

1 **To what extent biomass burning aerosols impact South America seasonal**
2 **climate predictions?**
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13 **Key Points:**

- 14 • This study documents the impacts of biomass burning aerosols on South America
15 seasonal climate predictions in a coupled modeling system.
 - 16 • Use of interactive biomass burning aerosols improves seasonal prediction performance
17 for the austral winter over South America.
 - 18 • Prescribing daily emission estimates provides better performance in comparison with
19 prescribing monthly climatological mean emissions.
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31 **Abstract**

32 We applied the Goddard Earth Observing System for sub-seasonal to seasonal climate prediction
33 to assess the impact of inclusion biomass burning (BB) aerosols over South America (SA) during
34 the austral winter. We also evaluated the model sensitivity to the BB emissions prescription
35 using no emissions, monthly climatological, and daily emissions. Each hindcast consisted of four
36 members running from June to November of each year between 2000 and 2015. Our results
37 indicated that interactive BB aerosols improve the seasonal climate prediction performance over
38 SA. More realistic daily based emissions significantly further improve the performance in
39 comparison with the climatological ones. Therefore, improvements in the BB emissions
40 representation are urged to represent the aerosol impacts on seasonal climate prediction
41 performance adequately.

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43 **Plain Language Summary**

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45 Vegetation fires severely affect tropical forest and savannah-type biomes in South America (SA)
46 during winter in Southern Hemisphere. Biomass burning (BB) aerosols are important agents
47 changing energy budget and clouds. This study focused on assessing whether including aerosol-
48 radiation-cloud interaction in a climate model, particularly the contribution of BB aerosols, can
49 provide additional information for improving seasonal climate predictions. This study has two
50 primary outcomes. First, that including BB aerosols does improve the model's ability to
51 predicted precipitation and near-surface temperature in SA. Second, it proved it is indeed
52 essential to improve BB emissions representation to further elevate seasonal climate prediction
53 performance.

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70 **1. Introduction**

71 Coupled ocean-atmosphere-land-ice numerical modeling systems are the state-of-the-art in
72 climate forecasting, aggregating the best and most up-to-date scientific knowledge. Oceanic
73 conditions are recognized as the most critical seasonal climate forcing in these systems. In the
74 past decades, seasonal forecasting reached a high level of development, mainly due to advances
75 in understanding the dynamics of the El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) phenomenon
76 (Doblas-Reyes et al., 2013), which was the primary source of predictability on the seasonal time
77 scale. These advances were possible mostly due to the use of remote sensing and buoys to
78 monitor the sea surface temperature (SST) and atmospheric conditions, the development of
79 physically-based numerical models to predict the joint ocean-atmosphere evolution, and the
80 implementation of multi-model ensemble techniques. Nowadays, the seasonal climate forecast
81 performance is mostly affected by model errors related to the climate model itself, which include
82 lack- or misrepresentation of some physical processes. More recently the scientific community
83 has been exploring the sensitivity of climate forecasting to new climate system forcings, such as
84 changes in land use, and concentration of radiative gases and aerosols in the atmosphere to
85 improvement in quality the climate predictions (Kirtman and Pirani, 2009; Doblas-Reyes et al.,
86 2013).

87 In South America (SA), the typical dry austral winter, and countries' policies for expanding
88 the agricultural/pasture frontiers towards the Tropical Forest and Cerrado biomes have been in
89 place for decades, contributed to defining the so-called biomass burning (BB) season in the
90 region. Extensive vegetation fire activity related to deforestation and land use management,
91 usually lasting for at least three months every year, releases a considerable amount of smoke to
92 the atmosphere. The aerosol particles produced by BB activities contribute to at least 90% of the

93 total aerosol optical depth (AOD) in the visible spectrum, which jumps from the average range
94 from 0.2 to 0.4 up to values 10 times higher over several million square kilometers (Rosário et
95 al., 2013). Modeling studies indicate a surface cooling of up to 3°C in Amazonia associated with
96 the aerosols-radiation interaction, limiting the turbulent mixing and, consequently, the
97 evapotranspiration and sensible heat flux. This leads to a drier and shallower planetary boundary
98 layer (PBL) that acts to inhibit the formation and development of convective clouds and
99 precipitation (Yu et al., 2002). Moreover, BB aerosols with sufficiently high supersaturation
100 relative to water vapor, despite their typically low to moderate hygroscopicity, can efficiently act
101 as cloud condensation nuclei (Gácita et al., 2017), therefore, modifying cloud microphysical
102 properties and dynamics.

103 Furthermore, modeling studies suggest that the induced aerosol changes in near-surface and
104 the troposphere temperatures impact global circulation patterns, affecting the strength of the
105 Hadley cell (Tosca et al., 2013; Allen et al., 2012a,b). Randles et al. (2013) showed that during
106 the austral winter, the high loading of BB aerosols in the atmosphere strengthens the descending
107 branch of Hadley circulation in the tropics (around 30°S) and weakens the ascending branch
108 around 15°N.

109 Benedetti and Vitart (2018) showed the potential for the use of interactive prognostic
110 aerosols to improve predictions at the sub-seasonal scales. Including prognostic aerosol
111 interactions in the European Centre for Medium-Range Forecasts (ECMWF) model reduced the
112 temperature and wind biases over several areas in the tropics and midlatitudes. They also showed
113 a significant positive impact of the prognostic aerosols on several meteorological fields,
114 including upper-level winds and lower-tropospheric temperatures, particularly over the Northern
115 Hemisphere. In addition to these rapid changes due to aerosol-radiation-cloud interactions, the

116 relatively slow response to SST changes is also critically important for atmospheric circulation
117 and, consequently, for the tropical rainfall patterns (Andrews et al., 2009; He and Soden, 2015).
118 Responses mediated by SST due to aerosol forcing play an important role in monsoon rainfall
119 patterns, which are predominantly controlled by SST anomalies (Ma and Xie, 2013; Wang et al.,
120 2016; Li et al., 2020).

121 It is well-established that the net aerosol forcing translates into changes in energy fluxes
122 between the atmosphere and the Earth's surface, which ultimately even affects even the global
123 atmospheric circulation and thermodynamic profile. However, climate prediction of BB
124 emissions in SA is still a challenging subject as its controlling factors include natural climate
125 phenomena, such as ENSO, as well as strong social-economic forcing. This study aims to
126 contribute to this scientific debate by addressing the following questions: What is the impact of
127 explicitly including BB aerosol forcing in a seasonal forecast climate model in terms of forecast
128 performance and representation of the seasonal climatological features, especially over SA?
129 What is the sensitivity of the seasonal climate to the temporal resolution of BB emissions?

130 **2. Methods and data**

131 **2.1. GEOS-S2S-2.1 system**

132 We applied the version 5 of the Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS) global circulation
133 model (GCM) for sub-seasonal to seasonal climate prediction (GEOS-S2S-2, Molod et al.,
134 2020). The GEOS-S2S-2 includes a coupled Atmosphere-Ocean GCM (AOGCM), an ocean data
135 assimilation system (ODAS), and a methodology for weakly coupled Atmosphere-Ocean
136 Coupled Data Assimilation (AODAS). Text S1 (Support information, SI) provides further details
137 about the GEOS modeling system version here applied.

138 The GEOS simulated radiative transfer through the atmosphere considers the presence of
139 aerosols by calculating the scattering and absorbing solar radiation as a function of aerosol
140 intrinsic properties and concentration in the atmospheric column. The longwave and shortwave
141 radiative schemes follow Chou and Suarez (1994) and Chou (1990, 1992), respectively. The two-
142 moment cloud microphysics includes the indirect effect of aerosol on clouds, considering the
143 activation of aerosol particles as both cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and ice nuclei (IN)
144 explicitly. The CCN activation follows the Fountoukis and Nenes (2005) approach, which gives
145 an analytical solution of the equations of an adiabatic ascending cloudy parcel (Nenes and
146 Seinfeld, 2003). The IN activation also resolves the equations for an ascending adiabatic air
147 parcel (Barahona and Nenes 2008, 2009), considering both the homogeneous (Koop et al., 2000)
148 and heterogeneous (Phillips et al., 2013) activation. Additional details of how the indirect effect
149 works in the GEOS-S2S system can be found in Barahona et al. (2014). Furthermore, the oceanic
150 model, coupled with the atmospheric model, simultaneously predicts the SST, which is the
151 variable that exerts the most vigorous control over the circulation and precipitation patterns on
152 the SA, mainly through the effects of ENSO, therefore accounting for any changes in the SST
153 due to aerosol forcing.

154 **2.2. Aerosol emissions**

155 Text S2 (SI) summarizes the emissions from several sources and for the various types of
156 aerosols included in GOCART, the GEOS aerosol component. Figure S1 depicts the climatology
157 of BB aerosol emissions in SA, peaking around $21 \text{ kgm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}\times 10^{-12}$ in September, and its monthly
158 mean annual variability from 2000 to 2015, based on the Quick Fire Emission Dataset (QFED)
159 inventory version 2.5 (Darmenov and Silva, 2015). Figure 1a shows that the mean spatial

160 distribution of these emissions over SA. Despite the clear seasonality, the apex of BB emissions
161 in SA varies from $10 \text{ kgm}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}\times 10^{-12}$ to almost four times higher between August to September.

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163 **2.3. Remote sensing and reanalysis data sets for model evaluation**

164 We used the monthly Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM – Simpson et al., 1996)
165 3B43 precipitation product to evaluate our model precipitation results. As a reference for the
166 evaluation of all other variables, we used the Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research
167 and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA-2, Gelaro et al., 2017, Randles et al., 2017). Text S3 has
168 detailed information about MERRA-2 and TRMM.

169 **2.4. Experimental design**

170 GEOS-S2S-2 was run with $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ spatial resolution and 72 vertical levels, extending
171 from the surface to 0.01hPa, resolving both the troposphere and the stratosphere. The MERRA-2
172 data was used for model initialization. We carried out three experiments to assess the role played
173 by BB aerosols in seasonal climate forecasting over SA. All three experiments used the same set
174 of aerosol emissions (Table S1), except for BB aerosols. The experiments were:

- 175 • BB emissions set to zero (BBZ).
- 176 • Monthly climatology (2003-2010) of BB emissions (BBC) derived from QFED.
- 177 • Daily estimation of BB emissions (BBD) from QFED.

178 BB emissions were utterly excluded in the BBZ experiment and, therefore, only aerosols from
179 the other sources (Table S1) continue to act on radiation and cloud microphysics. Comparing the
180 model results from these three experiments allows us to assess the impact of the BB aerosol
181 forcing in the seasonal climate prediction and its sensitivity to the realism of the aerosol
182 emissions.

183 Each hindcast consisted of a four-member ensemble produced from different initial
184 atmospheric conditions. Every four members were initialized on June 15, 20, 25, and 30, with the
185 model running from June to November for each of the 16 years from 2000 to 2015, accounting
186 for six months of integration, discarding June as spin-up period. Our analysis focused only on
187 the August, September, and October (ASO) season. Therefore, all average values presented
188 hereinafter refer to the ASO months of the years from 2000 to 2015 over SA. For the aerosol
189 analysis, we also focused on the area most directly affected by the smoke (Region 2; 15-5S;70-
190 50W), and on the areas to the north (Region 1; 10S-5N;75-50W) and south (Region 3; 35-
191 15S;70-50W), to which the aerosols are transported (Figure 1a).

192 **3. Results**

193 Figures 1c-e shows the spatial distribution of AOD (550 nm) over SA for ASO derived from
194 MERRA-2 and GEOS-S2S-2 model for BBC and BBD experiments. In both cases, the spatial
195 distribution of predicted AOD showed good resemblance with MERRA-2. The simulations
196 show higher AOD values in the central region of SA, which is directly related to BB aerosol
197 emissions from local fires. GEOS-S2S-2 captured well the atmospheric circulation impact on the
198 spatial distribution of AOD, typically noticed during the austral winter, such as BB aerosols
199 transport from region 2 to southern and southeastern SA in association with the South Atlantic
200 Subtropical High (SASH) and the low-level jets (LLJ) circulation. Trade winds also contribute to
201 transport aerosols to areas far away from the sources, such as Peru and Bolivia. Figure 1b shows
202 a scatter plot of the annual ASO mean AOD values over SA from BBC and BBD experiments
203 relative to MERRA-2. The biases were -0.04 and -0.03 for the BBC and BBD experiments,
204 respectively, while the root-mean-square errors were 0.06 and 0.04. The use of climatological
205 emissions was responsible for dropping the correlation coefficient (R^2) from 0.91 to 0.43.

206 Although GOCART is interactive with the atmospheric conditions, the SA AOD prediction
207 during the dry season is sensitive mostly to the BB emissions used. The high similarity between
208 the climatological mean spatial distributions of AOD in the BBC and BBD experiments (Figures
209 1d-e), computed over the 2000-2015 period, may seem to contradict this statement. However, it
210 should be noted that the AOD interannual variability predicted by each of these two experiments
211 is remarkably different. The observed AOD annual variability from MERRA-2 is much better
212 represented in BBD than on the BBC, as shown in Figure 1b.

213 There were also significant differences in the aerosol-induced changes in the radiative
214 forcing over SA between BBC and BBD relative to BBZ experiments. The spatial distribution of
215 the aerosol direct radiative forcing (ADF, Figure S2) has the same shape as that of the AOD
216 (Figure 1c). Inspecting region 2, which has the highest AOD values, the top of the atmosphere
217 (TOA), surface (SUR), and the atmospheric (ATM) for clear-sky mean aerosol ADF averages,
218 for both experiments BBD and BBC, were about -5 Wm^{-2} , -17 Wm^{-2} and 11 Wm^{-2} , respectively
219 (Table S2). These results agree with various observational and numerical studies investigating
220 the role of BB aerosols in SA (Procópio et al., 2004; Menezes Neto et al., 2017; Thornhill et al.,
221 2018).

222 In contrast to the direct forcing, the aerosol indirect radiative forcing (AIF) over SA has an
223 almost bipolar spatial distribution (Figure S3), with a predominance of negative values at the
224 north of latitude 10S and positive values south of it. As predicted by the BBD experiment, the
225 AIF ranged from about -10 to $+10 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, with mean values in regions 1, 2, and 3 being -1.31
226 $(\pm 1.20) \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, $0.25 (\pm 1.37) \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, and $+1.23 (\pm 0.90) \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, respectively (Table S3). Over SA,
227 the mean AIF was $0.5 (\pm 1.60) \text{ Wm}^{-2}$. The use of climatological emissions tends to change the
228 AIF signal from negative to positive in the region with the highest AOD (region 2, Figure 1a)

229 while increasing its intensity elsewhere. Unlike the direct aerosol forcing, the indirect does not
230 have a linear relationship with the BB emissions, which is somehow expected as it results from
231 several competing processes.

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233 Figure 1: (a) Climatological mean (2000-2015) spatial distribution of the BB emissions during the trimester August-
234 September-October (ASO), based on the QFED inventory; (b) Scatter plot of the annually ASO mean AOD values
235 over SA from MERRA-2 and the models results from BBC and BBD for the period 2000-2015. Spatial distribution
236 of the ASO climatological mean (2000-2015) AOD (550nm) for (c) MERRA-2, (d) BBC, and (e) BBD model runs.
237 The rectangles in the map in (a) indicate Regions 1 (black), 2 (red), 3 (blue), details on the text.

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241 Figures 2b-d in Panel 1 illustrates that the model reproduced the climatological 2-meter
242 temperature (T2M, °C) pattern over SA depicted by MERRA-2 (Figure 2a in Panel 1) for all
243 three experiments, with the highest temperatures over the tropical region and with temperatures
244 decreasing towards southern SA (Figure 2a in Panel 1). Including BB aerosols led to a reduction
245 of T2M bias (Figure 2e-f in Panel 1), especially over areas with high aerosol loading. For region
246 1, the GEOS-S2S-2 system underestimated T2M for all experiments, and the mean bias values
247 were -0.12°C , -0.19°C and -0.17°C for BBZ, BBC, and BBD, respectively. Including BB
248 aerosols did not contribute to reducing the bias of the near-surface temperature over region 1. On
249 the other hand, in region 2, all experiments overestimated T2M relative to MERRA-2. The mean
250 biases were 0.21°C , 0.04°C , and 0.07°C for BBZ, BBC, and BBD, respectively. In region 3, the
251 BB aerosols also reduced the T2M biases, however, to a lower extent when compared to region
252 2. The mean bias values in region 3 were 0.08°C , -0.01°C and -0.04°C for BBZ, BBC, and BBD,
253 respectively. The mean RMSE was more pronounced for region 3, reaching up to 1.4°C (Table 1
254 in Panel 1).

255 BB aerosols also positively impacted the correlation between T2M anomalies from the model
256 predictions and MERRA-2. The shaded area below latitude 10°S in Figures 2i-j in panel 1
257 increased compared to Figure 2h in Panel 1. For the BBD experiment (Figure 2j in panel 1),
258 there is a noticeable increase in the correlation around 25°S and 50°W, which coincides with a
259 local maximum climatological precipitation feature, as shown by TRMM (Figure 3a in Panel 2).
260 On average, there was an improvement in the statistical metrics for the T2M of the BBC and
261 BBD experiments compared to the BBZ experiment, mainly in regions 2 and 3 (Table 1 in Panel
262 1).

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264 Figure 2: Climatological mean ASO spatial distribution (2000-2015) of 2-meter temperature (°C) from (a) MERRA-
265 2, (b) BBZ, (c) BBC, and (d) BBD. Mean bias of 2-meter temperature from GEOS-S2S-2 relative to MERRA-2 for
266 (e) BBZ, (f) BBC, and (g) BBD experiments. Correlation between 2-meter temperature anomaly from GEOS-S2S-2
267 and the corresponding MERRA-2 for (h) BBZ, (i) BBC, and (j) BBD experiments. The correlation plots show only
268 the points with 5%SSL using a two-sided Student's t test.

269 Panel 1

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271 The model reproduced the climatological precipitation pattern over SA during the ASO
272 season, as depicted by TRMM (Figure 3a in Panel 2) for all three experiments (Figures 3b-d in
273 Panel 2). Most of the central SA region and the Northeast portion of Brazil presented much
274 lower rainfall values than the extreme north sector of northern SA (Figure 3a in Panel 2).
275 Including BB aerosols did not cause substantial precipitation changes, either for BBC or BBD,
276 compared to the BBZ experiment (Figures 3b-d in Panel 2). There was only a slight reduction in
277 precipitation of about 10% and 5% in regions 2 and 3, respectively, barely noticeable in the
278 plots. The precipitation suppression in BBC and BBD is consistent with the near-surface
279 temperature reduction, the stabilization of the PBL, and the weakening of the upward motion at
280 the lower troposphere (not shown). However, it does not translate into a reduction of either bias
281 (Figures 3e-g in Panel 2) or RMSE (Table 2 in Panel 2). The mean precipitation bias over
282 regions 2 and 3 changed from 14 to -16 for BBZ and from -8 to -19 for BBD. Regarding the

283 correlation between the precipitation anomalies from the model and TRMM, there are very few
284 spots with statistical significance correlations at the 5% level (5%SSL) all over SA
285 and surrounded oceanic areas for all three experiments (Figures 3h-j in Panel 2). This
286 illustrates the
287 challenge of predicting the location and time evolution of precipitation, even when the spatial
288 distribution pattern is well represented. Still, the correlation index for the BBD experiment
289 increased, relative to all the other experiments, over a small area, which coincides with a
290 local maximum climatological precipitation feature between latitudes 20°S and 25°S (Figure
3j in
291 Panel 2), which likely related to a better representation of the circulation pattern (not shown).

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297 Figure 3: Climatological mean ASO spatial distribution (2000-2015) of precipitation (mm/day) from (a) TRMM, (b)
298 BBZ, (c) BBC, and (d) BBD. Mean bias of precipitation from GEOS-S2S-2 relative to TRMM for (e) BBZ,
(f) BBC, and (g) BBD experiments. Correlation between precipitation anomaly from GEOS-S2S-2 and
299 the corresponding TRMM for (h) BBZ, (i) BBC, and (j) BBD experiments. The correlation plots show only the
points with 5%SSL using a two-sided Student's t test.

300 Panel 2

301 Figure 4 illustrates the mean interannual variability of the standardized
302 accumulated precipitation anomaly for ASO from 2000 to 2015 for the three experiments
303 and the TRMM dataset over region 2. Figure 4 also shows the standardized AOD anomaly from
304 MERRA-2 over that same region. In most years, there was a negative association between
305 precipitation and AOD anomalies. The years 2005, 2007, 2010 and 2015 had the most
306 significant rainfall deficit and
307 positive AOD anomalies, with the precipitation anomalies above 1σ (where σ is the
308 climatological standard deviation of the ASO seasonal mean). Except for 2005, during these
309 years, BBC and BBD experiments, which included BB aerosol forcing, achieved
better performance than the BBZ experiment.

On the other hand, the years 2000, 2009, 2011, and 2013 have positive precipitation
anomalies, with the climatological standard deviation of the ASO seasonal mean close to 1σ , and

310 negative AOD anomalies. However, for 2000 and 2013, the precipitation anomalies predicted by
311 the three experiments have the same sign as the observation. For 2011, the anomaly was of the
312 opposite sign only for BBZ. For 2009, the anomalies for BBC and BBD experiments were very
313 close to zero but still positive, as the anomaly from TRMM, while for BBZ, the anomaly was not
314 only negative but also further from zero. Despite some caveats, overall, the precipitation
315 predicted by the BBC and BBD experiments achieved better performance than the BBZ
316 experiment.

317
318 Figure 4: Standardized accumulated precipitation anomaly for the three model experiments and TRMM for ASO for
319 the period from 2000 to 2015, over the region 2. Also, the standardized AOD anomaly from MERRA-2 is shown.

320

321 **4. Conclusions**

322 The ASO seasonal prediction of the spatial climatological distribution of AOD (550 nm) over
323 SA was hardly sensitive to the use of climatological (BBC) or daily (BBD) emissions. However,
324 the BBC experiment failed to reproduce the interannual variability of AOD depicted by
325 MERRA-2.

326 The ADF mostly affected the area with higher BB aerosol loading (region 2), while the AIF
327 was negative north of region 2 and positive elsewhere. Using climatological emissions increased
328 the ADF in the atmosphere and reduced near-surface and on top of the atmosphere, while
329 changed the AIF signal from negative to positive in region 2.

330 Including BB aerosols, in general, improved the prediction of atmospheric variables
331 climatological patterns of atmospheric variables, such as T2M. The results of BBC and BBD
332 experiments were closer to MERRA-2 reanalysis than the BBZ experiment, enhancing the
333 correlation between the predicted and observed T2M anomalies and reducing bias and RMSE.

334 BB aerosols suppressed precipitation predictions over SA, especially in the region near the
335 emission sources (region 2) and along with the smoke transport southward (regions 3). Our
336 understanding is that the suppression occurred through two main mechanisms. First, the BB
337 aerosol cooled the near-surface atmosphere, increasing the stability in the PBL, and limiting the
338 convective development, which in turn suppresses cloud formation. Second, with the near-
339 surface temperature reduction, the surface pressure increased, and the LLJ
340 intensified. Nevertheless consistent, the improvement in predicting the atmospheric dynamical
341 behavior did not impact precipitation prediction performance at the same degree. During the dry
342 season, the atmospheric circulation determines very low precipitation rates in most SA, except in
343 the northern and southern parts of the continent. In the region with the highest BB aerosol
344 loading, where the atmospheric thermodynamic is mostly affected by them, it rains very little.
345 Therefore, it is not easy to measure the impact of aerosols on precipitation prediction
346 performance because it does not rain significantly. The correlation between the precipitation
347 anomalies predicted by the model and estimated using TRMM data was sparse, with very few
348 spots with 5%SSL all over SA and surrounded oceanic areas, almost equally for all three
349 experiments performed. These results suggest that including aerosol forcing, even for extreme
350 cases such as BB, does not eliminate the need to increase the model spatial resolution to predict
351 the location and time evolution of precipitation accurately. Nevertheless, there was an
352 enhancement of the precipitation prediction performance for the BBD experiment in one small
353 area, affected by long-range BB aerosol transport, over a local climatological precipitation
354 maximum depicted by TRMM, likely due to a better representation of the circulation pattern.

355 Our results highlighted yet a negative association between precipitation and the aerosol
356 loading, that is, positive precipitation anomalies are consistent with negative AOD anomalies of

357 BB aerosols and vice versa, as previously reported by Coelho et al. (2012). This relationship was
358 even more evident for years of climatic extremes, such as when ENSO was active.

359 Using more realistic BB emissions, accurately representing the annual variability, instead of
360 climatological BB emissions, improved the model representation of the ASO seasonal climate
361 over SA. As climate models have increasingly been including more sophisticated aerosol
362 treatments, it is crucial to also move towards a better representation of aerosol emissions. In
363 particular, for SA, it is essential to develop prediction capability for vegetation fires and
364 associated BB aerosol emissions on a seasonal scale.

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372 FAIR data standards data availability: GEOS S2S data is available at:
373 <https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/gmaoftp/2020GL088096R/GEOS-S2S/>. The file specification
374 document that elaborates on the available output from GEOS-S2S is available from:
375 <https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/pubs/docs/Nakada1033.pdf>. The MERRA-2 Reanalysis, the TRMM
376 precipitation data, and the QFED emissions products were downloaded, respectively, from
377 https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/reanalysis/MERRA-2/data_access/, [https://pmm.nasa.gov/data-](https://pmm.nasa.gov/data-access/downloads/trmm)
378 [access/downloads/trmm,](https://pmm.nasa.gov/data-access/downloads/trmm) and
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