

1 Sensitivity of black carbon concentrations and climate impact to 2 aging and scavenging in OsloCTM2-M7

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8 **Abstract**

9 Accurate representation of black carbon (BC) concentrations in climate models is a key
10 prerequisite for understanding its net climate impact. BC aging scavenging are treated very
11 differently in present models. Here, we examine the sensitivity of 3-dimensional, temporally
12 resolved BC concentrations to perturbations to individual model processes in the chemistry-
13 transport model OsloCTM2-M7. The main goals are to identify processes related to aerosol
14 aging and scavenging where additional observational constraints may most effectively improve
15 model performance, in particular for BC vertical profiles, and to give an indication of how
16 model uncertainties in the BC life cycle propagate into uncertainties in climate impacts.
17 Coupling OsloCTM2 with the microphysical aerosol module M7 allows us to investigate aging
18 processes in more detail than possible with a simpler bulk parameterization. Here we include,
19 for the first time in this model, a treatment of condensation of nitric acid on BC. Using radiative
20 kernels, we also estimate the range of radiative forcing and global surface temperature
21 responses that may result from perturbations to key tunable parameters in the model. We find
22 that BC concentrations in OsloCTM2-M7 are particularly sensitive to convective scavenging
23 and the inclusion of condensation by nitric acid. The largest changes are found at higher
24 altitudes around the Equator and at low altitudes over the Arctic. Convective scavenging of
25 hydrophobic BC, and the amount of sulfate required for BC aging, are found to be key
26 parameters, potentially reducing bias against HIPPO flight-based measurements by 60 to 90
27 percent. Even for extensive tuning, however, the total impact on global mean surface
28 temperature is estimated to less than 0.04K. Similar results are found when nitric acid is allowed
29 to condense on the BC aerosols. We conclude, in line with previous studies, that a shorter
30 atmospheric BC lifetime broadly improves the comparison with measurements over the Pacific.
31 However, we also find that the model-measurement discrepancies can not be uniquely attributed

32 to uncertainties in a single process or parameter. Model development therefore needs to be
33 focused on improvements to individual processes, supported by a broad range of observational
34 and experimental data, rather than tuning of individual, effective parameters such as the global
35 BC lifetime.

36

37 **1 Introduction**

38 Black carbon (BC) aerosols play an important role in the climate system through several
39 mechanisms including direct absorption of solar radiation (Bond et al., 2013; Myhre et al.,
40 2013), changing surface albedo (Flanner et al., 2009; Warren & Wiscombe, 1980), modification
41 of cloud properties and thermal stability (Koch & Del Genio, 2010; Lohmann & Feichter, 2005),
42 and influence on precipitation and circulation (Bollasina et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015). The
43 potentially strong climate warming, combined with short atmospheric residence time and
44 harmful health impacts (Anenberg et al., 2012; Aunan et al., 2006; Shindell et al., 2011), has
45 made BC reductions an attractive mitigation measure (AMAP, 2015; Bowerman et al., 2013;
46 EPA, 2012; Grieshop et al., 2009; Kopp & Mauzerall, 2010; UNEP/WMO, 2011).

47

48 Modeling atmospheric concentrations of BC remains challenging. In particular, it has been well
49 documented that the current model ensembles do not accurately reproduce measured BC
50 vertical profiles (e.g., (Koch et al., 2009b; Lee et al., 2013; Samset et al., 2014; Schwarz et al.,
51 2013; Wang et al., 2014)). Additionally, global models often underestimate Arctic BC surface
52 concentrations and fail to capture the seasonal cycle (e.g., Eckhardt et al. (2015); Shindell et al.
53 (2008)). Because the radiative forcing (RF) and temperature response to a perturbation in BC
54 depends strongly on altitude, such discrepancies propagate to uncertainties in the net BC climate
55 impact. For instance, overestimating high-altitude BC concentrations can result in an
56 overestimation of the subsequent RF (Samset & Myhre, 2011), while too low surface
57 concentrations may lead to an underestimation of the temperature response due to the reduced
58 efficacy of BC forcing with altitude (Ban-Weiss et al., 2011; Flanner, 2013; Samset & Myhre,
59 2015). This in turn poses significant challenges for the design and evaluation of effective BC
60 mitigation strategies. Studies have shown that both modeled global vertical BC profiles and the
61 transport of the aerosols to the Arctic is strongly influenced by the parameterization of
62 scavenging and aging (Bourgeois & Bey, 2011; Browse et al., 2012; Fan et al., 2012; Kipling
63 et al., 2016). However, these parameterizations differ considerably between current models.

64 Increasing the understanding of factors controlling the distribution of BC in different global
65 atmospheric and climate models is therefore essential.

66
67 Here we examine the sensitivity of modeled BC concentrations to factors controlling aerosol
68 lifetime in the OsloCTM2 (Sovde et al., 2008) coupled with the aerosol microphysical
69 parameterization M7 (Vignati et al., 2004) (hereafter OsloCTM2-M7). The chemical transport
70 model OsloCTM2 has been documented and used in several multi-model aerosol studies
71 (Balkanski et al., 2010; Myhre et al., 2013; Schulz et al., 2006; Shindell et al., 2013; Textor et
72 al., 2007). These studies used a simplified bulk aerosol scheme. Lund and Berntsen (2012)
73 (hereafter LB12) performed the first analysis of BC simulated by the M7 in the OsloCTM2 and
74 compared results with those from the bulk parameterization. A basic evaluation against selected
75 measurements was performed, showing that using M7 improved the representation of Arctic
76 surface concentrations compared with the bulk scheme, but exacerbated the overestimation of
77 high-altitude BC.

78
79 Building on the findings in LB12, we perform a range of sensitivity experiments varying key
80 assumptions in the treatment of aging and scavenging in OsloCTM2-M7 and investigate the
81 resulting range in vertical BC profiles, as well as high-latitude surface concentrations. Using
82 updated emission inventories, three years of model results and observations from surface
83 stations, flight campaigns, and snow samples, we also perform a more thorough documentation
84 of the current model performance. Our experiments include a first step towards accounting for
85 BC aging by gas-phase nitric acid condensation. Measurements have shown that nitrate is
86 frequently present in internal aerosol mixtures (Pratt & Prather, 2010; Shiraiwa et al., 2007).
87 Aging through interaction with nitrate may also become more important in the future following
88 strong projected decreases in SO₂ emissions and increasing NO_x and greenhouse gas emissions
89 (Bauer et al., 2007; Bellouin et al., 2011; Makkonen et al., 2012), but has so far not been
90 accounted for in the model. We also take the analysis one step further and estimate the range in
91 global RF and surface temperature resulting from the changes in the model parameters. The
92 model setup and experiments are described in Sect. 2, results presented and discussed in Sect.
93 3 and conclusions given in Sect. 4

94
95
96

97 **2 Methodology**

98 *2.1 The OsloCTM2-M7*

99 The OsloCTM2 is a global off-line 3-dimensional chemistry transport model with transport
100 driven by meteorological data generated by the Integrated Forecast System (IFS) model at the
101 European Center for Medium Range Weather Forecast (ECMWF) (Sovde et al., 2008). The
102 model is run for 2008-2010 with a T42 resolution (approximately $2.8^\circ \times 2.8^\circ$) and 60 vertical
103 layers from the surface to 0.1 hPa.

104

105 The microphysical aerosol module M7 (Vignati et al., 2004) includes sea salt, mineral dust,
106 sulfate and organic carbon, in addition to BC. Aerosols are represented by seven modes with
107 size distribution given by a lognormal distribution function. BC exists in the Aitken soluble
108 (mixed) and insoluble mode, soluble accumulation and soluble coarse modes. All BC is emitted
109 in the insoluble Aitken mode upon emission. Aging and growth subsequently occurs due to
110 condensation of sulfuric acid produced in the gas-phase reaction $\text{OH} + \text{SO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ and
111 coagulation with soluble particles. See LB12 for additional details.

112 Particles in the soluble modes are assumed to be hygroscopic and are removed according to the
113 fraction of the liquid plus ice water content of a cloud that is removed by precipitation (Berntsen
114 et al., 2006), assuming 100% scavenging efficiency by both water and ice in both large-scale
115 and convective precipitation in the baseline setup. Since LB12, the temporal frequency of wet
116 scavenging in OsloCTM2-M7 has been reduced from three to one hour. The OsloCTM2-M7
117 also keeps track of the BC deposition and concentration in snow; see Appendix A of Skeie et
118 al. (2011) for description.

119 The sulfate and nitrate modules are described in detail in Berglen et al. (2004) and Myhre et al.
120 (2006), and we only give brief summaries here.

121 The sulfur cycle chemistry scheme includes dimethyl sulfide (DMS), SO_2 , sulfate, H_2S and
122 methane sulfonic acid (MSA) and the concentrations of sulfur is calculated interactively with
123 the oxidant chemistry. Sulfate is formed by gas-phase and aqueous-phase oxidation of SO_2 by
124 OH , H_2O_2 , HO_2NO_2 and O_3 . When M7 is used, the gas-phase sulfate is saved in a separate
125 tracer and allowed to condense on the insoluble aerosol modes. The aqueous phase sulfate is
126 distributed to the accumulation and coarse mode sulfate tracers in M7 according to a prescribed
127 fraction. The treatment of sulfate aerosols then follows M7.

128 The chemical equilibrium of semi-volatile inorganic species is treated with the Equilibrium
129 Simplified Aerosol model (EQSAM) (Metzger et al., 2002a; Metzger et al., 2002b). EQSAM
130 considers the $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{Na}^+/\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ system and calculates the gas/aerosol partitioning
131 of ammonium nitrate under the assumption that aerosols are internally mixed and obey
132 thermodynamic gas/aerosol equilibrium. Nitrate aerosol is represented by two modes; a fine
133 mode comprised of sulfate and a coarse mode comprised of sea salt. After H_2SO_4 and nitric acid
134 have been generated by the photochemistry, the thermodynamic equilibrium is solved using
135 EQSAM.

136 *2.2 Emissions*

137 Anthropogenic emissions for 2008-2010 are from the ECLIPSEv4 inventory developed with
138 the GAINS model (Amman et al. 2011) as part of the activities under the ECLIPSE project
139 funded by the European Commission 7th Framework (Amann et al., 2011; Klimont et al., 2009;
140 Klimont et al., 2016) (available upon request from <http://eclipse.nilu.no/>). Emissions from
141 international shipping and aviation are from the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP)
142 6.0 (Fujino et al., 2006; Hijioka et al., 2008). Biomass burning emissions are from the Global
143 Fire Emission Database version 3 (GFEDv3) (van der Werf et al., 2010). Seasonal variability
144 in domestic emissions is accounted for by using monthly weights (2000-2006 average) for each
145 grid based on spatially distributed temperature data from the Climate Research Unit (CRU)
146 following the methodology described in Streets et al. (2003), while seasonality in agricultural
147 waste burning is obtained from GFEDv3. Seasonality of emissions in other sectors is not
148 included in ECLIPSEv4. In the more recently released ECLIPSEv5 inventory
149 (<http://eclipse.nilu.no/>), the monthly variability in emissions from other sectors is small or
150 negligible. Total BC emissions in 2010 are 5866 Gg from fossil fuel plus biofuel sources and
151 2273 Gg from biomass burning.

152 *2.3 Experiments*

153 We first perform a three-year base simulation with meteorological data and emissions for 2008-
154 2010, which forms the basis for the model evaluation. Next, we perform a range of sensitivity
155 experiments described in the following paragraphs and summarized in Table 1.

156

157 Several sensitivity experiments are related to the aging of BC. First, we explore the impact of
158 varying the amount of soluble material required to transfer the BC aerosols to the soluble mode.
159 The M7 uses the concept of monolayers (ML); when sufficient soluble material is associated

160 with a hydrophobic particle to form “n” monomolecular layers around the particle, the particle
161 is assumed hygroscopic and is transferred to the mixed mode. The amount of soluble material
162 required for a particle to become hygroscopic is an important source of uncertainty (Vignati et
163 al., 2010). Popovicheva et al. (2011) used a laboratory approach to quantify the water uptake
164 by particles with varying amounts of sulfates in order to simulate the aging of combustion
165 particles. Based on a quantification measure for separating hygroscopic and non-hygroscopic
166 soots (Popovicheva et al., 2008), the laboratory results suggest that the transformation of soot
167 particles from hydrophobic to hydrophilic requires an H₂SO₄ surface coverage of 0.5-1.4 ML,
168 while 1.4-2.3 ML were required for transformation to hygroscopic mode. Based on these results
169 we perform three model simulations where the ML requirement is changed from 1 in the
170 baseline to 0.5, 1.4 and 2.3, respectively. Next, we perform a test where 50% of BC from
171 biomass burning sources is emitted directly in the accumulation mode instead of in the insoluble
172 Aitken mode. This is based on observational evidence suggesting that biomass burning BC
173 tends to be larger and more aged, with thicker coatings than BC from urban source (Schwarz et
174 al., 2008). Finally, we test the impact of allowing for BC aging by condensation of gas-phase
175 nitric acid. We extend M7, in a simplified manner, to also account for condensation by nitric
176 acid on insoluble particles after gas/aerosol partitioning with ammonium-nitrate is calculated
177 in EQSAM. We follow the same treatment of condensation as for sulfate in M7 (Vignati et al.,
178 2004) and adopt an accommodation coefficient for nitric acid of 0.1 (Pringle et al., 2010). The
179 number of MLs used as the criterion for aging ranges in existing literature. In its original setup
180 M7 assumes 1 ML, based on the best agreement with a sectional model found by Vignati et al.
181 (2004), but this considers sulfate as the only condensable species. Other studies have used a 5
182 (Pringle et al., 2010) and 10 (Mann et al., 2010) monolayer scheme. Reflecting this range and
183 examining the subsequent impact on concentrations, we here perform three runs assuming 1, 5
184 and 10 ML are required for aging.

185
186 The second set of sensitivity experiments is related to wet scavenging, the main loss mechanism
187 of BC and thus a key parameter for the lifetime and distribution. Hydrophilic BC is originally
188 assumed to be 100% removed by both liquid and ice in large-scale mixed-phase clouds in the
189 OsloCTM2-M7. However, this high efficiency of BC removal by ice-phase precipitation is
190 uncertain. Koch et al. (2009a) found that assuming 12% ice removal of BC gave optimal
191 agreement with observations. This fraction was also supported by observations in Cozic et al.
192 (2007) and has been adopted in studies with the OsloCTM2 bulk aerosol parameterization (e.g.,
193 Skeie et al. (2011)). Here we compare results with 100% and 12% removal efficiency for large-

194 scale ice-phase clouds. The removal scheme in OsloCTM2-M7 also assumes no wet scavenging
195 of hydrophobic particles. However, hydrophobic BC aerosol may still be subject to removal by
196 impact scavenging or act as ice nuclei (IN) in convective and mixed-phase clouds (Ekman et
197 al., 2006; Kajino et al., 2012; Park et al., 2005). The BC IN activity is not well known. To
198 represent some of this uncertainty, we perform two sensitivity experiments assuming either 100%
199 or 20% removal efficiency of hydrophobic BC by convective precipitation, with the latter
200 loosely based on Hoose et al. (2010). We also perform a combination experiment assuming 12%
201 removal efficiency of hydrophilic BC by large-scale ice-phase clouds and 20% removal of
202 hydrophobic BC by convective precipitation.

203

204 Finally, we perform two additional tests to investigate the impact of seasonality in emissions
205 and an increase in emissions in Russia following a recent study by Huang et al. (2015). We
206 alternately remove the seasonal variation in domestic and agricultural waste burning emissions
207 and replace ECLIPSEv4 emissions in Russia with the Huang et al. (2015) inventory. These
208 experiments have limited impact on the global BC distributions, but their influence on the
209 seasonal cycle of Arctic BC concentrations is discussed in Sect. 3.1.1.

210

211 **TABLE 1**

212 *2.4 Radiative forcing and temperature response calculations*

213 To estimate implications of the concentration changes in our experiments for the global BC
214 climate impact, we use precalculated radiative forcing (RF) and surface temperature (TS)
215 kernels derived with the CESM-CAM4 (Samset & Myhre, 2015). These 3-dimensional,
216 temporally varying kernels were constructed by systematically applying a uniform BC burden
217 to one model layer at a time, and calculating the resulting responses. Effective radiative forcing
218 (ERF) was extracted from simulations with prescribed sea-surface temperatures, while
219 temperature responses were taken from simulations with a slab ocean setup. As shown in
220 Samset and Myhre (2015), it is possible to take a perturbation to the 3D concentration, multiply
221 it with the kernels, and get an estimate for the resulting ERF and temperature change. However,
222 because the BC perturbations were applied uniformly throughout a single model layer, the
223 temperature response at each grid point will be due to both BC forcing exerted locally and to
224 forcing in surrounding gridboxes. In the present analysis, we therefore focus on global mean
225 vertical profiles. For each experiment, the globally averaged vertical BC profile from the
226 OsloCTM2-M7 is multiplied with the globally averaged vertical forcing and temperature

227 change kernels, respectively. The kernels are interpolated to the OsloCTM2-M7 resolution
228 before use. Both direct and semi-direct effects due to aerosol-radiation interactions are included
229 in the kernel response. In line with the nomenclature of the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report we
230 hereafter refer to the net effect as ERFari and the direct effect only as RFari.

231 As discussed by Samset and Myhre (2015), CAM4 does not account for the absorption
232 enhancement due to BC aging, resulting in a lower RFari per BC burden than earlier studies,
233 especially at higher altitudes (e.g., Samset and Myhre (2011)). The consequent temperature
234 response per unit BC may also be underestimated. However, here we focus on the changes from
235 the baseline in each sensitivity experiment rather than absolute climate impacts.

236

237 *2.5 Observations*

238 Modeled concentrations are evaluated against measurements from surface stations, flight
239 campaigns and snow samples.

240 Measured surface concentrations of BC, sulfate, nitrate, sulfur dioxide and nitric acid across
241 North America are from the IMPROVE and CASTNET networks, while measurements across
242 Europe and the rest of the world are from the EBAS and NOAA GMD databases. We also use
243 measurements in China from Zhang et al. (2012) and Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS)
244 campaigns summarized in Zhang et al. (2007).

245 To evaluate the model performance we calculate the correlation coefficient and the mean
246 normalized bias (MNB). The MNB for each species is given by Equation 1:

$$247 \quad MNB = \frac{1}{N} \sum \left(\frac{C_{mod} - C_{obs}}{C_{obs}} \right) \quad (1)$$

248 where C_{mod} and C_{obs} is modeled and observed concentration and N is the total number of
249 observations.

250 Following the recommendations by Petzold et al. (2013) observational data is referred to as
251 equivalent BC (EBC), refractory BC (rBC) or elemental carbon (EC) depending on whether
252 measurements are derived from optical absorption methods, incandescence methods or methods
253 that specify the carbon content in carbonaceous matter. To convert to BC concentrations we
254 adopt a mass-absorption cross-section (MAC) of $9.7 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ (Bond & Bergstrom, 2006), except
255 for Alert and Zeppelin, where we use the station-specific MAC reported by Lee et al. (2013).

256 BC in snow is compared to snow sample measurements across the Arctic in 2008/2009 (Doherty
257 et al., 2010) and across Northern China in 2010 and 2012 (Wang et al., 2013; Ye et al., 2012).
258 In the latter case, model results for 2010 are used.

259 Vertical profiles of modeled BC is compared with measurements from several flight campaigns,
260 including ARCPAC (Aerosol, Radiation, and Cloud Processes affecting Arctic Climate),
261 ARCTAS (Arctic Research of the Composition of the Troposphere from Aircraft and Satellites),
262 HIAPER Pole-to-Pole Observations (HIPPO) and A-FORCE (Aerosol Radiative Forcing in
263 East Asia). During ARCPAC and ARCTAS, flights were made across Alaska and Canadian
264 Arctic in spring and summer of 2008 (Brock et al., 2011; Jacob et al., 2010), while HIPPO
265 measured atmospheric constituents along transects from approximately pole-to-pole over the
266 Pacific Ocean during different seasons from 2009 to 2011 (Wofsy et al., 2011). The A-FORCE
267 campaign sampled air masses around Japan in March-April 2009 (Oshima et al., 2012). Data
268 from ARCPAC, ARCTAS and HIPPO is available online from
269 www.esrl.noaa.gov/csd/projects/arcpac/, www.air.larc.nasa.gov/missions/arctas/arctas.html
270 and hippo.ornl.gov/. Data from A-FORCE was provided by Professor Yutaka Kondo,
271 University of Tokyo (personal communication). Model data is also compared with CO
272 concentrations measured during the campaigns.

273 Model data is interpolated in time and space and extracted along the flight track. An average
274 profile for each campaign and latitude band is calculated by averaging observations and model
275 results in 100 hPa altitude bins (25 hPa for HIPPO data between 400 and 200 hPa). The HIPPO
276 data is also separated into five latitude bands. To evaluate the model performance in each
277 experiment, we calculate the MNB for each campaign following Eq. 1, where N is determined
278 by the number of altitude and latitude bins.

279

280 **3 Results and discussion**

281 *3.1 Model evaluation*

282 Before examining the impact of our sensitivity experiments on BC distribution, the baseline
283 performance of the OsloCTM2-M7 must be documented. While the main focus of this paper is
284 BC, the evaluation is extended to include species relevant for the BC aging process, including
285 sulfate and sulfur dioxide. We also look at the modeled CO distribution. CO is another product
286 of incomplete combustion and therefore has many of the same emission sources as BC.

287 However, due to the longer lifetime of CO a comparison with observations, in particular in the
288 more remote regions mainly influenced by long-range transport, can give an indication of how
289 well the model represents the atmospheric transport.

290 *3.1.1 Surface concentrations*

291 On annual mean (year 2008), the OsloCTM2-M7 underestimates BC surface concentrations in
292 Europe, North America and China with an overall MNB of -0.55 (Fig. S1). The underestimation
293 is largest for measurements in China. The model also underestimates annual mean surface
294 concentrations of sulfate (MNB -0.45), while nitrate concentrations are in better agreement with
295 measurements, with MNB of 0.08. The overestimation of sulfur dioxide surface concentrations
296 (MNB of 0.70) may be due to too inefficient conversion to sulfate, which is supported by the
297 underestimation of sulfate aerosols, and/or an overestimation of emissions. Also nitric acid
298 concentrations in Europe and North America are overestimated (MNB 0.75).

299 Figure 1 shows monthly mean modeled BC and measured EBC surface concentrations averaged
300 over 2008-2010. The model reproduces the magnitude relatively well at Mace Head, Cape Point,
301 Trinidad Head, Barrow and Pallas, but fail to capture some features in the seasonal variation.
302 Concentrations are also underestimated at Lulin, Hohenpeissenberg and Jungfraujoch during
303 winter and spring.

304 **FIGURE 1**

305 Studies have found that models often struggle to capture the seasonal cycle and magnitude of
306 measured high-latitude BC surface concentrations (e.g., Eckhardt et al. (2015); Shindell et al.
307 (2008)). While there has been considerable progress and current models capture high-latitude
308 seasonality better than previous generations (Breider et al., 2014; Browse et al., 2012; Liu et
309 al., 2011; Sharma et al., 2013), problems remain. This is also the case for the OsloCTM2-M7.
310 LB12 showed that inclusion of aerosol microphysics significantly improved both magnitude
311 and seasonality of Arctic BC. Here we find further improvements by the use of updated
312 emissions, partly due to the inclusion of emissions from flaring, which is an important local
313 Arctic source of BC (Stohl et al., 2013). However, the model still underestimates concentrations
314 during spring. The seasonal variability in emissions is an important factor. Accounting for
315 seasonality in domestic BC emissions in the ECLIPSEv4 inventory increases the burden of total
316 fossil fuel plus biofuel BC north of 65°N by approximately 15% during winter and by 2% on
317 annual average compared to assuming constant monthly emissions. Over the same region,
318 including seasonality in agricultural waste burning results in a 2-3% higher total BC burden

319 during spring. This is a relatively small increase, but agricultural waste burning contributes only
320 around 6% to total BC emissions north of 40°N on an annual basis. Another potentially
321 important factor is missing or underestimated emission sources. A recent study by Huang et al.
322 (2015) estimate total anthropogenic BC emissions in Russia of 224 Gg, about 40% higher than
323 in the ECLIPSEv4 inventory. Replacing the ECLIPSEv4 with those from Huang et al. (2015)
324 increases the modeled BC burden north of 65N by about 16% during fall, winter and early
325 spring and 2-10% during summer. Another possibly underestimated emission source is open
326 waste burning. Wiedinmyer et al. (2014) use year 2010 population data and estimate that 631
327 Gg BC is emitted globally from open waste burning, nearly a factor 7 more than in the
328 ECLIPSEv4 inventory. Moreover, they suggest that open waste burning may contribute 30-50%
329 to total anthropogenic PM₁₀ emissions in Russia, from where the near-surface transport of BC
330 to the Arctic is effective (Stohl, 2006). Underestimation of this emission source may thus
331 contribute to the too low modeled Arctic BC concentrations.

332 The OsloCTM2-M7 underestimates BC concentrations in snow compared to measurements, in
333 particular in Russia, Svalbard and the Canadian Arctic. Here we find somewhat higher modeled
334 concentrations than in previous studies (Lund & Berntsen, 2012; Skeie et al., 2011) owing to
335 the updated emission inventory and shorter model time step for precipitation. However, this
336 increase is insufficient to compensate for the existing underestimation. The model and
337 measurements agree better for many of the snow samples taken in China.

338 Eckhardt et al. (2015) show that models, including the OsloCTM2, have similar difficulties
339 capturing the seasonality in Arctic sulfate concentrations as they have for BC. For instance, the
340 OsloCTM2-M7 underestimates sulfur dioxide during spring at Zeppeling, but overestimates
341 concentrations during summer. Through the aging process, such problems add to the
342 uncertainties in modeled BC.

343 The model captures measured CO concentrations in the Northern Hemisphere during summer
344 (Fig. S2), but underestimates the magnitude during winter/spring, a feature that has been shown
345 also for other models in previous studies (Emmons et al., 2015; Monks et al., 2015). In the
346 Southern Hemisphere, the model generally reproduces the magnitude better, with a slight
347 overestimation during winter/spring at several stations. The ability of the model to reproduce
348 the seasonal cycle and magnitude of CO, in particular at remote Southern Hemispheric stations
349 that are mainly influenced by long-range transport, suggests that the model represents

350 atmospheric transport reasonably well and points to other processes as the dominant source of
351 uncertainty in the model.

352

353 *3.1.2 Vertical profiles*

354 Figure 2 shows modeled vertical BC profiles against measurements from aircraft campaigns.
355 Compared to measurements from ARCPAC and ARCTAS spring the OsloCTM2-M7
356 underestimates the magnitude of BC concentrations throughout the atmosphere (Fig. 2 p,r;
357 MNB -0.8). However, the shape of the profile is reproduced reasonably well. During April 2008,
358 when these campaigns were undertaken, there was unusually strong fire activity in Siberia and
359 air masses were heavily influenced by biomass burning emissions (Brock et al., 2011; Jacob et
360 al., 2010; Warneke et al., 2009). During several flights, the biomass burning plumes were
361 specifically targeted. Possible explanations for the strong discrepancies could therefore be
362 underestimation of the fire emissions or inaccurate representation of the plumes in the model.
363 The model also underestimates the magnitude of CO concentrations during these two
364 campaigns (Fig. S3 (p,r)), but again captures the profile shape reasonably well, providing
365 further indication that too low emissions could be an important reason for the discrepancy. The
366 agreement is better for ARCTAS summer (Fig. 2q; MNB 0.05). The majority of flights during
367 the ARCTAS summer campaign took place over Canada, where the fire activity was generally
368 low that year. Moreover, our evaluation against monthly surface concentrations of BC suggest
369 a generally better agreement at high latitudes during summer than spring (Sect. 3.1.1).

370 Measurements from HIPPO are separated into five latitude bands (Fig. 2 a-o). For most latitude
371 bands and flights, there is reasonable agreement close to the surface. In the 60-80N latitude
372 band, the model overestimates concentrations close to the surface during HIPPO1 and 2, but
373 underestimates concentrations during HIPPO3. HIPPO3 was undertaken during spring and a
374 similar underestimation was also seen in the modeled surface measurements at Barrow during
375 this time of year (Fig. 1). The model typically fail to reproduce the layered structure of the
376 measured vertical profiles. In particular, the high-altitude concentrations in tropics and the
377 southern mid-latitudes are overestimated. It should be noted that there are substantial
378 differences between the three HIPPO campaigns although they all cover the Pacific. A better
379 model-measurement agreement is found for HIPPO3 than for HIPPO1 and 2 (MNB 1.1, 3.3
380 and 2.8, respectively). In contrast to BC, both the magnitude and shape of most vertical CO
381 profiles compare well across all latitude bands (Fig. S3 a-o).

382 There is quite good agreement between measured and modeled BC during the A-FORCE
383 campaign (Fig. 2 s; MNB -0.1), with model results falling within one standard deviation of the
384 measured profile. The A-FORCE campaign was carried out downstream of nearby emission
385 sources and the good agreement with observations suggests reasonable representation in the
386 model of both emission magnitude in the region and the mixing with the free troposphere on
387 timescales of a few days. In contrast, the HIPPO campaigns sampled older air masses, where
388 loss processes have had more time to influence the distribution.

389 Our overall findings are in line with other recent studies. The tendency to overestimate high
390 altitude BC concentrations over the Pacific has been noted for several other model (Kipling et
391 al., 2013; Samset et al., 2014; Schwarz et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014). The vertical profiles
392 from OsloCTM2-M7 also fall roughly within the range of the AeroCom Phase II models
393 (Samset et al., 2014).

394 **FIGURE 2**

395

396 *3.2 Sensitivity of BC concentrations to changes in aging and scavenging*

397 This section discusses the changes in modeled BC concentrations in our experiments, and
398 examines the resulting range in vertical profiles and Arctic surface concentrations.

399 Table 2 summarizes the global BC burden and lifetime in each experiment. The global mean
400 burden (lifetime) is 133 Gg (6 days) in the base simulation, while there is considerable range
401 from 81 Gg (3.6 days) to about 185 Gg (8 days) across the experiments. The largest changes
402 result from increasing the number of MLs required for aging (CoatThick2.3), allowing
403 convective scavenging of hydrophobic BC (ConvBCi) and including aging by nitric acid
404 (NitCond). The range of BC lifetimes still falls within that of estimates from different global
405 models (e.g., Samset et al. (2014)).

406 **TABLE 2**

407 **FIGURE 3**

408 To examine the impacts in more detail, we calculate the differences in zonal mean concentration
409 (Fig. 3) and burden (Fig. S4) between each experiment and the baseline. The changes follow a
410 similar spatial distribution in most all experiments, with largest changes in the lower model
411 layers north of 60°N and around the equatorial Atlantic. The changes in concentrations north

412 of 60°N are largely determined by changes in the potential for long-range transport of BC from
413 the northern hemisphere source regions with decreasing or increasing lifetime. The pronounced
414 maxima over the equatorial Atlantic coincides with the outflow region with frequent
415 precipitation from areas with high biomass burning activity, where changes in aging rate or
416 lifetime strongly influences the amount that is removed by wet scavenging. In contrast to the
417 other experiments, assuming that more biomass burning BC is emitted directly in the
418 accumulation mode only has a very small effect on concentrations (Fig. 3 d). Asia is also an
419 important BC source region; however, the absolute changes are smaller here than around the
420 Equator. In the coating thickness experiments (Fig. 3 a-c), one possible explanation contributing
421 to the differences could be sulfate levels, with higher concentrations available for coating of the
422 BC particles, and thus lower sensitivity to changes in the aging requirement, in Asia.

423 Not surprisingly, allowing for convective scavenging of hydrophobic BC results in considerable
424 high-altitude changes, in particular over the tropics where convective activity is strong (Fig. 3
425 e,f). The maximum change in concentrations is shifted to northern mid-latitudes in the
426 experiments when the large-scale ice scavenging efficiency of hydrophilic BC is reduced (Fig.
427 3 g,h), with the largest absolute changes over East Asia (Fig. S4 g,h). An increase in this region
428 could reduce the general underestimation of surface concentrations found in the base simulation
429 (Fig. S1). These experiments illustrate that the modeled concentrations are sensitive to the
430 fractions of BC available for scavenging. For convective scavenging of hydrophobic aerosols,
431 we assume either 20% or 100% to represent a wide range. However, this parameter, and the BC
432 IN efficiency, are uncertain parameters poorly constrained by observations.

433 The largest changes in concentration results from inclusion of condensation of nitric acid (Fig.
434 3 i, Fig. S4 i). The number of MLs assumed as the criterion for aging is a key parameter.
435 Different values have been assumed in studies with different aerosol schemes. Here we test the
436 range of results under varying MLs in the same model. The resulting global burden and lifetime
437 is approximately 40% higher in the simulation assuming 10 MLs than with 1 ML. The largest
438 differences are found over South and East Asia (Fig. S5). With no firm agreement on the most
439 correct number to use, we focus on results from the simulation with the middle value of 5 MLs
440 in the following paragraphs.

441 Next, we examine the impact of the changes in concentrations on the existing model-
442 measurement discrepancies. We focus on the Arctic stations (Alert, Barrow, Pallas and
443 Zeppelin), as well as the vertical profiles from the aircraft campaigns discussed in Sect. 3.1.2.

444 Figure 4 shows seasonal Arctic surface concentrations compared to the measurements (left
445 column) and the absolute difference from the base in each experiment (right column). Figure 5
446 shows the vertical BC profiles for each campaign and experiment, compared to the baseline and
447 measurements.

448 **FIGURE 4**

449 **FIGURE 5**

450 A shorter atmospheric BC lifetime reduces the high-altitude overestimation at mid- and tropical
451 latitudes over the Pacific. This is in line with other recent studies, which have suggested that
452 the lifetime of BC in global models must be reduced in order for the models to reproduce the
453 HIPPO data (Hodnebrog et al., 2014; Samset et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014). The MNB for the
454 HIPPO campaigns is substantially reduced in the ConvBCi and CoatThick0.5 experiments
455 compared to the baseline (from approx. 3 to -0.3 and 1, respectively). In most latitude bands,
456 the reduction in MNB is largest for the former of the two. Given that the largest concentration
457 changes in most of the experiments in the present analysis are found over the equatorial Atlantic
458 (Fig. S4), a future comparison of our results against vertical profiles from the ongoing ATom
459 campaign (espo.nasa.gov/home/atom/content/ATom) will be a useful exercise. Our results are
460 supported by Kipling et al. (2016), who also found convective scavenging to be an important
461 parameter for the global vertical BC profile in the HadGEM3-UKCA. Surface concentrations
462 at Alert, Zeppelin, and Pallas are also reproduced reasonably well in these experiments,
463 although the springtime underestimation discussed above remains. In other parts of the Arctic
464 however, the model performance is exacerbated. More specifically, the MNB for the ARCTAS
465 and ARCPAC campaigns increases, and the underestimation of surface concentration at Barrow
466 is larger compared to the baseline. Similar effects are also found in the 60°-70°S region (Fig. 5
467 e,j). Several other factors not considered here could also contribute to the too low modeled
468 Arctic concentrations, including uncertainties in emissions and model resolution. For instance,
469 a recently published study point to the importance of model resolution as a source of uncertainty,
470 suggesting that a kilometer-order resolution is required for more accurate representation of BC
471 concentrations in the Arctic (Sato et al., 2016).

472

473 Conversely, increasing the amount of soluble material required for aging increases the BC
474 lifetime. This in turn results in an increased potential for long-range transport and increase in
475 Arctic surface concentrations. However, with the exception of Barrow during spring, increasing

476 the number of required ML (CoatThick1.4, CoatThick2.3) does not result in marked
477 improvements in modeled Arctic surface concentrations compared to measurements. The
478 modeled seasonal cycle in Arctic concentrations changes very little in all experiments. The
479 longer aging time in CoatThick1.4 and CoatThick2.3 also results in a poorer agreement with
480 the HIPPO measurements, both close to the surface and at high altitudes. Moreover, even with
481 the longer lifetime and consequent increases in Arctic BC concentrations, the model does not
482 reproduce the vertical profiles from ARCTAS and ARCPAC. These experiments also result in
483 reduced concentrations of BC in snow in our model, since more BC resides in the insoluble
484 mode, unavailable for wet scavenging. Hence, in the OsloCTM2-M7 a slower BC aging alone
485 does not significantly improve any model-measurement discrepancies.

486

487 Reducing the scavenging of BC by large-scale ice clouds and increasing the fraction of biomass
488 burning emissions initially in the accumulation mode, have only a minor influence on the
489 comparison with both Arctic surface concentrations and HIPPO profiles. The smaller impact in
490 the former experiment contrasts the results by Fan et al. (2012), who found a good agreement
491 with HIPPO data when reducing the removal efficiency of hydrophilic BC by snow in the AM3
492 model. However, Fan et al. (2012) used a more detailed treatment of large-scale ice
493 precipitation and adopted even lower scavenging coefficients than in our analysis.

494

495 Measurements at mid-latitudes have shown that nitrate is frequently present in internal aerosol
496 mixtures and contribute to the aging of BC (Pratt & Prather, 2010; Shiraiwa et al., 2007). The
497 addition of BC aging by nitric acid is a new development in the OsloCTM2-M7 and results
498 from this experiment are discussed separately here. Allowing for nitric acid to condense on the
499 aerosols results in a faster aging as more soluble material is available and hence reduces the
500 global BC lifetime. This in turn reduces high-altitude BC concentrations and the discrepancies
501 in the HIPPO comparison (MNB 0.4 and 0.7 for HIPPO1 and HIPPO2, respectively).
502 Furthermore, BC snow concentrations across all regions except Greenland increase in this
503 experiment, although not enough to fully account for the existing underestimation compared to
504 measurements. However, the Arctic atmospheric BC concentrations are reduced, resulting in a
505 poorer model performance compared to both measured vertical profiles and surface
506 concentrations in this region. The work in this study is a first step and tests the potential
507 importance of accounting for nitrate in the aerosol microphysics parameterization. There are,
508 however, important limitations. For instance, the current setup only treats the condensation by
509 nitric acid, not coagulation with nitrate aerosols. Another important caveat is that we do not

510 account for changes in hydrophilicity resulting from evaporation of nitric acid already
511 condensed on the aerosols. This may result in an overestimation of the contribution from nitric
512 acid to the aging, at least in certain regions. In addition to nitrate, condensation of organic
513 aerosols could play an important role in the aging of BC. For instance, He et al. (2016) recently
514 found that a microphysics-based BC aging scheme including condensation of both nitric acid
515 and secondary organics resulted in improved representation of BC in GEOS-Chem compared
516 with HIPPO measurements. This process is currently not included in the OsloCTM2-M7, but
517 should be addressed in future work.

518

519 Our analysis does not consider combinations of or regionally differing sensitivity experiments,
520 for instance increased coating thickness required at high-latitudes in combination with more
521 efficient removal by convective precipitation in low and mid-latitudes. Moreover, there are
522 important details that are not captured in the OsloCTM2-M7. One example is related to the
523 particle hydrophilicity/hygroscopicity. The OsloCTM2-M7 assumes that particles can
524 automatically act as cloud condensation nuclei once they are transferred from the hydrophobic
525 to hydrophilic mode. However, the cloud condensating activity of hydrophilic and hygroscopic
526 particles also depends on the atmospheric supersaturation (Koehler et al., 2009; Petters &
527 Kreidenweis, 2007). Furthermore, particles may not merely be hydrophilic or not, as assumed
528 by models, but can exhibit degrees of hydrophilicity. Our results underline the importance of
529 more observations, in particular of the mixing state and scavenging of BC, as well as
530 experimental data, to improve process understanding.

531

532 3.3 Climate impacts

533 As input to the discussion around the role of BC as a climate forcer, the impact of the changes
534 in model parameters on radiative forcing (RF) and surface temperature (TS) is estimated using
535 the kernel-based approach described in Sect. 2.4.

536 Figure 6 shows the change in BC ERF_{ari} (i.e., net of direct and semi-direct aerosol-radiation
537 interactions), RF_{ari} (i.e., direct aerosol effect only) and TS in each experiment. Relative to the
538 baseline, decreases in global-mean BC RF_{ari} up to -180 mW m^{-2} are estimated for the two
539 experiments that lead to the most marked improvements (i.e., strongest reduction in MNB) in
540 vertical profiles compared to measurements over the Pacific (ConvBCi and NitCond) (Fig. 6).
541 A notable decrease in RF_{ari} of -90 mW m^{-2} is also estimated for the CoatThick0.5 experiment.
542 The Fifth IPCC Assessment Report reports a best estimate of RF_{ari} due to BC from all sources

543 of 0.6 W m^{-2} (Boucher et al., 2013), while Bond et al. (2013) give a slightly higher estimate of
544 0.71 W m^{-2} . Hence, depending on experiment, the changes in global mean RFari estimated here
545 are on the order of 10 to 30% of the total BC RFari relative to pre-industrial.

546 Including the semi-direct aerosol impacts partly offsets the RFari. The decrease in global-mean
547 BC ERFari is -49, -45 and -26 mW m^{-2} in the ConvBCi, NitCond and CoatThick0.5 experiments.
548 Changes in ERFari of similar magnitudes but opposite sign are estimated for the CoatThick1.4
549 and CoatThick2.3 experiments. The change in TS is also largest for three former experiments,
550 resulting in a decrease of -14 to -25 mK compared to the baseline.

551 Both forcing and temperature response is sensitive to the altitude of BC concentration change.
552 Figure 7 examines the vertical variability behind results in Fig. 6. The globally averaged ERFari
553 (Fig. 7b) peaks below 900 hPa and around 200 hPa, driven by contributions from both the semi-
554 direct and direct radiative effects. The direct radiative effect per BC burden increases with
555 altitude (see also Fig.1 of Samset and Myhre (2015)), resulting in a larger change in RFari at
556 higher altitudes in the present analysis, especially in the ConvBCi and NitCond experiments
557 (Fig. 7a). In contrast, the semi-direct effect per BC burden is positive below 900hPa, but
558 negative and increasing in strength at higher altitudes. Between 800 and 400 hPa the ERFari is
559 smaller due to cancelling direct and semi-direct effects. The net changes in ERFari in Fig.6 are
560 thus largely determined by an RFari contribution due high altitude concentration changes in our
561 experiments and a low altitude contribution from the semi-direct effect. The TS change is
562 largest in the lower models layers (Fig. 7c), in agreement with the decreasing efficacy of BC
563 forcing with altitude.

564 We also estimate the changes in Arctic ERFari and TS. These are generally larger than the
565 global mean changes. In the CoatThick and NitCond experiments, we estimate 30-50% higher
566 change in ERFari due to Arctic BC concentration changes compared to the global mean change.
567 This reflects that the concentration changes are larger in the lower model layers at high northern
568 latitudes in these experiments (Fig. 3), combined with a stronger direct radiative efficiency over
569 this region and a relatively smaller semi-direct effect, which offsets less of the RFari than
570 globally averaged. Surface temperature response per BC burden is also larger for low altitude
571 perturbations at high latitudes than globally averaged, and even becomes slightly negative, i.e.,
572 a cooling, above 400 hPa north of 70°N . The low altitude concentration changes in Arctic
573 therefore also results in larger TS changes (by a factor 2-4) compared to the global mean change.

574 There is, however, an important caveat when using the temperature kernel from Samset and
575 Myhre (2015) to estimate Arctic changes. Because globally uniform BC perturbations were
576 imposed in each model layer, the impact on temperature in a specific gridbox may be due both
577 to forcing exerted locally and to remote forcing through large-scale circulation impacts. To
578 exclude any possible influence of BC forcing exerted outside the Arctic region, we also use
579 results from Flanner (2013) to estimate the change in Arctic TS. Flanner (2013) imposed BC
580 perturbations at five different altitudes over the Arctic only, using the same model as Samset
581 and Myhre (2015), hence calculating the Arctic TS caused only by a local perturbation. The
582 resulting temperature kernel has previously been used to assess the impact of regional on-road
583 diesel BC emissions (Lund et al., 2014). When used here to estimate the impact of our
584 experiments, we find similar changes in Arctic TS to those estimated using results from Samset
585 and Myhre (2015), with some small differences. In the LSice12 and CombPert experiments, the
586 changes in net Arctic TS estimated using Flanner (2013) are of opposite sign from results using
587 the kernel from Samset and Myhre (2015). This is caused by different efficacies above 500 hPa,
588 where these experiments give the largest changes in Arctic BC concentrations.

589

590 **4 Summary and conclusions**

591 We have performed a range of experiments to investigate the sensitivity of BC concentrations
592 modeled by the OsloCTM2-M7 to parameters controlling the aerosol scavenging and aging,
593 including, for the first time in the model, a treatment of condensation of nitric acid on BC
594 particles. The impact of changes in these processes on the existing model-measurement
595 discrepancies in Arctic surface concentrations and high-altitude concentrations over remote
596 regions of the Pacific is investigated, in order to identify potential improvements to be included
597 in future work. Our analysis is further extended to include an assessment of the effect of the
598 concentration changes on subsequent radiative forcing and surface temperature response.

599

600 We find changes of up to 40% in global BC burden and lifetime compared to the baseline, with
601 the largest decreases resulting from inclusion of convective scavenging of hydrophobic BC and
602 aging by nitric acid condensation. In most experiments, the largest changes in concentrations
603 are found in lower model layers north of 60°N and at higher altitudes around the equatorial
604 Atlantic. In the experiments resulting the most pronounced BC concentration changes relative
605 to the baseline, we calculate changes in global-mean RFari (i.e., direct RF) on the order of 10-

606 30% of the total pre-industrial to present BC direct forcing. However, even with the
607 considerable changes in concentrations, the total impact on global mean surface temperature is
608 estimated to less than 0.04K.

609 A shorter atmospheric BC lifetime in the OsloCTM2-M7 reduces the high-altitude
610 overestimation at mid- and tropical latitudes over the Pacific and improves the comparison with
611 HIPPO measurement data, providing further support to findings from recent studies
612 (Hodnebrog et al., 2014; Samset et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014). However, this required shorter
613 lifetime can be achieved through changes in several different model parameters. Both inclusion
614 of convective scavenging of hydrophobic BC and reduction in the amount of soluble material
615 required for BC aging results in a 60 to 90 percent lower MNB in the comparison with vertical
616 profiles from HIPPO, relative to the baseline. In the case of convective scavenging, the model
617 is sensitive to the fraction of hydrophobic BC assumed to be available for removal, which is a
618 poorly constrained parameter. The OsloCTM2-M7 is better able to reproduce the observed
619 seasonal variation and magnitude of Arctic BC surface concentrations compared to previous
620 OsloCTM2 studies, although model-measurement discrepancies remain, particularly during
621 spring. Surface concentrations at Alert, Zeppelin and Pallas remain in reasonable agreement
622 with observations in the two abovementioned experiments, but the agreement with
623 measurements at Barrow becomes poorer.

624 We also find similar improvements in the comparison with HIPPO measurements when
625 including BC aging by condensation of nitric acid. However, the Arctic atmospheric BC
626 concentrations are substantially reduced, resulting in a poorer model performance compared to
627 both measured vertical profiles and surface concentrations in the region. The treatment of BC
628 aging by nitric acid included here is a first step. Further work to resolve uncertainties and
629 incorporate missing processes, such as coagulation with nitrate aerosols and secondary organics,
630 is needed for the development of a more comprehensive aerosol microphysical parameterization
631 in the OsloCTM2-M7.

632
633 The existing model-measurement discrepancies in the OsloCTM2-M7 can not be uniquely
634 attributed to uncertainties in a single process or parameter. Furthermore, improvements
635 compared to measurements in one geographical region, can be accompanied by a poorer model
636 performance in other. This underlines the need for better process understanding supported by
637 observational and experimental data, e.g., of BC IN efficiency, aging rate and mixing state,
638 rather than tuning of individual, effective parameters such as global BC lifetime, to further

639 improve models and constrain estimates of BC climate impact. Sensitivity studies may therefore
640 provide important insight ahead of upcoming measurement campaigns regarding where
641 experimental efforts could be focused in order to provide the best possible data for further
642 constraining global models.

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645

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1051 **TABLES**

1052 *Table 1: Summary and description OsloCTM2-M7 experiments performed in this study.*

Experiment	Description
Baseline	Standard M7 OsloCTM2 simulation
CoatThick0.5	Required coating thickness reduced to 0.5ML
CoatThick1.4	Required coating thickness increased to 1.4ML
CoatThick2.3	Required coating thickness increased to 2.3ML
EmisTest	50% of biomass burning BC emitted directly in soluble accumulation mode
ConvBCi100	Hydrophobic BC removed by convective precipitation, 100% efficiency
ConvBCi20	Hydrophobic BC removed by convective precipitation, 20% efficiency
LSice12	Scavenging by ice in large-scale precipitation reduced from 100% to 20%
CombPert	LCice12 + ConvBCi20
NitCond	Aging by gas-phase nitric acid condensation included

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1055 *Table 2: Global BC lifetime and burden in each experiment.*

	Lifetime	Burden
	[days]	[Gg]
Base	6.0	133
CoatThick0.5	4.8	106
CoatThick1.4	6.7	150
CoatThick2.3	8.3	185
EmisTest	5.9	131
ConvBCi100	3.6	81
ConvBCi20	4.8	107
LSice12	6.6	147
Combpert	6.6	148
NitCond	3.9	87

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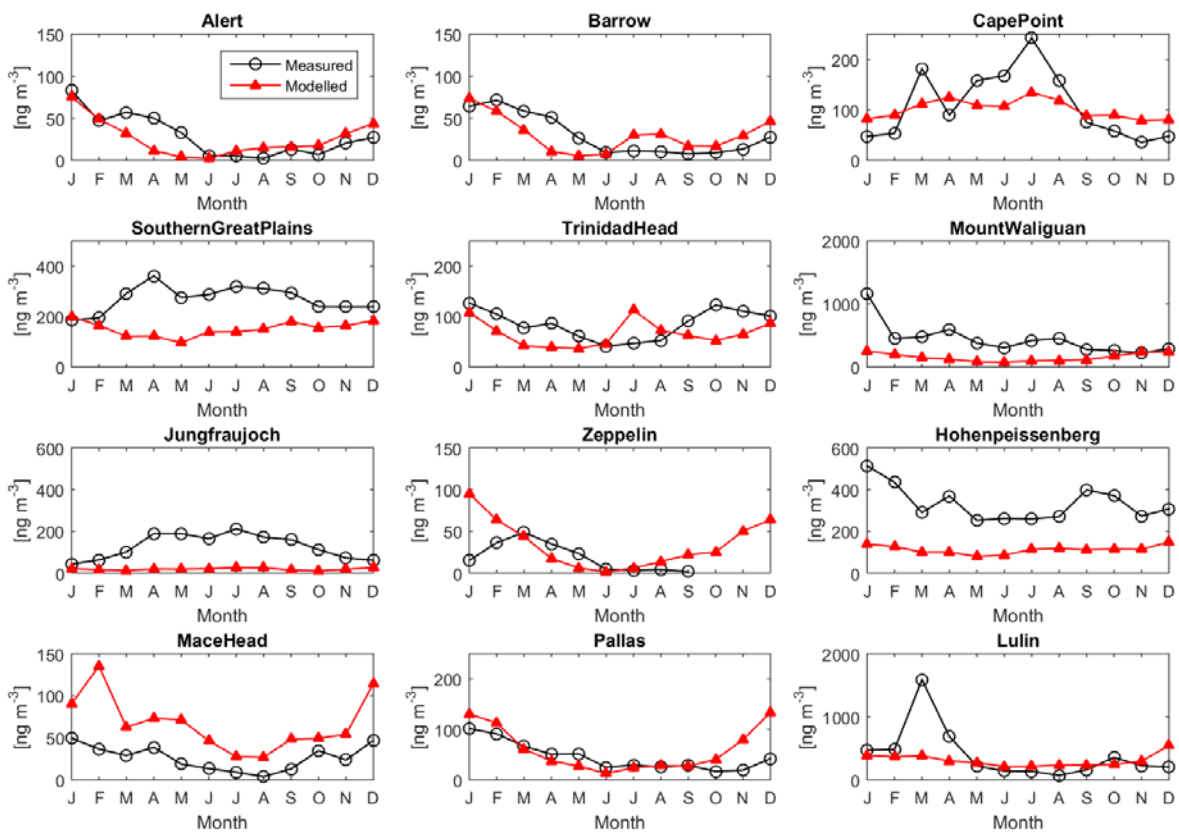
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1066 **FIGURES**

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1069 *Figure 1: Monthly mean measured EBC versus modelled BC surface concentrations [ng/m^3]*
1070 *averaged over 2008-2010 (data at Lulin only available for 2009-2010).*

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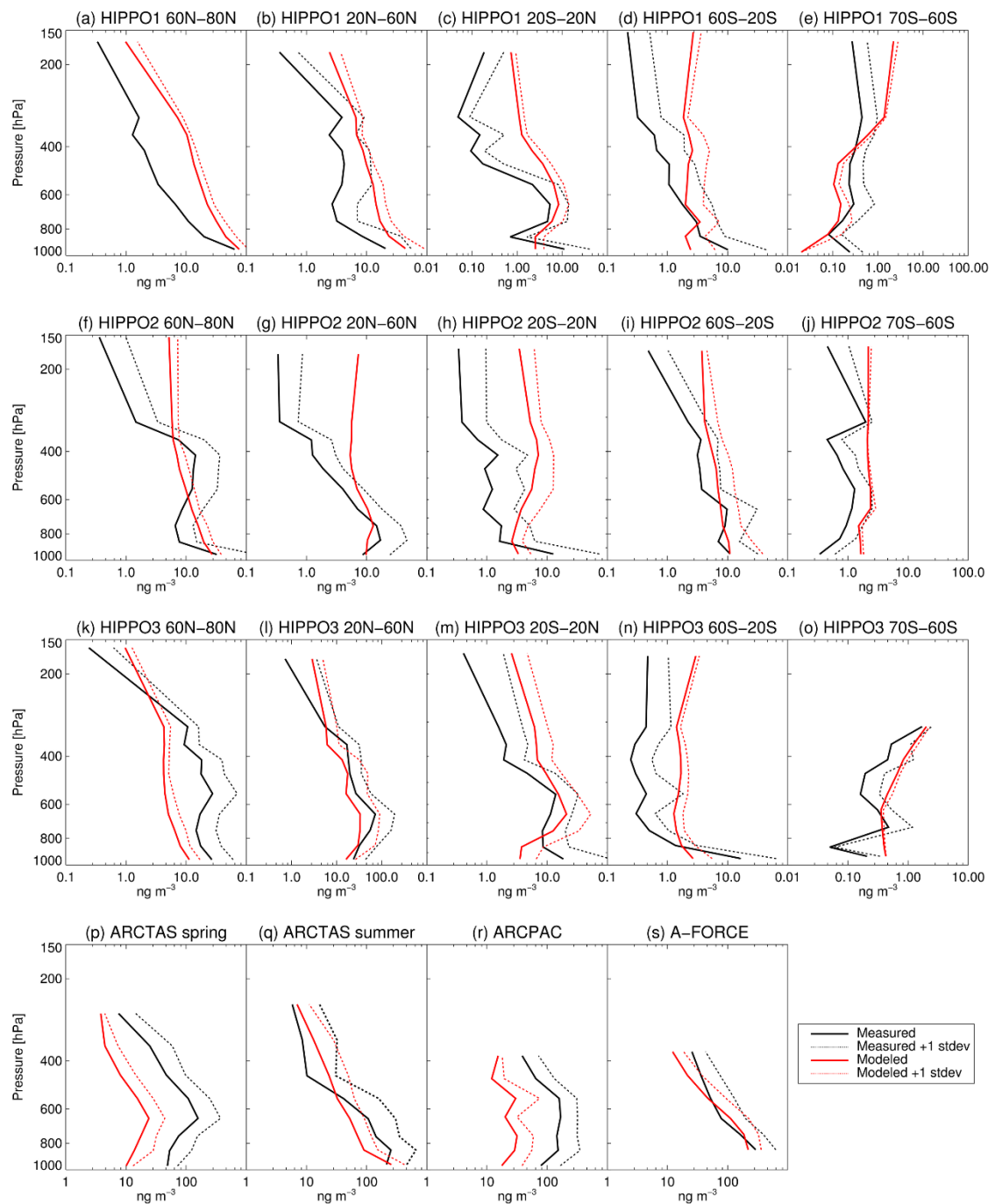
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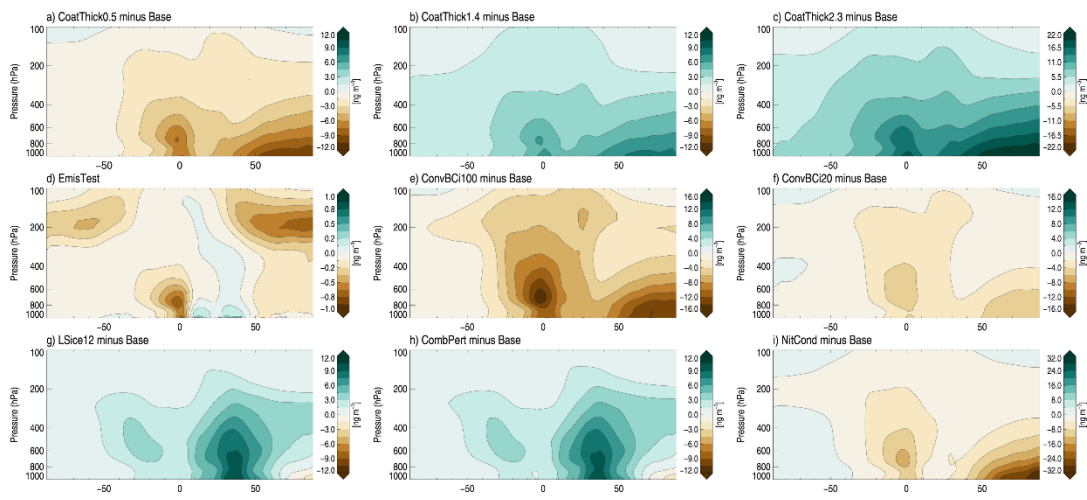
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1082 Figure 2: Comparison of modeled vertical profiles of BC with measured rBC from six flight
 1083 campaigns: (a)-(o) HIPPO 1-3, averaged over five latitude bands, (p)-(q) ARCTAS, spring
 1084 and summer, (r) ARCPAC and (s) A-FORCE. Solid lines show the average of observations
 1085 and model results binned in 100 hPa intervals (25 hPa for HIPPO data between 400 and 200
 1086 hPa), while dashed lines show the standard deviation in each interval.

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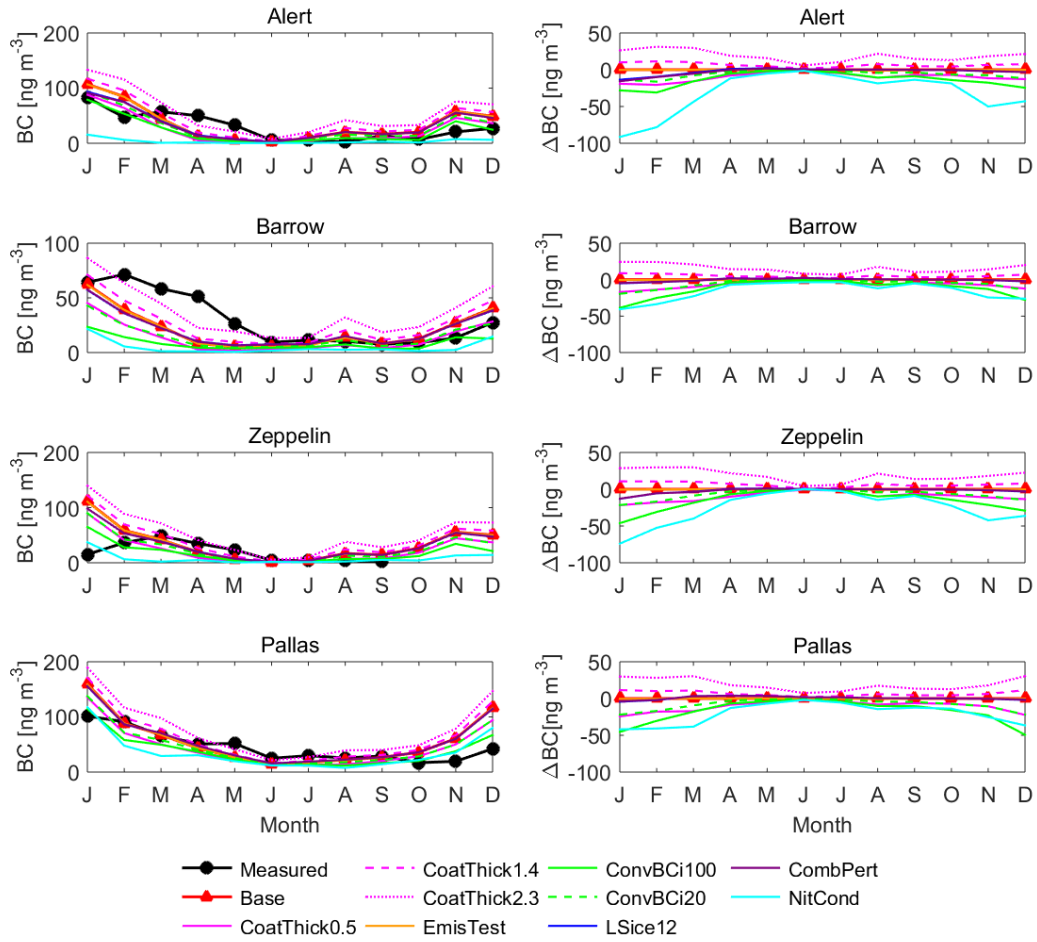
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1089 Figure 3: Difference in zonal, annual mean burden [ng m^{-3}] between each sensitivity
 1090 experiment and the baseline simulation.

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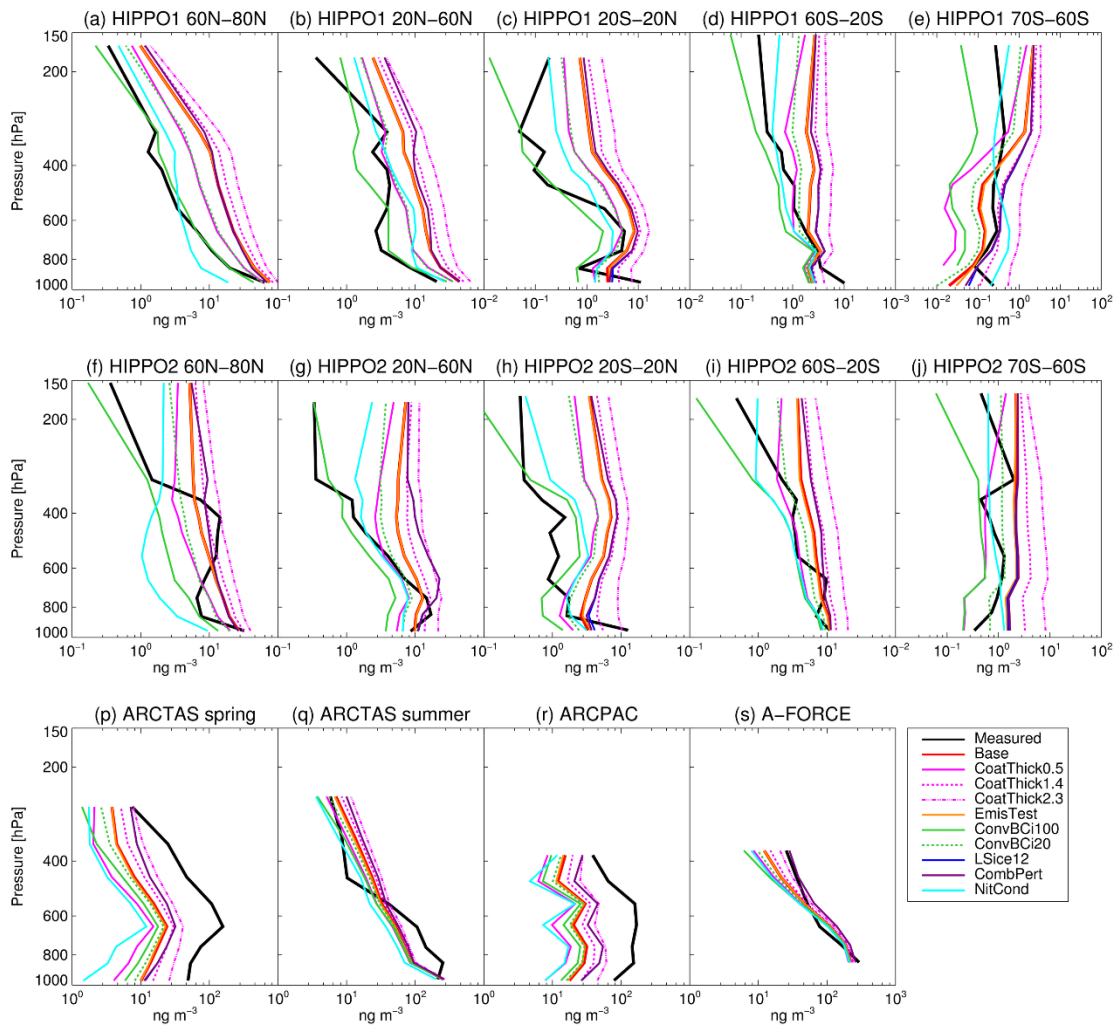


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1095 Figure 4: Monthly surface concentrations of BC at Arctic stations in 2008: measurements
 1096 versus baseline and sensitivity simulations (right column) and difference between each
 1097 sensitivity simulation and the baseline (left).

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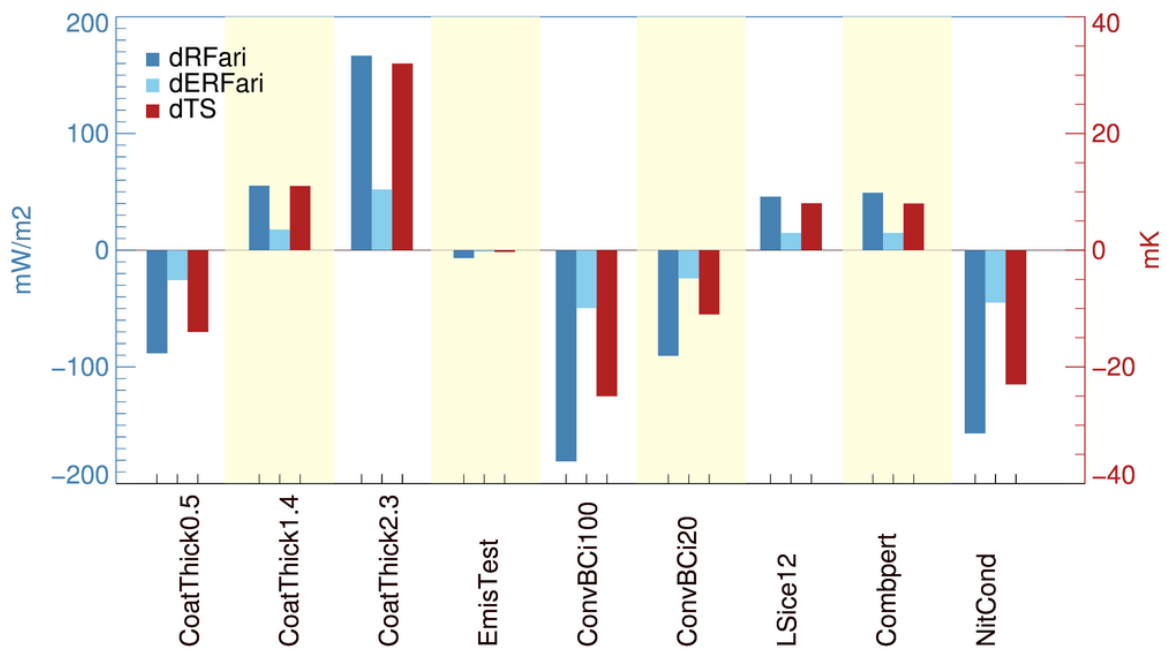


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1101 Figure 5: Vertical profiles of BC in the control and sensitivity runs compared to flight
 1102 campaigns.

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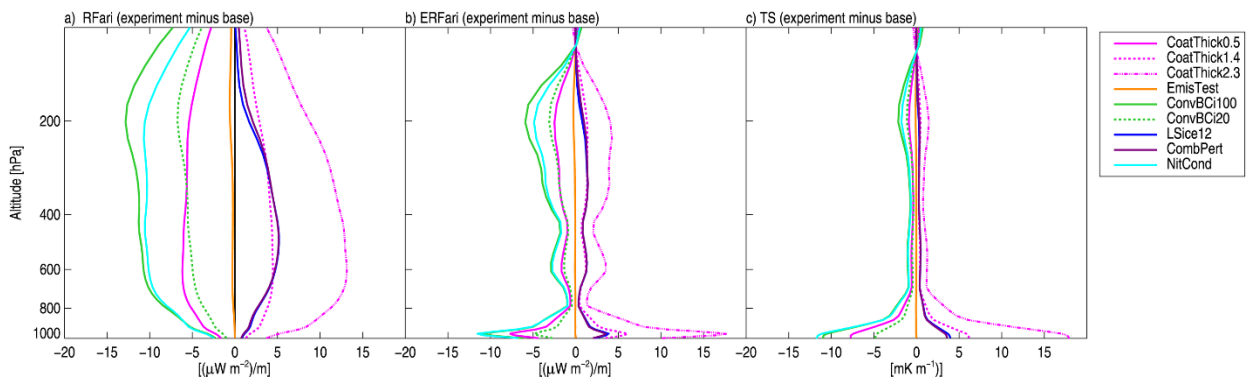
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1106 Figure 6: Net change in RFari, ERFari and TS between each sensitivity experiment and the
 1107 base simulation, estimated using the kernels from (Samset & Myhre, 2015)

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1110 Figure 7: Change in a) RFari, b) ERFari and c) TS between each sensitivity experiment and
 1111 the base simulation as a function of altitude.

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