Measurement report: <u>Contrasting elevation-dependent</u> <u>changes in light absorption of black and brown carbon:</u> <u>lessons from The first in-situ PM₁-chemical</u> measurements <u>at the steep slope</u> from highly polluted Sichuan Basin to pristine Tibetan Plateau: light absorption of carbonaceous aerosols, and source and origin impacts

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Abstract. Tibetan Plateau (TP, hereafter), known as "Third Pole", is surrounded by the highly pollutedregions, such as Indo Gangetic Plain, Taklimakan and Gobi Deserts and Sichuan Basin. However, the previous *in situ* aerosol measurements mainly focused on the southern and northern slopes, while lessobservations and studies were conducted at the eastern slope of the TP (ESTP). The scientific

25 knowledge on optical properties-light absorption of aerosols is extremely limited over the ESTP_at the eastern slope of the Tibetan Plateau (ESTP), and *in situ* observations at varying altitudes from theheavily polluted regions to the relatively clean Plateau were important for better understanding the light absorption and radiative forcing over the TP. Sichuan Basin (SCB), a highly polluted region due tomore rapid economic development, is located in the east side of TP. Therefore, wWe conducted the first aerosol field experiment at six sites (Chengdu, Sanbacun, Wenchuan, Lixian, Maerkang, Hongyuan) along eastern slope of the TPthe ESTP extending elevation from 500 m to 3500 m. Light absorbingaerosols are considered to be a key climate driver, and their role may be underestimated in the highaltitude regions. The light absorption of brown carbon (BrC) accounting for that of total carbon

- 5 increases from 20% to 50% with altitude, and the mass absorption efficiency (MAE) of BrC over the TP is 2–3 times higher than that inside the SiChuan Basin (SCB), especially in winter, which is mainly related to high ratio of secondary to primary organic carbon due to stronger secondary formation and less primary emissions at high altitudes. Contrary to BrC aerosols, winter EC (elemental carbon) mass absorption efficiency declines with altitude in winter, induced by source difference between the TP-
- 10 and SCB.-The contrasting variation of EC and BrC MAE with altitude is mainly attributed to source difference between the TP and SCB. The more urban sources (motor vehicles, industries, etc.) inside the SCB fail to be transported to the TP due to <u>winter</u> stable air inside the basin in winter, which also is favorable for aerosol aging to enhance absorption efficiency. The radiative forcing of BrC relative to EC varies from 0.10 to 0.42 as altitude increases with the higher OC/EC ratio over the TP than SCB,
- 15 and thus the enhanced radiative forcing of BrC relative to EC from polluted SCB to pristine TP is because the concentration of OC decreases more slowly with altitude than does EC. South Asia, a highly particulate matter (PM) pollution region, is an important origin of aerosol particles at the regionfrom western Sichuan Basin to eastern Tibetan Plateau, which is significantly dependent on seasons. This study will deepen the understanding of EC or BrC light absorption difference between the highly
- 20 polluted basins and clean TP and provide a basic data set for optimization of regional climate modeling.

1 Introduction

Some *in-situ* observations, available satellite data and model simulations indicate<u>d</u> that greater surface warming trend over time occurs at higher altitudes for the mountainous regions all over the world (Gao et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2019; Mountain Research Initiative EDW Working Group, 2015; Palazzi et al.,

- 5 2017; Pepin et al., 2019; Rangwala and Miller, 2012; You et al., 2020). Rangwala and Miller (2012) reviewed elevation-dependent warming (EDW) and its possible causes over four high mountain regions, i.e., the Swiss Alps, the Colorado Rocky Mountains, the Tibetan Plateau and the Tropical Andes. Their examinations found that the available observations indicate that some mountain regions show much greater warming rates at seasonal scales. The mechanisms that can produce enhanced
- 10 warming rates at higher altitudes may be related to differential sensitivities of surface warming to changes in the climate drivers at different elevations, such as snow-ice cover, clouds, atmospheric water vapor, aerosols, land use, and vegetation (Rangwala and Miller, 2012; You et al., 2020).

Tibetan Plateau (TP, hereafter), known as "Third-third Polepole" and "the roof of the world", is an ideal place to examine EDW and its mechanism (Guo et al., 2021). The warming rates (rising temperature per 10 years) over TP were are found to be the most notable in winter and autumn (Liu and Chen, 2000), especially for the central and eastern Plateau (Duan and Wu, 2006), which may be partly associated with human activities, such as more anthropogenic emissions in at the sub-regions (Lu et al., 2010). The effect of carbonaceous aerosols on regional and even global climate is more uncertain due

- 20 <u>to short life than the long-lived ones, such as carbon dioxide and methane (Chung et al., 2012;</u> <u>Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008).</u> The absorbing aerosols (black carbon and dust) from local emissions or long-range transport heat the atmosphere in two ways (Tian et al., 2018). They absorb radiation and decrease the surface albedo when deposited on snow and ice (Kang et al., 2019; Lau et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2009). Ramanathan and Carmichael (2008) suggested that black carbon (BC) in the
- 25 Himalayas arising from anthropogenic activities at Indo-Gangetic Plain could account for half of the local warming during the past several decades. In addition to the well-known BC, the recent work by Wu et al. (2018) suggested that the light absorption efficiency (LAE) of brown carbon (BrC, certain type of organic aerosols) in winter is 2-3 times higher than that in summer for the central Tibetan Plateau. However, the scientific knowledge on optical properties of carbonaceous aerosols (EC, BrC) is

extremely limited over the <u>Eastern-eastern</u> TP, and *in-situ* aerosol observations-measurements at varying altitudes from the heavily polluted <u>regions-basins</u> to the relatively clean <u>Plateau-TP</u> were important for better understanding their light absorption-of over the TP.

- 5 The previous *in-situ* observations-measurements mainly focused on the southern and northern slopes (Cong et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2007; Kang et al., 2020), while less-fewer observations were conducted at the eastern slope of the TP (ESTP). Sichuan-SiChuan Basin (SCB), a highly polluted region in China due to more rapid economic development, is located in-on the east side of TP (Zhao et al., 2018). The BrC LAE was strong inside the basin (Peng et al., 2020a), especially for the rural areas
- 10 due to more biomass and coal burning impacts (Zhao et al., 2021). Our previous works indicated that aerosols from SCB are transported upslope along ESTP and reach eastern part of TP by gradient *in-situ* observations at ESTP (Yin et al., 2020). The recent <u>paper-study</u> by S. Y. Zhao et al. (2020) suggested the strongly light-absorbing BrC from biomass and coal burning inside the basin can be transported to main part of TP by the enhanced "heat pump" <u>due to in response to rapid</u> warming over the TP. The
- 15 aerosols over the TP from local emissions and long-range transport from the surrounding highly polluted areas affected its weather, climate and water cycle (C. F. Zhao et al., 2020). The clouds and radiation are particularly sensitive to aerosols over pristine regions (Garrett and Zhao, 2006; Zhang et al., 2021). However, it is fuzzy that changes in the light absorption and radiative forcing of carbonaceous aerosols change from the highly polluted SCB to the cleaner TP.

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In this work, we investigated the changes in light absorption of carbonaceous aerosols (EC, BrC) and calculated relative radiative forcing of BrC to EC aerosols from SCB to TP in the four seasons. The sources and origins also were determined by some statistical methods and HYSPLIT back trajectory model. Our goals are to understand EC or BrC light absorption difference between the highly polluted basins and clean TP and to reveal the corresponding mechanisms and to provide a basic data set for

optimization of regional climate modeling.

2 Data and methods

2.1 Observation sites and aerosol sampling

30 Compared with the coarser fraction of PM, strong light-absorbing carbonaceous particles are mainly

located in submicron range. Therefore, PM₁ (particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter smaller than 1 μm) samples were collected at six sites (Chengdu, Sanbacun, Wenchuan, Lixian, Maerkang and Hongyuan) from western SCB to east part of TP with varying elevation from 500 m to 3500 m (Figure 1, <u>Table 1</u>). Each sampling site is selected to represent background level at local scale as completely as possible without local emission impacts. The 1024 PM₁ samples in total were collected from December 21, 2018 to December 18, 2019 on a day / night pattern by aerosol sampler (LY-2034, Laoying Instrument Co., Ltd., China) at the flow rate of 100 L min⁻¹. The samples were stored frozen in prebaked glass jars until further analysis (Kawamura et al., 2010). The meteorological variables (temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and direction) were downloaded by China Meteorological Data Service Center (http://data.cma.cn/). <u>PM₁ samples were collected near the meteorological</u> observation sites, and thus the meteorological variables can represent the situation at the study region... The MODIS active fire data (https://earthdata.nasa.gov/active-fire-data) also were used in this study.

2.2 Chemical analysis

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- A quarter of each filter was used to analyze water-soluble inorganic ions (Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, F⁻, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and NO₃⁻), and the ions were extracted and filtered by ultrapure water and a 0.45 μm pore syringe filter. The concentrations of the cations and anions were measured by ion chromatograph (DX-600 & ICS-2500, Dionex, USA). The carbonaceous aerosols, i.e., Organie-organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC), were determined by a seven-wavelength carbon analyzer (DRIModel-2015,
- 20 DRI, USA). The carbon analyzer measured OC and EC concentrations using the thermal/optical reflectance (TOR) method (Chow et al., 2007). Briefly, the OC / EC was determined by progressively heating the sub-filter. The OC fractions were determined by heating at 120 °C (OC1), 250 °C (OC2), 450 °C (OC3) and 550 °C (OC4) in a pure He atmosphere; subsequently, EC fractions were measured at 550 °C (EC1), 700 °C (EC2) and 800 °C (EC3) in an oxidizing atmosphere of 2% O₂ and 98%
- He. The involved carbon is oxidized to CO₂ and then reduced to CH₄ for detection by a flame ionization detector. The pyrolyzed organic carbon (OPC) was monitored when the reflected laser signal returned to its initial value after introducing O₂ to the analysis atmosphere. The OC was defined as the sum of OC1, OC2, OC3, OC4 and OPC while EC was defined as EC1 + EC2 + EC3 OPC. <u>EC and</u> <u>BrC were derived from light absorption coefficient (*b_{abs}*) depending on transmittance attenuation. For
 </u>
- 30 the seven-wavelength carbon analyzer, the filter transmittance (FR_{λ}, fraction of light transmitted

through the filter) uncertainties range from 5% to 18%, with the best precision shown at 450 nm and 808 nm (Chen et al., 2015). The uncertainty is attributed to the quality of the laser and the sensitivity of the photodiode detector for different wavelengths.

5 The coefficient of <u>variation determination (CODCV</u>) in conjunction with correlation coefficients (r) can be used to characterize intra-location variability of chemical species (Zhao et al., 2021). <u>COD-CV</u> is calculated by the below equation:

$$CV_{jk} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{p} \sum_{1}^{p} \left(\frac{x_{ij} - x_{ik}}{x_{ij} + x_{ik}}\right)^{2}} \,. \tag{1}$$

where x_{ij} and x_{ik} are the average concentration for a chemical component *i* and <u>at</u> sites *j* and *k*, and *p* is 10 the number of samples. The <u>COD</u> <u>CV</u> values of zero and approaching one mean no difference and absolute heterogeneity between the two sites for the specific chemical component, respectively. The-<u>COD</u> <u>CV</u> lower than 0.2 is usually considered to represent relatively similarity of spatial pattern (Wang et al., 2018).

15 **2.3 Calculation of light absorption propertiesparameters**

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The BrC light absorption increases sharply as decreased wavelength, and thus it can be separated from EC (Peng et al., 2020a). The light absorption induced by carbonaceous aerosols (sum of EC and BrC) on a quartz filter was estimated by an algorithm of transmittance attenuation (*ATN*):

$$ATN_{\lambda} = \ln\left(\frac{FT_{\lambda,a}}{FT_{\lambda,b}}\right).$$
⁽²⁾

20 where, $FT_{\lambda,a}$ and $FT_{\lambda,b}$ in the right hand represent filter transmittance after and before thermal analysis for the specific wavelength (λ). Referring to the work by Chen et al. (2015), the relation of ATN with absorption optical depth (τ_a) can be given as follows,

$$\tau_{a,\lambda} = a_{\lambda} \times ATN_{\lambda}^{2} + c_{\lambda} \times ATN_{\lambda}$$
(3).

This study used the two coefficients (a_{λ} and c_{λ}) reported by Chen et al. (2015). The light absorption coefficients (b_{abs}) can be calculated with the equation:

$$b_{abs,\lambda} = \tau_{a,\lambda} \times \left(\frac{A}{V}\right). \tag{4}$$

where, *A* and *V* are filter area and sampling volume, respectively. The total b_{abs} can be separated into EC and BrC by a simplified two-component model (Chen et al., 2015):

$$b_{abs,\lambda} = b_{abs,\lambda,EC} + b_{abs,\lambda,BrC} = K_1 \times \lambda^{-AAE_{EC}} + K_2 \times \lambda^{-AAE_{BrC}}$$
(5)

where, K_1 and K_2 are fitting coefficients. AAE_{EC} and AAE_{BrC} represent EC and BrC absorption

- 5 Ångström exponent (AAE), respectively. These are wavelength independent factors They do not change as the wavelength. AAE_{EC} was assumed as 1 (Bond, 2001), and the other three parameters in Eq. (5) were obtained for AAE_{BrC} values between 2 and 8 with the increment of 0.1 by least-square linear regression, and the AAE_{BrC} that led to the overall best fit in terms of R² was selected as the effective BrC AAE. The mass absorption efficiency (MAE) was obtained by the ratio of light absorption
- coefficients (*b_{abs,à,EC}* or *b_{abs,à,BrC}*) to the corresponding EC or OC mass concentrations (Olson et al., 2015). The estimated MAE_{BrC} was much lower than the true value by replacing BrC with OC due to BrC accounting for only a small fraction of OC. The main shortcoming of the separation of total aerosol absorption into EC and BrC (Eq. 5) is lack of considering the mineral dust impacts. According to the recent study of Zhang et al. (2021), mineral dust may be an important species of the atmospheric aerosols over the Tibetan Plateau. However, the study region is located at the eastern slope of TP during our campaign, which is more easily affected by anthropogenic sources from heavy polluted Sichuan Basin than natural sources such as mineral dust (Yin et al., 2020) as compared to the north areas close

to Taklimakan and Gobi Deserts. One main aim of this study is to reveal the gradient distributions of aerosol optical properties from the pollution Sichuan Basin to eastern TP, and thus the impact of the

shortcoming may be negligible less when studying the spatial heterogeneity of aerosol optical properties at relatively small spatial scale. In addition, AAE of EC is assumed as 1, and the aging of EC did not take when separating the total aerosol absorption into EC and BrC (Eq. 5) in our study.

The absorbed light by carbonaceous component can be estimated as follows (Huang et al., 2018):

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$$\frac{I_0 - I}{I_0} (\lambda, EC) = 1 - e^{-\left(MAE_{\lambda 0, EC} \times \left[\frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda}\right]^{AAE_{EC}} \times C_{EC} \times PBLH\right)}$$
(6)
$$\frac{I_0 - I}{I_0} (\lambda, BrC) = 1 - e^{-\left(MAE_{\lambda 0, BrC} \times \left[\frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda}\right]^{AAE_{BrC}} \times C_{OC} \times PBLH\right)}$$
(7)

where, 405 nm is determined as reference wavelength λ_0 , and C_{EC} and C_{OC} represent EC and OC

concentrations, respectively. The planetary boundary layer height (PBLH) was obtained from the HYSPLIT model, and we assumed no vertical gradients within the PBL. <u>The assumption might</u> <u>overestimate the radiative forcing of aerosols</u>, while it has <u>lesssmall</u> effect on <u>T</u>the radiative forcing of BrC relative to EC (*f*), which can be estimated by the below equation (Zhao et al., 2019):

$$f = \frac{\int I_0(\lambda) \left[\frac{I_0 - I}{I_0}(\lambda, BrC) \right] d\lambda}{\int I_0(\lambda) \left[\frac{I_0 - I}{I_0}(\lambda, EC) \right] d\lambda}$$
(8)

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where $I_0(\lambda)$ is wavelength-dependent solar emission flux, which is clear sky Air Mass 1 Global Horizontal solar irradiance (Levinson et al., 2010). The light absorption by BrC at 405 nm and 445 nm is much stronger than that in-at the longer wavelength inside the SCB (Zhao et al., 2021). The 405 nm is the lower limit of detection by the instrument of DRI-2015. Therefore, the fraction (*f*) is obtained by numerical integration of the above formula in-at the wavelength range of 405-980 nm and 405-445 nm for each sample, respectively. The nighttime samples were excluded when calculating the radiative forcing of BrC relative to EC.

The exponential function was selected to fit the relationships between BrC MAE and altitude (AT). The equation is given as follows:

$$MAE_{\lambda BrC} = a_{\lambda} \cdot e^{b \times AT}$$
⁽⁹⁾

where, a_{λ} and *b* are the fitted coefficients, and *AT* is altitude. The EC MAE can be parameterized with altitude by replacing the subscript of *BrC* with *EC* in Eq. (9).

20 2.4 HYSPLIT backward trajectory model

HYbrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model developed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's (NOAA) is a complete system for computing simple air parcel trajectories (Draxler et al., 2009). HYSPLIT continues to be one of the most extensively used atmospheric transport and dispersion models. A common application is a back trajectory analysis to

25 determine the origin of air masses and establish source-receptor relationships. In this study, HYSPLIT model was used to determine potential source regions of air pollutants in the four seasons at the six sites. The 96-h backward trajectories arriving at 500 m above ground level (AGL) and initializing at each hour of day were calculated with 0.25°×0.25° Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) data from

National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP). The gridded back trajectory frequencies were calculated with Openair package of Rplot.

2.5 PMF receptor model

5 EPA PMF receptor model (version: 5.0) is a mathematical approach for quantifying the contribution of sources to samples based on the composition or fingerprints of the sources. A speciated data set can be viewed as a data matrix X of *i* by *j* dimensions, in which *i* number of samples and *j* chemical species were measured, with uncertainties *u*. The goal of PMF model is to solve the chemical mass balance between measured species concentrations and source profiles, as shown in the below Eq. (10), with number of factors *p*, the species profile *f* of each source, and the amount of mass *g* contributed by each

factor to each sample:

$$x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} g_{ik} f_{kj} + e_{ij} \, . \tag{10}$$

where e_{ij} is the residual for each sample/species. In this study, the uncertainties of the chemical species concentrations were estimated by the Eq. (11):

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$$Unc = \sqrt{\left(0.1 \times concentration\right)^2 + \left(0.5 \times MDL\right)^2}$$
, (11)

where MDL is species-specific method detection limit. The water-soluble ions and carbonaceous aerosols in the four seasons at the six sites were used as input variables to run PMF model. The MDL of the species can refer to Cui et al. (2019).

20 3 Results and discussion

3.1 Light absorption of EC and BrC

The effect of carbonaceous acrosols on regional and even global climate is more uncertain due to shortlife than the long lived ones, such as carbon dioxide and methane (Chung et al., 2012; Ramanathan and-Carmichael, 2008). Table-12 shows summarizes seasonally mean OC and EC concentrations, light

25 absorption coefficient and efficiency (b_{abs}, MAE) of EC and BrC at 405 nm and the correspondingmeteorological variables at the six sites during the campaign. The winter mean average winter OC (EC) concentrations ranging ranges from 5.3 (2.2) μg m⁻³ at Maerkang to 18.9 (7.9) μg m⁻³ at Sanbacun, which is about 2–6 times higher than those in the other seasons, which is mainly related to in response to more primary emissions in winter with similar wind speeds (Table-12). The much higher OC/EC ratios at the plateau sites than that at the basin sites suggests that more secondary OC is formed by chemical reactions over the TPTibetan Plateau, which can be supported by the works of Wu et al. (2018). The higher OC/EC ratios with the altitude can also result from stronger EC emissions at lower

<u>altitudes.</u> Combined with the previous studies, the winter OC concentration is found to vary from 15.0 to 20.1 µg m⁻³, while EC is between 4.3 and 4.7 µg m⁻³ at urban areas inside <u>the</u> SCB, which is significantly lower than that at Indo-Gangetic Plain (Table S1). However, OC and EC concentrations at eastern TP are much more abundant than that at western and southern TP sites due to more dense population and industry (Table S1). Briefly, carbonaceous aerosol pollution is much more severe inside the basin than that over <u>the</u> TP, indicating that the large amount of air pollutants is trapped inside the <u>deep</u> basin due to calm and stable air.

Figure 2 compares spectral total and separated b_{abs} from EC and BrC \underline{b}_{abs} in spring and winter at the six sites along the eastern slope of Tibetan PlateauESTP. The measured (green hollow points) and

15 calculated b_{abs} (yellow dash lines) for total carbon (TC, sum of EC and BrC) is comparable, and the difference is within 5%. For Sanbacun, a rural site inside the basin, the b_{abs} is much higher than the other sites, especially for the shorter wavelength due to more BrC emissions from coal and biomass burning for cooking and heating at rural areas inside the SCB (Zhao et al., 2021). The light absorption due to of EC aerosols decreases with altitude primarily because of declined EC concentration decreases 20 (see Table 12). This The phenomenon may be partly due to stable air inside the deep basin (Feng et al., 2020), but that would also apply to BrC in so far as EC and BrC share sources, and vertical mixing is primarily due to fair weather convection rather than deep convective storms (Zhang et al., 2017). However, the light absorption by BrC is does not monotonically changed as altitude due to more complicated sources and origins of BrC. The 405 nm babs at 405 nm of BrC accounting for that of TC 25 increases from 20% for at Chengdu to ~ 50% for at Hongyuan, while the proportion significantly reduces as-with increased wavelength (Figure S1), suggesting that light absorption by of BrC aerosols is much stronger at high altitudes than that at lowlands.

Compared with b_{abs} , MAE can better reflect light absorption efficiency of earbonaceous aerosols. The winter meanaverage -winter EC MAE-MAE_{EC} is 6.0±1.0 m² g⁻¹ among all sites, which is within the

range of $3.9-11.9 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ over the TP and the surrounding basin regions (Tables-12 and S1). Except our result in the rural site, the winter-mean-BrC MAE winter MAE_{BrC} of 0.7–0.8 m² g⁻¹ inside the SCB is about half of that at Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP) probably due to more the differences in BrC emissions, and-PM size distribution and chemical composition difference between SCB and IGP (Choudhary et al., 2018). Figures 3 and S2 show box plots of spectral BrC and EC MAE MAE_{BrC} and MAE_{EC} in the four seasons from the basin to plateau sites extending elevation from 0.5 to 3.5 km. Different from EC, BrC MAE-MAE_{BrC} at 405 nm over the TP is 2–3 times higher than that inside the SCB with strongly elevation-dependent light-absorbing, and the only clear dependence is in winter. Wu et al. (2018) found that winter BrC MAE-MAE_{BrC} is 4.5 m² g⁻¹ for a pristine environment over the TP (Nam Co, 4730 m asl), which is significantly higher than that at Hongyuan (3500 asl) for our study. The winter average winter_OC/EC ratio of 14.1 at Nam Co is largely higher than that at our sampling sites. Therefore, the clearly increased BrC MAE_{BrC} EC MAE decreases with altitude in winter may be possibly due to the difference in source composition and aging aerosols inside the deep basin (Liu et al., 2020). The

15 mechanism will be discussed in the following sections.

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Figure 4 shows MAE_{BrC} and MAE_{EC} variations as altitude in spring and winter during the campaign. The relationships between average MAE and altitude of the measurement sites were fitted by exponential function, and coefficients of determination (R^2) were given in the figure. R^2 reflects the strength of the relationships between two parameters. The contrasting MAE variations as altitude between BrC and EC in winter (R^2 of 0.89 for MAE_{BrC} and 0.86 for MAE_{EC}) are is more significant than those in spring (R^2 of 0.45 for MAE_{BrC} and 0.06 for MAE_{EC}). The better relationships in winter may be because more urban and aged sources aerosols are trapped inside the deep basin in response to strong winter temperature inversion in winter (Feng et al., 2020). The relation of MAE_{BrC} or MAE_{EC} at 405 nm with altitude can be parameterized with exponential function (Eq. 9). The spring and winter MAE_{BrC} can be parameterized with altitude (*AT*) as follows:

$$MAE_{405,BrC,spr} = 1.33 \cdot e^{0.18 \cdot AT}$$
(12)

$$MAE_{405,BrC,win} = 0.82 \cdot e^{0.33 \cdot AT}$$
(13).

Similarly, the winter MAE_{EC} can be parameterized by altitude (AT) as follows:

 $MAE_{405,EC,win} = 11.35 \cdot e^{-0.18 \cdot AT}$

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3.2 Sources impacting on light absorption of EC and BrC

Besides primary sources, secondary formation largely <u>contributed contributes</u> to OC aerosols, and thus secondary organic carbon (SOC) was <u>considered calculated</u> with EC-tracer method (Turpin and Lim, 2001). To better understand light absorption of <u>primary and secondary OC from primary emissions and</u> secondary formation, Figures S4 and 5 show sample-to-sample and <u>mean average MAE_{BrC} variations as</u> SOC and POC concentrations for each site in spring and winter during the campaign, respectively. The light absorption efficiency of BrC significantly declines as the increased OC composition with the better relationships for POC at each site (Figure S4). The <u>mean average</u> winter MAE_{BrC} decreased by about 70% as POC increases from 3.0 µg m⁻³ at Hongyuan to higher than 20 µg m⁻³ at Chengdu (Figure

5). SOC accounting for OC significantly increases from western SCB to eastern TP, and it is more <u>higher</u> than 50% at Maerkang and Hongyuan due to relatively <u>less-fewer</u> primary sources over <u>the</u> TP.
 The large <u>winter</u> MAE_{BrC} increment as SOC/POC ratio <u>in winter</u> indicates that the more SOC and the
 <u>less-fewer</u> POC <u>was-are</u> favorable for BrC light absorption enhancement (Figure 5). Therefore, the
 strong elevation-dependent MAE_{BrC} in winter (Figure 4) may be induced by SOC/POC ratio variations

from the western SCB to eastern TP.

The EC light absorption efficiency largely <u>reduced reduces</u> as EC concentrations increase <u>for at</u> each site in spring and winter during the campaign (Figure S5). However, the <u>winter mean average winter</u>

- 10 the western SCB to eastern TPat the lowlands than over TP. The increase of d in different degrees-MAE_{EC} as the ratios of water soluble ions (K⁺, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and NO₃⁻) to EC concentrations on different levels suggests that EC light absorption is certainly impacted by many anthropogenic sources at the six sites (Figure S6). A specific inorganic component can be considered as the indicator of the specific emission sources. K⁺ and Cl⁻ ions are usually used for characterizing biomass burning (BB) and coal
- 15 combustion (CC), respectively (Tao et al., 2016). NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ can reflect motor vehicle and industry source impacts, respectively. Therefore, Tto further find key sources impacting MAE_{EC} EC-MAE, we check the spring and winter mean MAE_{EC} variations as the concentrations of K⁺, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ ions chemical species from anthropogenic sources at the six sites (Figure 6). Compared with the spring MAE_{EC} value-in spring, the winter MAE_{EC} is the lower due to high EC concentrations and
- more sensitive to the chemical species from anthropogenic emissions. Furthermore, NO₃⁻ difference among the sites (Figure 6a) is much larger than K⁺, Cl⁻ and SO₄²⁻ due to many fossil fuel combustion at Chengyu City Clusters inside the basin. The spatial heterogeneity in (NO₃⁻⁺ SO₄²⁻) / (K⁺+ Cl⁻+ NO₃⁻⁺ SO₄²⁻) ratio in winter is more significant than that in spring, and winter MAE_{EC} obviously increases as the ratio from TP to the basin sites. Therefore, the emissions from fossil fuel <u>combustion</u> may be a key
 factor-source influencing winter MAE_{EC} in winter.

The above paragraphs separately <u>showed analyzed</u> light absorption efficiency of BrC and EC and their variations as chemical species, <u>and while</u> the change in radiative forcing of BrC relative to EC (*f*) from Chengdu <u>inside the western SCB</u>-to Hongyuan over eastern TP-is showed in Figure 7a to reveal the mechanism. The parameter (*f*radiative forcing of BrC relative to EC) reflects light absorption strength

of BrC at the shorter wavelengths as compared to that of EC aerosols at the whole wavelengths. The much higher *f* values indicated that radiative forcing of BrC aerosols is much stronger for the similar EC radiate forcing, and thus this parameter can be used to better understand the radiative forcing of secondary aerosols relative to primary aerosols at a specific location. The altitude (*AT*) increased by 3

5 km, while the median radiative forcing of BrC relative to EC_f increases from about 0.10 inside the basin to 0.42 over eastern TP. The relationship between *f* and altitude can be parameterized as the below equation:

$$f = 0.077 \cdot e^{0.480 \cdot AT} \tag{15}_{-}$$

Some studies found that the direct radiative forcing of BrC / (BrC+EC) increases with altitude simply
due to the fact that the concentration of BrC decreases more slowly with altitude than does EC (Liu et al., 2014, 2015; Zeng et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2017). Therefore, we also checked <u>the the variations of</u> median OC/EC ratio <u>variations during the campaign</u> from the basin to plateau sites <u>during the campaign</u> (Figure 7b). The OC/EC ratio changes within the range of 2–4, and the 75th percentiles of the ratio increases more significantly than the median values from the basin to plateau sites. Therefore, the
increased radiative forcing of BrC relative to ECf from western SCB to eastern TP may be closely related to more secondary formation and <u>less fewer primary emissions over the TP than SCB (also see Figure 5c).</u>

As previously mentioned, MAE of carbonaceous aerosols largely depends on emission sources. PMF

- 20 receptor model is widely used to apportion the sources influencing air pollutants at a specific site based on the fingerprints of the sources, for example K⁺ and Cl⁻ were-are usually used as tracer for biomass burning (BB) and coal combustion (CC), respectively (Tao et al., 2016). PMF analysis is-was conducted in this study for each season, and The motor vehicles, biomass and coal burning, dust, sea salt and secondary formation are found to be the main sources at the six sites. Figure 8 shows mass
- 25 concentrations of species for each source at each site apportioned by PMF model in winter during the campaign. The source apportionment<u>PMF results</u> for the other seasons are illustrated in Figures S7–S9. The winter NO_3^- concentrations for secondary nitrate decrease from 3.44 µg m⁻³ at Sanbacun to 0.07 µg m⁻³ at Maerkang-with high concentration of NH_4^+ ion, which is more heterogeneous than that in summer and fall. As a main source inside the SCB, the winter secondary nitrate is in response to the

intensive mixing between the motor vehicle emissions and other primary pollutants trapped inside the basin by strong capping inversion (Feng et al., 2020). Additionally, high humidity inside the SCB facilities the secondary nitrate formation, and the average nitrogen oxidation ratio in Sichuan (average RH = 80%) is 3.1 times of that in winter Beijing (average RH = 27%) (Wang et al., 2021). EC aerosols

- 5 from the intensive human activities inside the SCB are easily aged by coating the secondary formed nitrate in winter, which further causes the enhancement of basin EC light absorption. The latest studies of Zhang et al. (2022) found that light absorption and radiative forcing of black carbon coated by inorganic salts are much stronger than that inside organic materials. The chemical species (K⁺, Cl⁻) from biomass burning and coal combustion decline from the basin to plateau sites, but the declininge
- 10 ranges in warm seasons (summer and fall) are more significant than those in the cold seasons (spring and winter) due to usage of more fuel for heating over the TP. <u>Therefore, the primary BrC from</u> biomass burning and coal combustion for winter heating over the TP may partly contribute to the strong TP BrC light absorption. For the sea salt source, Na⁺ values are almost consistent among the sites in cold seasons, while those at Maerkang (0.21 µg m⁻³ in summer, and 0.31 µg m⁻³ in fall) and
- 15 Hongyuan (0.18 μg m⁻³ in summer, and 0.29 μg m⁻³ in fall) are significantly lower than those at the other sites with the lower altitude in warm seasons. The relatively high SO₄² concentrations while the low contribution of Cl⁻ for sea slat source is because that NaCl is converted to Na₂SO₄ by the reaction-with gaseous H₂SO₄ and depletes Cl⁻, which was found in the previous studies (Eleftheriadis et al., 2014; Manousakas et al., 2017).

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3.3 <u>Impacts of Rregional and long-range transport on the light absorption of aerosols impacts</u> The fresh aerosol particles are gradually aged by mixing with other pollutants during the long-range transport, and then enhance their light absorption and radiative forcing. The similarities of major chemical species between two sites should represent regional air pollution, while the differences should

- reflect local sources impacts. A-<u>The</u> comparisons between basin (Chengdu, Sanbacun) and plateau sites (Wenchuan, Lixian, Maerkang, Hongyuan) about the <u>mean-average</u> mass concentrations of water-soluble ions and carbonaceous species in the four seasons is <u>are</u> showed in Figures 9 and S10–S12. The numerical ranges between the two axes of each subplot are set to be equal to more clearly see spatial heterogeneity of the chemical species at the region. The <u>both-combination of COD-CV and-with</u>
- 30 correlation coefficients can be used to better understand intra-location variability (Wilson et al., 2005).

The <u>COD-CV</u> is between 0 and 1 (see Eq. 1), and the smaller value <u>indicates represents</u> the more uniform particle concentrations. The moderate differences, <u>relatively high CV values (0.22–0.75)</u>, are observed for the chemical species from anthropogenic sources (NH₄⁺, K⁺, SO₄^{2–}, NO₃[–], F[–], Cl[–], OC, <u>EC</u>and EC) in the four seasons-<u>due to relative high COD (0.22–0.75) during the campaign</u>. The

- 5 differences indicated that there are limited similarities between basin and plateau sites, and the discrepancies were in major anthropogenic sources. The spatial heterogeneity for K⁺ and NO₃⁻-between-basin and plateau sites __is more obvious than the other species in the four seasons with the largest-COD values, which is mainly related to more biomass burning and vehicle emissions inside Siehuan-Basinthe SCB (Zhao et al., 2021). The weak inter-region transport between western SCB and eastern
- 10 <u>TP suggested that the light absorption of carbonaceous aerosols over the TP is rarely influenced by</u> pollutants from the SCB. Furthermore, the <u>COD-CV</u> values for K⁺, NO₃⁻, and EC in winter are <u>significantly-the lower lowest</u> than those in the other seasons-among the seasons due to increased biomass burning and coal combustion for <u>winter</u> heating in winter over Tibetan Plateau. Unlike <u>CODCV</u>, high correlation coefficient for the specific chemical component does not necessarily indicate
- 15 uniformity, which may suggest source similarity between sites. The correlation_<u>between basin and</u> plateau sites largely depends on season (Figures 9 and S10–S12). The significant strong correlations for NH₄⁺, K⁺, SO₄^{2–}, NO₃[–], OC, <u>ECand EC</u> in the spring and winter infer that basin and plateau sites share similar sources for the species, while weak correlations for NO₃[–], OC, <u>ECand EC</u> in summer and fall indicate that dissimilar sources impacts inside between Sichuan Basin and over Tibetan Plateau.

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Compared with the species from anthropogenic sources, the <u>lowest CV values for</u> Na⁺, Mg²⁺, and Ca²⁺ concentrations-among the species indicated that they are more comparable between basin and plateau sites and thus COD values are the lowest among the species in the four seasons. Furthermore, changes in Na⁺ values are more synchronous than Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ between the basin and plateau sites-in summer and fall. The relative low COD values and high correlation coefficients for Na⁺ and Cl⁻ concentrationsin summer and fall suggests that Na⁺ ion at the whole region may be affected by long range transportfrom the surrounding seas (Figures S10 S11).-Na⁺ concentration also-is found to be high in salt-rich dust from saline soils (Quick and Chadwick, 2011). Dust events frequently occurred in spring and winter over Tibetan Plateau and Northwest China where saline and alkaline land and dried salt-lakes located (Jiang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2021), and thus the weak correlations for

Na⁺, Mg²⁺, and Ca²⁺ values in spring and winter between basin and plateau sites-may suggest local and regional dust plume impacts. <u>Therefore, the lack of considering mineral dust impacts in separation of</u> <u>BrC light absorption from total aerosol absorption (Eq. 5) might cause some errors. The errors should</u> <u>be much smaller as compared to the studies at north or northeast TP close to Taklimakan and Gobi</u>

5 <u>Deserts.</u>

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South Asia is found to be one of the most polluted regions, and particulate matter (PM) can betransported and deposited in southern Tibetan Plateau to accelerate ice and snow melting by reducingsurface albedo (Zhang et al., 2021).-MODIS active fire data suggests that biomass burning is mainly located in South Asia around our study regions, which is more abundant in cold (spring and winter) than warm seasons (summer and fall) during our campaign (Figure 10S13). The PM mass concentrations in conjunction with wind speed and direction data can be used to identify the local PM origins, and thus Figure 11-10 shows K⁺ pollution rose in the four seasons at the six sites. The back trajectory calculation can give regional PM origins from long-range transport, and Figures 12-11 and

- 15 S13S14-S16 illustrate the gridded back trajectory frequencies in the four seasons. As a tracer of biomass burning, K⁺ stratification in warm seasons is more obvious than that in cold seasons, which infers that there are more biomass burning plumes over Tibetan Plateau in spring and winter. The changes in wind direction are-is not obvious from Sichuan Basin to Tibetan Plateau in warm seasons. However, the predominant wind direction is northwest–southeast in cold seasons for the basin sites,
- while that mainly focuses on southwest for the plateau sites (Figure 1110). The highest frequency of back trajectories-trajectory also are is in Southwest southwest of the sampling sites in winter (Figure 1211). Therefore, the biomass burning emissions originated from South Asia are transported to eastern Tibetan Plateau by highly frequent southwesterly winds, and thus induce high <u>K</u>⁺ concentrations of <u>K</u>⁺-ion-in spring and winter. The BrC aerosols from the intensive biomass burning in South Asia are
- 25 gradually aged by internal or external mixing with the other anthropogenic emissions during the longrange transport. The light absorption of the aged BrC aerosols over the TP is enhanced by coating the inorganic components (Zhang et al., 2022), which may partly contribute to the stronger BrC light absorption at the plateau sites than the basin sites. Unlike the eastern TP, the carbonaceous aerosols in western SCB are regionally transported from the central and eastern SCB, which can be seen from
- 30 pollution rose and back trajectories. The aerosols accumulate and stagnate at the front areas of the

mountains due to terrain block, and thus the light absorption of EC aerosols emitted from motor vehicles is enhanced by the intensive mixing among the air pollutants.

The K⁺-concentrations less depend on wind direction in warm seasons (Figure 11), and there are manyactive fire in western Sichuan Basin as compared with the cold seasons (Figure 10), and thus K⁺-ionmay be mainly affected by local biomass burning in summer and fall. Although less active fire isdetected in winter (Figure 9d), the local biomass and coal combustion for winter heating was found tolargely affect air quality inside the basin (Zhao et al., 2021). As one of the cloudiest areas in China (Jin et al., 2009), the Sichuan Basin has a climatologically high cloud cover fraction of more than 80%-

10 (Qian et al., 2007), and especially in winter (Hu et al., 2021). Therefore, the active fire failed to be detected by MODIS possibly due to cloud impacts in winter.

4 Summary and conclusions

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Tibetan Plateau (TP) is surrounded by the three highly polluted regions, i.e., Indo-Gangetic Plain

15 (IGP), Taklimakan and Gobi Deserts (TGDs) and Siehuan-SiChuan Basin (SCB). However, the previous studies mainly focused on the south (IGP) and north slopes (TGDs), and thus the first *in-situ* aerosol measurements were conducted at eastern slope of Tibetan Plateau (ESTP) to study the elevation-dependent light absorption of carbonaceous aerosols from the highly polluted SCB to the pristine TP. The sources and origins impacts on light absorption of aerosols also were discussed by
20 determined bycombining with PMF and HYSPLIT results.models for the six sites (Chengdu, Sanbacun, Wenchuan, Lixian, Maerkang, and Hongyuan) extending elevation from 500 m to 3500 m. Some novel-findings were obtained by this *in situ* observations.

The EC and BrC light absorption was separated by the simple two-component model. The BrC light
absorption coefficients at 405 nm accounting for <u>that of total carbon (TC, sum of EC and BrC) are is</u> found to be increased increase from ~ 20% inside the SCB to ~ 50% over the TP. The BrC mass absorption efficiency (MAE) over eastern TP is 2–3 times higher than that inside the SCB with strongly elevation-dependent <u>absorption light absorbing</u>. The most significant elevation-dependent <u>winter MAE of BrCMAE_{BrC} in winter</u> is closely related to the high ratio of secondary to primary organic carbon
(OC), i.e., more OC from secondary transformation formation than primary emissions at high altitudes.

Different from BrC, winter <u>MAE_{EC}-EC MAE</u> declines from the highly polluted SCB to clean TP, which is due to source difference between the two regions. More urban sources (vehicles, industries, etc.) are trapped inside the deep SCB due to poor dispersion and frequent temperature inversion in cold seasons. The high primary emissions and weak dispersion conditions are favorable for full-mixing and aerosol aging to enhance <u>light</u> absorption inside the basin. The median radiative forcing of BrC relative to EC increased increases from about 0.10 inside the basin to 0.42 over eastern TP, which is associated with OC/EC ratio. Therefore, the enhanced radiative forcing of BrC relative to EC is because the concentration of OC decreases more slowly with altitude than does EC. South Asia is determined as the main origins of PM pollutants at the study region from western SCB to eastern TP, which is-

10 significantly dependent on seasons.

The first aerosol field experiment was conducted at the specific study region, but only six sampling sites were used from the deep SCB to eastern TP in this study. The more <u>measurement</u> sites will be established to better understand the chemical composition and <u>aerosol</u>-light properties <u>of aerosols</u> and-

15 sources and origin impacts at the study unique region. The light absorption coefficients and efficiencies of BrC failed to be separated from that of TC in summer and fall at Maerkang and Hongyuan due to instrument failure, which limited to reveal the elevation-dependent light absorption. Furthermore, replacing BrC, OC mass concentration was used to estimate BrC MAEMAE_{BrC}, which may have cause large uncertainty, and thus these are expected to be corrected in the future study.

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Data availability. Raw data sets (Zhao et al., 2022, DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.6474199) used in this manuscript were available at https://zenodo.org/record/6474199#.YmCn_YtByUk.

Author contributions. Suping Zhao and Ye Yu designed the study. Suping Zhao analyzed the data with help from
 Ye Yu, Jinbei Chen and Shichang Kang. Daiying Yin and Longxiang Dong collected and analyzed data during the campaign. Shaofeng Qi conducted the field experiment.

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

30 *Financial support.* This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (42075185;

41605103), Youth Innovation Promotion Association, CAS (Y2021111), and Gansu Science and Technology Program key projects (20JR10RA037 and 18JR2RA005).–

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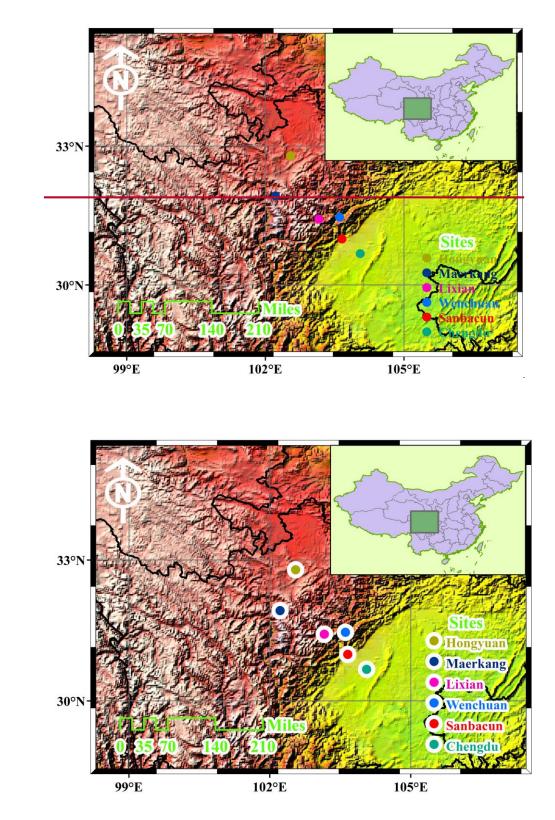
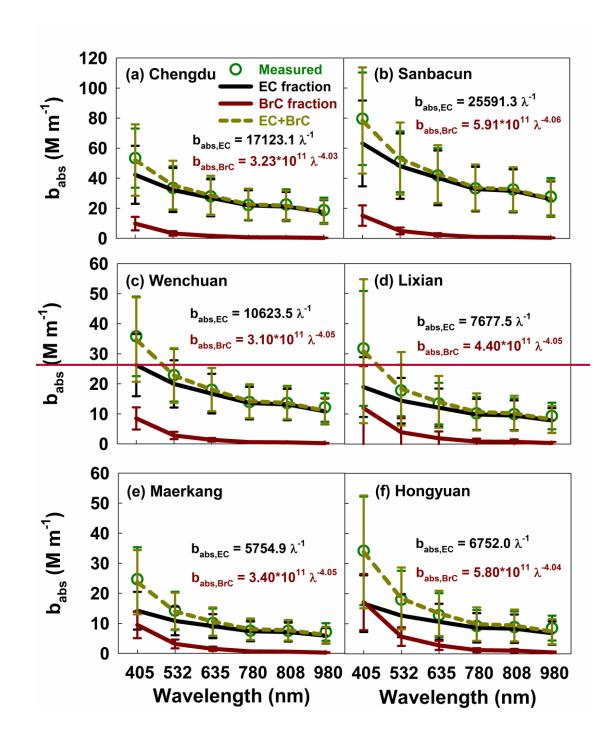


Figure 1: Geographic location of the six *in-situ* observation-measurement sites (Chengdu, Sanbacun, Wenchuan, Lixian, Maerkang, and Hongyuan) along the eastern slope of Tibetan Plateau. The map is a pure reproduction of Google Maps with added a marks for our study

locations. Copyright © Google Maps.



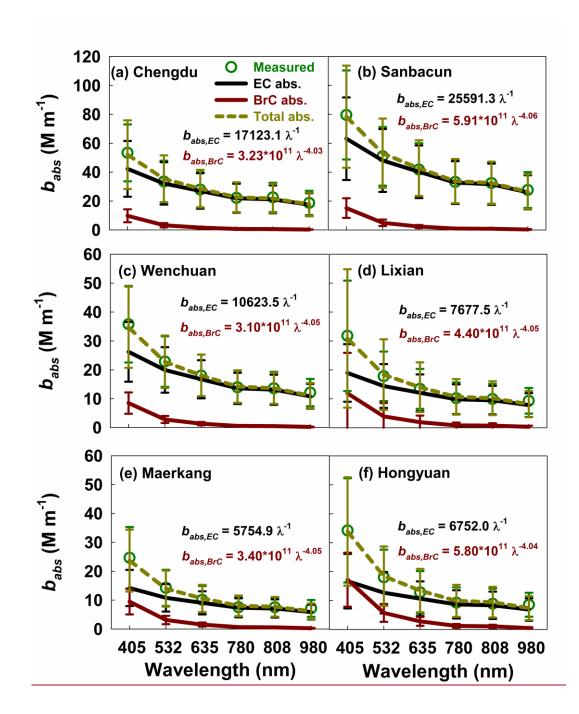


Figure 2: Spectral light absorption coefficients (b_{abs}) by EC and BrC in spring and winter at the six sites along the <u>eastern slope of Tibetan PlateauESTP</u>. The subplots depict the decomposition of total light absorption by EC and BrC with the model given in Eq. 4. Error bars represent uncertainties derived from replicate analyses and lower quantifiable limits.

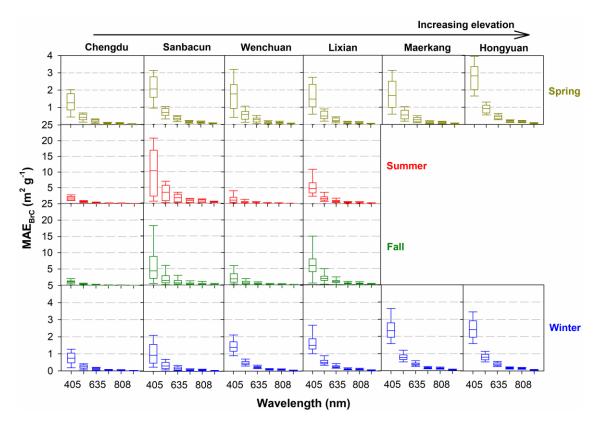


Figure 3: Box plots of spectral BrC mass absorption efficiency (MAE_{BrC}) in each season from Chengdu inside <u>the SCB</u> to Hongyuan over the TP <u>covering extending</u> elevation from 500 m to 3500 m. The lines inside the box<u>es</u> denote the median values; , and the two whiskers and the top and bottom of the box<u>es</u> denote the 5th and 95th and the 75th and 25th percentiles.

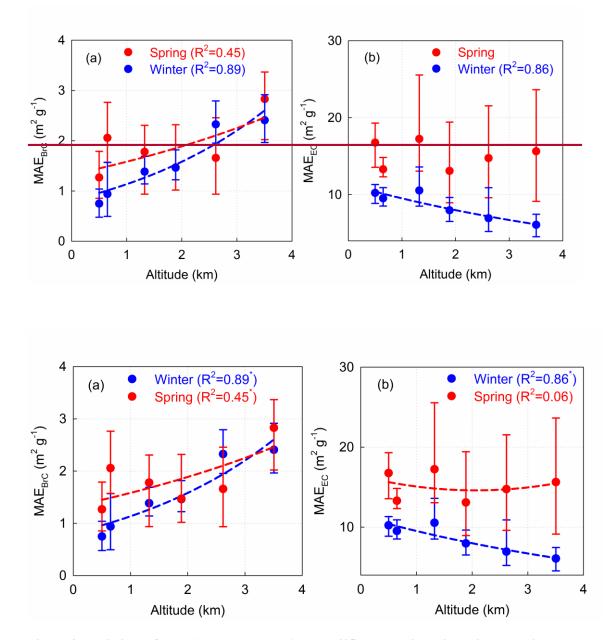


Figure 4: Variations of (a) MAE_{BrC} and (b) MAE_{EC} at 405 nm as altitude in spring and winter
during the campaign. The solid dots denote the median values;-, and the two whiskers of the dots denote the 25th and 75th percentiles. The relationships <u>between averaged MAE and altitude of</u>
the measurement sites were fitted by exponential function, and <u>Tthe coefficients of determination</u>
(R²) also were given in each subplot. The relationships (R² with the superscript of an asterisk)
passed the significance level of 0.01. The coefficients of determination (R²) also were given in each

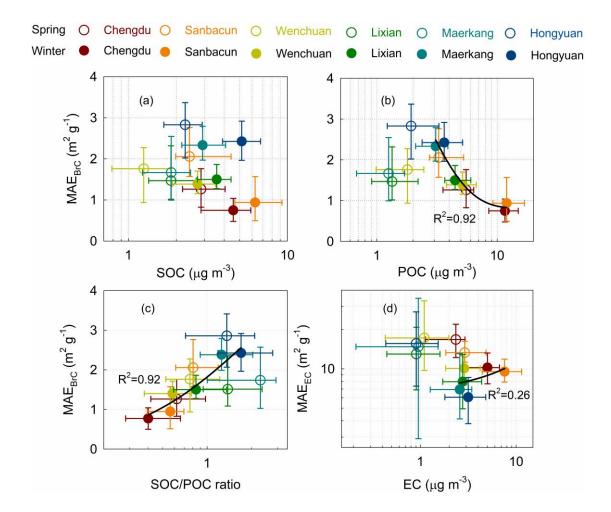


Figure 5: Variations of spring and winter mean MAE_{BrC} as (a) SOC, (b) POC, (c) SOC/POC ratio and (d) MAE_{EC} as EC concentrations at the six sites. The hollow and solid dots denote the median values in spring and winter; <u>and</u> the four whiskers of the dots denote the 25th and 75th percentiles of the corresponding two variables. The horizontal axis in each subplot is showed on a logarithmic scale to more clearly see the details.

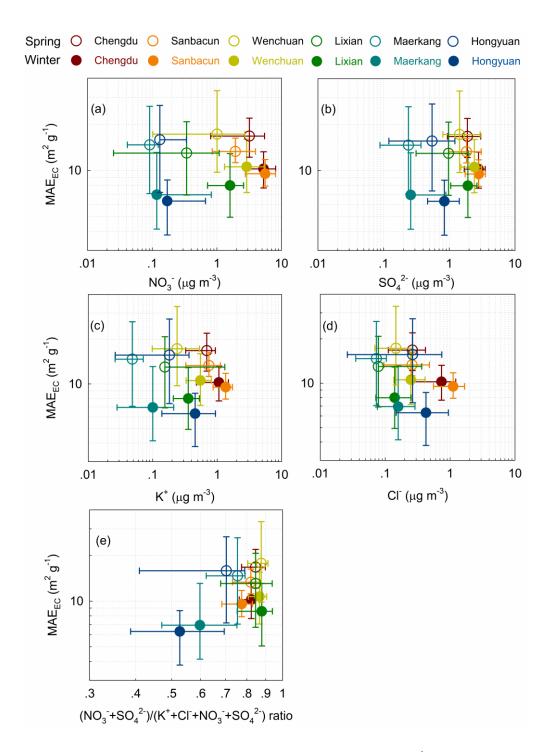


Figure 6: Variations of spring and winter MAE_{EC} as (a) NO₃⁻, (b) SO₄²⁻, (c) K⁺, and (d) Cl⁻ concentrations, and (e) (NO₃⁻+ SO₄²⁻) / (K⁺+ Cl⁻+ NO₃⁻+ SO₄²⁻) ratio at the six sites. The hollow and solid dots denote the median values in spring and winter; <u>, and</u> the four whiskers of the dots denote the 25th and 75th percentiles of the corresponding two variables. The axes in each subplot are showed on a logarithmic scale to more clearly see the details.

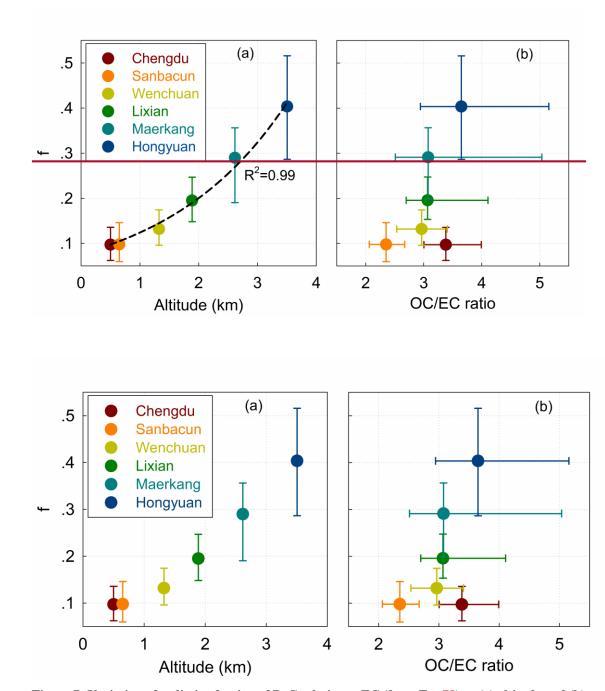


Figure 7: Variation of radiative forcing of BrC relative to EC (f, see Eq. 78) as (a) altitude and (b)
OC/EC ratio for each site. The solid dots denote the median values; <u>, and</u> the two whiskers of the dots denote the 25th and 75th percentiles of the variables. The relationship between f and altitude was fitted by exponential growth function, and passed the significance level of 0.01.

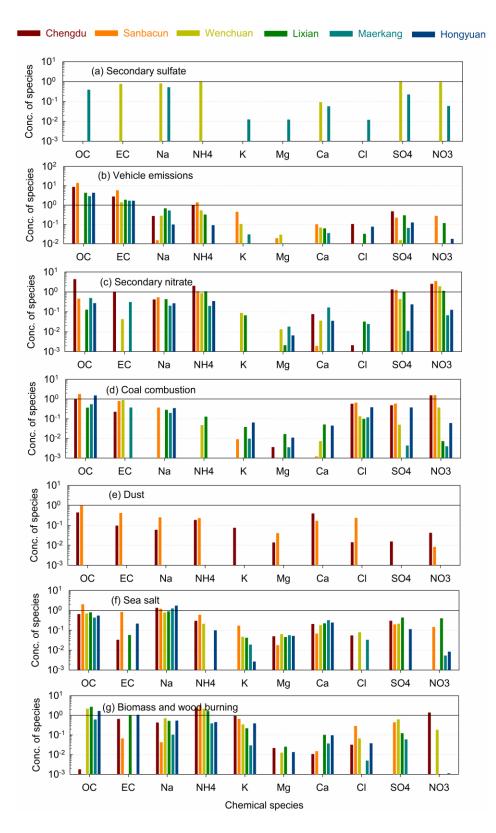
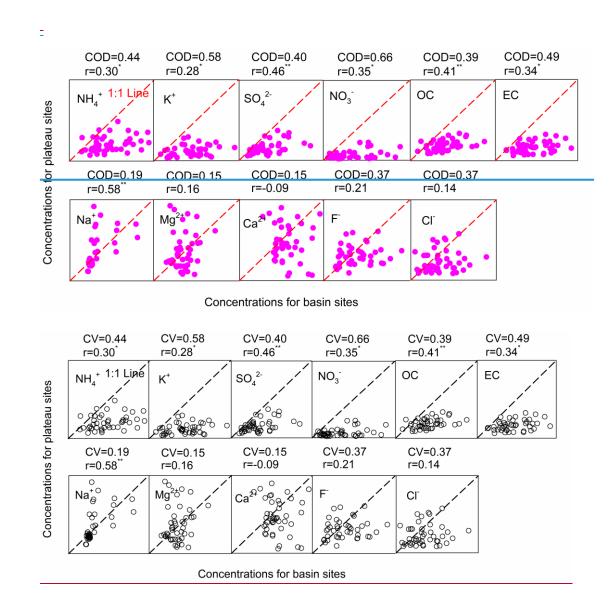


Figure 8: Mass concentrations of species for each source at each site apportioned by PMF model in winter during the campaign. The vertical axes are showed on logarithmic scale to better distinguish the concentrations of chemical species among the <u>sampling measurement</u> sites.



5 Figure 9: Relationships of spring PM₁ chemical components concentrations between basin (horizontal axes, including Chengdu and Sanbacun) and plateau sites (vertical axes, including Wenchuan, Lixian, Maerkang and Hongyuan). The correlation coefficients (r) with an asterisk and two asterisk superscripts pass<u>ed</u> the significance level of 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

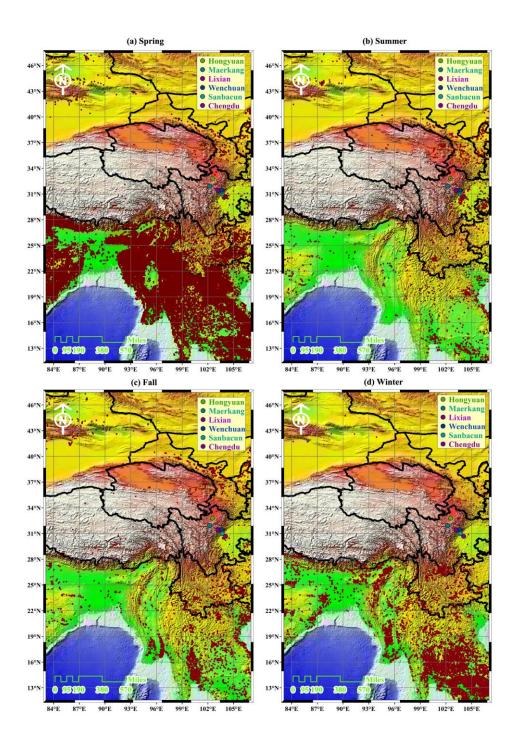


Figure 10: MODIS active fire locations in Southeast Asia in the four seasons. The six samplingsites along the eastern slope of Tibetan Plateau also were showed in each subplot. The map is a pure reproduction of Google Maps with added the active fire data. Copyright © Google Maps.

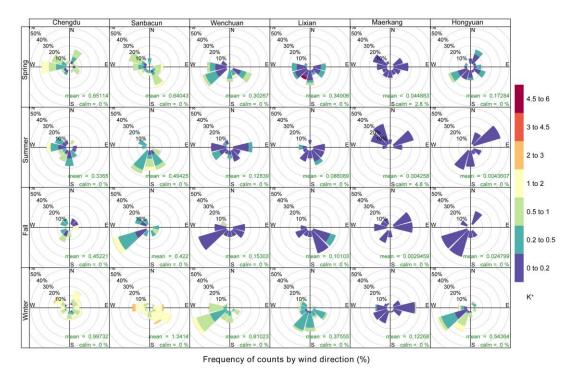


Figure <u>1110</u>: K⁺ pollution rose in the four seasons at the six sites along the <u>eastern slope of</u> <u>Tibetan PlateauESTP</u>. Mean K⁺ concentrations and calm frequencies also were given in each subplot.

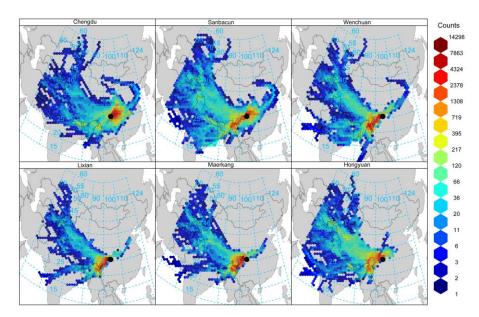


Figure <u>1211</u>: Gridded back trajectory frequencies with hexagonal binning in winter at the six sites from west Sichuan Basin to Tibetan Plateau. The map is a pure reproduction of Google Maps with added the trajectory frequencies. Copyright © Google Maps.

<u>Name</u>	Latitude (degree)	Longitude (degree)	<u>Altitude (km)</u>
Chengdu	30.67	<u>104.06</u>	0.50
Sanbacun	<u>30.99</u>	<u>103.66</u>	0.65
Wenchuan	<u>31.46</u>	<u>103.61</u>	<u>1.33</u>
Lixian	<u>31.42</u>	<u>103.16</u>	<u>1.89</u>
Maerkang	<u>31.92</u>	<u>102.22</u>	<u>2.62</u>
Hongyuan	<u>32.79</u>	<u>102.55</u>	3.50

Table 1 Summary of the measurement sites (name, location and altitude).

Table-12 Seasonally mean-average values (mean ± std.) of OC and EC concentrations, light absorption coefficient (b_{abs}), mass absorption efficiency (MAE) and meteorological variables (wind speed (WS), temperature (Tem.), relative humidity (RH)) <u>for-at</u> the six sites during the measurement campaign. There is no b_{abs} or MAE reported for MEK and HY in summer and fall as the used DRI instrument does not work at the 2 wavelengths of 405 nm and 445 nm when the

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as the used DRI instrument does not work at the 2 wavelengths of 405 nm and 445 nm when the samples are measured, and <u>thus</u> separation of EC and BrC cannot be conducted by Eq. (5)._______ <u>Chengdu, Sanbacun, Wenchuan, Lixian, Maerkang and Hongyuan are abbreviated as CD, SBC,</u>

Season	Sites	OC	EC	babs (M m ⁻¹	babs (M m ⁻¹)		MAE (m ² g ⁻¹)		Tem.	RH
		(µg m ⁻³)	(µg m ⁻³)	BrC, 405	EC, 405	BrC, 405	EC, 405	(m s ⁻¹)	(°C)	(%)
Spring	CD	7.9±3.7	2.2±1.2	8.5±2.8	32.4±12.7	1.3±0.6	17.1±4.8	1.6±0.7	17.5±4.3	80.3±19.9
	SBC	6.7±3.0	3.3±1.5	13.7±5.6	44.2±16.9	2.1±0.9	13.7±2.5	1.4±0.6	16.9±4.1	77.6±15.9
	WC	3.2±1.6	1.2±0.8	4.8±2.3	20.2±9.0	1.6±0.9	21.5±11.6	2.4±1.0	15.1±4.4	65.1±17.4
	LX	3.5±1.4	1.0±0.6	5.4±2.5	11.8±5.5	1.7±0.8	13.8±6.9	1.6±0.5	13.3±5.3	61.5±20.4
	MEK	3.0±1.7	0.8±0.6	4.8±2.7	10.2±3.6	1.9±1.2	16.6±9.4	1.1±0.6	10.6±5.5	62.0±26.5
	HY	4.1±1.6	0.9±0.6	11.5±4.9	12.9±6.2	2.8±0.9	17.3±9.8	2.4±1.0	2.4±3.6	70.0±16.6
Summer	CD	5.4±1.2	1.9±0.5	9.0±2.7	29.2±6.9	1.8±0.6	16.4±4.5	1.3±0.4	25.2±2.9	84.6±18.8
	SBC	2.9±1.2	1.5±0.7	21.8±15.0	32.6±7.9	10.1±7.1	29.8±6.5	1.1±0.4	24.1±3.0	82.7±13.9
	WC	2.2±0.8	1.0±0.5	2.2±1.5	18.9±5.5	1.4±1.3	23.5±9.5	1.7±0.7	23.1±3.2	64.5±16.5
	LX	2.7±0.9	0.8±0.5	13.3±5.0	9.5±2.7	5.4±2.5	16.4±11.3	1.4±0.5	20.9±4.0	65.2±18.0
	MEK	2.7±1.5	0.7±0.6	_	_	_	_	1.0±0.4	16.6±4.3	73.3±22.6
	HY	3.0±1.2	0.8±0.6	_	_	_	_	1.8±0.6	10.1±3.3	77.8±11.6
Fall	CD	4.7±1.3	2.3±1.0	5.3±2.5	40.6±16.6	1.1±0.5	18.3±4.0	1.1±0.4	15.6±4.9	88.4±10.8
	SBC	5.3±3.4	3.0±1.8	22.0±13.7	50.8±11.2	6.0±5.6	24.3±9.3	0.9±0.2	14.9±4.4	89.9±11.6
	WC	1.6±0.8	0.8±0.5	3.0±2.0	18.2±7.3	2.3±1.8	27.3±13.9	1.7±0.6	14.1±5.4	72.7±10.0
	LX	2.4±1.0	0.9±0.5	12.7±6.6	10.5±3.4	6.5±3.8	14.7±10.1	1.3±0.3	11.9±5.6	76.8±11.3
	MEK	2.3±1.2	0.9±0.6	_	_	—	_	0.9±0.4	8.8±5.5	78.4±17.0
	HY	3.4±2.2	1.3±1.1	_	_	—	_	1.9±0.7	0.7 ± 5.6	73.9±11.0
Winter	CD	15.0±5.9	4.7±2.0	10.5±4.6	47.6±20.1	0.8±0.5	10.4±2.8	1.2±0.4	6.6±2.7	78.9±16.9
	SBC	18.9±7.6	7.9±3.4	17.1±10.2	74.7±27.9	1.2±1.0	9.9±2.0	1.0±0.3	5.8±2.7	79.2±15.0
	WC	8.2±3.1	2.8±1.3	11.2±3.2	29.7±9.5	1.5±0.5	11.6±4.4	1.9±0.6	3.6±2.4	60.2±9.0
	LX	8.4±2.7	3.0±1.3	17.1±15.4	24.3±9.1	2.2±2.6	8.9±3.9	1.4±0.4	-0.1±2.1	62.4±10.3
	MEK	5.3±2.3	2.2±1.1	13.2±4.0	16.6±6.3	2.5±0.9	8.6±4.4	1.1±0.3	-0.2±3.7	36.1±11.0
	HY	8.4±3.8	3.0±1.6	21.5±11.3	18.9±10.2	2.5±0.7	6.7±4.9	2.1±1.5	-6.5±6.8	42.8±21.8

WC, LX, MEK and HY, respectively.