

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

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Abstract

To investigate temporal variability of methane (CH₄) fluxes in an urban environment, air-surface exchange fluxes of CH₄ were continuously measured using eddy covariance technique at a city-centre site in Łódź, Poland during July 2013 to August 2015. In the immediate vicinity of the measurement site, potential methane sources include vehicle traffic, dense sewerage infrastructure and natural gas networks. Sensible and latent heat fluxes have also been measured since 2000 and carbon dioxide fluxes since 2007 at this site. Upward CH₄ fluxes dominated during the measurement period, indicating the city centre being a net source of CH₄ to the troposphere. The highest monthly fluxes were observed in winter (2.0 to 2.7 g·m⁻²·month⁻¹) and the lowest in summer (0.8 to 1.0 g·m⁻²·month⁻¹). Fluxes on working days were around 6% higher than on weekends. The cumulative flux indicates that the city centre emitted a net quantity of nearly 18 g·m⁻² of CH₄ in 2014. Stable values of the FCO₂/FCH₄ ratio in months (minimum 2.41·10⁻³, maximum 5.3·10⁻³) and the lack of a clear annual course suggest comparable magnitude of both fluxes.

1 Introduction

The temporal and spatial variability of greenhouse gas fluxes in the atmosphere is currently one of the most widely discussed climatological problems in the scientific community. Methane, despite its trace presence in the air (ca 1.8 ppm, Hartman et al., 2013), plays an important role in the environment. It participates in the global carbon cycle and is one of the greenhouse gases whose concentration in the atmosphere affects the radiation balance of the earth's surface. An increase in the concentration of methane contributes to an enhancement of

1 the greenhouse effect (Ciais et al., 2013). Therefore, emissions of this gas to atmosphere
2 should be carefully monitored.

3 Methane is produced during the process of methanogenesis under anaerobic conditions, from
4 the decay of organic plant debris in water. The most important source of methane in the world
5 is wetlands (Shurpali et al., 1998; Rinne et al., 2007; Baldocchi et al., 2012; Hatalaa et al.,
6 2012), but paddy fields (Miyata et al., 2000), cattle farms (Laubach and Kelliher, 2005;
7 Dengel et al., 2011; Hartmann et al., 2013; Nicollini et al., 2013) and emissions from the soil
8 are all important sources (Smeets et al., 2009; Denmead et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2013).
9 Moreover, emissions of methane accompany forest fires and grass vegetation. The effect of
10 the combustion of natural gas (which contains at least 80% methane) is mainly water vapour
11 and carbon dioxide. The combustion of fossil fuels is, however, predominantly incomplete,
12 and is therefore an important factor causing anthropogenic methane emissions. This happens
13 in the case of combustion of both natural gas and hydrocarbons contained in petrol and other
14 fuels (Nam, 2004; Nakagawa et al., 2005; Wennberg et al., 2012). Another important source
15 of methane in urbanised areas is leakage from urban gas pipelines (Lowry, et al., 2001; Gioli
16 et al., 2012; Wennberg et al., 2012; Phillips et al., 2013). Methane may also be emitted during
17 the anaerobic respiration of bacteria in urban soils (Bogner and Matthews, 2003) and in the
18 decomposition of solid waste and wastewater in sewage systems and at landfill sites (Bogner
19 and Matthews, 2003; Laurila et al., 2005; Lohila et al., 2007; Wennberg et al., 2012; Jha et al.,
20 2014). In contrast, methane is removed from the air by consumption by soil bacteria
21 (Goldman et al., 1995; Kaye et al., 2004; Groffman et al., 2006; Groffman and Pouyat, 2009).
22 Methane is involved in some of the reactions leading to photochemical smog formation
23 (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). The disintegration of methane also results from its reacting with
24 the hydroxyl group in the atmosphere (Whalen, 2005). Annual global emissions of methane to
25 the atmosphere have been estimated as ~5000 Tg. Emissions from landfills and waste (87-94
26 TG) or fossil fuels (85-105 Tg) are 2-3 times lower than estimated emission from wetlands
27 (177-284 Tg) (Ciais et al, 2013).

28 Research into the methane content in the air is now a priority because the literature indicates
29 that cities could be a significant source of this gas (Elliot et al., 2000; Gioli et al. 2012;
30 O'Shea et al., 2012; Nicolini et al., 2013; Phillips et al., 2013; Christen, 2014; Kumar and
31 Sharma, 2014). The measurements of changes in methane concentration have been carried out
32 for decades (Ciais et al., 2013; Hartmann et al., 2013). However, the analysis of its flux in

1 urban areas is extremely rare. In recent years, there have been approximately 500 stations
2 measuring the fluxes of carbon dioxide (CO₂) around the world of which approximately 20
3 are located in cities and only a few are able to measure methane flux (Nordbo et al., 2012;
4 Oliphant, 2012; Christen, 2014; Helfter et al., 2016). It can be concluded that the
5 measurement of methane flux in cities is in its infancy and challenges like the need for long
6 term measurements (beyond a month) and the relationship between methane fluxes and land
7 use are yet to be overcome.

8 The development of the theory and measurement techniques of turbulent exchange of mass,
9 energy and momentum fluxes have been progressing for decades (Stull, 1988; Lee et al.,
10 2005; Foken, 2008; Aubinet et al., 2013). Historical measurements of methane flux have been
11 severely limited due to the lack of suitable sensors which have only recently become available
12 (Pattey et al. 2006; Hendricks et al., 2008; Eugster and Pluss, 2010; Dengel et al., 2011; Detto
13 et al., 2011; Sakabe et al., 2012). At present, one of the most widely used instruments is the
14 LI7700 Open Path CH₄ Analyser (Burba and Anderson, 2010; McDermitt et al., 2011) which
15 uses eddy-covariance as a measurement technique (Aubinet et al., 2012). Worldwide, there
16 are only a few long-term, continuous measurement stations measuring turbulent fluxes of
17 water vapour and carbon dioxide in urban areas (Christen, 2014; Helfter et al., 2016). For
18 methane flux in urban areas, such data are probably at the implementation phase because
19 previous studies focused on areas which are the largest source of methane i.e. natural
20 wetlands (Shurpali et al., 1998; Rinne et al., 2007; Baldocchi et al., 2012; Hatalaa et al.,
21 2012; Aubinet et al., 2013), agricultural land (paddy fields, Miyata et al., 2000) or forests
22 (Smeets et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2013). The chamber method, widely used in rural areas, has
23 only a limited relevance in the city. This method makes it possible to take measurements of
24 methane emissions from specific areas like urban lawns (Baciu et al., 2008), however, it
25 cannot be used in larger urban areas. A variety of techniques have recently been applied to
26 provide independent estimates of urban methane emissions such as airborne observations
27 (O'Shea et al., 2014; Mays et al., 2009), Fourier Transform Spectrometry (Wunch et al., 2009)
28 or isotopic source apportionment studies (Lowry et al., 2001). Morizumi (1996) suggested the
29 occurrence of covariability of radon Rn-222 and methane flux concentrations which he
30 estimated to be 20 mg·m⁻²·day⁻¹. In Poland, the issue of exchange of greenhouse gases in an
31 urban area is studied has also been studied in Cracow where, based on the measurements of
32 methane concentrations and the height of the atmospheric boundary layer, the average

1 monthly nocturnal flux of methane has been estimated to be 0.8 do 3 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ (Kuc et al.,
2 2003; Zimnoch et al., 2010).

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

13

14 **2 Measurement site and instrumentation**

15 **2.1 Study area and site location**

16 Łódź is one of the largest cities in Poland. The area of the city is about 295 square kilometres
17 (km^2), and its population is estimated at 706,000 residents. The city is located in central
18 Poland on relatively flat terrain which slopes south-westwards. Its altitude varies from 280 to
19 160 m above mean sea level. The most densely built-up city centre area covers 80 km^2 and the
20 altitude difference in this part of the city does not exceed 60 m. In the immediate vicinity of
21 Łódź, there are no large bodies of water, rivers or orographic obstacles impacting on the
22 climate of the city which are worthy of investigation. Another factor making it easier to take
23 measurements of turbulent fluxes of mass and energy in Łódź, is that the city, does not have a
24 standard central sector of tall buildings, towering over an urban canopy layer unlike other
25 large cities in Poland.

26 The measurements of turbulent fluxes of methane are conducted in the western part of the city
27 centre ($51^\circ47'\text{N}$, $19^\circ28'\text{E}$) as shown in Fig. 1). This part of the city has the highest population
28 density which reaches 17.2 thousand people per km^2 . The station for measurements of fluxes
29 of mass, energy and momentum has been operating in the western part of Łódź since 2000
30 (Offerle et al., 2006a; 2006b, Pawlak et al., 2011; Fortuniak et al., 2013, Fortuniak and
31 Pawlak, 2014), however, methane fluxes have been studied since July 2013. The

1 measurement set is mounted on top of a mast at a height of $z = 37$ m (Fig. 2, left) which given
2 the average height of buildings of 11 m, enables the assumption that the measurements are
3 taken above the blending height in the inertial sub-layer (Fig. 2). The source area of turbulent
4 fluxes was estimated (Fig. 1) for data collected during unstable stratification ($(z-z_d)/L < -0.05$)
5 around midday (10.00–14.00) following the method of Schmid (1994) and ranged from 250 to
6 750 m away from the measurement station (Fig. 1).

7 The percentage of artificial surface coverage from buildings, pavements, streets and squares
8 in this part of the city is 62%. The remaining part of the area is covered in vegetation of only
9 10% is by trees (Kłysik, 1998). The vegetation is distributed unevenly in the form of lawns
10 and trees growing along street canyons. In the immediate vicinity of the measurement
11 location, 3-5 storey buildings which range from 15 to 20 m in height dominate. Most of the
12 buildings have flat roofs covered with black tar paper or sheet metal. The trees growing in the
13 area are mostly deciduous and their height usually does not exceed the height of the buildings.
14 This results in a well-formed roof surface with an average height of 11 m. The density of built-
15 up areas north and east of the measurement point, compared to the southern and western
16 sectors, is 10-20% greater (Fig. 1). The displacement height z_d is estimated at 7.7 m.
17 According to the classification by Stewart and Oke (2012), the local climate zone can be
18 described as compact low rise. The roughness coefficient z_{0m} estimated for the neutral
19 stratification surrounding the measurement point was 2.5 m on average. More information on
20 the city's structure and the local climate conditions can be found in Kłysik (1996), Kłysik and
21 Fortuniak (1999), Fortuniak et al. (2006, 2013), Offerle, (2006a, 2006b), Pawlak et al. (2011)
22 and Zieliński et al. (2013). The gas distribution network and sewerage system around the flux
23 tower are shown in Fig. 1.

24

25 **2.2 Instrumentation and data processing**

26 Measurements of turbulent fluxes of methane were carried out using a standard measurement
27 set consisting of the ultrasonic anemometer RMYoung model 81000 (RMYoung, Traverse
28 City, Michigan, USA) and a fast response methane concentration sensor with an open
29 measurement path LI7700 (Li-cor, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA). The measurements were carried
30 out with a precision of $0.001 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and 1 ppb respectively. As the final calculation of
31 methane flux also requires values of sensible heat and water vapour fluxes in the place of

1 observation (LI 7700 instruction manual), the measurement set also included a sensor
2 measuring the concentrations of water vapour and carbon dioxide. This was a LI7500 Infra-
3 Red CO₂/H₂O open path analyser (Li-cor, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA).

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

12 All the aforementioned sensors sampled with a frequency of 10 Hz. Immediately before
13 starting the measurements in July 2013, the sensor for measuring H₂O and CO₂ mole fractions
14 was calibrated (the zero and span values were set). The methane concentration analyser was
15 installed directly after purchase, so the zero and span had been set by the manufacturer. The
16 two sensors and the ultrasonic anemometer were cleaned approximately once a month. This
17 was pertinent to the methane sensor because its mirrors proved to be highly susceptible to
18 grime (air impurities, bird droppings, atmospheric deposits, drying raindrops or melting
19 snowflakes). The manufacturer equipped the instrument with a mirror heating and
20 condensation anti-freezing system and a cleaning system. Using a pump, this applied cleaning
21 liquid to the lower mirror. However, in practice and particularly in autumn and winter this
22 was insufficient particularly on days with humidity of up to 100% when the signal strength
23 dropped by several tens of percent in just a few hours. According to the manufacturer of the
24 instrument, if the signal strength Relative Signal Strength Indicator (RSSI) is less than 10%,
25 this means that the measurement path is blocked by external factors. However, it was decided
26 to tighten this criterion. In order to calculate the fluxes, the methane mole fraction values
27 observed at RSSI >20% were chosen. Of these, the RSSI exceeded 70% in only 8% of cases
28 (Fig. 2, right), while observations at 20% < RSSI < 70% had a much greater share. Most often
29 and in 20% of cases the signal strength was between 30% and 40% (Fig. 2, right).

30 The 10 Hz fluctuation data for the vertical wind velocity and the concentrations of water
31 vapour and methane were recorded by a CR21X datalogger (Campbell Scientific, Logan,
32 Utah, USA) so that all parameters could be recorded at the same time. The measurement

1 station was also equipped with sensors recording the general weather conditions (air
2 temperature and humidity, atmospheric pressure, wind direction and velocity, radiation
3 balance components, precipitation). These data were recorded every 10 minutes by a CR10
4 datalogger (Campbell Scientific, Logan, Utah, USA) and were archived together with the 10
5 Hz data on a PC.

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

$$9 \quad FCH_4 = \overline{w' \rho CH_4'} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (w - \bar{w})(\rho CH_4 - \overline{\rho CH_4}). \quad (1)$$

10 The w' and $\rho CH_4'$ parameters are, respectively, the fluctuations of vertical wind velocity and
11 the concentration of methane in the air, while \bar{w} and $\overline{\rho CH_4}$ are their averaged values. A
12 positive flux means the turbulent transport of methane into the troposphere, a negative flux is
13 its uptake by the urban surface. 1 hour block averaging was used as an averaging period.
14 Since the measurements were carried out at a considerable height, a shorter averaging period
15 could lead to underestimating the fluxes (Pawlak et al., 2011). During the calculations, all
16 necessary procedures and corrections were applied. Any data with non-real values were
17 rejected, the spike detection procedure was performed (Vickers and Mahrt, 1997), the double
18 rotation of the wind coordinate system was applied (Kaimal and Finnigan, 1994) and the
19 impact of separation of the sensors was eliminated by maximizing the covariance in the
20 interval ± 2 s. Furthermore, sonic temperature was corrected for humidity in the air
21 (Schotanus et al., 1983) and the WPL correction was added (Webb et al., 1980). According to
22 LI7700 manufacturer's recommendations, the correction terms related to air density
23 fluctuations affecting both the spectroscopic response and the mass density retrieval were
24 applied (LI7700 instruction manual).

25 A detailed control of the quality of the calculated fluxes was also carried out which focused
26 primarily on the assessment of data stationarity. The most commonly used Foken's test
27 (Foken and Wichura, 1996) is not always fit for purpose. Therefore two other tests were used
28 as proposed by Mahrt (1998) and Dutaur et al. (1999) modified by Affre et al., (2000). During
29 the data quality assessment, a very strict criterion was adopted to classify the data as suitable
30 for further analysis when three tests confirmed that stationarity was met. A milder criterion,
31 indicating good data quality if at least one test suggested stationarity did not meet the

1 expectations. This criterion accepted data with unrealistically high positive values and a
2 substantial number of fluxes with high negative values whose existence cannot be explained.
3 However, the restrictive evaluation of the data reduced the amount of data suitable for further
4 analysis by 23.8%. Uncertainty regarding their quality was kept to a minimum.
5 Approximately 10% of the data were not registered due to problems with power supply in
6 autumn 2013, and 29.8% of the recorded data were rejected because the measurements had
7 been taken in weather conditions which made it impossible for the LI7700 sensor to measure
8 the concentration of methane properly. This was a result of such factors as precipitation and
9 atmospheric deposits, saturation of air with water vapour and impurities. This problem
10 occurred particularly in autumn and winter (Table. 1) when frequent cleaning of the sensor
11 placed on the mast was impossible. As a result the percentage of acceptable data was 36.4%
12 as shown in Table. 1.

13

14 **3 Results**

15 **3.1 Climate background**

16 The climate of central Poland is a typical transitional climate of moderate latitudes. It is
17 characterised by marine air masses flowing from the west and by continental air from the east.
18 The mean monthly air temperature in the study period varied from 0.1°C in winter (January
19 2014) to 22.8°C in summer (August 2015). The study period was considered to be hot with
20 heat waves occurring and the winters were relatively warm with mean temperatures in 2014
21 and 2015 of 2.7°C and 2.4°C respectively. The average temperature in 2014 was 10.9°C. The
22 total precipitation in the same year was 584 mm, with a greater amount of precipitation of 360
23 mm (61.6% of the annual total) recorded in the warm half of the year. The maximum solar
24 radiation was observed in July (688 MJ·month⁻¹ in 2014 and 697 MJ·month⁻¹ in 2015) while
25 the minimum occurred in the winter months when they fell below 80 MJ·month⁻¹. The
26 monthly radiation balance totals were almost 400 MJ·month⁻¹ in July, while in the winter
27 months they became negative and reached even -56 MJ·month⁻¹ (December 2013). The
28 average wind speed in the period was 3.1 m·s⁻¹, with slightly higher values in winter (3.4 m·s⁻¹
29 ¹) and lower values in the summer (2.8 m·s⁻¹ on average). The study area of the city is
30 dominated by air flow from the west (Fortuniak et al., 2013).

1 During the measurement period, atmospheric instability or neutral conditions prevailed in the
2 city centre. Stable air stratification was observed in the centre of Łódź in only 7.6% of cases
3 (from 2.9% in winter to 10.4% in summer). The frequency of neutral and unstable
4 stratification was similar and was 46.0% and 46.4% respectively. Unstable conditions
5 prevailed in summer (51.6% of cases), while neutral conditions were observed in 61.7% of
6 cases in winter. In the diurnal cycle, stable stratification was also a rarity. In the daytime
7 (10.00 a.m. to 2.00 p.m.), this type of stratification was observed in only 0.3% of cases on
8 average throughout the year, while at night the condition $\xi > 0$ was met by 15.0% of the data.
9 Other types of atmospheric stability appeared in the daytime in 19.7% (neutral) and in 80%
10 (unstable) of cases. At night, neutral conditions prevailed (67.0% of cases), while unstable
11 conditions were observed in 18.0% of cases on average throughout the year.

12 Clear annual and diurnal cycles characterized the fluxes of energy and mass. Both the sensible
13 heat flux Q_H and the latent heat flux Q_E were largest in summer (about $190 \text{ MJ}\cdot\text{month}^{-1}$ and
14 $120\text{-}150 \text{ MJ}\cdot\text{month}^{-1}$, respectively) The Bowen ratio $B=Q_H/Q_E$ was typically urban i.e. greater
15 than 1 and up to 2.25 in May 2015). The annual variability of carbon dioxide flux (FCO_2) was
16 also marked by an annual cycle. The maximum values occurred in winter when anthropogenic
17 CO_2 emissions, being a result of burning fossil fuels for vehicle traffic and domestic heating
18 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
19 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. In summer, the consumption of CO_2 by urban vegetation and lack of domestic
20 house heating contribute to a decrease in the intensity of net exchange. The minimum values
21 of FCO_2 were observed as -10 to $10 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$.

22

23 **3.2 Annual variability of FCH_4**

24 The two-year measurements of FCH_4 revealed a number of characteristics of the exchange of
25 methane in the city-troposphere system. Irrespective of the season mainly positive of FCH_4
26 were observed (Fig. 3). On average, the percentage of positive values over the study period
27 was 93.7% which was slightly greater in the cold season (94.6%) than in the warm season
28 (93.2%). This means that regardless of the season the centre of Łódź is a source of methane to
29 the atmosphere. In addition, the time variability of FCH_4 shows a clear annual cycle with a
30 maximum in the cold season and a minimum in the warm season (Fig. 3). The highest
31 recorded values exceeded $100 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and were observed in November, December,

1 January and February. The least intense exchange of methane was observed from May to
2 September, when FCH_4 was rarely greater than $50 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. The exception was the
3 summer of 2013 when the recorded values of FCH_4 were close to winter values in July and
4 August. However, only average values were elevated, while the median values are similar to
5 those of July and August 2014 and 2015. It can be assumed that in the summer of 2013
6 additional sources of methane were present which could be the result of damages to the gas
7 network. It is likely that this occurred south-east of the station where the deep excavations
8 associated with the construction of a tunnel for one of the main streets of the city centre was
9 completed (Fig. 2).

10 It seems that the annual cycle of turbulent methane exchange should be attributed to the
11 anthropogenic origin of this gas in the centre of the city. In the cold season, there is an
12 increase in methane emissions associated with the combustion of fossil fuels, which results
13 from the increased discharge of motor vehicle exhaust gas (Heeb et al., 2003; Nakagawa et
14 al., 2005). Another important factor is the increased natural gas consumption in winter, its
15 leakage from distribution networks and its use in domestic gas burners. Methane is also
16 produced by heating ovens (Ciais et al., 2013). The absence of inventory data makes it
17 difficult to verify these dependencies for Łódź. However, the increased values of the flux of
18 methane are clearly visible where there are rapid drops in air temperature i.e. in late October
19 or late November and December 2014 (Fig. 3). A pronounced annual cycle can also be seen in
20 the temporal variability of the mean monthly values of FCH_4 (Fig. 3, Table 2). The highest
21 monthly averages of FCH_4 were recorded in January and February 2014 when the average
22 exchange exceeded $60 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. In the same months of 2015, the FCH_4 values were lower
23 and slightly exceeded $50 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, which was a consequence of winter 2014/2015 being
24 warmer than 2013/2014. The mean monthly values of FCH_4 in summer rarely exceeded 20
25 $\text{nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. The median values in the warm half of the year were very similar to the average
26 values. In the cold season, the median was lower due to the sporadically occurring elevated
27 levels of FCH_4 . Regardless of the measurements, some differences in the time variability of
28 methane flux in transitional seasons can also be observed. In late winter and early spring, a
29 rapid drop in FCH_4 by approximately $30 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ can be observed, while FCH_4 starts to
30 increase at the end of summer and slowly continues until winter. The cold half of the year is
31 also characterised by a greater variability of the fluxes of methane (Table 2). In the summer
32 months, the standard deviation of FCH_4 did not exceed $20 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, whereas during the

1 winter months it was more than two times greater. An exception is the aforementioned
2 summer of 2013.

3

4 **3.3 Diurnal variability of FCH₄**

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

22 In the warm half of the year (May-October), the average daily variability was low and from
23 April to September it ranged between 10 and 40 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. In May, June and July it was
24 difficult to see clear maxima during a 24-hour period. In August, September and October
25 there was a maximum in the morning. In the cold half of the year (November-April), the
26 average daily variability of FCH₄ was characterised by distinctly higher values from 20 to 90
27 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹. In this period, the double daily maximum was easier to identify and in
28 November, December, January and February the afternoon peak seemed to be greater than in
29 the mornings. In March and April, the maximum values were comparable. The presence of
30 two maxima in the variability of FCH₄ in the cold season could be explained by the increased
31 consumption of natural gas, the combustion of fossil fuels in the morning and afternoon hours

1 from cooking and domestic heating and the diurnal variability of motor vehicle traffic which
2 can cause road congestion in winter. In the warmer seasons and particularly during the
3 holidays periods, motor vehicle traffic became less intense and the city's inhabitants stopped
4 heating their homes. In the cold season, FCH₄ is also characterised by greater variability
5 throughout the day. The standard deviation of FCH₄ in this season can reach 50 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹
6 while in the warm season it rarely exceeds 20 nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹.

8 **3.4 Monthly and annual exchange of FCH₄**

9 Based on the average daily patterns of FCH₄ calculated for each month (the sum of the
10 average hourly FCH₄ multiplied by the number of days in the month), the exchange of
11 methane in the successive months of the study period was determined (Fig. 5). The highest
12 values occurred in winter where in January and February 2014 they exceeded 2.5 g·m⁻²·month⁻¹.
13 The summer values were more than two times lower and dropped to 0.7-0.8 g·m⁻²·month⁻¹.
14 The autumn of 2013 was characterized by elevated values of FCH₄. A comparison
15 between the monthly exchange of methane and the mean monthly air temperature reveals a
16 clear link between these parameters (coefficient of determination = 0.731, Fig. 5, bottom
17 right). So, the anthropogenic sources of methane gain intensity at low air temperatures, which
18 can be seen by comparing the results of FCH₄ measurements in winter 2013/14 and 2014/15
19 (Fig. 5). In the first case, an increase of the monthly values of the flux was recorded starting
20 from November, with a maximum in January and then a decrease until April-May. Between
21 November 2013 and January 2014, the exchange almost doubled (from 1.36 to 2.67 g·m⁻²·month⁻¹).
22 The next winter, the monthly exchange of methane between November and March
23 differed little, and FCH₄ increased from November 2014 to January 2015 only by ca 0.27
24 g·m⁻²·month⁻¹. The differences were associated with thermal contrasts during the two winters.
25 In winter 2014/2015, the monthly average temperature remained at 2.2-2.5°C, while in the
26 previous winter season the mean January temperature dropped to 0.1°C. The greater activity
27 of the anthropogenic sources of methane in the centre of the city is also confirmed by the
28 measurements of methane concentrations (Fig. 5, bottom left). The high winter values of the
29 flux of methane are accompanied by higher concentrations of the gas in the air and seasonal
30 changes in OH concentration.

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

25

26 **3.5 Weekly differences of FCH₄**

27 Since fluxes of methane in the city are associated with anthropogenic sources, a weekly cycle
28 of FCH₄ should be expected which is similar to that seen for CO₂ exchange (Pawlak et al.,
29 2011). Based on the 1-hour data for FCH₄ recorded in the period July 2013 to August 2015,
30 an average daily flux of 44.3 mg·m⁻²·day⁻¹ was determined (Fig. 7). Having taken only
31 working days for the calculation (Monday to Friday), it was found that the exchange was
32 higher i.e. 45.2 mg·m⁻²·day⁻¹. In contrast, the average daily exchange of methane during

1 weekends (Saturday and Sunday) amounted to $42.3 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ and was therefore lower by
2 4.5%. These results suggest that, on average, in the study period anthropogenic sources of
3 methane are likely to be less at weekends compared to working days. It should be emphasized
4 that on Saturday, the average flux was lower by 6.9% in comparison with working days, while
5 on Sunday it was lower by 12%. The difference is a result of significantly lower peak on
6 Sunday morning, which can be attributed to less intensive human activity on Sunday morning
7 and lower traffic load in comparison to the same time of day on Saturday. Similar results
8 were observed in summer and winter, when the average daily exchange on working days was
9 higher by 1.6% (summer) and 1.9% (winter) compared with the average for the whole week.
10 The average daily exchange at weekends was lower by 4.0% and 4.7% respectively. An
11 exception is the transitional seasons when the average daily exchange of methane on working
12 days was comparable (spring, -0.3%) or slightly lower (autumn, -1.6%) than the average for
13 the entire week (Fig. 7). On the other hand, the average daily exchange during the weekend
14 turned out to be higher and amounted to +1.6% (spring) and +3.8% (autumn). Without the
15 inventory data, it is difficult to explain why the fluxes vary, particularly in the case of CO_2
16 fluxes where higher values are observed on working days as compared to weekends
17 throughout the year (Pawlak et al., 2011).

18

19 **3.6 Methane fluxes and wind direction**

20 As mentioned in Section 2.1, the centre of Łódź is the most densely built-up area of the city.
21 The measurement point is located in an area of uniform building density while, as mentioned
22 in Section 2.1, this density is slightly greater to the east and north of the station. An analysis
23 of the average value of FCH_4 depending on the wind direction confirms, at least in part, the
24 impact of building density on the value of methane turbulent exchange (Fig. 8). The fluxes of
25 methane recorded during airflow from the north, and especially from the south-east, were by
26 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
27 difficult to be confident in the direct relationship between urban design and FCH_4 because of
28 the increased values of FCH_4 from the south-western sector (approximately $40 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$).
29 Such a relationship cannot be ruled out, however the local point sources of methane may play
30 an important role even though they are difficult to identify. In the case of the south-western
31 sector, the liquid petroleum gas (LPG) station located approximately 800 m from the
32 measurement station may be such a source. It lies approximately 200 m to the west of the

1 large intersection where traffic load is usually larger than the surrounding streets.
2 Significantly lower values of FCH_4 (less than $20 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) observed with airflow from the
3 south and west may be due to the presence of large urban parks (Fig. 1). Heavy traffic does not
4 run through these streets and the density of the gas network and sewage system is also
5 significantly smaller in comparison with other sectors (Fig. 1). The distribution of average
6 FCH_4 depending on the wind direction, calculated for the cold half of the year (Fig. 8, middle)
7 suggests that in this season local anthropogenic methane sources were more intense. The
8 relationship between FCH_4 and the wind direction was much the same throughout the study
9 period, while the average values of fluxes were higher and amounted to $55\text{-}70 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$.
10 Therefore, the sources could be clusters of houses with leaks from gas installations or vehicles
11 at nearby intersections which are heavily jammed in the cold half of the year. In summer, the
12 average fluxes of CH_4 were significantly lower (less than $30 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, Fig. 8, right)
13 regardless of the wind direction. The contrast between the sectors was not clear. An exception
14 is the clearly visible elevated value of FCH_4 , associated with the airflow from the south-
15 western sector.

16

17 **3.7 Methane fluxes in relation with carbon dioxide fluxes**

18 During more than two years of measurements in Łódź, both FCO_2 and FCH_4 were measured
19 and therefore the question about temporal covariability of both fluxes can be addressed, and,
20 consequently, whether the exchange of methane can be estimated based on the knowledge of
21 the flux of CO_2 . The average daily variability (Fig. 9, left) and the average monthly variability
22 (Fig. 9, middle) of the value of methane flux were compared to the fluxes of CO_2 . As the
23 figure indicates, such covariability exists and bigger fluxes of CH_4 are accompanied by larger
24 fluxes of CO_2 . Unfortunately, the low coefficients of determination (0.57 and 0.56) mean
25 FCO_2 cannot be used as a proxy for FCH_4 in the centre of Łódź. An even weaker relationship
26 was observed between the average daily patterns of FCH_4 and FCO_2 (Fig. 9, right). Although
27 the two fluxes have a characteristic pattern with two maxima in a 24-hour period, the
28 coefficient of determination is only 0.25. We therefore conclude that FCO_2 data cannot be
29 used to facilitate gap-filling of FCH_4 data in the centre of Łódź.

30 The comparison of FCH_4 and FCO_2 fluxes allow analysis of the relative contribution of each
31 of the fluxes to total emissions to atmosphere. The average value of the FCH_4/FCO_2 ratio in

1 2013-2015 was $3.71 \cdot 10^{-3}$ (Fig. 10, top). Rather stable values of the ratio in months (minimum
2 $2.41 \cdot 10^{-3}$, maximum $5.3 \cdot 10^{-3}$) and the lack of a clear annual course suggest rather
3 comparable magnitude of both fluxes. However, a clear diurnal course in the ratio has been
4 observed (Fig. 10, bottom) with reduced values in the day and elevated values at night. On
5 average, over the study period and in the transitional seasons, the daily variation of
6 FCH_4/FCO_2 was similar. Between the hours of 9 a.m. and 5 p.m. FCH_4/FCO_2 was
7 approximately constant of the order 2.5 to $3.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$. At night, these values grow to about 5 -
8 $7 \cdot 10^{-3}$ which can be explained by relatively constant methane emissions related to leaks from
9 pipelines, and reduced emission of CO_2 which is the result of minimum of traffic load. In
10 winter, the average daily variability of the FCH_4/FCO_2 ratio can be characterised by slightly
11 higher values during the day (about $4.4 \cdot 10^{-3}$) and significantly higher at night reaching $12 \cdot 10^{-3}$
12 3 between the hours of 2 a.m. and 6 a.m. (Fig. 10, bottom). The causes again are clear: a
13 minimum traffic load giving reduced fluxes of FCO_2 but also increased methane leaks from
14 pipelines associated with higher gas consumption for heating of the surrounding buildings.
15 The exception was the daily course FCH_4/FCO_2 in the summer which is reversed. The
16 minimum (of the order of 3 - $5 \cdot 10^{-3}$) was observed at night and the maximum (more than $8 \cdot 10^{-3}$
17 3) around noon (Fig. 10, bottom). Elevated values of the ratio during the day are the result
18 photosynthesis reducing FCO_2 flux.

19

20 **4 Summary and conclusions**

21 The measurements of the methane flux (FCH_4) carried out in the centre of Łódź for more than
22 two years provided information on the time variability of methane exchange between the
23 urban surface and the atmosphere. The measurement results showed that, as in the case of
24 other greenhouse gases, i.e. water vapour (Offerle et al., 2006a, 2006b) and CO_2 (Pawlak et
25 al., 2011), the centre of Łódź is a source of methane to the atmosphere. Another feature
26 indicating the similarity in the time variability of greenhouse gases is the annual cycle of the
27 exchange of methane in the system: city centre/atmosphere, which seems to result from an
28 annual cycle of anthropogenic methane emissions. Other characteristics such as diurnal
29 variability, and notably weekly variability, are not as pronounced as for FCO_2 (Pawlak et al.,
30 2011). The annual exchange of methane in terms of pure carbon in the centre of Łódź was
31 estimated at $13.2 \text{ gC} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$, which, compared to the exchange of CO_2 estimated in Łódź
32 at $2.93 \text{ kgC} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$, does not seem too large. At the same time, it must be noted that the

1 centre of Łódź is a source of methane comparable in intensity to the most productive natural
2 areas , i.e. wetlands. The annual exchange of methane in Łódź was estimated to be $17.6 \text{ g}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$
3 $^2\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$, while at the same time (2014) the exchange in the wetlands of the Biebrza National
4 Park (north-eastern Poland) was approximately $18 \text{ g}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$ (Fortuniak and Pawlak, 2015).
5 Comparable values of the annual exchange of methane were also observed at other stations
6 located in wetlands: approximately $16.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$ (Finland, Rinne et al., 2007) or $14.0 -$
7 $18.5 \text{ g}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{year}^{-1}$ (Sweden, Nilsson et al., 2008).

8 Unfortunately, possibility of comparing the results obtained with those from other cities is
9 limited at this time. The only longer-term measurements of methane flux were performed in
10 Florence (March - May 2011, Gioli et al., 2012) and in London (3-year campaign, Helfter et
11 al., 2016). The mean values of the methane fluxes obtained in these cities were higher than in
12 Łódź. In Florence, the average methane exchange in the spring of 2011 was estimated to be
13 $135 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. The average FCH_4 in Łódź in the same season was four times lower and
14 equal to $31 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. On the other hand, a comparison of the obtained results of FCH_4
15 measurements with inventory research does not necessarily yield a positive outcome (Gioli et
16 al., 2012). In London, the average exchange was also several times higher than that observed
17 in Łódź (142 and $32 \text{ nmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, respectively). The results of this type, however, allow only
18 a very general comparison and the limited sampling period prevents analysis. For example,
19 the mean variability of daily FCH_4 in Florence in spring was characterised by one maximum
20 during the day, while two maxima were observed in Łódź for the same period: morning and
21 evening. The measurements in Florence showed no correlation between FCH_4 and air
22 temperature ($R^2=-0.04$, Gioli et al., 2012), while in Łódź a strong relationship occurs
23 ($R^2=0.71$). It is also impossible to compare the annual exchange and in the absence of
24 measurements in other cities, it is difficult to determine the relationship between the intensity
25 of annual methane exchange and a parameter characterizing the study area of the city in
26 general. In the case of CO_2 flux, a clear relationship between the annual FCO_2 and the
27 percentage of artificial surfaces in the vicinity of the measurement point (Nordbo et al., 2012;
28 Oliphant, 2012) was observed. Based on the existing measurements, it is difficult to attempt
29 to seek a similar dependence for the flux of methane since only in London a relationship
30 between FCH_4 and population has been found (Helfter et al., 2016). There are also several
31 published results of urban methane emissions obtained using eddy-covariance techniques such
32 as using alkanes (Los Angeles, Pieschl et al., 2013), aircraft measurements (Indianapolis,

1 Mays et al., 2009) or a ground-based Fourier transform spectrometer (Los Angeles, Wunch et
2 al., 2009). All of them reports existence of higher FCH₄ fluxes than measured in Łódź.

3

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7

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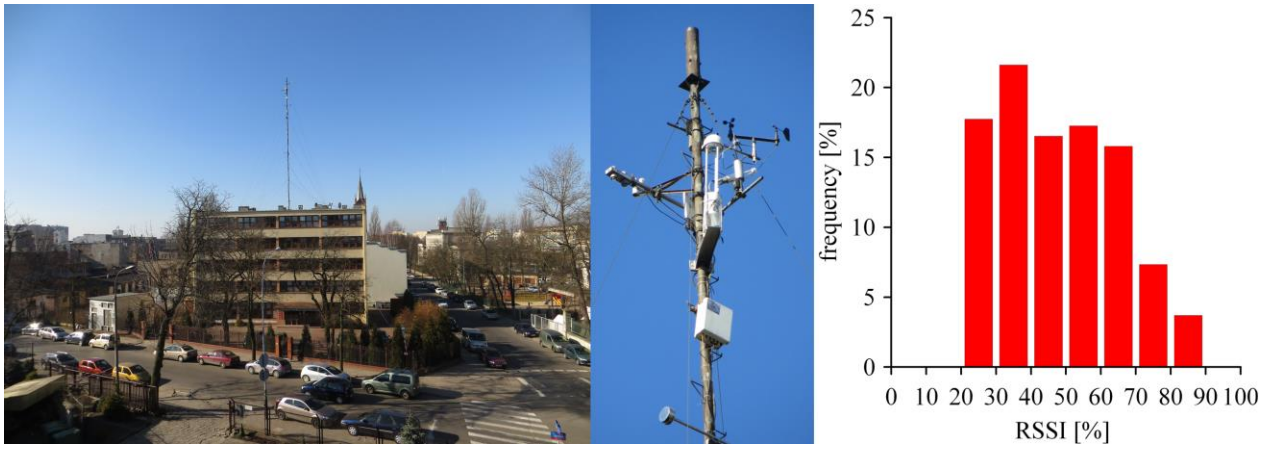
1 Table 2. Monthly values of mean, median and standard deviation values of FCH₄ in the centre
 2 of Łódź in the period July 2013 – August 2015 (all fluxes in nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹).

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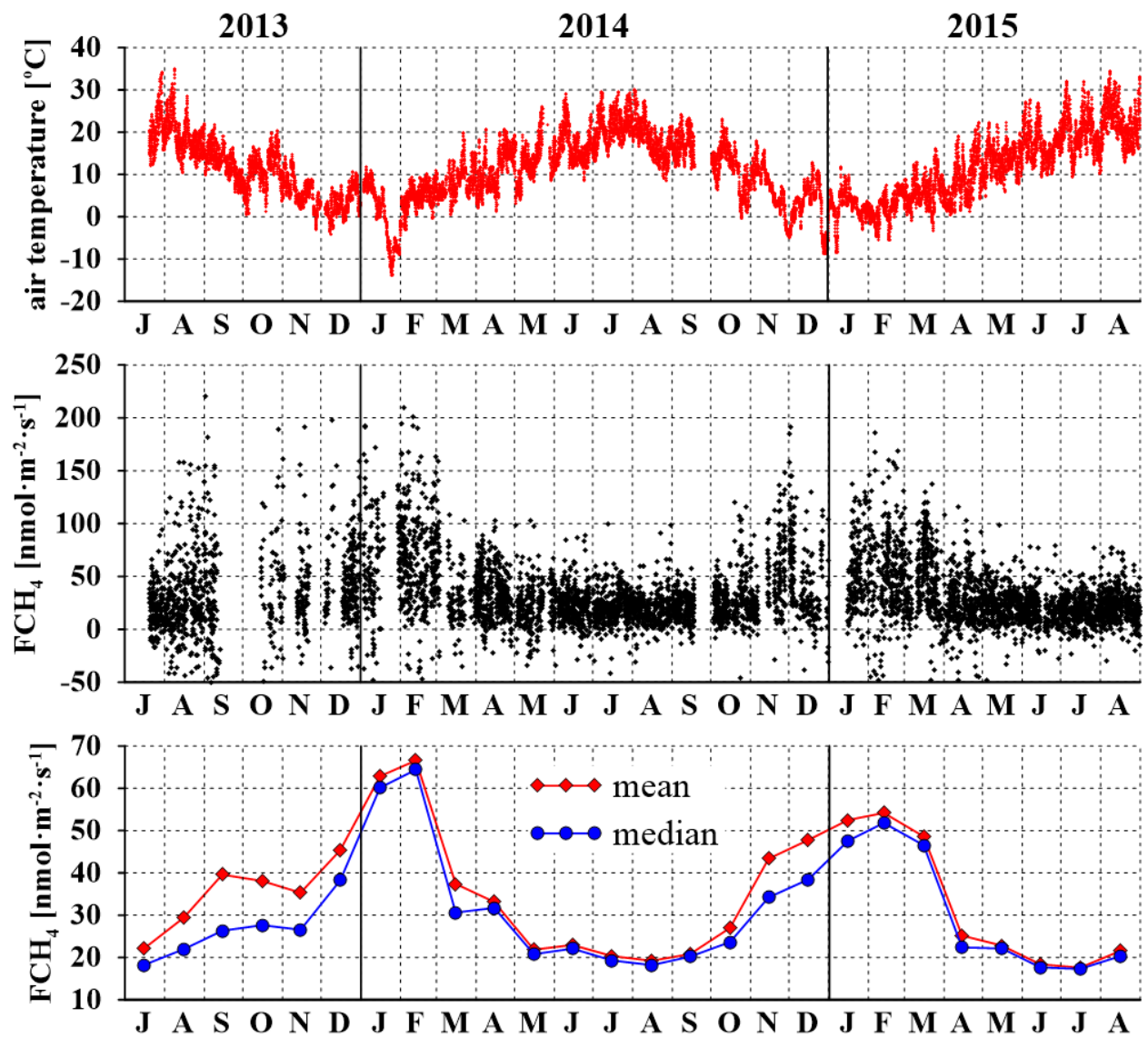
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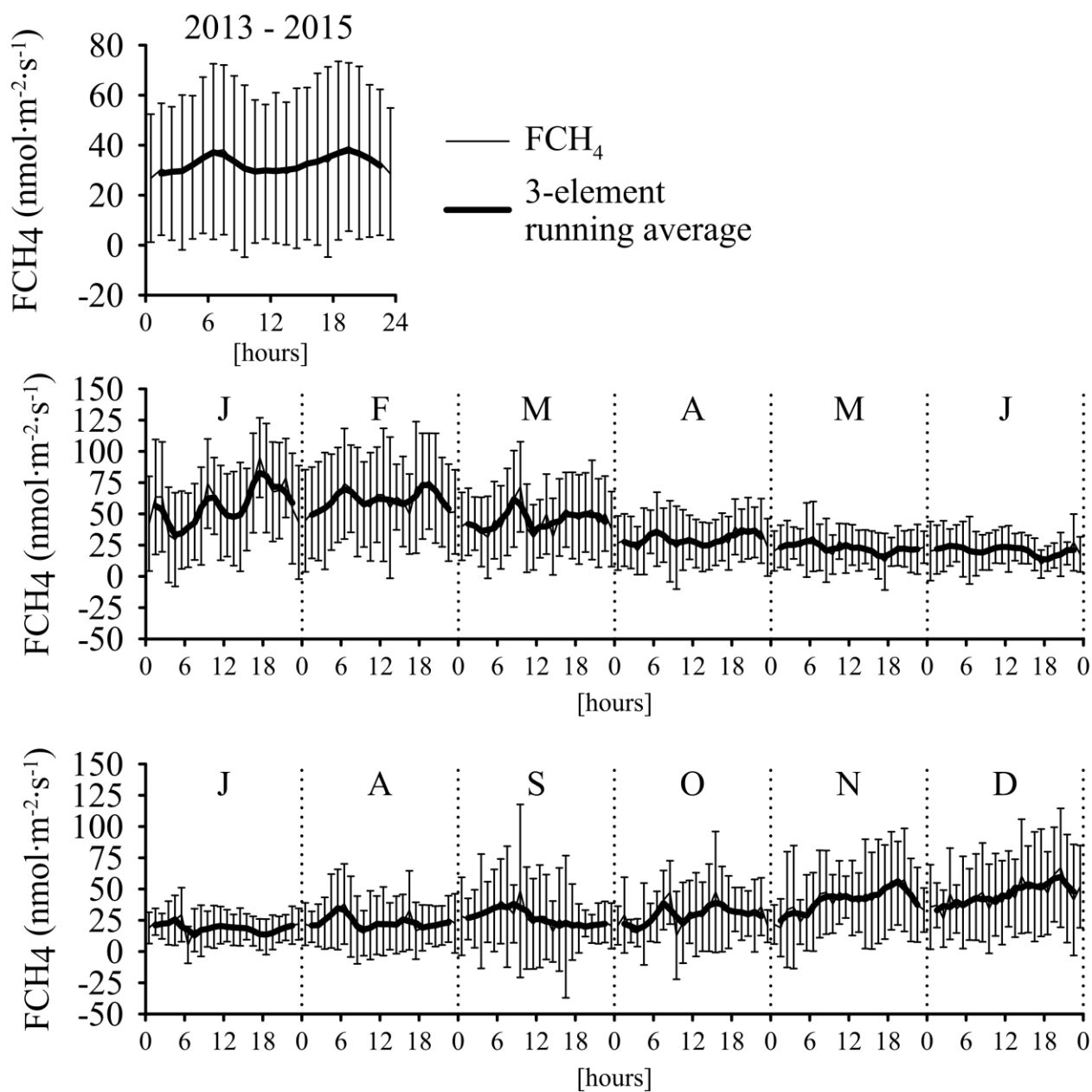
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Figure 2. A FCH₄ measurement site in Łódź (left) and instrumentation (middle). The right figure shows the frequency of measured 1-hour blocks of raw data in relation to the RSSI (Received Signal Strength Indicator) of Li7700 methane open path analyser.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

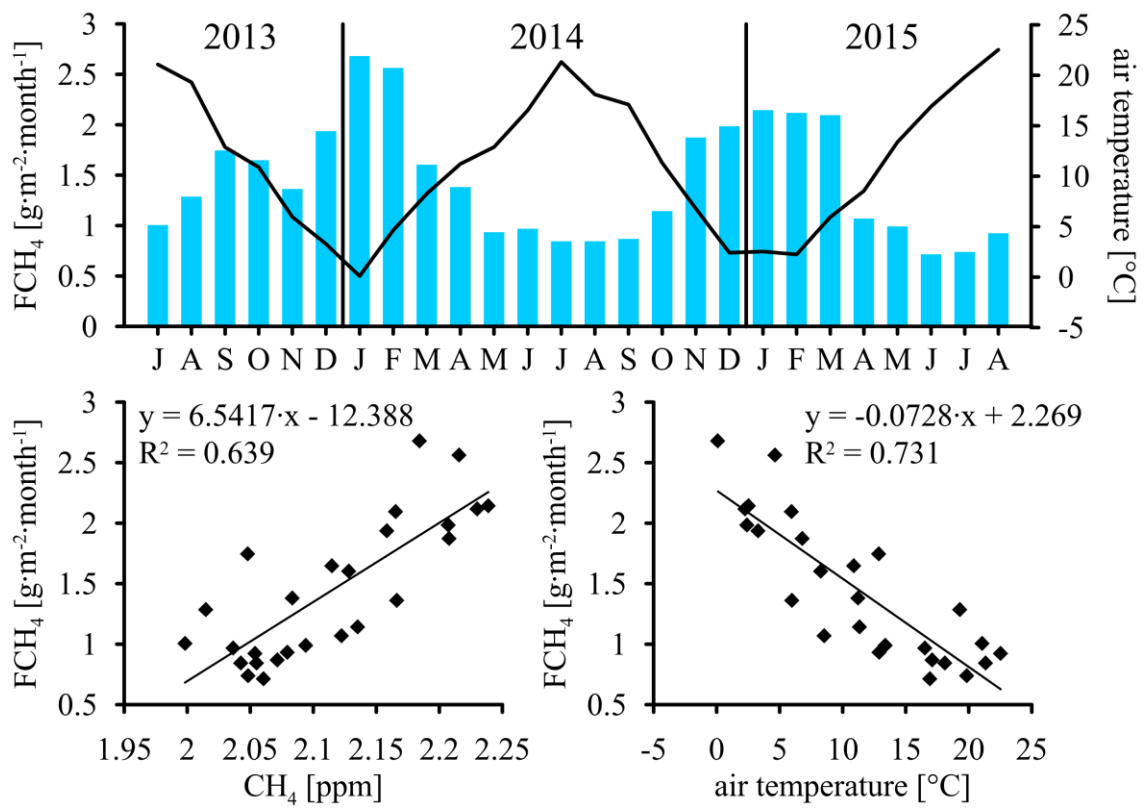


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2 Figure 3. One hour means of air temperature, one hour net turbulent FCH₄ flux (approved by
 3 three stationarity tests), mean and median of FCH₄ measured in the period July 2013 – August
 4 2015.

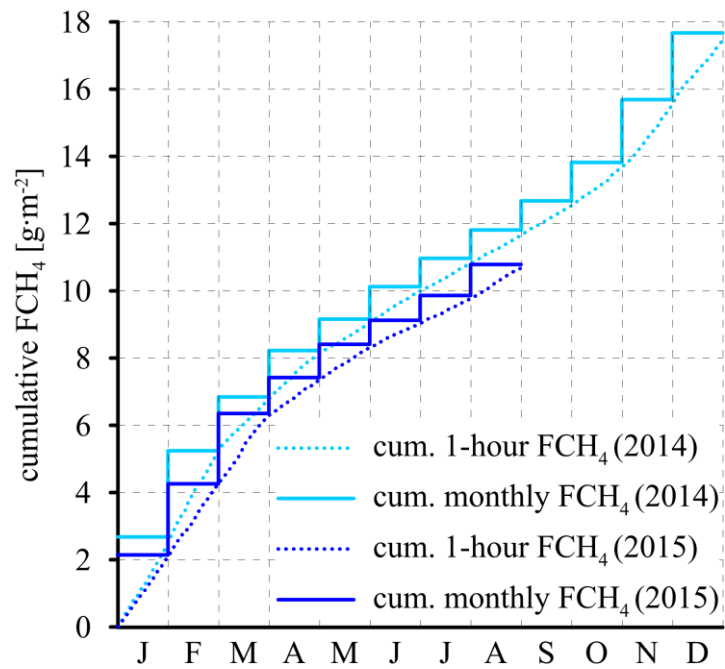


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 2 Figure 4. Mean diurnal variability of FCH₄ flux in the period July 2013 – August 2015 (top
 3 left figure) and for months. Thin and thick black lines indicate, respectively, variability of
 4 FCH₄ and 3-element running average of FCH₄. Thin vertical 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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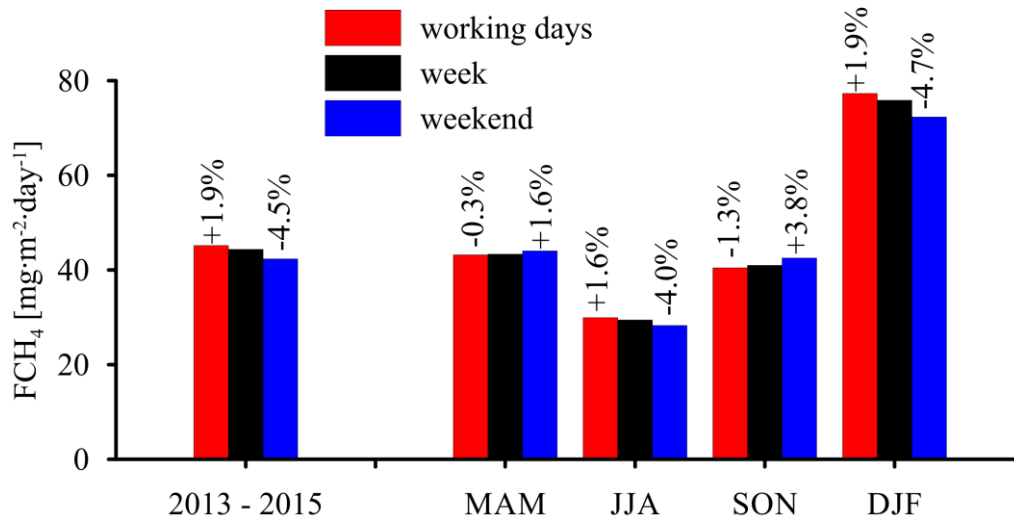
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2 Figure. 7. Mean daily values of FCH₄ in the period July 2013 – June 2015 calculated for study
 3 period and seasons. Red, black and blue bars indicate, respectively, mean daily exchange
 4 during working days (Monday to Friday), weeks (Monday to Sunday) and weekends
 5 (Saturday and Sunday).

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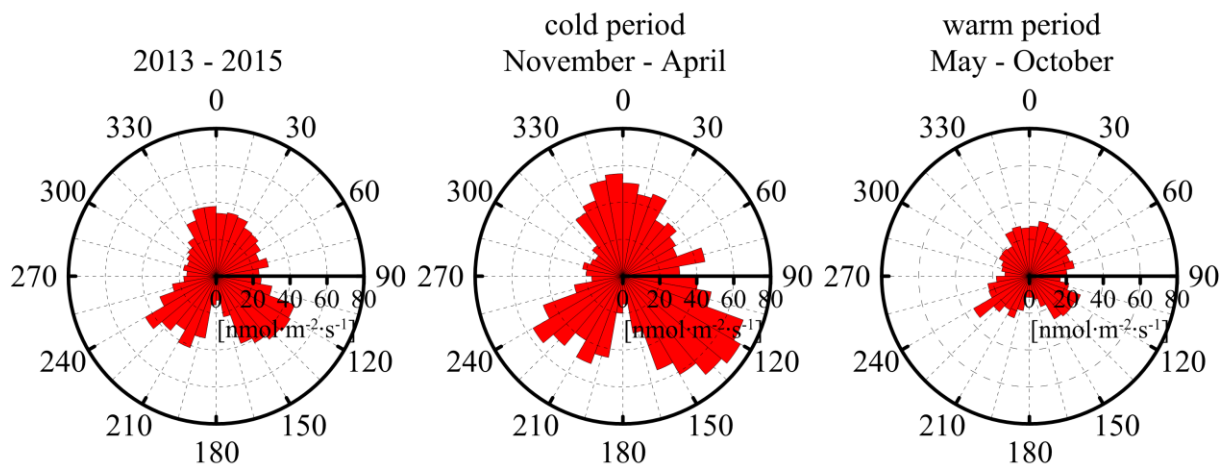
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2 Figure 8. Mean FCH_4 calculated for all data (left), cold (middle) and warm period (right) in
 3 relation with wind direction in the period July 2013 – August 2015.

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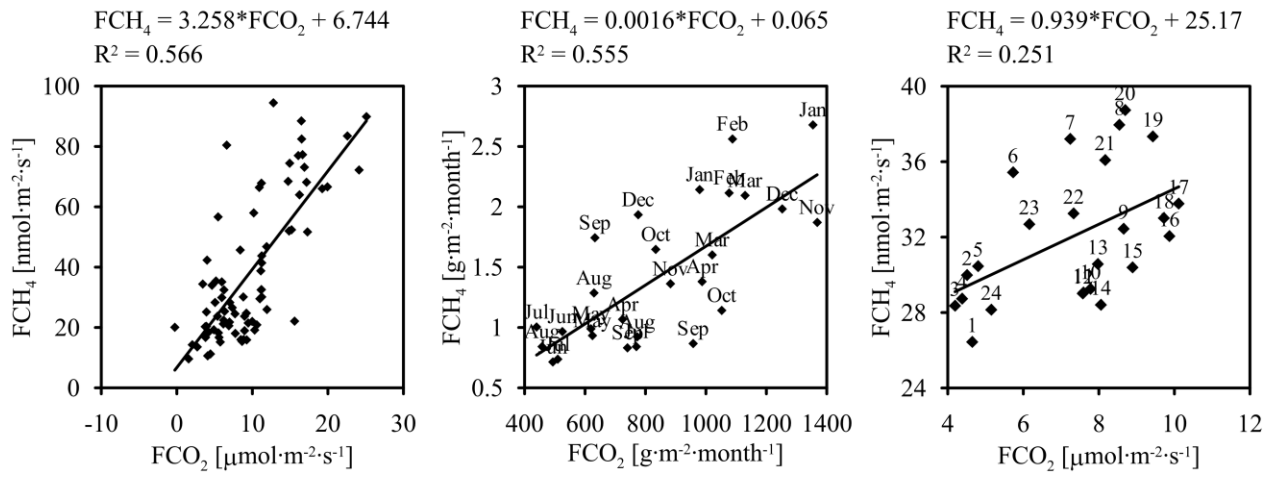
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2 Figure 9. Mean daily (left), monthly (middle) and hourly FCH₄ fluxes against FCO₂ in the
 3 period July 2013 – June 2015.

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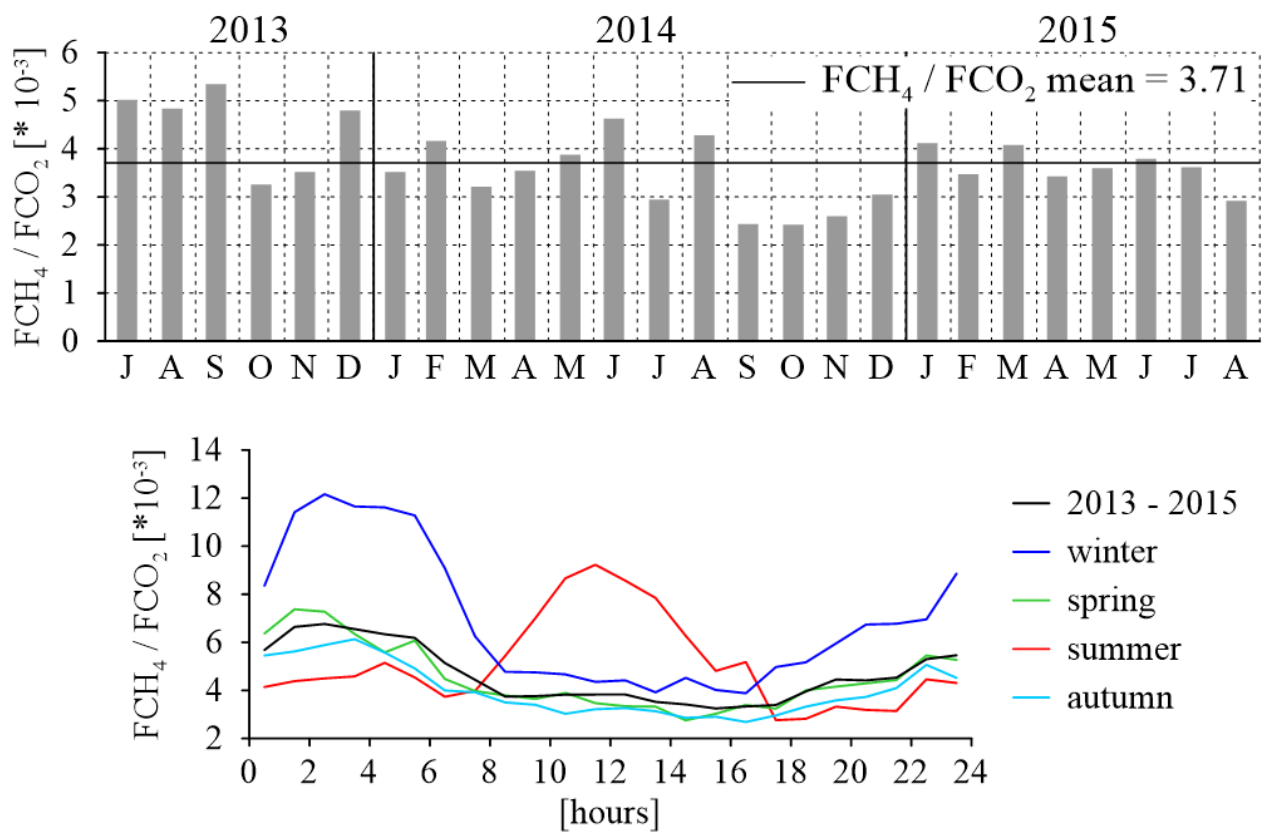
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2 Fig. 10. Monthly FCH_4 to FCO_2 ratio (up) and mean diurnal courses of FCH_4 to FCO_2 ratio in
 3 the period July 2013 – August 2015 and for seasons.