



1 **Black Carbon Seasonal and Diurnal Variation in surface snow in Svalbard and its**
2 **Connections to Atmospheric Variables**

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 Black Carbon (BC) is a major forcing agent in the Arctic but substantial uncertainty remains to
21 quantify its climate effects due to the complexity of mechanisms involved. In this study, we provide
22 unique information on processes driving the variability of BC mass concentration in surface snow in the
23 Arctic. Two different snow-sampling strategies were adopted during spring 2014 and 2015, focusing on
24 the *refractory* BC (rBC) mass Ny-Ålesund concentration daily/hourly variability on a seasonal/daily time
25 scale (referred to as 80-days and 3-days experiments). Despite the low rBC mass concentrations (never
26 exceeding 22 ng g⁻¹), a daily variability of up to 4.5 ng g⁻¹ was observed. Atmospheric, meteorological and
27 snow-related physico-chemical parameters were considered in multiple statistical models to understand
28 the factors behind the observed variation of rBC mass concentrations. Results indicate that the main
29 drivers of the variation of rBC are the precipitations events, snow metamorphism (melting-refreezing
30 cycles, surface hoar formation and sublimation) and the activation of local sources (wind resuspension)
31 during the snow melting periods. The rBC in the snow seems de-coupled with the atmospheric BC load.
32 Our results highlighted a common association of snow rBC with coarse mode particles number
33 concentration and with snow precipitation events.



34 1. Introduction

35 In the last two decades, the Arctic regions have been exposed to dramatic changes in terms of
36 atmospheric temperature rise, sea ice decreasing and increase of air mass transport from lower latitudes
37 bringing warmer and humid air masses containing pollutants and anthropogenic derived compounds (Law
38 and Stohl, 2007; Comiso et al., 2008; Screen and Simmonds, 2010; Eckhardt et al., 2013; Schmale et al.,
39 2018; Maturilli et al., 2019). Despite a general decreasing trend observed in most parts of the globe, in the
40 Arctic region the coefficients describing the aerosol optical properties, e.g. scattering and absorption, had
41 generally shown a weakly increasing to a not-statistically significant trend (95% confidence),
42 respectively (Collaud Coen et al., 2020). Long-range transport and local emissions of combustion
43 generating aerosols as black carbon (BC) could influence the radiative budget of the Arctic atmosphere,
44 especially after the impacts of atmospheric aging on the mixing state of BC particles (Eleftheriadis et al.,
45 2009; Bond et al., 2013; Zanatta et al., 2018). When deposited over snow, many aerosol species directly
46 absorb the solar radiation more efficiently than snow itself, thus favoring snow aging processes and the
47 decrease of the snow albedo (Hansen and Nazarenko, 2004; Flanner et al., 2007; Hadley and Kirchstetter,
48 2012; Skiles et al., 2018; Skiles and Painter, 2019).

49 Among these light-absorbing aerosols, *black carbon* (BC) particles are the most effective in
50 absorbing the visible and near infrared solar radiation. These primarily emitted, insoluble, refractory and
51 carbonaceous particles originate from natural and anthropogenic sources such as open fires or diesel
52 engine exhausts, respectively. Currently, the anthropogenic emissions are higher compared to the natural
53 ones (Moosmüller et al., 2009; Bond et al., 2013). In 2000, approximately 59% of the total global BC
54 emissions were generated from the energy production sector (including fossil fuels and solid residential
55 fuels combustions) and the remaining from biomass burning (Bond et al., 2013). BC particles account for
56 about 10% of the total aerosol mass in the European atmosphere and are characterized by a mass size
57 distribution peaking around 100-250 nm (of mass equivalent diameter), e.g. at 240 nm in the Svalbard
58 area in spring (Bond et al., 2013; Laborde et al., 2013; Zanatta et al., 2016; Motos et al., 2019). In a
59 global perspective the BC radiative forcing (RF) is considered to be second only to that of CO₂, even
60 though the value is characterized by a 90% uncertainty (Bond et al., 2013). The impact of BC particles
61 absorbing the incoming solar radiation has certainly a non-negligible role in the Arctic region which is
62 already threatened by a two-fold temperature increase compared to the mid-latitude regions, the so called
63 “Arctic Amplification” (Bond et al., 2013; Cohen et al., 2014; Serreze and Barry, 2011). BC has an
64 atmospheric lifetime of about seven days and has been directly targeted in important international
65 mitigation agreements (Programme (AMAP), 2015). In this manuscript, the recommended nomenclature



66 proposed in Petzold et al. (2013) is used to describe the BC related quantities, depending on the
67 deployed instrumental method.

68 Theoretical and experimental results showed that the cryosphere is affected both by the BC-
69 induced warming of the atmosphere and by direct and indirect BC effects on the snow once deposited
70 over it (Flanner, 2013), as for example the increase of absorbed incoming solar radiation by BC at snow
71 surface. Consequently, snow is melting faster, decreasing the snow cover period, but snow is also aging
72 more rapidly, which further decreases the snow albedo (Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008; Brandt et al.,
73 2011; Hadley and Kirchstetter, 2012).

74 Atmospheric BC measurements in the Arctic regions are still rare, despite an extraordinary effort
75 done by the international scientific community in order to evaluate the sources, transport paths,
76 concentration and climate impact (Eleftheriadis et al., 2009; Pedersen et al., 2015; Ferrero et al., 2016;
77 Ruppel et al., 2017; Osmont et al., 2018; Zanatta et al., 2018; Laj et al., 2020). In order to understand the
78 behavior of the BC particles in the snow mantle and to retrieve their radiative impact, several studies were
79 performed in the last decades, measuring the amount of BC particles and their properties directly in the
80 snow. A detailed list of previous measurements of BC in the Arctic snow pack (using different
81 methodologies) is reported in Forsström et al. (2009) focused on snow surface in Svalbard and measured
82 the *elemental carbon* (EC) content using filters and thermo/optical method. The results from 81 samples
83 indicate a large variability in the EC mass concentration, ranges from 0 to about 80 ng g⁻¹ (with a median
84 mass concentration of about 4 ng g⁻¹). In Aamaas et al. (2011), the EC carbon mass concentration was
85 measured in surface snow samples collected around the settlements of Longyearbyen and Svea in the
86 Svalbard archipelago, that are affected by intense local sources (i.e. diesel, coal power plants and coal
87 extraction). There, EC mass concentration in the snow samples was up to 1000 ng g⁻¹, rapidly decreasing
88 with distance (50 ng g⁻¹ at a distance of about 5 km). Oppositely, the snow collected near Ny-Ålesund was
89 characterized by an average EC concentration of 6.6 ng g⁻¹ with a standard deviation of 4.3 ng g⁻¹,
90 defined as an Arctic background-like concentration. Moreover, Aamaas et al. (2011) observed that if the
91 surface snow is influenced by melting episodes most of the BC-containing particles remain on the
92 surface, therefore virtually increasing their mass concentration, especially during the spring season. Snow
93 samples from Scandinavia and European Arctic were analyzed and discussed in Forsström et al. (2013) in
94 terms of EC content: in the Scandinavian snow samples the EC concentrations were up to ~47 ng g⁻¹, due
95 to local emissions, whereas in more remote regions as in Barrow (Northern Alaska) they were from 3 to
96 14 ng g⁻¹. The data discussed in Pedersen et al. (2015) from Arctic snow (Ny-Ålesund, Tromsø, Fram
97 Strait and Barrow), also measured with the thermo-optical method were characterized by an EC
98 concentration ranging from 5 to 137 ng g⁻¹. Specifically, the surface snow samples from Ny-Ålesund in



99 2010 and 2011 had a median EC concentration from 18 to 21 ng g⁻¹. In Gogoi et al. (2016) snow samples
100 were collected in the surrounding area of the atmospheric BC observatory at Gruvebadet (Ny-Ålesund,
101 Svalbard) during April 2012. They used a filter based absorption method (Clarke and Noone, 1985), i.e. a
102 dual wavelength optical transmissometer (Sootscan, Model OT-21, Magee Scientific, USA) at 880 and
103 370 nm. The *equivalent* BC (eqBC; derived from absorption measurements) mass concentrations in their
104 samples ranged from 0.6 to 4.1 ng g⁻¹, and the fraction of BC from biomass burning was up to 25%. Khan
105 et al. (2017) selected two sites, Woodfjorden and a coal dust contaminated site in southern Svalbard
106 (Mine 7), to collect background-like and coal dust affected surface snow samples, respectively.
107 Concentrations of EC varied from 5 to about 4000 ng g⁻¹. Also the refractory black carbon (rBC, i.e.
108 measured with a Single Particle Soot Photometer – SP2, DMT) concentration values were reported
109 ranging from 1 to 340 ng g⁻¹. The difference between the values obtained using the thermo-optical and the
110 laser-induced incandescence (SP2) methods arises from the physical principles involved in the measurement,
111 from the different size ranges and from differences in the aerosols physico-chemical characteristics. A
112 review of the various methodologies to measure BC can be found in Bond et al. (2013), whereas a
113 nomenclature definition in Petzold et al. (2013). Mori et al. (2019) analyzed the rBC mass concentration
114 and size distribution for snow samples from several regions in the Arctic (Greenland, Finland, Alaska,
115 Siberia, and Svalbard) showing a latitudinal variability, consistent with changes in anthropogenic BC
116 emissions, atmospheric precipitable water content and topography changes.

117 A complex combination of processes are involved in the BC particles transfer from the
118 atmosphere to the surface snow. The wet deposition is traditionally considered as the main scavenging
119 process, particularly efficient for particles in the typical atmospheric BC size range. For bigger particles,
120 instead, dry deposition is generally more efficient. Via a modelling approach, Liu et al. (2011) found that
121 approximately 50% of the total burden of BC in the Arctic atmosphere is removed through wet deposition
122 related processes. Yasunari et al. (2013) estimated the intensity of BC dry deposition on the Himalayan
123 glaciers using several dry deposition methods (models and observations). Particularly, they found that the
124 surface roughness and the surface wind speed are critical parameters in order to retrieve realistic results.
125 Emerson et al. (2018) empirically evaluated the in situ rBC deposition velocities over a grassland ($0.3 \pm$
126 0.2 mm s⁻¹), suggesting eddy covariance as the main deposition driver. In a recent study, Jacobi et al.
127 (2019) confirmed the previous estimates of the importance of the wet deposition in removing BC particles
128 in the atmosphere. Their results suggest that in spring and in the Svalbard Arctic area, approximately 60%
129 of the BC particles are deposited on the surface snow via wet deposition. Moreover, they found out that
130 the BC particles deposition is similar to those of nitrate and non-sea-salt (nss) sulfate, equally explained
131 through wet and dry deposition (in contrast with the major sea salt components, mainly deposited via wet
132 deposition).



133 Complex air-snow BC transfer, post depositional processes and potentially high radiative impacts
134 make the BC behavior in the Arctic snow pack an intriguing and complex research topic. BC content in
135 the surface snow is still poorly characterized in the Arctic region, particularly for what concerns
136 measurements performed with single-particle accurate instruments, i.e. the SP2. The absolute values of
137 rBC mass concentration are important to evaluate the BC radiative impact via snow albedo reduction. In
138 this work, the variability of the snow absolute rBC mass concentration was investigated for the first time
139 following two different sampling frequencies, daily and hourly. To do this, two field campaigns were
140 performed in the vicinity of the Gruvebadet Aerosol Laboratory, in Ny-Ålesund, during spring 2014 and
141 2015. The daily sampling lasted for approximately 80 days, allowing to evaluate the seasonal variability
142 of BC. The daily sampling covered the transition from a cold period characterized by exceptionally
143 frequent snow precipitation events to the melting period in late May, characterized by snow surface
144 melting episodes and the presence of re-suspended surface material consequent to the collapse of the
145 snow pack. In order to investigate the processes having a non-negligible role in regulating the surface
146 snow rBC mass concentration, several parameters were deployed in a multilinear statistical model trying
147 to explain the observed BC variability in the surface snow. Specifically, the statistical model took into
148 account the atmospheric *equivalent* BC mass concentration, selected meteorological parameters, the snow
149 coarse mode particles content and chemical parameters.

150

151 **2. Experimental Methods**

152 **2.1 Study Area**

153 Both experiments were conducted in the proximity of the Ny-Ålesund research station (78.5526
154 N, 11.5519 E, 25 m a.s.l.) located on the Spitzbergen island in the Svalbard Archipelago. Along the west
155 coast, Svalbard is characterized by maritime climate with an annual average temperature of -3.9°C in Ny-
156 Ålesund (between 1994 and 2017), and during that period, temperature increased by 1.6°C/decade
157 (Maturilli et al., 2019). The measured mean annual temperatures for the years of the two campaigns
158 described in this work were of -2.76°C (2014) and -2.16°C (2015). The average annual precipitation in
159 Svalbard ranges from 190 to 525 mm (385 mm in Ny-Ålesund) with the highest precipitation rates
160 occurring in August-October (mainly rain) and March, while May-June correspond to the lowest rates
161 (Førland et al. 2011). During winter, snow covers most of the places and is the main interface influencing
162 the ecosystem and climate system (Hansen et al. 2014). On average, the snow pack starts building up in
163 September and melts away at the end of May (Førland et al. 2011). As reported in Maturilli et al. (2019),
164 the year 2014 was characterized by the longest snow cover period, due to the exceptionally intense snow
165 precipitation events.



166 Snow samples were collected in the area close to the atmospheric research station of Gruvebadet
167 (78.91734 N, 11.89535 E, 40 m a.s.l.), about 1 km South-West of Ny-Ålesund (Figure). Ny-Ålesund has
168 become one of the reference locations for conducting Arctic climate studies focusing on atmospheric
169 composition and physics, oceanography, biology, permafrost and snow-related activities as well as for
170 evaluating the human impact in the higher Arctic. Long-term monitoring of atmospheric aerosols is
171 performed at the Gruvebadet station (Feltracco et al., 2019; Moroni et al., 2018; Ferrero et al., 2016;
172 Bazzano et al., 2015; Moroni et al., 2015; Zangrando et al., 2013; Scalabrin et al., 2012) as well as the
173 Zeppelin observatory (475 m a.s.l.) (Eleftheriadis et al., 2009; Tunved et al., 2013; Lupi et al., 2016, and
174 reference therein).

175

176 **2.2 Snow Sampling**

177 Snow samples were collected during two field campaigns: in spring 2014, from April 1 to June 24
178 (85 days in total, daily sampling, referred as “80-days”) and in spring 2015 from April 28 to May 1 (three
179 days, hourly sampling, referred as “3-days”). In the following, the two campaigns will be referred to as
180 the 80-days and the 3-days experiment, respectively.

181 Two different sampling schemes were adopted regarding the thickness of the surface snow
182 samples and the temporal sampling frequency. In the 80-days experiment, the first 10 cm of surface snow
183 were collected on a daily basis (approximately at 11.00 am, GMT+2) in the same area, using a 5 cm
184 diameter and 10 cm long Teflon tube. The snow samples were collected leaving a distance of
185 approximately 15 cm between the previous sample location and following a straight line, in order to
186 minimize the spatial variability influence. The collected snow was homogenized in a pre-cleaned plastic
187 bag and then, without melting, a snow aliquot was transferred into a 50 mL vial (Falcon™ 50mL Conical
188 Centrifuge Tubes) for BC, coarse mode particles number concentration and electrical conductivity
189 analyses. On April 5, due to a snowstorm, the daily sample was not collected. During the 3-days
190 experiment, the first 3 cm of surface snow were collected on an hourly basis in pre-cleaned vials in a
191 delimited area of 2 m x 2 (Spolaor et al., 2019). To minimize the spatial variability, the samples have
192 been collected following a straight line leaving about 5 cm between the sampling points. The samples for
193 both experiments were kept frozen until the analyses period. The samples were collected using neck nylon
194 gloves with particular attention to avoid any contamination from the not covered part and always
195 downwind of the sampling area.

196 The temperature of the surface of the snow pack (at 7 cm for 80-days and at 3 cm for 3-days
197 experiment) was always measured during the sampling with the same resolution. The daily/hourly snow
198 accumulation was measured by using 4 poles placed around the sampling area as references. Temperature



199 and accumulation measurements are ancillary data for evaluating snow deposition and ablation
200 (precipitation/wind/melting).

201

202 **2.3 Atmospheric Optical Measurements**

203 **2.3.1 Aethalometer (AE-31)**

204 In this study, the equivalent BC (eBC) concentration in the lower atmosphere (around 3 m a.g.l)
205 was measured by an AE-31 aethalometer (Gundel et al., 1983), during the 3-days campaign. The device is
206 equipped with 7-wavelengths (370, 470, 520, 590, 660, 880, 950 nm) and determines the attenuation
207 coefficient by using the ratio of light attenuated through a sensing spot (where aerosols are deposited) and
208 a referenced clean spot, both on a quartz fiber filter substrate. The sampling and reference spots surface
209 areas are 0.5 cm², while volumetric flow rate is 4 l min⁻¹. The flow rate was calibrated with a TetraCal
210 (BGI Instruments) volumetric airflow before and after the field campaign. A 5 minutes temporal
211 resolution was used for data acquisition. However, due to the low background concentration in the Arctic,
212 the signal/noise ratio is high, so that data were average in an hour interval. Most of the filter-based
213 techniques used to measure the aerosol absorption coefficient and eBC suffer from different systematic
214 errors that must be corrected. In case of the aerosol absorption coefficient, the most important are the
215 corrections for multiple scattering by the filter fibers and aerosol particles, and for filter loading effects.
216 The data presented in this study were processed according to Segura et al. (2014) methodology. For this
217 purpose the multiple scattering and filter loading effect (Weingartner et al., 2003) was corrected with new
218 values of mass absorption cross section (MAC) and multiple scattering factor (C=3.1) reported by Zanatta
219 et al. (2018). The MAC value was derived using observations and observationally constrained Mie
220 calculations in spring at the Zeppelin Arctic station (Svalbard, 78°N). Zanatta et al. (2018) estimated the
221 MAC at 550 nm (9.8 m² g⁻¹) and at 880 nm (6.95 m² g⁻¹), which we used to estimated MAC at 520 nm
222 (10.2 m² g⁻¹).

223

224 **2.3.2 Particle Soot Absorption Photometer (PSAP)**

225 During the 80-days sampling period the aerosol absorption coefficient was also measured by
226 means of a 3-wavelengths PSAP. It measures the variation of the transmission of light through a filter
227 where particles are continuously deposited by a constant airflow. A second filter identical to the first one
228 remains clean and is used as reference to take into account possible variations of the light source, i.e. a 3-
229 color LED (blue, green and red with wavelength centered around 470, 530 and 670 nm, respectively). The
230 correction developed by Bond et al. (1999) was applied to take into account the filter loading effect. The
231 complete eBC mass concentration time series for the 80-days experiment was retrieved using the
232 Aethalometer (first period) and the PSAP (second period), with an overlapping period with simultaneous



233 measurements of 5 days. In order for the retrieved eBC mass concentration from the two instruments to be
234 equal during the overlapping period, the PSAP eBC was calculated dividing the absorption measurements
235 (at 530 nm) with a MAC equal to $7.25 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ (keeping the AE31 data as reference). From the 1-minute
236 data, daily averages were calculated to compare with the rBC daily data obtained from the snow.

237

238 **2.4 Surface Snow measurements**

239 **2.4.1 Coarse Mode Particles Number Concentration**

240 The snow samples were melted at room temperature before the on-line coarse-mode particles and
241 conductivity measurements (the water was pumped from the vials by a 12 channels peristaltic pump,
242 ISMATECH, type ISM942). Specifically, the number concentration of coarse mode particles in the
243 surface snow was measured with a Klotz Abakus laser sensor particles counter. This instrument optically
244 counts the total number of particles and measures the size of each particles in a liquid constantly flowing
245 through a laser beam cavity (LDS 23/23). The size range of this instrument is from 0.8 to about $80 \mu\text{m}$
246 with 32 dimensional bins (Table SI 1), not overlapping with that of the SP2. Only the 32nd bin has a
247 dimensional range above $15.5 \mu\text{m}$, i.e. of $80 \mu\text{m}$. The data were recorded by a LabView® based software
248 obtaining a sufficient number of data points in order to have a standard deviation of the mean smaller than
249 5%. The particles number concentration was calculated using the constant water flow value.

250

251 **2.4.2 rBC Measurement – SP2**

252 The rBC mass concentration and mass size distribution were measured following the methods
253 described in Lim et al. (2014). Particularly, the snow samples were melted at room temperature prior to
254 the analyses. The vials with the melted snow water were sonicated for ten minutes in water at room
255 temperature. A glass nebulizer was used with filtered compressed air to nebulize the sample before the
256 injection in the Apex-Q desolvation system (APEX-Q, Elemental Scientific Inc., Omaha, USA). The
257 nebulization efficiency was evaluated daily by injecting Aquadag® solutions with different mass
258 concentrations, ranging from 0.1 to 100 ng g^{-1} , obtaining an average value of 61%, that was used to
259 correct all the BC mass concentrations reported in this manuscript. More details on the method can be
260 found in Lim et al. (2014) and in Wendl et al. (2014).

261 A complete description of the theory of the SP2 functioning can be found in Stephens et al.
262 (2003) and in Moteki and Kondo (2007) and Moteki and Kondo (2010). Briefly, the SP2 measurements
263 are based on the laser-induced incandescence of the BC particles flowing through a high energy Nd-YaG
264 laser with a wavelength of 1054 nm, at a single-particle level. The BC particles vaporize at about 4000 K
265 emitting an incandescence signal proportional to their mass. The SP2 empirical calibration was performed
266 using the standard reference fullerene soot (obtained from Alfa Aesar, stock #40971 and lot #FS12S011;



267 the same used during the SP2 inter-comparison described in Laborde et al. (2012); Gysel et al. (2011)).
268 During the calibration, the fullerene soot particles were size selected in terms of mobility diameter with a
269 differential mobility analyzer (DMA), ranging from 80 to 500 nm. The calibration points were fitted using
270 a linear fit. The mass equivalent diameter is calculated assuming the sphericity of the BC particles and an
271 effective density of 1.8 g cm^{-3} (Moteki and Kondo, 2010).

272 The SP2 data were analyzed using the IGOR based toolkit from M. Gysel (Laboratory of
273 Atmospheric Chemistry, Paul Scherrer Institute, Switzerland). The large amount of signals derived from
274 every single particle are elaborated achieving rBC mass and number concentrations and size distributions.
275 It's important to remark that the eBC and the rBC mass concentrations are not exactly the same physical
276 quantities: the former is obtained from an absorption measurement assuming a constant MAC, whereas
277 the second is obtained via a laser-induced-incandescence method with an SP2 empirically calibrated with
278 a reference material (Petzold et al., 2013). Given the lack of a detailed mixing state characterization of the
279 BC particles during the two experiments, it was not possible to predict or estimate the uncertainty
280 introduced in the statistical analyses resulting from the two different measuring techniques. However, the
281 statistical analyses are only related to the time variability of these two quantities and not to their absolute
282 values.

283

284 **2.4.3 Conductivity and sodium/manganese concentrations**

285 The total conductivity of the melted snow was measured in parallel with a simple conductivity
286 Micro-Cell. The water conductivity depends from the amount of soluble anions and cations in the snow,
287 as for instance sea salt sodium. Concentrations of sodium (Na) and manganese (Mn) were also determined
288 as tracer of sea spray emission and dust deposition by Inductively Coupled Plasma Sector Field Mass
289 Spectrometry (ICP-SFMS; Element2, ThermoFischer, Bremen, Germany) equipped with a cyclonic
290 Peltier-cooled spray chamber (ESI, Omaha, USA). The sample flow was maintained at 0.4 mL min^{-1} .
291 Detection limits, calculated as three times the standard deviation of the blank, were 0.5 ng g^{-1} for ^{23}Na and
292 0.3 ng g^{-1} for Mn. The residual standard deviation (RSD) for Na and Mn ranged between 2–5%.

293

294 **2.5 Meteorological Parameters**

295 Several meteorological parameters have been used in the statistical exercise to relate the snow
296 samples to the atmospheric conditions. Air temperature and relative humidity at 2 meter height have been
297 retrieved from a meteorological station located about 800 meters north of the sampling site, using a
298 ventilated PT-100 thermo-couple by Thies Clima and a HMT337 humicap sensor by Vaisala,
299 respectively. Wind speed and direction at 10 meter height were obtained from a Combined Wind Sensor
300 Classic by Thies Clima (see Maturilli et al., 2013). At about 50 m distance, the radiation measurements



301 for the Baseline Surface Radiatio Network (BSRN) provide among others the downward solar radiation
302 detected by a Kipp&Zonen CMP22 pyranometer (Maturilli et al., 2015). The meteorological and surface
303 radiation measurements are available in a 1 minute time resolution via the PANGAEA data repository
304 (Maturilli et al., 2020). The daily/hourly mean values of the meteorological parameters were used in the
305 statistical analyses of the 80-days/3-days experiment and in Figure 2 and Figure 3 (the physico-chemical
306 parameters from the snow samples are instead punctual value).

307

308 **2.6 Statistical Analysis**

309 Multiple linear regression was carried out to evaluate the associations between the observed
310 surface snow rBC mass concentration and a set of predictors corresponding to the considered
311 meteorological and snow physico-chemical parameters. The regression models describe variation in rBC
312 concentrations as a function of atmospheric eBC concentration, surface snow coarse mode particles
313 number concentration, snow internal temperature (7 cm depth for 80-days experiment and 2 cm depth for
314 the 3-days experiment), snow precipitation, solar radiation and conductivity. The atmospheric
315 concentration of eBC was included in the model as a potentially proxy to explain the rBC mass
316 concentration in the surface snow. Other atmospheric parameters were initially considered, i.e. the wind
317 speed and direction, and the atmospheric stability (expressed as vertical wind speed); however, they were
318 removed because preliminary statistical analyses indicate that none of them is associated with the
319 observed variations in snow rBC mass concentrations. The number concentration of coarse mode particles
320 and the total electrical conductivity were included in the model in order to check common transport and
321 deposition pathways and similarities/differences as a response to the snow melting. Snow temperature and
322 the total incoming solar radiation were used to consider the thermodynamic processes occurring at the
323 snow surface, as melting or condensation (surface hoar).

324 Since the predictors considered in the linear regression models for the two experiments are
325 characterized by rather different measurement scales, results are reported in terms of standardized
326 estimated coefficients obtained by fitting the regression model after standardizing the variables. The
327 standardization simplifies the comparison among the different variables and between the two
328 experiments, in this way facilitating the data interpretation and discussion.

329 Further details about the statistical analyses are given in the Supplementary material.

330

331 **2.7 Back trajectories calculation and Potential Source Contribution Function analysis**

332 Air mass back-trajectories (BT) were calculated using the NOAA ARL HYSPLIT 4 rev. 513
333 transport model (Stein et al., 2015). Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) meteorological input
334 fields with 0.5x0.5 degree resolution and a propagation time of 240 hours was employed. The trajectories



335 were calculated every hour for an endpoint of 500 m above ground level in Ny-Ålesund. A potential
336 source contribution function (PSCF) analysis has been applied to the BTs exploiting a specifically
337 developed FORTRAN computer code (Petroselli et al., 2018). That analysis considered BC concentration
338 measured in the air by both AE31 and PSAP. Briefly, the method calculates the probability of finding a
339 source of a particular pollutant on a certain region by superimposing grid cells to it and estimating the
340 fraction of the total time spent on each cell by trajectories associated with a high concentration measured
341 at the receptor site. The 90th percentile was used to define the high concentration limit and cells of 3 x 3
342 degrees (lat-long) were exploited in the calculation of probabilities. Details of the PSCF methodology
343 employed here are described in Petroselli et al., (2018). The data of the active fires, covering the last 12
344 days before the sampling day, are from the MODIS active fire products ([https://firms.
345 modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/firemap/](https://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/firemap/)), offered by NASA LANCE.

346

347 **3. Results and Discussions**

348 **3.1 Seasonal snow surface rBC variation**

349 Seasonal rBC snow surface concentration changes were investigated for approximately 80 days.
350 This experiment was performed in 2014 and covers approximately the entire spring periods until the snow
351 pack melting. The results of the atmospheric measurements and from the analyses of the surface snow
352 samples are reported in Figure 2.

353

354 **3.1.1 Atmospheric eBC concentrations**

355 During the experiment period, the atmospheric eBC concentration show a remarkable variability
356 ranging from 80 ng m⁻³ to < 5 ng m⁻³. More in details, the highest concentrations were measured at the
357 beginning of the campaign, especially from April 15 to 27, followed by a general decreasing trend
358 characterized by the presence of several concentration peaks (on May 8, 17 and 24). Eurasian fires were
359 suggested as the main source of biomass burning tracers during spring 2014 (Feltracco et al., 2020).

360 In order to evaluate the impact of the Eurasian fires on the measured atmospheric eBC
361 concentrations, a thorough back-trajectories analysis was performed for both the snow-sampling periods.
362 Results of PSCF analysis on eBC (Figures SI 1a, SI 1b and SI 1c; open-fire episodes are reported in red
363 on the map) show a clear maximum of probability over the Central Siberia, which appears to be the major
364 source area of eBC in this period over Ny-Ålesund. Some false positive source areas are located in
365 Greenland, the Queen Elisabeth Islands region and the Arctic Ocean, even if associated to a lower
366 probability. These artifacts are due to the persistent circulation of BTs in the Arctic vortex. An example of
367 BTs generating the above salient features in the PSCF plot is reported in Figure SI 1b. Here BTs are
368 shown to loop for few days around the Arctic at high altitudes and afterwards to descend at lower



369 altitudes over Siberia, just four days before reaching Ny-Ålesund on April 22, when a clear maximum in
370 the eBC trend has been recorded. Back trajectory analysis supports the idea that the peaks of eBC in the
371 atmosphere in early spring are directly correlated with long-range transport from Eurasia, whereas the
372 peaks in late May and June are much lower in intensity, seemed to be more related to a Western
373 circulation pattern. The ammonia daily concentration time series (the only available biomass burning
374 tracer for that period in the area) measured at the Zeppelin station is overlapped to the Gruvebadet
375 atmospheric BC measurements in Figure SI 3. Biomass burning is known to be a significant source of
376 atmospheric ammonia (Andreae and Merlet, 2001). As shown in Figure SI 3, the two time series have a
377 similar behavior at the very beginning of the campaign, from April 3 to 8 and during the period between
378 May 7 and 21.

379

380 **3.1.2 Surface Snow/Atmospheric Aerosol Content and Atmospheric Conditions**

381 During the 80-days sampling period, wind was characterized by the following median values (25th
382 and 75th percentiles) of direction and speed: 205° (152°, 257°) and 2.7 (1.9, 3.7) m s⁻¹, respectively,
383 therefore coming mostly from South-West (Figure). Daily air temperature increased during the campaign
384 from -15°C to about +5°C (Figure 2), blue and red bars, represented as red bar in the legend), showing an
385 average value and standard deviation of -3.5 ± 5.8 °C. The temperature increase followed the seasonal
386 increase of the daily mean incoming solar radiation (Figure 2, orange line), increasing from
387 approximately 100 to 300 W m⁻², with an average of 185 ± 75 W m⁻². The snow precipitation episodes are
388 accounted for through the daily amount of deposited snow (Figure 2, blue bars), ranging from zero to 12
389 cm. The atmospheric eBC mass concentration, derived from the PSAP absorption coefficient, shows a
390 decreasing trend during the campaign and a remarkable variability, ranging approximately from 2 to 80
391 ng m⁻³, with an average of 34 ± 23 ng m⁻³.

392 The snow rBC mass concentration shows a significant variability over the 80 days, ranging
393 approximately from 0.2 to 6 ng g⁻¹ (Figure 2), with an average of 1.4 ± 1.3 ng g⁻¹, and it is in agreement
394 with results available in the literature (Mori et al., 2019; Jacobi et al., 2019; Aamaas et al., 2011). The
395 spatial variability of BC was assumed to be comparable to the results described in Spolaor et al. (2019)
396 for other particulate species in samples from the same field campaign. Nine samples were collected at the
397 same time in the designed sampling area and the results show a spatial variability in the order of 5 to 15%
398 (for sodium, mercury and iodine; Spolaor et al. (2019). An increasing trend can be observed for the rBC
399 mass concentration in the surface snow during the sampling period. By comparing the observed values of
400 this study with the results reported in Hadley and Kirchstetter (2012), we can estimate a very low snow
401 albedo reduction due to the BC particles in our samples, always lower than approximately 0.01 (raw
402 estimate). Given the low measured rBC mass concentrations, we decided not to calculate the BC radiative



403 impact. Moreover, this study lacks any detailed description of the snow physical conditions, like the grain
404 size, important for assessing realistic snow albedo reductions (Hadley and Kirchstetter, 2012; Skiles and
405 Painter, 2019). The median of the rBC mass equivalent diameter in the snow is 313 ± 35 nm (Figure),
406 similar to what obtained in other studies (e.g. Schwarz et al., 2013). The rBC mass equivalent diameter
407 show high variability, ranging from 200 to 500 nm (however, since the rBC concentrations were low the
408 evaluation of the particles geometric mean diameter for the biggest sizes, above 300/400 nm, has only to
409 be considered as qualitative given the high noise in the size distributions).

410 The number concentration of coarse mode particles (Figure 2, blue line) shows a constant
411 concentration in the first half of the campaign, until May 11, whereas increasing in the second half,
412 especially after the 1st of June, in concomitance with the onset of the snow melting period; the average
413 number concentration is 4914 ± 4109 # ml⁻¹. Also the conductivity (Figure 2, green line) shows an
414 increasing trend at the end of the sampling campaign when snow is melting, with an overall average value
415 of 30 ± 8 μS.

416

417 **3.1.2 Variables explaining the snow rBC mass concentration variability**

418 The fitted regression model for the 80-days experiment data explains 69% of the variance of
419 snow rBC mass concentration ($R^2=0.69$) and indicates a statistically significant association of the snow
420 rBC mass concentration with the coarse-mode particles number concentration ($p < 0.001$), the amount of
421 snow precipitations ($p < 0.05$) and the snow temperature ($p < 0.001$). The relations with the other
422 predictors are non-significant (see Table 1, reporting the standardized estimated coefficients and the
423 corresponding p-values). Figure 4 displays the 95% and 90% confidence intervals for the standardized
424 estimated coefficients. Intervals that do not include the zero correspond to statistically significant
425 predictors of the snow rBC mass concentration. If a confidence interval consists of positive values, then
426 there is a significant positive association between the corresponding predictor and snow rBC mass
427 concentration. Vice versa, if the confidence interval consists of negative values, then the association is
428 negative. Figure 4 displays both the confidence intervals for the 80-days campaign and the 3-days
429 experiment in a way to allow an immediate visual comparison of the estimated statistical associations
430 between the snow rBC mass concentration and the considered predictors.

431 In order to interpret the statistical results, the description of the 80-days campaign is split into two
432 periods depending on the temperature and the state of the snow. These periods identify the transition from
433 the “cold” to the “melting” state. The first period occurred before the end of May: in this period the rBC
434 mass concentration often increases in concomitance, or one day after, to most of the observed snowfall
435 episodes (April 9/10/11 and 17; May 17, 22 and 27/28; June 1), with exceptions for April 24 and May 7.
436 The sampling was performed in the late morning regardless the beginning/duration of the precipitation



437 events. Over the sampling period, a weakly statistically significant ($p < 0.05$, Table 1) positive relation
438 was found between snow rBC mass concentration in surface snow and the daily amount of snow
439 precipitation. Given the complexity of the system, the short sampling period and daily frequency and the
440 intrinsic internal variability, this positive association can only be tentatively linked to the BC wet
441 deposition process, removing 50% - 60% of the total atmospheric BC burden in the Arctic (Liu et al.,
442 2011; Jacobi et al., 2019). In our study, the impacts of the wet deposition could be partially masked due to
443 the sampling frequency and timing. However, our observations show that, on a daily scale, the
444 precipitation episodes are not clearly related to a decrease in the atmospheric eBC mass concentration
445 (Figure 2). Nonetheless, a doubtful negative association was found in the fitted statistical model between
446 the atmospheric eBC and snow rBC mass concentrations, with an associated p-value of 0.061.

447 In the second period, from the beginning of May on, the atmospheric temperature increases and
448 the surface snow starts melting, inducing post-depositional effects on the snow impurities content. At the
449 beginning of June, the snow rBC mass concentration increases up to approximately 5 ng g^{-1} and also the
450 coarse mode particles number concentration increases remarkably (peaking between June 4 and 7). This
451 positive relation is confirmed by the fitted regression model that indicates that the number of coarse mode
452 particles is indeed the predictor with the highest significance level ($p < 0.001$, as reported in Table 1 and
453 Figure 4). This positive relation can be explained by considering several processes affecting the BC and
454 the coarse mode particles. Firstly, dry deposition is the main depositional process for the coarse mode
455 particles, but recently it has been shown to be as well to provide a significant contribution in explaining
456 the BC particles deposition (Liu et al., 2011; Jacobi et al., 2019). Secondly, it is possible that local
457 sources become important contributors in the “melting” period due to the snow melting and the
458 consequent exposure of soil and rocky areas in the surrounding of the sampling area. Ny-Ålesund was a
459 mine town and the impact of local sources might have a non-negligible impact during the periods with
460 little snow cover (autumns and late spring) and years with limited snow precipitations. Wind resuspension
461 of BC (or other unknown refractory materials) and dust particles from uncovered areas eventually
462 deposited on the remaining snow surfaces cause an acceleration of the melting and, as a consequence, a
463 reduction of the snow season (positive feedback). The impacts of this positive feedback would be
464 enhanced in a warmer climate where the activation of local sources would be longer in early winter and
465 earlier in springtime.

466 Thirdly, we could explain the simultaneous increase of rBC mass and coarse mode particles
467 number concentrations via post-depositional processes, as snow melting or sublimation, as visible
468 between June 3 and 7-8. The episodes of snow surface melting can greatly affect the snow particulate
469 content and we hypothesize that the hydrophobicity of pure BC particles, and of several species in the
470 coarse mode particles, might affect its physical location in the snowpack during melting-refreezing



471 episodes (in the literature the response of the BC particles is still debated): the hydrophobicity of the
472 particles can cause the surface concentration to increase while losing water mass through percolation.
473 Moreover, during the sublimation episodes, the losses of surface water mass lead to an increase of the
474 particulate matter in the first layer of snow. The subsequent rBC mass and coarse mode particles number
475 concentrations decrease can be speculatively explained with the complex behavior of the snow mantle
476 during the strong melting and refreezing cycles and snow mantle collapsing. In conclusion, the processes
477 causing the similar behavior observed in this study are complex to disentangle and full closure
478 experiments are needed to tackle this subject, even though extremely complex and hardly manageable.

479 In this study, the estimated statistical association between snow rBC mass concentration and the
480 daily snow temperature is negative and strongly significant ($p < 0.001$, Table 1 and Figure 4). During the
481 80 days experiment we can distinguish two events where the temperature appeared to play a role in the
482 BC concentration, with an increase in rBC mass in the surface snow during the melting/refreezing
483 episodes (in agreement with the results of Aamaas et al. (2011)). The first event occurred between May 5
484 to 12 and the second after May 20, when the proper snow melting began (Figure 2). The first event was
485 characterized by a rapid rise of daily air temperature (from -6°C to -1°C) in concomitance to a snow
486 precipitation event, followed by a rapid temperature decrease to -6°C . The surface snow (10 cm)
487 mirrored this behavior first rising from -6°C to 0°C and then cooling down to -6°C . During this warm
488 event, the upper snow strata underwent a melting with likely surface water percolation, making the
489 surface BC concentration to increase. The second event started approximately on May 20 and lasted until
490 the end of the experiment (Figure 2). During this period, the atmospheric temperature increased
491 constantly, and the snow pack started to melt constantly. Moreover, surface BC concentration increased
492 almost continuously from May 25 to its maximum observed in June 6. Afterwards, the upper snow rBC
493 mass concentration tended to decrease following the rapid snow pack decline.

494

495 **3.2 Diurnal variation of rBC in surface snow**

496 **3.2.1 Surface Snow/Atmospheric Aerosol Content and Atmospheric Conditions**

497 The 3-days experiment was performed at the end of April 2015, during the Arctic spring. The
498 samples were collected on an hourly basis over 3 days achieving a high-resolution sampling frequency.

499 The wind direction and speed were quite constant (with median, 25th and 75th percentiles values of: 147° ,
500 132° , 174° and 1.9 , 1.4 , 2.9 m s^{-1} , respectively) during the sampling period, blowing from South/Southeast
501 or Southwest. The atmospheric and surface snow temperatures remained well below 0°C (Figure 3), with
502 average values of $-7.5 \pm 1.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $-8.3 \pm 2.2^{\circ}\text{C}$, respectively. The warmest air and snow temperature
503 were approximately -5°C , therefore excluding surface snow melting to happen.



504 The atmospheric concentration of eBC in ranged from 2 to 50 ng m⁻³, decreasing during the
505 sampling period and not showing any particular diurnal pattern (Figure 3). The mean value of the
506 atmospheric eBC mass concentration is 34 ± 23 ng m⁻³, similar to the average of the 80-days experiment.
507 The time series of the hourly eBC mass concentration is not showing any similar variability with snow
508 rBC time series, except for the common decreasing trend.

509 The surface snow rBC mass concentration exhibited hourly variability, showing up to 2-fold
510 hourly increases (especially during the first day), overlapped to a quasi-daily cycle (Figure 3, bottom
511 panel, smoothed dark blue line). rBC mass concentrations of approximately 15 ng g⁻¹ were measured from
512 the beginning of the sampling to the end of the second day, and of about 5 ng g⁻¹ from the beginning of
513 the third day till the end of experiment (Figure 3). The average value over the sampling period is 9.5 ± 5.2
514 ng g⁻¹ (approximately 6 times higher than that during the 80-days experiment). This higher BC
515 concentrations are probably due to the limited number of snow episodes during this year, compared to the
516 year of the 80-days experiment, causing a higher impact of the dry BC deposition (before the snow
517 event). As reported for the 80-days experiment results, by considering the results from Hadley and
518 Kirchstetter (2012) it is possible to estimate a low snow albedo reduction of approximately 0.02-0.03
519 (difference between the albedo of pure snow and the albedo of snow with BC particles). Given the low
520 measured rBC mass concentrations, and the lack of detailed snow grain size measurements, we decided
521 not to calculate the BC radiative impact. Moreover, this study lacks any detailed description of the snow
522 physical conditions, as the grain size, important to assess realistic snow albedo reductions (Hadley and
523 Kirchstetter, 2012; Skiles and Painter, 2019). The rBC mass size distribution, instead, was characterized
524 by a median value of the geometric means of about 230 ± 32 nm, significantly lower than that which was
525 measured during the 80-days, and still in agreement with previous studies (Sinha et al., 2018; Bond et al.,
526 2013). The concentrations of EC and OC measured in parallel snow samples (not of the same volume) are
527 as well reported and described in Figure SI 4; the interpretation of the differences between the rBC and
528 the EC measurements in snow samples is beyond the objectives of this manuscript.

529 The number concentration of coarse mode particles remains virtually stable in the first half of the
530 campaign, until the end of April, and shows an average value over the whole three days of 26642 ± 9261
531 # ml⁻³ (approximately 5.5 times higher than during the 80-days experiment). The water conductivity
532 shows a similar behavior, and it is characterized by an average of 39 ± 9 μS (30% higher than during the
533 80-days experiment).

534 All the measured snow impurities time series show two common features: first, a decrease in
535 absolute values was detected between 4 and 8 a.m. of April 30, despite the absence of precipitations and
536 of any particular meteorological episode (Figure 3); second, the impact of the snow precipitation events
537 from approximately 4 p.m. to midnight of the April 30, where the concentrations of aerosols in the snow



538 slightly increased at the very beginning whereas decreasing at the end of the event. Only the BC core
539 diameter remained above the average when the other aerosol content decreased (up to approximately 400
540 nm of mass equivalent diameter), consequently going back to the average value. Also in this experiment,
541 the spatial variability was estimated to account overall for the 5-15% to the total variability of the
542 measured parameters (Spolaor et al., 2019).

543 The results of BT analysis for the 3-days experiment are reported in Figure SI 2, suggesting that
544 the air masses were persistently circulating in the polar vortex and very similar within the three days in
545 terms of BC atmospheric sources, physical properties and mixing state. The daily average concentration
546 of ammonia, measured at the Zeppelin observatory, are similar to the lowest values measured during the
547 80-days experiment (approximately $0.5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$), suggesting a background regime with a two-times
548 increase during the last day (Figure SI 4). This result suggests what observed with the BT analyses:
549 similar air masses during the sampling period with a low/negligible impact of the Northern Siberian fires
550 (quite low in number during those days, Figure SI 2).

551

552 **3.2.2 Variables explaining the snow rBC mass variability**

553 The results obtained from the 3-days experiment have been evaluated using the same statistical
554 approach considered to explain the rBC snow mass concentration variability in the 80-days experiment.
555 The statistical model for the 3-days experiment explains 83% of the total snow rBC mass concentration
556 variance, a percentage higher than the 80-days experiment, likely due to the more stable conditions. The
557 fitted model indicates a statistically significant association between the rBC mass concentration in the
558 snow and the conductivity ($p < 0.001$, Table 1), the number concentration of coarse-mode particles ($p <$
559 0.01 , Table 1), the snow precipitation amount ($p < 0.001$, Table 1), the incoming solar radiation ($p < 0.01$,
560 Table 1) and the snow temperature ($p < 0.05$, Table 1). The standardized estimated coefficients are
561 reported in Table 1, displayed along with 90% and 95% confidence intervals in Figure 4.

562 The positive statistical association of total snow rBC mass concentration with the conductivity of
563 the melted snow samples ($p < 0.001$, Table 1 and Figure 4) can be explained by a simultaneous deposition
564 of different aerosol species (as sea salt with oceanic sources). For instance, air masses following pathways
565 over the ocean after having entrained BC particles from biomass burning episodes will result in a positive
566 correlation of snow BC and conductivity.

567 The association between the coarse-mode particles number concentration and the snow rBC mass
568 concentration is positive and strongly significant ($p < 0.001$, Table 1 and Figure 4), similarly to what was
569 observed for the 80-days experiment results.

570 A negative association is found between the rBC mass concentration in the snow and the
571 incoming solar radiation ($p < 0.01$, Table 1 and Figure 4), and a weaker negative association with the



572 snow temperature ($p < 0.05$, Table 1 and Figure 4), with the latter being strongly dependent on the solar
573 radiation. This relation confirms what observed in Figure 3: the rBC mass concentration in surface snow
574 follows a diurnal cycle, lower when the solar radiation is higher and vice versa. The quasi-daily cycle of
575 rBC mass concentration in the surface snow layer has never been studied and reported in the literature.
576 The BC particles are known to be non-volatile and non-photochemical active, therefore the decrease in its
577 concentration observed when the solar radiation is higher could not be explained as a re-emission process
578 from the snow back into the atmosphere as observed for other aerosol species (Spolaor et al., 2018;
579 Spolaor et al., 2019). The results show that the highest rBC mass concentration levels are detected in
580 samples collected in the late afternoon. The late night/early morning concentration decrease is connected
581 with surface hoar formation able to dilute the surface snow BC concentration. Specifically, the lowest
582 rBC mass concentration values is found between 5 and 12 am and in the same time interval the solar
583 radiation increases from 100 to 400 W m⁻², followed with a delay by air and snow temperatures increase.
584 In these periods, the temperature offset between the air and the surface snow is the highest, up to 4°C,
585 with the surface snow being the coldest between the two. Condensation of water vapor on the top of the
586 snow crystals is possible, adding snow mass without BC in the collected samples and diluting the original
587 rBC mass concentration. This process may lead to an overall negative feedback on the BC radiative
588 impact, making its concentration to decrease during the daily maximum of solar radiation.

589 The snow precipitation amount is negatively associated with the rBC mass concentration in the
590 snow ($p < 0.001$, Table 1 and Figure 4). As previously remarked, the aerosol scavenging intensity is not
591 measurable with snow sampling strategies based on the sampling of a constant snow thickness from the
592 surface (3 cm in this case). The negative relation observed in this study is due to the high frequency
593 sampling, being able to follow the evolution of the BC particles scavenged during a snow episode (from 3
594 to 12 p.m. of the 30th April 2015). The beginning of the precipitation episodes appeared to remove the
595 highest amount of BC particles, leaving the atmosphere cleaner as reflected by the lower BC mass
596 concentration revealed in subsequent samples. The snow collected at 18:00 of April 30 showed a higher
597 amount of rBC as well as the highest coarse mode particles number concentration and conductivity. In the
598 next few hours, from 9 to 12 p.m., the snow precipitations were very “clean” in terms of aerosol content
599 and rBC mass concentration.

600 From the 3-days experiment, it appeared that the snow surface physical processes like surface
601 hoar formation and sublimation play an important role, and that the physical characteristics of the snow
602 layers in which BC is embedded should be more studied in order to better characterize the daily variations
603 of BC and its impact on the albedo. The 3 days experiment took place under clear sky conditions (most of
604 the time) and this is of high importance for the variations observed. Indeed, surface hoar can only form
605 under clear sky when the snow surface is cooler than the air due to longwave radiation emitted and lost,



606 and under calm weather with low wind. Under other conditions, cloudy weather for example, the BC
607 diurnal variation may show a completely different pattern, as snow will likely be affected by longwave
608 radiation backscattered by clouds toward the snow surface, and melting and/or sublimation at the snow
609 surface will only be observed, but likely no condensation of atmospheric water vapor. Furthermore, these
610 daily variations showed that the highest concentration of rBC is measured during mid-day/afternoon,
611 when the incoming radiation amount is still high, and that may significantly affect the amount of extra
612 energy absorbed by the surface snow, further enhancing metamorphism and feedback processes. More
613 detailed studies including snow density and optical snow grain radius measurements should be pursued
614 and at a cm vertical resolution in order to correctly estimate the radiative impact of the daily rBC
615 variations.

616

617 **4. Conclusions and Future Perspectives**

618 The two experiments suggested that the main drivers of the rBC mass concentration variation in
619 the Svalbard surface snow are mainly precipitations events, snow metamorphism (melting and surface
620 hoar formation and sublimation), and potentially the activation of local sources during the melting periods
621 triggering a positive-feedback based on the snow albedo reduction. On a daily frequency (80-days
622 experiment) coarse-mode particles are associated to the snow rBC mass concentration, even in periods
623 characterized by the influence of biomass burning emissions. On an hourly frequency (3-days experiment)
624 the snow deposition and the daily solar radiation cycle appeared to be mostly controlling the surface snow
625 rBC content under clear sky, via hoar formation/condensation processes, with the coarse mode particles
626 number concentration positively associated with it. The absolute rBC mass concentration resulting in a
627 minor or negligible snow albedo reduction of approximately the 3% at maximum (see Hadley and
628 Kirchstetter, 2012).

629 During the seasonal time scale (daily sampling strategy), the multilinear statistical model was
630 able to explain 69% of the surface snow rBC mass concentration variance. Our results indicate a positive
631 association between the snow rBC mass concentration and the coarse-mode particles number
632 concentration, due to similar responses to dry and wet deposition processes and comparable behaviors in
633 the presence of post-depositional processes. The amount of rBC in the surface snow appeared to be
634 statistically de-coupled from the eBC atmospheric load. The importance of the wet-deposition process
635 was statistically highlighted in both experiments.

636 Long-range transport and melting-induced activation of local sources are key parameters in
637 describing the BC origin in the atmosphere and in the surface snow in the Ny-Ålesund area (and might in
638 a large portion of the Svalbard archipelago), acting with different intensities during the year. However,
639 our results suggest that despite possible high atmospheric BC concentrations as in the case of long-range



640 transport of biomass burning plumes, the surface snow rBC mass concentration can be almost completely
641 unaffected in the absence of snow precipitation events. During the surface snow melting period (with
642 atmospheric temperatures above 0°C) we revealed an increase of snow rBC mass and coarse-mode
643 particles number concentrations, suggesting an increase of the impact of the local sources, activated by
644 the snow melting leaving the surface exposed to winds. Moreover, this measured increase in the snow
645 aerosol load is influenced by the response to melting-refreezing cycles and water mass loss. Both these
646 mechanisms cause an increase in the snow surface insoluble particles concentration, causing a positive-
647 feedback mechanism enhancing their radiative impacts and fastening the snow melting.

648 83% of the hourly/daily variance was explained by the statistical model, again resulting in a
649 positive association with the coarse-mode particles number concentration, suggesting similar responses to
650 the depositional patterns and responses to post depositional processes (condensation of water vapor on the
651 top of the snow crystals). The negative association with the solar radiation and the temperature of the
652 snow suggest that part of the rBC mass variability in the snow undergoes to a daily cycle linked to snow
653 metamorphism processes, as sublimation and condensation of atmospheric water vapor. The condensation
654 of water vapor on the upper layer of the snow makes the rBC mass concentration decrease by dilution
655 (when keeping a constant sampling thickness), especially during the hours of the day when the solar
656 radiation is at its maximum: however, the complex snow crystals-radiation interaction makes it difficult to
657 evaluate the radiative impact of this process.

658

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674 Environments).

675

676 **Data Availability**

677 Meteorological and surface radiation data are available at the PANGAEA database (Maturilli, 2015a;
678 2015b; 2015c; 2016a; 2016b; 2018a; 2018b; 2018c; 2018d; 2018e). The data for precipitation amount at
679 Ny-Ålesund can be accessed via the eKlima database of MET Norway. The BC data are available upon
680 request.

681

682 **Author Contributions**

683 Author contributions. AS, EB, DC and MB conceived the experiments; AS, EB, DC, and LP collected the
684 samples; MB measured the samples; KM and MMaz provided the atmospheric eBC concentrations; SC
685 and DC provided the back-trajectories analyses; CV performed the statistical analyses with inputs from
686 MB and AS. MB prepared the manuscript mainly with inputs from AS, J-C. G and DC (in the methods
687 section from AS, KM, MMaz) and all co-authors contributed to the interpretation of the results as well as
688 manuscript review and editing.

689

690 **Data repository**

691 Maturilli, Marion (2020): Basic and other measurements of radiation and continuous meteorological
692 observations at station Ny-Ålesund (April, May 2014 and April, May, June 2015), reference list of 10
693 datasets. Alfred Wegener Institute - Research Unit Potsdam, PANGAEA,
694 <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.913988> (DOI registration in progress)

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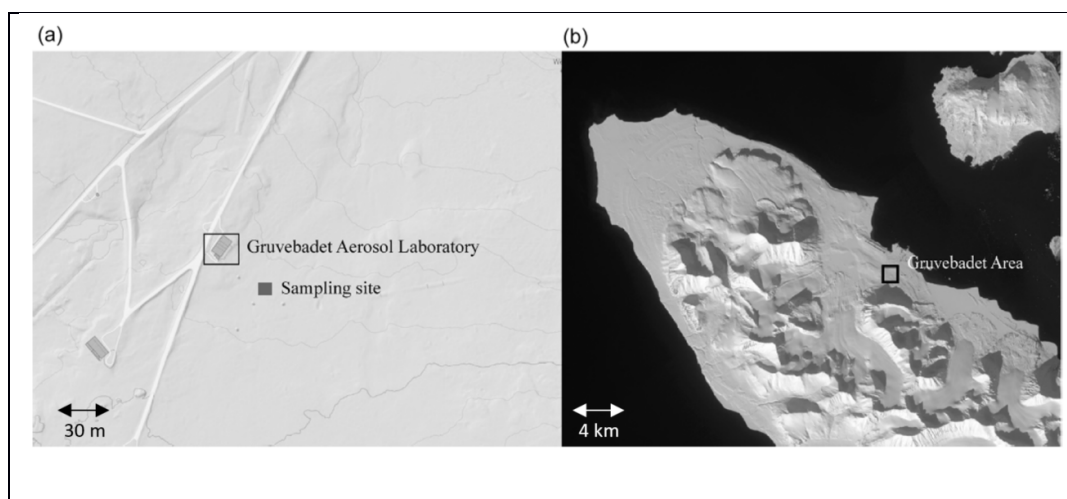
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703 **FIGURES**

704 **Figure 1.** a) Experimental sampling site location (dark grey rectangle), in proximity of the Gruvebadet
705 Aerosol Laboratory. b) Gruvebadet area (black square), close to the Ny-Ålesund research village. From:
706 Spolaor et al., 2019 (maps from <https://toposvalbard.npolar.no/>)



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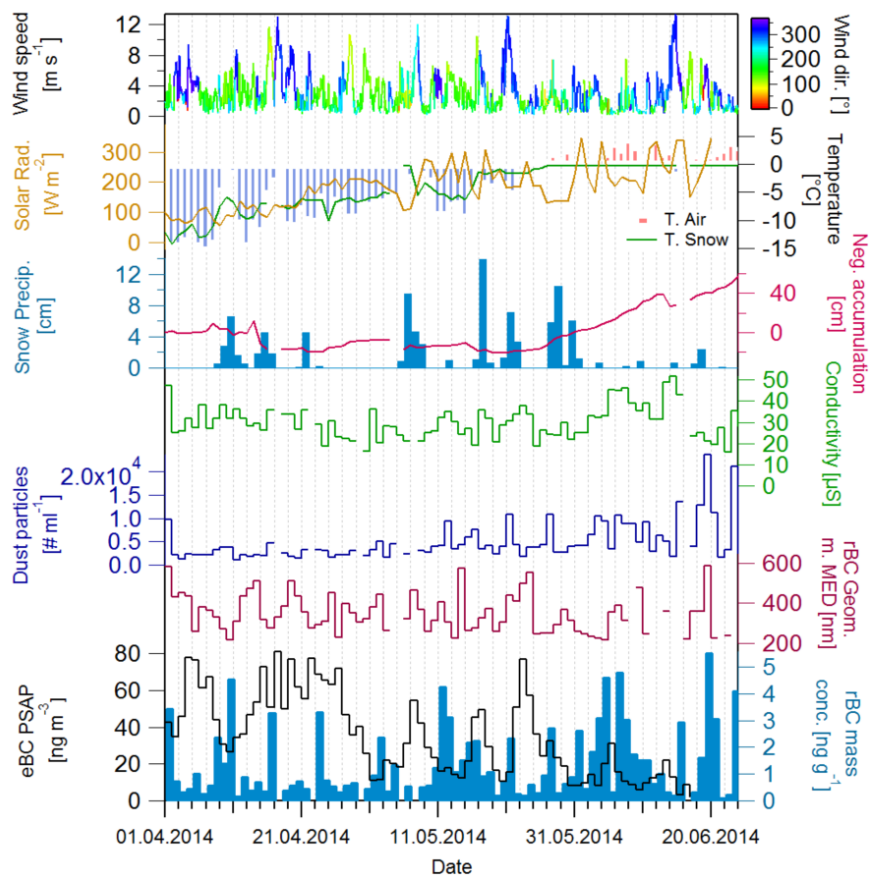
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719 **Figure 2.** The 80-days experiments daily snow samples rBC mass concentration (light blue), eBC mass
720 concentration in the atmosphere (black), geometric mean mass equivalent diameter (purple), number of
721 coarse mode particles (blue), total conductivity (green), meteo/snow parameters used in the statistical
722 exercise: wind speed color coded for wind direction, solar radiation (orange line), air and surface snow
723 temperatures (blue bars and green line respectively), amount of fresh snow (“snow precipitations”, light
724 blue bars) and the snow accumulation (“Neg. accumulation”; the values where multiplied by -1 in order to
725 show the similar trend of the snow lost and of the air/snow temperature during the melting period at the
726 end of the campaign).



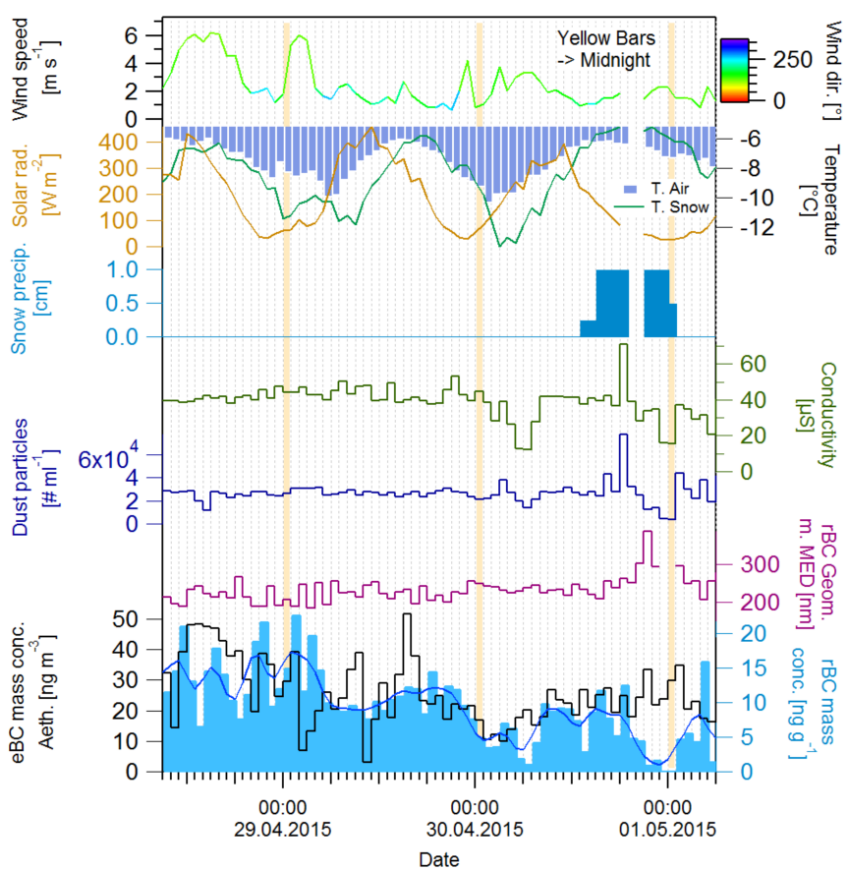
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730 **Figure 3.** The 3-days experiments snow samples hourly rBC mass concentration and smoothed line (light
731 blue bars), atmospheric eBC mass concentration in the atmosphere (black), geometric mean mass
732 equivalent diameter (purple), the number concentration of coarse mode particles (blue) and the total
733 conductivity (green), meteo/snow parameters used in the statistical exercise: wind speed color coded for
734 wind direction, solar radiation (Orange line), Air and surface snow temperature (blue bars and green line
735 respectively), amount of fresh snow (“snow precipitations”, light blue bars). The yellow bars are centered
736 on the midnight hours for the three sampling days.



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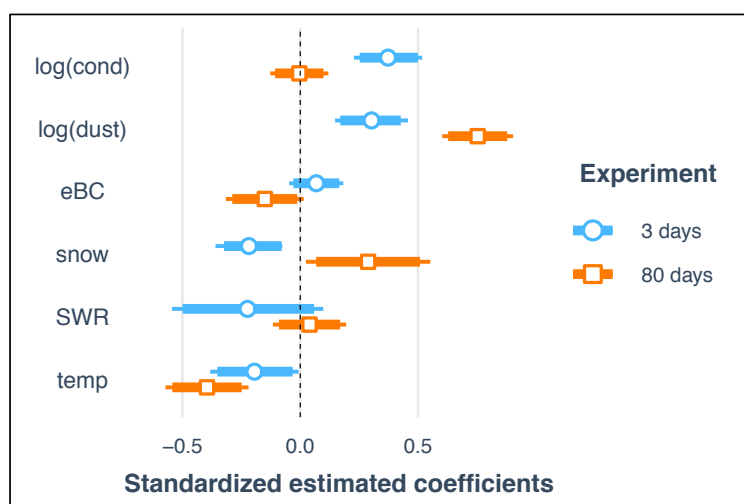
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741 **Figure 4.** Standardized estimated coefficients of the multiple regression models fitted to the 3 days and
742 80 days experiments. The segments correspond to 95% confidence intervals about the corresponding
743 estimates. The internal thicker segments correspond to 90% confidence intervals. The abbreviations used
744 in the plot are: “log(cond)” – logarithm of the water conductivity time series, “log(dust)” – logarithm of
745 the coarse mode particles number concentration time series, “eBC” – equivalent black carbon atmospheric
746 concentration, “snow” – amount of fresh snow from the precipitation episodes, “SWR” – solar radiation,
747 “temp” – the snow temperature.



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757 **TABLES**

758 **Table 1.** Standardized estimated coefficients of the regression models for the 3 days and 80 days
759 experiments. Standard errors are reported within parentheses below the corresponding estimate. The
760 intercept and the trigonometric terms are not displayed.

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| Predictor | 3 days | 80 days |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| log(cond) | 0.38 *** (0.07) | -0.00 (0.06) |
| log(dust) | 0.23 ** (0.07) | 0.75 *** (0.08) |
| eBC | 0.06 (0.05) | -0.15 (0.08) |
| snow | -1.02 *** (0.19) | 0.29 * (0.13) |
| SWR | -0.43 ** (0.16) | 0.04 (0.08) |
| temp | -0.23 * (0.09) | -0.40 *** (0.09) |
| R² | 0.83 | 0.69 |

*** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p <$

0.05

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