

1 Ammonia and methane dairy emission plumes in the
2 San Joaquin Valley of California from individual
3 feedlot to regional scales

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4 **Abstract.** Agricultural ammonia (NH_3) emissions are highly uncertain,
5 with high spatio-temporal variability and a lack of widespread in-situ mea-

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6 surements. Regional NH_3 emission estimates with mass-balance or emission
7 ratio approaches are uncertain due to variable NH_3 sources and sinks as well
8 as unknown plume correlations with other dairy source tracers. We charac-
9 terize the spatial distributions of NH_3 and methane (CH_4) dairy plumes us-
10 ing in-situ surface and airborne measurements in the Tulare dairy feedlot re-
11 gion of the San Joaquin Valley, California during the NASA DISCOVER-
12 AQ 2013 field campaign. *Surface NH_3 and CH_4 mixing ratios exhibit*
13 *large variability with maxima localized downwind of individual dairy*
14 *feedlots. The geometric mean $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ enhancement ratio derived*
15 *from surface measurements is 0.15 ± 0.03 ppmv ppmv⁻¹. Individ-*
16 *ual dairy feedlots with spatially distinct NH_3 and CH_4 source path-*
17 *ways led to statistically significant correlations between NH_3 and*
18 *CH_4 in only 68% of the 69 downwind plumes sampled. At longer*
19 *sampling distances, $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ enhancement ratio decreases of at*
20 *least 20-30% suggest the potential for NH_3 deposition as a loss term*
21 *for plumes within a few kilometers downwind of feedlots.* Aircraft
22 boundary layer transect measurements directly above surface mobile mea-
23 surements in the dairy region show comparable gradients and geometric mean
24 enhancement ratios within measurement uncertainties, even when including
25 NH_3 partitioning to sub-micron particles. Individual NH_3 and CH_4 plumes
26 sampled at close proximity where losses are minimal are not necessarily cor-
27 related due to lack of mixing and distinct source pathways. Our analyses have
28 important implications for constraining NH_3 sink and plume variability in-

29 fluences on regional NH_3 emission estimates and for improving NH_3 emis-
30 sion inventory spatial allocations.

1. Introduction

31 Atmospheric ammonia (NH_3) is a gas-phase precursor to fine particulate matter ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$),
32 contributing to new particle formation and inorganic ammoniated aerosol growth [*Aneja*
33 *et al.*, 2008; *Pinder et al.*, 2008; *Benson et al.*, 2011]. Anthropogenic NH_3 emissions are
34 increasing predominantly due to agricultural intensification and have important implica-
35 tions for air quality, radiative forcing, and nitrogen deposition to ecosystems downwind of
36 NH_3 source regions [*Galloway et al.*, 2003; *Fenn et al.*, 2010; *IPCC et al.*, 2013]. The San
37 Joaquin Valley (SJV) of California is a region of significant NH_3 emissions due to concen-
38 trated animal feeding operations (CAFOs), including dairy feedlots in Tulare County (to-
39 tal $\sim 500,000$ dairy cows), the most productive dairy region in the United States [*CDFCA*,
40 2013]. Excess NH_3 downwind of these sources leads to ammonium nitrate (NH_4NO_3)
41 aerosol formation, which dominates $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass composition in SJV and contributes to
42 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations routinely exceeding the U.S. EPA National Ambient Air Quality
43 Standards (NAAQS), especially during stagnant winter conditions [*Watson and Chow*,
44 2002; *Neuman et al.*, 2003; *SJVAQPCD*, 2012].

45 Agricultural NH_3 emission source magnitudes and distributions are highly variable and
46 subject to large uncertainties [*Aneja et al.*, 2008; *Beusen et al.*, 2008; *Reis et al.*, 2009;
47 *Sutton et al.*, 2013]. Chemical transport model simulations significantly underestimate
48 gas-phase NH_3 concentrations in SJV compared with satellite and aircraft observations
49 [*Walker et al.*, 2012; *Heald et al.*, 2012; *Kelly et al.*, 2014; *Schiferl et al.*, 2014]. These
50 discrepancies have been linked to NH_3 emission inventory under-estimations and their
51 inability to accurately capture the spatial distributions and temporal trends of feedlot

emissions [Kelly et al., 2014; Schiferl et al., 2014]. Dairy feedlot NH₃ emissions predom-
inantly originate from volatilization of ammonium (NH₄⁺) produced by urea hydrolysis
in urine and manure deposited onto feedlot surfaces and vary with surface temperatures,
wind, soil properties and agricultural practices including dairy housing, feeding methods
and manure management [Beusen et al., 2008; Hristov et al., 2011]. These emission con-
trols vary considerably in space and time, challenging **process-based** emission modeling
approaches [Pinder et al., 2004; Li et al., 2012]. Gas-phase NH₃ also has a short tropo-
spheric lifetime of a few hours to a few days due to aerosol and depositional sinks that
vary with ambient temperature, relative humidity, aerosol composition and atmospheric
mixing conditions, complicating the interpretation of NH₃ measurements far downwind
of sources [Dragosits et al., 2002; Dennis et al., 2010; Xu and Penner, 2012]. **Previous
studies modeling NH₃ dry deposition have shown a range of values for the
percent of emissions lost via deposition at distances downwind. These in-
clude ~40% loss within 230 m downwind [Hensen et al., 2009], 10.4% loss
over the nearest 500 m from the source [Walker et al., 2008] and ~8-15% dry
deposited within a 12 km grid cell in an agricultural region [Dennis et al.,
2010]. Dry deposition fluxes are expected to vary across heterogeneous land-
scapes in agricultural regions and are potentially influenced by bi-directional
NH₃ exchange with adjacent cropland or soil surfaces [Bash et al., 2010].**

Ammonia emissions from individual cattle and dairy feedlots have been measured with
a variety of in-situ techniques, but these measurements are relatively scarce and limited
in characterizing regional emission distributions [Hristov et al., 2011]. There are no rou-
tine or widespread NH₃ monitoring networks in SJV [Clarisse et al., 2010] where only

one study has been reported on a single open-lot dairy feedlot [Cassel *et al.*, 2005]. In other regions, flux chambers have been used to quantify emissions at discrete locations within feedlots but have insufficient spatial coverage for sampling spatial heterogeneities on a regional scale [Mukhtar *et al.*, 2008]. Micro-meteorological techniques using point and integrated measurements, including flux gradient [Griffith and Galle, 2000; Cassel *et al.*, 2005], relaxed eddy accumulation [Baum and Ham, 2009], eddy covariance flux [Whitehead *et al.*, 2008; Ferrara *et al.*, 2012; Sun *et al.*, *accepted*, 2015] and inverse dispersion methods [Flesch *et al.*, 2007; Griffith *et al.*, 2008; Bjorneberg *et al.*, 2009; Leytem *et al.*, 2011, 2013] have been implemented to quantify feedlot NH₃ emissions from daily to seasonal timescales and contributions from different feedlot sections. However, these flux measurements generally do not cover the spatial footprint of many feedlots in an agricultural region, assume flux and wind homogeneities across feedlot sections, and relatively few eddy covariance NH₃ flux measurements have been attempted due to closed-path instrument artifacts that limit response times [Whitehead *et al.*, 2008; Sintermann *et al.*, 2011]. The emission factors derived from these stationary measurements may not be representative of regionally variable NH₃ emissions [Cassel *et al.*, 2005; Hristov *et al.*, 2011]. Mobile measurements with vehicular platforms offer advantages for regional scale emission mapping that expands the spatial coverage of in-situ observations [Kolb *et al.*, 2004; Brantley *et al.*, 2014; Tao *et al.*, 2015]. Recent mobile laboratory observations have quantified emission ratios and apportioned emissions in mixed source regions [Wang *et al.*, 2011; Pétron *et al.*, 2012; Farrell *et al.*, 2013; Sun *et al.*, 2014]. However, previous agricultural plume mobile measurements have been isolated in scope to a single farm or

97 a two-day survey using a closed-path NH_3 analyzer with limited response time [*Hensen*
98 *et al.*, 2006, 2009; *Day et al.*, 2012].

99 Regional scale NH_3 observations offer the potential for characterizing spatio-temporal
100 emission distributions. Satellite NH_3 retrievals, which provide much larger spatial cover-
101 age than ground-based observations [*Clarisse et al.*, 2009; *Van Damme et al.*, 2014], have
102 captured surface NH_3 hotspots and regional gradients comparable to in-situ measurements
103 in the SJV at inter-pixel scale [*Clarisse et al.*, 2010; *Shephard and Cady-Pereira*, 2014;
104 *Sun et al.*, 2015], have been compared with models [*Heald et al.*, 2012] and applied for
105 inverse modeling studies constraining U.S. NH_3 emissions [*Zhu et al.*, 2013]. However,
106 satellite NH_3 retrievals are not capable of resolving sub-pixel (single kilometer scale) NH_3
107 gradients expected for feedlot regions and are limited for detecting diurnal variability with
108 twice daily snapshots for a given location [*Clarisse et al.*, 2010]. Airborne observations
109 are advantageous for boundary layer sampling of NH_3 emission plume distributions rela-
110 tively close to sources at <1 km spatial resolution [*Nowak et al.*, 2012; *Kelly et al.*, 2014].
111 Top-down aircraft-based mass balance approaches have been used to estimate regional
112 agricultural emissions of NH_3 [*Nowak et al.*, 2012] and methane (CH_4) [*Wratt et al.*,
113 2001; *Peischl et al.*, 2012]. However, these flux estimates are limited to optimal wind
114 and boundary-layer condition periods during limited duration field campaigns [*Cambaliza*
115 *et al.*, 2014] and cannot easily apportion mixed sources within the sampling domain. It is
116 unclear if basin-wide measurements significantly downwind of individual sources are rep-
117 resentative of NH_3 emissions with rapid (minutes to hours) and spatially heterogeneous
118 depositional and aerosol NH_3 sinks. Emission ratio approaches are potentially advanta-
119 geous for quantifying regional agricultural emission signatures relative to other tracers

120 [*Gentner et al.*, 2014]. However, NH_3 emission plume correlations with respect to other
121 emission tracers originating from spatially heterogeneous, distinct source pathways on
122 feedlots have not been investigated. It is currently unknown the extent to which regional
123 observations of NH_3 and other feedlot source tracers can accurately represent agricultural
124 NH_3 emission distributions in regions with spatially heterogeneous NH_3 sources and sinks.
125 No previous studies have investigated agricultural NH_3 emission plume variability with
126 extensive spatial coverage measurements capable of resolving individual feedlot scales.

127 To address these uncertainties, we characterize the spatial distributions of dairy emission
128 plumes in Tulare County from individual feedlot to regional scales with high resolution,
129 surface mobile trace gas measurements during the NASA DISCOVER-AQ California field
130 campaign. We evaluate the statistical significance of linear correlations between NH_3 and
131 CH_4 and characterize spatial emission heterogeneities within a dairy feedlot. We quantify
132 the distributions of NH_3 and CH_4 enhancement ratios in 69 dairy feedlot plumes. We com-
133 pare regional and individual surface plume gradients and enhancement ratios using aircraft
134 and surface mobile observations over similar spatial and temporal domains. Our high res-
135 olution, individual emission plume observations have implications for improving regional
136 scale agricultural NH_3 emission estimates with respect to spatially heterogeneous NH_3
137 losses in the near field region and spatially distinct agricultural tracer emission plumes,
138 as well as improving spatial allocations of feedlot sources in NH_3 emission inventories.

2. Methodology

2.1. Mobile platform measurements

139 Mobile measurements of NH_3 , CH_4 , carbon dioxide (CO_2), nitrous oxide (N_2O), car-
140 bon monoxide (CO) and water vapor (H_2O) were performed with four open-path sensors

141 mounted on a typical sedan passenger car (Chevy Impala). This mobile platform is de-
142 scribed in detail by *Tao et al.* [2015] and has been used for on-road vehicle emission
143 measurements [*Sun et al.*, 2014]; we briefly describe the platform here. The mobile plat-
144 form sensor specifications are shown in Table 1. Ammonia, N₂O and CO were measured
145 with two open-path, quantum cascade laser-based sensors employing wavelength modu-
146 lation absorption spectroscopy (WMS) at 9.06 μm and 4.54 μm respectively [*Tao et al.*,
147 2012; *Miller et al.*, 2014]. Commercial, open-path analyzers were used for CH₄ (LICOR
148 LI-7700) [*McDermitt et al.*, 2011] and CO₂ (LICOR LI-7500 CO₂/H₂O) measurements.
149 Meteorological parameters (temperature, pressure, relative humidity) were measured with
150 a portable weather station (Vaisala WXT520). Geolocation, vehicle speed, and driving
151 direction were recorded with a GPS unit (GlobalSat EM-406a). Off-line NH₃ calibration
152 was also performed between field measurements based on direct absorption spectroscopy
153 described by *Miller et al.* [2014]. ***A typical calibration curve up to 5 ppmv NH₃***
154 ***for the present dataset is shown in Figure 4 of Miller et al. [2014], includ-***
155 ***ing third-order polynomial fitting for retrievals that do not scale linearly***
156 ***above 100 ppbv NH₃. The calibration curves obtained throughout the mobile***
157 ***platform field campaign generally vary within $\pm 10\%$ [Tao et al., 2015].*** An
158 in-line ethylene reference cell signal was probed continuously to account for NH₃ sensor
159 drift and provided real-time calibration to within $\pm 20\%$ accuracy for NH₃ [*Sun et al.*,
160 2013]. Although off-line calibration improved the accuracy to $\pm 10\%$, the field data are
161 reported with $\pm 20\%$ uncertainty to account for drift between off-line calibrations. Ni-
162 trous oxide and CO measurements were calibrated similarly using direct absorption and
163 a NOAA GMD standard (325.81 ppbv N₂O with 1 σ of 0.15 ppbv N₂O; 138.5 ppbv CO

164 $\pm 0.7\%$). Since the $\text{N}_2\text{O}/\text{CO}$ sensor was not operating at the optimal performance level
165 during these measurements, we report data with accuracies of ~ 3 ppbv N_2O and ~ 5 ppbv
166 CO . Methane measurements were calibrated with a NOAA GMD calibration standard
167 (1872.4 ± 0.3 ppbv CH_4 , 3 ppbv uncertainty). Data with insufficient light intensity signals
168 due to rain, dust or insects in the optical path or deposited on the optical cell mirrors were
169 removed (signal intensities below 0.05 V DC (NH_3) and 15% of maximum light intensity
170 (CH_4)). *The 0.05 VDC cutoff ($\sim 10\%$ of the maximum light intensity values)*
171 *is applied across the entire dataset and is independent of absolute mixing*
172 *ratio values. The WMS detection method intrinsically normalizes for small*
173 *changes in detector signal strength due to alignment that do not correlate*
174 *with retrieved mixing ratios. However, below the cutoff, the precision starts*
175 *to degrade significantly (e.g. an order of magnitude worse precision at 0.01*
176 *VDC).* Number densities were corrected for H_2O dilution with H_2O , temperature and
177 pressure measurements to obtain the dry mixing ratios of all species. Raw mixing ratio
178 measurements (0.2 s data) were averaged to 1 s data synchronized to the GPS time stamp.
179 These 1 s time series were synchronized with each other to within 1 s using the cross-
180 correlation method [Choi et al., 2012]. The open-path sensors recorded simultaneous,
181 collocated measurements of these trace gases with fast response times (< 1 s), allowing
182 us to derive enhancement ratios (section 2.3).

183 2.1.1. Mobile sampling domain

184 The analyses in this study are based on ground-based mobile measurements performed
185 in Tulare and Kings Counties, California from 28 January to 1 February 2013. The
186 mobile measurement routes in the San Joaquin Valley are shown in Figure 1. Other field

187 campaign measurement days focused on regions outside the San Joaquin Valley and are
188 not discussed here. Daily measurement durations and conditions are listed in Table 2.
189 The total on-road sampling time in SJV was 31 hours, 19 minutes over a total driving
190 distance of 1053 km. For typical driving speeds of 40-110 km h⁻¹, the spatial resolution
191 of the 1 s mobile measurements is \sim 10-30 m. *The NH₃ and CH₄ measurements*
192 *retained for the analyses as a percent of all mobile platform data range from*
193 *36-86% depending on the sampling day (Table 2) and are generally limited*
194 *by NH₃ data coverage.* For the agricultural emission analyses, CO enhancements
195 above background exceeding 500 ppbv were used as the criteria to remove measurements
196 potentially contaminated by combustion-related NH₃ or CH₄ sources, including from our
197 own or nearby vehicles.

2.2. Aircraft measurements

198 The NASA Deriving Information on Surface conditions from Column and Vertically
199 Resolved Observations Relevant to Air Quality (DISCOVER-AQ) field campaign took
200 place in the San Joaquin Valley of California during winter 2013 [NASA, 2013]. Airborne
201 transects, missed approaches and spirals were conducted by the NASA P3-B aircraft in the
202 Tulare County region during this campaign. Gas-phase NH₃ was measured with a cavity
203 ringdown spectrometer (Picarro G2103) with mixing ratios reported every three seconds, a
204 response time of 8-20 s (80% fall time from 75 ppbv to 20 ppbv NH₃) and total uncertainty
205 of \pm (35% + 1.1 ppbv) + 0.34 ppbv NH₃ (1 σ precision) [NASA Archive, 2014]. Methane
206 mixing ratios were measured at 1 s time resolution via absorption at 3.3 μ m to within 2
207 ppbv accuracy [Sachse et al., 1991; NASA Archive, 2014]. Based on boundary layer P3-B
208 aircraft speeds, the spatial resolution of these NH₃ and CH₄ measurements is 100-300 m

209 [NASA Archive, 2014]. Condensed phase NH_4^+ mass concentrations were measured with
210 Particle-Into-Liquid Sampler/Ion Chromatography (PILS/IC) with 240 s sampling time
211 within 20% accuracy and sensitivity from 30 nm - 1 μm diameter particles [NASA Archive,
212 2014]. PILS/IC NH_4^+ mass concentrations were converted to mixing ratios using observed
213 temperature and pressure. Data from the NASA LaRC airborne High Spectral Resolution
214 Lidar (HSRL) onboard the B-200 aircraft (similar flight locations as P3-B aircraft) were
215 used for estimating planetary boundary layer (PBL) heights (1 minute running means)
216 derived using sharp gradients in aerosol backscatter (532 nm) profiles [NASA Archive,
217 2014; Scarino et al., 2014].

218 **2.2.1. Aircraft sampling domain**

219 We use NASA P3-B aircraft measurements (1 s merged data) on concurrent days with
220 mobile measurement data (30-31 January and 1 February 2013) for the present analyses
221 [NASA Archive, 2014]. The P3-B aircraft transects used for the present analyses were
222 performed three times per day directly through the Tulare County region at approxi-
223 mately 300-400 m above ground level (AGL) from Fresno to Bakersfield, California. In
224 the middle of these transects, the aircraft made a missed approach to ~ 30 m AGL at
225 Visalia Municipal Airport.

226 **2.2.2. Wind simulations**

227 The prevailing wind direction is necessary for isolation of downwind measurements. Al-
228 though the Vaisala weather station measured wind speed and direction, it is biased due
229 to turbulent eddies at the surface and potential effects of the vehicle surface on the free
230 air stream. Previous studies have addressed these large uncertainties when performing
231 analyses with winds measured on a mobile laboratory by implementing mesoscale wind

232 field simulations [*Johansson et al.*, 2009; *Wang et al.*, 2011]. For hourly mean prevailing
233 wind speed and direction, we used Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) v3.5 model
234 simulated wind vectors at 10 m above ground level with a spatial resolution of 1.33 km.
235 ECMWF-Interim reanalysis were used to provide initial and boundary conditions and 6
236 hourly nudging above the boundary layer for WRF. Comparisons with hourly-averaged,
237 ground-level wind observations [*NASA Archive*, 2014] at the Porterville, Visalia, Corcoran
238 and Hanford, California ground sites revealed notably improved simulation of wind direc-
239 tion variability in the 1.33 km domain compared with those in the 4 km domain. Wind
240 simulations at closest grid cell to each ground site generally agree with hourly-averaged
241 ground site wind direction observations. The mean absolute difference (54° of wind direc-
242 tion) between hourly mean ground site wind directions and mean wind simulations is an
243 upper limit to actual wind simulation biases, as it includes spatial variability of the wind
244 field (local wind shifts) within the modeled grid cell. The sensitivity of plume analyses to
245 these wind direction biases is quantified in section 3.2.1.

2.3. Enhancement ratios

246 Dairy feedlots emit NH_3 along with a suite of other trace gases such as CH_4 , CO_2
247 and N_2O . However, these species originate from various source pathways (e.g. enteric
248 fermentation and microbial processes in soil/manure) that may not correlate well with
249 NH_3 emission pathways [*Gentner et al.*, 2014; *Owen and Silver*, 2015]. This complicates
250 expressing an NH_3 emission ratio with respect to N_2O , CO_2 or CH_4 . N_2O is mainly emitted
251 via microbial processes in soil and manure [*Owen and Silver*, 2015], but ambient N_2O
252 mixing ratio enhancements are very small and rarely detected downwind of most feedlots.
253 CO_2 is emitted by cattle respiration and microbial processes in manure [*Leytem et al.*,

254 2013], but the urban fossil fuel CO₂ emissions in the measurement domain complicate
255 its use as a unique agricultural emission tracer. For the present analyses, we investigate
256 NH₃ plume correlations with respect to CH₄, a dairy source tracer originating from enteric
257 fermentation and microbial decomposition in managed manure [*Gentner et al.*, 2014; *Owen*
258 *and Silver*, 2015] that is not easily lost close to the emission source. In addition, very
259 few significant non-agricultural CH₄ sources exist in Tulare County [*Gentner et al.*, 2014].
260 Although NH₃ and CH₄ emissions originate from different source pathways, both are
261 known to increase with animal activity on feedlots [*van Haarlem et al.*, 2008]. We treat
262 the NH₃:CH₄ ratio as an enhancement ratio, rather than an emission ratio, evaluate its
263 variability and quantify the degree of NH₃ and CH₄ correlations.

264 Enhancement ratios (ERs) of NH₃ to CH₄ were calculated using the mixing ratios
265 above local background. The time series were separated into a slowly varying background
266 and rapidly changing emission peaks. The background trends were obtained using the
267 1 percentile over a 400 s moving time window over the 1 s time series, similar to the
268 method used by *Bukowiecki et al.* [2002]. The time window was chosen to be about five
269 times larger than the time scale for cross-wind sampling of a typical NH₃ plume (~70
270 s) obtained by the cross-correlation method [*Choi et al.*, 2012] while not too large such
271 that the background would be smoothed and under-estimated. The ER sensitivity to
272 choice of time window is explained in section 3.2.1. Percentile choices less than the 5-
273 percentile impact the ER result by < 2%. Figure 2 illustrates the background trend
274 estimates for a representative mixing ratio time series. The enhancement mixing ratios
275 above background were calculated as $\Delta\text{NH}_3 = \text{NH}_3 \text{ (measured)} - \text{NH}_3 \text{ (background trend)}$
276 and similarly for ΔCH_4 . The $\Delta\text{NH}_3/\Delta\text{CH}_4$ enhancement ratios are abbreviated here as

277 $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$. Empirical cutoffs of 4 ppbv ΔNH_3 and 125 ppbv ΔCH_4 were selected to exclude
278 data close to the background levels that may result in negative or spuriously large ER
279 values. *The empirical cutoffs are not related to the detector light intensity*
280 *cutoff mentioned above, but data must meet the light intensity cutoff before*
281 *being considered for ER analysis.* The ER sensitivity to a factor of two change in
282 empirical cutoff choices is $< 4\%$.

283 Downwind measurements of individual emission plumes were selected based on the wind
284 vectors and sampling distance from dairy feedlots. Feedlot locations were obtained using
285 the California Department of Water Resources land use dataset for Tulare County in
286 2007 (386 dairy feedlots) and Kings County in 2003 (199 dairy feedlots) [CDWR, 2007].
287 The mobile platform sampled in the vicinity of 494 dairy farms in these two counties
288 (Figure 1). *The land cover downwind of most dairy feedlots sampled is field,*
289 *grain or hay cropland or pasture lands (alfalfa or native vegetation) [CDWR,*
290 *2007].* Google Earth imagery from August 2012 was used to verify the locations manually
291 and check for land use changes between 2007 and 2013. Four feedlot locations were
292 updated (added or removed) as appropriate. The WRF simulated horizontal mass flux
293 components at their respective locations were each linearly interpolated to the dairy farm
294 (centroid) locations and were used to compute hourly averaged wind directions at each
295 feedlot location. The maximum sampling distance downwind to select data is explained
296 in section 3.2. The wind vectors in Figure 3a indicate the wind speed and direction during
297 the hour when the mobile platform measured near a given feedlot and all isolated data
298 points are depicted in Figure 3b. The isolation methods verified that the observations
299 used for ERs are primarily representative of dairy emission plumes. We do not expect

300 petrochemical CH₄ sources to impact the ER results in the Tulare County region since
301 these sources are regionally separated in the San Joaquin Valley [*Gentner et al.*, 2014].

3. Local-scale emission plumes

302 The mobile platform measured highly variable NH₃ and CH₄ mixing ratios in the Tulare
303 County region that span three orders of magnitude. The NH₃ mixing ratio distribution
304 exhibit distinct hotspots >1 ppmv NH₃ (given by peak heights in Figure 4). Figure S1
305 shows a closer view of NH₃ mixing ratio variations along one road. Plumes with maxima
306 approaching ~1 ppmv NH₃ are sampled directly downwind of four feedlots and plumes are
307 not detectable when sampling upwind of other nearby feedlots. In addition, the eastern-
308 most plumes (leftmost in Figure S1) have mixing ratio gradients across the length of one
309 feedlot. Sub-feedlot spatial heterogeneities are investigated further in section 3.1.

310 We aggregate all enhancement mixing ratios for NH₃ and CH₄ as a function of distance
311 to the closest dairy feedlot edge (Figure 5). Based on a statistical viewpoint across
312 all plumes, extreme maxima (95 percentiles) of Δ NH₃ and Δ CH₄ are typically observed
313 within 100-200 m distance from the dairy feedlots with considerably smaller enhancements
314 observed at longer distances. The maps in Figure 4 and Figure ?? showing localized
315 downwind plumes are consistent with this result. The higher Δ CH₄ values for the data bin
316 at 140 m downwind are due to an extremely high CH₄ enhancement observed downwind of
317 one feedlot, resulting in a mean Δ CH₄ above the 75 percentile of data within this distance
318 bin.

3.1. Spatial heterogeneities within feedlot plumes

319 Fine scale measurements (~ 10 m spatial resolution) are applicable to resolve het-
320 erogeneities within individual plumes, allowing us to investigate correlations and decay
321 differences between dairy emission tracers. First, we consider a feedlot with distinctly sep-
322 arate sections to investigate correlations and spatial differences with multiple cross wind
323 transects at close proximity. Figure 6 shows a spatial map of NH_3 mixing ratios for three
324 transects (~ 23 minutes total sampling time) downwind of one dairy feedlot during evening
325 hours with ~ 1.5 m s^{-1} wind speeds. A dairy corral with cows (section I), fresh manure
326 storage/anaerobic lagoon (section II) and soil/manure piles (section III) are distinctly
327 separate for this feedlot. The mobile measurements captured CH_4 maxima of 80 ppmv
328 downwind of the fresh manure/anaerobic lagoon, N_2O maxima of 600 ppbv downwind
329 of the soil/manure piles, and NH_3 and CO_2 maxima downwind of the dairy corral and
330 soil/manure piles. The high density of data points near the boundary between sections II
331 and III is due to the mobile platform being stopped in that downwind location. *The mix-*
332 *ing ratio profiles of NH_3 , CH_4 , N_2O and CO_2 downwind of this feedlot are*
333 *generally consistent and reproducible between three transects over the ~ 23*
334 *minute sampling period (Figure 7a). We note that on-road or off-road com-*
335 *bustion emissions do not interfere with the gradients observed since there*
336 *were negligible CO enhancements observed above background during these*
337 *transects.*

338 We analyze the correlations and relative enhancements downwind of the three sections to
339 assess the use of enhancement ratios for dairy feedlot plume analyses. *The sampling dis-*
340 *tance from each area emission source may be different across the transects,*

341 *so when comparing measurements downwind of different sections we refer to*
342 *percentage of enhancements rather than percent of total feedlot emissions.*
343 The regional backgrounds (assumed to be constant during the transect) are estimated
344 using the minimum mixing ratios observed within the corresponding farm sections. Am-
345 monia and CH₄ are correlated downwind of the dairy corral ($r = 0.82$) and soil/manure
346 piles ($r = 0.68$), but poorly correlated downwind of the fresh manure/anaerobic lagoon
347 ($r = -0.63$) (corresponding scatter plot in Figure S2). *In addition, N₂O and NH₃*
348 *enhancements are collocated downwind of the compost area and moderately*
349 *correlated ($r=0.5$), but the NH₃ enhancement closer to the lagoon section is*
350 *not collocated with an N₂O enhancement. The compost area is likely to have*
351 *heterogeneously distributed sources of both N₂O (anaerobic conditions for*
352 *denitrification) and NH₃ (fresh manure with surface urea) across the area*
353 *of fresh and aged compost piles.*

354 Based on the integrated area of mixing ratio enhancements across these three sections,
355 ~50% of total feedlot CH₄ enhancements originated from the fresh manure/anaerobic
356 lagoon section, which only comprises ~12% of the feedlot area. In contrast, ~45% of
357 total NH₃ enhancements originated from the dairy corral, with <1% of the NH₃ enhance-
358 ments downwind of the fresh manure/anaerobic lagoon. *These results are generally*
359 *consistent with previous studies where dairy corral surfaces were the dom-*
360 *inant NH₃ source [Cassel et al., 2005; Mukhtar et al., 2008] and manure*
361 *management contributed at least 50% of total CH₄ feedlot emissions for*
362 *measurements in comparable temperature conditions during our sampling*
363 *period in the SJV [Leytem et al., 2011; Owen and Silver, 2015]. Finally, all*

364 *NH₃ and CH₄ data points were used to calculate NH₃:CH₄ ratios across the*
365 *transect and binned by equal number of data points (~50 m distance per bin)*
366 *(Figure 7b).* Although the geometric mean ER is 0.09 ± 0.02 ppmv ppmv⁻¹, ER values
367 vary by at least an order of magnitude across this feedlot profile (Figure 7b), including
368 between different sections and within single 50 m distance bins.

369 These observations demonstrate that mobile measurements at close proximity to sources
370 resolve NH₃ and CH₄ plumes from different source pathways not necessarily collocated on
371 a feedlot, making it difficult to interpret the enhancement ratios as true emission ratios
372 on this individual feedlot scale. Most feedlots do not have clearly separated sections. Ap-
373 proximately 66% of Tulare County dairy farms have anaerobic lagoons [Owen and Silver,
374 2015], many of which are located behind the dairy corrals from the perspective of the road
375 sampling locations. These emissions mix with other source plumes during transport across
376 a feedlot area to the mobile measurement locations. Due to the close sampling proxim-
377 ity where these emissions are not well-mixed, we expect to find statistically significant
378 correlation between ΔNH_3 and ΔCH_4 for only a fraction of the plumes sampled.

379 Ideally, sampling at longer distances downwind where plumes are well-mixed and the
380 entire feedlot is measured as a point source would result in improved correlations and
381 be more advantageous for whole feedlot emission estimates. However, this approach may
382 introduce additional biases due to NH₃ sinks at longer distances downwind. Next, we
383 consider a case of downwind sampling parallel to the wind direction at increasing distance
384 from the source to assess how NH₃ and CH₄ decay relative to each other. Figure 8 depicts
385 this unique case study of an individual feedlot plume sampled approximately parallel to
386 the wind direction on Route 99 in SJV. With no other dairy farm plumes sampled within

387 5 km downwind, the NH_3 plume is assumed to originate from this one dairy feedlot. The
388 NH_3 and CH_4 plumes extend ~ 3.9 km downwind before reaching regional background.
389 Both species are expected to decay similarly if their decay is due to turbulent dispersion
390 only. The $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ ER decreases by $\sim 30\%$ from the closest downwind measurements
391 (400 m) to 3 km downwind (Figure 8b). The ER decay indicates the loss of NH_3 relative
392 to the longer-lived CH_4 . The PILS/IC NH_4^+ measurements on-board the P3-B aircraft in
393 this region suggest that $<15\%$ of NH_3 partitions into the condensed phase. This is a lower
394 limit as the PILS/IC does not sample the entire aerosol size distribution to which NH_3
395 can be lost. These data suggest that at least 15% of the gas-phase NH_3 emission are lost
396 within the first 3 km downwind due to processes such as NH_3 uptake onto aerosols larger
397 than $1 \mu\text{m}$ diameter and dry deposition to the surface. For reference, *Dennis et al.* [2010]
398 estimated that 8 - 15% of NH_3 emissions were lost to dry deposition in an agricultural
399 region. Our data suggest there is a significant potential for NH_3 losses, especially for much
400 higher concentration plumes observed in this dataset.

401 *If NH_3 and CH_4 enhancements were originating from the same collocated*
402 *source, then the ER decay would suggest NH_3 deposition or aerosol sinks.*
403 *However, non-collocated NH_3 and CH_4 feedlot sources separated by a few*
404 *hundred meters within the feedlot area could also potentially contribute to*
405 *the observed ER variability if only one transect is sampled as in this case*
406 *study. These NH_3 and CH_4 plume intersections are expected to lead to a non-*
407 *linear decrease in ER with distance downwind. We observed ER variability*
408 *within the first 1 km downwind due to spatial variations of sources near*
409 *the feedlot, but the ER decrease is close to linear at distances greater than*

410 **1 km downwind. This suggests that the 30% ER decrease is likely due to**
411 **a combination of NH_3 loss and non-located source plumes.** To decouple
412 these two effects would require targeted tracer release experiments in this region, which
413 is beyond the scope of the current study.

3.2. Individual plume enhancement ratios

414 We analyze $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ ERs in isolated downwind plumes as described in section 2.3.
415 Given that the mobile platform measures only gas-phase NH_3 , we must limit the sampling
416 distance to avoid a low ER bias in aged plumes due to NH_3 losses. We find the geometric
417 mean ER decreases by 23% when the sampling distance limit is changed from 1 km to 2
418 km. The range of spatial sampling was chosen as 1 km from the dairy feedlot centroids
419 to minimize this bias and allow for sufficient sampling size for statistical analysis. This
420 method isolated 69 downwind plumes with collocated mobile NH_3 and CH_4 measurements
421 (Figure 3b).

422 Due to the close proximity of mobile measurements to feedlot sources, we analyze corre-
423 lations between NH_3 and CH_4 measurements within the 69 downwind plumes with linear
424 least squares regression. We find 47 downwind plumes (68% of all sampled plumes) had
425 statistically significant linear correlations ($p < 0.05$) between ΔNH_3 and ΔCH_4 . The lack of
426 correlation in 32% of farm plumes is expected based on the spatially heterogeneous emis-
427 sion signatures described in section 3.1. ***The distribution of sampling distances***
428 ***(up to 1 km downwind) for correlated feedlot plumes has slightly higher***
429 ***mean (138 m) and spans a larger range of distances (95 percentile of 804***
430 ***m) than the corresponding distances for un-correlated plumes (108 m mean***
431 ***and 435 m 95 percentile), as shown in Figure S3. Therefore, correlated***

432 *plume sampling included longer distances downwind (>500 m), whereas the*
433 *un-correlated plumes were observed for a shorter sampling distance range*
434 *(<500 m).*

435 *Figure 9 shows the distribution of $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ values for all data measured*
436 *within all 69 downwind plumes and within the 47 downwind plumes with*
437 *statistically significant linear correlations.* The median ER for all plumes is 0.14
438 ± 0.03 ppmv ppmv⁻¹ and the geometric mean is 0.15 ± 0.03 ppmv ppmv⁻¹ ($\pm 20\%$ mea-
439 surement uncertainty, $N = 1793$). The histogram shows a highly asymmetric distribution
440 (skewness = 5.5) indicative of higher NH_3 emitters relative to CH_4 . We use the geometric
441 mean for this positively skewed distribution as it gives smaller weight to the extreme val-
442 ues compared with the arithmetic mean (0.29 ppmv ppmv⁻¹). *All data points are used*
443 *in the ER calculations rather than linear regression or area analysis, which*
444 *underestimate extreme maxima (skewness of 3.0 and 2.0 respectively, based*
445 *on Figure S4). It is important to note that the histogram (Figure 9) may be*
446 *an upper limit to actual ER variability due to point by point variations, espe-*
447 *cially originating from non-located source dispersion.* Measurements within
448 the 47 downwind plumes with statistically significant linear correlations ($N=1433$) yield
449 a median ER of 0.15 ± 0.03 ppmv ppmv⁻¹ and geometric mean ER of 0.17 ± 0.03 ppmv
450 ppmv⁻¹, which are 7% and 12% higher than median and geometric mean ERs including all
451 69 plume measurements. We use all data (not just observations in correlated plumes) for
452 regional aircraft observation comparisons (section 4.3) since regional observations include
453 all plumes with and without statistically significant correlations.

454 The ER variability across the 69 downwind plumes is illustrated in Figure S5. The order
455 of downwind plumes is arranged according to the order of dairy feedlots in the California
456 Department of Water Resources land use dataset for each day of sampling. We define the
457 relative ER range for each plume as the difference between 5 and 95 percentiles relative to
458 the median ER (expressed in percent). Approximately 77% of plumes have ER variability
459 of at least a factor of two (200% relative range). This relative range is related to how
460 well the plumes have mixed due to distance sampled downwind and wind conditions. It is
461 important to note that the relative range is also a function of the sample size since each
462 plume depicted has a different number of measurements.

463 **3.2.1. Enhancement ratio uncertainties and biases**

464 Enhancement ratio uncertainties and biases originate from multiple factors including
465 concentration measurement uncertainties ($\pm 20\%$ for NH_3 and $\sim 0.1\%$ for CH_4) as well as
466 parameter choices for ER calculations and wind simulations. Sensitivity analyses were
467 performed to quantify potential biases due to background trend fitting parameters. For
468 a time window range from 100 s to 1100 s, the ER sensitivity to changes in time window
469 is $\sim 5\%$. Sensitivity analyses revealed that shifts of $\pm 50^\circ$ in wind direction over the
470 entire wind field for a given day resulted in geometric mean ER changes ranging from
471 22% to $< 1\%$ depending on the measurement day. A wind direction bias of $\pm 50^\circ$ over all
472 hours and locations is an extreme case that we do not expect to actually occur. We find
473 that all of these potential biases contribute $\pm 10\%$ uncertainty to ER estimates, which is
474 significantly lower than the relative range of observed ERs (Figure 9b) and within the
475 measurement uncertainties.

4. Regional-scale emission plumes

476 Next, we characterize regional scale NH_3 and CH_4 plumes using both surface mobile
477 and boundary layer aircraft transects for comparison with the individual plume analyses
478 above.

4.1. Surface regional backgrounds

479 *We analyze the spatio-temporal variability of surface regional background*
480 *mixing ratios with boundary layer heights (Figure S6).* The highest NH_3 and
481 CH_4 mixing ratios were observed during the morning (before 11:00 PST) when PBL
482 heights were <300 m. The lowest mixing ratios occurred during afternoon (12:00 - 17:00
483 PST) with higher PBL heights (500-800 m altitude), allowing for dilution of surface emis-
484 sions. For the regional scale analyses, we use the background trends (section 2.3) to
485 eliminate any bias due to non-uniform mobile sampling near large sources. Ammonia
486 and CH_4 background mixing ratio maps were constructed using four days of afternoon
487 measurements (12:00 - 17:00 PST) spatially averaged to 4 km horizontal resolution, which
488 is representative of regional chemical transport model resolutions. Background NH_3 and
489 CH_4 mixing ratios are enhanced in the dairy region (Figure 10b,c), *denoted by the dis-*
490 *tribution of land area occupied by dairy feedlots (Figure 10a).* The maximum
491 NH_3 background (~ 35 ppbv) is at least a factor of four above the regional background
492 (<10 ppbv) in the SJV outside of Tulare County. Methane exhibits different spatial pat-
493 terns and smaller relative mixing ratio enhancements ($\sim 35\%$) above regional backgrounds
494 compared with NH_3 . *The NH_3 and CH_4 background spatial patterns originate*
495 *from many factors including gradients in the feedlot spatial densities, emis-*
496 *sion magnitudes between and within each feedlot at different sampling times*

497 *on each day, vertical dispersion and horizontal advection from sources, as*
498 *well as NH_3 sinks. Therefore, the spatial maps qualitatively illustrate NH_3*
499 *and CH_4 background mixing ratio gradients.*

4.2. Regional plume gradients

500 We compare the regional plume gradients captured by the mobile surface and airborne
501 boundary layer observations. On 31 January 2013, the mobile platform measured along
502 Route 99 within 15 minutes of the midday P3-B aircraft transect almost exactly above the
503 road for ~ 58 km total distance (Figure 11a). The mobile platform and aircraft measure-
504 ments both captured a regional NH_3 plume (>80 ppbv NH_3 enhancement) in the dairy
505 region compared with the surrounding background (< 20 ppbv NH_3) (Figure 11b). Both
506 measurements also captured individual plumes or plume mixtures within the larger re-
507 gional plume, but aircraft measurements with lower (100-300 m) spatial resolution showed
508 lower peak mixing ratios and did not resolve the sharp plumes captured by the mobile
509 surface measurements. The P3-B aircraft also measured plumes shifted southward rela-
510 tive to the surface mobile measurements south of 36.15° latitude. This shift is indicative
511 of horizontal plume advection due to the prevailing northwest winds as well as vertical
512 dispersion of plumes from the mobile platform location to the aircraft transect altitude.
513 Methane plumes also exhibited similar features, yet their spatial patterns are not iden-
514 tical to those of NH_3 , similar to the background spatial maps in Figure 10b,c. Methane
515 enhancements to the south are likely due to petrochemical operations near Bakersfield,
516 California.

4.3. Regional plume enhancement ratios

517 We derive the regional-scale $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ ERs from airborne observations for comparison
518 with the individual plume ERs. *The total sample sizes are $N = 1793$ (mobile
519 data on 29-31 January and 1 February) and $N = 1863$ (aircraft data on 30-
520 31 January and 1 February).* Airborne measurements upwind of the dairy region at
521 the Fresno missed approach are used as a background boundary layer profile and similar
522 empirical cutoffs as for the mobile platform (10 ppbv ΔNH_3 and 100 ppbv ΔCH_4) are
523 selected to exclude data close to the background levels. A correlation plot of NH_3 and
524 CH_4 (not shown) shows a hysteresis effect with a delay in NH_3 enhancement relative to
525 CH_4 when the aircraft entered the regional plume and delay in NH_3 decay when exiting
526 the region due to the response time of the closed-path NH_3 instrument on-board the P3-B
527 aircraft. *To evaluate the $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ correlations for matched time responses of
528 both measurements, we convolute the fast response CH_4 measurements with
529 an NH_3 instrument response function using exponential rise and decay time
530 constants based on the 8-20 s NH_3 response time of the Picarro G2103 ana-
531 lyzer for an 80% fall time from 20 to 75 ppbv NH_3 [NASA Archive, 2014].
532 The correlations between NH_3 and CH_4 airborne transect measurements im-
533 proved marginally from $r = 0.76$ to $r=0.82$ for the afternoon transects with
534 the response function convolution. However, we expect the actual response
535 function to vary with magnitudes of NH_3 concentrations and NH_3 concen-
536 tration changes throughout the time series. Due to these ambiguities and
537 the marginal improvement in correlations, we do not use a response time
538 correction in the present analyses.* We do restrict our calculation to the dairy region

539 only and note that there is only a 3% difference in the geometric mean ER when using
540 all data compared with this restricted domain due to the biases being opposite in sign for
541 entering and exiting the region. We also use only the descending (northern) portion of the
542 missed approach measurements for the ER calculation to avoid the decay artifact for the
543 ascending (southern) portion, evident in (Figure 12b). The domain for ER estimations
544 is also restricted to eliminate the Bakersfield region with significant petrochemical CH₄
545 sources.

546 The Visalia missed approach ΔNH_3 and ΔCH_4 vertical profiles during the three tran-
547 sects on 30 January 2013 are shown in Figure 12c and NH₃:CH₄ ER vertical profiles for
548 these transects are illustrated in Figure 13a. The ER values are relatively constant within
549 the $\pm 40\%$ measurement uncertainty from the surface to 300 m altitude in the boundary
550 layer for midday and afternoon transects. No ER values are reported above 200 m altitude
551 for the morning transect due to negligible CH₄ enhancements above the boundary layer
552 with typical morning PBL heights below 300 m AGL (Figure S6).

553 The geometric mean ER for airborne observations on 30-31 January and 1 February
554 2013 (0.12 ± 0.05 ppmv ppmv⁻¹) is consistent with individual plume ERs for these days
555 (dotted line in Figure 13b) within the measurement uncertainties. *The airborne ER*
556 *observations during afternoon transects were generally reproducible between*
557 *flight days (Figure 13b) despite differences in temperature ranges and wind*
558 *directions between these days (Table 2). The individual plume ERs obtained*
559 *on days with no airborne data (e.g. 28-29 January) were also consistent*
560 *with the airborne derived ERs.* However, the surface measurements show much larger
561 extreme values with the 95 percentile a factor of four higher than that for aircraft derived

562 ERs (Figure 13c). The empirical cutoffs do not significantly influence the 95 percentile
563 values and the geometric mean ER is insensitive to these cutoffs to within 3%. Finally,
564 the geometric mean $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ ER exhibited an increase in the afternoon (by a factor of
565 four on 30 January 2013) compared with the morning or midday transects (Figure 13a,b)
566 that is clearly driven by higher ΔNH_3 values during the afternoon (Figure 12c).

567 The impacts of gas-phase NH_3 aerosol partitioning on airborne gas-phase NH_3 measure-
568 ments is important to evaluate when comparing with close proximity individual plume
569 sampling. We derive ERs with respect to total ammonia ($\text{NH}_x = \text{NH}_3 + \text{NH}_4^+$) using the
570 PILS/IC NH_4^+ measurements onboard the P3-B aircraft. We average the NH_3 airborne
571 data to the 240 s PILS/IC resolution (N=5 data points available in the source region)
572 and add the mixing ratios of NH_3 and NH_4^+ to calculate NH_x . The percent of NH_x
573 measured as NH_4^+ by PILS/IC is $< 15\%$ in the dairy region and $\sim 26\%$ upwind near
574 Fresno. Since NH_4^+ makes up a larger percentage of NH_x upwind than in the source
575 region, ΔNH_x values are comparable to ΔNH_3 , implying that the $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ and $\text{NH}_x:\text{CH}_4$
576 ERs are comparable. Table 3 shows all $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ and $\text{NH}_x:\text{CH}_4$ ER values derived from
577 airborne measurements on 30-31 January and 1 February 2013 within the source region.
578 The percent difference between $\text{NH}_x:\text{CH}_4$ and $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ ranges from -3 to +5% for all
579 data points, significantly below the $\pm 40\%$ ER measurement uncertainty. Although we
580 expect the majority of wintertime NH_4^+ to be found in the accumulation mode (PM_{10})
581 in this region [Herner *et al.*, 2006], NH_4NO_3 condensation also occurs on larger particles,
582 a component not included in our NH_x estimate. In addition, NH_x does not account for
583 depositional NH_3 losses.

4.4. Literature comparisons

584 Emission estimates were compiled from published studies in which winter dairy feedlots
585 emissions of both NH_3 or CH_4 were measured during the same time period at the same
586 feedlot. No such studies have been performed in the Tulare County region. Therefore,
587 we select studies with comparable air temperature conditions and similar open-lot dairy
588 facilities to those found in Tulare County. We calculate the ratios of literature-reported
589 NH_3 and CH_4 emission fluxes (kg d^{-1}) and convert to molar fractions. Table 4 summa-
590 rizes the present study results and the literature estimates. The literature $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ ER
591 estimates fall within the distribution of the individual plume ERs derived from our mobile
592 measurements (Figure 13c). As shown in Figure S7, there is a strong seasonal variation
593 in flux ratio as well as variations across the three studies [*Bjorneberg et al.*, 2009; *Leytem*
594 *et al.*, 2011, 2013]. It is important to note that *Leytem et al.* [2011] and *Leytem et al.*
595 [2013] published January measurements at temperatures 13 - 17°C colder than the mini-
596 mum temperatures observed during our sampling period in the SJV (Table 2). Therefore,
597 the springtime values with more comparable temperatures to our mobile measurements
598 are reported in Table 4 for these studies.

5. Discussion

5.1. Individual plume measurements

599 *The high spatial resolution, surface mobile observations analyzed in this*
600 *study are the most extensive spatial survey of NH_3 and CH_4 distributions*
601 *in an agricultural emission region to date* and have revealed significant spatial
602 variability of NH_3 and CH_4 mixing ratios near dairy feedlot sources. NH_3 mixing ratio
603 enhancements alone are not necessarily representative of absolute NH_3 emission variability

604 as they vary with turbulent dispersion. Absolute emission flux estimates would require
605 Gaussian plume dispersion models for area source regions, which require assumptions
606 on wind, vertical profiles and uniform emission distributions within a feedlot area. In
607 addition, it is difficult to decouple variability of both NH_3 and CH_4 enhancements at
608 individual plume scales due to variable activities and pathways. Activities such as feeding
609 and manure management practices vary considerably between different feedlots [*Hristov*
610 *et al.*, 2011; *Owen and Silver*, 2015]. Many of these activities, including anaerobic lagoon
611 emissions, are strong functions of temperature, relative humidity and wind conditions
612 [*Sharpe and Harper*, 1999]. Although we expected a lack of correlation between ΔNH_3
613 and ΔCH_4 due to their known spatially distinct source pathways, the extensive spatial
614 coverage of our individual plume observations allows for a new comprehensive picture of
615 the degree of correlations across an entire source region that impacts enhancement ratio
616 observations on a regional scale.

617 *The mobile measurement dataset obtained over five days is representative*
618 *of winter daytime conditions in the Tulare and Kings County sampling re-*
619 *gion. However, given seasonal and diurnal NH_3 and CH_4 emissions variabil-*
620 *ity, this dataset may not representative of nighttime or summer conditions*
621 *in the same region or much colder winter conditions in other agricultural*
622 *regions.* Since our mobile platform captures each feedlot plume as a snapshot at a dif-
623 ferent times of the day, the mobile sampling data are not sufficient for characterizing
624 temporal emission trends at individual feedlots. *Clearly, much more extensive tem-*
625 *poral coverage measurements are needed to fully characterize both spatial*
626 *and temporal variability of feedlot region emissions.*

627 The $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ enhancement ratios exhibited decreases of $\sim 20\text{-}30\%$ when sampling 2-3
628 km downwind. *This case study highlights the need for more integrated loop
629 and transect measurements around feedlots at multiple downwind distances
630 to integrate across the plume intersections and minimize the influence of
631 non-located NH_3 and CH_4 plumes on ER spatial decay.* Finally, further
632 investigations of dry deposition velocity and bi-directional flux distributions from nearby
633 land surfaces will also be important to constrain NH_3 sinks in high concentration feedlot
634 plumes.

5.2. Regional plume measurements

635 The spatial gradient comparison shows that the boundary layer aircraft transects and
636 surface mobile measurements captured similar plume mixtures and regional background
637 enhancements. Based on the aircraft transect altitude, both aircraft and mobile platforms
638 sampled individual plumes at similar distances (few hundred meters) to their sources such
639 that minimal NH_3 losses would be expected for these transect observations through the
640 source region. It is remarkable that the geometric mean regional ERs generally agree,
641 within measurement uncertainties, with the individual plume ERs, given there are mul-
642 tiple differences between these ER estimates. Individual plume ERs are derived using
643 background trends while regional enhancements are derived with respect to a background
644 assumed to be constant throughout the source region. Unfortunately, the background
645 trend cannot easily be derived for aircraft data since typical plume widths for aircraft
646 sampling are not easily constrained. Finally, the $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ ER was consistently larger
647 in the mid-afternoon transect relative to the morning or midday, but this difference is
648 within the measurement uncertainty when comparing the midday and afternoon transects

649 (Figure 13b). This trend is potentially linked to higher NH_3 surface emissions in the
650 mid-afternoon due to increased solar heating and surface temperatures relative to CH_4
651 emissions and consistent with other studies of diurnal NH_3 and CH_4 flux measurements
652 [*van Haarlem et al.*, 2008; *Sun et al.*, *accepted*, 2015]. Further investigation is needed to
653 attribute these mechanisms to the observed trends.

6. Summary and implications

654 *We characterized the spatial distributions of winter daytime NH_3 and*
655 *CH_4 emission plumes in the Tulare County dairy region during the NASA*
656 *DISCOVER-AQ 2013 field campaign from individual to regional scales. We*
657 *observed high spatial variability of NH_3 mixing ratios with maxima localized downwind*
658 *of individual dairy farms and spatially heterogeneous sources within a single feedlot. We*
659 *quantified for the first time the spatial correlations of NH_3 and CH_4 in 69 individual feed-*
660 *lot plumes and found 68% exhibited statistically significant linear correlation between*
661 *ΔNH_3 and ΔCH_4 . The spatial decay of ERs showed the potential for 20-30% NH_3 losses*
662 *at several kilometers downwind. These results highlight the tradeoffs between sampling*
663 *plumes at close proximity compared with longer distances downwind. At close proxim-*
664 *ities (within 1 km downwind), large and spatially distinct plumes are probed; however,*
665 *distributed area feedlot source plumes are not well-mixed, resulting in poor correlations*
666 *between feedlot emission tracers on the local feedlot scale. In contrast, at longer dis-*
667 *tance sampling, plumes are spatially well-mixed and the feedlot can be seen as a point*
668 *source; however, NH_3 losses bias measurements several kilometers downwind and mixing*
669 *of plumes from multiple feedlots can occur.*

670 The regional plume gradient observations from mobile platform and aircraft measure-
671 ments were comparable, suggesting that regional aircraft transect observations can capture
672 regional gradients also observed at the surface during midday boundary layer conditions
673 in SJV. The surface mobile measurements constrain the nature of individual plume struc-
674 ture at high (10-30 m) spatial resolution, while also capturing the regional background
675 gradient. In contrast, the airborne transect observations are advantageous to capture mul-
676 tiple plume mixtures and sample an entire regional plume multiple times a day at lower
677 resolution (100-300 m). Our airborne and mobile measurement comparisons of spatial
678 gradients and enhancement ratios suggest that $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ derived using aircraft transects
679 through the source region can be used as an emission ratio in terms of mean or bulk
680 values, although regional observations underestimate and cannot easily distinguish indi-
681 vidual feedlot plume variability. When aircraft observations tens of kilometers downwind
682 (rather than transects through the source region as in this study) are used to estimate
683 basin-wide emissions, these analyses must be corrected for potential low biases due to
684 variable NH_3 depositional sinks within the source region.

685 Mobile NH_3 and other agricultural tracer measurements could be valuable in future
686 investigations to constrain NH_3 dry deposition losses and correct regional enhancement
687 ratio observations. In addition, mobile-based observations are applicable for partitioning
688 different emission pathways in mixed source regions (i.e. petrochemical and agricultural
689 CH_4 emissions) and may be coupled and collocated with open-path eddy covariance flux
690 measurements [*Sun et al., accepted, 2015*], vertically-resolved NH_3 measurements and
691 recently demonstrated thermal infrared hyperspectral imagery techniques [*Tratt et al.,*
692 2014] to gain a better understanding of NH_3 and CH_4 emission plume structures and

693 the temporal variability of NH_3 emissions at individual feedlots. Recent studies suggest
694 the potential for improved constraints on CH_4 emissions in California [*Jeong et al.*, 2012;
695 *Wecht et al.*, 2014]. Future efforts to couple CH_4 emission estimates with the geometric
696 mean $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ are applicable to constrain total mean regional NH_3 emission magnitudes,
697 while individual plume mobile measurements are applicable to improve spatial allocations
698 in NH_3 emission inventories. These observational constraints have significant implications
699 for air quality model predictions of fine aerosol loading downwind of intensive agricultural
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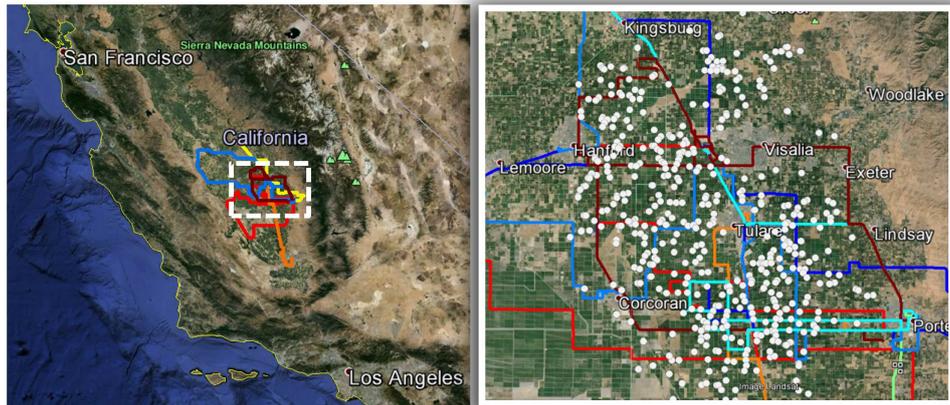


Figure 1. Mobile measurement routes during the NASA DISCOVER-AQ 2013 field campaign in the Tulare County region of the San Joaquin Valley, California. The colors represent the routes covered on each day in the San Joaquin Valley. The map at right shows the region indicated by the dotted square at left with the white points denoting locations of dairy feedlots (California Department of Water Resources Land use data set).

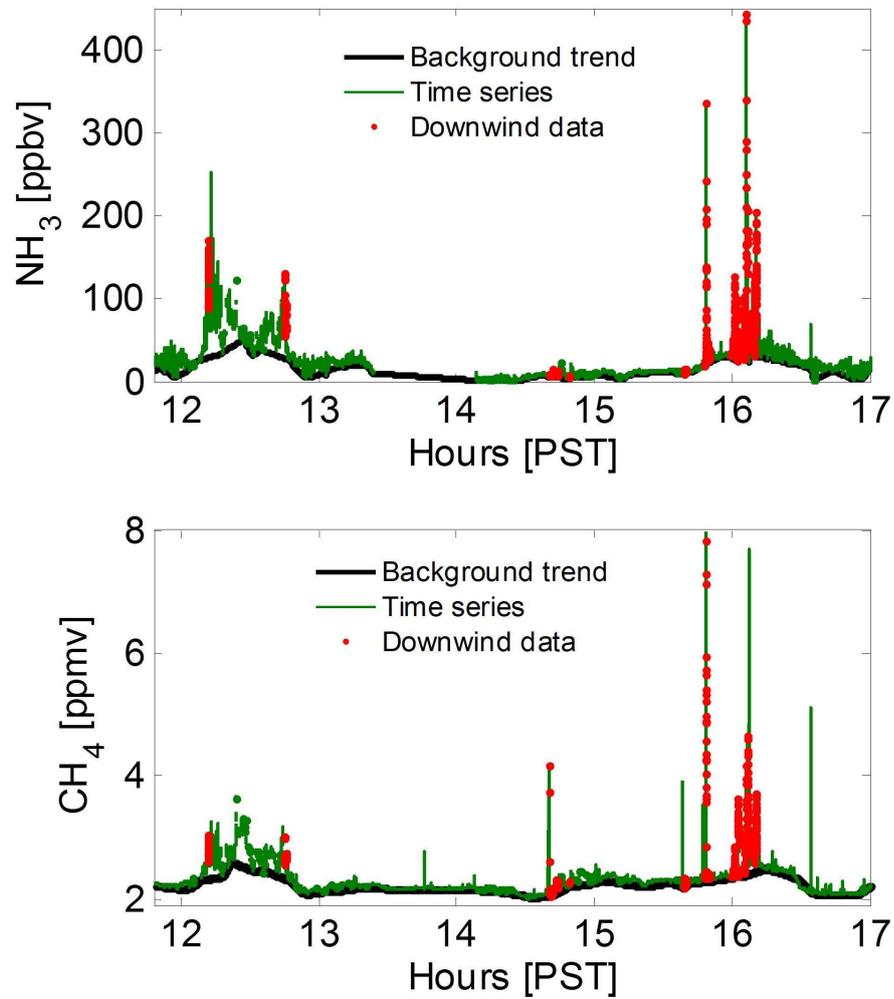


Figure 2. Representative time series of mobile NH_3 and CH_4 measurements (green), along with background trend fitting (black) and data points selected downwind of dairy farms (red).

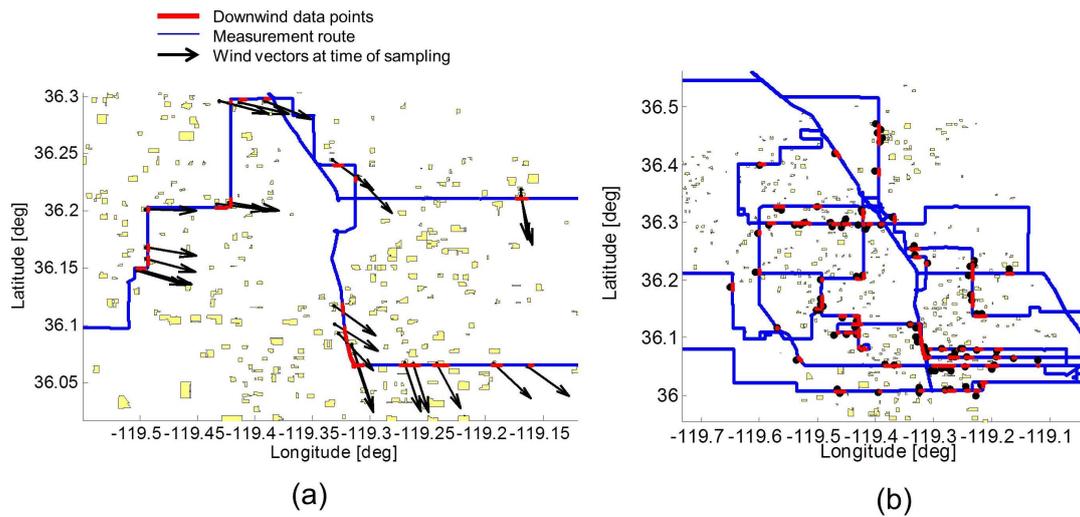


Figure 3. (a) Map of mobile measurement route on February 1, 2013 depicting downwind data point isolation. The mobile measurement route (blue), dairy feedlot polygons (yellow) and wind vectors (black) at the time of passing a given dairy feedlot are indicated; (b) The corresponding map, as in (a), for the entire sampling region over four days (29 January 29 to 1 February 2013).

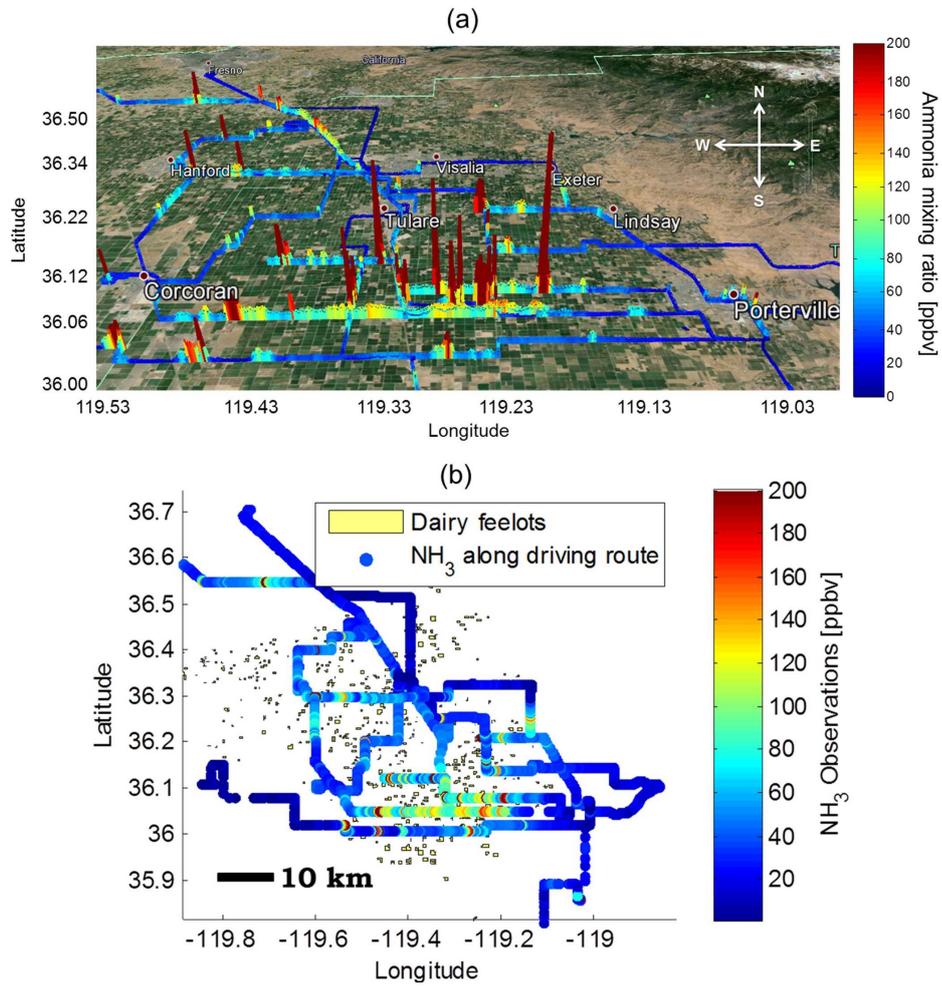


Figure 4. (a) Mobile spatial measurements of NH_3 mixing ratios (5 s averages of 1 s data for optimal display) on Google Earth imagery of the Tulare County region on 28 January 28 to 1 February 2013. The mixing ratios above the color scale are denoted by the peak heights and reach up to 1 ppmv NH_3 . (b) The same dataset as depicted in (a) with locations of dairy feedlot facilities (yellow polygons with black outlines).

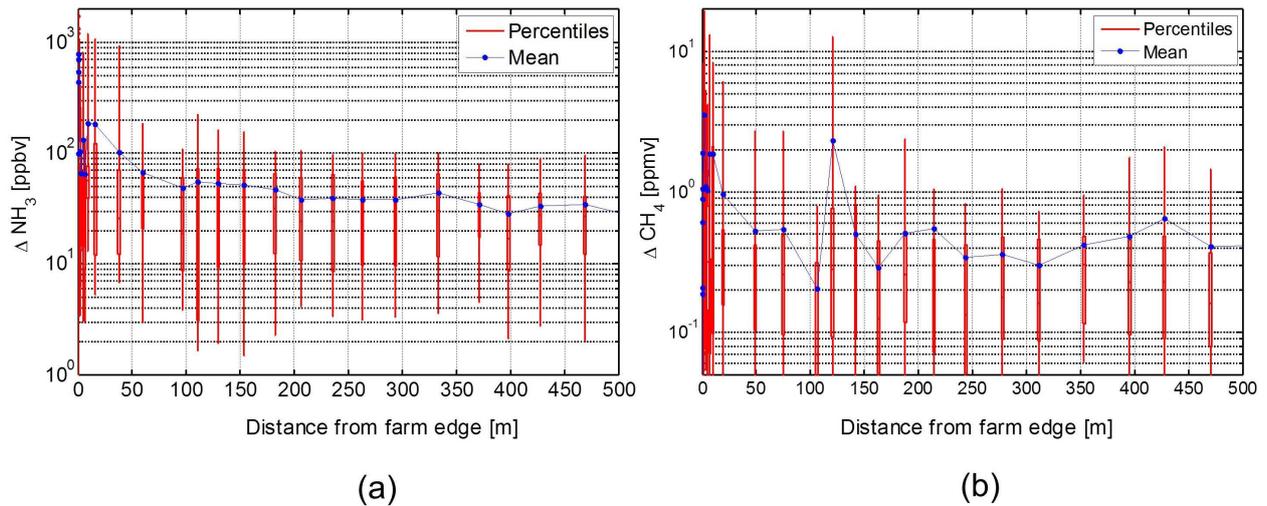


Figure 5. Box-whisker plots of (a) ΔNH_3 and (b) ΔCH_4 as a function of distance downwind of the closest dairy feedlot edge. The plot is binned by equal number of data points sampled at a given distance. The bins are clustered at distances near zero due to the large number of data points at close proximity. *The log-linear scale better illustrates the variations at farther sampling distances*

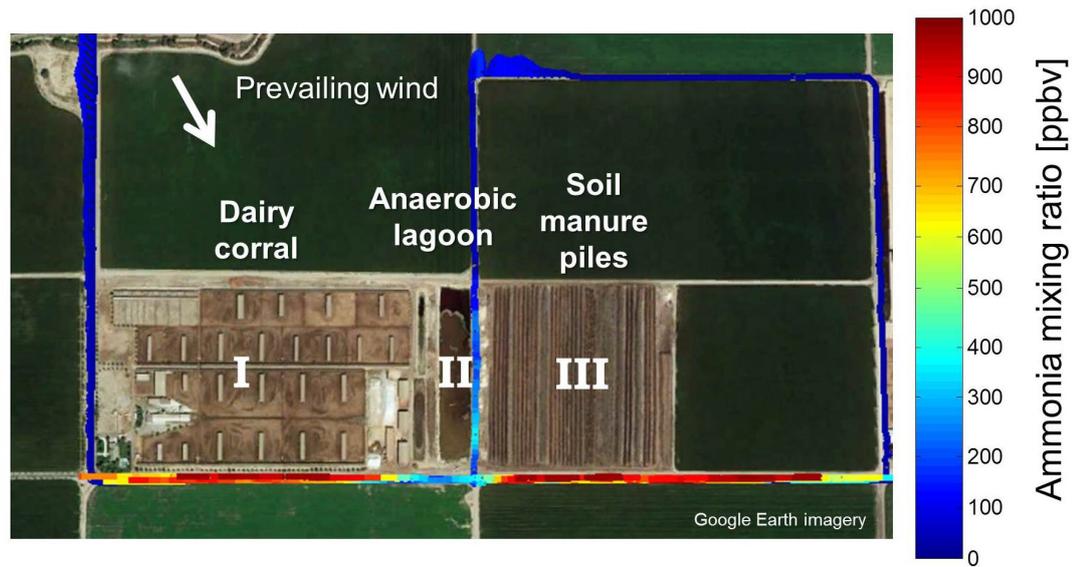


Figure 6. Ammonia mixing ratio spatial measurements during the evening of 29 January 2013 at one dairy feedlot in Tulare County (with Google Earth imagery). The arrow indicates the prevailing (northwest) wind direction and distinct sections are as follows: (I) dairy corrals, (II) fresh manure storage/anaerobic lagoon and (III) soil/manure piles. The length of the farm (left to right) is ~ 1600 m.

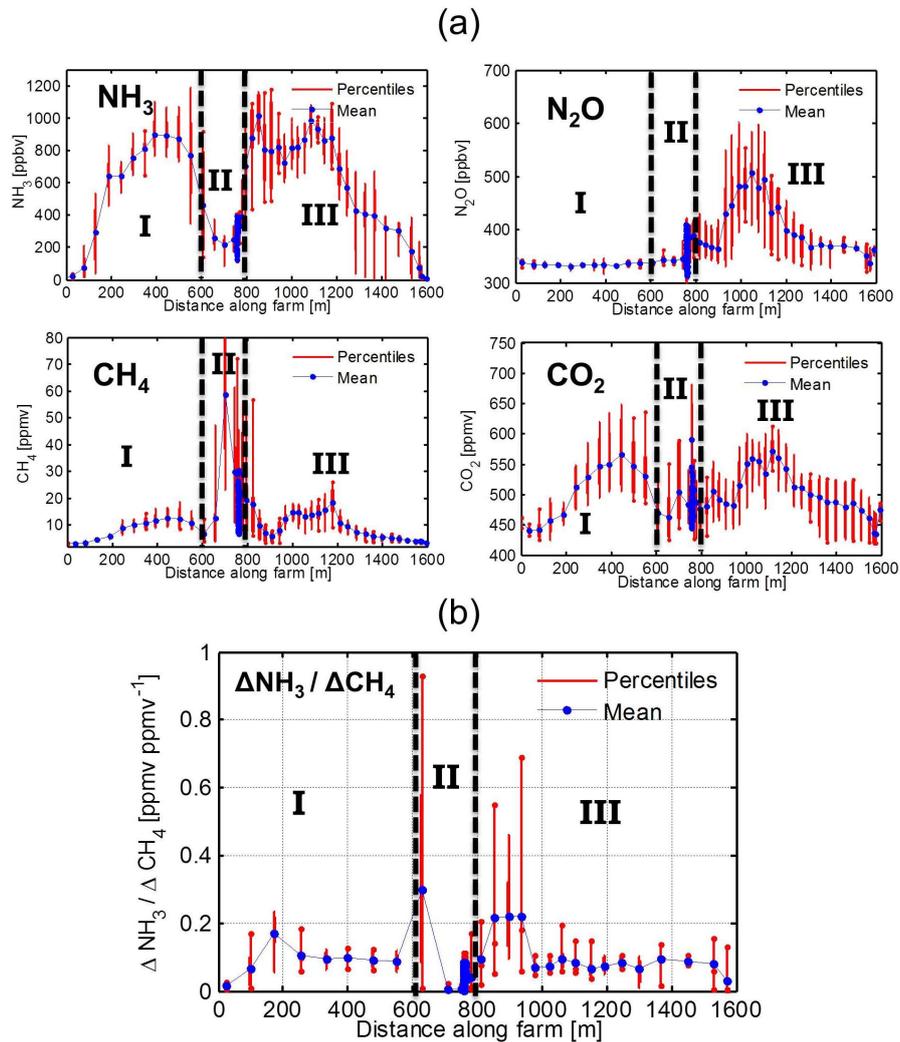


Figure 7. (a) Spatial distributions of NH_3 , CH_4 , N_2O and CO_2 mixing ratios along the downwind edge of one dairy feedlot for 2-3 transects over ~ 23 minutes. The sections defined in Figure 6 are labeled in the time series (I, II, III). The red lines denote the 5 and 95 percentiles within each bin of equal number of data points. (b) $\Delta\text{NH}_3/\Delta\text{CH}_4$ enhancement ratio percentiles and arithmetic means across the three feedlot sections.

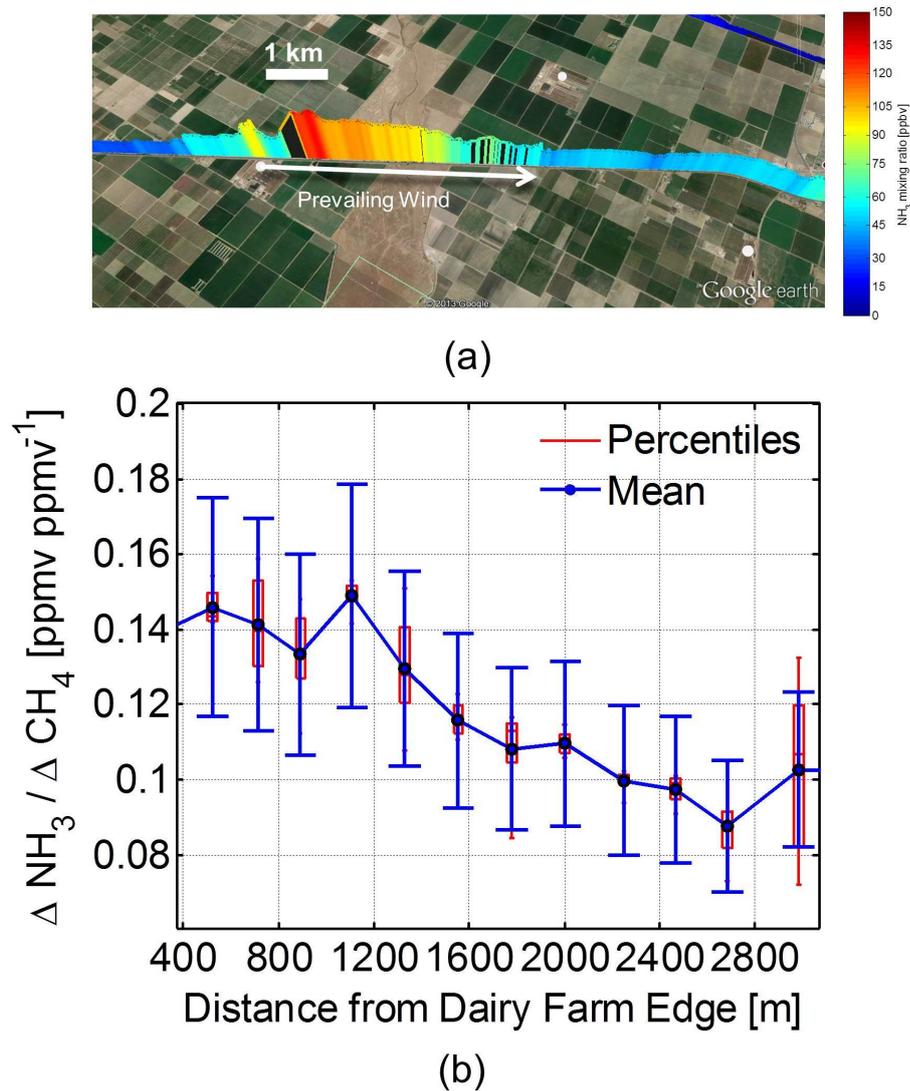


Figure 8. (a) Ammonia mixing ratios (1 s data) measured along one dairy feedlot plume on 31 January 2013 (12:43 PST). The measurement route (Route 99) is approximately parallel to the wind direction (arrow). (b) $\Delta \text{NH}_3 / \Delta \text{CH}_4$ enhancement ratios for the plume in (a), as a function of distance downwind of the dairy feedlot source. The error bars indicate the measurement uncertainty ($\pm 20\%$) and the red box-whiskers indicate the variability of measurements for data in each distance bin.

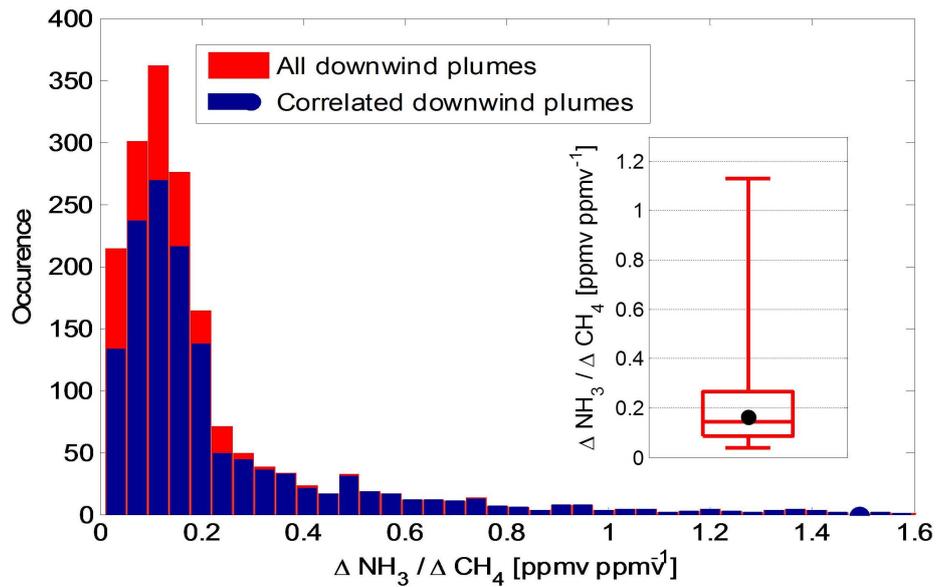


Figure 9. Histogram of the $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ enhancement ratio distribution for all isolated downwind plume measurements (red) and plume measurements with statistically significant correlations between NH_3 and CH_4 enhancements (blue). Inset: box-whisker plot of the ER percentiles and geometric mean (black point) for all downwind plumes.

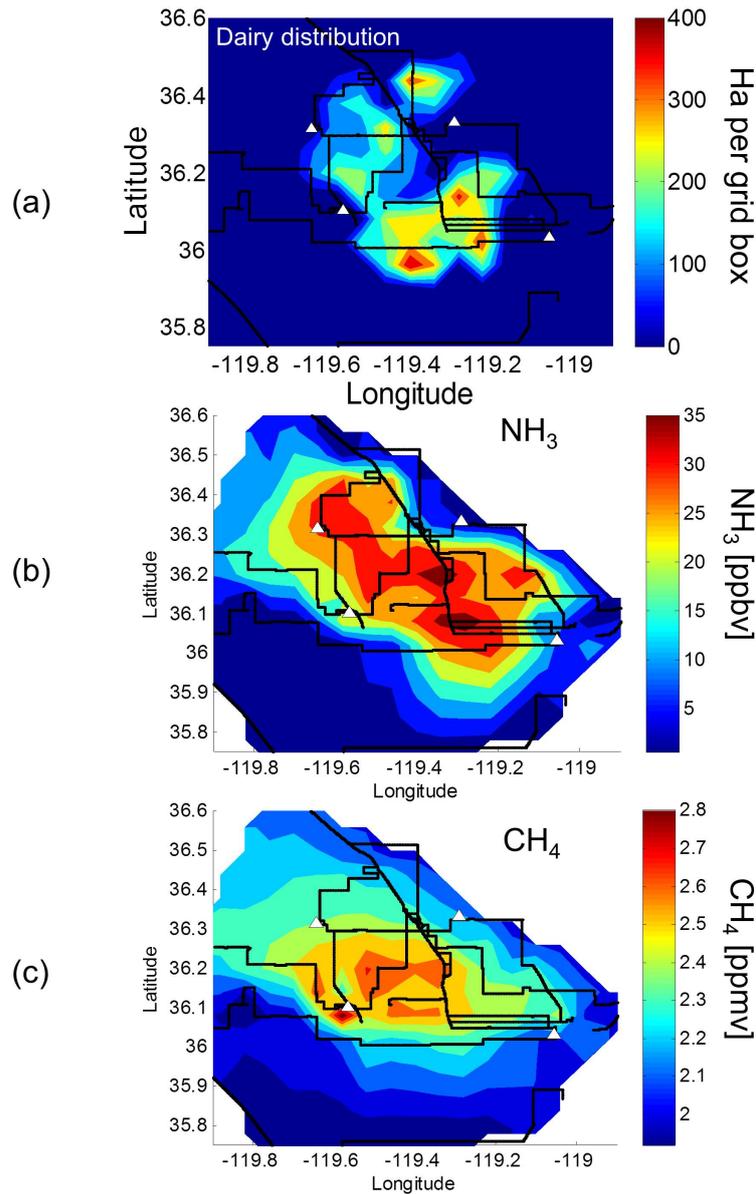


Figure 10. (a) Dairy distributions expressed as the total dairy feedlot area (Ha) per 4 km resolution grid cell (California Water Resources Landuse Dataset) with linear interpolation. (b) Spatial maps of NH₃ and CH₄ background mixing ratios for measurements performed between 12:00 - 17:00 PST on 29 January to 1 February 2013. The data are spatially averaged on the same 4 km grid and linearly interpolated as in (a). The black lines denote the locations of mobile measurements. The white triangles denote the locations of Visalia, Porterville, Corcoran and Hanford, California (clockwise from upper right triangle) as reference locations.

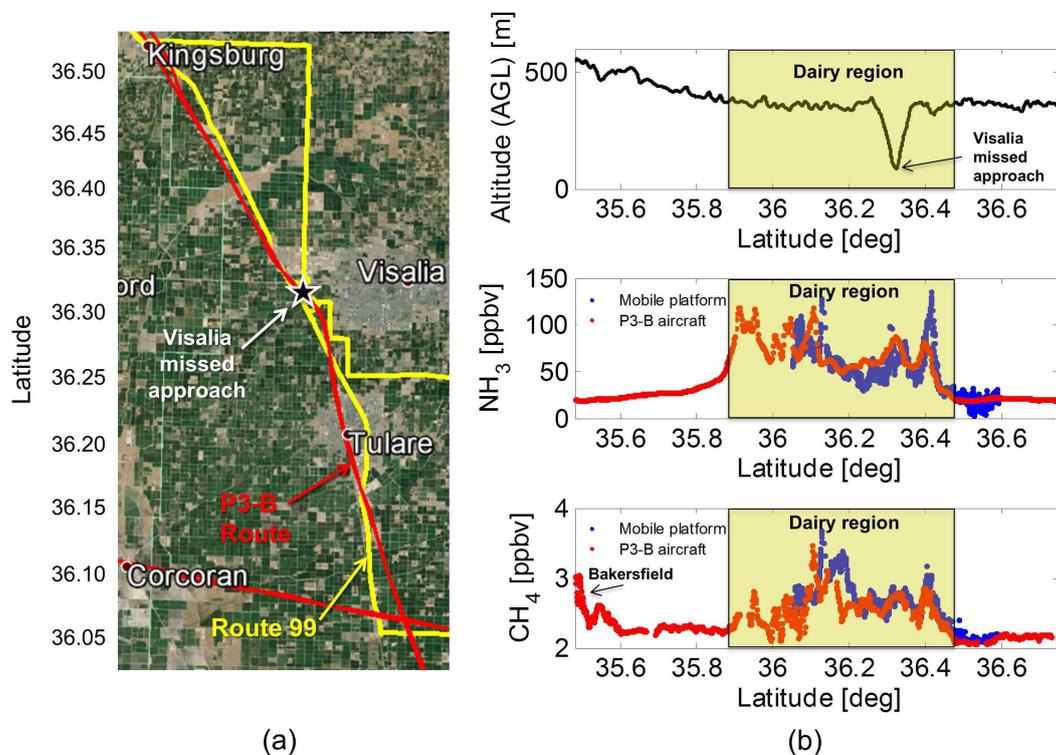


Figure 11. (a) Mobile platform routes (yellow) from 12:15–13:00 PST and NASA P3-B aircraft transect (red) from 12:45–13:10 PST on 31 January 2013. The Visalia Municipal airport missed approach location is indicated by the star symbol. (b) NASA P3-B altitude (top plot), NH_3 and CH_4 mixing ratios (middle and bottom plots) as a function of latitude measured by the mobile platform and on-board the P3-B aircraft for the transects described in (a). The shaded regions indicate the dairy region (based on the latitudes with non-zero dairy densities in Figure 13a). The Bakersfield region is labeled for reference.

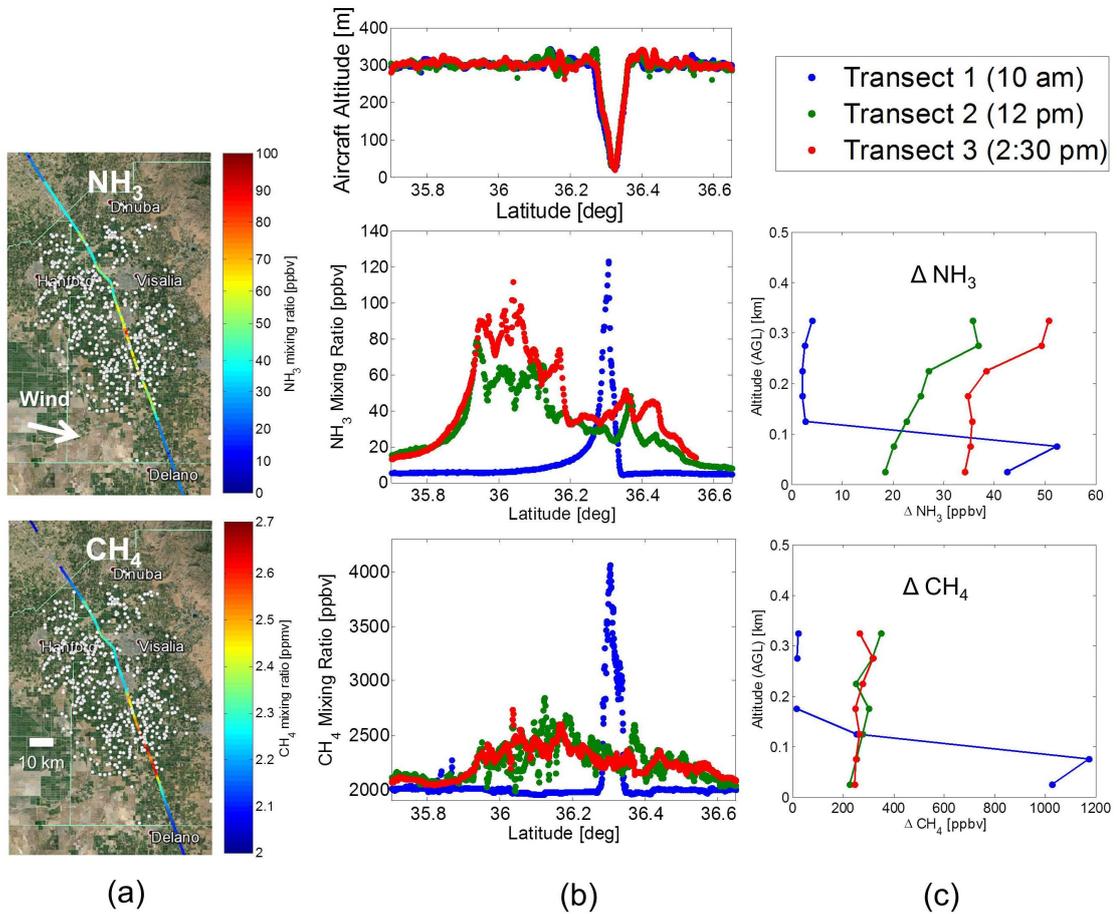


Figure 12. (a) NASA P3-B aircraft 12:00 PST transect NH_3 and CH_4 observations from Fresno to Bakersfield, California on 30 January 2013. Wind direction and distance scales are indicated and white points denote dairy feedlot locations (California Department of Water Resources). (b) Latitudinal gradients of aircraft altitude (AGL), NH_3 and CH_4 mixing ratios for the transect shown in (a). (c) Vertical distributions of ΔNH_3 and ΔCH_4 (arithmetic means within 50 m vertical bins).

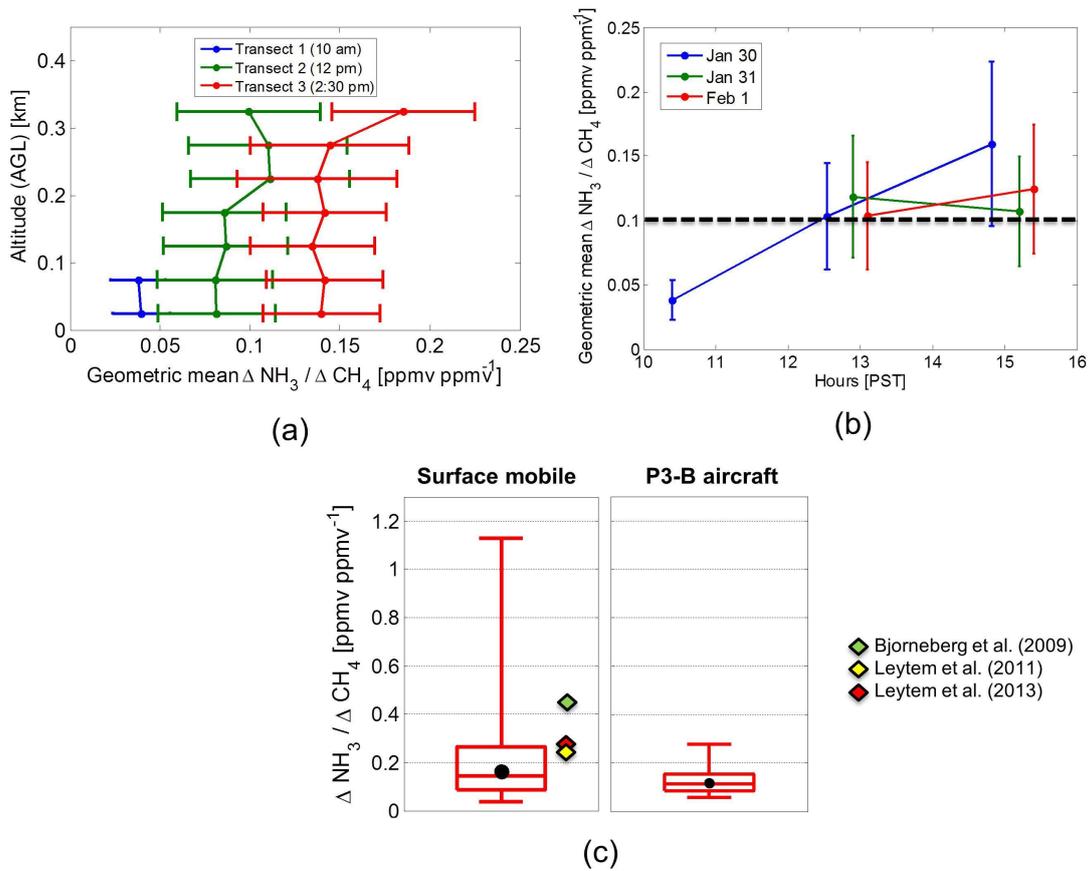


Figure 13. (a) $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ vertical distributions for all transects on 30 January 2013, displayed as the geometric means within 50 m vertical bins. The error bars indicate the measurement uncertainty ($\pm 40\%$). (b) Geometric mean $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ ERs during P3-B aircraft transects on 30–31 January and 1 February 2013. The error bars represent the measurement uncertainties ($\pm 40\%$). No morning transects were flown on 31 January or 1 February. The dotted line represents the geometric mean $\text{NH}_3:\text{CH}_4$ ER for mobile surface measurements on the corresponding flight days. (c) Percentiles and geometric mean ERs derived from surface mobile (left) and aircraft measurements (right). The literature study ERs shown in Table 4 are indicated by the colored diamonds.

Table 1. Summary of the open-path mobile platform sensor specifications, metrics and references containing further details.

Species	Precision	Mass	Power	References
NH ₃	0.15 ppbv	15 kg	50 W	Miller et al. (2014)
N ₂ O	0.07 ppbv	10 kg	40 W	Tao et al. (2012)
CO	0.2 ppbv	-	-	Tao et al. (2012)
CH ₄	2 ppbv	5.2 kg	8 W	LICOR (McDermitt et al., 2011)
CO ₂	0.1 ppmv	0.75 kg	12 W	LICOR
H ₂ O	< 1%	-	-	LICOR
T,P,RH	-	-	-	Vaisala

Table 2. San Joaquin Valley on-road measurement conditions and durations used in this study.

Days in 2013	Start time (PST)	End time (PST)	Driving distance (km)	Air temperature (°C)	Wind direction	ER data coverage (%)
28 January	13:23	16:10	129	11-13	WSW	71
29 January	10:45	19:21	306	9-16	SW - NW	36
30 January	10:59	17:10	164	12-18	SW - W	86
31 January	11:21	17:18	185	15-20	NW	83
1 February	8:58	16:46	269	11-19	NW	48

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Table 3. Comparison of airborne $\Delta\text{NH}_3/\Delta\text{CH}_4$ and $\Delta\text{NH}_x/\Delta\text{CH}_4$ ERs.

Date	Transect No.	$\Delta\text{NH}_3/\Delta\text{CH}_4$	$\Delta\text{NH}_x/\Delta\text{CH}_4$	Percent Change using NH_x [%]
30-Jan	2	0.0804	0.0803	-3
30-Jan	3	0.147	0.149	+1
30-Jan	3	0.197	0.192	-3
31-Jan	3	0.130	0.137	+5
1-Feb	3	0.174	0.176	+1

Table 4. Comparison of mobile platform observations with molar dairy emission flux ratios from relevant case studies in the published literature.

Published Emissions	NH₃:CH₄ [ppmv ppmv⁻¹ or mol mol⁻¹]	Air Temperature Range [°C]
Current study (mobile) median	0.14 ± 0.03	9-20
Current study (mobile) geometric mean	0.15 ± 0.03	9-20
Bjorneberg et al. (2009)	0.45	-1 - 16
Leytem et al. (2011)	0.24	8 - 14
Leytem et al. (2013)	0.25	8 - 13