Towards reconstructing the Arctic atmospheric methane history over the 20th century: measurement and modeling results for the NGRIP firn

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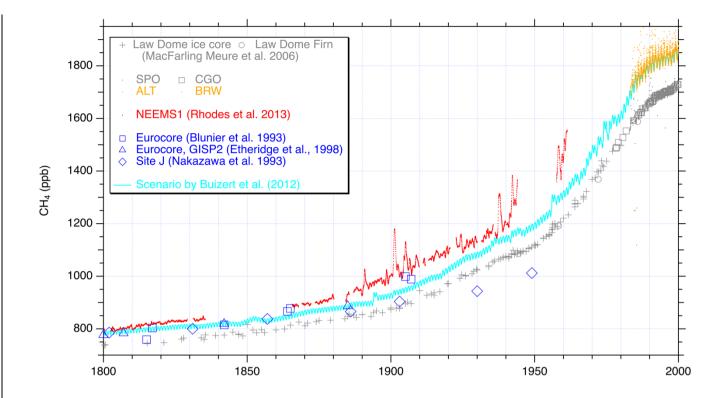
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Abstract. Systematic measurements of atmospheric methane (CH₄) mole fractions at the northern high latitudes only began in the early 1980s, and whilst CH₄ measurements from Greenland ice cores covered the period before ~1900, no reliable observational record is available for the intermediate period. In this study, we reconstruct the atmospheric CH₄ for that period, when the mole fraction started to increase rapidly. We use a <u>data</u> set of trace <u>gas datagases</u>, measured from <u>the air trapped in</u> firn (an intermediate stage between snow and glacial ice formation) air samples-collected at the NGRIP (North Greenland Ice Core Project) site in 2001, in combination with a firm--air transport model whose performance is validated by using a set of

- 20 published firm-_air data at the NEEM (North Greenland Eemian ice Drilling) site. We examine a variety of possible firm diffusivity profiles using a suite of measured trace gases, and reconstruct the CH4 mole fraction by an iterative dating method. <u>based on the two Arctic firm data sets in the same manner</u>. We find that, given the currently available firm air data sets from Greenland, reliable reconstruction of the Arctic CH4 mole fraction is possible only back tobefore the mid 1970s. For the earlier period, is highly uncertain. Although it is difficult to accurately identify the atmospheric CH4 history that consistently
- 25 reproduce the depth profiles of CH₄ in firn at both NGRIP and NEEM sites. Therefore, the currently proposed Arctic CH₄ history should still be considered preliminary and uncertain, and should not be treated as the known history for constraining firm-air transport models, both firn data sets are more consistent with the atmospheric CH₄ scenario prepared for the NEEM firn modeling than that for the CMIP6 (Climate Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6) experiments. It is considered that the former is the current best choice for the available synthetic Arctic CH₄ history, but should not be treated as the known history
- 30 for constraining firn-air transport models until supported by further data from sources such as Arctic ice cores. Given the current difficulty in reconstructing the CH₄ history from the firn-air data sets from Greenland, future sampling and measurements of ice cores at a high-accumulation site may be the only way to accurately reconstruct the atmospheric CH₄ trend over the 20th century.

1 Introduction

- 35 Methane (CH₄) is an important atmospheric greenhouse gas emitted from both natural and anthropogenic sources. Despite great efforts for understanding its global budget, emission estimates of individual sources still have large quantitative uncertainties (e.g. Saunois et al., 2020; Chandra et al., 2021). Anthropogenic activities have enhanced CH₄ emissions globally and this resulted in the more than doubled the abundance of atmospheric CH₄ over the industrial era (e.g. Etheridge et al., 1998). The CH₄ emission histories have been estimated based on human activity statistics combined with emission factors
- 40 (Stern and Kaufmann 1996; van Aardenne et al., 2001). Such historical emission inventories have been examined by atmospheric chemistry transport modeling (Houweling et al., 2000; Monteil et al., 2011; Ghosh et al., 2015), in combination with the records of atmospheric CH₄ mole fraction reconstructed from polar ice cores (Blunier et al., 1993; Nakazawa et al., 1993; Etheridge et al., 1998; MacFarling Meure et al., 2006; Sapart et al., 2012) and air extracted from porous snow layers at the top of ice sheets (firn) (Francey et al., 1999; Buizert et al., 2012; Sapart et al., 2013).
- 45 A large fraction of natural and anthropogenic CH₄ sources resides in the northern hemisphere, and thus the atmospheric CH₄ trend of the northern hemisphere can provide important information on the evolution of anthropogenic CH₄ emissions as well as the variations of natural CH₄ emission in response to climatic variability. The interhemispheric gradient of CH₄ mole fraction is also key to the allocation of CH₄ emissions between both hemispheres (e.g. Dlugokencky et al., 2003; <u>Ghosh et al., 2015;</u> Chandra et al., 2021).



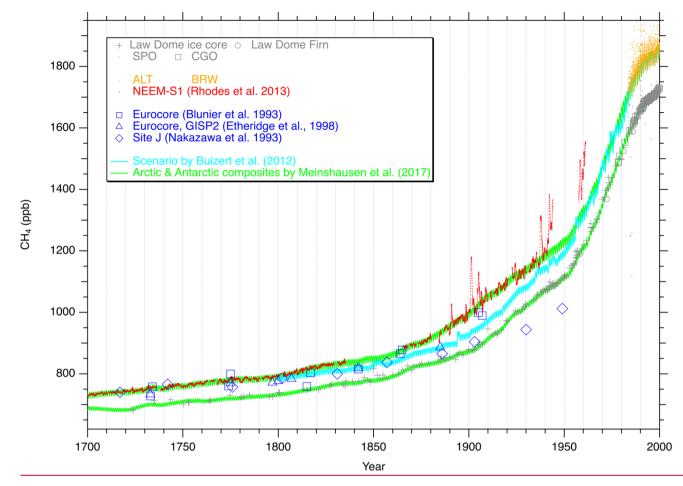


Figure 1: Atmospheric CH₄ mole fraction data covering the last 200 years. Symbols in grey are from the southern hemisphere; crosses and open circles are from the Law Dome ice core and firn, respectively (Etheridge et al., 1998; MacFarling Meure et al., 2006); open squares are from Cape Grim (CGO) (MacFarling Meure et al., 2006); dots are from South Pole (SPO) (ftp://aftp.cmdl.noaa.gov/). Colored data (except light green) from the northern hemisphere; open squares, triangles and diamonds are from the Eurocore (Blunier et al., 1993), Eurocore and GISP2 (Etheridge et al., 1998) and Site J (Nakazawa et al., 1993) ice cores; red dots are the NEEM-S1 ice core (Rhodes et al., 2013); orange dots are from Alert, Canada (ALT) and Barrow, Alaska (BRW) (ftp://aftp.cmdl.noaa.gov/); light blue line isand light green lines are the atmospheric scenarioscenarios prepared for the NEEM firn modeling (Buizert et al., 2012)-, and the CMIP6 experiments (Meinshausen et al. 2017), respectively.

Systematic measurements of atmospheric CH4 mole fraction began in the 1980s. In Figure 1, CH4 measurements at two Arctic sites: Barrow, Alaska (BRW) and Alert, Canada (ALT) are shown (orange dots), whose records start in 1983 and 1985, respectively (data provided by National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration/Earth System Research Laboratory/Global
Monitoring Laboratory, NOAA/ESRL/GML). Although some sparse data from the 1970s are available (e.g. Rice et al., 2016), such "direct" measurements provide CH4 data only since around 1980, which means that some reconstruction methodology is required to infer atmospheric CH4 mole fraction variations before that <u>time</u>. For this purpose, air extracted from ice cores and firn layers hashave been measured. Figure 1 also presents CH4 mole fractions analyzed in ice cores from Greenland (open blue)

symbols), such as Eurocore (Blunier et al., 1993), Eurocore and GISP2 (Greenland Ice Sheet Project 2) (Etheridge et al., 1998)

- 70 and Site J (Nakazawa et al., 1993). These data show fairly good agreements with each other until ~1900, after which the number of data and the consistency among the records are poor. Continuous measurements from NEEM-S1 ice core (Rhodes et al., 2013) presented CH4 mole fractions before ~1960 (red in Figure 1), but their data are notably higher than the ice core data after ~1850. Therefore, the inconsistency among the different data gapsets indicates that the period between ~1900 and ~1980 is not covered reliably either by direct observations or ice core reconstructions.
- 75 In comparison to these data, higher-resolution CH₄ data are available from Antarctica (grey in Figure 1). The comprehensive Law Dome ice core and firn data set (Etheridge et al., 1998; MacFarling Meure et al., 2006) almost continuously covers the last 200 years and are well connected to the direct measurements at South Pole (SPO, data provided by NOAA/ESRL/GML) and Cape Grim (CGO) (Etheridge et al., 1998; MacFarling Meure et al., 2006). Such consistency and continuity among the datasets suggests that the Antarctic CH₄ data can serve as a good reference to represent the global atmospheric CH₄ trend over
- 80 the past centuries. <u>two centuries</u>. <u>Buizert et al.</u>, (2012) used the Antarctic CH₄ trend with presumed interpolar difference (IPD) to propose the CH₄ history over Greenland (light blue in Figure 1), which in turn was used to constrain the gas diffusivity profile in firn at the North Greenland Eemian ice Drilling (NEEM) site. In their study, the Arctic CH₄ scenario was constructed by adding IPD to the Law Dome data, where the IPD was assumed to be proportionally correlated with the growth rate of CH₄. This seems reasonable assumption, given that the IPD and growth rate are both largely subject to changes in emissions from
- 85 the northern hemisphere (Dlugokencky et al., 2003; Chandra et al., 2021). The Arctic CH₄ scenario by Buizert et al. (2012) is consistent with the direct measurements that started in the 1980s, and ice core reconstructions before ~1900 (Figure 1). It is thus considered as the most likely synthetic atmospheric CH₄ trend for the northern high latitudes, and is treated as a "known" history, by which the diffusivity profiles in firn are-tuned in firn-air transport models (Witrant et al., 2012; Trudinger et al., 2013). It is however noted that this scenario has not been validated against independent estimates for the data gap period (from
- 90 -1900 to -1980).

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Currently, two synthetic data sets for the Arctic historical CH₄ mole fractions are available (see section 3.2). Buizert et al., (2012) prepared Arctic historical trends of mole fractions of atmospheric trace gases including CH₄, which in turn was used to constrain the gas diffusivity profile in firn at the NEEM site. As seen in Figure 1 (light blue line), the Arctic CH₄ scenario by Buizert et al. (2012) is consistent with the direct measurements that started in the 1980s, and ice core reconstructions before ~1900. Considered as the most likely synthetic atmospheric CH₄ trend for the northern high latitudes, this scenario was treated

- as a "known" history, by which the diffusivity profiles in firn were tuned in firn-air transport models (Witrant et al., 2012; <u>Trudinger et al., 2013).</u> The other is the composite data set prepared for use in the CMIP6 experiments (Meinshausen et al., 2017). They provide latitudinal monthly gridded fields of various greenhouse gas mole fractions to be consistent with available measurements. It is seen that their scenario for the northernmost latitude (green in Figure 1) follows the NEEM-S1 ice core
 data set (red). Figure 1 shows that the two synthetic data sets of the historical CH₄ trend are inconsistent in particular for the
- early 20th century, and it is highlighted in this study that these scenarios have not been sufficiently validated against independent estimates for the data gap period (from ~1900 to ~1980).

In this study, we present a set of mole fractions of CH4 and other trace gases in firn--air samples collected at the North Greenland Ice Core Project (NGRIP) site. Using the available atmospheric scenarios by Buizert et al. (2012), we simulate the depth

105 profiles of trace gases in the NGRIP firm with our firm-air transport model, as well as those in the NEEM firm reported previously (Buizert et al., 2012). We examine a variety of modeling cases for different diffusivity profiles and reconstruct the Arctic atmospheric CH₄ over the late 20th century using the iterative dating approach (Trudinger et al., 2002). The reconstructed CH₄ trend istrends from both firn are evaluated by comparison to the original atmospheric CH₄ scenario and to the NEEM firn air data.scenarios. Uncertainty of the Arctic atmospheric CH₄ history for use in firn-air modeling is discussed.

110 2 Experimental method

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Firn air was sampled at the Greenland site NGRIP (75°10'N, 42°32'W, 2959 m AMSL) in May–June 2001. Accumulation, surface density, mean temperature and pressure are 179 kg m⁻² yr⁻¹, 300 kg m⁻³, 241 K and 680 hPa, respectively. Details of the firn and firn-air sampling have been described elsewhere (Kawamura et al., 2006; Ishijima et al., 2007). At the NGRIP site, two shallow holes (EU and Japanese holes) were drilled (Kawamura et al., 2006; Landais et al., 2006), and the present data are from the firm-air samples collected from the Japanese hole. The total number of air-sampling depths is 24.

- Since the technical details are reported in Kawamura et al. (2021), only brief descriptions of relevant data presented in this study are given here. CH₄ mole fractions of the firm-air samples were measured using a gas chromatograph (Agilent 6890, Agilent Technologies Inc.) equipped with a flame ionization detector (GC-FID) at Tohoku University (TU), with a reproducibility of 2 ppb (Umezawa et al., 2014). The CH₄ mole fractions were determined against our working standard gases
- 120 that were calibrated on the TU1987 CH₄ scale (Aoki et al., 1992; Umezawa et al., 2014; Fujita et al., 2018). The difference between the TU1987 CH₄ scale and the WMO CH₄ mole fraction scale (on which the NEEM CH₄ data were measured) is estimated to be ~0.5 ppb at the current atmospheric CH₄ levels (Fujita et al., 2018). Ovabu et al. (2020) reported that ice core data analyzed on the TU1987 and WMO scales showed good agreement within analytical uncertainties, indicating consistency of both scales, including for the lower mole fractions (e.g. ~700 ppb). It is therefore likely that the difference between both
- scales is well below the variations of interest in this study, and thus no correction is applied for use of the NGRIP and NEEM 125 firn data.

The firn-air samples were measured for CO_2 and SF_6 mole fractions respectively by using a nondispersive infrared gas analyzer (NDIR) and a gas chromatograph equipped with an electron capture detector (GC-ECD) at TU. The measurement reproducibility is estimated to be 0.02 ppm for CO_2 and 0.09 ppt for SF₆ and mole fractions of both gases are reported on the TU2010 CO₂ and TU2002 SF₆ scales, respectively (Sugawara et al., 2018).

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The NGRIP firn-air samples were also analyzed for selected halocarbons (CFC-11, CFC-12, CFC-113 and CH₃CCl₃) on the Vacuum Preconcentration and Refocusing-Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (VPR-GCMS) system, which was developed based on the work by Saito et al. (2006). An aliquot of the sample was transferred into an evacuated canister of ~ 0.3 L at around ambient pressure (~100 kPa) and the inner pressure of the canister was recorded. The air is extracted by a vacuum 135 pump through a preconcentration trap filled with HayeSep D cooled to -135° C using a Stirling cooler. The preconcentration trap was heated to -70°C to release major atmospheric constituents and then up to 100°C to transfer the trapped compounds to a cryofocusing trap containing Carboxene 1000/Tenax TA at -100°C. The trap was then heated to 180°C to inject the trapped gases onto a PoraBOND Q separation column for subsequent analysis on MS. Mole fractions of individual halocarbons are determined against a working standard gas (compressed dry air) that was calibrated against synthetic standards on the NIES-08 scales.

3 Firn-air transport model

Since the gas diffusivity in firn layers is significantly lower than in the atmosphere, the movements of atmospheric constituents are driven mostly by molecular diffusion according to their vertical mole fraction gradients under the influence of gravity. In general, lighter air components (or isotopologues) diffuse faster under their mole fraction gradients, while heavier components

145 accumulate in the deeper layers due to the gravitational effect. Hence the depth profiles of trace gas mole fractions in firn are determined by the atmospheric histories transferred towards depth in the firn by the molecular diffusion driven by the mole fraction gradient and gravity. At the bottom of firn, the air is trapped as bubbles in the ice sheet, which creates slow downward motion of firn air.

The firn column can be divided into three zones: a convective zone (CZ), a diffusive zone (DZ) and a lock-in zone (LIZ)

- 150 (Sowers et al., 1992; Kawamura et al., 2006; Buizert et al., 2012). In CZ, primarily driven by surface winds and fluctuations of atmospheric pressure, air is mixed with the overlying atmosphere (Sowers et al., 1992; Kawamura et al., 2006). The CZ thickness at NGRIP is estimated to be below 2 m (Kawamura et al., 2006). In DZ, which is sufficiently isolated from the surface turbulence, movement of air is governed by molecular diffusion. Gravitational enrichment according to the barometric equation (i.e. linear increases of δ^{15} N of N₂ and δ^{18} O of O₂) occurs with depth, which stops at the top of LIZ (Sowers et al.,
- 155 1992; Schwander et al., 1993; Kawamura et al., 2006). The top of LIZ (lock-in depth) at NGRIP is at depth 63 m (Kawamura et al., 2006). In LIZ, advection with the enclosing ice matrix dominates the transport of air, and air parcels are gradually isolated as bubbles. Traditionally, it was supposed that high-density impermeable ice layers stop diffusivity in LIZ completely, however, recent studies demonstrated finite diffusivity in LIZ (Severinghaus et al., 2010; Buizert et al., 2012; Trudinger et al., 2013). The deepest air sampling at NGRIP was successfully made at 77.71 m, and total pore closure is considered in the deeper
- 160 layers in our modeling.

3.1 Modeling firn-air transport

We use a one-dimensional diffusion model that has been used for the reconstruction of isotope ratios of CO_2 and N_2O (Sugawara et al., 2003; Ishijima et al., 2007). The model is conceptually similar to that developed by Trudinger et al. (1997); it is based on a theoretical formation of diffusion (Schwander et al., 1993) and a bubble trapping process (Rommelaere et al.,

165 1997). Air movement in the firn is driven by molecular diffusion and a gravitational effect. Namely, a trace gas flux in firn is expressed by

$$F = -D\left\{s\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(\frac{c}{s}\right) - \frac{mgc}{RT}\right\},\tag{1}$$

where D is the effective diffusivity of a trace gas molecule, the variables s, c, and T are open porosity, trace gas molar concentration, and firn temperature, respectively, and the constants m, g, and R are the mass number of the trace gas, the

170 acceleration of gravity, and the gas constant, respectively. Vertical advection flux of the trace gas, caused by air trapping at the close-off zone and downward bulk motion of firn, is expressed by using the equation given by Rommelaere et al. (1997). Conservation of the trace gas is given by

$$\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial (vc)}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} + rc = 0, \qquad (2)$$

for the open pore space and

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$$\frac{\partial c_b}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial (v_f c_b)}{\partial z} - rc = 0, \qquad (3)$$

for bubbles. Here *c* and c_b are trace gas molar concentrations in the open pore space and bubbles, respectively. Vertical speed of air in the open pore space *v* is distinguished from that of firn itself v_f . The vertical speed of firn $v_f(z)$ is simply given by dividing the accumulation rate by the firn density under the assumption of the steady-state densification of firn. At the transition zone where the open pore air is gradually trapped into bubbles, mass conservation is given by using a bubble trapping rate *r*

180 (s⁻¹), which simply means that a portion of the trace gas molar concentration in the open pore space (*rc*) is added to bubbles. The bubble trapping rate is given as a function of the open porosity, the total porosity, and the vertical speed of firn itself (Rommelaere et al., 1997). The total porosity was calculated from the firn density data. At the transition zone, the total porosity should be divided into the open and closed porosity. The closed porosity *s_c* was calculated by the empirical equation given by Schawander (1989).

185 3.2 Atmospheric scenarios

To simulate depth profiles of trace gases in firn, atmospheric histories of the target gases are required. In this study, we used atmospheric histories prepared by the NEEM firn-air modeling (Buizert et al., 2012) and by the CMIP6 experiments (Meinshausen et al., 2017) for all the trace gases presented in this study for the NGRIP and NEEM firn (CH4, CO2, SF6, CFC-11, CFC-12, CFC-113, HFC-134a, CH3CCl3 and ¹⁴CO2). Since Meinshausen et al. (2017) provides latitudinally gridded
datasets, their historical data for the northernmost latitude (82.5° N) are used. Note that the ¹⁴CO2 history for CMIP6 is available from another study (Graven et al., 2017), which is also used in this study. The ¹⁴CO2 data by Graven et al. (2017) are available in Δ¹⁴CO2 for three zonal bands (northern hemisphere, tropics and southern hemisphere), and were converted to ¹⁴CO2 mole fraction as in Buizert et al. (2012). These atmospheric scenarios (hereafter referred to as the BZ and CMIP6 scenarios) are compared in Figure 2. The BZ (light blue) and CMIP6 (blue) scenarios show compatible historical trends in many trace gases.

- 195 There are however slight differences in some trace gases between the two scenarios e.g. SF₆ and CFC-12, but we later show that these differences do not cause significant biases in reproducing their depth profiles at the NGRIP and NEEM firm sites. In contrast, the Arctic CH₄ histories by the two studies differ considerably (Figure 2b). The two CH₄ histories show similar trends after 1960, but before this, the data sets diverge the further into the past. This disagreement is also clear in the interpolar difference (IPD), calculated relative to the CMIP6 histories for Antarctica (right axes). While the BZ scenario shows a gradual
- 200 increase in IPD, the CMIP6 scenario indicates almost constant values at ~130 ppb over the 20th century. This difference stems from the different methodologies that were used to produce the respective scenarios. As described by Buizert et al. (2012), the BZ CH₄ scenario was constructed by adding the presumed IPD to the Antarctic history (the Law Dome data), where the IPD was assumed to be proportionally correlated with the growth rate of CH₄. This seems a reasonable assumption, given that the IPD and growth rate are both largely subject to changes in emissions from the northern hemisphere (Dlugokencky et al., 2003;
- 205 <u>Ghosh et al., 2015</u>; <u>Chandra et al., 2021</u>). <u>Meinshausen et al. (2017)</u> compiled historical measurement records from the worldwide networks as well as Antarctic/Greenland ice core and firn samples and constructed latitudinally gridded datasets of various greenhouse gases. For the historical trend of CH4, they relied on the data set from the NEEM-S1 ice core by Rhodes et al. (2013) to produce the atmospheric histories for the northern hemisphere. They used the 5-yearly averaged values with outliers removed to represent lower bounds of the raw data points as shown in Figure 1. Note that the Rhodes et al. (2013) data</u>
- 210 set was not available when the BZ scenario was constructed. Therefore, CH₄ is the only compound, with an available atmospheric history, which shows a clear disagreement, thus highlighting the limitation of our current understanding of its atmospheric historical trend for the northern hemisphere. Conversely, this study assumes that the atmospheric scenarios for other trace gases are known with sufficient accuracy. The scenarios of the individual trace gases have inherent uncertainties, but the comparisons of the two scenarios indicate that the other gases are at least better known than CH₄.

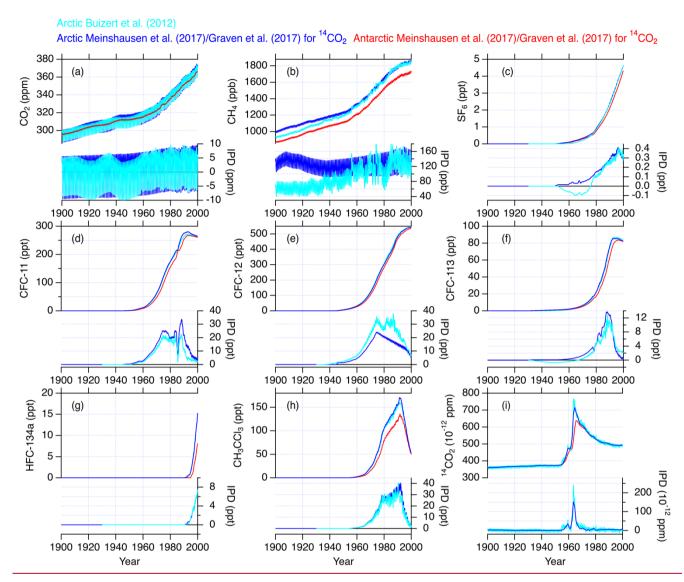


Figure 2: Atmospheric scenarios of various trace gases used in this study. The Arctic histories prepared for the NEEM firn-air modeling (Buizert et al., 2012) are in light blue. The Arctic and Antarctic histories for CMIP6 (Meinshausen et al., 2017) are in blue and red, respectively. For ¹⁴CO₂, the CMIP6 historical data are from Graven et al. (2017). The interpolar differences (IPDs) calculated from the Arctic histories with respect to the Antarctic CMIP6 histories are also shown (right axes).

<u>3.3</u> Effective diffusivity

We follow the previous firn-air studies in which the effective diffusivity in firn is optimized with an iterative method so as to minimize the difference between the simulated and observed depth profiles of CO₂ (Sugawara et al., 2003; Ishijima et al., 2007). AnIn these previous studies, an initial guess of the effective diffusivity for CO₂, $D_{init}(z)$, was calculated by:

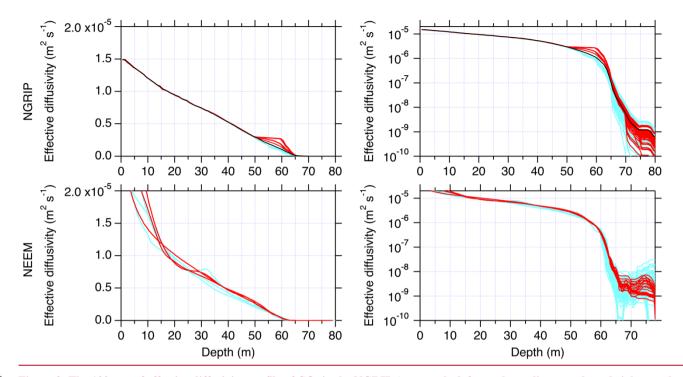
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$$D_{init}(z) = D_0 \left(\frac{T}{253}\right)^{1.85} \left(\frac{1013}{p}\right) \{1.7s(z) - 0.2\},\tag{4}$$

where s(z) and D_0 represent the open porosity at a depth z and the diffusion coefficient of CO₂ at 253 K and 1013 hPa, respectively. D_0 was set to 1.247×10^{-5} (m² s⁻¹) according to Trudinger et al. (1997). The bulk density was determined by measuring the dimension and weight of cylindrically cut firn core samples (Kawamura et al., 2006). The effective diffusivity

- 230 of CO₂ thus obtained, was converted to those of other trace gases by multiplying by scaling factors from Buizert et al. (2012). Therefore, the depth profile pattern of the effective diffusivity is identical among all gases, but the magnitude is gas-dependent due to the scaling factors. In this study, the effective diffusivity profile prepared for the NGRIP firn by Ishijima et al. (2007) is referred to as the initial diffusivity and it was modified to improve the reproducibility of our newly measured trace gas profiles. For simulating trace gas profiles for the NEEM firn, we began with the effective diffusivity profiles available from
- 235 Buizert et al. (2012). Those effective diffusivity profiles, which were originally optimised for individual firn-air transport models that participated in that study, were modified and used for simulating the various trace gas profiles reported for the NEEM firn. The various diffusivity profiles were constructed by modifying the original profiles at a certain range of depths in a stepwise manner. Although this simple method does not guarantee identification of a best-match profile, we are confident that an acceptable range of the diffusivity profile is satisfactorily constrained. (section 4). We eventually prepared 100 different
- 240 sets of diffusivity profiles so as to cover a considerable range of diffusivity. Each set of the diffusivity profiles was evaluated based on the root mean square deviation (RMSD) between the model and data according to Buizert et al. (2012). All sets of effective diffusivity profiles for the NGRIP and NEEM firn sites are shown in Figure 3 (top and bottom panels, respectively). The different colors of the diffusivity profiles will be explained later. As shown in the figure, we examined a considerable range of effective diffusivity for different firn layers at both NGRIP and NEEM firn sites. Those diffusivity profiles were
- 245 <u>evaluated against the observed trace gas profiles, which were regarded as constraints. Note that, in the evaluation, the atmospheric scenarios of the trace gases (except CH₄) are assumed to be known with sufficient accuracy to infer a range of acceptable diffusivity profiles that reproduce the depth profiles of the firn-air composition.</u>

3.3 Performance of the firn air transport model

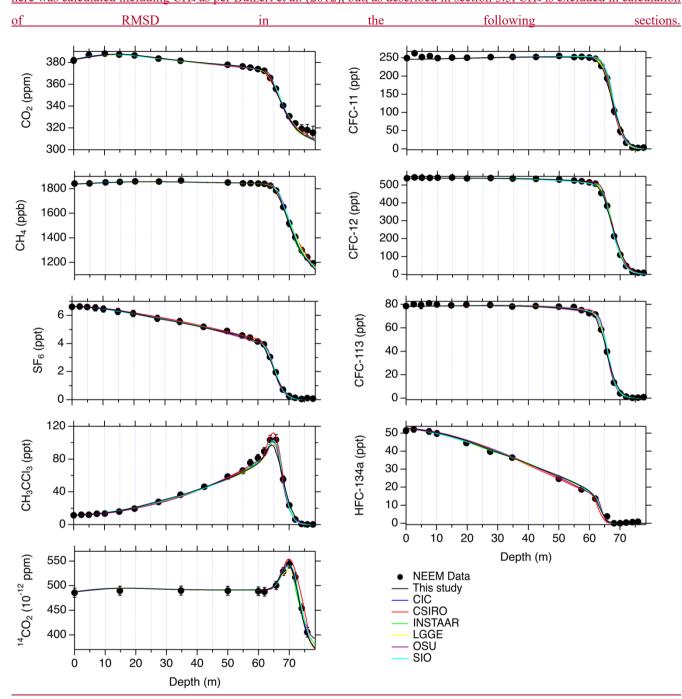


250 Figure 3: The 100 sets of effective diffusivity profile of CO₂ in the NGRIP (top panels, left panel on a linear scale and right panel on a log scale) and NEEM firn (bottom panels). The initial diffusivity profile (Ishijima et al., 2007) is shown in black (NGRIP only) and modified diffusivity profiles are in colors. The diffusivity profiles whose corresponding mole fraction profiles have RMSD values of <1.0 are colored red and the others light blue.

255 <u>3.4 Performance of the firn-air transport model</u>

To validate our firn-air transport model, we simulated began by simulating depth profiles of various trace gases in the NEEM firn. Our model did not participate in the model intercomparison study using the NEEM data (Buizert et al., 2012). In this simulation, we employed the atmospherieBZ scenarios prepared by Buizert et al. (2012) as per their model intercomparison. The diffusivity profile optimized for the CIC (Center for Ice and Climate, Niels Bohr Institute, University of Copenhagen) model was tuned for our model. The simulated depth profiles of various compounds the nine trace gases are presented in Figure 24 and compared with those by other models presented in Buizert et al. (2012). The results confirm that the performance of our model is comparable to those by other groups. As a measure of the model performance, Buizert et al. (2012) compared root mean square deviation (RMSD) between the model and data, which ranged from 0.73 to 0.92 for the six participating models. Following the same approach, our model yields the RMSD value of 0.83 of for the NEEM EU borehole. for the NEEM

265 <u>EU borehole. This RMSD value was achieved with an effective diffusivity profile that was prepared by modifying the profile</u> originally optimised for the CIC (Centre for Ice and Climate) model at a certain range of depths. Note that the RMSD value



here was calculated including CH₄ as per Buizert et al. (2012), but, as described in section 3.5, CH₄ is excluded in calculation

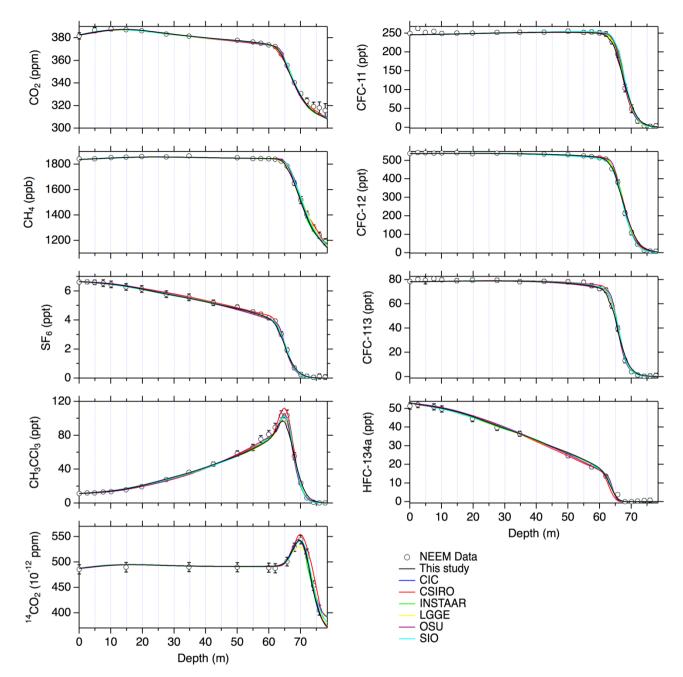
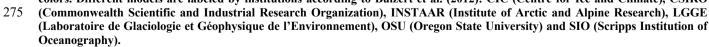


Figure 24: Modeled depth profiles of various compounds in the NEEM firn. Open<u>Closed</u> circles in black are the observed data with uncertainty estimated by Buizert et al. (2012). Our model results are shown in black solid lines and results from other models are in colors. Different models are labeled by institutions according to Buizert et al. (2012): CIC (Centre for Ice and Climate), CSIRO



3.45 Modeling procedure

280 Our modeling procedure for reconstructing the atmospheric histories of trace gases<u>CH4</u> was as follows:

(1) To represent atmospheric trace gas trends in the Arctic region, we began by employing the two sets of atmospheric scenarios prepared for the NEEM firm air modeling (Buizert et al., 2012) for all the trace gases presented in this study (CH₄, CO₂, SF₆; CFC-11, CFC-12, CFC-113 and CH₃CCl₃); (section 3.2). The firm transport model calculates depth profiles of these the various trace gases inat the NGRIP and NEEM firm withsites using the initial large set of modified (N=100) effective diffusivity diffusivities described in section 3.2.

(2) We examined the different sets of diffusivity profiles so as to improve overall reproducibility of the modeled profiles of the six trace gases except CH_4 . In other words, we regarded these six trace gases as constraints to the <u>3</u>. The simulation case with each diffusivity profile. Note that this step assumes that the atmospheric histories of the six gases are known with sufficient accuracy to infer a range of acceptable diffusivity profiles that reproduce the depth profiles of the firn air composition. We

- 290 prepared 100 different sets of modified diffusivity profiles, and the overall model-data agreement for each set_was evaluated based on <u>RMSD</u>. As we aim to estimate the historical atmospheric trend of CH₄, the <u>RMSD</u>-based evaluations were made using all of the available trace gas data, excluding CH₄. In the <u>RMSD</u> calculation, we used the measurement uncertainties of 0.2 ppm for CO₂, 0.2 ppt for SF₆, 1.1 ppt for CFC-11, 3.3 ppt for CFC-12, 0.6 ppt for CFC-113 and 3.2 ppt for CH₃CCl₃ for the NGRIP firn. For the NEEM firn, we employed the uncertainties provided by Buizert et al. (2012). It should be noted that
- 295 the present study does not follow the RMSD of the six gases uncertainty estimation as done by Buizert et al. (2012). They indicated that uncertainties in the atmospheric scenarios as well as measurement uncertainties are the two largest contributors to the total uncertainties for individual data points for the NEEM firm. We consider that the uncertainties in the atmospheric scenarios are appreciably examined through comparisons of series of simulations using the two independent scenarios.

(32) We ran the model with the 100 different sets of diffusivity profiles to calculate the depth profile of CH₄. Note that, based
 on the earlier stepsstep, we know the diffusivity profiles that generate reasonable firn-air profiles for the six-trace gases other
 than CH₄. Every diffusivity profile was used in combination with the firn-air CH₄ data for reconstructing an atmospheric CH₄

- history. We employed an iterative dating approach (Trudinger et al., 2002) where the initial atmospheric scenario (the BZ scenario) was modified to improve model reproducibility of the CH₄ depth profile (see below). The corrected atmospheric CH₄ scenarios were then compared to the initial scenario (BZ and CMIP6) for further discussion.
- 305 The iterative dating for CH₄ was performed as follows:

(1) Depth profile of CH₄ was calculated with the initial atmospheric CH₄ scenario.

(2) Effective(II) The modeled CH_4 mole fraction, calculated in step I, was compared to the input atmospheric CH_4 scenario, and effective age at each sampling depth was calculated so that determined as the time when the modeled CH_4 -mole fraction, at that depth, agreed with a value in the atmospheric CH_4 scenario. It is noted that the smoothing spline curve applied to the

310 <u>BZ CH₄ scenario was used for calculation of the effective age, as the input scenario with seasonal variation (Figure 2) would not allow the effective age to be uniquely determined.</u>

(3III) A new atmospheric CH₄ scenario was constructed by assigning the observed CH₄ mole fraction, at each depth, to the effective age determined in step *II*. The observed CH₄ versus the effective age data set was interpolated by a smoothing spline function and it is considered as a revised atmospheric CH₄ scenario.

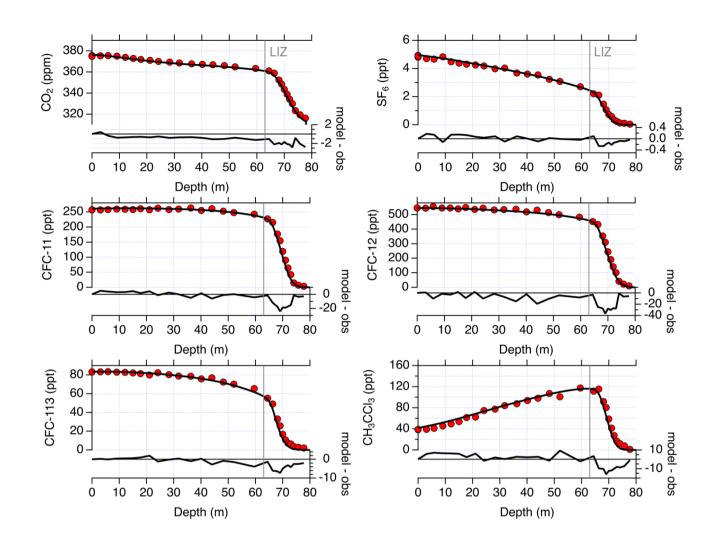
315 (4<u>IX</u>) Depth profile of CH₄ was again calculated with the revised atmospheric CH₄ scenario <u>constructed in step III</u>.
 (5<u>X</u>) The above steps 2-4<u>II-IX</u> were repeated until the model-data difference converged within an acceptable range (typically after a few iterations) (Trudinger et al., 2002; Ishijima et al., 2007). In this study, we made five iterations for each modified diffusivity case as we confirmed sufficient convergence of the result.

4 Result

320 4.1 Initial and modified diffusivity simulations

Figure 35 presents the initial simulation results with the initial diffusivity in comparison to the observed profiles for the six trace gases excluding CH₄ (CO₂, SF₆, CFC-11, CFC-12, CFC-113 and CH₃CCl₃). for the NGRIP firn. As seen in this figure, measured profiles of these trace gases (except CH₃CCl₃) show gradual decreases with depth in the DZ and sharp decreases in the LIZ. In contrast, CH₃CCl₃ increases with depth in the DZ and sharply decreases in the LIZ. The difference of the depth

325 profile pattern among species is due to their different historical atmospheric trends. It is known that the atmospheric mole fractions of the five trace gases (CO₂, SF₆, CFC-11, CFC-12 and CFC-113) have increased monotonically since the mid 20th century (Sturrock et al., 2002; Martinerie et al., 2009). In contrast, CH₃CCl₃ has increased until the early 1990s and has decreased since then (Sturrock et al., 2002; Rigby et al., 2017).), which is also observed in Figure 2. Our simulation reproduces the observed depth profiles of these six trace gases in the NGRIP firn fairly accurately withusing the atmosphericBZ scenarios prepared for modeling the NEEM firn air (Buizert et al., 2012).



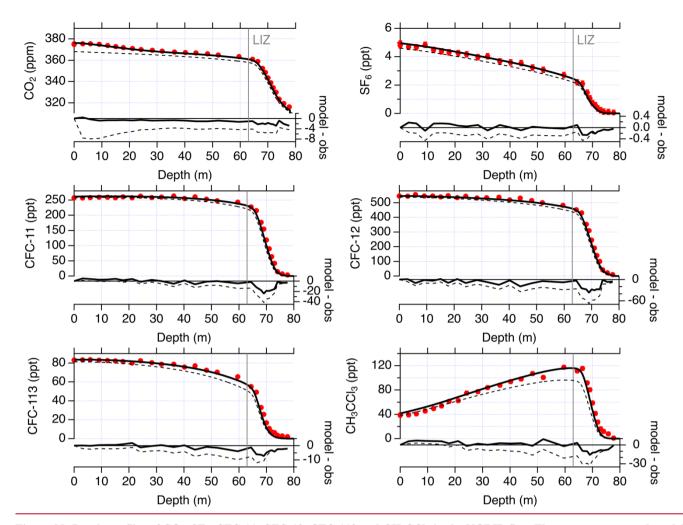


Figure 35: Depth profiles of CO₂, SF₆, CFC-11, CFC-12, CFC-113 and CH₃CCl₃ in the NGRIP firn. The measurement and model results are shown by red circles and black solid lines, respectively (left axis). The measurement uncertainties are shown as vertical error bars though in many cases they are smaller than the circle sizes. <u>Black solid lines show the modeled profiles with the initial diffusivity and the BZ scenarios. The black dashed lines indicate the profiles calculated with the atmospheric scenarios for Antarctica (red lines in Figure 2). The model-data differences are also shown (right axis). The vertical solid line in each panel indicates the upper depth of LIZ.</u>

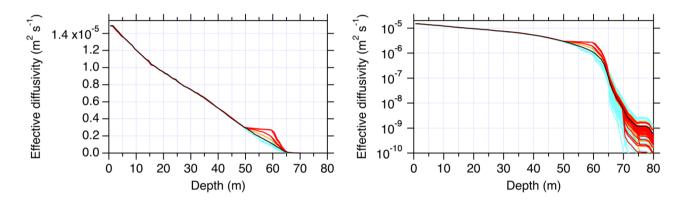
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It is interesting to note that the depth profiles of CH₃CCl₃ at NGRIP and NEEM are remarkably different. Whereas the NEEM data show a relatively sharp CH₃CCl₃ peak in the LIZ (~65 m, Figure <u>24</u>), NGRIP does not show such a narrow peak. This is due to the timing of firm-_air sampling i.e. 2001 for NGRIP and 2008 for NEEM. When the NGRIP firn air was sampled, the signal of the maximum atmospheric CH₃CCl₃ in the early 1990s had only reached near the top of the LIZ at the site, thereby formulating the relatively gentle changes at the shallower depths. On the other hand, seven years later at the NEEM site, such <u>a</u> signal was found deeper in the LIZ where the age of air changes rapidly with depth in both deeper and shallower sides. We

emphasize that, despite the differences in the depth profiles of CH₃CCl₃ at the two sites, our simulations reproduce both profiles measured at both sites well, using the same atmospheric CH₃CCl₃ scenario.

Figure 35 shows that the model-data difference increases in the LIZ for all the trace gases. In particular, the model-data difference is pronounced as a dip around 70 m for all trace gases, implying that the mismatches may originate in a common factor in the modeling e.g. depth profile of diffusivity. To examine the impact of diffusivity modification on the simulated depth profiles and their agreements with the data, we preparedexamined the 100 sets of modified diffusivity profiles (Figure 4). The various diffusivity profiles were constructed by modifying the original profile at certain range of depths in a stepwise manner. 3). It was found that, to Although this simple method does not guarantee identification of a best match profile, we are confident that an acceptable range of the diffusivity profile is satisfactorily constrained. To reduce the model-data difference in the LIZ (Figure 3), we found that 5), the diffusivity needs to be increased in the shallower layers thancompared with the top LIZ i.e. 50–65 m. The diffusivity was also modified in the deeper layers (>65 m) and simulations were made accordingly.

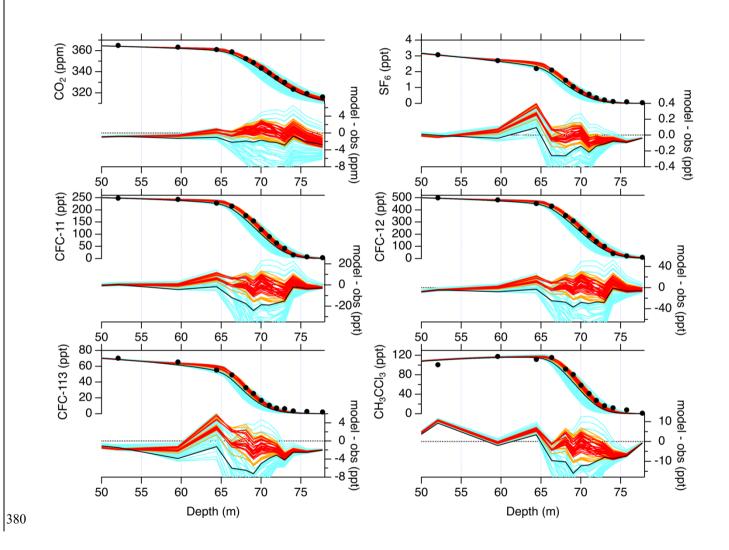


360 Figure 4: The 100 sets of effective diffusivity profile of CO₂ in the NGRIP firn (colored, left panel on a linear scale and right panel on a log scale). The original diffusivity profile is shown in black. See text for colors of the modified diffusivity profiles.

To examine the sensitivity of the trace gas depth profiles to the IPD, we calculated depth profiles that would be expected if the Antarctic atmospheric scenarios (red lines in Figure 2) are given for the NGRIP firn. This sensitivity experiment shows that
 365 IPD causes significant biases larger than the measurement precisions of the respective trace gases. We calculated the difference between the simulations for the BZ scenario (solid line) and the Antarctic scenario (dashed line) and found that sensitivities to the IPD for these six trace gases are no more than 20 times the respective measurement uncertainties. Such relative sensitivities of these suite of gases to the IPDs are much smaller than that of CH4, which reaches 40 times the measurement uncertainty. The CH4 simulation with the Antarctic scenario for the NGRIP firn resulted in the depth profile >100 ppb less than the original simulation (dotted lines in Figure 8), showing the pronounced impact on CH4.

The simulated profiles for depths deeper than 50 m using the 100 diffusivity profiles are presented for the six trace gases (Figure 56). In this figure, the modeling results with the modified diffusivity profiles are shown in colors on the left axis, and

the model-data differences of the respective cases are plotted on the right axis. It is clear that the model-data differences could be significantly reduced with some diffusivity cases. We calculated RMSD in the same manner as Buizert et al. (2012) with the measurement uncertainties of 0.2 ppm for CO_2 , 0.2 ppt for SF₆, 1.1 ppt for CFC-11, 3.3 ppt for CFC-12, 0.6 ppt for CFC-113 and 3.2 ppt for CH₃CCl₃. The RMSD values are as little as 0.51 for a particular case. In Figure 4<u>6</u> and followingassociated figures, the model results with a RMSD of <0.75 and <1.0 are colored red and orange, respectively, and other cases are colored light blue.



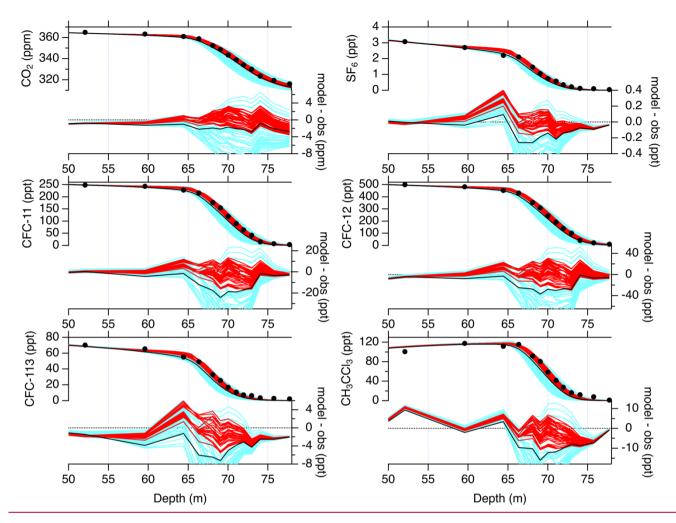
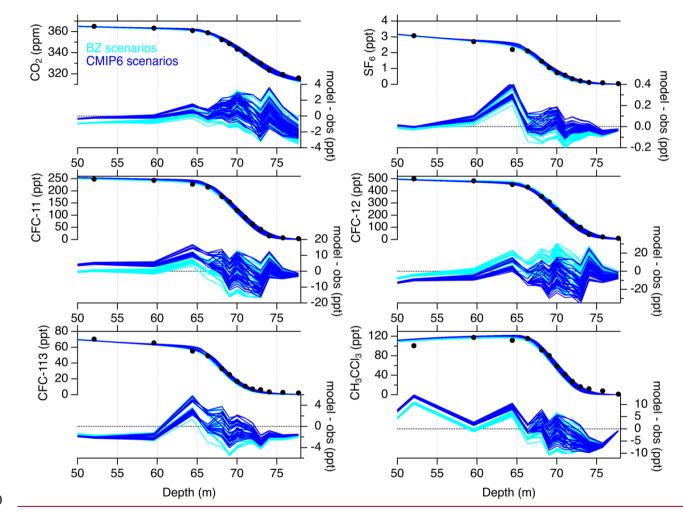


Figure 56: Depth profiles of the six trace gases below 50 m depth in the NGRIP firn. Black circles indicate the measurements and solid lines in colors are the model results with different diffusivity profiles and the BZ scenarios (left axis). Black lines are modeled results with the initial diffusivity. Also shown are the model-data differences (right axis). See text for difference in line colors.

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Likewise, depth profiles of CH₄ are shown in Figure 6. These calculations were made with the 100 diffusivity profiles and the atmospheric CH₄ scenario for the NEEM firm air modeling (Buizert et al., 2012). In Figure 7, modeled depth profiles with different sets of the atmospheric scenarios (BZ and CMIP6) are compared. For simplicity, only the results with RMSD of \leq 1.0 are presented. This figure shows that the differences in the atmospheric histories (Figure 2) produces relatively small differences in the depth profiles in the firm. There are small offsets due to the differences of the histories in some gases; difference in the SF₆ history before 1980 (<0.2 ppt) corresponds to the small (<0.1 ppt) offsets below 65 m; significant differences in the histories of CFC-11 (<10 ppt) and CFC-12 (<20 ppt) for 1960–1990 resulted in the overall offsets (roughly <5 and <10 ppt, respectively) below 50 m; difference in the CH₃CCl₃ history (<10 ppt) in the early 1990s produced the offsets (~3 ppt) above 66 m. The smaller offsets in the calculated depth profiles than in the input atmospheric scenarios are
 due to the smoothing effect of diffusion in the firn layers. We calculated the difference between the modeled profiles with the two scenarios for individual diffusivity cases and found that those differences in the LIZ are within the measurement precisions for SF₆, CFC-113 and CH₃CCl₃. They are a bit larger for CO₂, CFC-11 and CFC-12, which are up to five times the respective measurement precisions. The largest impact of the scenario difference occurs in CH₄. In the LIZ, the difference between depth profiles with the two scenarios reaches to 5–10 times the measurement precision (see Figure 8).



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Figure 7: Same as Figure 6, but for comparison of the modeled profiles with different atmospheric scenarios of BZ and CMIP6 in light blue and blue, respectively. Only the simulation results with RMSD values of <1.0 are shown.

Modeled depth profiles of CH₄ are shown in Figure 8. These calculations were made with the 100 diffusivity profiles and the atmospheric CH₄ scenarios of BZ (left) and CMIP6 (right). It is interesting to note that the characteristics of the model-data difference for CH₄ are different from those for the other six trace gases- (Figure 6). For the other trace gases (Figure 5), the

initial simulation showed increased model-data differences around 70 m, and they were reduced with some modified diffusivity profiles. For CH₄, the model run with the <u>originalinitial</u> diffusivity profile <u>of the BZ scenario</u> reproduces the observed CH₄ profile quite well down to \sim 73 m, but significantly overestimates by >20 ppb for the lowest three depths (the black solid line).

410 <u>in the left panel</u>). Using the modified diffusivity profiles that allowed better agreements for the other six trace gases (orange and red lines), we actually find larger model-data CH₄ difference than in the initial simulation<u>red lines</u>), we find larger modeldata CH₄ differences than in the initial simulation. These features are commonly seen for the simulation results with the CMIP6 scenario (right panel), but the overestimate in the LIZ is more pronounced, because the CH₄ mole fractions for the early to mid 20th century are higher in the CMIP6 than in the BZ scenario. As described earlier, the difference of depth profiles with the

415 two scenarios exceeds 30 ppb in some diffusivity cases, ten times the measurement precision. Figure 8 also shows the depth profiles which would be expected when the Antarctic CH₄ scenario is used to the firn model (dashed line). The calculated profiles are aligned ~120 ppb below the simulations with the Arctic scenarios, illustrating the large impact of IPD on the CH₄ profile in the Arctic firn.

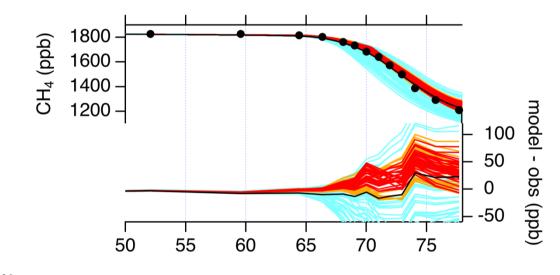
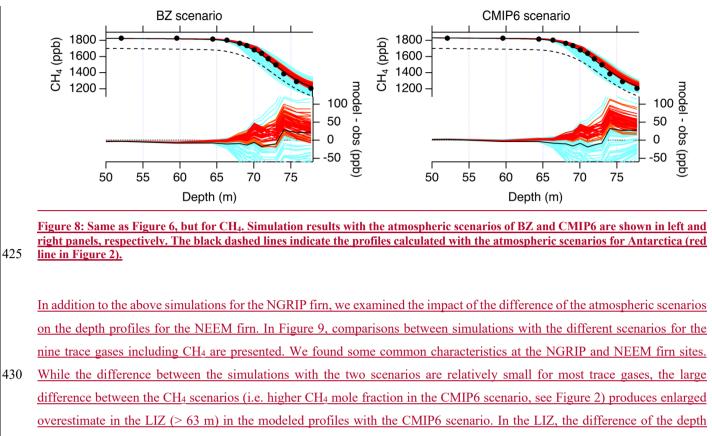
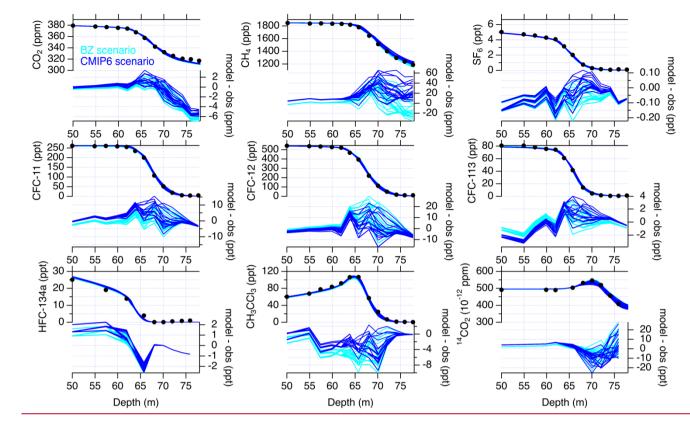


Figure 6: Same as Figure 5, but for CH4.



profiles with the two scenario exceeds 30 ppb, being comparable to the magnitude observed in the NGRIP firn (Figure 8).



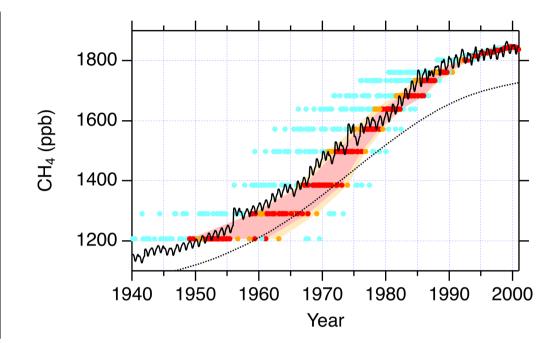
435 Figure 9. Same as Figure 7, but for the NEEM firn. Only the simulation results with RMSD values of <1.0 are shown.

4.2 Reconstruction by iterative dating

We explore the possibility of reconstructing the Arctic CH₄ mole fractions by the iterative dating method. This approach sets the has a fixed diffusivity profile-fixed (assumed to be correct) and aims to find an acceptable atmospheric history to reproduce
the firn-air depth profile. It is considered that the modified diffusivity profiles with the low RMSD values for the six trace gases are adequately evaluated by the trace gases except CH₄ and that the model-data mismatch in the CH₄ modeling is therefore attributable to uncertainty in the atmospheric CH₄ scenario. The historical atmospheric CH₄ scenarios obtained by the iterative dating method are presented in Figure 7<u>10</u> for the 100 modeling cases of the modified diffusivity. The different simulation cases are colored in the same manner as in the earlier figures according to the RMSD (Figures 4–3, 6 and 8). Note that the reconstruction cases colored in light blue are considered to be less likely, due to poorer reproduction of the depth profiles (Figures 56 and 68). The modelNGRIP reconstruction results in-(red-and-orange, Figure 10a) are in good

agreement with the initial atmospheric BZ scenario by Buizert et al. (2012) after around 1980. For the earlier period, however, the upper bounds of the reconstructions matches match with the initial BZ scenario, and the overall range of acceptable histories

is below the initial atmospheric CH4BZ scenario (circles and shades in red-and orange), suggesting). On the other hand, the
 MEEM reconstruction results show that the CH4-mole fractions may have been lower than the initial modelingrange of
 acceptable histories are distributed closely around the original BZ scenario- or below it after around 1960, whereas the lower
 bound of the reconstruction aligns with the BZ scenario before that (Figure 10b).



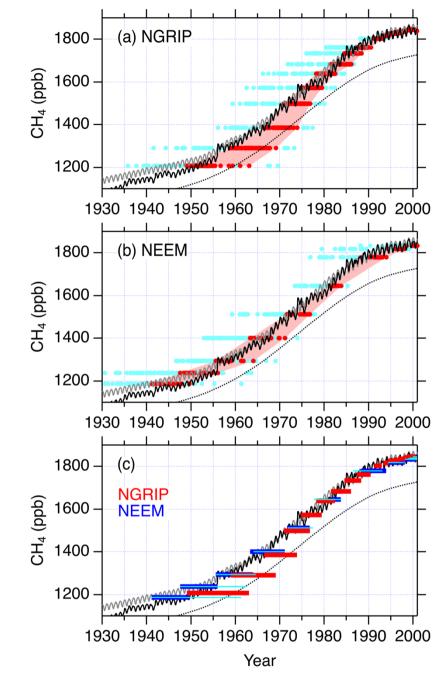


Figure 7<u>10</u>: Results of reconstructions by the iterative dating method from the NGRIP firn air (colored eircles) for the model cases with the 100 different diffusivity profiles (circles colored in the same manner as in Figures 5<u>3, 6</u> and 6)-8) from the (a) NGRIP and (b) NEEM firn air, and (c) the ranges of reconstructions from both firn. The orange and red shades indicate the range of CH₄ mole fraction trends reconstructed using the diffusivity profiles that better reproduce the other six trace gases except CH₄. Black and grey solid line islines are the initial atmospheric CH₄ scenario (Buizert et al., 2012), scenarios of BZ and CMIP6, respectively, and black dotted line is the smoothed Antarctic CH₄ mole fraction (spline curve) from the Antarctic data shown in Figure 1. The thick

horizontal bars in red and blue in panel c correspond to red shades in panels a and b. The light blue thin bars in panel c indicate the range of the reconstructions for cases in which ¹⁴CO₂ data are excluded for evaluations of the diffusivity profiles.

It should be stressed that the reconstructions for the time period before 1980 rely on the CH4 data from the lowest threefour or five depths of the NGRIP and NEEM firm air. The differences between the initial and corrected atmospheric CH4 scenario from thesethe three deepest data for the NGRIP firm are up to ~100 ppb. As seen in Figure 710, such reduction in the Arctic atmospheric CH4 scenario over the period would result in alignment with the atmospheric CH4 trend in Antarctica inferred from the Law Dome and other datasets (black dotted line). It is again noted that all the reconstruction cases colored in orange and red used diffusivity profiles that yield relatively good model reproducibility with RMSD values of <1.0-and 0.75, respectively. It is therefore seen that iterative dating-based reconstruction from the NGRIP firm data suggests decreased CH4 mole fraction from the 1950s to 1970s in any case, albeit with large uncertainty. It is however noted that, as shown in Figure 10c, this result is not fully compatible with that from the NEEM firm. In particular, the discrepancies between the reconstructions from both firm data diverge with time before 1970. When compared to these reconstructions, the BZ scenario (black line) tracks the overlapping ranges of both reconstructions, while the CMIP6 scenario passes above them before around 1955.</p>

4.3 Comparison to the NEEM profile

To further evaluate consistency of the atmospheric CH₄ scenario reconstructed from the NGRIP firn, we ran the model for the NEEM firn using the corrected atmospheric CH₄ histories obtained from the iterative dating approach. The modeling results with the initial and modified atmospheric CH₄ histories are shown in Figure 8. With the initial scenario (black line), the modeldata difference was <25 ppb, with relatively large differences appearing in the LIZ (>63 m). However, when the atmospheric CH₄ histories reconstructed from the NGRIP firn were employed, the reconstruction cases based on the improved reproducibility for the NGRIP firn (orange and red lines) resulted in larger model data differences of >50 ppb in the LIZ.

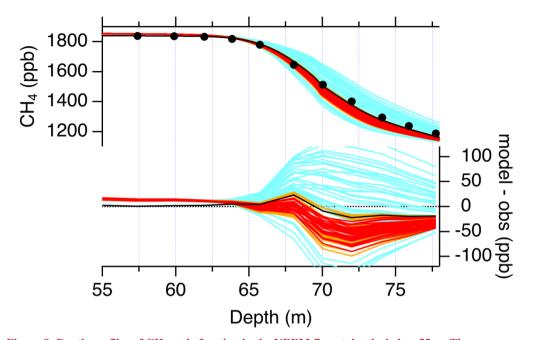


Figure 8: Depth profiles of CH₄ mole fraction in the NEEM firn at depths below 55 m. The measurements are shown by solid black circles. The modeling results with the atmospheric CH₄ scenario by Buizert et al. (2012) and with the CH₄ histories estimated from the NGRIP reconstruction are shown by black and colored lines, respectively (left axis). Corresponding model-data differences are also shown (right axis).

5 Discussion and conclusion

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In section 4, we have shown that, with the <u>two</u> atmospheric scenarios <u>prepared for the NEEM firn,(BZ and CMIP6)</u>, depth profiles of CO₂, SF₆, CFC-11, CFC-12, CFC-113 and CH₃CCl₃ in the NGRIP <u>and NEEM</u> firn are accurately-reproduced <u>with</u> sufficient accuracy by using therange of modified diffusivity profiles (Figure 5Figures 6, 7 and 9). This suggests that the atmospheric scenarios of these trace gases used in the modeling are consistent with the depth profiles observed at both firn sites in Greenland (NEEM and NGRIP). In contrast, the observed CH₄ profile in the NGRIP firn was not <u>accurately</u> reconciled using the <u>two</u> atmospheric scenario prepared for the <u>NEEM firnscenarios</u> and the diffusivity profiles that allow adequate reproducibility for the above six trace gases- (except CH₄). This suggests either that the Arctic atmospheric scenarioscenarios of CH₄ isare uncertain or that the diffusivity profile of the NGRIP firn is underconstrained.

We explored the correction of the atmospheric scenario of CH₄ by the iterative dating approach. This method improves agreement to the observed CH₄ depth profile in the NGRIP firn, with an implicit assumption that the diffusivity profile in each case is correct. Although uncertainty due to the under-constrained diffusivity profile in the LIZ is large, this attempt for the NGRIP firn suggested that the CH₄ mole fractions over the period 1950–1980 could be decreased in comparison to the original

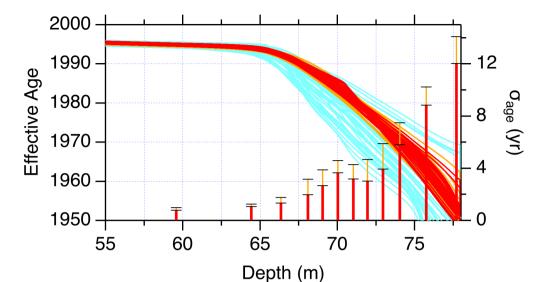
505 <u>BZ</u> scenario prepared for the NEEM modeling (Figure 7). However, the follow-up modeling with the corrected atmospheric

CH₄ histories by the iterative dating based on the NGRIP data did not show improved reproducibility for the CH₄ profile at the NEEM site (Figure 8). It is therefore implied that neither the original CH₄ scenario by Buizert et al. (2012) nor the corrected CH₄ histories by this study, are well validated against the available two Greenland firn data sets (NGRIP and NEEM).10). The decrease of up to 100 ppb from the originalBZ scenario over the period 1950–1980, as suggested by the iterative dating in this

- 510 studyfor the NGRIP firn, would make the CH4 mole fraction as low as that in Antarctica (Figure 710). We point out that such a nearly-zero IPD of the CH4 mole fraction is highly unlikely, given that a major fraction of both natural and anthropogenic CH4 sources resides in the northern hemisphere in both preindustrial and industrial periods (Houweling et al., 2000; Ghosh et al., 2015; Saunois et al., 2020; Chandra et al., 2021). In contrast, the iterative dating reconstruction for the NEEM firn agrees with the BZ scenario. Although the spread of the reconstructions is large, particularly for the NGRIP firn, it was found that the
- 515 <u>BZ scenario passes within the ranges of the reconstructions from both firn data, but that the CMIP6 scenario is notably higher</u> than the reconstructions for the period before 1960. This suggests that the BZ scenario is more consistent with the two sets of the Greenland firn data sets (NGRIP and NEEM) than the CMIP6 scenario for the mid 20th century when the two scenarios begin to diverge as time goes back.

It is important to note that the reconstructions for the period before 1980 from the NGRIP firm were heavily influenced by the

- 520 three<u>five</u> deepest data in the LIZ (> 7472 m). Figure 911a shows distributions of the effective age of CH₄ at depths below 55 m in the NGRIP firn, colored the same as in the earlier figures. In addition, the spread of the effective age (σ_{age}) at each sampling depth is shown on the right axis. This figure shows that firn-air samples collected at the three<u>five</u> lowest sampling depths at NGRIP have effective ages corresponding to the period from ~1950 to the mid<u>late</u> 1970s. In additionAt those depths, even the acceptable diffusivities yield the spread of the effective age of >5 years at those depths (red and orange(black vertical)).
- 525 <u>bars</u>). This shows that the reconstruction of the CH₄ mole fraction for the period is subject to much uncertainty in effective age. For the NEEM firn, the reconstructions before 1980 also rely on the five deepest data in the LIZ (Figure 11b). The σ_{age} values at those depths in the NEEM firn ranges from 5 to 8 years (thick vertical bars), comparable to those in the NGRIP firn. The Antarctic atmospheric CH₄ record (see Figures 1 and 7<u>10</u>) indicates that the atmospheric increase rate of CH₄ was 10–15 ppb yr⁻¹ over the period. The 5-year uncertainty in the age estimate for the NGRIP firm--air samples could therefore be
- 530 translated to an uncertainty of >50 ppb in the Arctic atmospheric CH₄ level. This is comparable to the IPD of CH₄ mole fraction during the 1950s to 1970s, which was assumed when Buizert et al. (2012) prepared the Arctic atmospheric CH₄ scenario for the NEEM modeling(2012) prepared the BZ CH₄ scenario. It is also interesting to note that σ_{age} at the four deepest depths in the NEEM firn is almost constant, whereas it increases with depth in the NGRIP firn and exceeds 10 years at the two deepest depths. This indicates that effective age in the oldest firn-air layers can be estimated with better accuracy in the NEEM firn
- 535 than in the NGRIP firn, thereby providing the reconstructions with smaller uncertainties. As σ_{age} was calculated from the simulation cases with acceptable ranges of diffusivity, its magnitude reflects how tightly the diffusivity profile is constrained at each firn site. In other words, our simulations infer that the diffusivity profile in the NEEM firn can be better constrained than the NGRIP firn.

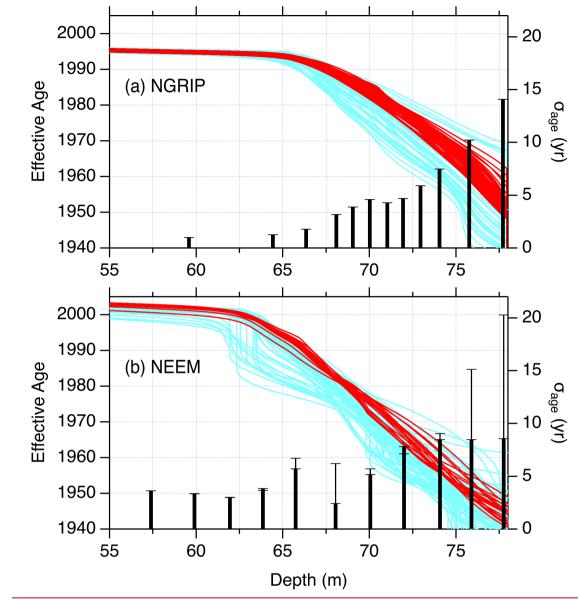


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to zero.

Figure 9In order to see the degree of constraint to the effective diffusivity from different trace gases, we calculated RMSD values for different combinations of the trace gases for the NEEM firn. The choice of the NEEM firn is due to the availability of a larger number of gas species. It was found that the ¹⁴CO₂ data provide strong constraints for narrowing the acceptable

545 range of diffusivity profiles in the LIZ. The evaluated RMSD with the ¹⁴CO₂ data excluded and the historical CH₄ reconstruction from the simulation cases with RMSD <1.0 is presented in Figure 10c (thin horizontal bars in light blue). The corresponding spread of the effective age is also shown in Figure 11b (thin vertical bars in black). These results show that, for the NEEM reconstruction, uncertainty of the effective age would be doubled at the two deepest depths if it were not for the ¹⁴CO₂ data. It is also interesting that the range of the CH₄ reconstruction without ¹⁴CO₂ would deviate to the younger ages and would suggest a historical trend lower than the BZ scenario (Figure 10c). In turn, the CH₄ trend reconstructed from the NGRIP firm might be different if ¹⁴CO₂ measurement was available. The above contribution of the ¹⁴CO₂ data for the NEEM firm implies that the NGRIP reconstruction could have been closer to the NEEM reconstruction. It is also noted that constraints from halocarbon species to the diffusivity profile are relatively weak as their mole fractions in the LIZ are decreased to close



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Figure 11: Depth profiles of effective age of CH₄ calculated after the iterative dating calculations for depths below 55 m at the (a) <u>NGRIP and (b) NEEM firn sites</u> (left axis). The solid lines represent cases for different diffusivity profiles and are colored in the same manner as in Figures 4 8.the earlier figures. Vertical orange and red bars in black indicate spread of the effective age (maximum minus minimum) at the individual sampling depths among the modeling cases in red. For the NEEM firn, the thin vertical bars correspond to the spread for simulation cases in which ¹⁴CO₂ data are excluded for evaluations of the diffusivity profiles.

The IPD of the atmospheric CH₄ mole fraction is important for better understanding the evolution of the global CH₄ budget. Given that the Antarctic ice core and firn measurements have provided relatively reliable CH₄ records over the 20th century, improved reconstructions from Greenland ice cores and firn air should better constrain the changes in the IPD. To sufficiently

- 565 constrain the historical global CH₄ budget, the reconstruction for Greenland needs to be accurate within ~10 ppb, corresponding to ~30 Tg CH₄ yr⁻¹ global emission. Unfortunately, based on the firn CH₄ data from NGRIP and NEEM, this study demonstrated that consistent <u>and accurate</u> reconstruction of the Arctic CH₄ mole fraction is achievable only back to the mid 1970s, and that the uncertainty of reconstruction is still very large (around 50 ppb) for the 1950s to 1970s.
- Previous studies have used CH₄ as one of tracers that constrain diffusivity profiles in firn (Witrant et al., 2012; Trudinger et al., 2013). These studies have shown that CH₄ effectively contributed to constraining diffusivity for deep layers i.e. LIZ in the NEEM firn. However, the use of CH₄ as a strongan effective constraint is valid only when its atmospheric scenario given as input to the models was assumed to be correct. Figures <u>56</u> and <u>68</u> show a larger spread in the model-data differences of CH₄ among the different diffusivity cases spread widely in the deepest layers of the LIZ of the NGRIP firn, in comparison to the other six gases. This fact highlights that subtle changes of the diffusivity profile in the LIZ have a large impact on simulating
- 575 CH₄, and it indeed indicates that the species could serve as an effective diffusivity constraint, if its atmospheric scenario was correctly given with low uncertainty. Although the currently proposed Arctic CH₄ history (Buizert et al., 2012) appears a useful ehoice in firn modeling at Greenland sites, This study indicated that the two currently available Greenland firn data sets (NGRIP and NEEM) prefer the BZ CH₄ scenario (Buizert et al., 2012) over the CMIP6 scenario (Meinshausen et al., 2017). Furthermore, it should be again pointed out that the CMIP6 scenario suggests an almost constant IPD of ~130 ppb over the 20th century
- 580 (Figure 2). Such constant IPD is unlikely, because CH₄ emissions are considered to have increased in the northern hemisphere for that period, which requires IPD to increase with time as discussed in the previous studies (Dlugokencky et al. 2003; Ghosh et al., 2015; Chandra et al., 2021). Accordingly, the BZ scenario appears a useful choice in firn modeling at Greenland sites, but it should be kept in mind that the use of CH₄ as a tuning tracer could lead to overfitting of the diffusivity profile. Sapart et al. (2013) examined the reconstruction of stable carbon isotope ratio (δ¹³C) of atmospheric CH₄ using firn–air
- measurements from both northern and southern hemispheres. They concluded that, with the available firm measurements and understanding of firm-_air transport, it is difficult to reliably reconstruct the past trend of δ^{13} C of CH₄ because of multiple reasons including uncertainty in the atmospheric CH₄ mole fraction scenario. Although there are many important and uncertain factors, the accurate reconstruction of the atmospheric CH₄ mole fraction is particularly important, because the trend in the mole fraction can lead to significant signal in the modeled δ^{13} C profile in firm due to the difference in the molecular diffusion
- 590 coefficient, even in the absence of a temporal trend in atmospheric δ^{13} C. This study revealed a large uncertainty in the Arctic CH₄ mole fraction trend over the 20th century, which supports the conclusion of Sapart et al. (2013) on the difficulty of reconstruction of the δ^{13} C of atmospheric CH₄ in the northern hemisphere. The NGRIP firm-_air samples were also analyzed for δ^{13} C and stable hydrogen isotope ratio (δ D) of CH₄ (Kawamura et al., 2021), but we regrettably report that reconstruction of δ^{13} C of CH₄ is difficult and been possible despite our best modeling efforts (not shown).
- A possibility to improve the reproducibility of the depth profile of CH₄ in the NGRIP firn maycould come from additional constraint to the diffusivity profile along with those currently made by the six trace gases (CO₂, SF₆, CFC-11, CFC-12, CFC-113 and CH₃CCl₃). It could be performed by introducing additional effective tracers e.g.In particular, it was indicated that

¹⁴CO₂, although such measurements cannot be foreseen for the if available, would have strongly constrained the diffusivity profile and reduced uncertainty of the historical CH₄ trend reconstructed from the NGRIP samples firn. This study showed that-

- 600 with the currently available firn data from Greenland (NGRIP and NEEM), reliable) are in better agreement with the historical CH₄ scenario prepared for the NEEM firn modelling (Buizert et al., 2012), then that for the CMIP6 experiments (Meinshausen et al., 2017). Since the latter scenario relies on the NEEM-S1 ice core data (Rhodes et al., 2013), this study highlighted inconsistency between the ice core and two sets of firn data in Greenland. Given that reconstruction of the Aretic CH₄-mole fraction history (independent of Antarctic records and assumed IPD) from the deepest firn layers is possible back to the mid
- 1970s only. For the earlier period, consistent reconstruction with a small uncertainty of age estimate is currently difficult. 605 Future challenging (in terms of the diffusivity versus history problem as shown in this study), future sampling and measurements of ice cores at a high-accumulation site in Greenland (where age of air occluded can be determined accurately) may be the only way to reconstruct the atmospheric CH₄ trend over the 20th century.

Data Availability

The composition data of the NGRIP firn--air samples are available on the Arctic Data archive System (ADS) of National 610 Institute of Polar Research (https://ads.nipr.ac.jp/dataset/A20210609-001). The NEEM firm--air data are available in the supplementary file of Buizert et al. (2012). The CMIP6 historical scenarios of the various trace gases used in this study are available via https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/input4mips/ as described in Meinshausen et al. (2017). Those of ¹⁴CO₂ are available in the supplementary file of Graven et al. (2017). Our modeling data are available upon request 615 (umezawa.taku@nies.go.jp).

Author Contribution

TU, SS, KK and IO discussed on design of the study. KK, SA and TN conducted firn--air sampling at the NGRIP site. SS, KK, TU and TS analyzed the firn-air samples for trace gases. SJA set up the measurement system for the halocarbons. TU and SS made firm-air model simulations. TU analyzed the measurement/modeling data and prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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Completing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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