

# 1 **Surface gas pollutants in Lhasa, a highland city of Tibet:**

## 2 **Current levels and pollution implications**

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13

### 14 **Abstract**

15 Through several years of development, the city of Lhasa has become one of the most  
16 populated and urbanized areas on the highest plateau in the world. In the process of  
17 urbanization, current and potential air quality issues have been gradually concerned. To  
18 investigate the current status of air pollution in Lhasa, various gas pollutants including NO<sub>x</sub>,  
19 CO, SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> were continuously measured from June 2012 to May 2013 at an urban site  
20 (29.40° N, 91.08° E, 3650 m a.s.l.). The seasonal variations of primary gas pollutants exhibited  
21 a peak from November to January with a large variability. High mixing ratios of primary trace  
22 gases almost exclusively occurred under low wind speed and showed no distinct dependence  
23 on wind direction, implying local urban emissions to be predominant. A comparison of NO<sub>2</sub>,  
24 CO and SO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios in summer between 1998 and 2012 indicated a significant increase  
25 in emissions of these gas pollutants and a change in their intercorrelations, as a result of a  
26 substantial growth in the demand of energy consumption using fossil fuels instead of  
27 previously widely used biomass. The pronounced diurnal double peaks of primary trace gases  
28 in all seasons suggested automobile exhaust to be a major emission source in Lhasa. The  
29 secondary gas pollutant O<sub>3</sub> displayed an average diurnal cycle of a shallow flat peak for about

1 4-5 hours in the afternoon and a minimum in the early morning. Nighttime O<sub>3</sub> was sometimes  
2 completely consumed by the high level of NO<sub>x</sub>. Seasonally, the variations of O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios  
3 displayed a low valley in winter and a peak in spring. In autumn and winter, transport largely  
4 contributed to the observed O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios, given its dependence on wind speed and wind  
5 direction, while in spring and summer photochemistry played an important role. A more  
6 efficient buildup of O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios in the morning and a higher peak in the afternoon was  
7 found in summer 2012 than in 1998. An enhancement in O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios would be expected  
8 in the future and more attention should be given to O<sub>3</sub> photochemistry in response to  
9 increasing precursor emissions in this area.

10

## 11 **1 Introduction**

12 The Tibetan plateau, with an average altitude of about 4000 m, is the highest plateau in the  
13 world. The capital city of Tibet, Lhasa, is one of the most populated and urbanized areas in  
14 this region. Lhasa lies on the northern bank of the Lhasa River in the Lhasa River Valley,  
15 which runs west to east and is surrounded by mountains. There are currently 200 thousand  
16 inhabitants and a floating population of nearly 400 thousand within an urban area of about 63  
17 km<sup>2</sup>. The number of automobiles in Lhasa was already over 150 thousand at the end of 2012.

18 In Lhasa, gas pollutants including nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>=NO+NO<sub>2</sub>), carbon monoxide (CO),  
19 sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are mainly from automobile  
20 exhaust, heating, kitchen, small light industries and incense burning in temples. At a high  
21 altitude above 3650 m, the absolute content of oxygen in Lhasa is about 68% of that at the sea  
22 level. Incomplete fuel combustion in the low oxygen-containing atmosphere (Chaffin and  
23 Ullman, 1994; Bishop et al., 2001; Nagpure et al., 2011), as well as the rapidly increasing  
24 vehicles undoubtedly enhances atmospheric pollutants of vehicular origin. These atmospheric  
25 pollutants impair the visibility and degrade the air quality. Moreover, the secondary gas  
26 pollutant ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) can be generated by its precursors NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs in the presence of  
27 sunlight (e.g., Haagen-Smit, 1952; Haagen-Smit et al., 1953; Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998).  
28 Surface O<sub>3</sub> pollution is one of the most stubborn and pervasive environmental problems in the  
29 world. At a high mixing ratio, O<sub>3</sub> is harmful to human health and the ecosystem (Chameides  
30 et al., 1994; Jacobson, 2002). With a high production potential of OH radicals over the  
31 Tibetan Plateau, where the solar radiation is strong due to the high altitude as well as the low  
32 latitude and the background mixing ratio of ozone is high, the atmosphere in Lhasa was

1 expected to be very photochemically active (Lin et al., 2008). A concern should thereby be  
2 raised on the O<sub>3</sub> problem, given the increasing emissions of O<sub>3</sub> precursors in the process of  
3 urbanization.

4 Most efforts have previously been exerted on exploring the O<sub>3</sub> valley and O<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles  
5 over the Tibetan Plateau by satellite observations (Guo et al., 2012), ozone sondes (Shi et al.,  
6 2000; Tobo et al., 2008; Bian et al., 2012) and model simulations (Liu et al., 2003; Tang and  
7 Prather, 2012). Investigations on surface trace gases have rarely been reported for Lhasa, the  
8 rapidly growing capital city of Tibet (Yu et al., 2001; Zhou et al., 2001; Tang et al., 2002;  
9 Dechen et al., 2008). In comparison with many other cities in China (He et al., 2002 and the  
10 references therein), air quality in Lhasa was quite fine. The level of air pollutants in Lhasa has  
11 never exceeded the national air quality standards according to the reports of the local  
12 environment protection bureau. However, with thriving tourism and economy in the process  
13 of urbanization, more and more pollutants are expected to be accumulated within the city due  
14 to the valley topography. In this paper, analysis of systematically collected data of surface O<sub>3</sub>,  
15 NO<sub>x</sub>, CO and SO<sub>2</sub> during one year is presented and discussed. The observational site and  
16 instruments are described in section 2. An overview of meteorology is given in section 3.1.  
17 Seasonal and diurnal variations of the gas pollutants are presented in section 3.2, followed by  
18 a discussion on how meteorology could influence the observed mixing ratios of gas pollutants  
19 in section 3.3. A possible impact of urbanization on air quality in Lhasa in past decades is  
20 discussed in section 4.

21

## 22 **2 Observations**

### 23 **2.1 The Site**

24 Lhasa sits in a flat river valley in the Himalaya Mountains (Fig. 1a). Located at the bottom of  
25 a small basin surrounded by the Himalaya Mountains, Lhasa has an elevation of about 3650 m  
26 and lies in the center of the Tibetan Plateau with the surrounding mountains rising to 5500 m.  
27 The Lhasa River (or Kyi Chu), a tributary of the Yarlung Zangbo River, runs through the  
28 southern part of the city. The marshlands, mostly uninhabited, are to the north of the city.  
29 Ingress and egress roads run east and west.

30 The observational site (29.40° N, 91.08° E, 3650 m a.s.l.) for this study is at a meteorological

1 and atmospheric composition monitoring station, located in a residential and commercial area  
2 in urban Lhasa (Fig. 1b). The site is about 2 km east of the famous Potala Palace. There are  
3 also another two famous temples (Jokhang Temple and Ramoche Temple) within the  
4 surrounding 1 km<sup>2</sup> of the site. In addition, measurements of trace gases were also conducted  
5 in summer 1998 at a suburban site to the east of the city centre (29.65 °N, 91.16 °E, 3650 m  
6 a.s.l.). This suburban site was located in large areas of farms with sparsely interspersed  
7 residency 15 years ago, but now already within the populated areas of Lhasa after its  
8 continuous expansion and development.

## 9 **2.2 Instruments and Data**

10 Surface trace gases were continuously monitored for one year from June 2012 to May 2013,  
11 using commercial instruments installed on top of a 20 meter high building at the site.  
12 Observations of CO and SO<sub>2</sub> started from August 2012. Missing CO data from April 28, 2013  
13 to May 16, 2013 was due to a malfunction of the CO analyzer.

14 A UV photometric analyzer (Model 49C) from Thermo Electron Corporation (TE, USA) was  
15 used to determine the O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios. CO was measured with a gas filter correlation  
16 analyzer (TE 48CTL). SO<sub>2</sub> was measured with a pulsed fluorescence analyzer (TE 43CTL).  
17 EC9841B/ECOTECH nitrogen oxides analyzer with a heated molybdenum NO<sub>2</sub> to NO  
18 converter and the chemiluminescence technique was used to simultaneously quantify mixing  
19 ratios of NO and NO<sub>x</sub>. According to USEPA recommendations on quality assurance and  
20 quality control (USEPA, 2008), multipoint calibrations were operated every month using a  
21 dynamic gas calibrator (Gascal 1100, Ecotech, Australia) and a zero air supplier (Eco Physics  
22 PAG003, Switzerland), together with the standard reference gas mixture (NO/CO/SO<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub>).  
23 The O<sub>3</sub> analyzer was calibrated using a TE 49CPS calibrator, which is a reference for the  
24 WMO regional GAW stations in China and traceable to the WMO NIST standard.  
25 Particularly, zero checks for the CO analyzer were automatically performed every 2 hours to  
26 record zero drifts, using the SOFNOCAT 514 oxidation catalyst (Molecular Products Asia  
27 Ltd, UK) and a 3-way solenoid valve. Ambient mixing ratios of trace gases were recorded as  
28 1-minute averages (ppb).

29 Meteorological data were obtained from an Automatic Weather Station at the site. Wind  
30 speed and wind direction were measured at 10 meter height, reported as 10-minute average  
31 wind speed and 10-minute smoothing wind direction based on 1-second sampling data for

1 each hour. Other parameters including temperature, relative humidity and precipitation were  
2 observed at 1.5 meter height and reported in hourly averages. Cloud amount was recorded  
3 four times each day, respectively at 0:00, 06:00, 12:00 and 18:00 LT (Local Time).

4 At the suburban site, measurements of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and SO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios were carried out  
5 from June to September 1998 on top of a 3-storey building (Tang et al., 2002). As for O<sub>3</sub> and  
6 CO, the same measurement principles and similar quality control procedures were used in  
7 both 1998 and 2012, with a linear uncertainty of about 2%. O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios were measured  
8 by a UV photometric analyzer (TE 49C), which was calibrated using a TE 49CPS calibrator.  
9 CO gas correlation filter (GFC, Advanced Pollution Instruments Inc, USA) with the non-  
10 dispersive infrared (NDIR) technique was used to monitor the low level of CO mixing ratios.  
11 Also due to the extremely low level of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios in Lhasa at that time, the  
12 air was sampled for 4170 minutes by filter-based samplers every 3 to 4 days. Mixing ratios of  
13 NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> were quantified in the laboratory by the DX-500 ion chromatography system  
14 (Dionex, USA) and reported in ppb (the lowest detect limits were 0.03 ppb and 0.02 ppb,  
15 respectively for SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>).

### 17 **3 Results and Discussion**

#### 18 **3.1 An overview of Meteorology**

19 Situated on the Tibetan Plateau, Lhasa has a very high level of ultraviolet radiation, especially  
20 in the summer, due to the high altitude, the low latitude and the tenuous atmosphere (Pu Bu et  
21 al., 1997; Ren et al., 1999; Norsang et al., 2009). With strong solar radiation in the daytime,  
22 the maximum air temperature could still reach as high as 15.8°C even in the coldest month  
23 January, when the average air temperature was below zero and the minimum was -11.4 °C.  
24 The highest monthly average of 18.1°C and daily maximum of 28.9°C were found in June.  
25 The weather in the rainy season from May to September was generally warm, humid and  
26 cloudy. Monthly averages of the temperature and relative humidity ranged from 13.3 ± 5.2°C  
27 to 18.1 ± 4.4°C and from 41% to 60%, respectively. In the rainy season, the precipitation  
28 amounted to 368 mm, about 94% of the total amount in the year (Fig. 2). Despite the large  
29 amount of frequently observed precipitation in the rainy season, particularly in summer from  
30 June to August, most of the precipitation occurred at night (18:00-06:00 LT), accounting for  
31 84% of the total amount during this period. In the rest of the year, it was usually dry and

1 cloud-free. There was hardly any precipitation from October to March. During this period,  
2 around 46% of the days were clear in the daytime based on the cloud amount, while at night  
3 the fraction rose to about 74%. Monthly averages of the temperature and relative humidity  
4 ranged respectively from  $-0.1 \pm 5.8^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $10.6 \pm 5.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  and from 14% to 27% in the dry period.  
5 The frequency of wind direction in each season is displayed in Fig. 3 by the wind rose. Wind  
6 direction was mainly found in the WSW-WNW and ENE-ESE sector (Fig. 3a), as a result of  
7 the orientation of the Lhasa River Valley. The mountains to the north and south of the city  
8 significantly inhibited winds in these directions, especially those with a wind speed above  
9 2 m/s. The frequency of northerly winds was though comparable with that of easterly or  
10 westerly winds, the wind speed of northerly winds was exclusively under 2 m/s (Fig. 3b). The  
11 observed 10-minute average wind speed was mostly smaller than 2 m/s (close to 65%), with  
12 the annual average occurrence of calm conditions to be about 10% and the frequency of wind  
13 speed larger than 2 m/s around 25%. High wind speed was usually observed in the afternoon  
14 in summer and autumn.

### 15 **3.2 Seasonal and diurnal variations of gas pollutants**

16 Monthly averages of  $\text{O}_3$ , Ox ( $\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2$ ), NO,  $\text{NO}_x$ , CO and  $\text{SO}_2$  mixing ratios are displayed in  
17 Fig. 4. Ozone and total oxidant Ox exhibited similar seasonal variations, with the peak in  
18 spring and the low valley in winter. The maximum monthly mean mixing ratios of  $\text{O}_3$  and Ox  
19 were observed in May, respectively as  $56.8 \pm 10.1$  ppb and  $70.1 \pm 10.6$  ppb. The highest  
20 monthly  $\text{O}_3$  average mixing ratio observed in Lhasa was slightly higher than that of  $54.8 \pm$   
21  $18.1$  ppb observed in June 2007 at a rural site Gucheng, which was thought to have good  
22 regional representativeness of the North China Plain, one of the most polluted regions in the  
23 world (Lin et al., 2009). The highest hourly  $\text{O}_3$  mixing ratio of 90.6 ppb in Lhasa was also  
24 observed in May, while in another more industrialized high altitude urban area, the Mexico  
25 City, hourly ozone mixing ratios could easily exceeded 120 ppbv (Molina and Molina, 2004;  
26 Lei et al., 2008). The lowest monthly mean mixing ratios of  $\text{O}_3$  and Ox were  $22.9 \pm 4.0$  ppb in  
27 December and  $39.5 \pm 4.1$  ppb in January.

28 The air in Lhasa was mostly polluted from November to January with respect to the levels of  
29  $\text{SO}_2$  ( $2.72 \pm 2.05$  ppb) and  $\text{O}_3$  precursors  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $29.58 \pm 16.16$  ppb) and CO ( $570 \pm 300$  ppb),  
30 possibly as a result of slowed removal processes, increased emissions and accumulation

1 within the boundary layer. The mixing ratios of SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> precursors during the most  
2 polluted season in Lhasa were at least less than half of that in urban Mexico City based on  
3 yearly averages (Molina and Molina, 2004; Stephens et al., 2008), since Lhasa is less  
4 populated and industrialized than the Mexico City. In the rest of the year, SO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NO<sub>x</sub>  
5 averaged  $0.77 \pm 0.61$  ppb,  $363 \pm 94$  ppb, and  $17.10 \pm 6.19$  ppb, respectively. The highest daily  
6 mean mixing ratios of SO<sub>2</sub>, CO, NO, and NO<sub>x</sub> were respectively 14.50 ppb, 2097 ppb, 74.12  
7 ppb, and 97.2 ppb, occurring on December 18, 2012.

8 Diurnal variations of O<sub>3</sub>, O<sub>x</sub>, NO, NO<sub>x</sub>, CO and SO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios in spring (March-May),  
9 summer (June-August), autumn (September-November) and winter (December-February) are  
10 plotted in Fig. 5. The diurnal cycle of O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios averagely exhibited a shallow flat peak  
11 for about 4-5 hours in the afternoon and a minimum in the early morning throughout the year.  
12 O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios reached about 57 ppb in the afternoon (12:00-17:00 LT) in spring, when  
13 meteorological conditions favored O<sub>3</sub> photochemical production. In summer and autumn, the  
14 O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios averaged over the afternoon were close to 48 ppb, and the lowest average  
15 value was observed in winter as 37 ppb. Nighttime O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios were much higher in  
16 spring and summer than in autumn and winter, which was mainly attributed to a large amount  
17 of NO emissions from heating and the more stable surface layer under relatively lower wind  
18 speed in the cold weather (see Figure 3). As for other gas pollutants, pronounced double  
19 peaks in the diurnal variations could be clearly identified in all seasons. The morning peaks  
20 (around 7:00 LT) and the evening peaks (around 20:00 LT) resulted from enhanced traffic  
21 emissions in the rush hours as well as the diurnal variations of the boundary layer. Mixing  
22 ratios of O<sub>3</sub> precursors and SO<sub>2</sub> were found to be highly variable during the rush hours and the  
23 night, especially in autumn and winter. The ceasing of photochemical reactions and the  
24 formation of the boundary layer should be responsible for a stronger evening peak compared  
25 to the morning peak.

### 26 **3.3 Influences of meteorology on gas pollutants**

27 As for the secondary gas pollutant O<sub>3</sub>, meteorology could exert an influence on the ambient  
28 mixing ratios by transport and accelerating or decelerating the photochemical reactions. In  
29 spring and summer, the weather was generally warm and sunny in the daytime, favoring O<sub>3</sub>  
30 photochemical production. No distinct dependence of O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios on wind speed and  
31 wind direction was found in spring and summer (figure not shown here), suggesting that O<sub>3</sub>

1 photochemistry might play an important role in the observed mixing ratios. Although ozone  
2 photochemical production should be higher in summer than in spring, the average O<sub>3</sub> mixing  
3 ratio was lower in summer than in spring as mentioned in section 3.2. This suggests that the  
4 large-scale background of O<sub>3</sub> in spring (Monks, 2000) also plays a role in the observed  
5 surface O<sub>3</sub> in Lhasa. Under the influence of the Asian summer monsoon, more precipitation  
6 occurs and inhibits the formation and accumulation of O<sub>3</sub>, since precipitation could efficiently  
7 remove O<sub>3</sub> and its precursors from the troposphere (Ma et al., 2014). Occasionally, O<sub>3</sub>  
8 pollution events could be observed at night in spring when easterly winds above 2 m/s  
9 prevailed for several hours and brought in O<sub>3</sub>-rich air. A pollution event is defined here as the  
10 hourly average mixing ratio exceeding 80 ppb for O<sub>3</sub>, 50 ppb for NO<sub>x</sub>, 1000 ppb for CO and  
11 10 ppb for SO<sub>2</sub>. The average mixing ratios of the traces gases under thus defined polluted  
12 conditions and non-polluted conditions are accordingly given in Table 1. The exceedance  
13 frequency (%) based on hourly averages is given in the brackets. The occurrence of O<sub>3</sub>  
14 pollution events were only found in spring and summer, majorly in the afternoon in spring. In  
15 autumn and winter, the transport process instead of the photochemical process probably made  
16 a major contribution to the ambient O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios. On average, the O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios were  
17 found to be nearly 10 ppb higher in the SW-NW sector than in other directions. With  
18 increasing wind speed, the mixing ratios of O<sub>3</sub> also slightly increased.

19 The dependence of primary gas pollutants on wind followed a similar pattern throughout the  
20 year (figure not shown here). The ambient mixing ratios of NO<sub>x</sub>, CO and SO<sub>2</sub> were quite high  
21 under low wind speed (smaller than 2 m/s) and decreased sharply as the wind speed increased.  
22 There was a slight dependence of NO<sub>x</sub>, CO and SO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios on wind direction only  
23 under low wind speed, showing a higher level in the NW-N sector, indicating that local  
24 emissions of automobiles and heating as well as incense burning to be dominant in Lhasa.  
25 High mixing ratios of primary gas pollutants were mainly observed in autumn and winter  
26 (Table 1). Almost 90% of the pollution episodes occurred at calm night in autumn and winter,  
27 when chemical transformation of primary gases were slowed down and the accumulation was  
28 favored. The highest hourly mixing ratios of SO<sub>2</sub>, CO, NO, and NO<sub>x</sub> occurred near midnight  
29 in December or January, and were 63.44 ppb, 8511 ppb, 412.36 ppb, and 468.43 ppb,  
30 respectively. The hourly maxima of CO mixing ratios in Lhasa were almost comparable with  
31 that at Gucheng and Wuqing, two sites well representative of the regional pollution in the  
32 North China Plain (Lin et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2011). The occurrence frequency of hourly CO



1 mixing ratios above 3000 ppb, which could approximately be taken as the average level in  
2 winter in the North China Plain, ranged from 7% to 16%. The hourly maxima of NO and NO<sub>x</sub>  
3 mixing ratios were much higher than that of 202 ppb and 300 ppb in the megacity of Beijing  
4 in the heating season from November 2007 to March 2008, despite that the averages in Lhasa  
5 were about 30 ppb lower during that period (Lin et al., 2011). Hourly NO<sub>x</sub> mixing ratios  
6 above the average level of 60 ppb observed during the heating season in Beijing accounted for  
7 around 70% of the period from October to February in Lhasa. The level of SO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios  
8 in Lhasa was much lower, compared to a mixing ratio of several ppb in summer to tens of ppb  
9 in winter in the North China Plain (Lin et al., 2012). The occurrence frequency of hourly SO<sub>2</sub>  
10 mixing ratios above the average level of 30 ppb in the heating season in Beijing ranged from  
11 3% to 6%. Generally, primary gas pollution has been quite noticeable in Lhasa in the cold  
12 season.

### 13 **3.4 Impacts of urbanization on air pollution**

14 Lhasa has undergone remarkable changes in the process of urbanization in the past decades.  
15 The area of the city has currently been enlarged almost twice of that as 34 km<sup>2</sup> in 1998, when  
16 the measurements of trace gases at the suburban site took place. The permanent and floating  
17 population has been explosively expanding, as well as the number of automobiles. According  
18 to the municipal statistical data, the permanent population in Lhasa was only 43 thousand in  
19 1998, about one quarter of that now. The number of tourists has dramatically increased from  
20 200 thousand per year in 1998 to 6.5 million in 2012. Compared to over 150 thousand  
21 automobiles in 2012, the number was less than 10 thousand in 1998. The gross domestic  
22 product of Lhasa amounted to 2.9 billion RMB and 26.2 billion RMB respectively in 1998  
23 and 2012. The fast development during urbanization has led to a substantial growth in the  
24 demand of energy consumption. As a result, the urban heat island intensity of Lhasa has  
25 increased from 1.8°C in 1998 to 2.2°C in 2012 based on the meteorological data (Tsering et  
26 al., 2014). Meanwhile, the energy structure in Lhasa has been through a significant change.  
27 In 1998, biomass such as cow dung, faggots and leaves were widely used by local residents.  
28 Petroleum products and coals only contribute a negligible portion to the fuel mix in this  
29 region. Nowadays, however, fossil fuel has become an important component of consumed  
30 energy sources. Along with the enhanced energy consumption and the transformation of fuel  
31 mix, the level of atmospheric pollutants has risen year by year. Undoubtedly, this would give  
32 rise to notable environment problem in Lhasa.

1 A comparison was made between the levels of NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, CO and O<sub>3</sub> measured during June  
2 and September respectively in 1998 and 2012 (Fig. 6). Generally, it was found that the current  
3 average level of NO<sub>2</sub> in summertime was about 15 ppb, almost 40 times of NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios  
4 15 years ago. During the sampling period in 1998, measured NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios never  
5 exceeded 1 ppb. In contrast, the lowest daily mean mixing ratio of NO<sub>2</sub> was around 9 ppb and  
6 the highest value was close to 27 ppb in summer 2012, clearly indicating a marked increase in  
7 NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, which are largely from vehicular exhaust in urban Lhasa. A comparatively  
8 smaller change has been observed in SO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios, with an increase in the average level  
9 of SO<sub>2</sub> from about 0.15 ppb to 0.5 ppb. The highest hourly SO<sub>2</sub> average observed in summer  
10 2012 was around 5 ppb. In Lhasa, SO<sub>2</sub> is mostly from coal burning and less from vehicular  
11 exhaust and incense burning. The demand of coals has taken a relatively slower pace than that  
12 of petroleum as fuel of automobiles. Incense burning, which gives off SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and many  
13 other pollutants, is a tradition for residents in Lhasa as well as ever increasing tourists who  
14 believe in Buddhism. Generally, the process of urbanization and commercialization in Lhasa  
15 has resulted in more severe NO<sub>2</sub> pollution than SO<sub>2</sub> pollution according to our measurements.

16 CO remained almost constant between 1998 and 2012, in contrast to the dramatically  
17 increased NO<sub>2</sub>. The more possible reason for a high CO level together with a very low NO<sub>2</sub>  
18 level in 1998 might be the difference in the emission sources at the two sites in different years.  
19 Biomass burning was dominant in 1998, while fossil fuel burning is dominant now. On  
20 average, there was no apparent diurnal cycle of CO in Lhasa in summer 1998. Nighttime CO  
21 mixing ratios were about 500 ppb, nearly 1.7 times of that during the daytime. However,  
22 distinct double peaks of CO mixing ratios in the morning and evening were observed in  
23 summer 2012 as shown in Fig. 5. The differences in the average diurnal variations of CO  
24 mixing ratios between 1998 and 2012 revealed an average increase in the rush hours reaching  
25 up to about 180 ppb, while a decrease to the same extent at night where a large variability of  
26 CO mixing ratios in summer 2012 was also found (Fig. 7a). During the daytime, CO mixing  
27 ratios in summer 1998 were almost level with that in summer 2012. Such changes in the  
28 observed diurnal cycles of CO mixing ratios probably suggest increased CO emissions from  
29 automobiles in the rush hours. Unfortunately, diurnal cycles of NO<sub>x</sub> mixing ratios in 1998  
30 were not available to further confirm above conclusion.

31 A further examination of the SO<sub>2</sub>/CO, NO<sub>x</sub>/CO and SO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>x</sub> ratios was performed to cast  
32 more light on emission sources of the primary gases. Reduced major axis regression of the

1 hourly average data was employed to account for measurement errors of each trace gas. It was  
2 found that the correlation coefficients (R) of SO<sub>2</sub> with CO and SO<sub>2</sub> with NO<sub>x</sub> were above 0.9  
3 in a significant level (P<0.001) in autumn and winter 2012, while in spring less than 0.7 and  
4 in summer less than 0.4 (Fig. 8a and Fig. 8c). In contrast, NO<sub>x</sub> and CO mixing ratios were  
5 well correlated (R was 0.83, 0.77, 0.92, 0.95, respectively in spring, summer, autumn and  
6 winter) throughout the year (Fig. 8b). The good correlations among primary gas pollutants in  
7 autumn and winter suggested common sources of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and CO in cold seasons, when  
8 the emission from coal burning for heating was thought to be the major source of primary gas  
9 pollutants in Lhasa. The poor correlations of SO<sub>2</sub> with both NO<sub>x</sub> and CO in spring and  
10 especially in summer, as well as the rather low SO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios compared with that in cold  
11 seasons, indicated that the major source of SO<sub>2</sub> was different from that of CO and NO<sub>x</sub>,  
12 which were mainly from gasoline and biomass burning in warm seasons. Besides, the far  
13 more efficient wet deposition of SO<sub>2</sub> than CO and NO<sub>x</sub> in rainy spring and summer could also  
14 partially explain lower correlation coefficients of SO<sub>2</sub> with CO and SO<sub>2</sub> with NO<sub>x</sub> in spring  
15 and summer than in autumn and winter. Figure 8d shows the scatter plots of SO<sub>2</sub> versus CO  
16 and NO<sub>2</sub> versus CO during June and September in 1998 and 2012. As indicated by the low R  
17 value and the large P value, no significant correlations were found between SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and CO  
18 in 1998, which was consistent with biomass to be the major source of the primary gas  
19 pollutants at that time. With the usage of fossil fuels and increasing consumptions, the mixing  
20 ratios of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and CO increased dramatically and correlated more significantly with each  
21 other.

22 In response to increasing precursor emissions, the secondary gas pollutant O<sub>3</sub> generally  
23 experienced an enhancement in summer in Lhasa (Fig. 7b and Fig. 7c). The average  
24 increments of O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios from June-September 1998 to June-September 2012 were  
25 respectively about 10, 6, 23, 14 ppb in the afternoon (12:00-17:00 LT), which is the most  
26 productive period for O<sub>3</sub> photochemical formation during a day. The buildup of O<sub>3</sub> before the  
27 daily maximum in the afternoon (around 14:00 LT) was more efficient in summer 2012 than  
28 in summer 1998, accompanied by a higher level of O<sub>3</sub> peak in summer 2012. This may imply  
29 a larger contribution is now made by O<sub>3</sub> photochemical formation to the ambient O<sub>3</sub> mixing  
30 ratios in the daytime, especially around the noon, compared to the condition several years ago.  
31 With increasing O<sub>3</sub> precursor emissions and sufficient ultraviolet radiation in this area, more  
32 attention should be given to O<sub>3</sub> photochemistry in the future. Averagely, an increase in  
33 nighttime O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios provided an evidence of elevated O<sub>3</sub> background in this region,

1 implying strengthened atmospheric oxidizing capacity in Lhasa. However, significant local  
2 emissions of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> from vehicular exhaust and incense burning occasionally resulted  
3 in almost complete consumption of surface nighttime O<sub>3</sub>.

4 It was also worth noting that high O<sub>3</sub> spikes in short duration (within 1 hour) were observed  
5 around the noon in June 2012 as shown in Fig. 9, while none in summer 1998. After  
6 excluding the possibility of artifact introduced by the instrument, it was believed that those  
7 high O<sub>3</sub> spikes were probably an indicator of highly spatial inhomogeneity in air pollution in  
8 Lhasa, and as a result of polluted air parcels experiencing active O<sub>3</sub> photochemical production  
9 and happening to pass by the site. This phenomenon can also be found in other seasons. High  
10 O<sub>3</sub> basically came from the west, occurred after a violent wind shift and the following small  
11 wind, calm wind stage. Sometimes, an increase in CO mixing ratios could also be observed  
12 when O<sub>3</sub> spike appeared. This suggested a strong photochemical origin of O<sub>3</sub>. To thoroughly  
13 investigate this issue, especially the cause of the large O<sub>3</sub> difference, more measurements and  
14 analysis need to be carried out in the future.

15

#### 16 **4 Summary**

17 Various gas pollutants including O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, CO and SO<sub>2</sub> were continuously measured from  
18 June 2012 to May 2013 at an urban site in Lhasa, Tibet. The seasonal variations of O<sub>3</sub> and Ox  
19 displayed a low valley in winter and a peak in spring, when the meteorology favored O<sub>3</sub>  
20 photochemical production. The maximum monthly mean mixing ratios of O<sub>3</sub> and Ox were  
21 observed in May, respectively as  $56.8 \pm 10.1$  ppb and  $70.1 \pm 10.6$  ppb. The independence of  
22 O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios on wind speed and wind direction in spring and summer suggested an  
23 important role of photochemistry in the observed mixing ratios of this secondary pollutant,  
24 while in autumn and winter, the transport process made a major contribution, showing an  
25 increased O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios under larger wind speed. Generally, O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios in the SW-  
26 NW sector were nearly 10 ppb higher than that in other directions in autumn and winter. The  
27 diurnal cycle of O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios averagely exhibited a shallow flat peak for about 4-5 hours  
28 in the afternoon and a minimum in the early morning throughout the year.

29 Mixing ratios of primary gas pollutants peaked from November to January with a large  
30 variability as  $2.72 \pm 2.05$  ppb for SO<sub>2</sub>,  $570 \pm 300$  ppb for CO and  $29.58 \pm 16.16$  ppb for NO<sub>x</sub>.  
31 In the rest of the year, SO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NO<sub>x</sub> averaged  $0.77 \pm 0.61$  ppb,  $363 \pm 94$  ppb and  $17.10 \pm$

1 6.19 ppb, respectively. A sharp decrease in the mixing ratios of primary trace gases was  
2 observed when wind speed increased. A slight dependence of trace gas mixing ratios on wind  
3 direction was found only under low wind speed. This implied local emissions of primary gas  
4 pollutants to be predominant in Lhasa. Diurnally, pronounced double peaks could be clearly  
5 identified in all seasons, as a result of enhanced traffic emissions in the rush hours as well as  
6 the diurnal variations of the boundary layer. Nighttime mixing ratios of primary gases were  
7 particularly high in autumn and winter when calm conditions usually happened. Under such  
8 circumstances, surface O<sub>3</sub> could sometimes be totally consumed by the high level of NO.

9 A comparison has been made for measured NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, CO and O<sub>3</sub> from June to September  
10 between 1998 and 2012, in order to investigate the impact of rapid urbanization on air  
11 pollution in Lhasa. Mixing ratios of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> have greatly increased in the past 15 years,  
12 due to a marked increase in their emissions. This was resulted from a substantial growth in the  
13 demand of energy consumption in the city and a change in using fossil fuels instead of  
14 biomass, which was also supported by the correlations among the primary gas pollutants. The  
15 distinct double-peak diurnal cycle of CO observed in summer 2012 reasonably indicated the  
16 major emission source for primary gas pollutants to be vehicular exhaust, given that there was  
17 no apparent diurnal cycle in summer 1998. In response to increased precursor emissions in the  
18 process of urbanization, there was a more efficient buildup of O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios in the morning  
19 and a higher peak in the afternoon in summer 2012 than in summer 1998. An enhancement in  
20 O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios would be expected in the photochemically active atmosphere with the ever  
21 increasing O<sub>3</sub> precursor emissions. Therefore, measures should be taken to control emissions  
22 of primary gas pollutants in very near future in Lhasa, in order to reduce the occurrence of  
23 primary gas pollution events and mitigate the ozone problem.

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1

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- 6

1 Table 1. Hourly average mixing ratios of the traces gases under polluted conditions (defined  
 2 in this paper) and non-polluted conditions. The exceedance frequency (%) based on hourly  
 3 averages is given in the brackets.

	O <sub>3</sub> (ppb)		NO <sub>x</sub> (ppb)		CO (ppb)		SO <sub>2</sub> (ppb)	
	Polluted	Non-P	Polluted	Non-P	Polluted	Non-P	Polluted	Non-P
Spring	83.8(1.6)	48.3	67.42(2.0)	12.43	1187(0.8)	322	-	0.61
Summer	85.5(0.1)	37.8	62.72(1.7)	14.43	1273(1.3)	407	-	0.46
Autumn	-	31.6	99.38(10.9)	14.85	1567(6.5)	332	15.34(1.9)	1.19
Winter	-	27.6	101.21(10.8)	13.76	1968(10.4)	345	18.31(3.9)	1.53

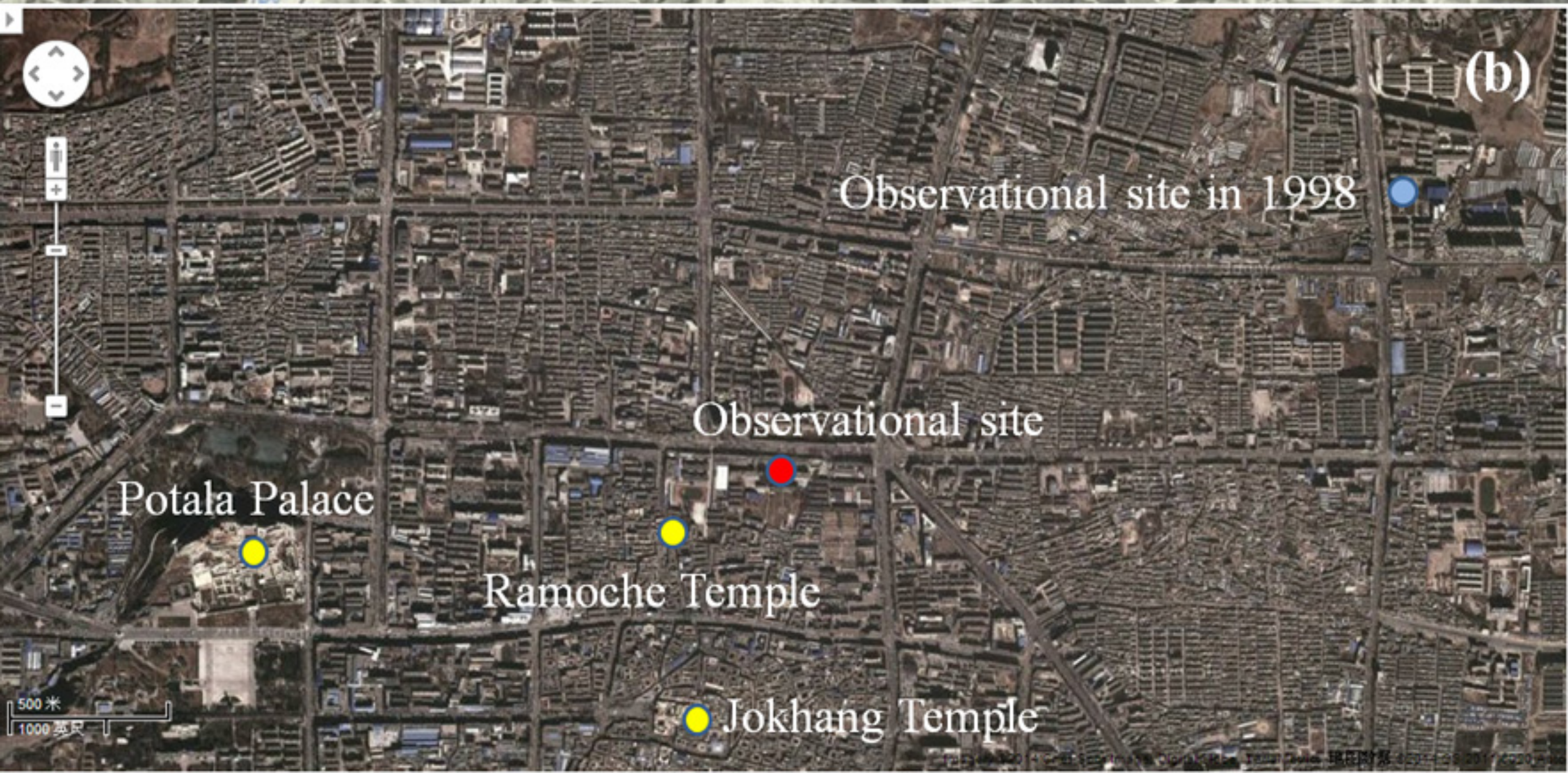
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## Figure captions

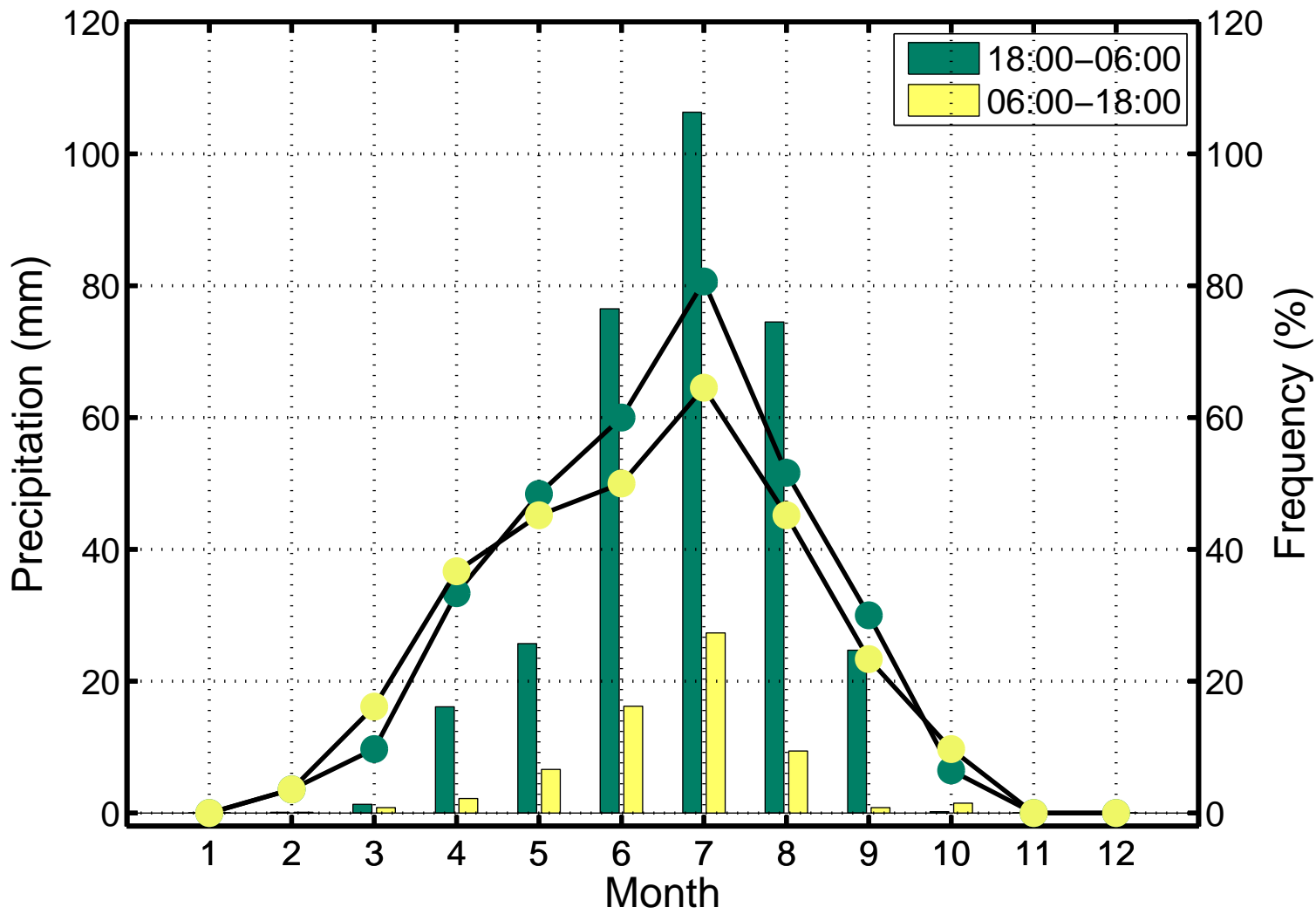
- 1  
2  
3 Figure 1. (a) The topography and (b) the urban map of the site and its surrounding area (from  
4 Google Maps).
- 5 Figure 2. Precipitation (bars) in the daytime (06:00-18:00 LT) and at night (18:00-06:00 LT)  
6 from June 2012 to May 2013 in Lhasa. The frequency of precipitation in each month is shown  
7 by dots.
- 8 Figure 3. The frequency of wind direction plotted by wind rose for four seasons in Lhasa, (a)  
9 with all wind speed, the frequency of calm conditions is given in the center circle, (b) with  
10 wind speed above 2m/s.
- 11 Figure 4. Monthly averages (markers) and standard deviation (black lines) of gas pollutants in  
12 Lhasa from June 2012 to May 2013.
- 13 Figure 5. Average diurnal variations of O<sub>3</sub>, Ox, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO and NO<sub>x</sub> mixing ratios in four  
14 seasons (during June 2012 and May 2013) in Lhasa. Colored markers represent hourly mean  
15 mixing ratios. Black boxes and whiskers indicate the 5th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 95th percentiles.
- 16 Figure 6. Comparisons of the average mixing ratios (bars) of NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and CO during  
17 June and September between 1998 and 2012. The black line gives the standard deviation.
- 18 Figure 7. (a) The differences in the average diurnal variations of CO mixing ratios between  
19 1998 and 2012 in Lhasa, the dots represent monthly mean values, the black lines denote the  
20 minimum and maximum of the differences; (b) for O<sub>3</sub>, the markers are the same as that in (a);  
21 (c) the maximum O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratio for each hour in each month, the darker color represents the  
22 values in 1998, whereas the lighter color represents the values in 2012.
- 23 Figure 8. Reduced major axis regression of (a) SO<sub>2</sub> versus CO; (b) NO<sub>x</sub> versus CO; (c) SO<sub>2</sub>  
24 versus NO<sub>x</sub> in the four seasons during 2012-2013 in Lhasa using hourly average data. (d)  
25 Reduced major axis regression of SO<sub>2</sub> versus CO and NO<sub>2</sub> versus CO during June and  
26 September respectively in 1998 and 2012 in Lhasa.
- 27 Figure 9. High ozone spikes around the noon during June 6 and 13, 2012 in Lhasa.



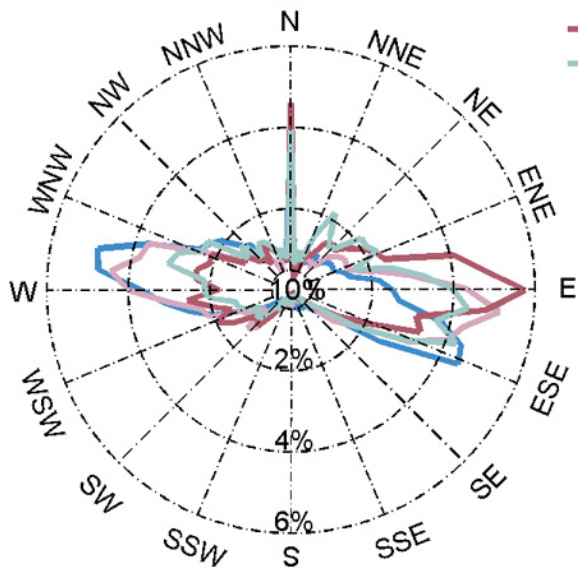




# Lhasa

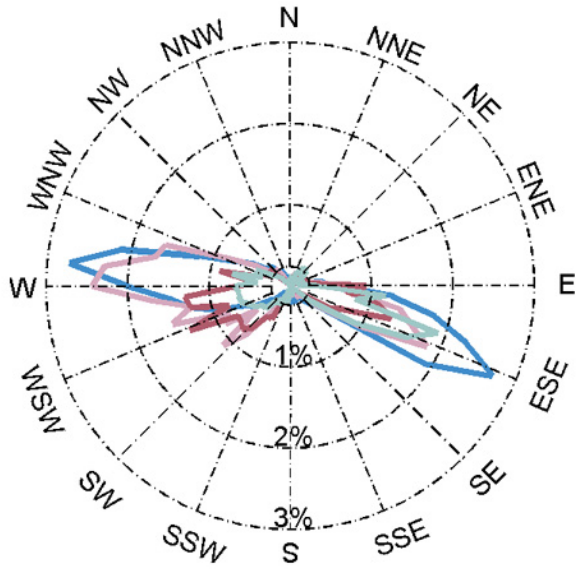


(a)

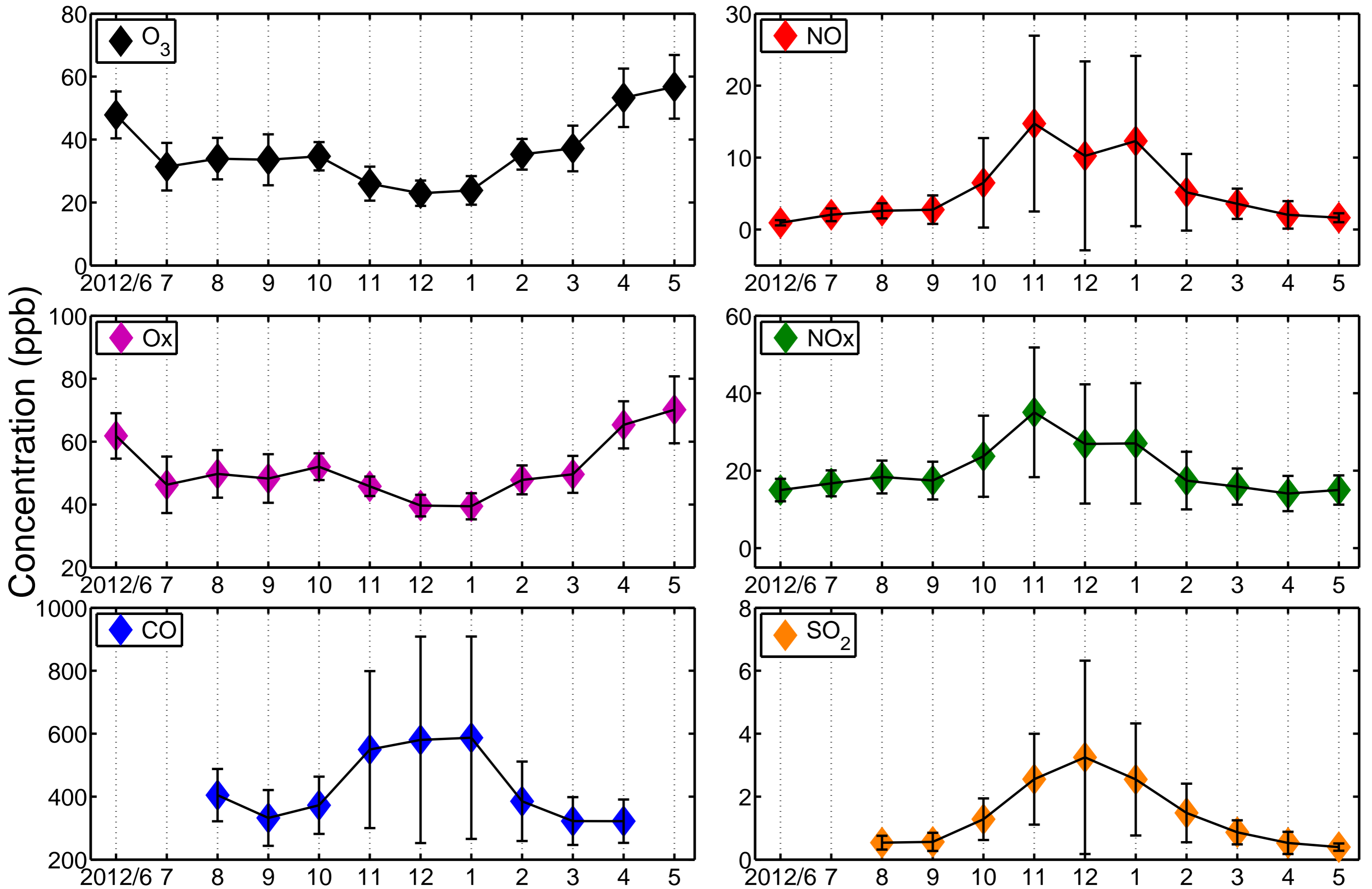


- Summer (JJA)
- Autumn (SON)
- Winter (DJF)
- Spring (MAM)

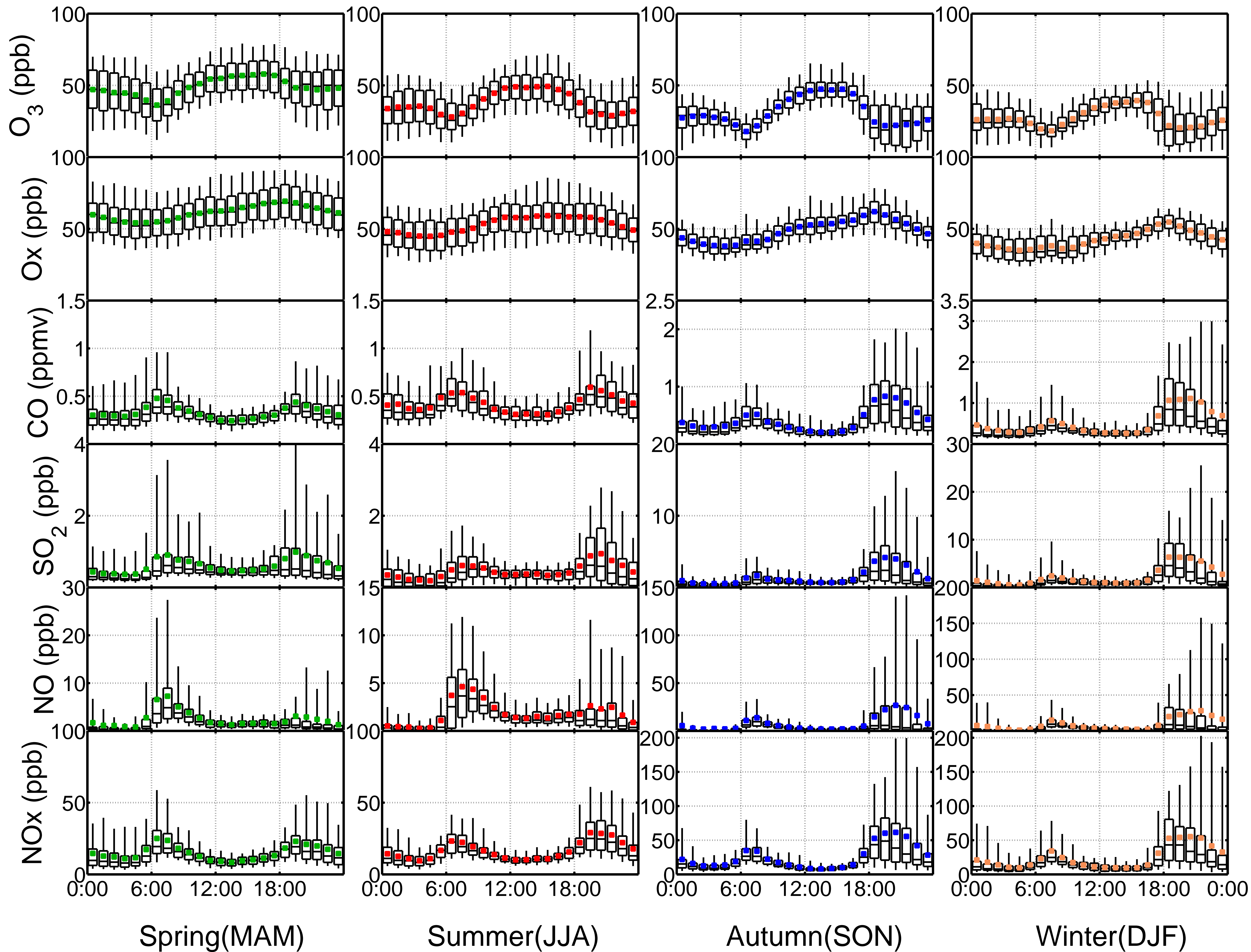
(b)



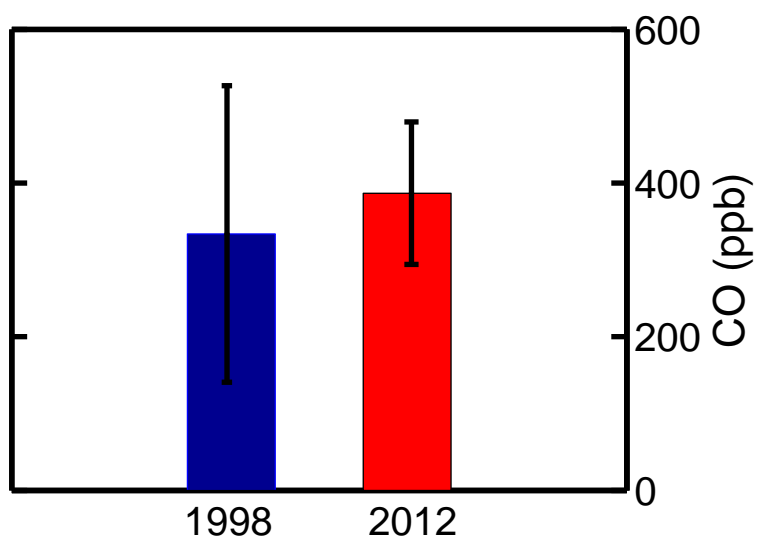
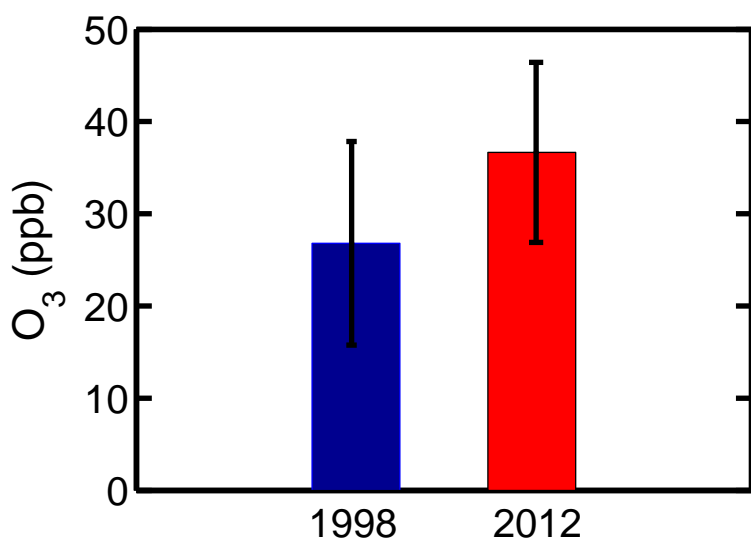
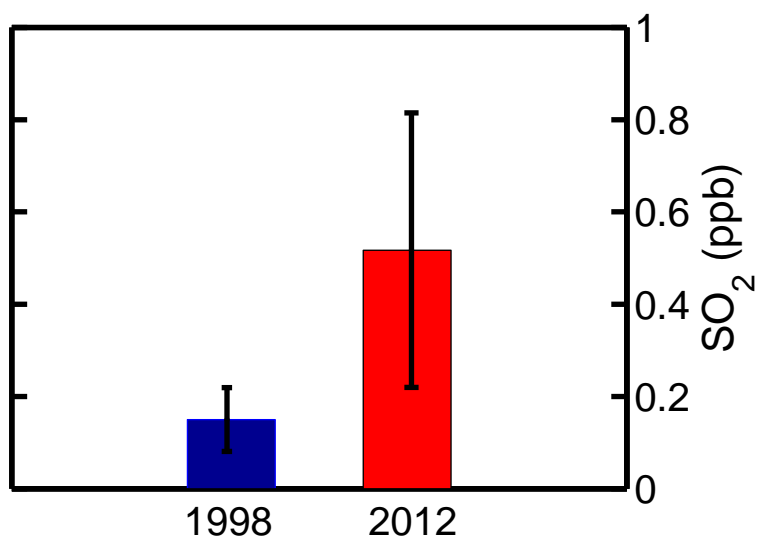
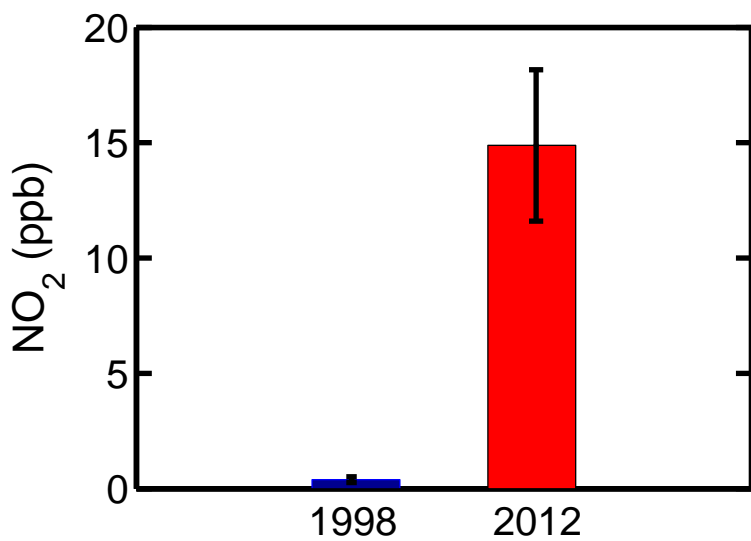
# Lhasa, Tibet



# Lhasa, Tibet







# Lhasa, Tibet

