



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

32 Atmospheric aerosol in the Tibetan Plateau (TP) and its surroundings has received widely scientific concern in recent decades owing to its significant impacts on regional 33 climatic and cryospheric changes, ecological and environmental securities, and 34 hydrological cycle. However, our understanding on the atmospheric aerosol in this 35 remote region is highly limited by the scarcely available dataset due to the extremely 36 harsh natural conditions. This condition has been improved in recent decades by 37 constructing a few stable field observatories at typical sites on the TP and its 38 surroundings. A continuous project was carried out since 2015 to investigate the 39 40 properties and sources of atmospheric aerosols as well as their regional differences in the vast TP regions by performing multiple short-term intensive field observations using 41 42 a suite of high-resolution online instruments. This paper presents a systematic dataset 43 of the high-time-resolution (hourly scales) aerosol physicochemical and optical 44 properties at eight different sites over the TP and its surroundings from the observation project, including the size-resolved chemical compositions of submicron aerosols, 45 standard high-resolution mass spectra and sources of organic aerosols, size distributions 46 of particle number concentrations, particle light scattering and absorption coefficients, 47 particle light absorptions from different carbonaceous substances of black carbon and 48 brown carbon, and number concentrations of cloud condensation nuclei. In brief, 49 atmospheric aerosols in these remote sites were all well-mixed and highly aged due to 50 their dominated regional transport sources. However, high contributions of 51 carbonaceous organic aerosols, neutralized bulk submicron aerosols, and relatively 52 53 higher light absorption capability were observed in the southern TP region, whereas secondary inorganic species contributed dominantly to the overall acidic submicron 54 55 aerosols in the northern TP region. In addition to the insights into the regional differences on aerosol sources and properties in the vast TP regions, the datasets are 56 57 also useful for the simulation of aerosol radiative forcing and the evaluation of interactions among different components of the Earth system in numerical models. The 58 59 datasets are available from the National Cryosphere Desert Data Center, Chinese 60 Academy of Sciences (https://doi.org/10.12072/ncdc.NIEER.db2200.2022; Xu, 2022).





61 1 Introduction

Tibetan Plateau (TP), with a mean altitude of over 4000 m a.s.l. and a huge surface area 62 of approximately 2.5×10⁶ km², is the highest plateau on the Earth. The high-altitude 63 mountain ranges on the TP and its surroundings are one of the most important 64 cryospheric regions in the world. Therefore, the TP has been widely known as the "roof 65 of the world", the "Third Pole", or the "Asian Water Tower" (Qiu, 2008; Yao et al., 66 2019). The TP and its surroundings have significant impacts in the global and regional 67 climate systems, hydrological cycles, and cryospheric changes through its huge and 68 complex topography and heat source (Duan and Wu, 2005; Yao et al., 2012; Chen et al., 69 70 2021). Over the past few decades, one of the most concerns on the TP and its surroundings has been focusing on the significant climatic warming and rapid 71 72 cryospheric changes in this region (Kang et al., 2010), which show a higher warming rate than the Northern Hemisphere (0.34 vs. 0.29 °C/decade) (You et al., 2021; Zhou 73 74 and Zhang, 2021).

75 As the most complex and important component in the atmosphere, atmospheric aerosols 76 play significant roles in the climatic warming and cryospheric changes in the TP regions through their crucial direct and indirect effects on solar radiation and the albedos of 77 78 snow and ice surfaces (Xu et al., 2009; Kang et al., 2019b). Atmospheric aerosols, particularly the two important light-absorbing carbonaceous aerosols (CAs) of black 79 80 carbon (BC) and brown carbon (BrC), can absorb the solar radiation directly, warm the atmosphere, and finally lead to a positive forcing on Earth's energy budget 81 82 (Ramanathan et al., 2007; Kopacz et al., 2011). For example, Li et al. (2018) has simulated significantly higher average albedo reduction (~46%) and instantaneous 83 radiative forcing (7-64 W m⁻²) caused by BC than mineral dust that deposited on aged 84 snow in the surface of a TP glacier. In addition, aerosol particles over the TP also exert 85 significant impacts on ice cloud properties and cloud development through their semi-86 direct effects (Liu et al., 2019). Since the direct observation of atmospheric aerosols 87 over the vast and remote TP regions is remarkably difficult due to the complex 88 89 topography and meteorology and harsh environment, the numerical model simulation based on reanalysis data has become one of the most popular and critical ways over the 90 91 past decades. For example, Lau et al. (2006) evaluated the significant impact of atmospheric aerosols over the TP on the intensification of the Asian summer monsoon 92 93 by 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) 94 95 investigated the origin and radiative forcing of BC transported to the TP and Himalayas by using the GEOS-Chem global chemical transport model based on the global BC 96 97 emissions inventory data; Liu et al. (2015) investigated the transport of summer dust 98 and anthropogenic aerosols over the TP by using a three-dimensional aerosol transport-99 radiation model with the inputs from diverse satellite remoting products. Although 100 important findings have been reported from those numerical model simulations, the in-101 situ observation of atmospheric aerosols over the TP regions has become more crucial 102 and urgent due to their key roles in evaluating and improving the model performances over the remote region. Lacking in-situ observational aerosol parameters for 103 constraining the model would lead to high uncertainty in the results. In addition, model 104 105 simulations in the TP mostly focused on the spatial distribution over a large range, but 106 rarely on the temporal variations or inherent evolution mechanism with high time 107 resolution as those from in-situ observations.

108 With great improvements in observational conditions and instruments, numerous in-109 situ measurements have been conducted in the TP and its surroundings during the past 110 few years to characterize the aerosol physical, chemical, and optical properties, 111 potential sources, transport pathways, and regional distributions. A comprehensive summary of direct measurements on ambient aerosols in the TP using various 112 113 observational methods and instruments has been listed in Table S1 in the supplementary. Among them, the off-line atmospheric filter sampling was one of the most important 114 and popular in-situ aerosol collection approach in the TP because it was relatively low-115 cost and easy to carry out under the extremely harsh natural conditions and limit 116 117 logistical supports. This approach has been successfully conducted to characterize the compositions, sizes, light absorptions, sources, and variations of ambient aerosols, 118 119 especially those different CAs constituents including BC, BrC, organic carbon (OC), water-soluble OC (WSOC), humic-like substances (HULS), and polycyclic aromatic 120 121 hydrocarbons (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; 122 123 Kang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2016b; Xu et al., 2020). In addition, characterizing the regional distribution of atmospheric aerosols over a large area of the TP was another 124 important advantage of the off-line filter sampling through their simultaneous 125 observations at multiple sites due to the relatively easy instrumental operations (Li et 126





al., 2016a; Chen et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2022). However, studies on the atmospheric 127 128 aerosols over the remote TP regions through these off-line filter samplings are still 129 scarce and far meeting the demand at present. These observational data was generally 130 scattered and unsystematic with relatively low time resolution, few aerosol property 131 parameters, and less data points because most of them were carried out at certain site 132 using single instruments with time resolutions from days to weeks during a short-term 133 period. The low time resolution measurement would limit the accurate understanding 134 of temporal evolution processes and mechanisms of aerosol properties during a fast and 135 short-term event. Meantime, these observational data from different research groups was also difficult to compare and integrate because most of them had different research 136 concerns, measurement parameters, sampling flows, laboratory filter treatment 137 138 procedures, data analysis methods, etc. Besides, although the off-line sampling is relatively easy to carry out, there are still large TP regions where similar observations 139 have not yet been conducted or only conducted in a short-term period. Up to now, 140 comprehensive research focusing on multiple aerosol physicochemical and optical 141 142 properties through the real-time online consecutive measurements (high temporal 143 resolutions from minute to hour scales) at multiple sites are still rare in the TP.

144 Studies on atmospheric aerosols have achieved great progress during the last decade in China. The Aerodyne high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (HR-145 146 ToF-AMS) was one of the most popular online instrument that successfully implemented in numerous aerosol chemistry observations to characterize the real-time 147 size-resolved chemical compositions and sources of submicron aerosols (Li et al., 2017; 148 149 Zhou et al., 2020). However, the utilization of HR-ToF-AMS on the TP was still very 150 scarce due to the high instrumental requirements but extremely harsh observation conditions. Since 2015, a continuous and systematic observation project, aiming to 151 152 investigate the regional differences on aerosol sources and properties in the different TP regions, has been launched by our research team by performing HR-ToF-AMS 153 154 measurement and other high-resolution real-time online instruments at different sites during almost every year. Indeed, our dataset was the first and only set of dataset 155 156 focusing on abundant aerosol parameters (including the physical, chemical, and optical properties and diverse sources) at multiple different types of site (e.g., the urban, remote, 157 high-altitude mountain, grassland, and subtropical forest sites that basically represented 158 159 the different TP regions) based on the real-time high-time-resolution online





observations in the TP and its surroundings. These datasets provide not only 160 161 comprehensive data for the understanding of regional differences in aerosol sources and properties in different TP regions, but also potential basic inputs for the simulation of 162 aerosol radiative forcing and the assessments of interactions among different 163 164 components of the Earth system in future models. The contents of this paper are organized as: Sects. 2 and 3 describe the observation sites, instrumental deployments, 165 166 and data processing methods, Sect. 4 introduces the high-time-resolution data of aerosol 167 physical, chemical, and optical properties as well as sources, while the limitations and 168 uniqueness of our dataset are discussed in Sect. 5.

169 **2 Observation site descriptions**

170 Continuous observations of atmospheric aerosol chemistry were conducted at eight sites in the different regions of TP and its surroundings from 2015 to 2022. The sites 171 include seven remote sites (QOMS, Motuo, NamCo, Ngari, Waliguan, LHG, and 172 173 Bayanbulak) and one urban site (Lhasa) which is used for comparison. Figure 1 174 illustrates the geographical locations of these sites and the picture of each observation. Table 1 provides detailed information of each site as well as the sampling period and 175 176 available instruments during each field campaign. The following text gives a brief description of each site from the south to north of the TP. 177

178 2.1 QOMS

The Qomolangma Station for Atmospheric and Environmental Observation and 179 Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences (QOMS for short in this study and similarly 180 hereinafter for other sites; 86.56°E, 28.21°N; 4276 m a.s.l.) is situated in the basin of 181 Rongbuk valley in the northern slope of Mt. Everest. The climate in the northern slope 182 183 of Mt. Everest has obvious seasonal variation under the influence of Indian monsoon system (Bonasoni et al., 2010; Cong et al., 2015). During the pre-monsoon season 184 185 (generally March-May), the dominated westerlies play important roles in the long-186 range transport of atmospheric pollutants from those polluted regions in South Asia, which makes OOMS an ideal high-altitude observatory at the south edge of the TP for 187 studying the transboundary transport of atmospheric pollutants from South Asia to the 188 189 inner TP. During the monsoon season in summer (June-August), the southerly winds 190 prevail and bring warm and wet airflow from the Indian Ocean to this region with increasing humidity and precipitation. 191





192 2.2 Motuo

193 Motuo county is in the lower reaches of the Yarlung Tsangpo River and the southern 194 slope of the eastern Himalayas and Gangrigab Mountains in the southeast edge of the 195 TP. The county sits at a halfway up a mountain and has a subtropical humid climate 196 with relatively high temperature and abundant rainfall. Due to the minor population $(\sim 15,000)$, Motuo county is also a relatively pristine region in the TP. The sampling site 197 198 in Motuo (29.30°N, 95.32°E; 1305 m a.s.l.) was at the summit of a hill that towards to 199 the Yarlung Tsangpo Grand Canyon, which makes it a very ideal site in the southeast 200 edge of the TP to directly monitor the transboundary transport of atmospheric pollutants and moisture from Southeast Asia and Indian Ocean to the TP. 201

202 2.3 NamCo

203 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 at the 204 south-central part of the TP. This station is situated at the southeast shore of Nam Co 205 Lake. The surrounding of this station is a pristine region in the TP and isolated from 206 207 major populated areas. The region is generally affected by the typical semi-arid plateau monsoon climate with more precipitation during the summer monsoon season. The 208 209 NamCo is the most important site in inland of the TP and dominated by air mass from south and west. 210

211 2.4 Ngari

The Ngari Station for Desert Environment Observation and Research, Chinese 212 213 Academy of Science (Ngari; 79.70°E, 33.39°N; 4270 m a.s.l.) locates in the Rutog County, Ngari Prefecture, Tibet Autonomous Region, China. This region is the 214 215 southwestern edge of the TP and belongs to semi-arid areas with barren land surface and strong solar radiation. As the major member of the "high-cold region observation 216 217 and research network for land surface processes & environment of China", Ngari station is one of the most important filed stations for monitoring the changes in climate, 218 219 hydrology, atmosphere, and ecological environment in the western region of the TP and 220 further revealing the interaction between the Indian monsoon and the westerly belt.

221 2.5 Waliguan

222 The Waliguan Baseline Observatory (Waliguan; 100.9°E, 36.28°N; 3816 m a.s.l.) is one

223 of the twenty-nine baseline stations of Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) of the World





Meteorological Organization (WMO). The observatory is situated at the top of the Mt. Waliguan (mountain height of ~600 m), which is also a relatively pristine region with little influence from human activities. The Waliguan is an important observatory in the northeast edge of the TP and dominated by air mass from northeast during the summer season, which makes it an ideal site to study the influence of air pollutants from the industrial areas in the northwestern China to the TP.

230 2.6 LHG

The Qilian Observation and Research Station of Cryosphere and Ecologic Environment, 231 Chinese Academy of Sciences (LHG; 39.50°N, 96.51°E; 4180 m a.s.l.) locates near the 232 233 terminus (~1 km) of the Laohugou Glacier No.12, which is one the largest mountain glacier in the northern slope of the western Qilian Mountains. LHG is another 234 235 representative station in the northeastern TP and significantly isolated from the human living areas. The climate in this region is a typically arid and continental climate and 236 dominated by the East-Asian monsoon in the summer and Westerlies in the winter. 237 Strongly mountain-valley breeze is formed during summer which can bring air mass 238 239 from lower altitude zones to mountain regions. Therefore, it is also well suited for sampling the background air mass and studying the transport mechanisms and potential 240 impacts of air pollutants from its surrounding regions. 241

242 2.7 Bayanbulak

The Bayanbulak National Basic Meteorological Station (Bayanbulak; 84.35° N, 42.83° 243 E; 2454 m a.s.l.) locates in the Bayanbulak grassland at the northwest of Hejing county, 244 Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, China. The Bayanbulak is situated in an 245 intermontane basin in the central Tianshan Mountains and surrounded by numerous 246 247 snow mountains with altitudes more than 3000 m. The climate in Bayanbulak grassland belongs to the typical temperate continental mountain climate with an annual average 248 249 precipitation of about 200-300 mm. The Bayanbulak town has limited human activities 250 and traffic transportation.

251 2.8 Lhasa

Lhasa (29.65°N, 91.03°E; 3650 m a.s.l.) is the capital city of the Tibet Autonomous Region, China that located in the south-central part of the TP. The city lies in a flat river valley with the surrounding mountains reaching 5500 m and the Lhasa River passing through the city from west to east. The observation site in Lhasa is in the Binhe Park





256 near the Lhasa River. The Norbulingka scenic area, one of the main activity centers for 257 local Tibetans to celebrate their religious festivals (e.g., the Sho Dun festival), is located 258 \sim 1 km to the northwest of the sampling site, while the Potala Palace, the center of 259 Tibetan Buddhism, is \sim 1.8 km to the northeast. Since the unique energy structure and 260 different residential habit in Lhasa comparing with those remote sites, a comparative 261 observation is conducted in this urban site for studying the primary aerosol properties 262 and sources from various residential combustion activities.

3 Online sampling, instrumental setup, and data processing

264 **3.1 Online real-time aerosol sampling over the TP**

265 The online-based observations of atmospheric aerosols were carried out at each site using a suit of real-time high-resolution instruments, usually including a HR-ToF-AMS 266 (Aerodyne Research Inc., Billerica, MA, USA) for acquiring the chemical compositions 267 (organic aerosol (OA), nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, and chloride) of non-refractory 268 submicron aerosol (PM1), a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS, model 3936, TSI 269 270 Inc., Shoreview, MN, USA) for acquiring the size distribution of number concentration 271 of submicron particles, a photoacoustic extinctiometer (PAX, DMT Inc., Boulder, CO, 272 USA) for acquiring the particle light absorption, scattering, and extinction coefficients (Babs, Bscat, and Bext) and single scattering albedo (SSA) at 405 nm as well as the mass 273 concentration of BC, an Aethalometer (model AE33/AE31, Magee Scientific Corp., 274 Berkeley, CA, USA) for acquiring the B_{abs} at seven fixed wavelengths (370–950 nm), 275 and a cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) counter (model CCN-100, DMT Inc., Boulder, 276 CO, USA) for acquiring the CCN number concentration at different supersaturation (SS) 277 278 of water vapor. The specific instrumental deployment and sampling period during each 279 observation campaign is summarized in Table 1.

The HR-ToF-AMS, serving as the primary instrument for observing atmospheric 280 aerosol chemistry, was deployed throughout all field campaigns. The SMPS was 281 utilized at QOMS, Motuo, LHG, and Lhasa, while the PAX was employed at QOMS, 282 Motuo, Ngari, Waliguan, and Lhasa. Additionally, the Aethalometer was utilized at 283 QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan, and the CCN-100 at Motuo, Waliguan, and LHG. Field 284 observations in the southern, western, or central TP regions were predominantly 285 conducted during the pre-monsoon periods. For instance, observations took place from 286 12 April to 12 May at QOMS, 26 March to 22 May at Motuo, 31 May to 1 July at 287 NamCo, and 1 Jun to 5 July at Ngari, which were to investigate the transboundary 288





transport of atmospheric pollutants from polluted regions in South Asia to the inland 289 290 areas of the TP, considering the influences of Westerlies and the Indian monsoon. On 291 the other hand, measurements in the remote regions of the northern TP and its 292 surroundings were carried out during the summer. Specifically, observations occurred 293 from 1 to 31 July at Waliguan, 4 to 29 August at LHG, and 29 August to 26 September at Bayanbulak. These measurements were undertaken to monitor the aerosols 294 295 transported from surrounding polluted regions, considering the influences of Westerlies 296 or the intensified East Asian monsoon. The observation in Lhasa was conducted 297 between 31 August and 26 September focusing on the strongest atmospheric oxidation capability during the summer season. 298

299 **3.2 Instrumental setup**

300 Despite variations in the instruments used during different observation campaigns, the 301 sampling settings remain generally consistent. Figure 1b illustrates the fundamental sampling setup employed for each campaign. All instruments are typically housed 302 within an air-conditioned trailer or room. The inlets are induced to the instruments from 303 304 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 305 (D_{va}) exceeding 2.5 µm. Subsequently, the fine particles are directed into a Nafion dryer 306 via 1/2-inch stainless steel tubes to remove moisture from the airflows. Lastly, the 307 particles are sampled into a series of online instruments for real-time measurements. 308 309 For a more comprehensive understanding of the instrumental setups, please refer to our previous publications (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhao et 310 311 al., 2022).

312 **3.3 Instrumental operation and data processing**

The measurement principles, operation procedures, calibration methods, and data 313 314 analysis for these instruments are extensively described in detail in Text S1-4 in the supplementary materials of this study. Only a few essential descriptions and important 315 316 settings are emphasized here as follows: (1) The HR-ToF-AMS instruments were 317 operated at the V-mode during almost all the eight field campaigns, considering the 318 relatively low aerosol mass levels and signal-to-noise ratios over the TP regions. (2) Due to chopper malfunction in the HR-ToF-AMS, particle size observations were not 319 320 conducted during the NamCo and LHG campaigns. (3) Different relative ionization





efficiency values were used for ammonium and sulfate according to the ionization 321 322 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 323 324 particle sizing calibrations in different campaigns, which ultimately resulted in the 325 distinct size ranges of non-refractory PM1. (5) Elemental ratios of OA, i.e., oxygen-tocarbon (O/C), hydrogen-to-carbon (H/C), organic matter-to-organic carbon (OM/OC), 326 and nitrogen-to-carbon (N/C), were determined using the improved method 327 328 (Canagaratna et al., 2015). (6) Default collection efficiency (CE) values of 0.5 were 329 employed to the HR-ToF-AMS measurements during the QOMS, NamCo, Ngari, Waliguan, and Lhasa campaigns in consideration of their overall neutralized bulk 330 331 submicron aerosols, whereas the composition-dependent CE (Middlebrook et al., 2012) 332 values are adopted at Motuo, LHG, and Bayanbulak, where bulk submicron aerosols 333 were slightly acidic. (7) Source apportionments of OA during all observations were performed by the positive matrix factorization (PMF) analysis method. (8) Only the 334 chemical compositions of non-refractory PM₁ are reported during the Bayanbulak 335 campaign due to the absence of BC observations. (9) The sample and sheath flow rates 336 of SMPS were set at 0.3 and 3.0 L min⁻¹, respectively, at both QOMS and Lhasa, 337 338 measuring particles between 14.6 and 661.2 nm in mobility diameter (D_m) , whereas 0.5 and 5.0 L min⁻¹ at LHG and Motuo sites with a particle size range of 10.9-495.8 nm in 339 340 $D_{\rm m.}$ (10) Aethalometer measurement were corrected for both the filter-based loading effect and multiple scattering effect. A traditional absorption Ångström exponents 341 342 (AAE) method (Zhang et al., 2021) was adopted to quantitatively apportion the total Babs into two parts from BC and BrC (Babs, BC and Babs, BrC). (11) During the Motuo, 343 Waliguan, and LHG campaigns, the number concentrations of CCN were conducted 344 consecutively at five different SS values of 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.6%, 0.8%, and 1.0% every 5 345 minutes. 346

347 4 Aerosol properties, sources, and radiative forcing over the TP

348 4.1 Mass loading and chemical composition of submicron aerosols

Figure S1 provides an overview of the high-time-resolution temporal variations of PM₁ chemical species (OA, nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, chloride, and BC) during the eight observations in the TP and its surroundings. Generally, the mass concentrations of PM₁ and its chemical species varied dynamically, with alternating periods of high and low

353 mass loading throughout the sampling period of each campaign. Despite differences in





sampling years (2015-2022), seasons (March-September), and altitudes (1350-4730 354 355 m a.s.l.) at these sites, the significantly distinct PM₁ mass and chemical compositions can effectively reflect the regional difference in aerosol mass levels, properties, and 356 357 sources at different regions. On average, the mass concentration of total PM1 across the eight campaigns ranged from 1.9 to 9.1 μ g m⁻³ (Fig. 2 and Table 2). The highest PM₁ 358 mass was observed at Waliguan due to the rapid transport of anthropogenic aerosols 359 and gaseous pollutants from urban areas in northwestern China. Conversely, the lowest 360 361 values were measured at NamCo and Bayanbulak, attributed to their background and 362 pristine environmental conditions. The average PM1 mass level in the TP and its surroundings was comparable to values observed at other high-altitude, coastal, forest, 363 and remote background sites worldwide (0.46-15.1 µg m⁻³; Table 3), but significantly 364 lower than those observed at densely urban (34.4–71.5 μ g m⁻³) and suburban 365 (21.4-44.9 µg m⁻³) sites in other regions of China (Li et al., 2017), suggesting the 366 predominantly clean nature of atmosphere condition in the remote high-altitude regions 367 of the TP. 368

369 The chemical compositions of PM₁ also exhibited significant regional difference (Fig. 370 2), indicating distinct aerosol sources across different TP regions. OA and BC together 371 contributed as high as 64.9-85.7% of the total PM₁ mass at the five sites of QOMS, Motuo, NamCo, Ngari, and Lhasa that are located in the southern, western, or central 372 373 TP (Table 2). These high contributions were mainly attributed to the frequent transport 374 of biomass-burning-related emissions from polluted regions in South and Southeast Asia to the remote sites of TP during the pre-monsoon season (Bonasoni et al., 2010; 375 Cong et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018) as well as the intense local biomass burning 376 377 emissions from religious activities in the urban area of Lhasa (Cui et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2022). In contrary, the three inorganic species (sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium; 378 379 referred to as SNA) accounted for more than 60% of the total PM₁ at three northern 380 sites (Waliguan, LHG, and Bayanbulak). Among these, sulfate had the most dominant 381 contributions of SNA (38.1-46.0%), consistent with the results observed at another high-altitude site in the northeastern TP (Menyuan; 28%) and other rural and remote 382 383 sites (19–64%) in East Asia, indicating the regional transported sources (Du et al., 2015). The high contributions of SNA, particularly the sulfate, in the northern TP and its 384 surroundings were mainly related to the regional transport of anthropogenic aerosols 385 386 and gaseous precursor emissions from surrounding urban areas as well as important in-





387 cloud aqueous reactions during the transportation to the mountains (Zhang et al., 2019).

388 4.2 Bulk acidity, size distribution, and diurnal variation of submicron aerosols

Particle phase acidity is an important parameter affecting the physicochemical 389 properties of aerosol, with significant impacts on hygroscopic growth, toxicity, and 390 heterogeneous reactions of aerosol particles. The bulk acidity of submicron aerosols 391 392 was evaluated at each site following the method in Zhang et al. (2007b) and Schueneman et al. (2021) based on AMS measurements. A detailed description of this 393 method can be found in our previous publications (Zhang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 394 2019) or in Text S5 in the supplementary materials of this study. It is interesting to find 395 396 that the bulk acidity of submicron aerosols exhibited distinct regional difference between the southern and northern TP (Fig. 3), primarily attributed to variations in 397 398 aerosol sources and compositions. Linear regression slopes were fitted to be 1.2, 1.11, 399 0.98, and 1.18 at the four sites of QOMS, NamCo, Ngari, and Lhasa that locates in the southern, western, or central TP, indicating the submicron aerosol particles at these sites 400 were generally neutralized, and in some cases, showed an excess of ammonium. The 401 finding is consistent with previous observations of high ammonia availability resulted 402 from agriculture emissions in the South Asia (Van Damme et al., 2015). In addition, as 403 reported in our previous publications, atmospheric aerosols at QOMS and NamCo were 404 significantly influenced by the transport of biomass-burning-related emissions from 405 South and Southeast Asia during the pre-monsoon season (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 406 407 2018), while various residential biomass fuels were burned intensely during those frequent religious festivals in urban areas of Lhasa (Zhao et al., 2022). In contrast, the 408 409 submicron particles 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 410 Bayanbulak), where sulfate significantly contributed to the total PM1 (46.0% and 411 41.6%). Similar observations of acidic submicron aerosol particles have also been 412 413 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 414 415 gaseous precursors from the industrial areas in northwestern China to the remote regions in the northern TP. 416

417 The size distributions of non-refractory PM1 chemical species, obtained from HR-ToF-

418 AMS measurement, provide valuable insights into aerosol sources, oxidation degrees,

419 mixing states, formation, transformation, and growth mechanisms as well as their





impacts on CCN activity. Typically, the size distributions peaked at accumulation mode 420 421 $(\sim 400-600 \text{ nm in } D_{\text{va}})$ for those SNA species and oxidized OA components as a result 422 of their secondary formation. In contrast, fresh organics from primary emission sources 423 had smaller sizes (Zhang et al., 2005b; Aiken et al., 2009). In this study, both organics 424 and the sum of three SNA species were selected to illustrate the regional difference in size distributions across the different TP regions. As shown in Figs. 4a and S2 and Table 425 2, the peak diameters in the size distribution of OA and SNA varied significantly, 426 427 ranging from 584.4 and 634.5 nm at Ngari to a smaller size of 228.1 and 250.0 nm at 428 Lhasa, respectively. This suggests distinctly different sources and aging processes of atmospheric aerosols in different TP regions, particularly between those high-altitude 429 remote sites and urban sites. For example, bulk PM1 was reported to be internally well-430 431 mixed and aged at QOMS due to long-range transport aerosol sources of biomass-432 burning-related emissions from South Asia (Zhang et al., 2018), whereas local primary sources including cooking, traffic exhausts, and biomass burning together contributed 433 more than 60% of the total OA at the urban site in Lhasa (Zhao et al., 2022). The crucial 434 435 influence of aerosol sources on size distributions is further supported in Fig. 4a by the quantitative relationship between the mode size and O/C ratios of OA ($R^2 = 0.74$). 436

437 The diurnal variations of PM_1 chemical compositions are typically influenced by 438 multiple factors, including the meteorological conditions (such as planetary boundary 439 layer (PBL) height, wind direction and speed, temperature, relative humidity), different 440 primary emission sources (such as intense vehicle exhausts during traffic rush hours, cooking emissions, and coal combustion emissions from heating activities), and distinct 441 formation mechanisms (such as daytime photochemical oxidation processes, nighttime 442 443 heterogeneous reactions, and gas-particle partitioning of secondary species). Therefore, a comprehensive understanding of the diurnal variation characteristics of different 444 445 aerosol chemical compositions is not only beneficial for investigating their dynamic evolution processes but also helpful in understanding the key factors (source, 446 447 meteorology, or secondary formation) that drive the variations of different chemical species. Clearly, different diurnal variation patterns of the total PM1 mass 448 449 concentrations were observed during the different field campaigns (Fig. 4b). The diurnal variations at those remote sites (such as QOMS, LHG, NamCo, and Waliguan) 450 located either in the valley or at the top of the mountains were mostly controlled by the 451 452 circulation of mountain-valley wind and the variation of PBL height during the day.





QOMS exhibited a distinct diurnal pattern with continuously decreasing concentrations 453 during the daytime, but relatively higher concentrations at night. The minimum mass 454 occurred at around ~15:00 in this valley site, mainly due to the strong down-slope 455 456 glacier winds with high wind speed and enhanced PBL height in the afternoon (Zhang 457 et al., 2018). Conversely, lower PM1 mass concentration from night to early morning and continuously increasing concentrations during the afternoon were observed at LHG 458 and NamCo sites. The high mass concentrations in the afternoon at LHG were tightly 459 460 associated with the transport of aerosols advected by the prevailing up-slope winds 461 during that time. However, the high concentration in the afternoon at NamCo might be influenced by the downward transmission of aerosols from higher layer to the ground 462 463 surface, as well as enhanced aerosol plume transport from those relatively polluted western regions during the afternoon (Xu et al., 2018). A relatively complex diurnal 464 variation pattern of total PM1 was observed at the top of Mt. Waliguan, which could be 465 attributed to the combined effects of variabilities in diffusion conditions (such as PBL 466 height), wind directions (such as mountain-valley wind circulation), and air mass 467 sources (such as enhanced air mass from the northeast during the afternoon, favoring 468 469 the transport of polluted aerosols from industrial areas) (Zhang et al., 2019). At Motuo, 470 the diurnal variation of PM1 mass concentration was relatively stable, except for two weak peaks in the late morning and evening, which were possibly related to combustion 471 472 emissions from local residents in the county. Ngari exhibited relatively high mass loadings at night, whereas low values were observed during the daytime, mainly due to 473 474 the variations of PBL height. Bayanbulak, on the other hand, had relatively low and stable PM1 mass throughout the entire day, primarily due to its background feature. In 475 476 contrast to the remote sites, the urban site in Lhasa showed a clear diurnal variation pattern with two peaks around 8:00-9:00 and 20:00-21:00. This pattern could be 477 attributed to strong primary aerosol emissions from vehicle exhausts, cooking, and 478 479 biomass burning activities during the morning and evening times (Zhao et al., 2022). Although the diurnal variations of total PM1 were mainly affected by the variabilities 480 in mountain-valley wind circulation and PBL height in those remote sites and primary 481 emissions in the urban site in this study, the photochemical oxidation and aqueous-482 483 phase reactions were also two important formation pathways of secondary inorganic and organic aerosol species. This could be observed clearly by those identified 484 485 oxygenated OA (OOA) components at almost all the sites, which commonly showed peaks during the afternoon (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Zhao 486





487 et al., 2022).

4.3 High-resolution mass spectrum and elemental ratios of organic aerosol 488 The high-resolution mass spectrum (HRMS) and elemental ratios of OA were 489 determined to identify the possible sources, formation and evolution mechanisms, as 490 well as the oxidation states of these complex OA components at each site. The average 491 492 O/C ratios of the OAs from the eight field campaigns were compared directly (Fig. 5a). It is evident that the average O/C ratios of OAs were generally close to or larger than 493 1.0 at the remote sites of QOMS, Motuo, NamCo, Ngari, Waliguan, and LHG, whereas 494 a lower O/C ratio of 0.69 was observed at Bayanbulak and an even lower O/C ratio of 495 496 0.44 was observed at the urban site in Lhasa. These differences in O/C ratios were 497 mainly attributed to the variations in OA sources and aging processes across different 498 sites. As mentioned earlier, atmospheric aerosols in the remote sites in the TP were generally associated with long-range transport from surrounding areas, hence the OAs 499 were generally well-mixed and highly aged during the transport from source region to 500 the remote sites in the TP (Xu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). 501 502 However, local fresh OAs emitted from various residential activities such as cooking, traffic exhausts, and biomass burning predominated the total OA at urban Lhasa (Zhao 503 et al., 2022), which ultimately led to a relatively low O/C ratio. Similar differences in 504 O/C ratios have been observed in previous studies in China. For instance, higher O/C 505 ratios of 0.98, 1.11, and 1.16 were measured at remote sites in Mt. Wuzhi (Zhu et al., 506 507 2016), Mt. Yulong (Zheng et al., 2017), and LHG (Xu et al., 2015), while O/C ratios of OAs were generally lower than 0.5 at most urban sites (Zhou et al., 2020). The Van 508 509 Krevelen diagram (H/C versus O/C), a widely used approach to depict the changes in the elemental composition of OA resulting from atmospheric aging processing, is 510 displayed in Fig. 5b. An overall slope of -0.66 was observed for the bulk OAs across 511 the eight field measurement campaigns in our study, which is comparable to those of 512 -0.58 and -0.47 obtained from different synthesized datasets from diverse field 513 observations in previous studies (Chen et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2020). 514

The average HRMSs of OA between the remote site (Waliguan) and the urban site (Lhasa) were directly compared to investigate the inherent difference in ion compositions (Fig. 5c). Waliguan was chosen as an example because the overall highlyaged OA nature with very similar HRMSs among the seven remote sites, as shown in Fig. S3 in the supplementary materials. It is evident that the OA HRMSs exhibited





distinct variations between these two types of sites. At the Waliguan site, m/z 44, which 520 is composed totally by CO_2^+ and one of the most reliable markers for OOA, was the 521 base peak (18%) in the OA HRMS. The CO_2^+ and its related four ions (CO^+ , H_2O^+ , 522 HO^+ and O^+) together contributed more than 41% of the total OA signals. Additionally, 523 the two oxygenated ion fragments ($C_xH_vO_1^+$ and $C_xH_vO_2^+$) accounted for as much as 524 525 66% of the total OA signals (Fig. 5c). All these features demonstrated the overall highly oxygenated nature of OA at the remote background sites in the TP. In contrast, the OA 526 527 HRMS at Lhasa was remarkably similar to those observed at most urban cities. The four m/zs value at 43, 55, 57, and 60, which are recognized as important mass spectral 528 tracers for less oxidized OA compounds or primary emissions related to traffic, cooking, 529 and biomass burning activities (Zhang et al., 2005a; Alfarra et al., 2007; He et al., 2010), 530 showed significant contributions to the total OA signals in this urban site. Specifically, 531 the ion fragment of $C_x H_v^+$ contributed as higher as 64.5% of the total OA signal in 532 533 Lhasa, whereas the two oxygenated ion fragments contributed only 33.6%. The high contribution of fresh ion fragments in the OA HRMS in Lhasa is comparable to those 534 measured at other urban cities, such as 56% and 59% in Lanzhou (Xu et al., 2014b; Xu 535 et al., 2016), 51.2% in Nanjing (Wang et al., 2016), and 51.2% in New York (Sun et al., 536 537 2011).

538 4.4 OA components from PMF source apportionment

Source apportionments of OA were performed using PMF analysis on OA HRMS data 539 for each field campaign. Figure 6 presents the average mass contributions of different 540 541 OA components from the selected 2-4 factor solutions among the eight different field 542 campaigns, while the specific HRMS of each OA component is displayed in Fig. S4. Due to the limited local sources but dominated sources from regional transport, only 543 two secondary OOA factors with different oxidation degrees, namely a less oxidized 544 545 OOA (LO-OOA) and a more oxidized OOA (MO-OOA), were identified during the NamCo, LHG, and Bayanbulak campaigns. On average, during the NamCo campaign, 546 MO-OOA and LO-OOA, with average O/C ratios of 0.96 and 0.49, respectively, 547 accounted for 59.0% and 41.0% of the total OA mass. Similarly, the Bayanbulak 548 campaign exhibited contributions of MO-OOA (average O/C of 1.12) and LO-OOA 549 550 (average O/C of 0.55) to total OA mass at 66.3% and 33.7%, respectively. However, the LHG campaign showed only 24.9% of MO-OOA and 75.1% of LO-OOA with 551 relatively high O/C ratios of 1.29 and 1.08, respectively. Besides the two OOA factors, 552





biomass-burning-related OA (BBOA) was also widely identified in the TP regions. At 553 554 QOMS, the total OA mass was composed by 42.4% of MO-OOA, 43.9% of BBOA, and 13.9% of nitrogen-containing OA (NOA), with average O/C ratios of 1.34, 0.85, 555 556 and 1.10, respectively. The high O/C ratio and significant contributions from BBOA 557 and NOA at QOMS were associated with the transport of biomass burning emissions from polluted regions in South Asia to the Himalaya and inland TP regions during the 558 pre-monsoon season (Cong et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018; Kang et al., 2019a). At 559 560 Waliguan, the total OA mass was composed by 34.4% of MO-OOA, 40.4% of relatively aged BBOA (agBBOA), 18.3% of BBOA, and 6.9% of hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), 561 with average O/C ratios of 1.42, 1.02, 0.69, and 0.33, respectively. The two BBOA 562 563 components, particularly agBBOA, exhibited an enhanced contribution to total OA as 564 the OA mass concentration increased, ranging from only $\sim 10\%$ to as high as 70% when OA mass varied from $<1.0 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ to 7 $\mu g \ m^{-3}$ (Zhang et al., 2019). In addition, source 565 analysis indicated that the high contributions of the two BBOA components at Waliguan 566 were associated with the regional transport of biomass burning emissions from the 567 residential areas in northeastern Waliguan (Zhang et al., 2019). At Ngari, the total OA 568 mass was composed by 43.7% of MO-OOA, 28.5% of LO-OOA, and 27.8% of BBOA, 569 570 with average O/C ratios of 1.43, 1.00, and 0.56, respectively. In comparison, the 571 contributions of the three OA components at Motuo site were 36.9%, 46.9%, and 16.2%, 572 with O/C ratios of 1.30, 1.11, and 0.25, respectively. The BBOA factor at Motuo exhibited relatively lower mass contribution and O/C ratio compared to those observed 573 574 at OOMS, Ngari, and Waliguan, suggesting weak local source from biomass burning. Four OA factors including an OOA component with O/C ratio of 0.54 and three primary 575 576 OA components, i.e., a BBOA with O/C of 0.13, a cooking-related OA (COA) with O/C of 0.12, and a HOA with O/C of 0.11, were identified at the urban site in Lhasa, which 577 were distinctly different with those observed at above remote sites. The three primary 578 579 OA components together contributed more than 60% of the total OA mass at Lhasa, suggesting the abundant primary aerosol sources from the residential activities. In 580 addition, the BBOA contribution increased obviously (up to 36%) during a grand local 581 festival at Lhasa, suggesting the crucial aerosol source from biomass burning during 582 religious activities in the city (Zhao et al., 2022). In summary, distinct types of OA 583 components with different O/C ratios were identified at different sites, indicating the 584 585 different sources and oxidation states of OA in the different TP regions.





4.5 Number concentrations of submicron aerosols and cloud condensation nuclei 586 Real-time online measurements of the size distribution of number concentration of fine 587 particles were also conducted simultaneously using SMPS instruments during four field 588 589 campaigns (QOMS, Motuo, LHG, and Lhasa). The measurement of particle number 590 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 591 formation and growth mechanisms of aerosol particles in the atmosphere. Figure 7a 592 593 shows the high-resolution temporal variations of the PNSDs during the four field 594 campaigns. The PNSDs varied dynamically throughout the measurement period at each site and showed distinct variations in number concentrations and size distribution 595 596 pattern among the four different campaigns. On average, the total number concentrations were 709.3 and 3994.4 cm⁻³ at QOMS and Lhasa, respectively, while 597 they were 1639.2 and 1462.0 cm⁻³ at Motuo and LHG. Interestingly, the difference in 598 particle number concentrations were not consistent with those in mass concentrations 599 measured from the HR-ToF-AMS among the four campaigns (Table 2). For example, 600 although the PM1 mass concentration at Lhasa was comparable to that at QOMS (4.7 601 versus 4.4 μ g m⁻³), the number concentration at Lhasa was more than five times higher 602 603 than that at QOMS. This inconsistency may be related to the distinctly different size 604 distribution at different sites. As discussed above, submicron aerosols at QOMS were 605 overall highly aged due to the long-range transported sources from South Asia and dominated by aerosols at accumulation size mode, whereas more fresh aerosols emitted 606 607 from local residential activities and dominated by aerosols of Aitken size mode were observed at Lhasa. The different sizes of submicron aerosols among the different TP 608 regions could be further confirmed by the peak diameters in the average size 609 distributions of mass and number concentrations (Figs. 4a and 7b). For example, the 610 average OA mass size distributions exhibited peak diameters of 510.2 and 430.5 nm in 611 612 D_{va} at QOMS and Motuo, respectively, while the average number size distributions had 613 peak diameters of 109.4 and 131.0 nm in Dm at the same sites. In contrast, Lhasa displayed peak diameters of only 228.1 nm in D_{va} and 28.9 nm in D_{m} . 614 615 New particle formation (NPF) events were also observed at a few sites in our study.

New particle formation (NPF) events were also observed at a few sites in our study.
Typically, an NPF event is characterized by a rapid burst in nucleation mode followed
by the subsequent growth into larger particles, as defined as banana-shaped temporal
developments in the PNSD (Dal Maso et al., 2005). As shown in Fig. 7a, frequent





banana-shaped variation patterns in the PNSD were observed at Lhasa, suggesting the
frequent occurrence of NPF at this urban region. During the Lhasa campaign (27 days),
a total of 10 NPF events were observed (Zhao et al., 2022). In contrast, this bananashaped pattern was relatively rare at the other three remote sites, which might be related
to their predominated transport aerosol sources, overall highly-aged states, and limited
gaseous precursors.

Cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) is a distinct class of atmospheric aerosol particles 625 which could be activated as cloud droplets at a certain supersaturated water vapor 626 condition and played important roles in cloud formation, atmospheric precipitation, the 627 628 regional climate, as well as the hydrological cycle (Andreae and Rosenfeld, 2008). During the TP field campaigns, real-time online measurements of CCN number 629 630 concentrations were conducted at three sites, i.e., Motuo in the southeastern TP while 631 Waliguan and LHG in the northeastern TP. Generally, the temporal variation of CCN number concentration exhibited a consistent trend with the total number concentration 632 from the SMPS measurement or total PM₁ mass concentration from the HR-ToF-AMS 633 measurement during each campaign. On average, at Motuo, the CCN number 634 concentrations were 974.0, 1142.6, 1240.1, 1296.5, and 1337.9 cm⁻³ at different SS 635 values of 0.2%, 0.4%, 0.6%, 0.8%, and 1.0%, respectively. At Waliguan, relatively 636 comparable average values of 507.0, 805.1, 1073.3, 1230.6, and 1336.6 cm⁻³ were 637 observed at the same SS steps, respectively. However, at LHG, these average values 638 significantly decreased to 83.9, 344.3, 429.9, 480.8, and 516.1 cm⁻³, respectively (Table 639 2). The lower CCN number concentrations at LHG compared to Waliguan and Motuo 640 were consistent with the relatively lower PM1 mass loading at the LHG site. The CCN 641 642 number concentrations at the three TP sites were almost an order of magnitude lower than those observed in polluted urban atmospheres or emissions of specific combustion 643 sources, such as 12963 cm⁻³ (SS = 0.70%) in Wuqing, 9890 cm⁻³ (SS = 0.86%) in 644 Beijing (Deng et al., 2011; Gunthe et al., 2011), 7913 cm⁻³ (SS = 0.70%) at Panyu in 645 646 the Pearl River Delta, as well as 11565 cm^{-3} (SS = 0.87%) and 10000 cm^{-3} (SS = 0.80%) during unique biomass burning plumes (Rose et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2020). However, 647 our values were comparable to those (228-2150 cm⁻³ with SS of 0.87%) measured at 648 eight remote marine sites in the South China Sea and 941 cm⁻³ (SS = 0.74%) in the 649 amazon rain forest (Pöhlker et al., 2016; Atwood et al., 2017). These comparisons again 650 651 highlight the overall clean atmospheric condition in the TP.





652 **4.6** Aerosol optical properties and light absorptions from BC and BrC

653 The optical properties of aerosol particles are crucial input parameters for accurately estimating aerosol radiative forcing in climate models. However, significant 654 655 uncertainties persist due to the limited dataset in this remote region. In our project, the 656 parameters of B_{scat}, B_{abs}, and SSA of fine particles at 405 nm were observed during five field campaigns, i.e., QOMS, Motuo, Waliguan, Ngari, and Lhasa, to explore the 657 differences in aerosol optical properties at different TP regions. On average, the B_{scat} 658 and B_{abs} at 405 nm during the five campaigns were 121.9, 44.9, 36.3, 8.9, and 2.1 Mm⁻¹ 659 and 10.8, 7.0, 4.1, 3.6, and 1.9 Mm⁻¹, respectively, which finally resulted in average 660 SSA values of 0.89, 0.83, 0.86, 0.67, and 0.52, correspondingly (Fig. 8a and Table 2). 661 These B_{scat} and B_{abs} values at the five TP sites were both significantly lower than those 662 663 reported at various urban sites in China, such as 459.5 and 47.2 Mm⁻¹, respectively, at 630 nm in Beijing (Xie et al., 2019), 272 and 31 Mm⁻¹, respectively, at 532 nm in Xi'an 664 (Zhu et al., 2015), and 418 and 91 Mm⁻¹, respectively, at 540 nm in Guangzhou 665 (Andreae et al., 2008), once again suggesting the overall clean atmospheric condition 666 in the TP. Although the PM1 mass at QOMS was comparable to or lower than those at 667 the other four sites, the highest B_{scat} , B_{abs} , and SSA values were observed at QOMS. 668 669 These results may be attributed to the differences in aerosol chemical compositions and 670 mass scattering and absorbing efficiencies. In contrast, Lhasa exhibited a significantly 671 lower SSA compared to the other four remote sites, suggesting a prevalence of fresh aerosols in the urban area. On the other hand, aerosols at the four remote sites were 672 673 highly aged, which resulted in significant photobleaching in BrC chromophores and an obvious decrease in their light absorptivity at these sites. 674

675 In this study, real-time online measurements of particle B_{abs} at seven fixed wavelengths (370-950 nm) were also conducted using an aethalometer at QOMS, NamCo, and 676 677 Waliguan, respectively, to explore the regional difference in aerosol absorption properties in the different TP regions. Overall, the muti-wavelength Babs decreased 678 679 significantly with the increasing wavelength during all the three measurement campaigns, with fitting AAE values to be 1.73, 1.28, and 1.12, respectively (Fig. 8b). 680 The average B_{abs} at the shortest wavelength of 370 nm was 13.40, 3.25, and 2.66 Mm⁻¹ 681 at the three sites, respectively (Table 2). Although a relatively low PM1 mass was 682 observed at QOMS, the Babs at 370 nm was five times higher than that at Waliguan, 683 684 mainly as a result of the higher contribution of light-absorbing aerosol components in





the southern TP regions. For example, OA and BC together contributed nearly 80% of 685 the total PM₁ at QOMS, whereas this contribution decreased to only 37.5% at Waliguan. 686 The obviously higher AAE at QOMS also suggested a dominant light-absorbing 687 688 contribution from BrC or the significant lensing effect of non-BC materials coated on 689 BC at this southern site (Zhang et al., 2021). As shown in the inserted plots in Fig. 8b, both BC and BrC components showed significant decrease of particle Babs (Babs, BC and 690 691 $B_{abs,BrC}$ with increasing wavelength, but their contributions to total B_{abs} ($fB_{abs,BC}$ and 692 $fB_{abs,BrC}$) varied inversely. BC was the primary light-absorbing component at all the 693 three sites, contributing 66.9%, 78.7%, and 77.6% to the total *Babs* at 370 nm at QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan sites, respectively, and its contribution increased apparently with 694 longer wavelengths (Table 2). BrC showed more significant contributions to total B_{abs} 695 696 at shorter wavelengths. For example, the average $B_{abs,BrC}$ at 370 nm were 4.42, 0.69, and 0.60 Mm⁻¹ at the three sites, respectively, which finally contributed 33.1%, 21.3%, 697 and 22.4% of the total Babs. The significantly higher values of total Babs, Babs, BC, Babs, BrC, 698 and $fB_{abs,BrC}$ in the southern TP region could be related to the important contributions 699 700 of light-absorbing CAs from transported biomass burning emissions (Xu et al., 2020, 701 2022).

702 4.7 Estimation of aerosol radiative forcing in the different TP regions

703 Atmospheric aerosols have been found to significantly impact the Earth's climate systems through affecting solar radiation and exerting a positive forcing on the energy 704 705 budget (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006). In this study, aerosol direct radiative forcings (DRF) caused by BC, organic carbon (OC), and water-soluble ions (WSIs) are 706 707 estimated, respectively, by the widely used Santa Barbara DISORT (Discrete Ordinate 708 Radiative Transfer) Atmospheric Radiative Transfer (SBDART) model (Ricchiazzi et al., 1998). A detailed introduction and operation process of this model are described in 709 Text S6 in the supplementary material. Since the model's performance is evaluated and 710 calibrated by comparing the values with measurements from the Aethalometer and PAX 711 instruments, the aerosol DRF estimations are limited to the three sites of QOMS, 712 713 NamCo, and Waliguan, which have both online measurements from the aforementioned instruments. Furthermore, these three sites are located in the southern, central, and 714 northern regions of the TP, respectively, which enables us to explore the regional 715 716 variations in aerosol DRF across different TP regions.

717 Figure 9 presents the modelled DRFs caused by BC, OC, and WSIs during the three





campaigns. BC exhibited a significant warming effect at the top of the atmosphere, with 718 average DRF values of $+2.5 \pm 0.5$, $+2.1 \pm 0.1$, and $+1.9 \pm 0.1$ W m⁻² during the QOMS, 719 720 Waliguan, and NamCo campaign, respectively. In contrast, a noticeable cooling effect 721 caused 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^{-2} across the three campaigns. The combination of 722 warming effect at the top of the atmosphere and cooling effect at the earth's surface 723 724 resulted in significantly high net atmospheric forcings by BC, amounting to $+7.3 \pm 1.2$, $+6.2 \pm 0.3$, and $+5.6 \pm 0.2$ W m⁻² during the QOMS, Waliguan, and NamCo campaigns, 725 726 respectively. These findings suggest the important radiative effect caused by BC in the TP, especially in the southern TP region, which was significantly influenced by the 727 long-range transported biomass burning emission from South Asia. For OC and WSIs, 728 729 cooling effects were observed at both the top of the atmosphere and the earth's surface, characterized by negative and low average DRFs. Consequently, the net atmospheric 730 forcings for OC and WSIs were significantly lower compared to BC across the three 731 campaigns, with values of $+2.0 \pm 1.2$, $+0.7 \pm 0.2$, and $+0.9 \pm 0.7$ W m⁻² for OC, and 732 $+1.9\pm0.8$, $+1.4\pm0.6$, and $+1.2\pm0.2$ W m⁻² for WSIs at QOMS, Waliguan and NamCo, 733 respectively. Interestingly, at QOMS, the average atmospheric DRF of OC accounted 734 735 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 736 737 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 738 739 study were only conducted at three specific sites during limited periods. Therefore, long-term comprehensive measurements and DRF simulations over the entire TP 740 regions under different seasons are needed in the future. 741

742 **4.8** Long-range transport of aerosols from surrounding areas

To further understand the potential sources and specific transport pathways of air 743 masses at each site, particularly for those remote sites where regional transport 744 dominated, three- or five-days air mass back trajectories were calculated during each 745 measurement period at an ending height of 500 m above ground level every 6h using 746 the Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model 747 (Draxler and Rolph, 2003). Figure 10 display the average backward trajectory clusters 748 749 during all the eight field campaigns and the major trajectory clusters at each site are marked with large solid circles in different colors. 750





In general, distinct air mass sources were identified among the different TP regions. The 751 752 five sites (QOMS, Motuo, Lhasa, NamCo, and Ngari) located in the southern or south-753 central part of the TP generally showed dominant air mass sources from the south or 754 southwest with different transport distances and pathways during their measurement 755 periods in pre-monsoon season. For example, during the QOMS campaign, 38% of the air masses originated from the west, covering a considerably long transport distance, 756 while another 40% was originated from the southwest, covering a relatively shorter 757 758 distance. In the Motuo campaign, two major clusters were both from the southwest, but 759 their transport distances were distinctly different (77% at shorter distance compared to only 13% at a longer distance). Similarly, during the NamCo campaign, two different 760 major clusters with comparable contributions (37% and 34%) and transport distances, 761 762 but different transport pathways, were found from the south. The Ngari campaign also observed similar transport distances, with 56% of the air masses originating from 763 southwest and 26% from south of the site. These air mass clusters originating from the 764 south of the TP generally traverse heavy polluted regions in South Asia, such as the 765 Indo-Gangetic Plain, Nepal, and Bangladesh, carrying significant amounts of polluted 766 aerosols, particularly the biomass-burning-related emissions from the source origins to 767 768 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 769 770 summer season measurement periods. In the Bayanbulak campaign, the major air masses were all originated from the west of the site with varying transport distances 771 772 (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 773 longer transport distance but 27% in shorter distance. For the Waliguan campaign, the 774 775 air mass clusters originated from two distinctly different directions. The majority of the air masses (57%) came from the northeast of the site covering a relatively shorter 776 777 distance and faster transport speed, while the remaining clusters originated from the west and northwest of the site covering significantly longer distances. In summary, 778 significant differences in air mass sources and transport pathways were identified 779 780 among the different TP regions, particularly between the southern and the northern TP 781 regions. These differences are the primary factors contributing to the significantly different physiochemical and optical properties of aerosols in the different TP regions. 782

783 **5 Dataset limitations and applications**





Our dataset was achieved from multiple short-term intensive field observations conducted at eight different sites of the TP during their high-mass-loading periods utilizing a suite of high-resolution online instruments. However, it is important to acknowledge that our dataset has certain limitations due to objective restrictions that were quite challenging to overcome in these remote regions.

The primary limitation revolves around the short and inconsistent measurement periods 789 790 across different observational years and seasons at different sites. This limitation hinders the ability to make a robust comparison of aerosol properties across the vast TP 791 region, ascertain long-term and seasonal variation characteristics, and apply the current 792 data and findings to other different seasons. The harsh natural environments, 793 794 challenging weather conditions, limited logistical support, sole availability of our high-795 resolution instruments, and the stringent instrumental requirements (e.g., the need for 796 comprehensive field stations with uninterrupted and stable power supply) were the most 797 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 ones we 798 799 conducted, are predominantly short-term and intense observations carried out 800 worldwide due to the stability and its challenging maintenance during long-term 801 measurement. The short-term intensive measurement can well capture and characterize the dynamic evolution of aerosol properties at a high-time-resolution (Jimenez et al., 802 803 2009; Li et al., 2017). Until now, long-term high-time-resolution observation utilizing HR-ToF-AMS have rarely been conducted, even at urban sites with relatively favorable 804 observational environments and logistic support compared to our remote TP sites. 805 Consequently, performing continuous long-term observations or simultaneous 806 807 comparison at multiple sites in these high-altitude remote and challenging TP regions, 808 without stable power supply, is nearly impossible.

809 However, our team has made significant efforts to conduct the comprehensive 810 observation project over the past ten years, aiming to study the regional differences in aerosol sources and properties across the different TP regions. The dataset generated 811 812 from our project represents the first and sole high-time-resolution dataset focusing on atmospheric aerosol physicochemical and optical properties, coring the most part of the 813 TP. The applications of this dataset in atmospheric science can be summarized as 814 815 follows: firstly, the high-time-resolution observations offer crucial advantages understanding the rapid evolution and diurnal variations of aerosol properties during a 816





short period or special event. Additionally, these observations are valuable for model 817 simulation and verification, as they provide sufficient data points. Such advantages are 818 819 not achievable with traditional off-line samplings, which have low time resolutions 820 ranging from days to weeks. Secondly, the eight sites included in our project effectively 821 represent a wide range of the TP. This is particularly noteworthy considering the limited 822 availability of observational stations on the plateau. Furthermore, these sites provide 823 excellent opportunities for comparing aerosol sources and properties among different 824 types of sites with varying altitudes, land covers, surrounding environments, human 825 activities, and influences from large-scale atmospheric circulations. Thirdly, our observations encompass a wide range of aerosol physical, chemical, and optical 826 parameters, including aerosol mass loadings, chemical compositions, size distribution, 827 828 diurnal variations, number concentrations, light scattering and absorption coefficients, 829 and so on. This comprehensive dataset is crucial for a thorough understanding of aerosol properties in the TP regions. Overall, it is worth noting that until now, similar online 830 observational aerosol datasets focusing on multiple parameters with at least hourly-831 832 scale resolution at various sites in the diverse TP regions had been rarely reported.

833 6 Data availability

The high-resolution online measurement datasets, encompassing aerosol physical, 834 chemical, and optical properties over the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings in our 835 observation project have been released and are now available for download from the 836 837 National Cryosphere Desert Data Center (https://doi.org/10.12072/ncdc.NIEER.db2200.2022). These datasets are provided in an 838 839 Excel file comprising eight worksheets. The first sheet of the Excel file contains a concise description of the dataset, including the dataset name, observation stations, 840 sampling periods, online instruments used, and corresponding references. The 841 842 remaining seven sheets present the high-resolution measurement data obtained from the 843 online instruments employed during the eight campaigns. These instruments include 844 HR-ToF-AMS, SMPS, PAX, aethalometer, and CCN-100.

845 **7 Conclusions**

A comprehensive dataset including aerosol physicochemical and optical properties,
especially the high-resolution size-resolved chemical characteristics and sources of
submicron aerosols, conducted through real-time online measurements at 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 and identify regional variations in aerosol sources, as well as physicochemical and optical properties among different TP regions. Ultimately, these valuable data will significantly contribute to accurately simulating the radiative forcing and other potential impacts of atmospheric aerosols in this remote region in future climatic models.

A total of eight aerosol field measurements were conducted at QOMS, Motuo, NamCo, 856 Ngari, Waliguan, LHG, Bayanbulak, and Lhasa in the different regions of TP and its 857 surroundings by deploying multiple online instruments, including HR-ToF-AMS, 858 SMPS, PAX, Aethalometer, and CCN-100. The collected datasets provide the temporal 859 860 and diurnal variations as well as the size distribution patterns of PM₁ chemical 861 compositions, the standard high-resolution mass spectra and temporal variations of OA components, the temporal variations of particle number size distribution, particle light 862 scattering and absorption coefficients, particle light absorptions from different CAs of 863 864 BC and BrC, and CCN number concentrations at different supersaturation in each 865 campaign.

The datasets provide valuable insights into the regional variations in aerosol properties 866 and sources. In the southern TP region, atmospheric aerosols were found to be primarily 867 influenced by biomass burning emissions from polluted regions in South Asia, which 868 869 resulted in high mass contributions (>70%) of CAs and overall neutralized PM1, as well as an enhanced light absorption capability of the light-absorbing BC and BrC. In 870 871 contrast, in the northern TP, secondary inorganic species, particularly sulfate, contributed significantly to total PM1 due to the regional transport of anthropogenic 872 aerosol and gaseous precursor emissions from urban areas in northwestern China. 873 Furthermore, in contrast to the well-mixed, highly-aged, and regionally transported 874 aerosols observed in the remote sites, atmospheric aerosols in the urban Lhasa were 875 mainly originated from local primary sources such as cooking, traffic vehicle exhausts, 876 877 and biofuel combustion during the residential activities. Consequently, these aerosol particles were relatively fresh, characterized by small size and low oxidation degree, 878 879 but exhibited a high frequency of NPF origins.

880 Appendix A: Main Abbreviations





ТР	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
NPF	new particle formation
B _{scat}	light scattering coefficient
B_{abs}	light absorption coefficient
Bext	light extinction coefficient
SSA	single scattering albedo
AAE	absorption Ångström exponents
$B_{abs,BC}$	light absorption coefficient from BC
$B_{abs,BrC}$	light absorption coefficient from BrC
OC WCL	organic carbon
WSIs	water-soluble ions
DRF	direct radiative forcing

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882 JX and SK organized and supervised the field measurement campaigns, JX, XZ, WZ,

883 LZ, MZ, JS, JShi, YL, CX, YT, KL, XG, and QZ conducted the field measurements,

884 JX, XZ, WZ, and YT analyzed the data. All authors reviewed and commented on the

final form of the manuscript.





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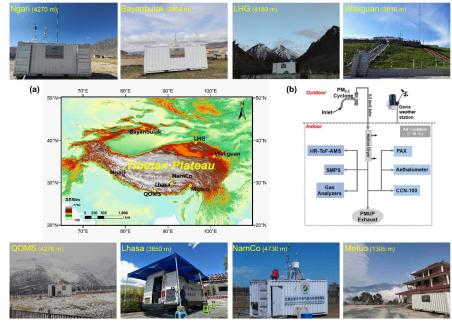
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1216 Figures



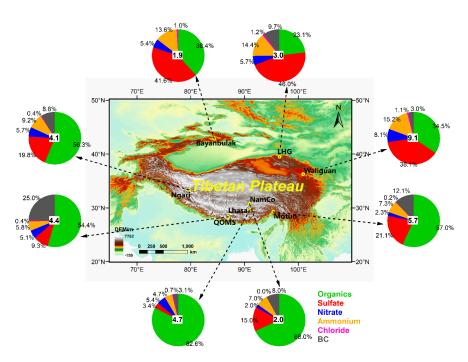
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Figure 1. (a) Geographical locations of the observation sites (see Table 1 for full name and characteristics of each site) in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings in this study (The geographical base map is created with ArcGIS). Fieldwork photographs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





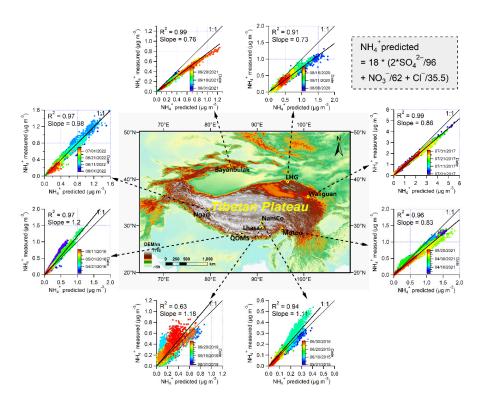
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- 1224 Figure 2. Regional distribution of average mass concentrations (values marked in the central of
- 1225 each pie chart with unit of $\mu g m^{-3}$) and chemical compositions (percentage values around each pie
- 1226 chart) of submicron aerosols (PM1) during the eight online aerosol field measurements in the Tibetan
- 1227 Plateau and its surroundings (The geographical base map is created with ArcGIS).







1228

1229 Figure 3. Regional difference of bulk acidity of submicron aerosols based on the scatterplot analysis

1230 and linear regression of measured NH4+ versus predicted NH4+ during the eight aerosol field

1231 measurement campaigns in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings (The geographical base map is

1232 created with ArcGIS).





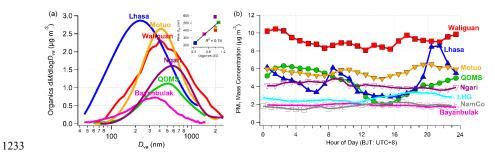


Figure 4. (a) Average size distributions of organic mass concentrations during six field measurement campaigns in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings. (b) Diurnal variations of total PM₁ mass concentrations during the eight field measurement campaigns in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings. Insert graph in (a) is the scatter plot of peak diameters in these size distributions versus the average O/C ratio of organics.

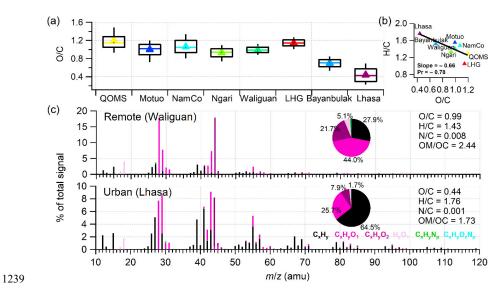
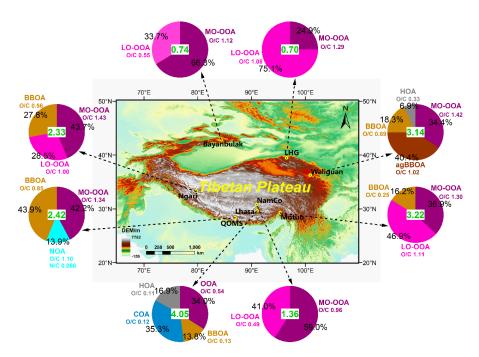


Figure 5. (a) Box plots of the average O/C ratios and (b) Van Krevelen diagram of H/C versus O/C among the eight field measurement campaigns in this study. (c) The average HRMSs of OA colored with different ion categories during the Waliguan and Lhasa measurement campaigns. The whiskers of boxes indicate the 90th and 10th percentiles, the upper and lower boundaries of boxes indicate the 75th and 25th percentiles, the lines in the boxes indicate the median values, the markers indicate the mean values, and similarly hereinafter.





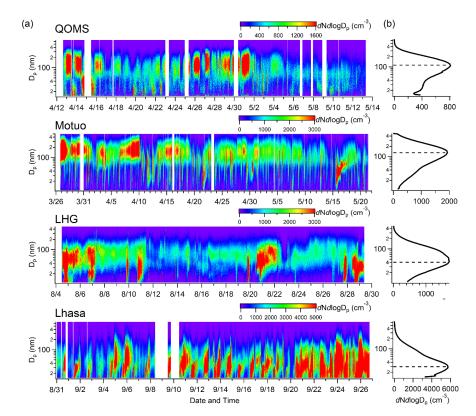


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Figure 6. Regional distribution of OA components from PMF source apportionment during the eight online aerosol field measurements in the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings (The geographical base map is created with ArcGIS). Values marked in the central of each pie chart are average OA mass with unit of μ g m⁻³ 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.







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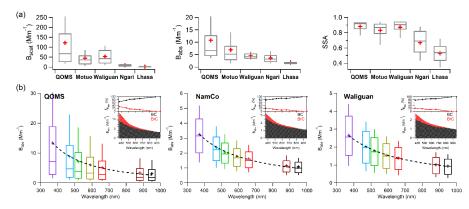
1253 Figure 7. (a) Temporal variations of the size distributions of particle number concentrations during

1254 the aerosol field measurement campaigns at QOMS, Motuo, LHG, and Lhasa sites. (b) The average

1255 size distribution of particle number concentration during entire measurement period at each site.

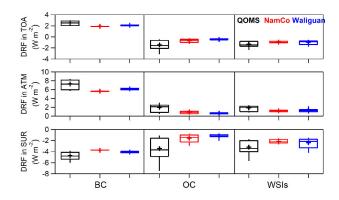






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Figure 8. Box plots of (a) the average particle light scattering coefficient (B_{scat}), light absorption coefficient (B_{abs}), and single scattering albedo (SSA) during the five aerosol field measurement campaigns at QOMS, Motuo, Waliguan, Ngari, 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.



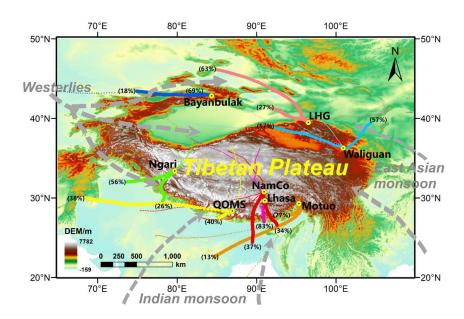
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Figure 9. Box-plots of the modelled direct radiative forcing (DRF) at the top of the atmosphere (TOA), the atmosphere (ATM), and the earth's surface (SUR) caused by black carbon (BC), organic

1267 carbon (OC), and water-soluble ions (WSIs) during the QOMS, NamCo, and Waliguan campaigns.







1268

Figure 10. The 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 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.



1274 **Tables**

- 1275 Table 1. Detailed information about the full name and geographic characteristic of observation
- 1276 station, sample period, online instruments, and corresponding references during each aerosol field
- 1277 measurement campaigns over the Tibetan Plateau and its surroundings in this study.

		Lat.	Long.	Alt.	Sample			Online Ins	strument	\$		
Station	Full Station Name	(°N)	(°E)	(m)	Period		oF-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 √	√	\checkmark	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	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	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	\checkmark				\checkmark		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	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark			This study
Waliguan	China Global Atmospheric Watch Baseline Observatory, Mount Waliguan Base	36.28	100.90	3816	1 July to 31 July 2017	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	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	\checkmark		\checkmark			\checkmark	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	\checkmark	~					This study
Lhasa	Lhasa City, Tibet Autonomous Region, China	29.65	91.03	3650	31 August to 26 September 2019	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark			Zhao et al. (2022)

1278





1279 Table 2. Summary of the average values measured with various instruments during the eight aerosol

1280	field measurement camp	baigns in the	TP and its surrow	undings in this study.

Measurement items	QOMS	Motuo	NamCo	Ngari	Waliguan	LHG	Bayanbulak	Lhasa
HR-ToF-AMS measurements								
PM_1 mass conc. (µg m ⁻³)	4.4	5.7	2.0	4.1	9.1	3.0	1.9 ^a	4.7
PM ₁ 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	0.2
BC	25.0	12.1	8.0	8.6	3.0	9.7	N/A	3.
Peak diameter in mass size distri								
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
	510.2	4/1.)		054.5	504.7		579.0	250.0
OA components (%)	10.0	260		· ·				
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								34.0
BBOA	3.9	16.2		27.8	18.3			13.8
agBBOA					40.4			
NOA	13.9							
HOA					6.9			16.9
COA								35.3
OA elemental ratios								
O/C	1.19	0.99	1.07	0.98	0.99	1.14	0.69	0.44
H/C	1.29	1.55	1.48	1.33	1.41	1.05	1.52	1.76
OM/OC	2.70	2.48	2.57	2.44	2.45	2.62	2.09	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 ⁻³)	709.3	1639.2				1462.0		3994.4
Peak diameter in PNSD (nm)	109.4	131.0				42.9		28.9
Feak diameter in FNSD (init)	109.4	131.0				42.9		20.5
PAX measurements								
B_{scat} (Mm ⁻¹)	121.9	44.9		8.9	36.3			2.1
B_{abs} (Mm ⁻¹)	10.8	7.0		3.6	4.1			1.9
B_{ext} (Mm ⁻¹)	132.7	51.9		12.6	40.4			4.0
SSA	0.89	0.83		0.67	0.86			0.52
A otholomoton moogunomonto								
Aethalometer measurements	12.40		2.25		2.00			
$B_{abs,370} ({\rm Mm^{-1}})$	13.40		3.25		2.66			
Absorption Ångström exponent	1.73		1.28		1.12			
$B_{abs,BrC,370}$ (Mm ⁻¹)	4.42		0.69		0.60			
$B_{abs,BC,370}$ (Mm ⁻¹)	8.94		2.56		2.06			
$fB_{abs,BrC,370}$ (%)	33.1		21.3		22.4			
fBabs,BC,370 (%)	66.9		78.7		77.6			
CCN-100 measurements (cm ⁻³)								
CCN number conc. (SS 0.2%)		974.0			507.0	83.9		
CCN number conc. (SS 0.4%)		1142.6			805.1	344.3		
CCN number conc. (SS 0.6%)		1240.1			1073.3	429.9		
CCN number conc. (SS 0.8%)		1296.5			1230.6	480.8		
CCN number conc. (SS 1.0%)		1337.9			1336.6	516.1		

1281 ^aonly non-refractory PM₁ is reported at Bayanbulak due to the absence of BC observation.





1282 Table 3. Summary of the average PM_1 mass concentrations ($\mu g \ m^{-3})$ measured by the Aerodyne

1283	AMSs at various high-altitude and remote sites worldwide.
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Observation Sites	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Altitude (m a.s.l.)	PM ₁ mass (μg m ⁻³)	References
QOMS, China	28.36	86.95	4276	4.4	This study & Zhang et al. (2018)
Motuo, China	29.30	95.32	1305	5.7	This study
NamCo, China	30.77	90.95	4730	2.0	This study & Xu et al. (2018)
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	1.9ª	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)

1284 aonly non-refractory PM1 is reported at Bayanbulak due to the absence of BC observation.