Title: Step changes in persistent organic pollutants over the Arctic and their implications

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7	Submitted and Published on "Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discussion"
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Abstract. While some persistent organic pollutants (POPs) have been declining globally 20 due to their worldwide ban since the 1980s, the declining trends of many of these toxic 21 chemicals become less significant and in some cases their ambient air concentrations, 22 e.g., polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), showed observable increase during the 2000s, 23 disagreeing with their declining global emissions and environmental degradation. As part 24 25 of the efforts to assess the influences of environmental factors on long-term trend of POPs in the Arctic, step change points in the time series of ambient POPs atmospheric 26 concentrations collected from four arctic monitoring sites were examined using various 27 statistical techniques. Results showed that the step change points of these POPs data 28 varied in different years and at different sites. Most step change points were found in 29 2001-2002 and 2007-2008, respectively. In particular, the step change points of many 30 PCBs for 2007-2008 were coincident with the lowest arctic sea ice concentration 31 occurring in this period of time during the 2000s. The perturbations of air concentration 32 and water-air exchange fluxes of several selected POPs averaged over the Arctic, 33 simulated by a POPs mass balance perturbation model, switched from negative to 34 positive from the early 2000s, indicating a tendency for reversal of POPs from deposition 35 to volatilization which coincides with a positive to negative reversal of arctic sea ice 36 extent anomalies from 2001. Perturbed ice-air exchange flux of PCB-28 and 153 showed 37 an increasing trend and the negative to positive reversal in 2007, the year with the lowest 38 arctic sea ice concentration. On the other hand, perturbed ice-air exchange flux of 39 α -hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH) decreased over the period of 1995 through 2012, 40

41 likely owing to its lower Henry's law constant which indicates its relatively lower42 tendency for volatilization from ice to air.

43 **1. Introduction**

A number of studies have been carried out to examine temporal trends of POPs in the 44 Arctic (Hung et al., 2005, 2010; Becker et al., 2008; Ma et al., 2011; Wöhrnschimmel et 45 46 al., 2013). Due to worldwide ban and restrictions of these toxic chemicals, most legacy POPs have been declining in the Arctic over the last several decades. Fluctuations of 47 many POPs on interannual or longer time scales, however, have been observed in POPs 48 time series collected from arctic monitoring stations. The long term trends of POPs in the 49 Arctic have been attributed to the changes in their primary emissions, use patterns, 50 retreating sea ice, degradation, and other complex natural and anthropogenic activities 51 (Macdonald et al., 2005; UNEP/AMAP, 2010; Armitage et al., 2011; Kallenborn et al., 52 2012). The fluctuations of monitored POPs atmospheric concentrations have been also 53 associated with interannual climate change at several POPs monitoring sites where the 54 longest atmospheric monitoring programs have been operated, notably the Great Lakes 55 region and the Arctic (Ma et al., 2004a; MacLeod et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2010). The 56 notable interannual climate change influencing interannual changes in elevated 57 atmospheric level of POPs in the Northern Hemisphere are the North Atlantic Oscillation 58 (NAO), the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), and the Arctic Oscillation (AO) (Ma 59 et al., 2004a,b; Ma and Li, 2006; MacLeod et al., 2005; Macdonald, 2005; Becker et al., 60 2008; Gao et al., 2010). These studies have revealed abundant evidence for the 61

associations between these interannual climate change and ambient atmosphericconcentrations of POPs in the Great Lake and arctic regions.

Previous trend assessments for POPs concentration time series in the Arctic have 64 revealed changes in these time series induced potentially by climate change. The 65 relationship between ambient POPs air concentrations and rapid change in the arctic 66 environment, however, has not been proven statistically. Recently, there has been 67 ongoing debate on a climate "tipping point" (Lenton, 2011; Duarte et al., 2012; Livina 68 and Lenton, 2013; Holland et al., 2006) in the Arctic. Such the tipping point has been 69 70 connected to an abrupt increase in the amplitude of seasonal variability of sea ice area in 2007 that has been persistent since then, indicating the likelihood of rapid arctic climate 71 change (Livina and Lenton, 2013). It is worthwhile to point out that arctic climate change 72 has a much longer time scale than POPs life time and it might not be appropriate to link 73 short-term changes in POPs environmental level with long-term climate change. 74 However, the rapid change in arctic environments would change the environmental fate 75 and temporal trend of POPs, together with their primary emissions and use patterns in the 76 globe. Yet, the response of the monitored POPs long-term time series in the Arctic to the 77 rapid change in the arctic environment has not been investigated intensively. POPs 78 releasing from seasonal melting snow pack and mountain glaciers has been demonstrated 79 to alter significantly the atmospheric levels of POPs (Stocker et al., 2007; Bogdal et al., 80 2009; Meyer et al., 2008). Arctic sea ice as a temporal storage reservoir for POPs 81 undergoes seasonal changes, except for permanent ice and glaciers. The sea ice melting 82

83	and aging may increase air concentrations of POPs. It has been observed that an abrupt
84	increase in α -HCH concentration in air occurred in accompany with the ice breakup in
85	the central Archipelago during the Tundra Northwest 1999 (TNW-99) expedition
86	(Jantunen et al. 2007). Increasing concentrations of hexachlorobenzene (HCB) and many
87	PCB congeners were also observed in arctic air from the mid-2000s at the Zeppelin
88	Mountain Air Monitoring Station, Svalbard/Norway (78° 55' N, 11° 56' E), and the Alert
89	station, Canada (82° 30' N, 62° 19' W), resulting in the lack of statistically significant
90	trends of these chemicals in the Arctic since the late 1990s (Hung et al., 2010). While the
91	increasing trends of HCB and PCBs in the 2000s in the Arctic have been attributed partly
92	to their revolatilization from their arctic repertories in ocean, ice, and snow due to arctic
93	warming and sea ice retreat (Hung et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2011; Becker et al., 2012), this
94	hypothesis was not supported sufficiently by statistical evidence.
95	To identify decadal or longer time scale climate change (e.g., global warming)
96	signals, a time series of climate data should not be shorter than 30 years (the classical
97	climate change period, Le Treut et al., 2007). This raises a question to what extent
98	currently available POPs observational datasets are long enough to address climate change
99	influence on their environmental fate. Several recent modeling investigations and
100	sensitivity analysis to the long-term trend of PCBs and α -HCH in the 20th and 21st
101	centuries suggested that the long-term trends of these POPs were associated more strongly
102	with changes in their emissions and physical-chemical properties whereas climate change

signals were weaker in observed POPs time series (Wöhrnschimmel et al., 2013;

104 Armitage et al., 2011; Gouin, et al., 2013; Li, 2012).

105 Since the Arctic is warming at a rate of almost twice the global average which leads to strong sea ice melt since the 2000s (Steele et al., 2008), the measured POPs 106 atmospheric concentrations in the Arctic might provide best datasets to discern the signals 107 108 of climate change in monitored POPs data. The increasing trend of PCBs appeared to coincide to the strong sea ice melt in the Arctic, characterized by rapid decline in arctic 109 sea ice from 2000 (Duarte et al., 2012). Since the sea ice decline took place over a short 110 period of time, the monitored POPs air concentrations datasets in the Arctic, though short, 111 would likely respond to rapid sea ice decline and increasing air temperature which may 112 provide further field evidence to the association between temporal trend of POPs and 113 climate warming. The present study examined the statistics for step changes in monitored 114 atmospheric concentrations of POPs at several arctic monitoring stations. The association 115 between the statistically significant step change points of POPs concentrations and arctic 116 climate change was quantitatively assessed to identify arctic climate change signals in 117 measured POPs time series. 118

- 119 2. Materials and methods
- 120 **2.1 Data**

121 Monitored ambient atmospheric concentrations of selected PCBs and OCPs

122 (Organochlorine pesticides) in the present study were collected from four Arctic

123 monitoring sites representing the longest time series of POPs across the Arctic. These are

124	the Zeppelin Mountain Air Monitoring station (Svalbard/Norway, 1992-2012), Alert
125	(Canada, 1993-2012), Pallas (Matorova, Finland, 68° 00' N, 24° 15' E, 1996–2011), and
126	Storhofdi (Vestmannaeyjar, Iceland, 63° 24'N, 20° 17'W, 1995–2011). The sampling
127	frequencies vary site by site. At Zeppelin, Alert, and Pallas sites, daily air concentrations
128	are sampled for every week and at Storhofdi site the daily concentrations are sampled for
129	every two weeks. Detailed information in sample collection and chemical analysis are
130	referred to Hung et al (2010). The annual mean air concentrations at each site were
131	obtained by averaging weekly (Zeppelin, Alert, Pallas) or bi-weekly (Storhofdi) sampled
132	data. The concentrations of selected POPs in the Arctic Oceans and ice (snow) used in
133	subsequent perturbation modeling were collected from literature and listed on Table S1 of
134	Supplement. These data were not routinely measured. Since the perturbation model (see
135	section 2.3) only inputs multiple yearly averaged concentration data in air, water, and
136	ice/snow as forcing terms to predict perturbed concentrations (Ma and Cao, 2010) and set
137	initial concentration perturbations as zero, POPs concentration data in the Arctic Oceans
138	and sea ice/snow collected from different years and locations were averaged over the
139	Arctic and entire monitoring period from the 1990s to 2012. Monthly averaged arctic sea
140	ice extent and area data were collected from National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC
141	at nsidc.org, Clark, et al., 1999). Surface air temperatures (SAT) and precipitation used in
142	perturbation modeling were collected from the National Centers for Environmental
143	Prediction (NCEP) reanalysis (Kalney et al. 1996). Physical-chemical properties of
144	selected POPs in perturbation modeling are presented in Supplement Table S2,

145 respectively.

146 **2.2 Statistical test for POPs trend and step change**

Searching for a step change (also referred to abrupt change or abrupt discontinuities) in a 147 time series is often conducted by the detection of a point year as a sign of step change in 148 the time series. It is the process of finding step changes (or shifts) in the mean level of 149 the time series. In the cases of POPs atmospheric concentration time series, the step 150 changes can be considered as a statistically significant abnormal increasing or decreasing 151 from their long-term trend, extending to a certain period of time. In climate and 152 hydrological studies, three statistical methods have been widely used to identify abrupt 153 climate change points. These are the Mann-Kendal (MK) test (Mann, 1945; Kendall, 154 1948), the Moving T-Test (MMT) technique (Moraes, et al., 1998), and Yamamoto 155 method (Yamamoto et al., 1985). 156

The MK test is a nonparametric statistical test (Kendall, 1948) which has been used to find trend and step change points of hydrological stream flows and air temperatures (Moraes et al., 1998; Gan, 1998). Under the null hypothesis (no step change point), the normally distributed statistic S_k can be calculated as:

$$S_k = \sum_{i=1}^k r_i \ (k = 2, 3, \cdots, n)$$
(1

162 where S_k is a statistic of the MK test and,

)

$$r_{i} = \begin{cases} +1, (x_{i} > x_{j}) \\ 0, (x_{i} \le x_{j}) \end{cases} (1 = 1, 2, \cdots, i - 1)$$
(2)

where x_i is *i*th variable in time series x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i , r_i is the cumulative number for 164 $x_i > x_j$. The expected values $E(S_i)$ and variance $Var(S_i)$ of S_k are given by 165

166
$$E(S_i) = \frac{t(t-1)}{4}$$
, (3)

57
$$\operatorname{Var}(S_t) = \frac{t(t-1)(2t+5)}{72}$$
 (4)

16

163

From these two equations one can derive a normalized S_i , defined by 168

$$UF_{i} = \frac{S_{i} - E(S_{i})}{\sqrt{Var(S_{i})}} (i = 1, 2, \cdots, n)$$

$$(5)$$

169

where the normalized variable statistic UF_i is the forward sequence. Likewise, the 170 171 backward sequence UB_i can be calculated using the same equation but taking a reversed series of the data such that $UB_i = -UF_i$. When the null hypothesis is rejected (i.e., if any of 172 the points in the forward sequence are outside the confidence interval), the detection of an 173 increasing (UF_i) or a decreasing (UB_i) trend is determined. In this way the sequential 174 version of the test enables detection of an approximate time of occurrence of the trend by 175 locating the intersection of the forward and backward curves of the test. The intersection 176 occurring within the confidence interval indicates the beginning of a step change point 177 (Moraes et al., 1998; Zhang et al., 2011). 178 The idea of Moving T-Test (MTT) technique is to test the difference between two 179

subsamples of a random variable time series before and after the change point with 180

equivalent subsamples size under a null hypothesis of u1 = u2 where u1 and u2 are two subsamples. In other words, if the difference between means over two adjacent time intervals reaches a statistical significance level, a step change is inferred to occur. For a time series whose population is normally distributed, the *t*-statistics is defined as (Moraes et al., 1998)

$$t_{0} = \frac{\overline{x_{1}} - \overline{x_{2}}}{S_{p}(\frac{1}{n_{1}} + \frac{1}{n_{2}})^{1/2}},$$
(6)

186

$$S_p^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1)S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2},$$
(7)

188 where \mathfrak{S}_{i}^{2} and n_{i} are variance and sample size, respectively. In the present study, we 189 requested that, if *t*-statistics t_{0} at a point year beyond the control line at $t_{0} = \pm 4.6$ 190 reaches the significant level $\alpha = 0.01$, this point year will be identified as a step change 191 point year.

Yamamoto method is somewhat similar to the MTT approach, defined by a signal tonoise ratio (S/N, Yamamoto et al, 1985):

$$\frac{S}{N} = \frac{|\overline{x_1} - \overline{x_2}|}{S_1 + S_2}$$
(8)

A step point of a concentration time series is inferred if S/N intersects with the line of S/N=2.66 at the significant level α =0.01. In the present study, the subset data size of both Yamamoto and MTT methods was set to 3. Table S3 of Supplement compared the MTT method identified step change point years for PCBs for the period of 2007-2012 at 209 Zeppelin site using the subsample size IH=3 and 4, respectively. For most PCBs, the 200 selection of the subsample size IH=3 yielded the step change year 2008, and 2007 by 201 choosing the subsample size IH=4. It should be noted that, since the subsets size u1 = u2202 which requires the even number of data points, the data points in POPs time series used 203 in the step change statistical test by these two methods were less than the number of 204 measured data.

Since the changes in atmospheric concentrations of POPs are often driven by the first-order processes that scale multiplicatively with the concentrations (Meijer et al., 2003), in the MTT and Yamamoto statistics all concentrations are log-transformed (in natural logarithm) before they are used in the statistical analysis. Because the MK method is a rank-based test, the log-transformed time series make no difference from original time series for the step change results.

These methods each have their advantages and disadvantages. For example, while 211 the MK test has been successfully used in detecting step change points (Moraes et al., 212 1998; Gan, 1998), it failed to discern statistically significant signals in step changes in 213 some cases. To increase confidence of statistical test for potential step change point in the 214 selected POPs time series, the present study applied simultaneously the MK test, MTT 215 technique, and Yamamoto method. Although the step change points of a time series from 216 the MK test may occur in a certain year, this year is often regarded as the onset year of 217 the step change. The year immediate after the onset year can be also included in the 218 period of the step change in the time series. We also applied monthly and seasonal mean 219

220 air concentrations data at the four arctic sites to examine the step change points for monitored POPs concentrations. The monthly and seasonal mean concentrations were 221 222 compiled by averaging weekly (Zeppelin, Alert, Pallas) or bi-weekly (Storhofdi) sampled air concentrations. Using monthly or seasonally averaged time series can increase sample 223 size. However, periodic variations in monthly and seasonal POPs concentration time 224 225 series, characterized by higher concentrations in warmer months (or season) and lower concentrations in colder months (or season), overwhelmed the changes in annually 226 averaged concentration time series. Our results showed that the monthly and seasonal 227 averaged data could not yield step changes for most POPs data. Figure S1 of Supplement 228 displays the UF_i and UB_i in MK test (Eq. (5)) for monthly PCB-28 atmospheric 229 concentration time series during the summer months in the Arctic at Zeppelin site. As 230 seen, UF_i and UB_i fluctuate below the confidence level, and no statistically significant 231 step changes are found. Further details in the influence of sample size, monthly and 232 seasonal time series on step changes in POPs air concentrations are presented in 233 234 Supplement.

235 **2.3 Perturbation Modeling**

The coupled air – surface perturbation model for POPs was developed by Ma and Cao and Ma et al (Ma and Cao, 2010; Ma et al., 2011) to simulate and predict perturbations of POPs concentrations in various environmental media under projected climate change scenarios. This approach defined the concentration (C, pg m⁻³) of a persistent chemical (and other variables) in an environmental compartment (e.g., air, water, snow, ice,

sediment) to equal to the sum of its mean concentration (\overline{C}) and perturbed concentrations 241 (C') $C = \overline{C} + C'$, or $C' = C - \overline{C}$. So C' can be also regarded as a concentration anomaly 242 (or departure) from its mean. The change in this mean concentration in the Arctic was 243 often dominated by its primary emission, degradation, and the disequilibrium or exchange 244 of concentrations between two environmental compartments (Gioia et al., 2008). These 245 246 processes control the mean state of POPs in environment. Whereas, the perturbed concentration C', as the departure from these mean processes, might be more sensitive to 247 other processes with weak signals in ambient POPs concentrations, such as climate 248 change. The model was developed to quantify the response of POPs in multi 249 environmental compartments to the long-term changes in atmospheric and ocean 250 temperatures, and snow and sea ice. In the case of the arctic environment, the model 251 simulates daily concentrations of POPs (with the model time step length at 1 day) in 252 different environmental compartments forced mostly by the change in temperatures, 253 ice/snow melting, and the mean concentrations (Supplement Table S1). The model can be 254 applied either in a single spatial site or entire arctic region. Details in the perturbation 255 model were referred to Ma and Cao (2010) and Ma et al (2011). To interpret the 256 occurrence of step change point years of POPs concentration data detected by the 257 statistical analysis, the perturbation modeling for PCB-28, 153, and α -HCH was 258 performed using their mean and perturbed emissions. To examine the response of the 259 exchange of POPs in multi-media environments to their step changes, perturbed water-air 260 and ice-air exchange flux were also calculated. It is arguable that the most processes that 261 13

control the concentration in air are first-order processes that scale multiplicatively with 262 concentrations whereas the perturbation model treats concentrations in air as a linear sum 263 of their mean and perturbed concentrations (Ma and Cao, 2010). It must be noted, as 264 aforementioned, that the sole external forcing term in the perturbation model was mean 265 in different environmental compartments and initial perturbed concentrations 266 concentrations were set zero in the model (Ma and Cao, 2010). Those nonlinear processes 267 related to the chemical-physical properties of a chemical and their associations with 268 temperature have been also taking into consideration through the calculation of their mean 269 270 and perturbation.

The global emission inventory of selected POPs employed in the perturbation modeling α -HCH and PCBs used the results from Li et al (2000) and Breivik et al. (2007). We implemented mean and perturbed air emissions, subjected to mean temperatures and temperature anomalies, into the model, expressed as (Lamon et al., 2009; Ma and Cao, 2010; Gouin et al., 2013)

276
$$\overline{E}_{OHC} = E_{OHC-ref} \exp\left[\Delta U_A \left(\frac{1}{T_{ref}} - \frac{1}{\overline{T}}\right)/R\right]$$
(9)

277
$$E'_{OHC} = \frac{\Delta U_A}{R} \overline{E}_{OHC} \frac{T'}{\overline{T}^2}$$
(10)

where T_{ref} is reference temperatures (K), $E_{OHC-ref}$ is the emission at the reference temperature, obtained from an emission inventory. ΔU_A is the internal energy of vaporization (Lamon et al., 2009). Since \overline{E}_{OHC} does not change with temperature and time, it can be linked with the mean air concentration in our model. The instantaneous water-air exchange flux is calculated by the Whitman two-film model (Bidleman and McConnell, 1995),

284
$$F_w = K_{OL} (C_w - C_a RT / H)$$
 (11)

where F_w is the water-air exchange flux, K_{OL} is the air-water exchange velocity, C_w is dissolved concentration in water, C_a is air concentration, H is the Henry's law constant, and R is the ideal gas constant. Equation (11) suggests that, at the interface between water and air, POPs concentration in air and water is in equilibrium through the Henry's law constant, defined as $C_a/C_w = H/RT$. Following the rules in perturbation theory (Ma and Cao, 2010) one can derive the perturbed water-air exchange flux as

292
$$F' = \overline{K}_{OL} \left[\frac{R}{\overline{H}} \left(\frac{\overline{T}\overline{C}_{a}}{\overline{H}} H' - \overline{T}C_{a}' - \overline{C}_{a}T' \right) + C_{w}' \right] + K_{OL}' \left(\overline{C}_{w} - \frac{R\overline{T}}{\overline{H}} \overline{C}_{a} \right).$$
(12)

291

Calculations of mean and perturbed K_{OL} and H followed Ma and Cao (2010). Likewise,
the ice-air exchange flux can be defined as, assuming that the ice-air exchange process is
the same as the snow-air exchange,

296
$$F_i = v_a (C_i / K_{sa} - C_a),$$
 (13)

where C_i is the concentration in ice. v_a is the exchange velocity of a chemical between air and ice (m s⁻¹), K_{sa} is the ice – air partition coefficient. The expressions of these mean and perturbed parameters were referred to Ma et al (2011). The perturbed ice-air exchange flux is given by

301
$$F_{i} = \overline{v}_{a} \left[\frac{1}{K_{sa}} \left(C_{i}^{'} - \frac{K_{sa}^{'}}{\overline{K}_{sa}} \overline{C}_{i} \right) - C_{a}^{'} \right] + v_{a}^{'} \left(\frac{\overline{C}_{i}}{\overline{K}_{sa}} - \overline{C}_{a} \right).$$
(14)

302 **3. Results**

303 **3.1 Step change points by MK test**

The number of PCBs congeners and OCPs measured at different sites differs from 304 each other. We have calculated the step change points for all monitored PCBs and OCPs 305 at each monitoring site. The presence of these points in the monitored PCBs and OCPs 306 307 was not identical but varied with different chemicals at different monitoring sites. It is impossible to illustrate the step change points for all POPs time series at all monitoring 308 sites. In the present study, only those chemicals whose forward and backward sequences 309 $(UF_i \text{ and } UB_i)$ lay partly within the confidence interval (-1.96 - 1.96) in the MK test were 310 selected for step change analysis. 311

312 **3.1.1 Alert**

Figure 1 displays UF_i and UB_i for 16 PCBs and 9 OCPs derived by the MK test (Eq. 313 (5)) at Alert monitoring station. As defined, the intersections between the forward and 314 backward sequences UF_i (curved blue line) and UB_i (curved red line) within the 315 confidence levels of -1.96 (straight purple line) to 1.96 (straight green line) denote step 316 change points for these POPs time series. As shown, UF_i and UB_i intersected at least once 317 over the period of 1993 through 2012. Most intersections were well within the confidence 318 levels between -1.96 and 1.96 at the statistical significance $\alpha = 0.01$, except for α - and 319 γ -HCH whose intersections were outside the confidence level. Hence, there were no step 320 change points of these two HCH isomers. The two step change points in 1997 and 2004 321 were detected for β-HCH. β-HCH partitions much more strongly into cold water than 322

323	α -HCH. Ocean currents and river currents were thought to dominate the entry of β -HCH
324	into the western Arctic Ocean (Li et al., 2002). Elevated concentrations of β -HCH in air
325	over the Canadian Arctic might be partly explained by its outgassing from the nearby
326	ocean. It is not clear if the two step change years of this HCH isomer were attributable to
327	its revolatilization following its increasing oceanic transport. The increasing trend of $\ensuremath{UF_i}$
328	for β -HCH from 2002 at Alert, suggesting its increasing air concentration, was not
329	observed at other monitoring sites which are far from the western Arctic Ocean as
330	compared with Alert site.
331	For tri-PCBs, three step change points were found between 2000 and 2005 (PCB-16,
332	25, and 26) and two found in 1998 (PCB-18 and 25), respectively. The step change points
333	in PCB-44, 49, 105, 106, and 209 were also found after 2000 but more step change points
334	in tetra-, penta-, hexa-, and deca-PCBs were detected before 2000. On the other hand, the
335	step change points in all 6 DDT (dichlorodiphenyldichloroethane) isomers were found
336	after 2000 and the four of these six DDT isomers showed step change points before 2000.
337	It can be also observed that, though UF_i and UB_i were intersected over $2001 - 2002$, the
338	point of the intersection was outside of the confidence level. Hence, this point was not
339	regarded as a step change point. The number of chemicals with statistically significant
340	step change points for different periods is presented in Table 1.
341	3.1.2 Zeppelin

Figure 2 illustrates UF_i and UB_i for 13 PCBs, HCB, and p,p'-DDT from 1994-2012
at Zeppelin site, derived by the MK test. The intersections between UF_i and UB_i were

identified for these PCBs except for PCB-189. The first intersection occurred between 344 2001 and 2003, and the second one took place mostly in 2007. Table 1 also presents the 345 MK test derived step change point years of 20 PCBs congeners and 3 DDTs isomers at 346 Zeppelin and other arctic sites during the 2000s. The step change points for other OCPs 347 were below the confidence level and hence not accounted here. Although the UF_i and 348 UB_i sequences lay between the positive and negative confidence levels (1.96 and -1.96) 349 before 2000 and after 2008, no intersections between the two sequences were detected 350 within the confidence levels. Overall, the MK test detected the most step change points 351 of these chemicals for the two periods, spanning from 2001 to 2003 and from 2007 to 352 2008, respectively. Both step changes span approximately a 3-year time period. Eighteen 353 chemicals were found to exhibit step change points for the period of 2001 through 2003 354 and twenty one chemicals were identified to have step change points for the period of 355 2006 through 2008. Since most PCBs data were only available from 1998, their trends 356 and step change points could not be identified in the 1990s. Nevertheless, while the 357 ambient air concentrations of three DDTs isomers are available from 1994, the only step 358 change point year 1997 for p'p,-DDD was found during the 1990s by the MK test (Table 359 1). 360

361 3.1.3 Storhofdi and Pallas

There are only 10 coeluting PCB congeners reported by Storhofdi station (Hung et al., 2010). The UF_i and UB_i sequences of 9 PCBs out of 10, together with α -, γ -HCH, and HCB which fall into the confidence levels from 1995 to 2011 are shown in **Fig. S2**. The

365	most intersections between the UF_i and UB_i sequences of the 9 PCBs can be found
366	between 2006 and 2008, except for PCB-105 and 180. Other step change points for these
367	PCBs were found in the 1990s and the early 2000s (PCB-28, 31, 105, 138, 153, 180, and
368	HCB), as is also shown in Table 1 . No step change year for α -HCH was detected during
369	this period of time but there was the step change year for γ -HCH in 2007. HCB exhibited
370	a step change point in 1999. Further details are shown on Table 1 .
371	There are 7 coeluting PCB congeners reported by Pallas station. The UF_i and UB_i of
372	all these 7 PCBs fall into the confidence level. The MK statistics of these 7 PCB
373	congeners and α - and γ -HCH is illustrated in Fig. S3 . Analogous to Zeppelin and
374	Storhofdi stations, the most intersections between UF_i and UB_i of the reported PCBs
375	were found in 2007, except for PCB-180 which showed the step change year in 2003.
376	Other statistically significant step change years were detected between 2001 and 2003
377	(PCB-101, 118, 138, and 180), and in 2005 (PCB-52, 101, and 153), as is also shown in
378	Table 1 . Again, although the UF _i and UB _i of α - and γ -HCH were intersected in 2003 and
379	2004, these two intersections were below the confidence level and therefore no step
380	change points for HCHs were accounted for.
381	3.2 Step change points identified by MTT and Yamamoto methods
382	Considering that in some cases the MK test failed to yield step change point for a
383	time series (Yamamoto et al., 1985), the MTT and Yamamoto methods were further

- 384 employed in the same datasets of PCBs and OCPs at the four arctic monitoring sites to
- verify the MK test results and to increase the confidence of detected step change points

386	by the MK test. Figures S4 and S5 in the Supplement show the MTT and Yamamoto
387	statistics for PCBs and OCPs time series at Storhofdi and Pallas monitoring stations,
388	respectively. Compared with the results from the MK statistics, both the MTT and
389	Yamamoto methods did not detected statistically significant step change points in 2007
390	for most PCBs and OCPs at Pallas. The MTT method detected the step change point
391	around 2000 for penta-PCB (PCB-101 and 118) and hexa-PCB (PCB-138 and 153), and
392	for penta-PCB from 2007 to 2008. Step changes in α - and γ -HCH were found between
393	2000 and 2002, and in 2005. Yamamoto method only detected a step change year around
394	2000 for PCB-138, but, analogous to the MTT method, found the step change between
395	2000 and 2002 for the two HCH isomers. Both MTT and Yamamoto methods detected
396	the step change in 2001 for PCB-101 and 2003 for PCB-105, but only found the 2007 as
397	the step change year for PCB-52 and α -HCH, respectively (Supplement Fig. S5).
398	Figure 3 shows the MTT statistics for 30 PCBs at Zeppelin station. The MTT
399	statistics for these PCBs illustrate a "V" pattern except for several heavier PCBs. All
400	tri-PCBs exhibited the step change year in 2008. The same step change year was also
401	found for PCB-52, 74, 101, 138, 149, 170, and 180. The step change year 2008 for these
402	PCBs derived from the MTT method lagged one year behind the step change year (2007)
403	detected by the MK test (Fig. 1 and Table 1). However, this step change year (2008) can
404	be regarded as an extension of the step change year 2007 because the step change year
405	2007 by the MK test is an onset year of step change. Other step change years were
406	detected in 2000, 2002, and 2005, but for only several PCBs out of 30 PCB congeners. $_{20}$

407	The MTT statistics for OCPs did not show any well-organized pattern like PCBs (figures
408	not shown). The step change points of OCPs varied with different chemicals but 1999
409	and 2003 appeared to be mostly detected step change years among these OCPs. The
410	Yamamoto statistics also displayed peak values and step changes in 2008 for many PCBs,
411	followed by 2000 and 2002 (results not shown). Supplement Tables S4 and S5 present
412	the step change years for PCBs and OCPs at Zeppelin site computed by the MTT and
413	Yamamoto method.
414	The results from the MTT and Yamamoto statistics for 20 PCBs at Alert are
415	illustrated in Fig. 4 and also presented on Supplement Tables S4 and S5. The both MTT
416	and Yamamoto methods yielded a step change point in 2006 for several PCBs, notably
417	PCB-16A, 25, 44, 118, 174, and 209. The MTT method detected the step change year in
418	2005 for both α - and γ -HCH but the Yamamoto method only found this step change year
419	for α -HCH (Tables S4 and S5). Nevertheless, this step change year for HCHs was not
420	discerned by the MK test, as illustrated previously. The two methods also detected the
421	step change year for p,p '-DDE in 2000 which was consistent with the step change year
422	detected by the MK test, and in 2001 for <i>p</i> , <i>p</i> '-DDD, leading the MK test result (2002) by
423	one year.

424 **4. Discussions**

To summarize the step change points for selected chemicals at the 4 arctic atmospheric monitoring sites, we firstly selected those PCBs and OCPs whose step point years were identified by the MK test and confirmed by one of the other two methods. Results show

428	that, for Alert, the statistically significant step change year detected by the MK test and
429	the MTT or Yamamoto method was only found in 2005-2006 for PCB-16 and 44,
430	respectively. While the MK test also identified the same step change in PCB-49, 105, and
431	110 during this period of time (Fig. 1), this step change was not detected by the other two
432	methods (Fig. 4). The step change years in OCPs detected by the MK test were not
433	confirmed by the MTT and Yamamoto method either. In the MK test, UF_{i} (the forward
434	sequence, Eq. (5)) was often used to represent the trend of a time series. At Alert, the UF_i
435	values of lighter PCBs (tri-PCBs and PCB-44) showed an increasing trend and a negative
436	to positive reversal since 2005. In fact, almost all intersections between UF_i and UB_i of
437	these lighter PCBs, indicating the step change, took place when UF_i became positive,
438	confirming the increasing trend of these lower molecular PCBs measured at Alert during
439	the mid-2000s whereas heavier PCBs did not show significant increasing trend for the
440	same period of time.
441	The step change years detected by the MK test and the MTT or Yamamoto method

at Storhofdi include 2007 for PCB-52 and 2003 for PCB-105, respectively (Fig. S2 and 442 Fig. S4). Among the measured PCBs, the UF_i values of PCB-52,101, and 118 exhibited 443 an increasing trend since 1998-2000. Such an increasing trend was not observed in UF_i 444 values in other PCBs and OCPs. 445

At Pallas site, the MK test and MTT or Yamamoto method found the step change 446 year 2001 for PCB-118 and 138, and 2007 for PCB-101 and 108, respectively (Fig. S3 447 and Fig. S5). The UF_i did not show significant increasing trend for all PCBs and OCPs. 448

449	The MTT method confirmed the step change year in most PCBs in 2007 at Zeppelin
450	calculated by the MK test, except for PCB-47, 153, and 180 (Figs. 2 and 3). Another step
451	change year in 2002 – 2003 for several PCBs detected by the MTT method was also
452	consistent, to some extent, with that derived from the MK test. As shown by Fig. 2, the
453	UF_{i} values of many PCBs showed an increasing trend from the early and mid-2000s and
454	reached the maximum for $2007 - 2008$, again agreeing with the measured trend of
455	ambient atmospheric concentrations of these PCBs.
456	Table 2 summarized the step change years for PCBs and OCPs at the 4 arctic
457	atmospheric monitoring sites discerned simultaneously by the MK test and the MTT or
458	Yamamoto method. Overall, although the step changes years varied with different
459	chemicals and monitoring sites, these step change points all took place in the 2000s.
460	Further, although individual statistical method did identify the step changes in OCPs,
461	these changes were not detected simultaneously by 2 out of the 3 statistical methods used
462	in the present study. Among the three periods of 2001-2003, 2005-2006, and 2007-2008
463	listed in Table 2, the step change point was found in the highest number of monitored
464	chemicals for the period of 2007-2008, followed by 2001-2003 and 2005-2006,
465	respectively. Although 2005-2006 and 2007-2008 are two adjacent periods, the step
466	changes in POPs concentrations during these two periods might show their distinct
467	response to marked decline of sea ice concentrations in 2005 and 2007, respectively, as
468	shown in Fig. 5. Another common feature from the MK test was that the forward
469	sequence UF _i for many PCBs showed increasing trend from 2000, as illustrated by Figs. 23

1, 2, S2, and S3. 470

The causes for the existence of those step change points in monitored POPs time 471 series at the different arctic sites are complex. They depend on locations of the monitoring 472 sites, chemical-physical properties of individual chemical, changes in arctic sea ices and 473 air temperatures which are non-uniform across the Arctic, and others. Our statistical tests 474 showed that the step change points were mostly detected in PCBs. This is likely related to 475 their relatively higher Henry's law constants, ranging from 4.4 Pa m³ mol⁻¹ for PCB-194 476 to 33.9 Pa m³ mol⁻¹ for PCB-31 (Li et al., 2003), as compared with other chemicals (e.g., 477 DDTs and HCHs), indicating higher tendencies for volatilization from water/ice to air. 478 The ambient atmospheric concentrations of HCB at Zeppelin, which has higher Henry's 479 law constant (= 65 Pa m^3 mol⁻¹, Shen and Wania, 2005), also showed an increasing trend 480 from 2003 (Fig. 2). This increasing trend has been attributed to changes in source types 481 and the presence of impurities in current use pesticides as well as sea ice retreat (Hung et 482 al., 2010; Becker et al., 2012). However, no step change point for HCB in our statistical 483 analysis was detected, though this substance exhibited a clear increasing trend in the 484 mid-2000s at Zeppelin site. This might be attributed to strong persistence of HCB in air 485 which leads to less significant declining in the Arctic over the last two decades (Hung et 486 al., 2010). The increasing HCB concentrations in the mid-2000s were not significant 487 enough to yield a "step change" from its weak decreasing trend before the mid-2000s. 488 Results presented on Tables 1 and 2 also show more PCBs congeners with 489 statistically significant step change points at Zeppelin than that detected at Alert. 490 24

491	Compared with Zeppelin monitoring site which is located in the western coast of
492	Spitsbergen (Svalbard, Norway), the Alert station is under lower temperature, surrounded
493	by rugged hills and valleys, and hence less affected by sea ice retreat and open waters. In
494	addition, as shown by Fig. 1 and Table 1, the step change points in several PCBs and
495	DDTs were detected in $2001 - 2003$ by the MK test. Due to laboratory switching in 2002
496	which led to increasing air concentrations of monitored POPs after 2002 (Hung et al.,
497	2010), the step changes in POPs from 2001 to 2003 at Alert might be also subject to
498	laboratory switching.
499	The both temporal and spatial patterns of POPs in arctic air have been attributed to
500	various processes driven by climate induced changes in the arctic environment, such as
501	reduced ice cover, increasing air and seawater temperatures, and biomass burning in
502	boreal regions (Hung et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2010; Becker et al., 2012). Since the step
503	changes in POPs are unlikely associated with interannual climate variability (e.g., the
504	NAO, ENSO) and biomass burning which should affect primarily the seasonal or
505	interannual alteration in POPs, these step changes were anticipated to be fluctuations in
506	long-term trend in POPs time series. The statistically significant step change point years
507	for PCBs in the present study appeared to coincide with those years during which arctic
508	sea ice exhibited marked decline. Figure 5 shows the mean summer temperature and sea
509	ice extent anomalies from 1981 to 2012 averaged over the Arctic as the departures from
510	their means over 1950 to 2010 and 1979 to 2010, respectively. It can be seen that the
511	mean sea ice extent declined in the summer of 2002, 2005, and 2007. In particular, the $_{25}$

512	mean summer sea ice extent exhibited a decreasing trend and become negative since 2001
513	This result agreed with a previous report which showed that, during the 2000s, the arctic
514	sea ice September minimum extent (i.e., area with at least 15% sea ice coverage, 10^7 km^2)
515	reached new record lows in 2002, 2005, and 2007 (http://earthobservatory.nasa.gov/
516	Features/WorldOfChange/sea_ice.php). Accordingly, a negative to positive transition of
517	the mean air temperature anomalies averaged over the Arctic took place since 2001, as
518	also shown in Fig. 5. In particular, summer ice extent in 2007 was about 33% below the
519	1979-2013 average, broking all previous low ice extent records. Our calculated step
520	change points of 2007 through 2008 for many PCBs matched well with this strong decline
521	of the sea ice extent for this period of time.

Since sea-ice melting is a crucial factor for controlling environmental fate of POPs 522 in the Arctic under a warming climate (Becker et al., 2012; Grannas et al., 2013) and the 523 associations between the step changes in ambient atmospheric concentrations and sea ice 524 concentrations, it is worthwhile to elucidate the response of POPs to arctic warming and 525 sea ice fluctuation and melting. We simulated perturbed air concentration ($pg m^{-3}$) of 526 PCB-28, 153, and α -HCH from 1995 to 2012 subject to water-air and ice-air exchange 527 processes using the perturbation model (Ma and Cao, 2010, Ma et al., 2011). Considering 528 that the most prominent arctic sea ice melting occurs from July to September, in the 529 simulation we employed mean sea ice volume and area during this season averaged over 530 the Arctic. Air temperature (K) and precipitation (mm yr⁻¹) anomalies used in the 531 perturbation modeling for the same period were also adopted in the modeling. The mean 532 26

533	concentrations in air, water, and sea ice used in perturbation modeling are presented in
534	Supplement Table S1. The perturbed concentrations of the three chemicals averaged over
535	the Arctic are displayed in Fig. 6. As shown, perturbed concentrations of all three
536	chemicals correlated inversely with the mean sea ice anomaly. It is evident that the
537	perturbed concentrations of PCB-28 and 153 illustrated a statistically significant
538	increasing trend during the period of 1995 through 2012. While there was also an
539	increasing trend of α -HCH, this trend was not statistically significant. Opposite to the sea
540	ice extent whose anomalies become negative from 2001, perturbed concentrations of
541	PCB-28 turned to positive from 2003, after the first step change point year (2001) of this
542	PCB congener (Table 1), whereas the negative to positive reversal of perturbed
543	concentration of the other two chemicals (PCB-153 and α -HCH) took place in
544	2007-2008, during which the Arctic recorded lowest sea ice extent. The concentration
545	perturbations trend of PCB-28 exhibited a much steep slope at 0.031 (R ² =0.809) as
546	compared with that of PCB-153 (slope= 0.008 , $R^2=0.626$), suggesting that lighter PCBs
547	respond more strongly to arctic sea ice melting. Since perturbation model simulated
548	concentration perturbations via ice-air exchange process were about one order of
549	magnitude lower than that through water-air exchange in the present study (results not
550	shown), the integrated perturbed concentrations were mostly driven by the water-air
551	exchange. As aforementioned, the monitored atmospheric concentrations of many PCBs
552	across the Arctic have already shown an increasing trend around 2007, potentially the
553	result of outgassing from the Arctic Oceans due to sea ice retreat (Hung et al., 2010;

554	Becker et al., 2012). Since the perturbed concentrations discern largely the climate
555	change signals in POPs time series, associated with temperatures and sea ice, it might not
556	be appropriate to compare the step change points in the time series of perturbed
557	concentrations with measured annual mean air concentrations. The latter are driven
558	primarily by emissions and degradation. Nevertheless, the perturbed air concentrations of
559	many PCBs examined in the present study showed the step change in 2001 (Fig. S6), the
560	first step change point of monitored PCBs atmospheric concentrations (Tables 1 and 2)
561	and the year when the mean summer temperature and sea ice extent anomalies over the
562	Arctic change their signs (Fig. 5).
563	Compared with the measured ice concentration used in the present study (0.1 ng L^{-1} ,
564	Table S1), higher levels of α -HCH (0.31 ng L ⁻¹) in sea ice at a high Canadian Arctic site
565	in Beaufort Sea during 2007-2008 was reported by Pućko et al (2010). They also
566	measured α -HCH in sea ice brine and expected that arctic sea-ice changes associated with
567	climate change would make the brine concentration pathway more widespread in the
568	future Arctic Ocean. To test potential influence of higher α -HCH concentrations in sea ice
569	and sea ice brine on the fluctuation and temporal trend of this chemical over the Arctic air,
570	we adopted the measured α -HCH concentrations in sea ice and sea ice brine by Pućko et
571	al (2010) as the mean concentrations in the perturbation model and integrated the model
572	from 1995 to 2012. Figure S7 compared the perturbed α -HCH concentrations in air and
573	ice due to air-ice exchange from 1995 – 2012 using the data in Table S1 and Pućko et al
574	(2010). As expected, the model input higher mean concentrations of α -HCH in sea ice and ²⁸

575	ice brine increase the magnitude of perturbed annual concentrations in air and ice but does
576	not alter their fluctuations and long-term trend. This suggests again that the changes in
577	temperature dominate the fluctuations of perturbed α -HCH concentrations over the
578	Arctic.
579	The rapid decline of arctic sea ice in 2007 has triggered the debate on abrupt climate
580	change in the Arctic and low summer sea ice area was likely persistent on a decadal
581	(climate change) time scale. Given that the environmental fate of the selected POPs in the
582	Arctic have been dominated by their primary emission and outgassing from their
583	reservoirs accumulated from past use, deposition, and long-range transport from
584	atmosphere and oceanic currents (Macdonald et al., 2005; Gioia et al., 2008; Hung et al.,
585	2010; Kallenborn et al., 2012; Wöhrnschimmel et al., 2013), atmospheric levels of many
586	POPs in the Arctic have been declining during last decades after their regulation and
587	phase out. Previous modeling investigations (Lamon et al., 2009; Wöhrnschimmel, et al.,
588	2013) have revealed that the maximum changes in POPs atmospheric concentrations
589	induced by climate change were driven mostly by climate warming forced potential
590	changes in primary emission. This appeared to suggest that the POPs outgassing from
591	their arctic repositories associated with arctic warming and sea ice retreat would not
592	change their long-term declining trend because the emission and degradation
593	overwhelmed the POPs long-term declining trend. However, as aforementioned, the
594	measured ambient POPs air concentrations in the mid-2000s did not follow the declining
595	trend driven by primary emissions and degradations. The perturbation modeling was 29

596	aimed at assessing major processes contributing to concentration anomalies as the
597	departure from the mean POPs concentrations driven mostly by their primary emission
598	and degradation. We have demonstrated that the temperature-dependent emission (Eqs. (8)
599	and (9)) could alter the magnitude of modeled concentration perturbations but not change
600	long-term trend and interannual variation of the perturbed concentrations (Ma and Hung,
601	2012). The perturbed (rather than measured) POPs air concentrations were, therefore,
602	forced largely by the outgassing from their reservoirs in melting ice (snow) and the Arctic
603	Oceans. In this context, a reversal of many POPs from deposition to volatilization
604	associated potentially with arctic warming and sea ice retreat would likely take place. To
605	examine this argument, we estimated perturbed water-air and ice-air exchange flux (ng
606	$m^{\text{-2}}s^{\text{-1}})$ of the three selected chemicals (PCBs-28, 153, and $\alpha\text{-HCH}).$ Results show that the
607	modeled water-air exchange flux perturbations of the three selected chemicals exhibited
608	similar trend and interannual variability. So in Fig 7 we only present perturbed water-air
609	exchange flux of PCB-28 and α -HCH. As shown, the modeled exchange flux
610	perturbations of PCB-28 were negative over the 1990s except for 1998, indicating
611	deposition of perturbed PCB-28. From 2001 onward, the perturbed flux turned to positive
612	and exhibited a clear increasing trend with greater values in 2007 and after 2010, implying
613	climate change forced revolatilization of this PCB congener. The perturbed water-air
614	exchange fluxes of α -HCH were positive throughout the modeling period of 1995 through
615	2012, except for 1996. This agrees with previous modeling results which predicted
616	reversal of α -HCH for its exchange direction from deposition to volatilization in the ³⁰

117 There occan in the carry 1770s (wanta and where $1777a$, wanta of al. 1777	617	Arctic Ocean in th	e early 1990s (Wania and Mackay	1999a,	Wania et al.	1999t
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618	Comparing with the mean air concentration of PCB-28 at 3 pg m ⁻³ , the modeled maximum
619	perturbed concentration of PCB-28 due to water-air and ice-air exchange was 0.25 pg m ⁻³ ,
620	about 8% of the mean. For PCB-153, the modeled maximum perturbed concentration was
621	almost 30% of the mean (Supplement Table S1), showing stronger response of this PCB
622	congener to the change in the arctic environment. On the other hand, the modeled
623	maximum perturbed α -HCH concentration was only 5% of its mean concentration
624	(Supplement Table S1). The perturbation of POPs air concentrations at this magnitude
625	induced by sea ice retreat and snow melting should not be overlooked. If there was indeed
626	the onset of arctic abrupt climate change "tipping" point, continuous decline of arctic sea
627	ice in the forthcoming years may lead to stronger release of POPs into arctic air. As
628	shown in Fig. 7, both perturbed air concentrations and water-air exchange fluxes of
629	PCB-28 become positive after 2001 with relatively large values in 2007, coincident with
630	these two years during which many PCBs showed the onset of step changes and the arctic
631	sea ice extents reduced considerably (Figs.1, 2, S2, S3 and Table 2).
632	The modeled annual ice-air exchange flux perturbations of two PCBs averaged over
633	the Arctic also showed similar trend and interannual variation. The exchange fluxes of
634	PCB-28 were positive throughout the modeling period (1995-2012), indicating outgassing.
635	The fluxes of the other two chemicals were negative. To illustrate ice-air exchange,
636	Figure 8 displays perturbed ice-water exchange fluxes (ng $m^{-2} s^{-1}$) of three chemicals. The
637	flux perturbations of PCB-28 and 153 show an increasing trend and the negative to

638	positive reversal in 2007, the year for the potential onset of arctic abrupt climate change
639	"tipping" point (Livina and Lenton, 2013). Differing from its water-air exchange flux, the
640	annual mean ice-air exchange flux perturbation of α -HCH averaged over the Arctic
641	decreased from the 1990s. It is not clear if the stronger response of PCB-28 to sea ice
642	retreat characterized by its step changes in 2001 and 2007 at the Zeppelin station (Table 2,
643	Figs. 2 and 3) could be attributed to its outgassing from melting sea ice and glaciers as
644	compared with PCB-153 and α -HCH. The latter two chemicals showed negative
645	exchange fluxes, indicating deposition. Accordingly, there were no step change points for
646	these two chemicals in 2001 and 2007 (Table 2). While the releasing from melting ice
647	may increase air concentrations, it would also lead to increased potential for air to sea
648	transfer (Gioia et al., 2008), characterized by the negative flux. Overall, our results
649	showed that the perturbed ice-air exchange fluxes were lower than the water-air fluxes in
650	arctic environment. Since the molded water-air exchange flux perturbations were positive
651	which might increase air concentrations, these increasing air concentrations from the
652	water-air exchange may lead to deposition in the ice-air exchange, as interpreted by Gioia
653	et al (2008). POPs releasing from seasonal melting snow pack and mountain glaciers has
654	been demonstrated to change significantly the environmental fate of POPs (Stocker et al.,
655	2007; Bogdal et al., 2009; Meyer et al., 2008). Previous studies in this aspect almost
656	entirely focused on the effect of seasonal changes in sea ice melting on POPs
657	environmental fate (Daly and Wania, 2004; Gioia et al., 2008; Jantunen et al. 2007, Wong
658	et al. 2010). Little is known about the change in long-term environmental fate of POPs in 32

the Arctic induced by interannual or decadal scale sea ice variation. It should be noted that, 659 due to very sparse POPs measurements in sea ice and glaciers across the Arctic, the mean 660 ice concentrations we input to the perturbation model may have large errors which could 661 even alter the exchange direction in modeled fluxes. Using the sampled α -HCH 662 concentrations in air, water, and brine from Pućko et al (2010) collected in the Canadian 663 High Arctic we have simulated the perturbed air-brine gas phase exchange flux of α -HCH 664 and compared the result with the perturbed air-ice exchange fluxes using the data 665 presented in Table S1. It was found that, though the two time series of the perturbed fluxes 666 667 exhibited the same fluctuation and trend driven by temperatures and sea ice extents, the air-brine exchange fluxes were several orders of magnitude greater than the air-ice fluxes 668 and did not switch from positive to negative as shown in perturbed air-ice flux which 669 670 turned from positive to negative from 2008 (Fig. 8).

671 **5.** Conclusions

After their phase out, many legacy POPs have been and will be still declining in the 672 Arctic environment in forthcoming years. An increasing trend of POPs atmospheric 673 concentrations under strong warming and sea ice melt across the Arctic is unlikely to take 674 place as comparing with continuously increasing trend of arctic temperature. However, 675 there is likely a "turning point" for these POPs in the context of climate change. From 676 this point of year onward arctic warming influence on POPs trend may become relatively 677 stronger. In other words, there would be stronger arctic climate change "signals" in 678 monitored ambient POPs concentrations data after this turning point. Our statistical test 679

identified two major step change points in the measured PCB time series, coincident with 680 the onset of rapid arctic sea ice melting after 2001. Our perturbation modeling suggested 681 that the periods of 2001-2002 and 2007-2008 were likely the "turning points" for PCBs 682 in arctic air, as demonstrated by the reversal of deposition to outgassing of the perturbed 683 water-air exchange flux and negative to positive transition in the modeled air 684 concentration perturbations of the selected chemicals. In particular, from the second step 685 change point year (2007-2008) onward identified in the present study, we would expect 686 that the effect of arctic climate change on POPs environmental fate would become more 687 detectable. This is supported partly by the increasing air concentrations of many PCBs 688 measured at the Zeppelin and Alert sites (Hung et al., 2010). The finding from the present 689 study discerned not only the abrupt climate change signatures in measured time series of 690 POPs atmospheric concentrations, but also provided additional evidence for the response 691 of arctic environment and ecosystem to arctic climate change. 692 The Supplement related to this article is available online at 693

Acknowledgements. We would like to acknowledge all site and laboratory operators and
students of the air monitoring programs which make long-term data available. This
research was supported by National Science Foundation of China (Grants 41371478 and
41371453).

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860	China, J. Hydrol., 410, 239-247, 2011.
861 862 863	Table list:
864	Table 1. PCBs congeners and OCPs isomers having step change points at four arctic
865	monitoring stations detected by the MK test.

Step change point years							
2001-2003 2005-2006 2007-2008							
Zeppelin	CB-28,31,33,37,47,99,14	CB-180	CB-18,28,31,33,37,47,52				
4,156,167,170,180,183,1 ,99,101,153,							
87,189,194,206,209, 156,167,170,183,p,p'-D							
	p,p'-DDE		DD, p,p'-DDE,				
Alert	CB-25,26,44, p,p'-DDE,	CB-16,49,p,p'-DDE	CB-44,49,105,110,				
	o,p'-DDD, p,p'-DDD,		o,p'-DDE, o,p'-DDT				
	p,p'-DDT						
Storhofdi	CB-28,31,105,138,180	СВ-138,γ-НСН	CB-28,31,52,101,118,				
			138,153,				
Pallas	CB,101,118,138 [,] ,180	CB-52,101,153	CB-28,52,101,118,153				
Table 2. PCBs congeners having step change points at four arctic monitoring stations detected by the MK test and Moving T-Test (MTT) or Yamamoto methods.							
	Step chan	ge point years					
	2001-2003	2005-2006	2007-2008				

	2001-2003	2005-2006	2007-2008
Zeppelin	CB-18,28,33,37,170,189		CB-18,28,31,33,37,52,
			101,149,170,180
Alert		CB-16A, 44	
Storhofdi	CB-28,31		CB-52
Pallas	CB-118,138		CB-101,108

Figure list and captions:

- 872
- **Figure 1**. Mann–Kendall's testing statistics for PCBs and OCPs collected from the Alert
- station (1993–2012). Blue solid line is the forward sequence UF_i and red solid line is
- backward sequence UB_i, defined by Eq. (5). Two straight solid lines stand for confidence
- interval between -1.96 (straight purple line) and 1.96 (straight green line) in the MK test.
- 877 Intersection of UF_i and UB_i sequences within interval between two confidence levels
- 878 indicates a step change point.
- **Figure 2**. Same as Fig. 1 but for Zeppelin station (1992-2012).
- **Figure 3.** Moving T-Test statistics for ambient annual mean air concentrations of 30
- PCBs collected at Zeppelin station (1992–2012).
- **Figure 4.** Moving T-Test (left panel) and Yamamoto (right panel) statistics for annual mean ambient air concentrations of 20 PCBs collected at Alert station (1993–2012).
- **Figure 5**. Mean summer temperature (July September, K, 1981-2012) averaged over the
- Arctic as the departures from 1950 to 2010 mean (NCEP reanalysis, Kalney et al., 1996)
- and sea ice extent (July –September, 10^7 km²) anomalies from 1981-2012 averaged over the Arctic as the departures from 1979 to 2010 mean, manipulated from NSIDC data
- 888 (Clark, et al., 1999).
- **Figure 6.** Modeled perturbed air concentration (Ca', pg m⁻³) of PCB-28, 153, and α -HCH
- from 1995 to 2012. C_a ' of PCB-28 and 153 is scaled on the right Y axis and perturbed air
- solution of α -HCH is scaled on the left Y axis. The mean concentrations in air, water,
- and sea ice of the three chemicals used in perturbation are presented in Table S1 and their
- 893 physical-chemical properties are presented in Table S2, respectively.
- **Figure 7.** Simulated water-air exchange flux perturbations (ng $m^{-2} s^{-1}$) of PCB-28 and
- 895 α-HCH from 1995 to 2012.
- **Figure 8**. Simulated ice-air exchange flux perturbation (ng $m^{-2} s^{-1}$) of three selected
- chemicals from 1995 to 2012. Perturbed fluxes of PCB-28 and 153 are scaled on the left
- 898 Y axis and α -HCH flux perturbation is scaled on the right Y axis. Blue dished line stands
- 899 for the case for α -HCH flux perturbation = 0 and pink dashed line stands for the case for
- 900 PCB-28 and 153 flux perturbation = 0.
- 901
- 902 Figures



904 Figure 1











911 Figure 4



917 Figure 6







921 Figure 8