

The export of African mineral dust across the Atlantic and its impact over the Amazon Basin

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Abstract

The Amazon Basin is frequently influenced by the trans-Atlantic transport of African dust plumes during its wet season (January – April), which not only interrupts the near-pristine atmospheric condition in that season, but also provides nutrient inputs into the Amazon rainforest upon deposition. In this study, we use the chemical transport model GEOS-Chem to investigate the impact of the export of African mineral dust to the Amazon Basin during the period of 2013 – 2017, constrained by multiple datasets obtained from AERONET, MODIS, as well as Cayenne site and the Amazon Tall Tower Observatory (ATTO) site in the Amazon Basin. With an optimized particle mass size distribution (PMSD) of dust aerosols, the model well captures observed AOD regarding both the mean value as well as the decline rate of the logarithm of AOD over the Atlantic Ocean along the transport path (AOaTP), implying the consistence with observed export efficiency of African dust along the trans-Atlantic transport. With an annual emission of $0.73 \pm 0.12 \text{ Pg yr}^{-1}$, African dust entering the Amazon Basin during the wet season accounts for $40\% \pm 4.5\%$ (up to

35 70%) of surface aerosol mass concentrations over the basin. Observed dust peaks over
36 the Amazon Basin are generally associated with relatively higher African dust
37 emissions (including Sahara and Sahel) and longer lifetime of dust along the trans-
38 Atlantic transport, namely higher export efficiency of African dust across the Atlantic
39 Ocean. The frequency of dust events during the wet season is around 18% averaged
40 over the Amazon Basin, with maxima over 60% at the northeast coast. During the dust
41 events, AOD over most of the Amazon Basin is dominated by dust. Based on dust
42 deposition, we further estimate annual inputs of 52 ± 8.7 , 0.97 ± 0.16 and 21 ± 3.6 mg
43 $\text{m}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$ for iron, phosphorus and magnesium, respectively, into the Amazon rainforest,
44 which may to some extent compensate the hydrologic losses of nutrients in the forest
45 ecosystem.

46

47 **1 Introduction**

48 The desert in northern Africa, being the world's largest dust source, contributes to
49 over 50% of global dust emission (Kok et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2016). Dust particles
50 are uplifted by strong surface winds, and then typically transported downwind for a
51 long distance, reaching Atlantic, Caribbean, America, and Europe (Prospero et al.,
52 1981; Ben-Ami et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2019; Swap et al., 1992; Prospero et al., 2014;
53 Wang et al., 2020). The emission varies on daily to seasonal and even decadal time
54 scales, largely affected by local wind speed, land surface cover, soil moisture, etc
55 (Ridley et al., 2014; Mahowald et al., 2006). Once present in the atmosphere, mineral
56 dust can not only degrade air quality downwind, but also affect the radiation balance
57 of the Earth-Atmosphere system directly by scattering or absorbing solar radiation
58 (Ryder et al., 2013b), and indirectly by altering cloud properties via acting as cloud
59 condensation nuclei or ice nuclei (Chen et al., 1998; Demott et al., 2003; Mahowald
60 and Kiehl, 2003; Dusek et al., 2006). Additionally, mineral dust contains iron,
61 phosphorous, and other nutrients, and could affect ocean biogeochemistry and fertilize
62 tropical forest upon downwind deposition (Niedermeier et al., 2014; Rizzolo et al.,
63 2017).

64 There is an increased concern about the impact of African dust exerted over the
65 Amazon basin, which being the world's largest rainforest, represents a valuable but
66 also vulnerable ecosystem, and is sensitive to any disturbance from climate changes
67 associated with human activities in the future (Andreae et al., 2015; Pöhlker et al.,
68 2019). During the wet season (January – April) Amazonian aerosols are generally
69 dominated by local biogenic aerosols, with remarkably low PM₁₀ mass concentrations
70 of a few $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Andreae et al., 2015; Martin et al., 2010a; Prass et al., 2021). The
71 near-pristine condition, however, is frequently interrupted by the transatlantic
72 transport of African dust toward the Amazon Basin (Andreae et al., 2015; Martin et
73 al., 2010b; Martin et al., 2010a; Talbot et al., 1990). The dusty episodes could
74 drastically increase aerosol optical depth (AOD, by a factor of 4), mass concentrations
75 of coarse aerosols (with diameter $> 1 \mu\text{m}$, up to $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), as well as crustal
76 elements over the Amazon Basin (Ben-Ami et al., 2010; Pöhlker et al., 2019; Moran-
77 Zuloaga et al., 2018; Baars et al., 2011; Formenti et al., 2001). Therefore, there is
78 great interest in understanding factors controlling the export of African dust towards
79 the Amazon Basin and the impact they might have on environment, ecosystem, and
80 climate.

81 Over the past decades, field measurements combined with satellite observation and
82 forward/back trajectory analysis have been conducted to explore the long-range
83 transport (LRT) of African dust toward the Amazon Basin (e.g. Ben-Ami et al., 2010;
84 Pöhlker et al., 2018; Prospero et al., 2020). The transatlantic transport of African dust
85 plumes is closely related to annual north-south oscillation of the intertropical
86 convergence zone (ITCZ) (Moran-Zuloaga et al., 2018; Ben-Ami et al., 2012),
87 favoring the path towards the Amazon Basin in the late boreal winter and spring
88 (December-April) as the ITCZ moves southward. In addition to the annual oscillation
89 of ITCZ, the export efficiency of African dust towards the Amazon Basin also highly
90 depends on the atmospheric lifetime of mineral dust, which is largely affected by
91 meteorological conditions (e.g. precipitation). Dust particles are subject to wet
92 removal when they are within or underneath precipitating clouds. For instance, Yu et

93 al. (2020) argued that El Djouf, in western Sahara, contributes more dust to the
94 Amazon Basin than the Bodélé depression as the transport paths of dust released from
95 El Djouf are less affected by rainy clouds.

96 Besides meteorological conditions, the lifetime of dust particles and consequently the
97 export efficiency of African dust towards the Amazon Basin could also be affected by
98 the size distribution of dust particles. Previous studies have observed that
99 volume/mass fractions of coarse mode dust particles, giant particles in particular, tend
100 to be reduced along the transport due to their higher gravitational settling velocities
101 (Ryder et al., 2018; Ryder et al., 2013b; Ryder et al., 2013a; Van Der Does et al.,
102 2016). Moreover, the optical properties of mineral dust are also strongly size
103 dependent, especially for those in sub-micron range (Liu et al., 2018; Di Biagio et al.,
104 2019; Ysard et al., 2018). For instance, Ryder et al. (2013a) reported a loss of 60 –
105 90% of particles with diameter $> 30 \mu\text{m}$ 12 h after uplift and consequently an increase
106 in the single scattering albedo from 0.92 to 0.95 associated with the change in the size
107 distribution of dust aerosols. Therefore, the size distribution of dust particles is a key
108 factor determining the efficiency of dust transport and consequently the
109 environmental and climate effect of the mineral dust downwind (Mahowald et al.,
110 2011a; Mahowald et al., 2011b).

111 So far, a few studies have attempted to quantify the impact of the LRT of African dust
112 over the Amazon Basin, but mainly focus on dust deposition only (e.g. Yu et al.,
113 2015a; Ridley et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2019). The estimates of annual dust deposition
114 and deposition rates into the Amazon Basin exhibit a wide range ($7.7\text{-}50 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$ and
115 $0.8\text{-}19 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, respectively), attributed to the application of different methods and
116 the intrinsic uncertainties associated with each method (Kok et al., 2021; Yu et al.,
117 2015b; Kaufman, 2005; Swap et al., 1992). For example, the results based on Cloud-
118 Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observations (CALIPSO) is subject to
119 the uncertainty associated with the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization
120 (CALIOP) extinction, vertical profile shape, dust discrimination, diurnal variations of
121 dust transport as well as the below-cloud dust missed by CALIOP (Yu et al., 2015a).

122 While models could be considered as a useful tool to comprehensively assess the
123 transatlantic transport of African dust towards the Amazon Basin and the consequent
124 impact over the Amazon Basin, there exist considerable differences among model
125 results, attributed to the uncertainties associated with the dust parameterization in the
126 model, including emission schemes, size distributions of dust particles, dust
127 deposition, etc (Kim et al.,2014; Huneus et al., 2011; Mahowald et al., 2014).
128 Observational constraints on the modelling results along the transport from source
129 regions to receptor regions are thus in urgent need to accomplish a better evaluation of
130 factors controlling the LRT of African dust and its overall impact over the Amazon
131 Basin.
132 Here, we present a detailed multiyear simulation of the export of African dust across
133 the Atlantic and its impact over the Amazon Basin (around 8.8×10^6 km², see Figure
134 1 for the defined area) during 2013 – 2017 with the chemical transport model GEOS-
135 Chem. The aims of this study are: (1) to evaluate the model performance of dust
136 simulation including the particle mass size distribution (PMSD), optical properties,
137 mass concentrations as well as the export efficiency of African dust towards the
138 Amazon Basin; (2) to analyze factors controlling the export of African dust towards
139 the Amazon Basin; and (3) to give a comprehensive examination of the impact of
140 African dust over the Amazon Basin, including surface aerosol concentrations, AOD
141 and nutrient inputs upon deposition. The paper is organized as follows: Section 2
142 describes the model setup for dust simulation and the observational datasets applied to
143 constrain the model results; Section 3 gives the model evaluation regarding the
144 simulation of the export of African dust towards the Amazon Basin; Section 4
145 presents the model results, including simulated dust emissions in Africa, the trans-
146 Atlantic transport of African dust, and the influence of African dust over the Amazon
147 Basin; and Section 5 summarizes the main conclusions drawn from this study.

148

149 **2 Methodology**

150 **2.1 GEOS-Chem model**

151 **2.1.1 Model overview**

152 In this study we use the GEOS-Chem model version 12.0.0 (www.geos-chem.org) to
153 perform the global aerosol simulation with a horizontal resolution of $2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$. The
154 GEOS-Chem is driven by assimilated meteorological data GEOS-FP from the NASA
155 Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) (Lucchesi, 2013) with a native
156 horizontal resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.3125^\circ$, which is then degraded to $2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ for the
157 input to GEOS-Chem. We initialize the model with a 1-year spin-up followed by an
158 aerosol simulation from 2013 to 2017.

159 The aerosol simulation is an offline simulation for aerosol tracers including black
160 carbon (BC), organic aerosols (OA), sulfate-nitrate-ammonium aerosols in fine mode
161 ($\leq 1 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter), sea salt in both fine and coarse ($> 1 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter) modes,
162 and mineral dust in four size bins covering the size range of $0.2 - 12 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter.
163 Aerosol optical properties used for aerosol optical depth (AOD) calculation are
164 mainly based on Global Aerosol Data Set (Koepke et al., 1997), with modifications in
165 aerosol size distributions (Jaeglé et al., 2011; Drury et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2003a;
166 Wang et al., 2003b), hygroscopic growth factors of organic aerosols (Jimenez et al.,
167 2009), and the refractive index of dust (Sinyuk et al., 2003). AOD in the model is then
168 calculated online at selected wavelengths assuming lognormal size distributions of
169 externally mixed aerosols and accounts for hygroscopic growth (Martin et al., 2003).
170 Wet deposition in GEOS-Chem, based on the scheme of Liu et al. (2001), accounts for
171 scavenging in both convective updrafts and large-scale precipitation. Further updates
172 by Wang et al. (2011) are also applied, accounting for ice/snow scavenging as well as
173 the impaction scavenging in convective updrafts. Dry deposition in the model follows
174 the standard resistance-in-series scheme by Wesely (2007), accounting for turbulent
175 transfer and gravitational settling (Wang et al., 1998; Zhang et al., 2001).

176 **2.1.2 Dust emission and PMSD schemes in the model**

177 The emission of mineral dust is based on the dust entrainment and deposition (DEAD)
178 mobilization scheme of Zender et al. (2003) in the GEOS-Chem model. The DEAD
179 scheme calculates the total vertical dust flux based on the total horizontal saltation

180 flux (Q_s) using the theory of White (1979). The Q_s depends mainly on the surface
181 wind friction velocity and the threshold friction velocity, which is determined by soil
182 type, soil moisture content, and surface roughness. For more details of the DEAD
183 scheme, readers are referred to Duncan Fairlie et al. (2007).

184 Freshly emitted dust particles are divided into four size bins in GEOS-Chem: 0.1 –
185 1.0 μm , 1.0 – 1.8 μm , 1.8 – 3.0 μm , and 3.0 – 6.0 μm in radius. The first size bin is
186 further divided into four sub-bins (0.1 – 0.18 μm , 0.18 – 0.3 μm , 0.3 – 0.6 μm , and
187 0.6 – 1.0 μm in radius) for the calculation of optical properties. While total dust
188 emissions are not affected, optical properties, atmospheric lifetime, and downwind
189 concentrations of dust particles are sensitive to different PMSD schemes. Table 1
190 shows 3 different PMSD schemes tested in this study: V12, V12_C and V12_F.

191 Scheme V12, which is derived based on scale-invariant fragmentation theory (Kok,
192 2011) with modification in tunable parameters (Zhang et al., 2013), is a default set in
193 GEOS-Chem. However, this scheme has been only evaluated for US/Asian dust, not
194 for Africa. On the other hand, V12_C was used in older versions of GEOS-Chem and
195 constrained from aircraft measurements during the Saharan Dust Experiment (Ridley
196 et al., 2012; Highwood et al., 2003). In addition, we derived V12_F based on the
197 Fennec airborne observations, which also focuses on Saharan dust. Among all the
198 three PMSD, V12_C has the largest mass fraction in the first bin (relatively small
199 particles) and the lowest fraction in the last bin (large ones). In contrast, V12_F has
200 the most dust distributed in the last bin ($\sim 70\%$) and only a little (around 5%) in the
201 first bin (0.1 – 1.0 μm). Simulated mass extinction efficiency (MEE, also shown in
202 Table 1) at wavelength of 550 nm for dust particles in the first sub-bin (0.1 – 0.18 μm)
203 is 3.13 $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ and decreases to 0.16 $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ for those in the last bin (3.0 – 6.0 μm). The
204 lifetime of dust aerosols against deposition are 5.1, 2.2, 1.7 and 0.86 d in the four bins
205 (from small to large size), respectively. Therefore, although with the same emission,
206 total dust AOD, lifetime, and downwind concentrations could vary greatly with
207 PMSD upon emissions. In this study, we will evaluate these three PMSD schemes and
208 the impact on AOD, dust concentrations as well as its export efficiency along the

209 trans-Atlantic transport from Africa to the Amazon Basin.

210 **2.2 Observations**

211 The study uses observations from multiple datasets obtained from AERONET,
212 MODIS, as well as Cayenne site and the Amazon Tall Tower Observatory (ATTO) site
213 to constrain model results regarding the simulation of the dust export from Africa to
214 the Amazon Basin. Table 2 summarizes these observations, including the parameters,
215 the spatio-temporal coverage, and the corresponding application in the model. The
216 daily data of AOD (at wavelength of 675 nm) and particle volume size distribution
217 (PVSD) from AERONET level 2.0
218 (aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/new_web/download_all_v3_aod.html, last access on Jun. 22,
219 2021(Dubovik et al., 2002)) during the year of 2013 – 2017 is used in the study to
220 evaluate dust emissions and its PMSD over the source regions in Africa in the model.
221 The PVSD data provided by AERONET is a column-integrated aerosol volume size
222 distribution with a size range of 0.05 – 15.0 μm . It is then converted to PMSD using
223 the same densities as in the model. Only sites with valid data accounting for more
224 than 30% of the total are considered in this study. In addition, to minimize the
225 influence of aerosols other than dust, only data dominated by dust (simulated dust
226 contribution to column-integrated aerosols mass concentrations > 95%) is used for the
227 comparison of PMSD. There are a few sites not far from the coast and could be
228 influenced by sea salt. With the above data screening, the sea salt contribution to total
229 aerosol mass is less than 0.5%. For the comparison of AOD, the criterion is less
230 stringent to have more data points available and uses data dominated by coarse
231 aerosols (the contribution of fine aerosol to total aerosol volume < 3%). This criterion
232 does not exclude sea salt and the contribution of sea salt to AOD could be up to 30%
233 at the Capo_Verde site (22.9° W, 16.7° N, in the east-central Atlantic Ocean).
234 The study also uses observed PMSD over central Sahara during Fennec Campaign
235 (africanclimateoxford.net/projects/fennec/, last access: 22 June 2021) for the
236 comparison with AERONET and our model results. Aiming to investigate dust
237 microphysical and optical properties, 42 profiles of particle size distribution (0.1 –

238 300 μm in diameter) over both the Sahara and the Atlantic Ocean were sampled from
239 in-situ aircraft measurements during Fennec campaign. For more detailed description
240 of the aircraft measurements, readers are referred to Ryder et al. (2013a).

241 In addition to AERONET AOD data, level 3 daily AOD (at wavelength of 550 nm)
242 data from the moderate resolution imaging spectroradiometers (MODIS) installed on
243 Terra and Aqua platforms
244 (<https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/archive/allData/61/>, last access: 22 June
245 2021) is applied in the study to evaluate the trans-Atlantic transport of dust plumes
246 from Africa toward the Amazon Basin. For comparison, we degraded the original
247 horizontal resolution of MODIS data ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$) to $2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$, consistent with the model
248 outputs.

249 Finally, daily PM_{10} mass concentrations during wet season (from January to April) in
250 2014 measured at Cayenne, French Guiana (52.3097° W, 4.9489° N, located in the
251 northeast coast of the Amazon Basin, <https://doi.org/10.17604/vrsh-w974>, marked in
252 Figure 1) and long-term aerosol measurements at the Amazon Tall Tower
253 Observatory, Brazil (ATTO, 59.0056° W, 2.1459° S, located in the central Amazon
254 Basin, also marked in Figure 1) are used in this study to further evaluate the model
255 performance regarding the influence of the LRT of African dust over the Amazon
256 Basin. The measurement at Cayenne site is carried out on a cooperative basis by
257 personnel of ATMO-Guyane, a non-profit organization. The PM_{10} samples are
258 measured by a Taper Element Oscillating Microbalance (TEOM, model 1400 series,
259 ThermoFisher Scientific) and then are returned to Miami for analysis (Prospero et al.,
260 2020). Readers are referred to Prospero et al. (2020) for detailed description of the site
261 and the data. The ATTO site was established in 2012 for the long-term monitoring of
262 climatic, biogeochemical, and atmospheric conditions in the Amazon rainforest.

263 Detailed description of the site and the measurements there could be found in Andreae
264 et al. (2015). In this study, we only use the particle number size distribution from an
265 Optical Particle Sizer (OPS, TSI model 3330; size range of 0.3 – 10 μm in diameter,
266 divided into 16 size bins) and a Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS, TSI model

267 3080, St. Paul, MU, USA; size range of 10 – 430 nm in diameter, divided into 104
268 size bins) over the period from 2014 to 2016. The number size distribution is
269 converted to mass concentrations assuming spherical particles with a constant density
270 of 1.5 g cm^{-3} (Pöschl et al., 2010).

271

272 **3 Model evaluation**

273 Here we evaluate three different PMSD schemes regarding the model performance of
274 dust simulation through the comparison with observed mass size distribution of
275 column-integrated aerosol over Africa, AOD over both Africa and the Atlantic Ocean,
276 as well as PM_{10} and dust concentrations in the Amazon Basin. Figure 2 shows the
277 mass fractions of column-integrated aerosols retrieved from AERONET sites
278 compared with model results based on different PMSD schemes. The location of the
279 selected AERONET sites with valid data are marked in Figure 1 as purple symbols
280 (including asterisks and circles). The mean mass fractions for each bin from
281 AERONET data are 17%, 27%, 38%, 17%, respectively. The comparison indicates the
282 model results based on V12_C agrees better with the observations, with much smaller
283 mean absolute deviation (MAD) of 2.8, followed by 4.2 for V12 and 18 for V12_F. In
284 other words, the model results with other PMSD schemes (V12_F in particular)
285 greatly underestimate the mass fractions in the first bin and overestimate the mass
286 fractions in the last bin. During the Fennec campaign, the aircraft sampled two strong
287 Saharan dust outbreaks with AOD up to 1.1, which may be associated with strong
288 winds favoring the uplift of large particles.

289 Figure 3 shows the times series of daily AOD at wavelength of 675 nm during the
290 year of 2013 – 2017 from both AERONET and model results. The locations of the
291 selected AERONET sites with valid data over northern Africa are shown in Figure 1
292 as purple circles. The Capo_Verde site is also included to show the model
293 performance over the ocean in addition to the land. Although different PSD schemes
294 have little influence on the correlation between AERONET and model results with
295 most r around 0.6 – 0.7, the normalized mean bias (NMB) has been significantly

296 improved in V12_C, with a range of -12% – 11% (vs. -33% – -11% and -42% – -19%
297 for V12 and V12_F, respectively). The severe underestimation in AOD from V12 and
298 V12_F could be attributed to their relatively higher dust fractions distributed in larger
299 size bins with relatively lower MEE.

300 In addition, we also compare the spatial distributions of simulated AOD over the
301 Atlantic Ocean with MODIS AOD (at 550 nm) averaged over 2013 – 2017 in Figure
302 4a-d. There is a clear decreasing trend in MODIS AOD along the trans-Atlantic
303 transport from Africa towards South America. Although all simulations show similar
304 spatial distributions with declining trends of AOD along the transport, the results from
305 V12_C are the most consistent with MODIS data with the highest r of 0.89 and the
306 smallest NMB of 6.5% among the three schemes (vs. r of 0.85 and 0.81 and NMB of -
307 13% and -19% for V12 and V12_F, respectively). Note that the model results based
308 on V12_C tends to overestimate MODIS AOD over Africa while no significant
309 systematic bias is found between V12_C and AERONET AOD. Wang et al. (2016)
310 sampled MODIS data at AERONET sites over Africa and found that MODIS retrieval
311 underestimated AERONET AOD at most sites with NMB of -12% – -36%, which
312 partly explains the overestimates in MODIS AOD by V12_C here.

313 Assuming first-order removal of aerosol along the transport, we could derive the
314 removal rates of aerosols, estimated as the gradient of the logarithm of AOD
315 ($\log(\text{AOD})$) against the distance over the Atlantic Ocean along the transport path
316 (AOaTP, 20° – 50° W and 5° S – 25° N, Figure 4e). The decline rate of MODIS
317 $\log(\text{AOD})$ is $0.019 \pm 0.0025 \text{ degree}^{-1}$. A similar decline rate of $0.019 \pm 0.0029 \text{ degree}^{-1}$
318 is found for simulated $\log(\text{AOD})$ based on V12_C. In contrast, simulations with V12
319 and V12_F exhibit relatively steeper slopes of 0.021 ± 0.0040 and 0.021 ± 0.0041 ,
320 respectively, implying too much aerosol removal and thus lower export efficiency
321 along the transport. To specify the impact of different PMSD on the export efficiency
322 of dust aerosols towards the Amazon Basin, Figure 4f also shows simulated dust AOD
323 (DOD) along the transect from 20° to 50° W. The DOD from V12_C decreases from
324 0.15 ± 0.018 to 0.049 ± 0.088 along the transport, with a decreasing rate of $0.016 \pm$

325 0.0014 degree⁻¹. In contrast, DOD decreases from 0.097 ± 0.012 to 0.028 ± 0.085 with
326 a slope of 0.018 ± 0.0016 for V12 and decreases from 0.080 ± 0.090 to 0.025 ± 0.084
327 with a slope of 0.017 ± 0.0014 for V12_F.

328 Lying in the trade wind belt, Cayenne has been taken as the gate of African dust.
329 Hence, the comparison between simulated and observed dust concentrations at
330 Cayenne site could help model evaluation in reproducing the arrival of African dust to
331 the Amazon Basin. As shown in Figure 5a, the simulation from V12_C shows
332 excellent agreement between simulated dust and observed PM₁₀ concentrations during
333 the wet season, with r around 0.85 and NMB of -39%. The correlation from the other
334 two simulations is similar ($r = 0.86$), but the corresponding NMB is much larger (-
335 57% for V12 and -80% for V12_F). Based on the regression line between observed
336 concentrations of PM₁₀ and dust at the same site, Prospero et al. (2020) obtained a
337 regional background value of PM₁₀ ranging from 17 to 22 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, largely attributed to
338 sea salt aerosols, and a value of 0.9 for the slope, suggesting PM₁₀ values above this
339 range as a proxy for advected dust. Consistent with their results, the regression line
340 between simulated dust and PM₁₀ from V12_C in this study shows a background
341 value of PM₁₀ around 23 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, with a value of the slope around 1.0, and the dust
342 contribution to PM₁₀ is around $53\% \pm 20\%$. In contrast, the regression lines from V12
343 and V12_F are much steeper, with the slope of 1.4 and 2.1, respectively, and the dust
344 contributions are relatively smaller, 44% in V12 and 34% in V12_F.

345 We also compare simulated dust concentrations with observed coarse particles at the
346 ATTO site in central Amazon in the wet season during 2014 – 2016 in Figure 5b. The
347 correlation between observed and simulated data are similar for different PMSD
348 schemes with r of 0.63 – 0.65. But the bias of V12_C is negligible (NMB = -0.27%)
349 while both V12 and V12_F tend to underestimate the coarse aerosol concentrations
350 with NMB of -36% and -55%, respectively. The dust contribution to coarse aerosols is
351 above 80% in V12_C, but less than 70% in V12_F. This again implies relatively
352 higher export efficiency of African dust aerosols towards the Amazon Basin with
353 V12_C associated with their relatively higher dust fractions distributed in smaller size

354 bins.
355 Overall, compared with V12 and V12_F schemes, model results based on V12_C are
356 more consistent with the multiple observational datasets, including column-integrated
357 particle size distribution, AOD and surface coarse aerosol concentrations obtained
358 either over sources or downwind of the sources. Therefore, we use the model results
359 from V12_C (hereinafter referred to as model results unless noted otherwise) to
360 investigate the transatlantic transport of African dust and its impact over the Amazon
361 Basin in the following sections.

362

363 **4 Results and discussion**

364 **4.1 Dust emissions**

365 Figure 1 shows the spatial distribution of simulated dust emissions and Table 3 lists
366 seasonal and annual dust emissions in northern Africa (17.5° W – 40° E, 10° N – 35°
367 N) for the period of 2013 – 2017. Simulated annual dust emission from northern
368 Africa is 0.73 ± 0.12 Pg yr⁻¹, contributing more than 70% of the global dust emission
369 (0.99 ± 0.20 Pg yr⁻¹). The result is in the range of $0.42 - 2.05$ Pg yr⁻¹ reported by Kim
370 et al. (2014), who evaluated five AeroCom II global models regarding the dust
371 simulation over similar regions.

372 There exists a strong seasonality in the dust emission from northern Africa, peaking in
373 spring and winter (up to 1.2 Pg yr⁻¹) and reaching the minimum in fall (around 0.33
374 Pg yr⁻¹) in general. Previous studies have also pointed out that dust emissions over
375 different African regions show distinct variations (Bakker et al., 2019; Shao et al.,
376 2010), attributed to differences in geographical properties (Knippertz et al., 2007),
377 vegetation cover (Mahowald et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2017), and meteorological
378 mechanisms on a local scale (Alizadeh-Choobari et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017;
379 Roberts and Knippertz, 2012). Consequently, there exists substantial seasonal change
380 in different dust source regions. For instance, during boreal winter, the Bodélé
381 Depression in northern Chad is found to be the most active triggered by the Harmattan
382 winds, while the northwestern African dust sources become less active in contrast

383 with the condition in boreal summer (Ben-Ami et al., 2012; Prospero et al., 2014).
384 Therefore, we further analyze the emission variability over five different source
385 regions in northern Africa (Figure 1 and Table S1). On an annual basis, the
386 contribution to total northern African dust emission is the largest from Region A (west
387 Sahara, $36\% \pm 4.0\%$), followed by Region D (central Sahel including the Bodélé
388 Depression, $21\% \pm 4.7\%$), Region B (central Sahara, $13\% \pm 2.6\%$), Region C (east
389 Sahara, $12\% \pm 1.0\%$), and Region E (west Sahel, $6.5\% \pm 0.64\%$). The emission
390 fluxes, however, are the most intensive in Region D, up to $11 \pm 2.1 \text{ g month}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ and
391 are generally below $5 \text{ g month}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ over the other regions.

392 Concerning the seasonality, higher dust emission tends to occur in boreal spring and
393 winter, with the largest emission flux of $19 \pm 4.7 \text{ g month}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ from Region D. As
394 shown in Figure 6 and S1, the emissions peak in boreal spring for Region A, B and C,
395 but in winter for Region D and E. There is also a secondary peak in summer
396 emissions for Region E. Correlation analysis between dust emissions and
397 meteorological variables suggests that the seasonality is mainly driven by high surface
398 wind speeds (with r of 0.79-0.96 and 0.68-0.97 for the 75th and 95th percentiles of 10-
399 m wind speeds, respectively). Apparent negative correlation is also found between
400 precipitation (soil moisture, Figure S1) and dust emission in Region D with r of -0.69
401 (-0.67).

402 Similar seasonality is also reported by Cowie et al. (2014), who suggested that the
403 strongest dust season in winter in central Sahel is driven by strong harmattan winds
404 and frequent Low level Jet breakdown, and the second peak in summer in west Sahel
405 could be explained by the summer monsoon combined with the Sahara Heat Low. The
406 study also suggested the dominance of strong wind frequency in the seasonal variation
407 of the emission frequencies. Fiedler et al. (2013) also found a maximum of emission
408 flux over the Bodélé Depression in winter and the highest emission flux in spring in
409 west Sahara. The study suggested that near-surface peak winds associated with
410 Nocturnal Low-Level Jets serve as a driver of mineral dust emissions. Negative
411 correlation between dust emissions and soil moisture has also been revealed by Yu et

412 al. (2017) and Pierre et al. (2012), as the decreased vegetation growth in response to
413 dry soil would result in enhanced dust emissions.
414 It is also worth noting that the interannual variation in dust emissions is much larger
415 during the wet season ($0.96 \pm 0.25 \text{ Pg yr}^{-1}$, Table 3) than on an annual basis ($0.73 \pm$
416 0.12 Pg yr^{-1}). Moreover, while the annual emissions gradually decrease from 2013 to
417 2017, the emissions during the wet season peak in 2015. The obviously different
418 behavior between the annual emissions and emissions during the wet season suggests
419 that predictions of the future impact of African dust emissions over the Amazon Basin
420 in response to climate change should focus on the wet season rather than the annual
421 average, as the former is more related to the export of African dust towards the
422 Amazon Basin.

423 **4.2 Transatlantic transport of African dust**

424 The amount of African dust reaching the Amazon Basin depends not only on the dust
425 emission fluxes, but also the transport paths. Associated with the annual oscillation of
426 ITCZ, the outflow of African dust moves slightly southwest toward South America in
427 boreal winter and spring, and moves west towards the Caribbean in boreal summer and
428 fall (Moran-Zuloaga et al., 2018; Ben-Ami et al., 2012). The GEOS-Chem results in
429 this study are consistent with this seasonal oscillation: although higher dust load over
430 the coastal region of North Africa is found in boreal summer ($> 500 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$), dust
431 reaching the Amazon Basin is less than 10 mg m^{-2} ; In contrast, dust load over the
432 Amazon Basin could reach up to 50 mg m^{-2} in boreal spring and winter.

433 In addition to the transport paths, the amount of African dust arrival at the Amazon
434 Basin is also sensitive to its removal rate, namely the lifetime against deposition over
435 the Atlantic. Assuming first-order removal of dust aerosols, we further derived
436 seasonal e-folding lifetime (hereinafter referred to as lifetime, τ) of simulated dust
437 during 2013 – 2017, based on the logarithm of the dust column burden against travel
438 time over the AOaTP (Figure 7) using Equation 1:

$$439 \quad \tau = \frac{L}{v \times slope} \quad (1)$$

440 where L is the distance of 1-degree longitude averaged over $5^\circ \text{ S} - 25^\circ \text{ N}$ in unit of m
441 degree⁻¹; v is the wind speed in unit of m s^{-1} ; and $slope$ is the gradient of the linear

442 trend line based on the logarithm of dust burden against the distance in degree
443 between 20 °W and 50 °W.

444 Estimated dust lifetime is the shortest (1.4 ± 0.098 d) in winter, followed by fall and
445 spring (1.9 ± 0.33 d and 2.3 ± 0.31 d, respectively), while the lifetime in summer is
446 the longest (4.2 ± 0.68 d). The interannual variability of the lifetime is small in winter
447 with relative standard deviation (RSD) of 7.0%, but relatively large in fall with RSD
448 of 17%. The short lifetime in winter is generally associated with high deposition flux
449 (including both dry and wet deposition). As shown in Figure 8, the largest dust
450 deposition flux (> 1000 ng m⁻² s⁻¹) is found over the source regions in northern Africa,
451 especially in spring and winter, and is mainly due to dry deposition (accounting for
452 more than 80%). As a result, 48% – 64% of total emission in northern Africa is
453 deposited within the source region (Table S2). The deposition flux over the AOaTP,
454 also shows strong seasonality, with a maximum of ~ 530 ng m⁻² s⁻¹ in winter and a
455 minimum of ~ 180 ng m⁻² s⁻¹ in fall, and is mainly driven by wet deposition
456 (accounting for 76% on average). The deposition over the AOaTP accounts for 20%
457 of total emission in northern Africa in winter, in contrast to 7.7% in spring, consistent
458 with the relatively shorter lifetime in winter discussed above.

459 The seasonality in the deposition fluxes and the consequent dust lifetime depends not
460 only on precipitation but also the vertical pathways of dust transport across the
461 Atlantic. Dust aerosols aloft at higher altitude reach further west and have relatively
462 longer lifetime. Significant differences in dust vertical distributions along the
463 transport pathways have been revealed from the CALIOP measurements, which show
464 that more dust is transported above 2km in summer while the dust layer is the
465 shallowest in winter (Liu et al., 2012).

466 **4.3 The influence of African dust over the Amazon Basin**

467 **4.3.1 Surface aerosol concentrations**

468 Figure 9 shows the time series of observed and simulated aerosol mass concentrations
469 at ATTO in January – June for the period of 2014 – 2016. Observed mean concentration
470 in wet season is 9.3 ± 7.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, of which 83% is from coarse aerosol (7.7 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$),

471 while simulated concentration is $11 \pm 6.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, with dust contribution of 65% ($7.2 \mu\text{g}$
472 m^{-3}). The slight model bias could be to some extent explained by the difference in
473 background concentrations (1.9 and $5.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for the observation and model data,
474 respectively). Most of observed peaks are found in February – March of 2014 and 2016,
475 and in February – April of 2015. The high correlation (r of $0.52 - 0.71$) between
476 observed coarse aerosols and simulated dust concentrations suggests that observed
477 strong variation in coarse aerosols is mainly driven by the influence of dust. Rizzolo et
478 al. (2017) conducted aerosol measurements at ATTO from 19 March to 24 April 2015.
479 The study showed the arrival of African dust between 3 and 6 April when the highest
480 concentrations of PM_{10} , soluble Fe (III) and Fe (II) were recorded at ATTO. The peak
481 value of $23 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for PM_{10} was observed on 5 April. This dust event is well reproduced
482 in this study with the peak value of $28 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for PM_{10} on the same day and the dust
483 contribution to PM_{10} reaching above 70%. The co-occurrence of elevated sea salt
484 concentration (reaching $2.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during this event is also found in this study,
485 consistent with previous studies which show mixed transport of African dust and marine
486 aerosols to the basin (Wang et al., 2016; Ben-Ami et al., 2010; Rizzolo et al., 2017;
487 Adachi et al., 2020).

488 The dust peaks are generally associated with large dust emission and/or efficient
489 trans-Atlantic transport (e.g. relatively longer lifetime). For example, the relatively
490 higher dust concentrations in the wet season of 2015 (except for February) are
491 generally associated with higher emissions ($1.2 - 1.5 \text{Pg yr}^{-1}$) compared with the year
492 of 2014 and 2016 ($0.68 - 1.0 \text{Pg yr}^{-1}$, see Table S3). On the other hand, although
493 emissions in February 2016 (0.95Pg yr^{-1}) is slightly lower than those in February
494 2014 (1.2Pg yr^{-1}), the relatively longer lifetime (1.7 d vs. 1.5 d) may help explain the
495 relatively higher dust concentrations during that period. It should be noted that the
496 lifetime estimated here represents the export efficiency averaged over a relatively
497 large domain and a long-time scale (e.g. one month). Besides, the influence of African
498 dust on the ATTO site is also subject to the variations of transport paths and
499 precipitation fields.

500 Over the whole Amazon Basin, simulated mean surface dust concentrations in the wet
501 season of 2013 – 2017 are $5.7 \pm 1.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, with a maximum of $7.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in 2015
502 driven mainly by the relatively higher dust emission flux. The maxima of surface dust

503 concentrations are found in the northeast corner of the rainforest (over $15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)
504 with a clearly decreasing trend towards southwestern direction (Figure 10). The dust
505 contribution to surface aerosol concentrations averaged over the whole basin is $40\% \pm$
506 4.5% , again with the maximum of 48% found in 2015. The location with the largest
507 dust contributions (up to 70% in the north corner) slightly shifted inland compared to
508 the spatial distribution of dust concentrations. This could be explained by relatively
509 higher influence of sea salt aerosols along the coast (around $30\text{-}50\%$ near the coast of
510 South America). Although the emission fluxes of both sea salt and dust are largely
511 determined by surface winds, the interannual variability of dust concentrations is
512 larger than sea salt over the Amazon Basin (20% vs. 10%) as the former is also
513 sensitive to the export efficiency across the Atlantic Ocean as discussed above.
514 Figure 10c also shows the frequency of dust events over the Amazon Basin, estimated
515 as the number of days when daily surface dust concentrations reaching the threshold
516 of $9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Moran-Zuloaga et al., 2018) divided by the total number of days in the
517 wet season of 2013 – 2017. Dust frequency averaged over the whole region is around
518 $18\% \pm 4.6\%$ and decreases from $50 - 60\%$ on the northeast coast to $< 1\%$ in southern
519 inland. The frequency of dust events at ATTO site is around 32% , close to the median
520 of the range. The interannual variation of the frequency (represented by RSD),
521 however, has an opposite trend, gradually increasing from 10% at the northeast coast
522 to over 100% in southern inland (36% at ATTO). During dust events, the dust mass
523 concentration at ATTO reaches $16 \pm 2.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (three times as high as that over the
524 whole wet season), accounting for around $75\% \pm 5.3\%$ of total aerosol (Figure 10d).
525 Similarly, under the influence of the LRT of Saharan dust plumes, Moran-Zuloaga et
526 al. (2018) observed mass concentrations $14 \pm 12 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for coarse aerosol at the same
527 site, accounting for 93% of total observed aerosol.

528

529 **4.3.2 AOD**

530 The contribution of DOD to AOD at 550 nm over most areas of the Amazon Basin
531 (Figure 11) is in the range of $10 - 50\%$ ($23\% \pm 4.4\%$ on average) during the wet

532 season of 2013 – 2017, with maxima in the northern Amazon Basin. The dust
533 contribution to total AOD is relatively smaller than that to surface aerosol
534 concentrations, mainly because of the relatively lower MEE of dust aerosols
535 compared to other aerosols. There also exists large difference in DOD between the
536 whole wet season and dust events: 0.021 ± 0.0055 vs. 0.055 ± 0.0076 averaged over
537 the Amazon Basin. A maximum of 0.31 on a daily basis is found on 1 Mar 2016 at the
538 northeast corner (55° W, 4° N) of the Amazon Basin during the study period. During
539 dust events, dust aerosols dominate AOD (40% – 60%) over most of the Amazon
540 Basin. At ATTO site, DOD is 0.034 ± 0.0088 and 0.063 ± 0.0087 , accounting for 37%
541 and 53% of AOD during the whole wet season and dust events, respectively. The
542 largest dust contribution (up to 81%) with DOD of 0.18 at ATTO site is found on 24
543 Jan 2015. Consistent with our results, previous studies by Baars et al. (2011) and
544 Baars et al. (2012) reported an average AOD (532 nm) of ~ 0.14 when affected by the
545 influence of Saharan dust at a similar Amazon site ($60^\circ 2.3'$ W, $2^\circ 35.9'$ S), during
546 which the DOD (532 nm) could be up to 0.18.

547

548 **4.3.3 Dust deposition and related nutrient input**

549 The spatial distribution of dust deposition over the Amazon Basin is also shown in
550 Figure 8. The mean dust deposition flux in the wet season is $2.0 \pm 0.35 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$,
551 much higher than in the dry season (August to November, $0.35 \pm 0.16 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). The
552 maximum ($2.6 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) is found in the year 2015 due to relatively large dust
553 emission and efficient trans-Atlantic transport. With emission of $0.96 \pm 0.25 \text{ Pg yr}^{-1}$ in
554 wet season ($0.73 \pm 0.12 \text{ Pg yr}^{-1}$ on annual average), only 1.9% (1.4%) of African dust
555 is deposited into the Amazon Basin (dominated by wet deposition) while relatively
556 large part is deposited over the AOaTP (13% in the wet season and 14% on annual
557 average) and northern Africa (49% in the wet season).

558 Assuming mass fractions of 4.4%, 0.082%, and 1.8% for iron, phosphorus, and
559 magnesium respectively in African dust (Bristow et al., 2010; Chiemeka et al., 2007),
560 we derive deposition fluxes of $88 \pm 15 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, $1.6 \pm 0.29 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and 36 ± 6.3

561 $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ for iron, phosphorus and magnesium respectively into the Amazon
562 rainforest during the wet season and 52 ± 8.7 , 0.97 ± 0.16 and $21 \pm 3.6 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ on
563 annual average (Figure 12). It should be noted that there exists large spatial variation
564 of nutrient input into the Amazon Basin associated with the patterns of dust deposition
565 flux. The deposition flux of iron during the wet season decreases from over 500 mg
566 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ at the northeast coast to less than $15 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ in the southwest and is above
567 $50 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ in most of the Amazon Basin. Similarly, the deposition flux decreases
568 from over $70 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ($> 9 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$) at the northeast coast to less than 7 mg
569 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ($< 1 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$) in inland for magnesium (phosphorus) during the wet
570 season. It seems that the nutrient input from Africa dust may play a significant role in
571 the northeastern part of the Amazon Basin, not in the southwest.

572 Table 4 summarized the estimates of dust and associated phosphorus deposition into
573 the Amazon Basin from previous studies. The estimated fluxes of dust and associated
574 phosphorus deposition are in the range of $0.81 - 19 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ and $0.48 - 16 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$
575 yr^{-1} . The large range is mainly driven by the high values ($19 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ and 16 mg m^{-2}
576 yr^{-1} for dust and associated phosphorus, respectively) from the study of Swap et al.
577 (1992), which estimated dust importation into the northeastern basin, where it is most
578 subject to the intrusion of African dust. Besides the discrepancy in defined regions,
579 the wide range could also be partly explained by the application of different methods
580 and associated intrinsic uncertainties as mentioned in the Introduction. For instance,
581 the estimates from Swap et al. (1992) are mainly based on 1-month field
582 measurements at three sites located in the northeastern basin. Assumption about air
583 exchange rate across the coast to the basin, duration of dust storms as well as dust
584 concentrations contained in the dust plumes had to be made to extrapolate the dust
585 deposition into the Amazon Basin. Similarly, bias could also arise from insufficient
586 observations available to constrain models or satellite retrievals. Additional
587 uncertainty may also stem from the assumption about the P mass fraction, ranging
588 from 0.07% to 0.108%. Our results are similar to the finding of Prospero et al. (2020),
589 which has also been constrained by the observation at Cayenne site.

590 According to Salati and Vose (1984), the total amount of phosphorous and magnesium
591 is 21.6 g m^{-2} and 29.8 g m^{-2} , respectively, in the ecosystem of the Amazon Basin (14.7
592 and 2.3 g m^{-2} respectively in the soil). Estimated nutrient input from African dust in
593 our study accounts for 0.011% and 1.6% of total phosphorous and magnesium in the
594 soil over the Amazon Basin during the wet season (0.0066% and 0.91% on annual
595 average). On the other hand, Vitousek and Sanford (1986) reported a loss of $0.8 - 4$
596 $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for phosphorus and $810 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for magnesium in Brazilian ecosystem
597 to surface waters. Estimated annual phosphorous deposition flux of $0.97 \pm 0.16 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$
598 yr^{-1} into the Amazon Basin on average in our study is at the bottom end of the range
599 of its hydrologic losses, implying that the nutrient input from African dust could to a
600 large extent compensate the hydrologic losses of phosphorous in Brazilian forest
601 ecosystem, although the deposition input of magnesium is much less than its
602 hydrologic losses. Similarly, Abouchami et al. (2013) pointed out that most of the
603 Amazonian rainforest is a system with an internal recycling of nutrients. But the extra
604 influx of nutrients from African dust might account for a significant portion of the net
605 outflux, i.e. dissolved discharge of nutrients into rivers. Keep in mind that the
606 estimates of nutrients influx are subject to the uncertainties in the estimates of dust
607 flux as well as the mass fractions of nutrients contained in the dust. In addition,
608 marine aerosols and biomassburning aerosols mixed with the LRT of African dust
609 may also play a role for certain essential nutrients (Prospero et al., 2020; Abouchami
610 et al., 2013). More observations including the nutrient mass fractions in African dust
611 aerosols and the deposition fluxes of those elements into the Amazon Basin are
612 necessarily required in the future work to better evaluate the nutrient input associated
613 with the African dust intrusion.

614

615 **5 Conclusion**

616 In this study, we use the GEOS-Chem model with an optimized particle mass size
617 distribution (PMSD) of dust aerosols to investigate the influence of the export of
618 African dust towards the Amazon Basin during 2013 – 2017. The model performance

619 is constrained by multiple datasets obtained from AERONET, MODIS, as well as
620 Cayenne and ATTO sites in the Amazon Basin. The optimized PMSD in this study
621 well captures observed AOD regarding both the mean value as well as the decline rate
622 of the logarithm of AOD over the Atlantic Ocean along the transport path (AOaTP),
623 while the other two PMSD schemes tend to overestimate the decline rate by 11% and
624 underestimate the mean value by up to ~40%.

625 Simulated dust emission from northern Africa is $0.73 \pm 0.12 \text{ Pg yr}^{-1}$, accounting for
626 more than 70% of global dust emission. There exists a strong seasonality in dust
627 emission with peaks in spring or winter, which varies with source regions. The
628 correlation analysis suggests high surface wind speeds and low soil moisture as a
629 major driver for dust emissions. In addition to the transport paths associated with the
630 oscillation of ITCZ, the export efficiency of African dust towards the Amazon basin is
631 sensitive to the removal of dust aerosol along the trans-Atlantic transport, which
632 depends on both assumed PMSD of dust aerosols in the model and meteorological
633 fields (i.e. precipitation and vertical transport path). The study further estimates the e-
634 folding lifetime of dust aerosols along the trans-Atlantic transport based on the
635 logarithm of the dust column burden against travel time over the AOaTP. The shortest
636 lifetime (1.4 d) is found for winter associated with high deposition flux, while the
637 highest dust burden over the AOaTP is found in summer mainly associated with its
638 longer lifetime (4.2 d).

639 Simulated surface dust concentration averaged over the whole Amazon Basin is $5.7 \pm$
640 $1.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during the wet season of 2013 – 2017, contributing $40\% \pm 4.5\%$ to total
641 surface aerosols. Observed dust peaks at the ATTO site are generally associated with
642 large dust emissions and/or efficient trans-Atlantic transport. The frequency of dust
643 events is $18\% \pm 4.6\%$ averaged over the Amazon Basin and up to 50% – 60% at the
644 northeast coast. During the dust events, DOD is around 0.055 ± 0.0076 and dominate
645 total AOD over most of the Amazon Basin. Associated with the deposition of African
646 dust, the study estimated annual inputs of 52 ± 8.7 , 0.97 ± 0.16 and $21 \pm 3.6 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$
647 yr^{-1} for iron, phosphorus, and magnesium, respectively, into the Amazon rainforest,

648 which may to some extent compensate the hydrologic losses of nutrients in the forest
649 ecosystem.

650

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678 XRW conducted the data analysis, wrote the manuscript; QQW planned the study, collected
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682 data in the Amazon Basin and reviewed the manuscript.

683

684 Competing interests.

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687

688 Data availability.

689 OPS data used in this study could be found at <https://www.attodata.org/>. Other datasets are
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691

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1065 **Table 1.** Mass fractions (%) of dust emitted in each bin for different particle mass size
 1066 distribution (PMSD) schemes tested in GEOS-Chem.

Scheme	bin 1				bin 2	bin 3	bin 4
	sub-bin 1	sub-bin 2	sub-bin 3	sub-bin 4			
	(0.1 – 0.18) ^a (3.1) ^b	(0.18 – 0.3) ^a (4.3) ^b	(0.3 – 0.6) ^a (2.7) ^b	(0.6 – 1.0) ^a (0.96) ^b			
V12	0.7	3.32	24.87	71.11	19.2	34.9	38.2
V12_C	6	12	24	58.00	25.3	32.2	30.2
V12_F	3.9	8.06	43	45.04	11.9	15.6	67

1067 ^a size range in radius (μm) for each bin

1068 ^b mass extinction efficiency (MEE) at wavelength of 550 nm in unit of $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ for dust particles in
 1069 each bin in the GEOS-Chem mod

1070

1071 **Table 2.** Summary of the observations used in this study, including the parameters,
 1072 the spatio-temporal coverage, and the corresponding application in the model.

Datasets	Parameters	Locations	Periods (resolution)	Application
AERONET	AOD	northern Africa, the Atlantic Ocean	2013 – 2017 (daily)	Model AOD evaluation over northern Africa and the Atlantic Ocean
	PVSD ^a	northern Africa	2013 – 2017 (daily)	Model dust PMSD evaluation
Fennec Campaign	PMSD ^b	Over Mali and Algeria, Africa	17 – 28 June, 2011	Model dust PMSD evaluation
MODIS	AOD	northern Africa and the Atlantic Ocean	2013 – 2017 (daily)	Model AOD evaluation over northern Africa and the Atlantic Ocean
Cayenne	PM ₁₀	52.3097° W, 4.9489° N (France)	January – April, 2014 (daily)	Model dust mass concentration evaluation at the coast of South America
ATTO	PNSD ^c	59.0056° W, 2.1459° S (Brazil)	January – April, 2014 – 2016 (5 min)	Model dust mass concentration evaluation at the central Amazon Basin

1073 ^a particle volume size distribution; ^b particle mass size distribution; ^c particle number size
 1074 distribution

1075 **Table 3.** Annual and seasonal dust emissions (Pg yr^{-1}) in northern Africa ($17.5^\circ \text{W} -$
 1076 $40^\circ \text{E}, 10^\circ \text{N} - 35^\circ \text{N}$)^a simulated in GEOS-Chem.

Year	Spring	Summer	Fall	Winter	Annual (Wet season)
2013	1.2	0.77	0.48	1.0	0.88 (1.1)
2014	0.83	0.84	0.51	0.91	0.77 (0.89)
2015	1.2	0.46	0.33	1.1	0.77 (1.3)
2016	0.82	0.52	0.37	0.89	0.65 (0.86)
2017	0.68	0.38	0.47	0.70	0.56 (0.63)
Mean \pm std ^b	0.95 \pm 0.24	0.59 \pm 0.20	0.43 \pm 0.078	0.92 \pm 0.15	0.73 \pm 0.12 (0.96 \pm 0.25)

1077 ^a Spring: March – May; Summer: June – August; Fall: September – November; Winter: January,

1078 February, and December; Wet season: January – April

1079 ^b standard deviation

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1083 **Table 4.** Estimates of annual dust and associated phosphorus deposition into the
 1084 Amazon Basin.

Methods	Dust deposition		P deposition		References
	total (Tg a^{-1})	flux ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{a}^{-1}$)	total (Tg a^{-1})	flux ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{a}^{-1}$)	
CESM2	10 \pm 2.1	n/a	0.0077 \pm 0.0016	n/a	Li et al. (2021) ^a
AeroCom Phase I	7.7	0.81	0.0063	0.66	Kok et al. (2021) ^b
MERRA-2	8.0	1.05	0.0062	0.9	Prospero et al. (2020) ^a
MERRA-2, CAM	n/a	n/a	0.011 – 0.033	1.1 – 3.5	Barkley et al. (2019) ^a
GLOMAP	32	1.8	0.019	1.1	Herbert et al. (2018) ^a
CALIOP	8– 48	0.8 – 5	0.006 – 0.037	0.7 – 3.9	Yu et al. (2015b) ^a
ECHAM5	30.3/11.4	n/a	0.025/0.0093	n/a	Gläser et al. (2015) ^b
GEOS-Chem	17 \pm 5	n/a	0.014	n/a	Ridley et al. (2012) ^b
MATCH	n/a	n/a	n/a	0.48	Mahowald et al. (2005) ^a
MODIS	50	n/a	0.041	n/a	Kaufman (2005) ^b
Field measurement	13	19	0.011	16	Swap et al. (1992) ^b

GEOS-Chem	10 ± 1.7	1.2 ± 0.20	0.0085 ± 0.0014	0.97 ± 0.16	This study
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1085 *Note.* Table extracted in part from Prospero et al. (2020).

1086 ^aThe P mass fraction is 0.077% for Li et al. (2021) and Prospero et al. (2020), 0.108% for Barkley
 1087 et al. (2019), 0.088% for Herbert et al. (2018), 0.078% for Yu et al. (2015b), and 0.07% for
 1088 Mahowald et al. (2005).

1089 ^bAssuming P mass fraction of 0.082% in dust, the same value as used in this study.

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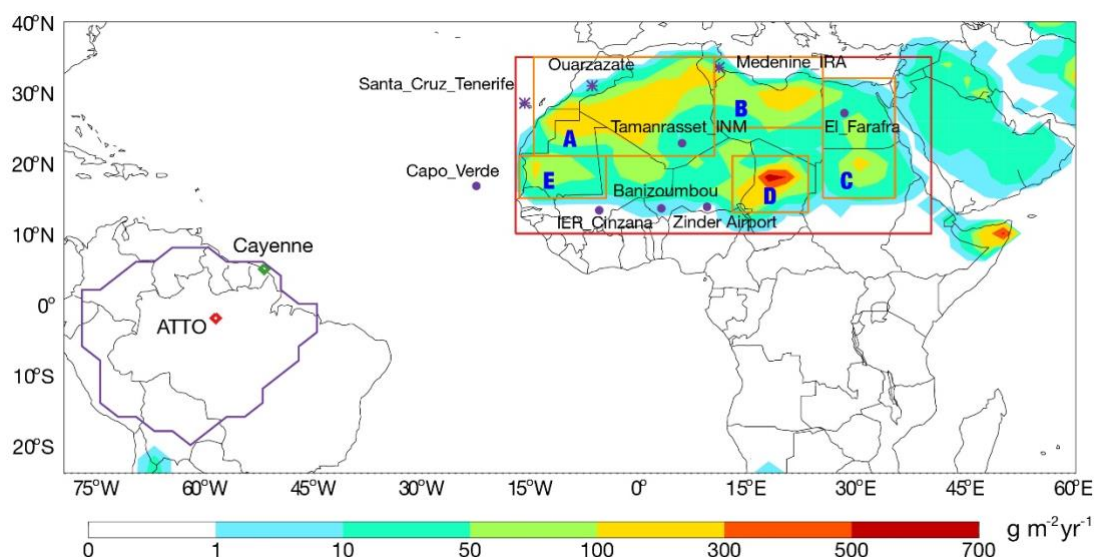
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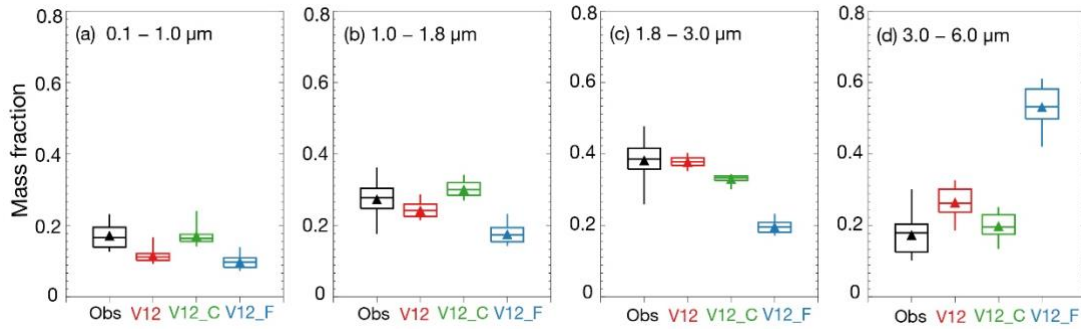


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1099 **Figure 1.** Simulated annual dust emissions in GEOS-Chem, averaged from 2013 to 2017. The
 1100 location of AERONET sites used in Figure 2 are marked as purple symbols, of which circles
 1101 represent the sites used in Figure 3. The region of the Amazon Basin is defined by purple lines.
 1102 The location of Cayenne site in the northeast coast of South America and ATTO site in the
 1103 central Amazon Basin are marked as green and red diamonds, respectively. The red rectangle
 1104 illustrates the area of northern Africa (17.5° W – 40° E, 10° N – 35° N) and the orange
 1105 rectangles shows the areas of five major source regions described in the text (A: 15° W – 10°
 1106 E, 21° N – 35° N; B: 10° E – 25° E, 25° N – 35° N; C: 25° E – 35° E, 15° N – 32° N; D: 12.5°
 1107 E – 23° E, 13° N – 21° N; E: 17° W – 5° W, 15° N – 21° N).

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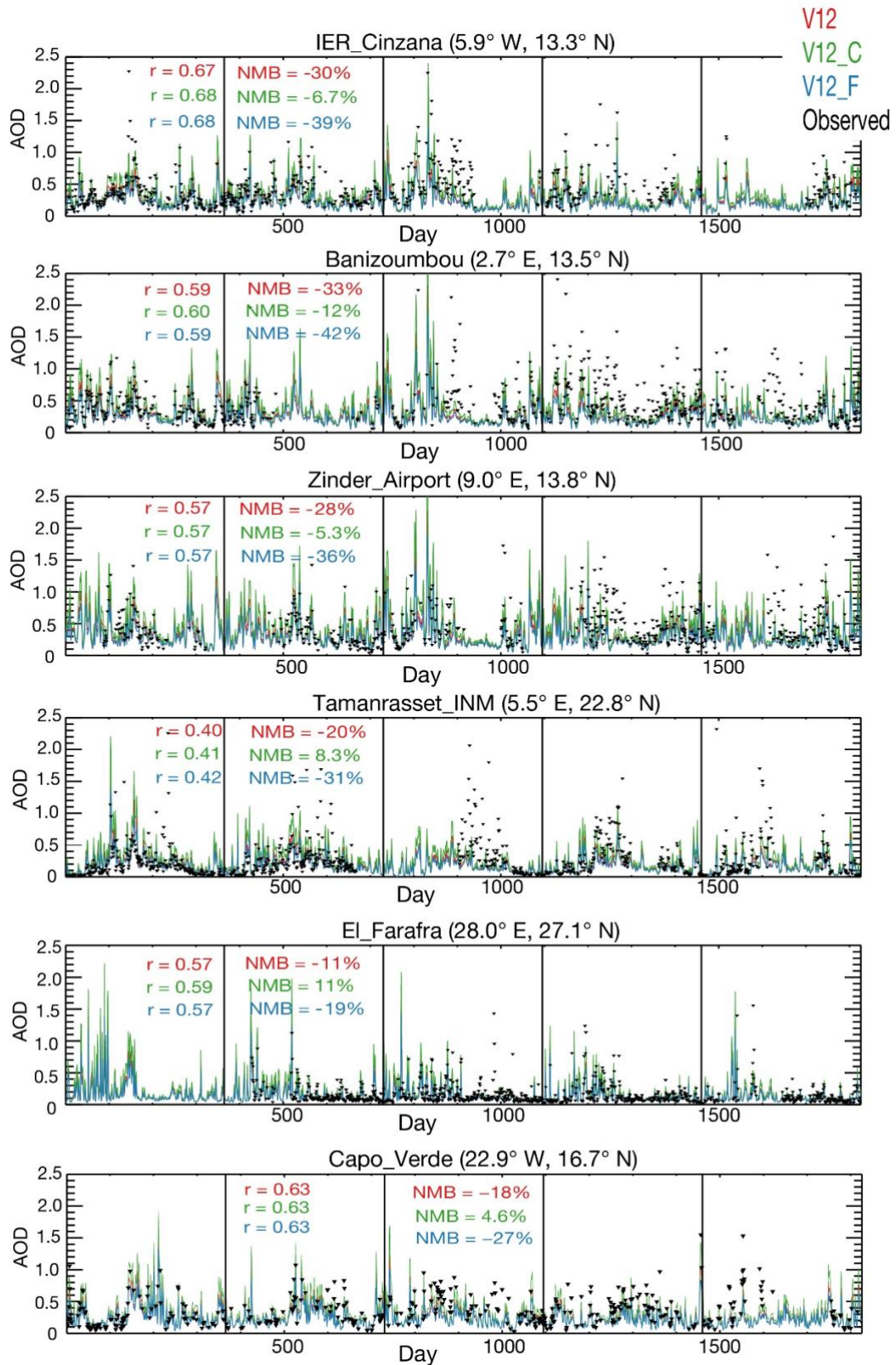
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1111 **Figure 2.** Boxplots of the mass fractions of column-integrated aerosols in the four size bins (in
1112 radius) retrieved from AERONET sites over Africa compared with model results based on different
1113 PMSD schemes. The triangles represent the mean values.

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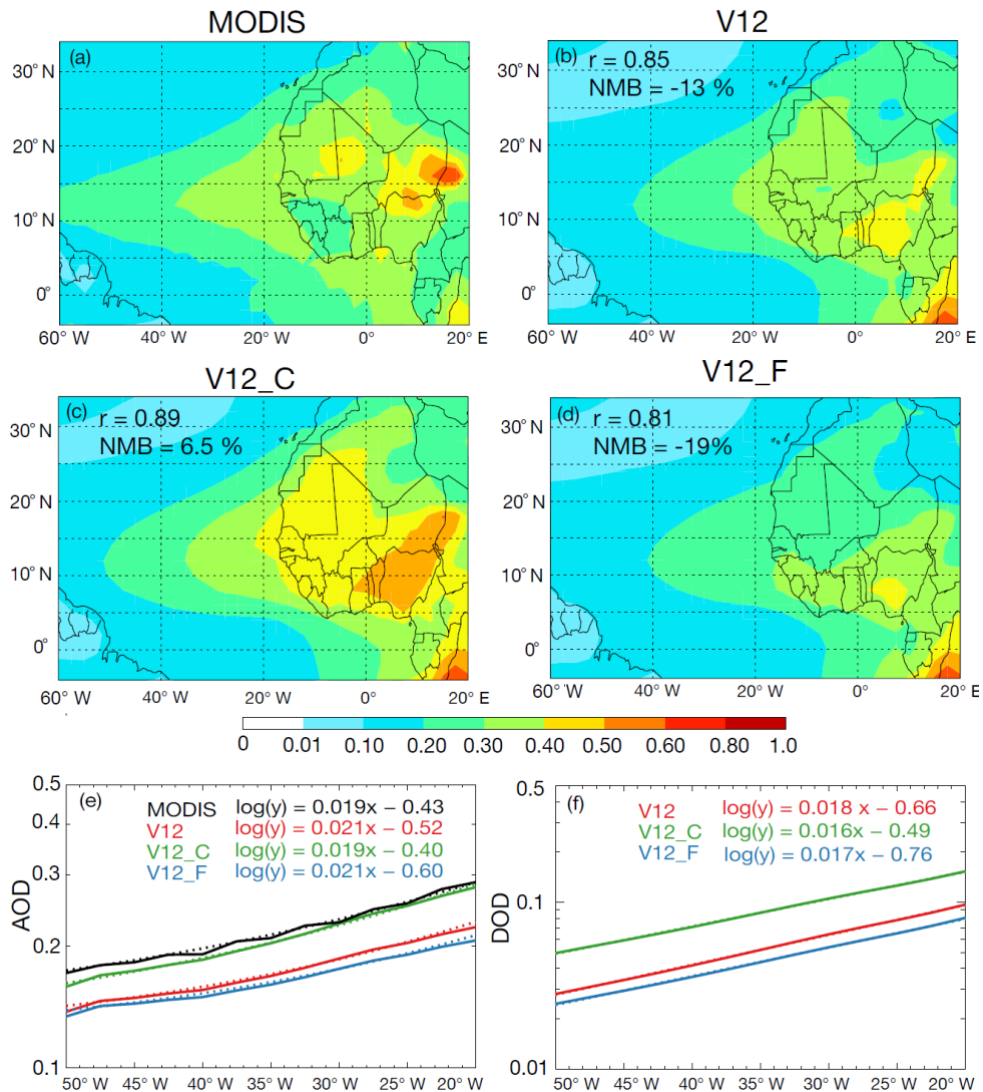


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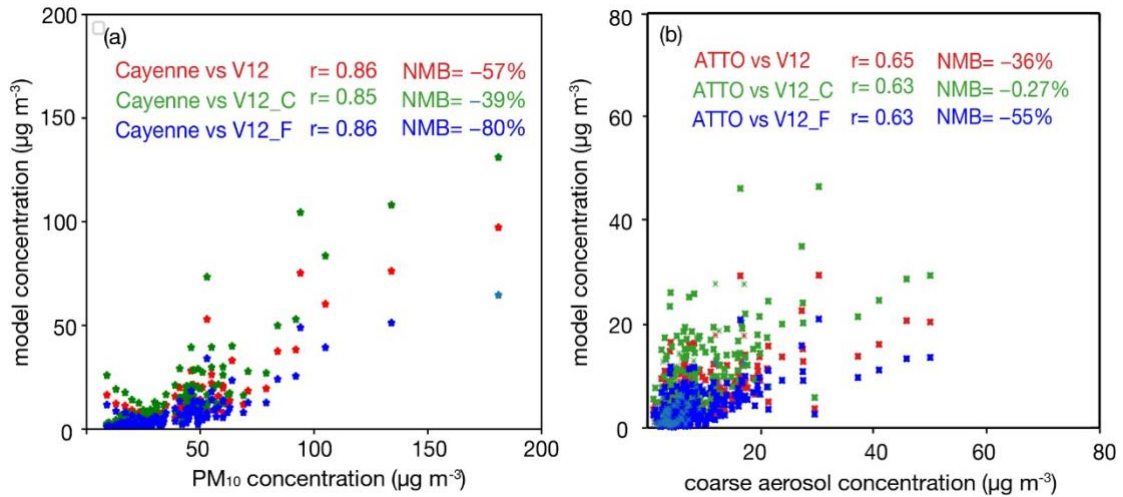
1116 **Figure 3.** Time series of AERONET (black lines) and simulated daily AOD (at wavelength of 675

1117 nm) during 2013 – 2017. Normalized mean bias (NMB) and correlation (r) statistics between the

1118 AERONET and simulated data are shown as inset.
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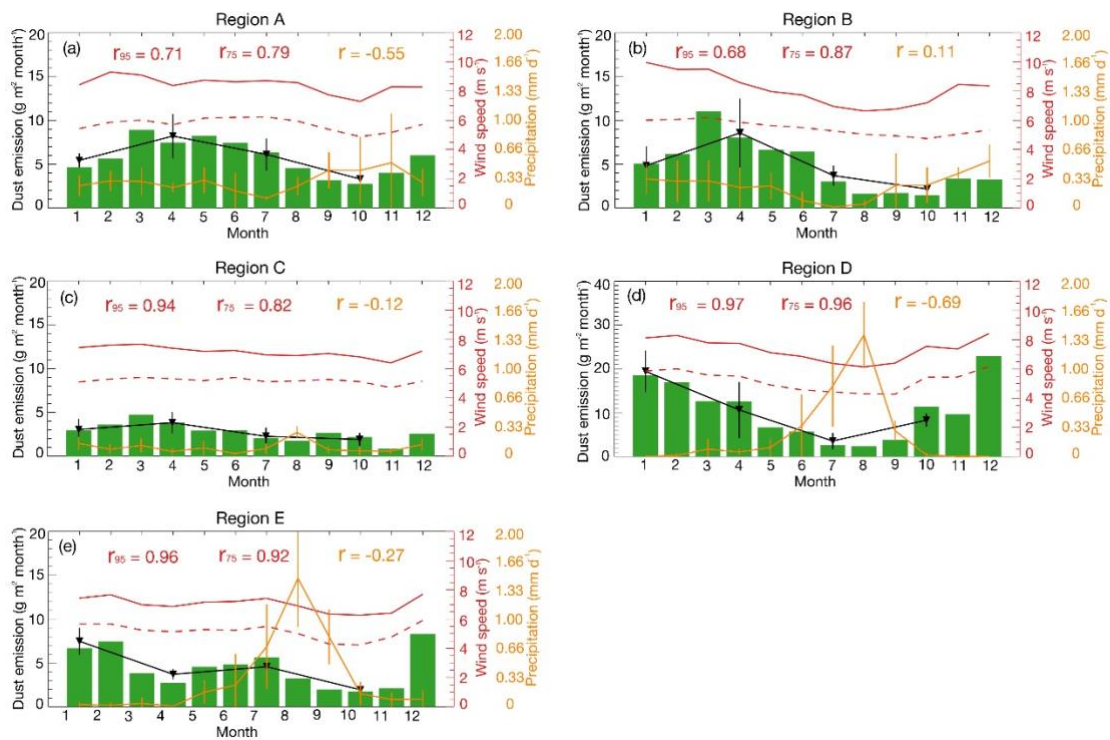


1121
 1122 **Figure 4.** (a) – (d) Spatial distributions of observed and simulated AOD (at 550 nm) over the region
 1123 of 60° W – 20° E and 10° N – 35° N averaged over 2013 – 2017. Normalized mean bias (NMB) and
 1124 correlation coefficient (r) between the simulations and MODIS AOD are shown as inset. (e) MODIS
 1125 (black) and simulated (color) AOD and (f) simulated dust optical depth (DOD) at 550 nm along the
 1126 transect from 20° to 50° W, averaged over 5° S – 25° N for the period 2013 – 2017. The solid lines
 1127 represent averaged data and the dashed lines are the logarithmic trend lines.
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1130 **Figure 5.** Scatter plots of (a) observed PM_{10} and simulated dust concentrations at Cayenne site
 1131 during wet season of 2014 and (b) observed coarse aerosol (PM_{1-10}) and simulated dust
 1132 concentrations at ATTO site during wet season of 2014-2016. Normalized mean bias (NMB) and
 1133 correlation (r) statistics between the observation and simulation are shown as inset.
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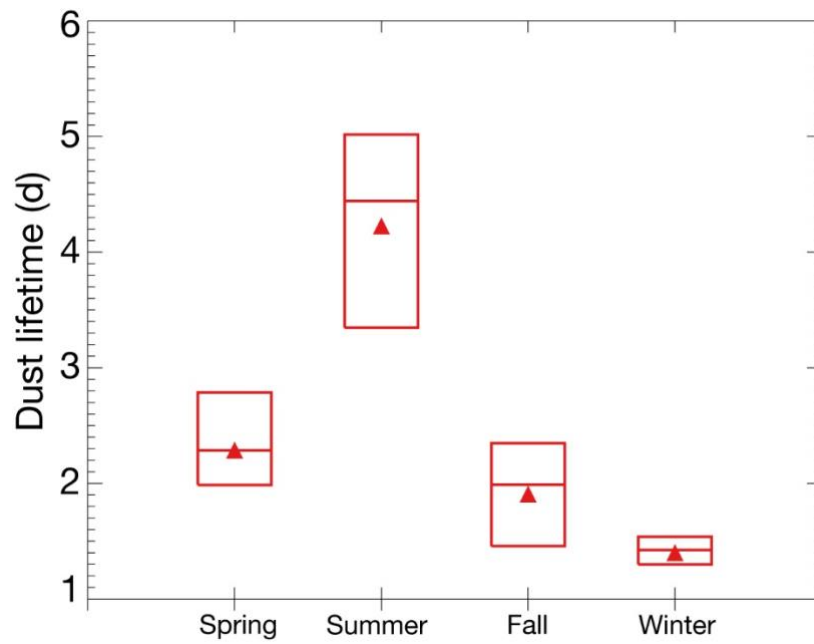


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1136 **Figure 6.** Monthly dust emission fluxes together with the 95th percentile hourly 10-m wind speeds
 1137 (red solid lines), the 75th percentile hourly 10-m wind speeds (red dotted lines) and precipitation
 1138 (yellow lines) over the five major source regions averaged from 2013 to 2017. Seasonal emission
 1139 fluxes of dust are also shown as black lines. The correlation coefficients (r) between the dust
 1140 emission fluxes and different meteorological variables are also shown in each panel.

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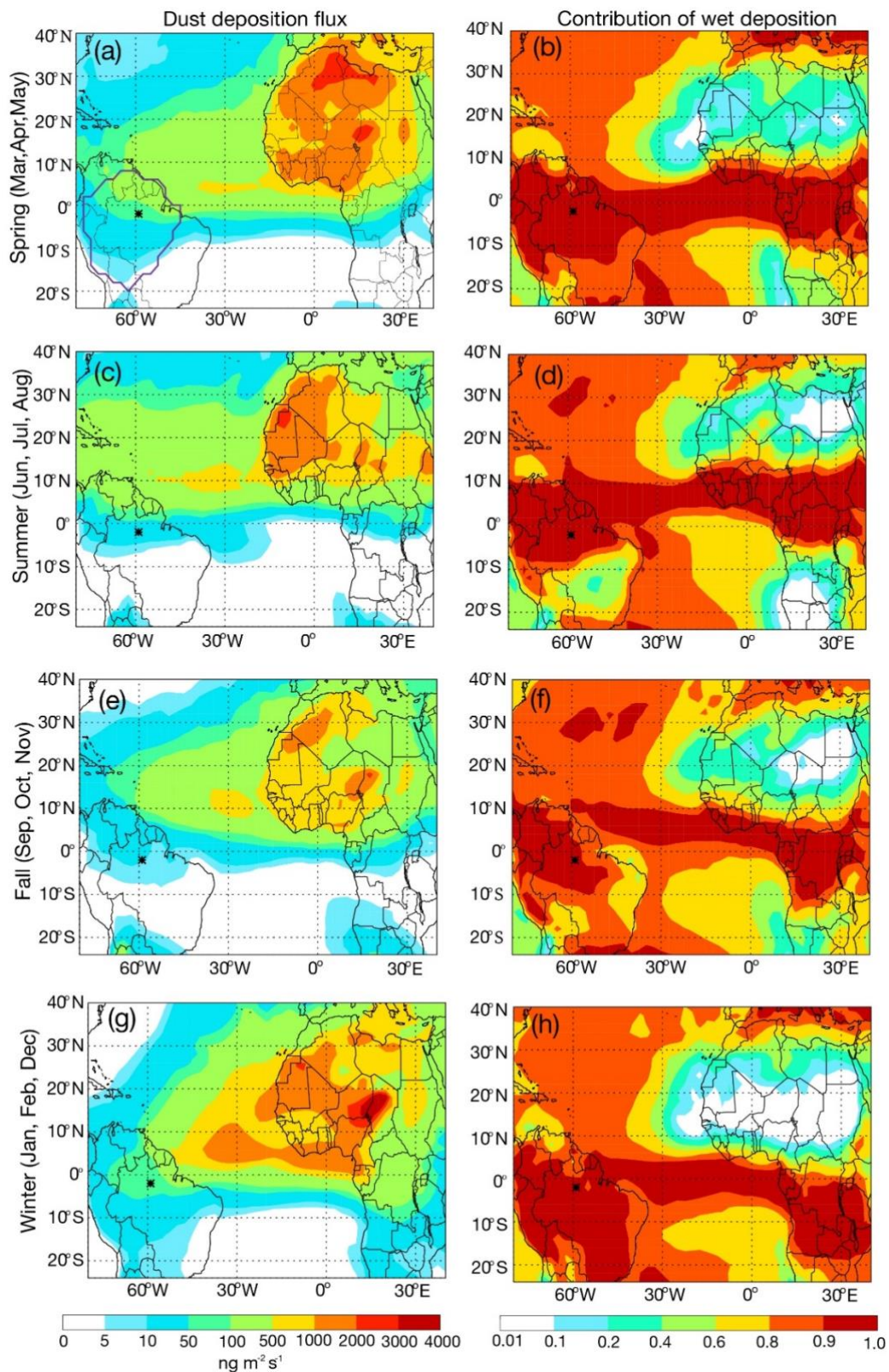
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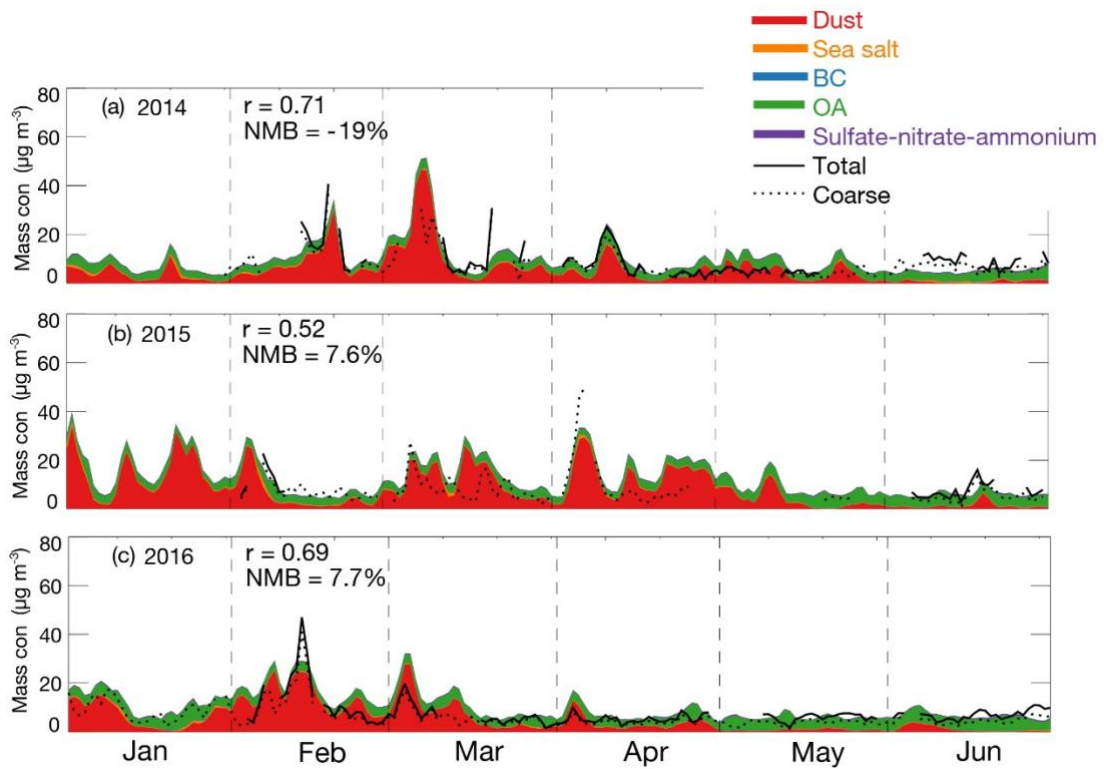
1144 **Figure 7.** Seasonal e-folding lifetime derived from the logarithm of simulated dust column burden
1145 against travel time along the transect from 20° W to 50° W averaged over 5° S – 25° N during the
1146 period of 2013 – 2017. The triangles represent the mean values, and the bottom and top sides of the
1147 boxes represent the minimums and maximums.

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1150 **Figure 8.** Simulated seasonal (left) dust deposition fluxes and (right) contribution of wet deposition
 1151 during 2013-2017. The ATTO site is marked as asterisk. The region of the Amazon Basin is defined
 1152 by purple lines in Figure 8a.

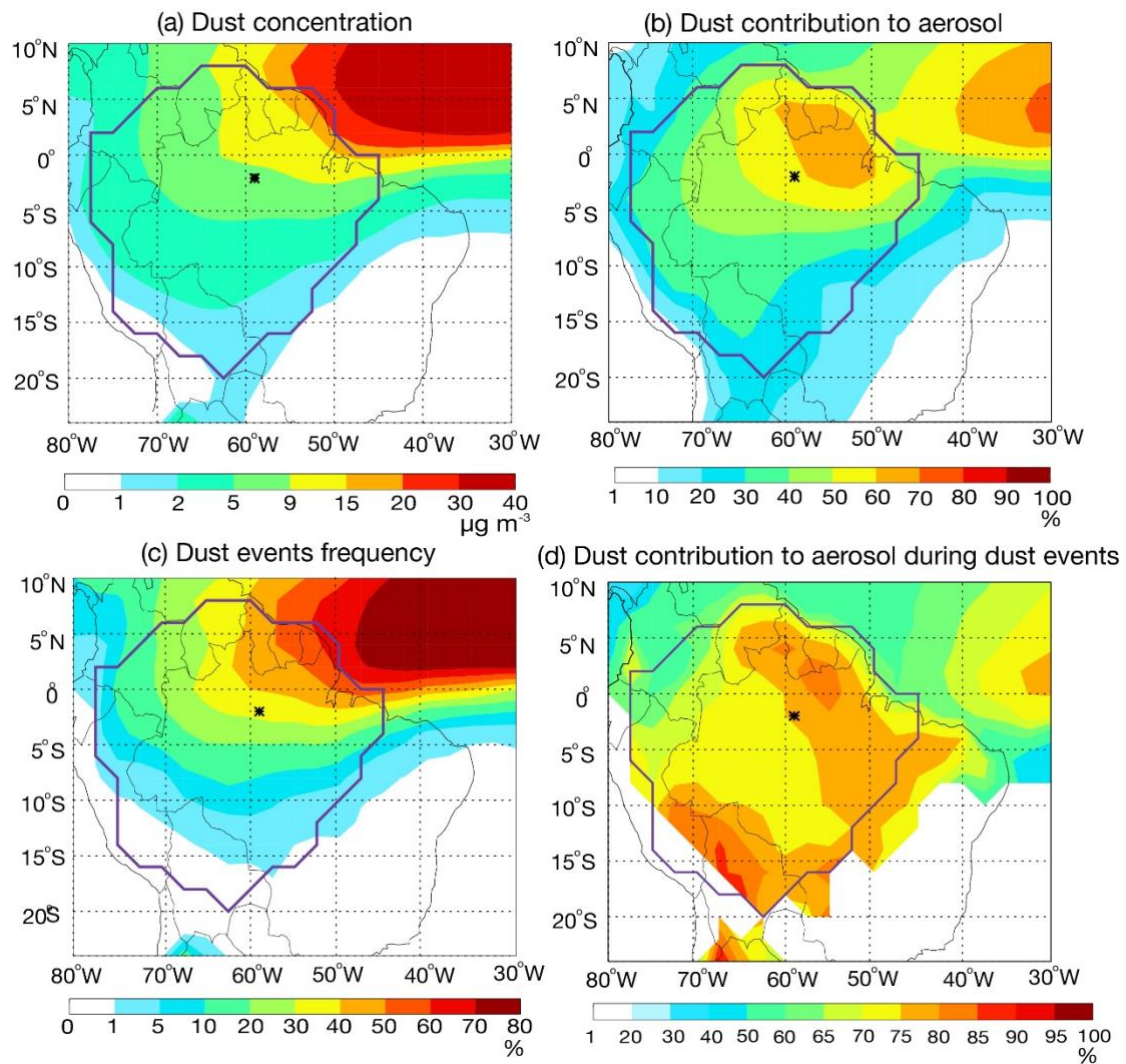


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1154 **Figure 9.** Time series of observed coarse and total aerosol mass concentrations and simulated
 1155 aerosol species concentrations at the ATTO site from January to June in (a) 2014, (b) 2015, and (c)
 1156 2016. Model results are separated into different species shown as stacked areas. Normalized mean
 1157 bias (NMB) and correlation coefficient (r) between the observed coarse aerosols and simulated dust
 1158 concentrations are shown as inset.

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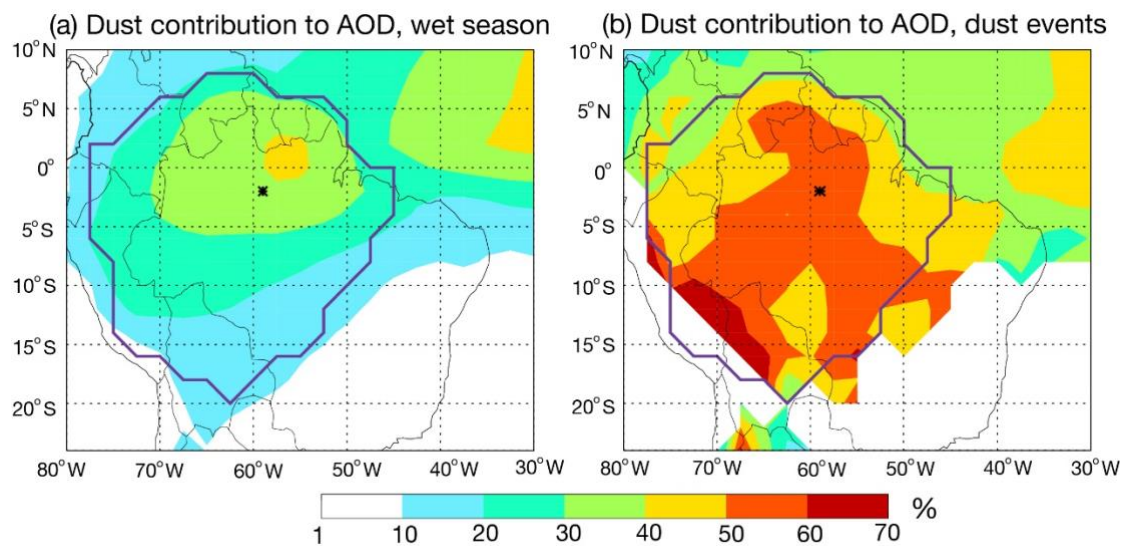
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1162 **Figure 10.** Dust impact over the Amazon Basin in the wet season of 2013 – 2017: (a) simulated
 1163 surface dust concentrations, (b) dust contribution to surface aerosol concentrations, (c) the
 1164 frequency of dust events, and (d) dust contribution to surface aerosol concentrations during dust
 1165 events. The location of ATTO site is marked as asterisks. The region of Amazon Basin is marked by
 1166 purple lines.

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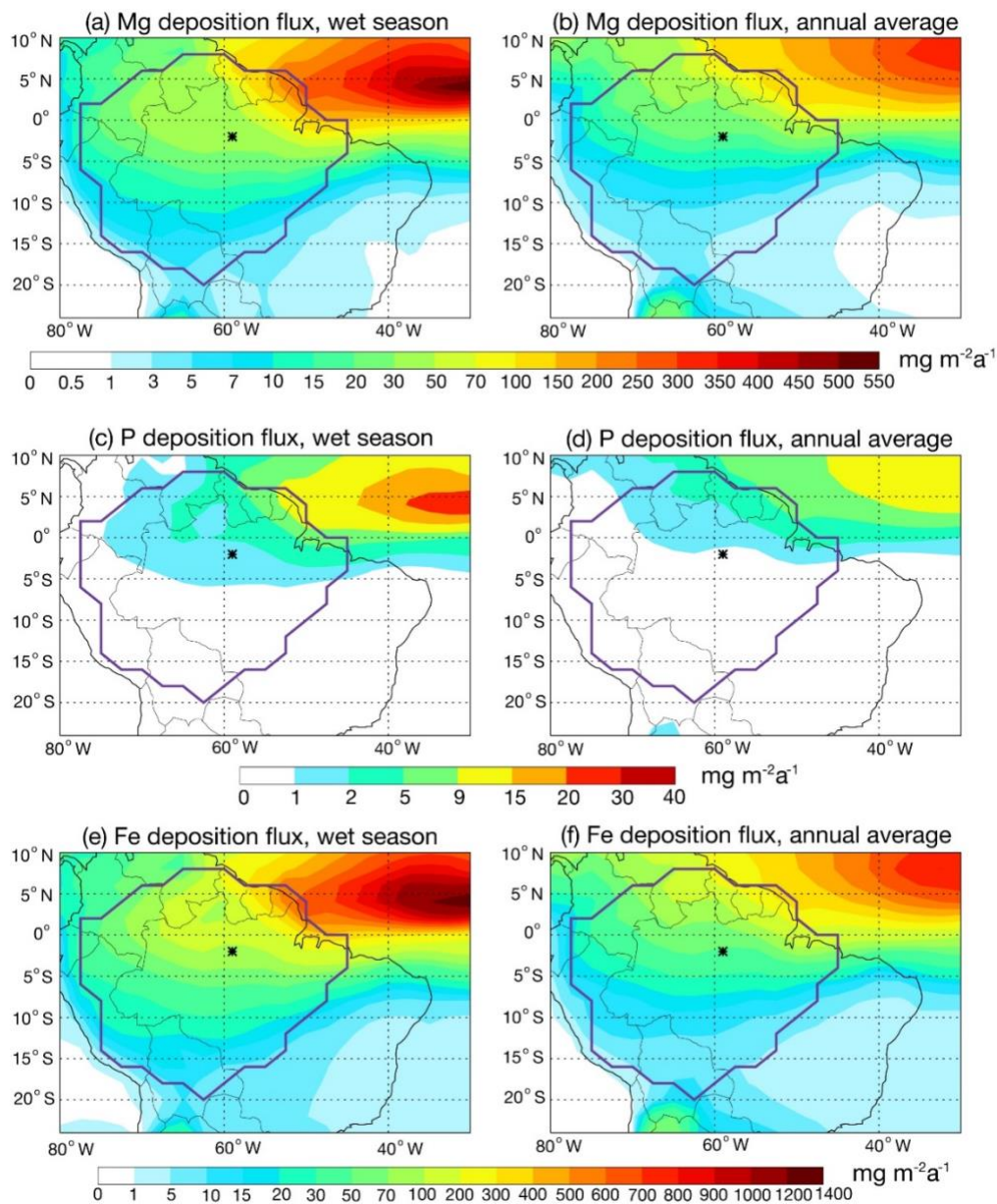
1171 **Figure 11.** Dust contribution to total AOD at 550 nm over the Amazon Basin averaged over the (a)

1172 wet season and (b) dust events during 2013 – 2017. The region of Amazon Basin is marked by

1173 purple lines.

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1177 **Figure 12.** Magnesium deposition flux in (a) wet season and (b) annual averaged from 2013 to 2017.

1178 Phosphorus deposition flux in (c) wet season and (d) annual averaged from 2013 to 2017.

1179 Iron deposition flux in (e) wet season and (f) annual averaged from 2013 to 2017. The location of ATTO

1180 site is marked as asterisks. The region of Amazon Basin is marked by purple lines.

1181