

1 Wet scavenging process of particulate matter (PM_{10}): A
2 multivariate complex network approach

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12 **Abstract**

13 This paper reports the results of research on PM_{10} wet scavenging by
14 rainfall using a new multilayer complex networks called Multiplex Visibility
15 Graphs (MVG). To the best of our knowledge, this work is the first to assess
16 PM_{10} wet deposition using multivariate time series according to African
17 dust seasonality. We considered 11 years of daily PM_{10} and rainfall data
18 from the Guadeloupe archipelago. To analyse the impact of rainfall on PM_{10}
19 behaviour, two MVG parameters were computed: the average edge overlap
20 (ω) and the interlayer mutual information ($I_{PM_{10}Rainfall}$). On the 1-d scale,
21 the ω results showed that the wet scavenging process was higher during the
22 second half of the year when the high dust season and the rainy season are
23 juxtaposed. This highlights a greater correlation between the microscopic
24 structure of the signal, and the impact of rainfall on PM_{10} concentrations
25 is more significant when the atmosphere is loaded with dust. The joint
26 probability computed between the PM_{10} and rainfall nodes confirmed this
27 trend. The $I_{PM_{10}Rainfall}$ results indicated a correlation between PM_{10} and

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28 rainfall structures throughout the year. Furthermore, $I_{PM_{10}Rainfall}$ values
29 were higher during the transition periods between winter and summer (and
30 vice versa). Our study showed that MVG is a powerful technique for inves-
31 tigating the relationship between at least two nonlinear time series using a
32 multivariate time series.

33 *Keywords:* PM_{10} , Wet scavenging, Multiplex visibility graphs, Complex
34 networks, Caribbean area

35 1. Introduction

36 In geoscience, precipitation is a key component of the water cycle (Schnei-
37 der et al., 2014) and of atmospheric circulation (Kidd and Huffman, 2011).
38 In recent decades, the removal of atmospheric Particulate Matter (PM) by
39 falling precipitation has greatly interested the scientific community (González
40 and Aristizábal, 2012; Ouyang et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2018). This phe-
41 nomenon, which can occur through liquid (rain) and solid (snow) forms of
42 precipitation, is called “wet deposition” (Kim et al., 2012; Singh et al., 2016).
43 Numerous studies have shown that wet scavenging of PM by rainfall is one
44 of the primary precipitation processes for wet deposition (Laouali et al.,
45 2012; Tiwari et al., 2012; Yoo et al., 2014; Singh et al., 2016; Olszowski,
46 2017; Wu et al., 2018; McClintock et al., 2019). Raindrops falling through
47 the air column, bump into and collect air particles. Raindrops approach the
48 particles, apply a force via the air as a medium, and change trajectory (Son-
49 wani and Kulshrestha, 2019). The collision between the raindrops and the
50 PM is conditioned by size and relative location (Olszowski, 2017). The two
51 primary wet scavenging mechanisms related to rainfall are rainout (in-cloud
52 scavenging) and washout (below-cloud scavenging) (Dallarosa et al., 2005;
53 Tombette et al., 2009; Sonwani and Kulshrestha, 2019). Studies have shown

54 that **wet scavenging** can remove 30% of the aerosols from the troposphere
55 (Murakami et al., 1983; Schumann, 1989).

56 Over the past decades, two types of *PM* have received special attention
57 due to their health impact: fine particles (particulate diameter $< 2.5 \mu\text{m}$,
58 $PM_{2.5}$) and coarse particles (particles with diameters between 2.5 and 10
59 μm , $PM_{10-2.5}$) (Bayraktar et al., 2010; Plocoste and Calif, 2019). Epidemi-
60 ological studies reveal that short- and long-term exposure to high concen-
61 trations of $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} can cause human health problems (Weinmayr
62 et al., 2010; Atkinson et al., 2014; Lu et al., 2015). The authors focused on
63 PM_{10} , which also strongly impacts climate (Plocoste and Pavón-Domínguez,
64 2020b; Plocoste et al., 2020a).

65 In the Caribbean, air quality is frequently degraded by African dust
66 (Euphrasie-Clotilde et al., 2020). Dust haze episodes primarily occur dur-
67 ing summer (Petit et al., 2005; Prospero et al., 2014). **Many studies present**
68 **the processes that allow the transport of dust over the Atlantic Ocean** (Perry
69 et al., 1997; Prospero, 1999; Prospero and Lamb, 2003; Engelstaedter et al.,
70 2006; Kumar et al., 2014; Euphrasie-Clotilde et al., 2020). **As the wet scav-**
71 **enging of PM_{10} is a standard indicator of air quality in a given area, the**
72 **aim of this study was to investigate the wet scavenging process of PM_{10} by**
73 **rainfall in the Caribbean Basin. Additionally, we aim to determine whether**
74 **there is a link between wet scavenging efficiency and African dust seasonal-**
75 **ity.**

76 A newly developed method termed Multiplex Visibility Graph (MVG)
77 was used to perform this study (Lacasa et al., 2015). **The methodology is**
78 **based on a previous technique called Visibility Graph (VG), first introduced**
79 **by Lacasa et al. (2008). The main idea is to transform a time series into a**
80 **complex network, which can later be analysed, and to preserve some of the**

81 original information. Most of the variants of this method focus on analysis
82 of a single time series (Luque et al., 2009; Lan et al., 2015; Carmona-Cabezas
83 et al., 2019b; Iacovacci and Lacasa, 2019) and have been applied to applica-
84 tions related to univariate time series (Mali et al., 2018; Carmona-Cabezas
85 et al., 2019a; Plocoste et al., 2021b). However, owing to their stochastic
86 properties, atmospheric processes are frequently related to numerous de-
87 grees of freedom; that is, their behaviour is governed by a multivariate time
88 series. To overcome this drawback, the MVG technique applies the visibility
89 approach to examine nonlinear multivariate time series (Lacasa et al., 2015).
90 After transforming the time series into complex networks, the results were
91 used to build a multi-layered structure that could be analysed. Owing to
92 recent advances in the theory of multilayer networks (Bianconi, 2013; Kivela
93 et al., 2014; Battiston et al., 2014; Lacasa et al., 2015), additional informa-
94 tion can be retrieved from the original multivariate time series. To the best
95 of our knowledge, no study has yet investigated PM_{10} wet scavenging using
96 a multivariate time series. Here, 11 years of daily PM_{10} and rainfall data
97 from the Guadeloupe archipelago were analysed.

98 2. Site and data collection

99 The Guadeloupe archipelago (16.25°N –61.58°W) is a French overseas
100 region located in the central Caribbean Basin (Plocoste et al., 2019). The
101 small territory ($\sim 1,800 \text{ km}^2$; 390,250 inhabitants) has an insular tropical
102 climate with meteorological characteristics that vary by location due to mi-
103 croclimates (Bertin and Frangi, 2013). According to the Köppen-Geiger
104 climate classification (Peel et al., 2007), Guadeloupe is in the “Af (tropical
105 rainforest)” category.

106 For this study, time series of Particulate Matter (PM_{10}) and rainfall were
107 used. Hourly PM_{10} data were provided by Gwad’Air Agency (<http://www.gwadair.fr/>),
108 which manages the Guadeloupe air quality network. PM_{10} concentrations
109 were measured using the Thermo Scientific Tapered Element Oscillating Mi-
110 crobalance (TEOM) models 1400ab and 1400-FDMS. From 2005 to 2017,
111 the air quality network-principally located at the centre of the island-has
112 only one PM_{10} sensor at Pointe-à-Pitre (16.2422°N 61.5414°W) from 2005
113 to 2012 and at Baie-Mahault (16.2561°N 61.5903°W) since 2015. Because of
114 the proximity between the air quality stations (~ 5.5 km), PM_{10} measure-
115 ments were performed under the same environmental conditions. Rainfall
116 measurements were made by Météo France at the international airport of
117 Pôle Caraïbes at Abymes (16.2630°N 61.5147°W) using a *Precis-Mecanique*
118 3070. As with the PM_{10} time series, the Météo France observations are an
119 hourly rainfall time series. Both measurements were made in the insular
120 continental regime (Plocoste et al., 2018; Plocoste and Pavón-Domínguez,
121 2020a). To assess the possible wet scavenging phenomenon over an entire
122 day, hourly PM_{10} data were converted into daily average values, whereas
123 rainfall data were converted into daily average and daily sum values. By
124 computing the Pearson correlation coefficient between the daily average
125 PM_{10} and the daily rainfall data (sum then average), the same result was
126 obtained ($R = -0.14$). Many studies demonstrate the cumulative effect of
127 rainfall on atmospheric processes (Winstanley, 1973; Johnson and Ciesiel-
128 ski, 2000). In addition, to account for hours with and without rainfall (0
129 mm) in a day, the authors favoured the sum over the average for the stochas-
130 tic analysis. Thus, 11 years of simultaneous measurements between the daily
131 average PM_{10} and the daily sum of rainfall were available for this study (a
132 total of 3,849 points per time series). Figure 1 shows the sequence of the

133 analysed time series. A slight lag appears to exist between the groups of
134 peaks.

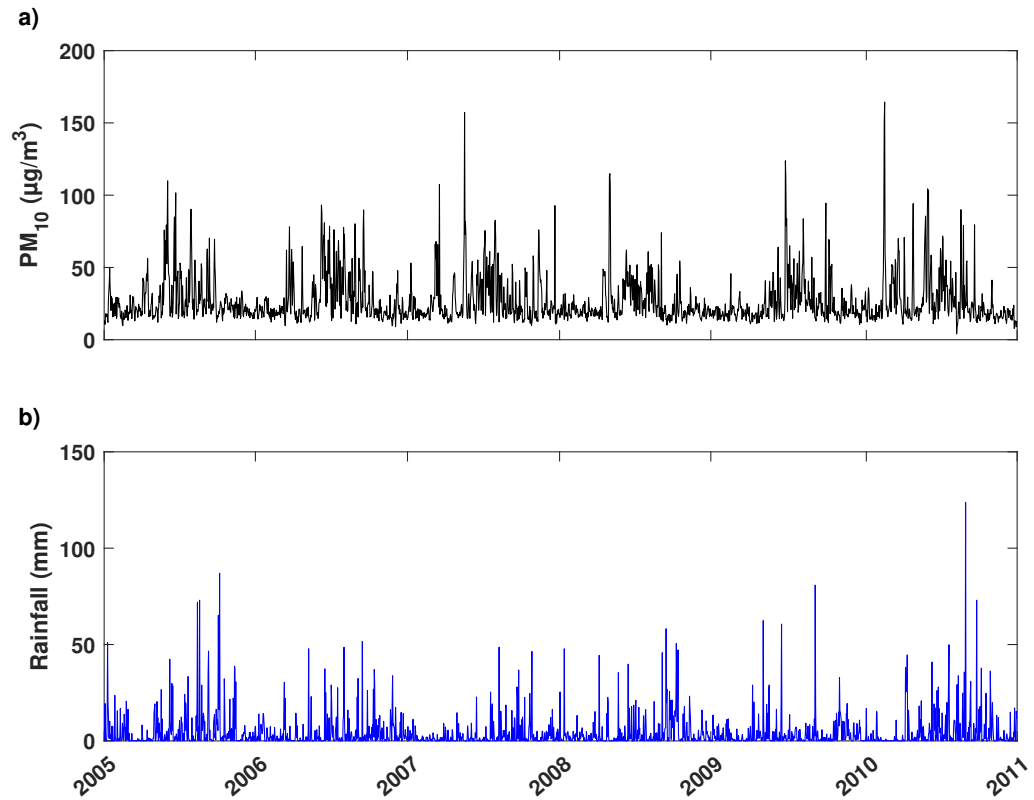


Figure 1: Illustration of simultaneous measurement sequences between (a) daily average PM_{10} concentrations and (b) the daily sum of rainfall between 2005 and 2011.

135 **3. Theoretical framework**

136 *3.1. Visibility graphs*

137 A graph is a mathematical object composed of a set of vertices (or nodes)
138 which are connected by a set of lines or edges. A relatively recent tool
139 called Visibility Graph (VG) allows the transformation of two-dimensional

140 sets of points into graphs or networks (Lacasa et al., 2008). VG has great
141 applicability for time series analysis and produces networks that inherit
142 many of the properties of the original time series (Lacasa and Toral, 2010).

143 The points in the time series correspond to the nodes in the graph. The
144 edges of the graph (which connect nodes) are selected by checking which
145 pairs of points meet the visibility criterion, which is as follows: two points
146 from the time series (t_a, y_a) and (t_b, y_b) are connected only if any other point
147 (t_c, y_c) located between them ($t_a < t_c < t_b$) fulfils the following relationship
148 (Lacasa et al., 2008):

$$y_c < y_a + (y_b - y_a) \frac{t_c - t_a}{t_b - t_a} \quad (1)$$

149 To construct the graph, this algorithm was applied to every pair of points
150 in the signal. Two consecutive nodes are always connected, because there
151 are no intermediate points.

152 A graph is commonly expressed via its adjacency matrix, whose rows
153 store the information of each node. If an element a_{ij} is equal to 1, nodes i
154 and j are connected, the opposite is true if a_{ij} is equal to 0. In the case of a
155 time series with N points, the resulting VG is represented by an N×N adja-
156 cency matrix, which has special properties that facilitate computation; the
157 adjacency matrix is symmetric ($a_{ij} = a_{ji}$) and hollow ($a_{ii} = 0$); additionally,
158 all the nearest neighbours are visible to one other ($a_{ij} = 1$ for $j = i \pm 1$).
159 In general, the adjacency matrix has the following form (Carmona-Cabezas

160 [et al., 2019a](#)):

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & \cdots & a_{1,N} \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & \vdots \\ \vdots & 1 & \ddots & 1 \\ a_{N,1} & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2)$$

161 3.2. Degree centrality

162 Degree is the most commonly used of the principal properties that can be
163 studied from a graph and one of the centrality parameters used to measure
164 the importance of different nodes in the graph with relation to the rest of
165 them, using different criteria ([Latora et al., 2017](#)). The degree of a node (k_i)
166 measures (in an undirected graph) the number of nodes that are reciprocally
167 connected to a given node. By considering the adjacency matrix, the degree
168 can be computed as $k_i = \sum_j a_{ij}$.

169 Once the degree of every point is computed, a degree probability dis-
170 tribution $P(k)$ can be obtained for the graph (here, VG). $P(k)$ accounts
171 for the probability of having each value of degree in the graph. To obtain
172 information on the nature of the series, the degree distribution is analysed
173 ([Lacasa et al., 2008](#); [Mali et al., 2018](#); [Pierini et al., 2012](#)). If the right tail of
174 the degree distribution (for high values of degree) can be fitted by a power
175 law such as $P(k) \propto k^{-\gamma}$, the time series has a fractal nature ([Lacasa et al.,](#)
176 [2008](#)). This part of the distribution is related to the hubs (nodes with the
177 highest degrees), which are, by definition, rare in a graph. The exponent in
178 the power law is the coefficient, which is related to the Hurst exponent in
179 series related to Brownian motion ([Lacasa et al., 2009](#)).

180 3.3. *Multiplex visibility graph*

181 Another application of VGs in the context of multivariate analysis, is
182 the use of multi-layered networks. This methodology was recently intro-
183 duced as *Multiplex Visibility Graph (MVG)* (Lacasa et al., 2015). The
184 main idea behind MVG is to build each of the layers M with VGs from
185 the different variables of the study. Therefore, as VG is represented by its
186 adjacency matrix, so MVG is identified by a vector of adjacency matrices
187 $\Omega = \{A^{[1]}, A^{[2]}, \dots, A^{[M]}\}$. In the last expression, $A^{[\alpha]}$ corresponds to the VG
188 adjacency matrix of the VG in the α -dimension (or layer in the multiplex),
189 which comes from the α variable of the multivariate time series (see Figure 2,
190 where PM_{10} and rainfall sample time series are transformed for illustrative
191 purposes).

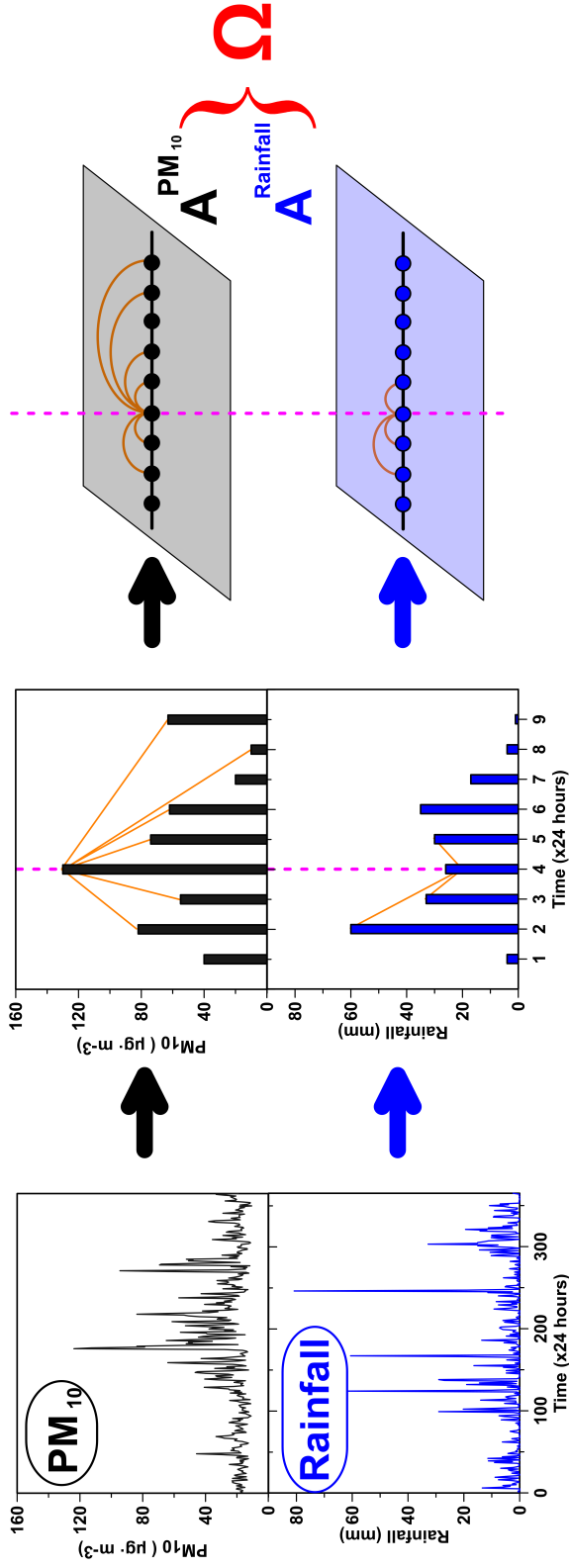


Figure 2: PM_{10} and rainfall time series (left) are converted into complex networks with the VG algorithm (centre), which is described by an adjacency matrix ($A^{PM_{10}}$ and $A^{Rain.fall}$). Then, both are combined to design a two-layered MVG, called Ω (right image).

192 After construction, MVG is analysed to obtain information regarding the
 193 system of the time series. The two measures used for such purposes (Nicosia
 194 and Latora, 2015) and chosen for this work are *Average Edge Overlap* (ω)
 195 and *Interlayer Mutual Information* ($I_{\alpha,\beta}$). ω averages the number of layers
 196 on which a given edge between a pair of nodes can be found. $I_{\alpha,\beta}$ measure
 197 the correlations between the degree distributions of the given layers α and
 198 β . In this study, the layers correspond to daily PM_{10} concentrations and
 199 total rainfall.

200 **The computation is relatively straightforward after** the MVG and degree
 201 distributions of each layer are obtained. Equation 3 shows the formula to
 202 compute the ω of a given MVG (Lacasa et al., 2015):

$$\omega = \frac{\sum_i \sum_{j>i} \sum_{\alpha} a_{ij}^{[\alpha]}}{M \sum_i \sum_{j>i} \left(1 - \delta_{0, \sum_{\alpha} a_{ij}^{[\alpha]}}\right)} \quad (3)$$

203

204 All quantities were previously defined in the text; $\delta_{0, \sum_{\alpha} a_{ij}^{[\alpha]}}$ corresponds to
 205 a Kronecker delta, which is 1 when $\sum_{\alpha} a_{ij}^{[\alpha]}$ is null, and otherwise 0. The
 206 maximum value of $\omega = 1$ indicates that all the layers and, therefore, the time
 207 series are identical. Conversely, the minimum possible value of $\omega = 1/M$
 208 indicates that every edge in the MVG can be found only in a singular layer.
 209 Overall, this quantity provides an idea of the expected number of layers on
 210 which an edge can be found. In addition, a high ω value indicates a high
 211 correlation in the microscopic structure of the signal (Lacasa et al., 2015).

212 Additionally, $I_{\alpha,\beta}$ is defined in Equation 4 (Lacasa et al., 2015):

$$I_{\alpha,\beta} = \sum_{k^{[\alpha]}} \sum_{k^{[\beta]}} P(k^{[\alpha]}, k^{[\beta]}) \log \frac{P(k^{[\alpha]}, k^{[\beta]})}{P(k^{[\alpha]})P(k^{[\beta]})} \quad (4)$$

213

214 where $P(k^{[\alpha]}, k^{[\beta]})$ is the joint probability of having a degree of $k^{[\alpha]}$ in layers
215 α and $k^{[\beta]}$ in layer β that can be obtained using the following formula:

$$P(k^{[\alpha]}, k^{[\beta]}) = \frac{N_{k^{[\alpha]}, k^{[\beta]}}}{N} \quad (5)$$

216 where $N_{k^{[\alpha]}, k^{[\beta]}}$ is the number of nodes with a degree of $k^{[\alpha]}$ in layer α
217 and $k^{[\beta]}$ in layer β ; $N_{k^{[\alpha]}, k^{[\beta]}}$ is divided by N , which is the total number of
218 nodes or points in the time series.

219 4. Results and Discussion

220 4.1. Preliminary analysis

221 We conducted a preliminary analysis to investigate PM_{10} and rainfall
222 seasonality throughout the year. **Figure 3 illustrates the monthly average**
223 **PM_{10} concentrations and the monthly summation of rainfall data over 11-y**
224 **period.** Seasonality is observed in both curves, with a high dust season from
225 May to September (Plocoste and Pavón-Domínguez, 2020b) and a rainy
226 season from July to November (Bertin and Frangi, 2013). Van der Does
227 et al. (2020) observed the same behaviour for both parameters in Barbados.
228 The Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) dynamics throughout the year
229 play a key role in these seasonal behaviours. In summer, the activation of
230 dust sources from the Saharan and Sahelian deserts coupled with the up-
231 ward northward movement of the ITCZ (10 – 20°N) (Moulin et al., 1997;
232 Adams et al., 2012; Euphrasie-Clotilde et al., 2020) allows the transport of
233 dust plumes from the African coast to the Caribbean area (Petit et al., 2005;
234 Prospero et al., 2014; Euphrasie-Clotilde et al., 2021). **According to a statis-**
235 **tical study lasting over a decade (Plocoste et al., 2020b), average PM_{10} and**
236 **kurtosis are 1.5 times higher and 5.5 times lower during the high dust season,**

237 respectively, due to the recurrence of dust plumes compared with the low
238 dust season. From October to April, PM_{10} concentrations are primarily re-
239 lated to marine aerosols (Clergue et al., 2015; Rastelli et al., 2017), because
240 of the insular context of the Guadeloupe archipelago. These aerosols are
241 advected by trade winds which blow continuously from east to west across
242 the Atlantic Ocean (Plocoste et al., 2014; Plocoste and Pavón-Domínguez,
243 2020a). Consequently, the contribution of marine aerosols to PM_{10} con-
244 centrations remains constant throughout the year. Figure 3 shows that the
245 standard deviations exhibit their lowest values from October to April. Thus,
246 marine aerosols are one of the primary constituents of the PM_{10} background
247 atmosphere (Plocoste et al., 2021a). The ITCZ movement toward the north
248 generates precipitation carried by trade winds during the boreal summer
249 (the rainy season) (Giannini et al., 2000; Muñoz et al., 2008). During the
250 boreal winter (mid-January to March), the ITCZ awakens the Azores anti-
251 cyclone due to its southerly movement, which reduces cloud generation (the
252 dry season) (Bertin and Frangi, 2013).

253 4.2. Degree distribution

254 4.2.1. Overall analysis

255 Before performing a profound analysis of the impact of rainfall on PM_{10}
256 concentrations in the MVG frame, both time series were analysed sepa-
257 rately in the VG frame. The classical first approach is to study the degree
258 distribution $P(k)$ of each time series. Figure 4(a) and 4(b) show the degree
259 distributions obtained for the PM_{10} and rainfall time series over the 11-y
260 period, respectively. Both plots highlight the fractal nature of the time se-
261 ries. The tail region of $P(k)$ in the log-log plot can be fitted by a power
262 law, such as $P(k) \propto k^{-\gamma}$, where $\gamma_{PM_{10}}$ and $\gamma_{rainfall}$ equal 3.11, and 2.84,

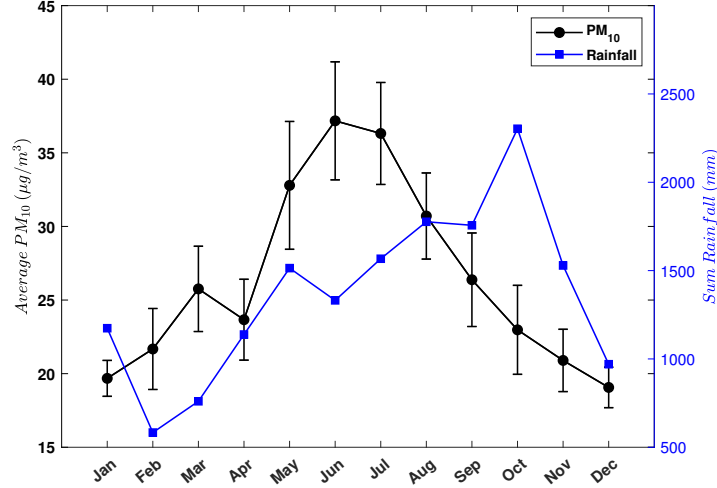


Figure 3: Monthly conditional average of PM_{10} and rainfall time series over the 11-y period; here, a representative year for one decade. The whiskers depict the standard deviations.

263 respectively. In the literature, the fractal nature of the PM_{10} (Dong et al.,
 264 2017; Nikolopoulos et al., 2019; Plocoste et al., 2021b) and rainfall (Olsson
 265 et al., 1993; Breslin and Belward, 1999; Maskey et al., 2016) data has been
 266 observed.

267 To assess the behaviour of the highest degree (so-called hubs), the time
 268 series values versus their degrees (v-k plot) were analysed for each parameter
 269 as introduced by Pierini et al. (2012). Figure 4(c) and 4(d) illustrate the v-k
 270 plot for the PM_{10} and rainfall data, respectively. In both cases, the hubs
 271 were related to the highest values of each time series. Carmona-Cabezas
 272 et al. (2019a) found the same tendency for hubs of a tropospheric ozone
 273 time series in Cadiz, Spain. The value of precipitation has an almost linear
 274 relationship to the degree of rainfall. Thus, the degree of the rainfall nodes
 275 can be used to identify both high and low rainfall values. In addition, the

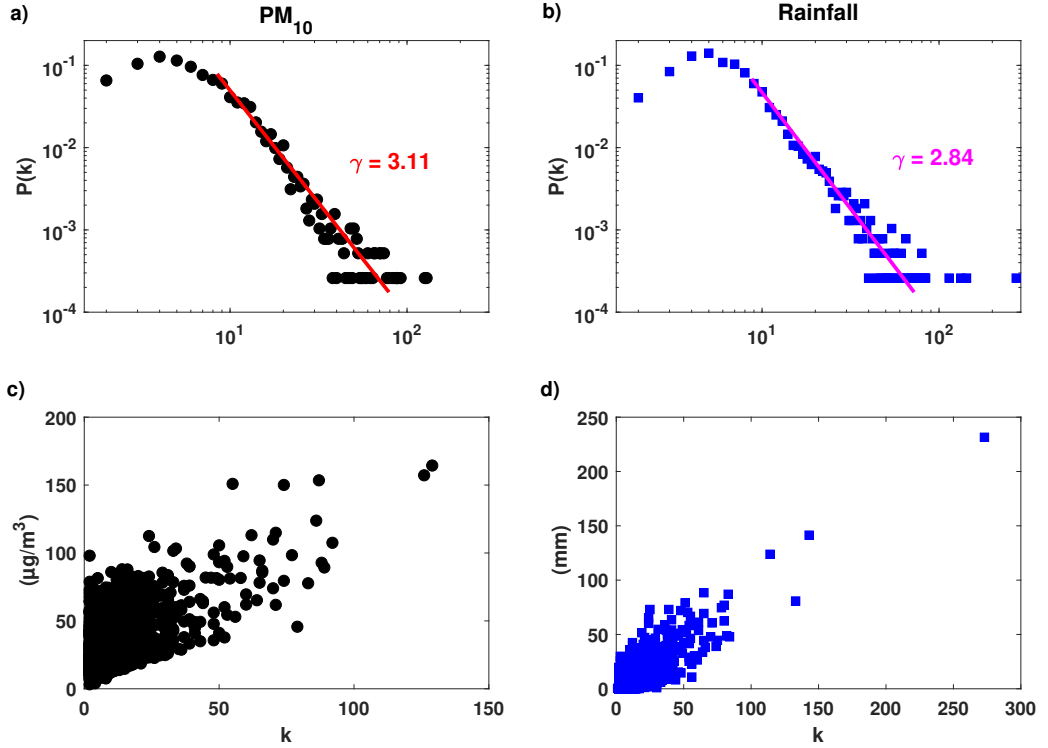


Figure 4: At the top, degree distribution of the visibility graph for (a) PM_{10} and (b) rainfall in a log-log plot for all the data. At the bottom, the relationship between the time series values and their degrees in (c) PM_{10} and (d) rainfall.

276 PM_{10} dot distribution appears more heterogeneous, because of the wide
 277 annual variability of African dust haze (Plocoste et al., 2017, 2020a).

278 4.2.2. Monthly analysis

279 We use the first centrality measure (degree centrality) to study the im-
 280 portance of the node for PM_{10} and rainfall throughout the year (Carmona-
 281 Cabezas et al., 2019a). Figure 5(a) and 5(b) highlight the monthly behaviour
 282 of the average degree and standard deviation from the degree distribution of

283 the PM_{10} and rainfall time series. A trend merged in both curves. The decay
284 of PM_{10} hubs begins at the onset of the high dust season (May–September)
285 (Plocoste and Pavón-Domínguez, 2020b; Plocoste et al., 2021b); the decay
286 for rainfall hubs begins at the onset of the hurricane season (June–October)
287 (Tartaglione et al., 2003; Dunion, 2011) in the Caribbean Basin. Figure 3
288 shows that the monthly behaviour of PM_{10} and rainfall over the period of a
289 decade confirms this trend, increases in PM_{10} and rainfall begin in May and
290 June, respectively. The above-mentioned results show the impact of season-
291 ality on node distribution and highlight that the VG frame is sensitive to
292 time-series behaviour.

293 4.3. Multiplex visibility graph

294 After performing the analysis of the PM_{10} and rainfall univariate time
295 series in the VG frame (i.e., transformation of the time series into a complex
296 network), both complex networks were combined to design a two-layered
297 multivariate network. Here, we investigate the wet scavenging process of
298 PM_{10} by rainfall. The authors focused on two approaches, which demon-
299 strate the abundance of single edges across layers (average edge overlap)
300 and the presence of interlayer correlations of the node degrees (interlayer
301 mutual information) (Lacasa et al., 2015; Nicosia and Latora, 2015). The
302 first approach measures the overall coherence in the multivariate time series,
303 and the second evaluates structural correlation.

304 4.3.1. Average edge overlap analysis

305 Figure 6 illustrates the monthly average edge overlap values (ω) and
306 their standard deviations over the 11-y period. $\omega > 1/M$ and $\omega < 1$; thus,
307 the two layers are different, and edges can be found in both layers. These

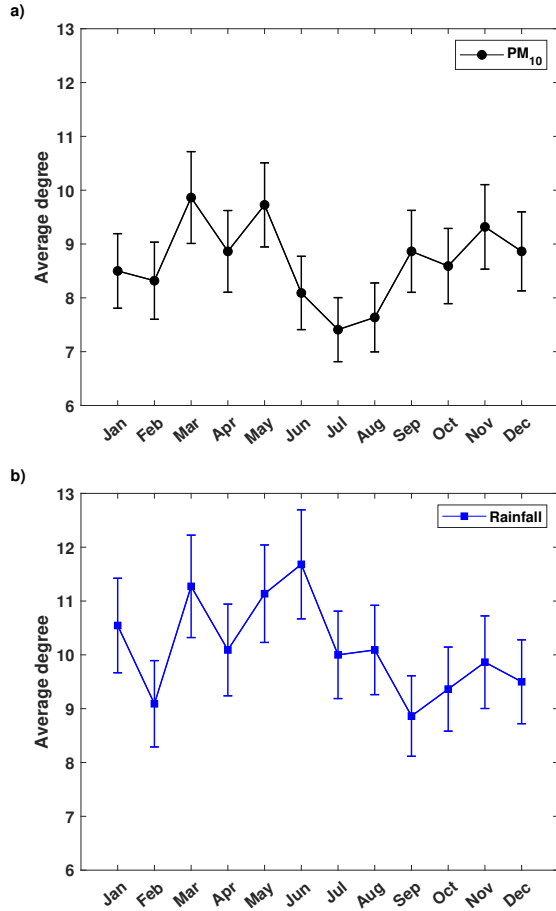


Figure 5: Computed average degree and standard deviation from the degree distribution of each month over the 11-y period for (a) PM_{10} and (b) rainfall. Each monthly value is the average of the computed 11-y values.

308 two criteria prove that there is an interaction between PM_{10} and rainfall in
 309 the MVG frame. ω is a sensitive parameter with small variations (increases
 310 and decreases) (Lacasa et al., 2015). Here, ω was almost constant from Jan-
 311 uary to June. ω values are higher from July to December and peaked in
 312 September, indicating a greater correlation in the microscopic structure of
 313 the signal (Lacasa et al., 2015; Carmona-Cabezas et al., 2020) that repre-

314 sents interaction on the order of 1-d, which is the minimum time resolution.
315 Therefore, at the 1-d scale, the wet scavenging process of PM_{10} by rainfall is
316 more significant during the last six months of the year. A 20-y precipitation
317 study in the Luquillo Mountains of Puerto Rico [McClintock et al. \(2019\)](#)
318 also found a summer maximum in wet dust deposition. Physically, these
319 findings make sense, as the summer corresponds to the high dust ([Plocoste](#)
320 [and Pavón-Domínguez, 2020b](#)) and rainy ([Bertin and Frangi, 2013](#)) seasons
321 in the Caribbean Basin. The atmosphere is loaded with dust, and the im-
322 pact of rainfall on PM_{10} is greater. [Tiwari et al. \(2012\)](#) observed that low
323 PM_{10} concentrations in New Delhi occurred during the monsoon (August-
324 September) season due to the washout phenomenon. A 10-y study of air
325 pollutants (PM_{10} , CO , NO_2 , SO_2 , and O_3) and precipitation over South
326 Korea highlighted that PM_{10} is most effectively scavenged by summertime
327 rainfall due to its particulate nature ([Yoo et al., 2014](#)). Because of data
328 availability, determining which wet scavenging process (rainout or washout)
329 is more efficient is difficult ([Pillai et al., 2002](#); [Tombette et al., 2009](#); [Bayrak-](#)
330 [tar et al., 2010](#)). According to [Sonwani and Kulshrestha \(2019\)](#), the level
331 of aerosols in and under clouds at the time of precipitation is crucial, as it
332 determines **whether both phenomena occur simultaneously**.

333 During the high dust season, the wet scavenging phenomenon naturally
334 reduces PM_{10} concentrations in the atmosphere. Due to the impact on res-
335 piratory and cardiovascular diseases, diminishing PM_{10} concentrations after
336 dust outbreaks is crucial ([Gurung et al., 2017](#); [Zhang et al., 2017](#); [Momtazan](#)
337 [et al., 2019](#); [Feng et al., 2019](#)). African Easterly Waves (AEWs) ([Prospero](#)
338 [and Carlson, 1981](#); [Plocoste et al., 2021a](#)), which precede and follow the
339 dust plumes, are the principal generator of precipitation during the high
340 dust period ([Dominguez et al., 2020](#)) and regulate PM_{10} concentrations in

341 the Caribbean area.

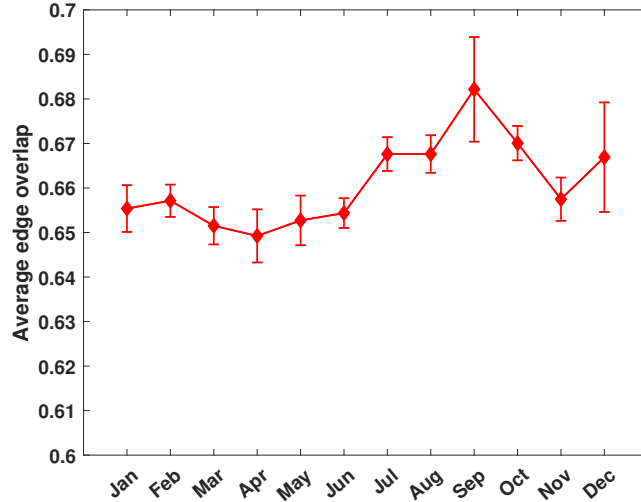


Figure 6: 11-y monthly average edge overlap values (ω) and their standard deviations.

342 4.3.2. Interlayer mutual information analysis

343 The relationship between PM_{10} concentrations and rainfall can also be
 344 determined by studying the node distribution in the MVG layers. Equa-
 345 tion 4 shows that the joint probability between the PM_{10} and rainfall nodes
 346 ($P(k^{[PM_{10}]}, k^{[Rainfall]})$) is a building block of the interlayer mutual informa-
 347 tion ($I_{PM_{10}, Rainfall}$). Thus, we first computed the joint probability before
 348 performing the interlayer mutual information analysis.

349 Figure 7(a) and 7(b) illustrate the quantity $P(k^{[PM_{10}]}, k^{[Rainfall]})$ for
 350 the low dust season (October to April) and the high dust season (May to
 351 September) for the 11-y period. In these Figures, the colours indicate the
 352 probability that a node in the MVG has a degree equal to $k^{PM_{10}}$ and $k^{Rainfall}$
 353 in the layers corresponding to PM_{10} and rainfall VG, respectively. Overall,
 354 the most likely combinations of k values were those below a value of 20. For

355 higher degrees ($k > 60$), $P(k^{[PM_{10}]}, k^{[Rainfall]})$ becomes less significant. The
 356 probability asymptotically approaches both the X and Y axes. According
 357 to Carmona-Cabezas et al. (2020), as the degree increases, the probability of
 358 finding $k^{PM_{10}}$ and $k^{Rainfall}$ with close values decreases exponentially. This
 359 demonstrates alternation between the hubs of the two time series. Due to
 360 the wet scavenging phenomenon, high daily values of PM_{10} and rainfall are
 361 less likely to occur on the same day. Figure 7(a-b) shows a difference in
 362 behaviour between both seasons. A concentration of probability is more
 363 pronounced in the high dust season (Figure 7(b)), and higher values in a
 364 low-degree area add red to the plot. In addition, the overall shape of the plot
 365 shrinks for the same period and has shorter tails. These results are consistent
 366 with those obtained for ω . The impact of rainfall on PM_{10} concentrations
 367 in the atmosphere more loaded with dust from May to September is more
 368 efficient because of a more significant wet scavenging phenomenon (Tiwari
 369 et al., 2012; Yoo et al., 2014).

370 Figure 7(c) shows the monthly $I_{PM_{10}, Rainfall}$ computed over the 11-y
 371 period. The interlayer mutual information, which provides an idea of the
 372 typical amount of information flow in the system (Lacasa et al., 2015), is
 373 directly related to the joint probability and also measures the correlation
 374 between degrees in the system. Thus, the interlayer mutual information
 375 may indicate the degree of correlation among the distributions and, hence,
 376 the behaviour of the two series. Because $I_{PM_{10}, Rainfall} > 1$, $k^{PM_{10}}$ and
 377 $k^{Rainfall}$ always have higher correlations in May ($I_{PM_{10}, Rainfall} = 1.25$), Au-
 378 gust ($I_{PM_{10}, Rainfall} = 1.14$) and November ($I_{PM_{10}, Rainfall} = 1.15$). A study
 379 in the Caribbean basin by Gouirand et al. (2020) showed that the averages
 380 transition dates from winter to summer and from summer to winter occurred
 381 on average 13 May (± 9 days) and 26 October (± 12 days), respectively.

382 These transition periods correspond to comparatively high $I_{PM_{10}, Rainfall}$ val-
383 ues. Due to the standard deviations, the winter to summer transition always
384 occurs in May, whereas the summer to winter transition can occur in Octo-
385 ber or November. This could explain why the May peak was much larger.
386 In addition, May corresponds to the beginning of the high dust season (Plo-
387 coste and Pavón-Domínguez, 2020b), whereas November corresponds to the
388 end of the rainy season (Bertin and Frangi, 2013). Therefore, these periods
389 feature strong inter-layer correlations between $k^{PM_{10}}$ and $k^{Rainfall}$.

390 5. Conclusion

391 In conclusion, our results clearly highlight the efficiency of multilayer
392 complex networks for tracking the correlations between particulate matter
393 (PM_{10}) and rainfall time series. The aim of this study was to investigate the
394 wet scavenging phenomenon of PM_{10} by rainfall in the Caribbean area using
395 MVGs. We highlighted the fractal nature of both time series and found that
396 the highest degrees (hubs) are related to the highest values in the VG frame.
397 The relationship between the values and degrees of PM_{10} is less homoge-
398 neous than that of rainfall due to annual intermittency. The monthly degree
399 centrality analysis indicated the seasonality of both time series. On the 1-d
400 scale, the average edge overlap (ω) monthly analysis highlighted the wet
401 scavenging process of PM_{10} by rainfall throughout the year. However, this
402 process seems to be more significant during the last six months of the year,
403 when the high dust and rainy seasons are juxtaposed. The joint probability
404 results between the PM_{10} and rainfall nodes according to African dust sea-
405 sonality confirmed the trend observed from the ω values. The atmosphere is
406 loaded with dust during the high dust season, and rainfall helps restore the

407 PM_{10} atmospheric balance. Thus, the overall coherence in the multivari-
408 ate time series was higher from July to December. The interlayer mutual
409 information ($I_{PM_{10}Rainfall}$) monthly analysis showed a correlation between
410 PM_{10} and rainfall structures throughout the year. $I_{PM_{10}Rainfall}$ values were
411 higher during the transition periods between winter and summer (and vice
412 versa) in the Caribbean Basin. We assume that the transition periods allow
413 the homogenisation of the multivariate time series before the usual trend
414 is resumed. To better quantify the impact of the wet scavenging process
415 on PM_{10} , a future analysis of rainwater chemistry (organic and elemental
416 carbon) related to rainfall intensity will be conducted.

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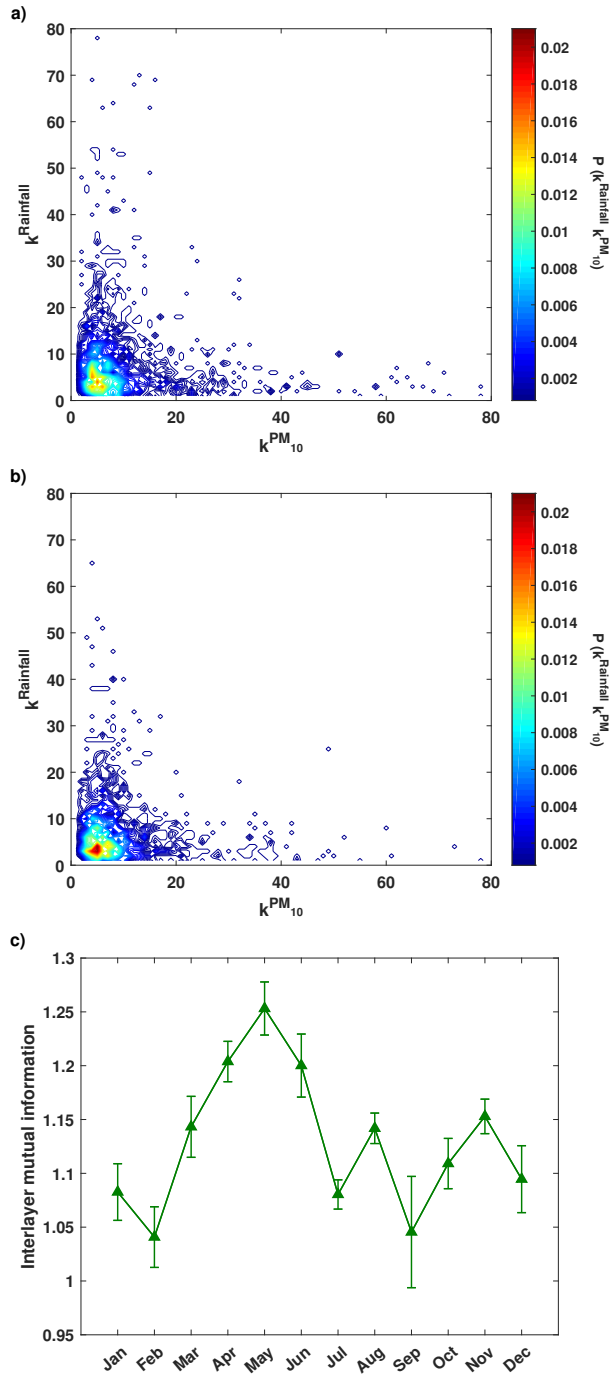


Figure 7: Illustration of the joint probability distribution of the degrees of both layers for (a) the low dust season (October to April) and (b) the high dust season (May to September) over an 11-y period. Each isoline shows the probability that the degree is precisely $k^{PM_{10}}$ and $k^{Rainfall}$ at the same time node in the VG frame; (c) monthly interlayer mutual information values ($I_{PM_{10}Rainfall}$) and their standard deviations computed over an 11-y period.

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Credit author statement

Thomas Plocoste: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Resources, Formal analysis, Data Curation, Visualization, Validation, Investigation, Project administration, Writing - original draft, Writing – review & editing.

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Highlights

Multiplex visibility graphs as a useful tool for PM₁₀ wet scavenging investigation

PM₁₀ and rainfall hubs linked to their highest values in visibility graph frame

Significant annual variation in wet deposition efficiency

Identification of winter-summer transition periods

