

1 **Eddy covariance measurements of the net turbulent**
2 **methane flux in the city centre – results of 2 year campaign**
3 **in Łódź, Poland.**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 In the period July 2013 to August 2015, continuous measurements of turbulent methane
10 exchange between an urbanised area and the atmosphere were carried out in Łódź. Long-term
11 continuous measurements of CH₄ fluxes from cities are still relatively rare. The measurement
12 station was located in the centre of the city, where since 2000 fluxes of energy (sensible and
13 latent heat) and since 2007 fluxes of mass (carbon dioxide) have been continuously measured.
14 In the immediate vicinity of the measurement station there are potential sources of methane,
15 such as vehicle traffic, dense sewerage infrastructure and natural gas networks. To assess
16 fluxes, the eddy covariance technique was used. The study aim was to investigate the
17 temporal variability of methane fluxes in the city-atmosphere system.

18 The results show that positive methane fluxes dominate which indicates that the centre of
19 Łódź is a net source of methane to the troposphere. The measurements also indicate the
20 existence of an annual rhythm in the turbulent flux of methane. On average, the values
21 observed in winter amounted to ~40-60 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹ and were significantly larger than in
22 summer (~20 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹). The daily variability in the methane flux is also just visible
23 throughout the year. Values measured on working days were higher (6.6% (winter) to 5.6%
24 (summer)) than those observed at weekends. The largest monthly exchange occurred in the
25 winter months (from 2.0 to 2.7 g·m⁻²·month⁻¹) and the lowest occurred in summer (from 0.8
26 to 1.0 g·m⁻²·month⁻¹).

27 The mean daily patterns of methane fluxes in consecutive months were used to determine the
28 cumulative annual exchange. In 2014, the centre of Łódź emitted a net quantity of almost 18

1 $\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$. Furthermore, the study assessed the co-variability of methane and carbon dioxide
2 fluxes.

3

4 **1 Introduction**

5 The temporal and spatial variability of greenhouse gas fluxes in the atmosphere is currently
6 one of the most widely discussed climatological problems in the scientific community.
7 Methane, despite its trace presence in the air (ca 1.8 ppm, Hartman et al., 2013), plays an
8 important role in the environment. It participates in the global carbon cycle and is one of the
9 greenhouse gases whose concentration in the atmosphere affects the radiation balance of the
10 earth's surface. An increase in the concentration of methane contributes to an enhancement of
11 the greenhouse effect (Ciais et al., 2013). Therefore, emissions of this gas to atmosphere
12 should be carefully monitored.

13 Methane is produced during the process of methanogenesis under anaerobic conditions, from
14 the decay of organic plant debris in water. The most important source of methane in the world
15 is wetlands (Shurpali et al., 1998; Rinne et al., 2007; Baldocchi et al., 2012; Hatalaa et al.,
16 2012), but paddy fields (Miyata et al., 2000), cattle farms (Laubach and Kelliher, 2005;
17 Dengel et al., 2011; Hartmann et al., 2013; Nicollini et al., 2013) and emissions from the soil
18 are all important sources (Smeets et al., 2009; Denmead et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013).
19 Moreover, emissions of methane accompany forest fires and grass vegetation. The effect of
20 the combustion of natural gas (which contains at least 80% methane) is mainly water vapour
21 and carbon dioxide. The combustion of fossil fuels is, however, predominantly incomplete,
22 and is therefore an important factor causing anthropogenic methane emissions. This happens
23 in the case of combustion of both natural gas and hydrocarbons contained in petrol and other
24 fuels (Nam, 2004; Nakagawa et al., 2005; Wennberg et al., 2012). Another important source
25 of methane in urbanised areas is leakage from urban gas pipelines (Lowry, et al., 2001; Gioli
26 et al., 2012; Wennberg et al., 2012; Phillips et al., 2013). Methane may also be emitted during
27 the anaerobic respiration of bacteria in urban soils (Bogner and Matthews, 2003) and in the
28 decomposition of solid waste and wastewater in sewage systems and at landfill sites (Bogner
29 and Matthews, 2003; Laurila et al., 2005; Lohila et al., 2007; Wennberg et al., 2012; Jha et al.,
30 2014). In contrast, methane is removed from the air by consumption by soil bacteria
31 (Goldman et al., 1995; Kaye et al., 2004; Groffman et al., 2006; Groffman and Pouyat, 2009).
32 Methane is involved in some of the reactions leading to photochemical smog formation

1 (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). The disintegration of methane also results from its reacting with
2 the hydroxyl group in the atmosphere (Whalen, 2005). Annual global emissions of methane to
3 the atmosphere have been estimated as ~5000 Tg. Emissions from landfills and waste (87-94
4 TG) or fossil fuels (85-105 Tg) are 2-3 times lower than estimated emission from wetlands
5 (177-284 Tg) (Ciais et al, 2013).

6 Research into the methane content in the air is now a priority because the literature indicates
7 that cities could be a significant source of this gas (Elliot et al., 2000; Gioli et al. 2012;
8 O'Shea et al., 2012; Nicolini et al., 2013; Phillips et al., 2013; Christen, 2014; Kumar and
9 Sharma, 2014). The measurements of changes in methane concentration have been carried out
10 for decades (Ciais et al., 2013; Hartmann et al., 2013). However, the analysis of its flux in
11 urban areas is extremely rare. In recent years, there have been approximately 500 stations
12 measuring the fluxes of carbon dioxide (CO₂) around the world of which approximately 20
13 are located in cities and only a few are able to measure methane flux (Nordbo et al., 2012;
14 Oliphant, 2012; Christen, 2014; Helfter et al., 2016). It can be concluded that the
15 measurement of methane flux in cities is in its infancy and challenges like the need for long
16 term measurements (beyond a month) and the relationship between methane fluxes and land
17 use are yet to be overcome.

18 The development of the theory and measurement techniques of turbulent exchange of mass,
19 energy and momentum fluxes have been progressing for decades (Stull, 1988; Lee et al.,
20 2005; Foken, 2008; Aubinet et al., 2013). Historical measurements of methane flux have been
21 severely limited due to the lack of suitable sensors which have only recently become available
22 (Pattey et al. 2006; Hendricks et al., 2008; Eugster and Pluss, 2010; Dengel et al., 2011; Detto
23 et al., 2011; Sakabe et al., 2012). At present, one of the most widely used instruments is the
24 LI7700 Open Path CH₄ Analyser (Burba and Anderson, 2010; McDermitt et al., 2011) which
25 uses eddy-covariance as a measurement technique (Aubinet et al., 2012). Worldwide, there
26 are only a few long-term, continuous measurement stations measuring turbulent fluxes of
27 water vapour and carbon dioxide in urban areas (Christen, 2014; Helfter et al., 2016). For
28 methane flux in urban areas, such data are probably at the implementation phase because
29 previous studies focused on areas which are the largest source of methane i.e. natural
30 wetlands (Shurpali et al., 1998; Rinne et al., 2007; Baldocchi et al., 2012; Hatalaa et al.,
31 2012; Aubinet et al., 2013), agricultural land (paddy fields, Miyata et al., 2000) or forests
32 (Smeets et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2013). The chamber method, widely used in rural areas, has

1 only a limited relevance in the city. This method makes it possible to take measurements of
2 methane emissions from specific areas like urban lawns (Baciu et al., 2008), however, it
3 cannot be used in larger urban areas. A variety of techniques have recently been applied to
4 provide independent estimates of urban methane emissions such as airborne observations
5 (O'Shea et al., 2014; Mays et al., 2009), Fourier Transform Spectrometry (Wunch et al., 2009)
6 or isotopic source apportionment studies (Lowry et al., 2001). Morizumi (1996) suggested the
7 occurrence of covariability of radon Rn-222 and methane flux concentrations which he
8 estimated to be $20 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$. In Poland, the issue of exchange of greenhouse gases in an
9 urban area is studied has also been studied in Cracow where, based on the measurements of
10 methane concentrations and the height of the atmospheric boundary layer, the average
11 monthly nocturnal flux of methane has been estimated to be $0.8 \text{ to } 3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (Kuc et al.,
12 2003; Zimnoch et al., 2010).

13 The aim of this study is to analyse the temporal variability of the turbulent flux of methane
14 (FCH_4) based on a long-term series of measurements recorded for over two years in the centre
15 of Łódź (July 2013 to August 2015). The diurnal variability of FCH_4 was analysed and
16 monthly values of the flux were determined. An assessment of the cumulative annual
17 exchange of methane between urban Łódź and the troposphere was completed to determine
18 whether it was an equally efficient source of methane to the troposphere as of carbon dioxide.
19 The measurement results were compared to the variability of selected meteorological
20 elements. As the methane emissions in the city are determined mainly by anthropogenic
21 factors, the value of fluxes on weekdays and at weekends were compared. No comparison was
22 made to the fluxes estimated using specific inventory methods because of a lack of data.

23

24 **2 Measurement site and instrumentation**

25 **2.1 Study area and site location**

26 Łódź is one of the largest cities in Poland. The area of the city is about 295 square kilometres
27 (km^2), and its population is estimated at 706,000 residents. The city is located in central
28 Poland on relatively flat terrain which slopes south-westwards. Its altitude varies from 280 to
29 160 m above mean sea level. The most densely built-up city centre area covers 80 km^2 and the
30 altitude difference in this part of the city does not exceed 60 m. In the immediate vicinity of
31 Łódź, there are no large bodies of water, rivers or orographic obstacles impacting on the

1 climate of the city which are worthy of investigation. Another factor making it easier to take
2 measurements of turbulent fluxes of mass and energy in Łódź, is that the city, does not have a
3 standard central sector of tall buildings, towering over an urban canopy layer unlike other
4 large cities in Poland.

5 The measurements of turbulent fluxes of methane are conducted in the western part of the city
6 centre (51°47'N, 19°28'E) as shown in Fig. 1). This part of the city has the highest population
7 density which reaches 17.2 thousand people per km². The station for measurements of fluxes
8 of mass, energy and momentum has been operating in the western part of Łódź since 2000
9 (Offerle et al., 2006a; 2006b, Pawlak et al., 2011; Fortuniak et al., 2013, Fortuniak and
10 Pawlak, 2014), however, methane fluxes have been studied since July 2013. The
11 measurement set is mounted on top of a mast at a height of $z = 37$ m (Fig. 2, left) which given
12 the average height of buildings of 11 m, enables the assumption that the measurements are
13 taken above the blending height in the inertial sub-layer (Fig. 2). The source area of turbulent
14 fluxes was estimated (Fig. 1) for data collected during unstable stratification ($(z-z_d)/L < -0.05$)
15 around midday (10.00–14.00) following the method of Schmid (1994) and ranged from 250 to
16 750 m away from the measurement station (Fig. 1).

17 The percentage of artificial surface coverage from buildings, pavements, streets and squares
18 in this part of the city is 62%. The remaining part of the area is covered in vegetation of only
19 10% is by trees (Kłysik, 1998). The vegetation is distributed unevenly in the form of lawns
20 and trees growing along street canyons. In the immediate vicinity of the measurement
21 location, 3-5 storey buildings which range from 15 to 20 m in height dominate. Most of the
22 buildings have flat roofs covered with black tar paper or sheet metal. The trees growing in the
23 area are mostly deciduous and their height usually does not exceed the height of the buildings.
24 This results in a well-formed roof surface with an average height of 11 m. The density of built-
25 up areas north and east of the measurement point, compared to the southern and western
26 sectors, is 10-20% greater (Fig. 1). The displacement height z_d is estimated at 7.7 m.
27 According to the classification by Stewart and Oke (2012), the local climate zone can be
28 described as compact low rise. The roughness coefficient z_{0m} estimated for the neutral
29 stratification surrounding the measurement point was 2.5 m on average. More information on
30 the city's structure and the local climate conditions can be found in Kłysik (1996), Kłysik and
31 Fortuniak (1999), Fortuniak et al. (2006, 2013), Offerle, (2006a, 2006b), Pawlak et al. (2011)

1 and Zieliński et al. (2013). The gas distribution network and sewerage system around the flux
2 tower are shown in Fig. 1.

3

4 **2.2 Instrumentation and data processing**

5 Measurements of turbulent fluxes of methane were carried out using a standard measurement
6 set consisting of the ultrasonic anemometer RMYoung model 81000 (RMYoung, Traverse
7 City, Michigan, USA) and a fast response methane concentration sensor with an open
8 measurement path LI7700 (Li-cor, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA). The measurements were carried
9 out with a precision of $0.001 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and 1 ppb respectively. As the final calculation of
10 methane flux also requires values of sensible heat and water vapour fluxes in the place of
11 observation (LI 7700 instruction manual), the measurement set also included a sensor
12 measuring the concentrations of water vapour and carbon dioxide. This was a LI7500 Infra-
13 Red CO₂/H₂O open path analyser (Li-cor, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA).

14 The whole measurement system was attached approximately 1 m below the top of the mast
15 (Fig. 2, middle). The LI7500 head was placed on the horizontal arm on the south-eastern side
16 of the mast at a distance of about 60 cm from the mast. The ultrasonic anemometer was then
17 installed at a distance of 20 cm. The LI7700 methane sensor was installed on an additional
18 arm, 30 cm lower, so that the centre of its measurement path, which is about four times longer
19 than the paths of LI7500 and ultrasonic anemometer, was at a similar level. Previous studies
20 have shown that the influence of a mast of diameter 0.15 m is negligible and does not
21 generate flow distortion (Fortuniak et al., 2013).

22 All the aforementioned sensors sampled with a frequency of 10 Hz. Immediately before
23 starting the measurements in July 2013, the sensor for measuring H₂O and CO₂ mole fractions
24 was calibrated (the zero and span values were set). The methane concentration analyser was
25 installed directly after purchase, so the zero and span had been set by the manufacturer. The
26 two sensors and the ultrasonic anemometer were cleaned approximately once a month. This
27 was pertinent to the methane sensor because its mirrors proved to be highly susceptible to
28 grime (air impurities, bird droppings, atmospheric deposits, drying raindrops or melting
29 snowflakes). The manufacturer equipped the instrument with a mirror heating and
30 condensation anti-freezing system and a cleaning system. Using a pump, this applied cleaning
31 liquid to the lower mirror. However, in practice and particularly in autumn and winter this

1 was insufficient particularly on days with humidity of up to 100% when the signal strength
2 dropped by several tens of percent in just a few hours. According to the manufacturer of the
3 instrument, if the signal strength Relative Signal Strength Indicator (RSSI) is less than 10%,
4 this means that the measurement path is blocked by external factors. However, it was decided
5 to tighten this criterion. In order to calculate the fluxes, the methane mole fraction values
6 observed at $RSSI > 20\%$ were chosen. Of these, the RSSI exceeded 70% in only 8% of cases
7 (Fig. 2, right), while observations at $20\% < RSSI < 70\%$ had a much greater share. Most often
8 and in 20% of cases the signal strength was between 30% and 40% (Fig. 2, right).

9 The 10 Hz fluctuation data for the vertical wind velocity and the concentrations of water
10 vapour and methane were recorded by a CR21X datalogger (Campbell Scientific, Logan,
11 Utah, USA) so that all parameters could be recorded at the same time. The measurement
12 station was also equipped with sensors recording the general weather conditions (air
13 temperature and humidity, atmospheric pressure, wind direction and velocity, radiation
14 balance components, precipitation). These data were recorded every 10 minutes by a CR10
15 datalogger (Campbell Scientific, Logan, Utah, USA) and were archived together with the 10
16 Hz data on a PC.

17 The FCH_4 was determined directly from the definition as the covariance of the vertical wind
18 velocity fluctuations and the methane concentration fluctuations in the air (Lee et al., 2005;
19 Foken, 2008; Burba and Anderson, 2010; Aubinet et al., 2012):

$$20 \quad FCH_4 = \overline{w' \rho CH_4'} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (w - \bar{w})(\rho CH_4 - \overline{\rho CH_4}). \quad (1)$$

21 The w' and $\rho CH_4'$ parameters are, respectively, the fluctuations of vertical wind velocity and
22 the concentration of methane in the air, while \bar{w} and $\overline{\rho CH_4}$ are their averaged values. A
23 positive flux means the turbulent transport of methane into the troposphere, a negative flux is
24 its uptake by the urban surface. 1 hour block averaging was used as an averaging period.
25 Since the measurements were carried out at a considerable height, a shorter averaging period
26 could lead to underestimating the fluxes (Pawlak et al., 2011). During the calculations, all
27 necessary procedures and corrections were applied. Any data with non-real values were
28 rejected, the spike detection procedure was performed (Vickers and Mahrt, 1997), the double
29 rotation of the wind coordinate system was applied (Kaimal and Finnigan, 1994) and the
30 impact of separation of the sensors was eliminated by maximizing the covariance in the
31 interval ± 2 s. Furthermore, sonic temperature was corrected for humidity in the air

1 (Schotanus et al., 1983) and the WPL correction was added (Webb et al., 1980). According to
2 LI7700 manufacturer's recommendations, the correction terms related to air density
3 fluctuations affecting both the spectroscopic response and the mass density retrieval were
4 applied (LI7700 instruction manual).

5 A detailed control of the quality of the calculated fluxes was also carried out which focused
6 primarily on the assessment of data stationarity. The most commonly used Foken's test
7 (Foken and Wichura, 1996) is not always fit for purpose. Therefore two other tests were used
8 as proposed by Mahrt (1998) and Dutaur et al. (1999) modified by Affre et al., (2000). During
9 the data quality assessment, a very strict criterion was adopted to classify the data as suitable
10 for further analysis when three tests confirmed that stationarity was met. A milder criterion,
11 indicating good data quality if at least one test suggested stationarity did not meet the
12 expectations. This criterion accepted data with unrealistically high positive values and a
13 substantial number of fluxes with high negative values whose existence cannot be explained.
14 However, the restrictive evaluation of the data reduced the amount of data suitable for further
15 analysis by 23.8%. Uncertainty regarding their quality was kept to a minimum.
16 Approximately 10% of the data were not registered due to problems with power supply in
17 autumn 2013, and 29.8% of the recorded data were rejected because the measurements had
18 been taken in weather conditions which made it impossible for the LI7700 sensor to measure
19 the concentration of methane properly. This was a result of such factors as precipitation and
20 atmospheric deposits, saturation of air with water vapour and impurities. This problem
21 occurred particularly in autumn and winter (Table. 1) when frequent cleaning of the sensor
22 placed on the mast was impossible. As a result the percentage of acceptable data was 36.4%
23 as shown in Table. 1.

24

25 **3 Results**

26 **3.1 Climate background**

27 The climate of central Poland is a typical transitional climate of moderate latitudes. It is
28 characterised by marine air masses flowing from the west and by continental air from the east.
29 The mean monthly air temperature in the study period varied from 0.1°C in winter (January
30 2014) to 22.8°C in summer (August 2015). The study period was considered to be hot with
31 heat waves occurring and the winters were relatively warm with mean temperatures in 2014

1 and 2015 of 2.7°C and 2.4°C respectively. The average temperature in 2014 was 10.9°C. The
2 total precipitation in the same year was 584 mm, with a greater amount of precipitation of 360
3 mm (61.6% of the annual total) recorded in the warm half of the year. The maximum solar
4 radiation was observed in July (688 MJ·month⁻¹ in 2014 and 697 MJ·month⁻¹ in 2015) while
5 the minimum occurred in the winter months when they fell below 80 MJ·month⁻¹. The
6 monthly radiation balance totals were almost 400 MJ·month⁻¹ in July, while in the winter
7 months they became negative and reached even -56 MJ·month⁻¹ (December 2013). The
8 average wind speed in the period was 3.1 m·s⁻¹, with slightly higher values in winter (3.4 m·s⁻¹
9 ¹) and lower values in the summer (2.8 m·s⁻¹ on average). The study area of the city is
10 dominated by air flow from the west (Fortuniak et al., 2013).

11 During the measurement period, atmospheric instability or neutral conditions prevailed in the
12 city centre. Stable air stratification was observed in the centre of Łódź in only 7.6% of cases
13 (from 2.9% in winter to 10.4% in summer). The frequency of neutral and unstable
14 stratification was similar and was 46.0% and 46.4% respectively. Unstable conditions
15 prevailed in summer (51.6% of cases), while neutral conditions were observed in 61.7% of
16 cases in winter. In the diurnal cycle, stable stratification was also a rarity. In the daytime
17 (10.00 a.m. to 2.00 p.m.), this type of stratification was observed in only 0.3% of cases on
18 average throughout the year, while at night the condition $\xi > 0$ was met by 15.0% of the data.
19 Other types of atmospheric stability appeared in the daytime in 19.7% (neutral) and in 80%
20 (unstable) of cases. At night, neutral conditions prevailed (67.0% of cases), while unstable
21 conditions were observed in 18.0% of cases on average throughout the year.

22 Clear annual and diurnal cycles characterized the fluxes of energy and mass. Both the sensible
23 heat flux Q_H and the latent heat flux Q_E were largest in summer (about 190 MJ·month⁻¹ and
24 120-150 MJ·month⁻¹, respectively) The Bowen ratio $B=Q_H/Q_E$ was typically urban i.e. greater
25 than 1 and up to 2.25 in May 2015). The annual variability of carbon dioxide flux (FCO_2) was
26 also marked by an annual cycle. The maximum values occurred in winter when anthropogenic
27 CO_2 emissions, being a result of burning fossil fuels for vehicle traffic and domestic heating
28 were the largest. The typical values exceeded 20 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and had a maximum of ~ 55
29 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. In summer, the consumption of CO_2 by urban vegetation and lack of domestic
30 house heating contribute to a decrease in the intensity of net exchange. The minimum values
31 of FCO_2 were observed as -10 to 10 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$.

32

1 **3.2 Annual variability of FCH₄**

2 The two-year measurements of FCH₄ revealed a number of characteristics of the exchange of
3 methane in the city-troposphere system. Irrespective of the season mainly positive of FCH₄
4 were observed (Fig. 3). On average, the percentage of positive values over the study period
5 was 93.7% which was slightly greater in the cold season (94.6%) than in the warm season
6 (93.2%). This means that regardless of the season the centre of Łódź is a source of methane to
7 the atmosphere. In addition, the time variability of FCH₄ shows a clear annual cycle with a
8 maximum in the cold season and a minimum in the warm season (Fig. 3). The highest
9 recorded values exceeded 100 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹ and were observed in November, December,
10 January and February. The least intense exchange of methane was observed from May to
11 September, when FCH₄ was rarely greater than 50 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. The exception was the
12 summer of 2013 when the recorded values of FCH₄ were close to winter values in July and
13 August. However, only average values were elevated, while the median values are similar to
14 those of July and August 2014 and 2015. It can be assumed that in the summer of 2013
15 additional sources of methane were present which could be the result of damages to the gas
16 network. It is likely that this occurred south-east of the station where the deep excavations
17 associated with the construction of a tunnel for one of the main streets of the city centre was
18 completed (Fig. 2).

19 It seems that the annual cycle of turbulent methane exchange should be attributed to the
20 anthropogenic origin of this gas in the centre of the city. In the cold season, there is an
21 increase in methane emissions associated with the combustion of fossil fuels, which results
22 from the increased discharge of motor vehicle exhaust gas (Heeb et al., 2003; Nakagawa et
23 al., 2005). Another important factor is the increased natural gas consumption in winter, its
24 leakage from distribution networks and its use in domestic gas burners. Methane is also
25 produced by heating ovens (Ciais et al., 2013). The absence of inventory data makes it
26 difficult to verify these dependencies for Łódź. However, the increased values of the flux of
27 methane are clearly visible where there are rapid drops in air temperature i.e. in late October
28 or late November and December 2014 (Fig. 3). A pronounced annual cycle can also be seen in
29 the temporal variability of the mean monthly values of FCH₄ (Fig. 3, Table 2). The highest
30 monthly averages of FCH₄ were recorded in January and February 2014 when the average
31 exchange exceeded 60 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. In the same months of 2015, the FCH₄ values were lower
32 and slightly exceeded 50 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹, which was a consequence of winter 2014/2015 being

1 warmer than 2013/2014. The mean monthly values of FCH₄ in summer rarely exceeded 20
2 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. The median values in the warm half of the year were very similar to the average
3 values. In the cold season, the median was lower due to the sporadically occurring elevated
4 levels of FCH₄. Regardless of the measurements, some differences in the time variability of
5 methane flux in transitional seasons can also be observed. In late winter and early spring, a
6 rapid drop in FCH₄ by approximately 30 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹ can be observed, while FCH₄ starts to
7 increase at the end of summer and slowly continues until winter. The cold half of the year is
8 also characterised by a greater variability of the fluxes of methane (Table 2). In the summer
9 months, the standard deviation of FCH₄ did not exceed 20 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹, whereas during the
10 winter months it was more than two times greater. An exception is the aforementioned
11 summer of 2013.

12

13 **3.3 Diurnal variability of FCH₄**

14 Fig. 4 shows the average daily flux of methane in the centre of Łódź calculated for the entire
15 study period (top graph) and for the successive months of the year (middle and bottom
16 graphs). The average daily variability in the successive months confirms the above described
17 annual variability i.e. higher values of FCH₄ occurred in the cold season. Furthermore, the
18 average daily variability, regardless of month and time of day, is always positive. This means
19 that the emissions of methane dominate over its uptake by the urban surface. The daily
20 pattern, averaged for the entire measurement period, show a clear diurnal cycle with two
21 maxima and two minima. The maximum values occurred in the morning (7.00 - 8.00 UTC +
22 1) and in the evening (19.00 - 20.00 UTC + 1). During the maxima, the values of FCH₄
23 reached almost 40 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹, whereas during the noon hours and at night they dropped to
24 26-28 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. Such a daily pattern suggests that the average flux of methane can be
25 divided into two components. One has an approximately constant value of up to 26-28
26 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹ and its source may be the sewerage system and the natural gas distribution
27 system. In the morning and in the afternoon, additional sources of methane (vehicle traffic,
28 combustion of natural gas, leaks from gas network associated with the increasing gas
29 consumption) are activate, increasing the flux by 10-12 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. However, it should be
30 noted that due to the lack of inventory data, the above considerations are only hypothetical.

1 In the warm half of the year (May-October), the average daily variability was low and from
2 April to September it ranged between 10 and 40 $\text{nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. In May, June and July it was
3 difficult to see clear maxima during a 24-hour period. In August, September and October
4 there was a maximum in the morning. In the cold half of the year (November-April), the
5 average daily variability of FCH_4 was characterised by distinctly higher values from 20 to 90
6 $\text{nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. In this period, the double daily maximum was easier to identify and in
7 November, December, January and February the afternoon peak seemed to be greater than in
8 the mornings. In March and April, the maximum values were comparable. The presence of
9 two maxima in the variability of FCH_4 in the cold season could be explained by the increased
10 consumption of natural gas, the combustion of fossil fuels in the morning and afternoon hours
11 from cooking and domestic heating and the diurnal variability of motor vehicle traffic which
12 can cause road congestion in winter. In the warmer seasons and particularly during the
13 holidays periods, motor vehicle traffic became less intense and the city's inhabitants stopped
14 heating their homes. In the cold season, FCH_4 is also characterised by greater variability
15 throughout the day. The standard deviation of FCH_4 in this season can reach 50 $\text{nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$
16 while in the warm season it rarely exceeds 20 $\text{nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$.

17

18 **3.4 Monthly and annual exchange of FCH_4**

19 Based on the average daily patterns of FCH_4 calculated for each month (the sum of the
20 average hourly FCH_4 multiplied by the number of days in the month), the exchange of
21 methane in the successive months of the study period was determined (Fig. 5). The highest
22 values occurred in winter where in January and February 2014 they exceeded 2.5 $\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{month}^{-1}$.
23 The summer values were more than two times lower and dropped to 0.7-0.8 $\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{month}^{-1}$.
24 The autumn of 2013 was characterized by elevated values of FCH_4 . A comparison
25 between the monthly exchange of methane and the mean monthly air temperature reveals a
26 clear link between these parameters (coefficient of determination = 0.731, Fig. 5, bottom
27 right). So, the anthropogenic sources of methane gain intensity at low air temperatures, which
28 can be seen by comparing the results of FCH_4 measurements in winter 2013/14 and 2014/15
29 (Fig. 5). In the first case, an increase of the monthly values of the flux was recorded starting
30 from November, with a maximum in January and then a decrease until April-May. Between
31 November 2013 and January 2014, the exchange almost doubled (from 1.36 to 2.67 $\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{month}^{-1}$).
32 The next winter, the monthly exchange of methane between November and March

1 differed little, and FCH₄ increased from November 2014 to January 2015 only by ca 0.27
2 g·m⁻²·month⁻¹. The differences were associated with thermal contrasts during the two winters.
3 In winter 2014/2015, the monthly average temperature remained at 2.2-2.5°C, while in the
4 previous winter season the mean January temperature dropped to 0.1°C. The greater activity
5 of the anthropogenic sources of methane in the centre of the city is also confirmed by the
6 measurements of methane concentrations (Fig. 5, bottom left). The high winter values of the
7 flux of methane are accompanied by higher concentrations of the gas in the air and seasonal
8 changes in OH concentration.

9 Based on the data on the exchange of methane in Łódź obtained between January 2014 and
10 August 2015, an attempt was made to assess the cumulative annual exchange of this gas in the
11 centre of Łódź between the city centre and the atmosphere (Fig. 6). To date, there have been
12 no standard methods for filling gaps in the long-term data series of turbulent fluxes of
13 methane in urbanized areas. Difficulties with their development arise primarily from the fact
14 that the continuous measurements of FCH₄ in cities are still rare. Furthermore, as in the case
15 of carbon dioxide fluxes, data on anthropogenic sources of the gas and the parameters of
16 natural processes (e.g. air temperature) may be useful for the data gap filling procedures
17 (Aubinet et al., 2012). The annual exchange of methane in the city centre was therefore
18 estimated using two simple methods. Firstly, on the basis of the average daily patterns of
19 FCH₄, the monthly exchange in the successive months was determined and then the
20 accumulation was made (Fig. 6, solid step plots). Secondly, the gaps were filled in a series of
21 1-hour values of FCH₄ in two ways. If a data gap was not longer than 3 hours, interpolation
22 was used, while for longer gaps data were inserted from the average daily pattern in the
23 respective month for the respective hour. Both methods yielded very similar results (the
24 difference was approximately 1%), although it is obvious that the cumulative fluxes obtained
25 in this manner should be regarded as an approximation. Therefore it can be stated that the
26 annual exchange of methane in the centre of Łódź in 2014 was equal to about 17.6 g·m⁻² (Fig.
27 6). The graph shows the impact of the annual variability of methane flux: the cumulative flux
28 grows fastest in the cold half of the year. Due to the differences in the exchange of methane
29 described in Section 3.4, with reference to changes in air temperature in the study period, the
30 cumulative exchange in the period January-August 2015 was calculated in a similar manner.
31 The relatively warmer beginning of 2015 caused the exchange to be less intense and the
32 cumulative flux of FCH₄ in August 2015 was by 9.2% lower than in 2014.

1

2 **3.5 Weekly differences of FCH₄**

3 Since fluxes of methane in the city are associated with anthropogenic sources, a weekly cycle
4 of FCH₄ should be expected which is similar to that seen for CO₂ exchange (Pawlak et al.,
5 2011). Based the on 1-hour data for FCH₄ recorded in the period July 2013 to August 2015,
6 an average daily flux of 44.3 mg·m⁻²·day⁻¹ was determined (Fig. 7). Having taken only
7 working days for the calculation (Monday to Friday), it was found that the exchange was
8 higher i.e. 45.2 mg·m⁻²·day⁻¹. In contrast, the average daily exchange of methane during
9 weekends (Saturday and Sunday) amounted to 42.3 mg·m⁻²·day⁻¹ and was therefore lower by
10 4.5%. These results suggest that, on average, in the study period anthropogenic sources of
11 methane are likely to be less at weekends compared to working days. It should be emphasized
12 that on Saturday, the average flux was lower by 6.9% in comparison with working days, while
13 on Sunday it was lower by 12%. The difference is a result of significantly lower peak on
14 Sunday morning, which can be attributed to less intensive human activity on Sunday morning
15 and lower traffic load in comparison to the same time of day on Saturday. Similar results
16 were observed in summer and winter, when the average daily exchange on working days was
17 higher by 1.6% (summer) and 1.9% (winter) compared with the average for the whole week.
18 The average daily exchange at weekends was lower by 4.0% and 4.7% respectively. An
19 exception is the transitional seasons when the average daily exchange of methane on working
20 days was comparable (spring, -0.3%) or slightly lower (autumn, -1.6%) than the average for
21 the entire week (Fig. 7). On the other hand, the average daily exchange during the weekend
22 turned out to be higher and amounted to +1.6% (spring) and +3.8% (autumn). Without the
23 inventory data, it is difficult to explain why the fluxes vary, particularly in the case of CO₂
24 fluxes where higher values are observed on working days as compared to weekends
25 throughout the year (Pawlak et al., 2011).

26

27 **3.6 Methane fluxes and wind direction**

28 As mentioned in Section 2.1, the centre of Łódź is the most densely built-up area of the city.
29 The measurement point is located in an area of uniform building density while, as mentioned
30 in Section 2.1, this density is slightly greater to the east and north of the station. An analysis

1 of the average value of FCH_4 depending on the wind direction confirms, at least in part, the
2 impact of building density on the value of methane turbulent exchange (Fig. 8). The fluxes of
3 methane recorded during airflow from the north, and especially from the south-east, were by
4 far the largest in the study period and reached $35\text{-}45\text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 8, left). However, it is
5 difficult to be confident in the direct relationship between urban design and FCH_4 because of
6 the increased values of FCH_4 from the south-western sector (approximately $40\text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$).
7 Such a relationship cannot be ruled out, however the local point sources of methane may play
8 an important role even though they are difficult to identify. In the case of the south-western
9 sector, the liquid petroleum gas (LPG) station located approximately 800 m from the
10 measurement station may be such a source. It lies approximately 200 m to the west of the
11 large intersection where traffic load is usually larger than the surrounding streets.
12 Significantly lower values of FCH_4 (less than $20\text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) observed with airflow from the
13 south and west may be due to the presence of large urban parks (Fig. 1). Heavy traffic does not
14 run through these streets and the density of the gas network and sewage system is also
15 significantly smaller in comparison with other sectors (Fig. 1). The distribution of average
16 FCH_4 depending on the wind direction, calculated for the cold half of the year (Fig. 8, middle)
17 suggests that in this season local anthropogenic methane sources were more intense. The
18 relationship between FCH_4 and the wind direction was much the same throughout the study
19 period, while the average values of fluxes were higher and amounted to $55\text{-}70\text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$.
20 Therefore, the sources could be clusters of houses with leaks from gas installations or vehicles
21 at nearby intersections which are heavily jammed in the cold half of the year. In summer, the
22 average fluxes of CH_4 were significantly lower (less than $30\text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, Fig. 8, right)
23 regardless of the wind direction. The contrast between the sectors was not clear. An exception
24 is the clearly visible elevated value of FCH_4 , associated with the airflow from the south-
25 western sector.

26

27 **3.7 Methane fluxes in relation with carbon dioxide fluxes**

28 During more than two years of measurements in Łódź, both F_{CO_2} and FCH_4 were measured
29 and therefore the question about temporal covariability of both fluxes can be addressed, and,
30 consequently, whether the exchange of methane can be estimated based on the knowledge of
31 the flux of CO_2 . The average daily variability (Fig. 9, left) and the average monthly variability
32 (Fig. 9, middle) of the value of methane flux were compared to the fluxes of CO_2 . As the

1 figure indicates, such covariability exists and bigger fluxes of CH₄ are accompanied by larger
2 fluxes of CO₂. Unfortunately, the low coefficients of determination (0.57 and 0.56) mean
3 FCO₂ cannot be used as a proxy for FCH₄ in the centre of Łódź. An even weaker relationship
4 was observed between the average daily patterns of FCH₄ and FCO₂ (Fig. 9, right). Although
5 the two fluxes have a characteristic pattern with two maxima in a 24-hour period, the
6 coefficient of determination is only 0.25. We therefore conclude that FCO₂ data cannot be
7 used to facilitate gap-filling of FCH₄ data in the centre of Łódź.

8 The comparison of FCH₄ and FCO₂ fluxes allow analysis of the relative contribution of each
9 of the fluxes to total emissions to atmosphere. The average value of the FCH₄/FCO₂ ratio in
10 2013-2015 was $3.71 \cdot 10^{-3}$ (Fig. 10, top). Rather stable values of the ratio in months (minimum
11 $2.41 \cdot 10^{-3}$, maximum $5.3 \cdot 10^{-3}$) and the lack of a clear annual course suggest rather
12 comparable magnitude of both fluxes. However, a clear diurnal course in the ratio has been
13 observed (Fig. 10, bottom) with reduced values in the day and elevated values at night. On
14 average, over the study period and in the transitional seasons, the daily variation of
15 FCH₄/FCO₂ was similar. Between the hours of 9 a.m. and 5 p.m. FCH₄/FCO₂ was
16 approximately constant of the order 2.5 to $3.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$. At night, these values grow to about 5 -
17 $7 \cdot 10^{-3}$ which can be explained by relatively constant methane emissions related to leaks from
18 pipelines, and reduced emission of CO₂ which is the result of minimum of traffic load. In
19 winter, the average daily variability of the FCH₄/FCO₂ ratio can be characterised by slightly
20 higher values during the day (about $4.4 \cdot 10^{-3}$) and significantly higher at night reaching $12 \cdot 10$
21 3 between the hours of 2 a.m. and 6 a.m. (Fig. 10, bottom). The causes again are clear: a
22 minimum traffic load giving reduced fluxes of FCO₂ but also increased methane leaks from
23 pipelines associated with higher gas consumption for heating of the surrounding buildings.
24 The exception was the daily course FCH₄/FCO₂ in the summer which is reversed. The
25 minimum (of the order of 3 - $5 \cdot 10^{-3}$) was observed at night and the maximum (more than $8 \cdot 10$
26 3) around noon (Fig. 10, bottom). Elevated values of the ratio during the day are the result
27 photosynthesis reducing FCO₂ flux.

28

29 **4 Summary and conclusions**

30 The measurements of the methane flux (FCH₄) carried out in the centre of Łódź for more than
31 two years provided information on the time variability of methane exchange between the
32 urban surface and the atmosphere. The measurement results showed that, as in the case of

1 other greenhouse gases, i.e. water vapour (Offerle et al., 2006a, 2006b) and CO₂ (Pawlak et
2 al., 2011), the centre of Łódź is a source of methane to the atmosphere. Another feature
3 indicating the similarity in the time variability of greenhouse gases is the annual cycle of the
4 exchange of methane in the system: city centre/atmosphere, which seems to result from an
5 annual cycle of anthropogenic methane emissions. Other characteristics such as diurnal
6 variability, and notably weekly variability, are not as pronounced as for FCO₂ (Pawlak et al.,
7 2011). The annual exchange of methane in terms of pure carbon in the centre of Łódź was
8 estimated at 13.2 gC·m⁻²·year⁻¹, which, compared to the exchange of CO₂ estimated in Łódź
9 at 2.93 kgC·m⁻²·year⁻¹, does not seem too large. At the same time, it must be noted that the
10 centre of Łódź is a source of methane comparable in intensity to the most productive natural
11 areas, i.e. wetlands. The annual exchange of methane in Łódź was estimated to be 17.6 g·m⁻²·
12 year⁻¹, while at the same time (2014) the exchange in the wetlands of the Biebrza National
13 Park (north-eastern Poland) was approximately 18 g·m⁻²·year⁻¹ (Fortuniak and Pawlak, 2015).
14 Comparable values of the annual exchange of methane were also observed at other stations
15 located in wetlands: approximately 16.5 g·m⁻²·year⁻¹ (Finland, Rinne et al., 2007) or 14.0 -
16 18.5 g·m⁻²·year⁻¹ (Sweden, Nilsson et al., 2008).

17 Unfortunately, possibility of comparing the results obtained with those from other cities is
18 limited at this time. The only longer-term measurements of methane flux were performed in
19 Florence (March - May 2011, Gioli et al., 2012) and in London (3-year campaign, Helfter et
20 al., 2016). The mean values of the methane fluxes obtained in these cities were higher than in
21 Łódź. In Florence, the average methane exchange in the spring of 2011 was estimated to be
22 135 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. The average FCH₄ in Łódź in the same season was four times lower and
23 equal to 31 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. On the other hand, a comparison of the obtained results of FCH₄
24 measurements with inventory research does not necessarily yield a positive outcome (Gioli et
25 al., 2012). In London, the average exchange was also several times higher than that observed
26 in Łódź (142 and 32 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹, respectively). The results of this type, however, allow only
27 a very general comparison and the limited sampling period prevents analysis. For example,
28 the mean variability of daily FCH₄ in Florence in spring was characterised by one maximum
29 during the day, while two maxima were observed in Łódź for the same period: morning and
30 evening. The measurements in Florence showed no correlation between FCH₄ and air
31 temperature (R²=-0.04, Gioli et al., 2012), while in Łódź a strong relationship occurs
32 (R²=0.71). It is also impossible to compare the annual exchange and in the absence of
33 measurements in other cities, it is difficult to determine the relationship between the intensity

1 of annual methane exchange and a parameter characterizing the study area of the city in
2 general. In the case of CO₂ flux, a clear relationship between the annual FCO₂ and the
3 percentage of artificial surfaces in the vicinity of the measurement point (Nordbo et al., 2012;
4 Oliphant, 2012) was observed. Based on the existing measurements, it is difficult to attempt
5 to seek a similar dependence for the flux of methane since only in London a relationship
6 between FCH₄ and population has been found (Helfter et al., 2016). There are also several
7 published results of urban methane emissions obtained using eddy-covariance techniques such
8 as using alkanes (Los Angeles, Pieschl et al., 2013), aircraft measurements (Indianapolis,
9 Mays et al., 2009) or a ground-based Fourier transform spectrometer (Los Angeles, Wunch et
10 al., 2009). All of them reports existence of higher FCH₄ fluxes than measured in Łódź.

11

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15

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- 18

1 Table 1. Data capture of 1-hour values recorded for FCH₄ in the center of Łódź in the period
2 July 2013 – August 2015

Spring MAM	39.1%
Summer JJA	47.4%
Autumn SON	26.5%
Winter DJF	31.1%

July 2013 – August 2015	36.4%
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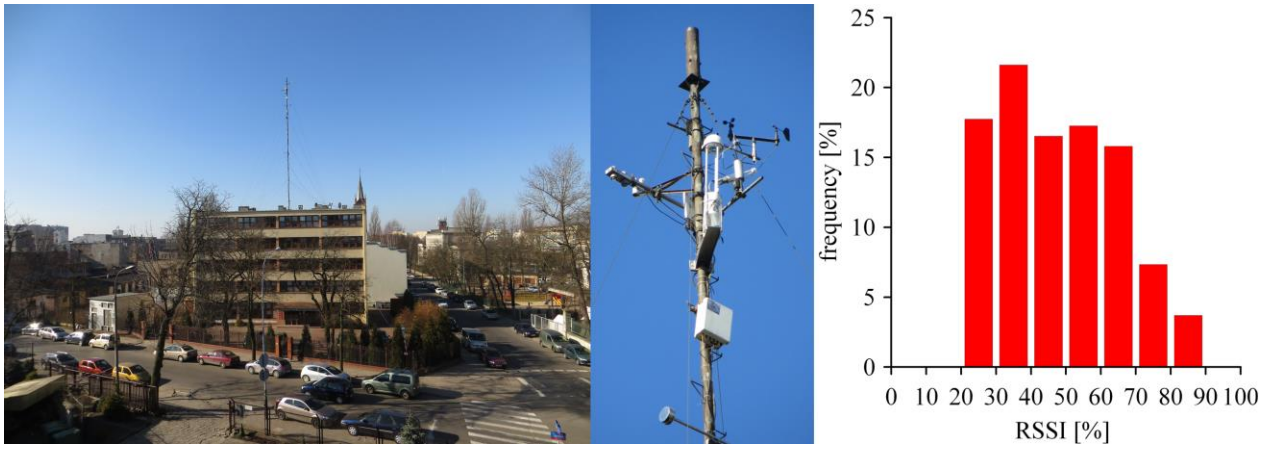
1 Table 2. Monthly values of mean, median and standard deviation values of FCH₄ in the centre
 2 of Łódź in the period July 2013 – August 2015 (all fluxes in nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹).

		J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
2013	Mean	-	-	-	-	-	-	22.1	29.5	39.6	38.1	35.3	45.3
2013	Median	-	-	-	-	-	-	18.2	22.0	26.3	27.7	26.6	38.6
2013	St. dev.	-	-	-	-	-	-	27.1	35.7	56.2	43.7	39.3	35.9
2014	Mean	62.9	66.6	37.4	33.1	21.8	22.9	20.3	19.2	20.8	27.0	43.4	47.8
2014	Median	60.2	64.4	30.6	31.7	20.8	22.1	19.3	18.2	20.2	23.6	34.2	38.4
2014	St. dev.	46.7	42.6	32.9	21.8	20.8	16.8	14.7	15.2	11.3	20.9	31.9	39.3
2015	Mean	52.5	54.2	48.6	25.2	22.8	18.4	17.6	21.5	-	-	-	-
2015	Median	47.6	51.8	46.5	22.4	22.1	17.7	17.3	20.3	-	-	-	-
2015	St. dev.	34.5	39.4	32.4	23.7	16.2	14.9	12.9	14.6	-	-	-	-

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 2 Figure 1. The western part of the center of Łódź (top). Solid white lines indicate the source
 3 area with $P = 25, 50, 75$ and 90% , calculated for the turbulent fluxes measured at 10 a.m. to 2
 4 p.m. during unstable stratification (all available data from the period July 2013 - August
 5 2015). The dashed red lines represent the 250, 500, 750 and 1000 m distance from the
 6 measurement point. White circle indicates LPG station and blue rectangle indicates area of
 7 road tunnel construction. Bottom figures show spatial distribution of gas network (bottom
 8 left) and sewage system (bottom right) in the neighbourhood of the measurement site (white
 9 dots). Schemes are based on data from Geodesy Center of Łódź (www.mapa.lodz.pl). Photo
 10 source: www.google.com



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2 Figure 2. A FCH₄ measurement site in Łódź (left) and instrumentation (middle). The right
3 figure shows the frequency of measured 1-hour blocks of raw data in relation to the RSSI
4 (Received Signal Strength Indicator) of Li7700 methane open path analyser. Data recorded
5 only in the case RSSI>20% were taken into account.

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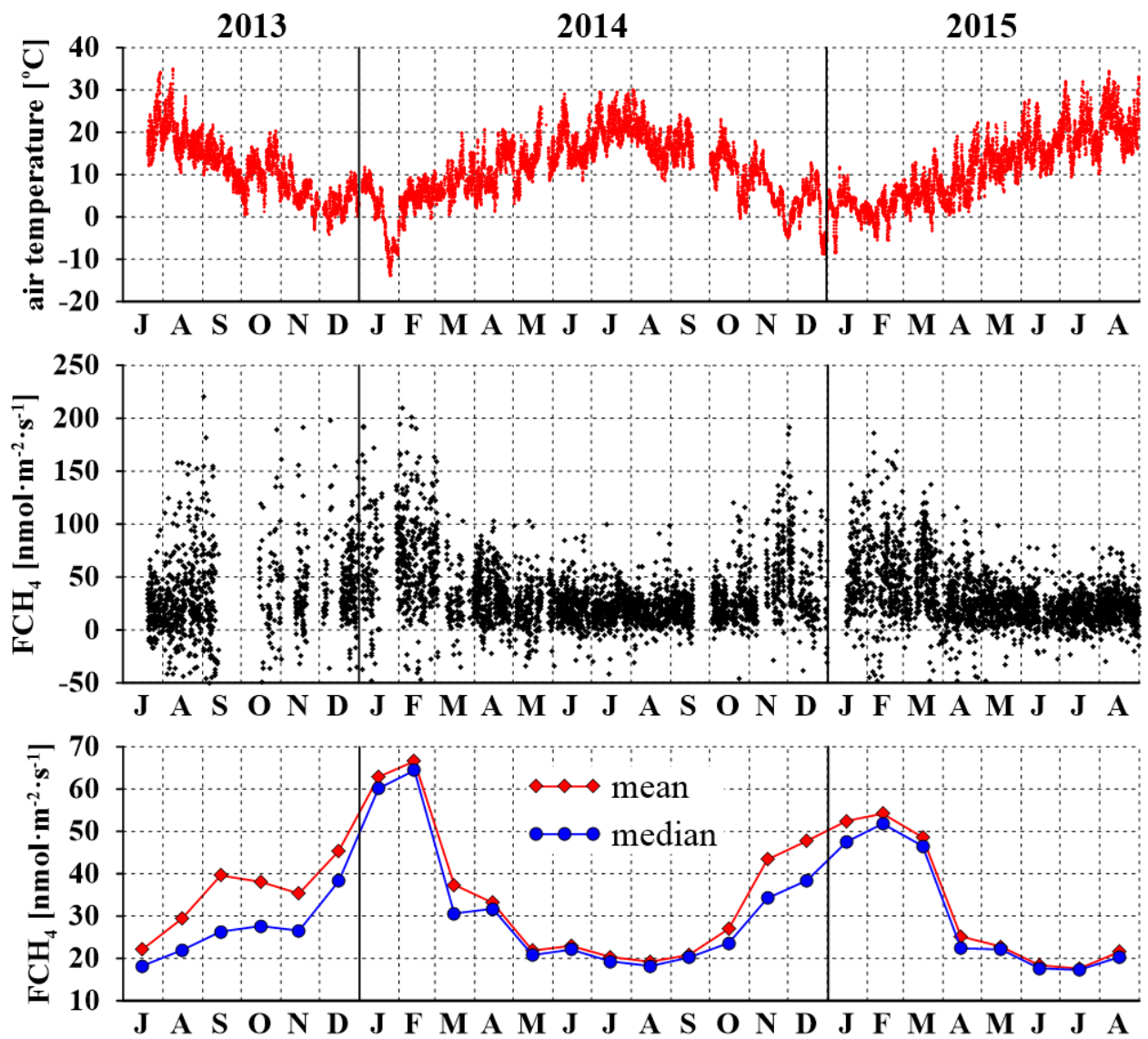
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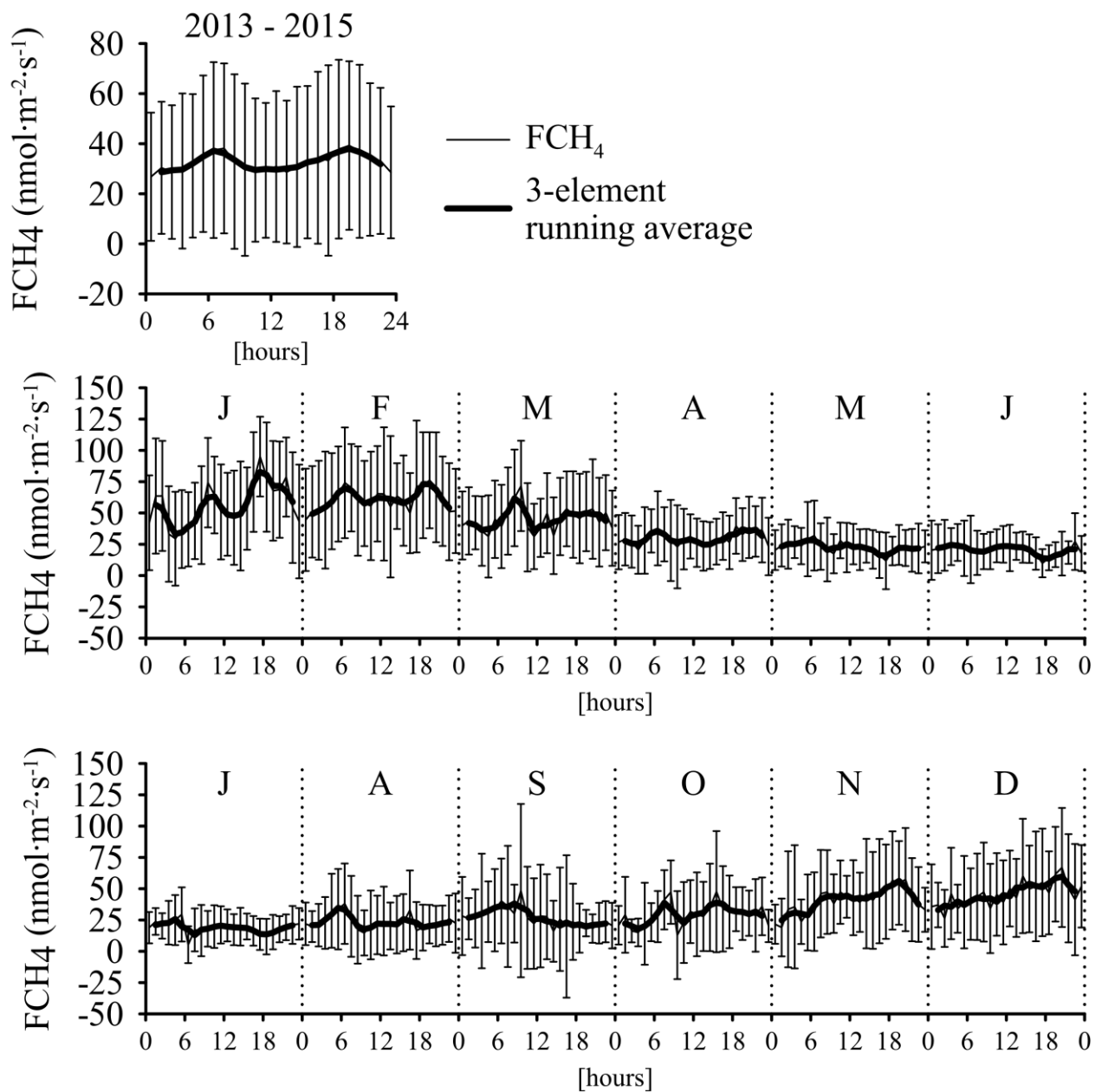
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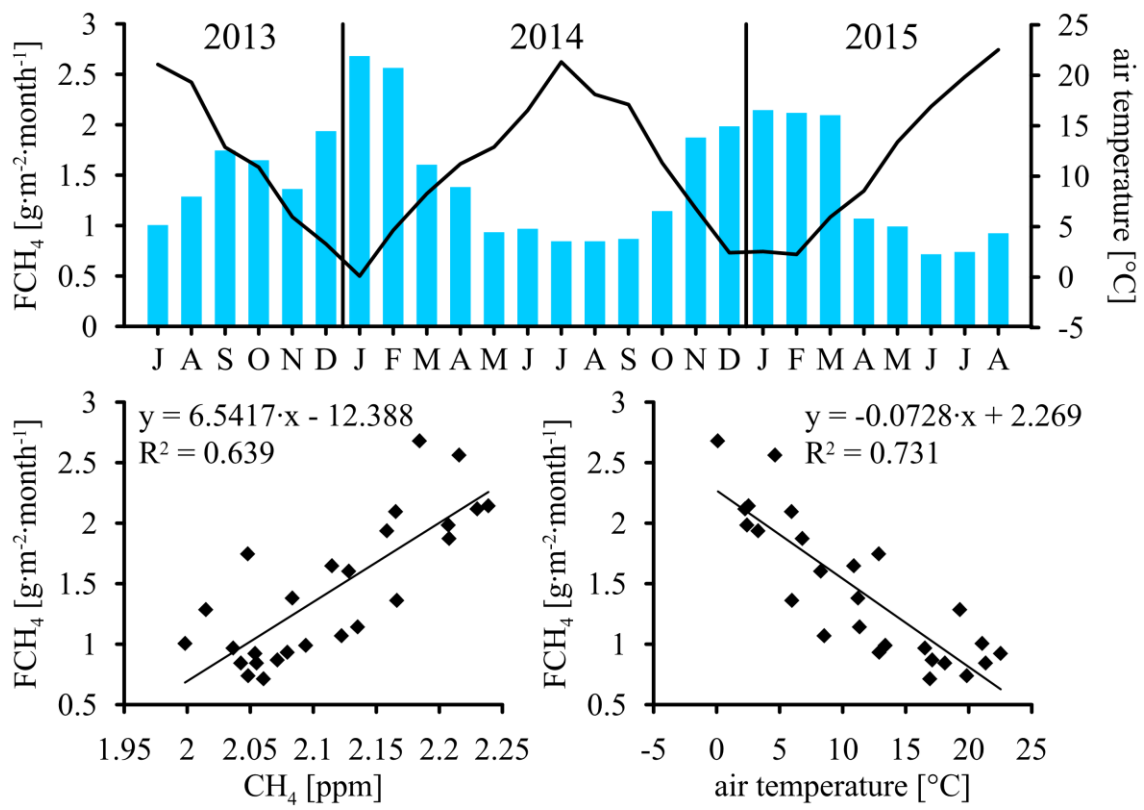


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2 Figure 3. One hour means of air temperature, one hour net turbulent FCH₄ flux (approved by
 3 three stationarity tests), mean and median of FCH₄ measured in the period July 2013 – August
 4 2015.

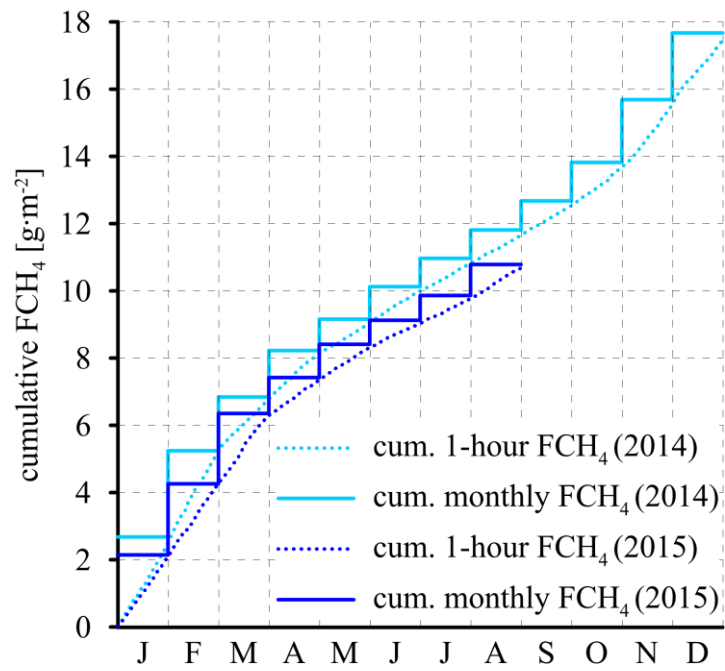


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 2 Figure 4. Mean diurnal variability of FCH₄ flux in the period July 2013 – August 2015 (top
 3 left figure) and for months. Thin and thick black lines indicate, respectively, variability of
 4 FCH₄ and 3-element running average of FCH₄. Thin vertical lines indicate standard deviation
 5 of FCH₄.



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Figure 5. Monthly totals of FCH₄ (top) in relation with mean monthly CH₄ concentration (bottom left) and mean monthly air temperature (bottom right) in the period July 2013 – August 2015.



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2 Figure 6. Cumulative fluxes of FCH₄ in the period January – December 2014 (light blue lines)
 3 and January – August 2015 (dark blue lines). Dotted and solid lines indicate, respectively,
 4 cumulative annual FCH₄ calculated on the basis of all 1-hour data and on the basis of
 5 integrated mean daily courses of consecutive months.

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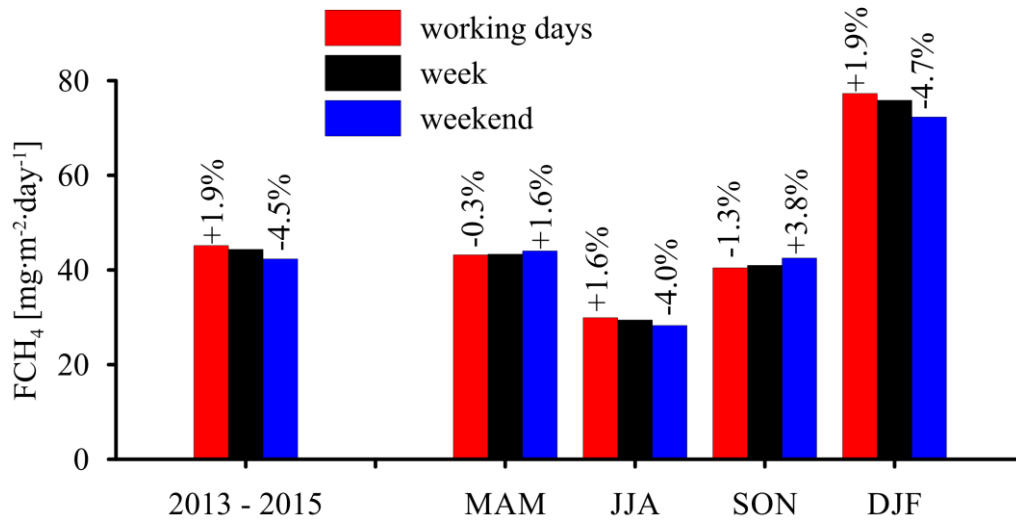
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2 Figure. 7. Mean daily values of FCH₄ in the period July 2013 – June 2015 calculated for study
 3 period and seasons. Red, black and blue bars indicate, respectively, mean daily exchange
 4 during working days (Monday to Friday), weeks (Monday to Sunday) and weekends
 5 (Saturday and Sunday).

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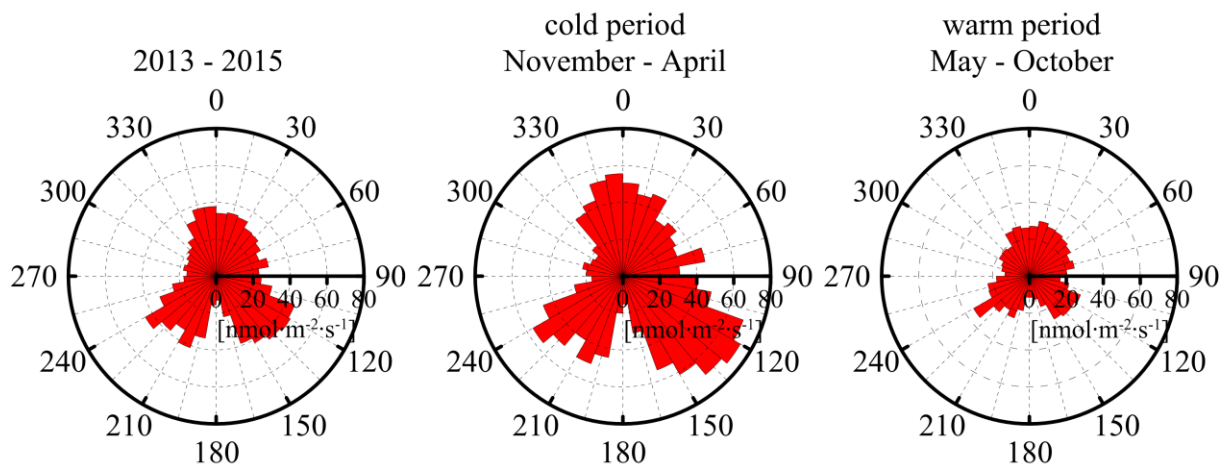
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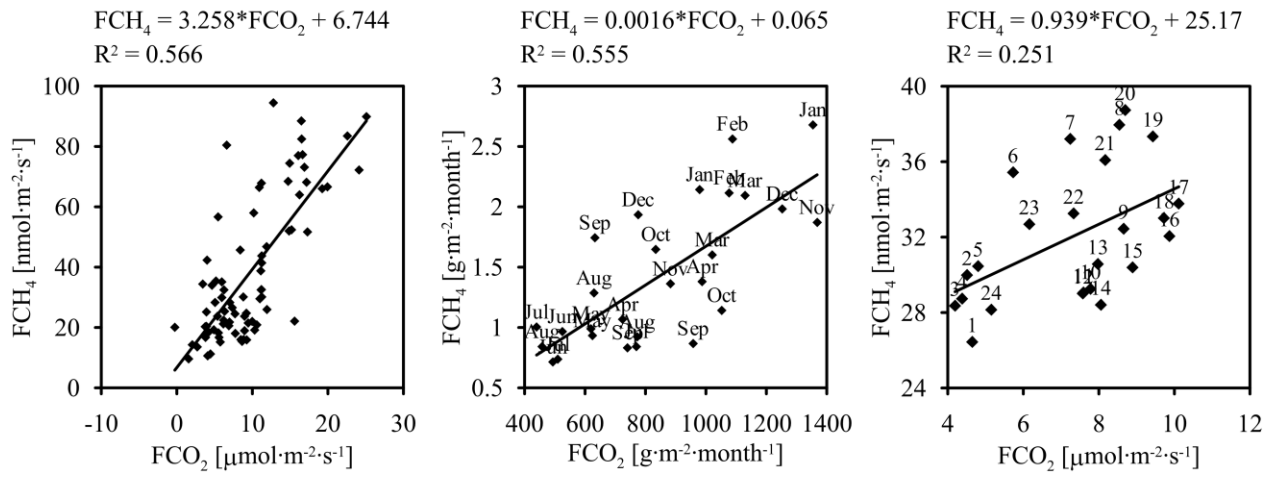
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 2 Figure 8. Mean FCH₄ calculated for all data (left), cold (middle) and warm period (right) in
 3 relation with wind direction in the period July 2013 – August 2015.

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2 Figure 9. Mean daily (left), monthly (middle) and hourly FCH₄ fluxes against FCO₂ in the
 3 period July 2013 – June 2015.

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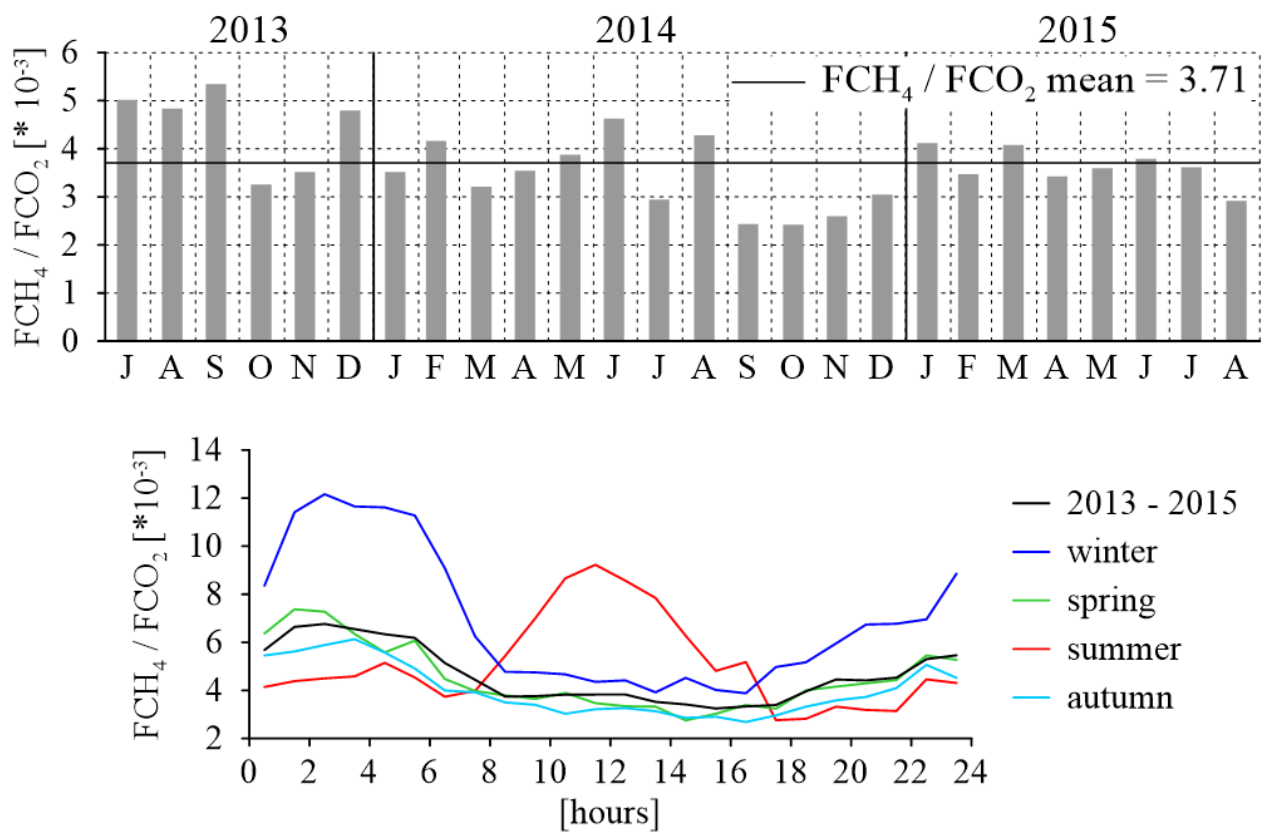
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2 Fig. 10. Monthly FCH_4 to FCO_2 ratio (up) and mean diurnal courses of FCH_4 to FCO_2 ratio in
 3 the period July 2013 – August 2015 and for seasons.