



Evaluation of open and closed path sampling systems for determination

of emission rates of NH₃ and CH₄ with inverse dispersion modelling

- 3 Yolanda Maria Lemes^a, Christoph Häni^b, Jesper Nørlem Kamp^a, Anders Feilberg^{*a}
- ^aDepartment of Engineering, Aarhus University, Gustav Wieds Vej 10D, 8000 Aarhus, Denmark.
- bSchool of Agricultural, Forest and Food Sciences, Bern University of Applied Sciences, Länggasse 85, 3052
- 6 Zollikofen, Switzerland
- 7 *Corresponding author: email: af@bce.au.dk; Telephone: +45 30896099
- 8 Declaration of interest: none

9 Abstract

- 10 The gas emission rates of ammonia (NH₃) and methane (CH₄) from an artificial source covering a surface
- area of 254 m² were determined by inverse dispersion modelling (IDM) from point and line-integrated
- 12 concentration measurements with closed and open-path analyzers. Eight controlled release experiments
- were conducted with different release rates ranging from 3.8 ± 0.21 to 17.4 ± 0.4 mg s⁻¹ and from $30.7 \pm$
- 14 1.4 to 142.8 ± 2.9 mg s⁻¹ for NH₃ and CH₄, respectively. The distance between the source and
- 15 concentration measurement positions ranged from 15 m to 60 m. Our study consisted of more than 200
- 16 fluxes averaged intervals of 10 min or 15 min. The different releases cover a range of different climate
- 17 conditions: cold (< 5°C), temperate (< 13 °C) and warm (< 18 °C). As the average of all releases with all
- instrument types, the CH₄ recovery rate Q_{bLS}/Q was 0.95 ± 0.08 (n = 19). There was much more variation
- in the recovery of NH₃, with an average of 0.66 ± 0.15 (n = 10) for all the releases with the line-integrated
- 20 system. However, with an improved sampling line placed close to the source an average recovery rate of
- 0.82 ± 0.05 (n = 3) was obtained for NH₃. Under comparable conditions, the recovery rate obtained with
- an open-path analyzer was 0.91 ± 0.07 (n = 3). The effects of measurement distance, physical properties
- of the sampling line, and deposition are discussed.
- 24 **Keywords:** Method validation, Ammonia, Methane, Inverse Dispersion Method, Backward Lagrangian
- 25 Stochastic, bLS





1 Introduction

The global agricultural system is currently facing one of its biggest humanitarian challenges:

feeding the world's rising population while preserving the environment and climate for future generations

(FAO, 2017). The agricultural sector is a major contributor to global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions

(15%) and ammonia (NH₃) emissions (64%) (OECD and FAO, 2019), leading to air pollution, climate

change, deforestation, and loss of biodiversity (Aneja et al., 2009).

The European Union has established a reduction target for 2030 to reduce the GHG emissions by at least 55% (EEA, 2019), compared to 1990, and NH₃ emissions by 19% (NEC Directive 2016/2284), compared to 2005. Agriculture must contribute to GHG emission reductions, and valid estimates of GHG emissions are important for national inventories regulation strategies and for selecting efficient mitigation techniques.

Choosing the appropriate methodology to quantify gaseous emissions can be a challenge. In particular agricultural sources are challenging as the sources often are small and inhomogeneous, exhibit non-steady emissions over time (e.g. NH₃ emissions after slurry application (Hafner, 2018)) and are influenced by other sources in close vicinity. Most of the methodologies have restrictions on the measurement location and/or the source and involve complex instrumentation set-up (e.g., fast-response analyzers, measurements at multiple heights). The micrometeorological mass balance (MMB) method (Desjardins et al., 2004) requires measuring concentration at multiple positions several meters above the ground, which is a challenge for obtaining high time resolution and it ignores the horizontal turbulent transport (Hu et al., 2014). The tracer flux ratio method (TRM), which has also been used to measure agricultural emissions (Vechi et al., 2022; Fredenslund et al., 2019; Delre et al., 2018), is a relatively labor and cost intensive method typically with short intense measurement periods. In case of dynamic emissions, this is not sufficient for resolving the temporal variations in emissions over days or weeks.





50 The inverse dispersion method (IDM) based on backward Lagrangian Stochastic (bLS) dispersion 51 modelling (e.g. Flesch et al., 2004, 1995) has been widely used for the assessment of NH₃ and methane 52 (CH₄) emissions from many agricultural sources: dairy housing (Bühler et al., 2021; VanderZaag et al., 53 2014; Harper et al., 2009), cattle feedlot (McGinn et al., 2019; Todd et al., 2011; van Haarlem et al., 54 2008; Flesch et al., 2007; McGinn et al., 2007), application of liquid animal manure (Kamp et al., 2021; 55 Carozzi et al., 2013; Sintermann et al., 2011; Sanz et al., 2010), grazed pasture (McGinn et al., 2011; Voglmeier et al., 2018), rice field (Yang et al., 2019), lagoon (Ro et al., 2014; Wilson et al., 2001), 56 57 composting stockpiles (Sommer et al., 2004), agricultural biodigester (Baldé et al., 2016b; Flesch et al., 58 2011), farm (Flesch et al., 2005) and stored liquid manure (Lemes et al., 2022; Baldé et al., 2016a; Grant 59 et al., 2015; McGinn et al., 2008). 60 IDM has been tested in controlled release experiments with different conditions: ground level 61 source without obstacles (Flesch et al., 2014; McBain and Desjardins, 2005a; Flesch et al., 2004), ground 62 level source surrounded by a fence (Flesch et al., 2005; McBain and Desjardins, 2005a), elevated source 63 (Gao et al., 2008; McBain and Desjardins, 2005a), multiple emission sources (Hu et al., 2016; Ro et al., 64 2011; Gao et al., 2008) and to quantify the effect of NH₃ deposition (Häni et al., 2018). 65 IDM is a function of the geometry and location of source and downwind concentration sensor 66 (including height for the sensor) and the turbulence characteristics in the surface layer. The statistical 67 properties of the flow in the atmospheric surface layer for the IDM are defined by the friction velocity 68 (u*), roughness length (z₀), the Obukhov length (L), and wind direction (Flesch et al., 2004). Emissions are derived from concentration measurements up- and downwind of the source, which could be 69 70 determined with point or line-integrated measurements from closed- or open-path analyzers. IDM 71 assumes an ideal atmospheric surface layer, which means i) a horizontally homogeneous and flat surface, 72 ii) homogeneity and quasi-stationarity with respect to the turbulence characteristics and iii) spatially 73 uniform emissions from a confined source (Flesch et al., 2004). Therefore, there should not be any 74 obstacles (e.g., trees, buildings) in close vicinity of the source to fulfil the required IDM assumptions.





75 Additionally, IDM has the limitation that there should not be any other sources of the same gas species 76 that affects up- and downwind concentration differently. The IDM is simple, flexible (Harper et al., 2011), robust even in no ideal conditions and has a reported accuracy of $100 \pm 10\%$ when it is properly 77 78 used (e.g., place of instruments, filtering criteria) (Harper et al., 2010). Moreover, IDM is a direct 79 measurement method that does not alter the physical properties of the source, and it is applicable for both 80 small and large emissions of any shape of sources (Flesch et al., 2004) as opposed to indirect enclosure 81 methods (e.g. chambers measurements). 82 Concentration measurements are mostly done with an open-path optical system (e.g. Baldé et al., 83 2018; Bühler et al., 2021) because long path lengths (>50 m) enable a higher emission plume coverage 84 and avoids internal surfaces (e.g. tubes, pumps) where NH₃ can adsorb (Shah et al., 2006; Vaittinen et al., 85 2014). However, open-path has a limitation on low concentration measurements (<10 ppb for CH₄ and 86 NH₃) (Bai et al., 2022) and requires complex calibrations to reduce the uncertainty of the measurements 87 (Häni et al., 2021; DeBruyn et al., 2020). In addition, it requires intensive labor to move and optically 88 align the instruments to different positions depending on the predominant wind direction. Commercially 89 available open-path analyzers exhibit limitations with respect to acceptable detection limits (Häni et al., 90 2021). Closed-path analyzers have rarely been used together with the IDM (Ro et al., 2011) due to its 91 limitation caused by adsorption of NH3 in the system. In addition, closed path analyzers have only been 92 used for point measurements, which challenges the ability to catch the emission plume and makes it 93 sensitive to wind direction accuracy. 94 Data filtering is needed to ensure accuracy of the IDM, which is related to the meteorological 95 conditions (e.g., wind speed, atmospheric stability) and wind direction. The quality criteria for filtering are based on the atmospheric conditions in a measurement interval to ensure the assumptions of the model 96 97 is adequately meet, which also lower the uncertainty of the resulting data. Different criteria have been 98 used in previous studies: Flesch et al. (2005) recommend to remove data where $u^* < 0.15 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, |L| < 10 mand $z_0 > 1$ m, whereas McBain and Desjardins, 2005 recommend $u^* < 0.19$ m s⁻¹, $|L| \le 3$ m and $z_0 > 1$ m. 99





Flesch et al. (2014) suggest the filtering criteria for the night of $u^* < 0.05$ m s^{-1} and the gradient between measured and MO-calculated temperature ($|\Delta\Delta T|_{thres}$) = 0.05 K. Bühler et al. (2021) removed data where $u^* < 0.05$ m s^{-1} , |L| < 2 m, $z_0 > 0.1$ m, standard deviation of the horizontal wind components (u, v) divided by $u^*(\sigma_{u,v}/u^*) > 4.5$ and Kolmogorov constant (C0) > 10.

This study aimed to assess the applicability and performance of a closed-path analyzer used with a sampling system that allows for line integrated concentration measurements used with the IDM for determining emission rates of CH₄ and NH₃. This novel measuring system will allow for measuring emissions from sources with low emission rates and will have good flexibility for moving it around the source depending on the wind direction in order to increase the probability of catching the emission plume. This novel method is assessed by eight controlled releases of CH₄ and NH₃ combined with up- and downwind measurements in different positions using point and line-average concentration provided with closed- and open-path analyzers. The use of CH₄ and NH₃ and open- and closed-path systems to measure concentration will give us an opportunity to: i) test the system of the line-average concentration measurement with a closed-path analyzer; and ii) evaluate potential loss of NH₃ downwind from the source by deposition and/or gas-to-particle conversion, processes that will not occur for inert CH₄. This controlled-release study is the first to compare the performances of open-path and line-integrated closed-path systems for measuring emissions of NH₃ and CH₄.

2 Material and methods

2.1 Site descriptions

From November 2019 to March 2022, eight controlled release experiments were performed at different grassland sites under varying conditions (see Table 1). Five releases (I-DK to IV-DK and VIII-DK) took place at AU campus Viborg, Denmark on two different fields (56°29'34.5"N / 9°34'28.3"E and 56°29'36.4"N / 9°34'15.9"E). Three releases (V-CH to VII-CH) were performed at Bern University of





125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

al. (2021).

Applied Sciences, Switzerland (46°59'35.1"N / 7°27'43.1"E). At all sites, the terrain was horizontally flat, and the height of the canopy varied between 15 and 25 cm for the different experiments. Obstacles upwind of the artificial source were more than 100 m away in all experiments. There were no significant sources near the experiment sites. 2.2 Instrumentation In this study, different models of cavity ring-down spectroscopy (CRDS) from Picarro (Picarro Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA) were used to measure up- and downwind NH3 and CH4 concentration (Table 1). Model G2201-i and model G4301 measure CH₄ concentration, G2103 measures NH₃ concentration, and G2509 measures CH₄ and NH₃ simultaneously. The CRDS is a closed-path analyzer with continuous absorption that measure concentrations at approximately 0.5 Hz. The CRDS analyzer consists of a laser and an optical cavity chamber with highly reflective mirrors, which gives an effective path length of several kilometers. The light is absorbed in the cavity, and the decay of light intensity is called the ring-down time, which is directly related to the concentration of the specific compound. It has been frequently used to study agricultural emissions (e.g., Kamp et al., 2021; Pedersen et al., 2020; Kamp et al., 2019; Sintermann et al., 2011). In experiments V-CH to VII-CH, the downwind CH₄ concentration was measured with three GasFinder3 analyzers (GF3, Boreal Laser Inc., Edmoton Canada) and the downwind NH3 concentration with three miniDOAS instruments (Sintermann et al., 2016). The GF3 analyzer is an open-path tunable diode laser device that measures line-integrated CH₄ concentrations over path lengths of 5 to 500 m (i.e. single path length between sensor and retroreflector) with a temporal resolution of 0.3 to 1 Hz. The retroreflectors used in the experiments were equipped with seven corner cubes, suitable for path lengths around 50 m. The GasFinder devices have been widely used to measure emissions from different type of agricultural sources with the IDM (Bühler et al., 2021; McGinn et al., 2019; VanderZaag et al., 2014; Harper et al., 2010; Flesch et al., 2007). The performance of the GF3 instruments is discussed in detail by Häni et

https://doi.org/10.5194/egusphere-2022-867 Preprint. Discussion started: 22 September 2022 © Author(s) 2022. CC BY 4.0 License.





149 The miniDOAS instrument is an open-path device that measures NH₃, NO and SO₂ in the UV region 150 between 190 and 230 nm based on the differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS; Platt and Stutz, 151 2008) technique. It provides path-averaged concentrations for path lengths between 15 m and 50 m, with 152 around 10 to 20 scans per second averaged over 1 minute. Ammonia emissions from agricultural sources 153 (Kamp et al., 2021; Kupper et al., 2021; Voglmeier et al., 2018) and from an artificial source (Häni et al., 154 2018) have been measured with miniDOAS analyzers. Further details on the instrument is given in 155 Sintermann et al. (2016). 156 2.3 Gas release from an artificial source 157 The artificial source area had a gas distributor unit at the center and eight 1/4" polytetrafluoroethylene 158 (PTFE) tubes leave the distributor to get a circular shape of the source area. Each tube contained three critical orifices (100 µm diameter, stainless steel, LenoxLaser, USA) in series with 3 m distance between 159 160 them. In total, the 24 orifices covered a circular area of 254 m². 161 Gas was released from a gas cylinder and the flow was controlled with a mass flow controller (in 162 Denmark: Bronkhorst EL FLOW, Ruurlo, Netherlands; in Switzerland: red-y smart controller, Voegtlin 163 Instruments GmbH, Aesch, Switzerland). The source height, the content of the gas cylinders, and the release 164 rate for each experiment are given in Table 1. 165 166 167

https://doi.org/10.5194/egusphere-2022-867 Preprint. Discussion started: 22 September 2022

© Author(s) 2022. CC BY 4.0 License.





168 Table 1 Date, gas cylinders description, ammonia and methane release rate (RR), source and canopy height, downwind

169 distance from source to instruments, type of system attached to the cavity ring-down spectroscopy (CRDS), and

170 instrumentation of each controlled release experiment (CRE). G2103, G2202-i, G4301 and G2508 are different CRDS

171 models, GF correspond to GasFinder and MD to miniDOAS.

Date	Gas cylinder			NH ₃ RR	CH ₄ RR	Source height	Canopy height	Distance from source edge	System with CRDS	Instruments
	Content	[bar]	total	[mg s ⁻¹]	[mg s ⁻¹]	[cm]	[cm]	[m]		
29-11-2019 11:50 – 12:50	5% NH ₃ and 95% N ₂ ± 2%*	62	1	4.6 ± 0.3	-	0	20	50	Point 40°C	2 G2103
29-11-2019 14:00-14:30	99% CH ₄ and 1% N ₂ ± 2%*	62	1	-	30.7 ± 1.4	0	20	50	Point 40°C	G2201-i and G4301
12-10-2020 11:45-15:15	5% NH ₃ and 95% CH ₄ ± 2%*	62	1	3.8 ± 0.21	68.7 ± 3.7	0	25	35 - 60	16m line 40°C (Line 1)	G2103, G4301 and G2508
20-07-2021 10:30-16:00	10% NH ₃ and 90% CH ₄ ± 2%*	62	2	17.4 ± 0.4	142.8 ± 2.9	50	18	15-30	12m line 40°C (Line 2)	G2103, G4301 and G2508
09-10-2021 10:00-12:10	10% NH ₃ and 90% CH ₄ ± 2% ⁺	27	2	15.2 ± 0.3	128.9 ± 2.7	0	15	15 - 30 - 60	16m line 40°C (Line 1)	G4301, G2508, 3 GF and 3 MD
09-10-2021 14:20-16:50	10% NH ₃ and 90% CH ₄ ± 2% ⁺	27	4	13.2 ± 0.3	111.8 ± 2.2	0	15	15 - 30 - 60	16m line 40°C (Line 1)	G4301, G2508, 3 GF and 3 MD
09-10-2021 17:20-17:50 11-10-2021 15:10-16:20	10% NH ₃ and 90% CH ₄ ± 2% ⁺	27	4	13.2 ± 0.3	111.8 ± 2.2	50	15	15 - 30 - 60	16m line 40°C (Line 1)	G4301, G2508, 3 GF and 3 MD
22-04-2022 12:30-15:00	10% NH ₃ and 90% CH ₄ ± 2%*	62	2	14.5± 0.3	118.9 ± 2.8	50	7	15	12m line 40°C (Line 2)and 12m line 80°C with heated inlets (Line 3)	3 G2508
	29-11-2019 11:50 – 12:50 29-11-2019 14:00-14:30 12-10-2020 11:45-15:15 20-07-2021 10:30-16:00 09-10-2021 14:20-16:50 09-10-2021 17:20-17:50 11-10-2021 15:10-16:20 22-04-2022	$\begin{array}{c} & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & &$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Date Gas cylinder NH3 RR CH4 RR height	Date Gas cylinder $\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $

*Carbagas, Bern, Switzerland





2.4 Set-up

In the upwind position of all the experiments and in the downwind position of the I-DK and II-DK experiment, the CRDS measured the concentration from a single point 1.5 m above ground through a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) tube that was insulated and heated to approximately 40°C. In the rest of the experiments, the CRDS measured downwind concentration from a sampling line system of PTFE tubes insulated and heated (40°C or 80°C). In the III-DK, V-DK, VI-CH, and VII-CH experiment, the sampling line system consisted of a 16 m tube with nine inlets, 2 m between each inlet (Line 1). In the IV-DK and VIII-DK experiment, the sampling lines were 12 m long with seven inlets, 2 m between each inlet (Line 2 and Line 3). The inlets are made of critical orifices (0.25 mm ID for I-DK to VII-CH and 0.5 mm ID for VIII-DK polyetheretherketone (PEEK)) that guarantee uniform flow through each inlet (Line 1, Line 2 and Line 3). In the VIII-DK experiment, the sampling line system including the inlets was heated to 80°C (Line 3).

Figure 1 shows the position of the source area relative to the sampling position and the arrow indicates the wind direction during the experiments. The downwind concentration were measured in one, two or three distance (Table 1). In the V-CH, VI-CH and VII-CH, downwind concentrations were measured at the same time at 15 m, 30 m and 60 m distance from the edge of the source with multiple GF3 and miniDOAS instruments; one CRDS instrument was placed 15 m downwind (Figure 1). The distance between the reflector and the laser/detector of the GF3 and miniDOAS at the downwind position parallel to the CRDS sampling line was also 16 m. For the other two downwind positions the path lengths were 15 m and 50 m, respectively. The height of the measurement paths of all the open-path instruments were between 1.2 and 1.5 m. The background concentration of NH₃ was stable with no sources in close vicinity, thus in the three experiments, the average concentration of each instrument 10 min before the release of each experiment was used as the NH₃ upwind concentration for the miniDOAS and the CRDS instruments. In the V-CH, VI-CH and VII-CH experiment the measured NH₃ background concentration was 2.7 and 4.1 mg m⁻³, and 2.1 and 4.8 mg m⁻³ for the miniDOAS and the CRDS, respectively.





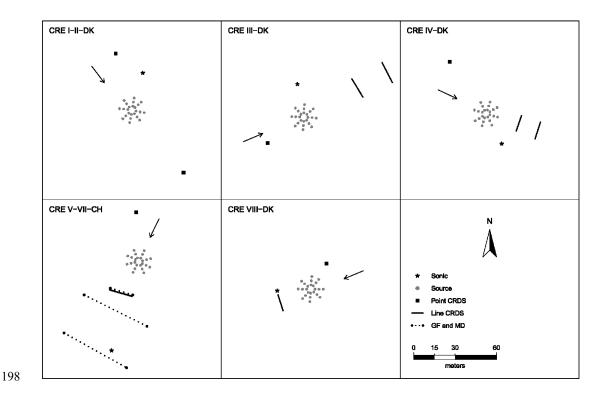


Figure 1 – Position of the orifices of the artificial source, ultrasonic anemometer (sonic), and the concentration analyzer used in the eight controlled release experiments (CRE) of this study. Three types of analyzers have been used: cavity ring-down spectrometer (CRDS), GasFinder (GF) and miniDOAS (MD). The arrow indicates the wind direction during each experiment.

In Denmark, the three wind components were measured at 16 Hz with a 3D ultrasonic anemometer (WindMaster, Gill, Hampshire, UK) at 1.5 and 1.7 m height. In addition to concentration and wind, air temperature, and atmospheric pressure were also measured. In Switzerland, the wind components were measured at 20 Hz with a 3D ultrasonic anemometer (WindMaster, Gill, Hampshire, UK) at 2 m height. Air temperature and atmospheric pressure were obtained from a meteorological station nearby the experiment site.

A Global Positioning System (in Denmark: GPS Trimbel R10, Sunnyvale, California, USA; in Switzerland: GPS Trimble Pro 6, Sunnyvale, California, USA) was used to record the position of all instruments and the individual critical orifices of the source.





2.5 Inverse dispersion method

- The measured gas emission rates (Q) from the artificial source were calculate in 15 min

 (experiments conducted in Denmark) or 10 min average intervals (experiments conducted in Switzerland)

 using the R (R Core Team, 2018) package bLSmodelR (https://github.com/ChHaeni/bLSmodelR;

 version 4.3) as described by Häni et al. (2018). The simulation was performed with six million backward

 trajectories (N) and the source area defined as 24 individual circles of 5 cm radius as described by Häni et

 al. (2018) with a high performance computer cluster (PRIME Programming Rig for Modern

 Engineering, Aarhus University).
- The emissions rate (Q) is proportional to the difference between measured concentration downwind (C_{downwind}) from the source and the measured background concentration (C_{upwind}), and the dispersion factor (D):

$$Q = \frac{C_{downwind} - C_{upwind}}{D}$$
 (1)

The dispersion factor (D) is calculated as:

$$D = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\text{TDinside}} \left| \frac{2}{w_{\text{TD}}} \right| \tag{2}$$

where N is the number of backward trajectories from the downwind analyzer location. The summation refers to the trajectories touching inside the source area (TDinside) taking the vertical velocity(w_{TD}) at touchdown into account. The calculation of D includes determination of wind profiles and turbulence statistics that are based on the Monin-Obukhov Similarity Theory (MOST).

2.6 Surface deposition velocity

228

229

230

231

Ammonia is a relatively short lived gas in the atmosphere and can either be chemically converted, or subjected to dry or wet deposition. The dry NH₃ deposition rate is usually expressed with a deposition velocity (v_d^*) . It is a complicated phenomenon that is controlled by both atmospheric and land surface





- processes (e.g. wind speed, solar radiation, vegetation reactivity). In this study, we assume v_d takes place
- 233 uni-directionally and it is calculated with the canopy resistances:

$$v_{\rm d} = \frac{1}{R_{\rm a} + R_{\rm b} + R_{\rm c}} \tag{3}$$

- where R_a is the aerodynamic resistance, R_b is the quasi-laminar boundary resistance and R_c is the bulk
- 235 canopy resistance. Ra is a function of wind speed and friction velocity (Baldocchi et al., 1987) that is
- included in the bLS model, therefore Eq. 3 can be simplified as:

$$v_d^* = \frac{1}{R_b + R_c} \tag{4}$$

- According to Garland (1977), R_b can be calculated with Eq. 5 as a function of the roughness length
- 238 (z_0) , the friction velocity (u^*) , the kinematic viscosity of air (v) and the molecular diffusivity of NH₃ in
- 239 air (δ_{NH_3}) .

$$R_{b} = \frac{1.45 \left(\frac{Z_{0} u_{*}}{\nu}\right)^{0.24} \left(\frac{\nu}{\delta_{NH_{3}}}\right)^{0.8}}{u^{*}}$$
(5)

240 Regarding Rc, it is related to the chemical characteristics of the studied gas and the characteristics of 241 the leaf (e.g. type, size). There are different models to calculate R_c. Due to the complexity and the 242 uncertainty of the determination of the resistance, R_c was calculated following the same procedure as by 243 Häni et al. (2018) with the bLSmodelR. It was assumed that $Q_{bLS}/Q \le 1$ was solely due to dry deposition. A similar approach is used here, where 12 values of R_c from 0 to 500 s m⁻¹ were tested in the bLS model 244 245 that includes ammonia deposition to estimate the R_c giving $Q_{bLS}/Q = 1$ in all intervals. This was done with linear interpolation between the two points closest to Q/Q = 1. Using this estimated R_c and the calculated 246 247 R_b value for each interval, υ_d^* was estimated for all intervals with all instruments. The υ_d^* values are 248 compared to previously reported values for NH₃.





- 249 Another approach for calculating the R_c is with empirical equation, which will be used for calculating
- values for v_d^* . These calculated values will be compared to the values obtained with the bLS model. It is
- assumed that R_c unidirectional and equal to the sum of the stomatal resistance R_s and the cuticular
- resistance R_w , see Eq.6.

$$\frac{1}{R_c} = \frac{1}{R_s} + \frac{1}{R_w} \tag{6}$$

The stomatal resistance R_s is calculated with equation Eq.7 (Wesely, 2007):

$$R_{s} = R_{s(min)} \left[1 + \left(\frac{200}{SR + 0.1} \right) \right]^{2} \frac{400}{T_{s}(40 - T_{s})}$$
 (7)

- where $R_{s(min)}$ is minimum bulk canopy R_s for water vapour that is assumed to be equals to 250 s
- 255 m⁻¹ (Lynn and Carlson, 1990), SR is the solar radiation, and T_s is the soil temperature.
- 256 The cuticular resistance is calculated with Eq. 8 (Massad et al., 2010):

$$R_{w} = \frac{R_{w(min)} e^{a (100-RH)} e^{0.15T}}{(LAI)^{0.5}}$$
(8)

- where $R_{w(min)}$ is the minimum cuticular resistance, a is an empirical factor, RH is the relative
- humidity, T is the air temperature, and LAI is the leaf are index. The parameters $R_{w(min)}$ (10 s m⁻¹), a
- 259 (0.110) and LAI (2 m² m⁻²) were obtained from Massad et al., 2010, Table 1.

3 Results and discussion

- 261 3.1 Recovered fractions of Ammonia and Methane
- 262 The accuracy of the bLS model is evaluated by the recovered NH₃ and CH₄ fractions, Q_{bLS}/Q, and
- 263 the standard deviation $\sigma_{ObLS/O}$ (±) for all the releases. In all experiments except I-DK and II-DK (Table 1),
- NH₃ and CH₄ were released simultaneously. The use of these two gases give us the additional opportunity





266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

to assess potential loss of NH₃ downwind from the source by deposition or gas-to-particle conversion, processes that will not occur for CH₄ due to its inertness. As the average of all releases and measurement systems, the CH₄ recovery rate was 0.95 ± 0.08 (n = 19) (Figure 4). This recovery is similar to 0.93 ± 0.14 (n = 8) observed by Gao et al. (2008) with a different controlled releases configuration and ground-level sources. There was more variation in the recovery of NH₃, with an average of 0.66 ± 0.15 (n = 10) for all the releases with the line-integrated system. However, the improved sampling lines (Line 2 and 3) placed at 15 m downwind from the source had an average recovery of 0.82 ± 0.05 (n = 3) for NH₃ (Figure 2). Under comparable conditions, the NH₃ recovery rate obtained with the miniDOAS (MD) was 0.91 ± 0.07 (n = 3). Häni et al. (2018) observed almost the same recovered fraction, 0.91 ± 0.12 , at 15 m from the edge of the source with the MD. The recovery rates of all experiments in this study are shown in Figure 2, Figure 3 and Figure 4, whereas climate conditions such as wind direction, friction velocity u*, air temperature, relative humidity (RH), soil temperature and solar radiation (SR) from each experiment are presented in Table 2. I-DK and II-DK were conducted during cold conditions (~5°C) with RH ranging from 65 % to 71 %, whereas IV-DK and VIII-DK were conducted in warm conditions (14 – 18°C) with RH between 48 % and 63 %. The other releases were conducted under moderate temperature conditions $(10-13^{\circ}C)$ with RH between 39% and 89%. Additional information on the atmospheric conditions, weather conditions, and recovery fraction rates for each average time interval for each release are shown in Table S1 in the Supplementary Information.





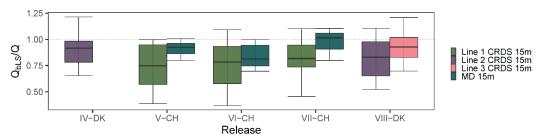


Figure 2 .- The recovered fractions Q_{bLS}/Q of ammonia from the releases where line 1, 2 and 3, and miniDOAS (MD) are placed 15 m from the edge of the source. Line 1 had a length of 16 m, and it was heated to 40 °C. Line 2 had the same temperature as Line 1, but it was 12 m long. Line 3 had the same length as Line 2, but was heated to 80 °C.

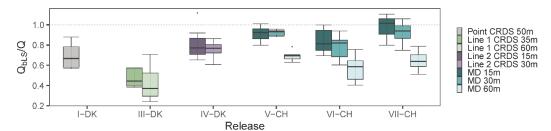


Figure 3.- The recovered fractions Q_{bls}/Q of ammonia from the releases where point concentration measurement was used and where concentration downwind distance was measured in two or three distances from the edge of the source. Line 1, Line 2 and Line 3 are described in the Figure 2 caption.

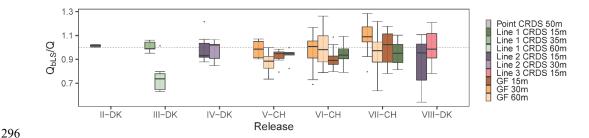


Figure 4.- The recovered fractions Q_{bLS}/Q of methane for each release and analyzer. The downwind distance from the source to the analyzer is indicated in the legend. Line 1, Line 2 and Line 3 are described in the Figure 2 caption.





301 Table 2 – Atmospheric and weather conditions in terms of friction velocity (u^*), wind speed (WS), air 302 temperature (T_{air}), air pressure (P_{air}), soil temperature (T_{soil}), solar radiation (SR) and relative humidity (RH) 303 during each release of this study.

Release	u*	WS	T_{air}	P_{air}	T_{soil}	SR	RH
	$[m s^{-1}]$	$[m s^{-1}]$	[°C]	[hPa]	[°C]	$[W m^{-2}]$	[%]
I-DK	0.23 ± 0.05	2.4 ± 0.5	4.5 ± 0.3	993.6 ± 0.3	5.5 ± 0.1	167.5 ± 34.4	69.6 ± 1.7
II-DK	0.19 ± 0.03	1.8 ± 0.1	4.8 ± 0.1	995.4 ± 0.1	5.6 ± 0.1	117.1 ± 8.4	64.7 ± 0.2
III-DK	0.22 ± 0.03	2.2 ± 0.3	11.7 ± 3.1	1005.3 ± 0.3	10.3 ± 0.2	139.5 ± 50.7	76.7 ± 1.3
IV-DK	0.45 ± 0.04	5.1 ± 0.5	17.9 ± 0.4	1009.1 ± 0.1	17.6 ± 0.2	378.8 ± 152.1	66.7 ± 2.4
V-CH	0.36 ± 0.03	4.5 ± 0.1	9.4 ± 0.3	958.9 ± 0.1	11.8 ± 0.0	238.3 ± 47.8	86.5 ± 1.7
VI-CH	0.20 ± 0.04	2.3 ± 0.4	11.1 ± 0.3	959.6 ± 0.0	12.7 ± 0.2	178.7 ± 41.4	75.5 ± 1.8
VII-CH	0.26 ± 0.08	3.2 ± 1.0	12.8 ± 0.9	959.4 ± 0.1	11.5 ± 0.9	340.8 ± 161.7	52.1 ± 13.2
VIII-DK	0.43 ± 0.05	4.7 ± 0.3	13.9 ± 0.6	1008.9 ± 0.2	8.7 ± 0.3	691.7 ± 53.2	51.4 ± 2.4

3.2 Sampling systems for closed-path measurement

Three different CRDS sampling line systems have been used from III-DK to VIII-DK. The difference between the lines was the length and the heating temperature. Line 1 had a length of 16 m, and it was heated to 40 °C. Line 2 had the same temperature as Line 1, but it was 12 m long. Line 3 had the same length as Line 2, but was heated to 80 °C, and the critical orifices have a higher inflow than Line 1 and Line 2 (see section 2.4 Set-up). We expect that decreasing the length and increasing the heating temperature of the line will improve Q_{bLS}/Q for NH₃ (no expected effect for CH₄) by avoiding adsorption and reducing the response time in the sampling line.

Line 1 was used with the source at ground level and elevated (Table 1), whereas the other two lines only with the source elevated. When the source was at ground level, Line 1 had a recovery rate ranging from 0.42 ± 0.17 to 0.60 ± 0.10 and from 0.75 ± 0.13 to 1.01 ± 0.05 for NH₃ and CH₄, respectively. The lowest and the highest NH₃ recovery rate of Line 1 are directly related to the furthest (60 m) and the shortest (15 m) downwind distance measurement from the source. In addition, the standard deviation $\sigma_{QbLS/Q}$ at the furthest position is higher than at the closest position, which is in accordance with the results from Häni et al. (2018). High uncertainty of the Q_{bLS}/Q is related to a smaller difference in concentration between downwind and background concentrations and due to smaller D-values (Häni et al., 2018). This is also the

https://doi.org/10.5194/egusphere-2022-867 Preprint. Discussion started: 22 September 2022 © Author(s) 2022. CC BY 4.0 License.





reason for the low CH₄ recovery rate of Line 1 in III-DK at 60 m (0.75 \pm 0.13), downwind concentration is only 4 - 10% higher than upwind concentrations since this is one of the lowest CH₄ releases rate (Table 1). This is in line with Coates et al. (2021), who observed that the bLS model underestimated 49% of CO₂ released at 50 m fetch distance partially because the measured downwind concentration was close to the background level. Therefore, in this study, the accuracy of Q_{bLS} is mainly influenced by the uncertainty of the concentration measurement, hence the downwind distance is limited by the properties of the gas analyzers and the size of the emission strength of the source. This means the system can be limited in use if the emission source has a large height and low emission strength where, as a rule of thumb, measurements should be conducted at a distance from the source at least 10 times the height of the source (Harper et al., 2011).

In VII-CH, Line 1 was used with the source elevated and had a recovery rate of 0.69 ± 0.12 for NH₃ and 0.95 ± 0.10 for CH₄. Line 2 had a numerically higher recovery rate than Line 1, ranging from 0.76 ± 0.08 to 0.81 ± 0.16 and from 0.89 ± 0.20 to 0.99 ± 0.12 for NH₃ and CH₄, respectively in IV-DK and VIII-DK. As expected, the lowest NH₃ recovery rate of Line 2 was at the furthest downwind measurement position (30 m). The length of the line appears to affect the NH₃ recovery rate; this might be due to the increased surface area that NH₃ can adsorb to stick, and there is a lower flow in each of the critical orifices that decreases the response time of the system (Shah et al., 2006; Vaittinen et al., 2014). Looking at the measured NH₃ rates over time (Figure 5), higher emissions are reached with Line 3 for the first hour indicating a faster time response compared to Line 2. However, after an hour there was not a clear difference between the lines. The results indicate that increasing the sampling line temperature to 80 °C had a positive effect on the recovery, which reached 87 % at a distance of 15 m. From the data obtained by the open-path analyzer (MD), we can conclude that deposition can cause a reduction in recovery in the order of 2-16% (Figure 2). Thus, the recovery obtained with the improved line (Line 3) approaches the recovery obtained with the open-path analyzer. It should be noted that a direct comparison between Line 3 and the open-path analyzer (MD) has not been made and further improvement can still be suggested for the CRDS sampling





line system. Specifically, increasing the flow on the sampling line will reduce NH₃ adsorption in the tubing material. This can be achieved by increasing the flow through the tubing and the critical orifices but maintaining an even flow distribution through the discrete sampling inlets in the sampling line must still be maintained.

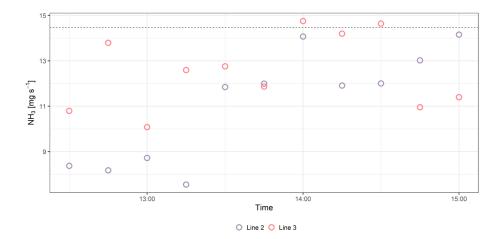


Figure 5 .- Ammonia (NH₃) fluxes measured with Line 2 and Line 3 in 10 min intervals average in VIII-DK.

The point CRDS system had a recovery rate of 0.70 ± 0.22 and 1.01 ± 0.05 for NH₃ and CH₄, respectively. The benefit of the point CRDS system is mainly that increasing the flow in the tubing is less limited, since there are no critical orifices for which equal flow must be maintained. However, comparing point and line CRDS systems by the modelled concentration distribution (Figure 6), the line-integrated measurement system covers a larger part of the emission plume from the source in a higher wind direction range. In addition, a line-integrated measurement system can reduce uncertainty in the IDM (Flesch et al., 2004), since it is less sensitive to error in the measured wind direction. This is in accordance with Ro et al. (2011), who observed an almost double recovery value of a line-integrated measurement system for CH₄ compared to a point measurement system using a photoacoustic gas monitor.





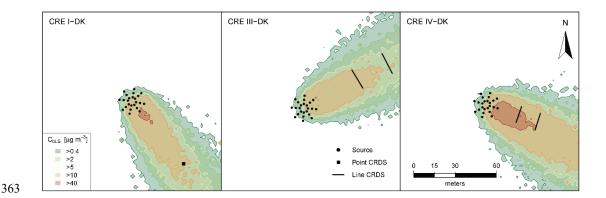


Figure 6.- Contours of the modelled concentration distribution (C_{bLS}) for CRE I-DK, CRE III-DK and CRE IV-DK.

3.3 Open-path measurement systems

The recovery rates for the GFs (CH₄) ranged from 0.87 ± 0.10 to 1.08 ± 0.15 . In V-CH to VII-CH, the corresponding standard deviation $\sigma_{QbLS/Q}$ of GF 15 m varies from 0.07 to 0.18, while Line 1 (placed parallel to GF 15 m) ranges from 0.06 to 0.10. These standard deviations $\sigma_{QbLS/Q}$ are comparable with those measured by Gao et al. (2009) (1.03 ± 0.16).

In V-CH and VI-CH (source at ground), the MDs (NH₃) had recovery rates ranging from 0.57 ± 0.12 to 0.93 ± 0.03 . In VII-CH, MDs exhibit higher recoveries ranging from 0.64 ± 0.09 to 0.98 ± 0.10 since the source was elevated. Generally, it is recommended to do a release experiment above ground level to reduce the probability of deposition close to the release area (McBain and Desjardins, 2005b). As expected, the recovery rate decreased with downwind distance of the sampling position due to NH₃ deposition, which will be evaluated in section 3.4. Comparing MD at 15 m and Line 1 (placed in parallel) in V-CH to VII-CH (Figure 2), the recovery rates are higher for MD. The highest difference between MD and Line 1 was in V-CH, where there were the highest RH (87%). However, there are no clear patterns explaining the difference between emissions from the different measurement systems based on atmospheric conditions (Supplementary information, Figure S2). Although, the improved recovery with Line 2 (0.81 \pm 0.16) and Line 3 (0.87 \pm 0.11) in IV-DK and VIII-DK could be influenced by the warmer





conditions and solar radiation (Table 2), it is plausible that the line improvements caused the increase. An increased flow through the orifices and higher temperature of the sampling line will lead to less NH₃ adsorption thereby getting a better recovery from the release.

This results show the advantage of an open-path instrument compared to a closed-path instrument to measure NH₃ emissions (Figure 2), since open-path avoids prolonged response caused by the adsorption of NH₃ to sampling materials (Shah et al., 2006; Vaittinen et al., 2014). However, it is more difficult to evaluate the quality of measurements by an open-path instrument due to complexity of the calibration that depends on the path length between the sensor and reflector (DeBruyn et al., 2020) or the need of another instrument for intercomparison (Häni et al., 2021). In addition, the closed-path system presented in this study (line CRDS) is more flexible with respect to moving the sampling line around the source depending on the predominant wind direction. This factor has different impact in different countries, e.g. in the case in Denmark wind direction change quite more often than in Switzerland.

3.4 Surface deposition velocity

The corresponding surface deposition velocities (υ_d^*) required to have a recovery rate $Q_{bLS}/Q=1$ are presented in Figure 7. This approach assumes a complete recovery for each of the measurement systems when taking deposition into account, which is not completely correct for closed-path sampling. In the following, therefore, we refer to deposition velocity required to achieve $Q_{bLS}/Q=1$ as the *apparent* deposition velocity (υ_{ad}^*) . This is included to provide data on deposition velocities for ammonia for which data is currently very limited. The recovery rates observed in Figure 3 show that the MD performed best, whereas lower Q_{bLS}/Q were seen in the sampling lines, thus the lowest υ_{ad}^* is expected from MD. Additional information of R_c and υ_{ad}^* for each time intervals in each experiment is shown in Table S1 in the Supplementary Information. The apparent surface deposition velocities ranged from 0.2 to 2.2 cm s⁻¹ for open-path data and from 0.2 to 4.7 cm s⁻¹ for the line sampling, respectively. Häni et al. (2018) reported υ_{ad}^* in the range from 0.3 to 1.1 cm s⁻¹. In all the releases where downwind concentrations were





measured at different positions, υ_{ad}^* appears to increase with distance increases, with many cases. For example, in VI-CH, υ_{ad}^* is 0.7 ± 0.4 , 0.8 ± 0.4 and 1.4 ± 0.4 cm s⁻¹ at 15 m, 30 m and 60 m, respectively. This is in line with the outcome of Asman and van Jaarsveld. (1991); a significant fraction of the emitted NH₃ is deposited near the source, which supports the regulations that do not allow livestock sources near sensitive eutrophic ecosystems (NEC Directive 2016/2284).

In V-CH, VI-CH and VII-CH, υ_{ad}^* from Line 1 are 2.8, 2.2 and 5.1 times higher than MD at 15 m. As expected υ_{ad}^* was higher for Line 1 as the Q/Q was lower for Line 1 compared to MD in these experiments. Line 1 (VII-CH) had υ_{ad}^* of 1.6 ± 0.9, whereas Line 2 and Line 3 (VIII-DK) had υ_{ad}^* of 2.2 \pm 1.4 and 2.1 \pm 1.0 cm s⁻¹, respectively, when measuring 15 m from the elevated source. During VII-CH and VIII-DK the temperature differed 1°C and the relative humidity was approximately the same, but wind speed and solar radiation differed (Table 2). However, comparing the apparent deposition velocities from these experiments show comparable values for Lines 2 and 3, but higher values for Line 1. Overall, the Q/Q values for Line 1 were worse than MD and Lines 2 and 3, which is reflected it in the higher apparent deposition velocities.

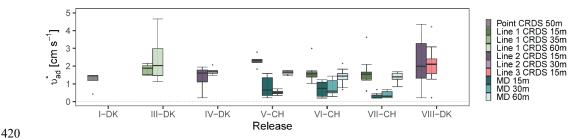


Figure 7 .- Corresponding apparent surface deposition velocities (v_{ad}^*) required to have a recovery rate Q_{bLS}/Q closest to 1 in all the releases. All values are shown in Table S1 in the Supplementary Information.

Many factors affect the deposition velocity, but it is possible to calculate υ_{ad}^* from empirical models as explained previously (see section 2.6). *Figure* 8 shows υ_{ad}^* for MDs in V-CH, VII-CH, and VIII-CH compared to υ_{ad}^* calculated with the empirical models (equations 3-8). Using the empirical models, υ_{ad}^* varies from 0.13 to 1.02 cm s⁻¹, increasing with the relative humidity (87%, 76% and 52%)





RH in V-CH, VI-CH and VII-CH, respectively). The difference between the two ways of estimating υ_{ad}^* highlights the complexity and uncertainty for these methods. In addition, an artificial source has higher υ_{ad}^* than what is expected from a real agricultural source (Häni et al., 2018). This is seen with the higher υ_{ad}^* values found in these experiments compared to the calculated values with the empirical models. The height of the source might also have an influence on υ_{ad}^* . This is indicated by the lowest υ_{ad}^* in VII-CH, where the source was elevated compared to V-CH and VI-CH, where the gas was released on the surface. Placing the source above ground level will reduce the obstacles (crop on the field) for gas dispersion, reducing surface deposition. However, the bLS model does not consider the height of the source. For example, evaluating emissions from the application of liquid animal manure (ground level source) or a dairy housing (elevated source) will have different υ_{ad}^* .

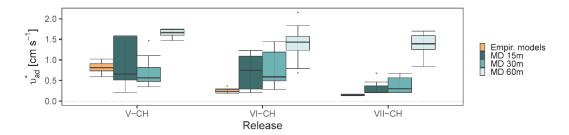


Figure 8.- Corresponding apparent surface deposition velocities (v_{ad}^*) required to have a recovery rate Q_{bLs}/Q closest to 1 for miniDOAS (MD) in release V-CH, VI-CH and VII-CH and v_{ad}^* calculated with an empirical models.

3.5 Sensitivity analysis

A sensitivity analysis of the bLS model was based on the resulting Q/Q ratio when changing the inlet height of the analyzer and the wind direction offset compared to the valid measured values in release VIII-DK. This was done for 11 fluxes average intervals of 15 min, where all emissions were estimated again with the bLS model. For the assessment of the influence of the input for the measurement height all other variables were kept constant. Likewise, for the influence of the wind direction, all other variables





were kept constant while the wind direction offset was changed. The results are presented in Figure S4 in the Supplementary Information, where it can be seen that Q/Q was most sensitive to the changes in wind direction offset, stressing the importance of the true offset in wind direction. Therefore, the wind direction must be thoroughly evaluated for the accuracy of emission estimation since more or less trajectories have touchdowns inside of the source area for the dispersion factor (Eq. 2). In addition, the uncertainty of Q/Q ratio increases as wind direction offset increases. The emission estimation accuracy from point systems is more sensitive to error in the measured wind direction (Flesch et al., 2004).

The accuracy of the emission estimation also depends on the detection limits of the concentration sensor analyzer, especially when the downwind concentration is close to the background level, as it was shown previously (see section 3.2). Therefore, it is recommended to conduct concentration and turbulence measurements not far from the source but minimum 10 times the source height according to Harper et al. (2011) at a known height to reduce the uncertainty of the calculated emissions rates.

4 Conclusion

Line-average concentration measurement with a closed-path analyzer is comparable with an open-path system, as the average of all releases with all instrument types, the CH₄ recovery rate Q_{bLS}/Q was 0.95 ± 0.08 (n = 19). Under comparable conditions, an average NH₃ recovery rate of 0.82 ± 0.05 (n = 3) and 0.91 ± 0.07 (n = 3) was obtained with the closed-path and open-path line integrated system, respectively. The implementation of the new method presented in this study will enable measurement of fluxes of multiple gases from different type of sources and evaluate the effects of mitigation strategies on emissions. In addition, this method allows for continuous online measurements that resolve temporal variation in NH₃ emissions and the peak emissions of CH₄.

A significant fraction of the emitted NH₃ is deposited near the source. Consequently, including the deposition algorithm in the bLS model will have a greater influence on the emission evaluation at ground level sources (e.g. application of liquid animal manure), compared to elevated sources (e.g. slurry tank).





472 The present study shows that the deposition algorithm included in the bLS model estimates correct NH₃ 473 emissions that considers surface deposition. In addition, the wind direction must be thoroughly evaluated 474 for the accuracy of emission estimation with the bLS model. Acknowledgments 475 476 This study was funded by the Ministry of the Environment and Food of Denmark as a service 477 agreement 2019-760-001136. Thanks to Simon Bowald for his great ideas and his help with designing 478 and building up the Line 3. Also thanks to technicians Martin Häberli-Wyss, Peter Storegård Nielsen, 479 Jens Kristian Kristensen, and Heidi Grønbæk for their invaluable help during the experimental part of the 480 study. 481 References Aneja, V.P., Schlesinger, W.H., Erisman, J.W., 2009. Effects of Agriculture upon the Air Quality 482 483 and Climate: Research, Policy, and Regulations. Environmental Science & Technology 43, 484 4234-4240. https://doi.org/10.1021/es8024403 485 Asman, W.A.H., van Jaarsveld, H.A., 1991. A varible-resolution transport model applied for NHx in Europe. Atmospheric Environment 445–464. https://doi.org/10.1016/0960-486 487 1686(92)90329-J 488 Bai, M., Loh, Z., Griffith, D.W.T., Turner, D., Eckard, R., Edis, R., Denmead, O.T., Bryant, G.W., Paton-Walsh, C., Tonini, M., McGinn, S.M., Chen, D., 2022. Performance of open-path 489 490 lasers and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopic systems in agriculture emissions research. Atmos. Meas. Tech. 15, 3593–3610. https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-15-3593-2022 491 Baldé, H., VanderZaag, A.C., Burtt, S., Evans, L., Wagner-Riddle, C., Desjardins, R.L., 492

MacDonald, J.D., 2016a. Measured versus modeled methane emissions from separated liquid





494 dairy manure show large model underestimates. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment 230, 495 261–270. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2016.06.016 496 Baldé, H., VanderZaag, A.C., Burtt, S.D., Wagner-Riddle, C., Crolla, A., Desjardins, R.L., 497 MacDonald, D.J., 2016b. Methane emissions from digestate at an agricultural biogas plant. 498 Bioresource Technology 216, 914–922. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2016.06.031 499 Baldé, H., VanderZaag, A.C., Burtt, S.D., Wagner-Riddle, C., Evans, L., Gordon, R., Desjardins, 500 R.L., MacDonald, J.D., 2018. Ammonia emissions from liquid manure storages are affected by 501 anaerobic digestion and solid-liquid separation. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 258, 80–88. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2018.01.036 502 503 Baldocchi, D.D., Hicks, B.B., Camara, P., 1987. A canopy stomatal resistance model for gaseous 504 deposition to vegetated surfaces. Atmospheric Environment (1967) 21, 91-101. 505 https://doi.org/10.1016/0004-6981(87)90274-5 506 Bühler, M., Häni, C., Ammann, C., Mohn, J., Neftel, A., Schrade, S., Zähner, M., Zeyer, K., 507 Brönnimann, S., Kupper, T., 2021. Assessment of the inverse dispersion method for the 508 determination of methane emissions from a dairy housing. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 509 307, 108501. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2021.108501 510 Carozzi, M., Loubet, B., Acutis, M., Rana, G., Ferrara, R.M., 2013. Inverse dispersion modelling 511 highlights the efficiency of slurry injection to reduce ammonia losses by agriculture in the Po 512 Valley (Italy). Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 171–172, 306–318.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2012.12.012





514 Coates, T.W., Alam, M., Flesch, T.K., Hernandez-Ramirez, G., 2021. Field testing two flux 515 footprint models. Atmos. Meas. Tech. 14, 7147–7152. https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-14-7147-2021 516 DeBruyn, Z.J., Wagner-Riddle, C., VanderZaag, A., 2020. Assessment of Open-path 517 Spectrometer Accuracy at Low Path-integrated Methane Concentrations. Atmosphere 11, 184. 518 https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos11020184 519 Delre, A., Mønster, J., Samuelsson, J., Fredenslund, A.M., Scheutz, C., 2018. Emission 520 quantification using the tracer gas dispersion method: The influence of instrument, tracer gas 521 species and source simulation. Science of The Total Environment 634, 59-66. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.03.289 522 523 Desjardins, R.L., Denmead, O.T., Harper, L., McBain, M., Massé, D., Kaharabata, S., 2004. Evaluation of a micrometeorological mass balance method employing an open-path laser for 524 525 measuring methane emissions. Atmospheric Environment 38, 6855-6866. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2004.09.008 526 EEA, 2019. EMEP/EEA air pollutant emission inventory guidebook 2019: technical guidance to 527 528 prepare national emission inventories. Publications Office, LU. 529 FAO, 2017. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. The future of food and 530 agriculture: trends and challenges. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 531 Rome. 532 Flesch, T., Wilson, J., Harper, L., Crenna, B., 2005. Estimating gas emissions from a farm with an inverse-dispersion technique. Atmospheric Environment 39, 4863–4874. 533 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2005.04.032 534





535 Flesch, T.K., Desjardins, R.L., Worth, D., 2011. Fugitive methane emissions from an agricultural 536 biodigester. Biomass and Bioenergy 35, 3927–3935. 537 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2011.06.009 538 Flesch, T.K., McGinn, S.M., Chen, D., Wilson, J.D., Desjardins, R.L., 2014. Data filtering for 539 inverse dispersion emission calculations. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 198–199, 1–6. 540 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2014.07.010 541 Flesch, T.K., Wilson, J.D., Harper, L.A., Crenna, B.P., Sharpe, R.R., 2004. Deducing Ground-to-542 Air Emissions from Observed Trace Gas Concentrations: A Field Trial. Journal of Applied Meteorology 43, 487–502. https://doi.org/10.1175/JAM2214.1 543 544 Flesch, T.K., Wilson, J.D., Harper, L.A., Todd, R.W., Cole, N.A., 2007. Determining ammonia 545 emissions from a cattle feedlot with an inverse dispersion technique. Agricultural and Forest 546 Meteorology 144, 139–155. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2007.02.006 547 Flesch, T.K., Wilson, J.D., Yee, E., 1995. Backward-Time Lagrangian Stochastic Dispersion 548 Model and Their Application to Estimate Gaseous Emissions. Journal of Applied Meteorology 34, 1320-1332. https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0450 549 Fredenslund, A.M., Rees-White, T.C., Beaven, R.P., Delre, A., Finlayson, A., Helmore, J., Allen, 550 551 G., Scheutz, C., 2019. Validation and error assessment of the mobile tracer gas dispersion 552 method for measurement of fugitive emissions from area sources. Waste Management 83, 68-78. 553 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2018.10.036 Gao, Z., Desjardins, R.L., Flesch, T.K., 2009. Comparison of a simplified micrometeorological 554

mass difference technique and an inverse dispersion technique for estimating methane emissions





556 from small area sources. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 149, 891–898. 557 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2008.11.005 558 Gao, Z., Desjardins, R.L., van Haarlem, R.P., Flesch, T.K., 2008. Estimating Gas Emissions 559 from Multiple Sources Using a Backward Lagrangian Stochastic Model. Journal of the Air & 560 Waste Management Association 58, 1415-1421. https://doi.org/10.3155/1047-3289.58.11.1415 561 Garland, J.A., 1977. The dry deposition of sulphur dioxide to land and water surfaces. Proc. R. 562 Soc. Lond. A 354, 245–268. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspa.1977.0066 Grant, R.H., Boehm, M.T., Bogan, B.W., 2015. Methane and carbon dioxide emissions from 563 manure storage facilities at two free-stall dairies. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 213, 102-564 565 113. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2015.06.008 566 Hafner, S.D., 2018. The ALFAM2 database on ammonia emission from field-applied manure 567 Description and illustrative analysis. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 14. 568 Häni, C., Bühler, M., Neftel, A., Ammann, C., Kupper, T., 2021. Performance of open-path 569 GasFinder3 devices for CH<sub>4</sub> concentration measurements close to ambient levels. Atmos. Meas. Tech. 14, 1733-1741. https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-14-1733-2021 570 571 Häni, C., Flechard, C., Neftel, A., Sintermann, J., Kupper, T., 2018. Accounting for Field-Scale 572 Dry Deposition in Backward Lagrangian Stochastic Dispersion Modelling of NH₃ Emissions. 573 https://doi.org/10.20944/preprints201803.0026.v1 Harper, L.A., Denmead, O.T., Flesch, T.K., 2011. Micrometeorological techniques for 574 575 measurement of enteric greenhouse gas emissions. Animal Feed Science and Technology 166-576 167, 227–239. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2011.04.013





577 Harper, L.A., Flesch, T.K., Powell, J.M., Coblentz, W.K., Jokela, W.E., Martin, N.P., 2009. 578 Ammonia emissions from dairy production in Wisconsin. Journal of Dairy Science 92, 2326-579 2337. https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2008-1753 580 Harper, L.A., Flesch, T.K., Weaver, K.H., Wilson, J.D., 2010. The Effect of Biofuel Production 581 on Swine Farm Methane and Ammonia Emissions. Environmental Quality 39, 1984–1992. 582 https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq2010.0172 583 Hu, E., Babcock, E.L., Bialkowski, S.E., Jones, S.B., Tuller, M., 2014. Methods and Techniques 584 for Measuring Gas Emissions from Agricultural and Animal Feeding Operations. Critical Reviews in Analytical Chemistry 44, 200-219. https://doi.org/10.1080/10408347.2013.843055 585 586 Hu, N., Flesch, T.K., Wilson, J.D., Baron, V.S., Basarab, J.A., 2016. Refining an inverse dispersion method to quantify gas sources on rolling terrain. Agricultural and Forest 587 588 Meteorology 225, 1-7. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2016.05.007 589 Kamp, J.N., Chowdhury, A., Adamsen, A.P.S., Feilberg, A., 2019. Negligible influence of 590 livestock contaminants and sampling system on ammonia measurements with cavity ring-down spectroscopy. Measurement Techniques 12, 2837-2850. https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-12-2837-591 592 2019 593 Kamp, J.N., Häni, C., Nyord, T., Feilberg, A., Sørensen, L.L., 2021. Calculation of NH3 594 Emissions, Evaluation of Backward Lagrangian Stochastic Dispersion Model and Aerodynamic 595 Gradient Method 17. 596 Kupper, T., Eugster, R., Sintermann, J., Häni, C., 2021. Ammonia emissions from an uncovered 597 dairy slurry storage tank over two years: Interactions with tank operations and meteorological





598 conditions. Biosystems Engineering 204, 36–49. 599 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biosystemseng.2021.01.001 600 Lemes, Y.M., Garcia, P., Nyord, T., Feilberg, A., Kamp, J.N., 2022. Full-scale investigation of 601 methane and ammonia mitigation by early single-dose slurry storage acidification [Submitted 602 June 2022]. 603 Lynn, B.H., Carlson, T.N., 1990. A stomatal resistance model illustrating plant vs. external 604 control of transpiration. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 52, 5–43. 605 https://doi.org/10.1016/0168-1923(90)90099-R Massad, R.-S., Nemitz, E., Sutton, M.A., 2010. Review and parameterisation of bi-directional 606 607 ammonia exchange between vegetation and the atmosphere. Atmos. Chem. Phys. 10, 10359-608 10386. https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-10-10359-2010 609 McBain, M.C., Desjardins, R.L., 2005a. The evaluation of a backward Lagrangian stochastic 610 (bLS) model to estimate greenhouse gas emissions from agricultural sources using a synthetic 611 tracer source. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 135, 61–72. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2005.10.003 612 McBain, M.C., Desjardins, R.L., 2005b. The evaluation of a backward Lagrangian stochastic 613 614 (bLS) model to estimate greenhouse gas emissions from agricultural sources using a synthetic 615 tracer source. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 135, 61–72. 616 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2005.10.003





- McGinn, S.M., Coates, T., Flesch, T.K., Crenna, B., 2008. Ammonia emission from dairy cow
- manure stored in a lagoon over summer. Can. J. Soil. Sci. 88, 611–615.
- 619 https://doi.org/10.4141/CJSS08002
- 620 McGinn, S.M., Flesch, T.K., Beauchemin, K.A., Shreck, A., Kindermann, M., 2019.
- 621 Micrometeorological Methods for Measuring Methane Emission Reduction at Beef Cattle
- Feedlots: Evaluation of 3-Nitrooxypropanol Feed Additive. J. environ. qual. 48, 1454–1461.
- 623 https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq2018.11.0412
- 624 McGinn, S.M., Flesch, T.K., Crenna, B.P., Beauchemin, K.A., Coates, T., 2007. Quantifying
- Ammonia Emissions from a Cattle Feedlot using a Dispersion Model. J. Environ. Qual. 36,
- 626 1585–1590. https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq2007.0167
- 627 McGinn, S.M., Turner, D., Tomkins, N., Charmley, E., Bishop-Hurley, G., Chen, D., 2011.
- 628 Methane Emissions from Grazing Cattle Using Point-Source Dispersion. J. Environ. Qual. 40,
- 629 22–27. https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq2010.0239
- 630 NEC Directive 2016/2284, n.d. DIRECTIVE (EU) 2016/ 2284 OF THE EUROPEAN
- 631 PARLIAMENT AND OF THE COUNCIL of 14 December 2016 on the reduction of
- 632 national emissions of certain atmospheric pollutants, amending Directive 2003/35/EC
- and repealing Directive 2001/81/EC.
- 634 OECD, FAO, 2019. OECD-FAO Agricultural Outlook 2019-2028, OECD-FAO Agricultural
- Outlook. OECD. https://doi.org/10.1787/agr_outlook-2019-en





636 Pedersen, J.M., Feilberg, A., Kamp, J.N., Hafner, S., Nyord, T., 2020. Ammonia emission 637 measurement with an online wind tunnel system for evaluation of manure application techniques. 638 Atmospheric Environment 230, 117562. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2020.117562 639 Platt, U., Stutz, J., 2008. Differential optical absorption spectroscopy: principles and 640 applications, Physics of Earth and space environments. Springer, Berlin. 641 R Core Team, 2018. R: A language and environment for statistical computing; R Foundation for 642 Statistical. Computing: Vienna, Austria. Ro, K.S., Johnson, M.H., Hunt, P.G., Flesch, T.K., 2011. Measuring Trace Gas Emission from 643 Multi-Distributed Sources Using Vertical Radial Plume Mapping (VRPM) and Backward 644 645 Lagrangian Stochastic (bLS) Techniques. Atmosphere 2, 553–566. https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos2030553 646 647 Ro, K.S., Stone, K.C., Johnson, M.H., Hunt, P.G., Flesch, T.K., Todd, R.W., 2014. Optimal 648 Sensor Locations for the Backward Lagrangian Stochastic Technique in Measuring Lagoon Gas 649 Emission. Journal of Environmental Quality 43, 1111–1118. https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq2013.05.0163 650 651 Sanz, A., Misselbrook, T., Sanz, M.J., Vallejo, A., 2010. Use of an inverse dispersion technique 652 for estimating ammonia emission from surface-applied slurry. Atmospheric Environment 44, 653 999–1002. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2009.08.044 654 Shah, S.B., Grabow, G.L., Westerman, P.W., 2006. Ammonia Adsorption in Five Types of 655 Flexible Tubing Materials. Applied Engineering in Agriculture 22, 919–923. https://doi.org/10.13031/2013.22253 656





- Sintermann, J., Ammann, C., Kuhn, U., Spirig, C., Hirschberger, R., Gärtner, A., Neftel, A.,
 2011. Determination of field scale ammonia emissions for common slurry spreading practice
 with two independent methods. Atmospheric Measurement Techniques 4, 1821–1840.
- 660 https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-4-1821-2011
- Sintermann, J., Dietrich, K., Häni, C., Bell, M., Jocher, M., Neftel, A., 2016. A miniDOAS
- 662 instrument optimised for ammonia field measurements. Atmospheric Measurement Techniques
- 9, 2721–2734. https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-9-2721-2016
- 664 Sommer, S.G., McGinn, S.M., Hao, X., Larney, F.J., 2004. Techniques for measuring gas
- 665 emissions from a composting stockpile of cattle manure. Atmospheric Environment 38, 4643–
- 666 4652. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2004.05.014
- Todd, R.W., Cole, N.A., Rhoades, M.B., Parker, D.B., Casey, K.D., 2011. Daily, Monthly,
- 668 Seasonal, and Annual Ammonia Emissions from Southern High Plains Cattle Feedyards. J.
- 669 Environ. Qual. 40, 1090–1095. https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq2010.0307
- Vaittinen, O., Metsälä, M., Persijn, S., Vainio, M., Halonen, L., 2014. Adsorption of ammonia on
- treated stainless steel and polymer surfaces. Applied Physics B 115, 185–196.
- 672 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00340-013-5590-3
- van Haarlem, R.P., Desjardins, R.L., Gao, Z., Flesch, T.K., Li, X., 2008. Methane and ammonia
- 674 emissions from a beef feedlot in western Canada for a twelve-day period in the fall. Can. J.
- 675 Anim. Sci. 88, 641–649. https://doi.org/10.4141/CJAS08034
- VanderZaag, A.C., Flesch, T.K., Desjardins, R.L., Baldé, H., Wright, T., 2014. Measuring
- 677 methane emissions from two dairy farms: Seasonal and manure-management effects.





678 Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 194, 259–267. 679 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2014.02.003 680 Vechi, N.T., Mellqvist, J., Scheutz, C., 2022. Quantification of methane emissions from cattle 681 farms, using the tracer gas dispersion method. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment 330, 682 107885. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2022.107885 683 Voglmeier, K., Jocher, M., Häni, C., Ammann, C., 2018. Ammonia emission measurements of 684 an intensively grazed pasture. Biogeosciences 15, 4593-4608. https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-15-685 4593-2018 Wesely, M., 2007. Parameterization of surface resistances to gaseous dry deposition in regional-686 687 scale numerical models ☆. Atmospheric Environment 41, 52–63. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2007.10.058 688 689 Wilson, J.D., Flesch, T.K., Harper, L.A., 2001. Micro-meteorological methods for estimating 690 surface exchange with a disturbed windflow. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 107, 207–225. 691 https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1923(00)00238-0 692 Yang, W., Que, H., Wang, S., Zhu, A., Zhang, Y., He, Y., Xin, X., Zhang, X., 2019. Comparison 693 of backward Lagrangian stochastic model with micrometeorological mass balance method for 694 measuring ammonia emissions from rice field. Atmospheric Environment 211, 268–273. 695 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2019.05.028