

1 **The impact threshold of the aerosol radiation forcing on the boundary layer**
2 **structure in the pollution region**

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13 **Abstract:** Recently, there has been increasing interest in the relation between
14 particulate matter (PM) pollution and atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) structure.
15 However, this topic has yet to be fully understood. This study aimed to qualitatively
16 assess the interaction between PM and ABL structure in essence and further
17 quantitatively estimate aerosol radiative forcing (ARF) effects on the ABL structure.
18 Multi-period comparative analysis indicated that the key to determining whether the haze
19 outbreak or dissipation occurs is whether the ABL structure (i.e., stability and turbulent
20 kinetic energy (TKE)) satisfies the relevant conditions. However, the ABL structure
21 change was in turn highly related to the PM level and ARF. |SFC-ATM| (SFC and ATM
22 are the ARFs at the surface and interior of the atmospheric column, respectively) is the
23 absolute difference between ground and atmosphere layer ARFs, and the |SFC-ATM|
24 change is linearly related to the PM concentrations. However, the influence of ARF on
25 the boundary layer structure is nonlinear. With increasing |SFC-ATM|, the TKE level
26 exponentially decreased, which was notable in the lower layers/ABL but disappeared
27 at high altitudes/above the ABL. Moreover, the ARF effects threshold on the ABL
28 structure was determined for the first time, namely, once |SFC-ATM| exceeded $\sim 55 \text{ W}$
29 m^{-2} , the ABL structure would quickly stabilize and would thereafter change little with

30 increasing ARF. The threshold of the ARF effects on the boundary layer structure could
31 provide useful information for relevant atmospheric environment improvement
32 measures and policies, such as formulating phased air pollution control objectives.

33 **Keywords:** boundary layer structure; aerosol radiative forcing; threshold; haze
34 pollution

35 **1 Introduction**

36 Most areas in China, such as the North China Plain, have suffered from poor air
37 quality due to rapid economic growth. Beijing, as the Chinese capital and principal city
38 in the North China Plain, has frequently experienced severe and persistent haze events,
39 characterized by an exceedingly high particulate matter (PM) mass loading suspended
40 in near-surface air (Li et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2019; Zhong et al.,
41 2018). As previous studies have found, air pollution episodes are the result of secondary
42 aerosol formation and adverse meteorological conditions (An et al., 2019; Guo et al.,
43 2014; Li et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2012). PM is
44 concentrated in the atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) (Petaja et al., 2016; Tie et al.,
45 2017), which is the lower part of the troposphere and is directly affected by the surface
46 (Quan et al., 2013). The diffusion, transmission, and accumulation of pollutants are
47 closely linked to ABL structure (meteorological conditions) variation (Han et al., 2009;
48 Kotthaus and Grimmond, 2018; Zheng et al., 2017). Numerous studies have revealed
49 that the meteorological factors in the boundary layer influence the formation of air
50 pollution periods (Hua et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Miao et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2012;
51 Wang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2018). For instance, the aerosols concentrated in the
52 ABL exhibit a strong negative relationship with the ABL height (ABLH) that
53 determines the volume available for pollutant dispersion (Haman et al., 2014; Schaefer
54 et al., 2009; Su et al., 2018; Tang et al., 2016). Heavy air pollution episodes have always
55 occurred with persistent temperature inversions (Xu et al., 2019; Zhong et al., 2017).
56 Weak/calm winds are essential in the long-term increase in air pollutants (Niu et al.,
57 2010; Yang et al., 2016). Additionally, previous studies have reported that severe air
58 pollution is always positively related to high atmospheric humidity, one of the

59 manifestations of stagnant ABL conditions (Tie et al., 2017; Petaja et al., 2016).
60 Moreover, the feedback/interaction mechanism between the boundary layer structure
61 and aerosol loading during severe pollution events has been analyzed in previous
62 studies (Huang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2018; Zhong et al., 2018b; Zhong et al., 2019;
63 Zhao et al., 2019).

64 However, most of the work was performed through a relationship analysis of the
65 PM concentration and meteorological factors and mainly considered specific pollution
66 processes. Few attempts have been made to examine the interaction between the ABL
67 and air pollution in essential aspects. Since the surface directly influences the ABL, it
68 is the only atmosphere layer characterized by turbulent activities, while higher
69 atmosphere layers are weakly turbulent because of the strongly stable stratification
70 (Munro, 2005). Thus, the ABL acts as a notable turbulence buffer coupling the surface
71 with the free atmosphere, and PM and gas pollutants are only suspended in the ABL
72 and are convectively spread throughout it. The evolution of the ABL structure, which
73 plays a key role in pollutant accumulation/diffusion, is substantially the change in
74 turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) in the ABL (Garratt et al., 1992). Therefore, we
75 systematically analyzed the way the ABL interacts with pollutants via contrastive
76 analysis of multiple haze episodes based on not only specific meteorological factors but
77 also turbulent activity profiles and atmospheric stability indicators. Moreover, the
78 change in solar radiation reaching the ground drives the diurnal ABL evolution
79 considering atmospheric stability variation (Andrews, 2000). The diurnal evolution of
80 the atmospheric thermodynamic status is greatly affected considering a strong aerosol
81 radiative effect, namely strongly scattering radiation and/or absorbing radiation, occurs
82 on severe air pollution (Dickerson et al., 1997; Liu et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2018;
83 Stone et al., 2008; Zhong et al., 2018a). As previous studies have reported, the aerosol
84 radiative forcing (ARF), used to quantify the aerosol radiation effects, is a critical
85 parameter that can further modify the boundary layer structure during haze episodes
86 (Gong et al., 2014). Ding et al. (2016) and Wilcox et al. (2016) demonstrated that the
87 highly absorptive black carbon aerosol with strong absorption ability could notably

88 enhance atmospheric stability and suppress boundary layer development. While an
89 increase of aerosol scattering effect also led to a decrease of ABL height (ABLH)
90 (Barbaro et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2002). Petäjä et al. (2016) also suggested that the
91 synergistic scattering (surface cooling) and absorption (atmospheric heating) effects
92 modify the vertical temperature stratification. However, the influence degree of the
93 aerosol radiative effect on the boundary layer structure remains unclear. Quantitatively
94 determining the effects of ARF on the ABL structure is urgently needed. Furthermore,
95 this paper would analyze the interaction between the ABL structure and air pollution
96 using high-resolution and real-observation datasets, such as temperature and humidity
97 profiles of microwave radiometers, horizontal and vertical wind vector profiles of
98 Doppler wind lidar, ABLH, and aerosol backscattering coefficient profiles of
99 ceilometers. Wind profile lidar and microwave radiometers have the advantage of
100 providing direct and continuous observations of the boundary layer over long periods
101 and can characterize the ABL structure up to 2-3 km (Pichugina et al., 2019; Zhao et
102 al., 2019), compensating for the deficiencies of previous research.

103 **2 Data and methods**

104 We conducted a two-month measurement campaign of the PM concentration and
105 aerosol optical depth (AOD) and obtained vertical profiles of atmospheric parameters
106 such as temperature, humidity, wind vectors, atmospheric stability, and TKE to better
107 understand how the boundary layer structure responds to aerosol radiative effects.
108 Figure S1 shows the observation site of the Tower Branch of the Institute of
109 Atmospheric Physics (IAP), Chinese Academy of Sciences ($39^{\circ} 58' N$, $116^{\circ} 22' E$;
110 altitude: 58 m) and the sampling instruments in this study. The IAP site represents a
111 typical urban Beijing site, and all the sampling instruments are placed at the same
112 location, and simultaneous monitoring is conducted. The algorithm of SBDART (Santa
113 Barbara DISORT Atmospheric Radiative Transfer) (Levy et al., 2007) is the core model
114 to calculate the radiative forcing parameters. A standard mid-latitude atmosphere is
115 used in SBDART in Beijing. AOD and Angstrom Exponent (AE) at 550 nm were
116 obtained from a sun-photometer. Multiple sets of Single Scattering Albedo (SSA) and

117 backscattering coefficient were calculated based on MIE theory, and surface albedo &
118 path radiation were read from MODIS (MOD04), which is used to calculate radiative
119 forcing at the top of atmosphere (TOA). The TOA results were combined with MODIS
120 observations, the result which has the lowest deviation are defined as the actual
121 parameters of aerosols, and this set of parameters would be used to calculate the
122 radiative forcing at the surface, top, and interior of the atmospheric column (Gong et
123 al., 2014; Lee et al, 2018; Xin et al., 2016). Hourly radiative forcing parameters,
124 including the ARF at the top (TOA), surface (SFC), and interior of the atmospheric
125 column (ATM) at an observation site in Beijing can be calculated based on this
126 algorithm. More detailed descriptions are provided in our previous work (Gong et al.,
127 2014; Lee et al, 2018; Xin et al., 2016).

128 Air temperature and relative and absolute humidity profiles were retrieved with a
129 microwave radiometer (after this referred to as MWR) (RPG-HATPRO-G5 0030109,
130 Germany). The MWR produces profiles with a resolution ranging from 10-30 m up to
131 0.5 km, profiles with a resolution ranging from 40-70 m between 0.5 and 2.5 km, and
132 profiles with a resolution ranging from 100-200 m from 2 to 10 km at a temporal
133 resolution of 1 s. More detailed information on the RPG-HATPRO-type instrument can
134 be found at <http://www.radiometer-physics.de> (last access: 4 June 2020). Vertical wind
135 speed and horizontal wind vector profiles were obtained by a 3D Doppler wind lidar
136 (Windcube 100s, Leosphere, France). The wind measurement results have a spatial
137 resolution ranging from 1-20 m up to 0.3 km and a spatial resolution of 25 m from 0.3
138 to 3 km, at a temporal resolution of 5 s. More instrument details can be found at
139 www.leosphere.com (last access: 4 June 2020). A ceilometer (CL51, Vaisala, Finland)
140 was adopted to acquire atmospheric backscattering coefficient (BSC) profiles. The
141 CL51 ceilometer digitally receives the return backscattering signal from 0 to 100 μ s
142 and provides BSC profiles with a spatial resolution of 10 m from the ground to a height
143 of 15 km. The ABLH was further identified by the sharp change in the BSC profile's
144 negative gradient (Münkel et al., 2007), and detailed information is reported in previous
145 studies (Tang et al., 2015, 2016; Zhu et al., 2018). A CIMEL sun-photometer (CE318,

146 France), a multichannel, automatic sun-and-sky scanning radiometer (Gregory 2011),
 147 was used to observe the AOD, and the AOD at 500 nm is adopted in this paper. The
 148 real-time hourly mean ground levels of PM_{2.5} (particulate matter with aerodynamic
 149 diameter less than or equal to 2.5 μm) and PM₁₀ (particulate matter with aerodynamic
 150 diameter less than or equal to 10 μm) were downloaded from the China National
 151 Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC) (available at
 152 <http://106.37.208.233:20035/>, last access: 4 June 2020).

153 The virtual potential temperature (θ_v) and pseudoequivalent potential temperature
 154 (θ_{se}) are calculated with Eqs. (1) and (2), respectively:

$$155 \quad \theta_v = T(1 + 0.608q)\left(\frac{1000}{p}\right)^{0.286} \quad (1)$$

$$156 \quad \theta_{se} = T\left(\frac{1000}{p}\right)^{0.286} \exp\left(\frac{r_s L_v}{C_{pd} T}\right) \quad (2)$$

157 where T is the air temperature, q is the specific humidity, p is the air pressure, r_s is the
 158 saturation mixing ratio, L_v is the latent heat of vaporization at 2.5×10^6 J kg⁻¹, and C_{pd} is
 159 the specific heat of air at 1005 J kg⁻¹ K⁻¹. All the relevant parameters can be calculated
 160 from the temperature and humidity profile data obtained with the MWR, and the values
 161 of θ_v and θ_{se} at different altitudes can be then further obtained. The hourly TKE is
 162 calculated by instantaneous three wind components sampled by Doppler wind lidar
 163 every five seconds (shown as Equation (3)-(6)). The calculated TKE profile has a spatial
 164 resolution ranging from 1-20 m up to 0.3 km and a spatial resolution of 25 m from 0.3
 165 to 3 km, at a temporal resolution of one hour.

$$166 \quad \text{TKE} = 0.5 \times (\delta_u^2 + \delta_v^2 + \delta_w^2). \quad (3)$$

167 The one-hour vertical velocity standard deviation (δ_w^2) and one-hour horizontal wind
 168 standard deviation (δ_u^2 ; δ_v^2) are calculated with Eqs. (4), (5) and (6), respectively:

$$169 \quad \delta_w^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (w_i - \bar{w})^2 \quad (4)$$

$$170 \quad \delta_u^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (u_i - \bar{u})^2 \quad (5)$$

$$171 \quad \delta_v^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (v_i - \bar{v})^2 \quad (6)$$

172 where N is the number of records per hour, w_i is the i _{th} vertical wind velocity (m s⁻¹),
 173 $u_i(v_i)$ is the i _{th} horizontal wind speed (m s⁻¹), \bar{w} is the mean vertical wind speed (m

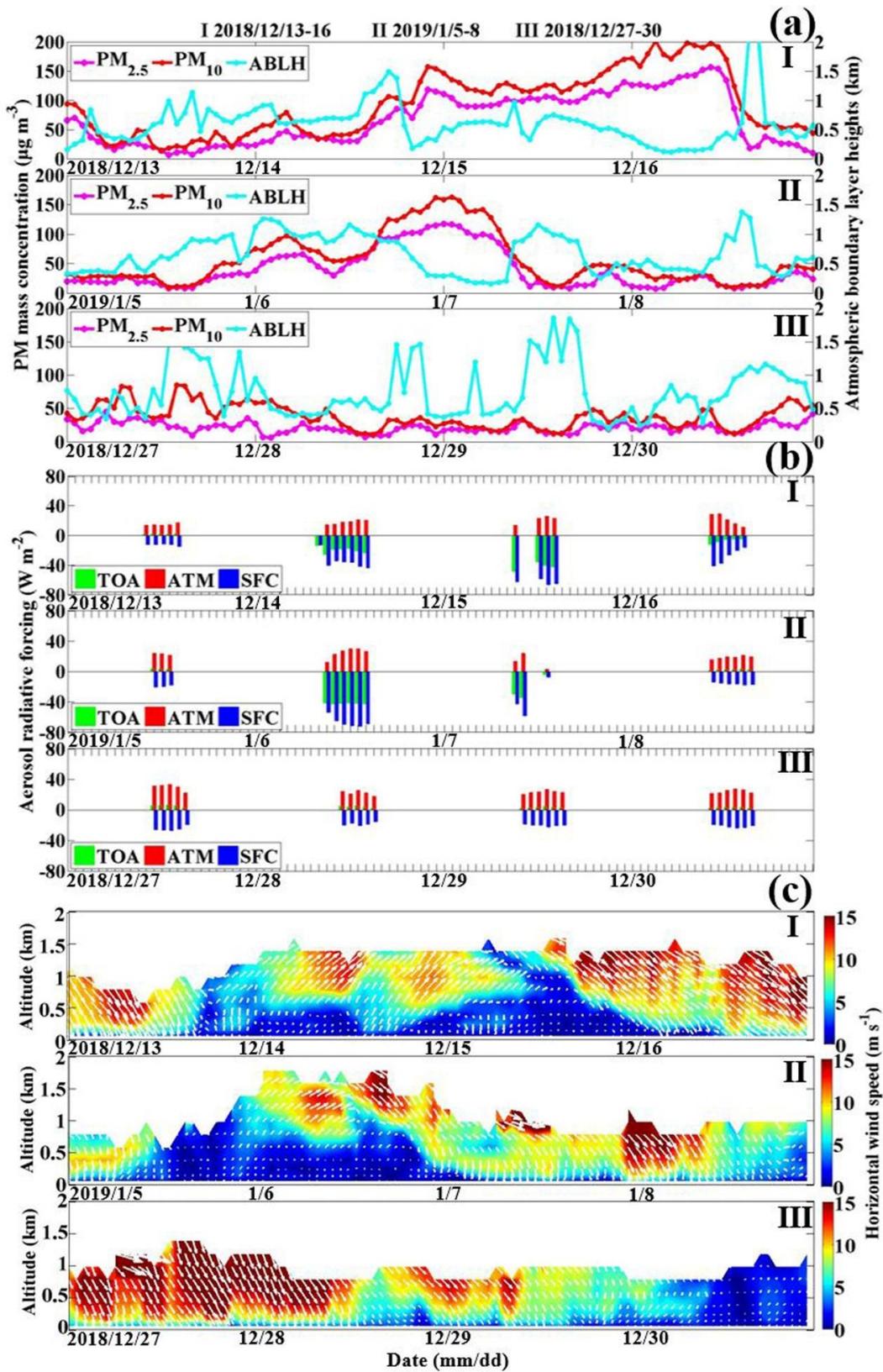
174 s^{-1}), and \bar{u} (\bar{v}) is the mean horizontal wind speed ($m s^{-1}$) (Banta et al., 2006; Wang et
175 al., 2019).

176 **3 Results and discussion**

177 **3.1 General haze episodes over Beijing in winter**

178 It is well known that severe air pollution episodes frequently occur in Beijing
179 during autumn and winter (Jin-Xiang, 2007; Zhang et al., 2017). Two-month PM
180 concentration data from Beijing in the winter of 2018 were collected. As expected,
181 during this time, Beijing experienced severe and frequent haze pollution episodes with
182 two heavy episodes in which the maximum hourly $PM_{2.5}$ concentration reached $\sim 200 \mu g$
183 m^{-3} and six available episodes in which the $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration ranged from ~ 100 -
184 $150 \mu g m^{-3}$ (Fig. S2(a)). Although the air pollution process is variable and complicated,
185 it is worth stating that Beijing's haze pollution in winter can be generally classified as
186 two kinds of patterns, as shown in Fig. S2(b). For all haze episodes ①-⑦, the $PM_{2.5}$
187 mass concentration slowly increased in the afternoon of the first day, followed by a
188 secondary maximum in the early morning and a maximum at midnight of the second
189 day. In comparison to the processes of ④-⑦, where the $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration
190 sharply decreased to $< 25 \mu g m^{-3}$ in the early morning of the third day, during periods
191 ①-③, however, the highest $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration (~ 100 - $200 \mu g m^{-3}$) was observed
192 on the third day, which disappeared on the fourth day. As previously reported, transport,
193 physical and chemical transformation and boundary layer structure (local
194 meteorological conditions) are central to determining the amount and type of pollutant
195 loading. The suspended particles in ④-⑦ were subjected to dispersal, controlled by
196 the atmospheric motion (wind and turbulence) on the third day. The particles during
197 periods ①-③ continued to accumulate and were therefore highly related to the specific
198 ABL status. To investigate the possible reasons for the different variation trends of haze
199 episodes ①-③ and ④-⑦, in the next section, we will mainly focus on the ABL
200 structure (local meteorological conditions) considering transport and physical and
201 chemical transformation.

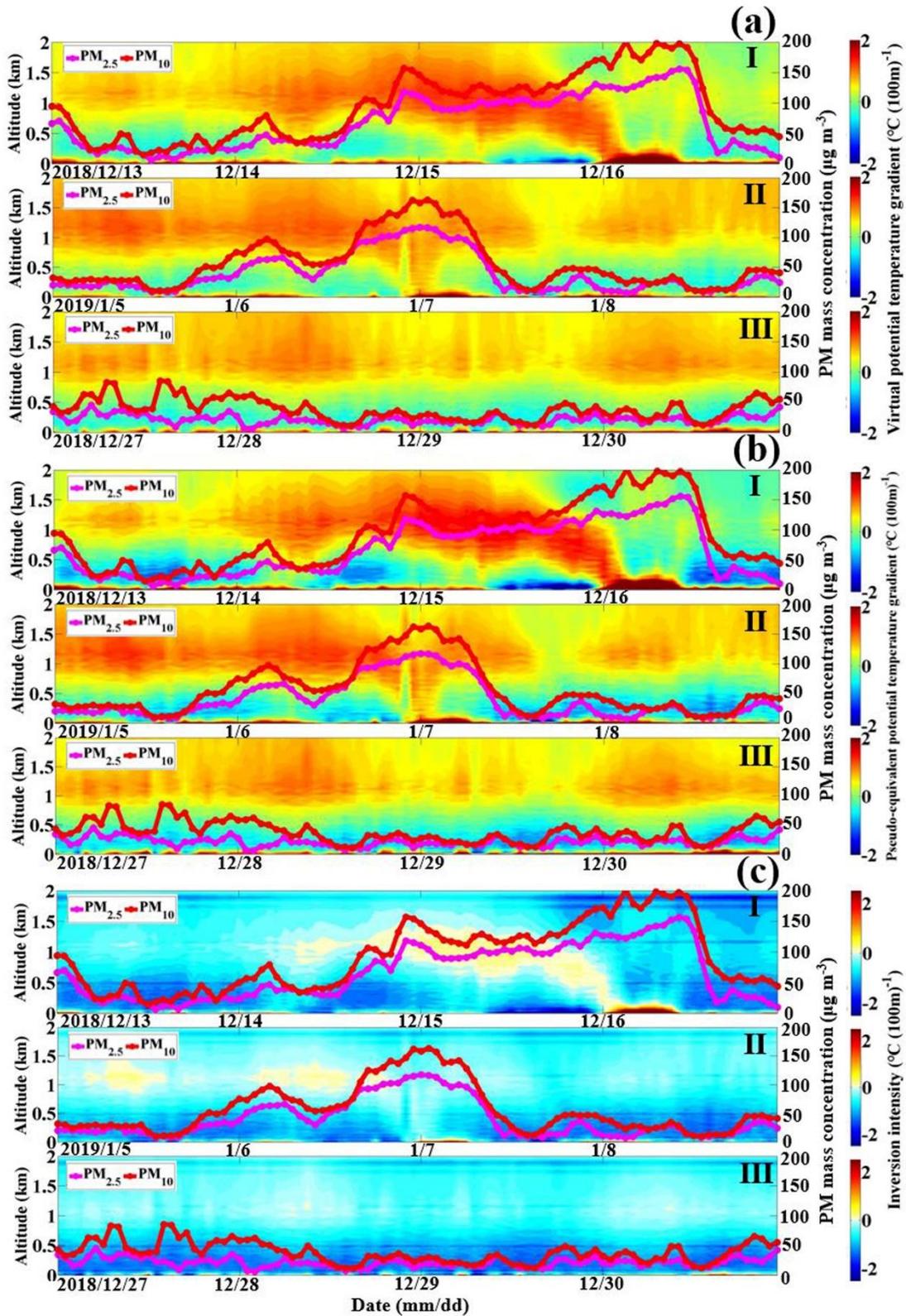
202 **3.2 Qualitative analysis of the interaction between particulate matter and**



204

205 Figure 1. Temporal evolution of (a) the PM mass concentration and atmospheric
 206 boundary layer height ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$: solid pink lines; PM_{10} : solid red lines; ABLH: solid blue

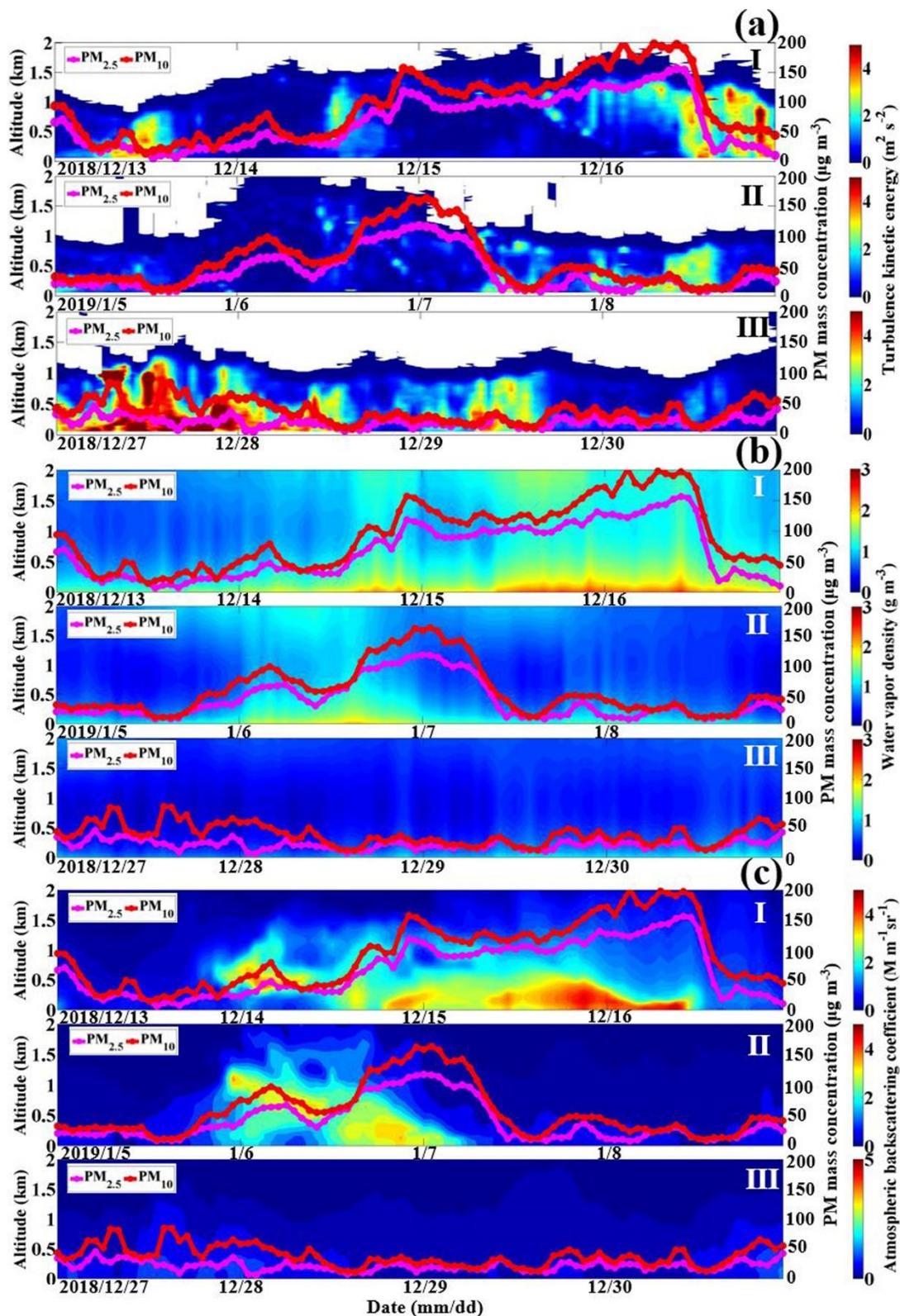
207 lines), (b) aerosol radiative forcing at the top (TOA; green bars), surface (SFC; blue
208 bars) and interior of the atmospheric column (ATM; red bars), and (c) horizontal wind
209 vector profiles (shaded colors: wind speeds; white arrows: wind vectors) during the
210 typical haze pollution episodes of I (2018/12/13-16) and II (2019/1/5-8) as well as the
211 typical clean period of III (2018/12/27-30).



212

213 Figure 2. Temporal variation in the vertical profiles of (a) the virtual potential
 214 temperature gradient ($\partial\theta_v/\partial z$), (b) pseudoequivalent potential temperature gradient
 215 ($\partial\theta_{se}/\partial z$) and (c) temperature inversion phenomenon (shaded colors: inversion intensity)

216 during the typical haze pollution episodes of I (2018/12/13-16) and II (2019/1/5-8) as
 217 well as the typical clean period of III (2018/12/27-30).



218

219 Figure 3. Temporal variation in the vertical profiles of (a) the turbulent activity (shaded

220 colors: TKE), (b) atmospheric humidity (shaded colors: vapor density), and (c) vertical
221 distribution of suspended particles (shaded colors: BSC) during the typical haze
222 pollution episodes of I (2018/12/13-16) and II (2019/1/5-8) as well as the typical clean
223 period of III (2018/12/27-30).

224 Although not exactly the same, the haze episodes followed two different kinds of
225 variation trends as described in the previous section. The specific reason for this finding
226 will be systematically analyzed in this section. To better illustrate the two different haze
227 pollution patterns, a typical clean period will be considered a control. The typical air
228 pollution episodes of I (2018/12/13-16) and II (2019/1/5-8), as well as the typical clean
229 period of III (2018/12/27-30), are chosen as examples for analysis. Numerous studies
230 have reported that PM's original explosive growth is caused by pollution transport under
231 southerly winds (Ma et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2019; Zhong et al., 2018). In this study,
232 the action of southerly winds on the air pollution in Beijing was presented more clearly
233 as the Windcube 100s lidar obtained the distribution of the horizontal wind vectors
234 extending to heights of 1-1.5 km (equivalent to the entire ABL) (Fig. 1(c)). On the 1st
235 day of episodes I and II, the atmosphere layer up to ~1 km in height was controlled by
236 strong and clean north winds, exactly like clean period III. No pollution transport
237 occurred, and the PM and ARF levels were equivalent to those on a clean day (Figs.
238 1(a)-(b)). The atmospheric backscattering coefficients throughout the ABL during the
239 three episodes only ranged from ~0-1.5 $M m^{-1} sr^{-1}$ (Fig. 3(c)). From the evening of the
240 1st day to the forenoon of the 2nd day, strong southerly winds blew across Beijing during
241 both episodes I and II, with the wind speed increasing with the height, reaching ~5-15
242 $m s^{-1}$ at an atmosphere of about 0.5-1.5 km. North winds still dominated the ABL during
243 clean episode III. Sensitive to the change in wind direction from north to south, the PM
244 mass concentration progressively increased from a fairly low level to ~50 $\mu g m^{-3}$.
245 Moreover, the BSCs sharply increased to ~3 $Mm^{-1} rd^{-1}$ and were concentrated at
246 altitudes from ~0.5-1 km, which further stressed the effects of southerly transport on
247 the PM mass concentration's original growth over Beijing. With winds originating from
248 the wetter south, compared to the low humidity during clean episode III, the air

249 humidity in Beijing during this time notably increased with the vapor density ranging
250 from $\sim 1.5\text{-}2\text{ g m}^{-3}$ during both episodes I and II (Fig. 3(b)). During the remainder of the
251 2nd day, the PM mass concentration increased with south winds blowing and reached
252 its highest level at midnight with a $\text{PM}_{2.5}/\text{PM}_{10}$ mass concentration of $\sim 110/150\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
253 during both episodes I and II. The highest BSC values mainly occurred from the ground
254 to a height of 1 km at this time, implying that a portion of the suspended particles was
255 pushed down to the near-surface. Noteworthy, regardless of the wind field, the
256 atmospheric stratification states during this rising phase changed more notably. Before
257 southerly wind transport occurred, the evolution of the stability indicator ($\partial\theta_s/\partial z$; $\partial\theta_{sc}/\partial z$)
258 profiles during episodes I and II was analogous to that during episode III (Figs. 2(a)-
259 (b)). The stratification states at the different heights (0-1 km) were either unstable or
260 neutral, with negative or zero $\partial\theta_s/\partial z$ values, respectively, whereby no clear nor strong
261 temperature inversion phenomenon occurred in the lower atmosphere layer (Fig. 2(c)).
262 The corresponding ABLHs were the same (Fig. 1(a)). However, the atmospheric
263 stratification from $\sim 0.5\text{-}1$ km during the episode I and from 0-1 km during episode II
264 became quite stable during the PM increase period, with positive values of $\partial\theta_{sc}/\partial z$ and
265 almost no turbulent activity (TKE: $\sim 0\text{ m}^2\text{ s}^{-2}$) (Fig. 3(a)). In contrast to an increased
266 ABLH during clean period III, the ABLHs during episodes I-II sharply decreased.
267 Considering that aerosol scattering and absorbing radiation could modify the
268 temperature stratification (Li et al., 2010; Zhong et al., 2018a), the aerosol radiation
269 effect is too weak at a low PM level to change the latter, which defines the atmospheric
270 stability. With the elevated PM level due to southerly transport, ARF also increased,
271 with SFC (ATM) reaching ~ 40 (~ 20) W m^{-2} and ~ 75 (~ 30) W m^{-2} during episodes I
272 and II, respectively. Less radiation reaching the ground and more heating the
273 atmosphere above the ground, and in comparison to clean episode III, the atmospheric
274 stratification during episodes I and II was altered. Besides, TOA has an analogous
275 variation trend with SFC, increasing from relatively low values to $\sim 20\text{ W m}^{-2}$ and \sim
276 45 W m^{-2} during episodes I and II, respectively. It further clarified the high scattering
277 effect of aerosols with the elevated PM level. The suspended particles carried by

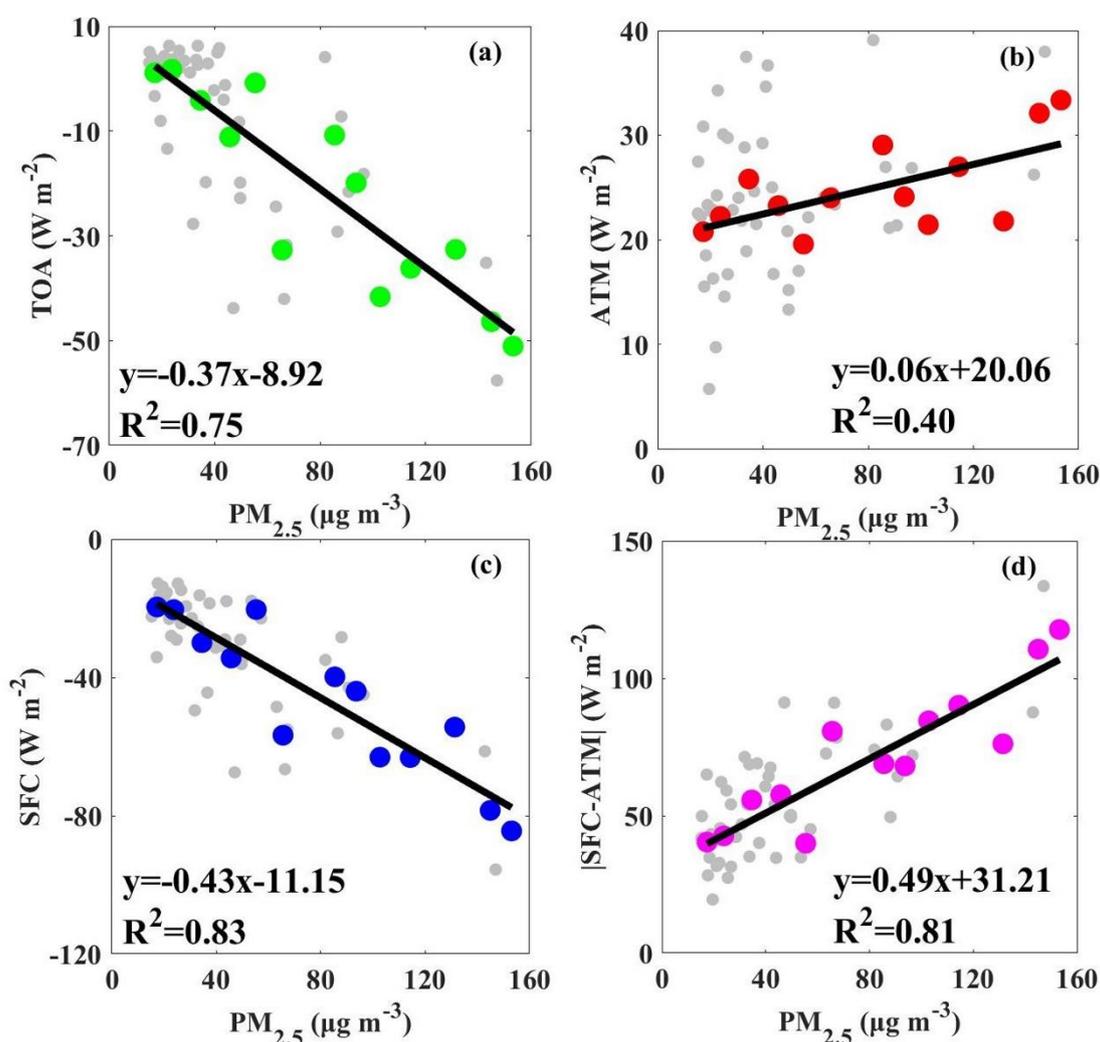
278 southerly transport originally occurring at high altitudes were restrained from vertically
279 spreading and gradually sank due to gravity and accumulated near the surface. This
280 stable stratification has a certain impact on aggravating haze pollution.

281 It is salient to note that the haze evolution trends during episodes I and II were
282 consistent so far, corresponding to a similar ABL structure. Nevertheless, the north
283 winds ($\sim 10\text{-}15\text{ m s}^{-1}$) during episode II, which only blew above the ABL ($>1\text{ km}$) at
284 midnight of the 2nd day, gradually spread downward and controlled the whole boundary
285 layer on the 3rd day. Moreover, the south wind, which once was strong and filled the
286 boundary layer on the 2nd day during the episode I, gradually decelerated over time
287 from the ground to high altitudes on the 3rd day. The wind field is critical concerning
288 horizontal dispersion in the boundary layer; thus, the strong, clean and dry north winds
289 during episode II greatly diffused the already accumulated particles first, where the
290 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration decreased from ~ 100 to $\sim 50\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The ARF obtained at this
291 time (at 9:00) also decreased compared to yesterday, and with solar radiation heating
292 the ground in the morning on the 3rd day, the positive sensible heat flux (upward heat
293 transfer) eliminated the previous night's temperature structure. The temperature
294 stratification became similar to that on clean day III with a similar increase in ABLH.
295 Thus, an unstable/neutral atmospheric state with a TKE of $\sim 2\text{ m}^2\text{ s}^{-2}$ was also conducive
296 to the vertical spread of materials replaced with cleaner air from above. In response, the
297 PM mass concentration (BSC) and air humidity during episode II gradually decreased
298 with the convective boundary layer development and reached the same level as those
299 during episode III. During the time (from 9:00 to 13:00) when the ARFs can be obtained,
300 the ARFs showed a consistent change with PM, gradually decreased to quite low levels.
301 Conversely, the whole ABL (0-1 km) was controlled by calm/light winds during the
302 episode I on the 3rd day. On account of the calm/light winds, the horizontal wind shear
303 sharply decreased, resulting in a decline in mechanical turbulence intensity. In the
304 absence of an existing high PM mass concentration, strong ARF would continue to cool
305 the ground notably and heat the aerosol layer, keeping the atmospheric stratification
306 stable and decreasing thermal turbulence intensity. As can be seen in Fig. 1(b), SFC and

307 TOA further increased compared to yesterday, up to $\sim 40 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ and $\sim 75 \text{ W m}^{-2}$,
308 respectively, with ATM remaining higher ($\sim 25 \text{ W m}^{-2}$). And since the high PM
309 concentration was relatively stable from 8:00 to 14:00 when the ARFs were obtained,
310 the elevated ARFs also kept relatively fixed values during this time. This was different
311 from that in case II and further indicated the sensitivity between PM concentrations and
312 ARFs. The ABLH barely changed on the 3rd day and maintained a lower altitude in the
313 forenoon of the 4th day. Therefore, a rather stable atmosphere extended from $\sim 0.3\text{-}0.5$
314 km to ~ 1.5 km on the 3rd day and from the ground to heights of ~ 0.3 km in the forenoon
315 of the 4th day (Figs. 2(a)-(c)). The quite low TKE was highly consistent with the
316 atmospheric stability stratification. Since the stable stratification acted as a lid at
317 altitudes from 0.5-1.5 km, downward momentum transport would be blocked, further
318 explaining the lower atmosphere layer's calm/light winds. In the forenoon of the 4th day,
319 it is worth noting that above the stable atmospheric stratification (0-0.3 km altitude), a
320 relatively strong horizontal wind shear occurred corresponding to a TKE of $\sim 1\text{-}2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$.
321 The accumulated particles near the surface were further inhibited right below the
322 stable atmosphere layer, as reflected by the BSC distribution. This highlights that a
323 stable atmosphere with a weak turbulent activity was central to pushing down the
324 pollutant layer. The same work was exerted on the water vapor as the air humidity at
325 this time reached $\sim 3 \text{ g m}^{-3}$ below an altitude of ~ 0.3 km, accompanied by intense
326 heterogeneous hydrolysis reactions at the moist particle surface (Zhang et al., 2008),
327 which further increased the PM mass concentration. At noon of the 4th day, north winds
328 spread down to the whole ABL, which promoted the horizontal and convective
329 dispersion of pollutants and water vapor, and the PM mass concentration, therefore,
330 dropped to the same level as that on clean day III. With $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sharply dropped from
331 $\sim 150 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to $\sim 20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in four hours, the aerosol radiative effect was sensitive to
332 PM changes and gradually decreased from 10:00 to 14:00, reaching the same level as
333 those on clean day III finally. For case II and III, the PM concentrations barely changed
334 during the moment (from 10:00 to 14:00), the corresponding ARFs changed little
335 neither. Qualitatively, there was a strong correlation between the PM levels and ARFs.

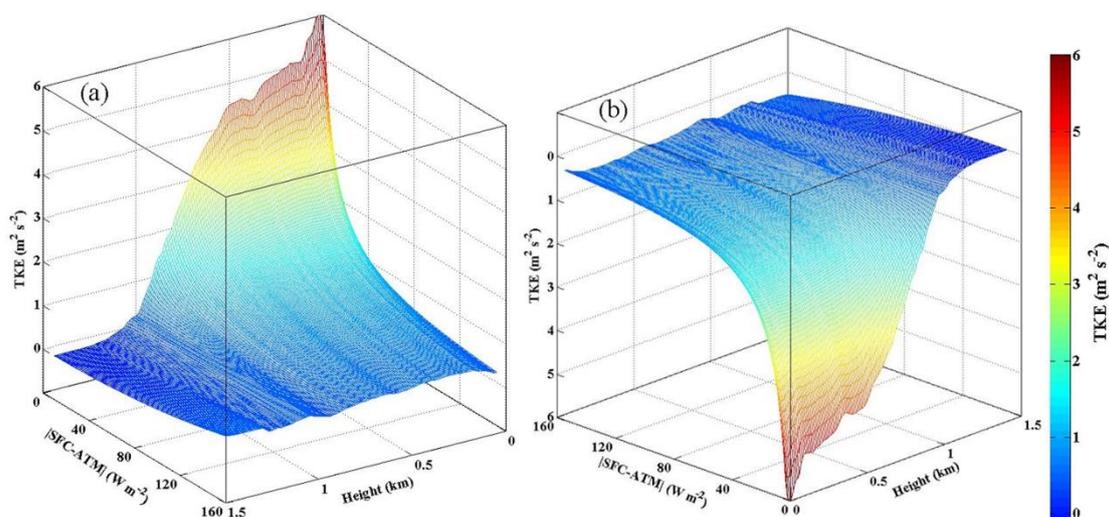
336 In this section, through a detailed contrastive analysis, we examined the potential
 337 reasons for the occurrence of the two different patterns of haze pollution. We found that
 338 the crucial point in determining whether the PM mass concentration remained high or
 339 sharply decreased was related to whether the boundary layer remained stable. The
 340 boundary layer stability was, in turn notably linked to the PM mass concentration and
 341 aerosol radiative effect.

342 **3.3 Quantitative analysis of the effect of particulate matter on the boundary layer**
 343 **structure**



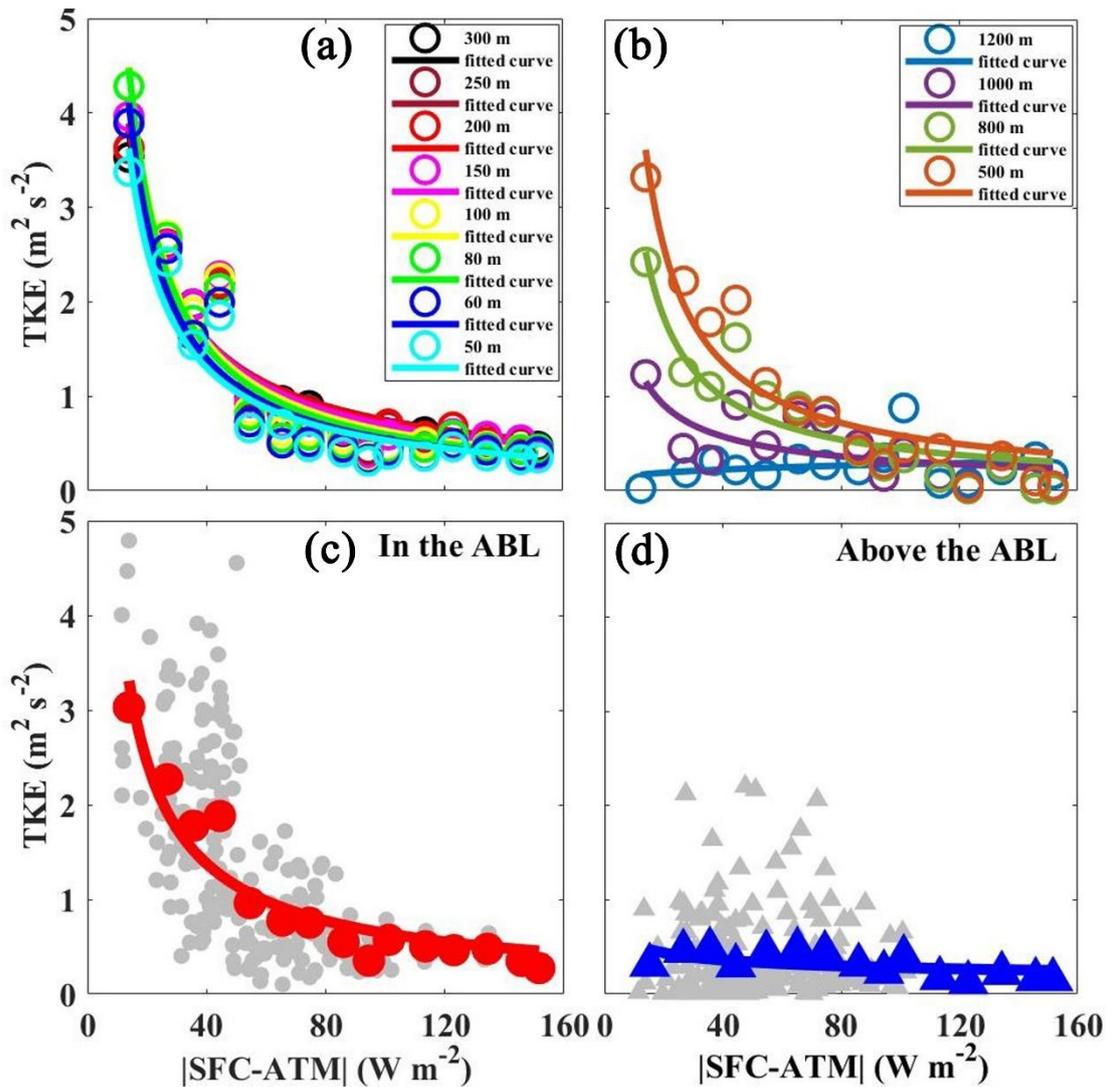
344
 345 Figure 4. Scatter plots of the PM_{2.5} mass concentration (x) versus aerosol radiative
 346 forcing at the surface (SFC; y; a), the interior of the atmospheric column (ATM; y; b),
 347 and top of the atmospheric column (TOA; y; c) as well as the absolute difference of
 348 SFC and ATM (|SFC-ATM|; y; d), respectively (gray dots: daily data; other dots: mean

349 data). (The daily data means daily mean values of TOA, ATM, SFC, and corresponding
 350 daily averaged $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration from 27 November 2018 to 25 January 2019
 351 in Beijing. The mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations were obtained by averaging daily $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
 352 concentrations at intervals of $10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The mean TOA, ATM, and SFC were obtained
 353 after the corresponding daily TOA, ATM, and SFC average, respectively. For example,
 354 all daily $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations greater than $40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and less than $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ were
 355 averaged as a mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration, and TOA values (ATM; SFC) corresponding
 356 to this daily $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration range were also averaged as a mean TOA (ATM; SFC)).



357

358 Figure 5. 3-D plot of the fitting relationship of the absolute difference in aerosol
 359 radiative forcing between the surface and interior of the atmospheric column ($|\text{SFC}-$
 360 $\text{ATM}|$; x) and turbulence kinetic energy (TKE; z) at the different altitudes (y) ((a) and
 361 (b) present different perspectives).



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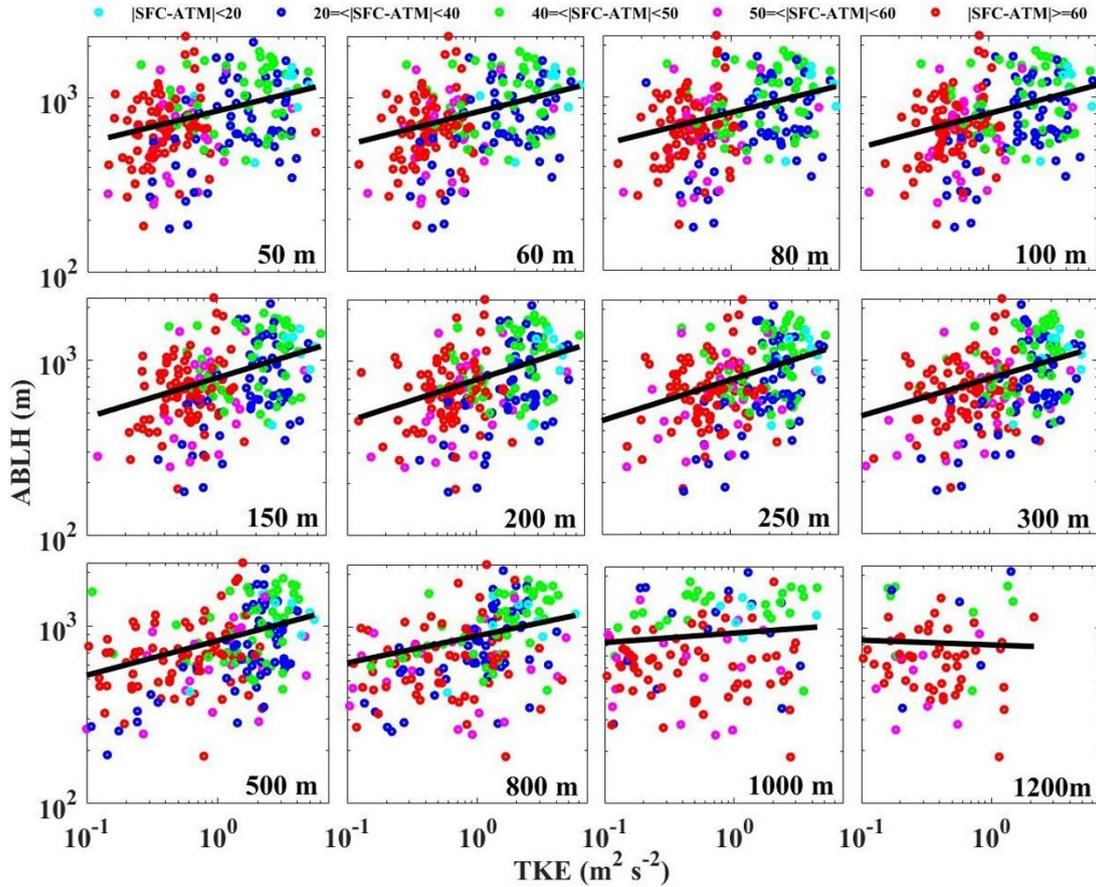
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Figure 6. Scatter plots of the mean absolute difference of the aerosol radiative forcing at the surface and interior of the atmospheric column ($|SFC-ATM|$; x) versus the mean turbulence kinetic energy (TKE; y) at the different altitudes (a; b). Scatter plots of $|SFC-ATM|$ (x) versus TKE (y) in the ABL (c) and above the ABL (d) (gray dots: hourly data; other dots: mean data). The hourly data were collected over a two-month period in Beijing from 27 November 2018 to 25 January 2019. (The hourly data means hourly mean values of $|SFC-ATM|$ and corresponding hourly TKE. The mean $|SFC-ATM|$ was obtained by averaging hourly $|SFC-ATM|$ at intervals of $10 W m^{-2}$, then the mean TKE was obtained after the average of the corresponding hourly TKE.).



372

373 Figure 7. The atmospheric boundary layer height (ABLH; y) as a function of the
 374 turbulence kinetic energy (TKE; x) at the different altitudes and the aerosol radiative
 375 effect defined as $|SFC-ATM|$ (color code). The calculated hourly data used above are
 376 collected over two months in Beijing from 27 November 2018 to 25 January 2019.

377 Based on the contrastive analysis in the previous section, it was clear that the stable
 378 ABL structure played a critical role in the outbreak and maintenance of air pollution. It
 379 appeared that the increase in atmospheric stability suppressed pollution diffusion under
 380 a weak turbulence activity and low ABLH. Water vapor also significantly accumulated
 381 to a relatively high level near the surface, further facilitating secondary aerosols'
 382 formation. The evolution of ABL stability essentially occurred in response to the
 383 atmospheric temperature structure, as analyzed above, which was influenced by the
 384 strong aerosol radiation effect (Li et al., 2010; Andrews, 2000). The Archimedes
 385 buoyancy generated by the pulsating temperature field in the gravity field exerted
 386 negative work on the turbulent pulsating field with a stable ABL occurring. The
 387 turbulence served as a carrier for substance transport in the boundary layer, such as

388 water vapor, heat, and PM. (Garratt et al., 1992). Generally, the ABL structure
389 controlling pollutant dissipation, therefore dramatically relies on the turbulent activity.
390 Thus, in the following section, the ARF and TKE were chosen as the key parameters to
391 examine how PM affects and modifies the boundary layer structure.

392 Figure 4 shows the relationship between the PM concentration and ARF. The
393 aerosol scattering effect results in less radiation reaching the ground and the top of the
394 atmospheric column, so the solar radiation levels reaching the ground and at the top of
395 the atmospheric column differ with or without ambient aerosols, thus making SFC and
396 TOA forcing. As shown in Figs. 4(a) and (c), SFC and TOA, respectively, were
397 proportional to the PM_{2.5} concentration. With the increase in PM_{2.5} concentration,
398 elevated aerosol loading near the surface would scatter more solar radiation back into
399 outer space and cause less solar radiation reaching the ground, corresponding to a
400 cooling of the surface and making negative SFC. TOA means the aerosol radiative
401 forcing at the top of the atmosphere column and is the sum of ATM and SFC.
402 Considering that anthropogenic aerosols are mostly scattering aerosols, the SFC forcing
403 is generally stronger than ATM, corresponding to a cooling of the earth-atmosphere
404 system. The TOA forcing was thus usually negative and had a similar trend with SFC.
405 ATM, driven by aerosol absorption and representing a warming effect of aerosols on
406 the atmosphere layer, exhibited a positive correlation with the PM_{2.5} concentration (see
407 Fig. 4(b)). These results demonstrated that a higher PM_{2.5} concentration would arouse
408 a stronger ARF, further inhibiting solar radiation from reaching the ground, thus heating
409 the atmosphere layer more. $|SFC-ATM|$, defined as the absolute value of the difference
410 between SFC and ATM, represents aerosols' combined action on the solar radiation
411 reaching the aerosol layer and the ground. Larger values of $|SFC-ATM|$ indicate
412 stronger aerosol scattering and/or absorption effects, further implying a more
413 significant temperature difference between the ground and the above atmosphere layer.
414 As expected, a positive linear correlation between $|SFC-ATM|$ and PM_{2.5} concentration
415 was found, as shown in Fig. 4(d).

416 As described in the above paragraph, there was a strong ARF under a high PM

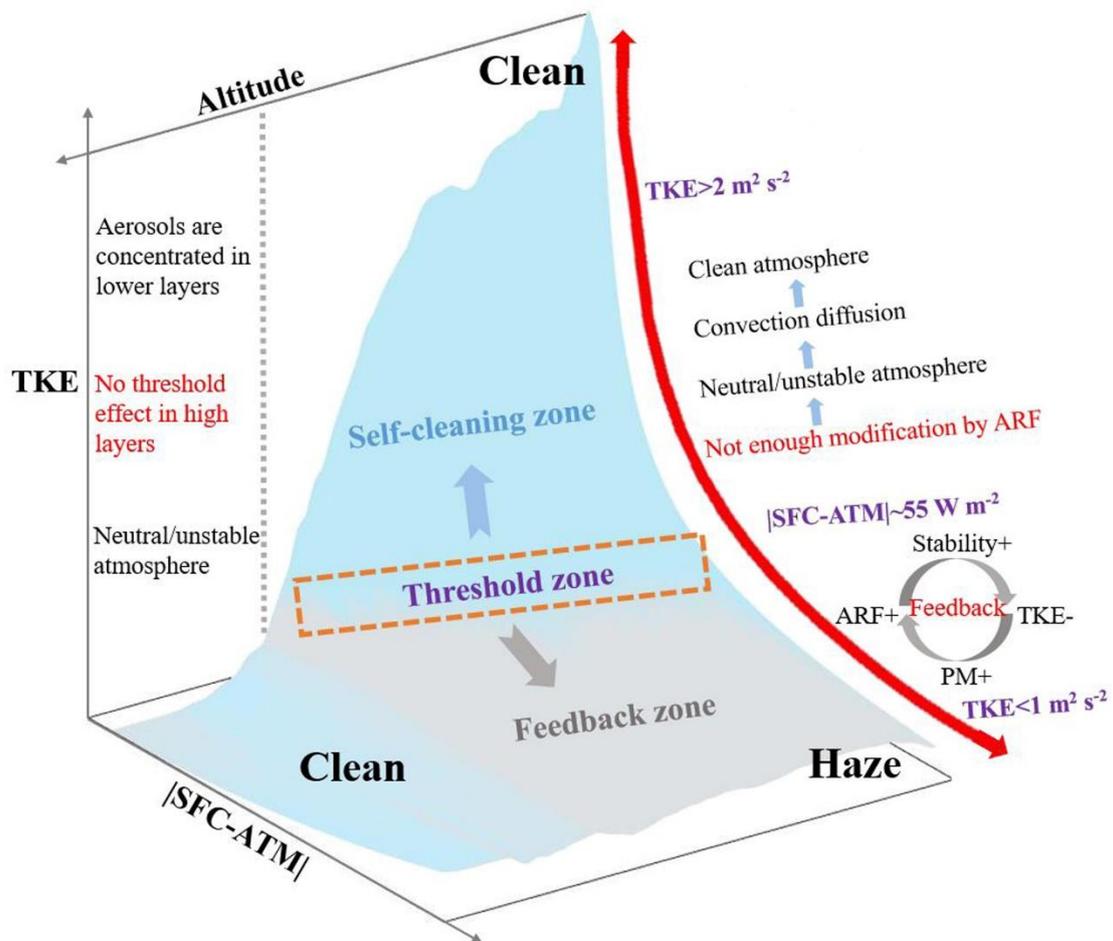
417 loading, which markedly altered the atmospheric temperature structure, further
418 changing the ABL structure. It is necessary to determine the effect degree of ARF on
419 the boundary layer structure. Figure 5 shows the 3-D plots of the fitting relationship
420 between the hourly values of |SFC-ATM| and TKE at the different altitudes from
421 different perspectives. What stood out in Fig. 5(a) was the general decline in TKE
422 concerning the growth of |SFC-ATM|. With increasing |SFC-ATM| value, the TKE
423 value at the different altitudes always decreased exponentially and approached zero
424 below ~ 0.8 km. The notable exponential function between TKE and |SFC-ATM|
425 explained that a strong ARF would drastically change the boundary layer into highly
426 stable conditions characterized by a rather low TKE. The results above highlight the
427 aerosol radiative effect's nonnegligible impact on the boundary layer structure,
428 especially during the haze episode under a high aerosol loading with a strong ARF. It is
429 well known that a larger net negative/positive SFC/ATM means a cooler/warmer the
430 ground/atmosphere would be. An increase in |SFC-ATM| implies the gradual
431 intensification of the ground cooling and/or atmosphere heating processes. Therefore,
432 it changed the atmospheric stratification into a gradually enhanced stable state, which
433 was characterized by increasingly weaker turbulence activities. Additionally, as shown
434 in Fig. 5(b), we can identify a critical point of the |SFC-ATM| effects on TKE in the
435 low layers from another perspective. In particular, TKE decreased with increasing
436 |SFC-ATM| and hardly changed when |SFC-ATM| exceeded the critical point. To define
437 the critical point, we generated scatter plots of the average |SFC-ATM| and TKE at
438 several altitudes, as shown in Figs. 6(a)-(b). The scatter plots of the unaveraged hourly
439 data are shown in Fig. S3, and the fitting functions are listed in Table S1. Depending
440 on the exponential curve's maximum curvature (Silvanus and Gardner, 1998), a critical
441 point should exist. With the mean TKE and |SFC-ATM| values on the exponential curve,
442 we found that once the aerosol radiative effect defined by |SFC-ATM| exceeded 50-60
443 W m^{-2} (average of $\sim 55 \text{ W m}^{-2}$), the TKE sharply decreased from $\sim 2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ to lower than
444 $1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$. This means that a high aerosol loading with a |SFC-ATM| value higher than
445 $\sim 55 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ would change the boundary layer from the unstable state to the extremely

446 stable state in a short time, and further increasing |SFC-ATM| would barely modify the
447 ABL structure. This result can provide useful information to explain why air pollution
448 is sometimes aggravated under a stable ABL and sometimes not. The average aerosol
449 radiative forcing (|SFC-ATM|) value of $\sim 55 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ can be defined as the threshold of
450 the ARF effects on the ABL structure, which could provide useful information relevant
451 model simulations, atmospheric environment improvement measures, and relevant
452 policies. Besides, as shown in Figs. 5 and 6, the exponential relationship between TKE
453 and |SFC-ATM| was notable in the low layers and gradually deteriorated with increasing
454 altitude. On average, the exponential relationship was notable in the ABL and almost
455 disappeared above the ABL (Figs. 6(c) and (d)). Considering that aerosols are mainly
456 concentrated below the lower atmosphere, contributing the most to the SFC and ATM
457 forcing, which further confirmed, the considerable change in atmospheric stratification
458 caused by aerosols existed and mainly occurred in the lower layers.

459 The previous discussion shows that a strong aerosol radiative effect markedly
460 affected the turbulent activity and modified the boundary layer structure. As many
461 studies have reported, the ABLH is an important meteorological factor that influences
462 the vertical diffusion of atmospheric pollutants and water vapor (Stull, 1988; Robert
463 and Aron, 1983). The following examines the relationship among the turbulent activity,
464 ARF, and ABLH to illustrate the change in ABLH in response to ARF. Figure 7 shows
465 the ABLH as a function of the TKE and |SFC-ATM| at the different altitudes. It was
466 apparent from this figure that a positive correlation exists between TKE and ABLH. As
467 the turbulent activity became increasingly weaker, the corresponding boundary layer
468 height gradually decreased, responding to the gradual increase in |SFC-ATM|. Similar
469 to the relationship between the turbulent activity and aerosol radiative effect, as shown
470 in Fig. 6, the relationship among these aspects was much stronger below 300 m and
471 almost disappeared above 800 m. This further addressed the fact that the change in
472 boundary layer height was attributed to the turbulence activity variation stemming from
473 the aerosol radiative effect.

474 Thus far, this section has demonstrated that the aerosol loading with aerosol

475 radiative effects impacted the turbulent activity, changed the boundary layer height, and
476 modified the boundary layer structure. On the other hand, it is now necessary to explain
477 how the renewed boundary layer structure modifies the PM_{2.5} concentration. As shown
478 in Figs. S4(a)-(b), the ABLH as an independent variable impact the ambient water vapor
479 in the ABL to some degree. There was a steady increase in the ambient humidity with
480 decreasing ABLH, where absolute humidity (AH) and relative humidity (RH) were
481 projected to decrease to $\sim 3 \text{ g m}^{-3}$ and $\sim 60\%$, respectively, with the ABLH decreasing
482 below $\sim 500 \text{ m}$. With the increase in ambient humidity, a marked rise in PM_{2.5}
483 concentration occurred, as shown in Figs. S4(c)-(d). Once AH and RH exceeded $\sim 3 \text{ g}$
484 m^{-3} and $\sim 60\%$, respectively, the PM_{2.5} concentration reached $\sim 100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The results
485 above indicate that with a fairly low boundary layer height, water vapor accumulated
486 near the surface, and particles tended to hygroscopic grow, resulting in secondary
487 aerosol formation in a high-humidity environment, further increasing the PM_{2.5}
488 concentration. As shown in Fig. S4(e), with the level off of the ABLH, the PM_{2.5} mass
489 concentration increased exponentially and reached a high value. The exponential
490 relationship was similar to that between the ambient humidity and ABLH, which
491 revealed that the explosive growth of the PM_{2.5} concentration under a low ABLH was
492 largely driven by intense secondary aerosol formation and hygroscopic growth at high
493 ambient humidity.



494

495 Figure 8. Schematic diagram of the interaction between the aerosol radiation forcing (ARF) and
 496 boundary layer structure ($|SFC-ATM|$: the mean absolute difference of the aerosol radiative
 497 forcing at the surface and interior of the atmospheric column; TKE: the mean turbulence kinetic
 498 energy).

499 **4 Conclusion**

500 By analyzing the two-month haze conditions in Beijing in winter, we found that
 501 haze pollution underwent two different variation patterns, namely, the same trends on
 502 the first two days, and on the next days, one haze pattern went through a continuing
 503 outbreak, while the other haze pattern exhibited notable diffusion. Considering
 504 equivalent emissions, this has raised important questions about whether and how the
 505 local boundary layer structure impacted/caused this difference. The results of a
 506 contrastive analysis qualitatively showed that the crucial point in determining whether
 507 the PM concentration remained very high or sharply decreased was related to whether
 508 the boundary layer structure (i.e., stability and TKE) satisfied relevant conditions. As

509 previous studies reported (Liu et al., 2018; Zhong et al., 2018b; Zhong et al., 2019) and
510 was confirmed in this paper, the extremely stable stratification with positive $\partial\theta_{se}/\partial z$
511 values and a low TKE was the premise of the outbreak of haze pollution. The
512 change/state of the boundary layer structure was, in turn, strongly linked to the PM
513 mass concentration and ARF, and we further quantitatively evaluated the effect of ARF
514 on the boundary layer structure. Figure 8, emerging from the previous observation
515 analysis, is where ARF modifies the boundary layer structure and aggravates haze
516 pollution. The ARF effects on the atmospheric stratification depend on the reduced
517 radiation reaching the ground due to aerosol scattering and absorbing radiation in the
518 atmosphere (Dickerson et al., 1997; Stone et al., 2008). First, we found that a positive
519 linear relationship between |SFC-ATM| and PM_{2.5} concentration existed, which means
520 the strong aerosol scattering and/or absorption effect occurs during the heavy haze
521 episodes and could arouse significant temperature differences between the surface and
522 the above atmosphere layer. Secondly, previous studies revealed that black carbon solar
523 absorption suppresses turbulence near the surface (Wilcox et al., 2016); however, we
524 found that the TKE value at the different altitudes always decreased exponentially with
525 increasing |SFC-ATM|, which was significant in the lower atmosphere layer. Moreover,
526 the ARF effects on turbulent activity were found significant in the boundary layer and
527 disappeared above the boundary layer, which also confirmed that the stronger ARF
528 from the aerosol layer would indeed change the boundary layer into the considerably
529 stable state characterized by a relatively low TKE. Then, the ARF change is linear due
530 to the PM concentration; however, the influence of ARF on the boundary layer structure
531 is nonlinear. Based on the exponential relationship, the threshold of the ARF effects on
532 the boundary layer structure has been determined for the first time in this paper,
533 highlighting that once the ARF exceeded a specific value, the boundary layer structure
534 would quickly stabilize after that changed little with increasing ARF. This threshold can
535 provide useful information for relevant atmospheric environment improvement
536 measures and policies. When the PM_{2.5} concentration is controlled with the ARF below
537 the threshold, the unstable atmosphere's self-purification capacity can effectively dilute

538 and diffuse pollutants. In contrast, when the PM_{2.5} concentration increases with an ARF
539 exceeding the threshold value, the boundary layer stabilizes sharply, especially in the
540 lower layers, aggravating haze pollution.

541 **Data availability**

542 The surface PM_{2.5} & PM₁₀ and other trace gases observation data used in this study
543 can be accessed from <http://106.37.208.233:20035/> (last access: 4 June 2020). Other
544 datasets can be accessed upon request to the corresponding author.

545 **Author contribution**

546 ZD performed the research and wrote the paper. XJ provided writing guidance,
547 revised and polished the paper. GC performed the SBDART model. QJ and WY GC
548 contributed to discussions of results. TG and MY designed the experiments, and DL,
549 WX, LG, and MY carried them out. All the authors have made substantial contributions
550 to the work reported in the manuscript.

551 **Competing interests**

552 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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559 Infrastructure of China (available at <http://www.geodata.cn>, last access: 4 June 2020).

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