1	The outflow of Asian biomass burning carbonaceous aerosol into the UTLS in spring:
2	Radiative effects seen in a global model
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11 Abstract

12 Biomass burning (BB) over Asia is a strong source of carbonaceous aerosols during spring. From ECHAM6-HAMMOZ model simulations and satellite observations, we show that there 13 is an outflow of Asian BB carbonaceous aerosols into the Upper Troposphere and Lower 14 Stratosphere (UTLS) (black carbon: 0.1 to 6 ng m⁻³ and organic carbon: 0.2 to 10 ng m⁻³) 15 during the spring season. The model simulations show that the greatest transport of BB 16 carbonaceous aerosols into the UTLS occurs from the Indochina and East Asia region by 17 deep convection over the Malay peninsula and Indonesia. The increase in BB carbonaceous 18 aerosols enhances atmospheric heating by 0.001 to 0.02 K day⁻¹ in the UTLS. The aerosol-19 induced heating and circulation changes increase the water vapour mixing ratios in the upper 20 troposphere (by 20-80 ppmv) and in the lowermost stratosphere (by 0.02-0.3 ppmv) over the 21 tropics. Once in the lower stratosphere, water vapour is further transported to the South Pole 22 23 by the lowermost branch of the Brewer-Dobson circulation. These aerosols enhance the inatmosphere radiative forcing (0.68 ± 0.25 W m⁻² to 5.30 ± 0.37 W m⁻²), exacerbating 24 atmospheric warming but produce a cooling effect on climate (TOA: -2.38±0.12 W m⁻² to -25 7.08±0.72 W m⁻²). The model simulations also show that Asian carbonaceous aerosols are 26 transported to the Arctic in the troposphere. The maximum enhancement in aerosol extinction 27 is seen at 400 hPa (by 0.0093 km⁻¹) and associated heating rates at 300 hPa (by 0.032 K day⁻¹) 28 ¹) in the Arctic. 29

32 There is growing concern about increasing aerosol amounts over South and East Asia, not only because of its contribution to air pollution and its harmful health effects (Chen et al., 33 2017; Thomas et al., 2019), but also because of its impact on the hydrological cycle (Meehl et 34 al., 2008). Biomass burning (BB) accounts for ~60% of the total aerosol optical depth (AOD) 35 36 globally (Cheng et al., 2009; Streets et al., 2003). It is one of the major sources of large carbonaceous aerosol (Ni et al., 2019). BB is responsible for the major fraction of global 37 38 mean emissions of black carbon (BC, ~59%) and organic carbon (OC, ~85%) (Bond et al., 2013). 39

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In Asia, China (25%) is the largest contributor to the global BB aerosol emissions, 41 followed by India (18%), Indonesia (13%), and Myanmar (8%) (Streets et al., 2003). Among 42 the sources, forest burning (anthropogenic and natural) contributes 45%, burning of crop 43 residues in the field 35%, and burning grassland and savannah 20% to the total BB aerosols 44 in Asia (Streets et al., 2003). Asia emits a substantial amount of BC (~ 0.45 Tg yr⁻¹) and OC 45 (~3.3 Tg yr⁻¹) from BB (Streets et al., 2003). These are significant fractions of the global BB 46 emissions of BC (~2.8–4.9 Tg yr⁻¹) and OC (~31–36 Tg yr⁻¹), respectively (Andreae, 2019). 47 Recently, Wu et al. (2018) and Singh et al. (2020) reported ~83% of the carbonaceous aerosol 48 49 mass is emitted from open fires over South and East Asia. Within Asia, BB carbonaceous aerosol emissions from East Asia (BC: 110 Gg, OC: 730 Gg) are larger than over India (BC: 50 83 Gg, OC: 650 Gg) and the Indochina region (BC: 40 Gg, OC: 310 Gg) (Streets et al., 51 2003). 52

54 Biomass burning over Asia shows a strong seasonal cycle peaking in spring (Streets et al., 2003). Our analysis of MODIS fire counts over Asia also shows a pronounced peak in 55 spring (Fig. 1a). The carbonaceous aerosols emitted from BB also peak in spring over 56 Indochina, South Asia, and East Asia regions (Fig. 1b). These aerosols will affect the regional 57 radiative forcing. The literature shows that aerosols emitted from BB in spring produce a 58 significant negative radiative forcing at the top of the atmosphere (TOA) and at the surface, 59 60 but in-atmospheric radiative forcing (TOA - surface) is positive over Asia (Wang et al., 2007; Lin et al., 2014; Singh et al., 2020). 61

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Deep convection occurs over the Bay of Bengal, the South China Sea, and Malay 63 Peninsula during the spring and monsoon seasons (Randel et al., 2010; Fadnavis et al., 2013; 64 Murugavel et al., 2012) that may transport Asian boundary layer pollutants to the UTLS. 65 Numerous airborne measurements show evidence of carbonaceous aerosol in the upper 66 troposphere over Asia and adjoining outflow regions during spring and monsoon seasons, 67 e.g., measurements from the Civil Aircraft for Regular Investigation of the Atmosphere Based 68 on an Instrument Container (CARIBIC) campaign in 2004, Stratospheric and upper 69 tropospheric processes for better climate predictions (StratoClim) in 2017, Aerosol Radiative 70 Forcing in East Asia (A-FORCE) in 2009, and Transport and Chemical Evolution over the 71 Pacific (TRACE-P) in 2001 (Nguyen et al., 2008; Pozzoli et al., 2008; Oshima et al., 2012; 72 73 Weigel et al., 2020; Brunamonti et al., 2018; Hanumanthu et al., 2020). There may be a significant contribution from BB to the observed carbonaceous aerosols in the UTLS, since 74 BB accounts for ~59 - 80 % of the carbonaceous aerosols globally (Bond et al., 2013) and 75 76 being fine-grained, these aerosols have long atmospheric residence times. Transport of Australian wildfire smoke into the stratosphere (~35km) is seen in satellite observations 77 (Khaykin et al., 2020). The balloon-borne, lidar, and satellite observations showed pyro-78

cumulonimbus events that injected smoke from Canadian forest fires into the stratosphere in August 2017 (Peterson et al., 2018; Hooghiem et al., 2020; Lestrelin et al., 2021). The carbonaceous aerosols were transported to the upper troposphere and produced significant heating locally (Fadnavis et al., 2017a). The heating of the upper troposphere induces an amplification of the vertical motion in the troposphere (Fadnavis et al., 2017b; Hooghiem, et al., 2020).

Numerous studies show the transport of boundary layer aerosols from Asia to the 86 87 lower stratosphere during the monsoon season (Randel et al., 2010; Fadnavis et al., 2013). However, transport of Asian aerosol pollution into the UTLS during the spring season is not 88 reported hitherto when the deep convection occurs over the Malay peninsula (Chang et al., 89 90 2005) and Indonesia, and when biomass burning aerosol emissions show a peak (Streets et 91 al., 2003; Fig. 1). In this study, we address these unexplored science questions (1) transport pathways of Asian BB aerosols to the lower stratosphere during the spring season, (2) 92 impacts of Asian BB carbonaceous aerosols on the lower stratosphere. For this purpose, we 93 employ the state-of-the-art ECHAM6-HAMMOZ chemistry-climate model. The model is 94 evaluated against satellite (MODIS) and ground-based remote sensing (AERONET). The 95 paper is organized as follows: satellite data, ground-based data and the experimental set-up 96 are described in section 2. Section 3 comprises a discussion on the distribution of fires and 97 98 model evaluation; results are discussed in section 4; conclusions are given in section 5.

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104 2. Model simulations and satellite observations

105 2.1 Model description and experimental set-up

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The fully coupled chemistry-climate model ECHAM6.3-HAM2.3 is used in this study. 107 It comprises the general circulation model ECHAM6 coupled to the aerosol sub-module 108 "Hamburg Aerosol Model (HAM)" (Stier et al., 2005). HAM predicts the evolution of sulfate 109 110 (SU), BC, OC, particulate organic matter (POM), sea salt (SS), and mineral dust (DU) aerosols. The size distribution of the aerosol population is described by seven lognormal 111 112 modes with prescribed variance in the aerosol module (Stier et al., 2005). The anthropogenic and fire emissions were obtained from the ACCMIP-II (Emissions for Atmospheric 113 Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison Project) emission inventories and are 114 interpolated for the period 2000 - 2100 by using Representative Concentration Pathway 4.5 115 (RCP4.5) (Lamarque et al., 2010; van Vuuren et al., 2011). The biomass burning emissions 116 dataset represent average conditions of the decade (Tegen et al., 2019). It should be noted that 117 inter-annual variability of biomass burning is not considered in our simulations. Injection 118 heights of biomass burning emissions are documented by Val Martin et al. (2010). The 119 majority (75%) of the emissions are evenly distributed within the planetary boundary layer 120 (PBL) with 17% in the first model level above the planetary boundary layer and 8% in the 121 second model level above the planetary boundary layer (Tegen et al., 2019). Biogenic 122 123 emissions are derived from MEGAN (Guenther 1995). In the model, biogenic OC is directly inserted via emissions. Secondary organic aerosol (SOA) emissions are as described by 124 Dentener et al. (2006). 125

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127 The model simulations are performed at a T63 spectral resolution corresponding to 128 $1.875^{\circ} \times 1.875^{\circ}$ horizontal resolution, while 47 hybrid σ -p levels provide the vertical

resolution from the surface up to 0.01 hPa. The model has 12 vertical levels in the UTLS 129 (300 to 50 hPa). The simulations have been carried out at a time step of 20 min. Atmospheric 130 131 Model Inter-comparison Project (AMIP) monthly varying sea surface temperature (SST) and sea ice cover (SIC) were used as lower boundary conditions. We performed two sets of 132 emission sensitivity experiments; in one set of the simulations, the aerosol emissions from 133 biomass burning were kept on (referred to as BMaeroon simulations) and in another set of the 134 135 simulations, the aerosol emissions from biomass burning were kept off (referred to as BMaerooff simulations). We adopted an ensemble mean approach (with ten ensemble 136 137 members) for the above two experiments. Ten spin-up simulations were performed from 1-10 January 2012 up to 28 February 2013 to generate stabilized initial fields for the ten ensemble 138 members. Emissions were the same in each of the ten members during the spin-up period. In 139 the BMaerooff simulations (ten ensemble members each), the biomass burning aerosols were 140 switched off since 1 March 2013. The BMaeroon and BMaerooff simulations ended on 31 141 December 2013. To investigate the effects of biomass burning aerosol emissions in spring 142 (i.e., since 1 March 2013), we analyze the difference between BMaeroon and BMaerooff 143 simulations for the spring season in 2013. The uncertainty estimates in simulated radiative 144 forcing, heating rates, aerosol extinction coefficient are obtained from the 10 members of the 145 different initial conditions. The year 2013 was chosen for the analysis as this was a neutral 146 year without a pronounced El Niño or Indian Ocean Dipole oscillation. Such large-scale 147 coupled atmosphere-ocean oscillations substantially affect the transport processes to the 148 UTLS (Fadnavis et al., 2017a, 2019). 149

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154 2.2 MODIS fire counts and aerosol optical depth

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In order to study spatio-temporal variations in the biomass burning activity, we analysed the 156 157 Terra/Aqua combined daily active fire location data (product mcd14dl) from the Moderate Resolution (MODIS) Imaging Spectroradiometer 158 (https://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/download/) onboard Terra and Aqua (Earth Observing 159 160 System). This MODIS collection-6, Level-2 global data are processed by NASA's Land, Atmosphere Near real-time Capability for EOS (LANCE) Fire Information for Resource 161 Management System (FIRMS), using swath products (MOD14/MYD14). The thermal 162 anomaly / active fire represents the centre of a 1 km pixel that is flagged by the MODIS 163 MOD14/MYD14 Fire and Thermal Anomalies algorithm as containing one or more fires 164 within the pixel (Giglio et al., 2003). The fire detection algorithm uses the strong mid-165 infrared (IR) emissions from the fires (Matson and Dozier 1981) and is based on the 166 brightness temperatures derived from MODIS at the 4 and 11-µm channels. The retrieval 167 algorithm classifies fire pixels in three categories: low confidence (0 - 30 %), nominal 168 confidence (30 - 80 %), and high confidence (>80 %). This confidence limit allows the 169 rejection of false fires (Giglio, 2015). Here, data with high or nominal confidence (≥ 70 %) 170 171 are used.

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For information on aerosol, we used monthly mean data from MODIS Terra (MOD08 M3 V6.1) at $1^{\circ}\times1^{\circ}$ horizontal resolution to study AOD variability over the Asian region during spring 2013. MODIS Terra measures radiance emanating from the surface and the atmosphere and provides images in 36 spectral bands between 0.415 and 14.235 µm, with a spatial resolution varying from 250 m to 1 km (Mhawish et al., 2019). Terra MODIS MOD08_M3 (V6.1) aerosol products (i.e., AOD) are retrieved using the Deep Blue (DB)
algorithm. The algorithm calculates the column aerosol loading at 0.55 µm over land and
ocean.

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182 2.3 Multi-Angle Imaging Spectroradiometer (MISR), Aerosol Robotic NETwork
183 (AERONET) and Optical Spectrograph and InfraRed Imaging System (OSIRIS)
184 observations

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186 The AOD retrievals from the Multi-Angle Imaging Spectroradiometer (MISR) at 550 nm wavelength and the Aerosol Robotic NETwork (AERONET) sunphotometer during 187 spring 2013 are also used for comparison with the model simulations. Details of MISR are 188 available at https://misr.jpl.nasa.gov/getData/accessData/ and AERONET 189 at https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/. AERONET AOD observations are obtained at different stations 190 in the Indochina region (Myanmar: 16.86°N - 96.15°E, Vientiane: 17.99°N-102.57°E, 191 Siplakorn University: 13.81°N-100.04°E, Ubon-Ratchathani: 15.24°N - 104.87°E), South 192 Asia (Gandhi college: 25.81°N - 85.12°E, Lumbini: 27.49°N-83.28°E, Kathmandu Bode: 193 27.68°N -85.39°E, Dhaka University: 23.72°N - 90.39°E), East Asia (Nghia-Do: 21.04°N -194 105.80°E, Hong Kong Polytechnic University: 22.30°N - 114.18°E). 195

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We compared simulated aerosol extinction coefficient vertical profiles with observations from Optical Spectrograph and InfraRed Imaging System (OSIRIS) on-board the Odin satellite (Bourassa et al., 2012). We used version 7.0 vertical profiles of aerosol extinction at 750 nm for March-May 2013 (https://research-groups.usask.ca/osiris/dataproducts.php#Download). The limb scatter measurements from OSIRIS show good agreement with Stratospheric Aerosol and Gas Experiment (SAGE) II and Scanning Imaging

Absorption spectrometer for Atmospheric Chartography (Rieger et al., 2018). To understand convective activity in spring 2013, we also analyzed Outgoing Longwave Radiation (OLR) data for March - May 2013 from the National Center for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) re-analysis-2 (https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis2.pressure.html).

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208 **3. Distribution of fires and model evaluation**

209 3.1 Seasonal distribution of fires over Asia

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211 In this section, we discuss the seasonal variability of fire activity in Asia. The fire counts peak over Asia (10°S - 50°N, 60°E - 130°E) in the spring season. Figure 1a-b shows 212 that fires are clustered over three sub-regions (1) Indochina region (91°E - 107°E, 10°N -213 27°N) (numbers of fire counts: 80694), (2) East Asia (108°E - 123°E, 22°N - 32°N), 214 (numbers of fire counts: 4770), (3) South Asia (65°E - 90°E, 8°N - 32°N) (numbers of fire 215 counts: 14223) (Fig. 1b). Fire counts over the three sub-regions peak in spring although the 216 month varies, e.g., fire counts over East Asia show a peak in March, Indochina region in 217 March-April, and South Asia in May (Fig. 1a). The fire counts over South Asia show a 218 secondary peak in October. In agreement with our results, Bhardwaj et al. (2016) also 219 reported high fire activity in spring and the lowest fire activity during the monsoon (June-220 September) in the 2003-2013 time frame. Streets et al. (2003) reported that higher fire counts 221 222 during the spring season over South Asia and East Asia are attributed to enhanced crop burning activity. Over the Indochina region, high fire counts are associated with forest fires 223 along with crop burning. Intense biomass burning activity over Asia during the spring season 224 225 is also reported by Zhang et al. (2020). Hence, we provide further analysis in spring.

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230 We compare simulated AOD (averaged for spring from BMaeroon simulations) with MODIS, MISR, and AERONET. Figure 2 (a-c) shows large AOD over the regions: Indochina 231 (MODIS: ~0.4 to 0.8, MISR: 0.27 to 0.6; model: 0.27 to 0.5), East Asia (MODIS: 0.5 to 1.3, 232 MISR: 0.27 to 1, model: 0.5 to 1.4), and the Indo-Gangetic plain in south Asia (23°N - 30°N, 233 234 75°E - 85°E) (MODIS: 0.24 to 0.8, MISR: 0.24 to 0.5, model: 0.3 to 0.6). The MISR AOD is comparatively less than MODIS AOD over all three study regions (Fig. 2a-b). There are 235 236 differences in the spatial distribution of AOD among MODIS, MISR and the model. Over East Asia, the model overestimates AOD relative to MISR (by 0.24) and MODIS (by 0.1). 237 Over Indochina, the model shows an underestimation compared to MISR (by 0.1) and 238 MODIS (by 0.2). The simulated AOD is over-estimated over the Indo-Gangetic plain in 239 comparison with MISR (by 0.08) and underestimated compared to MODIS (0.2). The 240 simulated AOD is underestimated south of 13°N compared to MISR and MODIS (MODIS: 241 0.4 to 0.7, MISR:0.4 to 0.6, model: 0.21 to 0.3) and overestimated over central India (lat: 20° 242 - 28°N lon: 75°E - 88°E) compared to MODIS and MISR (MODIS:0.16 to 0.4, MISR:0.21 to 243 0.3, model: 0.3 to 0.5). These issues may be due to a higher amount of dust emission in the 244 model over West Asia that is transported to India. In the past, a number of papers reported 245 that transport of dust occurs from west Asia to the Indo-Gangetic plain and the Tibetan 246 247 Plateau region during spring (Lau and Kim 2006; Fadnavis et al., 2017b, Fadnavis et al., 2021a). Simulated AOD is also overestimated over the Tibetan Plateau and East Asian region 248 (MODIS: 0.21 to 1.0, MISR: 0.16 to 0.6, model: 0.27 to 1.2). The distribution of dust AOD 249 also shows high amounts over these regions (See Fig. S1). This indicates that higher amounts 250 of dust over the Tibetan Plateau and the East Asia region cause overestimation of AOD there. 251 Tegen et al. (2019) also reported that in ECHAM6-HAMMOZ simulations the AOD is 252

overestimated over East Asia in comparison with MISR. The model simulations
underestimate the AOD over the Himalayas in comparison with MODIS (MODIS: 0.24 to
0.3, MISR: 0.1 to 0.21, model: 0.1 to 0.3). It should be noted that dust
emission/parameterization is the same in both BMaeroon and BMaerooff simulations.

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Further, we compare simulated AOD with ground-based measurements at ten AERONET stations during spring 2013 (Figure 2d). Model results were sampled at each station at the same time. Comparison with AERONET observations also shows that the model underestimates AOD over all the stations. The simulated AOD (0.54) shows the highest underestimation at Nghia Do (21.04°N - 105.80°E) in East Asia and the lowest underestimation at Gandhi college (25.81°N - 85.12°E) in the Indo-Gangetic plain, where the simulated 550 nm AOD is 0.57.

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The differences in the magnitude of AOD between model, satellite remote sensing (MISR, MODIS), and ground-based AERONET observations may be caused by various factors; e.g., satellite remote sensing of AOD exhibits biases over certain surface types. The differences between MISR and MODIS may be due to differences in their calibration, algorithm assumptions, or the aerosol models in the lookup tables used in the retrieval algorithms (Addou et al., 2005; Choi et al., 2019). There are uncertainties in the model emission inventories (Fadnavis et al., 2013, 2017, 2019).

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The vertical distribution of simulated aerosol extinction coefficient profiles (BMaeroon) averaged over the BB burning region (10°N - 30°N) are compared with OSIRIS observations in spring 2013 (Fig. 2e-f). Our model could simulate vertical variations similar to those observed by OSIRIS. A plume rising from 90°E - 120°E extends to 16 km is also

evident in the OSIRIS data although the model underestimates the aerosol extinction coefficient by 0.0002 - 0.0003 km⁻¹. The sign of the difference is consistent with the slightly shorter wavelength of the OSIRIS extinction measurements. This underestimation may also be due to uncertainties in the model due to emission inventory and transport processes in the model. It should be noted that there may be biases in OSIRIS measurements due to assumptions made on the aerosol size distribution and chemical composition (Bourassa et al., 2012).

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286 **4. Results**

287 4.1 Impact of biomass burning on Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD)

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Figure 3 (a) shows the distribution of anomalies in simulated AOD (BMaeroon-289 BMaerooff). It shows enhanced AOD anomalies over the Indo-Gangetic plain (~0.22 to 0.8), 290 the Tibetan Plateau and the north eastern parts of East Asia (~0.3 to 1.2). The distribution of 291 anomalies in dust AOD shows high amounts over these regions. It indicates that dust 292 enhancement over the Indo-Gangetic plain (~0.22 to 0.8), the Tibetan Plateau and the 293 northeastern parts of East Asia (0.8 to 1) (Fig. 3b) causes enhancement in AOD there. The 294 simulated dust anomalies and circulation patterns also show transport of enhanced dust from 295 West Asia to North India and the Indo-Gangetic plain region in the lower troposphere (Fig. 3b 296 297 and Fig. S2a). Dust is also transported from Tibetan Plateau-East Asia region to North India in the mid/upper troposphere (Fig. S2b). The enhanced dust transport from west Asia and 298 Tibetan Plateau-East Asia region to South Asia is induced by atmospheric heating generated 299 300 by biomass burning carbonaceous aerosols (discussed in section 4.4). This atmospheric heating leads to enhanced dust emission over the respective desert regions. Dust being 301 absorptive in nature contributes to a further increase of the atmospheric heating. The heating 302

led to a formation of a low pressure zone over East India in the lower troposphere (900 hPa)
(Fig. 3b) and the Bay of Bengal and Myanmar in the mid-troposphere (500 hPa) (Fig. S2b
and Fig. 7b). These circulation changes further enhanced the dust transport from west Asia
and the Tibetan Plateau-East Asia region to South Asia.

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308 Figure 3c shows the spatial distribution of the AOD for carbonaceous aerosols 309 (BC+OC). The changes in concentration of total column carbonaceous aerosols are shown in Fig. S3a. Figures 3c and S3a show increases in aerosols over Indochina (AOD: +0.04-0.07, 310 311 concentration: +40-80%), Indo-Gangetic plain (AOD: +0.014-0.03, concentration: +10-50%) and East Asia (AOD: +0.018-0.04, concentration: +20-60%). It is evident that anomalies of 312 carbonaceous aerosols AOD over the Indo-Gangetic plain and East Asia are comparatively 313 lower than over the Indochina region. In agreement with our results, Wang et al. (2015) also 314 reported an abundant mixture of BC and OC particles due to BB over the Indochina region in 315 spring 2014. Our model simulations show that the contribution of BB-emitted OC to AOD 316 (Indochina 16 to 35 %; East Asia: 4 to 12 %; South Asia: 0.8 to 4 %) is higher than that of 317 BB-emitted BC (Indochina: 1.8 to 6 %; East Asia: 0.8 to 1.4 %; South Asia: 0.2 to 0.8 %) 318 (Fig. S3b-c). Figure 3c also shows high amounts of carbonaceous aerosols over the western 319 320 Pacific, which may be due to transport from the Indochina region by westerly winds (discussed later in subsection 4.3). 321

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323 4.2. Impact of BB carbonaceous aerosol on radiative forcing

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The carbonaceous aerosols emitted from biomass burning may significantly change radiative forcing by absorption and attenuation of solar and terrestrial radiation (Schill et al., 2020). The anomalies (averaged for spring) in net radiative forcing show negative radiative

forcing at the surface and top of the atmosphere (TOA) over South Asia (surface: -5.08±0.44 328 W m⁻²; TOA: -4.39±0.26 W m⁻²), Indochina region (surface:-7.68±0.45 W m⁻²; TOA: -329 2.38±0.12 W m⁻²) and East Asia (surface:-10.81±0.63 W m⁻²; TOA: -7.08±0.74 W m⁻²) (Fig. 330 4). The estimates of in-atmosphere radiative forcing show positive anomalies over south Asia 331 (0.68±0.25 W m⁻²), Indochina region (5.30±0.37 W m⁻²), and East Asia (3.73±0.20 W m⁻²), 332 indicating an atmospheric warming. In agreement with our study, a number of studies showed 333 a negative radiative impact at the TOA and surface, but positive in-atmosphere radiative 334 forcing due to BC and OC aerosols over the Indochina region. For example, Lin et al. (2014) 335 reported a radiative forcing of -4.74 W m⁻² at the TOA, -26.85 W m⁻² at the surface, thus 336 +22.11 W m⁻² in-atmosphere. Wang et al. (2007) estimated a radiative forcing of -1.4 to -1.9 337 W m⁻² at the TOA and -4.5 to -6 W m⁻² at the surface, yielding +2.6 W m⁻² in-atmosphere 338 during March 2001. Singh et al. (2020) also reported a radiative forcing at the TOA of -1.91 339 W m⁻² and -42.76 W m⁻² at the surface and 40.85 W m⁻² in-atmosphere over Myanmar. 340

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342 4.3. Transport of biomass burning aerosol into the upper troposphere and lower 343 stratosphere

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The stepwise evolution of the Asian summer monsoon begins in spring and contributes a 345 significant amount of rainfall to the total annual precipitation over China (25–40%) and over 346 347 South Asia (~11-20%) due to deep convection over the Bay of Bengal, Tibetan Plateau and South China Sea (Guhathakurta and Rajeevan, 2008; Li et al., 2016). The distribution of 348 outgoing long-wave radiation (OLR) from NCEP reanalysis data during the spring season 349 confirms that deep convection occurs over the maritime continent that extends to the South 350 China Sea, Bay of Bengal, Malay Peninsula and Indonesia (Fig. 5a). Our model simulation 351 shows a distribution of OLR similar to the observations, although OLR is overestimated in 352

the model (Fig. 5b). Figure 5(c)-(d) shows the combined distribution of Cloud Droplet Number Concentration (CDNC), Ice Crystal Number Concentration (ICNC), and vectors of the resolved circulation, which exhibit a strong upwelling in equatorial Asia (10°N - 20°N, 85°E - 140°E, Fig. 5c-d). This upwelling associated with deep convection may transport pollutants from the boundary layer into the UTLS.

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359 We analyzed the vertical distribution of simulated anomalies (BMaeroon -BMaerooff) of BB carbonaceous aerosols obtained over the high fire emission regions, i.e., 360 361 Indochina, South Asia, and East Asia in spring 2013 (Fig. 1b). The simulated distribution of BC aerosols (Fig. 6 a-b) and OC aerosols (Fig. 6c-d) over the Indochina region indicates an 362 aerosol plume extending to the lowermost stratosphere. The ascent resolved in the wind 363 vectors together with the distribution of cloud droplets and cloud ice indicate that the 364 365 transport of these aerosols from the surface to the lowermost stratosphere occurs due to deep convection over the Malay peninsula and Indonesia (Fig. 5a-b). There is an enhancement of 366 BC aerosol concentration by $0.1 - 2 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ (Fig. 6 a-b) and for OC by $0.2 - 5 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ (Fig. 6 367 c-d) in the UTLS (300 - 90 hPa) over the Indochina region. 368

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In the troposphere, biomass-burning carbonaceous aerosols are transported to the Arctic (Fig. 6a and Fig. 6c). Some previous studies also show aerosol transport from South Asia and East Asia to the Arctic (Shindell et al., 2008; Fisher et al., 2011). The carbonaceous aerosols are also transported towards the Western Pacific (Fig. 6 b-d and 6 f-h). In the Pacific (140°E - 170°W), these aerosols are lifted to the UTLS. Transport of the aerosols from the Indochina region to the Western Pacific has also been reported in the past (Dong and Fu, 2015).

Further, we show the distribution of BB carbonaceous aerosol over East Asia in 378 Figure 6 e-h. It shows that the plume of BC and OC aerosol crosses the tropopause (BC: 0.2-379 6 ng m⁻³ and OC: 0.2 to 10 ng m⁻³). Figures 6e and 6g also show that the aerosol plume from 380 the equatorial region is lifted to the UTLS associated with the Indonesian region (130°E -381 170°E). Similar to the Indochina region, BC and OC aerosols also show poleward transport 382 to the Arctic and horizontal transport towards the Western Pacific (Figures 6f and 6h). These 383 384 aerosols are vertically transported in the western Pacific region (130°E - 170°E). The distribution of anomalies of BC and OC near the tropopause (at 100 hPa) shows outflow of 385 386 Asian carbonaceous aerosols in the UTLS over equatorial Asia and Western Pacific (5°S-20°N, 70°E - 180°E) (Fig. S4). 387

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BB in South Asia occurs in central India (70°E - 90°E, 8°N -24°N) in spring (Fig. 1 b 389 and Singh et al., 2017). BC and OC emissions over South Asia during the spring season are 390 reported in many studies (Talukdar et al., 2015; Guha et al., 2015). The vertical distribution 391 of anomalies of BC and OC over south Asia shows that positive anomalies of BC and OC 392 aerosols extend from the surface to the upper troposphere (300 hPa) (Fig. S5). CALIPSO 393 derived aerosol profiles in spring 2013 also show plumes reaching up to approximately 7 km 394 (400 hPa) (Singh et al., 2020). Unlike the Indochina region, BB carbonaceous aerosols over 395 Indo-Gangetic plain do not reach the lowermost stratosphere during the spring season. 396 397 Hence, hereafter we focus our discussion on the transport of BB carbonaceous aerosols and their impacts on the UTLS for Indochina and East Asia. 398

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Further, we analyze the aerosol enhancement over the Arctic $(65^{\circ}N - 85^{\circ}N)$ due to the transport of Asian biomass burning BC and OC aerosols. The vertical distribution of anomalies of aerosol extinction shows an enhancement of 0-0.0093 km⁻¹ in the Arctic (1000 -

100hPa) with a peak at 400 hPa (Fig. 7a). Shindell et al. (2008) also showed seasonally
varying transport of South Asian aerosols to the Arctic that maximizes in the spring season.

406 4.4 Impact of BB carbonaceous aerosol on heating rates

407

Carbonaceous aerosols in the atmosphere produce significant heating leading to 408 409 atmospheric warming (Fadnavis et al., 2017b). We obtained anomalies in heating rates (shortwave + longwave) due to carbonaceous aerosols (BMaeroon - BMaerooff). Figure 7b 410 411 shows the spatial distribution of anomalies in tropospheric heating rates (averaged from surface to tropopause). It shows that carbonaceous aerosols have induced significant 412 tropospheric heating over the location of dense fires; Indo-China/East Asia (0.02 to 0.12 413 K.day⁻¹). Significant heating is seen namely over the Mongolian desert (0.08 - 0.12 K.day⁻¹). 414 The desert region of west Asia (Pakistan, Afghanistan, Turkistan, Kazakhstan) also shows 415 slight heating (0.02 - 0.04 K.day⁻¹). The heating over the desert regions is associated with 416 enhanced emission of dust, a positive feedback to atmospheric heating induced by the 417 carbonaceous aerosols (section 4.1). Heating is higher over the Mongolian desert than over 418 west Asia due to the vicinity of Mongolia to the location of dense fires. 419

420

Further we show the vertical distribution of heating rates over the Indochina region and East Asia in Figures 8a-d. It shows that enhanced BB carbonaceous aerosols have induced enhanced heating of the atmospheric column along the pathway through which they are transported (Fig. 6a-h). The carbonaceous aerosol emissions over the Indochina region and East Asia produced anomalous heating of ~0.1 to 0.04 K day⁻¹ in the lower troposphere (1000 hPa to 400 hPa) and ~0.008 to 0.001 K day⁻¹ near the tropopause (200 hPa to 80 hPa). Figure 6 a, c, e, g shows that descending winds transport BC and OC aerosols from above the

tropopause downward and southward to 20°S. The positive anomalies in heating rates of 428 ~0.001 to 0.004 K day⁻¹ in the upper troposphere at ~200 hPa near 20°S may be due to 429 heating by these aerosols. There may be dynamic changes in response to BB carbonaceous 430 aerosol emission. The transported Asian carbonaceous aerosols and associated dynamical 431 changes in the Arctic enhanced heating rates by 0 - 0.032 K day⁻¹ between 1000 - 100 hPa 432 (Fig. 7a). Also, transport of carbonaceous aerosol to the western Pacific (Fig. 6 b, d, f, h) by 433 the westerly winds has increased heating by 0.008 to 0.04 K day⁻¹ and peaks at 250 hPa (0.04 434 K day⁻¹) over the Central Pacific (170°W - 110°W). 435

436

Figure 8 (a-d) shows positive anomalies in heating rates at the tropopause. Heating in the upper troposphere enhances the vertical motion that may enhance the transport into the lower stratosphere (Gettelman et al., 2004). Carbonaceous aerosols cross the tropopause (0.1 to 5 ng m⁻³) and enter the lowermost stratosphere (18°N - 24°N) (Figs. 6 a-h). The cross tropopause transport is reinforced by enhanced vertical motion (Fig. S6a-b) produced by the heating generated by the carbonaceous aerosols.

443

444 4.5 Impact of BB carbonaceous aerosol on water vapor

445

The heating produced by the biomass burning carbonaceous aerosols may affect the distribution of water vapor in the troposphere and stratosphere. Figure 9a-b shows anomalies in water vapor (BMaeroon - BMaerooff) over Indochina and East Asia. An interesting feature seen in Fig. 9a-b is the enhanced transport of water vapor (an anomaly of 0.02 - 0.5 ppmv) to the South Pole through the lower stratosphere from Indochina (91°E - 107°E, 10°N - 27°N) and East Asia (108°E - 123°E, 20°N - 35°N). The tropospheric heating might have caused elevated water vapor injection into the lower-stratosphere. The water vapour in the lower 453 stratosphere is further transported to the South Pole by the lower branch of the Brewer454 Dobson circulation. The water vapour reaches the Antarctic within a month indicating fast
455 transport.

456

The model simulations show noticeable enhancement of water vapor (0.4 to 1.6 457 ppmv) in the northern tropics near the tropopause (150 hPa) and by 0.2 - 0.7 ppmv in the 458 459 Arctic lower stratosphere (150 hPa) (Fig. 9c). In the tropical lower stratosphere, it is increased by 0.02 - 0.3 ppmv (Fig. 9d). Water vapor, being a greenhouse gas, amplifies global 460 461 warming leading to positive feedback (e.g., Riese et al., 2012; Sherwood et al., 2018, Fadnavis et al., 2021b). The strong negative anomalies of OLR (Fig. S6c) induced by 462 carbonaceous aerosols also indicate the positive feedback. Fadnavis et al. (2013) also 463 reported an increase in water vapor in the UTLS in response to the enhancement of aerosols. 464 465 Stratospheric water vapor plays a significant role in climate change (e.g., Oman et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2020; Xie et al., 2020). 466

467

468 5. Conclusions

469

A ten-member ensemble of ECHAM6.3–HAM2.3 simulations for the spring season 2013, a neutral year, is analyzed to study the transport of carbonaceous aerosol injected by Asian biomass burning into the UTLS and its associated impacts on radiative forcing, heating rates, and water vapor. To validate the model simulations, we compare simulations with observations from (1) MODIS, (2) MISR, (3) AERONET, (4) OSIRIS during spring 2013. The observational analysis shows reasonable agreement with the model simulations.

476

The BB emission increases the aerosol burden (AOD) over the Indochina region by 477 0.14 to 0.22 (carbonaceous aerosol concentration increase of +40-80%), India by 0.22 to 0.38 478 (concentration of carbonaceous aerosol: +10-50%), and East Asia by 0.18 to 0.26 479 (concentration of carbonaceous aerosol: +20-60%).Our analysis shows that deep convection, 480 which occurs over the Malay peninsula and Indonesia, transports carbonaceous aerosols 481 from the boundary layer of the Indochina and East Asia region into the lowermost 482 stratosphere (BC: 0.1 to 6 ng m⁻³ for BC, OC: 0.2 to 10 ng m⁻³). In the UTLS, outflow occurs 483 over equatorial Asia and the Western Pacific (10°S - 20°N, 70°E - 180°E). Carbonaceous 484 485 aerosols originating from Asian biomass burning are also transported to the Arctic. The maximum enhancement in aerosol extinction (by 0.0093 km⁻¹) is seen at 400 hPa over the 486 Arctic. 487

488

The enhanced carbonaceous BC and OC aerosol emitted from BB produces a negative net radiative forcing at the surface (India: -5.08 ± 0.44 W m⁻², Indochina: -7.68 ± 0.45 W m⁻², and East Asia: -10.81 ± 0.63 W m⁻²), at the TOA (India: -4.39 ± 0.26 W m⁻², Indochina: -2.38±0.12 W m⁻², and East Asia: -7.08 ± 0.74 W m⁻²) and positive net radiative forcing in the atmosphere (India: 0.68 ± 0.25 W m⁻², Indochina: 5.30 ± 0.37 W m⁻², and East Asia: 3.73 ± 0.20 W m⁻²) indicating atmospheric warming, but a cooling of the climate at the surface.

495

The changes in BB carbonaceous aerosol induce a warming in the troposphere (0.008 - 0.1 K day⁻¹) and in the UTLS (~0.001 to 0.008 K day⁻¹) over Asia. The aerosols transported to the Arctic enhance heating by 0 - 0.032 K day⁻¹, peaking at 300 hPa. The outflow of the aerosols in the UTLS over the western Pacific by the westerly winds has increased heating by 0.008 to 0.04 K day⁻¹. The atmospheric heating induced by Asian BB carbonaceous aerosols led to the transport of water vapor into the lower stratosphere (0.02 - 0.3 ppmv) over the tropics. In the lower stratosphere, water vapour is transported to the South Pole by the lower branch of the Brewer-Dobson circulation. Water vapor, being a greenhouse gas, amplifies atmospheric heating, leading to positive feedback (e.g., Riese et al., 2012; Sherwood et al., 2018). Our model simulations also show a positive feedback of dust aerosol on atmospheric heating induced by the enhancement of carbonaceous aerosols.

507

Furthermore, our analysis shows that Asian biomass burning carbonaceous aerosols lead to moistening of the troposphere in the northern hemisphere and lowermost stratosphere in the northern tropics and southern hemisphere. An increase in stratospheric water vapour is important as it has an impact on stratospheric temperatures and thus indirectly on stratospheric dynamics (Maycock et al., 2013). The moistening of the stratosphere produces a positive feedback on the climate (Banerjee et al., 2019; Dessler et al., 2013). *Acknowledgments*: The authors thank the staff of the High Power Computing Centre (HPC) in
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519

520 **Data availability:** The MODIS fire count data were downloaded from 521 <u>https://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/download</u>. The AOD data from MODIS Terra can be 522 downloaded from https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/archive/allData/61/MODATML2/

523 The AOD data from MISR were obtained from

524 https://misr.jpl.nasa.gov/getData/accessData/. The AERONET data were obtained from

525 https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/. Data of NCEP reanalysis-2 outgoing longwave radiation

526 (OLR) were obtained from

527 https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis2.pressure.html. The OSIRIS aerosol

528 extinction coefficient can be downloaded from https://research-groups.usask.ca/osiris/data-

529 products.php#Download

530 Author contributions: S. F. initiated the idea. P. C. and T. C. performed model analysis. R

531 M., S.G and C.E.S. contributed analysis and study design. C. E. S.and S.G. analyzed OSIRIS

532 data. All authors contributed to the writing and discussions of the manuscript.

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Figure 1: (a) Monthly mean distribution of MODIS fire counts averaged over Indochina
(91°E - 107°E, 10°N - 27°N), East Asia (108°E - 123°E, 22°N - 32°N), South Asia (70°E 90°E, 8°N - 32°N) and Asia (60°E - 130°E, 10°S - 50°N) (b) Spatial distribution of fire spots
over South Asia, Indochina and East Asia averaged for spring 2013. Boxes in Figure (b)
indicate the boundaries of South Asia, Indochina, and East Asia.



Figure 2: (a) Aerosol optical depth (AOD) averaged for spring 2013 from MODIS, (b) same 839 as (a) but from MISR, (c) same as (a) but from ECHAM6 - HAMMOZ BMaeroon 840 simulation. White contours in Fig (a)-(c) indicate the orography (km) of the Tibetan Plateau, 841 (d) Comparison of simulated AOD (from BMaeroon) averaged for spring 2013 with 842 AERONET observations at Gandhi college (GC; 25.81°N - 85.12°E), Kathmandu Bode (BD; 843 844 27.68°N - 85.39°E), Lumbini (LU; 27.49°N - 83.28°E), Dhaka University (DU; 23.72°N -90.39°E), Myanmar(MY; 16.86°N-96.15°E), Nghia Do (ND; 21.04°N - 105.80°E), Silpakorn 845 University (SU; 13.81°N - 100.04°E), Ubon Ratchathani (UR; 15.24°N - 104.87°E), 846 Vientiane (VI; 17.99°N - 102.57°E), Hong Kong Poly (HKP; 22.30°N - 114.18°E). (e) 847 Simulated (BMaeroon) aerosol extinction coefficient (865 nm) (km⁻¹), averaged for 12°N -848 30°N and spring 2013 (f) same as (e) but from OSIRIS measurements (750 nm). 849







Figure 4: Anomalies of radiative forcing (W.m⁻²) from ECHAM6-HAMMOZ simulations

886 (BMaeroon - BMaerooff) at the TOA, surface, and in-atmosphere (TOA - Surface) averaged

for spring 2013 and over South Asia, Indochina, and East Asia.

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Figure 5: (a) Distribution of Outgoing Longwave Radiation (OLR) (W m⁻²) from NCEP 907 reanalysis-2 data averaged for spring 2013, (b) same as (a) but from the ECHAM6-908 HAMMOZ simulations (BMaeroon). Vertical distribution of cloud droplet number 909 concentration (CDNC) and ice crystal number concentration (ICNC) (1 mg⁻¹) averaged for 910 spring 2013 from ECHAM6-HAMMOZ simulations (BMaeroon) (c) latitude-pressure section 911 (average for $85^{0}E-140^{0}E$) and (d) longitude-pressure section (average for $10^{\circ}N - 20^{\circ}N$). 912 913 Vectors of the circulation (BMaeroon) are shown in (c)-(d) with the vertical velocity field scaled by 300. 914

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Figure 6: Vertical cross-section of anomalies of BC (ng m⁻³) (BMaeroon – Bmaerooff)
averaged for spring 2013 (a) latitude-pressure section (averaged for 91°E-107°E), (b)
longitude-pressure section (averaged for 18°N-24°N). (c-d) is the same as (a-b) but for OC.
(e) same as (a) but averaged over 108°E-123°E, (f) same as (b) but averaged for 18°N-24°N.
(g-h) same as in (e-f) but for OC. The arrows in (a-h) indicate winds in m s⁻¹ with the vertical
velocity field scaled by 300. The black vertical bars show the topography and the black line
indicates the tropopause.

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Figure 7: (a) Vertical profile of anomalies of extinction (km⁻¹) and heating rate (K day⁻¹) over the Arctic region (65°N-85°N) from the ECHAM6-HAMMOZ simulations (BMaeroon -BMaerooff). The horizontal lines indicate the standard deviation within the 10 members of the different initial conditions, (b) spatial distribution of anomalies of heating rates (K.day⁻¹) (short and long wave together) averaged from the surface to the tropopause. Streamlines in (b) indicate wind anomalies at 500 hPa (BMaeroon- BMaerooff).



Figure 8: Vertical section of heating rate anomalies (K day⁻¹) for spring season 2013 from
ECHAM6-HAMMOZ simulations (BMaeroon - BMaerooff) (a) latitude-pressure section
averaged for 91°E-107°E, (b) longitude-pressure section averaged for 18°N-24°N. (c) same as
(a) but averaged for 108°E-123°E. (d) same as (b) but averaged for 22°N-27°N. The black
vertical bars show the topography and the black line indicates the tropopause.



Figure 9: Vertical and horizontal distribution of anomalies of water vapour (ppmv) for spring 2013 from the ECHAM6-HAMMOZ simulations (BMaeroon - BMaerooff) (a) latitudepressure cross-section averaged for 91°E-107°E, (b) longitude-pressure cross-section averaged over 108°E-123°E, at (c) 150 hPa level, and (d) 70 hPa level. In Fig (a)-(b) the black vertical bars show the topography and the black line indicates the tropopause.

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