

42 **Abstract**

43 We analyzed long-term measurements of organic carbon, elemental carbon, and source-specific organic
44 tracers from 2017 to 2020 to constrain carbonaceous aerosol sources in the rapidly changing Arctic.
45 Additionally, we used absorption photometer (Aethalometer) measurements to constrain equivalent BC
46 from biomass burning (eBC_{BB}) and fossil fuel combustion (eBC_{FF}), using Positive Matrix Factorization
47 (PMF).

48 Our analysis shows that organic tracers are essential in understanding Arctic carbonaceous
49 aerosol sources. Throughout 2017 to 2020, levoglucosan exhibited bimodal seasonality, reflecting
50 emissions from residential wood combustion (RWC) in the heating season (November to May) and from
51 wildfires (WF) in the non-heating season (June to October), demonstrating a pronounced inter-annual
52 variability in the influence of WF. Biogenic secondary organic aerosol (BSOA) species (2-methyltetrols)
53 from isoprene oxidation was only present in the non-heating season, peaking in July to August. Warm
54 air masses from Siberia led to a substantial increase in 2-methyltetrols in 2019 and 2020 compared to
55 2017 to 2018. This highlights the need to investigate the contribution of local sources vs. long-range
56 atmospheric transport (LRT), considering the temperature sensitivity of biogenic volatile organic
57 compounds emissions from Arctic vegetation. Tracers of primary biological aerosol particles (PBAP),
58 including various sugars and sugar-alcohols, showed elevated levels in the non-heating season, albeit
59 with different seasonal trends, whereas cellulose had no apparent seasonality. Most PBAP tracers and
60 2-methyltetrols peaked during influence of WF emissions, highlighting the importance of measuring a
61 range of source specific tracers to understand sources and dynamics of carbonaceous aerosol. The
62 seasonality of carbonaceous aerosol was strongly influenced by LRT episodes, as background levels are
63 extremely low. In the non-heating season, the organic aerosol peak was as influenced by LRT as was
64 elemental carbon during the Arctic Haze period.

65 Source apportionment of carbonaceous aerosol by Latin Hypercube Sampling showed mixed
66 contributions from RWC (46%), fossil fuel (FF) sources (27%), and BSOA (25%) in the heating season.
67 In contrast, the non-heating season was dominated by BSOA (56%), with lower contributions from WF
68 (26%) and fossil fuel sources (15%).

69 Source apportionment of eBC by PMF showed that fossil fuel combustion dominated eBC ($70 \pm$
70 2.7%), whereas RWC ($22 \pm 2.7\%$) was more abundant than WF ($8.0 \pm 2.9\%$). Modeled BC
71 concentrations from FLEXPART attributed an almost equal share to fossil fuel sources ($51 \pm 3.1\%$) and
72 to biomass burning. Both FLEXPART and the PMF analysis concluded that RWC is a more important
73 source of (e)BC than WF. However, with a modeled RWC contribution of $30 \pm 4.1\%$ and WF of $19 \pm$
74 2.8% , FLEXPART suggests relatively higher contributions to eBC from these sources. Notably, the BB
75 fraction of EC was twice as high as that of eBC, reflecting methodological differences between source
76 apportionment by LHS and PMF. However, important conclusions drawn are unaffected, as both
77 methods indicate the presence of RWC- and WF-sourced BC at Zeppelin, with a higher relative BB
78 contribution during the non-heating season.

79 In summary, organic aerosol ($281 \pm 106 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) constitute a significant fraction of Arctic PM_{10} ,
80 although surpassed by sea salt aerosol ($682 \pm 46.9 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$), mineral dust ($613 \pm 368 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) and typically
81 non-sea-salt sulfate SO_4^{2-} ($314 \pm 62.6 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$), originating mainly from anthropogenic sources in winter
82 and from natural sources in summer.

83

84 **1 Introduction**

85 The arctic is warming significantly faster than the rest of the planet due to Arctic amplification (Serreze
86 and Barry, 2011; Schmale et al., 2021). These rapid changes affect atmospheric transport and removal
87 of Arctic aerosols (Jiao and Flanner, 2016), aerosol relative source contributions (Heslin-Rees et al.,
88 2020), vegetation and the carbon cycle (Kramshoj et al., 2016).

89 Long-range atmospheric transport (LRT) of air masses from lower latitudes is an important
90 driver of the Arctic aerosol burden since local emissions are relatively much lower (e.g., Quinn et al.,
91 2007). However, the importance of LRT may be decreasing since low latitude anthropogenic aerosol
92 emissions are declining (Coen et al., 2020), while high latitude sources are increasing in importance.
93 These include, for example, increased wildfires (WF) (McCarty et al., 2021), sea salt aerosol (SSA)
94 (Heslin-Rees et al., 2020), aeolian mineral dust (MD) following glacial retreat (Zwaafink et al., 2016),
95 primary biological aerosol particles (PBAP) due to thawing permafrost and Arctic greening (Myers-
96 Smith et al., 2020), which is also likely increasing biogenic volatile organic compounds emission rates
97 and hence biogenic secondary organic aerosol (BSOA) (Hallquist et al., 2009). These changes in sources
98 are also changing Arctic aerosol physical-chemical properties and hence their climate impact. Some
99 PBAP are efficient ice nucleating particles at high temperatures (Tobo et al., 2019), while BSOA might
100 act as cloud condensation nuclei or influence their activity (Riipinen et al., 2011), and have negative
101 feedback to the Arctic climate (Paasonen et al., 2013). Knowledge regarding concentration, activation
102 temperature, composition, sources, origin, and seasonality of Arctic ice nucleating particles and cloud
103 condensation nuclei has a noticeable focus given its relevance to the Arctic climate (Creamean et al.,
104 2018; 2019; 2020; 2022 Hartmann et al., 2019; 2020; Freitas et al., 2023). The aerosol indirect effect is
105 particularly important in the Arctic, as mixed phase clouds have a long lifetime, possibly due to a lack
106 of ice nucleating particles (Solomon et al., 2018), thus changes ice nucleating particles are deemed more
107 important than cloud condensation nuclei regarding Arctic cloud radiative properties (Solomon et al.,
108 2018).

109 Understanding changes in local aerosol emissions and formation, shifts in LRT of aerosols, and
110 consequently, alterations in the aerosol chemical composition are essential for understanding the
111 evolving Arctic environment and its regional and global climate impacts. Confirming and understanding
112 these changes in atmospheric composition requires high-quality, long-term observations. This is
113 particularly true for carbonaceous aerosol (CA), except for black carbon (BC), a focus of attention due
114 to its impact on climate and albedo (Clarke and Noone, 1985; Poeschel and Kinne, 1995; Hansen and
115 Nazarenko, 2004; Eleftheriadis et al., 2009; Hirdmann et al., 2010). A second exception is methane

116 sulfonic acid (MSA) with time series from 1977 at Alert (Sharma et al., 2019) and 1980 at Barrow
117 (Quinn et al., 2009), though its role in aerosol formation, growth, and radiative forcing is still a matter
118 of ongoing research (Hodshire et al., 2019).

119 Significant contributions to Organic matter (OM) of Eurasian origin to Arctic Haze (AH) have
120 been suggested since the 1970s (Quinn et al., 2007), quantified mostly as a residual fraction (Quinn et
121 al., 2002) or from measurements of selected organic species (Li et al., 1993). Even short-term, direct,
122 measurements of organic carbon (OC) or OM are scarce (e.g., Hansen et al., 2014; Barrett et al., 2015;
123 Ferrero et al., 2019), limiting our understanding of even basic parameters such as seasonality, annual
124 mean, or inter annual variability. The nearly two-year long study of Ricard et al. (2002) at Sevetjärvi
125 (Finland) is one of three exceptions, though at a latitude of $< 70^\circ$ N, and hence not representative of the
126 high Arctic, with e.g., lower AH and more biogenic volatile organic compounds in summer. Barret et
127 al. (2017) report 1 year of OC data at Barrow, whereas Moschos et al. (2022) presented the most
128 comprehensive study on Arctic OA to this date with up to 3 years of data from 8 Arctic sites.

129 OC levels are not useful in elucidating sources per se, and supporting information is generally
130 needed. For example, elemental carbon (EC) (or equivalent black carbon, eBC) demonstrates the
131 presence of OC from fossil fuel (FF) combustion and biomass burning (BB), essential to source
132 apportionment efforts and monitoring of the otherwise unperturbed Arctic atmosphere. Winiger et al.
133 (2019), attributed $25 \pm 16\%$ of EC to BB in winter and $42 \pm 19\%$ in summer by radiocarbon (^{14}C)
134 analysis in their Pan-Arctic study. Further separation of BB into residential wood combustion (RWC),
135 WF and agricultural waste burning (AWB) requires inclusion of satellite observations such as MODIS
136 (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) (Giglio et al., 2003), and transport modelling (Stohl
137 et al., 2006), although seasonality can be a useful qualifier. Stohl et al. (2013) pointed to gas and oil
138 industry flaring as a major source, contributing 42% to Arctic annual mean BC surface concentrations.
139 ^{14}C analysis by Barrett et al. (2017) shows that contemporary OC from biogenic emissions dominated
140 in summer, while contemporary and fossil OC levels were approximately equally large in winter.
141 Moschos et al. (2022) used positive matrix factorization (PMF) on spectral data derived from water-
142 soluble organic carbon extracts, analyzed off-line using an aerosol mass spectrometer. Their study
143 identified three factors dominated by anthropogenic sources (Oxygenated Organic Aerosol, Arctic Haze,
144 and Primary Organic Aerosol) and three factors associated with natural emissions (Methane Sulfonic
145 Acid-Related Organic Aerosol, Primary Biological Organic Aerosol, and Biogenic Secondary Organic
146 Aerosol). These factors exhibited distinct seasonal patterns, with the first three dominating in winter and
147 the latter three in summer.

148 Source specific organic tracers identified in the Arctic include levoglucosan, mannosan and
149 galactosan (e.g., Schneidemesser et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2013; Zangrando et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2013a;
150 Yttri et al., 2014; Feltracco et al., 2020), which are combustion products of cellulose and hemi-cellulose
151 serving to trace biomass burning emissions (Simoneit et al., 1999). Sugars, sugar-alcohols (here:
152 glucose, fructose, trehalose, arabitol, and mannitol) and cellulose are used for tracing PBAP (Graham et

153 al., 2003; Elbert et al., 2007; Sanchez-Ochoa et al., 2007), with sugar-alcohols typically associated with
154 yeast and fungal spores, and sugars linked to pollen, fern spores and other giant bioaerosol (Graham et
155 al., 2003). Cellulose, a primary component of plant cell walls, is used to trace plant debris (Sanchez-
156 Ochoa et al., 2007). Sugars and sugar-alcohols have previously been detected in Arctic aerosol (e.g., Fu
157 et al., 2009b; Fu et al., 2013; Feltracco et al., 2020), but cellulose has not been reported in these studies.
158 Oxidation products of isoprene (e.g., 2-methyltetrols), monoterpenes (e.g., 3-Methyl-1,2,3-butane-
159 tricarboxylic acid), and sesquiterpenes (e.g., β -caryophyllinic acid) are all BSOA species previously
160 detected in the Arctic aerosol (Fu et al., 2009a; Fu et al., 2013; Hansen et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2013).
161 Most studies measuring organic tracers in the Arctic have been limited to short time periods or specific
162 seasons, lacking a comprehensive understanding of the seasonal, annual and interannual variability of
163 sources and their impact on Arctic CA. Notable exceptions are the one-year study of Hansen et al. (2014)
164 and Yttri et al. (2014), along with the multi-seasonal investigation of Feltracco et al. (2020).

165 Lack of long-term OA measurements limits knowledge of Arctic aerosol mass closure. Further,
166 OA speciation, needed for source attribution and for studying its impact on cloud condensation nuclei
167 and ice nucleating particles is scarce. Here, we present four years of OC and EC, organic tracer, and
168 eBC_{BB} and eBC_{FF} measurements made at the high Arctic Zeppelin Observatory (Ny-Ålesund, Svalbard),
169 providing multiyear insights to Arctic CA and the fundamental knowledge needed to understand changes
170 in Arctic cloud condensation nuclei and ice nucleating particles and hence the impact of a changing
171 Arctic on regional and global climate.

172

173 **2 Experimental**

174 **2.1 Sampling site**

175 The Zeppelin Observatory (78°5' N 11°5' E, 472 m above sea level, asl) is located on the Zeppelin
176 Mountain on the 20 km long and 10 km wide Brøgger peninsula, 2 km south of the remote Ny-Ålesund
177 settlement on the west coast of the Spitsbergen Island in the Svalbard archipelago (Norway, Fig. 1; Platt
178 et al., 2022). The 26 km long Kongsfjorden to the northeast and the 88 km long Forland straight in the
179 west, surround the peninsula. The Observatory lies in the northern Arctic tundra zone, surrounded by
180 barren ground largely consisting of bare stones, and occasionally a thin layer of topsoil with scarce
181 ground vegetation, mostly growing on plains at lower altitudes, and snowpacks, and glaciers. There is
182 very little influence of emissions from the Ny-Ålesund settlement, as the Observatory is typically above
183 the boundary layer.

184 The Svalbard climate reflects its high Northern latitude, but is moderated by the North Atlantic
185 Current, with substantially higher temperatures than at corresponding latitudes in continental Russia and
186 Canada, particularly in winter. Hence, the Kongsfjorden basin is considered relatively verdant due to its
187 favorable micro-climate, and ~180 plant species, 380 mosses, and 600 lichens are registered on the
188 Svalbard Archipelago (Vegetation in Svalbard, 2023). However, a short growing season (June to
189 August), 4 months of polar night, and 8 to 9 months of snow (Fig. 2) do not provide optimal conditions

190 for growth (Karlsen et al., 2014). Annual precipitation in Western Svalbard is around 400 mm.

191 The Zeppelin Observatory is part of many networks including the European Evaluation and
192 Monitoring Program (EMEP, www.emep.int), the Global Atmospheric Watch (GAW,
193 <https://public.wmo.int/en/programmes>), the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Program (AMAP,
194 www.amap.no), and is included in the EU infrastructure ACTRIS (Aerosols, Clouds and Trace gases
195 Research InfraStructure Network, www.actris.eu)

196

197 **2.2 Sampling, handling, and storage of ambient aerosol filter samples**

198 We used a Digital high-volume sampler (PM₁₀ inlet, flow rate 666 L min⁻¹, filter face velocity 72.1 cm
199 s⁻¹) to obtain ambient aerosol filter samples. We placed the sampling inlet 2 m above the Observatory
200 roof and 7 m above ground level. We collected aerosol particles on pre-fired (850 °C; 3 h) quartz fiber
201 filters (PALLFLEX Tissuequartz 2500QAT-UP; 150 mm in diameter) at a weekly time resolution. There
202 was some variability in sampling time, typically due to harsh weather conditions. We used a quartz fiber
203 filter behind quartz fiber filter (QBQ) set up to estimate the positive sampling artifact of OC (McDow
204 and Huntzicker, 1990). We shipped the filters in their respective filter holders, wrapped in baked
205 aluminum foil, and placed them in double zip lock bags. Before exposure and analysis, we stored the
206 samples in a freezer (-18°C). For each 1.5 month of sampling, we assigned one field blank, which was
207 treated in the same manner regarding preparation, handling, transport, and storage as the exposed filters,
208 except that they were not inserted in the sampler.

209 We collected the aerosol filter samples from 5 January 2017 to 4 January 2021 as part of the
210 Norwegian national monitoring programme (Aas et al., 2020)

211

212 **2.3 Measurement of OC and EC**

213 We performed Thermal-optical analysis (TOA) using the Sunset Lab OC/EC Aerosol Analyzer. We
214 used transmission for charring correction and operated the instrument according to the EUSAAR-2
215 temperature program (Cavalli et al., 2010). As part of the joint EMEP/ACTRIS quality assurance and
216 quality control effort, we regularly intercompared the performance of the OC/EC instrument (e.g.,
217 Cavalli et al., 2016).

218

219 **2.4 Measurement of organic tracers**

220 **2.4.1 Monosaccharide anhydrides, 2-methyltetrols, sugars, and sugar-alcohols**

221 We determined concentrations of monosaccharide anhydrides, sugar-alcohols, 2-methyltetrols,
222 monomeric and dimeric sugars in PM₁₀ filter samples using ultra-performance liquid chromatography
223 (UPLC) (Vanquish UPLC, Thermo) in combination with Orbitrap Q-Exactive Plus (Thermo Fischer
224 Scientific) operated in the negative electrospray ionization (ESI) mode: resolution 70 000 FWHM (full
225 width at half maximum) at 200 Dalton.

226 We added isotopically labelled internal standard to filter punches (2 × 1.5 cm²), which were

227 submerged in precleaned tetrahydrofuran (THF) (2 mL) in separate screw neck amber glass vials, which
228 we subjected to ultrasonic extraction (30 min). We transferred the solute to a centrifuge tube using
229 pipetting and repeated this step twice. Afterward, we evaporated the solute to 0.4 mL, spun it (10 min;
230 2000 rpm), transferred and evaporated it to dryness in a screw neck amber glass vial. The sample volume
231 was redissolved in 0.25 mL precleaned THF/Milli-Q water (55:45) and whirlmixed before analysis. The
232 extraction procedure was equal to Dye and Yttri (2005). We used two columns in series for separation
233 (two 3.0 mm × 150 mm HSS T3, 1.8 μm, Waters Inc.), using isocratic elution (Milli-Q; 18.2 MΩ),
234 flushing with acetonitrile (High purity) at the end of the run. The Milli-Q water was purified using and
235 EDS-Pak Polisher, containing activated coal (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), and a LC-Pak cartridge
236 (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) containing reversed-phase silica.

237 We identified all species based on retention time and mass spectra of authentic standards, using
238 isotope-labelled standards of levoglucosan, galactosan, mannitol, arabitol, trehalose and glucose as
239 recovery standards (Table S1 in Yttri et al., 2021). The limit of detection (LOD) was 1 to 3 pg m⁻³ for
240 the monosaccharide anhydrides, 1 pg m⁻³ for the 2-methyltetrols, 4 pg m⁻³ for the sugar-alcohols, 6 pg
241 m⁻³ for the dimeric sugars and 8 pg m⁻³ for the monomeric sugars.

242

243 **2.4.2 Measurement of cellulose**

244 We based the analysis of free cellulose on the saccharification of cellulose and subsequently quantified
245 the glucose produced, following the method by Kunit and Puxbaum (1996). We switched the final
246 detection of glucose from a photometric method to HPAEC PAD (high-performance anion-exchange
247 chromatography with pulsed amperometric detection), similar to Qi et al., 2020). We extracted filter
248 aliquots with a citrate buffer (0.05 M citric acid) adjusted to pH 4 and added Thymol to a final
249 concentration of 0.05% to prevent bacterial growth. We enhanced extraction by ultrasonic agitation. We
250 added enzymes (*Trichoderma reesei* cellulase; *Aspergillus Niger* cellobiase), which had been precleaned
251 by ultrafiltration to reduce glucose blanks, for saccharification. We stopped saccharification (at 45 °C)
252 after 24 h by heating the samples to 80 °C. We analyzed glucose on a Dionex ICS 3000 equipped with
253 a CarboPac MA1 column, using a sodium hydroxide gradient reaching from 480 mM NaOH to 630 mM.
254 We corrected results with the free glucose contained in the samples.

255

256 **2.5 Radiocarbon measurements**

257 We conducted ¹⁴C-measurements of TC and EC by complete combustion of the untreated quartz fiber
258 filter and after removal of OC, respectively, using thermal-optical analysis (760 °C, pure O₂) coupled
259 with on-line measurement in an accelerator mass spectrometer (Agrios et al., 2015). For a detailed
260 description of the analytical method and data processing, see Rauber et al. (2023).

261

262 **2.5.1 Selection criteria for samples subject to radiocarbon analysis**

263 We picked 1 – 2 filter samples for each month of the year from samples collected from 2017 to 2018 to

264 capture the seasonal variability in source composition (Table S3). No valid solution was found for the
265 sample 05 – 13.12.2017, using the Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS) approach (Sect. 2.8), hence the
266 low coverage for December (6%) compared to September (77%). We pooled two consecutive samples
267 for the months of June, July, August, September, October, and December to meet the LOD (3 $\mu\text{g C}$) for
268 EC. Moreover, we aimed for the front/back filter carbon content ratio >3 , but this criterion was not met
269 for one of the samples in June, September, October, and for two samples in December.

270 We analyzed ^{14}C -TC on both front and back filters, while ^{14}C -EC was analyzed only on front
271 filters. To measure ^{14}C -EC, we used three circular punches (22 mm diameter) from the filter sample
272 aliquot (16.6 cm^2). We used the remaining front filter area (5.2 cm^2) for ^{14}C -TC analysis, along with an
273 equivalent area of the back filter.

274

275 **2.6 Measurement of the aerosol absorption coefficient by multi wavelength Aethalometer**

276 We obtained measurements of aerosol absorption coefficient (Babs) using a 7-wavelength (370, 470,
277 520, 590, 660, 880, and 950 nm) absorption photometer (AE33 Aethalometer, Magee Scientific)
278 downstream of a PM_{10} inlet, yielding equivalent black carbon (eBC) by normalization with co-located
279 EC measurements. We determined two eBC categories using a novel application of positive matrix
280 factorization (PMF) (Yttri et al., 2021; Platt et al., in prep.). These categories were based on the Aerosol
281 Ångström Exponent (AAE), with one having a low AAE (~ 1), resulting from efficient combustion of
282 mainly liquid fossil fuel, denoted eBC_{FF} , and the other having a high AAE (~ 1.6), mainly associated
283 with biomass burning (eBC_{BB}) and possibly residential coal combustion.

284

285 **2.7 Auxiliary data**

286 We downloaded concentrations of SO_4^{2-} , Cl^- , Na^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , Al, Fe, Mn, and Ti from the EBAS
287 data repository (<https://ebas-data.nilu.no>). Inorganic anions and cations were obtained using a NILU
288 stacked filter unit (SFU) collecting aerosol particles on Teflon filters (2 μm pore, 47 mm Zefluor Teflon,
289 Gelman Sciences). The SFU has a downward-facing inlet that effectively reduces the sampling
290 efficiency for aerosol particles with an equivalent aerodynamic diameter (EAD) larger than 10 μm
291 (Zwaafink et al., 2022). Elements were obtained from paper filters (Whatman 41) using a high-volume
292 air sampler with an inlet discriminating against aerosol particles with an EAD larger than 3 μm .

293 We calculated sea salt (ss) aerosol (SSA) according to equations 1 – 5, and mineral dust (MD)
294 according to equations 6 and 7. We assumed Al, Fe, Mn, and Ti to be associated exclusively with mineral
295 dust and present as Al_2O_3 , Fe_2O_3 , MnO, and TiO_2 (Alastuey et al., 2016). Si data was not available and
296 thus estimated based on an empirical factor (eq. 7), assumed present as SiO_2 .

297

$$298 \text{[SSA]} = \text{[Na}^+] + \text{[Cl}^-] + \text{[ssK}^+] + \text{[ssMg}^{2+}] + \text{[ssCa}^{2+}] + \text{[ssSO}_4^{2-}] \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

299

$$300 \text{[ssK}^+] = \text{[Na}^+] \times 0.037 \quad (\text{eq. 2})$$

301 $[\text{ssMg}^{2+}] = [\text{Na}^+] \times 0.12$ (eq. 3)

302 $[\text{ssCa}^{2+}] = [\text{Na}^+] \times 0.038$ (eq. 4)

303 $[\text{ssSO}_4^{2-}] = [\text{Na}^+] \times 0.252$ (eq. 5)

304

305 $[\text{MD}] = [\text{SiO}_2] + [\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3] + [\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3] + [\text{MnO}] + [\text{TiO}_2]$ (eq. 6)

306

307 $[\text{SiO}_2] = 2.5 \times [\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3]$ (eq. 7)

308

309 **2.8 Source apportionment of carbonaceous aerosol by Latin Hypercube Sampling**

310 We used a Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS) approach (Gelenscer et al., 2007; Yttri et al., 2011a) for
311 source apportionment of CA, using ^{14}C , organic tracers, and OC and EC measurements from 13 samples
312 (Table S3) as input. We quantified seven CA fractions: EC from combustion of biomass (EC_{bb}) and
313 fossil fuel (EC_{ff}), OC from combustion of biomass (OC_{bb}) and from fossil fuel sources (OC_{ff}), primary
314 biological aerosol particles (OC_{PBAP}), being the sum of plant debris (OC_{pbc}) and fungal spores (OC_{pbs}),
315 and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) from biogenic precursors (OC_{BSOA}). Our calculations were based
316 on similar equations and emission ratios (ER) to those presented in Yttri et al. (2011a), except that we
317 used ^{14}C -EC to calculate OC_{BB} and EC_{BB} . We have provided updated equations and ERs in Tables S1 to
318 S2. At a remote site like Zeppelin where BB emissions originate from distant source regions, ^{14}C -EC
319 seems a better option for apportioning BB emission than levoglucosan, assuming significant depletion
320 of levoglucosan under such conditions. Calculated concentrations and fractions of the CA categories are
321 presented in Tables S3 and S4. The NH-season was covered by 98 days, while the heating (H) season
322 was covered by 54 days.

323

324 **2.9 FLEXPART modelling**

325 We calculated BC concentrations at Zeppelin using the Lagrangian particle dispersion model
326 FLEXPART version 10.4 (Pisso et al., 2019). FLEXPART released computational particles every 3 h
327 for the whole study period at the Zeppelin Observatory, which were tracked backward in time. The
328 model was driven by ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020) assimilated meteorological analyses from the
329 European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) with 137 vertical layers, a horizontal
330 resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$, and one-hour temporal resolution. We kept the particles in the simulation for
331 30 days after release, sufficient to include most BC emissions arriving at the site, given a typical BC
332 lifetime of 1 week (Bond et al., 2013). FLEXPART simulates dry and wet deposition of gases or aerosols
333 (Grythe et al., 2017), turbulence (Cassiani et al., 2014), unresolved mesoscale motions (Stohl et al.,
334 2005), and includes a deep convection scheme (Forster et al., 2007). Footprint emission sensitivities
335 were calculated at spatial resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$. We assumed that BC has a density of 1500 kg m^{-3} ,
336 following a logarithmic size distribution with an aerodynamic mean diameter of $0.25 \mu\text{m}$ and a
337 logarithmic standard deviation of 0.3 (Long et al., 2013).

338 The footprint emission sensitivities express the probability of any release occurring in each grid-
339 cell to reach the receptor site. When coupled with gridded emissions from any emission inventory, it
340 can be converted to modelled concentration at the receptor site. To derive the contribution to receptor
341 BC from different sources, we combined each gridded emission sector (e.g., gas flaring, transportation)
342 with the footprint emission sensitivity. We used anthropogenic emissions from the latest version (v6b)
343 of the ECLIPSE (Evaluating the CLimate and Air Quality ImPacts of ShortlivEd Pollutants) dataset,
344 which is an upgraded version of the previous version 5a, as described by Klimont et al. (2017). The
345 inventory (provided with a spatial resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$, monthly) includes:

- 346
- 347 • Industrial combustion (IND) – emissions from industrial boilers and industrial production processes
- 348 • Energy production (ENE) – combustion processes in power plants and generators.
- 349 • Residential and commercial sector (DOM) – combustion in heating, cooking stoves, and boilers in
- 350 households, public, and commercial buildings.
- 351 • Waste treatment and disposal sector (WST) – emissions from waste incineration and treatment.
- 352 • Transport sector (TRA) – emissions from all land-based transport of goods, animals, and persons
- 353 on road and off-road networks, including domestic shipping and aviation.
- 354 • Emissions from international shipping activities (SHP).
- 355 • Gas flaring (FLR) – emissions from oil and gas facilities.

356

357 The ECLIPSEv6b dataset provides emission data at 5-years intervals. These emissions are then
358 interpolated to annual emissions according to the trend in geographical areas considered in ECLIPSE
359 (Klimont et al., 2017). The temporal variation in the emissions of all sectors was provided by IIASA
360 (Klimont et al., 2017). WF emissions were adopted from the Global Fire Emission Dataset version 4.1
361 (GFEDv4.1). The product combines satellite information on fire activity and vegetation productivity to
362 estimate gridded monthly burned area and fire emissions, as well as scalars that we can use to calculate
363 higher temporal resolution emissions. All data are publicly available for use in large-scale atmospheric
364 and biogeochemical modelling (van der Werf et al., 2017). Emission factors to compute BC emissions
365 are based on Akagi et al., (2011). The spatial resolution of the current version (v4) is of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$,
366 daily.

367 To distinguish between modelled BC_{bb} and BC_{ff} , we combined contributions to receptor
368 concentrations from (i) DOM and WF, and (ii) ENE, FLR, IND, WST, SHP and TRA, respectively.

369 **3 Results and discussion**

370

371 Monthly mean concentrations of OC, EC, and organic tracers at Zeppelin Observatory are presented in
372 Fig. 2 and Fig. 3, and annual and seasonal means in Table 1. Our study is the first presenting eBC_{BB} and
373 eBC_{FF} data (Fig. 2) derived from multiwavelength aethalometer measurements in the Arctic, and we

374 compare them with BC_{BB} and BC_{FF} data obtained from the FLEXPART model (Table 3; Fig. 4; Fig S1)
375 and with EC_{BB} and EC_{FF} data from the LHS-approach (Sect. 3.2.1) (Table 4; Table S3 to S4). CA source
376 apportionment by the LHS-approach is presented in Fig. 5 and Tables S3 to S4. We discuss our data
377 according to the periods June to October, representing the growing season and the non-heating season
378 (NH-season), and November to May covering the non-growing season and the heating season (H-
379 season). These are obviously not absolute definitions. Phenomena of high relevance to the Arctic
380 aerosol, such as Boreal WF emissions thus largely reside in the NH-season, whereas accumulation of
381 anthropogenic emissions from Eurasia in winter and spring, known as AH, is part of the H-season.
382 Comparison is made with Birkenes Observatory (Southern Norway), representative of the lowest CA
383 levels in regional background Europe (Yttri et al., 2021) (Table S5 and S6), with Ispra, a regional
384 background site in the Po Valley (Northern Italy), one of Europe's most polluted regions (Table 5S),
385 and the Trollhaugen Observatory (Antarctica) (S7).

386

387 **3.1 Elemental carbon and organic carbon**

388 The interannual variabilities of EC (34%) and OC (38%) were comparable to SO_4^{2-} (40%). Like OC,
389 SO_4^{2-} can have both primary or secondary sources, originate from LRT or local emissions, and stem
390 from natural as well as anthropogenic sources. Notably, its time series spans back to 1991 (Platt et al.,
391 2022). The annual mean concentrations ranged from 6.5 to 16.3 ng Carbon (C) m^{-3} for EC and from 90.3
392 to 197 ng C m^{-3} for OC. These levels are amongst the lowest globally, still notably lower compared to
393 Antarctica (1.9 ng EC m^{-3} ; 12.2 ng OC m^{-3}) (Table S7) (Rauber et al., in prep.). Particulate OC (OC_P)
394 had an estimated conservative concentration of 68.3 to 165 ng C m^{-3} after accounting for the positive
395 sampling artifact (OC_B). CA levels were particularly high in 2020 due to a major LRT episode in July
396 (Sect. 3.6.1), with EC and OC increased by factors of 1.6 and 1.9, respectively compared to the mean of
397 the previous three years. For SO_4^{2-} , the increase in 2020 was only 1.25.

398 The annual mean concentration of OM (281 ± 106 ng m^{-3}) was less than for sea salt aerosol,
399 mineral dust, and even non-sea salt SO_4^{2-} , although not for all four years considered ($OM > nss\ SO_4^{2-}$
400 for 2020) (Table 2).

401 Elevated EC concentration in the H-season correspond with the AH phenomenon (Shaw, 1995),
402 and is consistent to that previously shown for eBC (Eleftheriadis et al., 2009) and SO_4^{2-} (Quinn et al.,
403 2007; Platt et al., 2022). However, three of the four highest weekly EC concentrations occurred in the
404 NH-season (Sect. 3.5). The mean EC concentration in the NH-season was five times lower than at the
405 Birkenes Observatory, and close to two orders of magnitude lower than Ispra. EC increased by a factor
406 of two during the H-season compared to the NH-season, due to more efficient transport of air masses to
407 the Arctic in winter (Ottar et al., 1989) and by AH accumulation in winter and spring (Shaw, 1995). The
408 EC level at Zeppelin in the NH-season was eight times lower than at Birkenes and nearly 60 times lower
409 than at Ispra.

410 OC levels at Zeppelin was seven times lower than at the Norwegian mainland both for the H-

411 and NH-seasons. In the H-season, levels at Zeppelin were more than 50 lower than in the polluted Po
412 Valley region, while slightly more than one order of magnitude lower in the NH-season.

413 OC seasonality (Fig. 2) was characterized by a dip in May and June, a transition period between
414 the elevated levels seen for the AH period and the mid-summer. Contemporaneous measurements of
415 organic tracers (BB, BSOA and PBAP), EC, eBC_{BB} and eBC_{FF}, largely explained the seasonality. EC
416 was elevated throughout the AH period, pointing to a dominant contribution of OC from combustion of
417 FF and BB, whereas BSOA and PBAP tracers (except for cellulose) did not start increasing until June.
418 Note that Fu et al. (2009a) found terpene oxidation products, such as 3-Methyl-1,2,3-butane-
419 tricarboxylic acid (3-MBTCA) to be elevated compared to most isoprene oxidation products during the
420 AH period at Alert (Canadian Arctic), and that only isoprene oxidation products were measured in the
421 present study. Further, results presented in section 3.5 suggest a 25% BSOA contribution to CA even in
422 winter. The BB tracer levoglucosan experienced a significant decrease from February to March,
423 suggesting that OC from fossil sources became more prominent as the AH period progressed. However,
424 we speculate that there was a substantial degradation of levoglucosan starting from the end of the polar
425 night (15 February) or as daylight hours increased, as no similar decrease was observed for eBC_{BB}. This
426 degradation might be due to factors such as aerosol particle scavenging by low-level Arctic clouds,
427 which is known to peak in early spring for BC (Zieger et al., 2023), and subsequent depletion by water
428 phase reactions. BB, BSOA and PBAP tracers typically peaked in July and August, but whereas BSOA
429 tracers decreased abruptly in early fall, PBAP tracers persisted to late fall, whereas BB tracers, EC,
430 eBC_{BB}, and eBC_{FF} started increasing again towards the end of the year.

431 Eight of the ten highest OC concentrations were observed in the NH-season, while for EC, seven
432 of the ten highest concentrations were observed in the H-season. Low emissions within the Arctic make
433 OC, and EC, seasonality susceptible to LRT episodes, and we find that the OC peak in the NH-season
434 is as strongly influenced by LRT as is EC during AH. We discuss three of these episodes in section 3.5.
435

436 **3.2 Biomass burning and fossil fuel combustion sources**

437 **3.2.1 Levoglucosan**

438 Annual mean levoglucosan concentrations ranged from 0.335 to 0.919 ng m⁻³, which is comparable to
439 the annual mean (0.680 ng m⁻³) reported for Zeppelin for March 2008 to March 2009 (Yttri et al., 2014).
440 The inter annual variability was 40%, similar to major aerosol constituents such as OC and SO₄²⁻. In
441 2020, the annual mean was twice as high as the mean of the previous three years, with an increase
442 attributed to elevated monthly means (~2 ng m⁻³) in February, July, and October (Fig. 3).

443 Increased levels and peak concentrations of levoglucosan in the H-season reflected RWC
444 emissions, as shown by Yttri et al. (2014). Increased levels in July and August were not shown by Yttri
445 et al. (2014), partly due to missing data, although impact from wild and agricultural fires was predicted
446 by modelling. In the present study, increased levels in July and August were a hallmark of the
447 levoglucosan time series, pointing to the importance of WF emissions. FLEXPART model transport of

448 modelled BC emissions also showed a substantial influence of WF emissions for July and August (2017
449 to 2020) (Fig. S1). The levoglucosan concentration in the 2020 NH-season was ~ 3-times higher than
450 the average of the three previous years, demonstrating a pronounced inter annual variability in WF
451 influence at Zeppelin. The levoglucosan to mannosan ratio (L/M) was lower for the NH-season ($4.8 \pm$
452 1.2) compared to the H-season (7.5 ± 1.9) (Fig. 3; Table S6) and might reflect a shift from WF and AWB
453 in the NH-season to RWC in the H-season. Our findings correspond with L/M ratios below 5 in summer
454 at Gruebadet (Ny-Ålesund) (Feltracco et al., 2020). However, we did not observe the very high L/M
455 ratios, occasionally exceeding 40, that have been attributed to emissions from crops residue burning in
456 Asia during the spring.

457

458 **3.2.2 EC_{BB} and EC_{FF} obtained from radiocarbon measurements and LHS**

459 Tracer based LHS source apportionment found that BB was the primary source of EC in all but one
460 sample (Table S3 and S4). On average, $61 \pm 15\%$ of EC was attributed to BB, with this percentage
461 varying by season: $67 \pm 5\%$ in the NH-season when EC levels were low and influenced by WF, and 57
462 $\pm 18\%$ in the H-season when RWC dominated. Our results showed a much higher BB fraction in the H-
463 season than Winiger et al. (2019) for the H-season 2012 to 2013 (36 to 39%), whereas it matched that
464 of the AH period in 2009 ($57 \pm 21\%$) (Winiger et al., 2015). The BB fraction in NH-season was slightly
465 higher than the 58 to 62% range for the NH-season in 2013 (Winiger et al., 2019). Notably, differences
466 in sample preparation and in ^{14}C analytical protocol should be considered along with inter annual
467 variability, seeking an explanation to the observed differences.

468 The weekly maximum BB fraction of EC in Feb. 2017 (81%) was somewhat lower than the
469 extremely high (95 to 98%) daily BB fractions during AH at Zeppelin in 2009 (Winiger et al., 2015).
470 Although no conclusive explanation was given to the extreme values reported by Winiger et al. (2015),
471 it cannot be excluded that that BB emissions can dominate for an entire week. eBC_{BB} apportioned by
472 PMF (Sect. 3.2.3), supports nearly exclusive (90%) BB contributions for 24 h (Fig. S2), but not for an
473 entire week (80%) (not shown). Notably, Kongsfjorden has around twenty cabins and a few research
474 stations, and wood is used for heating in these facilities when in use. Hence, emissions from these
475 sources cannot be excluded. The weekly minimum BB fraction for Jan. 2018 (21%) was much lower
476 compared to the lowest percentage reported by Winiger et al. (2015) (39%). FLEXPART footprints for
477 the Feb. 2017 and the Jan. 2018 samples were similar, covering North-West Russia and North-East
478 Greenland (not shown), providing no further insight to their extreme values, and thus “highlights the
479 complexity of BC in the Arctic atmosphere, where the generally low BC levels may be strongly
480 influenced by point sources or occasional combustion practices” (Winiger et al., 2015).

481

482 **3.2.3 eBC from biomass burning and fossil fuel combustion obtained from PMF and** 483 **FLEXPART modeling**

484 The eBC (sum of eBC_{BB}, and eBC_{FF}) and EC time series were similar, with enhanced levels during AH,

485 a small increase in mid-summer, and a slight increase towards the end of the year. FF was the major
486 fraction of eBC annually ($70 \pm 2.7\%$), in the H-season ($71 \pm 2.7\%$), and in the NH-season ($67 \pm 6.7\%$)
487 (Table 3; Fig. 4).

488 Previous modelling studies indicate that WF is the primary source of Arctic BC during summers
489 (Stohl et al., 2013; McCarty et al., 2021). ^{14}C -EC measurements support this for Zeppelin, but not for
490 other high Arctic observatories (Table 4; Winiger et al., 2019). In our study, 27% – 42% of eBC was
491 attributed to WF emissions in the NH-season, which is lower than previous findings. Our estimate
492 assumes that all eBC_{BB} in the NH-season comes from WF emissions (eBC_{WF}) and from residential wood
493 combustion emissions (eBC_{RWC}) in the H-season. Neither eBC_{WF}, nor eBC_{RWC} dominated on a monthly
494 basis (Fig. S3), although they came close in October 2017, July 2020, and October 2020, accounting for
495 46% to 48%. The annual contribution of eBC_{WF} to eBC was estimated to be 5.4% to 12%, while eBC_{RWC}
496 contributed 20 to 26%, highlighting that RWC is a larger source of eBC compared to WF.

497 FLEXPART predicted an almost equal share of BC from BB and FF annually, whereas BC_{FF}
498 ($56 \pm 3.6\%$) dominated in the H-season and BC_{BB} ($61 \pm 3.3\%$) in the NH-season (Table 3), similar to
499 results found in Stohl et al. (2013). For a direct comparison, BC_{WF} (and BC_{RWC}) was calculated similarly
500 from FLEXPART BC_{BB} output as eBC_{WF} from eBC_{BB} by PMF, i.e., BC_{WF} equals all BC_{BB} in the NH-
501 season, whereas BC_{RWC} equals all BC_{BB} in the H-season. Comparing this proxy BC_{WF} with the
502 FLEXPART modelled BC_{WF}, provided a ratio of 0.97 to 1.09 for 2017 to 2020, indicating that the BC_{WF}
503 proxy is a sound approximation. With 16 to 22% of BC attributed to WF and 27 to 36% to RWC annually
504 (Fig. 4; Table 3), FLEXPART concludes, in the same way as PMF, that RWC > WF, but suggests higher
505 percentages for WF and RWC fractions.

506 Neither PMF nor FLEXPART seem to fully reflect the predominant role of BC from WF above
507 50 °N, which McCarty et al. (2021) suggest are larger than emissions from anthropogenic residential
508 combustion, transportation, and flaring, combined. In 2020, 56% of the BC emissions North of 65 °N
509 were attributed to open biomass burning by McCarty et al. (2021), whereas 12% (PMF) and 22%
510 (FLEXPART) of (e)BC was attributed to WF at Zeppelin for 2020 in the present study. Spatial
511 variability and vertical distribution of the emissions might explain part of the discrepancy, as might mid
512 latitude emissions below 65 °N, being less influenced by WF. Vertically resolved BC concentrations in
513 the Arctic in spring and summer based on aircraft measurements show a decrease with increasing altitude
514 (Jurányi et al., 2023), but this remains yet to be confirmed for BC from WF.

515 For the BB tracer levoglucosan, the fraction observed in the NH-season (36 to 64%),
516 corresponding to the WF fraction, was higher than seen for both eBC_{WF} (17 to 35%) (PMF) and BC_{WF}
517 (32 to 45%) (FLEXPART). However, degradation of levoglucosan during LRT, and lack of
518 representative (e)BC/levoglucosan ERs for a vast number of fuel categories, vegetation types, and not
519 least combustion conditions, implies considerable uncertainty in deriving the RWC/WF (e)BC split
520 using this technique.

521 Comparing PMF results to the few samples subjected to ^{14}C measurements and source
522 apportionment by tracer based LHS showed that these two approaches were on opposite ends of the
523 scale, with FLEXPART in between (Table 4). Radiocarbon measurements and LHS estimated a BB
524 fraction twice as high as the PMF approach, but all three methods agreed on a higher BB fraction in the
525 NH-season than in the H-season. Notably, BB and FF fractions of eBC derived from PMF were more
526 aligned with those from radiocarbon measurements at Zeppelin in 2012 to 2013 (Winiger et al., 2019)
527 and with fractions derived from levoglucosan measurements at Zeppelin in winter 2008 to 2009 (Yttri
528 et al., 2014). However, inter-annual variability makes such a comparison indicative only. Consideration
529 of methodological differences is essential. Crucial steps of ^{14}C -EC measurements include preventing EC
530 loss during OC removal and avoiding OC mixing with the minor EC fraction, impacting its modern vs.
531 fossil fuel signature. The advancements in the analytical approach used in this study (Rauber et al., 2023)
532 specifically aimed to improve these critical steps. Additionally, eBC derived from Aethalometer
533 measurements provides no information on the age of carbon undergoing combustion but reflects the
534 wavelength dependence of the absorption linked to the combustion condition (Garg et al., 2016.).
535 Consequently, the eBC_{FF} factor obtained by PMF could also contain emissions from combustion of
536 biofuels, observed as modern carbon by ^{14}C -measurements. Conversely, emissions from coal
537 combustion might contribute to the eBC_{BB} factor. Terms like liquid fuel instead of fossil fuel and solid
538 fuel instead of biomass burning could be more appropriate, but we maintain the notation for
539 comparability with ^{14}C -based apportionment and Aethalometer-model studies (Sandradewi et al., 2008).
540 Applying the Aethalometer-model approach with an Ångström exponent pair of (1,2) (Sandradewi et al.
541 2008) and (0.9,1.68) (Zotter et al., 2017), yields annual eBC_{BB} contributions of 32% and 29%,
542 supporting our more novel PMF approach (27±14%) (Table 4). Further, we note that the Ångström
543 exponents obtained from the PMF (1,1.6) are consistent with the distribution of Ångström exponents
544 observed at various sites across Europe (e.g., Tobler et al., 2021). Despite the differences in the estimated
545 contribution size from biomass vs. fossil fuel sources between ^{14}C -EC measurements and eBC by PMF,
546 important conclusions drawn are unaffected. For instance, both methods indicate the presence of
547 residential wood combustion and wildfire-sourced black carbon at Zeppelin, with a higher relative BB
548 contribution during the non-heating season.

549 Nearly exclusive (90%) contributions to eBC were seen for both eBC_{BB} and eBC_{FF} for periods
550 of 24 h (Fig. S2, upper left panel). This corresponds with 24 h ^{14}C -EC data from Zeppelin dominated
551 (EC $f_{\text{bb}} > 95\%$) by contemporary carbon (Winiger et al., 2015), and ^{14}C -EC data dominated (EC $f_{\text{ff}} >$
552 95%) by fossil carbon observed at other high Arctic sites (Winiger et al., 2019). Exclusive contributions
553 were most frequent for eBC_{FF} and seen for 1.1% of the dataset compared to 0.1% for eBC_{BB}. Hence,
554 with a few exceptions, eBC_{BB} and eBC_{FF} co-appear.

555

556 3.3 Biogenic secondary organic aerosol - 2-methyltetrols

557 2-methyltetrols (here: sum of 2-methylerythritol and 2-methylthreitol) are primarily formed from the

558 acid-catalyzed multiphase chemistry of isoprene epoxydiols (IEPOX) (Surratt et al., 2010; Lin et al.,
559 2012; Cui et al., 2018), which are important low-NO_x oxidation products of isoprene (Paulot et al.,
560 2009), the biogenic volatile organic compound (500 Tg C yr⁻¹) emitted in highest amount globally
561 (Williams and Koppmann, 2007), and an important source of BSOA (Hallquist et al., 2009; Noziere et
562 al., 2015). Their low-level presence in the Arctic has been demonstrated in only a few studies covering
563 a few months (e.g., Fu et al., 2009a). We discuss their level, seasonality, sources, and LRT vs. local
564 formation over four consecutive years.

565 2-methyltetrol concentrations at Zeppelin were at the lower range of those reported in Europe
566 (Ion et al., 2005; Kourtchev et al., 2005; 2008 a,b), North-America (Cahill et al., 2006; Xia and Hopke;
567 200; Cui et al., 2018), South-America (Claeys et al., 2010) and Asia (Fu et al., 2010), and consistent
568 with levels observed at Alert in the Canadian Arctic (Fu et al., 2009a). The duration of the elevated 2-
569 methyltetrols concentrations during the peak of the inter annual cycle at Zeppelin appears quite like that
570 at the Birkenes Observatory (Southern Norway) 2300 km further south: with an onset in June and peak
571 concentrations in July and August, the time series at Zeppelin is delayed by half a month compared to
572 Birkenes (Fig. 6 in Yttri et al., 2021), although concentrations drop by mid-October at both sites. The
573 annual mean 2-methyltetrols concentration was 3 times lower at Zeppelin compared to Birkenes in 2017
574 and 5 in 2018. In 2019, the 2-methyltetrol level at Zeppelin increased by a factor of three compared to
575 2017 to 2018 and in 2020 by a factor of nine, and thus for 2020 the annual mean at Zeppelin (1.15 ng
576 m⁻³) was nearly twice as high as the highest annual mean seen at Birkenes (0.610 ng m⁻³ in 2018).

577 The atmospheric lifetime of isoprene is < 4 hours, whereas the lifetime of 2-methyltetrols is
578 unknown (Wennberg et al., 2018) and the amount attributed to formation from locally emitted isoprene
579 vs. LRT 2-methyltetrols remains an open question. The 2-methyltetrols level at Birkenes increase by
580 nearly a factor of 20 when leaves unfold in May (Yttri et al., 2021). Consequently, the effect of leaves
581 unfolding 0.5 to 1.5 months earlier in continental Europe (the leaves of *Betula Pubescens* unfold 2.1
582 days later pr. 100 km along a South to North transect in Europe; Rötzer and Chmielewski, 2001) does
583 not seem to have an influence, suggesting that the 2-methyltetrols level largely reflect local formation.
584 At Svalbard, there are no forests, and hardly any trees, still there is vegetation (including mosses and
585 lichens) that emit isoprene, that can have emission rates that are considerably higher than those observed
586 at Southern latitudes (Kramshøj, et al., 2016). Circumpolar land masses are situated further away from
587 Zeppelin than continental Europe from Birkenes, thus local formation of 2-methyltetrols might be
588 important also at Svalbard. Marine sources of isoprene cannot be excluded, particularly in remote marine
589 areas (Liakakou et al., 2007), although macro algae seem to favor dimethyl sulfide (DMS) formation
590 rather than isoprene in the Arctic (Dani and Loreto, 2017). Further, time series of 2-methyltetrols and
591 MSA at Zeppelin (Sharma et al., 2012) do not co-vary, suggesting a non-marine origin of 2-
592 methyltetrols.

593 The increased 2-methyltetrol level at Zeppelin in 2019 to 2020 occurred during summer. From
594 30 June to 11 of August 2020, weekly mean concentrations ranged from 5.9 to 28 ng m⁻³ for four out of

595 six weeks, being up to five times higher than the highest weekly mean at Birkenes (5.6 ng m^{-3}) for 2017
596 to 2018. We recognize that levoglucosan was elevated (1.0 to 6.0 ng m^{-3}) for these four weeks and that
597 air masses were influenced by WF emissions in Western Russia (Fig. 7; Sect. 3.5.1). We are left
598 speculating how WF might have augmented 2-methyltetrol levels. Isoprene emissions are enhanced by
599 increased temperature and a fire plume provides favorable conditions for BSOA formation and aerosol
600 surface area for condensation. Notably, 2-methyltetrols are semi volatile (Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2016)
601 and at high OA loadings increased partitioning to the aerosol phase will occur. Further, transport time
602 was short (Fig. S3), which is favorable concerning potential degradation of 2-methyltetrols. Increased
603 formation from local isoprene emissions is likely, as ambient temperature at Zeppelin was
604 unprecedentedly high in this period (See Sect 3.5.1 and Fig. 7 for details). The elevated 2-methyltetrol
605 concentration (3.7 ng m^{-3}) seen for the warm period in the beginning of July 2019 was not nearly as high
606 as for July and August 2020 and levoglucosan (0.04 ng m^{-3}) was not increased.

607 2-methyltetrols (here: ng C m^{-3}) contributed up to 0.34% to OC monthly in the NH-season in
608 2019 and 0.56% in 2020, being clearly higher compared to the two previous years (0.14% and 0.23%),
609 which in turn was higher than the highest monthly means at Birkenes (0.09% and 0.12%). Compared to
610 rural central Europe (0.68% in June) (Ion et al., 2005) and Boreal Forest Finland (0.88% in the July to
611 August transition) (Kourtchev et al., 2005), the highest contributions at Zeppelin in 2020 are slightly
612 lower.

613 Multi-year time series of 2-methyltetrols are rare, particularly in areas with low NO_x -
614 concentrations (Noziere et al., 2011; Cui et al., 2018). We find that the NH-season drop in the 2-
615 methylthreitol to 2-methylerythritol ratio was much more pronounced at Birkenes (0.36 ± 0.11) than at
616 Zeppelin (0.54 ± 0.12) (Table S6). A NH-season drop is also observed the Hyytiälä Observatory (Boreal
617 Forest Finland) (Kourtchev et al., 2005). Elevated ratios were observed at Zeppelin in July (0.83) and
618 August (0.70) 2020 when influenced by WF emissions, being substantially higher compared to July –
619 August (0.45 ± 0.04) of previous years. With the exceptions mentioned, the mean ratio for the NH-
620 season at Zeppelin agrees with the upper range (0.25 to 0.58) reported by others (Claeys et al., 2010).
621 This relates to the formation mechanism of 2-methyltetrols outlined by Bates et al. (2014), which shows
622 a 1:2 relationship between *cis*- β -IEPOX and *trans*- β -IEPOX, accounting for >97% of observed IEPOX,
623 and which are the precursors of 2-methylthreitol and 2-methylerythritol, respectively. Notably, 2-
624 methyltetrols can also result from the degradation of IEPOX-derived organosulfates through hydrolysis
625 of tertiary ones (Darer et al., 2011), however these species were not measured in the present study.

626 There are studies suggesting a biological (enzymatic) origin of 2-methyltetrols, as there is an
627 enantiomer excess of both 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol and 2-C-methyl-threitol (Noziere et al., 2011;
628 González et al., 2014; Jacobsen and Anthonsen, 2015). If the 2-methyltetrols formation was exclusively
629 abiotic, resulting from atmospheric oxidation of isoprene (Claeys et al., 2004), there would be a racemic
630 mixture of the 2-methyltetrols. This is consistent with the known production of the 2-methylerythritol
631 D-form by plants, algae, and microorganisms (Anthonsen et al., 1976, 1980; Dittrich and Angyal, 1988;

632 Ahmed et al., 1996; Duvold et al., 1997; Sagner et al., 1998; Enomoto et al., 2004). Consequently, it can
633 be questioned if 2-methyltetrols are exclusive tracers of BSOA from atmospheric oxidation of isoprene,
634 e.g., a 30 to 67% biological contribution was calculated for May to December for the Aspvreten site
635 (Sweden) (Noziere et al., 2011). Unfortunately, the analysis done in the present study does not allow for
636 a proper investigation of a potential biological contribution. Cahill et al. (2006) argued for a biological
637 source based on the correlation between 2-methyltetrol and the PBAP tracers glucose ($r^2 = 0.732$) and
638 fructose ($r^2 = 0.644$) for eleven samples. At Zeppelin, r^2 for 2-methyltetrols vs. fructose (0.951), glucose
639 (0.946) and arabitol (0.801) appears elevated in the NH-season but drops substantially ($r^2 = 0.052 -$
640 0.437) when excluding the extreme values in July and August 2020. At Birkenes, correlation was non-
641 existing ($r^2 = 0.000 - 0.025$). Source apportionment of CA by PMF at Birkenes showed that the factor
642 explaining 94% of the 2-methyltetrols explained only 6% of the PBAP tracers, and that the factor
643 explaining 89% of the PBAP tracers explained only 2.5% of the 2-methyltetrols (Yttri et al., 2021).
644 Hence, statistics do not argue for a common source of 2-methyltetrols, or a fraction of 2-methyltetrols,
645 and PBAP tracers. Further, 2-methylerythritol vs. 2-methylthreitol correlated highly both at Zeppelin (r^2
646 $= 0.971$) and at Birkenes ($r^2 = 0.889$), suggesting one dominating source (abiotic secondary formation),
647 corresponding to findings by El-Haddad et al. (2011). However, potential mechanisms by which
648 biologically formed 2-methyltetrols are released to the atmosphere are not known, thus a biological
649 contribution cannot be excluded.

650

651 **3.4 Primary biological aerosol particles**

652 The interest in PBAP has grown over the last two decades, with rising awareness of its contribution to
653 the OA budget (e.g., Waked et al. 2014; Yttri et al. 2021; Moschos et al., 2022) and as a source of warm
654 ice nucleating particles, deemed more important than cloud condensation nuclei regarding Arctic cloud
655 radiative properties (Solomon et al., 2018). We address a handful of PBAP tracers, discuss their levels,
656 seasonality, and sources, including cellulose, measured in Arctic aerosol for the first time.

657

658 **3.4.1 Sugars and sugar-alcohols**

659 Annual mean concentrations of sugars and sugar-alcohols were 1 to 2 orders of magnitude lower at
660 Zeppelin compared to Birkenes, reflecting the modestly vegetated Arctic and that PBAP mainly have a
661 local origin (Samaké et al., 2019). This contrasts with the factors for 2-methyltetrols (≤ 5), which are
662 secondarily formed species with a stronger regional character but might also relate to the temperature
663 sensitive high flux of biogenic volatile organic compounds for Arctic vegetation (Kramshøj et al., 2016).
664 Higher levels of primary biological organic aerosol (PBOA) at Gruvebadet (50 m asl), one km south of
665 Ny-Ålesund, compared to the Zeppelin Observatory (472 m asl) (Moschos et al., 2022) indicate a local
666 contribution associated with the more verdant lower altitude areas. However, maximum concentrations
667 of sugars and sugar-alcohols were observed for the LRT episode 22 – 27 July 2020 (Sect. 3.6.1),
668 explaining 29% of the annual sugars and sugar-alcohols loading. We are left speculating about the LRT

669 fraction of PBAP vs. that of local origin, but LRT likely makes a larger contribution to PBAP in the
670 Arctic than for more vegetated southerly biomes.

671 All species experienced a modest increase in June, coinciding with the onset of the growing
672 season, but evolved differently after that, suggesting a mixture of sources, highlighting the importance
673 of measuring a broad specter of PBAP tracers. Arabitol and mannitol were elevated throughout summer
674 before successively declining towards the end of the year, fructose and glucose started decreasing
675 immediately after the peak level in July, whereas trehalose experienced comparable levels from July to
676 November. Snow cover can be decisive for PBAP levels (Yttri et al., 2007 a, b) and probably more so
677 for the non-forested Arctic. However, our data does not explicitly demonstrate an influence of the snow
678 cover, e.g., the seasonality of trehalose (and cellulose; Sect 3.4.2).

679 The composition of sugars and sugar-alcohols at Zeppelin (Table 1) and Birkenes (Table S5)
680 varied, reflecting different biomes. Glucose was the most abundant sugar regardless of the season at
681 Zeppelin. At Birkenes, glucose dominated only in winter, while arabitol and mannitol were more
682 prominent in summer. Trehalose levels were comparable or slightly higher than arabitol and mannitol
683 at Zeppelin but lower at Birkenes. Samaké et al. (2020) showed how only a few genera of fungi and
684 bacteria were responsible for the sugar and sugar-alcohol containing PBAP in PM₁₀ filter samples at a
685 rural site in France, and that these were associated with leaves rather than soil material. This strong
686 association between sugars and sugar-alcohols and vegetation likely explain the very low levels of these
687 PBAP tracers at Zeppelin compared to Birkenes. Samaké et al. (2020) point to the fungus *Cladosporium*
688 *sp.* when explaining ambient aerosol levels of arabitol, mannitol and trehalose, as does Yttri et al.
689 (2007a) for Birkenes. The annual mean mannitol to arabitol ratio was comparable between Zeppelin (1.1
690 ± 0.5) and Birkenes (1.0 ± 0.0) (Table S6), and to values reported for the Nordic countries (Yttri et al.,
691 2011b). Mannitol and arabitol were highly correlated in the NH-season ($r^2 = 0.983$) when levels were
692 elevated, and mannitol to arabitol ratio variability minor, suggesting one common source dominating.
693 However, four samples with a mannitol to arabitol ratio ≥ 3 in the April to May transition could indicate
694 influence from another source. Mannitol is considered the most abundant naturally occurring polyol,
695 present and produced in a wide range of living organisms (Tonon et al., 2017), accounting for 25% of
696 the dry weight of macro algae for certain parts of the year (Horn et al., 2000), however, our data for
697 Zeppelin suggest that fungal spores are decisive for arabitol and mannitol present in the Arctic aerosol.
698 Assuming all mannitol was associated with fungal spores, their carbon content contributed $0.5 \pm 0.2\%$
699 to OC annually when applying the lower OC/mannitol ratio (5.2) of Bauer et al. (2002), whereas the
700 highest monthly mean was seen for September ($1.5 \pm 1.2\%$). The contribution reached 5% for only two
701 of the weekly samples. Using the higher OC/mannitol ratio (10.8), would double these estimates.

702 Glucose is a building block of natural dimers and polymers and a ubiquitous primary molecular
703 energy source, and thus an important PBAP. Small amounts of glucose are present in RWC emissions
704 (Nolte et al., 2001) and are increased in air masses influenced by forest fire smoke (Medeiros et al.,
705 2006). Notably, nine of the ten samples highest in glucose were also highly increased with respect to

706 levoglucosan and were all collected in the NH-season (Table S8), demonstrating WF as an important
707 source of glucose brought to the Arctic by LRT. A largely similar finding was made for the other sugars
708 and sugar-alcohols. Previous studies do not seem to link fungal related sugars and sugar-alcohols
709 (arabitol, mannitol, trehalose) with WF emissions (e.g., Table 5 in Medeiros et al., 2006), nor with RWC
710 emissions, e.g., levoglucosan and sugar-alcohols end up in different factors in PMF studies (Waked et
711 al., 2014; Yttri et al., 2021). This might partly be due to lack of correlation between levoglucosan and
712 sugar-alcohols for an entire data set. Indeed, low correlations between levoglucosan and sugar-alcohols
713 ($r^2_{\text{NH-season}} < 0.423$; $r^2_{\text{H-season}} < 0.056$) were obtained considering the entire data set for Zeppelin, although
714 the data presented in Table S8 clearly demonstrates a connection between WF and sugar-alcohols.

715 We estimated a 7 – 15% contribution of PBAP to OC annually, using an OC-to-PBAP_{Tracers}
716 emission ratio (ER) of 14.6 ± 2.1 (Zwaafink et al., 2022), derived from measurements in the Boreo-
717 nemoral zone (Yttri et al., 2021), keeping in mind that such an ER would be site specific.

718 719 **3.4.2 Cellulose**

720 Cellulose was the most abundant organic tracer analyzed (annual mean concentration of $2.2 \pm 0.6 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$)
721 ³), but levels were much lower than in rural areas of continental Europe (annual mean: $16.3 - 284 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$)
722 ³) (Sánchez-Ochoa et al., 2007; Brighty et al., 2022), likely due to sparse vegetation at Svalbard. The
723 highest monthly means were seen for June followed by October, but there was no pronounced
724 seasonality for cellulose as seen for the other PBAP tracers (Sect. 3.4.1). This corresponds with findings
725 made by Sánchez-Ochoa et al. (2007) who pointed to a minor seasonality “*with higher winter levels*
726 *than expected*”, and that of Puxbaum and Tenze-Kunit (2003) who associated increased cellulose levels
727 in spring with “*seed production and repulsing of other cellulose containing plant material*”, and
728 “*production of leaf litter*” in fall. High wind speed might be a driving force for generation and
729 entrainment of cellulose containing aerosol particles that is more pronounced in winter, and particularly
730 in the harsh Arctic climate, but possibly limited by snow cover. In the recent study by Brighty et al.
731 (2022), a clear seasonality was shown with increased levels in summer and fall at French and Swiss
732 rural sites.

733 Size distribution measurement of cellulose is limited and inconclusive, with highest
734 concentrations reported both for the fine (Puxbaum and Tenze-Kunit, 2003) and the coarse mode (Yttri
735 et al., 2011a; Brighty et al., 2022). Lack of comparable seasonality between nearby sites indicates that
736 local sources dominate (Brighty et al., 2022), but with a certain fraction associated with fine aerosol,
737 LRT is a possibility. Cellulose did not correlate with other PBAP tracers or levoglucosan, corresponding
738 to the findings by Brighty et al. (2022), but this does not exclude co-emission (see Sect. 3.4.1). A minor
739 fraction (0.08%) of RWC emissions was attributed to cellulose in a combustion study by Schmidl et al.
740 (2008), but we found no strong connection between the samples highest in cellulose and levoglucosan,
741 as we did for the other PBAP tracers and levoglucosan, nor between cellulose and the other PBAP tracers
742 (Table S8). The lack of resemblance between cellulose and other PBAP tracers and BB aerosol should

743 be explored further.

744 Cellulose (here: ng C m^{-3}) made a $1.0 \pm 0.3\%$ contribution to OC annually, corresponding to the
745 lower range reported for rural background sites along an east to west transect across Europe ($0.7 - 3.9\%$)
746 (Sánchez-Ochoa et al., 2007), but substantially lower compared to French ($3.2 \pm 2.4\%$) and Swiss
747 ($5.9 \pm 4.4\%$) rural background sites (Brighty et al., 2022).

748 The contribution of plant debris (here: ng C m^{-3}) was estimated from cellulose (Puxbaum and
749 Tenze Kunit, 2003; Yttri et al., 2011a,b) as a $2.0 \pm 0.6\%$ contribution to OC annually, and thus somewhat
750 higher than for fungal spores ($0.5 - 1.1\%$). On a monthly basis, 4 to 6% contributions were observed in
751 all seasons. Weekly samples ($n = 23$) with a high (5 to 12%) plant debris contribution were associated
752 with low OC levels (mean: 53 ng C m^{-3} ; 22 percentile). Plant debris and OC were correlated ($r^2 = 0.707$),
753 suggesting that plant debris is a driver of observed OC levels at low concentrations. We did not observe
754 a similar feature for fungal spores.

755

756 **3.5 Source apportionment of carbonaceous aerosol by Latin Hypercube Sampling**

757 Source apportionment of CA (here: TC) by the LHS approach showed that natural sources dominated
758 in the NH-season (85%) and anthropogenic in the H-season (73%), assuming all biomass burning
759 emissions originated from WF in the NH-season and from RWC in H-season (Fig. 5). Even without
760 attributing BB emissions to WF, natural sources still dominated in the NH-season (60%).

761 BSOA (56%) was the most abundant natural source in the NH-season, then WF (26%) and
762 PBAP (3.2%). Compared to previous studies (Yttri et al., 2011 a and b), we found a lower PBAP
763 fraction, which we attributed to the less vegetated Arctic environment. Note that the LHS approach
764 underestimate the PBAP fraction by only accounting for fungal spores and plant debris, apportioning a
765 part of PBAP to BSOA (Yttri et al., 2021). The PBAP fraction increased to 11% when using an OC-to-
766 $\text{PBAP}_{\text{Tracers}}$ emission ratio (ER) of 14.6 ± 2.1 (Zwaafink et al., 2022) including the sum of arabitol,
767 mannitol, glucose, and trehalose. Note that this ER was obtained from measurements in the boreo-
768 nemoral zone, and thus more representative of LRT than local PBAP sources.

769 RWC (46%) was the major fraction in the H-season followed by FF (27%) and BSOA (25%),
770 whereas PBAP (1.4%) was negligible, even when considering the upper estimate (2.7%) obtained using
771 the ER by (Zwaafink et al., 2022). The absence of 2-methyltetrols in winter indicated that BSOA was
772 formed from oxidation of mono- and sesquiterpenes and dimethyl sulfide, which seem more abundant
773 in the Arctic winter than oxidation products of isoprene (Fu et al., 2009a; Sharma et al., 2012). Further,
774 modelling studies suggest that increased condensation may explain wintertime BSOA (Simpson et al.,
775 2007), which might be particularly relevant for the low Arctic temperatures.

776 Our source apportionment results for Zeppelin aligns with findings from rural background sites
777 in Europe (e.g., Gelencsér et al., 2007; Genberg et al., 2011; Gilardoni et al., 2011; Glasius et al. 2017;
778 Yttri et al., 2011a), where RWC dominates during the H-season and BSOA dominate in the NH-season.
779 Rerunning the analysis using levoglucosan instead of ^{14}C -EC for apportionment of BB emissions,

780 lowered the contribution from WF in the NH-season from 26% to 4.4%. However, the contribution from
781 natural sources remained consistent, as BSOA accounted for the modern carbon redistributed from WF.
782 In the H-season, the contribution from RWC decreased from 46% to 8.9%, making BSOA (62%) and
783 natural sources (64%) the major fractions even in the H-season. Hence, the choice of tracer
784 (levoglucosan vs. ^{14}C -EC) would lead to different results and conclusions for Zeppelin.

785

786 **3.6 LRT episodes outside the AH period**

787 LRT episodes are decisive for CA levels and seasonality observed at Zeppelin. We analyzed in detail
788 the three episodes with the highest weekly means of OC, which also had three of the four highest weekly
789 means of EC (Figs. 6 to 8). All these episodes had air masses originating from NW Eurasia.

790

791 **3.6.1 Episode 1 (22 July to 27 July 2020) – WF, BSOA, and PBAP**

792 In transition July to August 2020, CA levels were high, with peak concentrations from 22 – 27 July
793 (2172 ng C m^{-3} for OC and $59 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ for EC). These levels were the highest in four years of
794 observations, explaining 21% of the annual OC loading, but only 7% of EC. However, levels were still
795 lower than the record high concentrations ($3.5 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ for OC and $0.24 \mu\text{g C m}^{-3}$ for EC) observed in
796 the April to May transition 2006, caused by emissions from wild and agricultural fires in Eastern Europe
797 (Stohl et al., 2007). All tracers (except cellulose) experienced maximum values during this episode, but
798 2-methyltetrols, glucose, fructose, and arabitol were the most elevated when compared to the long-term
799 annual mean and to the enhancement seen for OC. The FLEXPART footprint clearly shows an influence
800 from WF in the Khanty-Mansi district (Western Russia) (Fig. 7), corroborating to the high levoglucosan
801 concentration (6.0 ng m^{-3}). Source apportionment by PMF attributed 55% of eBC to BB, whereas
802 FLEXPART calculated 62%, with WF (95%) as the totally dominating fraction. Flaring was the
803 dominating fossil fuel source category according to FLEXPART, explaining 58% of BC from fossil fuel
804 sources.

805 The plume transport time from the source region to the Zeppelin Observatory was short; less
806 than 7 days for 67% of eBC observed at Zeppelin 25 to 27 of July (Fig. S3), whereas on average only
807 30% of the observed eBC reaches the Arctic station after such short time. This might have contributed
808 to the high level of 2-methyltetrols, which are indicated to have short atmospheric lifetimes (Yttri et al.,
809 2021), in addition to the arguments raised in section 3.3. Certain PBAP, such as fungal spores (Bauer et
810 al., 2002; Yttri et al., 2007a) are small enough to be transported over long distances, even between
811 continents (Prospero et al., 2005), and pyro convection might bring larger sized PBAP to altitudes that
812 enables LRT (e.g., Zwaafink et al., 2022). PBAP contributed 14% of OC, using the $\text{OC-to-PBAP}_{\text{Tracers}}$
813 ER by Zwaafink et al. (2022).

814 The high CA level coincided with a prolonged period (24 to 29 July) of high temperatures,
815 unprecedented since temperature measurements were initiated at Zeppelin (1998), caused by intrusions
816 of warm air masses from Siberia; $T > 10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 111 consecutive hours, mean $T = 14.5 \pm 1.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and

817 $T_{\text{Max}} = 18.2$ °C. A disproportionately strong warming of the Arctic compared to the midlatitudes could
818 create an important pathway of pollution to the Arctic (Stohl et al. 2007), and as for the LRT episode in
819 spring 2006 (Stohl et al., 2007), emissions from WF at lower latitudes were essential in the deterioration
820 of Arctic air quality also in July 2020.

821

822 **3.6.2 Episode 2 (28 Sep to 6 Oct 2017) – A bit of everything**

823 Air masses with a history over south-western Russia, eastern, central, and northern Europe (including
824 Scandinavia) (Fig. 8) increased the OC (549 ng C m^{-3}) and EC (52 ng C m^{-3}) concentrations at Zeppelin
825 to levels corresponding to 14% of their annual loading. Source apportionment by the LHS suggested
826 that BSOA (57%) and BB (32%) dominated CA (Table S4). Certain PBAP tracers (arabitol, mannitol
827 and trehalose) were enhanced beyond that of OC, reflecting the seasonal peak in fungal spores, but
828 PBAP contributed only 3% to CA (Table S4). An upper estimate of 13% was obtained using the OC-to-
829 $\text{PBAP}_{\text{Tracers}}$ ER by Zwaafink et al. (2022). PMF apportioned 47% of eBC to BB, comparing well with
830 FLEXPART (51%), (ascribing 62% of BB to WF) and LHS (58%). FLEXPART apportioned the
831 majority of BC from FF combustion to traffic (55%). The mean ambient temperature during the episode
832 was enhanced compared to the long-term mean, as seen for all three episodes described.

833

834 **3.6.3 Episode 3 (2 to 10 Oct 2020) – Wildfires and mineral dust**

835 This episode was studied by Zwaafink et al. (2022), combining surface and remote sensing
836 observations and transport model simulations to understand its origin and development, whereas we in
837 the present study focused on its carbonaceous aerosol content. Briefly, the EC level (78 ng C m^{-3}) was
838 the highest in four years of observations, whereas the OC level (818 ng C m^{-3}) was much lower than
839 observations made during the July 2020 (Sect 3.5.1) episode, explaining 15% and 13% of the annual
840 EC and OC loading, respectively (Fig. 9). Levoglucosan (5.0 ng m^{-3}) was the only organic tracer
841 elevated beyond that of OC, supporting FLEXPART calculations pointing to WF emissions in Ukraine
842 and southern Russia, as one of two major sources of air pollution for this episode. Source
843 apportionment of eBC by PMF indicated an almost equal share of eBC from BB (52%) and FF
844 combustion (48%), as do FLEXPART (BB = 57% and FF = 43%), with the majority of BB attributed
845 to WF (72%), and traffic being the major FF category (52%). Mixing with mineral dust emissions
846 from Central Asia en route, caused a mineral dust level of $1.9 - 2.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, likely explaining the
847 presence of carbonate (20 ng C m^{-3} ; $100 \text{ ng CO}_3^{2-} \text{ m}^{-3}$). Before entering the Arctic, the polluted air
848 masses deteriorated the air-quality in a large part of northern Europe, giving PM_{10} levels around 100
849 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and the same aerosol particle chemical signature as described for Zeppelin. These levels violate
850 EU air quality guidelines, which have daily mean limit values for PM_{10} of $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

851

852 **4 Implications**

853 Lack of long-term OA measurements has been a limitation for understanding Arctic aerosol mass

854 closure. Further, OA speciation needed for source attribution and for studying impact on cloud
855 condensation nuclei and ice nucleating particles are scarce. Our four-years study at Zeppelin
856 Observatory at Svalbard shed light on some of these topics, demonstrating that OA is a significant
857 fraction of the Arctic PM₁₀ aerosol particle mass, though less than sea salt aerosol and mineral dust, as
858 well as typically non-sea salt SO₄²⁻. LRT episodes in the non-heating season dominated by natural
859 emissions and their impact on OA levels, seasonality, and composition received particular focus,
860 showing that WF also contribute to high BSOA and PBAP levels in the Arctic environment. The fraction
861 of OA attributed to local sources vs. LRT is uncertain, particularly when experiencing intrusions of
862 warm air masses from Siberia, as certain Arctic vegetation species have highly temperature sensitive
863 biogenic volatile organic compounds emission rates. Arctic CA shares the same feature as CA in source
864 regions in the mid latitudes (e.g., Gelencsér et al., 2007), i.e., natural sources, particularly BSOA,
865 dominating in the non-heating season and anthropogenic emissions, predominantly RWC, in the heating
866 season. The nine-fold increase in 2-methyltetrols observed for 2020 could be a harbinger of CA from
867 natural sources increasing in the Arctic.

868 Contrary to both previous (Stohl et al., 2013; Winiger et al., 2019) and present (this study)
869 modeling and radiocarbon studies, PMF did not predict WF as the major source of eBC at Zeppelin
870 Observatory in the non-heating season. However, the predominant role of BC from WF emissions at
871 Northern latitudes stated by McCarty et al. (2021) was neither reflected by PMF nor by FLEXPART for
872 2017 to 2020. This calls for an investigation of whether the stated increase in BC from WF emissions
873 for 2010 – 2020 at Northern latitudes (McCarty et al., 2021) is reflected at Arctic ground level. Up to
874 two decades of stored multi wavelength aethalometer data for Arctic observatories, combined with the
875 outlined PMF approach enables such a trend study. Additionally, a pan-Arctic investigation is
876 encouraged for studying the spatial variability in eBC_{BB} and eBC_{FF}, facilitated by the inexpensive, high
877 time resolution multi wavelength Aethalometer measurements that are widespread across the Arctic
878 observatories (EU Action on Black Carbon in the Arctic, 2019). Increased anthropogenic activity such
879 as shipping oil and gas exploration in the Arctic, warrants further separation of eBC from FF combustion,
880 which can be attempted using additional high time resolution data as input to our analysis. This appears
881 particularly important for the flaring source, suggested by modelling to contribute 42% to the annual
882 mean BC surface concentration in the Arctic (Stohl et al., 2013), which yet remains to be confirmed by
883 observations.

884 Our study shows a wide variability amongst different methods in apportioning BC according to
885 FF and BB, warranting further investigation for a reliable abatement of sources relevant for BC in the
886 Arctic. Still, the high time resolution observational signal of eBC from BB and FF combustion derived
887 from Aethalometer measurements provide a hitherto unused tool important for assessing Arctic BC.

888 Continuation of the actual time series at Zeppelin Observatory is suited for revealing potential
889 changes in the relative source composition of Arctic CA, be it from altered transport or changes in
890 emissions. It is of special interest to monitor the frequency and magnitude of WF, how BSOA and PBAP

891 concentrations develop, and if FF emissions change from increased anthropogenic activity in the Polar
892 region.

893
894 **Data availability**

895 All data used in the present paper are open access and are available at <http://ebas.nilu.no/> (NILU,
896 2023), except radiocarbon data, which are presented in Rauber et al. (2023).

897
898 **Supplement**

899 The supplement related to this article is available online at:

900
901 **Author contributions**

902 SMP, KEY, and WA were responsible for conceptualizing the study. KEY wrote the original draft of
903 the paper. WAA, SE, and KEY produced the figures. AB was responsible for collection of aerosol filter
904 samples. HG analysed the organic tracers, MR and SS did the radiocarbon measurements, and AK-G
905 was responsible for the cellulose analysis. MF, KEY, CLM, and WA carried out data curation. NE and
906 SE did the FLEXPART modelling, whereas DS and MAY did the LHS calculations. SMP and KEY
907 undertook the formal analysis. JS, AG, and ZZ acquired resources. KT, CLM and WA acquired funding.
908 All co-authors contributed to writing, reviewing, and editing the final article.

909
910 **Competing interests:**

911 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

912
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931

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Table 1: Annual and seasonal mean concentrations of OC, OC_B (OC on backup filters) EC, TC, and organic tracers at Zeppelin Observatory, 2017 to 2020.

	OC (ng C m ⁻³)	OC _B (ng C m ⁻³)	EC (ng C m ⁻³)	TC (ng C m ⁻³)	Cellul. (ng m ⁻³)	Levo-gl. (pg m ⁻³)	Mannos. (pg m ⁻³)	Galactos. (pg m ⁻³)	Arabitol (pg m ⁻³)	Mannitol (pg m ⁻³)	Fructose (pg m ⁻³)	Glucose (pg m ⁻³)	Trehalose (pg m ⁻³)	2-methylery. (pg m ⁻³)	2-methylthr. (pg m ⁻³)
2017	121	32.9	11.6	132	2.1	465	53.5	18.7	99.7	115	80.9	250	140	99.2	43.7
DJF	99.6		14.8	116	2.1	862	120	38.1	29.5	29.7	130	106	31.7	5.6	3.5
MAM	128		20.8	149	2.1	83.4	11.9	3.5	7.7	15.1	32.4	123	64.0	6.1	3.8
JJA	94.5		3.5	97.6	1.6	160	33.2	10.8	70.2	93.1	58.6	189	154	205	87.6
SON	146		9.7	156	2.4	725	59.4	23.8	235	260	1051	484	251	134	59.7
2018	90.3	22.0	6.5	96.1	1.2	335	62.7	22.4	59.1	69.4	63.9	269	71.8	80.9	43.1
DJF	88.5		9.7	98.1	1.3	587	66.3	22.6	38.6	49.7	105	137	37.6	4.8	2.8
MAM	101		11.3	112	1.3	150	15.0	8.0	11.8	15.3	55.5	183	43.9	13.2	8.4
JJA	123		4.5	127	1.4	481	113	42.4	137	156	84.1	494	144	217	113
SON	48.3		3.0	50.3	0.9	236	52.7	14.8	31.7	38.9	32.2	176	39.2	38.4	21.8
2019	102	24.2	12.5	115	1.3	547	120	30.2	138	161	90.7	504	217	251	113
DJF	109		24.2	133	1.3	1124	152	38.6	27.0	18.4	62.0	583	47.4	7.1	5.5
MAM	79.0		15.1	94.1	1.2	127	198	5.6	10.7	17.0	49.2	209	135	6.5	4.0
JJA	169		9.2	178	1.6	530	181	47.8	265	306	107	707	250	812	366
SON	63.1		3.6	66.5	1.0	565	148	34.8	251	301	144	581	410	212	93.1
2020	197	32.6	16.3	214	1.6	919	175	54.7	242	172	179	808	188	644	502
DJF	85.9		14.5	101	1.5	1370	205	69.6	29.0	25.6	75.7	431	64.6	7.4	4.5
MAM	137		25.2	163	1.2	229	29.3	12.3	22.5	22.7	24.3	145	36.3	15.5	8.8
JJA	334		10.8	345	1.9	1292	299	86.2	659	415	473	2160	386	2350	1850
SON	202		13.7	216	2.1	963	188	58.8	226	207	129	424	260	47.5	24.0
Mean ±SD															
Annual	128±48.0	27.9±5.6	11.7±4.0	139±51.7	1.6±0.2	567±251	103±56.2	31.5±16.2	135±78.5	129±46.8	104±51.5	457±260	154±63.6	267±261	176±220
DJF	95.8±11.0		15.8±6.1	112±16.2	1.5±0.4	986±337	136±58.0	42.2±19.7	31.0±5.2	30.9±13.4	93.0±30.2	314±213	45.3±14.4	6.2±1.2	4.1±1.2
MAM	111±26.1		18.1±6.1	129±31.8	1.4±0.4	147±61.0	19.0±7.6	7.4±3.8	13.2±6.5	17.±3.6.	40.4±14.5	168±38.5	69.9±45.1	10.3±4.7	6.3±2.7
JJA	180±107		7.0±3.5	187±110	1.6±0.1	616±480	157±113	46.8±30.9	283±264	243±146	181±196	888±876	234±113	896±1010	604±839
SON	115±72.3		7.5±5.1	122±77.8	1.6±0.7	622±305	112±66.6	33.1±19.0	186±103	202±115	103±49.4	416±173	240±152	108±81.4	49.7±33.8
H-S	102±19.0		15.7±4.1	117±23.0	1.5±0.4	518±156	68.9±24.7	22.8±9.4	23.7±3.6	26.1±2.0	77.3±21.8	233±105	79±63	9.2±3.0	5.7±1.7
NH-S	152±75.0		7.6±3.3	163±86.0	1.7±0.5	622±374	152±111	41.4±25.3	258±160	246±108	148±115	703±472	235±96	555±530	360±445

Notations: H-S = Heating season (November to May); NH-S = Non-heating season (June - October)

Table 2: Estimated annual mean concentrations (eq. 1 – 7) of sea salt aerosol (SSA), mineral dust (MD), non-sea salt sulfate (nss-SO₄²⁻), organic matter (OM = OC × 2.2; Turpin and Lim, 2001), and elemental carbon (EC) at Zeppelin Observatory 2017 to 2020. Unit: ng m⁻³.

	SSA	MD¹⁾	nss-SO₄²⁻	OM	EC
2017	730	559	381	265	11.6
2018	618	279	243	199	6.5
2019	697	477	283	225	12.5
2020	684	1136	349	434	16.3
Mean ± SD	682 ± 46.9	613 ± 368	314 ± 62.6	281 ± 106	12 4.0

1) 3 μm EAD size fraction (10 μm EAD for other variables).

Table 3: Annual, heating season, and non-heating season contributions of BB and FF to eBC (PMF) and BC (FLEXPART). BB is denoted RWC in the heating season and WF in the non-heating season. Heating season and non-heating season contributions of levoglucosan are included. Zeppelin Observatory, 2017 to 2020. Unit: %.

	2017			2018			2019			2020			Mean \pm SD	
	PMF	FLEXPART		PMF	FLEXPART		PMF	FLEXPART		PMF	FLEXPART		PMF	FLEXPART
Annual														
eBC_{FF}/eBC	71	54	68	47	53	50	67	50	70	2.7	51	3.1	70	2.7
eBC_{BB}/eBC	29	46	32	53	47	50	33	50	30	2.7	49	3.1	30	2.7
Heating season														
eBC_{FF}/eBC	73	59	67	51	58	57	70	57	71	2.7	56	3.6	71	2.7
eBC_{RWC}/eBC	27	41	33	49	42	43	30	43	29	2.7	44	3.6	29	2.7
Non-heating season														
eBC_{FF}/eBC	65	43	72	35	41	37	58	37	67	6.7	39	3.3	67	6.7
eBC_{WF}/eBC	35	57	28	65	59	63	42	63	33	6.7	61	3.3	33	6.7
Seasonal/Annual														
eBC_{FF_H-S}/eBC_{FF}	77	73	80	80	79	74	75	74	77	1.8	77	3.8	77	1.8
eBC_{FF_NH-S}/eBC_{FF}	23	27	20	20	21	26	25	26	23	1.8	23	3.8	23	1.8
eBC_{RWC}/eBC_{BB}	69	58	83	68	65	55	65	55	74	8.2	62	6.0	74	8.2
eBC_{WF}/eBC_{BB}	31	42	17	32	35	45	35	45	26	8.2	38	6.0	26	8.2
Seasonal/Annual														
eBC_{FF_H-S}/eBC	55	39	54	38	42	37	50	37	54	2.8	39	2.4	54	2.8
eBC_{FF_NH-S}/eBC	16	14	14	9	11	13	17	13	16	1.2	12	2.3	16	1.2
eBC_{RWC}/eBC	20	27	26	36	31	28	22	28	22	2.7	30	4.1	22	2.7
eBC_{WF}/eBC	8.9	20	5.4	17	16	22	12	22	8.0	2.9	19	2.8	8.0	2.9

Notation: eBC = equivalent black carbon; FF = fossil fuel; BB = biomass burning; H-S = Heating season; NH-S = Non-heating season; WF = Wildfire; RWC = Residential wood combustion; For simplicity we state eBC for both PMF and FLEXPART methods, while the correct is BC for FLEXPART.

Table 4: BB and FF fractions of BC (monthly weighted) obtained by different approaches (PMF, FLEXPART, and Radiocarbon;LHS) for non-heating-season and heating season. Means are based on identical time periods (See Table S3).

Methodology	Annual		NH-season (JJASO)		H-season (NDJFMAM)	
	BC _{BB} /BC	BC _{FF} /BC	BC _{BB} /BC	BC _{FF} /BC	BC _{BB} /BC	BC _{FF} /BC
PMF	27 ± 14	73 ± 14	31 ± 11	69 ± 11	25 ± 16	75 ± 16
FLEXPART	45 ± 5	55 ± 5	48 ± 18	52 ± 18	42 ± 10	58 ± 10
Radiocarbon;LHS	61 ± 15	39 ± 15	67 ± 5	33 ± 5	57 ± 18	43 ± 18

Notation: For simplicity we state BC for all methods, while the correct is eBC for PMF, BC for FLEXPART, and EC for Radiocarbon;LHS.



Figure 1. The Zeppelin observatory located at the Zeppelin Mountain (472 m a.s.l.) close to the Ny-Ålesund settlement at Svalbard (78°54'0 N, 11°53'0 E) in: winter (left panel); summer (middle panel); The light-blue line on the map shows the Arctic Circle (66 °North) (right panel). (Foto: Ove Hermansen, NILU; Map: Finn Bjørklid, NILU).

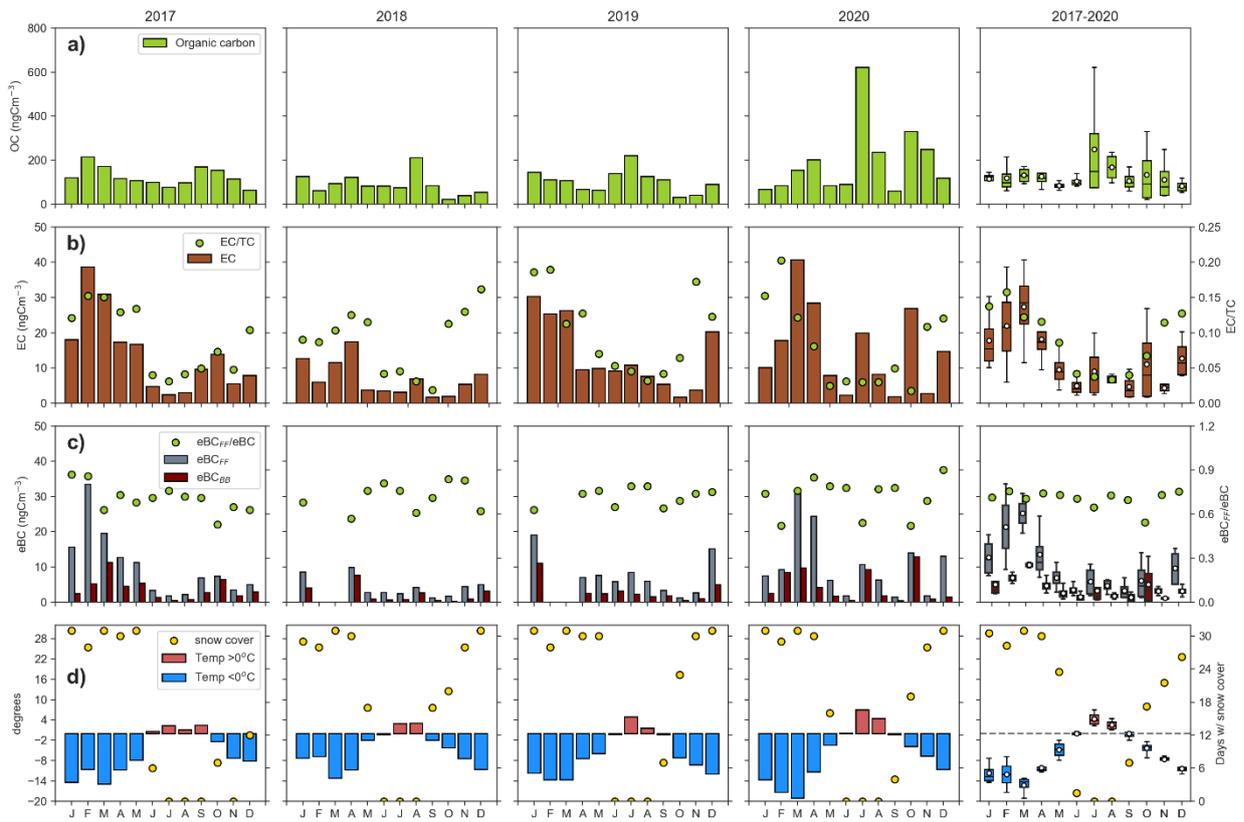


Figure 2. Panels show monthly mean concentrations for 2017 to 2020 and box plots (mean, 25, 50, 75 percentiles and IQR) for 2017 to 2020 at Zeppelin Observatory for a) OC; b) EC and EC/TC; c) eBC_{BB}, eBC_{FF}, and eBC_{FF}/eBC; d) Ambient temperature and days with snow on ground. Concentrations in a) - c) are measured in the PM₁₀ size fraction.

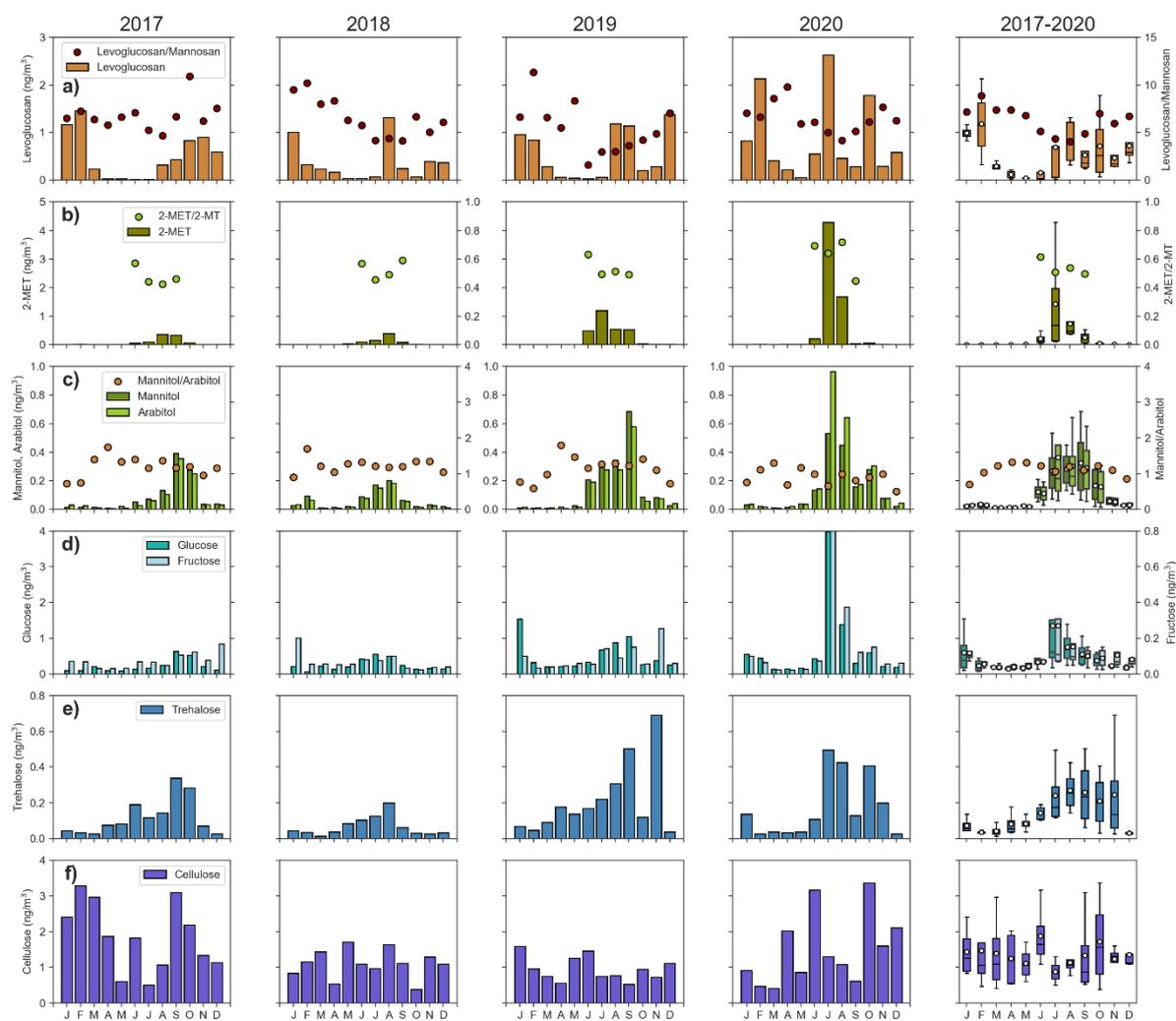


Figure 3. Panels show monthly mean concentrations for 2017 to 2020 and box plots (mean, 25, 50, 75 percentiles and IQR) for 2017 to 2020 at Zeppelin Observatory for a) Levoglucosan and levoglucosan/mannosan; b) 2-methylerythritol (2-MET) and 2-MT/2-MET; c) Mannitol and arabitol and mannitol/arabitol; d) Fructose and glucose; e) Trehalose; f) Cellulose. All variables are measured in the PM_{10} size fraction.

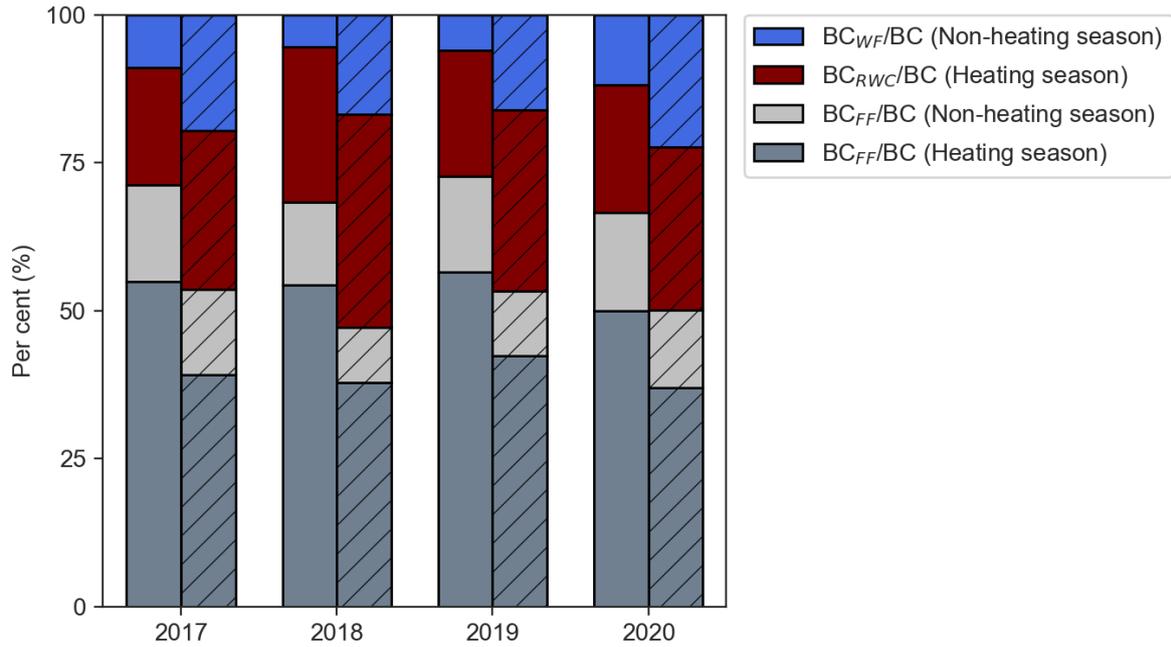


Figure 4. eBC (PMF) (without diagonal lines) and BC (FLEXPART) (with diagonal lines) apportioned to biomass burning (BB) and fossil (FF) fuel combustion according to heating season and non-heating season. BB is denoted wildfire (WF) in summer and residential wood combustion (RWC) in winter. Zeppelin Observatory (2017 to 2020). For simplicity we state BC for all methods, while the correct is eBC for PMF, BC for FLEXPART.

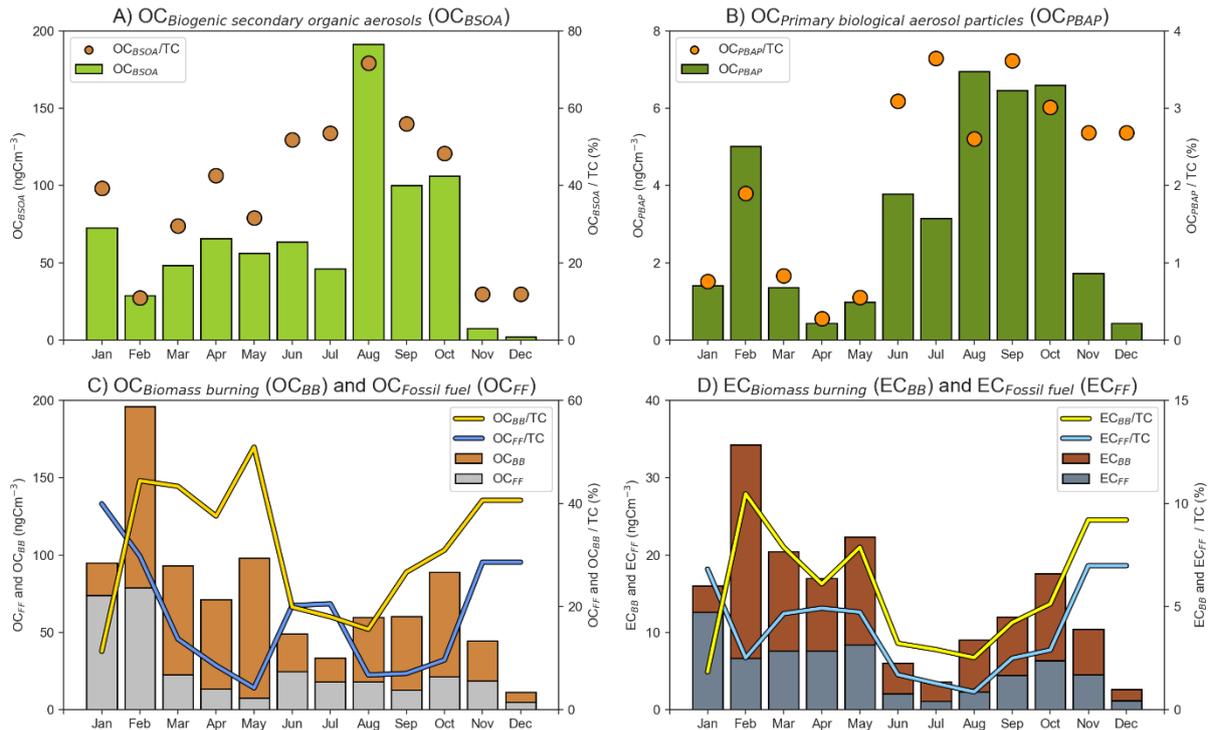


Figure 5. Source apportionment using the LHS approach (Sect. 2.7). Panels show monthly mean concentrations and relative contributions for samples collected in 2017 to 2018 at Zeppelin Observatory for A) Biogenic Secondary Organic Aerosol (OC_{BSOA}) and OC_{BSOA}/TC ; B) Primary Biological Aerosol Particles (OC_{PBAP}), being the sum of fungal spores (OC_{PBS}) and plant debris (OC_{PBC}), and OC_{PBAP}/TC ; C) Biomass burning (OC_{BB} , OC_{BB}/TC) and fossil fuel sources (OC_{FF} , OC_{FF}/TC ; D) Fossil fuel (EC_{FF} , EC_{FF}/TC) and biomass burning (EC_{BB} , EC_{BB}/TC).

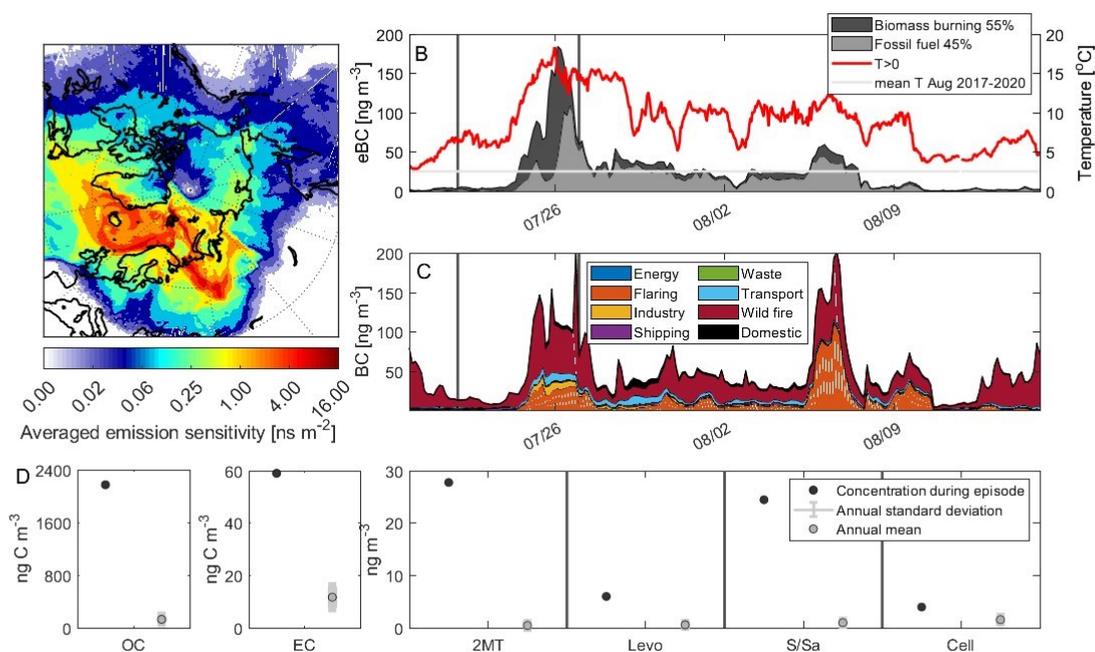


Figure 6. LRT episode at Zeppelin Observatory covered by filter sample collected 22 – 27.07.2020. A) Averaged footprint sensitivity for sample collected 22 – 27.07.2020; B) Hourly time series of eBC_{BB} and eBC_{FF} (PMF) and ambient temperature. The period covered by the filter sample is defined by the dark grey vertical lines; C) Hourly time series of modelled BC concentrations from different source categories; D) Concentrations of OC, EC, and organic tracers (2MT = 2-Methyltetrols; Levo = Levoglucosan; S and SA = Sugars and Sugar-alcohols; Cell = Cellulose) obtained for the filter sample compared to the long-term annual mean and its standard deviation.

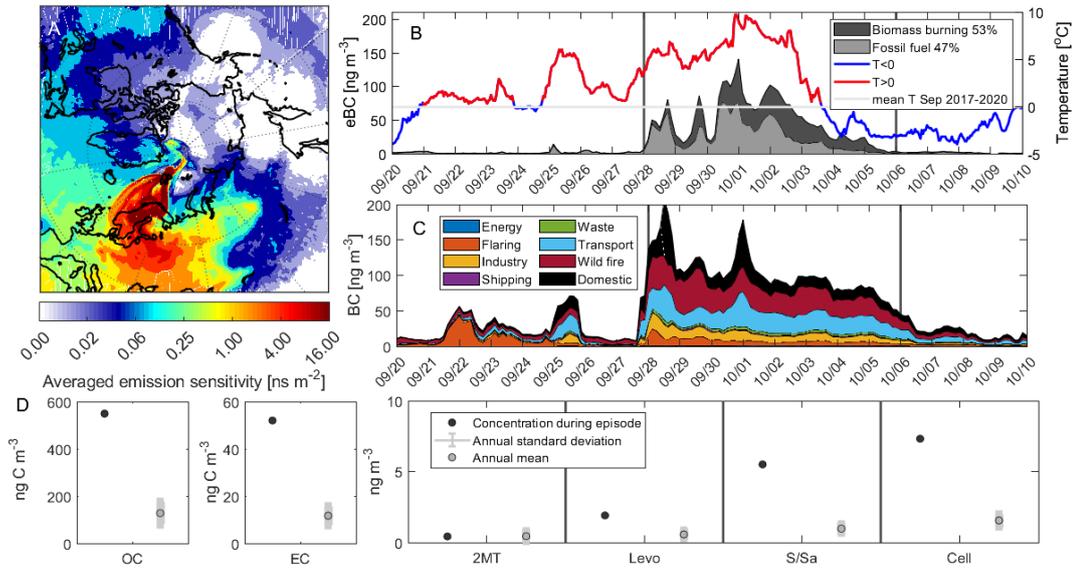


Figure 7. Same as Fig. 6, but for 28.09 – 06.10.2017.

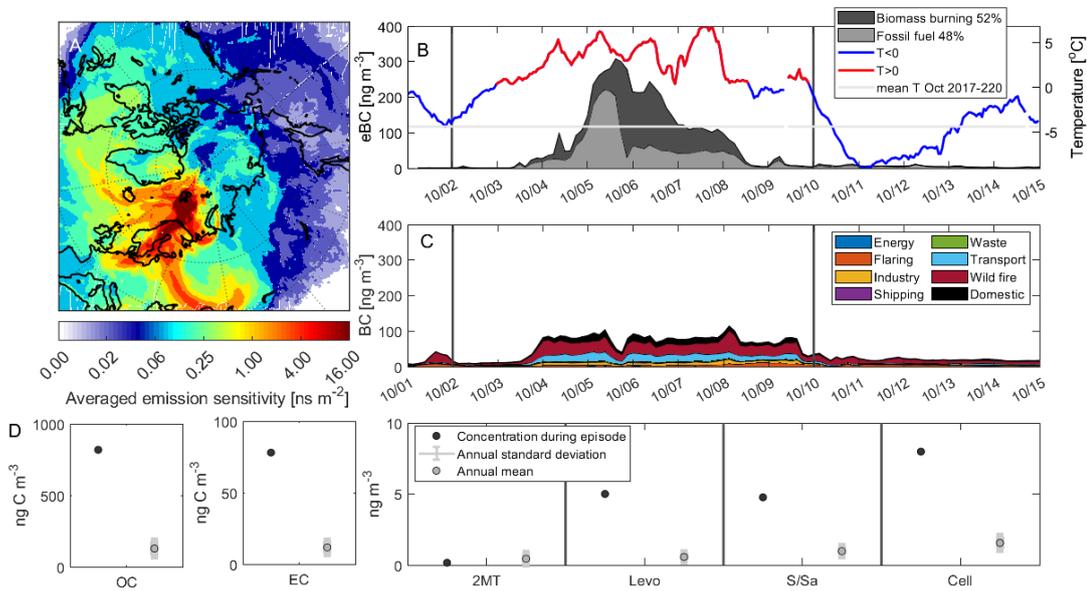


Figure 8. Same as Fig. 6, but for 2 – 10.10.2020.