

Interactive comment on “Measurement report: Quantifying source contribution and radiative forcing of fossil fuel and biomass burning black carbon aerosol in the southeastern margin of Tibetan Plateau” by Huikun Liu et al.

Anonymous Referee #1

General comments: In this manuscript, the sources of BC aerosols over the Tibetan Plateau and their radiative effects were investigated. BC aerosols were distinguished into fossil fuel combustion source and biomass burning source. Regional transport of source-specific BC was further explored by models. On this basis, the radiative effects caused by BC from different sources were evaluated. Overall, the manuscript is well structured, the methods are technically sound, and the main findings presented seem to be reasonable and be of general interests to the Tibetan Plateau ecosystem and climate stability study. I think the topic fits within the scope of ACP. I would recommend acceptance of this manuscript for publication pending the following revisions:

Response: We sincerely thank the reviewer for the comments and suggestions, and we have revised the relevant text and content. Below are point-to-point responses, and the modifications to the manuscript are marked.

Specific comments:

1. Please spend time picking through the manuscript and check for spelling and grammatical errors, especially the tense, prepositions and articles. For example, ‘BC on the TP’ should be replaced with ‘BC over the TP’, ‘transport to TP’ should be replaced with ‘transport to the TP’

Response: We have taken the suggestion to heart and have corrected the relevant mistakes as shown below. Also, the paper has been polished by a native English speaker.

“Therefore, quantitative information on the contributions of different sources of BC over the TP is lacking, but it is critically needed for a better understanding the influence of anthropogenic emissions on its environment and climate.”

“Nonetheless, these studies have been helpful for understanding the sources of BC over the TP.”

2. Section 1, this part should introduce the research background and significance, current status, concealed problems, as well as research mentality and content of this study. Please highlight the innovation and importance from another angle and reduce describing the deficiencies of previous research appropriately.

Response: We have re-written the introduction to include more background material, to clarify the research focus, to explain why we were interested in study area and why we chose the methods we did. The revised introduction now reads:

“The Tibetan Plateau (TP) is an important regulator of climate change in the northern hemisphere, and it plays crucial roles in the functions of global ecosystems and climate stability (Liu et al., 2019b; Liu et al., 2020a). The TP is covered by one of the largest ice masses on Earth, and it has been called the water tower of Asia (Liu et al., 2020b). The glaciers on the TP are facing rapid retreat, however, and if unchecked, that could result in adverse effects on Asian hydrological cycle and the Asian monsoon (Luo et al., 2020; Hua et al., 2019). In spring, the glaciers on the TP begin to melt as part of the natural hydrological cycle, but the increasing quantities of black carbon (BC) aerosol transported to the TP has accelerated this process (Bond et al., 2013) by causing a warming effect in atmosphere over the TP and enhancing the absorption of radiation on the surface of the glaciers (Ming et al., 2009).

The southern part of the TP is bounded by South Asia where air pollution often is severe (Chan et al. 2017). Several studies have shown that pollutants (including BC) from South Asia can be transported to the south of the TP along mountain-valleys, especially during the pre-monsoon (March–May) when southwesterly winds prevail (e.g., Cao et al., 2010; Xia et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2017; Niu et al. 2017). For example, Xia et al., (2011) analyzed satellite data and air mass trajectories and found that the TP, particularly the southern TP, was affected by pollutants carried by southwesterly winds from nearby regions in South Asia. In addition, numerous studies have shown that the high bulk BC mass loadings and the associated regional influences on the TP are related to transport from South Asia (Liu et al., 2015; Han et al., 2020; Cong et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). Nonetheless, assessments of regional transport of bulk BC aerosol have not fully revealed the impacts of different BC emission sources because the optical properties and radiative effects of BC not only can vary among sources in complex ways but also can be affected by aging during transport (Tian et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). Therefore, quantitative information on the contributions of different sources of BC over the TP is lacking, but it is critically needed for a better understanding the influence of anthropogenic emissions on its environment and climate.

Several studies have assessed the contributions of different BC sources through model simulations or isotopic methods. For example, Zhang et al. (2015) investigated BC sources for different parts of the TP by using a chemical transport model and a source tagging approach, and they found that the contributions of BC sources varied among regions and with the seasons. Li et al., (2016) used filter

sampling and carbon isotopes ($\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) to determine the BC from fossil fuels and biomass burning in several areas of the TP. A major disadvantage of filter-based measurements is they are constrained by low time resolution, and this makes it challenging to capture the detailed evolution of pollution events. On the other hand, the accuracy of model simulations is dependent on many factors, including uncertainties associated with initial particle parameters, aging processes, the accuracy of emission inventory, meteorological fields over the complex terrain, and the modules for chemistry and planetary boundary layer (PBL) dynamics, etc. (Koch et al., 2009; Madala et al., 2014; Vignati et al., 2010). Nonetheless, these studies have been helpful for understanding the sources of BC over the TP.

To make up for the deficiencies of filter-based analysis, BC source apportionments based on high-time resolution online data has been conducted in many locations but for the TP are limited. An ‘aethalometer model’ based on multi-wavelength absorption data is one of efficient approaches for distinguishing between BC from fossil fuel and biomass burning sources (Sandradewi et al., 2008). Although it has been widely used elsewhere, this approach has not been applied to the TP. The accuracy of the ‘aethalometer model’ relies on the input parameters, including the Ångström exponents (AAE) and BC mass absorption cross-sections (MAC_{BC}) of different sources (Zotter et al., 2017). Limited information on site specific AAEs and MAC_{BC} s, lead most studies to rely on values taken from measurements made in other locations (e.g., Healy et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2017). This results in unquantified uncertainties because the AAEs and MAC_{BC} s vary with specific fuel subtypes and combustion conditions (Wang et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2019). Therefore, site-dependent AAE and MAC_{BC} are essential for improving the reliability of BC source apportionment by the ‘aethalometer model’.

In this study, field measurements of BC were taken on the southeastern margin of the TP during the pre-monsoon. This region connects the high altitude TP with the low altitude Yungui Plateau and forms a transport channel for pollutants from Southeast Asia (Wang et al., 2019a), and it is an ideal region for investigating the impact of pollutant transport to the southeastern TP. A receptor model that combined multi-wavelength absorption with aerosol species concentrations was used to retrieve site-dependent AAEs and MAC_{BC} s. This was done to improve the ‘aethalometer model’ with the goal of obtaining a more accurate BC source apportionment. The primary objectives of this study were to (1) quantify the mass concentrations of BC from fossil fuel and biomass burning sources; (2) determine the impact of regional transport on source-specific BC; and (3) assess the radiative effects caused by BC from different sources. This study provides insights into the BC sources on southeastern TP and an assessment of their radiative effects during the pre-monsoon.”

3. Please try to avoid expressions like ‘our study’, which seems not be objective. Technical corrections: 1.P1, Line 24, ‘reveal’ should be changed to ‘revealed’.

Response: We have changed all “our study” in the manuscript into “this study”. The verbal tenses have been correct in the following sentence:

“The potential source contribution function indicated that BC_{biomass} was transported to the site from northeastern India and northern Burma.”

2.P1, Line 26, add ‘which’ before ‘can explain’.

Response: We have changed the sentence to

“The Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with chemistry (WRF-Chem) model indicated that 40% of the BC_{biomass} originated from Southeast Asia”

3.P2, Line 1, delete ‘and’ before ‘heating rates of’.

Response: We have changed this sentence to

“The DRE of BC_{biomass} and BC_{fossil} produced heating rates of 0.07 ± 0.05 and $0.06 \pm 0.02 \text{ K day}^{-1}$, respectively.”

4.P2, Line 1, ‘The glaciers on the TP recently shows are rapidly retreating’ should be revised.

Response: We have corrected this to

“The glaciers on the TP are facing rapid retreat, however, and if unchecked, that could result in adverse effects on Asian hydrological cycle and the Asian monsoon (Luo et al., 2020; Hua et al., 2019).”

5.P2, Line 4-8, Please cite these literatures, doi:10.1093/nsr/nwz191, doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2020.117583, doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2019.04.001.

Response: We cite those papers in the revised version.

“The Tibetan Plateau (TP) is an important regulator of climate change in the northern hemisphere, and it plays crucial roles in the functions of global ecosystems and climate stability (Liu et al., 2019b; Liu et al., 2020a). The TP is covered by one of the largest ice masses on Earth, and it has been called the water tower of Asia (Liu et al., 2020b).”

6.P2, Line 8-10, Please cite these literatures, doi.org/10.3390/rs12020231, doi:10.1002/joc.6430.

Response: We now cited these references in the revised version.

“The glaciers on the TP are facing rapid retreat, however, and if unchecked, that could result in adverse effects on Asian hydrological cycle and the Asian monsoon (Luo et al., 2020; Hua et al., 2019).”

7.P2, Line 16, *‘the atmospheric BC studies on the TP’ should be changed to ‘studies on the TP atmospheric BC’.*

Response: We have revised the sentence

“In addition, numerous studies have shown that the high bulk BC mass loadings and the associated regional influences on the TP are related to transport from South Asia (Liu et al., 2015; Han et al., 2020; Cong et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015).”

8.P2, Line 16-18, Please cite the literature, doi: 10.5194/acp-15-12581-2015.

Response: We have read that paper and now cite it. Please see it in the answer for the above question.

9.P2, Line 24, *‘the other is based on the field observations to apportion BC into different sources through a certain data analytical method.’ Please add appropriate literature.*

Response: We have re-written this text, and now it reads as follows:

“Several studies have assessed the contributions of different BC sources through model simulations or isotopic methods. For example, Zhang et al. (2015) investigated BC sources for different parts of the TP by using a chemical transport model and a source tagging approach, and they found that the contributions of BC sources varied among regions and with the seasons. Li et al., (2016) used filter sampling and carbon isotopes ($\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) to determine the BC from fossil fuels and biomass burning in several areas of the TP.”

10.P2, Line 25, *‘transport to TP’ should be changed to ‘transport to the TP’.*

Response: We have corrected and add the article “the” into TP in the revised version.

11.P3, Line 5, *‘are advantageous to capturing’ should be changed to ‘are advantageous to capture’.*

Response: We revised the sentence

“A major disadvantage of filter-based measurements is they are constrained by low time resolution, and this makes it challenging to capture the detailed evolution of pollution events.”

12.P3, Line 10, ‘cross-section (MAC) used in the model.’ Please add appropriate literature.

Response: We have added the relevant literature:

“The accuracy of the ‘aethalometer model’ relies on the input parameters, including the Ångström exponents (AAE) and BC mass absorption cross-sections (MAC_{BC}) of different sources (Zotter et al., 2017).”

13. P4, Line 11, ‘on the rooftop of’ should be changed to ‘at on the rooftop of’.

Response: We have corrected “on” into “at”. The sentence now reads

“Intensive field measurements were made at the rooftop of a building (~10 m above the ground) at the Lijiang Astronomical Station, Chinese Academy of Sciences (3260 m above sea level, 100°1'48"E, 26°41'24"N), Gaomeigu County, Yunnan Province, China (Fig. 1) from 14 March to 13 May 2018.”

14. P4, Line 15, ‘the radiative effect’ should be changed to ‘the radiative effects’.

Response: We have changed all “radiative effect” into “radiative effects” in the revised version.

15. P5, Line 4, ‘was resolved using’ should be changed to ‘was resolved by using’.

Response: We have changed the sentence as below:

“A dual-spot technique for the aethalometer measurements was used to compensate for non-linearity, while a factor of 2.14 was used to correct for the artifacts caused by the quartz filters (Drinovec et al., 2015).”

16. P8, Line 10, ‘the number of the endpoints’ should be changed to ‘the number of endpoints’.

Response: We have deleted “the” before endpoints in the sentence:

“where m_{ij} is the number of endpoints associated with BC mass concentration higher than the set criterion;”

17. P9, Line 8, ‘model is elaborated in Ricchiazzi and Yang, (1998)’ should be changed to ‘model was elaborated in Ricchiazzi and Yang (1998)’.

Response: We have corrected the tense as follows:

“The direct radiative effects (DRE) of source-specific BC were estimated with the widely used Santa Barbara DISORT Atmospheric Radiative Transfer (SBDART) model—a detailed description of which may be found in Ricchiazzi and Yang (1998).”

18. P10, Line 15, delete ‘which is’ before ‘within a relative boarder range’. P10, Line 18, delete ‘which was’ before ‘over two times’. In addition, it is necessary to pay attention to the tense errors, which often appear throughout the manuscript.

Response: Thanks for pointing out the error in tense. The paper has been edited and thoroughly revised, and the problems with tense should have been corrected. The sentences were changed to

“That was within the relatively broad range of AAE_{biomass} (1.2–3.5) determined by other methods (e.g., $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ and organic tracers) in previous studies (Sandradewi et al., 2008; Helin et al., 2018; Harrison et al., 2012; Zotter et al., 2017). The estimated average $MAC_{\text{BC}(880)}_{\text{biomass}}$ was $10.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$; this is more than twice the value for uncoated BC particles suggested by Bond and Bergstrom (2006) ($MAC_{\text{BC}(880)}_{\text{uncoated}} = 4.7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, extrapolated from 550nm to 880 nm by assuming $AAE_{\text{BC}} = 1.0$).”

19. P10, Line 19, Line 85, the comma before ‘(2006)’ should be deleted.

Response: We corrected this mistake:

“The estimated average $MAC_{\text{BC}(880)}_{\text{biomass}}$ was $10.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$; this is more than twice the value for uncoated BC particles suggested by Bond and Bergstrom (2006) ($MAC_{\text{BC}(880)}_{\text{uncoated}} = 4.7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, extrapolated from 550nm to 880 nm by assuming $AAE_{\text{BC}} = 1.0$).”

20. P11, Line 5, ‘may be relation with’ should be changed to ‘may be related with’ or ‘may have relation with’.

Response: We corrected this:

“Although unleaded gasoline has been used extensively in China since 2005, a considerable portion of the Pb in the environment is still associated with vehicle-related particles, especially from the wear of metal alloys (Hao et al., 2019).”

21. P12, Line 26, ‘This suggests and’ should be changed to ‘This suggests that’.

Response: We have changed the sentence as following:

“One can infer from this that biomass-burning emissions were responsible for the high BC loading episode during the campaign.”

22. P14, Line 12, ‘the mainland China’ should be changed to ‘mainland China’ or ‘the mainland of China’.

Response: We have corrected this mistake in the revised manuscript:

“The air masses associated with Cluster 3 originated from the interior of China, and this group had the lowest BC mass concentrations of the three clusters, $0.4 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. This third cluster composed small fraction of total trajectories (2%), and none of them were identified as polluted, suggesting minor influences from mainland China during the campaign.”

“The transportation sector has grown rapidly in mainland China (Liu, 2019a), and the regional transport of motor vehicle emissions may have been the cause for the observed diurnal variations in $\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$ for Cluster 3.”

Review of “Measurement report: Quantifying source contribution and radiative forcing of fossil fuel and biomass burning black carbon aerosol in the southeastern margin of Tibetan Plateau” (ACPD-2020-408, Liu et al)

Anonymous Referee #2

General comment: This paper reports on measurements and modeling regarding the contribution of fossil fuel and biomass burning sources to black carbon (BC) aerosols abundance and radiative forcing at a site south-east of the Tibetan Plateau. Methods used in the study are robust, and the results are sound. However, it is difficult to ascertain the novelty and actual contribution to the overall understanding of, for instance, how BC aerosols are affecting the Tibetan Plateau. In my opinion, authors may turn this study into a relevant one if they would consider using the data at hand by better explaining the reasons that make these data important for improved understanding. In its present form, detailed measurements and modeling are more suited for a technical report not suitable, in my opinion, for this prestigious journal.

Response: The authors appreciate the reviewer’s valuable comments and suggestions, and we believe that the revised manuscript has been significantly improved after considering them. Below are point-to-point responses, and the modifications to the manuscript are marked.

Specific comments

(1) The text would improve in clarity and possibly be shorten if reviewed by a native English writer/speaker. Also, some results could be summarized in tables improving the readability of the text.

Response: We have had this manuscript polished by a native English speaking scientist. In addition, some results also are summarized in Table R1 (also see Table 1 in the revised manuscript) as suggested.

Table 1 Derived Ångström absorption exponents (AAE), Mass absorption coefficients (MAC) and percent source contribution of black carbon (BC) from difference sources

	AAE	MAC ($\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$)	Mass concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	Contribution ratio
BC _{biomass}	1.7	10.4	0.4 ± 0.3	57%
BC _{traffic}	0.8	9.1	---	---
BC _{coal}	1.1	15.5	---	---
BC _{fossil}	0.9	12.3	0.3 ± 0.2	43%

(2) *Abstract: Re-write according to suggestions below. What do we learn from this study?*

In what context is this useful? What is the novelty?

Response: As suggested, we have rewritten the abstract and clearly state the purpose, importance and novelty of the study. It now reads as follows:

“Anthropogenic emissions of black carbon (BC) aerosol are transported from Southeast Asia to the southwestern Tibetan Plateau (TP) during the pre-monsoon; however, the quantities of BC from different anthropogenic sources and the transport mechanisms are still not well constrained because there have been no high-time-resolution BC source apportionments. Intensive measurements were taken in a transport channel for pollutants from Southeast Asia to the southeastern TP during the pre-monsoon to investigate the influences of fossil fuels and biomass burning on BC. A receptor model coupled multi-wavelength absorption with aerosol species concentrations was used to retrieve site-specific Ångström exponents (AAE) and mass absorption cross-sections (MAC) for BC. An ‘aethalometer model’ that used those values showed that biomass burning had a larger contribution to BC mass than fossil fuels (BC_{biomass} = 57% versus BC_{fossil} = 43%). The potential source contribution function indicated that BC_{biomass} was transported to the site from northeastern India and northern Burma. The Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with chemistry (WRF-Chem) model indicated that 40% of the BC_{biomass} originated from Southeast Asia, while the highest BC_{fossil} was transported from the southwest of the sampling site. A radiative transfer model indicated that the average atmospheric direct radiative effects (DRE) of BC were $+4.6 \pm 2.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ with $+2.5 \pm 1.8 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ from BC_{biomass} and $+2.1 \pm 0.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ from BC_{fossil}. The DRE of BC_{biomass} and BC_{fossil} produced heating rates of 0.07 ± 0.05 and $0.06 \pm 0.02 \text{ K day}^{-1}$, respectively. This study provides insights into sources of BC over a transport channel to the southeastern TP and the influence of the cross-border transportation of biomass burning emissions from Southeast Asia during the pre-monsoon.”

• *Introduction*

(3) Page 2, lines 13-14. *In addition to characterizing source regions and their contributions to aerosol burden downwind it is also important to assess the timing in which this impact occur, how is the aging process, etc.*

Response: We agree with the reviewer that timing and aging are also importation factors, so we have re-written this sentence in the revised manuscript. It now reads as follows:

“Nonetheless, assessments of regional transport of bulk BC aerosol have not fully revealed the impacts of different BC emission sources because the optical properties and radiative effects of BC not only can vary among sources in complex ways but also can be affected by aging during transport (Tian et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). Therefore, quantitative information on the contributions of different sources of BC over the TP is lacking, but it is critically needed for a better understanding the influence of anthropogenic emissions on its environment and climate.”

(4) Page 2, lines 22-24. *Uncertainties in modeling studies not only depend on uncertain emission estimates but also on how well chemistry, transport and deposition processes are represented, initial/boundary conditions, etc. It appears necessary to review other studies to get an idea of the uncertainty when using models to simulate long-range transport, particularly over complex terrain.*

Response: We agree that the uncertainties of modeling method can be caused by the factors mentioned by reviewer and likely others. The complex terrain has impact on simulation of meteorological field over the Tibetan Plateau. We followed the reviewer’s suggestion and have rewritten the relevant paragraph in the revised manuscript; it now reads as follows:

“On the other hand, the accuracy of model simulations is dependent on many factors, including uncertainties associated with initial particle parameters, aging processes, the accuracy of emission inventory, meteorological fields over the complex terrain, and the modules for chemistry and planetary boundary layer (PBL) dynamics, etc. (Koch et al., 2009; Madala et al., 2014; Vignati et al., 2010).”

(5) Page 3, lines 1-24. *This is a lengthy discussion about distinguishing between biomass and fossil fuel black carbon according to multiple observational and methodological studies. Rather than listing the pros and cons of the different methods, it would be good to have a clearer idea of which is the method fit for purpose to be discussed in the work. For that, it is key to establish a clear purpose, and how this will help improving*

understanding of a given phenomenon.

Response: Following the reviewer's suggestion, we have rewritten the introduction in the revised manuscript and presented a clear explanation as to why we chose the online method, including why and how we optimized the methods. To clarify the purpose of this research, we re-organized the last two paragraphs of the introduction. They now read as follows:

“To make up for the deficiencies of filter-based analysis, BC source apportionments based on high-time resolution online data has been conducted in many locations but for the TP are limited. An ‘aethalometer model’ based on multi-wavelength absorption data is one of efficient approaches for distinguishing between BC from fossil fuel and biomass burning sources (Sandradewi et. al., 2008). Although it has been widely used elsewhere, this approach has not been applied to the TP. The accuracy of the ‘aethalometer model’ relies on the input parameters, including the Ångström exponents (AAE) and BC mass absorption cross-sections (MAC_{BC}) of different sources (Zotter et al., 2017). Limited information on site specific AAEs and MAC_{BC} s, lead most studies to rely on values taken from measurements made in other locations (e.g., Healy et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2017). This results in unquantified uncertainties because the AAEs and MAC_{BC} s vary with specific fuel subtypes and combustion conditions (Wang et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2019). Therefore, site-dependent AAE and MAC_{BC} are essential for improving the reliability of BC source apportionment by the ‘aethalometer model’.

In this study, field measurements of BC were taken on the southeastern margin of the TP during the pre-monsoon. This region connects the high altitude TP with the low altitude Yungui Plateau and forms a transport channel for pollutants from Southeast Asia (Wang et al., 2019a), and it is an ideal region for investigating the impact of pollutant transport to the southeastern TP. A receptor model that combined multi-wavelength absorption with aerosol species concentrations was used to retrieve site-dependent AAEs and MAC_{BC} s. This was done to improve the ‘aethalometer model’ with the goal of obtaining a more accurate BC source apportionment. The primary objectives of this study were to (1) quantify the mass concentrations of BC from fossil fuel and biomass burning sources; (2) determine the impact of regional transport on source-specific BC; and (3) assess the radiative effects caused by BC from different sources. This study provides insights into the BC sources on southeastern TP and an assessment of their radiative effects during the pre-monsoon.”

(6) *Page 4, lines 1-6. You state that previous studies have dealt with radiative impacts of bulk BC, no distinguishing BC sources. Furthermore, you state that this study would*

be unique as it provides the first estimate of BC radiative forcing split by source regions. However, you estimate the instantaneous forcing over one site which is, by definition, locally representative, and not necessarily climatically important. Other studies may have estimated bulk BC forcing but over much longer periods of time, and over large areas, including the Himalayan cryosphere. Hence, I urge the authors to make their study unique by better establishing the purpose of it.

Response: We appreciate this comment. Taking into consideration Comments 1–5, we have re-written the introduction to explain the purpose of our study and we deleted this paragraph in the revised manuscript. BC is an important atmospheric light-absorbing material that can have significant radiative effects. The SBDART model has been widely used to estimate the instantaneous radiative effects of BC based on the ground observations (Gharibzadeh et al., 2017; Rajesh et al., 2018; Panicker et al., 2010). Although data from only one site on the southeastern TP were collected (because of practical limitations in personnel, equipment, logistics, etc.), we believe that the unique geographic location of sampling site (i.e., transport channel) on TP make our results of considerable interest. In addition, due to paucity of studies that have separately quantified BC mass from biomass burning and fossil fuels on TP, we think that it is important to understand their radiative effects and potential influences on climate.

References:

- Gharibzadeh M , Alam K , Abedini Y , et al. Monthly and seasonal variations of aerosol optical properties and direct radiative forcing over Zanjan, Iran, J. Atmos. Sol-Terr. Phy., 164, 268-275, [dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jastp.2017.09.006](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jastp.2017.09.006), 2017
- Panicker, A. S., Pandithurai, G., Safai, P. D., Dipu, S., and Lee, D.-I.: On the contribution of black carbon to the composite aerosol radiative forcing over an urban environment, Atmos. Environ., 44, 3066-3070, [10.1016/j.atmosenv.2010.04.047](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2010.04.047), 2010.
- Rajesh, T. A., and Ramachandran, S.: Black carbon aerosols over urban and high altitude remote regions: Characteristics and radiative implications, Atmos. Environ., 194, 110-122, [10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.09.023](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.09.023), 2018.

(7) Page 4, line 17. Improve the precision of attitude and longitude to allow a proper location of the site.

Response: Following the reviewer's suggestion, we have specified the attitude and longitude of the sampling site in the revised manuscript. It now reads as follows:

“Intensive field measurements were made at the rooftop of a building (~10 m above the ground) at the Lijiang Astronomical Station, Chinese Academy of Sciences (3260 m above sea level, 100°1'48"E, 26°41'24"N), Gaomeigu County, Yunnan Province, China (Fig. 1) from 14 March to 13 May 2018.”

(8) Page 4, lines 18-19. As per your reference, Wang et al (2019a), your observation site is located along a “transportation channel”. Describe the overall transport patterns affect. Is the period of observations representative of which transport/circulation pattern? An overall meteorological description is missing.

Response: In the pre-monsoon season when the southeastern margin of the TP is influenced by the westerly winds (Chan et al 2017; Niu et al., 2017), a pathway for the cross border transport of emissions from southeast Asia to the TP. The sampling period for this study was from March to May and therefore in the pre-monsoon. In the revised manuscript, we have added some information about the ‘transport channel’. It now reads as follows:

“During the campaign, westerly winds created a potential pathway for cross border transport from southeast Asia to southwest China. During the study, the average relative humidity and temperature were $80\% \pm 20\%$ and $7.6 \pm 3.2^{\circ}\text{C}$, respectively; the mean wind speed near surface was $5.4 \pm 2.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, and the winds were mainly from the west and southwest.”

References:

- Chan, C. Y., Wong, K. H., Li, Y. S., Chan, Y., and Zhang, X. D.: The effects of Southeast Asia fire activities on tropospheric ozone, trace gases and aerosols at a remote site over the Tibetan Plateau of Southwest China, *Tellus B*, 58B, 310-318, 10.1111/j.1600-0889.2006.00187.x, 2017
- Niu H., Kang, S., Zhang, Y., Shi, X., Shi, X., Wang S., Li, G., Yan, X., Pu, T. He, Y., Distribution of light-absorbing impurities in snow of glacier on Mt. Yulong, southeastern Tibetan Plateau, *Atmos. Res.*, 197, 474-484, 10.1016/j.atmosres.2017.07.004, 2017.

(9) *Page 4, lines 19-20. You say that the population surrounding your observational site is small. Small compared to what? Then you go onto establishing that limited anthropogenic activities are found there. However, your results show a non-negligible contribution. The site should be better described, including a brief description of aerosol sources.*

Response: At the sampling site, the influence of anthropogenic activities is limited due to the low population density and lack of industries. The local emissions have small effects on the BC source apportionment results compared with the contributions of fossil fuel BC from two highways (5.5 km from the sampling site) and transport from the border with Burma. Following the reviewer's suggestion, we have added some information about the possible anthropogenic emissions in the surrounding area of the sampling site. The revised manuscript now reads as follows:

“The sampling site is 3–5 km from Gaomeigu village, which has 27 households and 110 residents. Villagers there rely on farming for their livelihoods, and biomass is the primarily residential fuel (Li et al, 2016). There are no large industries near the village and traffic is light. However, two highways (Hangzhou-Ruili Expressway and Dali-Nujiang Expressway) are located ~5.5 km to the west of the sampling site.”

(10) *Page 7, section 2.5. HYSPLIT can be used with large-scale (synoptic) meteorological fields. Do you have an assessment of how well this approach works over complex terrain?*

Response: The meteorological data used in this study were obtained from the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) and had a spatial resolution of $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$. The HYSPLIT model converted the vertical layers from the original coordinate system into its own terrain-following coordinate system (sigma) and directly used the data contained in meteorological files for the trajectory calculations (Draxler and Hess, 1997). The surface in the terrain-following coordinate system is consistent with the ground, and that solves the problem of modelling near mountainous areas (Phillips, 1965). Furthermore, this method has been used over complex terrain with various meteorological data in a number of studies (Burley and Bytnerowicz 2011; Wang et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019; Qu et al 2015 and Khan et al., 2010).

To determine if the trajectory would be impacted by the surface rising, we also ran calculations at heights of 150m and 1000m in addition to 500m (Figure R1). The results showed that directions were similar, particularly between the results at 150m and at 500m. We finally decided to use the 500m results because greater heights be higher than the height at which the samples were collected, and 500m is generally representative of the average planetary boundary height at the site (~600m).

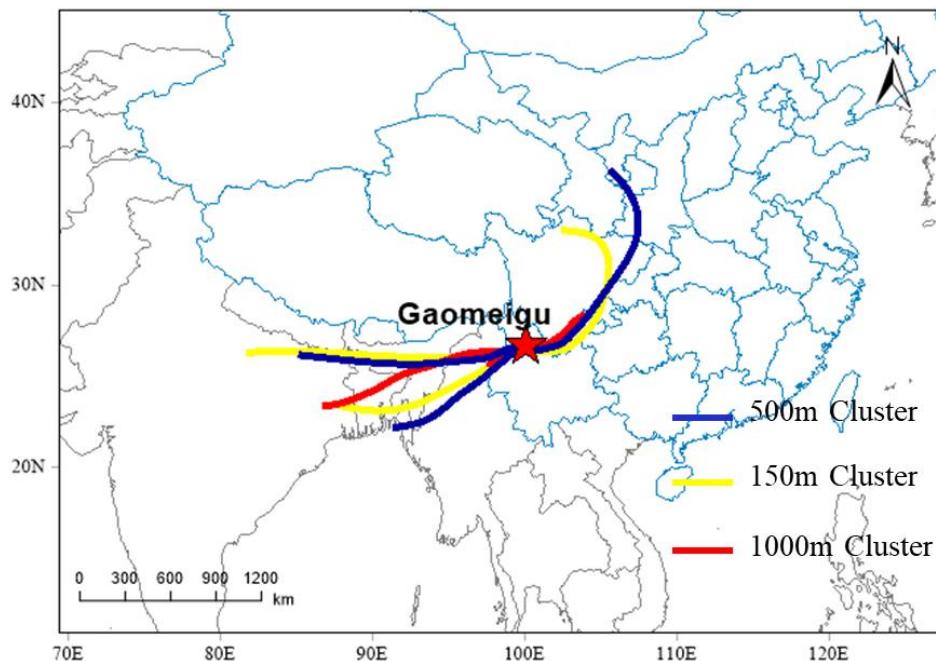


Figure R1. the blue lines represent the clusters at 500m height, the yellow lines represent the clusters at 150m height, the red lines represent the cluster at 1000m height.

References:

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(11) Why do you choose 3-day back trajectories instead of 2 or 5 days?

Response: Studies have indicated that BC lifetime varies from 3.3 to 12 days in the atmosphere (Liu et al., 2011 and references therein). The BC lifetime depends on many factors such as morphology, size, mixing state, aging condition, and meteorological conditions. It is not possible to know the exact lifetime of the BC sampled at the study site, and therefore, we chose the lowest value for the BC lifetimes to minimize the effects of BC deposition during transport to the site. In addition, the 3-day backward trajectories also have been widely used in previous studies to investigate BC transport pathways (e.g., Wang et al., 2018; Verma et al., 2010).

References:

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• *Results and discussion*

(12) *Page 11, lines 20-25. Your BC aerosol appears to have aged. Can't you use your WRF-Chem simulations to attempt providing further insights on this issue?*

Response: We thank the reviewer providing us with this suggestion. However, BC is usually considered as chemically inert in the atmosphere (Bond et al., 2013), and the WRF-Chem model only accounts for physical processes of BC in the atmosphere, such as the wet and dry deposition. Although we concluded that BC underwent substantial aging, the objective of the study was to apportion the BC sources, and that did not include contributions from materials coating the BC. Moreover, due to the limitation of the measurement methods in this study, we could not obtain quantitative information regarding BC aging, which would have been the best way to constrain the model simulation. Therefore, the aging of BC is something that would be better addressed in future studies.

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(13) Some of your results could be better appreciated if summarized in a table.

Response: As suggested, results have been summarized in to a table. Please see the response of comment 1 above.

(14) You make multiple references to FigS3. Maybe it is better to bring it to the main manuscript. If so, it could be useful to split the graphs for daytime and nighttime periods as it would better fit with Figure 2.

Response: The mass concentrations of levoglucosan and benzothiazolone were obtained from 24 h filter samples, and so we cannot compare daytime versus nighttime periods. Note that the online BC data were integrated to match each filter sampling times. We did follow the reviewer's suggestion and combined Fig. S3 with Fig. 2 in the revised manuscript (also see Fig. R2 below).

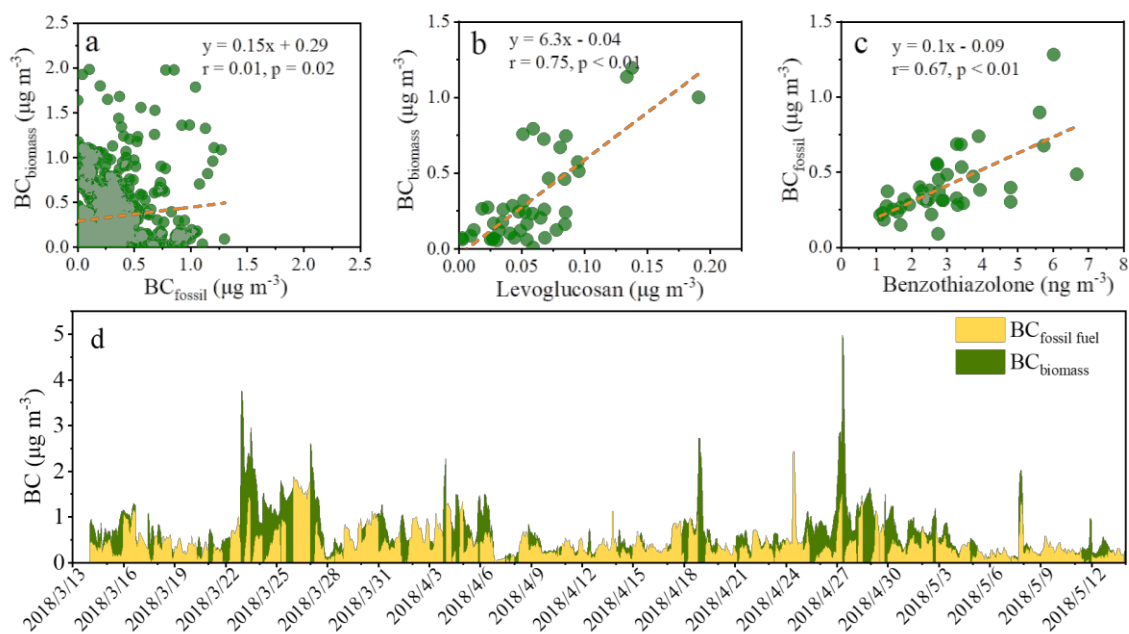


Figure R2. Scatter plots of (a) biomass burning BC ($BC_{biomass}$) versus fossil fuel combustion BC (BC_{fossil}), (b) $BC_{biomass}$ versus levoglucosan, and (c) BC_{fossil} versus benzothiazolone. $BC_{biomass}$ and BC_{fossil} represent black carbon aerosol contributed by biomass burning and fossil fuel sources, respectively. (d) Time series of hourly averaged mass concentrations of black carbon (BC) aerosol from biomass burning ($BC_{biomass}$) and fossil fuel sources (BC_{fossil}).

- *Conclusion*

(15) *Stress the novelty, and make it explicit that the period studied correspond to a given set of transport/circulation patterns.*

Response: We followed the reviewer's suggestion and rewrote the conclusions in the revised manuscript. It now reads as follows:

“This study quantified the source contributions of BC aerosol from fossil fuel and biomass burning at a site on the southeastern margin of the TP that represents a regional transport channel for air pollution during pre-monsoon. The study was conducted in pre-monsoon when the southeastern TP was heavily influenced by the air mass from southeast Asia. To reduce the uncertainties caused by interferences in absorption measurements (i.e. secondary absorption and dust) and assumptions relative to AAE and MAC_{BC}, the traditional ‘aethalometer model’ was optimized in two aspects. First, a BC-tracer method coupled with a minimum R-squared approach was applied to separate secondary absorption from the total absorption, and as a result, the interferences of absorption from secondary aerosols have been eliminated. Then, an optical source apportionment model that used primary multi-wavelength absorption and chemical species as inputs was used to derive site-dependent AAE and MAC_{BC} values—these minimize the uncertainties associated with prior assumptions on these parameters. The AAE (MAC_{BC}) calculated in this way was 0.9 (12.3 m² g⁻¹) for the fossil fuel source and 1.7 (10.4 m² g⁻¹) for biomass burning. The results of ‘aethalometer model’ that used these values showed that the average mass concentration of BC was $0.7 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ of which 57% was from biomass burning and 43% from fossil fuels. Trajectory analysis showed that the BC_{biomass} over the site was mainly driven by regional transport from northeastern India and Burma, while BC_{fossil} was primarily influenced by traffic emissions from areas surrounding the sampling site. Moreover, the WRF-Chem model indicated that biomass burning in Southeast Asia contributed 40% of the BC loadings over the southeastern margin of the TP. The SBDART model showed that a DRE of $+4.6 \pm 2.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ for the total PM_{2.5} BC, of which $+2.5 \pm 1.8 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ was from BC_{biomass} and $+2.1 \pm 0.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ from BC_{fossil}. The results of our study provide useful information concerning the sources of BC over an atmospheric transport channel to the southeastern TP, and they highlight the importance of the cross-border transport of biomass burning emissions from Southeast Asia on the region during the pre-monsoon.”

Measurement report: Quantifying source contribution of fossil fuels and biomass burning black carbon aerosol in the southeastern margin of Tibetan Plateau

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⁵School of Geography and Tourism, Shaanxi Normal University, Xi'an, 710119, China

Correspondence to: Qiyuan Wang (wangqy@ieecas.cn) and Junji Cao (cao@loess.llqg.ac.cn)

Abstract.

Anthropogenic emissions of Black carbon (BC) aerosol are transported from Southeast Asia to the southwestern Tibetan Plateau (TP) during the pre-monsoon; however, the quantities of BC from different anthropogenic sources and the transport mechanisms are still not well constrained because there have been no high-time-resolution BC source apportionments. Intensive measurements were taken in a transport channel for pollutants from Southeast Asia to the southeastern margin of TP during the pre-monsoon to investigate the influences of fossil fuels and biomass burning on BC. A receptor model coupled multi-wavelength absorption with aerosol species concentrations was used to retrieve site-specific Ångström exponents (AAE) and mass absorption cross-sections (MAC) for BC. An 'aethalometer model' that used those values showed that biomass burning had a larger contribution to BC mass than fossil fuels ($BC_{biomass} = 57\%$ versus $BC_{fossil} = 43\%$). The potential source contribution function indicated that $BC_{biomass}$ was transported to the site from northeastern India and northern Burma. The Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with chemistry (WRF-Chem) model indicated that 40% of $BC_{biomass}$ originated from Southeast Asia, while the high BC_{fossil} was transported from the southwest of sampling site. A radiative transfer model indicated that the average atmospheric direct radiative effects (DRE) of BC was $+4.6 \pm 2.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ with $+2.5 \pm 1.8 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ from $BC_{biomass}$ and $+2.1 \pm 0.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ from

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BC_{fossil}. ~~The DRE of BC_{biomass} and BC_{fossil} produced~~ heating rates of 0.07 ± 0.05 and 0.06 ± 0.02 K day⁻¹, respectively. ~~This study provides insights into sources of BC over a transport channel to the southeastern TP and the influence of the cross-border transportation of biomass burning emissions from Southeast Asia during the pre-monsoon.~~

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1 Introduction

The Tibetan Plateau (TP) is ~~an important~~ regulator of climate change in the northern hemisphere and ~~it~~ plays a crucial role in ~~the functions of~~ global ecosystem and climate stability (Liu et al., 2019b; Liu et al., 2020a). ~~The TP is covered by~~ one of the largest ice masses on Earth, ~~and it has been called~~ the water tower of Asia (Liu et al., 2020b). The glaciers on the TP ~~are facing rapid retreat, however, and if unchecked, that~~ could ~~result in~~ adverse effects on Asian hydrological cycle and Asian monsoon (Luo et al., 2020; Hua et al., 2019). In spring, the glaciers on the TP begin to melt as part of the natural hydrological cycle, ~~but~~ the increasing quantities of black carbon (BC) ~~aerosol transported to~~ the TP has accelerated this process (Bond et al., 2013) ~~by causing a warming effect in atmosphere over the TP and enhancing the absorption of radiation on the surface of the glaciers~~ (Ming et al., 2009).

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The southern part of the TP is bounded by South Asia where air pollution often is severe (Chan et al. 2017). Several studies have shown that pollutants (including BC) from South Asia can be transported to the south of the TP along mountain-valleys, especially during the pre-monsoon (March–May) when southwesterly winds prevail (e.g., Cao et al., 2010; Xia et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2017; Niu et al. 2017). For example, Xia et al., (2011) analyzed satellite data and air mass trajectories and found that the TP, particularly the southern TP, was affected by pollutants carried by southwesterly winds from nearby regions in South Asia. In addition, numerous studies have shown that the high bulk BC mass loadings and the associated regional influences on the TP are related to transport from South Asia (Liu et al., 2015; Han et al., 2020; Cong et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). Nonetheless, assessments of regional transport of bulk BC aerosol have not fully revealed the impacts of different BC emission sources because the optical properties and radiative effects of BC not only can vary among sources in complex ways but also can be affected by aging during transport (Tian et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). Therefore, quantitative

information on the contributions of different sources of BC over the TP is lacking, but it is critically needed for a better understanding the influence of anthropogenic emissions on its environment and climate.

Several studies have assessed the contributions of different BC sources through model simulations or isotopic methods. For example, Zhang et al. (2015) investigated BC sources for different parts of the TP by using a chemical transport model and a source tagging approach, and they found that the contributions of BC sources varied among regions and with the seasons. Li et al., (2016) used filter sampling and carbon isotopes ($\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) to determine the BC from fossil fuels and biomass burning in several areas of the TP. A major disadvantage of filter-based measurements is they are constrained by low time resolution, and this makes it challenging to capture the detailed evolution of pollution events. On the other hand, the accuracy of model simulations is dependent on many factors, including uncertainties associated with initial particle parameters, aging processes, the accuracy of emission inventory, meteorological fields over the complex terrain, and the modules for chemistry and planetary boundary layer (PBL) dynamics, etc. (Koch et al., 2009; Madala et al., 2014; Vignati et al., 2010). Nonetheless, these studies have been helpful for understanding the sources of BC over the TP.

To make up for the deficiencies of filter-based analysis, BC source apportionments based on high-time resolution online data has been conducted in many locations, (e.g., Herich et al., 2011; Zhu et al., 2017; Rajesh and Ramachandran, 2018) but for the TP are limited. An ‘aethalometer model’ based on multi-wavelength absorption data is one of efficient approaches for distinguishing between BC from fossil fuel and biomass burning sources (Sandradewi et al., 2008). The accuracy of the ‘aethalometer model’ relies on the input parameters, including absorption Ångström exponent (AAE) and BC mass absorption cross-section (MAC) of different sources (Zotter et al., 2017). Limited information on site specific AAEs and MAC_{BCs} lead most studies to rely on values taken from measurements made in other locations (e.g., Healy et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2017). This results in unquantified uncertainties because the AAE and MAC_{BCs} can vary with specific fuel subtypes and combustion conditions (Wang et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2019). Therefore site-dependent AAE and MAC_{BC} are essential for improving the reliability of BC source apportionment by the ‘aethalometer model’.

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In this study, field measurements of BC were taken on the southeastern margin of the TP during the pre-monsoon. This region connects the high altitude TP with the low altitude Yungui Plateau and forms a transport channel for pollutants from Southeast Asia (Wang et al., 2019a), and it is an ideal region for investigating the impact of pollutant transport to the southeastern TP. a receptor model that combined with multi-wavelength absorption with aerosol species concentrations was used to retrieve site-dependent AAEs and BC MAC_{BCs}. This was done to improve the 'aethalometer model' with the goal of obtaining a more accurate BC source apportionment. The primary objectives of this study were to (1) quantify the mass concentrations of BC from fossil fuel and biomass burning sources; (2) determine the impact of regional transport on source-specific BC, and (3) assess the radiative effects caused by BC from different sources. This study provides insights into the BC sources on the southeastern TP and an assessment of their radiative effects during the pre-monsoon.

2 Methodology

2.1 Sampling site

Intensive field measurements were made at the rooftop of a building (~10 m above the ground) at the Lijiang Astronomical Station, Chinese Academy of Sciences (3260 m above sea level, 100°1'48"E, 26°41'24"N), Gaomeigu County, Yunnan Province, China (Fig. 1) from 14 March to 13 May 2018. During the campaign, westerly winds created a potential pathway for cross border transport from southeast Asia to southwest China. During the study, the average relative humidity and temperature were 80% ± 20% and 7.6 ± 3.2°C, respectively; the mean wind speed near surface was 5.4 ± 2.1 m s⁻¹, and the winds were mainly from the west and southwest. The sampling site is 3–5 km from Gaomeigu village, which has 27 households and 110 residents. Villagers there rely on farming for their livelihoods, and biomass is the primarily residential fuel (Li et al. 2016). There are no large industries near the village and traffic is light. However, two highways (Hangzhou-Ruili Expressway and Dali-Nujiang Expressway) are located ~5.5 km to the west of the sampling site.

删除了: BC is recognized as the second largest anthropogenic warming agent globally after carbon dioxide, and its radiative effect varies largely with different areas (Bond et al., 2013). Currently, regional modeling and observation-based methods have been used in assessing BC radiative forcing on the TP. In this regard, most studies concentrate on the areas of longitude between 72 – 86° (e.g., Rajesh and Ramachandran, 2018; Bhat et al., 2017; Dumka et al., 2013; Singh et al., 2018). These studies focus on the radiative effect caused by bulk BC aerosol and some of them indicate that BC can account for 55 – 70% of the composite aerosol atmospheric radiative forcing (Panicker et al., 2010; Srivastava et al., 2012; Sreekanth et al., 2007). As summarized above, owing to the lack of studies regarding BC source apportionment on the TP, to our knowledge, there is no literature referring to the impacts of source-specific BC on the radiative forcing at present.

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2.2 Online and offline measurements

Aerosol light absorption coefficients at multiple wavelengths ($b_{\text{abs}}(\lambda)$, $\lambda = 370, 470, 520, 590, 660, 880$, and 950 nm) were retrieved with the use of a model AE33 aethalometer (Magee Scientific, Berkeley, CA, USA). The sampled particles were selected by a PM_{2.5} cuff-off inlet (SCC 1.829, BGI Inc. USA) and dried with a Nafion® dryer (MD-700-24S-3; Perma Pure, Inc., Lakewood, NJ, USA) and the flowrate of the sampler is 5 L min^{-1} . Detailed operating principles of the AE33 aethalometer can be found in Drinovec et al. (2015). Briefly, light at wavelengths (λ) = $370, 470, 520, 590, 660, 880$, and 950 nm emitted from diodes is used to irradiate aerosol deposition spots on the filters. The light attenuation produced by the captured particles is measured with optical detectors. Non-linear loading and filter matrix scattering effects are common issues for filter-based absorption measurements (Coen et al., 2009). A dual-spot technique for the aethalometer measurements was used to compensate for non-linearity, while a factor of 2.14 was used to correct the artifacts caused by quartz filters (Drinovec et al., 2015).

A photoacoustic extinctionometer (PAX, Droplet Measurement Technology, Boulder, CO, USA) was used to determine the aerosol light scattering and absorption coefficient ($b_{\text{scat}}(532)$ and $b_{\text{abs}}(532)$, respectively), which were used to calculate the single scattering albedo ($\text{SSA} = b_{\text{scat}}/(b_{\text{scat}} + b_{\text{abs}})$) at $\lambda = 532 \text{ nm}$. The b_{scat} was measured using a wide-angle ($5 - 175^\circ$) integrating reciprocal nephelometer in the scattering chamber. The $b_{\text{abs}}(532)$ was measured simultaneously with an intracavity photoacoustic technique in the acoustic chamber. Detailed description of PAX may be found in Carrico et al. (2018). During the campaign, the selected concentrations of ammonium sulphate and freshly-generated propane soot were used to calibrated the $b_{\text{scat}}(532)$ and $b_{\text{abs}}(532)$ measurements, respectively. Details regarding the calibration procedure are in Wang et al. (2018).

Daily PM_{2.5} filters were collected for the analysis of selected chemical species. Organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) were determined using a thermal/optical carbon analyser (Atmoslytic Inc., Calabasas, CA, USA). water-soluble potassium ion (i.e., K^+), and levoglucosan were analysed with the use of an ion chromatograph (Dionex Inc., Sunnyvale, CA, USA). The inorganic elements (i.e., S, Ca, Ti, Mn, Fe, Cu, As, Br, Pb, Zn) were measured using an energy-dispersive X-ray fluorescence spectrometry (Epsilon 5 ED-XRF, PANalytical B.V., Netherlands). Finally, an organic marker of benzothiazolone was determined using a high-performance liquid chromatography (Series 1200; Agilent

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Technology, Santa Clara, CA). Detailed descriptions of the chemical analyses are given in Text S1 in the Supplementary Material.

2.3 BC source apportionment

The ‘aethalometer model’ proposed by Sandradewi et. al. (2008) was optimized by excluding the $b_{\text{abs}}(370)$ contributed by the secondary aerosols and soil dust ($b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{secondary}}$ and $b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{dust}}$, respectively). The formulae used for the ‘aethalometer model’ were as follows: as follows:

$$\frac{b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{fossil}}}{b_{\text{abs}}(880)_{\text{fossil}}} = \left(\frac{370}{880}\right)^{-\text{AAE}_{\text{fossil}}} \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{biomass}}}{b_{\text{abs}}(880)_{\text{biomass}}} = \left(\frac{370}{880}\right)^{-\text{AAE}_{\text{biomass}}} \quad (2)$$

$$b_{\text{abs}}(880) = b_{\text{abs}}(880)_{\text{fossil}} + b_{\text{abs}}(880)_{\text{biomass}} \quad (3)$$

$$b_{\text{abs}}(370) = b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{fossil}} + b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{biomass}} + b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{secondary}} + b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{dust}} \quad (4)$$

where $\text{AAE}_{\text{fossil}}$ and $\text{AAE}_{\text{biomass}}$ are the AAEs for emissions of fossil fuel contribution and biomass burning. These were retrieved through an optical source apportionment and discussed in section 3.1. $b_{\text{abs}}(370)$ and $b_{\text{abs}}(880)$ are the measured b_{abs} at $\lambda = 370$ and 880 nm, respectively; The absorption coefficients for fossil fuel are $b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{fossil}}$ and $b_{\text{abs}}(880)_{\text{fossil}}$ while those for biomass burning sources are $b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{biomass}}$ and $b_{\text{abs}}(880)_{\text{biomass}}$. A source apportionment of the optical data was used to calculate $b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{dust}}$ as discussed in section 3.1 while $b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{secondary}}$ was estimated using a BC-tracer method combined with a minimum R-squared approach as described by Wang et al. (2019a).

After obtaining $b_{\text{abs}}(880)_{\text{fossil}}$ and $b_{\text{abs}}(880)_{\text{biomass}}$, the mass concentrations of BC from fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning ($\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$ and $\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$, respectively) were estimated as follows:

$$\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}} = \frac{b_{\text{abs}}(880)_{\text{fossil}}}{\text{MAC}_{\text{BC}}(880)_{\text{fossil}}} \quad (5)$$

$$\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}} = \frac{b_{\text{abs}}(880)_{\text{biomass}}}{\text{MAC}_{\text{BC}}(880)_{\text{biomass}}} \quad (6)$$

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$$b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{secondary}} = b_{\text{abs}}(370) - \left(\frac{b_{\text{abs}}(370)}{\text{BC}}\right)_{\text{pri}} \times [\text{BC}] \quad (5)$$

where $\left(\frac{b_{\text{abs}}(370)}{\text{BC}}\right)_{\text{pri}}$ represents the $b_{\text{abs}}(370)$ associated with BC in the primary emissions (in unit of $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$), and [BC] denotes the mass concentration of BC in the atmosphere (in unit of $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), which was calculated with $b_{\text{abs}}(880)$ and EC loading. Detailed description of the $b_{\text{abs}}(370)_{\text{secondary}}$ calculation can be found in

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where $MAC_{BC(880)}^{fossil}$ and $MAC_{BC(880)}^{biomass}$ are the MAC_{BCs} at $\lambda = 880\text{ nm}$ generated from fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning, respectively. The $MAC_{BC(880)s}$ for the two sources were retrieved from a source apportionment of the optical data discussed in section 3.1.

2.4 Optical source apportionment

Optical source apportionments were obtained using a positive matrix factorization (PMF) model. The fundamental objective of PMF for applications such as ours is to resolve the chemical mass balance by separating data matrix into factor contributions and factor profiles as follows:

$$X_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj} + e_{ij} \quad (7)$$

where X_{ij} represents the input matrix elements; p is the number of sources; g_{ik} is the source contribution of the k th factor to the i th sample; f_{kj} is the factor profile of j th species in the k th factor; and e_{ij} is representative of the residual. g_{ik} and f_{kj} are non-negative. The two matrices are resolved by minimizing the sum of squares of the normalized residuals as follows:

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=0}^n \left[\frac{e_{ij}}{u_{ij}} \right]^2 \quad (8)$$

where Q represents the object function; and u_{ij} denotes the uncertainties of X_{ij} . The PMF version 5.0 (PMF5.0, from USEPA) was used for the analyses, and the optical parameters (primary b_{abs} at different wavelengths) and chemical species concentrations (including carbonaceous aerosols, inorganic elements, K^+ , levoglucosan and organic markers) were used as model inputs for the optical source apportionment.

2.5 Trajectory-related analysis

To determine the influences of regional transport on BC at Gaomeigu, trajectory clusters were produced from hourly three-day backward-in-time air mass trajectories at 500 m above the ground level. The trajectories were calculated with the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory model (Draxler and Hess, 1998). The meteorological data were from Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS, <https://www.ready.noaa.gov/gdas1.php>), which take into account the influences of terrain. As we focused on differentiating and clustering the main spatial features of the incoming trajectories, an angle-oriented

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distance definition was adopted in the cluster analysis. Details regarding the trajectory clustering methods can be found in Wang et al. (2018). For the investigations of the effects of transport on the chemical and optical properties of the BC aerosol, trajectories with BC mass concentration greater than 75th percentile were considered as polluted.

- 5 The potential source contribution function (PSCF) was used to identify the likely pollution regions that influenced BC loadings at Gaomeigu based on the back trajectories. The geographic region covered by the trajectories was overlaid by a of $0.5 \times 0.5^\circ(i, j)$ grid. The PSCF value of each grid was calculated as follows:

$$PSCF_{ij} = \frac{m_{ij}}{n_{ij}}$$

- 10 where m_{ij} is the number of endpoints associated with BC mass concentration higher than the set criterion; and n_{ij} is the total endpoints of the ij th cell. To improve the resolution of PSCF source identifications, the 75th percentile of each source's BC mass concentration was set as the criterion for a polluted sample (i.e., $0.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for $\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$ and $0.45 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for $\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$) (Cheng and Lin, 2001). Furthermore, arbitrary weighting factors (w_{ij}) were applied to different n_{ij} ranges to reduce the uncertainty caused by the small
- 15 n_{ij} (Polissar et al., 1999), and they were defined by following the approach of Polissar et al. (2001):

$$W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & 80 < N_{ij} \\ 0.7 & 20 < N_{ij} \leq 80 \\ 0.42 & 10 < N_{ij} \leq 20 \\ 0.05 & N_{ij} \leq 10 \end{cases}$$

2.6 Regional chemical dynamical model

- The Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with chemistry (WRF-Chem) model was used to quantify the contribution of biomass-burning from Southeast Asian to BC mass at Gaomeigu. Detailed descriptions of the model configurations have been described in our previous publication (Xing et al., 2020). Briefly, the model resolution was $3 \text{ km} \times 3 \text{ km}$, and there were 320 grid cells. The domain included the southwest of China, southern and southeastern Asia, with a central at 100.03°E , 26.70°N . Thirty-five vertical layers has been set in the model from the ground surface to 50hPa. The BC emission inventory

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used for the model was based on the Asian anthropogenic emission inventory (that is MIX) for the year of 2010 (Li et al., 2017). The inventory has a spatial resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ and it included industry, power, transportation, and residential sources (e.g., fossil fuel and biofuel). The FINN fire inventory (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011) was used for the biomass-burning emission during the simulation.

2.7 Estimations of direct radiative effects and heating rate

The direct radiative effects (DRE) of source-specific BC were estimated with the widely used Santa Barbara DISORT Atmospheric Radiative Transfer (SBDART) model—a detailed description of which may be found in Ricchiazzi and Yang (1998). The important input parameters include aerosol optical depth (AOD), light extinction coefficient ($b_{\text{scat}} + b_{\text{abs}}$), SSA, asymmetric parameter (ASP), and visibility.

Here, the input optical parameters were estimated by Optical Property of Aerosol and Cloud (OPAC) model using Mie theory (Hess et al., 1998). The measured BC, water-soluble matter (including measured water-soluble inorganic ions and water-soluble organic matter that assumes accounting for 79% of OC loading, Xu et al., 2015), and water insoluble matter (calculated as the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration minus those of BC and water-soluble matter) were used in the OPAC model to retrieve the number concentrations of these particles. These were tuned until the modelled $b_{\text{scat}}(\lambda)$, $b_{\text{abs}}(\lambda)$, SSA were within $\pm 5\%$ (Srivastava et al., 2012) of the values measured by PAX (see Table S1) and used to obtain the optical parameters at the nearest observed relative humidity. The underlying assumption was that when the modelled $b_{\text{scat}}(\lambda)$, $b_{\text{abs}}(\lambda)$ were very close to their measured counterparts, the derived optical parameters were a reasonable representation of the measured aerosols. This assumption has been widely used in previous studies (Dumka et al., 2018; Panicker et al., 2010; Rajesh et al., 2018). Finally, the DREs attributable to source-specific BC (or $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) at the surface atmosphere (SUF) and the top of the atmosphere (TOA) were estimated as the difference in the net flux with and without BC (or $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) under cloud-free conditions. The solar heating rate change induced by atmospheric DRE (DRE at TOA subtracts DRE at SUF) was calculated as follows (Ramachandran and Kedia, 2010):

$$\text{DRE}_{\text{ATM}} = \text{DRE}_{\text{TOP}} - \text{DRE}_{\text{SUF}} \quad (11)$$

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{g}{C_p} \times \frac{\text{DRE}_{\text{ATM}}}{\Delta P} \quad (12)$$

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where DRE_{ATM} ($W\ m^{-2}$) is the atmospheric DRE; DRE_{TOP} is the DRE at top atmosphere; DRE_{SUF} is the DRE at surface atmosphere; $\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$ is the heating rate ($K\ day^{-1}$); g is the acceleration due to gravity ($9.8\ m\ s^{-2}$); C_p is the specific heat capacity of air at constant pressure; and ΔP is the difference in atmospheric pressure between the ground and 3 km above.

5 3 Results and discussion

3.1 Source-dependent AAEs and MACs

Four sources were identified as the main contributors to primary $b_{abs}(\lambda)$ based on the optical source apportionment (Fig. 2). The simulated primary $b_{abs}(\lambda)$ values at different wavelengths all correlated well ($r = 0.96 - 0.97$, $p < 0.01$, Fig. S1) with the model inputs, indicating that the PMF5.0 performed well. As shown in Fig. 2, the first source factor exhibited high contributions of K^+ (90%), levoglucosan (60%), and primary $b_{abs}(\lambda)$ (45 – 64%) as well as moderate loadings of OC (38%) and EC (47%). The K^+ and levoglucosan are widely used markers for biomass burning (Urban et al., 2012), and these chemical markers are strong indications that this factor resulted from biomass burning emissions. Furthermore, we note that the presence of BrC in this factor made higher absorption at shorter wavelengths, which is consistent with absorption feature of biomass burning emissions (Forello et al., 2019). Based on the contributions of biomass burning to $b_{abs}(370)$ and $b_{abs}(880)$, the $AAE_{biomass}$ was estimated to be 1.7, which is within a relative boarder range of $AAE_{biomass}$ (1.2 – 3.5) determined by other methods (e.g., $\Delta^{14}C$ and organic tracers) in previous studies (Sandra Dewi et al., 2008; Helin et al., 2018; Harrison et al., 2012; Zotter et al., 2017). The estimated average $MAC_{BC(880)_{biomass}}$ was $10.4\ m^2\ g^{-1}$, this is more than twice the value for uncoated BC particles suggested by Bond and Bergstrom (2006) ($MAC_{BC(880)_{uncoated}} = 4.7\ m^2\ g^{-1}$, extrapolated from 550 nm to 880 nm by assuming $AAE_{BC} = 1.0$). The large $MAC_{BC(880)}$ indicates that BC particles from biomass burning experienced substantial aging processes during their transport because numerous studies have confirmed that aged BC could result in MAC increases by a factor of 1.5–3.5 relative to uncoated particles (Chen et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2020) due to the ‘lensing effect’ (Lack and Cappa, 2010).

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The second source factor was characterized by large loadings of benzothiazolone (54%), Pb (46%), Br (40%), Cu (35%), Zn (27%), EC (36%), and OC (30%). Benzothiazolone is released from the breakdown of the antioxidant in motor vehicle tires (Cheng et al., 2006) while Br is another tracer of motor vehicle emission (Guo et al., 2009). Similarly, Zn and Cu are associated with the combustion of lubricating fluids and the wear of brakes and tires (Lough et al., 2005; Song et al., 2006). Finally, EC and OC also are components of motor vehicle emissions (Cao et al., 2013). Although unleaded gasoline has been used extensively in China since 2005, a considerable portion of Pb in the environment is still associated with vehicle-related particles, especially from the wear of metal alloys (Hao et al., 2019). Therefore, this second source factor was identified as traffic-related emissions. This source constitutes a moderate percentage of primary $b_{\text{abs}}(\lambda)$ (15–30%). The estimated traffic emission-related AAE (AAE_{traffic}) was 0.8, consistent with the finding that BC is the dominant light-absorbing carbonaceous aerosol species for traffic emissions (Kirchstetter et al., 2004). The AAE_{traffic} found here also was close to a value obtained using the $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ approach (Zotter et al., 2017). The estimated MAC_{BC}(880) of traffic emissions (MAC_{BC}(880)_{traffic} = 9.1 m² g⁻¹) was similar with MAC_{BC}(880)_{biomass}, indicating that traffic emission-related BC particles were also subjected to substantial aging.

The third factor was dominated by high loadings of As (70%), S (37%), and Cu (47%), which are typically associated with coal combustion (Hsu et al., 2016; Kim and Hopke, 2008). Although coal is not used extensively near the site on the TP, emissions from coal combustion may have been transported to site from surrounding areas (e.g., East Asia, Li et al., 2016). This source contributed 12–17% of primary $b_{\text{abs}}(\lambda)$, which is less than that from biomass burning or traffic emissions. The obtained AAE of coal combustion (AAE_{coal} = 1.1) was similar to the AAE_{traffic}, suggesting that BC was also the dominant light-absorbing carbon specie in coal combustion emissions. The AAE_{coal} was close to the value of chunk coal combustion (1.3) but lower than that for briquettes coal (2.6) (Sun et al., 2017); this presumably reflects the types of coal transported to Gaomeigu, at least to some degree. The estimated BC MAC(880) of coal combustion (MAC_{BC}(880)_{coal} = 15.5 m² g⁻¹) was larger than MAC_{BC}(880)_{biomass} and MAC_{BC}(880)_{traffic}. The enhance factor for MAC_{BC}(880)_{coal} (3.3) falls near the upper limit of this range noted above, and although this is likely related to the aging of BC particles during transport to Gaomeigu, more work is need to verify this contention in future studies.

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The fourth source factor had high loadings of Ca (35%), Ti (66%), Mn (47%), and Fe (61%), consistent with the characteristics of crustal elements (Guo et al., 2009); thus, it was assigned to soil dust. The light absorption of soil dust is mainly due to the presence of iron oxides and varies with the types and relative concentrations of iron oxide species (Alfaro, 2004; Valenzuela et al., 2015). The mineral dust here contributed a relative small amount to the primary $b_{\text{abs}}(\lambda)$ (6–9%), presumably due to the low levels of iron oxides, and this is consistent with the other results obtained on the southeastern TP (Zhao et al., 2019). The estimated AAE of mineral dust (AAE_{dust}) was 1.5, which is within the range of 1.2–3.0 obtained from multi-non-oceanic sites (Dubovik et al., 2002).

3.2 BC source apportionment

As the results above showed that fossil fuel-related BC aerosol mainly originated from traffic and coal combustion, the $\text{AAE}_{\text{fossil}}$ (0.9) and $\text{MAC}_{\text{BC}(880)\text{fossil}}$ ($12.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) were averaged by the values of $\text{AAE}_{\text{traffic}} + \text{AAE}_{\text{coal}}$ and $\text{MAC}_{\text{BC}(880)\text{traffic}} + \text{MAC}_{\text{BC}(880)\text{coal}}$, respectively as shown in Table 1. Based on the source-specific AAEs (i.e., $\text{AAE}_{\text{fossil}}$ and $\text{AAE}_{\text{biomass}}$) and BC $\text{MAC}_{\text{BC}(880)}$ (i.e., $\text{MAC}_{\text{BC}(880)\text{fossil}}$ and $\text{MAC}_{\text{BC}(880)\text{biomass}}$), the mass concentrations of $\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$ and $\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$ were then estimated using the improved ‘aethalometer model’ (Eqs. 1–6). As shown in Fig. 3a, no correlation ($r = 0.01$, $p = 0.02$) was found between $\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$ and $\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$, implying that BC from these two sources was effectively separated by the improved aethalometer model. The data for the biomass-burning and traffic-related tracers (levoglucosan and benzothiazolone, respectively) further support the results of BC source apportionment. That is, $\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$ was significantly correlated with levoglucosan ($r = 0.75$, $p < 0.01$, Fig. 3b) and the same was true for $\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$ benzothiazolone ($r = 0.67$, $p < 0.01$, Fig. 3c), respectively. These results indicate that the source-specific AAEs and MACs(880) obtained from optical source apportionment were appropriate. Fig. 3d shows a time series plot of hourly averaged mass concentrations of total BC, $\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$, and $\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$ during the campaign. The hourly total BC mass concentration varied by ~50-fold from 0.1 to $4.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, with an arithmetic mean (\pm standard deviation) of $0.7 (\pm 0.5) \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, which was lower than what has been reported for the western TP but higher than in the northern TP (Wang et al., 2018, and references therein). The larger BC loading in the western TP can be explained by relatively strong influences from Southeast Asia, where anthropogenic activities are intensive (Kurokawa et al., 2013). With reference to BC sources,

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the concentrations and contributions as listed in Table 1, show higher mass concentrations of $BC_{biomass}$ ($0.4 \pm 0.3 \mu g m^{-3}$, 57% of total BC) compared with BC_{fossil} ($0.3 \pm 0.2 \mu g m^{-3}$, 43% of total BC) on average. The mass fraction of $BC_{biomass}$ increased with the BC loadings, while BC_{fossil} mass fraction showed an inverse relationship to the loadings (Fig. S2). One can infer from this that biomass-burning emissions

were responsible for the high BC loading episode during the campaign.

Distinct diurnal variations in the mass concentrations of $BC_{biomass}$ and BC_{fossil} were observed as shown in Fig. 4a. The $BC_{biomass}$ started to increase after midnight, reached a small peak at ~05:00 and then remained at a constant level before sunrise (~08:00). This may be attributed to effects associated with changes in the height of the planetary boundary layer (PBL) height (<https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2>) (Fig. 4b).

Thereafter, the $BC_{biomass}$ increased again and reached the maximum value at midday. This enhancement was accompanied by an increase in PBL height and higher wind speed (<https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2>) (Fig. 4b). Generally, higher PBLs and stronger wind cause local pollutants to disperse and as a result lower their loadings (Wang et al., 2015). However, thus the build up of $BC_{biomass}$ in daytime at Gaomeigu was more likely influenced by the transport of $BC_{biomass}$ from regions

upwind. After sunrise, the PBL began to deepen and that was accompanied with west/southwest winds from 08:00 to 12:00 (Fig. S3). These meteorological conditions are favourable for pollutants (including BC) transport from high-density biomass-burning emission areas to the sampling site (Chan et al., 2017).

After the midday peak, $BC_{biomass}$ decreased sharply until midnight. The initial portion of this decrease (13:00 – 18:00) occurred as the PBL height and wind speed increased, which promoted the dispersion of $BC_{biomass}$. Subsequent reduction occurred at night even though the PBL height and wind speed decreased, and that was likely due to the curtailment of local biomass-burning activities.

As shown in Fig. 4a, the BC_{fossil} showed diurnal trend that was roughly opposite trend that of the unimodal pattern seen for $BC_{biomass}$, and that may be explained as follows. Increases in the PBL height and wind speed from 09:00 to 15:00 were associated with a decrease in BC_{fossil} , unlike the increasing trend seen for

$BC_{biomass}$; this presumably reflects minor effects from the regional transport on BC_{fossil} . Further, because of the small contribution of coal combustion to EC (12%, Fig. 2c), the BC_{fossil} was best explained by motor vehicle emissions from areas upwind of the site. The subsequent increase in BC_{fossil} from 17:00 to 20:00 was attributed to the reduction of PBL height and as a result the build up of pollutants in the near

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surface air. As there were minimal impacts from traffic at night, the BC_{fossil} loadings remained steady from 21:00 to 08:00. The stable nocturnal BC_{fossil} may reflect the impact of fossil fuel emissions on BC in the southeastern margin of the TP due to the accumulation resulting from the low PBL heights.

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3.3 Regional influences of BC_{biomass} and BC_{fossil}

To investigate the regional impacts on BC, three groups of air masses were identified based on their transport pathways (Fig. 5a). Cluster 1 originated from northeastern India and then passed over Bangladesh before arriving Gaomeigu. The average BC mass concentration of this cluster was the highest ($0.8 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) of the three clusters. About 74% of total trajectories were associated with Cluster 1, of which 22% was identified as polluted and had an average BC loading of $1.3 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Cluster 2 originated over Burma had an average BC loading of $0.7 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. This cluster c accounted for only 24% of total trajectories, but among them, about 37% was referred to pollution with BC reaching as high as $1.6 \pm 0.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The air masses associated with Cluster 3 originated from the interior of China, and this group had the lowest BC mass concentrations of the three clusters, $0.4 \pm 0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. This third cluster composed small fraction of total trajectories (2%), and none of them were identified as polluted, suggesting minor influences from the mainland China during the campaign.

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The diurnal patterns of BC_{biomass} and BC_{fossil} mass loadings from the three clusters were used to investigate the impacts of regional transport. As shown in Fig. 4c and e, similar diurnal variations in BC_{biomass} were found for Clusters 1 and 2—they had both larger values during daytime (8:00–12:00) compared with night. This pattern of higher daytime BC_{biomass} was associated with regional transport from northeastern India (Cluster 1) and Burma (Cluster 2). For Cluster 3, BC_{biomass} decreased during the day and increased at night (Fig. 4g), and that pattern tracked the daily variations in PBL height. Unlike Clusters 1 and 2, the diurnal variation of BC_{biomass} for Cluster 3 were more likely due to influences of biomass-burning activities from areas surrounding the sampling site than regional transport. However, it should be noted that these cases were uncommon because of only 2% of air-masses were associated with Cluster 3.

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For BC_{fossil} , similar diurnal patterns were found for Clusters 1 and 2 (Fig. 4c and e), most likely due to the influences of traffic emissions from surrounding areas as well as daily cycles of PBL height as discussed in section 3.2. The BC_{fossil} loadings of Cluster 3 (Fig. 4g) were relatively stable, showing only

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sporadic fluctuations. Unlike the declining trend of BC_{fossil} during the daytime found for Clusters 1 and 2, the relative stable BC_{fossil} loadings in Cluster 3 indicate that there were emissions from fossil fuel sources that offset the effect of the changes in PBL height. The transportation sector has grown rapidly in mainland China (Liu, 2019), and the regional transport of motor vehicle emissions may have been the

The PSCF model was applied to further investigate the likely spatial distribution of pollution source regions for BC_{biomass} and BC_{fossil} . As shown in Fig. 5b, a low PSCF value of BC_{biomass} was found near Gaomeigu while high values were concentrated in the northeastern India and northern Burma, consistent with intensive fire activities in these areas (Fig. S4). This indicates that large BC_{biomass} loadings at

Gaomeigu were more likely influenced by cross-border transport of biomass burning rather than local emissions. For BC_{fossil} (Fig. 5c), the most likely impact region was located to the southwest of Gaomeigu, near where two highways are located (e.g., Hangzhou-Ruili Expressway and Dali-Nujiang Expressway). Owing to the low consumption of coal in the southeastern TP (Li et al., 2016), the high PSCF values of BC_{fossil} were more likely from traffic emissions than coal combustion. Moreover, sporadic high PSCF

values of BC_{fossil} also were found in the northern Burma, indicating possible influences of fossil fuel emissions here.

To further quantify the contributions of the BC transported from Southeast Asia to Gaomeigu, we studied a high BC episode (23 – 27 March) using a simulation with WRF-Chem model. Two scenarios of emissions were simulated: one involved all BC emission sources, and the other turned off biomass-burning emissions in Southeast Asia. The variation of modelled BC mass concentration shows an acceptable degree of consistency with the measured values ($r = 0.63$, $p < 0.01$, Fig. S5). Furthermore, the index of agreement was estimated to be 0.77, indicating that the development of this BC episode was effectively captured by the WRF-Chem model. Nonetheless, the normalized mean bias between the measured and modelled BC values was estimated to be 24%, suggesting that simulation was biased towards high values. This discrepancy is best attributed to the uncertainties in the simulation associated with the emission inventory and meteorological conditions. Fig. 6a shows the spatial distributions of BC loadings in Gaomeigu and surrounding areas. The mass concentrations of BC at times exceeded $15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ over Burma and northern India, and that is more than an order of magnitude higher compared with the

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southeastern margin of TP ($0.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). After turning off the biomass burning emission source in Southeast Asia, the BC loading at southeastern TP dropped over 40% (Fig. 6b), suggesting a substantial impact of biomass-burning activities in Southeast Asia countries, which is consistent with results of the trajectory cluster analysis and PSCF.

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5 3.4 Radiative effects and heating rate

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Fig. 7 shows the average atmospheric direct radiative effects of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and BC (including $\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$ and $\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$) at the TOA and SUF during the campaign. The average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ DRE at the TOA was $+0.03 \pm 1.1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$, implying that the positive effect of light-absorbing carbon on the temperature of the atmosphere outweighed the negative effect of scattering aerosols. In fact, BC produced $+1.6 \pm 0.8 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ at the TOA on average. At the SUF, BC DRE ($-3.0 \pm 1.5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$) contributed nearly half of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ DRE ($-6.3 \pm 4.5 \text{ W m}^{-2}$). The difference in the DRE between the TOA and SUF was $+4.6 \pm 2.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ for BC aerosol, and that accounted for 73% of DRE attributed to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ($6.3 \pm 4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$), this suggests substantial radiative effect caused by BC over the southeastern margin of TP even though its mass fraction is small in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (3.3%).

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With respect to the BC sources (Fig. 7), the average $\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$ ($\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$) DRE was $+0.8 \pm 0.6 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ($+0.7 \pm 0.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$) at the TOA, and $-1.7 \pm 1.2 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ($-1.4 \pm 0.6 \text{ W m}^{-2}$) at the SUF. This is equivalent to an average atmospheric DRE of $+2.5 \pm 1.8 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ ($+2.1 \pm 0.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$). Presumably, the influences of regional transport caused the atmospheric DRE of $\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$ to be more variable compared with that from $\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$ (Fig. S6). For example, the atmospheric DRE of $\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$ can be as high as $+6.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ when the air masses passed over the biomass-burning regions in Southeast Asia, while it was only $1.1 \pm 0.2 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ on average when the air masses passed from the mainland of China.

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The calculations showing a positive atmospheric DRE imply that energy was trapped in the atmosphere, which would lead to atmospheric heating over the study region. The heating rate calculated for BC varied from 0.02 to 0.3 K day^{-1} and an average of $0.13 \pm 0.07 \text{ K day}^{-1}$. In terms of the DRE efficiency, the heating rate caused by a unit mass concentration of BC in this region was $(0.19 \text{ (K day}^{-1}) (\mu\text{g m}^{-3})^{-1})$, which is roughly comparable with that reported for Qinghai Lake, on the northeastern TP ($0.13 \text{ (K day}^{-1}) (\mu\text{g m}^{-3})^{-1}$) (Wang et al., 2015), but it generally lower than the values in the southwestern regions of the Himalaya

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(Fig. S7). Moreover, the heating rate caused by BC_{biomass} may have been slightly higher ($0.07 \pm 0.05 \text{ K day}^{-1}$) compared with BC_{fossil} ($0.06 \pm 0.02 \text{ K day}^{-1}$). Finally, the heating rate of BC_{biomass} increased to 0.16 K day^{-1} when the BC mass concentration was heavily influenced by the polluted air from Southeast Asia.

4 Conclusions

5 This study quantified the source contributions of BC aerosol from fossil fuel and biomass burning at a site on the southeastern margin of the TP that represents a regional transport channel for air pollution during pre-monsoon. The study was conducted in pre-monsoon when the southeastern TP was heavily influenced by the air mass from southeast Asia. To reduce the uncertainties caused by interferences in absorption measurements (i.e. secondary absorption and dust) and assumptions relative to AAEs and

10 MAC_{BCs} , the traditional ‘aethalometer model’ was optimized in two aspects. First, a BC-tracer method coupled with a minimum R-squared approach was applied to separate secondary absorption from the total absorption, and as a result, the interferences of absorption from secondary aerosols have been eliminated. Then, an optical source apportionment model that used primary multi-wavelength absorption and chemical species as inputs was used to derive site-dependent AAE and MAC_{BC} values—these minimize

15 the uncertainties associated with prior assumptions on these parameters. The AAE (MAC_{BC}) calculated in this way was 0.9 ($12.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) for fossil fuel source and 1.7 ($10.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$) for biomass burning. The results of ‘aethalometer model’ that used these values showed that the average mass concentration of BC was $0.7 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ of which 43% of BC from fossil fuel and 57% from biomass burning. Trajectory

20 analysis showed that the BC_{biomass} over the site was mainly driven by regional transport from northeastern India and Burma, while BC_{fossil} was primarily influenced by traffic emissions from areas surrounding the sampling site. Moreover, the WRF-Chem model indicates that biomass burning in Southeast Asia contribute 40% of the BC loading over the southeastern margin of the TP. The SBDART model showed that a DRE of $+4.6 \pm 2.4 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ for the total $PM_{2.5}$ BC, of which $+2.5 \pm 1.8 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ was from BC_{biomass} and $+2.1 \pm 0.9 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ from BC_{fossil} . The results of this study provide useful information concerning the sources

25 of BC over an atmospheric transport channel to the southeastern TP, and they highlight the importance of the cross-border transport of biomass burning emissions from Southeast Asia on the region during the pre-monsoon.

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Data availability. All data described in this study are available upon request from the corresponding authors.

5 *Supplement.* The supplement related to this article is available online.

Author contributions. QW and JC designed the study. WR conducted the field measurements. LX provided the results of WRF-Chem model. YZ and TZ performed the chemical analysis of filters. HL and QW wrote the article. All the authors reviewed and commented on the paper.

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Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Table 1 Derived Ångström absorption exponents (AAE), Mass absorption coefficients (MAC) and percent source contribution of black carbon (BC) from difference sources

	<u>AAE</u>	<u>MAC (m² g⁻¹)</u>	<u>Mass concentration (µg m⁻³)</u>	<u>Contribution ratio</u>
<u>BC_{biomass}</u>	<u>1.7</u>	<u>10.4</u>	<u>0.4 ± 0.3</u>	<u>57%</u>
<u>BC_{traffic}</u>	<u>0.8</u>	<u>9.1</u>	<u>---</u>	<u>---</u>
<u>BC_{coal}</u>	<u>1.1</u>	<u>15.5</u>	<u>---</u>	<u>---</u>
<u>BC_{fossil}</u>	<u>0.9</u>	<u>12.3</u>	<u>0.3 ± 0.2</u>	<u>43%</u>

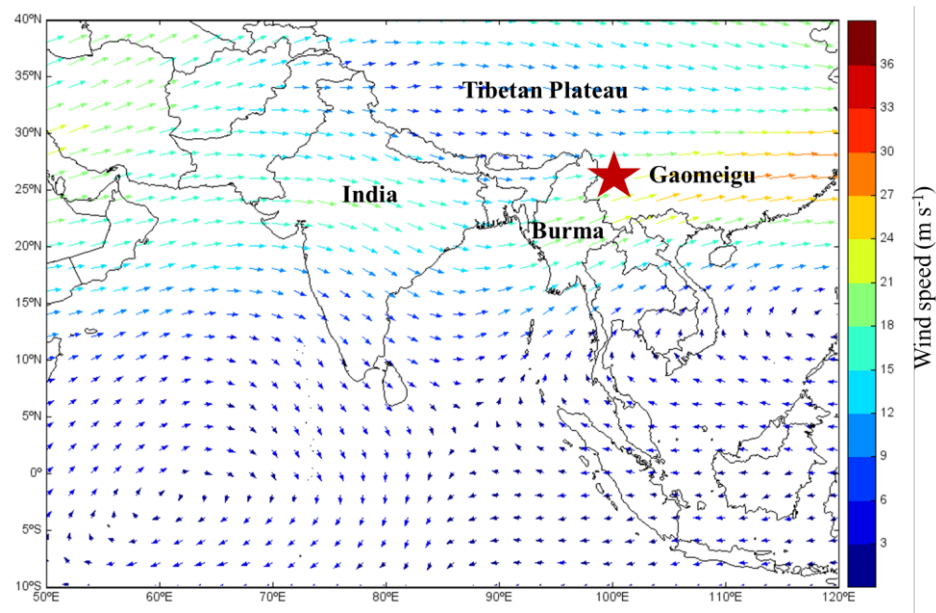


Figure 1. Location of the Gaomeigu sampling site on the southeastern margin of Tibetan Plateau and prevailing wind speeds and directions during sampling period

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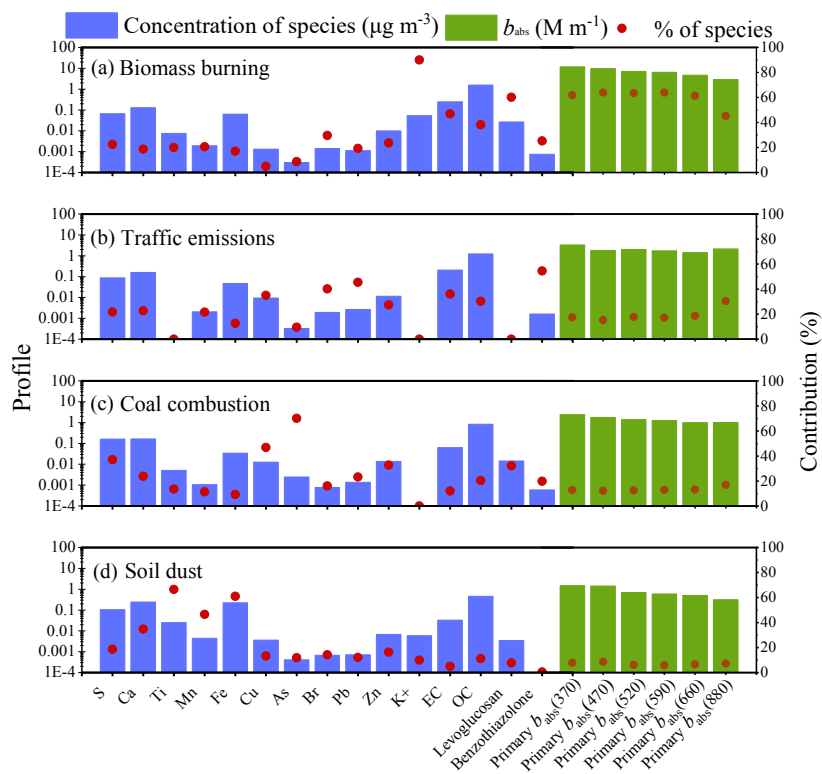


Figure 2. Four aerosol light absorption sources identified by a positive matrix factorization (PMF) model.

Concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) of the chemical species in each source are colored by purple. Primary b_{abs} (λ) at six wavelengths ($\lambda = 370, 470, 520, 590, 660, \text{ or } 880\text{nm}$) in each source (M m^{-1}) are colored by green.

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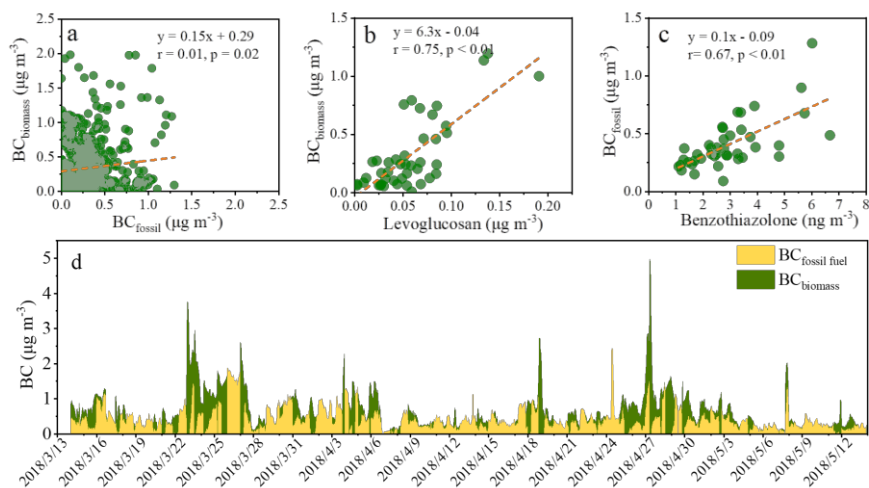
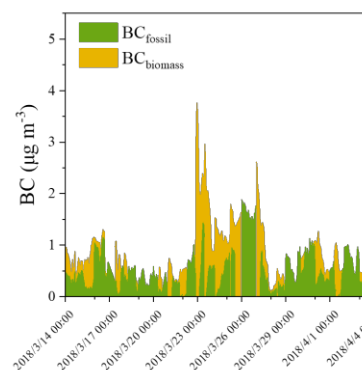


Figure 3. Scatter plots of (a) biomass burning black carbon ($BC_{biomass}$) versus fossil fuel combustion BC (BC_{fossil}), (b) $BC_{biomass}$ versus levoglucosan, and (c) BC_{fossil} versus benzothiazolone. $BC_{biomass}$ and BC_{fossil} represent black carbon aerosol contributed by biomass burning and fossil fuel sources, respectively. (d) Time series of hourly-averaged mass concentrations of black carbon (BC) aerosol from biomass burning ($BC_{biomass}$) and fossil fuel sources (BC_{fossil}).



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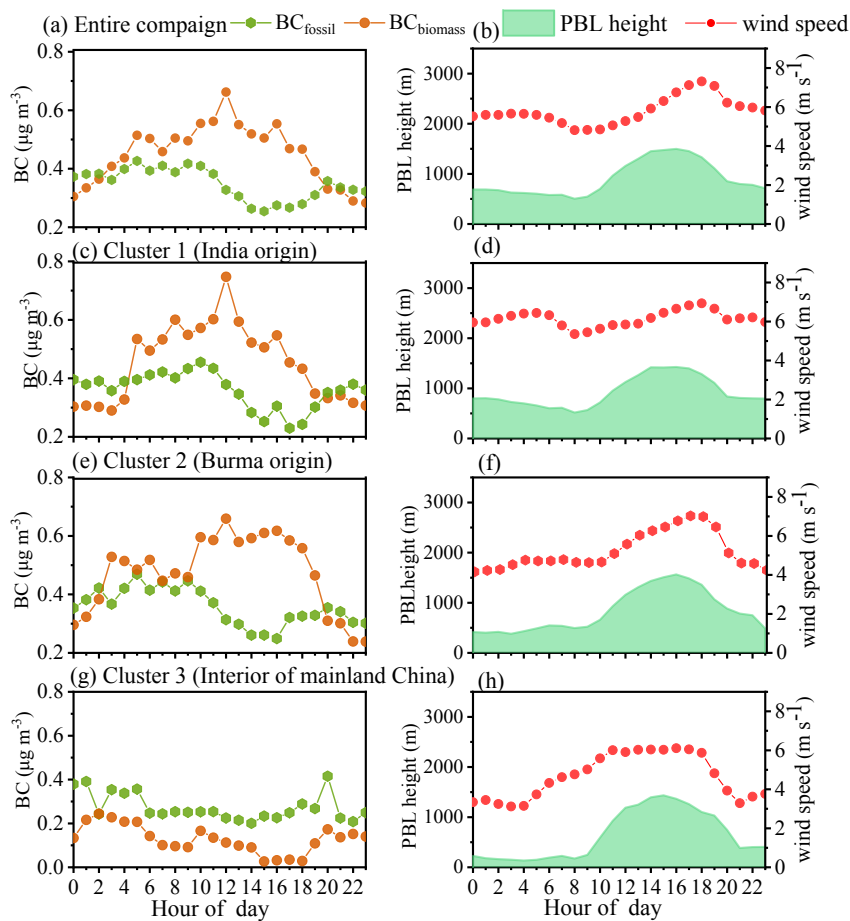


Figure 4. (Left panel) Diurnal variations of hourly averaged black carbon (BC) aerosol from biomass burning ($\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$) and fossil fuel sources ($\text{BC}_{\text{fossil}}$). (Right panel) wind speed and planetary boundary layer (PBL) height during the entire campaign and different air-mass directions as determined by air-mass trajectory clusters 1-3.

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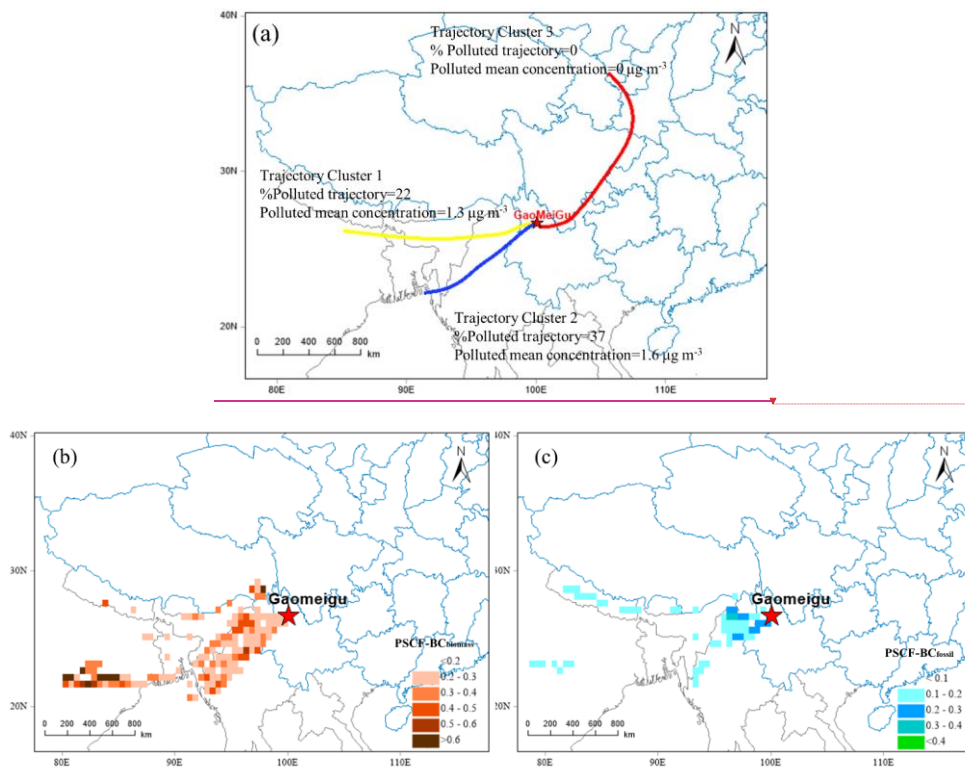
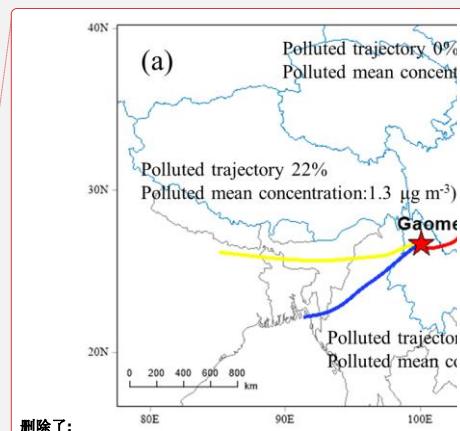


Figure 5. Maps of (a) the mean trajectory clusters and the potential source contribution function for black carbon (BC) aerosol from (b) biomass burning (BC_{biomass}) and (c) fossil fuel sources (BC_{fossil}).



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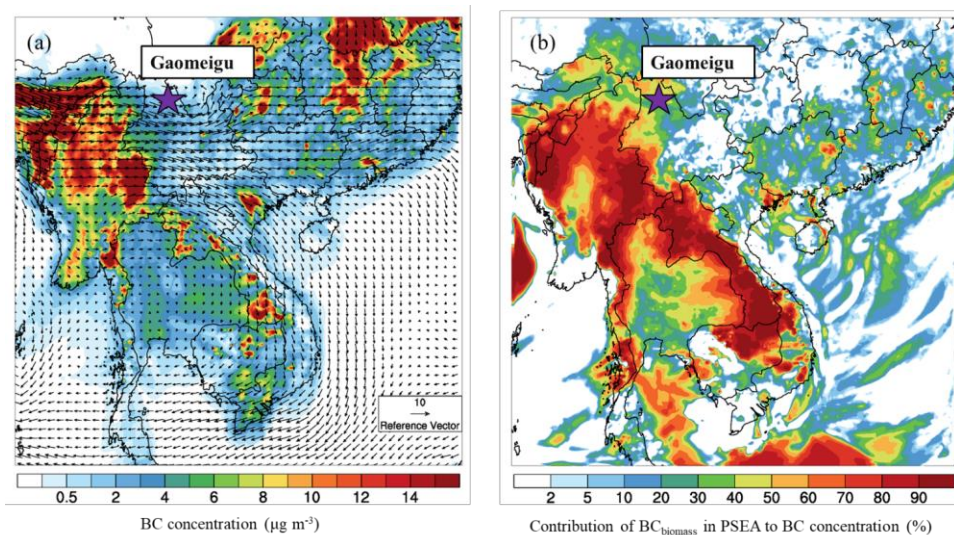


Figure 6. (a) Spatial distributions of simulated black carbon (BC) mass concentrations in Southeast Asia and (b) the percent mass contribution of biomass-burning BC ($\text{BC}_{\text{biomass}}$) in peninsular Southeast Asia (PSEA). The simulated surface winds are overlaid on (a).

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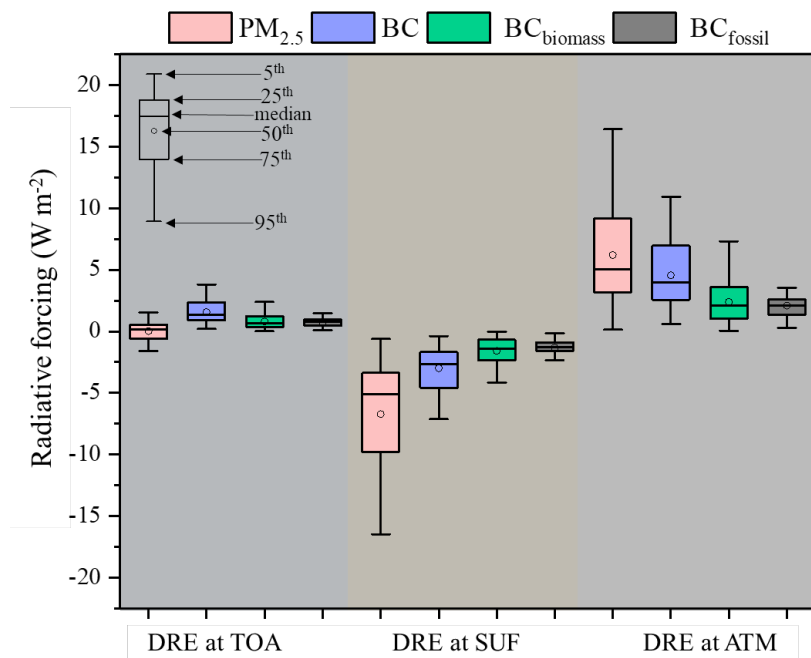
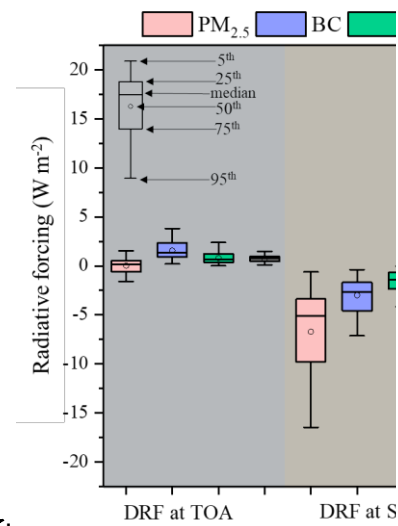


Figure 7. The average direct radiative forcing (DRE) of black carbon (BC) aerosol and PM_{2.5} at the Earth's surface (SUF), the top of atmosphere (TOA), and in the atmosphere (ATM = TOA - SUF). The BC_{biomass} and BC_{fossil} represent BC contributed by biomass burning and fossil fuel sources, respectively.

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