

1 **Spatial and temporal variation of CO over Alberta using measurements from**
2 **satellite, aircrafts, and ground stations**

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9

Abstract

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11 Alberta is Canada's largest oil producer and its oil sand deposits comprise 30% of the world's oil
12 reserves. The process of bitumen extraction and upgrading releases trace gases and aerosols to
13 the atmosphere. In this study we present satellite-based analysis to explore, for the first time,
14 various contributing factors that affect tropospheric carbon monoxide (CO) levels over Alberta.
15 The multispectral product that uses both near-infrared (NIR) and the thermal-infrared (TIR)
16 radiances for CO retrieval from the Measurements of Pollution in the Troposphere (MOPITT)
17 are examined for the 12 year period from 2002–2013. Moderate Resolution Imaging
18 Spectroradiometer (MODIS) thermal anomaly product from 2001 to 2013 is employed to
19 investigate the seasonal and temporal variations of forest fires. Additionally, in-situ CO
20 measurements at industrial and urban sites are compared to satellite data. Furthermore, the
21 available MOZAIC/IAGOS (Measurement of Ozone, Water Vapor, Carbon Monoxide, Nitrogen
22 Oxide by Airbus In-Service Aircraft/In service Aircraft for Global Observing System) aircraft
23 CO profiles (April 2009-December 2011) are used to validate MOPITT CO data. The
24 climatological time curtain plot and spatial maps for CO over northern Alberta indicate the
25 signatures of transported CO for two distinct biomass burning seasons, summer and spring.
26 Distinct seasonal patterns of CO at the urban sites (Edmonton and Calgary cities) point to the
27 strong influence of traffic. Meteorological parameters play an important role on the CO spatial
28 distribution at various pressure levels. Northern Alberta shows stronger upward lifting motion
29 which leads to larger CO total column values while the poor dispersion in central and south
30 Alberta exacerbates the surface CO pollution. Inter-annual variations of satellite data depict a
31 slightly decreasing trend for both regions while the decline trend is more evident from ground
32 observations, especially at the urban sites. MOPITT CO vertical averages and MOZAIC/IAGOS
33 aircraft profiles were in good agreement within the standard deviations at all pressure levels.
34 There is consistency between the time evolution of high CO episodes monitored by satellite and
35 ground measurements and the fire frequency peak time which implies that biomass burning has
36 affected the tropospheric CO distribution in northern Alberta. These findings have further
37 demonstrated the potential use of MOPITT V5 multispectral (NIR+TIR) product for assessing a
38 complicated surface process.

39 **1 Introduction**

40 Canada's crude oil reserves represent the world's 3rd largest after Saudi Arabia and are
41 currently the world's 7th largest producer of crude oil (CAPP, 2012). Alberta is Canada's largest
42 oil producer and its oil sands deposits comprise 30% of the world's oil reserves (Kean, 2009).
43 Alberta's oil sands deposits are located in three regions: Athabasca, Peace River and Cold Lake.
44 The Athabasca oil sands region (AOSR) (Fig. 1) contains most of the oil sands reserves. About
45 20% of the deposits in the Athabasca region are shallow (<75m deep) and hence can be surface
46 mined. The bitumen contained within the sand is extremely heavy crude oil, requiring heat or
47 solvents to extract it from the sand (Alberta Environment, 2012). The surface mining of the
48 bitumen utilizes a hot water process for extraction, which releases SO₂, H₂S and light
49 hydrocarbons as well as CO₂ and CO (Strausz et al., 1977). After extraction, water and solids are
50 removed from bitumen using solvents/diluents such as naphtha (Siddique et al., 2007) and
51 Paraffins (Siddique et al., 2006) which are also used to decrease the bitumen's viscosity so that it
52 can be ready for processing. Deeper deposits are not recoverable by surface mining: in-situ
53 recovery methods such as steam injection are needed for extraction. Large amounts of natural
54 gas are required to upgrade the bitumen before it is sent through pipelines (NEB, 2013). Thus the
55 rapid expansion of oil extraction, and massive energy requirements to extract and upgrade the
56 bitumen, led to numerous environmental concerns, particularly on air quality (Timoney, and Lee,
57 2009) and hence an environmental monitoring program that measures the ambient air quality is
58 needed. Air monitoring in Alberta is carried out through airshed associations that were launched
59 as non-profit societies under the umbrella of the Clean Air Strategic Alliance (CASA). Air
60 quality in the AOSR is monitored locally by the Wood Buffalo Environmental Association
61 (WBEA), which is a multi-stakeholder organization (WBEA, 2013). In addition to the existing
62 continuous air quality monitoring network in Alberta, independents studies were conducted to
63 investigate the impact of the oil sands mining operations on the air quality over Alberta (e.g.
64 Bytnerowicz et. al., 2010; Jacob et al., 2010; Simpson et. al., 2010; Howell et al., 2014). Recent
65 studies of aerosol and trace gas emissions have been carried out in summer 2008 when the
66 NASA DC-8 and P-3B research aircraft were deployed at the Canadian Forces Base Cold Lake
67 in Alberta, Canada (Jacob et al., 2010). Their work reported significantly elevated levels of trace
68 gases (CO₂, CH₄, CO, NO, NO₂, NO_y, SO₂ and 53 VOCs) above background levels (Simpson et

69 al. 2010). However, these data are limited in spatial coverage as they reflect local air quality and
70 cannot provide information about the overall regional air quality. A complementary approach to
71 surface and aircraft measurements is satellite-based monitoring which can provide large spatial
72 coverage and making measurements over extended periods of time, allowing the study of the
73 impact of intense emission sources on regional and global scale air quality. Over the last decade,
74 satellite remote sensing of trace gases and aerosols for air quality applications has progressed
75 (Martin, 2008). Despite the emerging importance of using satellite in air quality applications,
76 there has been no studies published using them over Alberta until 2012, when McLinden et. al.
77 (2012) employed the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) instrument for NO₂ and SO₂
78 assessment over the AOSR. They presented high-resolution maps that revealed distinct increases
79 above background levels for both species over the area of intensive surface mining. In addition,
80 they showed that NO₂ is increasing at a rate of 11%/year which is generally consistent with the
81 annual rate increase of bitumen production. Accordingly, further study to characterize more trace
82 gases and aerosols that are emitted from various natural and anthropogenic sources in Alberta is
83 required.

84 Beside oil sands operations, Alberta has other anthropogenic sources, such as combustion of
85 fossil fuels and various industrial processes which emit 428,692.5 tonnes of CO in 2012(EC,
86 2012). Additionally, natural emissions such as boreal forest fires are a major source of CO.
87 Canada boreal forest fires in summer influence the carbon cycle (Preston and Schmidt, 2006),
88 climate (Amiro et al., 2001), and air quality (Colarco et al., 2004; Pfister et al., 2006). The fire
89 frequency at high latitudes (>55° N), is expected to increase (Gillett et al., 2004; Girardin, 2007)
90 as a result of global warming (Stocks et al., 1998; Flannigan et al., 2005) which is accompanied
91 by increased dryness and temperature (Marlon et al., 2008).

92 One of the most important trace gases emitted from anthropogenic pollution and open
93 biomass burning, is CO. CO can also be produced from photochemical oxidation of CH₄ and
94 non-methane hydrocarbons (Novelli et al., 1998; Duncan et al., 2007). CO plays a critical role in
95 the tropospheric chemistry where it is the dominant sink of the hydroxyl radical (OH), which is
96 the major oxidizing agent in the troposphere. It has also impacts on regional air quality where it
97 can be a precursor to photochemical ozone smog in areas with sufficient NO_x (Ridley et al.,
98 1992). Additionally, CO was recognized as an important indirect greenhouse gas that could have

99 an effect on global climate (Daniel and Solomon, 1998). With a relatively long life-time (the
100 global average CO lifetime is about 2 months), CO is an excellent tracer for tropospheric
101 transport processes (Pétron, 2004) and plumes from strong emission sources that are extending
102 great distances. Fortunately, CO is one of the few tropospheric gases that can be successfully
103 monitored from space at the present time. It has been measured by the Measurements of
104 Pollution in the Troposphere (MOPITT) instrument on NASA's Terra satellite, creating a global
105 record from 2000 to the present. Thus, the long term record of MOPITT data allows the
106 investigation of the inter-annual and spatial variability of tropospheric CO air quality.
107 Accordingly the current study aims to address the general features of the overall CO loading over
108 Alberta using MOPITT data. The major source contributions of CO and their impacts on
109 temporal and spatial variability will be examined through the use of MOPITT and Moderate
110 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensors, meteorology and ground level
111 measurements. This work is the first study to explore various contributing factors that affect
112 tropospheric CO levels over Alberta using satellite remote sensing observations. The data and
113 methods used in the study are described briefly. Climatological spatial distribution and time-
114 altitude profiles of MOPITT CO over Alberta are presented and compared with aircraft CO
115 profiles and ground-level measurements. The contribution of forest fires to CO levels in the
116 AOSR are analysed using MODIS fire counts.

117 **2 Data and Methods**

118 This study uses data from two satellite instruments, MODIS (available from
119 <https://earthdata.nasa.gov/data/near-real-time-data/firms>) and MOPITT V5J (available from
120 <ftp://15eil01.larc.nasa.gov/MOPITT/MOP02J.005>) coupled with ground measurement data
121 (available from <http://www.casadata.org/>). Fort McMurray, Edmonton, and Calgary areas are
122 chosen for analysis where the former represents an industrial oil sand region and the latter
123 represents an urban region. The boundaries of the study areas are:

124	Fort McMurray	56.0 to 58.0N	112.0 to 110.0W
125	Edmonton	52.0 to 54.0N	114.0 to 112.0W
126	Calgary	50.0 to 52.0N	115.0 to 113.0W

127

128 **2.1 Satellite Data**

129 **2.1.1 MOPITT**

130

131 The MOPITT instrument on board Terra spacecraft is specifically designed to measure CO
132 profiles and total columns (Drummond, 1992). It takes about 3 days for near-complete global
133 coverage with a horizontal resolution of 22 km×22 km at nadir (Deeter et al., 2003). MOPITT
134 has a unique feature compared to other tropospheric CO satellite instruments, as it measures CO
135 simultaneously in both the thermal infrared (TIR) band (4.7 μm) and the near-infrared (NIR)
136 band (2.3 μm). The NIR observations mainly provide information about the CO total column
137 whereas TIR radiances are often most sensitive to CO in the middle and upper-troposphere. In
138 this study we used the MOPITT multispectral product that exploits both channels (TIR+ NIR)
139 which has been shown to have higher sensitivity to CO in the lower troposphere (Worden et al.,
140 2010; Deeter et al., 2011, 2012; Jiang et al., 2013). MOPITT V5 data have been recently
141 validated using in situ CO profiles measured from aircraft (Deeter et al., 2013). Only daytime
142 MOPITT retrievals were used in this study because the NIR channels operate by reflected
143 sunlight and so at night the TIR+NIR product is identical to the TIR product that has no
144 sensitivity near the surface.

145 **2.1.2 MODIS thermal anomaly products.**

146

147 MODIS sensors are located on the Terra and Aqua satellite platforms. They were designed
148 to offer a broad range of information about land, oceanic, and atmospheric conditions (Kaufman
149 et al., 1998a and Masuoka et al., 1998). They detect fires globally on a daily basis at 1 km spatial
150 resolution. The fire detection algorithm has been described by Kaufman et al. (1998b) and Giglio
151 et al. (2003). In this study we used the Collection 5.1 Terra and Aqua MODIS MOD1/MYD14
152 product from November 2000 (Terra) and July 2002 (Aqua) through December 2012. Each fire
153 pixel is associated with a confidence limit parameter to specify the quality of the data which
154 range from 0% to 100% (Giglio, 2007). The threshold limit for fire pixel confidence that is used
155 in this study is 30%, which is a heuristic measure of the radiometric contrast between a fire pixel

156 and its immediate non-fire neighborhood, with extra penalties imposed near potential false alarm
157 sources such as cloud edges and coastlines (Giglio et al., 2003). We used the MODIS fire data in
158 the shape file format in order to use them in geographic information system (GIS) maps. Data
159 were obtained from the Land Atmosphere Near-real time Capability for EOS (LANCE) system
160 operated by the NASA/GSFC/Earth Science Data.

161 2.2 CASA Ground Measurements

162 The CASA Data Warehouse (www.casadata.org) is a central repository for ambient air
163 quality data collected in Alberta. The in-situ measurements of surface CO were recorded at nine
164 monitoring stations in the study region. CO is monitored continuously either by non-dispersive
165 infrared photometry or gas filter correlation (Alberta Environment, 2013). The stations in
166 Edmonton and Calgary are part of the monitoring network in typical urban centres, however Fort
167 McMurray station represents industrial region.

168 2.3 MOZAIC/IAGOS (Measurement of Ozone, Water Vapor, Carbon Monoxide, 169 Nitrogen Oxide by Airbus In-Service Aircraft/In service Aircraft for Global Observing 170 System) Aircraft Measurements

171 IAGOS (formerly MOZAIC) instruments onboard commercial aircraft since August 1994,
172 aim to sample the tropospheric gases with high vertical resolution over about 50 airports
173 (Marenco et al., 1998). CO has been monitored since 2001 using the infrared CO analyzer
174 (Model 48CTL from Thermo Environmental Instruments, USA) with a precision of ± 5 ppbv
175 (Nedelec et al., 2003). Data are available at <http://www.iagos.org>.

176 2.4 Meteorological Data and HYSPLIT Trajectories

177 The HYSPLIT (Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory) model Version 4
178 was used to generate air mass backward trajectories. It is the latest version of an integrated
179 system for computing air parcel trajectories, dispersion and deposition simulations. The model
180 calculates the trajectories using the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) meteorological
181 dataset which has been operated by National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP)
182 (Rolph and Rolph, 2013; Draxler et al., 2013). Trajectory calculation is carried out by time
183 integration of the position of an air parcel as it is transported by the 3-D winds (Draxler and
184 Hess, 1998). Data of mean monthly omega for the study period were taken from the National

185 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Climate Data Assimilation System I, based
186 on the National Centers for Environmental Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research
187 (NCEP/NCAR) Reanalysis Project. The NCEP/NCAR global re-analysis meteorological dataset
188 is described in detail by Kalnay et al. (1996).

189 **3 Results and Discussion**

190 **3.1 Climatological Spatial Distribution of MOPITT CO over Alberta**

191 Figure 2 shows the seasonally averaged distribution of MOPITT CO total column
192 measurements over Alberta for the period March 2002 to December 2013. The symbols F, E and
193 C represent the cities of Fort McMurray, Edmonton and Calgary, respectively. Data are gridded
194 at 0.25x0.25 degree resolution. Figure 2 depicts the seasonal climatological maps for CO total
195 columns. High CO loadings extended from the North East to North West of Alberta in all
196 seasons except in fall (December-February) where the spatial variations are less prominent (the
197 flattest distribution). CO total columns illustrate remarkable maximum values in the northeast
198 area (oil sand area) in the spring (March-May) where the CO total column ranges are 2.5-2.75 x
199 10^{18} molecules cm^{-2} . Additionally, it is apparent that summer (June-August) and fall
200 (September-November) seasons display minimum CO loading, especially in central and southern
201 Alberta.

202 The spatial distributions of CO mixing ratios at the surface level (Figure 3) reveal distinct
203 enhancements, covering south east Alberta in winter with CO mixing ratios of 180-200 ppb. In
204 the spring the CO mixing ratios are generally high in the whole of Alberta. The summer season
205 demonstrates relatively high surface CO concentrations (140-160 ppb) north of Fort McMurray,
206 although it shows minimum levels for the rest of Alberta, while the fall season illustrates
207 distinctly flatter spatial distribution. Thus, the spatial distributions of surface CO especially in
208 spring indicate a different pattern than the CO total column (Figure 2) for the same period. To
209 assist in the interpretation of the results, the vertical velocity (Ω) which is defined as change
210 of pressure with time is analyzed. The spatial distributions of averaged Ω (dp/dt) for 2002-
211 2013 at pressure level 850 mb for four seasons are depicted in Figure 4. They demonstrate
212 upward movements of air mass in the area of northeast and southwest of Alberta as indicated by
213 negative values. This suggests that the CO emissions are uplifted, raising the CO total column

214 values in the north area. Conversely, downward movements (positive values) are recorded in the
215 center and south east Alberta allowing subsidence of CO emissions as conditions are favorable.
216 Therefore, there is a general consistency between the climatological maps of Omega and the CO
217 spatial distributions where the CO total columns shows remarkable enhancements in the north
218 while the surface CO experiences elevated values in the south area. This highlights the important
219 role of meteorological parameters on ambient air quality.

220 The southwestern area of Alberta exhibits minimum CO levels, which are less than $1.5 \times$
221 10^{18} molecule/cm² and 60 ppb for CO total column and surface concentration (Figure 2 and
222 Figure 3), respectively. Alberta has a varied topography, from mountain peaks along the western
223 border, to lowland areas in northeastern Alberta. It follows, then, that topographical features
224 influence air quality - mountainous regions with little population contribute to background
225 conditions of CO resulting in the lowest CO concentrations in the Southwest Alberta.

226 The main sources of CO in the atmosphere are incomplete combustion processes and
227 photochemical oxidation of hydrocarbons (Novelli et al., 1998; Duncan et al., 2007). Hence, it is
228 assumed that CO spatial variations in northern Alberta are associated with oil sands industrial
229 activities and forest fires (will be discussed in section 3.5). It is reported that oil sands industry
230 consumption of natural gas was 17×10^6 m³/day in 2003 and is expected to increase to 40-
231 45 million m³/day in 2015 (NEB, 2013). However with increasing regulation of the combustion,
232 CO is expected to decrease.

233 The extracted bitumen is then upgraded in upgraders located north of Fort McMurray as well
234 as downstream industrial centers such as the industrial heartland in Fort Saskatchewan (north
235 east Edmonton), Alberta. A small fraction of diluent used in bitumen extraction and transport is
236 emitted to the atmosphere (Siddique et al., 2006). The diluents are mainly aromatic and aliphatic
237 hydrocarbons (Siddique et al., 2007). As reported in earlier studies, the measured CO on 10 July
238 2008, as part of Arctic Research of the Composition of the Troposphere from Aircraft and
239 Satellites (ARCTAS) mission, showed a strong correlation with alkanes, aromatics and
240 cycloalkanes that are associated with direct emissions from the oil sands and/or diluent (Simpson
241 et al., 2010). Furthermore, the timing, distribution of other sporadic sources such as fires, and the
242 effects of large-scale transport have a substantial influence on the spatial discrepancies.

243 3.2 Time-Altitude MOPITT CO

244 To gain further insight about the impact of various emission sources on CO levels, temporal
245 climatologies of 12 years for Fort McMurray (including the oil sand area), Edmonton, and
246 Calgary areas are calculated. The monthly mean CO profiles using all the available MOPITT
247 data between March 2002 and December 2013 are used for altitude/month contours for the two
248 regions (Figure 5). The vertical profiles of MOPITT CO are retrieved on only 10 altitude levels
249 (surface, 900, 800, 700, 600, 500, 400, 300, 200, 100 hPa), so levels in between have been
250 linearly interpolated. However, earlier studies of the averaging kernels indicated that there are
251 effectively not more than two independent pieces of information (1.4-2) in the vertical profiles
252 retrieved by MOPITT, with more sensitivity to the middle troposphere (Deeter et al., 2007;
253 Worden et al., 2010).

254 Generally, all regions demonstrate the same profile structure where CO mixing ratios are
255 higher at low altitudes (high pressure) than high altitudes (low pressure). At Edmonton and
256 Calgary, the vertical CO profile exhibits significant elevated levels in winter and spring,
257 occurring in February and April with maximum mixing ratios of 175 ppb at low altitude levels (\leq
258 800 hPa), while it shows minimum mixing ratios in summer. This pattern is consistent with the
259 general seasonal cycle of CO in Northern Hemisphere (NH). Edwards et al. (2004) analyzed CO
260 variability from the Terra MOPITT satellite in NH and their result showed peak values in the
261 early spring due to fossil fuel burning for heating and increased power requirements. The
262 wintertime CO emissions persist for several weeks after the emissions themselves have ceased
263 causing high CO concentrations which are detected in early spring. In fact, the seasonal cycle of
264 CO loading is driven primarily by the balance of emissions and photochemical production, and
265 destruction by hydroxyl radical (OH) (Novelli et al., 1998). During the summer months under
266 conditions of high solar illumination, OH is produced mainly through O₃ photolysis and
267 subsequent reaction with H₂O which accounts for strongest sink of CO in summer. Thus the
268 main (90%) CO loss is caused by OH oxidation, followed by dry deposition (Thompson, 1992).

269 Although both Calgary and Edmonton represent urban pollution, Calgary CO concentrations
270 show lower values in winter. Different air masses and weather systems influence Alberta, and it
271 is likely that these have a significant impact on air quality. Southwestern Alberta indicates a
272 complex and non-uniform spatial pattern of chinook frequency in winter that is associated with

273 warmer temperature anomaly and strong westerly winds. In particular, Calgary is expected to
274 experience Chinook winds more than Edmonton since chinook effects are strongest in southern
275 portions of Alberta. Accordingly, Calgary is more affected by westerly winds that carry fresh air
276 from the mountains and hence it may contribute to pollution dilution (Cullen and Marshall,
277 2011).

278

279 The seasonality in the Fort McMurray area has two peaks, as there is a marked increase of
280 CO loading in summer (looks more like April and May), especially at low altitude levels (≤ 800
281 hPa). However, because the OH loading is higher in summer than spring, the CO peak does not
282 persist long and declines rapidly. Simpson et al. (2011) calculated backward trajectories for ten
283 days started on 10 July 2008 over the Athabasca surface mines (northeast Alberta) as part of the
284 summer deployment of the ARCTAS field mission. The aircraft flew over both boreal forest and
285 industrial land including tailings ponds and upgrader facilities. Then the aircraft flew to a clean
286 air area further south of the oil sands area. The ten-day backward trajectories for the area south
287 of the oil sands (by one degree) and clean areas revealed that the air masses are transported to the
288 aircraft's pressure level from the west and not from oil sands mines to the north. Consequently,
289 summer CO increments can be attributed to other sporadic sources such as forest fires. The forest
290 fire emissions will be discussed in section 3.5. Furthermore the winter/spring levels over Fort
291 McMurray area start to peak late in April and May with maximum mixing ratios of 135-155 ppb
292 (≤ 800 hPa). Figure 5 illustrates higher CO mixing ratios at low altitude levels (≤ 800 hPa) over
293 Edmonton and Calgary areas than Fort McMurray area, especially in winter and spring that
294 point out the significance of the non-industrial sources (e.g. vehicle emissions) . It is reported
295 that, CO emissions from mobile sources (e.g. transportation emissions) over Alberta in 2011 was
296 about 900,000 tonnes which is about 60% of the total CO emissions (1.5 million tonnes)
297 (Environment Canada, 2011).

298 For all locations, CO mixing ratios in spring exhibit greater values at higher altitudes
299 (pressures less than 700 hPa) compared to other seasons. This could be attributed to seasonal
300 variations in vertical motion or mixing, which lofts surface emissions into the upper troposphere
301 (e.g., Duncan et al., 2007; Jiang et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2010; Livesey et al., 2013). This is further

302 confirmed by monthly omega averages (2002-2013) at 700 hPa (Figure 6) which indicate that the
303 vertical mixing is more usual in May and June where omega averages range from -0.02 to -0.01.

304 Although monthly CO mixing ratios over Edmonton and Calgary areas are higher at lower
305 altitudes, the CO total column monthly averages for all regions are comparable (not shown). This
306 indicates that northern Alberta is affected more by CO plumes transported vertically above the
307 planetary boundary layer (PBL) whereas cities such as Edmonton and Calgary are more
308 influenced by local emissions confined in the PBL which is more pronounced over the Edmonton
309 area.

310 Figure 7 shows the 12 year time series of monthly averaged CO mixing ratios (ppb) as
311 measured by MOPITT from January 2002 to December 2013 at the ten pressure levels over Fort
312 McMurray, Edmonton, and Calgary areas. The white intervals indicate missing data due to
313 calibration events, instrument problems or that the pressure at that location is less than MOPITT
314 pressure level.

315 Strong seasonal cycles are seen over all regions through all the years with maximum values
316 in springtime. The magnitude of seasonal variability is not the same for all years and regions: it
317 is more pronounced over the Edmonton and Calgary areas. CO mixing ratios show a sharp
318 vertical gradient especially over Edmonton and Calgary areas with significantly higher values in
319 the PBL than in the free troposphere (FT). This implies that surface emissions have a strong
320 controlling effect on the variation of CO in the lower troposphere. This confinement of regional
321 emissions in the lower atmosphere is likely due to subsidence prevailing over the area as
322 indicated by positive values of vertical velocity 700 mb. On the other hand, the vertical gradient
323 of CO mixing ratios over the Fort McMurray area is small and there are relatively high values at
324 high altitudes (<500 hPa) which may be result of transported CO from biomass burning plumes.
325 Furthermore, CO mixing ratios of Edmonton and Calgary areas at lower altitudes are higher than
326 Fort McMurray area during the entire period. Additionally, the monthly average time series from
327 2002 to 2013 of CO mixing ratios over Fort McMurray area displays a secondary peak in
328 summer while its magnitude varies from year to year. Summer CO episodes over Fort McMurray
329 area could be a signature of polluted air parcels coming from biomass burning emissions.
330 Accordingly, the impact of forest fire on CO levels is examined in section 3.4.

331 The inter-annual variation of CO total column is shown in Figure 8. The mean for the whole
332 series (12-year) is calculated and then subtracted from each monthly average to show inter-
333 annual variation. To investigate whether there is a trend; a linear regression analysis was
334 performed to fit the observations of the monthly CO total column for Fort McMurray, Edmonton
335 and Calgary areas. A slightly decreasing trend is identified for all regions with a declining
336 percent (decreasing percent for the whole period) of -1 %. The seasonal variation is evident each
337 year with small inter-annual variability. The striking feature in 2012 is the presence of an air
338 pollution episode in summer which is more prominent over the Fort McMurray area. CO total
339 column variation in July over Fort McMurray area shows distinct peak among all maximums
340 with value of $2.6 \cdot 10^{18}$ molecules cm^{-2} . Thus in section 3.5 a case study of summer 2012 is
341 analyzed.

342 **3.3 Comparison with MOZAIC/IAGOS Aircraft CO Profiles.**

343

344 To verify MOPITT measurements, profiles of CO MOZAIC/IAGOS aircraft on descent to or
345 ascent from Calgary airports are exploited for comparisons. The available aircraft data are
346 between April 2009 and December 2011 with a total number of 186 profiles. Because of
347 MOPITT's temporal resolution of 2–3 days and the blockage of clouds, there are missing data in
348 daily CO profiles and hence only the matching MOPITT and aircraft profiles in time and location
349 are utilized. For comparison, MOZAIC/IAGOS profiles are first interpolated to the pressure level
350 of the corresponding MOPITT retrievals.

351 Since the MOPITT retrieval derives CO concentration profiles by combining its radiometric
352 observations with a priori estimates of the vertical profile of atmospheric CO, weighted by their
353 uncertainties. The sensitivity of the retrievals to the actual concentration profiles must be
354 considered when conducting quantitative comparisons to independent measurements (Emmons et
355 al., 2004; 2007). The sensitivity of the MOPITT measurements to the true CO profile is
356 represented by averaging kernels (Deeter et al., 2003). Accordingly, the interpolated aircraft
357 profile is transformed by applying the averaging kernel and a priori profile associated with the
358 corresponding MOPITT retrieval using equation 1 (Emmons et al., 2009). The transformed
359 profiles (x_{ret}) are denoted as MOZAIC/IAGOS (AK), and then they are averaged and plotted with

360 corresponding MOPITT retrieved vertical profiles of CO as illustrated in Figure 9a. The missing
361 profile part above the highest altitude where MOZAIC/IAGOS measures, is estimated from the
362 MOPITT a priori profile.

$$363 \quad \mathbf{x}_{\text{ret}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})\mathbf{x}_a$$

364 where \mathbf{x}_a is the a priori CO profile, \mathbf{A} is the averaging kernel, and \mathbf{x} is the in situ CO profile.

365
366 Both aircraft and MOPITT measurements show that CO mixing ratios below 700 hPa are
367 higher than those above 700 hPa. The vertical distributions and gradients of aircraft and
368 MOPITT CO mixing ratios are in good agreement where their averages values match fairly well
369 within the standard deviations at all pressure levels. However, MOPITT averages generally have
370 positive bias in the upper troposphere where the largest differences are seen below 400 mb. This
371 result agrees with previous validation studies which showed that there is a 14% high bias in
372 MOPITT V5J data at 200 hPa (Deeter et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the comparison demonstrates
373 the potential of using multispectral MOPITT CO data in estimating surface air quality (Worden
374 et al., 2010; Deeter et al., 2011). The seasonal profiles of the available MOZAIC/IAGOS data are
375 computed and displayed in Figure 9b. They illustrate higher concentrations in winter for all
376 altitudes and minimum values in summer. Additionally, spring measurements exhibited
377 relatively high mixing ratios above ~2 km. Thus the seasonal variation results are generally
378 consistent with MOPITT results over Calgary city except that MOPITT shows the maximum in
379 spring rather than winter. This discrepancy suggests that, winter surface emissions are more
380 confined in the boundary layer which exacerbates the local surface pollution, resulting in high
381 concentrations in winter. As MOPITT's sensitivity to CO is relatively low in the boundary layer
382 (Deeter et al., 2007) surface emission may not be captured very well. Since the meteorological
383 conditions in spring favors lofting the emissions up (warm air is of low density), retrieved
384 MOPITT signal at mid-troposphere can capture the enhanced CO where its sensitivity is better
385 (Hyer et al., 2007). As a result the MOPITT data show the seasonal peak in spring rather than
386 winter. This finding suggests that the significant influence of transported emissions on CO
387 levels. The surface seasonal variations of CO are further confirmed by analysis of ground level
388 measurements in the next section.

389

3.4 Comparison with Ground Measurements

390 In this section we consider analysis of surface CO recorded at nine monitoring stations as
391 the in-situ ground measurements are more sensitive to the boundary layer than the MOPITT CO.
392 The elevation, exact location, starting date, and the status are presented in Table 2. The selected
393 stations sample various anthropogenic sources of CO where Fort McMurray-Athabasca Valley is
394 an industrial town and the other stations are urban sites (Edmonton and Calgary). The monthly-
395 averaged time series of CO mixing ratio (ppb) at these stations are computed from 2000-2013 for
396 comparison with MOPITT CO surface variability (Figure 10). The availability of CASA data
397 differs among the stations as shown in Table 1. The MOPITT data are centred at each location in
398 a one degree grid box.

400 The CO temporal evolutions from all stations reveal distinct annual and inter-annual
401 variations with a significant declining trend. The trend is more recognizable over Edmonton and
402 Calgary (Fig 10a and 10b) than Fort McMurray (Fig 10c) where their maximum decline percent
403 for the whole period are 4.4%, 5.7% and 0.6%, respectively. Furthermore, the CO levels are
404 much higher at the urban stations than the industrial one where their maximum concentrations
405 are about 1000 ppb and 500 pbb, respectively. Comparing to MOPITT, the spatial and the
406 temporal variations of surface CO mixing ratios also experienced higher values over Edmonton
407 city than Fort McMurray. This finding is consistent with the results of Simpson et al. (2010) that
408 showed relatively low emitted levels of CO throughout the mining operations (north Fort
409 McMurray area) although the CO concentrations were 48% greater than the local background.

410 Additionally, it is apparent that the first 7 years (2000-2006) have larger inter-annual
411 variations than the next years (2006-2012), especially over Edmonton and Calgary cities. In
412 other words, the decreasing rate in the last 6 years is not as large as the first years which reflect
413 the influence of vehicles' improvements in CO emissions (Alberta Environment, 2008).
414 Moreover, for each city, there are discrepancies in the CO concentrations among different
415 locations (not shown), where central and east Calgary and central and northwest Edmonton
416 stations exhibited the greatest values (not shown). This increase could be attributed to high
417 traffic or industrial load at these locations which imply the substantial impact of emissions
418 sources on ambient CO levels.

419 The seasonal cycle of CO is evident for all years at all stations where it is characterized by a
420 maximum in winter (December and January) and a minimum in summer (Fig. 10). It is obvious
421 that MOPITT CO surface data capture monthly variation as ground data except at Fort
422 McMurray 2006. However, the magnitude of the MOPITT surface values is less than ground
423 data which could be attributed to the fact that the MOPITT surface values are really the layer
424 averages from the surface to the next level (e.g. 900 hPa) as well, as to low MOPITT surface
425 sensitivity. Seasonal variations at Fort McMurray (Athabasca Valley station) (Fig. 10c) are
426 different for the whole study period where a secondary peak in summer that is more pronounced
427 in some years such as 2012 than in others. Interestingly, the summer 2012 peak value exceeds
428 the winter values of the same year, where monthly CO mixing ratios in July 2012 were more
429 than 300 ppb. Although MOPITT temporal resolution is about 3 days (Liu et al., 2005), the same
430 feature is detected by MOPITT CO total column where the monthly July average over Fort
431 McMurray in 2012 exceeds those of May at the same year (as shown in Figure 8). This implies
432 the substantial impact of a non-industrial source such as forest fires, on air quality.
433 Consequently, it is essential to analyze the biomass burning over Alberta where it is one of the
434 major sources of CO (Morris et al., 2006).

435 **3.5 MODIS Fire counts**

436 To assess the impact of forest fires on CO levels, the MODIS thermal anomaly product was
437 analyzed for 13 years (2001-2013). GIS maps were used to display the spatial distributions of
438 active fire points using ArcGIS software version 10.1. Figure 11 illustrates the seasonal
439 variations of fire counts for the study period over Alberta. Significant numbers of fires occurs
440 during summer (June-August) in northern areas of Alberta extending from west to east. In the
441 spring (February-April), large forest fires are spatially clustered in the area north of Fort
442 McMurray as well as in central Alberta. In winter (December-February) and fall (September –
443 November) seasons, most of the fire locations are distributed in the west and northwest areas of
444 Alberta, especially in the fall season. Temporal analysis of fire count monthly averages for the
445 entire period (2001-2013) demonstrates that July, June and May comprise more than 65% of the
446 total fire occurrence where their relative frequencies are 35 %, 20%, and 8%, respectively (Fig.
447 12a). Thus, the period of May-July is recognized to be the main biomass burning season where
448 the largest fires occur in Northern Alberta. High pressure subsidence (a slow, sinking motion of

449 high level air occurring in high pressure areas) and dry conditions were identified as the
450 dominant conditions in this period of time (May-July) where the subsiding air is warmed by
451 compression and becomes more stable (Skinner et al., 2002, Soja et al. 2007) which do set
452 conditions for fires to spread and persist. Inter-annual variations of seasonal fire frequency (Fig.
453 12b) indicate a large variability where the total number of fire counts over Alberta increased
454 from 1,959 in 2001 to 10,608 in 2012. A very distinct increase in fire frequency is observed in
455 summer each year with peak number in 2012. Additionally, year 2011 exhibited an elevated
456 number of fires in spring and summer where they exceeded 5,500 fire counts for each. The
457 overall pattern of fires is largely consistent with the seasonal and temporal variations of MOPITT
458 CO values of northern Alberta as well as the ground level in situ measurements at Fort
459 McMurray station. Therefore, it is suggested that, the high CO concentrations that emerge each
460 summer in the area around Fort McMurray (northern Alberta) are mainly caused by the biomass
461 burning of boreal forest fires. Earlier studies pointed out the significance of biomass burning on
462 air quality where it accounts for about 30 % of the global total CO sources (Galanter et al.,
463 2000).

464 To analyze in further detail the impact of fire emissions on CO levels and their transport, the
465 variability of fire counts during July 2012 are examined as a case study. The daily time series of
466 fire frequency in summer 2012 (not shown) illustrates a maximum number of fires on 10 and 11
467 July where the fire counts exceeded 1,200 and the fire radiative power (FRP) reached 9,510 MW.
468 Figure 13a and 13b display the MODIS Terra image combined with fire hot spots indicated by
469 red points for 10 and 11 July 2012, respectively. It is clear that most of the red fire points are
470 included in or headed the smoke plumes, indicating that the plumes originated from those fires.

471 On 10 July 2012, the air mass was transported across Alberta toward the north, then on 11
472 July it went from west to east at which time it splits, with part of the air mass being transported
473 south to the Fort McMurray area. To verify the transport pathway of smoke plumes, HYSPLIT
474 forward trajectories analyses were performed for 10 July 2012 for a 48 hour period (Figure 14a).
475 The starting conditions for these analyses included three fire point locations chosen from the
476 MODIS fire data. The blue circles in the trajectories represent time interval of 6 hours. Analyses
477 were done for 500, 1,000, and 2,000 m heights, and it seems that the plumes stayed in the PBL
478 during the first 12 hours, then all of the plumes moved upward reaching heights up to 3,000 m.

479 Moreover, the trajectories indicate that the air parcels traveled from northwest toward north and
480 northeast direction which coincides with MODIS smoke plume paths (Fig.13a and 13b).
481 Therefore, the HYSPLIT forward trajectory analysis provides evidence that some cities in
482 Alberta could be affected by the fire emissions after a short time (24-48 h) depending on the
483 starting plume height.

484 A CO total column and surface composites for July 10– 20 are displayed in Figure 13c and
485 13d. The plume of CO expanded across the northeast of Alberta where the CO total column and
486 surface exceeded 3.25×10^{18} molecules cm^{-2} and 300 ppb, respectively. Despite the limited
487 vertical resolution of MOPITT measurements, a general enhancement of CO can be clearly seen
488 for surface measurements where the CO mixing ratio close to fires was as high as 300 ppbv, in
489 comparison with a CO mixing ratio of 60– 90 ppbv in the background. However, the spatial
490 pattern of total column and surface CO are not similar where the former is more distinct in the
491 west area of Alberta where fires originated than the latter. The location of maximum surface CO
492 is slightly shifted to eastward from that of maximum fire counts. This is likely due to the
493 transport of CO with the prevailing westerly winds.

494 Although most of the fires are originated in northwest area of Alberta (for summer 2012),
495 MOPITT images revealed the intense CO plumes in the east which match remarkably well with
496 MODIS and HYSPLIT trajectories. This implies the substantial influence of long range transport
497 on CO levels where its long lifetime allows plumes with elevated CO to travel long distances
498 affecting air quality downstream of the point source emissions. Zhao et al. (2007) indicated that a
499 high CO episode at a remote area can result from long-range transport from active biomass
500 burning and biofuel burning areas rather than local air pollution.

501 Daily time series of in-situ measurements at Athabasca Valley station for July 2012 reveals
502 (Fig.14b) elevated CO concentrations during the intense forest fire period. Although the total
503 number of hotspots peaked on 10 July, the enhancement of CO was found to reach the maximum
504 value later on 12 July where it exceeded 700 ppb. This further confirms the important effect of
505 transport on atmospheric CO values.

506 Generally, the in-situ measurements are in good agreement with MOPITT data, however the
507 magnitude of in-situ measurements is higher than surface MOPITT data. The reason could be

508 due to the larger spatial footprint of MOPITT data (22 km×22km) while in-situ measurements
509 represent point data. In addition, since MOPITT is not very sensitive to the CO in the boundary
510 layer, it is possible that the sharp surface features are masked and hence the retrieved CO values
511 in the boundary layer are lower than reality during biomass burning emissions.

512 **4 Summary and Conclusions**

513 This study demonstrated the potential use of MOPITT CO measurements to better
514 understand and quantify the CO sources over Alberta. MOPITT-based climatology and inter-
515 annual variations were conducted for 12 years (2002-2013) on spatial and temporal scales.
516 MOPITT V5 multispectral product that uses both near-infrared and the thermal-infrared
517 radiances for the CO retrieval were used. Available MOZAIC/IAGOS aircraft CO profiles over
518 Calgary were used to validate MOPITT CO data. Additionally, CO ground measurements were
519 compared to satellite data. The MODIS thermal anomaly product from 2001 to 2013 was
520 employed to investigate the effect of seasonal variations of fires on climatological and inter-
521 annual CO levels. To further recognize the fate and the impact of biomass burning emissions on
522 air quality, forest fires on a sever day have been analyzed as a case study.

523 Seasonal climatological maps for CO total columns indicated conspicuous spatial variations
524 in all seasons except in winter where the CO spatial variations are less prominent. High CO
525 loadings are observed to extend from the North East to North West of Alberta, with highest
526 values ($2.5-2.75 \times 10^{18}$ molecules cm^{-2}) in spring. The CO mixing ratios at the surface level in
527 winter and spring seasons exhibited dissimilar spatial distribution pattern where the
528 enhancements are detected in south east Alberta (east of Edmonton city) rather than north, with
529 mixing ratio range of 250-300 ppb. Analyzing spatial distributions of omega at the 850 mb
530 pressure level for four seasons implied that, conditions in northeast Alberta are more favorable
531 for up lofting while in the south subsidence of CO emissions are more likely. Thus,
532 meteorological parameters may affect the CO spatial distribution profile where the CO total
533 columns show remarkable enhancements in the north while the surface CO experiences high
534 values in the south area.

535 The time-altitudes climatology of the CO profiles as well as the inter-annual variability are
536 investigated for Fort McMurray, Edmonton and Calgary regions to compare impact of various

537 sources on CO loading. Monthly variations over Edmonton region are consistent with the general
538 seasonal cycle of CO in Northern Hemisphere (Edwards et al., 2004) which exhibits significant
539 enhancement in winter and spring, and minimum mixing ratios in summer. The typical seasonal
540 CO variations over Fort McMurray area are less prominent, where there is an obvious rise of CO
541 in summer. The same seasonal patterns are detected at various surface monitoring stations;
542 however the magnitudes of in-situ measurements are higher. Inter-annual variations of satellite
543 data display a slightly decreasing trend for both regions while the decline trend is more evident
544 from ground observations, especially in the Edmonton and Calgary regions. These discrepancies
545 (between satellite and ground data) may be explained by larger MOPITT spatial resolution and
546 its lower sensitivity to the surface CO.

547 MOPITT CO profiles are validated by comparing them to the available MOZAIC/IAGOS
548 aircraft profiles after applying averaging kernel (Emmons et al. 2009). Both vertical distributions
549 showed good agreement within the standard deviations at all pressure levels.

550 Time altitude CO profile measurements over the Edmonton and Calgary regions exhibited
551 relatively elevated CO values in the lower troposphere than the corresponding values over the
552 Fort McMurray area. However, the total column CO values are similar. This striking feature
553 suggests that Edmonton and Calgary regions may be blanketed by regional pollution while the
554 Fort McMurray area (northern Alberta) may be influenced by CO plumes transported either
555 vertically or horizontally which could be from industry and/or the biomass burning. Temporal
556 analysis of fire frequency showed that, the main biomass burning season is from May to July
557 where the largest fires are clustered spatially in northern and central Alberta. The spatial
558 distributions of fires match remarkably the spatial distributions of MOPITT CO total column in
559 spring and summer. Additionally, there is a consistency between the time evolutions of high CO
560 episodes that are monitored by satellite and ground measurements in the Fort McMurray area
561 and the fire frequency peak time. This finding implies that biomass burning and its transport
562 have interesting consequences for the tropospheric CO distribution in northern Alberta, given the
563 complex meteorology that prevails in this area.

564 Since 2012 depicted high fire frequency, 10 July 2012 was selected to analyze the biomass
565 burning smoke plumes. Daily time series of ground measurements in Fort McMurray revealed
566 elevated CO concentrations on 12 July (> 700 pbb) which is two days after peak fire frequency

567 (10 July). Furthermore MOPITT composite image for the fire severity period (10-20 July)
568 displayed more intense CO plume in the east rather than west area where most of the fires
569 originated. This result reflects the significant influence of long range transport of biomass
570 burning emissions on CO levels which is further confirmed by MODIS smoke plume images and
571 HYSPLIT forward trajectories.

572 **Acknowledgment**

573 We acknowledge the use of FIRMS data and imagery from the Land Atmosphere Near-real time
574 Capability for EOS (LANCE) system operated by the NASA/GSFC/Earth Science Data and
575 Information System (ESDIS) with funding provided by NASA/HQ. Also, we acknowledge the
576 NOAA Air Resources Laboratory (ARL) for the provision of HYSPLIT transport model used in
577 this publication. We are grateful to the satellite product developers of MOPITT CO for freely
578 sharing the data through National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) portals. The NCAR
579 MOPITT project is supported by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA)
580 Earth Observing System (EOS) Program. The National Center for Atmospheric Research
581 (NCAR) is sponsored by the National Science Foundation. The authors also acknowledge the
582 Canadian Space Agency (CSA) as they provided MOPITT instrument. Finally we are very
583 grateful to Environment Canada and MITACS elevate program for funding this research.

584

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807 Table 1 The boundaries of study areas

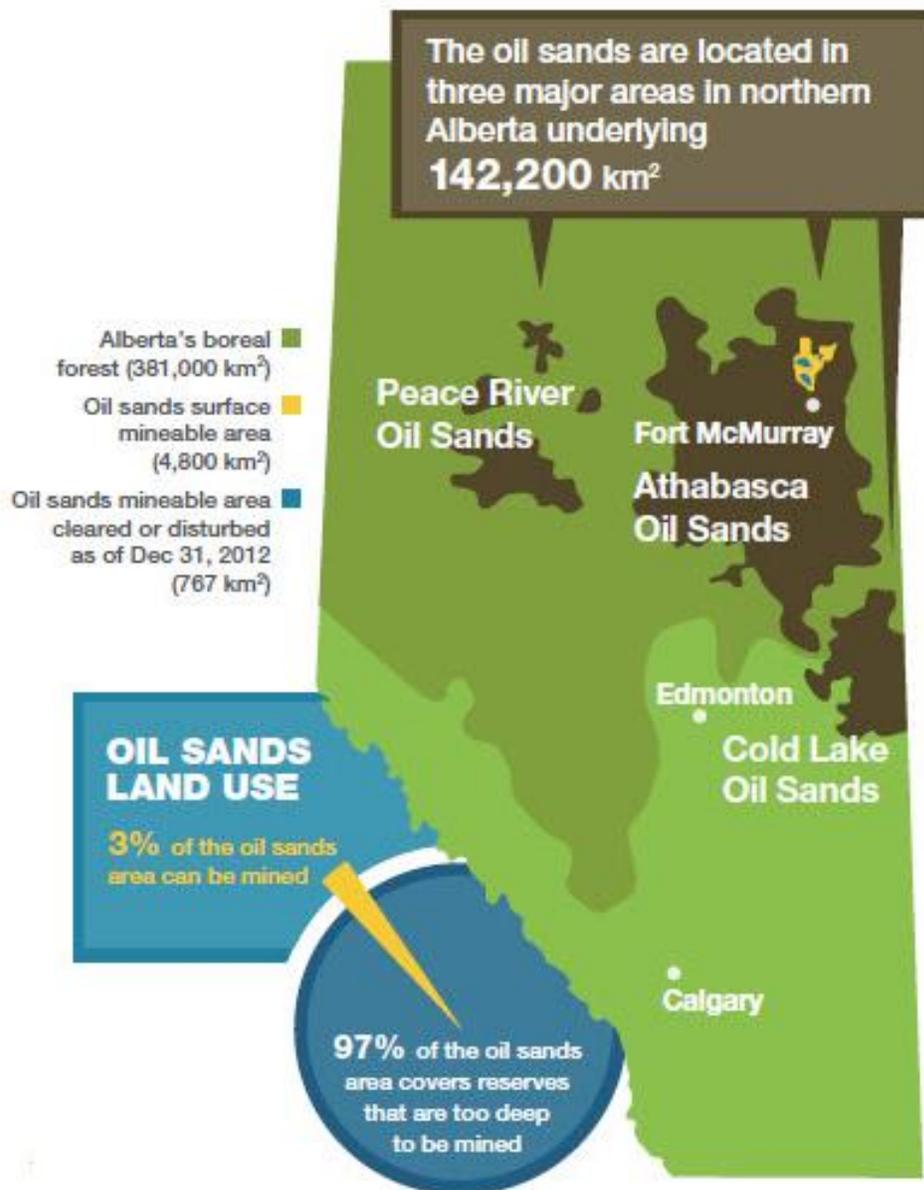
Name of study area	Latitude range	Longitude range
Fort McMurray	56.0 to 58.0N	112.0 to 110.0W
Edmonton	52.0 to 54.0N	114.0 to 112.0W
Calgary	50.0 to 52.0N	115.0 to 113.0W

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809 Table 2 Location, elevation and starting date of selected CASA monitoring stations

Name of the station	longitude	latitude	elevation	Starting date
Calgary Central 2	51.0470	-114.0747	1051.0	01/04/2008
Calgary Central	51.0471	-114.07315	1051.0	01/05/1979
Calgary East	51.0094	-114.0253	1028.0	01/08/1974
Calgary Northwest	51.0792	-114.1419	1106.0	01/08/1974
Fort McMurray- Athabasca Valley	56.7328	-111.3903	260.0	01/12/1997
Edmonton Central	53.5444	-113.4988	663.0	03/12/1976
Edmonton East	53.5481	-113.3682	679.0	01/10/1972
Edmonton Northwest	53.5942	-113.5400	679.0	12/07/1973
Edmonton South	53.5001	-113.5261	681.0	21/09/2005

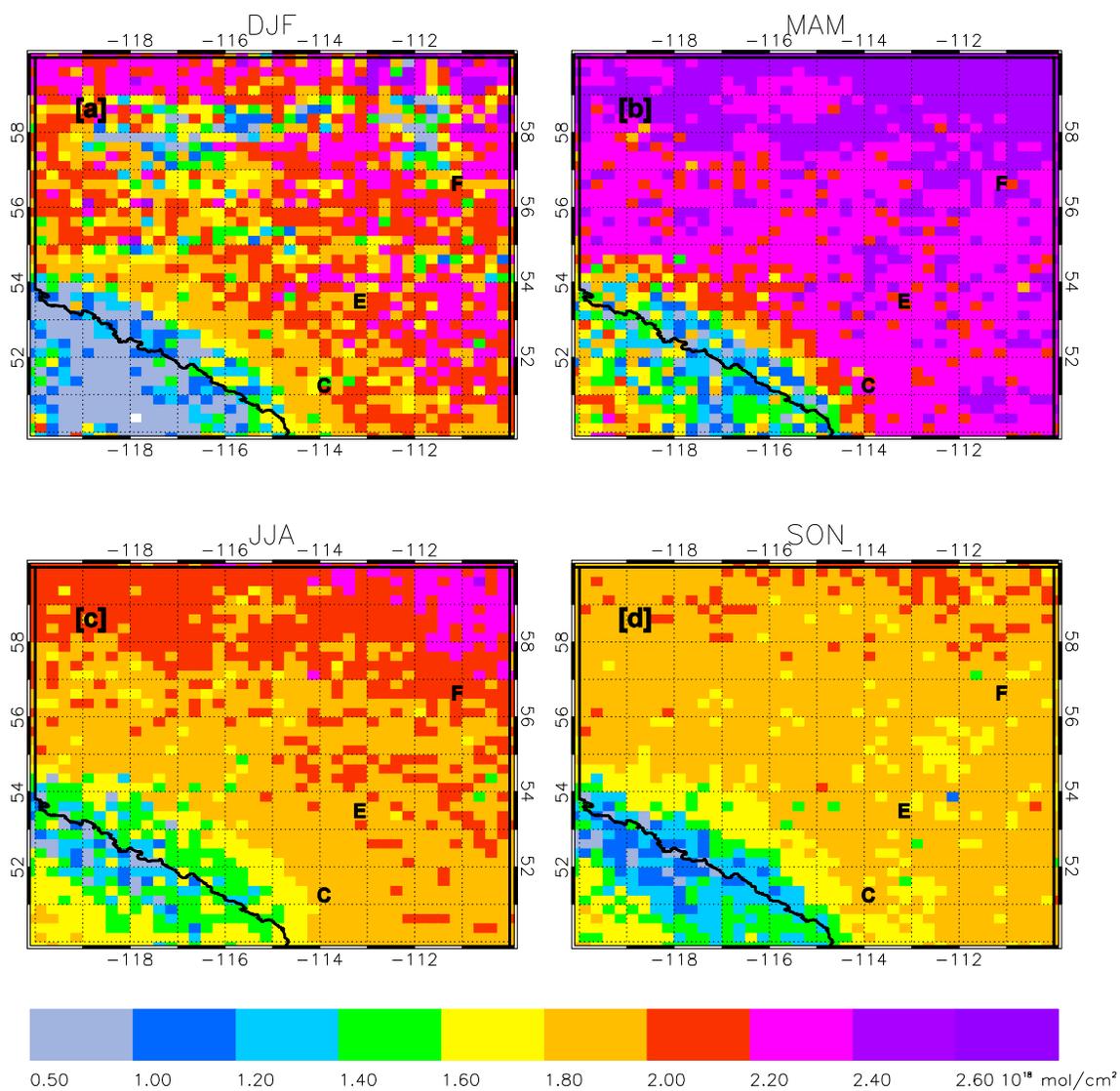
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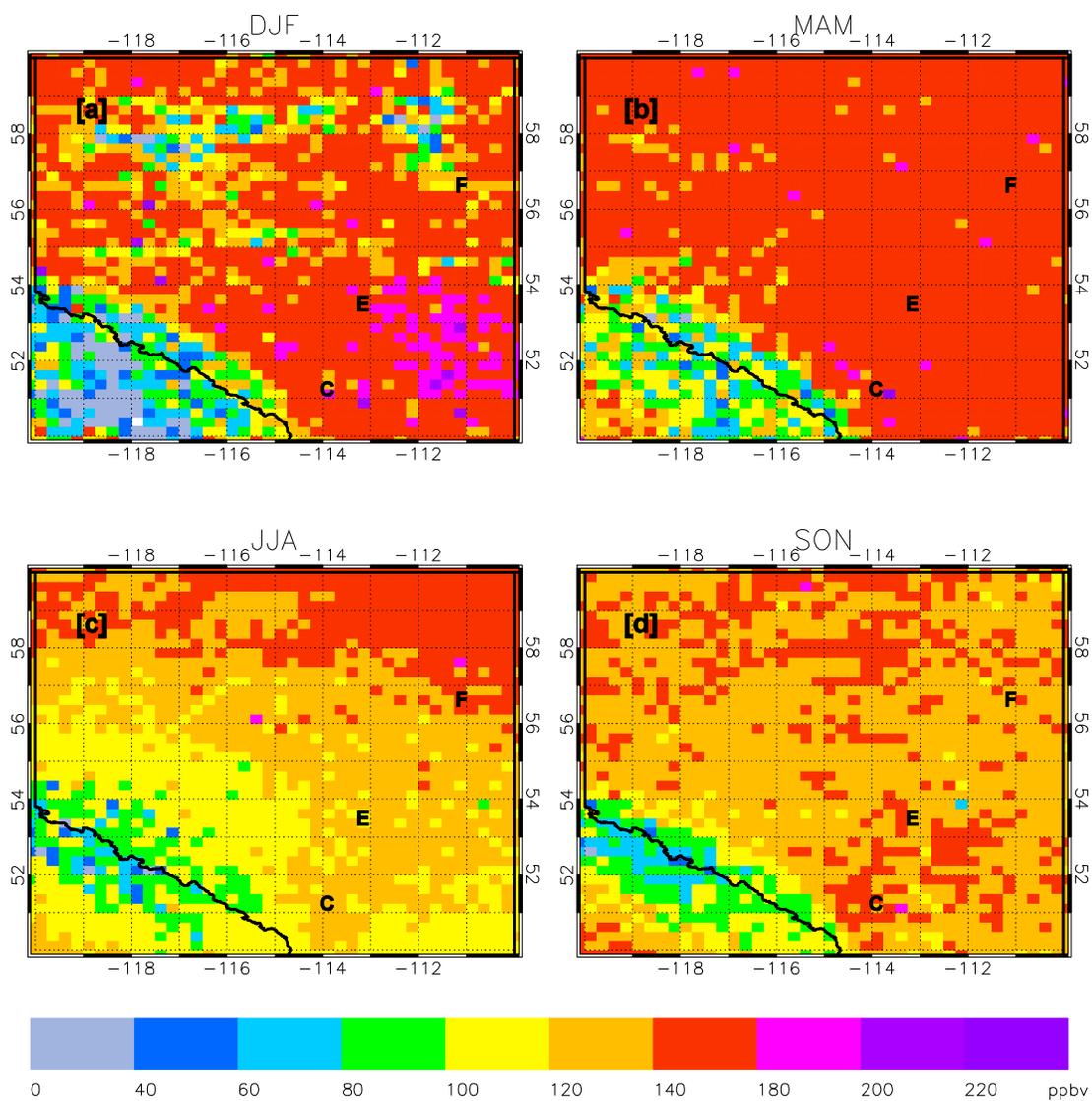
812 Figure 1. Alberta's oil sands deposits in the Athabasca, Peace River and Cold Lake regions
 813 (<http://www.energy.alberta.ca/oilsands/791.asp>).

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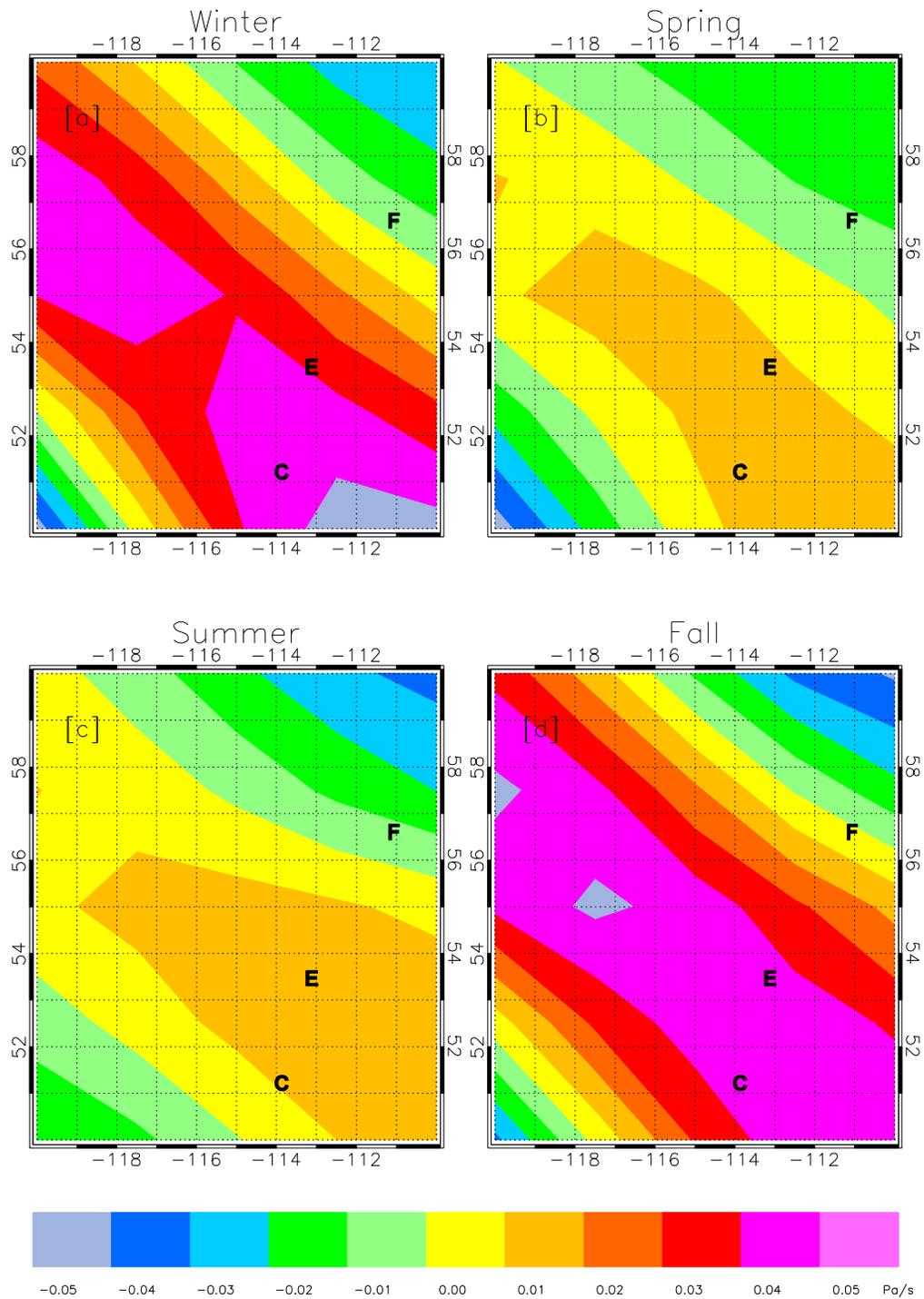
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Figure 2. The MOPITT daytime CO total column measurements over Alberta for the period March 2002 to December 2013 in (a) winter, (b) spring, (c) summer and (d) fall. The symbols F, E and C represent the cities of Fort McMurray, Edmonton Calgary, respectively. Data are gridded at 0.25x0.25 degree resolution.



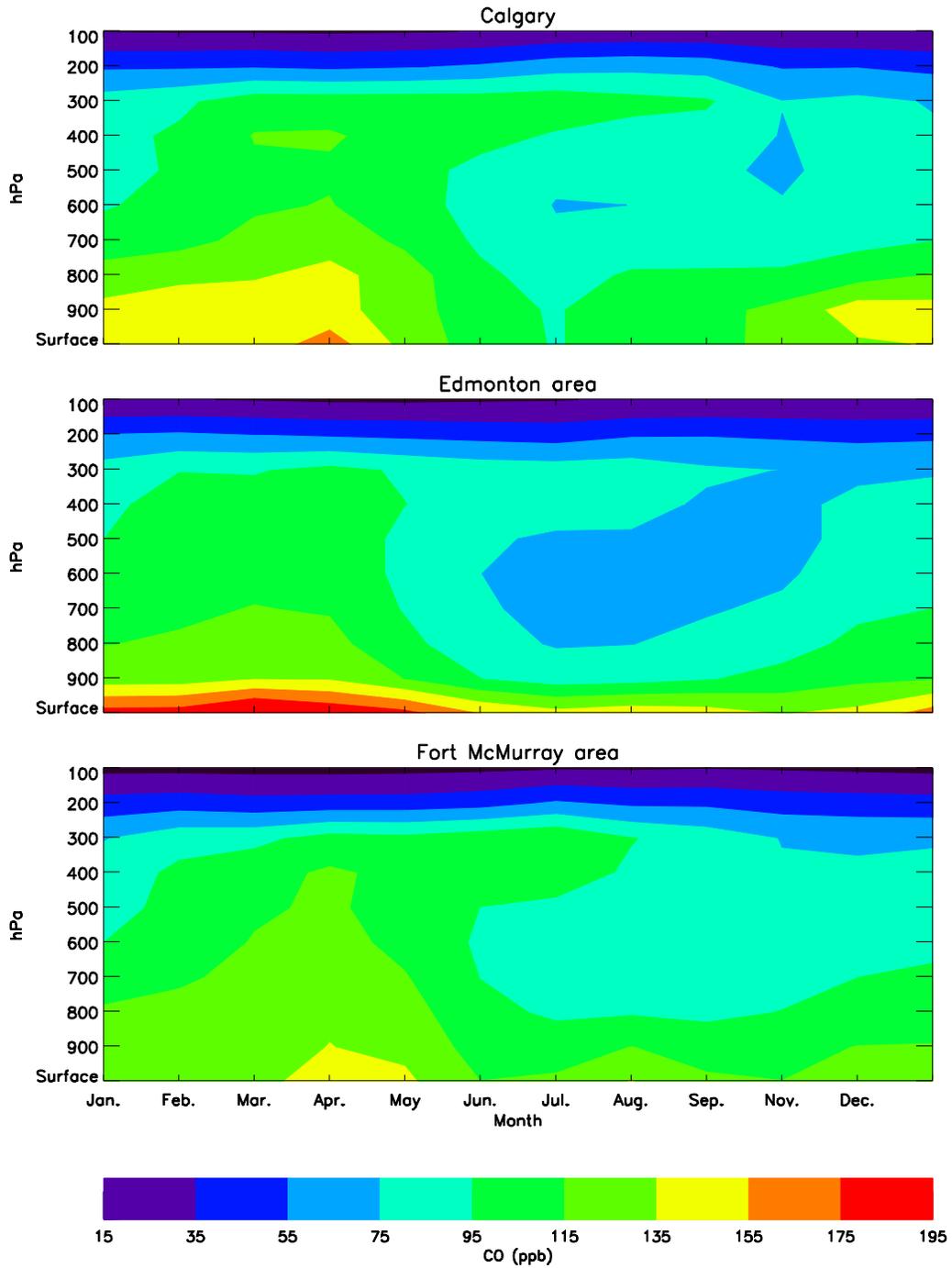
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Figure 3. MOPITT daytime CO mixing ratios at the surface level over Alberta for the period March 2002 to December 2013 in (a) winter, (b) spring, (c) summer and (d) fall. The symbols F, E and C represent the cities of Fort McMurray, Edmonton and Calgary, respectively. Data are gridded at 0.25x0.25 degree resolution.

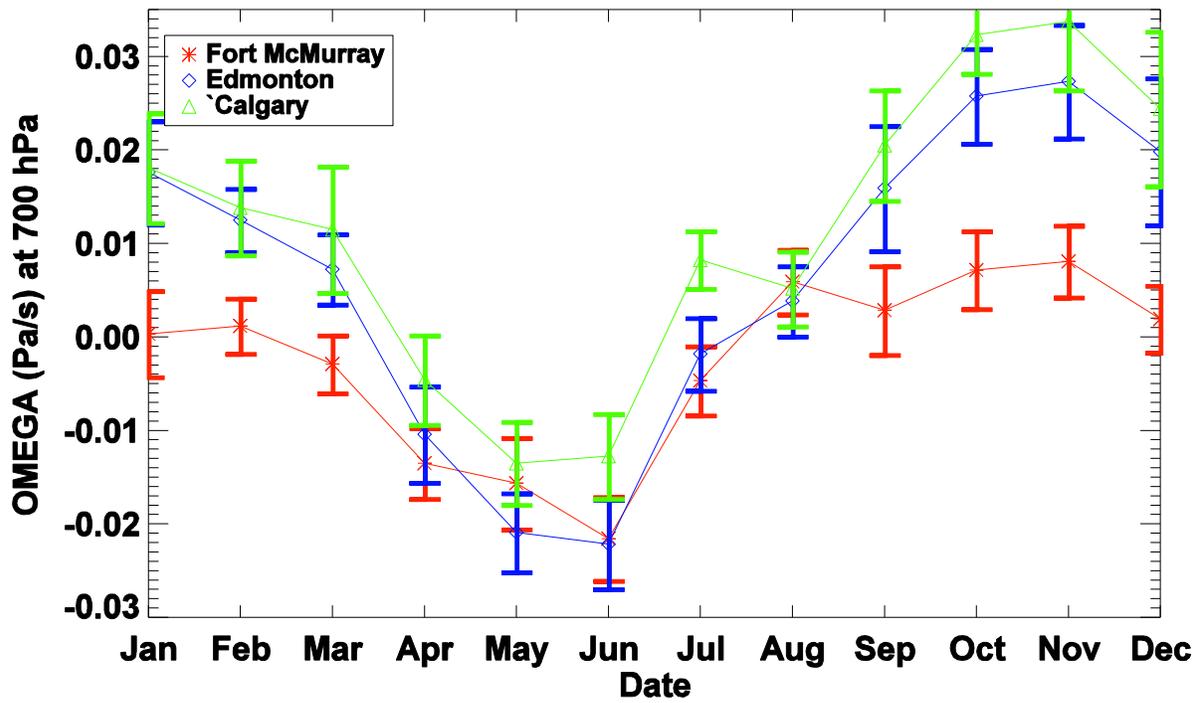


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Figure 4. Spatial distributions of Omega at pressure level 850 mb for the period from 2002 to 2013 in winter (a), spring (b), summer (c), fall (d).

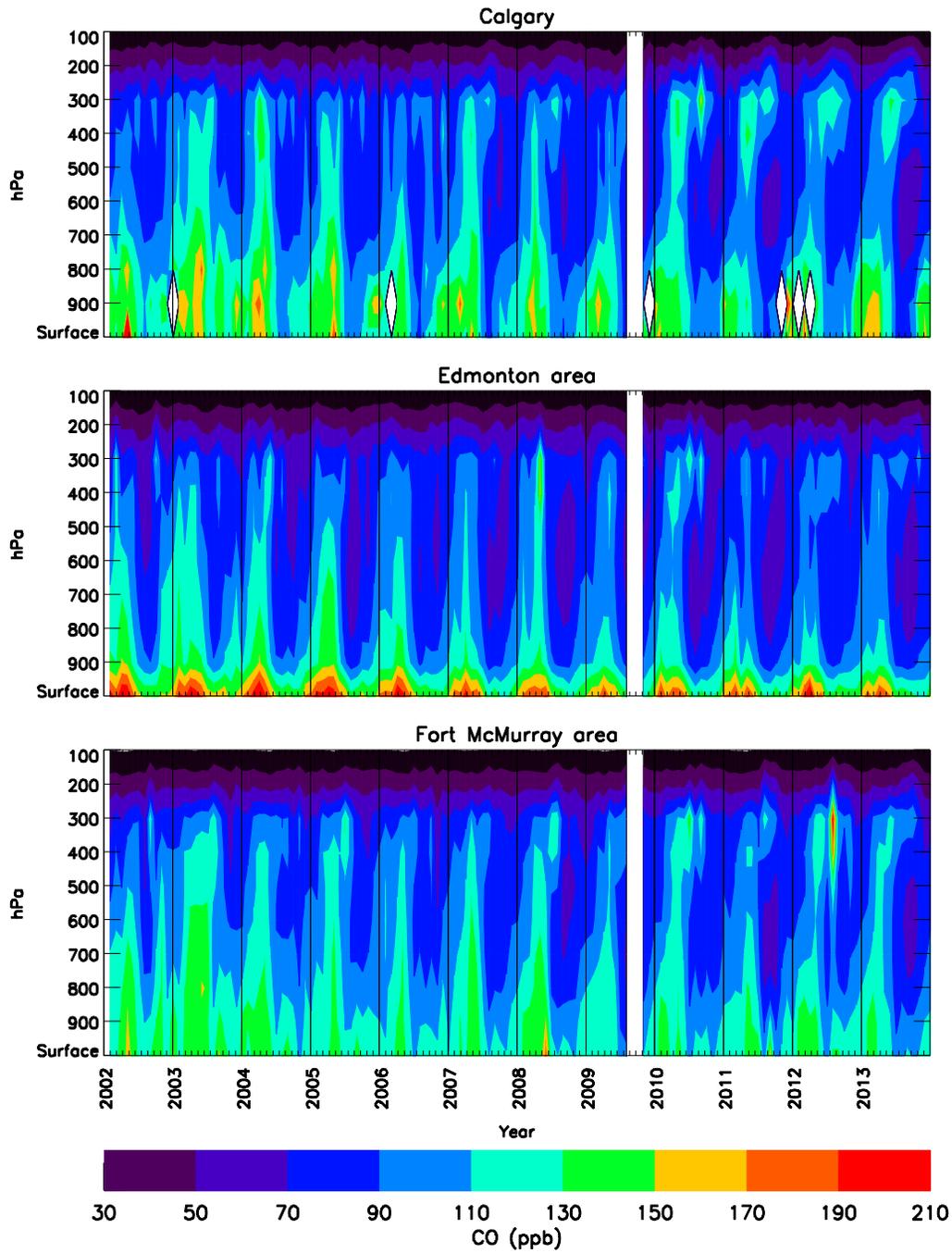


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 838 Figure 5. Climatological MOPITT CO profiles for the period March 2002 to December 2013
 839 over Calgary, Edmonton, and Fort McMurray area.



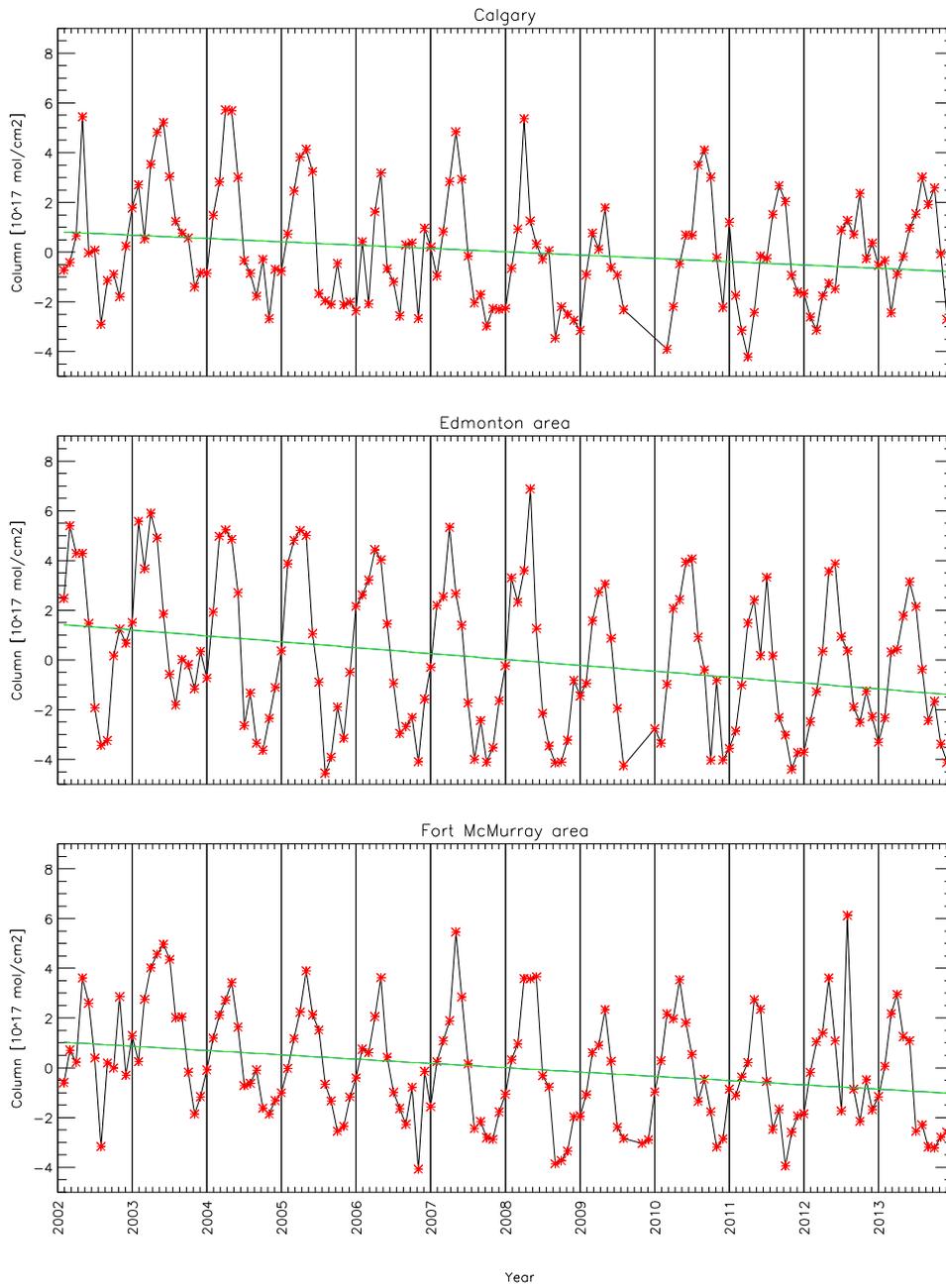
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Figure 6. Omega averages at 700 hPa from 2002 to 2013.



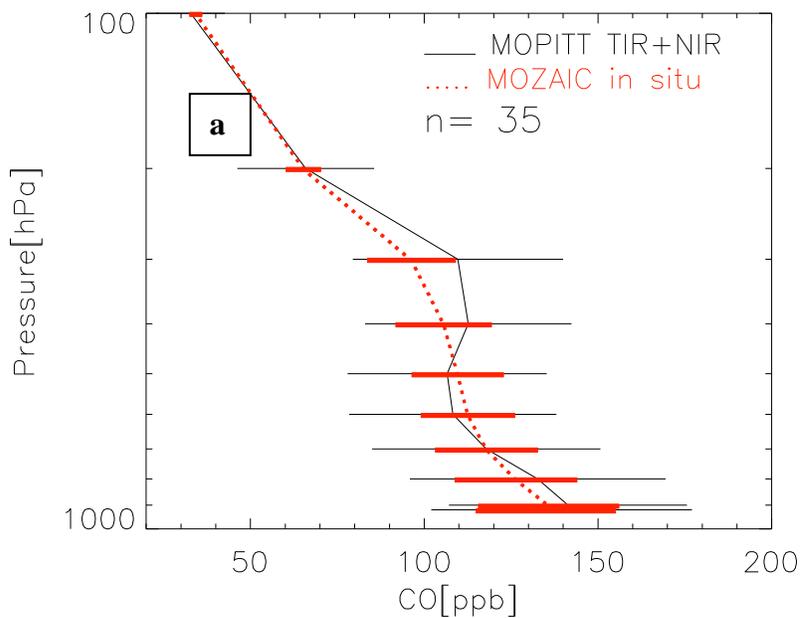
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Figure 7. the 12 year inter-annual variation monthly averaged daytime MOPITT CO mixing ratios (ppb) as measured by MOPITT since January 2002 to December 2013 over Calgary, Edmonton, and Fort McMurray areas.

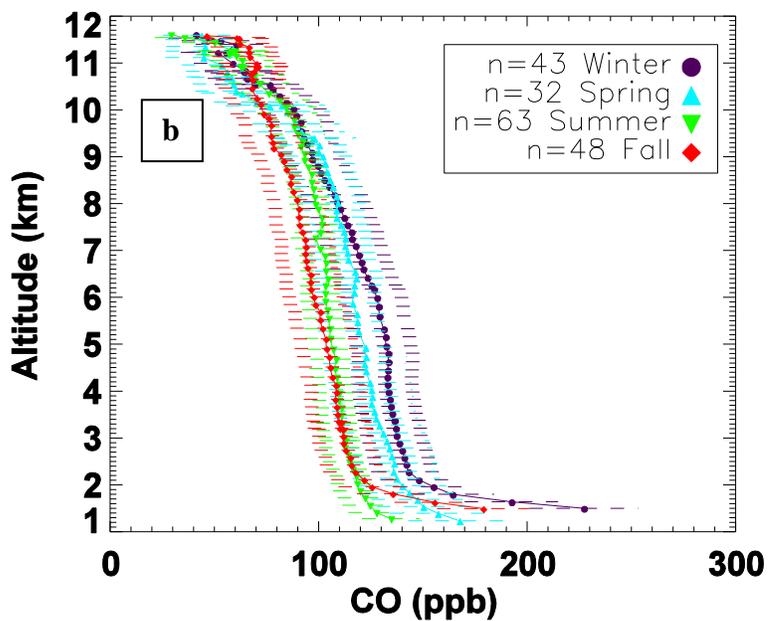


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 853 Figure 8. The 12 year inter-annual variations monthly averaged daytime MOPITT CO total
 854 column measurements for the period January 2002 to December 2013 over Calgary, Edmonton,
 855 and Fort McMurray areas.
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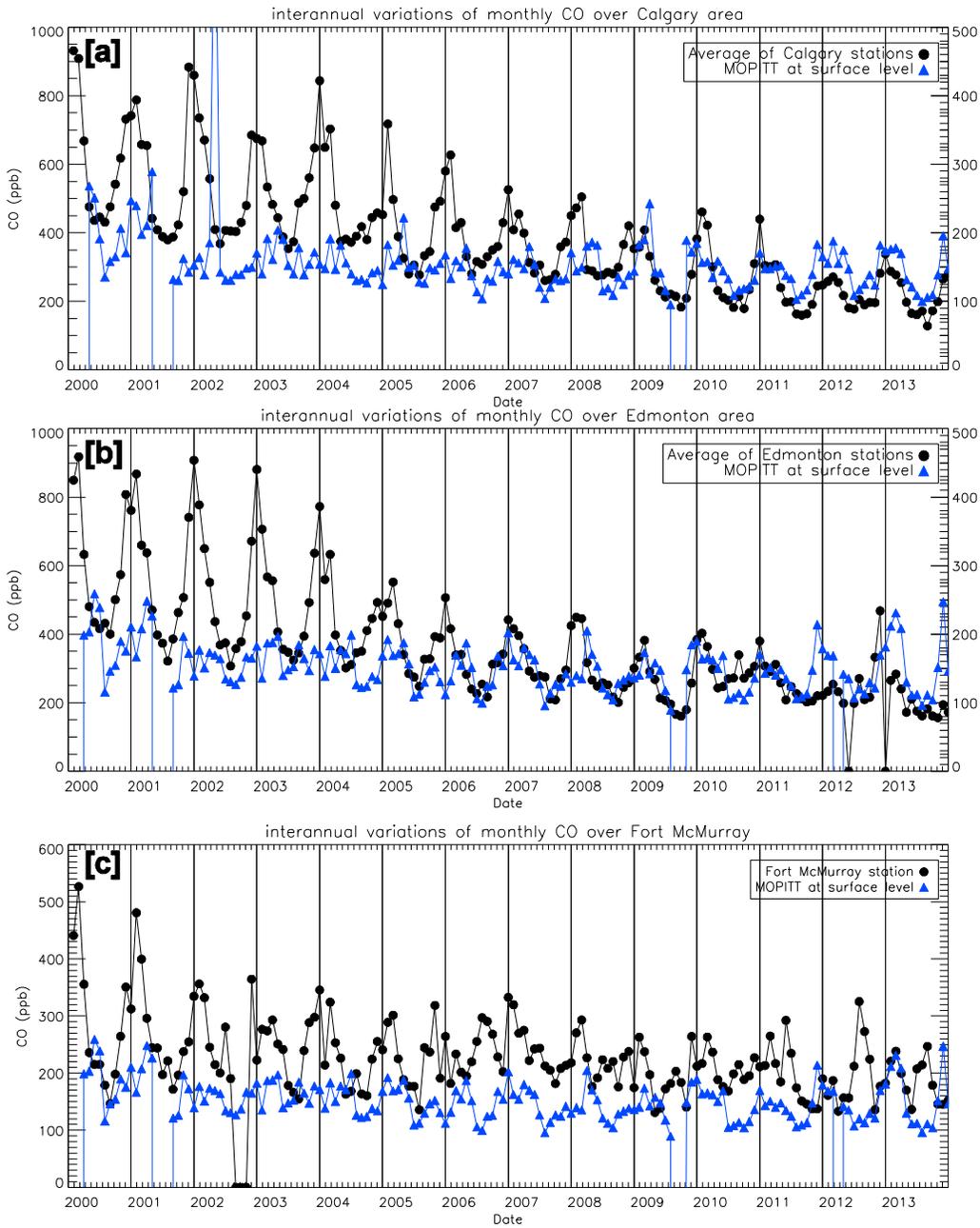
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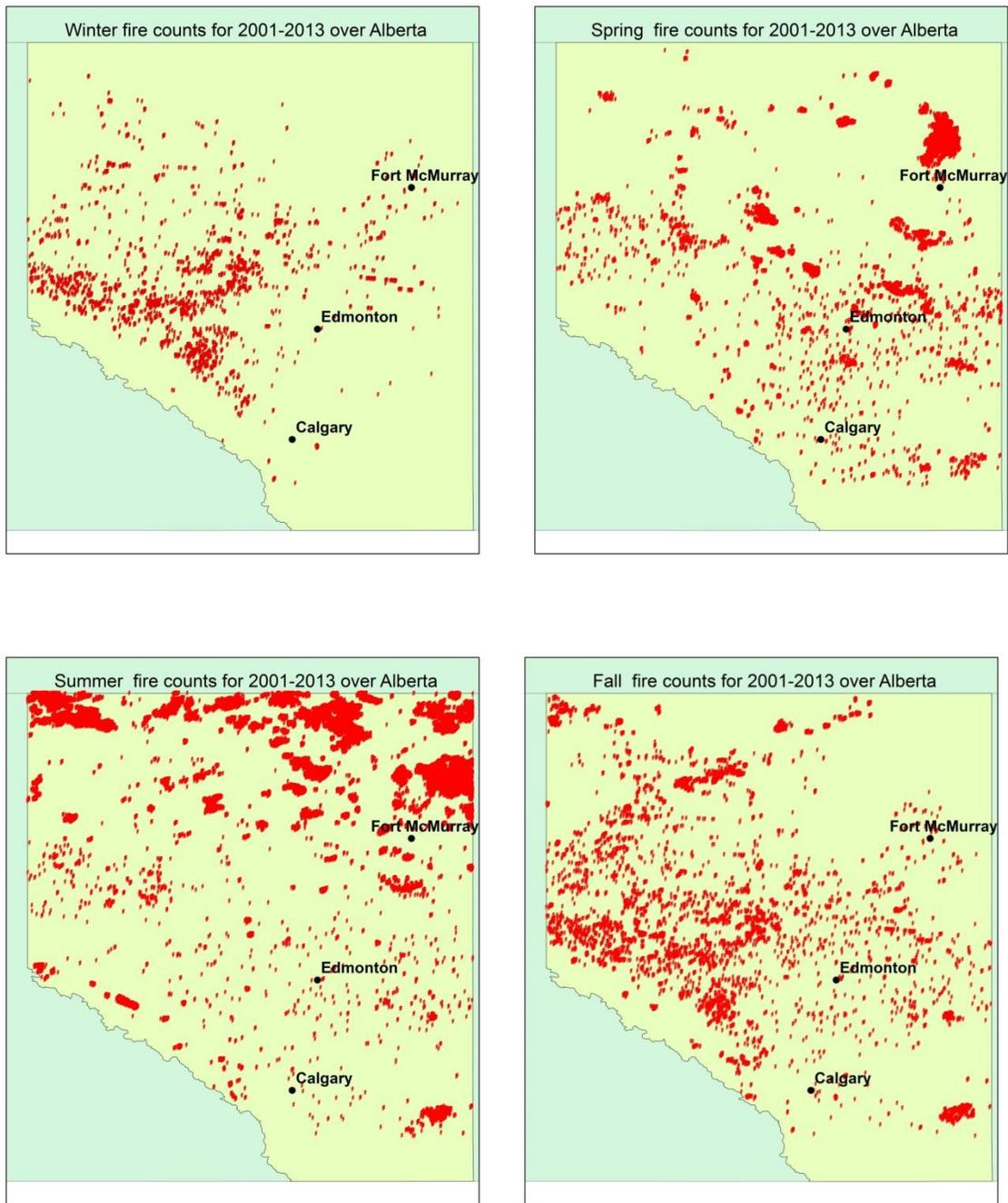


861 Figure 9. MOZAIC/IAGOS (AK) and the corresponding MOPITT CO profiles (a) and
862 MOZAIC/IAGOS seasonal averages CO profiles, the horizontal bars are standard errors.
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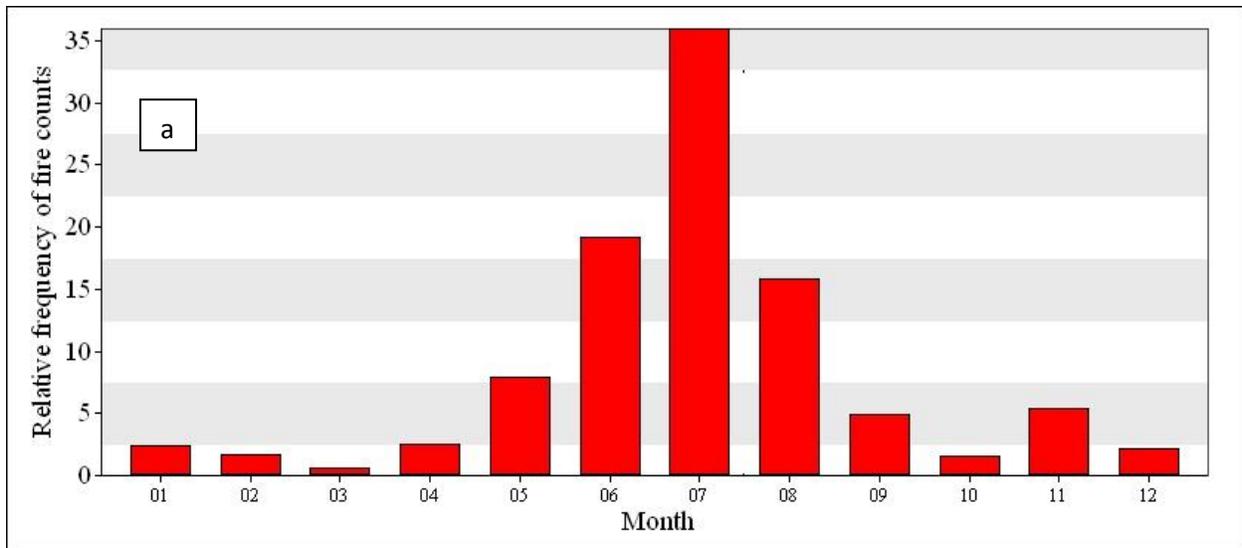


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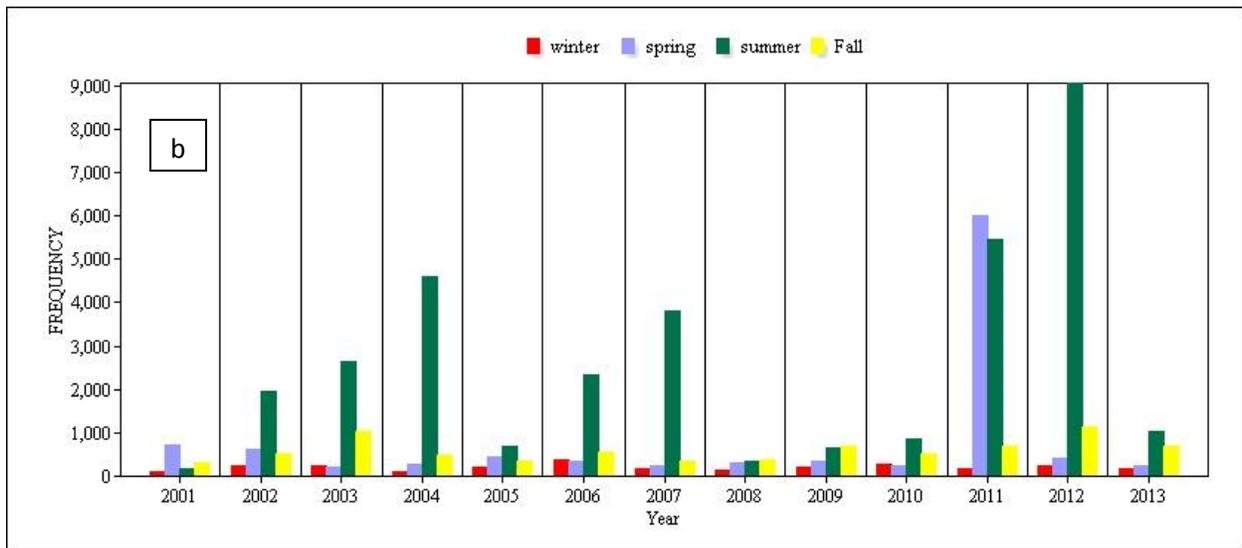
866 Figure 10. CASA CO in-situ measurements (left axis) and MOPITT CO at surface level (right
867 axis) at (a) Calgary, (b) Edmonton and (c) Athabasca Valley.



906 Figure 11. seasonal variations of MODIS fire counts for the study period (2001-2013) over
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Figure 12. (a) monthly variations of MODIS fire counts for the study period (2001-2013) over Alberta, (b) Inter-annual variations of seasonal fire frequency.

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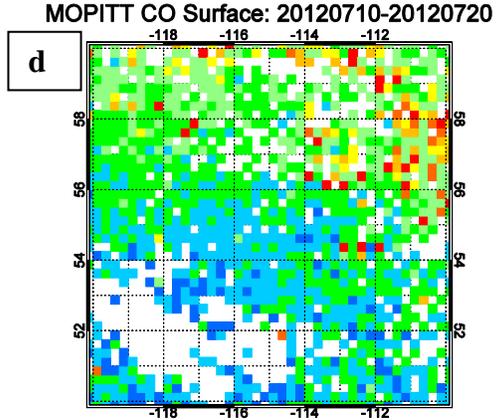
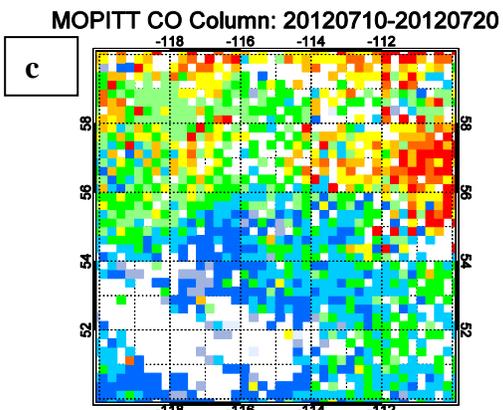
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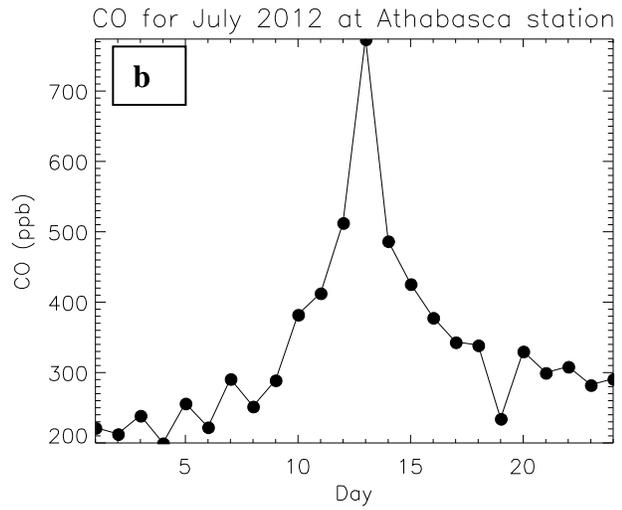
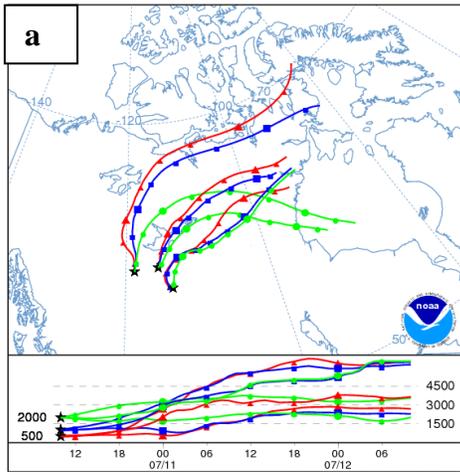
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932 Figure 13. MODIS true image combined with fire points (red) (a) on 10 July 2012 and (b) on 11
933 July 2012, (c) MOPITT CO total column from 10-20 July 2012 over Alberta, (d) MOPITT
934 surface CO from 10-20 July 2012 over Alberta.

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942 Figure 14. (a) 48 HYSPLIT forward trajectory started on 10 July 2012, and (b) daily CO at
943 Athabasca Valley station for July 2012.

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