



1 **Quantifying the impact of aerosol scattering on the**
2 **retrieval of methane from airborne remote sensing**
3 **measurements**

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15
16 **Abstract.** As a greenhouse gas with strong global warming potential, atmospheric methane (CH₄)
17 emissions have attracted a great deal of attention. Remote sensing measurements can provide information
18 about CH₄ sources and emissions. However, accurate assessment of CH₄ emissions is challenging due to
19 the influence of aerosol scattering in the atmosphere. In this study, imaging spectroscopic measurements
20 from the Airborne Visible/Infrared Imaging Spectrometer–Next Generation (AVIRIS-NG) in the short-
21 wave infrared are used to analyze the impact of aerosol scattering on CH₄ retrievals. Using a numerically
22 efficient two-stream-exact-single-scattering radiative transfer model, we also simulate AVIRIS-NG
23 measurements for different scenarios and quantify the impact of aerosol scattering using two retrieval
24 techniques — the traditional Matched Filter (MF) method and the Optimal Estimation (OE) method,
25 which is a popular approach for trace gas retrievals. The results show that the MF method exhibits up to
26 50% lower fractional retrieval bias compared to the OE method at high CH₄ concentrations (>100%
27 enhancement over typical background values) and is suitable for detecting strong CH₄ emissions, while
28 the OE method is an optimal technique for diffuse sources (<50% enhancement), showing up to five
29 times smaller fractional retrieval bias than the MF method. In addition, the impacts of aerosol scattering
30 as a function of different parameters, such as surface albedo, CH₄ concentration, aerosol optical depth,
31 single scattering albedo and asymmetry parameter, are also discussed.



32 **1 Introduction**

33 Atmospheric methane (CH₄) is about 85 times more potent per unit mass at warming the Earth than
34 carbon dioxide (CO₂) on a 20-year timescale (IPCC, 2013), implying that reduction in CH₄ emissions
35 could be very efficient to slow down global warming in the near term. Global mean CH₄ concentrations
36 have increased from ~700 ppb in the preindustrial era to more than 1860 ppb as of 2019 (NOAA, 2019).
37 The most effective sink of atmospheric CH₄ is the hydroxyl radical (OH) in the troposphere. CH₄ reacts
38 with OH to reduce the oxidizing capacity of the atmosphere and generate tropospheric ozone. Increasing
39 emissions of CH₄ reduce the concentration of OH in the atmosphere. With less OH to react with, the
40 lifespan of CH₄ could also increase, resulting in greater CH₄ concentrations (Holmes et al., 2013). Soils
41 also act as a major sink for atmospheric methane through the methanotrophic bacteria that reside within
42 them.

43 Significant natural CH₄ sources include wetlands (Bubier et al., 1994; Macdonald et al., 1998;
44 Gedney et al., 2004), geological seeps (Kvenvolden and Rogers, 2005; Etiope et al., 2009), ruminant
45 animals, and termites. In addition, increased surface and ocean temperatures associated with global
46 warming may increase CH₄ emissions from melting permafrost (Woodwell et al., 1998; Walter et al.,
47 2006; Schaefer et al., 2014; Schuur et al., 2015) and methane hydrate destabilization (Kvenvolden, 1988;
48 Archer, 2007). Human activity also contributes significantly to the total CH₄ emissions. Rice agriculture
49 is one of the most important anthropogenic sources of CH₄ (Herrero et al., 2016; Schaefer et al., 2016).
50 Other sources include landfills (Themelis and Ulloa, 2007), wastewater treatment, biomass burning, and
51 methane slip from gas engines. Global fugitive CH₄ emissions from coal mining (Kort et al., 2014),
52 natural gas and oil systems (Alvarez et al., 2018), hydraulic fracturing (“fracking”) of shale gas wells
53 (Howarth et al., 2011; Howarth, 2015, 2019), and residential and commercial natural gas distribution
54 sectors (He et al., 2019) are also of increasing concern. Although the sources and sinks of methane are
55 reasonably well known, there are large uncertainties in their relative amounts and in the partitioning
56 between natural and anthropogenic contributions (Nisbet et al., 2014, 2016). This uncertainty is
57 exemplified by the CH₄ “hiatus”, which refers to the observed stabilization of atmospheric CH₄
58 concentrations from 1999–2006, and the renewed rise thereafter (Kirschke et al., 2013).

59 Visible/ShortWave InfraRed (VSWIR) imaging spectroscopy, also known as hyperspectral imaging,
60 has been used for nearly four decades to remotely sense the Earth’s surface and atmosphere. The 380–
61 2500 nm spectral interval captures most of the solar energy, which is subject to absorption and scattering
62 by the atmosphere and surface, thereby revealing diverse atmospheric and surface properties (Schaeppman
63 et al., 2009). Hyperspectral remote sensing has been utilized for research and applications in a variety of
64 fields, including geology, agriculture, forestry, coastal and inland water studies, environment hazards



65 assessment, and urban studies. In order to study surface properties using imaging spectrometric data,
66 atmospheric absorption and scattering effects need to be accounted for. The traditional method to do this
67 is called atmospheric correction, which “removes” atmospheric effects and then converts radiances
68 measured by the sensors to reflectances of surface materials. Operational atmospheric correction models
69 include ATREM (Gao et al., 1993), ATCOR (Richter, 1996; Richter, 1998; Richter and Schläpfer, 2002),
70 ISDAS (Staenz et al., 1998), HATCH (Qu et al., 2003), ACORN (Kruse, 2004) and FLAASH (Perkins
71 et al., 2012). However, the process of atmospheric correction — where the atmosphere is retrieved first,
72 followed by the surface — loses information about the atmosphere. Conversely, VSWIR spectral
73 measurements contain information about atmospheric trace gases, aerosols, and thin cirrus clouds.

74 By combining large image footprints and fine spatial resolution, airborne imaging spectrometers are
75 well suited for mapping local CH plumes. The Airborne Visible/Infrared Imaging Spectrometer–Next
76 Generation (AVIRIS-NG) measures reflected solar radiance across more than 400 channels between 380
77 and 2500 nm (Green et al., 1998; Thompson et al., 2015). Strong CH absorption features present between
78 2100 and 2500 nm can be observed at a 5 nm spectral resolution and full width at half maximum (FWHM).

79 A number of approaches have been developed to retrieve CH from hyperspectral data. Roberts et
80 al. (2010) used a spectral residual approach between 2000 and 2500 nm and Bradley et al. (2011)
81 employed a band ratio technique using the 2298 nm CH absorption band and 2058 nm CO absorption
82 band. However, these techniques are not suited for terrestrial locations that have lower albedos and have
83 spectral structure in the SWIR. A cluster-tuned matched filter technique was demonstrated to be capable
84 of mapping CH plumes from marine and terrestrial sources (Thorpe et al., 2013) as well as CO from
85 power plants (Dennison et al., 2013); however, this method does not directly quantify gas concentrations.
86 Frankenberg et al. (2005) developed an iterative maximum *a posteriori* differential optical absorption
87 spectroscopy (IMAP-DOAS) algorithm that allows for uncertainty estimation. Thorpe et al. (2014)
88 adapted the IMAP-DOAS algorithm for gas detection in AVIRIS imagery. In addition, they developed a
89 hybrid approach using singular value decomposition and IMAP-DOAS as a complementary method of
90 quantifying gas concentrations within complex AVIRIS scenes.

91 Accurate assessment of CH emissions is particularly challenging in the presence of aerosols
92 because the latter introduce uncertainties in the light path if not accounted for. In fact, CH emissions are
93 frequently correlated with pollution due to concurrent aerosol emissions. For large aerosols (such as dust),
94 the low Ångström exponent values result in high aerosol optical depth (AOD) values even in the
95 wavelength range from 2000 nm to 2500 nm (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006; Zhang et al., 2015). Therefore,
96 it is important to obtain a clear understanding of aerosol impacts on CH retrievals. In this study, SWIR
97 AVIRIS-NG measurements are used to analyze the impact of aerosol scattering on CH retrievals. Further,



98 using an accurate but numerically efficient radiative transfer (RT) model (Spurr and Natraj, 2011), we
99 simulate AVIRIS-NG measurements with varying aerosol amounts and quantify the impact of aerosol
100 scattering using two retrieval techniques, the traditional matched filter method and the optimal estimation
101 method that is widely used in trace gas remote sensing.

102

103 2 Methods

104 2.1 Matched Filter (MF) method

105 Real-time remote detection using AVIRIS-NG measurements are traditionally based on the MF
106 method (Frankenberg et al., 2016). In this method, the background spectra are assumed to be distributed
107 as a multivariate Gaussian \mathcal{N} with covariance matrix Σ and background mean radiance μ . If H_0 is a
108 scenario without CH₄ enhancement and H_1 is one with CH₄ enhancement, the MF approach is equivalent
109 to a hypothesis test between the two scenarios:

$$110 H_0: L_m \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma) \quad (1)$$

$$111 H_1: L_m \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu + t\alpha, \Sigma) \quad (2)$$

112 where L_m is the measurement radiance; t is the target signature, which is defined in Equation (4); α is the
113 enhancement value, denoting a scaling factor for the target signature that perturbs the background μ . If
114 x is a vector of measurement spectra with one element per wavelength, $\alpha(x)$ can be written, based on
115 maximum likelihood estimates (Manolakis et al., 2014), as follows:

$$116 \alpha(x) = \frac{(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} t}{t^T \Sigma^{-1} t} \quad (3)$$

117 We utilize the same definitions as in Frankenberg et al. (2016). Specifically, the enhancement value $\alpha(x)$
118 denotes the thickness and concentration within a volume of equivalent absorption, and has units of ppm
119 \times m. The target signature t refers to the derivative of the change in measured radiance with respect to a
120 change in absorption path length due to an optically thin absorbing layer of CH₄. Note that this definition
121 has the disadvantage that the accuracy of the result degrades when the absorption is strong and further
122 attenuation becomes nonlinear. At a particular wavelength λ , t can be expressed as:

$$123 t(\lambda) = -\kappa(\lambda)\mu(\lambda), \quad (4)$$

124 where κ is the absorption coefficient for a near-surface plume with units of $\text{ppm}^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$. This is
125 different from the units of $\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ traditionally used for the absorption coefficient in trace gas
126 remote sensing. Using the ideal gas law to express the volume V (in liters) occupied by one mole of CH₄
127 at the temperature and pressure corresponding to the plume altitude ($V = 22.4$ at standard temperature
128 and pressure), and the relations 1 liter = 10^{-3}m^3 and 1 ppm = 10^{-6} , we obtain the following
129 expression for unit conversion:



130
$$1 \text{ m}^2 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} = \frac{1}{V \times 10^3} \text{ ppm}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1} \quad (5)$$

131 Figure 1 presents the target signature, which is calculated based on HITRAN absorption cross-sections
132 (Rothman et al., 2009). The background mean radiance μ used is based on an AVIRIS-NG measurement
133 made on 4 September 2014 (ang20140904t204546) in Bakersfield, CA. As shown in Figure 2, the
134 samples for the background covariance matrix Σ and mean radiance μ are drawn from the dashed green
135 box near the CH₄ emission source, which is located within the solid red box.

136 2.2 Optimal Estimation (OE) method

137 The OE method is widely used for the remote sensing retrieval of satellite measurements, such as
138 from the Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2; O'Dell et al., 2018), the Spinning Enhanced Visible
139 and Infra-Red Imager (SEVIRI; Merchant et al., 2013), and the Greenhouse Gases Observing Satellite
140 (GOSAT; Yoshida et al., 2013). It combines an explicit (typically nonlinear) forward model of the
141 atmospheric state, a (typically Gaussian) prior probability distribution for the variabilities and a (typically
142 Gaussian) distribution for the spectral measurement errors. In addition, the Bayesian framework used by
143 the OE approach allows new information (from measurements) to be combined with existing information
144 (e.g., from models). In many applications, the forward model is nonlinear, and obtaining the optimal
145 solution requires iterative techniques such as the Levenberg–Marquardt method (Rodgers, 2000), which
146 has been routinely applied to study the impacts of measurement parameters on the retrieval process (see,
147 e.g., Zhang et al., 2015). The iteration in this algorithm follows the below procedure.

148
$$\mathbf{x}_{i+1} = \mathbf{x}_i + [(1 + \gamma)\mathbf{S}_a^{-1} + \mathbf{K}_i^T \mathbf{S}_\epsilon^{-1} \mathbf{K}_i]^{-1} \{ \mathbf{K}_i^T \mathbf{S}_\epsilon^{-1} [\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}_i)] - \mathbf{S}_a^{-1} [\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_a] \} \quad (6)$$

149 where \mathbf{x} is a state vector of surface and atmospheric properties, \mathbf{S}_a is the *a priori* covariance matrix, \mathbf{S}_ϵ
150 is the spectral radiance noise covariance matrix, \mathbf{K} is the Jacobian matrix, \mathbf{x}_a is the *a priori* state vector
151 and γ is a parameter determining the size of each iteration step. The measured spectral radiance is denoted
152 as \mathbf{y} ; $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x})$ is the simulated radiance obtained from the forward model. For the retrieval of CH₄ from
153 AVIRIS-NG measurements, the state vector includes the total column amounts of CH₄ and H₂O, while
154 for the retrievals from synthetic spectra, the H₂O concentration is fixed and the state vector only includes
155 the CH₄ total column. The *a priori* errors are assumed to be 20% for all state vector elements and the
156 retrieved results are shown as the column averaged mixing ratio (XCH₄, in ppm).

157

158 3 Detection and retrieval of CH₄ from AVIRIS-NG measurements



159 Figure 2 shows a sample of CH₄ plume detection on 4 September 2014 by AVIRIS-NG. The location
160 is to the west of the Kern Front Oil field. This detection is a case study from the NASA/ESA CO₂ and
161 MEthane eXperiment (COMEX) campaign in California during June and August/September 2014, which
162 includes airborne *in situ*, airborne non-imaging remote sensing, and ground-based *in situ* instruments to
163 provide a real-time remote detection and measurement for CH₄ plumes released from anthropogenic
164 sources. An RGB image of flight data is displayed in Figure 2a; the emission source is a pump jack, as
165 described in Thompson et al. (2015). Figure 2b presents results from the MF method, which shows that
166 the CH₄ plume disperses downwind and has a maximum enhancement value of about 2800 ppm × m.
167 Some artifacts also produce large α values in the MF method; these can be removed by an optimization
168 method such as the column-wise MF method (Thompson et al., 2015).

169 AVIRIS-NG provides measurements of reflected sunlight in the 380–2500 nm range with 5 nm
170 spectral resolution; the 2100–2500 nm range with obvious CH₄ absorption features are often used to
171 retrieve CH₄ enhancement. Figure 3 displays the measured radiance (a) before normalization and (b) after
172 normalization, corresponding to two detector elements (in plume and out of plume). Every element is a
173 cross-track spatial location. The radiance has units of $\mu\text{W cm}^{-2} \text{nm}^{-1} \text{sr}^{-1}$ and the wavelength spans the
174 spectral range from 380 to 2500 nm. Comparing the measured spectrum in plume to that out of plume,
175 there is obvious enhancement of CH₄ that is particularly evident in the normalized radiance. CH₄ is the
176 main absorber in the 2100–2500 nm wavelength range, and H₂O is the major interfering gas. Figure 3b
177 indicates the absorption peaks due to H₂O and CH₄.

178 We choose the plume center with 500 elements to illustrate results obtained using the MF and OE
179 methods. The former evaluates the CH₄ α value compared to the background CH₄ concentration, while
180 the latter retrieves XCH₄. Results for the latter are shown as a multiplicative scaling factor compared to
181 a typical XCH₄ background of 1.822 ppm. We use an accurate and numerically efficient two-stream-
182 exact-single-scattering (2S-ESS) RT model (Spurr and Natraj, 2011). This forward model is different
183 from a typical two-stream model in that the two-stream approximation is used only to calculate the
184 contribution of multiple scattering to the radiation field. Single scattering is treated in a numerically exact
185 manner using all moments of the phase function. This model has been used for remote sensing of
186 greenhouse gases and aerosols (Xi et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015, 2016; Zeng et al., 2017, 2018).

187 Results from the two retrieval methods (Figure 4) reveal a similar CH₄ plume shape, especially for
188 elements with high CH₄ enhancement. However, larger differences in CH₄ concentrations are evident in
189 the OE retrievals (Figure 4b). One reason is that, in the OE method, H₂O and CH₄ are simultaneously
190 retrieved; the CH₄ retrieval has added uncertainty due to overlapping absorption features between these
191 two gases. The large maximum value of about 3000 in the MF method also contributes to a reduction in



192 relative contrast. It is difficult to compare the CH₄ enhancement directly between the two methods since
193 the background CH₄ concentration used in the MF method cannot be quantified exactly. Therefore, we
194 simulate synthetic spectra (see section 4) using the 2S-ESS RT model to study the impacts of aerosol
195 scattering as a function of different geophysical parameters.

196

197 **4 Aerosol impact analysis**

198 **4.1 Synthetic spectra**

199 In a real AVIRIS-NG observation, the exact column concentration of CH₄ cannot be controlled.
200 However, synthetic simulations allow us to manipulate parameters such as CH₄ concentration, surface
201 albedo, AOD, asymmetry parameter (g), and single scattering albedo (SSA), and thereby test aerosol
202 impacts on CH₄ retrievals. The 2S-ESS RT model is used to simulate AVIRIS-NG spectral radiance. In
203 this model, a prior atmospheric profile with 70 layers from the surface up to 70 km is derived from
204 National Center for Environmental Prediction reanalysis data (Kalnay et al., 1996); absorption
205 coefficients for all relevant gases are obtained from the HITRAN database (Rothman et al., 2009).
206 Monochromatic RT calculations are performed at a spectral resolution of 0.5 cm⁻¹; the radiance spectrum
207 is then convolved using a Gaussian instrument line shape function with a wavelength-dependent full
208 width at half maximum (FWHM) from a calibrated AVIRIS-NG data file. The signal to noise ratio (SNR)
209 is set to be 300, with Gaussian white noise added. This procedure results in a wavelength grid with a
210 resolution of about 5 nm. The spectral wavelength range used to retrieve CH₄ is from 2100 nm to 2500
211 nm.

212 The additional atmospheric and geometric variables included in the model are listed in Table 1,
213 which are held constant unless otherwise mentioned. The observation geometry parameters are taken
214 from a real AVIRIS-NG measurement. Recent AVIRIS-NG flight campaigns have sensor heights ranging
215 from 0.43 to 3.8 km; we choose a value of 1 km, the same as the highest level where aerosol is present
216 in our simulations. The influence of AOD on CH₄ retrieval as a function of SSA and g is analyzed in
217 Section 4.3; in all other cases, SSA and g are held constant at 0.95 and 0.75, respectively.

218

219 **4.2 Aerosol impact in the MF method**

220 We simulate synthetic spectra at different AOD, surface albedo and CH₄ concentration values, use
221 the MF method to obtain the CH₄ enhancement, and compare differences in α between scenarios with
222 and without aerosol. The covariance and mean radiance are calculated from a simulated zero AOD
223 background with albedos from 0.1 to 0.5, and XCH₄ set at a typical background value of 1.822 ppm.
224 Figure 5a shows the enhancement value as a function of XCH₄. As the CH₄ concentration increases, the



225 enhancement value obtained by the MF method at first increases approximately linearly. However, since
226 the absorption cross-section changes in a nonlinear fashion with concentration, the enhancement value
227 also becomes nonlinear at larger XCH. Two aerosol scenarios (AOD = 0, AOD = 0.3) are compared in
228 Figure 5a, which reveals that the effect of aerosol loading is similar to an underestimation of CH_i in the
229 retrieval. The underestimation is clearly shown in Figure 5b, where the enhancement value for fixed CH_i
230 concentration (same concentration as the background) decreases from 0 ppm × m to −1532 ppm × m
231 with increasing AOD. To clarify the impact of AOD at different surface albedo values, zoomed in
232 versions of α as a function of XCH_i are presented in Figures 5c, 5d, 5e and 5f. For the AOD = 0 scenario,
233 the results are independent of surface albedo. For the scenarios with aerosol loading, the dispersion
234 between the results at different surface albedos and the changes in the zero-enhancement value (relative
235 to the background concentration of CH_i = 1.0 × 1.822 ppm) indicates that results from the MF method
236 are biased more at large AOD and surface albedo values; the maximum bias value is close to 0.06 ×
237 1.822 ppm for an AOD of 0.3 and albedo of 0.5, as shown by the dotted line in Figure 5f.

238 A quantitative analysis of underestimation of CH_i concentration due to aerosol scattering is
239 presented in Figure 6. The color bar shows the α bias, which is defined as the difference between the
240 enhancements without and with aerosols, for different CH_i concentrations, surface albedos and AODs.
241 The α bias increases with increasing surface albedo and AOD, reaching a maximum value of about 700
242 ppm × m for the simulated cases. However, it is interesting that the bias decreases with increasing CH_i
243 concentration, which is different from the results obtained by the OE method (discussed in section 4.3).
244 This difference arises due to the nonlinear deviation at higher CH_i concentrations using the MF method,
245 as discussed earlier.

246

247 **4.3 Aerosol impact in the OE method**

248 For the simulation of the synthetic spectra, we assume nonzero aerosol loading below 1 km elevation.
249 The OE method is then used to perform retrievals using the same configuration except that AOD is set
250 to zero. This approach is similar to neglecting aerosol scattering in the CH_i retrieval; the retrieval bias is
251 defined as the difference between the true XCH_i in the simulation (nonzero AOD) and the retrieved value
252 (zero AOD).

253 It is of interest to study the retrieval bias caused by different aerosol types. We employ the Henyey-
254 Greenstein phase function (Henyey and Greenstein, 1941), where aerosol composition is determined by
255 two parameters: SSA and g . Figure 7 shows CH_i retrieval biases as a function of SSA and g ; surface
256 albedo and AOD are kept constant at 0.3 and the XCH_i is assumed to be 1.0 × 1.822 ppm. The retrieval
257 bias increases with SSA and decreases with g , with a maximum bias ratio (ratio of retrieval bias to the



258 true value) of about 20%. Synthetic spectra are simulated for different values of CH concentration,
259 surface albedo and AOD. The impacts of aerosol scattering on the retrievals for these scenarios are
260 demonstrated in Figure 8. Figure 8a shows a 5×5 panel of boxes. Within each box, XCH is constant,
261 while surface albedo increases from top to bottom and AOD increases from left to right. It is evident that
262 the retrieved CH bias increases with increasing AOD. The CH bias induced by differences in the surface
263 albedo is not as large as that due to AOD variations, but albedo effects are noticeable at large AOD. In
264 contrast with the MF method, OE retrievals produce larger CH biases at higher XCH values. The
265 variation of XCH across the boxes is shown in Figure 8b. We also show a zoomed in plot of the bottom
266 right box ($XCH = 5.8 \times 1.822$ ppm) in Figure 8c, which illustrates the AOD and surface albedo changes
267 within a box. These changes are identical for all boxes.

268

269 4.4 Comparison of the two retrieval techniques

270 Figure 9 presents the bias ratios for the two retrieval techniques at different AODs. In the MF
271 method, we assume the truth to be the retrieved α for the case with zero AOD. The bias ratio is therefore
272 defined as the ratio of the bias in retrieved α to the true value of α . On the other hand, in the OE method,
273 the bias ratio is the ratio of the retrieved XCH difference (between scenarios without and with aerosol)
274 to the real XCH. In all cases the surface albedo is set to 0.3. From Figure 9 it is clear that the bias ratio
275 decreases with increasing CH concentration and has higher values at larger AODs. The bias ratio for the
276 MF method is up to 50% less than that for the OE method when the CH concentration is high ($> 2 \times$
277 1.822 ppm). On the other hand, the OE method performs better when enhancements are small and XCH
278 is close to the background value. For example, the bias ratio for the MF method has a high value of about
279 0.43 at $AOD = 0.3$ for a 10% enhancement ($XCH = 1.1 \times 1.822$ ppm); the OE value for the same scenario
280 is 0.086. The two retrieval techniques seem to be complementary, with differing utilities for different
281 enhancements.

282

283 5 Discussion

284 Remote sensing measurements from airborne and satellite instruments are widely used to detect CH
285 emissions. In our study, the traditional MF and the OE methods are used to quantify the effects of aerosol
286 scattering on CH retrievals based on simulations of AVIRIS-NG measurements. The results show that
287 the retrieval biases increase with increasing AOD and albedo for both techniques. In the OE method the
288 biases increase with increasing CH concentration and SSA, but decrease with increasing aerosol
289 asymmetry parameter. The CH retrieval bias increases with increasing XCH in the OE method but
290 decreases for the same scenario in the MF method. The contrasting trend is attributed to nonlinear effects



291 at higher XCH₄ values in the MF method. We also present bias ratios for the two techniques. The MF
292 method shows smaller bias ratios at large CH₄ concentrations than the OE method; it is, therefore, an
293 optimal method to detect strong CH₄ emission sources. On the other hand, the OE method seems to be
294 more suitable for detecting diffuse sources. Further, the MF method relies on a comparison with the
295 background CH₄ concentration. It is difficult to get an accurate estimate of the background XCH₄ value
296 in polluted atmospheric environments. In contrast, the OE method provides retrievals based solely on the
297 atmospheric scenario of interest.

298 This study focused on a comparison of retrieval techniques. It is also important to accurately
299 represent the physics of atmospheric RT, especially for scenarios with significant aerosol scattering. RT
300 models traditionally used in retrievals of imaging spectroscopic data use simplified radiation schemes
301 and predefined aerosol models, which may introduce inaccuracies in the representation of atmospheric
302 physics. The 2S-ESS model provides the capability to quantify aerosol impacts on CH₄ retrieval for
303 different aerosol types, optical depths and layer heights. In future work, we will compare retrievals using
304 the 2S-ESS model against other commonly used models such as MODTRAN. We will also evaluate the
305 impact of varying instrument spectral resolution and signal to noise ratio for simultaneous retrieval of
306 CH₄ and AOD. This will be relevant for the design of imaging spectrometers for planned future missions
307 such as the NASA designated Surface Biology and Geology (SBG) mission.

308

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316



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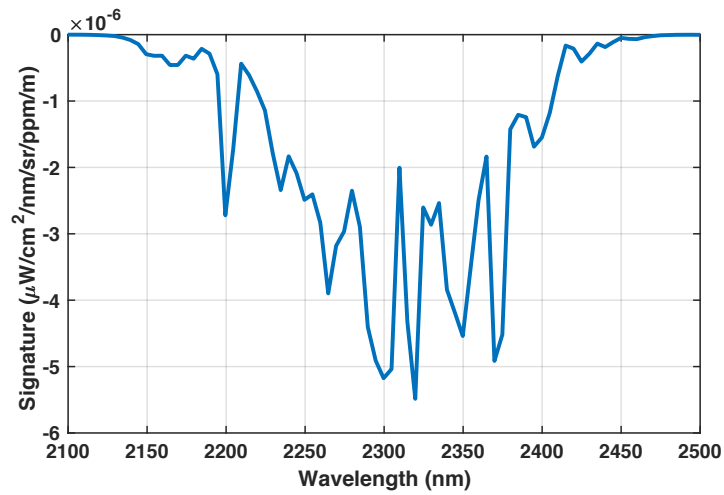
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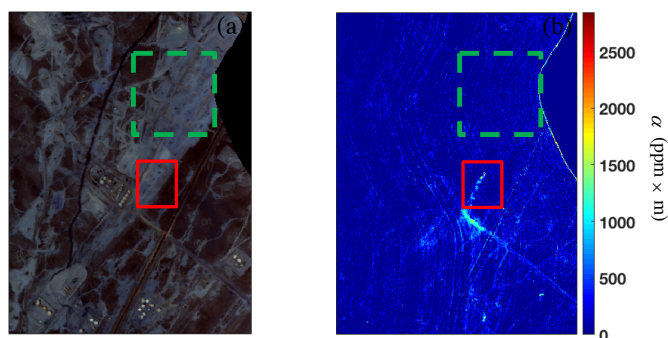
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578 **Figure 1: The target signature used for the Matched Filter method.**

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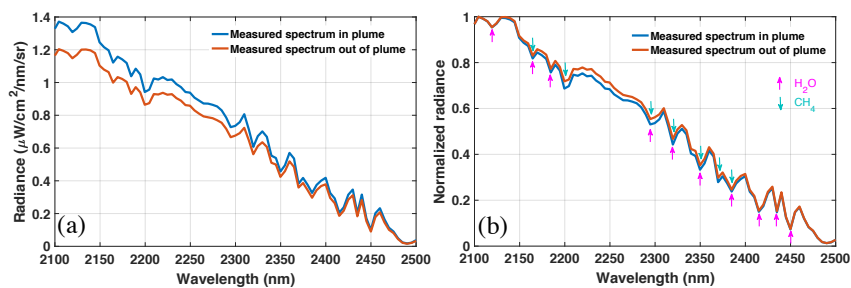
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582 **Figure 2: (a) RGB image of flight data from 4 September 2014 (ang20140904t204546). Adapted from**
583 **Thompson et al. (2015). (b) CH enhancement value α (ppm \times m) obtained by the MF method. An emission**
584 **source is shown in the solid red box and the background region near the target for the MF calculation is**
585 **indicated by the dashed green box.**

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589 **Figure 3: (a) Real radiance and (b) normalized radiance at cross-track detector elements (in and out of plume)**

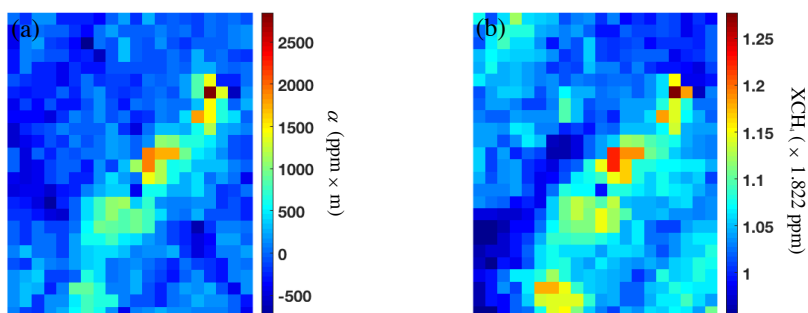
590 **from the sample AVIRIS-NG measurement. The colored arrows in (b) show the main absorption features due**

591 **to H₂O (purple) and CH₄ (green).**

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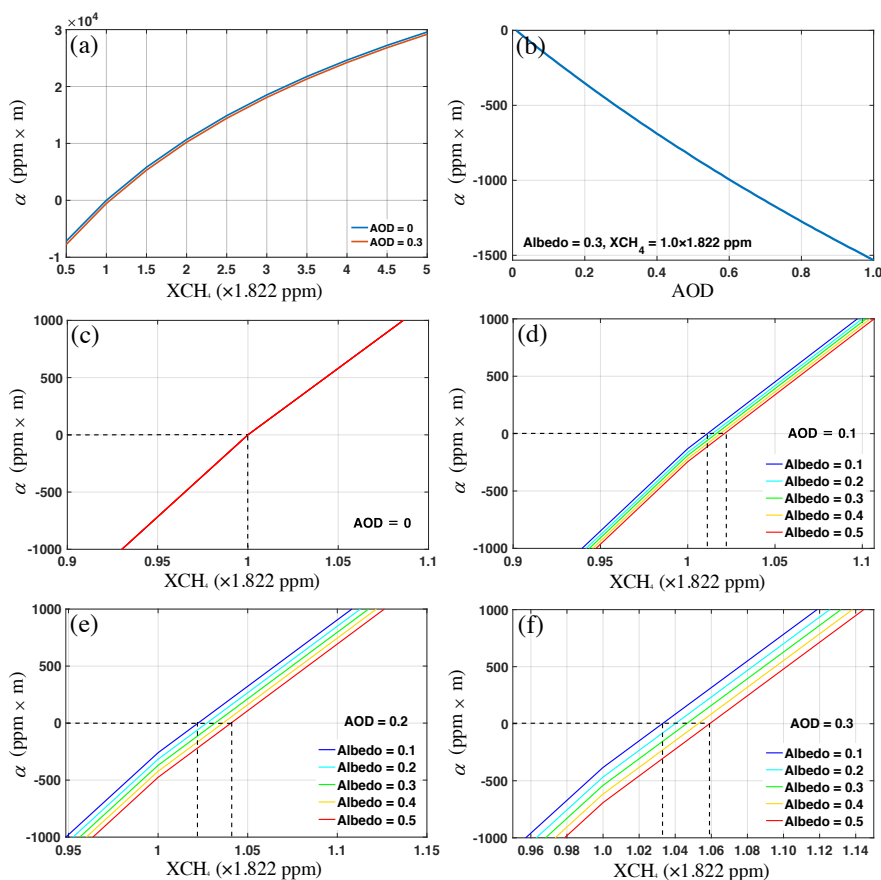
595 **Figure 4: Retrieval image for the plume center (500 elements) based on the (a) MF method and (b) OE method.**

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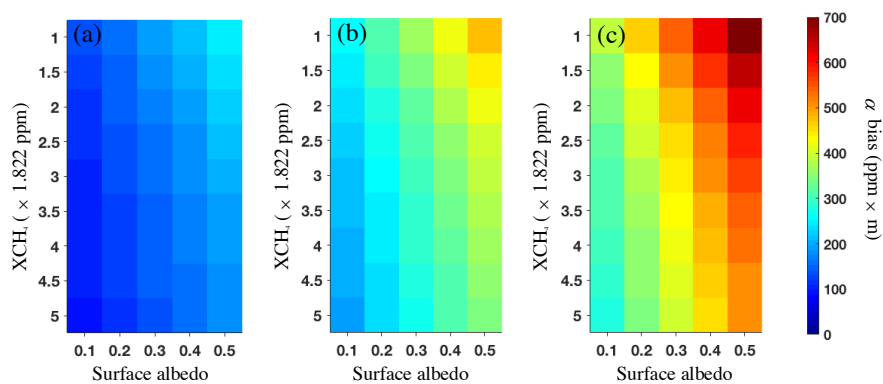
598



599 **Figure 5:** (a) α as a function of XCH₄ for AOD = 0 and AOD = 0.3 (surface albedo = 0.3). (b) α as a function
 600 of AOD (XCH₄ = 1.0×1.822 ppm, surface albedo = 0.3). Zoomed in versions of α as a function of XCH₄ for
 601 different albedos (0.1-0.5), where (c) AOD = 0, (d) AOD = 0.1, (e) AOD = 0.2, and (f) AOD = 0.3.
 602



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605 **Figure 6: Bias in α as a function of XCH_4 and surface albedo for (a) $\text{AOD} = 0.1$, (b) $\text{AOD} = 0.2$, and (c) AOD**

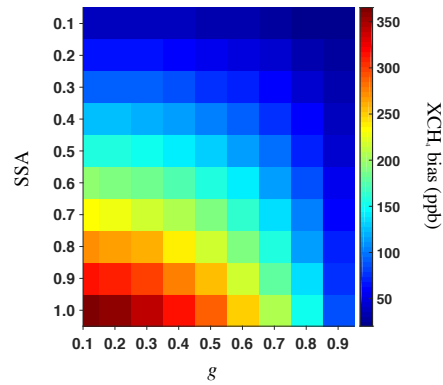
606 **$= 0.3$.**

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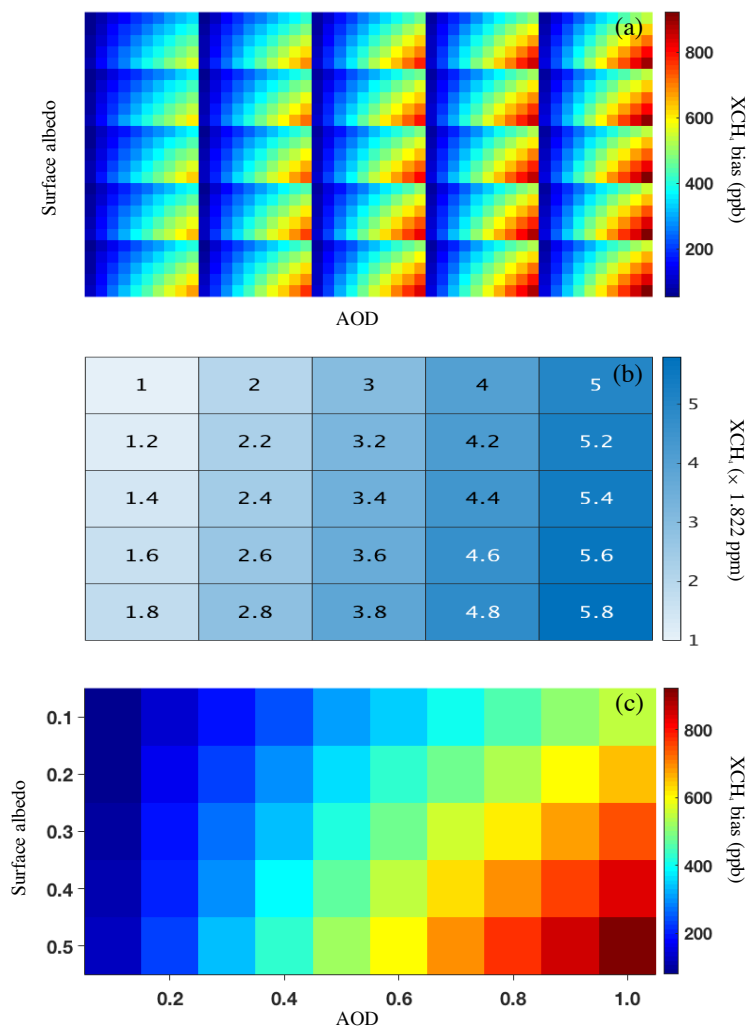
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610 **Figure 7: CH₄ retrieval biases for different values of *g* and SSA. Albedo, AOD = 0.3, XCH₄ = 1.0 × 1.822 ppm.**



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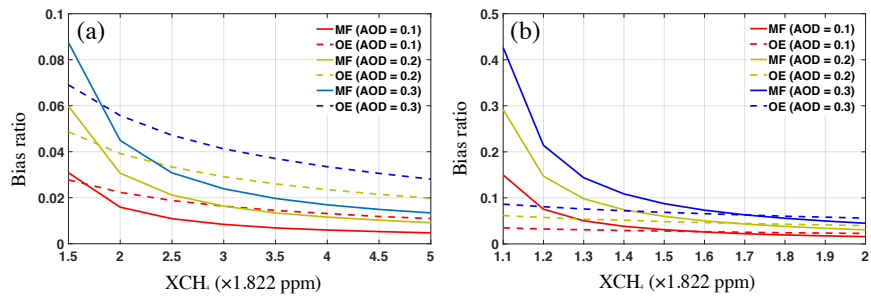
613 **Figure 8: (a) Bias in retrieved XCH₄ for different values of XCH₄, AOD and surface albedo. $g = 0.75$, $SSA =$**
614 **0.95. (b) XCH₄ for each box in (a). (c) Zoomed in plot of bottom right box (XCH₄ = 5.8×1.822 ppm). The x**
615 **and y axes show the variation of AOD and surface albedo, respectively. These changes are identical for every**
616 **box in (a).**

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620 **Figure 9:** (a) Bias ratio as a function of CH₄ concentration for the two retrieval techniques, where the XCH₄
621 ranges from 1.5 to 5 ($\times 1.822$ ppm). (b) Same as (a), but for XCH₄ ranging from 1.1 to 2 ($\times 1.822$ ppm). Surface
622 albedo is set to 0.3 for all cases; results for the MF and OE methods are shown by solid and dashed lines,
623 respectively.
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625

Attribute	Values
Sensor height	1 km
View zenith angle	11.91°
Solar zenith angle	30.75°
Relative azimuth angle	22.87°
Aerosol loading region	from surface to 1 km
SSA	0.95
<i>g</i>	0.75

626 Table 1: Inputs for the 2S-ESS model simulation.