

## **Response to anonymous Referee #1 comments**

*The manuscript titled “Long-term (2001-2012) trends of carbonaceous aerosols from remote island in the western North Pacific: an outflow region of Asian pollutants and dust”, is a well written paper. The methodology is sound and data analysis is convincing. The theme of the manuscript is well in accordance with the scope of the journal. The logic was explicit, and the content was comprehensive and integrated. However, some corrections are still needed before it can be published. Some grammatical errors as well as the wrong use of articles (a/an/the) are found and must be checked before resubmission.*

**Response:** We thank the reviewer for careful reading and helpful comments on the manuscript. We revised the manuscript according to the reviewer’s comments. Our responses are indicated by the blue color. The changes in the revised manuscript are highlighted with yellow color. Please find the point-by-point responses followed by the revised manuscript.

*Specific comments:*

*Line 24–25: It would be better to write the abbreviations just after to the name e.g. elemental carbon (EC)...*

**Response:** Abbreviated as suggested. Please see lines 23-24 in the revised manuscript (MS).

*Line 30: continental polluted air masses*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see line 29 in the revised MS.

*Line 33: formation of secondary organic aerosols (SOAs)*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see line 33 in the revised MS.

*Line 35: We found significant increase....*

**Response:** Modified. Please see line 35 in the revised MS.

*Line 36: biomass-burning-derived*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see line 36 in the revised MS.

*Line 37: anthropogenic sources or anthropogenic aerosols?*

**Response:** Modified as fossil fuel-derived aerosols in the revised MS. Please see line 37.

*Line 38-39: The correlation between OC and MSA- can be shown here to strengthen the sentence.*

**Response:** Based on the reviewer’s suggestion, we added the following sentence in the revised MS.

“This point is further supported by a moderate correlation ( $r=0.40$ ) between WSOC and MSA<sup>-</sup> concentrations.”

Please see lines 40-41 in the revised MS.

*Line 40: significant increase in OC/TC and WSOC/TC ratios,*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see line 41 in the revised MS.

*Line 40-42: Please rephrase the sentence.*

**Response:** Rephrased in the revised MS as “We also found significant increase in OC/TC (total carbon) and WSOC/TC ratios, suggesting that the contribution of SOA to carbonaceous aerosols has significantly increased over the western North Pacific via long-range atmospheric transport from East Asian.” Please see lines 41-44 in the revised MS.

*Line 42: long-range atmospheric transport? from?*

**Response:** Please see above response.

*Line 52: There should be a space after “;” in citation bracket throughout the ms e.g. (Zhang and Cao, 2015; Cui et al., 2015).*

**Response:** Corrected as suggested in the revised manuscript.

*Line 58: “cooling effect” It’s not necessarily always. It would be better to bring the term “brown carbon” also here and simply describe it.*

**Response:** We rephrased this sentence in the revised manuscript as “However, the role of OC on cooling or warming has been a matter of debate (Chung et al., 2012; Cazorla et al., 2013) because some class of OC (so called brown carbon) may absorb sunlight (Feng et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2015; Laskin et al., 2015; Bahadur et al., 2012).” Please see lines 62-65 in the revised MS.

*Line 60-61: This sentence is a complex one. It can be made simple by describing the above comment.*

**Response:** Please see above response.

*Line 62: estimation of net radiative forcing*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see line 66 in the revised MS.

*Line 65: It would be better to write “radiative balance” in place of “climate”.*

**Response:** Written as suggested. Please see line 68 in the revised MS.

*Line 79: However, there is still large uncertainties exist in quantification of radiative impacts for carbonaceous aerosols....*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see lines 83-84 in the revised MS.

*Line 88: Expand MEGAN and MOHYCAN*

**Response:** Expanded. Please see lines 92-93 in the revised MS.

*Line 109: Expand WSOC. It’s the first use of this term here.*

**Response:** Expanded. Please see line 116 in the revised MS.

*Line 175: Here the zero in ‘H0’ can be made subscript ‘H<sub>0</sub>’.*

**Response:** Corrected. We modified this section and moved some phrases to the supporting information (SI). Please see text S1 in the SI.

*Line 189: Why 850 hPa pressure level has been used? Please brief the specific reason, if any? Why not 1000 hPa, as the study includes surface concentrations? 850 hPa level is roughly at 1.5 km, may be higher than the marine boundary layer over western Pacific irrespective of seasons. Have you also studied the seasonal variations in boundary layer height? Line 195-197: Some BT analysis can be added here from literatures*

**Response:** Following the reviewer's comment, we modified this section and Figure 2 by replacing the NCEP wind circulation pattern with air mass backward trajectory analysis and corresponding Figure 2. Please see lines 174-186 and Figure 2 in the revises MS.

*Line 204: The study period is 2001-2012, why authors have used the met data 2001-2013 in figure S1? Also the figure S1 is showing the year 2014. Please make it clear to easy go for readers.*

**Response:** We modified Figure S1 in the revised manuscript and made consistent in sampling period (i.e., 2001-2012). Please see line 189 in the revised MS and also see Figure S1 in the revised SI.

*Line 214: All measured species (Fig 3a–c).... and then again an increasing peak in autumn. It is suggested to discuss monthly variations instead of combine winter-spring season.*

**Response:** Following the reviewer's comment, we modified the phrase in the revised MS as "All measured species clearly showed winter-to-spring maxima (highest concentration was in March) and summer minima (lowest in July) and then increase towards autumn." Please see lines 199-200.

*Line 215: The seasonal pattern is found consistent with the typical....*

**Response:** Written as suggested. Please see lines 200-201 in the revised MS.

*Line 219: discussed in section 3.1.*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see line 205 in the revised MS.

*Line 220: The highest concentration was clearly seen in March. It is suggested to discuss monthly variations wrt the figure 3 instead of combine winter-spring season.*

**Response:** Modified as "Relatively high monthly average concentrations up to 0.28, 1.13 and 0.59  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  were observed for EC, OC, and WSOC in March. In contrast, their monthly averages are lower in summer or early autumn months (July or September) with the concentrations of 0.04, 0.58, and 0.20  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , respectively (Table 1)." Please see lines 206-209 in the revised MS.

*Line 225: (Figure 2c)*

**Response:** Written as Figure 2 in the revised MS. Please see line 211.

*Line 232: were up to seven....*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see line 218 in the revised MS.

*Line 233-234: suggested negligible contribution of local anthropogenic emissions as well as long-range influences over....*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see lines 219-220 in the revised MS.

*Line 235: was found maximum in summer and minimum..*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see lines 239-240 in the revised MS.

*Line 236: suggesting negligible.....No need of insert “a” in between.*

**Response:** Based on the second reviewer’s comment, we rephrased this line in the revised manuscript. Please see lines 217-220

*Line 244: delete “over the sampling sites”*

**Response:** Deleted as suggested.

*Line 248: “observed in midsummer to early autumn” .....also write the name of months may in bracket for easy understanding.*

**Response:** Written as suggested. Please see line 251 in the revised MS

*Line 248-250: “suggesting an influence of biomass burning emissions from southeast Asian countries via long-range” How it suggests? Is it only an assumption? Otherwise provide some suitable references.*

**Response:** This is not assumption. The provided picture (figure 2 in the revised MS), air mass backward trajectory analysis, clearly shows the influence of biomass burning influence from Southeast Asian countries. Considering the reviewer’s comment, we added air mass backward trajectory analysis along with modis-derived fire spots and shown as Figure 2 in the revised MS. We also added the following phrases in the revised MS.

“This point is consistent with the air mass back trajectory analysis and MODIS-fire count data during summer months (Figure 2), which clearly show that air masses are occasionally coming from Southeast Asia including Indonesia, Malaysia and New Guinea etc., where biomass burning is a common phenomena during summer to early autumn. Biomass burning products were transported to the western North Pacific (Figure 2).” Please see lines 253-258 and Figure 2 in the revised MS.

*Line 251-253: No. Figure 2c is not clearly showing dominant flow from SEA. Please maximize the axis scale in Figure 2. Moreover, enhanced BB over SEA is evident in February–April not common in June-August (summer) and Sept–Nov (autumn) as mentioned in this study. It may be only occasional. It is suggested to rephrase the sentences. In addition to the continental Asian outflow, western Pacific Ocean also receives biomass burning emissions from Southeast Asia particularly in spring (late February to mid-April) through westerlies. Ex: Tsay et al. (2016) Satellite-Surface Perspectives of Air Quality and Aerosol-Cloud Effects on the Environment: An Overview of 7-SEAS/BASELInE. Aerosol and Air Quality Research 16, 2581-2602. Lin et al. (2013). An Overview of Regional Experiments on Biomass Burning Aerosols and Related Pollutants in Southeast Asia: From BASE-ASIA and the Dongsha Experiment*

to 7-SEAS. *Atmos. Environ.* 78, 1–19.

Huang et al. (2013), *Impact assessment of biomass burning on air quality in Southeast and East Asia during BASE-ASIA*, *Atmospheric Environment*, 78, 291 – 302.

**Response:** Please see the above response. Further, we discussed above studies briefly in introduction section. Please see lines 102-104 in the revised MS.

Line 259: *an unique*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see line 269 in the revised MS.

Line 283: *showed clear.....*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see lines 306 in the revised MS.

Line 287: *EC showed a decreasing order,....continuously increasing.....*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see lines 310-311 in the revised MS.

Line 336: *not necessarily OC always scatters the radiation. OC form BB mostly absorbs. Rephrase the sentence.*

**Response:** Rephrased as suggested as “OC (except for brown carbon) and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  particles majorly scatter the solar radiation whereas EC particles strongly absorb the radiation in the atmosphere.” Please see lines 377-379 in the revised MS.

Line 338: *“extension” changes to “extinction”. It is suggested to use this reference.*

*Pani et al. (2016). Radiative effect of springtime biomass-burning aerosols over Northern Indochina during 7-SEAS/BASELIN-E 2013 campaign. Aerosol Air Qual. Res.16: 2802–2817.*

**Response:** Corrected and added a reference as suggested. Please see line 380 in the revised MS.

Line: 341: *“OC/EC ratios can be used to understand the relative contributions of scattering or absorbing aerosols in the atmosphere (Ram and Sarin, 2015).” It can be but with much uncertainties and limitations. This is may not be true and enough for a marine boundary layer location where long-range transport of distinct air masses is the possible reason of carbons. OCs in this study may be more scatters only due to aging process.*

**Response:** We rephrased this sentence in the revised MS as “Therefore, although OC has certain uncertainty because of light absorbing brown carbon, the OC/EC ratios can be used to understand the relative contributions of scattering or absorbing aerosols in the atmosphere (Ram and Sarin, 2015).”

“In this study, atmospheric aging may be making OC more scatter during long-range transport over the western North Pacific.”

Please see lines 383-385 and 389-390 in the revised MS.

Line 351: *nss-sulfate (nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) is a major contributor to the CCN,.....use reference..*

**Response:** Added a reference as suggested. Please see line 409 in the revised MS.

*Line 352: also plays an.....*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see lines 410 in the revised MS.

*Line 371: use “regional radiative balance” instead of “Earth’s radiative forcing”.*

**Response:** Modified as suggested. Please see line 432 in the revised MS.

1 **Long-term (2001-2012) trends of carbonaceous aerosols from remote island in the**  
2 **western North Pacific: an outflow region of Asian pollutants and dust**

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## 20 Abstract

21 The present study reports on long-term trends of carbonaceous aerosols in total  
22 suspended particulate (TSP) samples collected at Chichijima Island in the western North  
23 Pacific during 2001-2012. Seasonal variations of elemental carbon (EC), organic carbon  
24 (OC), and water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) concentrations showed maxima in winter to  
25 spring and minima in summer. These seasonal differences in the concentrations of  
26 carbonaceous aerosols are associated with the outflows of polluted air masses from East Asia,  
27 which are clearly distinguishable from pristine air masses from the central Pacific. The higher  
28 concentrations of carbonaceous aerosols during winter to spring are associated with long-  
29 range atmospheric transport of East Asian continental polluted air masses, whereas lower  
30 concentrations may be due to pristine air masses from the central Pacific in summer. The  
31 annual trends of OC/EC (+0.46% yr<sup>-1</sup>), WSOC (+0.18% yr<sup>-1</sup>) and WSOC/OC (+0.08% yr<sup>-1</sup>)  
32 showed significant (p<0.05) increases during the period of 2001-2012, suggesting that an  
33 enhanced formation of secondary organic aerosols (SOAs) via photochemical oxidation of  
34 anthropogenic and biogenic volatile organic compounds (VOCs) during long-range  
35 atmospheric transport. We found significant increase (+0.33% yr<sup>-1</sup>) in nss-K<sup>+</sup>/EC ratios,  
36 demonstrating that biomass-burning-derived carbonaceous aerosols are increased, while  
37 fossil fuel-derived aerosols are decreased over the western North Pacific. Further, secondary  
38 biogenic emissions are also important over the western North Pacific as inferred from a  
39 significant increase (+0.14% yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the concentrations of methanesulfonate (MSA<sup>-</sup>, a tracer  
40 for biogenic source). This point is further supported by a moderate correlation (r=0.40)  
41 between WSOC and MSA<sup>-</sup>. We also found significant increase in OC/TC (total carbon) and  
42 WSOC/TC ratios, suggesting that the contribution of SOA to carbonaceous aerosols has  
43 significantly increased over the western North Pacific via long-range atmospheric transport  
44 from East Asia.

45

46 **Keywords:** Carbonaceous aerosols, long-term trends, the western North Pacific, East Asia,  
47 biomass burning, biogenic emissions, long-range atmospheric transport, photochemical  
48 oxidation.

49

50

## 51 1. Introduction

52 Particulate air pollution is one of the most important environmental issues due to its  
53 severe impact on visibility and air quality, and has been a great issue over East Asia,  
54 particularly in China (Zhang and Cao, 2015; Cui et al., 2015). On the other hand, its invisible  
55 impacts on not only climate but also public health may be more severe and intricate (Pöschl,  
56 2005; Menon et al., 2002). Carbonaceous aerosols are ubiquitous in the Earth's atmosphere  
57 and hence potentially cause harmful effect on human health (Bond et al., 2013; Kanakidou et  
58 al., 2005; Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008; Fatima et al., 2012; Chung and Seinfeld, 2002).  
59 They are traditionally divided into two fractions: organic carbon (OC), which contains less  
60 volatile and more reflective carbonaceous species, while elemental carbon (EC; alternatively  
61 referred as black carbon, BC) encompasses the most refractory and most light absorbing  
62 species (Pöschl, 2005). However, the role of OC on cooling or warming has been a matter of  
63 debate (Chung et al., 2012; Cazorla et al., 2013) because some class of OC (so called brown  
64 carbon) may absorb sunlight (Feng et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2015; Laskin et al., 2015; Bahadur  
65 et al., 2012). In the ambient atmosphere, however, these two fractions (EC and OC) are  
66 mixed and consequently complicate the estimation of net radiative forcing (Jacobson, 2001).  
67 Therefore, studying about carbonaceous aerosols and their sources are essential to understand  
68 how the different sources of carbonaceous particles may influence the radiative balance on a  
69 regional and global scale.

70 The major sources of carbonaceous aerosol are fossil fuel and biomass burning in  
71 addition to the atmospheric oxidation of anthropogenic and biogenic volatile organic  
72 compounds (VOCs) (Chung et al., 2012; Szidat et al., 2006). The global emission of organic  
73 aerosols (OA) from biomass and fossil fuel sources has been estimated at 45-80 and 10-30  
74 Tg/yr, respectively (Scholes and Andreae, 2000). Due to the presence of polar functional  
75 groups, particularly carboxylic acids, many organic compounds in OA are water-soluble  
76 (Boreddy et al., 2016) and hence aid in particles acting as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN)  
77 (Novakov and Penner, 1993; Matsumoto et al., 1997; Asa-Awuku et al., 2009). According to  
78 the recent report of the intergovernmental panel on climate change (IPCC 2013), the radiative  
79 forcing of BC and OA associated with fossil fuel and biofuel combustions is in the range of  
80 +0.05 to +0.8 (mean: +0.4)  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  and -0.4 to -0.1 (-0.12)  $\text{W m}^{-2}$ , respectively. It is +0.0 (-0.2  
81 to +0.2)  $\text{W m}^{-2}$  as a result of their change offset when BC and OA are emitted by biomass  
82 burning (Boucher et al., 2013). Therefore, carbonaceous aerosols have a net warming effect  
83 on the climate as per an IPCC 2013 report. However, there is still large uncertainties exist in

84 **quantification of radiative impacts for carbonaceous aerosols**, particularly with regard to OA  
85 (Reddy and Boucher, 2004).

86 The atmosphere over East Asia is becoming **worse** due to not only the dense  
87 population, but also rapid urbanization/industrialization (Fu et al., 2012; Cao et al., 2007). **On**  
88 **a global scale**, China has the largest carbonaceous aerosol emissions from combustion with  
89 contributions about 24% and 30% for OC and BC, respectively (Bond et al., 2004). Recently,  
90 Wang et al. (2016) suggested that coal combustions and vehicular emissions are the  
91 dominated sources of carbonaceous aerosols in China (Kirillova et al., 2014). Using the  
92 emission **Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature** (MEGAN) combined with  
93 the **MOdel of HYdrocarbon Emissions from the CANopy** (MOHYCAN) model, Stavrakou et  
94 al. (2014) reported an increased emission of biogenic isoprene over Asia ( $0.16\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) with  
95 the more pronounced trend over China ( $0.52\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) during 1979-2012. Similarly, Zhang et al.  
96 (2016) **reported an increased** biogenic isoprene emission **(from 132000 to 175000t  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ )** in  
97 northern China during 1982-2010. In contrast,  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions over China have been declining  
98 after 2006 because of the wide usage of flue-gas desulfurization (FGD) equipment in power  
99 plants (Lu et al., 2010; Lu et al., 2011). All these East Asian pollutants along with soil dust  
100 are transported to the North Pacific via long-range atmospheric transport by westerly winds  
101 and perturb the remote marine background conditions and the ocean biogeochemistry by  
102 heterogeneous reactions (Boreddy et al., 2015; Matsumoto et al., 2004). In addition to East  
103 Asian pollutants, western North Pacific also receives biomass burning emissions from  
104 Southeast Asia (Tsay et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2013)

105 **To better understand the long-range transport of Asian pollutants and their**  
106 **atmospheric processing over the western North Pacific, we continuously collect total**  
107 **suspended particulate (TSP) samples since 1990 at Chichijima Island.** (Mochida et al., 2003;  
108 Kawamura et al., 2003; Boreddy and Kawamura, 2016). Chichijima is a remote marine island  
109 in the western North Pacific, which is located in the outflow region of East Asian pollutants  
110 and dust during the westerly wind season and in the pristine air masses under the wind regime  
111 of easterlies. This island is about 1000 km south of Tokyo, Japan and 2000 km from the East  
112 Asian countries (China) as shown in Figure 1. Therefore, the observation at Chichijima Island  
113 is useful for studying the long-range transport of East Asian pollutants and their  
114 heterogeneous chemistry over the western North Pacific (Boreddy et al., 2014; Verma et al.,  
115 2015; Chen et al., 2013). In this study, we discuss the long-term trends in the concentrations  
116 of carbonaceous aerosols (EC, OC, and **water-soluble organic carbon** (WSOC)) and their  
117 ratios during 2001-2012 in addition to seasonal variations. The role of photochemical

118 oxidation of anthropogenic and biogenic VOCs on OC and WSOC and their relations to the  
119 CCN is also discussed.

120

## 121 **2. Instrumentation and data analyses**

### 122 **2.1. Sampling site and aerosol collection**

123 Figure 1 shows the location of the sampling site and its adjacent Asian countries in  
124 the western North Pacific. TSP samples were collected at the Satellite Tracking Centre of the  
125 Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA, elevation: 254 m) in Chichijima Island  
126 (27°04'N; 142°13'E) on a weekly basis (Chen et al., 2013; Boreddy and Kawamura, 2015).  
127 Aerosol samples are collected on pre-combusted (450° C for 3-5 h) quartz filter (20 × 25 cm,  
128 Pallflex 2500QAT-UP) using a high volume air sampler (HVS) with a flow rate of 1 m<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>  
129 <sup>1</sup>. The HVS was installed at a height of 5 m above the ground level. The filters were placed in  
130 a pre-baked (450°C for 6 h) glass jar (150 mL) with a Teflon-lined screw cap before sample  
131 collection. After aerosol collection, the filters were recovered into the glass jar, transported to  
132 the laboratory in Hokkaido University, Sapporo, and stored in a freezer room at -20 °C prior  
133 to analysis. A total of 545 aerosol samples and about 56 field blank samples were used for the  
134 analysis of carbonaceous components during 2001-2012.

### 135 **2.2. Analyses of carbonaceous aerosols**

136 Concentrations of OC and EC were determined using a Sunset Laboratory carbon  
137 analyzer following the IMPROVE (Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual  
138 Environments) thermal/optical evolution protocol (Wang et al., 2005), assuming carbonate  
139 carbon (CC) in the aerosol samples to be insignificant (Chow and Watson, 2002). Previous  
140 studies have also shown that carbonate, particularly calcium carbonate, levels are low or  
141 negligible in most ambient samples, which are analyzed by IMPROVE protocol (Wang et al.,  
142 2005; Clarke and Karani, 1992; Chow et al., 2001). A filter cut of 1.54 cm<sup>2</sup> of each filter was  
143 placed in a quartz tube inside the thermal desorption chamber of the analyzer and then  
144 stepwise heating was applied. Helium (He) gas is applied in the first ramp and is switched to  
145 mixture of He/O<sub>2</sub> in the second ramp. The evolved CO<sub>2</sub> during the oxidation at each  
146 temperature step was measured by non dispersive infrared (NDIR) detector system. The  
147 calculated detection limits of OC and EC were 0.05 and 0.02 µgC m<sup>-3</sup>, respectively. The sum  
148 of OC and EC was considered to as total carbon (TC) in this study.

149 To determine WSOC, a punch of 20 mm in diameter of each filter was extracted with  
150 20 mL organic-free ultra pure water (>18.2 MΩ cm, Sartorius arium 611 UV) and  
151 ultrasonicated for 30 min. These extracts were passed through a disk filter (Millex-GV, 0.22

152  $\mu\text{m}$  pore size, Millipore) to remove the filter debris and insoluble particles and analyzed using  
153 a total organic carbon (TOC) analyzer (Shimadzu, TOC-Vcsh) equipped with a catalytic  
154 oxidation column and non-dispersive infrared detector (Miyazaki et al., 2011).

155 Concentrations of water-soluble methanesulfonate ( $\text{MSA}^-$ ), non sea-salt sulfate (nss-  
156  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) and non sea-salt potassium (nss- $\text{K}^+$ ) were taken from the study of Boreddy and  
157 Kawamura (2015), in order to support the inferences related to carbonaceous species over the  
158 western North Pacific, which were determined using ion chromatography (761 Compact IC,  
159 Metrohm, Switzerland).

160 The analytical errors in the replicate analyses were less than 10% for OC, EC and  
161 WSOC in this study. The concentrations of carbonaceous aerosols reported in this study have  
162 been corrected for field blanks. The levels of blanks are less than 5% for all the parameters in  
163 the real samples.

### 164 **2.3. Statistical analyses**

165 Two statistical approaches were used to better conduct the trend analyses in time  
166 series of WSOC, EC, and OC and their ratios during 2001-2012. First, the tendency (linear  
167 trend) equation is used for each time series (Draper and Smith, 1966). Second, all trends are  
168 assessed using the Mann-Kendall non-parametric test (Mann, 1945; Kendall, 1975), which is  
169 completely independent of the first approach. More detailed information about these  
170 statistical analyses is described in supporting information (SI).

171

## 172 **3. Results and discussion**

### 173 **3.1 Air mass back trajectories and general meteorology**

174 To better understand the influence of heterogeneity in air masses to carbonaceous  
175 aerosols, we computed daily 7-day isentropic air mass back trajectories at an altitude of 500  
176 m for each month using the hybrid single particle Lagrangian-integrated trajectory (HYPLIT)  
177 model (Draxler and Rolph, 2013) during 2001-2012 as shown in Figure 2. We also  
178 investigated the MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) derived fire  
179 count data along with the back trajectories to understand the intensity of biomass burning  
180 over South and Southeast Asia. From Figure 2, it is obvious that from winter (December-  
181 February) to spring (March-May) the air masses are stronger to transport continental air  
182 pollutants and dusts from East Asia to the sampling site in the Pacific by long-range  
183 atmospheric transport. The continental air masses are absent in summer (June to August),  
184 mostly come from the central Pacific and carry pristine air masses to the observation site,

185 whereas in autumn (September-November) the air mass pattern shifts from southeasterly to  
186 northwesterly and become stronger towards winter.

187 Figure S1 shows the temporal variations of meteorological parameters such as air  
188 temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), relative humidity (%), wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), and precipitation (mm) at  
189 Chichijima Island during the study period of 2001-2012. All the meteorological parameters  
190 were downloaded from the Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA). There is a clear seasonal  
191 variation in the levels of temperature, relative humidity, and precipitation with summer  
192 maxima and winter minima. Wind speeds were higher in winter to spring and lower in  
193 summer.

194

### 195 3.2 Monthly/seasonal variations

196 Figure 3 (a-f) presents the monthly/seasonal variations in the concentrations of EC,  
197 OC, WSOC and their ratios at Chichijima Island in the western North Pacific during 2001-  
198 2012. The corresponding statistical data were reported in Table 1. All measured species  
199 clearly showed winter-to-spring maxima (highest concentration was in March) and summer  
200 minima (lowest in July) and then increase towards autumn. The seasonal pattern is found  
201 consistent with the typical seasonal pattern in ambient carbonaceous aerosols over China  
202 (Zhang et al., 2008; Cao et al., 2006), indicating a common source for these components,  
203 which are long-range transported to the western North Pacific. This, of course, can also be  
204 influenced by seasonal meteorology and synoptic wind circulation over the western North  
205 Pacific as discussed in section 3.1.

206 Relatively high monthly average concentrations up to 0.28, 1.13 and  $0.59 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  were  
207 observed for EC, OC, and WSOC in March. In contrast, their monthly averages are lower in  
208 summer or early autumn months (July or September) with the concentrations of 0.04, 0.58,  
209 and  $0.20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , respectively (Table 1). It is well documented that in summer, a maritime  
210 high-pressure wind dominated over the western North Pacific in which the air masses are  
211 pristine and less influenced by the continental outflow from East Asia (Figure 2). This  
212 observation is consistent with the fact that concentrations of anthropogenic  $\text{nss-SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  
213  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and  $\text{nss-K}^+$  showed similar seasonal variations with winter and/or spring maxima and  
214 summer minima (Boreddy and Kawamura, 2015). On the other hand, continental air masses  
215 blow from the Asian continent in winter and spring; therefore, the maritime background  
216 condition of western North Pacific is often influenced by the continental outflow via long-  
217 range atmospheric transport (Duce et al., 1980). Very low concentrations of EC in summer,  
218 whose abundances were up to seven times lower than those in the continental outflow,

219 suggested negligible contribution of local anthropogenic emissions as well as long-range  
220 influences over the sampling site. These results are consistent with previous studies, which  
221 reported that several times lower concentrations of organic compounds in summer compared  
222 to winter/spring over the same observation site (Kawamura et al., 2003; Mochida et al.,  
223 2003). Therefore, it is reasonable to believe that the sources of carbonaceous aerosols were  
224 transported from the adjacent Asian countries to the western North Pacific via long-range  
225 atmospheric transport.

226 As described earlier, EC is primary particle and predominantly comes from biomass  
227 and fossil fuel combustion sources. On the contrary, OC is of either primary origin or  
228 secondary formation via gas-to-particle conversion in the atmosphere. The precursors of  
229 secondary OC may also come from biogenic sources in addition to fossil fuel and biomass  
230 burning emissions. The OC/EC ratios often used to distinguish the relative contribution of  
231 primary vs. secondary sources as well as biomass vs. fossil fuel burning sources (Turpin and  
232 Huntzicker, 1995; Castro et al., 1999; Rastogi et al., 2016). Atmospheric aerosols emitted  
233 from fossil fuel combustion are characterized by lower OC/EC ratios (<2.0) whereas higher  
234 OC/EC ratios (>5.0) are characteristic of biomass burning aerosols. The OC/EC ratios > 2.0  
235 have been used to point out the presence of secondary organic aerosols (SOA) (Cao et al.,  
236 2003; Chow et al., 1996; Kunwar and Kawamura, 2014). Table 2 summarizes OC/EC ratios  
237 reported for various sources of aerosol particles. Monthly mean OC/EC ratios in this study  
238 are greater than 2.0 for all months, suggesting the dominance of SOA in carbonaceous  
239 aerosol over the western North Pacific. The seasonal variation of OC/EC mass ratios was  
240 found maximum in summer (~21 to 33) and minimum in winter-to-spring (3.9 to 7.7). The  
241 extremely high OC/EC ratios in summer indicate the secondary formation of OC via  
242 oxidation processes, while low OC/EC ratios in winter-to-spring suggests that both biomass  
243 burning and fossil fuel combustion are important sources for carbonaceous aerosols over the  
244 western North Pacific.

245 It is well documented that  $\text{nss-K}^+$  and EC are tracers for biomass and fossil fuel  
246 burning emissions, respectively. Therefore,  $\text{nss-K}^+/\text{EC}$  ratios were widely used to better  
247 identify major sources of carbonaceous aerosols (Wang et al., 2005; Rastogi et al., 2016;  
248 Srinivas and Sarin, 2014; Ram and Sarin, 2011). The higher  $\text{nss-K}^+/\text{EC}$  ratios indicate the  
249 dominance of biomass burning emissions, whereas lower ratios suggest the prevalence of  
250 fossil fuel burning emissions. In this study, higher  $\text{nss-K}^+/\text{EC}$  mass ratios were observed in  
251 midsummer (July) to early autumn (September) (Figure 3e), suggesting an influence of  
252 biomass burning emissions from southeast Asian countries via long-range atmospheric

253 transport over the western North Pacific. This point is consistent with the air mass back  
254 trajectory analysis and MODIS-fire count data during summer months (Figure 2), which  
255 clearly show that air masses are occasionally coming from Southeast Asia, including  
256 Indonesia, Malaysia and New Guinea etc., where biomass burning is a common phenomena  
257 during summer to early autumn. Biomass burning products were transported to the western  
258 North Pacific (Figure 2). In this context, Verma et al. (2015) reported significant  
259 concentrations of levoglucosan during summer in Chichijima (in the absence of East Asian  
260 outflows), which were attributed to the occasional transport of biomass burning influenced air  
261 masses from southeast Asia, as inferred from the air mass trajectories and fire spot data  
262 during 2001-2013. Therefore, carbonaceous aerosols over Chichijima strictly follow the  
263 seasonal wind patterns in the western North Pacific.

264 Previous studies have shown that SOA is largely composed of oxygenated compounds  
265 that are highly water-soluble (Kanakidou et al., 2005; Kondo et al., 2007 and references  
266 therein). Thus, measurements of WSOC have been used to estimate the SOA in ambient  
267 aerosols (Weber et al., 2007; Snyder et al., 2009; Sudheer et al., 2015; Decesari et al., 2001;  
268 Docherty et al., 2008). Because major fraction of biomass burning products is highly water-  
269 soluble (Sannigrahi et al., 2006; Saarikoski et al., 2008), WSOC/OC ratio has been used as an  
270 unique tracer to better understand the photochemical activity and/or aging of aerosols and to  
271 discuss SOA formation mechanism in the atmosphere during long-range transport (Miyazaki  
272 et al., 2007; Ram et al., 2010b; Ram and Sarin, 2011; Kondo et al., 2007; Weber et al., 2007;  
273 Gilardoni et al., 2016; Boreddy et al., 2017). The WSOC/OC ratios exceeding 0.4 have been  
274 used to indicate the significant contribution of SOA (Ram et al., 2010a) and aged aerosols.  
275 The WSOC/OC ratios ranged from 0.06 to 0.19 in diesel particles (Cheung et al., 2009) and  
276 0.27 for vehicular emissions (Saarikoski et al., 2008). In this study, monthly mean  
277 WSOC/OC ratios are >4.0 for all months except for September, indicating a significant  
278 contribution from SOA over the western North Pacific. The seasonal variation of WSOC/OC  
279 showed higher values (monthly mean: 0.44 to 0.62) during winter-spring months (Figure 3f),  
280 implying that the SOA formation is enhanced due to increased photochemical activity and/or  
281 aging of East Asian polluted aerosols during long-range atmospheric transport. The high  
282 WSOC/OC ratios are traditionally attributed to the atmospheric oxidation of various VOCs in  
283 the presence of oxidants such as ozone and hydrogen peroxide radicals via gas and/or  
284 aqueous phase reactions in the atmosphere (Miyazaki et al., 2007; Ram and Sarin, 2012).  
285 However, the atmosphere over the western North Pacific is always characterized by high  
286 relative humidity (>80%) and air temperature (~24°C) during the whole year (Figure S1).

287 Therefore, higher WSOC concentrations in winter-to-spring over the western North Pacific  
288 were largely attributed to the aqueous-phase oxidation of anthropogenic and/or biogenic  
289 VOCs (Gilardoni et al., 2016; Youn et al., 2013), which are emitted over East Asia and long-  
290 range transported to the western North Pacific.

291 On the other hand, lower ratios of WSOC/OC in summer may suggest that the  
292 primary emission of OC from the ocean surface via sea-to-air flux because the low speed  
293 easterly winds originated from the central Pacific are dominant in summer over the western  
294 North Pacific (Figure 2). Miyazaki et al. (2010) reported the presence of significant water-  
295 insoluble organic matter in the western North Pacific during summer, which may be produced  
296 by bubble-bursting processes at the ocean surface. Similarly, Ovadnevaite et al. (2011)  
297 reported higher contributions of primary organic matter to marine aerosols over the Northeast  
298 Atlantic. Further, laboratory studies have revealed a high abundance of primary organic  
299 matter in sea-spray aerosols (Facchini et al., 2008; Keene et al., 2007).

300

### 301 3.3 Annual trends

302 Figure 4 shows the annual trends in the concentrations of EC, OC, TC (EC+OC),  
303 WSOC, and WSOC/OC ratios during the period of 2001-2012 over the western North Pacific  
304 (see Figure S2 for annual mean variations). Table 3 summarizes the results of the statistical  
305 analyses. It is seen that all the annual trends of chemical species and WSOC/OC ratios  
306 showed clear seasonal patterns with higher values in winter-spring and lower values in  
307 summer. In contrast, the OC/EC and nss-K<sup>+</sup>/EC ratios showed higher values in summer.

308 As seen from Figure 4a-c, concentrations of EC, OC, and TC during 2001-2012  
309 ranged from 0.001 to 0.36  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (mean: 0.142  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), 0.25 to 1.7  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (0.76  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and  
310 0.28 to 2.01  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (0.90  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), respectively. The annual trend of EC showed a decreasing  
311 order (-0.007%  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ ), while OC and TC trends are continuously increasing (+0.16%  $\text{yr}^{-1}$  and  
312 +0.11%  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ , respectively) from 2001 to 2012 although the trends were not significant  
313 ( $p > 0.05$ ). However, the annual trends of OC/EC and OC/TC ratios increased significantly  
314 ( $p < 0.05$ ; +0.46%  $\text{yr}^{-1}$  and +0.06%  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ ) from 2001 to 2012 (Figure 4d and 4e), suggesting that  
315 the secondary formation of OA and its contribution to carbonaceous aerosols have  
316 continually increased over the western North Pacific. These results further suggest that the  
317 contribution of fossil fuel combustion to carbonaceous aerosols has decreased during the  
318 sampling period. This point is supported by the annual trend of nss-K<sup>+</sup>/EC mass ratios, which  
319 showed a significant increase ( $p < 0.05$ ; +0.33%  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ ) during the sampling period (Figure 4g).  
320 This observation is consistent with the study of Verma et al. (2015), who observed a

321 significant enhancement of levoglucosan (a good biomass burning tracer, e.g., Simoneit,  
322 2002) during 2006-2013 over the sample sampling site. Therefore, all these results  
323 demonstrate that the contributions of biomass burning emissions to carbonaceous aerosols  
324 have increased significantly over the western North Pacific whereas the contributions of  
325 fossil fuel combustion have decreased.

326 The annual trend of WSOC showed a significant increase ( $p < 0.05$ ;  $+0.18\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) from  
327 2001 to 2012 (Figure 4c), implying an important SOA formation over the western North  
328 Pacific because SOA largely consists of water-soluble matter (Weber et al., 2007; Kondo et  
329 al., 2007). Generally, atmospheric aging makes aerosols more water-soluble during long-  
330 range transport (Aggarwal and Kawamura, 2009; Rudich et al., 2007; Robinson et al., 2007;  
331 Jimenez et al., 2009; Kawamura et al., 2010), especially in the remote marine atmosphere  
332 (Kawamura et al., 2003). This point is further supported by an increase ( $+0.08\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) in the  
333 decadal trend of WSOC/OC ratios (Figure 4f). These results may demonstrate that the  
334 formation of WSOC (or OC) over the western North Pacific is significantly linked with  
335 photochemical aging of aerosols and oxidation of various VOCs during long-range  
336 atmospheric transport (Zhang et al., 2007; Decesari et al., 2010). We observed an abrupt  
337 decrease in the WSOC/OC ratios between 2007 and 2008, probably due to the enhanced OC  
338 that may be caused by the primary emissions from the ocean surface. However, it should be  
339 noted that the observed increase in the WSOC/OC ratios does not change the decadal trend  
340 even if those data are deleted. A significant increasing trend of WSOC/TC ( $p < 0.05$ ;  $+0.15\%$   
341  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ ; Table 2) again suggests that formation of SOA and its contributions to carbonaceous  
342 aerosols have significantly increased over the western North Pacific during 2001-2012.

343 To better understand the contributions of photochemical oxidation of biogenic VOCs  
344 to WSOC during long-range atmospheric transport, we showed the annual trend of water-  
345 soluble organic ion such as  $\text{MSA}^-$  (a biogenic tracer; see Figure 4g). In our previous study  
346 (Boreddy and Kawamura, 2015), we reported that  $\text{MSA}^-$  significant correlates with  
347 continental pollutants such as  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $r=0.56$ ),  $\text{nss-K}^+$  (0.52) and  $\text{nss-SO}_4^{2-}$  (0.50) and no  
348 correlation with  $\text{Na}^+$ , suggesting that continentally derived  $\text{MSA}^-$  may be associated with the  
349 terrestrial higher plants and other biogenic sources along with Asian pollutants during the  
350 long-range transport. However, we should not ignore the oceanic biogenic emissions,  
351 especially in the summer period, although it has less abundance compared to continental  
352 biogenic emissions over the western North Pacific. In this study, the annual trend of  $\text{MSA}^-$   
353 showed a significant increase ( $p < 0.05$ ;  $+0.14\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) during 2001-2012, implying that

354 continental transport of biogenic VOCs (BVOCs) over the western North Pacific have  
355 increased significantly during 2001-2012.

356 Zhang et al. (2016) have reported an increase (from 132000 to 175000t yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the  
357 emission of isoprene in northern China during 1982-2010 using an emission model.  
358 Consistently, Stavrou et al. (2014) reported that an increased isoprene emission (+0.52%  
359 yr<sup>-1</sup>) over Asia, especially China during 1979-2012. Based on strong correlations ( $r > 0.90$ )  
360 between isoprene and above-canopy temperature, they suggested that oxidations of biogenic  
361 BVOCs from the terrestrial higher plants are important in Asia (especially in China). Since  
362 Chichijima is an outflow region of East Asia, long-range atmospheric transport of BVOCs  
363 may be possible from terrestrial higher plants in Asia/China to the western North Pacific by  
364 westerly winds, which may significantly contribute to the enhanced trends of OC and WSOC  
365 during 2001-2012. We found significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) increases in the annual trends of  
366 methylglyoxal and pyruvic acid, which are tracers of aqueous-phase oxidation of biogenic  
367 isoprene (Carlton et al., 2009), over the western North Pacific as shown in Figure S3. We also  
368 found a moderate correlation ( $r = 0.40$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) between of MSA<sup>-</sup> and WSOC concentrations  
369 (not shown as a figure). These results demonstrate that increase of WSOC is likely due to the  
370 increased photochemical oxidation of BVOCs during long-range transport over the western  
371 North Pacific in addition to the other emissions such as biomass burning.

372

### 373 3.4 Atmospheric implications

374 It is well known that atmospheric aerosols play a key role in the climate system as  
375 they can act as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and impact cloud formation, thus, radiative  
376 forcing (RF) (IPCC, 2013). The RF of aerosol is estimated based on the aerosol optical depth  
377 (AOD), absorption and scattering coefficients and asymmetry parameters. OC (except for  
378 brown carbon) and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> particles majorly scatter the solar radiation whereas EC particles  
379 strongly absorb the solar radiation in the atmosphere. The single scattering albedo (SSA),  
380 defined as the ratio of scattering to the extinction coefficient of aerosols (Pani et al., 2016), is  
381 an important property for determining the direct RF (Gopal et al., 2017; He et al., 2009). The  
382 SSA is highly sensitive to the nature (scattering and/or absorption) of aerosols in the  
383 atmosphere. Therefore, although OC has certain uncertainty because of light absorbing brown  
384 carbon, the OC/EC ratios can be used to understand the relative contributions of scattering or  
385 absorbing aerosols in the atmosphere (Ram and Sarin, 2015). Further, a good knowledge of  
386 the OC/EC ratios in aerosols (for example, biomass burning) may also help to improve model  
387 representation of the absorption caused by organic compounds constituting the so called

388 brown carbon, which contributes to the aerosol RF (Chung et al., 2012; Saleh et al., 2014;  
389 Kirchstetter and Thatcher, 2012). In this study, atmospheric aging may make OC more  
390 scattering during long-range transport over the western North Pacific. A significant  
391 increasing trend of OC/EC ratios suggests that scattering aerosols are increased significantly  
392 over the western North Pacific. In contrast, absorbing aerosols may be decreased during the  
393 study period. This result may provide an important implication for radiative forcing because  
394 scattering and absorption coefficients are playing crucial role in the radiative forcing  
395 calculations as mentioned above.

396 Novakov and Corrigan (1996) found that pure organic components from biomass  
397 smoke emissions can form cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) without the presence of sulfate  
398 ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) and other inorganic compounds. Roberts et al. (2002) showed that biomass burning  
399 derived organic aerosol does serve as CCN. Further, large loadings of CCN in continental air  
400 masses were observed over the western North Pacific (Matsumoto et al., 1997; Boreddy et al.,  
401 2015). In this study, the enhanced WSOC concentrations and WSOC/OC ratios in continental  
402 air masses suggest an important role of WSOC in CCN activity over the western North  
403 Pacific in addition to other particles such as  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and sea-salts. To better understand the  
404 impact of WSOC on cloud forming potential, we performed regression analysis between  
405 WSOC and CCN concentrations as shown in Figure 5. CCN data were downloaded from the  
406 MODIS satellite over the region ( $140^\circ$ – $145^\circ$  E,  $25^\circ$ – $30^\circ$  N) in the western North Pacific for  
407 the period 2002-2012. The results show a significantly good correlation ( $r=0.69$ ,  $p<0.001$ )  
408 between WSOC and CCN concentrations. This result suggests that, although nss-sulfate is a  
409 major contributor to CCN activity (Mochida et al., 2011) water-soluble organic matter also  
410 plays an important role in CCN formation over the western North Pacific. This point is  
411 consistent with previous studies, which explain the contribution of water-soluble organic  
412 matter to CCN (Matsumoto et al., 1997; Zhao et al., 2016).

413 It should be noted that all these ratios are applicable to organic fractions that are  
414 derived from the bulk measurements only; however, the size of the particle also plays a role  
415 on RF as well as their morphology, chemical composition and mixing state (Jacobson, 2001;  
416 Lohmann and Feichter, 2005; Zhang et al., 2008).

417

#### 418 **4. Conclusion**

419 Based on the long-term (2001-2012) trends of carbonaceous aerosols from Chichijima  
420 Island in the western North Pacific, we conclude that the seasonal variations of carbonaceous  
421 aerosols strictly followed seasonal trends of wind pattern at Chichijima in the western North

422 Pacific. The annual trends of OC and WSOC with significant increases over the western  
423 North Pacific are probably due to the enhanced photochemical oxidation of biomass burning-  
424 and biogenic-derived VOCs during long-range atmospheric transport over the western North  
425 Pacific. This inference is supported by significant increases in the annual trends of OC/EC,  
426 WSOC/OC, OC/TC, WSOC/TC, nss-K<sup>+</sup>/EC mass ratios and MSA<sup>-</sup> concentrations. On the  
427 other hand, a decrease in the concentrations of EC during 2001-2012 suggests that the  
428 contribution of Fossil fuel-derived sources to carbonaceous aerosols may be decreased over  
429 the western North Pacific. Further, a good correlation (r=0.69) between WSOC and CCN  
430 concentrations suggests that not only nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> but also water-soluble organic aerosols play a  
431 role in CCN formation. Therefore, the results from this study have important implications  
432 toward the **regional radiative balance**, especially over the North Pacific.

433

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841

842 **Table 1.** Monthly mean ( $\pm$  standard deviation) values of EC, OC, WSOC concentrations  
 843 and their ratios during 2001-2012 over the western North Pacific.  
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Month	EC ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	OC ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	WSOC ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	OC/EC	WSOC/OC	nss-K <sup>+</sup> /EC
January	0.18 $\pm$ 0.07	0.80 $\pm$ 0.41	0.54 $\pm$ 0.28	4.85 $\pm$ 2.01	0.69 $\pm$ 0.14	0.29 $\pm$ 0.16
February	0.25 $\pm$ 0.07	0.95 $\pm$ 0.36	0.55 $\pm$ 0.17	3.95 $\pm$ 1.31	0.63 $\pm$ 0.22	0.35 $\pm$ 0.39
March	0.28 $\pm$ 0.05	1.13 $\pm$ 0.37	0.59 $\pm$ 0.22	4.11 $\pm$ 1.19	0.56 $\pm$ 0.19	0.22 $\pm$ 0.09
April	0.22 $\pm$ 0.10	0.77 $\pm$ 0.32	0.48 $\pm$ 0.28	3.89 $\pm$ 1.37	0.62 $\pm$ 0.20	0.26 $\pm$ 0.12
May	0.14 $\pm$ 0.08	0.80 $\pm$ 0.31	0.35 $\pm$ 0.19	7.68 $\pm$ 4.11	0.44 $\pm$ 0.19	0.40 $\pm$ 0.27
June	0.08 $\pm$ 0.07	0.74 $\pm$ 0.35	0.30 $\pm$ 0.18	21.1 $\pm$ 30.4	0.44 $\pm$ 0.17	0.54 $\pm$ 0.36
July	0.06 $\pm$ 0.06	0.58 $\pm$ 0.35	0.22 $\pm$ 0.07	19.0 $\pm$ 16.7	0.44 $\pm$ 0.17	0.97 $\pm$ 0.94
August	0.04 $\pm$ 0.03	0.63 $\pm$ 0.27	0.27 $\pm$ 0.16	33.2 $\pm$ 52.5	0.46 $\pm$ 0.23	0.70 $\pm$ 0.69
September	0.05 $\pm$ 0.04	0.60 $\pm$ 0.26	0.20 $\pm$ 0.10	22.3 $\pm$ 17.3	0.38 $\pm$ 0.19	1.02 $\pm$ 0.82
October	0.08 $\pm$ 0.04	0.62 $\pm$ 0.18	0.27 $\pm$ 0.12	12.2 $\pm$ 9.07	0.45 $\pm$ 0.19	0.50 $\pm$ 0.43
November	0.15 $\pm$ 0.10	0.75 $\pm$ 0.39	0.42 $\pm$ 0.20	6.68 $\pm$ 4.89	0.61 $\pm$ 0.20	0.44 $\pm$ 0.26
December	0.18 $\pm$ 0.09	0.73 $\pm$ 0.29	0.39 $\pm$ 0.08	4.63 $\pm$ 1.65	0.59 $\pm$ 0.18	0.21 $\pm$ 0.12

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**Table 2.** Literature values of OC/EC ratios for various sources of aerosol.

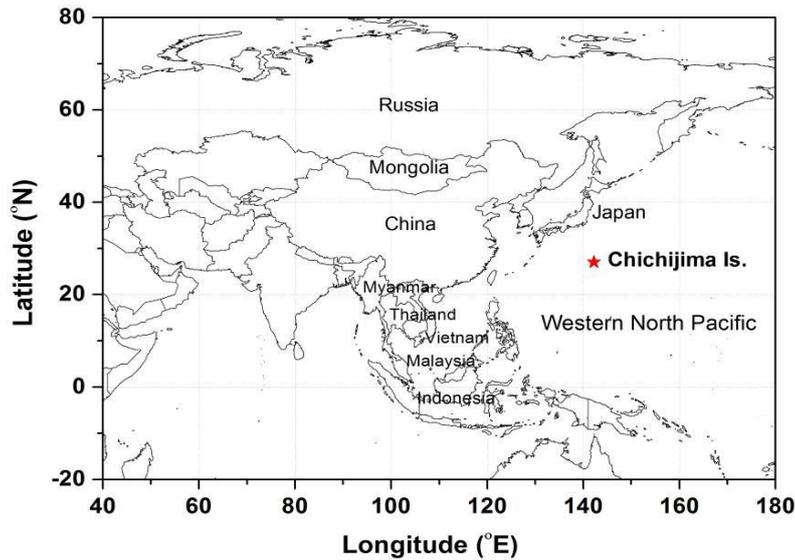
Source of aerosol	OC/EC ratio	References
Fossil fuel combustion	4.0, <u>4.1</u> , 1.1	Koch (2001), <u>Cao et al. (2005)</u> , <i>Watson et al. (2001)</i>
Coal combustion	2.7, 12.0	<i>Watson et al. (2001)</i> , Cao et al. (2005)
Biomass burning	9.0, <u>60.3</u> , 5-8	Cachier et al. (1989), <u>Cao et al. (2005)</u> , <i>Andreae and Merlet (2001)</i>
Forest fire	~16.0	<i>Watson et al. (2001)</i>
Diesel truck plume	0.06, <u>0.8</u> , <u>0.3</u>	Dallmann et al. (2014), <i>Na et al. (2004)</i> , <u>Turpin and Huntzicker (1995)</u>
Gasoline vehicle	0.02, 2.2	Dallmann et al. (2014), <i>Na et al. (2004)</i>
Secondary organic carbon	3.3	Saarikoski et al. (2008)
Long-range transported/aged	12.0	Saarikoski et al. (2008)
Traffic	0.7	Saarikoski et al. (2008)
Cooking emissions	4.3-7.7	See and Balasubramanian (2008)

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853 **Table 3.** Statistical report on the annual trends in carbonaceous aerosols and their ratios  
 854 during 2001-2012 at Chichijima Island in the western North Pacific. ‘\*’ indicates that the  
 855 trends are significant at  $p < 0.05$  level.  
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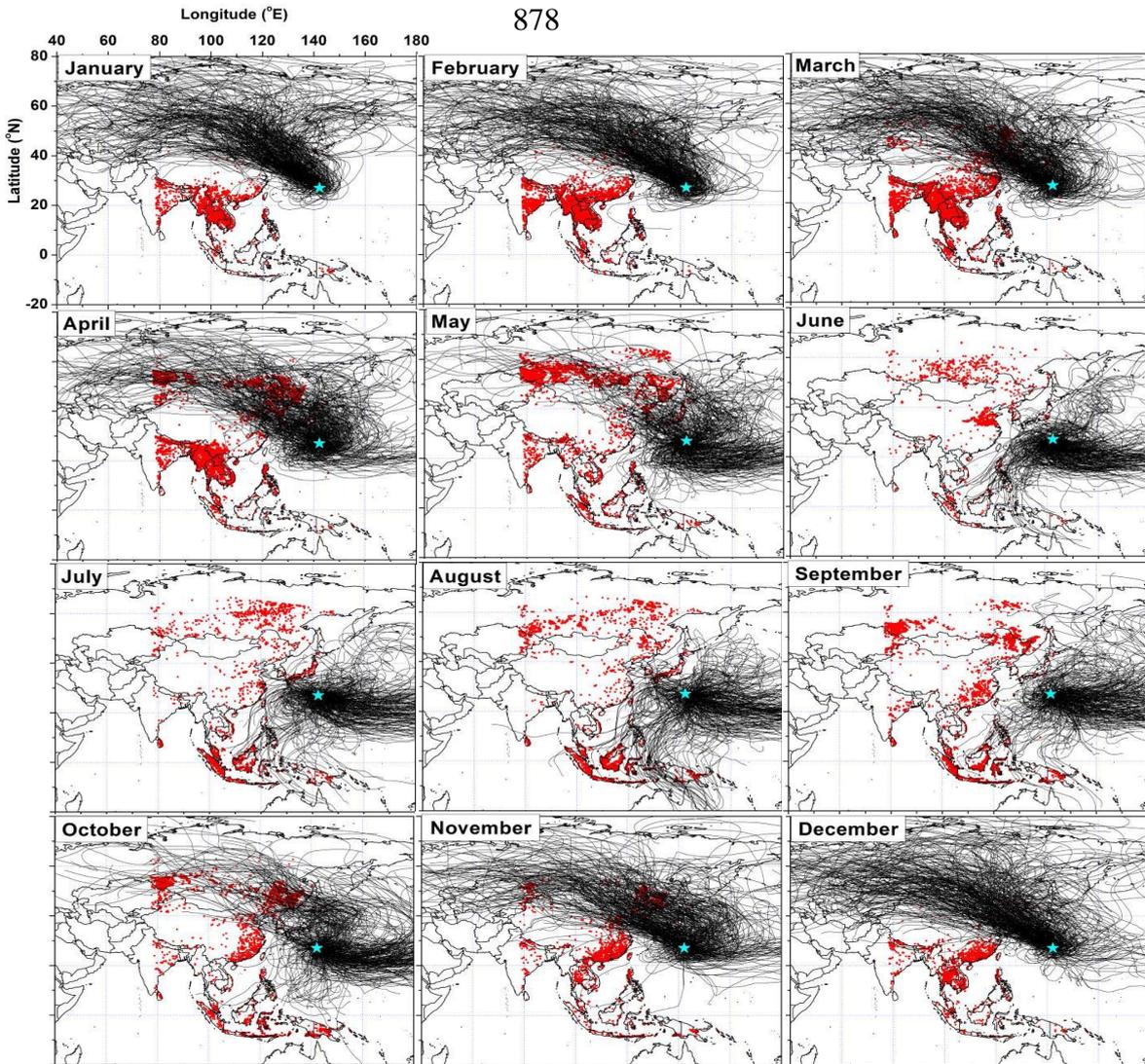
Species	Concentrations ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )				Mann-Kendall non-parametric test		
	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Kendall's tau ( $\tau$ )	$p$ -value	Sen's slope
EC	0.00	0.36	0.14	0.10	-0.06	>0.05	-0.0002
OC	0.26	1.70	0.76	0.36	0.07	>0.05	0.0008
TC	0.28	2.01	0.90	0.43	0.05	>0.05	0.0007
WSOC	0.08	1.30	0.38	0.22	0.09*	<0.05	0.0006
OC/EC	1.91	67	9.74	21.9	0.21*	<0.05	0.0240
WSOC/OC	0.06	0.94	0.53	0.21	0.09*	<0.05	0.0007
OC/TC	0.66	1.00	0.85	0.08	0.21*	<0.05	0.0007
EC/TC	0.00	0.34	0.15	0.08	-0.21	>0.05	-0.0007
WSOC/TC	0.06	0.86	0.44	0.17	0.14*	<0.05	0.0009
MSA <sup>-</sup>	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.08*	<0.05	0.00002
nss-K <sup>+</sup> /EC	0.02	2.97	0.51	0.40	0.09*	<0.05	0.0009

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**Figure 1.** Location of sampling site (indicated by red colored ‘\*’) in the western North Pacific and its adjacent Asian countries.

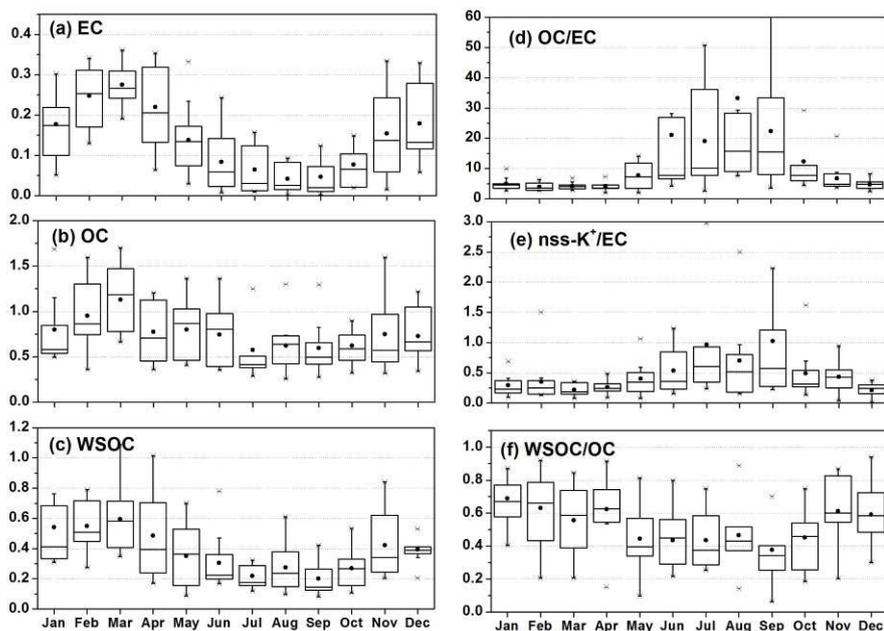
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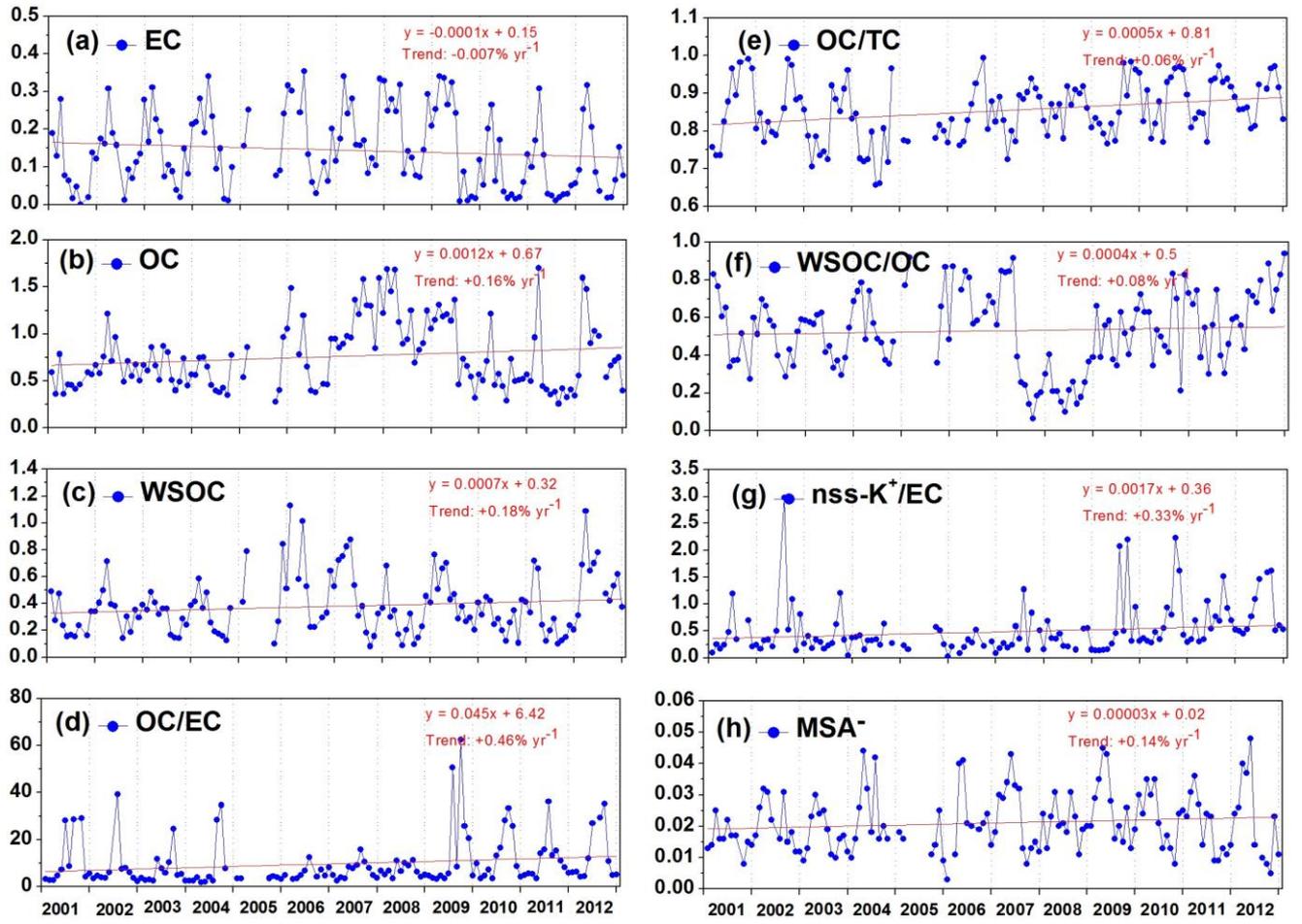
**Figure 2.** 7-day daily air mass back trajectories at 500 m a.g.l. computed using HYPLIT model for each month during 2001-2012 at Chichijima Island in the western North Pacific. The symbol ‘\*’ indicates the sampling site and red dots represent the MODIS inferred fire spots.

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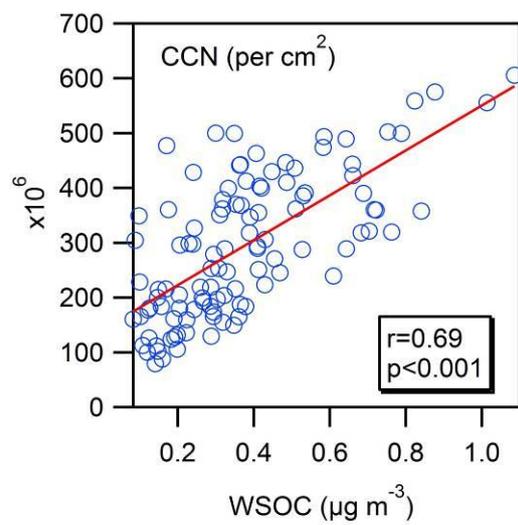


**Figure 3.** Box-whisker plots of monthly variations of carbonaceous aerosol components ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and their ratios at Chichijima Island in the western North Pacific during 2001-2012. The horizontal line and small dot inside the box indicate median and mean, respectively. The vertical hinges represent data points from the lower to the upper quartile (i.e., 25th and 75th percentiles). The whiskers represent data points from the 1<sup>st</sup> to 99<sup>th</sup> percentiles.

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**Figure 4.** Annual trends (time series) in the concentrations ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) of carbonaceous aerosol components as well as water-soluble ionic tracer compounds and their mass ratios during 2001-2012 over the western North Pacific. The liner trend equation ( $y=mx+c$ ) is also shown for the each annual trend.



**Figure 5.** Regression analyses between WSOC and MODIS-derived cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) concentrations over the western North Pacific.

Supporting information for

**Long-term (2001-2012) trends of carbonaceous aerosols from remote island in the western North Pacific: an outflow region of Asian pollutants and dust**

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## 1. Statistical analyses

### 1.1. The linear trend equation

The linear trend equation was used to calculate the trend equation of all chemical species and their ratios using linear regression analysis, as

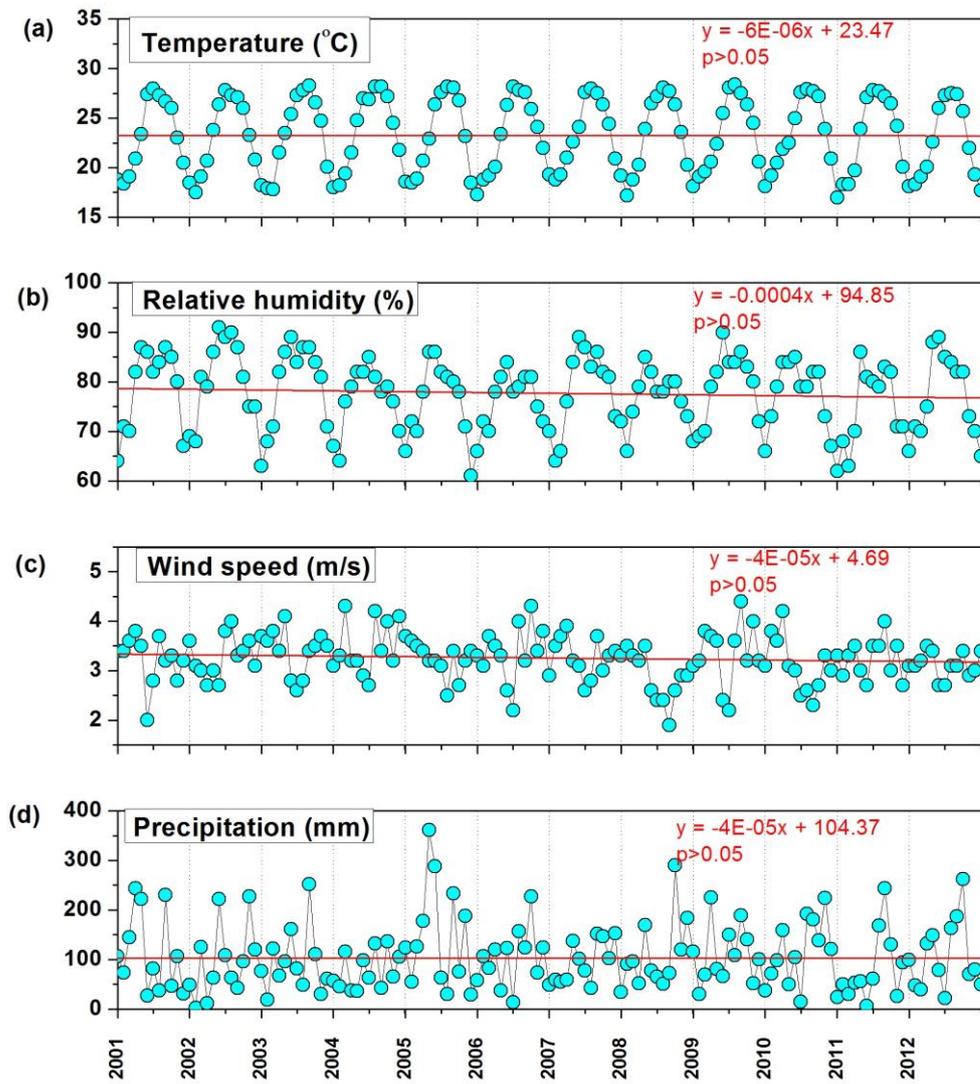
$$y = ax+b \quad (1)$$

where  $y$  is the concentrations in  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,  $a$  is the slope,  $x$  is the time in years, and  $b$  is concentrations at the beginning of the period (intercept).

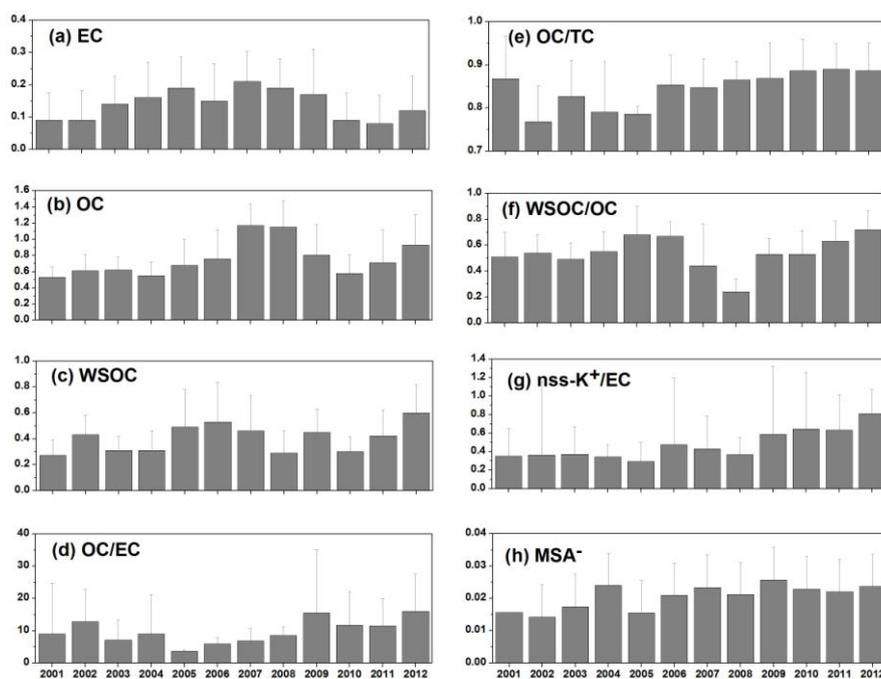
This approach gives results which are simple to interpret; both analytically and graphically on the basis of the shape and parameters of the trend equation. For example, the sign of the concentration trend depends on the value of the slope. In this kind of interpretation when the slope is greater than zero, less than zero, or equal to zero, the sign of the trend is positive (increase), negative (decrease), or there is no trend (no change), respectively.

### 1.2. The Mann-Kendall test

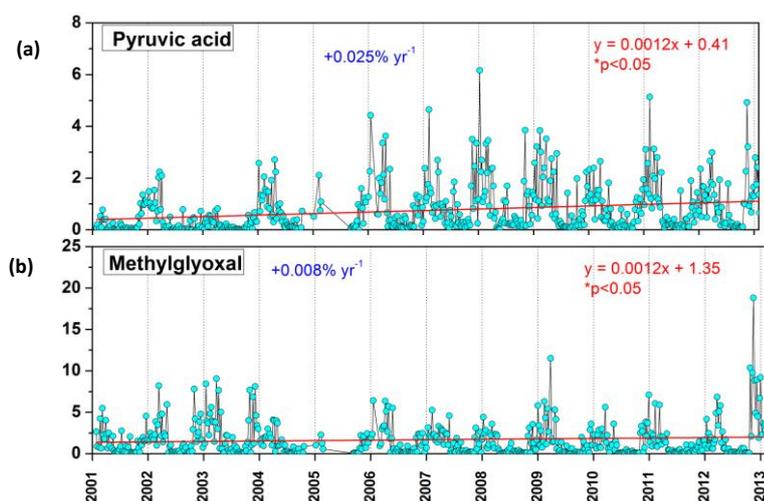
This statistical approach is simple, robust and widely used non-parametric tests to detect the significant trends in time series. According to this approach, two hypotheses were tested: the null hypothesis,  $H_0$ , that there is no trend in the time series; and the alternative hypothesis,  $H_a$ , that there is a significant trend in the series, for a given  $\alpha$  significance level. Probability ( $p$  value) was calculated to determine the level of confidence in the hypothesis. If the  $p$  value is lower than the chosen significance level  $\alpha$  ( $\alpha=5\%$  or  $0.05$ ), the  $H_0$  should be rejected, and  $H_a$  should be accepted (means there is a trend). In case, the  $p$  value is greater than the significance level  $\alpha$ , the  $H_0$  cannot be rejected (there is no trend). In this study, we used XLSTAT software (<http://www.xlstat.com/en/>) for Mann-Kendall test analysis. The absolute value of Kendall  $\tau$  is compared to the standard normal cumulative distribution to define if there is a trend or not at the chosen  $\alpha$  ( $0.05$ ) of significance. A positive and negative value of  $\tau$  indicates an increase and decrease in the trends, respectively.



**Figure S1.** Temporal variations of meteorological parameters such as (a) air temperature (°C), (b) relative humidity (%), (c) wind speed ( $\text{ms}^{-1}$ ), and (d) precipitation (mm) at Chichijima Island during the study period from 2001 to 2012.



**Figure S2.** Annual mean variations ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) of carbonaceous species as well as water-soluble ions and their mass ratios during 2001-2012 over the western North Pacific.



**Figure S3.** Annual trends in the concentrations ( $\text{ng m}^{-3}$ ) of aqueous-phase photooxidations of biogenic isoprene tracer compounds (a) pyruvic acid and (b) methylglyoxal during 2001-2012 over the western North Pacific.