High Contribution of Secondary Brown Carbon to Aerosol Light Absorption in the Southeastern Margin of Tibetan Plateau

Qiyuan Wang1,2, Yongming Han1,2, Jianhuai Ye3, Suixin Liu1,2, Siwatt Pongpiachan4, Ningning Zhang1,2, Yuemei Han1,2, Jie Tian1,2, Cheng Wu5, Xin Long1, Qian Zhang6, Wenyang Zhang7, Zhuzi Zhao8, and Junji Cao1,2

1Key Laboratory of Aerosol Chemistry and Physics, State Key Laboratory of Loess and Quaternary Geology, Institute of Earth Environment, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Xi'an, China; 2CAS Center for Excellence in Quaternary Science and Global Change, Xi'an, China; 3School of Engineering and Applied Sciences, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA, USA, 4School of Social & Environmental Development, National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA), Bangkok, Thailand; 5Institute of Mass Spectrometer and Atmospheric Environment, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China; 6School of Environmental & Municipal Engineering, Xi'an University of Architecture and Technology, Xi'an, China; 7College of Geography, Fujian Normal University, Fuzhou, China; 8School of Chemical and Environmental Engineering, Jiangsu University of Technology, Changzhou, China

Abstract The optical properties of atmospheric secondary brown carbon (BrC) aerosol are poorly understood because of its chemical complexity, and this has hampered quantitative assessments of the impacts of this light-absorbing material on glaciers on the Tibetan Plateau. For this study, a statistical approach was developed to investigate BrC light absorption over the southeastern margin of the Tibetan Plateau. Secondary sources for BrC were more important for absorption than primary ones. A diurnal cycle in secondary BrC absorption was explained by the formation of light-absorbing chromophores by photochemical oxidation after sunrise followed by photobleaching of the chromophores under the more oxidizing conditions as the day progressed. Multimethod analyses showed that biomass burning in northern Burma and along the Sino-Burmese border was the most important source for the secondary BrC. The mean integrated simple forcing efficiency was 79 W/g, indicating that secondary BrC can cause substantial radiative effects.

Plain Language Summary A statistical approach was developed to evaluate light absorption by secondary brown carbon (BrC) aerosol particles. We characterized the diurnal cycle of secondary BrC over the southeastern margin of Tibetan Plateau, identified likely pollution sources, and estimated its radiative effects. To our knowledge, this is the first time that light absorption from primary versus secondary BrC has been evaluated. This approach should be useful for further improving models and accurately evaluating the effects of BrC on glacial recession on the Tibetan Plateau.

1. Introduction

The Tibetan Plateau (TP) holds many glaciers, and the meltwater from them provides fresh water essential for a downstream population of more than 1.5 billion (Yao et al., 2012). There is growing concern that glaciers on the TP are in retreat, due in part to the influence of atmospheric black carbon (BC) and dust which are light-absorbing materials (William et al., 2010). The optical properties and radiative effects of these two substances have been well documented over the past decades (e.g., Qu et al., 2014; Wang, Cao, Han, Tian, Zhang, et al., 2018; Wang, Cao, Han, Tian, Zhu, et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2015; Zhao, Wang, et al., 2017). More recently, a group of colored organic compounds, collectively known as brown carbon (BrC), has been found to absorb sunlight, especially at short wavelengths (Andreae & Gelencsér, 2006). The radiative effects of BrC aerosols are influenced by their sources, optical properties, and chemical transformations (Yan et al., 2018). Previous studies have shown that BrC accounts for ~20–40% of the total carbonaceous aerosol absorption and causes radiative effects of +0.1 to +0.6 W/m² globally (Feng et al., 2013; Jo et al., 2016; Park et al., 2010; Saleh et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014). Limited BrC studies on the TP make it difficult to evaluate effects of BrC on the radiant energy budget, and this further limits our ability to evaluate effects of BrC on glacial recession.
Atmospheric BrC either originates from primary emissions (i.e., biomass burning, coal burning, and gasoline vehicle emissions) or forms through multiphase reactions (Laskin et al., 2015). Previous studies have indicated that secondary organic aerosol from biomass burning is more absorptive for short wavelengths than the primary organic aerosol (Saleh et al., 2013), and thus, secondary BrC may be an important contributor to the global radiative forcing budget. However, direct measurements of secondary BrC light absorption are not yet feasible owing to the high chemical complexity of this material, and thus, the absorptivity of secondary BrC is not well constrained. Several studies have investigated relationships between light absorption and secondary organic carbon (SOC), and they have only described the effects of secondary BrC qualitatively (e.g., Chen et al., 2018; Li et al., 2018). Other studies have used stepwise multiple linear regression, a statistical technique, to estimate the SOC contribution to aerosol light absorption (Park et al., 2018). However, most of the compounds in SOC cause light scattering, and the use of total SOC concentrations could lead to underestimates of the light-absorbing ability of secondary BrC based on the multiple linear regression method. Additionally, some laboratory studies have explored the light-absorbing properties of secondary BrC as well as the mechanisms by which BrC forms (e.g., Nakayama et al., 2013; Song et al., 2013), but those studies have dealt with only a relatively small number of BrC species generated from typical precursors, such as toluene and α-pinene, and thus, they were not fully representative of secondary BrC in the atmosphere.

Current BrC studies on the TP have mainly focused on the sources and optical properties of total BrC or extracted water-/methanol-soluble BrC and humic-like substances (e.g., Kirillova et al., 2016; Li, Chen, et al., 2016; Li, Yan, et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2017, 2018). Here a statistical approach that we call the minimum R-squared (MRS) method was developed to separate light absorption by secondary BrC versus primary BrC. The advantage of this approach is that it is simple and straightforward provided that there are suitable measurements of aerosol light absorption and BC mass concentrations. The main objectives of the study were to (1) determine the contribution of secondary sources to BrC absorption; (2) characterize the diurnal cycle in secondary BrC absorption; (3) identify probable source regions for the high loadings of secondary BrC; and (4) evaluate the radiative effects of secondary BrC.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Sampling Site

The southeastern margin of TP is a transitional zone between the high altitude TP (average ~4,000 m above sea level [a.s.l.]) and the low altitude Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau (average ~2,000 m a.s.l.), and it has been recognized as one of the channels through which air pollutants from Southeast Asia are transported to the TP (Zhao, Tie, et al., 2017). An intensive measurement campaign was conducted in this region at a site in Gaomeigu County, Yunnan Province, China (supporting information Figure S1) from 14 March to 13 May 2018. The sampling equipment was deployed on the rooftop of an office building (~10 m above ground level) of the Lijiang Astronomical Station, Chinese Academy of Sciences (100.03°E, 26.70°N; 3,260 m a.s.l.). Gaomeigu County only has a resident population of more than 100 persons, and there are no major anthropogenic sources near the sampling site.

2.2. Aerosol Absorption Measurement

Aerosol light absorption was measured using a multiwavelength Aethalometer® (Model AE33, Magee Scientific, Berkeley, CA, USA) at wavelengths $\lambda = 370, 470, 520, 590, 660, 880, 950$ nm. Ambient air was drawn into the AE33 at a flow rate of 5 L/min through a PM$_{2.5}$ cutoff, and a Nafion® dryer (MD-700-24S-3; Perma Pure, Inc., Lakewood, NJ, USA) was used to dry the particles as they entered the instrument. Detailed descriptions of the construction and operating principles of AE33 can be found in Drinovec et al. (2015). Previous studies have demonstrated that filter-based absorption measurements can suffer from nonlinear loading effects and filter matrix scattering effects (e.g., Coen et al., 2010). A two parallel spot measurement technology is embedded in AE33 to eliminate the loading effect. Meanwhile, a factor of 2.14 was used to account for the filter matrix scattering effect for the quartz filters used in this study (Drinovec et al., 2015).

2.3. Separation of Secondary BrC Absorption

A MRS approach for calculating the secondary BrC absorption at different wavelengths ($\text{Abs}_{\text{BrC,sec}}(\lambda)$) was developed from the widely used BC-tracer method for calculating SOC (Srivastava et al., 2018). Aerosol light
Figure 1. Coefficients of determination ($R^2$) for secondary brown carbon absorption at $\lambda = 370$ nm ($\text{Abs}_{\text{BrC,sec}}(370)$) versus black carbon (BC) mass concentration plotted against the primary emission ratios for light absorption and BC ($\text{Abs}(370)/\text{BC}_{\text{pri}}$). The computer program used for minimum R squared analysis may be found online (https://zenodo.org/record/832396).

The key step for the analyses involving equation (4) is to find a value for $\text{Abs}(\lambda)/\text{BC}$ that is representative of the primary combustion sources that affected the sampling site, but finding that value is challenging because the ratio varies among sources. We used the MRS method to exploit the presumed independence of BC and $\text{Abs}_{\text{BrC,sec}}(\lambda)$ for this purpose; that is, we assumed that the BC particles were from primary emissions, while $\text{Abs}_{\text{BrC,sec}}(\lambda)$ was caused by secondary organic aerosols that mainly formed through the oxidation of organic gases (Shrivastava et al., 2017). This assumption is supported by the result of simulation of secondary BrC in biomass-burning emission (see Text S2), which showed inconsistent variations between BC mass and $\text{Abs}_{\text{BrC,sec}}(\lambda)$ formed through a Potential Aerosol Mass flow tube reactor (Figure S3). Next, a series of arbitrary values for $\langle \text{Abs}(\lambda)/\text{BC} \rangle_{\text{pri}}$ (e.g., 0–120) was used to calculate a set of $\text{Abs}_{\text{BrC,sec}}(\lambda)$ values, and for each $\langle \text{Abs}(\lambda)/\text{BC} \rangle_{\text{pri}}$ value tested, a coefficient of determination ($R^2$) for the relationship was derived. The series of $R^2$ ($\text{Abs}_{\text{BrC,sec}}(\lambda)$, BC) values was then plotted against the assumed $\langle \text{Abs}(\lambda)/\text{BC} \rangle_{\text{pri}}$ values—an example of this for $\lambda = 370$ nm is shown in Figure 1. The arbitrary $\langle \text{Abs}(\lambda)/\text{BC} \rangle_{\text{pri}}$ value that showed the minimum $R^2$ for $\text{Abs}_{\text{BrC,sec}}(\lambda)$ versus BC was the target of this analysis because it best met the assumption that BC and $\text{Abs}_{\text{BrC,sec}}(\lambda)$ were independent. The MRS method avoids uncertainty caused by different arbitrary selection criterion of $\langle \text{Abs}(\lambda)/\text{BC} \rangle_{\text{pri}}$, because the algorithm seeks the unique minimum point from the data set. The bias of MRS result is <23% when the measurement uncertainty is within 20% (Wu & Yu, 2016).

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3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Determination of Secondary BrC Absorption

The wavelength dependence of aerosol light absorption showed a typical power law distribution in the range of 370–880 nm (Figure S4), and the average absorption Ångström exponent (see Text S3) was 1.6; this indicated the occurrence of BrC absorption at short wavelengths. Calculations based on the equations in Text S3 showed that the average contribution of Abs BrC(λ) to total Abs(λ) ranged from 20% to 40% (Table 1), suggesting a substantial BrC contribution to aerosol light absorption. As the SOC fraction of organic particles from remote and sparsely populated areas is often large (Zheng et al., 2017), secondary BrC would appear to be an important contributor to AbsBrC(λ), and thus, AbsBrC,sec(λ) was further quantified using the MRS method. Considering the multiplicity of ways in which can SOC form, the measured data were divided into daytime and nighttime subsets to calculate AbsBrC,sec(λ) for those periods separately. It should be noted that when the measured Abs(λ)/BC ratio was lower than the minimum R² derived [Abs(λ)/BC]pri, the AbsBrC,sec(λ) would be negative, and in those cases (<10% of data), we assumed negligible AbsBrC,sec(λ) contributions. As shown in Table 1, the average AbsBrC,sec(λ) contributed 70% of the total AbsBrC at 370 nm, 68% at 470 nm, 91% at 520 nm, 81% at 590 nm, and 77% at 660 nm with larger contributions for the daytime (73–98%) compared with the night (63–84%). These results suggest a dominant contribution from secondary sources to BrC absorption in the southeastern margin of TP, especially during the daytime. The large contributions of AbsBrC,sec(λ) at night may be attributed to the lack of photobleaching to degrade the secondary BrC chromophores. The components contributing to AbsBrC,sec(λ) were likely a diverse group of light-absorbing chromophores whose absorptivity varied with wavelength (Pretsch et al., 2009; Samburova et al., 2016). Nonetheless, similar variations in AbsBrC,sec(λ) were found for different wavelengths (Table S1), and so AbsBrC,sec(370) was used as a representative value to explore the characteristics of secondary BrC absorption in the following discussion.

We further used the data from biomass-burning, coal-combustion, and roadside experiments to determine the relative importance of AbsBrC,sec(λ) using the MRS method. These assessments showed that the percent contributions of AbsBrC,sec(λ) to total AbsBrC(λ) were relatively small for biomass-burning (9–23%), coal-combustion (9–19%), and traffic-related sources (2–14%; Table 1), indicating that primary BrC absorption was more important than that from secondary BrC in fresh emissions. The small AbsBrC,sec(λ) fraction for the biomass-burning and coal-combustion tests is likely due to secondary light-absorbing chromophores that formed through gas-to-particle conversion as the combustion products mixed with the diluting air (Lipsky & Robinson, 2006). On the other hand, the AbsBrC,sec(λ) for the roadside studies may be a result of aerosol aging processes. Altogether, this analysis of source emissions data further demonstrates that the MRS method is a powerful tool for distinguishing between primary and secondary BrC light absorption.

Table 1: Aerosol Light Absorption Contributed by Total Brown Carbon (AbsBrC) and Secondary Brown Carbon (AbsBrC,sec) for the Sampling Period and for Selected Emission Sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Wavelength</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>370 nm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AbsBrC</td>
<td>Daytime</td>
<td>9.2 (36%) b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nighttime</td>
<td>10.6 (39%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All day</td>
<td>9.8 (38%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AbsBrC,sec</td>
<td>Daytime</td>
<td>7.1 (77%) b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nighttime</td>
<td>6.6 (63%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All day</td>
<td>6.9 (70%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AbsBrC</td>
<td>Biomass burning</td>
<td>2,438 (69%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coal combustion</td>
<td>512 (11%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AbsBrC,sec</td>
<td>Biomass burning</td>
<td>215 (9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coal combustion</td>
<td>44.8 (9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Traffic source</td>
<td>1.2 (11%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| aThe units for light absorption are per megameter. bThe contribution of AbsBrC to total aerosol light absorption. cThe contribution of AbsBrC,sec to AbsBrC.
3.2. Photochemical Oxidation Effects

A plot of the diurnal variation in secondary BrC absorption (Figure 2a) showed that Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}$ decreased after midnight, reached a low value of 3.2 Mm$^{-1}$ around 04:00 local time (LT), and then rapidly increased at a rate of 1.2 Mm$^{-1}$ hr$^{-1}$ to a daily maximum of 6.9 Mm$^{-1}$ around 07:00 LT. From then until 11:00, Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}$ fluctuated at relatively high levels (6.3–6.6 Mm$^{-1}$), and then it decreased sharply at a rate of 0.5 Mm$^{-1}$ hr$^{-1}$ and reached a diurnal minimum (3.0–3.1 Mm$^{-1}$) in the afternoon around 16:00–17:00 LT. Finally, Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}$ showed a small peak of 5 Mm$^{-1}$ in the evening around 19:00 LT and later decreased once more.

The diurnal variability in Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}$ is best explained by the combined effects of secondary particle formation, the decay of light-absorbing chromophores, and the dynamics of the planetary boundary layer (PBL). As CO is a conserved tracer of primary emissions, normalizing the Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}$ values by the background-corrected CO mixing ratios ($\Delta CO$) can minimize the PBL dilution effects (DeCarlo et al., 2010). Here the background CO was defined as the lowest 1.25th percentile of the CO values measured during the entire campaign (Kondo et al., 2006) with the CO analyzer described in Text S4. As shown in Figure 2a, similar diurnal patterns were found for the normalized Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}/\Delta CO$ ratio and Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}$. After accounting for the effects caused by variations in the height of the PBL, the increasing trend in the Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}/\Delta CO$ ratios from 06:00–11:00 LT indicates that secondary light-absorbing chromophores formed and that phenomenon led to increases in Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}$. Previous studies have shown that odd oxygen (Ox = NO$_2$ + O$_3$) is an indicator of air mass aging caused by photochemical reactions (Canonaco et al., 2015; Wang, Huang, et al., 2017), and a strong negative correlation between Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}$ and Ox (see Text S4) during the daytime ($R^2 = 0.80$, Figure 2b) is another indication that photolysis and/or photooxidation caused photobleaching of BrC chromophores as the day progressed. This explanation is supported by recent chamber and laboratory studies, which show less absorptivity for BrC as the particles age (e.g., Sareen et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2015; Zhong & Jang, 2014). Along these lines, Zhong and Jang (2014) investigated the light-absorbing properties of organic carbon from biomass burning in a large outdoor chamber under natural sunlight, and they found that light absorption by organic carbon decreased after 8–9 hr of sunlight exposure. Finally, the small peak in Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}/\Delta CO$ ratios around 19:00 LT was likely related to local cooking activities because biofuels, especially wood, are used for this purpose, and the gaseous emissions from the cooking fires can lead to secondary BrC formation before sunset (~19:45 LT).

3.3. Sources of Secondary BrC Absorption

To identify the source regions responsible for Abs$_{BrC,sec(370)}$, a concentration-weighted trajectory (CWT) analysis was performed based on 3-day air mass trajectories that were calculated backward in time. Each hourly trajectory was calculated for arrival heights of 150 and 500 m above ground using the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory model (Draxler & Rolph, 2003), which was driven by full vertical dynamic and gridded meteorological data (Global Data Assimilation System; GDAS1, http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php). A detailed description of the CWT procedures may be found in Wang, Zhao, et al. (2017).
The CWT maps for AbsBrC,sec(370) (Figure 3) show that the concentration gradients were similar for the different arrival heights, and this indicates that the CWT method effectively captured the large-scale flow patterns. Large CWT values were concentrated mainly in northern Burma and along the Sino-Burmese border, indicating strong transport of secondary BrC from those areas. Further, a fire count map (Figure S5a) showed extensive biomass burning around those areas during the sampling period, and the total number of fire counts there showed a positive correlation with AbsBrC,sec(370) ($R^2 = 0.47$, $p < 0.01$, Figure S5b). Combined with the CWT analysis, these results indicate that the high AbsBrC,sec(370) found on the southeastern margin of TP was most likely due to the long-range transport of biomass-burning-related secondary BrC from northern Burma and the Sino-Burmese border.

Moderate CWT values also were found in areas near the sampling site, suggesting that local emissions led to the formation of some secondary BrC. Pine trees and broad-leaved trees are widely distributed along the southeastern margin of TP, and therefore, the photooxidation of natural biogenic precursors, such as isoprene, a-pinene, and limonene (Lin et al., 2014), is a potentially important pathway for secondary BrC formation. Meanwhile, local anthropogenic emissions also may have contributed to the secondary BrC formation because even though the population in Gaomeigu is sparse, biofuels are burned by local residents. Compared with northern Burma and the Sino-Burmese border, the lower CWT values in the areas surrounding Gaomeigu indicate lesser local effects on AbsBrC,sec(370). Moreover, it should be noted that even though the air masses from northeast of Gaomeigu accounted for only ~4% of the total trajectories, that route may be a potential source for the high secondary BrC at times. Indeed, some of the air masses that reached the sampling site passed through areas in inland China where anthropogenic emissions are strong (Kurokawa et al., 2013).

### 3.4. Implications for Radiative Effect and Atmospheric Photochemistry

The potential for secondary BrC climatic impacts was evaluated through a “simple forcing efficiency” (SFE, watts per gram) method (Bond & Bergstrom, 2006; Chen & Bond, 2010; see Text S5). The integrated mean SFE for secondary BrC ($SFE_{BrC,sec}$) in solar spectral range of 370–880 nm was 79 W/g (Figure S6a), and that accounted for 75% of total BrC SFE. Although BC was the dominant carbonaceous species in terms of a positive radiative effect (558 W/g), the fraction of secondary BrC SFE relative to BC was 14%, suggesting a non-negligible radiative effect from secondary BrC. Moreover, the proportion of $SFE_{BrC,sec}$ relative to BC increased to 23% when the air masses were influenced by biomass burning and transport was from northern Burma and the Sino-Burmese border. The uncertainty for the integrated $SFE_{BrC,sec}$ was determined quantitatively through Monte Carlo simulations. The probability distribution for mass absorption cross section of secondary BrC at each wavelength ($MAC_{BrC,sec}(\lambda)$) was found to be normal, and coefficients of variation (defined as the standard deviation/mean) ranged from 74–86%. The coefficients of variation for $MAC_{BrC,sec}(\lambda)$ and the normal distribution were used as input data for the Monte Carlo analysis, and 100,000 simulations were run to calculate the uncertainty. The probability distribution of $SFE_{BrC,sec}$ is shown in Figure S7. The mean, 2.5th percentile, and 97.5th percentile of integrated $SFE_{BrC,sec}$ were 79, 73, and 85 W/g.
respectively, and thus, the overall uncertainty for $SFE_{BrC,sec}$ varied from $-7.3\%$ to $+7.1\%$ at the 95% confidence interval.

In addition to direct radiative effects, BrC also can influence atmospheric photochemistry indirectly by interacting with the ultraviolet wavelengths of solar radiation. For example, Jo et al. (2016) used a global 3-D chemical transport model to quantify the effects of BrC on photochemistry. Their study showed that BrC absorption could result in an 8% reduction in the annual NO$_2$ photolysis rate in the lower atmosphere over Asia and that would lead to a decrease of 2 ppb in the annual surface O$_3$. Here we used the Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visibility radiation model (5.2 version, http://cprm.acom.ucar.edu/Models/TUV/Interactive_TUV) to compare the NO$_2$ photolysis rates for BC alone versus BC plus secondary BrC. The results (Figure S6b) indicate that the NO$_2$ photolysis rate would decrease by 4% due to the absorption of secondary BrC in the near-UV range (370–400 nm). This finding and the large fraction of secondary BrC we measured indicate that BrC can exert nonnegligible impacts on atmospheric photochemistry over the southeastern margin of the TP, and therefore, both the indirect and direct effects of BrC should be taken into account in climate assessments.

4. Conclusions

We developed a statistical approach to determine the impact of secondary BrC aerosol on light absorption over the southeastern margin of the TP. The secondary BrC absorption ($Abs_{BrC,sec}(\lambda)$) accounted for 68–91% of the total BrC absorption, suggesting the dominant contribution from secondary sources for the southeastern margin of TP. The diurnal cycle of $Abs_{BrC,sec}(370)$ showed a rapid increase in secondary BrC formation after sunrise, whereas the light-absorbing chromophores were photobleached as a result of photooxidation processes in the afternoon. A strong negative correlation between odd oxygen and $Abs_{BrC,sec}(370)$ supported the idea that BrC chromophores were photobleached under more oxidizing conditions. CWT analyses combined with a positive relationship between $Abs_{BrC,sec}(370)$ and number of fire counts showed that biomass-burning-related secondary BrC from northern Burma and Sino-Burmese border was an important source for BrC over the southeastern margin of TP. Furthermore, photooxidation of biogenic precursors was recognized as a potential pathway for secondary BrC formation in the thickly forested and sparsely populated area around the sampling site. A SFE method showed that the integrated mean SFE of secondary BrC ($SFE_{BrC,sec}$) in the solar spectral range of 370–880 nm was 79 W/g and that accounted for 75% of total BrC SFE during the study. The fractional $SFE_{BrC,sec}$ relative to that of BC was 14%, and this ratio increased to 23% when the air masses were affected by biomass burning, suggesting a nonnegligible radiative effect from secondary BrC. Monte Carlo simulations showed that the uncertainty for the integrated $SFE_{BrC,sec}$ varied from $-7.3\%$ to $+7.1\%$ at the 95% confidence interval. Results obtained from the Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visibility radiation model showed that secondary BrC absorption in the near-UV range of 370–400 nm may decrease the NO$_2$ photolysis rate by 4%, and therefore, BrC evidently can influence the atmospheric photochemistry in the southeastern margin of TP.

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