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Characteristics of Antarctic aerosol composition during the Australian fires of 2019–**2020**

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Abstract During the 36th Chinese National Antarctic Research Expedition, aerosol samples were gathered from the Ross Sea in Antarctic to assess the climatic impact of the Australian fires that occurred in 2019–2020. The chemical compositions, including levoglucosan (Lev) and its isomers, galactosan (Gan) and mannosan (Man), were analyzed. Principal component analysis helped identify the potential sources of these chemical components. By combining backward trajectories with the ratios of *C*Lev/*C*Man and *C*Man/*C*Gan, it was further inferred that Australia might be the potential source region for biomass burning. The radiative forcing resulting from biomass burning was evaluated using the Santa Barbara DISORT Atmospheric Radiative Transfer (SBDART) model, which revealed that black carbon emitted from biomass burning could slightly warm the atmosphere $(+0.52 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2})$ while causing slightly cooling at the surface $(-0.73 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2})$ and the top of the atmosphere $(-0.22 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2})$ over the Ross Sea.

Keywords Australian fires, **biomass burning**, **aerosol composition**, **climate effect**, **Ross Sea**

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1 Introduction

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Human activity is changing the global water cycle and carbon cycle (IPCC, 2019). Although drought risks associated with climate change vary by region, warming and drying will increase the risk of frequent and intense forest fires (Abatzoglou et al., 2019; Bowman et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2015). Wildfires, in turn, exert a stronger grip on the climate. Among them, wildfires alter radiative forcing at regional to global scales by releasing greenhouse

gases and aerosols. Feedback between climate and wildfires is complex and often difficult to capture in climate models, resulting in a high degree of uncertainty in future projections (Tang et al., 2021). Although aerosols or photochemical compounds produced during biomass combustion have a large radiative impact on climate, they are still rarely quantified in the literature. This is especially true in the Southern Hemisphere, which has a smaller number of stations than in the Northern Hemisphere.

From September 2019 to March 2020, devastating bushfires occurred in Australia (Boer et al., 2020). The fire is on par with the five deadliest wildfires on record in Australia, with devastating ecological and social impacts, air quality and human health due to its proximity to major

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Australian residential areas and animal habitats. Fires have destroyed more than tens of thousands of hectares of forest, killed 451 people, killed approximately 1 billion animals and caused extensive property damage (Borchers Arriagada et al., 2020). Australian fires emit a large number of biomass aerosols and greenhouse gases (such as carbon dioxide (CO_2) , methane (CH_4) , etc.) and photochemical precursors that produce ozone (O_3) , all of which have an impact on climate (Chang et al., 2021). Li et al. (2021) quantified the aerosols and greenhouse gases produced during Australian fires. The results showed that the fires burned 112.3 Tg of biomass and released 178.6±13.6 Tg of CO₂, 1.71 \pm 1.28 Tg particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) and 0.061 \pm 0.04 Tg black carbon (BC).

Antarctica is often considered the most primitive continent on Earth, but it is subject to a variety of worrisome impacts at local to regional scales (Khan et al., 2019). A number of observations have been made in Antarctica over the past few decades, but these have focused on the impact of human activity on the Antarctic. Attention has been given to the effects of persistent organic pollutants on Antarctic ecology and BC produced by human activities on Antarctic climate, but less attention has been given to the effects of natural forest fires on Antarctic climate and environment (Hao et al., 2019; Hara et al., 2019; Khan et al., 2019; Morales et al., 2022). Projections show that based on current climate conditions, fires will become more frequent and more severe globally in the future (de Groot et al., 2013; Whitman et al., 2015), the impact of sudden fire events on the environment should not be underestimated, and researchers should pay more attention to the impact of forest fires on climate.

This paper reports the characteristics of aerosol components (mainly including organic components, inorganic water-soluble ions, organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC)) collected from the Ross Sea in Antarctic during the Australian fires of 2019–2020. The objective was to investigate the possible impacts of the 2019–2020 Australian fires on Antarctic aerosol fractions and their potential climate effects.

2 Methods

2.1 Study area and sampling

The aerosol samples (total suspended particulates, TSP) were collected in 2019–2020 during the 36th Chinese National Antarctic Research Expedition from the Ross Sea, Antarctic (Figure 1a). A high-volume air sampler, which was installed on the bow deck of R/V *Xuelong*, was used to collect aerosol samples as well as field blanks. The atmosphere was filtered through a pre-cleaned quartz filter film. We collected 39 samples and the samples were sealed and stored in the refrigerator at -20 °C until analysis. The total sampling time was approximately 24 h, and the sampling volume was approximately 1300 m^3 . Details are

shown in Table S1. In order to avoid pollution from ship exhaust as much as possible, we placed a high-volume sampler on the top deck of the ship and took samples while the ship was moving upwind. In addition, if the sample is contaminated by ship exhaust, the corresponding EC will be high. We analyzed the correlation between organic tracers and EC (Table S2) and found that there was no necessary connection between EC and organic tracers. In other words, our samples are basically not contaminated by ship exhaust.

2.2 Analysis of components

Arabitol, mannitol, levoglucosan (Lev) and its isomers (galactosan (Gan) and mannosan (Man)) were analyzed by GC-MS (Agilent 7890B-5977B, EI mode, HP-5). Details were shown in Chen et al. (2022). Briefly, one quarter of each quartz filter film was used for Lev and its isomers analysis. Components were extracted by an accelerated solvent extraction device (ASE 350, Thermo Fisher Scientific), and then the solution was concentrated, blow-dried and silanized at 70 ℃ for 1 h, finally, the solution was detected by GC-MS. Ion chromatography was used to detect water-soluble ions $(SO₄², NO₃, Cl₋, Ca₂₊, Na₊$, K^+ , Mg²⁺ and NH⁺₄). In addition, OC/EC was analyzed using a 2015 multiband thermal/optical method Carbon Morphology Analyzer (DRI Model 2015). Each test included at least two reagent blanks, two field blanks, and one for the recovery test. The recovery rate of all samples was between 90% and 110%. The average recoveries of Lev and its isomers from spiked anhydrous sodium sulfate (*n* = 4) ranged from 72% to 99%. The method detection limits (MDLs) were 4.67–27.77 ng per sample for Lev and their isomers (means of field blanks plus three times the standard deviations).

2.3 Backward trajectory and SBDART model

Online HYSPLIT (http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT. php) was used to retrieve the backward trajectory of air mass. According to the lifetime of Lev in the atmosphere calculated by Fraser and Lakshmanan (2000), 10-day backward trajectories were calculated at 100 m above the sampling site. SBDART was used to simulate the shortwave radiative forcing of light-absorbing aerosols (Pu et al., 2019; Yuan et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2019). Aerosol optical depth (AOD), single scattering albedo (SSA), and metronomic parameter (*g*) were needed. We obtained AOD and SSA data from the Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) website (https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/). The total aerosol radiative forcing was calculated by AOD data from the Marambio site near the Ross Sea. The light absorption coefficient for BC (b_{BC}) was calculated from the measured BC mass concentration using a mass absorption cross-section (MAC) of 10.0 $m^2 g^{-1}$ at 660 nm and an absorption Ångström exponent (AAE) of 1 to compute the absorption at other wavelengths. Text S1 shows the calculation formula of b_{BC} , AOD of BC aerosols, and SSA.

Figure 1 Location map and concentrations of different components. **a**, sampling locations; **b**, the concentrations of Gan; **c**, the concentrations of Man; **d**, the concentrations of Lev; **e**, the concentrations of arabitol; **f**, the concentrations of mannitol; **g**, the concentrations of Cl⁻; **h**, the concentrations of NO₃; **i**, the concentrations of SO₄²⁻; **j**, the concentrations of Na⁺; **k**, the concentrations of NH₄; **l**, the concentrations of K^+ ; **m**, the concentrations of Mg^{2+} ; **n**, the concentrations of Ca^{2+} ; **o**, the concentrations of OC; **p**, the concentrations of EC; **q**, the concentrations of total carbon (TC).

The radiative forcing of BC was estimated by subtracting aerosols other than BC from total aerosols. Detail parameters, such as AOD, and solar zenith angle (SZA) were shown in Table S3.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Aerosol compositions characteristics and sources

The ion observation results of this study are approximately 10 times the observation results of Zhongshan Station in Antarctica from 2005 to 2008 (Xu et al., 2019). The average mass concentrations of these components are distributed as follows (from highest to lowest): CI^{-} , Na^{+} , SO_{4}^{2-} , OC , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , EC , K^{+} , NO_{3}^{-} and $NH₄$. Cl[–] and Na⁺ were dominant, with concentrations of 5.06 \pm 4.45 and 3.60 \pm 2.67 μ g·m⁻³, respectively. The dominant distribution pattern is consistent with previous observations at Zhongshan Station in Antarctica (Xu et al., 2019) but inconsistent with Barbaro et al. (2017) observations, which indicate that the dominant ions are SO_4^{2-} , Mg^{2+} , Na⁺ and Cl⁻. The different distribution patterns may be related to the different particle sizes of the collected samples. Barbaro et al. (2016) and Xu et al. (2021) showed that the distribution patterns of water-soluble ions in different particle sizes were different; Cl⁻, Na⁺ and Mg²⁺ were more likely to occur on coarse particles (1–10 μ m), while NH₄, NO₃ and K⁺ were more likely to occur on fine particles ($\leq 1 \mu m$). Cl⁻ and Na⁺ are important components of the ocean, which may imply that the collected samples are mainly affected by marine sources.

Lev, Gan and Man are specific compounds for cellulose or hemicellulose that burn at a temperature range of 150–350 ℃. Throughout the entire sampling period, the concentrations of Lev, Gan and Man were 0.23 to 5.65 ng·m⁻³ (with an average of 1.90 ng·m⁻³), 0.01 to 0.57 ng·m⁻³ (with an average of 0.18 ng·m⁻³), and 0.02 to 0.86 ng·m⁻³ (with an average of 0.26 ng·m⁻³), respectively. Lev was dominant (81.1%), followed by Man (11.2%) and Gan (7.7%). This distribution pattern is similar to many previous studies (van Drooge et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2015). In addition, the observation results are of the same magnitude as that of Hu et al. (2013), while due to the distance from biomass burning sources and barriers of Antarctic marginal seas, the results which were observed in polar marine are higher than those observed in Antarctic plateau (Zangrando et al., 2016). This value is much lower than some terrestrial observations (Galindo et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2018). Arabitol and mannitol are organic tracers of fungi in the atmosphere (Samaké et al., 2019). Bauer et al. (2008) found that arabitol and mannitol concentrations were well correlated with the number of fungal spores. Both of them can be used to estimate the contribution of biogenic aerosols to overall organic aerosols. In this study, arabitol was detected more frequently than mannitol, with the concentration of mannitol falling below

the detection limit in over half of the samples, while arabitol exhibited a higher concentration compared to mannitol. Compared with other research results (Liang et al., 2013; Yttri et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2010), this study is at a low level. Yttri et al. (2007) showed that the annual average concentrations of arabitol and mannitol in rural Norway were 0.42 and 0.27 $ng·m⁻³$, respectively. Liang et al. (2013) found that the annual average concentrations of arabitol and mannitol in Beijing, China, were 7.4 and 10.3 ng·m⁻³, respectively. Zhang et al. (2010) also observed high concentrations of arabitol and mannitol (7.0 and 16.0 ng·m⁻³) at a mountain site in southern China. These comparative analyses might indicate that the biological diversity of Antarctica is lower than that observed in urban and rural ecosystems.

SPSS 19.0 software was used for the principal component analysis (PCA). To facilitate the interpretation of the factors extracted by PCA, Varimax was used to rotate each factor. Factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 are extracted. Table 1 shows the loading of each factor extracted by PCA. PCA extracted four components that explained 86.3% of the total variance.

Table 1 Varimax-rotated factor loadings of PCA^a

	PC1	PC ₂	PC3
Gan	-0.156	0.954	-0.028
Man	-0.148	0.955	-0.022
Lev	-0.005	0.967	-0.037
Arabitol	0.272	0.706	0.129
Cl^{-}	$0.972^{\rm b}$	-0.164	-0.041
NO ₃	0.762	0.238	-0.14
SO_{4}^{2-}	0.955	0.084	0.093
$Na+$	0.978	-0.117	0.022
$NH4+$	-0.246	0.657	0.283
K^+	0.983	-0.108	0.05
Mg^{2+}	0.965	-0.172	0.006
Ca^{2+}	0.885	-0.126	0.317
OC	0.104	0.182	0.922
EC	0.018	-0.014	0.918
Variance	46.1%	27.1%	13.1%
Cumulative	46.1%	73.2%	86.3%

Notes: a , The PCA is based on Eigenvalues >1 and Varimax rotation. ^b, The scores that are also referred to as loadings, suggest that the variation within the respective element items significantly contributes to the overall variance captured by the principal component (PC). Bold font indicates environmental parameters with major contributions.

PC1 accounted for 46.1% of the overall variance, encompassing primarily Cl⁻, SO₄², Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, and Ca²⁺. It is noteworthy that the majority of constituent ions in PC1, exceeding 90% , are Cl[–] and Na⁺, which are key components of sea salt (Yoshizue et al., 2019), while the remaining ions originate mainly from the ocean. Thus, PC1 predominantly

signifies the influence of marine sources on aerosols. PC2, responsible for 27.1% of the total variance, primarily consists of Lev and its isomers, collectively indicating biomass burning as the source of the aerosol component. PC3, accounting for 13.1% of the total variance, is characterized by OC and EC, suggesting that aerosols might also be influenced by additional organic constituents. The PCA results reveal that aerosol components in the Ross Sea region of the Southern Ocean are contributed not only by local sources but also by the long-range transport of organic materials. Furthermore, based on the variance explained by each component, sea salt contributes most significantly to the aerosol composition, followed by biomass burning, and additionally, other organic components also play a role.

The findings of this study align well with earlier observations. Research conducted by Barbaro et al. (2016) in Terra Nova Bay, Victoria Land, Antarctica, similarly indicates that a substantial portion of aerosol fractions are influenced by sea salt, with elevated levels of Cl[−] and Na⁺. Furthermore, numerous studies have demonstrated that long-distance transport carries organic components from lower and middle latitudes to the high latitudes of Antarctica, thereby impacting the atmospheric composition in that region (Antony et al., 2014; Deng et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2019). Specifically, Shi et al. (2019) identified levoglucan, vanillic acid, and syringic acid in the ice and snow across the East Antarctic ice sheet, which are believed to originate primarily from biomass burning in the Southern Hemisphere's land areas. Antony et al. (2014) also discovered that certain organic components in the Antarctic ice sheet mainly arrive through long-distance transport. Additionally, Deng et al. (2021) found that marine emissions potentially impact bioorganic aerosols in the Antarctic Peninsula.

3.2 Potential source areas for biomass burning

The composition analysis in Section 3.1 shows that the samples collected in the study area are affected by biomass burning. These biomarkers of biomass burning may be mainly derived from Southern Hemisphere continents (e.g., Australia, South America and South Africa) (Chen et al., 2022; Hu et al., 2013). To determine the specific source area, the backward trajectory of the collected samples were drawn (Figure 2). As shown in Figure 2, in most cases, the air mass was not directly derived from any other continent within the 10-day period but traveled circuitously around West Antarctica and the Southern Ocean (most of the air mass trajectories were less than 2 km altitude). This result is probably caused by the relatively long duration of Lev transport to Antarctica. The long lifetime of Lev in the atmosphere allows homogeneous mixing of this compound from multiple sources. Hence, the Lev detected in Ross Sea reflects a mixed signal of fire activities in the Southern Hemisphere, in which Australia and South America are probably the most important source areas of fire.

Figure 2 Sample backward trajectories. Stars are the average sampling locations, dotted lines are 10-days air mass backward trajectories at 100 m above sea level.

Figure 3 shows the ratios of Lev and its isomers in all samples. The $C_{\text{Lev}}/C_{\text{Man}}$ of most samples was in the range of 8–14, and the $C_{\text{Lev}}/C_{\text{Man}}$ of only two sample points was approximately 18, while the ratio of the $C_{\text{Man}}/C_{\text{Gen}}$ ratio in all samples was less than 1, concentrated in the range of 0.5–0.9. Previous studies have shown that the ratio of $C_{\text{Lev}}/C_{\text{Man}}$ ranges from 0 to 5, the ratio of $C_{\text{Man}}/C_{\text{Can}}$ ranges from 0.6 to 3 during softwood combustion (Engling et al., 2006; Kuo et al., 2011), and the $C_{\text{Lev}}/C_{\text{Man}}$ and $C_{\text{Man}}/C_{\text{Gam}}$ ratios of grass and pine needles were 5.0–10.0 and 0.2–1.0, respectively (Engling et al., 2006; Kuo et al., 2011; Schmidl et al., 2008a). For hardwood combustion, the $C_{\text{Lev}}/C_{\text{Man}}$ ratio ranges from 10.0 to 30.0, and the ratio of $C_{\text{Man}}/C_{\text{Gen}}$ is approximately 0.6–3.0 (Engling et al., 2006; Schmidl et al., 2008b); in addition, the $C_{\text{Lev}}/C_{\text{Man}}$ values of crop residues are usually greater than 40 (Zhang et al., 2007). Lev is significantly correlated with Man and Gan (the *r* values were 0.98 and 0.97, respectively, $p \le 0.01$), which indicates that these compounds may have experienced the same transport and deposition processes (Dietze et al., 2020). The ratio thus may minimize the impact of degradation during transport. Based on the comparison between the data of this study and previous studies, it can be found that the ratio of this study mainly fell in the range of hardwood and grass, which implies that the samples were mainly affected by fires, and the vegetation system was composed mainly of hardwood and grass.

The $C_{\text{Lev}}/C_{\text{Man}}$ ratios in this study are higher than some previously reported values which were detected in South America (Dietze et al., 2020; Kirchgeorg et al., 2014; Schreuder et al., 2019; Schüpbach et al., 2015), suggesting

Figure 3 Ratio of Lev and its isomers. The red coordinate axis represents the value of $C_{\text{Lev}}/C_{\text{Man}}$, while the black coordinate axis represents the value of $C_{\text{Man}}/C_{\text{Gen}}$.

that the burning vegetation in South America is dominated by softwood. Studies have shown that the ecosystem of tropical northern Australia is dominated by grasslands (Mallet et al., 2017a), southeastern Australia is dominated by forest and grassland ecosystems (Cruz et al., 2012). The major fuel groups for bushfires encompass Acacia shrublands, Mallee woodlands and shrublands, Chenopod shrubs, Samphire shrubs and forb-dominated communities, Hummock grasslands, Tussock grasslands, open woodlands, low closed forests and closed shrublands, rainforests and vine thickets, Eucalypt open forests, Eucalypt tall open forests, and Eucalypt low open forests (Russell-Smith et al., 2007).

In addition, Kloss et al. (2021) demonstrated that through satellite, ground remote sensing and field observations, Australian fires had a significant impact on the Southern Hemisphere atmosphere, and amounts of material from fires are transported up into the troposphere and then transported over long distances. Pope et al. (2021) analyzed trace gas emissions from Australian fires and their long-range transport using state-of-the-art near-real-time satellite measurements of tropospheric composition. Observations suggest that the apparent fire plume from the Australian fires managed to circle the entire Southern Hemisphere in a matter of weeks and spread eastward to the South Pacific Ocean, South America, South Atlantic Ocean, Africa, and the Indian Ocean. Therefore, it is concluded that the aerosol samples collected in the Ross Sea of Antarctic may mainly affected by biomass burning in Australia. However, the contribution from South America cannot be ruled out.

3.3 Potential climatic effects of biomass burning

Forest fires release BC and aerosols into the atmosphere, imposing significant impacts on regional and even global climates (Feltracco et al., 2020; Mallet et al., 2017b; Zangrando et al., 2016). To assess the potential

climate impact of Australian fires on the Ross Sea, we used SBDART to estimate the direct radiative effect (DRE) of BC. BC, which is released from biomass burning, used in this study was calculated by the ratio of Lev to total and organic carbon released by forest fires observed in previous studies (Saarikoski et al., 2007; Yttri et al., 2014) and the Lev concentration measured in the Ross Sea (details was shown in Text S2). Because of the photooxidation of Lev during long-distance transport, it may underestimate the BC from biomass burning. However, it can evaluate the minimum impact of Australian fires on the Ross Sea environment.

The output parameters of the SBDART model mainly include total downward flux and total upward flux at the top of the atmosphere (TOPDN and TOPUP), total downward flux and total upward flux at the surface (BOTDN and BOTUP). The DRE values at the top of the atmosphere (TOA) were calculated by subtracting TOPUP from TOPDN, the DRE values at the surface (SUF) were calculated by subtracting BOTUP from BOTDN, the DRE values at the atmosphere (ATM) were calculated by subtracting SUF from TOA. Figure 4 shows the DRE values for all samples. The mean DRE value at the ATM is 0.52 ± 0.48 W·m⁻², while those at the TOA and at the SUF are -0.22 ± 0.26 W·m⁻² and -0.73 ± 0.39 W·m⁻², respectively. These results may indicate that Australian fires have a potential weak warming and heating effect on the Antarctic (Ross Sea) atmosphere, while they may have a potential cooling effect on the surface and the upper atmosphere. The results are similar to previous studies showing that BC aerosols have a significant radiative heating effect on the atmosphere and cooling effect on the surface. Chang et al. (2021) showed that aerosols generated by biomass burning

Figure 4 Radiative effect due to BC aerosols at the TOA, SUF and ATM in the Antarctic. For each box plot shows the 25th and 75th percentiles, the median is the 50th percentile and is represented by a white line, error bars represent one standard deviation and the small red block in each box represents the mean value of radiative effect.

in Australia caused a significant cooling effect at the top of the atmosphere in the Australian region, with radiative forcing ranging from -14.8 to -17.7 W·m⁻². In addition, Devara et al. (2011) observed aerosol optical thickness at Maitri Station in Antarctica from 2004 to 2005 and calculated the radiative forcing of aerosols, and the results showed that the radiative forcing of aerosols on the surface reached -0.47 W \cdot m⁻².

It is worth noting that some uncertainties exist in the calculation of DRE. These uncertainties include the model itself and data input to the model. SBDART is mainly used to study local (point) radiative effect, and the overall uncertainty of the radiative effect value can reach 15% due to bias in SBDART simulation (Alam et al., 2012). In addition, the BC aerosol profile, which was input to the model, was inferred based on the observed Lev data and BC aerosol profile observed by aircraft in another study. Samset et al. (2013) showed that in DRE calculations, the vertical profile data of BC can cause at least 20% uncertainty. Although there is some uncertainty in this estimate, it can still provide a reference for subsequent research. As an increasing number of intense fires are expected to occur globally due to climate change, attention should be given to the direct radiation effects of aerosols released by forest fires (de Groot et al., 2013; Whitman et al., 2015).

4 Conclusion

This study examined the chemical composition of aerosols, potential source regions, and potential climatic impacts of Lev, its isomers, and water-soluble ions in TSP collected from the Ross Sea in Antarctic. The results of the PCA revealed that these components primarily originated from sea salt, biomass burning, and various organic constituents. Additionally, the analysis of backward trajectories and the ratios of $C_{\text{Lev}}/C_{\text{Man}}$ and $C_{\text{Man}}/C_{\text{Gam}}$ suggested Australia as a likely source region for biomass burning. Estimations using the SBDART model indicated that biomass burning in Australia could potentially lead to regional weak warming of the Antarctic atmosphere and cooling of the Antarctic surface.

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Supplementary Tables and Texts

Table S1 Sample information of Antarctic aerosol

Notes: "a" denotes the latitude and the longitude indicate the mean location of the start and end of each sampling episode; "b" denotes sampling volume for air.

Ē,

Table S2 Pearson correlations (*r*) of OC, EC, organic tracer and inorganic ions

Notes: * , *p*<0.05; **, *p*<0.01.

Text S1 SBDART model parameters

The following equations (1), (2) and (3) were used to computes the wavelength-dependent aerosol absorption coefficient of BC (b_{BC}), the particle single scattering albedo (a_{SSA}) and aerosol optical depth (d_{AOD}) for each altitude layer.

$$
b_{\rm BC}(\lambda) = M_{\rm BC} \times x(660) \times \left(\frac{\lambda}{660}\right)^{-y}
$$
 (1)

$$
a_{\text{SSA}}(\lambda) = \frac{b_{\text{scat}}(\lambda)}{b_{\text{scat}}(\lambda) + b_{\text{BC}}(\lambda)}
$$
(2)

$$
d_{\text{AOD}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \text{Ext}(\lambda)\tau_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (b_{\text{scat}}(\lambda) + b_{\text{BC}}(\lambda))\tau_i
$$
\n(3)

where M_{BC} is the mass concentration of BC, *x* is the mass absorption cross-section for BC and *y* is the absorption Ångström exponent for BC. The value of $x(10 \text{ m}^2 \text{·} \text{g}^{-1})$ and y used in our calculation in agreement with the atmospheric relevant range suggested by previous studies (Chung et al., 2012; Olson et al., 2015). Ext is the extinction coefficient averaged in the *i*-th altitude bin with a thickness of *τi*. Vertically resolved data were binned every 2 km. The direct radiative effect was calculated under a clear sky condition and a mean solar zenith angle computed from the specified date and geographic coordinates using an internal solar ephemeris algorithm.

Text S2 BC calculation

Based on the ratio of Lev to total and organic carbon $R_{\text{TC/Lev, bb}}$ and $R_{\text{OC/Lev, bb}}$ released by biomass burning observed in previous studies and the Lev concentration measured in this study, we calculated (1) TC from biomass burning $C_{TC, bb}$ = $C_{\text{Lev}} \times R_{\text{TC/Lev, bb}}$ and (2) OC from biomass burning $C_{\text{OC, bb}} = C_{\text{Lev}} \times R_{\text{OC/Lev, bb}}$. The elemental carbon concentration (*EC*_{bb}) of biomass burning was estimated by subtracting (2) from (1) (Saarikoski et al., 2007; Yttri et al., 2014).

In this study, we used EC for BC. In some climate models and health studies, EC concentrations are often as a surrogate of BC concentrations when BC measurements are not possible (Peng et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017). However, previous studies investigated the difference between BC and EC concentrations from different measurements, and attributed to the differences to the light absorptivity of BC (Jeong et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2022; Salako et al., 2012; Park et al., 2002). Such as, Park et al. (2002) found the relationship between EC and BC measurements in $PM_{2.5}$ reflected very good agreement and BC/EC slopes about 1. Salako et al. (2012) showed the variation between BC and EC at Asia and Pacific regions. Jeong et al. (2004) found BC was higher than EC in the cases of higher sulfate concentration, while BC was lower than EC in forest fire events. Liu et al. (2022) showed that around 90% of BC concentration was higher than that of EC in three-year continuous measurement in Beijing, China. The relationship between BC and EC concentration remains uncertain, while, the concentration of BC is an important parameter for calculating the optical thickness of black carbon aerosol, hence, in this paper, when EC is used to calculate the radiative forcing of BC, only an approximate radiative forcing value can be obtained.

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