

1 **Toward Enhanced Capability for Detecting and Predicting Dust Events in the Western**  
2 **United States: The Arizona Case Study**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Dust aerosols affect human life, ecosystems, atmospheric chemistry and climate in various  
20 aspects. Some studies have revealed intensified dust activity in the western US during the past  
21 decades despite the weaker dust activity in non-US regions. It is important to extend the  
22 historical dust records, to better understand their temporal changes, and use such information to  
23 improve the daily dust forecasting skill as well as the projection of future dust activity under the  
24 changing climate. This study develops dust records in Arizona in 2005-2013 using multiple  
25 observation datasets, including in-situ measurements at the surface Air Quality System (AQS)  
26 and Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) sites, and level 2  
27 deep blue aerosol product by the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer. The diurnal  
28 and inter-annual variability of identified dust events are shown related to observed weather  
29 patterns (e.g., wind and soil moisture) and surface conditions (e.g., land cover type, vegetation  
30 conditions), suggesting a potential for use of satellite soil moisture and land products to help  
31 interpret and predict dust activity. Back-trajectories computed using NOAA's Hybrid Single  
32 Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) Model indicate that the Sonoran and  
33 Chihuahuan deserts are important dust source regions during identified dust events in Phoenix,  
34 Arizona. Finally, we assess the impact of a recent strong dust event on western US air quality  
35 using various observational and modeling data sets, during a period with a stratospheric ozone  
36 intrusion event. The capability of the current US National Air Quality Forecasting Capability  
37 (NAQFC) CMAQ modeling system to represent the magnitude and the temporal variability of  
38 aerosol concentrations is evaluated for this event. Directions of integrating observations to  
39 further improve dust emission modeling in CMAQ are also suggested.

40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Dust aerosols, generated by anthropogenic or natural sources, present strong spatial and temporal  
43 variability (Ginoux et al., 2001, 2010, 2012a, b; Carslaw et al., 2010; Prospero et al., 2002;  
44 Zender et al., 2004), and affect human life, ecosystems, atmospheric chemistry and climate in  
45 many aspects. Degraded visibility during dusty periods prevents normal outdoor activities and  
46 transportation, and dust activity may be associated with a number of human diseases such as  
47 “valley fever”, “Haboob Lung Syndrome” and certain eye diseases (Sprigg et al., 2014; Goudie,  
48 2013; Panikkath et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2009a; Morain et al., 2010). Dust neutralizes acid rain  
49 (Hedin and Likens, 1996), and interacts with terrestrial and ocean ecosystems (Gassó et al., 2010;  
50 Chen et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2015; Reynolds et al., 2001, 2006). Also, dust absorbs sunlight,  
51 reduces the planetary albedo over bright surfaces such as snow, ice and deserts, and modifies  
52 cloud properties and precipitation (Zhao et al., 2012; Creamean et al., 2013, 2015). The  
53 deposition of dust on snow and ice can accelerate their melting and affect regional climate (e.g.,  
54 Carslaw et al., 2010; Painter et al., 2007). In addition, mineral dust aerosols affect atmospheric  
55 chemistry through surface adsorption and reactions (Dentener et al., 1996; Grassian, 2001;  
56 Underwood et al., 2001; Fairlie et al., 2010).

57

58 North America contributes to a small proportion of the world’s total dust emissions, ranging  
59 from <0.1% to ~5% as reported in previous studies (Miller et al., 2004a, b; Tanaka and Chiba,  
60 2006; Zender et al., 2003; Ginoux et al., 2004; Ravi et al., 2011), and the important emitters  
61 include the four major deserts in the western US, i.e., Great Basin, Mojave, Sonoran, and  
62 Chihuahuan deserts. Dust storms in the western US usually last for 2-21 hours, due to various  
63 mechanisms (Lei and Wang, 2014). Surface and satellite observations, along with modeling

64 analysis, have provided evidence that the western US is not only affected by local dust emissions,  
65 but is also susceptible to dust transported from the overseas (e.g., Van Curen et al., 2002; Fischer  
66 et al., 2009; Uno et al., 2009; Fairlie et al., 2007; Chin et al., 2007; Eguchi et al., 2009; Stith et  
67 al., 2009; Dunlea et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2009b). Using a global transport model, Fairlie et al.  
68 (2007) reported that dust from the overseas contributed to <30% of the total dust in the  
69 southwestern US and >80% of the total dust in the northwestern US in Spring 2001, and these  
70 non-US contributions were much larger than in other seasons. Recent dust observations have  
71 revealed rapid intensification of dust storm activity in the western US (e.g., Brahney et al., 2013),  
72 despite the weaker dust activity in many non-US regions (e.g., Mahowald et al., 2007; Zhu et al.,  
73 2008; Shao et al., 2013). This increasing trend enhances the concerns about their various impacts  
74 or even another “Dust Bowl”, which occurred in the 1930s due to severe drought conditions and  
75 inappropriate farming methods (Lee and Gill, 2015;  
76 [http://www.livinghistoryfarm.org/farminginthe30s/water\\_02.html](http://www.livinghistoryfarm.org/farminginthe30s/water_02.html);  
77 [http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/paleo/drought/drght\\_history.html](http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/paleo/drought/drght_history.html)) and at that time led to significantly  
78 negative agricultural and ecological impacts in the western/central US.

79

80 Surface and satellite observations have been used to study dust trends and variability, as well as  
81 for model evaluation (e.g., Tong et al., 2012; Appel et al., 2013; Torres et al., 2002; Ginoux and  
82 Torres, 2003; Draxler et al., 2010; Vukovic et al., 2014; Mahler et al., 2006; Raman and Arellano,  
83 2010; Morain et al., 2010). Surface observations used in many of these studies are sparsely  
84 and/or infrequently sampled, and there is delay for obtaining some of these datasets which  
85 prevents timely updates on the observed dust records. The capability of satellite aerosol optical  
86 depth products to capture the dust events depends on various factors such as sensor

87 characteristics, cloud conditions, surface reflectance and dust mineralogy (e.g., Baddock et al.,  
88 2009). There still lacks comprehensively developed observational dust records with broad spatial  
89 coverage till the very recent years, and accurately simulating dust aerosols is challenging.  
90 Therefore, it is important to extend the temporal changes of observed dust activity to recent years  
91 using diverse observations. These various observations can assist evaluating the chemical  
92 transport model skills especially during dust events. Furthermore, better understanding the  
93 linkages between the temporal changes of dust observations and the observed surface/weather  
94 conditions can be beneficial for advancing the dust emission modeling skills via improving the  
95 meteorology and dust source input data, as well as for projecting future dust activity under the  
96 changing climate.

97

98 Several studies found that dust events can be accompanied by stratospheric intrusion in multiple  
99 regions of the world (e.g., Pan and Randel, 2006; Yasunari et al., 2007; Yasunari and Yamazaki,  
100 2009; Reddy and Pierce, 2012). Recently, substantial attention has been called on the influences  
101 of stratospheric ozone intrusion on western US surface/near-surface ozone variability (e.g., Lin  
102 et al., 2012; Langford et al., 2014). Observations and modeling tools are useful for identifying  
103 the periods when dust events are associated with stratospheric intrusions, as well as to assess the  
104 impact of elevated surface/near-surface ozone and PM concentrations on public health and the  
105 environment during such events.

106

107 This study develops decadal dust records in the state of Arizona using multiple in-situ and  
108 satellite observation datasets, and relates the diurnal and inter-annual variability of observed dust  
109 activity to the observed surface conditions (e.g., land cover type, vegetation conditions) and

110 weather patterns (e.g., wind and soil moisture) (Sections 3.1-3.3). We also analyze observations  
111 and model simulations during a recent strong dust event in the western US accompanied by a  
112 stratospheric ozone intrusion. The modeling analyses include the US National Air Quality  
113 Forecasting Capability (NAQFC) 12 km Community Multi-scale Air Quality (CMAQ) regional  
114 model base and sensitivity simulations (Section 3.4). In the analysis, we discuss the usefulness  
115 and limitations of different observations for identifying potential exceptional events and for  
116 model evaluation. We also suggest future directions of integrating observations into regional dust  
117 emission modeling in the western US for further improvement of the air quality forecasts.

118

## 119 **2. Data and Method**

### 120 *2.1. Drought indicators*

121 Three datasets were analyzed to interpret the observed inter-annual variability of the drought  
122 conditions from 2005 to 2013 in Arizona, an important dust source and receptor region in the  
123 western US. They are: Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) from the Moderate  
124 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) instrument on NASA Aqua satellite, a  
125 European soil moisture dataset that merged both passive and active satellite sensor data, and the  
126 Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI).

127

128 NDVI is the most commonly used vegetation index, calculated using the reflected visible and  
129 near-infrared light by vegetation (Scheftic et al., 2014; Brown et al., 2006). Smaller NDVI values  
130 refer to less vegetated areas, which may have high potential of emitting dust (Kim, D. et al., 2013;  
131 Vukovic et al., 2014). NDVI has been used for monitoring land cover changes and indicating  
132 drought (Tucker and Choudhury, 1987; Karnieli et al., 2010; Wan et al., 2004), and it has been

133 shown found to be correlated with meteorological based drought indexes such as Standardized  
134 Precipitation Index (Ji and Peters, 2003). In this study we used the monthly-mean 1 km MODIS  
135 NDVI product version 5, which temporally aggregated the 16-day 1 km MODIS NDVI using a  
136 weighted average. Following the Users' guide instructions  
137 ([http://vip.arizona.edu/documents/MODIS/MODIS\\_VI\\_UsersGuide\\_01\\_2012.pdf](http://vip.arizona.edu/documents/MODIS/MODIS_VI_UsersGuide_01_2012.pdf)), only the data  
138 flagged good quality were used. To avoid the known effects from the degradation of the Terra  
139 MODIS sensor (e.g., Wang et al., 2012), only the NDVI data from the Aqua MODIS  
140 (MYD13A3) was used.

141  
142 Soil moisture has also been used for drought monitoring, and several studies have found that  
143 satellite and modeled soil moisture is related to dust outbreaks in Asian countries (Liu et al.,  
144 2004; Kim, Y. et al., 2013; Kim and Choi, 2015). This study used a multi-sensor satellite soil  
145 moisture product from the European Satellite Agency (ESA) within the soil moisture Climate  
146 Change Initiative project that merged all available passive and active products and preserved the  
147 original dynamics of these remote sensing observations. The data are produced daily on a  
148  $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$  horizontal resolution grid. Long-term soil moisture changes in the US based on the  
149 CCI soil moisture product contributed to the US National Climate Assessment report  
150 (<http://nca2014.globalchange.gov/report>, page 72-73).

151  
152 Monthly PDSI data, calculated from temperature and precipitation (Palmer, 1965; Alley, 1984),  
153 is widely used for identifying long-term and abnormal moisture deficiency or excess. Studies  
154 have found that PDSI is moderately or significantly correlated ( $r=0.5$  to  $0.7$ ) with observed soil  
155 moisture content within the top 1 m depth during warm-season months in various regions (Dai et

156 al., 2004). In this study, we analyzed the inter-annual variability of PDSI in two NOAA climate  
157 regions in Arizona (Karl and Koss, 1984; [http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/monitoring-](http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/monitoring-references/maps/us-climate-regions.php)  
158 [references/maps/us-climate-regions.php](http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/monitoring-references/maps/us-climate-regions.php)). Drought conditions are defined with negative PDSI  
159 values (e.g., negative 2 is moderate drought, negative 3 is severe drought, and negative 4 is  
160 extreme drought), and positive PDSI values indicate wet conditions.

161

## 162 2.2. *Specification of dust sources using satellite (MODIS) land cover and NDVI products*

163 The dust productive areas depend on surface conditions such as land cover types and vegetation  
164 conditions, and therefore are temporally variable. Several studies specified dynamic dust source  
165 regions using either or both satellite land cover types and NDVI products (e.g., Vukovic et al.,  
166 2014; Yin et al., 2007; Kim, D. et al., 2013). In this study, to explore the inter-annual variability  
167 of dust sources in the western US and its influences on the dust activity, we specified the dust  
168 sources following the methods in Vukovic et al. (2014). First, for each year during 2005-2013,  
169 we located open shrubland, cropland, and barren areas, where dust can potentially be emitted  
170 from, according to the annual-mean MODIS land cover type product Collection 5 (MCD12Q1,  
171 500 m resolution in tile grid, Friedl et al., 2010) and its 17-category International Geosphere  
172 Biosphere Programme (IGBP) land cover classification scheme (defined at:  
173 [https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset\\_discovery/modis/modis\\_products\\_table/mcd12q1](https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset_discovery/modis/modis_products_table/mcd12q1)). Then, for  
174 each month and each of the three erodible land cover types, dust source areas were determined  
175 based on the monthly-mean Aqua MODIS NDVI values (introduced in Section 2.1) and the  
176 following criteria:

177 Barren (category 16): 100% dust source (independent from NDVI);

178 Cropland and cropland/native vegetation (categories 12 and 14): if NDVI  $\leq$  0.25, 100% dust  
179 source;  
180 Open shrubland (category 7): if NDVI  $\leq$  0.1, 100% dust source; if NDVI is within 0.11-0.13,  
181 decreasing linearly from 70 to 30% as a dust source.

182

### 183 2.3. *Aerosol observations*

184 Both remote sensing and in-situ aerosol observations were used to explore the dust aerosol  
185 distributions in Arizona. We first demonstrate the large-scale spatial distributions of aerosols  
186 using satellite aerosol products, and discuss their diurnal (e.g., late morning vs. early afternoon  
187 times) and inter-annual variability linking to the weather and vegetation conditions. We mainly  
188 focus on spring and summer time periods when dust activity is generally strong in Arizona as  
189 found by Ginoux et al. (2012a) for the 2003-2009 period. In-situ observations at Arizona surface  
190 monitoring sites were also analyzed, focusing on their temporal variability in the populated  
191 Phoenix urban area (i.e., with a population of  $\sim$ 1.5 million). Finally, we identified dust events in  
192 Phoenix using hourly surface observations and discuss the time of occurrence of these identified  
193 dust events.

194

#### 195 2.3.1. MODIS deep blue Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) and Dust Optical Depth (DOD)

196 We extracted scenes dominated by dust aerosols from the MODIS level 2 deep blue aerosol  
197 product Collection 6 (Hsu et al., 2013) during 2005-2013. This product includes the values of  
198 AOD and single scattering albedo (SSA) at 412 nm, 470 nm, 550 nm, and 670 nm, as well as  
199 Angstrom exponent between 412 and 470 nm. It is recommended for identifying both dust  
200 sources and plumes at high spatial resolution (e.g., Baddock et al., 2009). The Collection 6 deep

201 blue data were created using enhanced deep blue algorithm (from the previous Collection 5.1),  
202 with improved surface reflectance determination, aerosol model selection, and cloud screening  
203 schemes. Also, the deep blue data from Terra MODIS have been extended beyond 2007 using  
204 suitable calibration corrections (Hsu et al., 2013). Compared with the Aerosol Robotic Network  
205 (AERONET) AOD data, the Collection 6 deep blue AOD data from Aqua MODIS show a ~0.03  
206 change in bias through the decade, with overall negative biases in 2005-2007 and 2011, and  
207 positive biases in 2009, 2010, and 2012 (Sayer et al., 2013).

208  
209 The very good (Quality Assurance Flag=3, as recommended by Shi et al. (2013) and Sayer et al.  
210 (2013)) MODIS deep blue AOD data from Terra and Aqua were selected and gridded on  
211  $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$  horizontal resolution for each day. The DOD values were then determined by  
212 screening the 550 nm AOD data based on three criteria to represent dust-dominant scenes: 1)  
213 Angstrom exponent within 0-0.5, which selects the particles in large sizes; 2) SSA at 412 nm  
214  $< 0.95$ , which selects the absorbing aerosols and efficiently eliminates the sea salt dominated  
215 scenes; 3) difference of SSA between 412 nm and 670 nm is positive, due to the specific optical  
216 property of dust that there is a sharp increase of absorption from red to deep blue (Ginoux et al.,  
217 2012a; Hsu et al., 2013).

218  
219 2.3.2. Particulate matter (PM) measurements from the surface Interagency Monitoring of  
220 Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) sites

221 Most IMPROVE surface sites are located in rural regions, many of which are at the national  
222 parks to measure background pollution levels. We here analyzed the temporal variability of  
223 observed particulate matter mass PM<sub>10</sub> (i.e.,  $< 10 \mu\text{m}$  in diameter), along with the fine (i.e.,  $< 2.5$

224  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter) soil particles at the Phoenix site (PHOE1, latitude/longitude:  
225 33.5038°N/112.0958°W) within the IMPROVE network during 2005-2013. These fine soil data  
226 are computed based on five (Al, Si, Ca, Fe, and Ti) soil-derived trace metals in their assumed  
227 oxidized form measured at the IMPROVE site (Malm et al., 2004). Daily mean IMPROVE data  
228 are available every three days, and there is approximately a year of delay for obtaining these data.

229

### 230 2.3.3. Air Quality System (AQS) and AirNow PM and trace gas measurements

231 In general the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) AQS sites are designed to monitor  
232 air quality in populated urban or suburban areas. In this study the AQS hourly PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
233 data during 2005-Sep 2013 and AirNow during Sep-Dec 2013 at the Phoenix JLG supersite (co-  
234 located with the IMPROVE PHOE1 site, AQS site #040139997) were analyzed to study the  
235 temporal variability of dust events on hourly temporal resolution. In the case study on the dusty  
236 year of Dec 2006-Nov 2007, AQS trace gas measurements (i.e., carbon monoxide (CO) and  
237 oxides of nitrogen (NO<sub>x</sub>)) were used as tracers of anthropogenic or biomass burning sources to  
238 evaluate the dust events that are identified based on the hourly PM observations. The AQS data  
239 qualifier codes were also examined which provide clues of the event types (e.g., high winds,  
240 long-range transport of PM from non-US regions).

241

### 242 2.3.4. Other satellite aerosol products

243 The achieved NOAA Hazard Mapping System (HMS) text product narratively describes the  
244 observed smoke and dust events based on images of multiple satellites. It qualitatively indicates  
245 the dust locations and the intensity, which in this study supports the analysis during a recent  
246 strong event we selected for case study in Section 3.4. We also used the dust score data from the

247 Atmospheric Infrared Sensor (AIRS) instrument on board the Aqua satellite to qualitatively  
248 represent the presence of atmospheric dust during this recent event. The Aqua satellite has  
249 ascending overpassing times in the early afternoon (~1:30 pm local time).

250

#### 251 *2.4. Observed wind speed and direction*

252 As atmospheric dust concentrations depend on the wind fields (e.g., Kavouras et al., 2007; Ravi  
253 et al., 2011; Csavina et al., 2014), we used the observed hourly surface wind speed and direction  
254 in Dec 2006-Nov 2007 at the Phoenix Encanto site (latitude/longitude: 33.4792°N/112.0964°W,  
255 within the Arizona meteorological network (AZMET)) together with the hourly AQS PM  
256 observations to identify the dust events. Phoenix Encanto is the closest site to the Phoenix JLG  
257 supersite within the AZMET that had available meteorological observations during this period.

258

#### 259 *2.5. Backward airmass trajectory analysis*

260 Backward airmass trajectories were computed to locate the sources of dust aerosols observed at  
261 the Phoenix JLG site during the identified dust events in Dec 2006-Nov 2007. These trajectories  
262 were calculated using NOAA's Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory  
263 (HYSPLIT) Model, version 4 (Draxler and Rolph, 2015; Stein et al., 2015). The accuracy of the  
264 trajectories depends on the resolution of the wind data (Draxler and Hess, 1998), and we  
265 calculated these trajectories based on the 3-hourly North America Regional Reanalysis (NARR)  
266 data (Mesinger et al., 2006) on 32 km horizontal resolution and 9 vertical levels below 800 hPa.  
267 NARR is the finest meteorology HYSPLIT can currently run with for studying this year, as the  
268 horizontally finer (12 km) North American Mesoscale Forecast System (NAM, Janjic, 2003;  
269 Janjic et al., 2004) wind fields are only available for HYSPLIT calculations for the time after

270 May 2007. These trajectories were initiated at 500 m above Phoenix's ground level at identified  
271 dust periods and were computed for 24 hours. The HYSPLIT-indicated air mass origins during  
272 the Phoenix dust events will be discussed together with the MODIS land cover product (details  
273 in Section 2.2).

274

#### 275 2.6. *Chemical transport model base and sensitivity simulations*

276 The US NAQFC 12 km CMAQ (Byun and Schere, 2006; Chai et al., 2013; Pan et al., 2014)  
277 model simulations were used to depict the PM distributions during a recent strong dust event in  
278 the western US that was accompanied by a stratospheric ozone intrusion. Dust emissions for  
279 NAQFC's CMAQ simulations were calculated by the FENGSHA dust emission model based on  
280 modified Owen's equation, which is a function of wind speed, soil moisture, soil texture and  
281 erodible land use types (Tong et al., 2015). Both the FENGSHA and CMAQ model calculations  
282 were driven by meteorological fields from the NAM model, which is known to usually have  
283 positive biases in temperature, moisture, and wind speed in the continental US (e.g., McQueen et  
284 al., 2015a, b). The CMAQ base simulation was evaluated against surface observations at the  
285 AirNow and IMPROVE sites, and we focused on PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations as it is one of the  
286 standard NAQFC products. To quantify the impact of western US dust emissions on PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
287 concentrations during this event, an additional sensitivity simulation was conducted in which no  
288 dust emissions were included. NAQFC CMAQ lateral chemical boundary conditions were  
289 downscaled from monthly mean output from a global GEOS-Chem simulation of year 2006  
290 (<http://www.geos-chem.org/>; [http://acmg.seas.harvard.edu/geos/geos\\_chem\\_narrative.html](http://acmg.seas.harvard.edu/geos/geos_chem_narrative.html), and  
291 the references therein. The details of this GEOS-Chem simulation and the boundary condition  
292 downscaling methods are included in Barrett et al. (2012)). These boundary conditions do not

293 represent the day-to-day variability in the trans-boundary chemical species impacting the CMAQ  
294 model domain. Stratospheric ozone intrusion during this dust event is indicated by  
295 meteorological conditions and chemical fields from the global 1°×1° Realtime Air Quality  
296 Modeling System (RAQMS) (Pierce et al., 2007) which assimilated satellite ozone observations.

297

### 298 *2.7. Ozone and carbon monoxide (CO) products from AIRS*

299 The level 3 daytime ozone and carbon monoxide (CO) profiles (AIRX3STD version 6, gridded  
300 in 1°×1° horizontal resolution) from the AIRS instrument were used to help identify the  
301 stratospheric intrusion during a recent dust event in Section 3.4. AIRS ozone is sensitive to the  
302 altitudes near the tropopause, with positive biases over ozonesondes in the upper troposphere  
303 (e.g., Bian et al., 2007). Due to its broad spatial coverage and the capability of reproducing the  
304 dynamical variability of ozone near the tropopause, AIRS ozone has been used in a number of  
305 studies on stratospheric intrusion (e.g., Lin et al., 2012; Pan and Randel, 2006; Pan et al., 2007).  
306 AIRS CO, which is most sensitive to 300-600 hPa (Warner et al., 2007), can distinguish  
307 stratospheric intrusion from long-range transported pollution when used together with ozone.

308

## 309 **3. Results and Discussions**

### 310 *3.1. Decadal drought indicators, dust sources and satellite DOD in Arizona*

311 We first review the spatial and inter-annual variability of the drought conditions during 2005-  
312 2013 in Arizona in the dusty seasons (i.e., spring and summer from March to August), based on  
313 satellite NDVI (Figure 1a) and soil moisture (Figure 1b) products. These observations show that  
314 southwestern and south central Arizona, a region close to the Sonoran Desert, is overall drier  
315 than the rest of the state with less greenness. Most of these dry regions fall into two NOAA

316 climate divisions (i.e., “South Central” including the Maricopa and Pinal counties and “South  
317 West” including the La Paz and Yuma counties). The mean PDSI values in spring and summer in  
318 these two climate divisions were calculated (Figure 1c), indicating moderate to severe dry  
319 conditions under warm weather in these regions in the past decade, except 2005 (extreme wet),  
320 2008 (near neutral), and 2010 (moderate wet). The PDSI values were then correlated with the  
321 anomalies of satellite NDVI and soil moisture, defined as the ratio of annual mean value over the  
322 multi-year mean value. In general, Figure 1c shows that the PDSI-indicated drought conditions  
323 are consistent with those based on the satellite NDVI and soil moisture products: i.e., with  
324 correlation coefficient  $r(\text{PDSI vs. NDVI anomaly})$  and  $r(\text{PDSI vs. soil moisture anomaly})$  of 0.96  
325 and 0.84, respectively.

326  
327 Gridded MODIS DOD maps are shown in Figure 2a-b for each year’s dusty season during 2005-  
328 2013 and they were related to the satellite-based weather and vegetation conditions (Figure 1c).  
329 To exclude the locations occasionally affected by long-range transported dust aerosols, data are  
330 shown only for the grids that DOD data are available on 5% of the total number of days in each  
331 year, defined as “areas of dust impact”. In all maps, high DOD values ( $>0.2$ ) are seen in the dry  
332 southwest and south central climate divisions. Aqua MODIS observed higher DOD than in Terra  
333 MODIS DOD by 4-19% (~11% on average). Assuming Terra and Aqua MODIS DOD have  
334 similar quality in this region, this indicates higher dust in the early afternoon than in the late  
335 morning. Inter-annual variability is also seen from these DOD maps over large spatial scales,  
336 with smaller “areas of dust impact” and DOD values in these areas in the wetter years (e.g., 2005  
337 and 2010). The differences among the annual-mean DOD values are often much larger than  
338 those of the MODIS AOD biases reported by Sayer et al. (2013). The correlation coefficients

339 between the anomalies of Aqua MODIS DOD and the three drought indicators (NDVI, soil  
340 moisture, and PDSI) in the past decade are -0.82, -0.58, -0.79, respectively. The anomalies of  
341 Terra DOD show similar correlations with these three drought indicators. Such anti-correlations  
342 suggest the importance of drought monitoring to the interpretation and prediction of dust activity.  
343 Particularly, it is noted that satellite can provide soil moisture measurements of much broader  
344 spatial coverage than the surface sites (e.g., there is only one site of Walnut Gulch in Arizona  
345 within the Soil Climate Analysis Network), and drought monitoring can be better assisted by  
346 newer satellite soil moisture observations, such as those from NASA's newly launched Soil  
347 Moisture Active Passive (SMAP).

348

349 The correlations between dust activity and drought conditions can be partially attributed to the  
350 dependency of dust source regions as well as the threshold wind velocity (i.e., the minimum  
351 wind velocity required to initiate soil erosion) (Ravi et al., 2011, and the references therein) on  
352 the surface conditions in the western US. Figure 3 shows the MODIS-derived annual-mean dust  
353 source regions during the dusty season in 2005-2013 over several land use types (Maps of the  
354 dust sources from three land use types are shown for selected wet and dry years in Figure S1). In  
355 most years, barren contributed the most (>50%) and cropland contributed the least (<5%) to the  
356 dust source regions, qualitatively consistent with the findings by Ginoux et al. (2012a) and  
357 Nordstrom and Hotta (2004). In general, larger dust source regions are found in drier years, with  
358 the strongest inter-annual variability from the open shrubland category. As an important  
359 nonerodible roughness element, the variable vegetation also modified the threshold wind velocity  
360 for the soil erosion. These findings suggest that dust emission modeling can be improved by  
361 using satellite land products, instead of those based on static land data. Similar land products of

362 smaller footprints from newer satellite instruments, such as those from the Visible Infrared  
363 Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) instrument launched in 2011, can also be considered. In  
364 addition, soil moisture affects dust activity by modifying the threshold wind velocity, dependent  
365 on the soil type. Therefore, dust emission modeling can also benefit from careful evaluation and  
366 improvement of the soil moisture inputs using surface and satellite soil moisture measurements.

367

### 368 3.2. *Decadal surface in-situ PM measurements in Phoenix*

369 We then analyze the long-term surface PM measurements at the AQS and IMPROVE monitoring  
370 sites in the Phoenix area. The time series of PM<sub>10</sub> from AQS/AirNow and IMPROVE sites in  
371 Phoenix are shown in Figure 4a during 2005-2013 in their original temporal resolution. It is  
372 shown that the 24 h mean IMPROVE PM<sub>10</sub> data missed the extreme values (e.g., >150  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )  
373 that were captured by the hourly AQS/AirNow observations at this location. The nine-year mean  
374 PM<sub>10</sub> concentration at the AQS site (31.6  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) is slightly higher than at the IMPROVE site  
375 (28.2  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) due to the different sampling frequency and methods. Another advantage of  
376 AQS/AirNow observations over those at the IMPROVE sites is that they are timely made  
377 available. IMPROVE fine soil particles demonstrate the similar temporal variability to  
378 IMPROVE PM<sub>10</sub> with a correlation coefficient  $r$  of  $\sim 0.8$ . To explore the inter-annual variability  
379 of PM<sub>10</sub> in dust seasons (spring-summer) at this site, we calculated the anomalies for each  
380 variable in each year (Figure 4b). Similar to the results from satellite observations, the inter-  
381 annual variability of surface PM observations are anti-correlated with regional soil wetness and  
382 vegetation cover. Inconsistency exists among the anomalies of these three variables, due to  
383 different sampling methods and densities, and also because the particle size distributions depend  
384 on soil wetness (Li and Zhang, 2014). Due to the different observation methods, uncertainties,

385 and sampling strategies (spatial and temporal), the anomalies of surface PM concentrations are  
386 more consistent with (i.e., whether >1 or <1) those of the MODIS DOD only in several  
387 significantly wet or dry years (i.e., 2005, 2007, 2010, 2011).

388

### 389 3.3. *Phoenix dust events in 2007 identified by hourly surface observations*

390 We take the dry and dusty year of Dec 2006-Nov 2007 (Figure 4b) as an example to introduce a  
391 novel approach of identifying dust events using hourly observations. We first calculated the  
392 seasonal averages of PM10 and wind speed in Phoenix based on the AQS PM10 and AZMET  
393 wind speed observations. It is shown that in this year dominant westerly and easterly winds in  
394 spring and summer times carried much PM10 to Phoenix (Figure S2), whereas most PM10 in  
395 autumn and winter time came from the north and east. Hourly mean wind speed is highly  
396 correlated with the hourly maximum wind speed ( $r=0.95$ , slope $\approx-0.5$ ), and stronger winds were  
397 observed during spring and summer (Figure S3). Two steps followed to identify the individual  
398 dust events. In the first step, any period that PM10 and wind speed exceeded the seasonal mean  
399 values for no shorter than 2 hours (the lower end of dust storm duration in the western US  
400 reported by Lei and Wang, 2014) are defined as a dusty period. The second step screened the  
401 dust events selected in the first step using their median values of PM10 ( $55 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) and  
402 PM2.5/PM10 ( $\sim 0.2$ ) as lower and upper thresholds, and therefore relied on data availability of  
403 both PM2.5 and PM10. After these two steps of selection, 29 high dust periods are found as  
404 denoted in Figure S4 on Dec 7, 10, 27; Mar 27; Apr 8, 11 (twice), 12 (twice), 16, 18, 20; Jul 19,  
405 28, 30; Aug 13-14, 19, 20, 24, 25; Sep 4, 5, 7, 15, 19; Oct 5, 13, 16; and Nov 15. Around 76% of  
406 these events lasted for no longer than 5 hours, consistent with the findings by Lei and Wang  
407 (2014) that the majority of the exceptional dust storms in Arizona during 2003-2012 lasted for 2-

408 5 hours mainly due to meso- or small-scale weather systems (e.g., thunderstorms, convections  
409 along dry lines, gusty winds caused by high pressure systems). Hourly PM10 during these high  
410 dust periods ranged from 57-8540  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , with PM2.5/PM10 ratio between  $\sim 0.07$  and  $\sim 0.2$ , and  
411 PM2.5 was highly correlated with PM10 during these periods ( $r > 0.9$ ). In Apr-May 2007, the  
412 Pacific Dust Experiment (PACDEX) was carried out to study dust emission and transport from  
413 Asia (Stith et al., 2009). The University of Iowa STEM chemical transport model tracer  
414 calculations (<http://data.eol.ucar.edu/codiac/dss/id=96.013>) estimated dust to be  $\sim 2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  in  
415 average (and not exceeding  $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  during transport events) at  $\sim 5.3$  km in Arizona during this  
416 period, which can serve as the upper limit of extra-regional dust impacts on the surface PM  
417 concentrations. During our identified dust events, PM10 concentrations were much higher than  
418 this magnitude and therefore they were mainly due to the impact from local dust emissions.

419  
420 The identified high dust periods were validated using the hourly AQS trace gas observations.  
421 Figure S5 includes the scatterplots of AQS CO and NO<sub>x</sub> over the PM10 measurements at the  
422 Phoenix JLG AQS site. Two distinct slopes are shown in both scatterplots, representing the times  
423 mainly affected by anthropogenic/biomass burning sources and dust. PM10 values during most  
424 of the identified dust events fall into the flat legs in these scatterplots. Using PM2.5/PM10 as an  
425 additional constraint (as suggested in Tong et al., 2012 and Lei and Wang, 2014) in the second  
426 step of selection excluded some less strong events interfered by anthropogenic/biomass burning  
427 emission sources, but possibly also some real dust events. After the second step of selection,  
428 higher-than-median CO or NO<sub>x</sub> values were observed at only  $\sim 10\%$  of the identified dust times.  
429 In addition, AQS qualifier codes provide useful information for interpreting the event types: e.g.,

430 the “IJ” and “RJ” flags (<https://aqs.epa.gov/aqsweb/codes/data/QualifierCodes.html>) inform that  
431 July 19-20 was a high wind event.

432

433 Independent IMPROVE and satellite observations can also assist validating these identified dust  
434 events. IMPROVE observations were only available on ~29% of these identified dusty days (Dec  
435 7, 10; Apr 12, 18; Aug 13, 19, 25; Sep 15), and they were more likely to be able to indicate  
436 exceptionally strong and long-lasting events due to the 24 hour sampling duration. Tong et al.  
437 (2012) reported two strong dust storm events at the PHOE1 IMPROVE site (~Apr 12; ~Jul 20)  
438 using total PM concentrations and its speciation, both of which were also captured by our  
439 method. In addition, ~48% of the days impacted by strong blowing dust were possibly captured  
440 by MODIS (i.e., dust events occurred during 9-15 local times: Dec 10; Mar 27; Apr 11, 12, 16,  
441 18, 20; Jul 19, 30; Sep 7, 15; Nov 15). To further demonstrate the advantages of using frequently  
442 sampled observations for capturing dust events, we plotted the time of occurrence of these  
443 AQS/AZMET-based dust periods in Phoenix for this year (Figure 5a). Dust events occurred  
444 more frequently during Aqua overpassing times than during the Terra overpasses, consistent with  
445 the findings from Figure 2. Most of these dusty events occurred at 15-21 local times, when winds  
446 were stronger (also in Figure 4a) and the soil was drier (by looking at NAM soil moisture at the  
447 top soil layer in recent years, not shown), rather than at MODIS overpassing times from late  
448 morning to early afternoon times. Similar long-term diurnal variability of the dust event  
449 occurrence has been found in Utah based on analyzing weather code (Hahnenberger and Nicoll,  
450 2012). Therefore, current polar orbiting satellites are unable to observe all dust events, and the  
451 hourly sampling frequency of the future geostationary satellites can help better capture dust

452 events together with the surface monitoring network. Such conclusions were also drawn by  
453 Schepanski et al. (2012) for the African dust source regions.

454  
455 We classified PM mass by wind direction observed at Phoenix AZMET site, which indicates the  
456 dominant westerly/southwesterly winds at the Phoenix high dust times. Further, based on the  
457 NARR meteorology, HYSPLIT airmass trajectories were originated from 500 m above the  
458 ground level (a.g.l.) of Phoenix at the identified dusty periods to locate the origins of Phoenix  
459 dust episodes and indicate the regional transport patterns. The endpoints of these HYSPLIT back  
460 trajectories are overlaid on the MODIS land classification map (Figure 5b), showing that most of  
461 the transported dust particles were at the shrublands or deserts (primarily Sonoran, also  
462 Chihuahuan) 0-12 h before arriving in urban Phoenix areas at below ~900 hPa. This is consistent  
463 with the finding from Figures 3 and S1 that barren and sparsely vegetated open shrubland are the  
464 major contributors to the dust productive areas in 2007.

465  
466 *3.4. Case study of a recent strong dust event accompanied by stratospheric ozone intrusion*

467 Multiple satellites identified a recent dust event (May 10-11, 2014) in the western US: As  
468 described by NOAA's HMS text product  
469 (<http://www.ssd.noaa.gov/PS/FIRE/DATA/SMOKE/2014/2014E111659.html>;  
470 <http://www.ssd.noaa.gov/PS/FIRE/DATA/SMOKE/2014/2014E120143.html>), dust was  
471 originated in the southern California. Its swept across northern Baja California and Arizona, and  
472 then entered New Mexico after cold-frontal boundary and impacted Texas, Oklahoma and  
473 Kansas. We evaluated the current NAQFC PM<sub>2.5</sub> (a standard NAQFC air quality modeling  
474 product) forecasting skill during this event and assessed the impact of dust emission on the

475 regional air quality based on model sensitivity analysis. The NAQFC 12 km CMAQ base  
476 simulation produced 24 h mean PM<sub>2.5</sub> over 50 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in western Arizona and >15 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in  
477 southwestern Arizona on May 11, 2014 (Figure 6a). Sensitivity analysis using the base and no-  
478 dust simulations indicates that over 50 µg/m<sup>3</sup> of hourly PM<sub>2.5</sub> during this event were contributed  
479 from dust emissions in populated urban regions in Arizona (such as Phoenix in the Maricopa  
480 county and Tucson in the Pima county), and in average, dust contributed to >70% of the total  
481 PM<sub>2.5</sub> in most Arizona grid cells (Figure 6b).

482  
483 The modeled PM<sub>2.5</sub> was evaluated mainly for the Maricopa and Pima counties in Arizona where  
484 both IMPROVE and AirNow observations were available during this event. Time series of  
485 observed and modeled PM<sub>2.5</sub> are shown in Figures 6c-d. AirNow observations indicate daily  
486 maxima to be over 100 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in Maricopa (at ~8 am) and over 50 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in Pima (at ~2 pm),  
487 with PM<sub>2.5</sub>/PM<sub>10</sub> ratios at the dusty hours below 0.2 (not shown). Both the model and  
488 observations show significant temporal variability (standard deviations), indicating the  
489 advantages of the AirNow data for capturing the extremely high PM concentrations during the  
490 dust events. The model was fairly well correlated with the observations (with median/high  
491 correlation coefficients of 0.7-0.9, Table 2). CMAQ underpredicted the daily maxima in Maricopa  
492 by a factor of ~2 with a 2-hour lag, while slightly overpredicted them in Pima with the right  
493 timing. PM was measured at more AirNow sites than at the IMPROVE sites in both counties on  
494 this day. The observed 24 h mean concentration at the AirNow sites was lower than at the  
495 IMPROVE sites in Maricopa, but those in Pima were close. This can be mainly due to the  
496 different sampling areas that AirNow and IMPROVE networks cover. The model underpredicted

497 the 24 h mean values in both counties, with more significant negative biases in Maricopa than in  
498 Pima.

499

500 This dust event was accompanied by stratospheric ozone intrusion, as shown from a RAQMS  
501 model simulation that assimilated ozone columns from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument and  
502 ozone profiles from the Microwave Limb Sounder, as well as the AIRS satellite products  
503 (Figures 7 and S6). Descending dry air containing rich ozone enhanced the surface ozone  
504 concentrations in the eastern Arizona and New Mexico at late morning and early afternoon times,  
505 when dust was strongly impacting the similar locations. Observed surface ozone at Petrified  
506 Forest National Park in eastern Arizona (AQS/AirNow site # 040170119) at this time exceeded  
507 65 ppbv. However, the current NAQFC CMAQ modeling system is unable to capture the  
508 exceptionally high ozone during stratospheric intrusion episodes, as the CMAQ lateral boundary  
509 conditions were downscaled from monthly-mean GEOS-Chem simulation in 2006, and no upper  
510 boundary conditions were used.

511

#### 512 **4. Conclusions and suggestions**

513 We developed dust records in Arizona in 2005-2013 using multiple observation datasets,  
514 including the MODIS level 2 deep blue aerosol product and in-situ measurements at the surface  
515 AQS and IMPROVE sites in Phoenix. Both satellite and surface aerosol observations were anti-  
516 correlated with three drought indicators (i.e., NDVI, soil moisture, and PDSI). Dust events were  
517 stronger and more frequent in the afternoon times than in the morning due to stronger winds and  
518 drier soil, and Sonoran and Chihuahuan deserts are important dust source regions during  
519 identified dust events in Phoenix. These findings suggest a potential for use of satellite soil

520 moisture and land products to interpret and predict dust activity. We also emphasized the  
521 importance of using hourly observations for the better representation of the dust events, and  
522 expect the hourly geostationary satellite observations in the future to complement the current  
523 surface PM and meteorological observations considering their broader spatial coverage.  
524 Continued development of products from the polar-orbiting satellites is also important, in that  
525 they can provide higher spatial resolution observations for each swath due to their lower orbit  
526 level. Future efforts should also be devoted to better characterizing and attributing the observed  
527 dust, by integrating additional satellite measurements (such as ammonia as shown in Ginoux et  
528 al., 2012b) and in-situ measurements of trace gases and aerosol compositions.

529  
530 In a case study, we evaluated the capability of current NAQFC CMAQ modeling system to  
531 capture the magnitude of aerosol concentrations and its temporal variability during a recent dust  
532 event. Sensitivity simulations from this modeling system assessed the impact of this dust event  
533 on western US air quality, and showed that dust contributed to >70% of the total PM<sub>2.5</sub> in  
534 Arizona on average. Satellite weather and land products are currently being integrated into dust  
535 emission modeling for future improvement in NAQFC's PM forecasting skill. Finally, we  
536 showed that this recent dust event was accompanied by stratospheric ozone intrusion, and we  
537 emphasized the importance of representing both PM and ozone well under such conditions.

538

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548

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## 974 Tables

975 Table 1. Data used in this study<sup>a</sup>

Data type	Sensor or Network	Variable	Temporal resolution	Location this study focuses	Data source and reference
Surface conditions/drought indicators (Section 2.1-2.2)	Aqua MODIS	satellite NDVI	monthly	AZ	<a href="https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset_discovery/modis/modis_products_table/myd13a3">https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset_discovery/modis/modis_products_table/myd13a3</a>
	ESA/CCI	satellite soil moisture	daily	AZ	<a href="http://www.esa-soilmoisture-cci.org/">http://www.esa-soilmoisture-cci.org/</a>
	PDSI	drought index	monthly	Southwestern AZ	<a href="http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/temp-and-precip/drought/historical-palmers.php">http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/temp-and-precip/drought/historical-palmers.php</a>
	Terra & Aqua MODIS	satellite land cover type	yearly	Western US	<a href="https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset_discovery/modis/modis_products_table/mcd12q1">https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset_discovery/modis/modis_products_table/mcd12q1</a>
Aerosol observations (Section 2.3)	Terra & Aqua MODIS	satellite AOD (deep blue algorithm)	by swath, ~twice/day in the late morning and early afternoon	AZ	<a href="http://ladsweb.nascom.nasa.gov/data/">http://ladsweb.nascom.nasa.gov/data/</a>
	IMPROVE	in-situ PM	24h average, every three days	Phoenix, AZ	<a href="http://views.cira.colostate.edu/fed/DataWizard/Default.aspx">http://views.cira.colostate.edu/fed/DataWizard/Default.aspx</a>
	AQS & AirNow	in-situ PM	hourly	Phoenix, AZ	<a href="http://www.epa.gov/ttn/airs/airsaqs/detaildata/downloadaqsddata.htm">http://www.epa.gov/ttn/airs/airsaqs/detaildata/downloadaqsddata.htm</a> ; <a href="http://www.epa.gov/airnow/2013">www.epa.gov/airnow/2013</a>
	NOAA HMS	satellite dust and smoke detection	several times/day	Western US	<a href="http://www.ssd.noaa.gov/PS/FIRE/smoke.html">http://www.ssd.noaa.gov/PS/FIRE/smoke.html</a>
Meteorological observations (Section 2.4)	Aqua AIRS	satellite daytime dust score	daily	Western US	<a href="https://earthdata.nasa.gov/labs/worldview/">https://earthdata.nasa.gov/labs/worldview/</a>
	AZMET	in-situ wind	hourly	Phoenix, AZ	<a href="http://ag.arizona.edu/azmet/index.html">http://ag.arizona.edu/azmet/index.html</a>

Models (Section 2.5-2.6)	HYSPLIT w/ NARR meteorology	trajectory endpoints	hourly	Western US	<a href="http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php">http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php</a>
	NAM (12 km)	meteorology	hourly (for NAQFC)	Western US	<a href="http://www.emc.ncep.noaa.gov/mmb/mmbpll/opsnam/">http://www.emc.ncep.noaa.gov/mmb/mmbpll/opsnam/</a>
	FENGSHA	dust emissions	hourly	Western US	Tong et al., 2015
	GEOS-Chem (4°×5°)	various species	monthly (2006)	Global	<a href="http://www.geos-chem.org/">http://www.geos-chem.org/</a> ; <a href="http://acmg.seas.harvard.edu/geos/geos_chem_narrative.html">http://acmg.seas.harvard.edu/geos/geos_chem_narrative.html</a> ; Barrett et al., 2012
	NAQFC CMAQ (12 km)	PM2.5	hourly	Western US	Chai et al., 2013; Pan et al., 2014
	RAQMS (1°)	daytime ozone, relative humidity	6 hourly	Western US	<a href="http://raqms-ops.ssec.wisc.edu/">http://raqms-ops.ssec.wisc.edu/</a>
Trace gas observatio ns (Section 2.3, 2.7)	AQS	in-situ NO <sub>x</sub> and CO	hourly	Phoenix, AZ	<a href="http://www.epa.gov/ttn/airs/airsaqs/detaildata/downloadaqsdta.htm">http://www.epa.gov/ttn/airs/airsaqs/detaildata/downloadaqsdta.htm</a>
	Aqua AIRS	daytime ozone and CO profiles	daily	Western US	<a href="http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/">http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/</a>

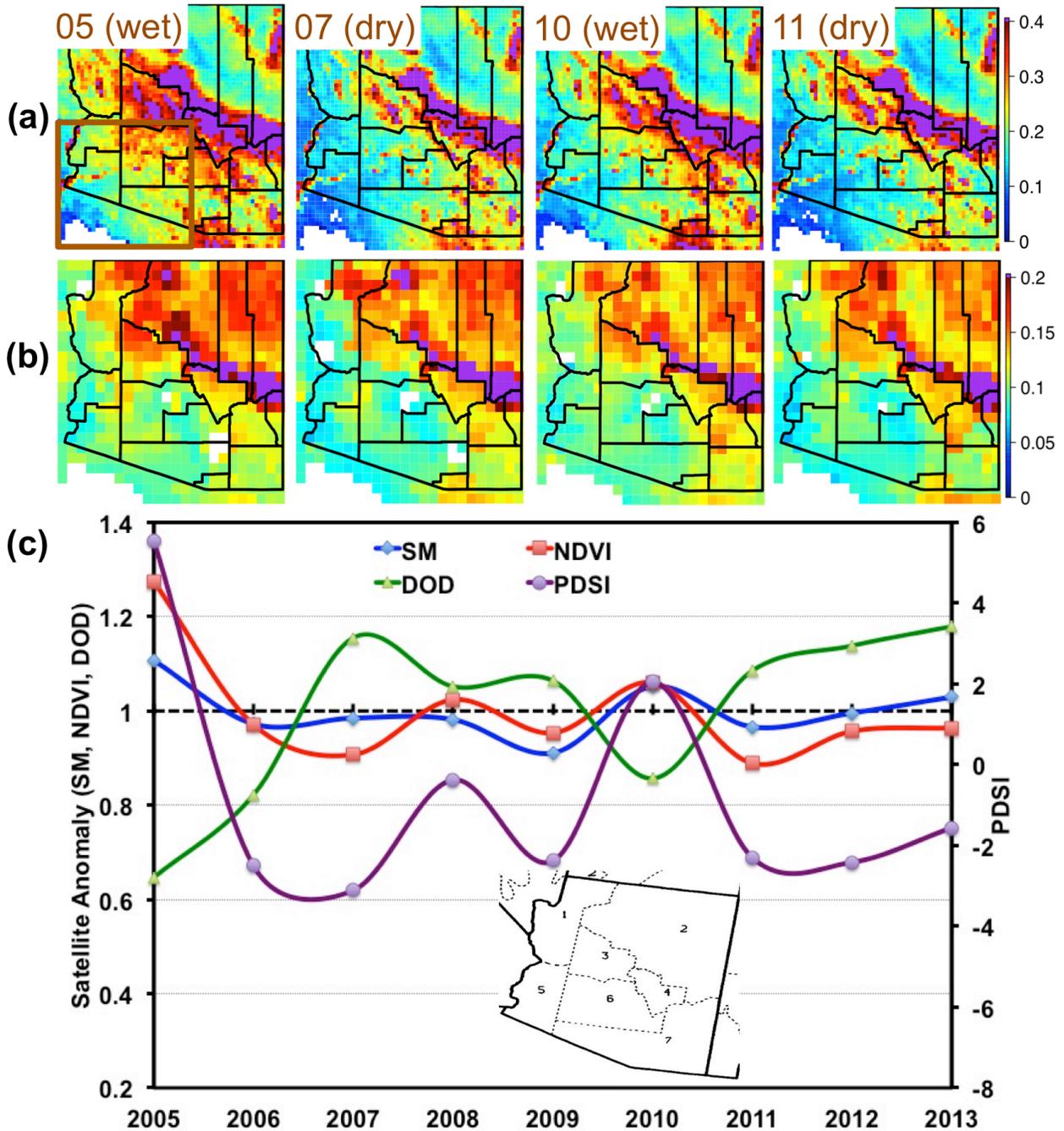
976 <sup>a</sup>Acronyms in alphabetical order:  
 AIRS: Atmospheric Infrared Sounder  
 AOD: Aerosol Optical Depth  
 AQS: Air Quality System  
 AZ: Arizona  
 AZMET: Arizona Meteorological Network  
 CMAQ: Community Multi-scale Air Quality  
 CO: carbon monoxide  
 ESA/CCI: European Satellite Agency/Climate Change Initiative  
 HMS: Hazard Mapping System

HYSPLIT: Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory  
IMPROVE: Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments  
MODIS: Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer  
NAM: North American Mesoscale Forecast System  
NARR: North America Regional Reanalysis  
NAQFC: National Air Quality Forecasting Capability  
NDVI: Normalized Difference Vegetation Index  
NOAA: National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration  
NO<sub>x</sub>: oxides of nitrogen  
PDSI: Palmer Drought Severity Index  
PM: Particulate matter  
RAQMS: Realtime Air Quality Modeling System

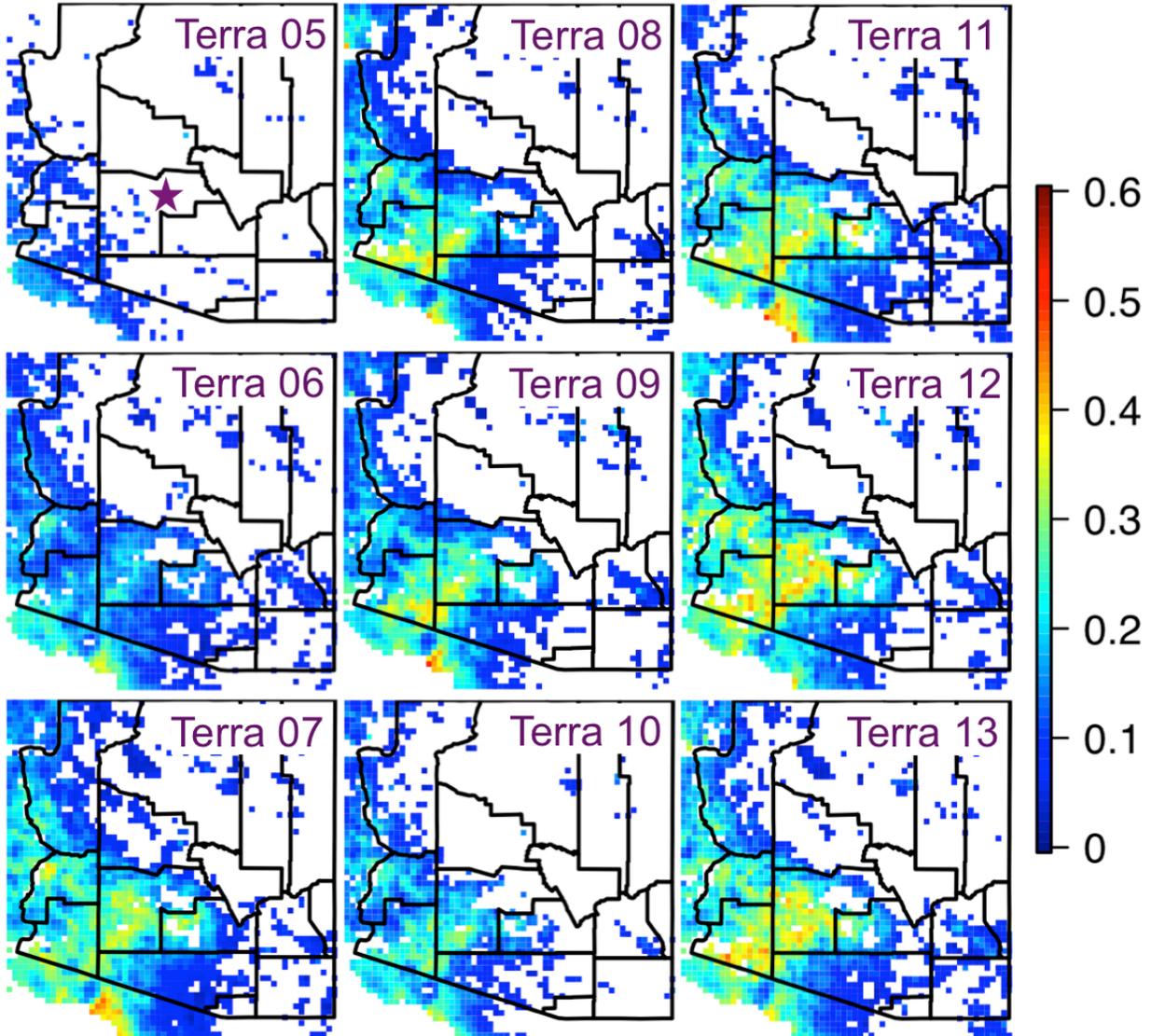
950 **Table 2. Evaluation of NAQFC CMAQ PM2.5 prediction during a recent dust storm**  
 951 **event on May 11, 2014**

<b>County in Arizona</b>	<b>Site Type</b>	<b># of sites</b>	<b>Observed PM2.5<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>Modeled PM2.5<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>Correlation coefficient (observed vs. modeled)</b>
<b>Maricopa</b>	AirNow	8	23.7 ± 37.6	9.6 ± 16.2	0.7
	IMPROVE	2	33.7	9.5	/
<b>Pima</b>	AirNow	5	16.7 ± 12.6	10.9 ± 15.8	0.9
	IMPROVE	2	16.3	13.8	/

952 <sup>a</sup>unit in µg/m<sup>3</sup>; mean ± standard deviation during this 24 h period shown for the AirNow results

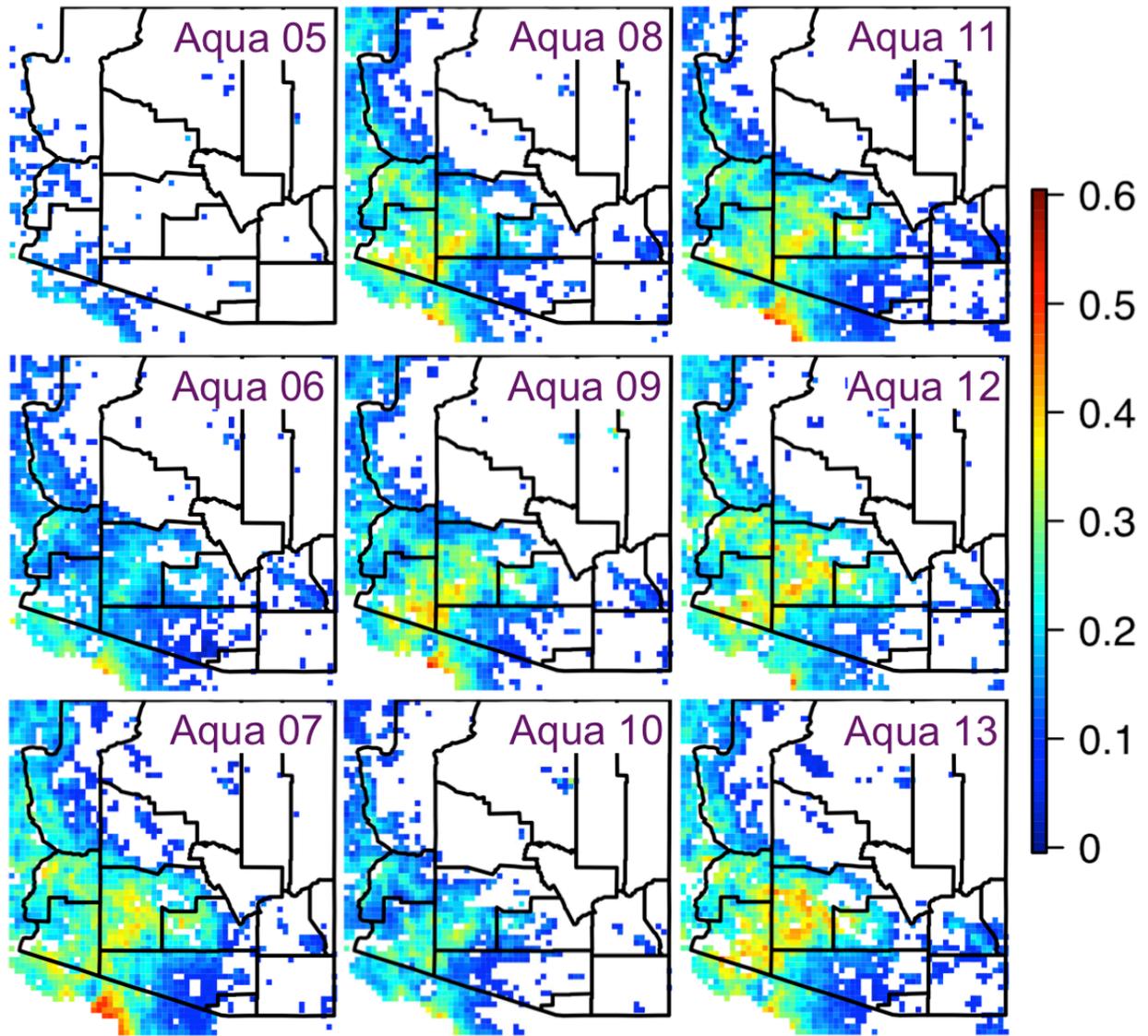


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 955 **Figure 1.** Inter-annual variability of drought indicators in dust seasons: (a) MODIS NDVI on  
 956  $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$  horizontal resolution and (b) ESA multi-sensor soil moisture (SM) product on  
 957  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$  resolution are shown on selected moderate-to-severe dry and wet years. The text in  
 958 the upper left corner of each panel indicates the year of data. (c) Time series of PDSI and the  
 959 anomalies (i.e., the annual mean value over the multi-year mean value) of satellite SM, NDVI  
 960 and Aqua MODIS DOD. The anomalies of satellite data were calculated using data within the  
 961 box defined in (a). The inner panel in (c) shows the NOAA climate divisions, and PDSI values in  
 962 the South West (region 5) and South Central (region 6) regions were used in the time series plot.  
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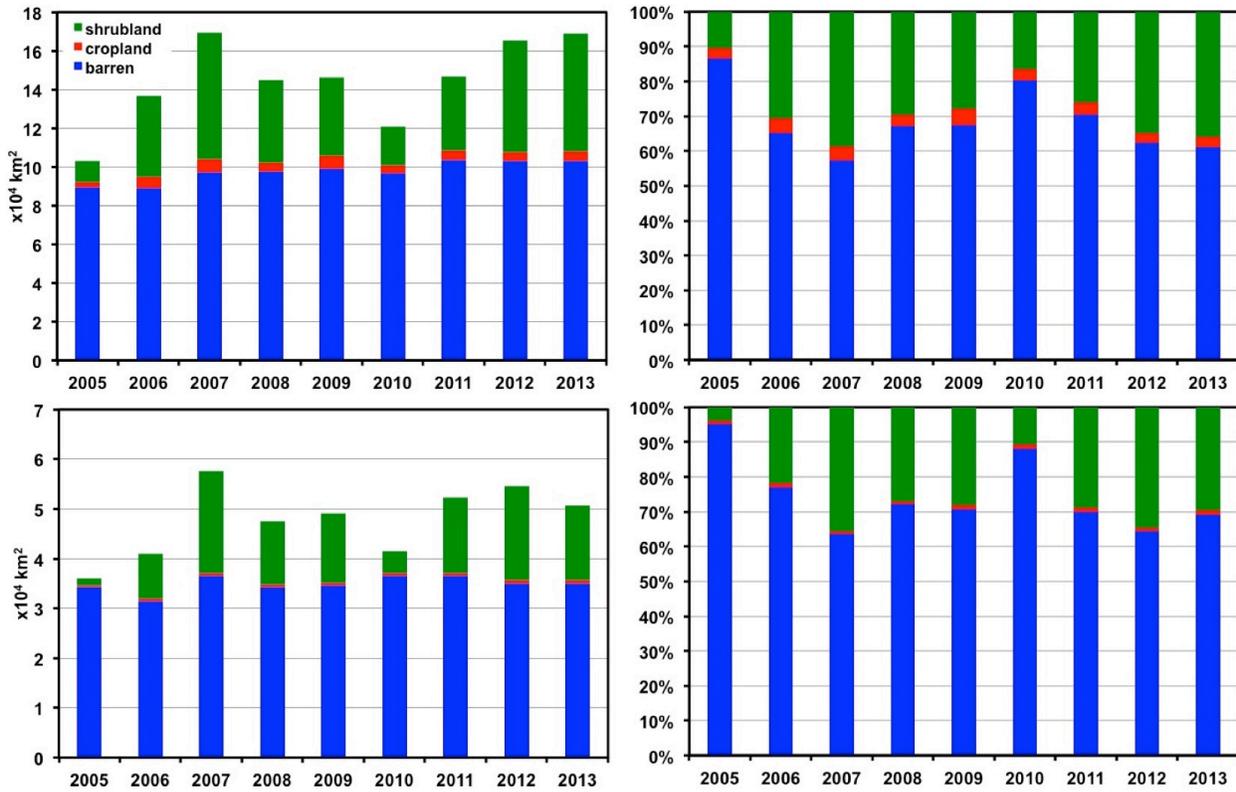
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**Figure 2a.** DOD maps (in  $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$  horizontal resolution) in dust seasons from Terra MODIS and during 2005-2013. Data are plotted only for the grids that DOD data are available on 5% of the total number of days in each year (defined as “areas of dust impact”). The purple star in the upper left panel of (a) indicates the location of Phoenix.

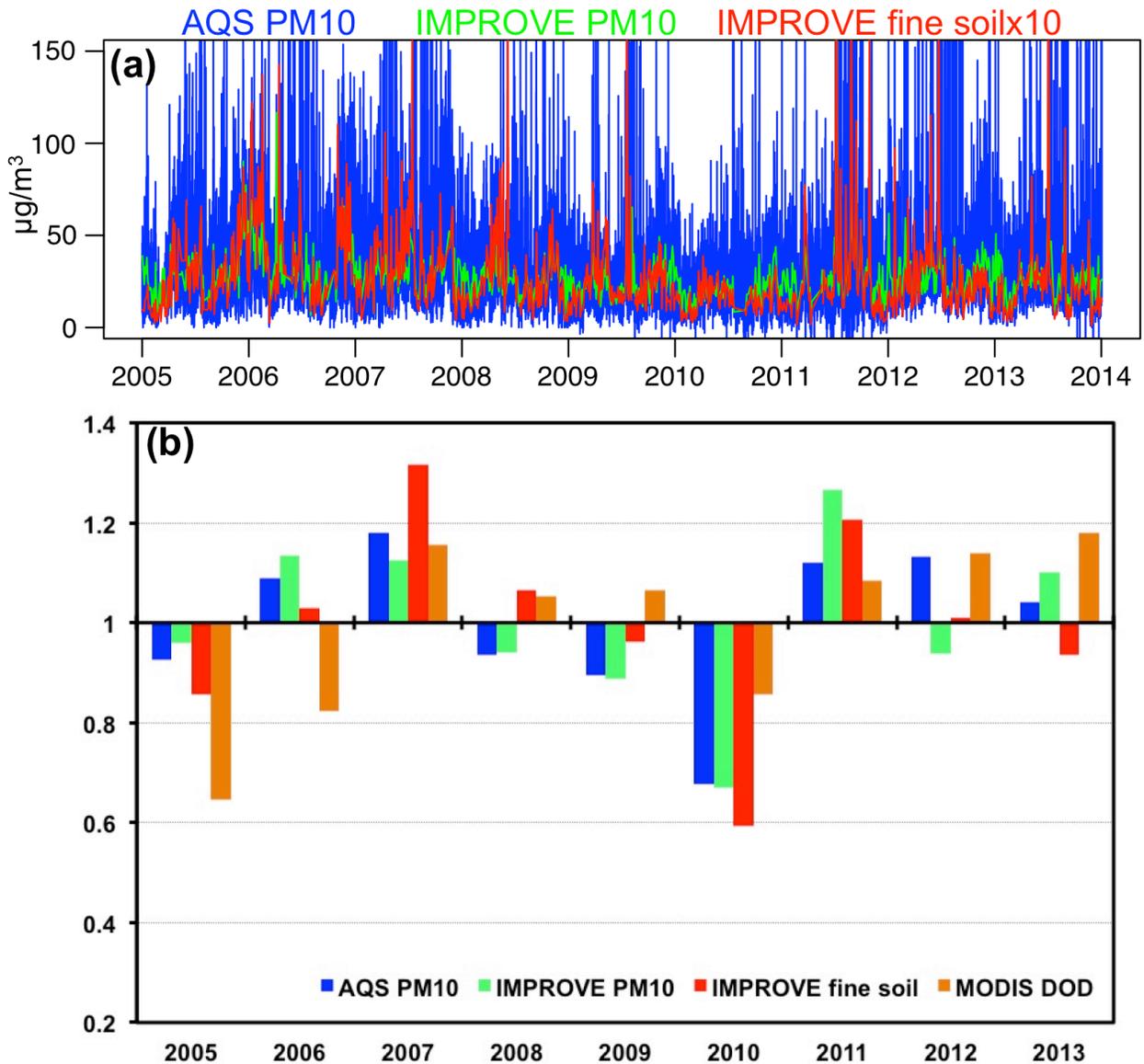


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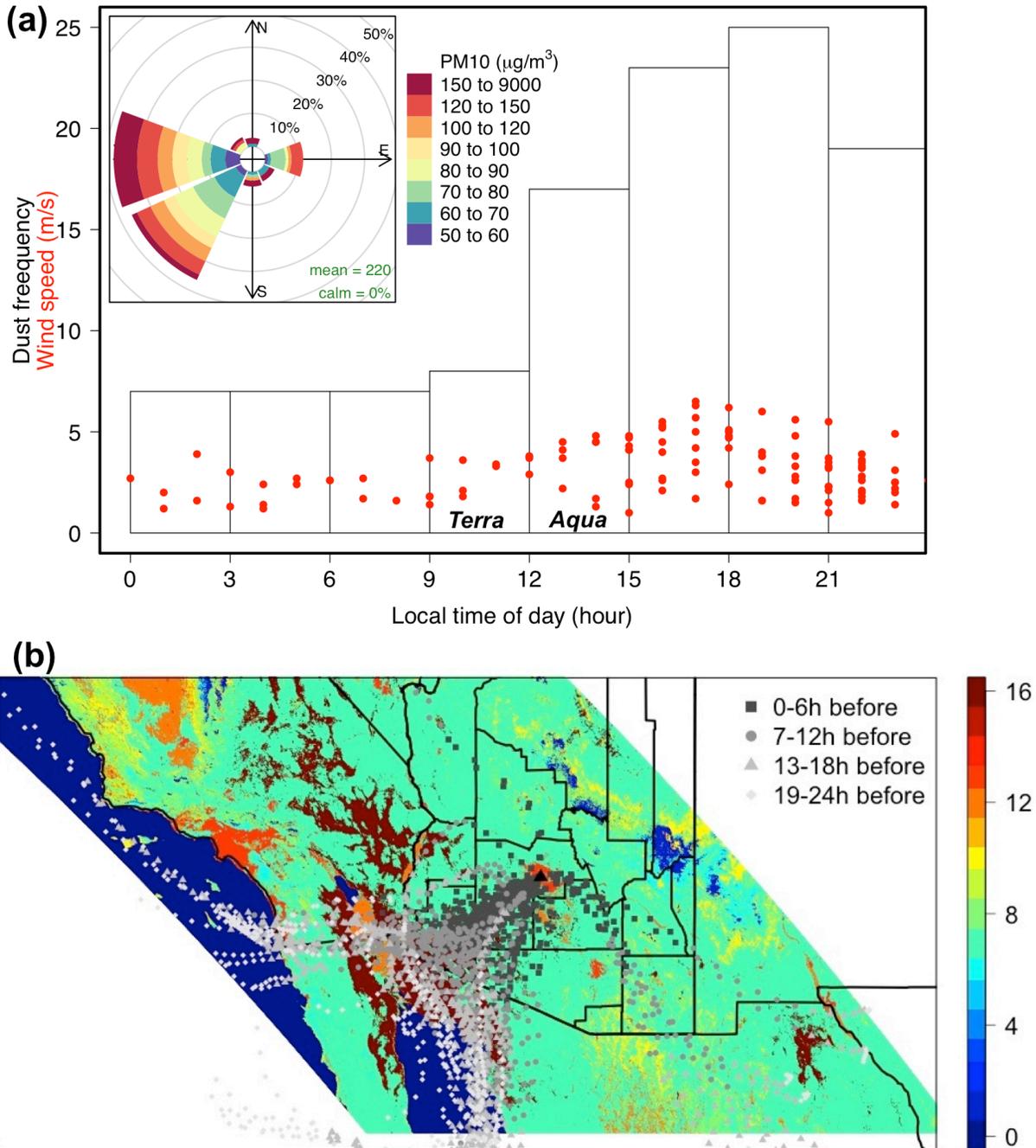
**Figure 2b.** Same as Figure 2a, but for Aqua MODIS.



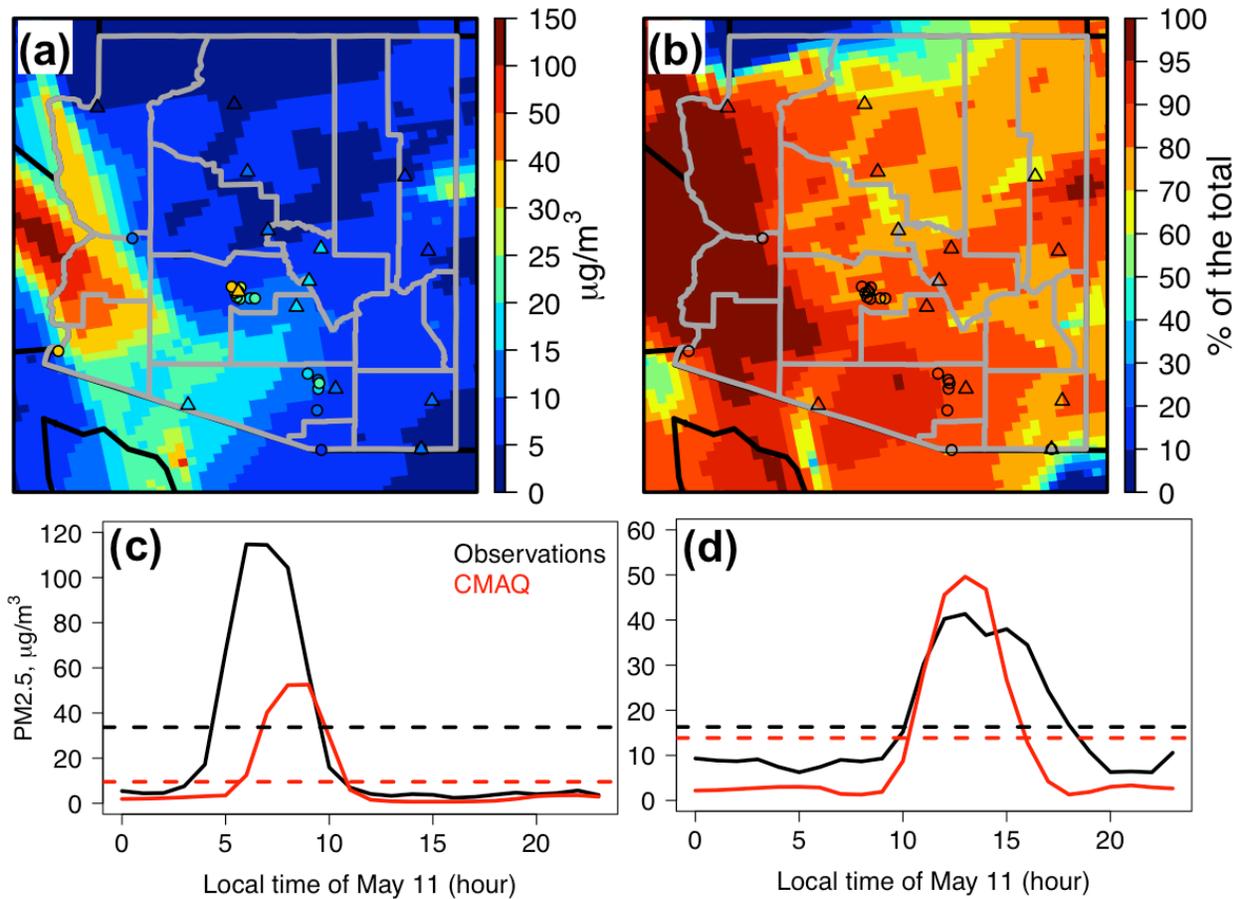
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 972 **Figure 3.** MODIS-derived dust sources over the western US (from the MODIS tile grid  
 973 horizontal 8/vertical 5, defined in Figure S1) and in the southwestern US (lower, defined as the  
 974 region within the box in Figure 1a), during dust seasons in 2005-2013. The absolute source areas  
 975 for three types of land cover are shown in the left column and the contributions (%) from  
 976 individual land cover types to the total source areas are shown in the right column.



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 978 **Figure 4.** Time series of surface PM data at AQS and IMPROVE sites in Phoenix. These  
 979 observations are shown in their original temporal resolution in (a), and their anomalies in each  
 980 year's dust season are shown in (b), along with the Aqua MODIS DOD anomalies (i.e., the  
 981 annual mean value over the multi-year mean value).

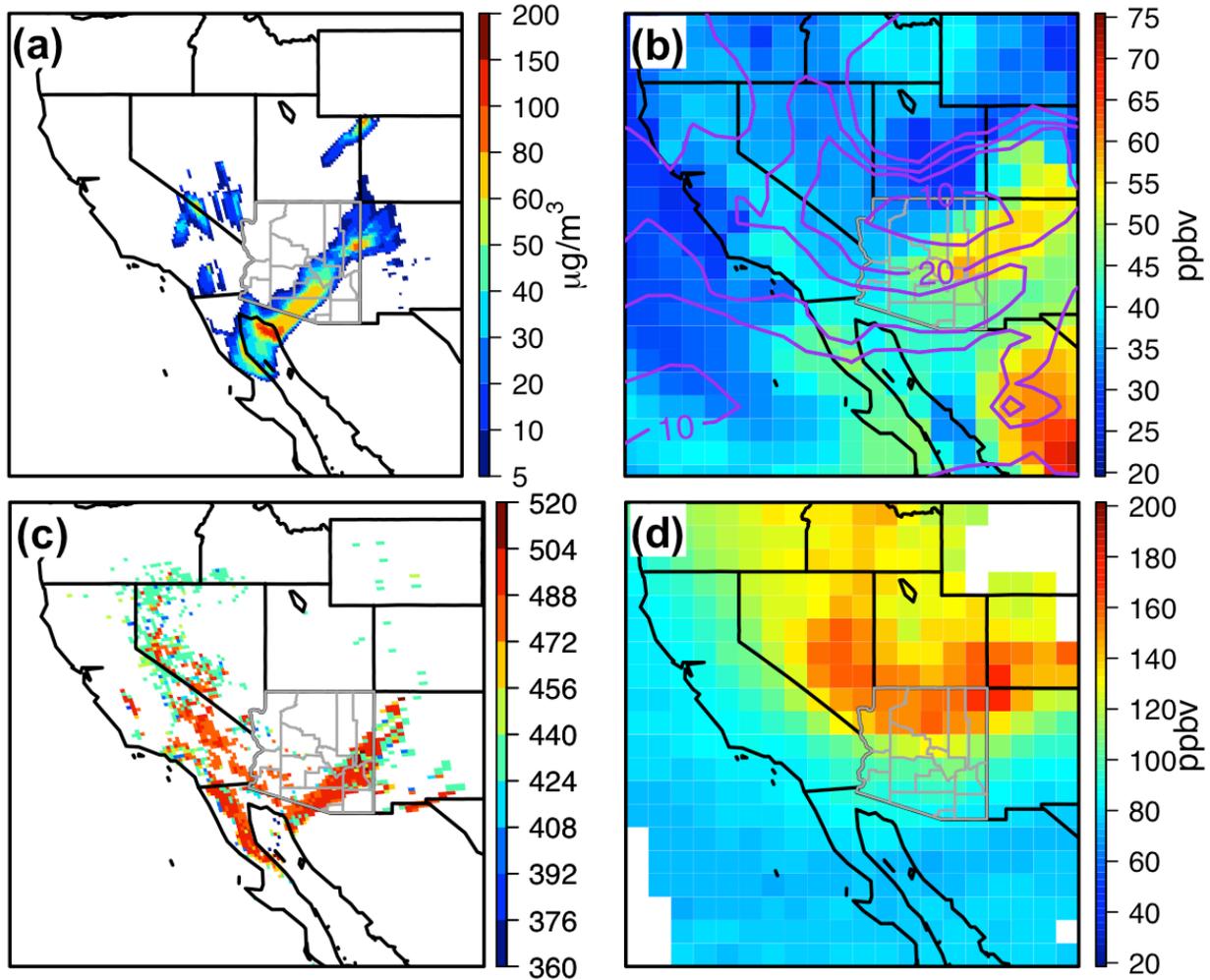


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 983 **Figure 5.** (a) Frequency of identified dust storms in Phoenix in 2007 as a function of the time of  
 984 occurrence. Hourly mean wind speed ( $\sim$ half of the hourly maximum, with correlation coefficient  
 985 of  $\sim$ 0.93) during these dust storms is shown in red dot, and the inner panel shows the frequencies  
 986 of PM10 within various concentration intervals by wind direction during these dust storms. (b)  
 987 Hourly HYSPLIT endpoints colored by four time intervals, overlaid on a 500 m MODIS land  
 988 cover type image. The MODIS land cover types mentioned in the text and their corresponding  
 989 numbers are: Barren or sparsely vegetated: 16; Urban and built-up: 13; open shrublands: 7;  
 990 Cropland: 12; Cropland/native vegetation: 14  
 991 (Source: [https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset\\_discovery/modis/modis\\_products\\_table/mcd12q1](https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/dataset_discovery/modis/modis_products_table/mcd12q1)).



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**Figure 6.** (a) NAQFC 12 km CMAQ modeled 24 h mean surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> on May 11, 2014, with the AirNow (circles) and IMPROVE (triangles) observations overlaid. (b) CMAQ modeled dust contributions (%) to the total PM<sub>2.5</sub> on this day. Locations of AirNow (circles) and IMPROVE (triangles) are shown. Observed (black) and modeled (red) surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> in (c) Maricopa and (d) Pima counties on this day, at AQS (solid lines) and IMPROVE (dash lines) sites.



998  
 999 **Figure 7.** (a) CMAQ modeled dust contributions to PM2.5 and (b) RAQMS modeled surface  
 1000 ozone at 11 Mountain Standard Time on May 11, 2014. The purple contour lines in (b) indicate  
 1001 RAQMS relative humidity (%) at the upper troposphere (~300 hPa). The AIRS (c) dust score and  
 1002 (d) daytime (early afternoon overpassing time) ozone concentrations at 300 hPa. Following the  
 1003 criteria at: <http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/nrt/data-holdings/airs-nrt-products>, the dust score values  
 1004 below 360 were rejected.