Aerosol Responses to Precipitation Along North American Air Trajectories Arriving at 1 2 Bermuda 3

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26 Abstract

27 North American pollution outflow is ubiquitous over the western North Atlantic Ocean, especially 28 in winter, making this location an ideala suitable natural laboratory for investigating the impact of 29 precipitation on aerosol particles along air mass trajectories. We take advantage of observational 30 data collected at Bermuda to seasonally assess the sensitivity of aerosol mass concentrations and 31 volume size distributions to accumulated precipitation along trajectories (APT). The mass 32 concentration of particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 µm normalized by the 33 enhancement of carbon monoxide above background ($PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$) at Bermuda was used to 34 estimate the degree of aerosol loss during transport to Bermuda. Results for December-February 35 (DJF) show most trajectories come from North America and have the highest APTs, resulting in 36 significant reduction (by 53%) in PM_{2.5}/ Δ CO under high APT conditions (> 13.5 mm) relative to low APT conditions (< 0.9 mm). Moreover, $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ was most sensitive to increases in APT 37 up to 5 mm (-0.044 µg m⁻³ ppbv⁻¹ mm⁻¹) and less sensitive to increases in APT over 5 mm. While 38 anthropogenic PM2.5 constituents (e.g., black carbon, sulfate, organic carbon) decrease with high 39 40 APT, sea salt in contrast was comparable between high and low APT conditions owing to enhanced 41 local wind and sea salt emissions in high APT conditions. The greater sensitivity of the fine mode 42 volume concentrations (versus coarse mode) to wet scavenging is evident from AERONET 43 volume size distribution data. A combination of GEOS-Chem model simulations of ²¹⁰Pb submicron aerosol tracer and its gaseous precursor ²²²Rn reveal that (i) surface aerosol particles at 44 Bermuda are most impacted by wet scavenging in winter/spring (due to large-scale precipitation) 45 with a maximum in March, whereas convective scavenging plays a substantial role in summer; 46 and (ii) North American ²²²Rn tracer emissions contribute most to surface ²¹⁰Pb concentrations at 47 48 Bermuda in winter (~75-80%), indicating that air masses arriving at Bermuda experience largescale precipitation scavenging while traveling from North America. A case study flight from the 49 ACTIVATE field campaign on 22 February 2020 reveals a significant reduction in aerosol number 50 and volume concentrations during air mass transport off the U.S. East Coast associated with 51 increased cloud fraction and precipitation. These results highlight the sensitivity of remote marine 52 53 boundary layer aerosol characteristics to precipitation along trajectories, especially when the air 54 mass source is continental outflow from polluted regions like the U.S. East Coast. 55

57 1. Introduction

58 Aerosol properties are difficult to characterize in remote marine regions owing to the 59 scarcity of monitoring stations as compared to over land. Island observatories are critical resources to investigate long-range transport of aerosol particles and their associated properties (e.g., Silva 60 et al., 2020). The western North Atlantic Ocean (WNAO) includes the island of Bermuda, which 61 62 has a rich history of monitoring data for both surface and columnar aerosol characteristics, thus 63 affording the opportunity to study how aerosol properties are impacted by different sources and 64 processes along the transport of air masses to the site. Consequently, Bermuda has been the subject 65 of decades of intense atmospheric science research (Sorooshian et al., 2020), especially as it is a receptor site for both North African dust (Chen and Duce, 1983) and anthropogenic outflow from 66 both North America (Arimoto et al., 1992; Galloway et al., 1989; Moody et al., 2014; Corral et al., 67 2021) and Europe (Anderson et al., 1996; Cutter, 1993). North American outflow reaching 68 69 Bermuda has been linked to appreciable levels of anthropogenic species (e.g., sulfate, lead, 70 elemental carbon, ozone) (Wolff et al., 1986), more acidic rainfall as compared to other air mass 71 sources (Jickells et al., 1982), and a significant reduction of sulfate levels in both aerosol and wet 72 deposition samples in response to reduced SO₂ emissions in recent decades (Keene et al., 2014).

73 There have been extensive studies reporting on some aspect of air mass history, normally 74 by calculating air parcel trajectories using transport and dispersion models, prior to arrival at 75 Bermuda (Sorooshian et al., 2020 and references therein), including predominant circulation 76 patterns impacting Bermuda at different times of the year (e.g., Miller and Harris, 1985; Veron et 77 al., 1992). What remains uncertain is how precipitation along those trajectories impacts surface 78 aerosol characteristics at Bermuda. Wet scavenging rates are very difficult to constrain over open 79 ocean areas such as the WNAO (Kadko and Prospero, 2011)-) not only because of complexity of 80 physical mechanisms in play but also scarce necessary field measurements. Overall, more work is 81 warranted to better constrain wet scavenging of aerosol particles along trajectories as such studies are sparse not only for the WNAO but also for other regions (Tunved et al., 2013; Hilario et al., 82 83 2021). Arimoto et al. (1999) used aerosol radionuclide data in relation to airflow pattern 84 information to conclude that pollutant transport to Bermuda is common from the northwest and 85 that precipitation scavenging can be influential; their analysis of rain effects on nuclide activities were based on rain data collected at Bermuda without knowledge of rain along trajectory 86 87 pathways.precipitation transport history prior to arrival, While many studies have investigated how 88 composition at Bermuda varies based on air mass trajectories, (Miller and Harris, 1985; Cutter, 89 1993; Huang et al., 1996), the subject of how precipitation along those trajectories impact the 90 resultant aerosol at Bermuda has not been adequately addressed but is motivated by past works (Moody and Galloway, 1988; Todd et al., 2003). 91

92 In their recent aerosol climatology study for Bermuda, Aldhaif et al. (2021) found the peculiar result that fine particulate pollution in the winter months (December-February) was 93 reduced even though there was an enhanced number density of air mass back trajectories traced 94 95 back to North America. They hypothesized that enhanced seasonal cloud fractions and 96 precipitation in winter (Painemal et al., 2021) contribute to the removal of aerosol particles during 97 transport via wet scavenging, which we aim to study more deeply here using a variety of datasets. 98 Results of this study have broad relevance to all remote marine regions impacted by transported 99 continental pollution, in addition to advancing knowledge of how precipitation can impact surface 100 aerosol characteristics.

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102 **2. Datasets and Methods**

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109Table 1. Summary of datasets used in this work. Data are between 1 January 2015 and 31110December 2019, with the exception of ACTIVATE aircraft data based on a single flight day111on 22 February 2020. GEOS-Chem simulations are separately described in Section 2.5.112Section 2 provides more details about the datasets used in this study, including specific113instruments from the ACTIVATE airborne dataset.

Datasets used in this work are summarized in Table 1 and described in brief detail below.

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> Parameter Data Source Time Resolution Website Acronym Particulate matter mass concentration aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 µm) Fort Prospect Station https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2 PM_{2.5} Hourly Particulate matter mass concentration aerodynamic diameter less than 10 µm) PM10 Fort Prospect Station **Daily** https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2 NO Fort Prospect Station //doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2 monoxide concentration Hourly https: Fort Prospect Station https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2 Nitrogen dioxide concentration NO2 Hourly Nitrogen oxide concentration NO_X Fort Prospect Station Hourly https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2 Volume size distribution VSD AERONET Hourly https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov nonoxide surface concentration co MERRA 2 Hourly https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/ sol speciated surface mass https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/ 2 MERRA-2 Hourly Surface wind speed MERRA 2 Hourly https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/ Windsr Planetary boundary layer height PBLH MERRA-2 https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/ Hourly Back-trajectory -HYSPLIT N/A ww.ready.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php Precipitation APT/Rain GDAS Hourly ww.ready.noaa.gov/archives.php doi.org/10.5067/SUBORBITAL/ACTIVATE/DATA001 Aerosol/cloud properties Airborne: ACTIVATE 1 45 Sec

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Parameter_	Acronym	Data Source	Spatial Resolution	Time Resolution
Particulate matter mass concentration (aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 µm)	<u>PM_{2.5}</u>	Fort Prospect Station	±	Hourly
Particulate matter mass concentration (aerodynamic diameter less than 10 µm)	<u>PM10</u>	Fort Prospect Station	±	Daily
Nitrogen monoxide concentration	NO	Fort Prospect Station	<u>=</u>	Hourly
Nitrogen dioxide concentration	<u>NO2</u>	Fort Prospect Station	±	Hourly
Nitrogen oxide concentration	<u>NO_X</u>	Fort Prospect Station	<u>=</u>	Hourly
Volume size distribution	VSD	AERONET	±	Hourly
Carbon monoxide surface concentration	<u>CO</u>	MERRA-2	$\underline{0.625^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}}$	Hourly
Aerosol speciated surface mass concentrations	=	MERRA-2	$\underline{0.625^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}}$	Hourly
Surface wind speed	WindsF	MERRA-2	$0.625^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$	Hourly
Planetary boundary layer height	PBLH	MERRA-2	$\underline{0.625^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}}$	Hourly
Precipitation	APT/Rain	GDAS	$1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$	<u>Hourly</u>

Aerosol/cloud properties

Airborne: ACTIVATE

<u>1-45 Sec</u>

121 2.1 Bermuda Surface Measurements

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122 Aerosol and gas measurements were conducted at Fort Prospect in Bermuda (32.30° N, 123 64.77°W, 63 m ASL). Hourly PM_{2.5} data were collected with a Thermo Scientific TEOM 1400a 124 Ambient Particulate Monitor with 8500C FDMS (Federal Equivalent Method EOPM-0609-181 125 for PM_{2.5}). Concentrations were determined by employing conditioned filter sample collection and 126 direct mass measurements using an inertial micro-balance (TEOM 1400a). Hourly precision was 127 \pm 1.5 µg m⁻³, Hourly data were averaged everyover 6 hourshour intervals to match the time 128 frequency of the trajectory analysisdata discussed subsequently. The conversion of hourly data to 129 6 hour data also helps to mask, to some extent, the unwanted effects of local sources and processes 130 that occur on a small timescale.

PM₁₀ concentrations were determined based on U.S. Environmental Protection Agency 131 132 (EPA) method IO-2 (EPA, 1999) using a Tisch model TE6070 hi-volume air sampler, equipped 133 with $8" \times 10"$ TissuQuartz 2500 QAT-UP quartz fiber filters. The PM₁₀ sampler was operated at a 134 flow rate of 2.1 m³ min⁻¹ yielding a total volume of 3000 m³ over a 24 hr sampling period. The sampler flow rate was calibrated every 3 months. Sampling was synchronized with the 1-in-6 day 135 136 national ambient air quality schedule used by EPA. Prior to deployment, the filters were 137 equilibrated for 24 hr in an environmental control chamber maintaining constant conditions of 138 relative humidity (35 \pm 2%) and temperature (21 \pm 2°C). The filters were then weighed with a 139 precision of ± 0.1 mg using a Mettler Toledo AB104 balance, which was modified for weighing 140 unfolded 8" × 10" filters, and then transferred to clean re-sealable plastic bags for transportation to 141 the field site. After sampling, the exposed filters were returned immediately to the laboratory where 142 they were re-equilibrated in the environmental control chamber for 24 hr before being re-weighed 143 to determine the particle loading from which particle concentrations were calculated. PM₁₀ 144 determinations have an accuracy of within $\pm 2.5\%$, which is equivalent to $\pm 0.2 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ based on 145 the average of PM_{2.5} between 2015 and 2019 (i.e., $6.7 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$).

146Various gases were monitored with hourly time resolution using a Model T200U Trace-147level NO/NO₂/NO_x analyzer (Teledyne API), which is a U.S. EPA compliance analyzer relying on148a proven chemiluminescence principle. The gas analyzer was routinely calibrated using NIST-149certified calibrant NO₂ in ultra-high purity nitrogen (Airgas, Inc., Radnor Township, PA, USA).150Acceptable criteria applied for single point quality control (QC) allows for ±15.1% or < ±1.5 ppb</td>151difference, whichever is greater (40 CFR Part 58 App A Sec. 3.1.1). Similar to PM_{2.5}, these hourly152gas data were averaged to 6-hour resolution.

There were a few periods when data were missing with the longest one being between 11
 January 2016 and 08 April 2016 for the gases, and also between 16 October 2017 and 20 January
 2018 for PM_{2.5}. There was no major discontinuity in PM₁₀ sampling. Table S1 reports the number
 of data points available for various seasons from the surface measurements at Fort Prospect in
 Bermuda.

Columnar aerosol data were obtained from a NASA AErosol RObotic NETwork
(AERONET) (Holben et al., 1998) surface station at Tudor Hill (32.264° N, 64.879° W). Level 2
daily data have been quality assured and cloud screened based on the Version 3 algorithm (Giles
et al., 2019). We focus on the volume size distribution (VSD) product that has 22 logarithmically
equidistant discrete radii ranging from 0.05 to 15 µm. A radius of 0.6 µm typically discriminates

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163 between fine and coarse modes when using AERONET data (Dubovik et al., 2002; Schuster et al., 164 2006).

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166 2.2 Reanalysis Data

Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications-Version 2 (MERRA-2) 167 168 (Gelaro et al., 2017) products were used as a data source for speciated aerosol and gas parameters 169 including surface mass concentration of sea-salt (collection "tavg1_2d_aer_Nx") and surface 170 concentration of carbon monoxide (CO; collection "tavg1_2d_chm_Nx"). Surface wind speed and 171 planetary boundary layer height (PBLH) (collection "tavg1_2d_flx_Nx") data were also obtained 172 from MERRA-2. Hourly and 3-hourly data were downloaded and averaged for a 0.5° latitude by 173 0.625° longitude grid (i.e., 32° - 32.5°N and 64.375° - 65°W) surrounding Bermuda and 174 subsequently converted to averaged over, 6-hour data intervals, to match the time frequency of 175 trajectory analysis results. It should be noted that MERRA-2 data were temporally and spatially 176 coincident with the ending point of trajectories over Bermuda. The Global Data Assimilation 177 System (GDAS) one-degree archive data were used for trajectory calculations explained in the 178 subsequent section. Precipitation data were also obtained along the trajectories based on GDAS 179 one-degree data. 180

181 2.3 Air Mass Trajectory Analysis

182 To track air mass pathways arriving at Bermuda (32.30° N, 64.77°W), we obtained 10-day 183 (240 hr) back-trajectories from the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory model 184 (HYSPLIT) (Stein et al., 2015; Rolph et al., 2017). We used an ending altitude of 100 m (AGL) to be within the surface layer and close to the measurement site. As discussed later, sensitivity 185 186 analysis with higher ending altitudes (500 m and 1 km; Figs. S1-S2) revealreveals similar results 187 to using 100 m. Four trajectories were initialized (i.e., 6-hour interval) each day between 1 January 2015 00:00:00 UTC and 31 December 2019 18:00:00 UTC resulting in a total of 7304 individual 188 189 trajectories. Trajectories were calculated using the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) one-190 degree archive data and with the "model vertical velocity" method, which is a way that means 191 vertical motion is motions were handled in HYSPLIT for trajectory calculations. 192 Precipitation directly using meteorological data were also obtained files. Moreover, accumulated 193 precipitation along the trajectories based on (APT) was calculated by integrating precipitation rate 194 from GDAS-one-degree data, at the heights of trajectory endpoints, throughout the transport to the 195 receptor site. Results presented in Figs. 1-3 are based on 10-day back-trajectories, whereas 196 analyses presented in the remaining sections of the paper are based on 4-day (96 hr) back-197 trajectories.

198 Trajectory analyses contain errors that originate from factors including, but not limited to, 199 the choice of input meteorological data, resolution of input data, and the vertical transport method 200 used in trajectory calculations (Stohl et al., 1995; Cabello et al., 2008; Engström and Magnusson 201 2009). Although the choice of meteorological data is the most important contributor to the 202 uncertainties associated with trajectories calculations (Gebhart et al., 2005), no particular dataset 203 has been found to be superior in terms of yielding the lowest error. While in this study we used 204 GDAS data, which have been widely used as input dataset for trajectory calculations even in 205 regions with complicated topography (e.g., Tunved et al., 2013; Su et al., 2015), the 206 aforementioned inherent errors should not be overlooked when interpreting the results presented 207 in this work. Another factor that can contribute to the uncertainties for the results presented in this 208 work is the use of GDAS as the source of precipitation data as previous works (Sun et al., 2018;

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209 <u>Nogueira 2020</u> have demonstrated that there is some level of disagreement between precipitation 210 <u>datasets.</u>

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212 2.3.1 Concentration Weighted Trajectory Analysis and Seasonal Rain Maps

213 Concentration weighted trajectories (CWT) were calculated based on the 10-day back-214 trajectories from HYSPLIT in conjunction with Bermuda surface PM2.5 data described in Section 215 2.1. The CWT method has been implemented widely to identify long-range pollutant transport 216 pathways impacting a receptor site (Hsu et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2009; Hilario et al., 2020). 217 Seasonal maps of average precipitation experienced by trajectories were also estimated based on 218 10-day back-trajectories from HYSPLIT. The aforementioned analyses were performed for 219 $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ grids covering the area encompassed by $10^{\circ} - 80^{\circ}$ N and $5^{\circ} - 170^{\circ}$ W. A weight function 220 $(W_{ii}$ in Eq. 1) following the method of Dimitriou et al. (2015) was applied in the CWT analysis 221 and precipitation maps to increase statistical stability. In Eq. 1, n_{ava} is the average number of 222 223 trajectory end points per individual gird cell over the study region excluding cells with zero trajectory points and n_{ij} is the number of trajectory end points that lies in the grid cell (i,j).



10-day back trajectories were implemented for generating CWT and rain maps to illustrate
 potential distant sources impacting Bermuda. But for more quantitative analyses presented in the
 subsequent sections focused on transport most relevant to the WNAO region, four-day back
 trajectories were used by simply truncating 10-day trajectories. The use of four-day trajectories
 reduces the uncertainties associated with trajectory calculations in comparison to using 10-day
 trajectories and also enables us to focus on sources closer to the receptor site.

240 2.3.2 Trajectory Clustering

241 Hierarchical agglomerative clustering was used to identify characteristic trajectories 242 reaching Bermuda at 100 m (AGL). Hierarchical clustering was based on the "complete linkage" 243 method (Govender and Sivakumar, 2020). Four-day HYSPLIT back-trajectories were used to 244 perform clustering analysis. Distances between trajectories were calculated using the Haversine 245 formula, which calculates distance between two points on Earth assuming they are on a great circle 246 (Sinnott, 1984). Clustering was performed for varying numbers of clusters, ranging between 2 and 247 32. The L-method (Kassomenos et al., 2010) was implemented to identify the optimum number of 248 clusters. In this method, root mean square deviation (RMSD) was calculated for each clustering 249 run and then plotted versus the number of clusters to determine the optimum solution. RMSDs 250 were estimated based on the distances between trajectories and associated mean cluster 251 trajectories. 252

253 2.4 Airborne Measurements

254 Airborne data from the Aerosol Cloud meteorology Interactions oVer the western ATlantic 255 Experiment (ACTIVATE) are used from Research Flight 6 (RF6) on 22 February 2020. 256 ACTIVATE involves two NASA Langley aircraft (HU-25 Falcon and UC-12 King Air) flying in 257 coordination at different altitudes to simultaneously characterize the same vertical column with a 258 focus on aerosol-cloud-meteorology interactions (Sorooshian et al., 2019). RF6 was a rare case of 259 the HU-25 Falcon flying alone, but this aircraft conveniently included measurements relevant to 260 this study. The ACTIVATE strategy involves the HU-25 Falcon flying in the boundary layer to 261 characterize gas, aerosol, cloud, and meteorological parameters along the following level legs: 262 Min. Alt. = lowest altitude flown (500 ft), BCB = below cloud base, ACB = above cloud base, 263 BCT = below cloud top, ACT = above cloud top.

264 Data from the following instruments were used: Condensation Particle Counter (CPC; TSI 265 Model 3772) for number concentration of particles with diameter > 10 nm; Scanning Mobility 266 Particle Sizer (SMPS; TSI Model 3081) for aerosol size distribution data between 3.2 – 89.1 nm; 267 Laser Aerosol Spectrometer (LAS; TSI Model 3340) for aerosol size distribution data between 268 diameters of 0.09-5 µm; two-dimensional optical array imaging probe (2DS; SPEC Inc.) (Lawson 269 et al., 2006) for rain water content (RWC) quantified by integrating rain drop size distributions 270 between diameters of 39.9 - 1464.9 µm; and Fast Cloud Droplet Probe (FCDP; SPEC Inc.) (Knop 271 et al., 2021) for cloud liquid water content (LWC) calculated by integrating drop size distributions 272 between diameters of $3 - 50 \,\mu\text{m}$. With the exception of SMPS data (45 second resolution), all 273 airborne data were at 1 second resolution. 274

275 2.5 Radionuclide tracers in GEOS-Chem Model

276 Lead-210 (²¹⁰Pb, half-life 22.3 years) is the decay daughter of Radon-222 (²²²Rn-, half-life 3.8 days) emitted mainly from land surfaces. After production, it indiscriminately attaches to 277 278 ambient submicron particles, which move with the air until being scavenged by precipitation or 279 deposited to the surface. Because of its relatively well-known source and wet deposition as its 280 principal sink, ²¹⁰Pb has long been used to test wet deposition processes in global models (e.g., Liu 281 et al., 2001). It is also a useful tracer to describe continental air influence over oceans. In this study, 282 we use ²¹⁰Pb as simulated by the GOESGEOS-Chem model to investigate the role of precipitation 283 scavenging in affecting seasonal surface aerosol concentrations at Bermuda.

284 GEOS-Chem (http://www.geos-chem.org) is a global 3-D chemical transport model driven 285 by meteorological fields from the Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS) of the NASA Global 286 Modeling and Assimilation Office (Bey et al., 2001; Eastham et al., 2014). It has been widely used 287 to study trace gases and aerosols in the atmosphere. Here we use the model version 11-01 (http://wiki.seas.harvard.edu/geos-chem/index.php/GEOS-Chem_v11-01) driven by the MERRA-288 2 reanalysis (at 2.5° longitude by 2° latitude resolution) to simulate ²²²Rn and ²¹⁰Pb. The model 289 290 simulates the emission, transport (advection, convection, boundary layer mixing), deposition, and 291 decay of the radionuclide tracers (Liu et al., 2001; Brattich et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2021). As a function of latitude, longitude, and month, ²²²Rn emission uses a customized 292 293 emission scenario that was built upon previous estimates and evaluated against global ²²²Rn 294 surface observations and vertical profile measurements (Zhang et al., 2021). GEOS-Chem uses the 295 TPCORE advection algorithm of Lin and Rood (1996), calculates convective transport using 296 archived convective mass fluxes (Wu et al., 2007), and uses the non-local boundary-layer mixing 297 scheme implemented by Lin and McElroy (2010). The wet deposition scheme follows that of Liu 298 et al. (2001) and includes rainout (in-cloud scavenging) due to large-scale (stratiform and anvil) 299 precipitation, scavenging in convective updrafts, and washout (below-cloud scavenging) by

300 precipitation (Wang et al., 2011). A modification to the large-scale precipitation scavenging 301 scheme is included to use spatiotemporally varying cloud water contents from MERRA-2 instead 302 of a fixed constant value in the original model (Luo et al., 2019). Dry deposition is based on the 303 resistance-in-series scheme of Wesely (1989).

305 3. Results and Discussion

306 **3.1 Seasonal Profiles**

307 3.1.1 Back-Trajectories

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308 Our results in Fig. 1 show that the summer months (June-August, JJA) are distinct due to 309 the Bermuda High promoting easterly winds at latitudes south of Bermuda that turn north and 310 become southwesterly (~ parallel to U.S. East Coast) towards Bermuda. The Bermuda high 311 pressure system and its associated anticyclonic circulation in the boundary layer have been 312 reported to be strongest in April-September (Merrill, 1994; Moody et al., 1995). This high pressure 313 system breaks down in other months in favor of strengthened extratropical subpolar low pressure, 314 thus yielding more air influence from the northwest and west (Arimoto et al., 1995; Davis et al., 315 1997), which is clearly evident in the other three seasonal panels of Fig. 1 and most pronounced 316 in the winter months (December-February, DJF). In their analysis of air mass history leading to 317 rain events over Bermuda, Altieri et al. (2013) observed more influence from air originating over 318 water in warmer months (April-September) and faster moving air masses originating over the 319 continental U.S. primarily in the colder months of October-March. Moody and Galloway (1988) 320 also showed that cool months (October-March) were marked by more transport from the U.S. East 321 Coast. It can be deduced from Fig. 1 that based on the farther reaching source areas of the back-322 trajectories in colder months, and especially DJF, that air moves faster in the boreal winter. Finally, 323 we note that Figs. S1-S2 show the same results as Fig. 1 but with ending altitudes of 500 m and 1 324 km over Bermuda; the sensitivity tests indicate the same general results and thus we continue the 325 discussion using results based on 100 m.





Figure 1. Seasonal maps (a-d) showing the probability density of trajectories calculated based on 10-day HYSPLIT backward trajectories reaching Bermuda (32.30° N, 64.77°W),

329 denoted by the pink star, at 100 m (AGL). This analysis is based on trajectories between 01 330 January 2015 and 31 December 2019. Analogous results for ending altitudes of 500 m and 1 331 km are shown in Figs. S1 and S2, respectively.

333 3.1.2 Surface Aerosol and NO_x

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334 Recent work has shown a seasonal cycle over Bermuda for column-integrated aerosol 335 properties, with aerosol optical depth (AOD) being highest in March-May (MAM) and JJA and 336 lowest in September-November (SON) and DJF (Aldhaif et al., 2021). They further showed that 337 sea salt contributed more to AOD in the colder months (SON, DJF) whereas sulfate, organic 338 carbon, black carbon and dust were more dominant in MAM and JJA. In their examination of 339 aerosol type seasonality at Bermuda, Huang et al. (1999) observed that marine and crustal elements 340 peaked in winter and summer, respectively, and that pollution-derived particles dominated in 341 spring with a smaller peak in fall. We use data from Fort Prospect datastation, to gain a revised 342 perspective about seasonality and the weekly cycle of surface layer aerosol and additionally NOx 343 (box notch plots in Figs. S3a-f).

344 Median seasonal concentrations of PM2.5 (µg m⁻³) were as follows at Bermuda, being 345 largely consistent with the AOD seasonal cycle: DJF = 5.50, MAM = 6.36, JJA = 6.11, SON =346 5.33 (Fig. S3). NO_x exhibited a similar seasonal pattern (ppbv): DJF = 17.76, MAM = 21.62, JJA 347 = 18.68, SON = 13.95 (Fig. S3). It is difficult to ascertain sources and impacts of precipitation on 348 PM_{2.5} based on these values. As a next step we present the seasonal CWT maps showing the 349 predominant pathways accounting for the majority of PM_{2.5} at Bermuda (Fig. 2). Expectedly, PM_{2.5} 350 in JJA is largely accounted for by trajectories following the general anticyclonic circulation already 351 shown in Fig. 1c associated with the Bermuda High. These air masses are enriched with African 352 dust as has been documented in many past studies (e.g., Arimoto, 2001; Huang et al., 1999; Muhs 353 et al., 2012). In contrast, the other seasons (especially DJF and MAM) showed greater relative





355 356 Figure 2. Seasonal (a-d) concentration-weighted trajectory maps (CWT) for PM2.5 measured

at Fort Prospect in Bermuda, denoted by the pink star. This analysis is based on trajectories 357 358

between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019.





360 While we focus on long-range transport of PM2.5 to Bermuda, local sources cannot be 361 ignored, including both sea salt and non-sea salt species (e.g., Galloway et al., 1988). The island 362 has a population of approximately 64,000 as of 2016 (Government of Bermuda, 2019). Local influence from anthropogenic sources has been reported to be insignificant in contrast to 363 transported pollution (Galloway et al., 1988; Keene et al., 2014). We assess how significant local 364 anthropogenic sources are based on day-of-week aerosol concentrations and whether significantly 365 366 higher levels exist on working days as compared to weekend days as shown in other regions with 367 strong anthropogenic influence (Hilario et al., 2020 and references therein). Our analysis found 368 negligible difference between working days (Monday-Friday) and weekend days (Saturday-369 Sunday) for both PM2.5 and NOx when analysis was done based on annual (Figs. S3b/d); including 370 when resolved by season) or seasonal data (Figs. S4-S5). Therefore, it is less likely that local 371 anthropogenic emissions dominate the island's PM2.5 and NOx, providing support for transported 372 sources being more influential; as will be shown, normalizing PM2.5 by CO helps control for local 373 anthropogenic influence.

374 We also examined seasonal and day-of-week statistics for PM₁₀ to assess the relative 375 importance of coarse aerosol types including mainly sea salt and dust (Figs. S3e-f). Results reveal 376 the highest median PM_{10} values (µg m⁻³) in DJF (19.24), followed by MAM (18.51), JJA (17.98), 377 and SON (15.88). As will be shown later and already documented (Aldhaif et al., 2021), surface wind speeds around Bermuda are highest in DJF, contributing to higher sea salt emissions. 378 379 Expectedly there was no observable PM₁₀ weekly cycle as dust and sea salt are naturally emitted. 380 Both $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} exhibited their highest seasonal standard deviations in JJA owing most likely 381 to the episodic nature of some pollution events such as with dust and biomass burning (e.g., Aldhaif 382 et al., 2021).

383384 3.1.3 Precipitation Along Trajectories

359

385 Figure 3 shows seasonal profiles of average precipitation rate obtained from GDAS (Table 386 1) in $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ grids based on 10-day back trajectories arriving at Bermuda (100 m AGL). The 387 spatiotemporal pattern of precipitation over the WNAO is of most interest in terms of potential impacts on wet scavenging of aerosol during the transport of North American pollution to 388 389 Bermuda. In that regard, DJF shows the most pronounced levels of precipitation to the north and 390 northwest of Bermuda over the WNAO, coincident with strong and frequent convection linked to 391 frontogenesis (Painemal et al., 2021). This is consistent with how Painemal et al. (2021) showed 392 that precipitation exhibits maximum levels over the Gulf Stream path owing to relatively high sea 393 surface temperature and strong surface turbulent fluxes.

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Figure 3. Seasonal maps (a-d) of average precipitation occurring in 0.5°×0.5° grids based on 396 10-day backward trajectories reaching Bermuda (32.30° N, 64.77°W; pink star) at 100 m 397 (AGL). This analysis is based on trajectories between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019.

399 3.2 Trajectory Clustering

400 Prior to examining how precipitation directly impacts PM2.5 at Bermuda, we identify 401 characteristic trajectory pathways using the hierarchical agglomerative clustering method 402 described in Section 2.3.2. We reiterate that this analysis is based on 4 days of back-trajectories, 403 rather than 10 days from Figs. 1-3, to focus more on transport closer to Bermuda. The optimum 404 solution based on the L-method (see Section 2.3.2) resulted in eight trajectory clusters (Fig. 4a), 405 with five (numbered 1-5) coming from North America and the remaining three (numbered 6-8) 406 more characteristic of the anticyclonic circulation described already for JJA. The former five 407 clusters account for 49% of the total trajectories, with the latter three responsible for the remaining 408 51%. The majority of trajectories from North America come offshore north of North Carolina (i.e., 409 coastal areas north of ~35°N).



Figure 4. Cluster mean trajectories based on the (a) optimum solution having eight clusters and (b) a simplified solution with two clusters to enhance statistics for North American trajectories. Clustering was performed on four-day HYSPLIT backward trajectories 414 between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019.

416 For the sake of simplicity of the remainder of the discussion, we reduced the number of 417 characteristic trajectories to two (Fig. 4b)4b), by conducting a new clustering analysis, to have one 418 from North America and the other from the southeast. Using only two clusters increases the 419 number of data points in the North American cluster for more robust calculations of rain-aerosol 420 relationships. Our choice to put together all North American air mass clusters into one group is 421 aligned with a similar clustering choice by Chen and Duce (1983; see their Fig. 3) where 422 trajectories were grouped together from Florida to the Canadian maritime provinces. Also, Mead 423 et al. (2013) divided trajectory data ending at Bermuda into "Saharan" and "non-Saharan" seasons 424 that generally coincide with our division of data into two clusters. Cluster 1 from North America 425 accounts for 56% of trajectories and Cluster 2 from the southeast is linked to 44% of trajectories. 426 It is clear from the two clusters that the North American air masses generally move faster as the 427 characteristic 4-day back-trajectories originate farther away from Bermuda than that of Cluster 2.

428 Regardless of season, Cluster 1 was associated with higher APT values with the seasonal 429 median values (units of mm) as follows (Cluster1/Cluster 2): DJF = 6.1/2.3; MAM = 5.2/1.8; JJA 430 = 6.7/2.8; SON = 7.0/5.1. Figure 5 shows a box notch plot comparing APT between clusters for each season, demonstrating statistically significant differences in median values between clusters 431 432 for a given season at 95% confidence. Furthermore, Cluster 1 exhibited higher CO levels at 433 Bermuda for each season with median values (units of ppbv) as follows (Cluster 1/Cluster 2): DJF 434 =89.7/76.3; MAM = 88.5/75.0; JJA = 68.9/58.7; SON = 81.6/65.6. Therefore, the combination of 435 pollution outflow from North America and higher APT values makes Cluster 1 more ideal relevant 436 in terms of identifying potential wet scavenging effects on transported aerosol over the WNAO. 437 The remainder of the study thus focuses on Cluster 1.



438

440 Figure 5. Box notch plot for each season comparing accumulated precipitation along 441 trajectories (APT) for Clusters 1 (blue) and 2 (orange) from Fig. 4b. APT values were 442 estimated from four-day HYSPLIT back trajectories reaching Bermuda (32.30° N, 64.77°W) 443 at 100 m AGL. The middle, bottom, and top lines in each box represent the median, 25th 444 percentile, and 75th percentile, respectively. Markers show extreme values identified based 445 on 1.5×IQR (interquartile range) distance from the top of each box. Whiskers represent 446 maximum and minimum values excluding extreme points. Boxes with notches and shaded 447 regions that do not overlap have different medians at the 95% confidence level.

448

449 **3.3 North America Trajectory Results**

450 We next examine the relationship between APT and aerosol transport to Bermuda based 451 on Cluster 1 results (Table 2). We compare data for "low" and "high" APT values based on

thresholds being the 25^{th} percentile (< 0.9 mm) and 75^{th} percentile (> 13.5 mm), respectively, based 452 on cumulative data from all seasons and years. As wet scavenging is expected to reduce PM2.5 453 454 during its transport from North America to Bermuda, we anticipate lower PM2.5 values at high 455 APT. However, the results indicate this is only the case for MAM and JJA, with similar median 456 values in SON and a higher median value in DJF for high APT conditions. Interestingly, NO, NO₂, 457 NO_x, and CO were all significantly higher in DJF for high APT conditions too, raising. This raises 458 the issue that absolute PM2.5 concentrations should be normalized to account for the differences in 459 concentration that existed closer to North America prior to potential wet scavenging over the 460 WNAO.

461 To study the effects of wet removal processes on aerosol particles during long-range 462 transport to a receptor site, many studies have used aerosol concentrations normalized by the 463 concentration of an inert gaseous species co-emitted with particles at distance sources. Such 464 normalization is critical and superior to the use of only aerosol concentration as the latter can be 465 influenced by local sources that can mask aerosol response to removal processes during long-range 466 transport. CO exhibits three important traits qualifying it as a species to normalize PM_{2.5} by: (i) a 467 reliable marker of anthropogenic pollution stemming from North America (Corral et al., 2021); 468 (ii) being relatively insensitive to wet scavenging processes; and (iii) having a long lifetime in the 469 atmosphere (~1 month; Weinstock, 1969) compared to aerosol particles. Consequently, we 470 normalize PM_{2.5} by Δ CO to quantify transport efficiency and to reveal the potential effects of wet 471 scavenging as has been done in past studies for other regions (Park et al., 2005; Garrett et al., 2010; 472 Hilario et al., 2021; Matsui et al., 2011; Moteki et al., 2012; Oshima et al., 2012). We first 473 determine the 5th percentile value of surface CO at Bermuda for each season for Cluster 1 474 trajectories and assume those are the seasonal background values as done also by Matsui et al. 475 (2011). We then calculate ΔCO as the difference between each 6-hourly CO data point at Bermuda 476 and the background value for a given season. We only use data when $\Delta CO > 3.2$ ppbv to ensure a 477 sufficiently high signal to noise ratio (Garrett et al., 2010). 478

479 Table 2. Seasonal medians of aerosol, gas, and meteorological variables for Cluster 1 divided 480 into high- and low-APT categories. Differences in median values that are statistically significant (p-value < 0.05) based on a Wilcoxon rank-sum test are highlighted with bold and 481 482 italic font. Percentage differences* between high- and low-APT median values are provided in parentheses. NO, NO₂, NO_x, and PM_{2.5} are based on Fort Prospect measurements, whereas 483 484 all other parameters are from MERRA-2 with the exception of the two APT rows (derived 485 from HYSPLIT and GDAS) and the last 8 rows corresponding to AERONET volume size 486 distribution data. We combined all seasons for AERONET data to have sufficient statistics 487 for comparisons (high APT = 16 points, low APT = 19 points). AERONET parameters 488 include volume concentration (V), effective radii (Reff), volume median radii (R), and 489 geometric standard deviation (σ) with subscripts f and c for fine and coarse modes, 490 respectively. Number of data points for each table entry is summarized in Table S1S2.

Parameter	DJF	MAM	JJA	SON
NO (ppbv)	6.0/3.5 (71 %)	7.3/7.8 (-6 %)	8.3/13.1 (-37 %)	3.8/4.2 (-10 %)
NO ₂ (ppbv)	13.9/12.8 (9 %)	13.4/12.0 (12 %)	8.6/6.6 (30 %)	9.4/9.2 (2 %)
NO _x (ppbv)	19.6/17.5 (12 %)	21.2/21.8 (-3 %)	17.4/23.3 (-25 %)	14.1/14.2 (-1 %)
CO (ppbv)	97.8/84.7 (15 %)	92.4/88.6 (4 %)	70.8/65.9 (7 %)	83.7/81.4 (3 %)
PM _{2.5} (µg m ⁻³)	6.1/5.5 (11 %)	6.7/7.3 (-8 %)	5.9/7.8 (-24 %)	5.5/5.1 (8 %)
$PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO \ (\mu g \ m^{-3} \ ppbv^{-1})$	0.29/0.62 (-53 %)	0.35/0.51 (-31 %)	0.32/0.37 (-14 %)	0.27/0.33 (-18 %)
Sea-Salt (µg m-3)	47.2/28.4 (66 %)	44.1/25.4 (74 %)	27.0/26.0 (4 %)	50.6/36.0 (41 %)
Sea-Salt _{PM2.5} (µg m ⁻³)	6.2/4.0 (55 %)	6.2/4.1 (51 %)	4.9/4.9 (0 %)	6.8/5.0 (36 %)
Dust (µg m-3)	0.80/0.91 (-12 %)	2.32/3.03 (-23 %)	4.47/3.02 (48 %)	1.16/1.04 (12 %)
Dust _{PM2.5} (µg m ⁻³)	0.31/0.34 (-9 %)	0.79/1.00 (-21 %)	1.58/1.18 (34 %)	0.44/0.36 (22 %)
Sea-Salt/ Δ CO (µg m ⁻³ ppbv ⁻¹)	2.10/2.74 (-23 %)	2.54/1.70 (49 %)	1.50/1.58 (-5 %)	2.44/1.66 (47 %)
Sulfate/ ΔCO (µg m ⁻³ ppbv ⁻¹)	0.029/0.055 (-47 %)	0.041/0.052 (-21 %)	0.039/0.046 (-15 %)	0.024/0.027 (-11 %
Dust/ ΔCO (µg m ⁻³ ppbv ⁻¹)	0.038/0.082 (-54 %)	0.129/0.186 (-31 %)	0.235/0.152 (55 %)	0.052/0.047 (11 %
BC/ΔCO (µg m ⁻³ ppbv ⁻¹)	0.0031/0.0056 (-45 %)	0.0042/0.0057 (-26 %)	0.0041/0.0049 (-16 %)	0.0032/0.0033 (-3
OC/ΔCO (µg m ⁻³ ppbv ⁻¹)	0.0093/0.0238 (-61 %)	0.0164/0.0276 (-41 %)	0.0225/0.0287 (-22 %)	0.0127/0.0153 (-17
Sea-Salt _{PM2.5} / Δ CO (µg m ⁻³ ppbv ⁻¹)	0.263/0.403 (-35 %)	0.352/0.262 (34 %)	0.284/0.298 (-5 %)	0.331/0.255 (30 %
$Dust_{PM2.5}/\Delta CO~(\mu g~m^{\text{-3}}~ppbv^{\text{-1}})$	0.015/0.033 (-55 %)	0.042/0.062 (-32 %)	0.087/0.053 (64 %)	0.018/0.017 (6 %)
Wind _{SF} (m s ⁻¹)	8.5/7.1 (20 %)	8.4/5.9 (42 %)	4.4/4.7 (-6 %)	7.7/6.6 (17 %)
APT _{6h} (mm)	0.1/0.0 (NaN)	0.0/0.0 (NaN)	0.0/0.0 (NaN)	0.0/0.0 (NaN)
APT (mm)	24.7/0.0 (NaN)	22.6/0.2 (11200 %)	24.1/0.0 (NaN)	25.0/0.2 (12400 %
	All	_		
$V_{\rm f}$ / $\Delta CO \times 10^4$ ($\mu m^3 \mu m^{-2} ppbv^{-1}$)	3.42/7.55 (-55 %)			
$R_{\rm eff-f}$ (μm)	0.158/0.147 (7 %)			
$R_{f}(\mu m)$	0.176/0.171 (3 %)			
$\sigma_{\rm f}$	0.471/0.470 (0 %)			
V_c / $\Delta CO \times 10^4$ ($\mu m^3 \mu m^{-2} ppbv^{-1}$)	2.04/2.12 (-4 %)			
R_{eff-c} (µm)	1.956/2.085 (-6 %)			
R_{c} (μm)	2.503/2.562 (-2 %)			
_	0 684/0 647 (6 %)			

With the normalization technique, $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ exhibits lower values in the high APT 496 497 category for each season as compared to low APT conditions (Fig. 6), with differences between 498 medians being statistically significant in DJF and MAM based on p-value < 0.05 with a Wilcoxon 499 rank-sum test (Table 2). The DJF season exhibits the greatest reduction of this ratio (by 53%) in high APT conditions (0.29 μ g m⁻³ ppbv⁻¹ versus 0.62 μ g m⁻³ ppbv⁻¹ based on median values; Table 500 501 2). Therefore, these results suggest that it is plausible that wet scavenging has a marked impact on 502 surface $PM_{2.5}$ at a remote ocean site in the WNAO. This also helps support the speculation 503 proposed by Aldhaif et al. (2021) that wet scavenging can reconcile why, in particular for DJF, the 504 high density of trajectories coming from North America correlates with a reduction in fine 505 particulate pollution arriving at Bermuda as compared to other seasons. It is noteworthy that the 506 highest median value of $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ was for the low APT category of DJF providing support for 507 how that season has both greater influence of aerosol transport from North America (when the 508 precipitation scavenging potential is reduced during low APT periods) and the greatest sensitivity 509 to the effects of precipitation over the WNAO owing to the widest range in this ratio's value 510 between high and low APT categories.



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Figure 6. Box notch plot for each season comparing the PM2.5/ACO ratio for Cluster 1
trajectories for high-APT (blue) and low-APT (orange) conditions. APT thresholds are based
on 25th (< 0.9 mm) and 75th (> 13.5 mm) percentiles of APT for all trajectories reaching
Bermuda between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019. The number of samples in each
group is placed on whiskers.

519 Figure 7 additionally shows the seasonal sensitivity of $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ to APT based on four 520 bins of APT (bin ranges shown in Table S3) chosen in such a way to provide similar numbers of 521 data points per bin for each particular season. We note that the general trends are preserved using 522 similar bin ranges in each of the seasons. DJF and MAM show the greatest reductions from the 523 first to last bin as expected based on Table 2, but these also were the only two seasons showing 524 reductions between each successive bin. In contrast, SON and JJA exhibited more variable 525 behavior with $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ actually increasing between a pair of bins in each season. A number of 526 reasons can potentially explain the less pronounced reduction in $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ for SON and JJA: (i) 527 lower values to begin with in the lowest APT bins (and thus lower potential for scavenging to 528 occur); (ii) potential humidity effects associated with air masses at higher APT values promoting 529 secondary aerosol formation (Huang et al., 2014; Quan et al., 2015; Ding et al., 2021); (iii) more 530 influence from natural emissions in the form of dust (especially JJA) and sea salt (especially SON) 531 (Aldhaif et al., 2021). Another noteworthy result is that the season with the clearest scavenging 532 signature (DJF) shows the most sensitivity (i.e., steepest downward slope) between the first two 533 APT bins (0.9 mm versus 4.3 mm) as there was a 26% reduction in $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ (0.584 µg m⁻³ 534 ppbv⁻¹ to 0.435 μ g m⁻³ ppbv⁻¹), resulting in a slope (units of μ g m⁻³ ppbv⁻¹ mm⁻¹) of -0.044 in 535 contrast to slopes of -0.007 and -0.006 for the subsequent two pairs of bins in DJF. Tunved et al.

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(2013) also reported a similar exponential trend between particle mass and accumulated
 precipitation where an initial rapid decrease in particle mass was followed by a decreased removal
 rate of aerosol due to precipitation.





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Figure 7. Seasonal sensitivity of PM2.5/∆CO to APT for Cluster 1 trajectories, divided based
on four APT bins that have a similar number of data points per season. Markers denote
median values and error bars represent the 95% confidence interval for medians based on a
bootstrapping method (n = 100,000). Number of points per marker: DJF = 192 – 194; MAM
= 247 - 251; JJA = 107 - 110; SON = 183 - 191.

546 We next address some additional details motivated by values shown in Table 2. We 547 examine three aerosol constituents linked to anthropogenic outflow from North America, including 548 sulfate, black carbon (BC), and organic carbon (OC) from MERRA-2 reanalysis. We recognize 549 that sulfate and OC have non-anthropogenic precursor vapors such as ocean-emitted dimethyl 550 sulfide and biogenic volatile organic compounds, respectively. Being the most abundant of the 551 three, sulfate exhibits the same characteristics as PM_{2.5} when normalized by ΔCO with the sharpest 552 reduction at high APT conditions in DJF, followed by MAM, and then finally by JJA and SON 553 albeit with p-values > 0.05 for the latter two seasons as compared to low APT conditions. BC/ Δ CO 554 ratios show the same relative characteristics between APT categories as sulfate/ ΔCO for each 555 season, and mostly the same for OC/ Δ CO except that the reduction in the median value in high 556 APT conditions for SON was significant (p-value < 0.05). Regardless of season, but most 557 pronounced in DJF, was the consistent result that $OC/\Delta CO$ exhibited the highest relative reduction 558 at high APT conditions (versus low APT) compared to BC and sulfate. Further work with more 559 expansive observational data is needed to better understand how different species respond to wet 560 scavenging.

561 Normalization by Δ CO was important for assessing transport efficiency of anthropogenic 562 pollution, but we also considered dust and sea salt without Δ CO normalization as they are 563 predominantly emitted by natural sources. Although outside the scope of this study, we caution 564 that MERRA-2 concentrations of sea salt in the PM_{2.5} fraction may exceed those of total PM_{2.5} as 565 measured at Ft. Prospect (Table 2) owing to the inherent differences in the two respective datasets

566 including the larger spatial scale covered by MERRA-2 as compared to the point measurements at 567 Ft. Prospect. Previous analysis of precipitation scavenging ratios over Bermuda showed that larger 568 aerosol types (e.g., sea salt) are removed more efficiently than smaller aerosol types (e.g., sulfate, 569 nitrate) (Galloway et al., 1993). Total sea salt and sea salt in the PM2.5 fraction exhibited higher 570 median concentrations for the high APT category (p-value < 0.05) for all seasons except JJA, 571 which had more comparable values. This can be explained by how thedays experiencing high APT 572 days exhibited significantly higher surface wind speeds around Bermuda for all seasons except JJA, for which wind speeds in general were depressed. Therefore, the reduction of the $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ 573 574 ratio in high APT conditions may actually be an underestimate of wet scavenging of North 575 American pollution outflow since local sea salt is higher windier days marked by high APT.

576 To put this last assertion on firmer ground, we examined local rain values as they could be influential in terms of scavenging the locally generated sea salt. The median values of local rain 577 578 on high APT days for each season based on APT for the most recent 6 hours of trajectories arriving 579 at Bermuda (APT_{6h}) were 0.0 - 0.1 mm, while median values of APT_{6h} on low APT days were 0 580 mm in each season. The only significant difference in median APT_{6h} values was in DJF when it 581 was 0.1 mm on high APT days in contrast to 0.0 mm on low APT days. Therefore, for DJF the 582 slightly enhanced APT_{6h} can possibly offset the greater sea salt emissions in terms of impacting 583 PM_{2.5} levels over Bermuda. Results for the other major natural aerosol type (dust) reveal much 584 lower overall concentrations as compared to sea salt for both bulk sizes and the PM_{2.5} fraction. 585 There was no consistent trend across the four seasons in terms of dust levels being higher for either 586 the low or high APT category, which is not unexpected as dust is not a major aerosol type expected from North American outflow (Yu et al., 2020; Corral et al., 2021). 587 588

589 **3.3.1 Volume Size Distributions**

590 We next examine AERONET volume size distribution (VSD) relationships with APT. We 591 normalize the volume concentration data by corresponding ΔCO in the same way as was done for 592 PM_{2.5}, with the same condition of using data only when $\Delta CO > 3.2$ ppbv. A few cautionary details 593 are first noted about these data in comparison to APT: (i) there are limited VSD data in the 594 AERONET dataset, which is why we use all seasons of data together for Fig. 8 and Table 2; (ii) 595 AERONET data are representative of ambient conditions and changes in relative humidity can influence VSD profiles; and (iii) AERONET data are column-based and not necessarily 596 597 representative of only the surface layer where the trajectories end in our analysis of HYSPLIT 598 data. Related to the last point, past work noted that column optical properties over Bermuda can 599 be weakly correlated with such measurements at the surface (Aryal et al., 2014) due largely to 600 aerosol layers aloft (Ennis and Sievering, 1990). At the same time, studies have shown that there can be enhanced number and volume concentrations in the marine boundary layer versus the free 601 602 troposphere over Bermuda (Horvath et al., 1990; Kim et al., 1990).

603 The median VSDs for both APT categories exhibit a bimodal profile with a more dominant 604 coarse mode, consistent with what is already known for Bermuda based on AERONET data 605 (Aldhaif et al., 2021). The unique aspect of this work is that in high APT conditions, there is a 606 reduction in median volume concentration in the smaller mode between radii of 0.05 and $\sim 1 \,\mu m$, 607 with a slight enhancement on the leading shoulder of the larger mode between radii of 1.71 and $2.94 \mu m$ (Fig. 8). The greatest relative reductions in the fine mode, which is more indicative of 608 609 transported continental pollution, occurred between midpoint radii of 0.15 and 0.33 µm with 610 relative reductions in those four bins (i.e., midpoint radii = 0.15, 0.19, 0.26, and 0.33 µm) ranging

611 from 38% to 52%. The coarse mode peaked at larger radii (3.86 µm) in low APT conditions relative 612 to high APT conditions (2.94 µm).

613 Table 2 reports VSD parameter values for the APT categories separated by fine and coarse 614 modes. Although only significantly different based on 90% confidence (p-value = 0.09), the fine 615 mode volume concentration normalized by ΔCO in the high APT category was less than half (45%) 616 the value in the low APT category. There were insignificant differences between effective radii and volume median radii, in addition to the geometric standard deviation for the fine mode between 617 APT categories. For the coarse mode, only the geometric standard deviation exhibited a significant 618 619 difference by being higher in the high APT category (0.684 versus 0.647), although we presume 620 that has less to do with actual scavenging effects and more to do with different times of the year 621 where the relative abundance of different coarse particle type changes.



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Figure 8. Volume size distributions (VSD) normalized by ΔCO for high APT (> 13 mm; blue, 624 n = 16) and low APT (< 0.9 mm; red, n = 19) groups for Cluster 1 trajectories. Thick curves correspond to medians and shaded areas extend to the 25th and 75th percentiles. VSDs are 625 based on AERONET data between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019. 626

628 The AERONET results support the idea that scavenging on high APT days efficiently 629 removes fine particulate matter but that there can still be appreciable levels of locally generated 630 sea salt due to higher local surface winds on high APT days. Related to the columnar nature of 631 AERONET data, it is important to note that others have reported large-scale subsidence of 632 pollution from the mid and upper troposphere, especially in spring, based on enhanced ozone 633 mixing ratios at the surface of Bermuda (Oltmans and Levy, 1992; Cooper et al., 1998; Milne et 634 al., 2000; Li et al., 2002). Moreover, this phenomenon is synoptically favorable with the transport 635 of North American polluted air behind cold fronts especially in spring (Moody et al., 1995) and often linked to the lifting of polluted air out of the boundary layer by convection over the 636 continental U.S. (Prados et al., 1999). It is unclear based on the current dataset how effective these 637 events were in impacting either the surface layer or columnar-based aerosol measurements at 638 639 Bermuda.

641 3.4 GEOS-Chem Model Results

We conduct four GEOS-Chem simulations of the ²¹⁰Pb submicron aerosol tracer including 642 a) one standard simulation; b) same as the standard simulation but with the ²²²Rn tracer emissions 643 from the North American continent (25-60°N, 130-70°W) removed; c) same as the standard 644 simulation but without ²¹⁰Pb scavenging due to large-scale precipitation; and d) same as the standard simulation but without ²¹⁰Pb scavenging by convective precipitation. The difference 645 646 between a) and b) quantifies the North American contribution to atmospheric ²¹⁰Pb concentrations. 647 The difference between a) and c) reflects the role of large-scale precipitation scavenging, while 648 the difference between a) and d) reflects that of convective precipitation scavenging in determining 649 atmospheric ²¹⁰Pb concentrations. All model simulations are conducted for the period from 650 651 September 2016 to December 2017 with the first four months for spin-up. Monthly mean outputs 652 for 2017 are used for analysis, which is a representative year within the time frame of the analysis 653 presented in Sections 3.1-3.3. This is confirmed by the seasonal APT box chart constructed in Fig. S6 using only 2017 data, which nearly follows the trend observed when the five-year data are used 654 655 (Fig. 5).

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Figure 9. Simulated monthly surface ²¹⁰Pb tracer concentrations submicron mBq/SCM at Bermuda (32.31° N, 64.75° W) in 2017 as a way to assess effects of precipitation scavenging

on North American outflow. Panel (a): monthly mean surface ²¹⁰Pb concentrations in
the standard simulation ("Std") and three sensitivity simulations, i.e., without North
American ²²²Rn emissions ("noNARn"), without large-scale precipitation scavenging
("noLSscav"), and without convective precipitation scavenging ("noCONVscav"). Panel (b):
percentage changes, i.e., (noLSscav-Std)/Std×100 in blue and (noCONVscav-Std)/Std×100 in
orange, and the North American contribution in red, i.e., (Std–noNARn)/Std×100.

Figure 9a shows monthly mean surface ²¹⁰Pb concentrations at Bermuda for 2017 in 666 the standard simulation and three sensitivity simulations. Figure 9b plots the relative changes in 667 simulated ²¹⁰Pb concentrations due to the effects of large-scale or convective precipitation 668 scavenging. Also included in Fig. 9b is the North American contribution. The standard model 669 simulates a seasonality in ²¹⁰Pb concentrations with two distinct peaks in May and August (upper 670 671 panel). The May peak is a result of increased transport from North America in combination with 672 reduced scavenging. In contrast, the August peak results from long-range transport from other 673 continents (e.g., North Africa, Europe) along the southern edge of the Bermuda High. The lows in 674 March and November are attributed to strong large-scale precipitation scavenging, and the low in 675 July is associated with enhanced convective precipitation scavenging. The sensitivity simulations 676 clearly show that the role of large-scale precipitation scavenging in affecting surface ²¹⁰Pb concentrations at Bermuda is much larger in winter/spring than in summer, with a maximum in 677 March (lower panel), while convective scavenging also plays an important role in summer. The relative contribution of North American ²²²Rn emissions is largest in winter (~75-80%), suggesting 678 679 680 air masses reaching Bermuda often experience large-scale precipitation scavenging while 681 traveling from the North American continent during winter. These While the model may have 682 limitations and inherent uncertainties, its results are thusat least consistent with previous results 683 shown already and put, putting our conclusions on firmer ground.

685 3.5 Airborne Case Study

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686 The DJF season has been shown in this study to uniteexhibit the greatest potential for wet 687 scavenging and the highest density of trajectories from North America reaching Bermuda. To probe deeper now, we take advantage of data from ACTIVATE RF6 on 22 February 2020, which 688 689 characterized the intermediate region between North America and Bermuda. Weather in the 690 ACTIVATE domain on this day was characterized by a transition from post-cold front conditions 691 to high pressure. A cold front passed over Bermuda the previous day at approximately 18:00 UTC 692 on 21 February, and by the flight period of RF06 was approximately 600 km southeast of the 693 island. Meanwhile, a broad but weakening area of surface high pressure continued eastward into 694 the southeast U. S. Winds in the boundary layer were southwesterly at around 5 m s⁻¹ near the base 695 of operations (NASA Langley Research Center; Hampton, Virginia), which were associated with a weak trough on the northeast side of the high pressure system. These winds shifted to north-696 northwest near the coast at 2.5 m s⁻¹ and north-northeast at 7.4 m s⁻¹ near the far end of the flight 697 track; Bermuda reported north-northeast winds around 9 m s⁻¹ during this period. Aloft, 500 hPa 698 699 flow was from the west-northwest. NASA Langley reported few to no clouds during the flight 700 period, while Bermuda reported broken clouds with multiple layers (with bases around 900 m and 701 1800 m) and rain showers at or near the airport. This is consistent with satellite imagery (Fig. 10a), 702 which shows an area of scattered to broken cumulus and stratocumulus extending from the cold 703 front near Bermuda to the edge of the Gulf Stream off the U.S. East Coast. Satellite-retrieved cloud 704 bases were at 1-2 km, with cloud tops ranging from 1.5-3.5 km; from the HU-25 Falcon flight



705 legs, cloud bases encountered along the flight track were 750-1100 m and cloud tops were 1200-706 707 1800 m.



710 Figure 10. Summary of ACTIVATE's Research Flight 6 on 22 February 2020. (a) HU-25-711 Falcon flight track overlaid on GOES-16 imagery with the smaller figure to the top left being 712 a zoomed-out version of the WNAO (Bermuda denoted by blue star) and the larger figure 713 zooming in on the area of the flight path.also showing 96 hour back-trajectories calculated 714 for each respective Min Alt. leg. The midpoint of the four Min. Alt. legs are marked along 715 withincluding values for the accumulated precipitation along the trajectory (APT) for the 716 recent history of the sampled air masses when they were over the ocean (time over land 717 excluded from APT calculation). (b(b) Zoomed in version of panel (a) focused on the flight 718 path. (c) Time series of Falcon altitude colored by flight UTC time (color bar in panel ab) 719 and rain water content (RWC) from the 2DS probe. Gray shaded bars signify when FCDP 720 liquid water content exceeded 0.05 g m⁻³, indicative of cloud legs. The same four colored stars 721 from (a) are shown on the x-axis to indicate where they occurred. (e-d-e) Box notch plots of 722 the leg-mean Min. Alt. values of CPC particle (> 10 nm)-concentration, $(> 0.01 \mu \text{m})$, and the

723 number and volume concentrations of the LAS (> $0.09 \ \mu m$). Formatted: Space After: 0 pt, Line spacing: single

725 Figure 10a shows the general flight path, which involved flying to a point southeast of the 726 operations base (Hampton, Virginia) and then re-tracing the path back to land. Four HYSPLIT 727 back-trajectories are shown (Fig. 10a) corresponding to midpoints of each Min. Alt. leg when the 728 aircraft was at its lowest altitude (~500 ft). APT calculations were conducted for segments of those 729 four trajectories that were over the ocean. As a successful validation of the technique, no to focus 730 on wet removal clouds over the WNAO. Negligible rain accumulated up to the point of the Min. 731 Alt. 1 leg, as there were cloud-free conditions between land and that offshore point. In contrast, 732 the next three Min. Alt. legs show higher APT values ranging from 0.6 to 2.4 mm, consistent with the GOES-16 imagery showing cloud fraction increasing just to the southeast of the Min. Alt. 1 733 734 leg. Expectedly, APT values progressively increased with offshore distance as a result of air 735 masses being exposed to clouds for longer periods. Figure S7 shows 27 trajectories obtained for 736 each Min. Alt. leg based on ensemble trajectory analysis which is a technique available in 737 HYSPLIT to evaluate uncertainties in trajectory calculations by offsetting the meteorological data 738 by a fixed grid factor. Average APT values based on ensemble analysis (Fig. S7) were 0.29, 1.18, 739 2.27, and 0.73 mm corresponding to Min. Alt. 1, 2, 3, and 4 legs, respectively, which follow the 740 trend observed in Fig. 10. 741 Shortly after the Min. Alt. 1 leg, the Falcon conducted two consecutive pairs of BCB and

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742 ACB legs (i.e., below cloud base followed by above cloud base), followed by a slant descent to 743 the Min. Alt. 2 leg, where RWC values were enhanced (up to 0.02 g m^{-3} at 19:55:22 UTC) owing 744 to precipitation from overlying clouds. Very shortly thereafter, RWC reached as high as 0.11 g m⁻ 745 ³ (19:56:50 UTC) in the slant ascent profile passing through clouds. The APT value in Min. Alt. 2 746 leg was 1.8 mm. A significant reduction was observed in the aerosol number and volume 747 concentrations for the Min. Alt. 2 leg as compared to the Min. Alt. 1 leg (Figs. 10e-d).10d-e). 748 749 Table S4 reports the statistics for aerosol parameters measured in Min. Alt. legs (Fig. 10), CPC (> 10 nm) concentrations dropped by 93% from a leg-median value of 4938 cm⁻³ during Min. Alt. 1 750 751 to 345 cm⁻³ during Min. Alt. 2, whereas the LAS number and volume (> 100 nm) concentrations dropped from 360 cm⁻³ to 174 cm⁻³ and from 2.0 μ m³ cm⁻³ to 0.9 μ m³ cm⁻³, respectively. Size 752 distribution data in those two legs show a significant reduction in particle concentration across the 753 full diameter range as measured by the SMPS and LAS (Fig. 11). A notable feature from the SMPS 754 was a pronounced peak between 3.5 - 14.1 nm suggestive of nucleation, that was absent in 755 subsequent Min. Alt. legs, presumably owing to some combination of coagulation and scavenging.

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Figure 11. Aerosol size distribution comparison (a = SMPS, b = LAS) between the four HU25 Falcon Min. Alt. legs during ACTIVATE Research Flight 6, as shown in Fig. 10.

759 760 The aircraft continued southeast after the Min. Alt. 2 leg and passed through more patches 761 of precipitation, leading to the highest APT value of 2.4 mm in the Min. Alt. 3 leg, where legmedian values were as follows: $CPC = 165 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, LAS number = 66 cm⁻³, LAS volume = 0.4 μm^{-3} 762 763 cm⁻³. While the SMPS distributions in the Min. Alt. 2 and 3 legs were very similar, the LAS size distribution in the Min. Alt. 3 leg is shifted towards lower concentrations, especially below 400 764 765 nm. On the path back towards Virginia, the Falcon conducted one final Min. Alt. 4 leg right before 766 the boundary between cloudy and clear air, with the APT value being 0.6 mm. Between the Min. 767 Alt. 3 and 4 legs, again, significant RWC values were observed reaching as high as 0.26 g m^3 at 768 20:54:20 UTC. Aerosol concentration measurements increased relative to the Min. Alt. 2 and 3 769 legs (leg-median values): CPC = 1076 cm⁻³, LAS number = 545 cm⁻³, LAS volume = $1.8 \mu m^3$ cm⁻¹ 770 ³. It is difficult to compare results from the Min. Alt. 1 and 4 legs as ~2 hours had passed and there 771 were different conditions impacting the two respective sampled air masses. The size distributions 772 varied considerably for the Min. Alt. 4 leg as compared to the other three legs with increased 773 concentrations between 20-200 nm, presumably as a result of continued pollution outflow and 774 more photochemistry and aerosol growth processing as compared to earlier in the day.

775 To conclude, it is plausible based on the case flight data that the emerging presence of 776 clouds and precipitation led to the substantial reduction of aerosol particles with distance offshore via wet scavenging processes. Further research is warranted with more extensive data to move 777 778 closer to showing causal relationships between precipitation and aerosol particles. For instance, a 779 few points of caution from RF6 are worth mentioning. First, the coastal trajectories in Fig. 10 780 corresponding to the different Min Alt. legs originated from varying places extending from the 781 Virginia coast up north towards Cape Cod, Massachusetts. Secondly, cloud dynamics and 782 boundary layer structure can vary offshore. Related to the latter, PBLH data obtained from 783 MERRA-2 along the flight track revealed that there were deeper boundary layers farther offshore, 784 but not sufficiently deeper to fully explain the reductions in aerosol concentration: PBLH corresponding to Min. Alt. 1/2/3/4 = 1156/1728/1740/1530 m. Lastly, aerosol concentrations
 linked to continental outflow naturally decrease anyways offshore, including in cloud-free
 conditions, owing to dilution during transport.

789 4. Conclusion

788

790 This study examines the sensitivity of surface aerosol characteristics over a remote area of 791 the western North Atlantic Ocean (Bermuda) to precipitation along trajectories coming from North 792 America. Based on trajectory clustering with HYSPLIT data, two characteristic transport corridors 793 to Bermuda's surface layer (100 m AGL) were identified, with the focus being the one coming 794 from North America (Cluster 1). Seasonal analysis of HYSPLIT and Bermuda surface data showed 795 that JJA is distinct in terms of having transport from the southeast with the other seasons, especially 796 DJF, having more North American influence with higher concentrations of CO. Comparing Cluster 797 1 trajectories data between high (>13.5 mm) and low (<0.9 mm) accumulated precipitation along 798 trajectories (APT₇), there was a clear signature of wet scavenging effects by precipitation with 799 more than a two-fold reduction in PM_{2.5}/ Δ CO in DJF (0.29 µg m⁻³ ppbv⁻¹ versus 0.62 µg m⁻³ ppbv⁻¹ 800 ¹), with the reduction being less severe for other seasons. The greatest sensitivity of $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ to 801 APT was at the lowest values (up to ~ 5 mm; slope of -0.044 µg m⁻³ ppbv⁻¹ mm⁻¹), above which 802 the descending slope of $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ versus APT was less steep.

803 Speciated data indicate that anthropogenic species such as sulfate, black carbon, and 804 organic carbon are reduced as a function of APT (much like PM_{2.5}). However, sea salt was not 805 necessarily reduced and at times could even be higher at Bermuda with high APT conditions, 806 which is attributed to higher local wind speeds and emissions at the surface on days simultaneous 807 with high APT trajectories. Analysis of AERONET volume size distribution data at Bermuda 808 confirms the substantial reduction of fine mode volume concentrations in contrast to lessa smaller 809 change in the coarse mode on high APT days. GEOS-Chem simulations of the radionuclide aerosol tracer ²¹⁰Pb confirm that North American influence at the surface of Bermuda is highest in DJF, 810 811 with those air masses significantly impacted by large-scale (i.e., stratiform and anvil) precipitation 812 scavenging; furthermore, convective scavenging is shown to play an important role in summer months. A research flight from ACTIVATE on 22 February 2020 demonstrates a significant 813 814 gradient in aerosol number and volume concentrations offshore of North America as soon as 815 trajectories start passing across clouds, consistent with increasing APT away from the coast 816 leading to increased aerosol particle removal.

817 Our results have implications for other remote marine regions impacted by transport of 818 continental emissions. These results also highlight the important role of precipitation in modifying 819 aerosol levels, including potentially their vertical distribution (e.g., Luan and Jaeglé, 2013), along 820 continental outflow trajectories. We show that cloud and precipitation processes along trajectories 821 have significant impacts on resultant aerosol characteristics, suggesting that wet. Therefore, it is 822 important to strongly constrain we scavenging processes in models require stronger constraints 823 than other to improve aerosol microphysical/chemical processes to improve the forecasting of 824 aerosol properties in marine atmospheres.over the WNAO

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- 828 Data Availability.
- 829 Fort Prospect Station Aerosol/Gas Measurements:
- 830 https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2
- 831 AERONET: https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/
- 832 HYSPLIT: https://www.ready.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php
- 833 MERRA-2: https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/
- 834 GEOS-Chem Model: http://wiki.seas.harvard.edu/geos-chem/index.php/GEOS-Chem_v11-01
- 835 Section 3.5 ACTIVATE Airborne Data:
- 836 https://doi.org/10.5067/SUBORBITAL/ACTIVATE/DATA001
- 837 Section 3.5 airport weather data: http://mesonet.agron.iastate.edu/ASOS/
- 838 Section 3.5 ocean surface analysis charts and GFS 500 hPa analysis:
- 839 https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/ncep-charts/access/
- 840 Section 3.5 North America Analysis/Satellite composite:
- $841 \qquad https://www.wpc.ncep.noaa.gov/archives/web_pages/sfc/sfc_archive_maps.php$
- 842 Section 3.5 Satellite imagery/products: https://satcorps.larc.nasa.gov/cgi-
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- 844 Author contributions. HD and MA conducted the analysis. AS and HD prepared the manuscript.
- 845 HL and BZ performed GEOS-Chem model radionuclide simulations and output analysis. All
- authors contributed by providing input and/or participating in airborne data collection.
- 847 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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