

1       **Flexpart v10.1 simulation of source contributions to Arctic black carbon**

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**Abstract**

The Arctic environment is undergoing rapid changes such as faster warming than the global average and exceptional melting of glaciers in Greenland. Black carbon (BC) particles, which are a short-lived climate pollutant, are one cause of Arctic warming and glacier melting. However, the sources of BC particles are still uncertain. We simulated the potential emission sensitivity of atmospheric BC present over the Arctic (north of 66° N) using the Flexpart Lagrangian transport model (version 10.1). This version includes a new aerosol wet removal scheme, which better represents particle-scavenging processes than older versions did. Arctic BC at the surface (0–500 m) and high altitudes (4750–5250 m) is sensitive to emissions in high latitude (north of 60° N) and mid-latitude (30–60° N) regions, respectively. Geospatial sources of Arctic BC were quantified, with a focus on emissions from anthropogenic activities (including domestic biofuel burning) and open biomass burning (including agricultural burning in the open field) in 2010. We found that anthropogenic sources contributed 82 % and 83 % of annual Arctic BC at the surface and high altitudes, respectively. Arctic surface BC comes predominantly from anthropogenic emissions in Russia (56 %), with gas flaring from the Yamalo-Nenets Autonomous Okrug and Komi Republic being the main source (31 % of Arctic surface BC). These results highlight the need for regulations to control BC emissions from gas flaring to mitigate the rapid changes in the Arctic environment. In summer, combined open biomass burning in Siberia, Alaska, and Canada contributes 56–85 % (75 % on average) and 40–72 % (57 %) of Arctic BC at the surface and high altitudes, respectively. A large fraction (40 %) of BC in the Arctic at high altitudes comes from anthropogenic emissions in East Asia, which suggests that the rapidly growing economies of developing countries could have a non-negligible effect on the Arctic. To our knowledge, this is the first year-round evaluation of Arctic BC sources that has been

38 performed using the new wet deposition scheme in Flexpart. The study provides a scientific  
39 basis for actions to mitigate the rapidly changing Arctic environment.  
40

## 41 **1 Introduction**

42 The Arctic region has experienced warming at a rate twice that of the global average in  
43 recent decades (Cohen et al., 2014). The Arctic cryosphere has been undergoing  
44 unprecedented changes since the mid-1800s (Trusel et al., 2018). Glacier cover in Greenland  
45 reached its historically lowest level in summer 2012 (Tilling et al., 2015). Evidence indicates  
46 that the emissions and transport of greenhouse gases and aerosols to the Arctic region are  
47 contributing to such warming and melting of snow and ice (Keegan et al., 2014; Najafi et al.,  
48 2015). Short-lived climate pollutants such as black carbon (BC) particles, tropospheric ozone,  
49 and methane greatly affect the Arctic climate (AMAP, 2015; Quinn et al., 2008).

50 BC particles are emitted during incomplete combustion of fossil fuels, biofuels, and  
51 biomass. BC warms the atmosphere by direct absorption of solar radiation. The deposition  
52 of BC on snow and ice surfaces accelerates their melting through decreasing albedo, which  
53 contributes to the rapid loss of glaciers. In the Arctic region, ground-based observations  
54 have indicated that BC shows clear seasonal variations, with elevated mass concentrations  
55 in winter and spring (the so-called Arctic haze) and low values in summer (Law and Stohl,  
56 2007). Such seasonal variations are explained by increased transport from lower latitudes in  
57 the cold season and increased wet scavenging in the warm season (Shaw, 1995; Garrett et  
58 al., 2011; Shen et al., 2017).

59 The presence of BC particles in the Arctic is mainly attributed to emissions in high-latitude  
60 regions outside the Arctic, such as northern Europe and Russia (Stohl, 2006; Brock et al.,  
61 2011). This is partly caused by the polar dome (Stohl, 2006), which is formed because of the  
62 presence of constant potential temperature near the surface. The emissions in high-latitude  
63 regions are transported to the Arctic region and trapped in the dome, which increases the  
64 surface concentration. Recently, Schmale et al. (2018) suggested that local emissions from

65 within the Arctic are another important source, and these are expected to increase in the  
66 future.

67 Although numerous studies have been performed, results regarding regional  
68 contributions of BC sources in the Arctic are still inconclusive. For example, ground-based  
69 observations and Lagrangian transport model results reported by Winiger et al. (2016)  
70 showed that BC in Arctic Scandinavia is predominantly linked to emissions in Europe. Over  
71 the whole Arctic region (north of 66° N), Russia contributes 62 % to surface BC in terms of  
72 the annual mean (Ikeda et al., 2017). Gas flaring in Russia has been identified as a major  
73 (42 %) source of BC at the Arctic surface (Stohl et al., 2013). Xu et al. (2017) found that  
74 anthropogenic emissions from northern Asia contribute 40–45 % of Arctic surface BC in  
75 winter and spring. However, the results of some other studies have suggested that Russia,  
76 Europe, and South Asia each contribute 20–25 % of BC to the low-altitude springtime Arctic  
77 haze (Koch and Hansen, 2005). Sand et al. (2016) found that the surface temperature in the  
78 Arctic is most sensitive to emissions in Arctic countries, and Asian countries contribute  
79 greatly to Arctic warming because of the large absolute amount of emissions. With these  
80 large disagreements among studies, it is thus necessary to unveil BC sources in the Arctic  
81 with high precision simulations.

82 Various models have been used to investigate BC sources in the Arctic. Depending on the  
83 simulation method, these models are generally categorized as Lagrangian transport models  
84 (Hirdman et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2015; Stohl et al., 2006, 2013), chemical transport models  
85 (Ikeda et al., 2017; Koch and Hansen, 2005; Qi et al., 2017; Shindell et al., 2008; Wang et al.,  
86 2011; Xu et al., 2017), and global climate models (Ma et al., 2013; Schacht et al., 2019; H.  
87 Wang et al., 2014) (Table 1). The treatment of wet-scavenging parameterizations is a key  
88 factor affecting the model performance, which determines the uncertainties related to BC

89 particle removal (Kipling et al., 2013; Schacht et al., 2019; Q. Wang et al., 2014). The use of  
90 emission inventories is another important factor that affects the simulation results (Dong et  
91 al., 2019). The observations of BC that are used for model comparisons may be biased by  
92 30 % depending on the method used (Sinha et al., 2017; Sharma et al., 2017). There are still  
93 large uncertainties regarding the sources of BC in the Arctic with respect to emission sectors  
94 (anthropogenic sources and open biomass burning) and geospatial contributions (Eckhardt  
95 et al., 2015).

96 The FLEXible PARTicle dispersion model (Flexpart) had been used to investigate the  
97 transport pathways and source contributions of BC in the Arctic (Stohl et al., 1998, 2006,  
98 2013). Of Flexpart model up to version 9, wet removal was treated considering below-cloud  
99 and within-cloud scavenging processes (Hertel et al., 1995; McMahon and Denison, 1979),  
100 which depends on cloud liquid water content, precipitation rate and the depth of the cloud.  
101 However, clouds were parameterized based on relative humidity, clouds frequently  
102 extended to the surface and at times no clouds could be found in grid cells, with unrealistic  
103 precipitation (Grythe et al., 2017). Recently, version 10 of Flexpart had been developed in  
104 which cloud is differentiated into liquid, solid, and mixed phase, the cloud distribution is  
105 more consistent with the precipitation data (Grythe et al., 2017). This improvement in the  
106 cloud distribution and phase leads to a more realistic distribution of below-cloud and in-  
107 cloud scavenging events. In this study, we quantified region-separated sources of BC in the  
108 Arctic in 2010 by using Flexpart v10.1. We first evaluated the model performance by  
109 comparing the results with those based on observations at surface sites. The source  
110 contributions of emission sectors and geospatial contributions were evaluated by  
111 incorporating the Arctic BC footprint into the emission inventories.

## 112 **2 Materials and methods**

## 113 2.1 Transport model

114 The Flexpart model (version 10.1) was run in backward mode to simulate BC footprints in  
115 the Arctic region. The calculation of wet deposition was improved compared with those in  
116 previous versions because in-cloud scavenging and below-cloud scavenging of particles were  
117 separately calculated (Grythe et al., 2017). In previous versions of Flexpart, in the in-cloud  
118 scavenging scheme, the aerosol scavenging coefficient depended on the cloud water  
119 content, which was calculated according to an empirical relationship with precipitation rate,  
120 in which all aerosols had the same nucleation efficiency (Hertel et al., 1995 ; Stohl et al.,  
121 2005). In the new version, the in-cloud scavenging scheme depends on the cloud water  
122 phase (liquid, ice, or mixed phase). Aerosols were set as ice nuclei for ice clouds and as  
123 cloud condensation nuclei for liquid-water clouds, respectively. For mixed-phase clouds, it  
124 was assumed that 10 % of aerosols are ice nuclei and 90 % are cloud condensation nuclei,  
125 because BC is much more efficiently removed in liquid water clouds than in ice clouds (Cozic  
126 et al., 2007; Grythe et al., 2017). The below-cloud scavenging scheme can parameterize  
127 below-cloud removal as a function of aerosol particle size, and precipitation type (snow or  
128 rain) and intensity. The biases produced in simulations using the new scheme are therefore  
129 smaller than those in the old scheme for wet deposition of aerosols, especially at high  
130 latitudes (Grythe et al., 2017).

131 The Arctic region is defined as areas north of 66° N. The potential BC emission  
132 sensitivities at two heights in the Arctic region, i.e., the surface (0–500 m) and 5000 m  
133 (4750–5250 m), were simulated. The Flexpart outputs were set as gridded retention times.  
134 We performed tests at 500, 2000, and 5000 m, and chose 500 m as the upper boundary  
135 height of the model output. The model was driven with operational analytical data from the  
136 European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) at a spatial resolution of

137  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  with 61 vertical levels. Temporally, ECMWF has a resolution of 3 h, with 6 h analysis  
138 and 3 h forecast time steps. The simulation period was set at 60 days backward starting  
139 from each month in 2010. The maximum life time of BC was set at 20 days because its  
140 suspension time in the upper atmosphere during long-range transport is longer than that at  
141 the surface level (Stohl et al., 2013). We implemented the wet deposition scheme in the  
142 backward calculations, but it was not represented in the default setting (Flexpart v10.1,  
143 <https://www.flexpart.eu/downloads>, obtained 10 April 2017).

144 The chemistry and microphysics could not be resolved by Flexpart. The model therefore  
145 ignores hydrophobic to hydrophilic state changes and size changes of BC, and assumes that  
146 all BC particles are aged hydrophilic particles. This may lead to an overestimation of BC  
147 removal and hence force underestimation of simulated BC concentration, especially of fossil  
148 fuel combustion sources where BC could be in the hydrophobic state for a few days. A  
149 logarithmic size distribution of BC with a mean diameter of  $0.16 \mu\text{m}$  and a standard  
150 deviation of 1.96, in accordance with our ship observations in the Arctic, was used (Taketani  
151 et al., 2016). The particle density was assumed to be  $2000 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ , and 1 million  
152 computational particles were randomly generated in the Arctic region for the backward  
153 runs.

154 Four ground-based observations made during the period 2007–2011 were used to  
155 validate the model performance. The potential BC emission sensitivity at 0–500 m above  
156 ground level from a  $0.1^\circ$  grid centered at each site was simulated. Other model  
157 parameterizations were consistent with those for the Arctic region, except that 200 000  
158 computational particles were released.

159 2.2 Emission inventories



160 We focused on BC sources from anthropogenic emissions and open biomass burning. The  
161 Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollution version 2 inventory (HTAP2) for 2010 was used for  
162 monthly anthropogenic BC emissions (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015), which include  
163 sectors from energy, industry, residential and transport. It is worth noting that the  
164 residential sector includes not only combustions of fossil fuels, but also biofuels. However,  
165 as it has been reported that BC emissions in Russia were underestimated in HTAP2, we used  
166 the BC emissions reported by Huang et al. (2015) for Russia, in which the annual BC  
167 emissions were  $224 \text{ Gg yr}^{-1}$ . For open biomass burning, we used the monthly BC emissions  
168 from the Global Fire Emissions Database version 3 inventory (GFED3) (van der Werf et al.,  
169 2010) for the purposes of intercomparison with other studies, as this version is widely used.  
170 The term “open biomass burning” here indicates burning of biomass in the open field as is  
171 determined by the remote sensing measurement basis, including forest, agricultural waste,  
172 peat fires, grassland and savanna, woodland, deforestation and degradation, where biofuel  
173 burning for residential use is not included. Geospatial distributions of emissions from  
174 anthropogenic sources and open biomass burning in January and July are shown in Fig. S1.

### 175 2.3 Calculation of Arctic BC source contributions

176 The source contributions to Arctic BC were derived by incorporating the gridded  
177 retention time into the column emission flux, which was derived from the emission  
178 inventories in each grid. Calculations for anthropogenic sources and open biomass burning  
179 were performed separately and the sum was used. For anthropogenic sources, the regions  
180 were separated into North America and Canada ( $25\text{--}80^\circ \text{ N}$ ,  $50\text{--}170^\circ \text{ W}$ ), Europe ( $30\text{--}80^\circ \text{ N}$ ,  
181  $0\text{--}30^\circ \text{ E}$ ), Russia ( $53\text{--}80^\circ \text{ N}$ ,  $30\text{--}180^\circ \text{ E}$ ), East Asia ( $35\text{--}53^\circ \text{ N}$ ,  $75\text{--}150^\circ \text{ E}$  and  $20\text{--}35^\circ \text{ N}$ ,  $100\text{--}$   
182  $150^\circ \text{ E}$ ), and others (the rest) (Fig. 1a). For open biomass burning sources, the regions were

183 separated into Alaska and Canada (50–75° N, 50–170° W), Siberia (50–75° N, 60–180° E),  
184 and others (Fig. 1b).

### 185 2.3 Observations

186 BC levels simulated by Flexpart were compared with those based on surface observations  
187 at four sites: Barrow, USA (156.6° W, 71.3° N, 11 m asl), Alert, Canada (62.3° W, 82.5° N,  
188 210 m asl), Zeppelin, Norway (11.9° E, 78.9° N, 478 m asl), and Tiksi, Russia (128.9° E, 71.6°  
189 N, 8 m asl). Aerosol light absorption was determined by using particle soot absorption  
190 photometers (PSAPs) at Barrow, Alert, and Zeppelin, and an aethalometer at Tiksi. For PSAP  
191 measurements, the equivalent BC values were derived using a mass absorption efficiency of  
192  $10 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ . The equivalent BC at Tiksi, which was determined with an aethalometer, was  
193 obtained directly. These measurement data were obtained from the European Monitoring  
194 and Evaluation Programme and World Data Centre for Aerosols database  
195 (<http://ebas.nilu.no>) (Tørseth et al., 2012).

196 It is worth noting that uncertainties could be introduced by using different BC  
197 measurement techniques. An evaluation of three methods for measuring BC at Alert,  
198 Canada indicated that an average of the refractory BC determined with a single-particle soot  
199 photometer (SP2) and elemental carbon (EC) determined from filter samples give the best  
200 estimate of BC mass (Sharma et al., 2017). Xu et al. (2017) reported that the equivalent BC  
201 determined with a PSAP was close to the average of the values for refractory BC and EC at  
202 Alert. In this study, we consider that the equivalent BC values determined with a PSAP at  
203 Barrow, Alert, and Zeppelin to be the best estimate. There may be uncertainties in the  
204 equivalent BC observations performed with an aethalometer at Tiksi because of co-existing  
205 particles such as light-absorptive organic aerosols, scattering particles, and dusts  
206 (Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Lack and Langridge, 2013). Interference by the filter and

207 uncertainties in the mass absorption cross section could also contribute to the bias  
208 observed in measurements made with an aethalometer at Tiksi.

### 209 **3 Results and discussion**

#### 210 **3.1. Comparisons of simulations with BC observations at Arctic surface sites**

211 Flexpart generally reproduced the seasonal variations in BC at four Arctic sites well  
212 [Pearson correlation coefficient ( $R$ ) = 0.53–0.80, root-mean-square error (RMSE) = 15.1–56.8  
213  $\text{ng m}^{-3}$ ] (Fig. 2). Winter maxima were observed for the four sites, while a secondary  
214 elevation was observed for Alert and Tiksi. At Barrow, the observed high values of BC were  
215 unintentionally excluded during data screening in the forest fire season in summer (Stohl et  
216 al., 2013); the original observed BC is supposed to be higher as was reflected by the  
217 simulation. This seasonality is probably related to relatively stronger transport to the Arctic  
218 region in winter, accompanied by lower BC aging and inefficient removal, as simulated by  
219 older versions of Flexpart (Eckhardt et al., 2015; Stohl et al., 2013).

220 From January to May at Barrow and Alert, the mean BC simulated by Flexpart v10.1 were  
221  $32.2 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$  and  $31.2 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ , respectively. Which was 46 % lower than the observations  
222 ( $59.3 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$  and  $58.2 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ , respectively). This is probably related to the inadequate BC  
223 emission in the inventory, although seasonal variations in residential heating are included in  
224 HTAP2, which would reduce the simulation bias (Xu et al., 2017). Simulations by GEOS-Chem  
225 using the same emission inventories also underestimated BC levels at Barrow and Alert  
226 (Ikeda et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2017). The underestimation by Flexpart could also be partly  
227 contributed by the assumption that all particles are hydrophilic, where the BC scavenging  
228 could be overestimated. The corresponding uncertainties are larger in winter months, when  
229 there are more sources from fossil fuel combustion.

230 At Zeppelin, the Flexpart-simulated BC ( $39.1 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$  for annual mean) was 85 % higher  
231 than the observed value ( $21.1 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$  for annual mean), especially in winter (112% higher). It  
232 has been reported that riming in mixed-phase clouds occurs frequently at Zeppelin (Qi et al.,  
233 2017). During the riming process, BC particles act as ice particles and collide with the  
234 relatively numerous water drops, which form frozen cloud droplets, and then snow is  
235 precipitated. This results in relatively efficient BC scavenging (Hegg et al., 2011). Such a  
236 process could not be dealt with by the model. At Tiksi, Flexpart underestimated BC ( $74.4 \text{ ng}$   
237  $\text{m}^{-3}$  for annual mean) in comparison with observation ( $104.2 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$  for annual mean). Other  
238 than the hydrophilic BC assumption and underestimated BC emission in the simulation as  
239 the cases for Barrow and Alert, the observations at Tiksi by an aethalometer could  
240 contain light-absorbing particles other than BC, resulting in higher observed  
241 concentrations if compared with those obtained by SP2, EC and PSAP.

242 Anthropogenic emissions are the main sources of BC at the four Arctic sites from late  
243 autumn to spring, whereas open biomass burning emissions make large contributions in  
244 summer. From October to April, anthropogenic emissions accounted for 87–100 % of BC  
245 sources at all the observation sites. At Barrow, open biomass burning accounted for 35–  
246 78 % of BC in June–September (Fig. 2). There are large interannual variations in both  
247 observed and simulated BC (Fig. S2). In June–August 2010, the mean contributions of open  
248 biomass burning to BC were 6.3, 2.4, and 8.6 times those from anthropogenic sources at  
249 Alert, Zeppelin, and Tiksi, respectively. In this study, we focused on BC in the Arctic region in  
250 2010.

### 251 **3.2 Potential emission sensitivity of Arctic BC**

252 The potential emission sensitivities (footprint) of Arctic BC showed different patterns  
253 with respect to altitude. The Arctic surface is sensitive to emissions at high latitudes ( $>60^\circ$

254 N). Air masses stayed for over 60 s in each of the 1° grids from the eastern part of northern  
255 Eurasia and the Arctic Ocean before being transported to the Arctic surface in the winter,  
256 represented by January (Fig. 3a). In comparison, during the summer, represented by July, BC  
257 at the Arctic surface was mainly affected by air masses that originated from the Arctic  
258 Ocean and the Norwegian Sea (Fig. 3b). These results imply that local BC emissions within  
259 the Arctic regions, although relatively weak compared with those from the mid-latitude  
260 regions, could strongly affect Arctic air pollution. Local BC emissions are important in the  
261 wintertime because the relatively stable boundary layer does not favor pollution dispersion.  
262 Recent increases in anthropogenic emissions in the Arctic region, which have been caused  
263 by the petroleum industry and development of the Northern Sea Route, are expected to  
264 cause deterioration of air quality in the Arctic. Socio-economic developments in the Arctic  
265 region would increase local BC emissions, and this will be a non-negligible issue in the future  
266 (Roiger et al., 2015; Schmale et al., 2018).

267 BC at high altitudes (~ 5000 m) in the Arctic is more sensitive to mid-latitude (30–60° N)  
268 emissions, especially in wintertime. In January, air masses hovered over the Bering Sea and  
269 the North Atlantic Ocean before arriving at the Arctic (Fig. 3c). A notable corridor at 30–50°  
270 N covering Eurasia and the United States was the sensitive region that affected BC at high  
271 altitudes in the Arctic in January. These results indicate that mid-latitude emissions,  
272 especially those with relatively large strengths from East Asia, East America, and Europe,  
273 could alter the atmospheric constituents at high altitudes in the Arctic. Central to east  
274 Siberia was the most sensitive region for BC at high altitudes in the Arctic in July (Fig. 3d).  
275 These results suggest that pollutants from frequent and extensive wildfires in Siberia in  
276 summer are readily transported to high altitudes in the Arctic. Boreal fires are expected to  
277 occur more frequently and over larger burning areas under future warming (Veira et al.,

278 2016), therefore the atmospheric constituents and climate in the Arctic could undergo more  
279 rapid changes.

### 280 **3.3 Seasonal variations and sources of Arctic surface BC**

281 Arctic surface BC showed clear seasonal variations, with a primary peak in winter–spring  
282 (December–March, 61.8–82.8 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) and a secondary peak in summer (July, 52.7 ng m<sup>-3</sup>).  
283 BC levels were relatively low in May–June (21.8–23.1 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) and September–November  
284 (34.1–40.9 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) (Fig. 4a). This seasonality agrees with observations and simulations at  
285 Alert, Tiksi, and Barrow if consider the unintentional data exclusion (Stohl et al., 2013), and  
286 previous studies targeting the whole Arctic (Ikeda et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2017). Compared  
287 with the study reported by Stohl et al. (2013), the current work using the new scheme  
288 produced smaller discrepancies between the simulated data and observations. Although the  
289 simulation periods (monthly means for 2007–2011 in this study and for 2008–2010 in the  
290 old scheme) and the anthropogenic emission inventories (HTAP2 in this study and ECLIPSE4  
291 in the previous study) are different, the new scheme shows potential for better representing  
292 BC transport and removal processes in the Arctic.

293 The annual mean Arctic BC at the surface was estimated to be 48.2 ng m<sup>-3</sup>. From October  
294 to April, anthropogenic sources accounted for 96–100 % of total BC at the Arctic surface.  
295 Specifically, anthropogenic emissions from Russia accounted for 61–76 % of total BC in  
296 October–May (56 % annually), and was the dominant sources of Arctic BC at the surface.  
297 From an isentropic perspective, the meteorological conditions in winter favored the  
298 transport of pollutants from northern Eurasia to the lower Arctic, along with diabatic cooling  
299 and strong inversions (Klonecki et al., 2003). In comparison, open biomass burning from  
300 boreal regions accounted for 56–85 % (75 % on average) of Arctic BC at the surface in  
301 summer; open biomass burning emissions from North America and Canada accounted for

302 54 % of total Arctic surface BC in June, and those from Siberia accounted for 59–61 % in  
303 July–August. Wildfires in the boreal forests in summer had a major effect on air quality in  
304 the Arctic.

305 On an annual basis, anthropogenic sources and open biomass burning emissions  
306 accounted for 82 % and 18 %, respectively, of total Arctic surface BC. In which, gas flaring  
307 and residential burning (including burning of fossil fuels and biofuels) are accounting for  
308 36 % (28–57 % in October–March) and 15 % (13–25 % in October–March), respectively (Fig.  
309 5a-b). Our results support Stohl et al. (2013) that residential combustion emissions,  
310 especially in winter are important sources of Arctic BC (Table 1). We estimated a  
311 contribution of gas flaring to Arctic surface BC of  $17.5 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$  (36% of total). In comparison,  
312 the value was estimated as  $11.8 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$  using an average Arctic surface BC of  $28 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$  and  
313 a fraction from gas flaring of 42 % evaluated by earlier versions of Flexpart (Stohl et al.,  
314 2013; Winiger et al., 2019). The different contribution could be partly attributed to the  
315 difference in gas flaring emission inventory. BC emission from gas flaring in Russia by Huang  
316 et al. (2015) was used in the current study, where total BC emission from gas flaring in  
317 Russia in 2010 was ca. 81.1 kilotonne, which was larger than the estimate of ca. 64.9  
318 kilotonne by GAINS inventory (Klimont et al., 2017) used by Stohl et al. (2013). Moreover,  
319 Adopting ECLIPSEv5 inventory as was used by Winiger et al. (2019), we estimated that gas  
320 flaring was contributing  $14.4 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$  to Arctic surface BC using Flexpart v10.1, a value 22 %  
321 higher than those obtained using Flexpart v9. This difference could be attributed to the  
322 improvement of the wet-scavenging scheme by Flexpart v10.1.

323 A recent study based on isotope observations at the Arctic sites and Flexpart v9.2  
324 simulation suggested that open biomass burning, including open field burning and  
325 residential biofuel burning, contributed 39 % of annual BC in 2011–2015 (Winiger et al.,

326 2019) (Table 1). In comparison, we estimated that residential burning and open biomass  
327 burning together account for 33 % of total Arctic surface BC. As the residential burning in  
328 our study includes burning of both biofuels and fossil fuels, our results indicated that  
329 biomass burning has a relatively smaller contribution. Other than the differences in BC  
330 removal treatment between different versions of the model, the contribution difference  
331 could also be attributed to the different emission inventories and years (2010 versus 2011-  
332 2015).

333 The geospatial contributions of anthropogenic sources and open biomass burning  
334 emissions can be further illustrated by taking January and July as examples. In January, high  
335 levels of anthropogenic emissions from Russia (contributing 64 % of Arctic surface BC),  
336 Europe (18 %), and East Asia (9 %) were identified (Fig. 6a). Specifically, Yamalo-Nenets  
337 Autonomous Okrug in Russia, which has the largest reserves of Russia's natural gas and oil  
338 (Filimonova et al., 2018), was the most notable emission hotspot, which suggests gas-flaring  
339 sources. The Komi Republic in Russia was also identified as a strong anthropogenic emitter  
340 contributing to Arctic surface BC. These gas-flaring industrial regions in Russia (58–69° N,  
341 68–81°E) together contributed 33 % and 31 % of Arctic surface BC for January and the  
342 annual mean, respectively. Recently, Dong et al. (2019) evaluated BC emission inventories  
343 using GEOS-Chem and proposed that using the inventory compiled by Huang et al. (2015)  
344 for Russia, in which gas flaring accounted for 36 % of anthropogenic emissions, had no  
345 prominent impact on the simulation performance in Russia and the Arctic. They suggested  
346 that use of a new global inventory for BC emissions from natural gas flaring would improve  
347 the model performance (Huang and Fu, 2016). These results suggest that inclusion of BC  
348 emissions from gas flaring on the global scale is necessary for further BC simulations.



349 In Europe, a relatively high contribution of anthropogenic emissions to Arctic surface BC  
350 in January was made by Poland (50–55° N, 15–24° E, contributing 4 % of Arctic surface BC)  
351 because of relatively large emission fluxes in the region (Fig. S1a). Anthropogenic emissions  
352 from East China, especially those north of ~33° N (33–43° N, 109–126° E), contributed  
353 perceptibly (5 %) to Arctic surface BC.

354 In July, contributions from anthropogenic sources shrank to those from Yamalo-Nenets  
355 Autonomous Okrug and Komi Republic in Russia, and contributed a lower fraction (3 % of  
356 Arctic surface BC) (Fig. 6b). Few open biomass burning sources contributed in January (Fig.  
357 6c), but contributions from open biomass burning to Arctic surface BC in July can be clearly  
358 seen, mainly from the far east of Russia, Canada, and Alaska (Fig. 6d). Open biomass burning  
359 emissions from Kazakhstan, southwest Russia, southern Siberia, and northeast China also  
360 contributed to Arctic surface BC, although at relatively low strengths (Fig. 5d and Fig. S1d).  
361 However, the contributions from open biomass burning could be higher, as the MODIS  
362 burned area, the basis of GFED emission inventories, was underestimated for northern  
363 Eurasia by 16 % (Zhu et al., 2017). Evangeliou et al. (2016) estimated a relatively high  
364 transport efficiency of BC from open biomass burning emissions to the Arctic, which led to a  
365 high contribution, i.e., 60 %, from such sources to BC deposition in the Arctic in 2010. A  
366 recent study suggested that open fires burned in western Greenland in summer (31 July to  
367 21 August 2017) could potentially alter the Arctic air composition and foster glacier melting  
368 (Evangeliou et al., 2019). Although the footprint of Arctic surface BC showed a relatively  
369 weak sensitivity to areas such as forests and tundra, in the boreal regions, pollutants from  
370 boreal wildfires could have greater effects on the Arctic air composition in summer under  
371 future warming scenarios (Veira et al., 2016).

#### 372 **3.4 Sources of Arctic BC at high altitudes**

373 Arctic BC levels at high altitudes (4750–4250 m) showed the highest levels in spring  
374 (March–April, 40.5–53.9 ng m<sup>-3</sup>), followed by those in late autumn to early winter  
375 (November–January, 36.5–40.0 ng m<sup>-3</sup>), and summer (July–August, 33.0–39.0 ng m<sup>-3</sup>) (Fig.  
376 4c). The annual mean Arctic BC at high altitudes was estimated to be 35.2 ng m<sup>-3</sup>, which is  
377 ca. 73 % of those at the surface. Such a vertical profile is in accordance with those based on  
378 aircraft measurements over the High Canadian Arctic (Schulz et al., 2019). Similarly to the  
379 case for the surface, anthropogenic sources dominated by residential sectors, transport,  
380 industry and energy (excluding gas flaring), accounted for 94–100 % of Arctic BC at high  
381 altitudes in October–May (Figs. 4c, 5c). East Asia accounted for 34–65 % of the total BC in  
382 October–May (40 % annually). In comparison, using the Community Atmosphere Model  
383 version 5 driven by the NASA Modern Era Retrospective-Analysis for Research and  
384 Applications reanalysis data and the IPCC AR5 year 2000 BC emission inventory, H. Wang et  
385 al. (2014) found that East Asia accounted for 23% of BC burden in the Arctic for 1995–2005.  
386 In summer, open biomass burning in the boreal regions accounted for 40–72 % (57 % on  
387 average) of Arctic BC at high altitudes, similar to the source contributions to Arctic surface  
388 BC. Specifically, open biomass burning sources from Siberia accounted for 40–42 % of Arctic  
389 BC at high altitudes in July–August. Annually, anthropogenic sources and open biomass  
390 burning accounted for 83 % (in which residential sources accounted for 34%) and 17 %,  
391 respectively, of total Arctic BC at high altitudes (Figs. 4d, 5d).

392 Further investigations of geospatial contributions to Arctic BC at high altitudes in January  
393 and July provided more details regarding BC sources. In January, the main anthropogenic BC  
394 source in East Asia covered a wide range in China (Fig. 7a). Not only east and northeast  
395 China, but also southwest China (Sichuan and Guizhou provinces) were the major  
396 anthropogenic sources of Arctic BC at high altitudes. In July, anthropogenic sources made a

397 relatively weak contribution to Arctic BC at high altitudes. The regions that were sources of  
398 open biomass burning contributions to Arctic BC at high altitudes were mainly the far east of  
399 Siberia, Kazakhstan, central Canada, and Alaska, i.e., similar to the sources of Arctic surface  
400 BC. Unlike Arctic surface BC, for which the dominant source regions are at high latitudes in  
401 both winter and summer, Arctic BC at high altitudes mainly originates from mid-latitude  
402 regions (Figs. 6 and 7). In terms of transport pathways, air masses could be uplifted at low-  
403 to-mid latitudes and transported to the Arctic (Stohl, 2006). Further investigations are  
404 needed to obtain more details of the transport processes.

### 405 **3.5 Comparison of Flexpart and GEOS-Chem simulations of BC sources**

406 Data for BC sources simulated with Flexpart were compared with those obtained with  
407 GEOS-Chem (Ikeda et al., 2017), which is an Eulerian atmospheric transport model, using the  
408 same emission inventories. The simulated seasonal variations in Arctic BC levels and source  
409 contributions obtained with Flexpart agreed well with those obtained with GEOS-Chem (Fig.  
410 S3). The annual mean BC levels at the Arctic surface obtained by Flexpart and GEOS-Chem  
411 simulations were 48 and 70  $\text{ng m}^{-3}$ , respectively; the high-altitude values simulated by  
412 Flexpart and GEOS-Chem were 35 and 38  $\text{ng m}^{-3}$ , respectively. The magnitude difference  
413 between the BC levels at the Arctic surface could be related to meteorology. ECMWF ERA-  
414 Interim data were used as the input for the Flexpart simulation, whereas the GEOS-Chem  
415 simulation was driven by assimilated meteorological data from the Goddard Earth  
416 Observation System (GEOS-5).

417 The treatments of the BC removal processes could also lead to different simulation  
418 results, depending on the model. In terms of BC loss processes, dry and wet depositions  
419 were the removal pathways, depending on the particle size and density, in Flexpart. The  
420 treatment of meteorology, especially cloud water and precipitation, would therefore affect

421 the uncertainties of the simulations. In Flexpart version 10.1, BC particles are separately  
422 parameterized as ice nuclei for ice clouds, cloud condensation nuclei for liquid-water clouds,  
423 and 90 % as cloud condensation nuclei for mixed-phase clouds. The separation of mixed-  
424 phase clouds is realistic, as 77 % of in-cloud scavenging processes occurred in the mixed  
425 phase over a 90 day period starting from December 2006 (Grythe et al., 2017).

426 In GEOS-Chem simulations, the BC aging was parameterized based on the number  
427 concentration of OH radicals (Liu et al., 2011). The BC was assumed to be hydrophilic in  
428 liquid clouds ( $T \geq 258$  K) and hydrophobic when serving as ice nuclei in ice clouds ( $T < 258$  K)  
429 (Wang et al., 2011), with modifications because the scavenging rate of hydrophobic BC was  
430 reduced to 5 % of water-soluble aerosols for liquid clouds (Bourgeois and Bey, 2011). Such a  
431 treatment is expected to improve the simulation accuracy (Ikeda et al., 2017).

432 In Lagrangian models, the trajectories of particles are computed by following the  
433 movement of air masses with no numerical diffusion, although some artificial numerical  
434 errors could be generated from stochastic differential equations (Ramli and Esler, 2016). As  
435 a result, long-range transport processes can be well simulated (Stohl, 2006; Stohl et al.,  
436 2013). In comparison, Eulerian chemical transport models such as GEOS-Chem have the  
437 advantage of simulating non-linear processes on the global scale, which enables treatment  
438 of the BC aging processes (coating with soluble components) (Bey et al, 2001; Eastham et  
439 al., 2018). However, with GEOS-Chem, the capture of intercontinental pollution plumes is  
440 difficult because of numerical plume dissipation (Rastigejev et al., 2010). Nevertheless, the  
441 agreement between the Flexpart and GEO-Chem simulations of BC source contributions  
442 indicates improved reliability of evaluated source contributions to Arctic BC.

#### 443 **4 Conclusions**

444 The source contributions to Arctic BC were investigated by using a Flexpart (version 10.1)  
445 transport model that incorporated emission inventories. Flexpart-simulated BC data agreed  
446 well with observations at Arctic sites, i.e., Barrow, Alert, Zeppelin, and Tiksi. The source  
447 regions and source sectors of BC at the surface and high altitudes ( $\sim 5000$  m) over a wide  
448 region in the Arctic north of  $66^\circ$  N were simulated. BC at the Arctic surface was sensitive to  
449 local emissions and those from nearby Nordic countries ( $>60^\circ$  N). These results emphasize  
450 the role of anthropogenic emissions such as gas flaring and development of the Northern  
451 Sea Route in affecting air quality and climate change in the Arctic. Anthropogenic emissions  
452 in the northern regions of Russia were the main source (56 %) of Arctic surface BC annually.  
453 In contrast, BC in the Arctic at high altitudes was sensitive to mid-latitude emissions ( $30\text{--}60^\circ$   
454 N). Although they are geospatially far from the Arctic, anthropogenic emissions in East Asia  
455 made a notable (40 %) contribution to BC in the Arctic at high altitudes annually. Open  
456 biomass burning emissions, which were mainly from Siberia, Alaska, and Canada, were  
457 important in summer, contributing 56–85 % of BC at the Arctic surface, and 40–72 % at  
458 Arctic high altitudes. Future increases in wildfires as a result of global warming could  
459 therefore increase the air pollution level during the Arctic summer. This study clarifies the  
460 source regions and sectors of BC in the Arctic. This information is fundamental for  
461 understanding and tackling air pollution and climate change in the region.

462

463 *Data Availability.* The data set for simulated footprint and BC source contributions is  
464 available on request to the corresponding author.

465

466 *Author contributions.* CZ and YK designed the study. CZ, MT, and IP optimized the Flexpart  
467 model. CZ performed Flexpart model simulations, conducted analyses, and wrote the

468 manuscript. KI and HT provided data for GEOS-Chem simulations and site observations. All  
469 authors made comments that improved the paper.

470

471 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

472

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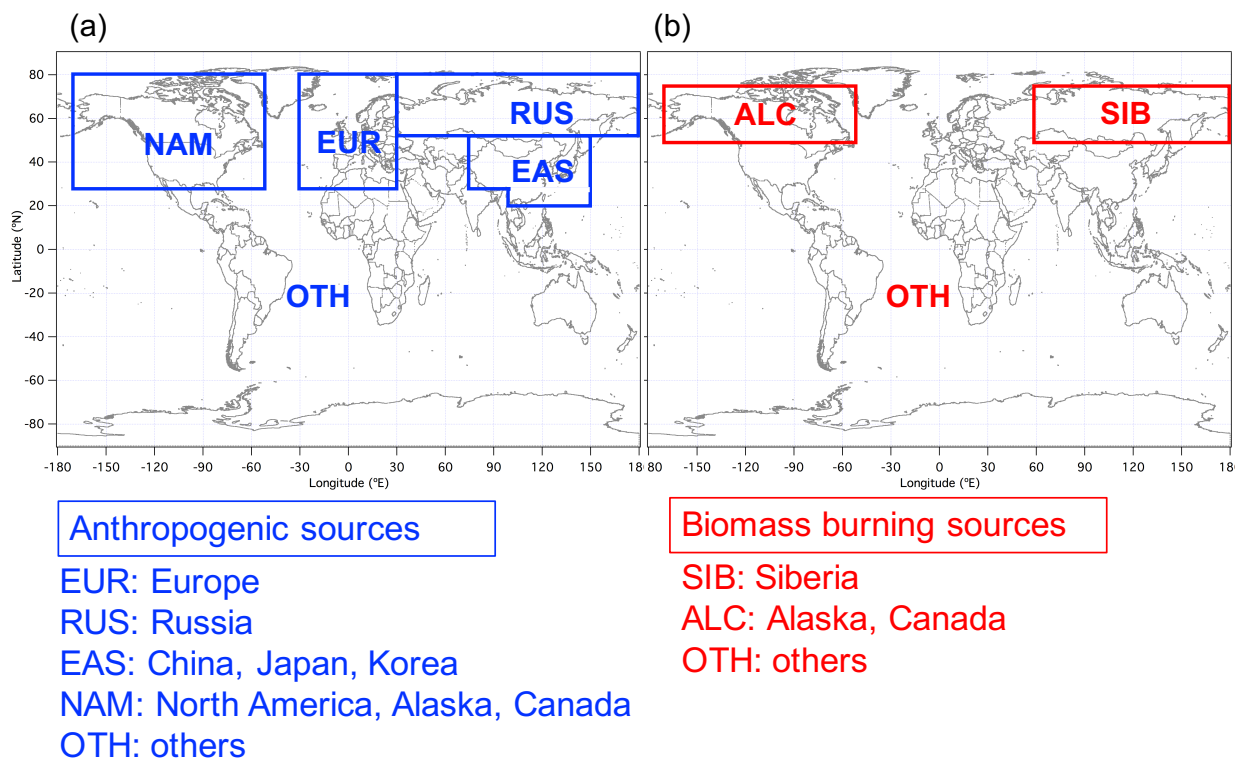
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Table 1. Comparison of BC source contributions in the Arctic surface

Model and versions	Model type	Wet-deposition	Grid resolution	Meteorology	Emissions	Domain/Sites	Year/season	Major source regions/sectors	Reference
Flexpart-WRF 6.2	Lagrangian	Stohl et al. (2005)	unspecified	WRF forecast	ECLIPSE, FINN	continental Norway and Svalbard	spring 2013	Asian anthropogenic	Liu et al. (2015)
Flexpart 6.2	Lagrangian	Stohl et al. (2005)	1° × 1°	ECMWF operational	Unspecified (BC sensitivities were calculated)	Alert, Barrow, Zeppelin	1989-2009	Northern Eurasia	Hirdman et al. (2010)
Flexpart 6.2	Lagrangian	Stohl et al. (2005)	1° × 1°	ECMWF operational	ECLIPSE4(GAINS), GFED3	Arctic (north of 66°N)	2008-2010	Flaring (42%), residential (>20%)	Stohl et al. (2013)
Flexpart 9.2	Lagrangian	Stohl et al. (2005)	1° × 1°	ECMWF operational	ECLIPSE5(GAINS), GFED4.1	Arctic (north of 66.7°N)	2011-2015	Residential and open burning (39%) Flaring (36%), open burning (18%), residential (15%), others (31%)	Winiger et al. (2019)
Flexpart 10.1	Lagrangian	Grythe et al. (2017)	1° × 1°	ECMWF operational	HTAP2, GFED3, Huang et al. (2015) for Russia flaring	Arctic (north of 66°N)	2010	(18%), residential (15%), others (31%)	Current study
GEOS-Chem 9.02	CTM	Wang et al. (2011)	2° × 2.5°	GEOS-5	HTAP2, GFED3, Huang et al. (2015) for Russia flaring	Arctic (north of 66°N)	2007-2011	Russia (62%)	Ikeda et al. (2017)
GEOS-Chem	CTM	Wang et al. (2011)	2° × 2.5°	GEOS-5	Bond et al. (2004), Zhang et al. (2009), GFED3	Alert, Barrow, Zeppelin	April 2008	Asian anthropogenic (35–45%), Siberian biomass burning (46–64%)	Qi et al. (2017)
GEOS-Chem	CTM	Wang et al. (2011)	2° × 2.5°	GEOS-5	Bond et al. (2007), FLAMBE	North America Arctic	April 2008	Open fire (50%)	Wang et al. (2011)

GEOS-Chem10.01	CTM	Wang et al. (2011)	$2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$	GEOS-5	HTAP2, ECLIPSE5, GFED4	Alert, Barrow, Zeppelin, Arctic (north of $66.5^\circ\text{N}$ )	2009-2011	N-Asian anthropogenic (40–45%) in winter-spring	Xu et al. (2017)
GISS ModelE	GCM	Koch et al. (2006)	$4^\circ \times 5^\circ$	Internal	Bond et al. (2004), Cooke and Wilson (1996)	Arctic (north of $\sim 60^\circ\text{N}$ )	Annual general	South Asia	Koch and Hansen (2005)



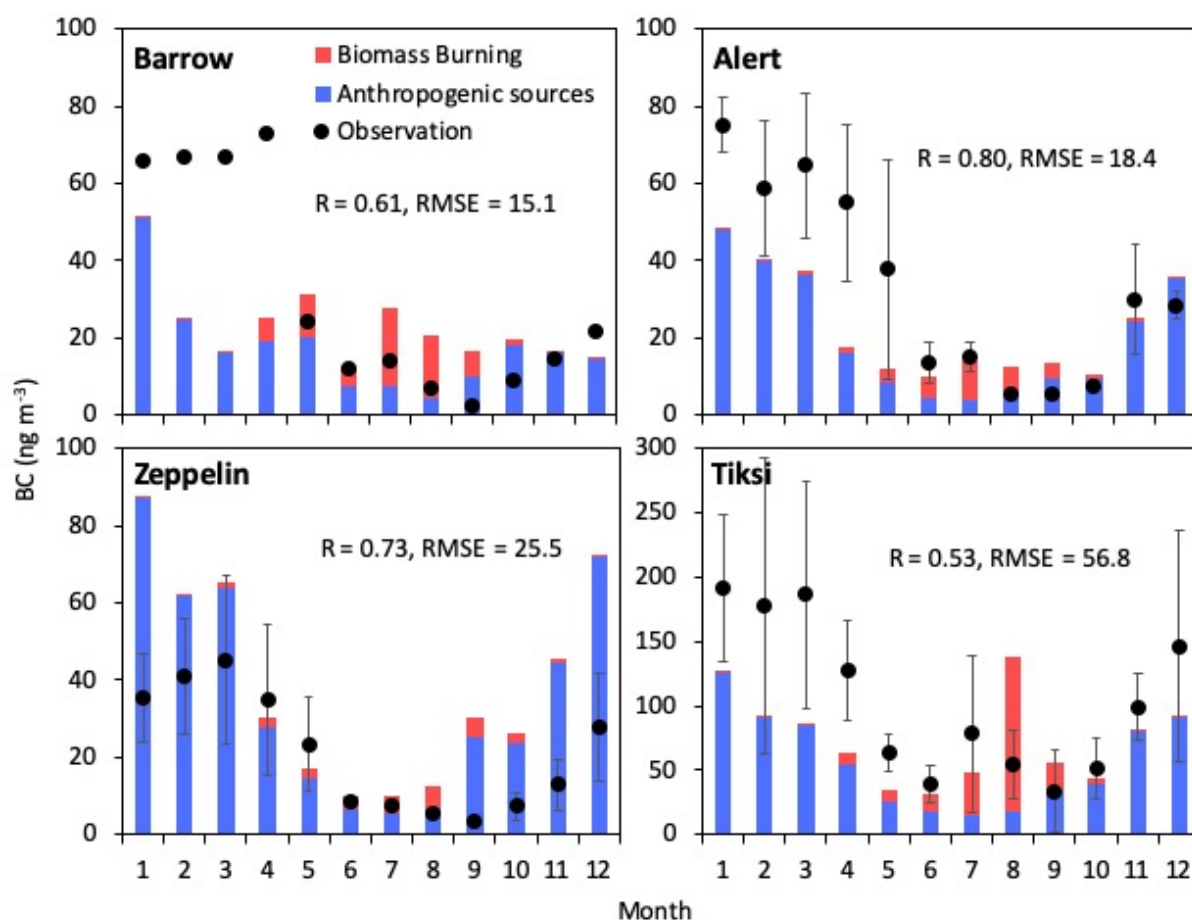


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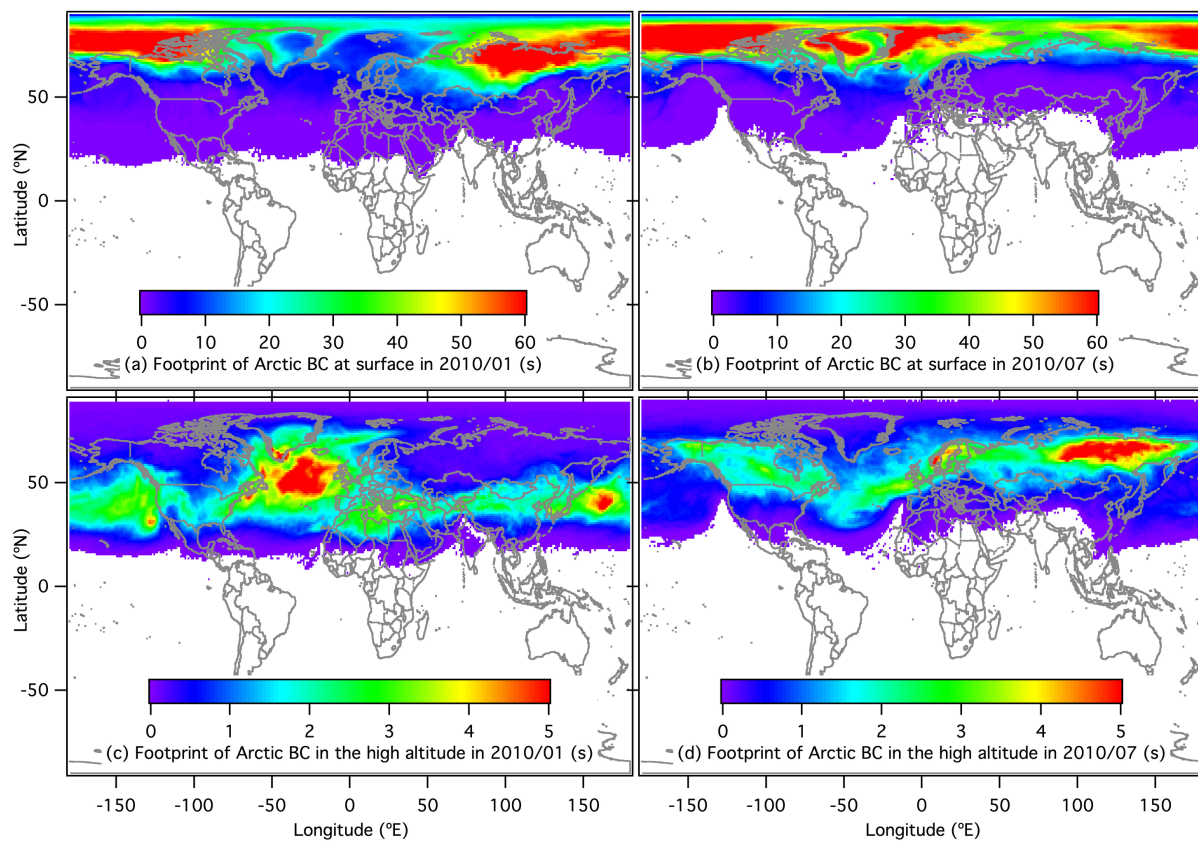
746 Figure 1. Regional separation for quantification of BC in the Arctic from (a) anthropogenic and

747 (b) open biomass burning sources.

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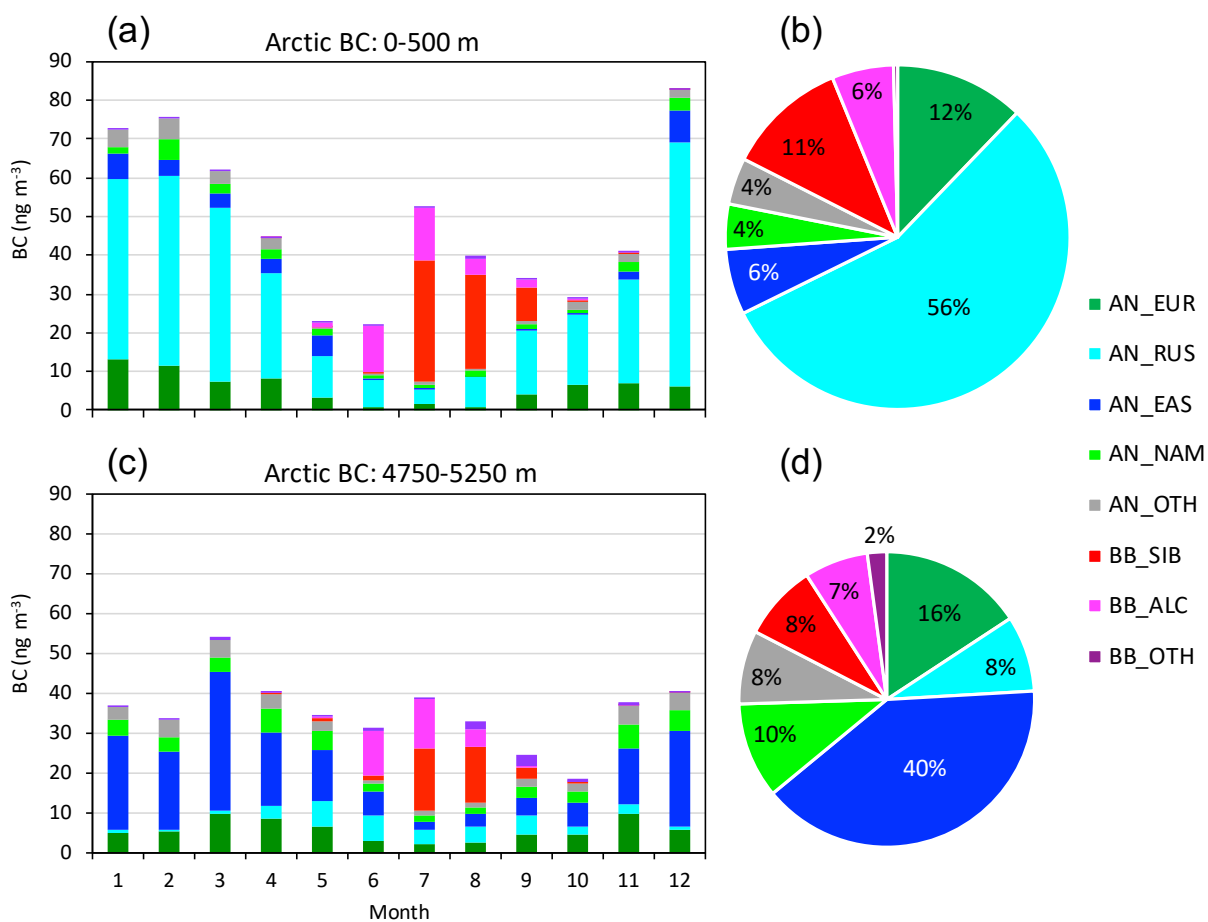
749  
 750 Figure 2. Observed (filled circles) and modeled (bars) seasonal variations in BC mass  
 751 concentrations at Arctic sites. Contributions from anthropogenic sources (blue) and open  
 752 biomass burning (red) in each month are shown. Monthly averages of observed (filled circles)  
 753 and simulated (bars) BC were conducted for 2007–2011 at Alert, Canada ( $62.3^\circ \text{ W}$ ,  $82.5^\circ \text{ N}$ ),  
 754 and Zeppelin, Norway ( $11.9^\circ \text{ E}$ ,  $78.9^\circ \text{ N}$ ), for 2009 at Barrow, USA ( $156.6^\circ \text{ W}$ ,  $71.3^\circ \text{ N}$ ), and for  
 755 2010–2014 at Tiksi, Russia ( $128.9^\circ \text{ E}$ ,  $71.6^\circ \text{ N}$ ).  $R$  and RMSE indicate correlation coefficient and  
 756 root-mean-square error ( $\text{ng m}^{-3}$ ), respectively.  
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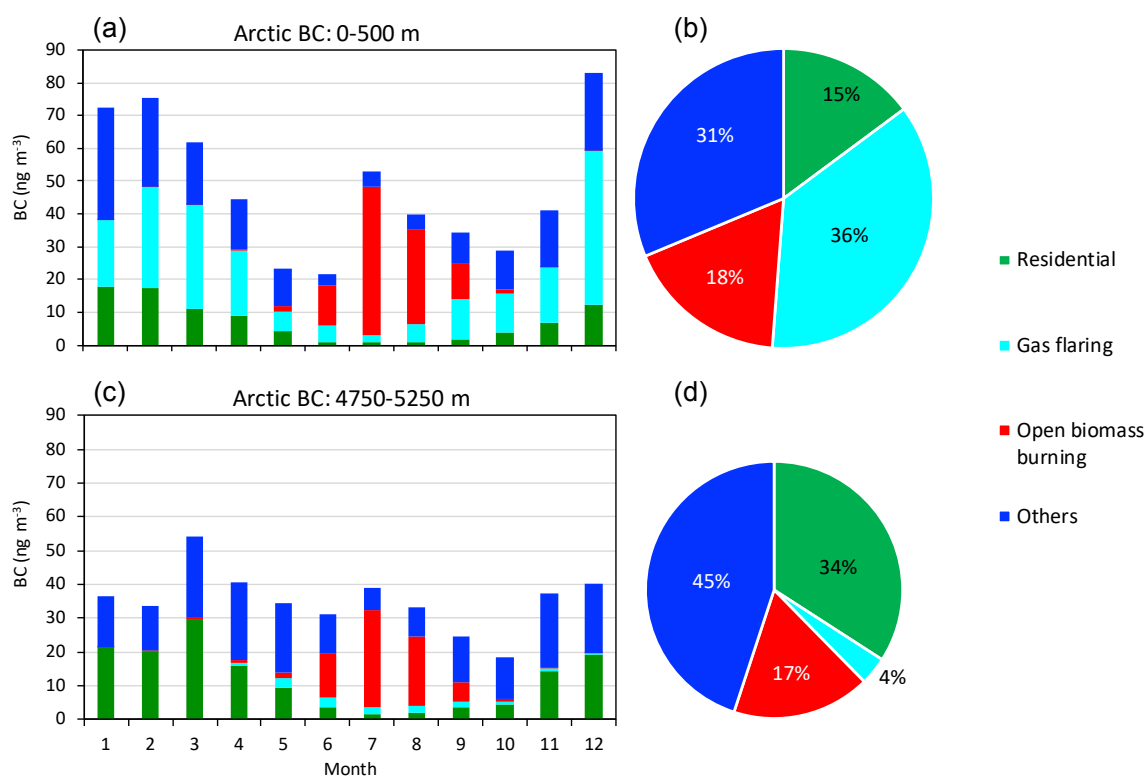
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759 Figure 3. Footprints of Arctic BC shown as retention time(s) of (a) BC at surface (0–500 m) in  
 760 January 2010, (b) BC at surface in July 2010, (c) BC at high altitudes (4750–5250 m) in January  
 761 2010, and (d) BC at high altitudes (4750–5250 m) in July 2010.

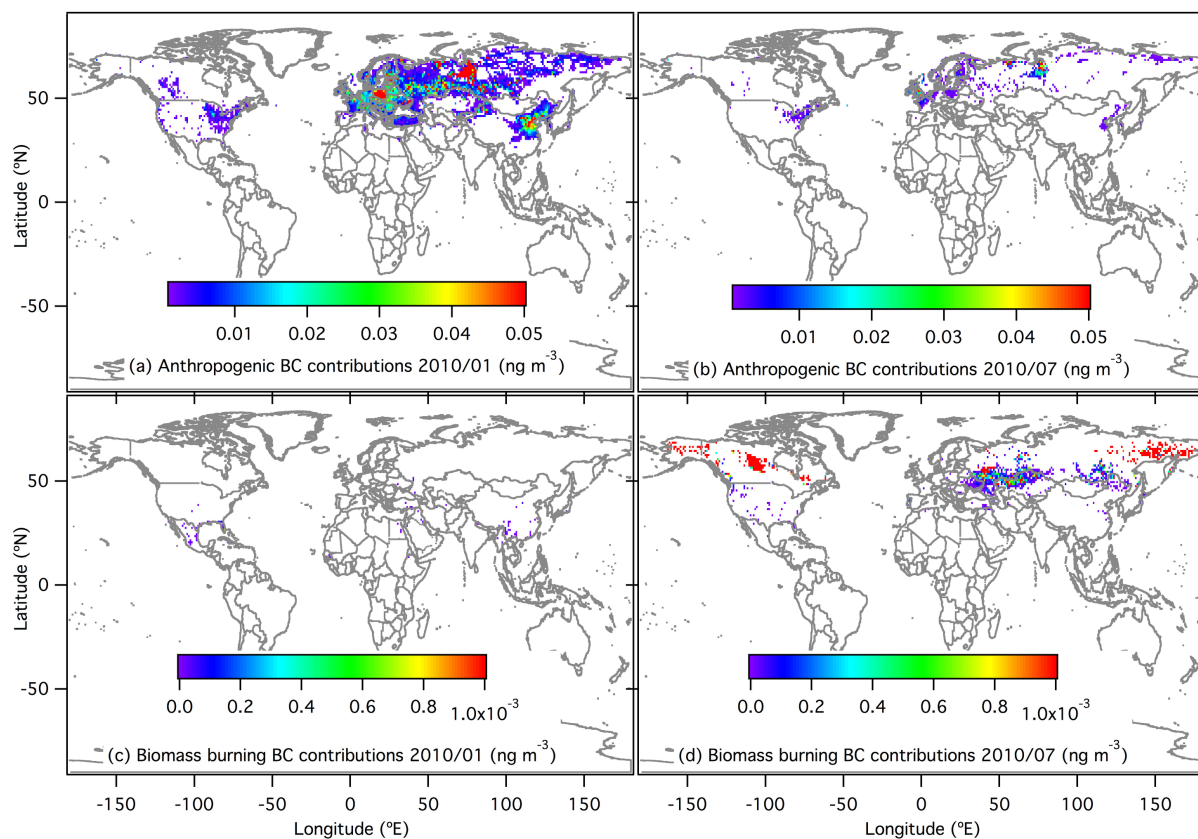
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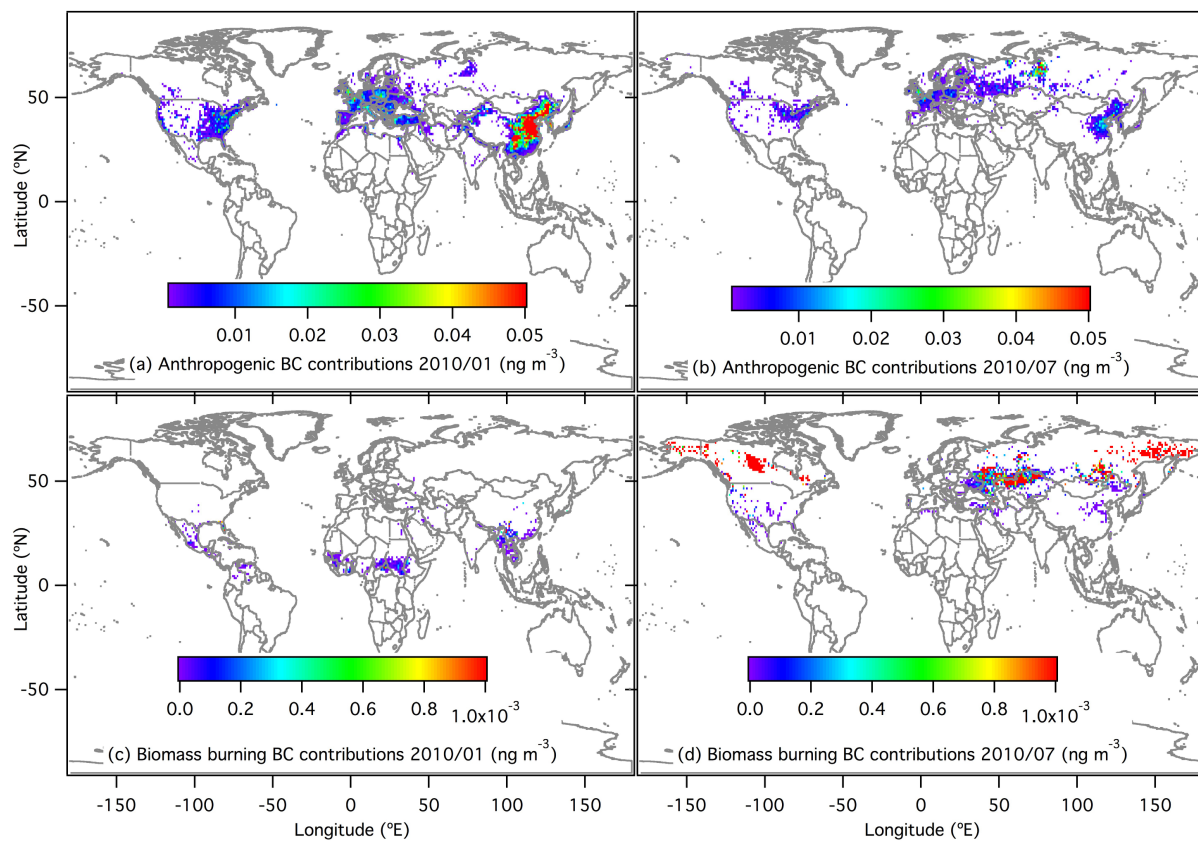
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 764 Figure 4. Contributions of anthropogenic sources and open biomass burning from each region  
 765 to (a) seasonal variations in Arctic surface BC, (b) annual mean Arctic surface BC, (c) seasonal  
 766 variations in Arctic BC at high altitudes, and (d) annual mean of Arctic BC at high altitudes.  
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768  
 769 Figure 5. Sectorial contributions from residential combustion (including fossil fuel and biofuel  
 770 combustions), gas flaring, open biomass burning and others (energy other than gas flaring,  
 771 industry and transport) to (a) seasonal variations in Arctic surface BC, (b) annual mean Arctic  
 772 surface BC, (c) seasonal variations in Arctic BC at high altitudes, and (d) annual mean of Arctic  
 773 BC at high altitudes.  
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 776 Figure 6. Spatial distributions of contributions to Arctic BC at surface (0–500 m) for (a)  
 777 anthropogenic contributions in January 2010, (b) anthropogenic contributions in July 2010, (c)  
 778 open biomass burning contributions in January 2010, and (d) open biomass burning  
 779 contributions in July 2010.  
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781  
 782 Figure 7. Spatial distributions of contributions to Arctic BC at high altitudes (4750–5250 m) for  
 783 (a) anthropogenic contributions in January 2010, (b) anthropogenic contributions in July 2010,  
 784 (c) open biomass burning contributions in January 2010, and (d) open biomass burning  
 785 contributions in July 2010.  
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