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2 **Long-term (2001-2012) trends of carbonaceous aerosols from remote island in the**  
3 **western North Pacific: an outflow region of Asian pollutants and dust**

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21 **Abstract**

22           The present study reports on long-term trends of carbonaceous aerosols in total  
23 suspended particulate (TSP) samples collected at Chichijima Island in the western North  
24 Pacific during 2001-2012. Seasonal variations of elemental, organic, and water-soluble  
25 organic carbon (EC, OC and WSOC) concentrations showed maxima in winter to spring and  
26 minima in summer. These seasonal differences in the concentrations of carbonaceous  
27 aerosols are associated with the outflows of polluted air masses from East Asia, which are  
28 clearly distinguishable from pristine air masses from the central Pacific. The higher  
29 concentrations of carbonaceous aerosols during winter to spring are associated with long-  
30 range atmospheric transport of East Asian polluted air masses, whereas lower concentrations  
31 may be due to pristine air masses from the central Pacific in summer. The annual trends of  
32 OC/EC, WSOC and WSOC/OC showed significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) increases during the period of  
33 2001-2012, suggesting that an enhanced secondary formation of organic aerosols (SOA) via  
34 photochemical oxidation of anthropogenic and biogenic volatile organic compounds (VOCs)  
35 during long-range atmospheric transport. We found a significant increase in  $\text{nss-K}^+/\text{EC}$  ratios,  
36 demonstrating that biomass burning-derived organic aerosols are increased, while  
37 combustion-derived anthropogenic sources are decreased over the western North Pacific.  
38 Further, secondary biogenic emissions are also important over the western North Pacific as  
39 inferred from a significant increase in the concentrations of methanesulfonate ( $\text{MSA}^-$ , a tracer  
40 for biogenic source). We also found significant increases in OC/TC and WSOC/TC ratio,  
41 suggesting that contribution of SOA to total carbon (TC) are significantly increased over the  
42 western North Pacific followed by long-range atmospheric transport.

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44 **Keywords:** Carbonaceous aerosols, long-term trends, the western North Pacific, East Asia,  
45 biomass burning, biogenic emissions, long-range atmospheric transport, photochemical  
46 oxidation.

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## 49 **1. Introduction**

50 Particulate air pollution is one of the most important environmental issues due to its  
51 severe impact on visibility and air quality, and has been a great issue over East Asia,  
52 particularly in China (Zhang and Cao, 2015;Cui et al., 2015). On the other hand, its invisible  
53 impacts on not only climate but also public health may be more severe and intricate (Pöschl,  
54 2005;Menon et al., 2002). Carbonaceous aerosols are ubiquitous in the Earth's atmosphere  
55 and hence potentially cause harmful effect on human health (Bond et al., 2013;Kanakidou et  
56 al., 2005;Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008). They are traditionally divided into two  
57 fractions: organic carbon (OC), which contains less volatile and more reflective carbonaceous  
58 species (cooling effect), while elemental carbon (EC; alternatively referred as black carbon,  
59 BC) encompasses the most refractory and most light absorbing species (warming effect).  
60 However, the role of OC on cooling or warming has been a matter of debate (Chung et al.,  
61 2012;Cazorla et al., 2013). In the ambient atmosphere, however, these two fractions (EC and  
62 OC) are ever mixed and consequently complicate the estimation of an overall radiative  
63 forcing (Jacobson, 2001). Therefore, studying about carbonaceous aerosols and their sources  
64 are essential to understand how the different sources of carbonaceous particles may influence  
65 climate on a regional and global scale.

66 The major sources of carbonaceous aerosol are fossil fuel and biomass burning in  
67 addition to the atmospheric oxidation of anthropogenic and biogenic volatile organic  
68 compounds (VOCs) (Samset, 2016). The global emission of organic aerosols (OA) from  
69 biomass and fossil fuel sources has been estimated at 45-80 and 10-30 Tg/yr, respectively  
70 (Scholes and Andreae, 2000). Due to the presence of polar functional groups, particularly  
71 carboxylic acids, many organic compounds in OA are water-soluble and hence act as cloud  
72 condensation nuclei (CCN) (Novakov and Penner, 1993;Matsumoto et al., 1997;Asa-Awuku  
73 et al., 2009). According to the recent report of intergovernmental panel on climate change  
74 (IPCC 2013), the radiative forcing of BC and OA associated with fossil fuel and bio fuel  
75 combustions is in the range of +0.05 to +0.8 (mean: +0.4)  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  and -0.4 to -0.1 (-0.12)  $\text{W}$   
76  $\text{m}^{-2}$ , respectively. It is +0.0 (-0.2 to +0.2)  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  as a result of their change offset when BC  
77 and OA are emitted by biomass burning (Boucher et al., 2013). Therefore, carbonaceous  
78 aerosols have a net warming effect on the climate as per an IPCC 2013 report. However,  
79 there is still a large uncertainty in radiative forcing of carbonaceous aerosols, particularly  
80 with regard to OA (Reddy and Boucher, 2004) because of knowledge gap on their specific  
81 sources and formation processes.



82           The atmosphere over East Asia is becoming worst due to not only the dense  
83 population, but also rapid urbanization/industrialization (Fu et al., 2012;Cao et al., 2007). On  
84 a global scale, China has the largest carbonaceous aerosol emissions from combustion with  
85 contributions about 24% and 30% for OC and BC, respectively (Bond et al., 2004). Recently,  
86 Wang et al. (2016) suggested that coal combustions and vehicular emissions are the  
87 dominated sources of carbonaceous aerosols in China (Kirillova et al., 2014). Using the  
88 MEGAN emission model combined with the MOHYCAN canopy environment model,  
89 Stavrakou et al. (2014) reported that an increased emission of biogenic isoprene over Asia  
90 ( $0.16\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) with the more pronounced trend over China ( $0.52\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) during 1979-2012.  
91 Similarly, Zhang et al. (2016) reported that an increasing trend of biogenic isoprene  
92 emissions in northern China during 1982-2010. In contrast,  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions over China have  
93 been declining after 2006 because of the wide usage of flue-gas desulfurization (FGD)  
94 equipment in power plants (Lu et al., 2010;Lu et al., 2011). All these East Asian pollutants  
95 along with soil dust are transported to the North Pacific via long-range atmospheric transport  
96 by westerly winds and perturb the remote marine background conditions and the ocean  
97 biogeochemistry by heterogeneous reactions (Boreddy et al., 2015;Matsumoto et al., 2004).

98           To better understand the effects of East Asian pollutants on physicochemical  
99 properties of marine aerosols and their atmospheric processes during long-range transport, we  
100 have continuously collected marine aerosol samples since 1990 at Chichijima Island.  
101 (Mochida et al., 2003;Kawamura et al., 2003). Chichijima is a remote marine island in the  
102 western North Pacific, which is located in the outflow region of East Asian pollutants and  
103 dust during the westerly wind season and in the pristine air masses under the wind regime of  
104 easterlies . This island is about 1000 km from the south of Tokyo, Japan and 2000 km away  
105 from the East Asian countries (China) as shown in Figure 1. Therefore, the observation at  
106 Chichijima Island is useful for studying the long-range transport of East Asian pollutants and  
107 their heterogeneous chemistry over the western North Pacific (Boreddy et al., 2014;Verma et  
108 al., 2015;Chen et al., 2013). In this study, we discuss the long-term trends in the  
109 concentrations of carbonaceous aerosols (EC, OC, and WSOC) and their ratios during 2001-  
110 2012 in addition to seasonal variations. The role of photochemical oxidation of anthropogenic  
111 and biogenic VOCs on OC and WSOC and their relations to the CCN is also discussed.

112

## 113 **2. Instrumentation and data analyses**

### 114 **2.1. Sampling site and aerosol collection**



115 Chlorophyll-*a* data are superimposed in Figure 1, which were downloaded from the  
116 MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) satellite during winter 2008, in  
117 order to see the intensity of biogenic emissions from the ocean during westerly season. Total  
118 suspended particulate (TSP) samples were collected at the Satellite Tracking Center of the  
119 Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA, elevation: 254 m) in Chichijima Island  
120 (27°04'N; 142°13'E) on a weekly basis (Chen et al., 2013; Boreddy and Kawamura, 2015).  
121 Aerosol samples are collected on pre-combusted (450° C for 3-5 h) quartz filter (20 × 25 cm,  
122 Pallflex 2500QAT-UP) using a high volume air sampler (HVS) with a flow rate of 1 m<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>.  
123 The HVS was installed at a height of 5 m above the ground level. The filters were placed in  
124 a pre-baked (450°C for 6 h) glass jar (150 mL) with a Teflon-lined screw cap before sample  
125 collection. After aerosol collection, the filters were recovered into the glass jar, transported to  
126 the laboratory in Hokkaido University, Sapporo, and stored in a freezer room at -20 °C prior  
127 to analysis. A total of 545 aerosol samples and about 56 field blank samples were used for the  
128 analysis of carbonaceous components during 2001-2012.

## 129 2.2. Analyses of carbonaceous aerosols

130 Concentrations of OC and EC were determined using a Sunset Laboratory carbon  
131 analyzer following the IMPROVE (Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual  
132 Environments) thermal/optical evolution protocol (Wang et al., 2005), assuming carbonate  
133 carbon (CC) in the aerosol samples to be insignificant. A filter cut of 1.54 cm<sup>2</sup> of each filter  
134 was placed in a quartz tube inside the thermal desorption chamber of the analyzer and then  
135 stepwise heating was applied. Helium (He) gas is applied in the first ramp and is switched to  
136 mixture of He/O<sub>2</sub> in the second ramp. The evolved CO<sub>2</sub> during the oxidation at each  
137 temperature step was measured by non dispersive infrared (NDIR) detector system. The  
138 calculated detection limits of OC and EC were 0.05 and 0.02 μgC m<sup>-3</sup>, respectively. The sum  
139 of OC and EC was considered to as total carbon (TC) in this study.

140 To determine WSOC, a punch of 20 mm in diameter of each filter was extracted with  
141 20 mL organic-free ultra pure water (>18.2 MΩ cm, Sartorius arium 611 UV) and  
142 ultrasonicated for 30 min. These extracts were passed through a disk filter (Millex-GV, 0.22  
143 μm pore size, Millipore) to remove the filter debris and insoluble particles and analyzed using  
144 a total organic carbon (TOC) analyzer (Shimadzu, TOC-Vcsh) equipped with a catalytic  
145 oxidation column and non-dispersive infrared detector (Miyazaki et al., 2011).

146 Concentrations of water-soluble methanesulfonate (MSA<sup>-</sup>) were taken from the study  
147 of Boreddy and Kawamura (2015), in order to support the inferences related to carbonaceous



148 species over the western North Pacific, which were determined using ion chromatography  
149 (761 Compact IC, Metrohm, Switzerland).

150 The analytical errors in the replicate analyses were less than 10% for OC, EC and  
151 WSOC in this study. The concentrations of carbonaceous aerosols reported in this study have  
152 been corrected for field blanks. The levels of blanks are less than 5% for all the parameters in  
153 the real samples.

### 154 **2.3. Statistical analyses**

155 Two statistical approaches were used to better conduct the trend analyses in time  
156 series of WSOC, EC, and OC and their ratios during 2001-2012. First, the tendency (linear  
157 trend) equation for each time series (Draper and Smith, 1966). In the second approach, all  
158 trends are assessed using the Mann-Kendall test, which is completely independent of the first  
159 approach.

#### 160 **2.3.1. The linear trend equation**

161 The linear trend equation was used to calculate the trend equation of all chemical  
162 species and their ratios using linear regression analysis, as

$$163 \quad y = ax + b \quad (1)$$

164 where  $y$  is the concentrations in  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,  $a$  is the slope,  $x$  is the time in years, and  $b$  is  
165 concentrations at the beginning of the period (intercept).

166 This approach gives results which are simple to interpret; both analytically and graphically on  
167 the basis of the shape and parameters of the trend equation (Gavrilov et al., 2016). For  
168 example, the sign of the concentration trend depends on the value of the slope. In this kind of  
169 interpretation when the slope is greater than zero, less than zero, or equal to zero, the sign of  
170 the trend is positive (increase), negative (decrease), or there is no trend (no change),  
171 respectively.

#### 172 **2.3.2 The Mann-Kendall test**

173 This statistical approach is simple, robust and widely used non-parametric tests to  
174 detect the significant trends in time series (Mann, 1945; Kendall, 1975). According to this  
175 approach, two hypotheses were tested: the null hypothesis,  $H_0$ , that there is no trend in the  
176 time series; and the alternative hypothesis,  $H_a$ , that there is a significant trend in the series,  
177 for a given  $\alpha$  significance level. Probability ( $p$  value) was calculated to determine the level of  
178 confidence in the hypothesis. If the  $p$  value is lower than the chosen significance level  $\alpha$   
179 ( $\alpha=5\%$  or 0.05), the  $H_0$  should be rejected, and  $H_a$  should be accepted (means there is a  
180 trend). In case, the  $p$  value is greater than the significance level  $\alpha$ , the  $H_0$  cannot be rejected  
181 (there is no trend). In this study, we used XLSTAT software (<http://www.xlstat.com/en/>) for



182 Mann-Kendall test analysis. The absolute value of Kendall  $\tau$  ( $\tau$ ) is compared to the standard  
183 normal cumulative distribution to define if there is a trend or not at the chosen  $\alpha$  (0.05) of  
184 significance. A positive and negative value of  $\tau$  indicates an increase and decrease in the  
185 trends, respectively.

186

### 187 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 188 **3.1 Synoptic wind circulation and general meteorology**

189 Figure 2 (a-d) presents mean wind circulation patterns at 850 hPa pressure level,  
190 which were obtained from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis (National Center for Environmental  
191 Prediction/National Centre for Atmospheric Research) over the western North Pacific and the  
192 adjacent East Asian countries from 2001 to 2013 for the months December, March, July, and  
193 October, which cover a particular month of each seasons. The arrowhead indicates wind  
194 direction and the length of the arrow represents the mean wind speed. It is clearly seen from  
195 Figure 2 that from winter (December-February) to spring (March-May) the winds are  
196 stronger to transport continental air masses containing pollutants and dusts from East Asia to  
197 the sampling site in the Pacific by long-range atmospheric transport. The winds are weaker in  
198 summer (June-August). They mostly come from the central Pacific and carry pristine air  
199 masses to the observation site, whereas in autumn (September-November) the wind  
200 circulation pattern shifts from southeasterly to northwesterly and become stronger towards  
201 winter.

202 Figure S1 shows the temporal variations of meteorological parameters such as air  
203 temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), relative humidity (%), wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), and precipitation (mm) at  
204 Chichijima Island during the study period of 2001-2013. All the meteorological parameters  
205 were downloaded from the Japan Meteorological Agency. We found a clear seasonal  
206 variation in the levels of temperature, relative humidity, and precipitation with summer  
207 maxima and winter minima. Wind speeds were higher in winter to spring and lower in  
208 summer.

209

#### 210 **3.2 Monthly/seasonal variations**

211 Figure 3 (a-f) presents the monthly/seasonal variations in the concentrations of EC,  
212 OC, WSOC and their ratios during the years 2001-2012 at Chichijima Island in the western  
213 North Pacific. The corresponding statistical data were reported in Table 1. All measured  
214 species clearly showed winter-to-spring maxima and summer minima and then increase in  
215 autumn. This seasonal pattern is consistent with a typical seasonal pattern in ambient



216 carbonaceous aerosols over China (Zhang et al., 2008;Cao et al., 2006), indicating a common  
217 source for these components, which are long-range transported to the western North Pacific.  
218 This, of course, can also be influenced by seasonal meteorology and synoptic wind  
219 circulation over the western North Pacific as discussed in the above section.

220 Relatively high monthly average concentrations up to 0.28, 1.13 and 0.59  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  were  
221 observed for EC, OC, and WSOC in winter-spring (Figure 3a-c). In contrast, their monthly  
222 averages are lower in summer with the concentrations of 0.04, 0.58, and 0.20  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,  
223 respectively (Table 1). It is well documented that in summer, a maritime high-pressure wind  
224 dominated over the western North Pacific in which the air masses are pristine and less  
225 influenced by the continental outflow from East Asia (Figure 2). This observation is  
226 consistent with the fact that concentrations of anthropogenic  $\text{nss-SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and  $\text{nss-}$   
227  $\text{K}^+$  showed similar seasonal variations with winter and/or spring maxima and summer minima  
228 (Boreddy and Kawamura, 2015). On the other hand, continental air masses blow from the  
229 Asian continent in winter and spring; therefore, the maritime background condition of  
230 western North Pacific is often influenced by the continental outflow via long-range  
231 atmospheric transport (Duce et al., 1980).

232 Very low concentrations of EC in summer, whose abundance are up to seven times  
233 lower than those in the continental outflow; suggest a negligible contribution of local  
234 anthropogenic emissions over the sampling site. The seasonal variation of OC/EC mass ratio  
235 was maximized in summer and minimized in winter-to-spring months (Figure 3d), further  
236 suggesting a negligible contribution of local anthropogenic emission at island in summer.  
237 These results are consistent with previous studies, which reported that several times lower  
238 concentrations of organic compounds in summer compared to winter/spring over the same  
239 observation site (Kawamura et al., 2003;Mochida et al., 2003). Therefore, it is reasonable to  
240 believe that the sources of carbonaceous aerosols were transported from the adjacent Asian  
241 countries to the western North Pacific via long-range atmospheric transport.

242 It is well documented that  $\text{nss-K}^+$  and EC are tracers for biomass and fossil fuel  
243 burning emissions, respectively. Therefore,  $\text{nss-K}^+/\text{EC}$  ratios were widely used to better  
244 identify major sources of carbonaceous aerosols over the sampling sites (Wang et al.,  
245 2005;Rastogi et al., 2016;Srinivas and Sarin, 2014;Ram and Sarin, 2011). The higher  $\text{nss-}$   
246  $\text{K}^+/\text{EC}$  ratios indicate the dominance of biomass burning emissions, whereas lower ratios  
247 suggest the prevalence of fossil fuel emissions. In this study, higher  $\text{nss-K}^+/\text{EC}$  mass ratios  
248 were observed in midsummer to early autumn (Figure 3e), suggesting an influence of  
249 biomass burning emissions from southeast Asian countries via long-range atmospheric



250 transport over the western North Pacific. This point is consistent with the synoptic wind  
251 circulations during summer (Figure 2c), which clearly show that winds are dominantly  
252 coming from Southeast Asia where biomass burning is common phenomena during summer  
253 to early autumn, in addition to pristine easterly winds. In this context, Verma et al. (2015)  
254 reported significant concentrations of levoglucosan during summer in Chichijima (in the  
255 absence of Asian outflows), which were attributed to the occasional transport of biomass  
256 burning influenced air masses from southeast Asia, as inferred from the air mass trajectories  
257 and fire spot data during 2001-2013. Therefore, carbonaceous aerosols over Chichijima  
258 strictly follow the seasonal wind patterns in the western North Pacific.

259 The WSOC/OC has been suggested to be a unique tracer to better understand the  
260 photochemical activity and/or aging of aerosols and secondary organic aerosol (SOA)  
261 formation mechanism in the atmosphere during long-range transport (Miyazaki et al.,  
262 2007; Ram et al., 2010; Ram and Sarin, 2011). In the present study, the seasonal variation of  
263 WSOC/OC showed higher values during winter-spring (Figure 3f), implying that the  
264 formation of SOA is enhanced due to increased photochemical activity and/or aging of East  
265 Asian polluted aerosols during long-range atmospheric transport. The high WSOC/OC ratios  
266 are traditionally attributed to the atmospheric oxidation of various VOCs in the presence of  
267 oxidants such as ozone and hydrogen peroxide radicals via gas and/or aqueous phase  
268 reactions in the atmosphere. However, the atmosphere over the western North Pacific is  
269 always characterized by high relative humidity (>80%) and air temperature (~24°C) during  
270 the whole year (Figure S1). Therefore, higher WSOC concentrations in winter-to-spring over  
271 the western North Pacific were largely attributed to the aqueous-phase oxidation of  
272 anthropogenic and/or biogenic VOCs, which are emitted over East Asia and long-range  
273 transported to the western North Pacific. On the other hand, lower ratios of WSOC/OC in  
274 summer suggest that the primary emission of OC from the oceanic surface via sea-to-air flux  
275 (Ovadnevaite et al., 2011; Miyazaki et al., 2010) because the low speed easterly winds, which  
276 originated from the central Pacific are dominated in summer over the western North Pacific  
277 (Figure 2c).

278

### 279 3.3 Annual trends

280 Figure 4 shows the annual trends in the concentrations of EC, OC, TC (EC+OC),  
281 WSOC, and WSOC/OC ratios during the period of 2001-2012 over the western North  
282 Pacific. Table 2 summarizes the results of the statistical analyses. It is seen that all the annual



283 trends of species and their ratios (WSOC/OC) show clear seasonal patterns with higher  
284 values in winter-spring and lower values in summer.

285 As seen from Figure 4a-c, concentrations of EC, OC, and TC during 2001-2012  
286 ranged from 0.001 to 0.36  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (mean: 0.142  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), 0.25 to 1.7  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (0.76  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and  
287 0.28 to 2.01  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (0.90  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), respectively. The annual trend of EC showed a decrease,  
288 while OC and TC trends are continuously increased from 2001 to 2012, but the trends were  
289 not significant ( $p>0.05$ ). However, the annual trends of OC/EC and OC/TC mass ratios  
290 increased significantly ( $p<0.05$ ) from 2001 to 2012 (Table 2), suggesting that the enhanced  
291 formation of SOA and its contribution to TC continuously increased over the western North  
292 Pacific. These results further demonstrate that the contribution of combustion-derived sources  
293 to enhanced SOA seems to be decreased significantly during the sampling period. This point  
294 is supported by the annual trend of nss- $\text{K}^+$ /EC mass ratios, which showed a significant  
295 increase during the sampling period (see Table 2 and Figure 4f). This observation is  
296 consistent with the study of Verma et al. (2015), who observed a significant enhancement of  
297 levoglucosan concentrations during 2006-2013 over the sample sampling site. Therefore, all  
298 these results demonstrate that the contributions of biomass burning-derived SOA to TC have  
299 increased significantly over the western North Pacific whereas contributions of combustion-  
300 derived SOA have decreased.

301 The annual trend of WSOC showed a significant ( $p<0.05$ ) increase during 2001 to  
302 2012 (Figure 4d), implying that atmospheric processing or aging of organic compounds and  
303 its contribution to WSOC is significantly increased over the western North Pacific. Generally,  
304 atmospheric process/aging makes aerosol more water-soluble during long-range transport  
305 (Aggarwal and Kawamura, 2009), especially in the remote marine atmosphere. This point is  
306 further supported by a significant increase in the annual trend of WSOC/OC ratios during the  
307 sampling period (Figure 4e). These results demonstrate that the formation of WSOC (or OC)  
308 over the western North Pacific may significantly linked with a photochemical oxidation  
309 and/or aging of anthropogenic and biogenic VOCs followed by long-range atmospheric  
310 transport. A significant ( $p<0.05$ ) increasing trend of WSOC/TC (Table 2) further reveals that  
311 photochemical formation of SOA and its contributions to TC are significantly increased over  
312 the western North Pacific during 2001-2012.

313 In order to better understand the contributions of photochemical oxidation of biogenic  
314 VOCs to WSOC during long-range atmospheric transport, we showed the annual trend of  
315 water-soluble organic ion such as  $\text{MSA}^-$  (a biogenic tracer; see Figure 4g). The annual trend  
316 of  $\text{MSA}^-$  showed a significant ( $p<0.05$ ) increase in their concentrations during 2001-2012,



317 implying that biogenic emissions over the western North Pacific have increased significantly  
318 during the period of 2001-2012. In this context, Zhang et al. (2016) have recently reported an  
319 increasing trend in the emission of isoprene in northern China during 1982-2010 using  
320 emission modelling studies. Consistently, Stavrou et al. (2014) reported that an increased  
321 isoprene emissions over Asia, especially China during 1979-2012. Based on strong  
322 correlations ( $r>0.90$ ) between isoprene and above-canopy temperature, they suggested that  
323 oxidations of biogenic VOCs from the terrestrial higher plants are important in Asia (China).  
324 Long-range atmospheric transport of biogenic VOCs may be possible from terrestrial higher  
325 plants in Asia/China to the western North Pacific by westerlies, which may significantly  
326 contribute to the enhanced trends of OC and WSOC during 2001-2012. We found significant  
327 ( $p<0.05$ ) increases in the annual trends of methylglyoxal and pyruvic acid, which are tracers  
328 of aqueous-phase oxidation of biogenic isoprene (Carlton et al., 2009), over the western  
329 North Pacific (Boreddy and Kawamura, 2016, *unpublished data*). We also found a significant  
330 correlation ( $r=0.40$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) between of  $\text{MSA}^-$  and WSOC concentrations (not shown as a  
331 figure). These results demonstrate that increase of WSOC (or SOA) is likely due to the  
332 increases of photochemical oxidation of biogenic VOCs during long-range transport over the  
333 western North Pacific.

334

### 335 **3.4 Atmospheric implications**

336 It is well known that OC and EC aerosols scatter and absorb solar radiation,  
337 respectively, in the atmosphere and highly control the single scattering albedo (defined as the  
338 ratio of scattering to the extinction coefficient of aerosols), which is an important property for  
339 determining the direct radiative forcing (Gopal et al., 2017; He et al., 2009). Therefore,  
340 OC/EC ratios can be used to understand the relative contributions of scattering or absorbing  
341 aerosols in the atmosphere (Ram and Sarin, 2015). In this study, a significant increasing trend  
342 of OC/EC ratios suggests that dominance of scattering aerosols that are increased  
343 significantly over the western North Pacific. In contrast, absorbing aerosols decreased during  
344 the study period. This result may be an important implication for radiative forcing because  
345 scattering and absorption coefficients are playing crucial role in the radiative forcing  
346 calculations. Further, we also found a significant increase in WSOC/OC, WSOC/TC ratios,  
347 suggesting important implications related to cloud forming potential.

348 In order to see the impact of WSOC on cloud forming potential, we performed  
349 regression analysis between WSOC and MODIS-derived cloud condensation nuclei (CCN)  
350 concentrations. The results show a significantly good correlation ( $r=0.69$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) between



351 them and as shown in Figure 4. This result suggests that although nss-sulfate is a major  
352 contributor to the CCN, water-soluble organic matter also play an important role in CCN  
353 formation over the western North Pacific. This point is consistent with previous studies,  
354 which explain the contribution of water-soluble organic matter to CCN (Matsumoto et al.,  
355 1997;Zhao et al., 2016).

356

#### 357 **4. Conclusion**

358 Based on the long-term (2001-2012) trends of carbonaceous aerosols from Chichijima  
359 Island in the western North Pacific, we conclude that the seasonal variations of carbonaceous  
360 aerosols strictly followed seasonal trends of wind pattern at Chichijima in the western North  
361 Pacific. The annual trends of OC and WSOC with significant increases over the western  
362 North Pacific are probably due to the enhanced photochemical oxidation of biomass burning-  
363 and biogenic-derived VOCs during long-range atmospheric transport over the western North  
364 Pacific. This inference is supported by significant increases in the annual trends of OC/EC,  
365 WSOC/OC, OC/TC, WSOC/TC, nss-K<sup>+</sup>/EC mass ratios and MSA<sup>-</sup> concentrations. On the  
366 other hand, a significant decrease in the concentrations of EC during 2001-2012 suggests that  
367 the contribution of combustion-derived anthropogenic VOCs to WSOC may be decreased  
368 over the western North Pacific. Further, a good correlation ( $r=0.69$ ) between WSOC and  
369 CCN concentrations suggests that not only nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> but also water-soluble organic aerosols  
370 play a key role in CCN formation. Therefore, the results from this study have important  
371 implications toward the Earth's radiative forcing, especially over the North Pacific.

372

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380 ([kkawamura@isc.chubu.ac.jp](mailto:kkawamura@isc.chubu.ac.jp)).

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574 **Table 1.** Monthly mean ( $\pm$  standard deviation) values of EC, OC, WSOC concentrations and  
 575 their ratios during 2001-2012 over the western North Pacific.  
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Month	EC ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	OC ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	WSOC ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	OC/EC	WSOC/OC	nss-K <sup>+</sup> /EC
January	0.18 $\pm$ 0.07	0.80 $\pm$ 0.41	0.54 $\pm$ 0.28	4.85 $\pm$ 2.01	0.69 $\pm$ 0.14	0.29 $\pm$ 0.16
February	0.25 $\pm$ 0.07	0.95 $\pm$ 0.36	0.55 $\pm$ 0.17	3.95 $\pm$ 1.31	0.63 $\pm$ 0.22	0.35 $\pm$ 0.39
March	0.28 $\pm$ 0.05	1.13 $\pm$ 0.37	0.59 $\pm$ 0.22	4.11 $\pm$ 1.19	0.56 $\pm$ 0.19	0.22 $\pm$ 0.09
April	0.22 $\pm$ 0.10	0.77 $\pm$ 0.32	0.48 $\pm$ 0.28	3.89 $\pm$ 1.37	0.62 $\pm$ 0.20	0.26 $\pm$ 0.12
May	0.14 $\pm$ 0.08	0.80 $\pm$ 0.31	0.35 $\pm$ 0.19	7.68 $\pm$ 4.11	0.44 $\pm$ 0.19	0.40 $\pm$ 0.27
June	0.08 $\pm$ 0.07	0.74 $\pm$ 0.35	0.30 $\pm$ 0.18	21.1 $\pm$ 30.4	0.44 $\pm$ 0.17	0.54 $\pm$ 0.36
July	0.06 $\pm$ 0.06	0.58 $\pm$ 0.35	0.22 $\pm$ 0.07	19.0 $\pm$ 16.7	0.44 $\pm$ 0.17	0.97 $\pm$ 0.94
August	0.04 $\pm$ 0.03	0.63 $\pm$ 0.27	0.27 $\pm$ 0.16	95.9 $\pm$ 96.5	0.46 $\pm$ 0.23	0.70 $\pm$ 0.69
September	0.05 $\pm$ 0.04	0.60 $\pm$ 0.26	0.20 $\pm$ 0.10	47.3 $\pm$ 60.3	0.38 $\pm$ 0.19	1.02 $\pm$ 0.82
October	0.08 $\pm$ 0.04	0.62 $\pm$ 0.18	0.27 $\pm$ 0.12	12.2 $\pm$ 9.07	0.45 $\pm$ 0.19	0.50 $\pm$ 0.43
November	0.15 $\pm$ 0.10	0.75 $\pm$ 0.39	0.42 $\pm$ 0.20	6.68 $\pm$ 4.89	0.61 $\pm$ 0.20	0.44 $\pm$ 0.26
December	0.18 $\pm$ 0.09	0.73 $\pm$ 0.29	0.39 $\pm$ 0.08	4.63 $\pm$ 1.65	0.59 $\pm$ 0.18	0.21 $\pm$ 0.12

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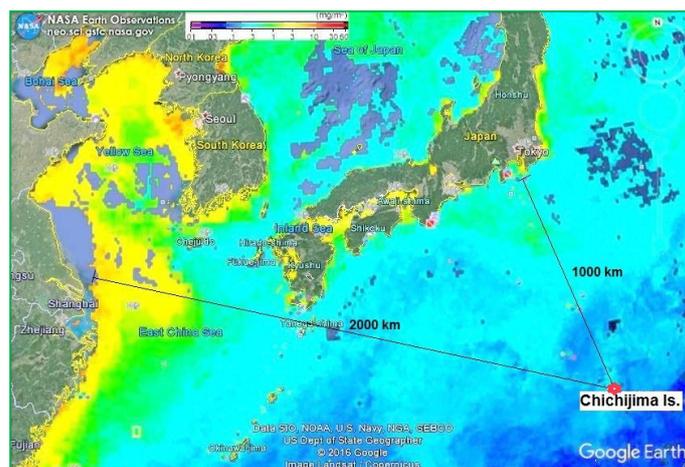
585 **Table 2.** Statistical report on the annual trends in carbonaceous aerosols and their ratios  
 586 during 2001-2012 at Chichijima Island in the western North Pacific. ‘\*’ indicates that the  
 587 trends are significant at  $p < 0.05$  level.  
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Species	Concentrations ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )				Mann-Kendall trend test		
	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Kendall's tau ( $\tau$ )	$p$ -value	Sen's slope
OC	0.26	1.70	0.76	0.36	0.07	>0.05	0.0008
EC	0.00	0.36	0.14	0.10	-0.06	>0.05	-0.0002
TC	0.28	2.01	0.90	0.43	0.05	>0.05	0.0007
WSOC	0.08	1.30	0.38	0.22	0.09*	<0.05	0.0006
OC/EC	1.91	688	19.34	67.9	0.21*	<0.05	0.0240
WSOC/OC	0.06	0.94	0.53	0.21	0.09*	<0.05	0.0007
OC/TC	0.66	1.00	0.85	0.08	0.21*	<0.05	0.0007
EC/TC	0.00	0.34	0.15	0.08	-0.21	>0.05	-0.0007
WSOC/TC	0.06	0.86	0.44	0.17	0.14*	<0.05	0.0009
MSA <sup>-</sup>	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.08*	<0.05	0.00002
nss-K <sup>+</sup> /EC	0.02	2.97	0.51	0.40	0.09*	<0.05	0.0009

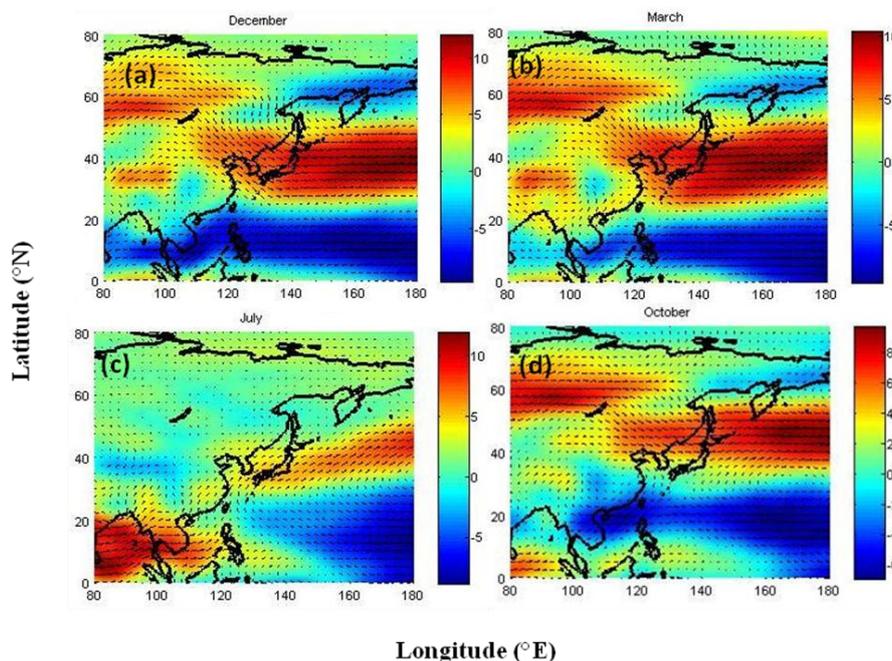
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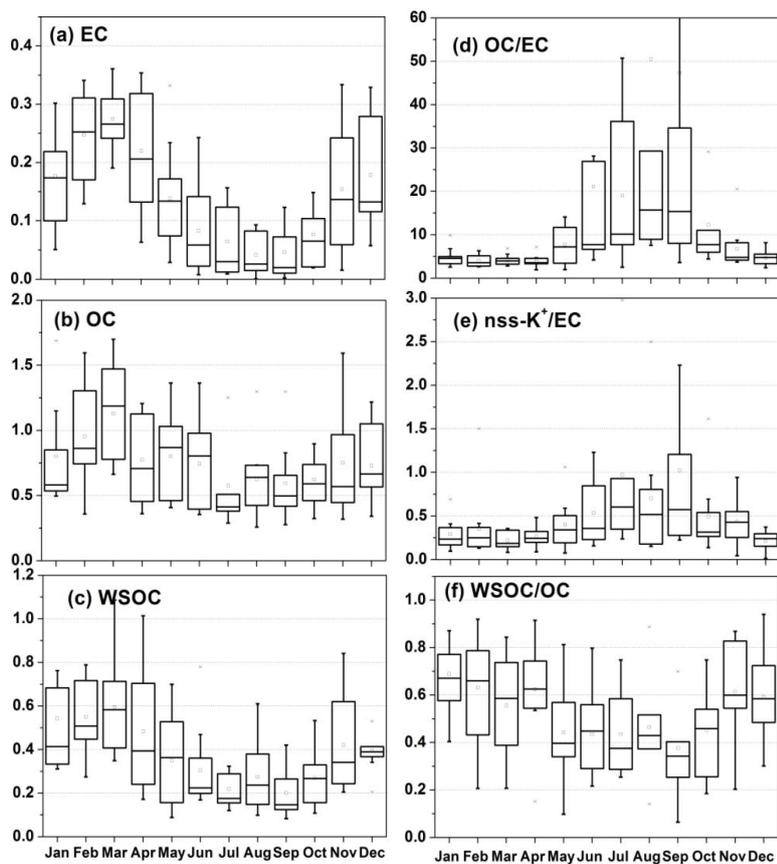
**Figure 1.** Location of sampling, Chichijima Island, in the western North Pacific. We also showed MODIS-derived Chlorophyll-*a* concentrations during winter 2008.



**Figure 2.** NCEP/NCAR reanalysis of the mean synoptic wind vector ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) at 850 mb pressure level over the western North Pacific during 2001-2012. The length of the arrow ( $\rightarrow$ ) indicates wind speed and head denotes the direction of wind.

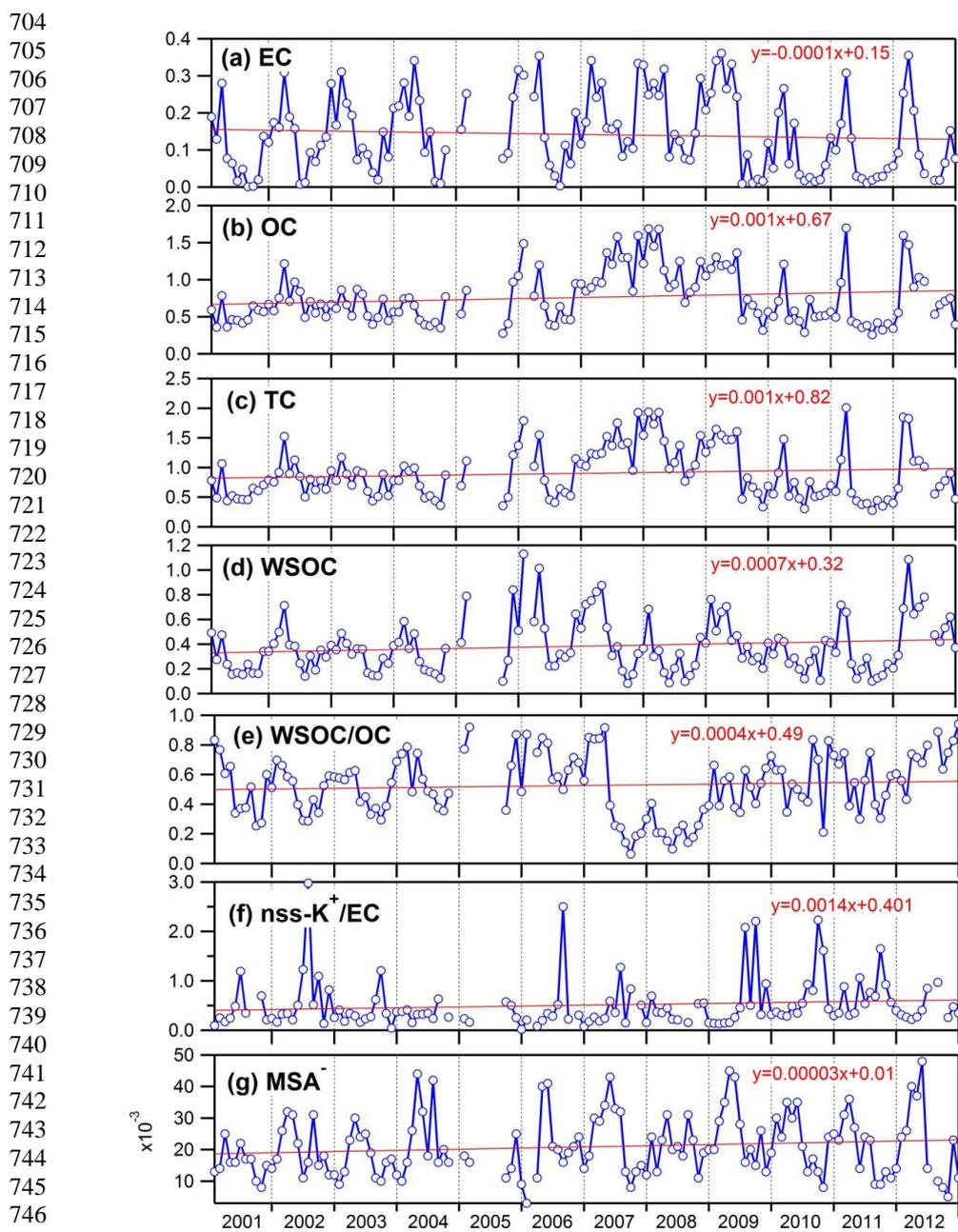


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**Figure 3.** Box-whisker plots of monthly variations of carbonaceous aerosol components ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and their ratios at Chichijima Island in the western North Pacific during 2001-2012.

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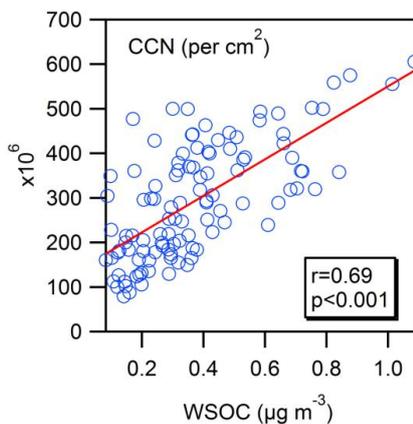


748 **Figure 4.** Annual trends in the concentrations ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) of (a-f) carbonaceous aerosol  
749 components and their ratios, (g) methanesulfonate ( $\text{MSA}^-$ ) during 2001-2012 over the  
750 western North Pacific. The liner trend equation ( $y=mx+c$ ) is also shown for the each  
751 annual trend.

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**Figure 5.** Regression analyses between WSOC and cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) concentrations over the western North Pacific.