; label 1, and 22-24 March; label 3), each with
589 significant diurnal CH₄ elevations. For event 1, the isotope source signatures
590 stayed rather constant at values around $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -62\text{‰}$ and $\delta\text{D} = -320\text{‰}$. These
591 values are typical for microbial emissions from an agricultural source and agree
592 well with the source contributions predicted for this period by the FLEXPART-
593 COSMO model.

594 Period 2 is characterized by much stronger isotopic change within the 48 h
595 period. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ source signature increases to above -60‰ and the δD source
596 signature increases to -240‰ by the end of the period (see Fig. 9). The double-
597 isotope plot in Fig. 7 shows that the change in δD during event 2b clearly points
598 towards fossil fuel sources, which provides independent support for the
599 FLEXPART-COSMO simulations, where the contributions from fossil-fuel-
600 derived emissions are higher for the second day.

601 For period 3, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ source signatures increased during the 48 h by about 2-3
602 ‰, whereas the δD signatures remained constant around -300‰ . For this
603 period, the double isotope plot of Fig. 7 indeed shows a shift towards the waste
604 category. Also this observation is independently confirmed (at least
605 qualitatively) by the FLEXPART-COSMO model derived source attribution, which
606 indicates the largest fraction of waste-derived CH₄ for the first day and a small
607 addition of fossil CH₄ for the second day of event 3. These examples show that
608 even at a location like Cabauw, where one source category strongly dominates,
609 contributions from isotopically different sources can be identified if sufficiently
610 high-resolution dual isotope ratio data are available. We note that the
611 “directional” information in the double isotope plot is only available by
612 combining $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD measurements. It would be much harder, if not
613 impossible, to detect an addition from fossil fuel- or landfill- derived CH₄ based
614 on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ or δD data alone.

615 4.4. Evaluation of emission databases with high temporal resolution CH₄ 616 isotope data



617 As described in Section 3.4, both the TM5 and the FLEXPART-COSMO model-
618 generated time series of CH₄ mole fractions show an adequate agreement with
619 the CH₄ measurements at the Cabauw site. Therefore, the comparison between
620 measurement data and the models can be used to evaluate the methane budget
621 in more detail. In this context, the measured and modeled isotopic source
622 signatures can be employed to assess the validity of emission inventories,
623 EDGAR and TNO-MACC, with respect to the magnitude and spatial distribution of
624 source categories. To compare the measured isotopic source signatures to the
625 model results, the simulated isotope time series were linearly interpolated and
626 evaluated in the same way as the observations using the 12 h MKP method. This
627 analysis was performed for both models (TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO), each
628 using both the EDGAR/LPJ-Why-Me and the TNO_MACC inventories.
629 Additionally, isotopic source signature time series were calculated directly from
630 FLEXPART-COSMO data, without using of the MKP method. This direct method
631 allowed an independent estimation of the source signatures and, thus, also
632 provided an opportunity to evaluate the MKP method.

633 The statistics of the isotope source signatures from all four model-inventory
634 combinations are shown as histograms in Fig. 10, together with the
635 measurement-derived source signatures and the directly derived source
636 signatures from FLEXPART-COSMO modeling. A clear difference can be observed
637 between the source signatures derived with the two different emission
638 inventories. Model runs with the EDGAR/LPJ-WhyMe emission inventory (red in
639 Fig. 10) tend to produce CH₄ isotope source signature distributions that are more
640 enriched in ¹³C and D than the model runs with TNO-MACC emissions. These
641 differences are very similar for the simulations using TM5 and FLEXPART-
642 COSMO, suggesting that differences originate from the emission inventories,
643 rather than from differences between the models themselves. The δ¹³C source
644 signatures derived from the measurements at the Cabauw tower are even
645 significantly more depleted than any of the model-generated datasets. For δD,
646 the source signatures using TNO-MACC emissions are relatively close to the
647 measurements at Cabauw, whereas the values using EDGAR emissions are much
648 more enriched in CH₃D.



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

659 5. Conclusions and outlook

660 The dual isotopic composition of CH_4 has been monitored for the first time with
661 high temporal resolution in an extended (5 months) field deployment with two
662 different instruments, an IRMS system and a QCLAS system, at the tall tower site
663 Cabauw, the Netherlands. The measurements of both instruments compare well
664 and can be combined to a time series of more than 2500 measurements for both
665 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD . Using a moving Keeling plot technique, the isotopic source
666 signatures of periods with significant CH_4 elevations can be derived with high
667 temporal resolution. The combination of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD data provides strong
668 constraints to distinguish emissions from different source categories. Overall,
669 CH_4 emissions at the Cabauw tall tower are dominated by agricultural sources,
670 but variations in the source signatures allow identification of events with
671 increased contributions from fossil fuel and waste sources, which can be used to
672 validate variations in the source mix, calculated using the FLEXPART-COSMO
673 model.

674 The high-resolution isotope ratio measurements at Cabauw were compared to
675 model calculations that used two different emission inventories. When two very
676 different models (TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO) used emissions from the EDGAR
677 inventory, they produced clearly too enriched source signatures. The modeled
678 source signatures were systematically more depleted and closer to the measured
679 ones when the TNO-MACC inventory was used. The differences in the source
680 signatures appear to originate from differences in the inventories and not from



681 differences in the models, which supports indications in the recent literature that
682 fossil fuel related emissions might be overestimated in EDGAR. We note that
683 measurements at Cabauw reflect only one limited region of the European
684 domain, and given the many degrees of freedom (transport, source signatures
685 used in the models, emission inventories), one single dataset is not sufficient to
686 make a final decision on the quality of the emission dataset. High frequency
687 analysis of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - and δD at several locations would allow better constraints on
688 isotope source signatures and emissions in atmospheric models. Our proof-of-
689 concept study presented here using continuous high-resolution techniques
690 shows that this will be feasible in the future.

691

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

701 **Author contributions**

702 S.E. and C.vdV. carried out the isotope measurements at the Cabauw tower.
703 C.vdV., T.R. and W.A.B. developed the IRMS system. S.E., B.T., L.E. and J.M.
704 developed the TREX-QCLAS system. C.vdV., S.E., J.M., T.R., B.T., M.E.P., G.Z., D.L.,
705 E.G.N., and J.M.N. contributed to the Cabauw measurement campaign. G.M., S.H.
706 and D.B. performed the modeling with TM5 and FLEXPART-COSMO. S.E., T.R.,
707 J.M., B.T., E.H., D.B., G.M., S.H., C.vdV., M.E.P. and H.F. performed and contributed
708 to the data evaluation. S.E. produced the figures for the manuscript. T.R., S.E. and
709 J.M. wrote the manuscript with input from C.vdV., G.M., S.H., E.H., D.B., H.F. and
710 L.E. T.R., L.E. and J.M. designed the study as part of the INGOS project.



Table 1 European CH₄ emissions and isotope source signatures ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, δD) for the 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

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



Table 2 SNAP (Standardized Nomenclature for Air Pollutants) source categories and corresponding $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD source signatures from the TNO-MACC_2 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

719



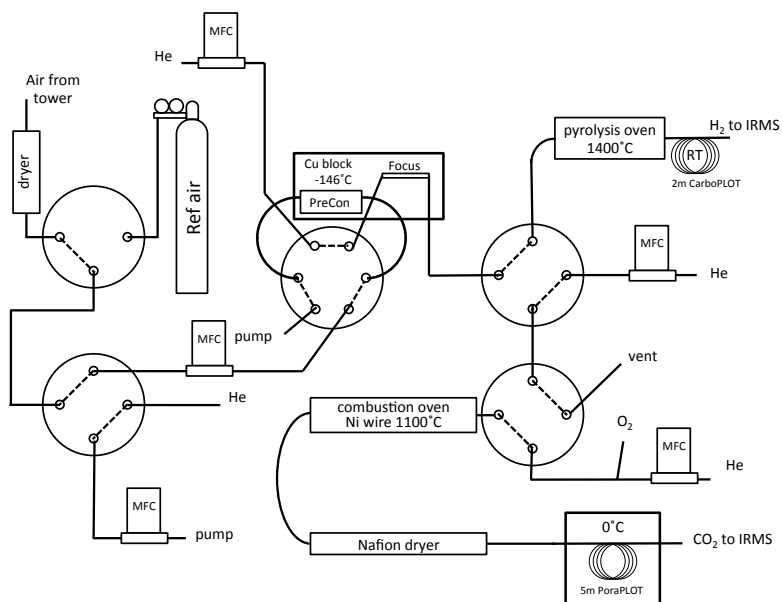
720 Table 3. Mean value and standard deviation of the histograms of the source
 721 isotopic composition shown in Figure 10.

Model + Inventory	Method	$\delta^{13}\text{C}/\text{‰}$	$\delta\text{D}/\text{‰}$
Measurement data	MKP	-60.9 ± 3.1	-301 ± 24
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

722



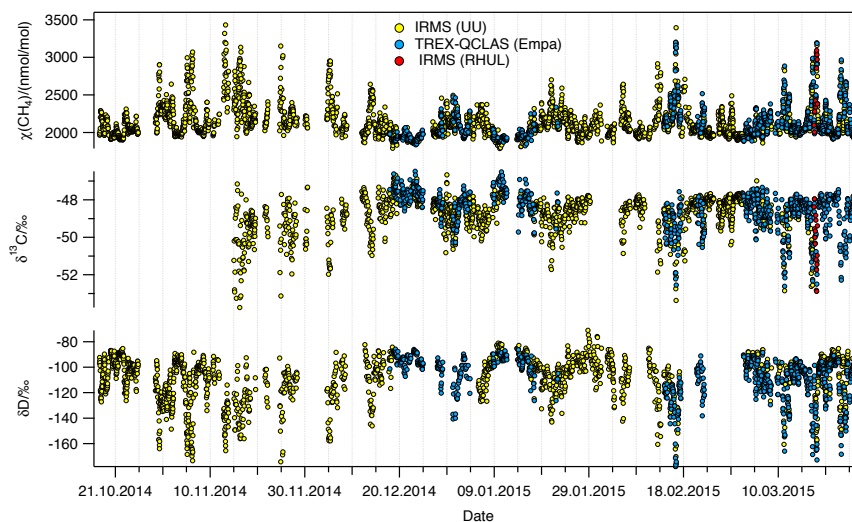
723 Figures



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

728

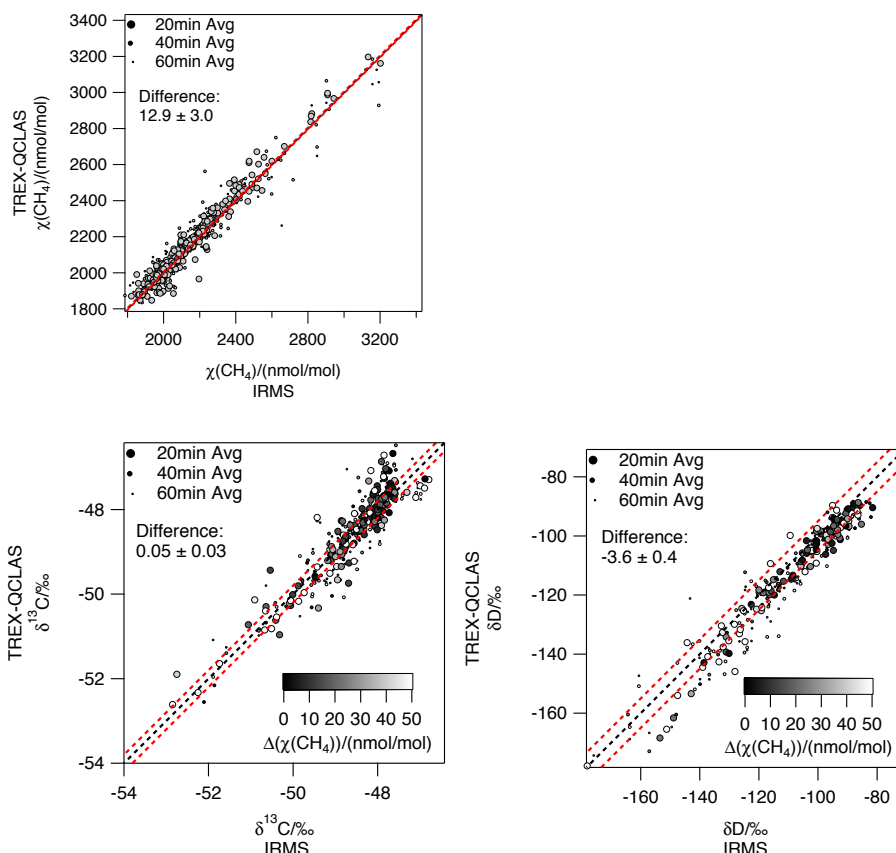
729



730

731 Fig. 2: CH_4 mole fraction, $\chi(\text{CH}_4)$, and isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, δD) measured
 732 at the Cabauw tall tower from 17 October 2014 until 29 March 2015. Real-time
 733 measurements by IRMS (Utrecht University) are indicated in yellow, TREX-
 734 QCLAS (Empa) data in blue. In addition, bag-samples were collected on 17-18
 735 March 2015 and analyzed with IRMS in the RHUL laboratory (red circles).

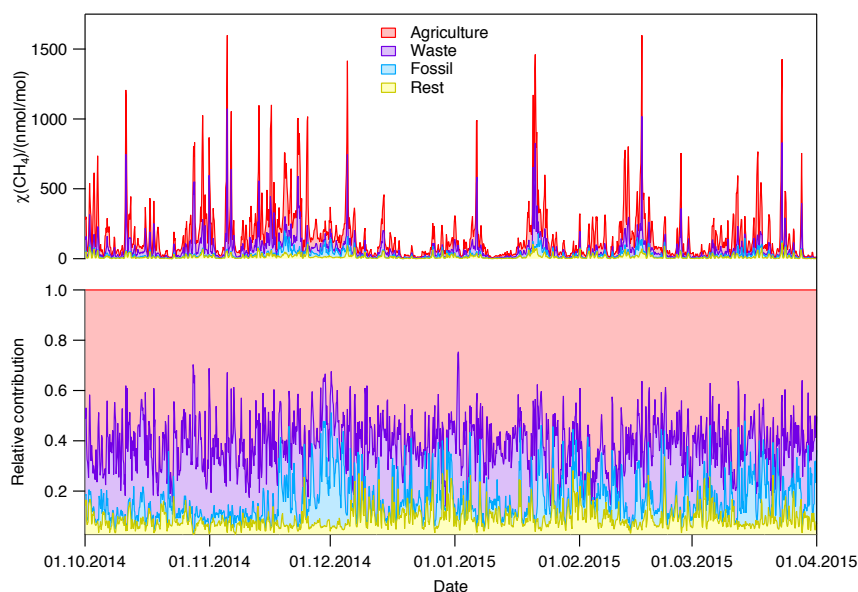
736



738

739 Fig. 3: Correlation diagrams for CH₄ mole fraction, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD analyzed with
 740 IRMS (Utrecht University) and TREX-QCLAS (Empa). The dashed black lines are
 741 1:1 lines, dashed red lines mark the extended WMO compatibility goals of ± 5
 742 nmol/mol, ± 0.2 ‰ and ± 5 ‰ for CH₄ mole fraction, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD , respectively.
 743 The temporal difference between IRMS and TREX-QCLAS sampling is indicated
 744 by the point size (large: 20 min, medium: 40 min, small: 60 min). For $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and δD
 745 differences in the CH₄ mole fraction of the measurements are represented by the
 746 shading (black: identical mole fractions, white: 50 nmol/mol difference).

747



748
 749 Fig. 4: Absolute (top) and relative (bottom) contributions of methane emissions
 750 that are picked up along the 4-day FLEXPART-COSMO trajectories during the
 751 campaign. The results shown are from the FLEXPART-COSMO simulations with
 752 the TNO-MACC inventory. They indicate major contributions of the following
 753 source categories: “agriculture” (mainly ruminants), “waste” (mainly landfills)
 754 and “fossil” (fugitive losses from coal, oil and natural gas production and from
 755 gas transportation and distribution) to the increase in CH₄ mole fractions at
 756 Cabauw. The category “rest” primarily represents residential CH₄ emissions.
 757

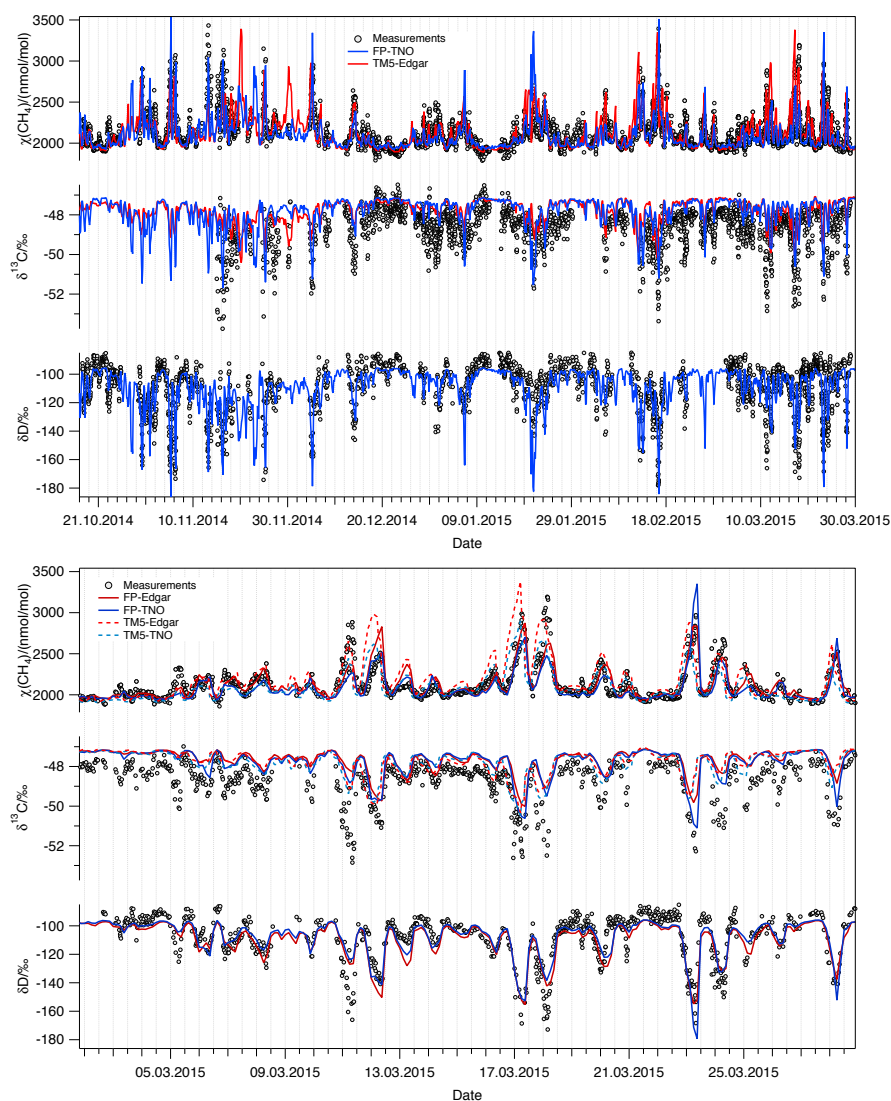


Fig. 5: Comparison of the modeled and measured time series of CH_4 mole fraction and isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - and δD). Measurements are shown as circles and model results as lines. Top graph: two selected model configurations for the entire campaign: FLEXPART-COSMO using the TNO-MACC 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 .

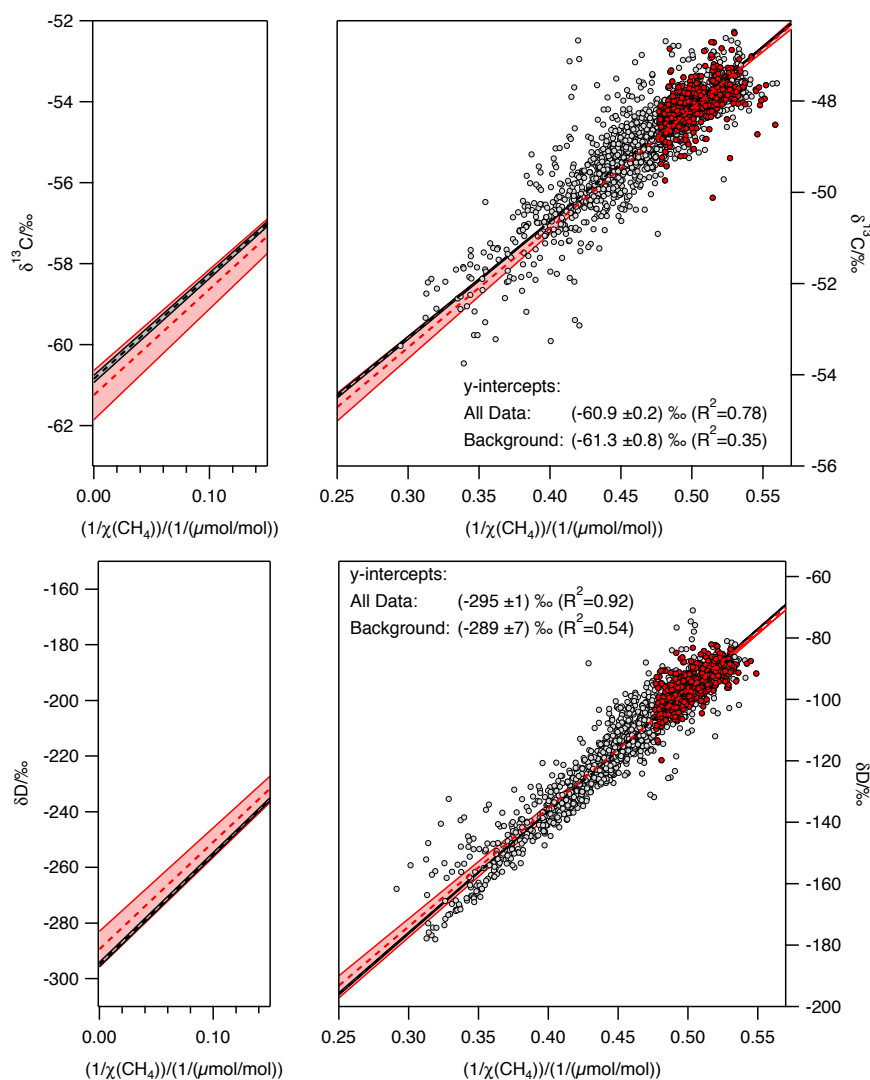
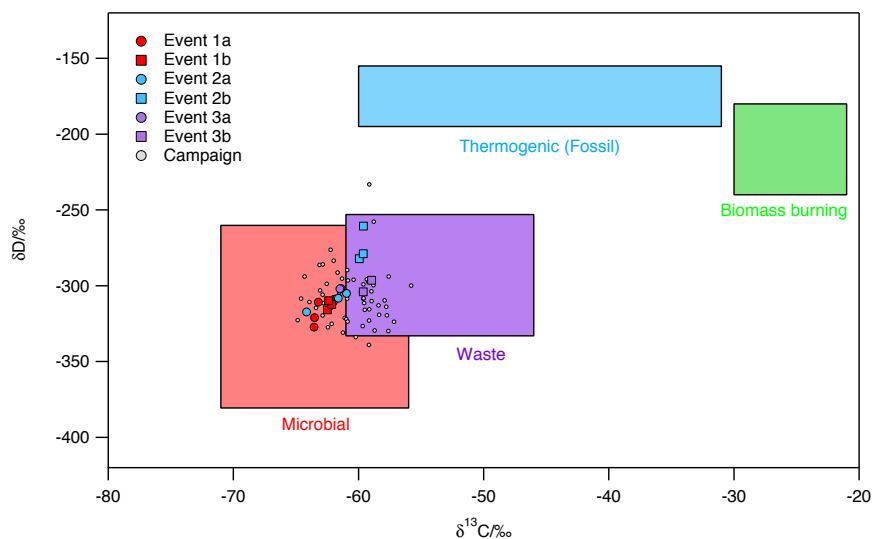


Fig. 6: Keeling plot of all data using an orthogonal regression method. The dashed line indicates the regression line and the shaded area the confidence interval taking into account the measurement uncertainties. The color code indicates all measured data (grey points) and daily background values (red points). Left panels show the region near the y-axis intercept.



776

777 Fig. 7: MKP intercepts of δD vs. $\delta^{13}C$. The colored areas indicate typical isotope
 778 signatures for different source categories. Circles show the 6h-averaged source
 779 signatures. Large colored symbols indicate data from the three events that are
 780 highlighted in detail in Fig. 9. $\delta^{13}C$ values are taken from table 1 and δD values
 781 from recent literature (Rigby et al., 2012).

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783

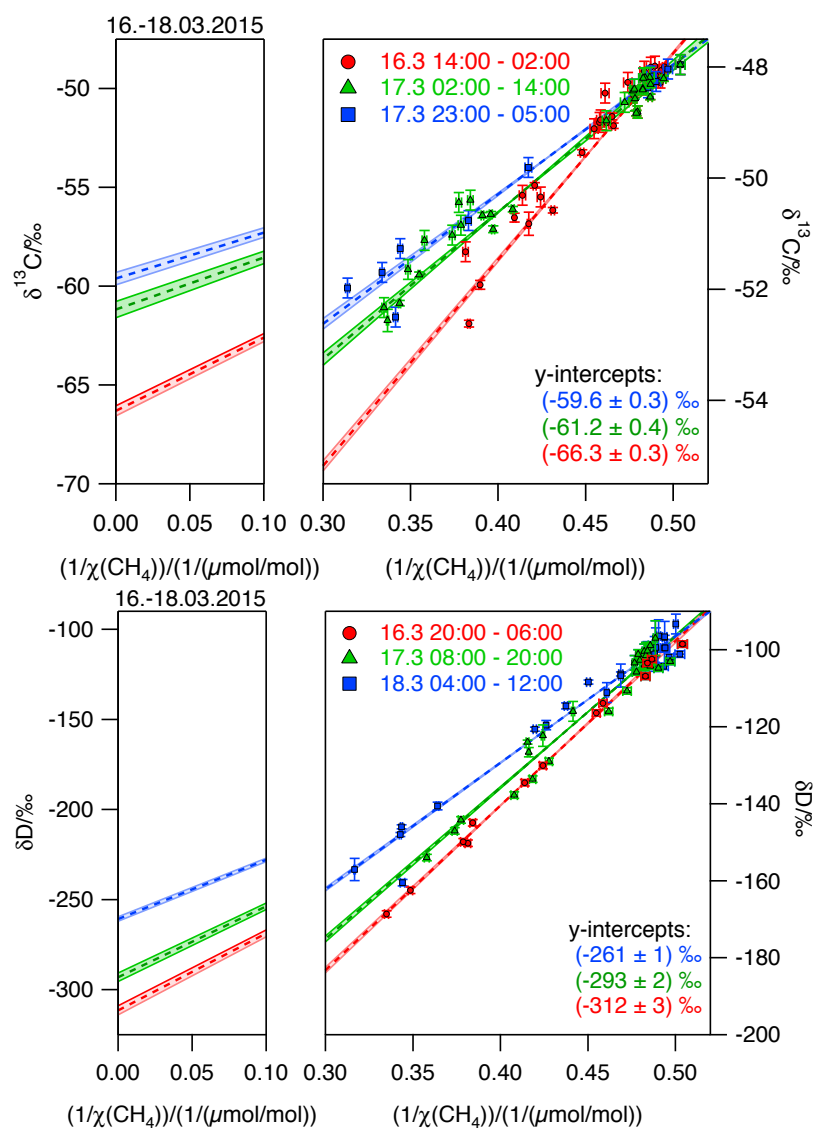
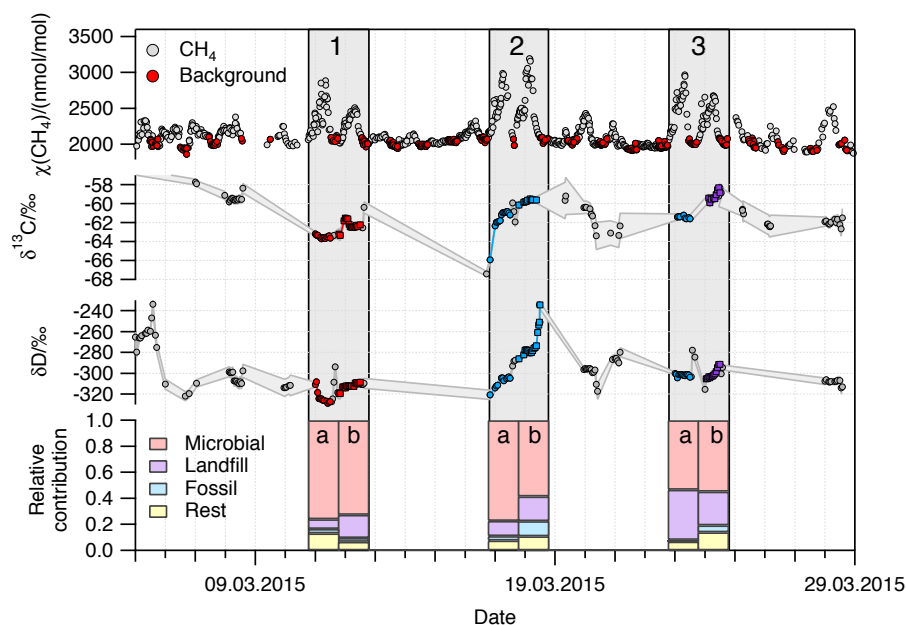


Fig. 8: Keeling plots for the period between 16 and 18 March, illustrating a rapid change in δ values over the course of hours, which is most probably related to a change from mainly ruminant derived CH_4 to a significant contribution of fossil and/or waste CH_4 . The dashed lines indicate the regression line, the shaded areas the uncertainty (one standard deviation) of the regression line. Left panels show the region near the y-axis intercept. Times indicated are Central European Time (CET).



794

795 Fig. 9: Detailed analysis of three 2-day periods with large CH₄ elevations in
 796 March 2015. The top panel exhibits CH₄ mole fraction (grey) with background
 797 values in red (10:00-18:00, >2100 nmol/mol). The middle panels show the
 798 isotopic source signatures (δ¹³C, δD) derived with the 12-h MKP method. The
 799 color-coding in the middle panels (red, light blue, purple) indicates characteristic
 800 contributions from different sources; red-microbial, light blue-fossil, purple-
 801 waste. For consistency, the same color-coding was chosen in Figure 7. The
 802 bottom graph presents CH₄ source contributions as computed with the
 803 FLEXPART-COSMO model using the TNO-MACC inventory, averaged over 24
 804 hours.

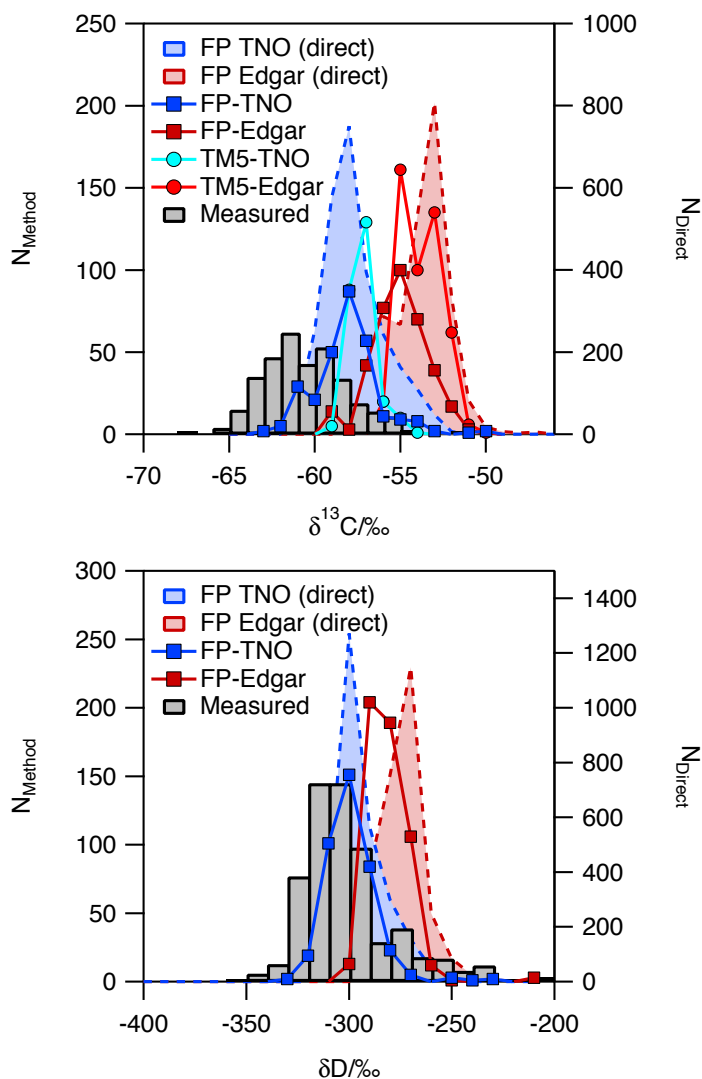


Fig. 10: Histograms of CH_4 isotope source signatures at the CESAR site between October 2014 and March 2015. Bin widths are 1 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 10 ‰ for δD . Source signatures are derived from measured data (grey bins), FLEXPART-COSMO modeling (squares) as well as TM5 modeling (circles) using the 12 h MKP method. Two different inventories, TNO-MACC (blue) and Edgar/LPJ-WhyMe (red), were used. The shaded areas show histograms for the “direct” source signatures that were picked up along the FLEXPART-COSMO trajectory (right axis).



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