



Cross-regional NO₂ transport over the Tibetan Plateau (2005–2024): Bidirectional flux dynamics, seasonal drivers, and environmental implications

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Abstract:

Tropospheric NO₂ over the Tibetan Plateau (TP) reflects the combined influence of local emissions and long-range transport. We characterize the spatiotemporal variability of tropospheric NO₂ columns, surface concentrations, and transport boundary fluxes during 2005–2024 by integrating OMI and TROPOMI satellite data, ground-based observations (CNEMC), and flux diagnostics based on a closed-loop integral method. The TP shows a marked spatial gradient in tropospheric NO₂ columns, with overall levels substantially lower than those over South Asia. During the study period, NO₂ in urban areas of the plateau increased, with the most pronounced rises observed in Lhasa and Qamdo. Flux analysis shows that tropospheric NO₂ transport over the TP is quasi-symmetric across segments, manifesting as a bidirectional transport structure, with external influx dominating the southwestern segment and internal efflux toward the northeastern segment. The northeastern segment shows both a higher net flux and more rapid increases in internal efflux and external influx relative to the southwestern segment, highlighting its growing contribution to eastern China. Random forest (RF) and SHAP analyses reveal distinct dynamical controls, with winter–spring transport dominated by the upper-level westerly jet (200–400 hPa) and summer external influx primarily linked to the Indian summer monsoon (450–550 hPa). Overall, this study emphasizes the important role of the TP in cross-regional nitrogen oxide transport and provides a reference for understanding its potential impacts on regional air quality and environmental conditions.



1 Introduction

Nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) is a core component of nitrogen oxides ($\text{NO}_x = \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$) and one of the most widely concerned atmospheric pollutants globally (Han et al., 2020; Albertin et al., 2024). As a typical photochemically active gas, NO_2 has a lifetime of only a few hours to several days, yet its reaction chains are highly efficient and complex (De Foy et al., 2015; Liu and Shi, 2021). From a health perspective, NO_2 can irritate the respiratory tract and increase the risk of asthma, cardiovascular diseases, and other conditions, and has therefore been classified by the World Health Organization as a major environmental health hazard (Erickson et al., 2020; World Health Organization, 2021, 2024). In atmospheric chemistry, NO_2 serves both as a precursor of ozone (O_3) and secondary particulate matter ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$), and as a key species in hydroxyl radical (OH) cycling, thereby profoundly influencing atmospheric oxidizing capacity and regional air quality (Atkinson, 2000; Lu et al., 2019). Its emission, transformation, and transport processes are closely linked to the active nitrogen cycle, making it an important entry point for understanding human perturbations to biogeochemical cycles. Fossil fuel combustion (vehicle exhaust, coal-fired power plants, industrial boilers), biomass burning, and certain agricultural and soil processes are the major sources of NO_2 (Barten et al., 2020; Chi et al., 2021). Meanwhile, under the influence of atmospheric transport, NO_2 and its precursors can undergo long-range regional and even transboundary transport, and by promoting ozone and secondary particulate matter formation, they indirectly affect air quality and human health in distant regions (Ma et al., 2019; Qi et al., 2023).

As the "Roof of the World," the TP has an average elevation exceeding 3,000 m, and its harsh climate and complex geographic conditions severely constrain the construction and operation of ground-based observational networks (Şerban et al., 2024; Yu et al., 2025). According to the latest deployment by the China National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC, <http://www.cnemc.cn/en/>, last access: 4 November 2025), only a few dozen monitoring sites are currently operated in TP. Taking Tibet as an example, with six located in Lhasa and two in each of the other cities, primarily distributed across urban areas, universities, and hospitals (see Fig. 1 and Table 1). Although some research teams have locally added monitoring sites, the limited spatial coverage and site density still result in substantial constraints on systematic assessment of the atmospheric environment over the TP. Previous studies largely relied on the limited ground-based monitoring or field sampling to analyze regional pollutants (Cong et al., 2015; Nieberding et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2021). In recent years, the development of satellite observations (such as OMI and TROPOMI) and reanalysis models has provided reliable data support for studies of the global-scale distribution and cross-regional transport of atmospheric pollutants, significantly complementing the limitations of ground observations. An increasing number of studies have used these data to analyze the spatiotemporal evolution of pollutants over the TP and surrounding regions, and, in combination with ground-based monitoring or model simulations, to further assess their cross-regional transport (Wei et al., 2022; Pan et al., 2024).

Building on these advances, NO_2 has emerged as a particularly informative diagnostic species for understanding atmospheric processes over the TP. As a reactive trace gas, its spatial patterns are shaped by the coupled influences of emissions, chemical transformation, and large-scale circulation. Consistent with the region's sparse anthropogenic activity and strong ventilation, observed NO_2 concentrations over the TP are substantially lower than those in East and South Asia. However, recent satellite and model evidence suggests that this low- NO_2 regime does not solely reflect a pristine background. Instead, it results from the combined influence of weak but



1 non-negligible local emissions and episodic cross-border inputs, highlighting the sensitivity of TP
 2 to both local activities and regional transport (Wang et al., 2024). Local emissions are generally
 3 limited across the TP, particularly in its western and northern sectors where populations and
 4 industrial activities are minimal. In contrast, cities such as Lhasa, Chamdo, and Shigatse exhibit
 5 discernible anthropogenic signals linked to economic development, traffic growth, winter heating,
 6 and seasonally intensified tourism (Duo et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2023). Yet the more
 7 consequential driver of atmospheric variability is the unique position over TP at the intersection of
 8 South Asian monsoon flows and mid-latitude westerlies. These large-scale circulations can
 9 transport substantial amounts of reactive nitrogen from surrounding source regions to the high
 10 terrain, influencing the regional oxidizing environment and enhancing nitrogen deposition (Liu et
 11 al., 2015; Wang et al., 2020). Such enhanced nitrogen inputs have broader implications beyond
 12 atmospheric chemistry. They may alter the biogeochemical functioning of high-elevation
 13 ecosystems by accelerating soil acidification, disrupting nutrient stoichiometry, and shifting the
 14 carbon–nitrogen balance in alpine grasslands and wetlands that are typically nitrogen-limited
 15 (Zong et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2025). Perturbations to the oxidizing capacity of the overlying
 16 atmosphere also modulate photochemical pathways and secondary aerosol formation, with
 17 potential consequences for radiative balance and cryospheric processes such as snow albedo (Li et
 18 al., 2021; Usha et al., 2022). In parallel, growing epidemiological evidence links NO₂ exposure to
 19 adverse health outcomes, reinforcing the importance of understanding its spatial and temporal
 20 variability (Kasdagli et al., 2024; Sell et al., 2025). Collectively, these lines of evidence suggest
 21 that characterizing NO₂ over the TP is central not only to constraining regional atmospheric
 22 chemistry and transboundary transport, but also to assessing ecosystem resilience and human–
 23 environmental vulnerability in this climatically sensitive region.

24 Under previous studies quantifying CO transboundary fluxes using the closed-loop
 25 integration method, the TP exhibited characteristics of unidirectional accumulation accompanied
 26 by eastward transport (Sun et al., 2025). If NO₂ exhibits similar characteristics, its accumulation
 27 and potential export would extend its environmental and health impacts beyond the local scale,
 28 implying that the TP may play a more active and complex role in transboundary pollution
 29 transport than previously expected. Therefore, the study of NO₂ over the TP is not only relevant to
 30 regional air quality and ecological effects but also crucial for revealing how large-scale circulation
 31 shapes the transboundary transport patterns of pollutants. This unique geographical and dynamical
 32 setting makes it a key junction receiving emissions from South Asia and coupling with the East
 33 Asian atmospheric environment. Although NO₂ levels in eastern China are closely linked to high
 34 local emissions, transboundary inputs and redistribution over the TP may still indirectly influence
 35 regional air quality and human exposure patterns through large-scale circulation. To ensure the
 36 robustness of results and comparability across pollutants, this study continues the quantitative
 37 framework previously applied to CO fluxes, using the closed-loop integration method combined
 38 with trend regression models to estimate NO₂ transport fluxes over the TP. Based on this, we
 39 utilized OMI satellite-retrieved NO₂ products covering 2005–2024, combined with ERA5 and
 40 GEOS-CF data, to construct a long-term time series of NO₂ transport fluxes over the TP, analyzing
 41 its transboundary inputs, potential export, and the altitude-dependent effects of winds on NO₂
 42 transport, while simultaneously emphasizing the role of circulation at different levels in shaping
 43 transport pathways over the TP.



2 Data and methods

2.1 Dataset description

The Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) is a nadir-viewing spectrometer onboard NASA's Aura satellite, launched in July 2004, designed to measure backscattered solar radiation in the ultraviolet–visible spectral range (270–500 nm). The nadir spatial resolution of the observations is $13 \times 24 \text{ km}^2$, with an overpass time of approximately 13:45 local time (Levelt et al., 2006). This study employs the Level-3 OMNO2d dataset (NO_2 cloud-screened total column and tropospheric column, version 3) at a resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$, covering the period from 2005 to 2024. The product groups and averages high-quality pixel-level retrievals onto fixed grids, retaining only observations with cloud fraction below 30% to ensure retrieval accuracy. Since 2007, OMI has been affected by the “row anomaly,” which intensified after 2010, resulting in substantial pixel loss (Lamsal et al., 2021). To mitigate sampling bias and enhance spatiotemporal representativeness, the quality-assured retrievals were aggregated into monthly means on a $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grid, thereby reducing random noise and ensuring the temporal continuity of the dataset.

The Tropospheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI), launched aboard the European Space Agency's Sentinel-5P satellite in October 2017, employs a push-broom imaging technique to capture sunlight scattered by the Earth's atmosphere across four spectral ranges: ultraviolet (UV), ultraviolet–visible (UV–VIS), near-infrared (NIR), and shortwave infrared (SWIR). The instrument provides near-daily global coverage with a native spatial resolution of approximately $3.5 \times 5.5 \text{ km}^2$ and a local overpass time around 13:30 LT. Tropospheric NO_2 column densities are retrieved from solar backscattered radiance within the 405–465 nm interval of the UV–VIS band. In this study, the data were regridded onto a $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grid, and only retrievals with a quality assurance (qa_value) greater than 0.75 were retained to ensure accuracy. Considering the substantial improvements in retrieval algorithms and calibration after the early operation phase, TROPOMI data from 2019 to 2024 are used.

Meteorological fields were obtained from the ERA5 global reanalysis dataset, produced by ECMWF under the Copernicus Climate Change Service (Hersbach et al., 2020). ERA5 represents a major advancement over ERA-Interim, featuring hourly temporal resolution, $\sim 0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ horizontal resolution, and full atmospheric coverage via numerous vertical levels. In this study we used the period of 2005 to 2024, selecting monthly mean data at pressure levels calculated from hourly analyses corresponding to the overpass times of the OMI satellite. Key variables selected include horizontal wind components (u , v), vertical velocity (w) and temperature (T).

NO_x emission data are derived from the EDGAR v8.1 annual inventory, which is maintained by the Joint Research Centre (JRC) of the European Commission. The database is constructed on the basis of international statistical information and national emission inventory compilation rules. Following international guidelines for greenhouse gas inventories and pollutant emission accounting methodologies, it provides a systematic integration and annual estimation of global anthropogenic emission sources (Madrado et al., 2018; Crippa et al., 2024). As one of the most widely used anthropogenic emission inventories worldwide, EDGAR offers long-term, continuous, and comparable emission estimates for multiple atmospheric pollutants. In addition to nitrogen oxides (NO_x), its coverage also includes carbon monoxide (CO), non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOC), ammonia (NH_3), sulfur dioxide (SO_2), and black carbon (BC), with emission sources spanning the energy, industry, agriculture, transportation, and biomass burning sectors (Upadhyay et al., 2020). The dataset has a spatial resolution of $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$, enabling



1 analyses of atmospheric pollution evolution at the regional scale. In this study, annual NO_x
 2 emission data for the period 2005–2024 are selected, with a particular focus on emission changes
 3 in South Asia and the TP.

4 **2.2 Methodology**

5 Fig.2 presents a schematic overview of the analytical workflow, which encompasses the
 6 calculation of transport fluxes, the correction of ERA5 wind fields, and a diagnostic analysis using
 7 a Random Forest (RF) model to assess how circulation variations at different altitudes regulate
 8 NO_2 transport into the TP. Details of the RF model configuration and interpretation are provided in
 9 a dedicated section below. The closed-loop integral method for flux computation (schematically
 10 illustrated in Fig. S1), the regression model for trend analysis, and the procedures for wind-field
 11 correction and uncertainty assessment follow the framework established in our previous study on
 12 CO transport over the TP (Sun et al., 2025) and are fully documented in the Supplementary
 13 Material. Fluxes calculated over Tibet, which encompass the core areas of TP, provide
 14 representative insights for plateau-scale NO_2 transport.

15 **2.2.1 Random Forest model**

16 The transport processes from South Asia constitute the major external input pathway of
 17 boundary-layer NO_2 and its precursors to the TP. This cross-border transport exhibits significant
 18 differences across pressure levels, with mid-to-upper tropospheric winds potentially playing a key
 19 role in long-range transport. To further clarify the influence of u/v winds at different altitudinal
 20 layers on NO_2 transport fluxes over the TP, we employed a RF regression model, a robust
 21 non-linear ensemble learning method capable of capturing complex interactions among multilayer
 22 meteorological predictors (Breiman, 2001). RF has previously been used successfully in air
 23 quality and long-range transport studies to quantify the contributions of multiple atmospheric
 24 drivers (Kaminska, 2019; Yin et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2023). Here, the predictor variables were
 25 monthly u/v wind components from 150 to 1000 hPa (22 layers, with 50 hPa vertical resolution
 26 between 150–900 hPa and 25 hPa between 900–1000 hPa) extracted by ERA5, with zonal winds
 27 (u) representing the subtropical westerly jet and meridional winds (v) representing the South Asian
 28 monsoon. The response variable was the contemporaneous NO_2 transport flux into the
 29 southwestern TP. To ensure strict temporal and spatial consistency, all wind and flux data were
 30 aligned on a monthly basis.

31 The RF model consists of hundreds of independent regression trees, built using the bagging
 32 strategy that randomly resamples both samples and features to generate sub-models, while
 33 selecting the optimal splitting variable at each node. This ensemble approach effectively reduces
 34 variance and mitigates overfitting (Breiman, 2001). The dataset was randomly divided into a
 35 training set (70%) and a testing set (30%), with the former used for model fitting and the latter for
 36 independent validation on unseen data. For hyperparameter selection, we referred to existing
 37 studies and applied a systematic tuning procedure using GridSearchCV with five-fold
 38 cross-validation (Vu et al., 2019; Shi et al., 2021). The tuning parameters included the number of
 39 base learners ($n_{\text{estimators}}$), maximum tree depth (max_depth), minimum number of samples
 40 required for node splitting (min_samples_split), minimum number of samples required at leaf
 41 nodes (min_samples_leaf), and the number of features considered at each split (max_features).
 42 The final hyperparameters are listed in Table S1, with the full tuning workflow described in



1 Section S2.

2 On this basis, we employed the SHAP method to interpret the contribution of wind speed
 3 features. SHAP, grounded in the Shapley value principle from cooperative game theory, enables
 4 quantification of the marginal impact of individual features on prediction outcomes within a
 5 nonlinear model framework, and reveals the mechanisms by which different wind layers operate
 6 under varying temporal and spatial conditions (Lundberg and Lee, 2017). Unlike global feature
 7 importance metrics, SHAP values decompose each individual prediction, allowing identification
 8 of primary driving factors as well as interactions between features (Lundberg et al., 2020; Keller et
 9 al., 2021). Accordingly, SHAP provides an interpretable and quantitative basis for the dynamical
 10 regulation of cross-regional transport, enabling intuitive visualization of the enhancing or
 11 weakening effects of different wind layers on NO₂ fluxes.

12 2.2.2 Back-trajectories and potential source contribution function (PSCF)

13 Backward trajectories of near-surface air masses were simulated for seven prefecture-level
 14 cities on the TP to investigate potential source regions. To provide a representative analysis, we
 15 focused on a 5-year period (2018–2023) for trajectory simulations. Trajectories were examined for
 16 two dominant circulation regimes, the summer monsoon (June–September) and the winter
 17 westerly (December–April), traced backward for 48 hours at hourly intervals using GDAS1 (1° ×
 18 1°) meteorological data. The Potential Source Contribution Function (PSCF) was then applied to
 19 identify potential source regions contributing to high pollutant concentrations at receptor sites. For
 20 each trajectory, the residence time within each grid cell was calculated. $n_{i,j}$ denotes the total
 21 residence time of all trajectories in grid cell (i,j) , while $m_{i,j}$ represents the residence time
 22 corresponding to pollutant concentrations exceeding the 75th percentile. The PSCF value is
 23 defined as:

$$24 \quad PSCF_{i,j} = \frac{m_{i,j}}{n_{i,j}} \quad (1)$$

25 which quantifies the conditional probability that air parcels passing through grid cell (i,j)
 26 are associated with high concentrations at the receptor (Perrone et al., 2018).

27 To reduce uncertainty in cells with low residence times, an empirical weighting function was
 28 applied following previous work (Polissar et al., 2001; Vratolis et al., 2023). Weighting factors of
 29 0.25, 0.5, and 0.75 were assigned to cells with total residence times below the 25th, 50th, and 75th
 30 percentiles, respectively, thereby enhancing the statistical robustness of the PSCF results.

31 3. Results and discussion

32 3.1 Variability of NO₂ flux over the TP

33 Based on the methodology described in Section 2, NO₂ fluxes along the TP loop region were
 34 calculated for 2005–2024 and divided into four seasons: winter (December–February),
 35 pre-monsoon (March–May), monsoon (June–September), and post-monsoon (October–November),
 36 producing corresponding gridded distributions (see Fig.3). Across all seasons, the southwestern
 37 segment consistently acts as the primary input flux region, exhibiting a spatial distribution pattern
 38 with pronounced seasonal consistency. The mean input flux per grid in the pre-monsoon, monsoon,
 39 post-monsoon, and winter seasons is 3.37, 2.97, 3.19, and 3.69 kg·s⁻¹, respectively. Input intensity
 40 is slightly enhanced during winter. During the monsoon, driven jointly by the South Asian
 41 monsoon circulation and large-scale transport systems, some grids in this region that previously



1 exhibited mixed fluxes shift from internal efflux to external influx, rendering the external influx
 2 belt more distinct and concentrated. In contrast, the northeastern segment displays higher seasonal
 3 stability in flux structure, with seasonal mean fluxes of -3.36 , -3.28 , -3.19 , and $-3.60 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$,
 4 consistently maintaining an output state. Seasonal transitions produce minimal changes, with no
 5 pronounced abrupt shifts.

6 The Fig. 4 illustrates the monthly variations of NO_2 external influx and internal efflux over
 7 the TP as a whole and along its southwestern and northeastern boundaries. Overall, the
 8 cross-boundary fluxes exhibit an almost synchronous “V”-shaped cycle: they weaken month by
 9 month from spring, reach the annual minimum in July, and then gradually recover. The external
 10 influx continues to intensify in autumn, peaking in November (strongest external influx into the
 11 TP), while the internal efflux reaches its maximum in October (strongest internal efflux from the
 12 TP) and subsequently declines slightly. In terms of net flux, the TP experiences the strongest net
 13 influx in October ($+0.44 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) and the strongest net efflux in September ($-2.52 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$).

14 Structurally, the southwestern boundary exhibits a consistently strong external influx
 15 throughout the year. Between June and October, the external influx increases rapidly from 3.10
 16 $\text{kg}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ in June to the annual peak of $10.77 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ in October, underscoring its persistent role as the
 17 main external influx corridor of the TP. The abrupt increase in external influx after July suggests
 18 that the evolution of monsoon circulation, adjustments in local circulation, and the influence of
 19 upper-level jets jointly drive substantial cross-boundary pollutant external influx during this
 20 period. By contrast, the internal efflux along this boundary shows smaller variations (-0.46 to
 21 $-2.96 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), further confirming the external influx-dominated flux pattern. In contrast, the
 22 northeastern boundary exhibits persistently strong internal efflux year-round, with net fluxes
 23 remaining negative: it weakens to $-1.72 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ in July, then intensifies rapidly, reaching the annual
 24 maxima of -7.50 and $-10.30 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ in September and October, respectively.

25 Based on deseasonalized trend regressions over 2005–2024, NO_2 external influx and internal
 26 efflux along the TP loop as well as its southwestern and northeastern segments all display
 27 significant interannual increases ($p < 0.01$), with regression coefficients (R) ranging from 0.51 to
 28 0.84, indicating that the model effectively captures long-term trends. Corresponding results are
 29 shown in Fig. 5. Spatial heterogeneity emerges in the growth rates across different boundary
 30 segments: at the northeastern boundary, influx and efflux fluxes increase at nearly the same rate
 31 ($3.21 \pm 0.77\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ vs. $3.13 \pm 0.45\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$), reflecting a bidirectional transport and dynamic balance
 32 with a “channel” characteristic. This region, located in the transition zone between the TP and the
 33 central–northern China Plain, may have experienced a coupled process of regional pollution
 34 enhancement and synchronized growth in transport fluxes. By contrast, the southwestern boundary
 35 shows the slowest growth rate, with external influx remaining relatively stable ($2.37 \pm 0.36\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$),
 36 indicating that the South Asian pollution external influx mechanism, after an initial phase of rapid
 37 intensification, has gradually entered a plateau stage, likely driven by multiple factors. On the one
 38 hand, NO_x emissions across South Asia have changed over the past two decades (Kurokawa and
 39 Ohara, 2020; Ding et al., 2022). These changes may partly influence the external flux entering the
 40 TP. On the other hand, monsoon-related humid meteorological conditions, such as enhanced wet
 41 scavenging, convective uplift, and boundary-layer structural changes, may have jointly
 42 contributed to more efficient NO_2 removal (Bhattarai et al., 2021; Li et al., 2024). Although both
 43 external influx and internal efflux show increasing trends, the growth rate of internal efflux along
 44 the overall loop and the southwestern boundary is slightly higher than that of external influx,



1 which may be driven by growing local emissions or secondary release within the TP, as reported
 2 in previous studies (Guo et al., 2022; Kong et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2025).

3 **3.2 Potential source regions and transport pathways**

4 The NO₂ potential source regions and the 48-hour backward-trajectory clusters for seven TP
 5 cities during the summer monsoon (June–August) and the winter westerly period (December–
 6 February) from 2018-2022 are shown in Fig. 6 and Figs. S2-S3. It reveals the pronounced
 7 differences in pollutant transport pathways and source region characteristics under these two
 8 typical circulation regimes, as well as the distinct seasonal responses of individual cities. Overall,
 9 cross-border inputs of atmospheric pollutants to the TP are primarily governed by the alternating
 10 influences of the summer monsoon and winter westerlies, with source regions and transport
 11 pathways exhibiting significant seasonal variability (Qian et al., 2011; Dong et al., 2023). PSCF
 12 results indicate that potential source regions for TP cities are mainly located in northern South
 13 Asia, while during seasonal transitions, areas controlled by the westerly belt, including Central
 14 Asia and its surroundings, also emerge as important input sources.

15 During the summer monsoon-dominated period, PSCF results show that cities along the
 16 southeastern margin of the TP are particularly sensitive to South Asian inputs, with high-value
 17 source regions concentrated in northern South Asia, including Nepal, northern India, and the
 18 northern Bay of Bengal. Driven by prevailing monsoon flows, pollutants are transported across the
 19 Himalayas into the southeastern TP. Cities such as Nyingchi, Shannan, and Lhasa display
 20 pronounced high-value potential source regions, directly influenced by South Asian inputs, with
 21 23.61% of air mass trajectories arriving in Lhasa originating from these high-value South Asian
 22 regions; Nyingchi and Shannan similarly exhibit notable South Asian input signatures. Overall,
 23 pollutant inputs during the summer monsoon are characterized by shorter pathways and
 24 concentrated intensity, exerting particularly strong impacts on southeastern margin cities.

25 In contrast, during the winter westerly period, potential source regions shift markedly to the
 26 north and west, with high PSCF values mainly distributed over the Tarim Basin, the Central Asian
 27 industrial corridor, and the Iranian Plateau. Under the control of the westerly belt, pollutants can
 28 be transported over long distances from Central Asia and surrounding areas to the TP, forming a
 29 west-to-east input channel traversing Central Asia to the TP. These pathways are longer, more
 30 spatially diffuse, and capable of sustaining long-range transport, reflecting the well-established
 31 role of winter westerlies in distributing pollutants across continental-scale distances. Northwestern
 32 cities such as Ngari and Shigatse display high PSCF values over a broad, dispersed region,
 33 consistent with their exposure to the westerly transport system. Their source areas extend far into
 34 Central Asia, and the associated trajectories are markedly longer compared to the summer
 35 monsoon period. Conversely, southeastern cities (e.g., Nyingchi and Chamdo) show weaker
 36 wintertime connectivity to external sources, reflecting the decline of monsoonal external influx
 37 and the shielding effect of complex topography.

38 These contrasting seasonal signatures indicate that while monsoonal flows provide a direct
 39 and efficient conduit for South Asian pollutants into the southeastern TP, the winter westerlies
 40 expand the geographical footprint of contributing regions and enhance the potential for long-range
 41 transport into the northern and western TP (Sun et al., 2021; Kong et al., 2023; Huang et al., 2023).
 42 The unique position of TP at the interface between the monsoon and westerly systems therefore
 43 shapes a dual-source, dual-pathway transport structure, positioning the TP as a convergence and



1 transition zone within the broader Eurasian atmospheric circulation. This distinct setting
 2 underscores the pivotal role over TP as both a receptor of cross-border pollution and a key node in
 3 the global atmospheric transport network.

4 **3.3 Local emissions and regional transport of NO₂ over the TP**

5 Over the past two decades (2005–2024), we divided the NO₂ column records into four
 6 consecutive five-year groups, with the corresponding changes shown in Fig. 7 and Fig. S4. Across
 7 these intervals, tropospheric NO₂ columns over South Asia and the TP have exhibited
 8 distinctly different spatiotemporal evolution patterns, which may be partly influenced by changes
 9 in emission structures and interregional transport (Fig. 8 and Fig. S5). In South Asia, NO₂ levels
 10 have been persistently elevated, with the Indo-Gangetic Plain constituting the dominant hotspot.
 11 During the mid-2000s, enhancements were largely confined to Delhi, Punjab, Haryana, and Uttar
 12 Pradesh, but subsequent phases of rapid industrialization and vehicle expansion extended the
 13 high-pollution belt across eastern provinces such as Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, and Odisha
 14 (Kurokawa and Ohara, 2020; Ding et al., 2022). By 2015–2019, limited city-level measures such
 15 as vehicle restrictions in Delhi, temporary plant shutdowns, and the promotion of compressed
 16 natural gas proved insufficient to offset rapid urban and industrial growth, resulting in further
 17 spatial expansion of NO₂ hotspots (Choudhary et al., 2021). Only after the launch of the National
 18 Clean Air Programme in 2019 did high-value regions in the upper Indo-Gangetic Plain show signs
 19 of contraction, although industrial states in the east continued to rise, highlighting the uneven
 20 effectiveness of interventions (Ganguly et al., 2020; Gopikrishnan and Kuttippurath, 2024;
 21 Guttikunda et al., 2025).

22 In contrast, the TP, despite being one of cleanest regions over Asia, has experienced a steady
 23 rise in NO₂ over the same period. Since 2005, cities along the southern margin of the TP such as
 24 Lhasa, Shannan and Shigatse have experienced the most pronounced increases, with Lhasa
 25 developing a relatively stable high-concentration belt during 2015–2019. Although the growth in
 26 local emissions indeed constitutes the primary source of the NO₂ increase over the TP, the rapid
 27 rise in traffic volume, large-scale tourism activities (including the operation of numerous
 28 sightseeing buses), wintertime coal heating, and energy-intensive urban expansion have jointly
 29 elevated local NO_x emissions, especially during periods of rapid increases in vehicle ownership
 30 and construction activity (Cheng et al., 2018). The EDGAR emissions inventory corroborates this
 31 pattern, indicating that the transportation sector has become the dominant source of NO₂ emissions
 32 on the TP, exceeding contributions from the energy and industrial sectors and thereby establishing
 33 a structural basis for the long-term accumulation of NO₂. However, even after fully accounting for
 34 these local emission increases, cross-border transport from South Asia and surrounding regions
 35 still constitutes an important and persistent external driving factor.

36 The juxtaposition of these trends highlights a fundamental asymmetry. South Asia functions
 37 as a high-emission source region shaped by industrial cycles and uneven mitigation, whereas the
 38 TP remains a low-background but highly sensitive receptor. Temporal comparisons underscore
 39 this contrast: periods of South Asian expansion in the 2010s coincided with accelerated NO₂
 40 growth along the southern slopes over TP. This linkage arises from the combined influence of
 41 large-scale circulation and local structural factors. Seasonal transport associated with monsoonal
 42 flow and westerlies provides sustained external inputs, which interact with emissions from heating,
 43 transport, and expanding urban activities to amplify NO₂ accumulation in key valleys and basins.



1 In Lhasa, for example, infrastructure expansion and rapid vehicle growth associated with China's
 2 Western Development Strategy created localized pollution hotspots that were further enhanced by
 3 transboundary external influx (Tang et al., 2022). Consequently, even modest local emissions may
 4 be magnified within a receptor environment strongly modulated by regional transport. Policy
 5 divergence further accentuates this contrast. In India, mitigation efforts remain fragmented and
 6 city-focused, producing spatially heterogeneous outcomes and enabling emissions to shift from
 7 heavily regulated cores to peripheral industrial states. By contrast, systematic framework over
 8 China under the “13th Five-Year Plan” implemented coordinated measures across energy, industry,
 9 and transport, including clean heating promotion, power sector optimization, and electric vehicle
 10 deployment (NDRC, 2016). On the TP, these measures have begun to displace coal with
 11 electricity and reduce near-surface emissions in cities such as Lhasa and Shigatse. Nevertheless,
 12 the transition remains incomplete: grid integration of hydropower and solar is limited by terrain
 13 and infrastructure constraints, and many remote settlements remain dependent on coal or biomass,
 14 preserving a fossil-fuel baseline that slows the transition toward sustained NO₂ reductions (Xing et
 15 al., 2024).

16 **3.4 Wind layer impacts on NO₂ flux calculation**

17 The Asian summer monsoon and the mid-latitude westerly circulation jointly control the
 18 transport of pollutants and water vapor over the TP: the former lifts near-surface pollutants to the
 19 upper troposphere through strong convection and anticyclonic circulation, enabling their
 20 dispersion into the lower stratosphere of the Northern Hemisphere, while the latter, with its
 21 persistent zonal transport capability, drives efficient external influx of pollutants from Central and
 22 East Asia into the TP and its downwind regions (Huang et al., 2023). These seasonal atmospheric
 23 circulations dominate the pollutant transport pathways around the TP and establish a critical
 24 linkage between regional air quality and global climate feedbacks. Using a random forest
 25 regression model, we analyzed the nonlinear relationships between wind speed features and NO₂
 26 flux, enabling the model to capture the complex coupling mechanisms between wind layers and
 27 cross-regional transport. On this basis, we applied the SHAP method to quantify the contributions
 28 of wind-speed-related features, thereby evaluating the relative importance of circulation factors in
 29 predicting NO₂ cross-border transport fluxes. The corresponding SHAP results are shown in Fig.
 30 9.

31 The SHAP-based attribution analysis reproduces the dual regulatory characteristics of
 32 pollutant transport over the TP: the upper-level westerly jet and the summer South Asian monsoon
 33 circulation play key regulatory roles in cross-border transport in different seasons. The model
 34 successfully captures this dual regulation, demonstrating the robustness of the interpretable
 35 framework used in this study. Furthermore, SHAP provides insights into the vertical dependency
 36 of transport pathways: the upper-tropospheric u-wind (400-150 hPa) exerts stronger cross-border
 37 transport effects during January-May and October-December, consistent with the role of the
 38 subtropical jet as a persistent cross-border transport channel; meanwhile, the mid-level v-wind
 39 (550-450 hPa) and lower-level v-wind (850-700 hPa) exhibit seasonal modulation associated with
 40 monsoon updrafts and boundary layer dynamics.

41 During June–September, with the establishment of the South Asian monsoon, the
 42 contribution of the upper-level westerly jet to cross-border transport exhibits pronounced seasonal
 43 variation. Previous studies have documented a northward shift of the subtropical westerly jet and



1 intense convective vertical transport under the South Asian monsoon (Sheng et al., 2024; Sun et
 2 al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022), which may modulate upper- and mid-level wind structures, alter the
 3 strength and stability of the westerly jet, and thereby influence both the vertical uplift from the
 4 boundary layer and the horizontal transport of pollutants across the TP. SHAP further reveals a
 5 vertically structured regulation of transport. The mid-tropospheric v wind exhibits seasonal control:
 6 it enhances meridional dispersion during the monsoon peak (May–November) but inhibits
 7 transport under subsidence and stable stratification conditions in winter and spring
 8 (December–April). The persistent positive contribution of the low-tropospheric vertical wind in
 9 summer and autumn highlights the role of the boundary layer monsoon circulation in coupling
 10 near-surface emissions with convective uplift, thereby promoting cross-regional diffusion of
 11 pollutants into the TP.

12 Interpretable machine learning enables a quantitative assessment of how cross-border
 13 transport depends on vertical wind layers, revealing the seasonal alternation in dominance among
 14 different altitude levels. By explicitly identifying the contributions of each stratified wind layer,
 15 this approach not only provides more precise constraints for pollutant transport models but also
 16 enhances our understanding of the dynamics and seasonal variability of transboundary NO_2
 17 transport.

18 **4 Uncertainty analysis and environmental implication**

19 **4.1 Uncertainty analysis**

20 **4.1.1 Uncertainties in satellite-derived NO_2 column retrievals**

21 The satellite retrieval of NO_2 column concentrations is intrinsically affected by multiple
 22 sources of uncertainty, primarily including spectral fitting errors, biases in the assumed a priori
 23 vertical profile, errors in the calculation of the air mass factor (AMF), and variations in viewing
 24 geometry. Retrieval algorithms typically rely on assumed atmospheric state parameters and
 25 vertical NO_2 distributions; when these a priori conditions deviate from actual atmospheric
 26 conditions, systematic errors are introduced into the calculation of scattering weights and optical
 27 thickness. In addition, uncertainties in surface albedo and cloud parameters can alter the effective
 28 viewing geometry, forming a “coupled” error chain (Boersma et al., 2018; Van Geffen et al., 2022),
 29 which is particularly pronounced in low-loading or high-albedo regions, where small deviations in
 30 weak spectral signals can be significantly amplified.

31 The structural characteristics of uncertainty differ substantially among satellite products.
 32 Early OMI products were constrained by lower signal-to-noise ratios and coarser spatial resolution,
 33 with overall errors mainly governed by AMF assumptions and instrumental noise. Furthermore,
 34 the “row anomaly” and striping effects degraded both temporal continuity and spatial consistency
 35 (Boersma et al., 2018). Previous studies reported that the total uncertainty of single-pixel OMI
 36 NO_2 retrievals was approximately 35%–45%, whereas the uncertainty of TROPOMI retrievals is
 37 expected to be smaller owing to its higher signal-to-noise ratio and improved retrieval algorithms
 38 (Van Geffen et al., 2020; Verhoelst et al., 2021).

39 Ground-based DOAS and Pandora validation results indicate that OMI generally
 40 underestimates tropospheric NO_2 column concentrations, with biases more pronounced in mid- to
 41 high-latitude or low-loading regions, averaging around 20%–30% (Bucsela et al., 2013; Lamsal et
 42 al., 2021). In comparison, TROPOMI, benefiting from higher spectral resolution and optimized



1 retrieval algorithms, substantially reduces random noise, with total uncertainty expected to be
 2 lower than the 35%-45% level reported for OMI (Boersma et al., 2018; Verhoelst et al., 2021),
 3 though still constrained by systematic errors stemming from a priori profiles and atmospheric state
 4 parameters. This comparison reveals the “dual nature” of retrieval errors: while algorithmic
 5 improvements can effectively reduce random noise, structural biases cannot be fully eliminated.

6 In high-elevation regions such as the TP, these uncertainties are further amplified. On one
 7 hand, the extremely low NO₂ background concentrations reduce the signal-to-noise ratio in
 8 spectral fitting; on the other, complex topography and frequent cloud interference modify viewing
 9 geometry, leading to vertical sensitivity imbalance. Compared with polluted regions at mid–low
 10 latitudes, the error structure over the TP tends to be dominated by random noise rather than
 11 systematic bias. This distinction not only affects local quantitative accuracy but also increases the
 12 sensitivity of flux estimates to input uncertainties. Overall, the uncertainties in NO₂ column
 13 retrievals can be categorized into three types: (1) systematic biases, which arise from errors in a
 14 priori assumptions or atmospheric state parameters; (2) random noise, which is driven by spectral
 15 signal-to-noise ratio and meteorological disturbances; and (3) structural discontinuities, which
 16 result from variations in viewing geometry and sensor characteristics.

17 The identification and control of these uncertainties are essential prerequisites for ensuring
 18 the robustness and physical consistency of flux estimations. In general, recognizing and
 19 quantitatively constraining the structure of retrieval errors is critical for maintaining physical
 20 consistency and interpretability of flux trends across spatial scales. This treatment enables the
 21 study to reveal the structural features and driving mechanisms of cross-border transport under a
 22 controlled uncertainty framework.

23 4.1.2 Uncertainties in wind field correction

24 In the Closed-Loop Integral approach, the uncertainty of the wind field is one of the key
 25 factors influencing flux estimation. Because both trace gas concentrations and wind speed exhibit
 26 significant vertical gradients, their coupling effects may either amplify or attenuate the resulting
 27 flux. Directly integrating layer-by-layer wind speed can lead to weighting imbalance: upper layers
 28 with higher wind speeds but lower concentrations tend to cause overestimation, whereas lower
 29 layers with higher concentrations but smaller wind speeds may be underestimated. This
 30 “inter-layer weighting imbalance” represents one of the main sources of vertical structural error.
 31 Previous studies have indicated that uncertainty in the wind field, particularly in the vertical wind
 32 profile, is among the dominant error sources in satellite-driven flux or emission inversions.
 33 Inaccuracies in wind speed and direction, pronounced vertical gradients of wind velocity, and
 34 errors in plume or aerosol layer height can each cause the inversion results to deviate from the true
 35 values by several to tens of percent, depending on the method, region, and data quality. For
 36 instance, in mobile DOAS and point-source flux sensitivity studies, wind field uncertainty has
 37 been shown to increase flux errors by approximately 7%-50% (depending on wind-field resolution
 38 and measurement configuration). Both observational and modeling studies demonstrate that when
 39 only coarse or unrepresentative wind profiles are used, the uncertainty in flux estimates can reach
 40 several tens of percent (Wu et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2020a; Huang et al., 2020b). Moreover,
 41 satellite-based plume and fire studies have shown that interpolation and error in wind
 42 speed/direction and injection height can significantly affect lifetime and emission estimates;
 43 aerosol and AMF treatments can also introduce additional impacts on the order of 10%-25%,



1 suggesting that different error sources contribute comparably to the total uncertainty (Griffin et al.,
 2 2021). Based on literature synthesis and sensitivity analyses, if vertical wind structures and
 3 sampling heights are not properly treated, the uncertainty of flux estimation generally falls within
 4 the range of about 10%–30% (though it may vary by case).

5 To mitigate such errors, this study applies a physically constrained weighting scheme based
 6 on air-mass distribution and the vertical profile of NO₂ concentration to recalibrate the wind field,
 7 thereby constructing a more representative effective wind field. This scheme suppresses spurious
 8 contributions from high-altitude, low-density regions while enhancing the dynamical weighting of
 9 boundary-layer air masses with high concentrations, making the flux estimates more consistent
 10 with the actual transport structure. After correction, the mean wind-direction deviation is 11.09°,
 11 the average wind-speed adjustment is 1.86 m s⁻¹, and the flux uncertainty is controlled at
 12 approximately 16.35%, with detailed numerical results provided in Table S2 of the Supplement.
 13 Overall, the uncertainty of the vertical wind-field structure constitutes a non-negligible error
 14 source in closed-loop integral flux estimation, whereas the physically constrained weighted
 15 correction effectively reduces systematic bias and enhances the robustness and physical
 16 consistency of regional transport diagnostics without altering the observational constraints.

17 4.2 Implication

18 The core concern raised by the divergent NO₂ flux structures over the TP lies in their
 19 implications for human and ecological well-being. Although ground-based monitoring stations
 20 across the TP have reported declines in surface NO₂ concentrations in recent years (see Sect. S3 in
 21 the Supplement), these observations are constrained by the sparse and uneven distribution of the
 22 monitoring network. Most stations are concentrated in urban centers, while rural areas,
 23 high-altitude regions, and cross-boundary external influx corridors are almost entirely
 24 unmonitored. In contrast, satellite remote-sensing data reveal a continued increase in tropospheric
 25 NO₂ column concentrations (see Sect. S4), together with an intensifying external influx from
 26 South Asia. When assessed only from surface measurements, this mismatch between surface and
 27 column trends suggests that coupled exposure risks may be systematically underestimated. In
 28 routine monitoring practices, although official networks such as the CNEMC appear to indicate an
 29 improving situation, the total burden of reactive nitrogen in the atmospheric column over the TP
 30 continues to rise. One possible cause of this discrepancy is that the recent growth in urban NO_x
 31 emissions within the TP has not been adequately captured by the limited surface monitoring
 32 network; meanwhile, relatively lenient local emission-control enforcement has further amplified
 33 this discrepancy (13th Five-Year
 34 Plan, http://www.gov.cn/zhengce/content/2017-01/05/content_5156789.htm, last access: 4
 35 November 2025). These pollutants may intermittently mix downward, increasing near-surface
 36 exposure and altering the background oxidant levels that regulate ecosystem functions (Fig. S6).
 37 Meanwhile, the dynamic variation of the TP boundary layer further aggravates this dual risk to
 38 humans and ecosystems. In high-altitude regions, the boundary layer is relatively shallow and
 39 highly variable, usually influenced by strong diurnal cycles, winter inversions, and topographic
 40 constraints in valley cities such as Lhasa and Shigatse (Lai et al., 2023), thereby causing
 41 disproportionate health impacts on vulnerable groups such as children, the elderly, and patients
 42 with respiratory or cardiovascular diseases. From an ecological perspective, such intermittent
 43 downward mixing can also enhance the dry and wet deposition of reactive nitrogen, leading to soil



acidification and nutrient imbalance in alpine grassland and wetland systems, which are known to be nitrogen-limited and sensitive to external inputs. Meanwhile, existing studies have shown that the continued increase in NO_x emissions has been a major driver of the rapid rise in urban ozone levels across the TP in recent years (Xu et al., 2025). Although the long-range transport of ozone contributes only modestly to local ozone formation (Yin et al., 2023; Zuo et al., 2025), NO₂ transported over long distances can, to some extent, not only provide an additional precursor for tropospheric ozone over the TP but also alter the regional NO_x–VOC chemical sensitivity (Ma et al., 2022; Hu et al., 2024). In the Plateau environment, this effect further enhances photochemical ozone production. The coupled influence of these processes may exacerbate the ecological risks associated with elevated ozone levels and pose health hazards to populations in high-altitude urban areas (Meng et al., 2024; Bao et al., 2024). In addition, the unique topography of the TP, including enclosed basins, steep river valleys, and urban canyon effects, further exacerbates local stagnation, such that exposure heterogeneity within a single city or basin likely exceeds the range that a limited number of monitoring instruments can capture. This, in turn, underscores the critical need to accurately assess human–ecological coupled health risks in complex high-altitude environments.

From the perspective of policy and scientific assessment, the discrepancy between surface and column signals serves as an informative signal of potential exposure risk, highlighting the necessity of establishing a multidimensional exposure assessment framework. Changes in surface concentrations can, to some extent, serve as an important indicator for evaluating the effectiveness of emission reductions, reflecting the phased improvement of near-surface urban emissions, but they cannot characterize the dynamic processes of vertical atmospheric structure and cross-boundary transport. In fact, the continuous rise of column NO₂ and the flux-driven redistribution indicate that even if surface concentrations show a downward trend, the atmospheric system still possesses the potential to accumulate and release pollutants, thereby triggering short-term high-exposure events and enhancing nitrogen deposition intensity. If the vertical redistribution process is not monitored and constrained, the true exposure levels of humans and ecosystems will be systematically underestimated, leading to delayed recognition of health and ecological risks and insufficient protection thresholds. Therefore, a flux- and exposure-oriented framework is required, integrating high-resolution satellite retrievals, vertical profile measurements, and short-term exposure and deposition models into existing monitoring networks. Such an approach can capture the “uplift–accumulation–deposition” cycles of pollutants, which are invisible to static surface averages but crucial to human and ecological health outcomes.

5. Conclusion

This study provides a comprehensive assessment of NO₂ variability and cross-border fluxes over the TP during 2005–2024, integrating multi-satellite retrievals, reanalysis-driven flux diagnostics, and machine-learning attribution. The results demonstrate that the TP, long regarded as a pristine background region, the TP is increasingly influenced by a combination of cross-boundary inputs from South Asia and local emissions. Flux analyses show persistent southwest segment external influx from South Asia and enhanced northeast segment ventilation toward East Asia; NO₂ fluxes display quasi-symmetry in each segment, manifesting as a bidirectional transport structure. Overall, these results highlight the differentiated role of reactive nitrogen in regional transport. Random Forest modeling combined with SHAP interpretation



1 confirms the dynamical drivers of this dual-channel structure: upper-tropospheric westerlies
 2 regulate winter–spring pathways, while summer external influx is controlled by monsoon-driven
 3 convection and anticyclonic uplift.

4 Despite declining surface concentrations in TP cities since 2015, tropospheric NO₂ columns
 5 have continued to rise. This divergence reflects both local emission restructuring and the
 6 strengthening influence of long-range transport. Machine-learning attribution confirms that this
 7 dynamic is sustained by the interplay of two dominant atmospheric drivers. Together, these
 8 circulations position the TP as both a receptor and a redistribution hub within the South–East
 9 Asian atmospheric system. These findings advance our understanding of the TP as more than a
 10 passive background region. This shift carries important implications for regional air quality
 11 management, as emission reductions in one region may not directly translate into improved
 12 conditions downwind or across different atmospheric layers. The TP’s role in bridging
 13 continental-scale transport further underscores its importance in the global nitrogen cycle.
 14 However, in-situ observations over the TP remain limited, constraining direct validation of results
 15 derived from satellite observations and reanalysis-driven flux diagnostics. Future work will
 16 implement high-resolution ground-based measurements to better capture local NO₂ spatial
 17 heterogeneity and further evaluate cross-boundary external influx and vertical transport.
 18 Integrating ground-based observations with multi-source remote sensing is expected to improve
 19 the quantitative understanding of seasonal and local emission influences, thereby providing
 20 stronger empirical support for nitrogen cycling and air quality management across the TP.

21 **Data availability.** The OMI NO₂ dataset of this study is available for download at [https://](https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/)
 22 disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/ (last access: 16 June 2025). The TROPOMI NO₂ dataset of this study is
 23 available for download at <https://scihub.copernicus.eu/> (last access: 16 June 2025). ERA5 monthly
 24 wind data are available download at <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/> (last accessed: 1 June 2025).
 25 GEOS-CF dataset are available for download at
 26 https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/weather_prediction/GEOS-CF/data_access/ (last accessed: 12 April
 27 2024). The EDGAR NO₂ emission inventory is available at <https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/> (last
 28 access: 31 January 2025). GEOS-Chem simulations in this study are available on request from
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30 **Author contributions.** ZS prepared the manuscript and co-designed the study with HY. YS
 31 supervised and revised the manuscript. XL, ZP, CYL, YY and CL provided constructive
 32 comments.

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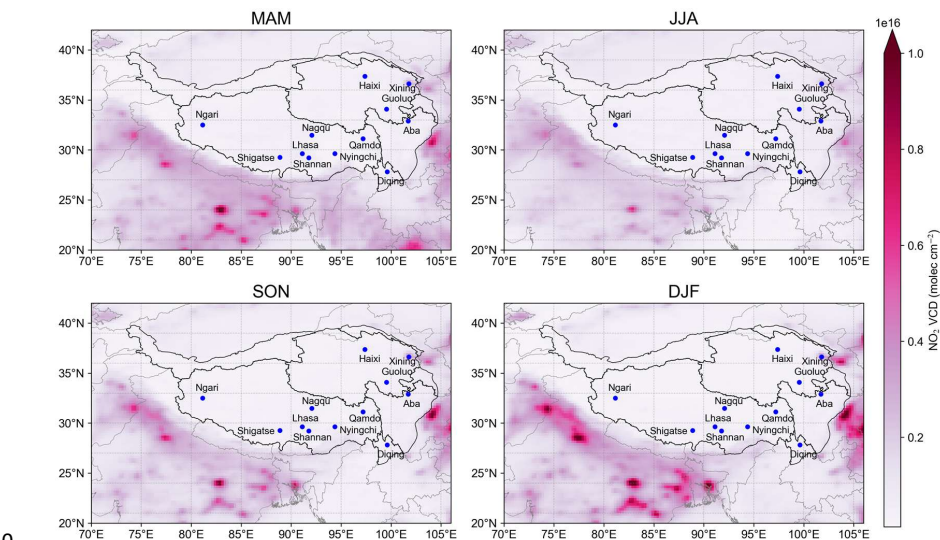


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9 **Figures**



10
11 **Fig. 1.** Seasonal mean NO₂ VCD for the TP (2005–2024), including representative cities within the
12 plateau and adjacent areas, derived from OMI observations.

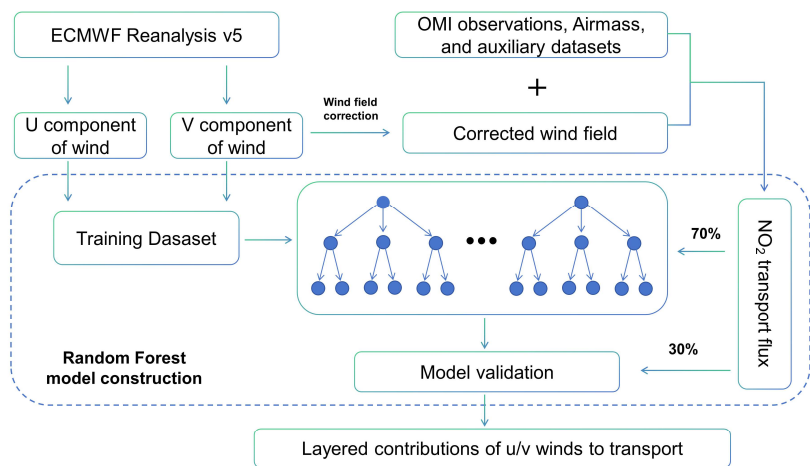




Fig. 2. Schematic framework illustrating the computation of NO₂ transport fluxes, wind-field correction, and Random Forest–based diagnostic analysis.

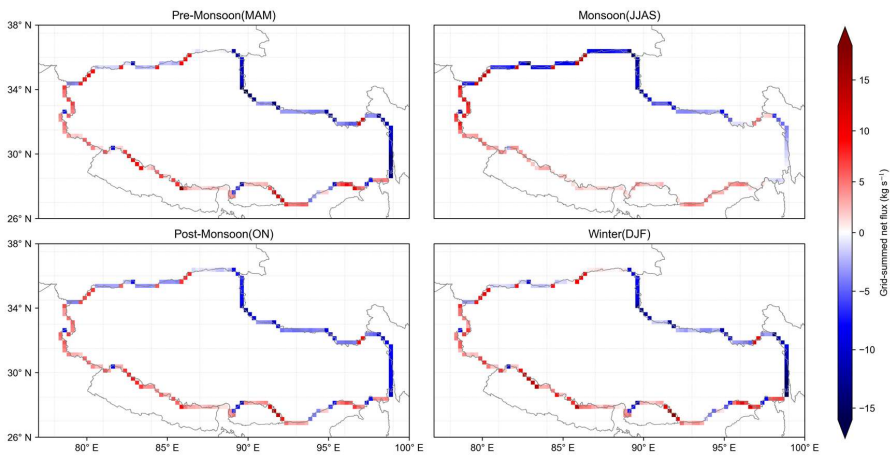


Fig. 3. Seasonal summed NO₂ fluxes for each grid cell from 2005 to 2024, divided into four periods: pre-monsoon, monsoon, post-monsoon, and winter. Red indicates external influx, while blue represents internal efflux within TP. Positive and negative values denote influx and efflux, respectively, with color intensity reflecting flux magnitude.

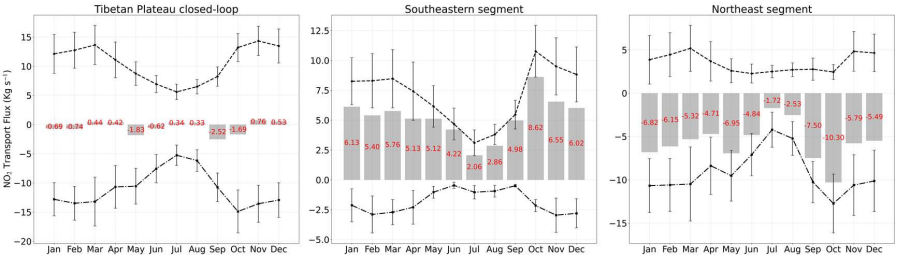


Fig. 4. Monthly NO₂ fluxes ($\pm 1\sigma$) for external influx and internal efflux across the southwestern, northeastern, and enclosed boundary segments of the TP during 2005-2024. Gray bars indicate the net flux, with red numbers denoting the net flux values.

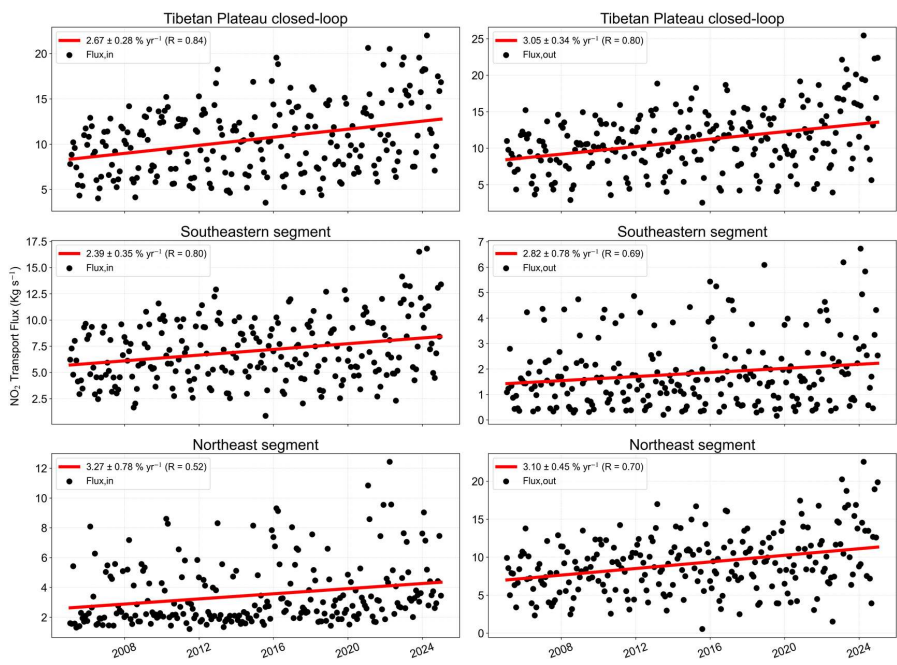


Fig. 5. Interannual evolution of NO₂ influxes and effluxes across the closed-loop, southwestern, and northeastern boundaries of the plateau (2005-2024), based on biweekly means. Black points represent NO₂ fluxes, and the red line denotes the long-term trend fitted using a trend model.

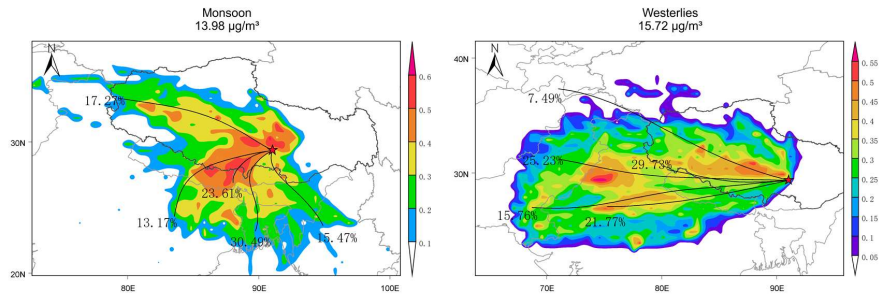


Fig. 6. PSCF-derived potential source regions and clustered back trajectories for Lhasa, categorized into the monsoon and westerly periods.

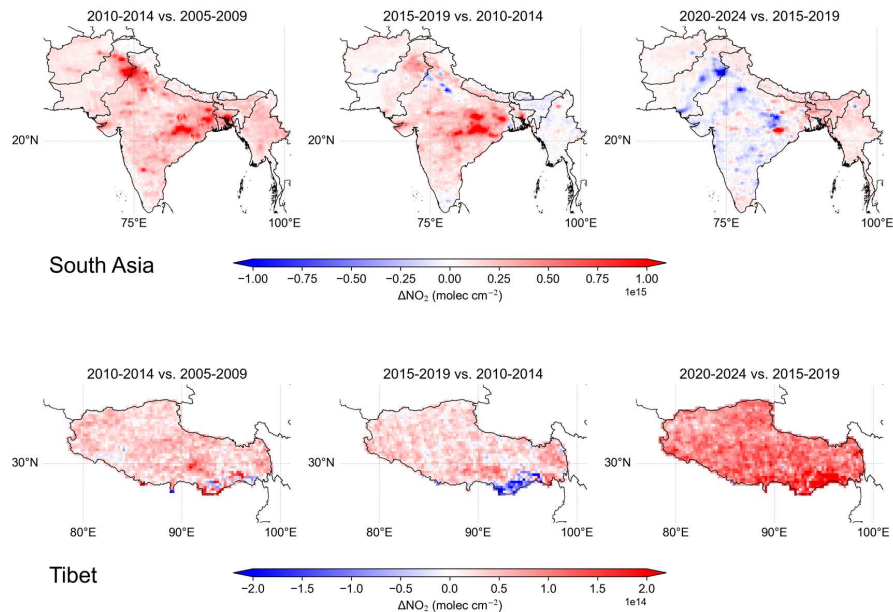


Fig. 7. Five-year grouped changes in NO₂ column concentrations over South Asia and the TP from 2005 to 2024.

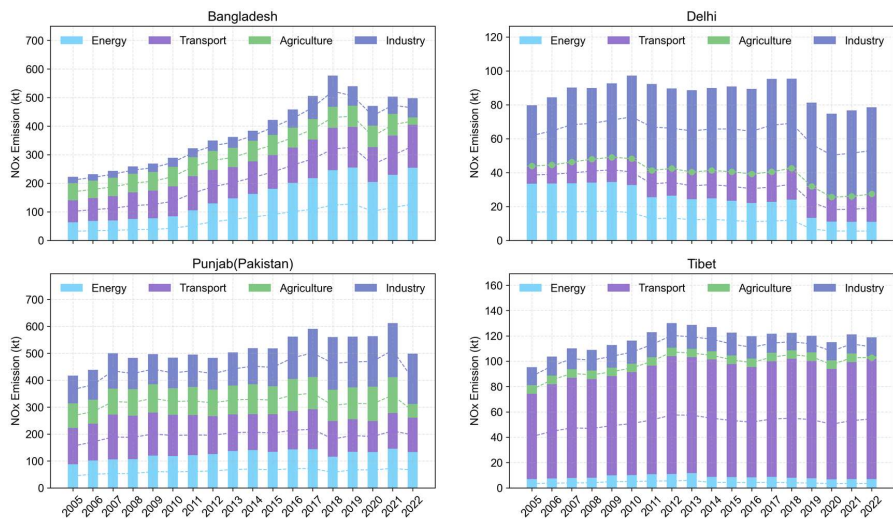


Fig. 8. Annual NO_x emissions by sector (energy, transport, agriculture, and industry) across Bangladesh, Delhi, Punjab (Pakistan), and Tibet, derived from EDGAR and aggregated over all pixels within administrative boundaries.

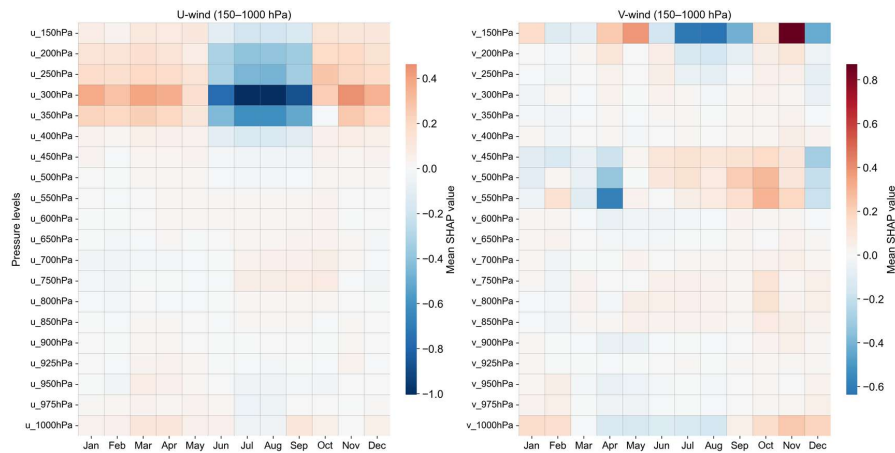


Fig. 9. SHAP-based contributions of U- and V-wind (150-1000 hPa) to NO₂ transport flux variations across the southwestern TP boundary, with red and blue indicating positive and negative contributions, respectively.

Tables

Table 1. Geographical, demographic, and monitoring site information for major cities on the Tibetan Plateau. Population statistics are based on the 2020 nationwide population census issued by the National Bureau of Statistics of China.

City	Number of Monitoring Sites	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Avg. Altitude (km)	Population (×10 ⁵)	Area (km ²)	Population Density (persons/km ²)
Ngari	2	32.5	80.1	4.5	12	345,000	3.48
Shigatse	2	29.3	88.9	4	80	182,000	43.96
Lhasa	6	29.7	91.1	3.7	87	31,700	274.45
Shannan	2	29.2	91.8	3.7	35	79,300	44.14
Nagqu	2	31.5	92.1	4.5	50	430,000	11.63
Nyingchi	2	29.6	94.4	3.1	23	117,000	19.66
Qamdo	3	31.1	97.2	3.4	76	110,000	69.09
Diqing	2	27.8	99.7	3.5	39	23,900	163.18
Haixi	1	37.4	97.4	4.8	47	325,800	14.43
Guoluo	1	34.5	100.3	4.3	21	76,400	27.49
Xining	4	36.6	101.7	2.3	247	7,700	3207.79
Aba	3	32.9	101.7	3.8	82	84,200	97.39