

# Wet precipitation chemistry at a high-altitude site (3,326 m.a.s.l.) in the southeastern Tibetan Plateau

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**Abstract** This paper presents the results of wet precipitation chemistry from September 2009 to August 2010 at a high-altitude forest site in the southeastern Tibetan Plateau (TP). The alkaline wet precipitation, with pH ranging from 6.25 to 9.27, was attributed to the neutralization of dust in the atmosphere. Wet deposition levels of major ions and trace elements were generally comparable with other alpine and remote sites around the world. However, the apparently greater contents/fluxes of trace elements (V, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, and Cd), compared to those in central and southern TP and pristine sites of the world, reflected potential anthropogenic disturbances. The almost equal mole concentrations and perfect linear relationships of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  suggested significant sea-salts sources, and was confirmed by calculating diverse sources. Crust mineral dust was responsible for a minor fraction of the chemical components (less than 15 %) except Al and Fe, while most species (without  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , Al, and Fe) arose mainly from anthropogenic activities. High values of as- $\text{K}^+$  (anthropogenic sources

potassium), as- $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , and as- $\text{NO}_3^-$  observed in winter and spring demonstrated the great effects of biomass burning and fossil fuel combustion in these seasons, which coincided with haze layer outburst in South Asia. Atmospheric circulation exerted significant influences on the chemical components in wet deposition. Marine air masses mainly originating from the Bay of Bengal provided a large number of sea salts to the chemical composition, while trace elements during summer monsoon seasons were greatly affected by industrial emissions from South Asia. The flux of wet deposition was  $1.12 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$  for  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  and  $0.29 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$  for  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ . The total atmospheric deposition of N was estimated to be  $6.41 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$ , implying potential impacts on the alpine ecosystem in this region.

**Keywords** Wet precipitation chemistry · Major ions · Trace elements · Atmospheric N deposition · Southeastern Tibetan Plateau

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## Introduction

Wet deposition in the atmosphere is a crucial removal process for airborne particulate matter (anthropogenic emissions, particle pollutants, and soil dusts) returning to earth's surface. Dissolved solutes in wet precipitation originate from diverse sources including natural sources (soil and mineral dusts, sea salts, volcanoes, and natural forest fires) and anthropogenic sources (fossil fuel burning, industrial activities, agricultural activities, and biomass burning). Moreover, the chemical composition of wet precipitation is influenced by the dynamics of the atmosphere, the atmospheric chemical reactions, and the removal processes in the atmosphere (Galy-Lacaux et al. 2009). Further, various components in wet deposition vary geographically. Wet precipitation chemistry can reveal the state of the atmospheric

environment and the transport of chemical species emitted from various sources (Polkowska et al. 2011). Furthermore, acidic components (like nitrogen) from wet deposition exert complex impacts on natural ecosystems. For example, as a nutrient, nitrogen can enhance plant production in nitrogen-limited forests. However, excess nitrogen deposition can provoke a variety of negative impacts such as leaching of soil nutrients (Aber et al. 1998), eutrophication (Smith et al. 1999), and the reduction of biodiversity in forests (Bobbink et al. 2010). Therefore, wet depositions of the ionic components and trace elements have received a great deal of attention in the past decades.

Human activity has significantly affected the atmospheric environment in Asia. Asia has been estimated to have the largest amount of anthropogenic emissions of atmospheric trace metals (Pacyna and Pacyna 2001) and has suffered from atmospheric contamination of trace elements (Sakata and Asakura 2009; Zhou et al. 2012). Atmospheric brown cloud (ABC) principally consisting of emissions from fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning has been observed over entire South Asia, from the North Indian Ocean toward the southern slope of the Himalaya (Lelieveld et al. 2001). Pollutants from the biomass burning in Southeast Asia have impacted the chemical composition of the background atmosphere in the eastern Tibetan Plateau (TP) (Chan et al. 2006; Engling et al. 2011). The Asian monsoon and westerlies are responsible for dispersion and transport of the anthropogenic pollutants and airborne dusts from South Asia and inner Asia (Cong et al. 2007; Huang et al. 2007; Ming et al. 2008), resulting in potential threats to the ecosystems of continental Asia.

The TP, with extreme high altitude, is sensitive to atmospheric composition changes due to active atmosphere exchange created by monsoonal circulation and the westerlies. In recent years, exotic air pollutants were observed in measurement campaigns over the TP. For example, Cong et al. (2010) studied the trace elements in wet deposition on the central TP and noted that pollutants from South Asia might affect this region through long-range transport. Theoretically, the changed atmospheric chemistry will have considerable influence on the alpine ecosystem because of its vulnerable biotic communities. However, almost no work has been done to examine the probable effects of anthropogenic disturbances via wet deposition on the alpine ecosystem of the TP. Therefore, a comprehensive monitoring of wet deposition in the southeastern TP, where alpine forest is widely distributed, is essential to assess the changes of chemical composition in this specific region and its implications for the high-altitude environment of this biodiversity hotspot.

In this study, wet precipitation chemistry, including the pH, major ions, and elements, has been investigated throughout 1 year at a high-altitude forest site, the Southeastern Tibet Station for Observing Alpine Environment (SET Station).

This work aims to (1) reveal the current wet deposition levels of major ions and elements in this region, (2) estimate the contributions of diverse sources to chemical species, (3) discern the influences of exotic and regional/local sources on the wet precipitation chemistry, and (4) assess the atmospheric nitrogen deposition and its possible effects on the high-altitude ecosystem.

## Methodology

### Monitoring site

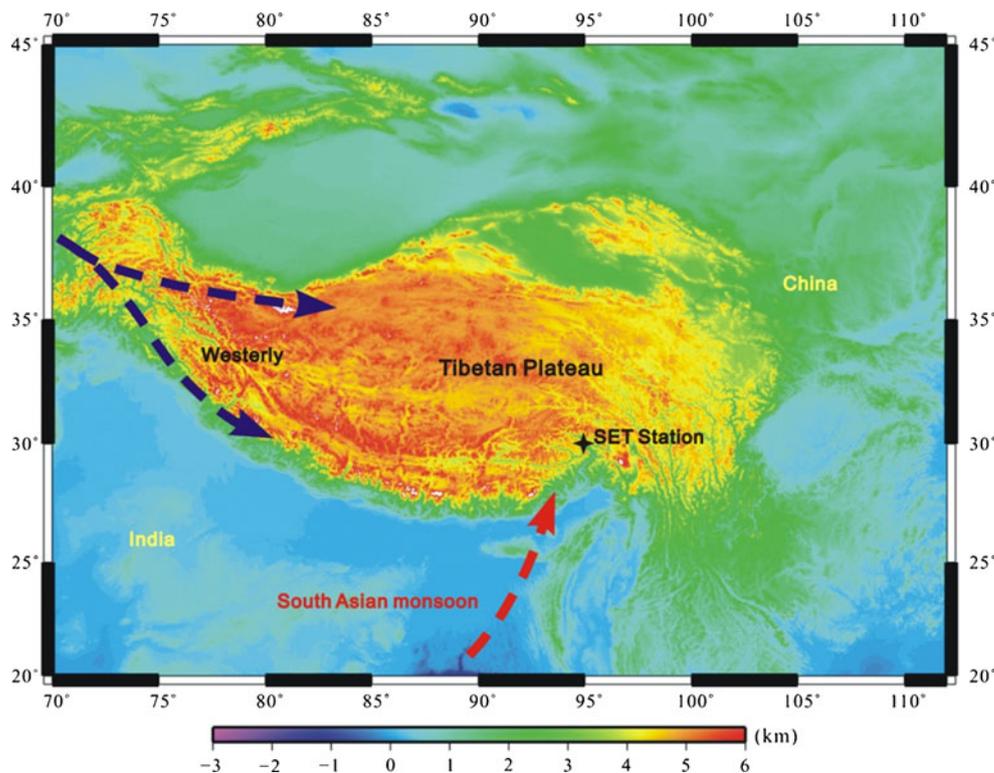
The wet deposition samples were collected at the SET Station, the Chinese Academy of Sciences (94°44'E, 29°46'N, 3,326 m.a.s.l.) (Fig. 1). The observation site of SET Station is flat grassland at the intersection of two rivers in the Lulang Valley, one of the main branches of Yarlung Tsangpo Grand Canyon. This canyon, formed by the Yarlung Tsangpo River (Brahmaputra), serves as a corridor for warm-humid air masses originating in the Indian Ocean to reach the inner part of the TP (Yang et al. 1989). High mountains, glaciers, alpine meadows, forest, and grassland are the main landscapes in this region, representing the mountain–valley geomorphologic features of the southeastern TP. The major human activities around the station are tourism and limited agricultural activities, thus the local emission of air pollution is small.

At SET Station, annual precipitation was 800–1,000 mm. Annual mean temperature was 5.6 °C, with dramatic seasonal differences, e.g., the lowest (−18.2 °C) in winter and the highest (25.2 °C) in summer (Wang et al. 2010). Monthly precipitation amounts at SET Station are presented in Fig. 2. Precipitation was lower in the dry season when the air masses were dominated by westerlies. In the wet season, precipitation was controlled by the South Asian monsoon, which brought abundant precipitation by the prevailing southwest wind from South Asia to the TP. Active interactions between unique geomorphological conditions and strong monsoons have bred diverse biomes and high-altitudinal distribution patterns of vegetation in this region, including the extreme northern limit of tropical rain forests (~29°N) and the highest alpine tree lines (4,400 m a.s.l.) in the world (Luo et al. 2002; Liang et al. 2011).

### Materials and methods

Field samples were collected for each precipitation event at the SET Station. A total of 103 precipitation events were sampled from September 2009 to August 2010, using an inner removable high-density polyethylene (HDPE) plastic bag in a pre-cleaned HDPE bucket, which was placed 1.5 m above the ground. To minimize the possible interference of

**Fig. 1** Location of the SET Station and the dominant atmospheric circulation patterns in this region

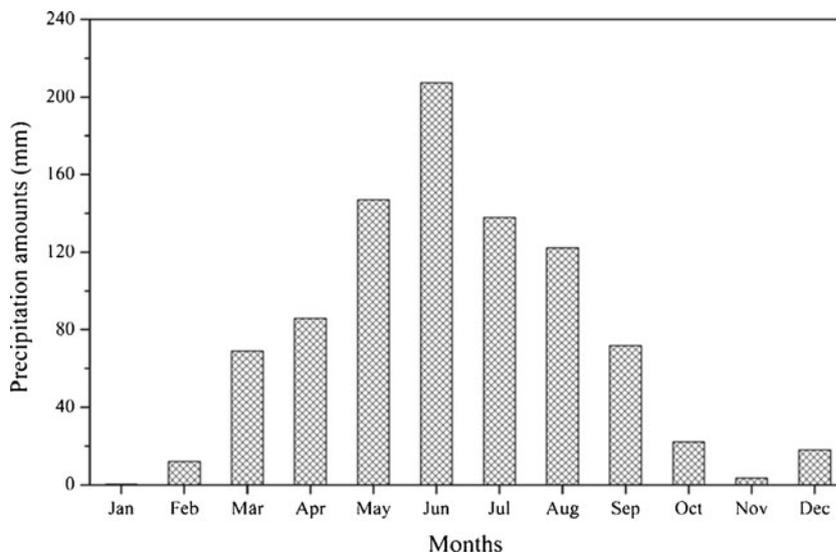


dry deposition, the plastic bag was opened at the beginning of the precipitation event and was collected as quickly as possible at the end of precipitation process. Each sample was transferred into a pre-cleaned HDPE bottle and kept frozen until analysis in the laboratory. Field blanks ( $n=12$ ) were also attained by 50 mL of ultrapure water used to wash the HDPE plastic bag and transferred into cleaned HDPE bottles. Air temperature, humidity, wind speed and direction, and precipitation amounts were also recorded by an automatic weather station (AWS). Total sampled precipitation amount was 728 mm, accounting for 81.2 % of the total

precipitation (896.8 mm) in the investigation period. The pH of rainfall samples was determined by a pH meter (HI98128; Hanna Instruments).

At the Key Laboratory of Tibetan Environment Changes and Land Surface Processes, Chinese Academy of Sciences, samples were filtered through 0.45- $\mu\text{m}$ -pore-size PTFE filters (FHLCO2500; Millipore). Major ions were analyzed using two ion chromatography systems (ICS-2500 and ICS-2000; Dionex, USA) equipped with an electrochemical detector. The detection limits of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  were 2  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ; other ions were 1  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ . After the major ions were

**Fig. 2** Monthly precipitation amounts at the SET Station during the monitoring period



measured, samples were acidified to pH <2 with ultrapure HNO<sub>3</sub>, then measured by inductively coupled plasma–mass spectrometry (ICP–MS; X-7 Thermo Scientific) for the concentrations of 15 elements (Al, Fe, Rb, Sr, Ba, V, Cr, Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, Cs, and Pb). The method detection limits (MDLs), defined as three times the standard deviation of replicate blank measurements, were Al, 0.043 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Fe, 0.351 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Rb, 0.005 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Sr, 0.003 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Ba, 0.008 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; V, 0.015 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Cr, 0.033 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Mn, 0.008 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Co, 0.005 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Ni, 0.018 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Cu, 0.023 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Zn, 0.195 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Cd, 0.001 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; Cs, 0.001 μg L<sup>-1</sup>; and Pb, 0.003 μg L<sup>-1</sup>. The accuracy and precision of trace elements was ascertained based on repeated measurement of the certified trace elements in natural water (Standard Reference Material 1640a) from the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), Maryland, USA. Good agreements between measured and certified values were observed for all measured elements, with the recoveries ranging from 98 % for Co to 103 % for Sr.

#### Data quality

The ionic amounts measured in the field blanks were generally lower than 10 % those in the precipitation samples, while elemental field blanks were typically <15 % of the mean analyzed concentration. Field blank values were deducted from the measured values. For the purpose of quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC), 15 samples outside the range ( $m-3\delta$ ,  $m+3\delta$ ) were excluded with a statistical technique of data points in precipitation chemistry (Safai et al. 2004), where  $m$ =average value and  $\delta$ =standard deviation. The ion balance between anions (Cl<sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and cations (K<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) was also evaluated by regression analysis. The result ( $\Sigma_{\text{anions}} = 0.205 \times \Sigma_{\text{cations}} + 0.214$ ,  $R^2 = 0.557$ ) suggests an acceptable data quality. The value of the slope is 0.205 (indicating the ratio of total anions to total cations), which may reflect the absence of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in precipitation events (Li et al. 2007).

#### Backward air trajectory analysis

Based on the meteorological data of the National Centers for Environmental Prediction's (NCEP) Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS, global, 2006–present), trajectories were used to diagnose the air masses corresponding to the wet precipitation events at the SET Station; the samples were then categorized according to the dominant trajectory pathways. Five-day backward air trajectories were constructed using the HYSPLIT-4 online transport and dispersion model from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) with 500 and 1,000 m (a.g.l.) ending levels ([http://www.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT\\_info.php](http://www.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT_info.php)).

## Results and discussion

### Ionic composition and pH value

The volume-weighted mean (VWM) concentrations and wet deposition fluxes (the VWM concentration multiplied by an annual precipitation amount, 896.8 mm, obtained by the AWS) of ions are shown in Table 1. The VWM concentrations of the cation Ca<sup>2+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, and Mg<sup>2+</sup> were 34.0, 8.91, 6.73, 1.88, and 1.66 μEq/L, and 6.74, 2.62, and 2.33 μEq/L for anion Cl<sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, respectively. They were lower than those reported in the northeastern TP (Tang et al. 2000) and the central TP (Li et al. 2007) (Table 1). Major ions, i.e., Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, showed large variations with ranges of 0.11–151, 0.12–44.18, 0.23–43.98, and 0.37–41.81 μEq/L, respectively. Similar to the results observed by previous studies in the TP (Zhang et al. 2002, 2012a), Ca<sup>2+</sup> was dominant in the chemical composition, with a relative contribution of 78 % in total concentrations of cations. The pH ranged from 6.25 to 9.27, with a mean value of 7.8, implying that the alkalinity of wet precipitation in the southeastern TP largely resulted from the neutralization of carbonate in the troposphere because the contribution of the low CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure to the pH was negligible and the alkaline dust as a major cause to the high pH of precipitation was reported in the TP (Zhang et al. 2002).

As shown in Table 1, despite the fact that their fluxes were similar, the major ion concentrations of wet precipitation at the SET Station were apparently lower than those from other sites over the TP, probably caused by the diluting effects of monsoonal rainfall in the southeastern TP region. Compared to high-altitude precipitation monitored in East Asia (e.g., Mt. Lulin in Taiwan and Mt. Fuji in Japan) (Wai et al. 2008), the SET Station showed lower concentrations and fluxes in ionic constituents, especially for SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, reflecting the difference of chemical compositions in the Asian background atmosphere. It was interesting that in spite of lower values than those in Hawaii, the Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> at the SET Station showed apparently higher concentrations and/or fluxes compared to a high-altitude site in the Rocky Mountains, USA (<http://nadp.sws.uiuc.edu/>), and a remote site located in the central Amazonia rain forest (Pauliquevis et al. 2012). As shown below, this observation was a consequence of sea-salt contribution at the SET Station, though with a background atmosphere characteristic of the Asian continent.

The annual VWM concentrations of sodium (6.73 μEq/L) and chloride (6.74 μEq/L) were almost equivalent, constituting high fractions of the total ionic concentration. The linear relationship between Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> was perfect ( $R^2 = 0.959$ ) (Fig. 3), and the VWM concentration ratio of Cl<sup>-</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup> was 1, very close to the seawater ratio (1.16) observed

**Table 1** The VWM (volume-weighted mean) concentrations ( $\mu\text{Eq/L}$ ) and fluxes ( $\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ) of major ions and pH values in wet precipitation at SET Station and other studied sites

Sites depiction	SET Station		Nam Co Station		Waliguan		Mt. Lulin		Mt. Fuji		Mt. Rocky		Cen. Amazonia		Hawaii	
	SE TP, 3,326 m	7.8	Cen. TP, 4,730 m	6.59	NE TP, 3,180 m	6.38	Taiwan, 2,860 m	5.12	Japan, 3,780 m	4.66	USA, 3,159 m	5.33	Tropic rain forest	4.9	Island in Pacific	4.61
Varieties	VWM	Fluxes	Mean	Fluxes <sup>a</sup>	VWM	Fluxes <sup>b</sup>	VWM	Fluxes <sup>c</sup>	VWM	Fluxes <sup>d</sup>	VWM	Fluxes	VWM	Fluxes <sup>e</sup>	VWM	Fluxes
Cl <sup>-</sup>	6.74	2.15	19.17	2.28	6.1	0.84	7.2	4.85	18.9	17.42	1.13	0.5	5.2	4.66 <sup>d</sup>	19.46	19.19
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	2.33	1.3	10.37	2.15	8.3	2	10.8	12.72	8.6	13.86	8.06	6.57	4.5	8.47	0.97	1.64
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	2.62	1.13	15.5	2.49	24	4.47	15.7	14.32	26.1	32.59	6.42	4.08	3.4	4.13	24.98	33.36
Na <sup>+</sup>	6.73	1.39	15.44	1.19	8.7	0.78	2.9	1.27	18.5	11.06	1.26	0.38	3.8	2.21	15.27	9.74
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	8.91	1.44	18.13	1.1	45.5	3.18	12.3	4.21	11.6	5.44	6.65	1.48	3.7	1.69	0.55	0.31
K <sup>+</sup>	1.88	0.66	14.49	1.9	3.8	0.58	1.4	1.04	9.8	9.96	0.61	0.32	1.5	1.48	0.51	0.56
Mg <sup>2+</sup>	1.66	0.18	7.43	0.3	12.1	0.57	1.7	0.39	1.5	0.47	2.23	0.38	1.93	0.59	3.13	1.05
Ca <sup>2+</sup>	34.04	6.12	65.58	4.4	34	2.64	3.9	1.48	6.4	3.33	23.45	6.16	1.81	0.92	1.5	0.94

References for various sites are SET Station (present work); Nam Co Station (Li et al. 2007); Waliguan (Tang et al. 2000); Mt. Lulin and Mt. Fuji (Wai et al. 2008); Mt. Rocky and Hawaii (<http://nadp.sws.uiuc.edu/>); Cen. Amazonia (Pauliquevis et al. 2012)

<sup>a</sup> The annual precipitation amount was 335 mm investigated during 2005–2009 (Zhang et al. 2012a)

<sup>b</sup> The annual precipitation amount was 388 mm investigated in 1997 (Tang et al. 2000)

<sup>c</sup> The annual precipitation amount was 1,899.1 mm estimated by weekly samples in 2003–2005 (Wai et al. 2008)

<sup>d</sup> The annual precipitation amount was regarded as 2,600 mm according to observing precipitations above 1,500 m in Mt. Fuji (Ohsawa 1984)

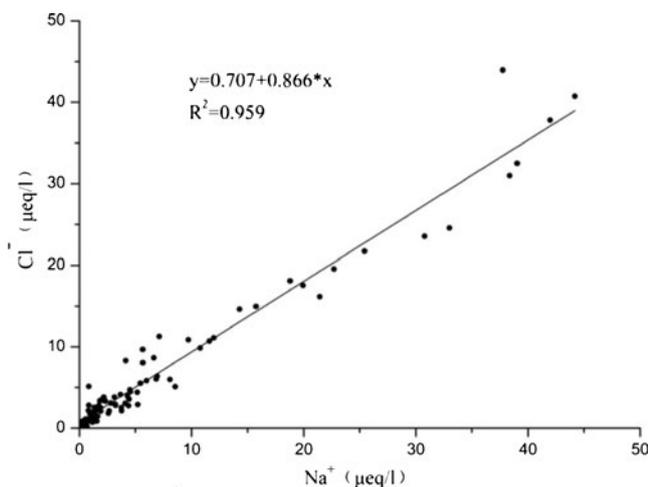
<sup>e</sup> The annual precipitation amount was 2,538 mm reported in Pauliquevis et al. (2012)

in the central South Indian Ocean (Keene et al. 1986). These all supported the concept that the precipitation chemistry in the southeastern TP region was influenced by the air masses coming with sea-salt aerosols. In the southern slope of Mt. Everest, Nepal, high correlations of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na}^+$  as well as their similar ratios to sea salts were also measured in fresh snow due to the strong marine contribution (Valsecchi et al. 1999; Marinoni et al. 2001).

### Wet deposition of elements

The VWM concentrations of the dissolved element Al, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Rb, Sr, Cd, Cs, Ba, and Pb were 0.46, 0.43, 0.06, 0.58, 1.78, 0.02, 0.14, 0.42, 10.24, 0.14, 1.17, 0.005, 0.011, 0.682, and 0.036 ng/g, respectively. The measured elements were compared with observing sites in the western, central, and southern areas of the TP (Table 2) (Kang et al. 2007; Aizen et al. 2009; Cong et al. 2010). As expected, the crust elements Al and Fe from the SET Station wet depositions were low because the land surface was usually well vegetated in this region. In contrast, a higher content of anthropogenic elements (V, Cr, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, and Pb) compared to snow sampled in the southern TP in the central Himalayas (Kang et al. 2007) probably indicates the extra contribution of trace elements from exotic air masses coming with pollutants.

In order to assess the current wet deposition level of trace elements at the SET Station, data sets from other background or remote sites were also tabulated in Table 2. For V, Cr, Ni, Cu, Pb, Rb, Sr, and Ba, the amounts of wet deposition at the SET Station were comparable to those from other alpine sites (Pyrenees in Spain and Eastern Alps) (Bacardit and Camarero 2009; Gabrieli et al. 2011) and a background site (Florida, USA) (Landing et al. 2010),



**Fig. 3** The correlations of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  ( $\mu\text{Eq/L}$ ) in wet precipitation events at the SET Station during the monitoring period

indicating a characteristic of background atmosphere. However, these species were considerably higher than those at pristine sites, such as rainfall in Paradise, New Zealand (Halstead et al. 2000) and snow in East Antarctica (Hur et al. 2007), which suggests that anthropogenic disturbances have influence on the chemical composition of wet deposition in this region.

The wet deposition fluxes of Al and Fe  $>400 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$  (Table 2), despite representing the relative high elemental loading fluxes at the SET Station, were lower than those from other alpine sites (except Fe which was  $1,596 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$  at the SET Station and  $1,138 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$  in the Pyrenees), confirming the lower contribution of crust mineral dust in the southeastern TP. On the other hand, the fluxes of trace elements were generally similar to alpine/background sites in Europe and USA (Table 2), while higher than those (especially for V, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, and Cd) reported in the central TP (Nam Co Station) and New Zealand (Paradise), revealing a possible trace element pollution in the atmosphere of the southeastern TP region.

### Estimated contributions from diverse sources

Pearson correlation coefficients of major ions could give useful information for the contributions of ionic sources measured in wet precipitation (Table 3). The high correlation coefficients between  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ , and  $\text{K}^+$  may be caused mainly by the significant contributions of sea-salt aerosols to the wet precipitation, as indicated by a measurement from the southern slope of Mt. Everest (Valsecchi et al. 1999).  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  showed positive correlations with each other, indicating the homologous alkaline species from soil dust. Clearly, the relationships among  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  largely resulted from the similarity of chemical behavior in wet precipitation and the co-emission of their precursors (i.e.,  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$ ) emitted from anthropogenic sources (Lu et al. 2011). Furthermore,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  exhibited notable relativities for each other, with the ranges of Pearson correlation coefficients from 0.42 to 0.97 in Table 3.  $\text{K}^+$  was also positively correlated with  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  (with Pearson correlation coefficient 0.37, 0.43, and 0.55, respectively). These statistical correlations could be explained by the combining contributions of crust mineral dusts and soil dusts associated with the absorption of acid species in the troposphere (Calvo et al. 2010). These estimated sources are largely consistent with the results of wet precipitation chemistry reported in the Everest region (Valsecchi et al. 1999; Marinoni et al. 2001) and the central TP (Li et al. 2007).

To evaluate the various contributions of wet precipitation chemistry at the SET Station, we classified the estimated sources into three types (crust mineral dusts, sea salts, and anthropogenic sources) according to the aforementioned speculation. The fractions of these sources were further



**Table 3** Pearson correlations matrix of the ionic VWM (volume-weighted mean) concentrations in wet precipitation of SET Station

	Na <sup>+</sup>	NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	K <sup>+</sup>	Mg <sup>2+</sup>	Ca <sup>2+</sup>	HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Cl <sup>-</sup>	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>
Na <sup>+</sup>	1								
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	0.48	1							
K <sup>+</sup>	0.93	0.55	1						
Mg <sup>2+</sup>	0.31	0.67	0.37	1					
Ca <sup>2+</sup>	0.22	0.24	0.24	0.60	1				
HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0.41	0.42	0.43	0.69	0.97	1			
Cl <sup>-</sup>	0.98	0.50	0.92	0.31	0.20	0.39	1		
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	0.21	0.69	0.28	0.66	0.53	0.56	0.19	1	
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	0.18	0.71	0.28	0.76	0.47	0.51	0.17	0.86	1

The concentration of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was estimated by the formula  $\Sigma_{\text{cations}} - \Sigma_{\text{anions}}$  (Li et al. 2007)

calculated by the following methods. Non-sea salt was calculated, using Na as a tracer, with the following equation:

$$[X]_{\text{ss}} = [\text{Na}^+]_{\text{rain}} * [X/\text{Na}^+]_{\text{sea}} \quad (1)$$

where  $[X]_{\text{ss}}$  is the concentration of chemical species originating from sea salts for the desired ion/element in precipitation ( $[X]_{\text{rain}}$ ),  $[X/\text{Na}^+]_{\text{sea}}$  were from Keene et al. (1986) and KK Turekian (Oceans 1964, <http://www.seafriends.org.nz/oceano/seawater.htm>) for seawater ionic and elemental composition, respectively. It should be noted that the uncertainty caused by a possible Na<sup>+</sup> enrichment from other sources (such as minerals) during atmospheric transport was estimated to be slight according to the correlations of Cl<sup>-</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> (Fig. 3). Crust fractions were assessed with tracers of crust-originated elements (Al, Fe, Si, Rb, and Ca) in a variety of studies for atmospheric deposition (e.g., Lammel et al. 2003; Lu et al. 2011). In this work, we used the formula

$$[X]_{\text{cm}} = [\text{Fe}]_{\text{rain}} * [X/\text{Fe}]_{\text{crust}} \quad (2)$$

to assess the contributions of crust mineral dust in precipitation.  $[X]_{\text{cm}}$  is the crust-originated concentration of the desired ion/element in a wet precipitation event.  $[X/\text{Fe}]_{\text{crust}}$  is from the <2 μm of surface soils on the western TP (Li et al. 2009) [the fractions of S and N from crust mineral dust were calculated, according to their relative abundances in the upper crust (Rudnick and Gao 2003)]. Anthropogenic sources ( $[X]_{\text{as}}$ ) in wet precipitation events were evaluated by subtracting the contributions of crust mineral dusts and sea salts (e.g., Lu et al. 2011), which is Formula 3.

$$[X]_{\text{as}} = [X]_{\text{rain}} - [X]_{\text{ss}} - [X]_{\text{cm}} \quad (3)$$

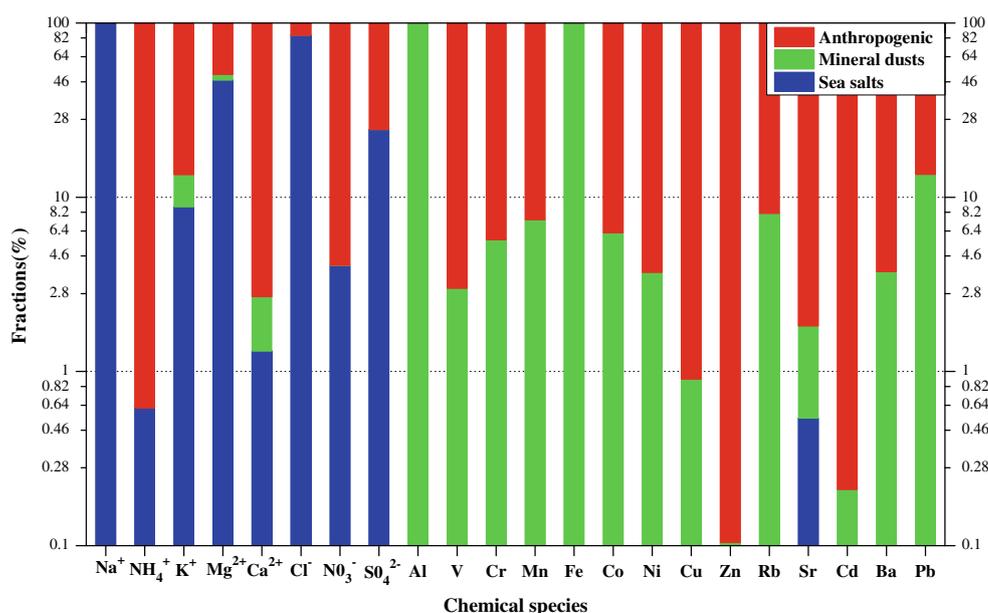
The fractions of sea salts presented large ranges in wet precipitation events (29.7–100 % for Cl<sup>-</sup>, 3.3–100 % for Mg<sup>2+</sup>, 1.9–71.1 % for K<sup>+</sup>, 0.1–100 % for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and 0.1–100 % for SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>). With mean values of 85.6 %, 47.1 %, 24.5 %, and 8.8 %, respectively, Cl<sup>-</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, and K<sup>+</sup> confirmed the significant contributions of sea-salt aerosols (Fig. 4), largely resulting from rainfalls associated with the

strong South Asian monsoon in summer (Fig. 2). Moreover, the “moisture passage” effect for humid air masses (Yang et al. 1989) and “leaking wall” effect for aerosols (Cao et al. 2011) from the Bay of Bengal and northeastern India can enhance the contribution of sea salts to the chemical composition in wet deposition. For trace elements, sea salt contributed a small fraction to the wet precipitation, with median values of 0.05 % for Rb, 0.54 % for Sr, 0.006 % for Ni, and others <0.005 %. Mineral dusts generally appeared in the coarse mode, thereby they are significantly removed by atmospheric dry deposition, which is an important reason for the low fraction of dissolved crust mineral dusts, with mean values of <5 % for all ions and <15 % for trace elements (without Al and Fe) in Fig. 4. Excluding Na<sup>+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, and Mg<sup>2+</sup>, anthropogenic activities contributed the largest proportion to the content of major ions. For NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, the greatly anthropogenic fractions (>70 %) were largely caused by the precursor gases SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> from industrial activities coming with exotic air masses. The mean values of 49.1 % and 97.3 % for anthropogenic fractions of Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup>, respectively, may partly result from agricultural soil caused by breeding livestock and cultivating land. Furthermore, anthropogenic K<sup>+</sup> (86.5 %) was ascribed to biomass burning, which was observed at Tengchong in the eastern edge of the southeastern TP (Chan et al. 2006; Engling et al. 2011). Thus, the quantitative contributions from various sources demonstrates the combined impacts of anthropogenic sources, sea salts, and crust mineral dusts on the wet precipitation chemistry in the southeastern TP.

#### Temporal variations of chemical species

During the study periods, the contents of the chemical species (except Ca<sup>2+</sup>, V, Cr, Zn, and Ba) in wet deposition displayed significant fluctuations, with lower values of month/year-concentration (VWM month-concentration/year-concentration) in the wet season because of the dilute effect caused by monsoonal rainfall for most species in wet

**Fig. 4** The mean fractions of sea salts, mineral dust, and anthropogenic sources in wet precipitation at the SET Station



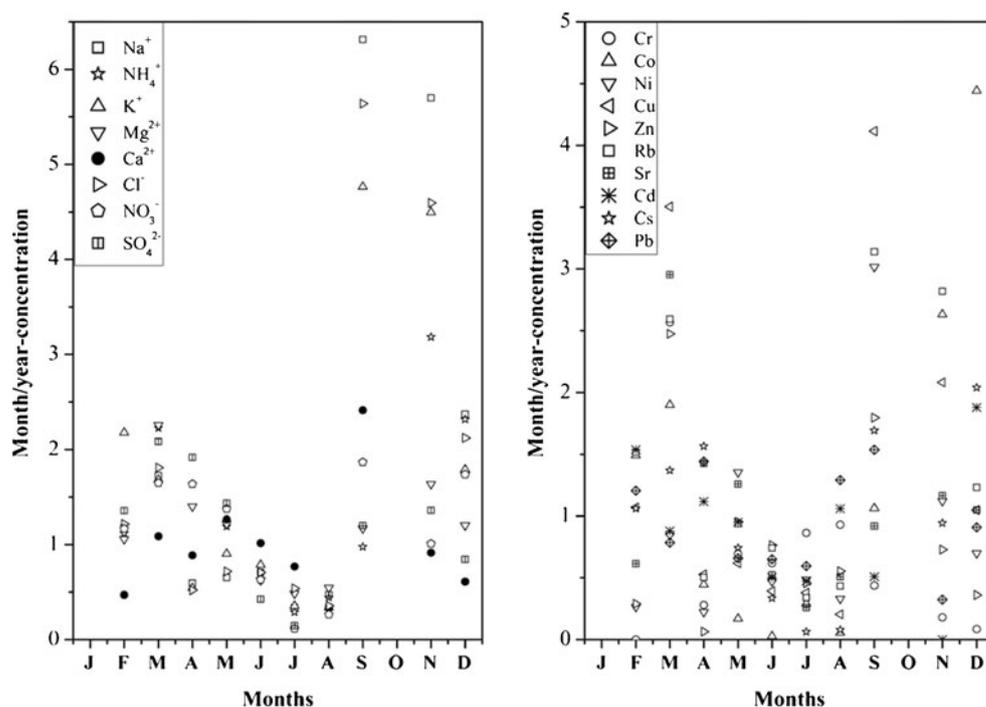
deposition (Fig. 5). Moreover, the monthly variations of ionic fluxes generally showed positive correlation with monthly precipitation amount, though the degrees varied in different months for various ions (Fig. 6), suggesting the effective scavenging of the soluble chemical species from the atmosphere in the wet deposition process. Obviously, the low wet precipitation fluxes for ions in the dry season (October, November, December, January, and February) were caused by sparse precipitation events when atmosphere circulation was dominated by continental masses. The highest amounts of monthly precipitations were in the monsoon season (May, June, July, and August) in the southeastern TP region, but the peak fluxes of the anthropogenic sources ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ) were during the pre-monsoon season and the earlier period of the monsoon season (March, April, May, and June), reflecting the possible accumulating effect of atmospheric pollutants in the mountain–valley geomorphologic region along the southern slope of the high plateau. The monthly flux of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  was higher in the wet season (differing from the seasonal variations of dust constituents carried by Asian dust storms in rainwater) and was relatively constant in month/year-concentration (indicating a slight influence from the altered atmospheric circulation), which probably was caused by the diverse sources of airborne dust in the atmosphere.

Burning of biofuels (wood, dung, and agricultural waste) is a major source of energy in India (Lelieveld et al. 2001), and the large-scale practice of open biomass burning occurs during the periods of pre-monsoon in northern India and Nepal (Ram and Sarin 2010). Eliminating the contributions of sea salts and crust mineral dusts, anthropogenic source potassium (as- $\text{K}^+$ ) at the SET Station is an excellent tracer

for biomass burning smoke. The apparently high values and peaks of as- $\text{K}^+$  in the dry season (Fig. 7) may result from the impacts of biomass burning in South Asia because such changes coincide with the South Asian haze outburst (Ramanathan et al. 2001). Moreover, monitoring results from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), USA (<http://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/fire-map/>), indicating many dense fire points in the Indian sub-continent during those seasons, were additional evidence for this inference. The above results indicate that biomass burning emissions from South Asia influenced the chemical compositions of wet precipitation in the southeastern TP and was in accordance with the results of observed black carbon in this region (Cao et al. 2011).

In previous studies, fossil fuel combustion was identified to be a main source of carbonaceous aerosols in the South Asian haze layer (Novakov et al. 2000). Owing to excluding the effects of sea salts and dusts in the atmosphere, the anthropogenic sources sulfate (as- $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) and nitrate (as- $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) are credible tracers of fossil fuel emissions. The large variability of as- $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and as- $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Fig. 7), with higher values in winter and spring, demonstrates the significant contributions of fossil fuel combustion to the haze cloud in South Asia. The co-source of as- $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and as- $\text{NO}_3^-$  emitted from fossil fuel combustion was further suggested by a significant correlation ( $R^2=0.67$ ,  $p=0.01$ ) and the same large peaks in Fig. 7. The long-range transport of South Asian pollutants was also observed in previous measurement campaigns over the TP (Cong et al. 2007, 2010; Ming et al. 2010), while the as- $\text{K}^+$ , as- $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , and as- $\text{NO}_3^-$  of the SET Station wet precipitation was a clear signature, owing to its unique geomorphological condition and geographical location (Yang et al. 1989; Cao et al. 2011).

**Fig. 5** The monthly variations of month/year-concentration ratios for chemical species of SET Station wet precipitation, from January (*J*) to December (*D*)



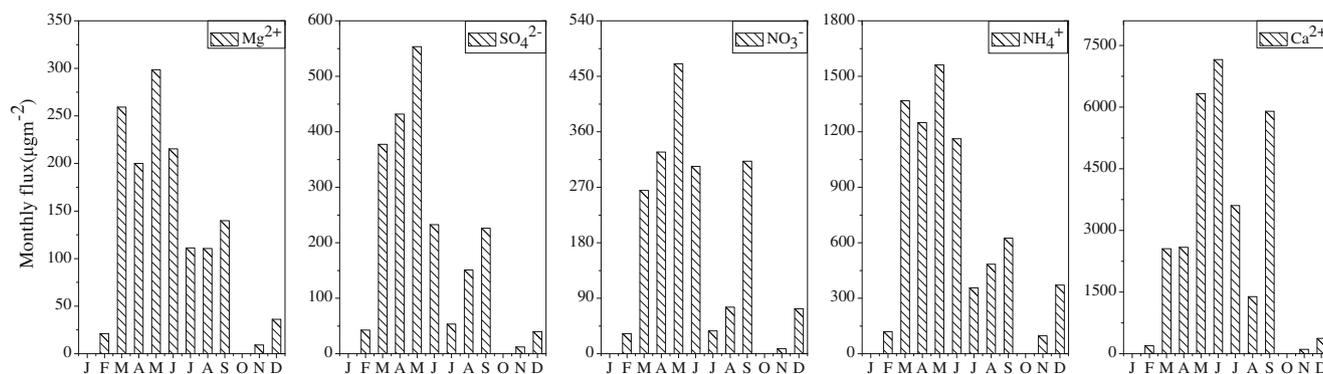
The features of various air masses

The trajectories achieved by HYSPLIT reveal three types of air masses arriving at the SET Station, including air masses coming from West Asia and the northwestern Indian subcontinent driven by the westerlies from November to February (corresponding to 11 % of the total samples, Fig. 8a), the summer monsoon from the Bay of Bengal across the northeastern part of the Indian subcontinent in wet season (May–August) (62 %, Fig. 8b), and regional air masses from the southern slope of the Eastern Himalayas in the transferring episodes of atmospheric circulation (including September, October, March, and April) (27 %, Fig. 8c).

The significant characteristics of diverse air masses were revealed by the relative contributions of various sources. As displayed in Fig. 9, the fractions of sea salts in  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  were relatively high in samples dominated by the

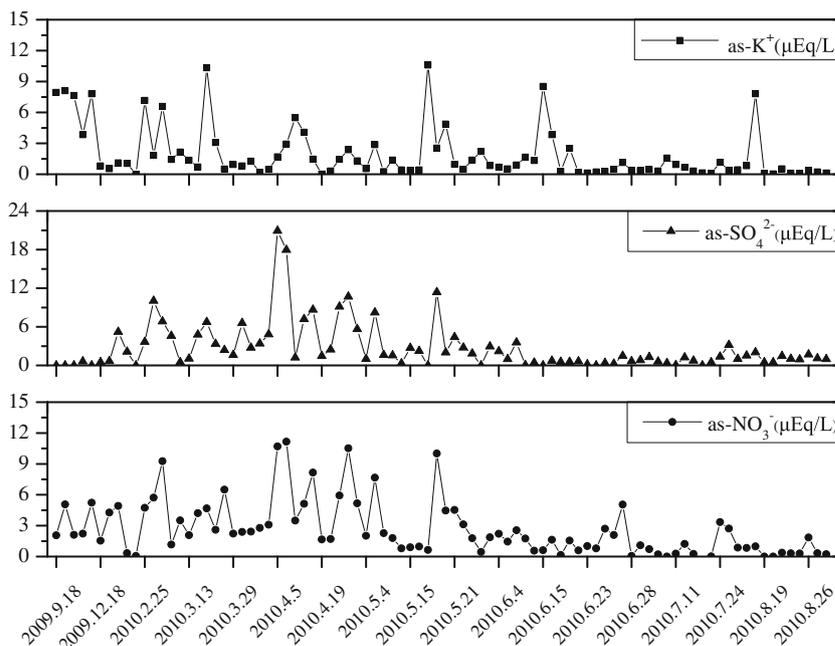
summer monsoon, indicating the effects of sea-salt aerosols from the Bay of Bengal. Furthermore, a southerly maritime signal during the summer monsoon was also identified in sampled precipitation and aerosols in the Nepal Himalayas (Shrestha et al. 2002). The lowest contribution of sea salt aerosols in samples controlled by regional air masses was reasonable, reflecting the continental characteristic of relatively stagnant air masses. That the anthropogenic fractions, both for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$ , were higher in regional masses and westerlies than in the summer monsoon may partly result from active agricultural activities and biomass burning in those periods. The relative high anthropogenic fractions for  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ , and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in summer monsoon samples likely result from the influences of polluted air masses from Bangladesh and northeastern India.

High fractions of crust mineral dust (such as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , V, Cr, Cd, Co, and Rb) were often monitored in samples



**Fig. 6** The variations of monthly flux ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2}$ ) for selected ions of wet precipitation at the SET Station, from January (*J*) to December (*D*)

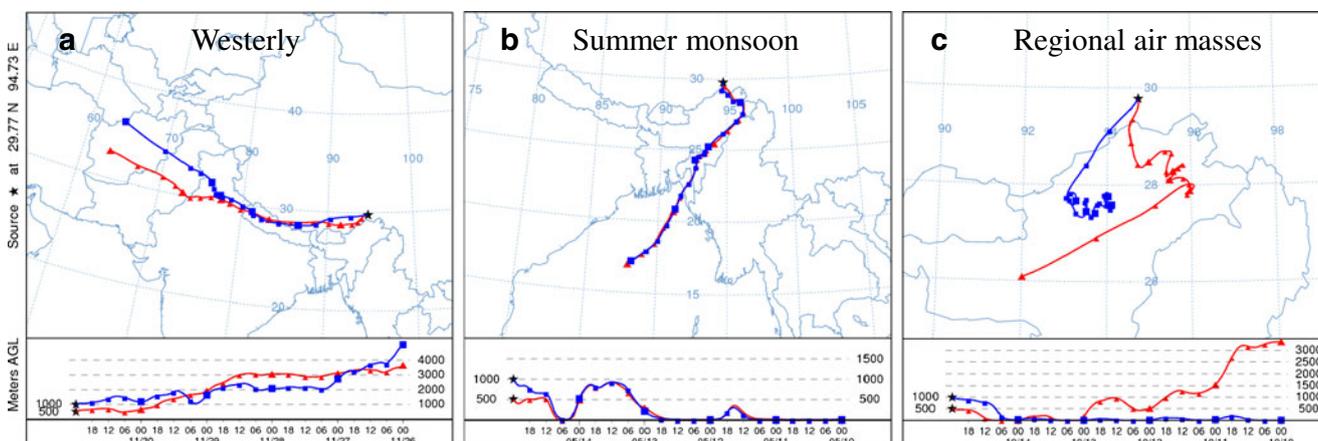
**Fig. 7** The temporal variations of as (anthropogenic source)- $K^+$ , as- $SO_4^{2-}$ , and as- $NO_3^-$  in wet precipitation at the SET Station



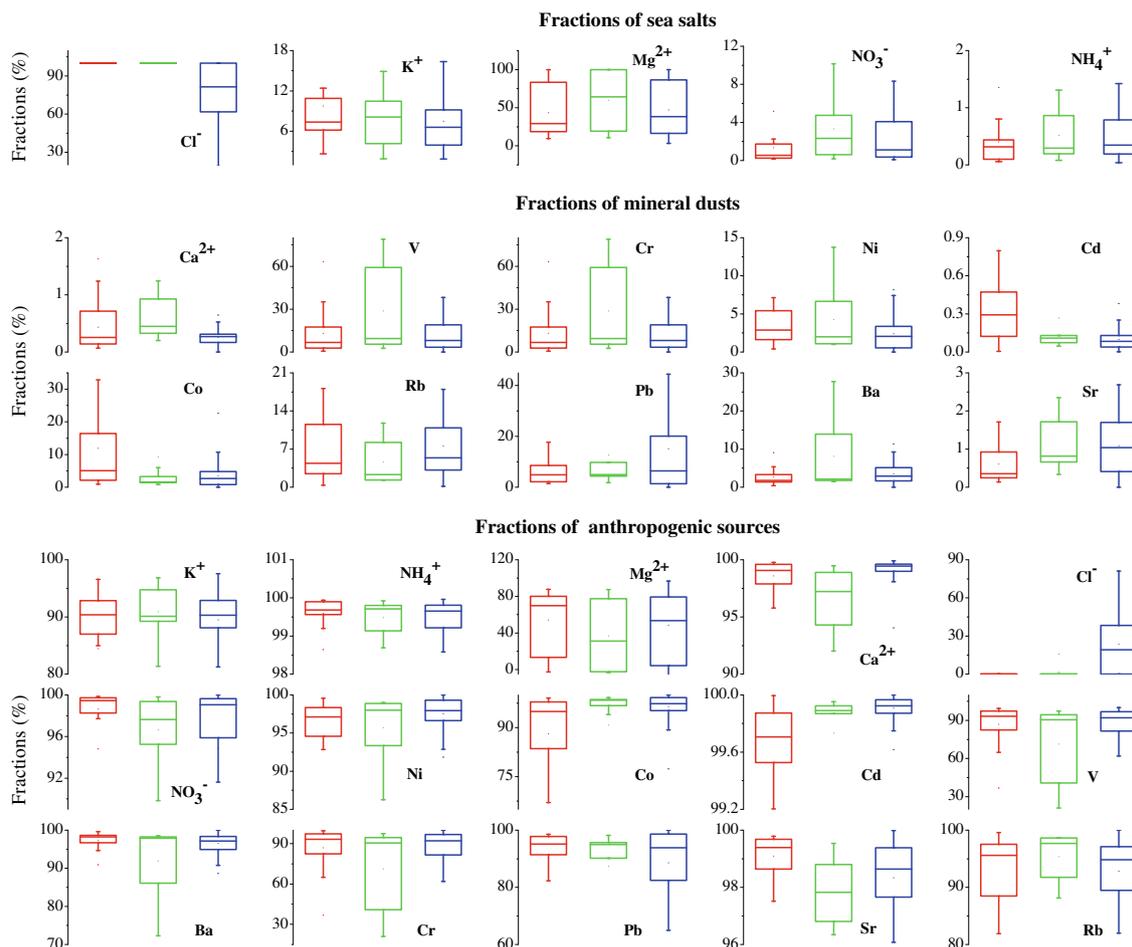
dominated by the regional and/or westerly air masses, being concordant with more dust aerosols from the arid region in dry seasons. However, for most of the trace elements, the highest anthropogenic fractions were observed in monsoonal rainfall, a result of the huge industrial emissions in South Asia (Pacyna and Pacyna 2001). From the point of view of discerning the diffusion of regional emissions, anthropogenic fractions observed in monsoonal rainfall at the SET Station were significant because these processes were associated with atmospheric dynamics. Therefore, they provide strong evidence of the transport of anthropogenic trace elements from South Asia.

Atmospheric nitrogen deposition

Nitrogen is crucial for the alpine ecosystem. High flux of atmospheric nitrogen deposition was modeled near the biodiversity hotspots of high-altitude Asia (Phoenix et al. 2006), which need verification from field monitoring. The wet deposition of  $NH_4^+-N$ ,  $NO_3^--N$ , and total inorganic nitrogen (TIN) at the SET Station was calculated based on their VWM concentration multiplied by annual precipitation amounts (Table 4). With a flux of  $1.12 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$ , ammonia accounted for 79.27 % of TIN wet deposition. The nitrogen originating from nitrate accounted for the remaining 20.73 %, with a flux of  $0.29 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$ .



**Fig. 8** Five-day back trajectories for the typical westerly (corresponding to 11 % of the total samples), summer monsoon (62 %), and regional air masses (27 %) reaching the SET Station



**Fig. 9** The variations of fractions (medians, *line* within the *boxes*; percentiles 10–25–75–90, *boxes* and *whiskers*) in different air masses (*red*—regional air masses, *green*—westerly, *blue*—summer monsoon) in wet precipitation at the SET Station

As displayed in Table 4, the current wet deposition levels of IN in remote or background regions within various ecosystems around the world varied over a large range. The annual flux of TIN at the SET Station ranged from an alpine meadow at Nam Co Station in the central TP (Zhang et al. 2012a) to a montane forest at Mt. Ailao in southwestern China (Liu et al. 2003) (Table 4). This reflects the different

influences of anthropogenic activities on the different alpine ecosystems in western China. When compared with wet depositions of Mt. Fuji in Japan (Wai et al. 2008), Rocky Mountains in the USA (<http://nadp.sws.uiuc.edu>), the dry savanna in Africa (Galy-Lacaux et al. 2009), and the tropical rain forest in the Amazon Basin (Pauliquevis et al. 2012), the wet deposition flux of TIN at the SET Station was lower.

**Table 4** Comparisons of wet deposition levels ( $\text{kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$ ) of inorganic nitrogen in remote or background regions within various ecosystems around the world

Sites	Ecosystems	Periods	$\text{NO}_3^- \text{-N}$	$\text{NH}_4^+ \text{-N}$	TIN	References
SET Station, SE TP	Alpine forest (3,326 m)	2009–2010	0.29	1.12	1.41	Present study
Nam Co Station, Cen. TP	Alpine meadow (4,730 m)	2005–2009	0.27	0.43	0.70	Zhang et al. 2012a
Mt. Ailao, SW China	Montane forest (2,450 m)	1998–1999	0.90	2.70	3.60	Liu et al. 2003
Mt. Fuji, Cen. Japan	Alpine forest (3,780 m)	2001–2004	3.13	4.22	7.35	Wai et al. 2008
Mt. Rocky, Western USA	Alpine forest (3,159 m)	2010	1.48	1.15	2.63	<a href="http://nadp.sws.uiuc.edu">http://nadp.sws.uiuc.edu</a>
Balbina, Cen. Amazonia	Tropical rain forest	1998–2001	1.91	1.31	3.22	Pauliquevis et al. 2012
Niger, Northern Africa	Dry Savanna	1994–2005	0.80	1.26	2.06	Galy-Lacaux et al. 2009
Hawaii Island	Northern Pacific	2005	0.37	0.24	0.61	<a href="http://nadp.sws.uiuc.edu">http://nadp.sws.uiuc.edu</a>

However, the input of inorganic nitrogen through wet deposition was noticeable in this background atmosphere, compared with measurements from Hawaii, owing to the effects of the terrestrial sources and the long-range transport of exotic air masses.

The wet deposition of dissolved organic nitrogen is significant in remote forest ecosystems, which was estimated according to the ratio of dissolved organic nitrogen to total dissolved nitrogen (67 %) in the southeastern TP region (Zhang et al. 2012b), with the flux of  $2.86 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$ . Therefore, the total N import from wet precipitation was  $4.27 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$  at the SET Station. In addition, dry deposition another main way of atmospheric nitrogen input. However, measuring dry deposition is difficult, particularly for dry deposition in the alpine ecosystem. In the Rocky Mountain region of Colorado, a similar altitude and environment, dry deposition generally constitutes 25 % to 47 % of total atmospheric N deposition (wet deposition plus dry deposition) (Burns 2003, and references therein). Thus, dry deposition flux of N in the southeastern TP was estimated to be  $2.14 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$ , assuming its amount to be half that of measured wet deposition in other high-altitude regions (Baron and Campbell 1997). It was worthy to stress that the above evaluations omitted the significant fog and cloud depositions in the atmosphere of alpine forest ecosystems; thus, the total atmospheric deposition of N should be higher than  $6.41 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$  in this region, which is about two times the global terrestrial with an average value of  $3.5 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$  (Phoenix et al. 2006).

Lichens and bryophytes are important species in the alpine forest of the southeastern TP, and are sensitive to increased N inputs (Bobbink et al. 2010). Meanwhile, the assessed amount of atmospheric N deposition ( $6.41 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$ ) reached an estimated effect threshold ( $5\text{--}15 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$ ) for nitrogen deposition impacts in alpine ecosystems (Bobbink et al. 2010). This implies that the long-range transport of air masses containing nitrogen may impact the alpine ecosystem in this region.

## Summary and conclusions

Wet precipitation chemistry at a remote forest site in the southeastern Tibetan Plateau had been examined. Although wet deposition levels at the SET Station were generally comparable to those in other alpine and background sites reported in the world, the potential anthropogenic disturbances of atmospheric trace elements in the southeastern TP was verified by calculating diverse sources. Sea salts were significant sources for ions in wet precipitation. Crust mineral dust was mainly responsible for the crust elements Al and Fe.

With an apparently diluting effect and effective scavenging by monsoonal rainfall, the seasonal variabilities of

chemical species were striking and important. As- $\text{K}^+$ , a perfect tracer of biomass burning with high concentrations during the non-monsoon season, revealed the influence of biomass burning on the wet precipitation chemistry. High values of as- $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and as- $\text{NO}_3^-$  in winter and spring demonstrated the large contribution of fossil fuel combustion during those seasons. These clear signatures of the long-range transport of South Asian pollutants monitored at the SET Station were credited to its unique geomorphological condition and geographical location.

Atmospheric circulation exerted significant effects on the variations of chemical components in wet deposition, which were revealed by combining backward air trajectories analysis. Marine air masses from the Bay of Bengal provided a large number of sea salts to the chemical composition of wet precipitation. Relatively high fractions of crust mineral dusts were often observed in the regional and westerly air masses, while striking anthropogenic fractions of trace elements in the summer monsoon season were greatly induced by industrial emissions from South Asia.

It is important to monitor wet precipitation at the SET Station to understand anthropogenic disturbances to alpine ecosystems on the southeastern TP. Affected by the exotic air masses, the flux of wet deposition was  $1.12 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$  for  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  and  $0.29 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$  for  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ . The conservative atmospheric import of N was  $6.41 \text{ kgNha}^{-1}\text{year}^{-1}$  and reached the effect threshold of nitrogen deposition, implying potential impacts on the alpine ecosystem of the southeastern TP as emissions increase in South Asia.

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