

1 **Oil and gas impacts on air quality in federal lands in the Bakken**
2 **region: An overview of the Bakken Air Quality Study and first results**

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15 Submitted to *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics Discussions*, September 11, 2015

16 Revised: January 19, 2016

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18 **Abstract**

19 The Bakken formation contains billions of barrels of oil and gas trapped in rock and shale.
20 Horizontal drilling and hydraulic fracturing methods have allowed for extraction of these
21 resources, leading to exponential growth of oil production in the region over the past decade.
22 Along with this development has come an increase in associated emissions to the atmosphere.
23 Concern about potential impacts of these emissions on federal lands in the region prompted
24 the National Park Service to sponsor the Bakken Air Quality Study over two winters in 2013-
25 2014. Here we provide an overview of the study and present some initial results aimed at
26 better understanding the impact of local oil and gas emissions on regional air quality. Data
27 from the study, along with long term monitoring data, suggest that while power plants are still
28 an important emissions source in the region, emissions from oil and gas activities are impacting
29 ambient concentrations of nitrogen oxides and black carbon and may dominate recent
30 observed trends in pollutant concentrations at some of the study sites. Measurements of
31 volatile organic compounds also definitively show that oil and gas emissions were present in
32 almost every air mass sampled over a period of more than four months.

33 **1. Introduction**

34 The Williston Basin covers several hundred thousand square kilometers in parts of North
35 Dakota (ND), Montana (MT), South Dakota (SD), Saskatchewan, and Manitoba. In the Bakken
36 and Three Forks formations within the Williston Basin, it is estimated that there are more than
37 7 billion barrels of recoverable oil (<http://www.eia.gov/>), making it the largest tight oil play in
38 the United States (US) (EIA, 2014). Despite these vast deposits, it is only in the past decade that
39 horizontal drilling and hydraulic fracturing methods have allowed for cost-efficient extraction of
40 these resources, which has led to exponential growth in the number of wells in the region.
41 Much of this activity is in ND (Figure 1), where there are currently ~10,000 active wells
42 producing over 1 million barrels of oil each day (<https://www.dmr.nd.gov/oilgas/>). These
43 numbers are expected to grow, with associated increases in pollutant emissions.

44 Oil and gas development activities provide potential sources of air pollutants during all stages
45 of well development and resource extraction (Brown et al., 2015;Field et al., 2014;Olaguer,
46 2012;Roy et al., 2014). Emissions come from a large number of small sources that can vary
47 broadly both in terms of absolute amounts and compositions (Field et al., 2014). A large
48 number of studies have focused on methane emissions (e.g. (Brandt et al., 2014;Howarth et al.,
49 2011;Subramanian et al., 2015)), and associated greenhouse warming (e.g. (Jiang et al., 2011)).

50 These issues are particularly significant in the Bakken, where it is estimated that methane
51 emissions correspond to leakages of $9.1\% \pm 6.2\%$ of energy content (Schneising et al., 2014).
52 Along with methane, other pollutants such as volatile organic compounds (VOCs), including
53 hazardous air pollutants, can be released (Helmig et al., 2014;Olaguer, 2012;Petron et al.,
54 2012;Swarthout et al., 2015). Chemicals used in oil and gas extraction (Colborn et al., 2011)

55 are associated with a wide range of human health hazards, and potential health impacts have
56 been identified for communities near well pads (Bamberger and Oswald, 2015; McKenzie et al.,
57 2012; Steinzor et al., 2013).

58 There are also emissions from the equipment needed for oil and gas development (Roy et al.,
59 2014), including VOCs, nitrogen oxides (NO_x: NO + NO₂), elemental carbon (EC), particulate
60 matter (PM), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂). In 2011, NO_x emissions in the Williston Basin related to
61 oil and gas activities were estimated at 29,400 tons (Grant et al., 2014). NO_x emissions for
62 highway transportation were less than half of this value this same year (EPA National Emissions
63 Inventory), when considering the same counties in the Williston Basin (ND, SD and MT).

64 Emissions of VOCs and NO_x associated with oil and gas extraction can drive elevated ozone
65 concentrations (Olague, 2012), which can impact national parks (Rodriguez et al., 2009) and
66 other sensitive areas. High wintertime ozone concentrations have also been associated with oil
67 and gas activities (Ahmadov et al., 2015; Edwards et al., 2014; Helmig et al., 2014; Schnell et al.,
68 2009); however, these wintertime ozone episodes occur during strong inversions, which are not
69 typically observed in the Bakken region.

70 Support for drilling and operation of active wells has its own associated emissions. For
71 example, in the Marcellus shale region it is estimated that over one thousand diesel trucking
72 events are typical for every new well drilled (Roy et al., 2014). Average traffic counts on
73 Highway 85 in McKenzie County, which runs through the center of the oil and gas activities in
74 the Bakken and is adjacent to the North Unit of Theodore Roosevelt National Park, have more
75 than tripled from 2008 to 2014 (<http://www.dot.nd.gov/road-map/traffic/>). Along with

76 increased traffic, increased population to support these activities adds to emissions. The region
77 may also be impacted by pollutants originating in Canada, where there is extensive oil and gas
78 activity regionally (see Figure 1), as well as potential for long range transport of pollutants from
79 the Alberta Oil Sands (Bytnerowicz et al., 2010;Howell et al., 2014;Simpson et al., 2010).

80 Although oil is the primary commodity in the Bakken, there is also a large amount of associated
81 natural gas. However, because the infrastructure to transport this natural gas is still being
82 developed, until recently about one third of this gas was flared. In 2013, this amounted to over
83 100 billion cubic feet of natural gas flared or vented in ND (<http://www.eia.gov/>). These flares
84 add to the pollution burden (Pederstad et al., 2015), producing CO₂, EC, CO and NO_x,
85 particularly in the Bakken where flare efficiencies (Leahey et al., 2001) may be quite low owing
86 to persistent high winds and the presence of surface/pit flares. The percentage of gas that is
87 flared is now declining as a result of new regulations, with proposed limits on flaring of 10% of
88 produced natural gas by 2020.

89 Ambient particle concentrations also can be impacted by oil and gas activities. Increased
90 particle loading has the potential to degrade visibility (Malm et al., 1994), a protected air
91 quality related value in Class I areas, and can cause adverse health effects (e.g. (Laden et al.,
92 2006)). These particles can be the result of direct emissions, such as fugitive dust from mobile
93 sources (Ilan-Bar et al., 2011), or formed from reactions of precursor species such as SO₂, VOCs,
94 and NO_x. Monitoring data from the Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments
95 (IMPROVE) Program suggest that sites in the Bakken region have not experienced the same
96 improvements to air quality as many places in the United states since 2000. Across the region,

97 annual trends in composition for sulfate, nitrate, and EC are generally decreasing (Figure S1 in
98 Supplemental Material), although within the Bakken trends are mixed and nitrate and sulfate
99 concentrations have increased in the Bakken region during December from 2000-2010 (Hand et
100 al., 2012a). Increasing, although statistically insignificant, trends also were observed at
101 IMPROVE sites in the Bakken region on the 20% haziest days from 2000-2011 (Hand et al.,
102 2014), counter to national trends.

103 The rapid expansion of the oil and gas sector has the potential to impact four national park
104 units in this region: Fort Union Trading Post National Historic Site (NHS) (FOUS), Knife River
105 Indian Villages NHS (KNRI), and the north and south units of Theodore Roosevelt National Park
106 (THRO-N and THRO-S). THRO is a Class I airshed, which provides for the highest level of federal
107 protection of its air quality, while FOUS and KNRI are Class II airsheds. There are also two US
108 Fish and Wildlife Class I areas nearby: Lostwood, ND (LOST) and Medicine Lake, MT (MELA). In
109 2011, McKenzie County in ND, where THRO-N is located, accounted for the highest emissions of
110 NO_x, VOCs, PM, CO, and SO₂ from oil and gas in the Williston Basin (Grant et al., 2014), making
111 THRO-N highly vulnerable to impacts from air pollutants related to oil and gas development.

112 The lack of progress toward the goals of the Regional Haze Rule (EPA, 2003) at THRO and
113 increasing emissions and potential impacts of oil and gas development on air quality in these
114 natural areas prompted the National Park Service to sponsor the Bakken Air Quality Study,
115 carried out in two field deployments in 2013-2014. The locations of the field sites are shown in
116 Figure 1, as well as the locations of long term monitoring sites. Here we provide an overview of
117 the measurements and determine their representativeness relative to the historical record. A

118 summary of key results is presented, and we address the question of whether energy
119 development in the Bakken region is impacting air quality in national parks and other federal
120 lands in the region.

121 **2. Experimental**

122 **2.1. Study Periods**

123 The Bakken Air Quality Study (BAQS) was conducted to assess the mix of pollutants impacting
124 national parks and Class I areas in the Bakken region. Although elevated pollutant levels can
125 occur anytime of the year, measurements were focused primarily on winter months. The first
126 BAQS study period was in 2013, with measurements from February 15 to April 6. The study was
127 conducted at five field sites: FOUS, KNRI, MELA, THRO-N and THRO-S. THRO-N served as the
128 core sampling site. At the core site, high time resolution measurements were made of NO_x, CO,
129 Total Reactive Nitrogen, O₃, SO₂, black carbon and aerosol light scattering. More extensive data
130 were also obtained at lower time resolution (6 hr – 1 week) of organic and inorganic
131 composition of particles and gases. The other four sites were not as heavily instrumented.
132 FOUS, MELA and KNRI had 48 hour integrated samples (6 days a week) of inorganic gas and
133 particulate composition, real time ozone measurements, automated precipitation samplers and
134 Radiello passive samplers, which measured weekly integrated concentrations of SO₂, NO₂, NH₃
135 and O₃. A nephelometer was also deployed at KNRI. Because THRO-S is heavily instrumented
136 through state and federal monitoring programs, only passive samplers were deployed at this
137 site. Meteorological data were available at all sites. In addition to the sampling sites, two days
138 of measurements of methane and VOCs were made using a mobile laboratory. A detailed list of
139 measurements from the first study period is given in Table 1.

140 The second study period ran from November 23, 2013 through March 28, 2014, encompassing
141 the largest increasing trends in sulfate and nitrate as determined from IMPROVE observations
142 (Hand et al., 2012a). During the second study, measurements were limited to three sites, with
143 increased emphasis on higher time resolution data collection. THRO-N remained the core site,
144 while FOUS and MELA served as satellite sites. At THRO-N and FOUS, additional measurements
145 of gas and particle concentrations and compositions were made, including VOC measurements
146 (Table 2). The VOC data provide markers for many of the potential air pollutant sources in this
147 region. Mobile measurement were also conducted (see Methods).

148 These study periods correspond to months when temperatures are typically below freezing,
149 and where minimum winter temperatures can fall below -30 °C. Based on meteorological data
150 collected during 2002-2013 at Watford City (near THRO-N), MELA, and LOST, the predominant
151 wind direction in the study region was southwesterly and the second most common direction
152 was northwesterly, though air masses can arrive from all directions. There are spatial, diurnal,
153 and seasonal fluctuations around this predominant pattern. Seasonally, air masses from the
154 northwest are most common during fall and winter; this was generally observed during BAQS.
155 Transport from easterly directions is most likely during spring and summer. Average wind
156 speeds in winter were in the range of 3-5 m/s at all of the study sites, with Watford City (near
157 THRO-N) having the slowest and LOST the highest mean speeds.

158 **2.2. Methods**

159 Many of the measurements listed in Tables 1 and 2 will be described in detail in forthcoming
160 publications, and so are not discussed further. Here we provide a brief description of
161 measurements from the Results and Discussion section.

162 For real time measurements of NO_x and SO₂ during the first study period, sampling was from a
163 common inlet ~3 m above ground level. The sampling line was 0.64 cm OD Teflon tubing. For
164 SO₂ from the real time measurements, a calibration was performed prior to the study. For NO_x,
165 calibrations were conducted daily using certified, traceable standards provided by Airgas
166 (Prenni et al., 2014). Every calibration included zero air and a span concentration, with
167 calibration gases introduced at the sample inlets.

168 NO_x measurements were made using a chemiluminescence instrument (Teledyne 201E). The
169 technique alternately measures NO directly and measures NO_x by first converting NO₂ to NO
170 using a molybdenum converter. NO is reacted with ozone forming NO₂ in an excited state
171 which emits radiation while decaying to the ground state.

172 Real time SO₂ measurements were made during the first study period using a Thermo Scientific
173 SO₂ Analyzer (Model 43C), which uses pulsed fluorescence and has a detection limit of 1 ppbv
174 (60 s averaging). During the second study period, and during both studies at the satellite sites,
175 SO₂ concentrations also were derived from University Research Glassware (URG) samplers.

176 Twenty-four hour samples were collected using URG annular denuder/filter-pack samplers from
177 8:00 AM to 8:00 AM local time at THRO-N during both study periods. During the first study
178 period, 48 hour samples were also collected at FOUS, MELA and KNRI, covering 6 days per
179 week. During the second study, 24 hr samples were collected at FOUS, and weekly samples
180 were collected at MELA. Extracted samples were analyzed for inorganic gas and particulate
181 species using ion chromatography (IC). Sample collection and analysis procedures were similar
182 to those described elsewhere (Benedict et al., 2013).

183 Real time black carbon (BC) data were collected using a multi-wavelength aethalometer at the
184 core site (Magee Scientific AE-31). We follow the recommendation of *Petzold et al.* (2013) in
185 designating aethalometer measurements as BC and measurements from the IMPROVE program
186 as EC. The sample is collected on quartz fiber filter tape and absorption is measured at seven
187 wavelengths from 370-950 nm. For this study, a PM_{2.5} inlet was used and BC mass was
188 determined as the mean of the masses measured from all wavelengths; no further corrections
189 were implemented. Aethalometer data were logged as 5 min averages. The instrument was
190 factory calibrated prior to the first study period and has a sensitivity of <0.1 µg m⁻³.

191 The THRO-N site also had an IMPROVE particle monitor that collected 24-hour samples.
192 Samples were collected daily, on the same schedule as the URG samplers (8 AM to 8 AM).
193 Modules A, C, and D were used during the study. Modules A and C collect fine particles (PM_{2.5}),
194 while module D collects both fine and coarse particles (PM₁₀). Module A is equipped with a
195 Teflon[®] filter that is analyzed for PM_{2.5} gravimetric fine mass, elemental concentration, and
196 light absorption. Module C utilizes a quartz fiber filter that is analyzed by thermal optical
197 reflectance (TOR) for organic carbon and EC. Module D utilizes a Teflon filter to determine
198 PM₁₀ aerosol mass concentrations gravimetrically. Module A was used during the first study,
199 and Modules A and C were used during the second study period. Module D was used for a
200 limited time during the second measurement period.

201 For VOC measurements, whole air samples were collected at THRO-N, FOUS, and MELA, as well
202 as at various locations throughout the Bakken region as part of the mobile measurements.

203 During the second study period, samples were collected into evacuated 2 L passivated, stainless

204 steel canisters. A total of 40 individual VOCs were quantified from the canister samples using a
205 five-channel, three gas chromatograph (GC) analytical system which employed three flame
206 ionization detectors (FIDs), one electron capture detector (ECD) and one mass spectrometer
207 (MS). The gases analyzed included C₂-C₁₀ nonmethane hydrocarbons (NMHCs), C₁-C₂
208 halocarbons, C₁-C₅ alkyl nitrates and reduced sulfur compounds. The analytical system and
209 methodology are similar to those used in previous studies (Russo et al., 2010a; Russo et al.,
210 2010b; Sive, 1998; Swarthout et al., 2013; Swarthout et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2010). Multiple
211 whole air standards were used during sample analysis (analyzed every 10 samples). The
212 measurement precision, represented by the relative standard deviation of the peak areas for
213 each compound in the whole air standards, was 1-8% for the NMHCs, 3-10% for the
214 halocarbons, 3-8% for the alkyl nitrates and 3-5% for the sulfur compounds. For the second
215 study period, a canister sample was collected twice per day at THRO-N, four times per week at
216 FOUS, and once per week at MELA. For approximately one month of the study (December 19,
217 2013 – January 31, 2014), canisters were collected only once per week at FOUS.

218 Meteorological data were collected with a Climatronics All-In-One Weather Sensor (Part
219 Number 102780), co-located with the gas measurements.

220 ***Mobile Measurements***

221 A Picarro A0941 mobile measurement kit combined with a Picarro G2203 analyzer was
222 deployed inside a Chevrolet Tahoe Hybrid vehicle for mobile measurements of CH₄ and C₂H₂.
223 The Tahoe SUV was deployed three times during BAQS for measurements of ambient
224 concentrations of CH₄ and C₂H₂ near oil and gas activities, encompassing both study periods.
225 Mobile nephelometer and BC data were collected during the second study period. Whole air

226 canister grab samples also were collected and analyzed for VOCs as part of the mobile
227 measurements in March 2014. Mobile measurements were conducted while driving ~50 km
228 per hour on mostly main roads throughout the Bakken region. Measurement locations were
229 chosen to represent a combination of areas of high oil and gas activity and locations where little
230 or no oil and gas activities were present. When elevated concentrations of CH₄ were observed,
231 nearby upwind sources were investigated. When a source was confirmed, based on elevated
232 methane concentrations and wind direction, the vehicle was stopped and measurements were
233 made downwind of the site. For the measurements in this manuscript, no vehicular traffic was
234 observed within the operator's visual range.

235 A detailed description of the Picarro analyzer is presented by *Mønster et al.* (2014). Briefly, a
236 Cavity Ringdown Spectroscopy (CRDS) instrument was used to quantify ambient concentrations
237 of CH₄ and C₂H₂. The inlet of the system was located on a mast secured in front of the vehicle,
238 at a height of 3 meters. Teflon tubing was used to direct the airflow from the inlet to the
239 analyzer at 5 LPM. The A0941 mobile unit was equipped with a Climatronics sonic anemometer
240 for wind speed and direction and a GPS unit for location. Data were collected at 3 Hz.

241 A microAeth Model AE51 (AethLabs) with a measurement wavelength of 880 nm was used for
242 measuring ambient concentrations of BC. A more detailed description and characterization of
243 the microAeth is presented by *Cai et al.* (2014). One minute data were collected at a flow of
244 200 ccm. The microAeth inlet was comprised of black conductive tubing (~20 cm long) which
245 was located outside of the back passenger side window of the Tahoe SUV.

246 **3. Results and Discussion**

247 The objectives of the field studies were to provide initial information on the composition and
248 properties of particulate and gaseous pollutants in national park units in the region and at
249 MELA, a Class 1 US Fish and Wildlife area. In this paper we take a broad look at measurements
250 from the study and explore the representativeness of the study time period. We also provide
251 some highlights from the study, with a focus on measurements of NO_x, SO₂, EC/BC and some
252 VOCs, all primary emissions from the energy industry, and address the question of whether
253 energy development in the Bakken is impacting air quality in national parks and other federal
254 lands in the region. More detailed results from all of the measurements, as well as source
255 apportionment, will be presented in forthcoming publications.

256 **3.1. Study Representativeness**

257 Before presenting measurements from these studies, we first examine monitoring data during
258 the two time periods of the intensive field campaigns to determine if the measurement periods
259 were typical for the region. To this end, we use long term air monitoring data from the region
260 (EPA AirData: <https://ofmext.epa.gov/AQDMRS/aqdmrs.html>). In Figure 2, box plots of mean
261 daily values of SO₂ and NO₂ concentrations at THRO-N are presented for all available data since
262 2000. Data also are shown separately for each month of the BAQS study periods. As shown in
263 Figure 2, there was significant variability for SO₂ and NO₂ during the study periods; e.g. daily
264 average concentrations of NO₂ ranged from near zero to 7 ppbv. March and December 2013
265 showed elevated concentrations of both species at THRO-N, with median values for both
266 months falling above the 75th percentile, and December 2013 having the highest median
267 concentrations for each of these species during the two intensive study periods. Using the
268 Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, we determined that March and December 2013 were the only two

269 months during the studies in which NO₂ and SO₂ were both significantly greater than the
270 historical data ($p < 0.05$). To better understand the cause for the elevated concentrations,
271 hourly ensemble back trajectories with a maximum length of 5 days were generated using
272 version 4.9 of the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model
273 (Draxler and Hess, 1998), as shown in Figure 3 for NO₂ data collected during the two study
274 periods. Gridded meteorological data from the 12-km North American Mesoscale Model
275 (NAM12, <http://www.emc.ncep.noaa.gov/NAM/.php>) (Janjić, 2003) were used as input. During
276 the study period, back trajectory analysis showed that the periods with highest concentrations
277 (top 5%) for SO₂ and NO₂ corresponded to trajectories that were shorter (slower speeds) and
278 were more likely to be impacted by closer sources. In contrast, the lower concentration days
279 had higher wind speeds and winds were preferentially from the west.

280 Although NO₂ and SO₂ were significantly higher at THRO-N in March and December 2013, EC
281 concentrations from the IMPROVE network (<http://views.cira.colostate.edu/fed/>; (Malm et al.,
282 1994)) at THRO-S were not elevated relative to historical data (Figure S2). EC typically peaks in
283 summer, when wildfires influence much of the west. Further, THRO-S is at the southern end of
284 the oil and gas fields and winds at THRO-S are primarily out of the northwest and south, so that
285 THRO-S may be less influenced by oil and gas emissions. Comparing EC concentrations across
286 the region during the study period, we observed an increase in EC in going from THRO-S
287 northward to THRO-N and LOST (discussed further below). Thus aerosol concentrations at
288 THRO-S may be driven more by regional reductions in particulate matter (Figure S1), while sites
289 farther north appear to be impacted by local sources. Considering both THRO-N and THRO-S
290 measurements, we find no instances from the two study periods when the median values for all

291 three species fell outside of the interquartile range, indicating that regionally the study periods
292 were not anomalous relative to past years.

293 **3.2. Changing Emissions and Impacts on Regional Air Quality**

294 Across the United States, emissions from power plants have decreased dramatically in recent
295 decades as the result of legislatively mandated controls, leading to broad improvements in air
296 quality (Hand et al., 2014;Rieder et al., 2013;Sickles and Shadwick, 2015). In the region
297 surrounding the Bakken, annual power plant SO₂ emissions have decreased four-fold over the
298 past 20 years and NO_x emissions have been cut in half (<http://ampd.epa.gov/ampd/>). At the
299 same time, the number of producing oil and gas wells in the ND Bakken region increased by
300 nearly a factor of 50 (<https://www.dmr.nd.gov/oilgas/>) from January 2005 to January 2015. To
301 better understand the impact of these changing emissions, we again use long term monitoring
302 data.

303 Figure 4 shows annually averaged SO₂ concentrations collected from monitoring sites at six
304 locations in western ND (EPA AirData; Figure 1). THRO-N, THRO-S, and LOST all fall within the
305 area with oil and gas activities, although, as noted above, THRO-S may be influenced more by
306 regional trends than local sources. Dunn falls on the outskirts of the Bakken region. Beulah and
307 Hannover both lie to the east of most of the activity, near KNRI and several coal-fired power
308 plants (see Figure 1), which represent major sources of SO₂ in the region. As shown in Figure 4,
309 SO₂ concentrations are declining throughout the region, particularly at sites closer to the power
310 plants, consistent with observations in the eastern United States (Sickles and Shadwick,
311 2015;Hand et al., 2012b) and decreasing SO₂ emissions from power plants across the United
312 States. These reductions were determined to be significant at all of the sites in Figure 4 except

313 LOST and THRO-N using the Theil-Sen method (Sen, 1968;Theil, 1950) for trend analysis
314 ($p < 0.001$; monthly averaged values). Trend analysis throughout the paper was conducted using
315 the Open Air package in R (Carslaw and Ropkins, 2012; Carslaw, 2014).

316 Despite these reductions, power plants still represent a large source of SO_2 in the region,
317 exceeding that from oil and gas development (<http://ampd.epa.gov/ampd/>; (Grant et al.,
318 2014)). The influence of SO_2 emissions from regional power plants was observed during BAQS
319 on multiple occasions. In Figure 5, SO_2 concentrations from the URG samplers at four sites are
320 shown for the first study period. Data are presented based on the time resolution at which
321 they were collected (24 or 48 hr samples). Data collected using the real time SO_2 instrument at
322 THRO-N were compared to the URG data, and showed reasonable agreement averaging over
323 the same time periods (not shown; $R^2 = 0.87$; real time instrument produced higher values,
324 slope = 1.19). Apparent in the figure are the higher concentrations observed at KNRI, which is
325 located east of the Bakken and very near several power plants (Figure 1). We focus on two high
326 SO_2 events at KNRI during the first measurement campaign: February 20-22, 2013 (8 AM to 8
327 AM) and March 27-29, 2013 (8 AM to 8 AM). On February 20-22, 48 hour average
328 concentrations at KNRI were ~ 8 ppbv, the highest concentrations observed during the study.
329 During this event, none of the other sites had elevated SO_2 . Comparing back-trajectories for
330 each of the sites, we see that the air masses which impacted KNRI during this two day period
331 passed directly over several coal-fired power plants (Figure 6a), while the air masses reaching
332 the other sites had very little influence from these same plants. Further, the air masses which
333 reached THRO-N during this time period spent minimal time in the Bakken region, and NO_x and
334 BC concentrations at THRO-N were relatively low during this event (Figure 7).

335 During the episode on March 27-29 slower moving air masses with changing wind directions
336 impacted THRO-N, as well as FOUS and MELA, and the airmasses spent more time over the
337 Bakken region (Figure 6b), yielding considerably higher concentrations of NO_x and BC at the
338 core site (Figure 7). However, the air masses which reached THRO-N had only a minor influence
339 from emissions sources east of the Bakken, and SO₂ concentrations were again low. While
340 THRO-N, MELA and FOUS were minimally impacted by power plants, KNRI was impacted by
341 several plants on these dates, and KNRI had elevated SO₂ concentrations at this time (Figure 5).
342 These observations are consistent with regional power plants largely influencing SO₂
343 concentrations, and emissions sources from within the Bakken, likely tied to the many sources
344 associated with oil and gas activities, leading to the observed increases in NO_x and BC.

345 Long-term monitoring data for NO₂ (EPA AirData) are consistent with these observations and
346 provide an interesting contrast to SO₂. Like SO₂, NO₂ concentrations have decreased in
347 Hannover and Beulah (Figure 8), east of the Bakken region ($p < 0.001$; Theil-Sen method,
348 monthly averaged values), likely driven by decreasing NO_x emissions from power plants. In
349 contrast, THRO-N and Dunn, within and at the outskirts of the oil and gas production region,
350 show no significant trends when considering the entire time period shown. However, when
351 limiting the data to the past 10 years (2005-2014), when oil and gas activities intensified,
352 significant increasing trends in NO₂ are observed at both THRO-N and Dunn ($p < 0.001$; Theil-Sen
353 method, monthly averaged values). Finally, LOST shows a significant ($p < 0.001$; Theil-Sen
354 method, monthly averaged values) trend of increasing NO₂ throughout the time period shown.
355 These changes are consistent with increasing NO_x emissions from oil and gas activities, which
356 more than doubled in the Williston Basin from 2009 to 2011 and are expected to continue to

357 increase (Grant et al., 2014). Unlike SO₂, NO_x emissions from oil and gas are similar in
358 magnitude to those from regional power plants ((Grant et al., 2014);
359 <http://ampd.epa.gov/ampd/>). Trends of increasing NO₂ have also been observed in the
360 Marcellus Shale region (Carlton et al., 2014) and the Canadian Oil Sands (McLinden et al., 2012),
361 with increases corresponding to increased activities related to oil and gas extraction.

362 To further explore the influence of oil and gas emissions, we consider monitoring data at LOST.
363 Focusing on NO₂ and segregating measurements by local wind direction, we find significant
364 ($p < 0.01$; Theil-Sen method, monthly averaged values) trends of increasing NO₂ only when winds
365 are out of the W, SW and S (Figure 9), areas with major oil and gas development. EC
366 concentrations from IMPROVE, which have many of the same sources as NO₂, showed an
367 identical pattern. In contrast, the only significant trend for SO₂ at LOST is for winds out of the
368 south, where concentrations have decreased, likely from decreasing power plant emissions.

369 **3.3. Oil and Gas Impacts on Regional Air Quality**

370 To better establish a connection between measured pollutants at the study sites and regional
371 oil and gas activities, we consider data from the second study period, November 23, 2013 –
372 March 28, 2014. These measurements included the use of canisters to collect air samples for
373 analysis of key tracer species. Of particular interest for the Bakken are the light alkanes, which
374 serve as markers for oil and gas activity (e.g. (Gilman et al., 2013;Petron et al., 2012;Swarthout
375 et al., 2013;Swarthout et al., 2015)). Figure 10 summarizes measurements of ethane, propane,
376 n- butane, and n-pentane throughout the campaign at all three sites. The mean ethane and
377 propane mixing ratios from all three sites were 16 and 15 ppbv, respectively, with maximum
378 values approaching 100 ppbv for ethane and 150 ppbv for propane. The i-butane levels ranged

379 from 0.1 ppbv - 22 ppbv, and n-butane peaked over 60 ppbv. The i-pentane and n-pentane had
380 comparable mixing ratios with mean concentrations of ~1.2 ppbv (range <0.1 ppbv - 17 ppbv).
381 These concentrations are significantly higher than typically observed in remote regions (Russo
382 et al., 2010b) and are comparable to levels observed in urban areas known to be influenced by
383 petrochemical industry emissions, as has been observed in other oil and gas basins (Swarthout
384 et al., 2013; Swarthout et al., 2015). Despite variability in absolute concentrations throughout
385 the study, these data provide evidence that emissions related to oil and gas activities were
386 observed at THRO-S, FOUS, and MELA during the second study period.

387 To better characterize the extent of this impact, we focus on pentane measurements from all of
388 the sites. Recent studies have used the ratio of pentane isomers to identify air masses that are
389 influenced by oil and gas emissions. Although this ratio varies by basin, a ratio of i-pentane to
390 n-pentane which falls at or below one is generally indicative of oil and gas emissions (Swarthout
391 et al., 2013; Swarthout et al., 2015; Gilman et al., 2013), whereas higher ratios correspond to
392 background conditions, largely resulting from automobile emissions and fuel evaporation (e.g.
393 (Russo et al., 2010b)). The i-pentane to n-pentane ratios for all sites for the entire sampling
394 period are shown in Figure 11; the slope is 0.77. Although there is scatter in the data,
395 particularly at the lowest concentrations; only two out of 287 samples at THRO-N, FOUS and
396 MELA had i-pentane to n-pentane ratios that were consistent with background air; all other
397 samples indicated oil and gas influence. These data not only confirm that oil and gas emissions
398 are impacting the region, but also that this influence was present at nearly all times during the
399 second study period.

400 Mobile measurements collected throughout the Bakken region support these data.

401 Background concentrations for CH₄ observed in the Bakken region for the sampling period of
402 December 10-16, 2013 were 2.2 ± 0.4 ppmv, above expected background levels of <2 ppmv for
403 a remote location (Farrell et al., 2013; Wofsy et al., 2011), with peak measured concentrations
404 reaching 16.1 ppmv (1 min average). BC concentrations also were elevated for a remote region,
405 with average concentrations of 900 ± 100 ng m⁻³. To better demonstrate the direct impact of
406 oil and gas activities on these species in the region, two mobile sampling periods from the
407 Bakken region are shown in Figure 12. One set of measurements was located on the Indian Hill
408 oil field, where there was an active flare at the time of the measurement. The other set of
409 measurements was located on the Painted Woods oil field, with no active flare. Figure 12a
410 shows the data collected near the Indian Hill location (active flare) where an increase in CH₄
411 concentrations corresponded to high concentrations of BC. During the flaring, maximum BC
412 concentrations near the site were approximately 4 times higher than the regional BC
413 concentrations. The data collected from the Painted Woods oil field, with no active flare, are
414 shown in Figure 12b. Without flaring, these measurements show elevated CH₄ concentrations
415 (~7 times above the regional background average), with no corresponding increase in the BC.
416 These areas thus provide sources of VOCs, and, when flaring is present, BC.

417 Using the light alkanes as markers for local oil and gas activities, we compared alkane
418 concentrations to measurements of NO_x, SO₂ and BC throughout the second study period.
419 Timelines of all of these species are shown in Figure 13 for THRO-N. In the figure, we use
420 ethane as a marker for oil and gas emissions, but all of the light alkanes showed similar results.
421 NO_x, SO₂ and BC concentrations are daily average values; in contrast, ethane data are calculated

422 as the average of two grab samples per day: one collected in the morning (typically 8 AM), and
423 one collected in the afternoon (typically 4 PM). Concentrations of NO_x and BC were correlated
424 with ethane (correlation coefficients, $r = 0.75$ for NO_x and $r = 0.70$ for BC) throughout the study
425 period. Although these measurements do not identify which emissions source drives the
426 elevated concentrations for NO_x and BC, the data suggest that VOCs, NO_x and BC likely have
427 collocated sources. SO₂ was not as strongly correlated with ethane ($r = 0.42$). The lower
428 correlation is presumably because SO₂ comes largely from different sources, as discussed
429 above.

430 Measurements collected at THRO-N as part of the first intensive study (February – April 2013)
431 also showed that NO_x and EC were correlated (Figure 7; $r = 0.81$ for 1 hour data) with elevated
432 concentrations observed throughout the campaign. Although we did not make routine
433 measurements of VOCs during the first study period, we expect that these measurements were
434 likely impacted by similar sources as observed in the second study period; i.e. oil and gas
435 related emissions. Hourly NO_x and EC concentrations reached 10 ppbv and $1.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
436 respectively, during the first study period; the maximum observed hourly SO₂ concentration
437 was just over 9 ppbv. As discussed above, higher concentrations for all species typically were
438 observed during periods of low wind speeds and changing wind directions. Such conditions
439 allow pollutants to accumulate in the region, particularly those with local sources.

440 The data shown thus far suggest that emissions from oil and gas activities are impacting air
441 quality in the region, raising ambient concentrations of VOCs, NO_x, and EC. Next, we use VOC
442 measurements to estimate the amount of photochemical processing within the air masses that

443 reached THRO-N during the study. To this end, we use the alkyl nitrate to parent hydrocarbon
444 ratios ($R\text{-ONO}_2/R\text{-H}$) to estimate air mass age for measurements at THRO-N (e.g. (Bertman et
445 al., 1995; Russo et al., 2010a; Simpson et al., 2003; Swarthout et al., 2013)). The modeled ratios
446 of 2-pentyl nitrate to n-pentane versus 2-butyl nitrate to n-butane are presented in Figure 14
447 (solid line) along with the measurements of these species. For the model, a diurnally averaged
448 OH concentration of 5×10^5 molec/cm³ was assumed. The measured ratios fall on the modeled
449 line, suggesting that the photochemical sources of the alkyl nitrates are reasonably well
450 represented in the model. Results indicate a photochemical processing time of <2 days
451 throughout the majority of the campaign. These results are similar to wintertime VOC
452 measurements in the Denver-Julesburg basin in NE Colorado (Swarthout et al., 2013). For a
453 windspeed of 1.44 m s^{-1} , the median windspeed observed at THRO-N during the second study, a
454 processing time of 2 days corresponds to a transport distance of ~ 250 km. Because the absolute
455 air mass age determined from the estimates are OH radical concentration dependent, these
456 estimates are subject to uncertainty. However, the results show that processes are occurring
457 on relatively short time scales and are associated with fresh emissions, rather than aged
458 airmasses, and so point to emissions within the Bakken, rather than long range transport from
459 other oil and gas basins. NO_x and BC concentrations also are shown on the alkyl nitrate
460 evolution plots in Figure 14a and 14b, respectively. These data show that the highest levels of
461 NO_x and BC occur in air masses with short processing times (<12 hours), consistent with the
462 data presented thus far, and further implicating local sources for NO_x and BC; this is particularly
463 relevant for BC, which has a longer atmospheric lifetime. A similar plot is shown for SO_2 in
464 Figure S3.

465 **EC Concentrations and Well Counts**

466 If we assume that THRO-S is representative of background aerosol changes, as discussed above,
467 then the ratio of concentrations from surrounding sites relative to THRO-S represents the
468 influence of changing emissions from local sources. As such, we compared the ratio of
469 concentrations from several sites relative to THRO-S, for species monitored as part of the
470 IMPROVE network. For EC measurements made since 2000, all regional IMPROVE sites north of
471 THRO-S show significant increases relative to THRO-S, while regional IMPROVE sites to the
472 south show decreases relative to THRO-S (Figure S4 in the Supplemental Material). These data
473 are consistent with improving regional air quality, and increasing EC sources north of THRO-S,
474 likely from flaring, diesel traffic, and the many diesel engines used in oil and gas activities.
475 THRO-S is likely impacted some from local emissions, but there is a clear gradient in EC trends
476 (Figures S1 and S4). Nitrate shows a similar pattern to EC, with sites to the north increasing
477 relative to THRO-S, and sites to the south decreasing relative to THRO-S. In the case of nitrate,
478 however, not all of these trends are statistically significant. Unlike EC, the trends in nitrate are
479 confounded by the fact that nitrate is not a primary emission and the monitoring sites are very
480 near the source of precursor NO_x . The ability of NO_x emitted from oil and gas activities to form
481 ammonium nitrate particles, after being converted to HNO_3 , also depends on the availability of
482 background ammonia (Li et al., 2014).

483 Focusing on EC, Figure 15 presents a timeline of the ratios of EC concentrations from Figure S4
484 for two sites north of THRO-S (LOST and MELA), plotted along with data corresponding to oil
485 and gas activities in the region, represented by the number of wells within 100 km of the site of
486 interest. A distance of 100 km was chosen to limit the comparison to development in the

487 Bakken region (see Figure 1). Of the wells that were within 100 km, wells were weighted
488 according to distance from the site as $1/\text{distance}$, in km, to account for the greater
489 contributions of wells nearer to the sampling sites. For example, a well that is located 1 km
490 from the site would be weighted as $1 \text{ well}/1 \text{ km} = 1 \text{ well}$; whereas a well which is 100 km from
491 the site would be weighted as $1 \text{ well}/100 \text{ km} = 0.010 \text{ well}$. Well data were downloaded in
492 February 2015 from the relevant state and provincial websites for ND, SD, MT, Saskatchewan
493 and Manitoba. These websites provide different milestone dates from which the years that the
494 wells were completed were estimated. For example, ND includes spud date, while MT includes
495 well completion date. Data also were filtered to include only wells that were active/producing
496 at the time of the download; as such, wells that were active at an earlier date, but were
497 plugged prior to 2015, were not included. Despite these shortcomings, these data provide a
498 reasonable estimate for the year in which wells began operation. As indicated in Figure 15, at
499 both sites we observe an increase in EC concentrations at the given site, relative to THRO-S,
500 corresponding to increases in regional oil and gas activities, as designated by well counts. This
501 increase is more evident at LOST, where there is more oil and gas development. For MELA,
502 there is a much smaller increase in EC, relative to THRO-S, corresponding to fewer wells. For
503 both sites, most of the changes occur after about 2008, when oil and gas activities accelerated,
504 further suggesting that oil and gas activities are impacting air quality in national parks and Class
505 1 areas in the region.

506 **4. Summary and Conclusions**

507 Over the past 10 years, the Bakken region has seen a tremendous increase in oil and gas
508 extraction, such that North Dakota is now the second leading oil producing state in the United

509 States (www.eia.gov). Combined with decreasing emissions from power plants, new emissions
510 sources related to oil and gas activities are playing an increasingly important role in regional air
511 quality. In response to these changes, the Bakken Air Quality Study was conducted to better
512 characterize the impact of these changing emissions sources on federal lands in the region.
513 Measurements were carried out at multiple sites during two study periods (February - April
514 2013; November 2013 – March 2014), along with mobile measurements made throughout the
515 region during select time periods.

516 Results from BAQS demonstrate that oil and gas emissions are impacting air quality at THRO,
517 FOUS, MELA and LOST, with larger effects observed in those areas near the most extensive oil
518 and gas development. The impacts include higher ambient concentrations of VOCs, NO_x and
519 EC, offsetting some of the benefits from decreased power plant emissions. Although the
520 observed concentrations fall well below the National Ambient Air Quality Standards, they are
521 elevated for a remote area, and in some cases are increasing. Continued development is
522 expected to exacerbate these problems, particularly during periods when lower wind speeds
523 allow pollutants to accumulate and react in the atmosphere, forming secondary pollutants.
524 Stagnant air conditions have also been associated with health impacts in regions with
525 unconventional natural gas development (Brown et al., 2015).

526 New state regulations are in place to reduce emissions from flaring, a potentially major source
527 of pollutants in the area. However, even if flaring goals are met by 2020, up to 10% of the
528 produced gas will still be flared, far exceeding the national average. As such, efforts to identify

529 further reductions in emissions are needed to ensure that air quality in federal lands in the
530 region remains unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations.

531 **Acknowledgements**

532 This project was funded by the National Park Service. The CSU portion of the work was funded
533 by Cooperative Agreement H2370094000, Task Agreement P13AC01187. The authors wish to
534 thank the staffs at THRO, FOUS, MELA, and KNRI for site access and logistical support
535 throughout the study. The assumptions, findings, conclusions, judgments, and views presented
536 herein are those of the authors and should not be interpreted as necessarily representing the
537 NPS. IMPROVE Data: IMPROVE is a collaborative association of state, tribal, and federal
538 agencies, and international partners. US Environmental Protection Agency is the primary
539 funding source, with contracting and research support from the National Park Service. The Air
540 Quality Group at the University of California, Davis is the central analytical laboratory, with ion
541 analysis provided by Research Triangle Institute, and carbon analysis provided by Desert
542 Research Institute. EPA AirData: US Environmental Protection Agency. Air Quality System Data
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Table 1. Measurements from the first field campaign: February 15 - April 6, 2013.

Measurement Method	Measured Species	Time Resolution of available data	Notes	THRO-S	THRO-N	FOUS	KNRI	MELA
URG annular denuder/ filter-pack sampler	PM _{2.5} inorganic ions; NH ₃ , HNO ₃ , and SO ₂	See Methods section	Analysis with Dionex IC system		X	X	X	X
IMPROVE module A	PM _{2.5} mass, elemental composition	24 hr sample THRO-N: daily; Existing: every 3 days	Per IMPROVE protocol	Existing	X			Existing
Teledyne O ₃ or portable ozone monitors (POMs)	Ozone	Teledyne: 1 min POMS: 1 hr	Teledyne 400E at THRO-N; 2B Technologies at other sites	Existing	X	X	X	X
Continuous gaseous samplers	NO _x , NO, NO ₂ , SO ₂ , CO	1 min	See Methods section		X			
Automated precipitation (rain/snow) sampler	Wet Deposition	THRO-N: Samples collected daily; Satellite Sites: Twice per week	NCON Atmospheric Deposition Sampler/ National Trends Network (ADS/NTN); Yankee Envir. TPC 3000	Existing	X	X	X	X
Nephelometer	Particle light scattering	5 min	THRO-N: Radiance Research; KNRI: Ecotech		X		X	
Aethalometer	Black Carbon	5 min	Magee Scientific 7 wavelength		X			
Passive samplers	SO ₂ , NO ₂ , NH ₃ and O ₃	1 week	Radiello	X	X	X	X	X
Meteorological station	Surface meteorology	1 min at THRO-N and FOUS	Climatronics All-In- One Weather Sensor	Existing	X	X	Existing	Existing
Mobile Sampling	Methane and acetylene	3 Hz	Picarro G2203 with mobile kit A0941					

Table 2. Measurements from the second field campaign: November 23, 2013 - March 28, 2014.

Measurement Method	Measured Species	Time Resolution of available data	Notes	THRO-S	THRO-N	FOUS	KNRI	MELA
URG annular denuder/ filter-pack sampler	PM _{2.5} inorganic ions; NH ₃ , HNO ₃ , and SO ₂	See Methods section	Analysis with Dionex IC system		X	X		X
IMPROVE module A	PM _{2.5} mass, elemental composition	24 hr sample THRO-N: daily; Existing: every 3 days	Per IMPROVE protocol	Existing	X			Existing
IMPROVE module C	PM _{2.5} OC and EC	24 hr sample THRO-N: daily; Existing sites: every 3 days	Per IMPROVE protocol	Existing	X			Existing
Aerosol Mass Spectrometer	PM ₁ nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, organics	5 min	Aerodyne High Resolution Time of Flight		X			
MARGA (Monitor for Aerosol and Gases)	PM _{2.5} Inorganic ions; Gaseous NH ₃ , HNO ₃ , and SO ₂	1 hour	Applikon 1S		X			
Teledyne O ₃ or portable ozone monitors (POMs)	Ozone	Teledyne: 1 min POMS: 1 hr	Teledyne 400E at THRO-N; 2B Technologies at other sites	Existing	X	X		X
Continuous gaseous samplers	NO _x , NO, NO ₂ , CO, NO _y	1 min	See Methods section		X			
Automated precipitation (rain/snow) sampler	Wet Deposition	THRO-N: Samples Collected after precipitation	NCON ADS/NTN Sampler	Existing	X			
Nephelometer	Particle light scattering	5 min	THRO-N: Radiance Research; FOUS: Optec; MELA: Ecotech		X	X		X

Aethalometer	Black Carbon	5 min	Magee Scientific 7 wavelength	X		
TEOM	PM _{2.5} Mass	6 min	Thermo Scientific 1405-DF	X		
VOC canisters	VOCs	THRO-N: Twice per day; FOUS: 4 times per week; MELA: once per week	Analysis with 5-channel GC system; FID, ECD and MS	X	X	X
Proton Transfer Reaction-Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer (PTR-QMS)	VOCs	1-5 min Data available for ~5 weeks of the study	Ionic Analytik; Measurement site not collocated with core site measurements	X		
Meteorological station	Surface meteorology	1 min at THRO-N and FOUS	Climatronics All-In-One Weather Sensor	X	X	Existing
Mobile Measurements	VOC canisters; mini-aethalometer; nephelometer; acetylene; methane	Canisters: Grab Samples; MicroAeth: 1 min; Picarro: 3 Hz; Neph: 5 sec	AethLabs MicroAeth AE51; Radiance Research Nephelometer; Picarro G2203 with mobile kit A0941			

Figures

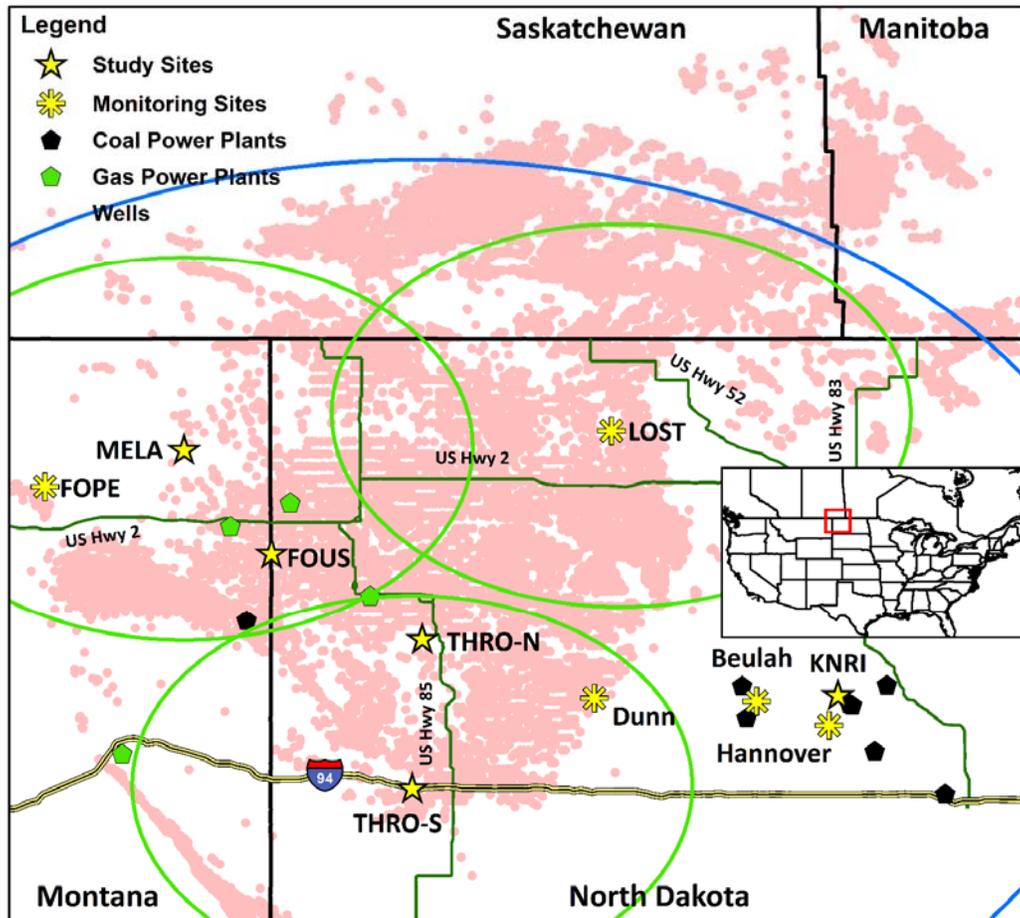


Figure 1. Map of study area, including state monitoring sites and regional power plants. For oil and gas wells, shapefiles were filtered to only include active/producing wells. For reference, the blue line represents 250 km from THRO-N, the distance traveled by an airmass in 48 hours, based on the median wind speed at the site during the study. Green lines represent 100 km distance from THRO-S, LOST, and MELA.

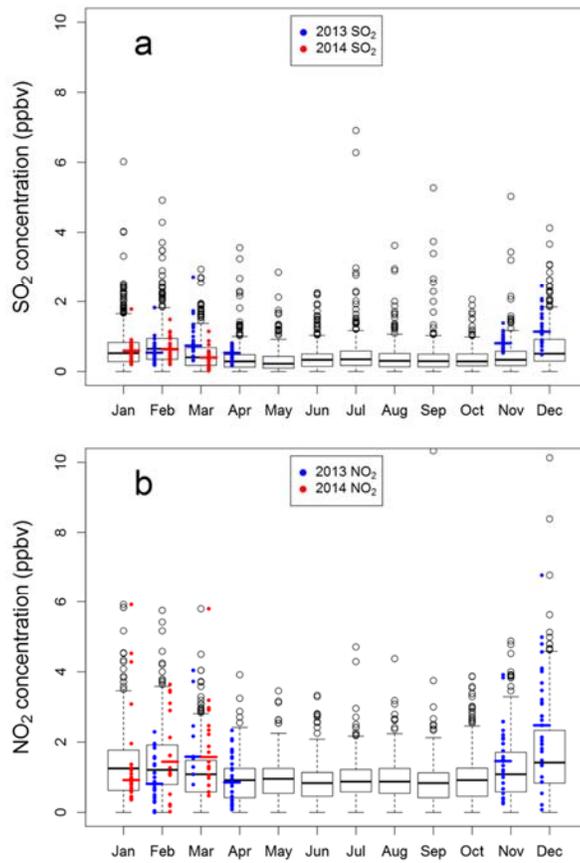


Figure 2. Box plots of daily mean concentrations for (a) SO₂ and (b) NO₂ at THRO-N, shown in black, for all data available from these sites dating back to 2000. Also shown are daily averaged data collected during the study periods in 2013 and 2014, with median concentrations shown as horizontal line segments.

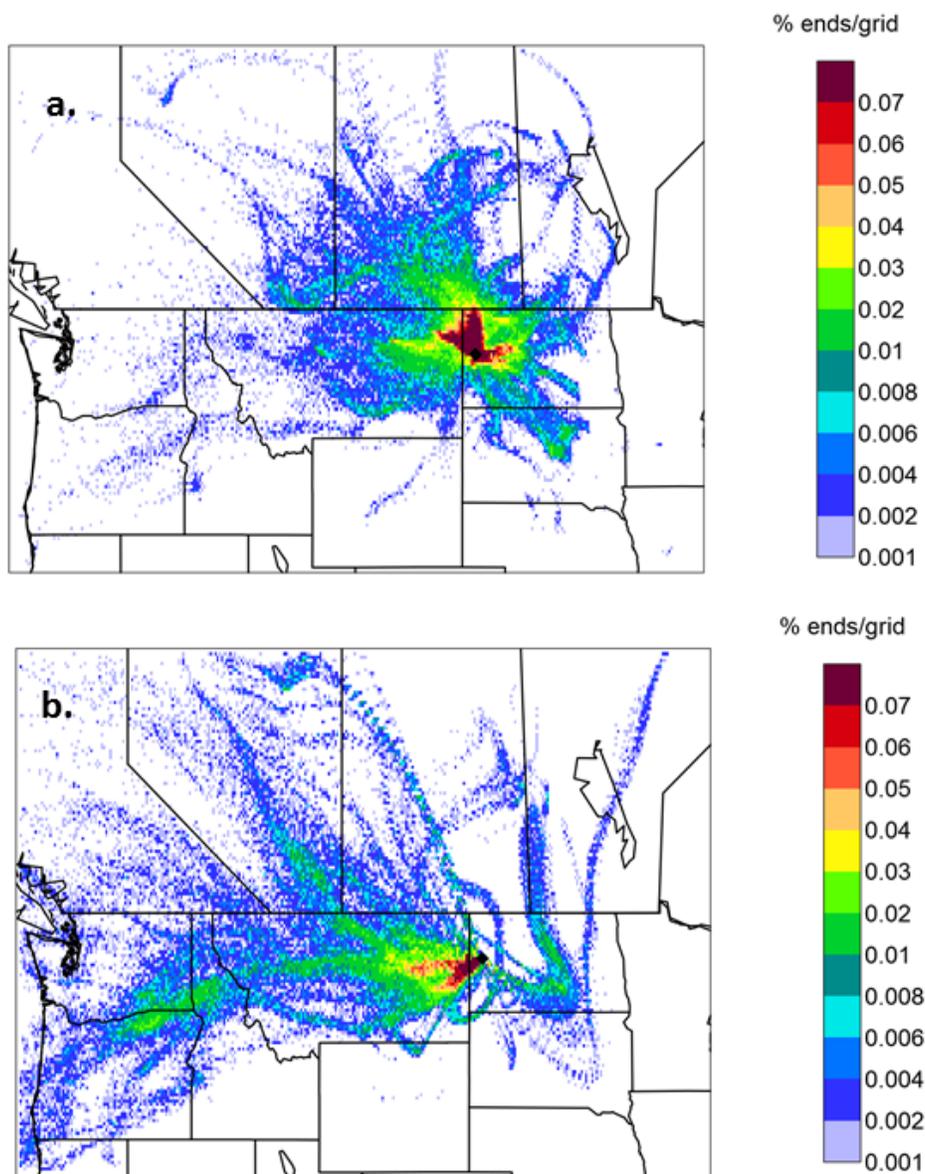
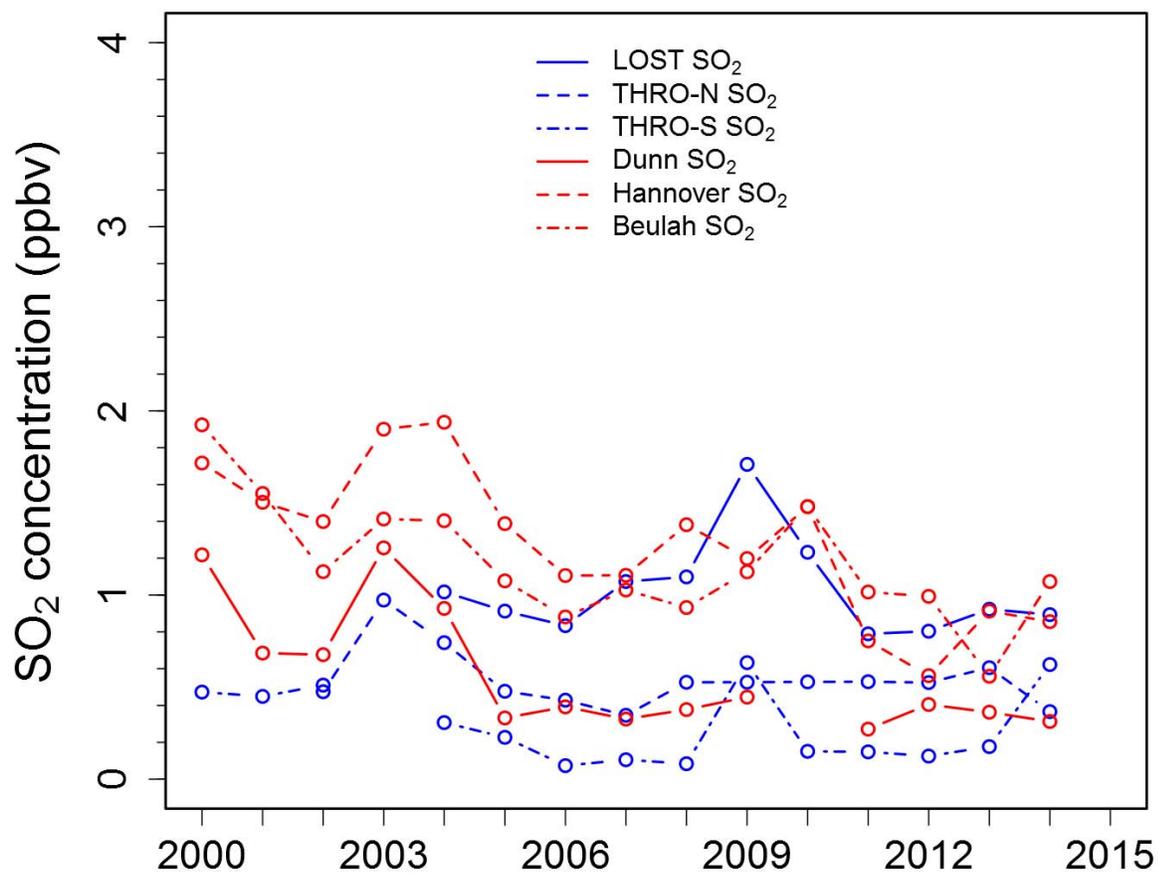


Figure 3. Back trajectory residence times showing areas where air masses resided during the two days prior to arriving at THRO-N. a) Trajectories arriving when the hourly NO₂ concentration was at the 95th percentile (4.63 ppb) or higher for the two Bakken Studies combined. b) Trajectories arriving when the hourly NO₂ concentration was at the 5th percentile (0.57 ppb) or lower for the combined measurements from both studies. Trajectories were generated using the Hysplit Model in ensemble mode with a start height of 10 m. All trajectories have a duration of two days, so longer lengths correspond to high wind speeds. Note that transport patterns associated with the highest concentrations tend to arrive from a smaller area, indicating probable stagnation, while those associated with the lowest concentrations correspond to travel from more distant areas, indicating high wind speeds, and are more predominantly from the west.



Figures 4. SO₂ monitoring data from the EPA AirData website. Data are annually averaged. Missing data points are for years which had less than 50% of the possible data.

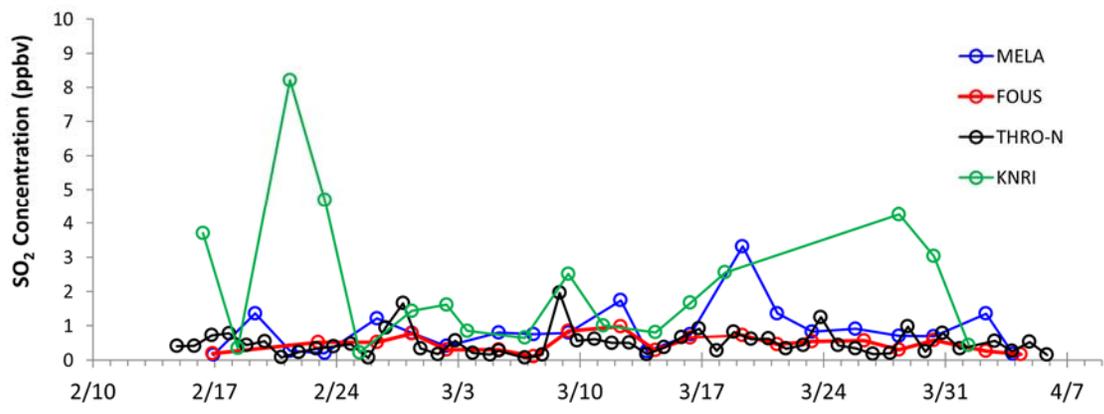


Figure 5. URG measurements of SO₂ from all of the field sites during the first study period.

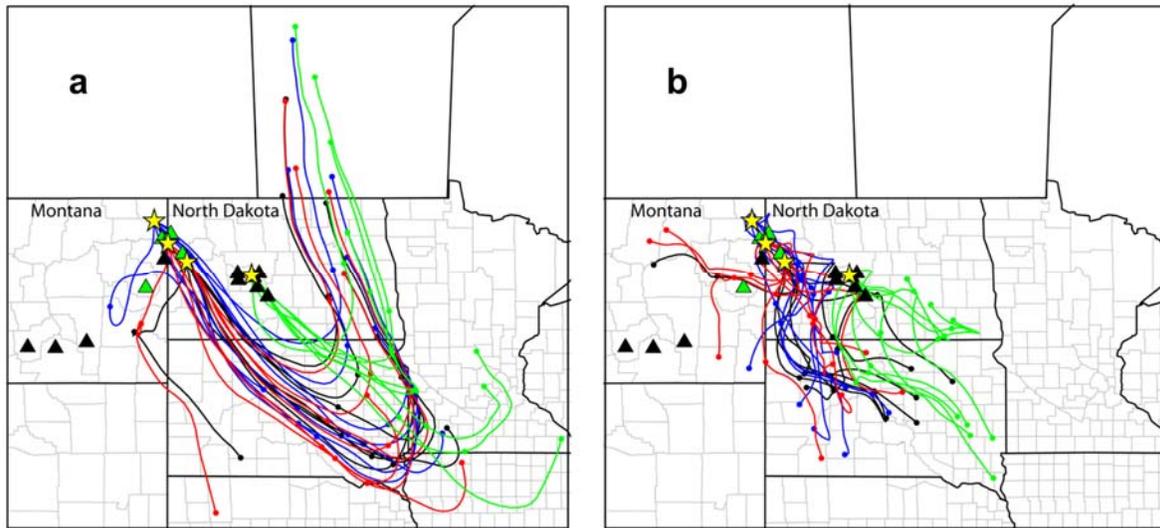


Figure 6. 48 hour back trajectories from THRO-N (black), MELA (blue), FOUS (red) and KNRI (green) for (a) February 20-February 22, 8 AM to 8 AM; and (b) March 27-March 29, 8 AM to 8 AM. Back trajectories were run four times per day. Each dot designates a 24 hour period. Field sites are shown as gold stars. Power plants are shown as triangles, with black triangles representing coal-powered plants, and green triangles representing gas-powered plants.

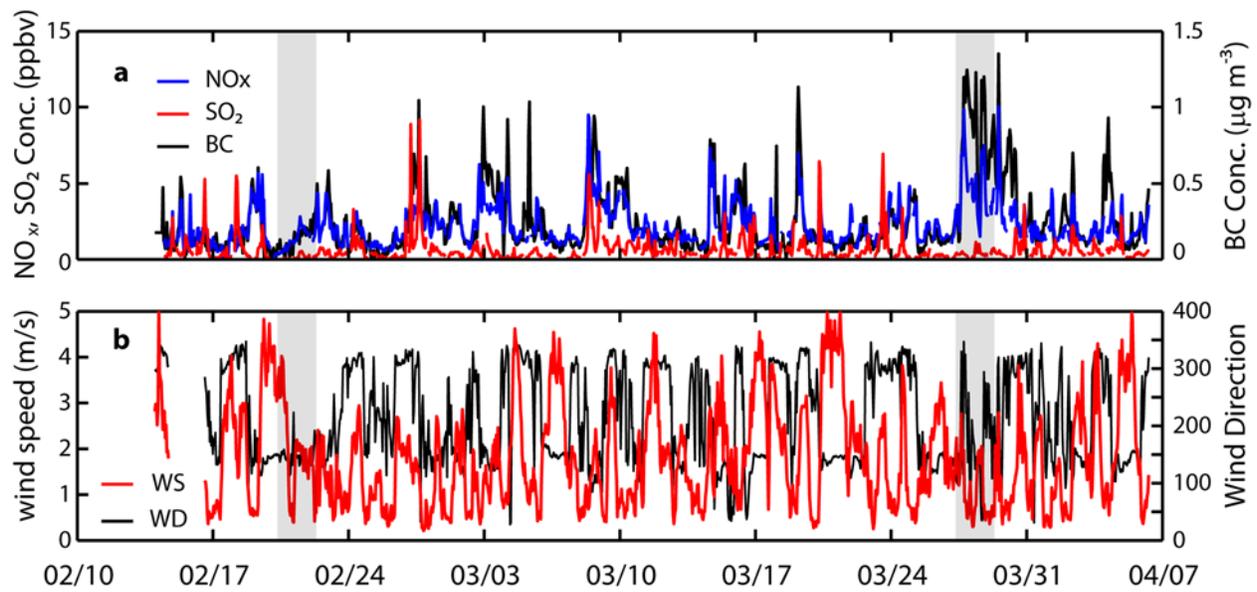
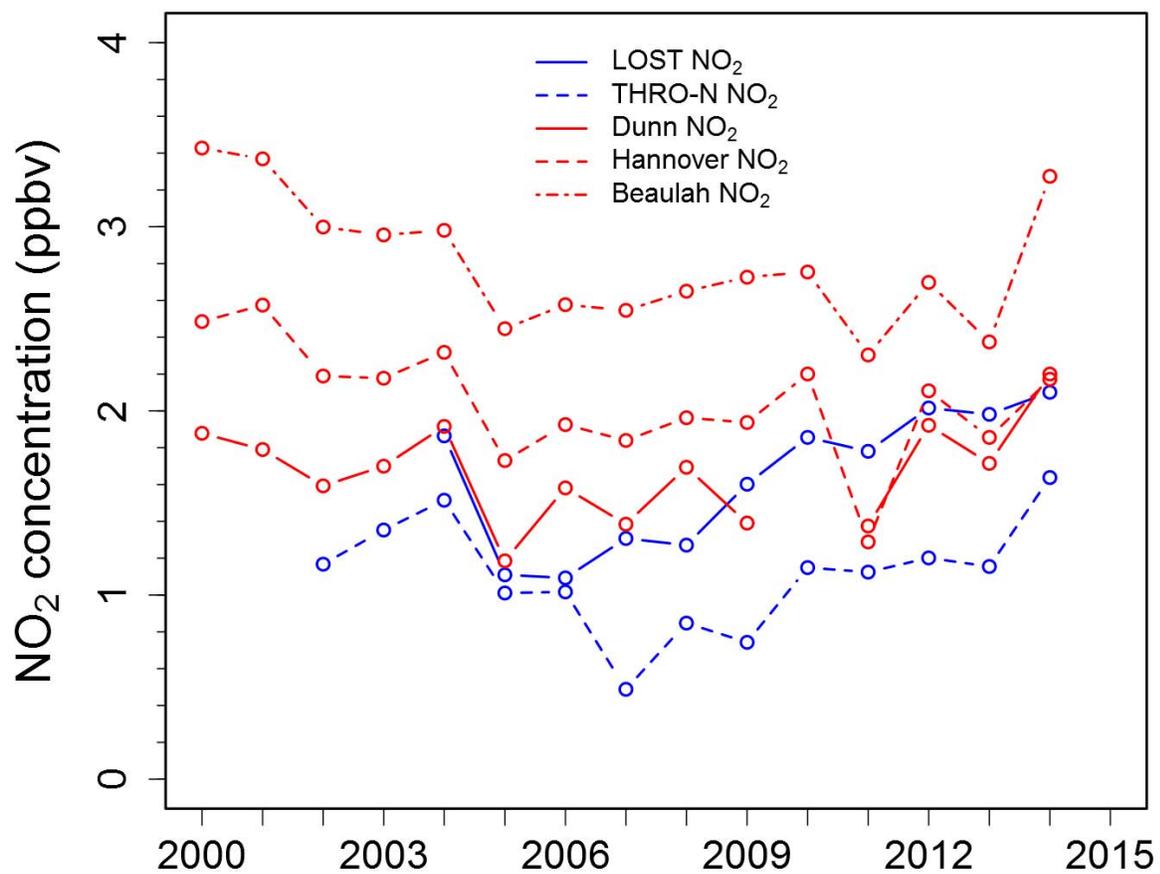


Figure 7. Measurements during the first study period (Feb-April 2013) at THRO-N of hourly averaged (a) NO_x (blue), SO₂ (red), and BC (black); and (b) wind speed (red) and wind direction (black). Shaded areas indicate time periods discussed in the text and shown in Figure 6.



Figures 8. NO₂ monitoring data from the EPA AirData website. Data are annually averaged. Missing data points are for years which had less than 50% of the possible data.

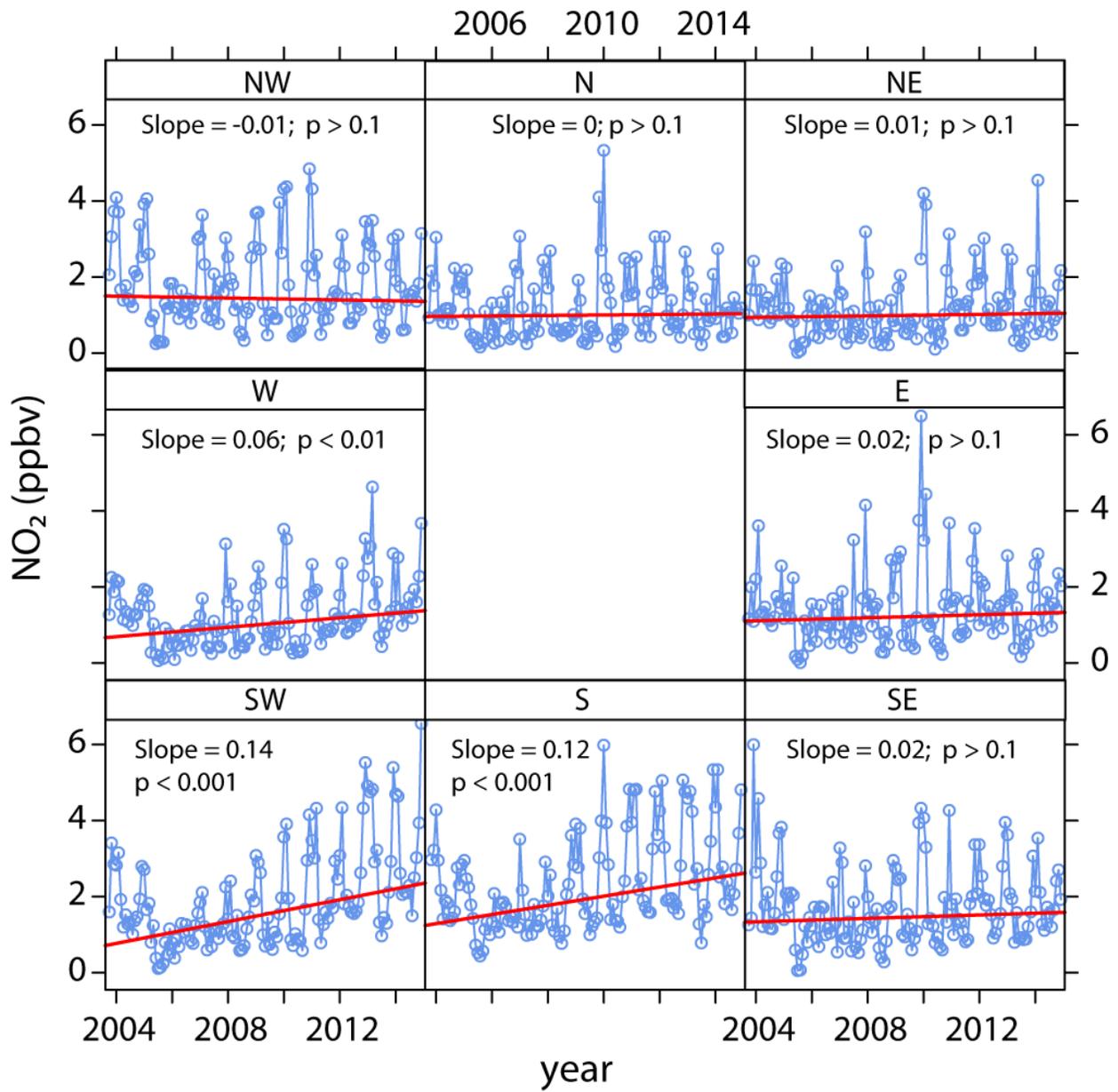


Figure 9. Trends in NO₂ data from Lostwood, segregated by wind direction. Slope is per year.

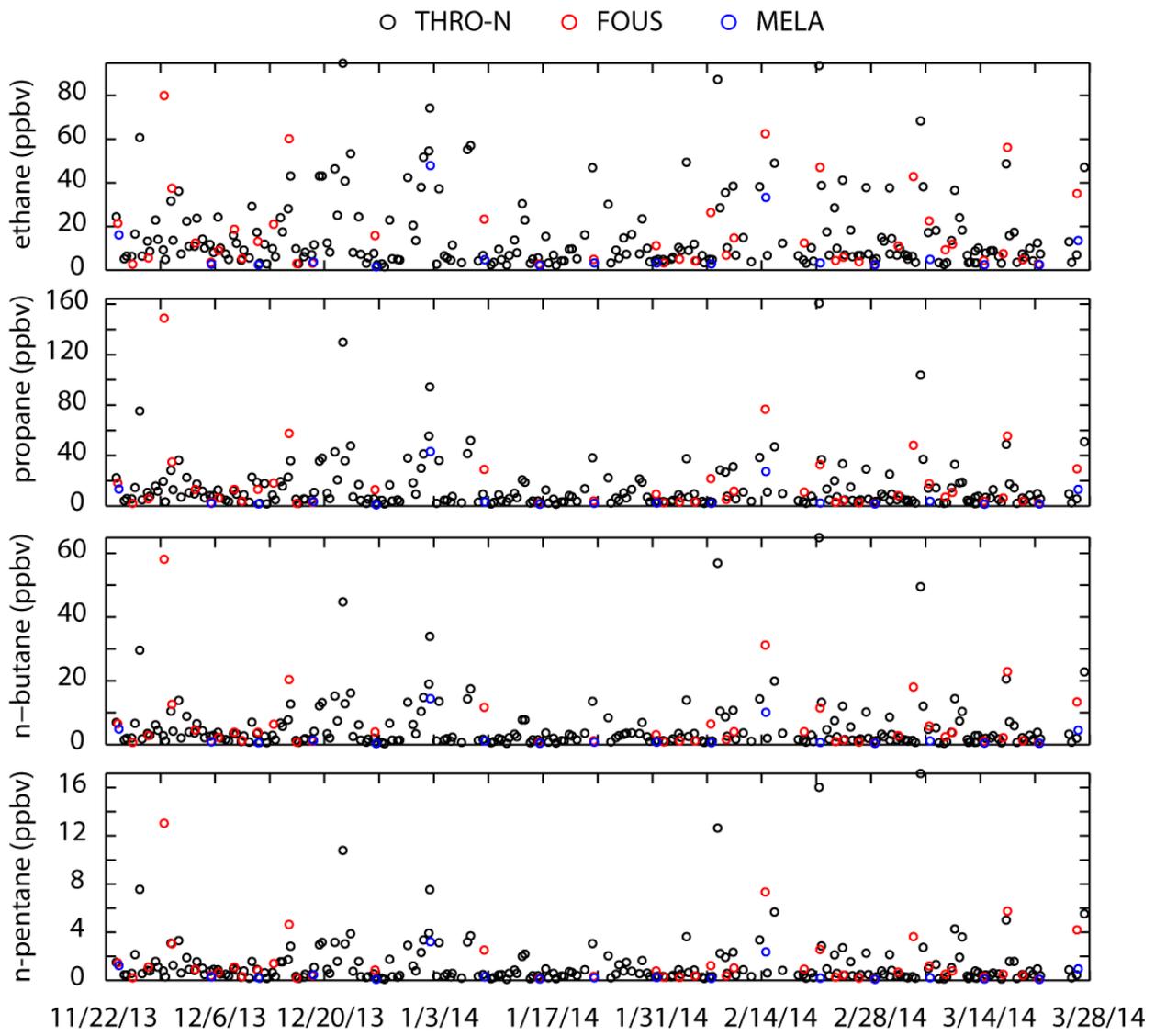


Figure 10. Timeline of light alkane concentrations at THRO-N, FOUS and MELA during the second study period (November 2013 – March 2014). All data are from grab samples.

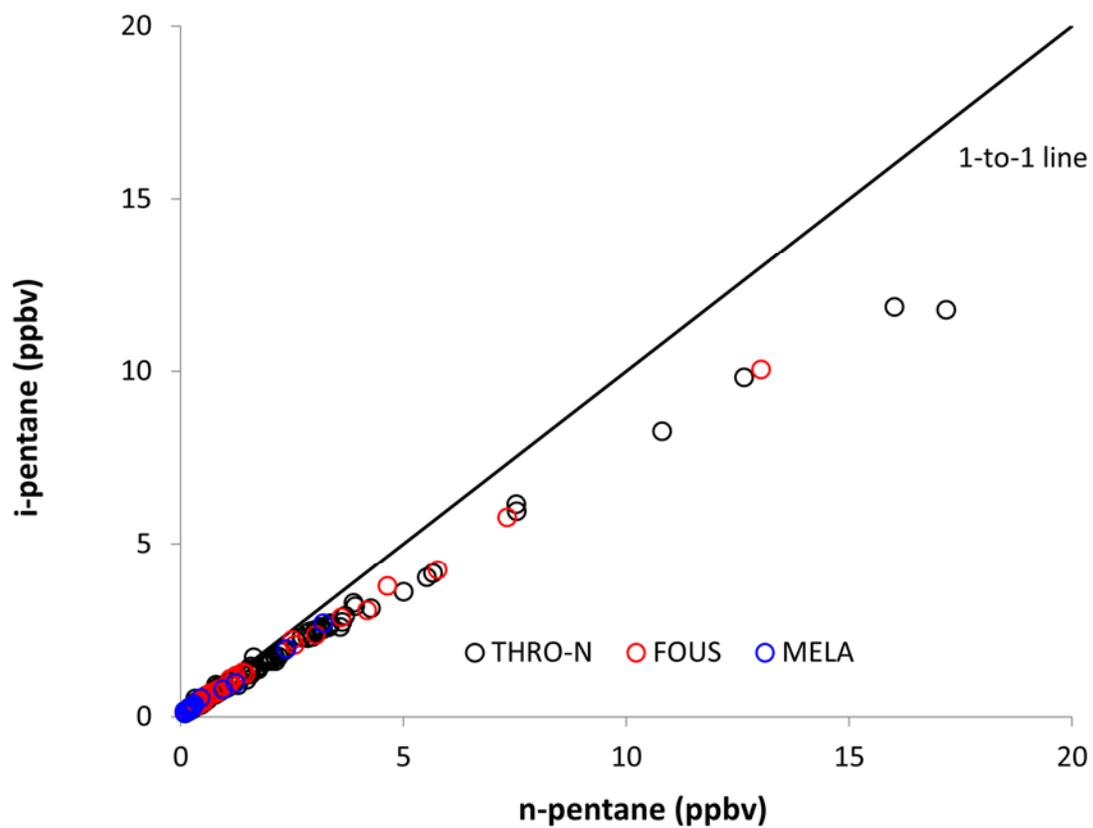


Figure 11. Ratio of iso- to n-pentane for canister samples collected at THRO-N, FOUS, and MELA throughout the second study period.

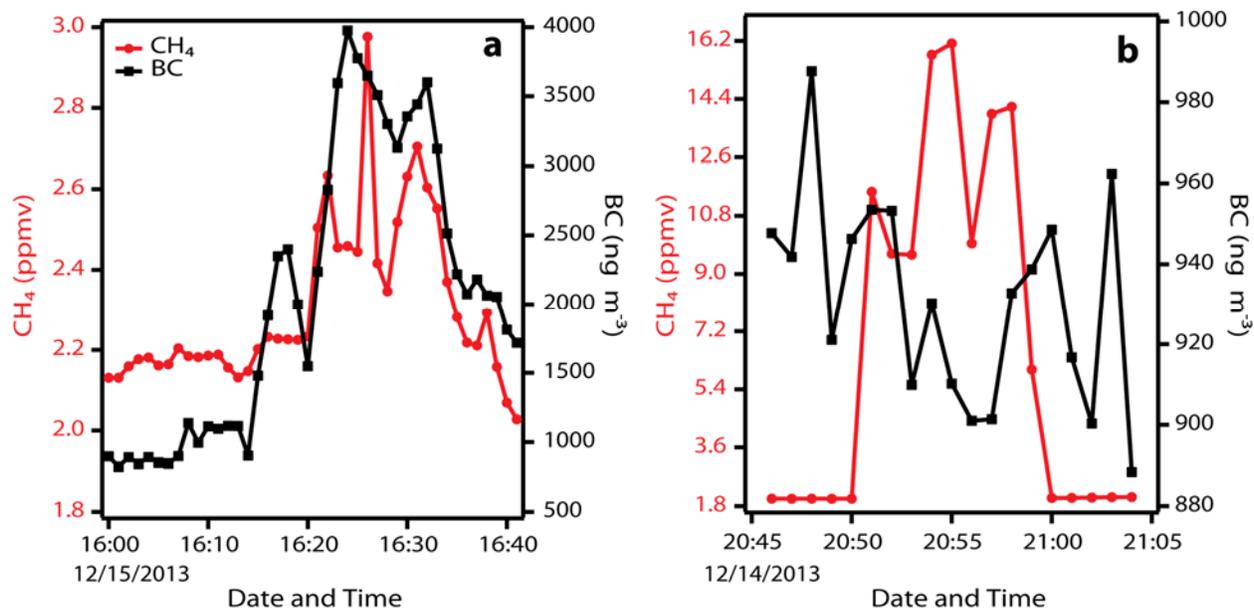


Figure 12. Concentrations of CH₄ (ppmv) and BC (ng m⁻³). a) Measurements collected near a well with an active flare at Indian Hill; and b) measurements collected downwind of a site in Painted Woods oil field, with multiple well-heads and collection tanks, but no flare. Note the difference in scale for the two plots.

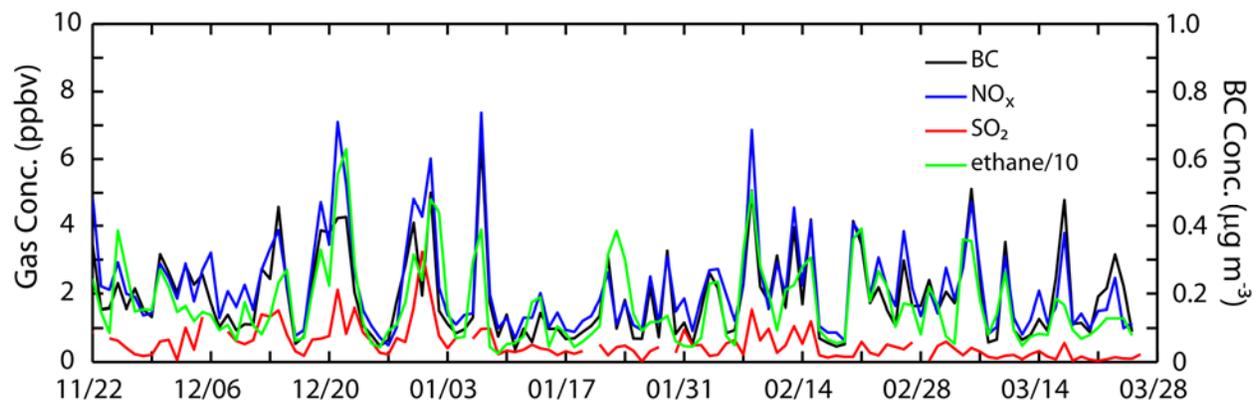


Figure 13. Timeline of ethane, NO_x , SO_2 , and BC during the second study period in 2013-2014. NO_x , SO_2 and BC concentrations are daily average values; ethane data are the average of two grab samples per day, one collected in the morning and one collected in the afternoon.

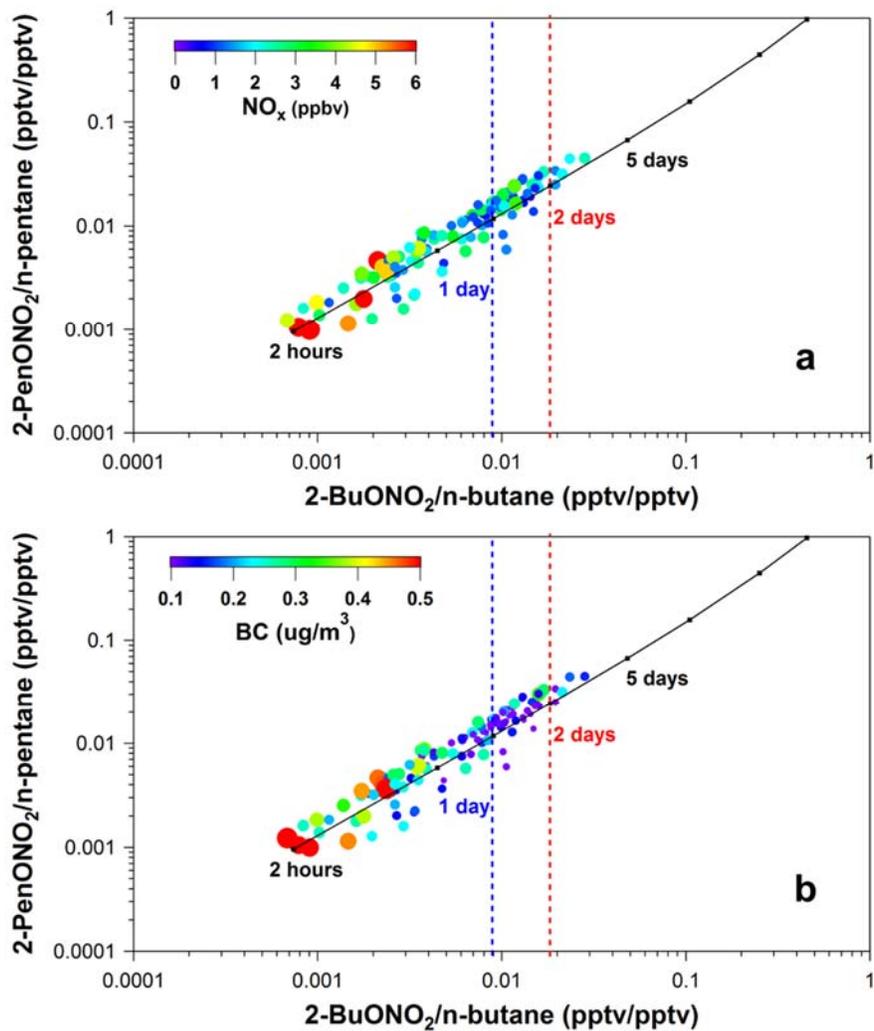


Figure 14. A photochemical clock utilizing ratios of alkyl nitrates to n-alkanes. Modeled ratios are shown as the solid line, and measured data are given as points, colored and sized by daily averaged (a) NO_x and (b) BC concentrations.

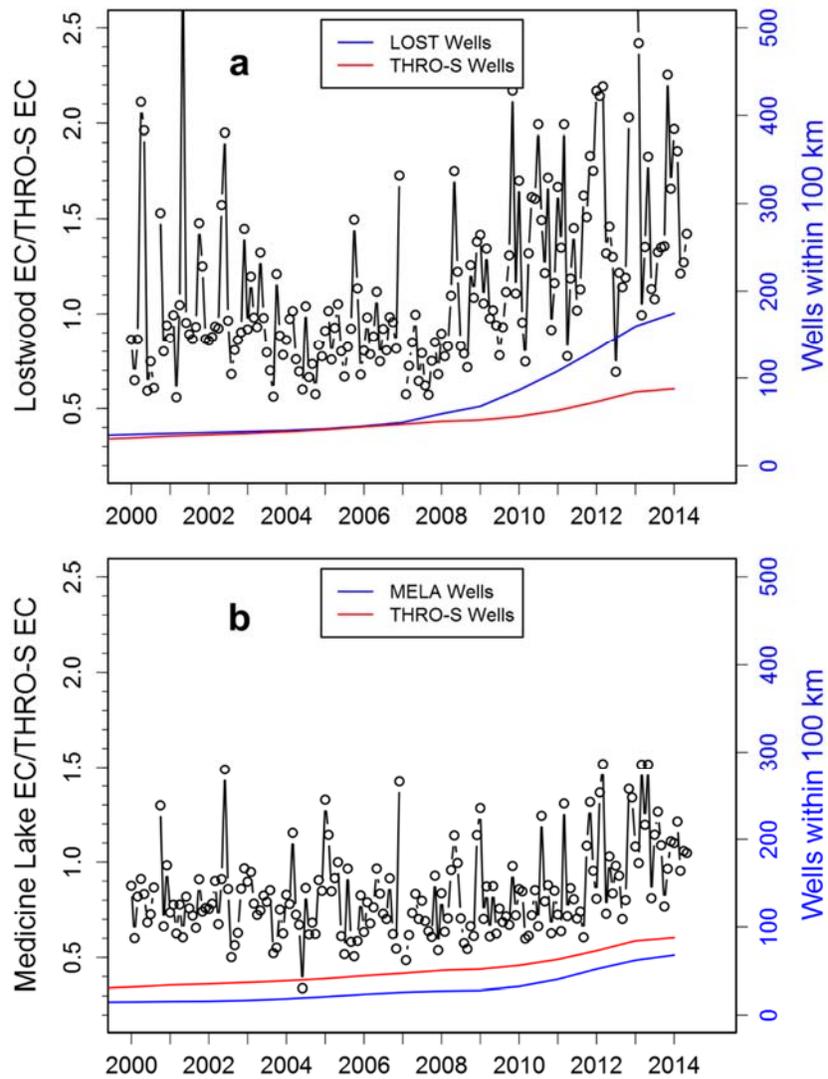


Figure 15. Timeline of ratios of EC concentration at (a) LOST, and (b) MELA, relative to THRO-S. Also shown are data representing wells within 100 km of the given site, weighted by distance, and wells within 100 km of THRO-S. EC data are shown as monthly averages, while data for well counts are annual averages to better account for the uncertainty in the dates when wells began operation.