

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

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 North American pollution outflow is ubiquitous over the western North Atlantic Ocean, especially
28 in winter, making this location ~~an ideal~~ a 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 ($\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$) 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 $\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$ under high APT conditions (> 13.5 mm) relative to
37 low APT conditions (< 0.9 mm). Moreover, $\text{PM}_{2.5}/\Delta\text{CO}$ was most sensitive to increases in APT
38 up to 5 mm ($-0.044 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ppbv}^{-1} \text{mm}^{-1}$) and less sensitive to increases in APT over 5 mm. While
39 anthropogenic $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ constituents (e.g., black carbon, sulfate, organic carbon) decrease with high
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 ^{210}Pb
44 submicron aerosol tracer and its gaseous precursor ^{222}Rn reveal that (i) surface aerosol particles at
45 Bermuda are most impacted by wet scavenging in winter/spring (due to large-scale precipitation)
46 with a maximum in March, whereas convective scavenging plays a substantial role in summer;
47 and (ii) North American ^{222}Rn tracer emissions contribute most to surface ^{210}Pb concentrations at
48 Bermuda in winter (~ 75 - 80%), indicating that air masses arriving at Bermuda experience large-
49 scale precipitation scavenging while traveling from North America. A case study flight from the
50 ACTIVATE field campaign on 22 February 2020 reveals a significant reduction in aerosol number
51 and volume concentrations during air mass transport off the U.S. East Coast associated with
52 increased cloud fraction and precipitation. These results highlight the sensitivity of remote marine
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.

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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
60 to investigate long-range transport of aerosol particles and their associated properties (e.g., Silva
61 et al., 2020). The western North Atlantic Ocean (WNAO) includes the island of Bermuda, which
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
66 receptor site for both North African dust (Chen and Duce, 1983) and anthropogenic outflow from
67 both North America (Arimoto et al., 1992; Galloway et al., 1989; Moody et al., 2014; Corral et al.,
68 2021) and Europe (Anderson et al., 1996; Cutter, 1993). North American outflow reaching
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
82 are sparse not only for the WNAO but also for other regions (Tunved et al., 2013; Hilario et al.,
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
86 were based on rain data collected at Bermuda without knowledge of ~~rain along trajectory~~
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
91 (Moody and Galloway, 1988; Todd et al., 2003).

92 In their recent aerosol climatology study for Bermuda, Aldhaif et al. (2021) found the
93 peculiar result that fine particulate pollution in the winter months (December-February) was
94 reduced even though there was an enhanced number density of air mass back trajectories traced
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.

101 **2. Datasets and Methods**

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

Table 1. Summary of datasets used in this work. Data are between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019, with the exception of ACTIVATE aircraft data based on a single flight day on 22 February 2020. ~~GEOS-Chem simulations are separately described in Section 2.5.~~ Section 2 provides more details about the datasets used in this study, including specific instruments from the ACTIVATE airborne dataset.

Parameter	Acronym	Data Source	Time Resolution	Website
Particulate-matter-mass-concentration (aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 μm)	PM _{2.5}	Fort-Prospect-Station	Hourly	https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2
Particulate-matter-mass-concentration (aerodynamic diameter less than 10 μm)	PM ₁₀	Fort-Prospect-Station	Daily	https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2
Nitrogen-monoxide-concentration	NO	Fort-Prospect-Station	Hourly	https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2
Nitrogen-dioxide-concentration	NO ₂	Fort-Prospect-Station	Hourly	https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2
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/
Carbon-monoxide-surface-concentration	CO	MERRA-2	Hourly	https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/
Aerosol-speciated-surface-mass-concentrations	-	MERRA-2	Hourly	https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/
Surface-wind-speed	WindsF	MERRA-2	Hourly	https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/
Planetary-boundary-layer-height	PBLH	MERRA-2	Hourly	https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/
Back-trajectory	-	HYSPLIT	N/A	https://www.ready.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php
Precipitation	APT/Rain	GDAS	Hourly	https://www.ready.noaa.gov/archives.php
Aerosol/cloud-properties	-	Airborne-ACTIVATE	1-45 Sec	https://doi.org/10.5067/SUBORBITAL/ACTIVATE/DATA001

Parameter	Acronym	Data Source	Spatial Resolution	Time Resolution
Particulate matter mass concentration (aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 μm)	PM _{2.5}	Fort Prospect Station	-	Hourly
Particulate matter mass concentration (aerodynamic diameter less than 10 μm)	PM ₁₀	Fort Prospect Station	-	Daily
Nitrogen monoxide concentration	NO	Fort Prospect Station	-	Hourly
Nitrogen dioxide concentration	NO ₂	Fort Prospect Station	-	Hourly
Nitrogen oxide concentration	NO _x	Fort Prospect Station	-	Hourly
Volume size distribution	VSD	AERONET	-	Hourly
Carbon monoxide surface concentration	CO	MERRA-2	0.625° × 0.5°	Hourly
Aerosol speciated surface mass concentrations	-	MERRA-2	0.625° × 0.5°	Hourly
Surface wind speed	WindsF	MERRA-2	0.625° × 0.5°	Hourly
Planetary boundary layer height	PBLH	MERRA-2	0.625° × 0.5°	Hourly
Precipitation	APT/Rain	GDAS	1° × 1°	Hourly

2.1 Bermuda Surface Measurements

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

PM₁₀ concentrations were determined based on U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) method IO-2 (EPA, 1999) using a Tisch model TE6070 hi-volume air sampler, equipped with 8" × 10" TissuQuartz 2500 QAT-UP quartz fiber filters. The PM₁₀ sampler was operated at a 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 national ambient air quality schedule used by EPA. Prior to deployment, the filters were equilibrated for 24 hr in an environmental control chamber maintaining constant conditions of relative humidity (35 ± 2%) and temperature (21 ± 2°C). The filters were then weighed with a precision of ± 0.1 mg using a Mettler Toledo AB104 balance, which was modified for weighing unfolded 8" × 10" filters, and then transferred to clean re-sealable plastic bags for transportation to the field site. After sampling, the exposed filters were returned immediately to the laboratory where they were re-equilibrated in the environmental control chamber for 24 hr before being re-weighed to determine the particle loading from which particle concentrations were calculated. PM₁₀ determinations have an accuracy of within ± 2.5%, which is equivalent to ± 0.2 μg m⁻³ based on the average of PM_{2.5} between 2015 and 2019 (i.e., 6.7 μg m⁻³).

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

166 2.2 Reanalysis Data

167 Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications-Version 2 (MERRA-2)
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.~~

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
185 be within the surface layer and close to the measurement site. As discussed later, sensitivity
186 analysis with higher ending altitudes (500 m and 1 km; Figs. S1-S2) ~~reveal~~reveals similar results
187 to using 100 m. Four trajectories were initialized (i.e., 6-hour interval) each day between 1 January
188 2015 00:00:00 UTC and 31 December 2019 18:00:00 UTC resulting in a total of 7304 individual
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.~~ Moreover, accumulated
193 ~~precipitation along the trajectories based on (APT) was calculated by integrating surface~~
194 ~~precipitation data from GDAS one-degree data throughout the transport to the receptor site. As~~
195 ~~GDAS precipitation data corresponds to the surface level, it should be noted that APT values~~
196 ~~presented in this study are associated with the potential maximum level of precipitation~~
197 ~~experienced by the air parcel through its transport journey.~~ Results presented in Figs. 1-3 are based
198 on 10-day back-trajectories, whereas analyses presented in the remaining sections of the paper are
199 based on 4-day (96 hr) back-trajectories.

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

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in this work. Another factor that can contribute to the uncertainties for the results presented in this work is the use of GDAS as the source of precipitation data as previous works (Sun et al., 2018; Nogueira 2020) have demonstrated that there is some level of disagreement between precipitation datasets.

2.3.1 Concentration Weighted Trajectory Analysis and Seasonal Rain Maps

Concentration weighted trajectories (CWT) were calculated based on the 10-day back-trajectories from HYSPLIT in conjunction with Bermuda surface PM_{2.5} data described in Section 2.1. The CWT method has been implemented widely to identify long-range pollutant transport pathways impacting a receptor site (Hsu et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2009; Hilario et al., 2020). Seasonal maps of average precipitation experienced by trajectories were also estimated based on 10-day back-trajectories from HYSPLIT. The aforementioned analyses were performed for 0.5°×0.5° grids covering the area encompassed by 10°–80°N and 5°–170°W. A weight function (W_{ij} in Eq. 1) following the method of Dimitriou et al. (2015) was applied in the CWT analysis and precipitation maps to increase statistical stability. In Eq. 1, n_{avg} is the average number of trajectory end points per individual grid 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).

$$W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & n_{ij} > 3 n_{avg} \\ 0.7 & 1.5 n_{avg} < n_{ij} < 3 n_{avg} \\ 0.4 & n_{avg} < n_{ij} < 1.5 n_{avg} \\ 0.2 & n_{ij} < n_{avg} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

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.

2.3.2 Trajectory Clustering

Hierarchical agglomerative clustering was used to identify characteristic trajectories reaching Bermuda at 100 m (AGL). Hierarchical clustering was based on the “complete linkage” method (Govender and Sivakumar, 2020). Four-day HYSPLIT back-trajectories were used to perform clustering analysis. Distances between trajectories were calculated using the Haversine formula, which calculates distance between two points on Earth assuming they are on a great circle (Sinnott, 1984). The distance between any two trajectories was calculated as the sum of distances between trajectory endpoints. Subsequently, clustering was conducted based on the symmetric distance matrix, which includes the distances between all pairs of trajectories. Clustering was performed for varying numbers of clusters, ranging between 2 and 32. The L-method (Kassomenos et al., 2010) was implemented to identify the optimum number of clusters. In this method, root mean square deviation (RMSD) was calculated for each clustering run and then plotted versus the

254 number of clusters to determine the optimum solution. RMSDs were estimated based on the
255 distances between trajectories and associated mean cluster trajectories.

256

257 **2.4 Airborne Measurements**

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

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

278

279 **2.5 Radionuclide tracers in GEOS-Chem Model**

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

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

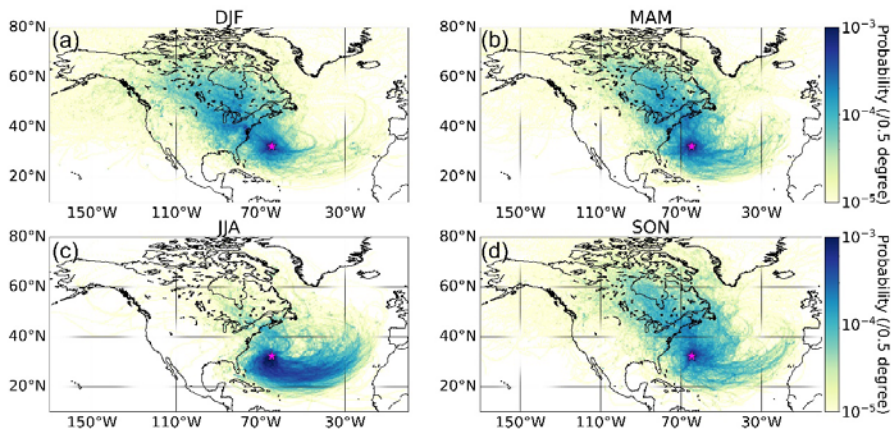
300 archived convective mass fluxes (Wu et al., 2007), and uses the non-local boundary-layer mixing
301 scheme implemented by Lin and McElroy (2010). The wet deposition scheme follows that of Liu
302 et al. (2001) and includes rainout (in-cloud scavenging) due to large-scale (stratiform and anvil)
303 precipitation, scavenging in convective updrafts, and washout (below-cloud scavenging) by
304 precipitation (Wang et al., 2011). A modification to the large-scale precipitation scavenging
305 scheme is included to use spatiotemporally varying cloud water contents from MERRA-2 instead
306 of a fixed constant value in the original model (Luo et al., 2019). Dry deposition is based on the
307 resistance-in-series scheme of Wesely (1989).
308

309 **3. Results and Discussion**

310 **3.1 Seasonal Profiles**

311 **3.1.1 Back-Trajectories**

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



330 **Figure 1. Seasonal maps (a-d) showing the probability density of trajectories calculated**
 331 **based on 10-day HYSPLIT backward trajectories reaching Bermuda (32.30° N, 64.77° W),**
 332 **denoted by the pink star, at 100 m (AGL). This analysis is based on trajectories between 01**
 333 **January 2015 and 31 December 2019. Analogous results for ending altitudes of 500 m and 1**
 334 **km are shown in Figs. S1 and S2, respectively.**

3.1.2 Surface Aerosol and NO_x

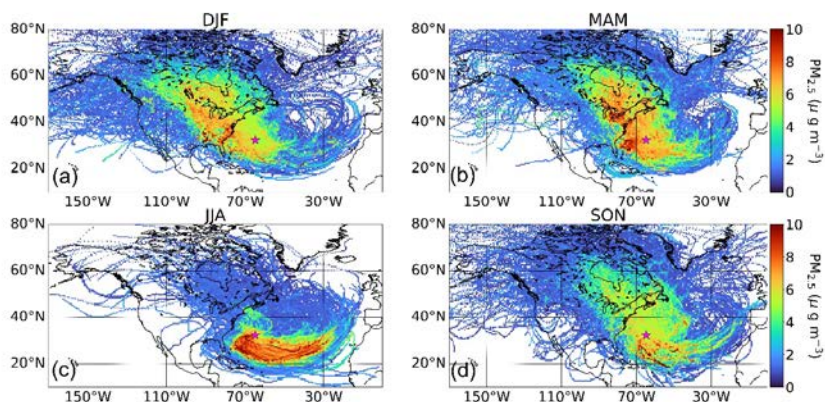
338 Recent work has shown a seasonal cycle over Bermuda for column-integrated aerosol
 339 properties, with aerosol optical depth (AOD) being highest in March-May (MAM) and JJA and
 340 lowest in September-November (SON) and DJF (Aldhaif et al., 2021). They further showed that
 341 sea salt contributed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

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

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359 **Figure 2. Seasonal (a-d) concentration-weighted trajectory maps (CWT) for PM_{2.5} measured**
 360 **at Fort Prospect in Bermuda, denoted by the pink star. This analysis is based on trajectories**
 361 **between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019.**
 362

363 While we focus on long-range transport of PM_{2.5} to Bermuda, local sources cannot be
 364 ignored, including both sea salt and non-sea salt species (e.g., Galloway et al., 1988). The island
 365 has a population of approximately 64,000 as of 2016 (Government of Bermuda, 2019). Local
 366 influence from anthropogenic sources has been reported to be insignificant in contrast to
 367 transported pollution (Galloway et al., 1988; Keene et al., 2014). We assess how significant local
 368 anthropogenic sources are based on day-of-week aerosol concentrations and whether significantly
 369 higher levels exist on working days as compared to weekend days as shown in other regions with
 370 strong anthropogenic influence (Hilario et al., 2020 and references therein). Our analysis found
 371 negligible difference between working days (Monday-Friday) and weekend days (Saturday-
 372 Sunday) for both PM_{2.5} and NO_x when analysis was done based on annual (Figs. S3b/d), including
 373 when resolved by season or seasonal data (Figs. S4-S5). Therefore, it is less likely that local
 374 anthropogenic emissions dominate the island's PM_{2.5} and NO_x, providing support for transported
 375 sources being more influential; as will be shown, normalizing PM_{2.5} by CO helps control for local
 376 anthropogenic influence.

377 We also examined seasonal and day-of-week statistics for PM₁₀ to assess the relative
 378 importance of coarse aerosol types including mainly sea salt and dust (Figs. S3e-f). Results reveal
 379 the highest median PM₁₀ values (µg m⁻³) in DJF (19.24), followed by MAM (18.51), JJA (17.98),
 380 and SON (15.88). As will be shown later and already documented (Aldhaif et al., 2021), surface
 381 wind speeds around Bermuda are highest in DJF, contributing to higher sea salt emissions.
 382 Expectedly there was no observable PM₁₀ weekly cycle as dust and sea salt are naturally emitted.
 383 Both PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ exhibited their highest seasonal standard deviations in JJA owing most likely
 384 to the episodic nature of some pollution events such as with dust and biomass burning (e.g., Aldhaif
 385 et al., 2021).
 386

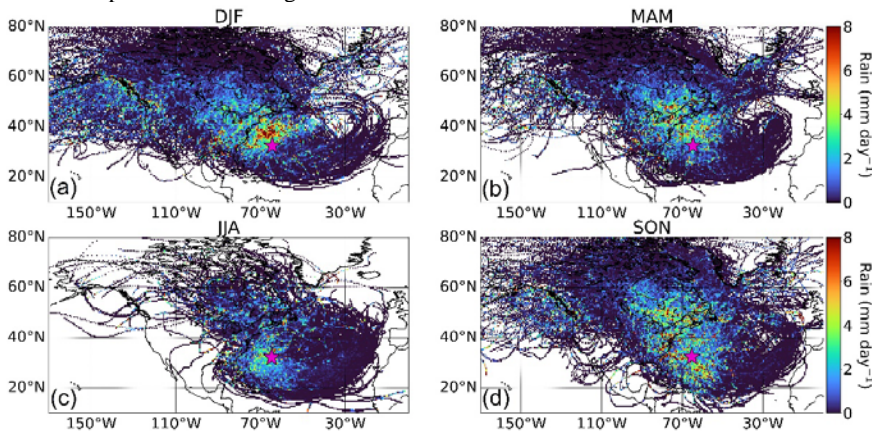
387 3.1.3 Precipitation Along Trajectories

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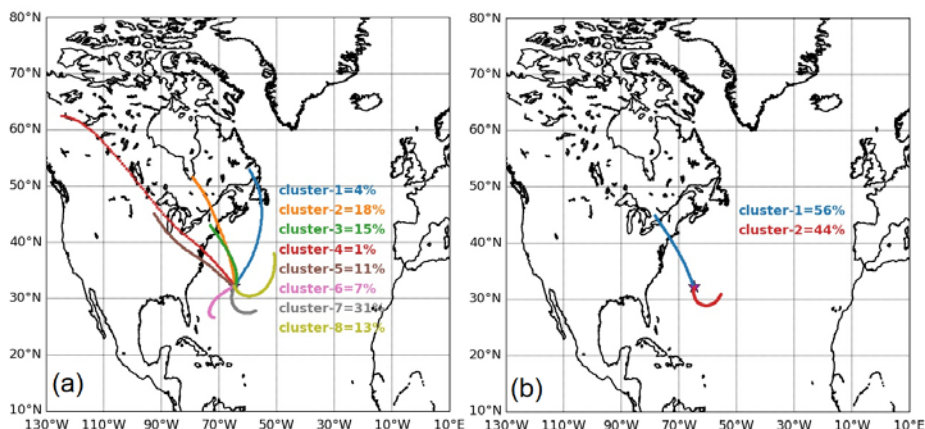
389 Figure 3 shows seasonal profiles of average precipitation rate obtained from GDAS (Table
 390 1) in $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ grids based on 10-day back trajectories arriving at Bermuda (100 m AGL). The
 391 spatiotemporal pattern of precipitation over the WNAO is of most interest in terms of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



398
 399 **Figure 3. Seasonal maps (a-d) of average precipitation occurring in $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ grids based on**
 400 **10-day backward trajectories reaching Bermuda (32.30° N, 64.77° W; pink star) at 100 m**
 401 **(AGL). This analysis is based on trajectories between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019.**
 402

403 3.2 Trajectory Clustering

404 Prior to examining how precipitation directly impacts $PM_{2.5}$ at Bermuda, we identify
 405 characteristic trajectory pathways using the hierarchical agglomerative clustering method
 406 described in Section 2.3.2. We reiterate that this analysis is based on 4 days of back-trajectories,
 407 rather than 10 days from Figs. 1-3, to focus more on transport closer to Bermuda. The optimum
 408 solution based on the L-method (see Section 2.3.2) resulted in eight trajectory clusters (Fig. 4a),
 409 with five (numbered 1-5) coming from North America and the remaining three (numbered 6-8)
 410 more characteristic of the anticyclonic circulation described already for JJA. The former five
 411 clusters account for 49% of the total trajectories, with the latter three responsible for the remaining
 412 51%. The majority of trajectories from North America come offshore north of North Carolina (i.e.,
 413 coastal areas north of $\sim 35^\circ$ N).

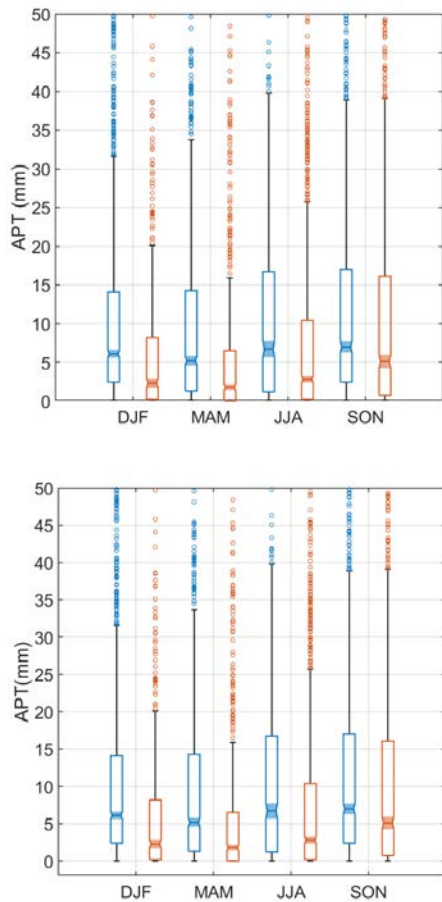


414
 415 **Figure 4. Cluster mean trajectories based on the (a) optimum solution having eight clusters**
 416 **and (b) a simplified solution with two clusters to enhance statistics for North American**
 417 **trajectories. Clustering was performed on four-day HYSPLIT backward trajectories**
 418 **between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019.**
 419

420 For the sake of simplicity of the remainder of the discussion, we reduced the number of
 421 characteristic trajectories to two (Fig. 4b) by conducting a new clustering analysis, to have one
 422 from North America and the other from the southeast. Using only two clusters increases the
 423 number of data points in the North American cluster for more robust calculations of rain-aerosol
 424 relationships. Our choice to put together all North American air mass clusters into one group is
 425 aligned with a similar clustering choice by Chen and Duce (1983; see their Fig. 3) where
 426 trajectories were grouped together from Florida to the Canadian maritime provinces. Also, Mead
 427 et al. (2013) divided trajectory data ending at Bermuda into “Saharan” and “non-Saharan” seasons
 428 that generally coincide with our division of data into two clusters. Cluster 1 from North America
 429 accounts for 56% of trajectories and Cluster 2 from the southeast is linked to 44% of trajectories.
 430 It is clear from the two clusters that the North American air masses generally move faster as the
 431 characteristic 4-day back-trajectories originate farther away from Bermuda than that of Cluster 2.
 432

433 Regardless of season, Cluster 1 was associated with higher APT values with the seasonal
 434 median values (units of mm) as follows (Cluster1/Cluster 2): DJF = 6.1/2.3; MAM = 5.2/1.8; JJA
 435 = 6.7/2.8; SON = 7.0/5.1. Figure 5 shows a box notch plot comparing APT between clusters for
 436 each season, demonstrating statistically significant differences in median values between clusters
 437 for a given season at 95% confidence. Furthermore, Cluster 1 exhibited higher CO levels at
 438 Bermuda for each season with median values (units of ppbv) as follows (Cluster 1/Cluster 2): DJF
 439 =89.7/76.3; MAM = 88.5/75.0; JJA = 68.9/58.7; SON = 81.6/65.6. Therefore, the combination of
 440 pollution outflow from North America and higher APT values makes Cluster 1 more ~~ideal~~relevant
 441 in terms of identifying potential wet scavenging effects on transported aerosol over the WNAO.
 The remainder of the study thus focuses on Cluster 1.

442



443

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

452

453 3.3 North America Trajectory Results

454

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

456 thresholds being the 25th percentile (< 0.9 mm) and 75th percentile (> 13.5 mm), respectively, based
457 on cumulative data from all seasons and years. As wet scavenging is expected to reduce PM_{2.5}
458 during its transport from North America to Bermuda, we anticipate lower PM_{2.5} values at high
459 APT. However, the results indicate this is only the case for MAM and JJA, with similar median
460 values in SON and a higher median value in DJF for high APT conditions. Interestingly, NO, NO₂,
461 NO_x, and CO were all significantly higher in DJF for high APT conditions too, raising. This raises
462 the issue that absolute PM_{2.5} concentrations should be normalized to account for the differences in
463 concentration that existed closer to North America prior to potential wet scavenging over the
464 WNAO.

465 To study the effects of wet removal processes on aerosol particles during long-range
466 transport to a receptor site, many studies have used aerosol concentrations normalized by the
467 concentration of an inert gaseous species co-emitted with particles at distance sources. Such
468 normalization is critical and superior to the use of only aerosol concentration as the latter can be
469 influenced by local sources that can mask aerosol response to removal processes during long-range
470 transport. CO exhibits three important traits qualifying it as a species to normalize PM_{2.5} by: (i) a
471 reliable marker of anthropogenic pollution stemming from North America (Corral et al., 2021);
472 (ii) being relatively insensitive to wet scavenging processes; and (iii) having a long lifetime in the
473 atmosphere (~1 month; Weinstock, 1969) compared to aerosol particles. Consequently, we
474 normalize PM_{2.5} by ΔCO to quantify transport efficiency and to reveal the potential effects of wet
475 scavenging as has been done in past studies for other regions (Park et al., 2005; Garrett et al., 2010;
476 Hilario et al., 2021; Matsui et al., 2011; Moteki et al., 2012; Oshima et al., 2012). We first
477 determine the 5th percentile value of surface CO at Bermuda for each season for Cluster 1
478 trajectories and assume those are the seasonal background values as done also by Matsui et al.
479 (2011). We then calculate ΔCO as the difference between each 6-hourly CO data point at Bermuda
480 and the background value for a given season. We only use data when $\Delta\text{CO} > 3.2$ ppbv to ensure a
481 sufficiently high signal to noise ratio (Garrett et al., 2010).

482
483 **Table 2. Seasonal medians of aerosol, gas, and meteorological variables for Cluster 1 divided**
484 **into high- and low-APT categories. Differences in median values that are statistically**
485 **significant (p-value < 0.05) based on a Wilcoxon rank-sum test are highlighted with bold and**
486 **italic font. Percentage differences* between high- and low-APT median values are provided**
487 **in parentheses. NO, NO₂, NO_x, and PM_{2.5} are based on Fort Prospect measurements, whereas**
488 **all other parameters are from MERRA-2 with the exception of the two APT rows (derived**
489 **from HYSPLIT and GDAS) and the last 8 rows corresponding to AERONET volume size**
490 **distribution data. We combined all seasons for AERONET data to have sufficient statistics**
491 **for comparisons (high APT = 16 points, low APT = 19 points). AERONET parameters**
492 **include volume concentration (V), effective radii (R_{eff}), volume median radii (R), and**
493 **geometric standard deviation (σ) with subscripts f and c for fine and coarse modes,**
494 **respectively. Number of data points for each table entry is summarized in Table S1S2.**
495

Parameter	High-rain (APT > 13.5 mm)/Low-rain (APT < 0.9 mm) (% Difference*)			
	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} /ΔCO (µg 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/ΔCO (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} /ΔCO (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} /ΔCO (µg m ⁻³ ppbv ⁻¹)	0.015/0.033 (-55 %)	0.042/0.062 (-32 %)	0.087/0.053 (64 %)	0.018/0.017 (6 %)
Winds _{SE} (m s ⁻¹)	8.5/7.1 (20 %)	8.4/5.9 (42 %)	4.4/4.7 (-6 %)	7.7/6.6 (17 %)
APT _{th} (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 _r /ΔCO × 10 ⁴ (µm ³ µm ⁻² ppbv ⁻¹)	3.42/7.55 (-55 %)			
R _{eff-r} (µm)	0.158/0.147 (7 %)			
R _r (µm)	0.176/0.171 (3 %)			
σ _r	0.471/0.470 (0 %)			
V _c /ΔCO × 10 ⁴ (µm ³ µm ⁻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 %)			
σ _c	0.684/0.647 (6 %)			

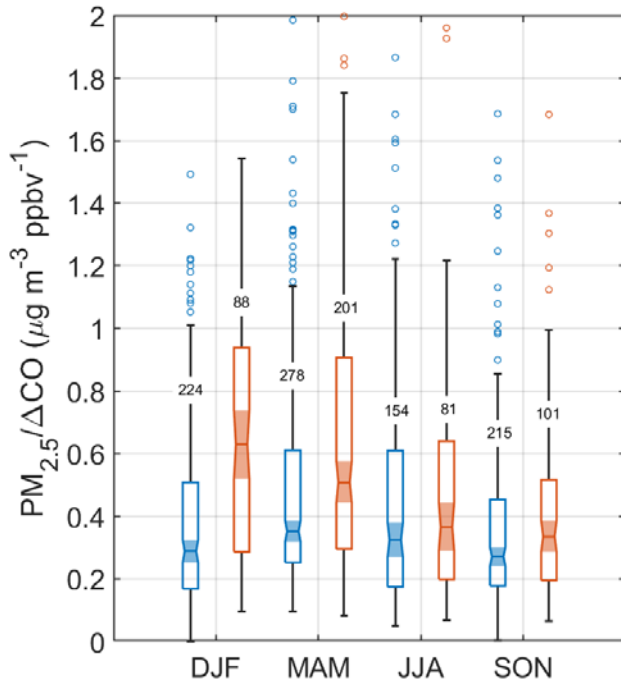
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$$* \% \text{ difference} = \frac{X_{\text{High-rain}} - X_{\text{Low-rain}}}{X_{\text{Low-rain}}} \times 100$$

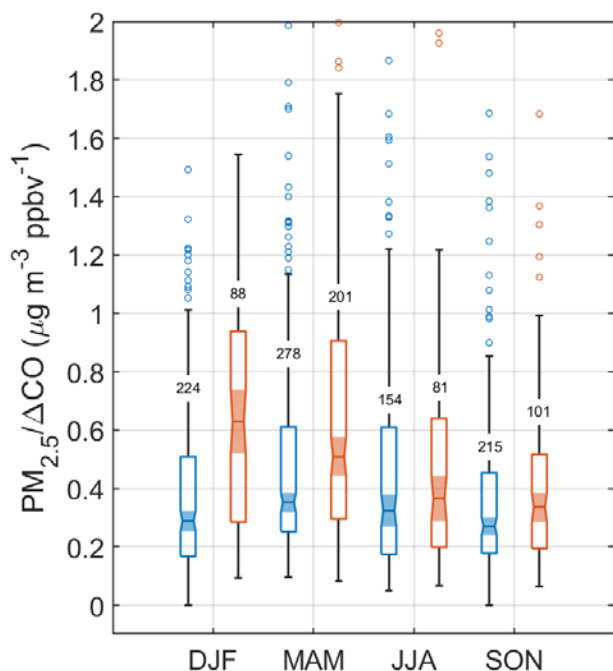
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With the normalization technique, $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ exhibits lower values in the high APT category for each season as compared to low APT conditions (Fig. 6), with differences between medians being statistically significant in DJF and MAM based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



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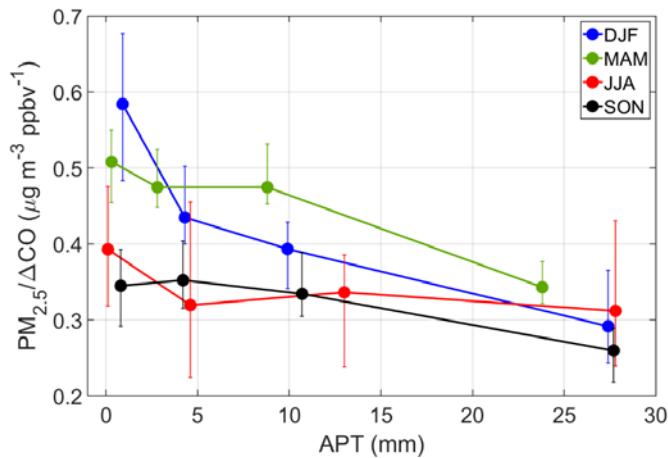


517 **Figure 6. Box notch plot for each season comparing the $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ ratio for Cluster 1**
 518 **trajectories for high-APT (blue) and low-APT (orange) conditions. APT thresholds are based**
 519 **on 25th (< 0.9 mm) and 75th (> 13.5 mm) percentiles of APT for all trajectories reaching**
 520 **Bermuda between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019. The number of samples in each**
 521 **group is placed on whiskers.**

523 Figure 7 additionally shows the seasonal sensitivity of $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ to APT based on four
 524 bins of APT (bin ranges shown in Table S3) chosen in such a way to provide similar numbers of
 525 data points per bin for each particular season. We note that the general trends are preserved using
 526 similar bin ranges in each of the seasons. DJF and MAM show the greatest reductions from the
 527 first to last bin as expected based on Table 2, but these also were the only two seasons showing
 528 reductions between each successive bin. In contrast, SON and JJA exhibited more variable
 529 behavior with $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ actually increasing between a pair of bins in each season. A number of
 530 reasons can potentially explain the less pronounced reduction in $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ for SON and JJA: (i)
 531 lower values to begin with in the lowest APT bins (and thus lower potential for scavenging to
 532 occur); (ii) potential humidity effects associated with air masses at higher APT values promoting
 533 secondary aerosol formation (Huang et al., 2014; Quan et al., 2015; Ding et al., 2021); (iii) more
 534 influence from natural emissions in the form of dust (especially JJA) and sea salt (especially SON)
 535 (Aldhaif et al., 2021). Another noteworthy result is that the season with the clearest scavenging
 536 signature (DJF) shows the most sensitivity (i.e., steepest downward slope) between the first two
 537 APT bins (0.9 mm versus 4.3 mm) as there was a 26% reduction in $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ ($0.584 \mu g m^{-3}$
 538 $ppbv^{-1}$ to $0.435 \mu g m^{-3} ppbv^{-1}$), resulting in a slope (units of $\mu g m^{-3} ppbv^{-1} mm^{-1}$) of -0.044 in
 539 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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540 (2013) also reported a similar exponential trend between particle mass and accumulated
 541 precipitation where an initial rapid decrease in particle mass was followed by a decreased removal
 542 rate of aerosol due to precipitation.



543 **Figure 7. Seasonal sensitivity of $PM_{2.5}/\Delta CO$ to APT for Cluster 1 trajectories, divided based**
 544 **on four APT bins that have a similar number of data points per season. Markers denote**
 545 **median values and error bars represent the 95% confidence interval for medians based on a**
 546 **bootstrapping method ($n = 100,000$). Number of points per marker: DJF = 192 – 194; MAM**
 547 **= 247 – 251; JJA = 107 – 110; SON = 183 – 191.**
 548
 549

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

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

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

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

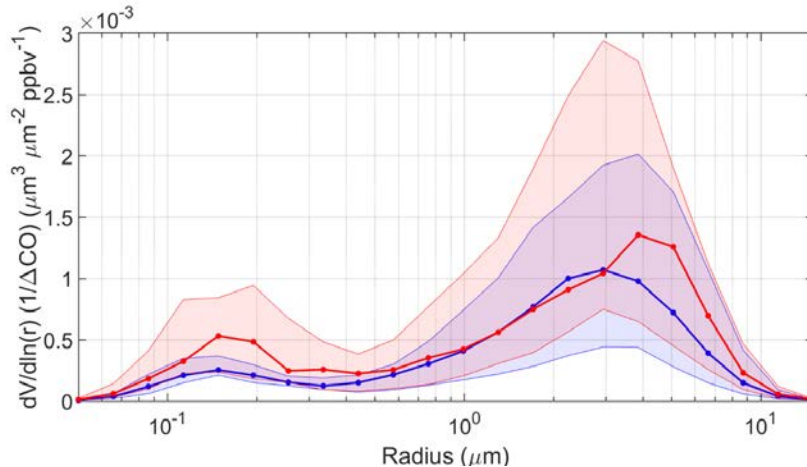
592 3.3.1 Volume Size Distributions

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

607 The median VSDs for both APT categories exhibit a bimodal profile with a more dominant
608 coarse mode, consistent with what is already known for Bermuda based on AERONET data
609 (Aldhaif et al., 2021). The unique aspect of this work is that in high APT conditions, there is a
610 reduction in median volume concentration in the smaller mode between radii of 0.05 and ~1 μm,
611 with a slight enhancement on the leading shoulder of the larger mode between radii of 1.71 and
612 2.94 μm (Fig. 8). The greatest relative reductions in the fine mode, which is more indicative of
613 transported continental pollution, occurred between midpoint radii of 0.15 and 0.33 μm with
614 relative reductions in those four bins (i.e., midpoint radii = 0.15, 0.19, 0.26, and 0.33 μm) ranging

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

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



626 **Figure 8. Volume size distributions (VSD) normalized by ΔCO for high APT (> 13 mm; blue,**
627 **n = 16) and low APT (< 0.9 mm; red, n = 19) groups for Cluster 1 trajectories. Thick curves**
628 **correspond to medians and shaded areas extend to the 25th and 75th percentiles. VSDs are**
629 **based on AERONET data between 1 January 2015 and 31 December 2019.**
630
631

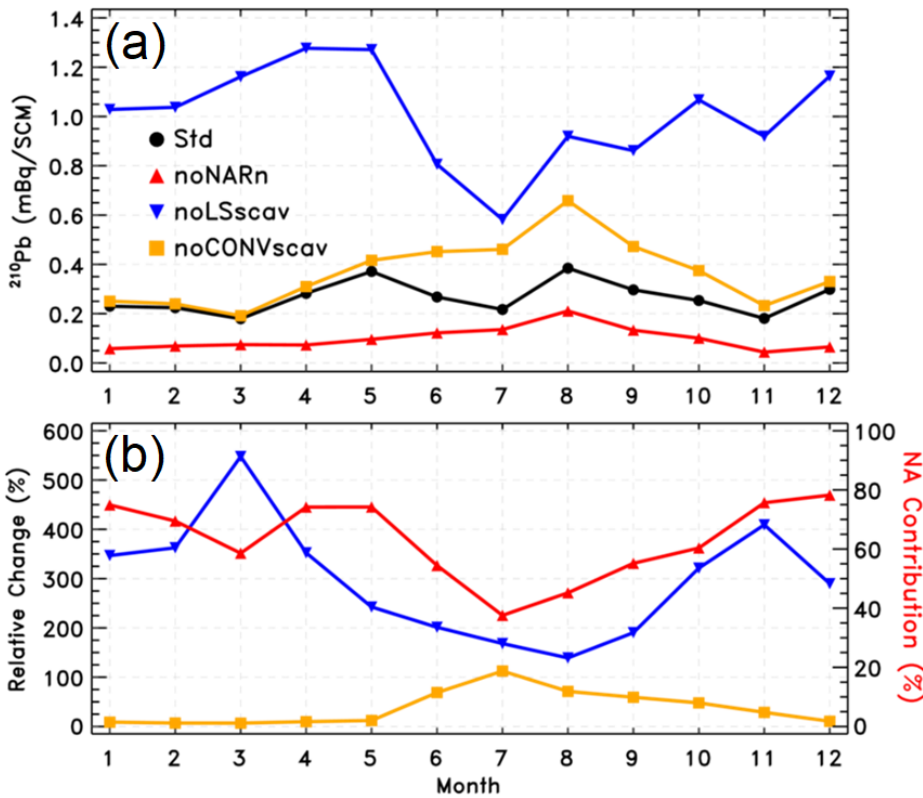
632 The AERONET results support the idea that scavenging on high APT days efficiently
633 removes fine particulate matter but that there can still be appreciable levels of locally generated
634 sea salt due to higher local surface winds on high APT days. Related to the columnar nature of
635 AERONET data, it is important to note that others have reported large-scale subsidence of
636 pollution from the mid and upper troposphere, especially in spring, based on enhanced ozone
637 mixing ratios at the surface of Bermuda (Oltmans and Levy, 1992; Cooper et al., 1998; Milne et
638 al., 2000; Li et al., 2002). Moreover, this phenomenon is synoptically favorable with the transport
639 of North American polluted air behind cold fronts especially in spring (Moody et al., 1995) and
640 often linked to the lifting of polluted air out of the boundary layer by convection over the
641 continental U.S. (Prados et al., 1999). It is unclear based on the current dataset how effective these
642 events were in impacting either the surface layer or columnar-based aerosol measurements at
643 Bermuda.
644

645 **3.4 GEOS-Chem Model Results**

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

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660 **Figure 9. Simulated monthly surface ^{210}Pb tracer concentrations submicron mBq/SCM at**
 661 **Bermuda (32.31° N, 64.75° W) in 2017 as a way to assess effects of precipitation scavenging**
 662

663 on North American outflow. Panel (a): monthly mean surface ^{210}Pb concentrations in
664 the standard simulation ("Std") and three sensitivity simulations, i.e., without North
665 American ^{222}Rn emissions ("noNARn"), without large-scale precipitation scavenging
666 ("noLSScav"), and without convective precipitation scavenging ("noCONVscav"). Panel (b):
667 percentage changes, i.e., $(\text{noLSScav-Std})/\text{Std}\times 100$ in blue and $(\text{noCONVscav-Std})/\text{Std}\times 100$ in
668 orange, and the North American contribution in red, i.e., $(\text{Std-noNARn})/\text{Std}\times 100$.

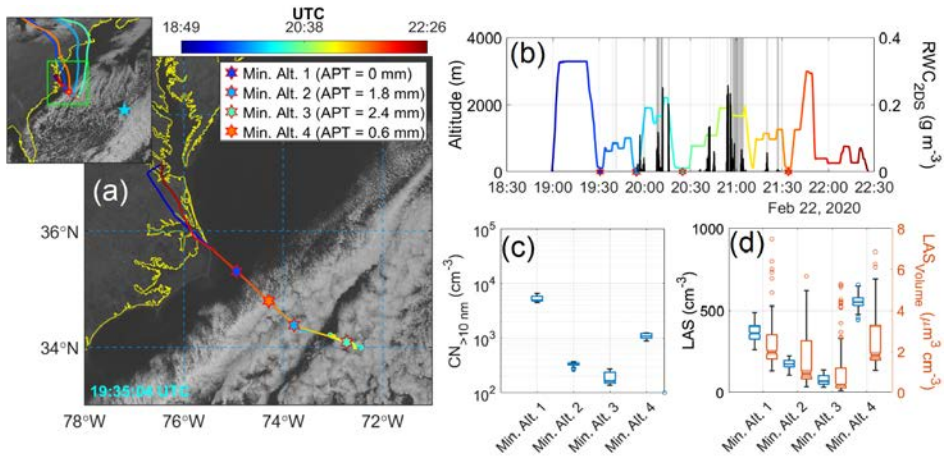
669
670 Figure 9a shows monthly mean surface ^{210}Pb concentrations at Bermuda for 2017 in
671 the standard simulation and three sensitivity simulations. Figure 9b plots the relative changes in
672 simulated ^{210}Pb concentrations due to the effects of large-scale or convective precipitation
673 scavenging.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

688 689 3.5 Airborne Case Study

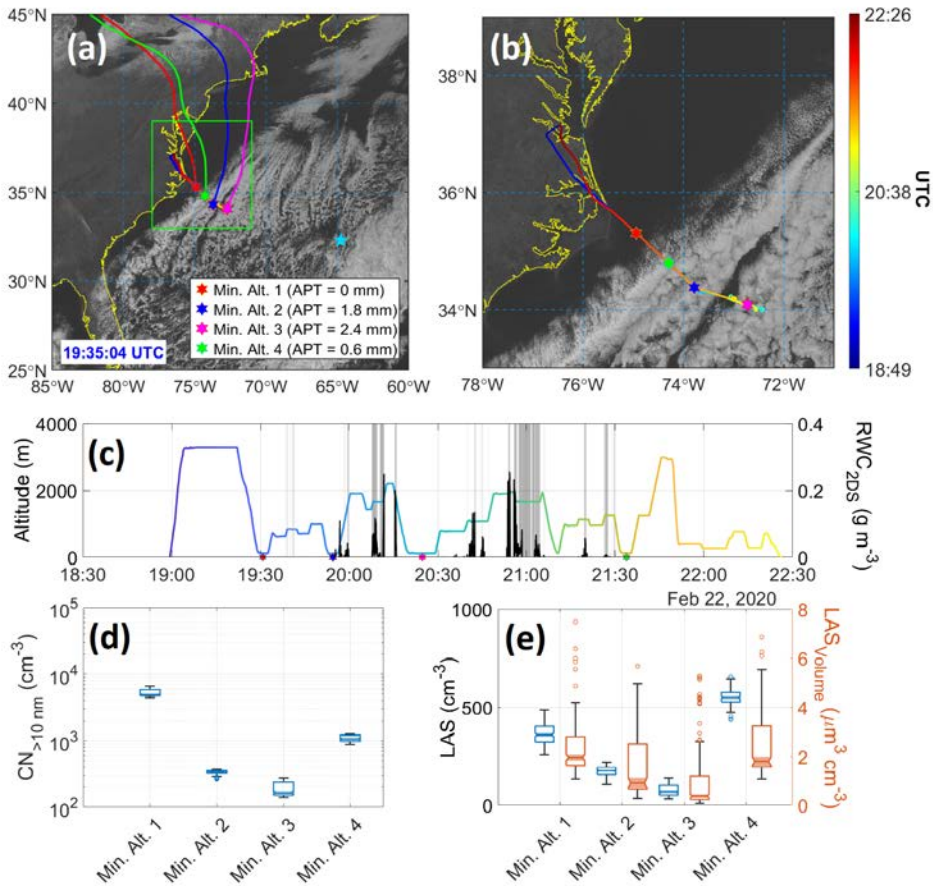
690 The DJF season has been shown in this study to ~~unite~~ exhibit the greatest potential for wet
691 scavenging and the highest density of trajectories from North America reaching Bermuda. To
692 probe deeper now, we take advantage of data from ACTIVATE RF6 on 22 February 2020, which
693 characterized the intermediate region between North America and Bermuda. Weather in the
694 ACTIVATE domain on this day was characterized by a transition from post-cold front conditions
695 to high pressure. A cold front passed over Bermuda the previous day at approximately 18:00 UTC
696 on 21 February, and by the flight period of RF06 was approximately 600 km southeast of the
697 island. Meanwhile, a broad but weakening area of surface high pressure continued eastward into
698 the southeast U. S. Winds in the boundary layer were southwesterly at around 5 m s^{-1} near the base
699 of operations (NASA Langley Research Center; Hampton, Virginia), which were associated with
700 a weak trough on the northeast side of the high pressure system. These winds shifted to north-
701 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
702 track; Bermuda reported north-northeast winds around 9 m s^{-1} during this period. Aloft, 500 hPa
703 flow was from the west-northwest. NASA Langley reported few to no clouds during the flight
704 period, while Bermuda reported broken clouds with multiple layers (with bases around 900 m and
705 1800 m) and rain showers at or near the airport. This is consistent with satellite imagery (Fig. 10a),
706 which shows an area of scattered to broken cumulus and stratocumulus extending from the cold
707 front near Bermuda to the edge of the Gulf Stream off the U.S. East Coast. Satellite-retrieved cloud
708 bases were at 1–2 km, with cloud tops ranging from 1.5–3.5 km; from the HU-25 Falcon flight

709 legs, cloud bases encountered along the flight track were 750–1100 m and cloud tops were 1200–
710 1800 m.

711



712



713
 714 **Figure 10. Summary of ACTIVATE's Research Flight 6 on 22 February 2020. (a) HU-25**
 715 **Falcon flight track overlaid on GOES-16 imagery with the smaller figure to the top left being**
 716 **a zoomed-out version of the WNAO (Bermuda denoted by blue star) and the larger figure**
 717 **zooming in on the area of the flight path, also showing 96 hour back-trajectories calculated**
 718 **for each respective Min Alt. leg. The midpoint of the four Min. Alt. legs are marked along**
 719 **with including values for the accumulated precipitation along the trajectory (APT) for the**
 720 **recent history of the sampled air masses when they were over the ocean (time over land**
 721 **excluded from APT calculation). (b) Zoomed in version of panel (a) focused on the flight**
 722 **path. (c) Time series of Falcon altitude colored by flight UTC time (color bar in panel (b))**
 723 **and rain water content (RWC) from the 2DS probe. Gray shaded bars signify when FCDP**
 724 **liquid water content exceeded 0.05 g m⁻³, indicative of cloud legs. The same four colored stars**
 725 **from (a) are shown on the x-axis to indicate where they occurred. (d-d) Box notch plots of**
 726 **the leg-mean Min. Alt. values of CPC particle (> 10 nm) concentration, (> 0.01 μm), and the**
 727 **number and volume concentrations of the LAS (> 0.09 μm).**

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728
729 Figure 10a shows the general flight path, which involved flying to a point southeast of the
730 operations base (Hampton, Virginia) and then re-tracing the path back to land. Four HYSPLIT
731 back-trajectories are shown (Fig. 10a) corresponding to midpoints of each Min. Alt. leg when the
732 aircraft was at its lowest altitude (~500 ft). APT calculations were conducted for segments of those
733 four trajectories that were over the ocean. ~~As a successful validation of the technique, no to focus~~
734 ~~on wet removal clouds over the WNAO. Negligible~~ rain accumulated up to the point of the Min.
735 Alt. 1 leg, as there were cloud-free conditions between land and that offshore point. In contrast,
736 the next three Min. Alt. legs show higher APT values ranging from 0.6 to 2.4 mm, consistent with
737 the GOES-16 imagery showing cloud fraction increasing just to the southeast of the Min. Alt. 1
738 leg. Expectedly, APT values progressively increased with offshore distance as a result of air
739 masses being exposed to clouds for longer periods. Figure S7 shows 27 trajectories obtained for
740 each Min. Alt. leg based on ensemble trajectory analysis which is a technique available in
741 HYSPLIT to evaluate uncertainties in trajectory calculations by offsetting the meteorological data
742 by a fixed grid factor. Average APT values based on ensemble analysis (Fig. S7) were 0.29, 1.18,
743 2.27, and 0.73 mm corresponding to Min. Alt. 1, 2, 3, and 4 legs, respectively, which follow the
744 trend observed in Fig. 10.

745 Shortly after the Min. Alt. 1 leg, the Falcon conducted two consecutive pairs of BCB and
746 ACB legs (i.e., below cloud base followed by above cloud base), followed by a slant descent to
747 the Min. Alt. 2 leg, where RWC values were enhanced (up to 0.02 g m⁻³ at 19:55:22 UTC) owing
748 to precipitation from overlying clouds. Very shortly thereafter, RWC reached as high as 0.11 g m⁻³
749 (19:56:50 UTC) in the slant ascent profile passing through clouds. The APT value in Min. Alt. 2
750 leg was 1.8 mm. A significant reduction was observed in the aerosol number and volume
751 concentrations for the Min. Alt. 2 leg as compared to the Min. Alt. 1 leg (Figs. ~~10e-d~~-10d-e).
752 Table S4 reports the statistics for aerosol parameters measured in Min. Alt. legs (Fig. 10). CPC (>
753 10 nm) concentrations dropped by 93% from a leg-median value of 4938 cm⁻³ during Min. Alt. 1
754 to 345 cm⁻³ during Min. Alt. 2, whereas the LAS number and volume (> 100 nm) concentrations
755 dropped from 360 cm⁻³ to 174 cm⁻³ and from 2.0 μm³ cm⁻³ to 0.9 μm³ cm⁻³, respectively. Size
756 distribution data in those two legs show a significant reduction in particle concentration across the
757 full diameter range as measured by the SMPS and LAS (Fig. 11). A notable feature from the SMPS
758 was a pronounced peak between 3.5 – 14.1 nm suggestive of nucleation, that was absent in
759 subsequent Min. Alt. legs, presumably owing to some combination of coagulation and scavenging.

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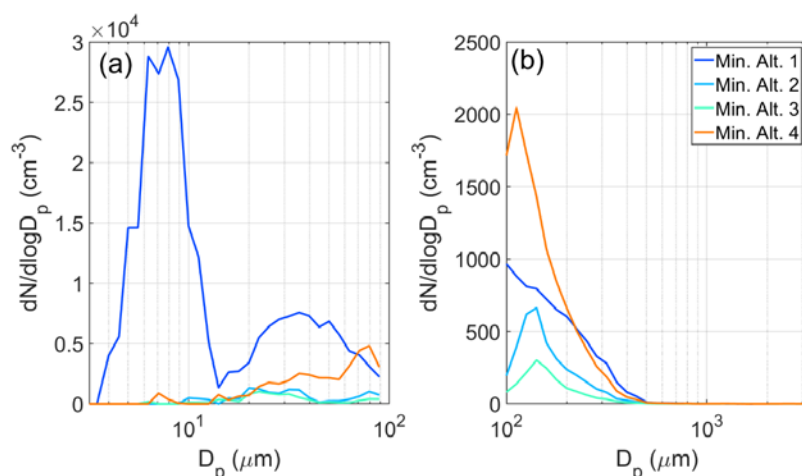
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760
 761 **Figure 11. Aerosol size distribution comparison (a = SMPS, b = LAS) between the four HU-**
 762 **25 Falcon Min. Alt. legs during ACTIVATE Research Flight 6, as shown in Fig. 10.**

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

779 To conclude, it is plausible based on the case flight data that the emerging presence of
 780 clouds and precipitation led to the substantial reduction of aerosol particles with distance offshore
 781 via wet scavenging processes. Further research is warranted with more extensive data to move
 782 closer to showing causal relationships between precipitation and aerosol particles. For instance, a
 783 few points of caution from RF6 are worth mentioning. First, the coastal trajectories in Fig. 10
 784 corresponding to the different Min Alt. legs originated from varying places extending from the
 785 Virginia coast up north towards Cape Cod, Massachusetts. Secondly, cloud dynamics and
 786 boundary layer structure can vary offshore. Related to the latter, PBLH data obtained from
 787 MERRA-2 along the flight track revealed that there were deeper boundary layers farther offshore,
 788 but not sufficiently deeper to fully explain the reductions in aerosol concentration: [PBLH](#)

789 ~~corresponding to~~ Min. Alt. 1/2/3/4 = 1156/1728/1740/1530 m. Lastly, aerosol concentrations
790 linked to continental outflow naturally decrease anyways offshore, including in cloud-free
791 conditions, owing to dilution during transport.

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792 4. Conclusion 793

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

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

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

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829
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832 *Data Availability.*

833 Fort Prospect Station Aerosol/Gas Measurements:
834 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13651454.v2>

835 AERONET: <https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/>

836 HYSPLIT: <https://www.ready.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php>

837 MERRA-2: <https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/>

838 GEOS-Chem Model: http://wiki.seas.harvard.edu/geos-chem/index.php/GEOS-Chem_v11-01

839 Section 3.5 ACTIVATE Airborne Data:
840 <https://doi.org/10.5067/SUBORBITAL/ACTIVATE/DATA001>

841 Section 3.5 airport weather data: <http://mesonet.agron.iastate.edu/ASOS/>

842 Section 3.5 ocean surface analysis charts and GFS 500 hPa analysis:
843 <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/ncep-charts/access/>

844 Section 3.5 North America Analysis/Satellite composite:
845 https://www.wpc.ncep.noaa.gov/archives/web_pages/sfc/sfc_archive_maps.php

846 Section 3.5 Satellite imagery/products: <https://satcorps.larc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/site/showdoc?docid=4&cmd=field-experiment-homepage&exp=ACTIVATE>

848 *Author contributions.* HD and MA conducted the analysis. AS and HD prepared the manuscript.
849 HL and BZ performed GEOS-Chem model radionuclide simulations and output analysis. All
850 authors contributed by providing input and/or participating in airborne data collection.

851 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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869

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