



1 **Impacts of synoptic forcing and cloud inhibition on**
2 **aerosol radiative effect and boundary layer structure**
3 **during winter pollution in Sichuan Basin, China**

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13 **Abstract:** Winter persistent aerosol pollution frequently occurs in the Sichuan Basin (SCB) due to its
14 unfavorable weather conditions, such as low wind, wetness, and cloudiness. Based on long-term
15 observational data analyses from 2015–2021, it was found that the four representative stations in the
16 SCB often simultaneously experienced PM_{2.5} pollution accompanied by variations in meteorological
17 conditions above 850 hPa, which indicates a connection between regional winter air pollution in the
18 SCB and large-scale synoptic patterns. The dominant 850 hPa synoptic patterns of winter SCB were
19 classified into six patterns using T-model principal component analysis. Pattern 2, characterized by
20 an east high west low (EHWL) pressure system, and Pattern 5, featuring a low trough (LT), were
21 identified as key synoptic patterns for the beginning and accumulation of pollution processes. Pattern
22 1, characterized by a strong high pressure in the north, was the cleanest pattern associated with
23 reduced PM_{2.5} concentrations. The EHWL and LT patterns were associated with a remarkably high
24 cloud liquid content, which was attributed to upper southerly winds that introduced humid air and
25 converted aerosols into fog/cloud drops. Clouds reduce solar radiation through reflection and
26 scattering, resulting in more stable stratification and aerosol accumulation. This cloud radiation
27 interaction (CRI) is more pronounced in the LT pattern due to denser isobaric lines and stronger
28 southerly winds than in the EHWL pattern. Numerical simulation experiments using WRF-Chem
29 showed afternoon upper-level heating and morning surface cooling forced by the aerosol radiation
30 interaction (ARI) and evening strong surface cooling influenced by valley winds in the SCB. With
31 wet and cloudy synoptic forcing, CRI directly affects the stability of the boundary layer and is



32 modulated through ARI inhibition. For example, Chongqing showed lower PM_{2.5} concentrations and
33 stronger ARI than the western and southern SCB due to thinner cloud liquid content and weaker CRI
34 inhibition on ARI. The CRI inhibition caused a 50 % reduction in solar radiation and boundary layer
35 height during the daytime under the LT pattern, which was larger than that under the EHWL pattern.
36 This study comprehensively analyzed the cloud inhibition on ARIs and their impacts on the boundary
37 layer structure under typical synoptic forcing during pollution processes, emphasizing the significant
38 role of CRI inhibition in wet and cloudy regions.

39 **Key words:** Synoptic patterns, cloud radiation interaction inhibition, aerosol radiation interaction,
40 boundary layer structure, Sichuan Basin.

41 **1 Introduction**

42 Particulate matter (PM) pollution has become a significant environmental concern in China
43 (Xie et al., 2016a; 2016b; Che et al., 2019). High concentrations of aerosols worsen air quality
44 and seriously harm resident health, and affect weather and climate through their effects on
45 radiation and clouds (Li et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020; Alexeeff et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021).
46 The interactions between aerosols and clouds present the largest uncertainty in anthropogenic
47 radiative forcing of the Earth's climate (Liao et al., 2017; Haywood et al., 2021). Understanding
48 cloud aerosol radiation interactions (ARI) from an air quality perspective is crucial for a scientific
49 understanding of the relationship between weather and pollution.

50 Although excessive emissions are the primary cause of air pollution, local emissions do not
51 commonly change significantly in a short time. However, pollutant concentrations often vary
52 considerably, indicating that meteorological conditions largely govern the pollutant distribution
53 (Zhu et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2018; Nichol et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2021). PM
54 and gaseous pollutants, carried mainly by the planetary boundary layer (PBL), are directly or
55 indirectly influenced by meteorological factors such as wind, relative humidity, PBL height, and
56 solar radiation. These factors contribute to the multi-temporal and spatial distribution
57 characteristics through vertical and horizontal diffusion, physicochemical reactions, and dry and
58 wet deposition (Park et al., 2017; Shu et al., 2017; Zhan et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2019).
59 Large-scale synoptic forcing is considered the primary driving condition for meteorological



60 factors, PBL structure, and the resulting distribution of atmospheric pollutants (Miao et al., 2019;
61 Ning et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021). Specific synoptic patterns can induce
62 advection, which largely determines the local PBL structure and development. PBL, located at
63 the bottom of the atmosphere, is responsible for the main exchange of heat, moisture, and matter
64 between the surface and the free troposphere (Stull, 1988). The fate of pollutants emitted near the
65 surface, a significant source of aerosols in the air, is largely controlled by the PBL (Garratt, 1994).
66 The PBL height is often used to characterize the capacity and dilution of pollutants (Seidel et al.,
67 2010). Synoptic patterns can directly determine the meteorological conditions of emitted
68 pollutants and influence their transport by regulating PBL thermal stratification and mechanical
69 turbulence (Stull, 1988; Ning et al., 2018; Zhan et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2021; Zhang et al.,
70 2022).

71 Unfavorable meteorological conditions contribute to aerosol pollution. When pollutants
72 accumulate to a certain degree, aerosols reduce surface solar radiation by backscattering or
73 absorbing solar radiation, leading to surface cooling. This decrease in solar radiation and
74 temperature near the ground weakens turbulent diffusion, suppresses the convective development
75 of the PBL, and lowers PBL height, which in turn exacerbates aerosol pollution (Ding et al., 2016;
76 Wang et al., 2018). Moreover, the increase in humidity caused by the decreased surface saturation
77 vapor pressure and inhibited water vapor diffusion enhances aerosol hygroscopic growth
78 accelerates liquid-phase and heterogeneous reactions, and contributes to aerosol pollution
79 (Pilinis et al., 1989; Zhong et al., 2018; Zhong et al., 2019). This positive feedback between
80 unfavorable PBL meteorology and increasing aerosols explained the majority of the increase in
81 $PM_{2.5}$ during cumulative stages (Zhong et al., 2018). As for the aerosol-cloud interactions, arise
82 from increasing aerosols acting as cloud condensation nuclei in cloud and translating into larger
83 concentrations of smaller cloud droplets, leading to an increased cloud albedo reflecting more
84 radiation back to space (Twomey, 1977; Lohmann and Feichter, 2005). Even a marginal increase
85 in cloud droplets above pristine conditions in deep convective clouds causes more droplets to
86 reach supercooled levels, which enhances latent heat release and invigorates convection
87 (Rosenfeld et al., 2009; Possner et al., 2015). Further increases in cloud droplets result in direct
88 radiative effects, reducing downward solar radiation, cooling the surface, and inhibiting
89 convection (Scott et al., 2016).



90 The Sichuan Basin (SCB) is surrounded by high mountains with cloudy and wet weather
91 conditions. The mean annual relative humidity, cloud cover, and sunshine hours for the SCB are
92 75 %, 8 h, and 1200 h, respectively. The Chengdu–Chongqing city cluster in the SCB serves as
93 the economic center of the upper reaches of the Yangtze River in China, accounting for
94 approximately 10 % of the population of the country. Rapid industrialization and urbanization in
95 this region have resulted in severe air pollution, making it one of the most polluted regions in
96 China with high black carbon concentrations (Li et al., 2016; Cao et al., 2021). The
97 Qinghai–Tibet Plateau on the western edge of the SCB significantly influences the transport and
98 accumulation of pollutants through thermal and dynamic effects (Ning et al., 2017; Shu et al.,
99 2021). In addition, the Qinghai–Tibet topography leads to higher cloud water content over the
100 SCB than the other regions (Yu et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2012). Complex terrain and higher cloud
101 water content may modify aerosol–PBL interactions, alter cloud chemistry, and affect the
102 distributions of pollutants and PM_{2.5} chemical components, thus impacting ARIs (Zhao et al., 2017;
103 Wang et al., 2018). The positive effects of aerosols and PBL meteorology can be influenced by
104 synoptic patterns (Miao et al., 2020) and inhibited by cloud direct radiative effects in the SCB
105 (Zhong et al., 2019).

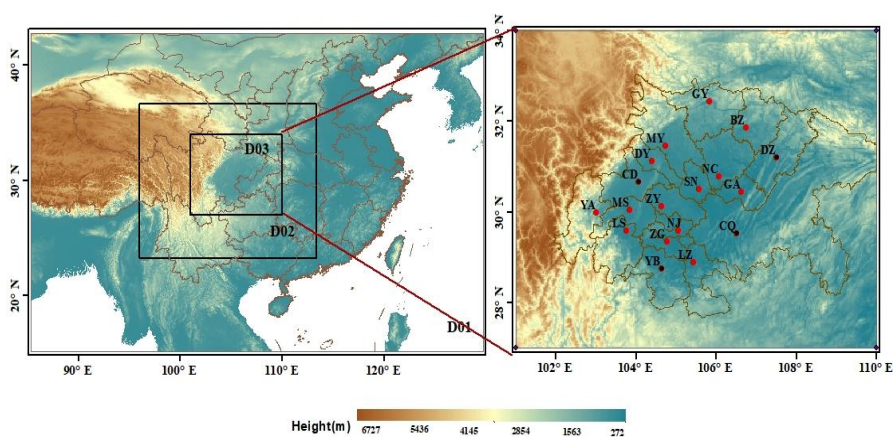
106 Therefore, with high aerosol loadings and semi–permanent cloudy weather, the SCB provides
107 an optimal region for studying the influence of synoptic forcing on the interactions between
108 clouds, aerosols, and the PBL. This study objectively classifies the synoptic patterns influencing
109 the SCB based on long–term data. An integrated analysis of pollutants and meteorological
110 factors reveals the primary pollution sources and clean synoptic patterns. Using WRF–CHEM
111 simulation experiments, the impacts of synoptic forcing and inhibition of cloud radiation
112 interaction (CRI) on ARI with the PBL in the SCB are discussed. These results will deepen our
113 understanding of CRI, ARI, and the PBL interactions in regions influenced by plateau–basin
114 topography with wet and cloudy weather. The data and methods are presented in Section 2,
115 whereas Section 3 describes the synoptic patterns and their corresponding impacts on clouds,
116 aerosols, radiation, and PBL. Finally, the conclusions are presented in Section 5.



117 **2 Data and method**

118 **2.1 Observation data**

119 Air quality monitoring data were obtained from air quality monitoring sites established by the
120 Ministry of Ecology and Environment of China across the SCB. Hourly PM_{2.5} observations from
121 18 stations in the SCB were collected during the winter period from 2015–2021 for data analysis
122 and model verification (Fig. 1b). CQ, CD, MY, DY, LS, MS, YA, ZY, ZG, YB, LZ, NJ, GA, NC,
123 SN, GY, DZ, and BZ represent Chongqing, Chengdu, Mianyang, Deyang, Leshan, Meishan,
124 Yaan, Ziyang, Zigong, Yibin, Luzhou, Neijiang, Guangan, Nanchong, Suining, Guangyuan,
125 Dazhou, and Bazhong, respectively.



126 **Figure 1.** (a) Three layers of simulation domains in WRF-Chem with topography map as shading; (b) the locations of 18 air quality monitoring stations (red dots) and 4 sounding stations (black dots) in the Domain 3.

127 The SCB has four sounding stations: Wenjiang (Chengdu), Yibin, Dazhou, and Shapingba
128 (Chongqing), situated in the western, southern, northwestern, and eastern regions of the basin,
129 respectively (Fig. 1b), representing different pollution and meteorological conditions within the
130 SCB. The vertical distribution of the meteorological factors used in the study was obtained from
131 an L-band sounding radar, collecting temperature, pressure, humidity, and wind data at 0800 and
132 1200 local time on vertical levels every second from the surface up to 30 km. Ground observation
133 data from the four cities, including temperature and dew point temperature, were used for



134 meteorological factor simulation verification. All meteorological data were obtained from the
135 China Weather Website Platform maintained by the China Meteorological Bureau.

136 ERA5 reanalysis data from the ECMWF, which assimilates comprehensive observation data,
137 including ground observation, sounding data, aircraft observation data, and satellite observation
138 data, were obtained for synoptic pattern classification and their impact on meteorological factors
139 in four representative cities. The EAR5 data at the 850 hPa pressure level were collected for the
140 synoptic pattern study. Additionally, cloud liquid water content, downward solar radiation, and
141 boundary layer height derived from the EAR5 single-level datasets were obtained to assess the
142 influences of synoptic forcing on CRI studies, while PBL height were adopted to conduct the
143 simulation verification.

144 **2.2 Synoptic pattern classification**

145 The objective classification was conducted on the synoptic patterns of the SCB using ERA5
146 data, including geopotential height, u , and v components of winds at the 850 hPa pressure level.
147 The analysis covered an area of $97\text{--}117^\circ$ E and $24\text{--}37^\circ$ N with a horizontal resolution of $0.25^\circ \times$
148 0.25° . Since PM pollution in the SCB primarily occurs in winter (Zhao et al., 2018; Lu et al.,
149 2022b), the synoptic pattern classification was performed for winter 2015–2021 (December,
150 January, and February) using the principal component analysis in the T-model (T-PCA)
151 objective method. Compared with the subjective classification method, the objective method can
152 process large amounts of data without relying on subjective experience (Huth et al., 2008; Miao
153 et al., 2017). Among various classification methods, the T-PCA method accurately reflects the
154 characteristics of the original synoptic circulations and exhibits spatial and temporal stability
155 (Huth et al., 1996; Huth et al., 2008). Consequently, the T-PCA has been widely used in synoptic
156 pattern classification research (Ning et al., 2019; Miao et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021).

157 **2.3 Model configuration and simulation experiments**

158 To understand the combined effects of synoptic patterns and CRI inhibition on ARI and PBL, a
159 series of parallel experiments were conducted on the simulation of a typical pollution episode
160 using the Weather Research and Forecasting model with Chemistry (WRF-Chem v3.9.1) (Grell
161 et al., 2005). The model domain (Fig. 1a) was centered over the SCB and utilized three layers of



162 nested grids with cell points of 155×110 (D01), 184×160 (D02), and 320×250 (D03). The
163 horizontal resolutions of the model were 27, 9, and 3 km for the three layers, while 32 vertical
164 layers spanning from the surface to 100 hPa were defined. Initial meteorological fields were
165 obtained from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction Final reanalysis data with a
166 horizontal resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ and 6 h time interval. For chemical process simulations,
167 anthropogenic emissions were sourced from the Multiresolution Emission Inventory for China
168 (MEIC) in 2016, featuring a grid resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$. Biogenic emissions were calculated
169 online using the Guenther scheme (Guenther et al., 2006). Table 1 provides a summary of the
170 chosen physical and chemical parameterization schemes.

171 **Table 1 The main options of WRF–Chem**

Items	Contents
Microphysics	WRF Single–Moment 5 class (WSM5) scheme
Longwave radiation	RRTMG scheme (Iacono et al., 2008)
Shortwave radiation	RRTMG scheme (Iacono et al., 2008)
Planetary boundary layer	Younsei University scheme (Hong et al., 2006)
Land surface	United Noah land surface model (Tewari et al., 2004)
Cumulus parameterization	Grell–Freitas ensemble scheme (Grell et al., 2013)
Gas–phase chemistry	RADM2 (Stockwell et al., 1990)
Aerosol module	MADE/SORGAM (Schell et al., 2001)

172

173 To assess the impact of CRI inhibition on ARI and ARI under typical synoptic pollution patterns,
174 four parallel experiments were conducted to simulate the pollution process. The selected
175 simulation period is January 1-7, 2017, as the period is close to the time of MEIC emission
176 inventory used. Besides, the Chinese government announced clean air action in 2013 with the
177 goal of reducing PM_{2.5} pollution in key areas by controlling anthropogenic emission sources
178 within a five-year period, with the year of 2017 as the key year about current PM_{2.5} pollution
179 (Wang et al., 2020). Finally, the period of January 1-7, 2017 encompasses both typical
180 pollution and clean weather patterns. Considering these three factors, this study focuses on



181 simulation and analysis during this period. The baseline experiment (BASE) considered both CRI
182 and ARI, while the three sensitivity experiments excluded ARI or CRI. Experiment 1 (EXP1) did
183 not include ARI, Experiment 2 (EXP2) did not consider CRI, and Experiment 3 (EXP3) did not
184 consider ARI when CRI was not excluded. The differences between BASE and EXP1 represented
185 the disturbances caused by ARI, while EXP2 and EXP3 represented the influences of ARI
186 without CRI inhibition. The numerical experiments ran from 00:00 UTC on December 30, 2016,
187 to 00:00 UTC on January 8, 2017, with the initial 48 h used for a model spin-up.

188 **3 Results and discussions**

189 **3.1 Relationships between synoptic patterns and PM_{2.5} pollution in the SCB**

190 Figure 2 illustrates the daily mean variations in PM_{2.5} concentration and vertical distributions of
191 potential temperature (PT) during winter from 2015 to 2021, highlighting the pollution episodes.
192 The four sounding stations in the SCB (CD, YB, CQ, and DZ) are located in separate areas of the
193 basin; however, they consistently experienced pollution processes with simultaneous changes in
194 vertical thermal structures. For example, during the pollution events in January 2017 and
195 December 2020, PM_{2.5} concentrations in all four cities reached their highest levels at the same
196 time before declining rapidly (Fig. 2). Notably, the warming of the upper air coincided with
197 pollution episodes, while a decrease in PM_{2.5} concentration correlated with cooling in the upper
198 layer. Despite the significant distances between these cities (approximately 200–400 km), the
199 synchronized changes in pollutants and vertical thermal structures can be attributed to large-scale
200 synoptic patterns (Miao et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021). While the four cities with sounding stations
201 were selected as representatives for vertical thermal structure analysis, other cities in the SCB
202 also experienced pollution episodes and relevant physical processes.

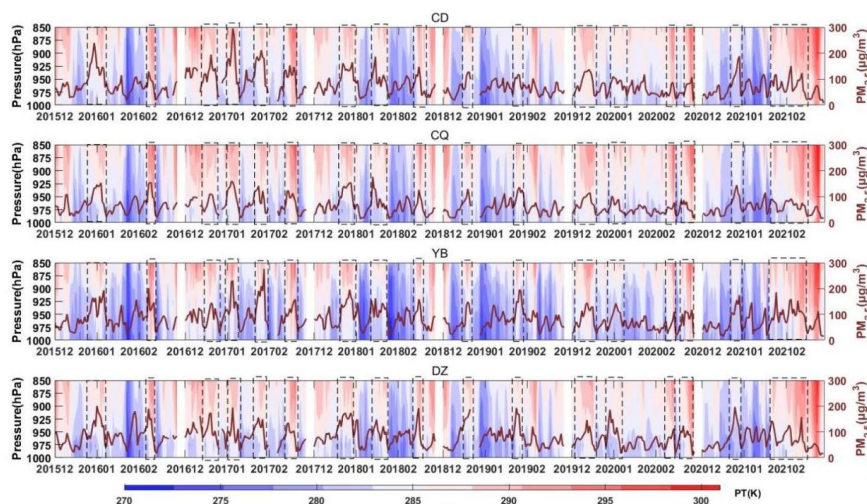


Figure 2. Time series of PM_{2.5} and potential temperature derived from the sounding data during 2015–2021 winter months. The PM_{2.5} pollution episodes are marked with black dotted boxes.

203

204 The time series of PM_{2.5} from air quality monitoring sites and the accompanying vertical
205 distributions of temperature, relative humidity, and wind in CD, CQ, YB, and DZ derived from the
206 sounding stations are shown in Fig. 3, using January 2017 as an example for analysis. During this
207 month, two severe PM_{2.5} pollution episodes occurred: January 1–7 and January 24–31 in 2017. The
208 highest daily PM_{2.5} concentrations recorded were 291.17 µg/m³ (CD) and 276.21 µg/m³ (YB),
209 influencing all four cities. Pollution in early January exhibited a gradual increase in PM_{2.5} levels from
210 January 1–3, with upper air warming and the emergence of an inversion above the PBL. Additionally,
211 lower humidity and higher wind speeds above 1500 m were observed during the pollution
212 accumulation period. Similarly, the late January pollution episode showed a rapid increase in PM_{2.5},
213 from January 24–27, together with warming, dryness, and high wind speed above 1500 m in all four
214 cities. These consistent meteorological conditions during the pollution periods indicate significant
215 synoptic forcing. Notably, the key layer for studying the connection between synoptic patterns and
216 PM_{2.5} pollution is approximately 850 hPa, corresponding to a height of approximately 1500 m within
217 the PBL, where changes in specific meteorological conditions primarily affect surface-emitted
218 pollutants.

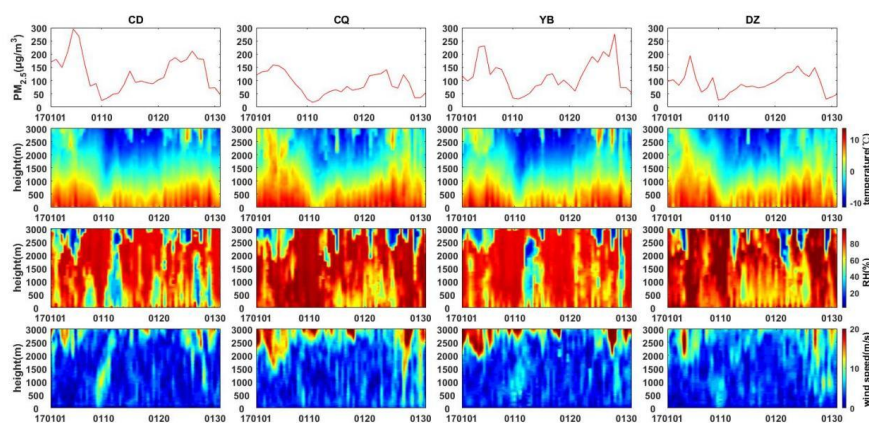


Figure 3. Time series of (a)PM_{2.5} concentrations, and corresponding vertical meteorological data from the sounding data, including (b)vertical temperature, (c)vertical humidity and (d)vertical wind speed, taking January 2017 as an example to illustration.

219

220 Using ERA5 reanalysis data for winter (December, January, and February) from 2015 to 2021,
221 the 850 hPa synoptic patterns over the SCB were objectively classified into six types (Fig. 4).
222 According to the relative positions of the high–pressure and low–pressure systems in the basin,
223 these synoptic patterns can be described as follows: (1) strong high pressure in the north, (2) east
224 high west low (EHWL) pressure, (3) weak high pressure in the north, (4) weak ridge of high
225 pressure after the trough, (5) low trough (LT), and (6) strong high pressure. Patterns 1 and 3
226 exhibit high pressure in the northern SCB, which differs from the high–pressure intensity. With
227 strong high pressure, the basin is primarily controlled by northerly airflow. Under weak
228 high–pressure conditions, the basin is dominated by an easterly backflow. Patterns 2 and 5 had
229 high and low pressures near the basin, forming a relatively dense isopotential altitude gradient
230 and resulting in strong southerly winds over 850 hPa. Pattern 4 was a weak high–pressure ridge
231 after a trough controlled the SCB with sparse isobaric lines and weak winds leading to static and
232 stable weather conditions. During Pattern 6, the SCB was controlled by the cold high-pressure
233 system, accompanying weak northerly airflow on the basin. Pattern 6 usually evolved from either
234 Pattern 1 or Pattern 3.

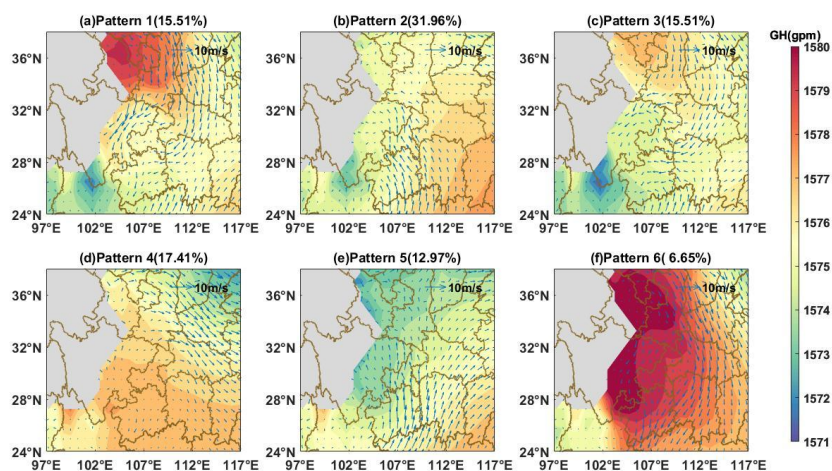


Figure 4. The 850hPa geopotential height field(shading) with wind vector fields(blue vectors), and frequency of occurrence for 6 synoptic patterns during 2015-2021 winter months.

235

236 Patterns 2, 4, and 5 exhibited higher frequencies of pollution occurrence ($PM_{2.5}$ daily
237 concentration $\geq 75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) according to statistical results from 18 cities in the SCB during the
238 2015–2021 winters (Fig. 5a). These patterns were associated with high $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in
239 50–70 % days, including CD, DY, and MY in the northern SCB, 40–60 % for cities in the
240 southern SCB, such as ZG and YB, and also 40–60 % of days for cities in the northern SCB, such
241 as CQ, DZ, NC, and GA. Furthermore, the average $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in the respective cities
242 for the six synoptic patterns were calculated (Fig. 5b), aligning with the frequency of pollution
243 occurrence. The days under Patterns 2, 4, and 5 exhibited higher average daily $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations.
244 The average concentrations of CD, YB, CQ, and DZ under these three synoptic patterns were
245 99.19, 103.43, and 111.97 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 95.44, 87.98, and 94.26 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 79.14, 83.96, and 74.771
246 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and 91.02, 104.64, and 91.51 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. Regarding the impact of synoptic
247 patterns on the accumulation or dispersion of $PM_{2.5}$, Fig. 5c illustrates the average daily changes
248 in $PM_{2.5}$ concentration compared with the previous day for CD, CQ, YB, and DZ under the six
249 synoptic patterns. Patterns 2 and 5 exhibited the most significant $PM_{2.5}$ accumulation under the
250 influence of southerly airflow.

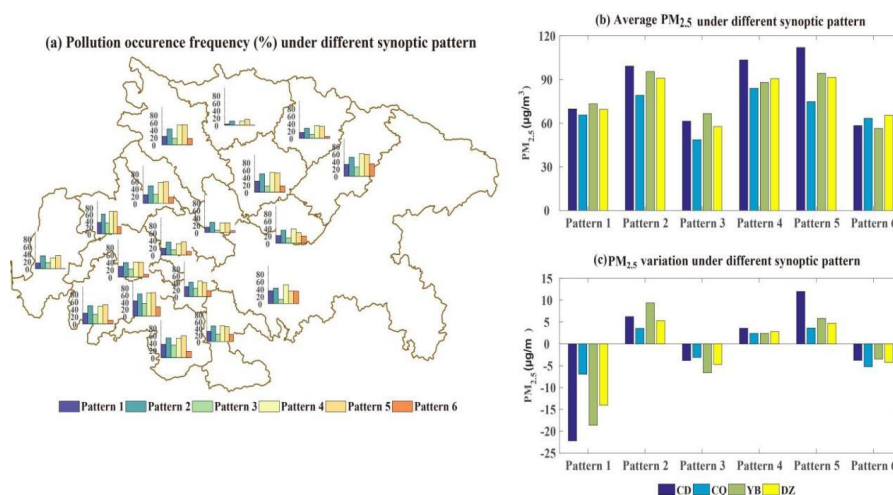


Figure 5. (a) The pollution occurrence frequency at 18 air pollution stations in SCB, (b)(c) average PM_{2.5} concentrations and PM_{2.5} day to day variations at 4 representative SCB cities, under 6 synoptic patterns.

251

252 The time series of PM_{2.5} and the day-to-day classification of 850 hPa synoptic patterns are
253 shown in Fig. 6, from December 2016 to January 2017. Six pollution episodes occurred during
254 this period (December 03–12 and 16–26, 2016; January 1–7, 16–19, and 20–28, 2017; and February
255 14–23). It is evident that pollution episodes consistently began with Pattern 2 and ended with
256 Pattern 1, accompanied by a rapid decline in PM_{2.5}, suggesting that Pattern 2 is the key synoptic
257 forcing for pollution initiation. Statistical results revealed that Pattern 2 accounted for a high
258 proportion of PM_{2.5} increase in the six pollution episodes, reaching 48.48 %, while Pattern 5 had
259 the second highest proportion of 21.88 %, with Patterns 2 and 5 combined accounting for more
260 than 70 %. For example, during the two heavy pollution events that occurred in early and late
261 January 2017, PM_{2.5} rapidly accumulated with the interplay of Patterns 2 and 5. In addition,
262 Patterns 2 and 5 represented a significant proportion of 31.96 % and 12.97 %, respectively (Fig. 4),
263 during winters from 2015 to 2020 over 850 hPa in the SCB. Based on this analysis, Patterns 2, 4,
264 and 5 were identified as synoptic pollution patterns, whereas Patterns 1, 3, and 6 were clean.
265 Patterns 2 and 5 played crucial roles in the initiation and accumulation of PM_{2.5} during pollution
266 episodes.

267 The discussion above showed that pollution in the SCB usually occurred when airflow
268 controlled the upper-layer of the basin (Pattern 2 and 5), while the dispersion of pollutants was



269 accompanied by northerly winds, which is consistent with Lu et al. (2022a). Southerly airflow in
270 the upper-layer could bring warm air, leading to warming above the basin and forming a warm
271 lid. Combined with the surrounding mountains and plateau, a relative enclosed space could be
272 formed in the SCB, resulting in local circulations and allowing for the thorough mixing and
273 secondary reactions of local emission and pollutants transported from outside. As a result,
274 persistent and severe pollution often occurred under the influence of southerly airflow. When the
275 northerly airflow begin to dominate the SCB, the warm lid and local circulation were disrupted,
276 leading to dispersion of pollutants through advection and vertical transport. Additionally,
277 northerly winds are often associated with cold air and sometimes accompanied by weak
278 precipitation, resulting to wet deposition. Therefore, the arrival of northerly airflow often
279 signifies the ending of the pollution episode.

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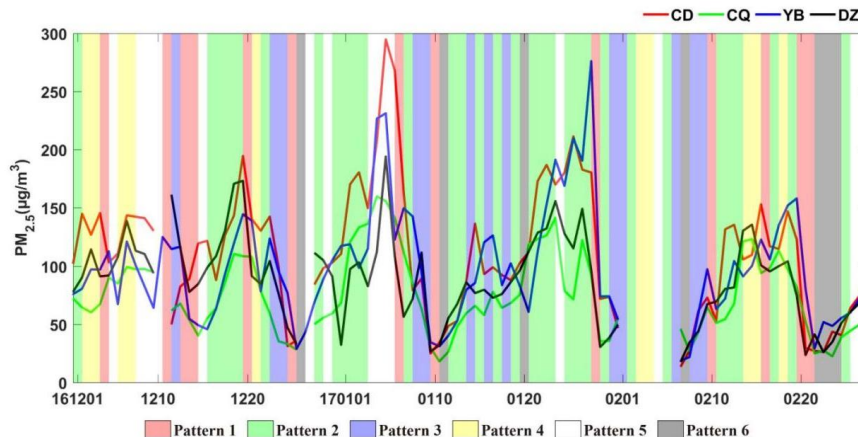


Figure 6. Time series of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations and the day to day 850hPa synoptic patterns at 4 representative SCB cities, taking December 2016 to February 2017 as an example for illustration.

281

282 Because of the convergence of air moving eastward across the Tibetan Plateau, the SCB
283 experiences a high frequency of wet and cloudy weather, with cloud cover fraction exceeding
284 80 % (Yu et al., 2004; Zhang and Lin, 1985). The roles of clouds in the interactions of aerosols,
285 radiation, and the PBL under typical synoptic forcing must be non-negligible in this region. This
286 study evaluated the average cloud liquid water content, downward solar radiation, and PBL under
287 the influence of the six classified synoptic patterns in CD, CQ, DZ, and YB, using data from



288 ERA5 (Fig. 7). Reanalysis data revealed significantly higher cloud liquid water contents with
289 Patterns 2 and 5, likely triggered by robust southerly air prevailing at 850 hPa over the SCB (Fig.
290 4). This southerly air brings warm and moist air, contributing to cloud formation. Dense clouds
291 reduce solar radiation through reflection and scattering, resulting in surface cooling and
292 inhibiting PBL development. The PBL height under Patterns 2 and 5 was approximately
293 900–1000 m, lower than that under the influence of clean synoptic Pattern 1 at 1500 m (Fig. 7). In
294 contrast, the clean synoptic Pattern 1 is characterized by a strong northerly flow at 850 hPa,
295 resulting in lower cloud liquid water content over the basin and increased solar radiation,
296 promoting PBL development. The lower PBL height with more stable stratification caused by the
297 CRI in Patterns 2 and 5 can partially explain the rapid accumulation of $PM_{2.5}$ during these two
298 pollution patterns.
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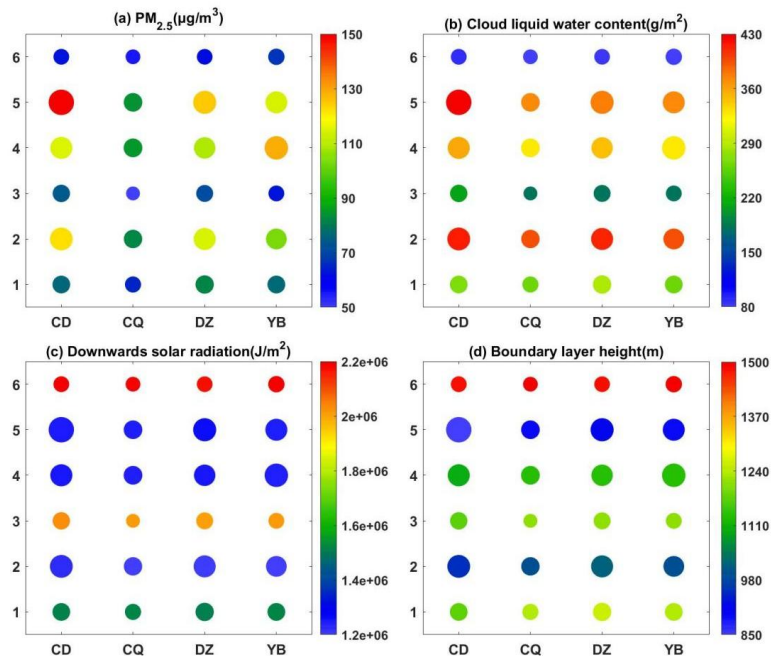


Figure 7. The averaged (a) $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, (b)cloud liquid water contents, (c)downwards solar radiation and (d)boundary layer height derived from 2015-2021 winter months ERA5 reanalysis data, at 4 representative SCB cities under 6 synoptic patterns, the dot sizes represent $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations.



301 **3.2 Integrate impacts of synoptic patterns and the CRI inhibition on ARI**

302 Based on the above analysis, Patterns 2 and 5 were identified as the key pollution synoptic
303 patterns accompanying dense clouds and, thus, CRI. However, the effects of pollution patterns on
304 ARI and their interaction with CRI in the SCB remain unclear and warrant further investigation.
305 A typical pollution episode from January 1–7, 2017, was selected to understand these complex
306 processes and simulated using WRF–Chem. The BASE simulations were verified with
307 observations to determine the accuracy and reliability of the simulation results. The simulated $PM_{2.5}$,
308 T_2 , and TD_2 values at the four representative stations from January 1–7 are shown in Fig. 8. The
309 evaluation demonstrated that the simulation captured changes in relevant elements in the SCB,
310 representing variations in $PM_{2.5}$ and meteorological conditions. In addition, the vertical profiles of
311 potential temperature and relative humidity in the model were compared with the sounding data
312 from the SCB (Fig. 9). The simulation aligned well with the sounding observations, reflecting upper
313 air warming and PBL humidification during the accumulation process of $PM_{2.5}$, as well as upper
314 air cooling with PBL drying during the dissipation process of $PM_{2.5}$. Differences between
315 simulation and observation in surface wind could be predictable in case of low wind and complex
316 terrain. In addition, this could also be attributed to the negligence of WRF model in considering the
317 atmospheric drag to that generated by vegetation produced by the unresolved topographic features
318 (Zhan et al., 2023). As for the vertical wind profile, simulation results could capture the shift in winds
319 and reproduce the height-time patterns in whole despite some differences. For the verification of PBL
320 height, sounding data are commonly regarded as reliable vertical observation and PBL height can be
321 calculated based on sounding data, however the low temporal resolution of sounding data made it not
322 suitable to be adopted to compared with refined variations of PBL height in this study. Besides, PBL
323 height derived from ERA5 shows good consistency with sounding data in the SCB based on
324 long-term validation(Guo et al., 2016). As a result, PBL height derived from the ERA5 has been
325 added in Figure 9(a)-(d) to verify the simulations in Figure 9(e)-(h). The certain values of PBL height
326 simulations differed from ERA5 data, but the magnitudes and change trends aligned well. Overall,
327 although discrepancies existed, the simulation generally reproduced the observations of both
328 pollutants and meteorological factors during this pollution episode, providing a reliable basis for
329 subsequent analysis.

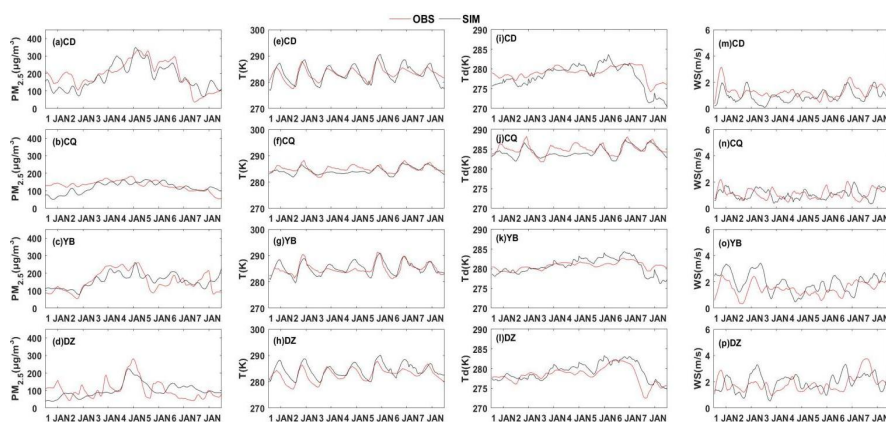


Figure 8. Time series of simulated and observed (a)-(d)PM_{2.5} concentration, (e)-(h)temperature at 2m, (i)-(l) dew temperature at 2m and (m)-(p)wind speed at 4 representative SCB cities during 1-7 January 2017.

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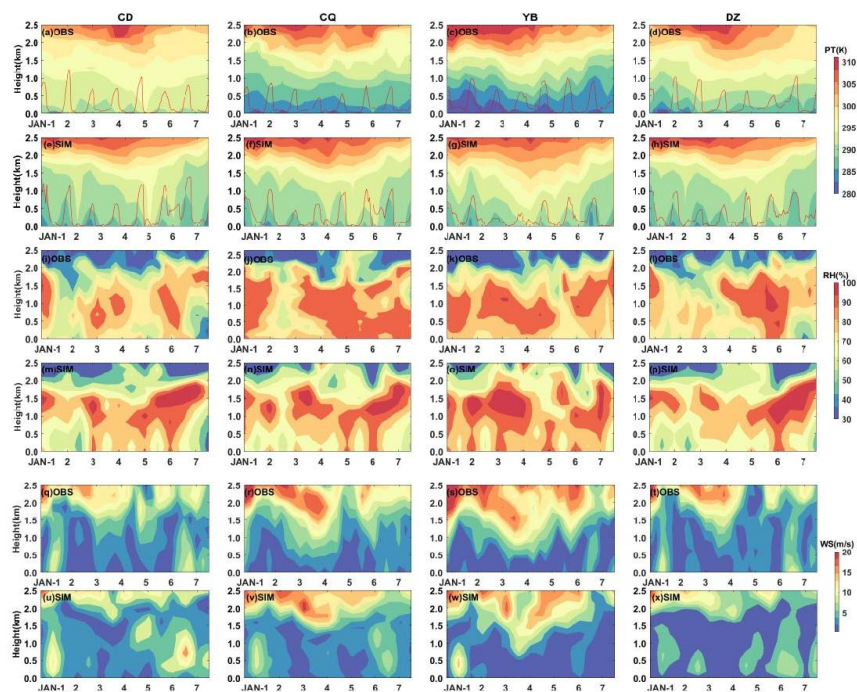


Figure 9. Simulated and observed time-height sections of (a)-(h) potential temperature, (i)-(p)relative humidity and (q)-(x)wind speed at 4 representative SCB cities during 1-7 January 2017. The red lines in (e)-(h) are time series the boundary layer heights derived from simulation.

331



332 During the pollution episode from January 1–7, 2017, the pollution synoptic pattern controlled
333 the SCB on January 1–6, with Pattern 2 on January 1–3, Pattern 5 on January 4–6, and Pattern 1
334 on January 7 (Fig. 6). Consequently, $PM_{2.5}$ pollution in the SCB occurred on January 1–6 and
335 rapidly dissipated on January 7 (Fig. 8). The mean geopotential height at 850 hPa derived from
336 the simulation of January 1–3 under Pattern 2 showed EHWL, with southerly flow prevailing
337 over the SCB (Fig. 10a). The resulting upper air warming suppressed PBL development (Fig. 9).
338 During January 1–3 under Pattern 2, the average PBL heights were lower (Fig. 11a), acting as a lid
339 above the SCB and hindering the airflow within the basin due to the surrounding mountains. Low
340 wind speeds provided adverse diffusion conditions for pollutants emitted into the basin, resulting
341 in severe pollution in the western and southern SCB (Fig. 11d). As for January 4–6, the low
342 pressure over the SCB evolved into an LT pattern, termed Pattern 5 in the previous analysis.
343 Compared with Pattern 2, the isobaric lines were denser under the influence of the LT, leading to
344 stronger southerly winds above the SCB (Fig. 10a–b). Lower average PBL heights appeared
345 during January 4–6 under Pattern 5 compared with those of January 1–3 under Pattern 2 (Fig.
346 11a–b), which is attributed to stronger upper air warming and more stable stratification (Fig.
347 9a–h). The pollutants accumulated during January 4–6 from the pollution episode that began on
348 January 1–3 (Fig. 11d–e). On January 7, high pressure in the north dominated the SCB with a
349 prevailing northerly flow over the basin (Fig. 10c). The PBL height quickly increased due to
350 upper layer cold advection (Fig. 11c), resulting in a rapid decrease in $PM_{2.5}$ (Fig. 11f). Overall,
351 synoptic patterns played a key role in the accumulation and diffusion of $PM_{2.5}$ during pollution
352 episodes by modulating PBL development and stratification stability.

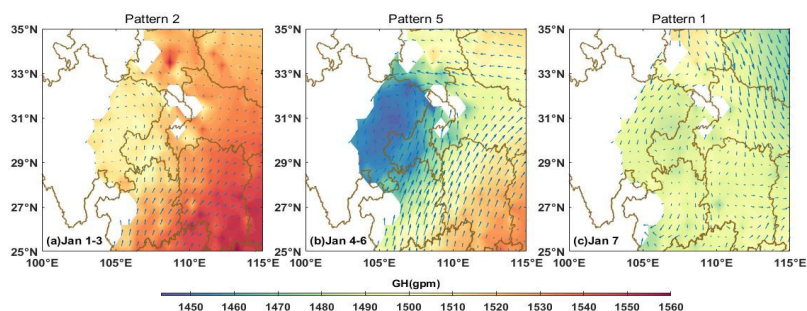


Figure 10. The 850hPa geopotential height field(shading) with wind vector fields(blue vectors) on (a)1-3 , (b)4-6 and (c)7 January, representing 3 typical synoptic patterns in the SCB respectively.

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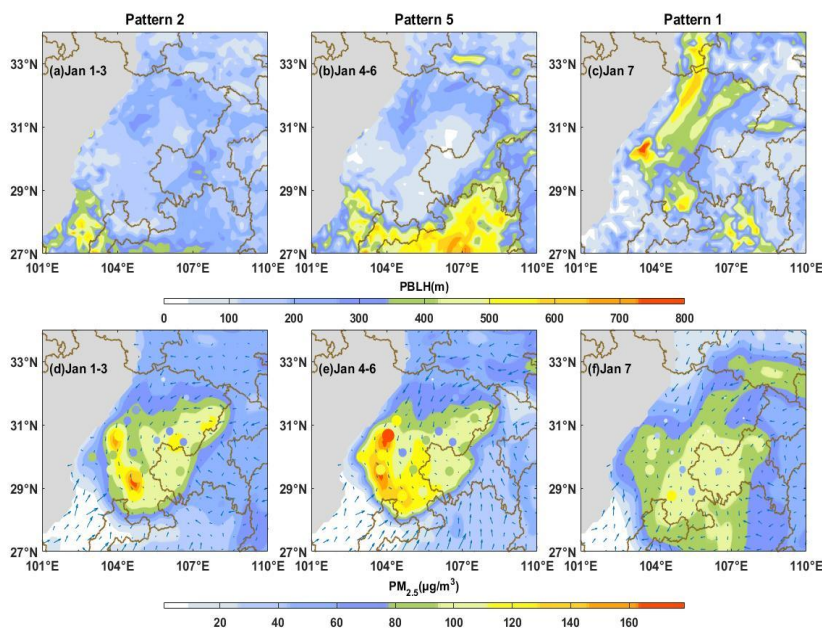


Figure 11. The simulated (a)-(c)boundary layer height and (d)-(f)PM_{2.5} concentrations(shading) and wind vector fields at 900hPa(blue vectors) for 1-3, 4-6 and 7January. The size and color of scatters in (d)-(f) show corresponding observed PM_{2.5} concentrations at 18 air quality monitoring stations.

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Pollutant accumulation can regulate the PBL structure through the ARI, further exacerbating pollution (Wang et al., 2018; Miao et al., 2020). In the SCB, this positive feedback is weaker than in the other regions and may be inhibited by cloud radiation (Zhong et al., 2018). A series of



358 simulation experiments were conducted to examine the aerosol radiation feedback in the SCB
 359 under the influence of two typical synoptic pollution patterns, as described in Section 2.4.
 360 BASE-EXP1 represents the perturbations caused by ARI, whereas EXP2-EXP3 demonstrates
 361 changes through ARI without CRI inhibition. Aerosols lead to surface cooling through absorbing
 362 and scattering solar radiation, thereby inhibiting the development of the PBL, which in turn
 363 facilitates pollutant accumulation (Fig. 12). Compared with Pattern 2, the aerosol concentrations
 364 in Pattern 5 were higher, resulting in greater reduction of downward solar radiation reduction due
 365 to ARI, leading to more pronounced cooling near the ground and a lower boundary layer height.
 366 Overall, the ARI in Pattern 5 was more significant than that in Pattern 2, regardless of CRI
 367 inhibition (Fig. 12).

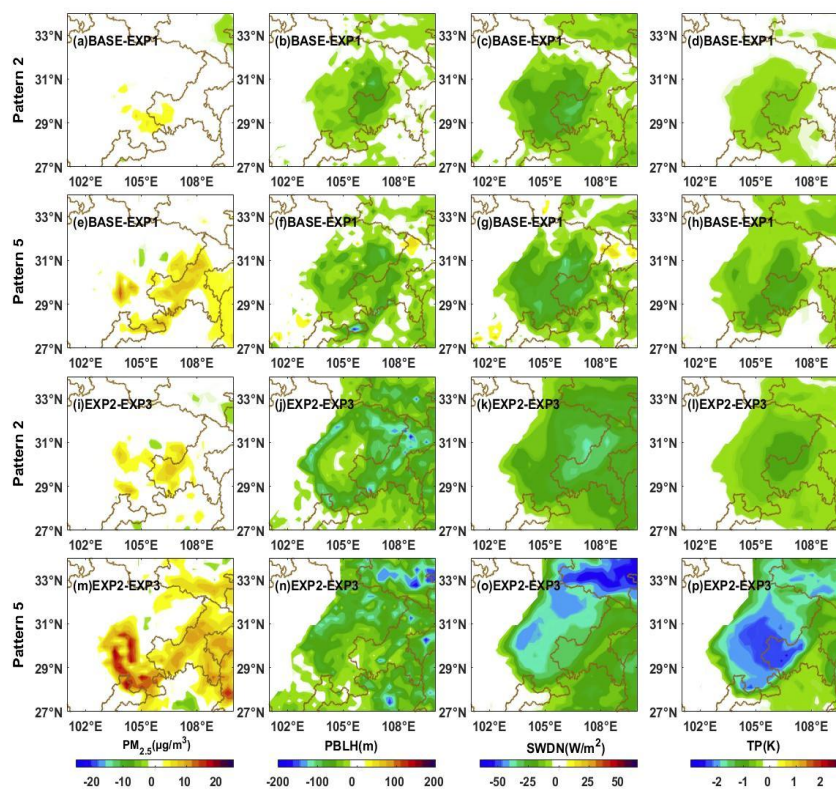


Figure 12. Spatial distribution of perturbations induced by (a)-(h) aerosol radiation interactions(ARI), and (i)-(p) ARI without the cloud radiation interaction(CRI) inhibition during 1-3 and 4-6 January representing Pattern 2 and Pattern 5 synoptic forcing, respectively.



369 Furthermore, results from parallel simulation experiments showed that the CRI significantly
370 attenuated the ARI in the SCB under both pollution synoptic patterns. When the CRI is not
371 considered, more solar radiation entered the PBL. Dense aerosols accumulating near the surface
372 intercepted more downward shortwave radiation, resulting in stronger cooling near the ground
373 and suppressing PBL development, contributing to a more remarkable ARI (Fig. 12). For the
374 horizontal spatial distribution, a strong ARI was primarily observed in Chongqing, as well as the
375 western and southern SCB, despite Chongqing experiencing lower pollutant concentrations than
376 the other two regions (Figs. 8 and 11). This weaker ARI phenomenon in the western SCB was
377 also reported by Zhong et al. (2019) and attributed to CRI inhibition of ARI. Considering the
378 statistical results in Fig. 7, the average cloud liquid water contents in CD and YB were
379 significantly higher than that in CQ under the influence of Patterns 2 and 5. Therefore, a more
380 remarkable CRI inhibition would occur on the ARI in the western and southern SCB compared
381 with CQ, leading to a relatively weaker ARI distribution in the region. Without considering the
382 CRI, the ARI in the western and southern SCB would be much more pronounced than that in the
383 CQ.

384 Using the western SCB, which exhibited the highest pollution concentration, as an example, Fig.
385 13 illustrates the vertical diurnal variations in temperature and solar radiation caused by the ARI.
386 The results in Fig. 13 and 14 were derived from the simulation experiments in CD, as CD is one
387 of the most polluted cities with typical meteorological and geographical characteristics of the western
388 SCB. The ARI caused morning surface cooling and afternoon upper-air warming. As the local
389 solar radiation increased from 8 am to 12 pm, the decrease in solar radiation caused by the ARI
390 also increased, with surface cooling reaching its peak at approximately 10 am to 12 pm,
391 gradually weakening in the afternoon. Wang et al. (2018) suggested that this was due to
392 enhanced turbulence during morning PBL evolution. Afternoon surface cooling was partly
393 compensated by the turbulent transport of warm air above the PBL. In addition, strong surface
394 cooling between 5 pm and 8 pm in the SCB, is possibly influenced by remarkable valley wind
395 circulations forced by the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau adjacent to the western SCB (Lu et al., 2022b).
396 The evening cooling of the plateau induces strong mountain winds, promoting surface cooling,
397 while the upper-layer warming mainly occurs around 1–1.5 km in the afternoon. In general, the
398 ARI reduces solar radiation, causing surface cooling and upper air warming, thereby regulating



399 the vertical atmospheric thermal structure, suppressing convection, and consequently decreasing
 400 PBL heights (Fig. 14).

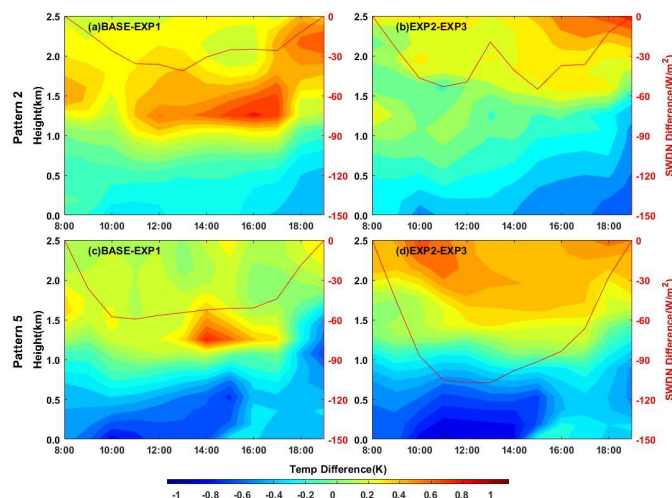


Figure 13. Diurnal variations of vertical temperature perturbations and downward solar radiation under influences of Pattern 2 and Pattern 5 induced by (a)(c)ARI and (b)(d)ARI without CRI inhibition.

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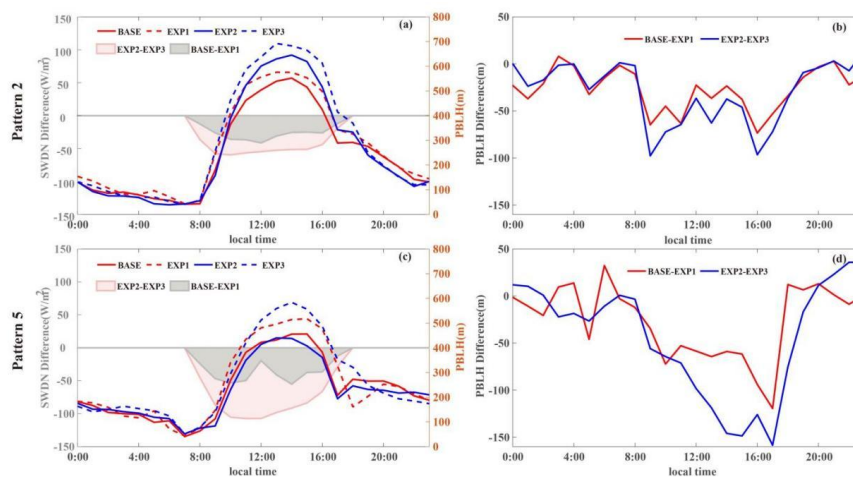


Figure 14. Diurnal variations of (a)(c)boundary layer height(lines) and downward solar radiation(shading), and (b)(d)the perturbations of boundary layer height induced by ARI and ARI without CRI inhibition, under Pattern 2 and Pattern 5 synoptic forcing respectively.

402



403 Synoptic patterns play a role in the interaction between the ARI and PBL (Wang et al., 2018;
404 Miao et al., 2020). In the SCB, Pattern 5 suffered from denser aerosols due to the LT of Pattern 5
405 evolving from the low-pressure system in Pattern 2, and the accumulation of pollutants in Pattern
406 5 was based on Pattern 2 (Figs. 8 and 11). Denser aerosols under Pattern 5 caused a greater
407 reduction in solar radiation, resulting in stronger surface cooling. During January 4–6, surface
408 cooling reached 1 K, with cooling layers higher than those observed on January 1–3. The
409 differences in thermal structure modulations contributed to a lower diurnal PBL height in Pattern
410 5 than in Pattern 2 (Figs. 14a and c), indicating that Pattern 5 was more favorable for ARI. Based
411 on the simulation experiments, this study further discusses the impact of synoptic forcing on the
412 CRI inhibition of ARI. When the CRI was not considered, the solar radiation reduction at noon
413 on January 4–6 by the ARI was nearly twice as high as when the CRI was considered.
414 Correspondingly, surface cooling at noon was remarkably enhanced. In the evening, surface
415 cooling occurred earlier and was stronger without the CRI (Fig. 13). The regulation of CRI on
416 ARI was further reflected in changes in PBL height. Without the CRI, the diurnal PBL height
417 increased significantly, with the PBL height decreased more with ARI without CRI inhibition.
418 The PBL heights were decreased by the ARI during January 13–17 afternoon, reaching 2–3 times
419 the decrease observed with CRI inhibition (Fig. 14). More significant CRI inhibition of ARI was
420 revealed under Pattern 5 compared with that under Pattern 2, owing to the stronger ARI itself with
421 higher aerosol concentrations in Pattern 5 and the more apparent CRI inhibition with denser cloud
422 liquid water contents under the LT pattern (Fig. 7). Therefore, the intensity of CRI inhibition of
423 ARI in the SCB was altered by synoptic forcing, with stronger effects under the influence of LT.

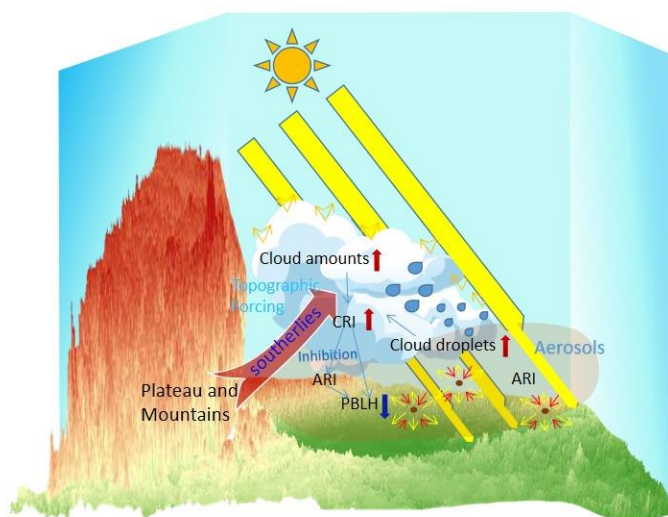


Figure 15. The Synergetic interactions of cloud, aerosol and radiation under the influence of cloudy pollution synoptic forcing.

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4

425 **4 Conclusion**

426 This study conducted synoptic classification and numerical simulation to understand the
427 combined effects of synoptic patterns and CRI inhibition on ARI and PBL structures in the wet
428 and cloudy SCB. On the basis of long-term $PM_{2.5}$ observations and sounding data in the SCB,
429 large-scale synoptic circulations on 850 hPa were indicated to play key roles in variations of
430 $PM_{2.5}$ pollution. Synoptic classification was conducted with the T-PCA method, revealing that
431 Pattern 2 and 5 characterized with low pressure system and southerly airflow on 850 hPa were
432 key synoptic patterns for onset and accumulation of $PM_{2.5}$, while Pattern 1 controlled by the
433 northerly airflow represented a clean pattern associated with significant decrease in $PM_{2.5}$.
434 Moreover, denser cloud liquid water content and resulting stronger CRI could be found under
435 Pattern 2 and 5. The highest cloud liquid water content and CRI appeared in Pattern 5, due to the
436 robust southerly airflow induced by the dense isobaric lines, bringing warm and humid air
437 masses and facilitating the conversion of aerosols to cloud/fog droplets.

438 To illustrate the interactions among cloud, aerosol and PBL under the pollution synoptic
439 patterns, a pollution episode on January 1-7 of 2017 was simulated with using WRF-Chem. The



440 results showed that solar radiation was remarkably reduced by the ARI during the two pollution
441 patterns, leading to morning surface cooling and afternoon upper-air warming. The enhanced
442 evening surface cooling was impacted by the mountain–valley wind circulations forced by the
443 plateau–basin topography of the SCB. This modulation in the vertical thermal structure by the
444 ARI would then suppress the development of the PBL and favor pollution outbreaks (Fig. 15).
445 Besides, the parallel simulation experiments also indicated that CRI impacted stratification
446 stability and modulated the vertical thermal structure through its inhibition of the ARI (Fig. 15).
447 For the spatial distribution, a stronger ARI appeared in Chongqing, despite lower $PM_{2.5}$
448 concentrations than in the western and southern SCB, because of the lower cloud liquid water
449 content and weaker CRI inhibition of ARI in Chongqing. Without considering CRI inhibition, the
450 ARI in the western and southern SCB was significantly stronger than that in Chongqing. In
451 addition, the reduction in solar radiation and PBL height during daytime due to ARI could be
452 more than doubled when neglecting the CRI influence under Pattern 5, primarily due to the higher
453 aerosol concentrations and cloud liquid water contents with a low trough. This study revealed the
454 interaction of multi–scale atmospheric physical processes in the SCB, considering its complex
455 terrain and foggy/cloudy climate. The findings shed light on the interactions among aerosols,
456 clouds, and PBL under different synoptic patterns and emphasize the significant role of CRI
457 inhibition on ARI during wet and cloudy conditions.

458 **Author contributions.** HL and MX had the original idea for the study, designed the experiments,
459 conducted the numerical simulation and prepared the initial draft manuscript. BL, YZ and KZ
460 collected the data. TW and BZ helped perform the analysis with constructive discussions, reviewed
461 and edited the manuscript. HL, MX, TW and BL acquired financial support for the project leading to
462 this publication. SL and ML reviewed the manuscript.

463 **Competing Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

464 **Data Available Statement**

465 The ERA5 pressure layer and single layer data can be respectively downloaded from
466 <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels> and
467 <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-single-levels?tab=form>. The
468 NCEP FNL data are available at <https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2/>. The MEIC data can be



469 accessed in Zheng et al(2018) at <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-18-14095-2018>. Air quality and
470 meteorological monitoring data can be acquired from <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/USX59F>.

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