

Environmental Processes

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Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons not declining in Arctic air despite global emission reduction

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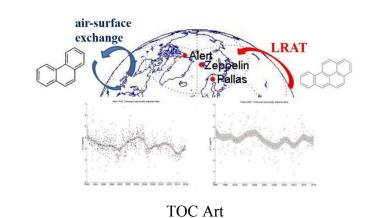
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28 Abstract

Two decades of atmospheric measurements of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) 29 were conducted at three Arctic sites, i.e., Alert, Canada; Zeppelin, Svalbard; and Pallas, 30 Finland. PAH concentrations decrease with increasing latitude in the order of 31 32 Pallas>Zeppelin>Alert. Forest fire was identified as an important contributing source. Three representative PAHs, phenanthrene (PHE), pyrene (PYR), and benzo(a)pyrene (BaP) 33 were selected for the assessment of their long-term trends. Significant decline of these 34 PAHs was not observed contradicting the expected decline due to PAH emission reductions. 35 A global 3-D transport model was employed to simulate the concentrations of these three 36 PAHs at the three sites. The model predicted that warming in the Arctic would cause the 37 air concentrations of PHE and PYR to increase in the Arctic atmosphere, while that of BaP, 38 which tends to be particle-bound, is less affected by temperature. The expected decline due 39 to the reduction of global PAH emissions is offset by the increment of volatilization caused 40 by warming. This work shows that this phenomenon may affect the environmental 41 occurrence of other anthropogenic substances, such as, the more volatile flame retardants 42 and pesticides. 43

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49 Introduction

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are an important class of organic pollutants 50 released into the environment primarily through incomplete combustion of fossil fuels and 51 biomass. They are of great public concern due to their toxicity and potential carcinogenicity. 52 PAHs can undergo long-range atmospheric transport (LRAT) to remote locations and are 53 listed for regulation under the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) 54 Aarhus Protocol on Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs) in the Convention on Long Range 55 Transboundary Air Pollution (CLRTAP)¹⁻³. Due to their tendency to travel over long 56 distances, PAHs are regularly detected in very remote areas, far away from primary sources. 57 As such, PAHs are ubiquitous in the Arctic environment. Levels of most regulated POPs 58 are declining over time in the Arctic environment, reflecting the effectiveness of national 59 and international emission control initiatives such as CLRTAP and the Stockholm 60 Convention on POPs^{4,5}. However, temporal trends of PAHs measured in various Arctic 61 media did not show consistent declining trends⁶⁻⁸, despite the estimated reduction in global 62 PAH emissions from 592,000 to 499,000 tonnes between 1995 and 2008⁹. Studies have 63 shown that PAHs measured in Arctic marine waters and sediments mainly originate from 64 natural underwater hydrocarbon seeps¹⁰⁻¹², while those measured in air originate from 65 atmospherically-derived sources, making the air the most suitable medium for PAH 66 monitoring to verify the outcome of regulations on PAH emissions. In addition, their 67 68 occurrence in the Arctic atmosphere is of particular importance because what is detected is the combined result of LRAT, continuous regional emissions (heating, industrial 69 70 activities), and temporary local emissions due to commercial and other activities (maritime 71 traffic, coal mining etc.). In a warming Arctic, PAH emissions due to increased human 72 activities within the Arctic may also increase.

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PAHs are characterized as "seasonal contaminants" as space heating is one of the most important sources, suggesting that their concentrations in winter are much higher than their respective levels during the warmer months. In addition, some PAHs are subject to photodegradation. With the extended winter darkness in the Arctic, PAHs can behave differently in the Arctic atmosphere than regions that experience a regular diurnal cycle of daylight¹³. For some of the above reasons, PAHs have been identified as emerging
contaminants in the Arctic⁶.

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The Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Programme (AMAP) investigated the occurrence of POPs in the Arctic atmosphere for three decades^{4,14}. Here, we use long-term measurement datasets (~20 years) of PAHs in Arctic air collected at three AMAP sites, i.e., Alert, Canada; Zeppelin, Svalbard; and Pallas, Finland, to assess sources, transport pathways and cycling of PAHs in Arctic air; and from their temporal trends try to evaluate the outcome of reduction in PAH global emissions.

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The Arctic is recognized as a key area for studying climate effect on pollutants due to its sensitivity to climate change. Climate change-driven processes, e.g., temperature, precipitations, and winds, may affect the LRAT and temporal trends of POPs in the Arctic atmosphere^{15,16}. One approach to test the relationship between climate change and the variation of POPs is by comparing modeling results and long-term monitoring data^{17,18}. These large datasets may help to provide greater insight on the influence of climate change on temporal trends of PAHs.

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97 Methods

98 **Sampling.** The locations of the sampling sites are shown in Figure S1. A super highvolume air sampler (SHV) was employed to collect air samples at the Alert Global 99 100 Atmosphere Watch Observatory, Nunavut, Canada (82.50°N, 62.33°W, 200 m a.s.l.) from 101 1992 to 2015. One 20-cm glass fiber filter (GFF) and two polyurethane foam (PUF) plugs (20 cm diameter, 4 cm thickness) were used to trap the particle and gas phase compounds 102 separately in approximately 13,500 m³ of air over a 7-day sampling period. In the 103 Norwegian-operated Zeppelin Observatory, Ny-Ålesund, Svalbard (78.91° N, 11.88° E, 104 105 478 m a.s.l.), a high-volume air sampler (HV) was employed to sample from 1994 to 2015. Two-day integrated weekly samples with a total sample volume of about 1200 m³ of air 106 were collected every week with one 11-cm GFF and two PUFs (11 cm in diameter and 5 107 108 cm in height). In Pallas, Finland (68.0°N, 24.24°E, 340 m a.s.l.), 7-day integrated (1996-2008) with a volume of \sim 4000 m³ and 30-day integrated (composite of 4 weekly samples) 109

110 (2009-2015) with a volume of \sim 16,000 m³ air samples were collected with a HV. One 14-111 cm GFF and three PUFs (11 cm diameter, 4.5 cm thickness) were used to collect the particle 112 and gaseous substances. The sampling frequency and extraction strategy may vary in

different years (Table S1), subject to availability of funds. The details about the analyticalprocedure and breakthrough can be found in the Supporting Information.

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Data and analysis. PAH concentrations of Alert are entered into the Research Data Management and Quality Control (RDMQTM) system which is a software system written in SAS for data management that include an extensive flagging system to highlight anomalies and to perform data quality checks. Data from all three sites were reported to the EBAS database (ebas.nilu.no). To ensure data quality, two large-scale inter-laboratory comparison studies were conducted for the analysis of trace organic chemicals in Arctic air and an air sample was shared among all participating laboratories ^{19,20}.

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Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF, version 5.0) model recommended by the USEPA was used to quantify the contribution of various emission sources to PAHs in the Arctic. For all PAH congeners, the specificity of unknown sources is excluded, and the congeners with weak signal to noise ratio and poor linear relationship were removed based on the PMF guideline²¹. PMF analysis was repeatedly run 20 times with 2 to 6 factors and then the results at the lowest Q value were output for analysis. The details about the PMF model can be found in the Supporting Information.

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Venier et al.²² compared four time series models, a modified Clausius-Clapeyron equation, a multiple linear regression, digital filtration, and dynamic harmonic regression (DHR). Of these, the DHR model exhibited best performance in fitting the data in the long-term time trends. Moreover, DHR can handle extreme values and time series breaks²³, e.g., the concentrations of PAHs in summer are much lower than those in winter. Therefore, DHR was applied to derive time trends here. A detailed description of the DHR can be found in the Supporting Information.

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Model Description. Canadian Model for Environmental Transport of Organochlorine 140 Pesticides (CanMETOP) was used to simulate the transport, deposition and degradation of 141 142 air pollutants from the surface up to 11 km, which successfully simulated the transport of PAHs²⁴ and pesticides^{25,26}. The model is driven by assimilated Canadian Meteorological 143 Centre (CMC) meteorological data, using a time step length of 30 minutes, spatial 144 resolution of 1° latitude \times 1° longitude, and 14 vertical levels to simulate daily mean 145 concentrations of selected PAHs from 1992 to 2015. Estimated global atmospheric 146 emissions of PAHs for 2004 were employed for the simulations.²⁷ By using an emission 147 inventory (from 2004) in the middle of the time period between 1992 and 2015, we can 148 eliminate the bias which may be introduced by a changing emission which is 149 unknown/uncertain for individual PAH and allow us to focus on the influence of climate 150 151 change. The details about the CanMETOP, including air-surface flux, sensitivity analysis, can be found in the Supporting Information. 152

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154 **Results and Discussion**

Air concentrations of PAHs. Details and data availability of PAHs at each site are 155 provided in Table S2. The concentration ranges and detection frequencies of PAHs at the 156 three Arctic sites are summarized in Table S3. In general, concentrations of most PAHs 157 decreased from the most southerly site of Pallas to the most northerly site of Alert in the 158 159 order of Pallas > Zeppelin > Alert, especially for lighter PAHs, e.g., phenanthrene (PHE), anthracene (ANT), fluoranthene (FLA) and pyrene (PYR). The concentrations of eight of 160 161 the targeted PAHs which were analyzed at all three sites during the sampling periods, i.e., 162 PHE, ANT, FLA, PYR, benzo(a)anthracene (BaA), benzo(a)pyrene (BaP), indeno(1,2,3c,d)pyrene (IcdP), and benzo(g,h,i)perylene (BghiP), are shown in Figure 1. The median 163 concentrations of Σ 8PAHs for Alert, Zeppelin and Pallas were 47.8, 76.0 and 404 pg/m³, 164 165 respectively. PHE, FLA, and PYR were the most abundant PAHs at all sites, accounting 166 for > 85% of Σ 8PAHs at Zeppelin and > 91% of Σ 8PAHs at the other two sites. The annual mean concentrations of Σ 8PAHs ranged from 49.0 to 363, 91.7 to 523, and 346 to 817 167 pg/m³ for Alert, Zeppelin, and Pallas, respectively. Higher concentrations of PAHs at 168 Pallas compared to those at Alert and Zeppelin are likely due to Pallas being closer to 169 human settlements than the other two sites. 170

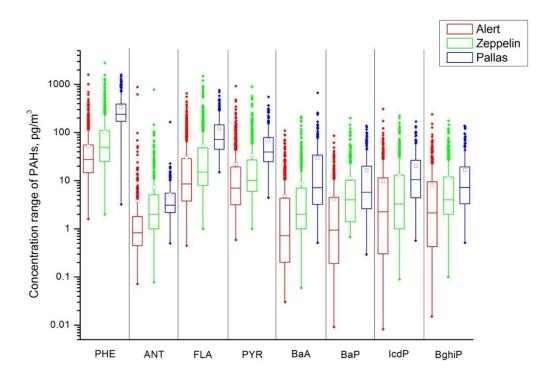


Figure 1. Box-and-whisker plots of 8 PAHs at the three sites during the sampling periods. The
boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentiles of the data. The lines in the boxes and square symbols
represent the median and the mean, respectively. All the outliers beyond the whiskers are shown
individually. Non-detects are not reported in this figure.

176

177 By separating the sampling periods into two parts, i.e. warm seasons (from May to October) and cold seasons (November to April), the seasonality of PAHs was assessed. As shown in 178 179 Tables S4-S6 and Figure S2, the concentrations and detection frequencies of PAHs in cold, dark seasons are much higher than those in warm, sunny seasons. Specifically, high 180 181 concentrations of PAHs were always measured in winter months, especially from December to February (Figure S3), which is consistent with previous studies^{23,28,29}. 182 According to the back trajectory analysis, the air arriving at Alert in these three months 183 includes more air masses originating from Russia than other months (Figure S4). The other 184 two sites are more impacted by air masses coming from Northern Europe and Northwest 185 Russia during December to February compared with the other nine months. 186

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Temporal Trends. Two representative PAHs, namely PHE and PYR, were chosen for temporal trend assessment due to their high concentrations and detection frequencies

compared with the other PAHs. BaP was also selected for trend assessment due to its 190 toxicological importance and significantly different physical-chemical properties from 191 192 PHE and PYR (Table S2) which would render differences in their atmospheric transport pathways. Data of BaP was sufficient only at Pallas for this assessment. Temporal trends 193 of PAHs were assessed with the Dynamic Harmonic Regression (DHR) model using full 194 datasets collected at the three sites, i.e. from 1992 to 2015 for Alert, from 1994 to 2015 for 195 Zeppelin, and 1996 to 2015 for Pallas (Figure 2 and Figure S5). Since PAHs are "seasonal 196 contaminants", the Seasonal Kendall test was performed for the statistical significance of 197 the trends (Z_{SK}) of selected PAHs. Negative Z_{SK} values mean a decline and positive Z_{SK} 198 values mean an increase, and p-values are used to confirm if the trends were statistically 199 significant. Becker et al.²³ previously investigated the occurrence and trends of PAHs in 200 201 the Canadian Arctic atmosphere from 1992 to 2000, and revealed a significant decrease of PAHs throughout the 1990s, e.g., the Z_{SK} for PHE and PYR were -3.39 and -2.97 (p<0.01), 202 respectively. In this study, with 15 more years of data, the temporal trends at Alert showed 203 great variability since 2001. For PHE and PYR, the concentrations at Alert were found to 204 205 increase significantly between 2001 and 2005 to levels similar to those observed in the early 1990s with Z_{SK} of 2.82 (p<0.01) and 2.57 (p=0.01), respectively. From 2006 to 2015, 206 207 they increase and decline again to a lesser extent but generally have no significant trend $(Z_{SK}=-0.94, p>0.05; Z_{SK}=-1.57, p>0.05)$. The complex trends since 2001 at Alert are 208 209 mainly due to the much higher concentrations in summers during 2003 to 2005, which could be associated with the relatively more frequent active forest fire events in Canada, 210 Alaska and Greenland during these years (Figure S6). Similarly, higher PAH 211 concentrations were observed in the summer of 2015 (Figure 2 and Figure S5) which 212 213 coincide with more frequent forest fires during that year in the same regions (Figure S6). Retene (RET) is an ideal tracer of forest fire activity, high levels of RET were found during 214 2003 to 2005 and 2015 (Figure S5), which confirm the contribution of forest fire events. 215 At Zeppelin, significant declining trends were found for PHE and PYR between 1994 and 216 2001 (Z_{SK} =-2.11, p<0.05; Z_{SK} =-3.11, p<0.01), which is similar to Alert. Between 2002 and 217 2015, PHE and PYR seem to have reached a steady-state at Zeppelin (Z_{SK} =-1.79, p>0.05; 218 Z_{SK} =1.61, p>0.05). At Pallas, PHE and BaP were relatively stable over the two decades 219 $(Z_{SK}=-1.72, p>0.05; Z_{SK}=-1.38, p>0.05)$. Significant decline was found for PYR ($Z_{SK}=-$ 220

2.37, p<0.05) which is mainly due to high concentrations in the first year of sampling; there 221 is no significant trend for 1997 to 2015 (Z_{SK} =-1.58, p>0.05). According to an estimation, 222 223 the global emission of PAHs declined significantly from 1992 to 2015, especially in developed countries9. However, PAHs found in air at Arctic sites did not seem to reflect 224 this reduction in PAH emissions. In the last decade, human activities in the Arctic, for 225 example resource exploration, research, tourism, fisheries and maritime traffic, have 226 increased substantially due to warming and the corresponding reduction of sea ice, opening 227 up new shipping routes³⁰. Such activities are potential new local sources of PAHs in the 228 229 Arctic.

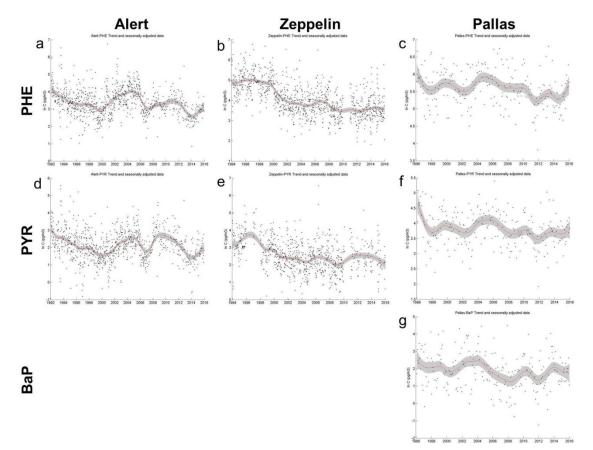


Figure 2. Long-term trends of (a, b, c) PHE and (d, e, f) PYR at three sites and (g) BaP at Pallas.

To better assess this, here we examine whether the sources of PAHs changed during these years using a combination of PAH molecular diagnostic ratios and positive matrix factorization (PMF). Both techniques have been used widely over the years, and even though their limitations are known, when used in combination, it is possible to reduce their

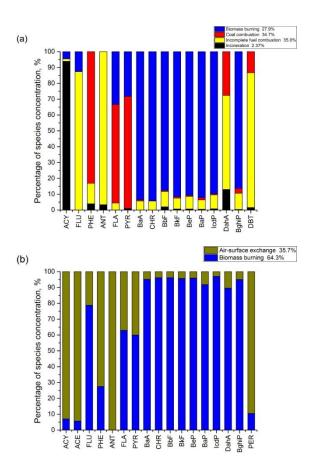
inherent weaknesses and strengthen the conclusions on potential sources and trends^{3,13,31,32}. 237 The PAH ratios, e.g., PHE to the sum of PHE and ANT [PHE/(PHE+ANT)] and FLA to 238 239 the sum of FLA and PYR [FLA/(FLA+PYR)], are widely used for source identification and, in particular, in order to understand if PAHs are mainly emitted from petroleum 240 sources, or from combustion processes^{33,34}. Figure S7 shows the variations of the 241 PHE/(PHE+ANT) and FLA/(FLA+PYR) ratios over the sampling periods for the three 242 sites. The calculated ratios at Pallas and Zeppelin were relatively constant, suggesting the 243 sources of PAHs might not have changed significantly. Variations of PAH ratios were 244 observed at Alert. The ratios of PHE/(PHE+ANT) were increasing and ratios of 245 FLA/(FLA+PYR) were decreasing (especially after 2005), indicating that the sources shift 246 from combustion of coal and wood to petroleum slowly, e.g., vehicle emissions. The ratios 247 of FLA/(FLA+PYR) at Zeppelin and Pallas are significantly higher than those at Alert 248 (t<0.01), which may be reflective of the continued use of coal-fired power plants in Europe. 249 This may also explain the non-declining/slow declining trends for PHE and PYR at these 250 two sites after the early 2000s. 251

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Figure 3 shows the factor fingerprint obtained from PMF for the three sites. Detailed 253 254 explanations for the factor source attribution are given in the Supporting Information. PMF was applied to the Alert dataset separately for two time periods; four factors were identified 255 256 for 1992-2003 but only two factors were found for 2004-2015 confirming a source shift at this site. After 2004, biomass burning, with high loads of 5-6 ring PAHs including IcdP 257 258 and BghiP³⁵, become Factor 1 [representing 64.3% of the sum of the measured PAHs $(\Sigma PAHs)$] which coincides with the increase in active forest fire events in 2003 to 2005. 259 Factor 2 (35.7% of Σ PAHs) is dominated by more volatile 3-4 ring PAHs with very slight 260 contributions from heavier 5-6 ring PAHs which seems to reflect air-surface exchange. 261 Factor 3 for Zeppelin (10.3% of Σ PAHs) can also be attributed as air-surface exchange. 262 Volatilization of PAHs from surfaces, such as ocean, snow, ice, permafrost and soil, may 263 264 have become more important in recent years due to retreating sea ice and general warming in the arctic region. Coal combustion was no longer identified as a factor after 2004 at 265 Alert. Coal combustion, which is usually identified by high loadings of PHE, ANT, FLU, 266 FLA³⁶ and moderate loadings of 5-6 ring PAHs BbF, BkF, BaP, BghiP and IcdP³⁵ was 267

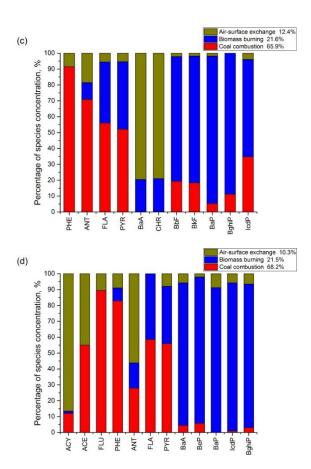
268 identified as Factor 1 for both Pallas and Zeppelin, and Factor 3 for Alert before 2004, which accounted for 65.9%, 68.2% and 34.7% of Σ PAHs, respectively. This observation 269 reaffirmed that coal-fire power plants were still major sources of PAHs for the two 270 271 European sites. Sofowote et al. identified petroleum/petrogenic emissions as a major source of PAHs at a sub-Arctic site, attributed to local oil/gas exploration and LRAT³⁷. Alert is 272 located at the highest latitude among the three sites and receives air mass more evenly from 273 North America and Eurasia (Figure S4), and therefore may provide a more general 274 275 reflection of changes in energy usage pattern.

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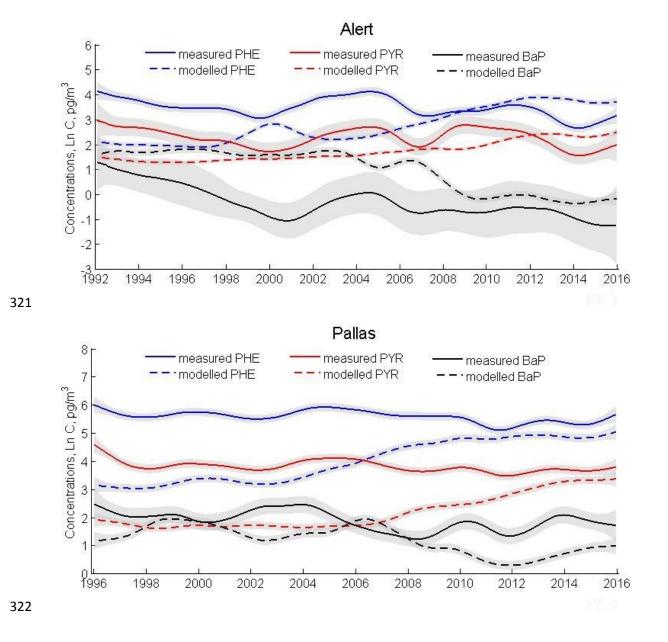
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Figure 3. Factor Fingerprints for (a) Alert (1992-2003), (b) Alert (2004-2015), (c) Pallas (1996-2015), and (d) Zeppelin (1994-2015).

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Model Simulation. The changing energy usage pattern is not able to interpret atmospheric 284 trends of PAHs in the Arctic completely. We used a global numerical model, the 285 CanMETOP to simulate the transport and occurrences of the three selected PAHs, i.e. PHE, 286 PYR, and BaP. Figure 4 shows the trends of the monthly mean concentrations of the 287 288 measured and modelled PAHs derived by DHR at the three Arctic sites during their sampling times. As shown in Figure 4, it underestimates the concentrations of PHE and 289 PYR in the1990s by less than one order of magnitude for Alert and Zeppelin, but by 13-17 290 times for Pallas. A modelling sensitivity analysis (Table S7) indicates that the uncertainty 291 292 in emission inventory affects modelling results at the Pallas site slightly more than the other two sites. The great discrepancy between the modelled and measured PAHs at Pallas could 293 294 be associated with the actual emissions in these years being higher than the emissions of 2004²⁷ which we employed as input for the model. The simulated concentrations of PHE 295

296 increased significantly over the ~ 20 years at the three sites, whereas simulated PYR exhibited different trends; increasing concentrations only became apparent since 2008. 297 298 This difference is probably due to the higher volatility of PHE (Henry's Law constant (H) = 4.78 Pa·m³·mol⁻¹ at 25 °C) compared to PYR (H = 2.13 Pa·m³·mol⁻¹ at 25 °C) (Table 299 S2). Warming within and around the Arctic region would enhance volatilization from 300 301 surfaces and render higher simulated concentrations of PHE and PYR in the Arctic atmosphere. Figure S8 shows the annual mean of modeled net air-surface flux. The air-302 303 surface exchange switched from net deposition to net volatilization around 2005 and the net air-surface flux increased rapidly since then, which accounted for the increment of the 304 simulated concentrations. This observation also corresponds well with the PMF result 305 which identified air-surface exchange as Factor 2 after 2004 at Alert and Factor 3 for 306 Zeppelin. Meanwhile, it explains that the measured concentrations of PHE and PYR did 307 not decrease substantially even though the global emissions declined significantly during 308 the last two decades⁹. The expected decline is offset by the increment caused by greater 309 volatilization due to warming, especially in recent years. Casal et al. measured PAH air-310 surface exchange from 2013 to 2014 at a coastal Arctic site (Tromso, 69° N) and they found 311 that PAHs were in volatilization zone in warm seasons and in equilibrium zone in cold 312 seasons³⁸. The overall simulated concentrations of BaP match the observations well and 313 showed a decreasing trend (Figure 4). Heavier PAHs like BaP are less influenced by 314 temperature due to their relatively low volatility (H=0.20 Pa·m³·mol⁻¹ at 25 °C), but these 315 particle-bound chemicals are subject to LRAT as they can be protected by organic coatings 316 on aerosols³⁹, and thus the simulation of BaP is more accurate than PHE and PYR. Our 317 conclusions are consistent with Friedman et al.¹⁵ where they evaluated the influence of 318 2000-2050 climate and emission changes on three atmospheric PAHs transport to the 319 320 Arctic.



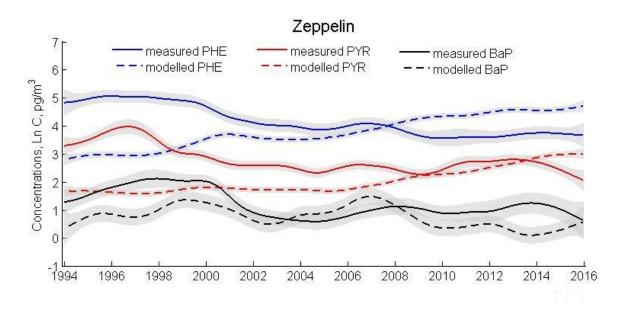


Figure 4. Trends of monthly mean concentrations of three PAHs (measured and simulated) at three
sites. The shade represents the standard deviations of the trends.

327 Simulated concentrations of PHE at two high-latitude sites, Alert and Zeppelin, increased from 1998 to 2000, likely due to the warming phase during those years and the modelling 328 sensitivity to temperature (Figure S9, Table S7), whereas a slight increase was found at 329 Pallas (Table S8), which is consistent with the conclusion by Ding et al.⁴⁰ that the most 330 prominent warming in the Arctic occurred in northeastern Canada and Greenland. This 331 observation shows that Arctic sites are useful in investigating the influence of climate 332 change on the occurrence of PAHs and other contaminants. The highest annual mean 333 temperatures over the ~20 years at Alert were observed in 1998 and 2001 (Figure S9), 334 when the model predicted a period of rising concentrations of PHE in air at Alert. Moreover, 335 simulated concentrations of PYR slightly increased but no such increase was found for BaP 336 (Table S8) due to its lower H (Table S2) resulting in a lower tendency to volatilize from 337 oceans and ice-covered surfaces. The second rising period, for both PHE and PYR, were 338 found after 2008. The Arctic sea ice was drastically reduced in this century, specifically, it 339 reached a minimum record in 2007 and 2012⁴¹⁻⁴³. The more volatile PAHs, PHE and PYR, 340 can be released from the melting Arctic ice and the recently opened ocean (Table S7). 341 Simulated concentration ranges of PHE and PYR are smaller than that observed at Alert 342 and Zeppelin, indicating that there might be some local sources, such as military base at 343 344 Alert, science stations at Ny-Ålesund and shipping emissions.

In summary, two decades of measurements of PAHs in air at Arctic sites did not show a 346 347 significant decreasing trend that one would have expected to occur relating to a global reduction of PAH emissions. Model simulation indicates that climate change may enhance 348 the volatilization of lighter PAHs and thus alter the expected decline. In view of increasing 349 PAH emissions due to human activities in the North as a result of warming, e.g. increased 350 shipping, tourism, and resource development activities, both direct and indirect climate 351 change impacts of contaminant cycling in the Arctic environment must be considered in 352 assessing environmental and health risks. While efforts should continue to reduce PAH 353 emissions, monitoring of PAHs and other chemicals of emerging arctic concern is essential 354 to better understand climate change influence on the occurrence and transport of these 355 356 contaminants to and within the Arctic. To simulate the concentrations of PAHs more accurately, scientists should continue to update the emission inventory bearing in mind the 357 effect of climate change, in particular, with forest fire as an increasingly important source. 358

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371 Supporting Information Available

A description of potential in sample breakthrough, DHR, the CanMETOP, air-surface
exchange, model evaluation, and PMF results is given in the Supporting Information.
Tables and figures summarize concentrations, trends, seasonality, ratios, factor profiles of

375 PAHs at the three sites. This information is available free of charge via the Internet at

376 http://pubs.acs.org

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- 382 Notes
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- 384

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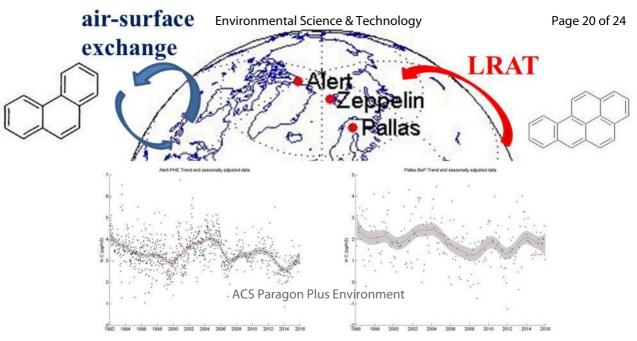
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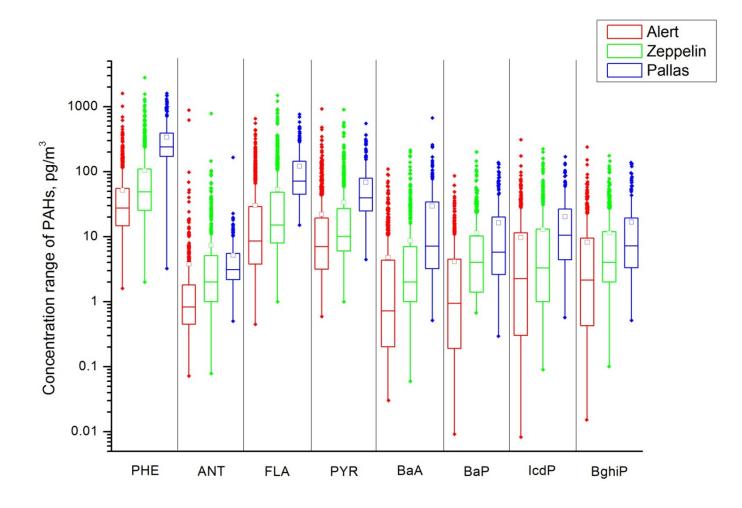


Figure 1. Box-and-whisker plots of 8 PAHs at the three sites during the sampling periods. The boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentiles of the data. The lines in the boxes and square symbols represent the median and the mean, respectively. All the outliers beyond the whiskers are shown individually. Non-detects are not reported in this figure.

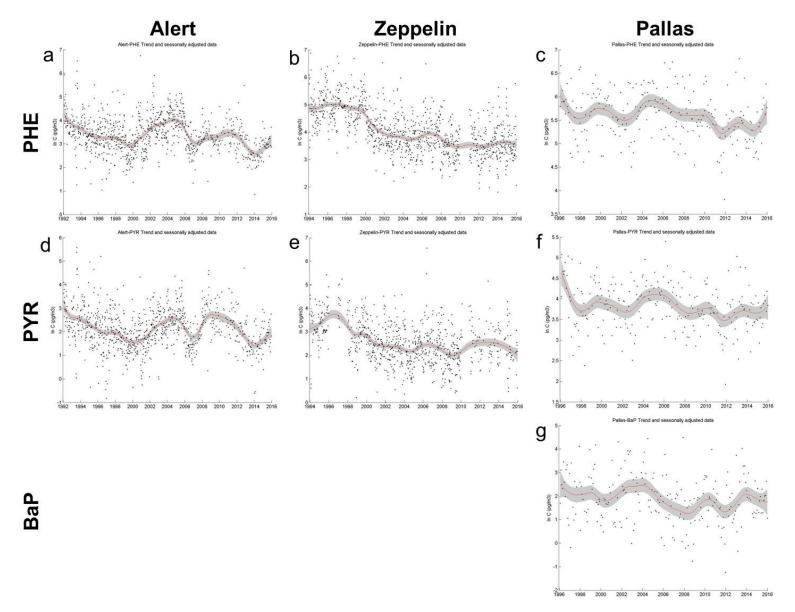


Figure 2. Long-term trends of (a, b, c) PHE and (d, e, f) PYR at three sites and (g) BaP at Pallas.

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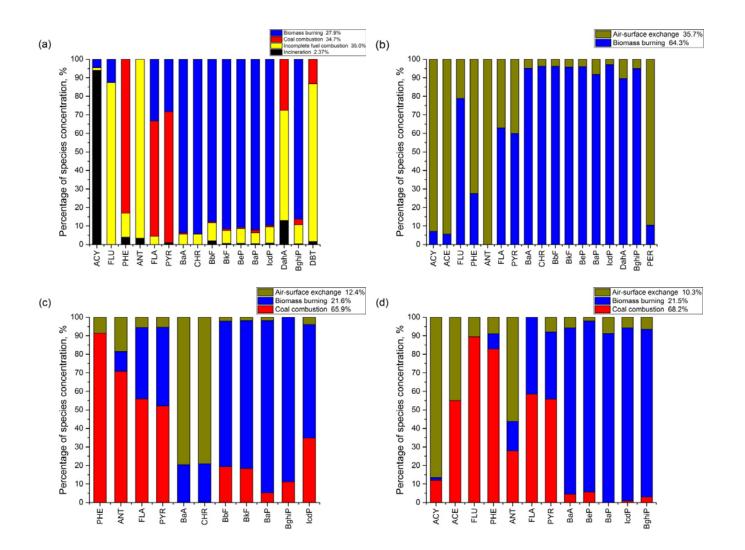


Figure 3. Factor Fingerprints for (a) Alert (1992-2003), (b) Alert (2004-2015), (c) Pallas (1996-2015), and (d) Zeppelin (1994-2015).

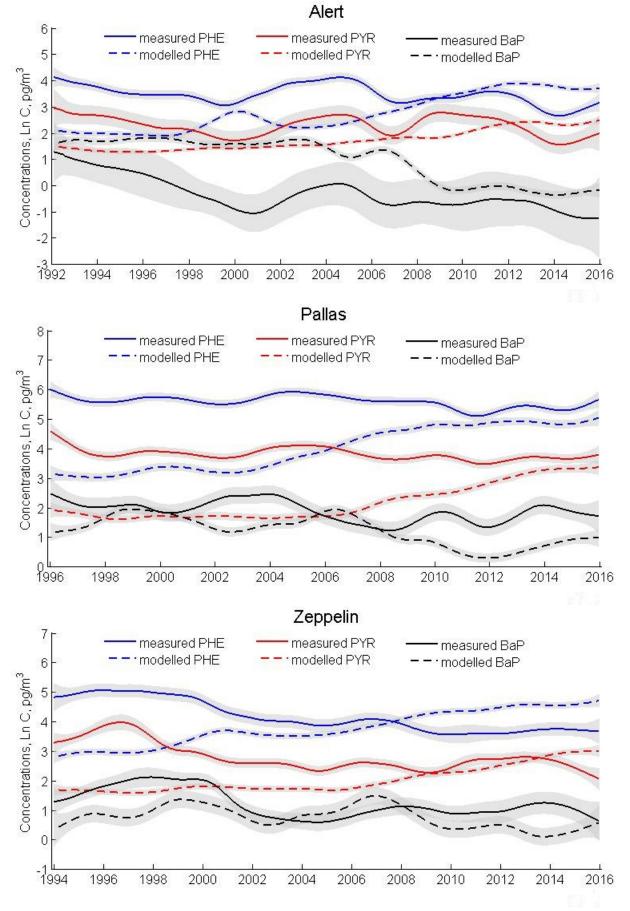


Figure 4. Trends of monthly mean concentrations of three PAHs (measured and simulated) at three sites. The shade represents the standard deviations of the trends.