



1 **High-resolution physicochemical dataset of atmospheric**  
2 **aerosols over the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings**

3 **Xinghua Zhang<sup>1,\*</sup>, Wenhui Zhao<sup>1,2,\*</sup>, Lixiang Zhai<sup>1,2</sup>, Miao Zhong<sup>1,2</sup>, Jinsen Shi<sup>3</sup>,**  
4 **Junying Sun<sup>4</sup>, Yanmei Liu<sup>1,a</sup>, Conghui Xie<sup>1,b</sup>, Yulong Tan<sup>1,2</sup>, Kemei Li<sup>1,2</sup>, Xinlei**  
5 **Ge<sup>5</sup>, Qi Zhang<sup>6</sup>, Shichang Kang<sup>1,2,7</sup>, Jianzhong Xu<sup>1,\*</sup>**

6 <sup>1</sup>State Key Laboratory of Cryospheric Sciences, Northwest Institute of Eco-Environment and  
7 Resources, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Lanzhou 730000, China

8 <sup>2</sup>University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China

9 <sup>3</sup>Key Laboratory for Semi-Arid Climate Change of the Ministry of Education, College of  
10 Atmospheric Sciences, Lanzhou University, Lanzhou 730000, China

11 <sup>4</sup>Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Chemistry of CMA, Chinese Academy of Meteorological  
12 Sciences, Beijing 100081, China

13 <sup>5</sup>Jiangsu Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Environment Monitoring and Pollution Control,  
14 Collaborative Innovation Center of Atmospheric Environment and Equipment Technology,  
15 School of Environmental Science and Engineering, Nanjing University of Information  
16 Science and Technology, Nanjing 210044, China

17 <sup>6</sup>Department of Environmental Toxicology, University of California, Davis, CA 95616, USA

18 <sup>7</sup>CAS Center for Excellence in Tibetan Plateau Earth Sciences, Beijing 100085, China

19 <sup>a</sup>now at: Department of Environmental Science and Engineering, Sichuan University,  
20 Chengdu 610065, China

21 <sup>b</sup>now at: State Key Joint Laboratory of Environmental Simulation and Pollution Control,  
22 College of Environmental Sciences and Engineering, Peking University, Beijing 100871,  
23 China

24 **\*These authors contributed equally to this work.**

25 *Correspondence to:* Jianzhong Xu (jz xu@lzb.ac.cn)



## 26 **Abstract**

27 Atmospheric aerosol in the Tibetan Plateau (TP) and its surroundings has received  
28 widely scientific concern in recent decades owing to its significant impacts on regional  
29 climatic and cryospheric changes, ecological and environmental securities, and  
30 hydrological cycle. However, our understanding on the atmospheric aerosol in this  
31 remote region is highly limited by the scarcely available dataset, which has been proved  
32 to be an important factor on disturbing the climate and environment in this region. The  
33 extremely harsh natural conditions hamper the exploration of the observation. This  
34 condition has been improved in recent decade by constructing a few stable field  
35 observatories at typical sites on the TP and its surroundings. A comprehensive project  
36 was carried out since 2015 to investigate the properties and sources of atmospheric  
37 aerosols as well as their regional differences in the vast TP regions by performing  
38 multiple short-term intensive field observations using a suite of high-resolution online  
39 instruments. This paper presents a systematic dataset of the high-time-resolution  
40 (hourly scales) aerosol physicochemical and optical properties at seven different sites  
41 over the TP and its surroundings from the observation project, including the size-  
42 resolved chemical compositions of submicron aerosols, standard high-resolution mass  
43 spectra and sources of organic aerosols, size distributions of particle number  
44 concentrations, particle light scattering and absorption coefficients, particle light  
45 absorptions from different carbonaceous substances of black carbon and brown carbon,  
46 number concentrations of cloud condensation nuclei, and concentrations of gaseous  
47 pollutants. In brief, atmospheric aerosols in these remote sites were all well-mixed and  
48 highly-aged due to their regional transport sources. However, high contributions of  
49 carbonaceous organic aerosols, overall neutralized submicron aerosols, and relatively  
50 higher light absorption capability were observed in the southern TP, whereas secondary  
51 inorganic species contributed dominantly to the overall acidic submicron aerosols in  
52 the northern TP. In addition to the insights into the regional differences of aerosol  
53 sources and properties in the vast TP regions, the datasets are also useful for the  
54 simulation of aerosol radiative forcing and the evaluation of interactions among  
55 different components of the Earth system in numerical models. The datasets are  
56 available from the National Cryosphere Desert Data Center, Chinese Academy of  
57 Sciences (<https://doi.org/10.12072/ncdc.NIEER.db2200.2022; Xu, 2022>).



## 58 **1 Introduction**

59 Tibetan Plateau (TP), with a mean altitude of over 4000 m a.s.l. and a huge surface area  
60 of approximately  $2.5 \times 10^6$  km<sup>2</sup>, is the highest and largest plateau on the Earth. The  
61 mountain ranges on the TP and its surroundings are one of the most important  
62 cryospheric regions in the world. Therefore, the TP has been widely known as the “roof  
63 of the world”, the “Third Pole”, and the “Asian Water Tower” (Qiu, 2008; Yao et al.,  
64 2019). The TP and its surroundings have exerted significant roles in the global and  
65 regional climate systems, hydrological cycles, and cryospheric changes through its  
66 huge and complex topography and heat source (Duan and Wu, 2005; Yao et al., 2012;  
67 Chen et al., 2021). Over the past few decades, more concerns have been raised in the  
68 TP and its surroundings due to the significant climatic warming and rapid cryospheric  
69 changes in this region (Kang et al., 2010). For example, TP has shown significant  
70 warming during the last half century and will warm more rapidly than the global  
71 average in the future (You et al., 2021; Zhou and Zhang, 2021).

72 As the most complex and important component in the atmosphere, atmospheric aerosols  
73 play significant roles in the climatic and cryospheric changes in the TP regions through  
74 their crucial direct and indirect effects on solar radiation and the albedos of snow/ice  
75 surfaces (Xu et al., 2009; Kang et al., 2019b; Zhang et al., 2020a; Yang et al., 2021).  
76 Atmospheric aerosols, particularly the two important light-absorbing carbonaceous  
77 substances of black carbon (BC) and brown carbon (BrC), can absorb the solar radiation  
78 directly, warm the atmosphere, and finally lead to a positive forcing on Earth’s energy  
79 budget (Ramanathan et al., 2007; Kopacz et al., 2011; Laskin et al., 2015). In addition,  
80 aerosol particles over the TP also exert significant impacts on ice cloud properties and  
81 the vertical motions of the atmosphere and cloud development through their semi-direct  
82 effects (Liu et al., 2019). Since the direct observation of atmospheric aerosols over the  
83 TP region is remarkably difficult due to its harsh environment, the numerical model  
84 simulation based on reanalysis data has become the most popular research approach  
85 over the past decades. Lau et al. (2006) evaluated the significant impact of atmospheric  
86 aerosols over the TP on the intensification of the Asian summer monsoon by using the  
87 NASA finite-volume general circulation model. Kopacz et al. (2011) investigated the  
88 origin and radiative forcing of BC transported to the TP and Himalayas by using the  
89 GEOS-Chem global chemical transport model, while He et al. (2014) evaluated the  
90 model simulations of BC over the TP by a global 3-D GEOS-Chem chemical transport



91 model. Ji et al. (2015) simulated the distribution, deposition, transportation, and  
92 climatic effects of carbonaceous aerosols over the TP regions by using a regional  
93 climate model coupled with a chemistry–aerosol module. Liu et al. (2015) investigated  
94 the transport of summer dust and anthropogenic aerosols over the TP by using a three-  
95 dimensional aerosol transport–radiation model and found heavily loaded dust aerosols  
96 over the northern slope of the TP while anthropogenic aerosols over the southern slope.  
97 Zhang et al. (2017) applied a regional chemistry and transport model to study the  
98 significant trans-Himalaya transport of aerosol pollutants from India and nearby regions  
99 to the inland TP region. Ma et al. (2019) modelled the emissions, chemistry, and  
100 transport of aerosols and their precursors in the tropopause over the TP during the Asian  
101 summer monsoon by using the ECHAM/MESSy Atmospheric Chemistry (EMAC)  
102 general circulation model. Although important findings have been reported from those  
103 model simulations, the in-situ observation of atmospheric aerosols over the TP regions  
104 has become more crucial and urgent due to their key roles in evaluating and improving  
105 the model performances over the remote region.

106 Numerous in-situ measurements have been conducted in the TP and its surroundings  
107 during the past few years to characterize the aerosol properties, sources, transport  
108 pathways, and regional distributions through the filter sample collection of atmospheric  
109 aerosol and the aerosol depositions in glaciers, snow cover, precipitation, and lake  
110 sediment (Kang et al., 2022). The off-line atmospheric filter sampling was one of the  
111 most important and popular in-situ aerosol collection method in the TP because it was  
112 relatively low-cost and easy to carry out under the extreme harsh natural conditions and  
113 difficult logistical supports (Cao et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2014a; Zhang  
114 et al., 2014; Cong et al., 2015; Wan et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2016; Li  
115 et al., 2016b; Dong et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2020). Meantime, characterizing the regional  
116 distribution of atmospheric aerosols over a large area of the TP was another important  
117 advantage of the off-line filter sampling through their simultaneous observations at  
118 multiple sites (Li et al., 2016a; Chen et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2022). However, studies  
119 on the atmospheric aerosols over the remote TP regions are still insufficient at present.  
120 The observational data was generally scattered and unsystematic with relatively few  
121 data points because most of these in-situ observations in this region were carried out at  
122 single site aiming to investigate few aerosol properties with relatively low temporal  
123 resolution (from days to weeks) during different individual campaign. Up to now,



124 comprehensive researches focusing on multiple aerosol physicochemical and optical  
125 properties through the real-time online consecutive measurements (high temporal  
126 resolutions of minute to hour scale) at multiple sites are still rare in the TP.

127 Studies about the atmospheric aerosols, especially the aerosol chemistry, have achieved  
128 great progress during the last decade in China due to its serious haze pollution problems.  
129 The Aerodyne high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS)  
130 was one of the most popular online instrument that successfully implemented in  
131 numerous aerosol chemistry observations to characterize the real-time size-resolved  
132 chemical compositions and sources of submicron aerosols (Li et al., 2017; Zhou et al.,  
133 2020). However, study of the aerosol chemistry using such online instruments was still  
134 scarce in the TP regions due to the extremely harsh observation conditions. Since 2015,  
135 a comprehensive and systematic observation project, aiming to investigate the regional  
136 differences on the aerosol sources and physicochemical and optical properties in the  
137 different TP regions, has been launched by our research team by performing the high-  
138 resolution real-time online measurements at different sites in the TP and its  
139 surroundings during almost every year. This paper serves to describe in detail the high-  
140 resolution dataset about the physicochemical and optical properties of atmospheric  
141 aerosols over the TP and its surroundings from the project. Descriptions of the  
142 observation sites, instrumental deployments, and data processing methods are  
143 introduced in Sects. 2 and 3, while the high-time-resolution (hourly scale) data of  
144 aerosol physical, chemical, and optical properties are discussed in detail in Sect. 4. This  
145 datasets provide not only comprehensive data for the understanding of regional  
146 differences in aerosol sources and properties in different TP regions, but also basic  
147 inputs for the simulation of aerosol radiative forcing and the assessments of interactions  
148 among different components of the Earth system in future models.

## 149 **2 Observation site descriptions**

150 The comprehensive observations of atmospheric aerosol chemistry were conducted at  
151 seven different sites in the different regions of TP and its surroundings in recent years.  
152 All the sites include six remote sites and one urban site which is used for comparison.  
153 Figure 1 illustrates the geographical locations of these sites and the picture of each  
154 observation. Table 1 provides detailed information about the full name and geographic  
155 characteristics (latitude, longitude, and altitude) of each site as well as the sampling  
156 period and available instruments during each field campaign. The following text gives



157 a brief description of each site.

## 158 **2.1 QOMS**

159 The Qomolangma Station for Atmospheric and Environmental Observation and  
160 Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences (QOMS for short in this study and similarly  
161 hereinafter for other sites; 86.56°E, 28.21°N; 4276 m a.s.l) is situated in the basin of  
162 Rongbuk valley, the northern slope of Mt. Everest (~30 km away). The station is about  
163 80 km away from the Tingri county and 650 km away from the Lhasa city. The climate  
164 in the northern slope of Mt. Everest has obvious seasonal variation due to the Indian  
165 monsoon transition characteristics. During the pre-monsoon season (dry period), the  
166 dominated westerly and southerly winds play important roles in the long-range  
167 transport of atmospheric pollutions from the South Asia, whereas the southwesterly  
168 winds prevail during the monsoon season and bring warm and wet airflow from the  
169 Indian Ocean to this region with increasing humidity and precipitation. The QOMS is  
170 an important and ideal high-altitude observatory at the south edge of the TP for studying  
171 the transboundary transport of atmospheric pollutants from South Asia to the TP.

## 172 **2.2 Motuo**

173 The Motuo county, with an area of ~34,000 km<sup>2</sup> and a population of ~15,000, is situated  
174 in the lower reaches of the Yarlung Tsangpo River and the southern slope of the eastern  
175 Himalayas and Gangrigab Mountains, in the southeast edge of the TP. The terrain in the  
176 whole area of the Motuo county is high in the north and low in the south, ranging from  
177 200 to 7787 m with an average altitude of ~1200 m. The huge altitude difference makes  
178 the Motuo county has the most complete vertical climatic zones in China, e.g., tropical,  
179 subtropical, and alpine cold zones. The county seat of Motuo (29.30°N, 95.32°E; 1305  
180 m a.s.l) is located at a halfway up a mountain and has a subtropical humid climate with  
181 relatively high temperature and abundant rainfall. The annual precipitation can reach  
182 2358 mm in Motuo county with relative humidity more than 80%. Due to the minor  
183 population and extremely scarce industrial activities, Motuo county is also a relatively  
184 pristine region in the TP. Moreover, the sampling site in Motuo is set at the summit of  
185 a hill that towards to the Yarlung Tsangpo grand canyon, which makes it a very ideal  
186 site in the southeast edge of the TP to directly monitor the transboundary transport of  
187 atmospheric pollutants and moisture from Southeast Asia and Indian Ocean to the TP.

## 188 **2.3 NamCo**



189 The Nam Co Station for Multisphere Observation and Research, Chinese Academy of  
190 Sciences (NamCo; 90.95°E, 30.77°N; 4730 m a.s.l) is a high-altitude observatory at the  
191 central part of the TP. This station is situated at the southeast shore of Nam Co Lake.  
192 The surrounding of this station is a pristine region in the TP and isolated from major  
193 industrial sources and populated areas. The station is ~60 km to the west away from the  
194 closest town (Damxung) and ~125 km to the northwest away from the Lhasa, the capital  
195 city of the Tibet Autonomous Region, China. The region is generally affected by the  
196 typical semi-arid plateau monsoon climate with more precipitation during the summer  
197 monsoon season. The NamCo is the most important site in inland of the TP and  
198 dominated by air mass from south and west.

#### 199 **2.4 Waliguan**

200 The China Global Atmospheric Watch Baseline Observatory, Mount Waliguan Base  
201 (Waliguan; 100.9°E, 36.28°N; 3816 m a.s.l) is situated at the top of the Mt. Waliguan  
202 (mountain height of ~600 m). The observatory is one of the twenty-nine baseline  
203 stations of Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) of the World Meteorological  
204 Organization (WMO) and has become an important platform for monitoring the global  
205 background conditions of atmospheric environment and chemistry since 1994. The Mt.  
206 Waliguan is situated ~30 km to the east of the Gonghe county and ~90 km to the  
207 southwest away from the capital city (Xining) of Qinghai Province, China. The Mt.  
208 Waliguan is also a relatively pristine region with little influence from human activities.  
209 The Waliguan is an important observatory in the northeast edge of the TP and dominated  
210 by air mass from northeast during the summer season, which makes it an ideal site to  
211 study the influence of air pollutants from the industrial areas in the northwestern China  
212 to the TP.

#### 213 **2.5 LHG**

214 The Qilian Observation and Research Station of Cryosphere and Ecologic Environment,  
215 Chinese Academy of Sciences (39.50°N, 96.51°E; 4180 m a.s.l) is built near the  
216 terminus (~1 km) of the Laohugou Glacier No.12. This glacier is the largest valley  
217 glacier in the Laohugou glacier group that situated on the northern slope of the western  
218 Qilian Mountains in the northeast part of the TP. Therefore, this station is referred to as  
219 LHG for short in this study. The climate in this region is a typically arid and continental  
220 climate and dominated by the East-Asian monsoon in the summer and Westerlies in the



221 winter. The precipitation is mainly occurred from May to September, accounting for  
222 65–80% of the whole year. The closest major village is located ~60 km to the northwest  
223 with a population of ~1000 while the closest city (Yumen) is approximately 100 km to  
224 the north of the station with a population of ~140,000. Overall, the LHG is another  
225 representative station in the northeastern TP and significantly isolated from the human  
226 living areas, and therefore, is also well suited for sampling the background air mass and  
227 studying the transport mechanisms and potential impacts of air pollutants from its  
228 surrounding regions.

## 229 **2.6 Bayanbulak**

230 The Bayanbulak National Basic Meteorological Station (Bayanbulak; 84.35° N, 42.83°  
231 E; 2454 m a.s.l) is located in the Bayanbulak grassland at the northwest of Hejing county,  
232 Bayingol Mongolian Autonomous Prefecture, Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region,  
233 China, which is the boundary area of the northern and southern Xinjiang. The grassland  
234 is situated in an intermontane basin in the central Tianshan Mountains and surrounded  
235 by numerous snow mountains with altitudes more than 3000 m. The Bayanbulak  
236 grassland is a typical mountain meadow grassland and one of the most important animal  
237 husbandry bases in Xinjiang. In addition, the Bayanbulak grassland is also an ideal  
238 breeding habitat for wild animals due to the minor influence from anthropogenic  
239 activities. The climate in Bayanbulak grassland belongs to the typical temperate  
240 continental mountain climate with annual average precipitation of ~200–300 mm. The  
241 Bayanbulak town is approximately 300 km away from the Korla city, the second largest  
242 city in Xinjiang. The town has limited human activities and traffic transportation.  
243 Therefore, this site is also a typical remote site for monitoring the background condition  
244 of atmospheric aerosols.

## 245 **2.7 Lhasa**

246 Lhasa (29.65°N, 91.03°E; 3650 m a.s.l) is the capital city of the Tibet Autonomous  
247 Region, China that located in the south-central part of the TP. The city lies in a flat river  
248 valley with the surrounding mountains reaching 5500 m a.s.l. and the Lhasa River  
249 passing through the city from west to east. Lhasa has a continental monsoon climate  
250 with dry and frosty winter but wet and warm summer. Affected by the high altitude and  
251 the dominant downdraft, Lhasa has sunny weather all year round and therefore has been  
252 called as the “sunlit city” due to the strong solar radiation. The observation site in Lhasa



253 is located in the Binhe Park near the Lhasa River. The Norbulingka scenic area, one of  
254 the main activity center for local Tibetans to celebrate their religious festivals (e.g., the  
255 Sho Dun festival), is located ~1 km to the northwest of the sampling site, while the  
256 Potala Palace, the center of Tibetan Buddhism, is ~1.8 km to the northeast. Besides, the  
257 Jinzhu East Road, an arterial road in Lhasa with relatively large traffic flow is only 100  
258 m away from the north of the site. Since the unique energy structure and different  
259 residential habit in Lhasa comparing with those remote sites, a comparative observation  
260 is conducted in this urban site for studying the primary aerosol properties and sources  
261 from various residential combustion activities.

### 262 **3 Online sampling, instrumental setup, and data processing**

#### 263 **3.1 Online real-time aerosol sampling over the TP**

264 The online-based observation of atmospheric aerosols was carried out using a series of  
265 real-time high-resolution instruments at each site, usually including a HR-ToF-AMS  
266 (Aerodyne Research Inc., Billerica, MA, USA) for acquiring the chemical compositions  
267 (organic aerosol (OA), nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, and chloride) of non-refractory  
268 submicron aerosol (PM<sub>1</sub>), a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS, model 3936, TSI  
269 Inc., Shoreview, MN, USA) for acquiring the size distribution of number concentration  
270 of submicron particles, a photoacoustic extinctions (PAX, DMT Inc., Boulder, CO,  
271 USA) for acquiring the particle light absorption, scattering, and extinction coefficients  
272 ( $B_{abs}$ ,  $B_{scat}$ , and  $B_{ext}$ ) and single scattering albedo (SSA) at 405 nm as well as the mass  
273 concentration of BC, an Aethalometer (model AE33/AE31, Magee Scientific Corp.,  
274 Berkeley, CA, USA) for acquiring the  $B_{abs}$  at seven fixed wavelengths (i.e., 370, 470,  
275 520, 590, 660, 880, and 950 nm), and a cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) counter  
276 (model CCN-100, DMT Inc., Boulder, CO, USA) for acquiring the CCN number  
277 concentration at different supersaturation ( $SS$ ) of water vapor. In addition, the  
278 concentrations of gaseous pollutants including the carbon monoxide (CO), ozone (O<sub>3</sub>),  
279 sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), nitric oxide (NO), nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), and nitrogen oxides  
280 (NO<sub>x</sub>) were measured using a suite of gas analyzers (models EC9830/9850/9810/9841,  
281 Acoem Ecotech Inc., Knoxfield, VIC, Australia), whereas the concentration of carbon  
282 dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) was acquired by a CO<sub>2</sub> sensor (model 840A, LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE,  
283 USA). The specific instrumental deployment and sampling period during each  
284 observation campaign is summarized in Table 1.

285 As the core instrument for the observation of atmospheric aerosol chemistry in this



286 study, HR-ToF-AMS was deployed during all the campaigns, while SMPS at QOMS,  
287 Motuo, LHG, and Lhasa, PAX at QOMS, Motuo, Waliguan, and Lhasa, Aethalometer  
288 at QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan, CNN-100 at Motuo and Waliguan, and Gas analyzers  
289 at Motuo and Lhasa, respectively. The observations in the central or southern TP regions  
290 were mainly conducted during the pre-monsoon periods, such as 12 April to 12 May at  
291 QOMS, 26 March to 22 May at Motuo, and 31 May to 1 July at NamCo, aiming to  
292 study the transboundary transport of atmospheric pollutants from those polluted regions  
293 in South Asia to the inland of the TP. Whereas measurements in those remote regions  
294 in the northern TP and its surroundings were performed during summer, i.e., 1 to 31  
295 July at Waliguan, 4 to 29 August at LHG, and 29 August to 26 September at Bayanbulak,  
296 respectively, for monitoring the aerosols transported from the surrounding polluted  
297 regions under the enhanced East Asian monsoon. The observation at Lhasa was  
298 conducted between 31 August and 26 September in consideration of the strongest  
299 atmospheric oxidation capability during the summer.

### 300 **3.2 Instrumental setup**

301 In spite of the observation instruments are somewhat different during each campaign,  
302 the instrumental sampling settings are generally similar. Figure 1b shows the basic  
303 sampling setup of instruments during the online aerosol observations. All instruments  
304 were generally placed in an air-conditioned room or trailer. The indoor temperature was  
305 generally maintained at  $\sim 18^{\circ}\text{C}$  to ensure the observation performance of instruments  
306 and vacuum pumps. The ambient aerosols were firstly sampled into a fine particle  
307 cyclone (model URG-2000-30EH, URG Corp., Chapel Hill, NC, USA) to remove those  
308 particles with aerodynamic diameter ( $D_{va}$ ) above  $2.5\ \mu\text{m}$ . Then, fine particles were  
309 introduced into a diffusion silica gel dryer or a Nafion dryer through 0.5-inch stainless  
310 steel tubes to dry the airflows. Finally, particles were sampled into a series of online  
311 instruments for the real-time measurements. In order to match a good efficiency in size  
312 cut for the fine particle cyclone, an external vacuum pump was also equipped in the  
313 sampling system for discharging the excess sampling flow. Detailed description of the  
314 instrumental setups can be found in previous publications (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al.,  
315 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2022).

### 316 **3.3 Instrumental operation and data processing**

#### 317 **3.3.1 HR-ToF-AMS operation**



318 The HR-ToF-AMS is one of the most advanced instruments that widely used for the  
319 study of atmospheric aerosol chemistry worldwide. The detailed principle of HR-ToF-  
320 AMS can be obtained elsewhere (DeCarlo et al., 2006). The HR-ToF-AMS is mainly  
321 composed by three different sections that separated by small apertures and differentially  
322 pumped, i.e., a particle beam generation section to form a concentrated and narrow  
323 particle beam through a critical orifice and a six-stage aerodynamic lens, a particle-  
324 sizing chamber to measure the particle aerodynamic sizes through a particle time-of-  
325 flight measurement (different velocities and arrival times for size-dependent particles  
326 in a known flight distance), and a particle chemical composition detection section to  
327 directly vaporize the particle beam at a  $\sim 600$  °C resistively heated surface, ionize the  
328 particles into positively charged ion fragments by a 70 eV electron impact, and then  
329 detect their chemical composition by a high-resolution mass spectrometer (Jimenez et  
330 al., 2003). There are two different operation modes in HR-ToF-AMS, i.e., V-mode  
331 (detection limits of about  $10 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ ) and W-mode ( $\sim 5000 \text{ m}/\Delta\text{m}$ ) with different signal-  
332 to-noise ratio (S/N). However, the HR-ToF-AMSs were only operated at the V-mode  
333 during almost all the seven field campaigns in consideration of the relatively low  
334 aerosol mass concentration level and low S/N ratio over the TP. The mass concentration  
335 and size distribution of non-refractory  $\text{PM}_{10}$  chemical species were obtained by further  
336 switching the instrument between mass spectrum (MS) mode and particle time-of-flight  
337 (PToF) mode every 15s under the V-mode operation. However, there are no observation  
338 of particle sizes during the NamCo and LHG measurements due to the malfunction of  
339 the chopper. In addition, the HR-ToF-AMS need to be calibrated for its flow, ionization  
340 efficiency (IE), and sizes at the beginning and end of each observation (Jayne et al.,  
341 2000). The relative IE (RIE) of ammonium and sulfate were calibrated using the mono-  
342 dispersed pure ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulfate particles, respectively, with  
343 the selected sizes of 200–300 nm, while the particle size was calibrated using the mono-  
344 dispersed ammonium nitrate particles with sizes varied from 60 to 600 nm. Finally,  
345 default RIE values were assumed to be 1.1, 1.3, and 1.4 for nitrate, chloride, and OA,  
346 respectively, during all the field campaigns, while different RIE values were set for  
347 ammonium and sulfate according to their calibration results during each campaign, e.g.,  
348 3.9 and 4.2 for ammonium and 1.6 and 1.4 for sulfate based on two calibrations in the  
349 QOMS measurement.

### 350 3.3.2 HR-ToF-AMS data processing



351 The HR-ToF-AMS data was processed using the standard data analysis software with  
352 SQUIRREL and PIKA toolkits written in Igor Pro (Wavemetrics Inc., Lake Oswego,  
353 OR, USA). The SQUIRREL used a fragmentation table to apportion the measured  
354 signals at each mass-to-charge ratio ( $m/z$ ) into different species to quantify the chemical  
355 composition of non-refractory  $PM_{10}$  species, while the PIKA employed a modified  
356 Gaussian fitting algorithm to obtain the ion-speciated high-resolution mass spectra  
357 (HRMS) and elemental composition of OA (Allan et al., 2004; DeCarlo et al., 2006).  
358 The elemental ratios of OA, i.e., oxygen-to-carbon (O/C), hydrogen-to-carbon (H/C),  
359 organic matter-to-organic carbon (OM/OC), and nitrogen-to-carbon (N/C), were  
360 determined using the improved method (Canagaratna et al., 2015) during all the seven  
361 observation campaigns. In addition, a collection efficiency (CE) was generally  
362 introduced to compensate for the incomplete transmission and detection of particles  
363 through the aerodynamic lens and bouncing at the vaporizer surface in most AMS  
364 studies. Previous study has revealed that the CE is significantly influenced by the  
365 relative humidity (RH) in sampling line and the acidity and ammonium nitrate mass  
366 fraction (ANMF) in the sampled aerosols, which has been concluded as a build-in  
367 composition-dependent CE (CDCE) algorithm in the standard data processing software  
368 (Middlebrook et al., 2012). Generally, a high RH, a high aerosol acidity, or a high  
369 ANMF often corresponds to a high CE value. However, the RH in the sampling system  
370 is always maintained below 40% due to the professional deployments of dryers in the  
371 front of the sampling system and the ANMF is basically below 0.4 due to the low  
372 contributions of nitrate and ammonium during all the seven observation campaigns (see  
373 Sect. 4.1 for detail), which means the negligible effects of these two parameters on CE  
374 in our study. Therefore, default CE value of 0.5 were finally employed during the  
375 QOMS, NamCo, Waliguan, and Lhasa campaigns in consideration of their overall  
376 neutralized or slightly acidic aerosols, whereas the CDCE values were adopted at  
377 Motuo, LHG, and Bayanbulak where bulk submicron aerosols were acidic (see Sect.  
378 4.2 for detail).

### 379 **3.3.3 OA source apportionment using PMF analysis**

380 Source apportionment of OA during each observation was conducted by the positive  
381 matrix factorization (PMF) analysis on organic matrix data using the PMF2.exe  
382 algorithm in robust mode (Paatero and Tapper, 1994) and the standard PMF Evaluation  
383 Tool (PET, Ulbrich et al., 2009) written in Igor Pro software. The PMF analysis was



384 evaluated thoroughly according to the standard procedures outlined in Zhang et al.  
385 (2011) by down-weighting, modifying, or removing some ion fragments in the data and  
386 error matrices. Firstly, those ions at  $m/z > 120$  and all the isotope ions were generally  
387 excluded because of the insufficient ability to resolve the deconvolution due to their  
388 low signals. Then, the signals of the four organic ions of  $O^+$ ,  $HO^+$ ,  $H_2O^+$ , and  $CO^+$  were  
389 scaled to that of  $CO_2^+$  according to the suggested fragmentation table in Aiken et al.  
390 (2008) and further down-weighted in PMF analysis. Thirdly, all those “bad” ions ( $S/N$   
391  $< 0.2$ ) were removed from the data matrices, while all the “weak” ions ( $0.2 < S/N < 2$ )  
392 were downweighted by increasing their errors. In addition, some runs and some ions  
393 which had obviously huge residual spikes were also removed in order to avoid their  
394 unnecessary interference. After the above pre-processing, the PMF solutions were  
395 investigated by selecting a certain variation range of factor number and rotational  
396 parameter ( $f_{Peak}$ ), e.g., 1–6 factors with  $f_{Peak}$  varying from  $-1$  to  $1$ . Finally, the optimal  
397 solution of PMF analysis were determined after a comprehensive evaluation by  
398 examining the model residuals at each  $m/z$  and each time, comparing the factor mass  
399 spectrum with corresponding reference spectrum, comparing the temporal variation of  
400 individual factor with external tracers, and analyzing the diurnal variation pattern of  
401 each factor. Totally, 2-, 3-, or 4-factor solution were selected during the different field  
402 campaigns in this study as discussed in Sect. 4.6.

### 403 **3.3.4 Operation and data processing of other instruments**

404 The operation principles and data processing methods of other online instruments are  
405 described briefly as follows. The SMPS is composed by an electrostatic classifier (EC,  
406 model 3080) equipped with a long-differential mobility analyzer (long-DMA, model  
407 3081) and a condensed particle counter (CPC, model 3772). Ambient particles are  
408 measured through an electrical mobility detection technique in this instrument, e.g., a  
409 bipolar charger in the EC is utilized to charge the particles to a known charge  
410 distribution, then classify them according to their ability to traverse an electrical field  
411 in the long-DMA, and finally count those screened monodisperse particles by the CPC.  
412 The sample and sheath flow rates are  $0.3$  and  $3.0 \text{ L min}^{-1}$ , respectively, at both QOMS  
413 and Lhasa which measure particles between  $14.6$  and  $661.2 \text{ nm}$  in mobility diameter  
414 ( $D_m$ ), whereas the sample and sheath flow rates are  $0.5$  and  $5.0 \text{ L min}^{-1}$  at LHG and  
415 Motuo and sample particles at a size range of  $10.9$ – $495.8 \text{ nm}$  in  $D_m$ . The number  
416 concentrations of submicron particles in 107 different size channels are firstly recorded



417 at an initial time resolution of 5 min and then converted to the total number and volume  
418 concentrations according to the obtained size distribution of number concentration. The  
419 PAX directly measures the  $B_{abs}$  and  $B_{scat}$  of aerosol particles at 405 nm by using a  
420 modulated diode laser, namely measures the  $B_{abs}$  by an in-situ photoacoustic technique  
421 while the  $B_{scat}$  using a wide-angle integrating reciprocal nephelometer. The  $B_{ext}$  is the  
422 sum of  $B_{abs}$  and  $B_{scat}$  while the SSA is calculated as the ratio of  $B_{scat}$  to  $B_{ext}$ . The BC  
423 mass concentration is calculated as the ratio of measured  $B_{abs}$  to a fixed BC mass  
424 absorption cross-section (MAC) value of  $10.19 \text{ m}^2\text{g}^{-1}$  at 405 nm. In addition, the  $B_{scat}$   
425 is calibrated using the high-concentration ammonium sulfate particles generated by the  
426 aerosol generator, while the  $B_{abs}$  is calibrated using the sufficient black smoke from a  
427 kerosene lamp before each field campaign according to the operator manual of this  
428 instrument. The Aethalometer is used to measure the particle  $B_{abs}$  at seven wavelengths  
429 (370–950 nm), which firstly measures the light attenuation between particle-laden and  
430 particle-free sample spots on the filter and finally converts the attenuation to particle  
431  $B_{abs}$  in ambient air. The filter-based loading effect and multiple scattering effect are  
432 corrected during all the three observations to eliminate the difference between the light  
433 attenuation measured at the filter and the ambient particle  $B_{abs}$ . The absorption  
434 Ångström exponents (AAE) value is acquired through a power-law fitting of  $B_{abs}$   
435 following the typical Beer-Lambert's law, i.e.,  $AAE = \ln(B_{abs,\lambda_1}/B_{abs,\lambda_2})/\ln(\lambda_2/\lambda_1)$ .  
436 Furthermore, a traditional AAE method was adopted to quantitatively apportion the  
437 total  $B_{abs}$  into two parts from BC and BrC ( $B_{abs,BC}$  and  $B_{abs,BrC}$ ) at 370–660 nm during  
438 each campaign. The contribution of BrC to total  $B_{abs}$  ( $fB_{abs,BrC}$ ) at a short wavelength  $\lambda$   
439 is calculated as  $fB_{abs,BrC,\lambda} = 1 - (B_{abs,880}/B_{abs,\lambda}) \times (\lambda/880)^{-AAE_{BC}}$  by assuming its  
440 negligible contribution at 880 nm. Detailed information about the data correction and  
441 calculation of this instrument can be found in our previous publication (Zhang et al.,  
442 2021). The CCN-100 supersaturates the sampled aerosol particles in a 50-cm-high  
443 column with continuously wetted walls and a longitudinal thermal gradient, so that  
444 those particles grow into detectable CCN particles and are measured using an optical  
445 particle counter among 20 different size bins. The number concentrations of CCN are  
446 measured consecutively at five different  $SS$  values of 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.6%, 0.8%, and  
447 1.0%. The CCN data is recorded every 5 minutes at each  $SS$  and finally has a time  
448 resolution of 30 minutes during a complete measurement cycle. The concentrations of  
449 gaseous pollutants are measured using four familiar Ecotech-series gas analyzers and a



450 LI-COR CO<sub>2</sub> sensor. All the instruments are calibrated for their zero and span points  
451 using the Zero Air Generator and the high-precision standard gases, respectively, before  
452 each observation. The concentrations are generally recorded at 1 second resolutions and  
453 finally convert to hourly scales in this study.

## 454 **4 Aerosol physicochemical and optical properties over the TP**

### 455 **4.1 Aerosol loading and chemical compositions of submicron aerosols**

456 An overview of the high-time-resolution temporal variations of PM<sub>1</sub> chemical species  
457 (OA, nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, chloride, and BC) during the seven observations in  
458 the TP and its surroundings is shown in Fig. 2. Normally, mass concentrations of PM<sub>1</sub>  
459 and its chemical species varied dynamically, with high mass loading period and low  
460 mass loading period appeared alternatively throughout the sampling period of each  
461 campaign. Although the sampling years (2015–2021), seasons (March–September),  
462 and altitudes (1350–4730 m a.s.l.) of these sites were different, the significantly distinct  
463 PM<sub>1</sub> mass and chemical compositions could basically reflect the regional difference of  
464 aerosol mass levels, properties, and sources at different regions. On average, the mass  
465 concentration of total PM<sub>1</sub> among the seven campaigns ranged from 1.9 to 9.1 μg m<sup>-3</sup>  
466 (Fig. 3 and Table 2). The maximum PM<sub>1</sub> mass was observed at Waliguan due to the  
467 transport of industrial aerosols and gaseous pollutants from those urban areas in  
468 northwestern China, whereas the minimum value was measured at Bayanbulak due to  
469 its background condition. The average PM<sub>1</sub> mass level in the TP and its surroundings  
470 was comparable to the values observed at various high-altitude, coastal, forest, and  
471 remote background sites worldwide (0.46–15.1 μg m<sup>-3</sup>; Table 3), but was significantly  
472 lower than those observed at abundant urban (34.4–71.5 μg m<sup>-3</sup>) and suburban  
473 (21.4–44.9 μg m<sup>-3</sup>) sites in other regions of China (Li et al., 2017), suggesting the  
474 essentially clean nature of atmosphere condition in the Third Pole region.

475 More importantly, the chemical compositions of PM<sub>1</sub> showed significantly regional  
476 difference (Fig. 3), hinting the distinct aerosol sources at different TP regions. OA and  
477 BC, the two dominant components from biomass burning activities (Bond et al., 2004),  
478 together contributed more than 69.1–85.7% of the total PM<sub>1</sub> mass at the four sites of  
479 QOMS, Motuo, NamCo, and Lhasa in the southern or central TP (Table 2). These high  
480 contributions were mainly attributed to the frequent transport of biomass-burning-  
481 related emissions from those polluted regions in South and Southeast Asia to the remote  
482 sites of TP during the pre-monsoon season (Bonasoni et al., 2010; Cong et al., 2015;



483 Zhang et al., 2018) or the intense local biomass burning activities in the Lhasa site (Cui  
484 et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2022). On the contrary, contributions of the three inorganic  
485 species (i.e., sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium; SNA) to total  $PM_{10}$  were more than 60%  
486 at the three northern sites of Waliguan, LHG, and Bayanbulak. The most dominant  
487 contributions of SNA species were from the sulfate (38.1–46.0%), which were  
488 consistent with the results observed at another high-altitude site in the northeastern TP  
489 (Menyuan; 28%) and other rural and remote sites (19–64%) in East Asia due to the  
490 regional transported sources (Du et al., 2015). The high contributions of SNA,  
491 particularly the sulfate, in the northern TP and its surroundings were mainly related to  
492 the regional transport of anthropogenic aerosols and gaseous precursor emissions from  
493 those industrial urban areas in the northwest of China and the possibly important in-  
494 cloud aqueous reactions at the mountains (Zhang et al., 2019).

#### 495 **4.2 The bulk acidity of submicron aerosols**

496 Particle phase acidity is an important parameter of aerosol physicochemical properties,  
497 which have significant impacts on the hygroscopic growth, toxicity, and heterogeneous  
498 reactions of aerosol particles, however, is still difficult to be determined directly using  
499 the online measurement. Bulk acidity of submicron aerosols from the Aerodyne AMS  
500 measurement was generally evaluated following the methods in Zhang et al. (2007b)  
501 and Schueneman et al. (2021). The mass concentration of ammonium was firstly  
502 predicted by assuming to fully neutralize these measured sulfate, nitrate, and chloride,  
503 i.e.,  $NH_4^+_{\text{Predicted}} = 18 \times (2 \times SO_4^{2-}/96 + NO_3^-/62 + Cl^-/35.5)$ . The mass concentration  
504 ratio of measured ammonium to predicted ammonium ( $NH_4^+_{\text{Measured}}/NH_4^+_{\text{Predicted}}$ ) was  
505 further calculated to be a good indicator to evaluate the bulk acidity of submicron  
506 aerosols. Aerosol particles are generally considered to be “acidic” if the calculated ratio  
507 is lower than 1 and to be “more acidic” if the ratio is lower than 0.75, whereas a ratio  
508 that roughly near to 1 or larger than 1 indicates the particles are “bulk neutralized” and  
509 even there are more excess ammonium that needed to be neutralized. Note that the  
510 validity of using this method is based on the assumption that the influence from  
511 nitrogen- or sulfur-containing organic ions (e.g., organic acids and organic nitrogen  
512 compounds) as well as the mineral and metal ions are negligible (Zhang et al., 2007b).

513 The bulk acidity of submicron aerosols in the different TP regions was evaluated by  
514 performing the linear regression analysis between the mass concentrations of measured  
515 and predicted ammonium during the seven campaigns (Fig. 4). Obviously, bulk acidity



516 of submicron aerosols showed obviously regional difference between the southern and  
517 northern TP regions, mainly attributed to their different aerosol sources. The regression  
518 slopes were fitted to be 1.2, 1.11, and 1.18 at the three sites of QOMS, NamCo, and  
519 Lhasa that located in the southern or central TP, indicating the submicron aerosol  
520 particles at the three sites were generally neutralized and even excesses of ammonium.  
521 The result was consistent with the previous finding that high availability of ammonia  
522 were monitored from agriculture emissions in the South Asia (Van Damme et al., 2015).  
523 In addition, as the findings in our previous publications, atmospheric aerosols at QOMS  
524 and NamCo were significantly influenced by the transport of biomass-burning-related  
525 emissions from South and Southeast Asia during the pre-monsoon season (Xu et al.,  
526 2018; Zhang et al., 2018), while various biomass fuels were burned intensely during  
527 those frequent religious festivals in the Lhasa urban areas (Zhao et al., 2022).  
528 Differently, the submicron particles were overall acidic with regression slopes between  
529 0.73 and 0.86 at the rest four sites, especially in the two northern TP sites (LHG and  
530 Bayanbulak) where sulfate contributed significantly to total  $PM_{10}$  (46.0% and 41.6%).  
531 Similar acidic submicron aerosol particles have also been observed at Menyuan and  
532 LHG in the northern TP in previous studies (Du et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015), mainly  
533 related to the transport of the enriched SNA species or their gaseous precursors from  
534 the industrial areas in northwestern China to the remote regions in the northern TP.

#### 535 **4.3 Size distribution of $PM_{10}$ chemical species**

536 The size distributions of non-refractory  $PM_{10}$  chemical species were analyzed through  
537 the PToF measurement in HR-ToF-AMS, which were helpful for the understanding of  
538 aerosol sources, oxidation degrees, mixing states, formation, transformation, and  
539 growth mechanisms as well as their impacts on the CCN activity. Normally, size  
540 distributions were peaked at accumulation mode (e.g., ~400–600 nm in  $D_{va}$ ) for those  
541 SNA species and oxidized OA components as a result of their secondary formation,  
542 whereas fresh organics from primary emission sources like traffic exhausts, cooking,  
543 and coal combustion generally had an additional mass distribution shifting to smaller  
544 sizes (Zhang et al., 2005b; Aiken et al., 2009). Considering the overall dominant mass  
545 contributions and complex atmospheric sources, only organics was selected to  
546 demonstrate the regional difference in size distribution in the different TP regions in  
547 this study. As shown in Fig. 5a and Table 2, the peak diameters in the size distribution  
548 of OA mass concentrations varied significantly from 510 nm at QOMS to a smaller size



549 of 228 nm at Lhasa, suggesting the distinctly different sources and aging processes of  
550 atmospheric aerosols in different TP regions. For example, OA has been reported to be  
551 internally well-mixed and aged at QOMS due to the long-range transport aerosol  
552 sources of biomass-burning-related emissions from South Asia, whereas local primary  
553 sources including cooking, traffic exhausts, and biomass burning together contributed  
554 more than 60% of the total OA at the urban site in Lhasa (Zhang et al., 2018; Zhao et  
555 al., 2022). The crucial influence of aerosol sources to size distributions has further been  
556 confirmed quantitatively in Fig. 5a where the peak diameters in OA size distributions  
557 correlated tightly ( $R^2 = 0.92$ ) with the O/C ratios of OA.

#### 558 **4.4 Diurnal variation of PM<sub>1</sub> chemical species**

559 Diurnal variations of PM<sub>1</sub> chemical compositions are usually influenced by multiple  
560 factors, including the variations in meteorological conditions (e.g., planetary boundary  
561 layer (PBL) height, wind direction and speed, temperature, RH, etc.), different primary  
562 emission sources (e.g., intense vehicle exhausts during traffic rush hours, cooking  
563 emissions, and coal combustion emissions from heating activities), and distinct  
564 formation mechanisms (e.g., daytime photochemical oxidation processes, nighttime  
565 heterogeneous reactions, and gas-particle partitioning of secondary species). Therefore,  
566 a comprehensive understanding of the diurnal variation characteristics of different  
567 aerosol chemical compositions is not only beneficial to investigate of their dynamic  
568 evolution processes but also helpful to understand the key factors (source, meteorology,  
569 or secondary formation) that dominated the variations of different chemical species.  
570 Obviously, different diurnal variation patterns of the total PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentrations  
571 were observed during the different field campaigns (Fig. 5b). The diurnal variations at  
572 those remote sites (e.g., QOMS, LHG, NamCo, and Waliguan) located in the valley or  
573 at the top of the mountains were mostly controlled by the circulation of mountain-valley  
574 wind and the variation of PBL height during the whole day. A clear diurnal pattern with  
575 continuously decreasing concentrations during the daytime but relatively high  
576 concentrations at night was observed at QOMS. The minimum mass occurred at around  
577 ~15:00 in this valley site, mainly related to the strong down-slope glacier winds with  
578 high wind speed and enhanced PBL height in the afternoon (Zhang et al., 2018).  
579 Inversely, lower PM<sub>1</sub> mass from night to early morning whereas continuously  
580 increasing concentrations during the afternoon were observed at LHG and NamCo sites.  
581 The high mass concentrations in the afternoon at LHG were tightly associated with the



582 transport of aerosols advected by the prevailing up-slope winds during that time.  
583 However, high concentration in the afternoon at NamCo might be influenced by the  
584 downward transmission of aerosols from the higher layer to ground surface and the  
585 enhanced aerosol plume transport from those relatively polluted western regions during  
586 afternoon (Xu et al., 2018). A relatively complex diurnal variation pattern of total PM<sub>1</sub>  
587 was observed at the top of Mt. Waliguan, which might be attributed to the common  
588 result of the variabilities in diffusion conditions (e.g., PBL height), wind directions (e.g.,  
589 mountain-valley wind circulation), and air mass sources (e.g., enhanced air mass from  
590 northeast during the afternoon favored the transport of polluted aerosols from those  
591 industrial areas) (Zhang et al., 2019). The diurnal variation of PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentration  
592 was relatively stable at Motuo besides the two weak peaks in the late morning and  
593 evening that possibly related to the combustion emissions of biofuels from local  
594 domestic activities in that county. The PM<sub>1</sub> mass at Bayanbulak was relatively low and  
595 varied stably throughout the entire day due to its dominated background aerosols.  
596 Different with those remote sites, clear diurnal variation pattern with two obviously  
597 sharp peaks around 8:00–9:00 and 20:00–21:00 was found at the urban site in Lhasa,  
598 which could be attributed to those dominated primary aerosol sources from vehicle  
599 exhausts, cooking, and biomass burning emissions during the morning and evening rush  
600 hours (Zhao et al., 2022). Although the diurnal variations of total PM<sub>1</sub> were mainly  
601 affected by the variabilities in mountain-valley wind circulation and PBL height in those  
602 remote sites and primary emissions in the urban site in this study, the daytime  
603 photochemical oxidation and nighttime aqueous-phase reactions were also the two  
604 important formation pathways of secondary inorganic and organic aerosol species. This  
605 could be revealed clearly by those identified oxygenated OA (OOA) components at  
606 almost all the sites, which commonly showed continuously increasing concentration in  
607 the afternoon (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2022).

#### 608 **4.5 High-resolution mass spectrum and elemental ratios of organic aerosol**

609 The OA HRMS and elemental ratios were determined to recognize the possible sources,  
610 formation and evolution mechanisms, oxidation states of these complex OA  
611 components at each site. The average O/C ratios of OAs among the seven field  
612 campaigns were compared directly in boxplot in Fig. 6a. Obviously, the average O/C  
613 ratios of OAs were generally near to or larger than 1.0 at those remote sites of QOMS,  
614 Motuo, NamCo, Waliguan, and LHG, whereas a lower O/C ratio of ~0.69 was measured



615 at Bayanbulak and a more lower O/C ratio of 0.44 was observed at the urban site in  
616 Lhasa. This difference in O/C ratios was mainly attributed to the different OA sources  
617 and aging processes among different sites. As mentioned above, atmospheric aerosols  
618 in those remote sites in the TP were generally related to the long-range transport  
619 aerosols from its surrounding areas, hence the OAs were overall well-mixed and highly  
620 aged during the transport from source region to the TP remote sites (Xu et al., 2018;  
621 Zhang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). However, local fresh OAs emitted from the  
622 residential activities (e.g., cooking, traffic exhausts, and biomass burning) dominated  
623 the total OA at urban Lhasa (Zhao et al., 2022), which finally resulted a relatively low  
624 O/C ratio. This difference could also be found in previous AMS studies in China, e.g.,  
625 higher O/C ratios of 0.98, 1.11, and 1.16 were measured at these remote sites in Mt.  
626 Wuzhi (Zhu et al., 2016), Mt. Yulong (Zheng et al., 2017), and LHG (Xu et al., 2015),  
627 however, O/C ratios of OAs were almost lower than 0.5 at most urban sites (Zhou et al.,  
628 2020). The Van Krevelen diagram (H/C versus O/C), a widely used approach to depict  
629 the changes in the elemental composition of OA stemming from atmospheric aging  
630 processing, was displayed in Figure 6b. An overall slope of  $-0.66$  was observed for the  
631 bulk OAs among the seven field measurement campaigns in our study, which was  
632 comparable to those of  $-0.58$  and  $-0.47$  for different synthesized datasets from diverse  
633 field observations in previous researches (Chen et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2020).

634 The average OA HRMSs between the remote (Waliguan as example in this study) and  
635 urban (Lhasa) sites were further compared directly in Fig. 6c to investigate their  
636 inherent difference in ion-compositions. Obviously, the OA HRMSs were distinctly  
637 different between the two different types of sites.  $m/z$  44 (composed totally by  $\text{CO}_2^+$ ),  
638 one of the most reliable markers of OOA, was the base peak (18%) in the OA HRMS  
639 at Waliguan site. The  $\text{CO}_2^+$  and its related four ions ( $\text{CO}^+$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}^+$ ,  $\text{HO}^+$  and  $\text{O}^+$ )  
640 together contributed more than 41% of the total OA signals. Furthermore, the two  
641 oxygenated ion fragments ( $\text{C}_x\text{H}_y\text{O}_1^+$  and  $\text{C}_x\text{H}_y\text{O}_2^+$ ) contributed as higher as 66% of the  
642 total OA signals, as shown in pie chart in Fig. 6c. All these features demonstrated the  
643 overall highly oxygenated OA nature in those remote background sites in the TP.  
644 Differently, the OA HRMS at Lhasa was remarkably similar to those observed at most  
645 urban cities. The four  $m/z$ s at 43, 55, 57, and 60, which have been regarded as important  
646 mass spectral tracers for less oxidized OA compounds and primary traffic, cooking, and  
647 biomass burning related emissions (Zhang et al., 2005a; Alfarra et al., 2007; He et al.,



648 2010), showed significant contributions to the total OA signals in this urban site.  
649 Comparatively, the ion fragment of  $C_xH_y^+$  contributed as higher as 64.5% of the total  
650 OA signals in Lhasa, whereas the two oxygenated ion fragments contributed only 33.6%.  
651 The high contribution of fresh ion fragments in the OA HRMS in Lhasa was comparable  
652 to those measured at other urban cities, such as 56% and 59% in Lanzhou (Xu et al.,  
653 2014b; Xu et al., 2016), 51.2% in Nanjing (Wang et al., 2016), and 51.2% in New York  
654 (Sun et al., 2011).

#### 655 **4.6 OA components from PMF source apportionment**

656 Source apportionments of OA were performed using the PMF analysis on OA HRMS  
657 data during each aerosol field campaign in this study. Finally, 2–4 factor solutions were  
658 selected during the different field campaigns, as shown in Fig. 7. Due to the extremely  
659 limited local combustion activities but dominated aerosol sources from regional  
660 transport at those remote sites in the TP and its surroundings, only two secondary OOA  
661 factors with different oxidation degrees, i.e., a less oxidized OOA (LO-OOA) and a  
662 more oxidized OOA (MO-OOA), were identified during the NamCo, LHG, and  
663 Bayanbulak campaigns. On average, MO-OOA and LO-OOA, with average O/C ratios  
664 of 0.96 and 0.49, respectively, accounted for 59.0% and 41.0% of the total OA mass  
665 during the NamCo campaign. Comparably, the contributions of MO-OOA (average O/C  
666 of 1.12) and LO-OOA (average O/C of 0.55) to total OA mass were 66.3% and 33.7%  
667 during the Bayanbulak campaign. However, only 24.9% of MO-OOA and as higher as  
668 75.1% of LO-OOA with relatively high O/C ratios of 1.29 and 1.08 were observed  
669 during the LHG campaign. Besides the two OOA factors, biomass-burning-related OA  
670 (BBOA) was another OA component that widely identified in the TP regions. The total  
671 OA mass was composed by 42.4% of MO-OOA, 43.9% of BBOA, and 13.9% of  
672 nitrogen-containing OA (NOA) at QOMS, with average O/C ratios of 1.34, 0.85, and  
673 1.10, respectively. The high O/C ratio and more than half contributions from BBOA  
674 and NOA at QOMS was associated with the prevalent transport of biomass burning  
675 emissions from those polluted regions in South Asia to Himalaya and the inland TP  
676 regions during the pre-monsoon season (Cong et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018; Kang et  
677 al., 2019a). The total OA mass was composed by 34.4% of MO-OOA, 40.4% of  
678 relatively aged BBOA (agBBOA), 18.3% of BBOA, and 6.9% of traffic-related  
679 hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) at Waliguan, with average O/C ratios of 1.42, 1.02, 0.69,  
680 and 0.33, respectively. The two BBOA components (particularly agBBOA) also showed



681 enhanced contribution to total OA with the increasing OA mass concentration, e.g.,  
682 significantly increased contribution from only ~10% to as high as 70% when OA mass  
683 varied from  $<1.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to  $7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Zhang et al., 2019). In addition, source analysis  
684 has revealed that high contributions of the two BBOA components at Waliguan were  
685 associated with the regional transport of biomass burning emissions from the residential  
686 areas in northeastern Waliguan (Zhang et al., 2019). The total OA mass was composed  
687 by 36.9% of MO-OOA, 46.9% of LO-OOA, and 16.2% of BBOA at Motuo, with  
688 average O/C ratios of 1.30, 1.11, and 0.25, respectively. Comparatively, the BBOA  
689 factor at Motuo has relatively lower mass contribution and O/C ratio than those  
690 observed at QOMS and Waliguan, suggested that there was also weak local source from  
691 biofuels combustion around the county in spite of the dominant source was related to  
692 the regional transport. Four OA factors including an OOA component with O/C ratio of  
693 0.54 and three primary OA components, i.e., a BBOA with O/C of 0.13, a cooking-  
694 related OA (COA) with O/C of 0.12, and a HOA with O/C of 0.11, were identified at  
695 the urban site in Lhasa, which were distinctly different with those observed at above  
696 remote sites. The three primary components contributed more than 60% of the total OA  
697 mass at Lhasa, suggesting the abundant primary aerosol sources from cooking, traffic  
698 vehicle exhausts, and biofuel combustion during the residential activities. In addition,  
699 the BBOA contribution increased obviously (up to 36%) during a grand local festival  
700 at Lhasa, suggesting the crucial aerosol source from biomass burning during religious  
701 activities in the city (Zhao et al., 2022). In summary, distinct types of OA components  
702 with different O/C ratios were identified at different sites, indicating the different  
703 oxidation states of OA in the different TP regions, especially between those remote sites  
704 and urban site, due to their distinct aerosol sources.

#### 705 **4.7 Number concentration and size distribution of submicron aerosols**

706 Real-time online measurements of the size distribution of number concentration of  
707 submicron particles were also conducted simultaneously using the SMPS instruments  
708 during four field campaigns. Measurement of the particle number size distribution  
709 (PNSD) was not only an important auxiliary data to calibrate and verify the accuracy  
710 of HR-ToF-AMS data, but also very useful for studying the formation and growth  
711 mechanisms of aerosol particles in the atmosphere. The high-resolution temporal  
712 variations of the PNSDs during the QOMS, Motuo, LHG, and Lhasa campaigns were  
713 displayed in image-plots in Fig. 8a. Obviously, the PNSDs varied dynamically during



714 the entire measurement period at each site and showed distinctly different number  
715 concentration level and size distribution pattern among the four different campaigns.  
716 On average, the total number concentrations were 709.3 and 3994.4  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  for submicron  
717 particles between 14.6 and 661.2 nm in  $D_m$  at QOMS and Lhasa, while 1639.2 and  
718 1462.0  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  for submicron particles between 10.9 and 495.8 nm in  $D_m$  at Motuo and  
719 LHG. It was worth noting that the difference in particle number concentrations were  
720 not consistent with that in mass concentrations measured from the HR-ToF-AMSs  
721 among the four campaigns (Table 2). For example, the  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass concentration at Lhasa  
722 was comparable to that at QOMS (4.7 versus 4.4  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), but the number concentration  
723 at Lhasa was more than five times the latter. This discrepancy may be related to the  
724 distinctly different sizes and oxidation states of particles at different sites. As discussed  
725 above, submicron aerosols at QOMS were overall highly aged due to the dominant  
726 long-range transported sources from the South Asia, whereas more fresh aerosols  
727 emitted from those residential activities like cooking, traffic vehicle exhausts, and  
728 biofuel combustion at Lhasa. The different sizes of submicron aerosols among the  
729 different TP regions could be clearly confirmed by both the peak diameters in the  
730 average size distributions of mass and number concentrations in Fig. 5a and 8b,  
731 respectively. For example, 510.2 and 430.5 nm in  $D_{va}$  for the average OA mass size  
732 distributions and 109.4 and 131.0 nm in  $D_m$  for the average number size distributions  
733 were observed at QOMS and Motuo, respectively, whereas only 228.1 nm in  $D_{va}$  and  
734 28.9 nm in  $D_m$  at Lhasa, correspondingly. Besides the primary emission sources from  
735 various residential combustion activities, the new particle formation (NPF) was another  
736 important source of fresh aerosol particles with small sizes in the global atmosphere  
737 (Kulmala et al., 2017). The NPF event is generally characterized by a rapid burst in  
738 nucleation mode followed by the subsequent growth into larger particles, as indicated  
739 obviously by the typical banana-shaped temporal developments in the PNSD (Dal Maso  
740 et al., 2005). As shown in Fig. 8a, a large number of banana-shaped variation patterns  
741 were observed obviously in the PNSD at Lhasa, suggesting the frequent occurrence of  
742 NPF at this urban region. Totally, 10 NPF events have been observed among all the 27  
743 available days during the Lhasa campaign (Zhao et al., 2022).

#### 744 4.8 Aerosol optical properties and light absorptions from BC and BrC

745 The optical properties of aerosol particles are crucial input parameters for the accurate  
746 estimation of aerosol radiative forcing in climate models, however, there are large



747 uncertainties until now due to the still limited dataset in this remote region. In our  
748 project, the  $B_{scat}$ ,  $B_{abs}$ , and SSA of fine particles at 405 nm were observed during four  
749 of field campaigns, i.e., QOMS, Motuo, Waliguan, and Lhasa, to explore the difference  
750 in aerosol optical properties at different regions. On average, the  $B_{scat}$  and  $B_{abs}$  at 405  
751 nm during the four campaigns were 121.9, 44.9, 36.3, and 2.1  $\text{Mm}^{-1}$  and 10.8, 7.0, 4.1,  
752 and 1.9  $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ , respectively, which finally resulted average SSA values of 0.89, 0.83,  
753 0.86, and 0.52, correspondingly (Fig. 9a and Table 2). The highest  $B_{scat}$ ,  $B_{abs}$ , and SSA  
754 values were all observed at QOMS although the  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass at this site was lower than  
755 those at the other three sites, which might be attributed to the different aerosol chemical  
756 compositions and the enhanced mass scattering and absorbing efficiencies. An  
757 obviously lower SSA at Lhasa compared with those at the other three remote sites  
758 suggested the overall fresh aerosols at the urban area. In contrast, aerosols at the three  
759 remote sites were highly aged, which resulted in significant photobleaching in BrC  
760 chromophores and obvious decrease in their light absorptivity at these sites.

761 In this study, real-time online measurements of particle  $B_{abs}$  at seven fixed wavelengths  
762 were also conducted using an aethalometer at QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan,  
763 respectively, to explore the regional difference in aerosol absorption properties. Overall,  
764 the multi-wavelength  $B_{abs}$  decreased significantly with the increasing wavelength during  
765 all the three measurement campaigns, with different fitted AAE values to be 1.73, 1.28,  
766 and 1.12, respectively (Fig. 9b). The average  $B_{abs}$  at 370 nm was 13.40, 3.25, and 2.66  
767  $\text{Mm}^{-1}$  at the three sites, respectively (Table 2). Comparatively, the  $B_{abs}$  at 370 nm at  
768 QOMS was five times as high as that at Waliguan although its relatively low  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass  
769 was observed, mainly as a result of the higher contribution of light-absorbing aerosol  
770 components in the southern TP regions (e.g., OA and BC together contributed nearly  
771 80% of the total  $\text{PM}_{10}$  at QOMS whereas this contribution decreased to only 37.5% at  
772 Waliguan). The obviously higher AAE at QOMS also suggested the dominant light-  
773 absorbing contribution of BrC or important lensing effect of non-BC materials coated  
774 on BC cores at this site (Zhang et al., 2021). As shown in the inserted plots in Fig. 9b,  
775 although both  $B_{abs,BC}$  and  $B_{abs,BrC}$  decreased significantly with the increasing wavelength,  
776 their contributions to total  $B_{abs}$  ( $fB_{abs,BC}$  and  $fB_{abs,BrC}$ ) varied inversely. BC was the major  
777 light-absorbing component at all the three sites, which contributions to total  $B_{abs}$  at 370  
778 nm were 66.9%, 78.7%, and 77.6% at QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan sites and  
779 increased apparently with the increasing wavelengths (Table 2). BrC showed more



780 important contributions to total  $B_{abs}$  at shorter wavelengths. For example, the averaged  
781  $B_{abs,BrC}$  at 370 nm were 4.42, 0.69, and 0.60  $Mm^{-1}$  at the three sites, respectively, which  
782 finally contributed 33.1%, 21.3%, and 22.4% of the total  $B_{abs}$ , correspondingly. The  
783 significantly higher values of total  $B_{abs}$ ,  $B_{abs,BC}$ , and  $B_{abs,BrC}$  and the higher BrC  
784 contribution in the southern TP region might be related to the important contributions  
785 of light-absorbing carbonaceous aerosols from the transported biomass burning  
786 emissions (Xu et al., 2020, 2022).

#### 787 **4.9 Number concentration of cloud condensation nuclei**

788 Cloud condensation nuclei (CCN), a unique class of atmospheric aerosol particles  
789 which could act as cloud droplets through the condensation of supersaturated water  
790 vapor on those preexisting particles, played important roles in the formation of clouds  
791 and atmospheric precipitation, and furthermore influenced the atmospheric physics and  
792 chemistry, the regional climate, as well as the hydrological cycle (Andreae and  
793 Rosenfeld, 2008). During the TP field campaigns, real-time online measurements of  
794 CCN number concentrations were deployed at the different TP regions (Waliguan and  
795 LHG). Normally, the temporal variation of CCN number concentration showed  
796 consistent variation trend with those of total number concentration from the SMPS  
797 measurement or total  $PM_{10}$  mass concentration from the HR-ToF-AMS measurement  
798 during each campaign. On average, the CCN number concentrations were 507.0, 805.1,  
799 1073.3, 1230.6, and 1336.6  $cm^{-3}$ , respectively, at different  $SS$  values of 0.2%, 0.4%,  
800 0.6%, 0.8%, and 1.0% at Waliguan, while those average values decreased obviously to  
801 83.9, 344.3, 429.9, 480.8, and 516.1  $cm^{-3}$  at LHG, correspondingly (Table 2). The lower  
802 CCN number concentrations at LHG compared with those at Waliguan were consistent  
803 with the relatively lower  $PM_{10}$  mass loading (2.7 vs. 9.1  $\mu g m^{-3}$ ) at the former site. The  
804 CCN number concentrations at the two TP sites were almost an order of magnitude  
805 lower than those observed in the polluted urban atmospheres or direct emissions of  
806 unique combustion smokes, e.g., 12963  $cm^{-3}$  ( $SS = 0.70\%$ ) in Wuqing and 9890  $cm^{-3}$   
807 ( $SS = 0.86\%$ ) in Beijing in the polluted North China Plain (Deng et al., 2011; Gunthe et  
808 al., 2011), 7913  $cm^{-3}$  ( $SS = 0.70\%$ ) at Panyu in the Pearl River Delta, as well as 11565  
809  $cm^{-3}$  ( $SS = 0.87\%$ ) and 10000  $cm^{-3}$  ( $SS = 0.80\%$ ) during unique biomass burning  
810 plumes (Rose et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2020b). However, these values were comparable  
811 to those (228–2150  $cm^{-3}$  with  $SS$  of 0.87%) measured at eight remote marine sites in  
812 the South China Sea and that of 941  $cm^{-3}$  ( $SS = 0.74\%$ ) measured in the amazon rain



813 forest. All these comparisons again suggested the overall clean atmospheric condition  
814 in the TP.

#### 815 **4.10 Concentrations of gaseous pollutants**

816 High-resolution real-time online measurements of the gaseous precursor pollutants,  
817 including the CO<sub>2</sub>, CO, O<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub>, were performed during the two  
818 field campaigns at Lhasa and Motuo. All these gaseous pollutants generally showed  
819 different and interesting temporal variation trends and diurnal variation patterns during  
820 the entire measurement period, reflecting their distinctly different emission sources,  
821 sinks, and transformation mechanisms. Average concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> during the two  
822 campaigns were 416.2 ppm for Lhasa and 382.0 ppm for Motuo, with high  
823 concentrations at night and continuously decreasing concentrations from early morning  
824 to afternoon during both the two campaigns. The decreasing concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> in  
825 the day might be mainly attributed to the daytime consumption of CO<sub>2</sub> by the intense  
826 plant photosynthesis in addition to the favorable dilution conditions related to the  
827 increasing PBL height. The average concentration of CO was 0.47 ppm at Motuo with  
828 relatively stable variations during the entire day due to the possibly limited primary  
829 emission sources at this remote site, while the measurement of CO at Lhasa was not  
830 performed due to the instrumental malfunction. The surface O<sub>3</sub> showed almost inverse  
831 diurnal variation pattern compared with that of CO<sub>2</sub> due to its dominant photochemical  
832 formation pathway during the daytime and finally had average concentrations of 36.7  
833 and 33.5 ppb at Lhasa and Motuo, respectively. The SO<sub>2</sub> generally exhibited relatively  
834 flat diurnal variations compared with the others, with average values of 9.8 and 3.0 ppb,  
835 respectively, during the two campaigns. The average concentrations of NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and  
836 NO<sub>x</sub> were 4.6, 8.7, and 13.3 ppb at Lhasa, which were more than seven times higher  
837 than those at Motuo. Meantime, diurnal variation of the three gaseous pollutants showed  
838 obvious bimodal pattern in the morning and evening at Lhasa, mainly attributed to the  
839 important urban traffic emissions during the corresponding rush hour periods.

#### 840 **5 Data availability**

841 All the high-resolution online measurement datasets of aerosol physical, chemical, and  
842 optical properties over the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings in our observation  
843 project have been released and are available to download from the National Cryosphere  
844 Desert Data Center (<https://doi.org/10.12072/ncdc.NIEER.db2200.2022>; Xu, 2022).



845 The entire datasets are provided in an Excel file with eight worksheets. A brief  
846 description about the dataset including the dataset name, observation stations, sampling  
847 periods, online instruments, and corresponding references is introduced in the first sheet,  
848 while the rest seven sheets presented the high-resolution measurement data from those  
849 online instruments (HR-ToF-AMS, SMPS, PAX, aethalometer, CCN-100, and gas  
850 analyzers) during the seven observation campaigns, respectively.

## 851 **6 Conclusions**

852 The real-time online measurements of aerosol physicochemical and optical properties,  
853 especially the high-resolution size-resolved chemical characteristics and sources of  
854 submicron aerosols, were performed at different sites of the TP and its surroundings by  
855 our research team since 2015. The purpose of carrying out these difficult observational  
856 studies over the TP is aimed to understand the mass concentration level of atmospheric  
857 aerosols in this remote background region and recognize the regional differences on  
858 aerosol sources and physicochemical and optical properties among different TP regions,  
859 which finally provide remarkably valuable data in exactly simulating the radiative  
860 forcing and other potential impacts of atmospheric aerosols in this remote region in  
861 future climatic models.

862 In this paper, a comprehensive high-time-resolution (hourly scale) dataset of aerosol  
863 physical, chemical, and optical properties over the TP and its surroundings based on  
864 multi-years online in-situ observations was presented and discussed. Totally, seven  
865 aerosol field measurements were conducted at QOMS, Motuo, NamCo, Waliguan, LHG,  
866 Bayanbulak, and Lhasa in the different regions of TP and its surroundings by deploying  
867 multiple online instruments such as HR-ToF-AMS, SMPS, PAX, Aethalometer, CCN-  
868 100, and gas analyzers. The related datasets normally presented the temporal and  
869 diurnal variations and size distribution patterns of PM<sub>1</sub> chemical compositions, the  
870 standard high-resolution mass spectra and temporal variations of OA components, the  
871 temporal variations of particle number size distribution, particle light scattering and  
872 absorption coefficients, particle light absorptions from different carbonaceous  
873 substances of BC and BrC, CCN number concentrations at different supersaturation,  
874 and concentrations of gaseous pollutants in each campaign. The datasets are presented  
875 in the form of Excel file and available to download from the National Cryosphere Desert  
876 Data Center.



877 The datasets well elucidated the regional differences in aerosol properties and sources  
878 at the different TP regions. In conclusion, atmospheric aerosols in the southern TP  
879 region generally related to the transported biomass burning emissions from polluted  
880 regions in South Asia, which finally resulted the high mass contributions (>70%) of  
881 carbonaceous aerosols (OA and BC), the overall neutralized PM<sub>1</sub> and even more  
882 excesses of ammonium, as well as the enhanced light absorption capability of the light-  
883 absorbing BC and BrC. Differently, secondary inorganic species (particularly the  
884 sulfate) contributed significantly to total PM<sub>1</sub> in the northern TP regions due to the  
885 regional transport of anthropogenic aerosol and gaseous precursor emissions from those  
886 industrial urban areas in northwestern China. In addition, different with those well-  
887 mixed, highly-aged, and regional transported aerosols in the remote sites, atmospheric  
888 aerosols in the urban Lhasa were mainly emitted from those primary sources like  
889 cooking, traffic vehicle exhausts, and biofuel combustion during the residential  
890 activities, and therefore, those aerosol particles were relatively fresh with small size and  
891 low oxidation degree but high frequency of NPF origins.

## 892 **Appendix A: Main Abbreviations**

TP	Tibetan Plateau
HR-ToF-AMS	high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer
SMPS	scanning mobility particle sizer
PAX	photo-acoustic extinctionsimeter
CCN	cloud condensation nuclei
SS	supersaturation
PM <sub>1</sub>	submicron aerosol
BC	black carbon
BrC	brown carbon
OA	organic aerosol
SNA	sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium
$D_m$	mobility diameter
$D_{va}$	aerodynamic diameter
IE	ionization efficiency
RIE	relative ionization efficiency
CE	collection efficiency
CDCE	composition-dependent collection efficiency
S/N	signal-to-noise ratio
$m/z$	mass-to-charge ratio
HRMS	high-resolution mass spectrum
RH	relative humidity
ANMF	ammonium nitrate mass fraction
PBL	planetary boundary layer
O/C	oxygen-to-carbon ratio
H/C	hydrogen-to-carbon ratio



N/C	nitrogen-to-carbon ratio
OM/OC	organic matter-to-organic carbon ratio
PMF	positive matrix factorization
OOA	oxygenated organic aerosol
LO-OOA	less oxidized oxygenated organic aerosol
MO-OOA	more oxidized oxygenated organic aerosol
BBOA	biomass-burning-related organic aerosol
agBBOA	aged biomass-burning-related organic aerosol
NOA	nitrogen-containing organic aerosol
HOA	traffic-related hydrocarbon-like organic aerosol
COA	cooking-related organic aerosol
PNSD	particle number size distribution
NPF	new particle formation
$B_{scat}$	light scattering coefficient
$B_{abs}$	light absorption coefficient
$B_{ext}$	light extinction coefficient
SSA	single scattering albedo
AAE	absorption Ångström exponents
$B_{abs,BC}$	light absorption coefficient from BC
$B_{abs,BrC}$	light absorption coefficient from BrC

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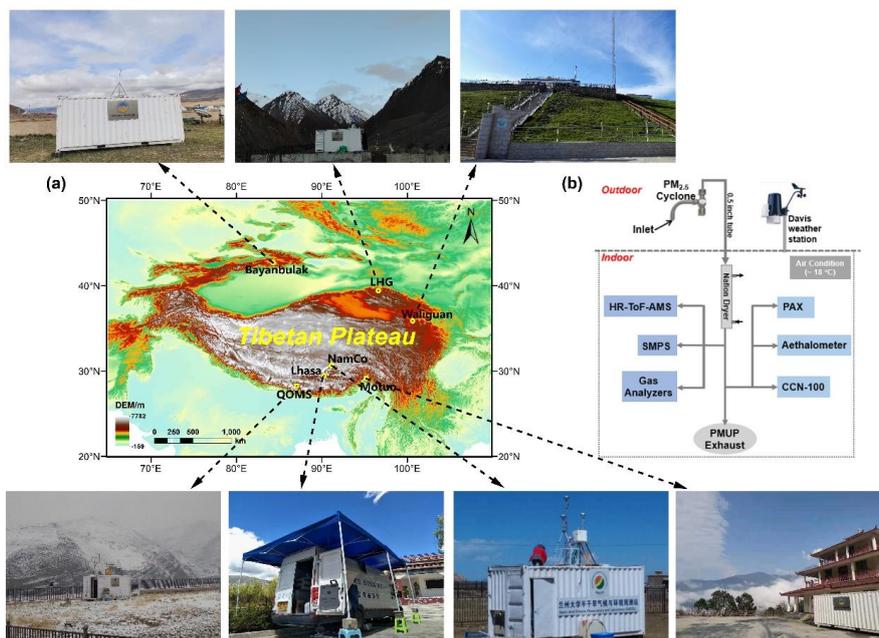
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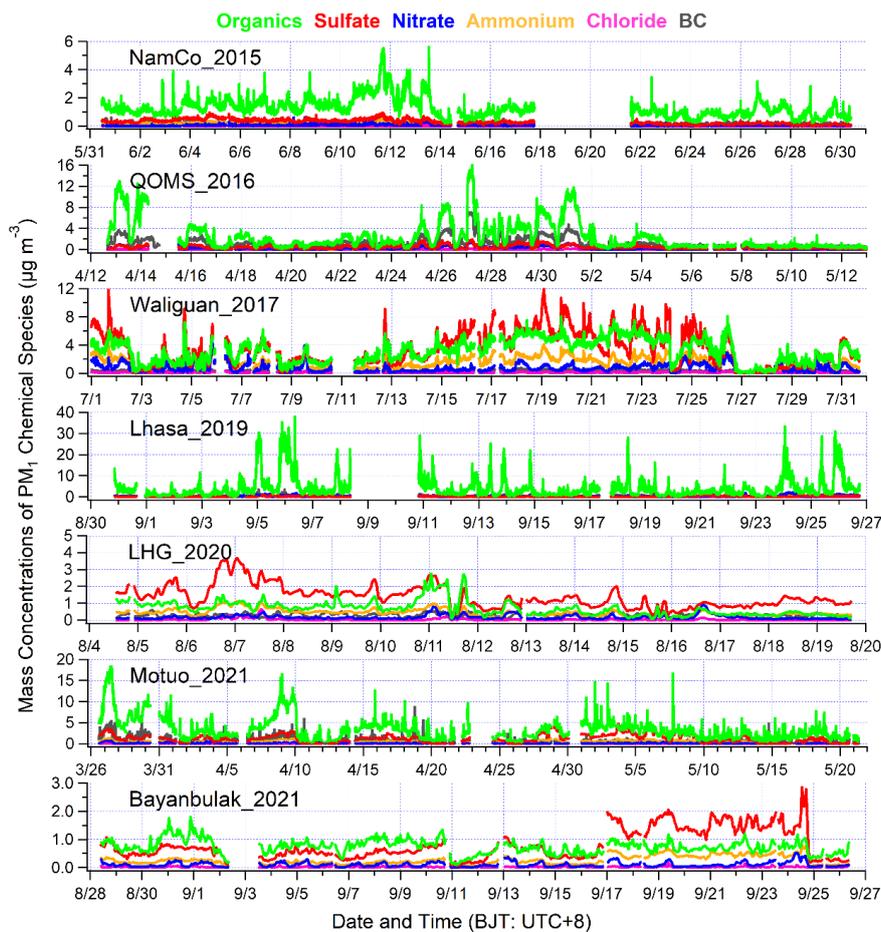
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1242 **Figures**

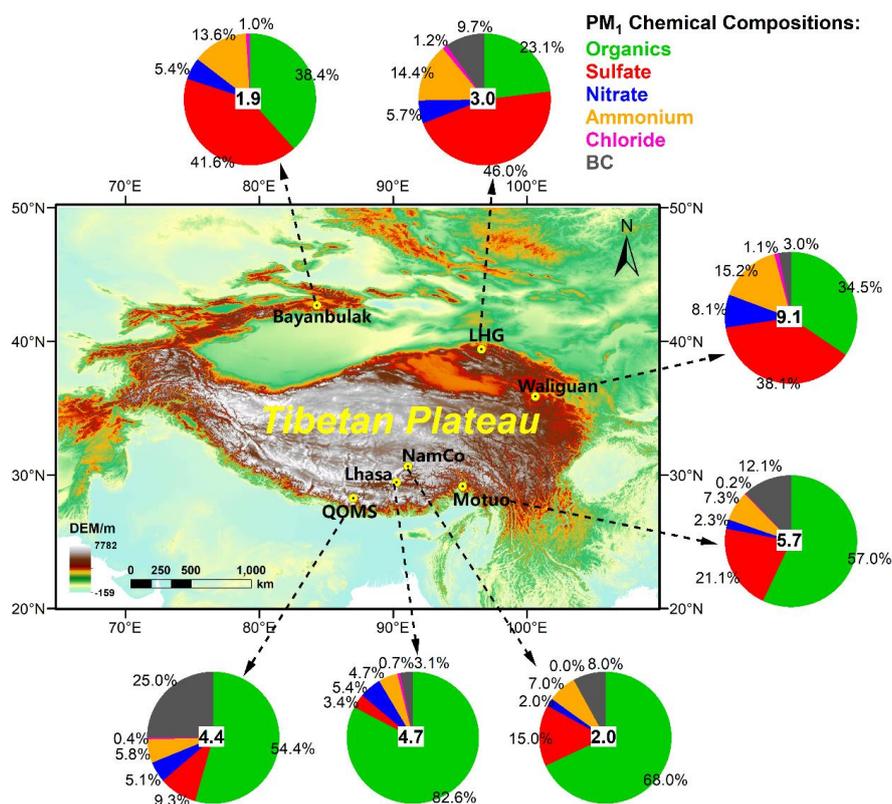


1243  
1244 **Figure 1.** (a) Geographical locations of the observation sites (see Table 1 for full name and  
1245 characteristics of each site) in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings in this study (The map is  
1246 created with ArcGIS). Fieldwork photographs illustrate the real observation conditions and  
1247 surroundings at each site. (b) The normal sampling setups of instruments during the online aerosol  
1248 observations.



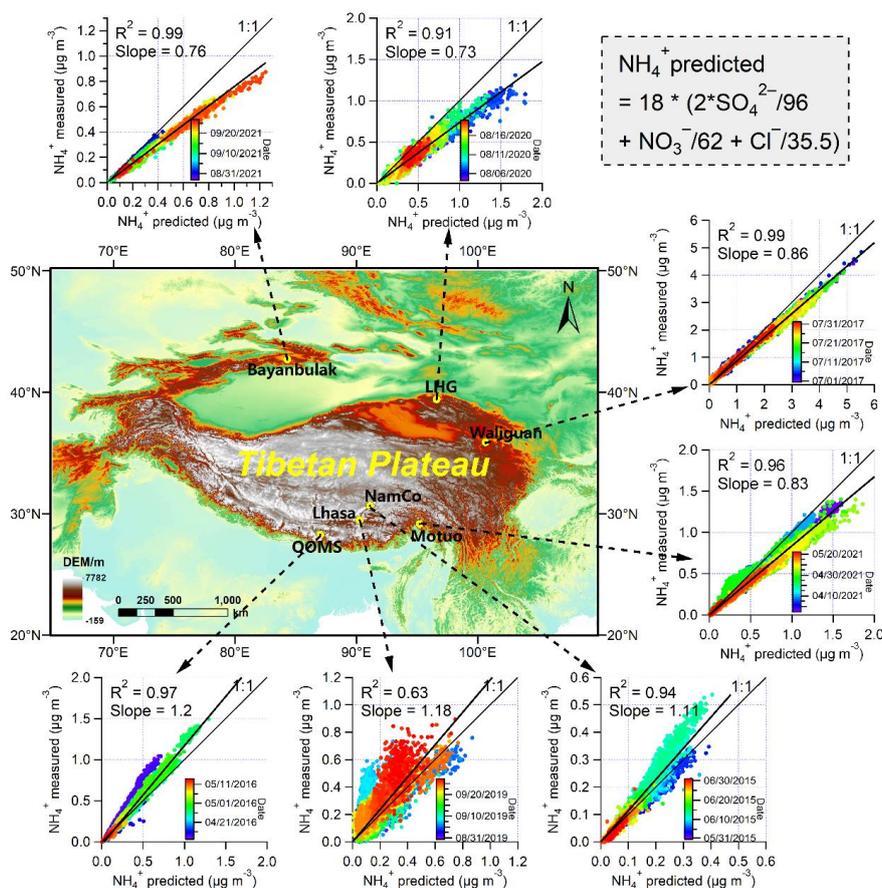
1249

1250 **Figure 2.** High-time-resolution temporal variations of the mass concentrations of PM<sub>1</sub> chemical  
1251 compositions during the seven online aerosol field measurement campaigns over the Tibetan Plateau  
1252 and its surroundings.



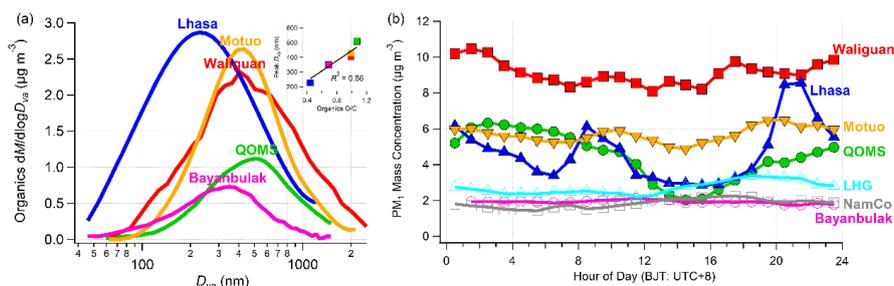
1253

1254 **Figure 3.** Regional distribution of average mass concentrations (values marked in the central of  
 1255 each pie chart with unit of  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and chemical compositions (percentage values around each pie  
 1256 chart) of submicron aerosols ( $\text{PM}_{10}$ ) during the seven online aerosol field measurements in the  
 1257 Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings (The map is created with ArcGIS).



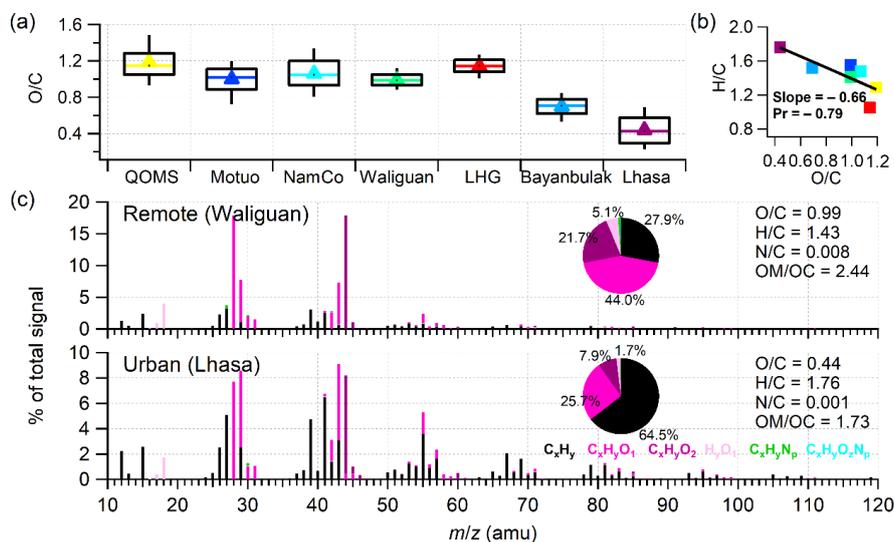
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1259 **Figure 4.** Regional difference of bulk acidity of submicron aerosols based on the scatterplot analysis  
 1260 and linear regression of measured  $\text{NH}_4^+$  versus predicted  $\text{NH}_4^+$  during the seven aerosol field  
 1261 measurement campaigns in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings (The map is created with  
 1262 ArcGIS).



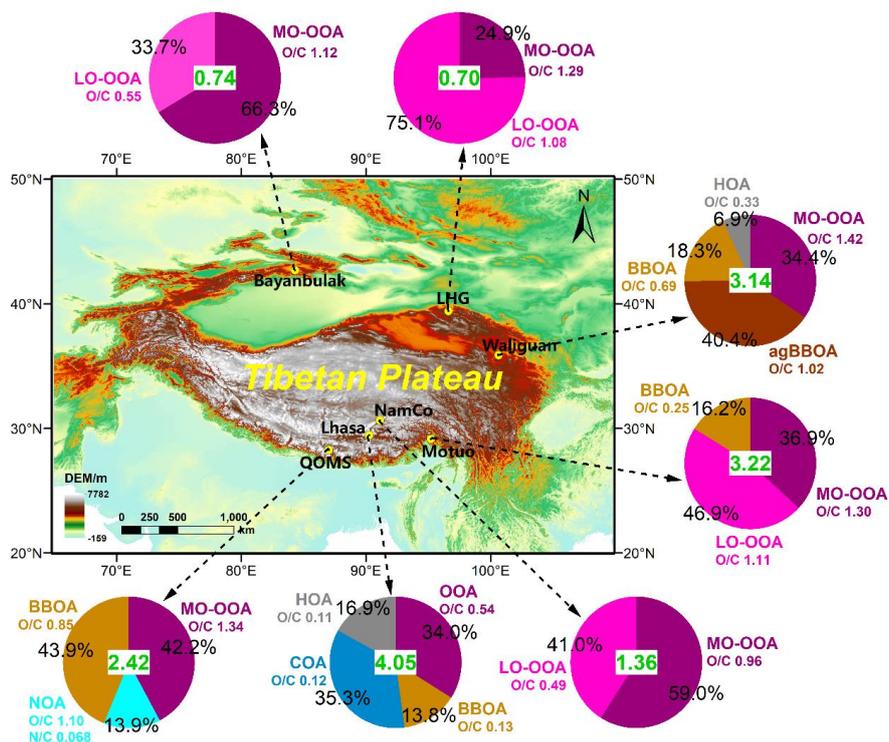
1263

1264 **Figure 5.** (a) Average size distributions of organic mass concentrations during five field  
 1265 measurement campaigns in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings. (b) Diurnal variations of total  
 1266 PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentrations during the seven field measurement campaigns in the Tibetan Plateau and  
 1267 its surroundings. Insert graph in (a) is the scatter plot of peak diameters in these size distributions  
 1268 versus the average O/C ratio of organics.



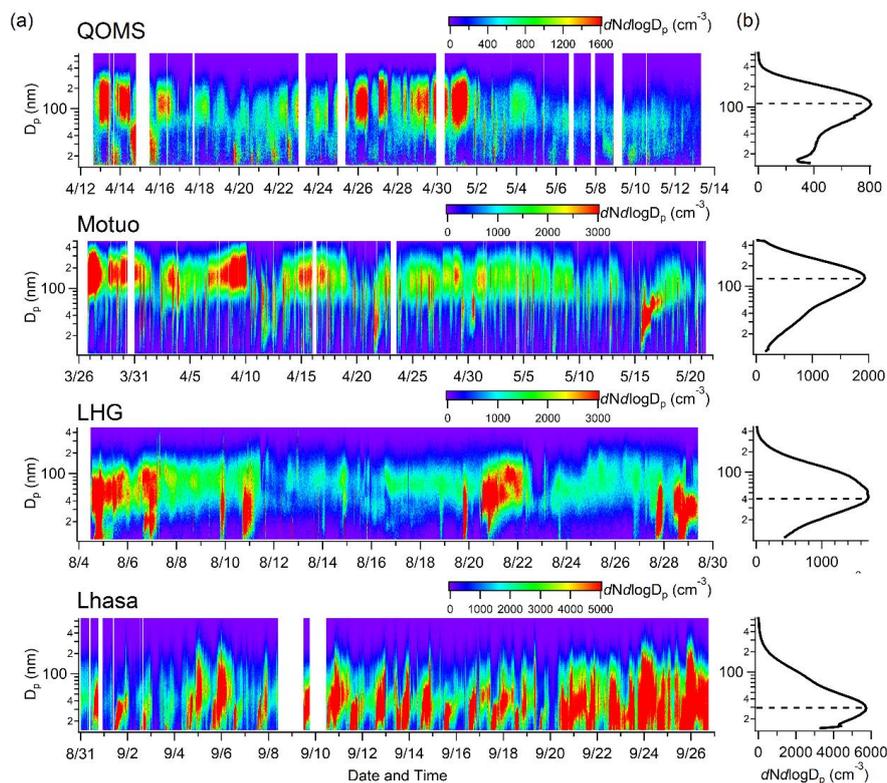
1269

1270 **Figure 6.** (a) Box plots of the average O/C ratios and (b) Van Krevelen diagram of H/C versus O/C  
 1271 among the seven field measurement campaigns in this study. (c) The average HRMSs of OA colored  
 1272 with different ion categories during the Waliguan and Lhasa measurement campaigns.



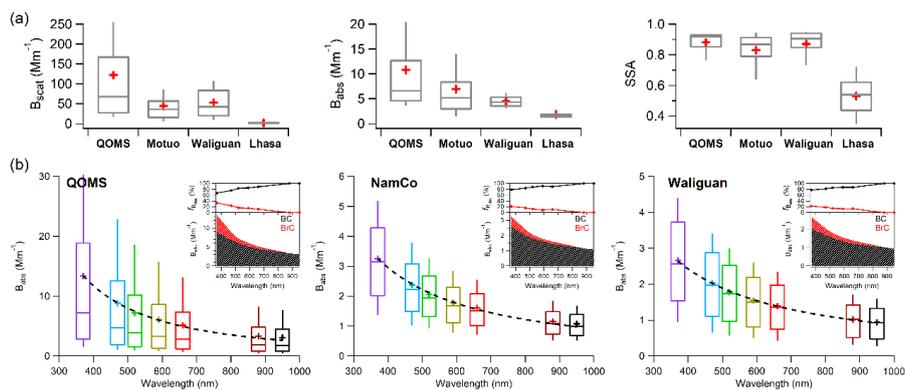
1273

1274 **Figure 7.** Regional distribution of OA components from PMF source apportionment during the  
 1275 seven online aerosol field measurements in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings (The map is  
 1276 created with ArcGIS). Values marked in the central of each pie chart are average OA mass with unit  
 1277 of  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  while the percentage values around the pie chart are the mass contributions of each OA  
 1278 component. The O/C ratio of each OA component is also marked around each pie chart.



1279

1280 **Figure 8.** (a) Temporal variations of the size distributions of particle number concentrations during  
1281 the aerosol field measurement campaigns at QOMS, Motuo, LHG, and Lhasa sites. (b) The average  
1282 size distribution of particle number concentration during entire measurement period at each site.



1283

1284 **Figure 9.** Box plots of (a) the average particle light scattering coefficient ( $B_{scat}$ ), light absorption  
 1285 coefficient ( $B_{abs}$ ), and single scattering albedo (SSA) during the four aerosol field measurement  
 1286 campaigns at QOMS, Motuo, Waliguan, and Lhasa sites, and (b) the particle  $B_{abs}$  at seven  
 1287 wavelengths measured by aethalometers at QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan sites. The dashed lines  
 1288 in the boxes show the power-law fit of the average  $B_{abs}$  as a function of wavelength. The inserted  
 1289 plots in (b) are the apportioned contributions of BC and BrC to total  $B_{abs}$  at different wavelengths.



1290 **Tables**

1291 **Table 1.** Detailed information about the full name and geographic characteristic of observation  
 1292 station, sample period, online instruments, and corresponding references during each aerosol field  
 1293 measurement campaigns over the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings in this study.

Station	Full Station Name	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Altitude (m)	Sample Period	Online Instruments					References		
						HR-ToF-AMS		SMPS	PAX	Aethalometer		CCN-100	Gas Analyzers
						MS	PToF						
QOMS	Qomolangma Station for Atmospheric and Environmental Observation and Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences	28.36	86.95	4276	12 April to 12 May 2016	√	√	√	√	√	Zhang et al. (2018) An et al. (2019) Xu et al. (2020) Zhang et al. (2021) Xu et al. (2022)		
Motuo	Motuo County, Linzhi City, Tibet Autonomous Region, China	29.30	95.32	1305	26 Mar to 22 May 2021	√	√	√	√	√	In Preparation		
NamCo	Nam Co Station for Multiphase Observation and Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences	30.77	90.95	4730	31 May to 1 July 2015	√			√		Xu et al. (2018) Zhang et al. (2021)		
Waiquan	China Global Atmospheric Watch Baseline Observatory, Mount Waiquan Base	36.28	100.90	3816	1 July to 31 July 2017	√	√		√	√	Zhang et al. (2019) Zhang et al. (2020b) Xu et al. (2020) Zhang et al. (2021) Xu et al. (2022)		
LHG	Qilian Observation and Research Station of Cryosphere and Ecologic Environment, Chinese Academy of Sciences	39.50	96.51	4180	4 August to 29 August 2020	√		√		√	In Preparation		
Bayanbulak	Bayanbulak Town, Hejing County, Bayingolin Mongolian Autonomous Prefecture, Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, China	42.83	84.35	2454	29 August to 26 September 2021	√	√				In Preparation		
Lhasa	Lhasa City, Tibet Autonomous Region, China	29.65	91.03	3650	31 August to 26 September 2019	√	√	√	√	√	Zhao et al. (2022)		

1294



1295 **Table 2.** Summary of the average values measured with various instruments during the seven  
 1296 aerosol field measurement campaigns in the TP and its surroundings in this study.

Measurement items	QOMS	Motuo	NamCo	Waliguan	LHG	Bayanbulak	Lhasa
<b>HR-ToF-AMS measurements</b>							
PM <sub>1</sub> mass conc. ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	4.4	5.7	2.0	9.1	3.0	1.9	4.7
PM <sub>1</sub> chemical compositions (%)							
OA	54.4	57.0	68.0	34.5	23.1	38.4	82.6
Sulfate	9.3	21.1	15.0	38.1	46.0	41.6	3.4
Nitrate	5.1	2.3	2.0	8.1	5.7	5.4	5.4
Ammonium	5.8	7.3	7.0	15.2	14.4	13.6	4.7
Chloride	0.4	0.2	0	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.7
BC	25.0	12.1	8.0	3.0	9.7		3.1
Peak diameter in mass size distribution (nm)	510.2	430.5		405.5		350.8	228.1
OA components (%)							
MO-OOA	42.2	36.9	59.0	34.4	24.9	66.3	
LO-OOA		46.9	41.0		75.1	33.7	
OOA							34.0
BBOA	3.9	16.2		18.3			13.8
agBBOA				40.4			
NOA	13.9						
HOA				6.9			16.9
COA							35.3
OA elemental ratios							
O/C	1.19	0.99	1.07	0.99	1.14	0.69	0.44
H/C	1.29	1.55	1.48	1.41	1.05	1.52	1.76
OM/OC	2.70	2.48	2.57	2.45	2.62	2.09	1.74
N/C	0.030	0.020	0.016	0.008	0.011	0.026	0.001
<b>SMPS measurements</b>							
Number conc. ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	709.3	1639.2			1462.0		3994.4
Peak diameter in PNSD (nm)	109.4	131.0			42.9		28.9
<b>PAX measurements</b>							
$B_{\text{scat}}$ ( $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ )	121.9	44.9		36.3			2.1
$B_{\text{abs}}$ ( $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ )	10.8	7.0		4.1			1.9
$B_{\text{ext}}$ ( $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ )	132.7	51.9		40.4			4.0
SSA	0.89	0.83		0.86			0.52
<b>Aethalometer measurements</b>							
$B_{\text{abs},370}$ ( $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ )	13.40		3.25	2.66			
Absorption Ångström exponent	1.73		1.28	1.12			
$B_{\text{abs},BrC,370}$ ( $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ )	4.42		0.69	0.60			
$B_{\text{abs},BC,370}$ ( $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ )	8.94		2.56	2.06			
$fB_{\text{abs},BrC,370}$ (%)	33.1		21.3	22.4			
$fB_{\text{abs},BC,370}$ (%)	66.9		78.7	77.6			
<b>CCN-100 measurements (<math>\text{cm}^{-3}</math>)</b>							
CCN number conc. (SS 0.2%)				507.0	83.9		
CCN number conc. (SS 0.4%)				805.1	344.3		
CCN number conc. (SS 0.6%)				1073.3	429.9		
CCN number conc. (SS 0.8%)				1230.6	480.8		
CCN number conc. (SS 1.0%)				1336.6	516.1		
<b>Gaseous pollutants measurements</b>							
CO <sub>2</sub> conc. (ppm)		382.0					416.2
CO conc. (ppm)		0.47					
O <sub>3</sub> conc. (ppb)		33.5					36.7
SO <sub>2</sub> conc. (ppb)		3.0					9.8
NO conc. (ppb)		0.6					4.6
NO <sub>2</sub> conc. (ppb)		1.2					8.7
NO <sub>x</sub> conc. (ppb)		1.8					13.3

1297



1298 **Table 3.** Summary of the average PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentrations ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) measured by the Aerodyne  
 1299 AMSs at various high-altitude and remote sites worldwide.

Observation Sites	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Altitude (m a.s.l.)	PM <sub>1</sub> mass ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	References
QOMS, China	28.36	86.95	4276	4.4	This study & Zhang et al. (2018)
Motuo, China	29.30	95.32	1305	5.7	This study
NamCo, China	30.77	90.95	4730	2.0	This study & Xu et al. (2018)
Waliguan, China	36.28	100.90	3816	9.1	This study & Zhang et al. (2019)
LHG, China	39.50	96.51	4180	3.0	This study
Bayanbulak, China	42.83	84.35	2454	1.9	This study
Lhasa, China	29.65	91.03	3650	4.7	This study & Zhao et al. (2022)
NamCo, China	30.77	90.95	4730	1.06	Wang et al. (2017)
Mt. Yulong, China	27.20	100.20	3410	5.7	Zheng et al. (2017)
Menyuan, China	37.61	101.26	3295	11.4	Du et al. (2015)
Mt. Wuzhi, China	18.84	109.49	958	10.9	Zhu et al. (2016)
Mt. Jungfrauoch, Switzerland	46.55	7.98	3580	0.55	Fröhlich et al. (2015)
Mt. Jungfrauoch, Switzerland	46.55	7.98	3580	2.24	Zhang et al. (2007a)
Mt. Bachelor, USA	43.98	-121.69	2800	15.10	Zhou et al. (2017)
Mt. Whistler, Canada	50.01	-122.95	2182	1.91	Sun et al. (2009)
Mt. Cimone, Italy	44.18	10.70	2165	4.5	Rinaldi et al. (2015)
Puy de Dôme, France	45.77	2.95	1465	5.58	Frenay et al. (2011)
Sub-Antarctic Bird Island	-54.00	-38.04		0.46	Schmale et al. (2013)
Mace Head, Ireland	53.30	-9.80		1.53	Zhang et al. (2007a)
Hyytiälä, Finland	61.90	24.30		2.04	Zhang et al. (2007a)
Storm Peak, USA	40.50	-106.70		2.11	Zhang et al. (2007a)
Duke Forest, USA	36.00	-79.10		2.82	Zhang et al. (2007a)
Chebogue, Canada	43.80	-66.10		2.91	Zhang et al. (2007a)
Okinawa Island, Japan	26.87	33.51		7.89	Jimenez et al. (2009)
Fukue Island, Japan	32.69	128.84		12.03	Takami et al. (2005)
Cheju Island, Korea	33.51	126.50		10.66	Jimenez et al. (2009)

1300