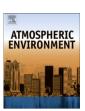
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# Path-integrated measurements of carbon dioxide in the urban canopy layer

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#### ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 20 April 2011 Received in revised form 27 September 2011 Accepted 28 September 2011

Keywords: Carbon dioxide Path-integrated system Open-path TDL Essen, Germany Urban

#### ABSTRACT

Continuous CO<sub>2</sub> concentration measurements have been recorded within the city center of Essen, Germany, using a path-integrated measuring system above a typical urban area over the course of nine months (February—October 2010). Mean monthly urban CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were 396 and 446 ppm in summer and winter, respectively, which were 8.5 % in average higher than at a nearby suburban measuring site. Urban-suburban differences mainly occur due to increased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from traffic and industry within the urban area, as well as domestic heating in winter.

Among the analyzed meteorological variables, low wind velocities increased  $CO_2$  concentrations as well as high atmospheric stability within the urban boundary layer, respectively. The influence of wind direction reflects the heterogeneous distribution of local  $CO_2$  sources at the recording sites, particularly industrial point sources. Other point sources in the vicinity of the urban site strongly influence the additional point measurements but show no significant effect on the measured  $CO_2$  concentrations by the path-integrated measuring system. Within an eight-day case study, a significant positive correlation between  $CO_2$  concentration and traffic count (R=0.26; p<0.05) was found on weekdays using partial correlation analysis after excluding the influence of meteorological variables. This correlation diminishes when combined with the meteorological components, and mixing layer height shows the strongest negative correlation with measured urban  $CO_2$  (R=-0.59). The path-integrated system provides  $CO_2$  concentrations on a greater temporal and spatial scale than common point measurements, which can be influenced by strong adjacent local  $CO_2$  sources.

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### 1. Introduction

The increase in the atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) is generally accepted as the main contributor to the anthropogenic greenhouse effect (Solomon et al., 2007). Thus, better knowledge of the temporal and spatial behavior of this greenhouse gas is still required. Seasonal and diurnal dependencies of the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration are well known from long-term measurements of pristine air in rural areas around the world (e.g., Keeling et al., 1976; Artuso et al., 2009), which mainly follow the annual and diurnal cycle of photosynthetic activity of vegetation as a function of latitude (e.g., Greco and Baldocchi, 1996; Yuan et al., 2009; Haszpra and Barcza, 2010). However, given that urban areas represent large anthropogenic net CO<sub>2</sub> sources (Velasco and Roth, 2010), these patterns are distorted by local emitters of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> and are mainly devoid of CO<sub>2</sub> sinks. Measuring urban atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations with the aim of determining these influences is challenging, and one must consider the topographic and orographic heterogeneity with a spatially irregular distribution of  $CO_2$  sources and sinks. Furthermore, the three-dimensional structure of the city itself, city-specific meteorological phenomena such as the urban heat island (UHI), UHI circulation (Lai and Cheng, 2009) and geographically specific conditions (Grimmond et al., 2004) need to be considered.

A large number of studies for cities in various geographic areas have proven that urban agglomerations are effective CO<sub>2</sub> sources on an annual scale (e.g., Moriwaki and Kanda, 2004; Coutts et al., 2007; Vesala et al., 2008; Pawlak et al., 2011; Crawford et al., 2011). Large urban parks are able to act as CO<sub>2</sub> sinks, at least in the summer, but can generally only attenuate the strength of the urban CO<sub>2</sub> source, as Kordowski and Kuttler (2010) showed in a case study for a 0.7 km<sup>2</sup> urban park in Essen, Germany. Ptak (2009) and others have demonstrated the effects of meteorology and topography on urban CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, such as cool air drainage bringing fresh air from the urban environment into cities. As a result of these components, a considerably heterogeneous spatiotemporal distribution of CO<sub>2</sub> develops within a city.

Different approaches have been established to determine urban CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, most of which are common-point or mobile-route measurements. The former are able to record the CO<sub>2</sub>

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concentration with a high temporal resolution but have a narrower spatial coverage. A network of such stations distributed over different land-use types within a city is able to offset the missing spatial information of a single site only to a limited extent, and the method is cost- and labor-intensive. Additionally, choosing measuring sites representing specific areas within urban agglomerations is ambitious (Grimmond et al., 2002; Christen and Vogt, 2004). On the other hand, mobile-route measurements provide a high spatial resolution by covering different land-use types (Kuttler and Wacker, 2001; Henninger and Kuttler, 2007), but they mostly miss the temporal variations of the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration.

A path-integrated measuring system (e.g. a tunable diode laser TDL) combines all of the advantages and compensates for the drawbacks of the aforementioned common methods, as it combines a high spatial resolution with a high temporal resolution. In the Central European city of Essen, North-Rhine Westphalia, mobile CO<sub>2</sub> measurements (Henninger, 2008) and CO<sub>2</sub> flux measurements (Kordowski and Kuttler, 2010) have already been made; hence, we focus on the continuous long-term measurement of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration within the urban boundary layer using a monostatic path-integrated system. For comparison, classical point measurements have been made at the same locations in a densely populated urban area and at an additional suburban terrain outside the city center for the time period of February—October 2010.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Study area

Measurements were carried out in Essen in western Germany, which has approximately 578000 residents in an area of 210 km² (City of Essen, 2010). The city is located in the center of the Ruhr area, with a total of 5.2 million people (RVR, 2010). In addition to several densely populated areas spread over the whole municipal area of Essen, industrial and commercial zones (Fig. 1) together with several main roads with high traffic densities characterize the study area. Two sites with different characteristics have been established with the objective of comparing the central business district of Essen to a nearby suburban environment.

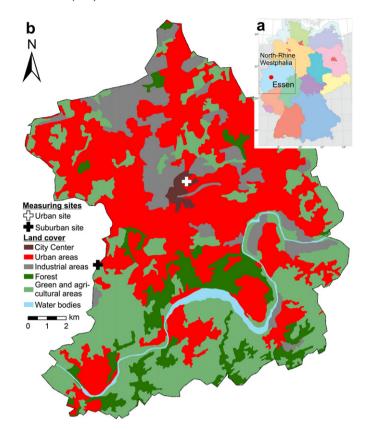
Around the urban site, land cover consists of 95% impervious surfaces and 5% green areas, most of which are small urban parks or lawns. The area is mainly commercial and residential with little industry.  $\rm CO_2$  emissions emitted from this area are estimated to be at 34 900 t  $\rm CO_2$  y $^{-1}$  (LANUV NRW, 2011). There are two industrial point sources in the vicinity of the urban measuring site: one is a district heating plant that works on demand only during the cold season and the second is a chemical plant (Fig. 2 left; Table 1). Several main roads with high traffic densities (Fig. 2 left), domestic heating during the cold season, and human respiration provide additional  $\rm CO_2$  emissions (Table 1).

Land cover at the suburban site is characterized by 12% impervious areas, mostly single-story residential buildings situated in the northeastern and eastern sector, and 88% green areas consisting mostly of agricultural areas and forests (Fig. 2 right; Table 1). Here, total anthropogenic  $CO_2$  emissions are estimated to be less than 3000 t  $CO_2$  y $^{-1}$  (LANUV NRW, 2011).

#### 2.2. Instrumentation

#### 2.2.1. Path-integrated measuring system (TDL)

The path-integrated measuring system (Table 2) allows the capture of the mean  $CO_2$  concentration of an open measuring path up to  $1000\,\mathrm{m}$  in length. A tunable diode laser (TDL) housed within the analyzing unit emits a near-infrared beam



**Fig. 1.** a) General map of Germany (Bundesamt für Kartographie und Geodäsie, 2011, modified) and the Federal state of North-Rhine Westphalia (black frame) with the city of Essen (red dot). b) Land-cover characteristics in the municipal area of Essen, Germany (based on CORINE data set for 2006, modified) (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

 $(\lambda = 1581 \text{ nm}; \text{ wave number } 6325.1 \text{ cm}^{-1})$ , utilizing the absorption properties of the CO<sub>2</sub> molecule at this wavelength. This beam is led to the emitting and receiving unit by optical fiber, where it is emitted onto the open-path and aimed on a retro-reflector. From there it is returned to the receiving unit, converted to an electrical signal by an optical detection plate and subsequently sent to the analyzer by coax. Here, the intensity of the received signal is compared to the emitted signal and to a reference cell containing a CO<sub>2</sub> reference of 385 ppm. This enables the calculation of the mean CO<sub>2</sub> concentration along the given measuring path.

The emitting and receiving unit was installed at the southeastern edge of the roof of an university building at 34 m above ground level (agl) (Point 1, Fig. 2 left and Fig. 3) and the retroreflector was installed on the city hall roof at a distance of 352 m and at the same height (Point 2, Fig. 2 left and Fig. 3), resulting in an effective path length of 704 m. It runs roughly north-south above an area that is representative of the city center of Essen, according to land-cover characteristics and amount of traffic. CO2 concentrations are measured at a rate of 1 Hz and are automatically averaged every 15 s. Due to the open-path method, data availability is influenced by meteorological conditions (i.e., heavy rain, snowfall and dust) that can lead to system failures by suspending the beam. This leads to a higher proportion of missing data (20.6% for the entire dataset) in comparison to the common point measurements (6.5–7.5%, Table 2). After checking and comparing the available data to the urban point measurements, no influence of these data gaps could be identified. Therefore in further analysis, comparison

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