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3	A New Look into the Impacts of the Dust Radiative Foreing Effects on
4	the Energetics of Tropical Easterly Waves
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19	Abstract
20	Saharan dust aerosols are often embedded in tropical easterly waves, also known
21	as African easterly waves, and are transported thousands of kilometers across the tropical

Atlantic Oceans, reaching the Caribbean Sea, Amazon Basin, and the eastern U.S. However, due to the complexity climate dynamics of the West African and the eastern tropical Atlantic Oceanelimate dynamics, there is still a lack of understanding of how dust particles may influence the development of African easterly waves, which are coupled to deep convective systems over the tropical Atlantic Ocean and in some cases may seed the growth of tropical cyclones. Here we apply used 22 years of daily satellite observations and reanalysis data to explore the relationships between dust in the Saharan air layer and the development of African easterly waves. Our findings show that dust aerosols are not merely transported by the African easterly jet and the African easterly waves system across the tropical Atlantic Ocean, but also contribute to the changes in the eddy energetics of the African easterly waves.

The radiative forcing efficiency of dust radiative effect in the atmosphere is estimated to be a warming of approximately 20 Wm⁻² over the ocean and 35 Wm⁻² over land. This diabatic heating of dust aerosols in the Saharan Air Layer acts as an additional energy source to increase the growth of the waves. The enhanced diabatic heating of dust leads to the increase in meridional temperature gradients in the baroclinic zone, where eddies extract available potential energy from the mean-flow and convert it to eddy kinetic energy. This suggests that diabatic heating of dust aerosols can increase the eddy kinetic energy of the African easterly waves and enhance the baroclinicity of the region. Our findings also show that dust outbreaks over the tropical Atlantic Ocean precede the development of baroclinic waves downstream of the African easterly jet, which suggests that the dust radiative forcing effect has the capability to trigger the generation of the zonal

- and meridional transient eddies in the system comprising the African Easterly Jet and
- 2 African easterly waves.

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1 Introduction

4 African Easterly Waves (AEWs), also known as tropical Atlantic easterly waves, are synoptic-scale atmospheric disturbances with a preferred wavelength in the 2000-5 4000km range that often develop into tropical Atlantic cyclones (Dunn, 1940). The basic 6 7 characteristics and behavior of the AEWs have been described in previous studies (Charney 8 and Stern, 1962; Chang, 1993; Kiladis et al., 2006; Diaz and Aiyyer, 2013). Local heating 9 is a dominant factor in determining the growth of AEWs over West Africa (Norquist et al., 10 1977), such that the presence of diabatic heating near the entrance of the African Easterly Jet (AEJ) is a favorable factor in generating AEWs (Thorncroft et al., 2008; Russell et al., 11 12 2020). The localized mid- to lower-tropospheric heating generates vortices in the vicinity 13 of the AEJ core, which is the genesis of the AEWs (Thorncroft et al., 2008; Berry and 14 Thorncroft, 2012). AEWs can be initiated by convective triggers over the highlands of 15 eastern Africa and forcing from the subtropical Atlantic storm track (Cornforth et al. 2009). 16 Several studies have shown that AEWs are intensified in the presence of convective 17 systems where the mesoscale convection and synoptic-scale AEWs are dynamically 18 coupled (Kiladis et al., 2006; Hsieh and Cook, 2005&2007; Berry and Thorncroft, 2012). 19 A large portion of tropical Atlantic cyclones and hurricanes evolve from the AEWs (Avila 20 and Clark, 1989; Avila and Pasch, 1992; Pasch and Avila, 1994) during the boreal summer 21 seasons, which is the season when the amplitude of AEWs peaks (e.g., Roundy and Frank, 22 2004).

aerosols radiative forcing effect on the energy of the AEWs are poorly understood. The 2 3 Sahara Desert in North Africa is the largest source of dust in the world, where over sixty 4 million tons of dust particles (e.g., Prospero and Lamb, 2003; Lau and Kim, 2007) are lifted 5 annually and transported within the Saharan Air Layer (SAL) across the Atlantic Ocean (Carlson and Prospero, 1972) and reaches the Caribbean Sea, the Gulf of Mexico, Amazon 6 7 Basin and the United States (e.g., Perry et al., 1997; Liu et al., 2008, Francis et al., 2020). 8 Dust particles in the SAL have a robust influence on regional and global climate through 9 their impacts on radiation, clouds, hydrological cycle, and atmospheric circulation 10 (Colarco et al., 2003; Lau et al., 2009; Wilcox et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2010). In particular, among aerosol species, dust is known for having a strong shortwave radiative effect by 11 12 both efficiently scattering, as well as absorbing, incoming radiation and leading to a heating 13 of the dust layer and strong cooling of the surface (Myhre et al., 2004; Mamun et al., 2021, 14 Francis et al., 2022). The shortwave radiative effect is slightly counteracted by the 15 longwave radiative effect of dust which causes warming at the surface and cooling within the atmosphere (Meloni et al., 2018). 16 17 A limited number of studies have focused on the impacts of Saharan dust plumes 18 on the dynamics of the AEWs (Jones et al., 2003; Ma et al., 2012; Hosseinpour and Wilcox, 19 2014). Jones et al. (2004) suggested that dust optical and radiative properties have 20 significant impacts on the AEWs. They showed that the low-level temperature anomalies

associated with the AEWs are modulated by the dust radiative effect forcing and suggested

that dust loading in the SAL precedes the maximum geopotential height at 700-hPa by

about 1-2 days. Model sensitivity studies have also shown that the intensification of AEWs

Numerous studies addressed the dynamics of the AEWs; however, the impacts of

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can be induced by dust (Ma et al., 2012; Grogan et al., 2019; Bercos-Hickey and Patricola, 2021; Grogan et al., 2022). The analytical and numerical study of Grogan et al. (2016) found that the presence of dust enhances the development of AEWs by providing a buoyancy source. They also showed that dust can affect the propagation of AEWs by changing the wind shear and stability of the atmosphere. Using a regional climate model coupled with a dust model, Bercos-Hickey et al. (2017) found that Saharan dust causes AEJ to shift northward, upward, and westward, and this results in westward expansion and the northward shift of both the northern and southern tracks of the AEWs. Satellite observations support this notion by showing that a similarity exists between the pattern of temperature and wind anomalies of the AEWs and those associated with the dust outbreaks (Hosseinpour and Wilcox, 2014).

Saharan dust is not the only contributor to aerosol radiative forcing effect over Africa and the Atlantic Ocean. Previous studies showed that smoke transport from biomass burning can reach up to ~ 3-5 km altitude, which is above the stratocumulus clouds over the Sahel region, and may affect the radiation through aerosol direct and indirect effects (Redemann et al., 2021). Biomass burning in Africa is closely related to seasonal rainfall variability and the location of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ); thus, the emissions from biomass burning in North Africa occur in boreal spring and winter, when ITCZ is south of the equator (e.g., Cahoon et al., 1992; Barbosa et al., 1999; Ramo et al., 2020). During the boreal winter, smoke aerosols are maximized over the Sahel region (Figure 1, Haywood et al., 2008), where the northward transport of smoke merges with dry southward and westward transport of dust aerosols. This leads to the co-existence of dust and smoke, as smoke is dominated on the top of the dust layer (Haywood

1 et al., 2008). However, during the boreal summer, biomass burning mainly occurs in South 2 Africa, where the air circulations transport smoke plumes toward the South-East Atlantic 3 off-coasts of Namibia and Angola (Zuidema et al., 2016; Cochrane et al., 2022). To study 4 the effects of Saharan dust aerosols on AEWs with avoiding the major impact of smoke 5 transport from biomass burning in South Africa, we focus our study on the region above 5° N latitude in West Africa and the eastern Atlantic Ocean in boreal Summer, where the 6 7 contribution of aerosols from biomass burning is less than 15% by mass over this region 8 (Matsuki et al., 2010). This study focuses on boreal summer season, because during this 9 season, the amplitude of AEWs peaks (e.g., Roundy and Frank, 2004), and Saharan dust 10 storms are active with less simultaneous transport of smoke from South Africa biomass 11 burning. 12 While previous studies showed the impacts of dust aerosols on climate (Ming and 13 Ramaswamy, 2011; Hosseinpour and Wilcox, 2014; Chen et al., 2021; Liang et al., 2021; 14 Grogan et al., 2022), hydrological cycle (Konare et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2010; Bercos-15 Hickey et al., 2020) and cloud properties (Weinzierl et al., 2017; Haarig et al., 2019), 16 these elements of the climate system in this region exhibit strong variability due to AEWs. 17 To understand the details of interactions between dust aerosols and climate over the 18 Atlantic Ocean, it is essential to understand how the evolution of AEWs is determined by 19 both diabatic heating, as well as exchanges of eddy kinetic energy (EKE) within the jet-20 wave system and how dust may contribute to the energy driving AEWs. Toward this goal, 21 we apply eddy energetic concepts to further analyze the relationships between dust and 22 the AEJ-AEWs system to gain insight into the impacts of the dust aerosol radiative forcing 23 effect on the development of AEWs and the distribution of kinetic energy from the source

of instability (i.e., AEJ). Section 2 summarizes the data and methodology. Section 3
discusses the summary of results: the climatology and variability of the AEJ-AEWs
system from an energy point of view (3.1), climatology and variability of Saharan dust
aerosols across West Africa and the eastern tropical Atlantic Ocean (3.2), and the impacts

of dust on the AEJ-AEWs system (3.3). Conclusions are presented in Section 4.

2 Data and methodology

This study focuses on the relationships of Saharan dust aerosols and AEWs in boreal summer, because during this season, the amplitude of the AEW peaks (e.g., Roundy and Frank, 2004). We have used applied the greater than a 220-year time series of NASA's satellite observations and reanalysis for the boreal summer seasons from June to August (JJA) 2000-2021 to calculate the variability of energy components of the system comprising the AEJ, the AEWs, and the aerosol radiative foreingeffect.

2.1 MODIS and MERRA-2 data

To study the climatology of West Africa and the eastern tropical Atlantic Ocean, the successor to the original Modern Era Retrospective-analysis reanalysis (MERRA; Rienecker et al., 2008; 2011), the 3-hourly MERRA-2 (Randles et al., 1980, 2017; Buchard et al., 1980; Gelaro et al., 2017) were used to provide more reliable assessments of climatic and meteorological variables from 1980 to the present. The MERRA-2 reanalysis has a 3-hourly temporal resolution and a spatial resolution of 0.5° latitude by 0.625° longitude with 72 vertical levels, extending from the surface up to 0.01-hPa.

We applied_used_the MERRA-2 atmospheric radiative forcing_effect_that is broad band shortwave forcing_flux_across the visible spectrum to study aerosol radiative forcing_

effect as described in Section 2.2, as well as the meteorological variables, including wind 2 components, temperature, pressure and humidity from the 3-hourly MERRA-2 reanalysis 3 for the boreal summer (JJA) from 2000 to 2021, to calculate the eddy energetic terms of the AEW-AEJ system as described in Section 2.3. 5 The reason for choosing the MERRA-2 analysis for this study is as follows: An essential aspect of MERRA-2 is the assimilation of bias-corrected Aerosol aerosol Optical 6 7 optical Depth depth (AOD) and physical properties of aerosols from the various groundand space-based remote sensing platforms (e.g., Randles et al., 2017). In particular, dust 8 9 AOD is simulated in MERRA-2 with a radiatively coupled version of the Goddard 10 Chemistry, Aerosol, Radiation, and Transport (GOCART; Colarco et al., 2010) aerosol model. In this manner, the MERRA-2 system provides the best an estimate of the 11 atmosphere state historically from the present day back to 1980. It is important to note that 12 13 the dust and the circulation are fully coupled in MERRA-2. Using such an empirical tool, 14 it is not possible to directly compare a complete representation of the circulation without 15 dust to the circulation with dust. However, the benefit of using MERRA-2 is that it offers 16 a more realistic representation of the circulation than an unconstrained model because of 17 the data assimilation. It is our intention with this study to evaluate the empirical 18 relationships between the dust radiative effect and the energetics of AEWs in a reanalysis 19 constrained by observations, which can be compared with the results of a follow-on examination of a controlled experiment in an unconstrained atmospheric general 20 21 circulation model comparing simulations with dust radiative effects to simulations without 22 dust radiative effects.

To evaluate the MERRA-2 reanalysis with satellite observations, we used the entire record of the daily AOD (level 3) from two independent algorithms and well-calibrated sensors: (I) the 550-nm Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectro-radiometer dark-target retrieval (MODIS, MOD08_D3; Remer et al., 2021 with a 1° spatial resolution on Terra since 2000 for the dust domains over the Atlantic Ocean, and (II) the 470-nm Deep Blue (Sayer et al., 2019; Hsu et al., 2019) retrievals of MODIS AOD available with a 1° spatial resolutions for the dust source regions over the land in boreal summer (JJA, 2000-2021). The summary of the information about MODIS and MERRA-2 data product name, variables, special and temporal resolutions are provided in Table 1.

2.2 Aerosol radiative forcing effect in the atmosphere

We applied used the components of aerosol radiative forcing effect at the surface and top of the atmosphere (TOA) from the 3-hourly MERRA-2 reanalysis datasets to calculate the radiative forcing effect of dust in the atmosphere (i.e., TOA minus surface) as follows:

$$F_{aerosol} = \left(SWF_{TOA_{tot}} - SWF_{TOA_{clean}}\right) - \left(SWF_{sfc}_{tot} - SWF_{sfc}_{clean}\right)$$
 Eq. (1)

17 where SWF_{TOAtot} refers to the net downward shortwave radiation flux at the TOA,

18 SWF_{TOAclean} is the net downward shortwave flux at TOA under clean-sky condition,

19 SWF_{sfctot} is the net downward shortwave flux at the surface, and SWF_{sfcclean} is net

downward shortwave flux at the surface under clean-sky condition.

To show the variability of dust, the time-longitude Hovmöller diagrams of daily anomalies of aerosol radiative forcing effect are provided to represent the dust transport

- within SAL across the tropical Atlantic Ocean. The daily values of radiative forcing effect
- are calculated by time averaging the 3-hourly data. The daily anomalies of radiative forcing
- 3 <u>effect</u> were calculated with respect to the seasonal time-average of radiative forcing effect
- 4 for each year. These anomalies were latitudinally averaged over the latitudes of dust
- 5 domains, 12-22° N.

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- To investigate the relationship between dust and the AEJ-AEWs system over the
- 7 Atlantic Ocean, we focused on the dust variability over the ocean; therefore, we consider
- 8 the location of the SAL over the tropical Atlantic Ocean, the so-called OSAL domain ,
- 9 where dust is significant from -28° to -16° E Longitude and from 12° to 22° N latitude in
- 10 the climatology of boreal summer seasons.

2.3 Energetics of the AEJ-AEWs system

- 12 -We applied used the MEERRA-2 meteorological variables as described in Section
- 13 2.1, to calculate the eddy energetic terms associated with the distribution of kinetic energy
- across the AEJ-AEWs system for the boreal summer from 2000 to 2021. While the
- 15 MERRA-2 data is 3 hourly, we averaged them for each day to be consistent with the daily
- 16 temporal resolution of MODIS AOD data. We provided daily MERRA-2 data to apply
- 17 them for calculation of the eddy energetics terms.
- 18 From an energy point of view, the kinematics of the atmosphere is a combination
- 19 of mean kinetic energy (MKE) of the background mean flow and eddy kinetic energy
- 20 (EKE) representing transient eddies (Lorenz, 1954). The MKE associated with the AEJ is
- 21 calculated as below, where u and v are horizontal components of wind and bar represents
- 22 the time-averaged over the long-term daily time series of the wind components:

$$MKE = \frac{1}{2} \left(\overline{u^2} + \overline{v^2} \right)$$
 Eq. (2)

The following methodology was applied tTo detect the 2-6 day and 6-11 day variations associated with the AEWs, we used the methodology following (e.g., Wu et al., (2013). While many studies have focused exclusively on 2-6 day period AEWs, several studies have found evidence that AEWs exist on two distinct time scales of 2-6 and 6-11 day periods, as the structure of the AEWs differs substantially between these two different time windows (Mekonnen et al. 2006; Wu et al., 2013). The time-filtering method described below was applied to decompose EKE of the AEWs at different time-scale: 2-6 day and 6-11 day filtered variations.

We provide the daily times series of wind components by time averaging over the 3-hourly MERRA-2 datasets. We further used the Lanczos bandpass filtering techniques described in Duchon's (1979) study to filter the 2-6 and 6-11 day disturbances from the daily time series of the zonal and meridional components of wind (u,v). The daily anomalies (u',v') of wind components (u,v) were calculated for each boreal summer season with respect to the average of that season $(u'=u-\bar{u})$ and $v'=v-\bar{v}$; primes indicate daily anomalies, and bars show seasonal averages). Finally, EKE was calculated as the average of the variances of u and v shown as follows:

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$$EKE = 1/2\left(\overline{u'^2} + \overline{v'^2}\right)$$
 Eq. (3)

The bars indicate the average over the entire JJA, 2000-2021, and the primed quantities denote the deviation of wind components from the time-mean (daily anomalies) described above.

Baroclinic conversion (BCC) is one of the most important components in the eddy
energy budget to distribute transient energy from the upstream baroclinic source across the
storm tracks downstream of the jetstream (e.g., Orlanski and Katzfey, 1991; and Chang et
al., 2002). The initiation of and the growth of the waves are significantly related to BCC,
where the transient eddies extract energy from the mean-flow through BCC (e.g., Plumb,
Following the approach described in Chang et al. (2002) study, we calculated the
BCC term as below:

$$BCC = -\overline{\omega'\alpha'}$$
 Eq. (4)

where ω is the rate of pressure ($\omega = \frac{dp}{dt}$) and α is a scale to estimate the changes in the vertical profile of the gradient of geopotential height ($\alpha = -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial p}$). We investigate BCC to identify the locations favorable for developing EKE in the AEJ-AEWs.

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2.4 Composite analysis

14 The composite analyses for 2-6-day and 6-11-day variations of the eddy energetics of the AEWs were conducted for the boreal summer seasons of 22 years, 2000-2021. 15 16 Composite EKE was calculated by subtracting the EKE values associated with the lower-17 quartile radiative foreing effect of dust from those EKE values associated with upper-18 quartile aerosol radiative forcingeffect. We find the upper- and lower-quartile aerosol 19 radiative forcing effect offshore, where the dust load is significant over the OSAL domain 20 (rectangle in Figure 2a). To determine the upper- and lower-quartile of aerosol 21 forcingeffect, the aerosol radiative effectforcing over the OSAL box is averaged at each 22 time to create a time series of OSAL aerosol forcingeffect. The daily time series of aerosol

radiative forcing effect of the grid points were spatially averaged over the OSAL domain, 2 which provided one single value of aerosol foreing effect for each individual day in the 3 long-term time series over the dust domain. For averaging over the OSAL domain, areaweighted average is applied since the area of grid cells are not the same. These time series 4 of aerosol radiative forcing effect were used to select the days of the upper quartile and the 5 lower quartile aerosol radiative forcing effect for the summer season of each year. Hence, 6 7 we selected 23 days of the highest aerosol concentration (upper-quartile) and 23 days of 8 the lowest aerosol concentration (lower-quartile) over each domain during boreal summer 9 of each year. From a climatology point of view, we used the upper quartile and lower 10 quartile of dust over 22 years of data, such that there are 506 data points to represent the days with high values of dust concentration and 506 days with low values of dust over each 11 12 domain of study. 13 Composite EKE is provided for each grid point by subtracting the EKE values 14 corresponding to the upper-quartile dust days from those of the lower-quartile dust days. 15 Using the method explained above, the composite of the variance of zonal wind $(\overline{u'^2})$, the variance of meridional wind $(\overline{v'^2})$, and the transient momentum fluxes $(\overline{u'v'})$ were also 16 17 calculated for boreal summer seasons, JJA, 2000-2001 (Figure 1).

2.5 Time-lag analysis

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The time-lag analyses were conducted over each domain of study based on the following processes. Using the same methodology explained above (Section 2.4.), we used the time series of aerosol radiative <u>foreing effect</u> spatially averaged over the dust domain to select the days in the upper quartile and the lower quartile aerosol radiative <u>foreingeffect</u>,

1 such that there are 506 data points to represent the days with high values of dust 2 concentration and 506 days with low values of dust concentration over each domain. For 3 every 506 days of high dust concentration, we studied the time series for five days before 4 and five days after the event to investigate the evolution of each individual dust storm. For 5 each time series, we assigned each day of 506 days as follows: T = 0 for the dust-peak, T = 1 for one day after the dust-peak, T = -1 for one day before the peak of dust, and continue 6 7 this for five days before and after every 506 days. We used each of these time series for 8 22 years and average dust radiative forcing effect individually for T = 0, T = +/-1, T = +/-19 2, T = +/-3, T = +/-4, and T = +/-5 to gain insight into the climatology of dust evolution five days before and five days after dust peaks over each domain. We repeated the steps 10 explained above for the 506 data points of dust in the lower quartile to provide the long-11 12 term time series of low aerosol radiative forcing effect over the dust domain. Finally, by 13 subtracting the time series of the lower quartile from the upper quartile radiative 14 foreingeffect, we provide the composite of dust over each domain to investigate the highest 15 variability of dust (as T = 0, Figure 5) and its evolution five days before and after over dust domain. Using the same methodology, we analyzed the wave activity that coincides with 16 17 the upper quartile (and lower quartile) aerosol radiative forcing effect to investigate a 18 possible time-lag between the dust and the development of kinetic energy over the northern 19 and southern track of the AEWs. The domains selected to investigate wave activity are 20 shown in Table 2.

3 Summary of the results

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3.1 AEJ-AEWs system from an energy perspective

3 Traditional studies have used the mid-tropospheric trough and ridge from unfiltered 4 wind fields to diagnose the AEWs. In this manner, the AEWs trough was identified where 5 the meridional wind at the vertical level of the AEJ is equal to zero, indicating that the wind shifts from northerlies to southerlies (Diedhiou et al., 1999). The existence of two distinct 6 7 tracks of the AEWs: the northern and southern tracks (e.g., Diedhiou et al., 1999; Nitta and 8 Takayabu, 1985; Reed et al., 1988; Wu et al., 2013) have been identified by examining the 9 vorticity structure of the AEWs (e.g., Carlson 1969 a&b; Thorncroft and Hodges, 2001; 10 Hopsch et al., 2007) and applying the reversal of the meridional gradient of potential vorticity (e.g., Norquist et al., 1977; Pytharoulis and Thorncroft, 1999; Kiladis et al., 2006). 11 12 However, these methods are limited because of the overlapping scale of AEWs with other 13 phenomena and the significant amount of manual intervention required to differentiate 14 between synoptic-scale AEW trough axes and localized circulation centers. As a solution 15 to this problem, here we applied the eddy energy budget to diagnose the growth and evolution of the AEWs. 16 17 Hosseinpour and Wilcox (2014) showed that the axis of the AEJ core resides at 18 about 600-hPa during the boreal summer; thus, here we present the results for 600-hPa, 19 where the activity of the AEJ-AEWs system is maximized. Figure 1a shows the mid-level 20 AEJ in the climatology of boreal summer. The core of the jet is zonally located from 20° 21 E to 30° W between the Sahel and the Sahara and spans from Africa toward the Atlantic 22 Ocean, where the jet axis is located at ~15° N latitude. The closed contours in Figure 1b-c 23 represent the MKE of the AEJ. The MKE peaks at ~12-18° N, collocated with the core of 1 the AEJ (Figure 1a). The long-term mean of the mid-level EKE for the 2-6-day (warm

shades in Figure 1b) and 6-11-day (warm shades in Figure 1c) bandpass filtered EKE

represents the kinetic energy of two distinct categories of the AEWs: The 2-6-day bandpass

EKE peaks offshore, downstream and along the northern side of the jet core, while the 6-

11-day bandpass EKE has a weaker signal over the northern side of the jet compared to 2-

6-day EKE. The significant signal of the 2-6-day AEWs over the tropical Atlantic implies

the significant contribution of 2-6-day transient eddies in transient disturbances over the

8 Ocean.

In addition, both 2-6-day and 6-11-day bandpass EKE can develop at the higher latitudes above ~32° N toward the subtropics, which can be related to the impacts of the westerly Rossby waves of the subtropical storm track over North Africa. These are consistent with the previous studies, showing that after leaving the West coast of Africa, the majority of AEWs either (1) penetrate the subtropical Atlantic Ocean via an interaction with an extratropical trough, or (2) develop further downstream and are involved in tropical cyclogenesis (Berry et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2008).

3.1.1 Behaviors of transient eddies of the AEWs

In this Section, we further investigate the characteristics of the AEWs. Figures 1d and 1e show the climatology of transient eddies. The variance of zonal wind $(\overline{u'^2})$ represents the zonal transient eddies (Figure 1d), which peak at ~6-12° N and are elongated downstream along the southern edge of the AEJ from approximately 15° W to 45° W. Comparing this with Figure 1b shows that the increase of 2-6-day bandpass EKE downstream of the jet core corresponds to the 2-6-day zonal transient eddies, whereas the

core of the 2-6-day EKE over the northern track AEWs at ~18-24° N is related to the meridional wind variance $(\overline{v'^2})$, which represents the 2-6-day meridional transient eddies (Figure 1e). These patterns suggest that transient eddies of the 2-6-day time-scale AEWs are elongated both zonally and meridionally.

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Figure 1f gives further information about the structure and propagation of the 2-6day eddies. The enhanced transient momentum flux $(\overline{u'v'})$ of 2-6-day bandpass eddies over the northern and southern tracks of the AEWs indicates the orientation and the group velocity of the transient eddies relative to easterly mean-flow. The positive values of the transient momentum flux are dominant over the southern sides of the jet core, suggesting that the southern track transient eddies propagate with a NE-SW orientation, whereas the negative values of the transient momentum flux over the northern track suggest the NW-SE orientation of transient eddies relative to the mean-flow. The relatively tilted orientations of the eddies over the northern and southern track, fanning out or diverging downstream of the jet core, are signatures of the so-called downstream development, where transient eddy activity associated with 2-6-day AEWs is enhanced. The magnitude of the transient momentum flux shows the 2-6-day eddies over the northern and southern tracks of the AEWs propagate faster relative to the easterly mean-flow, whereas the values of transient momentum flux are negligible along the AEJ axis where the mean-flow is strong. To further investigate the behavior of the 2-6-day eddies, we discuss the baroclinic and barotropic instability of the waves in the following Section.

3.1.2 Baroclinic instability of the AEJ-AEWs system

2 Baroclinic instability is the dynamic cause for synoptic-scale storms as a result of 3 vertical shear of the zonal wind, corresponding to meridional temperature gradients based 4 on the thermal wind balance (e.g., Charney, 1947; Eady, 1949). Meridional temperature 5 gradient is also proportional to the available potential energy in baroclinic instability mechanism (Hoskins et al., 1983; Grotjahn, 2003). Baroclinic zones are defined as the 6 7 favored areas for strengthening and weakening of systems, where eddies extract available 8 potential energy from the mean-flow and convert the eddy available potential energy to 9 EKE through baroclinic conversion (BCC) of energy (Chang et al., 2002; Orlanski and 10 Katzfey, 1991). The changes in meridional temperature gradient also contribute to the changes in EKE of the waves (e.g., Coumou et al., J., 2015; Gertler and O'Gorman, 2019). 11 12 Previous studies showed that $\overline{u'v'}$ is an indicator of baroclinic instability at the exit region of the jet (e.g., Hoskins et al., 1983). Figure 1f represents the presence of baroclinic 13 14 instability $(\overline{u'v'})$ at the northern and southern tracks of the waves downstream of the jet 15 core, showing the development of the 2-6-day transient eddy activity downstream of the 16 AEJ corresponds to the presence of baroclinic instability in the region where eddies can extract energy from the easterly mean-flow through baroclinic conversion (as described in 17 the following Section). These suggest that the northern and southern tracks of the AEWs 18 are favorable areas for the potential growth of baroclinic transient eddies as the variations 19 20 in baroclinic instability tend to extract energy from the jet and convert it to eddy energy 21 downstream of the AEJ, where the jet weakens. 22 We further investigated the conversion of energy through BCC by studying the

fraction of the total variance of BCC (Figure 1g) attributable to variations on less than 11-

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day time scales, which includes both the 2-6-day AEWs and 6-11-day AEWs. Figure 1g 1 2 shows that these variations account for a significant fraction of BCC variations over land, 3 where the AEJ core resides (Figure 1a), and this high fraction of BCC variance extends 4 offshore over the northern and southern sides of the AEJ. This is consistent with the 5 discussion above, suggesting the eddy activity occurs at the north and south sides of the AEJ (Figure 1f), where the transient zonal and meridional eddies (Figures 1d-e) extract 6 7 energy from the MKE (contours in Figure 1b-c) and convert it to EKE (Figure 1b-c) 8 through BCC. 9 In the next Section, we investigated the relationships between the African aerosols 10 and the AEWs. Studying the time series of EKE and dust anomalies shows a similarity between the variability of dust radiative forcing effect and the changes of the 2-6-day EKE 11 12 over the northern and southern tracks of the AEWs (Figures S1 and S2), suggesting a 13 possible impact of dust diabatic heating on the enhancement of the kinetic energy of the 14 AEWs. Such a relationship between dust and AEWs is also seen over each individual JJA (Figures S1, S2, and S3). We explore Saharan dust variability (Section 3.2) and then 15 investigate the possible impacts of aerosol radiative forcing effect of dust concentration on 16 17 the energy of AEWs (Section 3.3). 19 3.2 Saharan dust plumes-climatology and variability

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The significant dust transport from the Saharan desert across the Atlantic Ocean is seen in the long-term mean of Saharan dust optical thickness and radiative forcing effect vertically integrated over the troposphere during boreal summer (Figures 2a-c). The inherent limitation of MODIS satellite observations is the lack of AOD data over the

2b). Because of that, based on Eq. (1) we calculated aerosol shortwave radiative forcing 2 3 effect from the MERRA-2 reanalysis as a complementary component (Figure 2c) to the 4 satellite observations. This was further examined by the scatter plots of MODIS AOD over the Ocean (-Figure 2d) and Deep Blue over the land (Figure 2e) with respect to MERRA-5 2 radiative foreingeffect, where daily data points were averaged over the oceanic and land 6 7 dust domains (rectangle in Figures 2a and 2b, respectively). This shows that MERRA-2 8 reanalysis is highly correlated with MODIS observations with R-values of 0.83 and 0.62, 9 respectively, and statistically significant with P-values less than 0.05. From a climatology 10 point of view, the maximum value of dust heating the atmosphere is approximately 35 Wm 11 ², localized over the western and central Saharan Desert in JJA, 2000-2021 (Figure 2c). 12 The maximum value is roughly similar for each individual JJA (not shown). In addition, 13 the radiative foreing efficiency of radiative effect for atmospheric heating by Saharan dust 14 inferred from these scatter plots (Figures 2d-e) is roughly 20 Wm⁻² per unit AOD over the ocean and 35 Wm⁻² per unit AOD over land. 15 We investigated dust variability by studying the changes in daily radiative forcing 16 17 effect during dust transport across the tropical Atlantic Ocean. The longitude-time 18 Hovmöller diagrams of daily aerosol radiative foreing effect anomalies are provided for 19 each summer from 2000 to 2021 (Figure 3). The aerosol radiative forcing effect is 20 meridionally averaged over the SAL, 12-22°N, where the dust concentration is high. The 21 positive and negative anomalies show the increase and decrease of aerosol radiative forcing 22 effect within the SAL as dust propagates in transient dust plumes across the tropical 23 Atlantic Ocean. Figure 3 shows that, on average, dust transport may reach the Caribbean

highly-reflective desert regions (Figure 2a) and the Deep Blue AOD over the Ocean (Figure

Sea in less than 11 days. To investigate the climatology of this, the fraction of total variance of dust radiative forcingeffect was calculated for less than 11-day and more than 11-day of dust variations during boreal summer seasons, 2000-2021 (Figures 2f-g). The variations of aerosol radiative forcingeffect for less than 11-day timescale variations are significant over West Africa and the eastern tropical Atlantic Ocean and account for up to 70-80% of the total variance of aerosol radiative forcingeffect over these regions. In contrast, the variations of dust radiative forcingeffect longer than 11-day are a more significant fraction of the variance upstream, mainly over the dust sources in the Saharan Desert.

We conducted similar Hovmöller analyses as above, but for MODIS observations as a check on the <u>variability of</u> dust <u>forcing-radiative effect variability</u> in the MERRA-2 reanalysis and found that the results from MERRA-2 reanalysis were consistent with the MODIS AOD (Figure S3). Analyzing the dust storm events from 2000 to 2021 suggests a possible relationship between the dust transport and the variations of the AEJ-AEWs system. Our hypothesis is that the variations of dust across the ocean during Saharan dust storms contribute to the growth of the waves over the ocean through diabatic heating from dust radiative <u>forcingeffect</u>. To investigate this, we focus on the dust over the oceanic domain (i.e., OSAL; rectangle in Figure 2a). The steps to study this are described in the following sections.

3.3 Impacts of dust radiative forcingeffect on the energy of the AEWs

Previous studies have discussed the dynamics of the AEWs as summarized in the introductory Section; however, the relationships between dust radiative forcingeffect and the kinetic energy of the AEWs are still unexplored. In this Section, we investigate the

- 1 relationships between dust radiative foreingeffect of the atmosphere (TOA minus surface)
- 2 and the kinetic energy of the AEWs during the boreal summer from 2000 to 2021.

3.3.1 Composite analysis of eddy energetics with respect to dust variability

- 4 The composite analyses were conducted for the boreal summer seasons of 22 years.
- 5 The composite of the 2-6-day and 6-11-day filtered EKE (Figures 4a and 4b, respectively)
- 6 are based on the EKE values for the times that correspond to the upper-quartile dust
- 7 radiative foreingeffect in the OSAL region (rectangle in Figure 2a) minus the EKE values
- 8 of the times correspond to the lower-quartile dust radiative forcing effect. The steps to
- 9 calculate composite diagrams are explained in Section 2.

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The positive anomalies in Figure 4a show the increase of the 2-6-day EKE at the southern track (~ 6-12°N) of the AEWs and further downstream over the northern track (~ 18-24°N) coincide with the enhanced radiative foreingeffect of dust over the offshore region. The dipole pattern of the positive and negative anomalies may also imply a possible southward shift of the 2-6-day EKE at the southern edge of the AEJ during high dust concentrations. A similar dipole pattern can also be seen in Figure 4c.

Figure 4c shows the increase of the zonally elongated 2-6-day eddies at the southern edge of the jet, which suggests that the strengthening of the 2-6-day zonal transient eddies may lead to the amplification of EKE (Figure 4a) over the southern track of the waves during dust events when aerosol radiative forcingeffect is significant offshore. Meanwhile, the increase of the meridional elongated transient eddies (Figure 4d) coincides with the high concentrations of dust. Comparing this with Figure 4a suggests that during high dust concentration in OSAL, the amplification of the 2-6-day EKE further downstream in the

northern track of the AEWs corresponds to the enhanced meridional elongated transient eddies. While the positive anomalies of 2-6-day $\overline{u'v'}$ (Figure 4e) is a weaker signal at the northern and southern tracks of the waves, it is still statistically significant, which shows that the enhancement of the baroclinic instability over the northern and southern tracks of the AEWs occurs during high aerosol radiative forcingeffect in OSAL.

The negative composite along the AEJ axis at about 12-18°N (Figure 4) can be related to the fact that the 2-6-day and 6-11-day EKE are not significant along the AEJ axis, where the MKE and the horizontal shear of mean-flow are strong (Figure 1a-b-c). As described in Section 3.1., the growth of transient eddies is more likely over the south and north side of the jet, where the jet weakens and thus offers a greater chance for the development of baroclinic AEWs (Figure 1f-g). While the negative anomaly may seem like a reduction of eddy activity along the AEJ axis simultaneously at the time of dust enhancement, in the next Section (3.3.2), we have evidence that the amplification of 2-6-day EKE along the AEJ axis starts on average two days after the peak of dust offshore (Figures 5 d-e).

We conducted the same composite analysis using MODIS AOD, which shows that the results are consistent whether the MERRA-2 radiative forcingeffect metric or the MODIS AOD data are applied (Figure S4). Overall, these composite analyses suggest a mechanistic relationship between the kinetic energy of the AEJ-AEWs system over the ocean and aerosol radiative forcingeffect during dust outbreaks in summer. The enhanced dust offshore coincides with the strengthening of the baroclinic instability and amplification of the 2-6-day AEWs downstream, where the jet weakens and gives a chance to strengthen the propagation of the zonally and meridionally elongated transient eddies

1 over the southern and northern tracks of the waves, respectively. In the following Section,

we study a possible time lag between the occurrence of dust storms and the changes in the

activity of the waves over various domains.

3.3.2 Time-lag between dust outbreaks and development of the AEWs

In this Section, we investigate a possible lag between the changes of the EKE with respect to the variability of dust radiative foreingeffect over the OSAL. We divide the northern track waves (18° to 24° N) and southern track (6° to 12° N) of the AEWs into two separate regions: Eastern Atlantic (-15° to -30°E) and Central Atlantic (-30° to -45°E). We also study the possible lag between dust in OSAL and the eddy activity downstream of the jet core (12° to 18°N) over the eastern and central Atlantic domains (Table 2). The time lag is investigated between composite EKE over each wave domain with respect to composite dust radiative foreingeffect in OSAL. The methodology for calculating time lag is described in Section 2.

The variability of dust radiative foreingeffect (i.e., composite for daily upper quartile aerosol radiative foreingeffect minus daily lower quartile aerosol radiative foreingeffect minus daily lower quartile aerosol radiative foreingeffect five days before and after the peak of dust in the OSAL region for the 22 years of boreal summer seasons. This shows the variability of dust radiative foreingeffect associated with the dust outbreaks over the OSAL region is significant for about six days, as it starts three days before (T = -3) and ends three days after (T = +3) the peak of dust (T = 0), which is consistent with the timescale of the 2-6-day AEWs. Similar analyses are conducted using the upper quartile radiative foreingeffect only to investigate such relationships for the days

with high dust concentration (Figure S5). The results are consistent with the patterns shown in Figure 5.

Figures 5b represents the time evolution and changes in 2-6-day EKE of the northern track AEWs further downstream over the eastern Atlantic Ocean. The changes in EKE seem negligible at T < 0 before starting the high variations in dust in OSAL; however, the growth of EKE occurs on average at T = 0, coinciding with the peak of dust, and then continues growing and reaches its maximum about three days (T = +3) after the peak of dust variations. In contrast, although a slight decrease and increase of EKE are seen respectively before and after dust peaks, the variations of the northern track EKE over the eastern Atlantic (Figure 5c) seem weaker compared to those further downstream. Comparing Figure 5b with the composite analysis in Figure 4a suggests that the enhancement of the northern track 2-6-day EKE, further downstream over the central Atlantic, coincides with the peak of dust and is even more significant on average three days after dust peaks in OSAL.

The negative variations of the EKE in Figures 5d and 5e at T=0 are consistent with the negative composite of the EKE along the AEJ axis in Figure 4. This means that the decay of EKE along the jet axis over the Central Atlantic (Figure 5d) is initiated before dust activity; however, the rapid growth of EKE starts on average two days (T=+2) after the peak of dust and is maximized about three to four days ($T\sim+3$ to +4) after the peak of dust in OSAL. A similar, but weaker pattern, is seen across the jet axis over the eastern Atlantic (Figure 5e).

Figures 5f and 5g show that the changes in EKE are maintained positive before and after dust activity. Comparing Figure 5f with Figure 5a suggests that the activity of both

2 about three days (T = -3) before dust peaks, and then amplification of EKE continues and reaches its maximum on average two days (T = +2) after dust peaks. 3 4 Over the eastern tropical Atlantic (Figure 5g), the EKE variations seem negligible 5 during dust storms. The weaker signal of the southern track EKE variations over the eastern Atlantic can be explained by the dynamic and energy of the AEJ-AEWs system (Figure 1), 6 7 as this is the region where the southern edge of the jet is dominant, and the MKE and 8 conversion of energy to EKE through BCC are significant. This suggests that while the 9 positive anomalies of EKE over this region coincide with the enhancement of dust in 10 OSAL, the influence of dust radiative foreingeffect on changes in EKE could be weak 11 quantitatively compared to the amount of energy exchange between the components of the 12 AEJ-AEWs system at the southern edge of the jet core. 13 Comparing Figures 5b, 5d, and 5f reveals evidence of the mechanistic relationship 14 between variability of dust radiative forcingeffect offshore and the changes in the 2-6-day 15 EKE further downstream over the Central tropical Atlantic, where the easterly flow weakens at the exit region of the jet over the central Atlantic. On average, the peak of dust 16 17 load in OSAL occurs a few days before the amplification of the EKE downstream of the 18 AEJ; a similar pattern is also seen with a weaker signal over the eastern tropical Atlantic. 19 The lag analyses, summarized in Table 3, suggest that the peak of dust aerosols loading 20 offshore over the OSAL region precedes the amplification of EKE further downstream of 21 the AEJ over the central Atlantic Ocean. This evidence is consistent with our hypothesis on the influence of dust radiative forcingeffect, fueling the EKE of the 2-6-day AEWs 22

downstream of the AEJ over the tropical Atlantic Ocean, where tropical cyclogenesis and

dust plumes in OSAL and the southern EKE anomalies over the central Atlantic is initiated

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1 hurricane activity occur. We further investigated our analyses by selecting various dust

2 domains (e.g., 12° to 22°N and -38° to -28°E, shown in Figure S6) and showed that our

findings are consistent regardless of the location of dust domain in SAL across the tropical

4 Atlantic Ocean.

4 Conclusions

While previous studies showed the relationship between dust transport and AEJ and AEWs across the Atlantic Ocean (Perry et al., 1997; Liu et al., 2008; Francis et al., 2020; Francis et al., 2021) the feedback of dust to AEJ-AEW is not well understood. A few recent studies showed that dust affects the atmospheric dynamics of the Atlantic Ocean by enhancing AEJ and AEW strength (e.g., Bercos-Hickey et al., 2017; Grogan et al., 2016).

However, the mechanisms of such effects are still open questions.

This study shows mechanistic relationships between the radiative forcingeffect of dust aerosols in SAL and the kinetic energy of the AEWs across the tropical Atlantic Ocean using 22 years of daily satellite observations, as well as reanalysis data based on satellite assimilation. Dust plumes across the Atlantic are not merely transported by AEJ-AEWs system but also contribute to increasing the kinetic energy of the baroclinic AEWs through diabatic heating. The enhanced dust contributes to an increase in meridional temperature gradients (Hosseinpour and Wilcox, 2014), which leads to an increase in baroclinicity and amplification of the EKE of the AEWs.

The <u>radiative forcing</u> efficiency of dust <u>radiative effect</u> in the atmosphere is a heating of roughly 20 Wm⁻² per unit AOD over the ocean and 35 Wm⁻² per unit AOD over land. This agrees with in-situ measurements (Soupiona et al., 2020) and regional climate

modeling (Saidou Chaibou et al., 2020) of Saharan dust radiative foreingeffect. This 2 radiative forcing effect of dust aerosols in the SAL contributes to the diabatic heating of 3 the atmosphere in the regions (Hosseinpour and Wilcox, 2014) where the increase in 4 temperature gradients leads to the growth of baroclinic waves through the conversion of 5 energy to EKE in the AEJ-AEWs system. Outbreaks of high dust concentrations in the SAL coincide with the growth of the meridionally elongated 2-6-day transient eddies over 6 7 the northern track of AEWs (~18-24°N) and zonally elongated eddies over the southern 8 track of AEWs (~6-12°N). This leads to amplifying the EKE of the AEWs, particularly at 9 the exit region of the AEJ, where the MKE and the horizontal shear of mean-flow are 10 weakened. This offers the chance for downstream development of the AEWs, associated with enhanced dust. The dust-induced enhancement of AEW through a buoyancy source 11 12 was shown by Grogan et al. (2016), albeit with a different methodology (i.e., analytical and 13 regional modeling analyses). In addition, our results agree with a case study of the Saharan 14 dust event by a regional climate model (Bercos-Hickey et al., 2017) that showed that 15 Saharan dust causes AEW to shift northward and expand westward. The growth of the baroclinic transient eddies, and the corresponding EKE of the 2-16 17 6-day AEWs, is amplified at the exit region of the AEJ, on average, two to four days after 18 the enhancement of dust upstream in the OSAL region. Our findings show that dust activity 19 precedes the amplification of EKE, suggesting that the diabatic heating from dust radiative 20 forcingeffect can fuel the development of the AEWs. This mechanistic impact of dust radiative forcingeffect onto AEW development is consistent across the tropical Atlantic 21 22 Ocean.

1 This study further supports a cause and effect hypothesis between dust radiative 2 foreingeffect and transient wave dynamics that may be tested in sensitivity studies with 3 dynamical climate models to explore further the cause and effect of such relationships. The data assimilation in MERRA-2 provides a realistic representation of circulation, while one 5 caveat of using MERRA-2 alone is that it is not possible to compare a dust-free circulation to a dusty circulation. The empirical relationships, apparent from this study will be 7 examined in a follow-on study of atmospheric general circulation model simulations with 8 and without the dust radiative effect to further explore the hypothesis linking dust radiative effects to AEW dynamics. 10 Acknowledgments 11 12 This work is supported by the NASA Interdisciplinary Science Program through grants 13 #NNX11AF21G and #NNX14AH95G. Special thanks to Drs. Peter Colarco, Hans 14 Moosmuller, and Naresh Kumar -for their comments that contributed to the improvement 15 of this manuscript. We also appreciate the anonymous reviewers for their constructive 16 comments. 17 Data availability 18 19 MERRA-2 aerosol, radiation, and meteorological datasets can be obtained from 20 https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets. MODIS AOD retrievals are accessible through 21 https://modis.gsfc.nasa.gov/data/dataprod/mod04.php. Numerical codes developed to 22 conduct data extraction, analysis, and visualization will be provided upon request.

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3 **Author contributions**

- 4 FH and EW originated this study. FH formulated, developed and implemented the codes,
- 5 and analyzed the results with inputs from EW. FH drafted and finalized the paper, and EW
- 6 provided edits and revisions.

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8 Competing interests

The authors have no competing interests.

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1 Table 1 MODIS and MERRA-2 data information applied in this study

Dataset	Product Name	Variables	Spatial Resolution	Temporal Resolution	Data Reference
MODIS	MOD08_D3	550-nm AOD, Deep-blue AOD	1°×1°	daily	Platnick (2015)
MERRA-2	M2I6NPANA	U, V, T, H	0.5°×0.625°	3-hourly (averaged to daily)	GMAO (2015a)
	M2T1NXRAD	SWF _{TOA_{tot}, SWF_{TOA_{clean}, SWF_{sfc_{tot},} SWF_{sfc_{clean}}}}	0.5°×0.625°	1-hourly (averaged to daily)	GMAO (2015b)
	M2I3NPASM	Omega	0.5°×0.625°	3-hourly (averaged to daily)	GMAO (2015c)

3 Table 2 The coordinates of domains of transient changes across the tropical Atlantic

4 Ocean:

AEW domains						
Description	Central Atlantic	Eastern Atlantic				
Northern track waves	18° to 24°N -45° to -30°E	18° to 24°N -30° to -15°E				
Downstream of jet-axis	12° to 18°N -45° to -30°E	12° to 18°N -30° to -15°E				
Southern track waves	6° to 12°N -45° to -30°E	6° to 12°N -30° to -15°E				

1 Table 3 Summary of lag analyses showing AEWs evolution before and after dust peaks in

2 OSAL:

Downstream development of eddy activity - Central Atlantic							
	Before	Simultaneously at	After				
	Dust-peak	Dust-peak	Dust-peak				
Northern	T < 0	T = 0	T = +3				
track AEWs	Negligible changes	EKE starts	Max EKE				
	in EKE	increasing					
Along the	T < 0	T = 0	T = +2				
AEJ axis	Negligible changes	Decrease of EKE	EKE starts				
	in EKE		increasing				
			T ~ +3 to +4				
			Max EKE				
Southern	T = -3	T = 0	T = +2				
track AEWs	EKE starts	Increase of EKE	Max EKE				
	increasing						

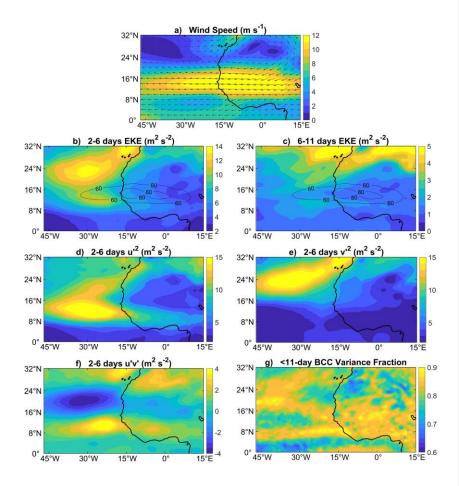
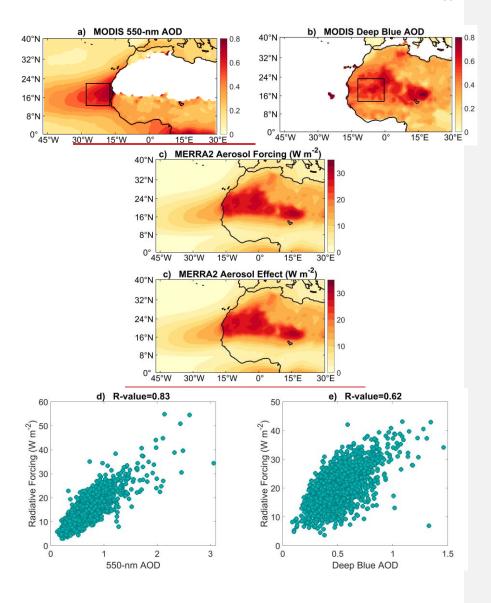


Figure 1 (a) Long-term mean of 600-hPa wind speed (ms⁻¹) from MERRA-2 reanalysis over JJA, 2000-2021. (b) Same as (a) but for 2-6-day bandpass filtered EKE (m²s⁻²) at 600-hPa. (c) Same as (b) but for 6-11-day bandpass filtered EKE. (d) Same as (b) but shows the 2-6-day variance of zonal wind, $\overline{u^{'2}}$, (m²s⁻²). (e) Same as (b) but shows the 2-6-day variance of meridional wind, $\overline{v^{'2}}$, (m²s⁻²). (f) Same as (b) but for the 2-6-day filtered transient momentum fluxes, $\overline{u^{'}v^{'}}$, (m²s⁻²). (g) Fraction of less than the 11-day variance of 600-hPa Baroclinic Conversion (BCC) with respect to the total variance of BCC in JJA, 2000-2021.



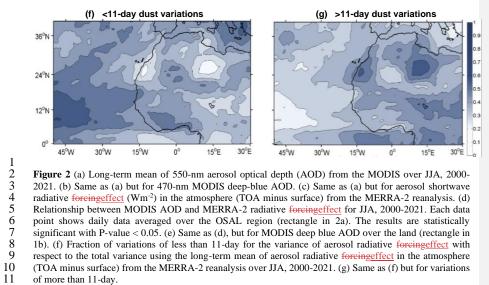
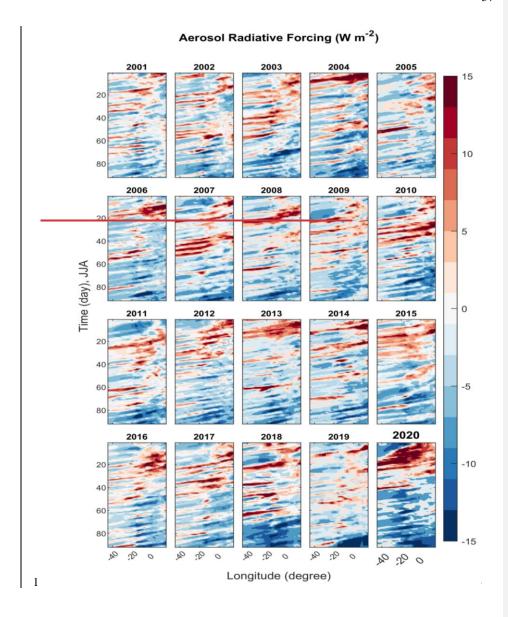


Figure 2 (a) Long-term mean of 550-nm aerosol optical depth (AOD) from the MODIS over JJA, 2000-2021. (b) Same as (a) but for 470-nm MODIS deep-blue AOD. (c) Same as (a) but for aerosol shortwave radiative forcingeffect (Wm⁻²) in the atmosphere (TOA minus surface) from the MERRA-2 reanalysis. (d) Relationship between MODIS AOD and MERRA-2 radiative foreingeffect for JJA, 2000-2021. Each data point shows daily data averaged over the OSAL region (rectangle in 2a). The results are statistically significant with P-value < 0.05. (e) Same as (d), but for MODIS deep blue AOD over the land (rectangle in 1b). (f) Fraction of variations of less than 11-day for the variance of aerosol radiative forcingeffect with respect to the total variance using the long-term mean of aerosol radiative foreingeffect in the atmosphere (TOA minus surface) from the MERRA-2 reanalysis over JJA, 2000-2021. (g) Same as (f) but for variations of more than 11-day.



Aerosol Radiative Effect (W m⁻²)

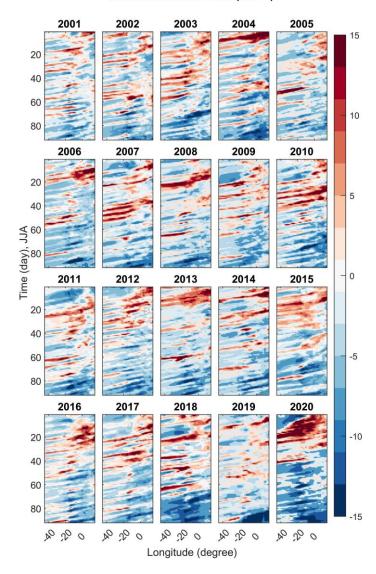


Figure 3 Time-longitude Hovmöller diagrams of aerosol radiative <u>foreingeffect</u> daily anomalies (Wm²) using the MERRA-2 reanalysis for all individual boreal summer seasons, JJA from 2000 to 2021, meridionally averaged (12-22° N) over the OSAL domain (rectangle in Figure 2a). Daily anomalies of aerosol radiative <u>foreingeffect</u> are calculated with respect to the seasonal time average of radiative <u>foreingeffect</u> for each year.

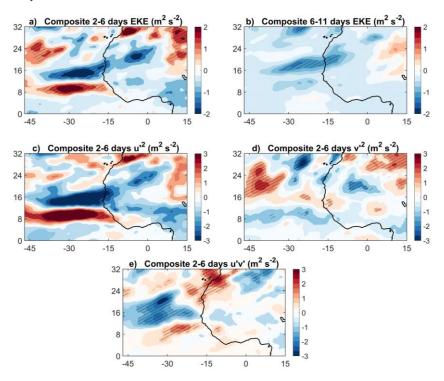
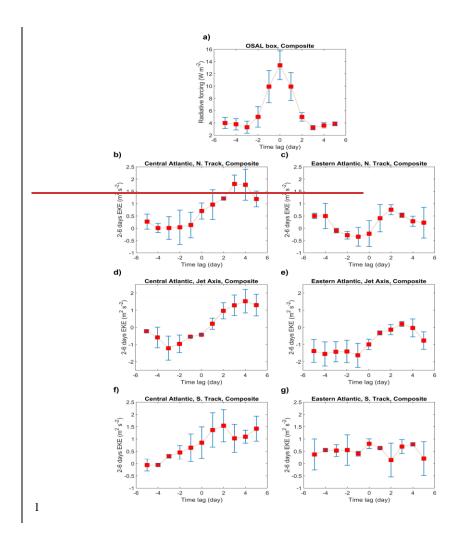


Figure 4 (a) Composite 600-hPa 2-6-day filtered EKE (m²s⁻²) values for the times corresponding to the upper quartile aerosol radiative forcingeffect minus the EKE values of the times corresponding to the lower quartile aerosol radiative forcingeffect over the OSAL domain (rectangle in Figure 2a). The calculations are conducted using the MERRA-2 reanalysis for JJA, 2000-2021. (b) Same as (a) but for 6-11-day filtered EKE (m²s⁻²). (c) same as (a) but for the 2-6-day variance of zonal wind, $\overline{u^{'2}}$, (m²s⁻²). (d) As in (a) but for 2-6-day the variance of meridional wind, $\overline{v^{'2}}$, (m²s⁻²). (e) Same as (a) but for the 2-6-day filtered momentum fluxes, $\overline{u^{'}v^{'}}$, (m²s⁻²).



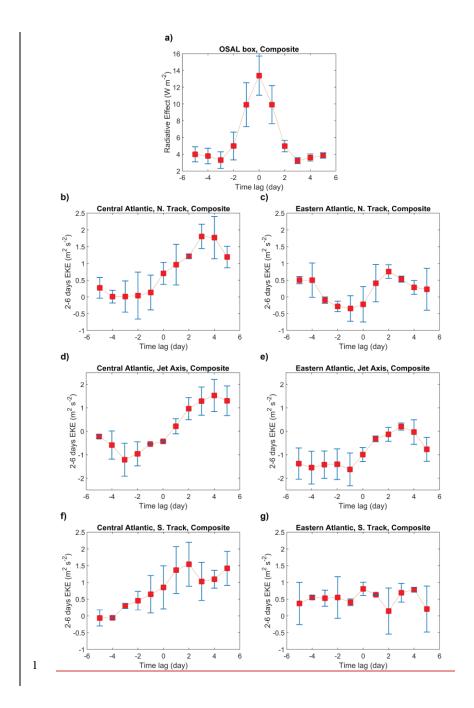


Figure 5 (a) Daily time series of composite aerosol radiative foreingeffect for the days in the upper quartile minus those days in the lower quartile radiative foreingeffect, spatially averaged over the OSAL domain (rectangle in Figure 2a). T = 0 is assigned for the days with the highest variability of aerosol radiative foreingeffecteffect in the OSAL. T = +/-1, T = +/-2, T = +/-3, T = +/-4, and T = +/-5 are assigned for five days before and five days after of each individual dust event, averaged over for 22 years, JJA, 2000-2021. (b) Same as (a) but for the composite 2-6 day filtered EKE at 600-hPa, spatially averaged over the northern track AEWs in the central Atlantic (18° to 24°N, -45° to -30°E). (c) Same as (b) but for the eastern Atlantic (18° to 24°N, -30° to -15°E). (d) Same as (b) but spatially averaged over the domain, downstream of the AEJ in the central Atlantic (12° to 18°N, -45° to -30°E). (e) same as (d) but for the eastern Atlantic (12° to 18°N, -30° to -15°E). (f) same as (b) but spatially averaged over the southern track of the AEWs in the central Atlantic (6° to 12°N, -45° to -30°E). (g) Same as (f) but for the eastern Atlantic (6° to 12°N, -30° to -15°E). The domains of the wave activity are listed in Table 3.