

# Using Open-Path Dual-Comb Spectroscopy to Monitor Methane Emissions from Simulated Grazing Cattle

Chinthaka Weerasekara,<sup>1</sup> Lindsay C. Morris,<sup>2</sup> Nathan A. Malarich<sup>3</sup>, Fabrizio R. Giorgetta,<sup>3,4</sup> Daniel I. Herman,<sup>3,4</sup> Kevin C. Cossel,<sup>3</sup> Nathan R. Newbury,<sup>3</sup> Clenton E. Owensby,<sup>1</sup> Stephen M. Welch,<sup>1</sup> Cosmin Blaga,<sup>2</sup> Brett D. DePaola,<sup>2</sup> Ian Coddington,<sup>3</sup> Eduardo A. Santos,<sup>1</sup> and Brian R. Washburn<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Kansas State University, Department of Agronomy, Manhattan, KS, 66506, United States

<sup>2</sup>Kansas State University, Department of Physics, Manhattan, KS, 66506, United States

<sup>3</sup>National Institute of Standards and Technology, Communications Technology Laboratory, Boulder, CO, 80305, United States

<sup>4</sup>University of Colorado, Boulder, Department of Physics, Boulder, CO, 80309, United States

Correspondence to: Brian R. Washburn ([brian.washburn@nist.gov](mailto:brian.washburn@nist.gov)), Eduardo Santos ([esantos@ksu.edu](mailto:esantos@ksu.edu))

**Abstract.** Accurate whole-farm or herd-level measurements of livestock methane emissions are necessary for anthropogenic greenhouse gas inventories and to evaluate mitigation strategies. A controlled methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) release experiment was performed to determine if dual comb spectroscopy (DCS) can detect CH<sub>4</sub> concentration enhancements produced by a typical herd of beef cattle in an extensive grazing system. Open-path DCS was used to measure downwind and upwind CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations from ten point-sources of methane simulating cattle emissions. The CH<sub>4</sub> mole fractions along with wind velocity data were used to calculate CH<sub>4</sub> flux using an inverse dispersion model, and the simulated fluxes were then compared to the actual CH<sub>4</sub> release rate. For a source located 60 m from the downwind path, the DCS system detected 10 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> CH<sub>4</sub> horizontal concentration gradient above the atmospheric background concentration with a precision of 6 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> in 15-min interval. A CH<sub>4</sub> release of 3970 g day<sup>-1</sup> was performed resulting in an average concentration enhancement of 24 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> of CH<sub>4</sub>. The calculated CH<sub>4</sub> flux was 4002 g day<sup>-1</sup> with an error of ±1498 g day<sup>-1</sup>. Periodically altering the downwind path, which may be needed to track moving cattle, did not adversely affect the ability to determine the CH<sub>4</sub> flux. These results give us confidence that CH<sub>4</sub> flux can be determined by grazing cattle with low disturbance and direct field-scale measurements.

## 1 Introduction and motivation

Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions from enteric fermentation in domestic ruminants is the largest anthropogenic source of CH<sub>4</sub> in the United States, with the dairy and beef industries being responsible for most of these emissions (EPA, 2023). Previous life-cycle analyses indicate that 70 to 80% of the total greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from the beef sector occur during the grazing phase (Alemu et al., 2017; Rotz et al., 2015; Thompson and Rowntree, 2020). However, direct herd-scale CH<sub>4</sub> emission data in grazing systems are scarce. The low animal density and high animal mobility commonly found in most grazing systems makes herd-scale measurements quite challenging (Dengel et al., 2011; Felber et al., 2015; Flesch et al., 2018; Laubach et al., 2016; Stoy et al., 2021). Accurate whole-farm and herd-level measurements of livestock methane emissions are necessary to

evaluate mitigation strategies to reduce GHG emissions, improve current GHG national inventories and to assist governments, industries, and other organizations to fulfil commitments to reduce anthropogenic GHG emissions.

35 Methane emissions from individual animals have been measured using face masks (Place et al., 2011), head-hood chambers (Hill et al., 2016), whole-animal respiration chambers (Pinares-Patiño et al., 2011), tunnels (Lockyer and Jarvis, 1995), automated spot head-box measurements (Hristov et al., 2015) and tracer methods (Grainger et al., 2007; Johnson et al., 1994). The respiration chamber is considered the standard technique for measuring livestock CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Results from chamber studies have been used to develop predictive models and equations for national GHG inventories (Danielsson et al., 2017; Ramin and Huhtanen, 2013). However, chambers can create measurement artefacts by affecting animal behaviour and  
40 are not practical for measuring CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from many animals (Storm et al., 2012).

Micrometeorological techniques have been applied for measuring ammonia, carbon dioxide, nitrous oxide and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from livestock systems (Laubach et al., 2024; McGinn and Flesch, 2018b; Phillips et al., 2007; Prajapati and Santos, 2018b; Sun et al., 2015), and have the advantages of being non-intrusive, can integrate fluxes from large areas or herds of cattle reducing measurement uncertainties due to animal-to-animal variability, and provide high temporal resolution (<1 h)  
45 flux measurements (McGinn, 2013). The widely used eddy covariance technique has been combined with flux footprint models to estimate methane emissions from ruminant herds (Coates et al., 2017; Dengel et al., 2011; Prajapati and Santos, 2018a; Stoy et al., 2021). However, this approach requires that the presence of animals in the flux tower footprint, which makes its implementation challenging in extensive grazing systems where cattle often do not remain for long periods in the area sampled by the flux tower.

50 Lagrangian stochastic models, which are the basis for several inverse dispersion models (IDM), have been used to infer emissions of gases such as ammonia and CH<sub>4</sub> from agricultural systems (Flesch et al., 2005; Laubach and Kelliher, 2005; McGinn and Flesch, 2018b). Unlikely traditional micrometeorological methods, such as the eddy covariance and flux gradient methods, they can handle source areas of different sizes and complex source geometries (Flesch et al., 2005). The IDM proposed by Flesch et al. (1995) has been used to quantify CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from ruminants (Flesch et al., 2018; Laubach and  
55 Kelliher, 2005; McGinn et al., 2011; Prajapati and Santos, 2018a). In typical IDM applications, open-path line-averaged concentration sensors are placed upwind and downwind from the source of interest. The gas emission rates are then inferred based on the increase of gas concentration downwind from the source and turbulence statistics obtained from wind velocity measurements. McGinn et al. (2011) used IDM to estimate methane emissions from 18 animals grazing in a 1-ha paddock. They measured the area with five different paths ranging from 80 m to 128 m in length, so that at least one laser path was close  
60 enough to the cattle for their open-path system to be able to detect an enhancement in concentration. The main goal of this study is to determine if the dual-comb spectroscopy (DCS) combined with an IDM can precisely infer CH<sub>4</sub> flux from a typical herd of cattle grazing on an extensive pasture.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Dual comb spectroscopy

65 Dual-comb spectroscopy is a spectroscopic technique that uses two coherent frequency combs to get molecular concentrations through absorption (Coddington et al., 2016). A frequency comb is a laser spectrum composed of many ( $10^6$ ) regularly spaced (MHz) spectral lines known as comb teeth with spectral coverage of multiple THz. Two frequency combs with slightly different repetition rates pass through a gas. Atmospheric molecular absorption lines, such as those due to  $\text{CH}_4$ , have GHz-wide absorption features and will absorb multiple comb teeth. After passing through the gas, the light from the combs is incident onto a square-law photodetector generating a radio frequency (RF) comb composed of heterodyne beats between pairs of optical comb teeth. From this an electrical interferogram (IGM) is generated, and its Fourier transform provides both the gas absorption and laser spectra. DCS is a sensing tool that combines and enhances the most desirable traits of FTIR and tunable diode laser absorption spectroscopy to measure entire absorption bands of multiple gas species at high speed with fine spectral resolution. In particular, DCS offers the unique ability to interrogate kilometer-scale paths and reliably measure very small changes in gas concentration making DCS potentially valuable for quantifying fluxes of agriculturally significant gases in the field scale.

### 2.2 Obtaining $\text{CH}_4$ mole fractions using spectral line fitting

—DCS is commonly used in an open-path differential measurement geometry to measure gas mole fraction on two beam paths to determine  $\text{CH}_4$  flux from a source area. As seen in Fig. 1a, comb light generated from the DCS system in a trailer is split and sent on upwind and downwind paths. A sample IGM (Fig. 1b), from each path is recorded and its Fourier transform provides both the gas absorption and laser spectra (Fig. 1c). In order to obtain gas mole fraction, the spectral absorption is fit using a nonlinear curve fitting routine (Newville et al., 2014) using molecular information from the HITRAN spectral database (Gordon et al., 2017; Rothman et al., 2009). The open-path DCS system used for this study has spectral coverage from 179.8 THz to 188.9 THz ( $6000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  to  $6300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and with a spectral resolution of 200.005 MHz ( $0.00667 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ). The system is designed to target  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$ , and water vapor with laboratory-level precision while operating in the field. It is based on all-polarization-maintaining, mode-locked erbium-doped fiber lasers with repetition frequencies 200,005,000 Hz and  $200,005,000 + 208.88 \text{ Hz}$  respectively (Sinclair et al., 2015). Mutual comb coherence is established by phase-locking each comb to the same free-running continuous wave laser at 192.175 THz and by phase-locking the carrier-envelope offset frequency of each comb using an in-line  $f$ -to- $2f$  interferometer (Truong et al., 2016). To tailor the comb spectrum to cover the  $\text{CH}_4$  absorption band at 181.97 THz, light for each comb is amplified in an erbium-doped fiber amplifier and sent through a short piece of highly nonlinear fiber. For the DCS measurement, the filtered outputs are combined using a fiber combiner generating two outputs that are directed over two open-air paths.

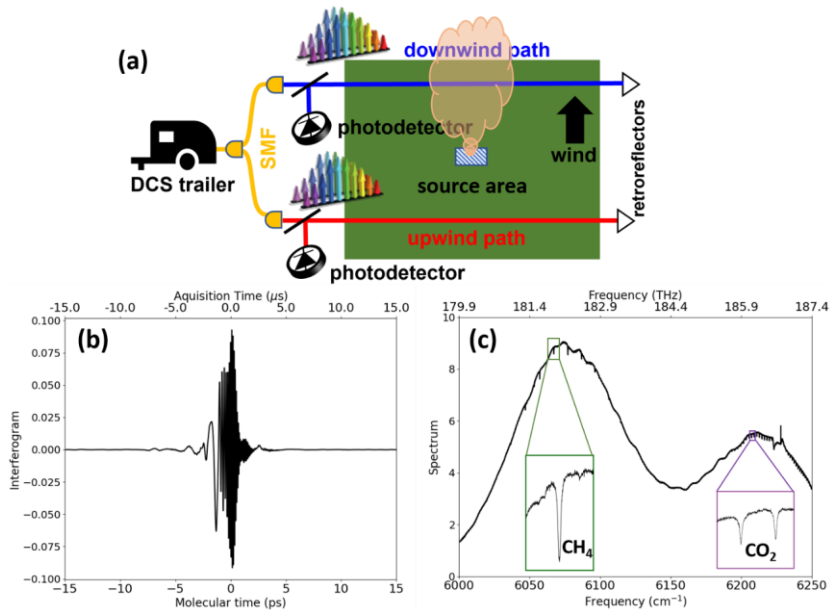
Each IGM is digitally sampled with 14 bits and contains 957500 points. The IGMs are generated at a rate of 208.88 Hz, so streaming and storing these data to a computer would require terabits of storage. To reduce data storage

Formatted: Heading 2

Formatted: Subscript

Formatted: Heading 2

95 requirements, during the course of the measurement, 28 IGMs are co-added by a field programmable gate array (FPGA) to  
 produce a hardware-averaged IGM. These IGMs are streamed to a computer, which performs phase-correction and additional  
 averaging using methodology similar to techniques used in FTIR (Griffiths and de Haseth, 2006). The computer calculates a  
 phase-corrected IGM every 5 min and stores it in the hard drive. For the best case, 2238 hardware-averaged IGMs are used to  
 generate a phase-corrected IGM every 5 min. Hardware-averaged IGMs with poor return power, mostly due to poor alignment  
 100 between transceiver and the retroreflector, are rejected and not used in the phase-correction. Under moderate windy conditions  
 IGM rejection is less than 10%.



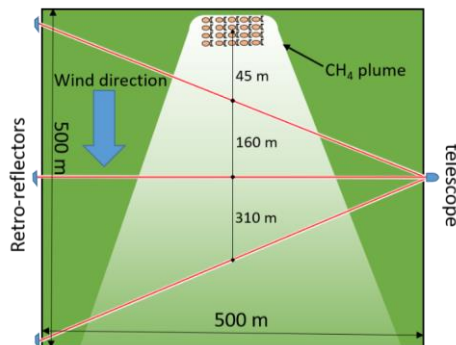
105 **Figure 1:** (a) Schematic of the dual-comb spectrometer gas concentration measurements on two paths from a CH<sub>4</sub> source area. Yellow lines indicate single-mode fiber (SMF) transmitting dual-comb light to an upwind (red) and downwind (blue) open-air paths. CH<sub>4</sub> is emitted from an area between the two paths under proper wind directions. RF signals from two photodetectors are sent back to the trailer and two interferograms (IGM) containing gas concentration information for each path are digitized. (b) A dual-comb spectroscopy phase-corrected IGM after 5 min acquisition time on the upwind path. 'Acquisition time' is the microsecond timescale of the measured RF voltage. 'Molecular time' is the timescale associated with the period of molecular oscillations which is typically picoseconds. (c) The Fourier transform of the IGM with insets showing CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> absorption lines and the laser baseline.

## 2.3 Lagrangian stochastic model (WindTrax) simulations

### 2.3.1 Sensitivity and precision required for grazing measurements

#### 3—Sensitivity and precision required for grazing measurements

A forward Lagrangian stochastic model (Windtrax, Thunderbeach Sci.; Crenna, 2006) was used to simulate the concentration field downwind from a hypothetical herd of 20 head of beef cattle grazing in an area of 25 ha, which is a typical stocking density (animal/area) in the Flint Hills region, Kansas (Fig. 2). Wind orthogonal components and temperature data were measured at 10 Hz using a sonic anemometer (CSAT3, Campbell Sci, Logan, UT) deployed 5 m above a grazing unit on the Rannells' Flint Hills Prairie Preserve (full site description below) near Manhattan, Kansas USA. The wind dataset selected for these simulations consisted of about 30 days in June, 2021 during the grazing season. The wind raw data files were processed using the software Eddy Pro (Licor, Lincoln, NE) and means, variances and covariances for wind velocity and sonic temperature data were calculated for 30-min intervals to be used as input variables for the WindTrax simulations. To investigate if the DCS system can resolve the expected increase in  $\text{CH}_4$  concentration due to the presence of cattle above the typical  $\text{CH}_4$  atmospheric background level (2000 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup>), two expected  $\text{CH}_4$  emission scenarios were evaluated: 100 g head<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> and 300 g head<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>. These values were selected based on the reported IPCC Tier 1 emission values for grazing cattle in North America of 208 g head<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> (Eggleston et al., 2006). The simulated herd consisted of a fixed grid of point sources spaced 20 meters apart (Fig. 2). The height of gas release was set to 1 meter above the ground to mimic the height of the animal mouth and a total of 50,000 particles were released for each point source. Three beam lines were used in this simulation located at 45, 160 and 310 m from the geometric center of the herd.



Formatted: Heading 2

Formatted: Subscript

Formatted: Subscript

Formatted: Subscript

Formatted: Superscript

Formatted: Superscript

Formatted: Superscript

Formatted: Superscript

Formatted: Superscript

Formatted: Superscript

Figure 2: Schematic diagram showing the location of the hypothetical herd of cattle, transceiver, retroreflectors and three possible downwind paths used for the forward WindTrax simulations. A constant background of 2000 nmol/mol was assumed so no upwind path was used in the simulation and not shown in the figure.

The forward model predicted that a herd of 20 cattle grazing in an area of 25 ha would produce a CH<sub>4</sub> enhancement of 16 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> above a 2000 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> background for a beamline 45 m away from the herd of cattle assuming an emission rate of 300 g head<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> of CH<sub>4</sub>. The enhancement drops to 2 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> for a beam path 310 m away assuming the same emission rate. For a low emission scenario (100 g head<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>), the CH<sub>4</sub> enhancements ranged from 5 to 1 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> for a beam line located at 45 m and 310 m away from the center of the herd.

140 **Table 1 - Grazing system methane emission WindTrax simulation results showing the expected average and standard deviation (SD) of CH<sub>4</sub> concentration measured by line sensors positioned downwind from a cattle herd with two CH<sub>4</sub> emission rates. The CH<sub>4</sub> background level was assumed to be constant at 2000 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup>.**

	Cattle CH <sub>4</sub> emission rate (g head <sup>-1</sup> day <sup>-1</sup> )					
	100			300		
Distance (m)	45	160	310	45	160	310
[CH <sub>4</sub> ] (nmol mol <sup>-1</sup> )	2005	2002	2001	2016	2006	2002
SD [CH <sub>4</sub> ] (nmol mol <sup>-1</sup> )	12	4	2	36	12	7

145 Figure 3(a) shows spectral data and the results of a H<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub>, and CO<sub>2</sub> fit. The DCS concentration measurement precision under field conditions was determined using Allen-Werle analysis (Werle, 2011) which includes effects of field-condition induced misalignment to the retroreflectors which causes fluctuations in the [signal-to-noise ratio \(-SNR\)](#). The result of an Allen-Werle analysis on a dataset taken for 24 hours on 18 Dec 2022 is shown in (Fig. 3b), showing a precision of 6 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> CH<sub>4</sub> in 900 s (15 min) for 200-m paths. This result is consistent with results of (Herman et al., 2021) where data  
150 were taken with a SNR of 1000 and a precision of 25 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> in 5 min.

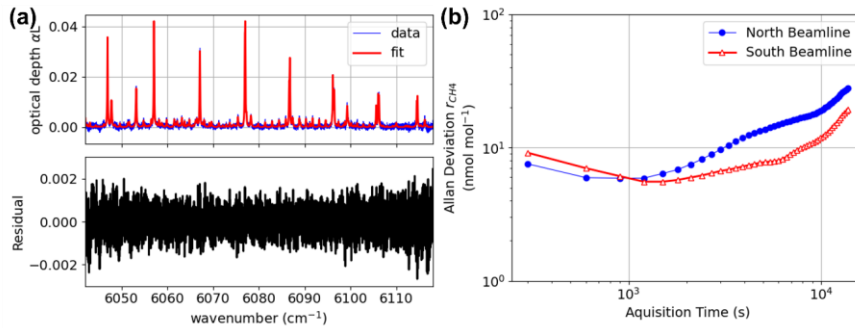


Figure 3: (a) Result of cepstral-domain fitting of H<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub>, and CO<sub>2</sub> for 300 s averaged data, showing the resulting optical depth data, fit, and fit residual. (b) Allan-Werle deviation of the CH<sub>4</sub> dry mole fraction ( $r_{CH_4}$ ) showing 6 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup> precision in 900 s.

### 2.3.2 Computing CH<sub>4</sub> flux using an inverse dispersion model

A freely-available IDM software, WindTrax (Crenna, 2006), WindtraxWindTrax was also was used for computing CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes using. The WindTrax input data consisted of measured upwind and downwind CH<sub>4</sub> dry mole fractions (Section 3.1), and mean, variance and covariances of wind velocity and temperature, obtained using the sonic anemometer data wind velocity data as described in section 2.3.1. As WindTrax flux estimates are more precise for 15 minute or longer timescales (Flesch et al., 2004), we averaged the 5-min DCS mole fraction data to 15-min. WindTrax requires appropriate weather conditions to provide accurate estimate of fluxes, so the data were screened based on the following acceptance criteria: wind friction velocity ( $u^*$ )  $> 0.1$  m s<sup>-1</sup> and absolute Monin-Obukhov Length values  $|L_{MO}| > 10$  m (Flesch et al., 2005; Todd et al., 2014). The source area (Fig. 4) used by WindTrax to infer fluxes was set to match the 12.5 m<sup>2</sup> area of the CH<sub>4</sub> point sources and the source level was set to 0.7 m above the ground which is the same heigh as the manifold outlets. In WindTrax all DCS measurement paths were modelled as line concentration sensors consisting of 60 particle “release” points along the path, starting at the transceiver and ending at the retroreflector. A total of 50,000 particles were released from each of those points for each WinTrax simulation.

One of the principal sources of uncertainty in the IDM estimates arises from the errors in the gas concentration measurements themselves. The flux is dependent on the difference between downwind ( $r_d$ ) and upwind ( $r_u$ ) dry mole fractions, measured the north and south beamlines (Fig. 4). The fractional uncertainty in the flux is given by (Herman et al., 2021):

$$\frac{\sigma_F}{F} = \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_{r_d}^2 + \sigma_{r_u}^2 - 2cov(r_d, r_u)}}{r_d - r_u} \quad (2)$$

175 where  $F$  is the flux,  $\sigma_F$  is flux error,  $\sigma_{r_d}^2$  is downwind (background) dry mole fraction error,  $\sigma_{r_u}^2$  is upwind dry mole fraction,  $cov(d,u)$  is the covariance of the downwind and upwind errors. A covariance term was added to the quadrature error following previous studies (Bai et al., 2022; Herman et al., 2021) to account for small correlations in the different path errors. The errors in the dry mole fractions ( $\sigma_{r_d}^2$  and  $\sigma_{r_u}^2$ ) and the covariance were determined from the recorded 5-min measured SNR assuming that the mole fraction error is inversely proportional to the SNR. The fractional uncertainty ignores errors due to measurement 180  
185  
190  
195  
200  
205  
210  
215  
220  
225  
230  
235  
240  
245  
250  
255  
260  
265  
270  
275  
280  
285  
290  
295  
300  
305  
310  
315  
320  
325  
330  
335  
340  
345  
350  
355  
360  
365  
370  
375  
380  
385  
390  
395  
400  
405  
410  
415  
420  
425  
430  
435  
440  
445  
450  
455  
460  
465  
470  
475  
480  
485  
490  
495  
500  
505  
510  
515  
520  
525  
530  
535  
540  
545  
550  
555  
560  
565  
570  
575  
580  
585  
590  
595  
600  
605  
610  
615  
620  
625  
630  
635  
640  
645  
650  
655  
660  
665  
670  
675  
680  
685  
690  
695  
700  
705  
710  
715  
720  
725  
730  
735  
740  
745  
750  
755  
760  
765  
770  
775  
780  
785  
790  
795  
800  
805  
810  
815  
820  
825  
830  
835  
840  
845  
850  
855  
860  
865  
870  
875  
880  
885  
890  
895  
900  
905  
910  
915  
920  
925  
930  
935  
940  
945  
950  
955  
960  
965  
970  
975  
980  
985  
990  
995

Formatted: Indent: First line: 0"

### 180 **3 Controlled CH<sub>4</sub> release experiment**

#### 185 **43.1 Description**

Controlled CH<sub>4</sub> release field experiments were conducted on the Rannells' Flint Hills Prairie Preserve (hereafter Rannells' ranch) near Manhattan, Kansas USA (39° 08' 28''N, 96° 31' 31''W, 324 m asl). The dominant steer grazing system in the Kansas Flint Hills is Intensive Early Stocking (IES) (Smith and Owensby, 1978). IES is a grazing system that takes advantage 185  
190  
195  
200  
205  
210  
215  
220  
225  
230  
235  
240  
245  
250  
255  
260  
265  
270  
275  
280  
285  
290  
295  
300  
305  
310  
315  
320  
325  
330  
335  
340  
345  
350  
355  
360  
365  
370  
375  
380  
385  
390  
395  
400  
405  
410  
415  
420  
425  
430  
435  
440  
445  
450  
455  
460  
465  
470  
475  
480  
485  
490  
495  
500  
505  
510  
515  
520  
525  
530  
535  
540  
545  
550  
555  
560  
565  
570  
575  
580  
585  
590  
595  
600  
605  
610  
615  
620  
625  
630  
635  
640  
645  
650  
655  
660  
665  
670  
675  
680  
685  
690  
695  
700  
705  
710  
715  
720  
725  
730  
735  
740  
745  
750  
755  
760  
765  
770  
775  
780  
785  
790  
795  
800  
805  
810  
815  
820  
825  
830  
835  
840  
845  
850  
855  
860  
865  
870  
875  
880  
885  
890  
895  
900  
905  
910  
915  
920  
925  
930  
935  
940  
945  
950  
955  
960  
965  
970  
975  
980  
985  
990  
995

Formatted: Heading 2

190 Previous work (Alden et al., 2019; Coburn et al., 2018) used DCS to measure simulated CH<sub>4</sub> leaks from oil and gas production at the level of 1400 g day<sup>-1</sup> from a distance of 1 km. Here we seek to provide a similar verification of the technology but with two important changes in the measurement configuration appropriate for livestock-based methane sources. First, the sources will be distributed rather than concentrated to single point source, Ssecondly the sources are further from the measurement paths. This larger separation will be necessary to accommodate the fact the herd will wander over time. The measurement paths might be adjusted to accommodate the cattle movement but there will be a limit to how close the measurement paths can be kept from the source. 195  
200  
205  
210  
215  
220  
225  
230  
235  
240  
245  
250  
255  
260  
265  
270  
275  
280  
285  
290  
295  
300  
305  
310  
315  
320  
325  
330  
335  
340  
345  
350  
355  
360  
365  
370  
375  
380  
385  
390  
395  
400  
405  
410  
415  
420  
425  
430  
435  
440  
445  
450  
455  
460  
465  
470  
475  
480  
485  
490  
495  
500  
505  
510  
515  
520  
525  
530  
535  
540  
545  
550  
555  
560  
565  
570  
575  
580  
585  
590  
595  
600  
605  
610  
615  
620  
625  
630  
635  
640  
645  
650  
655  
660  
665  
670  
675  
680  
685  
690  
695  
700  
705  
710  
715  
720  
725  
730  
735  
740  
745  
750  
755  
760  
765  
770  
775  
780  
785  
790  
795  
800  
805  
810  
815  
820  
825  
830  
835  
840  
845  
850  
855  
860  
865  
870  
875  
880  
885  
890  
895  
900  
905  
910  
915  
920  
925  
930  
935  
940  
945  
950  
955  
960  
965  
970  
975  
980  
985  
990  
995

The DCS system was housed in a temperature-controlled trailer at the Rannells' Ranch as seen in Fig. 4. Single-mode telecommunication fibers (Corning SMF-28) of lengths 10 and 40 m carried the dual-comb laser output light to two telescope transceivers (Fig. 4b) that were used to send comb light across the North (blue) and South (red) beamlines. The transceiver consisted of an FC/APC fiber termination followed by a collimating 179 mm focal length, 102 mm diameter, 45° off-axis parabolic mirror resulting in a collimated beam of ~35 mm diameter. Eye-safe (<10 mW) collimated dual-comb light was 200  
205  
210  
215  
220  
225  
230  
235  
240  
245  
250  
255  
260  
265  
270  
275  
280  
285  
290  
295  
300  
305  
310  
315  
320  
325  
330  
335  
340  
345  
350  
355  
360  
365  
370  
375  
380  
385  
390  
395  
400  
405  
410  
415  
420  
425  
430  
435  
440  
445  
450  
455  
460  
465  
470  
475  
480  
485  
490  
495  
500  
505  
510  
515  
520  
525  
530  
535  
540  
545  
550  
555  
560  
565  
570  
575  
580  
585  
590  
595  
600  
605  
610  
615  
620  
625  
630  
635  
640  
645  
650  
655  
660  
665  
670  
675  
680  
685  
690  
695  
700  
705  
710  
715  
720  
725  
730  
735  
740  
745  
750  
755  
760  
765  
770  
775  
780  
785  
790  
795  
800  
805  
810  
815  
820  
825  
830  
835  
840  
845  
850  
855  
860  
865  
870  
875  
880  
885  
890  
895  
900  
905  
910  
915  
920  
925  
930  
935  
940  
945  
950  
955  
960  
965  
970  
975  
980  
985  
990  
995



directed with a 127 mm clear aperture, 5 arcsec gold retroreflector (Edmund Optics<sup>†</sup>) positioned 200 m away (Fig. 4a) and the reflected signal was focused onto a 150-MHz bandwidth photodetector (PDA10CF, Thorlabs, Newton, NJ) in the transceivers. RF signals from photodetectors were transmitted to the trailer through RF cables (RG58, Pasternack Irvine, CA) and digitized using a 14-bit digitizer (FMC104, Abaco Systems, Huntsville, AL). To remove any concentration bias due to digitizer nonlinearities we added a dither signal to the received DCS interferogram (Malarich et al., 2023). The dither improved the individual channel precision by 5% and reduced the differences between channels to below 3 nmol mol<sup>-1</sup>.

Both transceivers were mounted on motorized tip/tilt gimbals (PT100, FLIR, Wilsonville, OR) that were automatically aligned using a datalogger (CR1000x, Campbell Sci.) or personal computer algorithms to the retroreflectors based on the return DC signal from the photodetector. The transceiver also housed a visible camera (BFLY-PGE-50A2M-CS, FLIR) to aid with alignment and a consumer 5W 850-nm LED flashlight to allow the user to see the retroreflectors with the visible camera during nighttime. The datalogger-controlled alignment system was able to maintain sufficient power back from the retroreflector to the transceiver in moderate wind conditions for over 24 hours. The wind velocity orthogonal components and temperature were measured using a sonic anemometer (CSAT3 Campbell Sci.) at 5 m above the ground. The sonic anemometer was connected to a datalogger (CR3000, Campbell/Campbell Sci.) and the raw data were saved at 10 Hz. The positions of retroreflectors, manifold, sonic anemometer and transceiver were measured using a multi-band real-time kinematic positioning (RTK) receiver (Reach RS2+, Emlid, Budapest, Hungary) with 7 mm and 14 mm horizontal and vertical accuracies, respectively. The horizontal and vertical coordinates obtained for the transceivers and retroreflectors were then used to determine the path lengths shown in Fig. 4.

A custom-built gas manifold (Fig. 4c) was used to control the release of CH<sub>4</sub> through 10 point sources located within the two DCS beam lines. Methane gas from a compressed tank (99.97% purity) was delivered to a proportional solenoid valve (PVQ13, SMC, Noblesville, IN) using a two-stage pressure regulator and high-density polyethylene tubing (I.D. 5.3 mm). The proportional valve was then connected to a multi-port aluminium manifold using high density polyethylene tubing. The pressure inside the manifold was monitored using a pressure transducer (PX119-030GI, Omega, Norwalk, CT). The CH<sub>4</sub> from the manifold flowed through ten 0.254-mm precision orifice assemblies (K2-10-SS, O'Keefe Controls Co., Monroe, CT). The precision orifice assemblies were then connected to 8-m high density polyethylene tubing lengths. The other extremity of these plastic tubes was then attached to metal rods at a height of 0.7 m above the ground. During CH<sub>4</sub> controlled-release campaigns, the pressure inside the manifold was adjusted to provide the desired flow rate by controlling the voltage applied to the proportional valve using a datalogger (CR1000, Campbell Sci.). A feedback loop between proportional valve and pressure transducer ensured a constant pressure inside the manifold during the control release campaigns. The CH<sub>4</sub> tank was weighted in the beginning and end of the gas release campaigns and the mass of gas released was determined gravimetrically using a

---

<sup>†</sup> Certain equipment or instruments are identified in this paper in order to specify the experimental procedure adequately. Such identification is not intended to imply recommendation or endorsement of any product by NIST, nor is it intended to imply that the equipment identified are necessarily the best available for the purpose.

scale (D125WQL, Ohaus, Parsippany, NJ). We used the mass given by the scale to determine the amount of gas released in each release campaign since it provides a more direct estimate of the release rate than the one obtained using the gas manifold. Previous gas release study has successfully used scale data to verify the flow rate of mass flow controller (Coates et al., 2017).

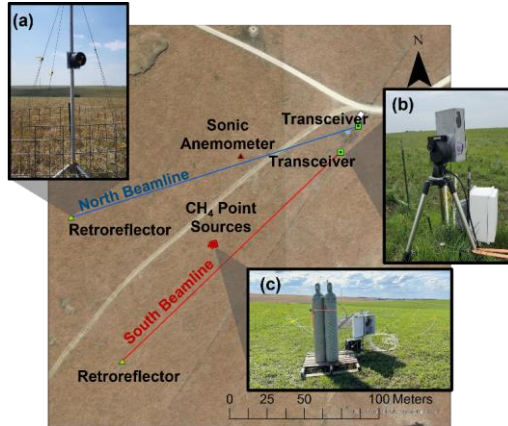


Figure 4: Layout of the experimental site the Rannells' Flint Hills Prairie Preserve. Insets: (a) hollow gold retroreflectors, (b) optical transceiver on a tip/tilt gimbal, and (c) gas manifold and point sources used to release CH<sub>4</sub> at a known rate. The one-way path distances were 202 m for the North Beamline and 203 m for the South Beamline.

### 5 — Obtaining CH<sub>4</sub> mole fractions using spectral line fitting

Mole fractions ( $\chi$ ) of CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, and CH<sub>4</sub> were obtained from the measured interferogram using a fit model derived from a combination of the HITRAN databases (Rothman et al., 2013) and the cepstral-domain technique (Cole et al., 2019). Temperature and pressure data used as an initial guess for the fit were provided by the sonic anemometer (CSAT3) and a pressure transducer (CS100, Campbell Sci.), respectively, which were both located on the same tower during the measurement campaign. The spectral band used in the cepstral-domain fitting was from 6000 cm<sup>-1</sup> to 6300 cm<sup>-1</sup> and contains CH<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O as well as weak CO<sub>2</sub> absorption lines. HITRAN 2008 (Rothman et al., 2009) molecular parameters for CH<sub>4</sub> with a Voigt lineshape computed using the HITRAN Application Programming Interface (Kochanov et al., 2016). Line-strengths greater than 10<sup>-22</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> molecule<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> were used. A cepstral-domain filter operates in the time domain and removes broad comb baseline structure in the IGM at times shorter than 15 ps and removes an etalon feature from 30 to 40 ps. The conversion from CH<sub>4</sub> mole fraction ( $\chi_{CH_4}$ ) to dry mole fraction ( $r_{CH_4}$ ) was calculated using the fit H<sub>2</sub>O mole fraction ( $\chi_{H_2O}$ ) and

$$r_{CH_4} = \frac{\chi_{CH_4}}{1 - \chi_{H_2O}} \quad (1)$$

## 6—Computing CH<sub>4</sub> flux using an inverse dispersion model

A freely available IDM software, WindTrax (Crenna, 2006), was used for computing CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes. The WindTrax input data consisted of measured upwind and downwind CH<sub>4</sub> dry mole fractions, and mean, variance and covariances of wind velocity and temperature, obtained using the sonic anemometer data. As WindTrax flux estimates are more precise for 15 minute or longer timescales (Flesch et al., 2004), we averaged the 5 min DCS mole fraction data to 15 min. WindTrax requires appropriate weather conditions to provide accurate estimate of fluxes, so the data were screened based on the following acceptance criteria: wind friction velocity ( $u^*$ )  $> 0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  and absolute Monin-Obukhov Length values  $|L_{MO}| > 10 \text{ m}$  (Flesch et al., 2005; Todd et al., 2014). The source area (Fig. 4) used by WindTrax to infer fluxes was set to match the  $12.5 \text{ m}^2$  area of the CH<sub>4</sub> point sources and the source level was set to 0.7 m above the ground which is the same height as the manifold outlets. In WindTrax all DCS measurement paths were modelled as line concentration sensors consisting of 60 particle “release” points along the path, starting at the transeiver and ending at the retroreflector.

One of the principal sources of uncertainty in the IDM estimates arises from the errors in the gas concentration measurements themselves. The flux is dependent on the difference between downwind ( $r_d$ ) and upwind ( $r_u$ ) dry mole fractions, measured the north and south beamlines (Fig. 4). The fractional uncertainty in the flux is given by (Herman et al., 2021):

$$\frac{\sigma_F}{F} = \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_{r_d}^2 + \sigma_{r_u}^2 - 2\text{cov}(r_d, r_u)}}{r_d - r_u} \quad (2)$$

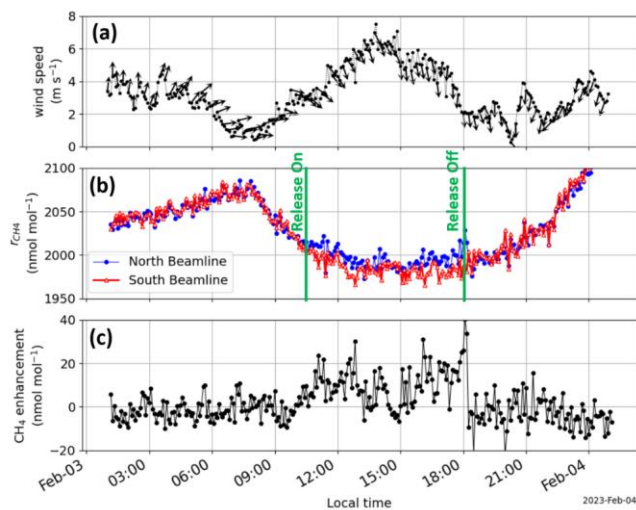
where  $F$  is the flux,  $\sigma_F$  is flux error,  $\sigma_{r_d}^2$  is downwind (background) dry mole fraction error,  $\sigma_{r_u}^2$  is upwind dry mole fraction,  $\text{cov}(d, u)$  is the covariance of the downwind and upwind errors. A covariance term was added to the quadrature error following previous studies (Bai et al., 2022; Herman et al., 2021) to account for small correlations in the different path errors. The errors in the dry mole fractions ( $\sigma_{r_d}^2$  and  $\sigma_{r_u}^2$ ) and the covariance were determined from the recorded 5 min measured SNR assuming that the mole fraction error is inversely proportional to the SNR. The fractional uncertainty ignores errors due to measurement deadtime, wind field measurements and IDM inherent uncertainties (Flesch et al., 2004). Typical values fractional uncertainty in the flux varies from 20 to 30%.

### 73.2 Results from controlled CH<sub>4</sub> release measurements

Data from a CH<sub>4</sub> release at a rate of 3078 g day<sup>-1</sup> equivalent to 15 head of grazing cattle is shown in Fig. 5. The wind speed showed high variability reaching with minimum and maximum values equal to 0.7 and 7.6 m/s, respectively (Fig. 5a). CH<sub>4</sub> mole fraction was measured at 5-min intervals for the North and South laser beamlines as seen in Fig. 4. The CH<sub>4</sub> gas release started at 10:30 and ended at 18:00 on 04 Feb 2023. The enhancement is given by  $r_d - r_u$  (Fig. 5c). The small  $10 \text{ nmol mol}^{-1}$  average enhancement can be seen fluctuating around a  $2026 \text{ nmol mol}^{-1}$  average background concentration. However, the wind speed affected the DCS ability to measure these small concentration enhancements by diluting the methane plume as can be

Formatted: Heading 2

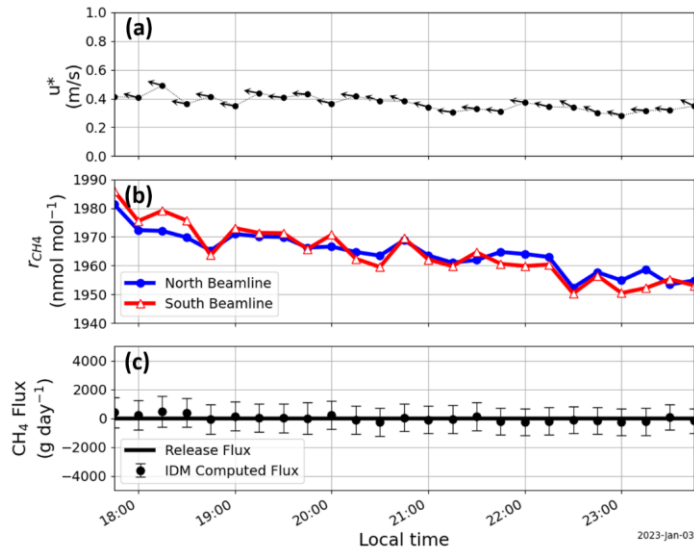
seen when the wind speed values were high during the afternoon of 04-Feb-2023. The two-path DCS measurement was also capable of capturing the temporal dynamics of the CH<sub>4</sub> background driven by changes in atmospheric boundary layer conditions.



285

**Figure 5: 5-min values of (a) wind speed and direction, (b) dry CH<sub>4</sub> mole fraction ( $r_{\text{CH}_4}$ ), and (c) enhancement during a controlled CH<sub>4</sub> release of 3078 g d<sup>-1</sup> equivalent to 15 head of cattle assuming a CH<sub>4</sub> rate of 208 g head<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>. Wind arrows point in the direction from which the wind is blowing. During the release, wind was mostly from the south causing an enhancement on the North Beamline.**

290 We used downwind and upwind DCS concentration measurements for a period with no gas release to determine if any concentration biases exist between the North and South beamlines that may lead to incorrect flux values and to estimate the precision of CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes inferred using DCS and WindTrax. North and south measurements were taken over 6.25 hours with no gas released with the wind from the west (Fig. 6). CH<sub>4</sub> dry mole fraction and WindTrax were used to compute an average CH<sub>4</sub> flux of 1.3 g day<sup>-1</sup> and standard deviation of  $\pm 217.5$  g day<sup>-1</sup>. This standard deviation value is equivalent to approximately one head of cattle, assuming an emission rate of 200 g head<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>.



295

**Figure 6: Time series of (a) wind friction velocity and direction, (b) dry  $CH_4$  mole fraction ( $r_{CH_4}$ ), and (c) release and IDM computed  $CH_4$  flux a case of no released gas. The error bars are uncertainties due to the DCS measured concentrations calculated using Eq. 2. Wind arrows point in the direction from which the wind is blowing.**

300

To test if the DCS measurement can be used correctly reproduce the release flux rate, a controlled  $CH_4$  release corresponding to  $3970\ g\ day^{-1}$ , which simulates a 19-head cattle herd with emission rate of  $200\ g\ head^{-1}\ day^{-1}$ , was performed where DCS measured concentrations and 3D wind statistics was measured for six hours (Fig. 7). DCS dry mole fractions and wind data for 15-min intervals were then used to estimate  $CH_4$  fluxes using WindTrax. The DCS system was able to detect the small  $24\ nmol\ mol^{-1}$  average enhancement above the  $2041\ nmol\ mol^{-1}$  average background concentration. WindTrax computed average  $CH_4$  flux was  $4002\ g\ day^{-1}$  and the flux uncertainty due to DCS concentration errors (Eq. 2)  $\pm 1498\ g\ day^{-1}$ , showing a good agreement to the actual release  $CH_4$  flux of  $3970\ g\ day^{-1}$ . As a point of comparison Harper *et al.* (2010) summarized the accuracy of IDM in 13 controlled release studies. They expressed the IDM accuracy by a recovered rate, given by  $(F_{IDM}/F_{release}) \times 100$ , finding an average recovery rate of 95% for all the studies. We estimated our recovery rate to be 100.8  $(4002/3970 \times 100)$  using the data shown in Fig. 7a. This is a noteworthy result indicating that the combination of DCS with

310

IDM can produce flux estimates with high accuracy.

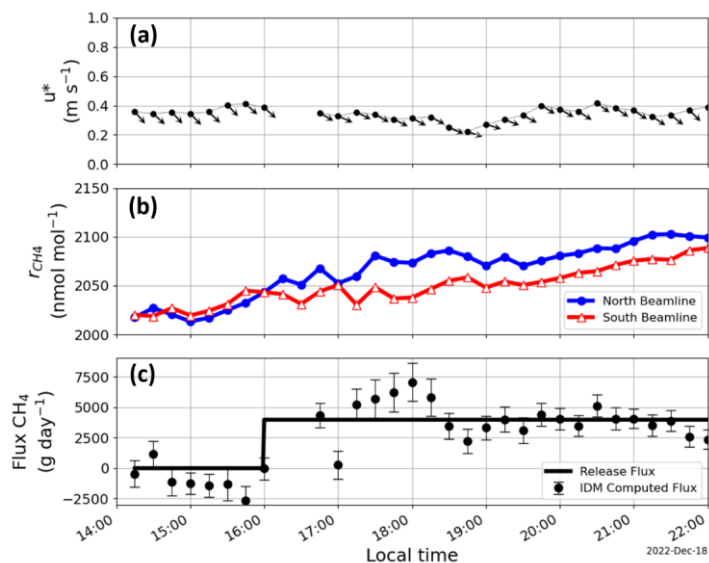


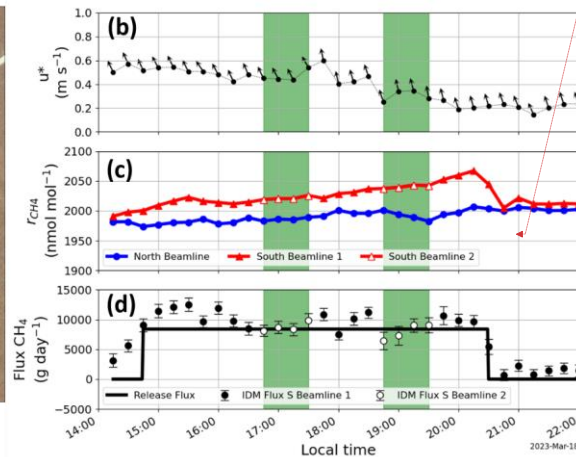
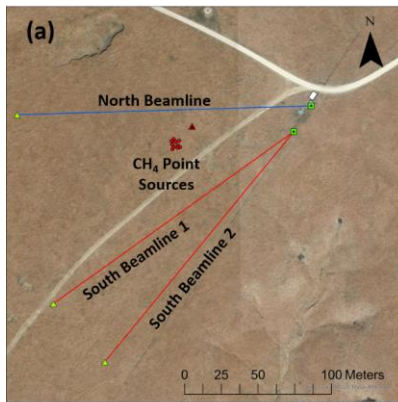
Figure 7: Timeseries of (a) wind friction velocity and direction, (b)  $\text{CH}_4$  dry mole fraction ( $r_{\text{CH}_4}$ ), and (c) release and IDM computed  $\text{CH}_4$  flux for a  $\text{CH}_4$  release of  $3970 \text{ g day}^{-1}$  equivalent to 19 head of cattle. Wind arrows point in the direction from which the wind is blowing.

315

Monitoring grazing cattle emissions in the field will require changing between laser paths to capture emissions from a moving herd. To investigate the effect of the distance between the herd and the beam paths, we alternated between two downwind south paths (Fig. 8). Here a release simulating 40 head was performed where the downwind south path was changed at hour intervals during the release. Figure 8 shows the measured (a) wind conditions, (b)  $\text{CH}_4$  dry mole fraction, (c) release and IDM computed  $\text{CH}_4$  flux. During the measurement, the downwind path altered between south beamline 1 and 2 as a function of time. The good comparison between the measured and calculated flux using both south beamlines demonstrated that altering the beam paths did not adversely impact our ability to determine a flux from the source area.

320

Formatted: Indent: First line: 0.3"



Formatted: Justified, Indent: Left: 0.3", No bullets or numbering

325 **Figure 8:** (a) Layout of the experimental site the Rannells' Flint Hills Prairie Preserve used to alternate between two downwind south paths. Timeseries of (b) wind friction velocity and direction, (c) CH<sub>4</sub> dry mole fraction, interferogram signal-to-noise, (d) release and IDM computed CH<sub>4</sub> flux for a release of 8396 g day<sup>-1</sup>. The red triangle indicated the position of the 3D sonic anemometer. Wind arrows point in the direction from which the wind is blowing. The downwind South Beamline was changed during the release, focused on Retroreflector 2 at times 16:45 to 17:30, 18:45 to 19:30 (indicated by green shaded regions), and at Retroreflector 1 at all other times. Moving between the two downwind paths did not distort the concentration measurement or the computed IDM flux compared to the release rate.

330

#### 94 Future work and conclusions

The agreement between the computed and actual CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes in this study shows that DCS can precisely measure the small CH<sub>4</sub> concentration enhancements due to a herd of beef cattle in the field at distances up to 100 m from the source area. Our ability to measure results show that the DCS precision is limited to the ability to maintain sufficient laser alignment between transceiver and retroreflector. A robust transceiver design and housing, along with a fast response datalogger-controlled gimbal alignment is critical to make continuous measurements under turbulent and varying environmental conditions.

335

In addition to the good precision, other important characteristics of the DCS measurement were highlighted in this study: 1) the use of inexpensive (US\$1.3 per meter) and robust telecommunication-grade fibre optics (SMF28) to transport the light from the DCS to outdoor transceivers over long distances (tens to hundreds of meters) with very low power losses (4.5% loss per km) and 2) its ability to measure multiple open atmospheric laser beamlines simultaneously with a single instrument. From a pure measurement standpoint, using a single instrument to measure gradients of concentration is desirable to eliminate measurement biases. For example, cross calibrations are often necessary when using multiple line average sensors to perform multi-path gas concentration measurements. The minimization of instrument biases is crucial when combining the DCS with

340

existing micrometeorological techniques that utilize of vertical or horizontal gradients of concentration to infer fluxes (Flesch et al., 1995; McGinn and Flesch, 2018a). Expected CH<sub>4</sub> horizontal gradients in grazing systems are often small, as demonstrated in this study, so small instrument biases can lead to large errors when inferring fluxes. Furthermore, the use of a single instrument to measure multiple source areas will also lead to a reduction of the cost necessary to evaluate multiple treatments. This is particularly important when assessing GHG mitigation strategies, which often require evaluation of multiple treatments and management practices simultaneously.

The driving rationale of this work is to quantify the net CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes produced by cattle grazing system, which will require measuring wind velocity and CH<sub>4</sub> concentration enhancements upwind and downwind of the animals over long times. Although soil CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes are expected to be smaller than animal emissions, they could be important for estimating whole-system CH<sub>4</sub> budgets. Separating animal and soil contributions to the net CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes will require a combination of measuring approaches, such as chamber and micrometeorological measurements (*e.g.* eddy covariance measurements). High animal mobility in extensive grazing systems will also pose additional challenges for the quantification of cattle emissions. The ability to track cattle for laser-based greenhouse gas detection is an open and significant problem. Animal tracking using GPS collars (Felber et al., 2015) or digital photographs (Stoy et al., 2021) have been used to track ruminants in grazing systems. Both approaches have their own challenges, GPS collars need to provide high accuracy and temporal resolution spatial data while consuming low power to allow animals to be monitored during an entire grazing season. Wide-angle camera images were used to determine the position of the cattle herd during Summer 2023 with limited success (data not shown), since it was difficult to properly discern animal positions with enough spatial resolution needed for the IDM. Ideally, real-time animal tracking using GPS collars, digital images or a combination of both could be used to improve flux estimate accuracies. This could be done by subdividing the grazing system into small monitoring areas. The area monitored by the DCS system could be selected by aiming the laser beam at different retroreflectors installed at different points of the pasture. By monitoring these small areas, it would be possible to keep the downwind laser beam close to the animals, thus, measuring a larger CH<sub>4</sub> concentration enhancement and reducing the uncertainties in concentration measurements. The ability of DCS to measure gases from a large area continuously will permit monitoring of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from a slow-moving herd of cattle, providing precise CH<sub>4</sub> flux values to improve agricultural GHG inventories and management practices.

#### **105 Author contribution**

I.C., B.D.D, K.C.C, S.M.W., C.B, C.E.O, N.R.N., E.A.S., and B.R.W. conceived of and designed the experiments. E.A.S., D.I.H., N.A.M and B.R.W. built the DCS system. F.R.G and B.R.W wrote DCS data acquisition code. N.A.M and B.R.W. wrote the spectral line fitting code. C.W., L.C.M., E.A.S., and B.R.W. performed the experiments and analysed the data. C.E.O is the manager of the Rannells' Ranch. L.C.M., C. W., K.C.C., E.A.S., and B.R.W. performed the experiments and analyzed



375 the DCS data. C.W. and E.A.S. implemented the inverse dispersion model. B.R.W. and E.A.S. supervised the project. All authors contributed to the writing of this manuscript.

#### **116** Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

#### **127** Data and materials availability

380 Data associated with this paper is publicly available at <https://doi.org/10.18434/mds2-3139> or can be obtained from the authors upon a reasonable request.

#### **138** Acknowledgements

This work was partially funded by the NSF Division of Biological Infrastructure Award #1726304, the William and Joan Porter Endowment, the Habiger Heritage Fund, and NIST.

#### **385** 149 References

Alden, C. B., Coburn, S. C., Wright, R. J., Baumann, E., Cossel, K., Perez, E., Hoenig, E., Prasad, K., Coddington, I., and Rieker, G. B.: Single-Blind Quantification of Natural Gas Leaks from 1 km Distance Using Frequency Combs, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 53, 2908–2917, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.8b06259>, 2019.

390 Alemu, A. W., Janzen, H., Little, S., Hao, X., Thompson, D. J., Baron, V., Iwaasa, A., Beauchemin, K. A., and Kröbel, R.: Assessment of grazing management on farm greenhouse gas intensity of beef production systems in the Canadian Prairies using life cycle assessment, *Agricultural Systems*, 158, 1–13, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agsy.2017.08.003>, 2017.

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., and Chen, D.: Performance of open-path lasers and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopic systems in agriculture emissions research, *Atmospheric Measurement Techniques*, 15, 3593–3610, <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-15-3593-2022>, 2022.

395 Coates, T. W., Flesch, T. K., McGinn, S. M., Charmley, E., and Chen, D.: Evaluating an eddy covariance technique to estimate point-source emissions and its potential application to grazing cattle, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 234, 164–171, 2017.

400 Coburn, S., Alden, C. B., Wright, R., Cossel, K., Baumann, E., Truong, G.-W., Giorgetta, F., Sweeney, C., Newbury, N. R., Prasad, K., Coddington, I., and Rieker, G. B.: Regional trace-gas source attribution using a field-deployed dual frequency comb spectrometer, *Optica*, 5, 320–327, <https://doi.org/10.1364/OPTICA.5.000320>, 2018.

Coddington, I., Newbury, N., and Swann, W.: Dual-comb spectroscopy, *Optica*, 3, 414–426, <https://doi.org/10.1364/OPTICA.3.000414>, 2016.

- 405 Cole, R. K., Makowiecki, A. S., Hoghooghi, N., and Rieker, G. B.: Baseline-free quantitative absorption spectroscopy based on cepstral analysis, *Opt. Express*, 27, 37920, <https://doi.org/10.1364/OE.27.037920>, 2019.
- Crenna, B.: An introduction to WindTrax, University of Alberta, 2006, <http://thunderbeachscientific.com/downloads/introduction.pdf>.
- Danielsson, R., Ramin, M., Bertilsson, J., Lund, P., and Huhtanen, P.: Evaluation of a gas in vitro system for predicting methane production in vivo, *Journal of dairy science*, 100, 8881–8894, 2017.
- 410 Dengel, S., Levy, P. E., Grace, J., Jones, S. K., and Skiba, U. M.: Methane emissions from sheep pasture, measured with an open-path eddy covariance system, *Global Change Biology*, 17, 3524–3533, <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2486.2011.02466.x>, 2011.
- Eggleston, S., Buendia, L., Miwa, K., Mgara, T., and Tanabe, K.: Emissions from Livestock and Manure Management, in: 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories, vol. 4, Institute for Global Environmental Strategies, 2006.
- 415 EPA: Inventory of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions and sinks:1990-2021., 2023.
- Felber, R., Münger, A., Neftel, A., and Ammann, C.: Eddy covariance methane flux measurements over a grazed pasture: effect of cows as moving point sources, *Biogeosciences*, 12, 3925–3940, <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-12-3925-2015>, 2015.
- Flesch, T., Wilson, J., Harper, L., and Crenna, B.: Estimating gas emissions from a farm with an inverse-dispersion technique, *Atmospheric Environment*, 39, 4863–4874, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2005.04.032>, 2005.
- 420 Flesch, T. K., Wilson, J. D., and Yee, E.: Backward-time Lagrangian stochastic dispersion models and their application to estimate gaseous emissions, *Journal of Applied Meteorology and Climatology*, 34, 1320–1332, 1995.
- Flesch, T. K., Wilson, J. D., Harper, L. A., Crenna, B. P., and Sharpe, R. R.: Deducing Ground-to-Air Emissions from Observed Trace Gas Concentrations: A Field Trial, *JOURNAL OF APPLIED METEOROLOGY*, 43, 16, 2004.
- 425 Flesch, T. K., Basarab, J. A., Baron, V. S., Wilson, J. D., Hu, N., Tomkins, N. W., and Ohama, A. J.: Methane emissions from cattle grazing under diverse conditions: An examination of field configurations appropriate for line-averaging sensors, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 258, 8–17, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2017.10.012>, 2018.
- Gordon, I. E., Rothman, L. S., Hill, C., Kochanov, R. V., Tan, Y., Bernath, P. F., Birk, M., Boudon, V., Campargue, A., Chance, K. V., Drouin, B. J., Flaud, J.-M., Gamache, R. R., Hodges, J. T., Jacquemart, D., Perevalov, V. I., Perrin, A., Shine, K. P., Smith, M.-A. H., Tennyson, J., Toon, G. C., Tran, H., Tyuterev, V. G., Barbe, A., Császár, A. G., Devi, V. M., 430 Furtenbacher, T., Harrison, J. J., Hartmann, J.-M., Jolly, A., Johnson, T. J., Karman, T., Kleiner, I., Kyuberis, A. A., Loos, J., Lyulin, O. M., Massie, S. T., Mikhailenko, S. N., Moazzen-Ahmadi, N., Müller, H. S. P., Naumenko, O. V., Nikitin, A. V., Polyansky, O. L., Rey, M., Rotger, M., Sharpe, S. W., Sung, K., Starikova, E., Tashkun, S. A., Auwera, J. V., Wagner, G., Wilzewski, J., Wcislo, P., Yu, S., and Zak, E. J.: The HITRAN2016 molecular spectroscopic database, *Journal of Quantitative Spectroscopy and Radiative Transfer*, 203, 3–69, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jqsrt.2017.06.038>, 2017.
- 435 Grainger, C., Clarke, T., McGinn, S. M., Auld, M. J., Beauchemin, K. A., Hannah, M. C., Waghorn, G. C., Clark, H., and Eckard, R. J.: Methane emissions from dairy cows measured using the sulfur hexafluoride (SF<sub>6</sub>) tracer and chamber techniques, *Journal of Dairy Science*, 90, 2755–2766, <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2006-697>, 2007.
- Griffiths, P. and de Haseth, J.: *Fourier Transform Infrared Spectrometry*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc, 2006.

Formatted: Left

- 440 Harper, L. A., Flesch, T. K., Weaver, K. H., and Wilson, J. D.: The Effect of Biofuel Production on Swine Farm Methane and Ammonia Emissions, *J of Env Quality*, 39, 1984–1992, <https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq2010.0172>, 2010.
- Herman, D. I., Weerasekara, C., Hutcherson, L. C., Giorgetta, F. R., Cossel, K. C., Waxman, E. M., Colacion, G. M., Newbury, N. R., Welch, S. M., DePaola, B. D., Coddington, I., Santos, E. A., and Washburn, B. R.: Precise multispecies agricultural gas flux determined using broadband open-path dual-comb spectroscopy, *Sci Adv*, 7, eabe9765, <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.abe9765>, 2021.
- 445 Hill, J., McSweeney, C., Wright, A.-D. G., Bishop-Hurley, G., and Kalantar-zadeh, K.: Measuring methane production from ruminants, *Trends in biotechnology*, 34, 26–35, 2016.
- Hristov, A. N., Oh, J., Giallongo, F., Frederick, T., Weeks, H., Zimmerman, P. R., Harper, M. T., Hristova, R. A., Zimmerman, R. S., and Branco, A. F.: The Use of an Automated System (GreenFeed) to Monitor Enteric Methane and Carbon Dioxide Emissions from Ruminant Animals, *JoVE*, 52904, <https://doi.org/10.3791/52904>, 2015.
- 450 Johnson, K., Huyler, M., Westberg, H., Lamb, B., and Zimmerman, P.: Measurement of methane emissions from ruminant livestock using a sulfur hexafluoride tracer technique, *Environmental science & technology*, 28, 359–362, 1994.
- Kochanov, R. V., Gordon, I. E., Rothman, L. S., Weislo, P., Hill, C., and Wilzewski, J. S.: HITRAN Application Programming Interface (HAPI): A comprehensive approach to working with spectroscopic data, *Journal of Quantitative Spectroscopy and Radiative Transfer*, 177, 15–30, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jqsrt.2016.03.005>, 2016.
- 455 Laubach, J. and Kelliher, F. M.: Methane emissions from dairy cows: Comparing open-path laser measurements to profile-based techniques, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 135, 340–345, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2005.11.014>, 2005.
- Laubach, J., Barthel, M., Fraser, A., Hunt, J. E., and Griffith, D. W. T.: Combining two complementary micrometeorological methods to measure CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes over pasture, *Biogeosciences*, 13, 1309–1327, <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-13-1309-2016>, 2016.
- 460 Laubach, J., Flesch, T. K., Ammann, C., Bai, M., Gao, Z., Merbold, L., Campbell, D. I., Goodrich, J. P., Graham, S. L., Hunt, J. E., Wall, A. M., and Schipper, L. A.: Methane emissions from animal agriculture: Micrometeorological solutions for challenging measurement situations, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 350, 109971, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2024.109971>, 2024.
- 465 Lockyer, D. and Jarvis, S.: The measurement of methane losses from grazing animals, *Environmental Pollution*, 90, 383–390, 1995.
- Malarich, N. A., Cossel, K. C., Deschenes, J.-D., Giorgetta, F. R., Washburn, B. R., Newbury, N. R., Genest, J., and Coddington, I.: Removing biases in dual frequency comb spectroscopy due to digitizer nonlinearity, *Opt. Express*, 31, 29074, <https://doi.org/10.1364/OE.497497>, 2023.
- 470 McGinn, S. and Flesch, T.: A Technique for Estimating Greenhouse Gas Exchange Adjacent Cattle Feedlots, *Atmosphere*, 9, 139, <https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos9040139>, 2018a.
- McGinn, S. M.: Developments in micrometeorological methods for methane measurements, *animal*, 7, 386–393, <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1751731113000657>, 2013.
- McGinn, S. M. and Flesch, T. K.: Ammonia and greenhouse gas emissions at beef cattle feedlots in Alberta Canada, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 258, 43–49, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2018.01.024>, 2018b.

- 475 McGinn, S. M., Turner, D., Tomkins, N., Charmley, E., Bishop-Hurley, G., and Chen, D.: Methane Emissions from Grazing Cattle Using Point-Source Dispersion, *J. Environ. Qual.*, 40, 22–27, <https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq2010.0239>, 2011.
- Newville, M., Stensitzki, T., Allen, D., and Ingargiola, A.: LMFIT: Non-Linear Least-Square Minimization and Curve-Fitting for Python, 2014 <https://dx.doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.11813>.
- 480 Phillips, F., Leuning, R., Baigent, R., Kelly, K., and Denmead, O.: Nitrous oxide flux measurements from an intensively managed irrigated pasture using micrometeorological techniques, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 143, 92–105, 2007.
- Pinares-Patiño, C., Lassez, K., Martin, R., Molano, G., Fernandez, M., MacLean, S., Sandoval, E., Luo, D., and Clark, H.: Assessment of the sulphur hexafluoride (SF6) tracer technique using respiration chambers for estimation of methane emissions from sheep, *Animal feed science and technology*, 166, 201–209, 2011.
- 485 Place, S. E., Pan, Y., Zhao, Y., and Mitloehner, F. M.: Construction and operation of a ventilated hood system for measuring greenhouse gas and volatile organic compound emissions from cattle, *Animals*, 1, 433–446, 2011.
- Prajapati, P. and Santos, E. A.: Comparing methane emissions estimated using a backward-Lagrangian stochastic model and the eddy covariance technique in a beef cattle feedlot, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 256–257, 482–491, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2018.04.003>, 2018a.
- 490 Prajapati, P. and Santos, E. A.: Estimating methane emissions from beef cattle in a feedlot using the eddy covariance technique and footprint analysis, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 258, 18–28, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2017.08.004>, 2018b.
- Ramin, M. and Huhtanen, P.: Development of equations for predicting methane emissions from ruminants, *Journal of Dairy Science*, 96, 2476–2493, 2013.
- 495 Rothman, L. S., Gordon, I. E., Barbe, A., Benner, D. C., Bernath, P. E., Birk, M., Boudon, V., Brown, L. R., Campargue, A., Champion, J. P., Chance, K., Coudert, L. H., Dana, V., Devi, V. M., Fally, S., Flaud, J. M., Gamache, R. R., Goldman, A., Jacquemart, D., Kleiner, I., Lacombe, N., Lafferty, W. J., Mandin, J. Y., Massie, S. T., Mikhailenko, S. N., Miller, C. E., Moazzen-Ahmadi, N., Naumenko, O. V., Nikitin, A. V., Orphal, J., Perevalov, V. I., Perrin, A., Predoi-Cross, A., Rinsland, C. P., Rotger, M., Simeckova, M., Smith, M. A. H., Sung, K., Tashkun, S. A., Tennyson, J., Toth, R. A., Vandaele, A. C., and Vander Auwera, J.: The HITRAN 2008 molecular spectroscopic database, *J. Quant. Spectrosc. Radiat. Transfer*, 110, 533–572, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jqsrt.2009.02.013>, 2009.
- 500 Rothman, L. S., Gordon, I. E., Babikov, Y., Barbe, A., Chris Benner, D., Bernath, P. F., Birk, M., Bizzocchi, L., Boudon, V., Brown, L. R., Campargue, A., Chance, K., Cohen, E. A., Coudert, L. H., Devi, V. M., Drouin, B. J., Fayt, A., Flaud, J.-M., Gamache, R. R., Harrison, J. J., Hartmann, J.-M., Hill, C., Hodges, J. T., Jacquemart, D., Jolly, A., Lamouroux, J., Le Roy, R. J., Li, G., Long, D. A., Lyulin, O. M., Mackie, C. J., Massie, S. T., Mikhailenko, S., Müller, H. S. P., Naumenko, O. V., Nikitin, A. V., Orphal, J., Perevalov, V., Perrin, A., Polovtseva, E. R., Richard, C., Smith, M. A. H., Starikova, E., Sung, K., Tashkun, S., Tennyson, J., Toon, G. C., Tyuterev, V. I., and Wagner, G.: The HITRAN 2012 molecular spectroscopic database, *J. Quant. Spectrosc. Radiat. Transfer*, 130, 4–50, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jqsrt.2013.07.002>, 2013.
- 505 Rotz, C. A., Asem-Hiablie, S., Dillon, J., and Bonifacio, H.: Cradle-to-farm gate environmental footprints of beef cattle production in Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas, *Journal of Animal Science*, 93, 2509–2519, <https://doi.org/10.2527/jas.2014-8809>, 2015.
- 510 Sinclair, L. C., Deschênes, J.-D., Sonderhouse, L., Swann, W. C., Khader, I. H., Baumann, E., Newbury, N. R., and Coddington, I.: Invited Article: A compact optically coherent fiber frequency comb, *Review of Scientific Instruments*, 86, 081301, <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.4928163>, 2015.

- 515 Smith, E. F. and Owensby, C. E.: Intensive-Early Stocking and Season-Long Stocking of Kansas Flint Hills Range, *Journal of Range Management*, 31, 14, <https://doi.org/10.2307/3897624>, 1978.
- Storm, I. M. L. D., Hellwing, A. L. F., Nielsen, N. I., and Madsen, J.: Methods for measuring and estimating methane emission from ruminants, *Animals*, 2, 160–183, <https://doi.org/10.3390/ani2020160>, 2012.
- Stoy, P. C., Cook, A. A., Dore, J. E., Kljun, N., Kleindl, W., Brookshire, E. N. J., and Gerken, T.: Methane efflux from an American bison herd, *Biogeosciences*, 18, 961–975, <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-18-961-2021>, 2021.
- 520 Sun, K., Tao, L., Miller, D. J., Zondlo, M. A., Shonkwiler, K. B., Nash, C., and Ham, J. M.: Open-path eddy covariance measurements of ammonia fluxes from a beef cattle feedlot, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 213, 193–202, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2015.06.007>, 2015.
- Thompson, L. R. and Rowntree, J. E.: Invited Review: Methane sources, quantification, and mitigation in grazing beef systems, *Applied Animal Science*, 36, 556–573, <https://doi.org/10.15232/aas.2019-01951>, 2020.
- 525 Todd, R. W., Altman, M. B., Cole, N. A., and Waldrip, H. M.: Methane Emissions from a Beef Cattle Feedyard during Winter and Summer on the Southern High Plains of Texas, *Journal of Environmental Quality*, 43, 1125–1130, <https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq2013.09.0386>, 2014.
- Truong, G.-W., Waxman, E. M., Cossel, K. C., Baumann, E., Klose, A., Giorgetta, F. R., Swann, W. C., Newbury, N. R., and Coddington, I.: Accurate frequency referencing for fieldable dual-comb spectroscopy, *Optics Express*, 24, 30495–30504, <https://doi.org/10.1364/OE.24.030495>, 2016.
- 530 Werle, P.: Accuracy and precision of laser spectrometers for trace gas sensing in the presence of optical fringes and atmospheric turbulence, *Appl. Phys. B*, 102, 313–329, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00340-010-4165-9>, 2011.

535