



1 **Field Testing Two Flux Footprint Models**

2 Trevor W. Coates¹, Monzurul Alam², Thomas K. Flesch³, Guillermo Hernandez-Ramirez²

3 ¹ Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, Lethbridge, Canada, T1J 4B1

4 ² Department of Renewable Resources, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada T6G 2E3

5 ³ Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada T6G 2E3

6 *Correspondence to:* Thomas Flesch (thomas.flesch@ualberta.ca)



7 **Abstract.** A field study was undertaken to investigate the accuracy of two micrometeorological flux footprint models when
8 calculating the gas emission rate from a 10 x 10 m synthetic surface area source, based on the vertical flux of gas measured 15 to
9 50 m downwind of the source. Calculations were made with an easy-to-use tool based on the Kormann-Meixner analytical model
10 and with a more sophisticated Lagrangian stochastic dispersion model. A total of 323 10 minute observation periods were
11 measured over 9 days. On average, each of the two models calculated the emission rate to within 10 % of the actual release rate.
12 No clear differences were observed between the two models in terms of overall accuracy.

13 **1 Introduction**

14 Micrometeorological techniques such as eddy-covariance and flux-gradient measure a vertical flux of gas in the atmosphere, which
15 can be used to deduce the surface flux from an underlying area of interest. If the underlying surface is expansive and horizontally
16 homogenous, the measured atmospheric flux and the surface flux can be considered equivalent (Dyer, 1963). However, if the area
17 of interest has a limited spatial extent, or is located some distance from the atmospheric measurement, the relationship between the
18 two fluxes can be complex, as the measured flux may be capturing a dynamic mixture of surface fluxes from both inside and
19 outside the area of interest. In these cases, flux footprint modelling can be used to quantify the relationship between the measured
20 atmospheric flux and the surface flux from the area of interest.

21 The analytical flux footprint model of Kormann and Meixner (2001), hereafter referred to as the KM model, is widely used to
22 evaluate and interpret flux measurements taken over spatially limited surface sources. The KM model relies on a simplified
23 representation of atmospheric transport (Schmid, 2002) in order to create an easy-to-compute footprint. It has been used to help
24 quantify ammonia fluxes from fertilized plots (Spirig et al., 2010), interpret methane fluxes from heterogeneous peatland areas
25 (Budishchev et al., 2014), and to reject periods where the footprint extends beyond the source of interest (Stevens et al., 2012).
26 Other footprint models use a more realistic treatment of atmospheric transport (e.g., Kljun et al., 2002; Sogachev and Lloyd, 2004).
27 Using a state-of-the-art Lagrangian stochastic (LS) footprint model, Wilson (2015) found a clear separation between the LS and
28 KM footprints, depending on atmospheric stability and the distance from the measurement location. While more rigorous footprint
29 models are clearly more defensible, the simpler KM model has the advantage of rapid analysis and the existence of software tools
30 that make its application more accessible to non-specialists (Neftel et al., 2008).

31 This field study compares the accuracy of the KM footprint model with a more rigorous LS model. The motivation for this study
32 was the question of whether the accuracy of the LS model was sufficiently better than the KM model, so as to justify the more
33 complex LS application in interpreting the results from field studies. In this experiment we released gas at a known rate from a
34 small synthetic area source and measured the vertical gas flux at a downwind location using the eddy-covariance technique. The
35 KM and LS models were then used to calculate the source emission rate based on the measured atmospheric flux. The accuracy
36 of those calculations is examined in this report.

37 **2 Methods**

38 **2.1 Gas Release**

39 The experiment took place on an extensive flat agricultural field at the University of Alberta's Breton Research Farm, in Alberta,
40 Canada (53° 07' N, 114° 28' W). Measurements were made after autumn harvest, and the surface was rye (*Secale cereale* L.)
41 stubble having an average height of 3 cm. No obstructions to the wind were present within 250 m of the measurement site.



42 A synthetic source of carbon dioxide (CO₂) gas was constructed using 10 lengths of ½" (12.7 mm) diameter PVC pipe, each 10 m
43 long. The 10 pipes were loosely positioned to create a nominal 10 x 10 m square source area. Compressed CO₂ gas (99.9 % purity)
44 passed through a mass flow controller (Aalborg Instruments and Controls, Inc. Orangeburg, NY, USA) to a manifold (17 L) having
45 outlets for each of the 10 pipes. Gas outlets of 1/16" (1.6 mm) diameter were placed every 50 cm along each pipe. We assumed
46 equal flow rates from each outlet due to the high head loss across each outlet relative to the manifold pressure (e.g., Flesch et al.,
47 2004).

48 The vertical CO₂ flux downwind of the synthetic source was measured using the eddy-covariance (EC) technique. The
49 instrumentation included a fast-response CO₂/H₂O analyser (Li-7500DS, Licor Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA) and a sonic
50 anemometer (CSAT-3, Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, USA) placed at a height of 1.97 m above ground. The 10 Hz concentration
51 and wind measurements were processed using the EddyPro® open source software (version 6.2.1 LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln,
52 NE, USA) to obtain 10 minute (min) average fluxes of CO₂. The software was run in express mode applying a double coordinate
53 wind rotation, Webb-Pearman-Leuning correction terms for density fluctuations (Webb et al., 1980), and spectral corrections for
54 inadequate high and low frequency response of the sensors (Moncrieff et al., 1997, 2004). Quality checks for steady state conditions
55 and integral turbulence characteristics (Mauder and Foken, 2004) were used to exclude error-prone periods.

56 Gas releases took place over 9 days, with the center of the synthetic source positioned (Fig. 1) at one of three nominal distances
57 from the EC system (i.e., fetches of 15, 30, and 50 m). Placement of the source relative to the EC system depended on the expected
58 wind direction. Because CO₂ is naturally emitted from the landscape it was important that the synthetic CO₂ release rate be
59 sufficiently high so as to create a measured atmospheric flux that was many times larger than that due to the natural landscape flux.
60 Nicolini et al. (2017) found a CO₂ release rate of 22 L min⁻¹ was sufficient to distinguish the release signal from background levels.
61 Our situation was helped in that the experiment took place during the dormant autumn season when landscape CO₂ fluxes were
62 small. Gas was released at rates between 30 and 90 L min⁻¹, with larger rates used for the larger fetches. Prior to any release
63 interval, and immediately after each hour of gas release, a 30 min period of background CO₂ flux was measured. These background
64 fluxes (which were consistently small) were subtracted from the EC-measured fluxes prior to undertaking the footprint analyses.

65 Our study consisted of more than 300 10 min flux measurement periods, and included periods of gas release, background flux
66 measurements, and transitions when gas was released but a steady state plume may not have been established over the field site
67 (we assumed this occurred 10 min after gas was turned on). There was a total of 125 valid gas release periods. From this total we
68 excluded 66 periods from our analysis based on two broad factors:

- 69 • 19 periods were excluded for having wind conditions associated with unreliability in the EC measurements or the
70 dispersion model calculations: light winds with a friction velocity $u^* < 0.05 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, or an inferred roughness length $z_0 >$
71 0.25 m . A low u^* filtering criterion is often used in an EC analysis (e.g., Rannik et al., 2004) and in dispersion model
72 calculations (e.g., Flesch et al., 2014). The z_0 filtering criterion indicates an unrealistic wind profile given the bare soil
73 conditions of our site, and the likelihood of inaccurate dispersion model calculations based on the wind profile.
- 74 • 47 periods were excluded when the EC measurement location was not obviously in the source plume. This included
75 periods when the EC measured CO₂ flux was less than zero, when the wind direction deviated more than 30 degrees from
76 the line between the EC site and the source center, or when the LS footprint model (described below) indicated the plume
77 may not have reached the EC measurement site (i.e., fewer than 1,000 of 1,000,000 backward trajectories released from
78 the EC site reached the source).

79 These various quality control criteria eliminated over half of the gas release periods, leaving a total of 59 periods for the footprint
80 analysis. The final data are summarized in the supplemental material accompanying this report.



81 2.2 Flux Footprint Models

82 2.2.1 Kormann and Meixner (KM) Model

83 The KM model is based on an analytical solution to the steady-state advection-diffusion equation, assuming simplified power-law
84 profiles for windspeed and eddy diffusivity, and a crosswind diffusion component (Kormann and Meixner, 2001). We used the
85 ART Footprint tool software (Nefel et al., 2008), which is based on the KM model, to calculate the synthetic-source emission rate
86 (Q_{KM} , $g C m^{-2} s^{-1}$) based on the measured EC flux. The calculation uses the spatial outline of the source polygon, the EC
87 measurement height (z_{EC}), the horizontal wind speed at z_{EC} , the friction velocity (u^*), the standard deviation of the lateral wind
88 velocity (σ_v), and the Obukhov length (L). The wind variables were measured with the 3-D sonic anemometer (part of the EC
89 system). In this study, the ratio of the KM-predicted synthetic emission rate to the actual release rate (Q_{KM}/Q) is the fundamental
90 metric for model testing. A perfectly accurate prediction is $Q_{KM}/Q = 1$.

91 2.2.2 Lagrangian Stochastic (LS) Model

92 A state-of-the-art LS model was also used to calculate the emission rate from the synthetic source (Q_{LS} , $g C m^{-2} s^{-1}$) based on the
93 measured EC flux. The predicted EC flux resulting from the synthetic emissions was calculated from the trajectories of thousands
94 of model “particles” travelling upwind from the EC measurement point (backward in time). We follow the calculation procedure
95 outlined in Flesch (1996) using the LS model detailed in Flesch et al. (2004). The model uses the wind velocity fluctuations in the
96 three directional components (σ_u , σ_v , σ_w), the friction velocity (u^*), the Obukhov stability length (L), the average wind direction,
97 and the surface roughness length (z_0). These properties were calculated from the 3-D sonic anemometer measurements. The LS
98 calculations were made using 1,000,000 particles for each 10 min observation interval. A perfectly accurate LS model prediction
99 will give $Q_{LS}/Q = 1$.

100 3 Results and Discussion

101 The overall average of the footprint calculations, expressed as the ratio of the model derived emission rate to the actual emission
102 rate, are encouragingly close to 1 for both models: $Q_{KM}/Q = 0.97$ (0.08) and $Q_{LS}/Q = 1.08$ (0.11), with the standard error given
103 within the parentheses. These averages are neither statistically different from 1.0 nor from one another (paired t-tests with $P_s >$
104 0.05). The period-to-period variability in the Q/Q ratios was relatively high, with an overall coefficient of variation (CV) near
105 1.0. This variability was expected. The 10×10 m source area is a small portion of the entire flux footprint. As opposed to
106 larger areas, this small area will amplify the differences and the inaccuracies of the models, and also increase uncertainty (e.g., a
107 larger source means increasing the spatial integration of the footprint function, which acts to increasingly constrain the numerical
108 results, reducing model differences).

109 When examining the footprint agreements as a function of fetch (Fig. 2), we found the average Q_{KM}/Q is reasonably accurate at
110 the shorter fetches of 15 and 30 m, but less accurate at 50 m. This trend towards underprediction of Q_{KM}/Q at the larger fetch is
111 similar to earlier findings by Tallec et al. (2012) and Felber et al. (2015). Alternatively, the Q_{LS}/Q predictions are very good at
112 the nearer fetch of 15 m and the further fetch of 50 m, but poorer at 30 m. Based on the modelling results of Wilson (2015), we
113 had hypothesized that there would be substantial differences between the two models at the shorter fetch, with the LS model being
114 more accurate due to its better representation of horizontal turbulent transport, which is important for defining the footprint at short
115 fetches. While it is true that the LS model had excellent performance for the short 15 m fetch, our results do not fully support a



116 conclusion that the LS model had better overall performance than the KM model, at least for the limited range of fetches studied
117 in this experiment.

118 Examination of the emission calculations in terms of atmospheric stability, windspeed, and wind direction did not indicate any
119 clear patterns in terms of affecting the relative accuracy between the two footprint models. In fact, our dataset does not consistently
120 discriminate between the performances of the KM and LS models, despite the theoretical advantages of the LS model. We conclude
121 that any systematic differences between the models in our study were obscured by the substantial period-to-period variability in Q
122 / Q calculations (i.e., the overall CV for both models is close to 1.0). Detecting such differences would require an even larger
123 sample size than the observations we were able to acquire ($n = 323$).

124 **4 Conclusions**

125 From an end-user's perspective, our results show that both the KM and LS models returned accurate flux footprint estimates on
126 average (but with large period-to-period variability). Given the high variability of the flux footprint, we conclude that the easy-to-
127 use KM model provides an accurate enough footprint tool that is simple and accessible to non-specialists. This study did not
128 identify a clear benefit to using the more sophisticated LS footprint model.

129 **Data availability**

130 The data used in this analysis are available as supplementary material, or by request to Trevor.Coates@Canada.ca.

131 **Author contributions**

132 TC analyzed the field data and helped write the manuscript. MA design the experiment, and coordinated and collected the field
133 data. TF helped with the experimental design and data analysis, and reviewed the manuscript. GHR helped with the experimental
134 design and reviewed the manuscript.

135 **Competing interests**

136 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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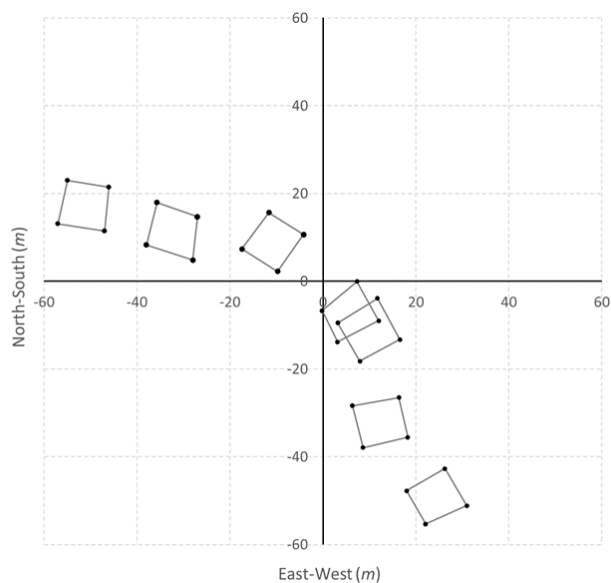
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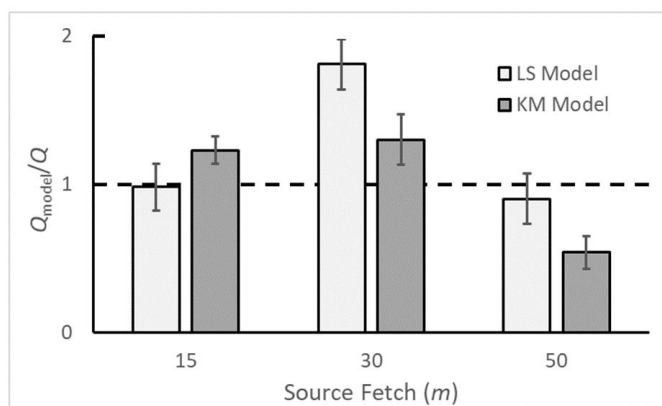
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193 **Figure 1: Map of the synthetic source locations used in the study (polygons). The eddy covariance system was located at position (0,0).**
194 **Grid spacing is 20 m.**



195
196 **Figure 2: Agreement ratio of the footprint model calculated emission rate (Q_{model}) to actual release rate (Q), grouped by source fetch.**
197 **Calculations are from the LS and KM models. The error bars represent the standard error of the mean. The horizontal dashed line**
198 **represents a Q_{model}/Q ratio of one, or a perfect model calculation.**