



1 **Siberian Arctic black carbon: gas flaring and wildfire impact**

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17



18 **Abstract**

19 As explained in the latest Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP) report
20 released in early 2021, the Arctic has warmed three times more quickly than the planet as a whole,
21 and faster than previously thought. The Siberian Arctic is of great interest largely because
22 observations are sparse or largely lacking. A research aerosol station has been developed on the
23 Bely Island, Kara Sea, in Western Siberia. Measurements of equivalent black carbon (EBC)
24 concentrations were carried out at the “Island Bely” station continuously from August 2019 to
25 November 2020. The source origin of the measured EBC, and the main contributing sources were
26 assessed using atmospheric transport modelling coupled with the most updated emission
27 inventories for anthropogenic and biomass burning sources of BC.

28 The obtained BC climatology for BC during the period of measurements showed a seasonal
29 variation comprising the highest concentrations between December and April (60 ± 92 ng/m³) and
30 the lowest between June and September (18 ± 72 ng/m³), typical of the Arctic Haze seasonality
31 reported elsewhere. When air masses arrived at the station through the biggest oil and gas
32 extraction regions of Kazakhstan, Volga-Ural, Komi, Nenets and Western Siberia, BC contribution
33 from gas flaring dominated over domestic, industrial, and traffic sectors, ranging from 47 to 68%,
34 with a maximum contribution in January. When air was transported from Europe during the cold
35 season, emissions from transportation became important. Accordingly, shipping emissions
36 increased due to the touristic cruise activities and the ice retreat in summertime. Biomass burning
37 (BB) played the biggest role between April and October, contributing 81% at maximum in June.
38 Long-range transport of BB aerosols appear to induce large variability to the Absorption Ångström
39 Exponent (AAE) with values ranging from 1.2 to 1.4. As regards to the continental contribution to
40 surface BC at the “Island Bely” station, Russian emissions dominated during the whole year, while
41 European and Asian emissions contributed up to 20% in the cold period. Quantification of several
42 pollution episodes showed an increasing trend in surface concentrations and frequency during the
43 cold period as the station is directly in the Siberian gateway of the highest anthropogenic pollution
44 to the Russian Arctic.

45



46 **1 Introduction**

47 Global carbon pollution is annually produced by burning of fossil fuel and biomass.
48 Combustion emissions are increasingly recognized as an important source of chemically active
49 aerosols. Black carbon (BC) originates from the incomplete combustion of fossil fuels and biomass
50 burning; it is a short-lived climate forcer and absorbs incoming solar radiation and, therefore, is of
51 high significance for the Arctic climate (Wang et al., 2011). The combined total effects of BC and
52 sulfates cause an Arctic surface warming of +0.29 K explaining approximately 20% of the
53 observed Arctic warming since the early 1980s (Ren et al., 2020). BC resides in the lowest
54 atmospheric layer, affects aerosol-cloud interactions (Yun et al., 2013) and has a cloud and sea-
55 ice feedback when deposited (Flanner, 2013), thus accelerating melting (Quinn et al., 2008).

56 Long-range transport to the Arctic carries among other aerosol constituents many tracers of
57 anthropogenic activities and wildfires (Chang et al., 2011). (Winiger et al., 2016) showed that BC
58 in Arctic Scandinavia is predominantly linked to emissions in Europe. Over the whole Arctic
59 region (north of 66°N), Russia contributes 62% to surface BC (Zhu et al., 2020). Industrial and
60 residential sources are responsible for the highest measured BC concentrations at the Tiksi station
61 (Siberian Arctic) (Popovicheva et al., 2019b). (Stathopoulos et al., 2021) have demonstrated that
62 the long term impact of light absorbing carbon in the high Arctic is three times higher in the cold
63 period of the year compared to the warm period. There, fossil sources mostly prevail during winter-
64 spring season, while biomass burning sources dominate during low BC concentration periods in
65 summer (Winiger et al., 2017). Although BC dominates light absorption by atmospheric aerosols,
66 other carbonaceous aerosol species (brown carbon, BrC) represent an important fraction of light
67 absorption in the UV and near-UV spectrum, thus having an important role in the assessment of
68 radiative forcing in the Arctic climate. Spectral dependence of the light absorption is generally
69 described by the absorption Ångström exponent (AAE) which is typically used to differentiate
70 between different aerosol types (BC, BrC) and for the source apportionment of BC (Sandradewi
71 et al., 2008; Helin et al., 2021; Zotter et al., 2017).

72 Quantification of the particulate Arctic pollution is a serious problem worldwide; reliable
73 source emission inventories are challenged, and regional contributions of BC sources in the Arctic
74 are still inconclusive (Zhu et al., 2020). Global anthropogenic emission dataset ECLIPSEv6
75 (Evaluating the Climate and Air Quality Impacts of Short-lived Pollutants) using the GAINS
76 model (Klimont et al., 2017) includes all major economic sectors, such as energy and industrial
77 production, transport, residential combustion, agriculture, and waste, distinguishing the sector-
78 fuel-technology, fuels, and emission control options. The model predictions for European gateway



79 to the Arctic were greatly improved when the emission inventory of anthropogenic sources was
80 amended by estimates of European BC emissions (Winiger et al., 2016).

81 Due to large size and continuous production, gas flaring of oil industry is one of the highest
82 BC emission sources (Ismail and Umukoro, 2012) with a strong environmental and climatic impact
83 for the Arctic (Cho et al., 2019). Flaring in ECLIPSEv6 dominates BC emissions in the Arctic;
84 models have found that flaring contributes 42% to the annual mean BC surface concentrations in
85 the Arctic (Stohl et al., 2013). However, because flares are difficult to measure, their particulate
86 emissions inventories and physicochemical properties are still underestimated (Conrad and
87 Johnson, 2017; Popovicheva et al., 2019a). Currently, models are struggling to reproduce BC
88 concentrations due to emission-related uncertainties in the Arctic region (Schacht et al., 2019).
89 The observed annual mean contribution of fossil fuel combustion to the Arctic concentrations
90 agrees within a factor of two (Qi and Wang, 2019).

91 The high latitude flaring emissions originate mainly from the North Sea, Norwegian Sea, the
92 northeastern part of European Russia (Komi Republic) and Western Siberia. The largest oil and
93 gas producing regions of northwestern Siberia are located along the main low-level pathway of air
94 masses entering the Arctic and thus have a disproportionally large contribution to the Arctic lower
95 troposphere (Stohl, 2006). (Eleftheriadis et al., 2009) and (Tunved et al., 2013) identified these
96 regions as a key source for the highest measured BC concentrations and sub-micrometer aerosol
97 mass concentration, respectively, at the Zeppelin station. The impact of BC long-range transport
98 from northwestern Siberia was also observed at the Ice Base Cape Baranov station located on
99 Severnaya Zemlya archipelago (Eastern Siberia) (Manousakas et al., 2020). Accordingly, possible
100 gas flaring impact was observed at the Tiksi station (northeastern Siberia), despite the large
101 distance of the station from the largest oil and gas producing regions (Winiger et al., 2017). To
102 better understand and quantify the contribution of gas flaring to the Arctic environment, targeted
103 aerosol and atmospheric composition measurements at the closest distance from the flaring
104 facilities are needed. The present operating Eurasian Arctic stations are all too far away to allow
105 assessing how air masses are affected by gas flares or what the contribution from different source
106 categories is (Stohl et al., 2013). Simulations combined with observations of BC at the proximity
107 of the source regions (e.g., the plumes from gas flaring regions over the Kara Sea) provide a better
108 consistency (Popovicheva et al., 2017). In addition, measurements of BC coupled by conditional
109 probability simulations performed at the Polar circle inside the oil and gas producing region of the
110 northwestern Siberia have successfully separated the multiple industrial and urban sources
111 (Popovicheva et al., 2020).



112 Recent efforts have sought to develop a new Russian BC emission inventory (BCRUS) for
113 the Siberian Arctic, based on activity data from local information, improved spatial distribution of
114 BC emissions and updated emission factors for oil and gas fields in northwestern Siberia (Huang
115 et al., 2015). It was found that BC emissions from gas flaring account for 36% of the total
116 anthropogenic BC emissions over Russia. Residential BC emissions, transportation, industry, and
117 power plants contribute 25%, 20%, 13%, and 5.4%, respectively. The emissions from the gas
118 flaring sector in BCRUS show a discrepancy of more than 40% higher than ECLIPSEv5. Using
119 BCRUS, modelled surface BC at stations Zeppelin, Barrow, and Alert were mostly improved
120 (Huang et al., 2015). The contribution of anthropogenic emissions in Russia to the annual total
121 Arctic surface BC were calculated to represent 56%, with gas flaring from the Yamalo-Nenets
122 Autonomous Okrug (YNAO), Khanty-Mansiysk Autonomous Okrug (KMAO), and Komi
123 Republic being the main source (31% of Arctic surface BC) (Zhu et al., 2020). However, due to
124 the absence of an official BC inventory of industrial emissions and a denser observation network
125 in the western Siberian high Arctic, the spatial distribution of BC sources is still associated with
126 large uncertainties.

127 Agriculture fires in East Europe and North America are a major source of biomass burning
128 in the Eurasian Arctic (Treffeisen et al., 2007; Stohl et al., 2007; Stohl et al., 2006). Springtime
129 fires in Siberia can double the Northern American Arctic background (Warneke et al., 2010).
130 Long-term airborne observations of BC in Northern Siberia have revealed a strong impact of forest
131 fires in summer (Kozlov et al., 2016; Paris et al., 2009). Particulate brown carbon (BrC) has been
132 reported to be emitted by intense wildfires and measured in plumes transported over two days
133 (Forrister et al., 2015). In summer 2019, wildfire activity in Central and Eastern Siberia occurred
134 during the trans-Arctic transport pathway of Siberian biomass burning emissions resulting in
135 enhanced aerosol lamina observed in western Canada (Johnson et al., 2021).

136 In 2019, a new aerosol station was established by Moscow State University on the Bely
137 Island located in the Kara (Western Siberian Arctic) ([https://peexhq.home.blog/2019/12/11/new-
138 research-aerosol-stations-in-the-russian-arctic](https://peexhq.home.blog/2019/12/11/new-research-aerosol-stations-in-the-russian-arctic)), (Figure 1). The region was chosen because it is
139 close to the air pathway of large-scale emission plumes from populated industrial regions of
140 Eurasia and Siberian wildfires to the Arctic. We present here the ground-based continuous BC
141 (equivalent BC, EBC) measurements from August 2019 until November 2020 at the “Island Bely”
142 station for the first time. The Arctic annual trends of BC are assessed, while the geospatial source
143 origin of the air arriving at the station is identified using a Lagrangian particle dispersion model.
144 Furthermore, the anthropogenic and biomass burning contributions in the modelled surface
145 concentrations of BC are evaluated against measured BC concentrations at Bely. Characterization



146 of the pollution events in cold and warm periods distinguishes the higher impact of gas flaring
147 versus biomass burning. The spectrally resolved absorption measurements provide an opportunity
148 for the characterization of BC sources. The present study attempts to assess the extent of long
149 range transported plumes from the large-scale emissions from the Eurasian continent is attributed
150 to BC emitted in the Western Siberian Arctic, by means of modelling coupled with continuous
151 observations.

152 **2 Experimental**

153 **2.1 Aerosol station “Island Bely”.**

154 Western Siberia is the world's largest gas flaring region with a leading oil and gas production
155 industry (**Figure 1**). YNAO is located north of the West Siberian Plain and covers a vast area of
156 769 thousand km². More than 94% of the region's economy is associated with industrial
157 applications related to the extraction of fuels, their processing, and transportation. Specifically,
158 YNAO has the largest reserves of Russia's natural gas and oil; YNAO's BC emissions approach
159 a maximum through the Russian territory (Vinogradova, 2015). The relative contributions from
160 gas flaring to annual mean BC surface concentrations from all emission sources (surface
161 transportation, industry, residential, biomass burning) exceed 70% (Stohl et al., 2013).

162 The Bely Island is located in the Kara Sea, north of the YNAO (**Figure 1**). For the purpose
163 of atmospheric composition observations and sampling at the “Island Bely” station, the aerosol
164 pavilion has been built approximately half a km to the southeast of the Roshydromet
165 meteorological station continuously operating at the island (**Figure 1**). There are no other
166 anthropogenic constructions on the island. Thus, the major advantage of a new-developed research
167 station is its long distance from any local anthropogenic sources. Previous research at the Tiksi
168 station has shown significant aerosol pollution from local sources (Popovicheva et al., 2019),
169 which is not the case in the “Island Bely” station.

170 An Aethalometer model AE33 (Magee Scientific, Aerosol d.o.o.) was used to measure the
171 light attenuation caused by particles depositing on two filter spots at different flow rates (Drinovec
172 et al., 2015) at seven wavelengths from ultraviolet (370 nm) to infrared (950 nm). The “dual spot”
173 technique is applied for real-time loading effect compensation. The light-absorbing content of
174 carbonaceous aerosol at 880 nm is reported as equivalent black carbon concentration (EBC), which
175 is determined for each time interval from the change in the light attenuation at a wavelength of
176 880, using a mass absorption cross-section of 7.7 m²/g and filter multiple scattering parameter C
177 of 1.57. Light absorbing organic components (BrC) absorb light at shorter wavelengths more
178 effectively than at 880 nm, which is observed as an increased AAE (Sandradewi et al., 2008;



179 Grange et al., 2020; Helin et al., 2021). AAE was calculated using Eq. 1 for 470 nm and 950 nm
180 wavelengths:

$$181 \quad AAE = \frac{\ln(b_{\text{abs}}(470)/b_{\text{abs}}(950))}{\ln(950/470)} \quad (1)$$

182 where b_{abs} stands for the absorption coefficient at 470 nm and 950 nm. In order to avoid
183 instrumental noise when calculating the AAE, the following data processing was implemented.
184 One-minute absorption coefficients for the whole period were averaged to 1 hour. The dataset was
185 filtered to periods when EBC exceeded 20 ng/m³ (sensitivity level at 1 hour time resolution), then
186 the AAE was calculated from 3-hour averaged dataset.

187 The Aethalometer model (Sandradewi et al., 2008) is typically used for the source
188 apportionment of EBC, when measurements of absorption coefficient are performed by filter
189 photometers. The model uses an a priori assumed pair of AAE for traffic (AAETR) and biomass
190 burning (AAEBB) to determine the contribution of both sources. Although the Aethalometer
191 model is an efficient tool for source apportionment of EBC in a well-mixed urban atmosphere,
192 where two sources with distinct aerosol optical properties prevail (fossil fuel from traffic and fresh
193 biomass burning), the model results can be affected when the characteristic optical properties of a
194 specific source change over time. This is usually true with wildfires, where different burning
195 modes (flaming or smoldering) and different type of wood can significantly influence the BrC
196 emission and its chemical composition (Kalogridis et al., 2018b). Furthermore, chemical evolution
197 after the emissions and atmospheric aging (i.e. aerosol mixing state, particle morphology and size
198 distribution) additionally influence aerosol absorption, which can be noticed especially for the
199 long-range transported air masses (Cappa et al., 2016; Saleh et al., 2013; Romshoo et al., 2021).
200 (Forrister et al., 2015) have shown that BrC emitted from wildfires was highly unstable, with 6%
201 of BrC remaining above background levels after two days. However, the remaining increase over
202 the background can importantly influence the radiative forcing in the Arctic environment.

203 BC measurements at the “Island Bely” station were performed from 10 August 2019 to 30
204 November 2020, with a time resolution of 1 min. For screening the BC data, we used the measured
205 wind direction. In that case, strong BC spikes that coincided with wind directions related to local
206 diesel sources were removed from further data analyses. The basic meteorological parameters,
207 such as temperature, wind speed and direction were obtained every 3 hours by a meteorological
208 station located 500 m from the “Island Bely” station.

209 **2.2 Atmospheric transport model coupling with emissions**



210 To investigate the possible origin of BC, the Lagrangian particle dispersion model
211 FLEXPART (FLEXible PARTicle dispersion model) version 10.4 was used (Pisso et al., 2019).
212 The model was driven by 3-hourly operational meteorological fields from the European Centre for
213 Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) with 137 vertical levels and a horizontal resolution
214 of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$. In FLEXPART, computational particles were released at height 100 m from the receptor
215 (“Island Bely” station) and were tracked backward in time in FLEXPART’s “retroplume” mode.
216 Simulations extended over 30 days backward in time, sufficient to include most BC emissions
217 arriving at the station, given a typical lifetime of 1 week (Bond et al., 2013).

218 The tracking includes gravitational settling for spherical particles of the size observed.
219 FLEXPART differs from trajectory models due to its ability to simulate dry and wet deposition of
220 gases or aerosols (Grythe et al., 2017), turbulence (Cassiani et al., 2015), unresolved mesoscale
221 motions (Stohl et al., 2005), while it includes a deep convection scheme (Forster et al., 2007). For
222 our simulations, we assumed that BC has a density of 1500 kg m^{-3} and follows a logarithmic size
223 distribution with an aerodynamic mean diameter of $0.25 \mu\text{m}$ and a logarithmic standard deviation
224 of 0.3 (Long et al., 2013).

225 FLEXPART simulations were performed every 3 hours during the studied period. The
226 FLEXPART output consists of an emission sensitivity which yields a simulated concentration in
227 the receptor box when coupled with gridded emissions from an inventory. The emission sensitivity
228 can also be interpreted as a probability distribution field of the particle origin. The source
229 contributions to Arctic BC were derived by incorporating the gridded retention time into the
230 column emission flux, which was adopted from the emission inventories in each grid-cell.
231 Calculations for anthropogenic sources (different emission sectors are described below) and open
232 biomass burning were performed separately. This enabled identification of the exact origin of BC
233 and allowed for quantification of its source contribution. The source contribution can also be
234 displayed as a function of the time elapsed since the emission has occurred (i.e., “age”), which can
235 be shown as “age spectrum”.

236 In this study, anthropogenic emission fluxes were adopted from the latest version (v6b) of
237 the ECLIPSE (Evaluating the CLimate and Air Quality ImPacts of ShortlivEd Pollutants) dataset,
238 an upgraded version of the previous version (Klimont et al., 2017). The inventory includes
239 industrial combustion (IND) emissions from industrial boilers and industrial production processes.
240 Energy production sector (ENE) includes emissions from combustion processes in power plants
241 and generators. Residential and commercial sector (DOM) includes emissions from combustion in
242 heating and cooking stoves and boilers in households and public and commercial buildings. Waste
243 treatment and disposal sector (WST) resembles emissions from waste incineration and treatment.



244 Transport sector (TRA) includes emissions from all land-based transport of goods, animals and
245 persons on road networks and off-road activities. Emissions from shipping activities in in-land
246 waters (SHP) is included as a separate sector. Gas flaring (FLR) sector includes emissions from
247 oil and gas facilities. The methodology for obtaining emissions from FLR specifically over Russia
248 has been improved in ECLIPSEv6 (Böttcher et al., 2021). Updates were based on new field-type
249 specific emission factors that were applied to VIIRS observations of the flared gas volume at
250 individual flaring locations. For comparison, BCRUS emissions for the FLR sector (Huang et al.,
251 2015) were also used in this study.

252 Emissions from biomass burning (BB) were adopted from Copernicus Atmosphere
253 Monitoring Services (CAMS) Global Fire Assimilation System (GFAS). CAMS GFAS assimilates
254 fire radiative power (FRP) observations from satellite-based sensors converting the energy
255 released during fire combustion into gases and aerosol daily fluxes (Di Giuseppe et al., 2016;
256 Kaiser et al., 2012). Data are available globally on a regular grid with a horizontal resolution of
257 0.1 degrees from 2003 to the present. FRP observations assimilated in GFAS are the NASA Terra
258 MODIS and Aqua MODIS active fire products (<http://modis-fire.umd.edu/>, (Kaufman et al.,
259 2003). FRP measures the heat power emitted by fires, as a result of the combustion process and is
260 directly related to the total biomass combusted (Wooster et al., 2005). Using land-use-dependent
261 conversion factors, GFAS converts FRP into emission estimates of 44 smoke constituents (Kaiser
262 et al., 2012). We used BC emissions in this study.

263 Biomass burning emissions were also adopted from the Global Fire Emission Dataset
264 version 4.1 (GFEDv4.1). The product combines satellite information on fire activity and
265 vegetation productivity to estimate gridded monthly burned area and fire emissions, as well as
266 scalars that can be used to calculate higher temporal resolution emissions. All data are publicly
267 available for use in large-scale atmospheric and biogeochemical studies and include (i) burned
268 area (Giglio et al., 2013), (ii) burned area from "small" fires based on active fire detections outside
269 the burned area maps detailed in (Randerson et al., 2012) and updates in (Werf et al., 2017), (iii)
270 carbon and dry matter emissions from van der Werf et al. (2017), (iv) fractional contributions of
271 various fire types to total emissions and (v) list of emission factors to compute trace gas and aerosol
272 emissions based on (Akagi et al., 2011) and (Andreae and Merlet, 2001). The current version (v4)
273 has a spatial resolution of 0.25 degrees and is available from 1997 onwards.

274 In the present paper, several different configurations were used to calculate modelled
275 surface BC concentrations at "Island Bely" station, namely ECLIPSEv6 with GFED4
276 (ECLIPSEv6-GFED4), and ECLIPSEv6 with CAMS (ECLIPSEv6-CAMS). The same two



277 configurations were also used after substituting the FLR emissions in ECLIPSEv6 with those from
278 BCRUS (Huang et al., 2015).

279 **3 Results and discussion**

280 **3.1 Monthly climatology of black carbon**

281 The climate at the Bely Island is characterized by an average annual temperature of -8°C ,
282 precipitation of 450 mm, and stable snow coverage from October to May. Meteorology displays a
283 large annual variability determined by alternating periods of the polar night and midnight sun.
284 Median temperatures stay above 0°C for 4 months each year between June and September. This
285 period is also characterized by the highest-frequency occurrence of ocean air masses and the most
286 stable wind speeds. A shift occurred in October with decreased solar insolation resulting in a
287 temperature shift to below 0°C . The cold month winds were primarily continental, with a low-
288 frequency occurrence of ocean air masses.

289 The cycle of the temperature and wind speed variation observed during the study period is
290 shown in **Figure 2a,b**. Period from 1 November 2019 to 1 April 2020 when temperature dropped
291 below -10°C , as well as November 2020, is denoted as the “cold period” in the present paper. The
292 remaining period of our study, from 10 August to 31 October 2019 as well as from April to 1
293 November 2020, is considered as the “warm period”. **Figure 2c** illustrates the long-term time
294 series of 24h median EBC concentrations measured at wavelength of 880 nm (EBC(880)) during
295 the study period, with median value $37\pm 64\text{ ng/m}^3$, maximum and minimum of 520 and 6 ng/m^3 ,
296 respectively. The polar frequency plot of wind speed/directions shows that the maximum number
297 of hours the wind was from north-east and south-west directions with around 5 m/s (**Figure 3a**).
298 BC concentration roses in **Figure 3** indicate the sources of highest concentrations, which
299 originated from the continent in both cold and warm periods.

300 **Figure 4** illustrates a long-term time series of monthly EBC concentrations at the “Island
301 Bely” station during the period from August 2019 to November 2020. The highest EBC
302 concentrations were observed from November to April and the lowest ones from June to August,
303 in agreement with the typical seasonal trend of the Arctic aerosol concentrations (Stone et al.,
304 2014). EBC monthly climatology during the study period is shown in **Figure 4a** in terms of the
305 median, and upper and lower quartiles. For winter months, the maximum median EBC
306 concentration was 165 ng/m^3 in December 2019. The increase of the Arctic concentrations in
307 winter, known as the Arctic Haze, was more pronounced in November-December 2019 and
308 January-March 2020. On average, concentrations in summer were about 10 times lower than those
309 in winter, with a minimum median value of 30 ng/m^3 in July 2020.



310 Observations at the “Island Bely” station of the second year started from August 2020 and
311 lasted to November 2020 to confirm the general annual trend of low summer and high winter BC
312 concentrations. However, monthly median EBC in September 2020 demonstrated the
313 unprecedented high value of 72 ng/m^3 , twice as much as in September 2019.

314 Similar annual trend was recorded in 2015–2016 at the Tiksi station (coast of Laptev sea),
315 with high concentrations reaching 130 ng/m^3 during winter-spring and low concentrations of about
316 20 ng/m^3 observed from May to October (Popovicheva et al., 2019b). As shown by earlier studies
317 at various polar stations, such as in Ny-Ålesund, Alert, and Barrow, aerosols display Arctic Haze
318 peak concentrations during winter and early spring months (Stone et al., 2014). EBC during Arctic
319 Haze at both “Island Bely” and Tiksi stations are found higher in comparison to observed ones at
320 Alert ($100 \pm 65 \text{ ng/m}^3$), which has shown maximum concentrations among all Polar stations
321 (Sharma et al., 2004). The latter confirms previous findings from (Eckhardt et al., 2015) and
322 (Winiger et al., 2017) that the Siberian Arctic is mainly polluted due to the influence of emissions
323 from the Eurasian continent.

324 Near-surface measurements allow for evaluation of the capability of a transport model to
325 reproduce the distribution of BC in the Arctic based on different emission datasets (Schacht et al.,
326 2019; Zhu et al., 2020). **Figure 4a** and Supplementary Table S 1 show observed and modelled BC
327 monthly median mass concentrations at the “Island Bely” station. Use of ECLIPSEv6 emissions
328 cause overestimations of modelled BC concentrations of up to 46% (February 2020). All simulated
329 BC concentrations were found in the range between the 25th and 75th percentiles of measured EBC.
330 Modelled BC is underestimated in March–May 2020, being 29 ng/m^3 below the 25th percentile of
331 EBC in April 2020. When the FLR emissions in ECLIPSEv6 were substituted by BCRUS flaring,
332 similar modelled BC monthly median concentrations were calculated, thus indicating that other
333 sectorial emissions might have large contribution to surface BC at the “Island Bely” station.

334 FLEXPART simulations that extended over 30 days back in time can be displayed as a
335 function of the time elapsed since the emission has occurred (age spectrum). **Figure 4b** shows the
336 contribution of a certain age (days backwards) estimated for the “Island Bely” station. In the cold
337 period of high EBC concentrations, the longest age of more than 19 days back, affects up to 60%
338 of the surface BC. In this time, due to the geographical proximity, Russia dominates; however,
339 both Europe and Asia contribute around 20% to the monthly averaged surface BC, with the biggest
340 contribution to be in February 2019 and November 2020, (**Figure 4b,d**). The most aged air masses
341 (from 28 to 30 days back) contributed up to 50%, arriving at the “Island Bely” station in December
342 2019, which is the month of the highest observed EBC concentrations during the study period. The



343 impact of the closest regions with age between 7 and 9 days is the most significant in winter
344 months, while in the warm period, such short-term contributions become negligible.

345 The calculated age and continental spectrum of BC obtained for the “Island Bely” station
346 mainly denote the variability of air mass transport patterns in different seasons. In the cold season,
347 the Siberian Arctic tends to force the air from south to north into the Arctic (Stohl, 2006), thus
348 bringing more anthropogenic BC northward from highly populated regions.

349 Monthly averaged BC contributions from different sources simulated by FLEXPART with
350 ECLIPSEv6 emissions are shown in **Figure 4c** and Supplementary Table S 2. From November
351 2019 to March 2020 the FLR sector contributed 47%–68% (maximum in January 2020) to surface
352 BC, when air masses arrived at the Bely Island through oil and gas extraction sites. February and
353 November 2020 demonstrated the biggest non-gas flaring impact, indicating that air masses passed
354 through highly populated regions. Especially February 2020 coincides with the largest model
355 overestimation, (**Figure 4a**), implying likely misestimation of non-gas flaring emissions in
356 ECLIPSEv6. From April 2020 the impact of FLR dropped significantly (Supplementary Table S
357 3), with minimum of 12% in June. Starting from April to October 2020, BB emissions played the
358 biggest role in surface BC contribution, approaching 81% in June 2020. It is noteworthy that the
359 impact of SHP emissions became quite distinguished in a warm period when the ocean ice cover
360 is absent in the Arctic and touristic cruises peak.

361 Emission sensitivities of surface BC presented over the whole Arctic (north of 66°N) have
362 been also simulated using the same model as in the present in (Zhu et al., 2020). Anthropogenic
363 sources contributed 82% of the annual BC, as estimated from BCRUS emission dataset. Arctic BC
364 originated predominantly from anthropogenic emissions in Russia (56%), with FLR from YNAO,
365 Khanty-Mansiysk Autonomous Okrug (KMAO), and Komi Republic being the main source (31%
366 of Arctic surface BC). In summer (July-August), open BB in Siberia, Alaska, and Canada
367 contributed 75%. At Zeppelin, modelled BC (39.1 ng/m³ for annual mean) was reported to be 85%
368 higher than the observed value (21.1 ng/m³ for annual mean)(Zhu et al., 2020). At the Tiksi station,
369 modelled BC was underestimated (74.4 ng/m³ for annual mean) by 40% in comparison with the
370 observations (104.2 ng/m³ for annual mean) (Zhu et al., 2020). Annual (from September 2019 to
371 August 2020) median modelled concentrations of BC using ECLIPSEv6, BCRUS, and CAMS for
372 the “Island Bely” station are shown in Supplementary Table S 1. We find that modelled BC (78.4
373 ng/m³ for annual mean) is 26% higher than the observed value (61.8 ng/m³ for annual mean); the
374 overestimation is much smaller than observed for other remote stations. Annual averaged
375 contributions of anthropogenic emissions by ECLIPSEv6 and ECLIPSEv6 with flaring from



376 BCRUS were equal to 76% and 80%, respectively, in conjunction with the respective contribution
377 of the FLR sector from the two dataset (Supplemental Table S 3).

378 **3.2 Cold season pollution**

379 **Figure 5a** shows EBC concentrations measured at the “Island Bely” station during the cold
380 period, from November 2019 to April 2020 as well as from 1st to 30th November 2020. Time series
381 indicates that EBC undergoes the characteristic Arctic seasonal trend with higher concentrations
382 in winter and early spring and lower in summer. Background pollutant concentrations in the Arctic
383 stations are generally very low without any detectable influence of local or regional pollution
384 (Eleftheriadis et al., 2004; Popovicheva et al., 2019b). We relate the Arctic background to the
385 lowest 20th percentile of EBC data (10 ng/m³). Long-term pollution episodes were assumed to be
386 repeated events of high EBC concentration above the 80th percentiles (90 ng/m³) that are clearly
387 distinguishable from the background, (**Figure 5a**).

388 The aerosol optical properties with respect to absorption, presented as daily median AAE
389 are shown in **Figure 2d**. The AAE for the highly aged aerosols measured during the periods of
390 low BC was lower than 1, reaching values as low as 0.2, which is addressed mostly to the aerosol
391 size distribution (large particles) and internally mixed BC particles (Cappa et al., 2016). As shown
392 by modeling studies (Virkkula, 2021), pure BC particles coated by non-absorbing coating can have
393 AAE in the range from <1 to 1.7, depending also on the morphology of the fractal aggregates
394 (Romshoo et al., 2021). The AAE becomes more reliable in periods of higher aerosol concentration
395 levels in the cold period, when it ranged from 0.6 to 1.35.

396 When AAE exceeded 1 in the cold period, the pollution periods can be identified as
397 influenced by BB. Due to the mixing with background aerosol and ageing processes, the air mass
398 influenced by BB events is expected to have increased AAE as compared to BC produced by fossil
399 fuel. However, ageing processes may induce a high variability in AAE observed values at receptor
400 areas of long range transported pollution and AAE may not be representative of BB sources.
401 Nevertheless, it can still be used as a qualitative parameter, when extra information is available.
402 Such events of increased AAE were rarely observed in our study, and the most prominent BB
403 impact occurred during the pollution episode P4, P7, and P8 when impact of domestic sources was
404 the most prominent (**Figure 5a**).

405 Generally, FLEXPART with ECLIPSEv6-CAMS emissions captures periods with both
406 high and low concentrations relatively well, (**Figure 2c**). A good correlation between
407 measurements and simulations, with a Pearson coefficient R of 0.7 and the root mean squared error
408 (RMSE) of 89.2 ng/m³, is obtained for the cold period (**Figure 6a**). According to monthly median



409 contributions to BC concentrations in the cold period, the impact of anthropogenic sources, namely
410 FLR, DOM and TRA dominated surface BC by 97.7% (**Figure 5b**).

411 Looking closely to specific episodes, during pollution P1, three events of high EBC
412 concentrations were observed, (**Figure 5a**). On 5 November 2019, measured EBC reached 180
413 ng/m^3 , while FLEXPART simulated similarly high BC values. Footprint emission sensitivities at
414 this time showed that airmasses originated from East and North Europe, passed south of European
415 Russia, then turned the direction straight through the West Siberia approaching the Bely Island
416 from the southeast (**Figure 7**). This airmass moved towards the large Russian FLR sources of
417 YNAO, KMAO, and Krasnoyarsky Krai (see **Figure 1**) causing up to 71% contribution to surface
418 BC (Supplementary Table S 4).

419 On 12 November 2019, airmasses arrived at the Bely Island through the Yamal peninsula
420 after passing the ocean (Supplementary Figure S 1). Model strongly underestimated measured
421 EBC concentrations by about 10 times (**Figure 7**). We fail to provide a concrete explanation for
422 this; a simplified hypothesis is that a number of fields located at the Yamal peninsula might have
423 not been included into the emission database, but this certainly needs further research. In contrast,
424 the model strongly overestimated measured EBC concentrations on 16 November 2019. At that
425 time, airmasses passed through remote regions of Eastern Siberia and arrived through the gas
426 flaring sites of Krasnoyarsky Krai at the station (**Figure 7**) causing an FLR contribution of 98.6%
427 to surface BC (Supplementary Table S 4). The reason might be use of incorrect emission factors
428 for BC at the FLR facilities of Krasnoyarsky Krai in the adopted emissions, because direct
429 transport from this region was observed. During 12 and 16 November 2019 the AAE was in the
430 range from 0.7 to 1, which agrees with the expected optical properties for the FLR sources.

431 Pollution episode P2 in December 2019 gave the highest EBC concentrations observed
432 during the whole cold period, (**Figure 5a**). On 4 December, EBC approached $400 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$, when
433 airmasses originated from Kazakhstan and Russian gas flaring regions of KMAO and YNAO
434 (**Figure 8**) reached the Bely Island. The maximum EBC concentration of approximately $500 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$
435 with AAE 1.05 was observed on 19 December, when air was came from Europe, initially through
436 the Russian oil and gas basins of Volga-Ural at the south of European Russia and then through
437 KMAO and YNAO in Western Siberia (**Figure 8**). During the December pollution events, FLR
438 contribution dominated, reaching 73% on 19 December (Supplementary Table S 4).

439 The highest FLR contributions were observed during the pollution episodes P3-P6
440 (Supplementary Table S 4). Similar airmass transportation through either gas and oil fields of



441 YNAO and KMAO in Western Siberia or Komi and Nenets regions north of European Russia
442 occurred for all events, (Supplementary Figure S 1).

443 In contrast to the aforementioned events, the pollution episode P7 was unrelated to FLR,
444 as airmasses did not cross the flaring regions (**Figure 8**). On 16 November 2020, retroplumes
445 confirm origin of the surface BC from Central and Eastern Europe and the Kola Peninsula (**Figure**
446 **8**). DOM and TRA hold the largest share of the source contribution with 73% and 20%,
447 respectively (Supplementary Table S 4), while the model overestimated measured EBC. Episode
448 P8 gave the biggest EBC (370) concentration which reached 346 ng/m³ and exceeded EBC(880)
449 (133 ng/m³) on 24 November 2020 (Supplementary Table S 4). At that time, airmasses came to
450 the Bely Island directly from the most populated region of European part of Russia (**Figure 8**).
451 The contribution of DOM and TRA was 34% and 23%, respectively. AAE approached the highest
452 value observed (1.3) during the study period. Thus, it addresses a detectable impact of biomass
453 burning in the classified DOM emissions. BC from wood burning contributes around 61% of the
454 total residential emissions, especially in areas where there is limited use of natural gas (Kalogridis
455 et al., 2018a), and in forest regions (Huang et al., 2015). Note that the impact of IND emissions
456 was the largest in P7 and P8 events as compared to the whole cold period (Supplementary Table
457 S 4), due to industrial emissions from sites in Central European Russia.

458 **3.3 Warm season pollution**

459 **Figure 5b** shows EBC concentrations measured at the “Island Bely” station during the
460 warm period, from 10 August to 31 October 2019 and from 1 April to 1 November 2020. It is
461 immediately seen that BC in the warm period was mainly affected by Russian emissions (90%),
462 and only in October 2020 and August 2019 partly (~20%) from Europe and North America,
463 (**Figure 4**). EBC concentrations rarely exceeded the 80th percentile that was set as the pollution
464 criterion, while the duration of the warm period episodes was shorter.

465 Due to the mixing with background aerosol and ageing processes, the air masses influenced
466 by BB events is expected to have increased AAE as compared to the BC produced by fossil fuel.
467 However, ageing processes may induce a high variability in AAE at receptor areas of long-range
468 transported pollution and the AAE may not be representative of a BB aerosol source. It is used
469 here as a qualitative tool. Pollution events were rarely observed in this season, and the most
470 prominent BB impact occurred during the pollution episodes P4, P7, and P8.

471 However, the events characterised by higher AAE were observed more frequently,
472 indicating that the impact of BB was more significant during the warm period, mainly during
473 spring and summer (episodes P3,P4, and P6). Comparison between measured and modelled



474 concentrations showed poor correlation (R of 0.41 and RMSE of 121 ng/m^3) (**Figure 6**). According
475 to monthly median contributions to BC concentrations in the warm period, the impact of BB
476 emissions was as high as 50% (**Figure 4c**). SHP emissions contributed about 1%, as a result of the
477 increase of touristic activity in the Arctic and the more active use of the Northern Sea Route due
478 to the Arctic ice retreat.

479 From the beginning of the study period in August 2019, large wildfires were observed in
480 Siberia (Voronova et al., 2020). The latter resulted in a strong BB impact into the Arctic BC at the
481 “Island Bely” station (**Figure 5c**). However, during event P1, the observed EBC concentrations of
482 approximately 200 ng/m^3 were not caused by the wildfire plumes (**Figure 5**). During this time,
483 airmasses were transported from Northern Europe (Supplementary Figure S 1), and the main
484 contribution to the surface BC at the “Island Bely” station was due to TRA emissions (36%,
485 Supplementary Table S 4).

486 Episode P2 during October 2019 (**Figure 5**) was characterised by high EBC of 119 ng/m^3 .
487 Modelled concentrations were strongly overestimated (Supplementary Figure S 1). The calculated
488 BB contribution to the surface BC was 64% (Supplementary Table S 4) and the hotspot BB sources
489 were near the Pur River (YNAO) as recorded by CAMS (Supplementary Figure S 1). The
490 measured AAE does not indicate any contribution of BrC, which would be expected for BB
491 sources. AAE values observed during the P2 episode were lower than 1 (Supplementary Table S
492 4). Note that the FIRMS active fire data analyses (<https://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/>) indicate
493 that the fire spots were in the same grid-cell as industrial facilities of oil extraction field in the
494 Purovski region (YNAO). Thus, it might be that thermal anomalies from flaring facilities were
495 mistakenly related to fires in CAMS. This hypothesis is reinforced by the fact that no wildfires
496 were recorded by the local forest fire service (<https://aviales.ru>) during October 2020 in Western
497 Siberia and Krasnoyarsky Krai.

498 Pollution episode P3 is related to strong springtime wildfire activity that occurred in
499 Southern Siberia. The retroplumes on 18 and 23 April 2020 showed that the air originated from
500 Central Asia, a large territory of Southern Siberia and Krasnoyarsk Kray arriving at the Bely Island
501 through the Western Siberia from the southeast (Supplementary Figure S 1, **Figure 9**). High
502 footprint emission sensitivities coincided with the location of large wildfires resulting in BB
503 contribution to surface BC at the “Island Bely” station equal to 28% and 19%, respectively. The
504 most significant impact of wildfires was observed on 23 April 2020, when 6-hour median EBC
505 concentration reached 700 ng/m^3 with AAE ranging from 1.3 to 1.5, clearly indicating an elevated
506 contribution of BrC (Supplementary Table S 4).



507 Wildfires occurred in northern Krasnoyarsk Krai and Sakha Republic, Central Siberia
508 between April and November 2020 (<https://aviales.ru/popup.aspx?news=6286>) burning around
509 seven million hectares of forest. The pollution episode P4 was recorded at the “Island Bely” station
510 on 7 July 2020, with 6-h median EBC of 150 ng/m³ and AAE around 1.4 indicating BB impact.
511 The model captures this event well, providing the highest BB contribution exactly when observed,
512 equal to 90%, (Supplementary Table S 4). Airmasses arrived from the east and passed north of
513 Krasnoyarsk Kray (**Figure 9**).

514 Unprecedented high wildfire-related BC concentration was observed in September 2020
515 (pollution episode P6). EBC concentrations exceeded 5 and 20 times the 80th percentile of the
516 measurements. Maximum 6-h median EBC reached 534 ng/m³ on 1st September 2020 that was
517 even higher than the biggest Arctic haze concentration observed in December 2019,
518 (Supplementary Table S 4). Increased AAE of around 1.4 indicted prominent BB impact. Such a
519 strong event resulted from long-range transport of BC from the Eurasian continent during the
520 intensive wildfires in Western Siberia (Krasnoyarsk Kray and Yakutia) (**Figure 9**); there, around
521 one million hectares of forest were burned in August 2020. The contribution of BB to surface BC
522 at “Island Bely” was as high as 95%.

523 Despite the exclusive BB origin of the light absorbing carbon measured at the “Island Bely”
524 station, the AAE is much lower than the established value for fresh BB (close to 2) (Sandradewi
525 et al., 2008) likely due to ageing. This apparent reduction of the BrC contribution to absorption is
526 in agreement with (Forrister et al., 2015) which examined BrC concentrations and AAE of Western
527 U.S. forest fires as a function of aging. Their result shows that most BrC (~94%) emitted from
528 wildfires was lost within a day. Similar observations have been reported for long-range transported
529 North American smoke over the Northeastern Atlantic (Zheng et al., 2020) and long range
530 transported Russian smoke over the Mediterranean (Diapouli et al., 2014).

531 The last pollution episode P7 was observed at the end of October 2020. Although it
532 occurred in the warm period, it is rather related to Russian FLR and European TRA emissions
533 (Supplementary Table S 4, **Figure 5b**). At the end of October 2020 air came mainly from Europe,
534 passing through the Yamal Peninsula.

535 **4 Conclusions**

536 The present paper aims at performing a quantitative analysis of the Arctic pollution via
537 high-resolution measurements from a recently developed aerosol station at the Bely Island (Kara
538 Sea) combined with Lagrangian modelling. A consequent goal is to examine the impact of
539 anthropogenic and natural sources to the high Arctic as a result long-range transport. The main
540 results can be summarised as follows:



- 541 - EBC monthly climatology is following the typical Arctic aerosol seasonal variation
542 characterised with higher EBC concentrations in winter and lower in summer.
- 543 - AAE for aged BC between 1 and 1.35 indicates wood burning impact from domestic activity
544 and/or wildfires in both periods examined.
- 545 - The recently upgraded ECLIPSEv6 emissions and ECLIPSEv6 coupled with flaring from
546 BCRUS represent measured EBC accurately in the cold period. Annual average contributions
547 of anthropogenic emissions to surface BC were 76% and 80% of total emissions (50% and
548 59% from gas flaring) for each dataset, respectively.
- 549 - The most significant model overestimation was observed in February 2020 when air masses
550 passed through non gas flaring regions. The largest underestimation occurred in April 2020
551 during the period of spring agriculture fires.
- 552 - Daily BB emissions from CAMS were more efficient in representing pollution episodes than
553 monthly GFED4 emissions, and therefore they were used here.
- 554 - Russian emissions dominate during the whole year, European and Asian contribute up to 20%
555 in the cold period. Pollution episodes with EBC concentrations above 90 ng/m³ occur in 18.5%
556 of observation time. Monthly average FLR emissions dominate (98%) any other emission
557 sector.
- 558 - FLR and BB emissions contribute the largest share of EBC to the “Island Bely” station during
559 the cold and warm period, respectively. This is consistent with previously-observed source
560 contribution in the Russian Arctic. When air is transported from Europe, other sources such
561 as TRA become important. The same applies for SHP emissions that become important in
562 summertime, because of cruise activities and ice retreat.
- 563 - Emissions from the gas and oil fields in Western Siberia, and the Northern European part of
564 Russia cause the vast majority of the pollution episodes in the Arctic.
- 565 - 15 pollution episodes with concentrations reaching close to 500 ng/m³ were detected. The
566 duration of the cold pollution episodes is longer than of the warm period, and the median (up
567 to 160 ng/m³) and maximum EBC (up to 450 ng/m³) higher.

568 In conclusion, the significance of high-quality measurements in the “Island Bely” station
569 is pronounced, because (i) the station is located along the main pathway of airmasses entering the
570 Arctic, and (ii) it is north of the world’s largest gas flaring regions. The operation of the “Island
571 Bely” station is an asset in source emission optimisation, because EBC measurements in the High
572 Arctic are still rare.

573



574 *Data availability.* All model data used in the present publication together with all figures of
575 footprint analysis and source contributions to surface BC are open through the websites
576 https://niflheim.nilu.no/NikolaosPY/Bely_2020_cams.py and
577 https://niflheim.nilu.no/NikolaosPY/Bely_2020_huang_cams.py. All row model data can be
578 obtained from the corresponding author upon request. The definitions of the regions and continents
579 used in the current analysis are based on regional masks that can be seen in Supplementary Figure
580 S 3.

581

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583

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589

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601

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605 of the results. K.E. provided BB impact and AAE aging evaluation. A.G. performed AAE
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608



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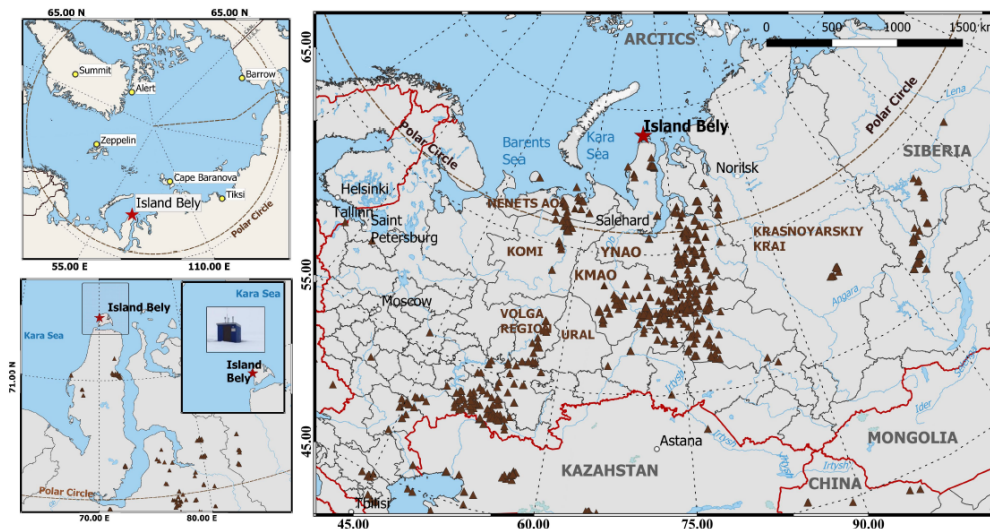
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837 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

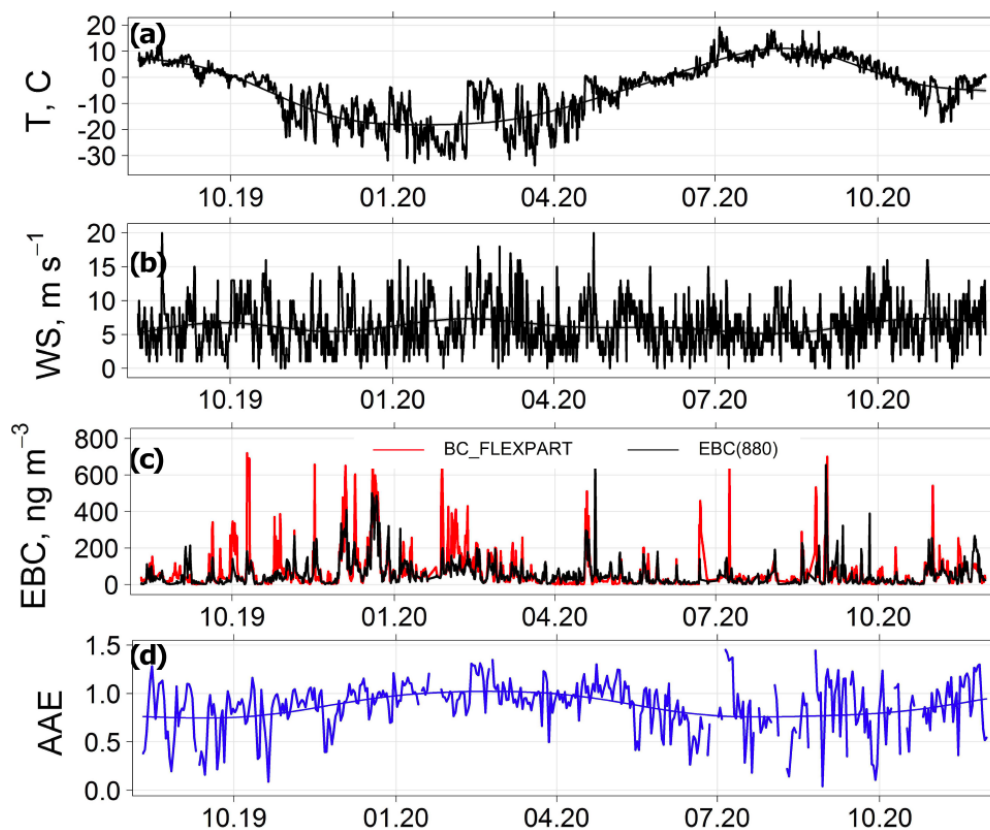
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840 **Figure 1.** Top left map shows the newly established “Island Bely” aerosol station in contrast to
841 other Arctic stations (Zeppelin, Alert, Barrow, Summit, Tiksi, and Cape Baranova). Bottom left
842 map shows the location of the Bely Island in the Kara Sea, where the new station was developed
843 (73°20'7.57"N, 70°4'49.05"E). The map on the right shows the “Island Bely” aerosol station in
844 combination with the European part of Russia and Western Siberia and the Yamalo-Nenets
845 Autonomic Okrug (YNAO). Flares of oil and gas fields are shown for 2019 year in brown triangles
846 (adopted from <https://skytruth.org/>).

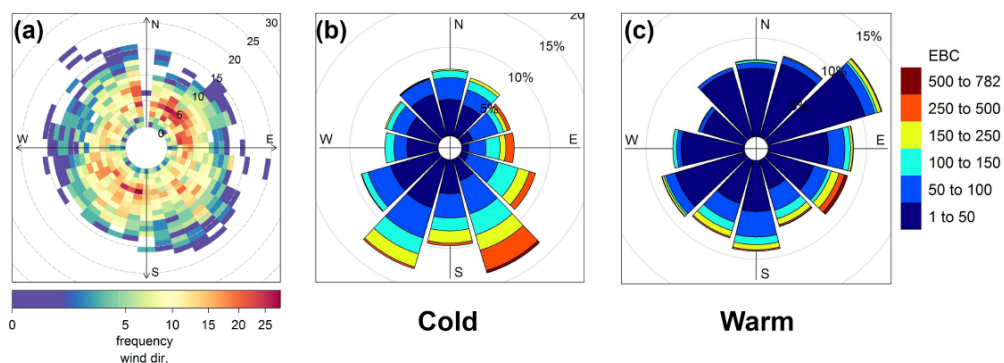
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849 **Figure 2.** Meteorological conditions with respect to (a) mean temperature and (b) wind speed (data
850 were smoothed to show long-term variations), time-series of (c) 24h median EBC (black) and
851 model simulated BC using ECLIPSEv6 - CAMS emissions (red), and (d) 24h average absorption
852 Ångström exponent (AAE) measured at “Island Bely” station from 10 August 2019 to 30
853 November 2020 (date format in mm.yy).

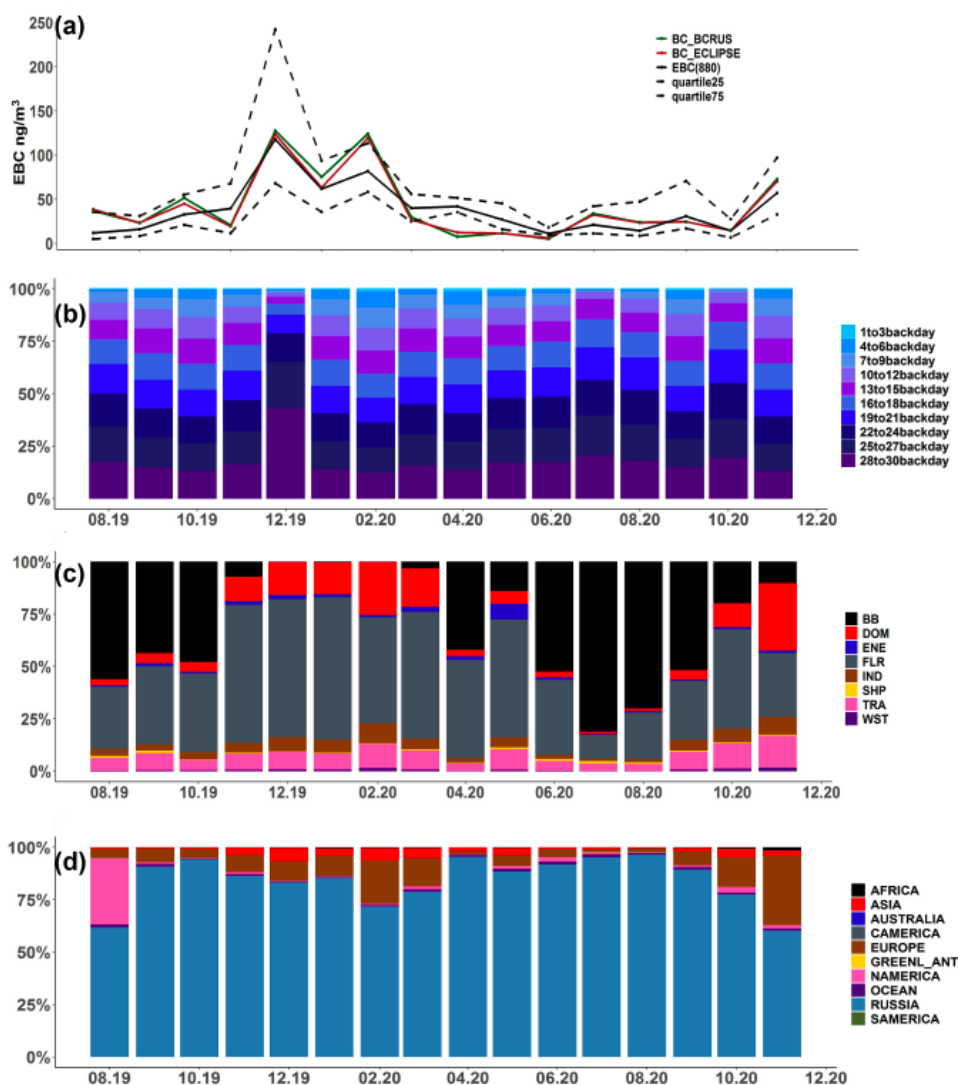
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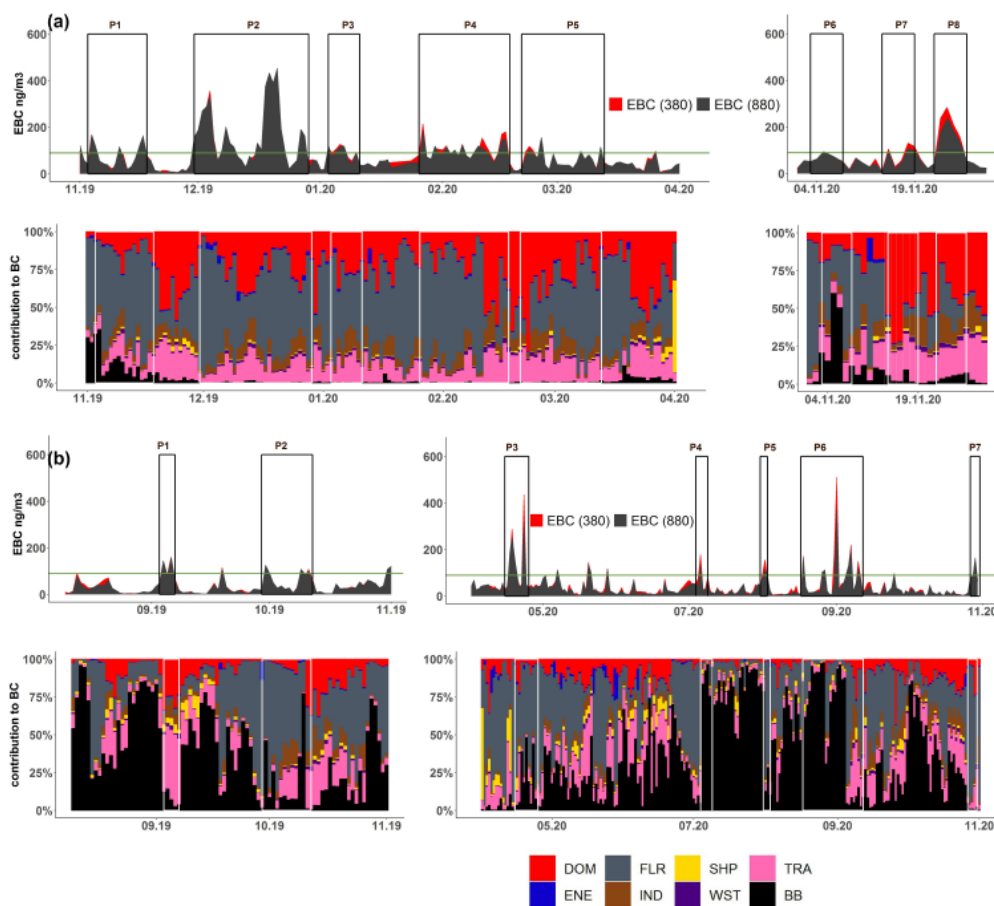
856 **Figure 3.** (a) Polar frequency plot of wind speed and direction. Each cell gives the total number of hours the wind was originating from a certain wind direction. The dashed circular grey lines show the wind speed (in m s^{-1}). Rose diagrams showing 3h EBC concentrations during the cold (b) and warm (c) periods.

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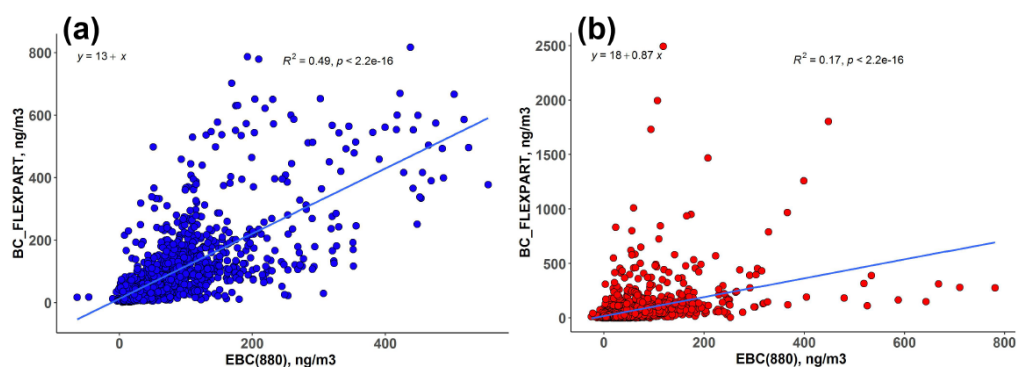
862 **Figure 4.** (a) Monthly climatology of EBC at the “Island Bely” station depicting medians, 25th and
 863 75th percentiles (dashed lines). Near-surface monthly median BC mass concentrations simulated
 864 with FLEXPART with ECLIPSEv6-CAMS (steel blue) and ECLIPSEv6-BCRUS-CAMS (red)
 865 emissions are also shown. (b) Age spectrum of modelled BC from all possible sources showing
 866 the contribution of emissions each day back in time to the surface concentration of BC. (c)
 867 Contribution from different emission source types to surface BC concentrations. The emission
 868 sources of biomass burning (BB) adopted from GFEDv4.1, and residential and commercial
 869 (DOM), power plants, energy conversion, and extraction (ENE), gas flaring (FLR), industrial
 870 combustion and processing (IND), shipping (SHP), and transportation (TRA) adopted from
 871 ECLIPSEv6 inventories were considered. (d) Continental spectrum showing the contribution of
 872 each continent or region to surface concentrations of BC. 10 regions were considered namely,
 873 Africa, Asia, Australia, Central America, Europe, Greenland/Antarctica, North America, World
 874 Ocean, Russia, and South America (see Supplementary Figure S 3).



875

876 **Figure 5.** 24-hour median EBC concentrations measured at 880 nm (black) and 370 nm (red), and
877 source contributions to surface BC from anthropogenic (DOM, ENE, FLR, IND, SHP, WST,
878 TRA) and BB sources for (a) the cold and (b) the warm period. Pollution episodes (P1-P8)
879 are composed from the periodically repeated events of highest EBC concentration. The green straight
880 line indicates the pollution level of the 80th percentile.

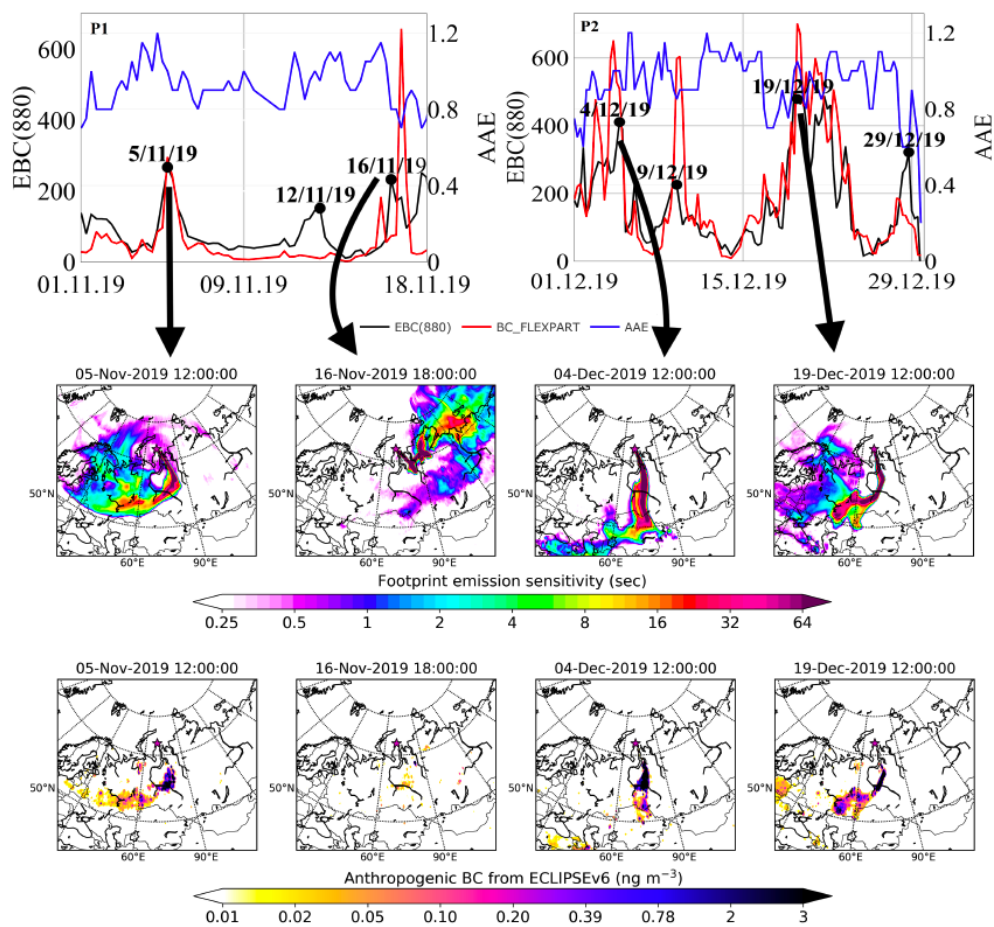
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883 **Figure 6.** Scatter-plots of 3h median measured EBC (880) and modelled BC from FLEXPART
884 for the (a) cold and (b) warm period. Solid line is the linear regression fit of the comparison
885 between modelled and observed values.

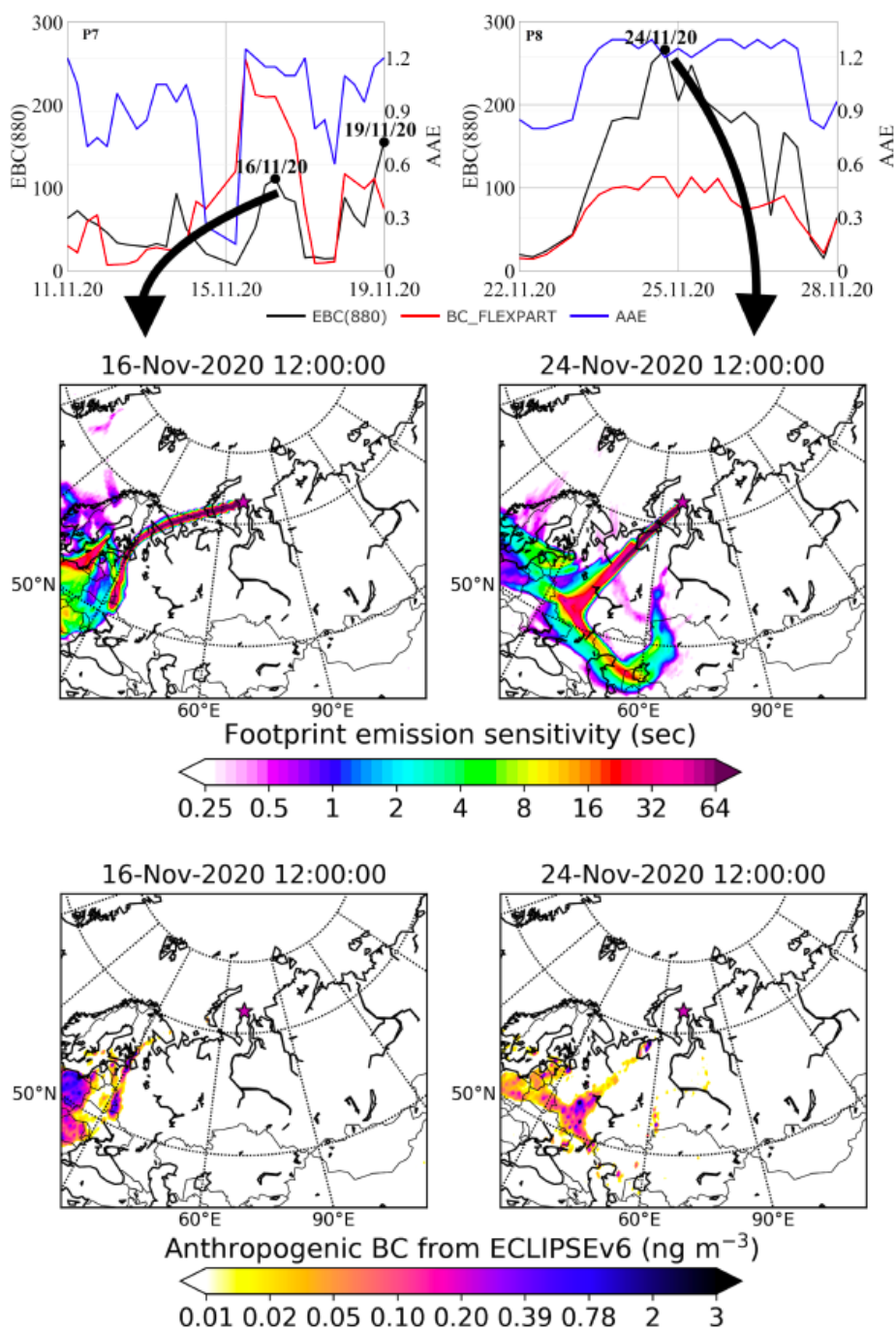
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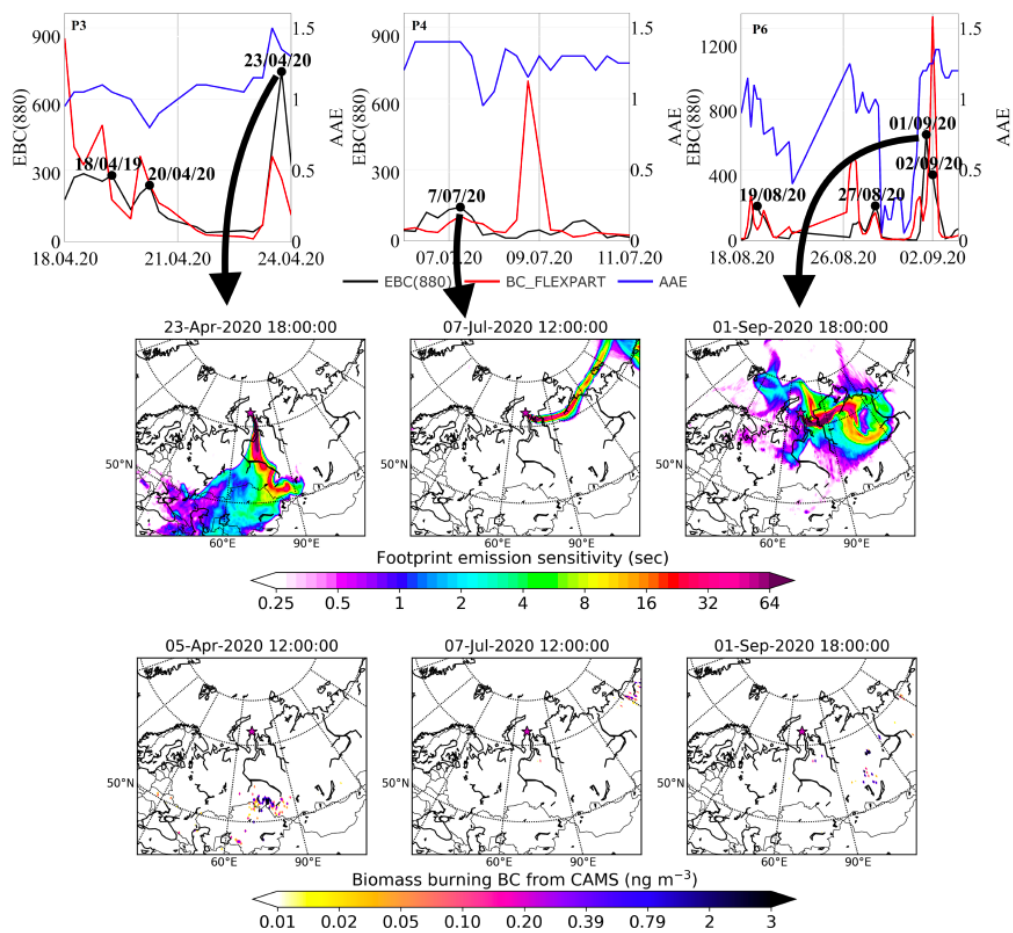
888 **Figure 7.** Examples of pollution episodes P1 and P2 observed in the cold period (see **Figure 5a**),
889 where FLR contribution prevails. 6-hourly median EBC (880) (black line), BC simulated with
890 FLEXPART (red line), AAE (blue line) (upper row). Footprint emissions sensitivities in seconds
891 showing the largest probability of emission origin (middle row). Spatial distribution of
892 anthropogenic contribution (in ng/m³) to surface BC at the “Island Bely” station.

893



894

895 **Figure 8.** Examples of pollution episodes P7 and P8 observed in the cold period (see **Figure 5a**),
896 where DOM and TRA contribution prevails. Timeseries of measured EBC, modelled BC and
897 AAE, footprint emissions sensitivities and anthropogenic contribution to surface BC are shown.



898

899 **Figure 9.** Examples of pollution episodes P3, P4 and P6 in the warm period (see **Figure 5b**), where
900 BB contribution prevails. The figure has been arranged similar to **Figure 7** (timeseries of measured
901 EBC, modelled BC and AAE, footprint emissions sensitivities and BB contribution to surface BC).

902