# 1 High-resolution physicochemical dataset of atmospheric

# 2 aerosols over the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings

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### Abstract

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Atmospheric aerosol in the Tibetan Plateau (TP) and its surroundings has received widely attracted significant scientific concerninterest in recent decades owingdue to its significant notable impacts on regional regionally climatic and cryospheric changes, ecological and environmental securities, and the hydrological cycle. However, our understanding on the atmospheric aerosol in this remote region is highly limited by the scarcelyscarcity of available dataset—due, owing to the extremely harsh natural conditions. This conditionchallenge has been improved mitigated in recent decades by constructing a few stable establishing field observatories at typical sites on within the TP and its surroundings. A continuous project was carried out since initiated in 2015 aims to investigate explore the properties and sources of atmospheric aerosols, as well as their regional differences in the vast TP regions by performing, through multiple short-term intensive field observations using across this vast region utilizing a suite of high-timeresolution online instruments. This paper presents a systematic hourly scaled dataset of the high time resolution (hourly seales) aerosol physicochemical and optical properties at eight different sites overacross the TP and its surroundings derived from the observation project, including the. It includes size-resolved chemical compositions of submicron aerosols, standard high-resolution mass spectra and sources of organic aerosols, size distributions of particle number concentrations, particle light scattering and absorption coefficients, particle light absorptions from attributed to different carbonaceous substances of including black carbon and brown carbon, and number concentrations of cloud condensation nuclei. In brief, atmospheric aerosols in these remote sites were all well-mixed and highly aged-due to, reflecting their dominated regional transport sources. However, the southern TP region exhibited high contributions of carbonaceous organic aerosols, neutralized bulk submicron aerosols, and a relatively higher light absorption capability were observed in the southern TP region capacity, whereas in the northern TP region, secondary inorganic species contributed dominantlywere the main contributors to the overall acidic submicron aerosols in the northern TP region. In addition to the. Beyond providing insights into the regional differences onin aerosol sources and properties inacross the vast TP regions and its surroundings, the datasets are will also useful for the simulation benefit <u>simulations</u> of aerosol radiative forcing and the <u>evaluation</u> evaluations of interactions among different components of the Earth system components in numerical models- in

- 64 <u>this region.</u> The datasets are available from accessible through the National Cryosphere
- 65 Desert Data Center, Chinese Academy of Sciences
- 66 (https://doi.org/10.12072/ncdc.NIEER.db2200.2022; Xu, 2022).

### 1 Introduction

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68 Tibetan Plateau (TP), with a mean altitude of over 4000 an average elevation exceeding 69 4,000 m above sea level (a.s.l.) and spanning a huge surface area of approximately  $2.5 \times 10^6$  km<sup>2</sup>, is the million square kilometers, stands as the highest plateau on the 70 71 Earth. The Its high-altitude mountain ranges on the TP and its surroundings are, integral 72 to one of the world's most important crucial cryospheric regions in, have earned the TP the world. Therefore, the TP has been widely known as the monikers "roof of the world", 73 74 the "Third Pole", or the and "Asian Water Tower" (Qiu, 2008; Yao et al., 2019). The TP and its surroundings have significant impacts inplay a pivotal role in influencing the 75 76 global and regional climate systems, hydrological cycles, and cryospheric changes 77 through its hugevast and complex topography and its function as a significant heat source (Duan and Wu, 2005; Yao et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2021). Over the past fewIn 78 79 recent decades, one of the most concerns on the TP and its surroundings a major concern has been focusing on the significant climatic warming and the rapid eryospheric 80 changes in the cryosphere of this region (Kang et al., 2010), which showexhibits a 81 82 higher warming rate than trend that exceeding that of the Northern Hemisphere (0.34 vs. 0.29 °C/decade) (You et al., 2021; Zhou and Zhang, 2021). 83

As Atmospheric aerosols, as one of the most complex and important component critical components in the atmosphere, atmospheric aerosols play significant roles in the significantly influence climatic warming and cryospheric changes in the TP regions through their. They exert crucial direct and indirect effects on solar radiationatmospheric energy budget and the albedos of snow and ice surfaces, impacting Earth's climate system (Xu et al., 2009; Kang et al., 2019b). Atmospheric aerosols, particularly the two important Notably, light-absorbing carbonaceous aerosols (CAs) of such as black carbon (BC) and brown carbon (BrC), can) directly absorb the solar radiation directly, warm, warming the atmosphere, and finally lead contributing to a positive forcing on Earth's energy budget (Ramanathan et al., 2007; Kopacz et al., 2011). For example instance, Li et al. (2018) has simulated demonstrated that BC causes significantly higher averagegreater albedo reduction (~46%) and instantaneous radiative forcing (7-64 W m<sup>-2</sup>) caused by BC than mineral dust that deposited on aged snow in the surfaces of a TP glacier. In addition than mineral dust. Moreover, aerosol particles over the TP also exert significant impacts on significantly affect ice cloud properties and cloud development through their semi-direct effects (Liu et al.,

2019). Since the direct observation of atmospheric aerosols over Given the vast and remote nature of the TP-regions is remarkably difficult due to the, coupled with its complex topography-and, meteorology, and harsh environment, thein-situ observation of atmospheric aerosols poses substantial challenges. Consequently, numerical model simulations imulations based on reanalysis data has become one of the most popular and eritical ways over the pasthave emerged as a predominant and crucial method in recent decades. For example, Notable studies include Lau et al. (2006) evaluated, who assessed the significant impact of atmospheric aerosols over the TP on the intensification of the Asian summer monsoon by intensification using the NASA finite-volume general circulation model, of which inputs were driven by the realistic global wind analyses and humidity; Kopacz et al. (2011) investigated, who explored the origin and radiative forcing of BC transported toin the TP and Himalayas by usingwith the GEOS-Chem global chemical transport model based on the global BC emissions inventory data;; and Liu et al. (2015) investigated, who examined the transport of summer dust and anthropogenic aerosols over the TP by using a three-dimensional aerosol transportradiation model with the satellite data inputs. Despite the significant insights gained from diverse satellite remoting products. Although important findings have been reported from those numerical model these simulations, the in-situ observation of atmospheric aerosols over the TP regions has become more erucial and urgent due to their key roles in the TP are increasingly recognized as critical for evaluating and improving theenhancing model performances over the accuracy in this remote region. Lackingarea. The absence of in-situ observational aerosol parameters for constraining the model would lead to high data to refine models introduces considerable uncertainty ininto the results. In addition, Furthermore, while model simulations in the TP mostly focused primarily focus on the spatial distribution over a large range, but rarely on the across broad regions, they often overlook temporal variations or the inherent evolution mechanism withmechanisms at high timetemporal resolution-as those from, which in-situ observations could illuminate. With great improvements Recent advancements in observational conditions techniques and instruments, instrumentation have enabled numerous in-situ measurements have been conducted inmeasurement within the TP and its surroundings during, aiming to delineate the past few years to characterize the aerosol physical, chemical, and optical properties, of aerosols, along with their potential sources, transport pathways, and

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133 regional distributions. A comprehensive summary A detailed compilation of direct 134 measurements on ambient aerosols aerosol measurements in the TP-using various, 135 employing a variety of observational methods and instruments has been listed, is 136 presented in Table S1 in the supplementary. Among them, the material. Notably, off-137 line atmospheric filter sampling was one of the most important and popularhas emerged as a key in-situ aerosol collection approachmethod in the TP-because it was relatively, 138 139 favored for its low-cost and easy to carry outseasibility under the extremely region's harsh natural conditions and limit logistical supports constraints. This approachmethod 140 141 has been successfully conducted to characterize the compositions, sizes effectively 142 captured the composition, size, light absorptions absorption properties, sources, and 143 variations of ambient aerosols, especially those different CAs constituents-including 144 diverse CAs components such as BC, BrC, organic carbon (OC), water-soluble OC 145 (WSOC), humic-like substances (HULS), and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons 146 (PAHs); in the remote TP region (Cao et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2014a; Zhang et al., 2014; Cong et al., 2015; Wan et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015; Kang et al., 147 148 2016; Li et al., 2016b; Xu et al., 2020). In addition, characterizing Furthermore, off-line 149 filter sampling has been instrumental in mapping the regional aerosol distribution of 150 atmospheric aerosols over a large area of across the TP-was another important advantage of, facilitated by its simplicity and the off-line filter sampling through their ability to 151 152 conduct simultaneous observations at multiple sites due to the relatively easy 153 instrumental operations (Li et al., 2016a; Chen et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2022). 154 However, studies on the atmospheric aerosols over the remote TP regions through 155 Despite these advancements, off-line filter samplings are still scarce and far meeting 156 the demand at present. These observational sampling studies in the TP's remote regions 157 remain insufficient for current needs. The gathered data wasis generally scattered fragmented and unsystematic with relatively, characterized by low 158 159 timetemporal resolution, fewlimited aerosol property parameters, and less sparse data 160 points because most of them were carried out at certain site using. Typically, these 161 studies have been localized to specific sites, utilizing single instruments with 162 timetemporal resolutions ranging from days to weeks during a short term period. The 163 over brief periods. Such low timetemporal resolution measurement would limit limits 164 the accurate understanding of aerosols' temporal evolution processes and underlying 165 mechanisms of aerosol properties, especially during a fast and rapid, short-term event. Meantime, these observational events. Additionally, integrating and comparing data 166

from across different research groups was also difficult to compare and integrate because most of them had different is challenging due to variations in research concerns, measurement focuses, measured parameters, sampling flowsmethodologies, laboratory filter treatment procedures, processing, and data analysis methods, etc. Besides, although the techniques. Moreover, despite the relative ease of off-line sampling is relatively easy to carry out, there are still large TP regions where similar observations have not yet been conducted or only conducted in a short term period. Up to now, extensive areas of the TP still lack such observational efforts. To date, comprehensive research focusing on multiple aerosol physicochemical and optical properties parameters through the real-time online consecutive measurements (with high temporal resolutions from minute to hour scales) at multiple sites are still rareremains a rarity in the TP. Studies Research on atmospheric aerosols havein China has achieved great progress during significant advancements over the lastpast decade in China. The Aerodyne highresolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) was one of the most popularhas become a widely used online instrument that successfully implemented in , enabling numerous aerosol chemistry observations studies to characterize the real-time, size-resolved chemical compositions and sources of submicron aerosols (Li et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2020). However, the utilization of HR-ToF AMS on its application in the TP was still very scarce due has been limited, a situation attributed to the high instrumentalinstrument's demanding operational requirements but extremely harshand the area's challenging observation conditions. Since 2015, our research group has initiated a continuous and systematic observation project, aiming to investigate the regional differences on aerosol sources and properties inacross the different TP regions, has been launched by our research team by performing. This effort involves annual deployments of the HR-ToF-AMS measurement andalongside other high-resolution, real-time online instruments at different various sites during almost every year. Indeed. Remarkably, our dataset was represents the first and only set of dataset focusing on abundant collection that extensively covers a wide <u>range of aerosol parameters</u> (including the physical, chemical, and optical properties and their diverse sources) atacross multiple different types of sitegeographic environments (e.g., the urban, remote, high-altitude mountain, grassland, and subtropical forest sites that basically represented the different TP regions) based on the

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within the TP and its surroundings. This is achieved through real-time and high-time-resolution online observations in the TP and its surroundings. These datasets provide not only, providing a comprehensive dataresource for the understanding of regional differences in aerosol sources and properties in different TP regions, but also potential basic inputsaerosol variations and serving as essential input for the simulation of future aerosol radiative forcing and the assessments of interactions among different components of the simulations and Earth system in future models-interaction assessments. The contents structure of this paper are organized as: Sects. follows:

Sections 2 and 3 describe the observation sites, instrumental deployments, and data processing methods, Sect. Section 4 introduces presents the high-time-resolution data of-aerosol data, encompassing physical, chemical, and optical properties as well as sources, while the source information. The limitations and the uniqueness of our dataset are discussed in Sect. Section 5.

## 2 Observation site descriptions

Continuous Between 2015 and 2022, intensive observations of atmospheric aerosol chemistry were conducted carried out at eight sites inacross the different regions of TP and its surroundings from 2015 to 2022. The These sites include comprise seven remote sites (QOMS, Motuo, NamCo, Ngari, Waliguan, LHG, and Bayanbulak) and one urban site (Lhasa) which is used), the latter serving as a contrast for comparison comparative analysis. Figure 1 illustrates the geographical locations of these sites and the picture of along with photographs during each observation. Table 1 provides detailed information details the specifics of each site as well as including the sampling period periods and available instruments deployed during each field campaign. The following text gives a subsequent sections provide brief description of each site descriptions these sites, arranged geographically from the southsouthern to norththe northern parts of the TP.

#### **2.1 QOMS**

The Qomolangma Station for Atmospheric and Environmental Observation and Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences (86.56°E, 28.21°N; 4276 m a.s.l.; abbreviated as QOMS for short in this study and similarly hereinafter, with similar abbreviations for other sites; 86.56°E, 28.21°N; 4276 m a.s.l.) hereafter), is situated in the basin of Rongbuk valley inbasin on the northern slope of Mt. Everest. The climate in the

232 northern slope of Mt. Everest has obvious seasonal variation under, heavily influenced 233 by the influence of Indian monsoon system (Bonasoni et al., 2010; Cong et al., 2015). 234 During the pre-monsoon season (generallytypically March= to May), the 235 dominated dominant westerlies play important roles infacilitates the long-range 236 transport of atmospheric pollutants from those polluted regions in South Asia, which 237 makesmaking QOMS an ideal high-altitude observatory aton the south edge of the TP 238 for studying the examining transboundary pollutant transport of atmospheric pollutants 239 from South Asia to into the inner TP. During plateau's interior. In the summer monsoon 240 season in summer (June-August), the prevailing southerly winds prevail and bring 241 warm and wet airflow from the Indian Ocean, leading to this region with 242 increasing increased humidity and precipitation in the plateau.

#### 2.2 Motuo

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244 Motuo county is County, located in the lower reaches of the Yarlung Tsangpo River 245 andon the southern slopeslopes of the eastern Himalayas and Gangrigab Mountains in 246 the southeast edge of the TP. The county sits at a, sited halfway up a mountain and has, 247 enjoys a subtropical humid climate withcharacterized by relatively high 248 temperature temperatures and abundant rainfall. Due to the minorWith a small 249 population (-of ~15,000), Motuo county is also a relatively County remains one of the 250 TP's most pristine region in the TP.regions. The sampling site in Motuo (29.30°N, 251 95.32°E; 1305 m a.s.l.) was at the summit of located atop a hill that towards 252 tooverlooking the Yarlung Tsangpo Grand Canyon, which. This vantage point makes it 253 a veryan ideal site in the southeast edge of the TP tolocation for directly 254 monitormonitoring the transboundary transport of atmospheric pollutants and moisture 255 from Southeast Asia and the Indian Ocean tointo the TP.

#### 2.3 NamCo

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The Nam Co Station for Multisphere Observation and Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences (NamCo; 90.95°E, 30.77°N; 4730 m a.s.l.) is a high-altitude observatory atin the south-central part of the TP. This station is situated at the southeast shore of Nam Co Lake. The surrounding of this, the station is surrounded by a pristine region in the TP and isolated from major populated areas area. The region is generally affected by the experiences a typical semi-arid plateau monsoon climate with more, characterized by increased precipitation during the summer monsoon season. The

- NamCo is the most important site in a pivotal inland of site within the TP and dominated,
- 265 <u>predominantly influenced</u> by air <u>massmasses</u> from <u>the</u> south and west.

### 2.4 Ngari

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- 267 The Ngari Station for Desert Environment Observation and Research, Chinese
- Academy of Science (Ngari; 79.70°E, 33.39°N; 4270 m a.s.l.) locates is located in the
- Rutog County, within the Ngari Prefecture, of the Tibet Autonomous Region, China.
- 270 This regionarea is at the southwestern edge of the TP and belongs to is characterized by
- 271 <u>its</u> semi-arid areas with barren land surface climate, sparse vegetation, and strong intense
- solar radiation. As the majora key member of the "high-cold region observation and
- 273 research network for land surface processes & environment of China", the Ngari station
- 274 is one of the most important filed stations for plays a crucial role in monitoring the
- 275 changes in climate, hydrology, atmosphere hydrological, atmospheric, and ecological
- 276 <u>environmentenvironmental changes</u> in the <u>TP's</u> western region of the <u>TP and further</u>
- 277 revealing the interaction territories. Additionally, it contributes to understanding the
- 278 <u>interactions</u> between the Indian monsoon <u>system</u> and the <u>westerly beltwesterlies</u>.

### 2.5 Waliguan

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- The Waliguan Baseline Observatory (Waliguan; 100.9°E, 36.28°N; 3816 m a.s.l.) is one
- of the twenty-nine baseline stations of Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) of under the
- World Meteorological Organization (WMO). The observatory is situated Situated at the
- 283 top of the Mt. Waliguan (mountain height of ~600 m), which is also a relatively rises
- 284 approximately 600 m, the observatory is located in a pristine region with little influence
- 285 from minimal human activities. Theactivity impact. Waliguan is an
- 286 important represented as a key observatory in on the northeast northeastern edge of the
- 287 TP-and dominated, predominantly influenced by air massmasses from the northeast
- during the summer season, which makes it an ideal site to study the influence. This
- 289 location is strategic for studying the transport and impact of air pollutants from the
- industrial areas regions in the northwestern China to the TP in this study.

#### **2.6 LHG**

- 292 The Qilian Observation and Research Station of Cryosphere and Ecologic Environment,
- 293 Chinese Academy of Sciences (LHG; 39.50°N, 96.51°E; 4180 m a.s.l.) locates near
- 294 the.), is located approximately 1km from the terminus (~1 km) of the Laohugou Glacier
- No.12<del>, which</del>. This glacier is one among the largest mountain glacier in the northern

slope of the western Qilian Mountains. LHG <u>isserves as</u> another <u>representative notable</u> station in the northeastern TP <u>and significantly isolated</u>, <u>distinctly remote</u> from the human <u>living areassettlements</u>. The climate in this region is <u>a typically predominantly</u> arid and continental <u>climate and dominated</u>, <u>influenced</u> by the East-Asian monsoon in the summer and <u>the Westerlies in the winter. Strongly A pronounced mountain-valley breeze is formed during summer which can bring air mass<u>facilitates the upward transport of air masses</u> from lower <u>altitude zones to mountain regions</u>. Therefore, it is also well suited altitudes, making LHG an ideal site for <u>sampling the background</u> air mass <u>sampling</u> and <u>studying for investigating</u> the transport <u>mechanisms</u> and potential impacts of air pollutants from <u>its-surrounding regionsareas</u>.</u>

## 2.7 Bayanbulak

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- 307 The Bayanbulak National Basic Meteorological Station (Bayanbulak; 84.35° N, 42.83° 308 E; 2454 m a.s.l.) locates is located in the Bayanbulak grassland at the, northwest of 309 Hejing county, County in the Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, China. The 310 Bayanbulak is situated inlies within an intermontane basin in the central Tianshan 311 Mountains and, surrounded by numerous snow mountains with altitudes more than 312 3000 m. The climate in Bayanbulak grassland belongs to their characterized by a typical 313 temperate continental mountain climate, with an annual average precipitation of 314 aboutranging between 200-to 300 mm. The Bayanbulak town has limited experiences 315 minimal human activities and traffic transportation, maintaining its pristine 316 environment.
  - 2.8 Lhasa

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318 Lhasa (29.65°N, 91.03°E; 3650 m a.s.l.) is the capital city of the Tibet Autonomous 319 Region, China-that, and located in the south-central part of the TP. The city lies in a flatbroad river valley with the surrounding, surrounded by mountains reaching that 320 321 reach up to 5500 m-and, with the Lhasa River passing through the city from west to 322 east. TheOur observation site is located in Lhasa is in the Binhe Park near, adjacent to 323 the Lhasa River. The Notably, the Norbulingka scenic area, one of the main activity 324 centers for local Tibetans to celebratecelebrating their religious festivals (e.g., such as 325 the Sho Dun festival), is located ~1 km to the northwest of the sampling site, while. 326 Moreover, the Potala Palace, the center of Tibetan Buddhism, is ~1.8 km to the northeast. 327 Since the Given Lhasa's unique energy structure and different residential habit in Lhasa

- 328 comparing with those remote sites, athe distinct living habits of the residents,
- 329 comparative observation is conducted inobservations are carried out at this urban site
- 330 for studying. These studies aim to investigate the primary aerosol properties and sources,
- 331 <u>particularly</u> from various residential combustion activities.

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

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

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- 334 The online based Atmospheric aerosol observations of atmospheric aerosols were
- 335 <u>carried outconducted</u> at each site using a <u>suitsuite</u> of real-time, high-resolution
- instruments, usually including. This instruments typically included a HR-ToF-AMS
- (Aerodyne Research Inc., Billerica, MA, USA) for acquiring to determine the chemical
- 338 compositions (organic aerosol (OA), nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, and
- chloride) of non-refractory submicron aerosol (PM<sub>1</sub>), a); A scanning mobility particle
- sizer (SMPS, model 3936, TSI Inc., Shoreview, MN, USA) for acquiringwas used to
- measure the size distribution of number concentration of submicron particles, a; A
- photoacoustic extinctiometer (PAX, DMT Inc., Boulder, CO, USA) was used for
- 343 acquiring the obtaining particle light absorption, scattering, and extinction coefficients
- 344 (Babs, Bscat, and Bext) and along with single scattering albedo (SSA) at 405 nm, as
- well as the BC mass concentration of BC, an; An Aethalometer (model AE33/AE31,
- Magee Scientific Corp., Berkeley, CA, USA) was used for acquiring the  $B_{abs}$  at across
- seven fixed wavelengths (370–950 nm), and a); A cloud condensation nuclei (CCN)
- counter (model CCN-100, DMT Inc., Boulder, CO, USA) for acquiring the measured
- 349 CCN number concentration at different supersaturation (SS) of concentrations at various
- 350 water vapor- supersaturations (SS). The measurement uncertainties for each instrument
- are difficult to quantify based on data from a single instrument. The uncertainty
- showing below are referred from other studies: <30% for HR-ToF-AMS (Jimenez et al.,
- 353 2016) and SMPS, <40% for Aethalometer (Backman et al., 2017), <10% for PAX
- 354 (Selimovic et al., 2018), and <25% for CCNC (Rose et al., 2008). Details on the specific
- 355 instrumental deployment instruments deployed and the sampling period during periods
- for each observation campaign is are summarized in Table 1.
- The HR-ToF-AMS, serving as was the primary cornerstone instrument for observing
- atmospheric aerosol chemistry, was deployed throughout observations across all field
- campaigns. The SMPS was utilizeddeployed at QOMS, Motuo, LHG, and Lhasa,
- 360 whilewhereas the PAX was employed at QOMS, Motuo, Ngari, Waliguan, and Lhasa.

Additionally, the The Aethalometer was utilized at QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan, and with the CCN-100 operational at Motuo, Waliguan, and LHG. Field observations in the southern, western, orand central TP regions of the TP were predominantly conducted during the pre-monsoon periods, season, aimed to study the transboundary transport of pollutants from South Asia into the TP, under the influence of Westerlies and the Indian monsoon. For instance, observations took place from 12 April to 12 May at QOMS, Motuo from 26 March to 22 May at Motuo, NamCo from 31 May to 1 July at NamCo, and Ngari from 1 Jun to 5 July-at Ngari, which were to investigate the transboundary transport of atmospheric pollutants from polluted regions in South Asia to the inland areas of the TP, considering the influences of Westerlies and the Indian monsoon...On the other hand, measurements in the remote regions of the northern TP and its surroundings were carried out during the summer—to track aerosol transport from surrounding polluted areas, considering the effects of the Westerlies or the intensified East Asian monsoon. Specifically, observations occurred from 1 to 31 July at Waliguan, from 4 to 29 August at LHG, and from 29 August to 26 September at Bayanbulak. These measurements were undertaken to monitor the aerosols transported from surrounding polluted regions, considering the influences of Westerlies or the intensified East Asian monsoon. The observation inat Lhasa was conducted betweenfrom 31 August andto 26 September, focusing on capturing the strongestpeak atmospheric oxidation eapabilitycapacity during the summer season.

### 3.2 Instrumental setup

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Despite the variations in the instruments used duringinstrumentation across different observation campaigns, the core setup for sampling settings remain generallywas largely consistent. Figure 1b illustrates the fundamental standard sampling setup employed configuration for each campaign. All instruments are typically housed involved housing all instruments within an air-conditioned trailer or room. The inlets are were induced to the instruments from the roof with a fine particle cyclone (model URG-2000-30EH, URG Corp., Chapel Hill, NC, USA) in the front of the inlet to eliminate particles with an aerodynamic diameter (*D*<sub>va</sub>) exceeding 2.5 μm. Subsequently, the These fine particles are directed into-were then passed through a Nafion dryer via 1/2-inch stainless steel tubes tubing to remove moisture from dehumidify the airflows. Lastly, the particles are sampled into a series of online—before being directed into the instruments for real-time measurements analysis. For a more comprehensive

understandingdetailed information on the setup and methodology of the instrumental setups, please refer to instruments, it can be found in our previous publications (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2022).

### 3.3 Instrumental operation and data processing

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The measurement principles, operation procedures, calibration methods, and data analysis for these instruments are extensively describedused in detailthis study are thoroughly detailed in Text Texts S1-4 in the S4 of supplementary materials of this study. Only a few essentialmaterial. Here, we highlight only key descriptions and important settings are emphasized herecritical setting as follows: (1) The HR-ToF-AMS instruments werewas operated at the V-mode during almost allmost of the eight field campaigns, considering to accommodate the relatively low aerosol mass levels and signal-to-noise ratios overdue to low aerosol mass loading in the TP regions. (2) Due to chopper malfunction in the HR ToF AMS, particle Particle size observations were not conducted during the NamCo and LHG campaigns, due to a chopper malfunction in the HR-ToF-AMS. (3) Different relative ionization efficiency (RIE) values were used for ammonium and sulfate according to the ionization efficiency calibrations of HR-ToF-AMS in different campaigns, while default values were used to rest species. (4) Different size parameters were achieved according to the particle sizing calibrations in different campaigns, which ultimately resulted in the distinct size ranges of nonrefractory PM<sub>1-.</sub> (5) Elemental ratios of OA, i.e., such as oxygen-to-carbon (O/C), hydrogen-to-carbon (H/C), organic matter-to-organic carbon (OM/OC), and nitrogento-carbon (N/C), were determined using the improved method (Canagaratna et al., 2015). (6) Default A default collection efficiency (CE) values value of 0.5 were employed to the HR-ToF-AMS measurements during the QOMS, NamCo, Ngari, Waliguan, and Lhasa campaigns in consideration of their overall neutralized bulk submicron aerosols, whereas thea composition-dependent CE (Middlebrook et al., 2012) values arevalue was adopted at Motuo, LHG, and Bayanbulak, where bulk submicron aerosols were slightly acidic. (7) Source apportionments apportionment of OA during all observations were performed by the positive matrix factorization (PMF) analysis method. The details of the PMF solution determination for each site are not presented here but can be referenced in our previous publication for select campaigns (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; 2019). (8) Only the chemical compositions of non-refractory PM<sub>1</sub> are reported during for the Bayanbulak campaign due to the absence of BC

427 observations. (9) The sample and sheath flow rates of SMPS were set at 0.3 and 3.0 L 428 min<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, at both OOMS and Lhasa, measuring particles covering a particle 429 size range between 14.6 and 661.2 nm in mobility diameter  $(D_m)$ , whereas 0.5 and 5.0 L min<sup>-1</sup> at LHG and Motuo sites with a particle size range of 10.9–495.8 nm in  $D_{\rm m}$ . (10) 430 Aethalometer measurementmeasurements were corrected for both the filter-based 431 432 loading effect and multiple scattering effecteffects. A traditional absorption Ångström 433 exponents (AAE) method (Zhang et al., 2021) was adopted to quantitatively apportion 434 the total  $B_{abs}$  into two parts from BC and BrC ( $B_{abs,BC}$  and  $B_{abs,BrC}$ ). (11) During the 435 Motuo, Waliguan, and LHG campaigns, the CCN number concentrations of CCN were 436 conducted consecutivelymeasured at five different SS values of 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.6%, 437 0.8%, and 1.0% every 5 minutes at a 30-min cycle during the Motuo, Waliguan, and 438 LHG campaigns.

## 4 Aerosol properties, sources, and radiative forcing over the TP

### 4.1 Mass loading and chemical composition of submicron aerosols

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Figure S1 provides an overview of the high-time-resolution presents the temporal variations of PM<sub>1</sub> chemical species (OA, nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, chloride, and BC) during observed across the eight observations in the TP and its surroundings. Generally, the The mass concentrations of PM<sub>1</sub> and its chemical species varied dynamicallycomponents exhibited distinct variations, with alternating a few periods of high and low-mass loading observed throughout theeach campaign's sampling period of each campaign. Despite differences variations in sampling years (2015–2022), seasons (March-September), and altitudes (1350-4730 m a.s.l.) at across these sites, the significantly distinct PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentrations and chemical compositions can effectively reflectclearly illustrate the regional difference in aerosol mass levels, properties, and sources at different regions among these sites. On average, the mass concentration of total PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentrations across the eight campaigns ranged from 1.9 to 9.1 µg m<sup>-3</sup> (Fig. 2 and Table 2). The highest PM<sub>1</sub>-mass concentration was observed at Waliguan due to, driven by the rapid transport of anthropogenic aerosols and gaseous pollutants from urban areascenters in northwestern China. ConverselyIn contrast, the lowest values were measuredobserved at NamCo and Bayanbulak, attributed toreflecting their background and pristine environmental conditions. The average PM<sub>1</sub> mass level inacross the TP and its surroundings was comparable to values those observed at other high-altitude, coastal, forest, and remote background sites

worldwideglobally (0.46–15.1 µg m<sup>-3</sup>; Table 3), but yet remains significantly lower than 460 those observed at densely urban  $(34.4-71.5 \mu g m^{-3})$  and suburban  $(21.4-44.9 \mu g m^{-3})$ 461 462 sites areas in other regions parts of China (Li et al., 2017), suggesting. This suggests the 463 predominantly clean nature of atmosphere conditionatmospheric conditions in the 464 remote and high-altitude regions of the TP. 465 The chemical compositions of PM<sub>1</sub> also exhibited significant regional difference 466 differences across the TP (Fig. 2), indicating distinct highlighting varied aerosol sources 467 acrossin different TP regions. OA and BC together contributed as high as 64.9-85.7% areas of the total PM+ mass at the TP. At five sites of (QOMS, Motuo, 468 469 NamCo, Ngari, and Lhasa-that are) located in the southern, western, or central TP-, OA 470 and BC together accounted for as high as 64.9–85.7% of the total PM<sub>1</sub> mass (Table 2). 471 These This high contributions were mainly contribution was largely attributed to the 472 frequent transport of biomass-burning-related emissions from polluted regions in South 473 and Southeast Asia to the remote sites of TP during the pre-monsoon season (Bonasoni 474 et al., 2010; Cong et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018) as well as the intense, along with 475 significant local biomass burning emissions from religious activities in the urban area 476 of Lhasa (Cui et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2022). In contrary, contrast, at the three northern sites (Waliguan, LHG, and Bayanbulak), inorganic species (sulfate, nitrate, and 477 478 ammonium; referred to as SNA) accounted for more than 60% of the total PM<sub>1</sub>-at three 479 northern sites (Waliguan, LHG, and Bayanbulak). Among these, sulfate had. Sulfate 480 was the most dominant contributions significant component of SNA (38.1-46.0%), 481 consistentaligning with the results observed atobservations from another high-altitude 482 site in the northeastern TP (Menyuan; 28%) and othervarious rural and remote sites (19-64%) in East Asia, indicating the regional transported sources (Du et al., 2015). 483 484 The highpronounced SNA contributions of SNA, particularly the sulfate, in the northern 485 TP and its surroundings, were mainly related to the regional transport of anthropogenic 486 aerosols and gaseous precursor emissions from surroundingnearby urban areas as well 487 as important in-cloud aqueous reactions during the transportation to the mountains 488 (Zhang et al., 2019).

#### 4.2 Bulk acidity, size distribution, and diurnal variation of submicron aerosols

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Particle phase acidity is an important parameter affecting the significantly influences aerosol physicochemical properties of aerosol, with significant impacts on hygroscopic growth, affecting hygroscopicity, toxicity, and heterogeneous reactions of aerosol

particles. The bulk acidity of submicron aerosols was evaluated at each site following the method in Zhang et al. (2007b) and Schueneman et al. (2021) based onusing AMS measurements. A detailed description of this method can be found in Text S5 of the supplementary material or our previous publications (Zhang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019) or in Text S5 in the supplementary materials of this study. It is interesting to find that the bulk acidity of submicron acrosols exhibited distinct. Notably, we observed <u>clear</u> regional <u>difference variations</u> between the southern and northern TP (Fig. 3), primarily attributed to variations, largely due to differences in aerosol sources and compositions.composition (Fig. 3). Linear regression slopes were fitted to be 1.2, 1.11, 0.98, and 1.18 at the four sites of at QOMS, NamCo, Ngari, and Lhasa that locates (located in the southern, western, or central TP) were fitted to be 1.2, 1.11, 0.98, and 1.18, respectively, indicating the submicron aerosol particles aerosols at these sites were generally neutralized, and in some cases, showedoccasionally showing an excess of ammonium. The findingresult is consistent with previous observations of findings on high ammonia availability-resulted from agriculture emissions in the South Asia (Van Damme et al., 2015). In addition Moreover, as reported in our previous publications, atmospheric aerosols at QOMS and NamCo were significantly influenced by the transport of biomass-burning related emissions from South and Southeast Asia during the pre-monsoon season (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018), while various residential and Lhasa experienced intense biomass fuels were burned intensely fuel burning during those frequent religious festivals in urban areas of Lhasa (Zhao et al., 2022). In contrast, the submicron particles at the remaining four sites, particularly LHG and Bayanbulak in the north, were overall acidic, with regression slopes ranging from 0.73 to 0.86 at the remaining four sites, especially in the two northern sites (LHG and Bayanbulak), where sulfate significantly contributed to the total was a major PM<sub>1</sub> component (46.0% and 41.6%). Similar observations findings of acidic submicron aerosol particles have also been observed at Menyuan and LHG in the northern TP in previous studies (Du et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015), mainly related to the transport of the enriched SNA species or their gaseous precursors from the industrial areas in northwestern China to the remote regions in the northern TP. The size distributions of non-refractory PM<sub>1</sub> chemical species, obtained from HR-ToF-AMS measurement, provide valuable insights into aerosol sources, oxidation degrees, mixing states, formation, transformation, and growth mechanisms as well as their

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impacts on CCN activity. Typically, the size distributions for SNA species and oxidized OA peaked at in the accumulation mode ( $\sim$ 400–600 nm in  $D_{va}$ ) for those SNA species and oxidized OA components), as a result of their secondary formation processes. In contrast, fresh organics from primary emission sources hadexhibit smaller sizessize (Zhang et al., 2005b; Aiken et al., 2009). In this study, bothwe focus on organics and the sum of combined three SNA species were selected to illustrate the highlight regional difference variations in size distributions across the different TP regions. As shown in Figs. 4a and S2 and Table 2, the peak diameters in the size distribution of OA and SNA size distributions varied significantly, ranging from 584.4 and 634.5 nm at Ngari to a smaller size of 228.1 and 250.0 nm at Lhasa, respectively. This variation suggests the distinctly different sources and aging processes of atmospheric aerosols in different across the TP regions, particularly between those high-altitude remote sites and urban sites. For exampleinstance, bulk PM<sub>1</sub> at QOMS was reported to be internally well-mixed and aged-at QOMS due, attributed to long-range transport aerosol sources of from biomass-burning-related emissions from South Asia (Zhang et al., 2018), whereas local primary sources, including cooking, traffic exhausts, and biomass burning together contributed, totally accounted for more than 60% of the total OA at thein urban site in Lhasa (Zhao et al., 2022). The crucial influence of aerosol sources on size distributions is further supported in Fig. 4a by the quantitative relationship correlation between the mode size and O/C ratios of OA ( $R^2 = 0.74$ ) (Fig. 4a). The diurnal variations of PM<sub>1</sub> chemical compositions are typically influenced by multiple factors, including the meteorological conditions (such ase.g., planetary boundary layer (PBL) height, wind direction and speed, temperature, relative humidity), differentyarious primary emission sources (such as intensee.g., vehicle exhausts during traffic rush hours, cooking emissions, and coal combustion emissions from for heating activities), and distinct formation mechanisms (such asc.g., daytime photochemical oxidation processes, nighttime heterogeneous reactions, and gas-particle partitioning of secondary species). Therefore, aA comprehensive understanding of thethese diurnal variation characteristics of different aerosol chemical compositions variations is not only beneficial crucial for investigating their exploring the dynamic evolution processes but also helpful in understanding of aerosol compositions and identifying the key factorsprimary drivers (source, meteorology, or secondary formation) that drive behind

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Distinct diurnal variation patterns of the total PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentrations were observed during theacross different field campaigns (Fig. 4b). The diurnal variations at those At remote sites (such asof QOMS, LHG, NamCo, and Waliguan), located either in the valley valleys or at the top of theatop mountains, variations were mostly controlled largely governed by the circulation of mountain-valley wind circulation and the variation of change in PBL height during the day. For instance, QOMS exhibited a distinct diurnal pattern with continuously decreasing concentrations during the daytime, but relatively higher concentrations at night. The minimum mass occurred at around ~15:00 in this valley site, mainly likely due to the strong down slope afternoon glacier winds with high wind speed and enhanced a higher PBL height in the afternoon (Zhang et al., 2018). Conversely, LHG and NamCo experienced lower PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentration concentrations from night to early morning and continuously increasing concentrations during the afternoon were observed at LHG and NamCo sites. The high mass concentrations, with increase in the afternoon, attributed at LHG were tightly associated with theto up-slope wind transport of and at NamCo to aerosols advected by the prevailing up slope winds during that time. However, the high concentration in the afternoon at NamCo might be influenced by the downward transmission of aerosols descending from higher layer to the ground surface, as well as layers and enhanced aerosol plume afternoon transport from those relatively polluted western regions during the afternoon the west (Xu et al., 2018). A relatively complex diurnal variation pattern of total PM<sub>1</sub> was observed at the top of Mt. Waliguan, which could be attributed to the combined effects of variabilities in influenced by diffusion conditions (such as PBL height), wind directions (such as mountain valley wind circulation), and air mass sources (such as enhanced, including afternoon air massmasses from the northeast during the afternoon, favoring the transport of polluted acrosols from, which likely carried industrial areas)pollutants (Zhang et al., 2019). At Motuo, the diurnal variation pattern of PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentration was relatively stable, except for with two weak peaks linked to local combustion activities in the late morning and evening, which were possibly related to combustion emissions from local residents in the county. Ngari exhibited relatively high masshigher nighttime loadings at night, whereas low values were observed during the and lower daytime loadings, mainly due to the variations of PBL height. Bayanbulak, on the other hand, had relatively low and stable PM<sub>1</sub> mass

throughout the entire day, primarily due to its background featurelocation. In contrast to the remote sites, the, urban site in Lhasa showed a clear diurnal variation pattern with displayed two pronounced peaks around 8:00–9:00 and 20:00–21:00. This pattern could be attributed to strongcorrelating with primary aerosol emissions from vehicle exhausts, cooking, and biomass burning activities during the morning and evening timesrush hours (Zhao et al., 2022). Although the diurnal variationspattern of total PM<sub>1</sub> were mainly affectedshaped by the variabilities in mountain-valley wind circulationwinds and PBL height in those remote sites, and primary emissions in the urban site in this study, thesecondary formation processes, including photochemical oxidation and aqueous-phase reactions were also two important played a key role in the formation pathways of secondary inorganic and organic aerosol species. This could be observed clearly evidenced by those identified the afternoon peaks of oxygenated OA (OOA) components at observed across almost all the sites, which were commonly showed peaks during the afternoon formed by photo-chemical processes (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2022).

### 4.3 High-resolution mass spectrum and elemental ratios of organic aerosol

The high-resolution mass spectrum (HRMS) and elemental ratios of OA were determined to identify the possible sources, formation and evolution mechanisms, as well as the and oxidation states of these complex OA components at each site. The A <u>direct comparison of the average O/C ratios of the OAs</u> from the eight field campaigns were compared directly (was presented in Fig. 5a). It is evidentapparent that the average O/C ratios of OAs were generally close to or larger than 1.0 at the remote sites of QOMS, Motuo, NamCo, Ngari, Waliguan, and LHG, whereas typically reached or exceeded 1.0, indicating highly oxidized OA. In contrast, Bayanbulak exhibited a lower O/C ratio of 0.69 was observed at Bayanbulak and, and the urban site of Lhasa showed an even lower <del>O/C</del>-ratio of 0.44-was observed at the urban site in Lhasa. These variations in O/C ratios across sites primarily reflect differences in O/C ratios were mainly attributed to the variations in OA sources and aging processes across different sites. As mentioned earlier, atmospheric aerosols in the remote. Remote sites in the TP were generally associated with-received well-mixed and aged OA due to long-range transport from surrounding areas, hence the OAs were generally well-mixed and highly aged during the transport from source region to the remote sites in the TP (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). However Meanwhile, local fresh OAs

625 emittedemissions from various residential activities such as like cooking, traffic 626 exhausts, and biomass burning predominated significantly contribute to the total OA atin 627 urban Lhasa, resulting in a comparatively low O/C ratio (Zhao et al., 2022), which ultimately led to a relatively low O/C ratio. Similar differences in O/C ratios have been. 628 629 This pattern of higher O/C ratios at remote sites and lower ratios at urban sites were 630 observed in previous studies infindings across China. For instance, higher, such as O/C 631 ratios of 0.98, 1.11, and 1.16 were measured at remote sites in observed at Mt. Wuzhi 632 (Zhu et al., 2016), Mt. Yulong (Zheng et al., 2017), and LHG (Xu et al., 2015), 633 whilerespectively, versus urban sites where O/C ratios of OAs were generally lower 634 thantypically fell below 0.5 at most urban sites (Zhou et al., 2020). The Van Krevelen diagram (, which plots H/C versus O/C), a widely used approach ratios to depict 635 636 theillustrate changes in the OA elemental composition of OA resulting from due to atmospheric aging processing, is displayed in Fig. 5b. An, shows an overall slope of 637 -0.66 was observed for the bulk OAsOA across the eight field measurementall 638 639 campaigns in our study, which. This result is comparable to those slopes of -0.58 and -0.47 obtained from different synthesized datasets from diverse field observations in 640 641 previous studies, further illustrating common pathways in OA aging (Chen et al., 2015; 642 Zhou et al., 2020). 643 The average HRMSs of OA between the remote site (Waliguan) and the urban site 644 (Lhasa) were directly compared to investigate the inherent difference in ionionic 645 compositions (Fig. 5c). Waliguan was chosen as an example because the selected for comparison due to its representation of overall highly-aged OA-nature, a characteristic 646 shared with very similar HRMSs among the seven other remote sites, as shown in \_\_(Fig. 647 S3-in the supplementary materials. It is evident that the ). The HRMS of OA HRMSs 648 649 exhibited distinct variations between these two types of sites. At theat Waliguan site, and Lhasa displayed significant differences. At Waliguan, the m/z 44, which 650 ispredominantly composed totally byof CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> and one of the most reliable markersa 651 key marker for OOA, was the basemost prominent peak (18%) in the OA HRMS. The 652 CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> and its related four ions (CO<sup>+</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sup>+</sup>, HO<sup>+</sup> and O<sup>+</sup>) together contributed more 653 thanover 41% of the total OA signals. Additionally, the two oxygenated ion fragments 654 655  $(C_xH_vO_1^+)$  and  $C_xH_vO_2^+$  accounted for as much as 66% of the total OA signals (Fig. 5c). All these features demonstrated), suggesting the overall-highly oxygenated nature 656 657 of OA at thethis remote background sites in the TP.site. In contrast, the OA HRMS at

658 Lhasa was remarkably similar to those observed at mostin urban cities. 659 The environments, with significant contributions from four m/zs valuez values at 43, 55, 660 57, and 60, which. These ions are recognized as important mass spectral tracers markers 661 for less oxidized OA compounds or primary emissions related to traffic, cooking, and 662 biomass burning activities (Zhang et al., 2005a; Alfarra et al., 2007; He et al., 2010), showedmaking up a significant contributions contribution to the total OA signals in this 663 urban site. Lhasa. Specifically, the non-oxygenated ion fragment of C<sub>x</sub> fragments (C<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>) 664 contributed as highermuch as 64.5% of the total OA signal in Lhasa, whereas the two 665 666 oxygenated ion fragments contributed accounted for only 33.6%. The high 667 contribution This pattern of fresh ion fragments in the OA HRMS in Lhasa is 668 comparable to those measured at other urban cities, such as 56% and 59% in Lanzhou (Xu et al., 2014b; Xu et al., 2016), 51.2% in Nanjing (Wang et al., 2016), and 51.2% in 669 670 New York (Sun et al., 2011).

### 4.4 OA components from PMF source apportionment

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Source apportionments of OA were performed using PMF analysis on OA HRMS data for each field campaign. Figure 6 presents the average mass contributions of different OA components from the selected 2–4 factor solutions among the across eight different field campaigns, while Figure S4 details the specific HRMS of signatures for each OA component is displayed in Fig. S4. Due to the. In regions with limited local sources emissions but dominated sources significant influence from regional transport, onlysuch as NamCo, LHG, and Bayanbulak, two secondary OOAOA factors with different oxidation degrees, namely a less oxidized OOA (LO-OOA) and a more oxidized OOA (MO-OOA), were identified during the NamCo, LHG, and Bayanbulak campaigns. On average. For instance, during the NamCo campaign, the MO-OOA and LO-OOA accounted for 59.0% and 41.0% of the total OA mass, with average O/C ratios of 0.96 and 0.49, respectively, accounted for 59.0% and 41.0% of the total OA mass. Similarly, the. The Bayanbulak campaign exhibited contributions of a similar result, with MO-OOA (average O/C of 1.12) and LO-OOA (average O/C of 0.55) to total OA mass ataccounting for 66.3% and 33.7%, of the OA mass, respectively. HoweverContrastingly, the LHG campaign showed onlyrevealed a different pattern, with 24.9% of MO-OOA and 75.1% of LO-OOA, albeit with relatively highligher O/C ratios of 1.29 and 1.08, respectively. Besides Note that the two properties of each OOA factors factor could be different across the locations in the TP despite the same name.

691 Additionally, biomass-burning-related OA (BBOA) was also widely identified 692 prevalent component in the TP-regions. At QOMS, the total OA mass was composed by 693 42.4% of MO-OOA, 43.9% of BBOA, and 13.9% of nitrogen-containing OA (NOA), 694 with average O/C ratios of 1.34, 0.85, and 1.10, respectively. The high O/C ratio and 695 significant contributions from f BBOA and NOA at QOMS were associated with the 696 transport of linked to biomass burning emissions transported from polluted regions in 697 South Asia to the Himalaya and inland TP regions during the pre-monsoon season 698 (Cong et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018; Kang et al., 2019a). At Waliguan, the total-OA 699 mass—was composed by 34.4% of MO-OOA, 40.4% of relatively aged BBOA 700 (agBBOA), 18.3% of BBOA, and 6.9% of hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), with average 701 O/C ratios of 1.42, 1.02, 0.69, and 0.33, respectively. The two BBOA components, 702 particularly agBBOA, exhibited an enhanced contribution to total OA as the OA mass concentration increased, ranging from only ~10% to as high as 70% when OA mass 703 varied from <1.0 μg m<sup>-3</sup> to 7 μg m<sup>-3</sup> (Zhang et al., 2019). In addition, source analysis 704 705 indicated that the highHigh contributions of the two BBOA components at Waliguan 706 were associated with the regional transport of biomass burning emissions from the 707 residential areas in northeastern Waliguanthe northeast (Zhang et al., 2019). At Ngari, 708 the total OA mass was composed by 43.7% of MO-OOA, 28.5% of LO-OOA, and 27.8% 709 of BBOA, with average O/C ratios of 1.43, 1.00, and 0.56, respectively. In 710 comparison contrast, the contributions of the three Motuo exhibited OA components at 711 Motuo site were of 36.9%, MO-OOA, 46.9%, LO-OOA, and 16.2%, BBOA, with 712 O/C ratios of 1.30, 1.11, and 0.25, respectively. The BBOA factor at Motuo exhibited 713 relatively The lower mass BBOA contribution and O/C ratio compared to those observed 714 at QOMS, Ngari, and Waliguan, suggesting weakat Motuo suggest a weaker local source from biomass burning. Four emissions. At urban Lhasa, four OA factors were 715 716 identified including an OOA component with O/C ratio of 0.54 and three primary OA 717 components, i.e., a-BBOA with (O/C of 0.13, a), cooking-related OA (COA) with, O/C 718 of 0.12<sub>3</sub>), and a-HOA with (O/C of 0.11, were identified at the urban site in Lhasa, which 719 were distinctly). These components were markedly different with from those observed 720 at the above remote sites. The with the three primary OA components together 721 contributed accounting for more than 60% of the total OA-mass at Lhasa, suggesting the 722. abundant primary aerosol sources from the residential activities. In addition, the BBOA 723 contribution increased obviously significantly (up to 36%) during a grandmajor local 724 festival atin Lhasa, suggesting the crucial aerosol source from biomass burning during

- religious activities in the city (Zhao et al., 2022). In summary, distinct types of OA components with different O/C ratios were identified at different sites, indicating the
- 727 different sources and oxidation states of OA in the different TP regions.
- 728 <u>In summary, our study identified diverse OA components with varying O/C ratios at</u>
- 729 <u>different sites, indicating the heterogeneity of sources and oxidation states of OA across</u>
- 730 the TP regions.

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#### 4.5 Number concentrations of submicron aerosols and cloud condensation nuclei

Real-time online measurements of the size distribution of number concentration of fine particles were also conducted simultaneously using SMPS instruments during four field campaigns (QOMS, Motuo, LHG, and Lhasa). The measurement of particle number size distribution (PNSD) was not only an important auxiliary data for calibrating and verifying the accuracy of HR ToF AMS data, but also very useful for studying the formation and growth mechanisms of aerosol particles in the atmosphere. Figure 7a shows the high-resolution temporal variations of the PNSDs during the four field campaigns. The PNSDs varied dynamically throughout the measurement period at each site and showed distinct variations in \_(QOMS, Motuo, LHG, and Lhasa), revealing significant variability in number concentrations and size distribution pattern amongpatterns across the four-different eampaignssites. On average, the total number concentrations were concentration was 709.3 and 3994.4 cm<sup>-3</sup> at QOMS and Lhasa, respectively, while they wereit was 1639.2 and 1462.0 cm<sup>-3</sup> at Motuo and LHG. Interestingly Notably, the difference variations in particle number concentrations were not consistent with those in mass concentrations measured from the HR-ToF-AMS amongat the four campaigns (Table 2). For example instance, although the PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentration at Lhasa was comparable to that at QOMS (4.7 versus 4.4 µg m<sup>-3</sup>), the number concentration at Lhasa was more than five times higher than that at QOMS. This inconsistency may be was mainly related to the distinctly different difference on size distribution at different sites. As discussedmentioned above, submicron aerosols at QOMS were overall highly aged predominantly secondary due to the long-range transported sourcestransport from South Asia and dominated characterized by aerosols at accumulation mode size mode, whereas more fresh. In contrast, Lhasa exhibited fresher aerosols, emitted from local residential activities and dominated characterized by aerosols of Aitken size mode were observed at Lhasa.size. The different sizes of variation in submicron aerosols amongaerosol sizes across the different TP regions

758 could be was further confirmed evidenced by the peak diameters in the average mass and 759 number size distributions of mass and number concentrations (Figs. 4a and 7b). For 760 example instance, the average OA mass size distributions exhibited peak diameters of 761 distribution peaked at 510.2 and 430.5 nm in  $D_{va}$  at for QOMS and Motuo, respectively, 762 while. Meanwhile, the average number size distributions at these two sites had peak diameters of at 109.4 and 131.0 nm in  $D_{\rm m}$  at the same sites. In contrast, Lhasa displayed 763 764 <u>significantly smaller</u> peak diameters of only 228.1 nm in  $D_{va}$  and 28.9 nm in  $D_{m}$ . 765 New particle formation (NPF) events were also observed at a fewseveral sites in our 766 study. Typically, an NPF event is characterized by a rapid burst in nucleation mode 767 followed by the subsequent growth into larger particles, as defined as banana-shaped 768 temporal developments in the PNSD (Dal Maso et al., 2005). As shown in Fig. Figure 769 7a, frequent displays the cases of banana-shaped variation patterns in the PNSD, 770 which were frequently observed at Lhasa, suggesting the frequent occurrence of NPF 771 at this urban region. During Lhasa. Throughout the 27-day Lhasa campaign (27 days), 772 a total of 10 NPF events were observed (Zhao et al., 2022). In contrast, this such banana-773 shaped pattern in the PNSD was relatively rare at the other three remote sites, (QOMS, 774 Motuo, and LHG), which might be related to their predominated 775 transportpredominance of long-range transported aerosol sources, with overall highly-776 aged states, and limited gaseous precursors. 777 Cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) is a distinct class of atmospheric aerosol particles 778 which could be activated as cloud droplets at a certain supersaturated water vapor 779 condition and played important roles in cloud formation, atmospheric-precipitation, 780 theclimate change, and regional climate, as well as the hydrological cycle (Andreae and 781 Rosenfeld, 2008). During Across the TP field campaigns, real time online CCN 782 measurements of CCN number concentrations were conducted at three sites, i.e.,: Motuo in the southeastern TP while, Waliguan, and LHG in the northeastern TP. 783 784 Generally, the. The temporal **variation** variations of **CCN** number 785 concentration concentrations at each SS exhibited a consistent similar trend with the total 786 number concentration from the SMPS measurement or total and the PM1 mass 787 concentration from the HR-ToF-AMS measurement during each campaign. On average, 788 at Motuo, the CCN number concentrations at Motuo were 974.0, 1142.6, 1240.1, 1296.5, and 1337.9 cm<sup>-3</sup> at different SS values level of 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.6%, 0.8%, and 1.0%, 789 790 respectively. At Waliguan, relatively comparable average values of 507.0, 805233.7,

857.8, 1138.7, 1313.1, <del>1073.3, 1230.6, and 1336.6</del>1407.0 cm<sup>-3</sup> were observed at the same SS steps, respectively. However, at corresponding SS levels. In contrast, LHG, these average values exhibited significantly decreased to 83.9, 344.3, 429.9, 480.8, lower average CCN concentration of 120.5, 340.1, 417.8, 468.0, and 516.1504.5 cm<sup>-3</sup> at the same SS levels, respectively (Table 2). The lower CCN number concentrations at LHG compared to Waliguan and Motuo were consistent with the relativelyits lower PM<sub>1</sub> mass loading at the LHG site. The Comparing with other regions, the CCN number concentrations at the three TP sites were almost an order of magnitude lower than those observed in polluted urban atmospheres environments or emissions of from specific combustion sources, such asemissions. For instance, CCN concentrations <u>reached</u> 12963 cm<sup>-3</sup> (SS = 0.70%) in Wuqing, 9890 cm<sup>-3</sup> (SS = 0.86%) in Beijing (Deng et al., 2011; Gunthe et al., 2011),  $7913 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (SS = 0.70%) at Panyu in the Pearl River Delta, as well as  $11565 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (SS = 0.87%) and  $10000 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (SS = 0.80%) during unique biomass burning plumes (Rose et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2020). However, ourthe CCN values from our study were comparable to those (228-2150 cm<sup>-3</sup> with SS of 0.87%) measured at eight remote marine sites in the South China Sea  $(228-2150 \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ at } SS =$ 0.87%) and  $941 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (SS = 0.74%) in the amazon rain forest (941 cm<sup>-3</sup> at SS = 0.74%) (Pöhlker et al., 2016; Atwood et al., 2017). These comparisons again highlight the overall clean atmospheric condition in the TP.

### 4.6 Aerosol optical properties and light absorptions from BC and BrC

The optical properties of aerosol particles are crucial input parameters for accurately estimating—aerosol—radiative—forcing—in—climate—models. However, significant uncertainties persist due to the limited dataset in—In\_this remote region. In our projectstudy, the parameters of  $B_{scat}$ ,  $B_{abs}$ , and SSA of fine particles at 405 nm were observed during fiveat the field campaigns, i.e., of QOMS, Motuo, Waliguan, Ngari, and Lhasa, to explore the differences variations in aerosol optical properties at differentacross the TP regions. On average, the  $B_{scat}$  and  $B_{abs}$  at 405 nm during the five campaigns were 121.9, 44.9, 36.3, 8.9, and 2.1 Mm<sup>-1</sup> and 10.8, 7.0, 4.1, 3.6, and 1.9 Mm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, which finally resulted in. These values yielded average SSA values of 0.89, 0.83, 0.86, 0.67, and 0.52, correspondingly (Fig. 8a and Table 2). These The  $B_{scat}$  and  $B_{abs}$  values at the five TP sites were both significantly lower than those reported atin various urban sitesareas in China, such as 459.5 and 47.2 Mm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, at 630 nm in Beijing (Xie et al., 2019), 272 and 31 Mm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, at 532 nm in Xi'an

(Zhu et al., 2015), and 418 and 91 Mm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, at 540 nm in Guangzhou 824 825 (Andreae et al., 2008), once again suggesting the overall clean atmospheric condition 826 in the TP. Although the PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentrations at QOMS was comparable to or even 827 lower than those at the other four sites, QOMS exhibited the highest  $B_{scat}$ ,  $B_{abs}$ , and SSA 828 values were observed at QOMS. These results. This discrepancy may be attributed due 829 to the differences variations in aerosol chemical compositions and their mass scattering 830 and absorbing efficiencies. In contrast, Lhasa exhibited a significantly lower SSA 831 compared to the other four remote sites, suggesting a prevalence of fresh aerosols in the 832 urban areaenvironment. On the other hand, aerosols at the four remote sites were highly 833 aged, which resulted in leading to significant photobleaching in f BrC chromophores 834 and an obvious decrease in their light absorptivity at these sites. 835 In this study, realReal-time online measurements of particle  $B_{abs}$  at seven fixed 836 wavelengths (ranging from 370= to 950 nm) were also conducted using an aethalometer 837 at QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan, respectively, to explore the regional 838 difference variations in aerosol absorption properties inacross the different TP regions. Overall, the muti-wavelength B<sub>abs</sub> decreased significantly with the increasing 839 840 wavelength during all-the three measurement campaigns, with fitting fitted AAE values 841 to be 1.73, 1.28, and 1.12, respectively (Fig. 8b). The average  $B_{abs}$  at the shortest wavelength of 370 nm was 13.40, 3.25, and 2.66 Mm<sup>-1</sup> at the three sites, respectively 842 843 (Table 2). Although Despite a relatively low PM<sub>1</sub> mass was observed concentrations at 844 QOMS, the  $B_{abs}$  at 370 nm was five times higher than that at Waliguan, mainly asdue 845 to a result of the higher contribution of light-absorbing aerosol components in the southern TP regions. For example. Specifically, OA and BC together 846 847 contributed accounted for nearly 80% of the total PM1 at QOMS, whereas this 848 contribution decreased to only 37.5% at Waliguan. The obviously higher AAE at 849 QOMS also suggested a dominant light-absorbing contribution from BrC or the 850 significant lensing effect of non BC materials coated on BC at this southern siteBC 851 (Zhang et al., 2021). As shown in the The inserted plots in Fig. 8b, both BC and BrC 852 components showed illustrate significant decrease of decreases in particle Babs (BC and 853  $B_{abs,BC}$  and  $B_{rC}$  to total  $B_{abs,BC}$  with increasing wavelength, but yet their contributions to 854 total  $B_{abs}$  ( $fB_{abs,BC}$  and  $fB_{abs,BC}$ ) varied inversely. BC was the primary light-absorbing 855 component atacross all the three sites, contributing 66.9%, 78.7%, and 77.6% to the 856 total  $B_{abs}$  at 370 nm at QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan sites, respectively, and; its

857 contribution increased apparently with longer wavelengths (Table 2). Conversely, BrC 858 showed more significant contributions to total  $B_{abs}$  at shorter wavelengths. For example instance, the average  $B_{abs,BrC}$  at 370 nm were 4.42, 0.69, and 0.60 Mm<sup>-1</sup> at the 859 860 three sites, respectively, which finally contributed ultimately contributing 33.1%, 21.3%, 861 and 22.4% ofto the total  $B_{abs}$ . The significantly higher values of total  $B_{abs}$ ,  $B_{abs,BC}$ ,  $B_{abs,BrC}$ , and  $fB_{abs,BrC}$  in the southern TP region could be related to the important 862 863 contributions of light-absorbing CAs from transported biomass burning emissions (Xu 864 et al., 2020, 2022).

## 4.7 Estimation of aerosol radiative forcing in the different TP regions

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888 889 Atmospheric aerosols have been found to significantly impact the play a significant role in impacting Earth's climate systems through affecting solar radiation and exerting a positive forcing on the energy budget (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006). In this study, aerosol direct radiative forcings (DRF) caused by BC, organic carbon (OC), and watersoluble ions (WSIs) are estimated, respectively, by the widely usedusing Santa Barbara DISORT (Discrete Ordinate Radiative Transfer) Atmospheric Radiative Transfer (SBDART) model (Ricchiazzi et al., 1998). A detailed introduction and operation process of this model are described in Text S6 in the supplementary material. Since the model's performance is evaluated and calibrated by comparing the values with measurements from the Aethalometer and PAX instruments results, the aerosol DRF estimations are limited to the three sites of QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan, which have both online measurements from the aforementioned instruments. Furthermore, these three sites are located in the southern, central, and northern regions of the TP, respectively, which enables us to explore theallows for an exploration of regional variations in aerosol DRF across different the TP-regions. Figure 9 presents the modelled results of DRFs caused by attributed to BC, OC, and WSIs BC<del>exhibited</del>demonstrated <del>during</del>across the three campaigns. significant pronounced warming effect at the top of the atmosphere, with average DRF values of  $+2.5 \pm 0.5$ ,  $+2.1 \pm 0.1$ , and  $+1.9 \pm 0.1$  W m<sup>-2</sup> during the QOMS, Waliguan, and NamCo eampaigncampaigns, respectively. In contrast, BC exhibited a noticeable cooling effect eaused by BC was observed at the earth's surface, with average DRF values of  $-4.7 \pm 0.8$ ,  $-4.1 \pm 0.2$ , and  $-3.7 \pm 0.1$  W m<sup>-2</sup> across the three campaigns. The combination of warming effect at the top of the atmosphere and cooling effect at the earth's surface these two effects resulted in significantly high net atmospheric

foreingsforcing by BC, amounting to  $+7.3 \pm 1.2$ ,  $+6.2 \pm 0.3$ , and  $+5.6 \pm 0.2$  W m<sup>-2</sup> duringfor the QOMS, Waliguan, and NamCothree campaigns, respectively. These findingsresults suggest the important radiative effect caused byof BC in the TP, especially in the southern TP-region, which was significantly influenced by the long-range transported biomass burning emission from South Asia. ForIn contrast, OC and WSIs, exhibited cooling effects were observed at both the top of the atmosphere and the earth's Earth's surface, characterized by negative and relatively low average DRFs. Consequently, the net atmospheric forcings for OC and WSIs were significantly notably lower compared to BC across the three campaigns, with values of  $+2.0 \pm 1.2$ ,  $+0.7 \pm 0.2$ , and  $+0.9 \pm 0.7$  W m<sup>-2</sup> for OC, and  $+1.9 \pm 0.8$ ,  $+1.4 \pm 0.6$ , and  $+1.2 \pm 0.2$  W m<sup>-2</sup> for WSIs at QOMS, Waliguan and NamCo, respectively. Interestingly, at QOMS, the average atmospheric DRF of OC accounted for 27.3% of that of BC, whereas at Waliguan and NamCo, the fractions were only 11.1% and 15.7%, respectively. The higher atmospheric DRF observed at QOMS suggests a dominant contribution from light-absorbing BC and BrC aerosols, compared to Waliguan and NamCo.

It was worth noting that the simulations of DRF effects in this study were only conducted at three specific sites duringover limited periods. Therefore, Future research should focus on long-term comprehensive measurements and DRF simulations overacross the entire TP regions under different seasons are needed in the future to enhance our understanding of aerosol impacts on regional climate.

### 4.8 Long-range transport of aerosols from surrounding areas

To further understand the potential sources and specific transport pathways of air massesaerosols at each site, particularly for those remote sites where regional transport dominated, three- or five-days air mass back trajectories were calculated during each measurement period at an ending height of 500 m above ground level every 6h using the Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Draxler and Rolph, 2003). The cluster analysis on the trajectories was based on the total spatial minimum variance method. Figure 10 displaydisplays the average backward trajectory clusters duringacross all the eight field campaigns and the major trajectory clusters at each site are marked with large solid circles in different colors.

In general, distinct air mass sources were identified amongacross the different—TP

regions. The five sites (QOMS, Motuo, Lhasa, NamCo, and Ngari) located in the

southern or south-central part of the TP generally showed dominant air mass sourcesmasses from the south or southwest with different transport distances and pathways during their measurement periods in pre monsoon season. For exampleinstance, during the QOMS campaign, 38% of the air masses originated from the west, covering a considerably long transport distance, while another 40% was originated from the southwest, covering a relatively shorter distance. In the Motuo campaign, two major clusters were both originated from the southwest, but their transport with different distances were distinctly different (77% at shorter distance compared to only 13% at a longer distance). Similarly, during the NamCo campaign, two different major clusters with comparable contributions (37% and 34%) and transport distances, but different transport pathways, were foundidentified from the south. The In the Ngari campaign also observed, air masses showed similar transport distances, with 56% of the air masses originating from southwest and 26% from the south of the site. These air mass clusters originating from the south of the TP generally traverse heavy polluted regions in South Asia, such as the Indo-Gangetic Plain, Nepal, and Bangladesh, carrying significant amounts of polluted aerosolspollutants, particularly the biomass-burning related emissions from the source origins to into the inland of the TP. In contrast, air masses at the northern sites were primarily influenced by the prevailing Westerlies wind and East Asian monsoon during the summer season measurement periods. In the campaigns of Bayanbulak campaign, the major, air masses were all originated from the west of the site with varying transportdifferent distances (, i.e., 69% in relatively shorter distance versus 18% in a longer distance. During the LHG campaign, the air masses originated from the northwest of the site with 63% in longer transport distance but 27% in shorter distance. For the Waliguan campaign, the air mass <del>clusters</del> originated from two <del>distinctly different</del><u>distinct</u> directions. The majorityMost of the air masses (57%) came from the northeast of the site covering with a relatively shorter distance and faster transport speed, while the remaining elustersair masses originated from the west and northwest of the site covering significantly with longer distances. In summary, significant differences variations in air mass sources and transport pathways were identified amongobserved across the different TP regions, particularly between the southern and the northern TP regions. These differences are the primary factors contributing to the significantlyplay a crucial role in shaping the different

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physiochemical and optical properties of aerosols inacross the different TP regions.

## 5 Dataset limitations and applications

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Our dataset was achieved compiled from multiplecight short-term intensive field observations conducted at eight different sites of across the TP during their high mass-<del>loading periods</del> utilizing a suite of high-resolution online instruments. However, it is important to acknowledgenote that our dataset has does have certain limitations due to objective restrictions that were proved to be quite challenging to overcome address in these remote regions. The primary limitation revolves aroundstems from the short and inconsistent measurement periods across different observational years and seasons at different sites-This limitation hinders the ability to make a, impeding robust comparisons of aerosol properties across the vast TP region, TP. This limitation also hampers the ability to ascertain long-term and seasonal variation characteristics, and apply the current data and findings to other different seasons. The harsh natural environments, challenging weather conditions, limited logistical support, sole availability of our highresolution and instruments, and the stringent instrumental requirements (e.g., such as the neednecessity for comprehensive field stations with uninterrupted and stable power supply) were the most presented significant challenges we faced during our field observations in these remote TP regions. It is worth noting that online HR-ToF-AMS observations, such as the onesone we conducted, are predominantly short-term and intense intensive observations carried out worldwide due to the stability instability issues and its challenging maintenance <del>during</del>required long-term measurement ean well is enough to capture and characterize the dynamic evolution of aerosol properties at a high-timeresolution (Jimenez et al., 2009; Li et al., 2017). Until now, longLong-term high-timeresolution observation utilizing HR-ToF-AMS have been rarely been conducted thus

environments conditions and logistic support compared to our remote TP sites. Consequently, performing continuous long-term observations or simultaneous comparison at multiple sites in these high-altitude remote and challenging TP regions, without stable power supply is nearly impossible TP regions, without stable power.

far, even atin urban sitesenvironment with relatively favorable observational

without stable power supply, is nearly impossible TP regions, without stable power supply, is exceedingly challenging. Furthermore, assessing the representativeness of

each observation for the spatial scale is particularly challenging due to the limited

988 number of observatories across the TP. Actually, these observatories have been 989 strategically established based on the representation of specific geographic and climatic 990 features. 991 HoweverIn addition to the limitations above, our team has made significant efforts to 992 conduct thethis comprehensive observation project over the past ten yearsdecade, 993 aiming to study the regional differences in aerosol sources and properties across the 994 different TP-regions. The dataset generated from our project represents the first and 995 soleexclusive high-time-resolution dataset focusing on atmospheric aerosol 996 physicochemical and optical properties, coring the covering most partregion of the TP. 997 The applications of this dataset in atmospheric science can be summarized as follows: 998 firstly are multifaceted. Firstly, the high-time-resolution observations offer crucial 999 advantages in understanding the rapid evolution and diurnal variations of aerosol 000 properties during a short period or special event. Additionally Furthermore, these 001 observations are valuable invaluable for model simulation and verification, as they 002 provide sufficient providing a wealth of data points. that can be utilized for assessing aerosol loading, chemical composition, size distribution, and other parameters essential 003 for model accuracy and validation. Such advantages are not achievable with traditional 004 005 off-line samplings, which havetypically exhibit low time resolutions ranging from days 006 to weeks. Secondly, the eight sites included encompassed in our project effectively 1007 represent a wide range of the TP. This is particularly noteworthy considering the limited 008 availability of observational stations observatories on the plateau. Furthermore, these TP. 009 These sites provide excellent opportunities for comparing facilitate comparisons of aerosol sources and properties among different types of sites with varying altitudes, 010 land covers, surrounding environments, human activities, and influences from large-011 012 scale atmospheric circulations regions. Thirdly, our observations encompass a wide 1013 range of aerosol physical, chemical, and optical parameters, including aerosol mass 1014 loadings, chemical compositions, size distribution, diurnal variations, number 1015 concentrations, light scattering and absorption coefficients, and so on. This 016 comprehensive dataset isplays a crucial for a thoroughrole in fostering a profound 017 understanding of aerosol properties in the TP-regions. Overall, it is worth noting that until now, similar online observational aerosol datasets focusing on multiple parameters 018 019 with at least hourly scale resolution at various sites in the diverse TP regions had been 020 rarely reported.

- Overall, it is noteworthy that our online observational aerosol datasets, focusing on
- multiple parameters with at least hourly-scale resolution at various sites across the TP,
- are the only ones reported to date.

### 6 Data availability

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- The high-resolution online measurement datasets, encompassing aerosol physical,
- 1026 chemical, and optical properties over the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings in our
- observation project have been released and are now available for download from the
- 1028 National Cryosphere Desert Data Center
- 1029 (https://doi.org/10.12072/ncdc.NIEER.db2200.2022). These datasets are provided in an
- 1030 Excel file comprising eight worksheets. The first sheet of the Excel file contains a
- 1031 concise description of the dataset, including the dataset name, observation stations,
- sampling periods, online instruments used, and corresponding references. The
- remaining seven sheets present the high-resolution measurement data obtained from the
- online instruments employed during the eight campaigns. These instruments include
- HR-ToF-AMS, SMPS, PAX, aethalometer, and CCN-100.

### 7 Conclusions

- 037 AThis study presents a comprehensive dataset including encompassing aerosol
- physicochemical and optical properties, especially the with a particular focus on high-
- 1039 resolution size-resolved chemical characteristics and sources of submicron aerosols,
- 1040 conducted through real time online measurements at at eight different sites of the TP
- and its surroundings is presented in this study. The objective of this study is to elucidate
- the mass concentration level of atmospheric aerosols in this isolated background region
- 1043 and identify regional variations in aerosol sources, as well as physicochemical and
- 1044 optical properties among different TP regions. Ultimately, these valuable data will
- 045 significantly contribute to accurately simulating the radiative forcing and other
- 1046 potential impacts of atmospheric aerosols in this remote region in future climatic
- 047 models.
- 048 A total of eight acrosol field measurements were conducted at QOMS, Motuo, NamCo,
- 049 Ngari, Waliguan, LHG, Bayanbulak, and Lhasa in the different regions of TP and its
- 1050 surroundings by deploying multiple online instruments, including HR ToF-AMS,
- 1051 SMPS, PAX, Aethalometer, and CCN 100. The datasets collected datasets provide the
- offer insights into temporal and diurnal variations as well as the, size distribution

053 patterns of PM<sub>1</sub> chemical compositions, the standard high resolution mass spectra and 054 temporal variations of OAHRMS and chemical components, the temporal variations of 055 particle number size distribution of OA, particle light scattering and absorption 056 coefficients, particle light absorptions from different CAs of BC and BrC, and CCN 057 number concentrations at different supersaturation in each campaign supersaturations in 058 different campaigns. 059 The datasets provideoffer valuable insights into the regional variations in aerosol 060 properties and sources. In the southern TP region, atmospheric aerosols were found to 061 be primarily influenced by biomass burning emissions transported from polluted regions in South Asia, which resulted in high mass contributions (>70%) of CAs and 062 063 overall neutralized PM<sub>1</sub>, as well as an enhanced light absorption capability of the light-064 absorbing BC and BrC.aerosols. In contrast, in the northern TP, secondary inorganic 1065 species, particularly sulfate, contributed significantly to total PM<sub>1</sub> due to the regional 1066 transport of anthropogenic aerosol and gaseous precursor emissions from urban areas 1067 in northwestern China. Furthermore, in contrast to the well-mixed, highly-aged, and 1068 regionally transported aerosols observed in the remote sites, atmospheric aerosols in 1069 the urban Lhasa were mainly originated from local primary sources such as cooking, 1070 traffic vehicle exhausts, and biofuel combustion during the residential activities. 1071 Consequently, these aerosol particles were relatively fresh, characterized by small size 1072 and low oxidation degree, but exhibited a high frequency of NPF origins.

# **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 extinctiometer
CCN	cloud condensation nuclei
SS	supersaturation
$PM_1$	submicron aerosol
BC	black carbon
BrC	brown carbon
OA	organic aerosol
SNA	sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium
$D_{ m m}$	mobility diameter
$D_{ m va}$	aerodynamic diameter
CE	collection efficiency
HRMS	high-resolution mass spectrum
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

NPFnew particle formation $B_{scat}$ light scattering coefficient $B_{abs}$ light absorption coefficient $B_{ext}$ light extinction coefficientSSAsingle scattering albedo

AAE absorption Ångström exponents  $B_{abs,BC}$  light absorption coefficient from BC  $B_{abs,BrC}$  light absorption coefficient from BrC

OC organic carbon
WSIs water-soluble ions
DRF direct radiative forcing

- 1074 **Author Contributions.** JX designed the study, XZ, WZ, and JX wrote the manuscript.
- 1075 JX and SK organized and supervised the field measurement campaigns, JX, XZ, WZ,
- 1076 LZ, MZ, JS, JShi, YL, CX, YT, KL, XG, and QZ conducted the field measurements,
- 1077 JX, XZ, WZ, and YT analyzed the data. All authors reviewed and commented on the
- final form of the manuscript.
- 1079 **Competing interests.** The authors declared that they have no competing interests.
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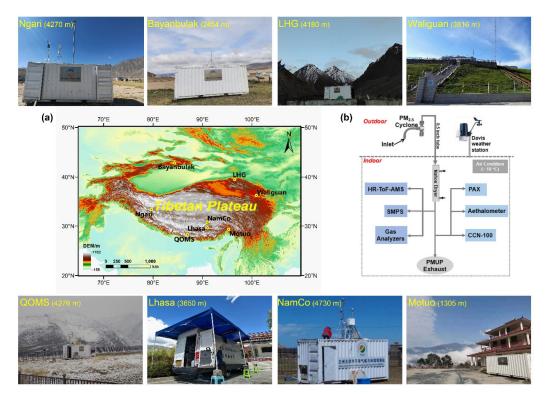
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## 1426 Figures



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

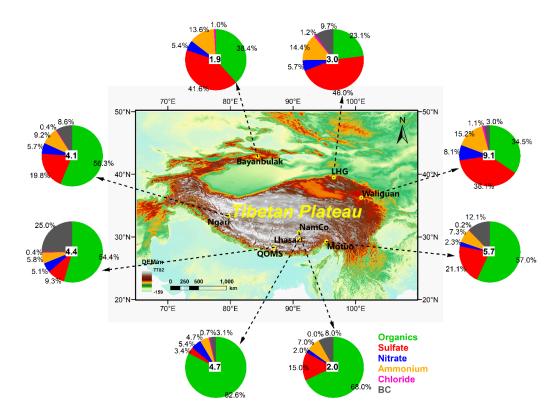
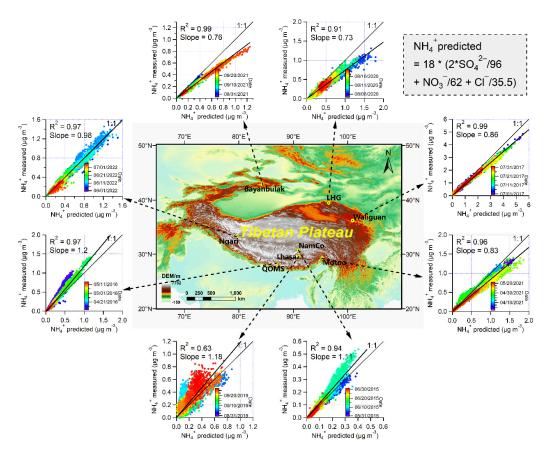
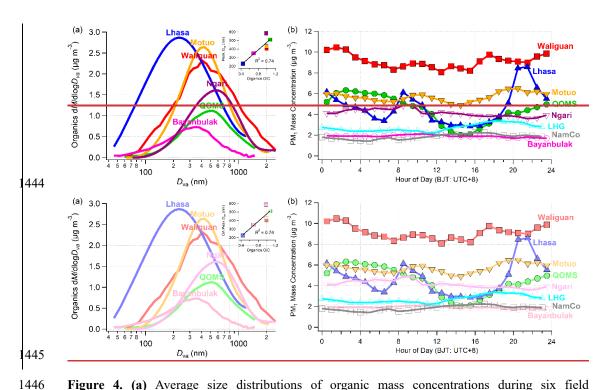


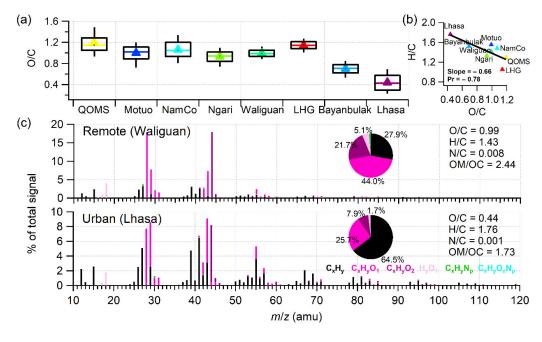
Figure 2. Regional distribution of average mass concentrations (values marked in the central of each pie chart with unit of  $\mu g$  m<sup>-3</sup>) and chemical compositions (percentage values around each pie chart) of submicron aerosols (PM<sub>1</sub>) during the eight online aerosol field measurements in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings (The geographical base map is created with ArcGIS). The concentration at each site is presented in ambient condition.



**Figure 3.** Regional difference of bulk acidity of submicron aerosols based on the scatterplot analysis and linear regression of measured  $NH_4^+$  versus predicted  $NH_4^+$  during the eight aerosol field measurement campaigns in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings (The geographical base map is created with ArcGIS).

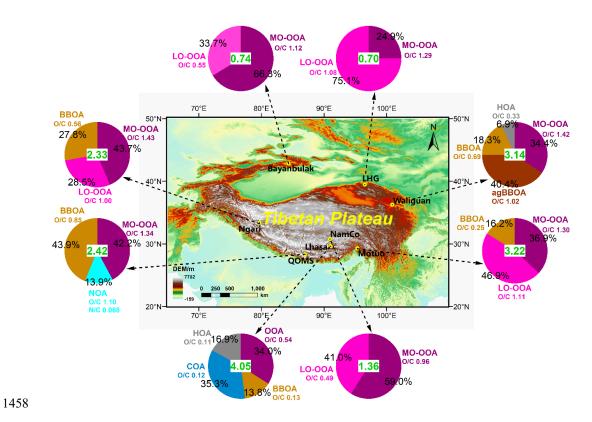


**Figure 4. (a)** Average size distributions of organic mass concentrations during six field measurement campaigns in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings. **(b)** Diurnal variations of total PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentrations during the eight field measurement campaigns in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings. Insert graph in **(a)** is the scatter plot of peak diameters in thesetheir size distributions versus the average O/C ratio of organics.

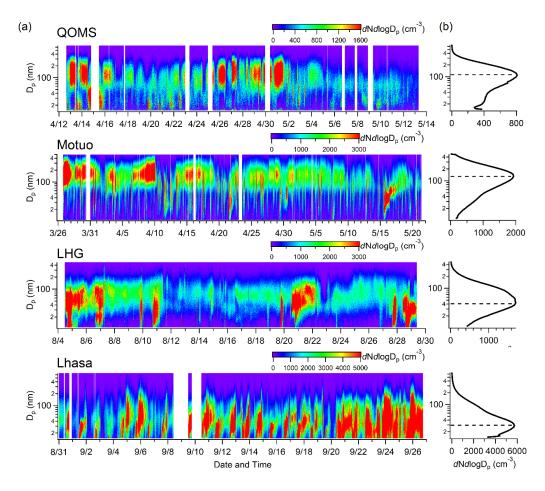


**Figure 5.** (a) Box plots of the average O/C ratios and (b) Van Krevelen diagram of H/C versus O/C among the eight field measurement campaigns in this study. (c) The average HRMSs of OA colored

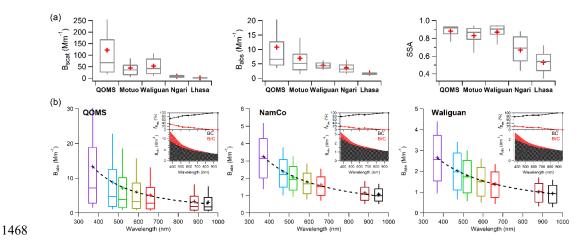
with different ion categories during the Waliguan and Lhasa measurement campaigns. The whiskers of boxes indicate the  $90^{th}$  and  $10^{th}$  percentiles, the upper and lower boundaries of boxes indicate the  $75^{th}$  and  $25^{th}$  percentiles, the lines in the boxes indicate the median values, the markers indicate the mean values, and similarly hereinafter.



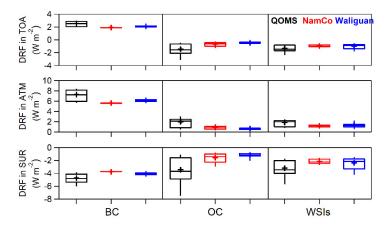
**Figure 6.** Regional distribution of OA components from PMF source apportionment during the eight online aerosol field measurements in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings (The geographical base map is created with ArcGIS). Values marked in the central of each pie chart are average OA mass with unit of  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>, while the percentage values around the pie chart are the mass contributions of each OA component. The O/C ratio of each OA component is also marked around each pie chart.



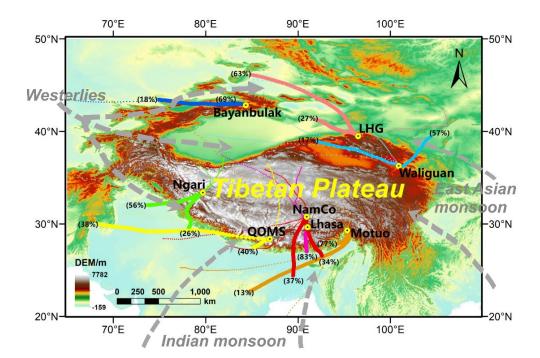
**Figure 7. (a)** Temporal variations of the size distributions of particle number concentrations during the aerosol field measurement campaigns at QOMS, Motuo, LHG, and Lhasa sites. **(b)** The average size distribution of particle number concentration during entire measurement period at each site.



**Figure 8.** Box plots of **(a)** the average particle light scattering coefficient ( $B_{scat}$ ), light absorption coefficient ( $B_{abs}$ ), and single scattering albedo (SSA) during the five aerosol field measurement campaigns at QOMS, Motuo, Waliguan, Ngari, and Lhasa sites, and **(b)** the particle  $B_{abs}$  at seven wavelengths measured by aethalometers at QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan sites. The dashed lines in the boxes in **(b)** show the power-law fit of the average  $B_{abs}$  as a function of wavelength. The inserted plots in **(b)** are the apportioned contributions of BC and BrC to total  $B_{abs}$  at different wavelengths.



**Figure 9.** Box-plots of the modelled direct radiative forcing (DRF) at the top of the atmosphere (TOA), the atmosphere (ATM), and the earth's surface (SUR) caused by black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC), and water-soluble io ns (WSIs) during the QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan campaigns.



**Figure 10.** The average Average air mass backward trajectory clusters during the eight field campaigns in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings in our study (The geographical base map is created with ArcGIS). The major trajectory clusters belong belonging to each field campaign are displayed using the relatively large solid circles in different colors with contributions marked in the corresponding brackets, while the rest clusters with less contributions are exhibited in small dots.

## **Tables**

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

Station	Full Station Name	Lat. (°N)	Long. (°E)	Alt. (m)	Sample Period	Online Instruments						
						HR-ToF-AMS SMPS			PAX	Aethal	CCN	References
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	MS  √	PToF √	√	√	ometer  √	-100	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	√	√	√	√		√	This study
NamCo	Nam Co Station for Multisphere 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)
Ngari	Ngari Station for Desert Environment Observation and Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences	33.39	79.70	4270	1 Jun to 5 Jul 2022	√	√		√			This study
Waliguan	China Global Atmospheric Watch Baseline Observatory, Mount Waliguan Base	36.28	100.90	3816	1 July to 31 July 2017	√	√		√	√	√	Zhang et al. (2019) Zhang et al. (2020) 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	√		√			√	This study
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	√	√					This study
Lhasa	Lhasa City, Tibet Autonomous Region, China	29.65	91.03	3650	31 August to 26 September 2019	√	√	√	√			Zhao et al. (2022)

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

Measurement items	QOMS	Motuo	NamCo	Ngari	Waliguan	LHG	Bayanbulak	Lhasa
HR-ToF-AMS measurements								
PM <sub>1</sub> mass conc. (μg m <sup>-3</sup> )	4.4	5.7	2.0	4.1	9.1	3.0	1.9a	4.7
PM <sub>1</sub> chemical compositions (%)								
OA	54.4	57.0	68.0	56.3	34.5	23.1	38.4	82.6
Sulfate	9.3	21.1	15.0	19.8	38.1	46.0	41.6	3.4
Nitrate	5.1	2.3	2.0	5.7	8.1	5.7	5.4	5.4
Ammonium	5.8	7.3	7.0	9.2	15.2	14.4	13.6	4.7
Chloride	0.4	0.2	0	0.4	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.7
BC	25.0	12.1	8.0	8.6	3.0	9.7	N/A	3.1
Peak diameter in mass size distrib		120.5		5011	105.5		250.0	220.1
OA	510.2	430.5		584.4	405.5		350.8	228.1
SNA	510.2	471.9		634.5	504.7		379.6	250.0
OA components (%)								
MO-OOA	42.2	36.9	59.0	43.7	34.4	24.9	66.3	
LO-OOA		46.9	41.0	28.5		75.1	33.7	
OOA	2.0	1.0		27.0	40.2			34.0
BBOA	3.9	16.2		27.8	18.3			13.8
agBBOA	12.0				40.4			
NOA HOA	13.9				6.9			16.9
COA					0.9			35.3
								33.3
OA elemental ratios	1.10	0.00	1.07	0.00	0.00	1 14	0.60	0.44
O/C H/C	1.19 1.29	0.99	1.07	0.98	0.99 1.41	1.14 1.05	0.69 1.52	0.44
OM/OC	2.70	1.55 2.48	1.48 2.57	1.33 2.44	2.45	2.62	2.09	1.76 1.74
N/C	0.030	0.020	0.016	0.019	0.008	0.011	0.026	0.001
SMPS measurements								
Number conc. (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	709.3	1639.2				1462.0		3994.4
Peak diameter in PNSD (nm)	109.4	131.0				42.9		28.9
PAX measurements								
$B_{scat}$ (Mm <sup>-1</sup> )	121.9	44.9		8.9	36.3			2.1
$B_{abs}$ (Mm <sup>-1</sup> )	10.8	7.0		3.6	4.1			1.9
$B_{ext}$ (Mm <sup>-1</sup> )	132.7	51.9		12.6	40.4			4.0
SSA	0.89	0.83		0.67	0.86			0.52
Aethalometer measurements								
$B_{abs,370}  (\mathrm{Mm}^{-1})$	13.40		3.25		2.66			
Absorption Ångström exponent	1.73		1.28		1.12			
$B_{abs,BrC,370}$ (Mm <sup>-1</sup> )	4.42		0.69		0.60			
$B_{abs,BC,370}$ (Nm <sup>-1</sup> )	8.94		2.56		2.06			
fBabs,BrC,370 (%)	33.1		21.3		22.4			
$fB_{abs,BC,370}$ (%)	66.9		78.7		77.6			
CCN-100 measurements (cm <sup>-3</sup> )								
` ′		074.0			<del>507.0</del> 233.	<del>83.9</del> 120.		
CCN number conc. (SS 0.2%)		974.0			7	<u>5</u>		
CCN number conc. (SS 0.4%)		1142.6			805.1 <u>857.</u> <u>8</u>	344.3 <u>34</u> 0.1		
CCN number conc. (SS 0.6%)		1240.1			1073.3 <u>113</u> 8.7	429.9 <u>41</u> 7.8		
CCN number conc. (SS 0.8%)		1296.5			1230.6 <u>131</u> 3.1	480.8 <u>46</u> 8.0		
CCN number conc. (SS 1.0%)		1337.9			1336.6 <u>140</u> 7.0	516.1 <u>50</u> 4.5		

<sup>a</sup>only non-refractory PM<sub>1</sub> is reported at Bayanbulak due to the absence of BC observation.

Table 3. Summary of the average PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentrations (μg m<sup>-3</sup>) measured by the Aerodyne
 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 (μg m <sup>-3</sup> )	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)
Ngari, China	33.39	79.70	4270	4.1	This study
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 <sup>a</sup>	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. Jungfraujoch, Switzerland	46.55	7.98	3580	0.55	Fröhlich et al. (2015)
Mt. Jungfraujoch, 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	Freney 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)
Hyytiala, 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)

<sup>a</sup>only non-refractory PM<sub>1</sub> is reported at Bayanbulak due to the absence of BC observation.