



## Dust deposition fluxes at the gateway to the Southern Ocean: investigating the use of lithogenic tracer measurements in aerosols collected in Tasmania, Australia

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### Abstract

1 Australia contributes a significant amount of dust-borne nutrients (including iron) to the Southern  
2 Ocean, which can stimulate marine primary productivity. A quantitative assessment of the  
3 variability of dust fluxes from Australia to the surrounding ocean is therefore important for  
4 investigating the impact of atmospheric deposition on the Southern Ocean's carbon cycle. In this  
5 study, lithogenic trace metals (aluminium, iron, thorium and titanium) contained in aerosols  
6 collected between 2016 and 2021 from kunanyi/Mount Wellington in lutruwita/Tasmania  
7 (Australia) were used to estimate dust deposition fluxes. Lithogenic fluxes were calculated using  
8 each tracer individually, as well as an average using all four tracers. This latter approach enabled  
9 an assessment of the uncertainty associated with flux calculations using only individual tracers.  
10 Elemental ratios confirmed the lithogenic nature of each tracer in aerosols when compared with  
11 both Australian soil samples and the average Earth's upper continental crust. Determined  
12 lithogenic flux estimates were consistent with a regular dust deposition peak during the austral  
13 summer, in line with the dust storm season in the southeast of Australian, and a low atmospheric  
14 deposition in winter. This study provides an insight into the seasonal and interannual variability of



15 dust deposition fluxes from the southeast of Australia based on aerosol sample measurements. This  
16 information will enhance our understanding of nutrient-bearing dust deposition to the Australian  
17 sector of the Southern Ocean and may prove useful in refining modelling estimates of southern  
18 hemisphere atmospheric deposition fluxes and their subsequent impact on global biogeochemical  
19 cycles.

20

### 21 **Environmental significance / Plain language summary**

22 Dust deposition flux was investigated in lutruwita/Tasmania, Australia, between 2016 and 2021.  
23 Results show that the use of direct measurement of aluminium, iron, thorium and titanium in  
24 aerosols to estimate average dust deposition fluxes limits biases associated with using single  
25 elements. Observations of dust deposition fluxes in the Southern Hemisphere are critical to  
26 validate model outputs and better understand the seasonal and interannual impacts of dust  
27 deposition on biogeochemical cycles.

### 28 **1. Introduction**

29 Lithogenic mineral particles such as iron oxyhydroxides, kaolinite, illite and smectite are  
30 commonly entrained into the atmosphere (Cudahy et al., 2016) following the erosion of the Earth's  
31 Upper Continental Crust (UCC) (Crawford et al., 2021). Such dust particles are the primary source  
32 of trace metals including aluminium (Al), iron (Fe), thorium (Th) and titanium (Ti) to the  
33 atmosphere, which can therefore be used as tracers of aeolian lithogenic inputs to the ocean (Baker  
34 et al., 2020). Dust carries important nutrients, including Fe, to marine ecosystems, feeding primary  
35 producers (Mackie et al., 2008). Due to the current lack of field observations on the concentrations  
36 of aeolian trace metals and their corresponding dust deposition fluxes, large uncertainties remain  
37 regarding how and to what extent dust supply fertilises key oceanic regions such as the Southern  
38 Ocean with vital nutrients. This leads to a poor understanding of the impact of dust deposition on  
39 the biological carbon pump.

40

41 The amount of dust entrained into the atmosphere depends on soil surface roughness, vegetation  
42 and coverage, on particle size, composition, and moisture content, and on local conditions such as  
43 wind speed and rainfall, which change both regionally and seasonally (Mahowald et al., 2009). Air  
44 masses can carry dust over thousands of kilometres before particles return to land or fall onto the



45 surface ocean (Mackie et al., 2008). Atmospheric deposition of dust to the open ocean has been  
46 demonstrated to act as a key supplier of vital macro- and micro-nutrients (such as Fe) to the marine  
47 ecosystem (Mackie et al., 2008; Weis et al., 2024). For example, during the austral summer 2019-  
48 2020, nutrient supply from large dust-containing bushfire emissions (Perron et al., 2022; Hamilton  
49 et al., 2022) was identified as the main trigger of a large and long-lasting phytoplankton bloom in  
50 the South Pacific Ocean (Weis et al., 2022).

51

52 Field and modelling approaches to estimating dust deposition both offer various benefits and  
53 drawbacks. Field observations at sea are influenced by local environmental conditions (i.e.,  
54 weather, surface ocean properties) and are not representative of the large scale or long-term  
55 atmospheric deposition trends (Anderson et al., 2016). Time-series stations on land can overcome  
56 the issue of temporal coverage but may not be representative of atmospheric loading and  
57 deposition over remote oceanic regions. To date, global models are not capable of reproducing  
58 atmospheric concentrations of trace metals transported in dust to remote areas and cannot  
59 accurately quantify particle settling rates (Anderson et al., 2016). Considering the Southern  
60 Hemisphere, model estimates tend to overestimate total dust emission at the source and  
61 underestimate soluble trace element deposition fluxes over the ocean (Anderson et al., 2016; Ito et  
62 al., 2020). To reduce uncertainty in dust deposition fluxes to the open ocean it is essential to  
63 validate model fluxes using field-based observations. Long-term atmospheric observatories,  
64 particularly near the coasts, are attracting increasing interest from the scientific community as a  
65 platform to better understand seasonal to interannual patterns of deposition events in addition to  
66 shipboard observations and satellite estimates (Perron et al., 2022; De Deckker, 2019).

67

68 In Australia, the large spatial heterogeneity of soil types and the highly episodic nature of weather  
69 events such as droughts, bushfires and dust storms make it particularly difficult to model dust  
70 deposition fluxes (Mackie et al., 2008). A main source of trace metals to the Australian sector of  
71 the Southern Ocean is dust carried from kati thanda/Lake Eyre and dhungala-barka/Murray-  
72 Darling geological basins (De Deckker, 2019). The typical dust storm season in Australia spans  
73 from September to November (austral spring), with the most extreme storms occurring in  
74 September (O'Loingsigh et al., 2017). The dust season can extend through the austral summer due  
75 to bushfires (and postfire unvegetated ground) across southern Australia (Hamilton et al., 2022).



76 In a study conducted by Perron et al. (2022), atmospheric concentrations of mineral dust and  
77 associated lithogenic tracers (Al, Fe and Ti) were reported to be 2.5-fold higher, on average, during  
78 fire events compared to days not impacted by bushfires in lutruwita/Tasmania, Australia.  
79  
80 Dust deposition fluxes reported by different models range over an order of magnitude (from 0.55  
81 to 5.48 mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) over the Southern Ocean region southeast of Australia (Mahowald et al., 2006;  
82 Weis et al., 2024). Different methods have been used to estimate dust deposition fluxes from the  
83 analysis of a single tracer element, for example Al or Th, in aerosol samples and in seawater  
84 (Anderson et al., 2016). However, single element dust flux estimates are subject to anomalous data  
85 stemming from contamination, deviation from the mean UCC, or preferential mineralization  
86 following a particular laboratory protocol. Recently, the analysis of four lithogenic tracers  
87 (namely, Al, Fe, Th, and Ti) in marine sinking particles collected at the Southern Ocean Time-  
88 Series (SOTS) mooring station (140°E, 47°S) were used to calculate an average ‘multi-tracer’  
89 estimate of dust deposition fluxes to surface waters of the subantarctic ocean south of Australia  
90 (Traill et al., 2022). The latter field-based flux estimates showed good agreement with remotely  
91 sensed proxies of dust transport and modelled deposition estimates. Elemental ratio analysis in the  
92 same sediment trap samples suggested that lithogenic material from southeastern Australia was  
93 the most likely source of Al, Fe, Th and Ti to this area of the Southern Ocean (Traill et al., 2022).  
94  
95 In this study, the analysis of the same four lithogenic tracers (Al, Fe, Th, and Ti) was performed  
96 in aerosol samples collected at the kunanyi/Mount Wellington time-series sampling station in  
97 southern lutruwita/Tasmania (Australia). Dust deposition fluxes were estimated from both  
98 individual tracer concentrations and using the multi-tracer approach used by Traill et al. (2022).  
99 Here we report a 5-year (2016-2021) time-series of dust deposition flux estimates downwind of  
100 the south-eastern Australian dust path, at the gateway to the Southern Ocean. The suitability of the  
101 four metals as lithogenic tracers was also verified by comparing elemental ratios (relative to Al)  
102 in the aerosol samples to the average topsoil composition in Australia (this study) and to the  
103 averaged UCC composition (McLennan et al., 2001).  
104

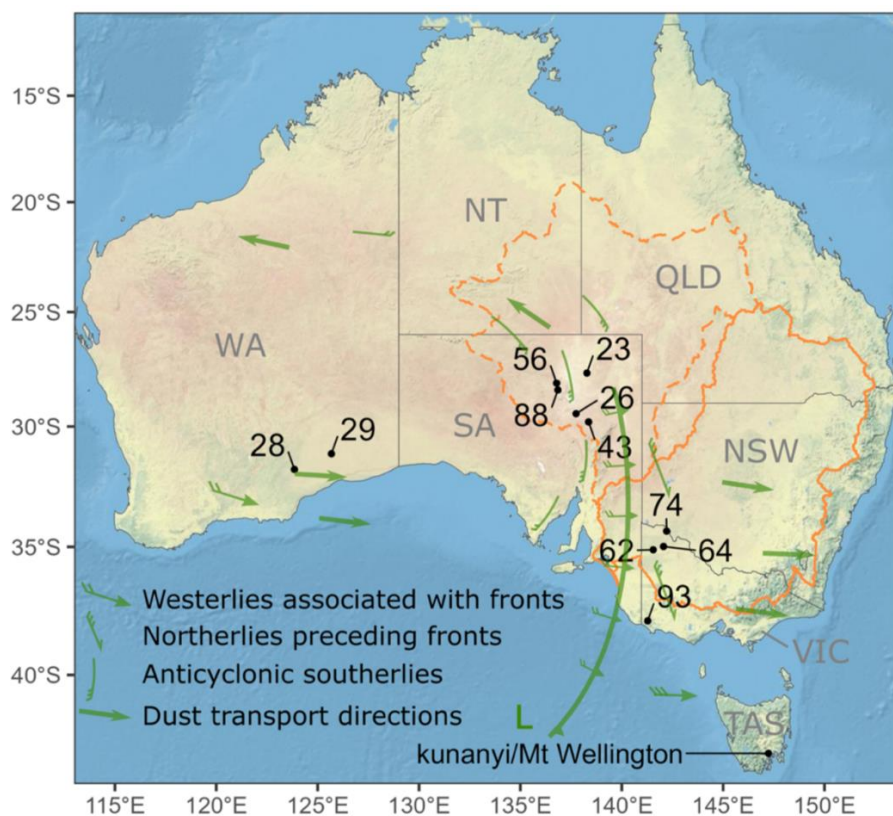


## 105 2. Material and methods

### 106 2.1 Aerosol collection and study site

107 kunanyi/Mount Wellington overlooks Hobart, the capital city of the Australian island state of  
108 lutruwita/Tasmania. The mountain is in a strategic position for sampling one of the three major  
109 atmospheric pathways in Australia (Baddock et al. 2015; Bowler 1976), where air-masses from  
110 mainland Australia are transported south-eastwards over lutruwita/Tasmania (and our sampling  
111 site, Figure 1) before reaching the Southern Ocean. This study uses aerosol filters collected on a  
112 HiVOL 3000 air particulate sampler (Ecotech, Acoem, Melbourne, Australia) positioned at 1,271  
113 m above sea level, on the summit of kunanyi/Mount Wellington. Filter samples have been  
114 collected for Total Suspended Particulates (TSP) since September 2016, with each sample  
115 representing a period ranging from a few days to 2 weeks, depending on weather conditions and  
116 specific weather events, and allowing for sampler servicing and calibration.

117





119 **Figure 1.** Location of the aerosol sampling station at kunanyi/Mount Wellington in Tasmania (TAS). Black  
120 dots display the locations of selected NGS soil samples in Western Australia (WA), South Australia (SA)  
121 and Victoria (VIC) (see section 2.4) with their abbreviated identification numbers (see Table S2). Prevailing  
122 wind pathways are also displayed as green arrows based on Spriggs (1982) and the kati thanda/Lake Eyre  
123 (dashed line) and dhungala-barka/Murray-Darling (solid line) geological basins are delineated in orange.  
124

## 125 2.2 Aerosol leaching protocol

126 Laboratory work for aerosol and soil sample processing (sections 2.2 and 2.3) followed  
127 GEOTRACES recommended procedures for ultra-trace sampling and analysis (Cutter et al., 2017).  
128 All reagents were ultra-high purity (UHP) and either purchased (Baseline, SeaStar Chemicals) or  
129 distilled in-house using instrument quality reagents (IQ grade, SeaStar Chemicals). Whatman W41  
130 (Sigma-Aldrich) filters were acid washed in a series of 24h hydrochloric acid (0.5 M HCl) baths  
131 and rinsed with UHP water to leach any impurities and reduce the impact of the cellulose filter on  
132 the analysis of trace elements in aerosols (Perron et al., 2020a).

133 Perron et al. (2020a) suggested a 3-step leaching method to define trace metal concentrations and  
134 solubility in aerosols taken from land-based stations in Australia (Strzelec et al., 2020a, 2020b)  
135 and on research vessels operating around Australia and in the Southern Ocean (Perron et al., 2020b,  
136 2021). For this study, 125 aerosol samples were selected from the kunanyi/Mount Wellington  
137 atmospheric particle time-series collection (November 2016 - February 2022). The origin and  
138 concentration of aerosol Fe in 80 samples from this dataset was previously reported in Perron et  
139 al. (2022), however the present study differs in using total concentrations of Fe, Al, Th and Ti to  
140 calculate atmospheric (dust) deposition fluxes and the associated seasonal and interannual trends  
141 at the sampling station. Although samples were collected and analysed in batch over several years,  
142 the collection and analysis of each batch of samples follow the same protocol and the resulting  
143 data was quality-controlled against blanks, replicate analysis and Certified Reference Materials  
144 (Table S1).

145

146 Aerosol samples were successively leached using UHP water (Milli-Q®, 18.2 MΩ) and 1.1 M  
147 ammonium acetate (10 mL, pH 4.7). The remaining filter residue was then digested using a mixture  
148 of concentrated nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>, 1 mL) and concentrated hydrofluoric acid (HF, 0.25 mL) at  
149 120°C for 12 hours (Perron et al., 2020a). The sum of all three steps in the protocol provided the  
150 total concentration data for each lithogenic tracer in aerosols which is used in this study (Perron et  
151 al., 2020a). Satisfactory recoveries (>80%) were obtained for Al, Fe and Ti when applying the



152 total metal digestion step of the protocol to two reference materials, the Arizona Test Dust (ATD)  
153 (Morton et al., 2013) and the GeoPT13 certified Koeln loess (International Association of  
154 Geoanalysts) (Potts et al., 2003) (supplementary Table S1). A smaller recovery of 73% obtained  
155 for Th highlights the unique extraction and stability chemistry of the metal which our protocol is  
156 not optimised for. Thorium concentrations are therefore likely to be underestimated in this study  
157 as discussed in section 3.

158

### 159 2.3 Atmospheric deposition flux estimates

160 The total concentration of each lithogenic tracer in our samples was used to calculate single tracer-  
161 dust deposition flux estimates. Due to the lack of necessary meteorological data to estimate particle  
162 deposition velocities specific to our study site, a single coarse particle deposition velocity was  
163 applied to trace metal-bearing dust deposition estimates based on the literature in similar study  
164 regions (Baker et al., 2017; Perron et al., 2020b; Winton et al., 2015). In this study, “F(X)” denotes  
165 the deposition flux estimate for the individual lithogenic tracer “X”. F(X) (in mg m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) was  
166 obtained following equation (1):

$$167 \quad F(X) = C_x * V_d \quad (1)$$

168 where X is the lithogenic tracer – Al, Fe, Th or Ti ; C<sub>x</sub> is the total metal concentration (ng m<sup>-3</sup>) in  
169 aerosols and V<sub>d</sub> is a constant deposition velocity of 2 cm s<sup>-1</sup>. The single deposition velocity holds  
170 uncertainty as it does not account for the specific particulate size in different aerosol samples or  
171 for specific atmospheric conditions such as humidity and wind speed at the collection time (Baker  
172 et al., 2016; Winton et al., 2016; Duce et al, 1991).

173

174 Single-tracer dust (lithogenic) deposition flux estimates, F<sub>Lith(X)</sub>, were then calculated by dividing  
175 F(X) by the average abundance ([X]<sub>UCC</sub>, wt%) of the element X in the UCC as reported in  
176 McLennan (2001); Al = 8.04%, Fe = 3.5%, Th = 1.07x10<sup>-3</sup>%, Ti = 0.41% following equation (2).

$$177 \quad F_{Lith(X)} = \frac{F(X)}{[X]_{UCC}} \quad (2)$$

178 While F<sub>Lith(X)</sub> estimates are solely based on the analysis of a single lithogenic tracer, a multi-tracer  
179 dust deposition flux estimate, F<sub>LithAv</sub>, was obtained by calculating the average of all four F<sub>Lith(X)</sub> for  
180 each individual aerosol sample. Multi-tracer F<sub>LithAv</sub> estimates were calculated using both the  
181 reported average UCC composition (McLennan, 2001) and Australian soil measurements (see  
182 section 2.4 in this study) as references for comparison.





183

#### 184 2.4 Soil sampling and processing

185 Eleven topsoil (0-10 cm) samples were selected from the National Geochemical Survey of  
186 Australia (NGSA) Project: Geochemical Atlas of Australia (Geoscience Australia), a continental-  
187 scale geochemical survey covering most of Australia (Caritat and Cooper, 2011; Caritat, 2022). In  
188 this study, only selected soil samples originating from the Australian states of Western Australia,  
189 South Australia and Victoria were analysed (Figure 1) as they likely better represent particles  
190 entrained from the geological basins of kati thanda/Lake Eyre and dhungala-barka/Murray-  
191 Darling, through the south-east Australian dust path towards our sampling station and the Southern  
192 Ocean (Baddock et al., 2015, Supplementary Figure S1). It should be mentioned that no sample  
193 from New South Wales was used for this study although a large part of the dhungala-  
194 barka/Murray-Darling basin is located in this state.

195

196 A 10 mg aliquot of each soil sample was dry sieved through a 63 µm nylon screen to capture the  
197 soil fraction fine enough to be entrained into the atmosphere (Strzelec et al., 2020a). The sieved  
198 fraction was then processed through the same sequential leaching method described in section 2.2  
199 (Perron et al., 2020a). Aerosol and soil leachates were analysed for a suite of elements, including  
200 Al, Fe, Th and Ti, by Sector Field Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (HR-ICP-MS,  
201 Thermo Fisher Scientific, Element 2) at the Central Science Laboratory of the University of  
202 Tasmania. Increased spectral resolution was employed to resolve major spectral interference  
203 overlaps associated with analysis of Al, Fe and Ti. Further details on the ICP-MS analysis  
204 procedure are provided in Perron et al. (2020a).

205

#### 206 2.5 Atmospheric source tracking

207 The ratio between the total concentration of each lithogenic tracer of interest,  $T(X)$ , and the total  
208 Al concentration,  $T(Al)$ , in individual aerosol samples was calculated and compared to the same  
209 ratio in the average UCC reported in McLennan (2001) and in the average topsoil from  
210 southeastern Australia (Section 2.3). The so-called enrichment factor (EF, equation 3) was used to  
211 ascertain the lithogenic origin of Fe, Th and Ti in this study.

$$212 \quad EF = \frac{\frac{T(X)_{aerosol}}{T(Al)_{aerosol}}}{\frac{T(X)_{UCC}}{T(Al)_{UCC}}} \quad (3)$$





213 Using this approach, an EF value below 10 was considered to indicate a prevailing lithogenic  
214 source origin for the metal tracers, while an EF exceeding the threshold value of 10 is associated  
215 with an enrichment from non-lithogenic atmospheric sources such as anthropogenic combustion  
216 (Shelley et al., 2015; Perron et al., 2022). Reimann and Caritat (2005) warned about the biases  
217 associated with using a low EF threshold to identify anthropogenic sources due to the natural  
218 variability in the Earth's crust composition, fractionation of elements during their emission to –  
219 and transport within – the atmosphere, and biogeochemical processes during and after aeolian  
220 transport. Here, a high EF threshold of 10 is adopted to account for such variability.

221

### 222 3. Results and discussion

#### 223 3.1 Evaluating the lithogenic origin of the four tracers in aerosols

224 Enrichment Factors (EF) were calculated for Fe, Th and Ti measured in aerosols, and compared to  
225 the Australian soil samples selected from the NGSa (this study) and compared to averaged UCC  
226 composition from McLennan (2001) (Table 1). Calculated EF values were used to discard  
227 significant contributions of non-lithogenic sources to our lithogenic tracers in kunanyi/Mt  
228 Wellington aerosols as indicated by  $EF > 10$ . Metal concentrations in individual NGSa soil samples  
229 analysed in this study are reported in the supplementary Table S2.

230

**Table 1.** Comparison of mean Al, Fe, Th and Ti concentrations measured ( $\text{ng mg}^{-1}$ ) in Australian soil samples ( $n = 11$ ) compared to concentrations reported in the average UCC by McLennan (2001). Enrichment factors (EFs) calculated for Fe, Th and Ti (using Al as a reference) in aerosols collected at kunanyi/Mount Wellington ( $n = 125$ ) are also displayed using both crustal references

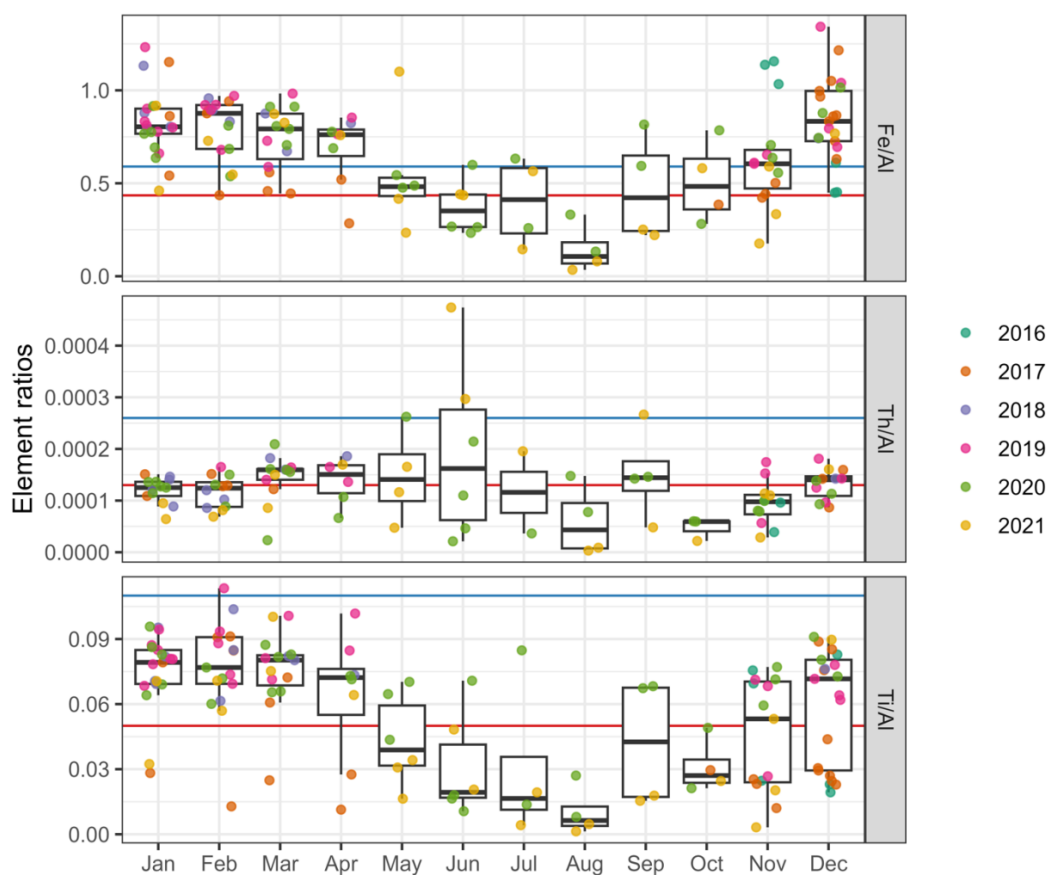
	UCC	Australian soils	kunanyi/Mount Wellington aerosols		
<b>Al</b>	80400	38560	/UCC	/Australian soil	
<b>Fe</b>	35000	22616	<b>EF(Fe)</b>	$1.6 \pm 0.6$	$1.2 \pm 0.5$
<b>Th</b>	10.7	10.3	<b>EF(Th)</b>	$1.3 \pm 2.5$	$0.7 \pm 1.2$
<b>Ti</b>	4100	4313	<b>EF(Ti)</b>	$1.2 \pm 0.6$	$0.6 \pm 0.6$

231

232 Overall, EFs close to 1 were measured for all aerosol samples, suggesting that the lithogenic tracers  
233 used in this study are indeed of a prevailing crustal origin. Using Australian soil concentration  
234 (Table 1 and supplementary Table S2) to calculate EFs resulted in values further away from the



235 threshold of 10. In particular, EFs calculated using Australian soil data are closer to 1 for Fe and  
236 Th when compared to using average UCC values (McLennan, 2001). Indeed, underestimated Th  
237 measurements due to incomplete sample digestion (section 2.2) in our study result in a similar  
238 underestimate of EF. Elemental ratio of Ti/Al in aerosol samples collected at kunanyi/Mt  
239 Wellington (Figure 2) were closer to the average ratio of the UCC, resulting in EF(Ti) closer to 1  
240 when compared to using average Australian soil measurement as a reference.  
241



242  
243 **Figure 2.** Boxplot of elemental ratios of Fe/Al (top), Th/Al (middle), and Ti/Al (bottom) in kunanyi/ Mt  
244 Wellington aerosol samples collected between 2016 – 2021, grouped according to month. Whiskers  
245 represent 1.5 times the interquartile range (75<sup>th</sup> – 25<sup>th</sup> percentile) beyond the boxes, while the upper, middle,  
246 and lower horizontal lines of the box represent the higher interquartile, median value and lower interquartile  
247 of the average monthly dataset, respectively. Colours represent each sample collection year. Horizontal red  
248 lines represent metal ratios in the average UCC (McLennan, 2001). Horizontal blue lines represent average  
249 metal ratios in the eleven selected NGSAs Australian soil samples (this study). Two Th outliers (May and  
250 June 2020) were excluded from the Th dataset and subsequent calculation for clarity.



251  
252 Mean Al and Fe concentrations measured in our Australian soil samples were both twice smaller  
253 than the average UCC values reported by McLennan (2001) while Ti and Th concentrations were  
254 similar within 10% (Figure 2 and supplementary Table S2). While Australian soil is known for its  
255 high Fe content (Mahowald et al., 2019, Strzelec et al., 2020a), a high soil heterogeneity across  
256 this vast country may explain such surprising observation. This resulted in calculated Th/Al and  
257 Ti/Al ratios significantly higher for Australian soil samples while Fe/Al ratios remained similar  
258 compared to the average UCC.

259  
260 Elemental ratios calculated for individual aerosol samples are summarised in the supplementary  
261 Table S3. Both Fe/Al and Ti/Al ratios showed a clear seasonal trend, with higher ratios resembling  
262 mean ratios measured in Australian soil samples (Fe/Al=0.59 and Ti/Al=0.11, Figure 2) in the  
263 summertime (December – March) and lower Fe/Al and Ti/Al ratios closer to the average UCC  
264 ratios (Fe/Al=0.435 and Ti/Al=0.05, McLennan, 2001) in wintertime (June – September, Figure  
265 2). Summertime Fe/Al ratios in kunanyi/Mt Wellington aerosols were slightly higher (Fe/Al =0.72)  
266 than the Australian soil measurements. This can be explained by increased contribution of local  
267 soil emission from Tasmania under drier weather conditions and from postfire barren ground.  
268 Indeed, the NGS database shows high Fe/Al ratio (on average 0.7, n=21 samples) in soil samples  
269 collected in Tasmania and processed through aqua-regia mineralization and x-ray fluorescence  
270 analysis (Caritat and Cooper, 2011; Caritat, 2022). Ti/Al ratios were found to lie between our  
271 Australian soil (Ti/Al = 0.11) and UCC (Ti/Al = 0.05) references from December through to May,  
272 then falling below the UCC ratio in the cooler months of the year. This monthly variability  
273 indicates different lithogenic sources of Fe and Ti are likely to influence the atmospheric loading  
274 at our sampling station throughout the year. The onset of the dust season on the Australian  
275 mainland (October-November, Baddock et al., 2015) may explain part of the summer (dusty)  
276 season atmospheric inputs at our kunanyi /Mt Wellington aerosol sampling station, as evidenced  
277 by higher Fe/Al (and Ti/Al) ratios in aerosols. On the other hand, other atmospheric sources  
278 (locally derived from Tasmania or from long-range transport over the Southern Ocean) with a  
279 similar (lower) metal/Al signature than the UCC seem to prevail in our study region during winter.  
280 However, the small number of aerosol samples available between May - October in our study does  
281 not allow for accurate assessment of trends during the winter period. Much smaller variability was



282 observed for the Th/Al ratio calculated in kunanyi/Mt Wellington aerosols (mean Th/Al = 0.00017)  
283 across the time-series, with an overall median ratio close to that of the UCC (mean Th/Al =  
284 0.00013) across most of the year except during August and October.

285

286 Differences between elemental ratios in soil and in aerosol samples may stem from atmospheric  
287 processes occurring during transport between source regions and the sampling site including the  
288 preferential settling of denser (e.g., oxyhydroxides) minerals over lighter minerals (e.g., clay), and  
289 from the mixing of different lithogenic air-masses during atmospheric transport. Analysis of a  
290 large set of soil samples, including more locations across Australia and particularly in Tasmania,  
291 as well as high resolution information on wind speed and direction at the sampling site and for the  
292 duration of the timeseries is necessary to better assess the relative contribution of different  
293 Australian dust sources to the lithogenic particulate loading at kunanyi/Mount Wellington.

294

295 **3.2 Single tracer lithogenic particle fluxes at kunanyi/Mount Wellington: characteristics**  
296 **and trends**

297 Thorium and Ti are commonly used as tracers of lithogenic atmospheric deposition fluxes as they  
298 are almost exclusively derived from lithogenic material and have little reactivity or biological  
299 utility in the atmosphere (Boës et al., 2001; Ohnemus and Lam, 2015). While Al may be emitted  
300 to the atmosphere by anthropogenic sources, its prevailing source in the offshore atmosphere  
301 remains crustal material (Xu and Weber, 2021). Although Fe solubility vary following physico-  
302 chemical processes during the atmospheric transport, the soluble Fe fraction remains small  
303 compared to the total (mostly refractory) fraction of Fe delivered by dust. Hence, if all four tracers  
304 have a unique lithogenic source, the use of a multiple tracer lithogenic flux estimate can reduce  
305 the uncertainty associated with the variability of a single metal's concentration due to  
306 contamination, deviation from the UCC or secondary atmospheric inputs (Traill et al., 2022).

307

**Table 2.** Correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) between tracer concentrations in kunanyi/Mount Wellington aerosols.

	Al	Th	Fe	Ti
Al	1	-	-	-
Th	0.90	1	-	-
Fe	0.87	0.82	1	-

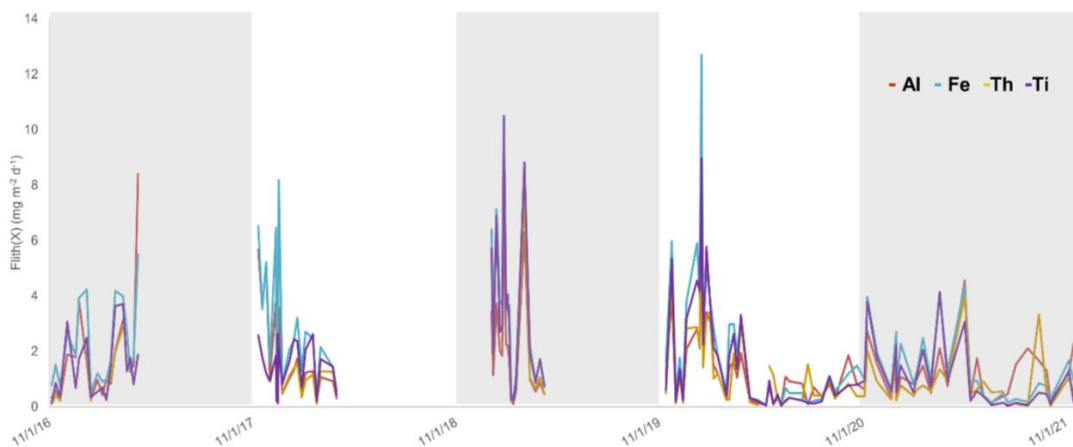


Ti	0.74	0.84	0.83	1
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308

309 A strong correlation (mostly  $R^2 > 0.8$ ) was found between the total atmospheric concentrations of  
310 Al, Fe, Th and Ti in the individual samples (Table 2). The strongest correlation ( $R^2 = 0.90$ ) was  
311 found between Al and Th and the weakest correlation ( $R^2 = 0.74$ ) was found between total Ti and  
312 Al concentrations in aerosols. Such strong correlations suggest that a common prevailing source  
313 may supply all four tracers to kunanyi/Mt Wellington sampling station. Australian soil samples  
314 collected in the state of Victoria and analyzed in this study also showed a good correlation between  
315 the four lithogenic tracers, with  $R^2$  of 0.97, 0.74 and 0.73 for Fe, Th and Ti when compared to Al  
316 (based on Table S3 data). No significant correlation was found for soil samples from Western  
317 Australia and South Australia. However, the small number of soil sample analysed in this study  
318 ( $n=4$  for the state of Victoria) is not sufficient to draw conclusion on the potential origin of metals  
319 in kunanyi/Mt Wellington aerosol samples. Indeed, the larger NGS database available from  
320 Caritat and Cooper (2011) only shows a meaningful correlation ( $>0.70$ ) between Fe and Al  
321 measurements in soil samples collected in New South Wales, South Australia and Tasmania using  
322 an aqua regia mineralization and x-ray fluorescence analysis protocol.

323



324

325 **Figure 3.** Individual tracer flux,  $F_{Lith(X)}$  ( $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ), at the kunanyi/Mount Wellington aerosol sampling  
326 station from 2016 to 2021. Data points represent each aerosol mid-sampling period. Gaps in the time series  
327 are periods where samples were not collected due to logistical limitations (winters) or instrument  
328 maintenance. Shading denotes every other year starting on 1<sup>st</sup> of November each year. Here,  $F_{Lith(X)}$  are  
329 calculated using the average UCC content for each metal as reported in McLennan (2001).

330



331 Dust deposition fluxes estimated using individual tracer (Al, Fe, Th, and Ti) concentrations  
332 measured in kunanyi/Mount Wellington aerosols, called  $F_{\text{lith}(X)}$ , showed similar variability  
333 throughout the time-series (2016-2021, Figure 3). Overall, the smallest  $F_{\text{lith}(Th)}$  flux was estimated  
334 using Th as a single lithogenic tracer, ranging between 0.03 and 7.8  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ . The largest dust  
335 flux was obtained using Fe as a lithogenic tracer and ranged between 0.05 and 12.7  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$   
336 ( $F_{\text{lith}(Fe)}$ , Figure 3). Lithogenic flux estimates calculated using Al and Ti concentrations in aerosols  
337 ranged from 0.06 - 8.4  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$  and from 0.03 - 10.5  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ , for  $F_{\text{lith}(Al)}$  and  $F_{\text{lith}(Ti)}$ ,  
338 respectively. Despite slight differences found between  $F_{\text{lith}(X)}$  estimates obtained using different  
339 lithogenic tracers, the magnitude of the difference between the highest and lowest  $F_{\text{lith}(X)}$  estimates  
340 varied by only a factor of 2, which reinforces the likelihood of a common prevailing atmospheric  
341 source for all four tracers.

342

343 This finding corroborates work presented by Traill et al. (2022), where concentrations of all four  
344 lithogenic tracers showed similar variabilities in marine sinking particles collected in the  
345 subantarctic region of the Southern Ocean south of Tasmania (SOTS station). Similarly, Traill et  
346 al. (2022) estimated higher lithogenic fluxes when using Fe as a lithogenic tracer and lower  
347 lithogenic fluxes when using Th as a lithogenic tracer (Traill et al., 2022). Median  $F_{\text{lith}(X)}$  estimates  
348 measured at the kunanyi/Mt Wellington sampling site (this study: 1.2, 1.7, 0.8 and 1.1  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$   
349 using Al, Fe, Th and Ti as individual lithogenic tracer, respectively) compares well with reported  
350 dust deposition fluxes of 1.4 - 5  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$  estimated by models in the study region (Jickells et al.,  
351 2005; Weis et al., 2024) and other Southern Hemisphere dust fluxes  $<2.7 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$  reported off  
352 the coasts of South Africa and South America, away from major dust sources (Menzel Barraqueta  
353 et al., 2019). Our flux estimates are smaller than mineral dust deposition estimates of 4.0 - 25.0  
354  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$  (based on Ti concentration in aerosols) reported by Strzelec et al. (2020a) in Western  
355 Australia, much closer to large Australian deserts.

356

357 Overall, maximum  $F_{\text{lith}(X)}$  estimates in our study were calculated during austral summer months  
358 (roughly December – March). Different metals are observed to dominate the summer  $F_{\text{lith}(X)}$  peak  
359 each year, with Al showing the highest  $F_{\text{lith}(X)}$  flux in summer 2016/17 (8.4  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ), Fe in  
360 2017/18 (8.2  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) and in 2019/20 (12.7  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ), and Ti in 2018/19 (10.5  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ )  
361 and in 2021/22 (9.6  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ). This may be due to variabilities in the nature and composition of

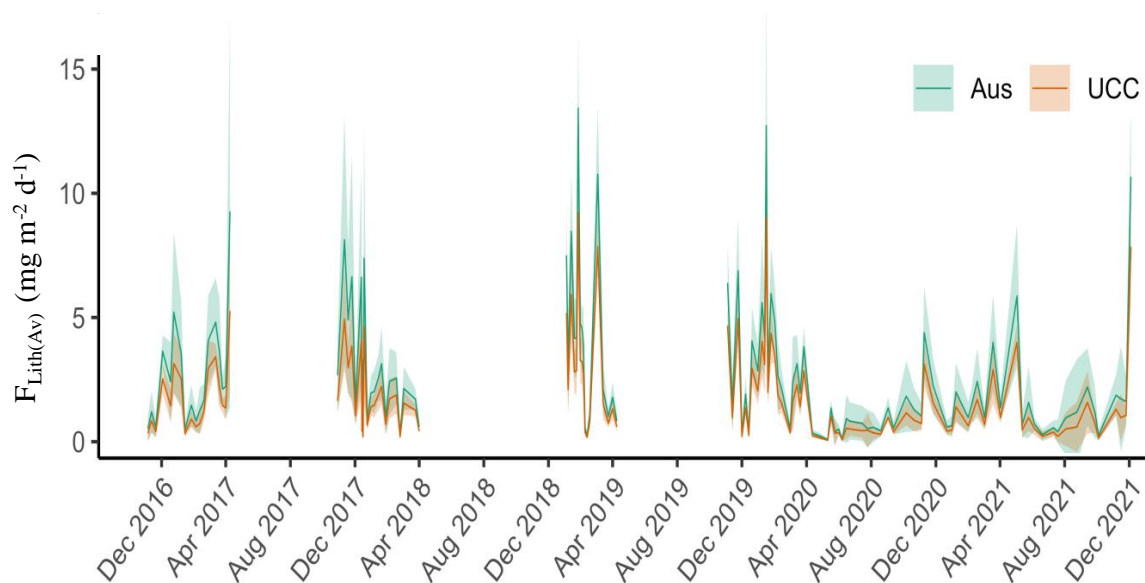


362 the dominant dust source arriving at the sampling site each year, including the impact of dust-  
363 containing fire emissions during the summer seasons 2018/19 and 2019/20 (Perron et al. 2022).

364

### 365 3.3 Multi tracer particle flux

366 All four tracers (Al, Fe, Th, and Ti) measured in kunanyi/Mount Wellington aerosols showed a  
367 strong correlation with one another and a similar variability over time (section 3.1), suggesting  
368 that they originated from a single terrestrial source. This supports the approach taken in this study  
369 whereby a multi-tracer lithogenic deposition flux, called  $F_{LithAv}$ , is estimated by averaging  $F_{Lith(x)}$   
370 fluxes obtained using each of the four tracers for each sample. The resulting  $F_{LithAv}$  estimated at  
371 our station between 2016 and 2021 is displayed in Figure 4 and provides a more robust estimate  
372 of deposition flux by smoothing variability between tracers (displayed in Figure 3). Individual and  
373 average lithogenic flux estimates ( $F_{Lith(x)}$  and  $F_{LithAv}$ , respectively) calculated in this study are  
374 summarised for individual samples in the supplementary Tables S4 and S5, respectively.  
375



376

377 **Figure 4.** Multi-tracer lithogenic flux estimate,  $F_{LithAv}$ , expressed in  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ , corresponding to the average  
378 of all individual tracer fluxes ( $F_{Lith(x)}$ ) calculated based on the lithogenic composition of the UCC (orange





379 colour) and that of the eleven Australian soil samples measured in this study (green colour) . Shadings  
380 represent +/- one  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  standard deviation of the average (solid lines).

381

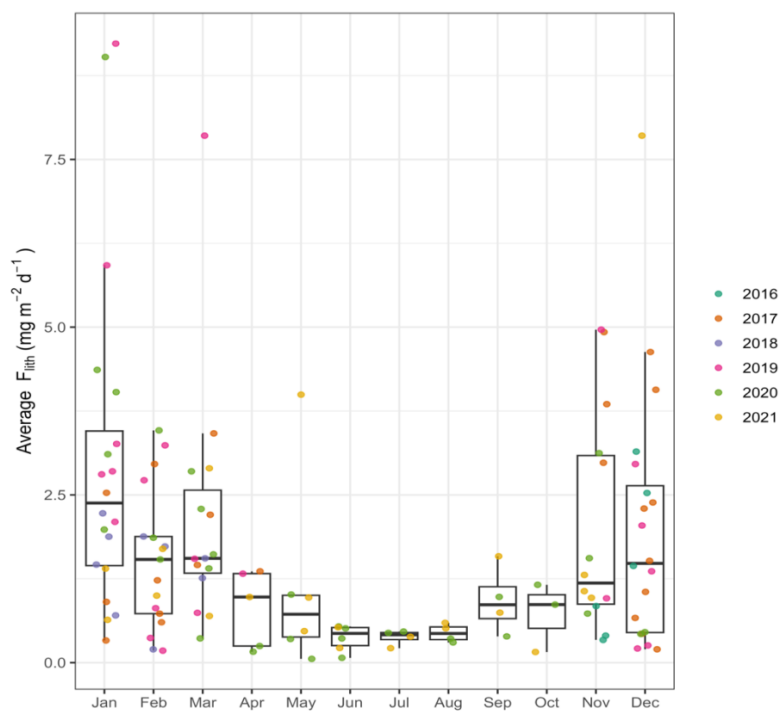
382 A mean  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  value of  $1.8 \pm 1.3 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  was calculated based on the analysis of aerosol samples  
383 collected between 2016 and 2021 at kunanyi/Mt Wellington (Tasmania, Figure 4 orange colour).  
384 Throughout our time series, the highest  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  values were observed in January 2019 and 2020,  
385 with flux peaks reaching 9.2 in January 2019 and 9.0  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in January 2020, respectively.  
386 Noticeable peak fluxes of 7.9  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  also occurred in early March 2019 and in mid-December  
387 2021. Extended periods of low  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  estimates ( $\leq 0.5 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) were observed during the two  
388 austral winter periods sampled, with a minimum flux of 0.06  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  reached in May 2020  
389 (Figure 4). There is therefore an apparent seasonal trend in dust deposited at the kunanyi/Mt  
390 Wellington site, with higher  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  observed in warmer periods (November - March) and lower  
391 fluxes in cooler periods of the year (May - August). It should be mentioned that a mean  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$   
392 value of  $2.7 \pm 1.9 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  is estimated when using the average metal content in Australian soil  
393 analyzed in this study (Figure 4 green colour). Indeed, while Th and Ti contained in our eleven  
394 Australian soil samples show similar concentrations (within 10%) as in the average UCC  
395 (McLennan, 2001), Al and Fe concentrations in these local soil samples differ by 52 and 35%,  
396 respectively. This result in higher  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  estimated using Australian soil data (Figure 4).

397 The mean  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  observed in this study, of 1.8  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  when using the average UCC and 2.7  
398  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  when using the average Australian soil measurement (Table S3), fall within the dust  
399 deposition range of 1.1 - 5.5  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  reported by models in southeastern Australia, which  
400 account for soil erodibility, soil particle size distribution and wind friction velocity (Albani et al.,  
401 2014; Weis et al., 2024). In the Southern Ocean south of Tasmania, smaller mineral dust fluxes of  
402 0.37  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  and 1.0  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  were reported based on aerosol Fe measurements at sea, particle  
403 size and surface wind speed (Bowie et al., 2009) and based on Al, Fe, Th and Ti measurements in  
404 marine sinking particles (Traill et al., 2022), respectively. Traill et al. (2022) reported a similar  
405 annual variability in lithogenic deposition flux at SOTS between 2011 and 2018, with minimum  
406  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  around 0.5  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in July-September and an earlier dust deposition peak (compared to  
407 our study) in November-December, up to 2.5  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ . Strzelec et al. (2020a) also reported (up  
408 to 6 times) higher mineral dust fluxes in warmer months compared to cooler months based on Ti  
409 analysis in aerosols from Western Australia. In particular, the two summer seasons showing  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$



410 over  $9.0 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  correspond to large bushfire seasons in Tasmania and in Australian mainland  
411 upwind from Tasmania, respectively (Perron et al., 2022). Indeed, fire events are known to  
412 exacerbate dust entrainment into the atmosphere both during (pyro convective updrafts) and post  
413 (burnt ground) fire event (Hamilton et al., 2022). It is worth noting that  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  estimated using  
414 Australian soil measurements (this study) fall closer to the mean reported estimate found in the  
415 literature while using the average UCC value result in lower-end  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  estimate compared to the  
416 literature. While  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  estimated using the average UCC may present an advantage in being more  
417 comparable with other studies worldwide,  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  estimated using Australian soil data may be more  
418 relevant for validating model outputs as it likely better represents true deposition fluxes in our  
419 study region.

420



421 **Figure 5.** Monthly  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  estimates, in  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ , based on lithogenic tracer analysis in aerosol samples  
422 collected between 2016-2021 at the kunanyi/Mt Wellington site. Individual (weekly) samples are shown as  
423 dots and the colour code represents each collection year. Whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile  
424 range (75<sup>th</sup> – 25<sup>th</sup> percentile) beyond the boxes, while the upper, middle, and lower horizontal lines of the



425 box represent the higher interquartile, median value and lower interquartile of the average monthly dataset,  
426 respectively.

427 Greatest  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  fluxes are annually observed during the austral summer (December - March),  
428 with median  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  of  $2.4 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in January and around  $1.4 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in December,  
429 February and March across all years (Figure 5). This tendency aligns with higher frequency of  
430 dust storms occurring in Australia's main geological basins during warmer months (late austral  
431 spring and summer), resulting in higher dust deposition fluxes (O'Loingsigh et al., 2017). The  
432 summers of 2017/2018 (Nov-Dec), 2018/19 (Jan-Feb) and 2019/20 (Dec-Feb) had especially  
433 high  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  fluxes compared to other summer periods in the time-series (Figure 5). These  
434 observations are consistent with the year 2017 being identified as the third driest year since  
435 records have been kept in Australia (Steffen et al., 2018), and the two following summer periods  
436 being identified as strong bushfire years, across Tasmania in 2018/2019, and across southeast  
437 Australia in 2019/2020 (Perron et al., 2022). Relatively smaller peaks were observed during the  
438 summer of 2020/21 and, to a lesser extent, during the 2016/17 summer (Figure 5). This may  
439 reflect two wetter summer periods under the influence of El Niño Southern Oscillation positive  
440 phase (La Niña), where increased moisture in the topsoil restricted particles from being eroded  
441 and entrained by air masses (Bureau of Meteorology, 2022). In addition, fewer bushfire  
442 emissions during these two wetter summer periods may have resulted in less dust emissions due  
443 to increased vegetation cover on the soil (Bureau of Meteorology, 2022). Wetter summer seasons  
444 may also explain a shift in  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  peaks towards the end of the summer seasons 2016/17 and  
445 2020/21 (February - March) compared to the December-January  $F_{\text{Lith(Av)}}$  peak observed in  
446 2017/18, 2018/19, and 2019/20 (Figure 5).

447

#### 448 4. Conclusions

449 This study explores seasonal and interannual variability of the lithogenic deposition flux using  
450 analysis of four lithogenic tracers (Al, Fe, Th, and Ti) in aerosol samples collected at kunanyi/Mt  
451 Wellington (Tasmania, Australia). First, enrichment factors close to 1 and elemental ratios similar  
452 to those measured in soil samples collected in Australia dust source regions enabled to confirm the  
453 crustal origin of all four tracers. Deposition fluxes,  $F_{\text{Lith(X)}}$ , which were then calculated using each  
454 tracer individually (X : Al, Fe, Th, or Ti) showed highly similar variability between one another



455 throughout the 2016-2021 time series. The small difference, of a factor 2 on average, observed  
456 between the highest  $F_{\text{Lith}(X)}$  (Fe as a lithogenic tracer) and the lowest  $F_{\text{Lith}(X)}$  (Th as a lithogenic  
457 tracer) estimates supported the development of an averaged lithogenic deposition flux,  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$ . The  
458 use of such multi-tracer dust deposition flux estimate was deemed more robust to account for  
459 variability of individual tracers in aerosols.

460 When using the average UCC metal composition, mean  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  of  $1.8 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  calculated in this  
461 study across the 2016-2021 time-series is consistent with earlier lithogenic deposition fluxes  
462 reported in the literature. Dust peaks were consistently observed during the austral summer  
463 (December to February), reaching fluxes up to  $9.2 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  and low  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  fluxes down to  $0.06$   
464  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  were estimated in the wintertime. Overall, individual year  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  fluxes also aligned  
465 with the occurrence of known dust and bushfire events in the summertime as well as other global  
466 meteorological events such as El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO).

467  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  estimated using Al, Fe, Th and Ti content in the average UCC may present an advantage in  
468 being more comparable with other studies worldwide. However, our  $F_{\text{LithAv}}$  estimates ( $0.09 - 13.4$   
469  $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) using Australian soil data as a crustal reference showed better agreement with mean  
470 lithogenic fluxes reported by global modelling studies. Therefore, dust deposition estimates  
471 calculated using local soil composition data are recommended for validating model outputs as they  
472 likely better represent true deposition fluxes for our study region.

473 Dust emissions and deposition remain poorly quantified in global atmospheric models (Ito et al.,  
474 2020). Therefore, our study reports precious field-based dust deposition flux estimates which are  
475 essential to better constrain and validate modelling outputs, especially for Southern Hemisphere  
476 dust sources (including Australia) which greatly vary in nature and composition. A wide range of  
477 sampling methods should be used, including sediment core, sediment trap and aerosol sample  
478 analysis, for which a multi-tracer approaches may be favoured when calculating lithogenic fluxes  
479 compared to a single tracer approach. Samples covering a wide geographical area as well as  
480 temporal (including time-series stations and winter period sampling) coverage are required to  
481 better constrain seasonal and interannual variability. Meteorological parameters, isotope analysis  
482 and modelling can also help better constrain the origin of lithogenic particles observed in field-  
483 based studies.

484



#### 485 **Author contributions**

486 A.R.B. was responsible for project conceptualisation, funding acquisition, resources and  
487 supervision. M.M.G.P. was responsible for part of the sample collection, sample processing, data  
488 interpretation, processing and curation as well as for manuscript drafting. S.M was responsible for  
489 part of the sample collection and analysis, and for laboratory supervision. T.H was responsible for  
490 data curation. C.N was responsible for the analysis of soil samples. C.H was responsible for part  
491 of the sample collection, sample processing, data curation and the original draft writing. A.T. was  
492 responsible for instrumental analysis. P.dC. was responsible for part of the sample collection and  
493 data curation. M.S. was responsible for part of the sample collection and sample processing. All  
494 authors were responsible for data interpretation and validation and reviewing and editing the  
495 manuscript.

496

#### 497 **Conflicts of interest**

498 There are no conflicts to declare.

499

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516

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518 Before the white settlement of lutruwita/Tasmania, kunanyi/Mount Wellington was a prominent  
519 feature in the lives of the Moomairremener people for thousands of years and continues to be. We  
520 pay our respects to elders' past, present and emerging and are thankful to have been able to study  
521 this region.

522

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