

Source decomposition of eddy-covariance CO₂ flux measurements for evaluating a high-resolution urban CO₂ emissions inventory

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Abstract.

We present the comparison of source-partitioned CO₂ flux measurements with a high-resolution urban CO₂ emissions inventory (Hestia). Tower-based measurements of CO and ¹⁴C are used to partition net CO₂ flux measurements into fossil and biogenic components. A flux footprint model is used to quantify spatial variation in flux measurements. We compare the daily cycle and spatial structure of Hestia and eddy-covariance derived fossil fuel CO₂ emissions on a seasonal basis. Hestia inventory emissions exceed the eddy-covariance measured emissions by 0.36 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (3.2%) in the cold season and 0.62 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (9.1%) in the warm season. The daily cycle of fluxes in both products matches closely, with correlations in the hourly mean fluxes of 0.86 (cold season) and 0.93 (warm season). The spatially averaged fluxes also agree in each season and a persistent spatial pattern in the differences during both seasons that may suggest a bias related to residential heating emissions. In addition, in the cold season, the magnitudes of average daytime biological uptake and nighttime respiration at this flux site are approximately 15% and 27% of the mean fossil fuel CO₂ emissions over the same time period, contradicting common assumptions of no significant biological CO₂ exchange in northern cities during winter. This work

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41 demonstrates the effectiveness of using trace gas ratios to adapt eddy-covariance flux
42 measurements in urban environments for disaggregating anthropogenic CO₂ emissions
43 and urban ecosystem fluxes at high spatial and temporal resolution.

44 *Keywords:* eddy-covariance flux measurements, source partitioning, emissions inventory,
45 fossil fuel CO₂ emissions, biogenic CO₂ fluxes

46 1. Introduction

47 Cities are becoming the focus for formulating and implementing carbon dioxide (CO₂)
48 emissions mitigation efforts (Hutyra et al., 2014; Lee and Koski, 2014; Bulkeley,
49 2013). Evaluating the effectiveness of emissions reduction efforts requires accurate CO₂
50 emissions estimates (Lauvaux et al., 2020; Turnbull et al., 2018). Although cities cover
51 only 3% of the global land area, urban areas are home to 55% of the world’s population,
52 a proportion that is expected to increase to 68% by 2050 (Chaouad and Verzeroli, 2018).
53 Overall, more than 70% of global fossil fuel CO₂ (CO₂ff) emissions are from urban areas
54 (Edenhofer et al., 2015). Efforts to assess and mitigate CO₂ emissions can provide
55 benefits for urban sustainability and balanced economic growth (Hsu et al., 2019).

56 Urban areas are consistently reported as a net source of CO₂ emissions (Velasco
57 and Roth, 2010). The eddy-covariance technique has been applied to measure urban
58 CO₂ emissions in different cities for about two decades (Björkegren and Grimmond,
59 2018; Park and Schade, 2016; Ao et al., 2016; Helfter et al., 2016; Lietzke et al., 2015;
60 Christen, 2014; Järvi et al., 2012; Christen et al., 2011; Vogt et al., 2006; Nemitz et al.,
61 2002; Grimmond et al., 2002). The attribution of urban CO₂ flux measurements is
62 challenging due to the spatial heterogeneity, mixed emission sources and sinks, and
63 limited spatial coverage of flux measurements (Aubinet et al., 2012). Although most
64 previous studies focus on the observed net CO₂ flux, a few studies attempt to partition
65 flux measurements into fossil and biogenic components accounting for the temporal
66 and spatial variability of the multiple sources and sinks. Menzer and McFadden (2017)
67 modeled fossil CO₂ emissions based on winter data and extrapolated them to the growing
68 season to estimate biogenic fluxes. Ishidoya et al. (2020) demonstrated partitioning of
69 CO₂ fluxes into liquid and gaseous fossil components using O₂ and CO₂ measurements.
70 Sugawara et al. (2021) used a nearby tower to estimate the biogenic component of a
71 total CO₂ flux measurement.

72 Quantification of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions is challenging due to the difficulty
73 of separating CO₂ff emissions from biogenic CO₂ (CO₂bio) fluxes (Miller et al., 2020;
74 Basu et al., 2020). Previous studies demonstrated the feasibility of using ¹⁴C isotope
75 measurements to separate CO₂ff from CO₂bio fluxes (Basu et al., 2016; Turnbull et al.,
76 2015; Miller et al., 2012), but flask measurements of ¹⁴C are expensive and discontinuous.
77 Continuous measurements of carbon monoxide (CO) provide another approach to track
78 CO₂ff emissions (Park and Schade, 2016; Silva et al., 2013; Turnbull et al., 2011; Vogel
79 et al., 2010; Levin and Karstens, 2007). Uncertainties in the CO to CO₂ff ratio,
80 which vary as a function of emission sectors, complicate the attribution of urban CO₂
81 fluxes. The use of ¹⁴C measurements to determine the ratio of CO to CO₂ff has not
82 yet been applied to eddy covariance flux measurements. We attempt to combine the
83 complementary strengths of CO and ¹⁴C to decompose net CO₂ flux measurements, and
84 use the partitioned CO₂ff emissions to evaluate a high-resolution emissions inventory.

85 Emissions inventories use activity data to aggregate urban CO₂ff emissions (Olivier
86 and Janssens-Maenhout, 2012; Boden et al., 2009; Gurney et al., 2009), but the

87 differences among inventories are sizeable (Gurney et al., 2020; Oda et al., 2019;
88 Gately and Hutyra, 2017). Atmospheric inversions use inventories as prior estimates of
89 emissions and optimize the emissions using atmospheric CO₂ mole fraction observations
90 (Lauvaux et al., 2020; Kunik et al., 2019; Lauvaux et al., 2016; Stauffer et al., 2016;
91 Turner et al., 2016; Bréon et al., 2015). Two substantial sources of uncertainty in
92 inverse estimates of urban CO₂ff emissions are uncertain CO₂bio fluxes and unknown
93 error characteristics in emissions inventories (Wu et al., 2018). The Hestia emissions
94 inventory (Gurney et al., 2012) was developed in part to support the Indianapolis Flux
95 Experiment (INFLUX) and uses energy consumption, population density, and traffic
96 data to quantify CO₂ff emissions for an entire urban landscape at an approximately 200
97 m and hourly resolution. While excellent agreement between Hestia and atmospheric
98 inversions has been shown over multiple years at the scale of an entire city (Lauvaux
99 et al., 2020), the high-resolution performance of the Hestia inventory has not yet been
100 evaluated with eddy-covariance flux measurements.

101 This study compares source-partitioned CO₂ eddy-covariance flux measurements
102 with a high-resolution emissions inventory (Hestia) in a suburban region of Indianapolis,
103 Indiana, USA. We partition the net CO₂ flux measurements into CO₂ff and CO₂bio
104 components using a flux-gradient relationship (Stull, 2012) and atmospheric CO
105 measurements. ¹⁴C isotope measurements are used to estimate the CO to CO₂ff
106 ratio and reduce the uncertainty in the flux decomposition. The source decomposition
107 methods are similar to those used by Ishidoya et al. (2020) and Sugawara et al. (2021).
108 In addition, we use a flux footprint model (Kljun et al., 2015, 2004) to match each flux
109 measurement in space and time with the Hestia inventory to provide a direct comparison
110 of independent estimates of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions at high spatial and temporal
111 resolution. This is, to our knowledge, the first such comparison of these innovative and
112 independent assessments of high-resolution urban CO₂ emissions, and is timely given the
113 growing interest in monitoring the impact of urban systems on atmospheric composition.

114 2. Data and Methods

115 2.1. Site Descriptions and Atmospheric CO₂ Flux Measurements

116 The INFLUX observation network (Davis et al., 2017) measures atmospheric CO₂ and
117 CO mole fractions, and net CO₂ fluxes in and around Indianapolis, IN (Figure 1). The
118 locations, sampling heights and measurements at these sites are described by Miles et al.
119 (2017) and the instrument performance is described by Richardson et al. (2017). ¹⁴C
120 isotope measurements, collected weekly, are used to evaluate CO to CO₂ff ratios using
121 methods described by Turnbull et al. (2015).

122 Since the flux decomposition requires atmospheric measurements of CO₂ and CO
123 mole fractions at different heights as well as ¹⁴C isotope measurements, the need for
124 multiple observational datasets limits the time and location for which we have available
125 data. In total, there are seven months (January through July, 2013) that include all of

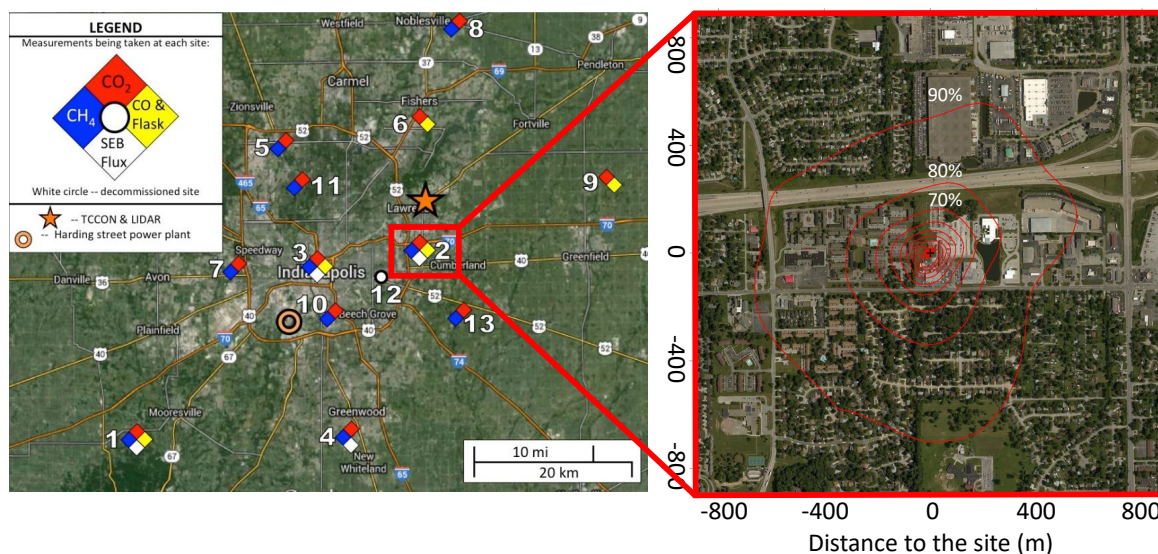


Figure 1: The Indianapolis Flux Experiment (INFLUX) measurement network in Indianapolis, IN (left) and cumulative flux footprints from January to July in 2013 at Tower 2 (right). The contours in the right panel represent the percentage of the time-integrated flux that comes from within that boundary (copyright of the base map belongs to Google Maps). The color of the marker in the left panel represents the measurements at each site: red for CO₂, yellow for CO and ¹⁴C, blue for CH₄, and white for surface energy balance fluxes. The coordinates in the right panel are the distance (m) to the measurement site.

126 these data sets (atmospheric measurements of CO₂ and CO mole fractions, ¹⁴C isotope,
 127 and CO₂ flux) available at Tower 2 (39.7978°N, 86.0183°W), which is located in a
 128 heterogeneous suburban environment (Figures 1 and S1). There is a highway to the
 129 north, urban vegetation to the south, and neighborhoods with detached houses. The
 130 heterogeneous surroundings present a good test of our ability to partition net CO₂ flux
 131 measurements into fossil and biogenic components and to use flux footprint analyses
 132 to compare the spatial and temporal heterogeneity of source-specific flux data and the
 133 Hestia inventory.

134 The flux instrumentation, which includes a sonic anemometer (Campbell Scientific,
 135 CSAT-3) and a high-frequency open-path infrared CO₂ sensor (LI-COR Environmental,
 136 LI-7500), is mounted at 30 m above ground level (AGL) on Tower 2. The eddy-
 137 covariance technique measures the covariance between fluctuations in vertical wind
 138 velocity and CO₂ density to detect the integrated exchange of CO₂ between land and
 139 atmosphere (Lee et al., 2004; Foken and Napo, 2008; Aubinet et al., 2012). We use
 140 flux calculation and filtering methods recommended by Vickers and Mahrt (1997). We
 141 filter out extreme values outside 3.5 σ range of the data (0.2% of data are filtered out)
 142 and nighttime fluxes during weak turbulence conditions when the friction velocity is less
 143 than 0.2 m/s (3.6% of data are filtered out) (Gu et al., 2005). Negative fluxes show

144 contributions of photosynthesis to the flux data (Figure S2). Based on the similarity
 145 of the diurnal variation of net CO₂ flux measurements (Figure S3), we define the cold
 146 season as January to March (JFM) and the warm season as April to July (AMJJ).

147 2.2. Partitioning Fossil and Biogenic CO₂ Fluxes

148 To partition fossil and biogenic components from the net CO₂ flux measurements, we
 149 apply a flux-gradient method and atmospheric CO measurements. In addition to flux
 150 measurements, we also measure CO₂ and CO mole fractions at 10 m and 40 m heights
 151 AGL at Tower 2 (Miles et al., 2017). We use the net flux measurement (F_{CO_2}) and
 152 vertical gradient in CO₂ mole fraction (∇C_{CO_2}) to solve for the eddy diffusivity (K):

$$153 \quad K = -\frac{F_{CO_2}}{\nabla C_{CO_2}}, \quad (1)$$

154 and use that eddy diffusivity and the CO vertical gradient (∇C_{CO}) to solve for the CO
 155 flux (F_{CO}):

$$156 \quad F_{CO} = -K\nabla C_{CO}. \quad (2)$$

157 The fossil fuel CO₂ emission (F_{CO_2ff}) is estimated by combining the CO flux with the
 158 emission ratio (R) of CO to CO₂ff:

$$159 \quad F_{CO_2ff} = \frac{F_{CO}}{R}, \quad (3)$$

160 and we attribute the difference between the net flux measurement and the partitioned
 161 fossil fuel CO₂ emission to the biogenic CO₂ flux (F_{CO_2bio}):

$$162 \quad F_{CO_2bio} = F_{CO_2} - F_{CO_2ff}. \quad (4)$$

163 There are three assumptions in this method: (1) Turbulent eddies are small enough that
 164 local scalar gradients are proportional to turbulent fluxes; (2) CO and CO₂ are subject
 165 to the same vertical mixing processes; (3) Within the turbulent flux footprint, CO is
 166 mainly produced by fossil fuel combustion simultaneously with CO₂ff emissions. We
 167 filter out counter-gradient fluxes, and limit the eddy diffusivity and CO flux within 3.5
 168 σ range of their estimates to screen out extreme values caused by tiny denominators.
 169 Human respiration, which would appear in this decomposition as a biological flux, is
 170 estimated based on the population density of Indianapolis (896 people km⁻² in the year
 171 2013) multiplied by a typical emission rate of 942 gCO₂ person⁻¹ day⁻¹ (Prairie and
 172 Duarte, 2007).

173 The emission ratio of CO to CO₂ff is estimated from flask measurements of ¹⁴C
 174 and CO measurements (Turnbull et al., 2015). The urban CO and ¹⁴C enhancements
 175 are estimated by the differences between Tower 2 and upwind background sites (Tower
 176 1 or 9 depending on the wind direction). The median and mean values of CO to CO₂ff
 177 ratios estimated from these enhancements are 9.52 and 8.98 ppb ppm⁻¹ (cold season)
 178 and 9.13 and 9.02 ppb ppm⁻¹ (warm season) (Figure S4). We use 9 ppb ppm⁻¹ as an
 179 approximate value to infer CO₂ff emissions. To test the uncertainty of using different
 180 ratios on the flux decomposition, we vary the emission ratio to 11 and 7 (9 ± 2) ppb

181 ppm⁻¹. These are plausible bounds (Table 2 in Turnbull et al. (2015)) for this flux site,
 182 representing approximately the 70th and 30th percentiles of the values. With a linear
 183 relation of the flux decomposition to the emission ratio (Equation 3), this maximum and
 184 minimum boundary approach represents our limited confidence in the emission ratio and
 185 its uncertainty bounds. A more formal error propagation would suggest more confidence
 186 than we have in our estimate of the uncertainty in the emission ratio. In addition, since
 187 traffic emissions are likely to have a higher ratio and residential emissions have a smaller
 188 ratio, we add another scenario with a CO to CO_{2ff} ratio of 15 ppb ppm⁻¹ for northerly
 189 winds from the highway and 7 ppb ppm⁻¹ for the other wind directions based on sectoral
 190 emission ratios estimated by Turnbull et al. (2015).

191 2.3. Flux Footprint and Emissions Inventory

192 A flux footprint, which is defined as the contributing area upwind from the
 193 measurement site (Leclerc and Foken, 2014), is essential to account for the spatial
 194 heterogeneity of emission sources. We use a two-dimensional flux footprint model
 195 (<https://footprint.kljun.net/>) (Kljun et al., 2015, 2004) to match with the Hestia
 196 inventory and estimate the emissions predicted by the inventory at the tower location.
 197 Flux footprints were computed with a spatial resolution of approximately 2 m. The
 198 size of footprint depends on measurement height, surface roughness, and atmospheric
 199 thermal stability. The footprint will increase with an increase in measurement height,
 200 with a decrease in surface roughness, and with an increase in atmospheric thermal
 201 stability (Burba and Anderson, 2010). Tower-based measurements of wind field and
 202 boundary layer characteristics are used to estimate the input parameters of the flux
 203 footprint model (measurement height above displacement height, roughness length,
 204 Obukhov length, friction velocity, mean wind speed, boundary layer height, standard
 205 deviation of lateral velocity fluctuations). The displacement height and roughness length
 206 are estimated as 6 m and 0.45 m, respectively. The displacement height is estimated
 207 to be 0.7 times the local mean building and tree heights (Weng et al., 2013) and the
 208 roughness length is computed from the mean wind and momentum fluxes measured
 209 at 30 m AGL (Kent et al., 2017; Drew et al., 2013). We estimate the flux footprint
 210 (f) for each hourly flux measurement. After interpolating the Hestia inventory to the
 211 coordinates of each flux footprint, we weight the hourly Hestia emissions (Q_H) with the
 212 spatially-resolved fractional flux contributions (f) at the same time and sum over the
 213 domain of flux footprint (R) to produce a spatially-weighted estimate of the Hestia flux
 214 that would be measured at the tower (F_H):

$$215 \quad F_H = \sum_{i=1}^R Q_H(x_i, y_i) f(x_i, y_i) \delta x \delta y. \quad (5)$$

216 The emissions predicted by the Hestia inventory at the tower (F_H) are compared with
 217 the partitioned CO_{2ff} flux measurements (F_{CO_2ff} in Equation 3).

218 3. Results

219 Net CO₂ flux measurements, decomposed as a function of time and space, behave as
 220 expected given the environment surrounding the tower. Observed CO₂ emissions are
 221 larger in the cold season than the warm season (Figure 2a), perhaps due to increased
 222 emissions from building heating around the tower (Figures 1 and S1). In the cold
 223 season, there are two prominent peaks in emissions likely corresponding to peaks in
 224 traffic volume during rush hours. In the warm season, CO₂ff emissions are mixed with
 225 photosynthesis and respiration from urban vegetation within the flux footprints. The
 226 daytime photosynthetic uptake of CO₂ indicates the role of urban vegetation. The data
 227 show high emissions from the north, and lower emissions or net uptake from the south
 228 (Figures 2b and 2c), consistent with the highway to the north and urban vegetation to
 229 the south of the tower.

230 Partitioning of the net observed CO₂ fluxes into fossil and biogenic components
 231 yields plausible temporal behavior of these flux components (Figure 3). While smaller
 232 than the estimated CO₂ff emissions, the magnitude of the cold season daytime (9 to
 233 20 LST) averaged biological uptake is 15% of the mean CO₂ff emissions over the same
 234 time period and the ecosystem respiration averaged over nighttime (21 to 8 LST) is
 235 27% of the mean nighttime CO₂ff emissions. These are non-negligible flux magnitudes
 236 that need to be considered to obtain accurate CO₂ff emissions (Figure 3a). Human
 237 respiration is estimated to be $0.22 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, which would contribute about 10% of
 238 the average nighttime CO₂bio fluxes in the cold season. A typical pattern of ecosystem
 239 fluxes emerges in the warm season (Figure 3b). The warm season CO₂bio fluxes are
 240 equal in amplitude to the CO₂ff emissions, emphasizing the importance of accounting
 241 for CO₂bio fluxes in attempts to quantify urban CO₂ff emissions. The error bars are
 242 the standard errors of the seasonal means, which represent a mixture of day-to-day
 243 variability, random measurement errors, and uncertainty in the flux decomposition using
 244 a typical emission ratio (9 ppb ppm⁻¹). We will examine the impacts of using different
 245 ratios on the flux decomposition.

246 The seasonally-averaged partitioned CO₂ff emissions estimates show remarkable
 247 similarity to the Hestia inventory when matched in space and time using the flux
 248 footprint model. Seasonal-mean CO₂ff emissions differ (Hestia minus observed CO₂ff
 249 emissions) by $0.36 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (3.2% of the mean partitioned CO₂ff emissions) in the
 250 cold season (Figure 4a) and $0.62 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (9.1% of the mean partitioned CO₂ff
 251 emissions) in the warm season (Figure 4b). The corresponding standard deviations
 252 (SDs) of the residuals are $8.91 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ and $7.52 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, which include
 253 random errors in the flux measurements. The temporal patterns of seasonally-averaged
 254 Hestia and the partitioned CO₂ff emissions also agree remarkably well (Figures 4c and
 255 4d). The correlation coefficients of the diurnal variations are 0.86 (cold season) and 0.93
 256 (warm season), and the slopes are 1.13 and 0.95, respectively. The Hestia emissions
 257 are smaller during the night and higher during the day compared to the partitioned
 258 observations in the cold season (Figures 4c and S5a), and consistently slightly higher

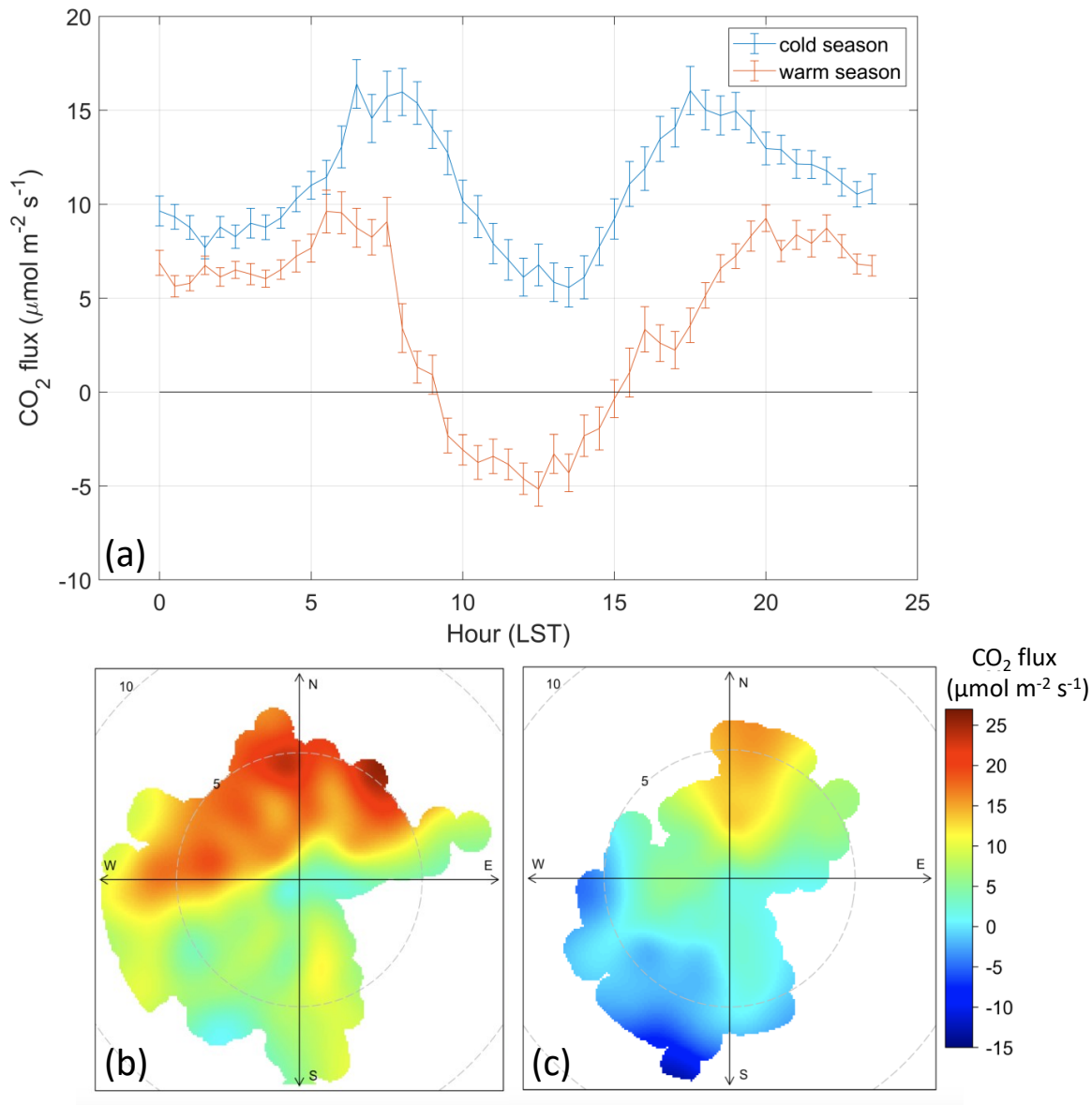


Figure 2: Diurnal variation of seasonally-averaged CO₂ flux measurements during the cold (JFM) and warm (AMJJ) seasons in 2013 (a). Error bars indicate the standard errors of the seasonal means. Spatial variation of time-averaged CO₂ fluxes in the cold (b) and warm (c) seasons. Color indicates flux magnitude. The radial coordinate corresponds to wind speed (m s⁻¹) and the angular coordinate is the wind direction.

259 than the partitioned observations in the warm season (Figures 4d and S5b).

260 We also find similarity in the comparison of eddy-covariance and Hestia CO₂ff
 261 emissions as a function of wind direction (Figure 5). In the cold season, the Hestia
 262 emissions are higher than the observed CO₂ff emissions for all wind directions except
 263 the north, west and northwest wind (Table 1). A similar pattern exists in the warm
 264 season. Since residential buildings lie upwind in the west and northwest wind directions
 265 (Figures 1 and S1), we infer residential emissions could be the source of this discrepancy.

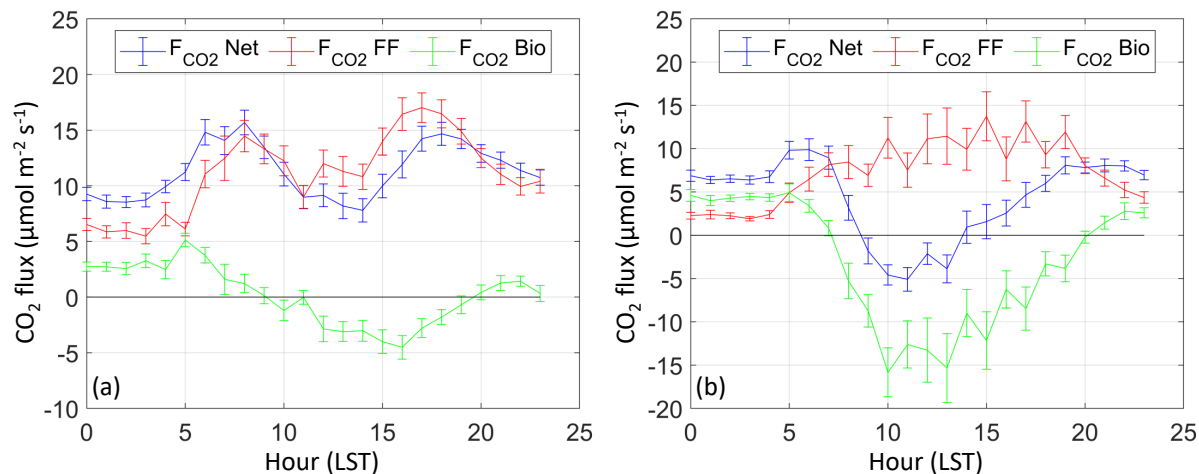


Figure 3: Diurnal variation of seasonally-averaged CO_2 flux measurements ($F_{\text{CO}_2\text{Net}}$) and the partitioned fossil fuel ($F_{\text{CO}_2\text{FF}}$) and biogenic ($F_{\text{CO}_2\text{Bio}}$) fluxes in the cold (JFM) (a) and warm (AMJJ) (b) seasons in 2013. Error bars are the standard errors of the seasonal means.

Table 1: Statistics of flux differences ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) between the Hestia inventory and the partitioned fossil fuel CO_2 emissions (Hestia minus observed CO_2ff emissions) for different wind directions.

	DIFF	N	NE	E	SE	S	SW	W	NW
Cold	Median	-2.00	3.32	2.88	3.45	4.14	3.15	-4.47	-2.14
Season	Mean	-1.93	5.88	4.88	3.58	3.84	1.89	-4.72	-1.87
(JFM)	RMSE ^a	10.98	9.27	8.22	5.63	7.45	8.00	10.40	9.06
Warm	Median	2.49	3.34	1.92	1.98	0.98	0.42	-2.71	-4.27
Season	Mean	5.31	3.61	0.92	1.37	0.52	-1.32	-4.17	-5.21
(AMJJ)	RMSE	8.24	9.32	5.19	5.54	5.97	8.62	8.47	13.66

^aroot mean square error

266 These results are somewhat sensitive to the choice of CO to CO_2ff ratio in the
 267 flux decomposition. Seasonal-mean flux bias and bias percentage change significantly
 268 when the emission ratio varies from 9 ppb ppm^{-1} to 11 or 7 ppb ppm^{-1} (Figure S6
 269 and Table S1). Figure S6 shows the impact of plausible ratios on the diurnal cycle of
 270 the partitioned CO_2ff and CO_2bio fluxes. The lower bound of 7 ppb ppm^{-1} increases
 271 the CO_2ff emissions estimate (Figure S6b and Equation 3), thus driving the CO_2bio
 272 fluxes down about 3 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ in the cold season (Figure S6c and Equation 4).
 273 This would strengthen the finding of daytime photosynthesis. The upper bound ratio
 274 of 11 ppb ppm^{-1} would increase CO_2bio fluxes by about 2 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ in the cold
 275 season, leaving midday fluxes slightly negative and nighttime respiration at about 4
 276 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. Similar results are shown in the warm season (Figures S6e and S6f).
 277 The magnitude of the partitioned fluxes varies linearly with the change of emission

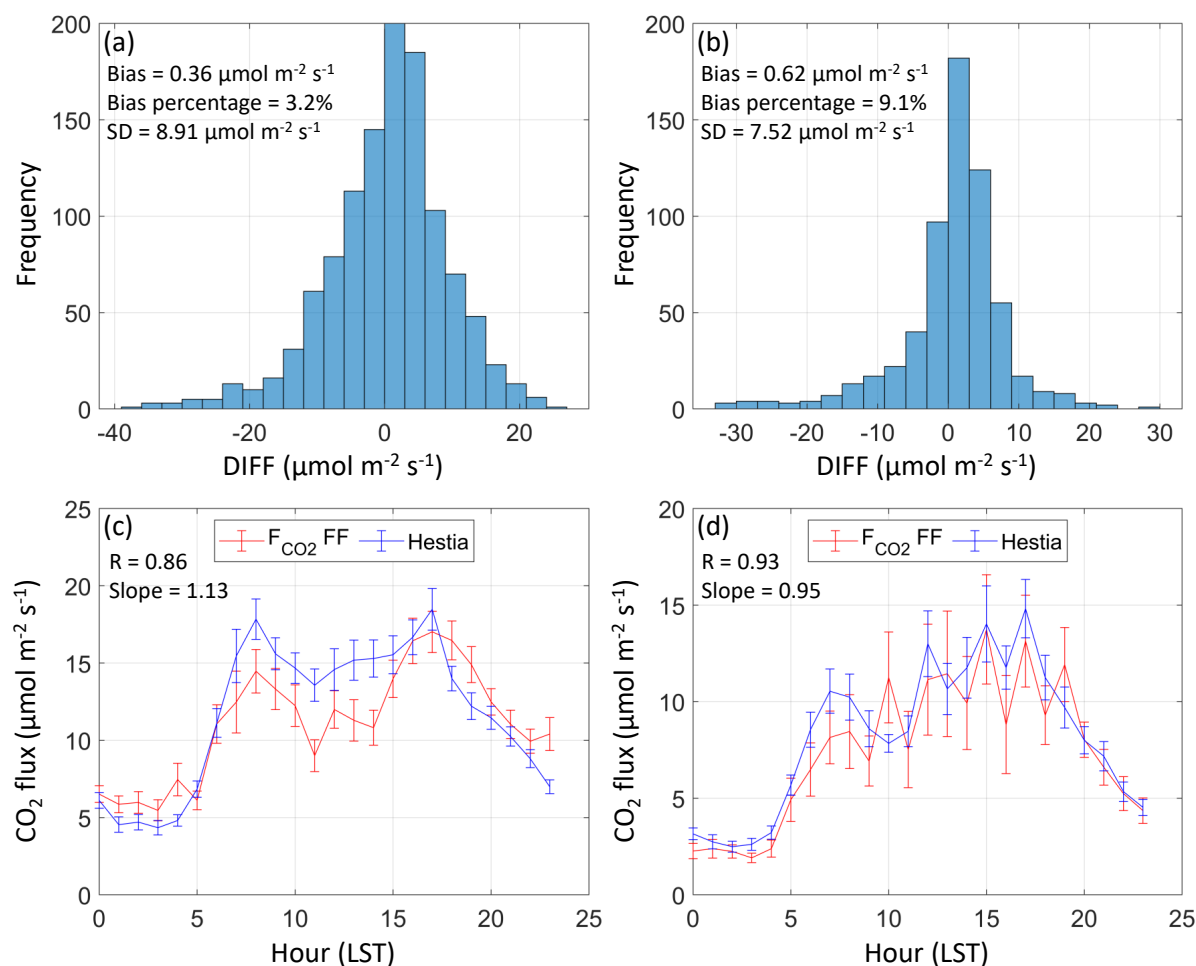


Figure 4: Histogram of flux differences between the Hestia inventory and the partitioned fossil fuel CO₂ emissions (Hestia minus observed CO₂ff emissions) in the cold (JFM) (a) and warm (AMJJ) (b) seasons in 2013. Bias, bias percentage compared to the mean partitioned CO₂ff emissions, and standard deviation (SD) of residuals are listed. Diurnal variation of seasonally-averaged CO₂ff emissions in the cold (c) and warm (d) seasons. Error bars are the standard errors of the seasonal means.

278 ratio, but the diurnal cycle is not sensitive to this choice. The scenario with the space-
 279 varying emission ratio (15 & 7 ppb ppm⁻¹), which may be more realistic than a constant
 280 ratio, does not significantly change either the diurnal variation (Figure S6) or the bias
 281 estimation (Table S1) when compared to the default scenario (9 ppb ppm⁻¹).

282 4. Conclusions and Discussion

283 The remarkable agreement between the Hestia inventory and the partitioned flux
 284 measurements suggests that both methods are able to describe the temporal and spatial
 285 variability in urban CO₂ff emissions at neighborhood scale. Neither approach has
 286 yet been cross-validated at such a high spatial and temporal resolution. The flux

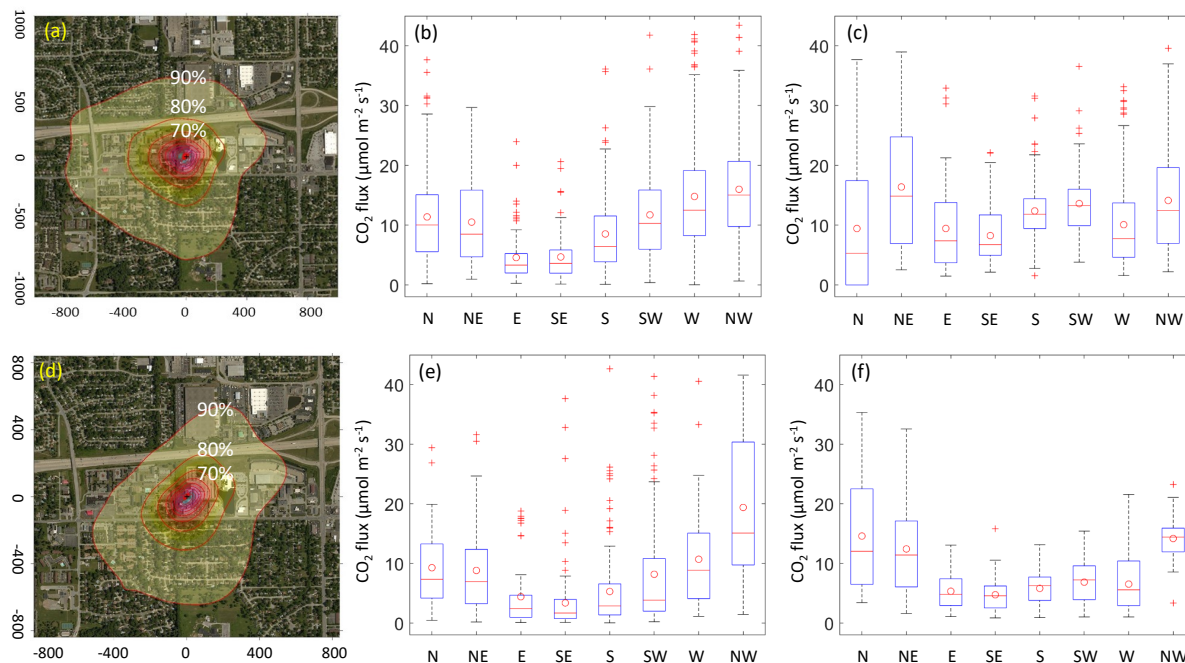


Figure 5: Cumulative flux footprints (a and d), the partitioned fossil fuel CO₂ emissions (b and e) and the Hestia inventory (c and f) for different wind directions. Panels a to c are in the cold season (JFM) and panels d to f are in the warm season (AMJJ) in 2013. The coordinates in the left panel indicate the distance (m) to the measurement site (copyright of the base map belongs to Google Maps). The contours represent the percentage of the time-integrated flux that comes from within that boundary and each contour represents a 10% interval. In the middle and right panels, the red circles, the lines and the plus marks represent the mean, the median and the outliers, respectively. The bottom and top edges of the box indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles. The whiskers extend to the most extreme data points not considered outliers that are defined as more than 1.5 times the interquartile range away from the top or bottom of the box.

287 measurement partitioning is sensitive to the CO to CO₂ff emission ratio, but the
 288 consistency of Hestia and flux data suggests that flask measurements have accurately
 289 quantified that ratio. The success of this test suggests that these eddy-covariance
 290 flux decomposition methods can be used to quantify source-specific, neighborhood-
 291 scale CO₂ff emissions. Further the successful comparison to Hestia suggests that the
 292 algorithms and input data used in the inventory system are accurate and precise even
 293 at the fine resolution of the eddy-covariance flux measurements.

294 This study also shows the promise of using this approach for studying urban
 295 ecosystem CO₂ fluxes. Previous work has suggested that the edges found in urban
 296 ecosystems lead to fundamentally different behavior of these ecosystems (Reinmann
 297 et al., 2020). These findings are largely based on chamber-scale flux measurements.
 298 It is not clear whether or not, when upscaled to spatial domains that integrate across
 299 many edges such as a suburban forest, existing ecosystem models and model parameters

300 will suffice in describing urban CO₂bio fluxes. Current ecosystem models used in urban
301 studies are largely devoid of urban ecosystem flux measurements in either calibration
302 or evaluation due to lack of data (Wu et al., 2021; Hardiman et al., 2017). We suggest
303 that the decomposition methods can serve as a new approach for obtaining ecosystem
304 flux data necessary to develop the next generation of urban ecosystem models.

305 Finally, this study emphasizes the importance of urban ecosystem fluxes, both in the
306 warm (growing) season and the cold (dormant) season. Our results appear to contradict
307 the findings of Turnbull et al. (2015) who found no net impact of biological CO₂ fluxes
308 on CO₂ enhancements in Indianapolis outside of the growing season. We found the
309 percentage of daytime biological uptake in the cold season is 15% compared to the
310 mean CO₂ff emissions. Our results are consistent with the flask measurements (Figure
311 5 in Turnbull et al. (2015)) which showed that, for Tower 2, the total CO₂ enhancement
312 in the winter months was 0.8 to 0.9 times the CO₂ff enhancement, suggesting modest
313 net biological uptake of CO₂ during these months within the city. The flask ¹⁴C-
314 based CO₂bio enhancement at Tower 2 averaged over the cold season for the three
315 months of this study is -0.37 ppm (Table S2) that is about 10% of the estimated fossil
316 CO₂ enhancement (3.6 ppm), consistent with our eddy-covariance flux measurements.
317 Turnbull et al. (2015) found no net biological CO₂ contribution to the wintertime
318 enhancements when averaging together four towers including Tower 2. The other towers
319 likely have less influence from urban vegetation based on their position around the
320 city. The importance of growing season biological fluxes has been shown in multiple
321 observational (Miller et al., 2020; Turnbull et al., 2015) and inversion (Lauvaux et al.,
322 2020; Sargent et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2018) studies. Uncertainty in biological fluxes has a
323 large impact on inverse flux estimates (Lauvaux et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2018). This flux
324 decomposition approach enables evaluation of the modeled ecosystem flux priors using
325 direct urban ecosystem CO₂ flux measurements. Further, a number of studies (Lauvaux
326 et al., 2016; Heimburger et al., 2017) have made the reasonable assumption of neglecting
327 CO₂bio fluxes in the dormant season. This work shows that urban ecosystems in
328 Indianapolis are moderately active even in the cold season. Additional eddy-covariance
329 flux measurements are needed to study the spatial and temporal variations in urban
330 ecosystem CO₂ fluxes.

331 **Conflict of Interest**

332 The authors declare no competing interests.

333 **Data Availability Statement**

334 The Hestia emission inventory is available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.18434/T4/1503341>.
335 The eddy-covariance flux measurements and flask data are available on the website
336 (<https://sites.psu.edu/influx/data>) and the in-situ tower measurements of CO₂ and CO
337 mole fractions are available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.18113/D37G6P>.

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