

Divergent Features of the Tropopause Aerosol Layer: Effects of Monsoon Dynamics and Pollution Emissions in Asia, South America, and Africa

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Abstract

The tropopause aerosol layer (TAL) represents the increase of aerosols in tropopause. It was first discovered over Asia but was found in this study to also occur over South America and Africa owing to the combined effects of monsoon dynamics and pollutant emissions. Over Asia, the TAL has the highest altitude and widest spread due to strong deep convection and the upper troposphere anticyclonic system there. TAL intensity is highest in South America due to heavy pollutant emissions. Anthropogenic pollution from India and western China produces two Asian TAL centers, whereas widespread wildfires result in single centers over South America and Africa. TAL radiative forcing induced by carbonaceous aerosols at the top of the atmosphere has warming effects over Asia (+0.21 W m⁻²), whereas cooling effects occur over South America (-0.47 W m⁻²) and Africa (-0.12 W m⁻²) owing to the divergent strengths of black-carbon absorption and organic-carbon scattering.

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1 **Divergent Features of the Tropopause Aerosol Layer: Effects of Monsoon**
2 **Dynamics and Pollution Emissions in Asia, South America, and Africa**

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11 **Key Points:**

- 12 • TALs occur not only over Asia, but also over South America and Africa owing
13 to the combined effects of monsoon dynamics and pollutant emissions.
- 14 • Strong monsoon dynamics cause the highest altitude and widest coverage of
15 the TAL over Asia.
- 16 • TAL CAs from anthropogenic emissions cause warming effects over Asia and
17 natural emissions cause cooling effects over South America and Africa.

18

19 **Abstract**

20 The tropopause aerosol layer (TAL) represents the increase of aerosols in tropopause.
21 It was first discovered over Asia but was found in this study to also occur over South
22 America and Africa owing to the combined effects of monsoon dynamics and
23 pollutant emissions. Over Asia, the TAL has the highest altitude and widest spread due
24 to strong deep convection and the upper troposphere anticyclonic system there. TAL
25 intensity is highest in South America due to heavy pollutant emissions. Anthropogenic
26 pollution from India and western China produces two Asian TAL centers, whereas
27 widespread wildfires result in single centers over South America and Africa. TAL
28 radiative forcing induced by carbonaceous aerosols at the top of the atmosphere has
29 warming effects over Asia ($+0.21 \text{ W m}^{-2}$), whereas cooling effects occur over South
30 America (-0.47 W m^{-2}) and Africa (-0.12 W m^{-2}) owing to the divergent strengths of
31 black-carbon absorption and organic-carbon scattering.

32

33 **Plain Language Summary**

34 The tropopause aerosol layer (TAL) defines the accumulation of aerosols in the upper
35 troposphere and lower stratosphere and induces precipitation anomalies, radiation
36 perturbation, and even stratospheric ozone depletion, through which it may contribute
37 to the effects of climate change. Previous studies have shown that the TAL is
38 prevalent over Asia during the summer monsoon period, although it is unclear
39 whether the phenomenon exists in other areas. This study investigated the occurrence
40 of TALs worldwide and found that it is not limited to Asia but is also observed in
41 South America and Africa. The TAL is a result of the combined effects of monsoon
42 dynamics and pollutant emissions, leading to its unique spatial characteristics and
43 radiative effects.

44

45 **1 Introduction**

46 The tropopause aerosol layer (TAL) defines the accumulation and concentration of
47 aerosols in the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (Bian et al., 2020; Lau et al.,
48 2018), contrasting with the decreasing concentration of aerosols in the lower
49 troposphere as altitude increases (Liu et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2010). The phenomenon
50 was first discovered over Asia during the boreal summer through satellite retrieval and
51 model simulation and was known as the Asian Tropopause Aerosol Layer (ATAL)
52 (Vernier et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2017). The presence of the ATAL can significantly alter
53 precipitation (Fadnavis et al., 2017), deplete stratospheric ozone (Salawitch and
54 McBride, 2022; Solomon et al., 2022), and inhibit surface warming (Fadnavis et al.,
55 2019), resulting in considerable impacts on the environment, hydrology, and even
56 human life in Asia (Liu et al., 2020; Usha et al., 2022; Yuan et al., 2019b).

57 The ATAL is formed by the joint effects of monsoon dynamics and surface pollutant
58 emission (Lau et al., 2018; Lelieveld et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2017). Specifically, local
59 emissions and long-range transport by prevailing southwesterly winds lead to high
60 concentrations of surface pollutants over South and East Asia (Neely et al., 2014; Wu
61 et al., 2022b; Zhang et al., 2019). During the Asian Summer Monsoon (ASM) period,
62 deep convection and strong updrafts occur, forcing surface pollutants to penetrate into
63 the stratosphere (Bucci et al., 2020; Lau and Kim, 2022b). ASM anticyclonic
64 circulation in the upper troposphere acts as a trap, causing the pollutants to
65 accumulate over the Tibetan Plateau rather than spreading globally (Vernier et al.,
66 2011; Yuan et al., 2019a). In view of this formation mechanism, the TAL may exist
67 over other areas such as the Australian–Asian, African, and American monsoon
68 regions (Geen et al., 2020). If so, the spatial features of each TAL may be different
69 because each regional monsoon sub-system has unique characteristics of intensity,
70 extent, and prevailing period (Li et al., 2016; Zhisheng et al., 2015). Previous studies
71 have suggested the possible existence of TALs over North America and Africa, but
72 considerable uncertainty remains (Vernier et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2015), so it is
73 necessary to examine the possible existence of TALs worldwide to evaluate their

74 potential atmospheric and climatic effects.

75 Interactions between aerosols and short-wave radiation significantly impact
76 atmospheric thermodynamic and dynamic states, with notable effects on the radiation
77 budget and climate system (Zhang et al., 2020). In the ATAL, the aerosols have
78 considerable radiative effects, with radiation perturbations of $+0.15 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ at the top
79 of the atmosphere and -0.72 W m^{-2} at the surface (Geo et al., 2023, JGR), despite
80 their relatively small amounts compared with surface loading. Carbonaceous aerosols
81 (CAs), are prevalent in the ATAL and are particularly important due to their high
82 capacity for solar radiation absorption (Ding et al., 2016; Tao et al., 2020). Radiative
83 forcing (RF) induced by CAs is approximately twice that of mass-equivalent sulfate
84 aerosol (Liu et al., 2022). Atmospheric warming induced by ATAL CAs causes
85 increased precipitation over Asia through strengthening the monsoon Hadley
86 circulation (Fadnavis et al., 2017, ACP). Therefore, it is vital to assess the radiative
87 effects of TAL globally, with a strong focus on CAs because of their widespread
88 distribution in the world, particularly in monsoon regions (Figure S1).

89 This study aimed to provide a global perspective on the TAL phenomenon by
90 considering its existence in different monsoon regions based on the CAs component.
91 Data from multiple sources including satellite retrievals, re-analysis, and model
92 simulations were used to elucidate processes that influence the formation and
93 evolution of a TAL, particularly the impact of monsoon dynamics and surface
94 pollutants. Our results provide innovative insights into the interactions between
95 aerosols and monsoons, thus contributing to a deeper understanding of these complex
96 phenomena.

97 **2 Data and Methods**

98 **2.1 Satellite Retrieval**

99 The Ozone Mapping and Profiler Suite (OMPS) Limb Profiler (LP) aboard the Suomi
100 National Polar-orbiting Partnership satellite was launched in October 2011, aiming to
101 retrieve vertical profiles of ozone, aerosol extinction, and cloud-top height (Chen et

102 al., 2018, 2020). The instrument measures limb-scattering radiance at six wavelengths
103 (510, 600, 675, 745, 869, and 997 nm) in the 0–80 km altitude range. The relatively
104 high vertical and spatial sampling allow detection and tracking of sporadic events
105 when aerosol particles are injected into the tropopause (Wu et al., 2022a). In studying
106 the TAL, this work used the Level-2 swath observation product of the OMPS/LP
107 (Taha et al., 2021).

108 In addition, aerosol optical depth (AOD) from CALIPSO (Wielicki et al., 2010), land
109 cover and fire monitoring product from the Moderate Resolution Imaging
110 Spectroradiometer (MODIS) instrument (Justice et al., 2002), outgoing longwave
111 radiation (OLR) from US National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)
112 satellite observations (Gruber and Krueger, 1984), and Global Precipitation
113 Climatology Project (GPCP) combined the satellite retrieval and rain gauge
114 observation (Huffman et al., 1997) were also applied.

115 **2.2 Reanalysis**

116 The Modern Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications version 2
117 (MERRA2) atmospheric reanalysis generated by the US NASA Global Modeling and
118 Assimilation Office provides traditional atmospheric products and chemical
119 compositions for aerosols and greenhouse gases (Buchard et al., 2017; Gelaro et al.,
120 2017). MERRA2 modeling and assimilation have allowed many advances in the
121 understanding of atmospheric chemistry, ozone, and stratosphere processes (Randles
122 et al., 2017). Aerosol and ozone products have proved very helpful in the study of
123 global air pollution, from the troposphere to the stratosphere (Che et al., 2019; Wang
124 et al., 2021), well reproducing the ATAL phenomenon (Lau and Kim, 2022b; Wu et al.,
125 2022b; Yuan et al., 2019a). The aerosol and meteorology-related products were thus
126 used here to explore monsoon influences on the TAL.

127 The fifth generation European Re-Analysis (ERA5) was developed by the European
128 Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts to model data, physics, and core
129 dynamics to provide a detailed description of the global atmosphere, land surface, and

130 ocean waves (Hersbach et al., 2020). ERA5 meteorological data were also used in this
131 study.

132 **2.3 Model Output**

133 Models of the sixth phase of the Coupled Model Inter-comparison Project (CMIP6)
134 enable long-term simulations and various experiments in reconstructing the historical
135 evolution and future projection of climate change and air pollution (Bauer et al., 2020;
136 Eyring et al., 2016; Zanis et al., 2020). CMIP6 model outputs were used to verify the
137 occurrence of TALs.

138 **2.4 WMMEM and Quantitative Contributions of Factors**

139 Weighted multi-model ensemble means (WMMEMs) were used in model bias
140 correction to reduce errors associated with the inter-model spread of CMIP6 data as
141 follows (Shen et al., 2021):

$$142 \quad Y(t) = \sum_i W_i X_i \quad (1)$$

143 where X_i is the output time series of each model, W_i is the weighting of each model
144 error relative to a MERRA2 reference, and $Y(t)$ is the corrected CMIP6 output.

145 Quantitative contributions of influencing factors were based on the
146 multiple-linear-regression model (Cui et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2021).

147 **2.5 NASA Langley Fu–Liou radiative transfer model**

148 The NASA Langley Fu–Liou radiative transfer model computes broadband solar
149 shortwave and thermal longwave profiles of down-welling and up-welling flux
150 accounting for gas absorption, and absorption and scattering by aerosols and clouds
151 (Balmes et al., 2021; Natarajan et al., 2012). It is a highly modified version of the
152 original model developed by Fu and Liou (Fu et al., 1993). Atmospheric profiles of
153 pressure, temperature, water vapor, and ozone, surface albedo and emission, and
154 aerosol optical depth and vertical profiles were the key input parameters. The Langley
155 Fu–Liou radiative transfer model was adopted for rough evaluation of RF caused by
156 TAL CAs.

157 **3 Results**

158 **3.1 TALs Formation in Asia, South America, and Africa**

159 Based on the mechanism of formation of the ATAL, the two primary factors causing
160 the appearance of a TAL are monsoon dynamics and surface pollutants.
161 Monsoon-controlled regions characterized by heavy precipitation are shown in Figure
162 1a, mainly over the land and ocean in the region 30°N–30°S, with South and East
163 Asia including India and China having the most severe anthropogenic pollution. In
164 contrast, South America, Africa, and Southeast Asia are covered mainly by forest and
165 grassland with pollution arising mainly from natural wildfires (Figure 1c, d). There is
166 relatively little atmospheric pollution over the Caribbean and other ocean areas. The
167 pollution distribution is portrayed well by that of CAs (Figure 1b), which are usually
168 used to identify features of the ATAL (Lau and Kim, 2022a; Yuan et al., 2019a). The
169 presence of tropopause CAs, as indicated by multiple data from OMPS/LP satellite
170 retrieval, MERRA2 reanalysis, and CMIP6 simulation (Figures 2 and S6–S17),
171 indicates the occurrence of TALs over Asia, South America, and Africa. Monsoon
172 dynamics are strong in these areas, and surface pollution levels are high (Figures S2–
173 S5). Caribbean and ocean areas also have strong monsoon dynamics but low surface
174 pollution, so they do not exhibit clear TALs, nor do other monsoon-free but
175 high-surface-pollution areas show evidence of TALs, confirming that monsoon
176 dynamics and surface pollutants are essential for their formation.

177 The appearance of a TAL has a clear seasonal pattern, as indicated in Figures S6–S17.
178 In Asia, the TAL usually appears during June–September, peaking in July–August, as
179 shown earlier (Yuan et al., 2019a). In South America, the TAL appears during
180 October–December, whereas there are two TAL phenomena in Africa, one in West
181 Africa during February–April, and another in East Africa during February–May. All
182 appearances and intensities of TALs correspond to the evolution of monsoon systems
183 (Figure S5) rather than monthly variations in surface pollution levels (Figures S2–S4).
184 This highlights the dominant role of monsoon dynamics in determining seasonal
185 variations in TALs, as found earlier (Wu et al., 2022b). TAL features in West and East
186 Africa are similar, so only the former region is considered here.

187 3.2 Divergent Spatial Features of TALs

188 Spatial distributions and cross-sections of TALs over Asia, South America, and Africa
189 are shown in Figure 2 for July–August, October–December, and February–April,
190 respectively. Here, features of TALs were examined mainly on the basis of MERRA2
191 and CMIP6 datasets, rather than the OMPS/LP dataset, owing to the low signal/noise
192 ratio caused by cloud cover in the latter. Corresponding CAs AOD is shown in Figure
193 1e–m, and OLR, OMEGA, and the 200 hPa atmospheric circulation fields are shown
194 in Figure 3, indicating features of deep convection, vertical motion, and anticyclones
195 in the upper troposphere caused by monsoon dynamics.

196 Among these regions, South America exhibits the most intense surface CAs pollution,
197 and Africa the least. There are two pollution centers in Asia: in India and China.
198 During the prevailing monsoon period, upward vertical motion induced by deep
199 convection carries surface pollutants into the upper troposphere and even the lower
200 stratosphere. The highest TAL CAs intensity was thus observed in South America,
201 while intensities were comparable in Asia and Africa. TAL CAs concentrations in
202 South America were 2–3 times those in Asia and Africa, consistent with patterns of
203 surface pollution. However, TAL altitude was highest in Asia, centered at ~120 hPa,
204 followed by South America (~200 hPa), and Africa (~220 hPa). This is due to the
205 Himalayas and the Tibetan Plateau causing the strongest summer monsoon in South
206 Asia (Boos and Kuang, 2010; Zhang et al., 2012) with the most intensive deep
207 convection and upward vertical motion and upwelling velocities exceeding -0.06 Pa
208 s^{-1} in the core ascent zone. Monsoon dynamics in the other areas are relatively weak,
209 even negligible in Africa relative to Asia. It follows that updrafts account for the
210 suspended height of TALs, and tropopause height alone does not determine the rising
211 altitude of the TAL (Figure 3g–i).

212 Another interesting distinction between TALs in different areas is their
213 three-dimensional shape. The TAL in Asia has the widest spatial coverage, spanning
214 from the Iranian Plateau to eastern China through an extended upper-tropospheric
215 anticyclonic circulation spanning $>60^\circ$ of longitude. This circulation is strengthened

216 by the heating effect of the Himalayas and the Tibetan Plateau, as documented by Wu
217 et al. (2015). In contrast, anticyclonic circulation over South America and Africa is
218 relatively weak, covering only $\sim 30^\circ$ of longitude. This acts as a barrier, constraining
219 the TAL to a limited spread, mainly over central South America and West Africa. Of
220 the two TAL centers in Asia, the stronger is over the Tibetan Plateau and the weaker is
221 over southwest China, due to anthropogenic pollution (the primary emission source)
222 being centered over small areas of dense population in India and western China and
223 producing two narrow vertical transport conduits, consistent with Lau et al. (2018). In
224 comparison, surface pollutants in South America and Africa are derived mainly from
225 widespread wildfires across forest and grassland, resulting in one broad vertical
226 transport conduit and a single peak TAL center. Overall, TALs in Asia, South America,
227 and Africa thus exhibit divergent spatial features owing to the combined effects of
228 monsoon dynamics and surface pollutant emissions.

229 **3.3 Divergent Radiative Forcing of TALs**

230 The remarkable features of the TALs result in divergent radiative effects. Based on
231 MERRA2 reanalysis, we evaluated RFs induced by TAL CAs in Asia, South America,
232 and Africa utilizing the Langley Fu–Liou radiative transfer model. TAL CAs over
233 Asia have warming effects on the climate system of $+0.21 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ at the top of the
234 atmosphere (Figure 4), whereas there are cooling effects of -0.47 and -0.12 W m^{-2}
235 over South America and Africa, respectively. These differences are related to CA
236 composition, which includes black carbon (BC) and organic carbon (OC); the former
237 has a high light-absorption capacity and the latter a predominantly light-scattering
238 capacity. The relative CA contents of BC and OC determine RF magnitude and sign.
239 The amount of BC in TAL over Asia (AOD 0.0026) was higher than that in the South
240 American (AOD 0.0016) and African (AOD 0.0008) TALs. The OC content (AOD
241 0.0034) over Asia was roughly equivalent to the BC content, but it was much higher
242 over South America (AOD 0.0081) and Africa (AOD 0.0029). Therefore, TAL BC
243 warming effects over South America and Africa were offset by OC cooling effects. In
244 contrast to results at the top of the atmosphere, TAL CAs caused negative RFs at the

245 surface for all three regions owing to absorption and scattering of sunlight by CA
246 leading to less shortwave radiation reaching the surface. Among three regions, the
247 surface RF of TAL CAs was lowest in Africa due to its weaker intensity there. In the
248 atmosphere, Asian TAL CAs had the strongest warming effect because of their higher
249 BC contents. Consistent with the results of Gao et al. (2023), our simulation indicated
250 a positive Asian TAL RF at the top of the atmosphere rather than the negative values
251 reported by Vernier et al. (2015). We found that CA-induced warming effects were
252 stronger than those caused by scattering and absorbing aerosols ($+0.15 \text{ W m}^{-2}$; Geo
253 et al., 2023). These results thus reflect the importance of TAL CAs in climate systems
254 relative to other types of aerosol. Moreover, we note that larger amounts of CAs will
255 likely be released to the atmosphere by more frequent and intense wildfires caused by
256 favorable meteorological conditions under global warming (Huang et al., 2023; Pu et
257 al., 2021; Xie et al., 2022; Zheng et al., 2023). More attention should thus be paid to
258 CAs or smoke from wildfires to evaluate their source, transport, radiation, and climate
259 effects.

260 The intensity of solar shortwave radiation varies with altitude, leading to diverse RFs
261 of equivalent CA concentrations at different altitudes. To better understand this
262 phenomenon and highlight the radiative effects of TAL CAs, we examined equivalent
263 CAs at three altitude levels: upper troposphere (300–100 hPa), middle troposphere
264 (600–400 hPa), and lower troposphere (900–700 hPa). In Asia, the equivalent CA
265 levels changed from warming to cooling effects with decreasing altitude, indicating
266 the relative importance of competitive scattering and absorption of radiation by BC
267 and OC at different altitudes. In South America and Africa, equivalent CAs at
268 different altitudes exhibited consistently negative RFs, but with different intensities.
269 These changes from warming to cooling, and RF intensity, result from competition
270 between BC absorption and OC scattering. However, when only one type of aerosol
271 (BC or OC) is considered, RFs increase with altitude because of the stronger solar
272 shortwave radiation at higher altitudes, thus highlighting the importance of TALs to
273 the climate system.

274 **4 Discussion**

275 This study of the TAL phenomenon in South America and Africa followed the
276 discovery of the ATAL (Vernier et al., 2011) and involved multiple data sources
277 including OMPS/LP satellite retrieval, MERRA2 reanalysis, and CMIP6 simulations.
278 Our findings highlight the critical role of monsoon dynamics and surface pollutant
279 emissions in the formation of TALs, which together cause their divergent spatial
280 features and drive their evolution across these three areas. We emphasize the
281 importance of including natural emissions in future TAL studies owing to the
282 increasing frequency and intensity of wildfires under a global warming scenario
283 (Abram et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2023; You and Xu, 2022). Although our results are
284 robust, the inconsistency in TAL seasonality among the OMPS/LP, MERRA2, and
285 CMIP6 datasets indicates uncertainties due to imperfections in cloud removal in
286 satellite retrieval and limitations in the modeling of stratospheric processes. Therefore,
287 further in-situ observations are required for improvement of understanding of TALs.
288 Overall, this study provides new insights into TALs and should aid further study of
289 interactions between aerosols and monsoons, especially concerning their impact on
290 stratospheric chemistry and climate change (Bian et al., 2020; Salawitch and McBride,
291 2022; Solomon et al., 2022).

292 **5 Conclusions**

293 This study aimed to investigate the TAL phenomenon by analysis of CAs using
294 multiple data sources including OMPS/LP satellite retrieval, MERRA2 reanalysis, and
295 CMIP6 model outputs. Results indicate that TALs occur not only in Asia, but also in
296 South America and Africa during their monsoon periods. Monsoon dynamics and
297 surface pollutant emissions are the two prime factors involved in TAL formation. The
298 TAL in Asia has the highest altitude and widest spatial coverage due to the effects of
299 strong deep convection, updrafts, and a large anticyclonic system in the upper
300 troposphere, all of which are caused by strong monsoon dynamics. Whereas, TAL
301 intensity was highest in South America due to heavy surface CAs emissions. In Asia,
302 anthropogenic pollution is concentrated over small areas of dense population in India
303 and western China, producing two narrow vertical transport conduits and two TAL

304 centers. In contrast, surface pollutants in South America and Africa are derived mainly
305 from widespread wildfires across forest and grassland, resulting in a broad vertical
306 transport conduit and single TAL peak centers. The divergent features of TALs among
307 the three regions cause distinct RFs. Those at the top of the atmosphere cause
308 warming over Asia ($+0.21 \text{ W m}^{-2}$) and cooling over South America (-0.47 W m^{-2})
309 and Africa (-0.12 W m^{-2}). These opposing RFs result from the different CA
310 compositions of anthropogenic and natural emissions, where the relative amounts of
311 absorbing BC and scattering OC determine the magnitude and sign of the RF. In
312 addition, equivalent CAs at higher altitudes induce larger RFs. These results indicate
313 the important divergent climate effects of TALs over Asia, South America, and Africa.
314

315 **Open Research**

316 The aerosol extinction ratio from OMPS/LP aboard the S-NPP can be retrieved from
317 <https://doi.org/10.5067/CX2B9NW6FI27>. The MERRA2 reanalysis is available at the
318 following links: Product inst3_3d_aer_Nv, <https://doi.org/10.5067/LTVB4GPCOTK2>;
319 instM_3d_asm_Np, <https://doi.org/10.5067/2E096JV59PK7>; tavgM_2d_aer_Nx,
320 <https://doi.org/10.5067/FH9A0MLJPC7N>; tavgM_2d_rad_Nx,
321 <https://doi.org/10.5067/OU3HJDS973O0>. The ERA5 reanalysis is obtained from
322 <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.6860a573>. The CMIP6 models' outputs can be found at
323 <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>. The CALIPSO satellite retrieval (product:
324 LID_L3_Tropospheric_APro_CloudFree-Standard-V4-20) is available at
325 https://opendap.larc.nasa.gov/opendap/CALIPSO/LID_L3_Tropospheric_APro_CloudFree-Standard-V4-20/contents.html. The fire count can be downloaded from the Fire
326 Information for Resource Management System (FIRMS;
327 <https://firms.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/download/create.php>), in which the fire sources
328 from MODIS and VIIRS S-NPP were employed after selecting the file format and
329 submitting the email address. The land cover (product name: MCD12C1, i.e.,
330 MODIS/Terra+Aqua Land Cover Type Yearly L3 Global 0.05Deg CMG) from
331 MODIS is available at
332 <https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/search/order/1/MCD12C1--6>, which can be
333 retrieved from the above link after selecting the product: MCD12C1. The OLR from
334 NOAA and precipitation from GPCP can be obtained from
335 <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.olrcdr.interp.html> and
336 <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.gpcp.html>, respectively. The NASA Langley
337 Fu-Liou radiative transfer model can be accessed from
338 <https://cloudsgate2.larc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/fuliou/lflcode/accesslfl.cgi> after registration.
339 All data used in this paper are available at the time of submission. Figures in this
340 manuscript were made with python version 3.9 and this software is available from
341 <https://www.python.org/>.
342

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350 **Conflict of Interest**

351 The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this study.

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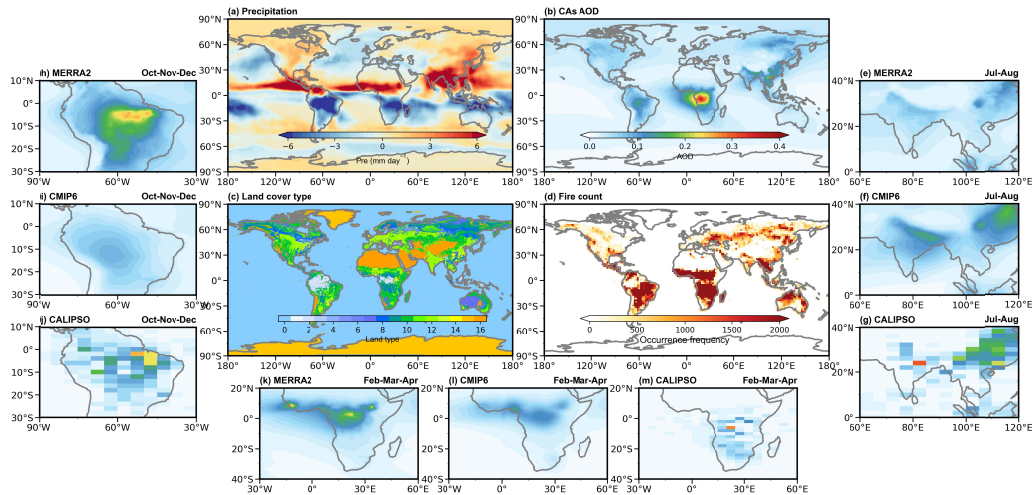
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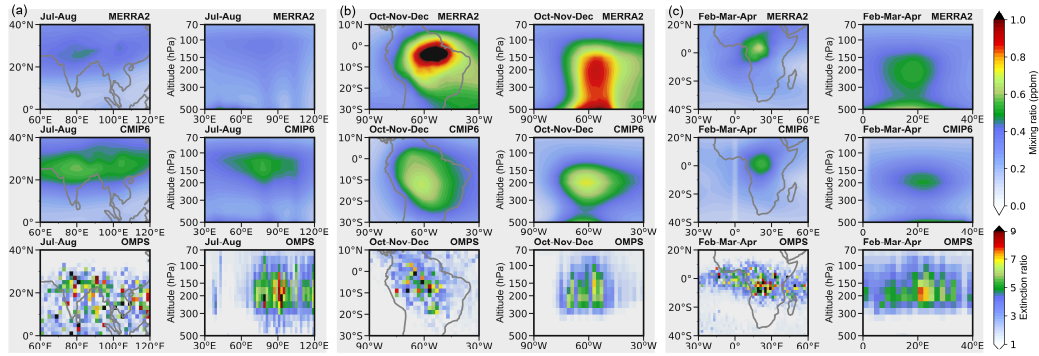


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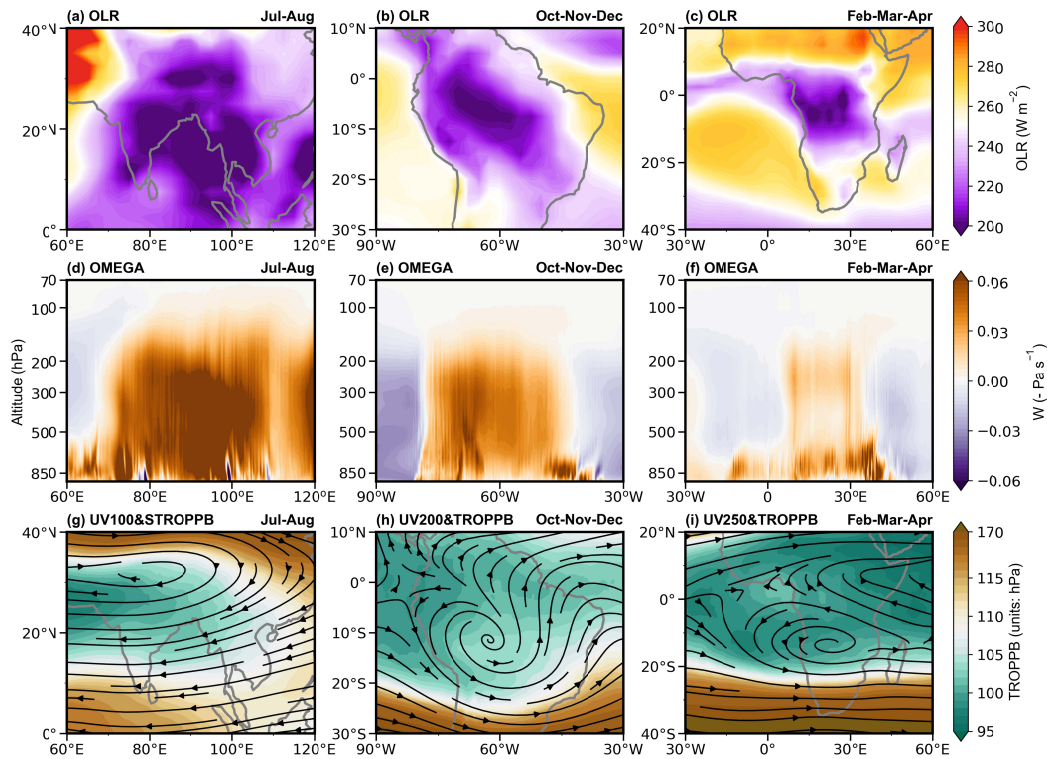
584 **Figure 1. Accumulation regions of carbonaceous aerosols (CAs) and monsoons.**

585 **(a)** Spatial distribution of the GPCP precipitation anomaly (mm d^{-1}) between June–
586 September and December–March, 2012–2021. **(b–d)** Spatial distribution of MERRA2
587 CAs AOD, MODIS land-cover type, and fire frequency, during 2012–2021. **(e–f)**
588 Spatial distribution of CAs AOD over Asia during July–August, 2012–2021
589 (MERRA2 and CMIP6, respectively). **(g)** Spatial distribution of smoke AOD over
590 Asia, during July–August, 2012–2021 (CALIPSO). **(h–j)** As for (e–g), but for South
591 America during October–December 2012–2021. **(k–m)** As for (e–g), but for Africa
592 during February–April, 2012–2021. In (a) the color bar represents land cover as
593 follows: 0, water; 1, evergreen needle-leaf forest; 2, evergreen broadleaf forest; 3,
594 deciduous needle-leaf forest; 4, deciduous broadleaf forest; 5, mixed forest; 6, closed
595 shrubland; 7, open shrubland; 8, woody savannah; 9, savannah; 10, grassland; 11,
596 permanent wetland; 12, cropland; 13, urban and built-up; 14, cropland/natural
597 vegetation mosaic; 15, snow and ice; and 16, barren or sparsely vegetated. The
598 precipitation anomaly between boreal summer and winter represents the
599 monsoon-prevalent regions. AOD was adopted as a proxy for near-surface CA
600 emission.

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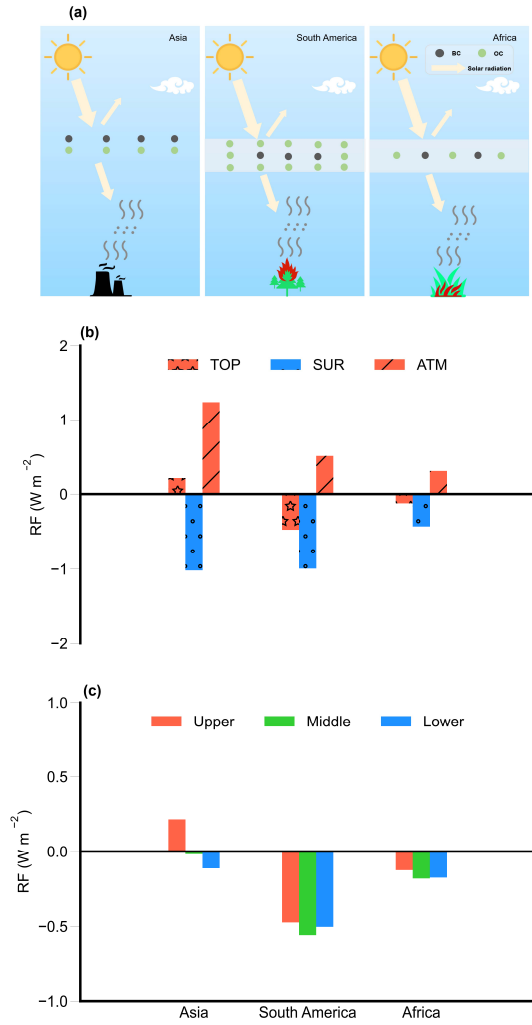


585 **Figure 2. The tropopause aerosols layer (TALs) over Asia, South America, and**
586 **Africa. (a) Spatial distribution at 80–200 hPa and cross-section over 10°–30°N for the**
587 **CAs mixing ratio (ppbm; from MERRA2 and CMIP6) and aerosol extinction ratio**
588 **(OMPS) over Asia, during July–August, 2012–2021. (b) Spatial distribution at 150–**
589 **300 hPa and cross-section over 20°S–0° for the CAs mixing ratio (ppbm; MERRA2**
590 **and CMIP6) and aerosol extinction ratio (OMPS) over South America, during**
591 **October–December, 2012–2021. (c) Spatial distribution at 150–250 hPa and**
592 **cross-section over 10°S–15°N for the CAs mixing ratio (ppbm; MERRA2 and CMIP6)**
593 **and aerosol extinction ratio (OMPS) over Africa, during February–April, 2012–2021.**



595

604 **Figure 3. Monsoon dynamic conditions contributing to TALs formation over Asia,**
 605 **South America, and Africa, 2012–2021. (a–c) Spatial distribution of OLR (W m^{-2} ;**
 606 **NOAA) during July–August over Asia, October–December over South America, and**
 607 **February–April over Africa. (d–f) Cross-section of vertical velocity ($-\text{Pa s}^{-1}$; ERA5)**
 608 **in July–August over 10° – 30° N (Asia), October–December over 20° S– 0° (South**
 609 **America), and February–April over 10° S– 15° N (Africa). (g–i) As for (a–c), but for**
 610 **wind field (vectors; ERA5) at 100 hPa (UV100), 250 hPa (UV250), and 200 hPa**
 611 **(UV200), and tropopause pressure based on a blended estimate (TROPPB; hPa,**
 612 **shaded) from MERRA2. OLR was selected as a proxy for deep convection.**



604

605 **Figure 4. Radiative forcing induced by TALs.** (a) The schematic diagram of
 606 interactions between solar radiation and CAs (BC and OC) in TALs over Asia, South
 607 America, and Africa. (b) The radiative forcing (RF, units: $W m^{-2}$) at the top of the
 608 atmosphere (TOP), at the surface (SUR), and in the atmosphere (ATM) induced by
 609 TALs over Asia, South America, and Africa. (c) The RF at the top of the atmosphere
 610 induced by equivalent CAs in the upper troposphere (Upper; red bars), middle
 611 troposphere (Middle; green bars), and lower troposphere (Lower; blue bars). TALs
 612 CAs mixing ratio (ppbm; CMPI6) over Asia, South America, and Africa were
 613 processed for the regions of 15° – 0° N and 60° – 120° E during July–August over Asia;
 614 20° S– 5° N and 70° – 35° W during October–December over South America; and 15° S–
 615 15° N and 0° – 40° E during February–April over Africa.