

Electrical lead time during an extreme haboob-like dust-front intrusion in Ica, Peru

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Abstract:

Extreme dust storms evolving on sub-hourly timescales challenge conventional air-quality monitoring systems, as particulate matter (PM) sensors require sufficient aerosol accumulation before threshold exceedance is detected. The operational capability of atmospheric potential gradient (PG) measurements to provide early warning during rapidly evolving frontal dust intrusions remains insufficiently quantified.

We evaluate PG detection latency during an unusually intense haboob-like dust outbreak that impacted Ica, Peru (14.07°S, 75.73°W), on 31 July 2025. Two ground-based stations separated by 13.6 km recorded PG and PM_{2.5} at minute-scale resolution. Frontal arrival times were independently constrained using GOES-19 ABI RGB imagery (10-min cadence) and 1-min ground-based cameras. Electrical detection was defined using objective seasonal baseline-departure criteria with multi-threshold persistence constraints.

PG exhibited an initial statistically significant deviation (2σ) at 12:25 LT, more than 100 minutes prior to local particulate enhancement. A conservative rapid-growth onset (5σ) occurred at 13:48 LT, preceding both the PM_{2.5} increase at the urban station by 24 minutes and the camera-defined frontal impact by approximately 23 minutes. The event displayed a pronounced bipolar electrical structure, with PG amplification immediately before particulate onset followed by a sub-minute polarity reversal during frontal passage.

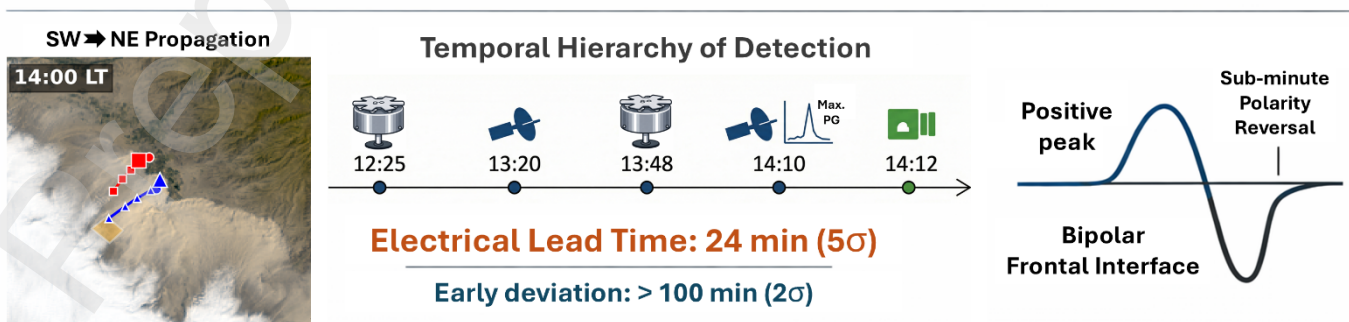
These results indicate that high-resolution PG monitoring captures organized boundary-layer electrification associated with density-current dust fronts and can extend actionable detection capability relative to mass-based aerosol sensors under extreme convective conditions.

Keywords:

Atmospheric electricity; potential gradient; dust storms; haboob; early warning

Graphical Abstract:

Electrical Lead Time During an Extreme Dust Front



33 Highlights:

- 34 • 24-min electrical lead time relative to $PM_{2.5}$ during haboob-like dust front.
- 35 • Independent multi-platform timing constraints (satellite, cameras, sensors).
- 36 • Sub-minute bipolar polarity reversal during frontal passage.
- 37 • Electrical restructuring preceded measurable PM by >100 minutes (2σ stage).

38 1. Introduction:

39 Extreme dust storms pose major challenges for atmospheric monitoring and early-warning systems,
40 particularly in arid and semi-arid regions where dust uplift can develop rapidly and with strong spatial
41 heterogeneity. Short-lived, high-intensity dust events are often insufficiently represented within monitoring
42 frameworks primarily designed around hourly or daily particulate matter (PM) reporting standards. Recent
43 analyses demonstrate that daily averages may underestimate peak PM_{10} concentrations by more than an
44 order of magnitude during sub-hourly convective dust outbreaks, thereby masking the true magnitude of
45 acute exposure (**Ardon-Dryer & Aziz, 2025; Bouet et al., 2019**). This limitation becomes especially critical
46 during haboob-like frontal intrusions, where abrupt transitions in aerosol loading and visibility occur on
47 timescales shorter than the temporal aggregation inherent to regulatory PM reporting practices (**Raman
48 et al., 2014**).

49
50 Dust lifting and transport processes are intrinsically electrified. Field observations spanning several
51 decades have documented large and rapid perturbations of the surface atmospheric electric field during
52 dust storms, with amplitudes comparable to or exceeding those associated with thunderstorm-related
53 disturbances (**Stow, 1969; Kamra, 1972; Harris, 1967**). More recent measurements have demonstrated
54 minute-scale fluctuations reaching several $kV\ m^{-1}$ during electrified dust events, closely associated with
55 wind intensification and particulate loading (**Yair et al., 2016**). Observations of dust devils further show
56 that vortex-induced charge separation can produce abrupt electric-field excursions exceeding typical fair-
57 weather variability (**Franzese et al., 2018**). These findings indicate that dust-induced space-charge
58 transport and conductivity modifications generate sharp electrical perturbations during rapidly evolving
59 events.

60
61 Under fair-weather conditions, the atmosphere sustains a persistent vertically directed electric field
62 maintained by the Global Atmospheric Electric Circuit, driven by worldwide thunderstorm activity (**Wilson,
63 1921; Rycroft et al., 2000**). At the surface, this field is commonly expressed as the atmospheric potential
64 gradient (PG), defined as $PG = -E_z$, where E_z is the vertical electric field taken as positive upward
65 (**Chalmers, 1954**). Over oceans, fair-weather PG values are relatively stable, typically on the order of 10^2
66 $V\ m^{-1}$, as established by the Carnegie expedition measurements (**Harrison, 2013**). Over continental
67 surfaces, however, PG is strongly modulated by boundary-layer processes including aerosol loading,
68 turbulent mixing, and local space-charge formation. During dust intrusions, both conductivity reduction and
69 advected space-charge layers may substantially perturb PG at the surface.

70
71 Despite extensive documentation of dust-induced electrical variability, the temporal relationship between
72 electrical disturbance and particulate-mass enhancement during extreme frontal dust events remains
73 insufficiently quantified. In particular, whether high-resolution PG monitoring can provide operationally
74 meaningful lead time relative to conventional PM sensors during haboob-like density-current intrusions
75 has not been systematically evaluated.

76
77 In the southern Peruvian coastal desert, Paracas dust storms constitute the dominant regional dust
78 phenomenon. These events are predominantly non-convective and are driven by strong alongshore
79 pressure gradients and synoptic-scale forcing associated with anticyclonic circulation over the
80 southeastern Pacific and northern Chile. Satellite analyses, reanalysis data, and trajectory modeling have
81 established the characteristic source regions, transport pathways, and meteorological drivers of Paracas

82 events (**Briceño-Zuluaga et al., 2017**). Complementary long-term ground-based measurements at Ica
83 demonstrate that typical Paracas storms are consistently recorded as marked negative PG disturbances
84 under well-defined wind regimes, associated with aerosol transport and dust electrification processes
85 (**Romero et al., 2024**). Together, these studies establish the characteristic synoptic forcing and recurrent
86 PG response associated with typical Paracas dust intrusions.

87
88 Despite this well-documented regime, published descriptions generally characterize Paracas events as
89 wind-driven dust intrusions with gradual inland transport rather than as sharply defined, vertically
90 organized frontal structures comparable to classical haboobs reported in other arid regions (**Briceño-
91 Zuluaga et al., 2017**). The established Paracas framework emphasizes synoptic forcing and pressure-
92 gradient enhancement over sharply defined dust walls exhibiting density-current-type morphology.
93 Whether the surface PG response under such structurally distinct dust-front intrusions departs from the
94 established Paracas electrical regime has not yet been explicitly examined.

95
96 On 31 July 2025, an unusually intense dust outbreak impacted the city of Ica, Peru. Satellite imagery
97 documented rapid inland expansion of a sharply defined advancing dust wall, and local observations
98 reported abrupt visibility reduction and strong winds. Independent regional reports also confirmed the
99 widespread extent of the outbreak (**NASA Earth Observatory, 2025; El Comercio, 2025**). The event
100 exhibited characteristics more consistent with a density-current-like frontal intrusion than with the gradual
101 dust enhancement typical of canonical Paracas storms. This outbreak therefore provides a natural stress-
102 test case to evaluate the performance of PG monitoring under extreme and dynamically organized dust
103 conditions.

104
105 In this study, we assess the operational viability of PG measurements as an early-response indicator
106 during this extreme dust intrusion. Two ground-based stations separated by 13.6 km recorded PG and
107 $PM_{2.5}$ at minute-scale resolution. Satellite RGB imagery from the Geostationary Operational
108 Environmental Satellites (GOES-19) Advanced Baseline Imager (ABI), providing full-disk coverage at 10-
109 minute cadence (**Schmit et al., 2005**), was used to define objective frontal arrival times over the monitoring
110 corridor. Ground-based cameras operating at 1-minute cadence provided additional independent temporal
111 constraints. Using objective seasonal baseline-departure criteria, we quantify the latency between
112 electrical perturbation, satellite-defined frontal arrival, visual impact, and PM response.

113
114 The analysis focuses exclusively on detection timing and lead time rather than on dust concentration or
115 event attribution. By restricting the investigation to a single extreme outbreak, the study adopts an
116 operational stress-test framework to determine whether PG monitoring provides measurable electrical lead
117 time under rapidly evolving dust-front conditions and whether electrical restructuring precedes surface
118 mass loading in a manner that complements conventional PM-based monitoring systems.

119 120 **2. Data**

121 **2.1 Study Area and Monitoring Network**

122 The study was conducted in the Ica region, southern Peru (14.07°S, 75.73°W), located within the hyper-
123 arid coastal desert belt of the south-central Peruvian coast (**Gay, 2005; Briceño-Zuluaga et al., 2017**).
124 The area is seasonally affected by strong austral winter winds that promote dust emission from coastal
125 source regions and inland transport toward the urban basin of Ica.

126
127 The monitoring network consists of two ground-based stations separated by approximately 13.6 km along
128 a north–south axis. The main station, hereafter referred to as **CST** (CIEASEST), is located at the Centro
129 de Investigación de la Actividad Solar y sus Efectos sobre la Tierra (Solar Activity and Terrestrial Effects
130 Research Center). The secondary station, hereafter referred to as **STG** (Santiago), is situated in the district
131 of Santiago, south of CST. This spatial configuration enables evaluation of dust-front progression across

132 the urban corridor during extreme events. **Figure 1** presents the study area and the relative positions of
133 CST and STG within the Ica region.
134



135
136 **Figure 1.** Geographical setting of the study area in the Ica region, Peru. The satellite imagery shows the
137 location of the **CIEASEST (CST)** and **Santiago (STG)** monitoring stations. The inset map (top right)
138 indicates the regional context within Peru. The dashed line marks the geodesic distance (**13.6 km**)
139 between the sites, established as the baseline to evaluate the spatiotemporal progression of the extreme
140 dust event on July 31, 2025.

141 2.2 PG Measurements

142 PG was measured at CST using a BOLTEK EFM-100 field mill installed at approximately 0.5 m above
143 ground level. The CST station forms part of the South American Atmospheric Electric Field Network
144 (AFINSA), whose instrumentation framework and calibration procedures are described in Tacza et al.
145 (2014). The instrument operates through a rotating shutter mechanism that periodically exposes and
146 shields sensing electrodes from the ambient vertical electric field. When exposed, electric charge is
147 induced on the electrodes and flows through a sensing resistor; when shielded, the charge returns to
148 ground. This periodic charge displacement generates an AC signal proportional to the ambient PG. The
149 internal electronics rectify and digitize the signal, providing measurements within a range of $\pm 20 \text{ kV m}^{-1}$,
150 with 0.01 kV m^{-1} digital resolution and a nominal response time of 0.1 s.

152 Because the permanent EFM sensor is installed above ground level, all measurements are corrected to
153 their ground-reference equivalent using station-specific calibration coefficients derived from simultaneous
154 reference–permanent sensor regression analysis, following the methodology described in Tacza (2015).
155 Consequently, although the raw instrumental output spans $\pm 20 \text{ kV m}^{-1}$, the effective full-scale range in
156 corrected units for the Ica station is approximately $\pm 4.1 \text{ kV m}^{-1}$. All PG values reported in this study
157 correspond to these corrected ground-equivalent electric field values.

159 The native acquisition frequency was configured at 2 Hz (sampling interval of 0.5 s). For detection-latency
160 analysis, PG data were aggregated to 1-minute resolution to harmonize the time base with the other
161 datasets used for timing comparisons. This temporal aggregation also reduces sub-minute variability
162 without affecting the event-scale onset timing metrics reported here. High-resolution (5 s) PG data were
163 retained and analyzed separately to resolve the fine-scale polarity reversal during frontal passage (Section
164

165 4.3). Long-term performance, site-specific fair-weather criteria, and dominant atmospheric controls at CST
166 have been comprehensively documented previously (Romero et al., 2024). In the present study, only data
167 from 31 July 2025 were analyzed.

168 **2.3 Particulate Matter Measurements**

169 Particulate matter concentrations were measured at both CST and STG using PurpleAir Flex optical
170 sensors based on laser light scattering. The instruments provide mass-equivalent concentrations for
171 $PM_{1.0}$, $PM_{2.5}$, and PM_{10} . In this study, the atmospheric mass-equivalent $PM_{2.5}$ concentration (expressed
172 in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) was analyzed, as it represents fine dust transported during Paracas events and provides the
173 most direct comparison with PG variability. Each sensor contains two independent measurement channels
174 (A and B), allowing internal consistency assessment. The native temporal resolution is 2 minutes. Raw 2-
175 minute $PM_{2.5}$ data were used without additional temporal smoothing, as the present analysis focuses on
176 onset timing rather than absolute concentration magnitude.

177 **2.4 Surface Meteorological Observations**

178 Surface meteorological measurements were available at both monitoring sites. At CST, two co-located
179 cup anemometers and wind vanes were mounted on the same tower at 2 m (A1) and 10 m (A2) above
180 ground level, providing wind speed and wind direction measurements at 10 s temporal resolution. Solar
181 irradiance at CST was likewise recorded at 10 s resolution. At STG, wind speed was recorded at 1 min
182 temporal resolution. For consistency with the primary PG and $PM_{2.5}$ analyses, CST meteorological data
183 were averaged to 1 min resolution unless otherwise specified. High-resolution (10 s) CST data were used
184 exclusively for the fine-scale timing assessment of frontal passage presented in Section 4.3 and Appendix
185 B. In this study, wind speed, wind direction, and solar irradiance were used to characterize the abrupt
186 dynamical transition associated with frontal passage. The two-level wind configuration at CST enables
187 assessment of vertical flow structure during the pre-surge and post-impact phases of the dust front.

188 **2.5 Satellite Observations and Dust-Front Arrival Time**

189 Geostationary satellite observations were obtained from the NOAA GOES-19 Advanced Baseline Imager
190 (ABI), operating in the GOES-East position at 75.2°W during the study period. Level 2 Cloud and Moisture
191 Imagery Full-Disk (CMIPF) products were accessed through the NOAA Open Data Dissemination (NODD)
192 program via the publicly available AWS S3 bucket (noaa-goes19, us-east-1 region). Calibrated CMI fields
193 from ABI channels C01, C02, and C03 were used to generate True Color RGB composites. GOES-19 ABI
194 provides imagery at nominal 10-minute cadence for the full-disk scan used in this study. True Color RGB
195 composites were constructed from the CMI fields using the native geostationary projection metadata.
196 Satellite acquisition times correspond to the observation timestamps embedded in the product metadata.

197 During real-time monitoring of this specific event, the most recent publicly accessible GOES imagery
198 available through the NODD AWS distribution lagged the nominal acquisition timestamp by approximately
199 20 minutes, as determined by comparison between product metadata timestamps and the local system
200 time at the monitoring site. This delay reflects operational data availability through the public dissemination
201 pathway rather than intrinsic satellite acquisition timing.

202 **2.6 Visual Documentation**

203 Ground-based visual documentation of the event was obtained using fixed cameras installed at CST and
204 STG. The imagery was used qualitatively to confirm the timing and structure of dust-front arrival. Camera
205 model specifications are not included, as the images were not used for quantitative analysis.

206 **3. Methods**

207 **3.1 Event overview**

208 On 31 July 2025, an intense dust storm impacted the city of Ica, Peru, producing a sharply defined
209 advancing dust front and rapid inland expansion across the monitoring corridor. The event was
210

216 accompanied by abrupt visibility reduction and strong surface winds at the time of frontal passage. Satellite
217 imagery documented widespread dust coverage over coastal Peru on the same day (NASA Earth
218 Observatory, 2025), while contemporaneous regional media reports described sudden dust engulfment
219 affecting Ica, Paracas, Pisco, and Nasca (El Comercio, 2025).

220
221 Based on its well-defined leading boundary and rapid frontal progression, the event is described here as
222 haboob-like, referring to a density-current-type dust-front intrusion exhibiting organized frontal geometry
223 and sudden near-surface forcing. This designation is used in a structural sense and does not imply direct
224 thermodynamic characterization. The event is treated as a single-case timing experiment designed to
225 quantify the relative response of the PG, satellite detection, and particulate monitoring systems during a
226 rapidly evolving dust-front intrusion. All times reported are expressed in local time (LT, UTC-5).

227 228 **3.2 Satellite-based dust-front timing**

229 The satellite reference time was defined by manual visual inspection of GOES True Color RGB imagery
230 as the first full-disk frame in which dust-associated pixels corresponding to the leading edge of the plume
231 became clearly identifiable within a predefined region of interest encompassing the Ica monitoring corridor.
232 No automated detection algorithm, spectral thresholding, or quantitative dust index was applied. Timing
233 was determined directly from visually distinguishable dust signatures in the RGB composite imagery.

234
235 Given the 10-minute temporal resolution of the full-disk imagery, the satellite timing uncertainty is bounded
236 by ± 5 minutes. The satellite timing serves as an independent regional reference against which ground-
237 based detection latency is evaluated. The regional frontal propagation velocity was estimated from the
238 displacement of the visually identified leading edge between consecutive frames divided by the
239 corresponding time interval.

240 241 **3.3 Definition of PM_{2.5} detection time**

242 PM_{2.5} onset at each station was detected on the native 2-min sampling grid using a baseline-relative
243 change-point criterion. For the same local time window (13:30–14:20 LT), a robust background baseline
244 was constructed from the previous five days using the median and MAD. Onset was defined as the first
245 time when (i) the 2-min rate-of-rise and (ii) the PM_{2.5} level simultaneously exceeded their respective
246 baseline envelopes (rate: median + 3×MAD; level: median + 1×MAD) for two consecutive bins (4 min
247 persistence). This definition isolates abrupt frontal intrusions while remaining independent of fixed absolute
248 thresholds. Although PM_{1.0}, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁₀ were recorded at both stations, all size fractions exhibited
249 coincident onset times within the 2-min resolution for this event; therefore, only PM_{2.5} is presented for
250 clarity.

251 252 **3.4 Definition of PG detection time**

253 The electrical detection time t_{PG} was defined using a seasonal climatological baseline rather than a local
254 pre-event interval. Hourly July mean (μ_h) and standard deviation (σ_h) values derived from the long-term
255 PG climatology established in **Romero et al. (2024)**, were interpolated to minute resolution to construct a
256 time-dependent baseline $\mu(t)$ and $\sigma(t)$. This approach ensures that detection thresholds reflect typical
257 diurnal variability rather than short pre-event fluctuations.

258
259 Electrical onset was defined as the first sustained exceedance of a $k\sigma$ threshold:

$$260 \quad PG(t) > \mu(t) + k\sigma(t)$$

261 Detection was restricted to times after 12:00 LT to exclude the morning transition period, during which PG
262 variability may be influenced by fog-related and boundary-layer effects documented for this region
263 (**Romero et al., 2024**), rather than by frontal dust dynamics. To ensure robustness against transient noise,
264 exceedance was required to persist for at least five consecutive minutes.

266 Multiple thresholds were evaluated to characterize hierarchical electrical evolution. A 2σ criterion defines
267 the earliest statistically significant departure from seasonal variability. A 4σ criterion marks intermediate
268 strengthening beyond moderate variability. A conservative 5σ criterion isolates the onset of the rapid-
269 growth regime associated with dynamically forced electrification. In the present framework, the 5σ crossing
270 defines the transition time into potential accelerated growth, while the persistence and magnitude of
271 subsequent PG amplification characterize the physical severity of the event. This multi-threshold approach
272 therefore distinguishes early statistical departure (2σ), intermediate strengthening (4σ), and transition into
273 dynamically forced electrical growth (5σ), rather than functioning as a purely binary alarm system.
274

275 For contextual comparison of event magnitude, daily PG extrema were computed from the complete 2018–
276 2025 minute-resolution dataset. For each calendar day, the daily maximum and minimum PG, the
277 maximum absolute PG (MaxAbs), and the peak-to-trough excursion (Δ PG) were derived. Days with fewer
278 than 1000 valid minute samples ($\sim 70\%$ daily coverage) were excluded to avoid bias from incomplete daily
279 records.
280

281 **3.5 Detection latency and propagation metrics**

282 Detection latency relative to the satellite reference was evaluated by comparing ground-based detection
283 times (PG and $PM_{2.5}$) with the satellite-defined frontal intersection time, acknowledging the ± 5 min
284 uncertainty imposed by the 10-min imagery cadence. Electrical lead time at CST was defined as the time
285 difference between PG detection and local $PM_{2.5}$ onset. Frontal propagation between stations was defined
286 as the time difference between $PM_{2.5}$ onset at STG and CST. These metrics quantify both corridor-scale
287 advection and relative sensor response timing.
288

289 **4. Results**

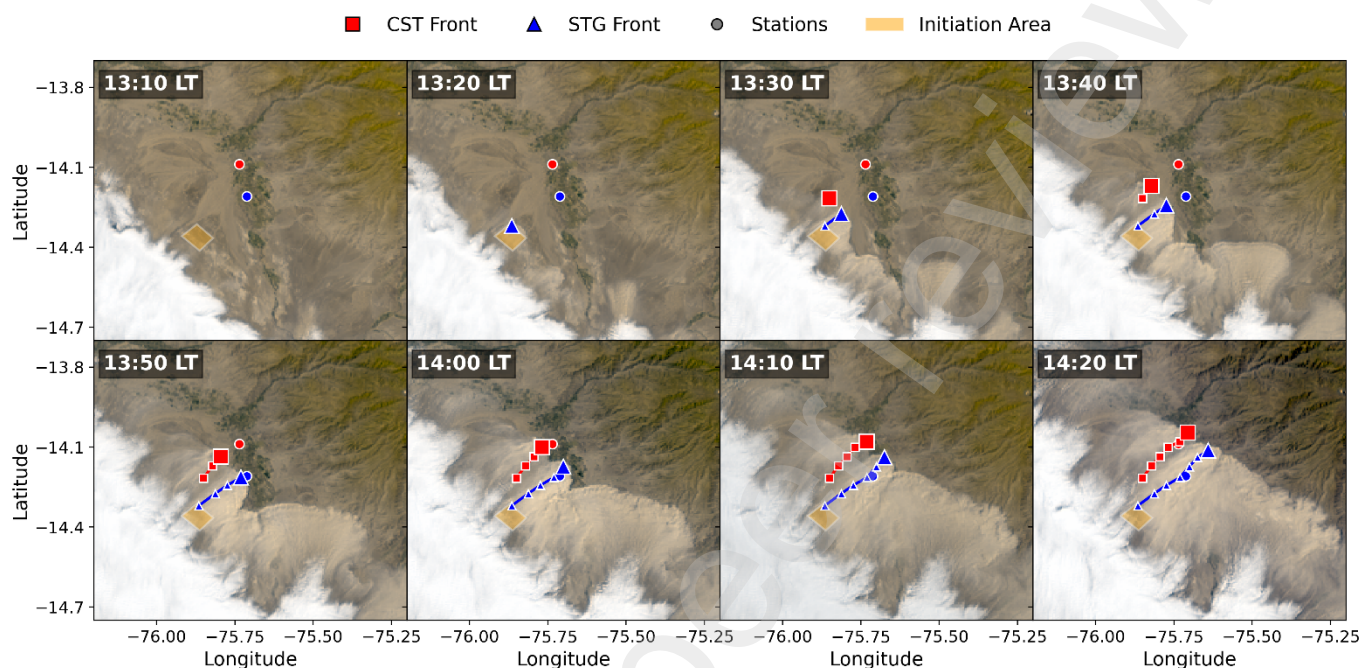
290 **4.1 Regional formation and propagation of the 31 July 2025 dust front**

291 Geostationary satellite imagery (GOES-19) indicates that the 31 July 2025 dust storm originated southwest
292 of the Ica urban corridor and propagated northeastward as a coherent and sharply defined frontal structure
293 at regional scale. The spatiotemporal evolution of the event is shown in **Figure 2**, where the dust-storm
294 initiation area is delineated by an orange polygon. The first unambiguous identification of the dust front
295 within this source region occurred at 13:20 LT (18:20 UTC), defining the satellite-based regional reference
296 time. At 13:20 LT, the leading edge of the dust plume was located at 14.32° S, 75.86° W, approximately 7.6
297 km southwest of the STG station. From this position, the frontal system advanced northeastward toward
298 the monitoring corridor.
299

300 Satellite tracking reveals that the event evolved into two quasi-parallel frontal segments propagating along
301 a consistent southwest-to-northeast axis. The first segment became clearly established along the STG-
302 directed trajectory shortly after 13:20 LT and reached the vicinity of STG at approximately 14:00 LT. A
303 second dust plume organized approximately 10 minutes later ($\approx 13:30$ LT) along a slightly offset trajectory
304 aligned with the CST sector and subsequently reached the vicinity of CST at approximately 14:10 LT.
305 Although both segments originated from the same regional outbreak and were driven by the same large-
306 scale forcing, the CST impact was associated with this later-forming plume rather than with simple
307 advection of an identical rigid frontal boundary.
308

309 The total regional transit time between the initial satellite identification southwest of STG (13:20 LT) and
310 satellite-detected arrival in the CST sector ($\approx 14:10$ LT) is approximately 50 minutes. This interval
311 represents the large-scale propagation time of the frontal system across the monitoring corridor. Because
312 GOES imagery is available at 10-minute cadence, satellite arrival times correspond to the nearest
313 available frame in which the front is identifiable within each sector and may therefore slightly lag higher-
314 resolution ground-based visual identification.
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317 An independent estimate of propagation speed can be derived from the particulate onset difference
 318 between STG and CST. Using the 13.6 km station separation and the 16-minute delay between PM_{2.5}
 319 onsets yields an effective corridor-scale speed of approximately 14.2 m s⁻¹ (51 km h⁻¹). Because the event
 320 consisted of two closely related frontal segments rather than a single rigid boundary, this value should be
 321 interpreted as an effective transit rate across the corridor rather than strict advection of an identical front.
 322 The similarity in magnitude between this corridor-scale rate and the satellite-derived regional velocity
 323 indicates dynamically organized southwest-to-northeast propagation across multiple spatial scales. **Figure**
 324 **2** presents the complete satellite sequence (13:10–14:20 LT), documenting the regional formation and
 325 subsequent approach to the Ica monitoring corridor.



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Figure 2. Spatiotemporal evolution of the dust front derived from GOES-19 RGB imagery sequence (13:10 – 14:20 LT). The orange polygon delineates the identified dust-storm initiation area southwest of the monitoring corridor. The advancing frontal boundary is tracked at 10-minute intervals, distinguished by propagation path: red squares indicate the wavefront trajectory toward the CST station, and blue triangles indicate the trajectory toward the STG station.

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4.2 Visual local arrival of the dust front (camera observations)

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335 The local arrival of the dust front was independently constrained using ground-based camera imagery at
 336 both monitoring sites. Images were acquired at 1 min temporal resolution, providing time-resolved visual
 337 documentation of frontal progression across the monitoring corridor. Representative frames from both
 338 stations are shown in Figure 3.

339

340 At STG, the westward-oriented camera captured the dust wall propagating from southwest to northeast
 341 across the station field of view, with a dominant meridional (south-to-north) component. Visual inspection
 342 of the image sequence shows that at 13:56 LT the leading edge of the haboob is clearly identifiable
 343 immediately adjacent to the station domain. In the subsequent frame at 13:57 LT, the dust wall has already
 344 advanced beyond the station location, constraining frontal crossing to the interval between these two
 345 frames. Given the 1 min acquisition interval, 13:56 LT is conservatively adopted as the visual arrival time
 346 at STG, with temporal precision limited by the image sampling resolution.

347

348 Concurrent surface meteorological observations at STG confirm the frontal character of the event. Wind
 349 speed increased from 3.0 m s⁻¹ at 13:56 LT to 12.4 m s⁻¹ at 13:57 LT, while solar irradiance decreased
 350 abruptly from 555 W m⁻² to 33 W m⁻² within the same minute. This sharp dynamical and radiative transition
 351 is consistent with passage of a density-current-like dust front rather than gradual aerosol advection.

352 At CST, the same westward-oriented configuration recorded the dust front advancing from southwest to
353 northeast toward the station, with a dominant zonal component that produced a near-frontal visual
354 interception. The first distant visual signature of the dust wall is discernible in the 13:52 LT frame near the
355 Huacachina dune field. By 14:04 LT, the wall appears fully developed, exhibiting a clearly defined vertical
356 structure advancing toward the urban boundary. At 14:11 LT, the dust front visibly intersects the CST
357 station domain, defining the local impact time. All timestamps are derived from the same time-resolved
358 camera sequence. The complete image sequence used to constrain the visual timing analysis is archived
359 in a permanent public repository (Romero et al., 2026). The visually determined 14:11 LT arrival at CST
360 is used as the physical impact reference and compared with instrument-derived detection times in Section
361 4.3.

362
363 High-resolution (10 s) surface observations at CST provide additional temporal constraints on frontal
364 impact. Solar irradiance remained stable near $720\text{--}750\text{ W m}^{-2}$ until 14:11:50 LT, after which a sharp
365 decline occurred: irradiance decreased to 539 W m^{-2} at 14:12:00 LT and further to 284 W m^{-2} at 14:12:10
366 LT, representing an approximate 50% reduction within 20 s. A local minimum of 219 W m^{-2} was reached
367 at 14:13:00 LT. Concurrently, wind speed increased from near-calm conditions to 3.3 m s^{-1} at 14:12:00
368 LT, exceeded 7 m s^{-1} by 14:12:20 LT, and reached 9.0 m s^{-1} at 14:13:20 LT. The onset of the radiative
369 collapse and wind intensification at 14:12:00 LT confirms the arrival of the optically densest frontal core at
370 CST.



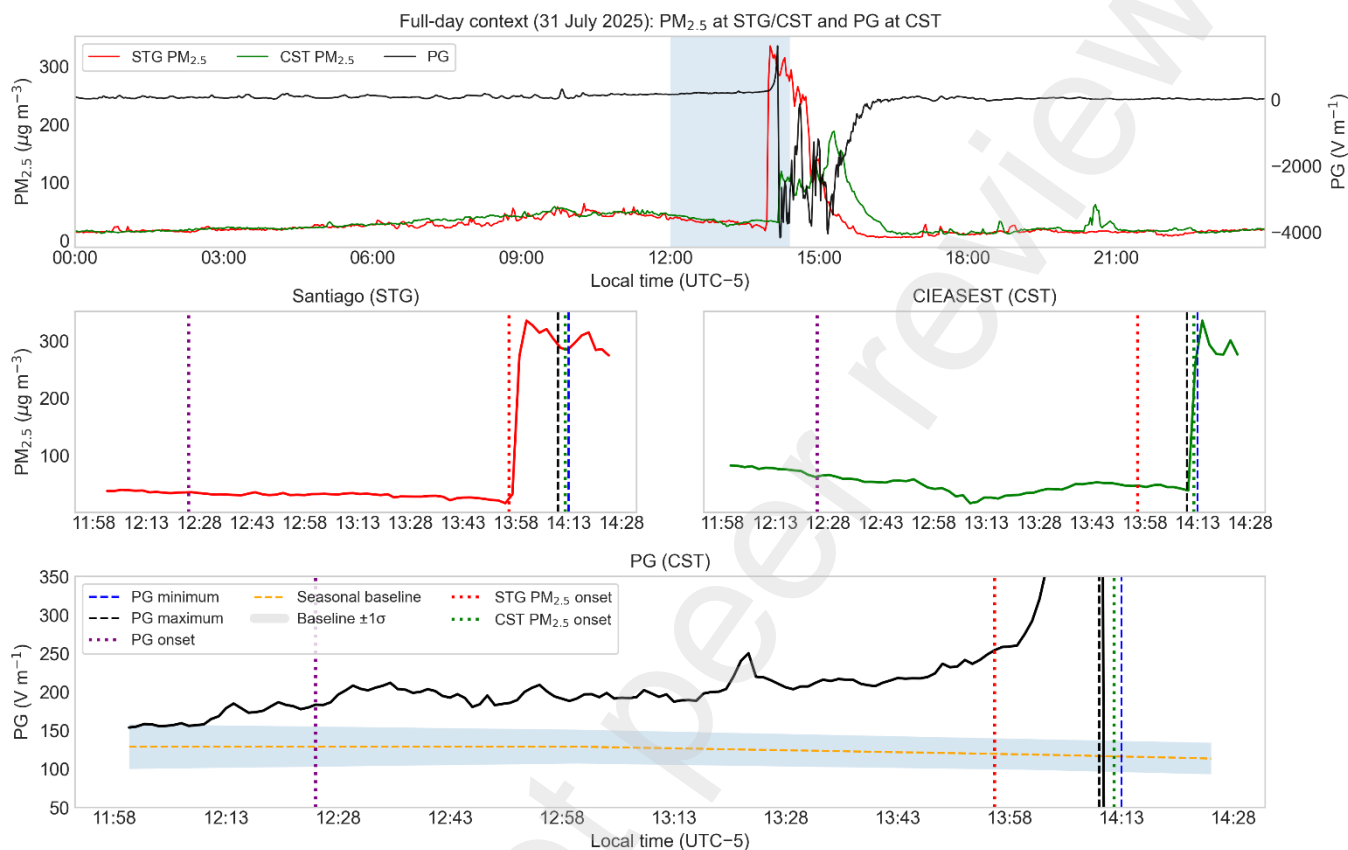
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374 **Figure 3.** Ground-based camera images documenting the local arrival of the 31 July 2025 dust front at
375 STG (13:56 LT, left) and CST (14:11 LT, right). Both cameras were oriented westward.

377 4.3 Electrical and particulate detection times at ground stations

378 **Figure 4** illustrates the temporal evolution of PG at CST together with $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at STG and CST during the
379 31 July 2025 dust event. A clear spatiotemporal progression is observed across the two stations. The
380 earliest statistically significant electrical departure (2σ threshold) occurs at 12:25 LT, marking the first
381 robust deviation from seasonal variability. At this time, PG reaches 184 V m^{-1} , exceeding the expected
382 background envelope. Progressively stricter criteria reveal a hierarchical strengthening sequence. A
383 sustained 4σ exceedance is reached at 13:21 LT, indicating intensified electrical departure. A further
384 escalation to the 5σ level occurs at 13:48 LT, coinciding with the onset of a pronounced acceleration phase
385 in the PG. This 5σ transition marks the shift from gradual deviation to dynamically forced growth preceding
386 frontal arrival.

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At the southern station (STG), $PM_{2.5}$ onset is detected at 13:56 LT, corresponding to frontal arrival at that location. $PM_{2.5}$ at CST exhibits a sharp increase at 14:12 LT, marking impact at the main station. The temporal difference between STG and CST particulate onsets is 16 minutes, consistent with northward advection across the ~ 13.6 km station separation. The 2σ electrical detection at 12:25 LT precedes $PM_{2.5}$ onset at STG and CST by approximately 91 and 107 minutes, respectively. Even under the more conservative 5σ criterion, the electrical rapid-growth onset at 13:48 LT precedes CST particulate arrival by approximately 24 minutes. Thus, substantial electrical lead time persists across detection sensitivities.



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Figure 4. Temporal evolution of PG at CST and $PM_{2.5}$ at STG and CST on 31 July 2025. The upper panel shows the full-day context, with the shaded region marking the event window. Middle panels display $PM_{2.5}$ at STG and CST, and the lower panel shows PG at CST. Vertical lines indicate the earliest electrical detection (2σ) and particulate onset times at both stations, together with key PG extrema. PG detection at 12:25 LT precedes $PM_{2.5}$ onset at STG (13:56 LT) and CST (14:12 LT).

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To evaluate short-term false-trigger behavior under seasonally consistent conditions, the same $k\sigma + 5$ -min persistence detector was applied to the 30 days preceding 31 July 2025 within the identical 12:00–14:15 LT window (July-only background). Under the conservative 5σ criterion, one non-event day (1/30) exhibited a threshold crossing. However, in that case the PG increased by only ~ 13 $V\ m^{-1}$ within the subsequent 60 minutes and reached its local maximum within 1 minute of threshold crossing, indicating the absence of sustained amplification. In contrast, on 31 July 2025 the PG increased by ~ 1390 $V\ m^{-1}$ within 22 minutes following the 5σ crossing, marking the onset of a dynamically forced growth regime.

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These results demonstrate that while isolated 5σ crossings may occur within background variability, extreme density-current events are uniquely characterized by sustained post-onset amplification. Thus, the 5σ threshold functions not as a binary event discriminator, but as a physically meaningful marker of transition into rapid electrical growth. The complete chronology of satellite, visual, electrical, and particulate detection times is summarized in **Table 1**.

417 To examine the fine-scale dynamics of frontal passage, **Figure 5** presents the temporal co-evolution of
 418 PG and $PM_{2.5}$ at CST. At 1-min resolution, PG increases from approximately 224 V m^{-1} at 13:48 LT to a
 419 local maximum of $+1614 \text{ V m}^{-1}$ at 14:10 LT. Immediately thereafter, the signal undergoes an abrupt polarity
 420 reversal, reaching -936 V m^{-1} at 14:11 LT, -3663 V m^{-1} at 14:12 LT, and a minimum of -4167 V m^{-1} at
 421 14:13 LT. The resulting peak-to-minimum excursion approaches 5.8 kV m^{-1} within approximately three
 422 minutes, and the largest one-minute decrease (14:11–14:12 LT) exceeds -2.7 kV m^{-1} . This rapid transition
 423 indicates substantial reconfiguration of the electric field during passage of the densest portion of the dust
 424 front.

425

426 **Table 1.** Chronology of visual arrival and instrument-derived detection times for the 31 July 2025 dust
 427 event.

428

Parameter	Time (LT)	Definition
PG exceedance (2σ , CST)	12:25	2σ exceedance (persistent)
Satellite-defined initiation (L_0)	13:20	First detection of frontal boundary (FB)
PG exceedance (4σ , CST)	13:21	4σ exceedance (persistent)
PG exceedance (5σ , CST)	13:48	5σ exceedance (persistent)
Visual arrival (STG)	13:56	FB arrival at station
$PM_{2.5}$ onset (STG)	13:56	Baseline rate + persistence
Satellite arrival (STG)	14:00	FB enters STG sector
Satellite arrival (CST)	14:10	FB enters CST sector
PG maximum (CST)	14:10	Local maximum prior to PM step
Visual arrival (CST)	14:11	FB arrival at station
$PM_{2.5}$ onset (CST)	14:12	Baseline rate + persistence
PG minimum (CST)	14:13	Abrupt polarity reversal
PG– $PM_{2.5}$ lead time (2σ , CST)	107 min	2σ PG to $PM_{2.5}$ onset (CST)
PG– $PM_{2.5}$ lead time (5σ , CST)	24 min	5σ PG to $PM_{2.5}$ onset (CST)
Propagation time (STG→CST)	16 min	$PM_{2.5}$ onset STG to CST

429

430 While the 1-min series captures the overall excursion, higher-resolution measurements further resolve the
 431 internal structure of the reversal. Five-second PG data reveal a sharper pre-frontal maximum of $+1847 \text{ V m}^{-1}$
 432 at 14:11:00 LT, followed by a polarity crossing within a single 5 s sampling interval, from $+296 \text{ V m}^{-1}$
 433 at 14:11:20 LT to -917 V m^{-1} at 14:11:25 LT. This corresponds to a decrease of approximately 1213 V m^{-1}
 434 m^{-1} over 5 s (mean rate $\approx -243 \text{ V m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$), demonstrating extremely rapid electric-field restructuring.

435

436 At the time of this electrical transition, the near-surface anemometer A1 (2 m) remained within a short pre-
 437 surge low-wind interval, recording 0.0 m s^{-1} between 14:10:40 and 14:11:50 LT, whereas the upper-level
 438 anemometer A2 (10 m) indicated sustained non-zero flow and gradual strengthening during the same
 439 period. Solar irradiance likewise remained high through 14:11:50 LT ($\sim 748 \text{ W m}^{-2}$), indicating that neither
 440 pronounced radiative attenuation nor the near-surface outflow surge had yet begun. Wind direction during
 441 this interval exhibited substantial variability at both levels, without a stable sectoral alignment.

442

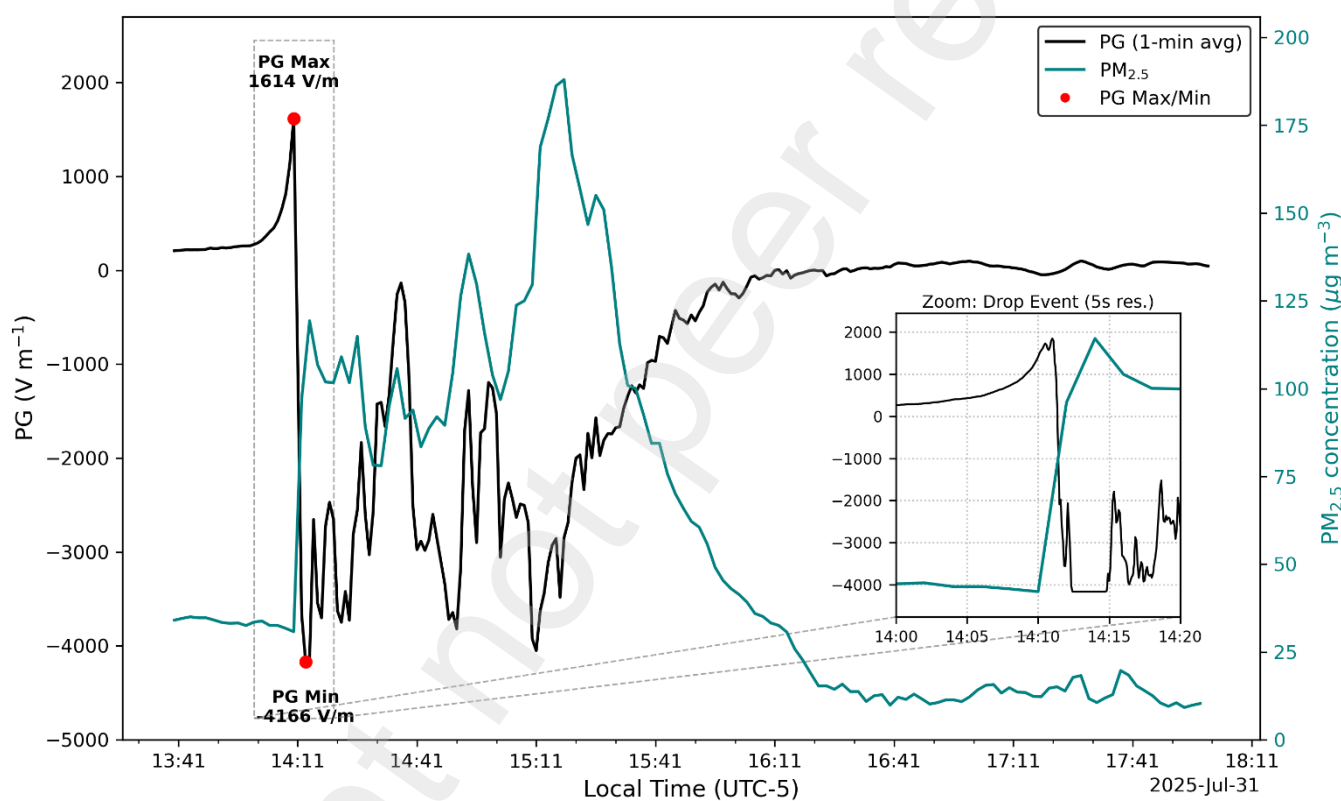
443 The radiative collapse and near-surface wind intensification begin at 14:12:00 LT, when irradiance drops
 444 abruptly and the 2 m anemometer transitions from calm to sustained outflow. This dynamical transition
 445 occurs $\sim 35 \text{ s}$ after the electrical polarity reversal, indicating that the leading electrical boundary precedes
 446 arrival of the optically dense and dynamically forced core at the sensor location.

447

448 PG subsequently intensified negativeward, reaching -4167 V m^{-1} at 14:12:25 LT and remaining at this
 449 value until 14:14:45 LT, forming a sustained $\sim 140 \text{ s}$ plateau. This persistence at an identical minimum
 450 indicates that the signal reached the effective corrected full-scale limit of the measurement system (Section
 451 2.2), implying that the true peak negative electric field during frontal core passage may have exceeded the

452 reported value. In contrast to the three-minute excursion evident at 1-min resolution, the most intense
453 phase of the reversal unfolded within approximately 85 s, demonstrating that the electrical transition was
454 highly structured and rapidly evolving rather than a gradual drift. The complete high-resolution PG,
455 irradiance, and two-level wind time series used to determine these timings are provided in Appendix B
456 (Figure B1).

457
458 To evaluate the magnitude of the electrical excursion relative to long-term variability, the 31 July 2025
459 event was compared against the multi-year daily PG distribution derived from the 2018–2025 minute-
460 resolution record ($N = 2620$ days; see Methods). The event reached $\text{MaxAbs} = 4167 \text{ V m}^{-1}$ and $\Delta\text{PG} =$
461 5780 V m^{-1} , exceeding the 99.9th percentile of the historical distribution ($\text{MaxAbs p99.9} = 3552 \text{ V m}^{-1}$;
462 $\Delta\text{PG p99.9} = 5452 \text{ V m}^{-1}$). No other day in the filtered 2018–2025 record surpasses these thresholds,
463 indicating that this event represents the most extreme daily electrical excursion in the available multi-year
464 dataset. A complementary regime comparison with canonical Paracas events is provided in Appendix C,
465 where PG-centered epoch analysis confirms that the bipolar structure observed on 31 July 2025 is not
466 characteristic of typical wind-driven Paracas episodes.
467



468
469 **Figure 5.** Temporal evolution of PG and normalized $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration at the CST station on 31 July
470 2025. The main panel shows the 13:40–18:00 LT observation window, with red markers denoting the local
471 PG maximum and subsequent minimum. The inset provides a magnified view of the 14:00–14:20 LT period
472 capturing the fine-scale dynamics during the particulate front arrival.
473

474 Although multiple CST $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sub-peaks are observed during the subsequent mature phase (14:50–15:20
475 LT), no additional polarity reversals or comparably abrupt PG excursions are detected. PG remains within
476 a sustained negative regime and evolves smoothly during these later aerosol enhancements. This
477 indicates that the strongest electrical structure is temporally confined to the leading boundary of the dust
478 front rather than to later phases of maximum surface mass loading.
479

480 Comparison with independently determined visual arrival times further constrains detection latency. At
481 STG, the camera-defined arrival at 13:56 LT is coincident with the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ onset at 13:56 LT within the 2-
482 min sampling resolution of the particulate measurements, indicating that the step-like PM increase occurs

483 essentially at the time of frontal crossing at this site. At CST, the visually determined impact at 14:11 LT is
484 nearly coincident with the $PM_{2.5}$ onset at 14:12 LT, corresponding to an offset of approximately one minute,
485 well within the 2-min cadence of the sensor. In contrast, the 2σ electrical deviation at 12:25 LT precedes
486 visual impact by approximately 106 min, while the 5σ rapid-growth onset at 13:48 LT precedes visual
487 impact by approximately 23 min.

488
489 Together, these observations define a temporally ordered sequence consisting of early electrical
490 departure, hierarchical strengthening, rapid pre-frontal maximum, and abrupt bipolar transition during
491 frontal passage. This ordering confirms south-to-north propagation and demonstrates that electrical
492 perturbation develops substantially in advance of measurable local aerosol concentration enhancement.
493

494 **5. Discussion**

495 The 31 July 2025 dust event provides a structured, multi-instrument demonstration that detection latency
496 in conventional particulate monitoring during rapidly evolving convective dust intrusions is fundamentally
497 governed by temporal dynamics rather than by sensor absence. The observed sequence, consisting of
498 early electrical disturbance at CST, subsequent particulate onset at STG, and later onset at CST, reveals
499 a coherent south-to-north progression consistent with satellite-derived regional propagation. The
500 separation between the rapid-growth electrical onset and local $PM_{2.5}$ arrival at CST, together with the
501 earlier statistically defined baseline departure at 12:25 LT, defines a measurable and operationally relevant
502 temporal advantage of PG relative to mass-based aerosol detection at the same site.
503

504 **5.1 Coherent regional propagation and temporal hierarchy**

505 Satellite RGB imagery constrained the regional formation of the dust front south of the monitoring corridor
506 at 13:20 LT and documented organized northward transport. However, the 10-minute acquisition cadence
507 of GOES imagery imposes discretization limits on minute-scale arrival determination at fixed sensor
508 locations. Furthermore, publicly distributed satellite products may exhibit dissemination latency relative to
509 acquisition time.
510

511 During this event, ground-based visual confirmation of the approaching dust wall preceded the availability
512 of the corresponding satellite frame for analysis. This reflects the practical difference between nominal
513 acquisition timestamps and the effective time at which imagery becomes accessible through public
514 distribution portals, which may introduce variable operational delays. This distinction between acquisition
515 time and dissemination time is operationally important, as it constrains the immediacy of satellite-only
516 nowcasting during rapidly evolving dust events.
517

518 The consistency between satellite-derived regional propagation speed ($\sim 12.7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) and station-to-station
519 $PM_{2.5}$ onset speed ($\sim 14.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) supports interpretation of a dynamically organized outbreak rather than
520 diffuse aerosol enhancement. The difference between frontal translation speed and peak wind gusts
521 (reported regionally up to $\sim 90 \text{ km h}^{-1}$) reflects the distinction between system-scale advection and localized
522 instantaneous wind maxima within the density current. Frontal propagation represents an integrated
523 mesoscale process controlled by density contrasts, boundary-layer stratification, and surface friction,
524 whereas gusts capture transient dynamic peaks. The electrical lead time therefore relates to frontal
525 dynamics rather than to peak wind magnitude alone.
526

527 Camera-based arrival times further confirm spatial coherence. At both STG and CST, visual arrival either
528 precedes or nearly coincides with the abrupt $PM_{2.5}$ step increase, demonstrating that the particulate
529 response corresponds to physical frontal intersection rather than gradual accumulation. In contrast, the
530 PG disturbance at CST develops well before visual impact, indicating sensitivity to boundary-layer
531 restructuring ahead of the visible dust wall. The sensitivity of PG measurements to dynamical restructuring
532 within the planetary boundary layer has been demonstrated in previous studies (Nicoll et al., 2018),

533 supporting interpretation of early PG deviations as signatures of evolving boundary-layer structure rather
534 than direct surface mass loading.

535
536 Importantly, application of progressively stricter $k\sigma$ thresholds reveals that the electrical evolution is not
537 characterized by a single onset but by a hierarchical sequence of statistically defined stages. The 2σ
538 exceedance at 12:25 LT represents the earliest objectively defined departure from seasonal background
539 conditions and precedes local particulate enhancement by more than 100 minutes. This phase likely
540 reflects large-scale boundary-layer preconditioning and gradual charge redistribution prior to visible frontal
541 arrival. A 4σ threshold is exceeded at 13:21 LT, marking strengthening beyond moderate variability, while
542 the 5σ exceedance at 13:48 LT coincides with the onset of the rapid-growth regime identified in the high-
543 resolution time series. The ~ 24 -minute separation between the 5σ onset and CST particulate arrival
544 therefore represents a robust operational lead time associated specifically with dynamically forced
545 electrification rather than with low-amplitude baseline fluctuations.

547 5.2 Bipolar electrical structure of the extreme event

548 Beyond the lead-time aspect, the event exhibits a well-defined bipolar electrical signature associated with
549 passage of the frontal boundary. PG departs from the seasonal baseline at 12:25 LT and increases
550 progressively to a maximum of $+1614 \text{ V m}^{-1}$ at 14:10 LT, immediately preceding particulate onset at CST
551 (14:12 LT). Within approximately three minutes, the signal undergoes a rapid inversion to a minimum of
552 -4167 V m^{-1} at 14:13 LT. The resulting peak-to-minimum excursion of $\sim 5.8 \text{ kV m}^{-1}$, together with a
553 maximum one-minute decrease of approximately -2.7 kV m^{-1} , indicates abrupt electric-field
554 reconfiguration rather than gradual conductive relaxation.

555
556 The temporal decoupling between the electrical maximum and subsequent $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ sub-peaks at CST
557 demonstrates that the strongest electrical perturbation is confined to the frontal interface rather than to the
558 period of maximum surface aerosol mass concentration during the mature phase. This behavior suggests
559 that the bipolar structure reflects organized charge separation at the leading boundary rather than a
560 response governed solely by bulk PM loading. A comparable decoupling between peak aerosol mass and
561 peak electric perturbation was reported during the September 2015 Levant dust outbreak, where multi-day
562 PM enhancement was accompanied by complex and spatially variable electrical behavior rather than a
563 single dominant polarity or amplitude maximum (**Katz et al., 2018**).

564
565 Such bipolar surface responses are consistent with organized electrification processes documented in
566 previous field studies. Sequential positive and negative PG disturbances have been observed during
567 advection of inclined dipolar charge structures across fixed sensors in cumulonimbus passages
568 (**Pustovalov & Nagorskiy, 2018**). Vertically resolved measurements during dust storms in northern China
569 identified layered charge structures and multiple polarity reversals (**Zhang et al., 2017**), and inversion-
570 based reconstructions revealed three-dimensional mosaics of oppositely charged regions coupled to PM_{10}
571 variability (**Zhang & Zhou, 2020**). Although those studies often describe quasi-steady vertical
572 configurations, the present case captures rapid advection of a stratified charge structure across a surface
573 sensor during gust-front passage, producing a transient bipolar ground-level signature rather than a
574 stationary profile.

575
576 The amplitude of the excursion ($\sim 5.8 \text{ kV m}^{-1}$) lies within the kV m^{-1} range reported for intense dust storms
577 in arid environments. Electrified Sahelian haboobs have exhibited perturbations of $1\text{--}10 \text{ kV m}^{-1}$ during
578 gust-front passage (**Williams et al., 2008**), while large-scale Saharan dust intrusions over the eastern
579 Mediterranean have produced Ez fluctuations between $+1$ and $+8 \text{ kV m}^{-1}$ (Yair et al., 2016). Tower-based
580 measurements have documented even larger values under specific vertical configurations (Zhang et al.,
581 2017). It should be noted, however, that the corrected minimum value (-4167 V m^{-1}) corresponds to the
582 effective dynamic limit of the measurement system (Section 4.3). The short plateau at this level indicates
583 saturation of the permanent channel ($\pm 20 \text{ kV m}^{-1}$ full-scale), implying that the true peak negative field

584 during frontal core passage may have exceeded the reported value. This instrumental constraint does not
585 affect timing relationships or polarity structure but indicates that the event intensity is conservatively
586 estimated.

587
588 The exceptionally rapid temporal evolution further distinguishes this case. The zero-crossing occurs within
589 a single 5 s sampling interval, and the most intense phase of the inversion unfolds in less than 90 s. Five-
590 second PG data, together with concurrent 10 s meteorological measurements, show that rapid electrical
591 restructuring closely precedes radiative collapse and wind intensification at CST. This ordering indicates
592 that the electrical transition is intrinsically linked to the advancing frontal boundary.

593
594 Co-located two-level wind measurements further indicate a transient vertical decoupling during this pre-
595 surge phase. While the lower anemometer (A1, 2 m) recorded near-zero wind immediately prior to the
596 surge, the upper sensor (A2, 10 m) registered sustained non-zero flow. The PG polarity transition occurs
597 within this vertically sheared interval, suggesting that electrical restructuring is embedded in the advancing
598 density-current head prior to the onset of strong near-surface momentum transport.

599
600 These observations are consistent with advection of organized space-charge regions within the density
601 current. Vertical charge separation associated with dust lifting and size-dependent particle sorting has
602 been documented in dusty vortices (**Franzese et al., 2018; Esposito et al., 2016**), where oppositely
603 charged particle populations produce layered electric-field structures. Although the present event involves
604 a density-current dust front rather than an isolated vortex, the observed bipolar PG evolution is consistent
605 with structured charge layering within the advancing frontal system. The absence of additional polarity
606 reversals during later PM_{2.5} sub-peaks reinforces that the most intense electrical gradients were confined
607 to the leading boundary, whereas subsequent particulate enhancements reflect predominantly bulk
608 aerosol transport and sedimentation.

609 **5.3 Physical basis of electrical lead time**

610
611 The earlier response of PG relative to PM_{2.5} reflects fundamental differences in measurement sensitivity.
612 Particulate sensors quantify mass concentration at the inlet and require sufficient aerosol accumulation to
613 exceed detection thresholds. PG, in contrast, responds to rapid modifications in PG structure driven by
614 charge separation, evolving space-charge distributions, and conductivity contrasts within the advancing
615 density current. Electrical restructuring can therefore precede measurable surface mass enhancement.
616 Field experiments have further demonstrated that atmospheric electric fields generated during saltation
617 can actively enhance dust lifting and exhibit strong feedback with particle emission dynamics (**Esposito
618 et al., 2016**), reinforcing the physical coupling between electrification and boundary-layer dust processes.

619
620 The ~107-minute separation between the initial 2 σ deviation at 12:25 LT and CST visual arrival
621 demonstrates that electrical preconditioning begins well before physical intersection of the dust wall. The
622 5 σ rapid-growth onset at 13:48 LT isolates a later, dynamically meaningful phase that precedes particulate
623 arrival by approximately 24 minutes. Together, these statistically constrained stages clarify that electrical
624 lead time is not dependent on a single arbitrary threshold but reflects a physically interpretable hierarchy
625 of boundary-layer evolution.

626
627 Convective dust events evolve on minute-scale timescales that are systematically under-resolved by
628 hourly and daily particulate metrics (**Ardon-Dryer, 2025; Ardon-Dryer & Aziz, 2025**). Even sub-hourly
629 monitoring can miss the earliest boundary-layer restructuring associated with frontal development. The
630 present results show that electrical measurements extend detection capability upstream in time relative to
631 particulate concentration thresholds.

632
633 PG monitoring has previously been explored as a precursor variable in short-term rainfall nowcasting, with
634 lead times on the order of tens of minutes (**Wu et al., 2023**). Although the charging mechanisms differ
635 between precipitation and dust processes, both involve rapid reorganization of boundary-layer charge

636 structures prior to surface manifestation. The present findings extend this precursor concept to extreme
637 convective dust intrusions.

638 **5.4 Operational implications and limitations**

640 The PG sensor at CST has operated continuously in the hyper-arid desert environment of Ica since 2011,
641 demonstrating long-term robustness under extreme dust loading, thermal variability, and low humidity
642 (Romero et al., 2024). While our previous work established the PG response to canonical, wind-driven
643 Paracas events, the 31 July 2025 intrusion serves as an operational stress test under boundary-layer
644 conditions rarely observed in this region. This sustained performance across the entire spectrum of dust
645 dynamics, from ordinary advection to extreme density currents, supports the feasibility of incorporating
646 atmospheric electrical measurements into regional monitoring strategies.

648 Strategic deployment of PG sensors along dominant upwind corridors could enable tracking of electrical
649 disturbance propagation prior to urban impact. Similar spatial coherence of dust-related electric field
650 disturbances has been documented in multi-station atmospheric electricity networks during Saharan
651 intrusions (Silva et al., 2016), supporting the feasibility of distributed PG monitoring architectures. A
652 distributed configuration spanning initiation zones and receptor sites would complement satellite and
653 particulate systems by providing high-frequency, locally autonomous early indicators not constrained by
654 satellite cadence, dissemination latency, or particulate accumulation thresholds. The approximately 50-
655 minute interval between satellite-constrained frontal formation south of the corridor and surface impact at
656 CST further illustrates the potential expansion of actionable lead time within a distributed monitoring
657 framework.

659 Several limitations must nevertheless be acknowledged. Because haboob-like intrusions are historically
660 rare in the study area, the present analysis is restricted to a single extreme event and does not establish
661 climatological generality for this specific frontal geometry. Electrical responses may vary with humidity,
662 stability, background aerosol loading, and dust mineralogy. Vertical charge distributions were not directly
663 measured during this event; the bipolar interpretation is therefore inferred from surface PG evolution and
664 supported by analogous observations in other dust regimes (Mallios et al., 2023). Satellite RGB imagery
665 provides qualitative spatial context but limited quantitative concentration information.

667 To assess short-term operational robustness under seasonally consistent conditions, the same $k\sigma + 5$ -min
668 persistence framework was applied to the 30 days preceding 31 July 2025 within the identical 12:00–14:15
669 LT window. A single non-event day exhibited a 5σ crossing; however, that crossing was not followed by
670 sustained PG amplification and remained confined to background-scale variability. In contrast, the 31 July
671 event was characterized by rapid and persistent post-threshold growth culminating in the largest excursion
672 of the multi-year record.

674 This contrast highlights an important operational distinction: high-sigma crossings alone do not define
675 extreme events; rather, the dynamical evolution following threshold exceedance determines physical
676 significance. Within this framework, the 5σ level functions as a transition marker into rapid electrical growth
677 rather than as a purely binary alarm. Although the 30-day window does not establish climatological skill, it
678 demonstrates that sustained post-onset amplification is not a routine feature of July background variability.

680 Despite these limitations, the convergence of satellite tracking, camera-based arrival times, particulate
681 onset, and high-resolution electrical evolution defines a robust temporal hierarchy. The event
682 demonstrates that electrical restructuring begins well before visual frontal arrival, that the strongest electric
683 perturbation is associated with the leading boundary rather than peak mass loading, and that extreme dust
684 fronts can exhibit bipolar electrical signatures distinct from common Paracas events. Although the
685 exceptionally rare nature of this event precludes robust long-term statistical validation of false alarm rates
686 for haboob detections, this measurable timing advantage is consistent with high PG sensitivity under rapid-
687 evolution conditions. This motivates the integration of PG monitoring as a complementary component of

operational dust nowcasting systems in arid regions, capable of bridging the temporal gap between satellite imagery and surface PM accumulation.

6. Conclusions

The 31 July 2025 dust event demonstrates that PG measurements can detect rapidly evolving dust intrusions substantially earlier than conventional mass-based particulate sensors. Using a seasonal baseline framework, electrical restructuring at CST preceded local PM_{2.5} enhancement by approximately 24 minutes under a conservative 5 σ rapid-growth criterion and by more than 100 minutes relative to the initial 2 σ departure. Independent constraints from satellite tracking, inter-station propagation, and camera-defined arrival confirm a coherent southwest-to-northeast progression and validate the temporal robustness of the detection sequence.

Beyond lead time, the event exhibited a pronounced bipolar electrical structure, characterized by progressive PG amplification prior to frontal impact followed by an abrupt polarity reversal coincident with particulate onset. Relative to the 2018–2025 multi-year record, this case produced the largest daily electrical excursion in the available climatology, exceeding the 99.9th percentile of both maximum absolute PG and peak-to-trough variability. Multi-resolution measurements confirm that the polarity transition represents a rapidly evolving physical restructuring rather than an artifact of temporal averaging.

Satellite imagery provided essential regional context but was constrained by acquisition cadence and dissemination latency. In contrast, continuous high-resolution PG monitoring captured early boundary-layer electrical restructuring independent of external data pipelines. This capability highlights the potential operational value of atmospheric electricity measurements during extreme dust-front events.

These findings indicate that atmospheric electrical measurements can extend actionable lead time during extreme dust-front events while providing physically distinct information on frontal electrical structure. Strategically deployed PG sensors along dominant upwind corridors, for example within a simple multi-station geometry, could enhance early-warning capability and constrain front progression in real time, complementing existing satellite and particulate monitoring systems. Rather than a statistical limitation, the exceptionally rare nature of this historic haboob provides a stringent stress test for the baseline established in the region. The internally consistent multi-platform timing relationships support a clear detection advantage of PG in this event. This case indicates that continuous PG monitoring can bridge the temporal gap during extreme boundary-layer anomalies, providing crucial early warnings where conventional mass-based systems and satellites experience critical latency.

Given the recurrent dust activity along the southern Peruvian coastal corridor, the absence of dedicated atmospheric electrical monitoring represents a missed opportunity for early detection of rapidly evolving density-current dust fronts.

Appendix A. Satellite-based kinematic analysis of dust-front propagation

To quantify regional dust-front translation, leading-edge positions were manually tracked at 10-minute intervals from GOES-19 RGB imagery along the trajectories directed toward the STG and CST sectors. For each pair of consecutive frames, the great-circle displacement between front-edge coordinates was computed using the haversine formulation. Interval propagation speed was then obtained as the ratio between displacement and elapsed time. For clarity, each 10-minute interval speed is reported at the end time of the corresponding interval (e.g., the 13:20–13:30 LT speed is plotted at 13:30 LT). The resulting frame-to-frame translation rates are shown in **Figure A1**, where panel (a) corresponds to the STG-directed trajectory and panel (b) to the CST-directed trajectory. Because satellite sampling is discrete, the derived velocities represent interval-averaged frontal translation rather than instantaneous speeds.

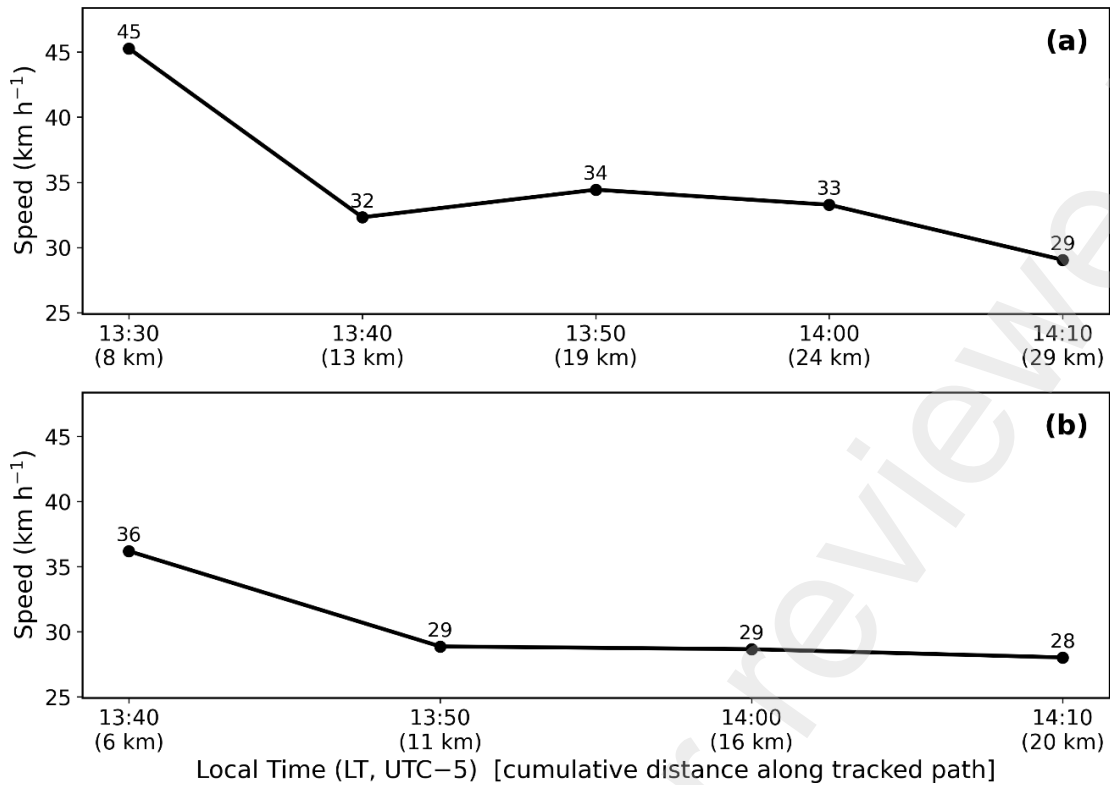


Figure A1. Frame-to-frame propagation speeds of the tracked dust-front leading edge derived from consecutive GOES-19 RGB images (10-minute cadence). Panel (a) shows the STG-directed trajectory; panel (b) shows the CST-directed trajectory.

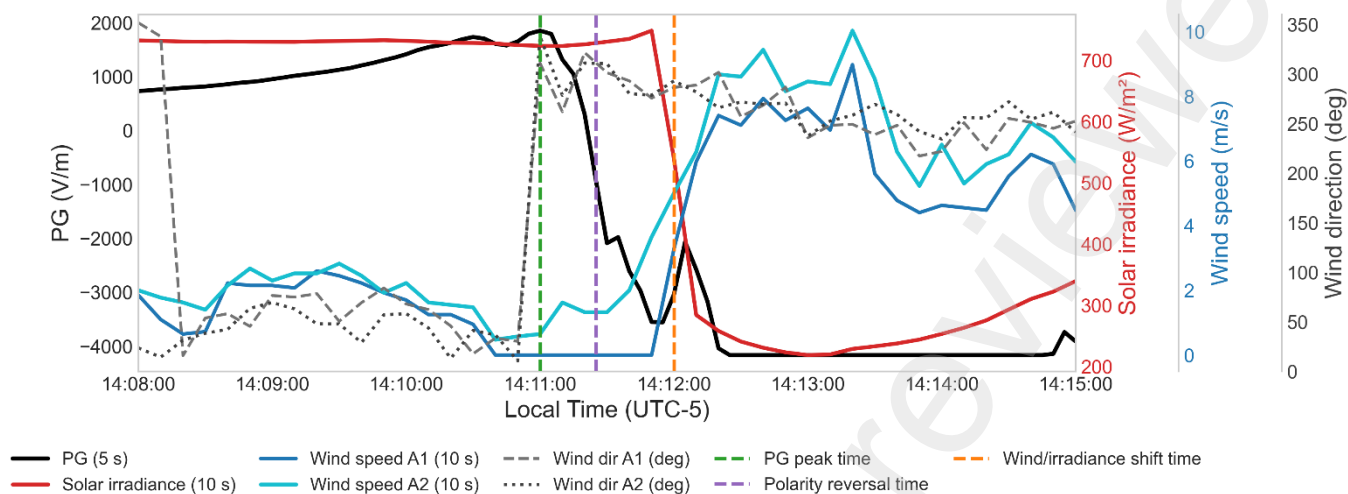
The 13:20–13:30 LT interval along the STG-directed trajectory yields a displacement of 7.6 km over 10 minutes, corresponding to 12.67 m s^{-1} (45.6 km h^{-1}), consistent with the regional propagation velocity reported in Section 4.1. This value is plotted at 13:30 LT, reflecting the end of the first measurable interval following the initial identification of the dust front at 13:20 LT. The CST-directed segment becomes clearly identifiable beginning in the 13:30 LT frame, indicating that the plume impacting CST organized approximately 10 minutes after the initial STG-directed segment was established. Consequently, the first CST velocity estimate corresponds to the 13:30–13:40 LT interval and is plotted at 13:40 LT in **Figure A1**. Subsequent intervals exhibit comparable magnitudes along both trajectories, supporting a coherent mesoscale southwest-to-northeast propagation of the evolving dust-front system rather than strict translation of a single rigid boundary. The similarity between the STG- and CST-directed interval speeds indicates dynamically organized frontal evolution across the monitoring corridor.

Uncertainty is primarily controlled by the 10-minute temporal resolution of the imagery and by manual identification of the leading edge within each frame. These factors constrain temporal precision but do not materially affect the order-of-magnitude estimate of frontal translation speed.

Appendix B. High-resolution electrical and surface meteorological timing

To document the sub-minute sequencing of electrical and surface meteorological signals during the 31 July 2025 intrusion, 5 s PG measurements were analyzed together with 10 s solar irradiance and co-located wind observations from two anemometers mounted on the same tower within the 14:08–14:15 LT interval. Wind data are shown for anemometer A1 (2 m height) and anemometer A2 (10 m height), providing wind speed and wind direction measurements. Figure B1 presents the synchronized time series used to determine the timing values reported in Section 4.3. Vertical dashed lines indicate (i) the PG maximum time, (ii) the PG polarity-reversal time, and (iii) the onset of the irradiance decrease and near-surface wind intensification.

771 The two-level wind record shows that A1 records a short low-wind interval immediately prior to the main
 772 wind surge, whereas A2 maintains sustained non-zero flow over the same period. Wind direction at both
 773 levels exhibits substantial variability prior to 14:11 LT and subsequently becomes more consistently
 774 aligned during the wind-intensification phase after 14:12 LT. This appendix documents the high-resolution
 775 timing framework supporting the analysis presented in Section 4.3.
 776

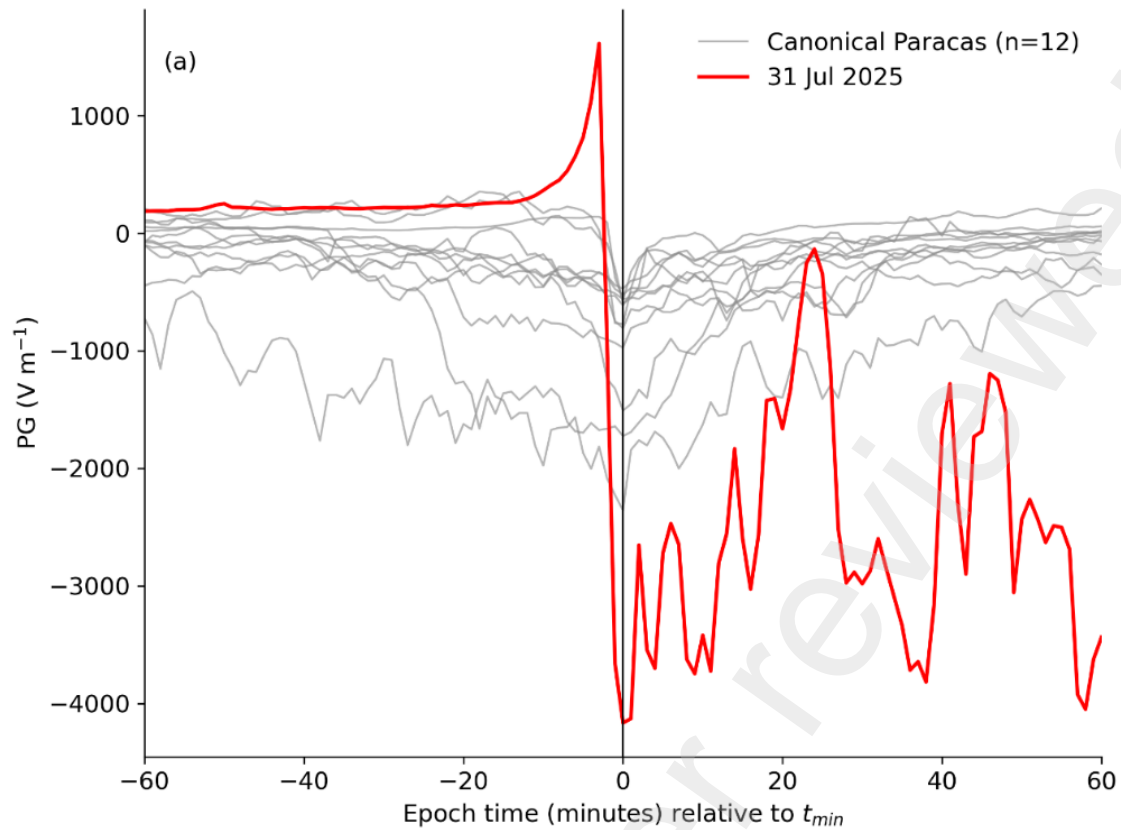


777
 778
 779 **Figure B1.** High-resolution PG (5 s), solar irradiance (10 s), wind speed (10 s), and wind direction (10 s)
 780 during 14:08–14:15 LT on 31 July 2025. Wind observations are shown at two heights on the same tower:
 781 A1 (2 m) and A2 (10 m). Vertical dashed lines indicate the PG maximum, the polarity reversal, and the
 782 onset of the irradiance decrease and near-surface wind intensification.
 783

784 **Appendix C. Electrical regime comparison between canonical Paracas events and the 31 July**
 785 **2025 extreme dust intrusion**
 786

787 To compare the electrical structure of the 31 July 2025 event with typical Paracas dust episodes, a PG-
 788 only epoch analysis was performed using 12 canonical Paracas events selected from the dataset analyzed
 789 in Romero et al. (2024). These events occurred on 23 July 2019, 3 October 2019, 5 October 2019, 26
 790 November 2019, 1 December 2019, 10 January 2020, 1 September 2020, 23 October 2021, 7 December
 791 2021, 10 January 2022, 12 January 2022, and 13 January 2022. Because particulate data are only
 792 available for 31 July 2025, the comparison is restricted to PG measurements.
 793

794 For each canonical event, the PG minimum within the documented event window was identified, and a
 795 ± 60 min interval centered on the time of minimum PG (t_{min}) was extracted. The same procedure was
 796 applied to the 31 July 2025 event. **Figure C1** shows the superposed epoch curves. Canonical Paracas
 797 events exhibit predominantly monopolar negative excursions centered on t_{min} . In contrast, the 31 July 2025
 798 event displays a structured bipolar evolution characterized by a pre-minimum positive enhancement
 799 followed by a rapid polarity reversal. This electrical-only comparison indicates that the 31 July 2025
 800 intrusion differs structurally from the canonical Paracas regime described in Romero et al. (2024).
 801



802
803 **Figure C1.** Epoch alignment of PG centered on the time of the daily PG minimum (t_{min}) for canonical
804 Paracas events (gray) and the 31 July 2025 intrusion (red). Curves represent ± 60 min relative to t_{min} .
805 Canonical events show predominantly monopolar negative excursions, whereas the 31 July 2025 case
806 exhibits a structured bipolar evolution with pre-minimum positive enhancement and rapid polarity reversal.

807
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812
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816 through a competitive research grant awarded in 2023 by the Vicerrectorado de Investigación (VRI),
817 UNICA. The near-real-time monitoring platform associated with this infrastructure is maintained by the
818 authors.

819
820 **Declaration of competing interests**

821 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

822
823 **Data availability statement**

824 PG data belonging to the Atmospheric Electric Field Network in South America (AFINSA), together with
825 the ground-based camera sequences used to determine visual dust-front arrival times, are archived in a
826 Zenodo repository (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18881269>).

827
828 PM and meteorological data are available from the Research Center for the Study of Solar Activity and its
829 Effects on Earth (CIEASEST), Universidad Nacional San Luis Gonzaga (UNICA):
830 <https://cieasest.unica.edu.pe/>

832 Satellite data from the NOAA Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellites (GOES-19) were
833 accessed via the NOAA Open Data Registry: <https://registry.opendata.aws/noaa-goes/>
834

835 A near-real-time visualization platform associated with the monitoring stations is maintained at
836 <https://www.aireica.com/>.
837

838 **Code availability**

839 The code used in this study is available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.
840

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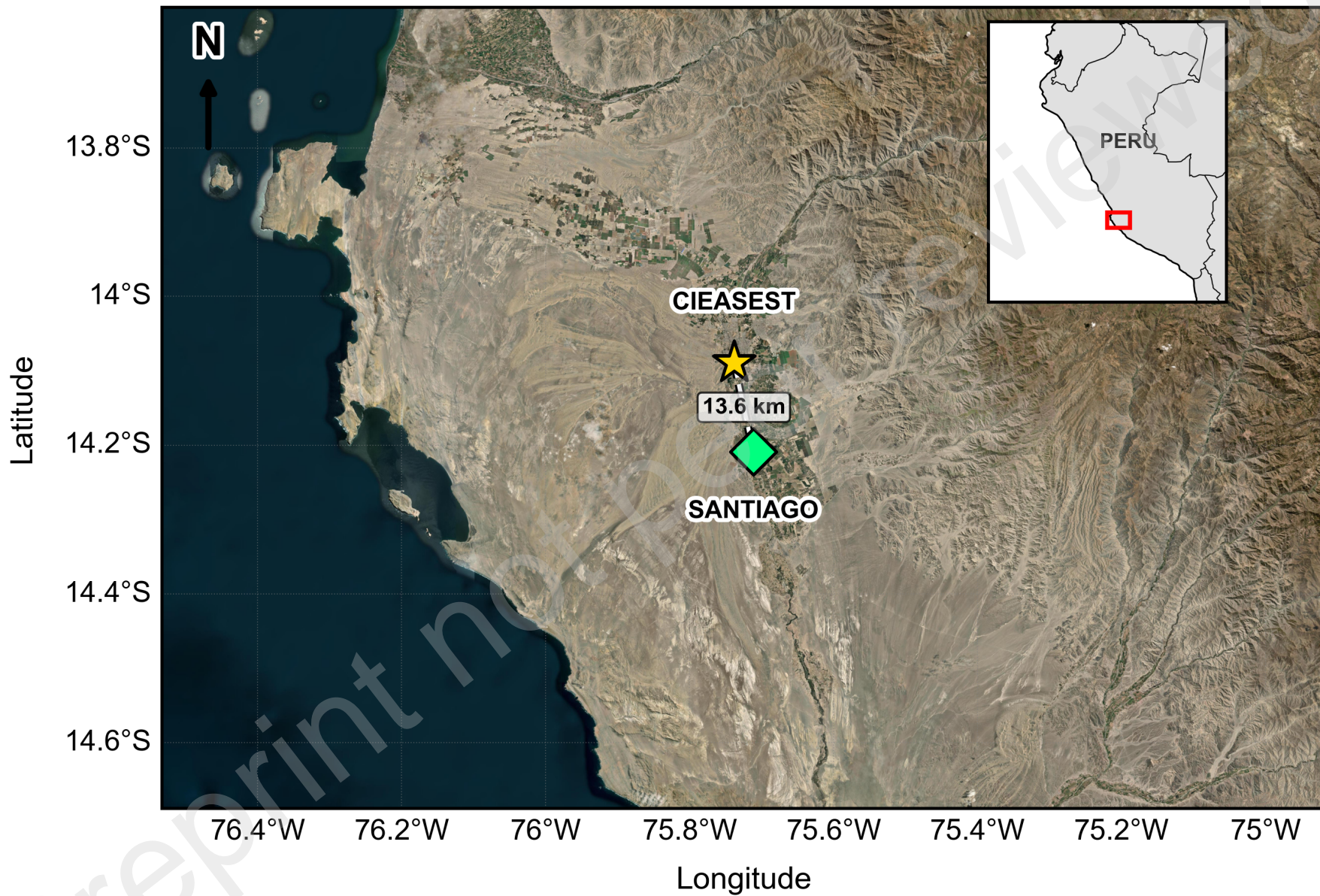
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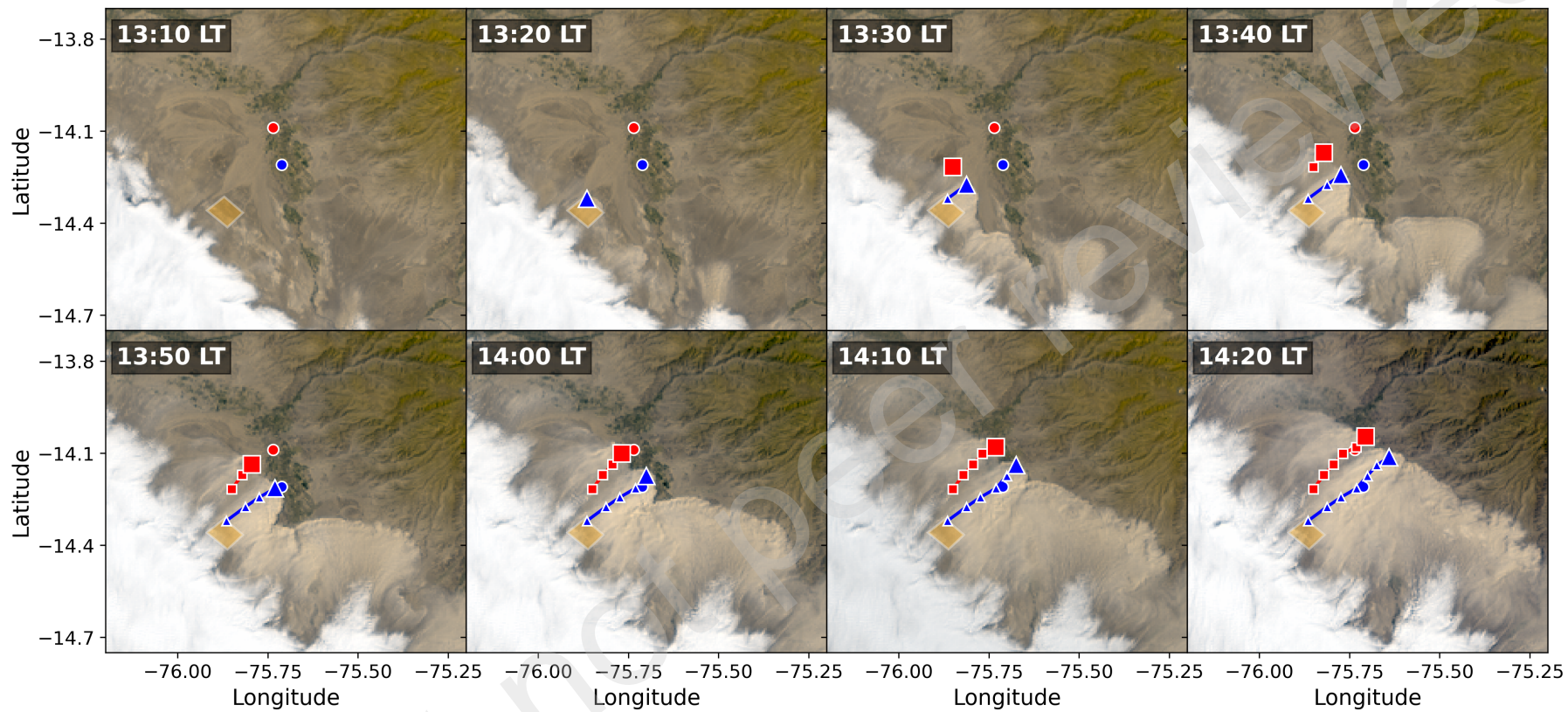
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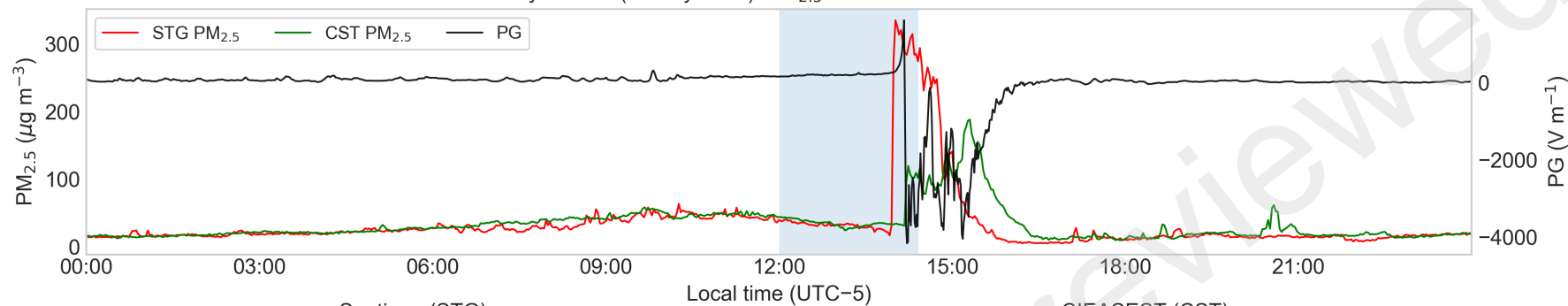


■ CST Front ▲ STG Front ● Stations ■ Initiation Area

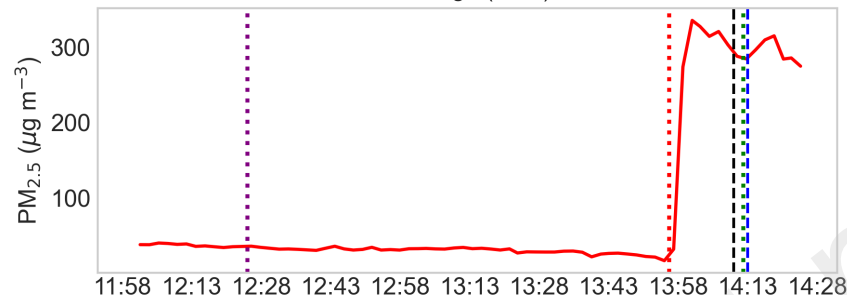




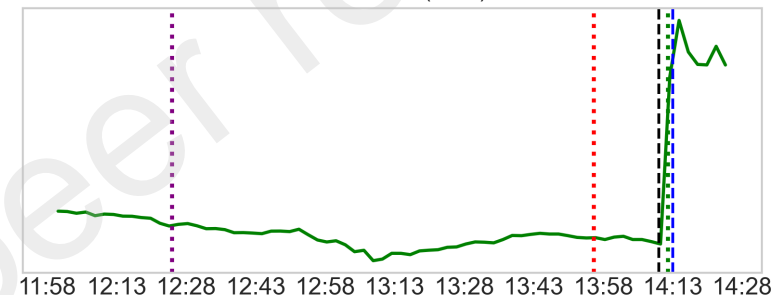
Full-day context (31 July 2025): PM_{2.5} at STG/CST and PG at CST



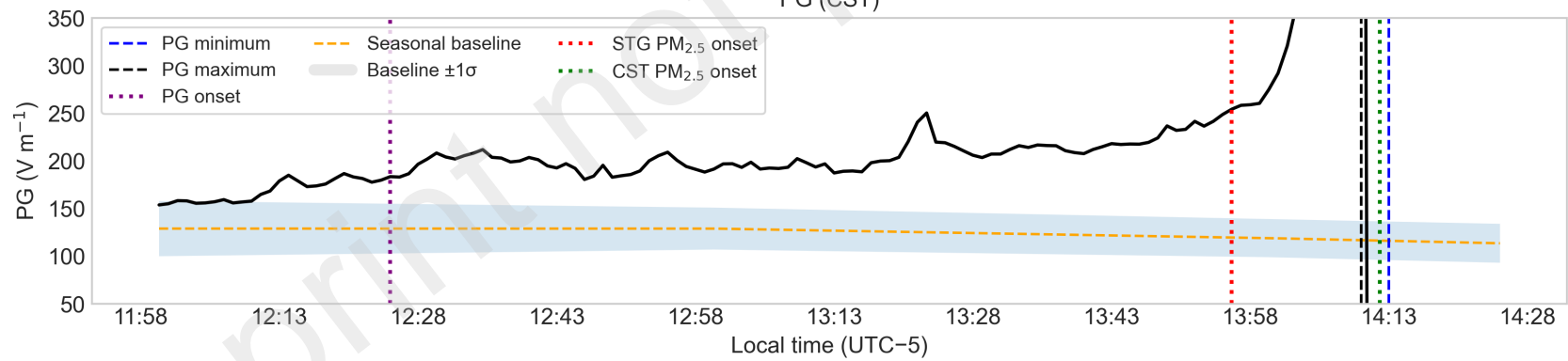
Santiago (STG)

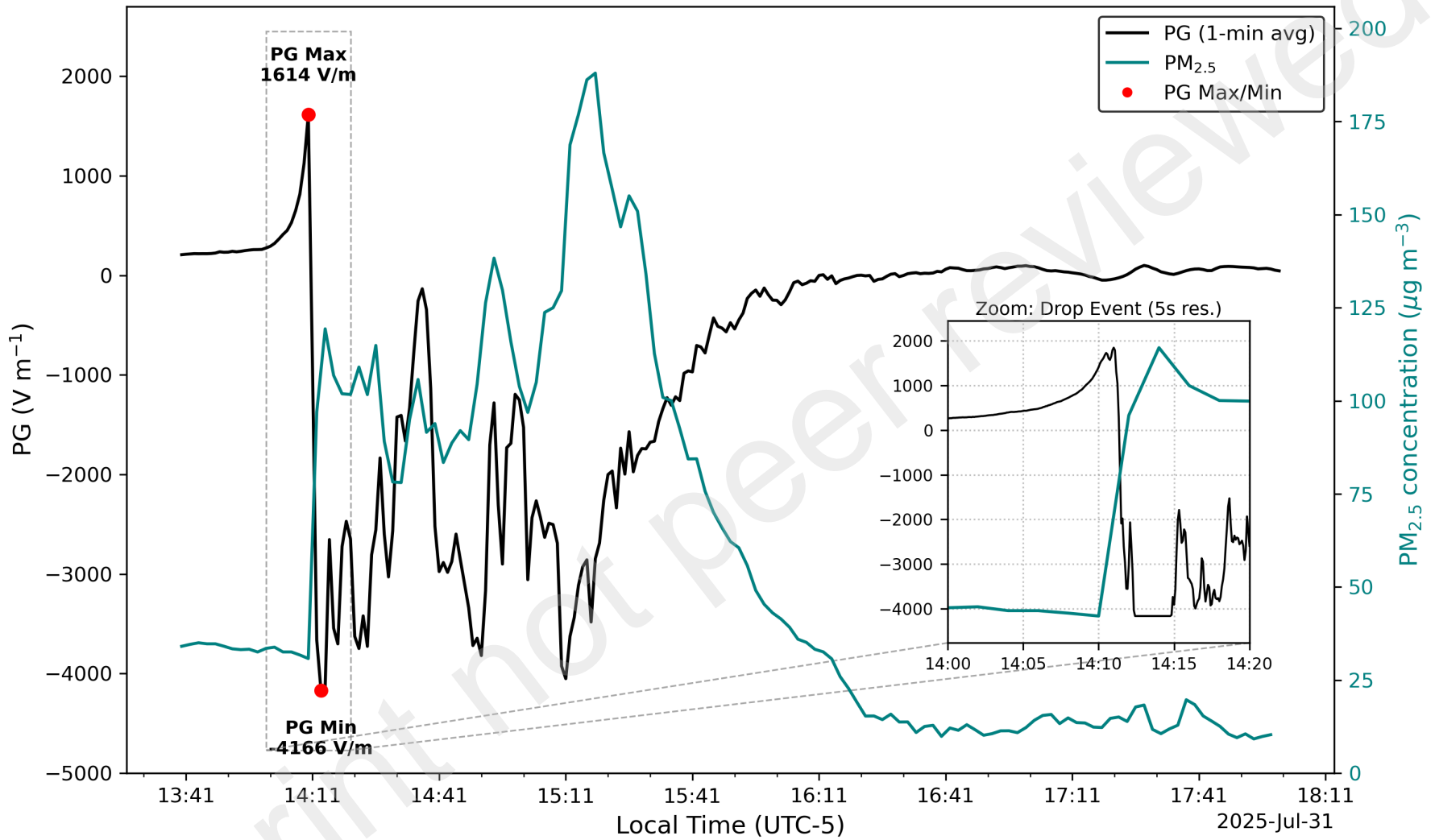


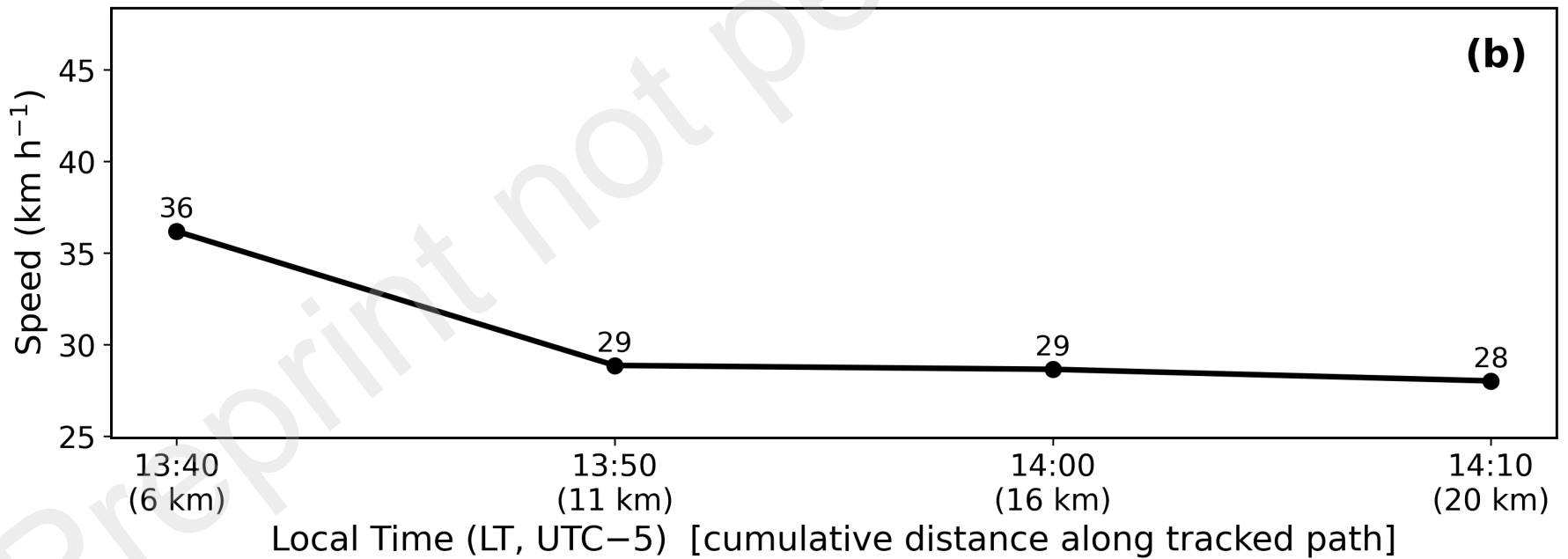
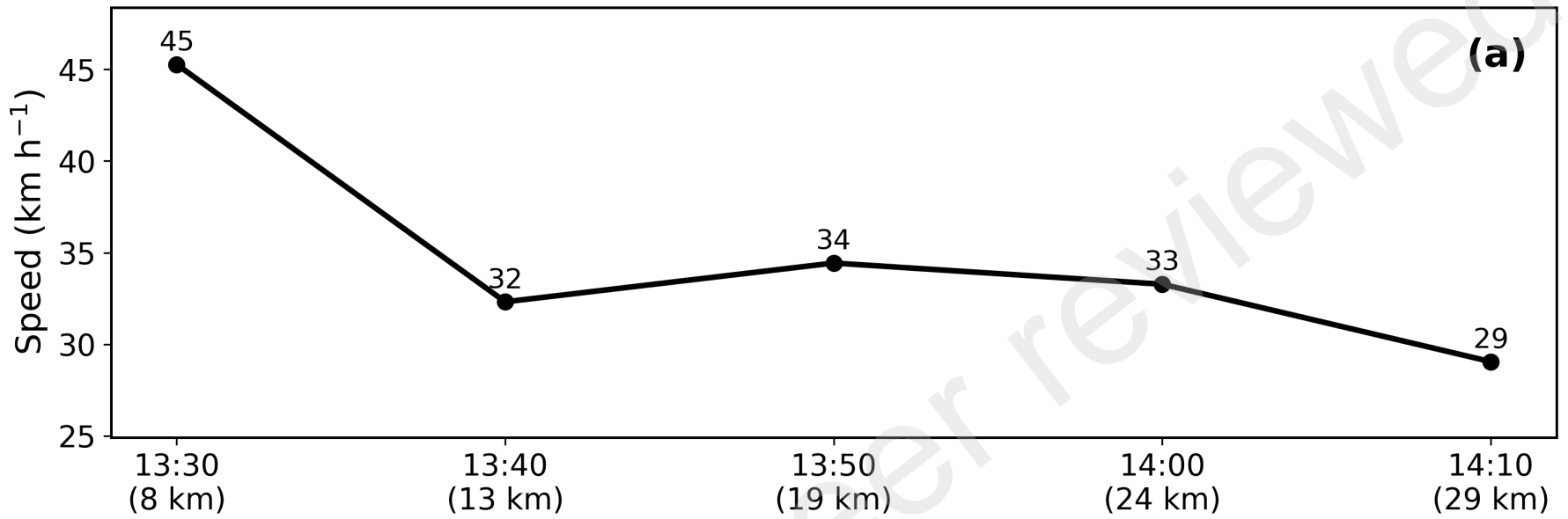
CIEASEST (CST)

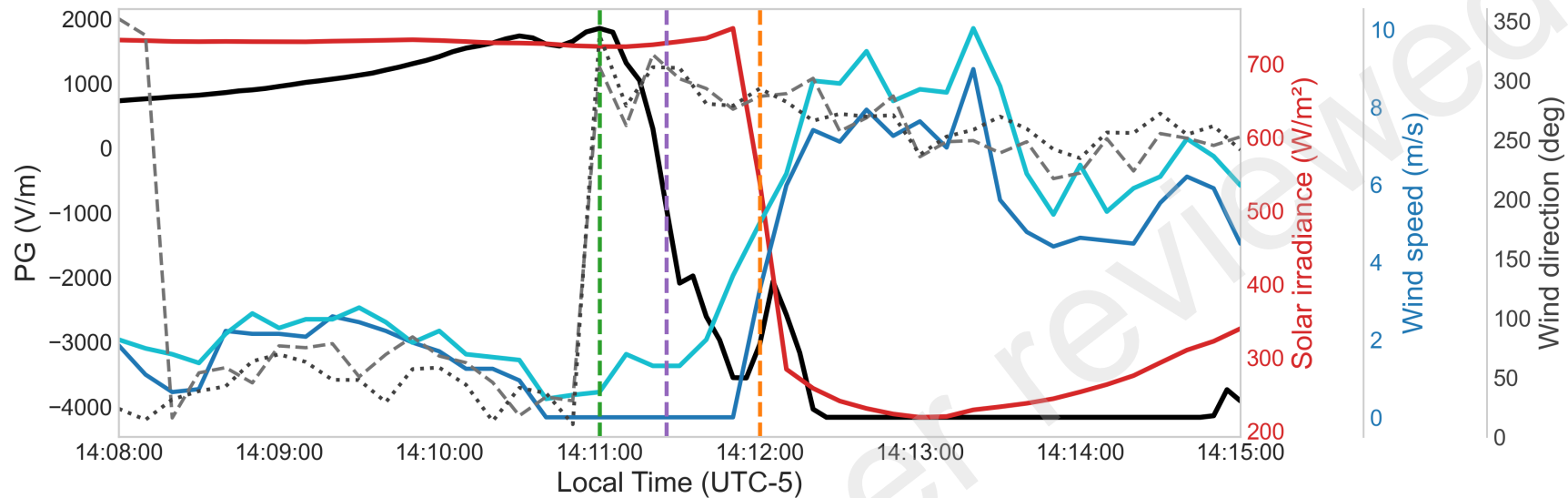


PG (CST)









— PG (5 s) — Wind speed A1 (10 s) - - - Wind dir A1 (deg) - - - PG peak time - - - Wind/irradiance shift time
 — Solar irradiance (10 s) — Wind speed A2 (10 s) ····· Wind dir A2 (deg) - - - Polarity reversal time

Preprint not peer reviewed

